1	Water	[,] flow regulation drives ecosystem functioning in a Mediterranean river
2	netwo	ork
3		
4 5	Meritxe	ell Abril ^{a*} Margarita Menéndez ^a Joan P Casas-Ruiz ^b I luís Gómez-Gener ^a Milagros
6	Barcel	$\dot{\sigma}^a$ Francesc Oliva ^c and Isabel Muñoz ^a
7	Baloon	
8	^ª Departm	ent of Ecology, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
9 10	^⁰ Catalan i °Departm	Institute for Water Research, Girona, Spain ent of Statistics, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
10	Departm	
11	*	
12 13	"Corresp Avda. Dia	onding author: Department of Ecology, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona. Igonal 643, 08028 Barcelona, Spain. Tel.: (+34) 934031188.
14 15	E-mail ad	<i>dress</i> : meritxell.abril@ub.edu (M. Abril).
16		
17 19	шош	
18 19	піGпL	16H13
20	•	Flow regulation transformed lotic reaches into lentic reaches along the river network.
21	•	We assessed the differences in ecosystem functioning between lotic reaches and lentic
22		reaches using wood decomposition.
23	•	The decomposition rates differed between lotic and lentic reaches in high-order
24		streams, especially in winter, with increased rates in lotic reaches compared with lentic
25		reaches.
26	•	In high-order streams, flow regulation reduced decomposition rates and affected stream
27		ecosystem functioning along the river network.
28		
29		
30 31		
32		
33		
34 25		
36		
37		
38 20		
40		
41		
42 42		
43 44		
45		
46		
47 48		
49		

52

51 ABSTRACT

Mediterranean rivers are extensively modified by flow regulation practises along their courses. 53 54 An important part of the river impoundment in this area is related to the presence of small dams 55 and weirs constructed mainly for water storage and hydropower development. These projects 56 drastically modified the ecosystem morphology, transforming lotic reaches into lentic reaches 57 and increasing their alternation along the river. The aim of this study was to assess the effect 58 caused by the flow regulation on ecosystem functioning at the rivr network scale, using wood 59 decomposition as a functional indicator. We studied the mass loss from wood sticks during 60 three months in different lotic and lentic reaches located along a Mediterranean river basin, in both winter and summer. The results revealed differences in the rates of the wood mass loss 61 62 between sites in summer and winter that were mainly related to the differences between stream 63 orders. The decomposition rates were related to temperature, nutrient concentrations (NO2, 64 $NO_3^{=}$), water residence time, and the dissolved organic carbon concentration. High-order 65 streams with higher temperature and nutrient concentrations exhibited increased decomposition 66 rates compared with low-order streams. The effect of the flow regulation on the decomposition 67 rates only appeared to be relevant in high orders, especially in winter, when the hydrological 68 characteristics of lotic and lentic habitats widely varied. Lotic reaches with lower water 69 residence times and increased physical abrasion exhibited increased decomposition rates 70 compared with lentic reaches. Overall, our study revealed that the flow reduction caused by flow 71 regulation reduced organic matter decomposition in river ecosystems, and this effect was 72 enhanced in high-order streams.

73

74 Keywords:

- 75 Wood decomposition
- 76 Ecosystem functioning
- 77 Flow regulation
- 78 Mediterranean river networks

- 80
- 81
- 82
- 83
- 84

86 1. Introduction

87

88 Many rivers and streams have been altered by different anthropogenic activities such as 89 water extraction, canalisation, or dam construction (Malmqvist and Rundle, 2002; Nilsson et al., 90 2005). In Mediterranean areas, the presence of these impacts is particularly significant due to 91 the combination of a high population density, agricultural and industrial activities, and a high 92 natural variability of the flow regime (Grantham et al., 2012). Most of the flow regulation in this 93 area results from the construction of small dams and weirs (e.g. < 1 hm^3), mainly for water 94 abstraction purposes (Martin and Hanson, 1966; Marcé et al., 2012). In addition, flow variability 95 is predicted to increase with climate change (Schneider et al., 2013), increasing the need for 96 flow regulation.

97 Flow regulation interrupts the fluvial continuity, altering the natural structure of the ecosystem 98 along the river (Ward and Stanford, 1983). The hydro-morphology of the river network becomes 99 highly modified, increasing the water residence time and transforming lotic reaches into lentic 100 reaches (Sabater, 2008). The differences in water flow between these reaches also imply 101 differences in several physicochemical factors, such as water temperature (Poff and Hart, 2002) 102 and oxygen or nutrient concentrations (Friedl and Wüest, 2002), and ecosystem processes 103 such as sediment transport (Vericat and Batalla, 2005; Hupp et al., 2009) and organic matter 104 retention (Dewson et al., 2007). At the same time, these factors and processes potentially 105 shape the presence of biological communities in each habitat (Clavero et al., 2004; Strayer, 106 2006; Buffagni et al., 2009), directly affecting key ecosystem functions, i.e., the decomposition 107 of organic matter (Menéndez et al., 2012; Martínez et al., 2013) and metabolism (Baxter, 1977). 108 These forced differences between lotic and lentic habitats indicate that flow regulation can 109 trigger important changes in river ecosystem functioning (Elosegi and Sabater, 2012). 110 Moreover, given that flow regulation involves the interruption of the fluvial continuum, 111 consequences may be evident along the entire river network (Ward and Standford, 1983).

Different key ecosystem processes, such as organic matter decomposition (Gessner and Chauvet, 2002; Feio et al., 2010), nutrient retention (Von Schiller et al., 2008), and metabolism (Bunn et al., 1999; Young et al. 2008), have been used as indicators to assess ecosystem functioning. Organic matter decomposition is a fundamental process in stream ecosystems

116 (Tank et al., 2010) and results from the interaction between several physical, chemical, and 117 biological factors (Benfield, 1996; Gessner et al., 1999). Many researchers have demonstrated the effect of water temperature (Peterson and Cummins, 1974), dissolved nutrient concentration 118 119 (Ferreira et al., 2014), or oxygen concentration (Webster and Benfield, 1986) on organic matter 120 decomposition. At the same time, decomposition is influenced by alterations of the hydrological 121 regime, such as drastic flow reductions (Dewson et al., 2007; Schlief and Mutz, 2009), variations in flow velocity (Ferreira and Graca, 2006; Santos Fonseca et al., 2012), and 122 123 damming (González et al., 2012; Menéndez et al., 2012). The decomposition process integrates 124 this complexity and is a good indicator of changes in the ecosystem.

At a watershed scale, decomposition rates depend on the river order, altitude, and/or different land uses (Benfield et al., 2000; Fleituch, 2001; Fonnesu et al., 2004; Pozo et al., 2011; Silva-Junior et al., 2014). As a consequence, several studies highlighted the importance of assessing the ecosystem response to an impact at this scale (e.g., Stanford and Ward, 1992; Allan et al., 1997; Poff and Zimmerman, 2010; Elosegi and Sabater, 2012). However, few studies considering organic matter decomposition have been performed at a catchment scale to date (see: Feio et al., 2010; Aristi et al., 2012).

