

# 1 **Vegetative impacts upon bedload transport capacity and** 2 **channel stability for differing alluvial planforms in the** 3 **Yellow River Source Zone**

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## 15 16 **Abstract**

17 The influence of vegetation upon bedload transport and channel morphodynamics is  
18 examined along a channel stability gradient ranging from meandering through anabranching  
19 through anabranching-braided to fully braided planform conditions along trunk and tributary  
20 reaches of the Upper Yellow River in western China. Although the regional geology and  
21 climate are relatively consistent across the study area, there is a distinct gradient in the  
22 presence and abundance of riparian vegetation for these reaches atop the Qinghai-Tibet  
23 Plateau (elevations in the study area range from 2800-3400 m a.s.l.). To date, the influence of  
24 vegetative impacts upon channel planform and bedload transport capacity of alluvial reaches  
25 of the Upper Yellow River remains unclear because of a lack of hydrological and field data.  
26 In this region, the types and pattern of riparian vegetation vary with planform type as follows:  
27 trees exert the strongest influence in the anabranching reach, the meandering reach flows  
28 through meadow vegetation, the anabranching-braided reach has a grass, herb, and sparse  
29 shrub cover, and the braided reach has no riparian vegetation. A non-linear relation between

1 vegetative cover on the valley floor and bedload transport capacity is evident, wherein  
2 bedload transport capacity is highest for the anabranching reach, roughly followed by the  
3 anabranching-braided, braided and meandering reaches respectively. The relationship  
4 between the bedload transport capacity of a reach and sediment supply from upstream exerts a  
5 significant influence upon channel stability. Bedload transport capacity during the flood  
6 season (June-September) in the braided reach is much less than the rate of sediment supply,  
7 inducing bed aggradation and dynamic channel adjustments. Rates of channel adjustment are  
8 less pronounced for the anabranching-braided and anabranching reaches, while the  
9 meandering reach is relatively stable (i.e., this is a passive meandering reach).

10

## 11 **1 Introduction**

12 Transitions in river character and behaviour are a key focal point of enquiry in fields such as  
13 geomorphology, hydrology, and sedimentology. Such concerns have significant management  
14 applications, especially relating to issues such as management of flood risk and sedimentation  
15 hazards. These issues are likely to become even more pronounced in the future, as rivers  
16 adjust in response to climate and land use changes, and management actions. Putting aside  
17 concerns for terminological issues associated with differentiation of river types and their  
18 morphological attributes (see Lewin and Ashworth, 2014; Carling et al., 2014; Tadaki et al.,  
19 2014), process-based understandings of morphodynamic adjustments are required to address  
20 concerns for prospective future river changes (Beechie et al., 2010). Here we evaluate the  
21 influence of riparian vegetation upon process interactions along relatively understudied  
22 reaches of the Upper Yellow River atop the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau in western China.  
23 Qualitative description and analysis of this complex influence on bedload transport capacity  
24 remains unclear to our knowledge.

25 Channel bars are products of instream deposition of bedload materials, whether at the channel  
26 margin (bank-attached forms) or mid-channel bars (Brierley and Fryirs, 2005). Typically, bars  
27 mutually adjust with channel geometry, such that they scale to the size of the channel in  
28 which they form (Task Force on Bed Forms in Alluvial Channels, 1966; Nicholas et al., 2013).  
29 If these features become vegetated and stabilized, they are referred to as islands (Fryirs and  
30 Brierley, 2012). Unit bars (migrating lobate bed forms with heights and lengths that scale with  
31 channel depth and width) are differentiated from larger, more complex compound bars (e.g.,  
32 Bridge, 1993; Brierley, 1989, 1991; Smith, 1974). Compound bars are products of multiple

1 phases of accretion and reworking, with stacked sequences of unit bar, dune, and smaller bed  
2 form deposits that are often trimmed at their margins by bank erosion processes or dissected  
3 by chute channels (Ashworth et al., 2011; Best et al., 2003; Bridge, 2003; Brierley and Fryirs,  
4 2005; McGowen and Garner, 1970; Reesink et al., 2014; Sambrook Smith et al., 2009).  
5 Various studies have characterized the main morphological elements of large bars and islands,  
6 while other studies have developed conceptual models of bar evolution (e.g., Ashworth et al.,  
7 2000; Gurnell et al., 2001; Latrubesse and Franzinelli, 2002; Mertes et al., 1996).

8 There is notable variability in the presence, form and hydraulic/sedimentologic  
9 (morphodynamic) role of bars along the continuum of channel planform (Bridge, 1993;  
10 Brierley, 1996). By definition, as suspended-load rivers have limited bedload-calibre  
11 materials, they have very few, if any, bars. The prominence of fine-grained (silt-clay) deposits  
12 under low energy conditions (often very low channel gradient) promotes passive channel  
13 behaviour, typically with a low sinuosity, passive meandering or anabranching (anastomosing)  
14 planform (Eaton et al., 2010; Fryirs and Brierley, 2012; Makaske, 2001; Wang et al., 2005).  
15 Patterns of bar formation in mixed- and bedload-dominated rivers reflect the flow-sediment  
16 balance along any given reach, with a spectrum of planform types ranging from active  
17 meandering and wandering variants through to fully braided rivers (see Ashworth, 1996;  
18 Ashworth and Lewin, 2012; Burge, 2006; Church and Rice, 2009). Braiding results from the  
19 inability of flow to transport all sediments that are made available to the channel, such that  
20 mid-channel sedimentation occurs (i.e., competence and/or capacity limits are exceeded).  
21 Recurrent reworking of bedload materials via thalweg shift during flood events alters the  
22 number, shape, and location of bars. Bar dissection and avulsion create multi-thread channel  
23 systems with a disorderly river planform, extremely unstable bars, and inconstant flow paths  
24 (Ashmore, 1991; Ashworth et al., 2000; Jerolmack and Mohrig, 2007).

25 If channel boundary conditions induce sufficient bank strength, and flows are able to transport  
26 available bedload sediments, the river adopts a configuration with better-defined, less mobile  
27 channels with a much lower width-depth ratio, whether within a single-channel configuration  
28 (typically passive meandering) or a multi-channel anabranching configuration (Eaton et al.,  
29 2010; Song and Bai, 2015). Controversy abounds in our theoretical understanding of process  
30 controls upon anabranching river behaviour (see Carling et al., 2014; Nicholas et al., 2013).  
31 While Huang and Nanson (2007) and Jansen and Nanson (2004, 2010) attribute an  
32 anabranching configuration to the least action principle, wherein channels adjust their form to

1 transport available sediment in the most hydraulically efficient manner, Eaton and co-workers  
2 postulate an alternative theoretical framing in which anabranching channels adjust to  
3 minimize their capacity to transport materials (Eaton and Church, 2004, 2007; Eaton et al.,  
4 2010). It is not our concern here to address this issue directly. Rather, our focus lies with  
5 analysis of relationships between bedload transport capacity and channel morphodynamics  
6 along a continuum of channel planform types that is coincident with a gradation in riparian  
7 vegetation cover along the Upper Yellow River (Yu et al., 2014).

8 Bar stability is the key distinguishing attribute of braided and anabranching rivers. In some  
9 instances, vegetation may support the long-term development of stable sandbars within a  
10 stable multi-channel system – a variant of an anabranching river (Latrubesse, 2008; Nanson  
11 and Knighton, 1996; Murray and Paola, 2003; Tal and Paola, 2010). Vegetation increases  
12 flow resistance and stabilizes the channel bed and bank along anabranching rivers, thereby  
13 altering channel geometry, bedload transport rates, and the resulting rates and patterns of bed  
14 deposition or erosion. Once a particular morphology has been formed, the configuration of  
15 channels and associated distribution of bars and roughness elements fashions process  
16 responses to subsequent flood events (Hooke, 1986, 2015; Hooke and Yorke, 2011; Luchi et  
17 al., 2010). If critical threshold conditions are exceeded, alterations to the balance and patterns  
18 of erosion and deposition processes may bring about transitions to different planform types.

