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Main potential drivers of trout population dynamics in bypassedstream sections

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10 Short title: Main drivers of trout population dynamics

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13 ABSTRACT

14 The key role of hydrological variability in structuring brown trout populations is well-15 established. However, the influence of additional drivers is more difficult to identify. The 16 implementation of long-term monitoring and the development of reliable tools can help reveal 17 fine local drivers structuring fish populations in contrasted flow regimes. The present study 18 used data series for nine reaches monitored for nine to nineteen years in four French salmonid 19 streams. Study reaches were within five bypassed sections influenced by instream flow. A 20 deterministic trout population dynamics model was applied on each reach, with calibration 21 and validation procedures. Results revealed that biological drivers structured all reaches 22 similarly. In addition, seven other drivers were identified. Among these additional drivers, 23 hydrology mainly explained temporal fluctuations in trout density, regardless of reach. Three 24 drivers independent of hydrology were also revealed: poor water quality, limited spawning 25 area, and the effect of power plant operations. All drivers influenced the whole bypassed 26 section and were never limited to the scale of the reach (sampling area). Further analyses of 27 each driver are now needed, to regionalize and quantify their respective impact precisely. Research perspectives include developing a tool that can be used at any location, integrating 28 29 temporal variability and most of the controlling drivers for each population type. Thus, 30 assessment of trout population status would be simplified, enabling implementation of 31 efficient management rules.

32

33 **KEY-WORDS**: Trout, population dynamics, structuring drivers, bypassed section

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Freshwater ecosystems provide vital natural resources (e.g., clean water and food) and 37 services (e.g., energy, irrigation, waste assimilation, recreation) that contribute to human wellbeing (Vörösmarty et al. 2010). However, such human use of freshwater ecosystems has 38 39 resulted in declining biodiversity worldwide (Dudgeon et al. 2006). Balmfort et al. (2002) 40 estimated that freshwater vertebrates declined at an annual rate of 2.4% over the period 1970-1999. In the last few decades, 20% of described freshwater fish species worldwide have been 41 42 listed as threatened, endangered or extinct (Magurran et al. 2010). Among fish species, brown 43 trout (Salmo trutta L.) is subject to specific human impact because of its economic and 44 cultural importance. In France, in addition to these pressures, a large majority of hydroelectric 45 schemes (80%) are located on salmonid streams, where brown trout is the dominant fish 46 species. Moreover, studies of reference streams revealed a significant decrease in brown trout distribution area and abundance in recent years (Poulet et al. 2011). Multiple causes were 47 48 mentioned: habitat degradation, proliferative kidney disease, angling catch, and water 49 temperature. Predicted trends for salmonid distribution area under global warming suggest 50 that trout range will decrease in the future (Comte et al. 2013).

51 In this context, scientists need to develop knowledge and tools to facilitate operational 52 decisions for ecological and sustainable water management. Above all, precise knowledge of 53 the driving factors influencing fish population dynamics is required. It is clear that multiple 54 drivers operating on different space and time scales structure fish population dynamics (Durance et al. 2006; Jackson et al. 2001; Vincenzi et al. 2012). Trout biology and ecology 55 56 have been studied for many years and are now relatively well-documented compared to other 57 fish species (Baglinière & Maisse 1991; Elliott 1994; Jonsson et al. 2001; Klemetsen et al. 58 2003). However, few studies have qualified the effects of the various drivers involved in trout 59 population dynamics. It is well-established that hydrological events during fry, intra-gravel 60 and post-emergence periods are major drivers of trout recruitment (Cattanéo et al. 2002; Gouraud et al. 2008; Jensen & Johnsen 1999; Lobón-Cerviá 2004). In addition, recruitment 61 62 has often been shown to be the main driver of population size (Lobón-Cerviá 2009; Milner et al. 2003). Thus, by limiting recruitment, discharge is often one of the main drivers of trout 63 population dynamics in mountain streams. Beyond hydrology, however, multiple drivers, 64 65 abiotic or biotic, can structure trout populations (Milner et al. 2003). The most commonly cited abiotic factors are temperature (Armstrong et al. 2010; Armstrong et al. 2013; Warren et 66

