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Developing a novel approach to analyse the regimes of temporary streams and their controls on aquatic biota

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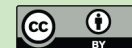
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Abstract

Temporary streams are those water courses that undergo the recurrent cessation of flow or the complete drying of their channel. The biological communities in temporary stream reaches are strongly dependent on the temporal changes of the aquatic habitats determined by the hydrological conditions. The use of the aquatic fauna structural and functional characteristics to assess the ecological quality of a temporary stream reach can not therefore be made without taking into account the controls imposed by the hydrological regime. This paper develops some methods for analysing temporary streams' aquatic regimes, based on the definition of six *aquatic states* that summarize the sets of mesohabitats occurring on a given reach at a particular moment, depending on the hydrological conditions: *flood*, *riffles*, *connected*, *pools*, *dry* and *arid*. We used the water discharge records from gauging stations or simulations using rainfall-runoff models to infer the temporal patterns of occurrence of these states using the developed *aquatic states frequency graph*. The visual analysis of this graph is complemented by the development of two metrics based on the permanence of flow and the seasonal predictability of zero flow periods. Finally, a classification of the aquatic regimes of temporary streams in terms of their influence over the development of aquatic life is put forward, defining *Permanent*, *Temporary-pools*, *Temporary-dry* and *Episodic* regime types. All these methods were tested with data from eight temporary streams around the Mediterranean from MIRAGE project and its application was a precondition to assess the ecological quality of these streams using the current methods prescribed in the European Water Framework Directive for macroinvertebrate communities.

1 Introduction

Temporary streams are water courses that undergo the recurrent cessation of flow or the complete drying of their channel. This type of water course is not only widespread in dry climate areas (e.g. Rossouw et al., 2005; Levick et al., 2008), but constitutes

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also the first-order stream network in most drainage basins in wetter climates (Fritz et al., 2006). The prevalence of these streams is expected to increase in the near future because of both climate warming and rising water consumption due to human activities (Tooth, 2000; Larned et al., 2010). The interruption of the aquatic conditions in temporary streams plays a determinant role in their ecological communities (Boulton, 1989; Arscott et al., 2010), so much so that temporary streams should be considered a distinct class of ecosystems instead of simply hydrologically challenged permanent streams (Larned et al., 2010). Indeed, though there are still severe gaps in our knowledge of these streams that affect their sound management, the traditional perception among managers that a “healthy” stream must flow all the year round can no longer be sustained (Boulton et al., 2000).

Many studies have been devoted to the hydrological characterization of temporary streams using diverse metrics. The frequency of the zero-flow periods (or its complementary, flow permanence) is the first criterion for all of them (e.g. Hedman and Osterkamp, 1982; Poff, 1996), whereas the seasonality of these periods is also used in some classifications (Uys and O’Keeffe, 1997; Rossouw et al., 2005; Kennard et al., 2010). A few authors also take into account the occurrence of isolated pools during periods without flow (Uys and O’Keeffe, 1997; Boulton et al., 2000). In fact, in ecological terms, the more relevant features of the water regime in temporary streams are the temporal and spatial patterns of occurrence or disappearance of the features of the aquatic habitats that depend on the presence and flow of water (hereafter called meso-habitats), such as riffles and pools, as well as the connectivity of water flow between them (e.g. Lake, 2007; Bonada et al., 2007; Chaves et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the information recorded at network gauging stations consists of water discharges, but the occurrence of the diverse habitats and particularly of pools during periods of zero discharge is not recorded despite their prominent ecological role (e.g. Uys and O’Keeffe, 1997; Bond and Cottingham, 2008).

If predictability hypotheses concerning the hydrological controls on aquatic life may be launched for temporary streams, the methods for measuring the ecological status of

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First, the concept of Aquatic State, which summarizes the set of aquatic mesohabitats occurring on a given reach at a particular moment depending on the hydrological conditions is introduced. Six states are defined: flood, riffles, connected pools, disconnected pools, dry and arid (definitions provided below). The set of aquatic mesohabitats occurring on a temporary stream reach is known to be crucial for the presence and abundance of aquatic fauna when sampled. Thus, pools act as refuges for fish, providing places of survival during the absence of flow (Magoulik and Kobza, 2003) or influencing their fitness (Spranza and Stanley, 2000). The effect of the aquatic state on the community of macroinvertebrates has been studied in some detail (Feminella, 1996; Bonada et al., 2006; Acuña et al., 2005), as well as the interaction between different trophic levels (Ludlam and Magoulick, 2009). The comparison of communities following multiyear droughts (Magalhães et al., 2007) or the comparison between communities in temporary and permanent streams (Mas-Martí et al., 2010) emphasized the importance of knowing the actual aquatic state and its evolution over time. It is known that fauna in temporary streams are more complex and taxa richness may be even higher than in permanent ones, because the replacement of different aquatic states through the year gives opportunities to a succession of species, making the final richness higher than in permanent streams (e.g. Bonada et al., 2006; García-Roger et al., 2011). The index EPT (Number of taxa of Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera and Trichoptera) and EPT versus OCH (Taxa of Odonata, Coleoptera and Heteroptera) has proved to be a good indicator of the change of aquatic state (Bonada et al., 2006). The six aquatic states defined below somewhat embrace the five “hydrologic conditions” defined by Fritz et al. (2006), from “no surface water” (0) to “surface flow continuous” (4), but here we put more emphasis on the relevance of the states for biological communities than in the hydrological conditions “per se”.