19 Mutual adjustments between patterns of vegetation types (size, spacing, and density) and  
20 flow-sediment dynamics (patterns and rates of erosion and deposition) vary at different  
21 positions on the valley floor. Vegetation encroachment by pioneer species and successional  
22 processes induce abiotic and biotic transitions in geomorphic processes from the unvegetated  
23 channel bed and bar surfaces to grassland, shrubs, and treed areas at the margins of  
24 bars/islands and on floodplains (Corenblit et al., 2007, 2011; Gurnell, 2014; Hickin, 1984;  
25 Hupp and Osterkamp, 1996; Millar, 2000; Tooth and Nanson, 2000). Vegetation attributes  
26 influence the pattern of roughness elements and the associated distribution of flow energy,  
27 thereby affecting the distribution of erosional and depositional processes, and resulting  
28 morphological attributes (including the grain size distribution of bed/bar materials). Hence,  
29 vegetative controls influence the stability and behaviour of alluvial bed and bars, and the  
30 influence of vegetation upon flow-sediment interactions, vary for differing planform types  
31 (Gran and Paola, 2001; Gradzinski et al., 2003; Jang and Shimizu, 2007; McBride et al.,  
32 2007).

1 Although the prominence of seasonal low flow stages and nutrient-rich fine sands may  
2 support the growth of annual or perennial herbs and shrubs on mid-channel and transverse  
3 bars in braided rivers, this sparse vegetation cover has negligible impact upon sediment  
4 deposition and erosion patterns, and is removed easily at flood stage (Coulthard, 2005). This  
5 mutual interaction between vegetation and erosion-deposition can be viewed as a threshold  
6 condition: if sufficient vegetation establishment occurs, resistance may exceed the erosion-  
7 deposition capability of a normal flood such that stabilization ensues, prospectively altering  
8 sedimentation patterns, increasing bank strength, and reducing channel width-depth ratio  
9 (Gran and Paola, 2001; Coulthard, 2005; Eaton et al., 2010). In anabranching channels the  
10 vegetation cover on mid-channel bars inhibits lateral migration, inducing a stable branching  
11 channel condition. During lower frequency floods, when bars are partially or completely  
12 submerged by flow, vegetation increases flow resistance, traps sediment, and inhibits erosion.

13 This study builds upon previously-reported exploratory analyses of river diversity in the  
14 source zone of the Yellow River (Blue et al., 2013; Brierley et al., 2016; Li et al., 2013; Yu et  
15 al., 2014). In this region, herbs and sparse shrubs that establish on the sand/gravel bars of  
16 braided rivers have a trivial influence upon channel morphodynamics, while establishment of  
17 dense shrubs and sparse trees on sand/gravel bars promotes the emergence of anabranching  
18 channel configurations. Building on these previous observations, here we appraise process  
19 interactions along a vegetative gradient of river morphologic adjustments for four reaches:  
20 Dari and Maqu reaches of the Yellow River main stream, and Daheba and Lanmucuo River  
21 tributaries of the Upper Yellow River (Table 1). Dari reach has a semi-stable braided channel,  
22 where sandbars are covered by herbaceous vegetation and sparse shrubs. Maqu reach has a  
23 very stable anabranching channel with dense willows (*Salix atopantha*) on sandbars. The  
24 study reach along Lanmucuo River has a stable gravel meandering river with herb coverage.  
25 The study reach along Daheba River has a very unstable gravel braided channel without  
26 vegetation cover. We develop and apply a simplified model to explain the interaction between  
27 sediment transport capacity and river bed deposition in these reaches, examining the effect of  
28 vegetation resistance and adjustment of fluvial hydraulic geometry. From this, we  
29 quantitatively analyse the stability and evolution of braided, anabranching, and meandering  
30 reaches during flood events.

31

## 1    **2    Study area and methods**

2    Upstream of Tangnaihai hydrological station the source zone of the Yellow River drains an  
3    area of 132,000 km<sup>2</sup> (see Fig.1(a)). In the 1950s the Yellow River Conservancy Commission  
4    established four hydrological stations along the Yellow River in this area, namely (from  
5    upstream to downstream), Huangheyan station in Maduo County, Jimai station in Dari County,  
6    Maqu station in Maqu County, and Tangnaihai station in Xinhai County. The reach from  
7    Huangheyan to Jimai station is 325 km long and drains an area of 24,089 km<sup>2</sup>. In this reach  
8    the valley is quite wide, with semi-braided and semi-anabranching planform morphologies  
9    characterized by disordered channels with many bars (Brierley et al., 2016). The reach from  
10   Jimai to Maqu is 585 km long and drains an area of 41,029 km<sup>2</sup>. The upper section of this  
11   reach has a deeply incised (confined), sinuous valley between the Anyemaqen and Bayan Har  
12   Mountains. Flowing into the Ruoergai alluvial basin, there is a diverse array of planform  
13   types (Blue et al., 2013; Brierley et al., 2016; Li et al., 2013). The reach from Maqu to  
14   Tangnaihai station is 373 km long and drains an area of 35,924 km<sup>2</sup>. Most of this reach  
15   comprises a steep and incised canyon, with many deeply carved meander bends.

16   For this study, field investigations of vegetative influences upon bed/bar geomorphic  
17   processes were conducted four times in the summers of 2011-2014. Particle size distributions  
18   of bed and bank materials size were analyzed using a laser particle size analyzer (Mastersizer  
19   2000) and field sieves were used to test ten samples of river bed and bank materials in each  
20   reach. As a supplement, photographs of gravel and cobbles on the bed/bar surface were taken  
21   to visually estimate bed particle size. To estimate bedload transport capacity, channel  
22   geometry was assessed in the field and from remote sensing images of the branching channel  
23   network (Google Earth images from 2005-2014, with a resolution of about 0.24 m).

24   The best available hydrological data that could be accessed for this study were daily stage-  
25   discharge data from Jimai (1964-1985), monthly stage-discharge data from Maqu (1959-  
26   1970), monthly cross-section elevation change data from Shangcun station along the Daheba  
27   River (1.8 km upstream from its confluence with the Yellow River, 2009-2011), and 2011-  
28   2014 field data for the Lanmucuo River (a tributary of the Yellow River in Maqu-Tangnaihai  
29   section, at an elevation of 3400-4200 m a.s.l., for which upstream and mid-catchment reaches  
30   have a typically meandering channel, while the downstream reach has a confined bedrock  
31   channel). There are no intensive human activities in this area of the Yellow River Source  
32   Zone.

1

### 2 **3 Basic characteristics of four alluvial reaches**

3 Fig.1 (b) shows the planform morphology of the four channel reaches. Figure 2 shows the  
4 channel morphology, pattern of bar types, and bed sediment. Basic channel characteristics of  
5 the study reaches are summarized in Table 2.

6 Dari reach has a semi-braided and semi-anabranching channel in a wide valley (Fig.1 (R1)  
7 and Fig. 2(R1)). This braided-anabranching transition zone is considered to be semi-stable,  
8 with an active channel zone that is around 1 km wide. The braided part of the channel is  
9 made up of many small longitudinal and transverse bars, with multiple connected branching  
10 channels. In the anabranching part, the large bars/islands have a dense grassland vegetation.  
11 Given the extensive width of the active channel zone, annual floods during June-September  
12 exert negligible impacts upon these relatively stable surfaces.

13 The Maqu reach is located in a wide alluvial valley (1.5-3.0 km wide). The dense tree cover  
14 of the vegetated islands is indicative of a stable channel configuration (see Fig. 1(R2) and Fig.  
15 2(R2)). During the flood season, tree trunks are partly submerged into water, but the trees are  
16 sufficiently dense to limit erosion. As a result, the anabranching system as a whole is quite  
17 stable with high bedload transport capacity.

18 Lanmucuo River is a meadow meandering river with nearly 100% vegetation cover (see Fig.  
19 1(R3) and Fig. 2(R3)). The root system of riparian grasses induces considerable protection  
20 from near-bank erosion. Field investigations from 2011-2014 indicate that the lateral  
21 migration induced by cantilever bank failure occurred at a rate of less than 0.2 m/yr. The  
22 gravel-bed channel has a low bedload transport rate in the flood season. In some local sections,  
23 mid-channel bars with dense grass coverage have developed at the apex of bends. The whole  
24 channel is quite stable, in spite of short-term outer bank failures and long-term meander neck  
25 cutoffs.

