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Modelling built infrastructure heights to evaluate common assumptions in aquatic conservation

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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 (≤ 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 1. Introduction

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5 3 Scientists and practitioners require information on the characteristics of built infrastructure,
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7 4 such as dams and weirs, to better understand associated impacts, costs, and benefits, in
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10 5 relation to ecological processes, services, and human values (Poff & Hart, 2002;
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12 6 Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013; Major et al., 2017). Characteristics of larger built
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14 7 infrastructure are increasingly well understood, because of improved identification via
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17 8 remotely sensed imagery (Mantel et al., 2017), and superior record keeping due to the
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20 9 importance of size and water holding capacity for monitoring energy production and water
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22 10 storage (e.g., Carvajal et al., 2017). Despite likely impacts from small built infrastructure
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24 11 which often restrict fish movement (i.e., being impassable), impede river flows, and retain
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27 12 sediments and materials, data on their distribution and characteristics remain limited
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30 13 (Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013; Couto & Olden, 2018). Collection of this necessary
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32 14 information is challenged by the large number of built infrastructure with unknown
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34 15 dimensions (e.g., height), which means that assumptions are often necessary in research and
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37 16 decision making (e.g., assume binary passability or impassability of built infrastructure) when
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39 17 height data are unmeasured (Cote et al., 2009; Perkin & Gido, 2012; Radinger et al., 2017).
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41 18 This raises the question of how common assumptions about characteristics of built
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44 19 infrastructure affect estimates of habitat fragmentation, and the potential implications of this
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46 20 for fishes with different abilities to pass over infrastructure.

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49 21 Here, we investigate existing data and data gaps for built infrastructure (Fig. 1a), and
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51 22 evaluate how these influence measures of river fragmentation when considering passability
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53 23 (the ability of a fish species to pass built infrastructure in an upstream direction) for native
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56 24 fishes in France. We do this by bringing together a database of built infrastructure, and
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59 25 associated environmental data to model and predict heights to fill data gaps for small built
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infrastructure (≤ 5 m in height; Fig. 1b). We then develop three alternative scenarios with the first two representing common assumptions used when height data are unmeasured: 1) all built infrastructure without height data are impassable, 2) all built infrastructure without height data are passable, and 3) all built infrastructure without height data are allocated median height prediction from our model. We evaluate differences between these three scenarios when quantifying two catchment-level metrics of river fragmentation (percentage of and distance between impassable built infrastructure) for fish species when built infrastructure with heights ≥ 1.0 , 1.5, or 2.0 m (our three passability thresholds) are impassable. Our three passability thresholds are based on the ecological continuity protocol established by the French National Agency for Water and Aquatic Environments (Baudoin et al., 2014). France's ecological continuity protocol is aimed at evaluating built infrastructure 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 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 on aquatic ecosystems, and our ability to address impacts more effectively.

2. Methods

2.1. Built infrastructure and environmental data

We analyzed publicly available data for 76,292 built infrastructure from the French National Agency for Water and Aquatic Environments (<http://www.onema.fr/le-roe>). We excluded any records listed as destroyed, planned, under construction, invalid, or duplicated in the database. After these exclusions we had a total of 19,302 records with height data (Fig. 1a). A

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51 further 882 built infrastructure had available height data, but were without values for
52 environmental data, and so were not included in our modelling of height, but retained for our
53 assessment of infrastructure passability. For subsequent modelling we created a training
54 dataset based on built infrastructure ≤ 5 m in height. We did this because $< 1\%$ (461) of built
55 infrastructure with height and environmental data were greater than 5 m. Given the common
56 dependence by humans on larger built infrastructure, we assumed that height values for these
57 structures were well documented, and not likely unmeasured in our database. We retained
58 these larger built infrastructure to include in our estimations of passability and calculations of
59 catchment-level fragmentation.

60 The starting point for our model training dataset was 17,959 built infrastructure with
61 heights ≤ 5 m and environmental variable data attributed to stream reaches available from the
62 French Theoretical Hydrographic Network (Pella et al., 2012). There were an additional
63 20,077 built infrastructure without height values, but with environmental variable values, and
64 we used our models to predict their heights (Fig. 1a). Environmental data were not available
65 for all stream reaches with built infrastructure in place, but we initially considered 11
66 variables available for all stream reaches and included the percentage of land cover that was
67 urban or agriculture within a 1 km circular buffer around each structure for initial
68 consideration in our modelling (Table 1). We included agriculture and urban cover to account
69 for landscape factors that can influence the distribution of infrastructure. Smaller and more
70 frequent infrastructure, such as weirs, tend to occur in agriculture-dominated landscapes, and
71 higher and less frequent infrastructure tend to occur in steeper landscapes with less human
72 modification.

