

River Research and Applications

The effects of replacing native forest on the quantity and impact of in-channel pieces of large wood in Chilean streams

Journal:	<i>River Research and Applications</i>
Manuscript ID	RRA-16-0045.R1
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Research Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Mao, Luca; Universidad Católica de Chile, Dept. of Ecosystems and Environment Ugalde, Fernando; Universidad Católica de Chile, Dept. of Ecosystems and Environment Iroume, Andres; Universidad Austral de Chile Lacy, Shaw; Universidad Católica de Chile, Dept. of Ecosystems and Environment
Keywords:	Native forest, pine plantation, large wood, wood jams, fish, Chile

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 1 **The effects of replacing native forest on the quantity and impacts of in-channel**
4 **pieces of large wood in Chilean streams**
5
6

7
8 4 Mao L.^{1*}, Ugalde F.¹, Iroume A.², Lacy S.N.¹
9
10

11 6 ¹ Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Department of Ecosystems and
12 Environments, Santiago, Chile
13

14 8 ² Universidad Austral de Chile, Faculty of Forest Sciences and Natural Resources,
15 Valdivia, Chile
16
17

18
19
20 11 * Corresponding author: Luca Mao, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile,
21 Department of Ecosystems and Environments, Av. Vicuña Mackenna 4860, Macul,
22 Santiago, Chile, Tel. (56-2) 23545751; E-mail: lmao@uc.cl
23
24
25

26 15 **Abstract**
27

28 16 Dead trees in rivers can significantly affect their morphological and ecological
29 17 properties by increasing flow resistance, affecting sediment transport, and storing
30 18 organic matter. Logs are usually recruited from banks or along the entire upstream
31 19 basin. Although it is generally acknowledged that forested headwater streams feature
32 20 higher volumes of in-channel pieces of large wood, the influence of forest type and
33 21 forest management of the potential recruitment zone on the volumes and effects of
34 22 wood have been less explored, especially in relation to the effects of replacing native
35 23 forests with pine plantations. This paper presents a comparison of volumes of wood, and
36 24 characteristics and effects on streams draining paired basins with comparable slopes,
37 25 areas, and hydrologic regimes, but different in terms of land use. The five selected pairs
38 26 of basins are located in the Coastal and Andean mountain Ranges in central Chile, in
39 27 order to compare native forest and pine plantation basins. The results show that logs
40 28 tend to be shorter and with larger diameters in streams draining native forest basins.
41 29 Because of their smaller dimensions, logs and jams tend to be more mobile and oriented
42 30 parallel to the flow. Volumes of in-channel wood in native forest basins are only
43 31 slightly larger than in pine plantation basins, and no differences have been identified in
44 32 terms of morphological effects on channel geometry. Also, fish type and biomass were
45 33 comparable among pairs. Evidence highlights the importance of the width of riparian
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 34 buffers in mitigating the effects of land use change, especially the substitution of native
4 35 forest with plantations.
5
6 36

7
8 37 **Keywords:** Native forest, pine plantation, large wood, wood jams, fish, Chile
9
10 38

11 39 **1. Introduction**

12
13 40

14 41 In forested basins, in-channel pieces of large wood (LW, i.e. logs coarser than 0.1 m and
15 42 longer than 1 m) can significantly affect the morphological and ecological properties of
16 43 rivers. Logs, especially if jammed, can create steps (Rosenfeld & Huato, 2003), increase
17 44 flow resistance (Cadol & Wohl, 2013), store organic matter (Tank et al., 2010;
18 45 Beckman & Wohl, 2014), and increase the connectivity with floodplains (Sear et al.,
19 46 2010). It has also been demonstrated that in-channel wood increases habitats and
20 47 biological diversity (Gerhard and Reich, 2000; Cordova et al., 2007; Vera et al., 2014),
21 48 principally by augmenting morphological diversity and complexity (Gurnell et al.,
22 49 2002). Indeed, the presence of LW can increase fish number and biomass (e.g. Schenk
23 50 et al., 2015), and engineered LW is commonly used in river restoration practices in
24 51 order to increase fish biomass (Abbe et al., 2003). On the other hand, when massively
25 52 recruited and transported during extreme events, LW is potentially dangerous to human
26 53 infrastructure (Mazzorana et al., 2009).

27 54 Trees can be delivered to the river by natural mortality or after episodic events such as
28 55 wildfires, windthrow and forest diseases, or localized mass movements on slopes in the
29 56 form of landslides or debris flows (Hassan et al., 2005). As well, logs can be recruited
30 57 into river systems from riparian areas through toppling and bank erosion (Jeffries et al.,
31 58 2003). When recruited, LW can be transported downstream for a distance that depends
32 59 on the stream power (Merten et al., 2010), the relative size of the logs compared to the
33 60 stream (Bocchiola et al., 2006; Wohl & Goode, 2008), and the degree to which logs are
34 61 already jammed (Gurnell et al., 2002). Log recruitment and transport processes vary
35 62 spatially and temporally depending on type, magnitude and frequency of processes
36 63 occurring at the basin scale (Wohl & Jaeger, 2009). Several attempts have been recently
37 64 made to organize this into conceptual (e.g. Benda & Sias, 2003) or numerical models
38 65 (e.g. Mazzorana et al., 2010; Rigon et al., 2012). Generally, forested headwater streams
39 66 (< 20 km²) feature higher volumes of wood, and logs are less jammed than in
40 67 downstream reaches. This has been related to the considerable recruitment of logs due

1
2
3 68 to high connectivity with colluvial processes occurring on slopes, and with the
4 69 transport-limited conditions for wood in such environments (Marcus et al., 2002; Abbe
5 70 & Montgomery, 2003; Hassan et al., 2005; Wohl & Jaeger, 2009; Rigon et al., 2012).
6
7 71 The volume of LW in forested basins clearly depends on the type, age, and management
8
9 72 of the forest cover. In general, old-growth forests feature a multi-layered canopy with
10
11 73 taller and larger diameter trees that supply larger volumes of wood to rivers, which in
12
13 74 turn can trap more floated logs, resulting in higher volumes of in-channel wood (Wohl
14
15 75 & Beckman, 2014). Jackson & Wohl (2015) recently reported higher wood loads in old
16
17 76 growth rather than in younger growth forests in the Southern Rocky Mountains (US).
18
19 77 However, there is little evidence in the literature on the effects of land use changes on
20
21 78 the loads of in-channel wood. For instance, Burrows et al. (2012) showed that streams
22
23 79 draining clear-cut eucalyptus basins have greater abundance and volumes of wood than
24
25 80 old-growth basins. Nevertheless, there is less field evidence for the effects of native
26
27 81 forest replacement with exotic species. There has been extensive study of the effects of
28
29 82 substituting native forests with exotic forest plantations on different biota and ecological
30
31 83 processes (Lindenmayer et al, 2000; Brockerhoff et al, 2003; Vertessy et al, 2003;
32
33 84 Vergara & Simonetti 2004; Arevalo & Fernández-Palacios, 2005) by comparing plots
34
35 85 established on plantations and adjacent native forests. Evidence show that fish
36
37 86 communities can also be affected by pine plantations due to changes in nutrient
38
39 87 concentration, shading, amount and quality of organic matter inputs, and that these
40
41 88 negative effects can be mitigated by the maintenance of a riparian vegetative boundary
42
43 89 (Davies & Nelson, 1994; Lee et al., 2004). These studies have mainly reported
44
45 90 reductions in biodiversity in plantations depending on the management and silvicultural
46
47 91 methods. In spite of these studies, much less evidence is available on the impact of
48
49 92 native forest substitution by forestry plantations at the basin scale, and especially on
50
51 93 how this is reflected at the channel-reach scale. For example, Baillie & Davies (2002)
52
53 94 compared basins with native and pine plantation forest covers in New Zealand and
54
55 95 reported higher volumes of LW in pine plantation basins. However, eco-morphological
56
57 96 effects appeared to have been greater in the native forest basins. Evidence on this for the
58
59 97 Andean region is virtually absent. *Pinus radiata* D. Don (*P. radiata*) comprises almost
60
100 98 1.5 of the total 2.7 million hectares of planted forest (INFOR, 2009). Replacement of
99
100 99 native forest by pine plantations in Chile has occurred mainly in Andean areas as native
forests in coastal areas were largely eliminated before the development of plantations

1
2
3 101 (Donoso & Lara, 1995). Final harvest of *P. radiata* plantations in Chile is mainly based
4 102 on clearcutting, as in most countries where this species is cultivated.

5
6 103 The main objective of this study is to assess the impacts of substituting native forests by
7
8 104 pine plantations on in-stream large wood and related eco-morphological effects. To
9
10 105 achieve that, we compared the characteristics of in-channel LW in streams draining
11
12 106 paired basins that are different in terms of land use. The paired-basin study involved the
13
14 107 use of five pairs of basins where the pairs were similar in terms of slope, aspect, soils,
15
16 108 drainage area, climate, hydrologic regime, and located as close as possible to each other.
17
18 109 Five pairs of basins were selected in this study to maximize the difference in terms of
19
20 110 land use (native forest vs. pine plantation). This paper focuses on the impact of
21
22 111 vegetation changes at the basin scale on the amount, size, and effects of in-channel
23
24 112 wood in the Andean and Coastal Ranges of Chile.

25 113

26 114 **2. Materials and methods**

27 115

28 116 *2.1. Field sites*

29
30 117 The study was carried out on 5 pairs of basins, with draining areas ranging from
31
32 118 approximately 2 to 20 km² (Table 1), located on the Andean and Coastal Ranges (3 and
33
34 119 2 pairs, respectively), with latitudes ranging from 35°32' to 37°34' (Figure 1). The
35
36 120 drainage area, stream order, and main slope of the studied basins were determined with
37
38 121 a digital elevation model (30 m size cells) using GIS software. The percentage of forest
39
40 122 cover was derived from visual interpretation of recent aerial photos. Although most of
41
42 123 the basins with native forest featured nearly the whole area covered with this forest
43
44 124 type, nearby basins with plantation that could be selected in this study have areas
45
46 125 covered by pine of about 60-75%. Basins with pure pine plantations are rare in the area,
47
48 126 especially because riparian areas are protected by law.

49
50 127 According to Gajardo (1994), all the studied sites are classified in the deciduous forest
51
52 128 region, a temperate forest area dominated by deciduous species such as *Nothofagus*
53
54 129 *obliqua*, *N. glauca*, *N. alpina*, and evergreen species like *N. dombeyi*, *Cryptocarya alba*,
55
56 130 *Aextoxicon punctatum*, among others. All the watersheds with replacement, previous to
57
58 131 planting *P. radiata* on the slopes, were covered with native vegetation, so that any
59
60 132 changes registered in the watersheds are attributable to the replacement of native forests
133
134 133 by plantations of pine trees and the activities associated with their management. At the
time of the surveys, the plantations were between 12 and 18 years old and all had

1
2
3 135 experienced only one rotation, or clear-cut and replanting. In all cases, the method of
4 136 harvest is clear-cutting. Tress in the pine plantation areas have mean height of approx.
5 137 20 m and mean diameter of 25 cm. Although the height of trees is not available for all
6 138 study sites, the mean diameter of trees in the riparian area and the slopes along the study
7 139 reaches is reported on Table 2.

