1	Functional traits of hyporheic and benthic invertebrates reveal importance of wood-driven
2	geomorphological processes in rivers
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#### 20 Abstract

 Large wood (LW) is a natural element of river environments and an integral component of many river restoration schemes to promote biodiversity. It is an important habitat in itself, but it also induces a wide range of hydraulic, hydrological, geomorphological, and chemical conditions that influence the ecological community. However, the effects of hydrogeomorphological processes induced by LW on local benthic and hyporheic invertebrates have not been well characterized.

27 2. A functional approach was applied to invertebrate data collected in a field survey at sites
28 with LW and without LW (control), to investigate the response of hyporheic and benthic
29 invertebrates' trait profiles in response to local LW-induced processes.

30 3. We hypothesized LW sites to be associated with different trait modalities than control sites
31 in relation to wood-induced processes and conditions (i.e. hyporheic exchange flow, oxygen
32 availability, temporal stability, organic matter, denitrification, hydraulic conductivity).
33 Multivariate analyses and Partial Least Squares (PLS) Path Modelling were used to detect
34 the differences in trait profiles between LW and control sites and to study the variation of
35 traits as a function of hydrological, sedimentological, physical and chemical variables.

Biological (i.e. aquatic stages, reproduction), physiological (i.e. dispersal, feeding habits)
and behavioural (i.e. substrate preferences) trait utilization by the hyporheic meiofauna
differed between LW and control sites. At LW sites, the hyporheic meiofaunal assemblage
was significantly associated with aquatic active dispersal, aquatic eggs and hard substrate
preferences. This trait category selection was linked to changes in physical-sedimentological
processes at LW sites when compared to control sites. Macrofaunal benthic and hyporheic

42		functional traits did not differ significantly between wood and control sites, suggesting
43		similar functioning of these assemblages at the surface-subsurface interface.
44	5.	This study found that LW affects invertebrate traits by altering fluvial processes to produce,
45		locally, a mosaic of habitats. Hyporheic meiofauna trait responses to LW-processes have
46		suggested (i) the crucial role of LW in supporting river benthic zone functioning, and thus
47		(ii) a possible benefit to river restoration by enhancing functional interactions among
48		different ecological niches.

*Keywords*: large wood, river ecology, macrofauna, meiofauna, hyporheic zone, river restoration.

#### 50 1. Introduction

Rivers are dynamic environments that vary markedly over short distances and timescales. Consequently, organisms living in them are subjected to large differences and fluctuations in physico-chemical conditions, caused by variable water flow velocities, the movement of sediment, availability of food resources, and nutrient input. The adaptations that a species has to this environment appear in functional traits, the ensemble of morphological, physiological, phenological and behavioural attributes that reflect organismal performance, which determines the community fitness (McGill, Enquist, Weiher, & Westoby, 2006).

Trait-based approaches have been advocated as a mechanistic alternative to traditional taxonomic 58 descriptors and applied from the organism-level to global biodiversity patterns to investigate 59 changes and losses of ecosystem function (Gagic et al., 2015; Mondy & Usseglio-Polatera, 2013; 60 61 Statzner & Bêche, 2010). They have been widely adopted to study benthic invertebrates, i.e. invertebrates living on or near the surface of the riverbed (Usseglio-Polatera, Richoux, Bournaud, 62 & Tachet, 2001), but less commonly for the invertebrate community that lives deeper in the 63 sediment, i.e. the hyporheic community (Descloux, Datry, & Usseglio-Polatera, 2014; 64 65 Dunscombe, Robertson, Peralta-Maraver, & Shaw, 2018). However, a functional approach could help to investigate the hydrological, sedimentological, chemical and physical processes occurring 66 in the hyporheic zone and their effects on local river invertebrate communities (HZ, Orghidan 67 68 1959; Boulton, 2007).

The HZ is an ecotone below and surrounding the river bed, crucial to hydrological and ecological connectivity in rivers (Ward, 1989). It is a dynamic environment with a distinctive fauna

(hyporheos) and a subsurface water flow, named hyporheic exchange flow (HEF). Studies 71coupling taxonomy-based ecological and hydrological data on geomorphic structures (i.e. riffles 72 and large wood) and HEF have provided evidence for the likely mechanisms by which HEF affects 73 river ecology by controlling dissolved oxygen concentration and fine sediment deposition 74 (Mathers, Millett, Robertson, Stubbington, & Wood, 2014), nutrients (Krause, Tecklenburg, 75 Munz, & Naden, 2013), metabolic processes (Krause et al., 2011), and water temperature 76 (Menichino & Hester, 2014). However, like the river at large, the physico-chemical conditions of 77 the HZ vary spatially and temporally over small scales. There are a number of factors (i.e. geology, 78 topography) that drive changes in the hyporheic physical environment in terms of flow, nutrient 79 retention and temperature (Magliozzi, Grabowski, Packman, & Krause, 2018), meaning that 80 organisms are likely to be exposed to spatially variable and temporally varying physical and 81 chemical conditions and would possess functional traits enabling them to cope with selective 82 environmental processes (e.g. denitrification, flow and sediment disturbance). 83

84 Large wood (LW; length > 1 m; diameter > 10 cm; Wohl et al., 2010), for example, is a natural hydrostatic-driver of HEF (Krause et al., 2014), enhancing HEF by increasing riverbed roughness 85 86 and creating hydraulic gradients (Lautz, Siegel, & Bauer, 2006; Mutz, Kalbus, & Meinecke, 2007). 87 LW induces multiple hydrological (i.e. flow deflection and scour), geomorphological (i.e. sediment entrainment and transport) and chemical (i.e. organic matter deposition, nutrient 88 retention) processes that are key to river ecology (i.e. habitat for invertebrates) (Table 1) (Benke 89 & Wallace, 2003) and to river restoration (Grabowski et al. 2019; Larson, Booth, & Morley, 2001). 90 Reaches with LW are usually more geomorphologically and hydraulically heterogeneous in space 91 92 and time than sites without LW (Gurnell, 2013; Gurnell & Grabowski, 2016; Krause et al., 2014).

