

Aquatic Ecology

Imports

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import Modules/EvaporativePotential as ep
import Modules/AquaticEcosystemTaxonomy as AquaticEcosystemTaxonomy
import Modules/SARiverDistribution as SARiverDistribution
import Modules/WaterQuality as WaterQuality
import Modules/CatchmentDrainage as CD
import Modules/Rivers as Rivers
import Modules/Wetlands as Wetlands
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Aquatic Ecology

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Background

ep: Evaporative Potential

AquaticEcosystemTaxonomy: Aquatic Ecosystem Taxonomy

SARiverDistribution: South African River Distribution

WaterQuality: Water Quality

CD: Catchment Drainage

Rivers: Rivers

Wetlands: Wetlands

Mesohabitats.

Variation in channel profile leads to the development of distinct habitats, which can facilitate different species. For example catfish require shallow fast flowing waters (which have a high oxygen concentration), where as silver mouth sucker fish require additional depth.

Local variation

Pools riffles and rubs are formed through a combination of hydraulic force and sediment size.

from annual flow data collected over long periods can be used to give of long term climate patterns and stability as well as climate change. Monthly data reveals annual variation which is important in controlling biotic and abiotic processes in the river. For example changes in water flow rate can act as spawning triggers for fish

With increase in mean annual run off coefficients of variation for flooding increases, That is, generally speaking arid zones have high variation in rainfall, and high rainfall zones tend to have low variation in rainfall. In south Africa in particular rainfall is very unpredictable. It follows that in around countries the need for water storage is increased, leading to many artificial lentic catchments (i.e dams).

Wetlands

Exorheic

Exorheic wetlands are defined by the fact that water flows through them and off into an adjacent water body. Water flowing into there wetlands can come from an adjacent stream, (This is often the same stream that water flows off into from the wetland.

Endorheic

Endorheic wetlands are defined by the fact that water once in them will not run off but can only evaporate or infiltrate. Endorheic wetlands are low points in the landscape which receive water in the from of runoff, and hence tend to accumulate high salt concentrations, (as salt dissolved in run off is brought to the wetland and remains there when the water evaporates)

Okavango Delta

The Okavango Delta is an endorheic pan on a subcontinental level which drains the Kalahari basin. Summer rainfall flow from the Angola highlands. Within the Okavango Delta contains many exorheic wetlands lying alongside the main channel. After the summer rains the lake swells to about three times it's permanent size. Approximately sixty percent of the contained water is the evaporated off and the remain water is lost by infiltration. About 2% of the summer run off flows over into the adjacent Lake Ngati when the Okavango Delta overfills, however this only occurs in irregular seasonal overflows. The area in which the Ngati lake formed was completely dry for nearly 20 years, but after a period of particularly heavy rainfall between 2010 and 2012 the Okavango Delta was filled to capacity and run off formed Lake Ngati. This run off contained not only water but also nutrients, invertebrates and fish to colonise the new environment. Fishing communities migrated on mass to the new lake. In Very large floods, such as a one in fifty year flood water will overflow into the adjacent basin, the Makgadikgadi salt pans.

Physical habitat conditions

System

A stretch of river above a kilometer forms a system.

Segments

Segments are rough 10^2m stretches of a system. Large Predatory Fish tend to move between segments at different stages of their life cycle.

Reaches

Reaches are stretch of river of a 10^1m magnitude.

Riffles

Riffles are stretches of river of a 10^0m magnitude. Different fish species tend to spend most of their time in different habitats. When the water level in the river is low the difference between environments is much more pronounced. More diverse flow conditions result in more habitats for macro-invertebrates. Deep pools in sequence with shallow riffles form vertical meanders.

Pool

Pools are deep and contain slow flowing water. In pools the base material tends to be fine sediment.

Riffles

Riffles are fast flowing and shallow containing turbulence created by the uneven bed. The base material in riffles tends to contain large rocks in sand.

Runs

The base material in runs tends to be gravel.

Microhabitats

Microhabitats occur at a magnitude of $10^{-1}m$ magnitude. Insects live in specific habitats such as moss covered boulders, or sandy rock etc.

raparian Habitats

A raparian habitat is the area between the waters edge and the boundary where the water no longer influences the terrestrial environment. In upper water the raparian zone is very narrow, but further down stream (in the storage zone) The raparian zone becomes very extensive, especially due to the formation of terrestrial environments directly in the water channel from alluviation. In the storage zone terraces, (which are ancestral flood plane deposits) surround the current flood plain deposit, in which the stream channel lies. Such areas are referred to as backswamps. Endorheic wetlands form around stream separated from it by berms, (alluvial) deposits.

NOTE the presence of alluvial deposits (e.g. terraces and benches) adjacent to the active channel is a good indication of zone changes. (use a third order is below the junction of two second order streams. 135 These orders reflect the basic rules of drainage basin geometry.

136 Firstly the average slope is decreasing (normally) as first order are in mountainous/high regions, an exception is the highveld which drains a huge high up plateau. 137 The channel width tends to increase with the 138 discharge volume increases. (as two streams are joining.) 139 Particle size of substrata decreases, (through a filtering process,) 140 141 §§§ Discharge. 142 Discharge is the rate at which a volume of water flows past a point over a unit of time. 143 144 $Q = m^3s^{-1}$ 145 NOTE: m^3s^{-1} are referred to as cumecs (?) 146 147 ##### Measurement. 148 See in back of prac handout one 149 150 The stream is divided into equal width rectangular cells vertically downwards. 151 The width and the depth of each cell will be measured. (the depth at the start and end of each cell is measured and averaged). A flow device is then used to measure the velocity of the water going through each cell. The sum of the discharge across all cells is the transect

discharge. 152 153 $Q = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i d_i v_i$ 154 155 Discharge is often measured remotely with the use of gaging weirs,

which temporarily stop the flow and then measure the height of the stream. Such weirs are placed at strategic points across the catchment. 156 157 (Eastern Cape only on main dams, as others decommissioned in the 80s 158 159 A logger logs the flow depth for every hour or half hour for months, and then the data will be

retrieved by an engineer. However the data is only height, so a rating curve, which has a relation of measures of height and discharge. (basically a standard curve.)) Discharge should be measured a bit before the weir as the weir retards the flow, also in a riffle/rapid there is too much turbulence, so a smooth deep laminar flow is best. N 160 161 NOTE: the volume is the same throughout but some areas are more accurate to measure. 162

