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AN ASSESSMENT OF VARIANTS IN THE PROFESSIONAL JUDGEMENT OF GEOMORPHOLOGICALLY-BASED CHANNEL TYPES

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ABSTRACT

River classification is a useful tool for researchers and managers wishing to organise, simplify and understand the forms and processes within freshwater systems. Many classifications require surveyors to classify reaches into specific channel types in a field environment. Channel types should be identifiable based on a field surveyor's judgement of channel characteristics and landscape settings; these include channel planform, valley confinement, dominant bed material, and/or instream geomorphic features (e.g. gravel bars). Accurate classification of reaches into the correct channel type is important to ensure consistency in management strategies, and to assess the impact of engineering activities on the physical and ecological status of rivers. In this paper, we examine the variation in professional judgement of geomorphologically-based channel types by scientists with different disciplinary backgrounds, and varying levels of involvement in classification systems using a photo-questionnaire. Results indicate that there can be a large level of discrepancy in typing rivers; the choice of the modal channel type for each reach varied between 25.9% and 75.1% of the respondent selections. There were also differences in the level of agreement between earth scientists (with hydrogeomorphological or geological training), ecological scientists (with freshwater biology training) and practitioners involved in river conservation and management. A high level of experience in classification systems translates to a lower number of channel types being chosen per reach. In response to these results, the use of a photographic approach to typing needs to be fully tested and users fully trained before operational use. Furthermore, we advocate that designers of geomorphic typologies should aim to have a representative and workable number of classes within a typology with an emphasis for rationalisation of classes rather than expansion of numbers.

KEY WORDS: channel type; professional judgement; river classifications; river typologies; channel morphology.

INTRODUCTION

A large number of classifications and typologies have been developed in fluvial geomorphology since the late 19th century. The numerous approaches to classifications and typologies reflect the wide range of disciplines, the large number and variety of variables used, different objectives for which the systems were designed, and the challenge of simplifying complex, diverse, natural systems (Kondolf, 1995; Juracek and Fitzpatrick, 2003; Kondolf *et al.*, 2003). The identification of channel types in many classification systems relies on a field surveyor's judgement of channel characteristics, such as channel planform, valley confinement, dominant bed material and geomorphic units. An early example of

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3 channel typing is Leopold and Wolman's (1957) classification of straight, meandering
4 and braided channel patterns based on relationships between slope and discharge. This
5 pattern based approach was later expanded to include anastomosing channels (Smith
6 and Smith, 1980; Knighton and Nanson, 1993; Makaske, 2001), and also
7 anabranching channels (Nanson and Knighton, 1996). In Canada, Kellerhals *et al.*,
8 (1972, 1976), Galay *et al.*, (1973) and Mollard (1973) have proposed very descriptive
9 classification systems for describing a wide range of stream morphologies using a
10 combination of channel patterns, channel islands and bars, and degree of lateral
11 channel mobility to define a variety of channels. Other notable examples include the
12 Montgomery and Buffington (1997, 1998) typology, and the River Styles Framework
13 of Brierley and Fryirs (2000, 2005).
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18 In the UK, the Scottish Environment Protection Agency (SEPA) and the Environment
19 Agency (EA) are now using a tool (termed the Morphological Impact Assessment
20 System: MImAS; Greig *et al.*, 2006) to assess the geomorphic sensitivity of channel
21 morphology to engineering pressures, which is based upon correct identification of a
22 reach to a channel type. The channel typology is a modified version of the process-
23 based typology developed by Montgomery and Buffington (1997, 1998) in the Pacific
24 Northwest of the USA (see Figure 1 for Montgomery and Buffington typology, 1997,
25 1998). Additional channel types have been added to include lowland environments,
26 characteristic of the UK. The underlying principle of the typology is that channel
27 types occur in areas with differing sets of geomorphological controls. The typology
28 comprises eleven distinct channel types (Table 1). The allocation of a reach to the
29 correct parent channel type is critical to the accuracy of the tool, and in assessing the
30 impact of engineering activities on the physical and ecological status of rivers.
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34 The principal aim of this paper is to assess whether single photographs of a riverine
35 landscape are an adequate technique for classifying stream types. This aim will be
36 explored by comparing the perception of channel types in the SEPA typology by
37 scientists with different backgrounds and varying levels of involvement in
38 classification systems using a photo-questionnaire. Channel types in the SEPA
39 typology should be identifiable based on a combination of channel planform, typical
40 bed material, bedform pattern, dominant roughness elements, valley confinement and
41 geomorphic units. The research hypotheses associated with the principal aim are:
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- 44 • Earth scientists (with hydromorphological or geological training) have a lower
45 level of disagreement in the identification of individual channel types
46 compared to ecological scientists and practitioners involved in river
47 conservation and management.
- 48 • A high level of involvement in river classification systems translates to a
49 lower level of disagreement in the identification of individual channel types.
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51 In addition, a short experiment was carried out to assess the extent to which a short
52 training programme could reduce the diversity of opinion among respondents when
53 classifying a reach. It is believed that this paper represents the first attempt to quantify
54 the accuracy of individuals to identify channel types.
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57 METHODS

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59 The assessment of landscape perception in river environments using photographs is a
60 well known approach (Mosley, 1989; Brown and Daniel, 1991; Gregory and Davis,
1993), and is preferable to directly showing large numbers of participants to a wide

