

# Ecological Modeling for the Extrapolation of Ecotoxicological Effects Measured during in Situ Assays in Gammarus

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| 3  | assays in Gammarus.   |
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# 13 KEYWORDS

14 Gammarus fossarum, life-history, biomonitoring, population models, effect upscaling

#### 16 ABSTRACT

17 Evaluating the effects of chemical contamination on populations and ecological communities still constitutes a challenging necessity in environmental management. However 18 the toxic effects of contaminants are commonly measured by means of organism-level 19 20 responses. Linking such effects measures with ecological models is a promising way to 21 apprehend population-level impacts. In this way, population models are currently increasingly 22 used in predictive risk assessment procedures, but their use in environmental diagnostic 23 framework remains limited due to their lack of ecological realism. The present study with the crustacean Gammarus fossarum, a sentinel species in freshwater monitoring, combines a dual 24 25 field and laboratory experimental approach with a population modelling framework. In this 26 way, we developed an ecologically-relevant periodic matrix population model for *Gammarus*. 27 This model allowed us to capture the population dynamics in the field, and to understand the 28 particular pattern of demographic sensitivities induced by *Gammarus* life-history phenology. 29 The model we developed provided a robust population-level assessment of in situ-based 30 effects measures recorded during a biomonitoring program on a French watershed impacted 31 by past mining activities. Thus, our study illustrates the potential of population modelling 32 when seeking to decipher the role of environmental toxic contamination in ecological 33 perturbations.

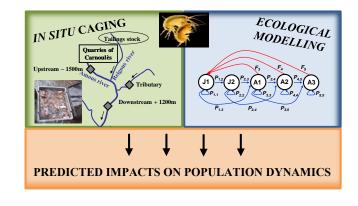
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# 40 TOC/Abstract graphic



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## 43 **1. INTRODUCTION**

In order to understand the role of chemical contamination in the degradation of 44 environmental quality, the ecotoxicological approach studies the sub-lethal effects of 45 46 contaminants by means of sub-individual biomarkers or individual responses. One can thus 47 focus the diagnostic assessment at lower levels of biological organization compared to 48 integrated ecological impact studies on populations, communities and ecosystem functioning <sup>1-4</sup>. These organism-level markers are expected to be specific and sensitive to the toxic effects 49 50 of contaminants. They are therefore used to gain insights into causal relationships between 51 contamination and biological impacts, an essential step in proposing relevant environmental management programs. Nevertheless, their ecological relevance continues to be debated <sup>5</sup>. In 52 53 fact, the effects detected by biomarkers and individual responses can be directly related to the presence of contaminants but do not inform on the severity of environmental quality 54 55 degradation in terms of ecological effects, because they cannot be directly interpreted as 56 predictors of the impacts on populations or communities, which constitute the protection 57 goals of ecosystem management. One promising way to overcome this difficulty is to include 58 the impacts measured on individual demographic parameters (e.g. survival, growth, reproduction) in population models to investigate adverse outcomes at the population level  $^{6-8}$ . 59 60 Nevertheless, although such population models are currently increasingly used in predictive 61 approaches<sup>9</sup>, their use in the diagnostic framework remains limited. In the majority of 62 studies, population models are based on laboratory data with species that are not 63 representative of ecosystems. Consequently, while these models are useful for extrapolating 64 the effects of a specific toxicant observed during a laboratory experiment on a model species to outcomes on the population growth rate for instance <sup>7, 10</sup>, the integration of field-based 65 66 input data in modelling approaches is lacking to really anticipate what would happen in the

67 field in native populations <sup>11, 12</sup>. Therefore, to develop the use of population models as
68 predictive tools, we need to develop models based on field data and autochthonous species.

69 In the present study, we aimed to develop an ecologically relevant population model for the 70 crustacean Gammarus fossarum. Gammarids are recognized as tractable organisms for water quality biomonitoring <sup>6, 13</sup>. We have recently contributed to the development of several sub-71 individual biomarkers <sup>14-17</sup> and individual markers <sup>4, 18</sup> for this sentinel species. Gammarids 72 are considered as very promising species for multi-level assessment schemes from sub-73 individual to population or community levels <sup>6</sup>. Here, in a first step, we report the 74 75 implementation of a population modelling approach suited for the life-history and phenology of this invertebrate species. We parameterized a periodic matrix population model <sup>12, 19, 20</sup> 76 77 based on a 1-year study of a perennial population of G. fossarum. We used a combination of laboratory and *in situ* experiments in order to precisely characterize life-history trait dynamics 78 79 throughout the year. This model allowed us to capture the population dynamics and to 80 understand the particular pattern of demographic sensitivities in *Gammarus*, e.g. the relative 81 importance of recruitment processes (fertility) vs survival processes, or the temporal 82 variability of population vulnerability. In a second step, we demonstrate the suitability of this 83 population model for a multi-level assessment of water quality based on a case study on the 84 Amous watershed, a French river known to be contaminated by heavy metals due to mine 85 drainage. Finally, we discuss the potential contribution of this type of population modelling approach to environmental monitoring, considering that biomarkers and individual responses 86 87 could be complemented by population models to decipher the role of environmental 88 contamination toxicity in ecological perturbations.

