

1 **Vertical movements through subsurface stream sediments by benthic**  
2 **macroinvertebrates during experimental drying are influenced by sediment**  
3 **characteristics and species traits.**

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22 **Keywords:** intermittent rivers; burrowing; active movement; invertebrates, mesocosm  
23 experiments.

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## 26 Summary

- 27 1. Streambed drying is becoming more common due to climate change and increasing  
28 anthropogenic water resource pressures. Subsurface sediments are a potential refuge  
29 for benthic macroinvertebrates during drying events in temporary streams.
- 30 2. Sediment characteristics are important controls on the distribution of  
31 macroinvertebrates in subsurface habitats, but difficulties making observations  
32 impedes quantification of vertical movements. Species traits (e.g., subsurface habitat  
33 affinity) also influence vertical movements of macroinvertebrates into the subsurface  
34 sediments, but most species-specific responses remain uncharacterized.
- 35 3. Transparent artificial mesocosms were used to directly observe the vertical  
36 movements of individuals of three aquatic insect nymphs and two crustaceans.  
37 Mixtures of three types of transparent sediment of varying particle size were  
38 combined to produce six treatments with differing interstitial pore volumes and, hence,  
39 differing subsurface porosity. Macroinvertebrate vertical movements were measured  
40 during incremental reductions in water level from 5 cm above to 20 cm below the  
41 sediment surface. These species comprised a variety of trait categories including  
42 feeding group, species affinity to temporary streams and subsurface habitats. Active  
43 and passive vertical movements were determined by conducting experiments with  
44 both live individuals and their cadavers.
- 45 4. Sediment treatment influenced the vertical movements of individuals as reducing  
46 subsurface porosity decreased vertical movements for most species. Vertical  
47 movement into subsurface sediments in response to water level reduction was the  
48 result of active, not passive, movements for all species.
- 49 5. Species identity influenced the vertical movements made by individuals. *Nemoura*  
50 *cambrica* had the highest affinity for temporary streams and subsurface habitats and

51 its vertical movements were unaffected by sediment treatment, generally reaching  
52 depths between 20–25 cm. Most individuals of species with a weaker subsurface  
53 affinity (i.e. the benthic grazer *Heptagenia sulphurea* and the filter-feeder  
54 *Hydropsyche siltalai*) became stranded as water levels were reduced in all sediment  
55 treatments. Vertical movements of *Gammarus pulex* and *Asellus aquaticus* were  
56 restricted primarily by pore volume, these taxa becoming stranded most commonly in  
57 sediments with smaller interstitial volumes.

58 6. Our results highlight the need for the development and implementation of river  
59 management strategies that increase streambed porosity, allowing macroinvertebrates  
60 to access to the saturated subsurface habitat during stream drying.

61

## 62 **Introduction**

63 Temporary streams experience periods of no flow, often resulting in the loss of longitudinal  
64 hydrological connectivity and surface water (e.g. Boulton, 2003; Datry et al., 2014a; Bogan et  
65 al., 2015). Surface water loss can be detrimental and, in some instances, fatal to many aquatic  
66 species (Extence, 1981; Stanley et al., 1997; Wood et al., 2010). A wide range of species,  
67 however, display behavioural adaptations that facilitate their persistence in temporary streams  
68 (Lytle & Poff, 2004; Datry, 2012). Temporary streams are widespread and occur in every  
69 climatic zone from polar (e.g., McKnight et al., 1999) and temperate regions (Williams &  
70 Hynes, 1976; Stubbington et al., 2016) through to tropical and arid zones (Steward et al.,  
71 2012; Leigh 2013; Bogan et al., 2015). They, therefore, represent a widespread stream type  
72 supporting distinct species assemblages (Westwood et al., 2006; Bogan et al., 2013; Acuña et  
73 al., 2014).

74 Surface flow cessation and streambed drying are the primary drivers of temporary stream  
75 community structure (Bogan & Lytle, 2011; Datry et al., 2014a), taxonomic richness (Datry  
76 et al., 2014a; Stubbington et al., 2015; Leigh & Datry, 2016), population abundance (Smith &  
77 Wood, 2002; Rüegg & Robinson, 2004) and ecosystem functioning (Datry et al., 2011;  
78 Magoulick, 2014). Despite an increasing recognition of the wider value of ecosystem services  
79 provided by temporary streams and their biota (Acuña et al., 2014; Datry et al., 2014b), few  
80 studies have examined the response of individual lotic species to surface water loss, including  
81 their survival, and the ability of individuals to access and use subsurface habitats during  
82 drying (Imhof & Harrison, 1981; Vadher et al., 2015; Vander Vorste et al., 2016a).

83 Addressing this knowledge gap is important because poor access to subsurface habitats (e.g.,  
84 due to sedimentation/colmation) during streambed drying is likely to compromise the  
85 persistence of many aquatic macroinvertebrate species (Descloux et al., 2013; Jones et al.,  
86 2015; Vadher et al., 2015; Leigh et al., 2016).

87 After benthic sediments dry, subsurface water may persist within the hyporheic zone (Hose et  
88 al., 2005; Fenoglio et al., 2006). The potential for these subsurface sediments to function as a  
89 refuge has long been recognised (Williams & Hynes, 1974). The hyporheic zone is an  
90 important habitat and resource for aquatic fauna during streambed drying in many streams  
91 (Dole-Olivier, 2011; Vadher et al., 2015; Vander Vorste, 2016b). If individuals can access  
92 and persist in saturated subsurface sediments during periods of surface water loss, they may  
93 be able to return to the channel when flow returns (Stubbington, 2012; Vadher et al., 2015),  
94 thus facilitating the rapid recolonization and recovery of temporary stream communities  
95 (Vander Vorste et al., 2016b). However, not all streams have extensive hyporheic zones and  
96 it may be absent in streams where, for example, bedrock dominates the channel (Malard et al.,  
97 2002), or in other instances it may be inaccessible due to fine sediment deposition and  
98 clogging (Descloux et al., 2013; Vadher et al., 2015).

