

1 **Contribution of flow conditions and sand addition on hyporheic zone exchange in gravel beds**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 We conducted a series of tracer test experiments in 12 outdoor semi-natural flumes to assess the
17 effects of variable flow conditions and sand addition on hyporheic zone conditions in gravel beds,
18 mimicking conditions in headwater streams under sediment pressure. Two tracer methods were
19 applied in each experiment: 2-5 tracer-pulse tests were conducted in all flumes and pulses were
20 monitored at three distances downstream of the flume inlet (0 m, 5 m and 10 m, at bed surface), and
21 in pipes installed into the gravel bed at 5 m and 10 m distances. The tracer breakthrough curves (total
22 of 120 tracer injections) were then analysed with a one-dimensional solute transport model (OTIS)
23 and compared with data from the gravel pipes in point-dilution pulse tests. Sand addition had a strong

24 negative effect on horizontal fluxes (q_h), whereas the fraction of the median travel time due to
25 transient storage (F_{200}) was determined more by flow conditions. These results suggest that even small
26 additions of sand can modify the hyporheic zone exchange in gravel beds, thus making headwater
27 streams with low sediment transport capacity particularly vulnerable to sediments transported into
28 the stream from catchment land use activities.

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30 Keywords: sediment, hydraulics, transient storage, flume, modelling, OTIS

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32 Highlights:

- 33 - Sand addition and flow conditions had interactive effects on horizontal fluxes
- 34 - Even small additions of sand can modify hyporheic zone exchange in gravel beds
- 35 - These findings can be used in controlling sedimentation in streams

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 Extensive input of sediments into aquatic habitats is a growing global concern (Relyea et al. 2012).
39 Land use practices such as agriculture, forestry and road construction increase the transport of fine
40 sediments, and potentially the deposition of sediments onto the streambed (Owens and Walling 2002).
41 Sediment transport is a natural process, but becomes harmful when exceeding the natural background
42 level (Wagenhoff et al. 2011). The impacts of increased sediment flux on riverine biota are typically
43 related to deposits rather than suspended material (Jones et al. 2012). In Finland, for example,
44 peatland drainage has led to erosion and increased transport of fines, resulting in the filling of even
45 entire channels of headwater streams (Marttila et al. 2012, Turunen et al. 2017).

46 Deposition, especially of fines, causes obstruction of gravel pore spaces and thus reduces
47 hyporheic zone exchange (Zimmerman and Lapointe 2005). The hyporheic zone is a porous layer of
48 the streambed affected by small-scale exchange between the stream water and shallow groundwater
49 (Harvey and Wagner 2000), and hyporheic zone exchange is a fundamental process for solute
50 transport in streams. The interstitial pore spaces within the gravel bed not only provide a key habitat
51 for many stream organisms, but are also essential for stream biogeochemical processes (Triska et al.
52 1993). The hyporheic zone is defined as a subset of features termed ‘transient storage zones’ where
53 water velocity is slower than in the advective flow of the main channel (Bencala and Walters 1983).
54 Differentiation of the hyporheic zone from other surface stores in the field is challenging (Harvey and
55 Wagner 2000; Runkel et al. 2003), and controlled conditions are therefore needed. Numerous studies
56 have addressed transient zone processes at the channel scale (eg. Choi et al. 2000; Wörman et al.
57 2002; Briggs et al. 2010), or studied effect of fine sediment infiltration or solute transport into
58 different streambed types (Einstein 1968; Packman and Brooks 2001; Packman et al. 1997).
59 Typically, these studies have focused on the effects of bed forms or pressure distribution along the
60 sediment-water interface on hyporheic exchange (Elliot and Brooks 1997; Savant et al. 1987).

61 Although the broad physical factors influencing hyporheic processes at the streambed interface
62 have been extensively studied (see review by Cardenas 2015 and reference therein), the coupling and
63 interactions between flow and additional sediment at the channel scale still remain little explored. At
64 the sediment-scale, hyporheic processes are controlled by fine-scale granulometric features (size,
65 shape, and composition of sediments) and interstitial flow patterns are a product of hydraulic gradient
66 and stream bed porosity (see review by Boulton et al. 1998 and references therein). Also depositional
67 effects of fine sediment on gravel beds have been studied at the sediment scale (Cui et al. 2008,
68 Schälchli 1992; Gibson et al. 2011), improving our understanding of the controlling factors in

69 hyporheic zone exchange. Increased fine sediment fractions among the bed material can for example
70 decrease the porosity and hydraulic conductivity of streambed (Cui et al. 2008) by clogging the
71 coarser bed material (Schälchli 1992). While the sediment-scale processes are rather well studied and
72 mathematically modelled, more research is still needed to determine the extent of sediment scale
73 hyporheic processes to channel scale hyporheic exchange.

