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1 **Spatial variation in branch size promotes metapopulation persistence**
2 **in dendritic river networks**

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13

14 **Keywords:** Metapopulation model, riverine networks, spatial branch-size
15 heterogeneity, species dispersal, spatial branch arrangement.

16

17

18 **Abstract**

- 19 **1.** Despite years of attention, the dynamics of species constrained to disperse within
20 riverine networks are not well captured by existing metapopulation models, which
21 often ignore local dynamics within branches.
- 22 **2.** We develop a modelling framework, based on traditional metapopulation theory, for
23 occupancy dynamics subject to local colonization-extinction dynamics within
24 branches and directional dispersal between branches in size-structured, bifurcating
25 riverine networks. Using this framework, we investigate whether and how spatial
26 variation in branch size affects species persistence for dendritic systems with
27 directional dispersal.
- 28 **3.** Variation in branch size generally promotes species persistence more obviously at
29 higher relative extinction rate, suggesting that previous studies ignoring differences
30 in branch size in real riverine systems might overestimate species extinction risk.
- 31 **4.** Two-way dispersal is not always superior to one-way dispersal as a strategy for
32 metapopulation persistence especially at high relative extinction rate. The type of
33 dispersal which maximizes species persistence is determined by the hierarchical
34 level of the largest, and hence most influential, branch within the network. When
35 considering the interactive effects of up- and down-stream dispersal, we find that
36 moderate upstream-biased dispersal maximizes metapopulation viability, mediated
37 by spatial branch arrangement.
- 38 **5.** Overall, these results suggest that both branch-size variation and species traits
39 interact to determine species persistence, theoretically demonstrating the ecological

40 significance of their interplay.

41

42 **1 INTRODUCTION**

43 Riverine systems are inherently dendritic in structure, with mainstems connecting
44 multiple blind-ended branches (Fagan, 2002; Muneeppeerakul et al., 2008; Altermatt,
45 2013). These dendritic topologies feature unique structural and dynamic
46 characteristics that deserve special attention (Grant, Lowe, & Fagan, 2007). Moreover,
47 the biodiversity and functional integrity of rivers and streams are severely threatened
48 by climate change (e.g. flooding and drought) and anthropogenic disturbance (e.g.
49 hydrodams and pollution). This creates an urgent need for studies that explore how
50 riverine structures affect ecological patterns and processes.

51 Over the past two decades, numerous theoretical and empirical studies have
52 examined the effects of different riverine structures on species persistence and
53 biodiversity, and great advances have already been made in our understanding of their
54 ecological significance (Fagan, 2002; Muneeppeerakul et al., 2008; Fronhofer, &
55 Altermatt, 2017). For example, metapopulation persistence in riverine ecosystems was
56 higher in larger networks especially with greater topological complexity, but this
57 relationship was greatly influenced by the specific nature of a species' dispersal, such
58 as upstream or downstream biases (Altermatt, & Fronhofer, 2018; Anderson, & Hayes,
59 2018; Tonkin et al., 2018; Tonkin, Heino, & Altermatt, 2018). Thus, the interaction of
60 network topology with species dispersal can affect metapopulation stability in riverine
61 networks (Mari et al., 2014; Seymour, Fronhofer, & Altermatt, 2016; Terui et al.,
62 2018).

63 The importance of dispersal connectivity structured by riverine configurations has
64 been widely appreciated for species persistence (Fagan, 2002; Lowe, 2003; Macneale,
65 Peckarsky, & Likens, 2005; Grant, 2011), yet current metapopulation models often
66 fail to capture the reality of riverine systems by ignoring local dynamics within
67 branches. In fact, riverine branches can provide breeding habitats for many
68 populations, and species movements observed at regional scales may both emerge
69 from and influence processes occurring at much smaller scales (Anderson, & Hayes,
70 2018). This suggests that the local colonization-extinction process within branches
71 should be explicitly considered in metapopulation dynamics (Woodward, & Hildrew,
72 2002; Goldberg, Lynch, & Neubert, 2010; Shen et al., 2018; Terui et al., 2018).