26 Daheba River has incised into the Gonghe-Xinhai sedimentary basin. Severe gully erosion has  
27 incised river-lacustrine sediments to a depth of 50-100 m, supplying large volumes of  
28 gravel/cobble to the middle and lower Daheba channel, inducing significant bed aggradation  
29 and the formation of a braided planform. Alluvial fans at gully outlets not only supply  
30 additional sediment, but also push the channel to the opposite side of the valley floor (a big  
31 fan is shown near D point in Fig. 1(R4) and Fig. 2(R4)). As a result, the main branching  
32 channels are subjected to frequent and recurrent avulsion. Flows erode new small branching

1 channels during the flood season, but a main channel coexists with several branching channels  
2 in the non-flood season. Unstable mid-channel bars are unvegetated other than sparse  
3 vegetation coverage (grass and shrubs) on riparian banks. The gravel-cobble bed and high  
4 bedload transport rate restrict vegetation establishment and growth, resulting in a typically  
5 unstable braided river.

6 Bank strength induced by sediment material mix and vegetation root networks exerts a critical  
7 influence upon the stability of alluvial channels (Eaton and Giles, 2009). Reinforcement of  
8 bank strength reinforced by grass, shrub, and tree roots is related to the density, depth, and  
9 spatial structure of the root network (Abernethy and Rutherford, 2001). Fig. 3 shows  
10 representative photographs of river banks in the four study reaches. The diverse bank material  
11 composition and vegetation cover affect the relative strength of banks and their capacity to  
12 resist nearbank flow scour. The river bank in Dari reach has a two-layer structure, with a 20-  
13 30 cm deep soil-root layer ( $d_{50}$  is median size,  $d_{50} = 0.02$  mm) lying atop a gravel-sand layer  
14 ( $d_{50} = 6.0$  mm) (Fig. 3(a)). The river bank in Maqu reach has a dense grass, shrub, and tree  
15 cover (Figure 3(b)), with no indication of flow scour in the flood season. The study reach  
16 along the Lanmucuo River has a typical composite bank sedimentology of a mixed load river  
17 (Fig. 3(c)). An upward-fining sequence is characterized by a basal gravel unit ( $d_{50} = 5.5$  mm)  
18 extending to a 10-30 cm thick silt/sand layer ( $d_{50} = 0.03$  mm) that is capped by a 10-50 cm  
19 thick fine-grained soil-root complex ( $d_{50} = 0.02$  mm). Conversely, the bank of the middle  
20 Daheba River has characteristic deposits of a bedload-dominated river, with non-cohesive  
21 gravels and a sparse grass cover (Fig.3(d)). Adjacent terraces that are more than 10m high  
22 limit the capacity for channel widening, while actively supplying gravels. Mobile gravel  
23 banks influence the braided characteristics of the Daheba River. In summary, bank strength of  
24 the four study reaches varies from high to low as follows: Maqu reach, Lanmucuo River, Dari  
25 reach, and Daheba River.

26

#### 27 **4 Estimation of bedload transport capacity**

28 Given the lack of observed data of bed load transport rate, bedload transport capacity has been  
29 estimated for a rectangular cross-section using the theoretical bed load formulae outlined  
30 below. Channel flow follows the laws of flow continuity, flow resistance and sediment  
31 transport with flow continuity law taking the form:



1  $Q = AV$  (1)

2 where  $Q$ ,  $A$ , and  $V$  are flow discharge ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ), channel cross-sectional area ( $\text{m}^2$ ), and average  
3 flow velocity ( $\text{m}/\text{s}$ ), respectively,  $A=WH$ ,  $W$  is channel width ( $\text{m}$ ),  $H$  is water depth ( $\text{m}$ ).

4 This study adopts the Manning formula to embody the law of flow resistance for uniform  
5 alluvial channel flow:

6  $V = \frac{1}{n} R^{2/3} S^{1/2}$  (2)

7 where  $R$  is hydraulic radius ( $\text{m}$ ),  $R=WH/(2H+W)$ ,  $S$  is flow energy slope,  $n$  is Manning's  
8 roughness coefficient. In this study, following Chow (1959),  $n = 0.050$  if no vegetation in  
9 gravel-bed channels at high stages (i.e., Daheba reach),  $n = 0.030$  in floodplain with short  
10 grass (i.e., Lanmucuo River),  $n = 0.050$  in floodplain with scattered brush and heavy weeds  
11 (i.e., Dari River), and  $n = 0.150$  in floodplain with dense willows at flood stage (i.e., Maqu  
12 reach).

13 Among numerous bedload formulae, the Meyer-Peter and Muller equation has been  
14 extensively and successfully applied (Meyer-Peter and Müller, 1948). The modification  
15 developed by Wong and Parker (2006) has been used in this study:

16  $\Phi = 3.97(\Psi - 0.0495)^{3/2}$ . (3)

17 where  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$  are the dimensionless bedload transport rate per unit channel width and the  
18 dimensionless flow shear stress, respectively, that are defined as

19  $\Phi = \frac{q_b}{\sqrt{(\rho_s / \rho - 1) g d_{50}^3}}$ . (4)

20  $\Psi = \frac{RS}{(\rho_s / \rho - 1) d_{50}}$ . (5)

21 where  $q_b$  is the dimensional bedload transport rate per unit channel width ( $\text{kg}/\text{s}/\text{m}$ ),  $\rho_s$  is the  
22 density of sediments transported ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $\rho$  is the density of water ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $g$  is the  
23 acceleration of gravity ( $\text{m}/\text{s}^2$ ), and  $d_{50}$  is the median sediment size ( $\text{mm}$ ).

24 Cross-section and water depth were measured based on field survey and remote sensing  
25 images (see Table 2). Estimated hydraulic parameters and bedload transport capacity for the  
26 four reaches, derived using Eq.(1)-(5), are summarised in Table 3. Note that channel width is

1 effective bankfull width in the flood season, not valley width. The adopted mean grain size is  
2 lower than bed sediment size. Results shown here are considered to be approximations, and are  
3 analysed solely in relational rather than absolute terms. Results show that the bedload  
4 transport capacity of the four reaches from high to low is as follows: Maqu, Daheba ,  
5 Lanmucuo, Dari reaches.

6

## 7 **5 Effect of vegetation and bedload capacity on channel stability**

### 8 **5.1.1 Dari reach (braided/anabranching river with grass and shrub cover)**

9 Dari reach is a wide semi-braided and semi-anabranching channel, where the channel width is  
10 up to 1600 m (Fig.2 R1(a)). Some large stable gravel bar or islands have a dense grass and  
11 sparse shrub cover. Many unstable bars with low vegetation cover are subjected to recurring  
12 erosion and channel adjustment. Vegetation may inhibit erosion and enhance bar stability at  
13 middle flood stage, but the resistance effect of vegetation at high flood stage is very limited.  
14 As a result, the whole channel may be eroded at high flow stage, resulting in disordered  
15 patterns of mid-channel gravel bars. The estimated bedload transport capacity per unit channel  
16 width is 1.77 kg/m/s for 2.0 m water depth (see Table 2). If the water depth increases to 3.0 m  
17 in the flood season, bedload transport capacity per unit width significantly increases up to  
18 14.93 kg/m/s. It is likely that these flow depths cause intense erosion that divides the stable  
19 bars into many unstable bars.

20 Fig. 4(a) and (b) show monthly stage-discharge relationships for 1968 and 1984, respectively.  
21 Since Dari reach is a multi-thread channel system, the stage-discharge relationship is not a  
22 single function relationship. In non-flood months (December, January, February, March, and  
23 April) the river bed is frozen. May and November are pivotal times in the stage-discharge  
24 relationship (the former reflects ice melt, the latter freezing). In flood months (June, July,  
25 August, and September) the stage-discharge relationship adjusts due to strongly erosion and  
26 deposition within the channel. The stage-discharge data (June, July, August, and September)  
27 in the 1968 and 1984 are to run non-linear regression (power function,  $Z = a * Q^b$ ,  $Z$  is water  
28 stage (m),  $Q$  is discharge ( $m^3/s$ ),  $a$  is the coefficient and  $b$  is the exponent). Two coefficients of  
29  $a$  ( $b$ ) in 1968 are 4.7(0.09), 4.8(0.09), 5.4(0.07), and 4.5(0.10) for June, July, August, and  
30 September, respectively; and accordingly, 2.9(0.12), 2.8(0.13), 3.0(0.12), and 3.5(0.09) in  
31 1984. The results of the regression show that  $a$  obviously decreased and  $b$  was almost

1 unchanged, indicating the increase of water depth slowed down with the incoming discharge  
2 increasing from 1968 to 1984 because the sediment deposition led to the wider channel  
3 year by year.