However, there are nearly no data on the presence, duration and inter-annual variability of different aquatic states in temporary streams, and we can not expect that this kind of data will be operationally recorded in the near future. Therefore, it is necessary to anticipate the temporal patterns of occurrence of these states from the available

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flow records or simulations, which is the second step proposed below. If the water discharge thresholds that separate the aquatic states are defined, the available flow statistics may be transformed into aquatic states statistics. A similar procedure is in common use to assess the chronicle of mesohabitats for fishes from water discharge data, in permanent streams (e.g. Capra et al., 1995). Boulton (2003) outlined the existence of “critical stages” in macroinvertebrate aquatic systems, defined by critical thresholds of discharge or water level at which mesohabitats become isolated or dry during a drought; the approach in the present study is consistent with that scheme, although more attention is paid here to the states between the thresholds and to the linkages with hydrologic data for making possible the operational application to stream regimes analysis. Moreover the analysis of the complex temporal patterns of occurrence of aquatic states is then made more apparent through the development of the Aquatic States Frequency Graph (ASFG), which shows the monthly frequency of occurrence of the diverse aquatic states throughout the year.

This graphic method allows a quick visualisation of the aquatic regime of a temporary stream, but its efficient characterisation needs the use of some metrics to rank and compare regimes, as well as to analyse relationships with biological indices or metrics. This is undertaken furthermore, through the development and testing of some metrics based on the statistics of the more ecologically relevant feature of water discharge records: the periods with zero flows. This is also one of the novelties of our approach compared with previous works.

Finally, a classification of the aquatic regimes of temporary streams is introduced. This is a conceptual classification based on the controls imposed by the temporal patterns of occurrence of aquatic mesohabitats on biological communities and their relevance for monitoring purposes. This is an important step to be used in the future for managers, specially when the WFD rationale is applied to determine the Ecological Status of these streams. Nevertheless, to be operational, this classification should be able for application to stream reaches using recorded or modelled hydrological data. Using this approach we emphasize the fact that prior to any biological sampling; the

application of the metrics proposed has to be calculated and the actual mesohabitat condition known for judging if the current methodologies available for the measure of Ecological Status may be applied.

In summary, this analysis is intended to be useful for three main purposes: improvement in the investigation of the hydrological constraints on the development of aquatic life, the characterisation and classification of aquatic stream regimes (mesohabitat conditions), and the design of the biological sampling calendars (i.e. scheduling biota sampling at the more ecologically significant moments: see Bond and Cottingham, 2008). The ultimate goal is the development of tools for characterising the hydrological constraints on the development of aquatic life in stream reaches for both research and management applications. This method is being developed within the European MIRAGE project, which addresses the improvement of the Water Framework Directive by including temporary streams properly.

2 Methodological approach

The approach developed consists of four steps, as introduced above. In the first step, the mesohabitat conditions (here called aquatic states) relevant to the growth of aquatic life in temporary streams are clearly defined. The second step investigates the temporal patterns of occurrence of the aquatic states at the reach scale, inferred from gauging stations data and shown in a graph. As the periods with zero flow are the key identifiable hydrological driver of biological communities, investigating the metrics that best characterize the frequency and predictability of these periods is the objective of our third step. Finally, classification of the aquatic regimes of the temporary streams is attempted in the fourth step. The first and second steps follow a logical sequence, but the third and four steps are rather independent although they remain consistent with the first two.

The data used for implementing the methods come from the records from gauging stations at several sites around the European Mediterranean (Fig. 1). Table 1 shows the

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whereas their occurrence is considered highly relevant to the health of river systems (Junk et al., 1989). This state is not differentiated from the following one neither in the Fritz et al's. (2006) nor in the Boulton's (2003) arrangements.

– *Riffles*: water discharge is high enough to allow the occurrence of all the available aquatic habitats in the reach, including the abundant presence of riffles, allowing optimum hydraulic connectivity between the diverse habitats. This is the habitual state in permanent streams and the one with the wider range of discharges in temporary streams. This state corresponds to the “surface flow continuous (4)” condition defined by Fritz et al. (2006), whereas Boulton (2003) differentiated two intermediate states above or below the critical step of water body “isolation from the littoral vegetation”.

