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1	Relative effect of hydraulics, physico-chemistry and other biofilm algae on
2	benthic cyanobacteria assemblages in a regulated river
3	
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15 Highlights

- We investigated the response of benthic cyanobacteria assemblages to
- hydraulics, physico-chemical and biotic variables considering three sampling
 zones differing in terms of velocity variability according to discharge.
- In the studied regulated river, benthic cyanobacteria communities were
 dominated by potentially toxic genera (>50% of the biovolume).
- The development of cyanobacteria assemblages was limited spatially and temporally by the ecological preferences of genera and high-flow events.
- Warmer water temperatures in mid-summer and higher nutrient
 concentrations in the end of summer favoured the development of
 cyanobacteria assemblages.
- The development of Chlorophyta coincides with the decline of cyanobacteria suggesting potential competition between the two phyla.
- Discharges over 100 m³.s⁻¹ only had a negative influence on cyanobacteria
 biovolumes when the flow variability was high for at least two weeks before
 sampling, and did not influence BC in late summer.
- Biofilm management through flushing flows of 100 m³.s⁻¹ is not a viable
 solution to reduce biofilm development if it lasts less than one day.

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34 Abstract

The development of benthic cyanobacteria currently raises concern worldwide 35 because of their potential to produce toxins. As a result, understanding which 36 measures of biotic and abiotic parameters influence the development of 37 cvanobacterial assemblages is of great importance to guide management actions. In 38 this study, we investigate the relative contributions of abiotic and biotic parameters 39 40 that may drive the development of cyanobacterial assemblages in river biofilms. First, a 2D hydrodynamic model allowed us to retrace changes in depths and 41 velocities according to discharge at a 4 m² resolution. From this model, we set up 42 three hydraulic zones in each of the 4 reaches investigated along a 50-km-long river 43 stretch. We further used univariate, multivariate and variance partitioning analyses to 44 45 assess the contribution of past and present hydraulics, present physical and chemical parameters and algae to the temporal variability of cyanobacterial 46 47 assemblage composition. The cyanobacterial assemblages were generally dominated by Phormidium sp., Lyngbya sp., Planktolyngbya sp. and Oscillatoria sp., 48 four genera known to contain potentially toxic species. The highest biovolumes of 49 50 cyanobacteria were present in low velocity zones in early summer and shifted to high velocity zones in late summer, highlighting the major influence of hydraulic 51 parameters on benthic cyanobacteria settlement and development in rivers. 52 53 Considering the identified genera, biofilms present a potentially high risk of toxin production. Relations between cyanobacterial development, toxin production and 54 environmental parameters need to be further assessed to better estimate this risk. 55

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57 Keywords:

58 benthic cyanobacteria; biofilm development; hydraulics; regulated river

59 **1. Introduction**

Cyanobacteria blooms have been rising worldwide for the last two decades. 60 Benthic cyanobacteria (BC) are found in rivers and lakes (Mez et al., 1998; 61 62 Vadeboncoeur et al., 2021). They have raised concern for the last two decades due to the ability of some species to produce cyanotoxins. These toxins can be harmful 63 to aquatic and terrestrial organisms and may cause mammalian neurotoxicosis and 64 death (Quiblier et al., 2013). For example, dog deaths have been reported to be 65 caused by benthic cyanobacteria in New Zealand (Hamill, 2001; Wood et al., 2007), 66 France (Cadel-Six et al., 2007; Gugger et al., 2005), Germany (Bauer et al., 2020), 67 North America (Bouma-Gregson and Higgins, 2015; Puschner et al., 2008), the UK 68 (Edwards et al., 1992) and the Netherlands (Faassen et al., 2012). The rise of 69 70 intoxications due to BC has translated into an increasing bulk of studies in the last 5 71 years (Wood et al., 2020), especially focusing on the autecology of BC. While it is widely accepted that BC can have a large ecological niche (Quiblier et al., 2013), the 72 73 environmental factors allowing their development in rivers are not fully understood and often limited to specific taxa or species. For example, Phormidium sp. and 74 *Microcoleus* sp. have been extensively studied, but they may not represent the full 75 diversity of existing development strategies in BC (Wood et al., 2020). 76

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Although studies have proven that temperature and nutrient inputs are major factors acting on planktonic cyanobacteria (Paerl, 1988), the influence of these parameters seems more contrasted for river BC. In rivers, BC also usually develop under warmer water temperatures than the yearly average of the streams, i.e., exceeding 14 °C or 16 °C (in NZ and France, respectively; Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2015), but the link between their development and nutrient

84 concentrations is less clear. Studies conducted in eutrophic rivers have shown a preference of certain BC species for nutrient-rich environments (Loza et al., 2013). 85 whereas in oligotrophic rivers, BC species still developed because they were able to 86 87 use alternative sources of nutrients (McAllister, 2018; McAllister et al., 2018a). For example, Wood et al. (2015) showed that entrapped fine sediments could provide 88 biofilm communities with dissolved reactive phosphorus concentrations on average 89 90 320 times higher than the concentration in the water column. In addition, the development of nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria within biofilms is not inhibited in 91 nutrient-poor environments (Douterelo et al., 2004: Perona et al., 1998). Considering 92 the complex structure and exchanges occurring within biofilms, these nitrogen-fixing 93 cvanobacteria could provide nutrients for other biofilm organisms (cvanobacteria and 94 95 microalgae) and thus enable the development of complex biofilm communities even in oligotrophic waters (Stolz, 2000). 96

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Hydrological conditions are also known to influence BC settlement and growth 98 in rivers (Hart et al., 2013; Stevenson, 2009). On one side, high-flow events may 99 remove BC (Heath et al., 2011). Wood et al. (2017) additionally stated that our ability 100 101 to predict the magnitude of peak flows necessary to scour off Phormidium cover could vary among sampling sites. On the other side flow velocities represent one 102 103 niche axis for BC species (McAllister et al., 2019, 2018b). However, varying responses to hydraulic constraints occur in the literature. Recent studies indicated 104 that BC could develop at flow velocities ranging from 0.3 to 1.1 m.s⁻¹ (Echenique-105 106 Subiabre et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2015). In contrast, other studies from low discharge rivers have shown that BC could develop with velocities <0.1 m.s⁻¹ 107 (Sabater et al., 2003). Finally, Thomson-Laing et al. (2021) found no relationship 108

109 between near-bed velocity and accrual rates of Microcoleus autumnalis mats. Substrate is also an important component, with large substrate sized (diameter 110 111 between 5-26 cm) and stable substrate being more favourable to BC development 112 (Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2015). Other physical parameters, 113 such as light intensity, may also influence BC development. Using water depth as a proxy for received light intensity, Echenique-Subiabre et al. (2018) demonstrated that 114 115 biofilms expanded widely under low light (when water depth increased), whereas BC thickness increased under high light to protect cells against ultraviolet radiation. 116

Finally, Wood et al. (2020) suggested potential competition between cyanobacteria and other benthic algae for the colonisation of the substrate. Indeed, cyanobacteria and filamentous green algae (Chlorophyta) can develop during biofilm maturation (see also, Barranguet et al., 2005; Battin et al., 2003; Besemer et al., 2007; Brasell et al., 2015; Majdi et al., 2012; Roeselers et al., 2007; Villanueva et al., 2011), making them potential competitors for space and nutrients necessary for their growth.