Run

Such areas are referred to as a run

Hydrograph

Plots water flow against time, in a flood a rapid increase (rising limb) is seen followed by a peak and a falling (hyperbolic) limb back to the baseline level. The peak indicates not only the flood water but also the normal baseline. Rain captured per unit time can also be tracked and related. Ground water recession can recharge/boost the water table raising it (ground water recession is the decrease of ground water back to its original level.), flooding recession is simply the decrease in stream discharge. The size of the storm can be measured in terms of time. The center of mass of the rainstorm can be measured. The time between the heaviest rainfall and the peak detected by the weir is the basin lag. The overall profile of the hydrograph can affect the flood response. The profile of the landscape is also important. In a mountainous situation a sharper higher peak in flow will occur, whereas a plateau tends to have a low sloping hydrograph. (This is because water is travelling faster down the steeper gradient.)

The shape of the gauging weir is also important, if there is more catchment closer than further away then the majority of the drained water is being drained closer to the weir (the majority of drainage density is close to weir), the peak will be sooner, conversely if the drainage density is concentrated further away the peak will be lower. If there are two distinctive drainage areas one closer and one further there will be two peaks (a bimodal response.) A higher drainage density leads to a higher peak.

In a turtlenecked catchment there is a much smaller area that can actually be drained leading to a lower hydrograph. # Bank full flood will fill up the entire bank full area, occurs about every year.

Catastrophic About every 50 years, the depth is twice as high, as the normal one.

Lots of recently deposited material in the storage zone is an indication of a lot of flooding in the hydrology of the river.

NOTE: South Africa is a very ancient landscape, and so very stable with less obvious terraces. In New Zealand however the landscape is very young geologically speaking, so more radical geological features surrounding rivers are present.

COPY IMAGE. #. Flat valley bottom #. little berms on either side of the main river channel. (Alluvial berms are constantly changing as the river path deviates slightly from side to side cutting into the terraces over time) #. Riparian wetlands #. The water table is still very close to the surface even at some distance from the river edge which allows for the survival of endemic wetland plants which require water logged soil.

Even if the geology around a river is not distinctive the vegetation around it will be, as there is a clear difference in composition and structure going up from the edge of the river up slope. (even when the slope is not particularly steep. There are two primary causes for this change, water availability and flood disturbance. the #### Water availability the water table is closer to the surface closer to the river.

Flood disturbance Strong floods can uproot grasses and bushes but larger trees will be far more resistant to disturbance. Trees further back will be less resistant to flooding than those directly in or along the river channel.

COPY IMAGE. Furthermore due to the alluvial deposits the soil alongside the stream has a higher nutrient concentration. Soil quality in addition to water availability helps to create the sharp distinction between the terrestrial and riparian zone.

Savannah hydrology

Catena

A catena is a chain of soils linked by topography.

Soil moisture and nutrient concentration varies from hill tops to valley bottoms as a result of erosion, with higher moisture and nutrient concentration moving downwards.

Formation

Catena formation is driven by the natural processes of wind and water erosion, operating over thousands of years. (Catena formation is not associated with catastrophic flooding, so no alluvial deposits are formed. After hundreds and thousands of years have passed the landscape comes to equilibrium with the rate of deposition matching the rate of erosion.

Vegetation

The Catena drives the types of vegetation found. COPY Image. Baked iron/clay soils by the seepage block the infiltration of water, driven by hard rock materials. Broad leaved unpalatable trees grow on the hill tops with fine leaved, palatable trees in the valley bottoms, closely associated with the Riparian Zone. Variation within tree type is driven by interactions between the Catena and the riparian zone.

Drainage network.

Longitudinal Increasing influence of fluvial forms (i.e. terraces.) head Tranverse. There is a lateral decrease in fluvial deposits moving uphill from the river.

Combined affect.

In the hills, by the streams headwaters there are no alluvial deposits (sediment is removed from this zone not deposited), so no real physical heterogeneity exists, there is no obvious Riparian zone and only terrestrial life forms, i.e. broad leaved trees are present.

Lower down, by the valley bottom, alluvial deposits are present as well as backswamps and berms. Additionally there is enough space now for a Catena gradient to develop leading down towards the river, which in conjunction lead to much greater variation between the Riparian and terrestrial zones.

Diversity of freshwater organisms.

Biodiversity

Biodiversity can be considered at a number of different levels, some important measures of diversity to consider are:

1. Species richness.
2. Relative abundance.
3. habitat diversity

4. genetic diversity.
5. Behavioural diversity.

In short biodiversity is everything which contributes to variation/variety within a ecosystem

Species diversity

Species diversity can be evaluated in different terms.

Species richness.

Species richness is simply a measure of the number of distinct species within a given ecosystem/area.

Endemism.

Endemism is a measure of how spatially restricted some species are. A ecosystem with a high number of organisms restricted to it will have a high endemism and so will be important with respect to conservation biology.

Marine systems.