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74 2.2. Modelling and predicting built infrastructure heights

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76 We used Boosted Regression Trees (BRT; Elith et al., 2008) to model and predict
77 infrastructure heights using the *dismo* package 2.1 (Hijmans et al., 2016) in R Statistical
78 Package 3.2.2 (<http://www.R-project.org/>). We briefly describe BRT models; technical
79 details and applications of these models have been widely presented in environmental and
80 ecological science literature (e.g., Elith et al., 2008; Bhatt et al., 2013; Soykan et al., 2014;
81 Hain et al., 2017). BRTs are part of the classification and regression tree family; techniques
82 used to advance single classification or regression trees by averaging the results for each
83 binary split from numerous trees or forests. Boosted tree models retain the positive aspects of
84 single trees seen in classification and regression tree models, but provide improved predictive
85 performance, nonlinearities and interactions are easily assessed, and the models can provide
86 an ordered list of the importance of the explanatory variables (Elith et al. 2008; De'ath 2007).

76 For our BRT models, height values were rounded to the nearest half-meter for modelling
77 (e.g., 0-0.24m = 0 m; 0.25-0.74m = 0.5m; 0.75-1.24m = 1.0m, etc), because there were likely
78 moderate levels of uncertainty around the estimated heights supplied in the original database,
79 and preliminary modelling demonstrated improved model performance when using rounded
80 height values. Training our models with all 17,959 built infrastructure was impractical
81 because of the computation time required, and previous work by Elith et al. (2008)
82 demonstrated trade-offs with sample size and computing time, where modelling with a sub-
83 sample of 6,000 sites showed high predictive performance and moderate computation time.
84 Therefore, we randomly selected three sub-samples consisting of 5,000 built infrastructure
85 records, and used these as our training datasets for subsequent modelling. With the three
86 training data sub-samples, we fitted three BRT models, assuming the response followed a
87 Gaussian distribution. We tested combinations of tree complexity (tc) (10-15), learning rate
88 (lr) (0.001, 0.005) and bag fraction (bf) (0.5, 0.75). The learning rate determines the
89 contribution of each tree to the growing model. Tree complexity controls whether interactions

101 are fitted in the model: a tree complexity of one fits an additive model, a tree complexity of
102 two fits a model with up to two-way interactions, and so on. Introducing some randomness
103 into a boosted model can improve accuracy and speed and reduce over-fitting (Elith et al.
104 2008), but this can also introduce variance in fitted values and predictions between runs. The
105 bag fraction controls stochasticity in the model, specifying the proportion of data to be used
106 at each step; a bf of 0.75 means that 75% of the data are randomly drawn from the full model
107 training dataset without replacement (Elith et al. 2008). We determined that for all three of
108 our BRT models the following parameters returned highest model performance: tc = 15; lr =
109 0.005; bf = 0.75. We predicted height values for the 20,077 built infrastructure without
110 values, giving three height predictions for each. For each of the three BRT models, we used a
111 tenfold cross-validation (CV; Elith et al. 2008), evaluating model CV correlation (where
112 higher values indicate a better model) and standard error, to assess model predictive
113 performance to withheld portions of data (Elith et al. 2008).

114 We initially considered 11 environmental variables in each of the three BRT models
115 (Table 1), and the importance of each environmental variable in each of the three models was
116 evaluated based on its contribution to model fit. Strahler stream order and percentage urban
117 cover were dropped from final models, leaving nine environmental variables, because they
118 contributed <2% to each model, and model performance was the same without their
119 inclusion.

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121 2.3. Built infrastructure passability and catchment-level fragmentation

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123 Applying the assumptions of our three scenarios for built infrastructure without heights, we
124 determined if each of the 39,379 built infrastructure with known or predicted heights were
125 passable or impassable for fish species unable to pass ≥ 1.0 , 1.5, or 2.0 m heights. Our three