Various studies used the litterbag method as an approach to quantify decomposition rates (Bärlocher, 2005). However, its utilisation allows high versatility in various aspects, such as mesh size, litter species, or the initial quality of the substrate, restricting the comparisons among studies (Lecerf and Chauvet, 2008). To overcome this issue, an alternative approach involves the use of commercial wood sticks (Young and Collier, 2009; Aristi et al., 2012; Arroita et al., 2012) that limits manipulation and allows standardisation of the initial chemical composition.

138 The aim of this study was to assess the variability caused by flow regulation on 139 ecosystem functioning at the river netowrk scale using the organic matter decomposition 140 process as a functional indicator. To achieve this objective, we studied the mass loss from wood sticks in different lotic and lentic reaches located in a diverse range of stream orders along a 141 142 Mediterranean river network. Additionally, we identified the main environmental factors potentially affecting decomposition rates along the river orders. Due to the marked seasonality 143 of Mediterranean areas, the experiment was conducted in summer and winter. We 144 145 hypothesised that there would be differences in the decomposition processes between lotic and 146 lentic reaches along the river network given their environmental differences. We expected 147 increased decomposition rates in lotic reaches based on increased physical abrasion due to 148 higher flow. We predicted these rates to be particularly higher in summer when milder 149 temperatures promote increased biological activity.

150

151 2. Materials and methods

152

153 2.1 Study area

154

155 This study was conducted in the Fluvià River watershed, located in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula (Fig. 1). This sixth order watershed drains an area of 990 km². Its mainstream 156 157 is 97 km in length and flows into the Mediterranean Sea. The climate is typically Mediterranean 158 and is characterised by scarce precipitation occurring mainly in spring and autumn with drier 159 and warmer summers. The mean annual precipitation in this region is 660 mm, and the monthly 160 mean air temperature varies between 6°C in January and 23°C in July (ACA, http://aca-161 web.gencat.cat). The basin is relatively pristine and is covered mainly by mixed forests (78%); 162 some agricultural (13%) and urban (3%) areas are present, mostly associated with the lowest 163 altitudes (Land Cover Map of Catalonia 2009, CREAF). However, the flow is highly regulated 164 by a total of 51 man-made watercourse interruptions of different dimensions (ACA, http:/aca-165 web.gencat.cat). Nevertheless, all of these interruptions have less than 1 hm³ of capacity.

We selected a total of 10 experimental reaches of orders ranging from 2 to 5 (Strahler, 1957) within this catchment to ensure an appropriate representation of the river network heterogeneity (Table 1). These reaches were also classified as running water reaches (i.e., lotic habitats, n=6) and stagnant waters stored in small dams and weirs (i.e., lentic habitats, n=4). The experiment was conducted during winter (November 2012 to February 2013) and summer (June 2013 to September 2013).

172

173 2.2 Environmental parameters

175 During the study period, several physical, chemical, and hydrological parameters were 176 obtained monthly at each site (Table 2). Portable probes were used to measure the water temperature, conductivity, pH (Cond 3310, WTW, Germany), and the dissolved oxygen 177 178 concentration (YSI ProODO Handheld, USA) on the field. The water samples were filtered 179 through pre-ashed glass fibre filters (0.7-µm pore size; Whatman GF/F, Germany), transported 180 to the laboratory under cooled conditions, and stored at 4°C in the dark until analysis. All water samples were analysed the day after their collection. The concentrations of dissolved nitrite 181 (NO_2^{-1}) , nitrate (NO_3^{-2}) , phosphate (PO_4^{-3}) , chloride (CI^{-1}) , and sulphate (SO_4^{-2}) were analysed by 182 183 ionic chromatography (IC5000, DIONEX, USA), The dissolved organic and inorganic carbon 184 concentrations in water (DOC and DIC, respectively) were measured with a total organic carbon analyser (TOC-V CSH, Shimadzu, Japan). The sub-catchments associated with the 185 186 experimental reaches were characterised for the total area and percentage of land use cover by 187 a geospatial-processing software (ArcMap 10, ArcGIS, USA). The water residence time of the 188 lentic reaches was estimated from digitised bathymetric maps obtained with the same 189 geospatial-processing software. For the lotic reaches, the water residence time was obtained 190 from the reach distance and a reach average water velocity modelled by the hydraulic software 191 HecRas 2.2 (US Army Corps of Engineers, USA). To feed the model, we used hydraulic 192 parameters measured in the field with an acoustic-Doppler velocimeter (Sontek, YSI, USA) and 193 morphological data provided by the Catalan Water Agency (ACA, http:/aca-web.gencat.cat).

For each parameter, the average of the monthly measures was used as the representativevalue of each study period.

196

197 2.3 Decomposition experiment

198

The decomposition rates were studied in all of the experimental reaches using commercial wood sticks (15×1.8×0.22 cm) of Canadian poplar wood (*Populus nigra x canadienses*). Before their placement in the reaches, each stick was marked with a pirographer, oven dried (70°C, 72 h), and weighed. A total of 15 (five groups of three) wood sticks were placed in each selected site in November 2012 and June 2013 for the winter and summer experiments, respectively. Each group was tied with nylon threads to metal bars, branches, or roots, and lead weights were used to ensure that the sticks were completely submerged. One group of these sticks was used at each site to prevent possible losses. An extra set of five sticks was transported to the stream without being immersed in the water and returned to the laboratory to correct the initial mass value for manipulation.

209 Five sticks (one per group) at each location were recovered after approximately 65 and 110 210 days in both winter and summer. After their retrieval, the sticks were placed in individual zip-lock 211 bags and transported in refrigerated containers to the laboratory, where they were immediately 212 processed. The recovered sticks were washed with tap water and brushed to remove adhering 213 material, oven dried (70°C, 72 h), and weighed. An aliguot of each stick was incinerated (500°C, 214 5 h) to remove the effect of the inorganic components and obtain an ash-free dry mass (AFDM). 215 A subsample of each recovered stick was ground into a fine powder (c.a 1-mm pore-size), and 216 the nitrogen (N) and carbon (C) contents were analysed. Both elements were determined using 217 a Perking Elmer series II CHNS/O elemental analyser.

218

219 2.4 Data analysis

220

The decomposition rates were estimated following the negative exponential model $M_t = M_0 e^{-t}$ (Petersen and Cummins, 1974), where M_0 is the initial AFDM corrected for manipulation, M_t is the remaining AFDM at time *t*, and *k* is the decomposition rate. A decomposition rate was obtained for each site and period (summer and winter).

225 A linear mixed-effects model, using the R package nlme (Pinheiro et al., 2012), was used to 226 analyse differences in water characteristics and wood decomposition over time along the river 227 network. For wood decomposition, the proportion of the remaining AFDM was used as the 228 dependent variable; the elapsed time (co-variable), season (winter or summer), river order 229 (low=2-3, medium=4, high=5) and hydrologic habitat (lentic or lotic) served as the fixed-effects 230 factors. We used the natural logarithm of the proportion of remaining AFDM to achieve a linear 231 relationship with time. For the stream water characteristics, we applied a linear mixed-effects 232 model for each of these characteristics (dependent variable) using the same fixed-effects factors indicated above as the independent variables, with the exception of elapsed time. The 233 234 full factorial model was employed; therefore, all of the interactions were assessed. For both 235 models, the site was fitted as a random factor with an effect on the intercept. This effect was 236 assessed using likelihood ratio tests to compare the linear regression model without random 237 factors (gls function) with the linear mixed model with all the fixed effects (Ime function) and the 238 random effect. The final models were selected by Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) and fitted 239 using the restricted maximum likelihood (REML). Model validation plots were used to assess the 240 assumptions of the analysis. We implemented a variance function (varldent function) in the model (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000; Zuur et al., 2009) to correct for residual heteroscedasticity. 241 242 For wood decomposition, the effects of the fixed factors on the response variable were 243 interpreted based on the statistical significance of the interaction among the fixed-effects 244 habitat, order, and season with time (Lagrue et al., 2011).