– *Connected pools*: water discharge is low but sufficient to connect most pools in the reach through water rivulets. Riffles are absent or limited to scarce rapid flow areas between main pools (Bonada et al., 2006). This state corresponds to the “flow only interstitial (3)” condition by Fritz et al. (2006), and below the “loss of riffle” Boulton's (2003) critical step.

– *Pools*: surface discharge is close to zero, but a number of water pools remain in the stream bed. If this is alluvial, some sub-surface connectivity of water may occur that allows the preservation of the physico-chemical quality of the water in the pools. If the stream bed is impervious, the pool waters may suffer quality deterioration trends or cycles. The ecological importance of pools remaining after the cessation of flow has been highlighted in many papers (e.g. Boulton, 1989; Buffagni, et al., 2009). This state corresponds to both “surface water present but no visible flow (2)” and ‘surface water in pools only (1) conditions defined by Fritz et al. (2006), whereas it is just mentioned but not differentiated from the former one by a critical step in Boulton (2003).

– *Dry*: most of the stream bed is devoid of surface water in the reach, although alluvium may remain wet enough to allow hyporheic life (alluvium water content is higher than the field capacity point). The hyporheic zone may be a refuge for many animals when surface water is absent (Boulton, 1989; Boulton et al., 1998), so it should be considered also as an aquatic mesohabitat. This state is included within the “no surface

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water (0)” condition defined by Fritz et al. (2006), and below the “loss of surface water” critical step defined by Boulton (2003).

– *Arid*: the entire stream bed is devoid of surface water in the reach and alluvium is dry, impeding active hyporheic life (alluvium water content is lower than field capacity and similar to the surrounding soils in terrestrial locations). Some invertebrates may survive as desiccation-resistant stages in dry substrata for some time (Boulton, 1989). This state is also included within the “no surface water (0)” condition of Fritz et al. (2006), and below the “drying hyporheic zone” critical step of Boulton (2003).

2.2 Second step. Time patterns of occurrence of aquatic states

Although temperature and electrical conductivity of either water or bed sediments may be used for recording the timing of hydrological conditions in the absence of flow (Constantz et al., 2001; Blasch et al., 2003; Fritz et al., 2006), the only information currently available on stream water regimes is from flow discharge records, from either measurements at gauging stations or simulations using rainfall-runoff models. Although in many cases daily flows are available, a monthly time scale (as mentioned above) is proposed for the analysis of the regimes, since it is more easily available from the records and models.

Flow data from a gauging station may be used to obtain the statistics of the occurrence of the wetter aquatic states (flood, riffles, connected, pools), following the procedure shown in Fig. 2 that is made easy to the reader through the use of the ASFG.xls spreadsheet available as Electronic Supplementary Material to this paper. Flow simulations obtained with a rainfall-runoff model may be alternatively used, but as most models will not be able to simulate zero water discharges, the identification of a discharge threshold equivalent to zero will be necessary.

The most critical step of the procedure is the selection of the threshold flow values that separate the occurrence of the diverse aquatic states. This that can be done with the help of the shape of the flow duration curve (distribution function of flow discharges, Fig. 3). To identify these thresholds correctly, field observations on the aquatic states

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synchronous with discharge measurements are needed. However, in the absence of these observations, thresholds can be provisionally estimated by taking into account the width and regularity of the stream bed reach near the gauging station.

The aquatic state corresponding to minimum recorded discharge values (close to zero) depends on the design of the gauging station and the characteristics of the reach. For reaches over alluvial sediments with gauging stations designed to impede sub-surface flow below them, very low flow may be expected to correspond approximately to the threshold between *dry* and *pool* aquatic states. In contrast, for stream reaches over impervious bedrock or alluvial ones with gauging stations allowing the bypass of sub-surface flow, minimum recorded flow may be expected to represent the threshold between *pool* and *connected* states. Consequently, discharge data cannot be used to derive information on the occurrence of the *arid* aquatic state in the first case and of the *dry* and *arid* aquatic states in the second case. Once the discharge thresholds between aquatic states are defined, they are used to convert the table of monthly discharges into the tables of occurrence of these aquatic states.

Then, the long-term monthly frequencies obtained for the diverse aquatic states are obtained and plotted on an Aquatic States Frequency Graph (ASFG), with the frequencies accumulating from drier to wetter states for every month. In this study, data from 10 yr of daily flows were used, whenever available. Figure 4 shows the examples of ASFGs obtained for the various study sites. The discharge threshold values between aquatic states were estimated without field observations, using the expertise of the authors, and minimum measured flows were taken as the threshold between *dry* and *pool* states in the interim.