74 Using controlled experiment and replicates (totally 120 tracer injections) we examined the
75 influences of different flow conditions and sediment depositions on hyporheic storage processes in
76 gravel beds. We expect that flow strongly influences hyporheic storage responses more, strongly in
77 low flow than in high flow, and deposited sediment interacts have different responses with flow
78 conditions. To calculate the effect of flow and addition of fine sand on hyporheic zone conditions,
79 we conducted a series of tracer experiments in flumes with different levels of flow and with or without
80 added sediment. We used two parameters: the proportion of flow affecting the transient storage
81 exchange (F_{200}) and horizontal average flux (q_h) inside the gravel bed to test if we observed i)
82 decreasing F_{200} but increasing q_h values with higher flow rates, and ii) reduced values for both
83 parameters with added sediments .

84

85 **2 Methods**

86 **2.1 Experimental set-up**

87 We conducted the experiment at Kainuu Fisheries Research Station, Paltamo, Finland, in autumn
88 2012, using 12 parallel 0.75 m wide and 12 m long artificial channels (here after flumes) supplied
89 with water from a nearby lake. All flumes had a 30 cm thick gravel/cobble bed ($d_{50}=23$ mm,
90 porosity=0.40) (Fig. 1) and the amount of inflow was controlled individually for each flume. The
91 gravel bed used represents the typical range of grain sizes for salmonid spawning beds (Louhi et al.

92 2008). Flume geometry was selected to mimic headwater streams suffering from sand siltation
93 (Marttila et al. 2012; Turunen et al. 2017). For more information about the experimental set-up, see
94 Mustonen et al. (2016).

95 We conducted two different experiments. In the first set (1) we used three different flow levels
96 with no added sediment. The applied flow levels were: i) low (2.6 L s^{-1} , mean depth: 0.04 m and mean
97 current velocity: 0.1 m s^{-1}), (ii) intermediate (18.2 L s^{-1} , 0.08 m and 0.3 m s^{-1}); and iii) high (67.4 L s^{-1} ,
98 0.15 m and 0.5 m s^{-1}). In the second set of experiments (2), the flow levels were as in experiment 1
99 (i)-(iii), but fine sediment (22 L m^{-2}) was distributed evenly across six randomly selected flumes.
100 Grain size for fine sediment ($d_{10}=0.4$, $d_{50}=1.1$ and $d_{90}= 3 \text{ mm}$) was selected to represent the typical
101 grain size observed in siltated small streams (Marttila et al. 2010). Sand addition generated
102 approximately 80% sediment cover (sediment thickness was 1-2 cm), corresponding to the amount
103 of sediment observed in streams that drain severely impacted catchments in NE Finland (Marttila et
104 al. 2010, Turunen et al. 2017). No additional transport of suspended sediment in the flumes was
105 observed during the experiment. During both experiments, current velocity (at $0.6 \times$ depth,
106 MiniWater@20, Schiltkecht, Switzerland) and water depth (cm) were measured at 21 points along
107 regular transects in each flume. Discharge was measured from weirs located at the end of each flume.

108 Hydraulic parameters and hyporheic storage within the gravel bed of each flume were measured
109 by injecting a conservative tracer (NaCl, 5% concentration) into the flumes. A 10-minute injection
110 pulse was added to the upper end of the flume. The change in electrical conductivity (EC) was
111 measured at 2 s intervals at 0 m, 5 m and 10 m downstream (logger installed in bed surface) and
112 inside the gravel at 5 and 10 m downstream using automatic EC dataloggers (Campbell Scientific
113 CR10X). The sensors in the gravel bed were installed at 15 cm depth within pipes with boreholes at
114 the lower 5 cm. To minimise random testing errors, all tracer tests were repeated 2-5 times as

115 individual tracer pulses and hydraulic parameters were calculated for each test using OTIS and
116 horizontal average flux (for details, see section 2.3). Each sensor was calibrated with flume water
117 and EC values were transformed to NaCl concentrations. After the flume pulse experiment, another
118 tracer pulse (NaCl) was injected in every borehole and the exponential decrease in concentration was
119 logged (see Käser et al. (2012) for assumptions of the method).