245 The relationship between wood decomposition and watershed characteristics was 246 determined by correlating the environmental variables with the decomposition rates to assess 247 linear relationships and to identify significant associations. A stepwise linear regression between 248 the water characteristics and rates was performed with the R package MASS (Venables and 249 Ripley, 2002) to identify which factors or factor combinations were the best predictors of the 250 decomposition rates. Model selection was done using a bidirectional elimination based on AIC. 251 Prior to the regression analysis, Pearson correlation coefficients between all of the variables 252 were examined for multicollinearity. Within the higher correlated predictor pairs, we selected the 253 pair that could provide the most ecological information. Sulphate, DIC, and phosphate were 254 discarded because they were highly correlated with conductivity, DOC, and NOx (NO2⁻ + NO3²⁻, >90% in NO_3^{2-} form), respectively. 255

Before the statistical analysis, the distributional properties of the data were assessed to identify outliers. The Shapiro–Wilk test was applied to assess normality for each variable, and a log natural transformation was performed when necessary. All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 2.15.3 (R Core Team, 2013), with a significance level set at a p<0.05 for all tests.

261

262 3. Results

263

264 3.1 Stream water characteristics

266 The stream water characteristics exhibited high variability between the sites along the river 267 network in both seasons (Table 2). The interaction of habitat, order, and season was significant for NOx, dissolved oxygen, and the water residence time (Table 3). NOx concentrations varied 268 269 widely between the orders with increased concentrations noted in sites from orders 4 and 5 270 (high orders) compared with sites from orders 2 and 3 (low orders) in both seasons. Within the 271 high-order reaches, the sites located in the middle of the watershed exhibited the highest NOx 272 concentrations, especially in summer. However, for all of the other high-orders sites, NOx 273 concentrations increased in winter. The average residence time of water in summer was 8.9±4 274 h, whereas it was 34.9±18 h in winter. Lentic habitats exhibited a water residence time that was increased 4-fold compared with lotic habitats. These differences between the habitats were 275 276 especially evident among the high orders in winter. Oxygen concentrations and pH were less 277 variable among the sites. However, the oxygen concentration was generally higher in winter 278 than in summer, and the highest values appeared in the high orders. The water temperature 279 increased with stream order and exhibited higher values in summer compared with winter at all 280 of the sites. The conductivity and Cl varied between orders and seasons, with the highest 281 values noted in high-order reaches and winter. Regarding to the DOC, significant differences were only evident between seasons, with increased DOC in summer compared with winter 282 (except in 4th order reaches). 283

284

285 3.2 Decomposition process

286

The decomposition rates differed significantly between seasons (interaction time x season, Table 4), with higher rates in summer $(0.0027\pm0.0004 \text{ d}^{-1})$ than in winter $(0.0009\pm0.0001 \text{ d}^{-1})$ at all of the sites (Fig. 2). Differences were also noted between orders (interaction time x order, Table 4). The decomposition rates were increased in high orders compared with low orders in both seasons. The differences between lotic and lentic habitats was only evident in high orders, with the highest decomposition rates in lotic habitats.

The seasonal variability in the decomposition rates was more important in high-order reaches compared with low-order reaches. In high orders, the decomposition rates were

increased 2.9-fold in summer compared with winter $(0.001\pm0.0003 \text{ d}^{-1})$, whereas the seasonal differences in low orders were reduced until rates were only 1.57 times higher. Accordingly, the variability among sites was more pronounced in summer, with rates 6.03 times higher in highorder reaches $(0.003\pm0.0007 \text{ d}^{-1})$ compared with low-order reaches $(0.0006\pm0.00009 \text{ d}^{-1})$ (interaction time x order x season, Table 4).

300 Clear differences between lotic and lentic habitats were exclusively evident in high orders, 301 especially in winter (interaction time x habitat x order x season, Table 4). In high orders, lotic 302 habitats exhibited an average decomposition rate that was higher than that observed in lentic habitats. This difference between habitats was especially remarkable in winter; decomposition 303 rates in lotic habitats (0.002±0.0005 d⁻¹) were increased 2.5-fold compared with lentic habitats 304 305 (0.0007±0.0002 d⁻¹). In summer, lentic habitats exhibited rates that were more similar (0.003±0.0011 d⁻¹) than the rates obtained for the lotic habitats. Conversely, low-order lentic and 306 307 lotic habitats presented similar decomposition rates in both seasons (Fig. 2).

The initial nitrogen content of sticks was 0.07% of dry mass, and an increase was observed during decomposition in both periods. This increase was more pronounced in winter compared with summer. After a loss of 20% of the initial mass, the amount of nitrogen in the sticks in winter was approximately 0.4% of the dry mass, whereas it was approximately 0.2% in summer (Fig. 3).

313

314 3.3 Watershed characteristics and decomposition rates

315

The stepwise regression revealed that the decomposition rates were significantly associated with stream water characteristics. The final selected model included temperature, NOx, water residence time, and DOC as the best combination of variables to predict the mass loss. The proportion of variance in the rates explained by these predictors included in the model was approximately 72% (Table 5).

At the same time, we identified a significant relationship between the decomposition rates and the surface of agricultural land use in each sub-catchment in summer (Fig. 4). This relationship was unimodal at the watershed scale from low to high orders, exhibiting increased

decomposition rates at intermediate levels of agricultural land use in both lentic and lotic
habitats. No significant relationship was observed during the winter period.

326

327 4. Discussion

328

Wood decomposition revealed differences in ecosystem functioning along the studied river network that were more associated with differences between stream orders than with differences between habitats (lentic-lotic). Flow regulation only affected decomposition rates in high orders, where lotic and lentic habitats differed widely in their characteristics.

333

334 Contradictory results related to the decomposition of organic matter along stream orders or 335 altitudes are reported in the literature. Some authors report that the decomposition rates of leaf 336 litter increased in the downstream direction (Benfield et al., 2000; Fleituch, 2001; Fonnesu et al., 337 2004), whereas others report a decrease (Cortes et al., 1995) or even no trend along the river 338 network (Tiegs et al., 2009). Regarding wood decomposition, the number of studies performed 339 at the watershed scale is even smaller, and these results are also inconsistent. Naiman and 340 Melillo (1987) reported increased rates in headwater streams, whereas other studies, including 341 our study, described faster decomposition downstream (Diez et al., 2002; Aristi et al., 2012). 342 The differences could be closely related to the characteristics of the study basin. In our basin, 343 the nutrient concentrations and water temperature differed widely between stream orders, with a 344 clear differentiation between high and low orders. The former exhibited higher temperature and 345 nutrient concentrations, and these factors were positively correlated with decomposition rates.