89

#### 90 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

91 Biological data

92 We conducted our experiments on a long-established population of Gammarus fossarum 93 which is present all the year upstream of the Ardières River (04°31'16 E; 46°11'12 N, Rhône, 94 France). We used a dual approach combining laboratory and field experiments to characterize 95 life-history trait variability throughout the year and population dynamics. On the one hand, 96 we conducted a field-based demographic sampling based on a monthly population census to 97 estimate population characteristics (e.g. changes in density and size structure, fertility). On the 98 other hand, we quantified the influence of water temperature throughout the year on the 99 growth rate and interlaying interval, by coupling laboratory experiments and in situ 100 validation. For all experiments, water temperature was recorded every 2 h using the Tinytag 101 temperature logger Aquatic 2 ®.

102

### 103 *Field-based demographic sampling*

104 A demographic sampling was conducted from November 2008 to November 2009. Each 105 month, gammarids were sampled along a 50-m river section using a hand net  $(25 \times 18 \text{ cm})$ . 106 Separate samples were taken for each substrate in the river, including favourable substrates 107 for gammarids (*i.e.* bryophytes, leaves) and dominant substrates in the river (*i.e.* gravels). The 108 percentage of each substratum was estimated on six transects shared out along the station. 109 Samples were sieved on site at 1.25 mm to separate juveniles from adults. Juveniles were 110 fixed in alcohol and adults were placed in buckets with river water. Juvenile densities were 111 estimated within the different substrates with a sub-sample corresponding to 20% of the total 112 sample from which we measured the body size of 60 individuals. For this measurement, we 113 used the length of the second segment of the antenna, which proved to be a robust indicator of 114 the body size in juveniles, adult males and females (data not shown). Concerning adults, we 115 counted gammarids within the different substrates and separated in vivo gravid females. Then 116 the body size of 60 individuals from the sample of gravid females was measured, and 60

individuals from the sample of males and non-gravid females were sexed using a binocular microscope and measured. This methodology allowed us to estimate monthly population density, size distribution, sex ratio and percentage of gravid females. By this means, we also determined size at birth, size at maturity and maximum size. In addition, every month we measured size and fertility (number of embryos in the marsupium) on 60 gravid females covering a wide range of sizes sampled randomly in the river section. The detailed fertility measurement procedure is described in Geffard et al. <sup>18</sup>.

124

## 125 *Quantification of the monthly variability in growth rates and interlaying intervals*

Water temperature is known to influence the life-history traits of gammarids <sup>21-25</sup>. Therefore, we expected that the variability in growth rates and interlaying intervals would be mainly explained by water temperature variability during the year. Consequently, in the first step we studied the influence of water temperature on growth and interlaying interval under laboratory conditions. In the second step, we confirmed predictions using *in situ* caging assays.

132 Laboratory experiments. To estimate the influence of temperature on growth, we tested 133 three temperatures, 7.0 ( $\pm$  0.05), 12.1 ( $\pm$  0.01) and 16.4 ( $\pm$  0.03) °C, as representative of the 134 range observed at the study site (mean monthly water temperature varied from 5.2 to 15.9°C 135 in the year of the study). Because the growth was slow (in particular for low water 136 temperatures), we decided not to investigate growth from neonates to adults but to observe the 137 growth of three size classes of organisms simultaneously: 2.5 ( $\pm$  0.3) mm, 4.5 ( $\pm$  0.8) mm and 138 5.8 ( $\pm$  0.7) mm. It allowed us to estimate growth from juveniles to adults using relatively 139 short experiments which is an advantage when studying gammarids under laboratory (e.g. no 140 nutrient deficiencies, less mortality). Gammarids were exposed to the three temperatures for 141 56 days. We used four replicates of 15 individuals for the first size class and four replicates of

142 10 individuals for the other two. Gammarids were placed in 0.5-L beakers filled with continuously renewed water (four renewals per day; hardness 88 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CaCO<sub>3</sub> 143 144 corresponding to the hardness of the river at the study site). A pumping system maintained 145 oxygen in the beakers and a 16 h / 8 h light / dark photoperiod was applied. The organisms 146 were fed ad libitum with alder leaves conditioned in groundwater. Twice a week, freeze-dried 147 worms (Tubifex) were added. For the first size class, we also added frozen faeces from adult 148 batches. The body size of individuals was measured at days 0, 14, 32, 46 and 56. After having 149 tested different classes of non-linear growth models, we chose to fit experimental data with a 150 logistic model. For each temperature, a logistic model was thus fit simultaneously considering 151 the three classes of gammarids. The model is expressed as follows:

152 
$$L(t) = \frac{Lmax}{1 + \left(\frac{Lmax}{Linit} - 1\right) e^{\left(-rt\right)}}$$
(1)

where L(t) corresponds to the size of gammarids at time t (in days), Lmax to the maximum size, Linit to the size at the beginning of the experiment and r to the daily growth rates of the logistic model. Considering 99% percentiles in total size distributions of the fieldbased demographic sampling (see below), we set Lmax at 8.5 mm. For the quantification of interlaying intervals, because laying is synchronous with moult in gammarids <sup>16, 18, 26</sup>, we used the relationship established in a study on moulting dynamics (unpublished data). From this, the influence of temperature  $\theta$  (in °C) on the interlaying interval d (in days) is described by:

160 
$$d = \frac{(30.61 - 0.39\theta)}{(0.01 + 0.05\theta)}$$
(2)

161 This hyperbolic relationship is consistent with studies reported for *Gammarus*<sup>22, 27</sup>.

*In situ assays.* We tested the predictive ability of these models of temperature influence on growth rates and interlaying intervals during four campaigns of *in situ* caging experiments at different seasons between November 2008 and November 2009 (*i.e.*, November-December

165 2008 for winter caging; April 2009 for spring; June 2009 for summer and October 2009 for autumn). Mean water temperature during *in situ* experiments was ranged from 7.8 to 15.1°C. 166 167 The gammarids were sampled and calibrated (i.e. selection of homogenous size) directly at 168 the study site. To determine growth rates, depending on the availability of gammarids, we 169 used from one to three size classes. For each size class, three replicates of 12 organisms were 170 placed in cylinders capped at their ends with pieces of netting (mesh size, 350 um). Alder 171 leaves were supplied ad libitum. Initial sizes were estimated with a sample of 30 organisms. 172 After one month of exposure, gammarids were counted for survival estimation, placed in 173 alcohol and measured. Concerning the interlaying interval, we adapted the protocol proposed in Geffard et al.<sup>18</sup>. Three replicates of seven pre-copulatory pairs of gammarids (*i.e.* male and 174 175 female on amplexus, with the female at the end of its reproductive cycle) were placed in 176 cylinders (diameter, 5 cm; length, 10 cm) capped at their ends with pieces of netting (mesh 177 size, 1 mm). Alder leaves were supplied ad libitum. Every 2 days, gammarids were checked 178 in order to record the dates of moults (i.e. a first moult which occurred a few days after the 179 beginning of the experiment and a second which depended on temperature (between 4 and 8 180 weeks).

181

#### 182 Modelling framework and demographic analysis

# 183 *Development of the population model*

We used a periodic Lefkovitch matrix population model with five size classes <sup>19, 20, 28, 29</sup> with the same structure as the model we previously developed for the gastropod *Potamopyrgus* <sup>12</sup>. We employed a size-class rather than an age-class or a stage-class model because *(i)* a strong correlation exists between body size and life-history traits in gammarids <sup>22, 25, 27</sup> and *(ii)* the life-history of individuals of such birth flow populations from short-living species inhabiting variable environments (seasonality) strongly depends on their date of birth in the year, which makes age a very weak predictor of biological features. The present model
only deals with females and distinguishes two classes of juveniles – J1 (individuals with a
size up to 3.5 mm) and J2 (size from 3.5 mm to the size at maturity) – and three classes of
adults – A1 (from the size at maturity to 6 mm), A2 (from 6 to 7 mm) and A3 (greater than 7
mm). This model can therefore integrate heterogeneity of demographic rates (survival, growth
and fertility) between size classes throughout the year.

Let  $n_i(k)$  be the number of individuals of size class i (i = 1 for J1, i = 2 for J2, i = 3 for A1, i197 = 4 for A2 and i = 5 for A3) at the beginning of month k. The five  $n_i(k)$  variables can be 198 gathered in a population vector  $\mathbf{n}(k)$ . Then we can define 12 monthly matrices  $\mathbf{M}_k$ , which link 199 the population vectors  $\mathbf{n}(k)$  between months k and k+1 as follows:

$$200 \mathbf{n}(k+1) = \mathbf{M}_k \mathbf{n}(k) (3)$$

201 with:

202 
$$\mathbf{M}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} s_{1}(k) \left(1 - \sum_{j>1} g_{1,j}(k)\right) & 0 & f_{3}(k) \sqrt{s_{1}(k)} \sqrt{s_{3}(k)} & f_{4}(k) \sqrt{s_{1}(k)} \sqrt{s_{4}(k)} & f_{3}(k) \sqrt{s_{1}(k)} \sqrt{s_{5}(k)} \\ s_{1}(k) g_{1,2}(k) & s_{2}(k) \left(1 - \sum_{j>2} g_{2,j}(k)\right) & 0 & 0 \\ s_{1}(k) g_{1,3}(k) & s_{2}(k) g_{2,3}(k) & s_{3}(k) \left(1 - \sum_{j>3} g_{3,j}(k)\right) & 0 & 0 \\ s_{1}(k) g_{1,4}(k) & s_{2}(k) g_{2,4}(k) & s_{3}(k) g_{3,4}(k) & s_{4}(k) (1 - g_{4,5}(k)) & 0 \\ s_{1}(k) g_{1,5}(k) & s_{2}(k) g_{2,5}(k) & s_{3}(k) g_{3,5}(k) & s_{4}(k) g_{4,5}(k) & s_{5}(k) \end{bmatrix}$$
203 (4)

where  $s_i(k)$  is the survival rate (proportion) of the size class *i* during month *k*,  $g_{i,j}(k)$  the transition rate (proportion) between size classes *i* and *j* during month *k*, and  $f_i(k)$  the reproductive rate (mean number of juveniles produced per individual) of the size class *i* during month *k*. The product of the 12 monthly matrices  $\mathbf{M}_k$  leads to an annual periodic matrix **L**, which links the population vector from year *t* to year *t*+1 as follows:

209 
$$\mathbf{n}(t+1) = \left(\prod_{k=1}^{12} \mathbf{M}_k\right) \mathbf{n}(t) = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{n}(t)$$
(5)

# 211 Parameter estimation

This matrix model encompasses three types of elements corresponding to survival, reproductive and transition rates (see Coulaud et al. <sup>12</sup>). For each month *k*, we estimated the parameters from our laboratory and field experiments. We estimated the reproductive rates  $f_i(k)$  of the three adult classes (*i* = 3, 4 or 5) as follows:

216 
$$f_i(k) = \frac{sr_i(k) b_i(k) \rho_i(k) \Delta t(k)}{d(k)}$$
(6)

where  $sr_i(k)$  (proportion of females) corresponds to the sex ratio of class *i* during month k, 217  $b_i(k)$  to fertility (mean number of embryos carried by gravid female) of class *i* during month 218 k,  $\rho_i(k)$  to the percentage of gravid females (proportion) in class *i* during month k,  $\Delta t(k)$  to 219 the number of days of month k and  $d_i(k)$  to the interlaying interval in days computed for 220 month k. Parameters  $sr_i(k)$  and  $\rho_i(k)$  were obtained with data from the demographic 221 222 sampling (see above); parameters  $b_i(k)$  were estimated for each size class from the relationship between body size (mm) and fertility (number of embryos) obtained from the 223 224 demographic sampling and parameters d(k) were calculated according to eq. 2 with the mean monthly water temperatures (°C). We calculated transition rates  $g_{i,i}(k)$  (proportion of 225 226 individuals from size class i reaching a size embedded in class i) using the relationship between growth rate (day<sup>-1</sup>) and water temperature (°C) (eq. 1) established during the 227 228 laboratory experiment and validated during *in situ* caging experiment (see above). Lastly, we estimated survival rates  $s_i(k)$  for month k from the comparison of densities (gammarid.m<sup>-2</sup>) 229 230 observed during the demographic sampling (see above) in month k with densities expected 231 from the observed densities in month k-1 combined with growth and reproductive rates 232 estimated for month k-1.

# 234 Model outcomes and elasticity analysis

235 The first dominant eigenvalue of the Lefkovitch matrix  $\mathbf{L}$ ,  $\lambda$ , corresponds to the asymptotic growth rate of the gammarid population  $^{28}$ . The right eigenvector w associated with this first 236 237 eigenvalue gives the asymptotic stable size structure. According to the matrix used first in the 238 product of the 12 monthly matrices  $M_k$ , we obtained the size structure at the end of each 239 month of the year. Elasticities were calculated through the reduction in the asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  induced by 10% reduction on all monthly matrices  $M_k$  in each life-240 history trait successively and independently (i.e. survival of each class, fertility, reproductive 241 242 cycle duration and growth) before the calculation of the matrix L. We also examined the 243 monthly variability of this elasticity pattern. For this, we applied an episodic but more severe 244 50 % reduction in juvenile survival (s1 and s2), adult survival (s3, s4 and s5) and fertility successively and independently on only one monthly matrix  $\mathbf{M}_k$  before the calculation of the 245 246 matrix L.

247

## 248 Case study on the Amous watershed

Following the transplantation methodology developed in our group<sup>14-17</sup>, a campaign of *in* 249 250 situ assays was conducted in March 2008 in four stations of the Amous watershed, a French 251 river known to be contaminated by heavy metals originating from mine drainage from the former mine at Carnoulès<sup>4, 30</sup>. The same four stations as in these two previous studies were 252 253 considered: three stations along the Amous River: Upstream -1500 m, Downstream +1200 m254 and Downstream +3500 m with different levels of metallic contamination (i.e., Upstream 255 -1500 m < Downstream + 3500 m < Downstream + 1200 m, for metal bioaccumulation data  $^{30}$ ), and a fourth reference station on a tributary from the same river system (*Tributary*) that is 256 257 not impacted by metal-loaded mine leachates. Juvenile survival, adult survival and fertility 258 were measured in the different stations. We used gammarids from a station displaying good water quality and currently used by our laboratory for *in situ* assays<sup>14-17</sup> located upstream of 259 260 the Bourbre River. To estimate juvenile survival, four replicates of 12 individuals were placed 261 in cylinders capped at their ends with pieces of netting (mesh size, 350 µm). For adult 262 survival and fertility, three replicates of seven pre-copulatory pairs were placed in cylinders 263 (mesh size, 1 mm). Gammarids were exposed for 21 days and were fed *ad libitum* with alder 264 leaves. At the end of exposure, gammarids were counted and fertility was measured (i.e. 265 number of embryos in the marsupium). To estimate population impacts, we integrated these 266 different individual impacts into our population model in terms of percentage of demographic 267 rate reduction in comparison to the control levels observed in the reference station Tributary.

