

1 Realising the value of fluvial geomorphology

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14 Abstract

15
16 Fluvial geomorphological forms and processes exert a fundamental influence on
17 riverine processes and functions. They thereby contribute significantly to beneficial
18 services for humanity, yet remain largely undervalued. Major ecosystem service
19 studies to date tend overlook the contribution of geodiversity and geomorphological
20 processes, particularly of fluvial geomorphology, to human wellbeing. Yet
21 management of the water environment which overlooks fundamental driving
22 processes, such as those encompassed by fluvial geomorphology, is inherently
23 unsustainable. Inferences from the literature highlight a broad range of contributions
24 of fluvial processes and forms to the four ecosystem service categories of the

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25 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, contributing to system functioning, resilience
26 and human wellbeing. Fluvial geomorphologists can help society better address
27 sustainability challenges by raising the profile of fluvial forms and processes to
28 continuing human wellbeing and system resilience. To achieve this, we identify
29 three challenges: (1) cross-disciplinary collaboration, addressing interrelations
30 between biodiversity and geodiversity as well as broader scientific disciplines; (2)
31 quantification to an appropriate level and, where possible, mapping of service
32 generation and benefit realisation; and (3) persuasive demonstration projects
33 emphasising how investment in this aspect of the natural environment can enhance
34 service provision and net human benefits. We explore lessons learned from case
35 studies on river rehabilitation, floodplain management, and mapping ecosystem
36 services. We contend that linking fluvial geomorphology to societal wellbeing
37 outcomes via the language of ecosystem services provides a pathway towards social
38 and economic recognition of relevance, influencing policy-makers about their
39 importance and facilitating their 'mainstreaming' into decision-making processes.
40 We also advance a prototype conceptual model, guiding fluvial geomorphologists
41 better to articulate the contribution to a sustainable flow of services through better
42 characterisation of: (1) interactions between anthropogenic pressures and
43 geomorphology; (2) how forms and processes contribute to ecosystem services; and
44 (3) guidance on better management reflecting implications for service provision.

45

46

47 **Keywords**

48

49 Ecosystem services, fluvial geomorphology, river restoration, ecosystem approach,
50 ecosystem assessment

51

52

53 **Introduction**

54

55 Nature has substantial value to all dimensions of human interest, yet has been
56 largely overlooked (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005; UK National
57 Ecosystem Assessment, 2011; HM Government, 2011). Emerging recognition of the
58 structure and functioning of nature in delivering ecosystem services in progressive
59 regulation includes, for example, the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD)
60 requirement to achieve 'good ecological status' as a strategic outcome superseding
61 a former issue-by-issue 'pressures' focus. Ecosystem services concepts are
62 receiving increasing critical attention from institutional and regulatory commentators
63 in policy and law (Ruhl and Salzman, 2007; Kaime, 2013). However, there remains
64 a substantial legacy of legislation, subsidies and other policy levers founded on
65 narrowly focused disciplinary approaches. Framing 'compliance' as an end goal,
66 rather than explicitly addressing consequent benefits to people and the integrity and
67 resilience of ecosystems, hampers systemic practice despite clear policy
68 pronouncements in international and national pronouncements. Even for emerging
69 legal instruments with systemic intent like the WFD, entrenched assumptions have
70 tended to reduce Member State implementation to compliance with sets of technical
71 standards, perpetuating historic perceptions of 'nature' as a constraint on
72 development rather than the primary asset supporting societal benefits (Everard,
73 2011). The basis of the Ecosystem Approach

74 (<http://www.cbd.int/ecosystem/principles.shtml>) and policy statements seeking to
75 embody it (such as HM Government, 2011 in a UK context) is recognition of multiple,
76 substantial values flowing to society from ecosystems and their services.

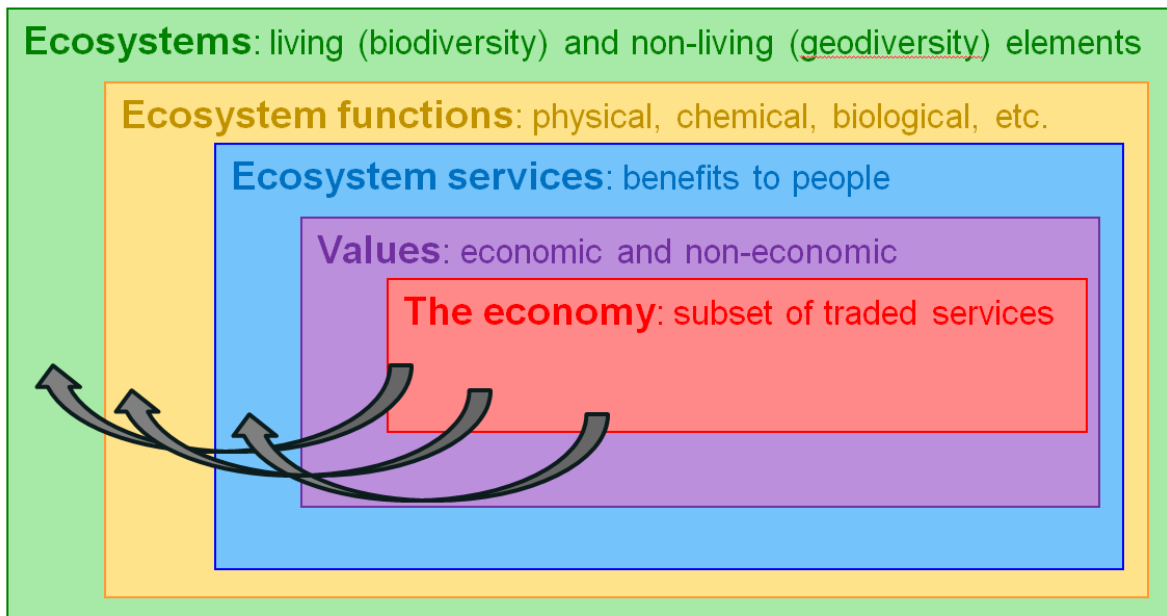
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78 The principle of a cascade running from ecosystems to functions, services and
79 thence to multiple beneficial outcomes for people, including feedback loops, is
80 established in the literature (Everard *et al.*, 2009; Haines-Young and Potschin, 2010)
81 and policy-related studies and positions both internationally (Millennium Ecosystem
82 Assessment, 2005) and nationally (for example UK National Ecosystem
83 Assessment, 2011). Everard (unpublished) favours representation as nested layers,
84 emphasising systemic dependencies and adverse implications from feedback when
85 valuation and trading includes only a subset of ecosystem services (Figure 1).