126 built infrastructure passability thresholds (1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 m) were based on the most
127 conservative estimates of fish species swimming and jumping capacities (i.e., their ability to
128 pass built infrastructure or not) determined by Baudoin et al. (2014) for fishes moving in an
129 upstream direction in favourable hydrologic conditions. We chose infrastructure height as an
130 indicator of a fish species ability to pass over built infrastructure or not because: 1) we had
131 access to height information in our database, and 2) Baudoin et al. (2014) established that for
132 vertical, sub-vertical or inclined dams and weirs (those built infrastructure considered in our
133 analysis), an extreme height value is the first element that determines whether or not a
134 structure is likely to be passable for a particular fish species. Baudoin et al. (2014)
135 determined built infrastructure passability thresholds for fish species in France that are unable
136 to pass ≥ 1.0 , 1.5, or 2.0 m heights, and we present 30 of the native species for which these
137 thresholds are applicable in Table 2. For example, built infrastructure at 1 m or more are
138 impassable for fish species such as Three-spined Stickleback (*Gasterosteus gymmurus*), those
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 Using our built infrastructure data, and the French hydrographical network
142 (<https://www.data.gouv.fr/fr/datasets/bd-carthage-onm>) to represent rivers, we then
143 determined and compared river fragmentation across 26 major catchments based on two
144 metrics: the percentage of impassable built infrastructure and average distance (km) between
145 impassable built infrastructure. We evaluated differences in the resulting values for each
146 fragmentation metric when applying our three scenarios and the built infrastructure
147 passability thresholds (1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 m). We used analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to
148 investigate catchment-level differences for both of our river fragmentation metrics,
149 comparing between scenarios for each of the passability thresholds, and with river length
150 within each catchment as a co-variate. ANCOVA was conducted for both fragmentation

151 metrics using the function *lm* from the *base* package, and Tukey's post-hoc tests using the
152 *glht* function from the *multcomp* (Hothorn 2008) package in R Statistical Software (version
153 3.2.2) (<http://www.R-project.org/>). It was necessary to log transform average distance
154 between impassable built infrastructure for each catchment to meet assumptions of normality
155 and homogeneity.

157 3. Results

159 3.1. Modelling and predicting built infrastructure heights

161 Our three BRT models showed similar and reasonable discrimination and predictive
162 performances for small built infrastructure in France (Table 3). The final predicted heights for
163 built infrastructure ranged from 0 to 4 m across France (all modelled data available at:
164 <https://figshare.com/s/617347a78cc27f419023>). Regardless of the model considered, we
165 found that four of the nine environmental variables had at least 12% relative influence on
166 infrastructure height (Fig. 2; Table 4). Higher infrastructure tended to occur on shorter stream
167 reaches (19% relative influence on average between the three models), at lower (<500 m) and
168 higher elevation (>1000 m) (14% on average), and on stream reaches with higher gradient
169 (change in elevation per reach length; 13% on average) (Fig. 2; Table 4). Infrastructure height
170 also rapidly increased with increasing average annual flow and tended to level off at flows
171 above 100 m³/s (12% on average) (Fig. 2; Table 4). Median height values across our three
172 models were consistent, with half the predicted values having zero standard deviation, and
173 the majority (18,105; 90%) of built infrastructure had median predicted height values of 1.0
174 (n = 10,749) or 1.5 meters (n = 7,356). Our full database of built infrastructure, including
175 known heights, predicted height values for built infrastructure from all three models,

176 modelled median height values for built infrastructure, and model deviation are available at:
177 <https://figshare.com/s/617347a78cc27f419023>.

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179 3.2. Built infrastructure passability and catchment-level fragmentation

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181 We found significant differences in catchment-level fragmentation between our three
182 scenarios, the pattern of which varied with passability threshold (Fig. 3a-c; Table S1). For a
183 passability threshold of 1.0 m, on average $85\% \pm 2$ (SE) of built infrastructure were
184 impassable under scenarios 1 and 3 across catchments (see Table S1), and distance between
185 impassable structures also did not differ ($18.0 \text{ km} \pm 2.8$ on average), whereas significantly
186 fewer built infrastructure were impassable under scenario 2 ($29\% \pm 3.0$ on average; see Table
187 S1) (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 214.53$, $p < 0.001$), and the distance between impassable built
188 infrastructure ($106 \text{ km} \pm 41.3$ on average) was significantly greater (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 18.7$,
189 $p < 0.001$) than under scenarios 1 and 3 (Fig. 3a). We found that for a passability threshold of
190 1.5 m all three scenarios differed significantly both in terms of percentage (scenario 1: $74\% \pm$
191 3.0 ; scenario 2: $18\% \pm 2.0$; scenario 3: $41\% \pm 3.0$ on average; Table S1) (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} =$
192 123.25 , $p < 0.001$) and distance (scenario 1: $20.7 \text{ km} \pm 2.9$; scenario 2: $143 \text{ km} \pm 42.0$;
193 scenario 3: $46.5 \text{ km} \pm 11.1$ on average) between impassable infrastructure across catchments
194 (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 23.0$, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3b). For a passability threshold of 2.0 m, scenarios
195 2 and 3 showed no difference on average across catchments either in terms of percentage
196 (scenario 1: $11\% \pm 1.0$; scenario 2: $17\% \pm 2.0$ on average; Table S1) or distance between
197 ($197.0 \text{ km} \pm 60.6$, and $160.9 \text{ km} \pm 61.9$ on average; Fig. 3c) impassable built infrastructure,
198 but both the percentage ($67\% \pm 4.0$ on average) and distance between impassable built
199 infrastructure ($23.3 \text{ km} \pm 3.2$ on average) were significantly different for scenario 1
200 (ANCOVA: $F_{2,74} = 148.2$ and $F_{2,74} = 37.9$, $p < 0.001$; see Table S1; Fig. 3c). We found no

