

Modelling built infrastructure heights to evaluate common assumptions in aquatic conservation

Stephanie R. Januchowski-Hartley, Céline Jézéquel, Pablo A. Tedesco

To cite this version:

Stephanie R. Januchowski-Hartley, Céline Jézéquel, Pablo A. Tedesco. Modelling built infrastructure heights to evaluate common assumptions in aquatic conservation. Journal of Environmental Management, 2019, 232, pp.131-137. 10.1016/j.jenvman.2018.11.040. hal-04716888

HAL Id: hal-04716888 <https://cnrs.hal.science/hal-04716888v1>

Submitted on 1 Oct 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Cronfa - Swansea University Open Access Repository

This is an author produced version of a paper published in: Journal of Environmental Management

Cronfa URL for this paper: <http://cronfa.swan.ac.uk/Record/cronfa48243>

Paper:

Januchowski-Hartley, S., Jézéquel, C. & Tedesco, P. (2019). Modelling built infrastructure heights to evaluate common assumptions in aquatic conservation. Journal of Environmental Management, 232, 131-137. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2018.11.040>

This item is brought to you by Swansea University. Any person downloading material is agreeing to abide by the terms of the repository licence. Copies of full text items may be used or reproduced in any format or medium, without prior permission for personal research or study, educational or non-commercial purposes only. The copyright for any work remains with the original author unless otherwise specified. The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder.

Permission for multiple reproductions should be obtained from the original author.

Authors are personally responsible for adhering to copyright and publisher restrictions when uploading content to the repository.

http://www.swansea.ac.uk/library/researchsupport/ris-support/

Modelling built infrastructure heights to evaluate common assumptions in aquatic conservation

Stephanie R Januchowski-Hartley^{a,b}, Céline Jézéquel^b and Pablo A Tedesco^b

a Department of Biosciences, Swansea University, Swansea, United Kingdom SA2 8PP ^b Laboratoire Evolution et Diversité Biologique (EDB UMR 5174), Université de Toulouse Midi-Pyrénées, CNRS, IRD, UPS, 118 route de Narbonne, Bat 4R1, 31062 Toulouse Cedex 9, France

Abstract

Built infrastructure, such as dams and weirs, are some of the most impactful stressors affecting aquatic ecosystems. However, data on the distribution and characteristics of small built infrastructure that often restrict fish movement, impede flows, and retain sediments and materials, remain limited. Collection of this necessary information is challenged by the large number of built infrastructure with unknown dimensions (e.g., height), which means scientists and practitioners need to make assumptions about these characteristics in research and decision-making. Evaluating these common assumptions is essential for advancing conservation that is more effective. We use a statistical modelling approach to double the number of small $(\leq 5$ m high) built infrastructure with height values in France. Using two scenarios depicting common assumptions (all infrastructure without height data are impassable, or all are passable for all species) and one based on our modelled heights, we demonstrate how assumptions can influence our understanding of river fragmentation. Assuming all built infrastructure without height data are passable results in a 5-fold reduction in estimated river fragmentation for fish species that cannot pass built infrastructure ≥ 1.0 m. The opposite is true for fish species that cannot pass ≥ 2.0 m, where assuming all built infrastructure without height data are impassable results in a 7-fold increase in fragmentation compared to the scenario with modelled heights to attribute built infrastructure passability. Our findings suggest that modelled height data leads to better understanding of river fragmentation, and that knowledge of different fish species' abilities to pass a variety of built infrastructure is essential to guide more effective management strategies. Our modelling approach, and results, are of particular relevance to regions where efforts to both remediate and remove built infrastructure is occurring, but where gaps in data on characteristics of built infrastructure remain, and limit effective decision making.

Highlights

- We double the number of small (5 m) built infrastructure with height values in France.
- Common assumptions affect our understanding of river fragmentation.
- Modelled height data leads to better understanding of river fragmentation.
- We provide essential information for protocols evaluating river ecological continuity.

1. Introduction

 $\mathbf{1}$

 $\sqrt{2}$ $3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$ \sim \sim \sim \sim \sim \sim

 Scientists and practitioners require information on the characteristics of built infrastructure, $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 4 such as dams and weirs, to better understand associated impacts, costs, and benefits, in $9 \qquad 1 \qquad 1 \qquad 1 \qquad 1 \qquad 1$ $\frac{1}{10}$ 5 relation to ecological processes, services, and human values (Poff & Hart, 2002; Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013; Major et al., 2017). Characteristics of larger built 7 infrastructure are increasingly $\frac{14}{15}$ 7 infrastructure are increasingly well understood, because of improved identification via 17 8 remotely sensed imagery (Mantel et al., 2017), and superior record keeping due to the Q importance of size and water $\frac{19}{20}$ 9 importance of size and water holding capacity for monitoring energy production and water storage (e.g., Carvajal et al., 2017). Despite likely impacts from small built infrastructure 24 11 which often restrict fish movement (i.e., being impassable), impede river flows, and retain $\frac{27}{27}$ 12 sediments and materials, data on their distribution and characteristics remain limited (Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013; Couto & Olden, 2018). Collection of this necessary $30 \qquad \qquad \bullet$ $31 - 44$ information is shallowed by $3¹$ 14 information is challenged by the large number of built infrastructure with unknown dimensions (e.g., height), which means that assumptions are often necessary in research and $36 - 16$ documenting (0.0 0000 mo) $\frac{36}{37}$ 16 decision making (e.g., assume binary passability or impassability of built infrastructure) when 38 and the state of height data are unmeasured (Cote et al., 2009; Perkin & Gido, 2012; Radinger et al., 2017). 18 This raises the question of $\frac{41}{42}$ 18 This raises the question of how common assumptions about characteristics of built infrastructure affect estimates of habitat fragmentation, and the potential implications of this ⁴⁶ 20 for fishes with different abilities to pass over infrastructure.