99 A range of biological traits may enhance species resistance (ability to persist) and resilience  
100 (ability to recover) to stream drying, for example body size, locomotion and feeding habits  
101 (e.g., Bonada et al., 2007). Sedimentary characteristics that may also affect access to and  
102 movement through the hyporheic zone have been explored (e.g., Nogaro et al., 2006;  
103 Stubbington et al., 2011; Descloux et al., 2013; Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2015). Field (Duan  
104 et al., 2008; Gayraud & Philippe, 2003; Descloux et al., 2013) and laboratory (Nogaro et al.,  
105 2006; Navel et al., 2010; Vadher et al., 2015) studies have demonstrated that sediment  
106 characteristics including particle size, shape, heterogeneity and porosity can influence the  
107 distribution of benthic populations. However, the direct response of individuals to drying and  
108 their ability to move into subsurface sediments has rarely been studied in real time  
109 (exceptions being Stumpp & Hose 2013; Vadher et al., 2015). This reflects the inherent  
110 difficulties of directly observing fauna within subsurface habitats.

111 In this ex-situ study, we experimentally examined the effect of surface water loss and water  
112 level reduction within subsurface sediments of varying sediment characteristics (particle size,  
113 heterogeneity and interstitial volume) on the vertical movement of individuals of five benthic  
114 macroinvertebrate species. We used artificial sediments of known size and shape within  
115 laboratory mesocosms to directly control sediment characteristics. The use of different  
116 particle combinations allowed the volume of interstitial space to be quantified and controlled  
117 (Mathers et al., 2014). To facilitate direct observation of individuals and their behaviour  
118 within the subsurface sediments, transparent artificial sediments were used to allow the  
119 precise location of individuals to be observed throughout the experimental period. We  
120 hypothesised that the response of lotic benthic macroinvertebrates to water level reduction  
121 and their vertical movement through the subsurface would: i) be active rather than passive; ii)  
122 depend on subsurface sediment characteristics; and iii) vary between species due to  
123 interspecific variation in traits (e.g., mode of locomotion, feeding group, habitat affinities).

## 124 **Materials and methods**

### 125 *Invertebrate collection and test species*

126 Five species of benthic macroinvertebrate were chosen for examination of their response to  
127 surface water loss and water level reduction: a stonefly nymph, *Nemoura cambrica*  
128 (Plecoptera: Nemouridae); a caseless caddisfly larvae, *Hydropsyche siltalai* (Trichoptera:  
129 Hydropsychidae); a mayfly nymph, *Heptagenia sulphurea* (Ephemeroptera: Heptageniidae);  
130 and two crustaceans, *Asellus aquaticus* (Isopoda: Asellidae) and *Gammarus pulex*  
131 (Amphipoda: Gammaridae). These species consisted of one widespread inhabitant of  
132 seasonally dry headwater streams, *N. cambrica* (Stubbington et al., 2009); two species which  
133 have been widely recorded in benthic and hyporheic sediments in both perennial and  
134 temporary systems, *A. aquaticus* and *G. pulex* (Stubbington et al., 2015); and two benthic

135 species typically associated with perennially flowing systems, *Hy. siltalai* and *H. sulphurea*  
136 (Eyre et al., 2005; Wood et al., 2005a; Datry 2012). These species were selected to represent  
137 a range of biological traits (Table 1).

138 All five species were collected from sites on Wood Brook (52°46'07.5"N 1°12'34.6"W) and  
139 Burleigh Brook (52°45'50.5"N 1°14'28.6"W) in Loughborough (Leicestershire, UK).

140 *Gammarus pulex*, *Hy. siltalai*, *H. sulphurea* and *N. cambrica* were collected from shallow  
141 riffles and *A. aquaticus* was collected from a slow-flowing pool adjacent to Wood Brook.

142 Individuals were collected using a gentle kick-sampling technique with a standard kick-net  
143 (900 µm mesh, 23 cm × 25.5 cm frame, 27.5 cm bag depth). Captured specimens were  
144 removed from the net individually and transferred to a 5-L container of stream water and  
145 transported to the laboratory for use in experiments on the same day.

#### 146 *Sediment-column mesocosms*

147 Twelve sediment-column mesocosms were constructed from transparent acrylic pipes (35 cm  
148 × 4.6 cm internal diameter; Fig. 1a) to allow direct observation of individuals. Columns were  
149 sealed at the base by a rubber bung with a 5-mm glass tube (3 mm internal diameter) in the  
150 centre to allow drainage. A silicon tube was secured over the glass tube and a Hoffman clip  
151 allowed control of the water level to within 0.5 mm (Fig. 1a).

152 Columns were mounted onto retort stands (Fig. 1b) within an environmental cabinet (108 cm  
153 × 27 cm × 68 cm). The front wall of the cabinet was covered with a black cloth to maintain  
154 darkness and provide lighting conditions analogous to the subsurface streambed whilst  
155 allowing an observer to inspect the columns inside.

#### 156 *Sediment treatments*

157 Mixtures of three transparent particle types were used to create six sediment treatments of  
158 varying pore-size volumes: small (10 – 15 mm) angular particles; large (20 – 25 mm) angular  
159 particles; and large (14 – 20 mm) smooth particles (Table 2). The difference in interstitial  
160 volume between sediment treatments allowed examination of the effect of sediment porosity  
161 on the vertical movement by species. The interstitial volume was calculated by measuring the  
162 amount of free water within the sediment-filled columns five times to provide a mean and  
163 standard error for each sediment treatment (Table 2). Sediment treatments containing  
164 multiple particle types were thoroughly mixed prior to use, randomly distributed throughout  
165 the columns and filled to a depth of 25 cm (Fig. 1b).

#### 166 *Water treatment and depth control*

167 Tap water was pre-treated with AquaSafe® (Tetra®, Virginia) to neutralise any residual  
168 chemicals and cooled to 11°C over a 24-h period prior to the commencement of experiments.  
169 Dissolved oxygen was measured directly in the surface water at the start of experiments and  
170 oxygen saturation was maintained throughout each experiment using oxygen tablets, widely  
171 used in domestic aquaria.