73 In nature, river branches routinely display different sizes because of biological or
74 geomorphological processes (Rodríguez-Iturbe, & Rinaldo, 2001). Differences in
75 branch size (in which, following McIntosh et al. 2018, we include all physical aspects
76 of a river branch that could affect capacity to support a population, e.g. branch length,
77 width and depth, water area and catchment size) may be crucial for understanding the
78 mechanisms of metapopulation persistence in river networks, as they can mediate the
79 movement of populations among branches and therefore affect synchronization
80 between “within-branch” and “among-branch” dynamics (Carrara et al., 2014; Yeakel
81 et al., 2014; Terui et al., 2018). Likewise, spatial arrangement of different size
82 branches in hydrological models plays a vital role in shaping basin-scale flow patterns
83 (Rodríguez-Iturbe, & Rinaldo, 2001), and as such, dispersal interactions between river
84 populations are often asymmetrically influenced by those upstream due to directional

85 water flow (Grant, Lowe, & Fagan, 2007; Yeakel et al., 2014). Thus, the interaction
86 between species dispersal and spatial variation in branch size can be expected to
87 strongly affect the spatiotemporal dynamics of riverine metapopulations. Given all of
88 this, it seems wise to explicitly consider variation in branch size when modeling
89 ecological dynamics in river networks. However, this feature is absent from most
90 previous dendritic ecological models, which have instead stressed the importance of
91 dispersal among branches for population viability at the expense of branch size/length
92 and/or local branch dynamics (Carrara et al., 2012, 2014).

93 Here we develop a modelling framework for metapopulation dynamics in
94 size-structured, bifurcating riverine networks based on the traditional metapopulation
95 model (Levins, 1969; Hanski, 1998), which has become increasingly prevalent in the
96 modern ecological literature as it has already proven extremely useful for
97 understanding the interactive effects of variation in patch size, network topology and
98 dispersal asymmetry on metapopulation patterns (Vuilleumier et al., 2006; Shtilerman,
99 & Stone, 2015). In our model, we further consider species dispersal directionality to
100 reflect the reality that different species often display distinct dispersal behaviors, such
101 as upstream only dispersal, downstream only dispersal, or two-way “upstream” and
102 “downstream” dispersal (Schick, & Lindley, 2007). Local population dynamics within
103 branches are thus subject not only to species regional dispersal but also to the local
104 colonization-extinction process. With this model, we systematically investigate
105 whether and how variability in branch size and the arrangement of branches of

106 different size, influence metapopulation persistence for bifurcating systems with
107 directional dispersal.

108 **2 METHODS**

109 **2.1 Theoretical framework**

110 We model a bifurcating riverine network of total size one unit ($F=1$), with n
111 hierarchical levels (total number of branches $2^n - 1$). For model simplicity, each
112 branch is divided into a variable number of identical patches representing colony sites
113 for potential populations, disregarding spatiotemporal environmental variability. Thus,
114 a larger branch contains more patches (illustrated in Figure 1; Muneeppeerakul et al.,
115 2007). The population of a given branch, and the system as a whole, can be regarded
116 as proportional to the number of colonized patches within it (Liao et al. 2017a,b,c).
117 This framework allows us to model both within branch colonization-extinction
118 processes and the effects of dispersal between branches. We consider three types of
119 dispersal: one-way dispersal in either the upstream or downstream direction, and
120 two-way dispersal (both down- and upstream movement). Thus, four processes
121 determine riverine metapopulation persistence: colonizer production (with a rate c),
122 local extinction (with a rate e), downstream dispersal (with a rate λ) and upstream
123 dispersal (with a rate λ').

124 For simplicity, we assume that species can disperse into the connected branches
125 freely in each time unit (i.e. neighboring dispersal), unaffected by branch size (Fagan,
126 2002; Grant, 2011). Based on the traditional metapopulation model (Levins, 1969;
127 Hanski, 1998), we describe the patch occupancy dynamics for the given branch i by

$$128 \quad \frac{dp_i}{dt} = \left[\begin{array}{c} cp_i \\ \text{Colonization} \end{array} + \lambda \begin{array}{c} (p_{j_1} + p_{j_2} - p_i) \\ \text{Net downstream dispersal} \end{array} + \lambda' \begin{array}{c} (p_k / 2 - p_i) \\ \text{Net upstream dispersal} \end{array} \right] \cdot \begin{array}{c} (F_i - p_i) \\ \text{Patch availability} \end{array} - \begin{array}{c} ep_i \\ \text{Extinction} \end{array} . \quad (1)$$

