

1 The impact of extreme flood-relief pump operations on resident fish in an
2 artificial drain and the potential for artificial habitat introduction

3 **Abstract**

4 Fish are ubiquitous in pumped artificial drains but channel maintenance exposes fish to high
5 flows and predators, and fish communities may experience population-level threats if they are
6 unable to access refuge during extreme flood-relief pump operations. We assessed the impact
7 of an extreme flood-relief pump operation and effects of artificial habitat introduction on a
8 resident fish community in an artificial drain in Great Britain using side-scan and multi-beam
9 sonar. Sonar surveys before the flood found abundant aggregations of resident fish, whereas
10 no fish were found after the flood, which suggested flood-relief pump operations significantly
11 altered resident fish populations. Fish abundance near artificial habitats monitored before the
12 flood were highest during crepuscular periods and was similar among three different artificial
13 habitat designs. Our findings improve the understanding of extreme flood impacts on fish in
14 artificial drains and demonstrate the usefulness of sonar techniques for surveying abundance
15 and spatial distribution of fish populations before and after floods.

16 **Keywords**

17 fish distribution; flood risk management; multi-beam sonar (ARIS); pumping station; predator
18 refuge; side-scan sonar

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19 **1 Introduction**

20 Understanding the distribution, abundance, and habitat use of fish is fundamental for
21 ecological management, conservation, and restoration of freshwater ecosystems (Kruk, 2007;
22 Methot & Wetzel, 2013). Still, demonstrating how environmental changes, such as floods, can
23 affect distribution of fish in freshwaters is a major challenge facing ecologists and
24 environmental managers (Poff, 1997; Bolland *et al.*, 2015; Knouft & Anthony, 2016). In
25 unmodified rivers with heterogeneous hydro-geomorphological features (e.g., meanders,
26 floodplains, and unaltered flow), fish have evolved to respond to flooding by longitudinal
27 movement (David & Closs, 2002) and lateral dispersal into inundated floodplains (Peirson *et*
28 *al.*, 2008; Manfrin *et al.*, 2020), or occupy habitats that provide flow refuge (e.g., behind
29 boulders, fallen trees and dense vegetation; Lake *et al.*, 2006). However, land reclamation
30 and ongoing flood protection in lowland regions, achieved by channelisation, dredging, and
31 creation of dikes, has replaced lowland riverine ecosystems with artificial drain networks
32 (Beran, 1983; Smedema & Ochs, 1998; Gething & Little, 2020). Although heavily modified,
33 artificial drainage networks support river biota (Rideout *et al.*, 2021) and can have similar
34 biodiversity to unmodified lowland rivers, but fish fauna are threatened by anthropogenic
35 management (Simon & Travis, 2010; Chester & Robson, 2013).

36 Water levels in artificial drains can be managed by pumping stations with multiple
37 pumps to regulate normal water level (i.e., single pump, also referred to as duty pumping) and
38 rare or extreme rainfall to prevent flooding (i.e., all pumps, also referred to as flood-relief
39 pumping) (Armstrong, 1983; Beran, 1983). However, pumping station operation can
40 negatively affect local fish fauna, by entrainment into pumps (Barnthouse, 2013) and reduced
41 post-entrainment survival and health (Bierschenk *et al.*, 2019; Bolland *et al.*, 2019). However,
42 most studies focused on understanding impacts on individual fish and do not consider the
43 wider resident fish community distribution and abundance (but see Harrison *et al.*, 2019). The
44 likelihood of fish entrainment is exacerbated by channel maintenance (i.e., sediment dredging
45 and vegetation removal), which increases water conveyance but inadvertently removes

46 predator and flow refuge habitats for fish (Baatrup-Pedersen *et al.*, 2018; Baczyk *et al.*, 2018;
47 Schürings *et al.*, 2022). Further, resident (i.e., non-diadromous) fish fauna, such as roach
48 (*Rutilus rutilus*) and perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), are ubiquitous in pelagic zones of artificial drains
49 but also require temporally variable access to refuge from flow and predation (Townsend &
50 Peirson, 1988; Holmes & Hanbury, 1995; Borcharding *et al.*, 2002). Consequently, mass
51 aggregations of shoaling fish in open water during winter is a common anti-predator strategy
52 in artificial drains with damaged refuge connectivity (Borcharding *et al.*, 2002; Koizumi *et al.*,
53 2016). Fish may also aggregate at pumping stations that operate infrequently (Norman *et al.*,
54 2023). Furthermore, the lack of flow refuge could displace fish downstream and increase the
55 likelihood of entrainment (Morat *et al.*, 2017). Yet, the effects of extreme flood-relief pump
56 operation on prevailing fish communities in homogenised artificial drains with no lateral
57 connectivity to the surrounding floodplain requires further investigation (Kruk, 2007).

58 More careful management of habitat in modified lowland regions is required, but is
59 poorly understood (Chester & Robson, 2013; Schürings *et al.*, 2022) and considerations for
60 fish habitat are lacking in pumped artificial drains. Elsewhere, artificial habitats have been
61 introduced to supplement degraded natural habitats (Allen *et al.*, 2014) and increase local
62 abundance of fish (Frehse *et al.*, 2021). Thus, introducing artificial habitats in artificial drains
63 could provide fish with refuge from resident aquatic and avian predators when pumps do not
64 operate and provide flow refuge during pump operation (Lemmens *et al.*, 2016). Structural
65 design of artificial habitats may affect fish occupancy. For example, structurally complex
66 designs with interstitial spacing may be necessary in predator-crowded communities, but
67 sheltered open space may also be needed to avoid prey-crowding, although pilot studies are
68 needed to determine local community response before permanent introduction (Bolding *et al.*,
69 2010). Developing such knowledge will help overcome the lack of robust monitoring and help
70 determine the ecological function of artificial habitats and relative fish occupancy
71 (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2017), especially under real-world circumstances (Hale *et al.*, 2015).

72 The applicability of commonly used sampling techniques for understanding impacts of
73 extreme flood-relief pump operations and artificial habitat introduction in deep and turbid
74 artificial drains is challenging. Boat electro-fishing surveys can be used to sample fish
75 distribution and abundance (Lyon *et al.*, 2014) and netting can be used to sample slackwater
76 habitat use by juvenile fish in modified lowland rivers during floods (Bolland *et al.*, 2015), but
77 both are rarely used over large spatial scales due to sample effort required. Electronic tagging
78 would provide movement information before, during, and after flooding for a limited number of
79 individuals (e.g., cost limitations), provided fish were tagged prior to an extreme flood-relief
80 pump operation (Thorstad *et al.*, 2014). Alternatively, mobile horizontal echo-sounding using
81 high-frequency side-scan sonar (SSS) is increasingly popular for understanding fish
82 distribution and abundance (Lawson *et al.*, 2019). SSS produces a still image by emitting a
83 sound beam sideways (left and right) to define riverbed structure and locate objects (i.e., fish)
84 from reflected sound beam signals. The sonar is towed by a low-powered boat and can
85 therefore provide non-invasive sampling of fish populations in large rivers that require greater
86 spatial coverage (Papastamatiou *et al.*, 2020). Thus, SSS is an ideal tool for quantifying the
87 distribution and abundance of fish in artificial drains. Nonetheless, SSS surveys are performed
88 with a moving vessel so they cannot alone provide fine-scale information on the temporal rate
89 of artificial habitat occupancy. Stationary multi-beam sonars that capture video-like
90 observations during day and night are more appropriate for quantifying multi-species artificial
91 habitat occupancy (Martignac *et al.*, 2015; Petreman *et al.*, 2014; Baumann *et al.*, 2016).

92 The objectives of this study were to determine if extreme flood-relief pump operation
93 (using inter-annual SSS) and introduction of artificial habitat (using multi-beam sonar) affected
94 the resident fish community in an artificial drain in Great Britain. To achieve these objectives,
95 we quantified (1) fish distribution and abundance before (2017, 2019) and after extreme flood-
96 relief pump operations (2021), and (2) the influence of artificial habitat structure design, diel
97 cycle, and duty pump operation on fish abundance in artificial habitats. Artificial drains harbour
98 a significant proportion of biodiversity in modified lowland regions, so the impact of refuge loss

99 and extreme flood-relief pump operations on fish fauna urgently needs to be considered. We
100 quantified the distribution and abundance of fish in an artificial drain upstream of a pumping
101 station before and after an extreme flood-relief pump operation using SSS. Specifically, in
102 December 2020, 131 mm of rainfall (150% of the 1981–2010 long-term average, Environment
103 Agency, 2021) caused all six pumps ($\geq 20 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$) at a pumping station to operate for four days.
104 Fish abundance in the vicinity of three artificial habitat designs introduced for flow and predator
105 refuge were quantified during no pump and duty pump operation (prior to extreme flood-relief
106 pump operation) using multi-beam sonar. Our findings could inform future habitat
107 improvement work according to the Water Framework Directive (WFD; 2000/60/EC) and help
108 water authorities and ecologists to manage local fish populations in artificial drains.

