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# 1 Framing biophysical and societal implications of multiple 2 stressor effects on river networks

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## 12 13 14 **Abstract**

15  
16  
17 Urbanization, agriculture, and the manipulation of the hydrological cycle are the main  
18 drivers of multiple stressors affecting river ecosystems across the world. Physical,  
19 chemical, and biological stressors follow characteristic patterns of occurrence, intensity,  
20 and frequency, linked to human pressure and socio-economic settings. The societal  
21 perception of stressor effects changes when moving from broad geographic regions to  
22 narrower basin or waterbody scales, as political and ecologically based perspectives  
23 change across scales. Current approaches relating the stressor effects on river networks  
24 and human societies fail to incorporate complexities associated to their co-occurrence,  
25 such as: i) the evidence that drivers can be associated to different stressors; ii) their  
26 intensity and frequency may differ across spatial and temporal scales; iii) their  
27 differential effects on biophysical receptors may be related to their order of occurrence;  
28 iv) current and legacy stressors may produce unexpected outcomes; v) the potentially  
29 different response of different biological variables to stressor combinations; vi) the  
30 conflicting effects of multiple stressors on ecosystem services; and, vii) management of  
31 stressor effects should consider multiple occurrence scales. We discuss how to  
32 incorporate these aspects to present frameworks considering biophysical and societal  
33 consequences of multiple stressors, to better understand and manage the effects being  
34 caused on river networks.

36 **Key words:** biodiversity, ecosystem functioning, human well-being, global change,  
37 water security, socio-economy.

38

39 **Highlights:**

- 40 • Multiple stressors impact both biophysical and societal domains
- 41 • To address multiple stressor effects mismatches in their occurrences in space  
42 and time must be considered
- 43 • Effects of multiple stressors may depend on present and past events
- 44 • Multiple stressors may produce conflicting effects on ecosystem services

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## 48 **Multiple stressors in river networks**

49  
50 Rivers, as suppliers and waterways of drinking water, energy, timber and food, have  
51 since long been exposed to multiple stressors. Today, very few river networks remain in  
52 pristine condition, as most are affected by land use transformation (Donchyts et al.,  
53 2016), water resources management (Loucks and van Beek, 2017, Sadat et al. 2020),  
54 pollution (Malaj et al. 2014, Palmer and Ruhí 2019), fragmentation (Grill et al., 2019,  
55 Rolls and Bond, 2017) and climate change (Milly et al., 2005, Pletterbauer et al., 2018).  
56 Rivers within regions with intense human pressure are subject to “cocktails of stressors”  
57 (Feld et al., 2016), whose effects span a large range of scales in time and space. River  
58 biodiversity (Dudgeon, 2006; Reid et al., 2018), ecosystem functions (Palmer et al.,  
59 2014), and the services derived from these ecosystems to humans (Kundzevicz et al.,  
60 2008), are consequently impaired.

61 Disturbance is defined as “any natural or human-driven discrete event in time  
62 that is characterized by a frequency, intensity, and severity outside a predictable range,  
63 and that disrupts ecosystem, community, or population structure and changes resources  
64 or the physical environment” (Pickett and White, 1985; Resh et al., 1988). The term  
65 “stressor” describes disturbances caused by humans, including hydrological alterations,  
66 pollution, or spread of invasive species (Segner et al., 2014; Crain et al., 2008; Piggott  
67 et al., 2016). Human-driven disturbances typically differ from natural others in their  
68 characteristics and mode of action (Sabater et al., 2019). So forth, stressors have their  
69 origin on abiotic or biotic factors associated to human activities (drivers), and cause  
70 receptors (i.e. populations, communities, or ecosystems) to move out of their normal  
71 operating range. River networks are affected by a multiplicity of drivers, which produce  
72 co-occurring stressors that interact in complex ways at the local, regional, and global  
73 scales (Stevenson and Sabater 2010, Jackson et al. 2016).