They are usually characterized by steep head gradients and result in pronounced upwelling and 93 downwelling zones upstream and downstream LW, exhibit enhanced oxygen availability, deeper 94 hyporheic flows and longer residence times than sites without LW (Krause et al., 2014; Sawyer, 95 Cardenas, & Buttles, 2011) (Table 1). LW and the geomorphological changes it induces in the 96 channel, facilitate the deposition of organic material (i.e. litter) and sediment material (fine sand 97 98 and coarse gravel) and promotes nutrient processes (i.e. nitrate accumulation or denitrification) (Blaen et al., 2018; Shelley, Klaar, Krause, & Trimmer, 2017). To this end, ecological research 99 has shown that LW itself and the surrounding LW habitat have an effect on the benthic 100 macroinvertebrate taxonomic structure, in terms of greater abundance, diversity and biomass than 101 in absence of wood (Benke & Wallace, 2003; Thompson et al., 2018). However, very little 102 information is available to investigate the existing connections between LW-induced processes 103 and benthic and hyporheic functional traits (i.e. exception of feeding groups, Flores et al., 2017; 104 Pilotto, Harvey, Wharton, & Pusch, 2016) for understanding the action of processes in the HZ. 105 106 LW-induced hydro-geomorphological and chemical processes could favor the occurrence of specific behavioral, biological, morphological and physiological functional traits in river 107 invertebrates (Table 2, Section S1). 108

The aim of this study is to investigate hyporheic and benthic invertebrates' functional traits in response to local LW-induced processes (Table 1). Functional trait expression is expected to differ in LW and control sites, taking into account LW-conditions and driving processes: i.e. increasing vertical hyporheic exchange, sediment hydraulic conductivity, oxygen and organic matter availability, and lower temporal stability (i.e. lower variability of environmental parameters in control than LW) and denitrification (Table 1). Specifically, we hypothesized that: (i) the trait profiles of both macrofaunal and meiofaunal assemblages would differ between LW and control sites; (ii) specific behavioural, biological, morphological and physiological trait-modalities would differ in LW and control sites, as summarized in Table 2 (see also Section S1 in Supporting Information), for both macrofaunal and meiofaunal assemblages; and (iii) trait variation in LW and control sites could be explained by hydrological, physical, sedimentological and chemical environmental variables responding to LW-driven processes (Table 1).

# 121 **2** Material and Methods

## 122 2.1 Study area and design

The study was conducted in the Hammer stream, West Sussex, UK (catchment area 24.6 km<sup>2</sup>, 123 Shelley, Klaar, Krause, & Trimmer, 2017). It is a woodland stream where LW occurs naturally 124 and drives local hyporheic exchange flows (Shelley, Klaar, Krause, & Trimmer, 2017; section S2). 125 126 Following geomorphological surveys, four reaches with a single in-channel LW were identified in both gravel and sand sections. The studied LWs were natural, active or complete jams, with a 127 128 significant water afflux (Gippel, O'Neill, Finlayson, & Schnatz, 1996), and were stable during the 129 study period. LW sites were located in different reaches, separated by a distance of >150 m (>20 times the channel width) apart to avoid spatial dependencies in the studied local LW effects (Fig. 130 131 1). Control sites were chosen in each reach upstream of the LW, in the gravel and sand sections. Sites were i) bare areas of the riverbed without woody material (wood > 3 cm in diameter or 132 accumulation of woody fragments of smaller dimensions), and ii) located upstream of the LW by 133 a distance of ca. 10 times the channel width. At this distance upstream, control sites were not 134 affected by LW-induced hydrological and geomorphological processes (afflux caused by 135 blockage) as confirmed by cross-sections, total station, and velocity measurements. Both LW and 136 control sites were selected on relatively straight areas of the channel to avoid confounding effects 137 of channel geomorphology on potential HEF. 138

## 139 2.2 Sampling protocol

Each sampling site was sampled in three occasions, in November 2016, May 2017 and August2017. Three replicates of hyporheic and benthic samples were taken within 1 m distance: i)

upstream, downstream and laterally to the LW between areas of maximum fine deposition and the 142 pool to avoid erosional and sedimentation zones and ii) in control sites (Fig. 1). Hyporheic samples 143 were collected using colonization pots (Crossman, Bradley, Milner, & Pinay, 2013) placed 144 between 5 cm and 25 cm deep in the sediment, while benthic samples were taken using a Surber 145 sampler (0.05 m<sup>2</sup>, mesh size = 500  $\mu$ m) from the sediment surface. Pots were left *in-situ* for six 146 weeks to allow sufficient time for invertebrate colonization (Coleman & Hynes, 1970). Hyporheic 147 and benthic samples were collected on the same day. Immediately after collection the samples 148 were stored in plastic jars with 90 % ethanol and returned to the laboratory, where they were rinsed 149 with water and filtered over a set of sieves. For the colonization samples, a 500 µm sieve was used 150 to retain hyporheic macrofaunal individuals; the rest of the sample was filtered through a 45 µm 151 sieve for meiofauna, preserved in 100% ethanol, and stained with Rose Bengal. These meiofaunal 152 samples were sorted within five days of collection (Stead et al., 2003). 153