129 Here p_i represents the number of occupied patches within the branch divided by the
130 total number of patches in the whole riverine system. We assume that each occupied
131 patch within a branch produces colonizers at a constant rate c producing a
132 *colonization potential* cp_i . The colonization potential from a given branch is then
133 divided between local colonization and dispersal and thus, in particular, the dispersal
134 out of a branch cannot exceed cp_i , i.e. $\lambda + \lambda' \leq c$. Local colonization is supplemented
135 by dispersal from the neighboring branches j_1 and j_2 (upstream) and k (downstream).
136 Thus, the net colonization potential for branch i is given by its own colonization
137 potential plus the net dispersal in the up- and down-stream directions. Since only
138 unoccupied patches can be colonized, the fraction of unoccupied patches within the
139 branch $(F_i - p_i)$ limits the overall colonization rate. Note that F_i denotes the number of
140 patches within the i -th branch divided by the total number of patches within the
141 system. Thus, $F = \sum F_i = 1$ ($0 \leq F \leq 1$) and the total occupancy of the system
142 is $p = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n-1} p_i$.

143 The riverine networks are assumed to be a closed system without population inflow
144 and outflow (i.e. completely isolated from external environments), thus in Equation 1,
145 $-\lambda' p_i = 0$ and $\lambda(p_{j_1} + p_{j_2}) = 0$ for those upstream blind-ended branches (headwaters),
146 while $\lambda' p_k / 2 = 0$ and $-\lambda p_i = 0$ for the most downstream branch.

147 2.2 Simulation cases

148 In addition to the direct effect of varying branch size, the spatial arrangement of the

149 branches can also be expected to influence metapopulation dynamics. To investigate
150 these effects on species persistence, we consider a small bifurcating riverine network
151 with three hierarchical levels containing seven branches (total size $F = \sum_{i=1}^7 F_i = 1$ with
152 the mean $\bar{F} = 1/7$; see Figure 1). We assume that branch sizes within a riverine
153 network follow a randomly uniform (unbiased) distribution, which can yield a wider
154 range of branch-size difference than a skewed (biased) distribution (though it is more
155 realistic), allowing us to systematically explore the effect of spatial variation in
156 branch size on metapopulation viability. We perform three distinct numerical
157 experiments, detailed below.

158 We first consider an idealized riverine network containing a single large branch
159 with all other branches being the same size (Figures 2-3 & S1-S11 in *Appendix*),
160 allowing maximum control over the system characteristics. In particular, our system
161 consisted of six branches with size $F_i=1/10$ and one branch with size $F_i=2/5$. Using
162 this system, we investigated the effects of the relative extinction rate (e/c in Figure 2)
163 and the dispersal rates (λ and λ' in Figure 3), by comparing its three possible spatial
164 configurations (Figure 1II-IV; though river branch size typically increases towards
165 downstream) with the reference structure of all branches having the same branch size
166 ($F_i=1/7$ in Figure 1I). To ensure that the results obtained are not specific to this
167 structure, we also considered a more complex, although still idealized, riverine
168 structure, see *Appendix* (Figure S12-S24) for details.

169 While it is relatively easy to assess how each factor influences species persistence
170 in an idealized system, these geometries are less realistic. In order to generalize our

171 results for the effects of dispersal rates (λ and λ') to more realistic riverine structures
172 we also calculate equilibrium occupancies on an ensemble of structures with
173 randomly generated branch sizes. Branch sizes were drawn from a uniform
174 distribution, with mean equilibrium occupancy and its standard deviation being
175 calculated for 100 replicates (Figures 4 & S3 in *Appendix*).

176 Finally, we carried out a similar investigation of the effects of variability in branch
177 size and the relative extinction rate (Figure 5). Likewise, the branch sizes for each
178 riverine network were randomly drawn from a uniform distribution, and the degree of
179 variability in branch size in each structure was characterized using the coefficient of
180 variation $C.V = \sigma_{F_i} / \bar{F}$ (i.e. the relative dispersion of branch sizes F_i around the mean
181 \bar{F}), with σ_{F_i} being the standard deviation. For each type of dispersal, we randomly
182 generated 1000 riverine networks with different branch-size variations, and
183 equilibrium system occupancy was calculated for each network.