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201 effect of river length (km) on catchment-level river fragmentation regardless of fragmentation
202 metric or the passability threshold.

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204 4. Discussion

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206 Drawing on remotely collected data we modelled and predicted built infrastructure height
207 with reasonable certainty, doubling the number with height values across France. We further
208 demonstrated that common assumptions made about built infrastructure when data gaps exist
209 can result in significantly different estimates of river fragmentation for fish species with
210 varied abilities to pass built infrastructure.

211 When large numbers of built infrastructure have unknown dimensions, such as height,
212 we can be forced to make assumptions; either that all built infrastructure are passable, or
213 impassable (e.g., Radinger et al., 2017). Our results suggest that these assumptions can result
214 in opposite outcomes for measures of river fragmentation for fish species with varied abilities
215 to pass built infrastructure. For example, assuming that all built infrastructure without height
216 data were passable resulted in a 5-fold reduction in river fragmentation for species such as the
217 Three-spined Stickleback (passability threshold ≥ 1.0 m) compared to using our predicted
218 height values to measure distance between impassable built infrastructure. We found the
219 opposite was true for species like the Twait Shad (passability threshold ≥ 2.0 m), where
220 assuming all built infrastructure without height data were impassable resulted in a 7-fold
221 increase in river fragmentation compared to using our predicted height values to measure
222 distance between impassable built infrastructure. Our findings suggest that inclusion of built
223 infrastructure height, and modelling height where necessary, can help to refine estimates of
224 river fragmentation for fish species with varied abilities to pass built infrastructure. With an
225 increased interest in modelling fish species' dispersal abilities (Radinger et al., 2017), and

226 continued efforts to prioritize removal projects using indicators of built infrastructure
227 passability (Neeson et al., 2015), our approach can be used to improve understanding of built
228 infrastructure impact and inform the identification of priorities for restoring river connectivity
229 to benefit different species.

230 Our results demonstrate a first step toward more explicit accountancy of built
231 infrastructure impact on aquatic biodiversity. For example, our approach builds on earlier
232 work by Perkin & Gido (2012) who noted that infrastructure passability for different fish
233 species could be a function of both structure height and local hydrological regimes but did
234 not explicitly account for such factors and instead assumed partial passability for all
235 infrastructure. Refinements to our modelling approach that explicitly consider species'
236 biological characteristics, which can influence their ability to pass built infrastructure, would
237 likely further improve estimates of river fragmentation for individual species, but such data
238 are not broadly available. We were able to account for a coarse estimation of river hydrology
239 in our catchment-level fragmentation calculations, because hydrologic variability was
240 integrated in the passability thresholds established by Baudoin et al. (2014). Finer-scale data
241 on river discharge at individual infrastructure is currently not available, but explicit
242 consideration of this factor would be useful in future iterations of this work. We emphasize
243 that our models specifically address a need for overcoming gaps in knowledge about built
244 infrastructure height, and additional considerations such as discharge and fish species'
245 biological characteristics will only help to refine our modelling and findings. Further,
246 mismatches in existing spatial data products did not allow us to predict height values for all
247 built infrastructure in France, and factors such as fish passage facilities that we were unable
248 to account for in our assessment, could influence whether or not these are passable for
249 different fish species. Uncertainty in infrastructure status and presence of fish passage
250 facilities could be validated using a combination of finer-scale spatial data and field surveys.