74 Drivers such as agriculture, mining or urbanization differ across the world and,  
75 accordingly, stressors will show heterogeneous regional distributions. Agricultural  
76 intensification and farming affect most tropical and temperate regions of the world,  
77 driven by an expanding population and rising meat consumption (Vranken et al., 2014).  
78 Approximately 40% of the Earth’s surface is currently occupied by croplands and  
79 pastures (Foley et al., 2005, FAOSTAT, 2019). Agriculture, and its associated  
80 deforestation, contributes nutrients, pesticides, and sediments to freshwaters (Tilman et  
81 al. 2001; Piggott et al., 2015). Mining affects river networks with large inputs of

82 toxicants and fine sediments (Best 2019). The ever-growing urban areas (Jones and  
83 O'Neill, 2016) and their ramping water demand (Flörke et al. 2018) cause drastic  
84 changes in hydrology and channel forms (Walsh et al. 2005), as well as in water quality,  
85 caused by complex cocktails of contaminants (Kuzmanovic et al., 2015). Yet, the  
86 impacts of urbanization differ widely depending on population density, state of  
87 sanitation and water treatment infrastructures (Booth et al., 2016). Water and  
88 hydropower demands promote damming and flow regulation, a trend likely to increase  
89 in the future (Zarfl et al., 2015, Best 2019), and which will further reduce river  
90 connectivity (Grill et al., 2019) and alter seasonal flow dynamics (Pfister et al., 2020).  
91 Superimposed to all these drivers, climate change is an additional source of stressors. It  
92 directly affects river networks through changes in temperature and hydrology, but also  
93 indirectly, as a consequence of effects on agricultural production and water security  
94 (Kang et al. 2009), which force adaptation measures such as the building of dams and  
95 flood defenses, extensive water transfers, or canalization (Nilsson et al., 2005; Eekhout  
96 et al., 2018).

97         The stressors listed above are amongst the most common in river networks, and  
98 their effects range from local to regional, and global (Table 1), whereas their impacts  
99 are also modulated by societal factors including technological development (reliance on  
100 water resources, ability for water treatment; Vörösmarty et al., 2010), governance and  
101 legislative approaches (presence and implementation; Carvalho et al. 2019), and  
102 environmental awareness (Cabello et al., 2015). Therefore, the occurrence and intensity  
103 of stressors, as well as their effects, differ widely around the world (Vörösmarty et al.,  
104 2010, Elozegi et al., 2019).

105

## 106 **Scales in multiple stressor occurrence**

107

108 The occurrence of multiple stressors, as well as their effects on both river ecosystems  
109 and human societies, may be considered at contrasting ecological and socio-political  
110 scales. One of these is the *region*, which usually has a political definition as an area  
111 with relatively homogenous socio-economic characteristics, governance, and  
112 management (Omernik 2004). Another scale is the *ecoregion*, defined as an area with  
113 specific climate, landforms, vegetation cover and soil settings, which host distinctive  
114 biological communities (Omernik 2004), as a consequence of environmental filtering of  
115 the available species pool (Mittelbach and Schemske 2015, González-Trujillo et al.

116 2020). Ecoregions often do not coincide with regions, what causes a mismatch between  
117 ecologically-based and politically-based approaches.

118 An especially relevant scale for river networks is the *river basin*. Whereas large  
119 basins may enclose several ecoregions, many small basins can fit in a single ecoregion.  
120 The basin is the scale onto which physiographic factors (vegetation, climate, geological  
121 setting), water flow patterns, water chemical characteristics, and social and economic  
122 factors, coincide (Heathcote, 2009). The basin generally is the unit most directly  
123 associated to human activities, and it is therefore the one at which stressor occurrence is  
124 considered (Pistocchi, 2019). The basin is also the managerial scale in many legislative  
125 frameworks, such as the EU Water Framework Directive, with its River Basin  
126 Management Plans (Hering et al. 2015, Carvalho et al. 2019).

127 Finally, within each basin, the *river segment* (i.e., a part between tributaries,  
128 Frissell 1986) and their *waterbodies* (parts of the segment with clear physical  
129 boundaries), are the scales at which physical habitats operate, as well as the biological  
130 communities therein. Within a river network, analogous sets of stressors do not  
131 necessarily produce coincidental responses in different segments (Timoner et al. 2019).  
132 Responses can differ between headwaters, middle, and lowland segments, given their  
133 contrasting geomorphological, hydrological, and biological characteristics (Lemm et al.  
134 2019, Schinegger et al., 2016; Table 2). Also, the position of each waterbody within the  
135 river network (i.e. main reach, or confluence between tributaries; Benda et al. 2004,  
136 Swan and Brown 2014), may affect the composition and structure of biological  
137 assemblages (Heino et al., 2015) as a result of the heterogeneity associated to network  
138 drainage architecture.

