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Mallet, H. Grondin

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| 1 | Hydraulic preferences of shrimps and fishes in tropical insular rivers |
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| 3 | Virginie Girard ^{1,2} , Dominique Monti ³ , Pierre Valade ⁴ , Nicolas Lamouroux ¹ , Jean-Paul |
| 4 | Mallet ² , Henri Grondin ⁵ . |
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| 11 | |
| 12 | ¹ IRSTEA Lyon, UR MALY, 5 rue de la Doua CS70077 69626 VILLEURBANNE Cedex, France, |
| 13 | virginie.girard@irstea.fr, nicolas.lamouroux@irstea.fr |
| 14 | ² ASCONIT Consultants, Espace Scientifique Tony Garnier, 6-8 Espace Henry Vallée, 69 366 LYON Cedex 07, |
| 15 | jp.mallet@asconit.com |
| 16 | ³ EA926 DYNECAR, Université des Antilles et de la Guyane, Fouillole, BP 250, 97157 Pointe-à-Pitre, |
| 17 | dominique.monti@univ-ag.fr |
| 18 | ⁴ O.C.E.A. Consult', Organisme Consultant en Environnement Aquatique, BP 22, Centre Régional d'Application |
| 19 | Aquacole 97 427 Etang Salé, pierre.valade@ocea.re |
| 20 | ⁵ A.R.D.A., B.P. 16, Z.I. Les Sables, 97427 Etang Salé, grondin.arda@wanadoo.fr |
| 21 | |
| 22 | Correspondence to: V. Girard, IRSTEA Lyon, UR MALY, 5 rue de la Doua CS70077 69626 Villeurbanne |
| 23 | Cedex, France; Phone: (+33)4 72 20 89 18; Fax: (+33)4 78 47 78 75; Email: virginie.girard@irstea.fr |

25 ABSTRACT

26

27 Hydraulic habitat models based on the preferences of species for the hydraulic characteristics 28 of their microhabitats are frequently used to evaluate the impact on the habitat of a change in river flow regime. Their application in a tropical insular environment is still limited as little is 29 30 known about the hydraulic preferences of species. Hydraulic preferences models have been 31 developed for 15 taxa (diadromous shrimps and fishes) sampled in 52 rivers in the Caribbean 32 (the French West Indies) and the Indian Ocean (the Reunion island). Five datasets were used 33 and group 8353 samples collected by electrofishing during 320 surveys (reach×date) 34 performed between 1999 and 2011. Generalised additive models were used to link variations 35 of taxa density within surveys to the hydraulic characteristics of the microhabitat (velocity, 36 depth, substrate). Hydraulic preferences within each region (Caribbean and Indian Ocean) are 37 significant for most of the taxa and vary little between rivers and surveys. The hydraulic 38 variables explain up to 18.1% (univariate models) and 30.0% (multivariate models) of the 39 deviance of densities within survey. Of the taxa selected, Atya scabra, Macrobrachium 40 heterochirus, Xiphocaris elongata and the Sicydiinae are the most demanding. 41

INTRODUCTION

44 Tropical insular rivers are characterised by extreme and unpredictable hydrological events 45 (typhoons, cyclones, Tew et al., 2002) that alternate with sometimes severe periods of low flow (Covich, 2006) that are decisive for aquatic communities (Poff and Ward, 1989). The 46 communities of these rivers are characterised by low density and are mainly composed of 47 48 three families of shrimp (Atyidae, Palaemonidae, Xiphocaridae) and four families of fish 49 (Eleotridae, Gobiidae, Mugilidae and Anguillidae) (Covich and McDowell, 1996), all of 50 which are diadromous (McDowall, 2004). The catadromous species (Mugilidae, Anguillidae) 51 spend their lives in rivers and reach the sea and/or river outlets to reproduce. Amphidromous 52 species (Atyidae, Palaemonidae, Xiphocaridae, Gobiidae) spawn and grow in freshwater 53 except during larval stages which require a saline environment. The complex lifecycle of 54 these species makes them especially vulnerable to increasing demographic pressure 55 (Mittermeier et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2008), such as dams that modify flow regimes and 56 river habitats, and impede their migrations (March *et al.*, 2003; Milton, 2009). Many aspects 57 of the flow regime may affect the habitats and the life cycle of tropical species (e.g. 58 Welcomme and Halls, 2004). For example, the timing and the amplitude of floods may trigger 59 fauna migration and reproduction (e.g. Way et al., 1998; Blanco and Scatena, 2005; Kikkert 60 et al., 2009). However, little is known about the ecological impact of changes in low to 61 moderate flows (Pringle et al., 2000; Monti and Legendre, 2009).