172 Water was added to each column to 5 cm above the sediment surface (Fig. 1b). Water level  
173 was then reduced in 12.5 mm increments every 15 min over a 5 h experimental period until a  
174 5 cm depth of water (i.e., 20 cm below the sediment surface) was retained in each column at  
175 the end of each trial as a refuge. This rapid rate of drying is analogous to that experienced on  
176 topographic high points (riffles and marginal gravel bars) in streams with permeable  
177 sediments where upstream anthropogenic structures (e.g., weirs and spillways) control the  
178 volume of discharge and flow can be effectively cut off when a low flow threshold is crossed.

#### 179 *Experimental procedure*



180 One individual from the same species was introduced into each water-filled column.  
181 Individuals were left to acclimatise within the columns and environmental cabinet prior to the  
182 start of an experiment until they ceased active exploration and burrowing behaviour  
183 (preliminary experiments indicated approximately 20 min were sufficient). Following  
184 acclimatisation, macroinvertebrates were observed within the cabinet using an LED light to  
185 minimise disturbance to each column during the experiment. Initial vertical movement from  
186 the sediment surface (depth = 0) into the subsurface was recorded (1 mm accuracy) at this  
187 time (time 0 = 5 cm surface water). Individuals within the water column or on the sediment  
188 surface were recorded as having a vertical movement of 0 mm. Prior to each water level  
189 reduction, the vertical position of the individual in each column (mm below depth 0) was  
190 recorded.

191 Once the water level had been reduced to 20 cm below the sediment surface for 15 min, the  
192 final depth reached by the macroinvertebrate beneath the substrate surface was recorded and  
193 the experiment terminated. The difference between the depth of individuals at the start of the  
194 experiment (time = 0) and the final depth reached beneath the substrate surface at the end of  
195 the experiment (time = 5 h) determined their absolute depth moved (i.e., total vertical  
196 movement during experiment). The sediment columns were deconstructed and their  
197 sediments removed and washed thoroughly to remove live test macroinvertebrates, debris and  
198 biological waste. Macroinvertebrates were then euthanized and preserved using 70%  
199 industrial methylated spirit (IMS).

200 To distinguish between active and passive movements associated with water level reduction,  
201 experiments were repeated using the cadavers of the same individuals as used in live  
202 experiments, which were rinsed thoroughly in tap water prior to reintroduction into  
203 reconstructed sediment treatments. If a cadaver became stranded above the water-line during  
204 the water level reduction, the depth was recorded, the experiment terminated, and the

205 individual retrieved from the column and preserved in IMS. Each experiment (live and  
206 cadaver) was replicated 20 times for each of the six sediment treatments, providing 240  
207 experimental trials using 120 individuals of each species.

208 Head widths of individuals were measured and calibrated using Motic® Images Plus 2.0  
209 software (Motic®, Hong Kong), as a surrogate for body size (Smock, 1980). Head width  
210 measurements were standardised within species, being taken from the base of the antenna to  
211 the posterior margin of the head carapace for *G. pulex* and *A. aquaticus*, and as the widest  
212 cross section of the head capsule for *Hy. siltalai*, *N. cambrica* and *H. sulphurea*.

### 213 *Data analysis*

214 We tested our first hypothesis, that movement into the subsurface would be active rather than  
215 passive, using paired sample t-tests to compare the absolute depth moved (difference  
216 between depth of an individual at time = 0 and at the end of the experiment) by live and  
217 cadavers of the same individuals for each species and sediment treatment.

218 We tested our second and third hypotheses, that vertical movements through the subsurface  
219 would be influenced by sediment characteristics and would vary between species, using a  
220 General Linear Model (GLM) and a Binary Logistic Regression (BLR, using the logit link  
221 function). We defined macroinvertebrate responses to surface water loss and water level  
222 reduction in three ways: final depth reached, absolute depth moved, and likelihood of  
223 becoming stranded. A GLM was used to examine the effect of sediment treatment, species  
224 identity, and their interaction, on the final depth reached and absolute depth moved by live  
225 individuals. To examine and account for the potential influence of individual body size on  
226 final depth reached, head width was included in the model as a covariate, nested within  
227 species. The model was fitted using Maximum Likelihood Estimates (MLE). Fisher's LSD

228 *post-hoc* tests were used where significant effects of sediment treatment (hypothesis ii) or  
229 species (hypothesis iii) were detected.

230 BLR analysis was used to determine the effect of sediment treatment and species identity on  
231 the likelihood of live individuals becoming stranded above the water-line. Individuals were  
232 classified into two groups: stranded (coded as '0') or below the water-line (not stranded;  
233 coded as '1'). In all cases, the BLR model had a good predictive capacity (correct  
234 classification rate 84.4%) and fit (Nagelkerke  $R^2 = 0.672$ ). The BLR model was run multiple  
235 times to create a pairwise BLR model. *Nemoura cambrica* was excluded from the BLR  
236 analysis because no individual of this species became stranded during the live experiments,  
237 resulting in no variation in the response for the BLR to model. All analyses were performed  
238 using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 23, IBM Corporation, New York).

## 239 **Results**

240 *Active vs passive movement of benthic macroinvertebrates into the subsurface sediments in*  
241 *response to water level reduction*

242 Live individuals of each species reached greater absolute depths than their cadavers, which  
243 remained close to the sediment surface (Table 3). Live individuals within each sediment  
244 treatment reached greater absolute depths compared to their cadavers (Table 3).

245 *Effect of sediment treatment, species identity and body size on the final depth reached by live*  
246 *individuals*

247 The effect of sediment treatment on the final depth reached beneath the substrate surface by  
248 individuals varied significantly between species (i.e. the interaction term was significant;  
249 GLM,  $P < 0.001$ ). The final depth reached in each sediment treatment was dependent on  
250 species identity. The pattern of final depth reached for each species within each sediment

251 treatment generally increased from sediment treatment 1-6 with increasing interstitial volume  
252 (Table 2), however, final depth reached in each sediment treatment decreased for each  
253 species from *N. cambrica*, *A. aquaticus*, *G. pulex*, *Hy. siltalai* to *H. sulphurea*, respectively  
254 (Fig. 2). Within each species, body size had no effect on final depth reached (GLM,  $P =$   
255 0.179).