86

87 *Figure 1: nested model of connections from ecosystems and markets*

88



89
90

91 Ecosystem services flow from the interaction of living (biodiversity) and non-living
92 (geodiversity) ecosystem elements. Geodiversity, comprising the variety of

93 geological and soil materials, the landforms they constitute and the processes which
94 establish and alter them, is being increasingly recognised for its role in sustaining
95 natural capital (Gordon and Barron, 2013; Gray *et al.*, 2013). Fluvial geomorphology
96 is a key element of geodiversity. Landforms and stream-related processes (primarily
97 erosion, transportation and deposition of sediment) influence the evolution of fluvial
98 forms and consequently the physical template of a riverscape, shaping the structure,
99 ecology, functioning and diversity of ecosystems supported therein (Naiman *et al.*,
100 2005; Stoffel and Wilford, 2012). Clearly then, geomorphological processes
101 significantly influence the range of ecosystem services that river systems provide.
102 Bergeron and Eyquem (2012) identify specific attributes of geomorphological
103 systems instrumental in relation to ecosystem services (Table 1).

104

105 The contribution of geomorphological processes more generally to social sciences
106 and philosophy is recognised by Downs and Gregory (2004). The role of fluvial
107 geomorphology is also becoming progressively more strongly recognised in river
108 management (Gregory *et al.* 2014; Wohl 2014). For example, the WFD includes
109 hydrogeomorphological condition as a constituent of ecosystem quality, and certain
110 geomorphological processes are recognised as significant for engineering concerns
111 (for example scour of bridge supports: May *et al.*, 2002). This repositions fluvial
112 geomorphology in a more multidisciplinary context, Newson (2006, p.1606)
113 suggesting that, “Fluvial geomorphology is rapidly becoming centrally involved in
114 practical applications to support the agenda of sustainable river basin management”.
115 Thorndycroft *et al.* (2008, p.2) adds, “A resurgence in fluvial geomorphology is taking
116 place, fostered for example by its interaction with river engineering, and the
117 availability of new analytical methods, instrumentation and techniques. These have

118 enabled development of new applications in river management, landscape
119 restoration, hazard studies, river history and geoarchaeology". More specifically in
120 relation to ecosystem services, Bergeron and Eyquem (2012, p.242) suggest that
121 fluvial geomorphologists have "...a key role to play in their identification and
122 evaluation" and so should become "...more actively involved in this relatively new,
123 yet rapidly expanding and increasingly important, area of applied research".

124

125 International commitment to the 12 principles of the Ecosystem Approach implicitly
126 includes fluvial geomorphology under Principles 3 (effects on adjacent ecosystems),
127 5 (ecosystem structure and functioning), 6 (ecosystem functioning), 8 (lag and long-
128 term effects) and 12 (involving all relevant scientific disciplines). The wide spectrum
129 of human wellbeing end-points supported by fluvial geomorphology has not yet been
130 explicitly recognised in policy and management frameworks, particularly for
131 supporting, regulatory and other non-marketed services. Where fluvial
132 geomorphological processes are overlooked, loss of societal wellbeing may ensue
133 through direct costs (such as river bank erosion) or lost opportunities to benefit from
134 natural processes (for example natural flood management solutions). Understanding
135 systemic connections between ecosystem services provided by geomorphological
136 forms and processes is therefore important if river management is to become
137 optimally sustainable and societally beneficial, including avoiding unforeseen trade-
138 offs (Morris *et al.*, 2008).

139

140 This paper addresses the role of fluvial geomorphological processes and forms in
141 the production of ecosystem services, how human activities affect them, suggested
142 policy responses, as well as significant knowledge and policy gaps and research

143 needs. Although we use many European examples, we emphasise the generic
144 importance of fluvial geomorphology as a central thread in river management,
145 constituting an integral consideration for the achievement of wider ecosystem service
146 outcomes.

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149 **The impact of fluvial forms and processes on human wellbeing**

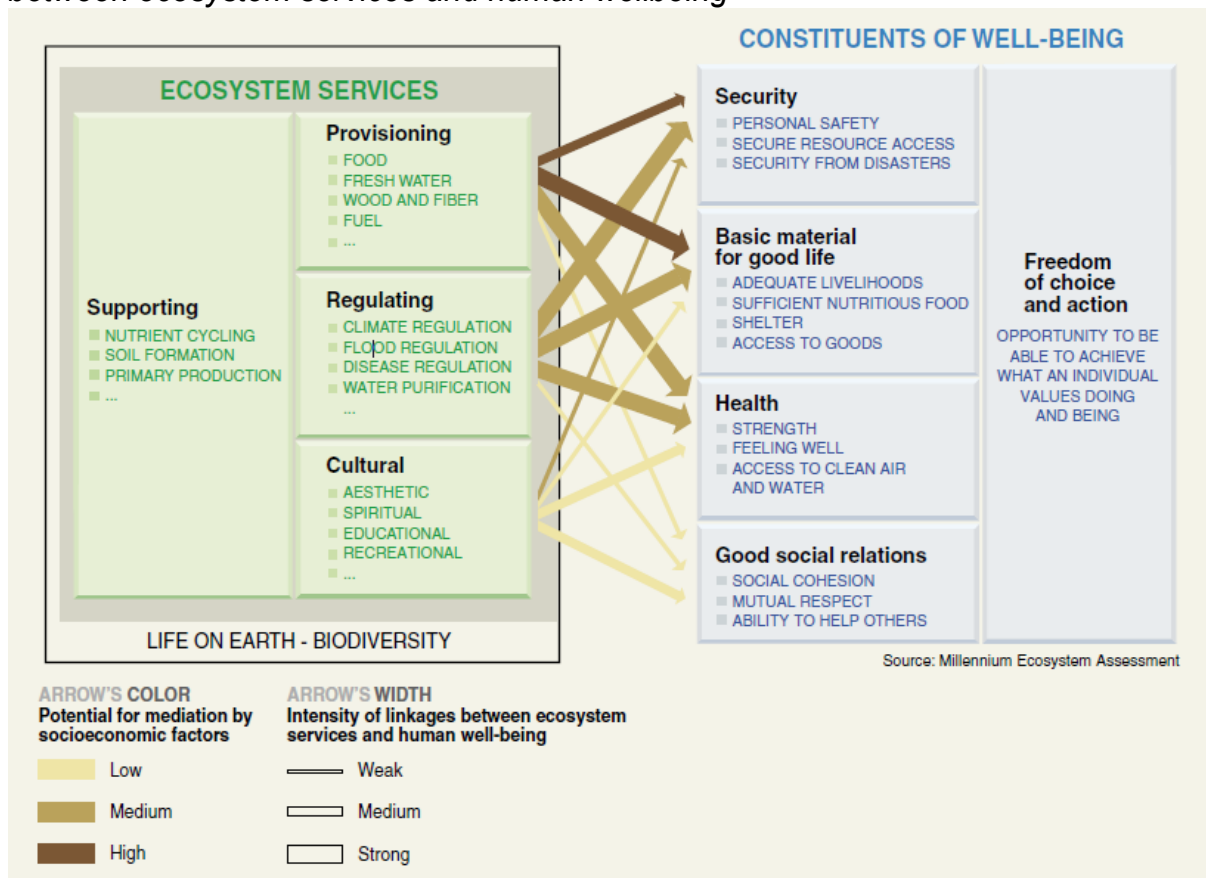
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151 The contribution of four broad categories of ecosystem services (provisioning,
152 regulatory, cultural and supporting) to multiple constituents of human wellbeing is
153 represented in the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) conceptual model
154 (Figure 2).