109 2 Methods

110 2.1 Study area

111 The Lower Nene catchment (830 km²) in Great Britain is mostly agricultural land
112 managed by numerous pumped artificial drains. The North Level Main Drain (NLD) is the
113 largest, with a catchment area of 340 km², total length of 23 km, mean width of 23 m, and
114 elevation of -2 m above ordnance datum (mAOD). The downstream extent of NLD terminates
115 at Tydd pumping station (Lat: 52.738804 N Long: 0.162728 W: Figure 1a), which operated
116 during this study either as duty pump operation to maintain upstream levels (one pump ~ 3.3
117 m³s⁻¹) or extreme flood-relief operation (up to six pumps ~ 20.17 m³s⁻¹). Like other artificial
118 drains, resident fish populations in NLD are typical of a lowland river, including roach, pike
119 (*Esox Lucius*), bream (*Abramis brama*), tench (*Tinca tinca*), perch, and rudd (*Scardinius*
120 *erythrophthalmus*) (Environment Agency, 2022; Schürings *et al.*, 2022). The study area was
121 a navigable 12-km reach of NLD extending upstream from Tydd pumping station (Figure 1a),
122 which is highly maintained during winter, so habitat is significantly degraded. Early mitigation
123 efforts to protect fish from predators and reduce entrainment into pumps during high flows at
124 Tydd pumping station included installation of artificial habitat upstream of the pumping station
125 (Figure 1c). River level (mAOD) was monitored at the nearest (~20 km from Tydd pumping
126 station) river gauge in the River Welland catchment (Lat: 52.720221 N Long: -0.141261 W)
127 (Figure S1).

128 2.2 Artificial habitat

129 Three artificial habitats were constructed using steel gabion baskets (3 mm thickness
130 1000 x 1000 x 1000 mm length x width x height) with 76.2 x 76.2 mm apertures (Figure 1c;
131 Figure 2). Four one-and-a-half sized apertures (i.e., 152.4 x 76.2 mm) were created on the
132 front-facing side of each basket. Each habitat was then constructed by joining six baskets
133 (5000 x 2000 x 1000 mm) to encompass a volume of ~10 m³ per habitat (Figure 1c; Figure 2),
134 to represent patches of marginal reeds present in NLD throughout summer, whilst ensuring
135 water conveyance was not impeded in the artificial drain.

136 Each of the three artificial habitats used a different design to resemble natural
137 structures with varied complexities, to determine if overhead shelter, interstitial spacing or both
138 affected habitat occupancy (see Bolding *et al.*, 2010). Overhead shelter was provided by
139 marine plywood boards (16mm thickness) attached to wooden framing, and bamboo canes (6
140 – 8 mm thickness, 1200 mm length) were inserted in every other aperture in gabion baskets
141 (secured with cable ties) to create interstitial spaces with ~150 mm spacing. Bamboo canes
142 were used to reduce use of plastic in artificial habitats and mimic highly abundant common
143 reeds (*Phragmites australis*) (Cooke *et al.*, 2023). The size and number of interstitial spaces
144 was intended to target juvenile (0–15 cm total length, TL) and adult (15–25 cm TL) roach and
145 similar-sized resident fish (i.e., perch), whilst excluding larger-bodied resident predator
146 species (i.e., pike > 30 cm TL). Partial refuge (A) had bamboo canes (no overhead shelter),
147 partial refuge (B) had overhead shelter (no bamboo canes), and complete refuge (C) had both
148 bamboo canes and overhead shelter. Artificial habitats were installed in NLD in December
149 2019 (Lat: 52.738804N Long: 0.162728W) (Figure S1). Bank-side access (personnel and
150 crane equipment) and distance from power source (Tydd pumping station) determined final
151 placement of artificial habitats.

152 2.3 Sonar assessment

153 2.3.1 Side-scan sonar

154 SSS surveys used a commercially available Humminbird® Solix 15 CHIRP MEGA SI
155 (Johnson Outdoors Inc., Racine, WI) using frequency ranges of 1150–1275 MHz in 2017 and
156 2019 and 780–850 MHz in 2021, powered by a 12v battery. Frequency ranges enabled
157 detection of target fish using a total swath width of 30 m (15 m either side of the boat) to cover
158 varying channel widths of 20–30 m. The transducer was attached to a pole at a depth of 30
159 cm at the front end of a small workboat with an electric outboard. SSS surveys started at the
160 downstream extent of NLD (i.e., Tydd pumping station, including artificial habitats in 2021) and
161 moved upstream to Clough Bridge Sluice at the centre of NLD at 2–5 km^h⁻¹ (Figure 1a); a total
162 distance and area of ~12 km and ~30 km², respectively. The reach upstream of Clough Bridge

163 Sluice was too narrow and shallow to survey with SSS. All surveys were performed at normal
164 water levels (i.e., not rising or falling) in one morning (09:00–12:00) on 27 November 2017, 10
165 December 2019, and 17 December 2021. The last survey responded to extreme flood-relief
166 pump operation at Tydd pumping station on 23–27 December 2020 (six pumps, 96 hours).
167 The sampling day was intended to detect winter shoaling behaviour of resident fish. SSS
168 tracks were converted to a 2d image in real-time on the sonar console to allow for observations
169 of fish targets during sampling, and final outputs were processed as a ‘New Sonar Mosaic’
170 using Reefmaster® software (ReefMaster Software Ltd, West Sussex, UK).

171 2.3.2 Multi-beam sonar

172 Fish abundance was monitored at artificial habitats using Adaptive Resolution Imaging
173 Sonar (ARIS Explorer 3000, Sound Metrics®, USA. <http://www.soundmetrics.com/>) on 10–18
174 December 2020. The ARIS was installed on an L-shape steel pole (2 x 1 m) using a
175 SoundMetrics AR3-rotator at a depth of ~2 m (Figure 1c). Data and power cables were routed
176 to a bankside weatherproof box with a sonar command module and laptop with remote internet
177 connection (Panasonic TF-19). During the 8-day deployment, each artificial habitat was
178 imaged for two consecutive days. To image refuge (A) and (C), the pole was driven into the
179 riverbank between the two structures. After (C) was imaged, the ARIS was rotated to image
180 (A). The ARIS was later moved between refuge (A) and (B) to image refuge (B) (Figure 1c).
181 The position was aligned with the leading edge of artificial habitats, and imaging of artificial
182 habitat structures was used to confirm correct orientation of the sonar.

183 The ARIS was operated using SoundMetrics software (ARIScope V2.6.3.1559) in high
184 frequency mode (1.8 MHz, 96 0.3° x 14° beams, 512 bins) with a window length of 8.4 m
185 (starting 3 m from point of transducer) at 9.7 frames s⁻¹ (fps), receiver gain at default, and
186 focus set to auto to account for changes in fish distance from the transducer. This range
187 allowed for an appropriate resolution to capture fish targets ≥10 cm (Maxwella & Gove, 2007).
188 Continuous observations were captured except when data collection was interrupted to

189 maintain equipment and reposition the ARIS. Files were time and date stamped (hh:mm:ss –
190 dd/mm/yyyy) and stored in 10-minute intervals.

191 2.4 Analysis of sonar data

192 2.4.1 Fish abundance in North Level Drain

193 SSS survey data were used to estimate fish abundance by counting fish targets in the
194 final image produced by Reefmaster. Data were processed in ImageJ v1.53e (Schneider *et*
195 *al.*, 2012), which has been effective for enumerating fish targets in SSS data (Bollinger & Kline,
196 2017; Lawson *et al.*, 2019). To provide a standardised measure of area, a transect was drawn
197 across the river width (25 m) and calibrated to 758 ± 1 pixels. Once calibrated, approximate
198 fish lengths were measured from fish shapes and individual region of interest (ROI) were
199 applied to light and dark backgrounds to identify acoustic shadows cast by fish shapes and
200 acoustic reflections of fish (Figure 3). Fish were then counted by applying the findMaxima tool
201 and adjusting background (light, dark) and detection tolerance (0 – 45) to minimize over- and
202 under-plotting of fish targets. Points plotted by findMaxima were scrutinised by applying a
203 ‘within tolerance’ threshold to ensure plotted points corresponded to fish targets. Total area
204 analysed was 840 m² in 2017 and 990 m² in 2019. Fish abundance was then estimated as the
205 total survey area divided by 10 (i.e., fish abundance·10 m²), which enabled comparison
206 between side-scan density throughout NLD and multi-beam density at artificial habitats.