4 For instance, different discharges for the same flow stage in June and July 1968 are  
5 considered to reflect erosion of the channel (Fig. 4(a)). In the other instance shown here, the  
6 maximum discharge in 1984 occurred in July (Fig.4(b)), probably marking the transition from  
7 erosion to deposition phases. The geomorphological significance of the two different trends is  
8 showed in Fig. 4 (a) and (b) (i.e., the trend formed by the data in March and April against the  
9 trend formed). Also, there is a difference between the high scatter trend for low discharges  
10 (probably low flood stages) and regular trends for high discharges (probably high flood stages)  
11 because the water submerged the bars in high discharge and the multi-thread channels  
12 appears in low discharges. The Dari reach is defined in this study as semi-braided and semi-  
13 anabranching since vegetation (grass and some shrubs) partially develops on channel bars,  
14 and bars are relatively stable during low and middle flood stages, while are prone to change  
15 during high flood stages.

16 Fig. 5 shows the stage-discharge relationships of the Upper Yellow River at Dari from June to  
17 September in 1964-1984. Apparently, the stages of 1975 are out of line with 1978, perhaps  
18 indicating that the elevation benchmark of the station changed in 1976 or 1977. In the same  
19 month of different years, the stage-discharge relationship does not have a simple  
20 corresponding relation, especially in August and September. This may reflect: 1) responses of  
21 the channel bed to strong deposition in June and July, and thereafter the high stage  
22 corresponds to low discharge such as August in 1978-1984 and September in 1964-1975; 2)  
23 the channel bed strongly erodes in June and July, and thereafter the high stage corresponds to  
24 high discharge such as August in 1964-1975 and September in 1978-1984. Overall, Figure 2  
25 R1(a) and (b) indicate that the channel of Dari reach is quite unstable during the flood season,  
26 with erosion and deposition changing the stage-discharge relationship. A sketch showing how  
27 flow erosion divides bars and deposits to form new bars is shown in Fig. 6. The stage-  
28 discharge data in July from 1964-1984 are to run power function regression ( $Z = a * Q^b$ ). Two  
29 coefficients of  $a$  ( $b$ ) are 5.3(0.08) in 1964, 4.7(0.10) in 1965, 5.4(0.07) in 1966, 4.8(0.09) in  
30 1968, 5.2(0.07) in 1969, 5.3(0.07) in 1970, 5.3(0.06) in 1973, 4.6(0.10) in 1975, 2.9(0.11) in  
31 1978, 2.7(0.13) in 1979, 2.7(0.13) in 1980, 2.4(0.15) in 1981, and 2.8(0.13) in 1984.

1 Obviously, this difference of  $a$  ( $b$ ) is represented by the two different trends of the data before  
2 and after 1976, i.e,  $a$  decreased and  $b$  increased.

3

#### 4 **5.1.2 Maqu reach (anabranching river with tree cover)**

5 Maqu reach in wide Ruoergai basin is covered by dense tress (*Salix atopantha*) and has a  
6 stable anabranching channel planform (Fig. 2 R2(a)). It is postulated that a herb and shrub  
7 cover gradually supports the stabilization of new bars, facilitating sediment deposition on the  
8 body of the bar during low and middle flood stages, and protecting the bar from erosion at  
9 high flood stages. Subsequent development of trees presents a tall green barrier in the flood  
10 period. Although the water floods trees, their density induces sufficient resistance to decrease  
11 the flow velocity and trap fine sand and gravel on the body of the bar. Therefore, this  
12 anabranching channel system is basically stable over a decadal timescale.

13 Water stage change at Maqu station from 1959-1970 is shown in Fig. 7. The stage peak  
14 occurs in July and September. The maximum difference of 2.43 m occurred between June and  
15 September in 1963. If the water depth increases to 8.0 m from 4.0 m, bedload transport  
16 capacity increases to 18.52 kg/s/m from 2.75 kg/s/m. As a result, the branching channel bed  
17 may erode if the transport capacity exceeds upstream sediment supply. However, protection  
18 by trees is strong enough to inhibit erosion of bars. In contrary, if the upstream sediment  
19 supply surpasses the transport capacity, increasing bed deposition with flow stage further  
20 increases the transport capacity of the reach. This agrees with analyses by Huang and Nanson  
21 (2007) who stated that anabranching channels can achieve the optimal transport efficient  
22 without increasing bed gradient. Even though these reaches may appear to promote deposition  
23 on the channel bed during extreme floods (see Fig. 8), the flow erodes the bed later in the  
24 flood season, thereby maintaining an equilibrium cross-section. As a result, the anabranching  
25 channel of Maqu reach maintains a long-term stable situation.

#### 26 **5.1.3 Lanmucuo River (passive meandering river with meadow cover)**

27 Lanmucuo River is a typical meandering river covered by dense meadow. Although typically  
28 characterized by large bends in a flat valley, mid-channel gravel bar covered by herbs  
29 sometimes form at the apex of bends (Fig. 2 R3(a)). The meandering channel and bars are  
30 very stable because of low sediment supply in the flood season and good vegetation coverage.

1 The tight root-soil complex on concave banks inhibits flow scour. When cantilevered bank  
2 failures do occur, slump blocks restrict further erosion of the bank. Grass develops on the  
3 point bars of convex banks. When the overbank flow submerges the point bar, the herbaceous  
4 vegetation can increase flow resistance and promote fine sand deposition (Fig. 9), thereby  
5 maintaining channel geometry with a relatively low migration rate. Growth of herbs on mid-  
6 channel bars and apices (Fig.2 R3(b)) helps to increase the flow resistance and trap fine  
7 sediment, facilitating channel stability.

8

#### 9 **5.1.4 Daheba River (unvegetated braided river)**

10 The gravel bed of Daheba River is characterized by deposition in the flood season and erosion  
11 in the non-flood season. This makes it difficult for vegetation to develop on bars and banks of  
12 the braided channels. Fig. 10 shows morphological changes of the riverbed before and after  
13 the flood season in 2005. The main branching and sub-branching channels of the channel  
14 completely changed, with an initial phase of sediment deposition followed by flood-induced  
15 division of bars and the re-emergence of a multi-thread braided system. Table 3 shows  
16 derived estimates of the bed load transport capacity per width,  $q_b=2.25$  kg/s/m. This capacity  
17 is seemingly unable to efficiently transport the excess sediment supply from upstream. As a  
18 result, serious deposition occurs along Daheba River in the flood season.

19 Adjustments to channel geometry as a result of erosion and deposition processes before,  
20 during and after the flood season are shown in Fig. 11. The elevation of the riverbed on July  
21 29 2009 was 0.27 m higher than on April 1 2009. Other than slight erosion of the left bank,  
22 the subsequent phase was depositional, with up to 1.59 m of aggradation occurring by  
23 October 23 2009. The elevation of riverbed was increased by 0.27 m after the flood season in  
24 2010. The elevation of the riverbed in July 1 2011 was 0.26 m higher than on April 29 2011.  
25 Trivial deposition occurred from July 1 to July 8, but 0.24 m of erosion occurred by July 23,  
26 with subsequent deposition of 0.27 m by October 23. As a result, the riverbed elevation was  
27 0.24 m higher after flood season in 2011, but multiple phases of deposition and erosion has  
28 occurred. The deposition-erosion-deposition phases may reflect lower bedload transport  
29 capacity relative to sediment supply in the early flood season, but widespread deposition  
30 increases the local bed slope, thereby increasing bedload transport capacity. According to Eq.  
31 (3), a 10% increase in bed slope increases the transport capacity by 85% in Daheba reach, so

1 bed erosion occurs again. Bed erosion decreases the bed slope until the transport capacity has  
2 adjusted to reduced sediment supply, thereby inducing riverbed deposition once more.  
3 Consequently, alternative deposition and erosion leads to the extreme instability in the middle  
4 and lower Daheba River.