120

121 **2.3 Analyses of tracer pulse data**

122 *Injection pulse experiments*

123 Parameters from transient storage in the flumes were obtained by nonlinear regression using the
124 OTIS-P (here after OTIS) one-dimensional solute transport model (Runkel 1998). OTIS uses a finite-
125 difference model to solve paired partial differential equations describing solute transport in channels
126 (for more details, see <https://water.usgs.gov/software/OTIS/>). OTIS is widely used and has sufficient
127 flexibility to estimate transition and hyporheic zone changes in various riverine environments (Runkel
128 1998). Although the model only accounts for a single-storage zone, and thus cannot separate surface
129 transient storage and hyporheic transient storage exchange, it still offers a flexible tool to estimate
130 total transient storage change. For OTIS modelling we used measured data from measurement
131 locations at 0 m, 5 m and 10 m, where 0 m represented the upstream boundary conditions while data
132 from 5 m and 10 m locations were used for OTIS modelling.

133 We used OTIS to produce estimates of cross-sectional area (A , m^2), storage zone cross-sectional
134 area (A_s , m^2), dispersion coefficient (D , $m\ s^{-2}$) and storage zone exchange coefficient (α)
135 simultaneously using nonlinear regression. When performing nonlinear regression, the model run
136 were checked to achieve RSS and/or Parameter convergence, which guarantees parameter unique in
137 the modelling (<https://water.usgs.gov/software/OTIS/faq/#falsesing>). These estimates were used to

138 determine the fraction of the median travel time due to transient storage F_{200} (Equation 14 of Runkel,
139 2002). The F_{200} parameter reflects the interaction between advective velocity and transient storage.
140 For the purposes of comparing values of F_{200} from different flumes and experiments, we used reach
141 length of $L = 200$ m to standardize the values (Runkel, 2002); thus, all values reported are for F_{200} .

142

143 *Analysis of gravel pipe tracer data*

144 We used the horizontal average flux method developed by Hazell (1998, see Käser et al. 2012) and
145 adapted by Käser et al. (2012) to evaluate hyporheic zone conditions, with tracer curve data (point-
146 dilution) from loggers within the gravel bed. This method provides an estimate of the horizontal
147 average flux (q_h) in the hyporheic zone:

148

$$149 \quad q_h = -\frac{\pi r}{2t\alpha} \ln\left(\frac{C_t}{C_0}\right) \quad (1)$$

150

151 where t is time, C_0 is the peak tracer concentration after the injection minus the background
152 concentration, C_t is the tracer concentration at time t minus the background concentration, r is the
153 radius of the piezometer and α is an adjustment factor (set to 2 here). The slope $\ln(C_t/C_0)/t$ in equation
154 1 was calculated by simple linear regression. q_h was calculated for both measurement tubes, but we
155 did not observe any statistically significant differences between the upper and lower points. Thus we
156 used average values from both locations from individual tracer inputs. We used two-way Anova
157 (fitted with R function `aov`; R Core Team 2016) to test whether sand addition, flow conditions or their
158 interactions had effect on F_{200} and q_h values.

159

160 **3 Results and discussion**

161 To study whether addition of fine graded sediment and varying flow conditions change hydrodynamic
162 transient storage and infiltration to streambed interface, we evaluated these effects using two
163 independent measurements and calculations. F_{200} describes how large a proportion of flow is affecting
164 the transient storage exchange and it has been recommended for tracer pulse transient storage studies
165 (Runkel, 2002). Whereas, q_h measured directly from the gravel bed indicates horizontal average flux
166 inside the gravel bed. Both methods, transient storage modelling with OTIS model and salt dilution
167 test from gravel pipes, indicated that flow conditions and additional fine sediment in gravel beds
168 caused significant changes to hyporheic zone conditions (Figure 2). The results supported our first
169 hypothesis (Figure 3a) and flow conditions affected significantly the fraction of the median travel
170 time due to transient storage (F_{200}) ($F=9.470$, $p=0.004$) and the horizontal average flux (q_h) ($F=57.35$,
171 $p=0.000$). Especially F_{200} values at high flow conditions were lower than at low and medium flows,
172 indicating that during higher flows a smaller proportion of flow influenced transient storage exchange
173 between flow and gravel bed (Figure 3a). Our results support the earlier findings of the inverse
174 relationship between hyporheic residence and with flow rates (Saenger et al. 2005). In natural streams,
175 high flow conditions and high water velocity typically reduce the time for interaction between surface
176 and storage waters and thus reduce the relative storage size, whereas the opposite occurs during low
177 flow and low velocity conditions (Harvey and Bencala 1993). Unlike F_{200} , the horizontal average flux
178 (q_h) measured from gravel pipes increased notably with increasing flows (Figure 3a). Our results thus
179 indicate that flow conditions affect streambed interface processes in gravel beds, which is in
180 accordance with previous findings (Cardenas 2015).