139 Overall, the occurrence and effects of stressors must be considered according to  
140 their scale. However, forecasting their effects is difficult because of complex ecological  
141 and human interactions (Table 2, Table 3). At some scales, integrating causes and  
142 effects is simpler. For instance, directly measurable elements (biophysical or social) are  
143 best characterized at the waterbody scale, thus reliably relating stressors to effects  
144 (Voulvoulis et al. 2017, Carvalho et al. 2018). However, these relationships become  
145 fuzzier at larger scales, such as the basin or the ecoregion, often constrained by the  
146 availability of detailed data. Climatic, hydrological, biological, and social data must  
147 then be obtained by means of adequate transfer functions, modeling, or "expert-criteria".  
148 For instance, Vörösmarty et al. (2010) estimated river water security at the basin scale  
149 from urbanization and agriculture as main drivers, and then related them to biodiversity

150 and to human water security through several indicator variables. Such approaches  
151 enclose high uncertainties but can also predict the effects of multiple stressors at large  
152 scales, by assuming straightforward, simplified, relationships between stressors and  
153 effects.

154         The dendritic structure of river networks further complicates stressor analyses.  
155 For instance, modelling the transmission of contaminants through river networks and  
156 their effects, requires the consideration of physical phenomena such as advection or  
157 dispersion, but also on how they affect the transformation of these substances by the  
158 system itself, as well as social aspects involved (i.e. inflow type, treatment,  
159 management). Most models consider dilution and first-order degradation processes,  
160 complemented with various approximations to estimate water quality in poorly  
161 monitored areas (Font et al. 2019). Some of these models consider the linkages between  
162 engineered (e.g. WWTPs) and natural systems (e.g. rivers) (e.g. Oldenkamp et al., 2018,  
163 Font et al. 2019), and simulate the fate of single chemical compounds. Nevertheless,  
164 accounting for the huge complexity of urban or industrial effluents, which contain both  
165 subsidizers and stressors of biological activity is exceedingly complex, and so are the  
166 feed-backs that these mixtures can produce on biological receptors (Sabater-Liesa et al.  
167 2019, Pereda et al. 2019). Further, many models only partially consider the societal  
168 patterns which drive the occurrence of multiple stressors in the basin, and usually do not  
169 consider a dynamic adaptation of river management (i.e. by assuming steady state  
170 conditions over longer periods, or by neglecting variations in e.g. water abstraction,  
171 changes in irrigation patterns, or contaminant inputs).

172         Another layer of complexity is added when aiming to understand the temporal  
173 evolution of human activities and the associated stressors. In these cases, modelling  
174 against storylines is an option to describe integrated scenarios at the basin scale (Moss  
175 et al., 2010). Examples are the so-called Shared Socio-Economic Pathways (SSP)  
176 (O'Neill et al., 2014), where several narratives describe alternative pathways of global  
177 future development in societal, economic and governance terms. Regional scenarios are  
178 essential elements for societal inference but also introduce large uncertainties on  
179 adaptive and forward-looking management decisions (Veenman and Leroy, 2016;  
180 Webster et al., 2003). The uncertainty of these predictions is high, both when moving  
181 towards global scales or when downscaling to river networks (Bateman et al., 2016;  
182 Van Vuuren et al., 2014). In the case of downscaling, it often requires the concurrence of  
183 local expert knowledge and the participation of stakeholders (Koundouri et al., 2019),

184 e.g. to include the perception of expected alterations of water demand in the narratives  
185 of global change (Ker Rault et al., 2019). So forth, the downscaling of the SSPs proves  
186 to be a valuable tool to better understand the interactions and implications of global  
187 change on regional scales. In a recent exercise, Huber-Garcia et al. (2019) showed that a  
188 technology-driven world is more likely to exacerbate the water demand for irrigation  
189 and will thus add stress to areas with previously existing water scarcity.

190

## 191 **A conceptual path to integrate the biophysical and societal effects of** 192 **multiple stressors**

193

194 Researchers often analyze separately the biophysical and the societal effects of  
195 stressors, i.e., the effects on the biodiversity and function of river ecosystems on one  
196 side, and on human societies (including aspects associated to ecosystem services) on the  
197 other. This separation is conceptual but also disciplinary, likely departing from the  
198 different backgrounds and methods followed in the biophysical and societal research  
199 domains. Nevertheless, there are obvious interactions and feedbacks between the  
200 ecosystem and the social perspectives (Fagan, 2011), which include common scrutiny  
201 over stressors, common perception of primary effects, and commonly implemented  
202 management scenarios (Fig. 1).