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125 As a result, the above-listed BC ecological preferences make them more likely 126 to grow during spring and summer. European climate scenarios predict an increase in water temperature and more variable rainfall patterns that will involve more 127 128 frequent and intense low-water periods (IPCC, 2018), which might favour BC development (Codd et al., 2017). Such facilitation in development can be 129 130 exacerbated in regulated rivers. This is the case for the Ain River, a 190 km-long 131 tributary to the Rhône regulated by five dams (built on its main course between 1928 and 1968). During the summer season, this regulation involves long periods of low 132 flow and occasional high-flow events to flush out algal biofilm. This regulated river 133

represents an appropriate experimental situation for conducting experiments
assessing the relative contribution of biotic and abiotic factors to the development of
cyanobacterial communities in river biofilms.

137 In this study, based on our literature review, we hypothesise that the relative contribution of hydraulics, physico-chemistry and the presence of other algae at 138 explaining the composition of benthic cyanobacteria assemblages should vary 139 140 according to the river regulation regime across summer. In particular, the development of cyanobacteria assemblages should be (i) limited spatially and 141 142 temporally by hydraulic constraints both in terms of ecological preferences (high velocity, small and unstable substrate), and in terms of high-flow events; (ii) favoured 143 by warmer water temperatures; (iii) weakly impacted by nutrient concentrations; and 144 145 (iv) limited by intrabiofilm competition with other phyla, such as Chlorophyta.

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147 **2. Materials and methods**

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149 2.1. Sampling design

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151 Four locations along a 50-km stretch of river, each comprising 270- to 500-mlong reaches, were selected using preliminary surveys of past occurrences of 152 153 benthic cyanobacteria (SR3A Ain River Authorities; Table 1). Five sampling campaigns were performed during summer 2020 in four locations: 2-3 June (named 154 early June), 29-30 June (late June), 15-16 July (mid-July), 27-28 July (late July) and 155 156 24-25 August (late August). At each location, three hydraulic zones (HZ) were delimited from maps resulting from a 2-D hydrodynamic model (INRAE/EDF). This 2-157 D hydrodynamic model was first used by Judes et al. (2022) for relating the 158

159 abundance of fish and invertebrates species to variations of water depth and velocity according to discharge variation. The model predicts mean water depth and velocity 160 in each grid cell (resolution of 4m²) at 40% of the water depth measured from the 161 162 bottom in the cell for various discharges. This enables the assessment of past local hydraulic variations of water depth and velocity. To extract values from the 2D-163 hydrodynamic model, we considered discharges ranging from 15 to 40 m³.s⁻¹, the 164 165 most frequent discharge values during spring and summer on the Lower Ain River (i.e., this range had a frequency \geq 50% calculated from May to October in the last 5 166 years according to two gauging stations). In addition, the threshold of 0.8 m.s⁻¹ was 167 used in agreement with literature records to determine zones of velocities exceeding 168 BC preferences (Wood et al., 2020). Finally, we delimited (i) HZ#1 experiencing 169 velocities $\leq 0.8 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ for flow between 20 m³.s⁻¹ and 40 m³.s⁻¹ and a low magnitude of 170 variation of velocities with increasing discharges (<0.1 m.s⁻¹ for flow <20 m³.s⁻¹ 171 remaining <0.2 m.s⁻¹ for flow between 20 m³.s⁻¹ and 40 m³.s⁻¹); (ii) HZ#2 172 experiencing velocity $\leq 0.8 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ for a low flow of 15 m³.s⁻¹ and a high magnitude of 173 variation of velocities with increasing discharges (<0.1 m.s⁻¹ for flow <20 m³.s⁻¹ going 174 >0.2 m.s⁻¹ for flow between 20 m³.s⁻¹ and 40 m³.s⁻¹); and (iii) HZ#3 with velocities 175 $>0.8 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ even for flows of 15 m³.s⁻¹ (Fig. 1). It should be noted that depth variations 176 were similar for the three hydraulic zones for flow changes between 15 m³.s⁻¹ and 40 177 m³.s⁻¹. From the literature review (see introduction), HZ#1 was considered 178 favourable to BC development for all discharge values, HZ#2 was considered 179 favourable at low discharge values (<20 m³.s⁻¹), and HZ#3 was considered 180 unfavourable at all discharge values. Stratified random sampling was further 181 performed according to the surface of each hydraulic zone in the four locations. 182 HZ#1 represented 38% of the surface of the sampled reaches, HZ#2 represented 183

50% and HZ#3 represented 12%. In coherence with the 2D-model design, units of 4
m² were used as sampling units. In total, 172 units were sampled over summer 2020
(65, 81, and 26 in HZ#1, HZ#2 and HZ#3, respectively, according to the surface of
each hydraulic zone).

