



The effect of altered flow regimes on aquatic primary producer communities: Diatoms and macrophytes

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3 1 The effect of altered flow regimes on aquatic primary producer
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6 2 communities: Diatoms and macrophytes
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25 10 **Keywords:** macrophytes, diatoms, periphyton, rivers, hydrological alteration, flow
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27 11 regime, reservoirs, regulated rivers.
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12 **Abstract**

13 Rivers are intensively managed worldwide through unprecedented flow regime
14 alterations on a global scale. This has led to an increasing interest in the development of
15 quantitative tools to assess the ecological response of organisms to flow alteration. To
16 date, studies reflect a large diversity of responses that make the intensity and prevalence
17 of effects difficult to generalize. The present study analyzed how flow alterations caused
18 by dams affect the structure, composition and traits of diatoms and macrophytes in three
19 Spanish River basins (Cantabric, Ebro and Duero). By using a control-impact design
20 based mainly in hydrological similarity, our results showed consistent patterns of change
21 in diatom and macrophyte communities. Our study showed a shift from resistant traits
22 such as non-colonial diatom forms and crust-forming algae, which are adapted to the
23 extreme events and natural dynamism of unregulated rivers, towards planktonic diatoms,
24 free-floating algae and the mass development of aquatic plants in hydrological altered
25 sites. Both communities shared common thresholds of response to altered hydrological
26 attributes that could be considered in a flow management context. The hydrological
27 indices that impacted diatom and macrophyte communities the most were related with the
28 magnitude and duration of minimum flows. However, our results also show that it is
29 important to consider the inter-relationships between the different hydrological attributes
30 such as the seasonal variability of monthly flows, the magnitude of maximum annual
31 extremes, the timing of flow events, and the frequency and rate of flow changes.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Rivers are intensively managed in many areas of the world by means of a range of
35 hydraulic infrastructures such as dams, weirs, water intakes, and canals aimed at
36 facilitating water abstraction for a variety of human uses. These water uses are responsible
37 for unprecedented flow regime alterations, occurring at any time of the hydrological cycle

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3 38 (Peñas & Barquín, 2019; Poff et al., 2010; Sabater et al., 2018). In general, water-stressed
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5 39 ecosystems affected by agriculture or civil uses are characterized by longer low-flow or
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8 40 even dry periods and less frequent and intense peak flows than hydrologically unaltered
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10 41 rivers (Sabater et al., 2018), while energy production generates a higher frequency of peak
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12 42 flows than expected by natural variability (Richter & Thomas, 2007).

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14 43 Ecological and evolutionary processes in river ecosystems are strongly influenced by
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16 44 many facets of dynamic natural flow regimes (Poff et al., 2010). Indeed, natural flow
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19 45 regimes set a template for contemporary ecological processes, evolutionary adaptations,
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21 46 and native biodiversity maintenance. Under natural conditions, and from an ecological
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23 47 perspective, extreme events such as high flow events or low flow periods exert selective
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25 48 pressures on populations, dictating the relative success of different species. Thus, altered
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28 49 flow regimes are one of the most serious and persistent threats to the ecological
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30 50 sustainability of rivers (Álvarez-Cabria, Barquín & Peñas, 2016; Bunn & Arthington,
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32 51 2002; Peñas & Barquín, 2019). Flow alteration often involves the simultaneous
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34 52 modification of several components of natural flow regimes. Throughout this manuscript,
35
36 53 flow alteration includes changes in flow magnitude, frequency, duration, timing and rate
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38 54 of change (Poff et al., 1997; Richter, Baumgartner, Wigington & Braun, 1997; Peñas &
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40 55 Barquín, 2019; García de Jalón, González & García de Jalón, 2019). Understanding the
41
42 56 relationship between ecological responses and specific patterns of flow alteration is
43
44 57 needed to help support scientific guidelines for developing flow standards that can be
45
46 58 applied to a broad variety of streams and rivers (Poff & Zimmerman, 2010). Reviews of
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48 59 case studies to date (Gillespie et al., 2015; Poff & Zimmerman, 2010; Angus Webb et al.,
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50 60 2013; Sabater et al., 2018) reveal limited quantitative results on ecological responses to
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52 61 flow alteration, only a reduced number focusing on specific groups such as aquatic
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55 62 primary producers.

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3 63 Primary producers are an essential part of aquatic ecosystems and their role as
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5 64 bioindicators and sensitivity to eutrophication and organic pollution has been extensively
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7 65 studied. In the last decades, there is a growing recognition that flow regime is also a key
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9 66 driver for primary producers in streams and rivers (Franklin, Dunbar & Whitehead, 2008;
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11 67 Bergey et al., 2010; Abati et al., 2016; Abdellah & Saad, 2019). The ecological response
12
13 68 of primary producers to flow alteration can be identified in terms of changes in biomass
14
15 69 and community structure and composition. For instance, the relative balance between
16
17 70 biomass gain and loss processes will be influenced by flow regime (i.e. discharge
18
19 71 magnitude, variability, and frequency). In this way, biomass gains occur during periods
20
21 72 of higher flow stability, and are further enhanced in altered rivers as a result of the steady
22
23 73 flows associated to damming or water abstraction, which promote the accumulation of
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25 74 algae and macrophytes (Biggs, Nikora, & Snelder, 2005; Smolar-Žvanut & Krivograd
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27 75 Klemenčič, 2013; Smolar-Žvanut & Miko, 2014; Riis, Suren, Clausen, & Sand-Jensen,
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29 76 2008; Ponsatí et al., 2015). Consequently, recent studies suggested that periphyton and
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31 77 its associated metabolism could be used as indicators for monitoring the ecological effects
32
33 78 of increasing minimum flows (Huang et al., 2018). Biomass loss processes, on the other
34
35 79 hand, are caused by increased shear stress resulting in breakage and dislodgement of
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37 80 biofilm mats and plants, for example because of high flow events (Franklin, Dunbar, &
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39 81 Whitehead, 2008). However, inconclusive results have also been reported. In the case of
40
41 82 benthic algal assemblages, increases as well as decreases in biomass after large floods
42
43 83 have been observed (Sabater et al., 2018; Schneider, 2015; Schneider & Petrin, 2017),
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45 84 while macrophyte mass developments occur in some but not other rivers having enhanced
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47 85 winter discharges (Johansen, Brandrud, & Mjelde, 2000). The effect of flow regime on
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49 86 species richness (here identified as local richness or α diversity), community structure
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51 87 and composition is more controversial. Following the Intermediate Disturbance
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3 88 Hypothesis (IDH), some authors have suggested that a higher species richness would be
4
5 89 found at intermediate levels of flow disturbance (Riis et al., 2008). Hence, rivers with
6
7 90 altered flow regimes might show communities with lower species richness, as they may
8
9 91 enhance or lessen the dynamism of natural rivers. Prolonged periods of reduced flows can
10
11 92 reduce the contribution of sediments and produce changes in physicochemical variables
12
13 93 favoring high periphyton biomass and species richness (Smolar-Žvanut & Miko, 2014).
14
15 94 Tang et al. (2013) also found that low-flow conditions downstream of water abstraction
16
17 95 facilities enhanced algal diversity and richness. However, some authors have found that
18
19 96 more stable flow regimes were not associated with any effect on taxon richness of
20
21 97 periphyton assemblages (Schneider & Petrin, 2017). For macrophytes, increases and
22
23 98 decreases in species richness have been reported following river regulation (Abati et al.,
24
25 99 2016; Downes, Entwisle, & Reich, 2003). On the other hand, timing of high or low flow
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27 100 during the year has not received much attention, even though the phenology of algae and
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29 101 plants may be strongly affected by these attributes in regulated rivers (Franklin et al.,
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31 102 2008).
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33 103 Trait-based approaches applied to community ecology have helped to understand the
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35 104 effect of environmental stressors on species assemblies. These approaches avoid the
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37 105 complexity associated with taxonomic and biogeographical differences among sites
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39 106 (Goldenberg Vilar et al., 2014; Hooper et al., 2005; Passy & Blanchet, 2007) and allowing
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41 107 to test, for instance, general relationships of flow velocity with periphyton assemblages
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43 108 (Biggs & Smith, 2002; Biggs, 1990; Biggs, Goring, & Nikora, 1998; Biggs, Smith, &
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45 109 Duncan, 1999; Francoeur & Biggs, 2006; Jowett & Biggs, 1997). However, trait-based
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47 110 approaches applied to the study of ecological effects of hydrological alterations in
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49 111 primary producers is rare (Vieira et al., 2012) and has only recently been considered for
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51 112 diatom communities (Wu et al., 2019).
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3 113 We believe that general patterns of ecological response of primary producers to flow
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5 114 alteration are difficult to find given two primary reasons. First, the variability of reservoir
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7 115 attributes, which hampers the prediction of their potential hydrological alterations and,
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9 116 second, the magnitude and direction of the alterations, that might depend on the natural
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11 117 characteristics of the impacted river (Abati et al., 2016; Peñas & Barquín, 2019; Poff et
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13 118 al., 2010). Another limitation in the assessment of general patterns of ecological response
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15 119 to flow alteration is that most research to date presents single-case studies, while lacking
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17 120 control or reference sites for natural conditions (Lloyd et al., 2004; Poff & Zimmerman,
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19 121 2010). Consequently, the ability to predict primary producers' abundance and distribution
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21 122 in relation to hydrological alterations is still relatively limited.

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24 123 The present study aimed at determining the effect of flow alterations caused by dams on
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26 124 primary producers in rivers, focusing on the response of diatoms and macrophyte
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28 125 communities in a control-impact experimental design. Patterns of ecological response to
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30 126 hydrological alterations can only be found if we consider the attributes driving variability
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32 127 in unaltered flow regimes. In this regard tools and modelling techniques that assure the
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34 128 hydrological and ecological comparability between natural and altered sites, such as
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36 129 hydrological classifications, are needed to assess the degree of hydrological alteration and
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38 130 its effects (Poff et al., 2010). By selecting sites that should show similar hydrological
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40 131 behavior in the absence of perturbations (see: Peñas & Barquin, 2019), we expected to
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42 132 find common responses of primary producers in altered regimes compared to natural flow
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44 133 regime. We hypothesized that changes in the natural flow produced by hydrological
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46 134 regulations (i.e., longer low-flow, less frequent and intense peak flows and seasonal shifts
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48 135 in the magnitude of monthly flows – in our study the independent variables) would favor
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50 136 species (dependent variables) adapted to the new hydrological condition. These changes
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52 137 in community composition would be reflected in the abundance of specific functional
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3 138 groups, favoring loosely attached algal forms and submerged vascular plants. We also
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5 139 expected that the sensitivity of primary producers to flow alteration would allow for the
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7 140 quantification of common thresholds of community changes following shifts in
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9 141 hydrological dynamics in altered sites.
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14 143 **2. Materials & Methods**

17 144 **2.1 Study area**

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20 145 The study was carried out in permanent rivers belonging to three Spanish River basins:
21
22 146 the Cantabric, Duero and Ebro basins (Figure 1). The Cantabric basin encompasses
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24 147 several small basins with drainage areas ranging from 30 to 4,907 km² covering a total
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26 148 area of 22,000 km². Rivers in this area are confined by the Cantabrian Cordillera, a
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28 149 mountain range running parallel to the coast and reaching up to 2,600 m.a.s.l. Rivers are
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30 150 characterized by high slopes and short lengths and lie within the Atlantic climate region
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32 151 (Rivas-Martínez, 2004). The average annual temperature is 14°C and precipitation is
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34 152 abundant throughout the year with a mean of 1,300 mm year⁻¹, presenting maximum
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36 153 rainfalls in December (150 mm month⁻¹) and minimum ones in July (50 mm month⁻¹)
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38 154 (González-Ferreras, Barquín, & Peñas, 2016). However, the amount and distribution of
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40 155 precipitation vary significantly depending on local topography (González-Ferreras,
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42 156 Barquín, & Peñas, 2016). Snow is frequent above 1,000 m.a.s.l. in this area in winter. The
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44 157 Ebro and Duero basins, with catchment areas of 85,530 km² and 98,073 km², respectively,
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46 158 lie within the Mediterranean region, although both receive temperate and Mediterranean
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48 159 climate influences. The Ebro flows south-eastward from the Cantabrian Mountains into
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50 160 the Mediterranean Sea. The Duero basin is bordered by the Cantabrian cordillera in the
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52 161 north and by the central and Iberian mountain system ranges in the south and northeast,
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54 162 respectively. It flows into the Atlantic sea through Portugal. Annual rainfall is around 600
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3 163 - 650 mm in these river basins and varies significantly, from 300 mm in the center to
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5 164 1,800 mm in the highest mountains where snow is also common during winter. The
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7 165 temperature regime also presents oscillations throughout the year with temperatures over
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9 166 30°C in summer and below 5°C during winter.

167 **2.2 Study design**

168 The analysis of the influence of hydrological alterations on primary producer
169 communities was conducted in 20 permanent river reaches located in northern Spain and
170 following a control-impact experimental design (CI). The first condition for the reaches
171 to be included in the analyses was that hydrological information in both control and
172 altered sites was available, i.e. they had nearby gauge stations. Twelve altered sites
173 (impact sites) were selected attending to the presence of reservoirs upstream. Reservoir
174 purposes varied between reservoirs and were defined as Hydropower (HP), Irrigation
175 (IR), Water Supply (WS), or any combination of them (IR/HP; IR/WS; HP/WS;
176 IR/HP/WS) (Table S1). In this regard, we only considered 1) River reaches affected by a
177 minimum of one and a maximum of three upstream impoundments, and 2) River reaches
178 with a ratio of catchment area at the impoundment - catchment area at the reach above
179 0.3.