155

156

157 *Figure 2. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) conceptual model of linkages*
 158 *between ecosystem services and human wellbeing*



159
160

161 Some commentators (Boyd and Banzhaf, 2007; Turner *et al.*, 2008) contest
 162 consideration of supporting services in benefit assessment as they principally
 163 constitute functions underpinning more directly exploited and valued ecosystem
 164 services. This view influenced the conceptual valuation model underpinning the UK
 165 National Ecosystem Assessment (UK NEA, 2011), in which supporting services and
 166 some regulatory services are largely recognised as 'intermediate services' (such as
 167 soil formation) contributing to 'final services' (e.g. food production) and 'goods' (for
 168 example saleable food commodities). Everard and Waters (2013) contest this
 169 approach, highlighting that exclusion of non-marketed services, far from completely
 170 included in market values assigned to traded goods, underpins many current
 171 sustainability challenges. Supporting and regulatory services, to which fluvial

172 geomorphological processes contribute significantly, are therefore explicitly
173 considered here to ensure that potentially important mechanisms supporting human
174 wellbeing are not overlooked.

175

176 Whilst geomorphological processes are explicitly recognised at both global scale
177 (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005) and national scale (UK National
178 Ecosystem Assessment, 2011), the role of geodiversity including its functional links
179 with biodiversity is substantially overlooked in both studies (Gordon and Barron,
180 2013; Gray *et al.*, 2013). As the role of specific fluvial processes and forms are not
181 addressed, their contribution to ecosystem service outcomes therefore warrants
182 further study.

183

184 Tables 2-5 describe respectively the four Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005)
185 categories of ecosystem services, outlining specific services supported or
186 maintained, whether directly or indirectly, by fluvial geomorphological processes.

187

188 Fluvial geomorphology and the flows of services it supports are also substantially
189 shaped by anthropogenic pressures. Significant amongst these is rising global
190 human population, exacerbated by escalating consumption pressures from a
191 burgeoning middle class in the developing world imposing food and other supply
192 chain pressures, and increasing urban densities. A wide literature addresses
193 multiple anthropogenic pressures, including land conversion for agriculture and
194 urbanisation, changes to river flows through surface resource and groundwater
195 abstraction, modifications to river channels such as impoundments and

196 channelization (Gurnell *et al.*, 2007), and alteration of habitat structure through
197 aggregate extraction and management for fishery, navigation and other purposes.

198

199 Further indirect effects of fluvial geomorphological processes and forms arise from
200 cross-habitat interactions (e.g. see Stoffel and Wilford, 2012, for a review of
201 hydrogeomorphic processes and vegetation in upland and geomorphological fan
202 environments). Whilst fluvial forms and processes are most directly related to fresh
203 waters, there are close interlinks between other habitat types (UK National
204 Ecosystem Assessment, 2011). The reciprocal influences between linked habitat
205 types and the services provided by fluvial forms and processes need to be better
206 understood and systematised.

207

208 Degradation of ecosystems and their processes has the potential significantly to
209 erode benefits, or create dis-benefits, of substantial cumulative detriment across the
210 full suite of ecosystem services. Elosegi *et al.* (2010), for instance, synthesise
211 relationships between channel form, biodiversity and river ecosystem functioning and
212 human impact, while Elosegi and Sabater (2013) review the effects of common
213 hydromorphological impacts (e.g. channel modification, river flow) on river
214 ecosystem functioning. Disruption of fluvial geomorphological processes is likely to
215 destabilise production of ecosystem services, and hence overall catchment system
216 resilience. In particular, anthropogenic pressures upon fluvial forms and processes
217 warrant further review both as discrete pressures but also how they introduce
218 feedback loops affecting the cross-disciplinary flow of ecosystem services. For
219 example, climate change affects the intensity, locality and frequency of rainfall

220 differentially across regions, with secondary effects upon propensity for both drought
221 and flooding (IPCC, 2013; Kendon *et al.*, 2014).

222

223 Impacts on fluvial processes also raise distributional equity issues, for example in a
224 dammed river (generally to harvest the provisioning services of *fresh water* and
225 *energy* although sometimes also promoting the cultural services of *transport* and
226 water-based *tourism*) that tends to profit an already privileged minority with often
227 substantial overlooked losses at catchment-scale incurred by multiple, often
228 marginalised or otherwise disempowered stakeholder groups (World Commission on
229 Dams, 2000; Everard, 2013).

230

231 Consequently, river and catchment structure and processes need stronger
232 recognition as major contributors to ecosystem service benefits and resilience of
233 catchment systems.

234

235

236 **Integrating fluvial geomorphology and ecosystem services: key challenges**

237

238 We identify three principal challenges to be addressed to achieve integration of
239 fluvial geomorphological science with ecosystem services, which collectively will
240 elevate the profile of the contributions and importance of riverine processes and
241 forms to human wellbeing.

242

243 Challenge 1: cross-disciplinary collaboration. The success of river management
244 depends critically on improving understanding and explicit modelling of the

245 relationships between hydrological regime (water, sediment), fluvial processes and
246 the interrelated ecological processes and responses (Arthington *et al.*, 2010) or, as
247 Gordon and Barron (2013, p.54) put it, the “...functional links between biodiversity
248 and geodiversity”. We need to move beyond paradigms and principles to
249 “...practical tools, methods, protocols and models accurately linking volumes and
250 patterns of flow to biodiversity and ecological processes” (Arthington *et al.* 2010,
251 p.3). This requires aquatic ecologists and fluvial geomorphologists to work together.
252 Gordon and Barron (2013, p.54), for example, make a plea for “...the geodiversity
253 and biodiversity communities to break down disciplinary barriers” and work towards
254 integration.

255

256 Challenge 2: quantification to an appropriate level and mapping. This addresses
257 ecosystem services generated by rivers and floodplains, and links between them and
258 supporting fluvial geomorphological and ecological processes (Arthington *et al.*,
259 2010; Thorp *et al.*, 2010). Others call for analysis and evaluation of the monetary
260 and non-monetary contribution of geodiversity to “...ensure natural capital is not
261 undervalued through its omission” (Gordon and Barron, 2013, p.54). Although
262 ecosystem services supported by hydrological processes have received attention for
263 some time (Ruhl, 1999; Postel, 2002; Postel, 2003; Braumann *et al.*, 2007), case
264 studies showing a continuum of predictive and functional understanding of
265 geomorphological and ecosystem processes through to quantified ecosystem
266 services are uncommon, and comparative evaluation of alternate approaches is rarer
267 (Bagstad *et al.*, 2014). Techniques for evaluating services underpinned by fluvial
268 geomorphology are therefore under-developed (Thorp *et al.*, 2010). Indeed, lack of
269 practical tools and incentives to use ecosystem services concepts has been cited as

270 a reason why some Australian catchment managers have not incorporated them into
271 routine management and planning (Plant and Ryan, 2013). Although Plant and Prior
272 (2014) propose a useful framework for incorporation of ecosystem services into
273 statutory water allocation, this does not address the underlying needs referred to
274 above. Everard and Waters (2013) provide a practical ecosystem services
275 assessment method consistent with UK government guidance, emphasising that
276 detailed monetised studies are not essential to illustrate the diversity of values
277 provided by natural places and management schemes.