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- 189 2.2. Field measurements
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- 191 2.2.1. Benthic algae

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Biofilm samples were collected from three cobbles randomly selected within 193 each 4 m²-unit yielding a total of 516 biofilm samples. Both thin periphyton biofilms 194 195 and thick macroscopic biofilms were sampled (Fig.2). Each sample was scrubbed, 196 homogenised in river water, fixed with Lugol's iodine solution in the field and stored in the dark until microscopic identification in the laboratory. We delimited the area 197 198 scrubbed on a given pebble using a piece of translucent paper. We further digitised each piece of translucent paper with a scanner and determined the scrubbed area 199 with ImageJ software (Abràmoff et al., 2004). 200

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202 2.2.2. Environmental variables

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At each pebble, we measured the water depth (D in cm) with a meter stick and the average flow velocity of the water column (U in $m.s^{-1}$, measured at 40% of water depth from the pebble) with an electromagnetic current metre (FLO-MATE 2000, Cometec). At each 4 m²-unit, water temperature (WT), pH and conductivity (EC) were measured with a multiparameter probe (AQUAREAD AP-5000). Water

209 samples were collected to determine ammonium (NH4), nitrate (NO3) and orthophosphate (PO4) concentrations, following standard colorimetric methods 210 211 (automatic analyser Smartchem 200, AMS Alliance, Roma, Italy). We estimated the 212 percentage cover of substrate types (sand, gravel, cobble and boulder) and derived the mean grain size (GR). To take into account the recent hydrological changes in 213 214 the river associated with hydropeaking events, we considered the past 15-day maximal discharge (Q15 in m³.s⁻¹) measured from two gauging stations maintained 215 by the RMC Water Agency: Pont d'Ain (Station V2712010) for site PA and Chazey-216 sur-Ain (Station V2942010) for sites GI. BU and SJ (see Table 1 for acronyms). 217

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219 2.2.3. Taxa identification and counting

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221 Biofilm samples were homogenised before identification and enumeration. Subsampling allowed the identification and counting of all algal cells using a light 222 223 microscope and a Malassez chamber. Photosynthetic communities were identified at the genus level following several guidelines (Bourrelly, 1985, 1970, 1968, 1966; 224 Huber-Pestalozzi, 1968, 1961, 1955, 1941; John et al., 2002; Komárek and 225 226 Anagnostidis, 2005). Counts were further grouped into phyla for diatoms (Bacillariophyta), Cyanobacteria and Chlorophyta, and less abundant taxa not 227 included in these phyla were grouped as others. The biovolume (µm³.cm⁻²) of each 228 phylum was calculated using PHYTOBS (2021) and ImageJ software (Rasband, 229 1997), which allowed scaling biovolume values to the pebble surface. 230

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232 2.3. Data analysis

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234 To compare each hydraulic variable between HZ and each physical and chemical variable between campaigns, we used a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a 235 236 Dunn's test. The combined effect of campaigns and HZ on cyanobacteria 237 biovolumes was investigated with two-way ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey test. Furthermore, to select drivers best explaining the composition of biofilm and 238 cyanobacteria assemblages, we performed a redundancy analysis (RDA; van den 239 240 Wollenberg, 1977) at each sampling campaign. RDA is a common multivariate technique in ecology that allows to explain variation in a set of response variables 241 (e.g. cvanobacteria taxa) as a function of combinations of explanatory variables (e.g. 242 physical and chemical variables) (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). Prior to RDA, the 243 variance inflation factor was used to detect multicollinearity between explanatory 244 245 variables (Dodge, 2008). Only variables with a VIF<4 were included in the RDA 246 models. Variables in RDA models were selected by permutation tests using a forward selection on the adjusted R^2 . In addition, the hydraulic zone (HZ) was used 247 248 as a conditioning variable in the model to assess its independent effect on cvanobacteria assemblages. The significance of global RDA, of the first-two RDA 249 axes, and of each physical and chemical variable was further assessed by a 250 251 permutation test. In addition, variance partitioning (VP) allowed us to guantify the amount of variance (by means of adjusted R² in RDA; Borcard et al., 1992) in the 252 cyanobacteria biovolumes explained by each group of explanatory variables, i.e. the 253 other biofilm algae (chlorophyta, diatoms, and other algae), hydraulic variables (Q15, 254 U, D, GR) and physical and chemical variables (WT, pH, EC, NH4, NO3, PO4) 255 256 without removing collinear variables as recommended by Oksanen et al. (2020). Biovolumes were log-transformed prior to statistical analysis to reduce numerical 257

discrepancies. All analyses were performed with R version 4.1.2 (R Core Team,
2021) using the package *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2020).

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261 3. Results

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263 3.1. Environmental context

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The first two campaigns occurred after a long period of high discharges >100 265 m^3 .s⁻¹ (maximum discharge = 224 and 117 m^3 .s⁻¹ in early and late June. respectively: 266 Fig. 3). The early June campaign occurred 15 days after the last dam release event, 267 while the late June campaign occurred only 5 days after the last dam release event. 268 The two July campaigns were performed during low and stable flows (12 to 17 m³.s⁻ 269 ¹). From late July to August, dam releases led to three flushing flow events 270 (maximum discharge = 101 m³.s⁻¹. 99.3 m³.s⁻¹ and 97.9 m³.s⁻¹. respectively) in order 271 272 to scour off algae and cyanobacteria. The latter flushing event occurred 3 days before the last sampling campaign (late August). As we could not measure flow 273 velocities in the field for these high discharges, they were predicted using the 2D-274 hydrodynamic model (Fig.1). At 100 m³.s⁻¹, velocities ranged from 1.3 to 1.8 m.s⁻¹ in 275 most of the river section, while at 200 m³.s⁻¹ velocity could reach 2.5 m.s⁻¹ in the 276 middle of the river section. 277

The water velocity increased from HZ#1 to HZ#2 and HZ#3 as expected (Fig. 4; Kruskal–Wallis test, P<0.0001, n = 172). The depth was significantly lower in HZ#1 (Kruskal–Wallis test, P<0.0001), while the mean grain size was coarser in HZ#2 and HZ#3 than in HZ#1 (Kruskal–Wallis test, P<0.0001). NH4 concentrations were significantly lower in early June than in the other sampling campaigns and 283 significantly lower in late August than in mid-July (Table 2; Kruskal-Wallis test, *P*<0.0001). The NO3 concentrations were the highest in early June and the lowest in 284 mid-July (4.0 mg. L^{-1} and 1.4 mg. L^{-1} , respectively; Kruskal–Wallis test, P<0.0001), 285 while concentrations in late June, July and August covered a similar range (i.e., 286 between 2.3 and 2.8 mg.L⁻¹). PO4 concentrations decreased significantly between 287 early and late June and reached the lowest values in mid-July (Kruskal-Wallis test, 288 289 P<0.0001). Finally, the water temperature was significantly higher in late July and lower in mid-July (Kruskal–Wallis test, P<0.0001). 290

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292 3.2. Biofilm composition

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294 The mean cyanobacteria biovolume significantly differed over time and hydraulic zones ($F_{8,157}$ = 5.36, p<0.0001). It tended to decrease during the summer 295 period, ranging from 4.33E+07 to 1.18E+07 µm³, cm⁻². Overall, cvanobacteria 296 297 biovolume was the highest in June (maximum in late June with 55. E+07 μ m³.cm⁻²) and the lowest in July (Tukey test, P<0.05). All campaigns combined, biovolumes 298 were significantly lower in HZ#1 than in HZ#2 and HZ#3 (Fig. 5; Tukey test, P<0.05). 299 300 Investigation of the combined effects of HZ and campaign revealed a high temporal variability of cyanobacteria biovolumes in HZ#1, with mean biovolumes being higher 301 in the June and August campaigns than in the July campaigns (Tukey test, P<0.01), 302 while no significant differences appeared for HZ#2 and HZ#3. These low biovolumes 303 in HZ#1 occurred during campaigns characterised by stable low flow (mid-July and 304 305 late July).