2.3 Third step: metrics for characterizing the aquatic regime in temporary rivers

The ASFG method given above allows appraisal of the aquatic regime of the reach, as it describes the mean annual prevalence and timing of aquatic states for a stream reach by month. Nevertheless, the displayed information is too complex to be synthesized in a few metrics, and it depends on the selection of flow thresholds.

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To circumvent these limitations, from the original discharge information we selected the metrics that synthesize the two main parameters that are relevant to river ecology: the duration and predictability periods with flow. Many studies are devoted to characterizing the flow regime of streams for ecological or management purposes with diverse metrics, but most of these metrics are conceived for permanent flow. For example, the Richards-Baker flashiness index (Baker et al., 2004) assigns zero flashiness values during the periods without flow because there is no change in the discharge values within them; subsequently but inconsistently, the longer the annual period without flow in a stream, the less flashy its regime is. In the present study, only metrics focusing on the analysis of the statistics of the cessation of flow were considered, as this is the only flow discharge feature directly linked to some major change in the aquatic states available from flow records. It may be hypothesized that the cessation of flow is the key feature defining the aquatic regime in a temporary stream (Boulton, 1989), and therefore the statistics of its metrics will summarize the main characteristics of the regimes of its aquatic states, seen in its ASFG.

The relative time with or without water flow is usually the metrics used for identifying temporary streams (e.g. Hedman and Osterkamp, 1982; Hewlett, 1982). Among regional flow regime studies, Poff (1996), in a widely used approach, employed only the mean number of days with zero flow per year; and Kennard et al. (2010) used both the mean and the coefficient of variation of the number of days with zero flow per year, although there are no studies analysing the ecological significance of this latter metric. In an ecological study of a single stream in New Zealand, Arscott et al. (2010) characterised the aquatic regime at several points by using flow permanence (long-term annual average of the percentage of time a given site had flowing water), flow duration (days of flow at a site prior to each sample date) and drying frequency (average number of drying transitions per year). Arscott's results showed that flow permanence and duration correlated closely, with the former being a good predictor of ecological features (see also Larned et al., 2010).

months for the remaining 6 drier months. Wet and dry 6-month periods mean here those with fewer and more zero-flow frequencies, respectively. The calculation of this metric is also made easy to the reader through the use of the ASFG.xls spreadsheet available as Supplement to this paper.

5 This variable is dimensionless and takes the value of 0 when zero flows occur equally throughout the year in the long run and 1 when all the zero flows occur in the same 6-month period every year. When the regime is fully permanent, this metric cannot be computed, so the value of 1 is set to indicate full predictability. It is worth stating that Sd_6 is defined at the 6-month scale, whereas the Colwell (1974) metrics were applied
10 at the monthly scale.

The redundancy between these six metrics (M_f , Sd_6 , D_f , P , C and M) was analysed by calculating the linear correlation coefficients when applied to the eight basins studied here (Table 2). All three of Colwell's (1974) predictability metrics (P , C and M) correlated significantly with flow permanence (M_f) and the first two correlated negatively with
15 drying frequency (D_f), whereas Sd_6 only correlated significantly with predictability (P). Indeed, a factor analysis (maximum likelihood factors method) built with this correlation matrix showed that two factors explained 89% of variance, in which M_f , D_f , P , C and M metrics had high absolute loads in the first factor, whereas only Sd_6 had a high load in the second factor (Table 3). The possible role of the time scale in the use of P , C
20 and M metrics was analysed by calculating them on the same 6-month periods used for the Sd_6 metric; the resulting 6-month values had correlation coefficients higher than 0.98 with the monthly values, showing that negligible information was added with this change of scale.

As a result of these tests, only flow permanence (M_f) and the seasonal predictability
25 of dry periods (Sd_6) were selected for the subsequent analyses. The former (or its conversion into the number of days with zero-flows) has been widely used and found to be significant for explaining the aquatic fauna, whereas the latter is the more orthogonal of the metrics tested and is easy to put in plain words in interviews when instrumental information is not available. This does not mean that the other metrics tested might not

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be useful for deeper analyses or for the investigation of aquatic regimes in other types of climate.

2.4 Fourth step: classifying temporary stream aquatic regimes

Although the ASFG and regime metrics shown in the preceding sections are deemed sufficient for analysing and comparing temporary stream regimes, a classification of temporary streams within the perspective of the present paper is necessary for operational purposes, as different stream regimes will need different sampling strategies and standards for defining the biological quality of stream waters (e.g. Bond and Cottingham, 2008), which is one of the most important objectives of the MIRAGE project.

Although there is some agreement on the main terminology for classification of temporary stream regimes, the criteria used to establish the limits between the regime classes vary between different authors (Rossouw et al., 2005; Levick et al., 2008). On the basis of the above considerations and the classifications proposed by Uys and O’Keeffe (1997) and Boulton et al. (2000), four main conceptual types of streams were defined by the MIRAGE project in function of the controls imposed by the time patterns of occurrence of aquatic mesohabitats on biological communities and their relevance for monitoring purposes:

P (permanent or perennial): no relevant recurrent controls imposed on biological communities by lack of flow. Monitoring methods have already been defined (e.g. Hering et al., 2006).