5

## 6 **6 Discussion and Conclusions**

7 This study has outlined the complex interplay between flow and sediment supply in the flood  
8 season, and the geomorphic/hydrodynamic role of vegetation cover on the valley floor, as  
9 determinants of channel morphodynamics/stability and bedload transport capacity for four  
10 alluvial reaches of the Yellow River source zone. Although the elevation of four reaches is  
11 different (Dari = 3960 m, Maqu = 3465 m, Lanmucuo River = 3604 m, and Daheba = 2832  
12 m), the precipitation, temperature, and bed sediment size are basically similar (Yu et al.,  
13 2014). Nevertheless, vegetation coverage in the four reaches is quite different. The Dari reach  
14 (anabranching-braided) has a herb and shrub cover, Maqu (anabranching) reach has trees,  
15 Lanmucuo River (meandering) has meadow, and Daheba River (braided) has no vegetation  
16 cover. As shown elsewhere, bar morphodynamics vary markedly for differing planform types,  
17 with key differences outlined here for braided, anabranching, and meandering channels (cf.,  
18 Hooke, 1986; Kleinhans, 2010; Kleinhans and van den Berg, 2010; Church and Ferguson,  
19 2015). Bar development and stability reflect the ability of vegetation to trap sediments and  
20 stabilize banks, which in turn is directly influenced by flow energy relationships (i.e., these  
21 are mutual adjustments; Corenblit et al., 2007; Gurnell et al., 2012; Gurnell, 2014; Osterkamp  
22 and Hupp, 2010; Pietsch and Nanson, 2011). In this study, riparian vegetation and its root  
23 network are considered to restrict channel width and increase hydraulic efficiency, inducing  
24 greater bedload transport capacity in multi-thread channels (Allmendinger et al., 2005; Huang  
25 and Nanson, 2007). Islands and floodplains are able to trap more fine-grained sediment in the  
26 flood season, enhancing the longer-term (decadal) stability of anabranching channels, as  
27 shown by the stable islands of Maqu reach.

28 Relative to the passive (resisting) role of vegetation, bedload transport actively affects short-  
29 term patterns and rates of bed erosion and deposition. This, in turn, is affected by  
30 relationships between the flow regime (especially flood events and formative flows) and the  
31 influence of sediment supply upon bedload transport for differing river types (Church and  
32 Ferguson, 2015; Dunne et al., 2010). The supply of bed material sediment to an alluvial

1 channel accelerates the growth of longitudinal, transverse, and point bars, thereby enhancing  
2 thalweg development and locally increasing flow velocity. Non-equilibrium between  
3 sediment supply and transport induces local channel instability, accentuating either bed  
4 erosion or deposition (Jansen and Nanson, 2010; Nanson and Huang, 2008). In this study, a  
5 channel stability gradient accords with both sediment movement and vegetation cover,  
6 wherein bedload transport capacity (a function of bed slope, hydraulic geometry, and  
7 sediment particle size) is related to the influence of riparian vegetation upon channel  
8 geometry/planform. We contend that the differing vegetation cover and planform response  
9 reflects the delicate balance between erosion and deposition on the channel bed and bank as  
10 influenced by bedload sediment supply in the flood season. Only when the bedload transport  
11 capacity is equivalent or greater than sediment supply, does vegetation act as a key  
12 determinant of channel stability.

13

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15 investigations. G. Brierley and Z.Y. Wang supervised the research and helped to contextualize  
16 the findings. Z.W. Li prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

17

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26

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- 11

1 Table 1. Characteristics of the four study reaches (Flood season = June-September)

Alluvial reach	Planform type	Catchment area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Flood-season mean discharge (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Channel gradient	Vegetation cover
Dari	braided-anabranching	45020	270	0.0012	dense grasses/ sparse brush
Maqu	anabranching	86000	920	0.0005	dense trees
Lanmucuo	meandering	660	15	0.0015	dense grass
Daheba	braided	5200	70	0.0018	non-vegetation

2

1 Table 2. Characteristics and bed material of alluvial channels in the four study reaches

Alluvial reach	Channel width (m)	Water depth (m)	Bed material $d_{50}$ (m)	Branching channels	Stability
Dari	450-1600	1.0-3.0	0.025	>5	semi-stable
Maqu	300-1000	2.0-5.0	0.015	>3	very stable
Lanmucuo	10-20	0.3-1.0	0.030	$\leq 2$	very stable
Daheba	150-500	0.5-2.0	0.060	>3	unstable