62

63 Hydraulic habitat models have been used widely around the world to facilitate the 64 management of low to medium discharges (Tharme 2003; Conallin *et al.*, 2010). This method 65 uses models that predict the amount of favourable habitat at the reach scale ($\sim 10^2 - 10^3 \text{ m}^2$) as a 66 function of discharge rate (Bovee, 1982; Ginot, 1995). Habitat models combine the hydraulic 67 model of a stream reach with models of hydraulic preferences. Classically, hydraulic

68 preference models represent how the abundance or occurrence of a taxon (e.g. guild of 69 species, species, life stage of a species) varies within the reach as a function of microhabitat 70 parameters (e.g. velocity, depth, substrate). The applicability of habitat models is generally 71 limited by their degree of transferability between rivers (Jowett, 2003; Lamouroux et al., 72 2010; Lancaster and Downes, 2010). Indeed, habitat preferences can vary as a function of a 73 large number of biotic and abiotic factors such as competition, predation, and water chemistry 74 (Jackson et al., 2001). In order to better quantify the generality of hydraulic preference 75 models, it is therefore interesting to study the hydraulic preferences of taxa using data 76 collected from different rivers at different times (seasons, years) (Leftwich et al., 1997; 77 Lamouroux et al., 1999a; Strakosh et al., 2003; Vilizzi et al., 2004; Dolédec et al., 2007; 78 Mérigoux et al., 2009). The models developed at several sites have led to contrasting 79 conclusions, but have often highlighted the pertinence of models defined for a number of 80 rivers sharing the same hydromorphological characteristics (Lamouroux et al., 1999b; 81 Lamouroux *et al. in press*).

Not much is known about the hydraulic preferences of tropical river species (Pringle et 82 83 al., 2000; Scatena, 2004; Boulton et al., 2008). Research into these species has mainly 84 focused on (1) the altitudinal distribution of species and the importance of maintaining 85 upstream/downstream connectivity (Holmquist et al., 1998), (2) trophic links and the role of 86 macro-consumers (Crowl et al., 2006; Coat et al., 2009), (3) the effects of extreme events on 87 population structures (e.g. the harmful effect of low water levels on the abundance of 88 Macrobrachium sp., Covich et al., 2006) and (4) the mechanisms and role of dispersion in 89 population renewal (Keith et al. 2008; Crook et al., 2009). However, few works have focused 90 on the role of hydraulic constraints (e.g. shift of driving force under natural disturbance, 91 Monti and Legendre, 2009) and the habitat selection mechanisms at the reach scale (e.g. 92 habitat selection for Sicydiinae, Teichert et al. in press).

| 93 | In this study, we examine how the density of 15 taxa of the families of Atyidae, |
|-----|---|
| 94 | Palaemonidae, Xiphocaridae, Gobiidae and Mugilidae vary as a function of the hydraulic |
| 95 | parameters of the microhabitat (velocity, depth, substrate). The datasets used come from two |
| 96 | regions: the French West Indies (Martinique, Guadeloupe) in the Caribbean and the island of |
| 97 | Reunion in the Indian Ocean. These are recent volcanic islands with comparable |
| 98 | hydromorphological characteristics (narrow valleys, abrupt reliefs, high waterfalls) (Falkland, |
| 99 | 1992). Our main objectives were to (1) build hydraulic preference models for different |
| 100 | taxonomic groups in each of the two regions (Caribbean, Indian Ocean), (2) estimate the |
| 101 | transferability of models among datasets and groups of surveys, and (3) compare hydraulic |
| 102 | preferences among the species of the same family. |
| 103 | |

METHODS

105 *Reaches and sampling dates*

106 We used five datasets (Table 1), three collected from the Caribbean and two from the Indian 107 Ocean (Figure 1). Abundance samples were taken in 121 reaches of 52 rivers during periods 108 of 1 to 12 years. The reaches were distributed over the entire island, in river sections with 109 persistent flows, and were sometimes located upstream or downstream of water intakes. The 110 length of the reaches varied from 0.05 to 2.75 km so that each reach encompassed a variety of 111 morphological units (e.g. riffles, rapids, pools, cascades). The reaches were located at an 112 altitude between 5 and 670 m, at a distance from the sea from 0.1 to 22.8 km and at a distance 113 of 1 to 34.5 km from the source. The surface area of the watersheds upstream of the reach was on average (\pm standard deviation) 15 (\pm 15 km²) in the Caribbean and 70 (\pm 49 km²) in the 114 115 Indian Ocean. Most of the sampling was performed during the low flow period (when 116 hydraulic selection occurs), i.e. from December to May in the Caribbean (Chaperon et al., 1983) and from November to April in the Indian Ocean (Robert, 1988). 20% of the surveys 117

(reach×date) in the Caribbean were carried out during the high flow period but whendischarge rate was relatively low.

120

121 Sampling methods

122 Sampling of fishes and shrimps was done by electrofishing using three methods (Table 1) 123 according to the objectives of previous studies (e.g. analysis of spatial patterns, Monti and 124 Legendre, 2009). The "points" method consisted in collecting 50 samples (~ 1 m^2) distributed 125 randomly in the reach by positioning a portable electrode (e.g. DEKA 3000 Lord; DEKA-126 Gerätebau, Marsberg, Germany) without moving it (Fiévet et al., 1996). The "habitat units" 127 method consisted in fishing about 20 samples from wider surface areas distributed in the available morphological units. The surface area of the samples was 17 m² on average (± 8 128 129 m^2). The "quadrats" method consisted in fishing about 90 contiguous samples (squares of 130 surface area = 4 m^2) in the reaches. These different methods have been used by different 131 teams and were not intercalibrated in our reaches. However, point samples and habitat unit 132 samples have already been combined in habitat modelling. For example, Lamouroux et al. 133 (1999b) predicted fish density differences between reaches sampled by points from preference 134 models made in other reaches sampled by habitat units.