278

279 Challenge 3: demonstration. A third challenge is production of persuasive projects
280 demonstrating how investment in the natural environment can result in enhanced
281 benefits and service provision (Gordon and Barron, 2013).

282

283 The following sub-sections explore case studies illustrating how these three
284 challenges might be met.

285

286

287 *(i) River rehabilitation and ecosystem services*

288

289 River rehabilitation has been seen as fundamental to improving biodiversity,
290 emerging as a distinct discipline over recent decades and giving rise to projects
291 across the globe seeking to demonstrate improvements in biota, habitat and/or
292 cultural value. More recent attempts have been made to quantify the impact of these
293 initiatives in terms of the quality and value of river-based ecosystem services. For
294 example, dead wood is an important component of natural channels, so lack of it

295 impacts nutrient and matter cycling, simplifies habitat and reduces biodiversity
296 (Hofmann and Hering, 2000; Elosegi *et al.*, 2007). A restoration project in Spain
297 involving re-introduction of dead wood resulted in a 10- to 100-fold increase in
298 stream-derived economic benefits, equating to an annual benefit of €1.8 per metre of
299 restored river length with benefits exceeding costs over realistic time-frames (Acuña
300 *et al.*, 2013). These benefits arose due to improved fishing supported by improved
301 habitat, better water quality consequent from increased water residence time, higher
302 retention of organic and inorganic matter, and reduced erosion. Such case studies
303 provide a framework for quantifying benefits, demonstrating how investing in the
304 natural environment can deliver multiple ecosystem services.

305

306 Although ecosystem service enhancement can be used to justify investment in river
307 restoration, Dufour *et al.* (2011) suggest that the concept can also reposition river
308 restoration on a more objective-based footing, framing desired future state outcomes
309 in terms of goals for natural system integrity and human well-being as components of
310 a desired future state rather than more simply as change relative to a notional 'pre-
311 disturbance' condition. Thorp *et al.* (2010, p.68) also acknowledge that "...a focus
312 on ecosystem services may also promote alternative river management options,
313 including river rehabilitation". Tailoring schemes to socially desired ecosystem
314 services may optimise the benefits and inform the priorities for river rehabilitation.

315

316 Gilvear *et al.* (2013) demonstrate an innovative approach to optimising the outcomes
317 of river rehabilitation in relation to delivery of multiple ecosystem services. Rather
318 than quantifying them in monetary terms, levels of ecosystem services delivered are
319 assessed on the basis of an expert-derived scoring system reflecting how the

320 rehabilitation measure contributes to reinstating important geomorphological,
321 hydrological and ecological processes and functions over time. The approach
322 enables a long-term (>25 years) score to be calculated and provides a mechanism
323 for discriminating between alternative proposals. Use of relative measures of
324 ecosystem service rather than monetary values is interesting in relation to Plant and
325 Ryan's (2013, p.44) observation that "...a well-facilitated process of group learning
326 and reasoning about nature's values that is grounded in local knowledge and
327 experience may ultimately better approximate the 'true' value of a region's natural
328 capital that traditional positivist approaches aimed at comprehensive quantification
329 and valuation of ecosystem services".

330

331

332 *(ii) Floodplain management and ecosystem services*

333

334 Posthumus *et al.* (2010) provide an example of the utility of using ecosystem
335 services in floodplain management. Six floodplain management scenarios² were
336 identified based on different priorities for land use in lowland floodplain areas.
337 Fourteen goods or ecosystem services (column 2 of Table 6) arising from each land
338 use were then semi-quantified on the basis of an indicator (Table 6), many of which
339 are strongly supported by fluvial geomorphological processes. Results were
340 normalised and depicted using radar plots, allowing the conflicts and synergies
341 between the range of ecosystems services under the different land uses to be made
342 explicit. This approach provides an example of how semi-quantitative methods can

² (i) current use (ii) intensive agricultural production (iii) agri-environment (seeking to enhance biodiversity within predominantly agricultural land (iv) biodiversity (v) floodwater storage and (vi) income (seeking to maximise income derived from the land)

343 be used to support decisions, better internalising the contribution of fluvial
344 geomorphology in operational practice.

345

346

347 *(iii) Mapping ecosystem services*

348

349 Mapping ecosystem services has value in that it identifies areas providing a high
350 level of service, which therefore require targeted management strategies to retain
351 this level of service provision (Maynard *et al.*, 2010 and 2012; Martinez-Holmes and
352 Balvanere, 2012).

353

354 Thorp *et al.* (2010) suggest the level of ecosystem service provided by river
355 environments is directly related to their hydrogeomorphic complexity. They define
356 functional process zones (FPZs) and describe a method for mapping them involving
357 up to 15 catchment, valley and channel variables. Hydrogeomorphic complexity is
358 thus related to habitat and niche complexity, influencing a river's biocomplexity and
359 consequent ecosystem services. Thorp *et al.* (2010) acknowledge that research
360 relating ecosystem services to hydrogeomorphic structure is still emerging, but
361 provide an indication of the relationship between six contrasting types of FPZs and
362 their potential level of ecosystem service provision (Table 7). Further development
363 of mapping relationships between hydrogeomorphic zones and levels of ecosystem
364 service provision is required.

365

366 Another influential case study was associated with end-of-life coastal defences in
367 Wareham, Dorset (England), in which stakeholders developed consensus in tabular

368 form about the 'likelihood of impact' in semi-quantitative terms for a range of
369 ecosystem services likely to arise from different management options (Tinch and
370 Provins, 2007). This example has been used by UK Government (Defra, 2007) as
371 an example of where this form of mapping can avert the need for expensive, time-
372 consuming and (in this case) unnecessary cost-benefit assessment to determine a
373 favoured option.