2

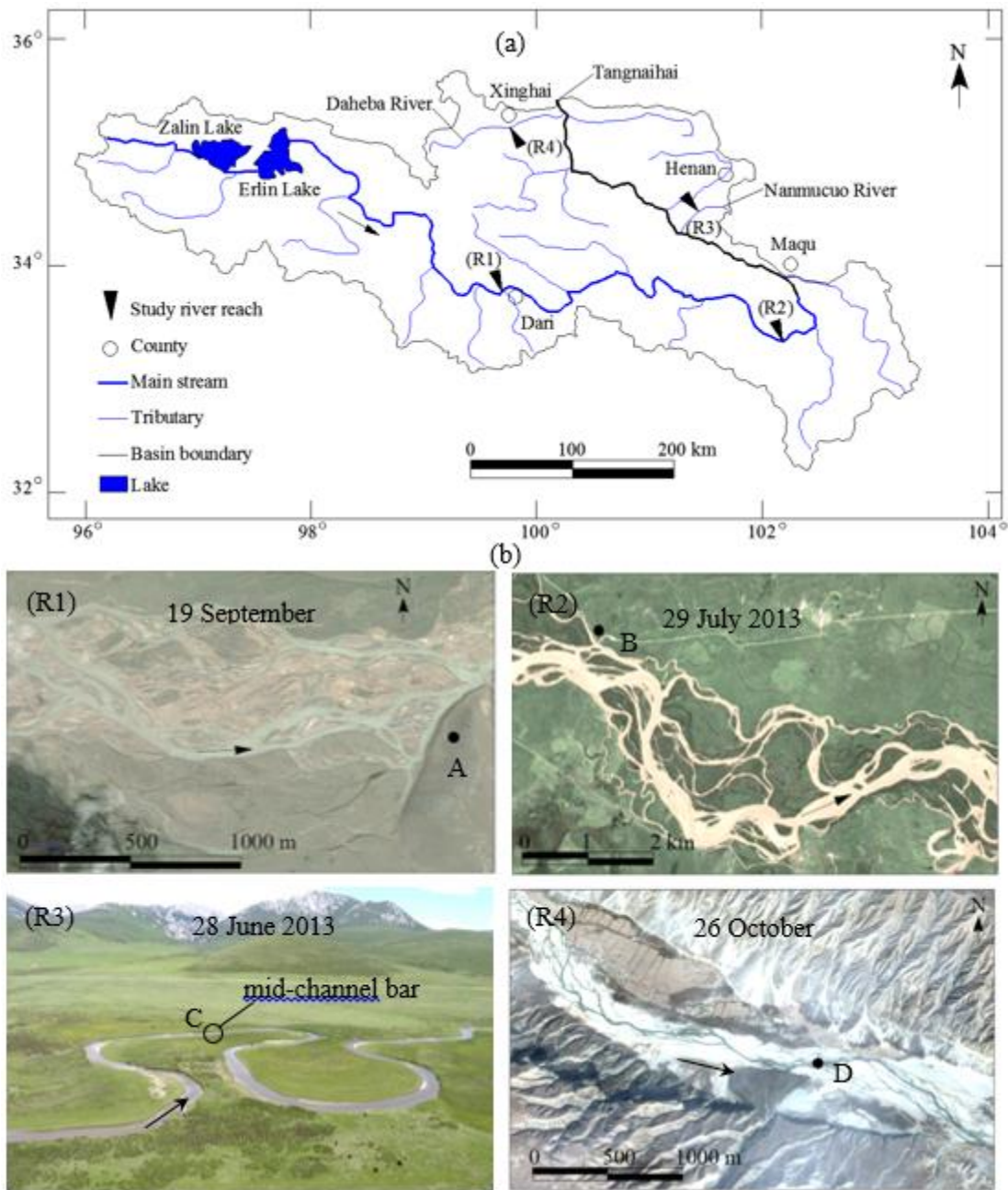
3



1 Table 3. Estimation of hydraulic coefficients and bedload transport rates

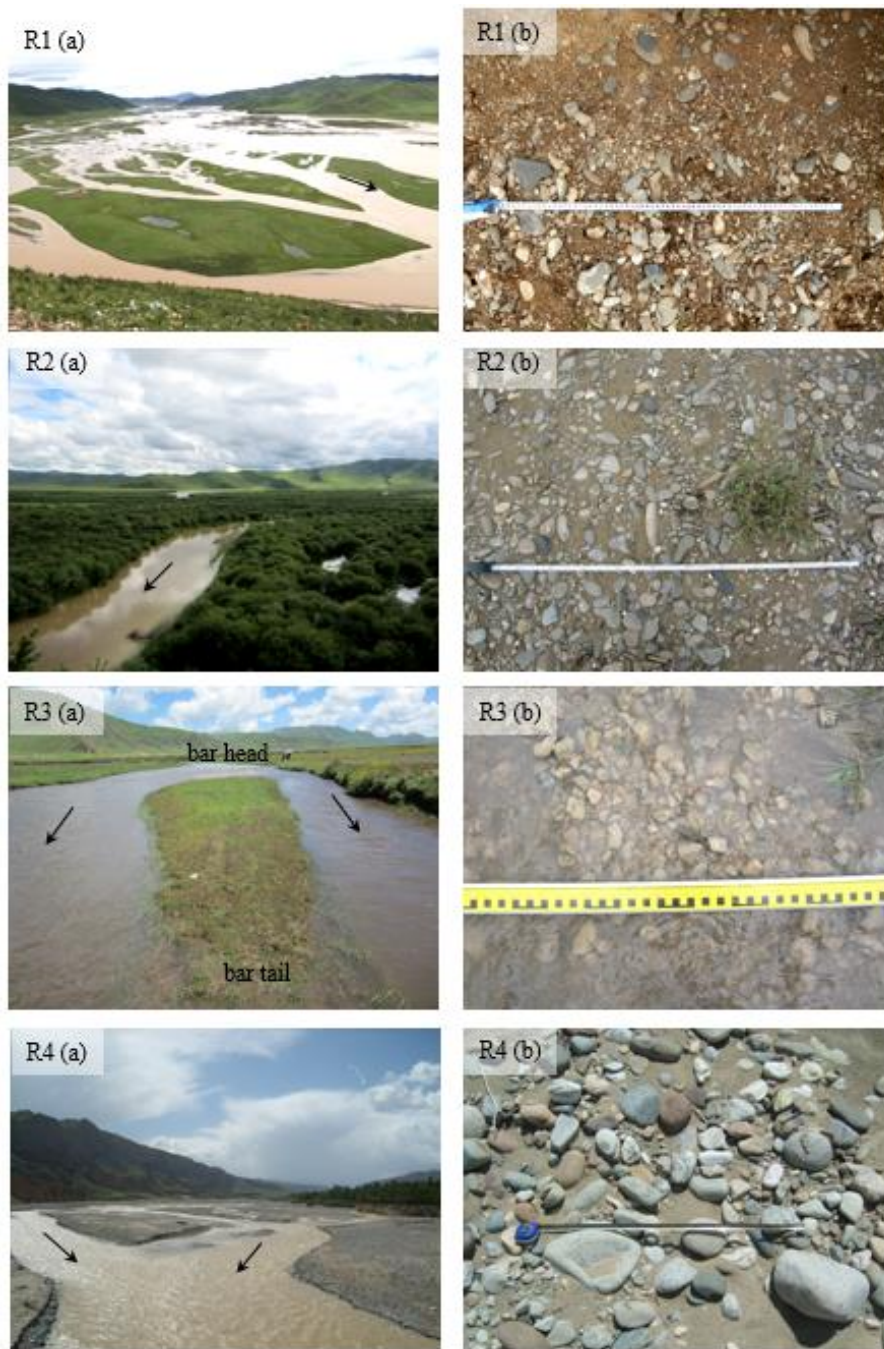
River reach	Bankfull channel width (m)	Bankfull water depth (m)	Channel gradient	Median grain size (m)	Manning coefficient	Average velocity (m/s)	Channel discharge (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	$q_b$ (kg/s/m)
Dari	200	2.0	0.0012	0.015	0.05	0.90	269.67	1.77
Maqu	400	4.0	0.0005	0.015	0.15	0.37	593.14	2.75
Lanmucuo	20	0.8	0.0015	0.010	0.03	1.06	16.91	2.35
Daheba	50	1.5	0.0018	0.016	0.05	0.96	71.75	2.25

2



1  
 2 Figure 1. (a) The course of the Upper Yellow River. R1 is Dari reach, R2 is Maqu reach, R3  
 3 is Lanmucuo River, and R4 is Daheba River, (b) Planform morphology of the study reaches  
 4 (R1 is Dari reach , R2 is Maqu reach, R3 is Lanmucuo River reach, and R4 is Daheba River  
 5 reach). R1, R2, and R4 are Google Earth images and R3 is a photograph taken from nearby  
 6 hills. Points A, B, C, and D are the location of photographs shown in Figures 2.

7



1  
 2 Figure 2. (R1) Channel morphology and gravel bed of Dari reach (photographs taken on 2  
 3 July, 2012, 33.7553 N, 99.6414 E, 3960 m elevation), (R2) Channel morphology and gravel  
 4 bed of Maqu reach (photographs taken on 8 July, 2012, 33.3594 N, 102.0553 E, 3465 m  
 5 elevation), (R3) Channel morphology and gravel bed of a grass covered bar in middle  
 6 Lanmucuo River (to photographs taken on 5 July, 2012, 34.4287 N, 101.4663 E, 3604 m  
 7 elevation), (R4) Channel morphology and gravel bed of middle Daheba River (photographs  
 8 taken on 6 August, 2011, 35.5169 N, 100.0183 E, 2832 m elevation).