135

136 Each sample was characterised by three microhabitat variables: average velocity (v), 137 average water depth (h) and the size of the substrate (d). v, h and d were estimated on the 138 basis of measurements along one vertical (44% of cases) or several verticals distributed in the 139 sampling area (56% of cases). On each vertical, point velocities were measured using a 140 current meter (a propeller for dataset Gq; an electromagnetic current meter for the other 141 datasets) at 0.2*h*, 0.4*h* and 0.8*h* at the bottom of the bed when h > 0.20 m, otherwise at 0.4*h*. 142 However, 5.4% of the velocities were estimated at the water surface as a function of the 143 distance travelled by a float over a given time. The dominant substrate size d of the sample

- 144 area was estimated visually using ordinal classes (Cailleux 1954; Malavoi and Souchon,
- 145 1989). The central value of the class of substrate was assigned to *d*.
- 146 Each individual fish was measured and identified at species level (Keith *et al.*, 1999,
- 147 Lim *et al.*, 2002, Monti *et al.*, 2010), except for three taxa in the Caribbean (Table 1):
- 148 Sicydium sp. groups two species of fish, Sicydium punctatum and Sicydium plumeri, of the
- 149 Gobiidae family (subfamily Sicydiinae); Atya sp. groups the juvenile shrimps of Atya scabra
- 150 et Atya innocous; and Macrobrachium sp. groups the juvenile shrimps of the family of
- 151 Palaemonidae (subfamily *Macrobrachium*). However, the individuals of dataset Gq (Table 1)
- 152 were not measured.
- 153
- 154 Taxa selected

155 Of the 21 to 28 species sampled in each dataset (Table 1) only the taxa with a total abundance 156 > 200 individuals were chosen for the analysis. Therefore, we selected 11 taxa in the 157 Caribbean belonging to three families of shrimp (Atvidae, Xiphocariidae, Palaemonidae) and two families of fish (Mugilidae, Gobiidae), and four taxa in the Indian Ocean belonging to 158 159 two families of shrimp (Atvidae, Palaemonidae) and one family of fish (Gobiidae) (Table 2). 160 In order to get round the problem of different surface areas of the samples used in the analyses, the abundances of the samples were transformed to densities (Ď, number of each for 161 an equivalent surface of 10 m²). Taxa size classes were defined in order to infer the effect of 162 163 size preferences on hydraulic. The limits of classes were chosen to obtain comparable 164 numbers.

166 Statistical modelling

| 167 | For each taxon of each region, we modelled the \check{D} as a function of microhabitat variables with |
|-----|---|
| 168 | a series of generalised additive models (GAMs). GAMs permit considering nonlinear |
| 169 | relations, that are frequent when studying hydraulic preferences (e.g., Lamouroux et al., |
| 170 | 1999a; Jowett et al., 2008). They have a flexible structure that does not require prior |
| 171 | determination of the form of the relation (Guisan and Zimmerman, 2000, Guisan et al., 2002). |
| 172 | Six models (Eqs. 1-6) were defined with a log link function. The reference model M1 (Eq. 1) |
| 173 | assumes that the density is constant by survey, so that there is no hydraulic preference. Model |
| 174 | M2 (Eq. 2) defines the regional model where the abundance varies similarly in each survey as |
| 175 | a function of a microhabitat variable. By comparing M2 in relation to M1, we quantify the |
| 176 | strength of hydraulic preference independently of the other biotic and abiotic factors acting at |
| 177 | the scale of the reach on a given date. In model M3 (Eq. 3), the hydraulic preferences can vary |
| 178 | as a function of the dataset, i.e. the island or the sampling method. In model M4 (Eq. 4), the |
| 179 | hydraulic preferences can vary as a function of the dataset and groups of surveys. The latter |
| 180 | two models permit appreciating the transferability of the results between rivers. Different |
| 181 | criteria were used to define two groups of surveys in M4 (with comparable numbers): the |
| 182 | season of low and high flow in the Caribbean; the years \langle and ≥ 2009 in the Caribbean and |
| 183 | the years < and ≥ 2005 in the Indian Ocean; the altitude ($\leq \text{ or } > 165 \text{ m}$ in the Caribbean; < |
| 184 | and ≥ 80 m in the Indian Ocean); the wind coast exposure (exposed or not); the size of the |
| 185 | watershed (\leq or > 10 km ² in the Caribbean; \leq or > 50 km ² in the Indian Ocean); the situation |
| 186 | in relation to water intakes (upstream of an intake or not; only in the Caribbean). Lastly, |
| 187 | models M5 and M6 (Eqs. 5-6) define multivariate models for a taxon with or without a term |
| 188 | of interaction between microhabitat variables. Concerning the preference models of taxa size |
| 189 | classes, we fitted M1 and M2 only. Our series of models is: |

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| 190 | M1: | $\log(\check{D}) \sim a_{survey}$ | (1) |
|-----|-----|--|-----|
| 191 | M2: | $\log(\check{D}) \sim a_{survey} + s(p)$ | (2) |

| 192 | мз٠ | $\log(\check{D}) \sim a$ | $\pm s(\mathbf{n}) \pm s(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n})$ | (3) |
|-----|-----|--------------------------|--|-----|

192 M3:
$$\log(\check{D}) \sim a_{survey} + s(p) + s(p:p_{dataset})$$
 (3)

193 M4:
$$\log(\check{D}) \sim a_{survey} + s(p) + s(p: p_{dataset}) + s(p:p_{survey})$$
 (4)

194 M5:
$$\log(\check{D}) \sim a_{survey} + s(v) + s(h) + s(d)$$
 (5)

195 M6:
$$\log(\dot{D}) \sim a_{survey} + s(v) + s(h) + s(d) + s(v, h, d)$$
 (6)

196 where p corresponds either to v, h or d; s() is a smoothing function (of cubic spline type); p: 197 p_{dataset} is the term of interaction between the hydraulic variable and the *dataset* variable;

198 p:p_{survey} is the term of interaction between the hydraulic variable and a group of surveys. The 199 parameter a_{survey} permits ignoring differences in density between surveys which do not reflect 200 the microhabitat hydraulic preferences.