8
9
10
11 140 According to Gutierrez & Becerra (submitted) the most common native species present
12 141 on the riparian areas of the 10 basins were *A. punctatum*, *Aristotelia chilensis*,
13 142 *Citronella mucronata*, *Cryptocarya alba*, *Lomatia dentata*, *Luma apiculata*, *Chusquea*
14 143 *quilla*, *Boquila trifoliolata*, *Cissus striata*, *Hydrangea serratifolia*, *Lapageria rosea* and
15 144 *Lardizabala biternata*. The most common exotic species were *Rubus ulmifolius*, *Rosa*
16 145 *moschata*, *Prunella vulgaris* and *Rumex acetosella*.

17
18 146 Although the median size of trees is comparable on riparian forest along the streams
19 147 draining basins with native forest and pine plantation, riparian forests in pine plantation
20 148 basins feature lower density of trees, lower diversity of tree species, lower regeneration
21 149 of tree species, and higher richness of exotic species than in watersheds without
22 150 replacement of native forest (Gutierrez & Becerra, submitted).

23
24
25
26 151 The northernmost pair on the Coastal Range is located at the estuary of the River Itata
27 152 (IT). The two basins are approximately 5 km², and are only 5 km apart. The basin with
28 153 native forest (IT-NF) features a deciduous Mediterranean coastal forest but 38% of the
29 154 basin area is covered by almost mature *Pinus radiata*. In the paired basin (IT-PP), the
30 155 forest cover is dominated by pine plantation (75%), and a fourth of this area was bare
31 156 due to a clear-cut that took place two years before the surveys. There is still native
32 157 forest in 25% of the basin, especially in the lower part and along the river network,
33 158 which is quite developed, considering that the stream is an order 4, despite the small
34 159 size of the basin (5 km²).

35
36
37
38 160 The second pair of basins on the Coastal Range is located in the Trongol Valley (TR).
39 161 The native forest in this area (TR-NF) is completely covered by mixed deciduous
40 162 coastal forest. Although there were no visible scars of landslides or debris flows in
41 163 recent aerial and satellite images, field evidence (e.g. typical depositional levees, and
42 164 the presence of large boulders) suggests that debris flows have occurred in the past in
43 165 the main channel. The pair basin (TR-PP) is located 4 km apart from TR-NF, and 60%
44 166 of its area is covered by mature pine plantation.

45
46
47
48 167 On the Andean Range, the southernmost pair of basins is located in the Rio Cato Valley,
49 168 a tributary of the Ñuble River (NI). Some 71% of the surface area of the plantation pair

1
2
3 169 (NI-PP) is covered with pine plantation, 10% of which was clear-cut at the time of the
4
5 170 surveys, mostly in its uppermost part.

6 171 A further pair on the Andean Range is located in the Achibueno Valley (PE). The basins
7
8 172 are around 3 km², are at similar altitudes, and are less than 5 km apart. The native forest
9
10 173 in this area (PE-NF) is completely covered by Andean Mediterranean deciduous forest.
11 174 Its pine plantation counterpart (PE-PP) is planted with *P. radiata* on 66% of its surface,
12
13 175 which had been clear-cut for the first time just a year before this study.

14 176 The basins of the last pair on the Andean Range the basins are approximately 30 km
15
16 177 apart, and the range of elevations differs more than in the other pairs. Around 67% of
17
18 178 the native forest basin (AN-NF) is covered by the Andean Mediterranean deciduous
19
20 179 forest up to 1200 m a.s.l., above which the basin is almost bare. Pine plantations cover
21
22 180 68% of the pair basin (AN-PP), and native forest is concentrated on the highest part of
23
24 181 the basin and along the river network.

25 182

26 183 *2.2. Field data collection*

27
28 184 A segment of at least 370 m of every studied basin was surveyed between November
29
30 185 2013 and February 2015 (see Table 2). Between 6 and 12 reaches were selected at every
31
32 186 basin. The reaches were defined as uniform in terms of slope, channel width, channel
33
34 187 morphology and abundance of in-channel wood. The lengths of the reaches were
35
36 188 generally approximately 10 times the bankfull width (Table 2). Longitudinal profiles
37
38 189 and three cross-sections per reach were surveyed using a laser distance meter with
39
40 190 clinometer and a prisma pole. The cross-sections were measured in order to calculate
41
42 191 the average bankfull width and depth, and the average fluvial corridor width of all the
43
44 192 reaches. The longitudinal profiles were used to count the number of steps and pools and
45
46 193 to calculate the longitudinal area of pools.

47 194 Pieces of wood lying both in the active channel and the adjacent active floodplain were
48
49 195 measured if the diameter was greater than 10 cm and the length was greater than 1 m, as
50
51 196 previously done in similar field studies (e.g. Comiti et al., 2008; Mao et al., 2008;
52
53 197 Iroume et al., 2010; Wohl et al., 2010). Logs lying alone on the bed were classified as
54
55 198 single logs, whereas if two logs were grouped or in contact, they were classified as
56
57 199 jammed. All single logs and logs belonging to jams were measured. The length and
58
59 200 mid-diameter of every log were measured with a tape and a tree caliper, respectively.
60
201 The volume of each log was calculated from its mid-diameter and length, assuming a

202 solid cylindrical shape. The size and volume of rootwads present were measured and the
203 volume was added to the volume of the log.

204 Several other measurements were recorded for each piece of wood during the field
205 survey, including the type of piece (log, rootwad, log with rootwads), tree species
206 (broadleaves vs. conifers), orientation to flow (parallel, orthogonal, oblique), state of
207 decay (fresh, semi-decayed or old log), and position (within or outside the bankfull
208 line). The most probable recruitment mechanism that delivered the log into the channel
209 was determined in the field as landslide, debris flow, bank erosion, natural mortality,
210 artificial cutting, or transported from upstream.

211 Jams were defined following a simplification of the Abbe & Montgomery (2003)
212 classification, which distinguishes autochthonous jams (i.e. key wood elements not
213 fluviially transported from upstream), allochthonous jams (i.e. key elements previously
214 transported from upstream) and combination jams (autochthonous key elements with
215 racked transported pieces). For transversal logs and jams forming a step in the profile,
216 the volume of the downstream pool and the volume of sediment stored upstream were
217 estimated as a solid wedge by measuring their length, width, and depth using a tap
218 measure.

219 At all the studied sites fish was sampled in the summer along a 100m-long reach
220 blocked with nets at the up- and down-stream ends, using a standard double-pass
221 electrofishing technique (HT-2000 Battery Backpack Electrofisher device, Halltech
222 Aquatic Research Inc.). All fish were identified at the species level, measured for total
223 length, and weighed before being returned to the river.

224

225 3. Results

226

227 3.1. Dimensions and type of log pieces in the studied rivers

228 The average diameters of in-channel logs ranged from 10 to 25 cm, while the maximum
229 diameters range from 15 to 80 cm (Figure 2). Taking average diameter into
230 consideration for comparing native forest- and pine plantation-dominated basins, a F-
231 test confirms that the average diameter was significantly greater in native forest basins
232 in the AN and NI pairs, while the maximum diameter was significantly coarser in the
233 native forest basins of the TR, AN, and NI pairs (Figure 2, Table 3).

234 In-channel logs were generally longer in basins where pine plantations predominate.

235 Figure 2 shows that the average length of logs surveyed in the studied rivers ranged

1
2
3 236 from 2 to 4 m, and the average length of logs in basins with pine plantation was greater
4
5 237 than those from natural forest basins (statistically significant differences in pairs IT and
6
7 238 TR, Table 3). If we take into consideration the longer logs surveyed at the studied
8
9 239 reaches, pine plantations basins had significantly longer logs only in the pairs IT and PE
10
11 240 (Figure 2, Table 3). However, in all but one case, the longest logs per reach (generally
12
13 241 between 5 and 20 m long) were always pine species, and the longest log surveyed was a
14
15 242 pine species of over 30 m in the PE-PP channel.

16
17 243 With the exception of AN, the percentage of pine logs was higher in basins with pine
18
19 244 plantation (Figure 3; Table 3). This is especially true for the IT pair, where in the pine
20
21 245 plantation basin more than 80% of the in-channel logs were conifers (more rounded and
22
23 246 straight than native species, and with smaller branches). Figure 3 also shows that logs in
24
25 247 native forest basins were in a poorer state of conservation in three of the five study pairs
26
27 248 (AN, PE, and NI).

28
29 249

30 250 *3.2. Volumes, abundance, and degree of accumulation of logs in the studied rivers*

31
32 251 Figure 4 shows the volume of large wood surveyed in the studied sites. To compare
33
34 252 reaches of different lengths and widths, volumes are expressed in terms of channel area
35
36 253 units (length and bankfull width of the reach). The volumes of wood at the studied
37
38 254 reaches varied by a magnitude of two orders, ranging from 6 m³ ha⁻¹ in a reach of the IT
39
40 255 native forest basin to 1780 m³ ha⁻¹ in a reach of the TR native forest basin. The volume
41
42 256 of logs does not appear to depend on the location of the basins (Coastal vs. Andean
43
44 257 Range), but in three of the five pairs (TR, PE and NI) LW volumes in streams draining
45
46 258 native basins were nearly double that in the pine plantation basins (Table 3). However,
47
48 259 LW volumes were significantly higher in the pine plantation basin of the IT pair (Table
49
50 260 3).

51
52 261 Volumes of wood in the studied sites can be compared to other evidence gathered in
53
54 262 Chilean streams over the last decade. In particular, data on volumes of in-channel wood
55
56 263 are available for five other basins comparable to the studied sites: Tres Arroyos (9 km²,
57
58 264 64% with native forest; see Andreoli et al. 2007 and Comiti et al., 2008), El Toro (17.5
59
60 265 km²; 100% with native forest, see Andreoli et al., 2007), Vueltas de Zorra (in the
266
267 266 Coastal Range, 5.87 km², 75% with native forest; see Iroumé et al., 2011 and Ulloa et
268
269 267 al., 2011), Pichun (a pine plantation basin of 4.3 km² in the Coastal Range; see Iroumé
270
271 268 et al., 2011 and Ulloa et al., 2011), and Milico basin, (in the Andean Range, 1.5 km²,
272
273 269 40% with native forest, being the rest above the timberline; Gomez, 2013). Figure 5

1
2
3 270 shows that in small mountain basins ($< 15 \text{ km}^2$) in-channel volumes of large wood can
4 271 vary by three orders of magnitude, ranging from 10 to $1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$, with a weak
5 272 tendency toward a reduction of large wood storage with greater basin area ($R = -0.12$; p
6 273 > 0.66). Basins with dominant forest cover tend to feature higher volumes of LW (F test
7 274 $= 1.855$; $p = 0.19$). However, basins with a higher percentage of native forest do not
8 275 necessarily have higher volumes of LW, as volumes can vary quite dramatically (two
9 276 orders of magnitude) even in basins with pure pine plantation.

10 277 There were no significant differences in single log volumes between the native forest
11 278 and pine plantation forest pairs at any of the five sites (Figure 4, Table 3). As well, no
12 279 significant differences between native and pine plantation basins were found in terms of
13 280 volumes of jammed logs, and significantly higher volumes of jammed LW were only
14 281 found in the NI native forest.

15 282 Because LW volumes depend on both the number and dimension of logs, it is worth
16 283 considering the number of logs and jams. Figure 6 shows that there were no significant
17 284 differences between native forest and pine plantation basins in terms of the number of
18 285 isolated logs, except for the TR basin (Table 3). The only site with a significant
19 286 difference in the number of log jams was AN, where the number of log jams was higher
20 287 in the plantation forest site.