180 Control sites were selected attending to their ecological similarity with impacted sites,
181 and the lack of any perturbation affecting flow dynamics, and used to statistically
182 compare what would have occurred at the impact sites in the absence of the perturbation
183 (Downes et al., 2002). In this study, we mainly focused on hydrological similarity for two
184 reasons: hydrology is a master variable in determining the biotic composition, structure
185 and function of river ecosystems (Poff et al., 1997), and it integrates considerable
186 environmental information, e.g. climate, topography, land cover or geology, in upstream
187 catchments (Peñas et al., 2014). In this context, inductive hydrological classifications

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3 188 group similar rivers attending to flow regime and catchment characteristics that explain
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5 189 the largest part of the hydrological variability. It is important to highlight that the
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7 190 hydrological classification approach is not a fixed and definite product, and the resulting
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9 191 divisions among hydrological classes are not always rigid. Indeed, hydrology's spatial
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11 192 variation must be understood as a continuous gradient of change. We used an inductive
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13 193 hydrological classification that covered the whole Spanish River network and identified
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15 194 the hydrological class of the impacted sites in the absence of perturbations (Peñas &
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17 195 Barquin, 2019). It was developed using 282 flow series recorded at gauges unaffected by
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19 196 impoundments or large upstream abstractions and with under 50% upstream catchment
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21 197 agriculture or forest plantation land cover. In this way, we selected 12 altered (Aguilar,
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23 198 Arbejal, Arlanzón, Carrión, Duero, Ebro, Esla Luna, Nalón, Nansa, Narcea and Porma)
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25 199 and 8 control (Bernesga, Cea, Curueño, Deva, Ega, Omaña, Sella and Tirón) sites, which
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27 200 according to the 20-level hydrological classification developed for Spain, belonged to
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29 201 hydrological classes NC10 and NC13 (NC denotes natural classes; Peñas & Barquín,
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31 202 2019). However, given their high hydrological similarity (Peñas & Barquín, 2019) classes
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33 203 were treated as one in the statistical analyses.
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39 204 We assumed that diatom and macrophyte community composition at the control sites
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41 205 would resemble the composition present in the altered sites if the hydrological alterations
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43 206 had never occurred. The similarity of the selected sites in terms of hydrological and
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45 207 catchment characteristics, and the fact that dam operations were the only factor affecting
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47 208 the hydrology of the altered sites, supported this assumption. Altered sites varied in flow
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49 209 alteration along a gradient, allowing for general relationships between flow alteration and
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51 210 ecological response of diatom and macrophyte communities to be inferred. Because other
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53 211 factors such as nutrient concentration and light availability could influence biomass and
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55 212 species composition, we also performed statistical analyses to test for differences in
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3 213 nutrient concentrations and canopy cover between control and altered sites. It was
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5 214 hypothesized that hydrological alterations would be responsible for a shift in diatom and
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7 215 macrophyte community composition and in the relative abundance of functional groups.
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9 216 We expected a stronger ecological response of primary producer communities under
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12 217 increasing levels of hydrological alteration.
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17 219 **2.3 Hydrological data and hydrological indices**

19 220 The hydrological database used in this study consisted of daily mean flows covering the
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21 221 largest data series from 1959 (although most of them started in 1970) to 2018, available
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23 222 in 20 gauge stations provided by the Ministries of Public Works and Ecological Transition
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25 223 (Spanish Government). The hydrological data of these 20 gauge stations fulfilled the
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27 224 quality criteria established by Peñas et al., (2014). Thus, we eliminated years with: 1)
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29 225 periods of consecutive repeated values; 2) non-natural extreme low flows for short time
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31 226 periods; 3) periods of zero flow values (because all the selected rivers were permanent);
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33 227 4) non-natural flow magnitude rises and falls; or 5) large differences between two periods,
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35 228 probably due to changes in the flow record method. Years with more than 30 days of
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37 229 missing data were also removed from the analyses. Finally, we discarded those gauges
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39 230 that accounted for less than 20 years. Daily flow series from both natural- and altered-
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41 231 river gauges were normalized by dividing all daily flow values by the mean annual flow.
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43 232 A set of 30 ecologically meaningful hydrological indices (HIs) were calculated for the 20
44
45 233 sites according to Richter et al., (1996). These hydrological indices were divided into six
46
47 234 major groups to statistically characterize the annual average and the intra-annual
48
49 235 hydrological variation representing the five fundamental attributes of hydrological
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51 236 regimes: magnitude, timing, frequency, duration and rate of change (Poff et al., 2010;
52
53 237 Table 1).
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239 **2.4 Environmental variables**

240 Environmental and water quality variables, i.e., canopy cover, temperature, pH,
241 conductivity, and water nutrients (NO₂, NO₃, NH₄ and PO₄) were recorded during field
242 surveys in 2017 (Table S2). The percentage of canopy cover of the selected stream
243 reaches was estimated from hemispheric photography. One hemispheric image was
244 collected with a Nikon Coolpix P510 with a fisheye lens in the center of each stream reach
245 (Figure S1). The camera was leveled horizontally, positioned, and oriented towards the
246 magnetic north on a tripod. Canopy cover was determined with the Gap Light Analyzer
247 from the obtained hemispherical images (Estevez et al., 2017; Frazer, Canham, &
248 Lertzman, 1999). Temperature data were obtained from HOBO Pendant® data loggers
249 deployed during 1 week in October 2017. Electric conductivity and pH were measured in
250 the field with a Milwaukee pH55 and EC59 Portable Waterproof pH and EC/TDS Tester.
251 Nutrient variables were determined by continuous flow analysis (FIA and CFA)
252 following standard protocols: UNE-EN ISO 15681-2:2005 for PO₄, UNE-EN ISO
253 13395:1997 for NO₂ and NO₃, and UNE-EN ISO 11732:2005 for NH₄ at the IHCantabria
254 - Instituto de Hidráulica Ambiental de la Universidad de Cantabria (IH Lab Bio).

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256 **2.5 Diatom and macrophyte sampling**

257 The communities of primary producers analyzed in this study belong to the Biological
258 Quality Elements (BQE) required under the European Water Framework Directive for
259 ecological assessments (periphyton and macrophytes). We analyzed diatoms as a proxy
260 for the full periphytic community (Kelly, 2016). Periphyton sampling was conducted in
261 October 2017 by collecting a single composite diatom sample at each site according to
262 UNE-EN 13946: 2014 standard procedure. We selected one longitudinal transect with

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3 263 riffles of about 10 m of length per site and collected 6 cobbles, and sampled an area of
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5 264 approximately 100 cm² within the main flow of the river. Zones of slow current (approx.
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7 265 $\leq 20 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) were avoided as these allow the build-up of loosely attached diatoms, silt,
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9 266 and other debris. Cobbles were collected at a depth of ca. 10 cm to ensure that they were
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11 267 not exposed to air in the previous 4 weeks and that they were placed in the euphotic zone.
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13 268 Areas of heavy shade and those close to the bank were avoided. The upper part of the
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15 269 stone was scrubbed with a dishwasher brush. The dislodged material was decanted into a
16
17 270 sample bottle and preserved using formaldehyde. Aliquots of the diatom samples
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19 271 collected (ca. 1-2 mL) were cleaned with 4 – 6 ml of nitric acid (65% v/v) and potassium
20
21 272 dichromate ($\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$) at room temperature for 24 – 48 hours. Afterwards, samples were
22
23 273 repeatedly centrifuged (1500 rpm) and rinsed with distilled water at least three times to
24
25 274 remove oxidation by-products. Permanent slides were prepared from the treated sample,
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27 275 and mounted with a high-resolution diatom resin (Naphrax®, refractive index of 1.74).
28
29 276 From each sample, 400 valves were identified at 1000 \times magnification, except for one site
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31 277 (Arlanzón, 224 valves) due to low diatom concentration in the sample. Taxonomic
32
33 278 identification was based on Delgado et al., 2013; Delgado & Pardo, 2015; Krammer &
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35 279 Lange-Bertalot, 1986-1991; Krammer, 1997a; Krammer, 1997b; Krammer & Lange-
36
37 280 Bertalot, 2004; Lange-Bertalot, 1993; Lange-Bertalot & Krammer, 1989; Lange-Bertalot,
38
39 281 2001; Levkov, 2009; Novais et al., 2009; Prygiel & Coste, 2000 and Trobajo et al., 2013.
40
41 282 Macrophyte surveys were conducted in October 2018 according to UNE-EN 14184:2014
42
43 283 standard procedure for routine water quality monitoring (Meilinger, Schneider & Melzer,
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45 284 2005). Contiguous sets of survey stretches were sampled by trained surveyors along 80
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47 285 m river reaches including both swift and slow flowing habitats. The river reaches were
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49 286 waded in zig-zag mode in order to register/record all macrophyte species present along
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51 287 the river channel. Wading was carried out upstream to prevent suspended sediments from
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3 288 interfering with macrophyte observation and identification. During the surveys, all
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5 289 phototrophic organisms included as macrophytes in the European Protocol for sampling
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7 290 macrophytes (all aquatic vascular plants, bryophytes, stoneworts and macro-algal
8
9 291 growths) were recorded and the percent cover was estimated in the field. When
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11 292 identification was not possible in the field, samples were taken to the laboratory for
12
13 293 confirmation fixed in Kew mixture. One site (Aguilar) could not be sampled in 2018 due
14
15 294 to high flow. Macrophyte identifications were based on Bailly, Vergon, & Vadam, 2004;
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17 295 Cirujano, Molina, & Murillo, 2014; Laplace-Treyture et al., 2009; Ordóñez, Carmen, &
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19 296 Collado Prieto, 2003; Talavera & Castroviejo, 1999.

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23 297 It must be noted that we selected October as the sampling month because it is the unique
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25 298 concurrent period of the year where the altered and controls sites could be compared
26
27 299 under similar condition of flow. In this regard, previous hydrological analysis, together
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29 300 with the knowledge of the operational rules of reservoirs, indicated that low flow
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31 301 conditions were present during early October in both type of rivers, as it is the end of the
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33 302 dry period (natural sites) and irrigation period (altered sites).
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40 304 **3. Data analysis**

41 42 305 **3.1 Hydrologic alterations (HA)**

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44 306 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to summarize the variability in the 30 HIs
45
46 307 through the 20 study sites. The broken stick method was used to select the relevant
47
48 308 components in the PCA analysis. Statistically significant differences in the HIs between
49
50 309 control (8 sites) and altered river gauges (12 sites) were tested by a t-test. In order to
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52 310 assess if differences in diatom and macrophyte community composition between the
53
54 311 control and altered sites were due to differences in environmental and water quality
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3 312 variables, we also tested for differences in these parameters between control and altered
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5 313 sites by a t-test after logarithmic transformation to achieve normality when required.
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10 315 **3.2 Primary producer communities**

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12 316 Diatom and macrophyte communities were grouped based on traits. For diatoms, we used
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14 317 ecological guilds, growth forms and cell sizes based on individual cells following Passy,
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16
17 318 2007 and Rimet & Bouchez, 2012 (see Table S4). We classified macrophytes into
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19 319 different traits according to organism type: macroalgae, bryophytes or vascular plants,
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21
22 320 following Fernández-Aláez, Fernández-Aláez, & Bécáres, 1999, Rott & Wehr, 2016, and
23
24 321 Vieira et al., 2012 (Tables 2 and S4).

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26 322 For diatom data, percentages of species abundances were calculated, and data were square
27
28 323 root transformed prior to the analysis. In order to minimize the noise produced by rare
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30 324 species with very low occurrences, only species whose average cumulative abundance
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33 325 comprised 98% of all observations were kept for the statistical analysis (Potapova &
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35 326 Charles, 2002; Soininen, 2004; Leira & Sabater, 2005; Grenier et al., 2010; Goldenberg
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37 327 et al., 2014). Significant statistical differences between species richness of diatoms and
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39 328 macrophytes and coverage of macrophytes between control and hydrologically altered
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41
42 329 sites were assessed by t-tests. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was used to
43
44 330 summarize the variability of the 20 sites in terms of diatom and macrophyte community
45
46 331 structure based on Bray Curtis dissimilarity distance. Statistical differences in community
47
48 332 structure between control and altered sites were tested with a permutation analysis of
49
50 333 variance (PERMANOVA) based on Bray Curtis (for abundance data) and Jaccard
51
52 334 distance (for presence-absence data) similarities. Statistical differences in functional
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54 335 groups between control and altered sites were tested with a t-test. Statistical differences
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56 336 in macrophyte traits between control and altered sites were tested using a Wilcox test, a
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3 337 non-parametric analysis that is better suited for data with non-normal distributions (Quinn
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5 338 & Keough, 2002). The contribution of individual species to overall dissimilarity between
6
7 339 control and altered reaches was assessed by similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER)
8
9 340 (Oksanen et al., 2013).