346 Previous studies have already indicated that elevated nutrient concentrations can accelerate 347 wood decomposition rates (Tank and Webster, 1998; Diez et al., 2002), mainly via fungal and 348 bacterial activity (Crenshaw et al., 2002). An increase in nutrient availability in the water column, 349 especially nitrogen and phosphorus, potentially provides an extra source of nutrients, 350 stimulating microbial activity on litter (Ferreira et al., 2014). At the same time, this stimulation 351 effect is more pronounced in substrates with low nutrients and high lignin content, such as 352 wood, because the microbial community is more limited by nutrients (Stelzer et al., 2003; Gulis 353 et al., 2004; Ferreira et al., 2006b). Thus, our results revealed an increase in the nitrogen 354 content in litter during decomposition, which was more pronounced in winter compared with 355 summer likely due to differences in nutrient availability and microbial assemblages. Other 356 researchers have found this increase (Menéndez et al., 2011) and attributed it to microbial 357 nutrient uptake and immobilisation in the water column (Chauvet, 1987; Kuehn et al., 2000).

358 The effect of nutrient concentrations on litter decomposition also depends on water 359 temperature (e.g., Ferreira and Chauvet, 2011). As we predicted, a clear effect of the temperature on the decomposition rates was detectable in our results, with increased 360 decomposition rates noted in summer compared with winter at all of the sites. However, despite 361 similar increases in temperatures between reaches of different orders, the effect of temperature 362 363 on decomposition rates was much greater for high orders than low orders. Similarly, Fonnesu et al. (2004) studied the organic matter decomposition in a 5th order Mediterranean watershed and 364 365 found that the seasonal variation in leaf decomposition was low in reaches with low 366 decomposition rates and high in reaches with high decomposition rates. This finding is 367 potentially related to a synergistic effect of nutrient concentration and temperature on 368 decomposition (Ferreira and Chauvet, 2011). Temperature stimulates metabolic activity, 369 allowing a faster decomposition process; however, stimulation only occurs if nutrients are 370 available, especially in substrates such as wood. In high orders with relative nutrient availability, 371 an increase in temperature in summer potentially enhances microbial activity. By contrast, in 372 low orders, decomposition is limited by nutrients, and rates are less independent of the 373 temperature (Graça and Canhoto, 2006).

374 Stream environmental parameters, such as nutrients and temperature, are strongly 375 influenced by land uses within the watershed (Allan, 2004). Our watershed was primarily 376 covered by forest, but increased agricultural land use was observed downstream. Agricultural 377 activity as a consequence of runoff and deforestation is associated with elevated nutrient 378 concentrations and increased water temperature (Townsend and Riley, 1999; Paul et al., 2006). 379 In our study, summer decomposition rates exhibited a unimodal relationship with the amount of 380 agricultural land use, revealing the highest decomposition rates at intermediate levels of agricultural land use. A similar relationship with leaf litter decomposition in streams was 381 382 reported by Mctammany et al. (2008) along an agricultural land gradient and by Woodward et 383 al. (2012) along a nutrient gradient. Moderate levels of agricultural runoff stimulate

decomposition, which is limited by nutrients, but extreme amounts may cause decreased
decomposition rates due to other pollutants or sediment inputs (Hagen et al., 2006; Lecerf et al.,
2006).

387 As we predicted, significant differences in decomposition rates between habitats were 388 observed but only in high orders; increased rates were noted in lotic habitats compared with 389 lentic habitats, especially in winter.

390 The only environmental variables with significant differences in the interaction among habitat. 391 order, and season in the mixed-effects model and at the same time, related with decomposition 392 rates in the final regression model were water residence time and NOx concentration. Given 393 that lentic habitats are characterised by higher water residence time, we hypothesised that they 394 experience less physical abrasion than lotic habitats. Similarly, different studies have 395 demonstrated higher decomposition rates of leaves and twigs when flow velocity increases, 396 suggesting that physical abrasion caused by flowing water along with transported sediment 397 (Ferreira et al., 2006a) serves as an important breakdown factor (e.g., Chergui and Pattee, 398 1988; Vingada, 1995; Santos Fonseca et al., 2012). Flow is also a major determinant of biotic 399 composition (Bunn and Arthington, 2002). Fungi are considered the main decomposers of 400 submerged wood (Gulis et al., 2004), and the current velocity can serve as an important factor 401 regulating their assemblage structure. Ferreira and Graça (2006) reported increased aquatic 402 hyphomycete activity in leaves exposed to high, rather than low, current velocity. Water flow 403 supplies a continuous source of fungal spores to detritus (Bärlocher, 1992) and promotes 404 oxygen-rich waters, preferentially colonised by aquatic hyphomycetes (Chauvet, 1992). This 405 colonisation primarily occurs in winter when the presence of leaf litter allows the maximum 406 fungal production (Suberkropp, 1997). Therefore, in high orders, fungal activity in lotic habitats 407 might be stimulated. In contrast, in lentic areas, where physical abrasion and fungal activity 408 might be low, decomposition rates remain low. This notion is primarily true in winter. However, 409 in summer, when no difference between habitats was noted, the temperature would 410 homogenise their decomposition rates.

The wood decomposition rates measured along the river network integrated the effects of flow regulation. The reduction of flow due to small dams and weirs reduced the organic matter

413 decomposition capacity of the river, especially in high-order streams and in the winter season,
414 where the environmental differences between lentic and lotic reaches were more evident.

415 This study demonstrated that small dams and weirs modify ecosystem functioning along the 416 river network, affecting key ecosystem functions such as organic matter decomposition. These types of impoundments are especially abundant in Mediterranean areas. Despite the 417 abundance of these impoundments, their ecological effects remain poorly understood. 418 419 Moreover, Mediterranean areas are experiencing a growth of urban areas and extension in 420 agriculture activities (Underwood et al. 2009), which could result in major flow regulation in the 421 future and more small dams and weirs in the river basins to guarantee water supply. Under this 422 scenario, it is especially relevant to further investigate the effects of these impacts on 423 ecosystem functioning, and to consider these results to promote effective river management.

424 Acknowledgements

This study was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economics and Competitiveness through Carbonet project (CGL2011-30474-C02-01,02) and by the European Union's Seventh Programme under project Globaqua (603629). Lluís Gómez-Gener and Joan P. Casas-Ruiz were additionally supported by FPI pre-doctoral grants from the Spanish Ministry of Economics and Competitiveness (BES-2012-059743 and BES-2012-059655, respectively).