 and \overline{H} is the set of \overline{H} $\frac{10}{49}$ 21 Here, we investigate existing data and data gaps for built infrastructure (Fig. 1a), and evaluate how these influence measures of river fragmentation when considering passability 22 (the shility of a fish graving to 23 (the ability of a fish species to pass built infrastructure in an upstream direction) for native fishes in France. We do this by bringing together a database of built infrastructure, and $58 - 25$ associated environmental data ⁵⁸ 25 associated environmental data to model and predict heights to fill data gaps for small built

infrastructure $(5 \text{ m}$ in height; Fig. 1b). We then develop three alternative scenarios with the $\frac{2}{3}$ 27 first two representing common assumptions used when height data are unmeasured: 1) all 3³ built infrastructure without height data are impassable, 2) all built infrastructure without $6\overline{6}$ height data are passable, and 3) all built infrastructure without height data are allocated c 1 $\sqrt{ }$ $\frac{9}{20}$ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $10₁₀$ 30 median height prediction from our model. We evaluate differences between these three scenarios when quantifying two catchment-level metrics of river fragmentation (percentage 22 of and distance between in $\frac{14}{15}$ 32 of and distance between impassable built infrastructure) for fish species when built 17 33 infrastructure with heights ≥ 1.0 , 1.5, or 2.0 m (our three passability thresholds) are $19 - 34$ impassable Our three passabil $\frac{19}{20}$ 34 impassable. Our three passability thresholds are based on the ecological continuity protocol *and the second service* of the service 22 35 established by the French National Agency for Water and Aquatic Environments (Baudoin et 36 al. 2014). France's ecological $\frac{24}{25}$ 36 al., 2014). France's ecological $26 - 11166 + 1$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 37 passability for fish species, and knowledge of the heights of different built infrastructure are both a major consideration in evaluation and a critical data gap in implementing the protocol $31 - 30$ of exigent sole We diagonal $3¹$ 39 at a national scale. We discuss the implications of common assumptions made about built infrastructure, and our modelling technique, for determining the effects of built infrastructure 36 11 on equatio economis and our $\frac{36}{37}$ 41 on aquatic ecosystems, and our ability to address impacts more effectively.

 $^{41}_{42}$ 43 2. Methods

 2.1. Built infrastructure and environmental data

 We analyzed publicly available data for 76,292 built infrastructure from the French National 53 10 A conover for Wester and A quoties 48 Agency for Water and Aquatic Environments (http://www.onema.fr/le-roe). We excluded any 56 49 records listed as destroyed, planned, under construction, invalid, or duplicated in the 50 database After these exclusion $58\atop 59$ 50 database. After these exclusions we had a total of 19,302 records with height data (Fig. 1a). A

further 882 built infrastructure had available height data, but were without values for $\frac{2}{3}$ 52 environmental data, and so were not included in our modelling of height, but retained for our $3³$ $4\overline{a}$ \overline{a} \overline{a} assessment of infrastructure passability. For subsequent modelling we created a training $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 54 dataset based on built infrastructure \leq 5 m in height. We did this because < 1% (461) of built 8 and 2010 **120 and 2010 120 and 2010 120 and 2010 120 and 2010 120 and 2010** $9 - 6$ 1111 $\frac{10}{10}$ 55 infrastructure with height and environmental data were greater than 5 m. Given the common ¹² 56 dependence by humans on larger built infrastructure, we assumed that height values for these $\frac{14}{15}$ 57 structures were well documented, and not likely unmeasured in our database. We retained 17 58 these larger built infrastructure to include in our estimations of passability and calculations of 50 catchment-level fragmentation $\frac{19}{20}$ 59 catchment-level fragmentation.

 The starting point for our model training dataset was 17,959 built infrastructure with 61 heights ≤ 5 m and environment $\frac{24}{25}$ 61 heights \leq 5 m and environmental variable data attributed to stream reaches available from the **c F 1 Fi** *c* **1 Fi** $\frac{27}{27}$ 62 French Theoretical Hydrographic Network (Pella et al., 2012). There were an additional 20,077 built infrastructure without height values, but with environmental variable values, and $31 - a$ \cdots and a \cdots a and a \cdots $32\over 32$ 64 we used our models to predict their heights (Fig. 1a). Environmental data were not available for all stream reaches with built infrastructure in place, but we initially considered 11 ϵ variables evailable for all stress $\frac{36}{37}$ 66 variables available for all stream reaches and included the percentage of land cover that was 38 and the contract of the con urban or agriculture within a 1 km circular buffer around each structure for initial 68 consideration in our modelling $\frac{41}{42}$ 68 consideration in our modelling (Table 1). We included agriculture and urban cover to account for landscape factors that can influence the distribution of infrastructure. Smaller and more ⁴⁶ 70 frequent infrastructure, such as weirs, tend to occur in agriculture-dominated landscapes, and -4 $1 \cdot 1$ $11 \cdot 1$ $1 \cdot 1$ $\frac{10}{49}$ 71 higher and less frequent infrastructure tend to occur in steeper landscapes with less human modification.