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11
12 341 We used the Best Subset of Environmental Variables with Maximum (Rank) Correlation
13
14 342 with Community Dissimilarities algorithm (BIOENV; Clarke & Ainsworth, 1993;
15
16 343 Oksanen et al., 2013) to identify the subset of HIs most influential to diatom and
17
18 344 macrophyte community structure. BIOENV determined the correlation between each
19
20 345 environmental distance matrix (Euclidean distance) and the community dissimilarity
21
22 346 matrix (Bray Curtis distance). The highest correlation identified the combination of HIs
23
24 347 that were most strongly related to community composition. In the next step, we performed
25
26 348 a Mantel test to assess the level of statistical significance between the BIOENV matrix of
27
28 349 selected hydrological indices and diatom and macrophyte community data.
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35 351 **3.3 Effects of HA on primary producers**

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37 352 To further investigate the relationship between hydrological alterations and ecological
38
39 353 change, we analyzed the response of diatoms and macrophytes (from the NMDS) to the
40
41 354 individual HIs. We selected one HI showing statistical differences between control and
42
43 355 altered sites and/or statistically relevant for diatoms and macrophyte communities, from
44
45 356 each of the six hydrological attributes analyzed. We also calculated the percent of change
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47 357 in each HI in relation to the control sites using the following formula:
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52 358
$$AHI_{iy} = \frac{HI_{iy} - \overline{X} HI_{icontrols}}{\overline{X} HI_{icontrols}} \times 100$$

53
54
55 359 Where $\overline{X} HI_{icontrols}$ represents the average value of each selected HI in the 8 control sites
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57 360 and HI_{iy} the value of each selected HI in each altered site. In this way, we analyzed the
58
59 361 response of diatoms and macrophytes to different aspects of flow alteration, including

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3 362 magnitude, duration, timing, frequency and rate of change. Diatom and macrophyte traits
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5 363 were treated as supplementary variables in the ordination diagrams.
6
7 364 Ordinations were performed in CANOCO 5 (ter Braak & Šmilauer, 2012), while all other
8
9 365 statistical analyses were conducted using R (R Development Core Team, 2014) with the
10
11 366 Vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2013).
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16 17 368 **4. Results**

18 19 20 369 **4.1 Hydrological alterations**

21
22 370 Most HIs showed statistically significant differences between control and altered sites.
23
24 371 Strong alterations of mean monthly flows were found with the exception of May and
25
26 372 October mean flows (M5 and M10). The mean flow of winter months was significantly
27
28 373 lower and the mean flow of summer months was significantly higher in altered sites
29
30 374 compared to control sites (Figure 2). The magnitude of minimum annual flow (LF
31
32 375 indices) was significantly larger in hydrologically altered sites, while the magnitude of
33
34 376 maximum flow (HF indices) showed the opposite. Regarding the timing of extreme flow
35
36 377 events, we found that the Julian minimum flow (Jmin) was significantly earlier within the
37
38 378 year in hydrologically altered sites. The number and duration of high and low flow pulses
39
40 379 (nPHigh, meanDPhigh, nPLow and meanDPLow) as well as the rate of flow changes
41
42 380 (meanPos and meanNeg) were not statistically different between control and altered sites
43
44 381 (Figure 2 and Table S5).
45
46 382 The PCA based on the HIs discriminated between control and altered sites and three
47
48 383 principal components were retained based on the broken stick rule. As expected, several
49
50 384 HIs exhibited a high degree of inter-correlation (e.g. M1-M12 and HF indices),
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52 385 contributing strongly to the first axis of the PCA (51% of explained variation) (Figure 3).
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54 386 The first axis was negatively correlated to the mean flow of the winter months, HF
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3 387 indices, J_{min} and J_{max} , and positively with the mean flow of the summer months, as well
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5 388 as with the HIs related to the duration of high pulses (Figure 3A). Ebro, Porma, Aguilar
6
7 389 and Duero were the sites with the strongest deviation of this axis in the mean monthly
8
9
10 390 flows, the duration of pulses and the timing of extreme flow events in relation to control
11
12 391 sites. By contrast, sites affected by hydroelectric dams (Narcea, Nalón and Nansa, and
13
14 392 especially the last two) had the minor deviation in the HIs in relation to control sites. The
15
16 393 second axis (12.5 % of explained variation) was mainly related to M10, frequency and
17
18 394 duration of low flow pulses (np_{Low} and $meanDPLow$) and rate of flow changes ($meanPos$
19
20 395 and $meanNeg$) (Figure 3A). The third axis (12% of explained variation; Figure 3B) was
21
22 396 strongly related to the magnitude of minimum annual flows (LF indices). Arlanzón and
23
24 397 Aguilar showed the strongest deviation from controls as regards the third axis.

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26
27
28 398 The results of the t-test showed that there were no statistical differences in the
29
30 399 environmental variables measured between control and altered sites with the exception of
31
32 400 canopy cover, that was higher in control sites ($mean = 53.92 \pm 18.2$) than in altered ones
33
34 401 ($mean = 28.94 \pm 21.8$), ($t = 2.78$, $P = 0.013$; Table S6, Table S2). To further investigate these
35
36 402 differences, we performed an extra PERMANOVA test (using Bray Curtis similarity).
37
38 403 We compared diatom and macrophyte composition between two groups of 10 sites: high
39
40 404 ($> 40\%$) and low ($< 40\%$) canopy cover. The sites belonging to the high canopy cover
41
42 405 group were all control sites except Sella and three of the altered sites (Arbejal, Arlanzón
43
44 406 and Carrión). All the other sites were included in the low canopy cover group. For both
45
46 407 communities, the PERMANOVA tests were not significant ($F = 0.93$, $P = 0.48$; $F = 1.31$,
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48 408 $P = 0.20$ for diatoms and macrophytes, respectively).
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56 410 **4.2 Primary producer communities**

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3 411 A total of 115 diatom species were recorded in the 20 diatom samples. Of all species, 68
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5 412 had an average cumulative abundance comprising 98% of all observations and were kept
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7 413 for the statistical analysis. No statistical differences were found in the number of diatom
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9 414 taxa between control and altered sites ($t = -0.88$; $df=13.5$ $P = n.s.$).

10 415 As for macrophytes, we collected 63 taxa (7 cyanobacteria, 17 algae, 20 bryophytes and
11
12 416 19 vascular plants). Some species of vascular plants were merged to genus level for the
13
14 417 statistical analyses. The number of macrophyte taxa was statistically higher in
15
16 418 hydrologically altered sites ($t = -3.35$; $df=16.61$ $P < 0.01$), mean numbers reaching 8.37
17
18 419 (± 2.13) and 12 (± 2.57) in control and altered sites, respectively.

19 420 Average macrophyte cover was statistically lower in control than altered sites ($t = -2.19$;
20
21 421 $df=14.4$ $P = 0.04$). Mean macrophyte cover in control sites was 30.35% (± 14.49), while
22
23 422 in altered sites it was 56.12% (± 35.02). In general, we found higher macrophyte coverage
24
25 423 in hydrologically altered sites, with the exception of Arlanzón and Carrión, two altered
26
27 424 sites that presented a relatively lower coverage than the rest of the hydrologically altered
28
29 425 sites (16.6% and 14.5%, respectively).

30 426 Diatom and macrophyte communities represented in the NMDS indirectly showed the
31
32 427 main hydrological alteration gradient (NMDS axis 1; Figure 4A and Figure 4B). The
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34 428 differences in community similarity between control and altered sites were statistically
35
36 429 significant (PERMANOVA test based on Bray Curtis distance, Table 3; and
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38 430 PERMANOVA test based on Jaccard distance, Table S3). The species that contributed
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40 431 the most to overall dissimilarity in diatom and macrophyte communities are shown in
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42 432 Tables 4 and 5, respectively. For diatoms, the species that contributed the most to overall
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44 433 dissimilarity were the ones showing changes in their relative abundances while present in
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46 434 both control and altered sites. For example, *Achnanthydium minutissimum* (higher
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48 435 abundance in altered sites) and *Achnanthydium pyrenaicum* (higher abundance in control
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3 436 sites). Among species present only in altered sites it is interesting to highlight planktonic
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5 437 taxa such as *Aulacoseira granulata*, *Cyclotella meneghiniana*, *Discostella*
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7 438 *pseudostelligera*, *Tabellaria flocculosa* or *Cyclotella atomus*. As regards macrophytes,
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10 439 the species that contributed more to overall dissimilarity presented changes in coverage
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12 440 (macroalgal taxa such *Cladophora sp.* or *Lemanea sp.* with higher abundances at control
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14 441 sites), though there were also species that were only present in either control or altered
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16 442 sites. For example, some macroalgal taxa such as *Audouinella sp.*, or *Oedogonium sp.*, or
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18 443 some hydrophytes, were only present in altered sites, while other species (e.g. the
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20 444 macroalgal taxa *Heribaudiella sp.*) were only present in control ones.

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23 445 The differences in community structure between control and altered sites were also
24
25 446 highlighted by statistical differences in functional group abundance. Higher abundances
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27 447 of loosely attached functional groups were found in altered sites within the planktonic
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29 448 guild (e.g. *Cyclotella meneghiniana*, *Aulacoseira granulata*) ($t = -2.27$, $df = 11.87$, $P =$
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31 449 0.042), colonial growth forms (e.g. species such as *Encyonema*, *Rhoicosphenia*
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33 450 *abbreviata*, *Diatoma vulgaris*) ($t = -2.52$, $df = 14$, $P = 0.025$) and large cell sizes (e.g.
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35 451 *Cocconeis placentula var. lineata*, *Cocconeis euglypta*) ($t = -3.45$, $df = 16.04$, $P = 0.003$).
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37
38 452 Within the macrophyte communities, floating filamentous algae (e.g. *Oedogonium sp.* or
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40 453 *Spirogyra sp.*) ($w = 16$, $P = 0.014$), hydrophytes with floating and submerged leaves (e.g.
41
42 454 *Ranunculus sp.* or *Myriophyllum sp.*) ($w = 17.5$, $P = 0.03$), and algal tufts (*Audouinella*
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44 455 *sp.*) ($w = 16$; $P = 0.008$) were more abundant in altered sites. In control sites, non-colonial
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46 456 and smaller diatom forms (*Achnantheidium pyrenaicum*, *A. atomoides*, and *Amphora*
47
48 457 *pediculus*) and firmly attached macrophyte species such as crust-forming algae (e.g.
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50 458 *Hildebrandia sp.*, *Heribaudiella sp.*) ($w = 84.5$, $P < 0.001$), were more abundant.

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57 58 460 **4.3 Effects of HA on primary producers**

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3 461 Both diatom and macrophyte communities were sensitive to changes in magnitude and
4
5 462 duration of minimum annual flows (90LF). Diatoms were also clearly affected by the
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7 463 Julian day of minimum flow (Jmin), the number of low pulses (nPLow) and mean October
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9 464 flow (M10; Table 3). Correlations between diatom and macrophyte community structure
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11 465 and HIs were significant, as shown by the Mantel test (Table 3).

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14 466 Changes in diatom and macrophyte communities increased with the degree of alteration
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16 467 in the magnitude and duration of minimum annual flows (90LF), their ecological response
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18 468 being already noticeable at levels around 50% of change in this HI (90LF; Figure 5 and
19
20 469 Figure 6). Regarding the magnitude of monthly flows, changes in diatom and macrophyte
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22 470 communities were already apparent with a decrease of 25% in winter-spring flows, or an
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24 471 increase of 300% in summer-autumn flows. The maximum annual high extremes (1HF)
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26 472 and the timing of extreme low flow events (JMin) were lower in the altered sites, and
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28 473 changes in diatom and macrophyte communities were noticeable when Jmin exceeded
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30 474 50% and 14% of change, respectively (Figure 5 and Figure 6). The frequency of pulses
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32 475 (nPLow and nPHigh) and the rate of flow changes (meanPos and meanNeg) were not
33
34 476 statistically different between control and altered sites (Figure 2) and we have not found
35
36 477 a clear relationship between the degree of hydrological alteration in these HIs and an
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38 478 ecological response of diatoms or macrophytes.