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3 range of sites separated by large geographical distances (Shuttleworth, 1980). A
4 photograph is a two-dimensional image whose content cannot capture the dynamics
5 and complexities of river systems, such as sound and movement (Huang and
6 Tassinary, 2000), and hence is different from on-site experience, but it fulfils the
7 purposes for an analysis, principally a surrogate of presentation to the respondents
8 (LeLay *et al.* 2008). Photographs offer control over environmental stimuli and permit
9 rapid and widespread sampling of environments (Hull and Stewart, 1992). Several
10 studies have explored the perception of observers in the field to ground photographs,
11 and have shown no statistical difference between the two methods (Shuttleworth
12 1980; Vining and Orland, 1989). As such, using photographs in a photographic
13 questionnaire was viewed as an acceptable method to identify the perception of
14 channel types in the SEPA typology by a range of participants. Accurate classification
15 of channel types using photographs would be beneficial for managers and researchers
16 as the approach would reduce the amount of fieldwork and decrease costs.
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21 A questionnaire with photographs of nineteen river sub-reaches/reaches (see Figure 2)
22 was advertised and circulated to delegates at a workshop, 'Defining
23 hydromorphological condition and links to ecology', in Ballater, Scotland in March
24 2009, and at the 'First Triennial Symposium for the International Society of River
25 Science (ISRS)', in St Petersburg, Florida, USA in July 2009. The photo-
26 questionnaire was also available online on a website ([http://www.sbes.stir.ac.uk/
27 people/postgrads/milner/questionnaire](http://www.sbes.stir.ac.uk/people/postgrads/milner/questionnaire)). The photo-questionnaire contained four
28 background questions relating to a respondent's discipline, affiliated organisation,
29 level of involvement in classification systems, and geographic region. A wide range
30 of disciplines and job titles were specified from the respondents who conducted the
31 questionnaire. These were categorised as earth scientists, ecological scientists and
32 practitioners involved in river conservation and management for simplicity. Similarly,
33 categories relating to a respondent's level of involvement in classification systems
34 was amalgamated from extensive, significant, moderate, limited and none into three
35 broad categories of high (extensive or significant), moderate and low (limited or
36 none).
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41 A respondent was requested to classify each reach into one of eleven channel types
42 inherent within the SEPA typology. A description of each channel type was also
43 included in the photo-questionnaire (Table 1). The classification of reaches into
44 channel types was also determined by the averaged expert opinion of three
45 professional fluvial geomorphologists: Dr Richard Jeffries, a senior
46 hydromorphologist at SEPA, Professor David Gilvear, the University of Stirling and
47 Dr Victoria Milner, the postgraduate student who conducted this research at the
48 University of Stirling. All three fluvial geomorphologists have been involved with
49 testing and applying the SEPA typology to the Scottish fluvial environment, and are
50 familiar with the river systems used.
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54 A short experiment was carried out to investigate if a short training programme could
55 reduce the diversity of opinion among respondents when classifying a reach. A group
56 of Masters students in Environmental and River Basin Management at the University
57 of Stirling were asked to conduct the photo-questionnaire. Subsequently, the students
58 attended a three hour tutorial relating to the background of classification systems,
59 fluvial forms and processes. This included a discussion of how to classify the channel
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3 types in the SEPA typology using a channel typology flow diagram (Figure 3). Post
4 training, the students were asked to re-take the questionnaire.
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7 The photographs used in the questionnaire were obtained from a wider study, which
8 assesses the performance of morphologically-based river typing in Scotland using a
9 geomorphological and ecological approach (Milner, 2010). Of the 200 photographs of
10 reaches used in the mentioned study, 50 were downloaded for a final selection by the
11 professional geomorphologists. Pictures were removed from the selection if scenes
12 were deemed inappropriate for the survey (e.g. containing man-made structures or
13 views that obscured key geomorphic elements of that channel type). Nineteen pictures
14 were agreed upon by the professional geomorphologists in the group. For some
15 channel types, such as for braided or wandering reaches, a single photograph was
16 judged to be insufficient to portray the full range of characteristics of the more
17 complex channel types, so a second photograph was included. One photograph aimed
18 to show an overview of the planform of the reach, and a second photograph focused in
19 on the geomorphic attributes and/or the hydraulics within the reach, such as the
20 presence of depositional bars or the occurrence of pools and riffles. In contrast, the
21 characteristics of a plane-bed reach, for example, may be encapsulated in one
22 photograph. Plane-bed reaches are single channels with for the most part a planar
23 gravel and cobble-bed (Florsheim, 1985), which lack discrete bars that are often
24 related to low width to depth ratios (Sukegawa, 1973; Ikeda, 1975, 1977). This range
25 of characteristics can be easily captured by one photograph.
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31 *Data analysis*

32 Data from the photo-questionnaire was input into Excel with the respondents' raw
33 data tabulated and checked for errors. The Shapiro-Wilk's (S-W) statistical test was
34 applied to test the data's frequency distribution for normality, and a log
35 transformation was used where necessary. A paired t-test (Minitab version 15.1) was
36 performed to test if the mean number of channel types chosen per reach was
37 statistically different, between respondents from various disciplines, and respondents
38 with different amounts of experience in classification systems. A paired t-test was also
39 conducted on the average percentage of respondents selecting the most common
40 channel types per reach, between disciplines, and respondents with different levels of
41 experience in classification systems. Lastly, a paired t-test was performed on the
42 results of the photo-questionnaire undertaken by the group of students, pre and post
43 training.
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47 Principal Components Analysis (PCA) (CANOCO version 4.5, ter Braak and
48 Šmilauer, 1998), was carried out on the probability of a channel type been selected by
49 a respondent. In PCA, linear combinations of the original variables are created that
50 express the maximum amount of variability in the original dataset (Scott and Clarke,
51 2000). The first principal component (PC) axis (or new variable) accounts for the
52 maximum amount of data variability possible in a single variable, and successive PCs
53 axes explain as much as possible of the residual variance (Scott and Clarke, 2000).
54 The kappa statistic ('Online Kappa Calculator' of Randolph, 2008) was also used as a
55 method to determine the level of agreement among respondents regarding the number
56 and range of channel types selected per reach. The kappa statistic is a technique that
57 measures agreement between categorical variables after correction that is expected to
58 occur due to chance (Siegel and Castellan, 1988). The kappa statistic can be used on
59 any number of cases (i.e. study reaches), categories (i.e. channel types) or number of
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respondents. A value of kappa ranges from -1.0 to 1.0, with -1.0 denoting perfect disagreement below chance and 1.0 denoting perfect agreement above chance (Randolph, 2008). A kappa of >0.7 indicates adequate agreement among the respondents (Randolph, 2008). In this study, the free-marginal kappa of Brennan and Prediger (1982) was used, as this version of the statistic allows respondents to select any category (i.e. channel type) for any case (i.e. study reach). Finally, a braided index (BI, proposed by Howard *et al.* 1970) was calculated for specific reaches possessing numerous mid-channel bars and channels, as a measure of network complexity. This BI provides a simple count of the total number of links (or segments, $<N_L>$) in the measured reach (Egozi and Ashmore, 2008).

RESULTS

A total of 205 professionals involved in river science and/or river management responded to the photo-questionnaire. Of the total number of respondents, 42% were earth scientists, 32% were ecological scientists, and 26% were practitioners involved in river conservation and management. A large proportion of respondents had a moderate (39%) or low level (47%) of experience in classification systems, with few respondents possessing a high amount of experience in classification systems (14%).

The percentage of channel types chosen per reach is illustrated in Table 2. The channel type with the highest percentage of respondents per reach represents the most common channel type chosen, and is regarded as the “global view” of the respondents. For example, the most common channel type chosen for Photograph A is a low gradient actively meandering channel. Therefore, Photograph A will now be designated as a low gradient actively meandering channel. The Kappa statistic was performed on the data in Table 2, and generated a free-marginal kappa value of 0.27. This statistic is below the critical value of 0.7, which denotes adequate agreement among the respondents. Instead, the kappa value is closer to 0, indicative of agreement equal to chance. The output of the kappa technique highlights a large variation in responses regarding the selection of channel types per reach. A kappa value of 0.27 would nominally reveal a moderate-poor level of agreement in classification between respondents.

