

1 ***High-resolution spatiotemporal analysis of hydrologic connectivity in the historical floodplain***
2 ***of straightened lowland agricultural streams***

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23 *artificially abandoned meanders.*

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 In agricultural watersheds, human interventions such as channel straightening have disrupted the
26 hydrologic connectivity between headwater streams and their riparian environment and have thus
27 undermined the ecological services provided by these small streams. Knowledge of the hydrologic
28 connectivity between these streams and their immediate environment (shallow riparian groundwater in
29 the historical floodplain and on adjacent hillslopes) in human-impacted settings is critical for
30 understanding and restoring these hydrological systems but remains largely incomplete. The objective of
31 this research is to investigate the hydrogeomorphological conditions controlling hydrologic connectivity
32 in the historical floodplain of straightened lowland streams. Detailed measurements on the
33 spatiotemporal variability of groundwater-surface water interactions between straightened reaches,
34 historical floodplain including abandoned meanders, and the adjacent hillslopes were obtained using a
35 dense network of piezometers at two sites in the St. Lawrence Lowlands (Quebec, Canada). Results show
36 that the complex mechanisms controlling hydrologic connectivity in naturally meandering lowland rivers
37 also operate in highly disturbed straightened reaches, despite backfilling and agricultural practices. The
38 pre-straightening hydrogeomorphological configuration of the floodplain partly explains the complex
39 patterns of piezometric fluctuations observed at the sites. The apex of the abandoned meanders stands
40 out as a focal area of hydrologic connectivity as water levels indicate pressure transfer that may reflect
41 flows from the stream, the hillslopes, and the surrounding historical floodplain. These unique field
42 observations suggest that abandoned meanders should be promoted as key elements of restoration
43 strategies in lowland agricultural straightened headwater streams.

44 Keywords: channelized agricultural headwater stream; Stream restoration; Groundwater; Floodplain,
45 Abandoned meander; Hydraulic head

46 1. INTRODUCTION

47 Historically, much investment and effort have been placed into the rapid drainage of water during the
48 flood season and during periods of heavy rainfall to increase field productivity in agricultural watersheds
49 of temperate regions. This led to major morphological modifications, such as the straightening and
50 deepening of meandering streams, over the 20th century in Europe and North America, which have
51 particularly affected small headwater streams in lowland agricultural settings (Brookes, 1987; Wohl,
52 2018). The wide-ranging consequences of these interventions on the fluvial system include earlier and
53 higher flood peaks (Schumm et al., 1984; Hupp, 1992; Wyzga, 1996), longer and lower low-water levels
54 (Schilling et al., 2004; LaSage et al., 2008), modification of the spatiotemporal patterns of sediment
55 transport (Brookes, 1987; Simon, 1989; Rousseau & Biron, 2009; Graf et al., 2016), reduction of aquatic
56 (Trautman & Gartman, 1974; D'Ambrosio et al., 2014; Käiro et al., 2017) and terrestrial biodiversity (Hupp,
57 1992; Franklin et al., 2009), and decreased vertical and lateral hydrologic connectivity (Wohl, 2018).

58 A growing number of approaches now promote the restoration of natural hydrogeomorphological
59 processes rather than fluvial landforms (Kondolf et al., 2006; Beechie et al., 2010; Wohl et al., 2015).
60 Process-based restoration aims to increase the resilience of fluvial systems to changes in the hydrological
61 and sediment-transport regime, e.g., extreme events, which is particularly important in the context of
62 rapid climatic changes (Buffin-Bélanger et al., 2015). Increased hydrologic connectivity between degraded
63 streams and their historic floodplain, including their abandoned meanders, is widely recognized as a
64 means to improve the ecological condition and resilience of rivers (Beechie et al., 2010; Gumiero et al.,
65 2013; Phillips, 2013; Wohl et al., 2015) . In this context, hydrologic connectivity refers to the level of
66 connection between surface waters and the groundwater reservoir of a fluvial system through water

67 exchange and pressure transfer. Increased hydrologic connectivity can be achieved by combining active
68 restoration methods (e.g., re-meandering, removal of levees, raising the river bed) or by promoting more
69 passive approaches such as freedom space for rivers (e.g., delimiting a space where the river can flood
70 and migrate freely) (Biron et al., 2014; Massé et al., 2020). Despite the many advances in conceptualizing
71 hydrologic connectivity within fluvial systems and developing restoration approaches, straightened
72 lowland headwater streams in agricultural settings still receive limited attention (Liu et al., 2014). Most
73 restoration projects in small degraded lowland rivers do not include improvement of hydrologic
74 connectivity in their design objectives (Boulton, 2007; Wohl et al., 2015) despite the known ecological
75 benefits of promoting hyporheic exchanges in small lowland rivers (Hester & Gooseff, 2010; Kasahara &
76 Hill, 2006; Wohl et al., 2015).

77 Important questions remain unanswered regarding the extent of hydrologic connectivity between
78 straightened lowland headwater streams and their associated floodplain and hillslopes. This is particularly
79 true in rural regions where streams have been backfilled and are often located in cultivated areas. The
80 straightening and deepening of small lowland streams lower the water table in the near-stream zone
81 (Pierce & King, 2017) and reduce the spatial extent of bank transient storage in the riparian zone (Schilling
82 et al., 2006; Schilling & Jacobson, 2014). Embankments along channelized lowland streams can also reduce
83 surface-groundwater exchanges with the floodplain (Clilverd et al., 2013). Nonetheless, few studies have
84 focused on patterns and controls on surface-subsurface hydrological or pressure exchanges within
85 straightened lowland streams (Pierce & King, 2017) and on the potential role of their riparian zones for
86 restoring ecological processes (Liu et al., 2014).

87 The St. Lawrence Lowlands (Quebec, Canada) is a vast agricultural area that shelters at least 30 000 km of
88 straightened streams (Rousseau & Biron, 2009). In this study, a unique data set of piezometric time series,
89 at an unprecedented spatiotemporal resolution, combined with detailed topographic and stratigraphic
90 survey data are used to analyze small-scale surface-groundwater interactions between straightened

91 headwater streams in the St. Lawrence Lowlands, their historical floodplains, including abandoned
92 meanders, and hillslopes. We hypothesized that despite severe perturbations, the historical floodplain
93 and hillslopes remain partially hydrologically connected to the straightened channel through subsurface
94 interactions, as observed in unperturbed lowland meandering rivers (Cranswick & Cook, 2015; Larocque
95 et al., 2016). The objective of this study is thus to investigate the hydrogeomorphological parameters
96 controlling the level of hydrological connectivity in straightened lowland headwater streams, with a focus
97 on the subsurface component, as a step toward the identification of novel process-based restoration
98 approaches for these degraded agricultural streams.

99 2. METHODOLOGY

100 2.1 Study Sites

101 We selected two sites in the St. Lawrence Lowlands that are representative of straightened headwater
102 streams in agricultural areas: Petit-Pot-au-Beurre (PB) and Martin (Ruisseau Martin, RM) streams. Both
103 streams have nivo-pluvial hydrological regimes (high waters in early spring due to snow melt, an upsurge
104 in autumn and low water in summer).

105 The Petit-Pot-au-Beurre stream is a small second-order stream having a drainage area of 12.8 km² (Figure
106 1). The watershed is mostly covered (approx. 90%) by crop fields (corn, soybean, and fodder plants). Our
107 study site (stream elevation approximately 15 m a.s.l.) encompasses one abandoned meander, the
108 surrounding historical floodplain, and the adjacent hillslope (Figure 1). The amplitude of the former
109 meanders in the 1-km studied reach varies between 10 and 52 m. Bankfull width and depth are
110 approximately 3 m and 1.5 m, respectively. The average annual discharge at the on-site gauging station is
111 0.2 m³/s with an annual peak discharge slightly greater than 3 m³/s. The stream can dry out during the
112 summer. The channel was straightened between 1964 and 1966, and backfill material was placed upon
113 the former channel and the floodplain, erasing most topographic features. A shallow half-circular

114 depression is the only remnant of surface topography from the pre-straightening floodplain. No
115 subsurface drainage is present in the study area.

116 **Figure 1:**

117 The Ruisseau Martin (RM) is a midsize, second-order stream having a drainage area (26 km²) that is 90%
118 covered by agricultural fields of mainly maize and corn (Figure 2). The average historical meander
119 amplitude and floodplain width average are 60 and 80 m, respectively. The modern channel bankfull width
120 and depth are 5 m and 2 m, respectively. The average annual RM discharge is 1.5 m³/s at the on-site
121 gauging station. We monitored two sites along a 500 m reach of RM. The RM-UP site encompasses a 41-
122 m wide abandoned meander having a floodplain on either side of the channel (note that all references to
123 left and right in this paper are when looking downstream). The RM-DS covers a 22-m wide abandoned
124 meander and the surrounding left floodplain (Figure 2). The channel was straightened between 1965 and
125 1966, but no backfilling was added to the floodplain. Thus, the straightened channel flows through an
126 undisturbed floodplain that is bounded by a 3-m high hillslope on both sides. Small gullies have formed in
127 the left-side hillslope, indicating potential surface runoff during precipitation events. The studied sites
128 were cultivated until the 1980s. Since then, no cultivation has taken place, and natural (unassisted)
129 colonization by vegetation has occurred. This site allows observation of a fully mature forest, including
130 shrub and forested swamps and herbaceous marshes. This site allowed observation of the evolution of a
131 straightened channel and floodplain following completely passive vegetation restoration (40 years). No
132 subsurface drainage is present in the study area.

133 **Figure 2.**

134 2.2 Topographic and Stratigraphic Surveys

135 We performed high-resolution topographic and stratigraphic surveys at each of the three abandoned
136 meanders (PB, RM-UP, RM-DS) to circumscribe the spatial extent of the alluvial material of the floodplain

137 and to position field sensors to record surface and subsurface water fluctuations. Surface topography was
138 measured with a Total Station (Leica TC805L) and georeferenced with a DGPS (differential GPS, model
139 Spectra precision 80). The vertical precision of the DGPS varied between 2 and 4 cm. We assessed the
140 stratigraphy from several boreholes on the floodplain and adjacent hillslope. The excavation of the
141 boreholes was conducted using either an auger (83 mm diameter, 0.50 m length) and up to three 1 m
142 extensions or using a manual gas-powered drill (Pionjar 120) that produced samples of 51 mm (2 in) in
143 diameter and 1 m in length, up to a maximum of 3.35 m. We based our unit differentiation on in situ visual
144 assessments of colour, texture, and organic material in sediment samples collected at regular depths from
145 the boreholes. We also dug larger pedons (1 m width, 1.5–1.7 m depth) at several locations to assess
146 bedding structures within the alluvial unit.

147 We used the collected sediment samples from the boreholes for grain-size analyses. Coarse fractions
148 (0.08-2 mm) were assessed with a sieve column, whereas we used a sedimentary column and pycnometer
149 to determine the fine fractions (Poppe et al., 2000). The hydraulic conductivity of the different units was
150 estimated from the grain-size distribution using HydrogeosieveXL software (Devlin, 2015). We also
151 performed slug tests in all piezometers, using 25 cm and 50 cm water column injections, and estimated
152 hydraulic conductivity using the Hvorslev (1951) method.

153 2.3 Surface Water Measurements and Piezometric Surveys

154 The stream stage elevation in the studied reaches was measured continuously at 30 min intervals using
155 pressure transducers inserted within pipes installed in the stream bank. Hydraulic heads in the artificially
156 abandoned channel, in the historical floodplain, and on the hillslope were monitored with pressure
157 transducers installed in piezometers with data recorded at 30 min intervals. Piezometers were installed
158 along lines running perpendicular and parallel to the current channel. Additional loggers were then

159 installed in relation to floodplain configuration. The former channel and floodplain configuration was
160 assessed using LiDAR data (light detection and ranging) and historical aerial photographs.

161 Piezometers were installed using a manually operated drill with 1.5" PVC pipes having a 40-cm perforated
162 section at the bottom. Maximum piezometer depth was determined by the depth of the alluvial unit,
163 which was in turn determined through visual assessment of the stratigraphy. The annular space around
164 the PVC pipes was filled with coarse sand and bentonite at the top. Different pressure transducers were
165 used (*Onset Hoboware Titanium*, *Solinst Levellogger Gold Junior* and *Edge model 3001*). At each site, a
166 *Solinst Barologger* was used for barometric compensation.

167 We excluded data from January and February (winter) to avoid ice cover effects on surface water heads.
168 The longest time series spans from October 2017 to June 2020; the shortest spans from August 2018 to
169 June 2020. We compiled hourly precipitation for these time series using data from the closest
170 Environment and Climate Change Canada weather stations (each site is less than 20 km from a station).
171 On-site hunting cameras allowed to confirm that rain events measured at the weather stations occurred
172 at the study sites.

173 We used cross-correlation analyses to assess interactions between the piezometer time series and the
174 channel stage at an event-based scale. Although cross-correlation analyses can be applied to a complete
175 time series (Larocque et al., 2016), event-based applications are more applicable to smaller spatial and
176 temporal scales (Buffin-Bélanger et al., 2016). These analyses were thus only performed during large
177 hydrological events in the channel (i.e., events that triggered a minimum stream level rise of 0.25 m). We
178 documented approximately 40 events at each site over 2.5 years. The end of a hydrological event was
179 determined either from a new rise in water levels in the channel or from water levels in the channel
180 reaching a pre-flood level. Care was taken to avoid complex hydrological events from cross-correlation
181 analyzes, including multiple consecutive increases occurring over short periods. The lag time

182 corresponding to the maximum cross-correlation coefficient (MCCC) between river levels and head data
183 were estimated for all events and all piezometers. A MCCC value close to 1 with a lag time of zero indicates
184 that both fluctuations (in the channel and in the piezometer) are almost synchronous and that their
185 hydrographs have similar shapes. Negative time lags indicate that the fluctuation in the piezometer
186 precedes the fluctuation in the channel. This cross-correlation analysis of channel-floodplain peak stages
187 assumes that large MCCC and short lag times indicate a greater potential for hydrological interactions. It
188 should be noted here that this type of analysis is based on hydraulic pressure gradients, which only infer
189 pressure exchanges, and not directly hydrological fluxes.

190 At the event-based scale, we documented for each event the ratio of the amplitude of water-level
191 fluctuations in the piezometers compared with those in the channel (hereafter Average Amplitude ratio)
192 and the ratio of the duration of the rising limb in the piezometers compared with that in the channel
193 (hereafter Average duration ratio). We visually interpreted the full hydraulic head time series to
194 characterize the hydraulic gradients between the straightened streams, their respective historical
195 floodplain, and the adjacent hillslopes in terms of magnitude and orientation at a seasonal time scale.
196 Event-based and seasonal piezometric patterns were classified either as “flood” or “low-flow” periods to
197 facilitate interpretation. The studied streams display two flood periods (March to mid-May and mid-
198 October to December) and one low-flow period (mid-May to mid-October).

199 3. RESULTS

200 3.1 Stratigraphy

201 3.1.1 *Petit-Pot-au-Beurre (PB)*

202 At the PB site, the stratigraphic logs reveal backfilling, alluvial, and regional units (Figure 3). The backfilling
203 unit is a deposit of poorly sorted clay with silt of a highly variable thickness (thin near the former hillslope
204 and thicker above the historical floodplain). The alluvial unit, ranging between 0.70 and 2.00 m in

205 thickness, can be subdivided into four subunits arranged in complex assemblage, each representing a
206 depositional feature, namely overbank deposits, point bars, bedload material, and floodplain topsoil. The
207 bottom surface morphology of the alluvial unit is concave, with its deepest part near the abandoned
208 meander apex (Figure 3). The regional unit is a sandy silt deposit, described as a shallow marine deposit
209 from the St. Lawrence Lowland (Ministère des Ressources naturelles et de la Faune du Québec, 2012) with
210 a gley horizon at the bottom. The average hydraulic conductivity values for the regional and the alluvial
211 units are 1.15×10^{-7} and 1.09×10^{-5} m/s, respectively.

212 **Figure 3.**

213 *3.1.2 Ruisseau Martin (RM)*

214 The RM floodplain shows an alluvial unit ranging from 0.70 to 1.95 m in thickness (Figure 4 (RM-UP), see
215 Supplementary material: Figure A for RM-DS). Despite much heterogeneity in the subunit assemblages,
216 the logs from the floodplain generally show fine sand, grading into medium to coarse sand with woody
217 deposits. Some morphological features show active erosional or depositional surfaces, which suggest
218 recent surficial floods. The regional unit forming the left hillslope of the RM stream reveal alternating
219 medium sand and clayey silt deposits of varying thickness, also described as shallow marine surficial
220 deposit from the St. Lawrence Lowlands. The floodplain is embedded in the same regional unit. At the
221 RM-UP site (Figure 4), a very hard clayey matrix is found beneath the regional unit in the right hillslope.
222 The alluvial material of the right end portion of the left floodplain as well as the right floodplain is
223 embedded in the same material, described as glacial till (Ministère des Ressources naturelles et de la
224 Faune du Québec, 2012). The average hydraulic conductivity values for the medium sand and clayey silt
225 regional units and for the alluvial units are 2.61×10^{-5} , 2.46×10^{-7} and 1.96×10^{-5} m/s, respectively.