The Surber samples were sieved with a 500 µm sieve and benthic meiofauna was not sampled 154 155 given the coarser mesh size of the Surber net. All macrofaunal samples were preserved in 80% ethanol. Preserved samples were sorted and identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible, 156 genus or species, under a stereomicroscope or an Olympus Bx50 (Olympus Optical) microscope. 157 158 Some taxa (i.e. Plecoptera, Trichoptera) were damaged in collection, processing, or storage, possibly due to the high amount of fine sediment in the samples or physical abrasion during the 159 160 sieving process, and thus identified only to family level. Meiofaunal taxa such as Nematoda, 161 Oligochaeta, Cyclopoida, Acari, Anomopoda, Cladocera, Ctenopoda, Ostracoda were identified to 162 order or class level (Dobson, Pawley, Fletcher, & Powell, 2012; Tachet, Richoux, Bournaud, & Usseglio-Polatera, 2010). 163

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# 165 2.3 Environmental data

166 Environmental variables were measured in triplicate at each sampling site on every sampling occasion (Table 3). Temperature (T; °C), pH, dissolved oxygen (DO; %), electric conductivity 167 (EC;  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup>) were measured with a multiparameter probe (Hannah HI98196). Velocity 168 169 measurements were taken using a Flow Tracker Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter (SonTek) upstream and downstream LW and used with the channel width and water depth to calculate discharge 170 (velocity-area method). A total station (TS06 Leica) and georeferential GPS (GS08plus, Leica 171 Viva) were used to survey the location of LW pieces. The bankfull width, wetted width, and the 172 orientation angle of each LW relative to the channel, alongside the length and diameter of each 173 large wood were calculated using ArcGIS 10.1 (Table S5). Sediment cores (diameter 5 cm, depth 174 25 cm) were collected for sediment grain size analysis (Blott & Pye, 2001) and organic content 175 estimation by loss of ignition (incinerated at 550°C for 5 h) (Heiri, Lotter, & Lemcke, 2001). 176 177 Median grain size, sorting coefficient, skewness and cumulative percentile values (i.e.  $D_{10}$ ,  $D_{90}$ ) were calculated from the dry weight of the different sediment fractions using the geometric Falk 178 and Ward (1957) method (GRADISTAT program; Blott & Pye, 2011). Wooden stakes of untreated 179 180 Pinus pinaster were inserted into the sediment with colonization pots and used to estimate vertical patterns of interstitial oxygenation (Marmonier et al., 2004). Finally, sediment pore water at 25 cm 181 182 depth was collected using minipiezometers (Lewandowski, Putschew, Schwesig, Neumann, & Radke, 2011) for measurements of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and phosphate, discarding 1.5 to 2 183 184 times the inner volume of the minipiezometer tube before filtering the sample. The samples were filtered into 5 mL sample vials using syringe filters (28 mm, 0.2 µm); a new filter was used for 185

186 each sample. After filtration, the samples were acidified (2 M HCl, pH *ca.* 2). Filtration and
187 acidification were conducted within 30 minutes after the sample collection (Lewandowski,
188 Putschew, Schwesig, Neumann, & Radke, 2011).

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#### 190 2.4 Trait description

The functional traits of both benthic invertebrate macrofauna (individuals retained by 500 µm 191 sieve) in the benthic zone, and hyporheic invertebrate macrofauna (retained by 500  $\mu$ m) and 192 meiofauna (retained by 45  $\mu$ m) in the hyporheic zone were investigated using a multivariate 193 approach (Section 2.5.1). The traits used in this study consisted of behavioural, biological, 194 morphological and physiological features identified in the literature as reflecting organismal 195 performance and adaptations to environmental pressures (Table S1) (McGill, Enquist, Weiher, & 196 Westoby, 2006). Each trait was described by 2 to 9 modalities (Table S1). The taxa of the benthic 197 (71 taxa) and hyporheic (72 macrofaunal and 59 meiofaunal taxa) zones were coded, at genus or 198 199 family level, according to their affinity to each category of a trait using a fuzzy coding approach (Chevenet, Dolédec, & Chessel, 1994). Trait tables from Tachet, Richoux, Bournaud, & Usseglio-200 Polatera (2010) and Descloux, Datry, & Usseglio-Polatera (2014) were used for coding 201 macrofauna and meiofauna functional traits. Taxa such as Nematoda, Oligochaeta, Cyclopoida, 202 Acari, Anomopoda, Copepoda, Ctenopoda and Ostracoda (52.72% overall abundance in hyporheic 203 meiofauna samples, Table S4) were described as mean trait profiles of their potential families in 204 the corresponding biogeographic area (Descloux, Datry, & Usseglio-Polatera 2014). The affinities 205 206 of taxa for the modalities of a trait were converted into relative abundance distributions so that the sum of the trait modality affinity scores for an individual trait and a given taxon equals one. 207