21 288 Figure 7 shows the percentage of logs recruited from the banks/slopes or from upstream
22 289 reaches (i.e. floated by previous flood events). It appears that in the IT, TR, and NI
23 290 pairs, a higher percentage of the logs were most likely to have been transported in
24 291 streams draining native forest basins than from the plantation forest basins. Figure 7
25 292 also shows that in four of the five pairs, logs in native forest basins tend to be more
26 293 parallel than those in pine plantation basins (statically significant differences were
27 294 found for the IT and AN pairs; Table 3).

28 295 Figure 8 shows that jams tended to be more autochthonous in pine plantation basins in
29 296 the AN, NI, and TR pairs, but this difference was statistically significant only for NI. As
30 297 to the orientation of jams, Figure 8 shows that logs tended to accumulate in a direction
31 298 parallel to the flow in native forest basins of the TR, AN, and PE pairs (the difference is
32 299 statistically significant only for AN; Table 3).

33 300

34 301 *3.3. Eco-morphological effects of in-channel logs*

35 302 In the studied sites, no clear evidence of differences were observed between streams
36 303 draining native forests or pine plantations in terms of the number or dimensions of steps

1
2
3 304 and pools. Retention of sediments due to jams was not significantly different in native
4 305 forest vs. pine plantation basins. Indeed, Figure 9 shows that the ratio between the
5 306 volume of trapped sediments and the volume of jammed logs is between 1 and 3, with
6 307 no significant differences among basins, except for TR. The remarkable value (around
7 308 7) obtained for the native forest basin of the TR pair is due to the massive amount of
8 309 sediments coming from debris flows and trapped by jams.

9
10 310 A total of three fish species were encountered in all ten watersheds, namely rainbow
11 311 trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), and the Chilean catfish
12 312 (*Nematogenys inermis*). Two of the three species were encountered in all watersheds,
13 313 except for Las Arañas (TR-NF), where no fish were found. Rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*)
14 314 were found in all sites except TR-NF, brown trout (*S. trutta*) were encountered in six
15 315 sites (IT-NF, NI-NF, NI-PP, PE-NF, PE-PP, and TR-PP), and Chilean catfish (*N.*
16 316 *inermis*) were found in two sites (AN-PP and IT-PP). If the fish biomass per unit effort
17 317 (BPUE: g 250 m⁻²) is considered, a total of 1250.7 g of fish per 250 m⁻² of stream were
18 318 found in native forest streams, whereas 1088.8 g of fish per 250 m⁻² of stream were
19 319 found in pine plantation streams (Figure 10). The difference in biomass (161.9) is not
20 320 significant (two-sample t-test = 0.42; p = 0.69) between the two land uses. In assessing
21 321 the associations between fish BPUE and LW volumes, sites TR-NF and NI-PP were
22 322 both excluded as outliers. The volume of large in-channel LW did not correlate
23 323 significantly with the number of species or BPUE in any of the watersheds, regardless
24 324 of dominant land use. Only two factors appear to be significantly related to fish BPUE,
25 325 namely maximum log diameter (F=7.57, P=0.03, R²=0.58) and maximum log length
26 326 (F=3.75, P=0.10, R²=0.42) (Figure 10).

27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

328 4. Discussion

43
44
45
46

330 4.1. Dimensions and type of log pieces in native forest vs. pine plantation basins

331 The results of the comparative analysis of paired native forest vs. pine plantation basins
332 suggest that pieces of large in-channel wood tend to have larger diameters in the native
333 forest basins. This can be related to the fact that native forest basins naturally tend to
334 feature older and coarser plants that are unlikely to be left growing in basins with pine
335 plantations. Indeed, in four of the pairs the mean diameter of standing trees on the
336 slopes is larger in the native forest than in the pine plantation basins. Even if the riparian
337 area is left untouched, it is generally less likely to include very old and large plants in

1
2
3 338 close proximity to the channel (due to higher frequency of flood disturbances) rather
4 339 than on the slopes. In fact, in four of the pairs the mean diameter of trees growing in the
5 340 riparian area is larger in the native forest than in the pine plantation basins. On the other
6 341 hand, in-channel logs tend to be longer in basins with pine plantation. This is probably
7 342 due to the fact that many pine logs are recruited from the slopes or after clearcutting
8 343 (many pine logs were artificially cut), and were therefore generally longer than native
9 344 species, and in a better state of conservation. There was generally a higher percentage of
10 345 in-channel logs in a poor state of conservation in native forest basins (i.e. without
11 346 branches and bark, and with porous/rotted wood), which makes it easier for the flow to
12 347 break up longer logs during floods. In support of this observation, field evidence
13 348 suggest that at least in three of the five pairs, logs are predominantly transported from
14 349 upstream reaches in native forest basins, whereas in pine plantation basins logs were
15 350 recruited more from banks and slopes than transported from upstream. There is no clear
16 351 explanation as to why the AN and PE pairs feature more floated logs in the pine
17 352 plantation basins, but at least for the AN pair this could be due to the generally smaller
18 353 dimensions of logs in the pine plantation basin.

19 354 Overall, there are weak indications that logs tend to be more parallel to the flow (i.e.
20 355 logs have been transported from upstream, e.g. Francis, 2007) in native forest basins,
21 356 while logs in pine plantation basins tend to be more oblique or perpendicular to the
22 357 flow, indicating that they have been in the channel for less time and are close to the
23 358 point of recruitment from the banks or slopes. However, the results obtained in our field
24 359 investigation do not provide unequivocal evidence that there were more transport or
25 360 combination jams in native forest basins, and that log jams were not predominantly
26 361 oriented parallel to the flow in native forest basins, as one might expect if logs were
27 362 relatively smaller and more mobile in native forest basins. Beside, the presence of
28 363 complex branches in broadleaf species of native forest basins could reduce the mobility
29 364 of logs if compared with conifers (Dixon and Sear, 2014).

30 365 Results show that there were no significant differences between native forest and pine
31 366 plantation basins in terms of volumes of jammed logs or the number of log jams. The
32 367 number of log jams per ha of stream ranged from 0 to more than 200, and significant
33 368 differences could be identified among pairs. In AN, the very low number of jams in the
34 369 native forest basins could be caused by the higher discharges (due to the larger basin
35 370 area) and more likely by the wider bankfull, which reduces the chances of large logs
36 371 being trapped by the banks and creating jams (as logs tend to be more mobile at

1
2
3 372 smaller piece length/channel width ratios, e.g. Bocchiola et al., 2006; Dixon & Sear,
4 373 2014). The considerably higher number of jams in both TR pair basins (around 100
5 374 jams/ha; i.e. around 80 jams/km) helps explain the high LW volumes in both, even
6 375 though log diameter and length were comparable to those in the other studied pairs. This
7 376 high longitudinal frequency of jams is due to high recruitment of logs and to the
8 377 presence of potential “trapping” sites. Montgomery et al. (2003), the number of logs per
9 378 unit of channel length decreases with increasing basin area, and has been reported to be
10 379 as high as 400 jams/km. The very high number and volumes of LW elements could be
11 380 related to the fact that the two TR basins are the smallest among the selected pairs.
12 381 Following the conceptual model of longitudinal distribution of wood proposed by Wohl
13 382 & Jaeger (2009), higher LW volumes are likely to be found in narrower and steeper
14 383 streams, and LW volumes tend to decrease downstream. Wohl & Jaeger’s (2009) model
15 384 also suggests that the percentage of jammed wood increases with drainage area and
16 385 channel width due to the higher capacity of logs to be transported. The fact that the TR
17 386 pair featured the highest number of jams may thus be related to an unlimited transport
18 387 capacity condition due to extreme events such as debris flows that transport large
19 388 amounts of sediments and logs. This seems especially true for the native forest TR
20 389 basin, where some reaches were depleted of logs while others had large debris jams
21 390 (*sensu* Abbe & Montgomery, 2003). As expected, the percentage of floated logs reached
22 391 80% of the total number of logs in the native basin of the TR pair, which is affected by
23 392 debris flows.

37
38 393

39 394 *4.2 Volumes of logs in native forest vs. pine plantation basins*

40 395 Results from the studied basins showed that LW volumes varied considerably among
41 396 basins and sites and by more than two orders of magnitude among reaches (from 1.8 to
42 397 639 m³/ha in two reaches of the IT PP basin). Indeed, as previously demonstrated, the
43 398 volume of logs in a river can vary dramatically among reaches depending on the local
44 399 slope and width (e.g. Wohl & Jaeger, 2009) or the location of log recruitment points
45 400 (e.g. Comiti et al., 2006). However, if volumes are averaged among reaches, evidence
46 401 from the field indicates that native forest basins had larger volumes than pine plantation
47 402 basins. This is true for at least three of the five pairs of basins (NI, PE, TR). Exploring
48 403 the reasons this did not hold in the other two pairs (AN and IT) could shed light on the
49 404 processes involved in determining these differences in volumes.

1
2
3 405 The AN basin covered with native forest is the highest, largest and steepest of the
4 406 studied sites, and almost half of it is above the timberline. Here the LW volume was
5 407 small, probably due to frequent high magnitude floods, and especially to the lower log
6 408 length to channel width ratio. The AN pine plantation basin featured a wider riparian
7 409 area along the studied reaches (more than 60 m), and this seemed wide enough to isolate
8 410 the channel from the processes and land use changes occurring at the basin scale. In
9 411 fact, even if the pine plantation was close to the studied reach (less than 20 m from the
10 412 riparian buffer and less than 40 m from the upper part of the studied reach), no conifers
11 413 or chainsaw-cut pieces were found in the AN pine plantation basin.

12 414 As in the AN pair, the native forest covered basin of the IT pair feature less in-channel
13 415 wood. In this case, the pine plantation is also very close to the studied reach, but more
14 416 importantly the riparian buffer along the reach is as narrow as 20 m (one of the
15 417 narrowest among the studied sites), and the clear-cutting of the pine plantation occurred
16 418 mostly in 2013, thus dramatically increasing recruitment from the slopes. This is
17 419 corroborated by the observation that nearly 90% of in-channel logs were pine and most
18 420 of them appeared cut by chainsaw. A further indication that the proximity and
19 421 connectivity of pine plantation patches to the main channel is important in determining
20 422 the presence of in-channel pine logs is provided by the native forest basin of the TR
21 423 pair, where the percentage of pine plantation is very low (i.e. only 1% of the basin area),
22 424 but conifers represent almost 18% of the in-channel logs as the patch of pine plantation
23 425 is close to the studied reach (around 25 m).

24 426 Results show that volumes of large wood in the mountain basins of the Andean and
25 427 Coastal ranges of Chile tend to be smaller on streams draining larger basins. Higher
26 428 volumes of large wood in headwater streams have been related in literature with the fact
27 429 that logs are only occasionally transported as they have high length to channel width
28 430 and diameter to water depth ratios, limiting their mobility (e.g. Baillie et al., 2008; Wohl
29 431 & Jaeger, 2009). Volumes of large wood in small forested basins of Chile range from 10
30 432 to 1000 m³ ha⁻¹, with an average value or around 100 m³ ha⁻¹ for basins of 5 km², being
31 433 the Tres Arroyos an outlier with more than 1000 m³ ha⁻¹ (Andreoli et al., 2007). This
32 434 range of volumes is lower than values reported for the Pacific Northwest (Nakamura &
33 435 Swanson, 1993; Czarnomski et al., 2008) or Colorado (Jackson & Wohl, 2015), but are
34 436 similar to other unmanaged mature hardwood forests (e.g. Gurnell, 2003), and higher
35 437 than managed basins in the Europe, which feature volumes < 100 m³ ha⁻¹ (e.g. Comiti et
36 438 al., 2006, Diez et al., 2001).