226 **Figure 4.**

227 3.2 Piezometric Head

228 3.2.1 Flood periods

229 For hydrological events occurring during the flood periods, the range of average MCCC values for all the
230 piezometers located in the historic floodplain at the PB and RM sites is between 0.78 and 0.98 (Figure 5,
231 row 1). Not surprisingly, the average MCCC values generally decrease with distance from the stream.
232 These values indicate that the shape of the hydrograph of piezometers located near the stream limit is
233 more similar to the stream hydrograph than those of piezometers near the lateral limit (near the hillslope).
234 This is coherent with the higher average amplitude ratio values (close to 1) measured closer to the stream
235 limit of the historical floodplain than closer to the lateral limit (Figure 5, row 3). The average time lags
236 values between -4 and 6 hours, with the lowest (negative) values generally observed near the lateral limit
237 of the floodplain at all sites (Figure 5, row 2). These relatively small time lags reveal quasi-synchronous
238 fluctuations throughout the entire historic floodplain during hydrological events, with slightly prior
239 response near the lateral limit compared to the fluctuations in the channel. Piezometers located outside
240 the floodplain generally shows the lowest MCCC and amplitude ratio values and highly variable lag time
241 and duration ratio values.

242 **Figure 5.**

243
244 Results from the PB and RM-UP sites suggest that during a hydrological event, the piezometers located in
245 the abandoned meander (green squares in Figure 5) generally react before (shorter time lags) those
246 situated at a similar distance to the channel but outside the abandoned meander (Figure 5, rows 2),
247 although due to the large time lag variability, these differences are not statistically significant. Moreover,
248 at the RM-Up site, the left floodplain (where the abandoned meander is located) shows higher average
249 MCCC and lower average time lags than the opposite (right) floodplain (Figure 5, rows 1 and 2).

250 Observations of seasonal water level patterns suggest that the hydraulic gradient in the PB and RM
251 floodplains remains predominantly oriented toward the channel during the entire flood periods when
252 water levels in the channel remain below bank level (Figure 6A, see Supplementary material Figure B, C).
253 On some occasions at PB, at the onset of a hydrological event, a slightly inverted hydraulic gradient
254 develops between the groundwater level in the piezometers close to the channel and those located near
255 the hillslope (Figure 7). Overbank flood events only occur on few occasions (in early spring at PB, in spring
256 and fall at RM). At PB, overbank floods are limited to narrow strips near the stream, as illustrated by
257 maximum values exceeding surface elevation in Figure 6B. At RM, overbank flood events systematically
258 cover the entire historic floodplain (Supplementary material: Figure B and C). During the entire flood
259 period at the PB and RM sites, water levels in the hillslope remain constant and exceed the heads in the
260 nearest floodplain piezometer by at least 0.5 m (Figure 6A, Supplementary material: Figure B and C). The
261 only exception is the RM-UP right hillslope where no water was ever detected in the piezometer.

262 **Figure 6:**

263 Observations of piezometric patterns at the seasonal scale also suggest that the water table near the
264 abandoned meander apex remains generally nearer the floodplain surface than elsewhere at similar
265 distance from the channel (Figure 6B). At RM-UP left and RM-DS (Supplementary material: Figure B and
266 C), the water table depth around the apex of the abandoned meanders remains near zero throughout the
267 flood period. At PB, this pattern is particularly clear in the early spring period for piezometers located near
268 the lateral limit of the floodplain and inside the abandoned meander (M_16 and M_23, green lines in
269 Figure 7) which maintain higher head elevation than piezometers located just outside (M_18 and M_21,
270 yellow lines in Figure 7). It is also notable that during the late spring flood period (mid-April to mid-May)
271 at PB, the amplitude of fluctuations observed near the abandoned meander apex (M_16 and M_23) during
272 hydrological events are much higher than those observed in the piezometers (M_18 and M_21) outside

273 the abandoned meander (Figure 7). These patterns coincide with the initiation of a head decrease in the
274 hillslope, leading to the low flow period.

275 **Figure 7.**

276

277 *3.2.2 Low-flow period*

278 For hydrological events occurring during the low-flow period, lower values of MCCC are generally
279 observed in the historic floodplain than during the flood periods (Figure 5 and 8, row 1). The most obvious
280 difference between the flood period and the low flow period is observed in the piezometers located near
281 the actual channel at the RM-UP site with the highest average MCCC values measured closer to the
282 hillslope, unlike the PB site (Figure 8, row 1). The same difference between sites applies to the amplitude
283 of head fluctuations with the amplitude ratio at PB generally much lower near the lateral limit of the
284 floodplain during the low-flow period (Figure 8, row 3), indicating fluctuations with relatively small
285 amplitude compared to those close to the channel. Unlike PB, the average peak amplitude ratio at RM is
286 higher close to the lateral limit of the floodplain than close to the stream (Figure 8, row 3).

287 At the RM sites, piezometers located in the abandoned meander exhibit the highest amplitude among all
288 piezometers (green squares in Figure 8, row 3). Results at RM also suggest that the relative duration of
289 hydrological events is shorter in piezometers located in the abandoned meander (Figure 8, row 4). Among
290 all the sites, the average time lags oscillate between -8.5 and 10.8 h (Figure 8, row 2), with less contrast
291 for piezometers located within the abandoned meander than piezometers located outside the abandoned
292 meander compared with the flood period.

293 **Figure 8.**

294 The hydraulic gradient at all sites during the low-flow period is generally stream oriented (Figure 9, see
295 Supplementary material D and E). At PB, short-duration gradient inversion occurs between the stream

296 and the piezometers close to the channel due to a slight delay between the head response in the
297 piezometers near the channel and the fluctuation in the channel. This contrasts with the flood period
298 where a hydraulic gradient inversion only occurred during overbank channel events. By the end of the
299 summer at PB, groundwater levels eventually decrease below the piezometer, resulting in a net decrease
300 of hydraulic gradients. At the RM sites, the decrease of the head on the hillslope never exceeded 1 m
301 (Supplementary material: Figure E and F). Unlike PB, a strong hydraulic gradient from the hillslope to the
302 floodplain thus remained throughout the study period. No overbank event occurred at both sites during
303 the entire low-flow period (Figure 9B). However, at the RM sites, water table elevations occasionally
304 reached the surface elevation of the floodplain, specifically at the location of the abandoned meander
305 apex (Supplementary material: Figure E and F).

306 **Figure 9.**

307 **4. DISCUSSION**

309 **4.1 The challenges of understanding subsurface hydrological processes in degraded alluvial**
310 **environments**

311
312 To the best of our knowledge, this study presents a first attempt to document with such high
313 spatiotemporal resolution the groundwater-surface water interactions between straightened reaches and
314 their historical floodplain and adjacent hillslopes. There are many challenges associated with the
315 interpretation of these new data, in particular in terms of statistical analyses due to the intrinsically high
316 level of variability in piezometric data in these complex degraded environments. Floodplain piezometers
317 represent head fluctuations in a transitional geological area connecting surface water in the channel with
318 the regional aquifer (Cranswick et al. 2015). This transitional area is subject to external controls such as
319 stream water level and hillslope heads, precipitation and evapotranspiration. These controls can mask the
320 influence of parameters intrinsic to the floodplain, such as effective porosity of the geological material,

321 and morphology and stratigraphy of the deposits. This combination of influences can result in a high
322 spatiotemporal variability of the piezometric response within the floodplain and increases the challenge
323 of identifying significant differences in head fluctuation patterns at a given site.

324 Results from this study converge to support the idea that straightened lowland streams can still be
325 hydrologically connected to their historic floodplain. For example, the generally high MCCC values and
326 low time lag values indicate strong synchronicity between fluctuations in straightened lowland rivers and
327 those in their historic floodplain. In addition, our findings provide evidence that abandoned meanders
328 have a higher level of hydrological connectivity within the floodplains. This is particularly evident when
329 events are analysed independently of each other. For example, the hydrograph for the event of August 8,
330 2019, at RM-UP (Figure 10) reveals that most fluctuations recorded in the floodplain were concentrated
331 around the abandoned meander apex and near the hillslope (left and right), and that these fluctuations
332 occurred slightly before those in the piezometers near the channel.

333 **Figure 10.**

334 4.2 Conceptual Model of Hydrologic Connectivity in Straightened Lowland Headwater Streams

335 4.2.1 Hydrological controls

336 The combination of groundwater flows from the hillslope and the transient bank storage originating from
337 the channel during a hydrological event are the main processes that appear to influence piezometric
338 fluctuations in the floodplain of straightened lowland headwater streams. These original results
339 contribute to better conceptualize the role of the floodplain in maintaining hydrologic connectivity
340 between an agricultural stream and the neighboring aquifer (Figure 11). During the flood and low-flow
341 periods at all three studied straightened meanders, stream stage fluctuations modify the hydraulic
342 gradient between the stream and the floodplain. During the rising limb, the stream-oriented hydraulic
343 gradient either decreases (Figure 11, point 1), which can induce the propagation of a pressure wave away

344 from the channel (Lewandowski et al., 2009; Buffin-Bélanger et al., 2016), or is temporarily inverted
345 (Figure 11, point 2), potentially resulting in subsurface flows toward the floodplain (Winter, 1999; Flipo et
346 al., 2014). Relatively rapid increases of piezometric levels in each studied floodplain reach, driven by
347 stream stage fluctuations, are interpreted as transient bank storage (Cranswick & Cook, 2015; Winter,
348 1999).

349 The presence of higher heads in the hillslope at each study site can also control piezometric fluctuations
350 in the historic floodplain of the straightened channels (Figure 11, point 3). At the RM sites, the relatively
351 high hydraulic conductivity of the hillslope material probably contributed to higher hillslope heads and
352 probably indicate groundwater flow toward the lateral limit of the floodplain (Vidon & Hill, 2004; Jencso
353 et al., 2010). At PB, given the low hydraulic conductivity of the hillslope material, the elevated heads could
354 result in limited groundwater flow between the hillslope and the alluvial deposits, especially during the
355 flood period. The overall shorter time lags calculated in the piezometers located near the hillslope
356 compared to those at the stream limit illustrate that flows originating from the hillslope and the channel
357 are not of the same magnitude and are potentially not perfectly synchronized during a hydrological event.
358 The only exceptions, when all floodplain piezometers fluctuate synchronously with the stream stage,
359 occur during overbank flooding events (Figure 11, point 4). However, complete flooding of the floodplain
360 only occurred at the RM sites, as the backfilling of the floodplain at the PB site considerably limits the
361 extent of overbank flooding (Figure 11, point 5). Otherwise, with the dominant hydraulic gradient oriented
362 towards the stream, groundwater likely flows from the lateral limit to the stream limit of the floodplain
363 (Figure 11, point 6).

364 During a hydrological event, both elevated heads in the hillslope and stream stage fluctuations thus
365 contribute to a high level of hydrological connectivity with the floodplain, resulting in piezometric
366 fluctuations that are larger within the floodplain than in the adjacent hillslope material. The results show

367 that lag-time values can help differentiate signal propagation of regional groundwater (negative lag) from
368 surface water-groundwater connectivity at the channel-bank interface (positive lag) (Figures 5 and 8).

369 Additional hydrological factors that may control the degree of correlation between surface water and
370 piezometric fluctuations observed within the floodplain relate to local recharge from precipitation and
371 antecedent head level. In the spring and late-fall flood periods, evapotranspiration over the floodplain
372 should be relatively minimal, which allows precipitation to percolate through the alluvial deposits and
373 induce head fluctuations (Figure 11, point 7). Antecedent high head level in the floodplain and especially
374 along the lateral limit of the floodplain however may limit head fluctuation during hydrological events and
375 affect MCCC values. By midsummer, during low-flow periods, local precipitation has hardly any influence
376 on floodplain heads, as most precipitation is likely intercepted by vegetation or lost by evaporation (Lalot,
377 2014). At the PB site, the very fine texture of the backfilling unit placed upon the former meandering
378 stream floodplain probably limits percolation, reduces recharge within the floodplain, and limits
379 piezometric fluctuations from vertical inflows (Figure 11, point 8).

380 *4.2.2 Geomorphic controls*

381 The level of hydrologic connectivity between lowland straightened headwater streams, their former
382 floodplain, and their hillslope is not spatially and temporally uniform, even within a given reach. For
383 instance, the right floodplain at the RM-UP site suggests that very low hydraulic conductivity material in
384 the hillslope and basal unit of the floodplain may influence piezometric fluctuations within the floodplain.
385 The compact and low permeability till material on the right-hand hillslope (Figure 4) probably contributes
386 to only very limited seepage toward the floodplain (Figure 11, point 9). The similar material and the
387 configuration of the basal unit material on the right floodplain of the RM-UP site also likely explain why
388 none of the piezometers along this stream limit react during summer hydrological events (Figure 11, point
389 10). Ultimately, the RM-UP site highlights that marked contrasts in hydrologic connectivity occur at the

390 scale of two opposing floodplains of the same straightened reach, with one of them comprising an
391 abandoned channel.

392 Our results suggest that head fluctuations patterns are markedly different at the location of the
393 abandoned meander apex than in the rest of the floodplain in specific hydrological periods. During the
394 flood period, piezometric level near the former meander apex remains high, distinctively from fluctuations
395 in the channel or in the rest of the floodplain. During the transition between flood and low-flow periods,
396 the greatest amplitude of fluctuations along the hillslope during hydrological events is observed in the
397 piezometers located near the abandoned meander apex. At RM, unlike at the PB site, greater piezometric
398 fluctuations around the abandoned meander apex were observed for all low-flow period events, while
399 hillslope heads remained above the adjacent floodplain.

400 These observations highlight the critical role of the abandoned meander apex in the complex
401 spatiotemporal pattern of hydrologic connectivity observed between the straightened channel, its
402 floodplain, and its hillslope. A higher degree of hydrologic connectivity at the location of the abandoned
403 meander apex stems partially from the quasi-simultaneous but opposite pressure pulses from hillslope
404 recharge and streamflow, although it remains difficult to identify the specific contribution of each process
405 in the context of this study. Nevertheless, changes in the hydraulic gradient between the stream, the
406 floodplain, and the hillslope as well as the hydraulic conductivity of the hillslope material and the
407 antecedent floodplain heads cannot themselves explain the distinct piezometric fluctuation patterns
408 observed near the abandoned meander apex.

409 Like their natural counterpart, abandoned meanders resulting from channel straightening potentially
410 form surficial depressions within the floodplain. The lowest area of these abandoned channels generally
411 corresponds to the apex of meanders where there used to be a pool. At the scale of one straightened
412 meander, the former apex zone can converge surficial runoff from the adjacent hillslope (Figure 11, point

413 11) and from the surrounding floodplain (Figure 11, point 12) following a precipitation event (Mertes,
414 1997). At the RM sites, for instance, the surface depressions at the apex of the abandoned meander can
415 still be observed and likely contribute to surface runoff toward these specific areas of the floodplain. The
416 bottom contact of the alluvial floodplain material also generally displays an asymmetric and concave
417 morphology, with a depression likely to form at the apex of meander bends toward which groundwater
418 can be temporarily oriented during hydrological events, therefore contributing to a larger amplitude of
419 piezometric fluctuations in the apex of the abandoned meander (Figure 11, point 13) (Ali et al., 2011). It
420 is also likely that the coarser material and the woody deposits associated with the former channel apex,
421 as observed at the PB site, define high conductivity facies and therefore act on preferential flow paths, as
422 suggested in lowland environment (Duval & Hill, 2006; Welch et al., 2014; Wallace & Soltanian, 2021).

423 **Figure 11.**

424 Because the experimental setting measured hydraulic heads, the results of this study only infer pressure
425 exchanges and not directly hydrological fluxes. Also, with the available data, it is not possible to
426 differentiate between precipitation events that occur at the study sites from those that occur upstream.
427 Moreover, our findings must be interpreted in the context of straightened streams in lowland settings. In
428 other settings, for example in a piedmont environment, hydrologic connectivity of straightened streams
429 may differ. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that subsurface pressure transfers operating between the
430 straightened stream and the stream limit of the floodplain, and between the hillslopes and the lateral
431 limit of the floodplain, remain active at least for part of the year, which contrasts with findings by
432 Lewandowski et al. (2009) in an abandoned meander of the lowland River Spree (Germany). This
433 connectivity varies in time and space depending on the texture and configuration of the floodplain and
434 hillslope material, the orientation and magnitude of the hydraulic gradients, and the antecedent
435 saturation conditions, as observed in natural meandering lowland streams (Boulton et al., 1998; Cranswick
436 & Cook, 2015; Biehler et al., 2020).

437

438 4.3 Implications for restoration planners and stakeholders

439 Increasingly, institutional and government stakeholders are raising concerns about the consequences of
440 high levels of disturbance in low-order agricultural streams, resulting in rapid ecological degradation
441 (Vidon & Hill, 2004; Colvin et al., 2019). Given their small drainage area and the absence of cumulative
442 upstream sources of disturbance, headwater streams have greater potential to recover naturally from
443 ecological degradation than higher-order streams. Headwater streams in agricultural setting are thus ideal
444 sites for the restoration of ecological services that are likely to benefit at the watershed scale (Lowe &
445 Likens, 2005; Nadeau & Rains, 2007; Creed et al., 2017; Schilling et al., 2018). Our results indicate that
446 despite intense morphological perturbations, the historic floodplains of straightened headwater streams
447 act as preferential areas of hydrologic connectivity in an agricultural lowland environment. While backfill
448 material placed upon the floodplain limits the extent of surficial flooding, it appears they have no
449 substantial effect on subsurface hydrologic connectivity. These findings thus provide useful arguments to
450 put in place restoration programs targeting these environments.