207 2.4.2 Fish abundance at artificial habitat

208 To quantify temporal variability, fish abundance data were sub-sampled into four two-
209 hour discrete sample periods over a 24-hour day (dawn = civil twilight \pm 1h 06:30–08:30,
210 daytime = 11:30–13:30, dusk = civil twilight \pm 1h 15:30–17:30, night-time = 23:30–01:30).
211 Multi-beam sonar surveys of artificial habitats were performed during duty pump operation
212 (one pump, 30 hours) for 64% of the total sample range; 35% of dawn, 85% of dusk, 83% of
213 midday, and 52% of midnight samples (Figure S1). Flow velocity during duty pump operation
214 was 0.25 m s⁻¹, estimated by measuring speed of debris floating downstream in the centre of
215 multi-beam images. Overall duration of sonar footage included 24 hours of ARIS images.

216 Counts of fish occupying the space immediately adjacent to artificial habitat structures (~14
217 m²; Figure 4) were taken by an experienced reviewer every 15 minutes (individuals·1
218 frame·15min⁻¹ ± 5 s⁻¹) and calculated as fish abundance·10 m². Background subtraction was
219 applied if floating debris reduced resolution of fish targets. Playback speeds were adjusted as
220 necessary, and quick backward and forward navigation allowed observation of fish interacting
221 with artificial habitats. Fish size was approximated using the ARIS measurement tool when
222 fish were perpendicular to the sonar beam.

223 2.5 Statistical analysis

224 Fish abundance from side-scan and multi-beam sonar surveys were not normally
225 distributed (Shapiro-Wilk normality tests: R function 'shapiro.test'), so non-parametric tests
226 were used for comparisons and results were summarized as medians and inter quartile ranges
227 (IQR). To assess the impact of extreme flood-relief pump operation, Wilcox rank-sum tests (R
228 function 'wilcox.test') were used to compare fish abundance between 2017 and 2019 (pre-
229 flood) and 2021 (post-flood) SSS surveys. To assess fish abundance at artificial habitats,
230 Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum tests (R function 'kruskal.test') were used to compare fish abundance
231 from multi-beam surveys between three artificial habitat designs (A– C; Section 2.2) and
232 between four photoperiods (dawn, day, dusk, night). Fish abundance at artificial habitats was
233 also compared between no-pump and duty-pump operations using a Wilcox rank sum test. All
234 data were analysed using R version 4.0.2 in RStudio 1.4.11 (R Core Team, 2022; RStudio
235 Team, 2022) and figures were created using R packages 'ggplot2', 'ggpubr', 'gridextra' and
236 'cowplot'.

237 **3 Results**

238 3.1 Fish distribution and abundance in North Level Drain

239 During 12-km SSS pre-flood surveys, 5,213 fish (~10–20 cm TL) were identified in
240 November 2017 and 1,474 in December 2019 (Figure 5a; Figure 5b; Table S1). Fish were
241 identified at only one location near a road bridge, ~1 km upstream of Tydd pumping station,
242 of 70-m length, 25-m width, and 2.4–2.7 m depth (Figure 1b; Figure S2). Abundance was
243 significantly higher in 2017 (median = 63, IQR = 15.5 fish·10 m²) than 2019 (median = 15.4,
244 IQR = 6.95 fish·10 m²; Wilcox rank sum: $W = 144$ $p = <0.001$; Figure S2; Figure S3) (Figure
245 6). During the post-flood SSS survey in December 2021, no fish were identified and the reach
246 had only clearly defined riverbanks (Figure 5c; Figure S4).

247 3.2 Fish abundance at artificial habitats

248 Median abundance (individuals·1 frame·15min⁻¹) did not differ significantly among
249 artificial habitat structure types (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2_2 = 0.82$, $p = 0.66$), and 881 fish were
250 identified near the partial refuge (A median = 4.29, IQR = 5.89 fish·10 m²), 786 near the partial
251 refuge (B median = 3.57, IQR = 8.04 fish·10 m²), and 556 near the complete refuge (C median
252 = 3.21, IQR = 8.21 fish·10 m²; Figure 7a; Table S2). Fish counts differed significantly among
253 photoperiods (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2_{23} = 50.87$, $p = <0.001$), with highest abundance at dawn
254 (median = 9.29, IQR = 17.7 fish·10 m²) and dusk (median = 5, IQR = 6.79 fish·10 m²), and
255 lowest abundance during the day (median = 2.86, IQR = 2.86 fish·10 m²) and night (median =
256 2.14, IQR = 4.82 fish·10 m²) (Figure 7b). Fish abundance near all artificial habitats was
257 significantly higher when the duty pump at Tydd pumping station was not operating (median
258 = 7.86, IQR = 9.64 fish·10 m²) than when one duty pump was operating (median = 2.14, IQR
259 = 5.71 fish·10 m²; Wilcox rank sum: $W = 2667$, $p = <0.0001$) (Figure 7c). Although not identified
260 to species, the size range of shoaling fish (10–20 cm) was likely a multi-species assemblage
261 of cyprinids and percids. Five large predator-sized fish (120 – 135 cm) imaged were most
262 likely pike, based on body shape. Artificial habitat structures were easily identified in post-

263 extreme pump operation surveys (17 December 2021), but no fish were identified near artificial
264 habitats (Figure 5d; Figure S4).

265 4 Discussion

266 While not direct evidence, effects of heavily degraded longitudinal habitat, isolated
267 lateral connectivity, and extreme flows exceeding fish swimming capability combined to
268 suggest that highly abundant fish aggregations we observed prior to the flood in 2017 and
269 2019 were displaced downstream (e.g., Poff & Zimmerman, 2010) and removed from NLD by
270 entrainment during the extreme flood-relief pump operation in December 2020. Anglers
271 consistently reported greatly reduced catches of adult resident fish (i.e., > 15 cm roach) from
272 NLD throughout 2021, which we later corroborated by SSS surveys in December 2021. Fish
273 have evolved to live in rivers with in-channel habitat heterogeneity and laterally connected
274 floodplains, which provide flow refuge during elevated river levels and floods (Peirson *et al.*,
275 2008). However, fish fauna in artificial drains are continually threatened by homogenisation of
276 habitat during winter and are laterally isolated from floodplain refuges (Chester & Robson,
277 2013). Furthermore, flow velocities upstream of the pumping station studied here far exceeded
278 recommended targets (0.3 m s^{-1}) by operating more pumps to increase volume of water
279 discharged during a rare flood event (Flikweert & Worth, 2012). In-channel flow velocity in
280 pumped artificial drains (here $\sim 1.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ with six pumps operating) can greatly exceed those
281 of natural rivers (Lake *et al.*, 2006) and swimming capability of fish (Baumgartner *et al.*, 2009).
282 Roach, for example, have slender body-morphology poorly adapted for living in fast-flowing
283 conditions, with an estimated sustained swimming capability of two minutes at 0.7 m s^{-1} flow
284 velocity (Clough & Turnpenny, 2001). Quantified estimates of entrainment and mortality during
285 flood events are lacking, but global reviews by Barnthouse (2013) and Harrison *et al.* (2019)
286 both report a similar potential for population-level mortality during extreme operations as
287 suggested here. The long-term impacts remain to be quantified, but recovery from extreme
288 floods in channelised rivers similar to the artificial drain studied here can occur when only few
289 adults survive (Juradjda *et al.*, 2006). However, the catchment studied here was relatively
290 small, with heavily degraded habitat, and the pumping station would prevent re-colonisation
291 from further downstream, something that can occur in natural longitudinally connected rivers
292 (Tummers *et al.*, 2016; Benitez *et al.*, 2018).

293 Fish occupancy of artificial habitats could only be studied (using multi-beam sonar)
294 pre-flood (2020) because the entire artificial drain was void of fish post-flood and therefore the
295 effectiveness as flow and predator refuge was unclear. During our multi-beam surveys, fish
296 aggregated around artificial habitats and followed a crepuscular pattern commonly described
297 for pelagic fish communities vulnerable to predation (Pitcher & Turner, 1986). Maximal
298 abundances at dawn and dusk may be associated with movements toward or away from
299 artificial habitats, like diel movements to and from natural refuge habitats (e.g., Hohaiova *et*
300 *al.*, 2003). In contrast to previous findings (Bolding *et al.*, 2010; Daugherty *et al.*, 2014;
301 Baumann *et al.*, 2016), we found no significant difference in fish abundance among habitat
302 designs, perhaps because of poor habitat placement (Hale *et al.*, 2015), lack of predator
303 stimulus (i.e., avian piscivores), or methodological limitations. Indeed, fish abundances were
304 also significantly reduced during duty pump operation, possibly attributed to fish seeking flow
305 refuge inside artificial habitat (e.g., Costa *et al.*, 2019) and thus could not be imaged by multi-
306 beam sonar. Overall, our findings are useful for habitat management decisions and highlight
307 the importance of monitoring artificial habitats under real-world conditions (i.e., Hale *et al.*,
308 2015) to understand the influence of diurnal processes, artificial habitat design, and pump
309 operation on the feasibility of introducing artificial habitat to supplement degraded natural
310 habitat in artificial drains.