#### 256 *Effect of sediment treatment and species identity on the absolute depth moved*

257 The effect of sediment treatment on the absolute depth moved by individuals varied between  
258 species (i.e. the interaction term was significant; GLM,  $P < 0.01$ ). Specifically, the absolute  
259 depth moved by *N. cambrica* individuals were significantly greater than: *A. aquaticus*  
260 individuals in sediment treatments 1-4 and 6; *Hy. siltalai* individuals in sediment treatments 1,  
261 2 and 4; and *H. sulphurea* individuals in sediment treatments 1-4 (see Table S1 in Supporting  
262 Information). The absolute depth moved by *G. pulex* individuals were significantly greater  
263 than: *A. aquaticus* individuals in sediment treatments 4-6; *Hy. siltalai* individuals in sediment  
264 treatments 3 and 4; and *H. sulphurea* individuals in sediment treatments 1-4 (see Table S1 in  
265 Supporting Information). Body size had no effect on the absolute depth moved (GLM,  $P =$   
266 0.401).

#### 267 *Effect of sediment treatment and species identity on the stranding of live individuals*

268 Sediment treatment affected the likelihood of individuals being stranded (BLR,  $P < 0.001$ ).  
269 Individuals were most likely to become stranded in sediment treatment 1 followed by 2-4 (not  
270 significantly different), then 5, and finally treatment 6 (Fig. 3a). More specifically, the  
271 likelihood of individuals becoming stranded differed between sediment treatments 1, 5 and 6  
272 (pairwise BLR,  $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, the likelihood of stranding in sediment treatments 1, 5  
273 and 6 differed (pairwise BLR,  $P < 0.05$ ) from the likelihood of stranding in treatments 2, 3 or  
274 4 (for which the likelihood of stranding was comparable; pairwise BLR,  $P > 0.05$ ).

275 Species identity also had a significant effect on the likelihood of individuals becoming  
276 stranded (BLR,  $P < 0.001$ ). Individuals of *H. sulphurea* were most likely to become stranded  
277 followed by *Hy. siltalai*, *G. pulex* and finally *A. aquaticus* (pairwise  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3b); no *N.*  
278 *cambrica* individuals became stranded in any treatment (Table 4 and Fig. 2a). The majority of  
279 *G. pulex* individuals stranded in sediment treatment 1 (70%) and  $< 50\%$  were stranded in  
280 treatments 2 and 3 (Table 4 and Fig. 2b). Over half of *A. aquaticus* individuals were stranded  
281 in sediment treatment 1 (Table 4 and Fig. 2c) and  $\leq 10\%$  became stranded in treatments 2 and  
282 3. The majority of *Hy. siltalai* individuals became stranded during water level reduction  
283 across all sediment treatments (except treatment 6 = 45%; Fig. 2d) and all *H. sulphurea*  
284 became stranded in sediment treatments 1-3 with  $\leq 60\%$  stranded in treatments 4-6 (Table 4  
285 and Fig. 2e).

## 286 Discussion

### 287 *Benthic macroinvertebrates actively move into the subsurface during dewatering*

288 We found support for our first hypothesis, that faunal movement into the subsurface in  
289 response to dewatering would be active. Studies have recorded benthic macroinvertebrates  
290 relatively deep within the hyporheic zone when surface sediments dry (e.g., Fenoglio et al.,  
291 2006; Young et al., 2011). *Agabus paludosus* (Coleoptera: Dytiscidae), for example, has been  
292 recorded at 70 – 90 cm below the streambed surface in response to drying (Fenoglio et al.,  
293 2006). It has been suggested that individuals recorded deep within riverbed sediments have  
294 moved there (actively or passively), via interstitial pore spaces. However, in the absence of  
295 direct observation and being able to track individuals, it has not previously been possible to  
296 determine if these movements were active (macroinvertebrates moving vertically to remain  
297 submerged) or passive (being drawn down with the receding water-line). Comparison of our  
298 direct observations of live individuals and cadavers in response to water level reduction in

299 transparent sediment-column mesocosms provide the first definitive evidence that vertical  
300 movements are active, not passive.

301 *Effect of sediment treatment on the vertical movements of benthic macroinvertebrates*

302 We found support for our second hypothesis, that subsurface sediment characteristics would  
303 influence the ability of individuals to move vertically in response to water level reduction.  
304 Sediments with lower interstitial volume (sediment porosity) due to smaller particle sizes  
305 reduced the vertical movements of individuals of all species except *N. cambrica*. This  
306 supports previous studies which found that sediment characteristics influence the use of  
307 subsurface sediments by a range of benthic macroinvertebrate species (Stubbington et al.,  
308 2011; Descloux et al., 2013; Vadher et al., 2015).

309 Previous studies have indicated that sediment characteristics such as interstitial pore volume  
310 influence the ability of macroinvertebrate taxa to move into subsurface sediments and that  
311 movement would reflect species traits (Boulton et al., 1998; Gayraud & Philippe, 2003;  
312 Vadher et al., 2015; Mathers & Wood, 2016). Small particles with reduced sediment porosity  
313 (i.e. fine sediment deposited on the sediment surface or those subject to sedimentation within  
314 the sediment matrix) potentially limit the function of the subsurface as a refuge for  
315 macroinvertebrates following surface water loss (Navel et al., 2010; Descloux et al., 2013;  
316 Vadher et al., 2015) and studies have reported the absence or reduced use of subsurface  
317 sediments due to the limited interstitial pore spaces available (Boulton 1989; Richards &  
318 Bacon, 1994; Smock et al., 1994; James et al., 2008). Our observations provide direct  
319 evidence to support studies which have inferred that sediment characteristics limit the  
320 movement of benthic macroinvertebrates into the subsurface during adverse conditions (e.g.  
321 Stanley et al., 1994; Smock et al., 1994; Olsen & Townsend, 2005; Stubbington et al., 2011).