451 This study also highlights that it is possible to interpret head fluctuations within historic floodplains of
452 straightened headwater streams based on the pre-disturbance geomorphological configuration of these
453 environments, as proposed by Larocque et al. (2016). Understanding the nature of deposits and the
454 hydrogeomorphological components (e.g., historical position of meanders and hillslopes) can help
455 restoration planners classify the historic floodplains and the abandoned meanders according to their
456 potential level of hydrologic connectivity. Using LiDAR images, historical photos, and maps of surface
457 deposits, restoration planners can delineate, throughout a watershed, areas of strong hydrologic
458 connectivity surrounding the apex of ancient meanders, along straightened headwater streams in
459 agricultural environments.

460 Knowing areas of high hydrologic connectivity allows restoration projects to better align with the
461 ecological services targeted for restoration (Phillips, 2013). For example, results from this study suggest
462 that the transient water storage in the historical floodplain of straightened streams occurs during
463 hydrological events. Therefore, active restoration measures such as removing backfilling material above
464 abandoned meanders (cf. PB site) or removing embankments (Addy & Wilkinson, 2021) represent
465 potential means of increasing water storage during hydrological events and can therefore contribute to
466 flow regulation by reducing peak streamflow. Integrating the specific configuration of the historical
467 floodplain in the planning of riparian buffers could also help improve their effectiveness in intercepting
468 agrochemical pollution (Kaushal et al., 2008; Hénault-Ethier et al., 2017). The presence of revegetation at
469 the RM site illustrates that, in the absence of floodplain backfilling and with a regional aquifer highly
470 connected to the floodplain through the hillslope, passive restoration of the historic floodplain can lead
471 to the recovery of various types of riparian wetlands. Evidently, for this passive restoration to significantly
472 impact flow regulation, pollutant control, habitat diversification, and recreational uses at the watershed
473 scale, many abandoned meanders along straightened channels must be restored.

474 However, large-scale restoration measures providing sufficient space for hydrogeomorphological
475 processes to operate (e.g. Kondolf, 2012; Biron et al., 2014; Massé et al., 2020) can be complex in the
476 context of lowland agricultural watersheds with many landowners along a given reach. As key residual
477 components of the hydrologic connectivity of straightened headwater streams, the artificially abandoned
478 meanders could be used to develop floodplain restoration strategies adapted to the scale of the land
479 owned by farmers. Abandoned meanders are distinct, relatively small, and easily identifiable physical
480 spaces that facilitate discussions with landowners to better understand the purpose of a restoration
481 project. From a social acceptability perspective, it is also easier to initiate a restoration project at this scale
482 than to limit agricultural activities indiscriminately along complete portions of a stream. An abandoned

483 meander of a degraded agricultural stream is therefore an excellent “feature” to popularize the concept
484 of hydrologic connectivity in its simplest expression.

485 5. CONCLUSION

486 Like their lowland meandering stream counterparts, alluvial deposits that form the historic floodplain of
487 straightened streams act as a continuum zone connecting surface water to shallow regional groundwater.
488 Our high-resolution spatiotemporal piezometric dataset suggests that the abandoned meanders and,
489 more specifically, their apex, exhibit a higher level of hydrologic connectivity than the rest of the historical
490 floodplain. The hydrogeomorphological configuration of the former meanders, with a marked surface and
491 subsurface depression at the meander apex, results in a convergence of hydrological flows from the
492 hillslopes and the rest of the floodplain toward the apex zones during hydrological events.

493 Our findings suggest that the degree of alteration of subsurface hydrological exchanges in straightened
494 lowland streams is relatively low compared with surface exchanges adversely impacted by channel
495 incision and floodplain backfilling. It therefore follows that despite a drastic change in channel morphology
496 and the floodplain features that limits surface exchanges, a straightened stream presents head fluctuation
497 patterns within its historical floodplain that are relatively similar to those in a meandering lowland stream
498 during hydrological events when the water level remains below bank level. It is reasonable to assume that
499 the same potential to form diverse and sustainable riparian habitats in former meanders of straightened
500 streams is similar to that of natural abandoned meanders. The Ruisseau Martin site provides useful
501 evidence of this, with its abandoned meanders occupied by forested and shrub swamp and herbaceous
502 marshes (unpublished data on vegetation surveys). There is therefore more than meets the eye in these
503 degraded environments.

504 Further studies should focus on water exchanges operating within straightened streams, their historic
505 floodplain, and the hillslopes at different spatial scales and under various hydrological regimes. Relevant

506 questions need to be investigated concerning the role of local hydrological exchanges or pressure
507 transfers in terms of surface water temperature regulation, solute transformation, and discharge
508 regulation at the watershed scale. For example, it would be insightful to quantify transient water storage
509 in the different apex zones bordering a straightened lowland stream at the scale of a predominantly
510 agricultural watershed. Hydrogeological or hydrogeochemical modelling of abandoned channels in
511 lowland agricultural settings could potentially identify restoration approaches, active or passive, that
512 maximize the functions of water storage and nutrient fixation. Filling this knowledge gap might contribute
513 to help counter the rapid ecological degradation of agricultural watersheds in lowland settings by
514 restoring ecological processes in their headwater streams (Lowe & Likens, 2005; Schilling et al., 2018).
515 Developing restoration approaches centered around the remaining hydrologic connectivity occurring in
516 these streams floodplains appears essential to increase their natural resilience, since they often lack the
517 stream power to recover sediment-transport processes (Brookes, 1987; Kondolf, 2012; Kristensen et al.,
518 2013).

519 With increased access to LiDAR data, combined with the analysis of historical aerial photos and surface
520 deposits, it is possible to delimit historical floodplains of straightened lowland headwater streams and use
521 this information as a critical first step in planning restoration strategies at the watershed scale. Where
522 social acceptability exists among agricultural producers, it may then be possible to put forward a
523 restoration plan for these streams, one abandoned meander at a time.

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685

686 APPENDIX A. SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

687 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

688

689 **FIGURE LEGEND**

690

691 **Figure 1:** (A) Location of the Petit-Pot-au-Beurre (PB) site in the St. Lawrence Lowlands (Quebec, Canada), (B) in a
692 vast agricultural zone with several straightened meander streams; (C) Piezometers installed within the abandoned
693 meander, in the historical floodplain and on the adjacent hillslope, where numbers next to letters M, F and O indicate
694 the distance (in m) between the piezometer and the stream; (D) The current crop at the site showing fodder plants.

695 **Figure 2.** (A) Location of the Ruisseau Martin (RM) site in the St. Lawrence Lowlands (Quebec, Canada) in (B) an
696 area that was mainly agricultural but (C) which has recently evolved toward agroforestry farming. Piezometers
697 were installed within two abandoned meanders (RM-UP, RM-DS) and on the historical floodplain and the adjacent
698 hillslopes, where numbers next to letters M, F and O indicate the distance (in m) between the piezometer and the
699 stream.

700 **Figure 3.** (A) Stratigraphic cross-section profile at PB site. Logs labelled with letter *S* (ex. *S*₂₄) were only used for
701 the stratigraphic characterization. Logs labelled with letter *M* (ex. *M*_{5.6}) and *O* were also used for piezometer
702 installation. Numbers represent the distance to the stream (in m). Note a vertical exaggeration of 3×. (B) Historical
703 aerial photograph (1965) of the PB site prior to channel straightening, with the position of the actual channel. Red
704 dots indicate the stratigraphic logs that were used to build the cross-section profile.

705 **Figure 4.** Stratigraphic cross-section profile at RM-UP site, representing the (A) left and (B) right floodplain (looking
706 downstream). Borehole logs labelled with *S* (ex. *S*₂₂) were only used for the stratigraphic characterization.
707 Borehole logs labelled with *M* (ex. *M*₈), *F*, and *O* were also used for the piezometer installation. Numbers
708 represent the distance to the stream (in m). Note a vertical exaggeration of 4×. (C) Digital elevation model of the
709 RM site, with the position of the former and actual channel. Red dots indicate the stratigraphic logs that were used
710 to build the cross-section profiles.

711 **Figure 5.** Cross-correlation analysis (MCCC (maximum cross-correlation coefficient), lag time, rows 1 and 2) and
712 hydrograph characteristics (peak amplitude ratio, peak duration ratio, rows 3 and 4) for piezometers at the (A) PB,
713 (B) RM-UP left, (C) RM-UP right, and (D) RM-DS for the flood periods (early March to mid-May, mid-October to late
714 December). The vertical dashed line represents the lateral limit of the historical floodplain.

715 **Figure 6:** Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic heads and B) water table depths in PB piezometers for the flood
716 period (mid-March to mid-May and early October to late December). Negative water table depths indicate water
717 level above the surface.

718 **Figure 7.** Hydrograph for the flood period between March 1 and May 15, 2020, at the PB site. Notice the distinct
719 head elevation for the early flood period and the larger amplitude of fluctuations during events in the late flood
720 period for the piezometers located in the abandoned meander apex (green lines) compared with those located at a
721 similar distance but outside the former meander (yellow lines). The top and base of the hillslope are presented as
722 they were before channel straightening and backfilling of the floodplain.

723 **Figure 8.** Cross-correlation analysis (MCCC (maximum cross-correlation coefficient), lag time) and hydrograph
724 characteristics (peak amplitude ratio, peak duration ratio) for all piezometers at all studied sites for the low-flow
725 period (mid-May to mid-October).

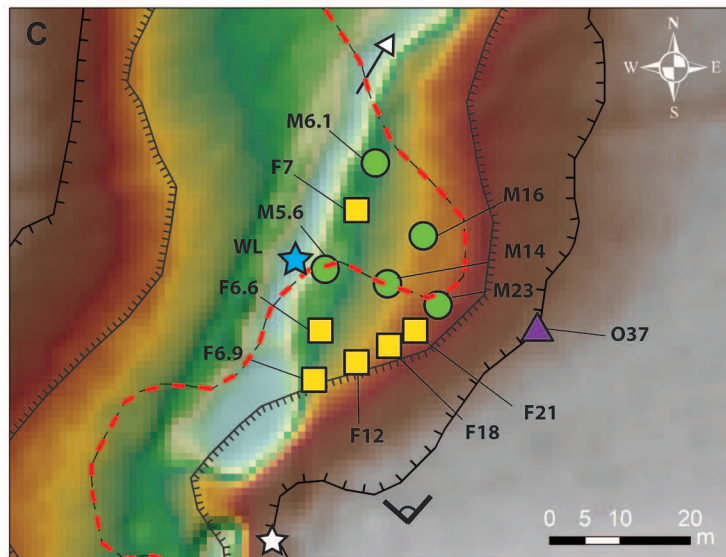
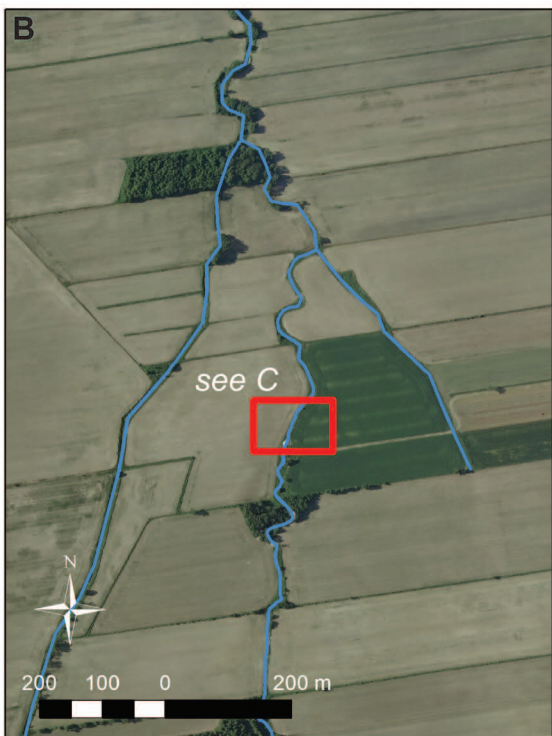
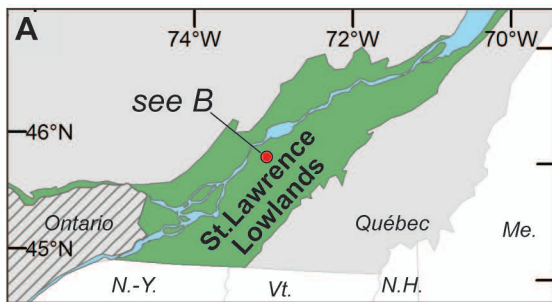
726 **Figure 9.** Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic head elevation and B) water depth of piezometers installed at the PB
727 site for the low flow period (mid-May to early October).

728 **Figure 10.** (A) Hydrograph for the August 8, 2019, hydrological event at the RM-UP site. (B) Piezometric maps
729 representing three stages (pre-event, event peak, and post-event) of the August 8, 2019, event. Note that absolute
730 elevations of hydraulic heads were converted to water depth from the surface before interpolation. Negative
731 values (in the existing channel and in the abandoned channel apex) represent water levels above the ground

732 **Figure 11.** Conceptual model of surface and subsurface hydrological exchange mechanisms operating in
733 straightened agricultural lowland streams: (1) bank transient storage during flood period and (2) during low flow
734 period; (3) subsurface flows from permeable hillslope; (4) overbank flow on the undisturbed and (5) backfilled
735 floodplain; (6) subsurface flows toward the stream limit of the floodplain when the stream-oriented hydraulic
736 gradient re-establishes (7) infiltration into the undisturbed floodplain; (8) limited infiltration into the backfilled
737 floodplain; (9) limited subsurface flows from impermeable hillslope; (10) limited surface-groundwater exchange
738 due to the presence of an impermeable basal unit; (11) surface runoff from the hillslope; (12) surface runoff and
739 (13) subsurface flows from the surrounding floodplain toward the meander apex depression during hydrological

740 events. Overall, these mechanisms define zones of very high to moderately low hydrologic connectivity within the
741 historical floodplain of straightened streams, with the focal zone being located at the apex of the abandoned
742 meander. Red arrows represent exchange mechanisms directly associated with the presence of the former
743 meander apex.

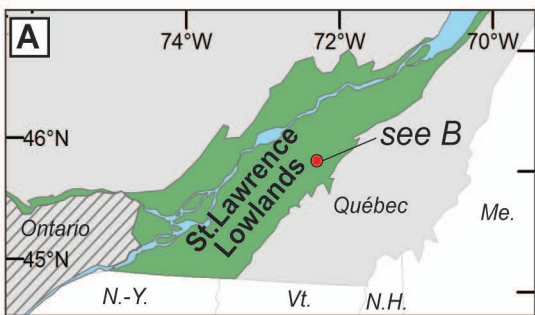
744



Legend

Piezometers in the abandoned meander		Channel logger:	
Piezometers in the floodplain outside the abandoned meander		Barometric logger:	
Piezometers outside the floodplain:		View angle (D)	

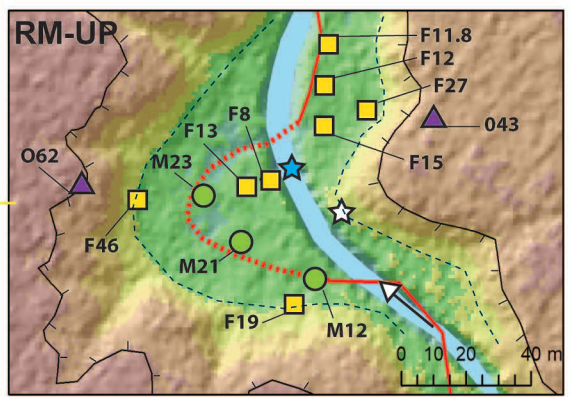
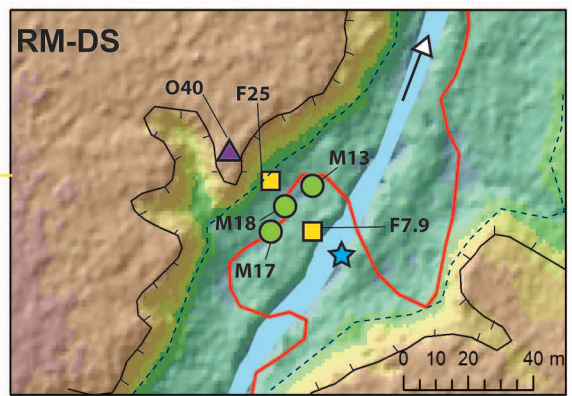
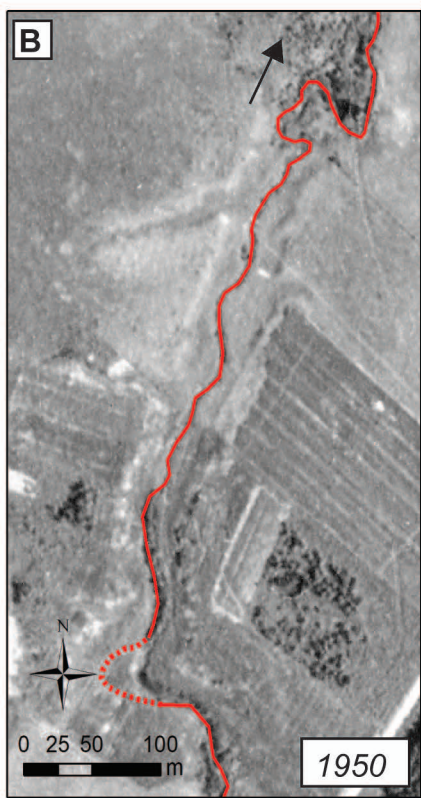
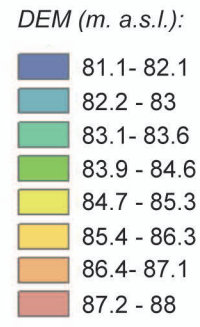
DEM (m. a.s.l.)		
	High: 18.6	Actual stream
	Mid: 17.0	Top of hillslope (pre-disturbance, 1965)
	Low: 14.5	Base of hillslope (pre-disturbance, 1965)
		Abandoned channel
		Flow direction