The range in the percentage of respondents choosing the most common channel type varies from 25.4% for photograph J, a plane-riffle channel to 75.1% for photograph C, a braided channel (Table 2). The results imply that some individual channel types may be easier to identify than others. However, taking account of both the first and second most commonly voted types in each photograph, only three of the nineteen pictures showed $>50\%$ of the votes split across more than three possible channel types. Based on the results in Table 2, an average percentage of respondents choosing a specific channel type was calculated (Table 3). Bedrock channels, particularly the reach in Photograph G appear the most readily identifiable. Similarly, braided channels are also identifiable, especially the reach in Photograph C. Plane-riffle reaches seem to be the most difficult channel type to classify, indicated by a low average of respondents (27.2%).

A Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was conducted on the percentage of a channel type being chosen by the respondents. The majority of the variation in the PCA model is summarised by the first two PCs (cumulative percentage variance 58).

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3 Therefore, further analysis will focus on these two PC axes. An accompanying PCA
4 bi-plot for these two PC axes is shown in Figure 4. The arrows denote the channel
5 types, and the circles indicate the position of the nineteen photographs (A to S). The
6 arrows denote an increasing percentage of a respondent selecting a channel type.
7 Thus, photographs positioned near the arrowhead will have a high percentage of being
8 selected, compared to a photograph located near the centre of the bi-plot. The
9 positioning of a photograph also reveals the diversity of opinions among the
10 respondents regarding the classification of a reach. A high percentage of respondents
11 (75.1%, Table 2) classified the reach in photograph C as braided. The reach in
12 photograph L was also classified as braided, but fewer respondents (37.6%, Table 2)
13 opted for this channel type. A substantial number of respondents (24.9%, Table 2)
14 also selected a wandering channel for this reach. The difference in the agreement
15 between the reaches in photographs C and L is reflected in the positioning of the
16 circles in the PCA bi-plot.
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21 The responses of the participants who conducted the questionnaire were compared to
22 the responses of the three professional geomorphologists (Table 4). The respondents
23 agree with the professional geomorphologists for eleven of the nineteen reaches. The
24 two groups tend to agree regarding the characteristics of a low gradient actively
25 meandering channel (both classified photographs A, D and R as a low gradient
26 actively meandering reaches), and a step-pool channel (both groups selected step-pool
27 channel for photographs B, K and S). Disagreement existed concerning the
28 classification of braided and wandering reaches. The professional geomorphologists
29 classified the reach in photographs C, I and L as a wandering channel, whereas the
30 majority of respondents believed the reaches are braided.
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34 The level of disagreement among earth scientists, ecological scientists and
35 practitioners involved in river conservation and management has been measured by
36 the number of channel types selected per reach, and the percentage of respondents
37 agreeing with the most common channel type per reach. Table 5 illustrates the number
38 of channel types chosen per reach by respondents from different disciplines. Overall,
39 the lowest number of channel types chosen is for the reach in photograph K, a step-
40 pool channel, and the highest number of channel types selected is for the reach in
41 photograph J, a plane-riffle channel. Clear statistical differences were present between
42 earth scientists and practitioners involved in river conservation and management
43 (paired *t*-test *P*-value of <0.001), and also between ecological scientists and
44 practitioners involved in river conservation and management (paired *t*-test of *P*-value
45 <0.038). No statistical difference was apparent in the number of channel types
46 selected per photograph between earth and ecological scientists (paired *t*-test *P*-value
47 of <0.094).
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51 Although, earth scientists selected a higher number of channel types per reach
52 compared to ecological scientists and practitioners involved in river conservation and
53 management, the former group had a statistically higher percentage of respondents
54 agreeing with the most common channel type per reach (paired *t*-test *P*-value of 0.048
55 and 0.009 respectively; Table 6). No statistical difference existed between the mean
56 numbers (46.4 and 46.8) of ecological scientists or practitioners involved in river
57 conservation and management choosing the dominant channel type (paired *t*-test *P*-
58 value of 0.89).
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3 The number of channel types chosen per reach by respondents with different levels of
4 experience in classification systems is shown in Table 7. Respondents possessing a
5 high level of experience in classification systems have the lowest overall average for
6 the number of channel types selected per reach. Respondents possessing moderate and
7 low levels of experience in classification systems have a higher average for the
8 number of channel types chosen per reach. A paired t-test highlighted the means were
9 statistically different between all three groups (P -value for all combinations of groups
10 <0.001). Table 8 shows the most common channel type chosen per photograph by
11 respondents with different levels of experience in classification systems. The three
12 groups of respondents (based on level of experience: high, moderate and low) selected
13 the same channel type for ten of the nineteen rivers and streams (photographs A, B, C,
14 E, G, H, K, O, R and S). No reach has more than two different dominant channel
15 types. A paired t-test identified a statistical difference in mean values between the
16 dominant channel type chosen by respondents possessing a high and low level of
17 experience (paired t-test P -value of 0.015).
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22 The results show a high level of experience in classification systems corresponds to a
23 statistically lower number of channel types chosen per reach. This statement is
24 supported by the results of the short experiment undertaken on a group of 16 MSc
25 students to identify if a training programme could improve the level of agreement
26 among respondents when classifying reaches. A group of MSc students at the
27 University of Stirling were asked to conduct the photo-questionnaire, pre and post
28 training. A paired t-test (P -value of 0.005) revealed a statistically lower number of
29 channel types per reach were chosen post completion of a training programme. The
30 short experiment indicates how a simple training programme can increase the
31 accuracy of classifying reaches. Therefore, a training programme focussing on the
32 dominant characteristics of the channel types in the SEPA typology (or channel types
33 in any geomorphic classification or typology) may improve a respondent's accuracy
34 of classifying reaches. The reaches in photographs A, C, G, I, O and R all have
35 relatively high percentages of being chosen by a respondent (Table 2). Therefore, the
36 reaches could possibly be used as a benchmark for the channel type they most
37 represent. A high percentage of respondents (75.1%, Table 2) classified the reach in
38 photograph C as a braided reach. Thus, this reach could be used as an example of a
39 braided reach, and be included in training documentation. The reach in photograph L
40 was also classified as a braided reach, but fewer respondents (37.6%, Table 2) opted
41 for this channel type. A notable number of respondents (24.9%, Table 2) selected a
42 wandering reach. The difference in the agreement between reaches being classified as
43 braided or a wandering reach may reflect a change in the specific characteristics of a
44 reach been viewed as typical of a braided or wandering reach. Where the number of
45 respondents is approximately equal between the classification of two channel types,
46 this may represent the reach being a transitional between two types. For example, the
47 higher percentage of respondents opting for a wandering reach for photograph L than
48 C suggests that the reach in photograph C may be a transition between fully braided
49 and classically wandering. The change in the characteristics of a reach from a typical
50 braided reach to possessing attributes of a wandering reach is shown in Photographs
51 C, I and L in Figure 2. Photograph C has a Braided Index (BI) of 18, Photograph I
52 possess a BI of 4, and Photograph L has a BI of 3. The BI scores for the three reaches
53 support the earlier statement that the photographs show a continuum of changes in the
54 key characteristics from one channel type (braided) to another channel type
55 (wandering). Awareness of the fact that individual channel types can demonstrate
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3 different morphologies along a continuum is likely to be useful in educational
4 programmes aimed at improving the accuracy of classification.
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7 DISCUSSION