201 For all the models, we chose a negative binomial (NB) type error distribution, which 202 can account for the over-dispersion of abundance data, as suggested by Gray et al. (2005, 203 freshwater macro-invertebrates) and Vaudor et al. (2009, freshwater fishes) for data of the 204 same type. We set the dispersion parameter (θ) of the NB distribution for each taxon when 205 fitting model M1. We also set the degree of freedom of the smoothing function of the GAMs 206 at three to avoid any over-parameterisation (Jowett et al., 2008). Lastly, for each taxon we 207 eliminated the surveys where the number of individuals was less than three. The models were 208 fitted using the functions available in the mgcv package (Wood, 2006) of the R software (R 209 Development Core Team, 2010).

210 We described the quality of our two series of nested models (M1-M4 and M1, M5-211 M6) using the additional deviance explained in comparison to the previous model. In 212 addition, we used a likelihood ratio test to compare a given model with the previous one.

| 214 | RESULTS |
|-----|---|
| 215 | A total of 8353 samples were collected from 320 surveys, making it possible to establish and |
| 216 | study the preferences of 11 taxa and 16 size classes in the Caribbean, four taxa and eight size |
| 217 | classes in the Indian Ocean (Table 2). The velocities of the samples varied from 0 to 2.80 m.s |
| 218 | 1 , the depths from 0.02 to 1.90 m and the substrate from 0 to 1.024 m. |
| 219 | The dispersion parameter θ varied from 0.06 (A. scabra) to 0.46 (M. poeyi) for the taxa |
| 220 | of the Caribbean, and from 0.32 (A. serrata) and 1.10 (S. lagocephalus) for the taxa of the |
| 221 | Indian Ocean (Table 2, standard error on $\theta \le 0.03$ for all species). The low values of θ , which |
| 222 | indicate over-dispersion of densities, were obtained for rare species (M. crenulatum, A. |
| 223 | monticola) and those known to be gregarious (A. scabra; Lim et al., 2002; Monti et al., |
| 224 | 2010). |
| 225 | |
| 226 | Univariate models M1 – M4 by taxon |
| 227 | The deviance explained by the survey in reference model M1 varied from 20.3 to 56.0% (on |
| 228 | average 36%, Table 3). The addition of microhabitat variables in M2 explained from 0 to |
| 229 | 18.1% (average 4.3%) of the residual deviance of M1. The model of velocity preferences was |
| 230 | generally more efficient than that of preferences of depths and substrates (on average 6.9, 4.4 |
| 231 | and 1.6% of explained deviance, respectively). Examples of fits of M2 models to the data |
| 232 | observed are given in Figure 2. |
| 233 | Hydraulic preferences were significant for most of the species, except A. monticola (v |
| 234 | and d), M. crenulatum, Atya sp. and X. elongata (d) (Table 3). The strongest preferences, |
| 235 | relative to velocity and depth, concerned A. Scabra, M. heterochirus, X. elongata and |
| 236 | Sicydium sp. in the Caribbean and S. lagocephalus and C. acutipinnis in the Indian Ocean. |

237 The taxa had preferences for low (X. elongata, M. crenulatum, M. faustinum, M. australe),

238 intermediate (A. innocous, M. poeyi) or high (A. Scabra, M. heterochirus, A. serrata and 239 Sicydiinae) velocities, whereas most taxa preferred shallow depths, except X. elongata, M. 240 crenulatum and M. australe (Figures 3 and 4). A. scabra, M. heterochirus, A. serrata, C. 241 acutipinnis and S. lagocephalus preferred coarse substrates whereas M. australe preferred fine 242 substrates (Figures 3 and 4). 243 The preferences for velocities and depths, and to a lesser extent substrates (Table 3), 244 differed between datasets. However, the additional deviance explained by M3 in comparison 245 to M2 remained low: it was < 2.2% in the Caribbean and < 1.5% in the Indian Ocean (Table 246 3). The main differences observed in the Caribbean are the variations of preferences in the range of high velocities (> 0.5 m.s^{-1}) (cf. A. scabra in Figure 3) and preferences for shallower 247 248 or deeper water depths (cf. A. monticola in Figure 3). In the Indian Ocean, we observed 249 preferences for lower velocities and an absence of preferences for depths in the dataset 250 sampled by "points" in comparison to "habitat units" for *C. acutipinnis* (*v*, *h*) (Figure 4). 251 Regarding variations between groups of surveys, the comparison of M4 and M3 indicated that 252 the localisation parameters of reaches and the sampling period generally had little influence 253 on hydraulic preferences (explained relative deviance < 2.4%, Table 3). The highest values 254 observed concerned A. scabra in the Caribbean, and A. serrata, M. australe and C. acutipinnis 255 in the Indian Ocean.