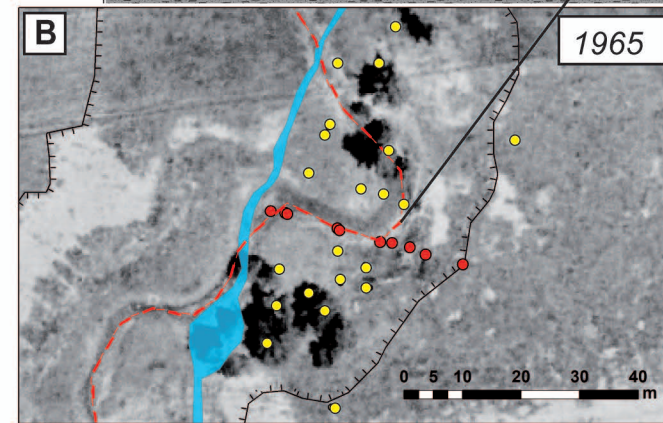
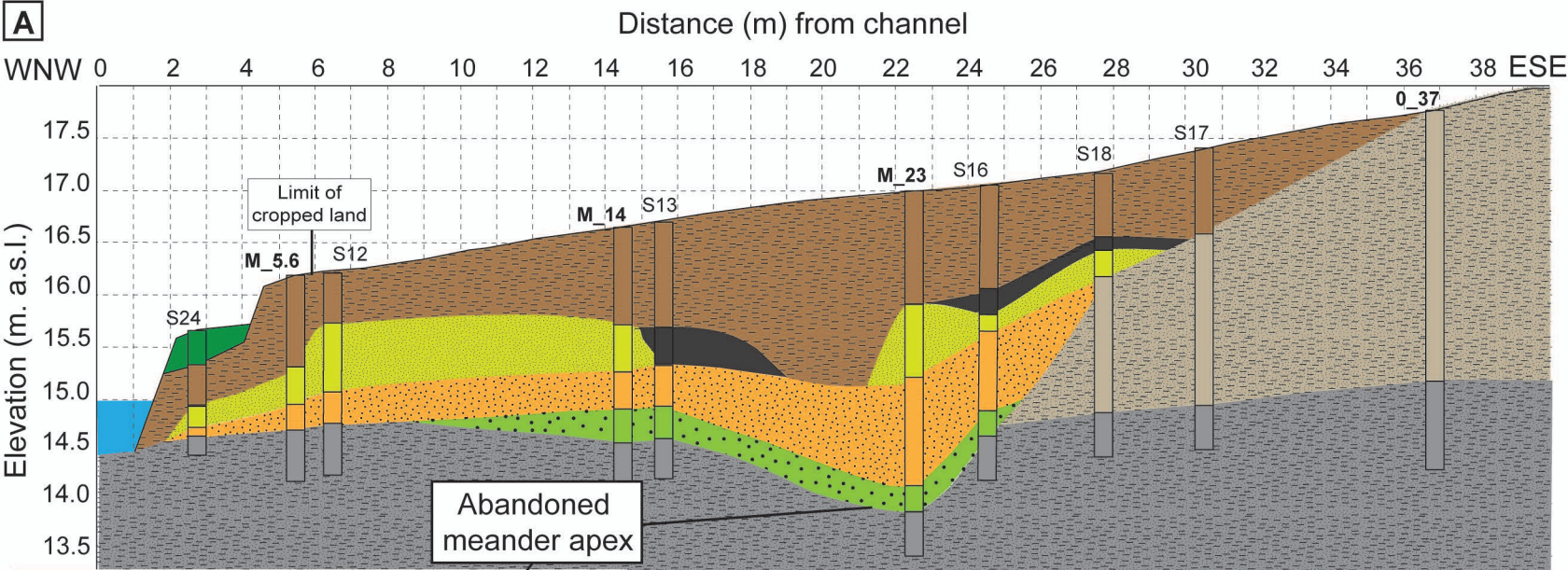


Legend

- Channel logger: ★
- Barometric logger: ☆
- Piezometers in the abandoned meander: ●
- Piezometers in the floodplain outside the abandoned meander: ◻
- Piezometers outside the floodplain: ▲

- Actual stream: — (solid blue line)
- Abandoned channel (pre-1950/post-1950): - - - (dotted red line)
- Top of hillslope: —|— (solid line with vertical tick)
- Base of hillslope: - - - (dashed line)
- Flow direction: —▶ (solid line with arrowhead)





Legend A

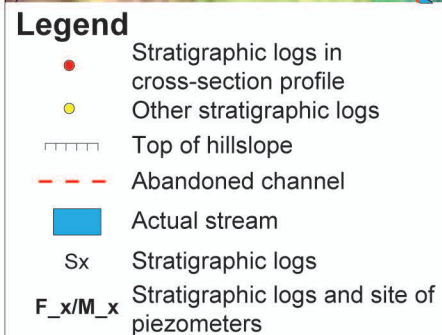
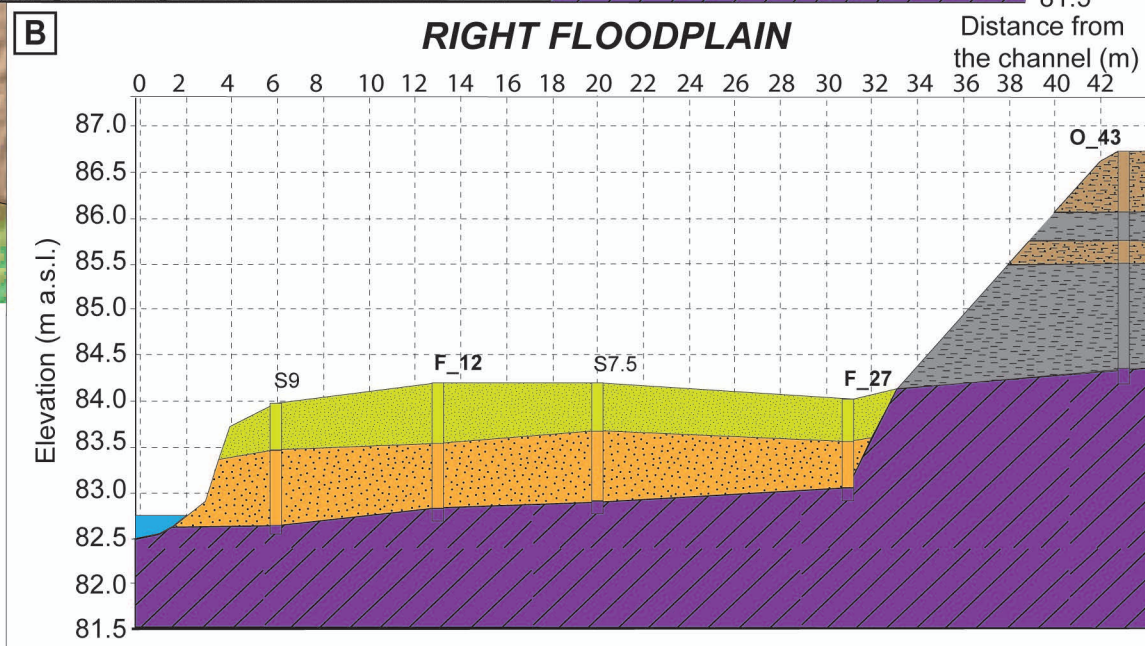
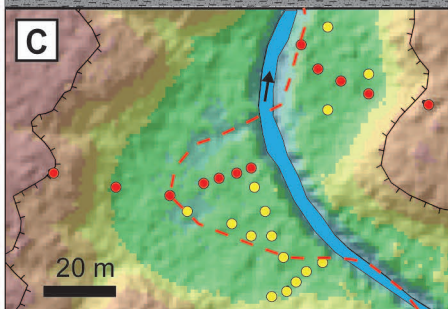
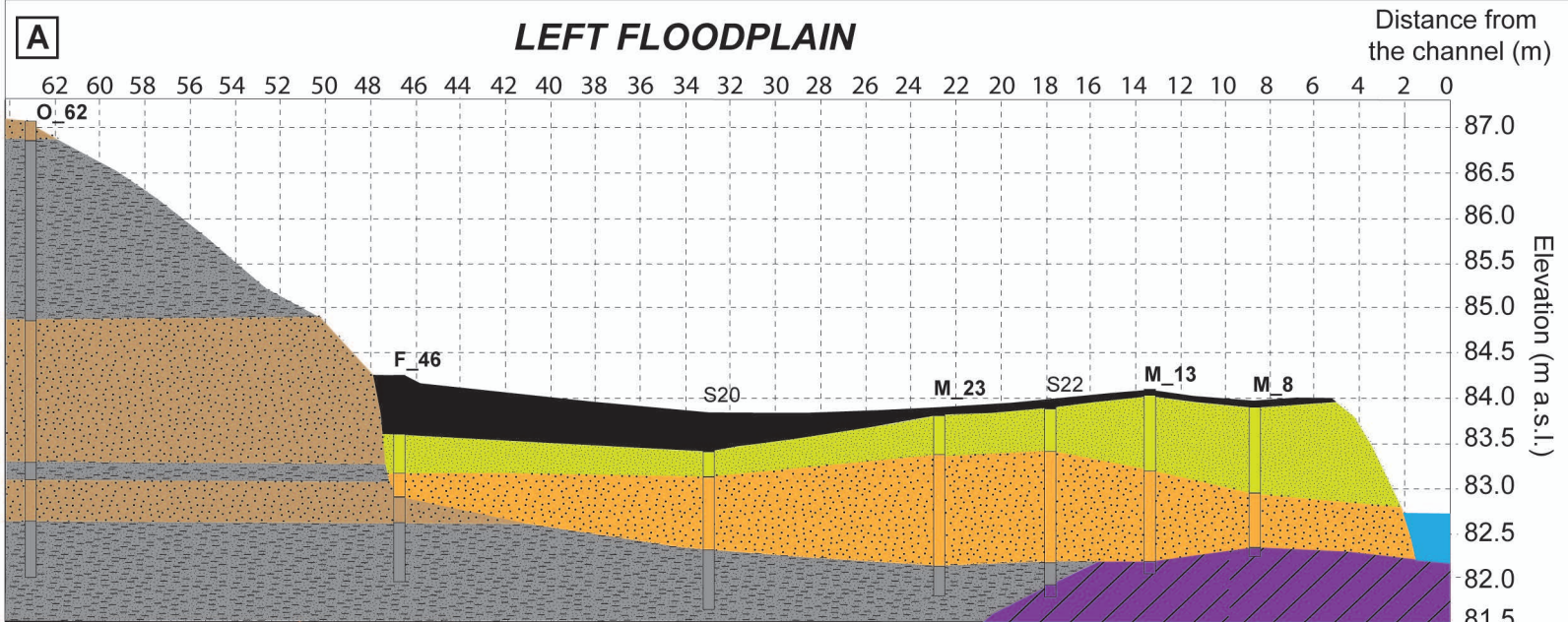
- S_x Stratigraphic logs
- M(O)_x Stratigraphic logs and sites of piezometer

Legend B

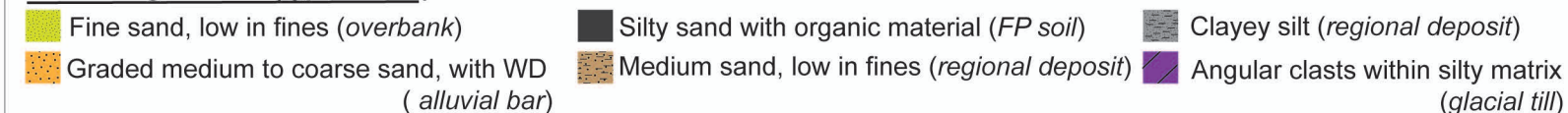
- Stratigraphic logs in cross-section profile
- Other stratigraphic logs
- Top of hillslope (1965)
- - - Abandoned channel
- Actual stream

Dominant grain size (type of unit)

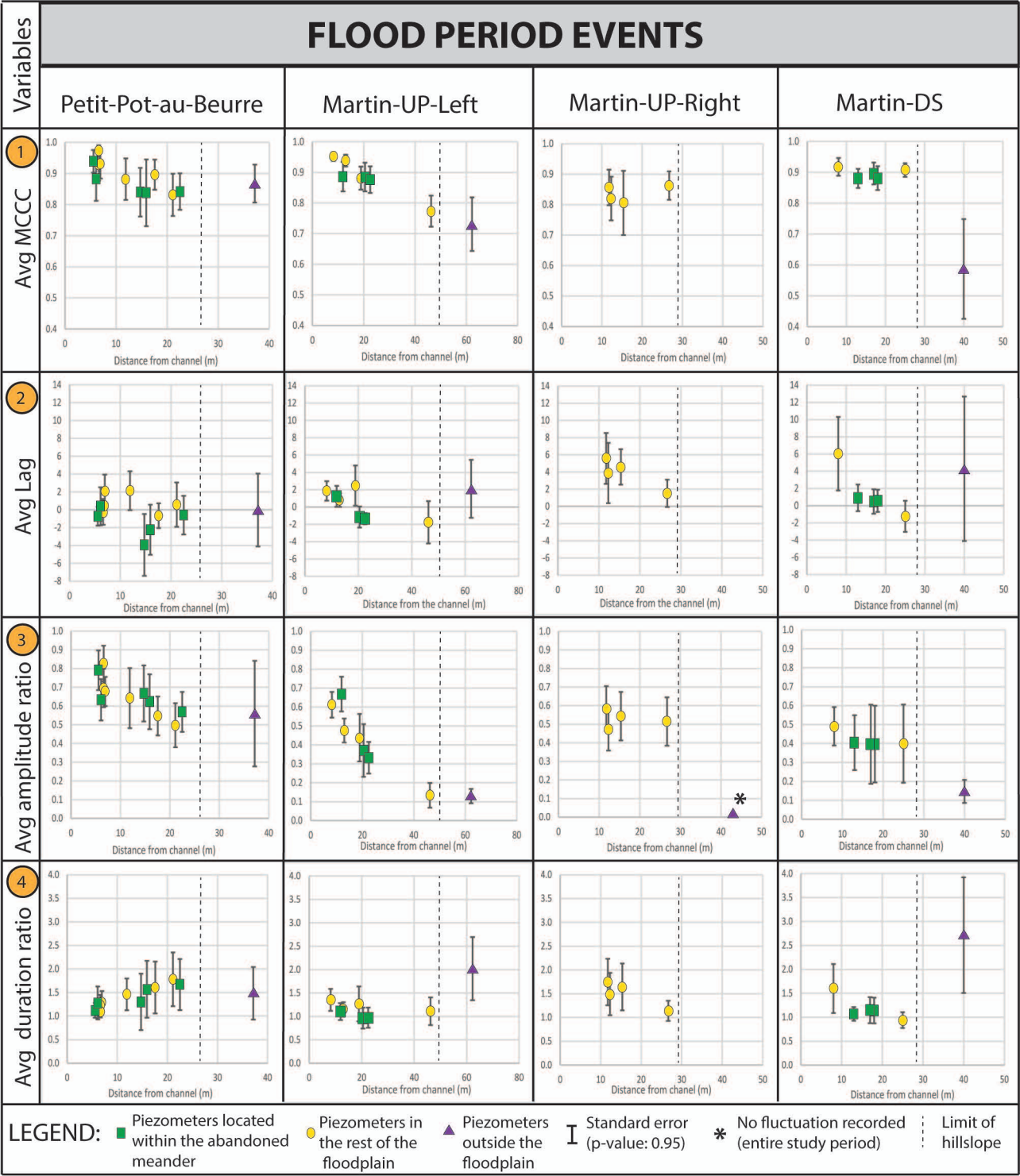
- Sandy silt with fines (*overbank*)
- Fine to medium sand, low in fines (*alluvial bar*)
- Coarse sand with woody debris (*bedload*)
- Fine sand with organic material (*buried soil*)
- Sandy silt with fines (*regional deposit*)
- Sandy silt with fines (*regional deposit, gley*)
- Clay (*backfill material*)
- Sandy silt (*present-day alluvial deposit*)