322 *Species-specific vertical movements of individuals through sediments*

323 Our results demonstrate that vertical movement varies between species, reflecting differences  
324 in traits and habitat affinities. This supports our third hypothesis, that the vertical movement  
325 of species through the subsurface would be influenced by their traits. The response to  
326 sediment porosity of the species examined was similar; however, the absolute vertical  
327 distance moved by the five species differed. The family-level trait designation of *Nemoura*  
328 suggests that species in this genus have no affinity with the subsurface (Table 1; Tachet et al.,  
329 2010), but our results suggest that this species *is* able to move into the sediments in response  
330 to water level reduction. In our study *N. cambrica* was able to freely move into the subsurface,  
331 in response to water level reduction and has also been recorded in temporary streams  
332 (Stubbington et al., 2009). *Nemoura cambrica* has a small body size compared to the other  
333 species used in our experiments and can burrow and excavate itself from fine sediment  
334 deposits (Wood et al., 2005b). A reduced size of mature nymphs can promote invertebrate  
335 resistance in subsurface habitats (Gayraud & Philippe, 2001; Navel et al., 2010; Vander  
336 Vorste et al., 2016b) and may explain why *N. cambrica* did not become stranded above the  
337 water-line and moved freely through interstitial pore spaces in all experimental treatments.  
338 Although we did not detect an effect of body size on the vertical movement within individual  
339 species, the body size differences between species probably influences vertical movements.

340 Most *G. pulex* and *A. aquaticus* individuals moved vertically in all sediment treatments  
341 except the smallest particle size treatment. This observation advances the experimental  
342 findings of Vander Vorste et al. (2016a), who observed that *G. pulex* used the subsurface as a  
343 refuge in response to water level reduction, and Vadher et al. (2015), who found that *G. pulex*  
344 were unable to use the subsurface when sediment porosity was reduced. In marked contrast,  
345 *Hy. siltalai* and *H. sulphurea* displayed limited ability to move vertically into the subsurface  
346 in response to water level reduction. Both these taxa are primarily associated with benthic  
347 habitats in perennial streams, and a low affinity to intermittence (Eyre et al., 2005; Wood et

348 al., 2005a, Table 1) may mean that *Hy. siltalai* and *H. sulphurea* lack behavioural adaptations  
349 to move strongly into the subsurface sediments in response to drying.

350 The net-spinning caseless caddisfly larvae *Hy. siltalai* and the free-living mayfly nymph *H.*  
351 *sulphurea*, became stranded in most sediment treatments during water level reduction.  
352 *Hydropsyche siltalai* larvae are benthic filter-feeders and *H. sulphurea* larvae are benthic  
353 grazers (Table 1). These feeding traits mean that these taxa typically occupy microhabitats  
354 close to, or on, the sediment surface where algal growth is most abundant and filter-feeding is  
355 most efficient. As a result, they may not typically move vertically into the subsurface as  
356 trophic resources would be reduced. However, even for these species, around half of *Hy.*  
357 *siltalai* individuals moved to the column base in the coarsest sediments with the largest  
358 interstitial pore space (treatments 5 and 6) and 60% of *H. sulphurea* remained submerged in  
359 the largest sediments (treatment 6) suggesting that in rivers with coarse sediments and open  
360 gravel frameworks, stranding may be reduced and vertical movement possible to enhance the  
361 use of the subsurface refuge during streambed drying. These results provide evidence to  
362 support studies indicating reduced invertebrate species diversity within streams which have  
363 experienced surface water loss and drying (Extence, 1981; Feminella, 1996; Datry, 2012;  
364 Bogan et al., 2013) and clearly highlights the reduced vertical movement of some species  
365 typically associated with benthic habitats.

### 366 *Conclusions and future directions*

367 Hydrological extremes within streams may become increasingly common as climate change  
368 (Ledger & Milner, 2015; Pyne & Poff, 2017) and water resource pressures interact to increase  
369 the duration of dry phases in some regions (Datry et al., 2014b). This study highlights the  
370 variation in species responses to simulated water level reduction in sediments with different  
371 characteristics. We highlight the need to understand species-specific responses in relation to



372 differences in sediment characteristics among streams. Although the subsurface sediments of  
373 the hyporheic zone can be an extensive refuge in gravel-bed rivers (Vander Vorste et al.,  
374 2016c), they are naturally heterogeneous and can also be a patchy refuge (Dole-Olivier et al.,  
375 1997). In some places, the hyporheic zone can be limited in spatial extent due to reduced  
376 interstitial habitat availability as a result of small particle sizes limiting access to the  
377 subsurface for many taxa (Gayraud & Philippe, 2003). Furthermore, anthropogenic activity  
378 (e.g., mining and flow regulation) may result in enhanced fine sediment deposition, further  
379 reducing the ability of subsurface sediments to function as a refuge (Descloux et al., 2013;  
380 Vadher et al., 2015).

381 Our results also highlight the need for effective refuge management and maintenance of  
382 sediment porosity in streams as active movements made by macroinvertebrates into the  
383 subsurface sediments could potentially enhance recovery from drying events and may  
384 maintain species abundance and diversity. Such management strategies should include  
385 measures of reduce fine sediment inputs to river channels via the use of sediment detention  
386 ponds/wetlands and more effective planting of riparian vegetation (buffer strips) to reduce  
387 sediment transport and help stabilize river banks, especially in agricultural areas (Verstraeten  
388 & Poesen, 2000; Hughes, 2016). In some instances, where fine sediment inputs are high and  
389 river flows are insufficient to flush fines from the interstices of the riverbed, gravel cleaning  
390 may be required to reconnect benthic and hyporheic habitats, improve subsurface water  
391 quality and ultimately increase sediment porosity and hydrological connectivity (Meyer et al.,  
392 2008). Developing effective management strategies is essential if the future of ‘drying  
393 refuges’, such as the hyporheic zone, is to increase community resistance and resilience to  
394 stream drying. However, the ability of macroinvertebrates to migrate back to the surface and  
395 recolonize benthic habitats as water levels rise remains uncharacterized. Future research  
396 should, where possible, combine field and laboratory mesocosm-based approaches to validate

397 observations and facilitate a greater understanding of community and individual responses to  
398 the processes of streambed drying and flow resumption.

### 399 **Acknowledgements**

400 ANV gratefully acknowledges the support of a Loughborough University, School of Social  
401 Political and Geographical Sciences studentship for funding this research. We acknowledge  
402 Richard Harland for his technical support with the construction of the columns. We thank  
403 Richard Buxton for his guidance on the statistical analysis and Shayan Parmar for his field  
404 assistance. We are very grateful to two anonymous reviewers and Belinda Robson for their  
405 insightful and constructive comments which improved the clarity of this manuscript.