311 4.1 Future research

312 A combination of side-scan and multi-beam sonar used herein provided high spatial
313 coverage and enumeration of fish in a drain and fine-scale analysis of habitat occupancy, and
314 thus could be used to guide future studies of flooding in modified freshwaters. The coincidence
315 of an extreme flood event during our study cannot be planned or implemented in an empirical
316 study design due unpredictability of such events. But, if an opportunity arose to study these
317 conditions again, this work would benefit from an increased temporal rate of SSS surveys (i.e.,
318 immediately before and after an extreme flood-relief pumping event). Additionally, although
319 no pollution incidents or fish kills were in the upstream drain, other factors may have influenced

320 changes to fish composition, and therefore, future research should attempt to validate fish
321 losses after extreme flood-relief pump operations. Indeed, whilst not possible at Tydd pumping
322 station, due to the volume of water pumped presenting a risk to people, equipment, and fish
323 in nets, collection of entrained fish from pump outlets would directly quantify the number of
324 fish entrained (e.g., Baumgartner *et al.*, 2009). Alternatively, incorporating telemetry data and
325 tracking fish could be used to confirm downstream displacement of fish and pumping station
326 entrainment time (Thorstad *et al.*, 2014), although this would need considerable foresight to
327 ensure tagged fish were not released immediately prior to an extreme flood event.

328 Future artificial habitat research needs to understand effectiveness of full-scale habitat
329 restoration efforts to provide predator and flow refuge for resident fish because poorly placed
330 artificial habitats are ineffective (Hale *et al.*, 2015). The size, number and spatial distribution
331 of habitats required to support resident populations must be fully determined. Additionally,
332 reaches upstream of pumping stations where artificial habitats can be installed need to be
333 identified, with reference to locations where fish are abundant and vulnerable to predation and
334 flow displacement. Telemetry techniques (e.g., passive integrated transponder tags) could be
335 used to quantify the number of fish inside artificial habitat during floods (e.g., Teixeira & Cortes,
336 2007), although large numbers of fish may need to be tagged in large freshwater systems and
337 all artificial habitat installations could not likely be studied.

338 4.2 Conclusions and management implications

339 Populations of resident fish in lowland artificial drains are highly abundant and thus
340 managers and ecologists have a responsibility to understand the impact of habitat degradation
341 and extreme flood-relief pump operations on the distribution, abundance, and behaviour of
342 fish. The results presented here are the first to provide a quantitative estimate of distribution
343 and abundance of resident fish in an artificial drain with a high-capacity pumping station,
344 before and after a rare extreme flood-relief operation and at artificial fish habitats using side-
345 scan and multi-beam sonar. During our investigation at a high-capacity pumping station (total
346 capacity = 20.17 m³s⁻¹), a coincidental rare extreme flood event (131 mm rainfall over 31 days;

347 150% of the 1981–2010 average) caused all six pumps to operate for four days. We
348 demonstrated that thousands of fish were potentially displaced from a homogenised artificial
349 drain. In future years, climate change will drive an increased necessity for flood-relief pump
350 operations (Chang *et al.*, 2013; Hannaford, 2015), and thus exacerbate the problem
351 demonstrated herein to increase the necessity for management actions. Therefore, managing
352 flood risk must be balanced with protecting local biodiversity of fish fauna in artificial drains
353 (Rideout *et al.*, 2021). Indeed, while safer operations of pumping stations tend to focus on fish-
354 friendly pumps for diadromous fish (Bierschenk *et al.*, 2019), we demonstrated a need for flood
355 risk management to be more ecologically sensitive by providing alternative refuges in heavily
356 maintained artificial drains to prevent population-scale impacts on resident fish. Artificial
357 habitat can be introduced into artificial drains, but further investigation is needed to understand
358 long-term effectiveness as flow and predator refuges. Overall, our findings suggest that
359 extreme flood-relief pump operations significantly alter the abundance of resident fish
360 upstream of pumping stations and our proposed management actions will be useful for
361 ensuring long-term survival of resident fish communities in pumped artificial drains around the
362 world.

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539

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 a) the location of the study catchment (bottom left) and North Level Drain catchment, (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, sampled on 27 November 2017, 10 December 2019, and 17 December 2021 including side-scan survey reach (blue dotted line). b) representative image of side-scan sonar survey. c) a schematic representation (not to scale) of the artificial habitat installation, showing the position (52.738804N, 0.162728W) of the structures partial refuge (A – bamboo), partial refuge (B – shelter) and complete refuge (C – shelter & bamboo) with a diagram of habitat structure (grey shading represents cover, orange circles represent bamboo canes), representation of ARIS insonified window and the downstream pumping station.

Figure 2 Photographs of three artificial habitat designs installed upstream of Tydd PS (52.738804N, 0.162728W) of North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, on 10 December 2019. From left to right, partial refuge (A – bamboo), partial refuge (B – shelter) and complete refuge (C – shelter & bamboo). Inset photo shows bamboo canes installed through apertures in steel cages. Positions of artificial habitats differ in this photo from the final installed positions (Figure 1c).

Figure 3 A representation of fish target extraction method used for enumerating fish in the side-scan sonar survey images from North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, on 27 November 2017, 10 December 2019, and 17 December 2021. The findMaxima outputs and counts are generated from ImageJ.

Figure 4 A schematic representation of artificial habitat structures overlaid on raw multi-beam sonar images of artificial habitats, taken in position in the artificial drain of North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, 10–18 December 2020. Upstream arrows are relative to the position of artificial habitats in Figure 1c. Fish counted in frame, including estimated size indicated by circled yellow marks.

Figure 5 Composite image from North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, with a representation of the side-scan survey S1 (downstream to upstream) for a) 27 November 2017, b) 10 December 2019, c) 17 December 2021. d) shows artificial habitat also imaged on 17 December 2021 (52.738804N, 0.162728W) (Figure 1c). findMaxima output presented from ImageJ.

Figure 6 Median abundance estimated from fish counts in side-scan sonar images of North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, on 27 November 2017, 10 December 2019, and 17 December 2021.

Figure 7 Median fish count near: a) artificial habitats, with partial refuge (A – bamboo), partial refuge (B – shelter) and complete refuge (C – shelter & bamboo) in the North Level Drain (52.737735N, 0.148511W), Great Britain, 10–18 December 2020. b) fish accounts across photo period MD = midday, MN = midnight and c) fish counts during duty pump operation. Significance between categories indicated by Wilcoxon rank sum (ns = not significant, * = $P \leq 0.05$, ** = $P \leq 0.001$).