203

204 Several frameworks have connected stressors to their effects. Some emphasized the  
205 biophysical mechanisms, others the societal consequences, and a few have already  
206 considered the two. The MAES approach (Maes et al. 2016) considers delivery of  
207 ecosystem services as the link connecting the ecosystemic and socio-economic  
208 components of socio-ecological systems. The IPBES (Diaz et al. 2015) connects  
209 biodiversity and ecosystem functions with the intrinsic values of nature for people, and  
210 with good quality of life. It considers stressors and governance (respectively qualified as  
211 direct and indirect drivers) on those links, but the mechanisms associated to multiple  
212 stressor effects are not “the main focus of the platform” (Diaz et al. 2015).

212

213 The Driver-Pressure-State-Impact-Response (DPSIR) concept (Smeets and  
214 Weterings, 1999) is the most widely used of the biophysically based frameworks, and it  
215 can incorporate a wide range of societal aspects. Originally designed to assess the  
216 relevance of indicators for policymakers, it has been central in the application of the  
217 WFD (Hering et al. 2015). The DPSIR indeed recognizes the chain of effects departing  
218 from drivers to societal responses and impacts on freshwater ecosystems, and therefore



218 considers the physical and societal components of the sources and effects associated to  
219 stressors (Birk, 2019). The DPSIR has been applied to multiple freshwater ecosystems  
220 through the EU-funded project MARS, where it was used in connection to risk  
221 assessment and ecosystem services workflows (Hering et al. 2015, Segurado et al. 2018,  
222 Birk 2019).

223 These frameworks depart from the occurrence of stressors to their effects on  
224 ecosystems and society, by means of stepwise, iterative, processes (Fig. 1). Human  
225 activities in a region drive land use changes, resulting in specific types, number, and  
226 intensity of stressors (Fig. 1, main upper connection). Every stressor will affect the  
227 environmental conditions and impact biological communities and ecosystem  
228 functioning (biophysical process). Consequently, the societal interface (Fig. 1, upper  
229 part of the loop) associated to the river ecosystem services (e.g. water purification, food  
230 production, erosion control), is also impacted. The relationship between ecological  
231 status (as defined by the EU Water Framework Directive), or river health (Rapport et  
232 al., 1998; Karr, 1999), and the ecosystem capacity to fulfill the demands for drinking  
233 water, food, energy and recreation under optimal conditions is at the core of the  
234 Ecosystem Services delivery (Adams, 2014). Nonetheless, this relationship not  
235 necessarily matches with ecosystem conservation goals, since ecosystem service  
236 provisioning does not necessarily support a good ecological status (Duncan et al., 2015).

237 At the societal interface (Fig. 1, lower part of the loop), the society can disregard  
238 or even accept environmental degradation, then reinforcing effects through further  
239 pressures affecting river networks. Otherwise, the impairment caused by stressors can  
240 be mitigated (e.g. restoration) through governance or stewardship (Pahl-Wostl et al.  
241 2012, Pistocchi et al. 2017, Huber-Garcia et al. 2019, Koundouri et al. 2019). For  
242 example, large investments in water treatment and infrastructure may reduce the  
243 negative effects of pollution to humans (Pistocchi 2019), but not necessarily improve  
244 the ecological status of the river ecosystems unless accompanied by specific restoration  
245 actions (Pander and Geist 2013). These ecosystem-societal interactions may become  
246 complicated by legacies of ancient or long-lasting disturbances (Lake et al., 2007),  
247 which reduce the success of corrective measures (Pander and Geist 2013).

248 Overall, the outcome of the ecosystem-societal decisions is uncertain and  
249 difficult to generalize. Uncertainties, associated to the poor understanding of causality  
250 (Downes, 2010), affect both the biophysical and societal realms. An example can be  
251 found in the case of drinking water management, where a multi-barrier approach

252 conventionally involves pollution control, source water protection, water treatment  
253 technology and managed distribution networks. Delpla and Rodriguez (2019) showed  
254 that integrated management of drinking water must consider the chain from source to  
255 tap, to leave river (basin) managers with more acting options in the future.