256

257 Univariate models M1 – M2 by size classes

The hydraulic preferences according to size classes were mostly significant except for the preferences of *X. elongata* (*h*), *A. monticola* (*h*) and *A. serrata* (*d*) of small sizes and the preferences of adults of *Sicydium sp.* (*d*) and *A. monticola* (*v*) (Table 4, Figure 5). The deviance explained by the models by size classes was close to that of the model by taxon. The deviance explained was nonetheless higher for size classes concerning the preferences for

| 263 | substrate. The preferences of larger individuals for velocities were weaker than those of |
|-----|--|
| 264 | smaller individuals for the species A. scabra and X. elongata; on the contrary, the preferences |
| 265 | of larger individuals for velocities were stronger than those of smaller individuals for the |
| 266 | species Sicydium sp Size classes generally preferred similar depth ranges except for the taxa |
| 267 | X. elongata, where larger individuals tended to prefer deeper habitats (Figure 5). The |
| 268 | preferences of larger individuals for substrate are weaker than those of smaller individuals for |
| 269 | M. australe and M. heterochirus; conversely, larger individuals of A. scabra, A. serrata and S. |
| 270 | lagocephalus have stronger preferences for substrate. |
| 071 | |
| 271 | |

272 Multivariate models M5 – M6

The multivariate models without interactions (M5) explained from 2.8 to 24.4% of the
residual deviance of M1 (Table 5). The addition of an interaction term (M6) improved the
explained deviance between 3.7 and 9.4% for some taxa: *Sicydium sp., X. elongata, C. acutipinnis* and *S. lagocephalus* (Table 5).

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DISCUSSION

The within-survey deviance explained by microhabitat variables varies between 0 and 18.1% (univariate regional models) and from 4.1 to 30.0% (multivariate regional models). The poor performances achieved by the models built are partly due to the small size of the scale of observation ($\sim 1 \text{ m}^2$) and likely result from the particular life cycle of the taxa (diadromous and opportunistic species). Similarly, the within-survey deviance of models of hydraulic preferences of the white shrimp *Paranephrops planifrons*, a diadromous species of the rivers of the north island of New Zealand, varies from 7 and 11% (Jowett *et al.*, 2008). By way of comparison, Dolédec *et al.* (2007) showed that models of European regional preferences for
macro-invertebrates explained on average 25% of within-survey variance.

288

Taxa showing the most marked hydraulic preferences are *A. scabra*, *M. heterochirus*, *X. elongata*, *Sicydium sp.* in the Caribbean, and *C. acutipinnis* and *S. lagocephalus* in the Indian
Ocean. For example, the density of *A. scabra* and *X. elongata* can be multiplied by a factor of ~ 5 for a change of velocity in the order of 0.5 m.s⁻¹.

293 The preferences of shrimps for high (A. scabra, M. heterochirus) or low (X. elongata) 294 velocities are probably linked to their capacity to resist currents or not and their foraging 295 strategy. Indeed, A. scabra and M. heterochirus are larger in comparison to the other species 296 of the same family (*M. poevi*, *M. faustinum*) and have larger morphological attributes 297 (pincers, legs, spines on pincers) (Lim *et al.*, 2002) that allow them to move in rapids where densities of drifting benthos, particles and/or individuals are higher (Orth and Maughan, 1983; 298 299 Brooks et al., 2005). Furthermore, the feeding mode of A. scabra is probably more specialised 300 than for A. innocous, likewise with M. heterochirus in comparison to M. crenulatum. On the 301 contrary, X. elongata has a strong preference for low velocities and deeper water since it lives 302 essentially in the water column (Lim et al., 2002). In addition, our results corroborate those of 303 Monti and Legendre (2009) who showed that *M. heterochirus* and *X. elongata* have notable 304 preferences for velocities in environments with strong hydrological disturbances.

The fish of the subfamily of Sicydiinae in the two regions (*Sicydium sp.*, *C. acutipinnis* and *S. lagocephalus*) prefer fast-flowing and shallow habitats. Their hydraulic preferences are probably linked to the presence of periphytic biofilm whose quality and development are conditioned by bed shear stress and light, respectively (Julius *et al.*, 2005; Lefrançois *et al.*, 2011; Tabouret *et al.*, 2011). The hydraulic preferences of *S. lagocephalus* and *C. acutipinnis* are comparable to those given by the logistic models built by Teichert *et al.* (*in press*), except that the authors showed that *C. acutipinnis* has stronger preferences for

depths than velocities. This difference in preference strength can be due to the longersampling period covered by our dataset.