430 References

- Allan JD. Landscapes and Riverscapes: The Influence of Land Use on Stream Ecosystems. Annu Rev
 Ecol Evol Syst. 2004; 35:257–84.
- Allan JD, Erickson LD, Fay J. The influence of catchment land use on stream integrity across multiple
 spatial scales. Freshw Biol. 1997; 37:149–61.
- Aristi I, Díez JR, Larrañaga A, Navarro-Ortega A, Barceló D, Elosegi A. Assessing the effects of multiple
 stressors on the functioning of Mediterranean rivers using poplar wood breakdown. Sci Total
 Environ. 2012; 440:272–279.
- Arroita M, Aristi I, Flores L, Larrañaga A, Díez J, Mora J, Romaní AM, Elosegi A. The use of wooden sticks
 to assess stream ecosystem functioning: Comparison with leaf breakdown rates. Sci Total Environ.
 2012; 440:115-122.
- Bärlocher F. Leaf mass loss estimated by litter bag technique. In: Graça M, Bärlocher F and Gessner MO,
 editors. Methods to Study Litter Decomposition. A Practical Guide. The Netherlands: Springer. 2005;
 37–42.
- Bärlocher F.Research on aquatic hyphomycetes: historical background and overview. In: Bärlocher F,
 editor. The ecology of aquatic hyphomycetes. Berlin: Springer-Verlag. 1992.
- Baxter, RM. Environmental effects of dams and impoundments. Annual Review of Ecology & Systematics.
 1977; 8:255–283.

- Benfield EF, Webster JR, Hutchens JR, Tank JL, Turner PA. Organic matter dynamics along a streamorder and elevational gradient in a southern Appalachian stream. Verh Int Verein Limnol. 2000;
 27:1–5.
- 451 Benfield EF. Leaf breakdown in stream ecosystems. In: Hauer FR, Lamberti GA, editors. Methods in 452 stream ecology. San Diego: Academic Press. 1996; 579–89.
- 453 Buffagni A, Erba S, Armanini DG. The lentic–lotic character of Mediterranean rivers and its importance to 454 aquatic invertebrate communities. Aquat Sci. 2009; 72:45–60.
- 455 Bunn SE, Arthington AH. Basic Principles and Ecological Consequences of Altered Flow Regimes for 456 Aquatic Biodiversity. Environ Manage. 2002; 30:492–507.
- 457 Bunn SE, Davies PM, Mosisch TD. Ecosystem measures of river health and their response to riparian and 458 catchment degradation. Freshw Biol. 1999; 41:333–45.
- Chauvet E. De la biologie des hyphomycetes aquatiques à l'écologie des rivières. Cryptogamie
 Mycologique. 1992; 13: 203–214.
- Chauvet E. Changes in the chemical composition of alder, poplar, and willow leaves during decomposition
 in a river. Hydrobiologia. 1987; 148: 35-44.
- Chergui H, Pattee E.The effect of water current on the decomposition of dead leaves and needles. Verh Int
 Verein Limnol.1988; 23:1294–1298.
- Clavero M, Blanco-Garrido F, Prenda J. Fish fauna in Iberian Mediterranean river basins: biodiversity,
 introduced species and damming impacts. Aquat Conserv Mar Freshw Ecosyst. 2004; 14(6):575–85.
- 467 Cortes RM, Graça M, Vingada J, Oliveira SV. Stream typology and dynamics of leaf processing. Ann
 468 Limnol. 1995; 31: 119-131.
- 469 Crenshaw CL, Valett HM, Tank JL. Effects of coarse particulate organic matter on fungal biomass and
 470 invertebrate density in the subsurface of a headwater stream. J North Am Benthol Soc. 2002; 21:
 471 28–42.
- 472 Dewson ZS, James ABW, Death RG. Stream Ecosystem Functioning under Reduced Flow Conditions.
 473 Ecol Appl. 2007;17(6):1797–808.
- 474 Diez J, Elosegi A, Chauvet E, Pozo J. Breakdown of wood in the Agüera stream. Freshw Biol. 2002;
 475 47:2205–15.
- Elosegi A, Sabater S. Effects of hydromorphological impacts on river ecosystem functioning: a review and
 suggestions for assessing ecological impacts. Hydrobiologia. 2012; 712:129–43.
- 478 Feio MJ, Alves T, Boavida M, Medeiros A, Graça M. Functional indicators of stream health: a river-basin
 479 approach. Freshw Biol. 2010; 55:1050–65.
- Ferreira V, Castagneyrol B, Koricheva J, Gulis V, Chauvet E, Graça M. A meta-analysis of the effects of
 nutrient enrichment on litter decomposition in streams. Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc. 2014. doi:
 10.1111/brv.12125.
- 483 Ferreira V, Chauvet E. Synergistic effects of water temperature and dissolved nutrients on litter 484 decomposition and associated fungi. Glob Chang Biol . 2011; 17:551–64.
- Ferreira V, Graça M. Do Invertebrate Activity and Current Velocity Affect Fungal Assemblage Structure in
 Leaves? Int Rev Hydrobiol. 2006; 91:1–14.
- Ferreira V, Graça M, de Lima JLMP, Gomes R. Role of physical fragmentation and invertebrate activity in
 the breakdown rate of leaves. Archiv Hydrobiol.2006a; 165:493-513.
- Ferreira V, Gulis V, Graça M. Whole-stream nitrate addition affects litter decomposition and associated
 fungi but not invertebrates. Oecologia. 2006b; 149:718–29.
- Fleituch T. Beech Leaf Breakdown and POM Storage along an Altitudinal Stream Gradient. Hydrobiologia.
 2001; 86:515–26.
- Fonnesu A, Pinna M, Basset A. Spatial and Temporal Variations of Detritus Breakdown Rates in the River
 Flumendosa Basin (Sardinia, Italy). Int Rev Hydrobio. 2004; 89:443–52.
- 495 Friedl G, Wüest A. Disrupting biogeochemical cycles Consequences of damming. Aquatic Sciences.
 496 2002; 64:55–65.
- 497 Gessner M., Chauvet E. A Case for Using Litter Breakdown to Asses Functional Stream Integrity. Ecol
 498 Appl. 2002; 12:498–510.
- 499 Gessner M, Chauvet E, Dobson M. A perspective on leaf litter breakdown in streams. Oikos. 1999; 85:
 500 377-384 .
- 501 González JM, Mollá S, Roblas N, Descals E, Moya Ó, Casado C. Small dams decrease leaf litter 502 breakdown rates in Mediterranean mountain streams. Hydrobiologia. 2012; 712:117–28.
- 503 Graça M, Canhoto C. Leaf litter processing in low order streams. Limnetica. 2006; 25:1–10.