256 All in all, unwanted returns of stressor effects may affect the well-being of the  
257 society, which can respond by either strengthening or weakening the associated driver  
258 (Fig. 1, bottom lower part). The extent and directions of these feedbacks largely depend  
259 on how much society relies on the goods (water, food, etc.) and services provided by the  
260 river (Liquete et al., 2011), on their ability to implement appropriate managerial  
261 constructs, and on the degree of impairment of the system (regarding water quality and  
262 conservation), which affect its ability to provide services.

263

## 264 **An integrated concept of multiple stressors**

265 The approach described so far, although adequate to frame the impact of dominant  
266 stressors on ecosystems and human societies, remains insufficient to account for the  
267 complexity of stressors at multiple co-occurring scales. In this section, we discuss a  
268 workflow incorporating some key aspects for the biophysical and societal implications  
269 of multiple stressors on river networks. We therefore analyze several aspects  
270 potentially affecting the causal relationship between stressor occurrence and their  
271 effects on biological receptors, which later will propagate to ecosystem function,  
272 ecosystem services provision, and societal impacts. Overall, these aspects come to  
273 modify the relationships summarized in Fig. 1:

274

275 i) *Drivers may be at the origin of more than one stressor*, pointing out that the often-  
276 perceived connection of one driver – one stressor is overly simplistic. As an example,  
277 river regulation (driver) is at the basis of several stressors (hydrological pressure, lower  
278 water temperature, light regime alteration, siltation; Abbott et al. 2019, Grill et al.  
279 2019), which affect the river downstream the infrastructure. This evidence should be  
280 contemplated in conceptual schemes (Fig. 2), and calls for a wider perspective on causal  
281 relationships

282

283 ii) *Consider the spatial and temporal scale at which stressors co-occur*. From the range  
284 of geographical and temporal scales at which stressors can occur (Table 3), it is

285 important to understand where and when exactly co-occurrence exists. For instance,  
286 sometimes there are permanently occurring stressors, to which others are intermittently  
287 superposed. As an example, climate change and associated rainfall anomalies may exert  
288 continuing influence on river networks over large spatial and temporal scales; basins  
289 under these anomalies may additionally receive locally acute or chronic stressors (such  
290 as nutrients in excess, or pollutants) within selected river segments, which may overlap  
291 with climate change stressors and produce conjoint effects. Ponsatí et al. (2016)  
292 analyzed the relative effects of water flow alterations, nutrient inputs, and organic  
293 micro-pollutants on the structure and function of river biofilms, and observed that basin-  
294 specific climate influences, water use, and human activities, were superposed to  
295 contaminant effects. This is the case of many basins dominated by agricultural uses,  
296 submitted to periodical overpressures on water resources because of abstraction and/or  
297 irrigation, onto which chemical stressors from diffuse sources co-occur continuously  
298 (Sabater et al. 2018). The most common scenario is that co-occurring stressors may not  
299 always overlap, showing a suite of varying intensities when they co-occur (Fig. 2).  
300 Allan et al. (2013) merged high-resolution spatial analyses of occurring stressors with  
301 mapping of ecosystem services to inform on the Great Lakes Restoration Initiative; they  
302 determined that cumulative effect of stressors was higher in areas with high spatial  
303 concordance of several stressors, and so there were the effects to associated ecosystem  
304 services. However, we still have a poor knowledge on the responses of ecosystems  
305 being subject to a suite of stressors of varying intensity.

306

307 iii) *Stressor order of occurrence is probably determining different effects.* It is yet  
308 unknown how much the response of receptors to the cumulative impact of stressors may  
309 be influenced by the order onto which the successive stressors impact (Figure 2). It is  
310 likely that the cumulative effect differs according to the intensity of the successive  
311 stressors, the most intense ones weakening more strongly the biological structure  
312 (Segner et al. 2014). Ascending or descending sequences of intensity might thus  
313 produce different outcomes, although there is so far no experimental support for this  
314 statement. Similarly, the outcome of locally co-occurring multiple stressors can be  
315 complicated by the hierarchical structure of river networks (Frissell 1986). Even though  
316 stressors impacts perform locally, extending or not to other parts of the river basin may  
317 be favored, or not, according to the stressor's mobility (e.g. microorganisms vs. fish),  
318 but also related to the original position of the impact (e.g. the presence of a dam at the

319 medium or lower part of the river network may have specific effects to mobile or less  
320 mobile species). The spatial and temporal ordering of stressors occurrence likely shows  
321 relevant socio-ecological implications.