Marine systems tend to be more diverse in regard to higher taxa (i.e. classes and orders as opposed to species), which means they are, in some regard at least more diverse. For example seas contain many different phyla, such as echinoderms, jellyfish, and arthropods.

Drivers.

The patterns seen in biodiversity are driven by biological processes, (operating at different size and time scales.) Organisms are adapted to the condition in which they live and the resources available to them, which constitutes their fundamental niche. An organism can only survive in a limited range of variations around this niche. The morphology, behaviour, and life history of an organism reflect its adaptations to its environment, and also the adaptations of its ancestors.

For example, The mayfly, has over millions of years developed an efficient body shape. the phylogeny reflects the modern morphology. Habitat range and current geographical distribution are reflections of historical events and environmental constraints and opportunities.

Fresh water organisms.

Early evolution of all major phyla occurred in the sea. Most phyla evolved in the Cambrian explosion (which was an exclusively marine event).

Colonisation of land and freshwater.

Direct upstream

Some animals entered freshwater from the marine environment directly by swimming upstream from estuaries. Prosobranch snails (snails with a gill) plathelminths, oligochaete, and crustaceans are examples thereof.

Through terrestrial

Some animals first entered the land and adapted to terrestrial living before later on adaptation to a freshwater environment. Insects, flowering plants (actually evolved on land full stop), lunged snails, birds, mammals and reptiles are examples there of.

NOTE: these organisms often do not live permanently in the water using it primarily just to feed.

Movement in ice

Movement of ice over the surface of the land, in the northern hemisphere during the ice ages, followed by the formation of lakes as the ice receded could have isolated organisms in the newly formed salt water lakes which later become freshwater.

NOTE: Insects have not re-entered the sea, but have entered freshwater environments, for several reasons: #. There are many other arthropods (crustaceans such as decapods/shrimp) already filling the niches which insects would fill, so the competition would be intense. #. Insects reproductive strategy involves egg laying, and eggs would get damaged in rocky shore of stormy sea environments. #. Insects live partly on land, which is difficult in the middle of the ocean.

All in all after terrestrial adaptation the marine environment proved too hostile and competitive, the freshwater did not.

Plate tectonics.

Plate tectonics is well described since the Permian period, 286mya. The terrestrial world was all joined to from one large landmass, Pangea at this point, surrounded by the oceans.

Pangea broke up just north of the equator to form Laurasia and Gondwana land, and the Tethys sea was formed. Critically this change led to a change in how water flowed from the north to the south poles, and a change in migratory patterns, which led to the splitting of phylogenies.

Vicariance.

Vicariance is the formation of new species by the imposition of a physical barrier which led to reproductive isolation of different populations of the species.

For example, the genetic phylogeny of Chironomids, (non biting midges) which are very abundant in freshwater systems can be used to track the continental rearrangement.

1. South Africa split from Antarctica.
2. New Zealand split from Antarctica.
3. Australian and East Antarctica split off from South America and West Antarctica.

NOTE: the relatively shallow divergence between Africa and Laurasia is explained by the fact that these continents crashed into each other again later on, at which point Chironomid species again mixed and interbred.

Climate change

Climate change can change the shape and extent of dryland, primarily through changing sea levels. Climate change occurs at different rates in different periods, it has occurred at a relatively rapid rate for the last 30 million years.

River capture.

Due to fluctuations in geographic shape and sea level, river patterns can change. In the early plastocease the whole of the aguleus bank was drained by the old fish river which flowwed over namibia. Th organhe river connected to the olifancts and entered the sean west of langerbaan. Then the sea levels rose and the orange river changed its course capturing the fish river. Vacarience then occured in the Olifants and Orange rivers.

For example catfish, Austroglonidid. evolded in the ancinet orange/ olifants system, In the modern Olifants an alleopathic species arose endemic to the Orange (orange/vall catfish), and one endemic to the Olifants (clanwilliams catfish)

Great lakes.

In Africa the great lakes, Victorial, Malawe, and Tangnyito show very high levels of diversity.

COPY diagram

In particular there is high diversity in chiclids in Lake Malawe. Many different species f chclid are present, differentaied predominatel by mouth shape. For example there are, scael eaters, eye bites mullosuc crushes, vegetation eaters, etc. Chiclids from the sub family Haplochromine are the root othe the diversity. This diveristy is facillitated by the short generation times of such fish, as well as maternal brooding (where the eggs, and even sometimes the young fish are brooded in the mother's mouth, or nest gaurding (usually by the father.), Becuase of this reporductive behaviour different species do not intermix. The basic adaptable body plan of the fish allows it to occupy any given general niche, and its mouth parts can be optimised to avoid competition within this general niche.

The physical drivers of speciation in this case, could be classic alleopathic specieation in rivers followed by colonisation of the lakes or more porbably micrographic speciation within the lakes themselves, dirven by changes in lake levels leading to isolation of groups for periods long enough for speciation to occur. (the time required is shortened considerable by the specific morphological and behavioural adaptions of these fish)

NOTE: river capture occurs when a river changes its course and flows into anther river.

History

In was long oberved by scientists that South america fit rather neetly into Africa, and based on this the theory of continental drift was proposed. However it was not until after WW2 that any mainstream credence was given to this theory. in WW2 antisubmarine sonar technology was developed, which was later used to map out the ocean floor. Large ridges along the ocean floor were discovered

COPY IMAGE.

These ridges were caused by magma from the center of the earth swelling up, and cooling forming new rock in the process and pushing the old rock asside to make way, which has the effect of pushing the continents further apart. Continents can also be brought together if two plates meet and one slodes under the other.

True Dirrect

A very small number of organisms may have evolved dirrectly in freshwater systems.

Organising understanding of diversity

there are differetn scales to understand diversity

Global

biogeographic regions

COPY MAP.