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45 46 47 480 **5. Discussion**

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49 481 Our study supports our expectation that hydrological alterations produce a significant
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51 482 shift within diatom and macrophyte communities by selecting species that are adapted to
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53 483 altered hydrological regimes. Consistent ecological changes in stream primary producers
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55 484 were observed, diatom and macrophyte communities sharing common thresholds of
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57 485 ecological response to hydrological alterations across study sites.
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5.1 Effect of HA on diatom and macrophyte communities

487 Although a wide range of studies have assessed the response of periphyton to natural
488 changes in hydraulic conditions such as water velocity and discharge (Biggs et al., 1999;
489 Francoeur & Biggs, 2006; Horner, Welch, Seeley, & Jacoby, 1990), less research has
490 documented the response of periphyton community composition to flow alteration in
491 terms of changes in ecological meaningful hydrological attributes (e.g. flow magnitude,
492 frequency, duration, timing and rate-of-flow change; Bergey et al., 2010; Smolar-Žvanut
493 & Krivograd Klemenčič, 2013; Tang et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019).
494 Particularly, only a few studies have analyzed diatom assemblages in relation to the effect
495 of altered flow regimes in rivers (Growth, 1999; Growth & Growth, 2001; Krajenbrink
496 et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2009, 2010). In our study, we found evidences that diatom
497 communities were sensitive to the main indicators of hydrological alteration: an increase
498 in the magnitude and duration of minimum flows (LF indices) and the earlier timing of
499 the minimum flow (J_{min}). J_{min} is directly linked to seasonal shifts in the magnitude of
500 monthly flows, typically occurring at hydrologically altered sites. Longer periods of low
501 flow enhanced hydrological stability, driving changes in the relative abundance of diatom
502 species responsible for the observed variations in community structure. Specifically, a
503 shift towards planktonic forms as well as larger cell sizes was recorded. The planktonic
504 guild is sensitive to physical disturbance and hence, reaches highest abundances in
505 conditions of minimum flow disturbance. Examples of species with affinity towards
506 hydrologically altered sites in our study were *Aulacoseira granulata*, species of the genus
507 *Cyclotella*, or the high profile species *Diatoma vulgare*. These results agree with other
508 studies suggesting that diatom assemblages downstream of reservoirs differ from
509 assemblages inhabiting upstream sites, where the occurrence of these species downstream
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3 511 of reservoirs and lake outflows was also reported (Growth, 1999; Growth & Growth,
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5 512 2001). The higher proportion of larger cell sizes in regulated sites could be due to several
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7 513 reasons. Cell sizes are related to diatom life forms. For example, larger cell sizes are
8
9 514 usually planktonic forms, or species attached to the substrate by stalks, or rosette-forming
10
11 515 diatoms. These life forms create tall structures that overtop basal-layer pioneer taxa
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13 516 (Morin et al., 2008; Rimet & Bouchez, 2012). In addition, large diatom species have
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15 517 longer cell cycles than smaller ones (Morin et al., 2008). These types of life forms of "tall
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17 518 stature" as well as longer cell cycles are favored under longer periods of low flow and
18
19 519 higher stability, conditions that often occur in regulated rivers. On the other hand, natural
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21 520 disturbance tolerant traits (Wu et al., 2019) as non-colonial forms and motile growth
22
23 521 forms were more abundant in control sites. However, an increase in species of the motile
24
25 522 guild in sites downstream of reservoirs has been reported in England (Kajenbrink et al.,
26
27 523 2019). These taxa are mostly of small sizes and characteristic of fast flowing rivers (Rimet
28
29 524 & Bouchez, 2012). Examples of such species in our study were *Achnantheidium*
30
31 525 *pyrenaicum*, *Amphora pediculus* or *Nitzschia fonticola*. It is worth mentioning that, while
32
33 526 low profile species were highly abundant in both control and altered sites, *A. pyrenaicum*
34
35 527 was replaced by the pioneer and generalist *Achnantheidium minutissimum* (Watchorn et
36
37 528 al, 2008) in the hydrologically altered sites. Our analysis also revealed that diatom
38
39 529 communities responded to two other hydrological variables: the mean flow of October
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41 530 (M10) and the number of low pulses (nPLow). Results did not show significant
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43 531 differences in these two HIs between control and altered sites. However, we observed
44
45 532 higher values in sites situated along Atlantic rivers compared with those on the
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47 533 Mediterranean side. The Atlantic region has higher mean annual precipitation than the
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49 534 Mediterranean region, a higher abundance of permanent streams and maximum flows
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51 535 occurring during autumn and winter (Delgado & Pardo, 2015). Some species, such as
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3 536 *Navicula gregaria*, *Sellaphora seminulum* or *Karayevia oblongella*, which were also
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5 537 present in our study, have shown preferences for Atlantic climate regions (Delgado &
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7 538 Pardo, 2015).

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10 539 Our results demonstrate the sensitivity of diatom communities to the effect of flow
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12 540 alteration even during one single season. It is well known that seasonality influences
13
14 541 diatom communities (Soininen & Eloranta, 2004; Goldenberg Vilar et al., 2018; Snell et
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16 542 al., 2019). For example, under spring/summer conditions, water temperature and net
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18 543 radiation, dissolved oxygen and nitrogen availability are key drivers of diatom
19
20 544 assemblage composition (Snell et al., 2019). In contrast, winter and autumn diatom
21
22 545 communities are associated with other in-stream conditions, primarily turbidity and
23
24 546 discharge, precipitation-related climate variations and phosphorus resource availability
25
26 547 (Snell et al., 2019). These findings indicate that sampling autumn communities is a good
27
28 548 choice to detect in-stream conditions related to hydrological characteristics, while
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30 549 minimizing the effect of secondary variables that have the strongest influence in mid-
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32 550 summer (i.e., temperature, nutrients; Goldenberg Vilar et al., 2018). Krajenbrink et al.,
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34 551 (2019) highlighted that the effects of flow regulation on diatom communities were
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36 552 detectable both during spring and autumn, but they found that autumn diatom samples
37
38 553 showed a higher sensitivity to the effect of river regulation, as more indicator taxa were
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40 554 found during this season than in spring samples. This is often the case with planktonic
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42 555 taxa, thus, the higher proportion of planktonic taxa in the altered rivers analyzed in our
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44 556 study might be enhanced by the effect of seasonality, and related to the increased
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46 557 production of phytoplankton in the reservoir during summer. Therefore, differences in
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48 558 the relative abundance of species in contrasting seasons (spring or autumn), do not
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50 559 hamper the detection of the effect of river regulation in any of them.
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3 560 Macrophyte communities also responded strongly to hydrological alterations, showing
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5 561 changes in species richness, coverage and trait dominance, especially as a result of
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7 562 variations in the magnitude and duration of minimum flows (LF indices), as occurred
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9 563 with diatoms. Both species richness and coverage responded positively to the alteration
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11 564 in LF indices, suggesting that longer periods of low flow promoted macrophyte biomass
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13 565 growth and increased richness (Abati et al., 2016; Benítez-Mora & Camargo, 2014; Riis
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15 566 et al., 2008). These results also supported earlier studies, where hydrological alterations
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17 567 were identified as main controllers of vegetation cover (B. J. Biggs, 1996; Riis & Biggs,
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19 568 2003). The higher macrophyte richness and coverage in altered sites affected community
20
21 569 structure in terms of changes in the coverage of species in comparison to the natural
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23 570 communities, but also reflected changes in community composition by the replacement
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25 571 of some species in altered sites (see Table 5). This was the case of some species of
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27 572 hydrophytes such as *Myriophyllum sp.*, or *Callitriche sp.* but also that of the red algae
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29 573 *Audouinella sp.* or the filamentous algae *Oedogonium sp.*, only present in altered sites.
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31 574 Macrophyte traits were also different between control and altered sites, with a dominance
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33 575 of floating algal traits, algal tufts and hydrophytes in hydrologically altered sites. Floating
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35 576 algal species such as *Oedogonium sp.* or *Spirogyra sp.* are typical of standing or slow
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37 577 flowing habitats (Abati et al., 2016). Aquatic plants with submerged and floating leaves
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39 578 (*Myriophyllum sp.*, *Ranunculus sp.* or *Potamogeton sp.*) were in general absent in control
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41 579 sites. The presence of these aquatic plants could also be related to the effect of reservoirs
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43 580 acting as a source of propagules for aquatic vegetation (Benítez-Mora & Camargo, 2014).
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45 581 Control sites, were dominated by disturbance resistant traits adapted to the hydrological
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47 582 dynamism of natural flow regimes such as crust-forming green algae (*Gongrosira sp.*),
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49 583 red algae (*Hildebrandia sp.*) or brown algae (*Heribaudiella sp.*), as well as shrub like
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51 584 traits of some macroalgal taxa such *Cladophora spp.* or *Lemanea spp.*
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3 585 Regarding bryophytes, both coverage and richness were also higher in altered sites and
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5 586 they were dominated by streamers and mat traits, although we did not find significant
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7 587 differences in bryophyte traits between altered and control sites. Streamers are in general
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10 588 abundant in slower currents of streambed in full sunlight while smooth mats are easily
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12 589 found in torrential water impacted zones, in deep shaded microhabitats (Vieira et al.,
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14 590 2012). Examples of these streamers were species of the genus *Fontinalis*, which showed
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16 591 an increase to nearly 100% following river regulation in Norway (Rørslett, Mjelde, &
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18 592 Johansen, 1989). Regarding smooth mats, they were present in control and altered sites.
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20 593 Nonetheless, higher abundances of *Chiloscyphus polyanthos* and *Rhynchostegium*
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22 594 *riparioides* were found in altered sites while a slightly higher abundance of species of the
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24 595 genus *Brachythecium* was detected in control sites.

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28 596 It is well known that other variables such as nutrients or temperature changes may also
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30 597 affect diatom and macrophyte community structure and composition (Franklin, Dunbar,
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32 598 & Whitehead, 2008; Krajenbrink et al. 2019; Ponsatí et al., 2015; Rimet, 2012; Schneider
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34 599 & Petrin, 2017). In addition, water chemistry variables may interact with hydrology,
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36 600 scouring of periphyton biomass during floods enhanced under conditions of resource
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38 601 limitation (Biggs, Tuchman & Stevenson, 1999). In our study, some sites showed higher
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40 602 nutrient levels than others, specifically higher orthophosphate and nitrate concentrations
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42 603 in some control sites (Ega and Tirón), or orthophosphate and ammonia in some altered
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44 604 sites (Aguilar and Ebro). However, we did not find statistically significant differences in
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46 605 water quality variables (temperature, pH, conductivity and nutrients) between control and
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48 606 altered sites, which strengthens the idea that hydrological alterations were the main factor
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50 607 triggering the observed shifts in primary producer communities. However, we cannot
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52 608 completely rule out that sites with higher nutrient levels favored the development of
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54 609 certain eutrophic species. On the other hand, canopy cover was significantly lower in
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3 610 altered sites although it also showed a high variability among sites. Canopy cover
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5 611 reduction has been recorded under increasing Gross Primary Production and this could
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7 612 also affect macrophyte composition, enhancing the development of algae or macrophytes
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9 613 with higher light requirements (Burrell et al., 2014), as is the case of filamentous algae of
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11 614 the genus *Cladophora* (Bunn, Davies & Mosisch, 1999). However, we did not find
12
13 615 significant differences in diatom or macrophyte community composition between sites
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15 616 with high (> 40%) and low (< 40%) canopy cover. Moreover, we were aware that there
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17 617 might be other factors that could not be controlled and may affect diatom and macrophyte
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19 618 biomass and species composition in this study (e.g. potential grazers).

23 619 **5.2 Ecological response of stream primary producers to flow alterations.**

24 620 **Implications for environmental flow management**

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26 621 Our study revealed that several aspects of flow regimes affected the structure of riverine
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28 622 primary producer communities. We found that not only the magnitude but also the
29
30 623 duration of annual minimum flows is an essential attribute of flow regimes that should be
31
32 624 considered. A ca. 50% increase in the magnitude of minimum flows of 90 days duration
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34 625 (90LF) triggered community shifts of both diatom and macrophytes selecting for species
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36 626 with specific traits that were outcompeted under highly stable conditions. The relationship
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38 627 between the alteration in the duration of minimum flow and changes in primary producer
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40 628 communities showed a positive relationship, where the highest deviation from baseline
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42 629 conditions (195% of increase in 90LF) paralleled the highest ecological change in diatom
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44 630 and macrophyte communities. We observed that this change of around 50% in 90LF
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46 631 represented an ecological tipping point where both communities experienced shifts in
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48 632 species composition and traits. It has been hypothesized that augmentation of low flows
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50 633 will cause an increase in the abundance of species with preferences for slow-flowing,
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52 634 shallow-water habitats, whereas fluvial specialists or obligate rheophilic species will vary
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3 635 their distribution or decline in richness and abundance (Poff et al, 2010). Proliferation of
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5 636 aquatic macrophytes influences a variety of feedback mechanisms in rivers, including
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7 637 reduced sediment resuspension, reduced phytoplankton biomass via competition for
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9 638 nutrients and sinking (Giblin, 2017), as well as changes in trophic structure (Palmer &
10
11 639 Ruhi, 2019). In this study, we found that changes in aquatic macrophytes are also
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13 640 associated with changes in diatom communities. In agreement with our findings, other
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15 641 studies reported that long periods of low flow interspersed with occasional floods
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17 642 contained poorer 'quality' aquatic communities than rivers with low to moderate flow
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19 643 variability (Jowett & Biggs, 2006). This suggests that the interrelation of magnitude and
20
21 644 duration of low flows is more important than the magnitude of the low flow per se. As a
22
23 645 result, long periods of constant flow, which could result from adherence to a minimum
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25 646 flow, produced the highest impact on primary producer communities and should be
26
27 647 avoided. To date, the majority of flow experiments tested the treatment effects of high
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29 648 pulse events and magnitude of minimum flows (Olden et al., 2014) whereas experiments
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31 649 involving the duration of minimum and maximum annual extremes (LF, HF), seasonal
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33 650 variability (M1-M12) and timing of events (Jmin), which are relevant for primary
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35 651 producers, were less common.

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37 652 As regards the maximum flows, we found that the magnitude of high flow events of short
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39 653 duration (1HF) were reduced in altered sites. Large floods are a major cause of natural
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41 654 disturbance to river ecosystems, dictating the relative success of different species and
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43 655 regulating ecosystem process rates (Poff & Zimmerman, 2010). Diatom and macrophyte
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45 656 communities showed a shift when the magnitude of maximum flow decrease was more
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47 657 than 40%. Similarly, the magnitude of monthly flows and the timing of extreme events
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49 658 also triggered changes in diatom and macrophyte community composition, although this
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51 659 did not occur in all the cases analyzed. For example, the Ebro River showed one of the
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3 660 highest deviations from baseline conditions in terms of magnitude of monthly flows (M3-
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5 661 M9), or the timing of extreme events (Jmin), but the ecological changes observed were
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7 662 not stronger than those found at other altered sites. One possible reason for this lack of
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9 663 relation could be the fact that the main effect of the alteration on the communities
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11 664 analyzed was due to the magnitude and duration of minimum flows, while the Ebro River
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13 665 did not show a strong deviation in these HIs (90LF around 20% of change compared to
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15 666 the controls).