- 504 Grantham TE, Figueroa R, Prat N. Water management in mediterranean river basins: a comparison of 505 management frameworks, physical impacts, and ecological responses. Hydrobiologia. 2012; 719 506 :451–82.
- 507 Gulis V, Rosemond AD, Suberkropp K, Weyers HS, Benstead JP. Effects of nutrient enrichment on the 508 decomposition of wood and associated microbial activity in streams. Freshw Biol. 2004; 49:1437–47.
- Hagen AEM, Webster JR, Benfield EF, Hagen EM. Are leaf breakdown rates a useful measure of stream
 integrity along an agricultural landuse gradient. J N Am Benthol Soc. 2006; 25:330–43.
- Hupp CR, Schenk ER, Richter JM, Peet RK, Townsend PA. Bank erosion along the dam-regulated lower
 Roanoke River, North Carolina. In: James LA, Rathburn SL, and Whittecar GR, editors. Management
 and Restoration of Fluvial Systems with Broad Historical Changes and Human Impacts: Geological
 Society of America Special Paper. 2009; 451:97-108.
- Kuehn KA, Lemke MJ, Wetzel RG, Suberkropp K. Microbial biomass and production associated with
 decaying leaf litter of the emergent macrophyte *Juncus effusus*. Limnology and Oceanography.
 2000; 45: 862–870.
- Lagrue C, Kominoski JS, Danger M, Baudoin JM, Lamothe S, Lambrigot D, Lecerf A. Experimental
 shading alters litter breakdown in streams of contrasting riparian canopy cover. Freshw Biol. 2011;
 56: 2059-2069.
- 521 Lecerf A, Chauvet E. Intra-specific variability in leaf traits strongly affects alder leaf decomposition in a 522 stream. Basic and Applied Ecology.2008; 9:598-607.
- Lecerf A, Usseglio-Polatera P, Charcosset JY, Lambrigot D, Bracht B, Chauvet E. Assessment of
 functional integrity of eutrophic streams using litter breakdown and benthic macroinvertebrates.
 Archiv Hydrobiol. 2006; 165:105-126.
- 526 Malmqvist B, Rundle S. Threats to the running water ecosystems of the world. Environ Conserv. 2002; 527 29:134–53.
- Marcé R, Honey-Rose J, Manzano A, Moragas L, Catllar B, Sabater S. The Llobregat River Basin: A
 Paradigm of Impaired Rivers Under Climate Change Threats. In: S. Sabater et al, editors. The
 Llobregat: The Story of a Polluted Mediterranean River. Springer-Verlag, Berlin. 2012; 21:297–326.
- Martin R, Hanson L. Reservoirs in the United States: U.S. Geological Survey, Water Supply Paper 1838.
 1966.
- Martínez A, Larrañaga A, Basaguren A, Pérez J, Mendoza-Lera C, Pozo J. Stream regulation by small
 dams affects benthic macroinvertebrate communities: from structural changes to functional
 implications. Hydrobiologia. 2013; 711:31–42.
- 536 Mctammany ME, Benfield EF, Webster JR. Effects of agriculture on wood breakdown and microbial biofilm
 537 respiration in southern Appalachian streams. Freshw Biol. 2008; 53:842–54.
- 538 Menéndez M, Descals E, Riera T, Moya O. Effect of small reservoirs on leaf litter decomposition in
 539 Mediterranean headwater streams. Hydrobiologia. 2012; 691:135–46.
- 540 Menéndez M, Descals E, Riera T, Moya O. Leaf litter breakdown in Mediterranean streams: effect of 541 dissolved inorganic nutrients. Hydrobiologia. 2011; 669:143–55.
- Naiman R, Melillo J. Longitudinal patterns of ecosystem processes and community structure in a subarctic
 river continuum. Ecology. 1987;68:1139–56.
- Nilsson C, Reidy C, Dynesius M, Revenga C. Fragmentation and flow regulation of the world's large river
 systems. Science. 2005; 308:405–8.
- 546 Paul MJ, Meyer JL, Couch C. Leaf breakdown in streams differing in catchment land use. Freshw Biol.
 547 2006; 51:1684–95.
- 548 Petersen RC, Cummins KW. Leaf processing in a woodland stream. Freshw Biol. 1974; 4: 343–68.
- 549 Pinheiro JC, Bates DM, Debroy S, Deepayan S, R Development Core Team. nlme: linear and nonlinear
 550 mixed effects models. R package version 3. 2012; 1–105.
- 551 Pinheiro JC, Bates DM. Mixed-Effects Models in S and S-PLUS. New York: Springer Verlag; 2000.
- 552 Poff NL, Zimmerman JKH. Ecological responses to altered flow regimes: a literature review to inform the 553 science and management of environmental flows. Freshw Biol. 2010; 55:194–205.
- Poff NL, Hart DD. How dams vary and why it matters for the emerging science of dam removal.
 Biogeosciences. 2002; 52:659–738.
- Pozo J, Casas J, Menéndez M, Mollá S, Arostegui I, Basaguren A, Casado C, Descals E, et al. Leaf-litter
 decomposition in headwater streams: a comparison of the process among four climatic regions. J N
 Am Benthol Soc. 2011; 30: 935-950.
- R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna: R Foundation for
 Statistical Computing; 2013.

- Sabater S. Alterations of the global water cycle and their effects on river structure, function and services.
 Freshwater Reviews. 2008; 1:75-88.
- 563 Santos Fonseca AL, Bianchini I, Pimenta CMM, Soares CBP, Mangiavacchi N. The flow velocity as driving 564 force for decomposition of leaves and twigs. Hydrobiologia. 2012; 703:59–67.
- 565 Schlief J, Mutz M. Effect of sudden flow reduction on the descomposition of alder leaves (Alnus glutinosa 566 [L.]Gaertn.) in a temperate lowland stream: a mesocosm study. Hydrobiologia. 2009; 624:205–17.
- 567 Schneider C, Laizé CLR, Acreman MC, Flörke M. How will climate change modify river flow regimes in 568 Europe? Hydrol Earth Syst Sci. 2013; 17:325–39.
- 569 Silva-Junior EF, Moulton TP, Boëchat IG, Gücker B. Leaf decomposition and ecosystem metabolism as 570 functional indicators of land use impacts on tropical streams. Ecol Indic. 2014; 36:195–204.
- Stanford JA, Ward JV. Management of aquatic resources in large catchments: Recognizing interactions
 between ecosystem connectivity and environmental disturbance. In: Naiman R, editor. Watershed
 Management. New York: Springer-Verlag; 1992; 91-124.
- 574 Stelzer RS, Heffernan J, Likens GE. The influence of dissolved nutrients and particulate organic matter 575 quality on microbial respiration and biomass in a forest stream. Freshw Biol. 2003; 48:1925–1937.
- 576 Strahler, AN. Quantitative analysis of watershed geomorphology. Transactions of the American 577 Geophysical Union. 1957; 38:913-920.
- 578 Strayer DL. Challenges for freshwater invertebrate conservation. J North Am Benthol Soc. 2006; 25:271-579 87.
- Suberkropp K. Annual production of leaf-decaying fungi in a woodland stream. Freshw Biol. 1997; 38:169 178.
- Tank JL, Rosi-Marshall EJ, Griffiths N, Entrekin S, Stephen ML. A review of allochthonous organic matter
 dynamics and metabolism in streams. J North Am Benthol Soc. 2010; 29:118–46.
- Tank JL, Webster JR. Interaction of Substrate and Nutrient Availability on Wood Biofilm Processes in
 Streams. Ecology. 1998;79:2168–79.
- Tiegs S, Akinwole P, Gessner M. Litter decomposition across multiple spatial scales in stream networks.
 Ecosyst Ecol. 2009;161:343–51.
- 588 Townsend CR, Riley RH. Assessment of river health: accounting for perturbation pathways in physical and 589 ecological space. Freshw Biol.1999; 41:393–405.
- 590 Underwood E, Viers J, Klausmeyer K, Cox R, Shaw M. Threats and biodiversity in the mediterranean
 591 biome. Diversity and Distributions. 2009; 15:188–197.
- 592 Venables WN, Ripley BD. Modern Applied Statistics with S. 4th ed. New York: Springer; 2002.
- Vericat D, Batalla RJ. Sediment transport in a highly regulated fluvial system during two consecutive floods
 (lower Ebro River, NE Iberian Peninsula). Earth Surf Process Landforms. 2005; 30:385–402.
- 595 Vingada, JVS. Decomposição de folhada num rio de montanha. Influência dos factores físicos e
 596 biológicos. Master thesis. Faculdade de Ciências e Tecnologia da Universidade de Coimbra,
 597 Coimbra.1995.
- 598 Von Schiller D, Martí E, Riera JL, Ribot M, Marks JC, Sabater F. Influence of land use on stream 599 ecosystem function in a Mediterranean catchment. Freshw Biol. 2008; 53:2600–12.
- Ward JV, Standford JA. The Serial Discontinuity Concept of Lotic Ecosystems. In: Fontaine TD, Bartell
 SM, editors. Dynamics of Lotic Ecosystems. Michigan: Ann Arbor Sci. 1983. 29-42.
- Webster JR, Benfield EF. Vascular plant breakdown in freshwater ecosystems. Annual Review of Ecology
 Systems. 1986; 17:567-594.
- Woodward G, Gessner MO, Giller PS, Gulis V, Hladyz S, Lecerf A, et al. Continental-scale effects of
 nutrient pollution on stream ecosystem functioning. Science. 2012; 336:1438–40.
- Young RG, Collier KJ. Contrasting responses to catchment modification among a range of functional and
 structural indicators of river ecosystem health. Freshw Biol. 2009; 54:2155–70.
- Young RG, Matthaei CD, Towsend CR. Organic matter breakdown and ecosystem metabolism: functional
 indicators for assessing river ecosystem health. J North Am Benthol Soc. 2008; 27:605–25.
- Zuur AF, Ieno EN, Walker NJ, Saveliev AA, Smith GM. Mixed Effects Model and Extensions in Ecology
 with R. New York: Springer Science and Business Media; 2009.