1
2
3 4394 440 4.3 *Eco-morphological effects of in-channel logs in native forest vs. pine plantation*5 441 *basins*

6
7
8 442 Regarding the morphological effects of wood, no clear evidence has been found of
9
10 443 significant differences between native forest and pine plantation basins, either in terms
11 444 of pool formation or sediment retention. There are only a few examples in the literature
12 445 of direct comparison of large pieces of in-channel wood in basins with different land
13 446 uses, the most interesting being a study comparing large wood volumes and
14 447 morphological effects on native forest and pine plantation streams in the Nelson Region
15 448 of New Zealand (Baillie & Davies, 2002). Baillie & Davies (2002) found that logs were
16 449 relatively shorter and had a more parallel orientation to the flow in native forest basins,
17 450 due to the fact that pieces has more time to break down and be transported fluvially.
18 451 They found higher volumes of LW in pine plantation basins, but logs in native forest
19 452 exerted significantly more morphological effects, especially creating more numerous
20 453 and deeper pools. This is related to the fact that *P. radiata* wood is generally more
21 454 degradable than that of *Nothofagus* species. However, the morphological effects of in-
22 455 channel logs do not necessarily depend only on the large wood volume, as the slope and
23 456 width of the channel and the size of sediments are also important. For example, Scott et
24 457 al. (2014) recently showed that the height of log steps strongly depends on the size of
25 458 sediments in the channel, demonstrating that logs in second-growth basins can form log
26 459 steps high enough to exert morphological influences on the channel comparable to old
27 460 growth forest basins if coarse sediments are available in the channel. Jackson & Wohl
28 461 (2015) also showed that that streams draining old-growth forests feature higher volumes
29 462 of in-channel wood and more and larger jams. Even if un our study we could not
30 463 compare unmanaged vs. managed forests of the same type native trees are not used for
31 464 artificial plantations for commercial use in Chile, the main findings of the present study
32 465 are also corroborated by the study of Benda & Bigelow (2014) of different practices of
33 466 forest management in small mountain basins of northern California. They showed that
34 467 forest management influences stream wood dynamics, logs being smaller and less
35 468 abundant in managed forests. Because in our study the native forest were always
36 469 unmanaged, in

37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
470 In terms of the fish populations in the studied basins, there appears to be little difference
471 between dominant land use and fish biomass in the studied Chilean headwater systems.
472 The total number of species in any given sampled headwater was necessarily low, due

1
2
3 473 to relatively limited available habitat, the relatively low level of diversity in Chilean
4 474 rivers (e.g. Dyer, 2000; Habit et al., 2006), and the invasive role that trout play in
5 475 Chilean streams (Habit et al., 2010).

6
7
8 476 Because the pairs of basins lied at approximately the same elevations and have
9 477 comparable slope, size, and order, the dominant physical conditions affecting fish
10 478 species presences are likely to be very similar. As well, riparian vegetation along the
11 479 streams is at least 20 m wide, providing heavy shading to the watercourses, meaning
12 480 that the waterways experienced very little heat gain in both pine plantation and native
13 481 forest basins, providing both with low and stable water temperatures. Thus, although
14 482 differences in forest cover at the basin scale are likely to change the allochthonous
15 483 energy sources between native forests and pine plantations, this is not reflected in
16 484 statistically significant differences in the amount of fish biomass, number and diversity
17 485 of fish between native and pine plantation basins within the studied sites.

18 486

19 487 *4.4 Management implications*

20 488 Among other authors, Whiles & Wallace (1997) have shown that converting native
21 489 forest to an exotic monoculture can influence benthic taxonomic composition. For
22 490 instance, in low-order streams in central Chile, Mancilla et al. (2009) found
23 491 significantly higher diversity of macroinvertebrates in channels draining basins with
24 492 native vegetation than in basins with exotic species. Similarly, studying mountain
25 493 streams of Argentinian Patagonia, Miserendino & Masi (2010) found that shredders
26 494 were more abundant in native forest rather than in pine plantation basins, and
27 495 Valdovinos (2001) found more shredders in native forest than in *P. radiata* basins in
28 496 Chilean streams. Martinez et al. (2013) found lower densities of shredders in streams of
29 497 the Cordillera Cantábrica (Spain) where native vegetation had been replaced by pine
30 498 plantation. However, all these studies stress the importance of riparian vegetation along
31 499 the river network, which can buffer the effects of land use changes at the basin scale,
32 500 especially by providing coarse particulate organic matter to the streams, including large
33 501 wood.

34 502 Studying wood recruitment and transport processes in small forested mountain basins of
35 503 California, Benda & Bigelow (2014) found that most wood recruitment occurs in a
36 504 buffer narrower than 50 m along channels, and that landslides can extend the main
37 505 source distance. Jensen et al. (2014) also showed that the volume of wood in small
38 506 streams (< 30 km²) of the Upper Little Tennessee River strongly depends on the type

1
2
3 507 and dimension of trees in the riparian area. They further suggested that the 10-m-wide
4 508 buffer around reaches is the most important source of wood recruitment. Other authors
5 509 (Diez et al., 2001; Roth et al., 1996) have recommended wider buffers (20 to 30 m) in
6 510 order to allow abundant recruitment of large and coarse logs to rivers.

7
8
9 511 Current Chilean legislation recognizes the importance of protecting riparian areas in
10 512 order to preserve the multiple ecosystem services they provide. Romero et al. (2014)
11 513 noted that references to the protection of riparian vegetation in Chilean legislation date
12 514 back to 1931 (e.g. Pellet et al. 2005). However, legislation on this topic is now
13 515 abundant, but fragmented, and lacking coherence (Romero et al., 2014). Current riparian
14 516 conservation regulations for plantations of *Eucalyptus* spp. and *Pinus radiata* D. Don
15 517 require a buffer of 25 m on both sides of the channel. The width of this protected area
16 518 for rivers in forested areas is 30 and 15 m on both sides for permanent and intermittent
17 519 rivers, respectively (Gayoso & Gayoso, 2003; Pellet et al. 2005). This buffer extends to
18 520 200 m for steep basins with risks of slope instabilities. Still, it is possible to better
19 521 define these buffers and to specify standards for restoring riparian areas (Romero et al.,
20 522 2014). As well, there is no legislation regulating the removal of logs from channels.
21 523 Evidence suggests that maintaining a wide riparian forest is crucial for maintaining
22 524 positive ecological functions of channels and for allowing abundant recruitment of large
23 525 woody elements of native species that can exert strong geomorphic influence on
24 526 channels. Accordingly, snag removal should be discouraged, especially from small
25 527 streams that supply wood to downstream reaches, and where transport of potentially
26 528 risky large elements is less likely due to the high ratios between log diameter and water
27 529 depth and between log length and channel width (see Gurnell et al., 2002; Ulloa et al.,
28 530 2011). Indeed, as reported by Mao et al (2013), log removal and riparian vegetation
29 531 clear cuts are not effective strategies for reducing hazards since high-magnitude events
30 532 are able to recruit trees from hillslopes due to mass wasting processes (Lucía et al.,
31 533 2015). A valuable alternative is wood retention measures such as rope net barriers and
32 534 filter dams (e.g. Mao et al., 2013) to protect sensitive local infrastructure.

33 535

34 536 **5 Final remarks**

35 537

36 538 This paper presents novel evidence gathered from field surveys in five pairs of basins in
37 539 Chile on how land use changes, and in particular the substitution of native forest by pine
38 540 plantation, can affect the volume and degree of organization of large wood in the

1
2
3 541 streams draining these basins. The results show that in streams draining native forest
4 542 basins, logs tend to be coarser and shorter, and tend to be oriented parallel to the flow as
5 543 they are more easily transported. Volumes of in-channel wood tend to be higher in
6 544 native forest basins. However, although streams in native forest basins tend to feature
7 545 more jams, no significant differences were detected in terms of the number or
8 546 dimension of pools, or volumes of trapped sediments. As well, fish species and biomass
9 547 were not significantly different from those in streams draining pine plantation basins.

14 548 **Acknowledgments**

16 549
17
18 550 We thank Joaquin Lobato, Claudio Gomez, Ernesto Cobo, and Jose Donoso for helping
19 551 in the field. We also thank Victoria Madrid for helping assess watershed-based variables
20 552 through GIS. This research was undertaken under the project USA2012-0011 “Effect of
21 553 native forest replacement by pine plantations on biodiversity and ecosystem processes
22 554 of Andean riparian and riverine habitats in the south of Chile” funded by Conicyt. We
23 555 thank Forestal Arauco and private landowners for their support and for allowing access
24 556 to their properties.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

557

558 **References**

559

560 Abbe TB, Montgomery DR. 2003. Patterns and processes of wood debris accumulation

561 in the Queets river basin, Washington. *Geomorphology* 51, 81-107.

562 Abbe T, Pess G, Montgomery DR, Fetherston KL. 2003. 17. Integrating Engineered

563 Log Jam Technology into River Rehabilitation. *Restoration of Puget Sound*564 *Rivers*, 443.

565 Andreoli A, Comiti F, Lenzi MA. 2007. Characteristic, distribution and geomorphic

566 role of large woody debris in a mountain stream of the Chilean Andes. *Earth*567 *Surface Processes and Landforms* 32, 1675-1692.568 Arevalo JR, Fernández-Palacios JM. 2005. Gradient analysis of exotic *Pinus radiata*

569 plantations and potential restoration of natural vegetation in Tenerife, Canary

570 Islands (Spain). *Acta Oecologica* 27, 1-8.

571 Baillie BR, Davies TR. 2002. Influence of large woody debris on channel morphology

572 in native forest and pine plantation streams in the Nelson region, New Zealand.

573 *New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research* 36, 763-774.

574 Baillie BR, Garrett LG, Evanson AW. 2008. Spatial distribution and influence of large

575 woody debris in an old-growth forest river system. New Zealand. *Forest*576 *Ecology and Management* 256, 20-27.

577 Beckman ND, Wohl EE. 2014. Effects of forest stand age on the characteristics of

578 logjams in mountainous forest streams. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*

579 39, 1421-1431.

580 Benda L, Bigelow P. 2014. On the patterns and processes of wood in northern

581 California streams. *Geomorphology* 209, 79-97.582 Benda L, Sias J. 2003. A quantitative framework for evaluating the wood budget. *Forest*583 *Ecology and Management* 172, 1-16.

584 Bocchiola D, Rulli MC, Rosso R. 2006. Flume experiments on wood entrainment in

585 rivers. *Advances in Water Resources* 29(8), 1182-1195.

586 Brockerhoff EG, Ecroyd C, Leckie AC, Kimberley MO. 2003. Diversity and succession

587 of adventive and indigenous vascular understory plants in *Pinus radiata*588 plantation forests in New Zealand. *Forest Ecology and Management* 185, 307-

589 326.

590 Burrows RM, Magierowski RH, Fellman JB, Barmuta LA. 2012. Woody debris input

591 and function in old-growth and clear-felled headwater streams. *Forest Ecology*592 *and Management* 286, 73-80.

593 Cadol D, Wohl E. 2013. Variable contribution of wood to the hydraulic resistance of

594 headwater tropical streams. *Water Resources Research* 49, 4711-4723.

595 Czarnomski NM, Dreher DM, Snyder KU, Jones JA, Swanson FJ. 2008. Dynamics of

596 wood in stream networks of the western Cascades Range, Oregon. *Canadian*597 *Journal of Forest Resources* 38: 2236-2248.