268

### 269 Statistical analyses

Statistical procedures and population models were implemented with the R software <sup>31</sup>.
Before performing the ANOVA procedure, normality and homoscedasticity were checked
using the Shapiro-Wilk and Bartlett tests.

273

#### **3. RESULTS**

## 275 Field-based demographic sampling: size structure and fertility

Changes of size distribution in the population, as estimated with the monthly field-based demographic sampling, are presented in Figure S1. The highest densities were observed in autumn and at the beginning of winter, while the lowest densities were observed in winter and spring. We observed highly fluctuating densities of juveniles, with very low densities in spring and high densities during the rest of the year, particularly autumn. Contrasting with juveniles, adults are present throughout the year with little variability and persist during winter. Considering 1% and 99% percentiles in total size distributions, we estimated a size at 283 birth equal to 2.3 ( $\pm$  0.2) mm and a maximum size equal to 8.2 ( $\pm$  0.3) mm. Considering 1% 284 percentiles of reproductive female size distributions, we estimated a size at maturity equal to 285 5.2 ( $\pm$  0.3) mm. These values appeared constant during the year. The monthly demographic sampling allowed us to estimate the percentage of females in reproduction  $\rho_i(k)$  and the sex 286 ratio  $sr_i(k)$ . We observed substantial between-month and between-class variability of  $\rho_i(k)$ 287 values (from 0.1 to 95%). For all months, we observed an increase in this percentage between 288 289 the three size classes. Furthermore, we noted low percentages of reproductive females at the 290 end of autumn and during winter, as well as high percentages during spring and summer. For 291 sex ratio  $sr_{i}(k)$ , we generally observed an equal number of males and females. Consequently, 292 we set the sex ratio at 0.5 in the model. A strong positive relationship was detected between 293 body size and fertility without seasonal influence (Figure S2). Size class A1 females had a 294 mean fertility of 3.6 ( $\pm$  1.3) embryos, A2 females a mean fertility of 5.1 ( $\pm$  1.6), and A3 295 females a mean fertility of 9.2 ( $\pm$  2.9) embryos.

296

#### 297 Monthly variability of growth rates and interlaying intervals

The measurements taken during the laboratory experiment on growth are presented on Figure S3 (A, B, C), showing that individuals grew faster when temperature increased. With the logistic models fitted simultaneously on the three size classes (Figure S3 A, B, C), we estimated daily growth rates for each temperature. Between 7.0 and 16.4°C, they varied from 0.008 to 0.021 day<sup>-1</sup>. In this temperature range, consistent with temperatures recorded at the study site during the year, we fitted a linear model between water temperature  $\theta$  (in °C) and daily growth rate r (day<sup>-1</sup>):

$$305 r(\theta) = 0.0014 \ \theta - 0.0024 (4)$$

306 During the *in situ* assays performed at different seasons, we observed substantial variability 307 in daily gain in size (*i.e.*, between 0.011 and 0.052 mm.day<sup>-1</sup> depending on the season and the size-class). When the observed sizes were compared for each size class with values predicted from the logistic model established in laboratory exposure (eq. 1) combined with (eq. 4), we observed a good correlation (Spearman rank correlation test, p < 0.05,  $r^2 = 0.87$ ) (Figure S3 D), which validates the fact that this variability in growth rates is mainly related to water temperature variability between the different caging experiments.

During the *in situ* experiments, we recorded an interlaying interval of 34 days in spring and 26 days in summer. These values are consistent with model predictions from eq. 2, which predicts durations of 35.5 and 27.1 days, respectively. During winter and autumn, we were not able to follow females up to the end of the reproductive cycle due to the low temperature which induces long reproductive cycles.

318

# 319 **Population model analysis**

320 Regarding parameter estimation (Table S1), we observed considerable monthly and between-class variability in reproductive rates  $f_i(k)$ , which varied from 0.01 to 7.07 in the 321 mean number of juveniles produced per month per female. Concerning transition rates  $g_{i,i}(k)$ , 322 323 we also observed high monthly variability, with a majority of individuals staying in their 324 initial size class during the coldest months, whereas during months with a high water 325 temperature, a majority of individuals moved up one or two size classes from month to 326 month. Computed adult survival rates show substantial seasonal variability with low survival 327 rates in summer, whereas survival rates were high in winter and spring. Furthermore, size 328 class A3 showed the lowest survival rates for all months. Juvenile survival rates were 329 generally higher than adult survival rates. For some months, we calculated survival rates 330 higher than 1, in particular when densities were low (*i.e.* the uncertainty in count estimates 331 increased with smaller size samples) or for size class J1 (i.e. gammarids of the size class J1 332 were very small and therefore difficult to sample, which makes density estimation difficult).

To generate a more robust estimation of survival rates for each month *k* to implement the population model, we used the same smoothing methodology as in our study on the mollusc *Potamopyrgus*<sup>12</sup>. We calculated the geometric mean of the survival rate estimates for months k-1, *k* and *k*+1.