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

256 Globally, built infrastructure removal and installation is occurring simultaneously
257 (Hydropower Status Report 2017; Dam Removal Europe 2016) and methods similar to what
258 we present here offer a starting point for improving our ability to quantify costs and benefits
259 associated with these processes. Our results (i.e., known and predicted height values) could
260 be integrated in conservation planning exercises, along with other ecological and socio-
261 economic considerations, as a relative indicator of cost to remove built infrastructure. Built
262 infrastructure height can also be used as an indicator of environmental benefit, such as
263 downstream response to removal, where higher dams have been shown to have longer-lasting
264 and more wide-spread downstream effects than shorter dams (Major et al., 2017). These
265 examples demonstrate the wide-applicability of our approach and results to informing
266 conservation decisions with broader considerations than fishes. Further, our approach could
267 be used to inform future scenarios that consider how built infrastructure change over time
268 with respect to removal, installation and other environmental and socio-political factors, such
269 as changing climate and flows, and placement of fish passage facilities to reduce impact. We
270 see particular relevance of our approach to other areas in Europe as well as North America
271 where efforts to both remediate (in the form of including fish passage facilities) and remove
272 built infrastructure is rapidly occurring (Foley et al., 2017; Dam Removal Europe 2016) but
273 where gaps in data on characteristics of built infrastructure remain (e.g., Radinger et al.,
274 2017; Januchowski-Hartley et al., 2013) and limit our ability to make effective decisions. We
275 see further applicability of our modelling approach and results to other parts of the world as a

276 global proliferation of smaller infrastructure continues with limited consideration or
277 documentation of characteristics like height (Couto & Olden, 2018). Ultimately, as global
278 change continues, approaches like ours will become increasingly important for guiding more
279 proactive and effective strategies for built infrastructure management.

280

281 **Author contributions**

282

283 SRJ and PAT conceived the idea and designed the methods; SRJ and CJ collated the data;
284 SRJ analysed the data; SRJ led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed
285 critically to all manuscript drafts and gave final approval for publication.

286

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288

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351 **Figure captions**

352

353 **Figure 1.** Data on characteristics of (a) small (≤ 5 m in height) built infrastructure are often
354 limited, resulting in scientists and practitioners needing to make assumptions about related
355 impact on species like fishes. In France, (b) slightly more than half of the documented built
356 infrastructure are without height data.

357

358 **Figure 2.** Partial dependency plots for environmental variables contributing $>12\%$ in three
359 models (a-c) for small (≤ 5 m high) built infrastructure heights. Rug plots inside the top of
360 each plot show the distribution of observations across the range of that variable, in deciles.

361

362 **Figure 3.** Catchment-level average distances between impassable (in an upstream direction)
363 built infrastructure under three scenarios depicting common assumptions (Scenario 1 = all
364 built infrastructure without height data assumed impassable; Scenario 2 = all built
365 infrastructure without height data assumed passable), and Scenario 3 using median modelled
366 height data from three Boosted Regression Tree models, compared for three passability
367 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, whiskers are 1.5 times interquartile range, for log transformed
369 average distance between impassable built infrastructure (km) under each scenario. Outlying
370 values are not shown. Images of (a) *Gasterosteus gymnurus*, (b) *Lota lota*, and (c) *Alosa*
371 *fallax* above boxplots depict the types of fish species for which passability thresholds are
372 applicable. The *Gasterosteus gymnurus* image was created by Milton Tan, was unchanged,
373 and is used under creative commons license ([https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/)
374 [sa/3.0/](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/)). The *Gasterosteus gymnurus* and *Lota lota* images were sourced from PhyloPic
375 (phylopic.org).

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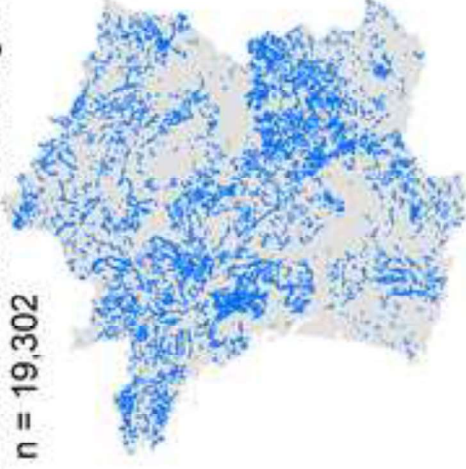
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Figure 1
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(b)