Nearctic Neo-tropic. Palearctic.

Ethiopian

Fauna

Species that evolved within the continent after the split from Pangea. in addition to fauna that entered from the north, after the closing of the Tethys Sea. Consists of two components the southern temperate Gondwanian forms and the Pan-Ethiopian forms.

South temperate Gondwanian

Found on the tip of Africa but also in Antarctic and many other regions, (they are all found within specific distance from the equator. Today these animals are restricted to cooler mountainous areas, normally restricted to waterbodies which remain cool all year round. Such animals are often Stenotherms, tolerate very low temperatures range with a very low maximum temperature at which they can survive.

Relict families shared among southern Gondwanian regions like New Zealand e.g. Corydalidae. (dobsonflies), such animals used to be far more widespread but are now marginalised.

Pan Ethiopian fauna

Evolved in the northern part of Africa when it was moving through the tropical region. they form the bulk of African fauna related to tropical African biota. this group is further divided into #. the original tropical Gondwanaland (tropical Gondwanian forms) #.those that entered Africa after the Tethys Sea Closed.

NOTE: As Africa moved north in the split up from Pangea, the cold temperate regions became tropical, so animals moved south to stay within their fundamental niche. leading to many extinctions.) Australasian. Antarctic.

Continental

biogeographic subregions

Regional

ecoregions , the current constraints animals face.

There are 31 recognised/categorised aquatic ecoregions in South Africa. these regions are based on topography rainfall and geology. The rivers have similar physico-chemical features and thus similar biota (as biota have the same constraints.

For example in the Waterburg there is subtropical climate, low nutrient clear water flowing off the mountain.

In the northern escarpment there is a mixture of sedimentary igneous rock, so higher natural nutrient content, lower climate, with a mix of subtropical and temperate climates.

Low flood high accumulated sediment, and nutrient levels, high temperature as subtropical and low down. Summer rainfall.

western flooded mountains low nutrient clear streams low turbidity, but in Mediterranean climate, cold wet winter.)

Catchment

zones and habitat types, Transferable across all ecoregions to a large extent. IN lotic ecosystems , faunal communities occur in two zones

rhithron

mountain streams and rivers 1st second and sometimes 3rd order streams

potamon

big lowland streams/rivers. 3rd 4th 5th etc however the division between rithric and potamic communities is not static or consistent.

COPY IMAGE> zoning in european rivers. The potamonic zone is split into an upper (epi potamon) and lower section (meta-potamon). Note more turbulent water to calmer, decrease in sediment size, more macrophyte growth, (IN SA too much turbidity for large macrophyte growth). Forested head streams with grassland low rivers, in SA however headwaters may not be forested, but grassland or savannah rather. Flooding is more violent in the smaller streams than in the bigger streams, and there are more aquatic predators down stream (as the habitats are larger) in the headwaters, with smaller habitats there are more terrestrial predators. Europeans call the Rhithron the Trout zone , the Eip-P the Barbel zone and the meta-potamon the Bream zone. Trout is a stenotherm so can only survive in cold well oxygenated water so must be in head waters. In the lower waters animals can live in warmer waters but require rocky substrate to form on, such as the american small mouth bass. In the lowland the european carp, eats mud/mud sifter, and lays eggs on aquatic macrophytes. . In south africa the equivalent up water fish is the meloche minnow, which is a gondwanian fish, (trout is stocked in large regions and must share restricted habitat , also trout feed on these minnows, (the minnows are insectivores only)). Lower down, orange river catfish in the middle, the large mouth yellow fish is only found in big open waters, and large piscivores.

Zonation in lentic communities.

Pelagic

organism found in open water (oceans + lakes).

Plankton

passively moving

Nekton

actively moving.

Limnetic

shallow pelagic, still light

profundal zone

very little light.

This zoning holds true for lentic ecosystems and in areas of low flow in rivers. which are sufficiently deep and large.

Benthic

by the bottom of rivers and lakes.)

Benthos.

organisms living on the bottom animals living in or on the substrate of the habitat

littoral/shoreline,

close to the edge of water bodies.

Neuston

surface of the water and just below it

there will be different proportions of these communities in different water bodies, i.e. the size and shape of the water body determines the extent of habitats available.

For example in lake George there will be a large pelagic zone as it is deep and wide. or in a wetland there will be, littoral dominated or in a larger wetland possibly benthic dominated.

open water close to surface.

open water close to the bottom

Organisms living on the epineuston or under the hyponeuston water surface.

Thin organic film, trapped by surface tension, which can provide a food source. Epineuston: hemipterans, coleopterans.

Wolly gig beetle, sits in surface tension, half body above half below, eyes above to hunt eyes below to see and avoid fish. Hyponeuston example would be a mosquito larva which essentially has a snorkel, which protrudes out of the water, they are also very vulnerable to fish. Some microorganisms such as rotifers, protozoans and copepods make up the microfauna in the hyponeuston, which is an interstitial water among particles at the bottom of river channel, or lake bottom. Fauna comprises mostly copepods, rotifers, protozoans.

can be a permanent habitat or a temporary refuge, such as burrowing fish in New Zealand river. Energy budgets and Food webs,

Energy budgets and Food webs.

Nutrient flow

nutrients flow from the inorganic nutrient pool to autotrophs, to heterotrophs, which die and decompose, and the nutrients flow back into the nutrient pool. The general flow of nutrients is from COPY IMAGE.

Inputs

Background

Definitions

Primary production

The synthesis of biomass of capture of energy from light and nutrients. Biomass becomes

Secondary production

For heterotrophes, secondary production, is the conversion of consumed biomass to living biomass.

Energy budget

equation that balances gain of energy (production) with loss respiration and excretion of waste products.