598 Comiti F, Andreoli A, Lenzi MA, Mao L. 2006. Spatial density and characteristics of

599 woody debris in five mountain rivers of the Dolomites (Italian Alps).

600 *Geomorphology* 78, 44-63.

601 Comiti F, Andreoli A, Mao L, Lenzi MA. 2008. Wood storage in three mountain

602 streams of the Southern Andes and its hydro-morphological effects. *Earth*603 *Surface Processes and Landforms* 33, 244-262.

604 Cordova JM, Rosi-Marshall EJ, Yamamuro AM, Lamberti GA. 2007. Quantity,

605 controls, and functions of large woody debris in Midwestern USA streams.

606 *River Res. Applic.* 23, 21-33.

- 1
2
3 607 Davies PE, Nelson M 1994. Relationships between riparian buffer widths and the
4 608 effects of logging on stream habitat, invertebrate community composition and
5 609 fish abundance. *Australian Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research* 45(7):
6 610 1289-1305.
- 7 611 Diez JR, Elozegi A, Pozo J. 2001. Woody debris in North Iberian streams: Influence of
8 612 geomorphology, vegetation, and management. *Environmental Management* 28,
9 613 687-698.
- 10 614 Dixon SJ, Sear DA. 2014. The influence of geomorphology on large wood dynamics in
11 615 a low gradient headwater stream. *Water Resources Research* 50, 9194-9210,
12 616 doi:10.1002/2012WR013085.
- 13 617 Donoso C, Lara A. 1995. Utilización de los bosques nativos en Chile: pasado, presente
14 618 y futuro, in: Armesto, J., Villagrán, C., Kalin, M.T. (Eds), *Ecología de los*
15 619 *bosques nativos de Chile*. Editorial Universitaria, Chile, pp. 367-387.
- 16 620 Dyer B. 2000. Systematic review and biogeography of the freshwater fishes of Chile.
17 621 *Estudios Oceanológicos* 19, 77-98.
- 18 622 Francis RA. 2007. Size and position matter: riparian plant establishment from fluvially
19 623 deposited trees. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms* 32, 1239-1243.
- 20 624 Gajardo R. 1994. La vegetación natural de Chile. Clasificación y distribución
21 625 geográfica. Santiago (Chile): Editorial Universitaria. p. 163.
- 22 626 Gayoso J, Gayoso S. 2003. Diseño de zonas ribereñas: Requerimientos de un ancho
23 627 mínimo. Valdivia, Chile. Universidad Austral de Chile. Facultad de Ciencias
24 628 Forestales. 12 p.
- 25 629 Gerhard M, Reich M, 2000. Restoration of streams with large wood: Effects of
26 630 accumulated and built-in wood on channel morphology, habitat diversity and
27 631 aquatic fauna. *Internat. Rev. Hydrobiol.* 85, 123-137.
- 28 632 Gomez C. 2013. Material leñoso en arroyos andinos de alta pendiente. Ms.C thesis,
29 633 Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, 43 pp.
- 30 634 Gurnell AM. 2003. Wood storage and mobility. In *The ecology and management of*
31 635 *wood in world rivers* Edited by Gregory SV, Boyer KL, Gurnell AM, American
32 636 Fisheries Society Symposium 37, Bethesda, Maryland. pp. 75-91.
- 33 637 Gurnell AM, Piegay H, Swanson FJ, Gregory SV. 2002. Large wood and fluvial
34 638 processes. *Freshwater Biology* 47, 601-619.
- 35 639 Gutierrez I, Becerra P. Effect of native forest replacement by *Pinus radiata* plantations
36 640 on plant communities of riparian vegetation in South – Central Chile. Under
37 641 review at *Plant Ecology and Diversity*.
- 38 642 Habit E, Dyer B, Vila I. 2006. Estado de conocimiento de los peces dulceacuícolas de
39 643 Chile. *Gayana* 70(1), 100-113.
- 40 644 Habit E, Piedra P, Ruzzante DE, Walde SJ, Belk MC, Cussac VE, Gonzalez J, Colin N.
41 645 2010. Changes in the distribution of native fishes in response to introduced
42 646 species and other anthropogenic effects. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 19,
43 647 697-710.
- 44 648 Hassan MA, Hogan DL, Bird SA, May CL, Gomi T, Campbell D. 2005. Spatial and
45 649 temporal dynamics of wood in headwater streams of the Pacific Northwest. *J.*
46 650 *Am. Water Resour. As.* 41, 899-919.
- 47 651 INFOR. 2009. Inventario de bosques plantados por especie según región
48 652 acumulado a diciembre de 2009. Available at www.infor.cl.
- 49 653 Iroumé A, Andreoli A, Comiti F, Ulloa H, Huber A. 2010. Large wood abundance,
50 654 distribution and mobilization in a third order Coastal mountain range river
51 655 system, southern Chile. *Forest Ecology and Management* 260, 480-490.

- 1
2
3 656 Iroumé A, Mao L, Andreoli A, Ulloa H, Ardiles MP. 2015. Large wood mobility
4 657 processes in low-order Chilean river channels. *Geomorphology* 228, 681-693.
5 658 Iroumé A, Mao L, Ulloa H, Ruz C, Andreoli A. 2014. Large wood volume and
6 659 longitudinal distribution in channel segments draining catchments with different
7 660 land use, Chile. *Open Journal of Modern Hydrology* 4, 57-66.
8 661 Iroumé A, Ulloa H, Lenzi MA, Andreoli A, Gallo C. 2011. In-stream large wood
9 662 mobility and recruitment in two channels in the Coastal Mountain Range, Chile.
10 663 *Bosque* 32(3), 247-254.
11 664 Jackson CR, Sturm CA. 2002. Woody debris and channel morphology in first- and
12 665 second-order forested channels in Washington's Coast Ranges. *Water Resources*
13 666 *Research* 38, 16-14.
14 667 Jackson KJ, Wohl EE. 2015. Instream wood loads in montane forest streams of the
15 668 Colorado Front Range, USA. *Geomorphology* 234, 161-170.
16 669 Lee P, Smyth C, Boutin, S 2004. Quantitative review of riparian buffer width guidelines
17 670 from Canada and the United States. *Journal of Environmental Management*
18 671 **70(2)**: 165-180.
19 672 Jeffries R, Darby SE, Sear DA. 2003. The influence of vegetation and organic debris on
20 673 flood-plain sediment dynamics: case study of a low-order stream in the New
21 674 Forest, England. *Geomorphology* 51, 61-80.
22 675 Jensen KC, Leigh DS, Jackson CR. 2014. Scales and arrangements of large wood in
23 676 first- through fifth-order streams of the Blue Ridge Mountains. *Physical*
24 677 *Geography* 35(6), 532-560.
25 678 Lindenmayer DB, McCarthy MA, Parris KM, Pope ML. 2000 Habitat Fragmentation,
26 679 Landscape Context and Mammalian Assemblages in Southeastern Australia. *J.*
27 680 *Mammal.* 81, 787-797.
28 681 Lucía A, Comiti F, Borga M, Cavalli M, Marchi L. 2015. Dynamics of large wood
29 682 during a flash flood in two mountain catchments. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*
30 683 **15**, 1741-1755.
31 684 Mancilla G, Valdovinos C, Azocar M, Jorquera P, Figueroa R. 2009. Efecto del
32 685 reemplazo de la vegetación nativa de ribera sobre la comunidad de
33 686 macroinvertebrados bentónicos en arroyos de climas templados, Chile central.
34 687 *Hidrobiológica* 19(3), 193-203.
35 688 Mao L, Andreoli A, Comiti F, Lenzi MA. 2008. Geomorphic effects of large wood jams
36 689 on a sub-Antarctic mountain stream. *River Research and Applications* **24(3)**:
37 690 249-266.
38 691 Mao L, Andreoli A, Iroumé A, Comiti F, Lenzi MA. 2013. Dynamics and management
39 692 alternatives of in-channel large wood in mountain basins of the southern Andes.
40 693 *Bosque* **34(3)**: 319-330.
41 694 Marcus WA, Marston RA, Colvard CR, Gray RD. 2002. Mapping the spatial and
42 695 temporal distributions of woody debris in streams of the Greater Yellowstone
43 696 Ecosystem, USA. *Geomorphology* **44**: 323-335.
44 697 Martínez A, Larrañaga A, Pérez J, Descals E, Basaguren A, Pozo J. 2013. Effects of
45 698 pine plantations on structural and functional attributes of forested streams.
46 699 *Forest Ecology and Management* **310**: 147-155.
47 700 Mazzorana B, Hübl J, Zischg A, Largiader A. 2010. Modelling woody material
48 701 transport and deposition in alpine rivers. *Natural Hazards* **56**: 425-449.
49 702 Mazzorana B, Zischg A, Largiader A, Hübl J. 2009. Hazard index maps for woody
50 703 material recruitment and transport in alpine catchments. *Natural Hazards and*
51 704 *Earth System Science* **9**: 197-209.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 705 Merten E, Finlay J, Johnson L, Newman R, Stefan H, Vondracek B. 2010. Factors
4 706 influencing wood mobilization in streams. *Water Resources Research* **46**:
5 707 W10514.
- 6 708 Miserendino ML, Masi CI. 2010. The effects of land use on environmental features and
7 709 functional organization of macroinvertebrate communities in Patagonian low
8 710 order streams. *Ecological Indicators* **10**: 311-319.
- 9 711 Montgomery DR, Collins BD, Buffington JM, Abbe TB. 2003. Geomorphic effects of
10 712 wood in rivers. In *The ecology and management of wood in world rivers* Edited
11 713 by Gregory SV, Boyer KL, Gurnell AM, American Fisheries Society
12 714 Symposium 37, Bethesda, Maryland. pp. 21-48.
- 13 715 Nakamura F, Swanson FJ. 1993. Effects of coarse woody debris on morphology and
14 716 sediment storage of a mountain stream system in Western Oregon. *Earth*
15 717 *Surface Processes and Landforms* **18**: 43-61.
- 16 718 Pellet P, Ugarte E, Osorio E, Herrera F. 2005. Conservación de la biodiversidad en
17 719 Chile, ¿Legalmente suficiente? La necesidad de cartografiar la ley antes de
18 720 decidir. *Revista Chilena de Historia Natural* **78**: 125-14.
- 19 721 Rigon E, Comiti F, Lenzi MA. 2012. Large Wood Storage in Streams of the Eastern
20 722 Italian Alps and the Relevance of Hillslope Processes. *Water Resources*
21 723 *Research* **48**: 1-18.
- 22 724 Romero FI, Cozano MA, Gangas RA, Naulin PI. 2014. Zonas ribereñas: protección,
23 725 restauración y contexto legal en Chile. *Bosque* **35**(1): 3-12.
- 24 726 Rosenfeld JS, Huato L. 2003. Relationship between large woody debris characteristics
25 727 and pool formation in small coastal British Columbia streams. *North American*
26 728 *Journal of Fisheries Management* **23**(3): 928-938.
- 27 729 Roth NE, Allan JD, Erickson DL. 1996. Landscape influences on stream biotic integrity
28 730 assessed at multiple spatial scales. *Landscape Ecology* **11**: 141-156.
- 29 731 Scott DN, Montgomery DR, Wohl EE. 2014. Log step and clast interactions in
30 732 mountain streams in the central Cascade Range of Washington State, USA.
31 733 *Geomorphology* **216**: 180-186.
- 32 734 Sear DA, Millington CE, Kitts DR, Jeffries R. 2010. Logjam controls on channel:
33 735 floodplain interactions in wooded catchments and their role in the formation of
34 736 multi-channel patterns. *Geomorphology* **116**: 305-319.
- 35 737 Schenk ER, McCargo JW, Moulin B, Hupp CR, Richter JM. 2015. The Influence of
36 738 Logjams on Largemouth Bass (*Micropterus Salmoides*) Concentrations on the
37 739 Lower Roanoke River, a Large Sand-Bed River. *River Research and*
38 740 *Applications* **31**(6), 704-711.
- 39 741 Tank J, Rosi-Marshall E, Griffiths N, Entekin S, Stephen M. 2010. A review of
40 742 allochthonous organic matter dynamics and metabolism in streams. *Journal of*
41 743 *the North American Benthological Society* **29**(1): 118-146.
- 42 744 Ulloa H, Iroume A, Lenzi MA, Andreoli A, Álvarez C, Barrera V. 2011. Material
43 745 leñoso de gran tamaño en dos cuencas de la Cordillera de la Costa de Chile con
44 746 diferente historia de uso del suelo. *Bosque* **32**(3): 235-245.
- 45 747 Valdovinos C. 2001. Procesamiento de detritus ripariano por macroinvertebrados
46 748 bentónicos en un estero boscoso de Chile central. *Revista Chilena de Historia*
47 749 *Natural* **74**: 445-453.
- 48 750 Vera M, Jara C, Iroume A, Ulloa H, Andreoli A, Barrientos S. 2014. Reach scale
49 751 ecologic influence of in-stream large wood in a Coastal Mountain range channel,
50 752 Southern Chile. *Gayana* **78**(2): 85-97.
- 51 753 Vergara PM, Simonetti JA. 2004. Avian responses to fragmentation of the Maulino
52 754 forests in central Chile. *Oryx* **38**: 383-388.
- 53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 755 Vertessy RA, Zhang L, Dawes WR. 2003. Plantations, river flows and salinity.
4 756 *Australian Forestry* **66**: 55-61.
5 757 Whiles MR, Wallace JB. 1997. Leaf litter decomposition and macroinvertebrate
6 758 communities in headwater streams draining pine and hardwood catchments.
7 759 *Hydrobiologia* **353**: 107-119.
8 760 Wohl EE, Beckman ND. 2014. Controls on the longitudinal distribution of channel-
9 761 spanning logjams in the Colorado Front Range, USA. *River Research and*
10 762 *Applications* **30**: 112-131.
11 763 Wohl EE, Cenderelli DA, Dwire KA, Ryan-Burkett SE, Young MK, Fausch KD. 2010.
12 764 Large in-stream wood studies: a call for common metrics. *Earth Surface*
13 765 *Processes and Landforms* **35**: 618-625.
14 766 Wohl EE, Goode JR. 2008. Wood dynamics in headwater streams of the Colorado
15 767 Rocky Mountains. *Water Resources Research* **44**, W09429.
16 768 Wohl EE, Jaeger KL. 2009. A conceptual model for the longitudinal distribution of
17 769 wood in mountain streams. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms* **34**: 329-
18 770 344.
19 771
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