2.2. Modelling and predicting built infrastructure heights

We used Boosted Regression Trees (BRT; Elith et al., 2008) to model and predict ² 77 infrastructure heights using the *dismo* package 2.1 (Hijmans et al., 2016) in R Statistical 3³ Package 3.2.2 (http://www.R-project.org/). We briefly describe BRT models; technical $6\overline{6}$ details and applications of these models have been widely presented in environmental and $8 \hspace{1.5cm} \overline{11}$ $\frac{1}{10}$ 80 ecological science literature (e.g., Elith et al., 2008; Bhatt et al., 2013; Soykan et al., 2014; Hain et al., 2017). BRTs are part of the classification and regression tree family; techniques 02 used to edverse single elecci- $\frac{14}{15}$ 82 used to advance single classification or regression trees by averaging the results for each binary split from numerous trees or forests. Boosted tree models retain the positive aspects of 84 single trees seen in classification $\frac{19}{20}$ 84 single trees seen in classification and regression tree models, but provide improved predictive performance, nonlinearities and interactions are easily assessed, and the models can provide 86 an ordered list of the importance 24 86 an ordered list of the importance of the explanatory variables (Elith et al. 2008; De'ath 2007).

 $26 - 5$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 87 For our BRT models, height values were rounded to the nearest half-meter for modelling 29 88 (e.g., $0-0.24m = 0$ m; $0.25-0.74m = 0.5m$; $0.75-1.24m = 1.0m$, etc), because there were likely $30 \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$ 00 μ and denote layed a fine centricity. $32\over 32$ 89 moderate levels of uncertainty around the estimated heights supplied in the original database, and preliminary modelling demonstrated improved model performance when using rounded 01 boight volves Training our $\frac{36}{37}$ 91 height values. Training our models with all 17,959 built infrastructure was impractical because of the computation time required, and previous work by Elith et al. (2008) as demonstrated trade-offs with s $\frac{41}{42}$ 93 demonstrated trade-offs with sample size and computing time, where modelling with a sub-44 94 sample of 6,000 sites showed high predictive performance and moderate computation time. ⁴⁶ 95 Therefore, we randomly selected three sub-samples consisting of 5,000 built infrastructure **06** 1 1 1 1 1 $\frac{10}{49}$ 96 records, and used these as our training datasets for subsequent modelling. With the three training data sub-samples, we fitted three BRT models, assuming the response followed a 00 Coussian distribution We test 98 Gaussian distribution. We tested combinations of tree complexity (tc) (10-15), learning rate (lr) (0.001, 0.005) and bag fraction (bf) (0.5, 0.75). The learning rate determines the 100 contribution of each tree to the $\frac{58}{59}$ 100 contribution of each tree to the growing model. Tree complexity controls whether interactions

are fitted in the model: a tree complexity of one fits an additive model, a tree complexity of $\frac{2}{3}$ 102 two fits a model with up to two-way interactions, and so on. Introducing some randomness $3²$ into a boosted model can improve accuracy and speed and reduce over-fitting (Elith et al. $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 104 2008), but this can also introduce variance in fitted values and predictions between runs. The $\frac{9}{205}$ 1 $\frac{6}{205}$ 1 $\frac{1}{20}$ $10₁₀$ 105 bag fraction controls stochasticity in the model, specifying the proportion of data to be used ¹² 106 at each step; a bf of 0.75 means that 75% of the data are randomly drawn from the full model 107 training detect without replace $\frac{14}{15}$ 107 training dataset without replacement (Elith et al. 2008). We determined that for all three of 17 108 our BRT models the following parameters returned highest model performance: tc = 15; $lr =$ 109 0.005; hf = 0.75 We predict $_{20}^{19}$ 109 0.005; bf = 0.75. We predicted height values for the 20,077 built infrastructure without 22 110 values, giving three height predictions for each. For each of the three BRT models, we used a 111 tenfold cross-validation (CV: 24 111 tenfold cross-validation (CV; Elith et al. 2008), evaluating model CV correlation (where 25 $\frac{27}{27}$ 112 higher values indicate a better model) and standard error, to assess model predictive performance to withheld portions of data (Elith et al. 2008). $30 \qquad \qquad 1$

 144 W_2 initially acquired 1 $32^{\frac{1}{3}}$ 114 We initially considered 11 environmental variables in each of the three BRT models (Table 1), and the importance of each environmental variable in each of the three models was 116 avelypted besed on its contribute $\frac{36}{37}$ 116 evaluated based on its contribution to model fit. Strahler stream order and percentage urban cover were dropped from final models, leaving nine environmental variables, because they 118 contributed $\langle 2\%$ to each me $^{41}_{42}$ 118 contributed <2% to each model, and model performance was the same without their inclusion.