374

375 Another benefit of mapping service provision is that it highlights discontinuities in
376 supply and demand of ecosystem services. For example, Stürk *et al.* (2014)
377 illustrate a pan-European spatial mapping approach comparing ecosystem service
378 supply and demand focussing on flood regulation services. This approach could
379 help identify priority areas for investment through conservation and land use
380 planning. Based on the priorities of Pagella and Sinclair (2014), we suggest there
381 are four key areas for development with respect to mapping ecosystem services
382 underpinned by fluvial geomorphological processes: (i) maps at appropriate scales
383 and resolutions connecting field scale management options and river ecosystem
384 services; (ii) definition of landscape boundaries and flows and pathways from source
385 to receptor; (iii) approaches to calculating and presenting synergies and trade-offs
386 amongst and between services; and (iv) incorporating the stakeholder perspectives
387 to help deepen understanding, bound uncertainty and improve legitimacy. However,
388 at least in the UK, a consistent and generally accepted method of detailed mapping
389 river attributes and functions is lacking, beyond the rapid assessment tool River
390 Hydromorphology Assessment Technique (RHAT) devised for monitoring under the
391 EU WFD (Water Framework Directive UK TAG). Other tools addressing at least a
392 subset of relevant attributes of fluvial geomorphology are available and have been

393 used in previous surveys, including for example fluvial audits for river conservation
394 (Natural England, 2008), River Habitat Survey (<http://www.riverhabitatsurvey.org/>),
395 River Corridor Survey (National Rivers Authority, 1992) and PHABSIM (Milhous and
396 Waddle, 2012) as an example of habitat suitability modelling. An opportunity to map
397 and extend awareness of ecosystem services generated by river geomorphology is
398 presented by Large and Gilvear (2012) in the form of a methodology for reach-based
399 river ecosystem service assessment of eight ecosystem functions using remote
400 sensing using Google Earth remote sensing data, drawing theoretical linkages
401 between 18 riverscape fluvial features, attributes and land cover types, observable
402 and measurable on Google Earth, and resultant river ecosystem service delivery.

403

404 Learning from how the above case studies inform the three principal challenges is
405 summarised in Table 8. Cumulatively, these highlight the importance of addressing
406 the major contributions of fluvial geomorphology to multiple ecosystem service
407 outcomes, which need to be represented transparently to affected stakeholder
408 groups who need, in turn, to be involved in equitable and resilient governance.

409

410

411 **Discussion**

412

413 The change of paradigm towards ecosystems thinking requires the multiple societal
414 values, both economic and non-economic, of nature and its processes to be better
415 articulated and integrated into decision-making across policy areas, including
416 recognition of the broader ecosystem service contributions of fluvial
417 geomorphological and other significant processes at both local and distant spatial

418 and temporal scales (Seppelt, 2011). Closer integration, in both science and policy,
419 of the living (biodiversity) and non-living (geodiversity) elements of ecosystems is
420 necessary to support decisions incorporating the resilience, functioning and
421 capacities of the natural world that sustain human wellbeing. Connecting underlying
422 natural forms and functions with wellbeing end-points is essential if the value of
423 fluvial geomorphology is to be understood and mainstreamed into operational
424 practice. Recognition of the value of ecosystem services provided by river forms and
425 processes also helps overcome the historic perception of ‘nature as threat’ (flooding,
426 disease, drowning) and its necessary transition into ‘nature as fundamental capital’
427 that is implicit in the Ecosystem Approach. Wohl (2014, p.278) voice concerns that
428 fluvial geomorphology “...also faces some serious challenges, however, in
429 maintaining societal relevance in a human-dominated environment”, and by Gregory
430 *et al.* (2014, p.479) that it “...needs to raise its profile in contributing to major
431 questions in society and to living with environmental change”. We contend that
432 linking fluvial geomorphology to societal wellbeing outcomes via the language of
433 ecosystem services provides a pathway towards social and economic recognition of
434 relevance, influencing policy-makers about their importance and facilitating their
435 ‘mainstreaming’ into decision-making processes. Furthermore, consideration of all
436 interconnected ecosystem service end-points stemming from geomorphological
437 processes and forms can lead to more robust, socially valuable and equitable
438 outcomes, the language of benefits to people also constituting a more intuitive and
439 systemic means for communicating across stakeholder groups.

440

441 Outcomes of this policy influence should include the framing of new regulatory
442 instruments and subsidies in terms of systemic wellbeing outcomes. It should also

443 promote reinterpretation of existing instruments, recognising their potential for to
444 deliver broader societal values. Everard *et al.* (2012) and Everard and McInnes
445 (2013) emphasise that refocusing on the purpose of legacy legislation, rather than
446 slavish adherence to regulatory clauses in isolation, can lead to more systemic
447 practice, especially if supported by government guidance. Examples relevant to
448 fluvial geomorphology include refocusing on the wider societal values stemming from
449 achieving 'good ecological status' in the WFD, broader societal benefits from cross-
450 compliance requirements under UK, EU and other agri-environment agreements via
451 their effects on fluvial geomorphology, and assessing the broader outcomes of in-
452 channel and riparian construction projects. Distributional considerations are also
453 important, for example where the beneficiaries of ecosystem services such as
454 climate and flood regulation may be remote from the point of resource ownership,
455 exploitation and service production. Everard *et al.* (2014) consequently call for
456 greater coherence between higher-level international and national commitments to
457 taking an Ecosystem Approach and their practical translation into compulsions and
458 inducements within the diverse formal and informal policy environment that shapes
459 the decisions of often private resource owners, which may make a significant
460 contribution to optimising benefits across society.

461

462 Clearly documented, if possible quantified, case studies would also promote better
463 understanding and demonstration of the contribution of fluvial geomorphological
464 forms and processes to beneficial end-points, and their integral interdependencies
465 with biological processes. This necessarily entails assessing implications for the full
466 spectrum of ecosystem services, importantly including hard-to-measure services
467 which, if overlooked, may continue to generate negative unintended externalities

468 eroding net societal value. Techniques to derive indicative values for all ecosystem
469 services are reviewed by Everard (2012) and articulated by Everard and Waters
470 (2013), including for example linkages to surrogate markets, travel cost analysis, and
471 'willingness to pay'. These methods may not provide market values for all, or
472 perhaps most, services, but can be illustrative of relative significance (large or small,
473 positive or negative) of services helping highlight potential unforeseen trade-offs and
474 also supporting more inclusive, equitable and sustainable decisions.

475

476 Recognising the significance of fluvial geomorphology for all ecosystem services and
477 their associated and equally interconnected beneficiaries is essential for reliable
478 mapping, valuation and effective management of services. Novel policy instruments,
479 including more systemically framed emerging legislation and market-based
480 instruments, may better connect ecosystem resources and processes with their final
481 beneficiaries. For example, payments for ecosystem services (PES) can create
482 markets for formerly overlooked services, potentially opening novel funding routes
483 wherein service beneficiaries who may not traditionally have recognised the benefits
484 they receive from fluvial geomorphology, such as transport infrastructure managers,
485 can invest cost-effectively in processes supporting their interests.