A total of 23 genera of cyanobacteria were identified in the biofilm samples, 10 of which are known to comprise potentially toxic species such as *Anabaena* sp.,

Leptolyngbya sp., Limnothrix sp., Lyngbya sp., Nodularia sp., Oscillatoria sp.,
Phormidium sp., Planktolyngbya sp., Planktothrix sp. and Pseudanabaena sp.
(supplementary information; Table S1).

311 The 4 most abundant genera of cyanobacteria (mean relative contribution to 312 total cyanobacteria biovolume >10%) included Lyngbya sp., Phormidium sp., Planktolyngbya sp., Oscillatoria sp. (17.2%, 29.4%, 20.2% and 17.2%, respectively). 313 314 These genera were also the most frequently found in the samples (occurrence >10%). They were present at each campaign, with the exception of *Planktolyngbya* 315 sp. being absent in mid-July only. Indeed, *Phormidium* sp. was the major component 316 317 of cyanobacteria biovolume (Fig. 6A). Its biovolume reached a maximum in mid-July and late July during the low flow period and was significantly at its lowest in June 318 319 and August during periods of high flow variability. *Phormidium* sp. biovolumes were 320 significantly lower in HZ#1 than in HZ#2 (Tukey test, P<0.05). Planktolyngbya sp. 321 was the second major component of cyanobacteria biovolume (Fig. 6B); 322 *Planktolyngbya* sp. contribution significantly decreased from June to July (from 3-5%) to <0.4%) and was highest in late August (22.1%) after hydropeaking events. 323 324 *Planktolyngbya* sp. biovolumes were significantly lower in HZ#1 than in HZ#2 and 325 HZ#3 (Tukey test, P<0.01). Lyngbya sp. was more prominent in early June than in July (Fig. 6C). During the low-flow period in mid-July, it was more abundant in HZ#3 326 327 than in HZ#1 and HZ#2 (Tukey test, P<0.05). Finally, Oscillatoria sp. did not exhibit any spatiotemporal trends in its biovolumes across the campaigns or HZ (Fig. 6D). 328

329 Diatoms dominated the total biofilm composition in June, while Chlorophyta 330 increased greatly from mid-July (supplementary information, Table S2 and Fig. S1).

331

332 3.3. Drivers of benthic cyanobacteria biovolume

334 Abiotic and biotic variables used to investigate their influence for explaining 335 cyanobacteria assemblages at each campaign are available in the supplementary 336 information (Table S3). The overall variance of cyanobacteria biovolume explained 337 by the RDA models ranged between 17.3 and 41.7%, (i.e. constrained models using the selection of significant variables), with the first canonical axis explaining between 338 339 16.0 and 25.7% of the total variance (Table 3). Past 15-day maximum discharge (Q15) and local hydraulic variables (D, depth; U, flow velocity; and GR, mean grain 340 size) had a prominent influence throughout summer (R^2 ranging from 0.06 to 0.165). 341 In addition, chlorophyta biovolume explained 11.5% of the cyanobacteria biovolume 342 variance in mid-July. Finally, physical and chemical variables were mostly influential 343 344 in late August, with NH4 and NO3 being responsible for 11.2 and 10.3% of 345 cyanobacteria biovolume variance, respectively.

The amount of variance explained by each group of explanatory variables ranged between 20.9 and 32.9% (Figure 7). Hydraulic variables were the main source of variation in each campaign (variance explained ranged from 14.5% to 19.4%). Physico-chemistry and the biovolume of non-cyanobacteria algae represented a secondary source of variation. The biovolume of other algae was influential in late June and mid-July (14.0% and 10.5%). Physico-chemistry was a significant source of variation only in early June (13.4%).

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354 **4. Discussion**

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356 Our study showed that past flow and local hydraulic patterns mainly 357 influenced the development of BC, as expected from our first hypothesis. However, 358 contrary to our first hypothesis, BC development was not limited by high water 359 velocities, which facilitated the development of some genera. Only periods with high 360 flow magnitudes and variations altered their development. However, large-sized and 361 stable substrates facilitated cyanobacterial development, as expected from our first hypothesis. In agreement with our second hypothesis, warmer temperatures 362 favoured BC development when water temperature was the highest. In contrast, 363 364 nutrient concentrations had only a minor effect on BC, validating our third hypothesis. Finally, in agreement with our fourth hypothesis, a negative correlation 365 between BC and other biofilm algae developments suggested intrabiofilm 366 competition in at least two campaigns (mid-July and late July). 367

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369 4.1. Hydraulic conditions

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The total cyanobacterial biovolume was overall smaller in HZ#1, and most 371 genera were positively related to high current velocity variation across discharge 372 (HZ#2 and HZ#3). Among the four most abundant cyanobacteria genera, some 373 occurred during stable flow periods (Phormidium sp. and Oscillatoria sp.), while 374 375 some others occurred during periods of high flow variations (Lyngbya sp. and Planktolyngbya sp.). However, our study does not allow us to discuss in detail the 376 377 ecological preferences of each genus despite scrutinising this pattern, which needs further investigation in the future. Our result showing that the most abundant 378 cyanobacteria genera were associated with high velocities (HZ#2 and HZ#3) is 379 380 somewhat in contradiction with the results of Sabater et al. (2003), who worked on a low discharge river but in agreement with studies conducted in active dynamic rivers 381 (Bouma-Gregson et al., 2019; Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2015; 382

McAllister et al., 2019). This suggests that BC might be adapted to specific river habitats, with different communities from one river to another depending on their flowing regimes. In addition, as suggested by Wood et al. (2020), macroinvertebrate colonisation might be reduced in hydraulic zones with high velocities, which may limit grazers (see Hart et al., 2013 and McAllister et al., 2019 in Wood et al., 2020). This could enable biofilms and BC to develop at higher biovolumes at high velocities.