TABLES

772
773
774
775**Table 1.** Main characteristics of the studied basins (NF stands for native forest and PP for pine plantation)

Pair	IT		TR		AN		PE		NI	
Stream	Manqui	Mela	Arañas	Cerezas	Piuques	Potreri llos	Sin Puerta	Duende	Queñes	Cabras
Code	IT-NF	IT-PP	TR-NF	TR-PP	AN- NF	AN- PP	PE-NF	PE-PP	NI-NF	NI-PP
Coordinates (S-W)	36°23' 15"	36°21' 48"	37°34' 37°34'	56" 56"	35°49' 03"	35°32' 20"	36°04' 19"	36°03' 49"	36°40' 21"	36°41' 17"
	72°44' 20"	72°46' 38"	28°73' 13'19"	73°16' 53"	71°11' 05"	71°11' 58"	71°19' 16"	71°20' 45"	71°34' 37"	71°37' 42"
Basin area (km ²)	4.92	4.83	1.43	2.54	11.86	9.13	2.35	3.53	10.21	11.22
Max elev. (m a.s.l.)	571	558	982	730	2087	865	1153	1078	1551	1168
Min elev. (m a.s.l.)	78	75	560	224	660	452	520	530	565	576
Mean basin slope (%)	18.6	9.4	26.2	17.8	28.2	10.5	26.1	26.8	12.9	10.6
Basin orientation	S	O	S	S-O	S	S-O	N-O	N-O	N-O	N-O
Channel order	4	4	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3
Hydrologic regime	pluvial	Pluvial	pluvial	pluvial	Pluvia l/ nival	Pluvia l	Pluvia l	Pluvia l	Pluvial/ nival	Pluvial/ nival
Mean annual precip. (mm)	1100		1500		1640		1710		1490	
Climate	Temperate Mediterranean		Temperate Mediterranean humid		Temperate Mediterranean sub-humid		Temperate Mediterranean humid		Temperate Mediterranean	
Dominant forest type	Maule deciduous forest		Concepcion deciduous forest		Deciduous mountain forest		Maule deciduous forest		Deciduous mountain forest	
% native forest	62	25	99	40	100	32	100	34	98	29
% pine plantation	38	75	1	60	0	68	0	66	2	71
Width of the riparian buffer (m)	57.6	22.0	50.1	34.1	53.9	66.3	29.2	22.5	82.9	40.9
Distance from the closest plantation to the riparian area (m)	46.0	11.7	26.1	11.83	-	11.64	-	16.1	98.6	12.1
Distance from the closest plantation to the studied reach (m)	53.8	10.9	53.2	21.8	-	37.4	-	12.5	145.2	30.6

776
777

778

779

780 **Table 2.** Main characteristics of the surveyed channels

781

Pair	IT		TR		AN		PE		NI	
Stream	Manqui	Mela	Arañas	Cerezas	Piuques	Potrerillos	Sin Puerta	Duende	Queñes	Cabras
Code	IT-NF	IT-PP	TR-NF	TR-PP	AN-NF	AN-PP	PE-NF	PE-PP	NI-NF	NI-PP
Number of reaches	10	9	12	8	6	8	6	6	7	7
Length of the studied segment (m)	667.8	656.6	822.4	375.4	781.7	907.9	543.3	715.3	801.4	718.8
Average channel slope (m m ⁻¹)	0.080	0.029	0.168	0.073	0.086	0.016	0.047	0.046	0.043	0.015
Average channel bankfull width (m)	5.0	4.5	4.1	4.6	13.3	3.7	2.7	3.1	8.9	8.5
Number of pools (pools km ⁻¹)	102.4	112.5	149.9	127.8	64.5	55.4	174.2	125.2	86.1	51.4
Dominant channel morphology	Cascade steps-pools	Riffles-pools	Riffles-step-pools	Riffles-pools	Steps-pools	Riffles-pools	Riffles steps-pools	Riffles steps-pools	Riffles-steps-pools	Riffles-pools
MDBH* of trees in the riparian area	24.40	16.00	23.95	8.90	14.70	11.40	11.86	14.92	16.59	12.44
MDBH* of trees on the slopes	31.88	25.08	20.62	15.06	17.47	22.03	9.96	3.55	16.26	19.84

782 *MDBH: Mean Diameter at Breast Height

783

784 **Table 3.** Statistical differences between native forests and pine plantation basins for
785 each pair (F test, numbers in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$)

786

	IT	TR	AN	PE	NI
Average log diameter (m)	1.721	0.379	0.392	1.811	24.427
Maximum log diameter (m)	0.335	2.185	0.392	0.402	50.674
Average log length (m)	2.397	4.438	0.001	0.039	0.046
Maximum log length (m)	1.746	0.943	0.636	3.138	0.065
% Conifers vs broad-leaved logs	105.758	31.486	0.734	16.836	37.972
% Decayed vs. fresh and semi-decayed logs	2.720	0.311	3.2003	9.201	33.022
LW volume (m ³ ha ⁻¹)	3.149	1.863	0.064	0.081	12.232
Single logs volume (m ³ ha ⁻¹)	1.729	0.531	0.006	0.995	2.644
Jammed logs volume (m ³ ha ⁻¹)	0.841	2.014	1.569	1.761	9.767
Number of log jams (jams ha ⁻¹)	2.969	0.539	12.213	0.355	0.359
Number of single logs (logs ha ⁻¹)	0.464	3.524	2.449	2.256	0.065
% Logs floated vs. input from slopes and banks	17.635	15.334	16.421	8.556	14.482
% logs perpendicular vs. parallel to the flow	3.554	1.779	3.681	1.972	0.143
% transport/combination vs. autochthonous jams	0.836	2.977	0.1224	13.333	13.938
% Jams perpendicular vs. parallel to the flow	0.085	1.468	5.882	0.773	0.001

787

FIGURE CAPTION

1
2
3 788
4 789
5 790
6 791
7 792
8 793
9 794
10 795
11 796
12 797
13 798
14 799
15 800
16 801
17 802
18 803
19 804
20 805
21 806
22 807
23 808
24 809
25 810
26 811
27 812
28 813
29 814
30 815
31 816
32 817
33 818
34 819
35 820
36 821
37 822
38 823
39 824
40 825
41 826
42 827
43 828
44 829
45 830
46 831
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figure 1. Location of the studied sites (PP and NF refers to pine plantation and native forest basins, respectively).

Figure 2. Average and maximum diameter and length of all logs (either laying alone or jammed) measured within the bankfull channel in the study basins. The box-plots are produced using data acquired on various reaches per studied basin. The solid line indicates the range between the 25th and 75th percentiles, the square icon indicates the median, the whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum non-outlier values, the solid circles indicate outliers, and the diamond indicates extreme value.

Figure 3. Percentage of logs recognised as conifers or broad-leaved species (on the left) and as in a decaying or good state of conservation (on the right) in the study sites.

Figure 4. Volumes of in-channel wood at the studied sites. The graphs show the overall LW volume per ha of channel (a) and the volumes of single (b) and jammed logs (c). The box-plots are produced using data acquired on various reaches per studied basin. The solid line indicates the range between the 25th and 75th percentiles, the square icon indicates the median, the whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum values, the solid circles indicate outliers, and the asterisk indicates extreme value.

Figure 5. Volumes of large wood in mountain basins as a function of the basin area (on the left) and the percentage of native forest cover (on the right).