Transfer efficiency

Consumption efficiency

how much of the food source is actually consumed

Assimilation efficiency

how much of the food eaten is actually assimilated, i.e does not pass through the body without being metabolised.

Production energy

how much of the absorbed biomass actually is converted into living biomass. $\text{Biomass production} = \text{consumption} - \text{excretion} - \text{respiration}$.

Net primary production

the amount of biomass available for consumption by heterotrophes.

Gross primary production

The amount of biomass permanently fixed by plants. Energy is lost by respiration at every trophic level.

Primary producers.

Secondary consumers,

Food web

shredders feed on CP, and browsers feed on

Planktonic communities are dominated by primary production, whereas in rivers the majority of the base material is dead organic material, hence grazers dominate waters and lakes, and Collectors dominate headwater streams.

Nutrient spiralling

detritus consumers, decomposers water column.

there may be nodes, such as reeds, or carleads (fly larvae), which trap nutrients, until some disturbance occurs. hence the flow of energy slows down and speeds up as it moves through the water column, adjacent wetlands can also act as nodes in the system.

Energy budgets/ nutrient budgets.

Planktonic (lake) communities are primarily autochthonous, ie locally produced within the ecosystem.

benthic stream communities tend to be primarily allochthonous, (ie nutrients are produced primarily outside the system and coming in).

The source of much of the energy in a stream comes from the terrestrial plant material. Macro-Invertebrate emergence, terrestrial invertebrates rely on aquatic ecosystems for energy. terrestrial organisms are feeding on the subsidy coming from the terrestrial ecosystem.

For example in the western united states of america, salmon which swim up river get trapped in dams, to maintain the population hatcheries are raised and then dumped into the river when they get old enough, Mergansers a duck like bird prey on the salmon smolts.

When the smolts are dropped in Mergansers migrate to the stream, and then disperse as the fish run out. , Mergansers exploit the free lunch. Food webs.

Rivers are four dimensional ecosystems.

(find paper), Ward JV 1989, The four-dimensional nature of lotic ecosystems. L.N Am. Benthol. Soc.,

Longitudinal dimension

Rivers dictated by abiotic conditions (shift from headwaters to lowland flood plains).

COPY IMAGE.

Biological gradient.

Additional trophic levels, potentially different feeding groups, Different nutrient flows, Nutrients can be transported upstream or downstream by anadromous (sea to river) or catadromous (river to seas) fish. Sockeye salmon run. Salmon become so adapted their mouth parts change to fight off other males to get to females but they are so adapted that they cannot eat food so they starve. Hence they die forming piles of dead fish in the trees, which serves as a food source for grizzly bears, (which they require as a food source to build up fat reserves for hibernation, bald eagles also rely heavily on the salmon runs.)

Eels in SA, live in stream but go out to sea to spawn and die.

There are fundamental changes in the respiration going on between head water streams and lower down in the river, with consistent respiration, and production pattern in the longitudinal organisation of the stream.

In the riparian reaches there is a lot of lithronic cover, which leads to shading so little energy in the form of light available to aquatic plants and algae for photosynthesis, however there is lots of dead plant material from these terrestrial plants available for herbivores, so the ratio of energy by respiration : energy by primary production is greater than 1.

Lower down there is more light available, and more nutrients, in the form of dissolved particles, which leads to increased NEP from plants algae and diatoms, leading to more energy fixed by live organisms in photosynthesis than the energy being processed by decomposers in the stream.

On into the potamonic area of the river, where there is a higher suspended load, some of the available light is blocked by the sediment, and the sandy substrate is not as good for benthic diatoms, or macrophytes, also as there is more accumulated biomater in the stream, there is increase in dead organic material,, so there is a switch back to increased energy proceeed by respiration comparted to photosynthesis. (in this case it is more the collectors than the grazers that are doing the bulk or the energy processing as they have more food available).

The ratios of feeding groups changes moving longitudinally along the stream. at the head waters there are arge quantities of collectors , eating corse of finer organic material{?}.

In the middle reachers there are more grazers, feeding on diatoms etc,

in the lower reaches there are again collectors dominant, (especially those adapted to feeding on fine organic materia such as blood worms,) in big rivers, bivalves are also present, feeding as filter feeders in the muddy waters. (require lage muddy systems, as where SA rivers go into limpopo.

NOTE: all of this falls under the RCC river continuum concept.

Problems.

The concept is very broud so caution is required in its use.

Firstly , functional feeding groups dp not allways translate across biogeographic zones. For, example stone fly predators are found in upper and lower river, but others in a differnt family are grazers so are not found all the way along the river, this is a problem in SA where there is a huge variety of unknowned macroinvertibrates, there is limited capacity for insect taxonomy For example one common family is the betidee which are extremely variety in their feeding morphology/biology, so the family level is not sufficeint for RCC. Many africa river systems such as the savanna system do not follow proposed model. assignment to feeding groups difficult

IN american there are tress out of pine forests, etc.

Most of the native trees do not form a canopy in SA, in amgalesburg the canopy cover is 80% invasive. poplar and seringa particularly are invasives which shead lots of leaves to the rive, in a pure savanna however.

Lateral dimension

There is both active and passive movement of organisms from the riparian zone to the river, (including reparian wetlands.

Moviment from the river into the riparian zone.). The moviment of macroinvertibrates (insects) in and out of the river in thier life cycle (larvae vs adults) constitutes active moviment/ nutrient cycling, there is also passive transfers.

Flooding drives biotic composition of the riparian zone river channel morphology. temperature distribution of allochthonous material. (temperaute is affected as ground water moves up, (presumable regulates temperature more stricktly.)).