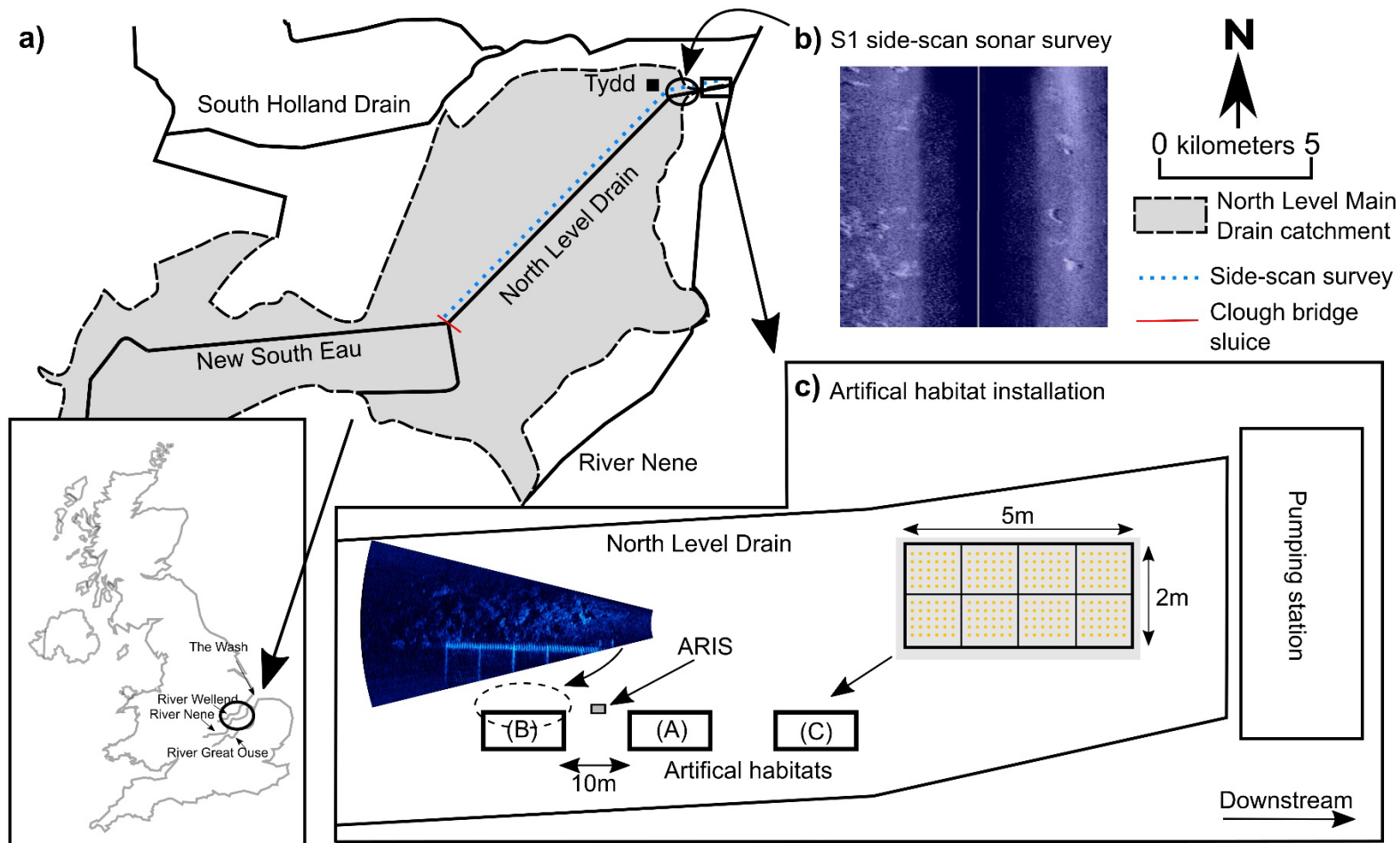


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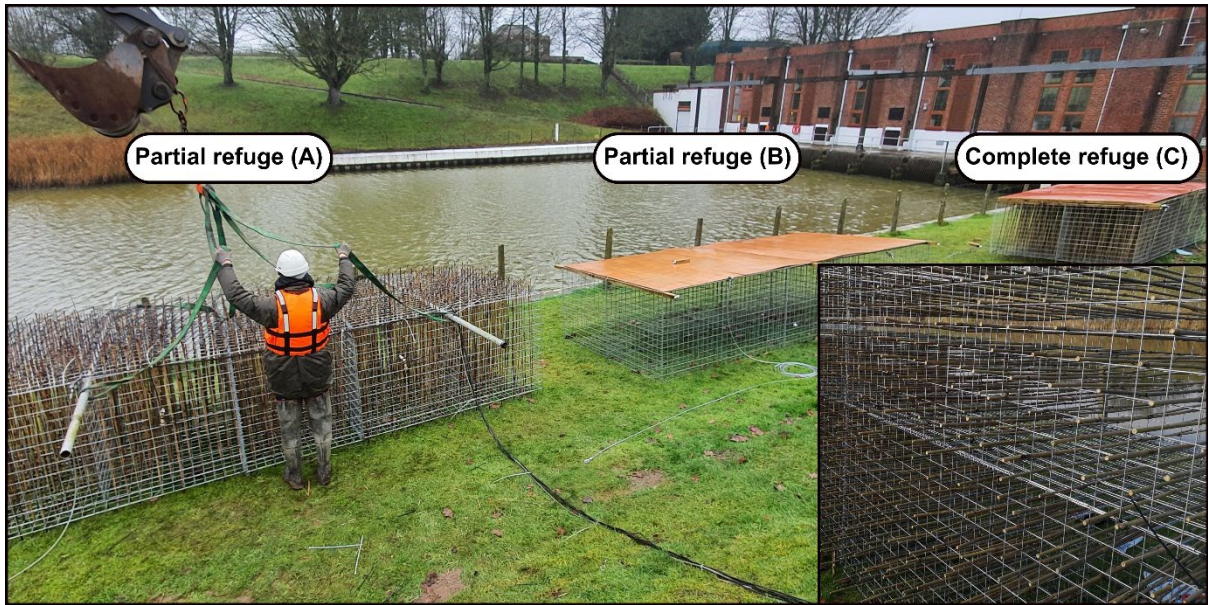


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Fish target extraction process

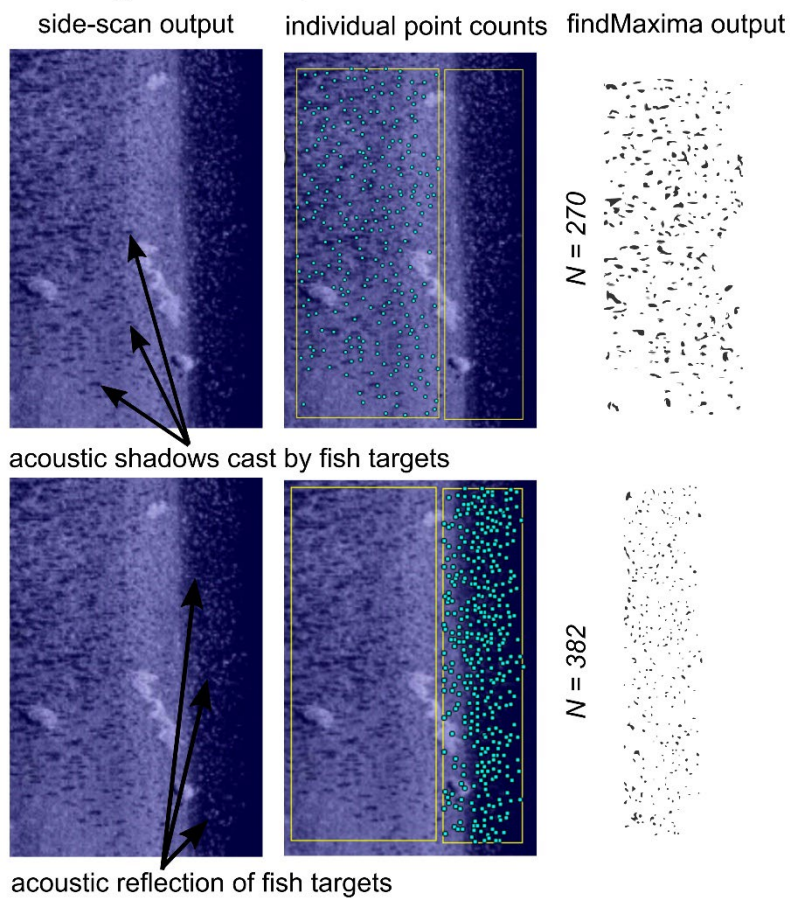


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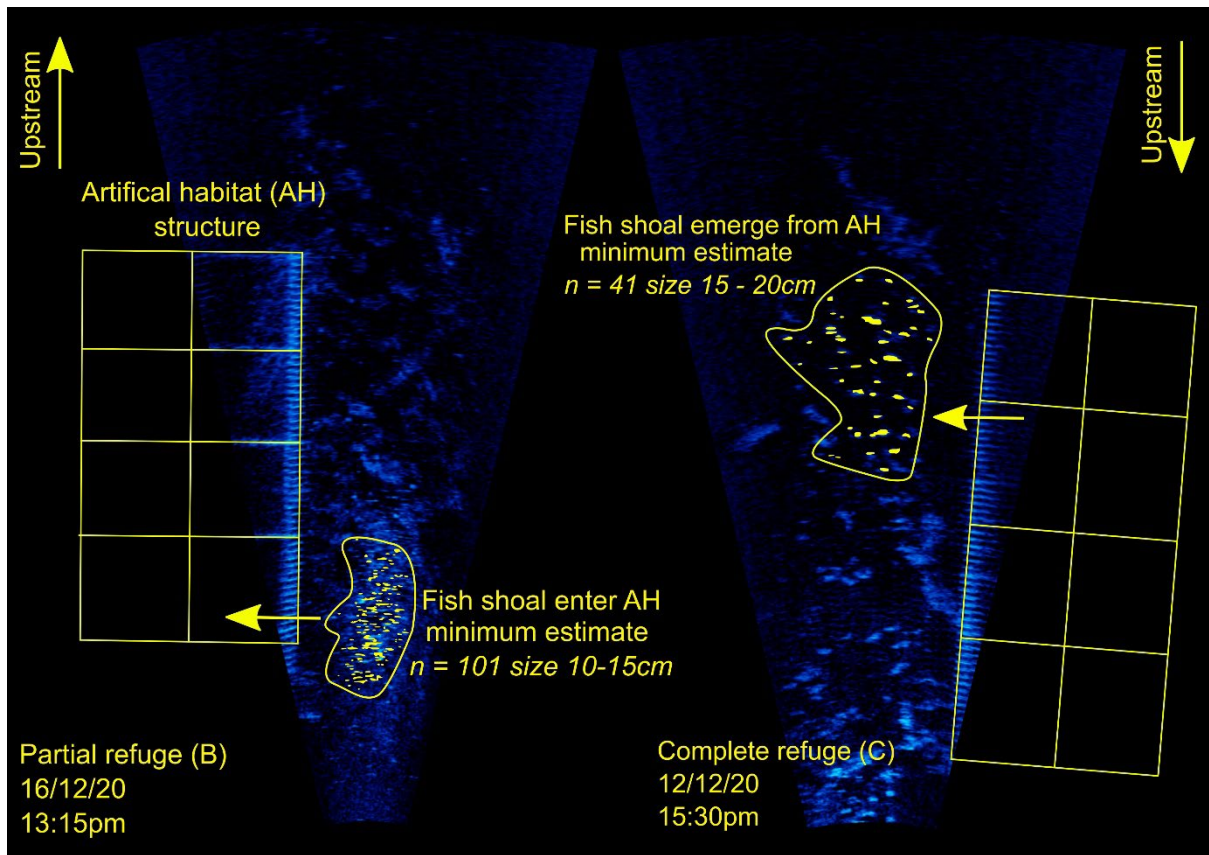