486

487 Assessment of gaps in the policy environment is an additional research need
488 building on, for example, analysis of 'response options' within the UK National
489 Ecosystem Assessment Follow-On programme (UK National Ecosystem
490 Assessment, 2014) and highlighting opportunities for integration of fluvial
491 geomorphological considerations into wider sectoral interests. Issues such as
492 private rights on floodplains and other catchment land may constrain freedoms, or

493 necessitate novel approaches, to protect important processes yielding public
494 benefits. To promote more coherent policy formulation, we advance the conceptual
495 model at Figure 3. This model clearly needs to be further developed to account for
496 the full range of contributions of fluvial processes and forms to human wellbeing and
497 the feedbacks from society, but serves to illustrate and communicate (based on
498 already accepted systems models outlined in the Introduction to this paper) the
499 specific place at which fluvial geomorphology needs to be considered as a
500 contributor to the sustainable flow of services, namely:

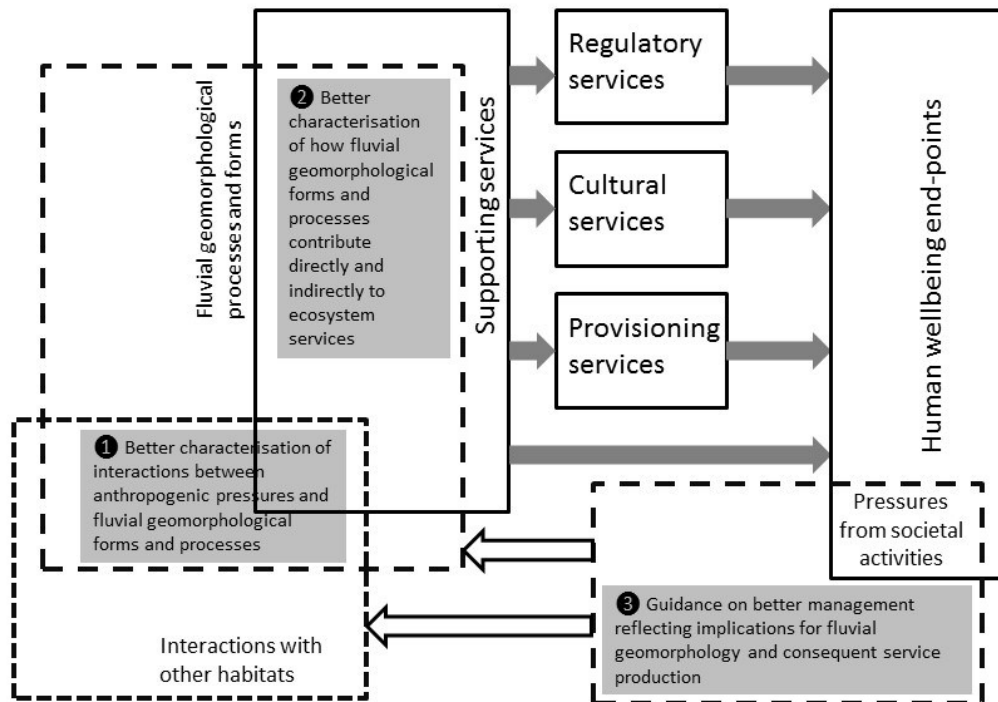
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- 502 1. Better characterisation of interactions between anthropogenic pressures and
503 fluvial geomorphological forms and processes;
- 504 2. Better characterisation of how fluvial geomorphological forms and processes
505 contribute directly and indirectly to ecosystem services; and
- 506 3. Guidance on better management reflecting implications for fluvial
507 geomorphology and consequent service production.

508

509 *Figure 3: Skeleton model of the influence of fluvial processes and forms on human*
510 *wellbeing with feedback loops. Dotted boxes highlight areas of geomorphological*
511 *interactions, and shaded boxes identify where further research and guidance is*
512 *required by fluvial geomorphologists*

513



514

515 Management of the water environment which overlooks fundamental driving
 516 processes, such as those encompassed by fluvial geomorphology, as well as their
 517 contributions to system resilience and human wellbeing, is by definition unlikely to be
 518 sustainable. Clarity about the connections between fluvial geomorphology and
 519 ecosystem service outcomes is crucial. This exploration of the benefits of linking
 520 fluvial geomorphology with the ecosystem services framework also serves to
 521 demonstrate the wider benefits of the Ecosystem Approach, to which many countries
 522 have been signatories since 1995, in recognising and integrating the many, long-
 523 overlooked values of natural systems centrally in decision-making.

524

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761 **Table 1:** Attributes of fluvial geomorphological systems important for generating or
 762 contributing to ecosystem services. Bergeron and Eyquem (2012) defined these as
 763 ‘ecosystem services’; we re-define these as ‘attributes’, for example water quantity is an
 764 attribute that defines the ecosystem service of flow regulation.

ATTRIBUTE	DESCRIPTION
Water quantity (amount of flow)	Channel flow is a defining feature of fluvial systems, from which society derives the significant benefit of water supply.
Water delivery (timing of flow)	Fluvial geomorphology and catchment-scale geomorphological and hydrological processes play key roles in determining the timing of flow, including ameliorating flood impacts by attenuation and supplying baseflow during droughts.
Water quality	<p>Physical</p> <p>Fluvial geomorphological processes determine water <i>velocity, turbulence, temperature, conductivity and clarity (suspended sediment)</i>, all of which influence other ecosystem processes, directly or indirectly contributing to various ecosystems services.</p> <p>Chemical</p> <p>Processes occurring in the fluvial environment contribute to maintaining <i>dissolved oxygen</i> as well as the <i>chemical character and odour</i> of river water.</p> <p>Biological</p> <p>Fluvial geomorphological processes involving the interaction of water and sediment with channel morphology generate a diversity of habitats supporting <i>microorganisms, plants, invertebrates, fish, wildlife</i> and their associated <i>genetic diversity</i>, all contributing to <i>ecosystem health or biotic integrity</i>.</p>
Sediment	Suspended sediment load

<p>characteristics</p>	<p>Fluvial geomorphological processes determine the <i>size fraction</i>, <i>amount</i> and <i>timing</i> of erosional and transport processes, influencing primary production in the water column and the re-distribution of sediment in the watercourse and floodplain.</p> <p>Bed substrate</p> <p>Fluvial geomorphological processes determine the <i>bed material size</i>, <i>amount</i>, <i>distribution</i> and <i>form</i> (bars and bedforms) determining the nature of benthic habitat, influencing the characteristics of water flowing over it.</p>
<p>Morphological characteristics</p>	<p>Channel and floodplain morphology</p> <p>Fluvial geomorphological processes determine the <i>channel gradient</i>, <i>dimensions</i>, <i>form</i>, <i>pattern</i> and associated <i>depositional</i> (e.g. point bar, floodplain) and <i>erosional</i> (e.g. <i>cut bank</i>) features: key attributes of the template of a river valley providing the physical basis for habitat and associated ecosystem services.</p> <p>Bed stability</p> <p>Characteristics of the bed substrate, together with flow conditions and sediment load, determine bed stability.</p> <p>Bank stability</p> <p>Characteristics of the bank, together with flow conditions and sediment load, determine bank stability.</p>