48 424 22 P 14 C \leftarrow 1 $\frac{1}{49}$ 121 2.3. Built infrastructure passability and catchment-level fragmentation

 $\frac{53}{122}$ Applying the essumptions of ϵ $54\overline{54}$ 123 Applying the assumptions of our three scenarios for built infrastructure without heights, we determined if each of the 39,379 built infrastructure with known or predicted heights were 125 nassable or impassable for fisk $_{59}^{58}$ 125 passable or impassable for fish species unable to pass \geq 1.0, 1.5, or 2.0 m heights. Our three

built infrastructure passability thresholds (1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 m) were based on the most $\frac{2}{3}$ 127 conservative estimates of fish species swimming and jumping capacities (i.e., their ability to $3 \frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{4}{1}$ $\frac{1}{1}$ $\frac{1}{1}$ pass built infrastructure or not) determined by Baudoin et al. (2014) for fishes moving in an $6\overline{6}$ upstream direction in favourable hydrologic conditions. We chose infrastructure height as an 8 a contract to the contract of the contract o $\frac{9}{200}$ 1 1 $\sqrt{20}$ 1 1 1 $\frac{1}{10}$ 130 indicator of a fish species ability to pass over built infrastructure or not because: 1) we had access to height information in our database, and 2) Baudoin et al. (2014) established that for 122 vertical sub-vertical or incline $\frac{14}{15}$ 132 vertical, sub-vertical or inclined dams and weirs (those built infrastructure considered in our analysis), an extreme height value is the first element that determines whether or not a 134 structure is likely to be now $\frac{19}{20}$ 134 structure is likely to be passable for a particular fish species. Baudoin et al. (2014) determined built infrastructure passability thresholds for fish species in France that are unable 136 to pass >1.0 1.5 or 2.0 m heir 24 136 to pass \geq 1.0, 1.5, or 2.0 m heights, and we present 30 of the native species for which these $26 \t 1 \t 1 \t 11 \t 11 \t 11 \t 11 \t 11$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 137 thresholds are applicable in Table 2. For example, built infrastructure at 1 m or more are ²⁹ 138 impassable for fish species such as Three-spined Stickleback (Gasterosteus gymnurus), those 420 \rightarrow 15 m cumeno and imposed $3¹$ 139 at 1.5 m or more are impassable for species like Burbot (*Lota lota*), and those at 2 m or more **140** are impassable for species like Twait Shad (*Alosa fallax*).

 141 $\frac{1}{\sin \alpha}$ $\frac{1}{\sin \alpha}$ $\frac{1}{\sin \alpha}$ $\frac{1}{\sin \alpha}$ $\frac{36}{37}$ 141 Using our built infrastructure data, and the French hydrographical network (https://www.data.gouv.fr/fr/datasets/bd-carthage-onm) to represent rivers, we then 143 determined and compared riv $41 \over 42$ 143 determined and compared river fragmentation across 26 major catchments based on two metrics: the percentage of impassable built infrastructure and average distance (km) between ⁴⁶ 145 impassable built infrastructure. We evaluated differences in the resulting values for each $\frac{1}{49}$ 146 fragmentation metric when applying our three scenarios and the built infrastructure passability thresholds (1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 m). We used analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to 140 investigate estebment level $_{54}^{53}$ 148 investigate catchment-level differences for both of our river fragmentation metrics, comparing between scenarios for each of the passability thresholds, and with river length 150 within each catchment as a c $^{58}_{59}$ 150 within each catchment as a co-variate. ANCOVA was conducted for both fragmentation

metrics using the function lm from the *base* package, and Tukey's post-hoc tests using the ²/₂ 152 *glht* function from the *multcomp* (Hothorn 2008) package in R Statistical Software (version 3³ $\frac{4}{2}$ 222 $\frac{4}{2}$ $\frac{11}{2}$ $\frac{11}{2}$ $\frac{11}{2}$ 3.2.2) (http://www.R-project.org/). It was necessary to log transform average distance $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 154 between impassable built infrast between impassable built infrastructure for each catchment to meet assumptions of normality 8 a **1** $\frac{9}{15}$ 10^{10} 155 and homogeneity.

 $\frac{14}{15}$ 157 3. Results 157 5. Results

 159 3.1 Modelling and predicting 1 $\frac{19}{20}$ 159 3.1. Modelling and predicting built infrastructure heights

 161 Our three BRT models sho $^{24}_{25}$ 161 Our three BRT models showed similar and reasonable discrimination and predictive $26 \t 26 \t 27 \t 28 \t 29 \t 20 \t 211 \t 211 \t 221$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 162 performances for small built infrastructure in France (Table 3). The final predicted heights for built infrastructure ranged from 0 to 4 m across France (all modelled data available at: 361 litter/(finalism som/s/617247s) $\frac{32}{32}$ 164 https://figshare.com/s/617347a78cc27f419023). Regardless of the model considered, we found that four of the nine environmental variables had at least 12% relative influence on 166 infrastructure hojest (Fig. 2. T. $\frac{36}{37}$ 166 infrastructure height (Fig. 2; Table 4). Higher infrastructure tended to occur on shorter stream 38 and the contract of the con **167** reaches (19% relative influence on average between the three models), at lower (<500 m) and 168 higher elevation (>1000 m) (1 $\frac{41}{42}$ 168 higher elevation (>1000 m) (14% on average), and on stream reaches with higher gradient (change in elevation per reach length; 13% on average) (Fig. 2; Table 4). Infrastructure height ⁴⁶ 170 also rapidly increased with increasing average annual flow and tended to level off at flows 474 1 100 $3/$ $(120)'$ $^{48}_{49}$ 171 above 100 m³/s (12% on average) (Fig. 2; Table 4). Median height values across our three models were consistent, with half the predicted values having zero standard deviation, and 172 the moienty (19, 105, 00%) of $_{54}^{53}$ 173 the majority (18,105; 90%) of built infrastructure had median predicted height values of 1.0 56 174 ($n = 10,749$) or 1.5 meters ($n = 7,356$). Our full database of built infrastructure, including 175 known heights predicted he $58\atop{59}$ 175 known heights, predicted height values for built infrastructure from all three models,

modelled median height values for built infrastructure, and model deviation are available at: 176 1 $\frac{2}{177}$ https://figshare.com/s/617347a7 ² 177 https://figshare.com/s/617347a78cc27f419023.