IP (intermittent-pools): stream’s aquatic regime allows every year the development of biological communities similar to those in permanent streams, but after the wet season flow is discontinued and only pools with impoverished communities remain. Ecological quality may be assessed as for permanent streams, though the biological sampling calendar may need adaptation to the hydrological regime. Sampling has to be done during the period with the more persistent flow.

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simple criteria were used to order the graphs in the figure, placing the wetter basins at the top and the more seasonal ones on the right-hand side.

The results obtained with the metrics of flow permanence, M_f , and seasonal predictability of dry periods, Sd_6 , are shown in Fig. 5. Here, the stations with the highest flow permanence are located on the right and those with higher seasonal predictability at the top. The boundaries between the regime types are tentative, because more sites should be analyzed.

The wetter streams, Rambla Minateda and Vène at station S, are both at the outlets of karstic systems and have near-permanent regimes. Nevertheless, the Vène stream undergone occasional dry periods in some summers, whereas, in the Rambla de Minateda, dry periods were more scattered throughout the year. Therefore, the respective Sd_6 metrics had different values for these streams and are clearly separate in Figure 5. The aquatic communities found in these streams should be no different from those living in perennial streams in the region (*Permanent* type).

At Vallcebre, the regime followed the equinoctial regime of precipitation: flow is more frequent in spring, whereas floods occur mainly in autumn and droughts may be scattered over 9 months of the year. The Evrotas stream showed somewhat higher flow permanence and a more regular seasonal pattern, with a higher value in the Sd_6 metric in Fig. 5. It may be expected that the aquatic communities in both streams will be similar to those in perennial streams (*Permanent* type), whereas at Vallcebre the communities might be expected to be temporarily affected by the cessation of flow and eventually by the complete drying of the stream, but expected to be similar to those living in perennial streams if sampled sufficiently after the scarce dry periods (*Intermittent-pools* type).

Both the Manol and Celone streams had similar flow permanence, but the graph in Fig. 4 shows much greater regularity for the Celone stream, where continuous flow normally occurs from January to April. Indeed, the Celone stream had higher seasonality, as shown by the higher value of the Sd_6 metric in Fig. 5. It is worth noting that the features shown for the Manol stream in Fig. 4 and the low Sd_6 metric are linked to the occurrence of some sporadic periods of flow every year but with irregular

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seasonal organisation in diverse years (low predictability). This may also be seen by analysing the drying frequency Df metrics for these streams, which gives 1.17 annual drying sequences for the Manol, but only 0.92 for the Celone. The characteristics of the aquatic communities living in these stream reaches may be expected to differ in spite of the similar value of their flow permanence. Indeed, as habitat conditions are very predictable in the Celone stream, during the wet season (from December to May) aquatic fauna are likely to be similar in richness and variety to those in perennial streams (*Intermittent-pools* type). On the contrary, as aquatic habitats are much less predictable in the Manol stream, aquatic fauna living in this stream are likely to be always less abundant and diverse, yielding low values of the biological metrics due to the hydrological constraints (*Intermittent-dry* type).

Finally, both the Vène stream at station K and the Cobres stream show the lowest frequency of flow occurrence, although the Cobres stream had higher predictability of flow (during winter), as shown in Fig. 4, and a much higher value of the Sd₆ metric, as shown in Fig. 5. This difference is also shown here by the drying frequency Df metrics, which is as high as 1.63 for Vène at station K, but only 0.95 for the Cobres. As in the former example, the characteristics of the aquatic fauna living in these streams are likely to differ because of the large difference in habitat predictability: the aquatic communities living in the Cobres stream may be well adapted to a dry but predictable regime (*Intermittent-dry* type), whereas those living in the Vène K are expected to be rather opportunistic (*Ephemeral* type).

4 Discussion

4.1 Stream regime analysis

In spite of the difficulties in working out the limits between the aquatic states defined above, the interim assessment of the flow thresholds used for the ASFGs and the use of the flow permanence Mf and seasonal predictability of dry periods Sd₆ metrics

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provided a clear and nuanced analysis of the establishment of aquatic regimes that were relevant for ecological and management purposes on the gauged reaches. When more field information is available on the threshold discharges that define the aquatic states on these reaches, the boundaries between states may be refined in the ASFGs, but their general shape will not change much because they are driven by the statistics of the objective zero flow values.