314 Taxa showing weaker hydraulic preferences are A. monticola, M. faustinum, M. 315 crenulatum, M. australe, A. innocous, M. poeyi and the juvenile shrimps of the Caribbean. 316 These results are consistent with those of Monti and Legendre (2009) who reported weak 317 preferences for velocity for *M. faustinum* and *M. poeyi*. Concerning *M. crenulatum*, Monti 318 and Legendre identified strong preferences for low velocities for four sites under strong and 319 weak hydrological disturbance, suggesting that food predominates in influencing habitat 320 selection. Some of these species are also described with preference variables according to 321 diurnal phases (e.g. A. innocous) (Keith et al., 1999; Lim et al., 2002; Monti et al., 2010). The 322 weak preferences of the species observed here can also be partly due to variations in fishing 323 efficiency or to our grouping of juveniles of some taxa (A. scabra and A. innocous; M. 324 crenulatum, M. heterochirus and M. faustinum). Regarding fishing efficiency, it is as poor as 325 the species are rare (*M. crenulatum*) and their mobility is high (*A. monticola*) (Fiévet *et al.*, 326 1999; King et al., 2002). It is therefore possible that fishing efficiency explains the absence of 327 preference for velocity that we observed for the mobile A. monticola, whereas the taxon is 328 expected to prefer fast and well oxygenated water (Lim et al., 2002). Fishing efficiency can 329 also explain that we observed weak preferences for A. innocous, which is an excellent 330 swimmer and very reactive in the presence of predators (Covich et al., 2009; Hein and Crowl, 331 2010) or when disturbed by electrofishing (Fiévet et al., 1999). Regarding the shrimp M. 332 *australe*, its weak regional preferences can be explained by its sheltering behaviour during the 333 day and variation due to its morphological plasticity (Zimmermann et al., 2012). The 334 grouping of juveniles of different species of *Macrobrachium* is probably not very appropriate 335 since we observed that the adults of *M. faustinum* and *M. heterochirus* have different 336 preferences (forces and directions) regarding velocity and depth. This is less the case for the 337 juveniles of the family of Atyidae since the adults (A. scabra, A. innocous and M. poeyi) share 338 relatively similar preferences. Lastly, the more flexible mode of feeding (filtering and 339 scraping) of *M. poevi* and *A. innocous* in comparison to *A. scabra* (mainly filtering) can also 340 explain less selective use of microhabitats.

341 The comparison of inter-species hydraulic preferences suggests that food strategies 342 (filtering and/or scraping) and morphological adaptations (size, apical spine) effectively 343 influence habitat selection. This result supports that aquatic taxa have developed strategies 344 shaped by the flow regime (Poff and Ward, 1989; Poff, 1997). The use of life history traits is 345 therefore encouraged for overcoming problems of identification and/or lack of data on a 346 particular species (Blanck et al., 2007).

347

348 The low additional deviance explained by datasets or groups of surveys suggests that regional 349 models are pertinent for expressing taxa preferences. Likewise, the performance of models 350 regarding size class does not suggest a notable improvement. These results should nonetheless 351 be seen relatively. For example, it is possible that our definitions of groups are not very 352 appropriate for expressing different competition conditions. These effects can exist for certain 353 species (S. lagocephalus and C. acutipinnis, Lord et al., 2011) and might partially explain the 354 variations observed between groups in our results (C. acutipinnis). Likewise, taking the 355 hydrological regime (Monti and Legendre, 2009) into account in more detail would 356 undoubtedly lead to more thorough models. Lastly, a breakdown of taxa by life stage rather 357 than by size class could be more pertinent to reflect the physiological needs of species (Bielsa 358 et al., 2003, for S. lagocephalus) and their behaviours regarding different predators (e.g. 359 longer rostrum in X. *elongata* in the presence of predatory fish, Covich *et al.*, 2009). 360

361 To sum up, the hydraulic preferences of insular tropical taxa are generally weaker than in 362 temperate regions. This observation, as well as the complexity of the life cycle of these taxa, 363 tends to emphasise that the hydraulic preferences of taxa should only be taken into account

| 364 | within an approach that provides a more general description of their habitat during their life |
|-----|---|
| 365 | cycle. This approach would imply in particular taking into account the ecological effect of |
| 366 | various flow regime attributes (e.g., timing and duration of floods, flashiness; Bunn and |
| 367 | Arthington, 2002), the longitudinal connectivity (e.g., Greathouse et al., 2006) and the |
| 368 | potential threat of introduced species (Donlan and Wilcox, 2008). Nonetheless, our results |
| 369 | show that the hydraulic preferences of certain taxa are significant (e.g., A. scabra, M. |
| 370 | heterochirus) and consistent with the knowledge available on these taxa. Our regional models |
| 371 | can contribute to describe the hydraulic preferences of these taxa and model how the |
| 372 | management of low to average discharges modifies their available habitat. |
| 373 | |
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176 Table 1: Datasets characteristics

| Dataset code | Island | Sampling method | Number of surveys | Number of samples (min-max per station) | | Sampling Years | Number of taxa sampled |
|-----------------|------------|--------------------|----------------------|--|-----------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Caribbean | | | | | | | |
| Gp | Guadeloupe | Points | 32 | 1455 | (10 - 52) | 2005, 2008, 2009 | 23 |
| Gq | Guadeloupe | Quadrats | 27 | 1811 | (79 - 99) | 2005 | 22 |
| Мр | Martinique | Points | 21 | 946 | (31 - 50) | 2008, 2010 | 21 |
| Indian Ocean | | | | | | | |
| Rp | Réunion | Points | 17 | 1359 | (13 - 85) | 1999, 2001 | 25 |
| Rh | Réunion | Habitat units | 196 | 3284 | (3 - 21) | 2000-2011 | 28 |

Table 2: Selected taxa and their main ecological characteristics. Habitat use and feeding groups are summarized from information detailed in Coat *et al.* (2009, 2011), Keith *et al.* (1999), Lim *et al.* (2002) and Monti *et al.* (2010). Abbreviations for feeding guilds are: F for filter feeding, H for Herbivore, D for Detritivore, O for Omnivore. θ (σ_{θ}) is the dispersion coefficient (and its standard error) fitted for the taxa.