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19 667 The percent of change in HIs also showed differences among the reservoirs analyzed. For
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21 668 instance, those reservoirs used mainly for hydropower generation (e.g., the Nalón and
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23 669 Nansa rivers), presented only minor alterations to flow regimes, and primary producer
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25 670 communities in these sites showed a high similarity with those of control sites. On the
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27 671 contrary, at the Narcea River, primary producer communities were substantially different
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29 672 to control ones, maybe because of the differing management and operational rules among
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31 673 reservoirs. In this regard, the Narcea river has a large hydropower dam able to capture
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33 674 high flows and store them to generate hydropower when needed. This difference, might
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35 675 have caused the higher number of short low and high pulses in the Narcea station
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37 676 compared to Nalón and Nansa (around 400% increase in number of low pulses and 164%
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39 677 increase in the rate of flow changes) generating a rapidly fluctuating hydrological pattern
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41 678 corresponding to alternating periods of power generation. The rapid fluctuations in water
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43 679 levels associated with hydropower operations can cause considerable ecological changes
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45 680 (Richter & Thomas, 2007) and could be the reason why ecological communities in the
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47 681 Narcea showed low similarities with those of control sites.
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56 683 **6. Conclusions**
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3 684 In our study, diatom and macrophyte communities consistently responded to flow
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5 685 alterations, suggesting that both are sensitive indicators of this type of anthropogenic
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7 686 pressure. We showed a shift from high flow tolerant traits such as non-colonial diatom
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9 687 forms and crust-forming algae, which are adapted to the extreme events and natural
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11 688 dynamism of unregulated rivers, towards planktonic diatoms, free-floating algae and a
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13 689 mass development of aquatic plants in hydrologically altered sites. Both diatom and
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15 690 macrophyte communities shared common thresholds of response to altered hydrological
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17 691 attributes, and these could be considered in a flow management context. Moreover, not
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19 692 only the magnitude of minimum flows proved to be important, but also their duration,
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21 693 enhancing macrophyte biomass and nuisance algal growth. We showed that it is necessary
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23 694 to contemplate the interactions between these attributes (LF indices) and other potentially
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25 695 important attributes for primary producer communities. To test for the effect of these
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27 696 hydrological attributes, the design of manipulative and long-term experiments is
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29 697 encouraged. For example, irrigation dams where LF indices are highest would be
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31 698 benefited by controlled winter releases in terms of mimicking, as far as possible, the
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33 699 magnitude, duration, and seasonality of natural ordinary floods. Hydropower dams, on
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35 700 the other hand, may need a regulation of the frequency and duration of pulses (nPLow
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37 701 and nPhigh) as well as in the rate of flow changes (meanPos and meanNeg) in order to
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39 702 slow down or smooth the rapidly fluctuating daily and sub-daily high and low pulse
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41 703 changes. Long term flow experiments targeting specific hydrological attributes, will lead
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43 704 to effective adaptive management and will undoubtedly advance our mechanistic
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45 705 knowledge regarding the effect of hydrological alterations in ecological communities.
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47 706 Our study contributed to fill this gap by providing insight into the relative sensitivity of
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49 707 ecological endpoints of stream primary producers to flow regulation.
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23 718 have no conflict of interest to declare.
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28 719 **Data availability statement**
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30 720 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
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32 721 author upon reasonable request.
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1050 TABLES

1051 Table 1. Hydrological indices derived from daily flow data at the 20 selected sites.
 1052 Abbreviations: M=months; HF= High flow; LF= Low flow; J=Julian day; nP= Number
 1053 of pulses; DP= duration of pulses; Pos= Positive; Neg= Negative.

Flow attribute	Indices	Description
Magnitude of monthly flow	M1-M12	Mean monthly flow
Magnitude and duration of minimum annual extremes	1LF	Magnitude of minimum annual flow of 1 day duration
	3LF	Magnitude of minimum annual flow of 3 day duration
	7LF	Magnitude of minimum annual flow of 7 day duration
	30LF	Magnitude of minimum annual flow of 30 day duration
	90LF	Magnitude of minimum annual flow of 90 day duration
Magnitude and duration of maximum annual extremes	1HF	Magnitude of maximum annual flow of 1 day duration
	3HF	Magnitude of maximum annual flow of 3 day duration
	7HF	Magnitude of maximum annual flow of 7 day duration
	30HF	Magnitude of maximum annual flow of 30 day duration
	90HF	Magnitude of maximum annual flow of 90 day duration
Timing of extreme flow events	Jmin	Julian day of minimum flow
	Jmax	Julian day of maximum flow
Frequency and duration of pulses	nPHigh	Number of high pulses within a year
	MeanDPHigh	Mean duration of high pulses within a year
	nPLow	Number of low pulses within a year
	MeanDPLow	Mean duration of low pulses within a year

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		Mean of all positive differences between days
	meanPos	
Rate of flow changes		Mean of all negative differences between days
	meanNeg	

1054

For Peer Review

1055 Table 2. Trait classification used for diatoms and macrophytes with corresponding
 1056 references

Trait classification			Reference
Diatoms	Cell sizes	From class 1 to 5	Rimet and Bouchez (2012)
	Ecological guilds	Low profile, high profile, motile and planktonic	
	Growth forms	Non-colonial, filamentous, attached adnate, attached pad, attached stalk, pioneer	
Macrophytes	Algae	Coating, globules, crust, shrub, tuft, floating and cushion	Rott and Wehr (2016)
	Bryophytes	Mats, streamers and fans	Vieira et al. (2012)
	Vascular plants	Helophytes and hydrophytes (including floating and submerged leaves)	Fernández-Alález et al. (1999)

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1059 Table 3. Results from the statistical analysis performed based on diatom and macrophyte
 1060 community similarity between control and altered sites (PERMANOVA) and statistical
 1061 tests to unveil the relationship between community structure and HIs (Mantel test and
 1062 BIOENV). All analysis based on Bray Curtis community similarity.

	Permanova		Mantel test (Pearson)		Model parameters (BIOENV)
	F	P	r	P	
Diatoms	2.2	0.014	0.50	0.001	90LF, Jmin, nPLow and M10
Macrophytes	1.75	0.046	0.47	0.001	90LF

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1064 Table 4. Diatom species with corresponding traits that contribute more to community
 1065 dissimilarity between control and altered sites based on Bray Curtis dissimilarities. Av.
 1066 Control and Av. Altered: Average abundances per group in percentages. Contribution:
 1067 Average contribution to overall dissimilarity in percentage and respective cumulative
 1068 values (Cumulative).

	Taxa	Guild	Growth form	Size class	Av. Control	Av. Altered	Contribution %	Cumulative %
Affinity towards altered sites	<i>Achnantheidium minutissimum</i>	Low	Non-col	1	14.06	30.43	16.57	16.57
	<i>Nitzschia dissipata</i>	Motile	Non-col	4	2.10	3.13	2.86	19.43
	<i>Cocconeis placentula</i> var. <i>lineata</i>	Low	Non-col	5	0.75	2.45	2.10	21.53
	<i>Cocconeis euglypta</i>	Low	Non-col	5	2.25	3.14	2.09	23.62
	<i>Achnantheidium rivulare</i>	Low	Non-col	4	0.00	2.58	2.00	25.63
	<i>Encyonema minutum</i>	High	Colonial	2	1.17	2.29	1.82	27.45
	<i>Rhoicosphenia abbreviata</i>	Low	Colonial	3	0.88	1.91	1.80	29.25
	<i>Navicula tripunctata</i>	Motile	Non-col	4	1.22	2.06	1.77	31.02
	<i>Encyonema silesiacum</i>	High	Colonial	4	1.36	1.88	1.58	32.60
	<i>Diatoma vulgare</i>	High	Colonial	5	0.33	1.16	0.94	33.53
Affinity towards control sites	<i>Achnantheidium pyrenaicum</i>	Low	Non-col	2	34.49	15.90	21.52	55.05
	<i>Amphora pediculus</i>	Low	Non-col	1	9.63	3.36	7.89	62.94
	<i>Gomphonema pumilum</i>	High	Non-col	2	4.68	3.98	5.14	68.08
	<i>Nitzschia fonticola</i>	Motile	Non-col	3	2.42	0.41	4.51	72.59
	<i>Gomphonema minutum</i>	High	Non-col	3	3.19	1.78	2.92	75.52
	<i>Navicula cryptotenelloides</i>	Motile	Non-col	2	2.32	0.89	1.83	77.34
	<i>Achnantheidium atomoides</i>	Low	Non-col	1	1.80	0.72	1.39	78.73
	<i>Navicula wygaschii</i>	Motile	Non-col	3	1.17	0.08	0.92	79.65
<i>Navicula cryptotenella</i>	Motile	Non-col	3	1.05	0.82	0.91	80.56	

1069

1070 Table 5. Macrophyte taxa and traits that contribute more to community dissimilarity
 1071 between control and altered sites based on Bray Curtis dissimilarities Av. Control and
 1072 Av. Altered: Average abundances per group in percentages. Contribution: Average
 1073 contribution to overall dissimilarity in percentage and respective cumulative values
 1074 (Cumulative).

	Taxa	Organism type	Trait	Av. Control	Av. Impact	Contribution %	Cumulative %
Affinity towards altered sites	<i>Ranunculus</i>	Plants	Hydrophytes	0.76	8.95	9.94	9.94
	<i>Diatom mats</i>	Algae	Mats	2.75	5.91	9.87	19.80
	<i>Rhynchostegium riparioides</i>	Bryophytes	Mats	3.89	4.27	6.85	26.66
	<i>Audouinella</i>	Algae	Tuft	0.00	2.83	5.09	31.75
	<i>Oedogonium</i>	Algae	Floating filamentous	0.00	2.83	3.84	35.59
	<i>Dydimosphenia germinata</i>	Algae	Coating	1.25	1.84	3.76	39.35
	<i>Myriophyllum</i>	Plants	Hydrophytes	0.00	4.64	3.26	42.61
	<i>Chiloscyphus polyanthos</i>	Bryophytes	Mats	0.01	1.36	2.51	45.11
	<i>Microspora</i>	Algae	Coating	0.00	1.82	2.39	47.51
	<i>Fontinalis antipyretica</i>	Bryophytes	Streamer	0.64	1.11	2.37	49.88
	Affinity towards control sites	<i>Cladophora</i>	Algae	Shrub	3.26	2.91	6.19
<i>Lemanea</i>		Algae	Shrub	3.25	1.91	5.46	61.53
<i>Phormidium</i>		Algae	Coating	2.63	2.02	4.82	66.35
<i>Hildebrandia</i>		Algae	Crust	2.76	0.74	4.29	70.64
<i>Leptodictium riparium</i>		Bryophytes	Mats	1.50	0.92	3.21	73.85
<i>Green algae crust</i>		Algae	Crust	2.04	0.00	2.91	76.76
<i>Brachythecium</i>		Bryophytes	Mats	1.28	0.55	2.68	79.45
	<i>Heribaudiella</i>	Algae	Crust	1.25	0.00	2.29	81.74

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1076 FIGURE CAPTIONS

1077 Figure 1. Geographical context of the study area with sampling locations of control and
1078 altered sites within the three basins: Cantabric, Duero and Ebro.

1079 Figure 2. Mean value of hydrological indices (HIs) measured in 8 control (white circles)
1080 and 12 altered (grey squares) sites. Codes for hydrological indices are provided in Table
1081 1. Significant statistical differences (t-test $P < 0.05$) of the HIs between natural and
1082 altered sites are denoted by asterisks and showed in Table S5. Hydrological indices
1083 were segregated according to the hydrological meaningful attribute that they represent:
1084 Magnitude of monthly flow; Magnitude and duration of minimum annual extremes;
1085 Magnitude and duration of maximum annual extremes; Frequency and duration of
1086 pulses; Timing of extreme flow events and Frequency of flow changes.