Built infrastructure with height data
 $n = 19,302$



Built infrastructure without height data
 $n = 20,077$

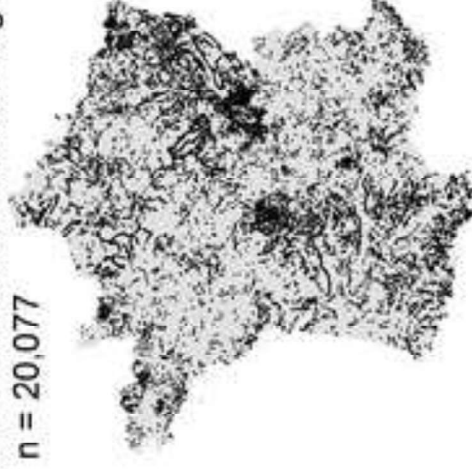


Figure 2
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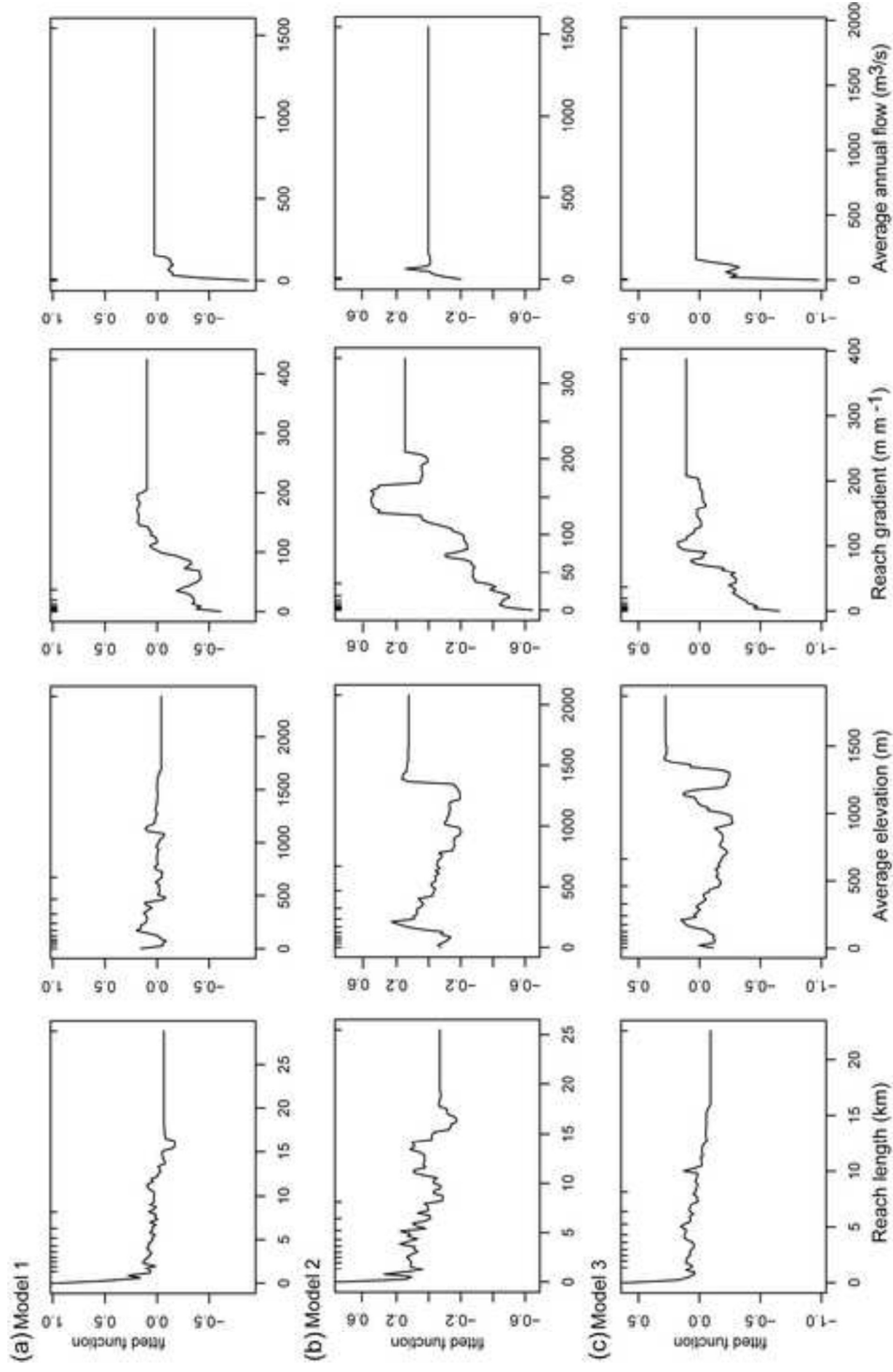