al. 2012) and water chemistry (Eklöv et al. 1999), while competition for resources seems to be 67 68 the major biotic determinant of trout population. Competition is linked to several biotic (such 69 as food availability, Grant et al. 1998) or abiotic drivers (such as carrying capacity, Lobón-70 Cerviá 2008) and can induce density-dependent effects on growth or survival (Elliott 1994). 71 The various drivers structuring trout populations operate on different space and time scales. 72 Small-scale studies have highlighted the effects of precise biotic drivers (Einum et al. 2011; 73 Jenkins et al. 1999; Lobón-Cerviá 2008), and abiotic factors such as flow regime (Lobón-74 Cerviá 2004; Vøllestad & Olsen 2008) and temperature (Borgstrøm & Museth 2005). 75 However, most studies focused on the details of a single site, making large-scale extrapolation 76 hazardous (Jackson et al. 2001). The present study therefore adopted a local scale analysis of 77 trout population dynamics in nine different reaches, and summarized the spatial and temporal 78 incidence of drivers identified at local level so as to assess the generalizability of the local 79 results.

80 The study focused on nine reaches, located in five bypassed sections of hydroelectric dams in 81 four geographically remote trout-bearing mountain streams. All the bypassed sections were 82 under minimum flow, and had been previously studied to assess minimum flow value effects 83 on trout population dynamics compared with reference sites (Gouraud et al. 2001; Gouraud et 84 al. 2008). Local trout population dynamics models, calibrated on five of the nine reaches (in 85 the Beyrède, Pont-Haut and Rory bypassed sections), were previously published (Gouraud et al. 2001; Gouraud et al. 2008). Long-term monitoring (between nine and nineteen years) then 86 87 allowed accurate analysis of the temporal dynamics of the nine trout populations (Waters 88 1999). The study objective was to provide an update on these trout population dynamics 89 analyses so as to identify the spatial and temporal incidence of each population driver. A 90 deterministic population dynamics model was then calibrated for each reach, with local trout 91 population features. Certain trout population dynamics drivers were implemented in the initial model and subsequently calibrated for each population (biological characteristics, carrying 92 93 capacity, food availability, etc.). In addition, long term monitoring identified further abiotic 94 drivers which only occasionally influenced trout population, which were then added to the 95 initial model.

96 MATERIAL AND METHOD

97 Trout population dynamics model

98 General model

99 The study used the MODYPOP deterministic trout population dynamics model described by 100 Gouraud et al. (2001). This model, based on the Leslie matrix, simulates change in a trout 101 population (i.e., density and biomass of different development stages: 0+, 1+ and >1+) over 102 time by 1-month time steps. Two mechanisms of population regulation as a function of habitat 103 are integrated: (1) density-dependent mortality, which tends to push the population toward a 104 size compatible with local carrying capacity, and (2) adjustment of adult biomass to local 105 carrying capacity.

106 Trout population dynamics drivers

107 Several inputs were required for MODYPOP calibration: (1) biological parameters (survival, 108 fecundity, growth rates, female fertility, sex ratio, number of development stages and initial 109 density and biomass for each stage) and (2) environmental drivers (carrying capacity, food 110 availability, and time series of daily discharge and daily temperature). Environmental drivers 111 contribute to model growth rate and density-dependent effects. These required MODYPOP 112 inputs were calibrated for each reach, either by monitoring or by knowledge taken from the 113 literature (detailed in Gouraud et al. (2001).

Four non-required drivers (abiotic drivers which may occasionally influence trout population and which were tested in the study) were added to the MODYPOP model as reach-specific drivers. The four reach-specific drivers were: flooding (Cattanéo 2005), limited available spawning area, power plant operations (Gouraud et al. 2008), and water quality. These drivers were calibrated using the same approach.