⁴ 5 178

⁶ 179 3.2. Built infrastructure passability and catchment-level fragmentation $3 - 77$ $\frac{1000 \text{ m/s}}{1000 \text{ m/s}}$

8

11 12 We found significant differences in catchment-level fragmentation between our three 13 14 192 seemerics the nettern of which $15\atop{+5}$ 182 scenarios, the pattern of which varied with passability threshold (Fig. 3a-c; Table S1). For a 16 17 183 passability threshold of 1.0 m, on average $85\% \pm 2$ (SE) of built infrastructure were 18 19 184 impossable under scenarios 1: $\frac{19}{20}$ 184 impassable under scenarios 1 and 3 across catchments (see Table S1), and distance between 21 22 185 impassable structures also did not differ $(18.0 \text{ km} \pm 2.8 \text{ on average})$, whereas significantly 23 24 186 fewer built infrastructure were ²⁴ 186 fewer built infrastructure were impassable under scenario 2 (29% \pm 3.0 on average; see Table 25 $26 \t 21 \t 22 \t 23$ $27 \over 27$ 187 S1) (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 214.53$, $p \le 0.001$), and the distance between impassable built 28 ²⁹ 188 infrastructure (106 km \pm 41.3 on average) was significantly greater (ANCOVA: F_{2,74} = 18.7, $30 \thinspace$ $31_{-4.00}$ ≤ 0.001 then yet dependence $3¹$ 189 $p < 0.001$) than under scenarios 1 and 3 (Fig. 3a). We found that for a passability threshold of 33 34 190 1.5 m all three scenarios differed significantly both in terms of percentage (scenario 1: $74\% \pm$ 35 36 101 2.0; scenario 2: $180/2 + 2.0$; soc $\frac{36}{37}$ 191 3.0; scenario 2: 18% \pm 2.0; scenario 3: 41% \pm 3.0 on average; Table S1) (ANCOVA: F_{2,74} = 38 39 192 123.25, $p < 0.001$) and distance (scenario 1: 20 40 41 193 scenario 3: 46.5 km + 11.1 on ⁴¹ 193 scenario 3: 46.5 km \pm 11.1 on average) between impassable infrastructure across catchments 43 44 194 (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 23.0, p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3b). For a passability threshold of 2.0 m, scenarios 45 ⁴⁶ 195 2 and 3 showed no difference on average across catchments either in terms of percentage 47 48 406 ($1110/110$ $\frac{15}{49}$ 196 (scenario 1: 11% \pm 1.0; scenario 2: 17% \pm 2.0 on average; Table S1) or distance between 50 51 197 (197.0 km \pm 60.6, and 160.9 km \pm 61.9 on average; Fig. 3c) impassable built infrastructure, 52 53 100 but both the normantees (670) 54^{33} 198 but both the percentage $(67\% \pm 4.0 \text{ on average})$ and distance between impassable built 55 56 199 infrastructure (23.3 km \pm 3.2 on average) were significantly different for scenario 1 57 58 200 $(ANCOVA \cdot F_{2,74} = 148.2$ and $^{58}_{59}$ 200 (ANCOVA: F_{2,74} = 148.2 and F_{2,74} = 37.9, p < 0.001; see Table S1; Fig. 3c). We found no

effect of river length (km) on catchment-level river fragmentation regardless of fragmentation $\frac{2}{3}$ 202 metric or the passability threshold.

 $\frac{7}{4}$ 204 4. Discussion

 Drawing on remotely collected data we modelled and predicted built infrastructure height 207 with reasonable cortainty doub $\frac{14}{15}$ 207 with reasonable certainty, doubling the number with height values across France. We further demonstrated that common assumptions made about built infrastructure when data gaps exist 200 can result in significantly dif $\frac{19}{20}$ 209 can result in significantly different estimates of river fragmentation for fish species with varied abilities to pass built infrastructure.

 24 211 When large numbers of built infrastructure have unknown dimensions, such as height, *c* $\frac{27}{27}$ 212 we can be forced to make assumptions; either that all built infrastructure are passable, or ²⁹ 213 impassable (e.g., Radinger et al., 2017). Our results suggest that these assumptions can result $30 \qquad \qquad 1 \qquad \qquad 30$ $31 - 344$ in conceite outcomes for moon $\frac{31}{32}$ 214 in opposite outcomes for measures of river fragmentation for fish species with varied abilities to pass built infrastructure. For example, assuming that all built infrastructure without height 216 data were negated regulted in $\frac{36}{37}$ 216 data were passable resulted in a 5-fold reduction in river fragmentation for species such as the 39 217 Three-spined Stickleback (passability threshold \geq 1.0 m) compared to using our predicted 218 height values to measure dist $\frac{41}{42}$ 218 height values to measure distance between impassable built infrastructure. We found the $_{44}$ 219 opposite was true for species like the Twait Shad (passability threshold \geq 2.0 m), where ⁴⁶ 220 assuming all built infrastructure without height data were impassable resulted in a 7-fold $\frac{16}{49}$ 221 increase in river fragmentation compared to using our predicted height values to measure distance between impassable built infrastructure. Our findings suggest that inclusion of built 222 infrastructure hoight and mod 223 infrastructure height, and modelling height where necessary, can help to refine estimates of 56 224 river fragmentation for fish species with varied abilities to pass built infrastructure. With an 225 increased interest in modelling ⁵⁸ 225 increased interest in modelling fish species' dispersal abilities (Radinger et al., 2017), and