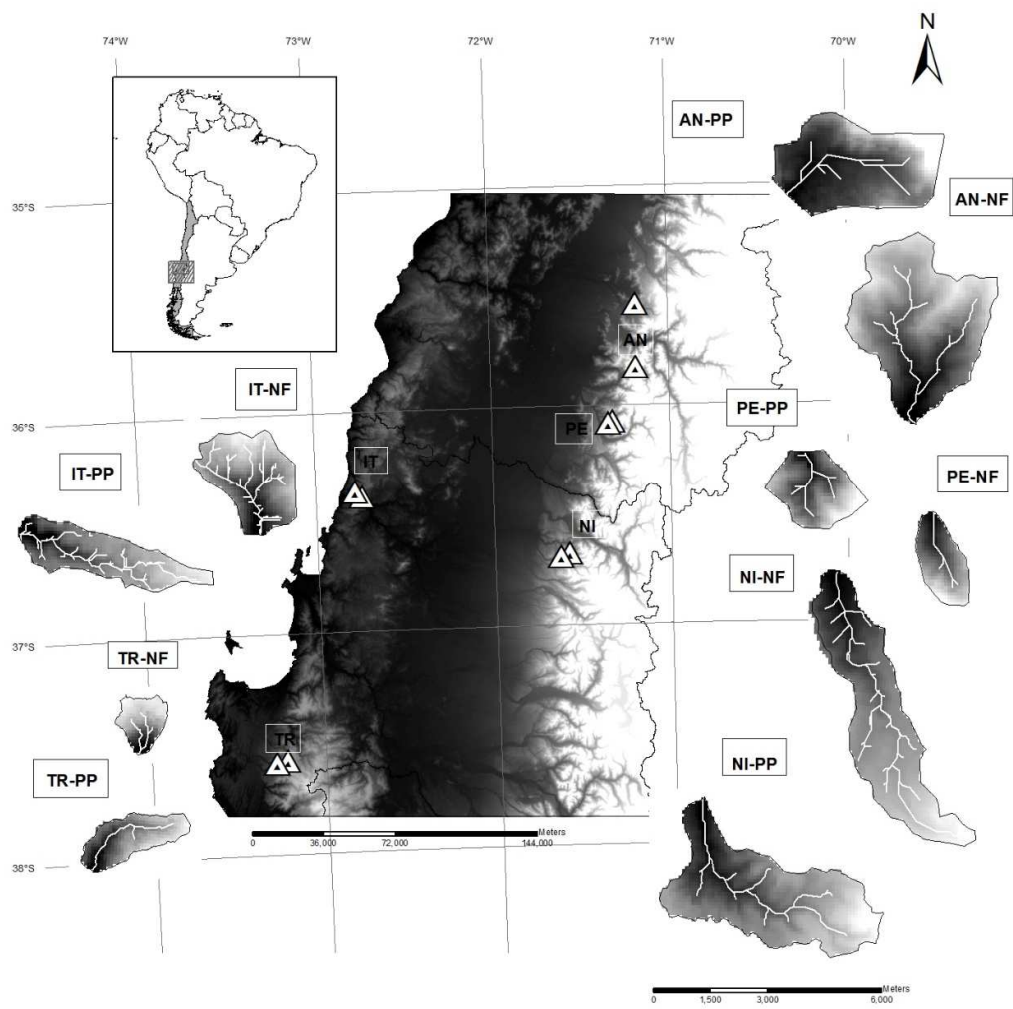
Figure 6. Number of log jams and single logs (dimensionalized per ha of bankfull channel) in the studied sites. The box-plots are produced using data acquired at various reaches per studied basin. The solid line indicates the range between the 25th and 75th percentiles, the square icon indicates the median, the whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum non-outlier values, the solid circles indicate outliers, and the asterisk indicates extreme value.

Figure 7. Percentage of logs recognised as having floated from upstream reaches or as being recruited from the slopes or banks within the reach (on the left), and percentage of logs found lying perpendicular or parallel to the flow (on the right).

Figure 8. Percentage of log jams classified as having transport, combination or autochthonous origins (on the left), and percentage of jams found predominantly perpendicular or parallel to the flow (on the right).

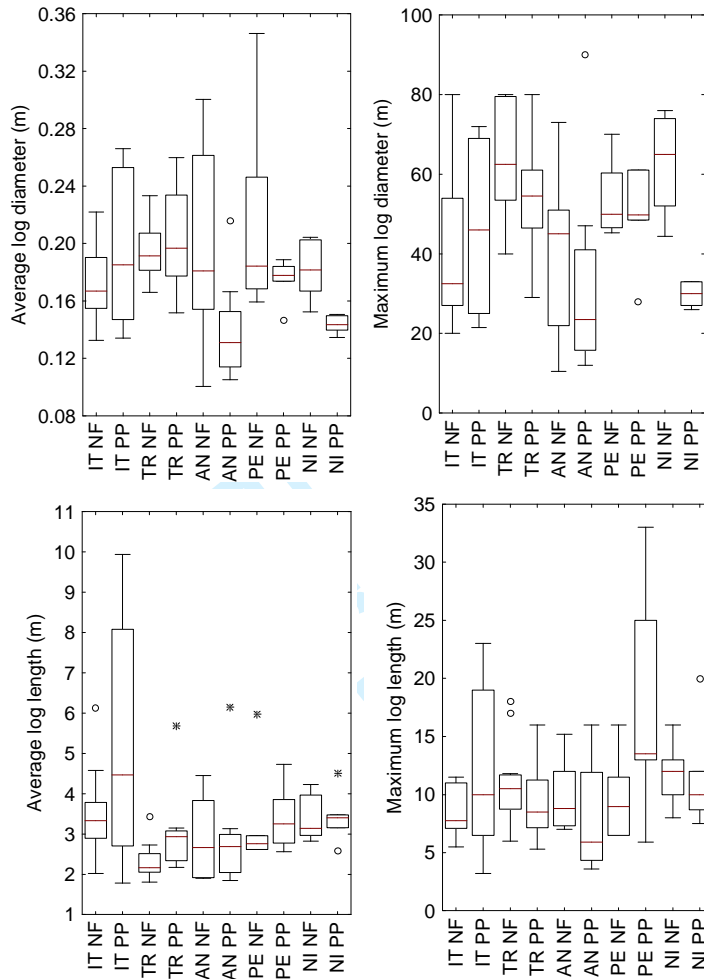
Figure 9. Ratio of volumes of sediments trapped by jams and jammed wood in the studied basins.

Figure 10. Comparison of biomass per unit effort between streams in native forests (NF) and pine plantations (PP) (on the left), and the correlations of biomass per unit effort against maximum log diameter and maximum log length (on the right).



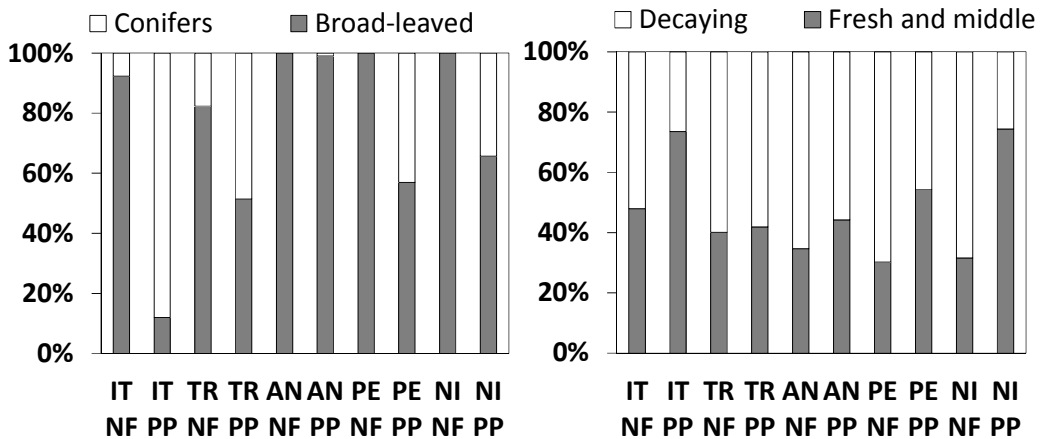
view

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

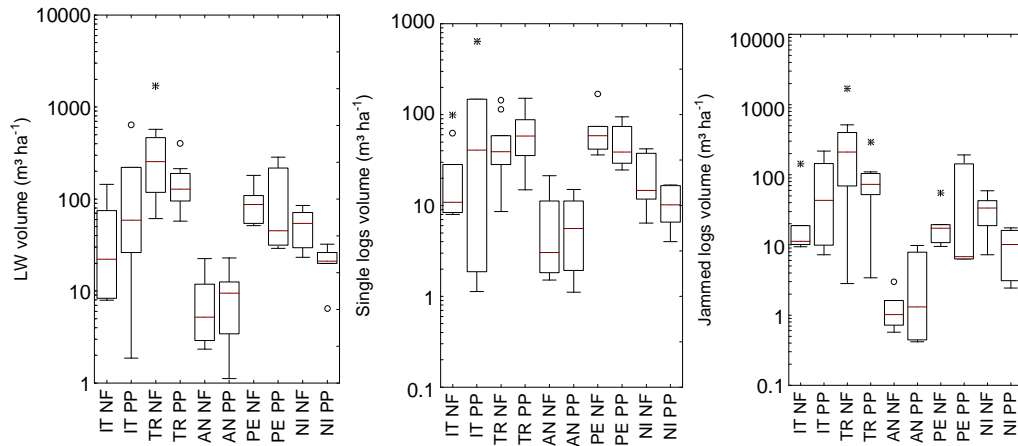


review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

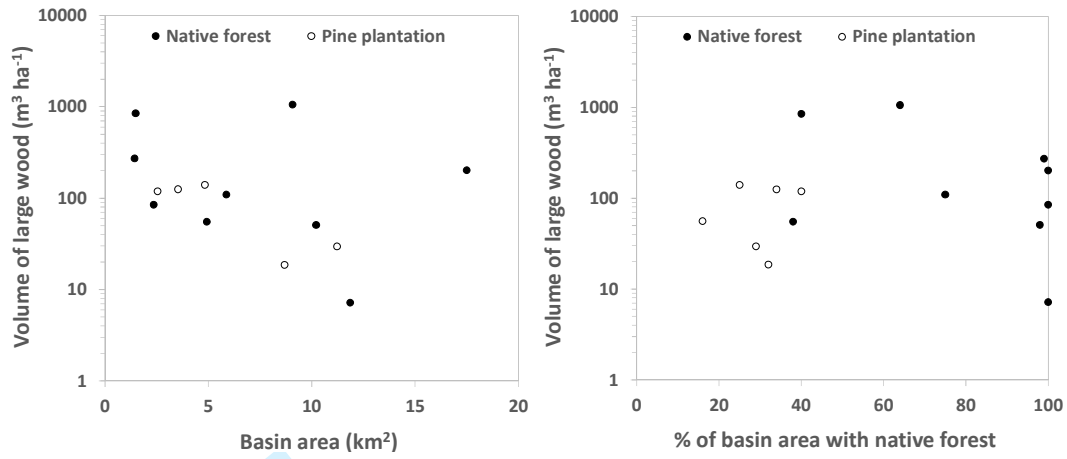


For Peer Review



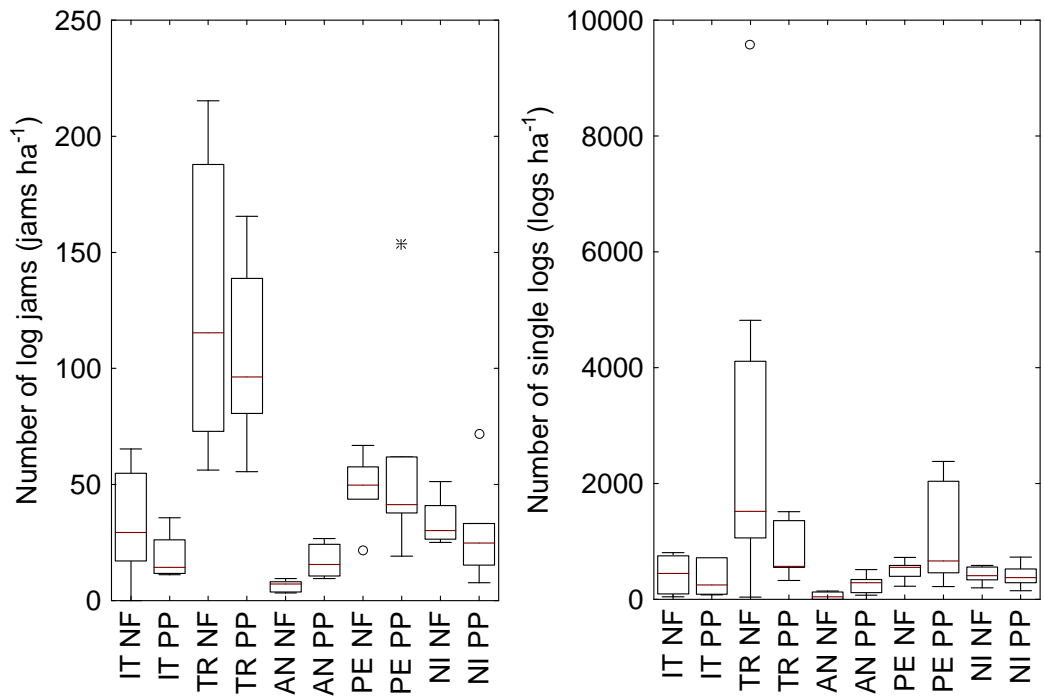
For Peer Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