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9 The approach used in this paper uses sub-reach and reach scale photographs in a web-
10 based questionnaire to judge if single photographs of a landscape are an adequate
11 technique for classifying stream reaches. This aim was explored by identifying the
12 perception of channel types in a typology by scientists from a range of disciplines, and
13 with different levels of involvement in classification systems. Photographs have often
14 been used in questionnaires or surveys to gauge public or scientific perception. For
15 example, Piegay *et al.*, (2005) and Le Lay *et al.*, (2008) used a photo-questionnaire to
16 assess variations in public perception as a barrier to introducing wood in rivers for
17 restoration purposes. Mosley (1989) also used photographs to obtain views of New
18 Zealand river scenery from different groups of respondents, such as canoeists, anglers,
19 landscape architects and government staff. However, a photo-questionnaire has not
20 been known to assess the perception of channel types.
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25 The percentage of respondents selecting the most common channel type per reach
26 varies from 25.4% to 75.1% (Table 2), which implies the difficulty of classifying a
27 reach into a specific channel type varies depending on the characteristics of the reach.
28 The percentage of the most common channel type chosen per reach was averaged
29 according to channel type (i.e. into bedrock, plane-bed; Table 3). The results revealed
30 that bedrock reaches (possessing an average of 69.8%, Table 3) emerge as the single
31 most identifiable channel type. Bedrock channels are characterised by either a
32 predominance of exposed bedrock or have a thin, sporadic accumulation of alluvium
33 (Montgomery and Buffington, 1998). The fast velocities generally associated with a
34 high transport capacity are indicative of a combination of surface flow types (SFTs),
35 particularly chute flow, broken standing and unbroken standing waves (Milner, 2010)
36 The dominance of exposed bedrock, lack of alluvium and high energy SFTs
37 contribute to bedrock channels possessing distinct characteristics, and thus, are
38 relatively easy to identify for surveyors or respondents. Braided reaches also have a
39 relatively high percentage of correct identification (57%, Table 3). Braided reaches
40 are characterised by having numerous alluvial channels with bars or islands,
41 repeatedly joining and dividing (Leopold and Wolman, 1957; Lane, 1957). This
42 distinct morphology aids respondents to easily recognise a braided channel. In
43 contrast, plane-riffle channels have a very low rate of correct identification (27.2%,
44 Table 3). A plane-riffle channel is a transitional reach between a plane-bed and a
45 pool-riffle channel, possessing attributes of both types (Greig *et al.*, 2006). Plane-
46 riffle reaches tend to be on gentler gradients have a greater range of velocities
47 compared to plane-bed reaches, and have less defined pools, armoured substrate, and
48 less extensive bar features compared to pool-riffle reaches. The transitional
49 characteristics of this channel type may explain why respondents may misclassify a
50 plane-riffle reach as a plane-bed or a pool-riffle channel. A distinguishing feature of
51 plane-riffle reaches is the sequence of a smooth flow and unbroken standing waves,
52 symptomatic of glides and riffles. The identification of these SFTs is difficult to
53 identify from a photograph, and is more apparent in the field. This may partly account
54 for the low percentage of respondents classifying reaches as a plane-riffle channel in
55 this photographic-based analysis.
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The respondents and professional geomorphologists matched the same channel type for eleven of the nineteen photographs. Two of the professional geomorphologists (Dr V.S. Milner and Professor D.J. Gilvear) have extensively visited and surveyed all the reaches in the photographs. Consequently, their choice of type may be influenced by their field visits. Both fluvial geomorphologists have the advantage of viewing the reaches in relation to the valley setting, and observing the reaches' surface flow patterns and geomorphic units. Valley confinement, width of floodplain, and differing and repeating combinations of SFTs and geomorphic units all aid a surveyor in classifying a reach to a channel type. The professional geomorphologists' field visits may partly explain the difference in opinion between their view of a channel types and the view of respondents with high levels of experience in classification. Another issue is the influence of scale, angle of photograph and flow conditions at the time of capture. Standard protocols for taking photographs may need to be produced. For example, it could be suggested that surveyors capture a reach that approximates to a scale of 20 channel widths. Although, a photographer may find it not possible to capture the length of the reach (20 channel widths) in a single photograph either due to steep gradients or the meandering planform of certain reaches. Furthermore, a photograph capturing the reach at that scale may not be sufficiently detailed to illustrate the morphological subtleties and features characteristic of that specific channel type. Hence, in practice adhering to such protocols may be problematic. The photographs at the sub-reach/reach scale were taken during low flow conditions, so the morphological features indicative of a channel type were visually apparent to aid classification. A single channel type however, will have different hydraulic characteristics, as well as exhibiting different channel forms at low, medium and high flows. For example, steps and pools are symptomatic of step-pool sequences but can be drowned out under high flows.

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The channel types in the SEPA typology are partly based on the morphological response to the relative ratio of sediment supply to transport capacity, and also on channel pattern and characteristics. Channel types should be distinguished by typical bed material, bedform pattern, dominant roughness elements, primary sediment sources and sediment storage elements, typical confinement, and typical pool spacing (channel widths) (Montgomery and Buffington, 1997). The underlying principle of classification is that channel morphology is the collective product of a number of interacting variables (Kellerhals *et al.*, 1976; Kellerhals and Church, 1989; Thorne, 1997; Eaton *et al.*, 2004), such as the volume and time distribution of water from upstream, the volume, timing and character of sediment transported to the channel, the materials through which the river flows, the local geological history and the topographic gradient of the landscape (Church, 1992; Church, 2002, Robert, 2003). Earth scientists, such as hydrologists and particularly fluvial geomorphologists ought to have a more extensive knowledge and understanding of these independent variables controlling channel morphology and form, compared to ecological scientists and other disciplines. Therefore, in theory, earth scientists should have less diversity of opinion regarding the number of channel types per reach compared to ecological scientists and practitioners involved in river conservation and management. However, the results indicate that earth scientists actually select a higher overall number of channel types per reach in contrast to the practitioner group. This may reflect a greater awareness of the range of possible channel types among earth scientists and a familiarity with key terminology, even if this is interpreted to produce a large number of types per reach.