184 For each experiment we calculated the non-trivial equilibrium occupancy of the
185 systems using a numerical solver (ODE45 Matlab R2016a; see Matlab codes in
186 *Appendix*). All patches were assumed to be initially occupied and simulations were
187 run until the system approached its steady state. If global patch occupancy fell below
188 10^{-5} , the metapopulation was assumed to be extinct. Although we did not provide a
189 formal sensitivity analysis (but see Figures S25-S26 in *Appendix* for a larger network
190 with four hierarchical levels containing 15 branches), a broad range of biologically
191 reasonable parameter combinations were explored and found to yield qualitatively
192 similar outcomes, thus allowing us to present our general outcomes by choosing one

193 of the parameter combinations as a reference case (Figures 1-5 & S1-S24 in
194 *Appendix*). In our study, we assume that dispersal is limited to the colonization of
195 neighboring branches. Longer range dispersal events, e.g. to neighbours of neighbours,
196 could be included but would significantly increase the complexity of the model. An
197 alternative, allowing global dispersal (i.e. from any patch to any patch) is
198 straightforward to implement; we obtain $dp/dt=cp(1-p)-ep$, with $p^*=1-e/c$ at
199 equilibrium. As such, global dispersal can maintain higher species abundance than
200 neighbour dispersal, more obviously at higher relative extinction rates (e.g. Figure S4
201 in *Appendix*). However, it must be noted that global dispersal means that river
202 structure, the focus of this study, has no effect on the occupancy dynamics.

203 **3 RESULTS**

204 **3.1 Effects of branch size variation on species persistence in idealized riverine** 205 **structures**

206 Including a single large branch within the riverine structure increases global species
207 occupancy relative to the reference system (Figure 2 II-IV vs. I), regardless of other
208 factors. This trend becomes stronger at higher relative extinction rates e/c . As a
209 natural consequence of these trends, the species extinction threshold (i.e. the maximal
210 value of e/c that a species can tolerate without going extinct) is lowest in the reference
211 geometry but is much higher in the heterogeneous networks. Since the species is able
212 to persist in the large branch at much higher values of e/c than it can in the smaller
213 branches (Figures S5-S7 & S16-S18 in *Appendix*). Furthermore, dispersal from the

214 larger branch allows species to survive in the smaller branches at high relative
215 extinction rates which would result in species extinction in the reference system.

216 For low relative extinction rates, dispersal bias has little effect on global occupancy
217 (Fig. 2, see also S1 & S13-S14 in *Appendix*). Increasing the relative extinction rate
218 makes smaller habitats less favorable, allowing effects of dispersal bias to emerge, in
219 particular in relation to the underlying structure of river network. Regardless of the
220 underlying riverine structure, an upstream-biased dispersal maximizes global
221 occupancy (Figure 3), although the riverine structure does determine the optimal level
222 of bias. The highest global occupancy is attained when the large branch is at the
223 lowest hierarchical level (Figure 3II). In this case, upstream dispersal allows a large
224 population in this branch to support the population of all other branches within the
225 system (Figure S9). In the other configurations, some regions of the riverine network
226 gain no benefit from the large branch (Figures S10 & S11). At high relative extinction
227 rates, the optimal strategy for species survival is to disperse only in the direction of
228 the largest branch. For example, if the largest branch is located at the lowest
229 hierarchical level, then downstream-only dispersal leads to a highest global occupancy,
230 in contrast to the case with the largest branch at headwaters (Figure S1II vs. IV).

231 Consequently, our model predicts that the extinction threshold of a species is
232 maximized if no dispersal from the large branch is possible (Figure S2). In particular,
233 if the large branch is at one end of the network, the optimal dispersal bias is in the
234 direction of that large branch (Figure S2). If the large branch is one of the
235 intermediate branches, zero dispersal in both directions is optimal (Figure S2).

236 **3.2 Effects of species characteristics on population persistence in networks with**
237 **random branch sizes**

238 The trends we observe for the idealized riverine structures above are preserved for
239 networks with random branch sizes. In particular, a moderate upstream-biased
240 dispersal is optimal for low relative extinction rates (Figure 4) and no dispersal is
241 optimal at high relative extinction rates (Figure S3). Moreover, increasing the relative
242 extinction rate e/c decreases the global occupancy (Figure 5). The latter result follows
243 from the fact that the effect of the relative extinction rate is independent of the
244 network structure (cf. Figure 2), and, as such, randomizing that structure does not
245 change the effect. Similarly, for low e/c upstream-biased dispersal is optimal
246 regardless of the position of larger branches. Thus, while the degree of bias varies
247 between systems within the ensemble, on average, the optimal bias must be upstream.
248 For high e/c , dispersal out of the largest branch decreases global occupancy. In a
249 random network, the position of this branch is random, thus zero dispersal is optimal.