389

RDA and variance partitioning showed that hydraulic variables were the major 390 drivers of BC biovolumes, and past flow and local hydraulic variables were influential 391 at every campaign. High discharge events (>100 m³.s⁻¹) decreased BC biovolume as 392 expected (e.g. Heath et al., 2011; Wood et al., 2017) in early summer (early June 393 394 and late June), whereas in late August, they did not induce any decrease in BC 395 biovolume. According to Heath et al. (2011), BC development increases when the river discharge is below half the yearly average and water temperature increases. In 396 397 the Ain River, all the sampling campaigns occurred for discharge below half the vearly average of 51.5 m^3 .s⁻¹, but hydraulic conditions preceding sampling 398 399 campaigns differed greatly between campaigns. Even though Q15 in late August 400 was of similar magnitude to that in the June campaigns, it is possible that its short duration (less than a few hours) was not sufficient to induce a decrease in BC 401 402 biovolumes. The high flow events of June presented a higher flow variation and duration, which might be a key to reduce BC development, along with a high 403 discharge magnitude. Moreover, this suggests that during periods of favourable 404 405 environmental conditions on already developed BC, high discharge events may not be as effective in decreasing BC biovolumes compared to early colonisation stages. 406 This may be seen as counterintuitive since as benthic algal biomass increased, drag 407

408 also increases, and high-flows can more easily remove biomass (e.g. Biggs et al., 1998). For example, in New Zealand benthic cyanobacteria decreased at 2-3x 409 median/mean flows (Heath et al., 2011; Wood et al., 2017). Translated to the Ain 410 River that has a yearly average discharge of 103 m³.s⁻¹, this would mean that 411 flushing flows with discharges from 206 to 309 m³.s⁻¹ would be necessary to reduce 412 413 BC development. In our study, the highest discharge event in late August was of ~ 100 m³.s⁻¹ (close to the yearly average discharge). At this discharge value, flow 414 velocities range from 1.3 to 1.8 m.s⁻¹ in most of the river section, which is slightly 415 superior to previously recorded velocities for BC development (e.g. 1.1 m.s⁻¹: Heath 416 417 et al., 2015) but might still be fitting their ecological niche. This discharge value may not be high enough to scour off benthic cyanobacteria, and higher discharged should 418 be considered (for example, 200 $m^3.s^{-1}$). 419

Finally, a larger grain size facilitated the settlement of cyanobacteria, as expected. This result is in agreement with previous results that showed a larger BC coverage on stable substrates (cobbles and boulders), and BC coverage increased with grain size (Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2015).

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425 *4.2.* Warming temperatures and nutrient concentrations

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BC development occurred despite the oligo-mesotrophic water quality of the Ain River (according to nutrients thresholds provided by Loza et al., 2013), suggesting non-limiting nutrient concentrations. Our results showed evidence for nutrient concentrations influencing BC biovolume only in late August. According to the reviews of Quiblier et al. (2013) and Wood et al. (2020) on drivers of BC development, nutrients and other physical and chemical variables have been reported to have an effect on BC in only a few studies. Moreover, their effect is reported to be more important during the implantation phase of BC, which seems consistent with our findings. Indeed, in our study, physical and chemical variables had an influence in late summer after flushing flows that could have greatly modified the ecosystem and led to a new colonization phase.

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439 Nutrient concentrations only influenced BC biovolumes in late August: cyanobacteria biovolumes were influenced positively by NH4 and negatively by NO3. 440 NH4 availability probably favoured BC, as NH4 is the most easily assimilated 441 nitrogen source (Bryant, 1994). The fact that nutrient concentrations did not influence 442 cvanobacteria biovolumes at other campaigns suggests that their development was 443 444 not nutrient-limited in the Ain river. Indeed, important BC proliferations have been 445 observed in very clear and oligotrophic rivers with lower NH4, NO3 and PO4 446 concentrations than those measured in the Ain river (McAllister, 2018: McAllister et al., 2018a). As nutrient uptake is faster in taxa with small cell sizes, such as 447 cvanobacteria, it can explain their dominance in low-nutrient conditions (Reynolds, 448 1989). Moreover, the increase in BC development and biofilm thickness during 449 summer might have allowed the uptake of phosphorus in sediments (Wood et al., 450 2015), independently from dissolved phosphate concentrations. 451

452

Water temperature positively influenced BC development in late July. At this campaign, the water temperature was the highest (20.9 \pm 0.1 °C). This result is coherent with findings showing that BC development is associated with temperatures warmer than the seasonal average (>14 °C in New Zealand rivers, Heath et al., 2015; >16 °C in the Tarn River, France, Echenique-Subiabre et al., 2018).

459 **4.3.** Intrabiofilm competition

460

461 In mid and late July, the cyanobacterial assemblages were negatively correlated with those of other biofilm algae, suggesting a trend of intrabiofilm 462 competition between BC and other benthic algae (diatoms, chlorophyta and other 463 464 less abundant algae). This pattern could result from real spatial competition or from different environmental preferences. Indeed, low and stable flow associated to flow 465 466 regulation might have allowed the fast development of other biofilm algae (mean discharge = 14.9 m^3 .s⁻¹ and Q15 = 66.2 m^3 .s⁻¹ in mid-July), along with an increase in 467 NH4 concentrations, temperature and light availability. Under these conditions, we 468 469 hypothesise that the development of Chlorophyta was faster than that of 470 cyanobacteria and limited the growth of cyanobacteria. Indeed, under stable conditions, the Chlorophyta growth rate is higher than that of cyanobacteria under 471 472 the same temperature conditions (Lürling et al., 2013). The growth of macroalgae might have caused a light limitation for cyanobacterial cells in the biofilm, with the 473 filaments leading to shading (Dodds et al., 1999). However, cyanobacteria 474 475 development continued in high velocity zones and deep water zones, suggesting that the competition with other algae for space and resources was more intense in zones 476 477 with low and stable velocity (e.g. HZ#1). Indeed, Chlorophyta were the most prominent in HZ#1. Their development might have been limited by hydraulic 478 constraints in June and late August, leaving space for cyanobacteria to grow. This 479 480 would be coherent with findings showing that filamentous green algae have a low tolerance to shear stress (Biggs and Thomsen, 1995). This pattern could also result 481 from the successional stages of biofilm development in river ecosystems. Biofilm 482

development generally starts with bacteria and diatoms (Azim and Asaeda, 2005;
Stal, 2012, 1995), followed by filamentous algae, mostly Chlorophyta, as a late
successional stage (Burns and Walker, 2000; Vadeboncoeur et al., 2021), which is
consistent with our findings showing the growth of Chlorophyta and other algae
overgrowing cyanobacteria in biofilms.