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3 The number of channel types chosen per reach is statistically higher for earth
4 scientists compared to practitioners involved in river conservation and management.
5 However, there are a statistically higher percentage of earth scientists choosing the
6 most common channel type per reach compared to practitioners involved in river
7 conservation and management. The results imply that there are a relatively uniform
8 number of practitioners choosing a few channel types per reach, whereas for earth
9 scientists, a greater number of channel types per reach are chosen, but most of the
10 respondents choose the same channel type. Therefore, the hypothesis that earth
11 scientists have a lower level of disagreement in the identification of individual
12 channel types compared to practitioners involved in river conservation and
13 management can be accepted, but earth scientists do not have a lower level of
14 disagreement compared to ecological scientists.
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19 The level of involvement in classification systems corresponds to the number of
20 channel types selected per reach (Table 7). Respondents with a high level of
21 experience in classification systems possessed a statistically lower average for the
22 number of channel types chosen per reach, compared to respondents with a moderate
23 or low level of expertise in classification systems. Therefore, the more experience an
24 individual possesses regarding working with classification systems, the less confusion
25 exists about selecting a channel type. The results of a short experiment conducted on
26 the perception of channel types on a group of Masters students' pre and post training
27 supports this conclusion. In reference to this experiment, the development of guidance
28 and methods for selecting channel types is important. The number of channel types
29 chosen per reach, by a group of students was statistically lower post training. Hence,
30 the research hypothesis that a high level of involvement in classification systems
31 relates to a low number of channel types per reach can be accepted. The results
32 definitively indicate the importance of training, knowledge and experience. The more
33 experience a respondent possesses in fluvial systems, the greater their understanding
34 of the processes and resulting forms of rivers and streams.
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39 In summary, river typologies can be a highly useful management tool for practitioners
40 and scientists. Typologies aim to organise, simplify and aid understanding of the
41 natural forms and processes within environmental systems (Juracek and Fitzpatrick,
42 2003). This information can help practitioners and/or scientists to predict a river's
43 behaviour from its appearance (Rosgen, 1994), and contribute to recommendations
44 regarding channel maintenance, conservation and restoration issues. Indeed,
45 restoration design has been dominated by classification schemes (Doyle *et al.* 1999).
46 The SEPA typology forms an integral part of the MImAS tool (discussed in the
47 introduction), which is used to determine the geomorphic sensitivity of channel
48 morphology to engineering pressures. In a Scottish context therefore, identification by
49 practitioners and scientists to the correct channel type is imperative. However, this
50 study has highlighted the variability among respondents of differing disciplinary
51 background and experience when classifying specific types. The study is useful for
52 practitioners through providing an indication of the reliability in classifying channel
53 types, and implies training programmes are essential to improve typing accuracy.
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57 CONCLUSIONS

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59 The results of this photo-questionnaire survey indicate that by using single
60 photographs of river reaches for classification, there can be significant

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misclassification of channel types and that the level of disagreement varies according to the background and experience of the survey participants. One solution to reduce the variance may be to establish a protocol for photographic images in relation to channel typing, in terms of scale and flow conditions. This study also demonstrates that with guidance on the process of channel typing and training the accuracy of a respondent's classification can be improved. However, there will always be a subjective component leading to differences in classification whether using photographs or observations in the field. This knowledge is important when managers and regulators are considering the use of channel typologies for classification and assessment of rivers.

Another fundamental issue in river typology science is the number of designated classes. In designing a typology, it is easy to be led in the direction of adding more and more channel types due to the inherent morphological variability of fluvial systems along a continuum. However, this activity may decrease the levels of confidence placed in assigning individual classes. As such, we advocate a trend towards typologies where rationalisation of types is inherent.

In the future, the subjective approach of classifying reaches into channel types using photo-questionnaires or field surveys should possibly be replaced or compared to more objective, quantitative, statistical approaches, such as using GIS variables to predict channel types (Snelder *et al.*, 1999; Snelder and Biggs, 2002) or using quantitative techniques such as cluster analysis and ordination techniques on physical habitat data (Milner, 2010). These approaches may prove more accurate and robust compared to subjective judgements of channel types based on photographs or field surveys.