9

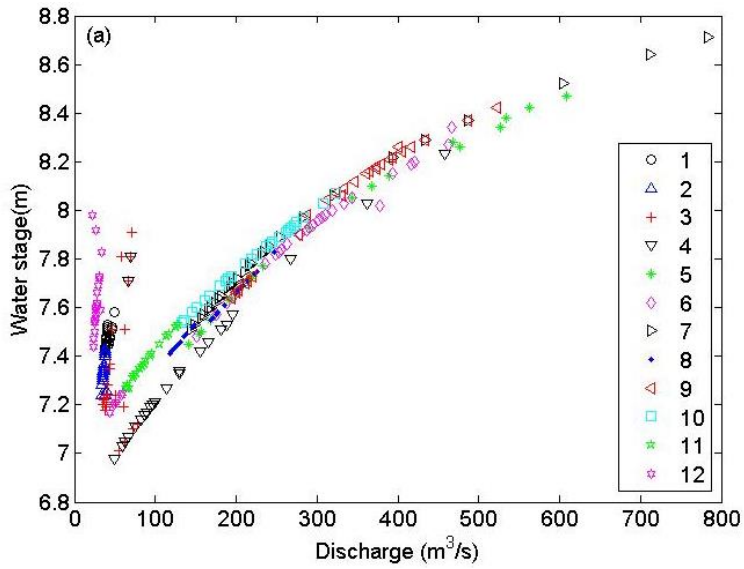




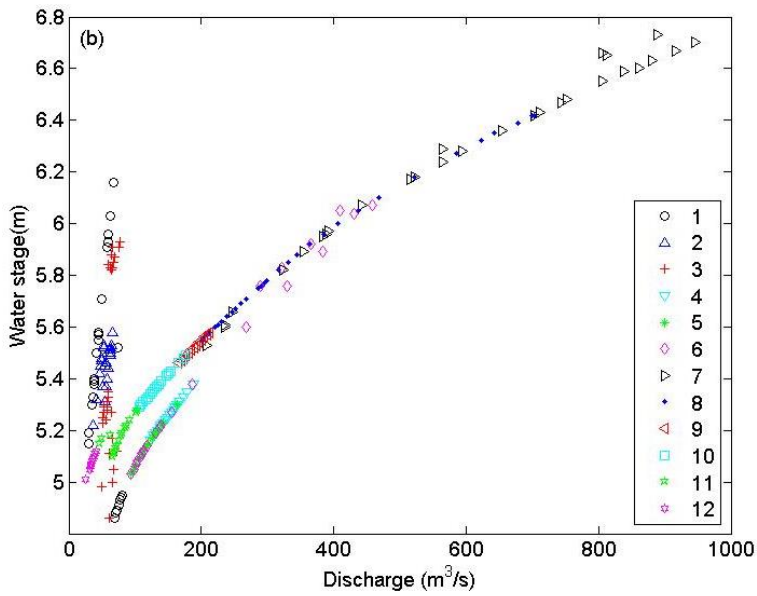
1

2 Figure 3. River bank of the study reaches (a) Dari reach, (b) Maqu reach, (c) Lanmucuo River  
 3 reach, and (d) Daheba River reach.

4



1

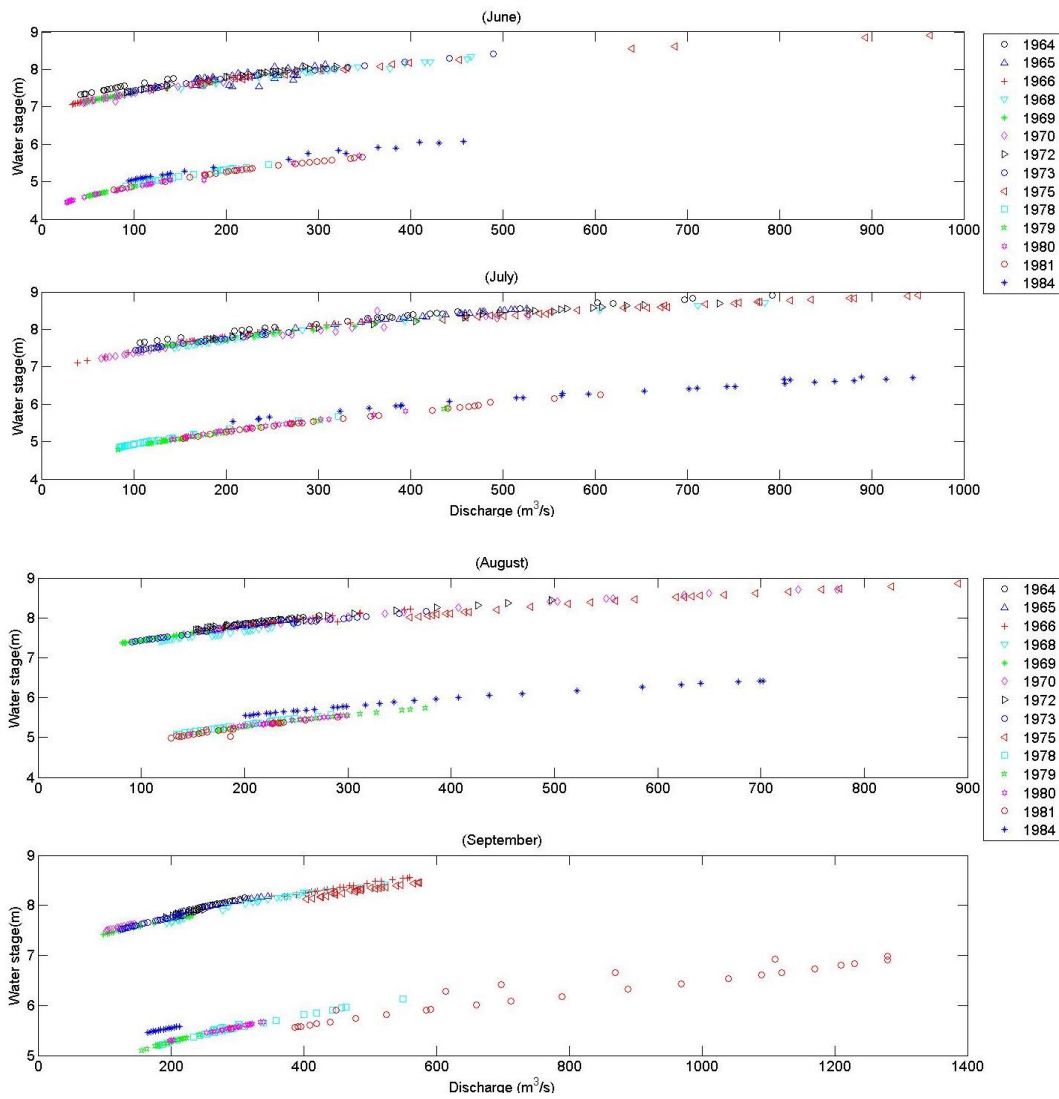


2

3 Figure 4. Monthly stage-discharge relationships for Jimai hydrological station in Dari reach (a)

4 1968 (b) 1984 (Note: number refers to month, e.g., 1 for January and 12 for December).

5

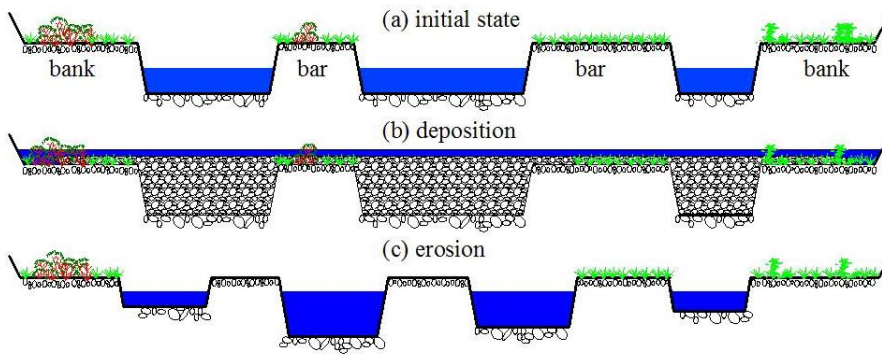


1

2

3 Figure 5. Annual stage-discharge relationship (1964-1984) of Dari reach in Jimai hydrological  
 4 station.

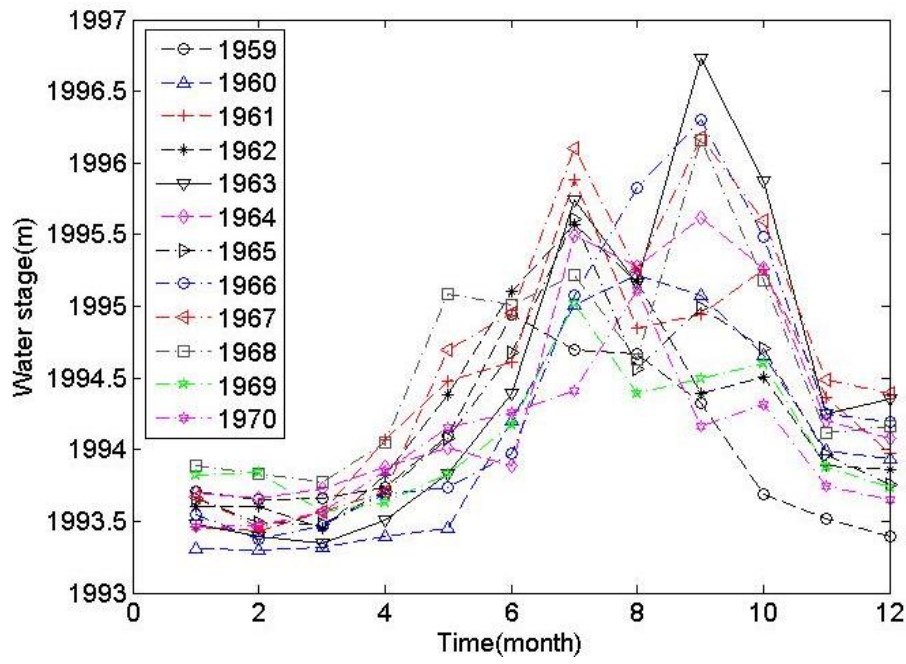
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1