181 Our working hypothesis was to find reduced transient storage values with added sediments.
182 Results with q_h supported our hypothesis and the addition of sand-sized sediment to gravel beds
183 caused a significant reduction of q_h (Figure 2b, $F=17.25$, $p=0.0000$), being 2 to 4 times smaller than

184 without added sediment (Table 1, Figure 3b). Only a small increase with increasing flow was
185 observed (Figure 2b). This result confirms that even minor additions of sand-sized particles can affect
186 the hyporheic exchange in gravel bed and thus agrees with findings by Packman et al. (1997), and
187 Packman and Brooks (2001) from other streambed types. Fine particles infiltrate through porous bed
188 material and form a clogging layer that impairs interstitial flow patterns (Cui et al. 2008, Schälchli
189 1992; Gibson et al. 2011). The clogging process is influenced by size, shape, and concentration of the
190 suspended load, and size and shape of the bed material. While particles such as coarse sand travelling
191 near the bed or as bed load can cause rapid clogging of gravel surface, the finer suspended particles
192 can travel deeper into the gravel and cause a larger decrease in bed sediment permeability (Fetzer et
193 al. 2017). Contrary to our hypothesis the effect of sand addition on F_{200} values was smaller (Figure
194 3b) and flumes with and without sediment did not show significant differences ($F=1.456$, $p=0.236$),
195 median tended to be lower in treatments with sediments in all flow levels (Figure 2a). This indicates
196 that added sediment had only a minor effect on the proportion of flow (F_{200}) influencing the transient
197 storage exchange between flow and gravel bed. Sand addition and flow had a significant interaction
198 ($F=13.93$, $p=0.0001$) on q_h , showing a stronger effect of sand with increasing flow velocity (Figure
199 2b). The stronger effect of additional fine sediment than increased flow on hyporheic exchange agrees
200 with previous findings (Saenger et al. 2005), highlighting the dominating role of siltated sediment on
201 streambed processes.

202 Observed effects of deposition of additional sediment and flow conditions on hyporheic zone
203 processes in the gravel bed interface agree with the few existing studies (Carling 1984; Schälchli
204 1992; Gibson et al. 2011). These studies illustrate the general phenomenon that as infiltration into
205 gravel becomes limited by the upper sediment layer, the responsiveness of hyporheic zone processes
206 to flow conditions diminishes. Therefore, development of the siltation layer on the gravel bed

207 determines infiltration possibilities. Our results thus highlight that additional fine sediment is harmful
208 in all conditions, not only during low flow periods in headwaters but also in larger rivers with higher
209 stream velocity. In larger streams, gravel beds typically regenerate during flood conditions, but in
210 smaller headwater streams with flat topography even large floods may not have the required stream
211 power to resort the bed (Gooderham et al. 2007). Thus in headwaters especially, additional sand can
212 have long-term negative effects on hyporheic zone processes in gravel beds. Transport of sediments
213 from catchment land uses to headwater streams often leads to extensive sedimentation, being often
214 the main cause of poor ecological condition in these streams (Turunen et al. 2017). Understanding
215 the drivers affecting hyporheic zone processes is a key to successful management of streambeds
216 affected by sediment deposition. For stream restoration, our results suggest that cleaning of gravel
217 beds from additional sediments and preventing transport of new sediments is essential for restoring
218 hyporheic processes. In headwaters, even small increases in erosion and deposition of sediments to
219 stream channels (Owens and Walling 2002) can have a significant influence on hyporheic zone
220 conditions.