119 Model calibration for reach-specific drivers

MODYPOP was calibrated for each reach and each development stage, adding reach-specificdrivers one by one, using the same iterative qualitative approach:

- (1) Identification of one reach-specific driver: model simulations were compared with
 observations to identify whether a reach-specific driver could explain the residual
 error for a development stage. We focused at first on the development stage associated
 with the highest residual error, then chose an initial reach-specific driver that best
 explained deviations in terms of magnitude, direction and frequency.
- (2) Calibration: the effect of identified reach-specific drivers was calibrated by tuning
 mortality rates (testing several rates, by 5% steps, consistent with the accuracy of our

data and deterministic approach), while other parameters of the population dynamics model remained constant. For hydrological drivers, minimum duration and flood threshold were also tuned: the population was influenced when daily flow exceeded threshold for a sufficient number of days. Values associated with the minimum deviation between observation and simulation for the reach (all development stages and all years) were retained for analysis.

(3) Returning to step 1, another driver was identified, with the same approach. The
 process stopped when remaining drivers no longer explained any residual deviation.

137 Model validation

MODYPOP validation was based on tests of the significance of each reach model, for each development stage. The Monte-Carlo randomization test was used with 10,000 permutations of observed density (Crowley 1992). The aim was to test whether random assignment of data would be as closely associated with the model's predictions as the original data. The ability of the model to capture temporal variations was validated for a given reach if less than 5% of random permutations were associated with (1) a lower sum of squared deviations and (2) a better prediction of the direction of density fluctuations from one year to another.

145 Data set

146 Bypassed sections and reaches

147 The study focused on five bypassed sections where brown trout (Salmo trutta L.) was the 148 dominant fish species. They were located in four mountain watersheds, geographically remote 149 from one another except for Fontan and Breil which were at about 10 kilometers' distance 150 (respectively, upstream and downstream bypassed section) in the same Mediterranean stream 151 (Fig. 1). The physical characteristics of the bypassed sections differed greatly, with annual mean flow ranging between 2.7 and 20 $m^3 s^{-1}$, altitude between 280 and 740 m and slope 152 153 between 0.7% and 3.7% (Table 129287). All constituted little reservoirs upstream of a dam 154 without retention capacity, with high natural flow rates occurring by overtopping.

155 One to three reaches were selected within each bypassed section as being representative of the 156 mesohabitat assemblage of the whole section (Table 2). When more than one reach was 157 chosen in a given bypassed section, these reaches showed significantly different mesohabitat 158 assemblage. We chose to study the population dynamics at reach scale so as to be able to 159 detect whether driver effects depended on the mesohabitat assemblage.

160 Conducting local modeling in nine reaches, some of which being located within the same 161 bypassed section, provided an opportunity to investigate the generalizability of the local 162 approaches: local results were summarized by characterizing the spatial and temporal 163 incidence of the identified drivers.

164 Monitoring and estimation of model drivers

165 The study period was from 1990 to 2013. During this period, each reach was monitored in 166 terms of trout population, habitat, water quality and inter-annual variables (discharge, 167 temperature and streambed substrate favorable to spawning).

168 Each reach was sampled annually by wading, using two-pass removal electrofishing 169 sampling, following the recommendations of the European Committee for Standardization 170 (CEN 2003). Sampling was performed without blocking nets, in summer or early autumn. All 171 fish caught were identified, measured (total length) and weighed. Histogram analysis 172 determined size according to development stage (0+, 1+, >1+). Trout abundance for each 173 stage and for each sample were estimated with the Carle and Strub (1978) method. Densities 174 (estimated abundance per sampled reach length) and biomasses (total weight per sampled 175 reach length) were obtained for each development stage and each sample. Mean density and 176 standard deviation were calculated for each development stage and each reach, based on all 177 samples taken during the study period.

178 Habitat simulations were obtained for each reach in accordance with the PHABSIM protocol 179 adapted to French streams (Ginot et al. 1998; Sabaton et al. 1995). Weighted usable area 180 (WUA, in m²) was used to represent habitat availability for the three development stages (Souchon et al. 1989). The ratio between the maximum adult biomass sampled during the 181 182 study period and the WUA for adults at instream flow value (minimum available habitat) was 183 used to represent the local carrying capacity of the reach. In addition, spawning habitat 184 availability was calculated almost every year for reaches located in the Fontan, Breil and Rory 185 bypassed sections; this corresponds to the ratio between the area of streambed displaying 186 grain sizes between 0.2 and 5 cm in diameter, considered to be favorable to trout spawning 187 (Baglinière & Maisse 1991; Kondolf & Wolman 1993), and the entire wetted area of the 188 reach.