2 Figure 6. Sketch of channel bed deposition and erosion in flood season in Dari reach.

3

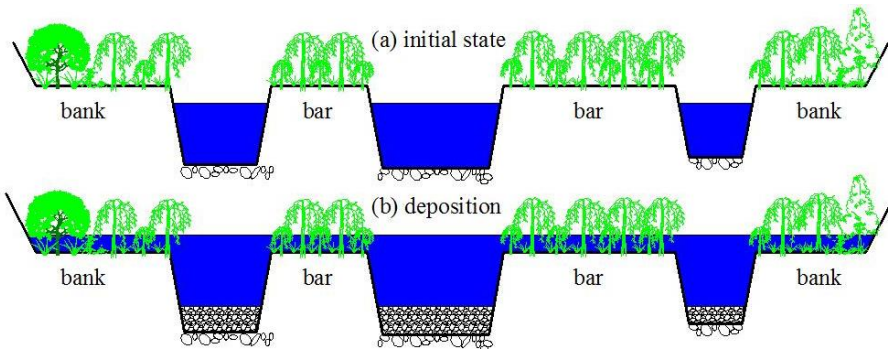


1

2 Figure 7. Monthly stage change of Maqu hydrological station (1959-1970).

3



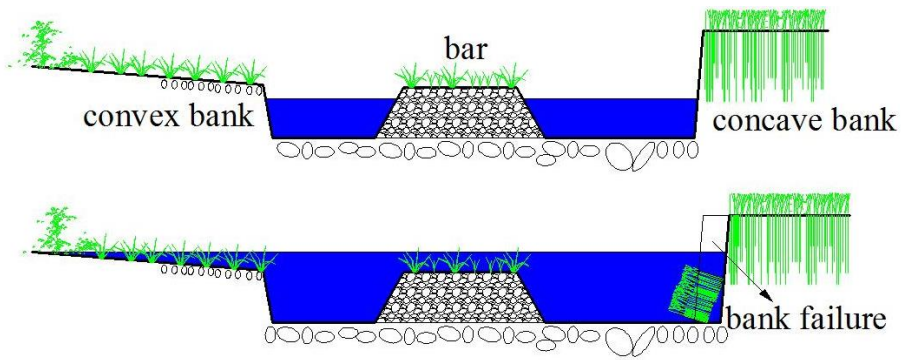


1

2 Figure 8. Sketch of branching channel deposition and stage increasing in flood season in

3 Maqu reach

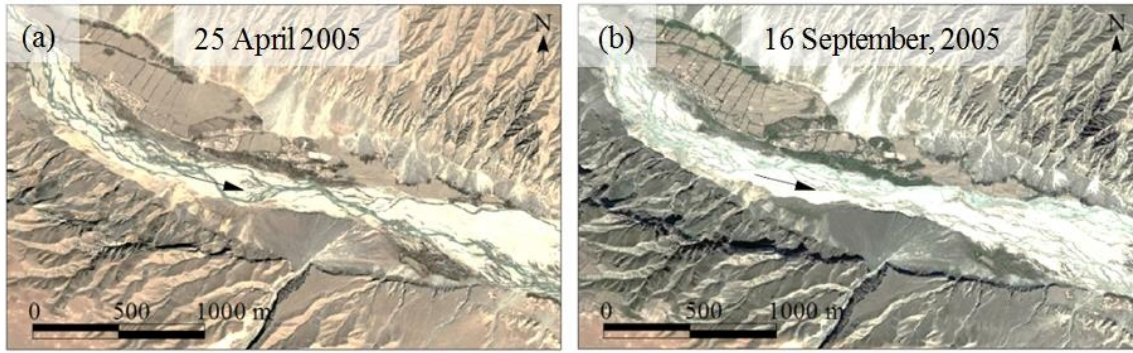
4



1

2 Figure 9. Sketch of submerged bend apex with a mid-channel bar in the Lanmucuo River

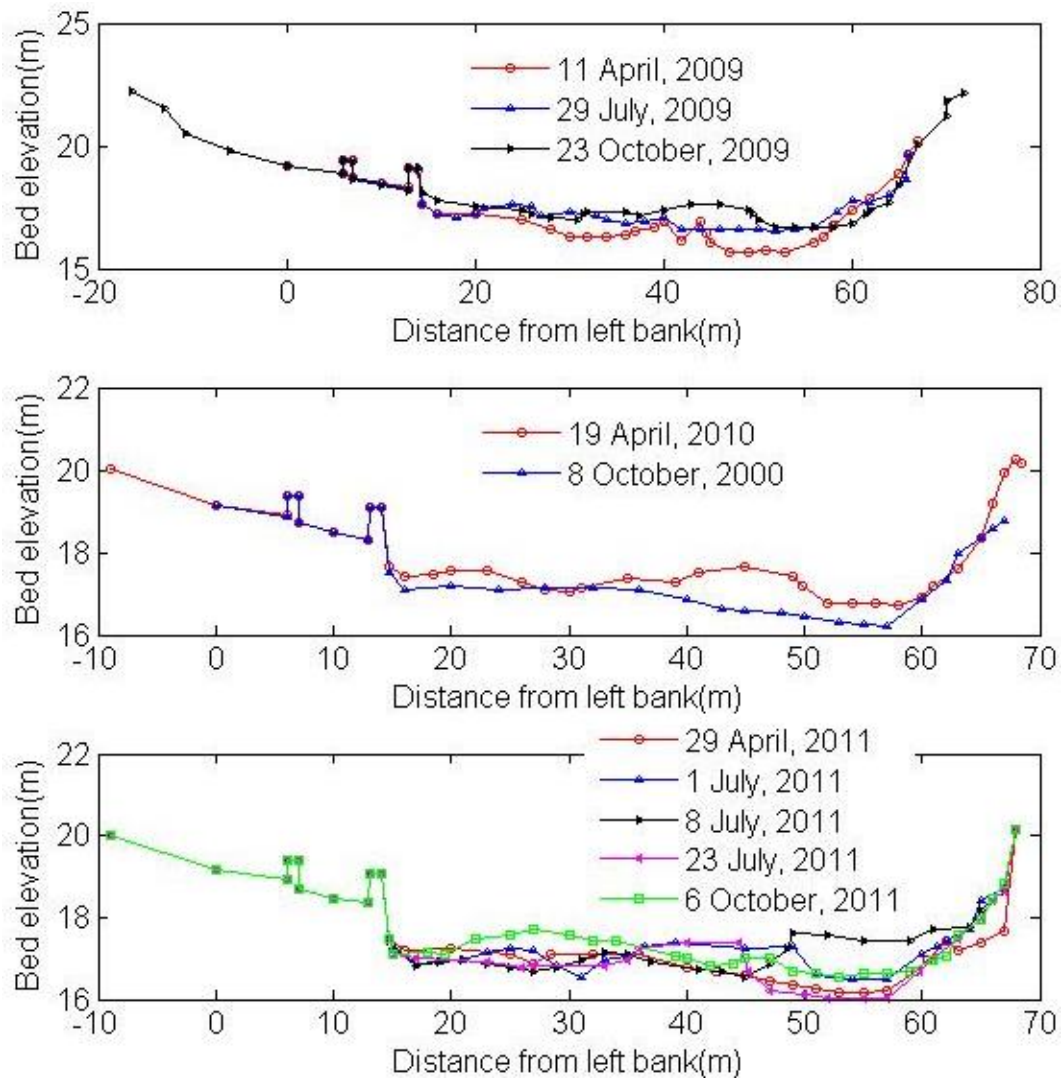
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2 Figure 10. Braided channels evolution of the middle Daheba River in 2005 (a) in non-flood  
3 season, (b) in flood season

4



1  
 2 Figure 11. Elevation change of cross-section in Shangcun hydrological station (2009-2011)  
 3 (left for left bank, right for right bank)