488

489 5. Outcome

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491 This study allowed us to show the different environmental preferences of cyanobacteria genera. Even if our RDA models had a low explanatory power when 492 constrained with the selection of significant variables, constrained models explained 493 494 between 35.7 to 59.2% of the variance of BC biovolumes. This low explanatory power might be the result of the temporal variability in explanatory variables. 495 496 Different variables influenced BC biovolumes over time, and the same variable could 497 influence BC biovolumes differently at different campaigns, depending on the current combination of environmental conditions. This unexplained variance might also come 498 499 from the number of genera implied in the model (23 genera), whose responses to 500 environmental variables could differ, inducing more variability. Overall, a dominant pattern of environmental preferences was observed. Further analysis considering 501 502 each genus could help to determine their specific preferences.

503 Currently, we were able to show that hydraulic variables prominently shaped 504 BC assemblages in rivers, with varying responses over time. Discharges over 100 505 m³.s⁻¹ only had a negative influence on cyanobacteria biovolumes when the flow 506 variability was high for at least two weeks before sampling, and did not influence BC 507 in late summer. Therefore, biofilm management through flushing flows of 100 m³.s⁻¹

508 is not a viable solution to reduce biofilm development if it lasts less than one day. Higher discharge variability, or longer flushing flows, should be considered to truly 509 affect BC development. Flushing flows of 200 m³.s⁻¹ might be more effective for 510 511 scouring off benthic cyanobacteria by exceeding their ecological preferences in 512 terms of flow velocity. More importantly, discharge is a parameter that depends on the studied river, therefore more precise hydraulic indicators, such as flow velocity, 513 514 should be used to make management recommendations. In light of our study, it appears that flushing flows should induce flow velocities reaching 1.3 to 2.5 m.s⁻¹ in 515 516 order to scour off benthic cyanobacteria. Further investigations could enable the 517 depiction of more precise hydraulic limitations to their development. Indeed, the results from the 2-D hydrodynamic model could be used more extensively by 518 519 deriving fine hydraulic parameters from hourly discharge chronicles on the river 520 during the sampling period. For example, the number of hours above or under a 521 certain velocity value could be taken into account in a predictive model, as Judes et 522 al. (2022) performed to describe past hydraulic variables in their study. This opens new perspectives in terms of biofilm management in regulated rivers in the future. 523

524

Similar to the recent study of Bauer et al. (2022) on benthic cyanobacteria, 525 our biofilm samples contained a variety of cyanobacteria genera, with only a few 526 dominant ones containing potentially toxic species. Among all identified 527 cvanobacteria genera, 10 out of 23 included species known to produce cvanotoxins, 528 and the four most abundant genera found in our samples are potentially toxic 529 530 (Phormidium sp., Planktolyngbya sp., Lyngbya sp., Oscillatoria sp.). Cyanotoxins produced by these genera are mostly neurotoxic (Cadel-Six et al., 2007; Gugger et 531 al., 2005; Lajeunesse et al., 2012; Puschner et al., 2008; Seifert et al., 2007; Wood 532

et al., 2010, 2006). Therefore, BC development in the Ain River is associated with a
high toxicity potential, even though genetic analyses or toxin extraction would be
needed to better assess this toxic risk. Further analysis assessing toxin production
by these biofilms would determine the risk associated with their development and,
more importantly, determine the environmental parameters favouring cyanotoxin
production.

539

540 Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in
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544

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Table 1. Sampling site characteristics (PA=Pont d'Ain, BU=Buchin, GI= Giron, SJ=St Jean de Niost)

Site	GPS coordinates (Lambert 93)	Distance to Allement dam (km)	Mean T°C ¹	Median discharge (m ³ .s ⁻¹) ¹	Geomorphology ²
PA	880109.5 ; 6552094.0	13.6	18.2 ± 3.0	14.5	Low lateral mobility, incised, paved
BU	873932.5 ; 6535675.0	35	18.9 ± 3.0	19.8	Low lateral mobility, stable channel
GI	872498.5 ; 6533919.5	38.6	18.9 ± 3.0	19.8	Low lateral mobility, stable channel
SJ	873516.0 ; 6529243.3	43.6	18.9 ± 3.0	19.8	Lateral mobility, dynamic channel

¹ Calculated for the summer periods of the past 5 years (2014-2019, early June to late August)

805 ² From Rollet et al. (2014)

	Discharge (m ³ .s ⁻¹)	Q15 (m ³ .s ⁻¹)	T°C	рН	NH4 (μg.L ⁻¹)	NO3 (mg.L ⁻¹)	PO4 (µg.L ⁻¹)
Early June	17.1	69.8	19.2 ± 1.8	8.1 ± 0.6	10.7 ± 4.3	4.0 ± 0.9	5.8 ± 2.8
Late June	20.1	124.4	19.5 ± 1.7	8.2 ± 0.1	28.2 ± 14.8	2.5 ± 0.9	3.5 ± 2.6
Mid-July	14.9	66.2	18.6 ± 0.8	8.1 ± 0.4	32.9 ± 14.6	1.4 ± 0.5	2.1 ± 2.0
Late July	13.5	45.9	20.9 ± 0.1	8.1 ± 0.3	29.7 ± 8.8	2.3 ± 0.7	4.1 ± 2.9
Late August	10.9	99.0	19.9 ± 1.2	8.3 ± 0.2	21.8 ± 10.5	2.8 ± 1.0	4.6 ± 3.0

Table 2. Average values (n = 29; 30; 43; 40; 30; respectively) of physical and chemical variables measured at the five sampling

808 campaigns in 2020 on the Lower Ain River.