189 Daily discharge and temperature time series were determined from recorders deployed within190 each monitored bypassed section. When discharge was temporarily unavailable, it was

191 extrapolated using natural daily discharge time series and/or operative data provided by power

- 192 plants. Missing water temperature values were estimated using extrapolation models from air
- 193 temperature (Bret et al.).

Habitat simulations associated to daily discharge time series determined daily WUA time series for the three development stages for each reach. This dynamic approach is considered the most appropriate for studying habitat limitation in population dynamics (Capra et al. 197 1995). It was used in MODYPOP to evaluate local carrying capacity by monthly steps for each development stage.

199 The date and magnitude of each power plant operation event (overtopping, flushing or plant 200 shutdown) that occurred during the study period were determined. Water quality was 201 measured on each reach at the beginning of the study, and then regularly recorded only in 202 reaches at risk of poor water quality according to the first analysis.

203 **RESULTS**

204 **Population structure and carrying capacity**

- Strong temporal fluctuations in trout density were observed in all study reaches (Table 16320). Mean densities and standard deviations were higher for 0+ than for 1+ or >1+. Mean coefficients of variation for reach development-stage densities were 0.98 for 0+, 0.78 for 1+ and 0.58 for >1+.
- 209 The population structures were quite similar to each other, except for the Breil reaches.
- 210 Comparison of the two trout populations in the Roya River (separated by ~10 km) revealed
- 211 differences in biological characteristics. Growth was higher downstream in Breil (26-32 mm
- 212 in the third year) than upstream in Fontan (21-24 mm at the third year); trout survived longer
- 213 downstream (5 years) than upstream (4 years); and age at first maturity in females was greater
- downstream (3 years old) than upstream (2 years old).
- 215 The carrying capacity of each development stage fluctuated between reaches within a given
- bypassed section and between years in a given reach, depending on discharge. Limitation due
- to carrying capacity was never observed in any reaches at any time during the study period.

218 Additional reach-specific drivers

- 219 The seven additional drivers identified are presented in Bold italic: non-significant test
- 220

Table 4. For the three bypassed sections represented by two or three reaches, the same drivers

were involved for all reaches, and tuned parameters (mortality rates, and flood thresholds anddurations) showed the same values.

Four drivers concerned hydrology. Two types of hydrological event induced mortality: (1) floods during spawning (for the Beyrède bypassed section, represented by three reaches) or in Spring (for all reaches) induced mortality in 0+ trout, and (2) exceptional floods induced mortality in all development stages (for two bypassed sections represented by five reaches: Beyrède and Fontan). Flood thresholds and minimum durations inducing 0+ mortality are presented in Table 5. Mortality rates could differ greatly depending on the intensity of the event (between 20% and 90%).

In contrast, two hydrological events induced positive effects on mortality: (1) overtopping was associated with better 1+ survival (when flooding exceeded 10 m³.s⁻¹ during Spring) and >1+ survival (whatever the flood value or time of year) in the LIG2 reach, and (2) no floods during Spring was associated with better 1+ survival in the ROIP2 reach. These survival rates depended of the number of individuals in the lower development stage the year before.

236 In addition to hydrology, three other abiotic drivers were identified. Limited available 237 spawning area induced mortality during intra-gravel life in the LIG2 reach. This occurred 238 almost every year, except in 2000 and 2001 when high floods increased spawning ground. In 239 the two reaches of the Breil bypassed section, three short-term poor water-quality events were 240 observed during warm Summers, due to under-sizing of the upstream wastewater treatment 241 plant, and induced mortality in 0+ trout. Finally, power plant operations induced 0+ and 1+ 242 mortality in the three reaches of the Beyrède bypassed section (three times during the twenty 243 years of monitoring). The intensities of these drivers differed: power plant operation seemed 244 to induce less mortality (50% to 75%) in the Beryède reaches than poor water-quality in the 245 Breil reaches (75%) or limited spawning area in the Rory reach (80%).