Figure 3
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

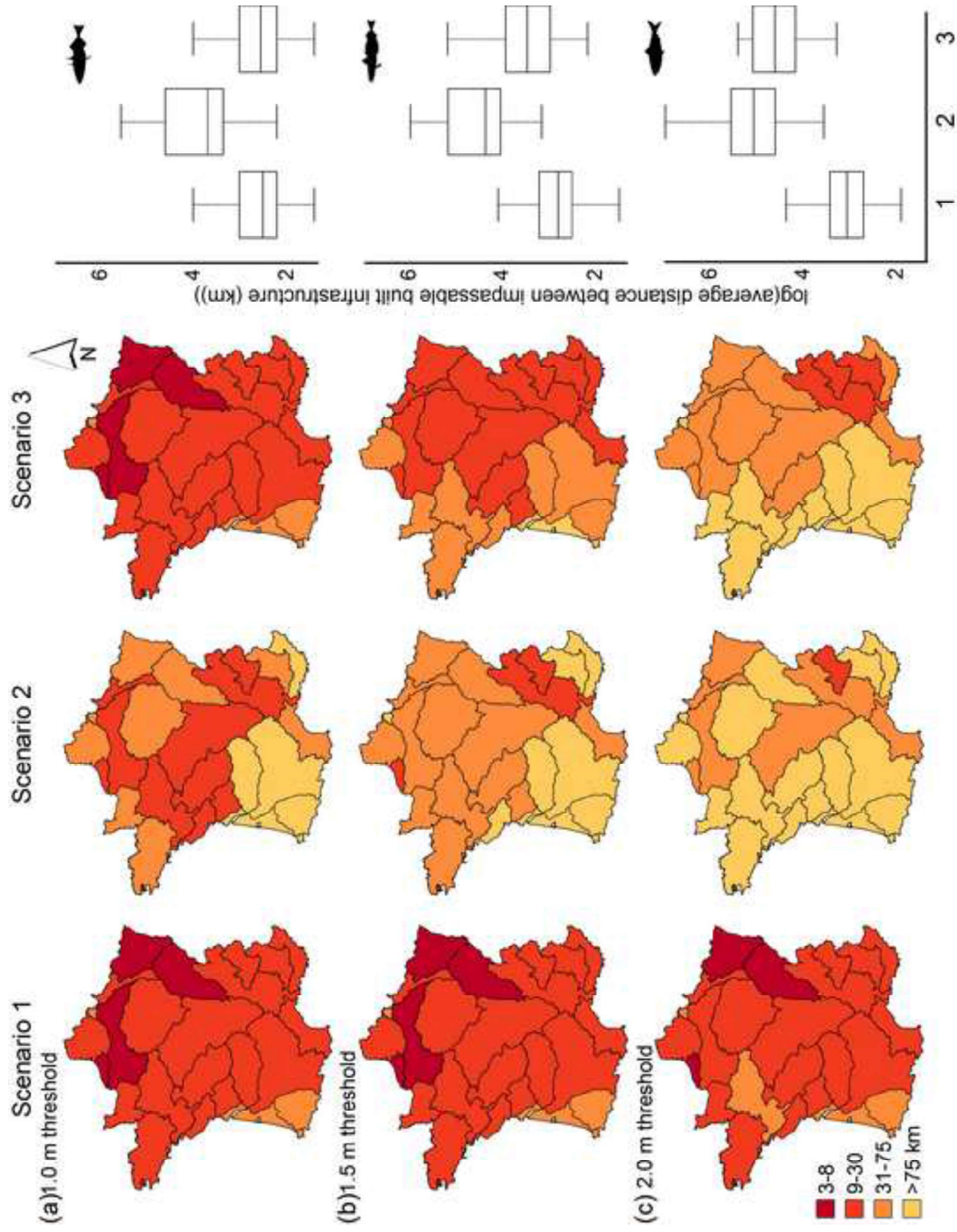


Table 1. Environmental variables used to characterize both the known and predicted built infrastructure heights in three Boosted Regression

Tree models. Description of each environmental variable is provided.

Environmental Variable	Description
Stream reach gradient (m m^{-1})	Stream reach gradient where built infrastructure is located.
Average monthly minimum flow (m^3/s)	Average monthly minimum flow of a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Stream reach average elevation (m)	Average elevation of a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Average annual flow (m^3/s)	Average annual flow of a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Stream reach drainage area (km^2)	The amount of area locally draining to a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Distance to source (km)	Distance to the upstream source of the river network from a stream where built infrastructure is located.
Stream reach upstream drainage area (km^2)	The amount of upstream area draining to a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Stream reach length (km)	The length of a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Strahler stream order (categorical)	The Strahler stream order of a stream reach where built infrastructure is located.
Percentage agriculture cover (%)	Percentage of agricultural land cover within a 1 km circular buffer around built infrastructure.
Percentage urban cover (%)	Percentage of urban cover within a 1 km circular buffer around built infrastructure.

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.