221 Impaired hyporheic zone flux causes negative impacts on the amount of oxygen and
222 biogeochemical conditions within the hyporheic zone. Infiltration of fine sediments into gravel beds
223 reduces permeability and decreases interstitial flow velocity (Zimmerman and Lapointe 2005), as was
224 also observed in our study. In our semi-natural flumes, sediment hyporheic storage was the only
225 transient storage, allowing us to calculate the effect of sediment addition and different low levels on
226 hyporheic zone processes in gravel-bed streams. Siltation and filling of the pore spaces within the
227 bed sediment not only decreased hyporheic zone exchange but also affected horizontal fluxes. This
228 indicates that sediment deposition does not have only local consequences on hyporheic exchange, but
229 can also diminish channel scale horizontal fluxes. Adequate hyporheic flow within the streambed is

230 crucial for many stream organisms (Stanford and Ward 1988) as well as for stream metabolism
231 (Grimm and Fisher 1984; Mulholland et al. 1997). Decreased flow infiltration or horizontal fluxes
232 within the gravel bed decreases oxygen concentration, which is vital for good habitat conditions and
233 within-substrate chemical processes. For example, the survival and development of fish eggs and
234 embryos is dependent on dissolved oxygen levels in the hyporheic zone (Louhi et al. 2011). In natural
235 channels, geomorphological variations greatly alter transient storage and hyporheic zone exchange
236 (Orr et al. 2009), rendering estimation of the actual hyporheic zone processes within gravel beds
237 extremely challenging. Thus, controlled experiments such as the present study offer valuable
238 information also for stream restoration and management actions.

239 Even though our results show that flow conditions and added sediment affect transient storage
240 conditions in the gravel bed, the experiment had few limiting elements. Our experiment contained
241 only sand-sized sediment, which did not allow use to study the effect of particle size on hyporheic
242 exchange in gravel beds. In natural systems transported sediments contain variable particle sizes and
243 especially the finest particles may infiltrate to deeper layers within the gravel bed. Also a naturally
244 existing armour layer may diminish transient storage conditions in gravel beds. Future studies should
245 explore the effects of variable particle sizes and volumes on channel scale transient storage conditions
246 in controlled flow conditions and with sufficient replication. Furthermore, our experiment could only
247 measure overall changes, and future studies should assess spatial variation of transient storage
248 conditions at variable flow conditions and different levels of sedimentation.

249

250 **Conclusions**

251 Our results highlight the significance of flow conditions and fine graded sediments on hyporheic
252 exchange in gravel beds. This study complements previous considerations of dynamics of infiltration

253 processes in gravel beds and pinpoints the importance of controlling the transport of fine sediment
254 fractions for the conservation practices and successful restoration. According to our results, however,
255 the influence of sand addition on transient storage in gravel beds is not straightforward. The joint
256 effect of sediment deposition and flow was stronger during high flow conditions than low or medium
257 flow conditions, indicating that sand reduces hyporheic exchange, especially during high-flow events.
258 Our results thus highlight that even low sediment input rate can alter the hyporheic zone exchange in
259 gravel beds also during high flow conditions. Control of fine sediments is imperative especially at
260 headwater streams where stream power is often insufficient to naturally clean the gravel beds.