246 Final complete models

Model calibration results for each reach underscored the influence of local phenomena on trout population structure. Observed and simulated density fluctuations for all development stages in the BEY2 reach are presented Fig. 2 to illustrate these results. Results for all reaches are proposed as supplementary materials. A synthesis of the temporal and spatial incidence of each identified driver is shown in Fig. 3. For the three bypassed sections represented by more than one reach, all identified drivers operated at all reaches of the section. Most of the drivers were observed in any given bypassed section. Temporal occurrence was somewhat dependent on study period duration, and was more variable than spatial occurrence: between 0.08 times.year⁻¹ for exceptional flooding and every year for overtopping in the Rory bypassed section, and for biotic processes (those included in the initial model: survival, fecundity and growth rate, potential carrying capacity and food availability).

258 Model validation

- 259 Validation test results are presented in Table 16320.
- First, validation tests were performed on reach models with only biotic drivers (without the seven additional abiotic ones). Results revealed that only 15% of reach models were validated for the direction of the density fluctuations between years and for the density value.
- Second, validation tests were performed on final models, integrating all drivers (biotic and 263 264 additional abiotic ones). Additional drivers greatly improved the number of validated reach models: 63% for density fluctuation direction and 70% for density value. All models for the 265 BREIL1 reach showed poor results. Models for 0+ were validated for all other reaches, except 266 267 for direction in the ROIP2 reach (p-value=0.06). Predictions for this development stage were 268 then successful in seven of the nine reaches. Predictions for other development stages were less satisfactory (5/9 for 1+ and 6/9 for >1+). The first development stage was better 269 270 simulated than the older ones.

271 **DISCUSSION**

The present study revealed that biotic drivers structured all reaches. In addition, seven other drivers were identified, four of which concerned hydrology. All drivers operated at bypassed section rather than reach scale.

275 **Biotic processes**

276 The biotic processes originally included in the model (survival, fecundity and growth rates, carrying capacity and food availability) structured all reaches. They were necessary but not 277 278 sufficient to validate reach models in most cases. Gouraud (1999) demonstrated their 279 importance in population dynamics modeling (for example, a density-dependent effect on 0+ 280 could decrease mortality rate 4-fold in this development stage). Carrying capacity (Ayllón et 281 al. 2012) and density-dependent mortality (Nicola et al. 2008; Ojanguren et al. 2001) are two 282 drivers widely documented as structuring trout populations. In the present study, these 283 processes contributed to achieving validated models, thus confirming that they need to be

integrated in population dynamics models. However, no limitation was seen reacted to carrying capacity for adults, in terms of habitat availability as measured by WUA, during the study period. Other habitat components, such as shelter availability, may, however, influence trout dynamics (Dieterman & Hoxmeier 2011).

288 Additional drivers

289 Among additional drivers, hydrology mainly explained temporal fluctuations in trout density, 290 regardless of reach. It operated throughout the trout life-cycle, depending on flood intensity. 291 An effect of flooding during Spring (for all reaches) or spawning (for Beyrède reaches only) 292 on recruitment was observed regularly during the study period (0.48 times.year⁻¹ on average). 293 Hydrological events during spawning show positive or no effect (Hayes 1995; Lobón-Cerviá 294 1996; Unfer et al. 2011) more often than negative impact (Nelson 1986) on trout density. 295 These differences may be explained by the timing between the hydrological event and trout 296 spawning in the study river: a reasonable flood event just before spawning may improve the 297 potential spawning ground (Poff et al. 1997; Unfer et al. 2011), while high flooding after eggs 298 have been laid could induce redd scouring and egg mortality (Montgomery 1996). In contrast, 299 the negative effect of high flow during intra-gravel and post-emergence life on recruitment 300 has been widely reported in mountain streams (Cattanéo et al. 2002; Jensen & Johnsen 1999; 301 Lobón-Cerviá 2004). However, comparison of four different geographical contexts revealed 302 that the threshold value as of which mortality occurred in the first development stage differed 303 between bypassed sections. The Breil population in the Roya River seemed to have the 304 highest threshold compared to its low flow magnitude (threshold=4.9*Q90). This river is 305 subject to a strong hydrological regime, with regular occurrence of intense floods. The Breil trout population, which had faster growth, may be less sensitive to floods than the Fontan 306 307 population in the same river or other studied populations (Klemetsen et al. 2003). 308 Furthermore, the present large dataset (in terms of study period and number of monitored 309 reaches) allowed observation of mortality induced by exceptional floods on two bypassed 310 sections (Fontan and Beyrède) whenever the event occurred. This driver was also observed in 311 some other studies (Jowett & Richardson 1989; Young et al. 2010).