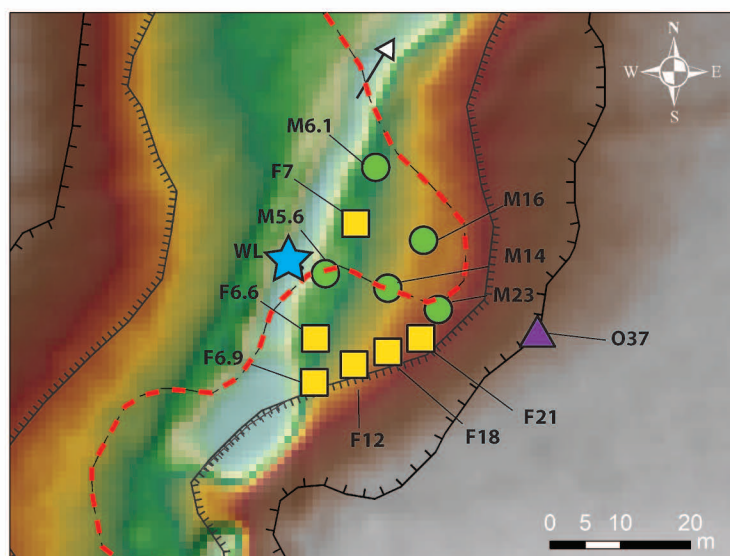
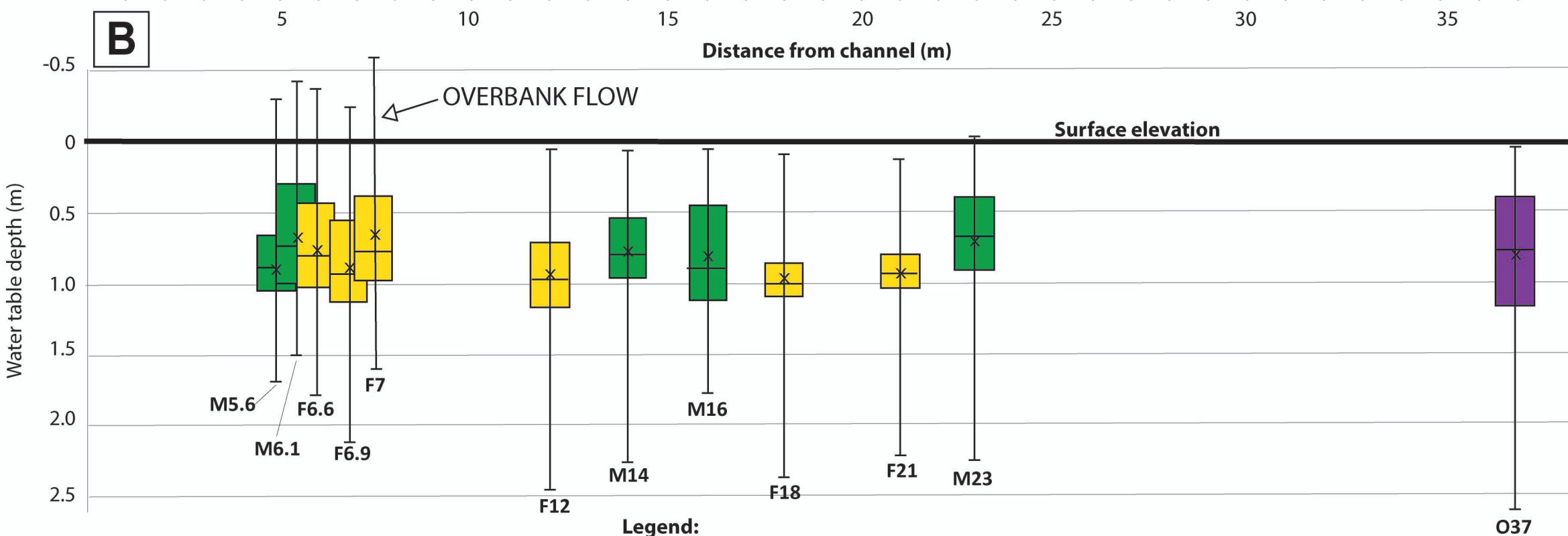
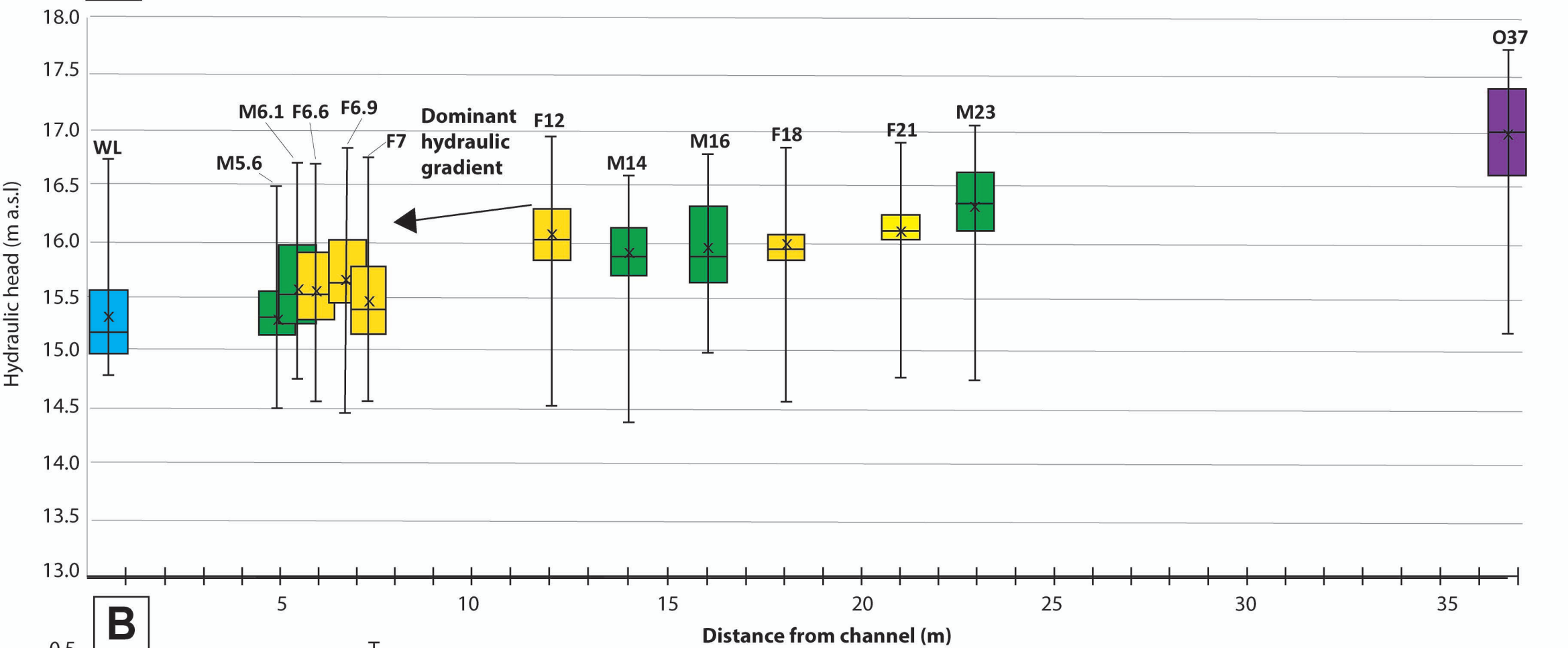
Dominant grain size (type of unit)



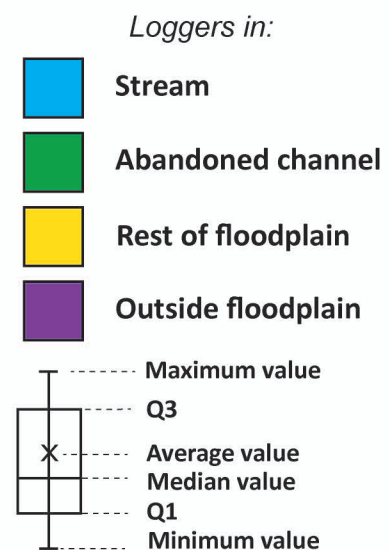
FLOOD PERIOD EVENTS

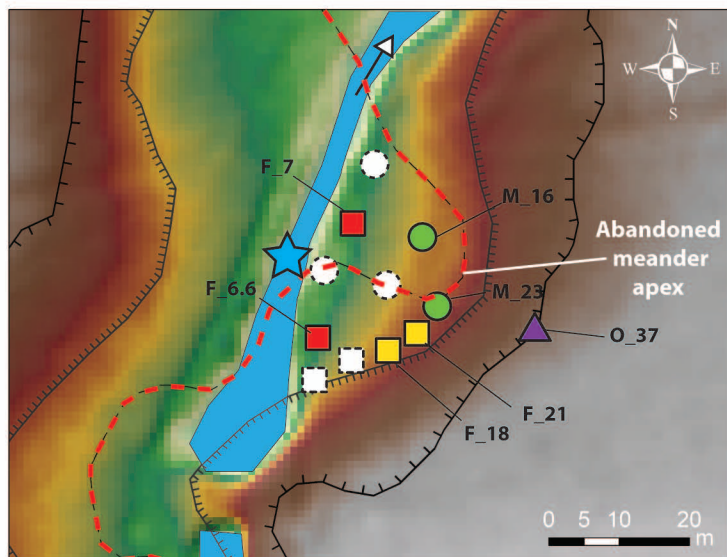


Petit-Pot-au-Beurre (PB)-FLOOD PERIOD



Legend:





Legend

Channel logger



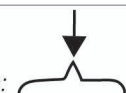
Precipitation:



Piezometers in the stream limit of the (historical) floodplain (F_6.6, F_7)



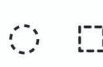
Gradient inversion (during overbank hydrological events):



Piezometers in the lateral limit of the (historical) floodplain (F_18, F_21)



Head data not displayed:



Piezometers in the abandoned meander (M_16, M_23)



Fluvial features:

Top of hillslope (pre-disturbance)



Base of hillslope (pre-disturbance)



Abandoned channel



Flow direction



Actual stream

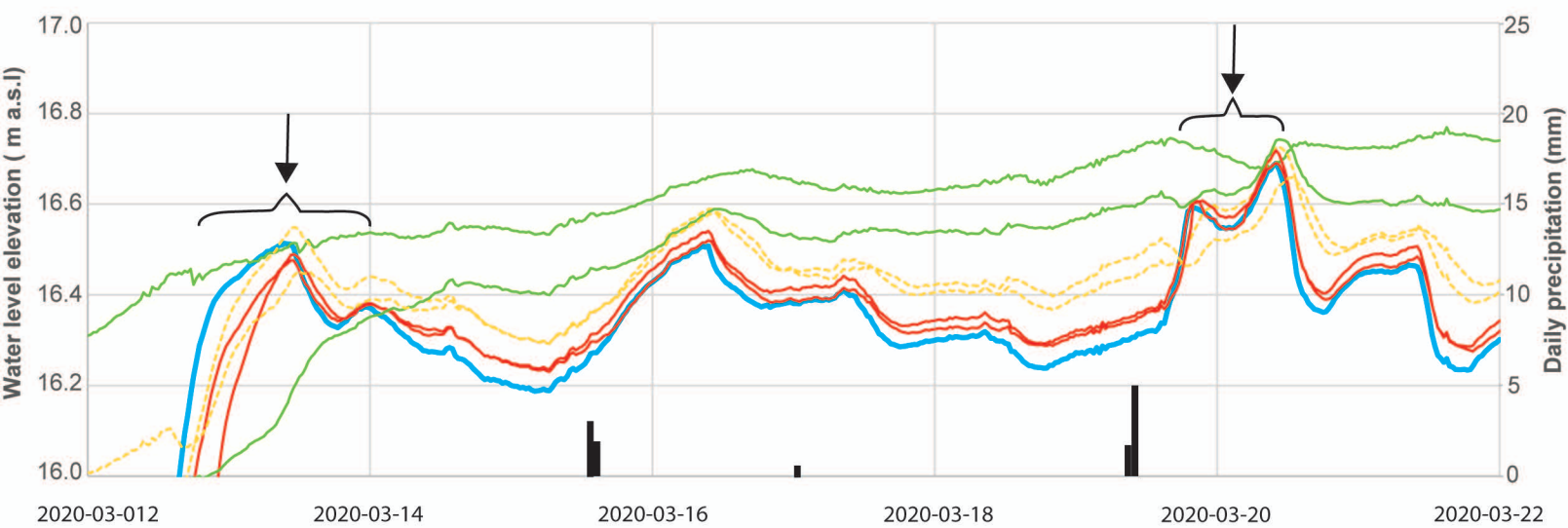
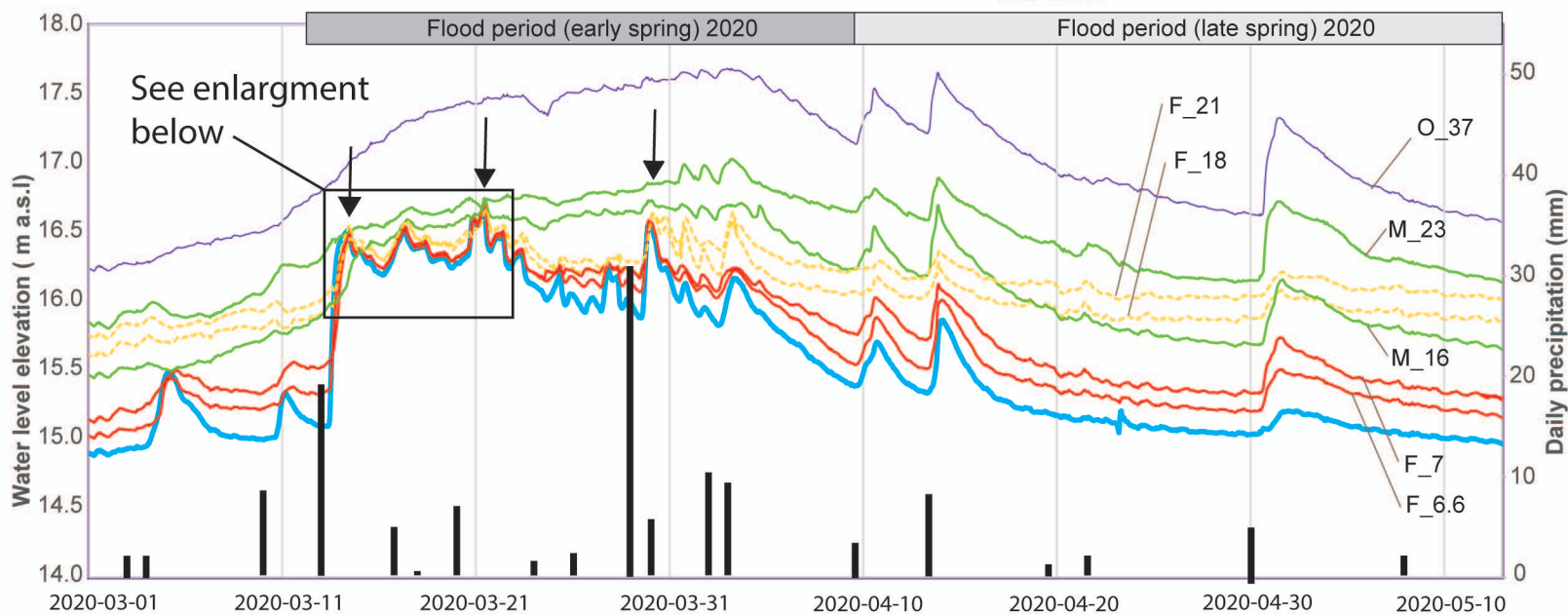


Elevation (m a.s.l.):