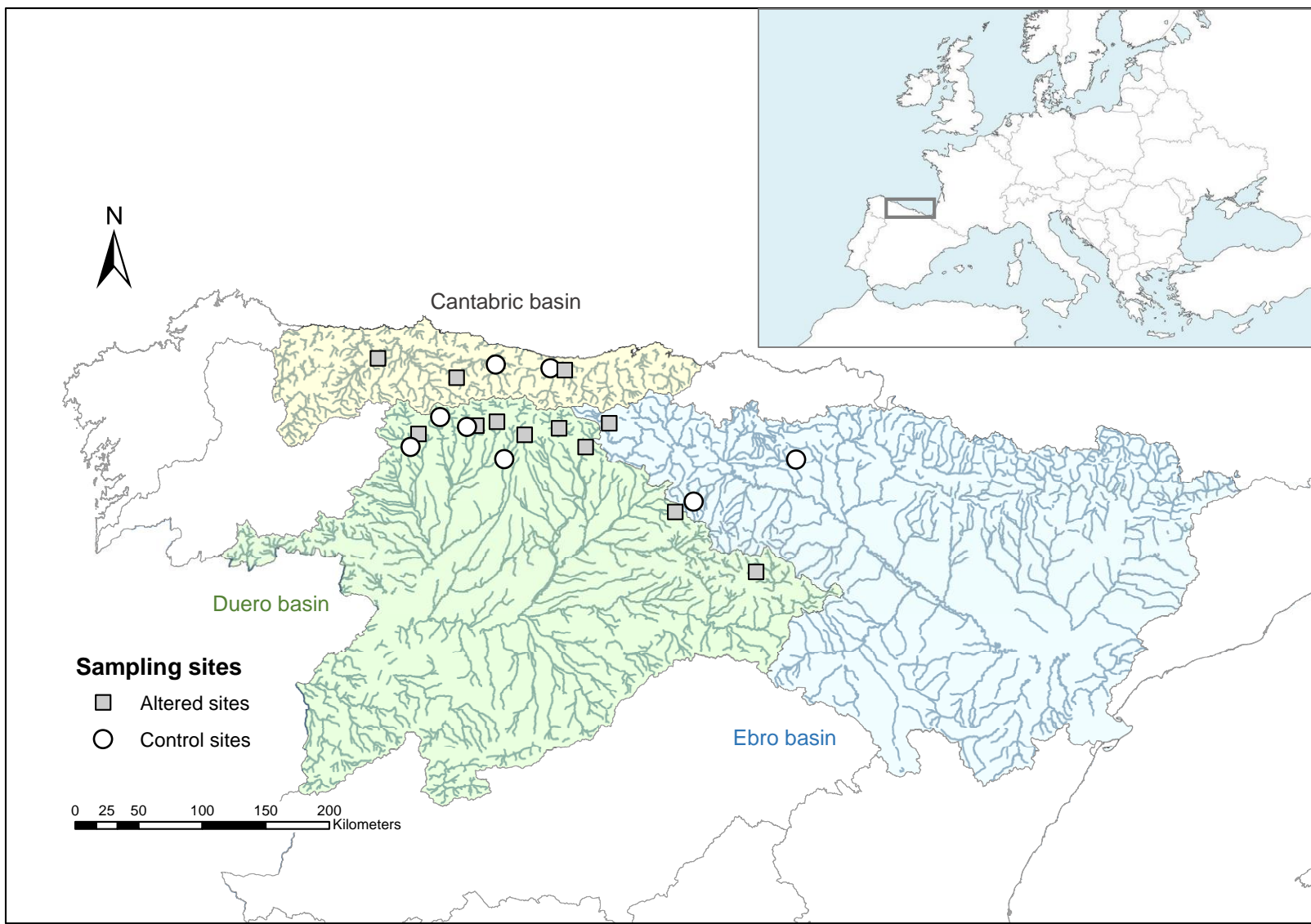
1087 Figure 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the 30 HIs used in the study with
1088 corresponding percentage of explained variation for axis 1 and 2 (A); and axis 1 and 3
1089 (B).

1090 Figure 4. Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray Curtis
1091 dissimilarity distances for diatoms (A) and macrophytes (B). Only significant
1092 hydrological indices (selected by BIOENV) and traits that differed between control and
1093 altered sites are shown as supplementary variables.

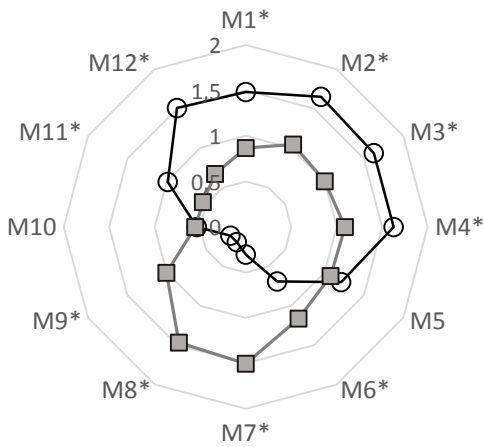
1094 Figure 5. Diatom ecological response with respect to the six major hydrological
1095 attributes analyzed. Numbers indicate the percentages of change in the HIs in relation to
1096 the controls.

1097 Figure 6. Macrophyte ecological response with respect to the six major hydrological
1098 attributes analyzed. Numbers indicate the percentage of change in the HIs in relation to
1099 the controls.

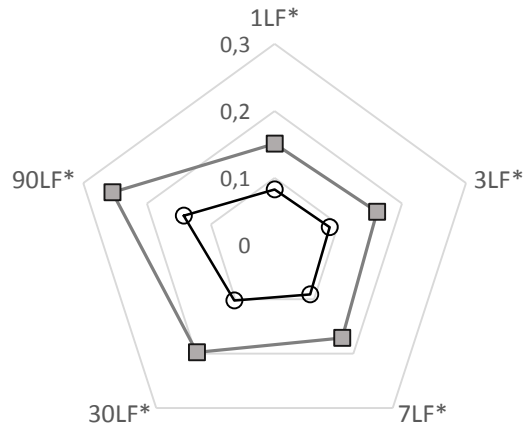
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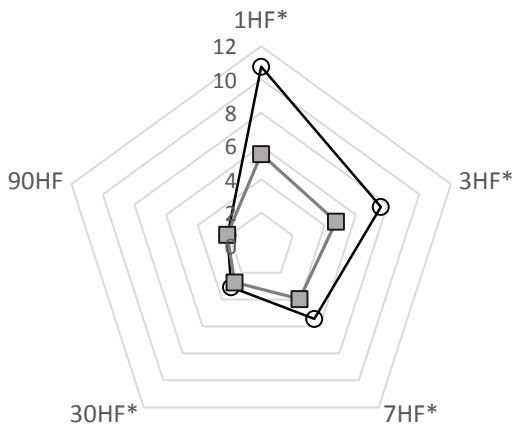
Magnitude of monthly flows



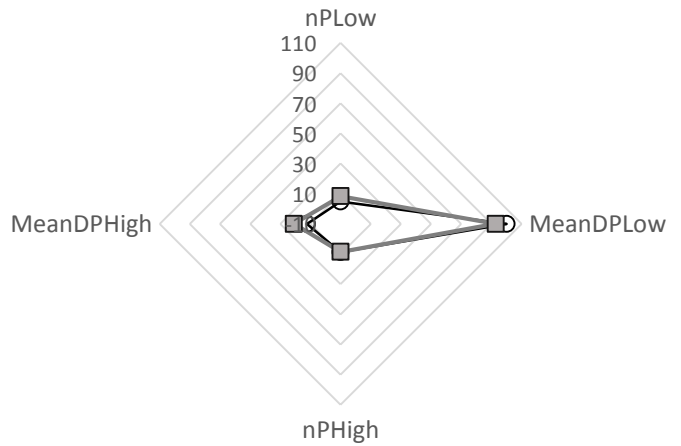
Magnitude and duration of minimum annual extremes



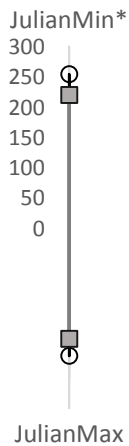
Magnitude and duration of maximum annual extremes



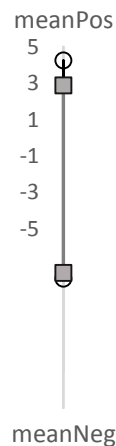
Frequency and duration of pulses



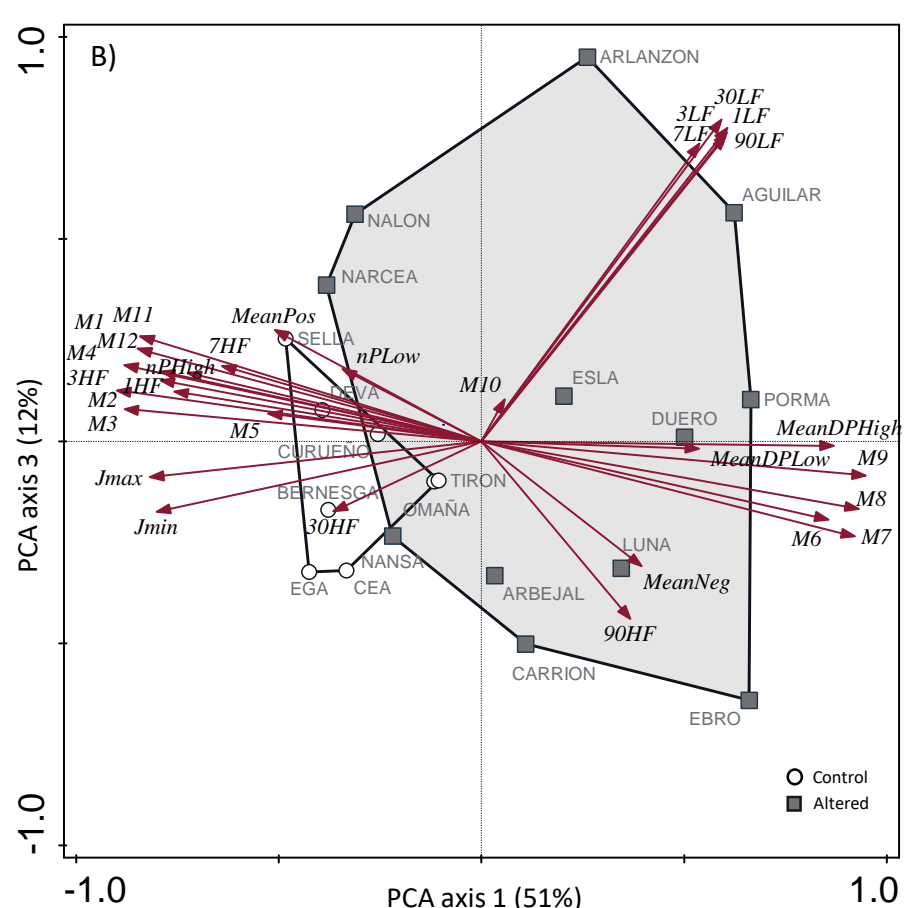
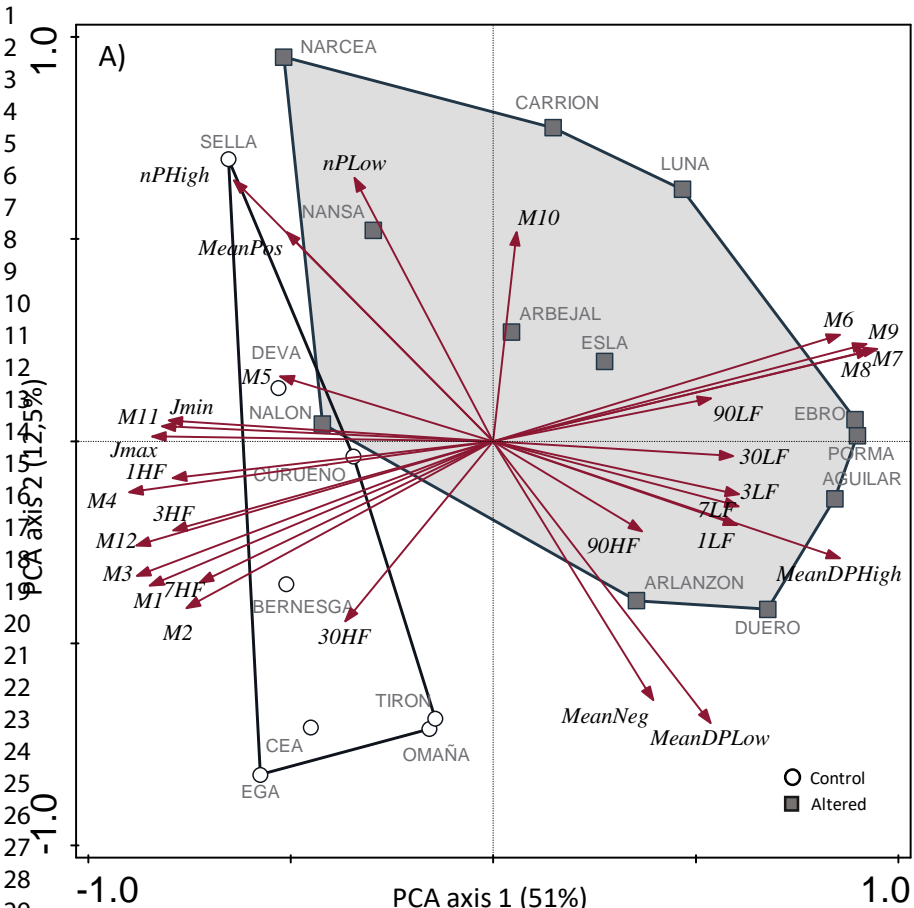
Timing of extreme flow events