Usually, hydrology induced negative effects on mortality, but in the present study it was also associated with a positive impact in the Rory and Pont-Haut reaches, playing a determining role in maintaining population viability. For the Rory reach, better 1+ and >1+ survival was likely induced by downstream migration when overtopping occurred (Gouraud et al. 2008).

316 Adult densities were not correctly simulated for this reach (non-significant validation tests: 317 57% of simulated densities higher than observed values). This driver may be less structuring 318 for adults than for 1+ trout, and dedicated monitoring will be required to study adult 319 migration on this reach. Juvenile and adult migration were previously observed in other 320 streams, occurring regularly over the years, depending on different drivers (Cucherousset et 321 al. 2006; Frank et al. 2012; Vøllestad et al. 2012). In contrast, populations with little mobility 322 were also reported (Dieterman & Hoxmeier 2011). The present study revealed an influence of 323 migration on population dynamics only in the Rory reach. This process need greater attention 324 and specific monitoring to be precisely modeled. For the Pont-Haut reach, better 1+ survival was regularly observed (every 0.57 years), due to absence of flooding during Spring. Some 325 326 authors reported different effects of hydrology on 0+ trout depending on the timing of the 327 event (Hayes et al. 2010; Unfer et al. 2011). However, the influence of this driver on 1+ is not 328 clearly known. Drivers structuring older development stages than 0+ are more difficult to 329 detect (Cattanéo et al. 2002).

330 Furthermore, three other local drivers, independent of hydrology, were revealed: (1) poor 331 water quality in the two Breil reaches during warm Summers, (2) limited spawning area in the 332 Rory reach due to reduced sediment transport, and (3) an impact of power plant operations in the three Beyrède reaches. These drivers all acted at least on recruitment, with different levels 333 334 of influence and frequencies. Limited spawning area by reduced sediment transport in the 335 Rory reach appeared to be a major structuring driver, occurring every 0.89 years. In contrast, 336 poor water quality in the Breil reaches and power plant operations in the Beyrède reaches 337 were rarer, and will require long-term local monitoring. Drivers limiting trout biology (water 338 quality or spawning area availability) were only observed in one specific bypassed section, 339 but it could reasonably be supposed that the effect might occur in any bypassed section 340 affected by the same limitation.

Finally, when two or three reaches of the same bypassed section were modeled, no drivers were identified for only one of them: i.e., all drivers acted at bypassed section scale. This result is consistent with the spatial scale of influence of the identified drivers (Jackson et al. 2001).

345 Synthesis

346 We propose to synthesize these results by characterizing the drivers identified in the study:

- (1) general drivers, observed on more than two bypassed sections: biotic processes
 (survival, fecundity and growth rates, potential carrying capacity, food availability),
 flooding during Spring or spawning and exceptional floods;
- 350

351

(2) specific drivers: downstream migration allowed by overtopping, limited spawning area, no flooding during Spring, poor water quality, and power plant operation.

352 Complete models were validated: they accurately simulated density and temporal fluctuations 353 of each development stage in most reaches. The MODYPOP model thus appeared well suited 354 to simulate trout populations in different geographical contexts. However, 0+ simulations 355 showed better significance than older stages. Recruitment density was much more variable than 1+ or >1+ density. This low range of variation explained the lower results of the Monte-356 357 Carlo validation tests for older stages. It was difficult to identify specific drivers structuring 358 1+ or >1+ trout in these conditions. Most drivers affected recruitment. Monitoring will need 359 to be maintained to detect drivers for older stages, as the chances of detecting environmental 360 influences on the population increase with the length of the time series (Vörösmarty et al. 361 2010), even if older stages were rarely reported to be structured by abiotic drivers (Cattanéo et 362 al. 2002). Moreover, the studied trout populations were located in bypassed sections. We also 363 monitored reference reaches and applied this approach to several of them (Gouraud et al. 364 2004). Results on these reaches were consistent with the drivers presented in this paper, but it was decided not to include them because they were few in comparison with reaches located in 365 366 bypassed sections. Further studies need to be conducted on streams with unregulated flow, to 367 confirm main the drivers of trout population in various hydrological contexts.