261

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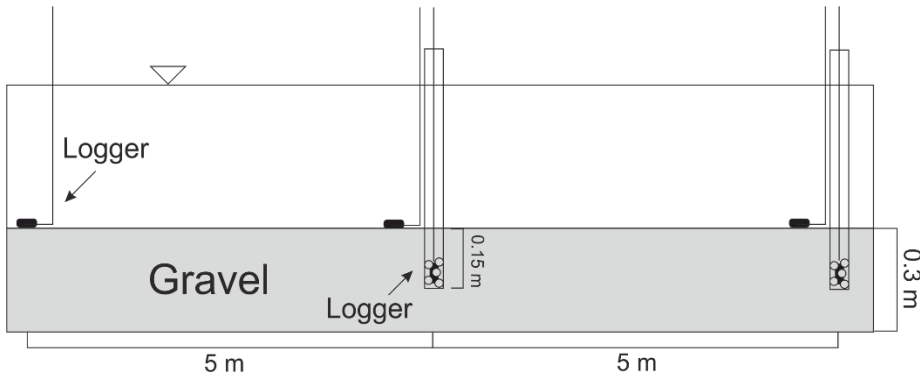
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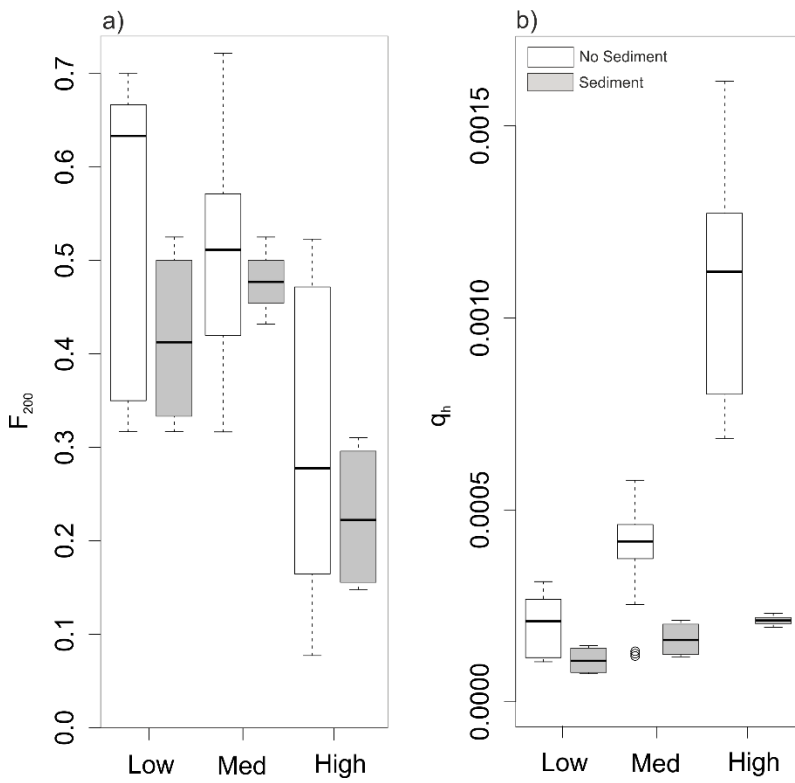


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397 Figure 1. Schematic representation of the experimental setup in flumes for the tracer experiments.

398 Total length of the flumes was 12 meters.

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401 Figure 2. (a) The fraction of the median travel time due to transient storage (F_{200} , from transient

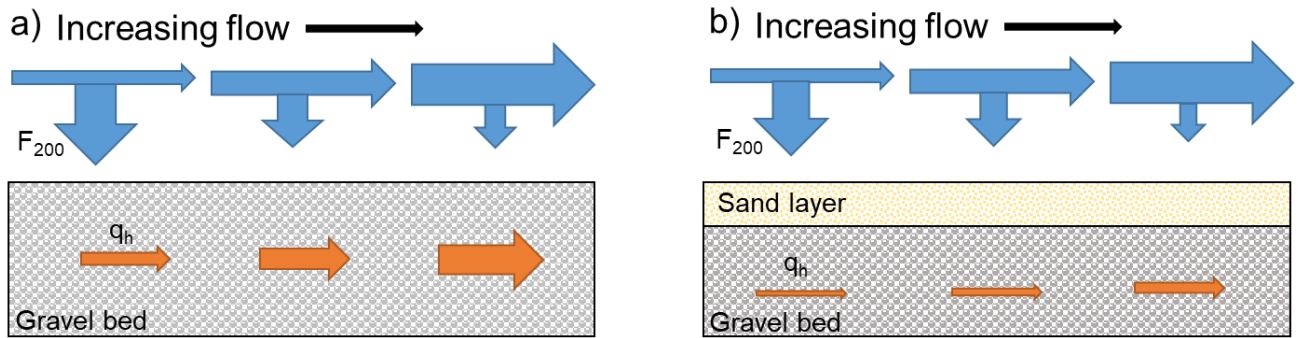
402 storage OTIS modelling) and (b) the horizontal average flux (q_h , gravel pipes) values for different

403 flow levels (low, medium and high), and with or without sediments. Boxplots represents medium,

404 IQR and quartiles within 1.5 IQR and includes results from all individual tracer experiments
405 conducted.

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409 Figure 3. Conceptual model of the effects sedimentation and flow on the transient storage exchange.

410 During higher flows without added sediment (a), a smaller proportion of flow influenced transient
411 storage exchange (F_{200}) between water column and the gravel bed, whereas the horizontal average
412 flux (q_h) increased notably with increasing flows. Added sediment (b) had only a minor effect on the
413 F_{200} values but caused a significant reduction of q_h .