250 Increasing variation in branch size within the network (characterized by the
251 coefficient of variation, $C.V$) increased global occupancy (Figure 5). This follows
252 from, and generalizes, the observation that incorporating a large branch within the
253 network increases the equilibrium population. In particular, variation in branch size
254 means that some branches must be larger than others. Furthermore, since the size of
255 the network as a whole is fixed, increasing this variation requires that the largest
256 branch contains a greater proportion of the total habitat, i.e. become larger. We finally
257 found that there is a significant difference in global occupancy between the three

258 dispersal types (Friedman rank sum test with $P < 0.01$), with upstream-inclusive
259 dispersal generally yielding the higher levels of global patch occupancy than one-way
260 downstream dispersal. Irrespective of dispersal type, we further observed high
261 variability in patch occupancy, most likely resulting from the stochasticity in branch
262 sizes and variation in branch arrangements.

263 **4 DISCUSSION**

264 Most existing models of riverine metapopulations treat all river branches as identical
265 nodes (Fagan, 2002; Grant, Lowe, & Fagan, 2007; Grant, 2011). In reality, branch
266 size/length often varies across a riverine network, and this variation is exactly what
267 our theoretical framework seeks to capture. Using this model, we have identified key
268 interactions between branch-size heterogeneity and species traits that determine
269 species persistence, confirming the ecological significance of their interplay
270 (Altermatt, 2013; Carrara et al., 2014).

271 Irrespective of other factors, variation in branch size increases the equilibrium
272 population of the habitat and, consequently, reduces the risk that a species becomes
273 extinct. In traditional metapopulation models (Levins, 1969; Hanski, 1998), one effect
274 of the extinction process is that a fixed number of patches within each habitat are
275 unoccupied in the equilibrium state. As a result, dividing a habitat into smaller
276 sub-habitats (summing to the same size) decreases the overall population of the
277 habitat (cf. habitat fragmentation; Fahrig, 2001, 2002; Liao, et al. 2013a,b). The effect
278 of variation in branch size observed in this study can be understood as arising from a

279 similar process. In particular, increasing branch size heterogeneity concentrates
280 available habitat within a small number of large branches, thereby reducing effective
281 habitat fragmentation relative to the system of all branches having the same size.
282 Additionally, smaller populations are more vulnerable to small localized
283 environmental perturbations (which are relatively common) than large populations,
284 and thus that branch size heterogeneity provides a buffer against such extinction risks.
285 A counter-point is that concentrating population within a smaller number of branches
286 creates the potential that a small number of large perturbations (which are relatively
287 rare) could drive the species to extinction. We note that our deterministic model does
288 not include stochastic perturbations and thus does not directly capture either of these
289 effects. These observations suggest that previous studies assuming a constant branch
290 size may have overestimated species extinction risks (Anholt, 1995; Fagan, 2002;
291 Goldberg, Lynch, & Neubert, 2010; Grant, 2011). As such, if we incorporate
292 branch-size heterogeneity into the model of Anholt (1995), this might further
293 strengthen the mechanism of density dependence that is proposed to resolve the
294 stream drift paradox in that study.

295 A recent study by Terui et al. (2018) made the prediction, supported by empirical
296 evidence, that greater variation in branch size would decrease metapopulation stability.
297 While this appears to contrast with our findings, in fact the two studies consider
298 different properties of a population within a riverine habitat. We consider the
299 equilibrium size of the population, which gives an indicator of how far the population
300 is from extinction. Of course, in practice populations fluctuate around this equilibrium

301 due to environmental perturbations. Terui et al. (2018) considered the degree of
302 synchrony in these fluctuations, to assess whether all sub-populations are
303 simultaneously more vulnerable to a perturbation event. Which metric is more
304 indicative of extinction risk depends on the size of the fluctuations relative to that of
305 the sub-populations. Small fluctuations, relative to the size of a sub-population, do not
306 typically present a significant threat to that population even if synchronized. As such,
307 we suggest that branch size heterogeneity will tend to ameliorate the threat posed by
308 synchronized fluctuations, as the larger sub-populations (in larger branches) will be
309 subject to smaller (relatively) fluctuations.