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#### 209 2.5 Data analysis

#### 210 2.5.1 Biological data

Hyporheic macrofauna, hyporheic meiofauna, and benthic macrofauna were analysed separately 211 because a preliminary correspondence analysis conducted on faunal abundances showed that there 212 were significant differences between sampling methods (colonisation pots vs Surbers) and between 213 ecological zones (benthic vs hyporheic). Abundances of all identified taxa were merged by reach, 214 treatment (wood vs control) and sampling campaign (period). The mean trait profile of sample 215 assemblages was obtained by weighting the individual trait profiles of corresponding taxa by their 216 log-transformed (x+1) abundances in the sample. Rare taxa (< 5 individuals over the whole 217 sampling design) were removed to avoid extremes in the analysis (Cao, Larsen, & Thorne, 2001; 218 Gauch, 1982). Then, within reach x campaign analysis (Within Class Analysis, WCA) (wca 219 function of the R package ade4; Dray, Dufour, & Thioulouse, 2017) was performed to assess 220 221 whether trait composition in i) hyporheic meiofauna and macrofauna and ii) benthic assemblages was identical in wood and control sites. The WCA performs a particular case of principal 222 component analysis (PCA) with respect to the variable of interest (i.e. wood vs control in this 223 224 study) (Benzécri, 1983). It is an effective method to eliminate the effects of confounding variables (i.e. reach and campaign date in this study) in the analysed dataset (Castella, Richardot-Coulet, 225 226 Roux, & Richoux, 1991; Dolédec & Chessel, 1989; Dole-Olivier, , Marmonier, & Beffy, 1997; Van Looy, Floury, Ferréol, Prieto-Montes, & Souchon, 2016). Subsequently, the conditional 227 228 inference tree approach (CIT) (*ctree* function R package party; Hothorn, Hornik, Strobl, & Zeileis, 2017) was applied to distinguish groups of sites with significantly different combinations of trait 229

profiles, based on their coordinates along the successive factorial axes in WCA. CIT is a recursive, non-parametric, partitioning method that allows estimating regression relationships between variables (Hothorn, Hornik, & Zeileis, 2006; Section 5 in Supporting Information). In our study, CIT was tested using Bonferroni permutation test (9999 permutations,  $\alpha = 0.01$ ). Finally, taxon trait-profiles among wood and control sites (n = 48) were compared using the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Bonferroni corrections (p-value < 0.001) were applied for selecting trait modalities with significant differences between LW vs control sites.

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#### 238 2.5.2 Environment-trait relationships

The relationship between environmental data and taxon traits was investigated by applying the 239 Partial Least Squares (PLS) Path Modelling (Wold, 1982) using the plspm function of the R 240 package plspm (Sanchez, Trinchera, & Russolillo, 2017). PLS was applied to link hydrological, 241 physical, sedimentological and chemical variables to the variations of invertebrate trait modalities 242 243 (Fig. S1). PLS is a statistical method that quantifies the relationships between observed manifest (indicators or items) and latent variables (indirectly measured - LVs) in a system of multiple linear 244 regressions (Vinzi, Trinchera, & Amato, 2010). In the last few years, this approach has been 245 246 increasingly applied to a wide range of disciplines including econometrics, social sciences and ecology (Bizzi, Surridge, & Lerner, 2013; Villeneuve, Piffady, Valette, Souchon, & Usseglio-247 248 Polatera, et al., 2018). First, the PLS approach includes the estimation of the latent variables as linear combinations of their respective blocks of manifest variables (Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, 249 250 & Lauro, 2005). This first step is an iterative process in which the latent variables are calculated as the weighed sum of their manifest variables till convergence of the weights is reached 251

(Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005). The calculations are performed on the outer model, 252 which links the manifest variables to the corresponding latent variables (Vinzi, Trinchera, & 253 Amato, 2010). At the end of the first step, the method calculates the path coefficients between 254 latent variables by ordinary least square regressions on the inner model, which accounts for the 255relationships between latent variables (Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005). The last step 256 of the PLS analysis involves the computation of the loadings by simple correlations in the outer 257 model. In this study, the LVs (hydrological, physical, chemical and sedimentological variables) 258 were standardized and expressed as formative indicators (manifest variables that form the latent 259 variables) while the latent trait-based variables (i.e. "trait modalities") were measured in a 260 reflective way (manifest variables are considered as being caused by the latent variables) (Fig. S1) 261 (Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005). PLS analysis was executed on a sub-set of 262 significant trait modalities (Section 2.5.1). The quality of the model was assessed using  $R^2$ 263 determination coefficients (Croutsche, 2002) and bootstrap validation (number of resamples: 264 265 1000) was used to validate the parameter estimates. All the coefficients presented in this work were significant at 95% confidence interval (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). Finally, the 266 latent variables were evaluated with respect to trait modalities by looking at the effects (direct and 267 268 total) of each construct on the trait variation (Sanchez, 2013). The contributions in percentage of direct and total (direct + indirect) effects were calculated in wood and control conditions, for each 269 270 significant trait modality.