368 Conclusion

369 The present study used long-term extensive biological and physical monitoring to build 370 population dynamics models with reach-specific calibration and validation procedures. This 371 required long and heavy investment, preventing wider analysis. Thus, this reach-based 372 approach is probably not suited to drawing general conclusions (Armstrong & Nislow 2012). 373 Our comparative approach revealed drivers operating at different temporal and spatial levels. 374 Additional analyses need to be conducted for each driver on larger data-sets, to regionalize 375 and quantify their effects exactly. For example, the influence of hydrological events during 376 Spring on recruitment may be related to hydraulic conditions (e.g., flow velocity) rather than 377 of the mean daily flow value. This approach might reveal a global influence of hydraulic 378 conditions, rather than a site-specific influence of hydrology. Fitting the model through a

379 statistical method would remove the time-consuming calibration procedures and also allow

the combined influence of drivers to be investigated. However, this would need more data, or

381 else fewer parameters.

Research perspectives comprise developing a more global tool that can integrate temporal variability and controlling drivers for each population. Such a tool is essential to implement efficient large-scale management measures (Collares-Pereira & Cowx 2004; Jackson et al. 2001). Thus, although long-term monitoring and local analyses will remain crucial, assessment of trout population status would be simplified.

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564 **TABLES**

Table 1. Physical characteristics of the five bypassed sections. The annual mean flows (AMF) are those of the natural part of the river upstream of the dam in the bypassed section. Low flow magnitude (Q90) was defined as daily discharge exceeded 90% of the time during the study period.

Bypassed	River	Reach	AMF	Q90	Instream flow	Altitude	Slope
section			$(m^3.s^{-1})$	$(m^3.s^{-1})$	$(m^3.s^{-1})$	(m)	(%)
Beyrède	Neste	BEY1, BEY2,	20.0	10.5	1.50	688	0.7
	d'Aure	BEY3					
Fontan	Roya	FON2, FON3	6.2	5.2	0.62	522	3.6
Breil	Roya	BREIL1,	11.4	12.2	1.20	280	1.4
		BREIL2					
Pont-Haut	Roizonne	ROIP2	2.7	2.5	0.28	740	3.7
Rory	Lignon du	LIG2	2.9	2.2	0.35	560	2.4
	Forez						
-0							

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Bypassed	Reach	Nb of	Dist. water	Length	Mean	Dominant
section		samplings	intake (m)	(m)	width (m)	mesohabitat
Beyrède	BEY1	14	500	158	12.6	Riffle (51%)
	BEY2	19	2500	149	14.8	Run (43%)
	BEY3	15	3800	195	11.1	Riffle (57%)
Fontan	FON2	13	1250	106	12.1	Rapid (54%)
	FON3	9	1700	61	10.3	Run (62%)
Breil	BREIL1	9	500	124	11.2	Run (65%)
	BREIL2	9	2800	78	11.8	Pool (65%)
Pont Haut	ROIP2	16	700	101	7.0	Rapid (70%)
Rory	LIG2	15	1200	148	8.8	Riffle (45%)

571	Table 2. Physica	l characteristics	of monitored	reaches and	bypassed section
571	Tuolo 2. I Ilysiou	1 onu actor istics	or monitored	i cucii co una	o pubbed beetion

Table 3. Global statistics on density (mean and standard deviation) and results of validationtests of reach models.