Vertical

Many organisms move actively between the benthos and the hyporheos, to utilise resources, and avoid disturbance. many organisms move actively between benthos and hyporheos to utilise resources , avoid disturbance.

Communities within unconfined alluvial aquifers are poorly understood, as the aquifer can potentiall range far from the river chaneel (2km) and can be several meters down.

Well drilled (2km from the stream), larvae started hatching out. Ground water can serve as a source of dissolved organic nutrients particularly N and P compounds that support primary production at upwelling zones in the river, active transport such as animals burrowing down and coming out also occurs between the two systems.

Temporal

Can occur at various different time scales.

Lotic ecosystems experience environmental change over period of day (diurnal), yearly (seasonal), decades centuries etc.

Diurnal

temperature, light intensity, oxygen concentration in the water.

Seasonal

Drives fish spawning

which scale to use, depends on the organism and the process under study, for example photosynthesis is diurnal and well as seasonally dependant. seasonal vs catastrophic flooding in Mpumalanga is also an important example where scale must be considered.

For example one in a hundred year flood wiped out entire riparian zone, which can massively reset the ecosystem. In general the scale of the impact is generally related to the time between impact events. within a year a microhabitat will change. habitats such as the arrangement of trees in the riparian zone will be over several years eg with flooding patterns. an entire sector could change every few decades. and an entire flood plain would change more in the order of thousands of years, an entire drainage basin drains on the order of hundreds of thousands of years.

Rivers are highly interactive with surrounding ecosystems, both laterally and vertically. Several theories exist to explain aspects of these relationships, but each must be considered in context, (ie European is similar to invasive dominated SA system with forest in headwaters, but in classical SA open headwater RCC not very well followed.)

A spatio-temporal perspective of rivers allows us to understand how humans disrupt these processes. (Critical to understand what we 'should see') to work on management processes. # Special adaptations of aquatic animals in freshwater

Regulation

Osmo-regulation.

Freshwater environments are less saline than the bodies of aquatic organisms

Freshwater.

Skin exchange.

In fresh water an osmoregulating fish takes up water through its skin, and actively takes up ions through its gills. It drinks little water, and excretes dilute urine

COPY IMAGE.

Salt water

In salt water an osmoregulating fish loses water through its skin, drinks ample water, excretes ions through gills, and excretes concentrated urine.

Skin exchange

loses water passively through skin due to osmotic pressure.

Urrination

excretes concentrated urine. NOTE: Salmon can osmoregulate in both environments.

Physiological mechanisms

Reabsorbance of salts. Active ion uptake.

Energy consequences

There may be an energetic cost of osmoregulation which drives smaller size in freshwater streams. (for example crayfish, although there are other explanations, such as greater food availability, there is more detritus available in marine environments.).

Thermoregulation

water tends to be thermally stable (especially in systems with a well developed thermocline. This means that most aquatic organisms can afford to be poikilothermic. (their body temperature is allowed to adjust passively to that of the outside environment.). Such animals tend to be uni-therms, ie they are adapted to a wide range of different temperatures. This is achieved through temperature compensation, there are both metabolic and behavioral techniques for maintaining body temperature.

Respiration

Maximize surface area of respiratory tissue, and maximize the rate of flow of oxygenated water , (while minimizing the surface area through which they can lose / gain unwanted water or salts which disrupts their osmotic balance.). This leads to a conflict between respiration and osmoregulation, where an optimum must be reached. Most animals are adapted to deal with this problem with gills, which differ in shape and surface area depending on the particular environment of the given organism (species). for animals in less oxygenated water The gill is either a big leaf shape or consists of multiple strands, For Baetidae and Heptageniidae which live in fast flowing oxygenated water the gill is more streamlined, and a bit smaller. Plecopteran , ventilate their gills by flapping their legs to increase current.

In dragon fly larvae a rectal gill is used, which allows for propulsion by sucking in and pushing out water. Some insects have normal insect spiracles, such insects developed adaptations such as a “breathing tank” in beetles with a substrate cavity, above the trachea. Bugs tend to use a wick with plastron hairs which trap air bubbles. some others such as mosquito larvae use what is essentially a snorkel

Maintenance of position in lotic waters.

the current can often be extremely strong, this can be dealt with by

aviodane behaviour

moving during floods, and in general living in sheltered areas such as behind boulders, Body shape which is streamlined helps as well as attachment morphological features for gripping onto the substrate.

Body shape

the heptageniid mayflies are extremely adapted so that they can live and feed on the surface of the rock surface, this body shape means the current pushes the insect down onto the rock, the tail is used as a rudder to steer the mayfly. Claws (mayflies suckers (Blepharacerae simuliidae, or a silk cord which they attach and can climb back up if they happen to fall off the rock. silk nets, (hydrarchids, muscular foot, gastropods.)))

Lentic waters.

As there is not flow for passive movement, active movement is required, however animals such as plankton still require at least vertical movement for example to stay on the right side of the thermocline.

Fish maintain their buoyancy with a swim bladder, an organ attached near the top of the spine, Algae have trapped gas/oil bubbles, water hyacinth have lacunae (large air filled structures within the stem).

Migration

There is a lot of migration occurring in the vertical direction, it is still an active process, exhibited by most pelagic plankton species, generally they are in deep water in the day moving up to shallower water at night (migrating at dusk).

Predators avoidance during the day, such as from fish, and other visual hunting predators, energy conservation, stay warm enough that metabolism is working without using energy to cool down, move up at night to feed on phytoplankton.

NOTE: still don't want to be below thermocline as there is low oxygen (in summary, find food, don't become food, and regulate metabolism).

There are predators within the phytoplankton which tend to follow their prey, such as (?) which follow copepods.

rivers.

Drift.

downstream transport by the current of benthic animals. It is a voluntary behavioral adaptation.