The analysis of the ASFG suggests that the duration of the states might be calculated for every month. However, as this graph is a long-term probability analysis, the actual duration (in a given year) must be analysed directly from the data series using other metrics. Here, although only the mean annual frequency of drying transitions D_f has been tested, other annual or monthly metrics might be useful to characterize the statistics of periods with or without flow. Indeed, at the test gauging stations the two metrics on flow permanence and predictability were sufficient to characterise and compare the aquatic regimes. However, if this kind of analysis is to be applied to temporary streams in other climates, some other metrics may be needed such as the timing of the drying period if its predictability is high.

Nevertheless, since most temporary streams are ungauged or poorly gauged, the methodology described above will be applicable to the relatively rare existing records from gauging stations. Rainfall-runoff models may be used to obtain simulated flow series for many sites at the monthly scale used, but there are two main difficulties: first, most models will not be able to simulate zero water discharges, so the identification of a discharge threshold equivalent to zero will be necessary to use the above-defined metrics (see also Kirkby et al., 2011); and second, simulated values will be natural ones not actual ones if these are affected by human activities.

Beyond the use of flow data and models, the permanence of flowing water in head-water streams has been operationally estimated from field surveys or topographic map data (Svec et al., 2005; Fritz et al., 2008). The presence of water at the pool scale has also been monitored by using temperature or electrical conductivity observations (Constantz et al., 2001; Blasch et al., 2002; Fritz et al., 2006) or, at the basin scale, remote

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sensing (Marcus and Fonstad, 2008). The estimates of flow permanence obtained through some of these methods might be used to find the zero discharge threshold of a model. Furthermore, the relatively simple meaning of the Mf and Sd₆ metrics may also allow the operational classification of a stream's aquatic regime assessment from interviews with people living near the streams.

Unfortunately, the drier aquatic states, particularly the *arid* state, cannot be suitably analysed from flow discharge records or simulations. The statistics of these states need other types of data beyond the water discharges usually measured or modelled in scientific or operational hydrology. Nevertheless, the examination of the ASFG may provide some insight into the possibilities of occurrence of these states over the course of the year and, when seasonality is high, it shows when pool occurrence or alluvium moisture needs to be tested for their recognition.

4.2 Ecological implications

As the six aquatic states and the subsequent analyses developed above were designed on the basis of preceding ecological studies in temporary waters, they can be expected to be useful for analysing the controls of the aquatic regime in the aquatic biological communities.

The first results obtained in the European MIRAGE project do indeed suggest this. Table 4 gives data on biological community metrics obtained with the methods described in Garcia-Roger et al. (2011) which are similar to those used at pan-European scale (Buffagni et al., 2006). The resulting biological water quality metrics are provided for four streams currently investigated in the MIRAGE project. Three of them have high flow permanence Mf and seasonality Sd₆ values (Vallcebre, Vène S station and Evrotas). Compared with permanent streams in the same area, their biological community metrics do not deviate very much in the wet period (i.e. spring). On the contrary, the Vène K stream, which has much lower values in the two metrics (see Fig. 5), would be classified as of poor ecological quality using the biological standards developed for permanent streams, in spite of its near-pristine quality. The low ecological

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standards particularly designed for them or other alternative methods (e.g. desiccation-resistant stages of aquatic fauna, terrestrial fauna, riparian environment. . .).

5 Researchers with data on biological water quality metrics in temporary streams are invited to test the methods described above, in order to investigate how temporary stream aquatic regimes control aquatic fauna. The preparation of the Aquatic States Frequency Graph and the calculation of the Mf and Sd₆ metrics from flow data may be made through the use of the ASFG.xls spreadsheet available as Electronic Supplementary Material to this paper.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at:

10 <http://www.hydrol-earth-syst-sci-discuss.net/8/9637/2011/hessd-8-9637-2011-supplement.zip>.

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Table 1. Main characteristics of the studied basins. Catchment area in km²; MAP= mean annual precipitation (mm); ETP= mean annual reference evapotranspiration (mm); MAR= mean annual runoff (mm).

Operational basin	Stream	station	Catchment area	MAP	ETP	MAR
Thau lagoon	Vène	Karst (K)	1.4*	668	1336	590*
Thau lagoon	Vène	Sanglier (S)	35	668	1336	332*
Candelaro	Celone	S. Vincenzo	85.8	723.6	1024	176
Guadiana	Cobres	Entradas	51	500	1080	116
Segura	Minateda	Minateda	1166*	316	770	9.6*
Llobregat	Vallcebre	Can Vila	0.56	823	862	260
Muga	Manol	Santa Llogaia	163	748	794	118
Evrotas	Evrotas	Vrontamas	2418*	802	980	47*

* Karstic areas with uncertain real groundwater recharge area.

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Table 2. Linear correlation coefficients between the metrics tested to analyse the statistics of zero flow periods in the basins studied.