Deceb	<u>C</u> to co	Observations (ind.100m ⁻¹)		Validation tes abiotic driver	sts without s	Validation tests of complete models	
Reach	Stage	Mean	SD	p-value direction	p-value density	p-value direction	p-value density
BEY1	0+	123	74	0.40	0.62	0.02	0.00
	1+	88	59	0.61	0.71	0.10	0.00
	>1+	50	24	0.08	0.50	0.00	0.00
BEY2	0+	211	158	0.25	0.75	0.00	0.00
	1+	91	65	0.05	0.30	0.00	0.00
	>1+	44	26	0.43	0.59	0.03	0.01
BEY3	0+	196	160	0.00	0.21	0.03	0.00
	1+	97	65	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00
	>1+	54	25	0.59	0.73	0.01	0.04
FON2	0+	113	93	0.39	0.14	0.01	0.00
	1+	63	51	0.62	0.17	0.07	0.01
	>1+	29	20	0.06	0.02	0.00	0.05
FON3	0+	181	168	0.14	0.05	0.02	0.01
	1+	84	45	0.14	0.24	0.02	0.05
	>1+	24	11	0.14	0.10	0.00	0.11
BREIL1	0+	91	118	0.09	0.57	0.09	0.42
	1+	36	22	0.51	0.94	0.50	0.85
	>1+	16	10	0.50	0.65	0.19	0.38
BREIL2	0+	161	133	0.11	0.17	0.02	0.03
	1+	124	87	0.20	0.40	0.04	0.01
	>1+	48	25	0.73	0.82	0.27	0.39
ROIP2	0+	124	182	0.01	0.07	0.06	0.00
	1+	79	68	0.29	0.00	0.04	0.00
	>1+	55	28	0.04	0.01	0.12	0.00
LIG2	0+	50	26	0.50	0.41	0.00	0.00
	1+	37	17	0.16	0.16	0.06	0.00
	>1+	44	12	0.49	0.72	0.52	0.30
Nb of validated reach models				4	4	17	19
% of validated reach models				15	15	63	70

576 *Bold italic*: non-significant test

578 Table 4. Seven additional drivers identified in the study reaches. Negative values of mortality

- 579 rates correspond to better survivals. Temporal occurrence (N bobs/Nb years) of each driver
- 580 was calculated on the study period on the reach or bypassed section where it was involved.
- 581

Driver	Mortality	Stage	Reach	Nb obs/
	rate			Nb years
Flood during spring/spawning	0.20-0.75	0+	All	43/90=0.48
Exceptional flood	0.75-0.90	All	BEY1, BEY2, BEY3,	3/39=0.08
			FON2	
Overtopping	-0.6	1+	LIG2	14/18=0.78
	-0.2	>1+	LIG2	18/18=1.00
No flood during spring	-0.3	1+	ROIP2	13/23=0.57
Limited spawning area	0.80	0+	LIG2	16/18=0.89
Poor water quality	0.75	0+	BREIL1, BREIL2	3/10=0.30
Power plant operation	0.50-0.75	0+, 1+	BEY1, BEY2, BEY3	2/20=0.10

582 583

584	Table 5. Flood-threshold and number of days for which flow had to exceed threshold to
585	induce mortality in 0+ trout for each bypassed section.

Bypassed	Period	Q	threshold	Q Threshold /Q90	Nb days	Mortality
section		(m ²	$^{3}.s^{-1})$			rate
Beyrède	March-June	35		3.3	9	75%
	March-June	35		3.3	4 to 8	20%
	Nov-Dec	60		5.7	1	75%
	Whenever	94		8.9	1	75%
Fontan	March-June	8		1.6	1	75%
	Whenever	71		13.6	2	90%
Breil	March-June	60		4.9	1	75%
Pont-Haut	March-June	9		3.5	1	75%
Rory	March-June	5.5		2.5	1	75%

588 FIGURES

589 Fig. 1. Location of the five bypassed sections.



592 Fig. 2. Observed (white squares) and simulated (blue circles) density fluctuations for (a) 0+,
593 (b) 1+ and (c) >1+ trout in the BEY2 reach. Results for all reaches are proposed as
594 supplementary materials.



Fig. 3. Characterization of temporal and spatial occurrences of each driver structuring trout population dynamics. Temporal occurrence was the time frequency of the driver during the study period on the reach or bypassed section where it was involved, or the mean time frequency when several bypassed sections were involved. The direction of the fluctuation and the affected development stage are indicated in brackets. *Biotic processes were those included in the initial model: survival, fecundity and growth rates, carrying capacity and food availability.