271

272 **3. Results** 

# 273 **3.1** Hyporheic and benthic trait profiles between wood and control sites

The functional trait profiles of the hyporheic meiofauna differed between wood and control sites, 274 as confirmed by the WCA (F1 = 12.8%, F2 = 10.0% of explained variance; Fig. 2a) and CIT 275approach (Fig. 2b). The ordination plots of single trait modalities showed that many trait modalities 276 were differently expressed in wood and control sites (Fig. S2), but these differences were 277 statistically significant (Wilcoxon's test, Bonferroni adjusted p-value < 0.001) for only six of them: 278 i) aquatic active dispersal, ii) aquatic eggs, iii) aquatic nymphs, and preferences for iv) twigs and 279 roots, v) sand and vi) hard substrates (i.e. flags, boulders, cobbles and pebbles; Fbcp in Fig. 3 and 280 Table S2). Control sites were characterized by trait specific substrate preferences (i.e. twigs and 281 roots and sand) and some aquatic stages (i.e. nymph) (Fig. 3). The functional trait profiles of both 282 hyporheic and benthic macrofauna did not differ between wood and control sites (F1 = 11.0% and 283 9.1%, F2 = 10.3% and 8.8% of explained variance for hyporhetic and benthic macrofauna, 284 respectively; Figs. S3, S4), and no trait modalities exhibited statistically significant differences 285 between control and LW sites (Wilcoxon's test, Bonferroni adjusted p-value <0.001). Macrofaunal 286 assemblages were characterized by trait modalities that were not significantly different (p-value  $\geq$ 287 0.05, Table S3, Fig. S5) in LW and control sites. 288

289

290 **3.2** Environmental-trait relationships

PLS analysis was applied to the six significant meiofaunal traits. The PLS inner model showed moderate prediction capacity of meiofaunal trait modality utilization by LVs ( $R^2$ : 47 % in wood and 55 % in control) (Fig. 4). Sedimentological and chemical variables were well explained in both control and wood sites (55% <  $R^2$  values < 61%, 40% <  $R^2$  values < 62%, Fig. 4). Physical variables were weakly to moderately explained by the model with  $R^2$  values varying from 14% to

35%. Sedimentological and physical LVs had the greatest effects on trait modalities (25% - 44%)296 and 22%-43%, respectively) despite the response patterns differing between sites (Fig. 5a). Trait 297 298 modalities at wood sites were affected mostly by physical variables (43%) with important effects for sedimentological and hydrological LVs (respectively 25% and 20%; Fig. 5a). In control sites, 299 the direct effects of sedimentological and chemical LVs explained most of the trait variation (44 300 % and 31%), whereas hydrological variables had only a minor effect (3%). When looking at the 301 total effects, the contribution of LVs to trait variation changed, due to indirect effects (Fig. 5a). A 302 higher effect of hydrology (+16% to +29%) and a decrease in the effect of sedimentological 303 variables (-7% to -18%) were shown in both control and wood sites (Fig. 5a). Finally, 304 sedimentological and physical LVs exhibited higher impact (50-80%) on substrate preferences (i.e. 305 sand and twigs/roots) and aquatic stages (i.e. egg, nymph) variation, in control sites (Fig. 5b). In 306 wood sites, the relative contribution of the LVs to the trait variation was more similar among 307 modalities (Fig. 5b). 308

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#### 312 4. Discussion

This study investigated multiple functional traits of meiofaunal and macrofaunal invertebrates to study their response to LW-induced processes in rivers. Wood and control site hyporheic assemblages exhibited different profiles of traits, with general patterns emerging in terms of responses to wood and wood-induced processes. In this section we discuss wood-related traits in the hyporheic and benthic zones (Section 4.1) and the major environmental predictors of traitmodality variation (Section 4.2).

319

#### 320 4.1 Wood-related traits of the meiofauna and macrofauna in LW habitats

Our study found that meiofaunal functional trait profiles differed in wood and control sites, suggesting functional relationships between traits and environmental forces in the HZ, and upholding our first hypothesis that LW would affect the trait profiles of the hyporheic meiofauna. Significant differences between LW and control sites were recorded for individual biological, physiological and behavioural meiofaunal trait modalities, reflecting organismal adaptations in the HZ. These specific trait modalities partly support our second hypothesis that multiple functional traits and trait-modalities would be affected by LW.

Significant trait modalities in LW included aquatic active dispersal, aquatic eggs and hard substrate 328 preferences (Fig. 3). These trait modalities relate strongly to temporal instability, flow disturbance 329 and sediment hydraulic conductivity (Bilton, Freeland, & Okamura, 2001; Descloux, Datry, & 330 Marmonier, 2014; Larsen, Pace, & Ormerod, 2011). Active aquatic dispersal was recorded as 331 significant behavioural feature, counter to our expectations (Table 2), for meiofaunal assemblages 332 in LW, suggesting that hyporheic hydrology might not play a strong role in determining where 333 meiofaunal species occur both spatially and temporally (see also Section 4.2). Active aquatic 334 dispersal entails self-generating organism movements often associated with flightless aquatic 335 invertebrates that display an active behaviour triggered by changing and unstable environmental 336 conditions (Stubbington et al., 2017; Tonkin et al., 2017). However as the cues that trigger aquatic 337 and hyporheic insects to disperse are still an active area of research (Bilton, Freeland, & Okamura, 338

2001), active aquatic dispersal in a heterogeneous and temporally varying environment may be 339 advantageous. This is supported by the presence of more meiofaunal organisms with aquatic eggs 340 in LW sites. Previous studies have already observed invertebrates dispersing in variable habitats 341 by differential egg hatching regimes (e.g. differences in temperature leading to rapid hatching or 342 germination when dormancy is broken) (Brock, Nielsen, Shiel, Green, & Langley, 2003; Zwick, 343 1996). Wood meiofaunal assemblages also showed substrate preferences for cobbles and pebbles 344 (Fbcp in Fig. 3), possibly due to the more heterogeneous habitat conditions and presence of patches 345 of much coarser sediment around LW (Table 3) (Pilotto, Bertoncin, Harvey, Wharton, & Pusch, 346 2014). 347