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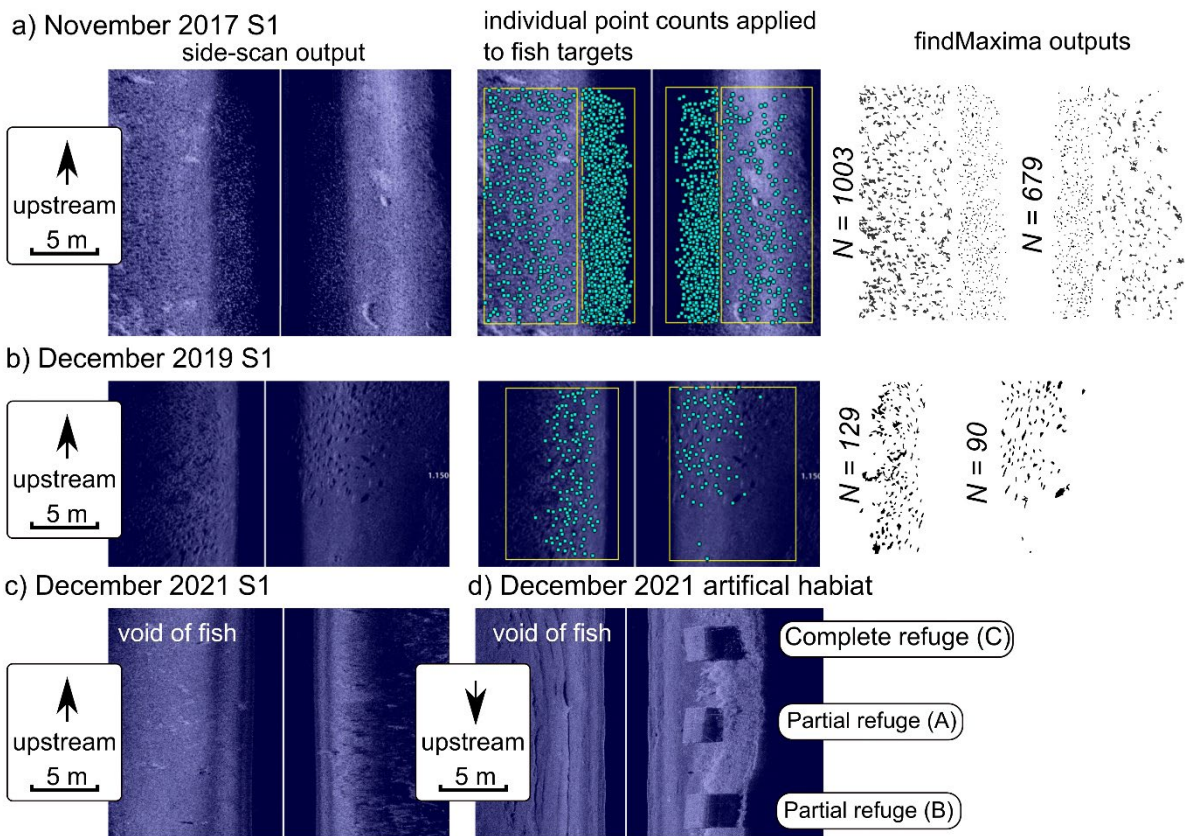


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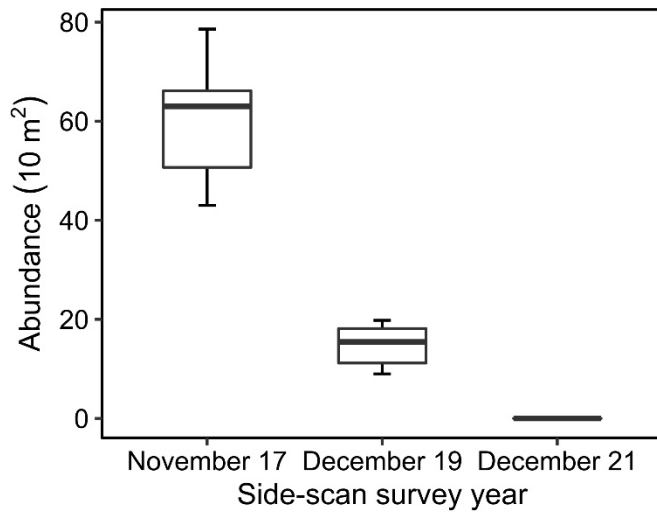


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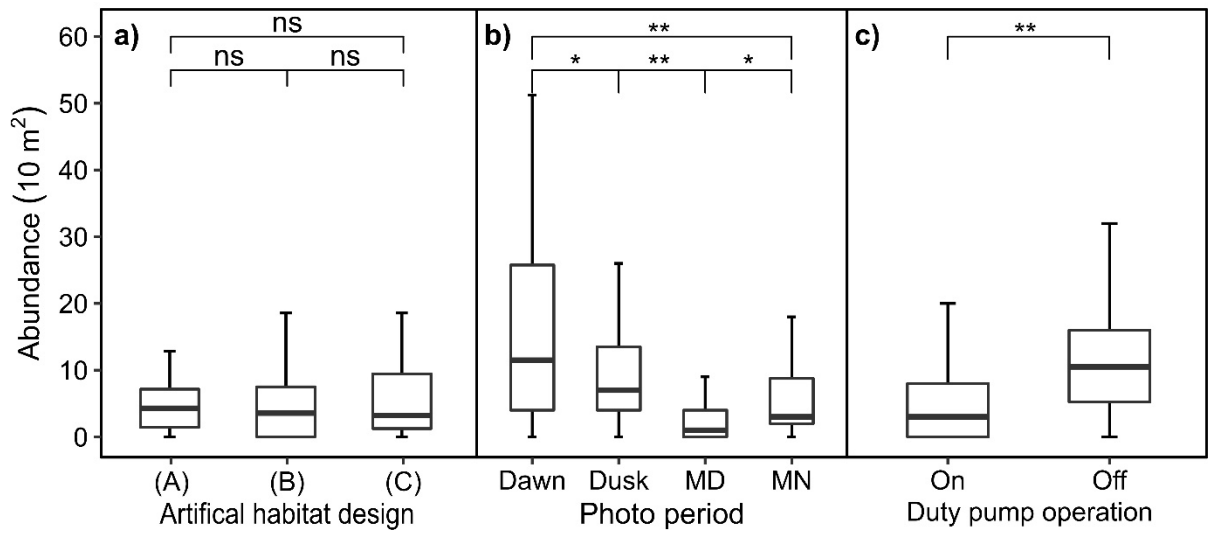