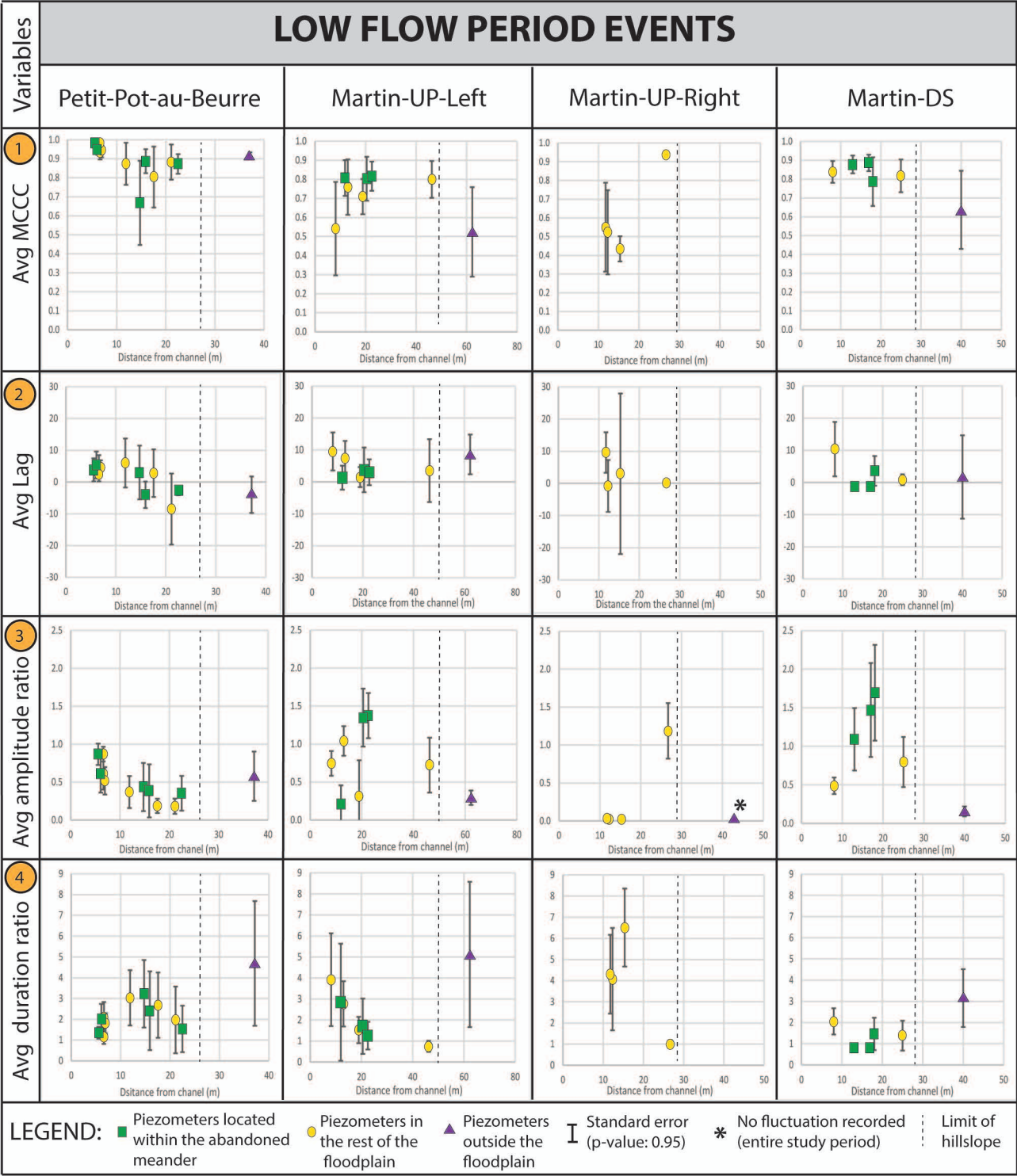


High : 18.6

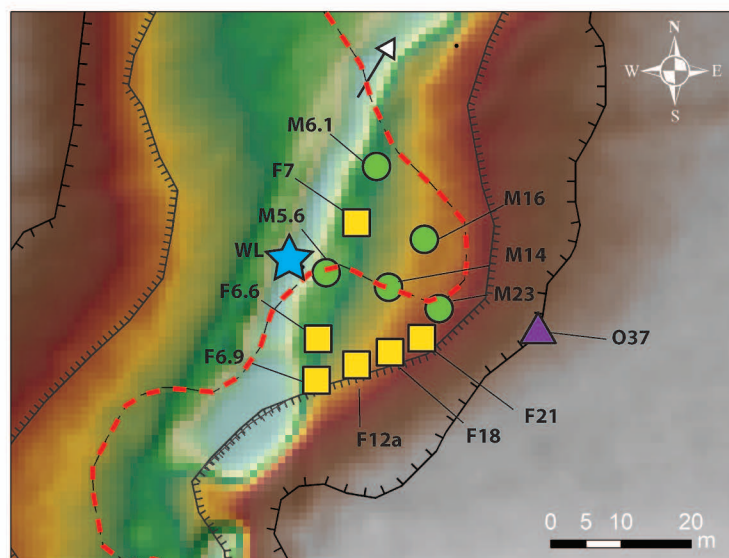
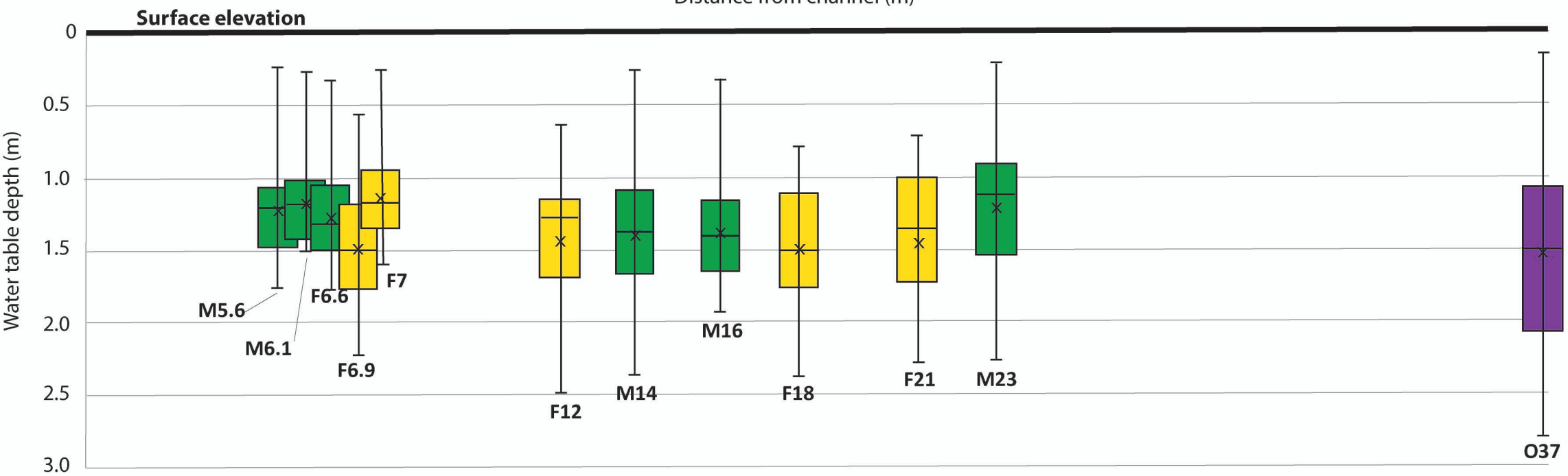
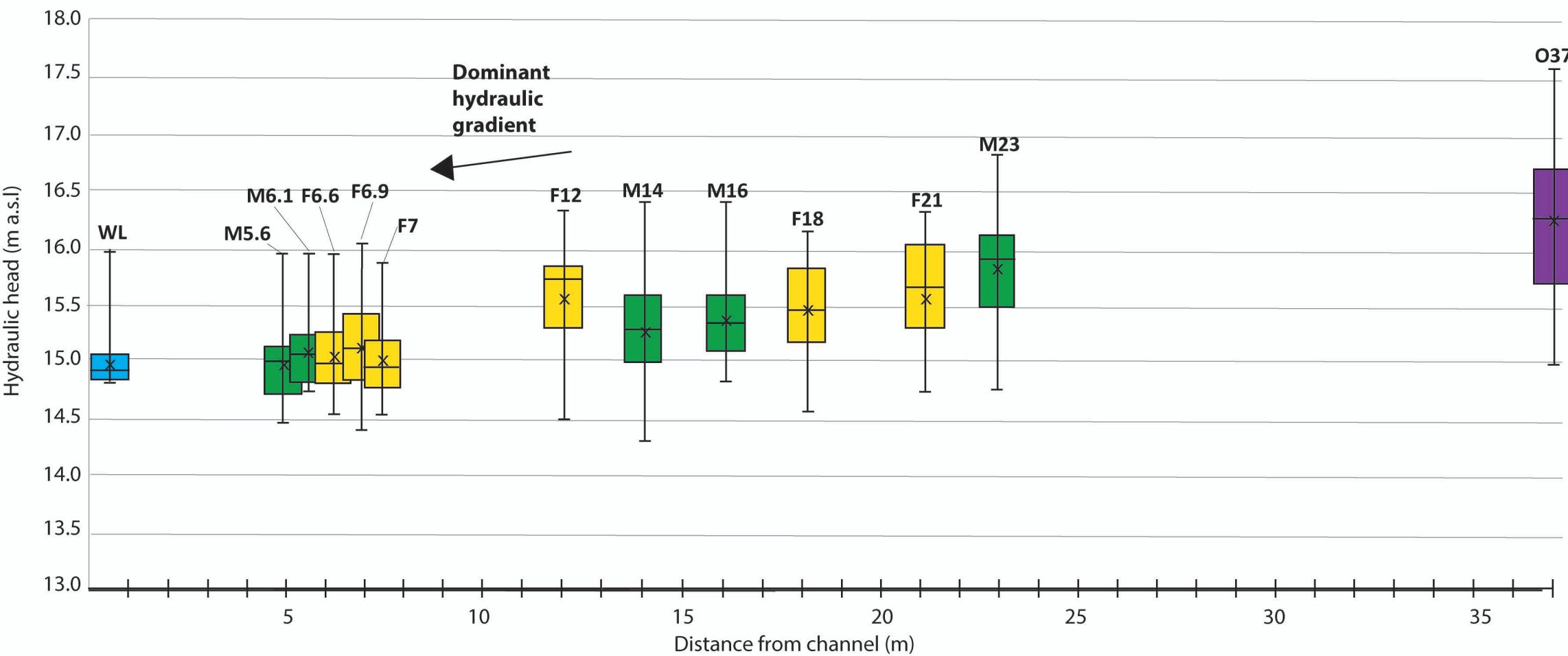
Low : 15.4



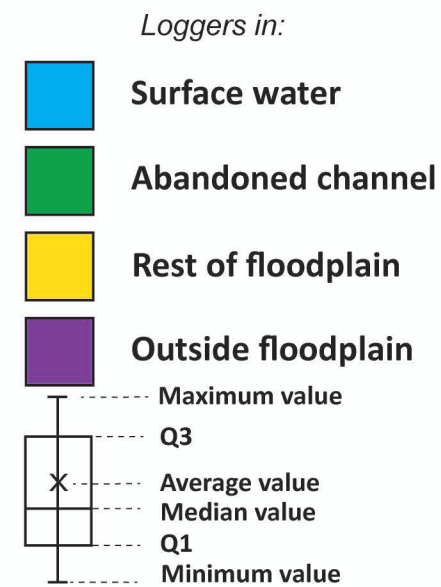
LOW FLOW PERIOD EVENTS



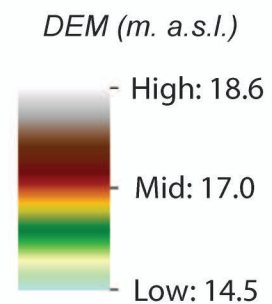
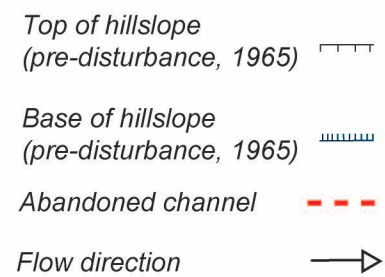
Petit-Pot-au-Beurre (PB) - LOW FLOW PERIOD

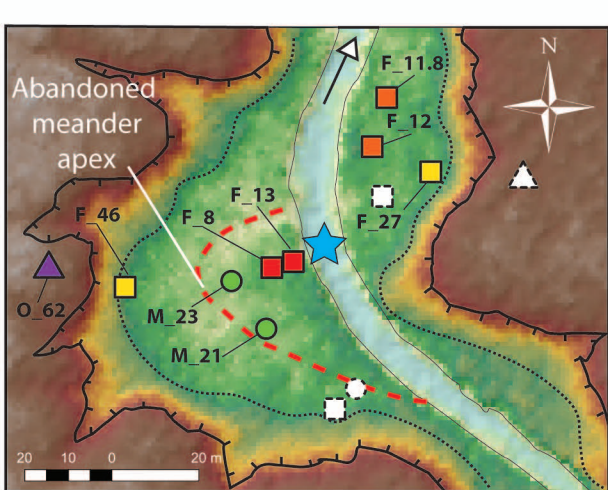


LEGEND:



Morphological features:





Legend

Channel logger



Precipitation:



Piezometers in the stream limit of the (left) floodplain (M_8, M_13)



Fluvial features:

Top of hillslope
Base of hillslope

Piezometers in the abandoned meander (M_21, M_23)



Abandoned channel

Piezometers outside the floodplain (O_62)



Actual channel

Piezometers in the lateral limit of the floodplain (F_27, F_46)

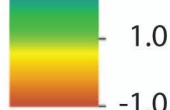


Flow direction

Piezometers in the stream limit of the (right) floodplain (F_11.8, F_12)



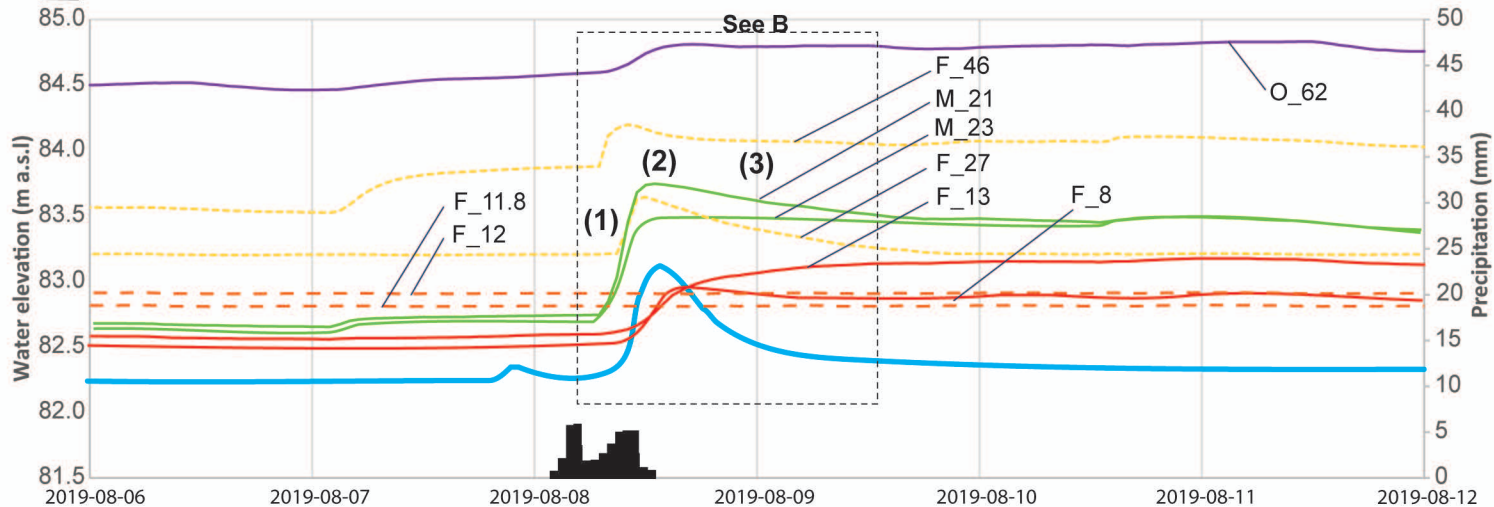
Water depth (m):
(only for B)



Head data not displayed:



A

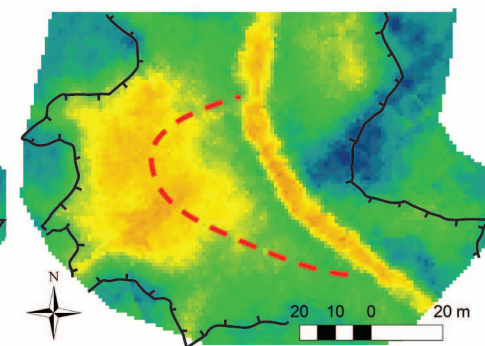
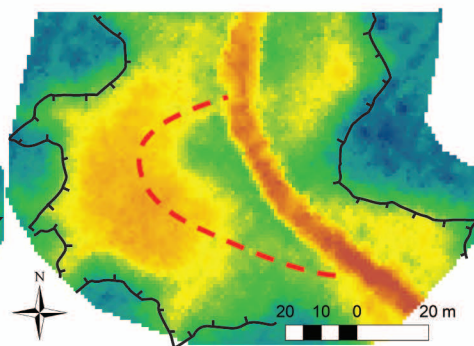
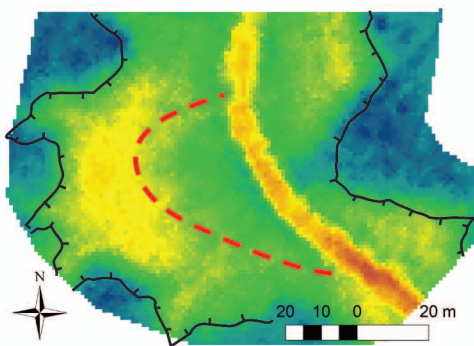