Catastrophic

animals which are involved in catastrophic, unpredictable disturbance.

Behavioural drift.

individual organisms or small groups of organisms which all move into the water column due to a particular stimulus, i.e. to avoid predation or to find food. Active decision made based on a common driver in the background habitat. Escaping from a local stress, abandonment of a substrate. drift is a very energy efficient way of moving around (compared to using muscle contractions to move along the stone. avoid attack from a predator. Generally higher at night. trout make drift dangerous as they sit by an area of low flow next to an area of high flow and eat stuff coming down the high flow area, trout are visual predators so more dangerous in the day.

NOTE: catastrophic drift is orders of magnitude higher than the normal level of drift seen.

For example in the rotenone drift animals let go on mass even beetles which using their own air to breathe were not yet affected, but could still smell the poison.

Advantages of drift.

Works in balance with tendency in adults to fly upstream. which in combination drives dispersal. which helps to mediate competition for food and space. Drift can allow for rapid recolonization after a disturbance event such as a flood. provided there is an upstream refuge area. (post flood drift.).

Reproduction and dispersal

both sexual and asexual reproduction is seen in freshwater systems. In certain situations asexual reproduction is very useful as it is very rapid, has low energy cost and can easily be used to take advantage of friendly areas such as temporary ponds. (which have lots of food and no predators.). the disadvantages are low or no genetic variation which leads to vulnerability to population crashes and extinctions. most can do both, organisms switching to sexual production when the environment starts to change. for example males produced as stream dries up so that genetic variation in eggs produced just before the whole pond dries.

Cosmopolitan

animals which let go by accident or which just generally drift.

Type of fertilisation

Overall sexual reproduction is much more widely found than asexual reproduction

Broadcast spawning

the gametes are put directly into the water column, and form zygotes, basically for sessile animals.

for mobile animals there is more active fertilization, often in a spawning bed, in the case of salmon female makes a Redd, a space to lay eggs, male fertilizes eggs as they are released, this is external but localized.

In insects there can be internal fertilization.

In freshwater organisms ranges from broadcast spawning through to internal fertilization. A large portion of marine invertebrates are sessile so rely on the water column for mixing and dispersal, this is possible in the sea because there are a lot of strong currents allowing for mixing of gametes and dispersion of offspring to new areas.

not so much broadcast spawning in rivers and lakes. In lakes because there is very little current. wind reach can lead to mixing but still far less than that induced by wave action and ocean currents. In rivers gametes only move downstream so things don't necessarily mix properly, (ie is males produce before females all sperm are gone downstream before eggs arrive. this spawning mechanism is optimized for rocky shores.

Spawning aggregations.

strongly linked to season, temperature and flow. (selecting parts of the habitat which are ideal for incubating eggs) female finds good boulder releases pheromone all males in the water come behind her, lays eggs in small bunches which stick to rocks, males all pile in to try and lay release their sperm. some males come right up to touch the females, ignore other things in their environment. scavengers will try and eat loose eggs which come past in the water column. In a big spawning aggregation individual chances of being picked off by a predator are lower.

Competition for successful copulation / fertilization mating territories (e.g. odonates) defend /competed for by males, females entering this territory will be courted. the male who mates with the female last is most likely to pass on his genetic information. engage in mate guarding, male hangs onto female to prevent her from mating with other females. mating aggregations in insects also occur, which are characterized by synchronized appearance and swarming. many groups emerge on mass most classically mayflies. Some mayflies live only 24 hours as adults, so emerge mate and die. mating aggregations tend to focus around land marks for example caddis flies around a particular tree. mating swarms maximizes the opportunity for all different organisms to find a mate. generally all males, decreases interspecies competition, ensures constant between sexes. territories vs aggregation is to an extent species vs individual. leads to high increased predator attraction but still overall risk of individual predation risk is decreased.

Dispersal of eggs tends to be done upstream of of eggs spawning sites. In the case of freshwater systems eggs are generally laid on rocks, sometimes vegetation, in lentic systems there are not many rocks so eggs are normally laid on macrophytes at the edge of the stream, or on rafts which float on the surface of the water.

Overall reproductive strategy r vs k selection

R selection

many small, insects. In general r selection is most common in fish insects and crustaceans for freshwater systems, generally more eggs/young produced by planktonic forms than macro-invertebrates, which tend to lay small batches, several batches in different places but still overall less eggs.

K selection

fewer larger eggs. cyprinoid fishes from lake Malawi, mouth brooders <100 about 20, eggs at a time.

Population dynamics of the system.

Organisms compete among each other and with other specie for limited resources. When there are plentiful resources there is rapid increase in population size. A mismatch between resources and consumers will result in population losses through one of two routes. mortality and dispersal. the number of fish in a given region of stream may fluctuate, and increasing because of increased resources, and then dropping because of dying of movement to avoid competition. COPY IMAGE.

the overall birthrate in the population will decline as resources decline, one birthrate and mortality are equal a balancing point is reached which is the carrying capacity of a particular habitat. Intraspecific competition for stable limited resources means populations will be kept below a stable threshold maximum. depending on the rate of resource distribution change die offs and increases may be more for less dramatic, emerging adult black flies disperse at higher rate id the local population density of larvae is too high. COPY IMAGE> such dispersal patterns are found in fish as well as in macroinvertebrates, fish however because of their size have a lot more requirements in terms of ideal environments for spawning, (COPY IMAGE). For example in particular season water temperature, fall to the right range and all fish moved up to particular places along the river, larvae drift down stream to go into shallow backwaters, safe from predators, but with lots of food.

overwintering, rivers freeze over, so fish must find thermal refuges in the winter, in SA fish will find optimum habitats for feeding and for predation risk, daily or seasonal migration between refuge and feeding habitat occurs in a single reach. In ephemeral, or temporal rivers, source sink dynamics are seen, for a series of pools in an intermittent stream, fish move between refuge pools and pools which dry up in dry season, so constant reshuffling, reproduction and overwintering in resource habitats. refuge habitats would change from year to year. so fish reorganize depending on the season and water . temporary habitats are sinks as they do not have the possibility to sustain a fish for a long time, so there is a movement between source and sink habitats. expand from permanently wetted refuges into temporarily wetted sink habitats. fish populations in

temporary systems are a good indication of expand (resources in the source pools will fluctuate with varying population levels).