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619 *Figure legends*

620 **Fig. 1. Sediment column mesocosms.** (a) Cross-section through a sediment column: i)  
621 acrylic pipe; ii) rubber bung; iii) 5 mm glass tube; iv) silicon tubing; v) Hoffman clip to  
622 control water drainage. (b) The six sediment treatments at the start of experiments (5 cm  
623 surface water). Sediment treatments are as described in Table 2. Not to scale.

624 **Fig. 2. Mean vertical movement of live individuals in response to water level reduction**  
625 **in each of six sediment treatments.** (a) *Nemoura cambrica*; (b) *Gammarus pulex*; (c)  
626 *Asellus aquaticus*; (d) *Hydropsyche siltalai*; (e) *Heptagenia sulphurea*. Sediment treatments  
627 are as described in Table 2.

628 **Fig. 3. Percentage of live individuals stranded (a) in each sediment treatment and (b) by**  
629 **species.** a-d indicate statistically different values (Binary Logistic Regression,  $P < 0.05$ ).  
630 Sediment treatments are as described in Table 2.

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640 *Tables*

641 **Table 1.** Family-level biological traits of the five study taxa relevant to subsurface movement  
642 and ecological traits (adapted from Tachet et al., 2010)

Genus	Biological Traits						
	Max. body size (mm)	Locomotion	Habitat type	Flow velocity	Feeding group	Temporary stream affinity	Subsurface affinity
<i>Nemoura</i>	5 – 10	Crawler	Lotic	Medium – fast	Shredder	Moderate	None
<i>Asellus</i>	10 – 20	Crawler	Lentic / Lotic	None – slow	Shredder	None	Low
<i>Gammarus</i>	20 – 40	Swimmer / Crawler	Lotic	Slow - medium	Shredder	Low	Low
<i>Hydropsyche</i>	20 – 40	Crawler	Lotic	Medium	Filter-feeder	None	None
<i>Heptagenia</i>	10 – 20	Crawler	Lotic	Medium – fast	Scraper	None	None

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654 **Table 2.** Description of sediment treatment composition, pore-size volume and the mean  
 655 depth ( $\pm$  SE) which macroinvertebrates reached at the end of experiments

Sediment treatment	Particle size composition	Pore-size volume (ml)	Mean species depth at experiment end (mm)
1	100% small angular particles	145.6 $\pm$ 1.29	129.3 $\pm$ 10.5
2	60% small angular and 40% large angular particles	150 $\pm$ 0.63	159.5 $\pm$ 10.9
3	50% small angular and 50% large angular particles	151.6 $\pm$ 1.21	160.2 $\pm$ 10.5
4	33% small angular, 33% large angular and 33% large smooth particles	155.2 $\pm$ 1.46	173.8 $\pm$ 10.3
5	100% large smooth particles	158.6 $\pm$ 1.08	195 $\pm$ 8.9
6	100% large angular particles	186.4 $\pm$ 1.57	216.5 $\pm$ 6.8

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657 **Table 3.** Paired sample t-test analysis between the absolute depth moved by live individuals  
 658 and cadavers for each species and within each sediment treatment (see Table 2).

	Live	Cadaver	d.f.	t	P
	Mean absolute depth moved (mm)	Mean absolute depth moved (mm)			
Species					
<i>Nemoura cambrica</i>	158.7 (± 8.2)	1 (± 0.3)	119	19.139	<0.001
<i>Asellus aquaticus</i>	150 (± 8.5)	4 (± 1.3)	119	17.038	<0.001
<i>Gammarus pulex</i>	131.7 (± 8.7)	1.8 (± 0.5)	119	14.719	<0.001
<i>Hydropsyche siltalai</i>	62.8 (± 6.3)	2.3 (± 0.5)	119	9.623	<0.001
<i>Heptagenia sulphurea</i>	39.4 (± 5)	1.6 (± 0.4)	119	7.606	<0.001
Sediment treatment					
1	105 (± 9.5)	0.2 (± 0.1)	119	10.999	<0.001
2	130.4 (± 9.9)	1 (± 0.4)	119	12.954	<0.001
3	106.6 (± 9.6)	0.3 (± 0.1)	119	11.094	<0.001
4	118 (± 9.9)	0.6 (± 0.2)	119	11.895	<0.001
5	96.2 (± 9.3)	4 (± 0.7)	119	9.959	<0.001
6	96.1 (± 8.6)	6.8 (± 1.6)	119	10.374	<0.001