Tables and Figures

Table 1.

Characterisation of the studied sites. The percentages of land use cover refer to the total sub-catchment area associated with each site.

			Altitude		Hydrologic	Catchment	Lar	d Use Cover	(%)
Site	Latitude, N	Longitude, E	(m.a.s.l)	Order	Habitat	area (ha)	Forest	Agricultural	Urban
Α	42°10'08"	3°03'18"	2	5	Lotic	96131	77,89	18,11	2,59
В	42°10'06"	3°01'48"	9	5	Lentic	94803	78,23	17,82	2,56
С	42°10'39"	2°50'11"	83	5	Lotic	80947	82,14	14,14	2,37
D	42°11'9"	2°45'36"	115	5	Lentic	78938	82,75	13,56	2,36
Е	42°10'07"	2°43'47"	135	4	Lotic	11571	82,46	15,76	1,25
F	42°13'3"	2°34'29"	214	5	Lotic	29656	78,35	16,87	3,56
G	42°10'28"	2°28'71"	434	4	Lentic	10355	76,90	19,44	2,55
н	42°15'02"	2°28'49"	451	2	Lotic	155	96,58	3,03	0,10
- I	42°18'03"	2°35'21"	356	3	Lotic	2476	95,15	0,13	0,01
J	42°18'06"	2°35'20"	358	3	Lentic	2475	95,17	0,01	0,13

- 638

675 Table 2.

575 Stream water characteristics of the studied sites. DIC=dissolved inorganic carbon, 577 DOC=dissolved organic carbon, $NOx=NO_2^-+NO_3^{-2}$, $PO_4^{-3}=$ phosphate, CI⁻=chloride, and $SO_4^{-2}=$ 578 sulphate. Values (mean ± SE) highlighted in bold correspond to the winter period, whereas non-579 bold values correspond to the summer period.

					Strea	m water chara	cteristics				
Site	Temperature (°C)	Conductivity (µS / cm)	H	Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	DIC (mgC/L)	DOC (mgC/L)	NOX (mgN/L)	PO42- (mgP/L)	SO4 (mgS/L)	CI- (mgCl/L)	Residence time (h)
	12.2 ± 1.1	926.5±15.5	7.9 ± 0.1	9.3 ± 0.1	44.7± 0.3	0.8±0.1	1.5±0.1	0.004±0.001	79.0 ± 4.1	49.1 ± 2.1	3.0 ± 0.7
:	22.0 ± 0.6	941.3 ± 27.7	8.0 ± 0.1	9.5 ± 0.8	43.2 ± 1.9	1.0 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	0.002 ± 0.001	90.3 ± 3.7	33.7 ± 1.4	1.1 ± 0.2
٥	10.0 ± 1.8	951.2 ± 21.0	8.3±0.1	11.5 ± 0.3	44.9 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.1	0.005±0.003	86.4 ± 6.1	53.2 ± 2.9	7.3±0.8
۵	23.6 ± 0.5	936.2 ± 34.9	8.2 ± 0.1	10.8 ± 0.6	41.6 ± 2.1	1.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	0.002 ± 0.001	89.7 ± 4.9	34.4 ± 1.9	4.1 ± 1.2
c	10.3 ± 1.1	1035.1 ± 20.1	8.1±0.1	13.0 ± 0.9	52.6 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	0.023 ± 0.007	92.5 ± 6.1	52.3 ± 3.6	2.5 ± 0.9
د	23.4 ± 0.8	1004.8 ± 52.8	8.2 ± 0.0	9.2 ± 0.1	45.7 ± 2.0	1.5 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.2	0.023 ± 0.019	91.4 ± 8.4	36.5 ± 2.0	1.8 ± 0.2
6	11.6 ± 0.8	1122 ± 60.3	7.5±0.0	8.6±0.6	56.1 ± 1.0	1.3±0.1	1.8 ± 0.1	0.051 ± 0.021	86.1 ± 4.2	51.9 ± 3.9	81.1 ± 9.2
د	23.1 ± 1.1	933.2 ± 44.8	8.1 ± 0.1	11.2 ±1.2	47.1 ± 2.2	2.5 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.3	0.052 ± 0.022	72.9 ± 3.6	51.3 ± 5.1	33.8 ± 8.8
u	6.7 ± 1.5	771.5±37.2	8.1±0.1	11.5 ± 0.7	58.1 ± 2.5	1.7 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.1	0.014 ± 0.008	55.9 ± 3.1	18.1 ± 0.2	7.6±1.7
J	19.4 ± 0.6	1143.5 ± 193.7	8.1 ± 0.1	9.2 ± 0.4	49.2 ± 3.9	1.6 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.4	0.015 ± 0.006	154.4 ± 54.3	21.5 ± 2.8	2.2 ± 1.2
ц	9.8 ± 1.0	1216.7 ± 25.6	7.9 ± 0.0	13.7 ± 1.0	52.4 ± 0.9	1.3 ± 0.1	2.2 ± 0.1	0.046 ± 0.027	117.4 ± 5.1	81.2 ± 2.6	5.0 ± 0.4
-	21.0 ±1.1	919.5 ± 42.7	8.2 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 0.7	53.2 ± 0.8	1.9 ± 0.2	3.0 ± 0.1	0.194 ± 0.021	55.0 ± 5.9	63.9 ± 6.1	3.0±0.3
c	8.1 ± 0.9	606.5±22.6	8.1 ± 0.0	11.6 ± 0.5	58.1 ± 2.6	1.7 ± 0.4	3.5 ± 0.3	0.038 ± 0.022	23.1 ± 5.2	15.9 ± 2.6	184.7 ± 8.6
0	17.1 ± 0.4	617.6 ± 57.0	8.1 ± 0.0	7.7 ± 0.4	63.2 ± 2.0	1.6 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.5	0.024 ± 0.004	14.3 ± 1.4	15.1 ± 1.5	25.7 ± 12.2
-	5.5 ± 1.6	475.4 ± 47.8	8.1 ± 0.0	10.8 ± 0.3	50.8 ± 0.8	1.2 ± 0.1	0.03 ± 0.006	0.003 ± 0.001	19.8 ± 1.1	10.8 ± 0.2	34.1 ± 10.4
=	17.4 ± 0.9	512.3 ± 17.7	8.2 ± 0.0	8.9 ± 0.1	49.4 ± 1.3	1.5 ± 0.1	0.01 ± 0.007	0.003 ± 0.001	19.04 ± 0.71	7.6±0.2	9.0 ± 2.7
_	8.1 ± 1.3	939.2 ± 41.8	8.01 ± 0.1	10.3 ± 0.2	35.2 ± 0.4	0.5±0.1	0.003 ± 0.0006	0.002 ± 0.001	127.4 ± 5.8	2.3±0.1	10.4 ± 0.8
_	17.2 ± 0.6	671.7 ± 48.3	8.0 ± 1.1	8.8 ± 0.1	35.3 ± 0.8	0.7 ± 0.1	0.01 ± 0.006	0.002 ± 0.001	80.2 ± 7.8	1.8 ± 0.3	3.1 ± 0.5
_	7.8 ± 1.5	951.7 ± 43.5	8.4 ± 0.1	11.3 ± 0.1	35.3 ± 0.4	0.5±0.1	0.002 ± 0.006	0.002 ± 0.001	134.0 ± 6.9	2.2 ± 0.1	5.9±0.4
	16.7 ± 0.7	747.7 ± 40.1	8.4 ± 0.1	8.9 ± 0.2	34.1 ± 0.7	0.6±0.0	0.01 ± 0.007	0.002 ± 0.001	82.5±6.7	1.7 ± 0.3	4.8±0.2