	Mf	Sd ₆	Df	<i>P</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>M</i>
Mf	1	0.50	-0.82	0.77	0.89	-0.74
Sd ₆	0.50	1	-0.72	0.80	0.58	0.11
Df	-0.82	-0.72	1	-0.95	-0.92	0.45
<i>P</i>	0.77	0.80	-0.95	1	0.93	-0.38
<i>C</i>	0.89	0.58	-0.92	0.93	1	-0.69
<i>M</i>	-0.74	0.11	0.45	-0.38	-0.69	1

Values in **bold** are significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

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Table 3. Maximum likelihood factor loadings of the metrics analysed in Table 2.

Metrics	Factor 1	Factor 2
Mf	− 0.8799	0.1570
Sd ₆	−0.3221	0.8316
Df	0.7727	−0.53456
P	− 0.7424	0.6278
C	− 0.9200	0.31658
M	0.8765	0.4599

Figures in **bold** show absolute loadings > 0.7.

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**Fig. 1.** Location of the streams studied.[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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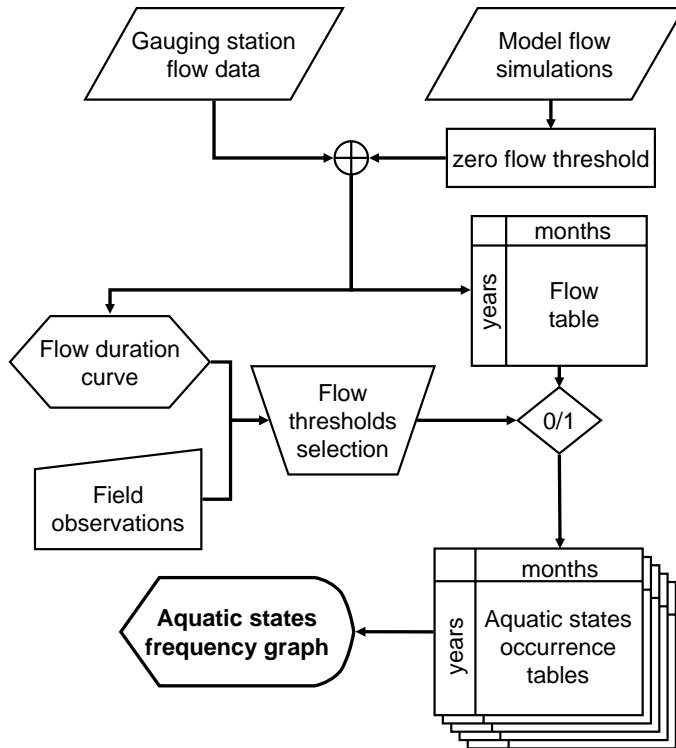


Fig. 2. Schematic flow chart for the procedure developed to estimate the temporal patterns of occurrence of the aquatic states from the available water flow data. The final products are the aquatic states frequency graphs (Fig. 4).

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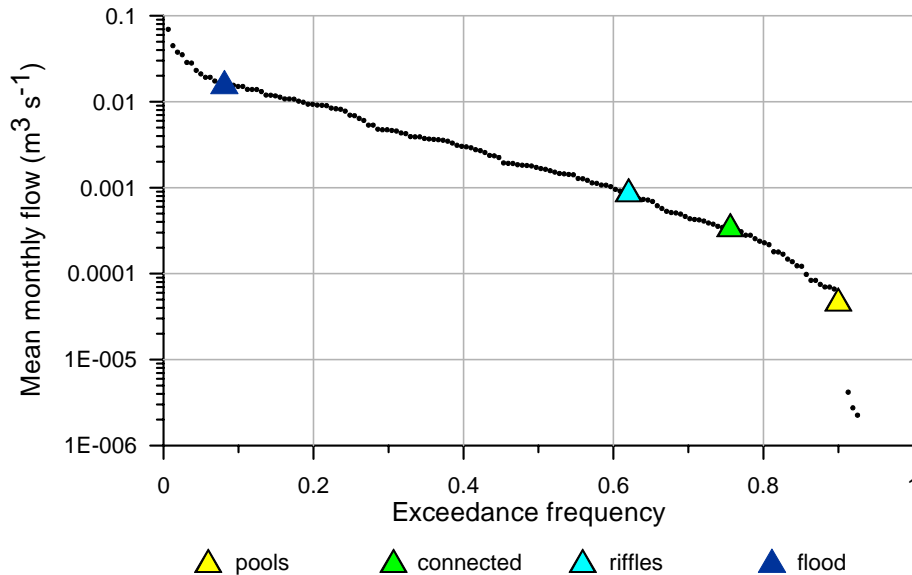


Fig. 3. Flow duration curve for the Can Vila station, with identification of the minimum discharge thresholds that separate the diverse aquatic states.