Adapting to life without water

many lentic and lotic environments are naturally episodic or intermittent nonetheless aquatic organisms still thrive in these systems, and adapt by evolving resistance to desiccation and/or resilience to habitat loss.

there are many temporarily which can form cysts, such as fairy shrimp, the eggs are resistance to desiccation not the adults. flexible reproductive strategy, resistant cysts or eggs, resistant immature /adult stages (low metabolic state, moist membrane). escape by flight (insects which flying adults)/ burrowing (hand out in the ground water, such as certain species of talapia.). rapid re-colonization (resilience)

Wet phases can also be harsh, such as catastrophic flood, use hypoheos, during floods. burrowing can be used to survive both drying out and flooding. burrowing into the hyperheos. Lungs fish is extremely drought resistant. As the water level falls lungfish burrow into the bottom nu to form a cocoon and aestivate through the dry season. eastivating as an adult is an extreme drought resistance adaptation. Killifish tend to live in temporary ponds, lay drought resistance eggs or cysts in sediment of drying ponds, which hatch when water returns Killifish (*Northobranchius*) lay aestivating eggs.

animal ecology in fresh water systems.

competition and adaptation, aquatic organisms vary in their abilities to self regulate and survive environmental variability. This variable adaptation among species have different strategies to cope with environment predators, and competitors. because of theses varying adaptations and strategies there are specific environmental conditions in which a species is able to sustain a population which is known as a niche.

Fundamental niche.

the full potential set of environmental conditions a species could survive in, given no competition. however all organisms have to compete with other similar organism so the loser o the competition get shrunk into a smaller subset ie the realized niche,

Realised Niche.

the actual sub-set of these environmental conditions in which the species is observed to survive, given real levels of competition with other species.

shifts between fundamental niches happen on evolutionary time scales. for example two groups of sticklebacks in the Columbia glacial lakes. during the last ice age there were expansions and contractions which moved lakes and rivers, driving potential speciation, hence there were multiple invasions of lakes by sticklebacks (which are river fish). subsequent invaders had to compete with the sticklebacks already there, overtime theses groups shifted their fundamental niches away from each other overtime evolved a limnetic form , and a benthic form shifts in fundamnetal physiological biology, such as number of gill rakers in the body (note when there are two species the range of physiological characteristics of each are confined to a smaller)range, longer gill rakers in limnetic fish feeding on plankton. the most extreme example of speciation and niche differentiation is the Malawi fish. (cillonlids.)

Community as a whole

disturbance in structuring freshwater communities, community structure can be described as being controlled by two interacting forces.

competition and disturbance, if competition dominates community structure., such as lakes like Malawi of British Columbia, the community is deterministic as the process of niche differentiation is very predictable

whereas if the community is disturbance driven a stochastic, ie randomly organised community results, intermediate levels of river bed disturbance supports highest benthic diversity. Animals which are highly resistant or resilient tend to dominate in very high disturbance species, In communities with both disturbance and competition there are the most species with resistance and resilient colonizers and competitive species. Intermediate levels of river bed disturbance support highest benthic diversity (COPY IMAGE) Intermediate disturbance hypothesis.

the relationship between disturbance and productivity can also be compared, (COPY IMAGE). When there is very little food available/ low productivity there will always be low diversity even with high disturbance, as productivity increases the effect of disturbance is far more pronounced with intermediary disturbance levels leading to high diversity. if disturbance is low animals like snails which are protected and good at feeding dominate, at high disturbance snails are not very mobile so mobile generalist resilient species tend to dominate, both will co-occur at intermediary levels.

Predation as disturbance.

Bluegill sunfish in American streams. rapid spawning allows rapid expansion of blue gill populations the intensity of the blue gill as a mortality source to its prey leads to variation in their impact, (on macroinvertebrates). By feeding on abundant prey such species act to mediate diversity by controlling competitively dominant species. disturbance can have a knock on effect on predators and their ability to mediate prey. for example trout are very efficient predators, so will wipe out local fish (galaxiids) if they reach a certain minimum population size, however trout are far less resilient to flooding, . the bed stability can be used as a indication of which species will be present in very stable beds, (low flood disturbance,) trout only, conversely in low bed stability, high flooding only galaxiids, and in intermediary levels there is co-occurrence. In general co-occurrence is more frequent in disturbed streams.

predatory exclusion limited to stable streams.

Freshwater fish invasions.

test OLS 1029

Source of fish

History

recreational fishing only really became a thing in the late colonial period, there was a push by the government in terms of legislation to bring in popular anglican species, such as carp, rainbow trout, brown trout, 1876 legislation encourage importing native species, initially for recreation purposes, pre through the program, COPY IMAGE.

South Africa with a source of predation through the introduction of southern species.

COPY image, exotic species that have been moved around, there were very few species in the natural system even a few introduced species are a big problem, Sharptooth catfish from Great Britain to Italy into the river,

countries with very large natural fish diversity are not very affected, stock for angling, biocontrol, trawler

video, red tail fish. water quality improved.

Clan William sandfish, eliminate blue gill. rotenone project to eradicate