continued efforts to prioritize removal projects using indicators of built infrastructure ² 227 passability (Neeson et al., 2015), our approach can be used to improve understanding of built -1 μ μ μ σ σ σ σ σ σ σ $\frac{4}{10}$. $\frac{1}{2}$. $\frac{1}{2}$. $\frac{1}{2}$ infrastructure impact and inform the identification of priorities for restoring river connectivity $6\overline{6}$ to benefit different species.

 $\frac{9}{2}$ 222 $\sqrt{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 10^{10} 230 Our results demonstrate a first step toward more explicit accountancy of built infrastructure impact on aquatic biodiversity. For example, our approach builds on earlier 222 work by Dorkin & Gido (201 $1\frac{1}{15}$ 232 work by Perkin & Gido (2012) who noted that infrastructure passability for different fish species could be a function of both structure height and local hydrological regimes but did 234 not evolicitly account for sum $\frac{19}{20}$ 234 not explicitly account for such factors and instead assumed partial passability for all infrastructure. Refinements to our modelling approach that explicitly consider species' 236 biological characteristics, which 24 236 biological characteristics, which can influence their ability to pass built infrastructure, would 26 11 1 6 1 1 $\frac{27}{27}$ 237 likely further improve estimates of river fragmentation for individual species, but such data ²⁹ 238 are not broadly available. We were able to account for a coarse estimation of river hydrology 220 $\frac{1}{2}$ exp. establishment layed from $32 \over 32$ 239 in our catchment-level fragmentation calculations, because hydrologic variability was integrated in the passability thresholds established by Baudoin et al. (2014). Finer-scale data 241 on river diseparge at indivi- $\frac{36}{37}$ 241 on river discharge at individual infrastructure is currently not available, but explicit consideration of this factor would be useful in future iterations of this work. We emphasize 243 that our models specifically a $\frac{41}{42}$ 243 that our models specifically address a need for overcoming gaps in knowledge about built 44 244 infrastructure height, and additional considerations such as discharge and fish species' biological characteristics will only help to refine our modelling and findings. Further, and 1 1 1 1 $\frac{1}{49}$ 246 mismatches in existing spatial data products did not allow us to predict height values for all built infrastructure in France, and factors such as fish passage facilities that we were unable 249 to essent for in our essessm 248 to account for in our assessment, could influence whether or not these are passable for different fish species. Uncertainty in infrastructure status and presence of fish passage 250 facilities could be validated us $\frac{58}{59}$ 250 facilities could be validated using a combination of finer-scale spatial data and field surveys.

Currently field surveys are being carried out across France, but the number of built $\frac{2}{3}$ 252 infrastructure prevents assessments being completed in short time periods (e.g., 1 or 2 years). \sim 1 \sim 1 \sim 1 \sim 1 Coupling on ground work with acquisition of fine-scale spatial data could facilitate rapid, and $6\overline{6}$ cost-effective validation procedures, while our results could be used to systematically target $\frac{9}{255}$ $\frac{11}{255}$ 10^{10} 255 potential problem areas.

 Globally, built infrastructure removal and installation is occurring simultaneously 257 (Hydropower Status Depart 20) $_{15}^{14}$ 257 (Hydropower Status Report 2017; Dam Removal Europe 2016) and methods similar to what we present here offer a starting point for improving our ability to quantify costs and benefits 250 associated with these processe $\frac{19}{20}$ 259 associated with these processes. Our results (i.e., known and predicted height values) could be integrated in conservation planning exercises, along with other ecological and socio- $^{24}_{2}$ 261 economic considerations, as a relative indicator of cost to remove built infrastructure. Built $\frac{27}{27}$ 262 infrastructure height can also be used as an indicator of environmental benefit, such as ²⁹ 263 downstream response to removal, where higher dams have been shown to have longer-lasting $31 - 264$ and mone wide support derives $32\overline{32}$ 264 and more wide-spread downstream effects than shorter dams (Major et al., 2017). These examples demonstrate the wide-applicability of our approach and results to informing 266 conservation decisions with be $\frac{36}{37}$ 266 conservation decisions with broader considerations than fishes. Further, our approach could be used to inform future scenarios that consider how built infrastructure change over time 268 with respect to removal install $\frac{41}{42}$ 268 with respect to removal, installation and other environmental and socio-political factors, such as changing climate and flows, and placement of fish passage facilities to reduce impact. We ⁴⁶ 270 see particular relevance of our approach to other areas in Europe as well as North America $\frac{48}{274}$ 1 CC \pm 1 d \pm 1 d $\frac{15}{49}$ 271 where efforts to both remediate (in the form of including fish passage facilities) and remove built infrastructure is rapidly occurring (Foley et al., 2017; Dam Removal Europe 2016) but 273 where cans in data on characters $54\overline{54}$ 273 where gaps in data on characteristics of built infrastructure remain (e.g., Radinger et al., 2017; Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013) and limit our ability to make effective decisions. We 275 see further applicability of our $\frac{58}{59}$ 275 see further applicability of our modelling approach and results to other parts of the world as a

global proliferation of smaller infrastructure continues with limited consideration or ² 277 documentation of characteristics like height (Couto & Olden, 2018). Ultimately, as global 3³ change continues, approaches like ours will become increasingly important for guiding more $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 279 proactive and effective strategie proactive and effective strategies for built infrastructure management. 8 and \sim