Species	1.0 m threshold	1.5 m threshold	2.0 m threshold
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	1		
<i>Rhodeus amarus</i>	1		
<i>Gasterosteus gymnurus</i>	1		
<i>Pungitius laevis</i>	1		
<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	1		
<i>Barbatula barbatula</i>	1		
<i>Lampetra planeri</i>	1		
<i>Zingel asper</i>	1		
<i>Parachondrostoma toxostoma</i>	1		
<i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i>	1		
<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>	1		
<i>Carassius gibelio</i>	1		
<i>Carassius carassius</i>	1		
<i>Telestes souffia</i>	1		
<i>Barbus meridionalis</i>	1		
<i>Alburnoides bipunctatus</i>	1		
<i>Alburnus alburnus</i>	1		
<i>Tinca tinca</i>		1	
<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>		1	
<i>Lota lota</i>		1	
<i>Blicca bjoerkna</i>		1	
<i>Abramis brama</i>		1	
<i>Lampetra fluviatilis</i>		1	
<i>Squalius cephalus</i>		1	
<i>Barbus barbus</i>		1	
<i>Thymallus thymallus</i>		1	
<i>Aspius aspius</i>			1
<i>Esox lucius</i>			1
<i>Petromyzon marinus</i>			1
<i>Alosa fallax</i>			1
Total	17	9	4

Table 3. Parameters and performance for three Boosted Regression Tree models of built infrastructure heights.

Model	Number of records	Environmental variables	Training data correlation (based on 5000 sites)	Cross validation correlation	Cross validation standard error	Number of trees
Model 1	5000	9	0.79	0.40	0.01	3750
Model 2	5000	9	0.75	0.35	0.01	2950
Model 3	5000	9	0.73	0.37	0.02	2550

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

Environmental variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model average
Stream reach length (km)	18%	19%	19%	19%
Stream reach average elevation (m)	14%	15%	14%	14%
Stream reach gradient (m m ⁻¹)	12%	12%	14%	13%
Average annual flow (m ³ /s)	12%	12%	12%	12%
Percentage agriculture cover (%)	10%	10%	10%	10%
Stream reach drainage area (km ²)	10%	9%	9%	9%
Average monthly minimum flow (m ³ /s)	9%	9%	9%	9%
Stream reach upstream drainage area (km ²)	8%	7%	7%	7%
Distance to source (km)	7%	7%	6%	7%

Table S1. Total river length, number of built infrastructure (BI count), percentage of impassable built infrastructure, and average distance between impassable built infrastructure for 26 river catchments in France. The percentage of, and average distance between, impassable built infrastructure is presented for three different passability thresholds (≥ 1.0 , 1.5, or 2.0 m, representing heights at which built infrastructure are impassable for different fish species) when considering three scenarios of built infrastructure heights: two based on common assumptions (all infrastructure without height data are impassable (scen 1) or passable (scen 2)), and one based on modeled heights (scen 3).

ID	River length (km)	BI count	Impass_1m_scen1 (%)	Impass_5m_scen1 (%)	Impass_1m_scen2 (%)	Impass_5m_scen2 (%)	Impass_1m_scen3 (%)	Impass_5m_scen3 (%)	Impass_1m_scen3 (%)	Impass_5m_scen3 (%)	Impass_1m_scen3 (%)
1	20546.0	751	89%	82%	78%	20%	13%	9%	89%	54%	28%
2	1271.0	46	85%	63%	48%	54%	33%	17%	85%	48%	20%
3	26772.0	1825	79%	66%	57%	37%	25%	15%	79%	35%	16%
4	835.0	338	72%	57%	51%	25%	10%	4%	72%	14%	4%
5	1608.0	34	100%	100%	100%	9%	9%	9%	100%	24%	9%
6	8052.0	125	93%	91%	90%	6%	5%	4%	93%	26%	4%
7	717.0	23	100%	96%	91%	17%	13%	9%	100%	26%	9%
8	7286.0	641	98%	95%	92%	11%	8%	6%	98%	58%	15%
9	14933.0	1315	91%	83%	77%	30%	22%	17%	91%	62%	27%
10	13487.0	880	86%	75%	67%	32%	21%	13%	86%	37%	14%
11	7217.0	741	71%	46%	40%	36%	13%	8%	70%	23%	10%
12	5933.0	820	68%	46%	34%	36%	15%	5%	68%	27%	5%
13	20175.0	1278	92%	84%	77%	20%	12%	6%	90%	42%	12%
14	9354.0	731	92%	86%	83%	18%	12%	10%	92%	61%	42%
15	10719.0	1083	81%	70%	65%	28%	18%	13%	80%	26%	15%