Functional traits of hyporheic and benthic macrofaunal assemblages did not differ significantly 348 across sites, thereby our first and second hypotheses that trait profiles of macrofaunal and 349 meiofaunal assemblages differ between LW and control sites (Table 2) were not upheld. This result 350 might suggest that the dominant macrofaunal species (hyporheic and benthic) exhibited similar 351 352 combination of traits (in coherence with the biomass-ratio hypothesis of Grime (1998)) and, at the scale of both benthic and hyporheic zones, were driven by similar functional relationships to 353 environmental processes and forces. Therefore assemblages could have similar functioning and 354 functional divergence (i.e. low niche differentiation, lack or few specialist species), in the study 355 356 site (Villéger, Mason, & Mouillot, 2008). Results might also suggest a relatively stable taxonomic diversity for macrofaunal assemblages at wood vs control scale, and a decrease in functional space 357 with possibly the loss of specialist species with narrow niches between benthic and hyporheic 358 zones (Villéger, Mason, & Mouillot, 2008). Finally, the implemented sampling design did not 359 allow to efficiently depict the variability of functional traits at LW scale, with respect - for example 360

- to erosional and deposition areas or flow paths. This might be another reason why functional
differences in macroinvertebrate assemblages between LW and control sites were not detected in
the results.

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# 365 4.2 Environmental drivers of hyporheic meiofauna trait variation

Trait variation in LW and control sites was mainly explained by sedimentological and physical variables, although their relative contributions differed between sites. In this study, wood-related physical LVs, described by pH, conductivity, dissolved oxygen and, temperature, were the most important in explaining the overall variation of taxon traits (Fig. 4), implying that these traits exhibit strong relationships to local LW environmental conditions when viewed at local scale. The relative contribution of LVs to wood-trait variation is similar among modalities, underscoring a similar importance of all studied environmental drivers at LW sites

Control sites exhibited higher homogeneity in sedimentological variables, suggesting an increase 373 374 in temporal stability partly due to the absence of wood-induced physical processes (Table 1). Sedimentological variables explained more than the 25% of hyporheic meiofaunal trait variation 375 for all significant modalities (Fig. 5b). They explained much more of the variation of traits in 376 control sites than LW sites, although significant trait modalities did not reflect a strong 377 sedimentological impact (Fig. 5b). This finding is supported by other studies that have observed 378 weaker effects of sediment size on hyporheic than epibenthic trait profiles (Descloux, Datry, & 379 380 Marmonier, 2013; Descloux, Datry, & Usseglio-Polatera, 2014). Chemical and physical LVs 381 explained 50% of the hyporheic meiofaunal trait variation for aquatic stages, dispersal and substrate preferences (Fig. 5b). Chemical LVs explained much more of the variation of traits for 382

383 hyporheic meiofaunal assemblages in control than wood sites (Fig. 4). This result is consistent with a recently published study on the , sandy section of the Hammer stream that shows LW sites 384 385 were characterized by short hyporheic flow-paths inhibiting local nitrate reduction (Shelley, Klaar, Krause, & Trimmer, 2017). The responses of benthic invertebrate assemblages to nutrients 386 are well documented, but those of the hyporheic meiofaunal assemblages are far less known 387 388 (Marmonier et al., 2012). Certain groups of invertebrates have proved to be good indicators of moderately eutrophic rivers. Many caddisflies belonging to the Glossosomatidae, Psychomyiidae 389 and Hydropsychidae families for example, have been found intolerant or withstanding only a low-390 moderate range of nitrate concentrations (Nijboer, 2004; Pacioglu, Moldovan, Shaw, & Robertson, 391 2016). In our study, Psychomyiidae and Hydropsyche spp. instars were observed in hyporheic 392 samples of control sites exhibiting higher concentrations of ammonium and phosphates than LW 393 sites, thus supporting previous finding by providing a global indication of the chemical conditions 394 in the HZ. Besides, other taxonomic groups (e.g. Chironomidae, Oligochaeta, Nematoda and 395 396 Amphipoda), widespread among wood and control sites, have demonstrated high tolerance to nutrients in previous studies (Pacioglu, Moldovan, Shaw, & Robertson, 2016). 397

Finally, our findings confirmed the mechanistic impact of LW on hyporheic meiofauna traitselection as the result of a combination of LW-driving processes. The effects are more pronounced on meiofaunal than macrofaunal assemblages highlighting the importance of LW in triggering physical and sedimentological impacts on faunal communities of lowland systems. LW impacts on hyporheic meiofauna are potentially important given that many benthic invertebrate species rely closely on the HZ in their life cycle (Robertson & Wood, 2010). Our findings provide further evidence of the mechanisms responsible for local invertebrate assemblage structure in LW,reflecting adaptations to dominant regional and local environmental stresses.