337 The asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  was estimated at 1.07. We computed the stable 338 size distribution corresponding to the structure of the population at the end of November, 339 February, May and August (Figure 1). We observed good consistency with field data of the 340 demographic sampling (chi-square tests not significant for the four seasons). The elasticity 341 analysis on matrix L (Figure 2) highlights that the asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  is 342 more sensitive to relative changes in juvenile survival rates than to changes in the other life-343 history parameters. The life-history traits corresponding to the second highest elasticity are the survival rates of small adults (i.e. elasticities of s3 and s4), followed by fertility (b), 344 345 interlaying interval (d), growth rate (r) and survival rate of larger adults (s3). Although the 346 population is generally more sensitive to impacts on juvenile survival, when we applied 50% 347 reductions in juvenile survival, adult survival or fertility rates successively on each monthly 348 matrix  $M_k$ , we observed a strong variability of population sensitivity throughout the year 349 (Figure 3). Reduction in juvenile survival rates led to the highest impacts in June, then in 350 autumn. Concerning adult survival, we noted the highest impacts in winter with more than 351 20% reduction in  $\lambda$  when survival reduction occurred in January, February or March. Finally, 352 concerning fertility, we observed a bimodal pattern with the highest impacts in April and in 353 July-August.

354

355 Case study on the Amous watershed

In comparison to the reference station *Tributary*, we observed impacts on juvenile survival rates ( $s_j$ ) in *Upstream* -1500 m and *Downstream* +1200 m (unilateral proportion test, p < 1000 358 0.05), on adult survival rates (s<sub>a</sub>) in Downstream +1200 m (unilateral proportion test, p < 1000359 0.05) and on fertility (b) in Upstream -1500m and Downstream +3500m (Wilcoxon rank 360 sum test, p < 0.05) (Table 1 A). In *Downstream* +1200 m, we did not record fertility due to 361 excessively high adult mortality. When we applied simultaneously the effects in term of 362 percentage of reduction in comparison to the reference site *Tributary* on all monthly matrices  $M_{k}$  before the calculation of the matrix L, we predicted severe impacts on the asymptotic 363 364 population growth rate in all contaminated stations (Table 1 B, Table S2). We also calculated 365 the specific impacts of the degradation of each life-history trait (Table 1 B, Table S2) with a 366 one-by-one application of the effects on each life-history-trait in term of percentage of 367 reduction in comparison to the reference site Tributary. In this way, we noted that in 368 Upstream -1500 m impacts on fertility were responsible for the great majority of global 369 impacts on population dynamics, whereas in *Downstream* +1200 m, reduction in juvenile 370 survival rates had the greatest impact at the population level.

371

#### 372 4. DISCUSSION

## 373 Picturing the *G. fossarum* population biology in the field

374 We have described the characteristics of one population of G. fossarum by means of a 375 combination of a field survey and laboratory or in situ experiments. During the field-based 376 demographic sampling, we observed fluctuating densities throughout the year (Figure S1) 377 with high-density peaks (*i.e.* more than 800 gammarids per m<sup>2</sup> in September and December) 378 and periods of lower densities, in particular at the end of winter and at the beginning of spring 379 . This high seasonal variability in gammarid density agrees with other studies on G. fossarum 380 <sup>32-34</sup>. Our population is mainly composed of juveniles, except in spring where adults are more abundant, agreeing with previous data <sup>32</sup>. In this way, the persistence of the population at the 381 382 beginning of spring when densities are minimal is ensured by the survival of an overwintering 383 stock of adults. As for the percentage of reproductive females, we observed significant between-month variability with a high percentage in summer and a very low percentage in 384 winter. This pattern is consistent with other studies on G. fossarum  $^{32}$  or other gammarid 385 species <sup>35, 36</sup>, which report a higher reproductive activity in warm seasons. The estimation of 386 387 the seasonal variability of life-history traits confirmed our primary hypothesis that 388 temperature is the main source of variability. This is consistent with previous ecophysiological studies, which have shown that daily growth rates <sup>22, 25, 27, 37</sup> and interlaying 389 intervals <sup>23, 38-40</sup> are mainly modulated by temperature. Density-dependent processes could 390 391 also be involved in temporal patterns of survival, and they could further be taken into account 392 with an appropriate amendment of our model. But we should dispose from a multi-year 393 demographic monitoring (ongoing study), to decipher whether such effects occur here in 394 Gammarus population dynamics.

395 Nevertheless, this complex population dynamics in a natural freshwater environment is well 396 described by the different outcomes of our population model. Indeed, from the analysis of the 397 annual matrix model, a good match was found between the stable size distribution computed 398 for each season and the population structure observed during the field demographic sampling 399 (Figure 1). This highlights that the present modelling approach succeeds in properly 400 describing the dynamics of this G. fossarum population throughout the year. It confirms that 401 periodic matrix population models with size classes can be very useful tools to capture the dynamics of such small invertebrate species <sup>12</sup>. We showed that the population dynamics is 402 403 particularly vulnerable to juvenile mortality (Figure 2). This high sensitivity to juvenile 404 survival reduction is consistent with a study on the estuarine amphipod Leptocheirus *plumulosus*<sup>41</sup>. More generally, it also agrees with Forbes et al. <sup>42</sup>, who concluded that benthic 405 406 macro-invertebrate species generally show a high sensitivity to reduction on juvenile survival 407 rates.