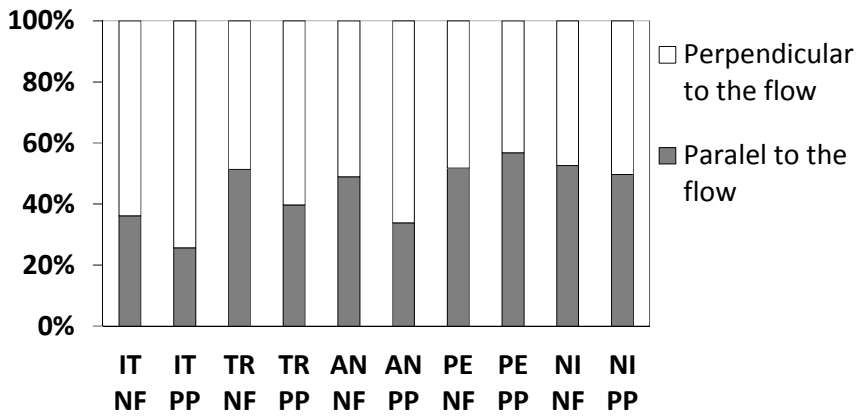
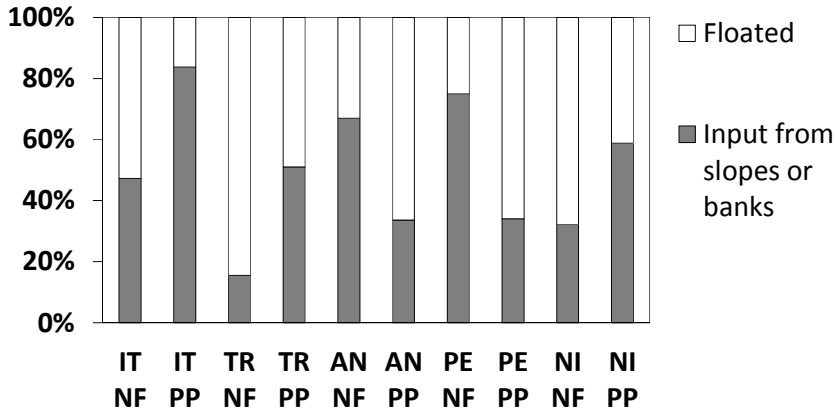
For Peer Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



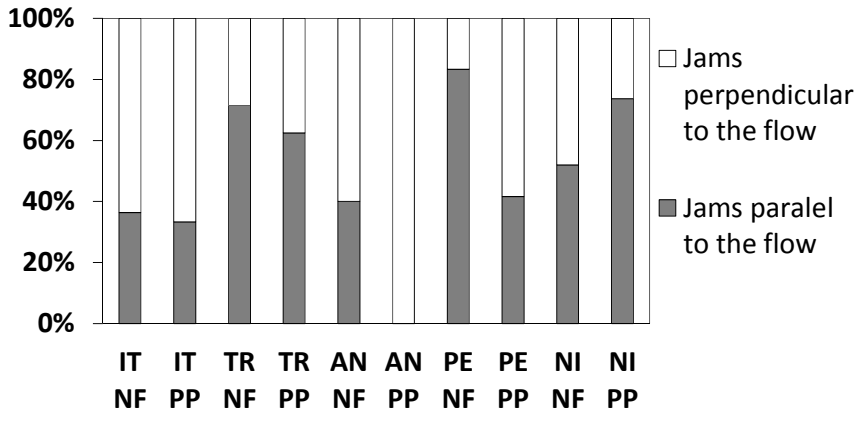
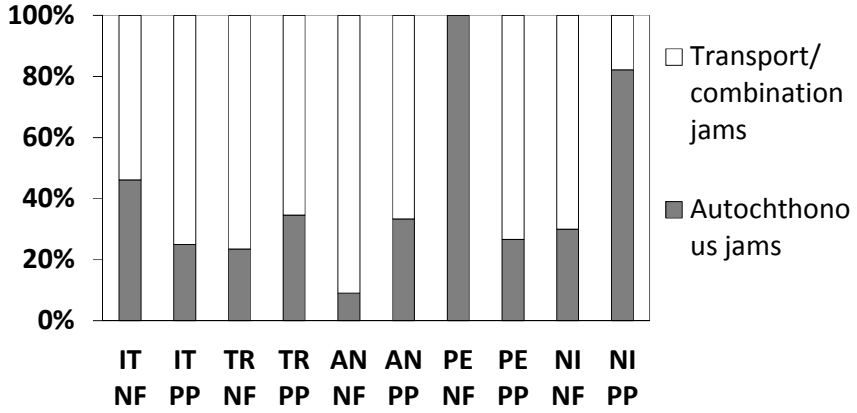
Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

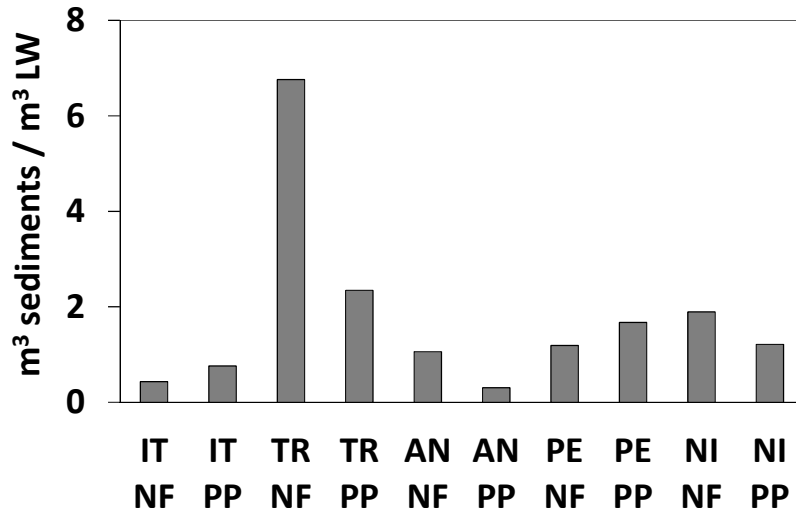


Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



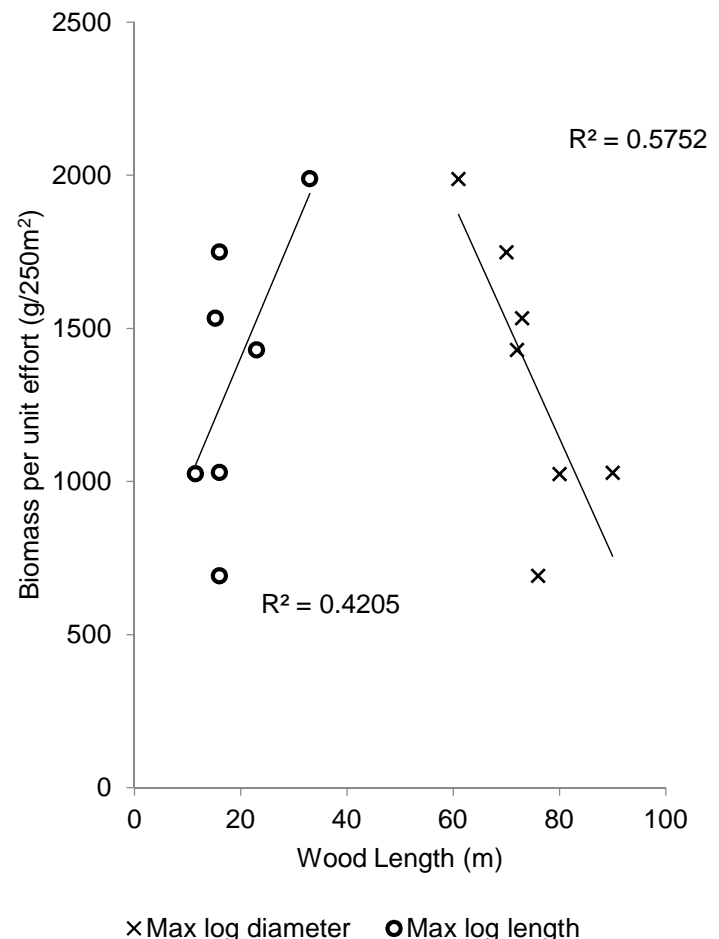
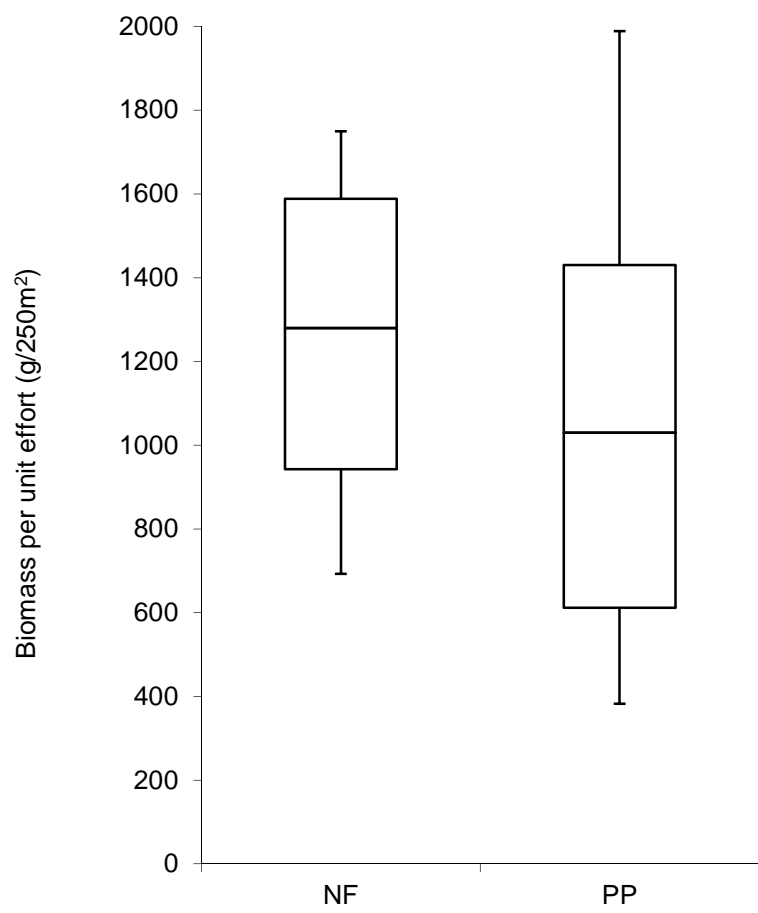
Review



Peer Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Peer Review