Table 3.

Summary of linear mixed-effect models of stream water characteristics of the studied sites along the river network in both seasons (n=20). DIC, PO_4^{-3} , and SO_4^{-2} values with correlation coefficients greater than 0.70 with DOC, NOx, and conductivity, respectively, were not included in the linear mixed-effects model. Data appearing in bold are statistically significant.

							niadan	ent variadie	ŝ							
	Tempt	erature	NC	×	Residen (log	ce Time x)	DG	g	Dissolvec	i Oxygen	٩	т	U	<u> </u>	Condu	stivity
Fixed Factors	ш	٩	L	٩	ш	٩	ш	đ	ш	٩	L	٩	ш	٩	ш	٩
Habitat	0.40	0.5526	6.02	0.0576	28.09	0.0061	0.21	0.6607	0.02	0.8711	1.88	0.2291	0.01	0.9475	0.02	0.8835
Order	35.27	0.0011	29.75	0.0017	15.16	0.0136	2.86	0.1481	1.03	0.4211	1.45	0.3177	21.56	0.0035	4.41	0.0787
Season	490.85	<.0001	1.02	0.3147	25.10	<.0001	8.17	0.0058	27.49	<.0001	1.76	0.1897	63.84	<.0001	10.16	0.0220
Habitat x Order	0.34	0.7245	5.44	0.0556	124.52	0.0002	0.24	0.7936	0.22	0.8074	1.92	0.2412	0.02	0.9735	0.54	0.6119
Habitat x Season	0.25	0.6140	0.01	0.92	0.55	0.4609	0.49	0.4851	2.40	0.1263	2.58	0.1134	29.96	<.0001	1.53	0.2199
Season x Order	1.41	0.2508	6.68	0.0023	5.53	0.0072	3.22	0.0463	3.89	0.0254	2.03	0.1402	14.69	<.0001	3.76	0.0286
Habitat x Order x Season	1.89	0.1594	6:99	0.0018	56.05	<.0001	0.62	0.5409	5.58	0.0059	0.31	0.7372	2.29	0.1093	3.08	0.0526
(n=80) AIC	35.	2.29	150.	.75	336.	54	131	.19	293	.06	4.	71	416	.56	892.	114

Table 4.

Summary of the linear mixed-effects model used to analyse differences in wood decomposition over time along the river network. The proportion of remaining AFDM was used as dependent variable. Season, hydrological habitat, river order, and time (co-variable) were used as fixed factors, whereas site was used as a random factor. Data appearing in bold are statistically significant.

798		Depende	nt variable
799 800	_	AF	DMr
801		(log	g x)
802	Eined Fasters	F	
803	Fixed Factors	Г	þ
804	Time	56.69	<.0001
805	Habitat	3.83	0.1219
806 807	Time x Habitat	0.46	0.4969
808	Order	10.27	0.0266
809	Time x Order	6.74	0.0015
810	Season	98.56	<.0001
811	Time v Cessen	25.20	< 0001
812	Time x Season	35.30	<.0001
813	Habitat x Order	11.17	0.0211
814	Time x Habitat x Order	10.10	0.0001
815	Habitat x Season	18.52	<.0001
816	Time y Hebitet y Seesen	0.00	0.7670
817	Time x Habitat x Season	0.09	0.7079
818	Order x Season	69.65	<.0001
819	Time x Order x Season	4.89	0.0086
820	Habitat x Order x Season	11.82	<.0001
821	Time x Habitat x Order x Season	5.49	0.0049
044	(n = 192 AIC = -351 90)		
025	(1 - 102, 100001.00)		

851 Table 5.

Multiple regression analyses of decomposition rates (day^{-1}) and stream water characteristics in winter and summer. T=temperature, NOx=NO₂⁻+NO₃⁻², DOC=dissolved organic carbon. R=multiple regression coefficient. Note that residence time was negatively correlated with decomposition rates. Data appearing in bold are statistically significant.

858 859 860	Dependent Variable	Selected Independent Variables	Coefficient	Standard Error	t value	р
861 862 862	k (days ⁻¹) n=20, R=0.72,	т	0.060	0.024	2.470	0.0260
864	F=13.55, p<0.001	NOx	0.242	0.104	2.318	0.0350
865 866		Residence Time	-0.322	0.112	-2.873	0.0116
867 868		DOC	0.687	0.3293	2.087	0.0543
869 870						
870						
872						
873						
874						
875						
876						
8//						
8/8 970						
880						
881						
882						
883						
884						
885						
886						
887						
888						
889						
890						
891						
892						
893						
894 905						
896						
897						
898						
899						
900						
901						
902						
903						

- 904 905
- 906

907 Figure 1.

908 Locations of the study sites (letters from A to J) in the Fluvià River watershed (NE, Iberian 909 Peninsula). Black dots denote lotic sampling reaches, whereas white dots denote lentic-910 sampling reaches.



967 Figure 2

968 Decomposition rates (day⁻¹) of each site in winter and summer. Error bars indicate standard 969 error.



1025 Figure 3.

1026 Nitrogen (N) content in each stick as a percentage of stick dry mass and related to the total 1027 proportion of ash-free dry mass (AFDM) lost in each stick (n=192).