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6 Table 1: Geomorphic summary of channel types in the SEPA typology (modified
7 from Greig *et al.* 2006).
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9 Table 2: Percentage of respondents selecting a channel type per photograph. Numbers
10 in bold indicate the most common channel type chosen per photograph. See Table 1
11 for channel codes.
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13 Table 3: Mean percentage of respondents per channel type.
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15 Table 4: The combined view of three professional geomorphologists and the global
16 view of respondents. See Table 1 for channel codes.
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18 Table 5: Number of channel types chosen by respondents from different disciplines.
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20 Table 6: The most common channel type chosen by respondents of different
21 disciplinary backgrounds. See Table 1 for channel codes.
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23 Table 7: Number of channel types chosen per photograph by respondents with
24 different levels of experience in classification systems.
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26 Table 8: The most common chosen channel type by respondents of different levels of
27 experience in classification systems. See Table 1 for channel codes.
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Channel type	Geomorphic Description
Bedrock channels (B)	Most commonly found in upland areas, and are dominated by a bedrock substrate. Generally contain little, if any, bed sediment and have limited hydraulic connection with the riparian zone. Channel gradients tend to be high, resulting in a high transport capacity but limited sediment supply.
Cascades (C)	Are restricted to upland areas with steep slopes and are characterised by disorganised bed material typically consisting of cobbles and boulders constrained by confining valley walls. The riparian zone is usually extremely small in extent. The large size of bed material, high levels of energy dissipation due to the bed roughness, dictate that the bed only becomes mobile in extreme floods (ca. >25 year return interval). Bedrock outcrops are common, and small pools may be present among the boulders.
Step-pool channels (S)	Step-pool channels have a steep gradient and consist of large boulder clasts which form discrete sediment accumulations across the channel, forming a series of "steps" which are separated by intervening pools containing finer sediment. The stepped channel morphology results in zones of turbulence interspersed by more tranquil flows. High channel roughness and large bed material results in stable channels that respond only to very large flood events. The stream is generally confined by the valley sides.
Plane bed channels (P)	Generally moderate gradient streams with relatively featureless gravel/cobble beds, but include units ranging from glides, riffles and rapids. Sediment size and channel gradients are smaller than step-pool channels and deeper pool sections tend to be lacking. The river bed is generally armoured and, thus, mobilized in larger floods. Although channels are typically stable, they are more prone to channel change than any of the preceding channel types. Thus, with relatively more frequent bedload movement, they represent transitional channels between the more stable types listed above and the following more dynamic types of channel. Channels are generally straight and may be confined or unconfined by the valley sides.
Pool-riffle channels (O)	Meandering and unconfined channels that are characterised by lateral oscillating sequences of bars, pools and riffles during low flow, resulting from oscillations in hydraulic conditions from convergent (erosive) to divergent (depositional) flow environments. The gradient of such channels is low-moderate and the width depth ratio high. The bed is predominantly gravel, with occasional patches of cobbles and sand. Accumulation of sediments in gravel bars indicates increasingly transport-limited conditions, though most large floods will produce some bedload movement on an annual basis, thus reducing the stability of the channel. The banks are typically resistant to erosion, and lateral migration of the channel is limited, resulting in relatively narrow and intermittently deep channels.
Plane-riffle channels (R)	Plane-riffle channels form an intermediate channel form between plane-bed and pool riffle channels. They retain many of the attributes of pool-riffle channels, however, they generally have less defined pools, coarser (armoured) substrate and less extensive bar features.
Braided channels (D)	Braided reaches are characterised by relatively high gradients (but ones that are less than upstream reaches) and/or abundant bedload. Sediment transport is usually limited under most conditions and the channel splits into a number of threads around in-stream bars. Poor bank strength renders them highly dynamic and channels will generally change even in relatively small flood events.
Wandering channel (W)	These reaches exhibit characteristics of braided and meandering channels simultaneously, or if studied over a number of years, display a switching between divided and undivided channel types. Wandering channels may also be susceptible to channel avulsions during high flow events, where the channel switches to a historical planform. Wandering channels typically occur where a reduction of bed material size and channel slope is combined with a widening of the valley floor.
Low gradient actively meandering (A)	Are unconfined low-gradient meandering channels with a bedload dominated by sand and fine gravel. Hence, the channel bed has marked fine sediment accumulations that are mobile in most flood events. These occur in higher order (i.e. typically lowland settings). The fine bed sediment erodible banks and unconfined settings means that such channels are dynamic and prone to change, they also often have extensive riparian zones and floodplains which are linked to the channel. Bars and pools may be present, and are associated with bends and crossing of the meander pattern.
Groundwater dominated channels (G)	Groundwater-dominated rivers low gradient channels and are characterised by a stable flow regime; although limestone rivers with cave systems may display hydrological characteristics similar to freshet rivers. This stable regime is a product of the pervious catchment geology, and consequent reduction in overland flow that characterises groundwater-dominated streams. Bed movement is infrequent and sediments are predominantly transported in suspension. As bed disturbance is infrequent, deposited sediments may remain in the gravel for extended periods, promoting the accumulation of large quantities of fine sediment. Substrate generally comprises gravels, pebbles and sands, and glides and runs are the dominant flow types.
Low gradient passively meandering (M)	These channels are typically found at lower extremities of the channel system. Generally they flow through resistant alluvium. They are typically 'fixed' in their planform geometry, which is sinuous. These channels are often incised and display low width depth ratios. The beds typically comprise fine sedimentary materials, although pockets of gravel can be present. These channels are typically deep and flows are dominated by glides, although runs may be associated with meander bends.

Table 1: Geomorphic summary of channel types in the SEPA typology (modified from Greig *et al.* 2006). The letter in brackets indicates the code used for a channel type in subsequent analyses.

Photo-graph	Channel type												Didn't specify	Total
	A	B	D	C	G	M	P	R	O	S	W	Other		
A	67.37	0	0.98	0	0.98	11.22	3.41	2.44	10.73	0	3.9	0	0.98	100
B	0	7.8	0	14.15	0.49	0	2.93	9.27	18.51	45.85	0	0	0.49	100
C	2.93	0	75.12	0	0	1.95	1.46	1.46	0.49	0.49	15.61	0.49	0	100
D	41.95	0	0.49	0	0	38.54	3.41	0.49	5.37	0	9.27	0.49	0	100
E	1.46	3.9	0	1.95	0.49	0.49	16.1	33.66	38.05	3.41	0	0.49	0	100
F	0.49	27.32	0	14.15	0.49	0	2.93	8.78	16.59	27.8	0	0.98	0.49	100
G	0	73.17	0	15.12	0	0	1.46	0.98	4.39	4.88	0	0	0	100
H	1.46	1.95	1.95	3.9	1.95	4.39	39.02	36.59	0.98	0	0.98	5.85	0.98	100
I	6.34	2.44	55.12	0	0	3.41	1.46	9.76	1.46	0	17.07	1.95	0.98	100
J	5.37	15.12	3.41	3.41	2.44	7.8	23.9	25.4	0.49	0.98	6.34	3.41	1.95	100
K	0	10.24	0	36.1	0	0	0	0	1.46	52.2	0	0	0	100
L	11.71	0	37.56	0	0.49	5.37	1.95	1.95	11.71	0	24.88	3.41	1.95	100
M	16.1	0	2.44	0	4.88	17.56	9.76	30.24	8.78	0	6.83	2.44	0.98	100
N	6.34	0	0	0.98	3.41	30.73	42.93	0.98	0.49	0	3.9	10.24	0	100
O	0.49	66.34	0	17.56	0	0.49	1.46	1.46	2.44	9.27	0	0.49	0	100
P	0	11.71	0.98	36.59	0.49	0	0.49	4.39	10.73	32.68	0	1.46	0.49	100
Q	19.02	8.29	3.9	1.46	6.34	10.73	17.07	25.85	2.93	0	2.44	1.46	0.49	100
R	56.1	0	0	0.49	1.46	19.02	0.98	6.83	7.32	0.98	5.37	0.98	0.49	100
S	0	9.76	0	31.22	0	0.49	0.49	0	6.83	49.27	0	1.95	0	100

Table 2: Percentage of respondents selecting a channel type per photograph. Numbers in bold indicate the most common channel type chosen per photograph. See Table 1 for channel codes.

Channel type	Mean percentage of respondents
Bedrock	69.76
Braided	56.95
Active	53.66
Step-pool	43.78
Plane-bed	40.98
Pool-riffle	38.05
Cascade	36.59
Plane-riffle	27.16

Table 3: Mean percentage of respondents per channel type.