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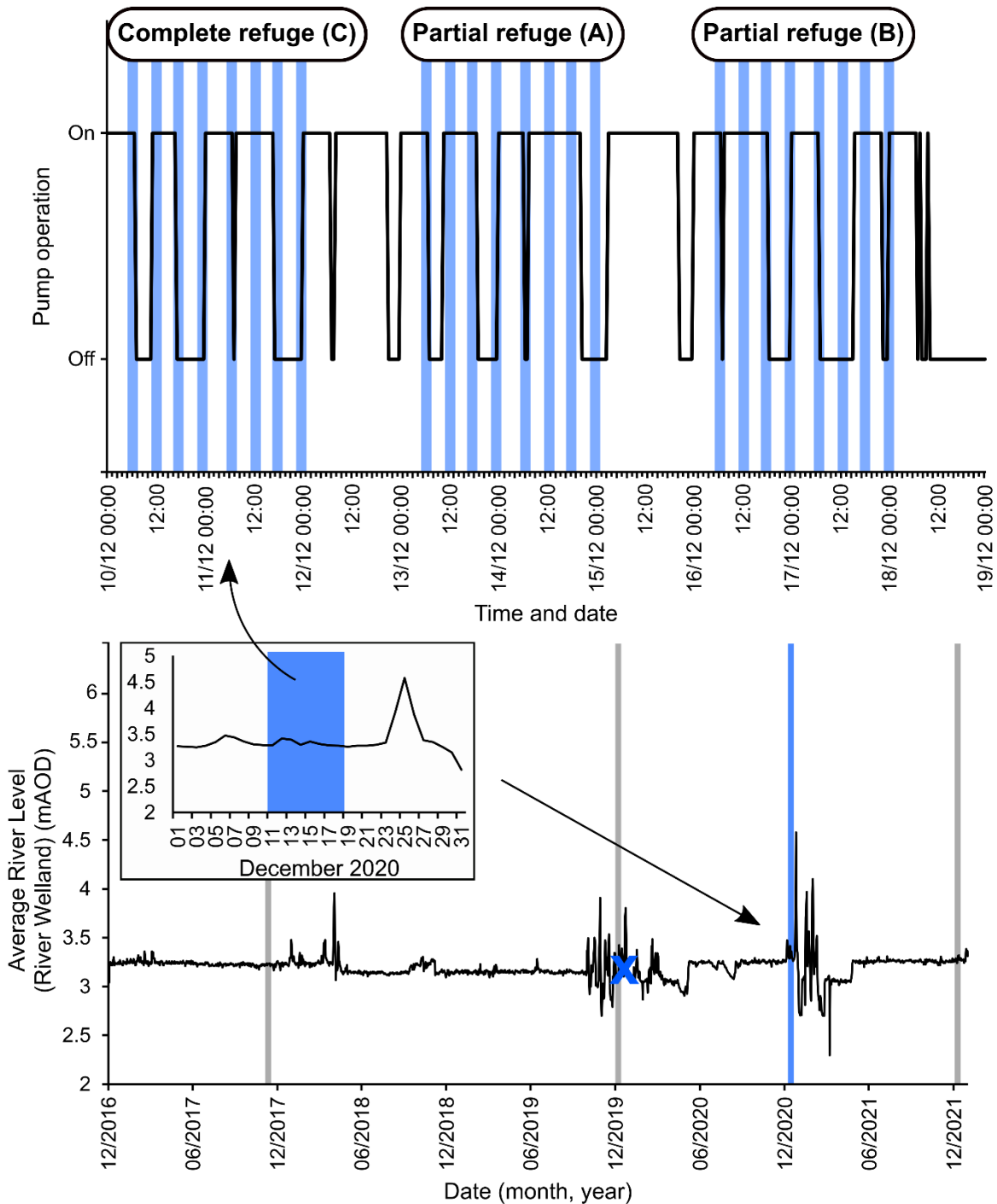
1 **FME-22-163 Supplementary material**

2 Table S1 Side-scan sonar survey results throughout the study period. Region of Interest (ROI) specifies
 3 where counts were taken on light and dark backgrounds. Total fish count given by findMaxima outputs
 4 (ImageJ).

Sample year	Total area (m ²)		n ROIs		Total	Fish count
	Surveyed (at S1)	Analysed	Light	Dark		Estimated fish abundance (10 m ²)
November 2017	1600	840	6	6	5213	63
December 2019	1600	990	8	4	1474	15.4
December 2021						
<i>(main drain)</i>	1600	0	-	-	0	0
<i>(artificial habitats)</i>	900	0	-	-	0	0

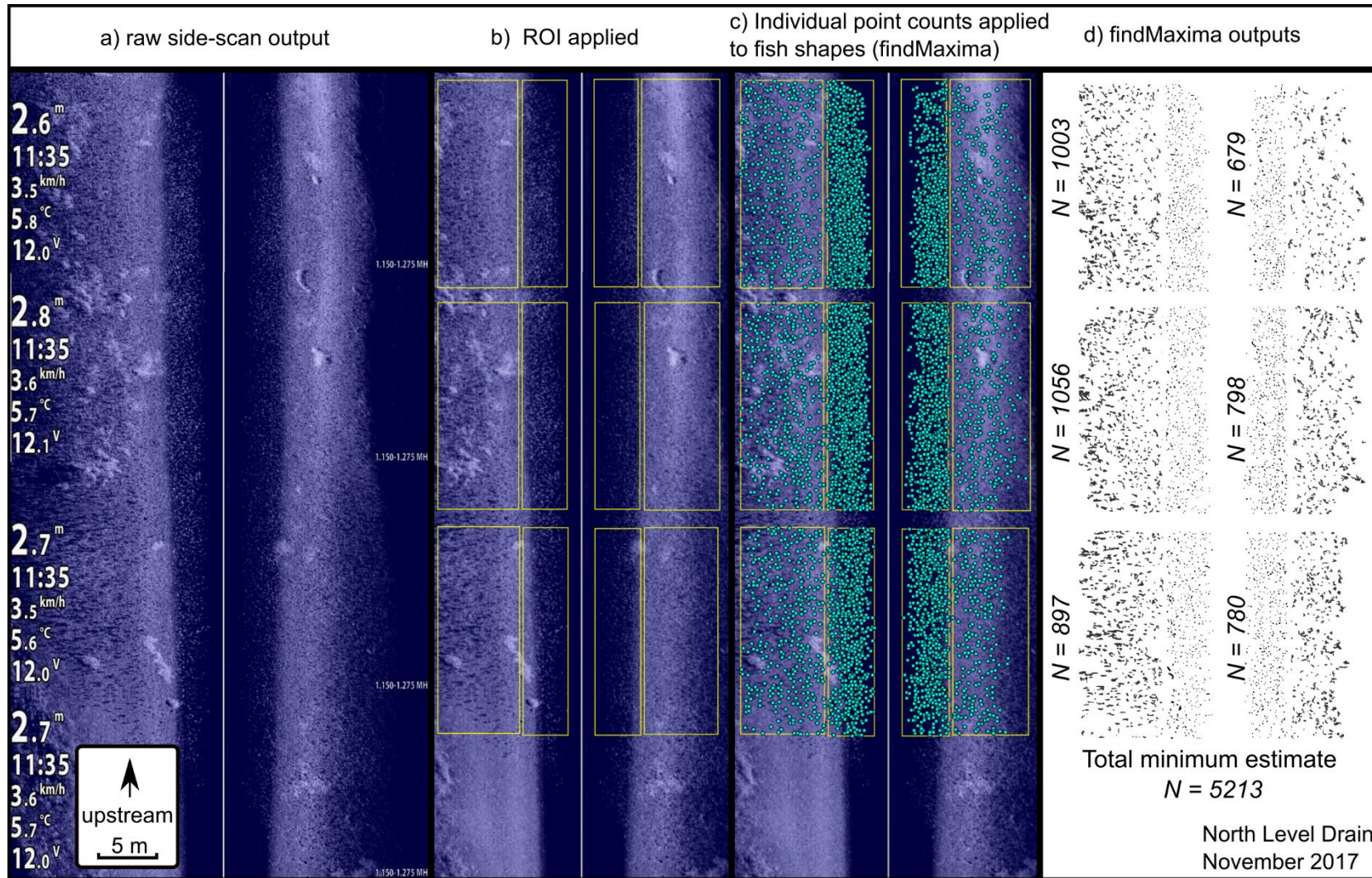
5 Table S2 Multi-beam survey results from artificial habitat sampled on 10 – 18 December 2020.

Artificial habitat (photo period)	Estimated fish abundance (10 m ²)				Hours duty pumped during sample (%)	
	Median	Min	Max	IQR		
Complete refuge	3.21	0	30	8.21	9	(75%)
<i>Dawn</i>	6.78	0.71	18.57	8.21	1.50	(37.50%)
<i>Day</i>	0.71	0	2.85	1.42	4	(100%)
<i>Dusk</i>	10	2.14	30	4.64	2	(50%)
<i>Night</i>	1.78	0	12.85	6.07	1.50	(37.50%)
Partial refuge (A)	4.29	0	80.70	5.89	10.75	(89.50%)
<i>Dawn</i>	19.2	0	80.74	22.50	1.25	(31.25%)
<i>Day</i>	1.48	0	12.14	5.17	4	(100%)
<i>Dusk</i>	4.64	0	12.85	3.57	4	(100%)
<i>Night</i>	3.21	0	7.14	3.92	1.50	(37.50%)
Partial refuge (B)	3.57	0	72.10	8.04	10.50	(87.50%)
<i>Dawn</i>	13.21	0	47.14	21.25	1.50	(37.50%)
<i>Day</i>	0	0	72.14	7.32	2	(50%)
<i>Dusk</i>	3.21	0	18.57	3.75	4	(100%)
<i>Night</i>	2.14	0	12.85	3.57	3	(75%)