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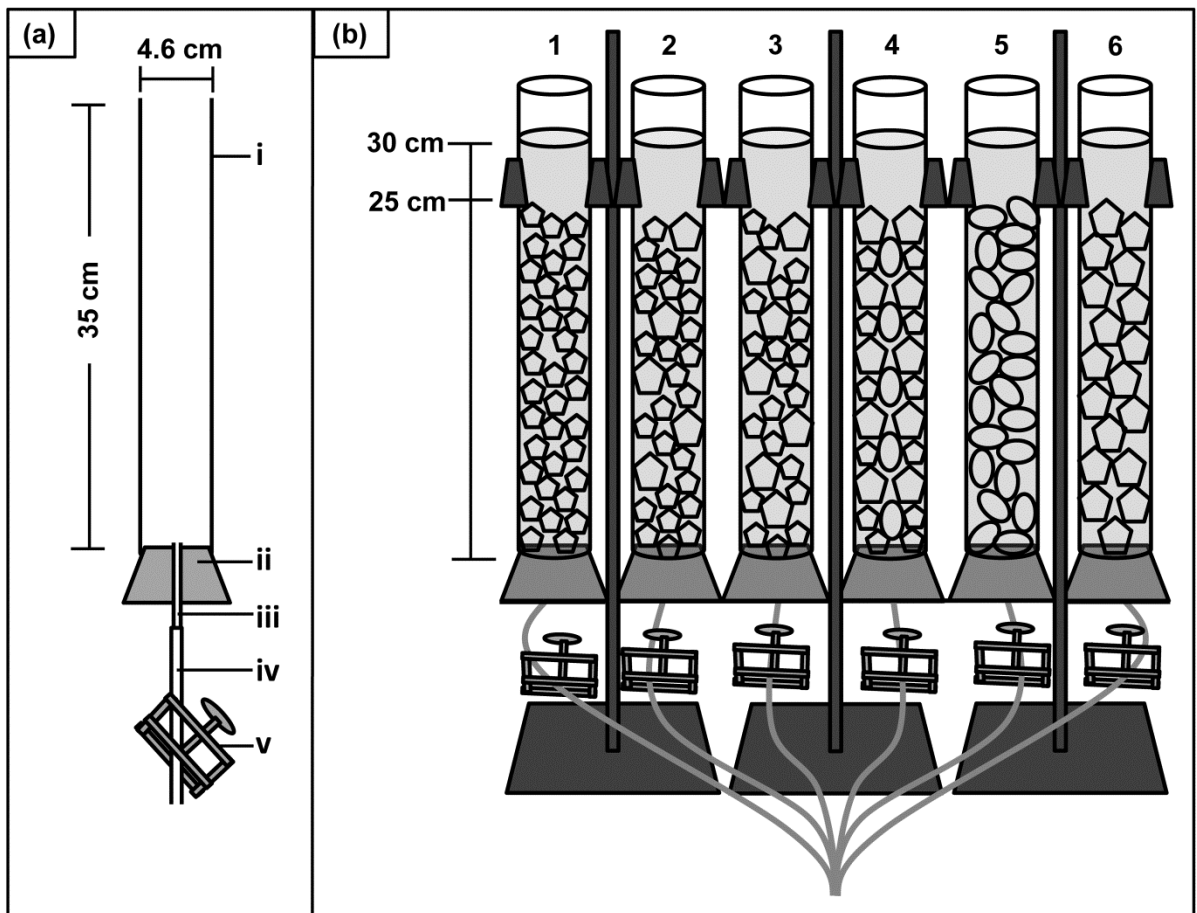
670 **Table 4.** Percentage of individuals stranded above the water level during dewatering in each  
 671 sediment treatment (see Table 2)

Species	% Stranded in sediment treatments						All treatments
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
<i>Nemoura cambrica</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Asellus aquaticus</i>	55	10	5	0	0	0	12
<i>Gammarus pulex</i>	70	30	40	0	0	0	23
<i>Hydropsyche siltalai</i>	80	75	80	95	55	45	72
<i>Heptagenia sulphurea</i>	100	100	100	95	95	60	92
<i>All species</i>	61	43	45	39	30	21	