Photo-graph	Professional judgement	Global view	Agreement
A	A	A	=
B	S	B	=
C	W	D	x
D	A	A	=
E	R	O	x
F	B	S	x
G	B	B	=
H	P	P	=
I	W	D	x
J	P	R	x
K	S	S	=
L	W	D	x
M	R	R	=
N	M	P	x
O	B	B	=
P	S	C	x
Q	R	R	=
R	A	A	=
S	S	S	=

Table 4: The combined view of three professional geomorphologists and the global view of respondents. See Table 1 for channel codes.

Photograph	Discipline/career		
	Earth sciences	Ecological sciences	Practitioners involved in river conservation and management
A	7	6	5
B	6	7	5
C	8	6	4
D	7	5	6
E	8	5	7
F	7	6	8
G	3	4	4
H	8	9	6
I	9	9	6
J	12	10	9
K	4	4	2
L	7	9	6
M	9	7	8
N	8	7	6
O	8	7	3
P	6	5	7
Q	9	10	9
R	6	7	6
S	7	5	3
Mean	7.3	6.7	5.8
Std dev	1.9	1.9	2

Table 5: Number of channel types chosen by respondents from different disciplines/careers.

Photo-graph	Discipline/career					
	Earth sciences		Ecological sciences		Practitioners involved in river conservation and management	
	% of respondents	Dominant channel type	% of respondents	Dominant channel type	% of respondents	Dominant channel type
A	69.9	A	68.2	A	58.5	A
B	55.4	S	31.8	S	50.9	S
C	77.1	D	75.8	D	75.5	D
D	44.6	A	43.9	M	56.6	A
E	49.4	O	40.9	R	30.2	R
F	31.3	B	30.3	S	30.2	B
G	81.9	B	72.7	B	64.2	B
H	47	P	47	R	39.6	P
I	65.1	D	39.4	D	62.3	D
J	31.3	R	24.2	P	24.5	P
K	49.4	S	57.6	S	52.8	S
L	50.6	D	45.5	D	37.7	W
M	26.5	R	39.4	R	26.4	R
N	39.8	P	54.5	P	39.6	M
O	75.9	B	57.6	B	66	B
P	38.6	C	31.8	C	41.5	C
Q	28.9	R	25.8	R	22.6	R
R	60.2	A	54.5	A	54.7	A
S	60.2	S	40.9	C	54.7	S
Mean	51.7		46.4		46.8	
Std dev	17.0		15.2		15.7	

Table 6: The most common channel type chosen by respondents of different disciplinary backgrounds. See Table 1 for channel codes.

Photo-graph	Channel type (global view)	Level of experience		
		High	Moderate	Low
A	Active meandering	3	7	8
B	Bedrock	3	7	8
C	Braided	3	5	7
D	Active meandering	5	5	6
E	Pool-riffle	7	5	9
F	Step-pool	5	8	8
G	Bedrock	3	5	5
H	Plane-bed	5	6	10
I	Braided	5	8	9
J	Plane-riffle	8	10	11
K	Step-pool	3	5	3
L	Braided	5	7	9
M	Plane-riffle	7	9	9
N	Plane-bed	5	6	8
O	Bedrock	5	6	7
P	Cascade	5	5	7
Q	Plane-riffle	6	10	10
R	Active meandering	4	6	8
S	Step-pool	3	5	7
	Mean	4.7	6.6	7.9
	Standard deviation	1.5	1.7	1.9

Table 7: Number of channel types chosen per photograph by respondents with different levels of experience in classification systems.

Photograph	Level of experience in classification systems					
	High		Moderate		Low	
	% of respondents	Dominant channel type	% of respondents	Dominant channel type	% of respondents	Dominant channel type
A	67.7	A	58.8	A	71.3	A
B	67.7	S	46.3	S	40.4	S
C	64.5	D	71.3	D	81.9	D
D	51.6	A	45	M	40.4	A
E	45.2	O	42.5	O	31.9	O
F	54.8	B	33.8	B	34	S
G	87.1	B	60	B	79.8	B
H	35.5	P	42.5	P	39.4	R
I	45.2	W	58.8	D	60.6	D
J	32.3	P	30	P	28.7	R
K	45.2	S	52.5	S	51.1	S
L	41.9	D	51.3	D	28.7	D
M	35.5	A	36.3	R	27.7	R
N	58.1	M	51.3	P	38.3	P
O	67.7	B	75	B	58.5	B
P	41.9	S	41.3	C	36.2	C
Q	38.7	A	27.5	R	27.7	R
R	71	A	53.8	A	53.2	A
S	61.3	S	55	S	37.2	S
Mean	53.3		49.1		45.6	
Std dev	15.0		12.8		17.4	

Table 8: The most common chosen channel type by respondents of different levels of experience in classification systems. See Table 1 for channel codes.

Figures

Figure 1: Channel types of Montgomery and Buffington shown as a function of transport capacity to relative sediment supply (reproduced from Montgomery and Buffington, 1997).

Figure 2: Photographs of streams and rivers used in the photo-questionnaire.

Figure 3: Channel typology flow diagram (Jeffries, 2009).

Figure 4: Principal component bi-plot of the distribution of photographs (labelled A to S) and channel types in the SEPA typology.

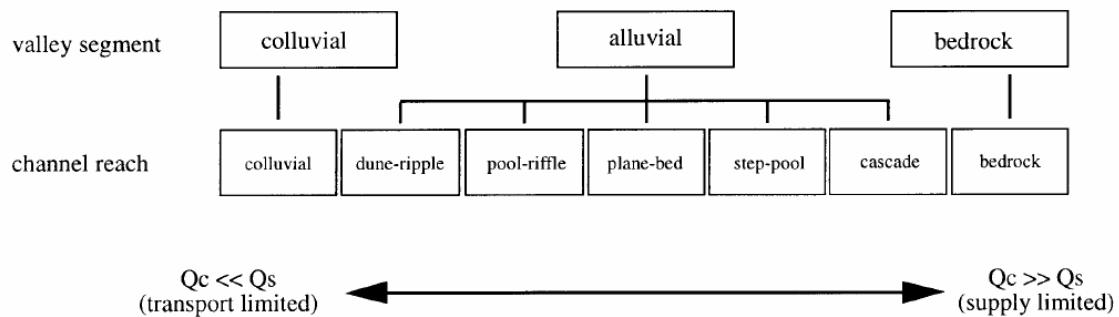
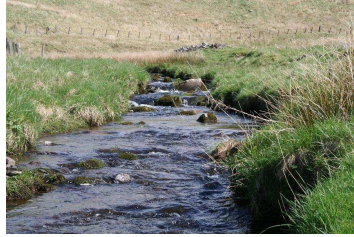


Figure 1: Channel types of Montgomery and Buffington shown as a function of transport capacity to relative sediment supply (reproduced from Montgomery and Buffington, 1997).