Author contributions

 SRJ and PAT conceived the idea and designed the methods; SRJ and CJ collated the data; 284 SRI analysed the data: SRI $\frac{19}{20}$ 284 SRJ analysed the data; SRJ led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed 22 285 critically to all manuscript drafts and gave final approval for publication.

$26 - 11$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 287 Acknowledgements

 200 This weak was funded by the $3¹$ 289 This work was funded by the French Agency for Biodiversity and Research Foundation for 34 290 Biodiversity Biodiversa project ODYSSEUS. Laboratoire Evo 201 is part of "LAREY THED". $\frac{36}{37}$ 291 is part of "LABEX TULIP" and "LABEX CEBA" (ANR-10-LABX-41, ANR-10-LABX- 25-01). SRJ also acknowledges funding from the Welsh European Funding Office and 293 Furonean Regional Developm $^{41}_{42}$ 293 European Regional Development Fund under project number 80761-SU-140 (West). We thank F. Januchowski-Hartley and two anonymous reviewers for useful comments on earlier versions of this manuscript.

References

56 299 Baudoin JM, Burgun V, Chanseau M, et al. 2014. Assessing the passage of obstacles by fish. 300 Concents design and a Concepts, design and application. Onema. 200 pages.

Bhatt S, Gething PW, Brady OJ, et al. 2013. The global distribution and burden of dengue. $\frac{2}{3}$ 302 *Nature* 496: 504-507. 3^{3} Carvajal JD, Januchowski-Hartley SR, Maldonado-Ocampo JA, et al. 2017. Damming $6\overline{6}$ ⁷ 304 fragments species' ranges and heightens extinction risk. Conserv Lett 10: 708-716. $\frac{9}{2}$ 225 $G \leftarrow P$ V 11 P C P Q 10^{10} 305 Cote D, Kehler DG, Bourne C and Wiersma YF. 2009. A new measure of longitudinal ¹² 306 connectivity for stream networks. *Landsc Ecol* **24**: 101-113. 207 Coute TPA and Older ID 201 $_{15}^{14}$ 307 Couto TBA and Olden JD. 2018. Global proliferation of small hydropower plants – science 17 308 and policy. Front Ecol Environ 16: 91-100. 309 Dam Removal Furone 2016 $\frac{19}{20}$ 309 Dam Removal Europe. 2016. What is Dam Removal Europe? http://damremoval.eu/ Viewed 21 and 2010 22 310 1 May 2017. 311 De'ath G 2007 Boosted trees 24 311 De'ath G. 2007. Boosted trees for ecological modeling and prediction. *Ecology* 88: 243-251. 26 211 1 1 1 1 1 1 $\frac{27}{27}$ 312 Elith J, Leathwick JR, and Hastie T. 2008. A working guide to boosted regression trees. 29 313 *J Anim Ecol* 77: 802–813. 244 ECDI 2015 AprCIS 10.2.1 E. $32\overline{32}$ 314 ESRI. 2015. ArcGIS 10.3.1. Environmental Systems Research Institute, Redlands, CA. 34 315 Foley MM, Magilligan FJ, Torgersen CE. et al. 2017. Landscape context and the biophysical $36₂₁₆$ remains of rivers to do $\frac{36}{37}$ 316 response of rivers to dam removal in the United States. *PLoS One* 12: e0180107. Hain EF, Kennen JG, Caldwell PV. et al. 2017. Using regional scale flow-ecology modelling 318 to identify catchments $\frac{41}{42}$ 318 to identify catchments where fish assemblages are most vulnerable to changes in water availability. Fresh Biol 63: 928-945. ⁴⁶ 320 Hijmans RJ, Phillips S, Leathwick J, and Elith J. 2016. Dismo: species distribution modeling. 224 P 1 \cdot 10 $\frac{15}{49}$ 321 R package version 1.0–15. See https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=dismo. Hothorn T, Bretz F, and Westfall P. 2008. Simultaneous inference in general parametric 222 models $P_{i\alpha}$ $I\neq 0.246$ $\frac{53}{54}$ 323 models. *Biom J* 50: 346-363. Hydropower Status Report. 2017. https://www.hydropower.org/2017-hydropower-status- 325 report Viewed 1 June 2 $\frac{58}{59}$ 325 report. Viewed 1 June 2017.