408 In addition, the sensitivity of the Gammarus population studied varies substantially between 409 months (Figure 3). For instance, the population dynamics appeared highly sensitive to adult 410 survival reductions in winter, whereas it is more sensitive to fertility inhibitions in April, July and August. McGee and Spencer<sup>41, 43</sup> also concluded in high monthly variability of 411 412 population sensitivity, but the monthly sensitivity pattern was different in L. plumulosus. 413 These contrasting patterns highlight the role of species life-histories in governing 414 demographic impacts. The pattern of demographic sensitivity in G. fossarum is consistent 415 with our understanding of its population biology. We observed a functioning of the population 416 with two renewal time periods in the year. In spring, an overwintering stock of adults 417 provides the main contributors to population renewal, and this explains the high sensitivity to 418 the adult survival rate in winter and a peak of fertility sensitivity in April (Figure 3). The 419 juveniles produced by these surviving breeders in early spring reach maturity in summer and 420 in turn contribute to the production of new individuals in the population. This results in a 421 second peak of sensitivity to fertility inhibitions in July and August, preceded by a peak of 422 sensitivity to juvenile survival rate reductions in April and May. Thereafter, high sensitivity to 423 juvenile survival reduction appears during autumn, because the survivors from this second 424 wave of new individuals constitute the overwintering stock of adults, which mainly ensures 425 the population restarting in the next year. The modelling approach developed in this study is 426 thus suitable to mechanistically understand the complexity of the demographic processes 427 occurring in a wild G. fossarum population. Therefore, this approach can be used to anticipate 428 population impacts of life-history trait alterations caused by toxic environmental 429 contaminations, taking into account the influence of life-history and phenology for this effect 430 upscalingat the population level. On a methodological point, our modelling approach would 431 be fully complemented with the challenging possibility to adapt in the present case of a birth

flow population, the analytical methodology of sensitivity analysis developed for periodic
 matrix models <sup>20</sup>.

434

# 435 Application to improve the ecological relevance of water quality diagnostic

436 Combining active biomonitoring approaches and population modelling is a promising way 437 to perform an ecologically relevant assessment at the population level for diagnostic purposes <sup>6</sup>. On the one hand, the biomonitoring methodology of *in situ* caging makes it possible to 438 measure the impact of toxicants on the life-history traits of native species in the field <sup>44</sup>. On 439 440 the other hand, population models, which are recognized as relevant tools for projecting individual effects to consequences on population dynamics <sup>6-8</sup>, provide an assessment at an 441 442 ecologically relevant level of biological organization. We have illustrated this approach herein with the Amous watershed study. At the three contaminated stations, we observed impacts on 443 444 life-history traits on caged gammarids (Table 1). When introducing these alterations of life-445 history traits in the population model, in all cases we anticipated severe consequences on the asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  (between 80 and 99% reduction, Table 1). Interestingly, 446 447 we also separately considered the potential reduction in  $\lambda$  of the impacts observed on the 448 different life-history traits. Thereby, in comparison with the reference station Tributary, we 449 observed that a 15% reduction in the juvenile survival rate (*i.e.* in the station Upstream -1500450 m) impacts  $\lambda$  with the same severity as a 56% reduction in the adult survival rate (*i.e.* in the 451 station Downstream +1200 m) or a 58% reduction in fertility (*i.e.* in the station Downstream 452 +3500 m). This pattern is explained by the greater sensitivity of population dynamics to 453 impacts on juvenile survival as revealed by the model's elasticity analysis. Of note, 454 accrediting the relevance of the model predictions, a natural gammarid population is present all along the year in the station Tributary, while no gammarids can be harvested in the two 455 456 contaminated Downstream stations. In the station Upstream -1500m, gammarids can be found 457 episodically, but these are mainly adults, with high occurrence of necrotic gills; no embryos 458 are present in females, and juvenile density is quite null. These observations indicate that 459 organisms present in this station do not constitute a durable population, but are rather drifting 460 animals from more upstream pristine areas.

461 Furthermore, this modelling approach with periodic matrix population models has particular 462 value for the diagnostic of water quality. Indeed, in addition to characterizing the impact of 463 toxicants in persistent chronic pollution contexts, the periodic structure of these models can 464 anticipate the impact of pulsed sources of contamination, such as peaks of pesticides or 465 contaminations with seasonal variability due to water flow, run-off or effluent emission 466 management. This is in fact particularly relevant with regard to significant between-month 467 differences in population vulnerability (Figure 3). Thus the development of population models 468 that integrate seasonality is a relevant way to increase our ability to project toxic effects on 469 individual performance onto population demographic consequences. One question still to be 470 resolved is how much between-population and between-species variability of life-history 471 phenology could condition the relevance of the approach, which presumed a genericity of 472 demographic patterns in Gammarids.