| Taxa Code | Taxa | Family | Habitat use | Feeding group | Number of occurrence in sample | Number of individuals | θ | σ_{θ} | Mean size (mm) |
|--------------|---|---------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Caribl | pean | | | | • | | | | |
| AIN | Atya innocous (Herbst, 1972) | Atyidae | Rapid | F, D/H | 1139 | 8873 | 0.22 | 0.01 | 47 |
| ASC | Atya scabra (Leach, 1815) | Atyidae | Rapid | F, D/H | 391 | 1556 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 51 |
| ASP | Atya sp. (juvenile) | Atyidae | | | 560 | 2135 | 0.09 | 0.00 | |
| MPO | Micratya poeyi (Guérin-Méneville, 1885) | Atyidae | Vegetation | F, D/H | 2407 | 25759 | 0.46 | 0.01 | 18 |
| XEL | Xiphocaris elongata (Guérin-Méneville, 1855) | Xiphocariidae | Pool, river banks | D/H | 956 | 5513 | 0.11 | 0.00 | 44 |
| MCR | Macrobrachium crenulatum (Holthuis, 1950) | Palaemonidae | Rapid, deep run | 0 | 345 | 565 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 57 |
| MFA | Macrobrachium faustinum (de Saussure, 1857) | Palaemonidae | Pool, shelter | 0 | 1814 | 5657 | 0.34 | 0.01 | 42 |
| MHE | Macrobrachium heterochirus (Wiegmann, 1836) | Palaemonidae | Rapid | 0 | 1010 | 1793 | 0.14 | 0.01 | 48 |
| MSP | Macrobrachium sp. (juvenile) | Palaemonidae | | | 1147 | 2984 | 0.17 | 0.01 | |
| AMO | Agonostomus monticola (Bancroft, 1834) | Mugilidae | Rapid | D/H | 307 | 617 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 124 |
| SIC | Sicydium sp. (Perugia, 1986; Bloch, 1786) | Gobiidae | Rapid | Н | 2208 | 11658 | 0.32 | 0.01 | 50 |
| Indian | Ocean | | | | | | | | |
| ATY | Atyoida serrata (Bate, 1888) | Atyidae | Rapid, vegetation | F, D/H | 532 | 2974 | 0.32 | 0.01 | 18 |
| MAA | Macrobrachium australe (Guérin-Méneville, 1838) | Palaemonidae | Pool | 0 | 476 | 1444 | 0.51 | 0.02 | 42 |
| COA | Cotylopus acutipinnis (Guichenot, 1863) | Gobiidae | Rapid | Н | 1033 | 2719 | 0.92 | 0.03 | 44 |
| SLA | Sicyopterus lagocephalus (Pallas, 1770) | Gobiidae | Rapid | Н | 2423 | 11512 | 1.10 | 0.03 | 60 |

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182 183 184

| <0.05). | | | - | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---------|---------------------|------------------------|------------|-----------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-------|--|
| | | | | | | M4/M3 | | | | | |
| | Taxon | M1 | Hydraulic parameter | M2/M1 | M3/M2 | Altitude | With- drawals | Coast exposure | Basin surface area | years | |
| Caribbean | AIN | 52.4 | v | 2.8 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Curibbean | | | h | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.4 | - | - | - | - | |
| | | | d | 0.4 | 0.6 | - | - | - | - | 0.4 | |
| | AMO | 20.3 | v | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | | | h | 4.0 | 2.2 | 0.6 | - | - | - | - | |
| | | | d | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | ASC | 30.7 | V | 18.1 | 1.5 | - | - | 0.8 | - | - | |
| | | | h | 5.4 | 0.9 | 2.2 | 1.1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | 1.2 | |
| | | | d | 3.9 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | ASP | 20.9 | V | 1.9 | - | - | - | - | 0.5 | - | |
| | | | h | 2.6 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 1.0 | - | 0.4 | - | |
| | | | d | - | 1.2 | - | - | - | 0.5 | - | |
| | MCR | 32.3 | V | 3.1 | - | - | - | 0.7 | - | - | |
| | | | h | 0.5 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | | | d | - | 0.8 | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | MFA | 30.9 | V | 1.6 | 0.3 | - | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.5 | - | |
| | | | h | 0.9 | - | 0.4 | 0.2 | - | 0.4 | - | |
| | | | d | 0.5 | - | - | - | - | 0.2 | - | |
| | MHE | 24.3 | V | 7.1 | 0.7 | - | - | - | - | - | |
| | | | h | 1.5 | 0.8 | - | - | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.3 | |
| | | | d | 1.0 | 0.4 | - | 0.2 | 0.3 | - | 0.3 | |
| | MPO | 45.0 | V | 3.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 | - | - | 0.2 | - | |
| | | | h | 2.9 | 1.1 | - | - | - | - | 0.2 | |
| | | | d | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.6 | - | - | - | - | |
| | MSP | 28.1 | v | 1.1 | 0.9 | - | 0.5 | - | - | - | |
| | | | h | 1.7 | 0.5 | - | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.5 | |
| | | | d | 0.5 | - | - | - | - | - | 0.3 | |
| | SIC | 33.2 | V | 3.8 | 0.5 | 0.1 | - | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.1 | |
| | | | h | 2.8 | 0.8 | 0.2 | 0.3 | - | 0.3 | - | |
| | | 2 0 7 | d | 0.3 | - | - | - | - | 0.1 | - | |
| | XEL | 29.7 | V | 8.1 | - | 1.0 | 0.4 | - | 0.8 | - | |
| | | | h | 2.4 | 0.7 | 0.4 | - | 0.4 | - | - | |
| | 4 77 37 | 40.7 | d | - | 0.7 | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Indian | AIY | 48.7 | V 1 | 3.0 5.0 | - | 2.4 | | 0.5 | - | - | |
| Ocean | | | n | 5.0 | - | 0.4 | | - | 0.8 | 0.6 | |
| | CO 4 | 500 | d | 1.6 | 1.0 | 0.5 | | - | 0.9 | - | |
| | COA | 56.0 | V 1. | 9.5 | 1.5 | 1.4 | | - | 2.1 | 0.2 | |
| | | | n A | 5.5 1 1 | 1.5 | 1.5 | | - | - | - | |
| | МАА | 44.4 | a | 1.1 | - | - | | 0.5 | - | 0.0 | |
| | MAA | 44.4 | V 1- | 5.4 1 4 | - 1 <i>5</i> | - | | 0.3 | 1.9 | 2.4 | |
| | | | n د | 1.4 | 1.5 | - | | 0.4 | - | 1./ | |
| | CT 4 | 20.7 | a | 3.0 | 0.9 | - | | 1.5 | - | 0.0 | |
| | SLA | 39./ | V 1- | 10.9 | 0.5 | 1.5 | | 0.3 | 0.8 | - | |
| | | | n د | 15.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | | 0.5 | 1.1 | - | |
| | | | d | 2.7 | - | 0.3 | | - | 0.6 | - | |