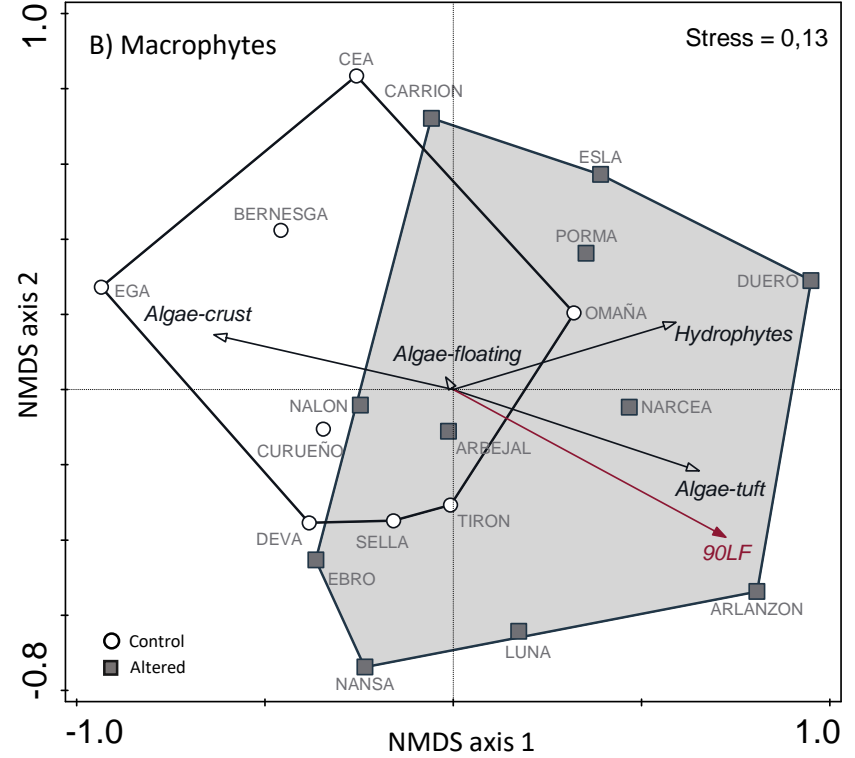
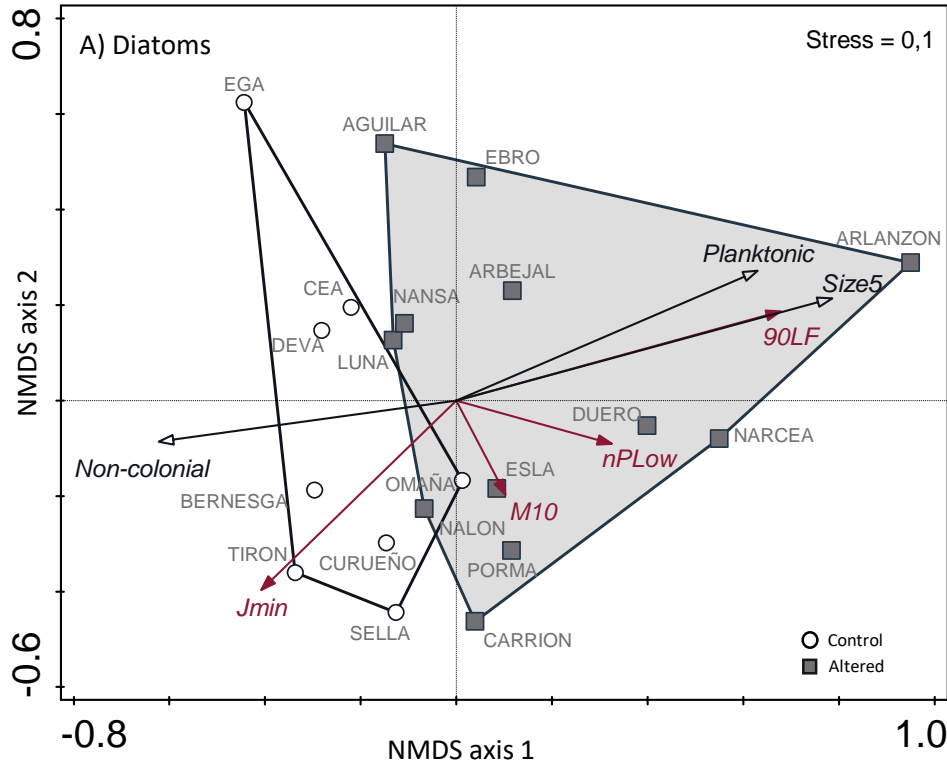


Frequency of flow changes

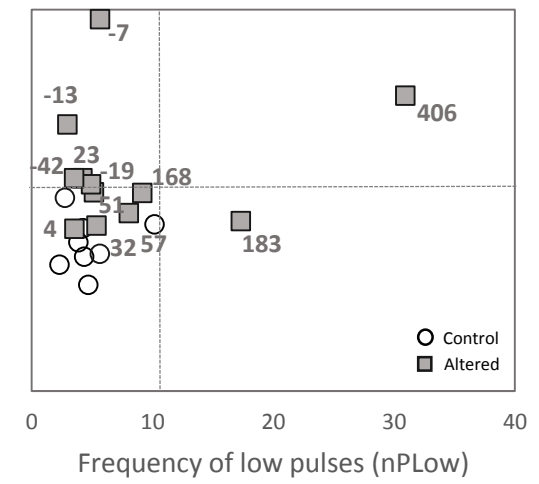
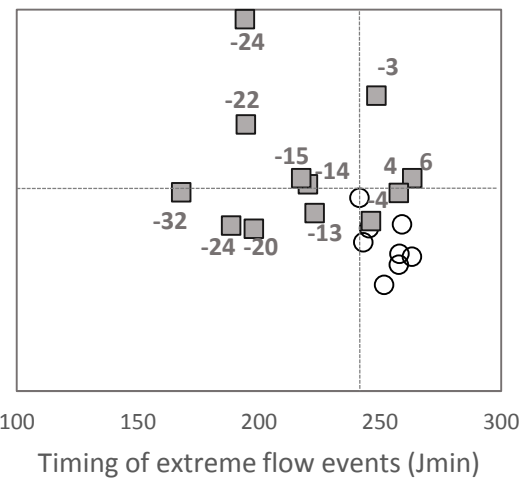
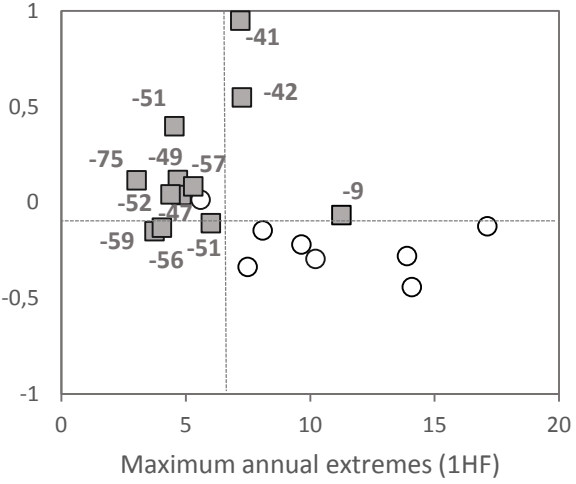
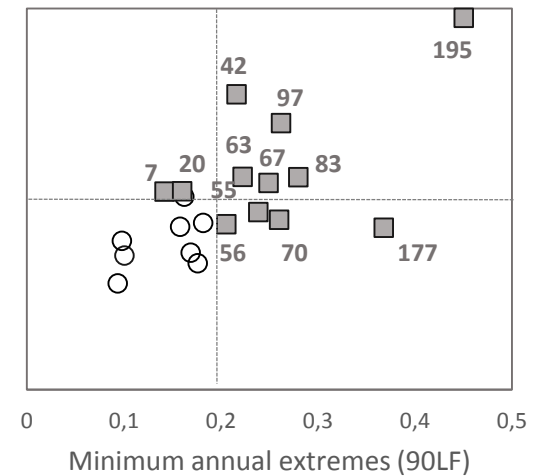
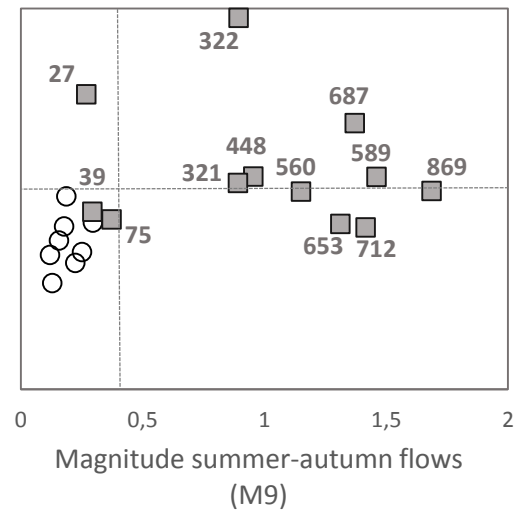
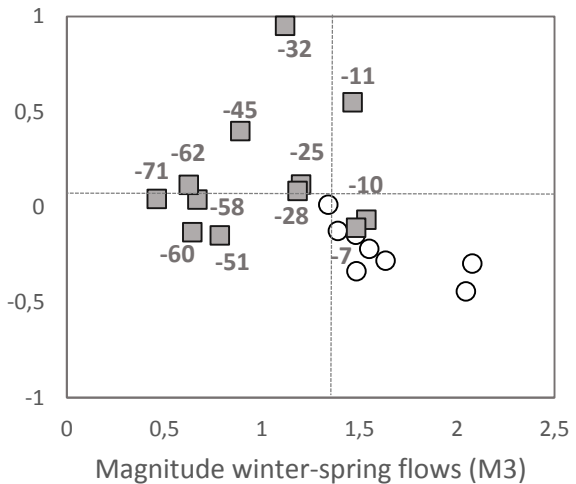


○ Control sites
■ Altered sites

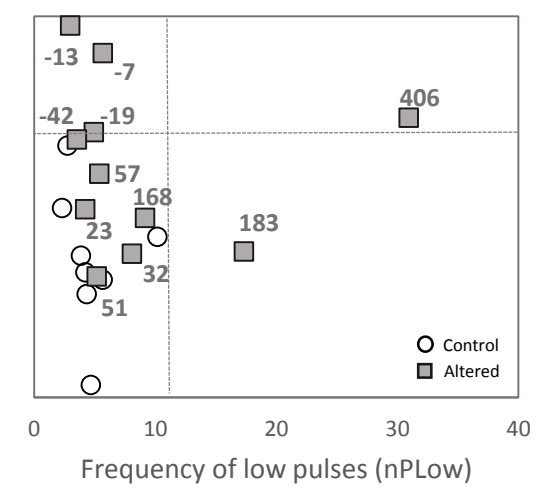
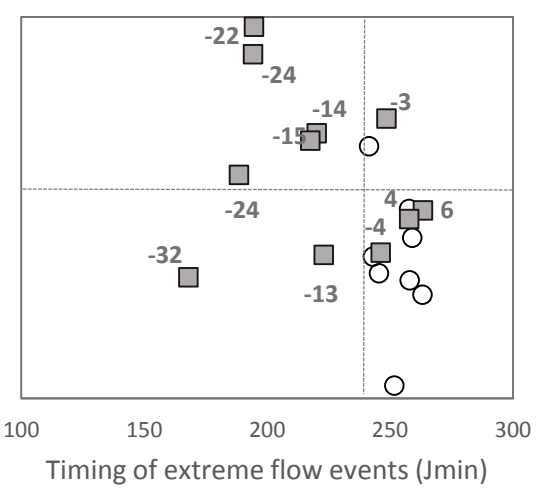
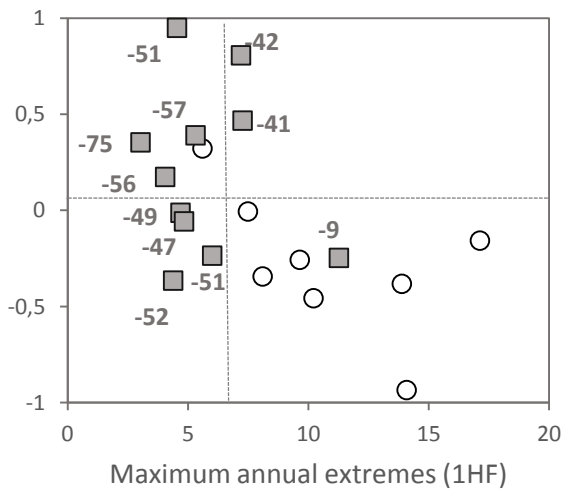
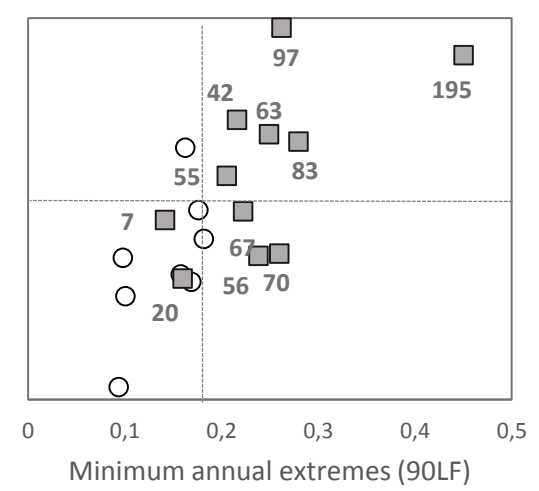
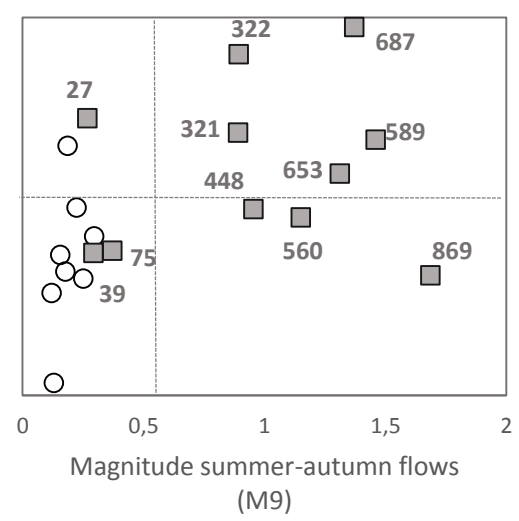
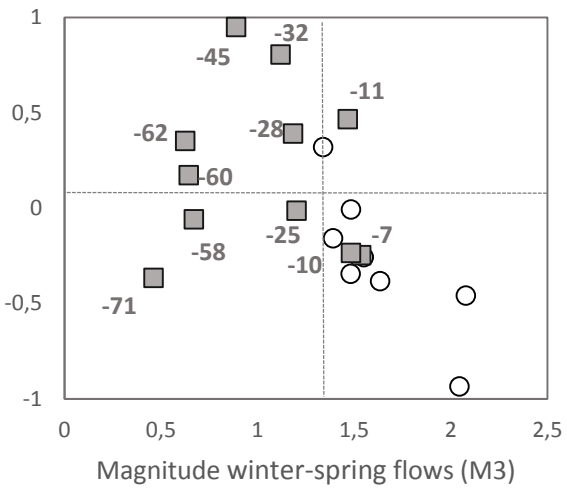




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Supporting information

Table S1. Control and hydrological altered sites used in the analysis showing the hydrological class (H class), basin, name of Dam, type of dam (IR: Irrigation; HP: Hydropower; WS: Water supply), reservoir drainage area and storage index (storage volume/average annual runoff) of the 20 sites.