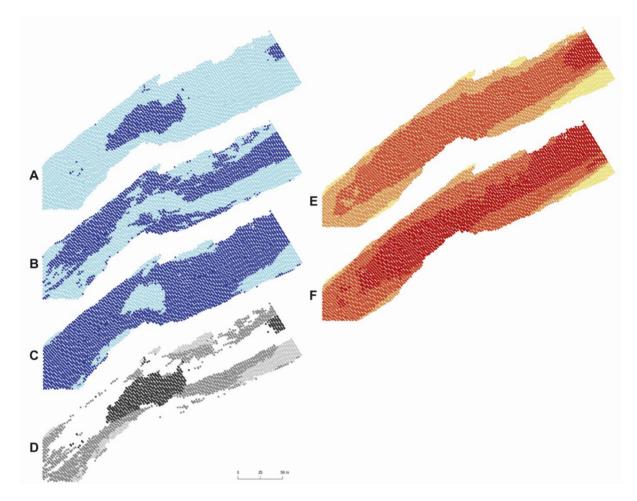
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810 Table 3. Evolution of the influence of biofilm algae (green), local hydraulics (light blue), past 811 hydraulics (dark blue) and physico-chemical variables (pink) on the biovolume of 23 genera of 812 cyanobacteria at 5 sampling campaigns in 2020 on the Ain River (RDA models) (GR, mean grain size; 813 Q15, maximum discharge 15 days before sampling; D, water depth; U, flow velocity; Chloro, 814 biovolume of Chlorophyta: Others, biovolume of other biofilm algae; NH4, ammonium concentration; 815 NO3, nitrate concentration; EC, conductivity). Dot size is proportional to the score of each genus or 816 each variable along the first RDA axis. Closed dots represent positive scores, open dots represent 817 negative scores, and the absence of points shows the absence of a genus in samples in this 818 campaign. For a given genus and a given variable, a similar dot filling indicates a similar positive 819 effect of the variable on the genus (e.g., Q15 and Planktolyngbya in early June or GR and 820 Phormidium in late June), whereas different dot filling (open vs. closed) indicates a negative effect of 821 the variable on the genus (e.g., Q15 and *Phormidium* in late June). In this table, genera are separated 822 into two groups according to their potential toxin production and are ordered according to their relative 823 contribution to the total cyanobacteria biovolume, from the most to the least contributing genus. The 824 percentage of variance explained by the conditional model, the constrained model, and the 825 constrained model including only the selection of significant variables and the two RDA axes are 826 indicated in the last five lines.

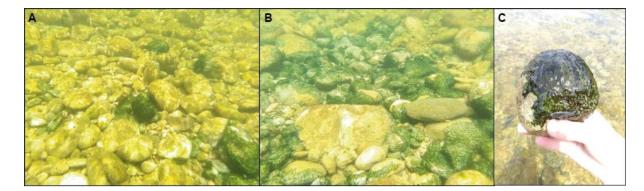
		Early June Late June		Mid July				Late July			Late August					
	Verieble	Q15	EC O	Q15	GR	pH O	GR	Chloro	U	D	GR	Others	WT	NH4	NO3	D
	Variable Phormidium		<u> </u>	ŏ	$\overline{}$	0	\mathbb{R}	<u> </u>	0	0			<u> </u>	\mathbb{R}	<u> </u>	$\overset{\circ}{\sim}$
nera	Planktolyngbya	0	0				\cup	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\cup				$\left \right\rangle$	8	0
gei	Lyngbya	Ă	ě		ŏ	0		\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\cap				ŏ	ŏ	ŏ
ing	Oscillatoria			ŏ	X	00	X	X	X	X			-	8	õ	X
quc	Pseudanabaena	ŏ	ŏ	No.	0	0		<u> </u>	$\mathbf{}$	\sim						
pro	Anabaena	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				•	•	•
xin'	Leptolyngbya	ě	ě	ě	ě	ě	\sim	\bigcirc	\cup	\sim					\bigcirc	0
to	Nodularia-like	•	•		•	•					•	•	•		\bigcirc	\sim
ntia	Planktothrix			0	0	0									\bigcirc	0
Potential toxin-producing genera	Limnothrix	•	•	õ	õ	õ	\cap	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc				ŏ	õ	õ
<u>a</u>	Merismopedia			õ	ŏ	ŏ	Ĭ	<u> </u>	$\overline{}$	<u> </u>	-		•	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ
	Schizothrix			0	õ	õ	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	õ	õ	õ
	Pleurocapsa	•	•	Ŭ	Ŭ	Ŭ	Ŭ	0	0	~	õ	õ	0	Ĩ	Ŭ	Ŭ
era	Myxosarcina			0	0	0					ĕ	ĕ	ĕ			
gen	Dermocarpa										•	•	•	•	•	•
bu	Chroococcus										0	0	0		•	-
luci	Aphanothece						0	0	0	0	•	•	•			
oroc	Coelosphaerium						0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
in-p	Hyella										٠	٠	٠			
Non toxin-producing genera	Aphanocapsa						0	\circ	0	0	•	•	٠			
Non	Snowella						•	•	•	•	٠	•	٠			
_	Coelomoron						0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0						
	Synechocystis						0	0	0	0						
()	Conditional	8.	.5		3.2			14	.7			11.6			1.3	
e (%	Constrained	40).5		59.2			35	.9			35.7			53.5	
Variance plained (⁹	Constrained*	27	.0		41.7			18	.9			17.3			21.4	
Variance explained (%)	RDA axis 1*	25.			20.8**			16.3	3**			16.0**			17.4**	
ex	RDA axis 2*	3.			12.7**			4.				2.0			4.3	

829 * model using the selection of significant variables

830 ** statistically significant from a permutation test



833	Figure 1. Example of delimitation of the three hydraulic zones from a 2-D hydraulic model in the
834	upstream site (PA). (A) Distribution of water velocity for a discharge of 15 m ³ .s ⁻¹ (light blue ≤ 0.8 m.s ⁻¹ ,
835	dark blue >0.8 m.s ⁻¹), allowing us to identify HZ#3 in dark blue; (B) distribution of velocity variation for
836	discharges between 15 and 20 m ³ .s ⁻¹ (light blue <0.1 m.s ⁻¹ , dark blue >0.1 m.s ⁻¹), allowing us to
837	identify HZ#1 and HZ#2 in light blue; (C) distribution of velocity variation for discharges between 20
838	and 40 m ³ .s ⁻¹ (light blue <0.2 m.s ⁻¹ , dark blue >0.2 m.s ⁻¹), allowing us to discriminate HZ#1 from
839	HZ#2; (D) selection of the final hydraulic zones with HZ#1 (light grey), HZ#2 (medium grey), and
840	HZ#3 (dark grey). Water velocity predictions for discharges of 100 m ³ .s ⁻¹ (E) and 200 m ³ .s ⁻¹ (F)
841	(yellow ≤0.8 m.s ⁻¹ , orange]0.8-1.3] m.s ⁻¹ , light red]1.3-1.8] m.s ⁻¹ , and dark red]1.8-2.5] m.s ⁻¹).