#### 406 **5. Conclusions**

The functional trait approach offers a mechanistic alternative to traditional taxonomy-based 407 approach for studying functional relationships between invertebrates and wood-habitats. The 408 409 hyporheic zone and river connectivity are interrelated structural and functional properties of heterogeneous environments (Ward, 1989). Large wood plays a key role in promoting vertical 410 hydrological connectivity (Lautz, Siegel, & Bauer, 2006) and, as evidenced in this study, 411 ecological functions. Both hydrological connectivity and ecological functions are crucial to river 412 functionality (e.g. "biodiversity maintenance"; Liebold & Norberg, 2004) and, as a result, to river 413 management (Kondolf et al., 2006). 414

Our results suggest that a high variability of local abiotic conditions in LW sites promotes species 415 traits related to temporal instability and low refugia availability (Townsend & Hildrew, 1994). As 416 result, LW would likely promote the sustainability of r-strategist species and in turn contribute to 417 maintain the global richness/biodiversity of local invertebrate assemblages by facilitating long-418 term temporal coexistence between r- and K-strategists at reach scale. r-strategists would exhibit 419 an adaptive advantage for living in more unstable habitats, which function as refugia (following 420 the Intermediate Disturbance Hypothesis (IDH) theory; Connell, 1978). Perhaps, sediment 421 disturbance around the LW, a process not measured in this study, is an important, and possibly 422 under-appreciated, environmental control of hyporheic and benthic invertebrate assemblages and 423 should be considered in the future. 424

Finally, in the context of river restoration, large wood has been gradually integrated into 425 management strategies as a means of improving the biodiversity and conservation value of lowland 426 rivers (Grabowski et al, 2019; Larson, Booth, & Morley, 2001). Yet, such approaches have not 427 always given due attention to the ecological effects of physical processes potentially promoting 428 ecological responses. Our study confirmed the significant effect of large wood on biological, 429 physiological and behavioural traits of the hyporheic meiofauna, suggesting a crucial role in 430 supporting river benthic zone functioning, and thus a possible benefit to river restoration by 431 enhancing functional interactions among different ecological niches. Such data are essential within 432 a process-driven and strategic framework to effective restoration planning (Wohl, Lane, & Wilcox, 433 2015) and has heuristic value for generating further hypotheses about invertebrate functional 434 responses to LW. 435

#### 436 Authors' Contributions

C. Magliozzi designed, collected the data, analysed the dataset and wrote the manuscript. P. Usseglio-Polatera coded the species traits, supervised the analysis and contributed to the discussions and editing throughout the manuscript. A. Meyer assisted in the analysis, interpretation and editing of the manuscript. R. Grabowski provided guidance on structure, advice and editing of the manuscript. All authors approved the manuscript and have no competing interests to declare.

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# 447 Data Accessibility

The ecological data collected for this project is available on the Cranfield University data repository (Grabowski & Magliozzi, 2019). The data includes (i) abundances of invertebrates and traits and (ii) environmental conditions for the wood and control sites on the River Hammer.

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# 681 Tables and Figures

682Table 1: Hypothesized effects of wood to promote (+) or inhibit (-) key

683 processes and conditions.

Processes & Conditions	Wood	Control	References
1. Hyporheic exchange flow	+	-	Krause et al., 2014
2. Oxygen availability	+	-	Kaller & Kelso, 2007
3. Temporal stability	-	+	Gurnell, 2013
4. Organic matter	+	-	Blaen et al., 2018
5. Denitrification	-	+	Klaar, Krause, & Trimmer, 2017
6. Hydraulic conductivity	+	-	Mutz, Kalbus, & Meinecke, 2007

Table 2: Trait modalities predicted to be significantly enhanced by the habitat conditions in the site type (Large wood or Control). Numbers in bold indicate processes (see Table 1 for codes) that are hypothesized to have a strong influence in driving the predicted trait modality.

	Traits	Large wood	Control	Processes
	Locomotion	attached	interstitial, burrowers, crawlers	1, 6
Behavioural	Substrate preferences	organic detritus, litter, roots	mud, silt	1, 4, 6
	Velocity preferences	fast/medium	slow, null	1
	Dispersal	aquatic passive	aquatic active	1
	Aquatic stages	larva, egg	adult, nymph	1, <b>3</b> , 2
	Nb cycles/yr	> 1	≤1	1, <b>3</b>
Biological	Reproduction techniques & resistance forms	high fecundity, resistance stages	low fecundity, none or few resistance stages	3
	Size	small		3
Morphological	Body form	flattened, streamlined	cylindrical, spherical	1, <b>6</b>
	Body flexibility	low/intermediate	high	1, <b>6</b>
	Feeding habits	filter feeders, shredders	deposit feeders	1, <b>4</b> , 5
Physiological	Food	microphytes, dead plants (≥ 1 mm)	detritus (< 1 mm) microorganisms	4, 5
	Respiration	spiracle, gills	tegument	2

690 Table 3: Mean hydrological, physical, sedimentological and chemical variables  $(\pm sd)$  recorded at wood and control sites in the gravel

691 and control reaches of the Hammer stream between October 2016 and August 2017. Mean Water Depth (MW), Discharge (Q),

692 Conductivity (EC), Dissolved Oxygen (DO), Temperature (T), Sediment Grain Size: D10, D50, D90, Sorting Coefficient (SO),

693 Skewness (SK), Sediment Organic Matter (OM), Oxygen Depth (OD), Ammonium  $NH_4^+$ , Nitrate  $NO_3^-$ , Nitrite  $NO_2^-$ , Phosphate (SRP).

694 Detection limit of 0.1 mg N  $L^{-1}$  for Nitrate, 0.01mg N  $L^{-1}$  for Nitrite, and 0.03 mg N  $L^{-1}$  for Ammonium.