Table 3: Explained deviance for M1 (% of the initial deviance) and supplementary deviance M_i/M_{i-1} (% of the

residual deviance of M_{i-1} explained by M_i). Additional deviance is shown for significant cases only (P-value

187 Table 4: Supplementary deviance M2/M1 (% of the residual deviance of M1 explained by M2) for size classes.

| | 4 | Additional | deviance | is shown | for | significant | cases | only (I | P-value | <0.05). |
|--|---|------------|----------|----------|-----|-------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|
|--|---|------------|----------|----------|-----|-------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|

| Dagion | Toyon | Size | M2/M1 | | | | |
|-----------|-------|------------|-------|------|-----|--|--|
| Region | Taxon | class (mm) | v | h | d | | |
| Caribboan | AIN | \leq 45 | 2.7 | 2.5 | - | | |
| Caribbean | | > 45 | 2.4 | 1.2 | - | | |
| | AMO | ≤ 115 | 1.8 | - | 1.1 | | |
| | | > 115 | - | 7.7 | 1.3 | | |
| | ASC | \leq 50 | 20.9 | 10.1 | 3.1 | | |
| | | > 50 | 16.9 | 3.2 | 5.2 | | |
| | MCR | \leq 55 | 1.3 | 2.5 | - | | |
| | | > 55 | 2.8 | 1.7 | - | | |
| | MFA | \leq 40 | 2.1 | 0.5 | 0.5 | | |
| | | > 40 | 3.0 | 1.6 | 0.6 | | |
| | MHE | \leq 45 | 7.4 | 3.3 | 2.0 | | |
| | | > 45 | 6.0 | 1.4 | 0.9 | | |
| | MPO | ≤ 15 | 2.1 | 4.3 | 0.5 | | |
| | | > 15 | 3.2 | 4.5 | 0.8 | | |
| | SIC | \leq 45 | 2.6 | 5.4 | - | | |
| | | > 45 | 5.5 | 2.5 | 0.5 | | |
| | XEL | \leq 40 | 11.0 | - | - | | |
| | | > 40 | 8.8 | 2.5 | - | | |
| Indian | ATY | ≤ 20 | 3.1 | 6.0 | - | | |
| Ocean | | > 20 | 3.7 | 5.2 | 4.3 | | |
| | COA | \leq 35 | 8.2 | 9.4 | 0.5 | | |
| | | > 35 | 8.5 | 4.1 | 1.3 | | |
| | MAA | \leq 40 | 7.4 | 2.1 | 3.6 | | |
| | | > 40 | 3.8 | 1.4 | 1.2 | | |
| | SLA | ≤ 55 | 11.6 | 13.6 | 1.0 | | |
| | | > 55 | 16.2 | 9.7 | 3.7 | | |

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 - Table 5: Explained deviance for M1 (% of the initial deviance) and supplementary deviance M_i/M_{i-1} (% of the residual deviance of M_{i-1} explained by M_i). Additional deviance is shown for significant cases only (P-value

<0.05).

| Region | Taxon | M1 | M5/M1 | M6/M5 |
|-----------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| Caribbean | AIN | 52.4 | 3.8 | 1.4 |
| Canobean | AMO | 20.3 | 4.6 | 2.8 |
| | ASC | 30.7 | 23.7 | 0.9 |
| | ASP | 20.9 | 4.1 | 2.8 |
| | MCR | 32.3 | 3.3 | 1.5 |
| | MFA | 30.9 | 2.8 | 1.3 |
| | MHE | 24.3 | 8.3 | 1.0 |
| | MPO | 45.0 | 6.5 | 1.2 |
| | MSP | 28.1 | 3.3 | 2.7 |
| | SIC | 33.2 | 6.4 | 3.7 |
| | XEL | 29.7 | 10.1 | 5.3 |
| Indian | ATY | 48.7 | 9.2 | 1.7 |
| Ocean | COA | 56.0 | 11.0 | 9.4 |
| | MAA | 44.4 | 3.6 | 2.5 |
| | SLA | 39.7 | 24.4 | 5.7 |