Site	H class	Type	Basin	Dam	Reservoir purpose	Area (Km ²)	Storage index
AGUILAR	NC10	Altered	Duero	Aguilar	IR/HP	544	0,82
ARBEJAL	NC10	Altered	Duero	Requejada	IR/HP	220	0,46
ARLANZÓN	NC13	Altered	Duero	Uzquiza/Arlanzón	IR/WS	151	0,63
CARRIÓN	NC10	Altered	Duero	Camporredondo/Compuerto	IR/HP	315	0,72
DUERO	NC10	Altered	Duero	Cuerda del Pozo	IR/HP/WS	544	0,74
EBRO	NC10	Altered	Ebro	Ebro	IR/WS	450	3,71
ESLA	NC13	Altered	Duero	Riaño	IR/HP	611	0,86
LUNA	NC10	Altered	Duero	Barrios de Luna	IR/HP/WS	500	0,84
NALÓN	NC13	Altered	Cantabric	Tanes/Rioseco	HP/WS	328	0,13
NANSA	NC13	Altered	Cantabric	La Cohilla	HP	360	0,06
NARCEA	NC13	Altered	Cantabric	La Barca	HP	1211	0,03
PORMA	NC13	Altered	Duero	Juan Benet -Porma	HP/WS	249	1,64
BERNESGA	NC13	Control	Duero	-	-	-	-
CEA	NC10	Control	Duero	-	-	-	-
CURUEÑO	NC13	Control	Duero	-	-	-	-
DEVA	NC13	Control	Cantabric	-	-	-	-
EGA	NC10	Control	Ebro	-	-	-	-
OMAHÑA	NC10	Control	Duero	-	-	-	-
SELLA	NC13	Control	Cantabric	-	-	-	-
TIRÓN	NC10	Control	Ebro	-	-	-	-

Table S2. Environmental and water quality variables measured in the 20 sites in 2017 sampling campaign. T°: Temperature. NO₂, NH₄ and PO₄ contained several values below detection limit.

Site	Type	Canopy cover	T°	pH	Conductivity	NO ₂	NO ₃	NH ₄	PO ₄
		%	°C		(µS/m)	(µg/L)	(µg/L)	(µg/L)	(µg/L)
AGUILAR	Altered	3,1	16,0	7,93	502	9,80	268	287	40,5
ARBEJAL	Altered	54,3	16,0	8,18	719	<0,5	142	< 14	< 5
ARLANZÓN	Altered	66,2	13,9	7,55	44,3	<0,5	77,6	< 14	< 5
CARRIÓN	Altered	59,6	10,8	8,22	520	<0,5	297	< 14	< 5
DUERO	Altered	7,5	15,3	7,70	83,6	3,10	63,9	< 14	5,6
EBRO	Altered	13,1	17,9	8,18	543	0,80	68,8	34,1	10,5
ESLA	Altered	9,5	12,1	8,45	113,8	<0,5	225	< 14	< 5
LUNA	Altered	37,2	11,6	8,05	252	<0,5	51,6	< 14	< 5
NALÓN	Altered	20,1	16,8	7,92	210	2,20	278	< 14	< 5
NANSA	Altered	35,6	16,1	7,85	215	<0,5	394	< 14	< 5
NARCEA	Altered	29,1	18,5	8,02	156	<0,5	432	< 14	< 5
PORMA	Altered	12,1	11,8	8,36	139,7	<0,5	363	< 14	< 5
BERNESGA	Control	68,0	12,6	8,34	243	<0,5	38,8	< 14	< 5
CEA	Control	67,0	12,7	8,20	240	<0,5	5	< 14	< 5
CURUEÑO	Control	65,5	12,2	8,43	210	<0,5	82,6	< 14	< 5
DEVA	Control	43,0	16,0	7,96	323	1,30	562	< 14	< 5
EGA	Control	70,8	15,5	8,21	931	3,70	1895	< 14	12,3
OMAHÑA	Control	41,1	12,3	7,95	95,6	<0,5	104	< 14	9
SELLA	Control	18,8	16,4	7,97	204	<0,5	363	< 14	< 5
TIRON	Control	57,2	13,3	7,86	726	<0,5	895	< 14	13,9

Table S3. Results from PERMANOVA statistical analysis based on Jaccard distance (presence-absence data) on diatoms and macrophyte communities between control and altered sites.

	Permanova	
	F	P
Diatoms	1.42	0.049
Macrophytes	1.77	0.017

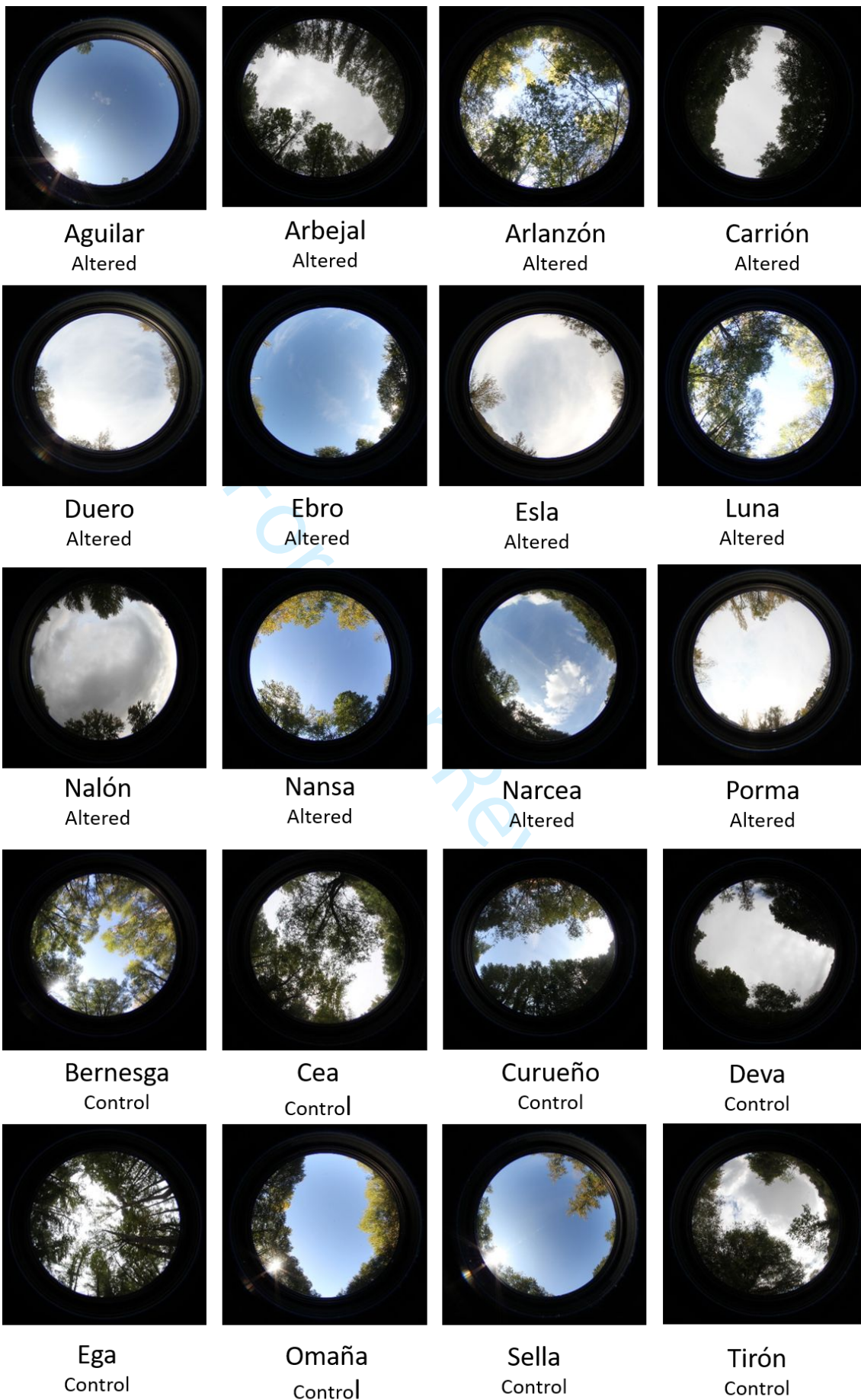


Figure S1. Hemispheric images taken with fish eye lens for the estimation of canopy cover in the 20

1 sites.

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3
4 Table S4. Diatom and macrophyte traits, their categories, description and their expected responses to
5 hydrological disturbances used in this study.

6 Traits Categories Description and expected responses to hydrological disturbance

	Traits	Categories	Description and expected responses to hydrological disturbance
Diatoms	Cell size	Size1 (0-100 μm^3)	
		Size2 (100-300 μm^3)	
		Size3 (300-600 μm^3)	Smaller cells have higher nutrient uptake rates and growth rates that allow greater resilience to
		Size4 (600-1500 μm^3)	disturbance making them advantage under nutrient-limiting and high disturbance conditions; Larger
		Size5 ($\geq 1500 \mu\text{m}^3$)	cells show converse trend (Wu et al., 2019).
	Guilds	High profile	Colonial, filamentous species of tall stature. Adapted to low flow velocities and disturbances.
		Low Profile	Species of short stature attached to the substrate. Adapted to high flow velocities and disturbances.
		Motile	Fast moving species. Adapted to relative high flow velocities and disturbances.
		Planktonic	Solitary or filamentous adapted to lentic environments and resist sedimentation.
	Life forms	Filamentous	Colonial high profile or planktonic taxa that do not resist disturbance.
Attached mucilage pad		Cells produce mucilage on a pole that stick to substrate or through apical pore fields. Adapted to low	
Attached mucilage stalk		-moderate flow velocities and disturbances.	
Attached adnate		Cells are firmly attached by their valve face or by their girdle view and are more likely to retain under	
non-colonial		high disturbance condition.	
Macrophytes	Algal life forms	Crust	Flat thallus compacted tiers of cells avoiders of flow-related breaking stress.
		Shrub	Networks extended into flow consisting of single filaments with enhanced anchoring strength with
		Globules	enhance flow resistance.
		Tuft	Lobate, mucilaginous globules or slightly calcified adapted to high flow disturbances.
		Coating	Tuft-like stands (<1 cm) with high extension resistance.
		Floating filamentous	Soft gelatinous covers forming a flexible ground layer resistant to low-moderate flow disturbance.
		Cushion	Unbranched filaments of cylindrical cells sometimes attached or free floating. Common in slow-
Bryophyte life forms		Mats	Unbranched filaments of cylindrical cells sometimes attached or free floating. Common in slow-
		Streamers	flowing and nutrient-rich conditions.
		Fans	Loosely attached velvet cushions with low flow resistance.
Vascular		Helophytes	Emergent vascular plants. Adapted to low-moderate flow disturbances.

plants life
forms

Hydrophytes

Submerged or floating leaves vascular plants. Adapted to low flow velocities and disturbances.

Table S5. Test for statistical significant differences in the hydrological indices used between control and altered sites (t-test).

Hydrological indices	t	df	P
M1	4,05	16,66	<0,001
M2	2,89	15,43	0,011
M3	4,20	17,61	<0,001
M4	3,83	14,86	0,002
M5	1,27	17,97	n.s.
M6	-4,22	17,65	<0,001
M7	-4,90	11,45	<0,001
M8	-5,04	11,17	<0,001
M9	-5,78	11,52	<0,001
M10	-0,24	9,21	n.s.
M11	3,81	17,24	0,001
M12	5,78	12,76	<0,0001
1LF	-2,35	12,78	0,036
3LF	-2,59	12,66	0,023
7LF	-2,84	12,69	0,014
30LF	-3,41	13,19	0,0046
90LF	-4,01	16,31	<0,001
1HF	3,44	10,03	0,006
3HF	3,68	13,36	0,003
7HF	3,77	15,93	0,0017
30HF	2,39	16,31	0,029
90HF	-0,21	17,8	n.s.
Jmin	3,68	13,27	0,0026
Jmax	1,90	13,78	n.s.
nPHigh	0,049	17,97	n.s.
MeanDPHigh	-2,04	13,63	n.s.
nPLow	-1,46	13,78	n.s.
MeanDPLow	0,34	14,32	n.s.
meanPos	0,78	10,78	n.s.
meanNeg	0,27	14,83	n.s.

Table S6. Test for statistical significant differences in the environmental and water quality variables used between control and altered sites (t-test).

Environmental variables	t	df	P
Canopy cover	2,78	16,92	0,013
Temperature	-0,88	17,95	n.s
pH	0,76	17,33	n.s
Conductivity*	0,83	16,67	n.s
NO ₂	-0,48	17,18	n.s
NO ₃ *	-0,06	8,58	n.s
NH ₄ *	-1,35	11	n.s
PO ₄ *	0,41	16,05	n.s

For Peer Review