	<b>Control-Gravel</b>	Wood-Gravel	<b>Control-Sand</b>	Wood-Sand
Hydrological variables				
MW (m)	$0.20 \pm 0.14$	$0.28 \pm 0.09$	$0.26 \pm 0.09$	$0.31 \pm 0.11$
$Q(m^3s^{-1})$	$0.07 \pm 0.03$	$0.09 \pm 0.05$	$0.05 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$
Physical variables				
EC ( $\mu$ S cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$249.71 \pm 19.10$	243.29 ±19.26	$237.68 \pm 19.62$	$223.58 \pm 30.40$
DO (%)	$89.50 \pm 19.96$	$97.66 \pm 34.75$	$91.40 \pm 28.17$	$91.54 \pm 40.09$
pH	$7.23 \pm 0.39$	$7.02 \pm 0.23$	$6.85 \pm 0.60$	$6.67 \pm 0.58$
T (°C)	$13.07 \pm 3.43$	$12.48 \pm 3.11$	$12.26 \pm 2.68$	$11.78 \pm 3.11$
Sedimentological variables				
D10 (cm)	$0.91 \pm 1.11$	$4.06 \pm 5.09$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.16 \pm 0.02$
D90 (cm)	$10.68 \pm 2.13$	$31.15 \pm 10.16$	$3.04 \pm 8.93$	$3.14 \pm 6.30$
D50 (cm)	$4.34 \pm 2.14$	$14.09 \pm 7.83$	$0.14 \pm 0.15$	$0.39 \pm 0.14$
SO (cm)	$0.001 \pm 0.001$	$0.003 \pm 0.001$	$0.001 \pm 0.000$	$0.002 \pm 0.000$
SK (cm)	$-0.0001 \pm 0.0001$	$-0.0002 \pm 0.0002$	$-0.0001 \pm 0.0001$	$-0.0001 \pm 0.0001$
OM (%)	$0.25 \pm 0.16$	$1.10 \pm 0.82$	$2.81 \pm 2.89$	$12.70 \pm 7.27$
OD (cm)	$5.87 \pm 4.68$	$6.25 \pm 2.77$	$4.40 \pm 2.71$	$5.44 \pm 3.13$
Chemical variables				
NH4+ (mg N L <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.13 \pm 0.12$	$0.09 \pm 0.06$	$1.89 \pm 1.28$	$0.54 \pm 0.41$
NO3 <sup>-</sup> (mg N L <sup>-1</sup> )	$7.04 \pm 3.47$	$7.24 \pm 3.10$	$0.69 \pm 0.43$	$0.67 \pm 0.42$
NO2 <sup>-</sup> (mg N L <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.02 \pm 0.02$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$	$0.01 \pm 0.01$	$0.01 \pm 0.01$
SRP (mg PO4 L <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.06 \pm 0.04$	$0.05 \pm 0.04$	$0.58 \pm 0.42$	$0.26 \pm 0.30$



Figure 1: The study was conducted in the Hammer stream, West Sussex, UK. Invertebrates were sampled at 4 sites in sand (upstream Hammer pond) and gravel (downstream Hammer pond) sections (LW 1-4), with three replicates taken in control and around the LW (b) using colonization pots and Surber net. Inset (left): an illustration of sampling around the LW and of the colonization pot equipped with wood stakes (\*) and minipiezometer (\*\*). The pot is cylindrical steel cages (mesh size 1 cm2), a tarpaulin bag with reinforced 40

- top and cable which is placed around the base of each pot before inserting the pot in the excavated hole.
- b1) pot is positioned into the river bed. b2) during the extraction, cable is pulled vertically, driving the wire-
- reinforced tops to the surface and extending the tarpaulin bags.



Figure 2: Hyporheic meiofauna trait profiles among wood and control sites. (a) First factorial plane 705 of WCA giving the locations of the 48 samples gathered by wood and control sites. Labels are 706 located at the weighted average (i.e. the centre of the star) of corresponding samples (solid circles). 707 The ellipses of inertia are defined as the 95% confidence interval around the centroids, and the 708 percentage of the total variance explained is indicated for each axis. (b) CIT (9999 Bonferroni 709 permutations;  $\alpha = 0.01$ ) testing the significance of differences in wood and control site locations 710 on the first WCA factorial plane (response variables: coordinates of samples along F1 and F2; n = 711 number of samples). 712



Figure 3: Relative frequency of trait modalities (see Table S1 for abbreviations) for hyporheic meiofauna in control *vs* LW sites. Only trait modalities exhibiting significant differences (Wilcoxon test, adjusted p-values < 0.001) between control and LW sites are presented. Traits are indicated in bracket: AS = Aquatic stages, D = Dispersal, S = Substrate preferences.

#### HYPORHEIC MEIOFAUNA



721

Figure 4: PLS path models for the hyporheic meiofauna in (a) wood and (b) control sites, showing latent variables connected by direct effects.  $R^2$  is reported for each internal model and for the

724 contributions of latent variables to the variation in trait modalities (in bold).



Figure 5: (a) Relative contribution (%) of latent variables (LVs) to the variation of the trait
modalities of hyporheic meiofauna significantly differing between wood and control sites
(Wilcoxon test, adjusted p-value < 0.001), based on direct and total (= direct + indirect) effects.</li>
(b) Direct effects of LVs on the trait modalities of hyporheic meiofauna significantly differing
between wood and control sites (Wilcoxon test, adjusted p-value < 0.001).</li>

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# Functional traits of hyporheic and benthic invertebrates reveal importance of wood-driven geomorphological processes to rivers

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