322

323 iv) *Consider current and legacy stressors.* The effects of current stressors can be  
324 mediated by legacy effects of past stressors, as when past events have affected the  
325 available species pool, then modifying the response of existing species to current  
326 stressors. This is the case in a study of invertebrate communities exposed to nutrient  
327 amendment and habitat heterogeneity (Baumgartner and Robinson 2015), where  
328 responses were related to historical physical impairment, then reflected in depauperate  
329 macroinvertebrate assemblages. The response to stressors, even when the current impact  
330 of stressors is negligible (Combination 3, Fig. 2), cannot be properly understood without  
331 considering legacy effects. This is particularly relevant when effects are searched on  
332 organisms with longer life cycles, such as fish.

333

334 v) *The cumulative impact of stressors depends both on their combination and on the*  
335 *response variable.* Stressor effects can be additive (i.e., the sum of the caused effects by  
336 each of the stressors), or non-additive. These include synergistic (stronger than the sum  
337 of the separate effects) or antagonistic (weaker effects than those resulting from the  
338 expected combination; Piggott et al., 2016, Crain 2008; Schäffer and Piggott 2018).  
339 Jackson et al. (2016) showed that a large fraction of occurring interactions was non-  
340 additive and could then generate ecological surprises (Ormerod et al. 2010, Filbee-  
341 Dexter et al. 2017), i.e. an unexpected or idiosyncratic response of an ecosystem to  
342 multiple stressors. Still, these models are hard to translate to real situations since most  
343 have been limited to pairs of stressors (Noges et al. 2016). In the few cases on which  
344 more than two stressors have been tested, results have been imprecise or unexpected.  
345 Romero et al. (2019) combined the effects of warming, hydrological stress, and  
346 pesticide exposure on river biofilms in artificial streams and observed that most stressor  
347 combinations (71%) resulted in additive effects, and that 3-way interactions had smaller  
348 effect sizes than other combinations. Further, it is increasingly clear that the outcome  
349 may differ according to the biological group considered (Galic et al. 2018), and even  
350 that it may change depending on the variable measured (Romero et al. 2019).

351

352 vi) *Multiple stressors can produce conflicting effects on ecosystem services.* Impacts of  
353 multiple stressors on biological receptors ultimately affect ecosystem functions and  
354 services, but the response of all concerned services is not necessarily coherent. Dams  
355 are simultaneously a source of stressors (e.g., altered hydrological and thermal regimes,  
356 Ward and Stanford 1995) and providers of ecosystem services, such as hydropower or  
357 water supply (von Schiller et al., 2015; Grizzetti et al., 2016). The effects of dams on  
358 the river network varies with their operational age, affecting from their sedimentary  
359 dynamics (Batalla and Vericat 2011) to their biogeochemical processes, or biological  
360 communities (Sabater and Muñoz 1990, Sabater et al. 2008). As an example, regulation  
361 in the lower Ebro River has reduced turbidity and changed the hydraulics of the river  
362 below, favoring macrophytes spread (Ibáñez et al. 2012), and associated masses of  
363 blackfly larvae, whose adults produce extensive nuisances to riverine towns (Carvalho  
364 et al., 2019). Declining water levels and flow velocities in response to changing climate  
365 conditions and increasing water abstraction in the lower Ebro have favored tolerant  
366 alien species, such as the apple snail (*Pomacea maculata*), putting the survival of  
367 endemic species at risk (López-van Oosterom et al., 2019). Stagnation associated to  
368 dams and irrigation channels have been also related to the spread of hosts (snails)  
369 mediating the transmission of schistosomiasis to humans mostly in Africa (Steinmann et  
370 al. 2006). Ecosystem services become blurred in these examples after the impact of  
371 associated stressors.

372

373 vii) *Management of stressor effects should consider multiple scales of stressor*  
374 *occurrences.* Current management of river networks is mostly restricted to main  
375 occurring stressors. Most monitoring plans are directed to survey the impact of specific  
376 stressor classes (e.g. contaminants, invasive species), and as such neglect overlapping  
377 scales (Elements and Factors, Table 3) and complexities associated to multiple stressor  
378 occurrence and effects. Current management practices rarely consider the coincidence  
379 of short-term or long-term stressors (e.g. contaminant vs. climate change stressors),  
380 their varying intensity, the complex responses of biological stressors, or the impacts  
381 these combinations may produce on ecosystem services. As such, most management  
382 strategies do not fully integrate the biophysical implications that multiple stressors  
383 may cause to ecosystems together with their unwanted returns to society. Environmental  
384 monitoring and management programs may have to be adapted to better incorporate the

385 novel findings of multiple stressor studies; the iterative approach proposed by Pistocchi  
386 et al. (2018) already heads in this direction.