Januchowski-Hartley,SR, McIntyre PB, Diebel M. et al. 2013. Restoring aquatic ecosystem $\frac{2}{3}$ 327 connectivity requires expanding inventories of both dams and road crossings. Front $3 - 2$ Ecol Environ 11: 211-217. $6\overline{6}$ Januchowski-Hartley, SR, Diebel, M, Doran PJ, and McIntyre PB. 2014. Predicting road 8 and 2012 11:00 to 10:00 to 1
8 $\frac{1}{10}$ 330 culvert passability for migratory fishes. *Divers Distrib* 20: 1414-1424. ¹² 331 Major JJ, East AE, O'Connor JE. *et al.* 2017. Geomorphic responses to dam removal in the 222 I Inited States a two $1\frac{1}{15}$ 332 United States - a two-decade perspective. In: Gravel-bed rivers: processes and disasters. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons Ltd. 334 Mantel SK Rivers-Moore N a $\frac{19}{20}$ 334 Mantel SK, Rivers-Moore N, and Ramulifho P. 2017. Small dams need consideration in 22 335 riverscape conservation assessments. Aquatic Conserv: Mar Freshw Ecosyst 27: 748- $\frac{24}{25}$ 336 754. 26 27 20 20 $\frac{27}{27}$ 337 Neeson TM, Ferris MC, Diebel MW, *et al.* 2015. Enhancing ecosystem restoration efficiency ²⁹ 338 through spatial and temporal coordination. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 112: 6236-6241. $30 \quad 5 \quad 7$ 220 Delle II I sint I Jamesung N $32^{\text{+}}$ 339 Pella H, Lejot J, Lamouroux N, and Snelder TH. 2012. Le réseau hydrog 34 340 (RHT) français et ses attributs environnementaux. Geomorphologie 3: 317-336. 241 Dorkin IS and Gido KD 2012 $\frac{36}{37}$ 341 Perkin JS and Gido KB. 2012. Fragmentation alters stream fish community structure in 38 and the contract of the con 39 342 dendritic ecological networks. Ecol Appl 22: 2176-2187. 343 Poff I N and Hart DD 2002 H $^{41}_{42}$ 343 Poff LN and Hart DD. 2002. How dams vary and why it matters for the emerging science of dam removal. BioScience 52: 659-667. ⁴⁶ 345 Radinger J, Essl F, Hölker F, et al. 2017. The future distribution of river fish: the complex **C** 2 and 16 11 $\frac{16}{49}$ 346 interplay of climate and land use changes, species dispersal and movement barriers. 51 347 Global Change Biol https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13760.
52 51 347 Global Change Biol https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13760.
52
53 348 Soykan CU, Eguchi T, Kohin S, and Dewar H. 2014. Prediction of fishing effort distributions $53₂₄₀$ Sovker CII Equati T Kohin S 56 349 using boosted regression trees. *Ecol Appl* 24: 71-83. $58₃₅₀$ 59

Figure captions

 $\frac{4}{\sqrt{2}}$ $\overline{5}$ 353 Figure 1. Data on characteristics of (a) small (\leq 5 m in height $6\overline{6}$ limited, resulting in scientists and practitioners needing to make assumptions about related $8 \qquad \qquad 8$ $\frac{9}{255}$ $\frac{11}{25}$ $\frac{11}{25}$ $\frac{11}{25}$ $\frac{1}{10}$ 355 impact on species like fishes. In France, (b) slightly more than half of the documented built infrastructure are without height data.

 Figure 2. Partial dependency plots for environmental variables contributing >12% in three 350 models (a-c) for small (<5 m) $\frac{19}{20}$ 359 models (a-c) for small (\leq 5 m high) built infrastructure heights. Rug plots inside the top of *and 1 and 1 an* 22 360 each plot show the distribution of observations across the range of that variable, in deciles.

 \blacksquare 26 \blacksquare $1 \blacksquare$ $\frac{27}{27}$ 362 Figure 3. Catchment-level average distances between impassable (in an upstream direction) built infrastructure under three scenarios depicting common assumptions (Scenario 1 = all $31 - 264$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $32 \over 32$ 364 built infrastructure without height data assumed impassable; Scenario 2 = all built infrastructure without height data assumed passable), and Scenario 3 using median modelled 266 hoight data from three Boost $\frac{36}{37}$ 366 height data from three Boosted Regression Tree models, compared for three passability thresholds: (a) 1.0 m, (b) 1.5 m, and (c) 2.0 m. For each passability threshold, boxplots show 368 the median and 50% quartiles $\frac{41}{42}$ 368 the median and 50% quartiles, whiskers are 1.5 times interquartile range, for log transformed average distance between impassable built infrastructure (km) under each scenario. Outlying ⁴⁶ 370 values are not shown. Images of (a) *Gasterosteus gymnurus*, (b) *Lota lota*, and (c) *Alosa* $\frac{48}{274}$ $\frac{11}{11}$ $\frac{1}{11}$ $\frac{1}{11}$ $\frac{15}{49}$ 371 *fallax* above boxplots depict the types of fish species for which passability thresholds are 51 372 applicable. The *Gasterosteus gymnurus* image was created by Milton Tan, was unchanged, 272 and is used under exertive a and is used under creative commons license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc- 56 374 sa/3.0/). The Gasterosteus gymnurus and Lota lota images were sourced from PhyloPic (phylopic.org). $($ phylopic.org).

Table 2. Fish species native to France that are unable to pass (in an upstream direction) built

infrastructure ≥ 1.0 , 1.5 or 2.0 m in height.

Table 4. Environmental variable contributions to three Boosted Regression Tree models of

built infrastructure heights.