310 The effect of dispersal within a heterogeneous riverine network on the overall
311 population depends strongly on the extinction pressure imposed on the species. In
312 particular, for low relative extinction rates, dispersal increases the equilibrium
313 population. Populations in large branches produce an excess of colonizers which
314 disperse into the smaller branches, increasing the population of these sub-optimal
315 branches and thus the population of the habitat as a whole. However, at high relative
316 extinction rates, the full colonization potential of a large population is required to
317 sustain that population. Dispersal into smaller branches can allow the species to
318 persist through a larger portion of the habitat, but at the cost of reducing the total
319 population. This is supported by an empirical observation that upstream dispersal of
320 Japanese freshwater mussel into cooler tributaries (poorer habitats) could cause net
321 loss of the dispersing populations (Terui et al. 2014a, b).

322 In our systems, when dispersal has a beneficial effect, i.e. for low relative
323 extinction rates, a moderate upstream bias is typically optimal. This results from the
324 hierarchical branching structure of our networks, that is, upstream dispersal divides
325 colonizers between branches, increasing the likelihood that they are able to find
326 suitable colony sites. By contrast, downstream dispersing colonizers must compete for
327 colony sites with those coming from another branch and thus are less likely to be
328 successful. Nonetheless, some downstream dispersal remains beneficial since
329 upstream branches can be population sources. Previous studies have predicted that
330 two-way dispersal should always be superior to one-way dispersal in riverine
331 networks (Fagan, 2002; Grant, Lowe, & Fagan, 2007; Goldberg, Lynch, & Neubert,
332 2010; Grant, 2011; Shen et al., 2018). Our results refine this prediction, agreeing that
333 two-way dispersal is generally preferable to one-way dispersal, but noting that the
334 topology of the riverine network may produce a preferred direction. This refinement
335 finds some support in empirical observations, in particular the prevalence of
336 upstream-biased dispersal in stream-dwelling organisms (see Lowe, 2003; Macneale,
337 Peckarsky, & Likens, 2005).

338 For high relative extinction rates, where dispersal has a negative effect on global
339 occupancy, no dispersal is, strictly speaking, the optimal strategy. In practice, if one
340 end of the largest branch is closed, i.e. dispersal is not possible in one direction,
341 dispersal in that direction does not negatively affect global occupancy. In this case
342 there is no dispersal out of the optimal habitat, only dispersal into it from the other
343 branches (for as long as they support a population). This is supported by the

344 observation from Terui et al. (2014b) that some aquatic species display strongly
345 downstream-biased dispersal in riverine systems with large downstream branches.

346 The diverse metapopulation patterns predicted in our model are supported by some
347 field observations in riverine ecosystems. For example, studies on macroinvertebrate
348 populations in New Zealand streams found that population structure was best
349 explained by a combination of local and regional forces rather than by any
350 scale-specific set of processes individually (Thompson, & Townsend, 2006). In
351 contrast, in more isolated headwaters, populations of benthic macroinvertebrates were
352 strongly influenced by local environmental factors (Heino, & Mykrä, 2008; Brown, &
353 Swan, 2010; Patrick, & Swan, 2011). Because high dispersal rates are often sufficient
354 to swamp the effects of local population dynamics, other investigations found that fish
355 community dynamics in the Mississippi-Missouri drainage could be modeled with
356 only regional dispersal-driven processes (Muneepeerakul et al., 2008; Azaele et al.,
357 2009; Convertino et al., 2009).

358 The modelling framework presented here is formulated by omitting some features
359 known to occur in natural riverine systems, such as spatial environmental
360 heterogeneity and temporal environmental variability (Liao et al., 2013b).
361 Nevertheless, as a starting point, our model reflects that species traits (e.g. species
362 dispersal and relative extinction rate) and spatial branch-size difference can jointly
363 affect metapopulation dynamics in riverine systems that feature some forms of
364 heterogeneity (Bertuzzo et al., 2011; Yeakel et al., 2014; Terui et al., 2018). Further
365 extensions of this work could include disturbances (e.g. seasonal drought and flooding,

366 and disruption in riverine connectivity by hydrodams; Vaughn, & Taylor, 1999;
367 Ishiyama et al., 2018), species interactions, invasion dynamics, and the relationship
368 between branch complexity and metacommunity stability. Overall, we found strong
369 effects of variability of branch size on species persistence, suggesting that this
370 realistic feature should be explored in future models of riverine metapopulations.