765

766

767 **Table 2:** Direct and indirect contributions of fluvial geomorphological processes to specific
 768 supporting ecosystem services (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999; Thorp *et al.*, 2010; Dufour *et*
 769 *al.*, 2011; Gordon and Barron 2013; Hill *et al.*, 2014)

<p>Supporting services comprise processes essential for maintaining the integrity and functioning of ecosystems and their capacity to supply other more directly exploited services (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).</p>	
ECOSYSTEM SERVICE	CONTRIBUTION BY FLUVIAL GEOMORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES
Hydrological cycling	<i>Indirect:</i> continuous circulation of water through exchanges between the geosphere, atmosphere and living organisms supports ecosystem functioning and integrity, and production of ecosystem services.
Rock cycling and soil formation	<i>Indirect:</i> fluvial geomorphology contributes to rock cycling and to soil formation and fertility, through accretion processes on floodplains and depositional structures in rivers. This provides a physical template for habitat including the diversity of substratum and corresponding interaction with flow conditions, the water column and surface, and the riparian zone. Soil in turn constitutes a growing medium upon which many provisioning and other services depend.
Sediment supply	<i>Indirect:</i> fluvial processes result in the delivery of sediment to river habitats, deltas and estuaries, supplying nutrients and habitat to support commercially important fisheries.
Habitat creation and maintenance	<i>Indirect:</i> geodiversity provides the physical template supporting a diversity of habitats and species. Fluvial geomorphological processes support and maintain the diversity and dynamism of these habitats and related

	ecosystem services, including driving ecological succession and consequent vegetative and topographical complexity.
Photosynthesis and primary production	<i>Indirect:</i> photosynthesis provides oxygen, and primary production supports plant growth and the functioning and integrity of other ecosystem services.
Biogeochemical cycling	<i>Indirect:</i> continuous circulation of important elements (e.g. carbon, nitrogen) and nutrients through exchanges between the geosphere, atmosphere and living organisms supports the functioning and integrity of other ecosystem services.
Building platform	Floodplains and river terraces provide a platform for buildings and infrastructure (e.g. bridges), providing economic benefits.
Waste disposal and water storage	Rivers have historically provided a conduit for waste disposal, and remain important for water supply and wastewater treatment. River valleys provide suitable sites for water storage and hydroelectric power systems, usually facilitated by dams. More locally, short-cycle recycling of water within a diversity of habitats maintains water resources in landscapes.

770

771

772 **Table 3:** Direct and indirect contributions of fluvial geomorphological processes to specific
 773 regulatory ecosystem services (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999; Thorp *et al.*, 2010; Dufour *et*
 774 *al.*, 2011; Gordon and Barron 2013; Hill *et al.*, 2014)

<p>Regulatory services include those processes moderating climate, air and water quality, and other facets of the natural environment (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).</p>	
ECOSYSTEM SERVICE	CONTRIBUTION BY FLUVIAL GEOMORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES
Water regulation	<p><i>Direct:</i> structure of the geomorphological system influences magnitude and timing of flows, and habitat complexity can help avert damage to ecosystems and human benefits (Jones, 2013).</p>
Water quality regulation and waste treatment	<p><i>Direct:</i> the geomorphological system influences water quality (e.g. oxygenation over riffles), and the medium provides dilution, improvement of runoff quality via processes in the riparian zone (e.g. denitrification and sediment trapping). Water purification (N and P sequestration and denitrification) in headwater catchments of the USA was valued at \$13,414 /ha/yr (Hill <i>et al.</i>, 2014). <i>Direct:</i> catchment habitat diversity influences the service of water regulation through moderation and buffering of water flows (Ruhl and Salzman, 2007), buffering flood peaks and droughts.</p>
Natural hazard regulation	<p><i>Direct:</i> protection of people and property from flood impacts through floodplain attenuation of peaks by providing storage and slowing flow, and hence greater resilience against extreme and unpredictable events.</p>
Pollination, disease	<p><i>Indirect:</i> riparian vegetation, a secondary effect of</p>

<p>regulation and pest regulation</p>	<p>geomorphological diversity, provides habitat for pollinators and many host important pest predators. They can also attenuate disease-causing organisms, though may host some disease vectors.</p>
<p>Air quality and climate</p>	<p><i>Indirect:</i> carbon sequestration by riparian vegetation makes an important contribution to climate regulation. Carbon sequestration in headwater catchments of the USA was valued at \$278 /ha/yr (Hill <i>et al.</i>, 2014).</p> <p><i>Indirect:</i> riparian vegetation supported by valley and floodplain soils ameliorates local climate, especially in cities (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999).</p> <p><i>Indirect:</i> topographic effects from geomorphological features and associated vegetation play a role in regulating air quality.</p>
<p>Erosion regulation</p>	<p><i>Direct:</i> geomorphological structures and processes influence sediment erosion and accretion patterns, averting loss of habitat, preventing siltation of downstream infrastructure and maintaining important sediment feed processes, modified by the stabilisation effects of vegetation.</p>

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776

777 **Table 4:** Direct and indirect contributions of fluvial geomorphological processes to specific
 778 cultural ecosystem services (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999; Thorp *et al.*, 2010; Dufour *et*
 779 *al.*, 2011; Gordon and Barron 2013; Hill *et al.*, 2014)

<p>Cultural services comprise the recreational, aesthetic and spiritual benefits that people derive from ecosystems (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).</p>	
ECOSYSTEM SERVICE	CONTRIBUTION BY FLUVIAL GEOMORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES
Recreation and tourism	<p><i>Direct:</i> river systems support multiple recreation and tourism opportunities, some strongly linked to fluvial geomorphology (e.g. white-water rafting, kayaking). In a survey of these users in Colorado, USA, Loomis and McTernan (2013) found that willingness to pay and number of likely visits over the season depended strongly on river discharge (e.g. \$55 per person per day and 1.63 trips at 300CFS vs. USD\$97 and 14 trips at 1900CFS). Maximum marginal value in the area exceeded that for irrigation. In cities, rivers can be an accessible setting for recreation (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999)</p>
Spiritual and religious values and cultural meanings	<p><i>Direct:</i> river systems have featured strongly in folklore and legend throughout time. Many cultures ascribe spiritual or religious values to rivers, or specific locations or geomorphological characteristics (e.g. confluences, springs, waterfalls, pools)</p>
Sense of place and aesthetic values	<p><i>Direct:</i> river systems are considered special and beautiful places; geomorphological features or processes often contribute to this sense of place (e.g. waterfalls, cascades)</p>
Educational values	<p><i>Direct:</i> river systems provide an opportunity for formal and informal education, offering personal and life-long learning</p>

	advantages and improved societal knowledge, skills and understanding.
Social relations	<i>Direct:</i> social groups can be organised around river systems (e.g. river restoration groups, hikers, youth groups, birdwatchers, anglers), providing opportunities for social interaction offering health and welfare benefits (to individuals and communities).
Artistic inspiration	<i>Direct:</i> river valleys, river scenery and waterscapes provide inspiration, featuring prominently in art, literature and music.
Cultural diversity, cultural heritage and geoheritage values	<i>Direct:</i> ecosystem diversity influences cultural diversity; the physical environment of rivers and associated natural features influences poetry, art and music, with corresponding health and welfare benefits to individuals. In cities, rivers can be an accessible focus for communities (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999)
Knowledge systems/knowledge capital	<i>Direct:</i> society benefits from knowledge of fluvial geomorphology through applied engineering and river management. Records of past climatic and environmental changes (e.g. flood histories, heavy metal contamination) are archived in floodplain deposits (Gray, 2011).