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B



C



D



E



F



G



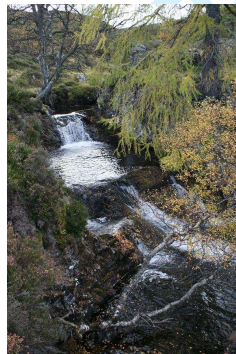
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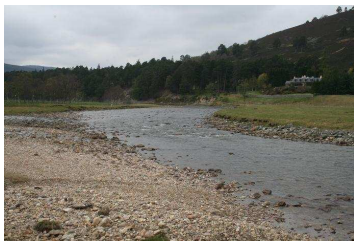
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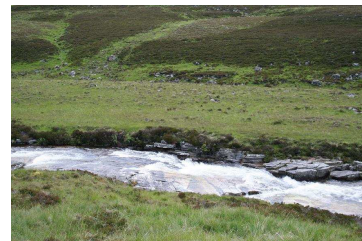
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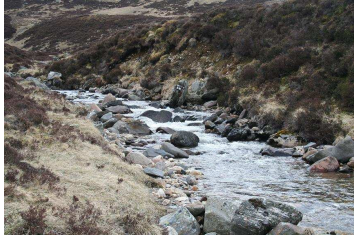
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Figure 2: Photographs of streams and rivers used in the photo-questionnaire.

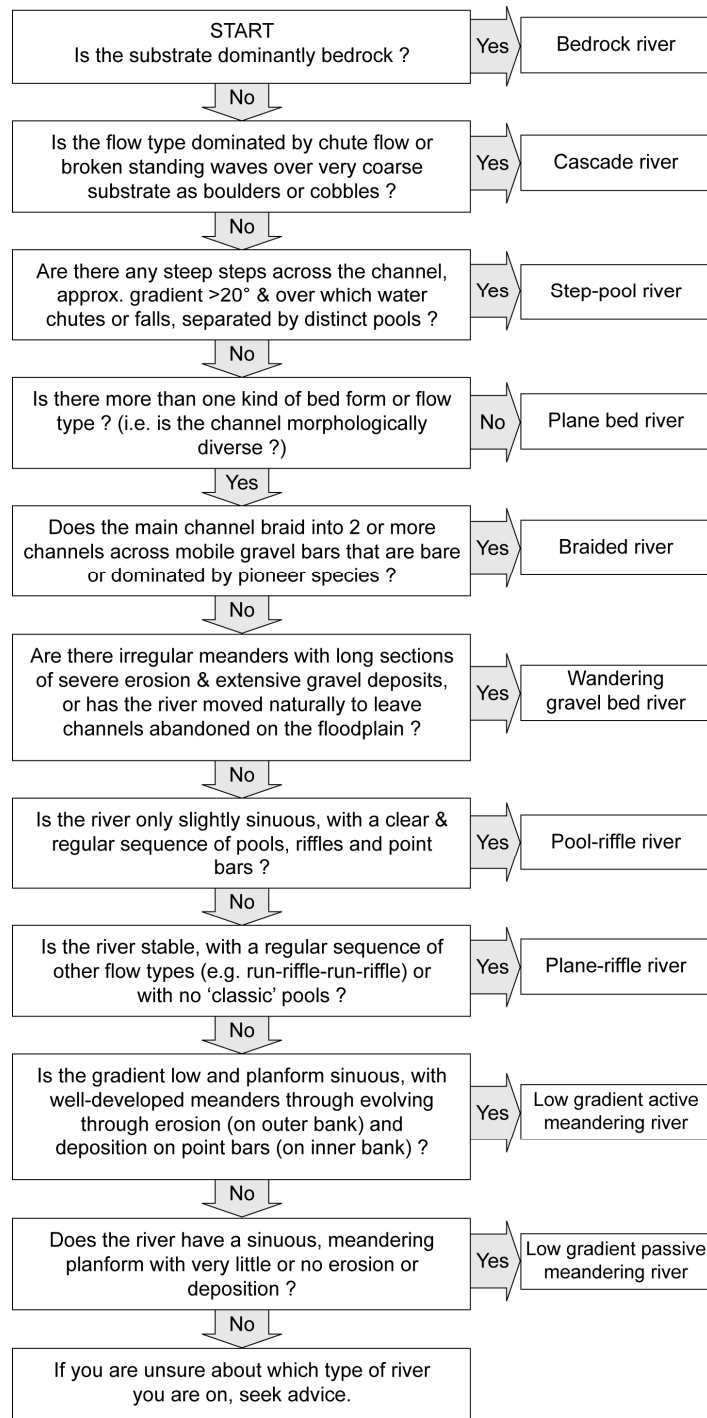


Figure 3: Channel typology flow diagram (Jeffries, 2009).

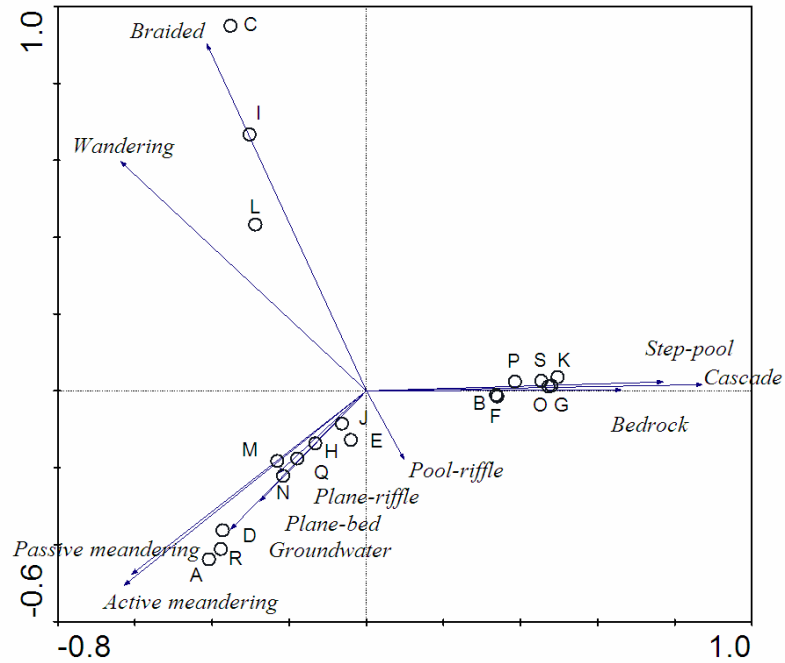


Figure 4: Principal component bi-plot of the distribution of photographs (labelled A to S) and channel types in the SEPA typology.