473 Finally, this study contributes to establishing gammarids as sentinel species for European freshwater ecosystems <sup>6, 13</sup>. Indeed, we have already mentioned that numerous biomarkers 474 475 tracking toxic effects at the molecular level and *in situ* bioassay protocols are available in 476 these species. Here we demonstrate how alterations of life-history traits could be translated in 477 terms of potential population impacts, by means of an ecologically relevant population model. 478 Therefore, gammarids are good candidates to elaborate multilevel assessment schemes for 479 environmental monitoring. Indeed, based on mechanistic hypotheses as proposed for the predictive hazard assessment of chemical compounds <sup>45-47</sup>, one could establish quantitative 480 links between sub-individual biomarker responses and individual performance alterations 48-481

| 482 | <sup>50</sup> , and then use population modelling. In the context of environmental management, this |
|-----|---|
| 483 | could allow combining the sensitivity and the specificity of field ecotoxicological tools with      |
| 484 | the ecological relevance of a diagnostic of toxicity projected at the population level.             |
|     |   |

#### 486 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

## 487 Supporting Information

Supporting information provides details on biological data measurement allowing the parameterization of the population model. Figure S1 relates monthly field-based demographic sampling data, Figure S2 relates details on the relationship between body size and female fertility, and Figure S3 relates details on growth experiments. Table S1 gives the different parameters of the population model (reproductive rates, transition rates and survival rates) and Table S2 gives the actual lambda values corresponding to the Table 1 B. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

495

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501 Note

502 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

503

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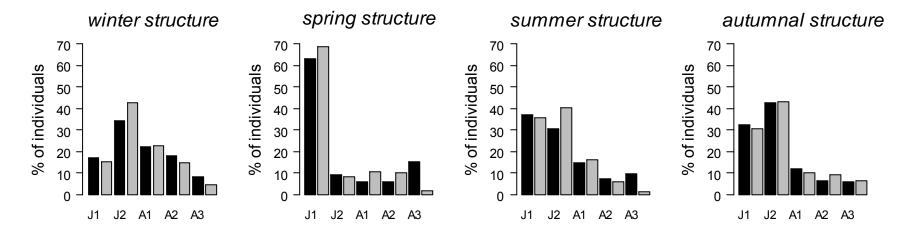
## 659 **TABLES**

**Table 1. A)** Juvenile survival (%), adult survival (%) and fertility (embryos per females) values measured in the stations in the Amous watershed. \* indicated significant inhibitions in comparison with the reference station Tributary. **B)** Percentage of inhibition of population growth rate  $\lambda$  caused by the different individual impacts observed in the three contaminated stations.

|   | Stations    |                  |                    |                    |  |  |  |
|---|-------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|--|--|
|   | Tributary   | Upstream -1500 m | Downstream +1200 m | Downstream +3500 m |  |  |  |
| A) Recorded individual traits during in situ assay                |             |                  |                    |                    |  |  |  |
| juvenile survival<br>(%)  | 83          | 71*              | 19*                | 95                 |  |  |  |
| adult survival (%)  | 96          | 92               | 42*                | 94                 |  |  |  |
| fertility<br>(embryos per female)                                 | 18.0        | 1.7*             | /                  | 7.5*               |  |  |  |
| B) Projected popula   | tion impact | s                |                    |                    |  |  |  |
| (% reduction in the asymptotic population growth rate $\lambda$ ) |             |                  |                    |                    |  |  |  |
| all traits  | /           | 99               | 99                 | 80                 |  |  |  |
| juvenile survival   | /           | 65               | 99                 | no impact          |  |  |  |
| adult survival  | /           | no impact        | 81                 | no impact          |  |  |  |
| fertility   | /           | 98               | /                  | 80                 |  |  |  |

665

# 667 FIGURES



#### 668

669 Figure 1. Stable size distributions computed from the population model (in black) and size-distributions observed during the field-based

670 demographic sampling of the *Gammarus fossarum* population (in grey). J1 and J2 correspond to the two classes of juveniles of the model; A1,

A2 and A3 correspond to the three classes of adults.

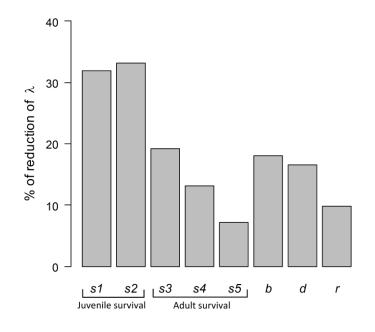
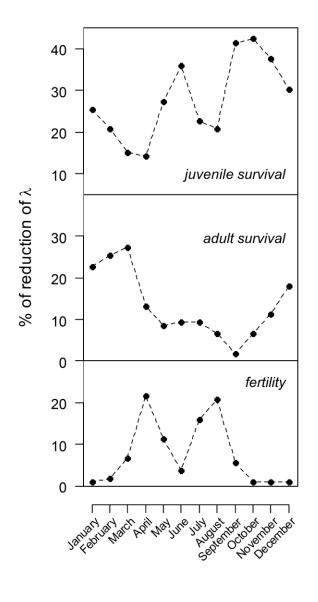


Figure 2. Reduction in the annual asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  induced by a 10% reduction in juvenile survival rates (s1 and s2), adult survival rates (s3, s4 and s5), fertility (*b*), growth (*r*) or a 10% increase in reproductive cycle duration (*d*) applied simultaneously to each month of the year.



**Figure 3.** Reduction in annual asymptotic population growth rate  $\lambda$  induced by a 50% reduction in juvenile survival rates (s1 and s2), adult survival rates (s3, s4 and s5) and fertility applied during the different months in the year.