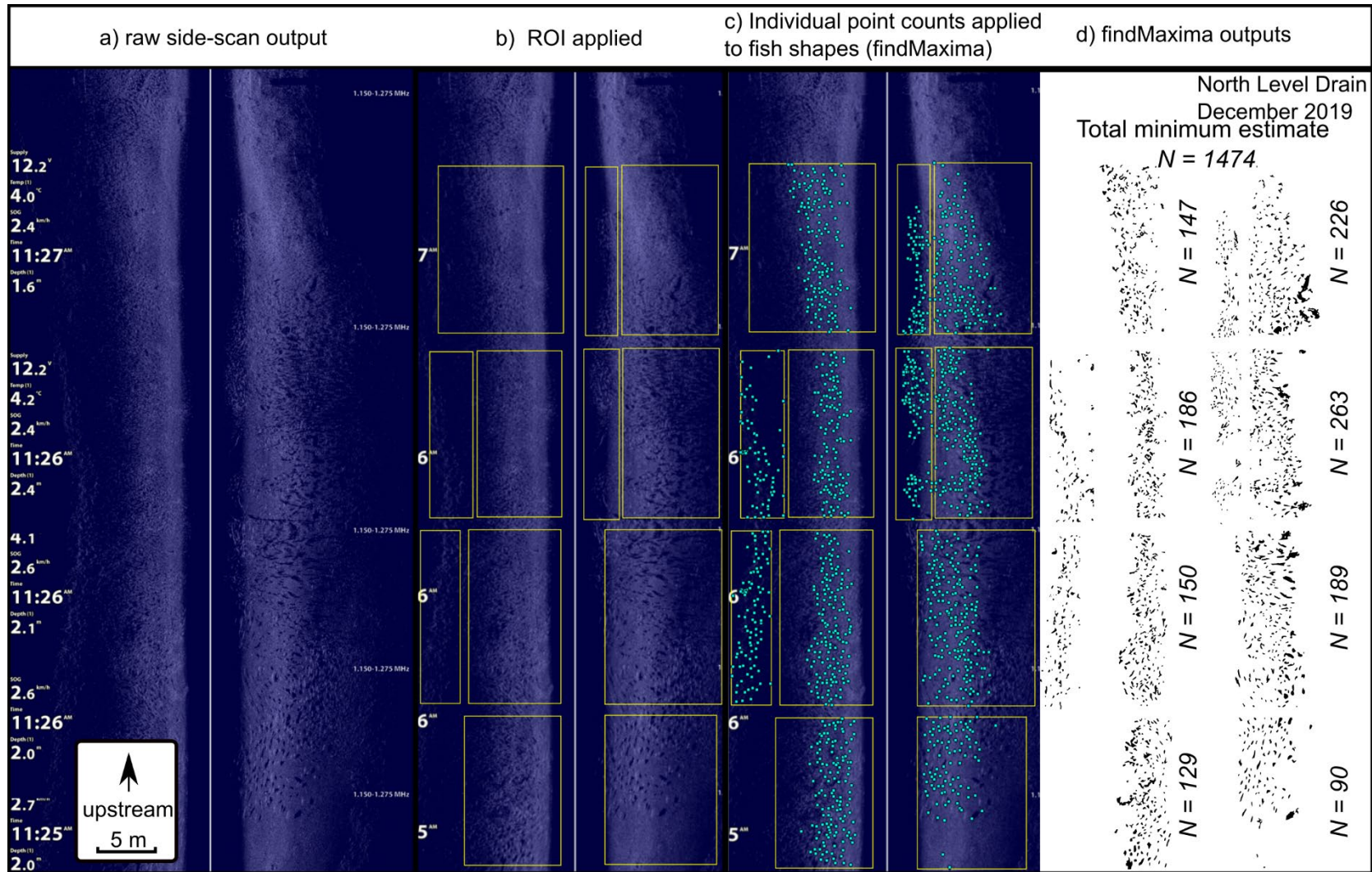
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8 Supplementary Figure 1 (top) pump operations at Tydd pumping station on 10 – 18 December
 9 2020 and (bottom) average daily river level (mAOD) recorded in the River Welland (52.720221
 10 N,-0.141261 W) adjacent to North Level Drain catchment between December 2016 and
 11 December 2021. Vertical grey bars indicate date of side-scan surveys. The blue cross
 12 indicates when artificial habitats were installed upstream of Tydd pumping station, and the
 13 vertical blue lines indicate when the ARIS sonar surveys were performed (inset figure for
 14 clarity).



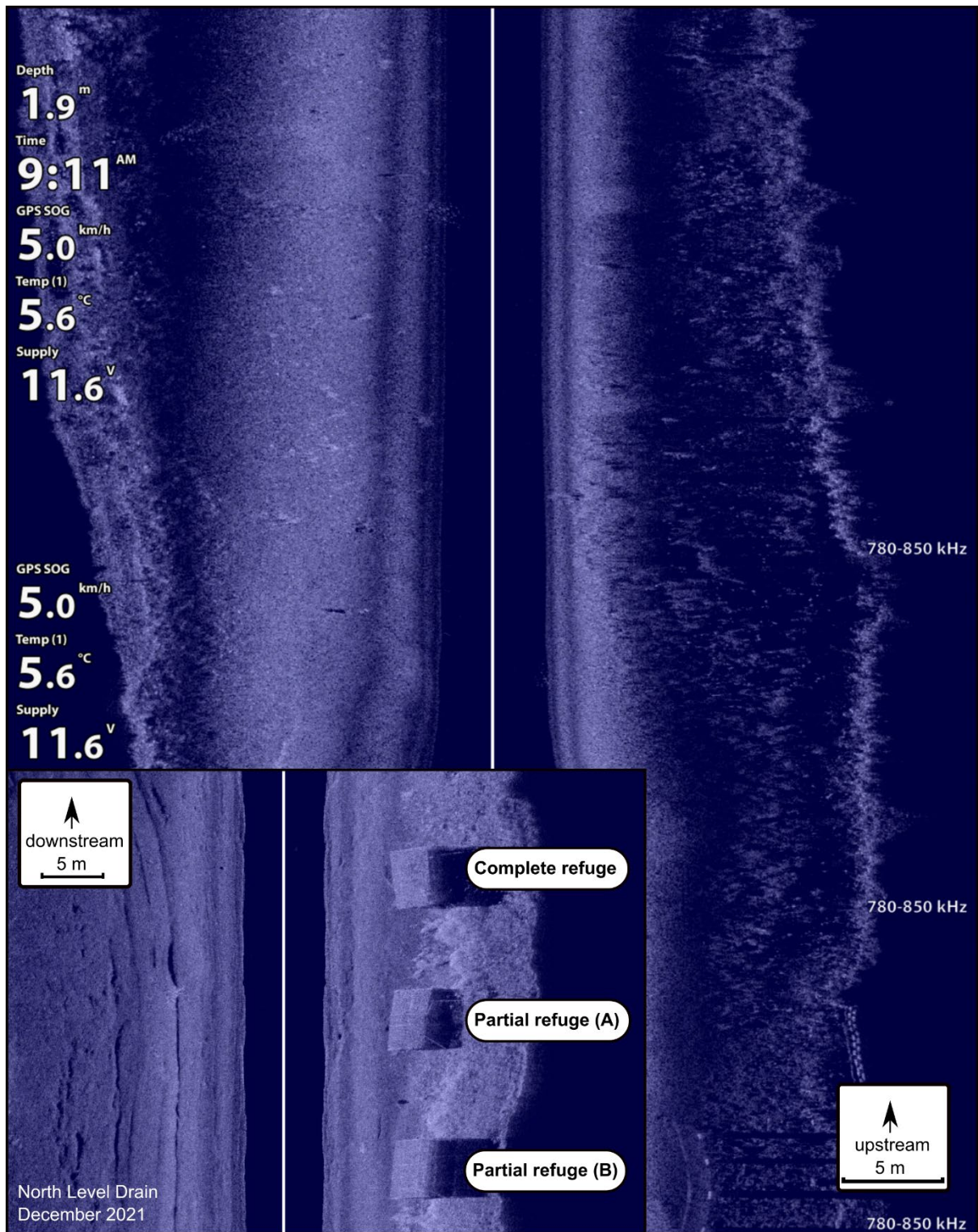
15

16 Supplementary Figure 2. Composite image from North Level Drain (52.737735N,0.148511W) with a representation of the side-scan survey
 17 (downstream to upstream) for 27 November 2017. The enumeration process is shown as a) – d).



18

19 Supplementary Figure 3. Composite image from North Level Drain (52.737735N,0.148511W) with a representation of the side-scan survey
20 (downstream to upstream) for 10 December 2019. The enumeration process is shown as a) – d).



Supplementary Figure 4. Composite image from North Level Drain (52.737735N,0.148511W) with a representation of the side-scan survey (downstream to upstream) for 17 December 2021. Inset image shows artificial habitat scans.