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674 Figure 1



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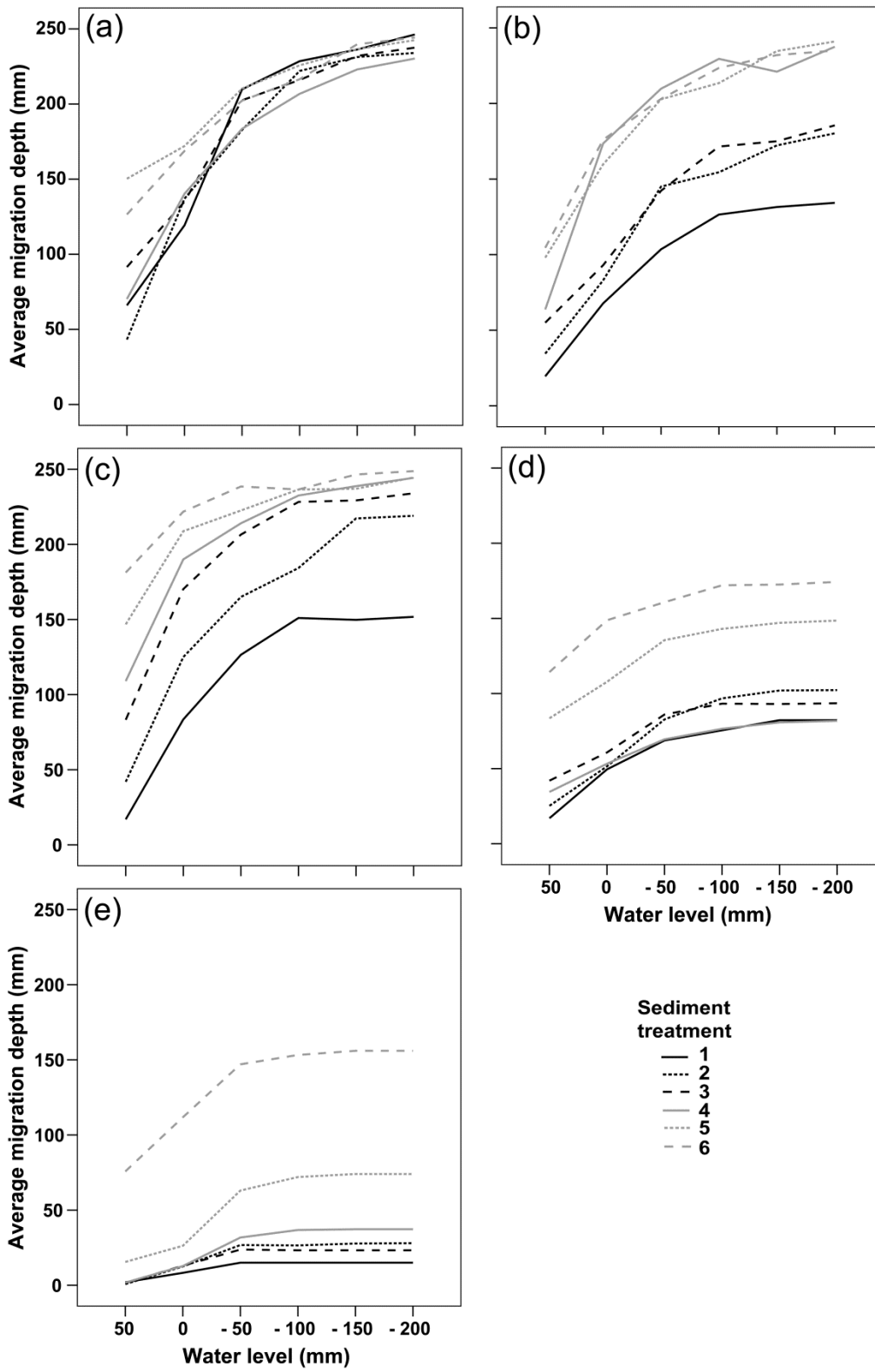
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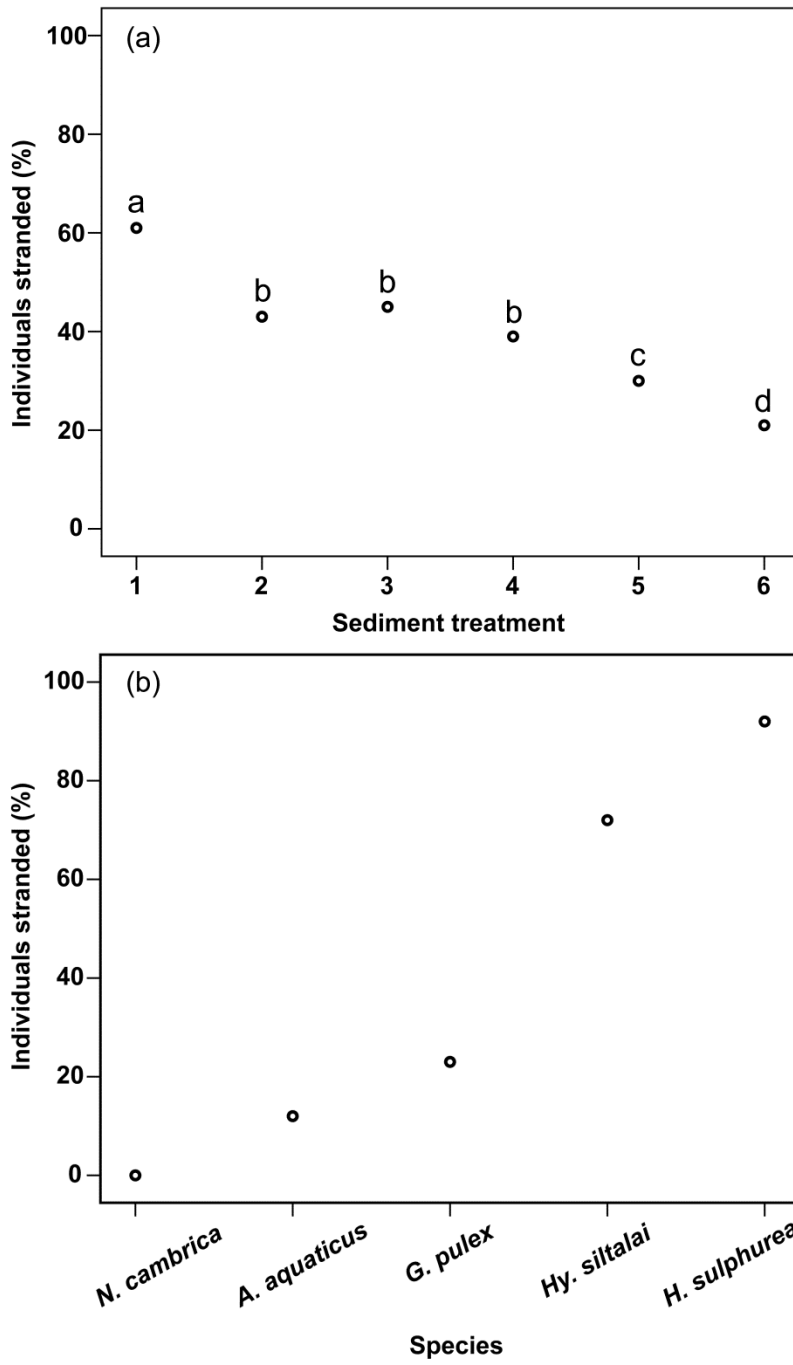


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690 Figure 3



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695 **Table S1.** Fisher's LSD post-hoc pairwise comparison of absolute depth moved by live  
 696 individuals between each species (*Nemoura cambrica*, *Gammarus pulex*, *Asellus aquaticus*,  
 697 *Hydropsyche siltalai* and *Heptagenia sulphurea*) for each sediment treatment. Significant  
 698 depths ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) are emboldened. '↑' indicates the taxon listed is significantly higher than  
 699 the taxa being compared. Sediment treatment 1) 100% small angular 2) 60% small angular 40%  
 700 large angular 3) 50% small angular 50% large angular 4) 33% small angular, 33% large  
 701 angular and 33% large rounded 5) 100% large rounded 6) 100% large angular.

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Sediment Treatment 1	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.148	↑ <b>0.016</b>	↑ <b>0.050</b>	↑ <b>0.009</b>
<i>G. pulex</i>		0.073	0.261	↑ <b>0.034</b>
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.256	0.835
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.238

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Sediment Treatment 2	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.197	↑ <b>0.028</b>	↑ <b>0.042</b>	↑ <b>0.007</b>
<i>G. pulex</i>		0.093	0.135	0.016
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.430	0.948
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.267

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Sediment Treatment 3	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.446	↑ <b>0.043</b>	↑ <b>0.070</b>	↑ <b>0.025</b>
<i>G. pulex</i>		0.060	↑ <b>0.050</b>	↑ <b>0.019</b>
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.409	0.873
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.388

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Sediment Treatment 4	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.637	↑ <b>0.019</b>	↑ <b>0.032</b>	↑ <b>0.021</b>
<i>G. pulex</i>		↑ <b>0.011</b>	↑ <b>0.003</b>	↑ <b>0.006</b>
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.370	0.670
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.581

Sediment Treatment 5	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.876	0.051	0.369	0.244
<i>G. pulex</i>		↑ <b>0.010</b>	0.066	0.064
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.121	0.298
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.612

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Sediment Treatment 6	<i>G. pulex</i>	<i>A. aquaticus</i>	<i>Hy. siltalai</i>	<i>H. sulphurea</i>
<i>N. cambrica</i>	0.800	↑ <b>0.013</b>	0.203	0.236
<i>G. pulex</i>		↑ <b>0.004</b>	0.069	0.164
<i>A. aquaticus</i>			0.061	0.112
<i>Hy. siltalai</i>				0.910

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