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781

782 **Table 5:** Direct and indirect contributions of fluvial geomorphological processes to specific
 783 provisioning ecosystem services (Bolund and Hunhammar, 1999; Thorp *et al.*, 2010; Dufour
 784 *et al.*, 2011; Gordon and Barron 2013; Hill *et al.*, 2014)

Provisioning services comprise material and energy produced by ecosystems that are consumed by society (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005).	
ECOSYSTEM SERVICE	CONTRIBUTION BY FLUVIAL GEOMORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES
Fresh water	<i>Direct:</i> water in rivers and streams enables extraction. Water supply in headwater catchments of the USA was valued at \$245 /ha/yr (Hill <i>et al.</i> , 2014). <i>Indirect:</i> a source supporting water-dependant habitats, biota and ecosystem processes.
Renewable energy	<i>Direct:</i> channel flow and hydraulic head enable hydropower development.
Mineral resources	<i>Direct:</i> extraction of building and industrial materials (e.g. sands, gravels and clays).
Food, fibre and fuel	<i>Indirect:</i> supply of biodiversity products generated in river and riparian habitats including floodplains (e.g. commercial or recreational fish, reeds, vegetables grown on floodplains). In many situations river and riparian ecosystems have higher productivity than surrounding areas (Dufour <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Arthington <i>et al.</i> (2010, p.2) suggest the biochemical and fibres from wetland and riparian systems are "...critically important to human welfare and livelihoods in many parts of the world".
Genetic resources	
Biochemicals & medicines	
Transport	<i>Direct:</i> Water channels are directly exploited for transport, including by vessels and for floating logs and other goods.

	However, geomorphological processes also result in siltation, necessitating dredging.
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786

787 **Table 6:** Indicators used to assess ecosystems services provided by a lowland
 788 floodplain (*after* Posthumus *et al.*, 2010).

FUNCTION	GOOD OR SERVICE	INDICATOR	UNIT
Production	Agricultural production	Gross output: total agricultural production (arable and livestock)	£/ha/yr
	Financial return	Net margin: financial returns from different land-based options, estimates of fixed and variable costs. Net margins included payments under the Environmental Stewardship scheme and Common Agricultural Policy	£/ha/yr
	Employment	Labour: annual labour requirements for each land use type	man hours/ha/yr
	Soil quality	Soil carbon stock: estimated at equilibrium for each scenario	kg C/ha
Regulation	Floodwater storage	Time-to-fill capacity: ratio of storage volume of the floodplain to discharge in the river	Days
	Water quality	Nutrient leaching: estimates of negative impact of nutrients leaching from floodplains associated with agricultural production	kg NO ₃ /ha/yr

	Greenhouse gas balance	Greenhouse gas emissions: accounts for the release of carbon dioxide and methane	kg CO ₂ equiv. ha/yr
Habitat	Habitat provision	Habitat conservation value: based on regional and national importance of habitat created	score
	Wildlife	Species conservation value: based on the value of habitats to species listed in the UK Biodiversity Action Plan	score
Carrier	Transport	Risk exposure road infrastructure: costs associated with transport disruption due to flooding	£/ha/yr
	Settlement	Risk exposure residential properties: costs associated with damage to residential properties	£/ha/yr
	Space for water	Proportion of area annually inundated by fluvial flood: area of the indicative floodplain/ total area of the floodplain x annual flood probability	proportion
Information	Recreation	Potential recreation use: based on density of public rights of way, cultural value of land uses, proximity of alternative similar sites, relative to	score

		population within 3km of the site	
	Landscape	Landscape value: based on consistency of alternative land use with the vision statement for designated Joint Character Areas (JCAs)	score

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791 **Table 7:** Levels of ecosystem service associated with attributes for six functional
 792 process zones (FPZs) (*after* Thorp *et al.*, 2010, merging their ‘Natural ecosystem
 793 benefits’ and ‘Anthropogenic services’ categories) (H=high, M=medium, L=low).

	Constricted	Meandering	Braided	Anastomosing	Leveed	Reservoir
Ecosystem Services						
Food and fibre production (excl. agricultural crops)	L	M	L	H	L	M
Water supply	MH	M	L	M	H	H
Recreation	LM	LM	L	H	L	H
Disturbance and natural hazard mitigation	L	M	L	H	H	H
Transportation	H	M	L	M	H	H
Primary and secondary productivity	L	M	M	H	L	H
Nutrient cycling and carbon sequestration	L	LM	LM	H	L	H
Water storage	L	LM	L	H	L	H
Sediment storage	L	M	M	H	L	H
Habitat for wildlife (indicated by biodiversity)	L	M	L	H	L	M
Hydrogeomorphic attributes						
Shoreline	L	LM	H	H	L	M

complexity ratio (shoreline length/downstream length)						
Relative number of channels	L	L	H	HM	L	L
Functional habitats within channels	L	LM	M	H	L	LM
Channel/island permanence	M	M	L	H	M	H
Floodplain size and connectivity with main channel	L	MH	M	H	L	L

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Case studies	Challenge 1: understanding, collaboration and tools	Challenge 2: appropriate quantification and mapping	Challenge 3: demonstration
(i)_River rehabilitation and ecosystem services	Greater resilience, acceptability and net benefits arise from rehabilitation addressing multiple ecosystem services	Articulation of multiple benefits to stakeholder communities need not be quantitative, but needs to be representative of likely outcomes	Case studies need to be accessible and communicated to promote mainstreaming of good practice
(ii)_Floodplain management and ecosystem services	Effective management of floodplains can produce trade-offs and synergies between multiple ecosystem service outcomes, demonstrating the importance of stakeholder involvement	Metrics of ecosystem service outcomes are necessary to inform decision-making	Case studies of different ecosystem service outcomes resulting from alternative floodplain management can inform better decision-making
(iii)_Mapping	Mapping ecosystem	Spatial	Mapping of both

ecosystem services	services supply and demand can inform collaborative decision-making	representation of ecosystem service outcomes can lead to better-informed governance	conflicts and synergistic outcomes can be useful in supporting participatory decisions
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