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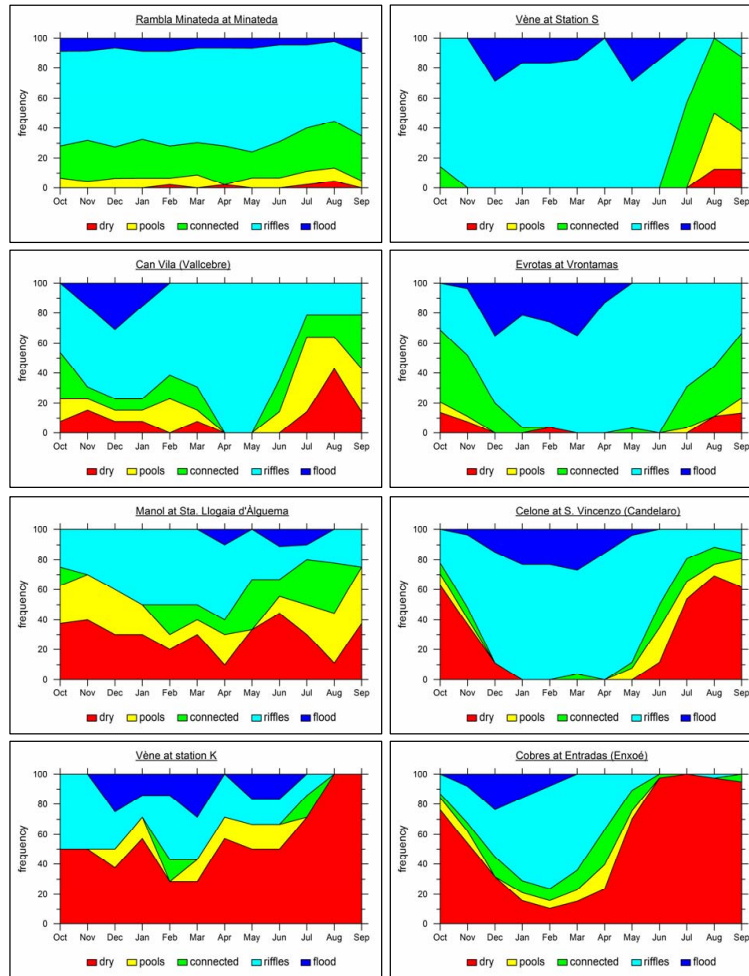


Fig. 4. Aquatic states frequency graphs for the eight stream gauging stations studied.

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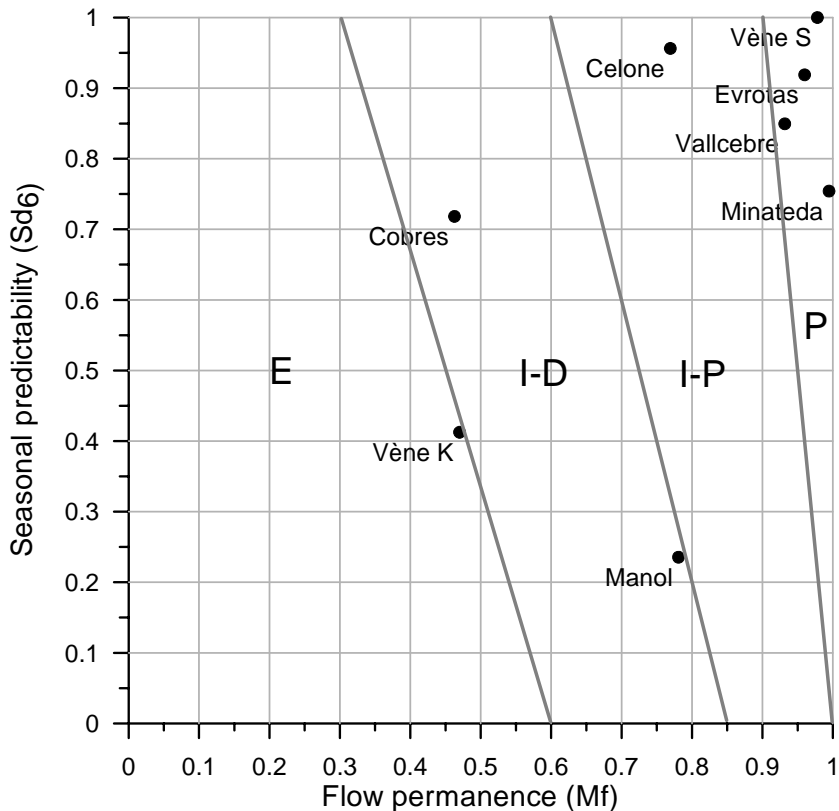


Fig. 5. Plot of the stations studied using the two metrics tested: Flow permanence (Mf) and seasonal predictability of the zero-flow months (Sd_6). The oblique grey lines show the approximate interim separation between the four regime types: *P* (Permanent), *I-P* (Intermittent-pools), *I-D* (Intermittent-dry), *E* (Episodic-ephemeral).

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