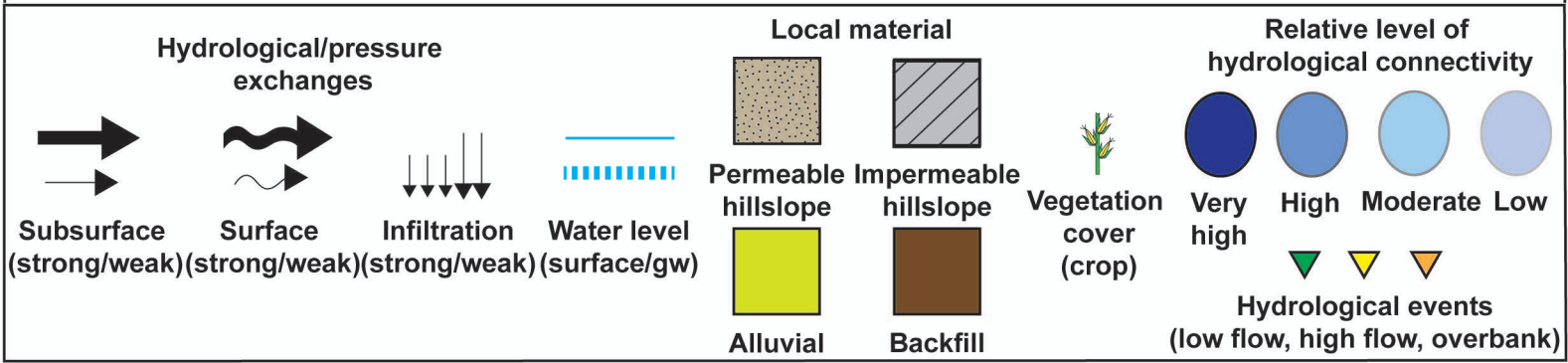
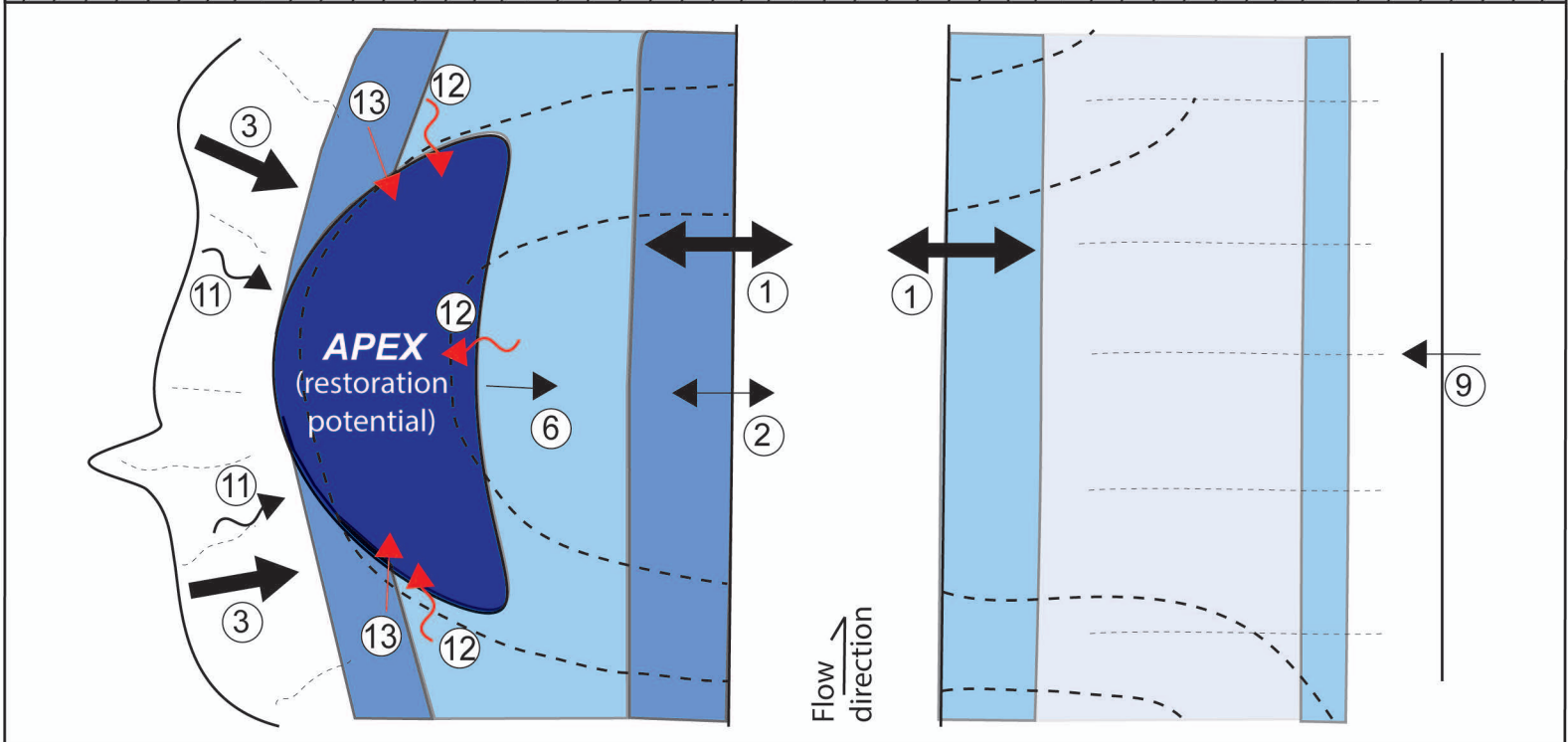
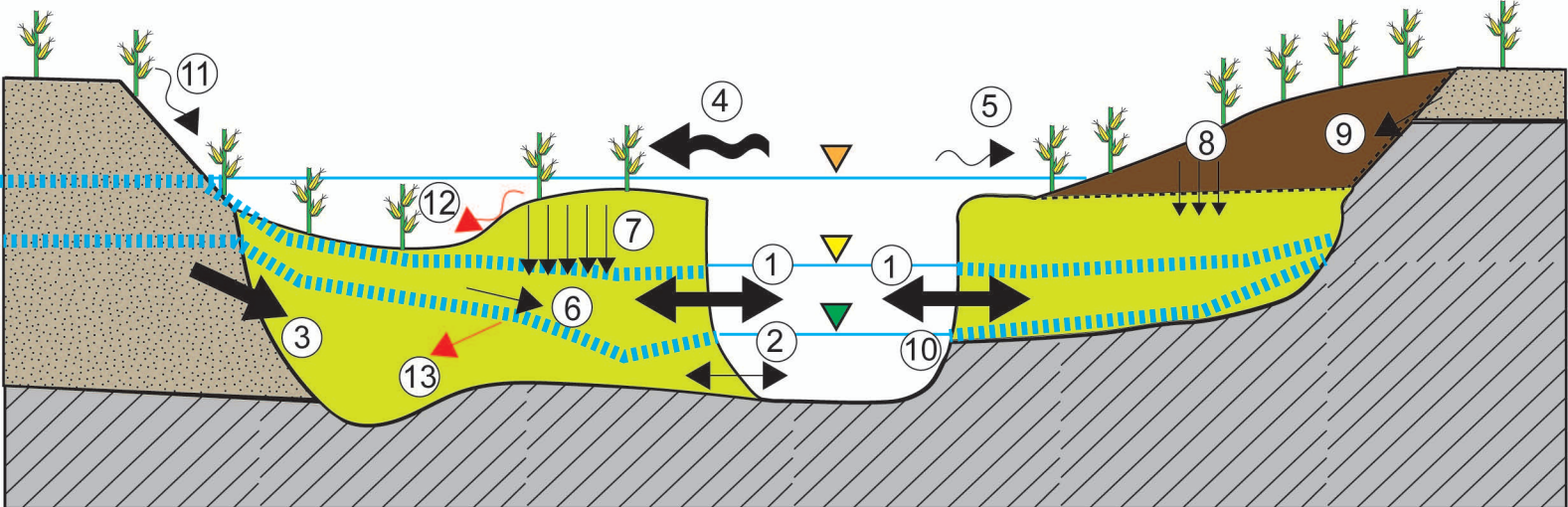
B

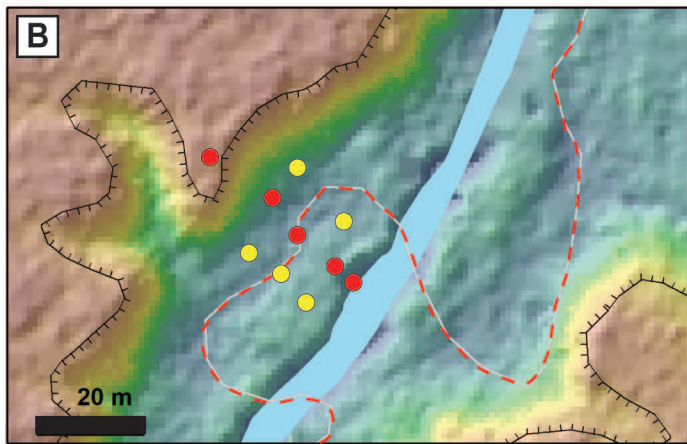
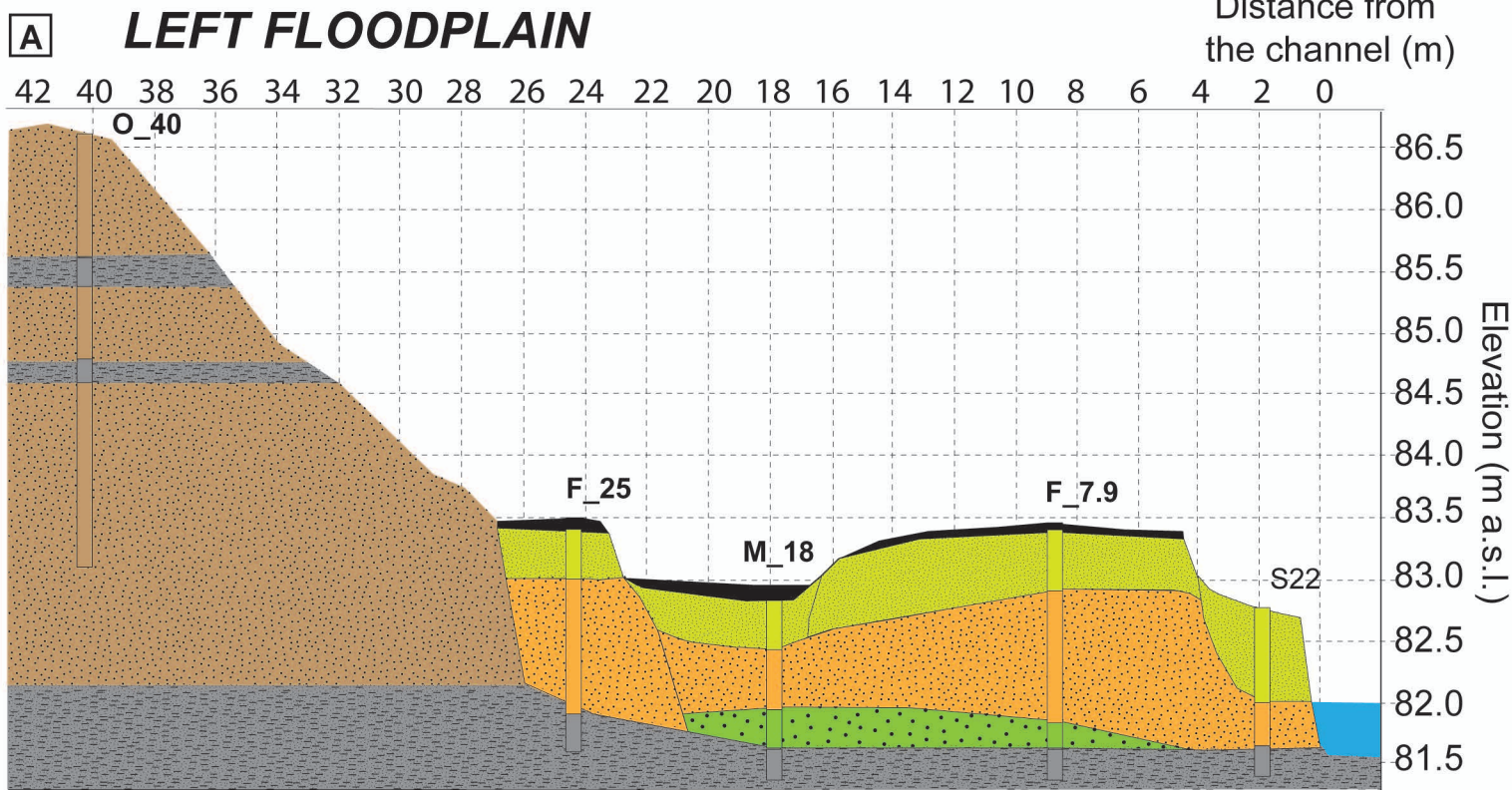
(1) 2019-08-08, 7:00 AM, Pre-event

(2) 2019-08-08, 12:00 PM, Peak

(3) 2019-08-09, 12:00 PM, Post-event







Legend

- Stratigraphic logs in cross-section profile
- Other stratigraphic logs
- ▤ Top of hillslope
- - - Abandoned channel
- Actual stream
- Sx Stratigraphic logs
- F_x/M_x/O_x Stratigraphic logs and site of piezometers

Dominant grain size (type of unit)

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| ■ Silty sand with organic material (<i>FP soil</i>) | ■ Graded medium to coarse sand, (<i>alluvial bar</i>) | ■ Medium sand, low in fines (<i>regional deposit</i>) |
| ■ Fine sand, low in fines (<i>overbank</i>) | ■ Coarse sand with woody debris (<i>bedload</i>) | ■ Clayey silt (<i>regional deposit</i>) |

Figure A. (A) Stratigraphic cross-section profile at RM-MID site, representing the left floodplain (looking downstream). Borehole logs labelled with S (ex. S_22) were only used for the stratigraphic characterization. Borehole logs labelled with M (ex. M_18), F, and O were also used for the piezometer installation. Note a vertical exaggeration of 4x. (B) Digital elevation model of the RM site, with the position of the former and actual channel. Red dots indicate the stratigraphic logs that were used to build the cross-section profile.

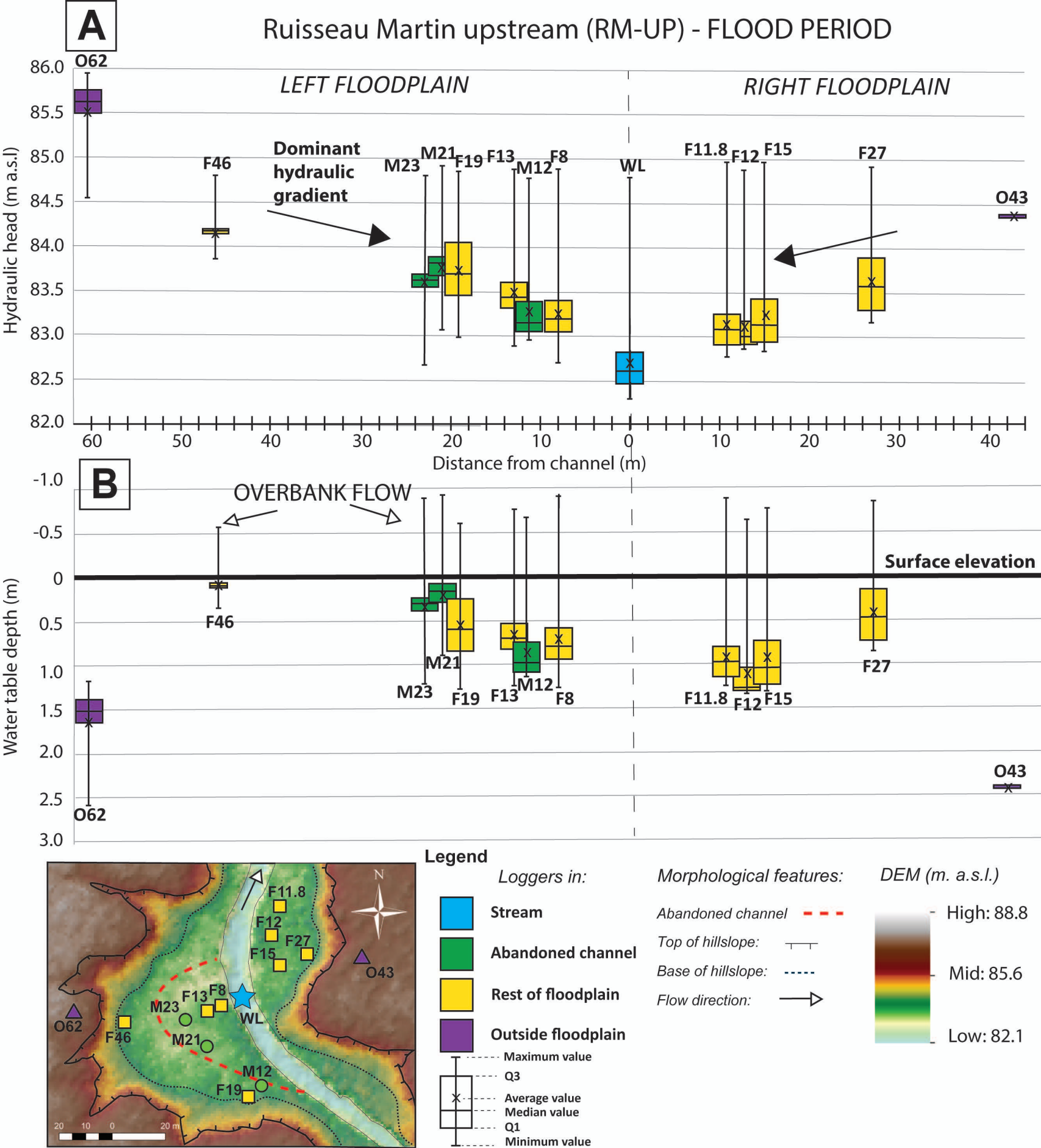


Figure B. Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic head elevation and B) water depth of piezometers installed at the Ruisseau Martin upstream sites for the flood period (mid-March to mid-May and early October to late December). Negative water depth values indicate water level above the surface.