371

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377 **Author contributions**

378 C.M. and J.L. designed this study; C.M., Y.S., D.B., W.F.F. and J.L. performed
379 numerical simulations and analyzed the results; J.L., C.M. and D.B. wrote the first
380 draft of the manuscript and all authors contributed substantially to revisions.

381 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

382 **Supporting information**

383 *Appendix* accompanies this manuscript is also supplied.

384 **Data accessibility**

385 This is a theoretical modelling study and does not use data.

386

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536

537 **Figure captions**

538 **Figure 1.** Four size-structured bifurcating riverine networks consisting of seven
539 branches (represented by circles). Graph (I): the reference structure with all branches
540 having the same size $F_i=1/7$. Graphs (II-IV): three network structures with different
541 spatial branch arrangements, containing one large branch $F_i=2/5$ and six small
542 branches with the same size $F_i=1/10$. Each branch is partitioned into a number of
543 size-equal patches (denoted by grids), with larger branch having more patches. The
544 solid lines denote species dispersal pathways.

545 **Figure 2.** Species persistence in different riverine structures (as shown in Figure 1I-IV;
546 denoted by colored lines) by varying relative extinction rate ($0 < e/c < 1$ at fixed $c=1$),
547 comparing three types of dispersal: (a) only downstream dispersal (with rate $\lambda=0.25$ &
548 $\lambda'=0$), (b) only upstream dispersal ($\lambda=0$ & $\lambda'=0.25$), and (c) two-way down- and
549 up-stream dispersal ($\lambda=\lambda'=0.125$).

550 **Figure 3.** Interactive effects of downstream and upstream dispersal on global patch
551 occupancy at steady state in different bifurcating networks (graphs I~IV
552 corresponding to the riverine structures as shown in Figure 1I-IV). Dash lines
553 represent species symmetric dispersal with $\lambda=\lambda'$. Other parameters: $c=1$ and $e=0.1$.
554 Note that $\lambda+\lambda' < c$, as the total dispersal rate out of a branch should be less than the
555 propagule production rate.

556

557 **Figure 4.** Interactive effects of downstream and upstream dispersal on average patch
558 occupancy at steady state in size-structured bifurcating networks with three
559 hierarchical levels containing seven branches. Graphs (a & b) with different color
560 ramp scales: mean \pm standard deviation (*SD*) of global patch occupancies on 100
561 riverine networks of varying branch sizes (F_i), which were randomly generated from a
562 uniform distribution around the mean $\bar{F} = 1/7$. Dash lines represent species symmetric
563 dispersal with $\lambda = \lambda'$. Invalid region: $\lambda + \lambda' > c$. Other parameters: see Figure 3.

564 **Figure 5.** Effect of variation in branch size (coefficient of variation – *C.V*) on global
565 patch occupancy at steady state in bifurcating riverine networks with three
566 hierarchical levels containing seven branches by varying e/c (panels a-d: $e/c = 0.1, 0.15,$
567 $0.2, 0.25$ at $c = 1$). Branch sizes (F_i) are randomly generated from a uniform
568 distribution around the mean $\bar{F} = 1/7$, with 1000 replicates for each type of dispersal
569 (colored circles; including only downstream dispersal $\lambda = 0.25$ & $\lambda' = 0$, only upstream
570 dispersal $\lambda = 0$ & $\lambda' = 0.25$, and two-way dispersal $\lambda = \lambda' = 0.125$), fitted by fourth-degree
571 polynomial curves. Different dispersal modes lead to a significant difference in
572 species occupancy by using Friedman rank sum test: (a) Chi-square = 1404.3 &
573 $P < 0.01$; (b) Chi-square = 1204 & $P < 0.01$; (c) Chi-square = 436.14 & $P < 0.01$; (d)
574 Chi-square = 169.68 & $P < 0.01$.