- 842
- 843 Figure 2. Examples of sampling plots presenting mostly thin periphyton biofilms (A)
- and mostly thick macroscopic biofilms (B). Macroscopic biofilms were identified bytheir dark-green colour (C).

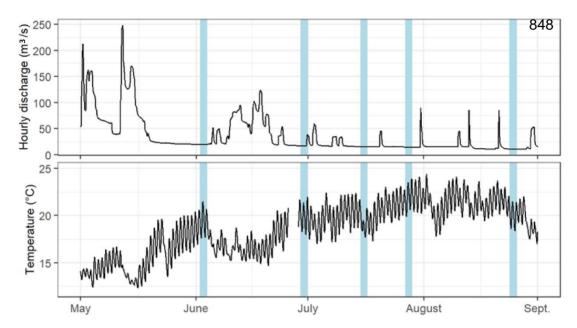


Figure 3. Hourly discharge and water temperature at the gauging station and
multiparameter probe of Chazey-sur-Ain (RMC Water Agency, Station V2942010)
during summer 2020. Vertical blue bars correspond to the 5 sampling campaigns.
The absence of temperature data in late June was due to a probe malfunction.

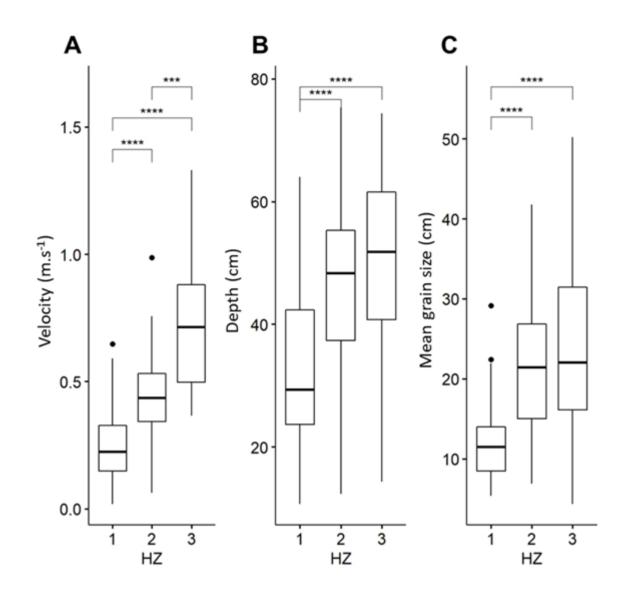


Figure 4. Variation in mean current velocity (A), depth (B) and mean grain size (C)
across the three HZs (Significant Kruskal–Wallis tests and Dunn's tests of multiple
comparisons are shown with an asterisk).

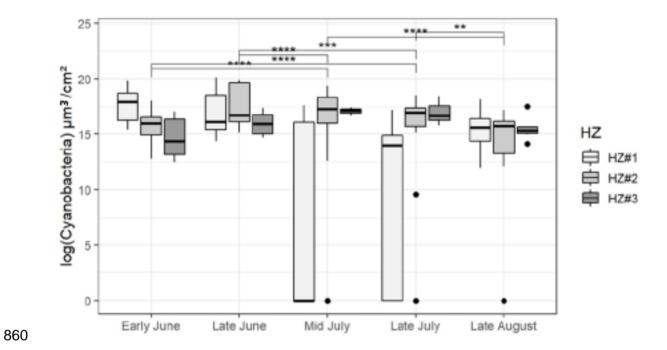


Figure 5. Average biovolume of cyanobacteria collected at the 5 sampling campaigns separated by hydraulic zone (Significant Tukey tests of multiple comparisons are shown with an asterisk).

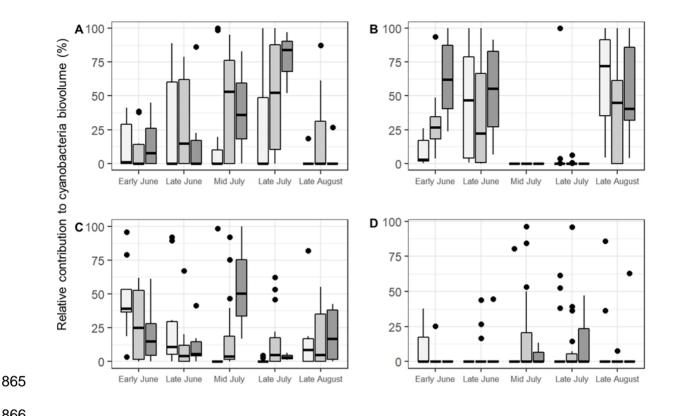
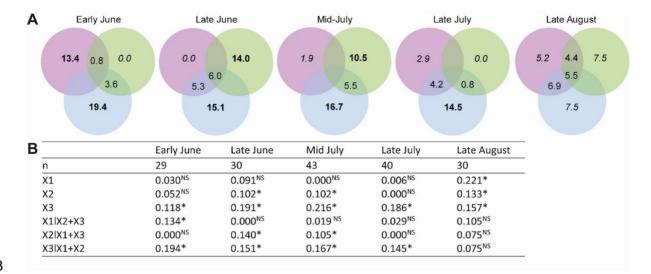




Figure 6. Mean relative contribution of the four most abundant genera (mean 867 contribution > 15%) to the total biovolume in cyanobacteria at the 5 sampling 868 campaigns and in each hydraulic zone: HZ#1 in light grey, HZ#2 in grey, HZ#3 in 869 dark grey. (A) Phormidium sp., (B) Planktolyngbya sp., (C) Lyngbya sp., (D) 870 871 Oscillatoria sp.





* statistically significant from a permutation test (P<0.05)

Figure 7. (A) Percentage of variance of the cyanobacteria biovolumes explained by 876 the three groups of explanatory variables: other biofilm algae in green (chlorophyta, 877 diatoms, and other algae), hydraulic variables in blue (Q15, U, D, GR) and physical 878 879 and chemical variables in pink (WT, pH, EC, NH4, NO3, PO4). The residual variance at each campaign equals 75.1%, 69.1%, 68.9%, 79.1% and 67.1%, respectively. (B) 880 Tests of significance of the amount of variance explained by the three explanatory 881 tables alone or in combination (X1 = Physico-chemistry, X2 = Other algae, X3 =882 883 Hydraulics, n = number of plots).