Ruisseau Martin downstream (RM-DS) - FLOOD PERIOD

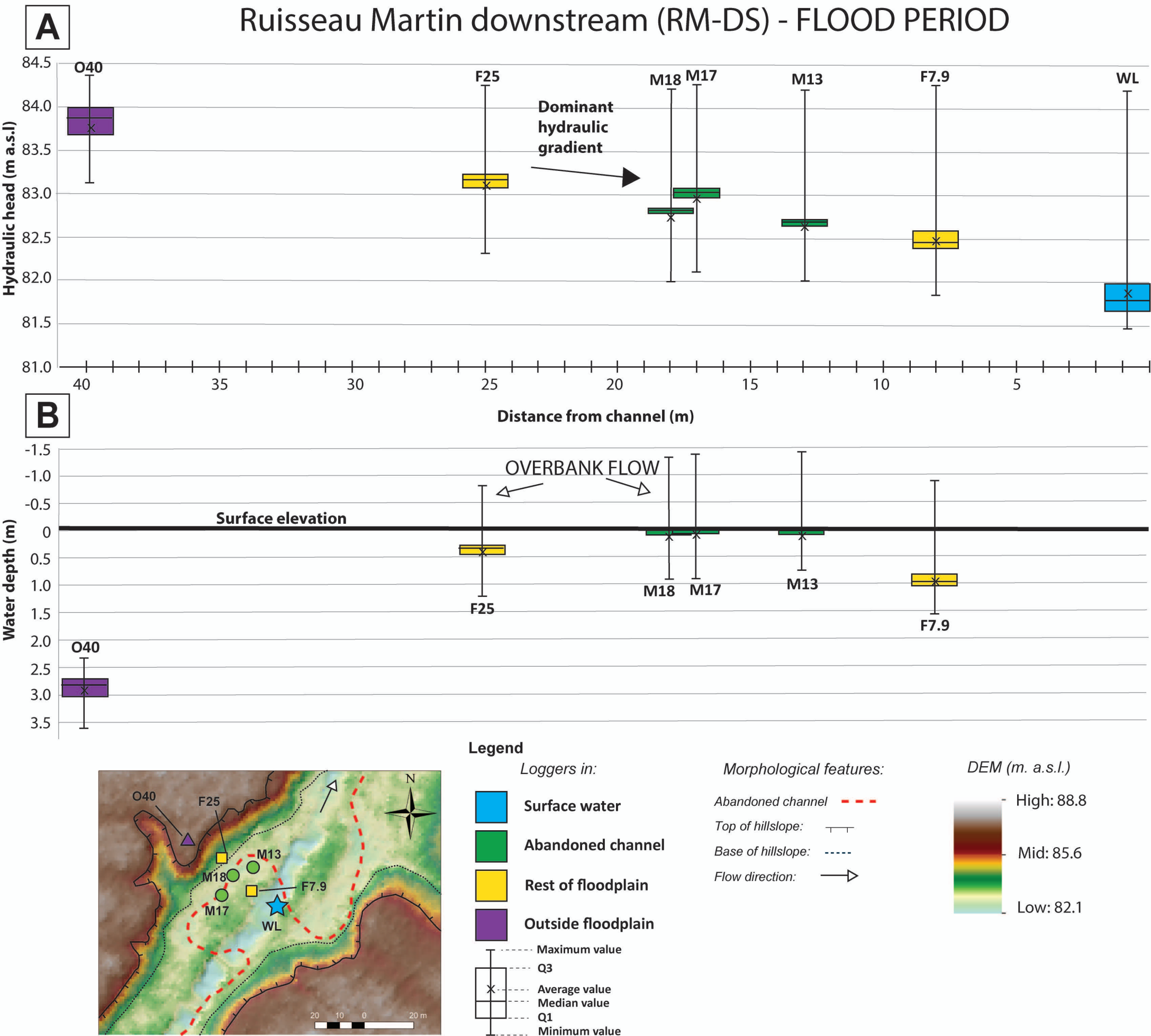


Figure C. Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic head elevation and B) water depth of piezometers installed at the Ruisseau Martin downstream site for the flood period (mid-March to mid-May and early October to late December). Negative water depth values indicate water level above the surface.

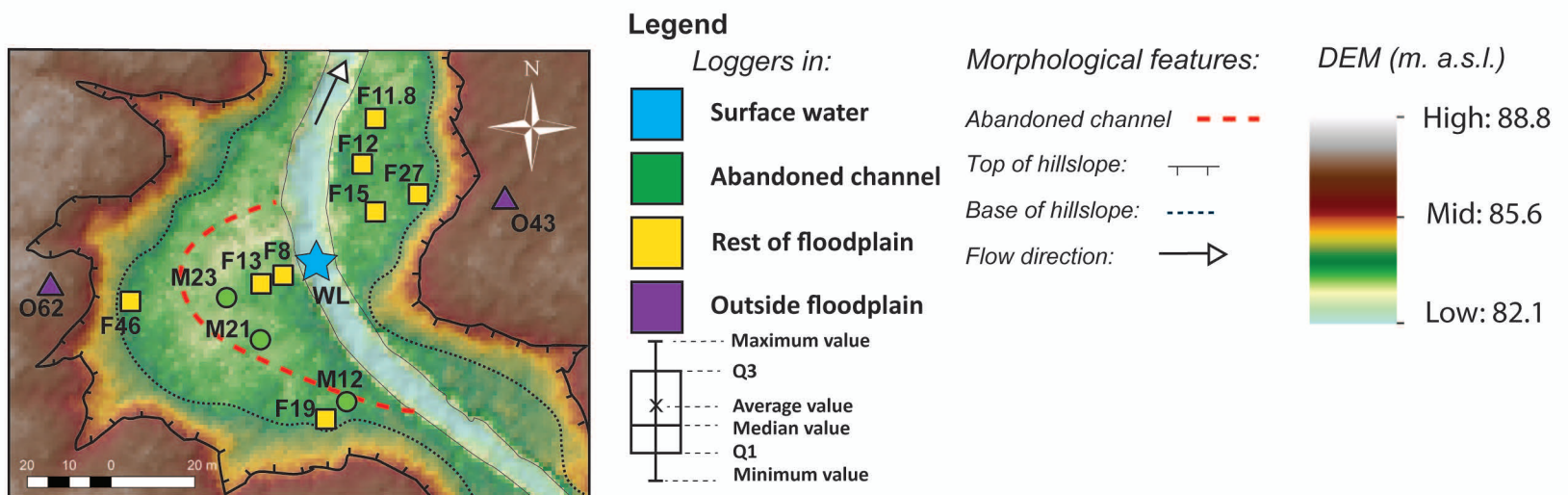
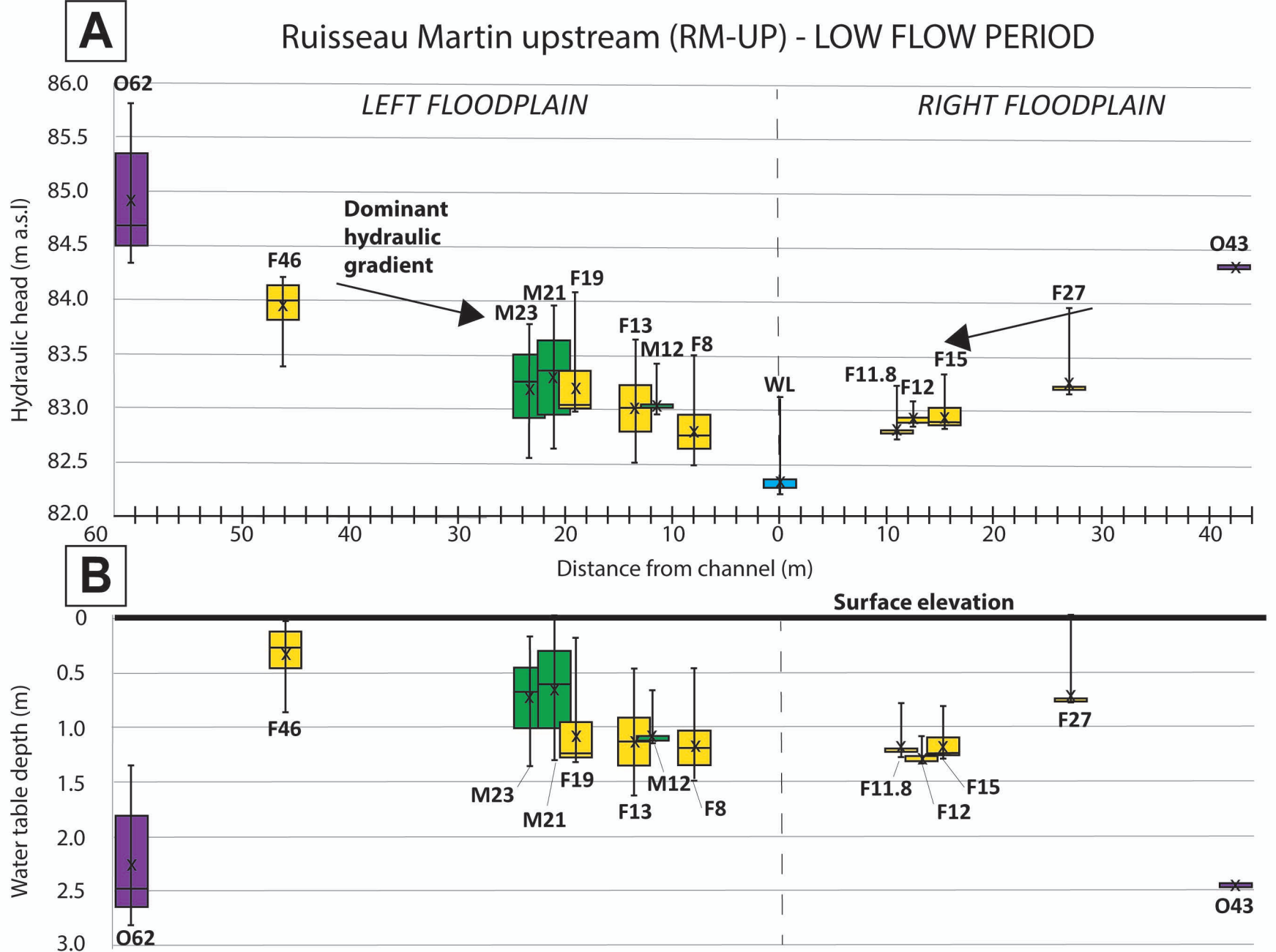
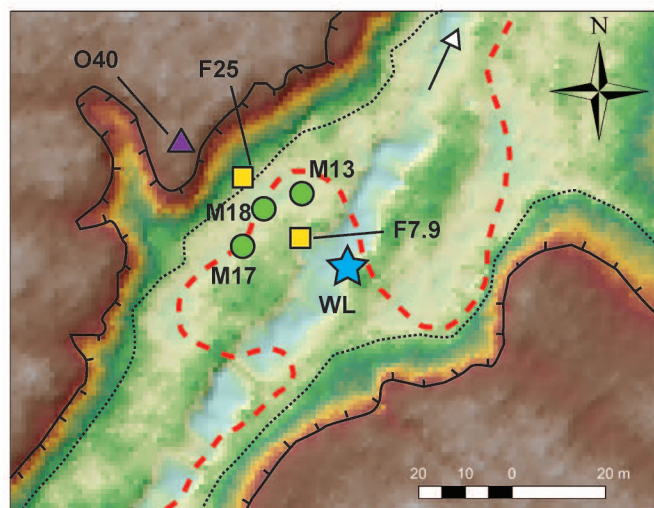
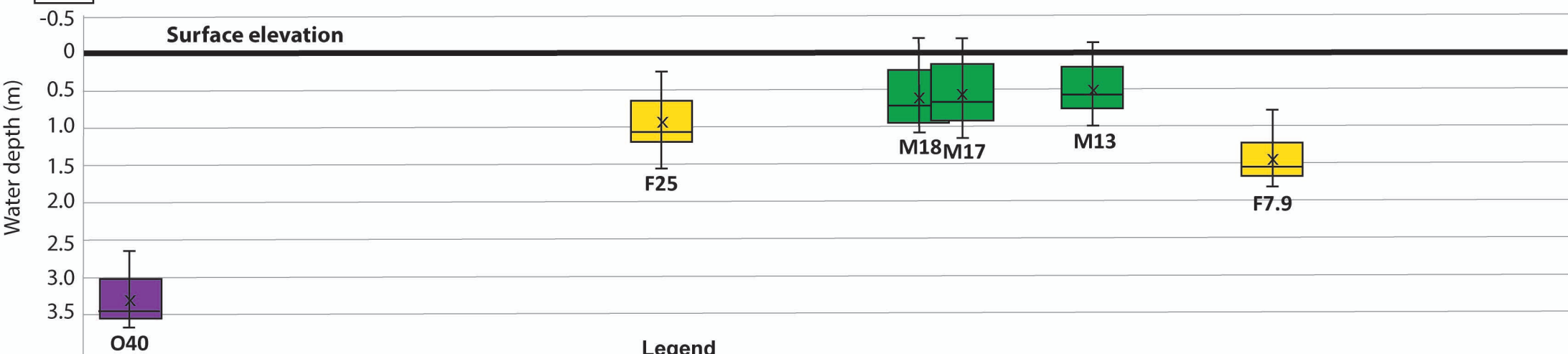
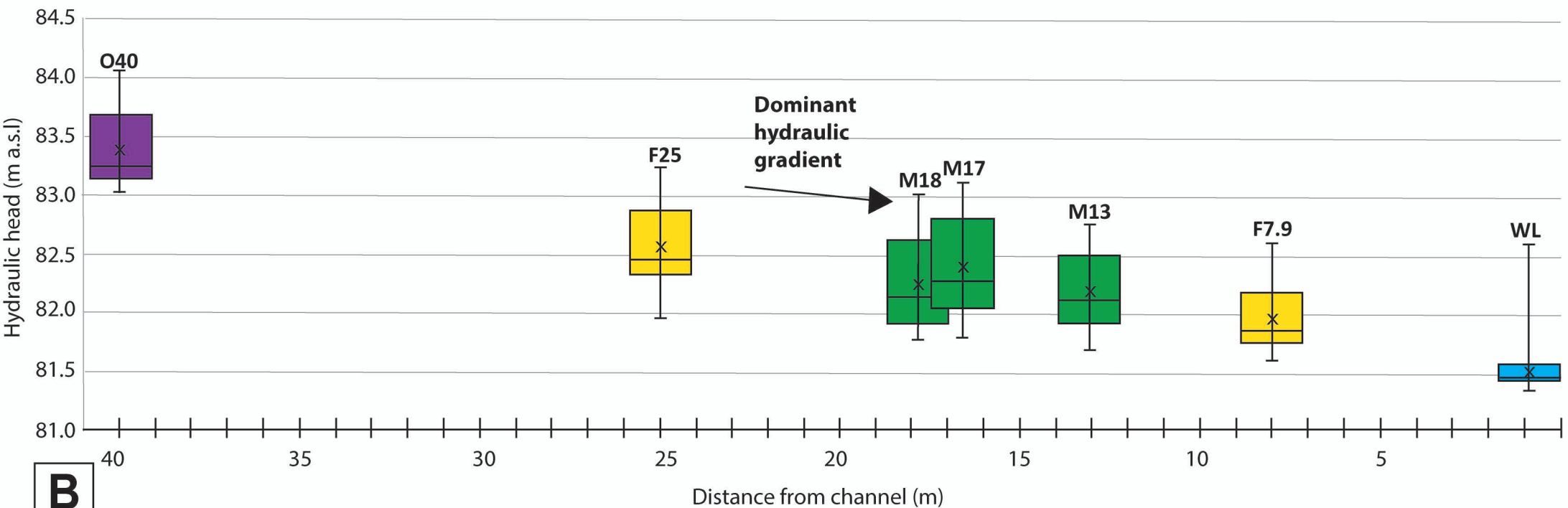


Figure D. Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic head elevation and B) water depth of piezometers installed at the Ruisseau Martin upstream sites for the low flow period (mid-May to early October).

Ruisseau Martin downstream (RM-DS) - LOW FLOW PERIOD



Legend

Loggers in:

- Surface water
- Abandoned channel
- Rest of floodplain
- Outside floodplain

- Maximum value
- Q3
- Average value
- Median value
- Q1
- Minimum value

Morphological features:

- Abandoned channel
- Top of hillslope
- Base of hillslope
- Flow direction

DEM (m. a.s.l.)

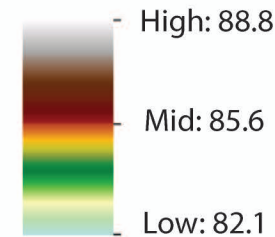


Figure E. Box plot graphs showing A) hydraulic head elevation and B) water depth of piezometers installed at the Ruisseau Martin downstream site for the low flow period (mid-May to early October). Negative water depth values indicate water level above the surface.