387

388 Overall, adopting the modifications outlined above require expanding the former  
389 conceptual scheme of Fig. 1, and incorporate the complexity of scales associated to the  
390 presence of multiple stressors. In such a renewed workflow scheme (Fig. 2), the specific  
391 occurrences in space and time of multiple stressors (stressor hub), as well as their  
392 respective intensities and frequencies, should be considered at the scale of basin, at  
393 least. The different outputs associated to stressor combinations need to be associated to  
394 the assembly of receptors (receptor lounge; Fig. 2), from which it will derive the  
395 biological implications on species assemblages, the likely alteration in their functions,  
396 and the associated impairment on ecosystem services. As much as in the former scheme  
397 of Fig.1, management and governance would converge on the use of the produced  
398 ecosystem services as well as on the proper regulation of the drivers, as a first and  
399 necessary step to reduce the extent and impact of multiple co-occurring stressors.

400

401

## 402 **Concluding remarks**

403

404 The above seven items remain intertwined and incorporate managerial and research  
405 implications. Incorporating the recorded occurrence of stressors in a basin-wide  
406 perspective, their present and past spatial and temporal occurrence, and relating them to  
407 the drivers originating them (items *i* and *ii*), may help to define causal relationships and  
408 the potential distribution of multiple stressor effects (item *vii*). Although some  
409 regularities associated to the simultaneous occurrence of stressors are already known,  
410 moving from simultaneous to non-simultaneous occurrences, or to the transmission of  
411 effects in space and time, is yet a gate to the unknown. Ongoing research has clarified  
412 some issues regarding the transmission of effects from small to larger scales, or the  
413 additive vs non-additive nature of co-occurring stressors (item *v*). However, there is a  
414 lively debate on whether ones or the others may prevail in river networks, and on  
415 whether those outcomes depend on the organisms or variables considered. Not only  
416 potential regularities occurring in the ecosystem, but the mechanisms supporting these  
417 responses are still poorly understood. Precisely, a clear gap in such understanding is

418 how much the order of occurrence of stressors (either in time or space, or in their  
419 intensity; items *ii*, *iii*, and *iv*) may modify the output of multiple stressors as well as its  
420 effect on foreseen ecosystem services (item *vi*). Research is to be implemented to  
421 determine the response patterns in populations, communities, and ecosystems, and how  
422 much it differs according to the different timing, and transmission of effects through  
423 space, or the delayed effects of past stressors.

424       These research needs, when fulfilled, may be used to improve the planning and  
425 management of river basins. As the human population steadily increases, and despite all  
426 efforts for an increasing environmental awareness, multiple stressor situations will  
427 likely become more frequent and complex, and their consequences could have serious,  
428 region-specific effects (Diaz et al. 2019). Some World's regions are able to respond  
429 technologically and probably will cope better with the associated impairments;  
430 however, societies with lower technological capabilities, which often harbor higher  
431 biodiversity and the most fragile ecosystems, will face higher difficulties in mitigating  
432 unwanted responses to multiple stress situations. The economic and social globalization  
433 makes the single-local perspective unrealistic to approach the real impact of multiple  
434 stressors to ecosystems and people. As an example, salmon-farming booming in Chilean  
435 Patagonia, a recognized driver of impairment in rivers and lakes in the region (Soto et  
436 al. 2006, Quiñones et al. 2019), cannot be separated from the escalating trade of  
437 cultured salmons to developed countries.

438       Finally, recognizing multiple stressors in any conceptual framework should lead  
439 to several academic and managerial consequences. There should be a change of  
440 paradigm in which the river carrying capacity is carefully considered across scales, both  
441 for the resources and services river networks may contribute (water, timber, food), and  
442 for their ability to cope with natural perturbations and anthropogenic stressors.  
443 Regarding these, minimization of local stressors (e.g. pollution, damming, biological  
444 invasions), while keeping a basin-wide perspective, is essential. Further, perspectives  
445 should embrace wider scales, and considering effects on distant, well-preserved areas  
446 (including headwaters, as well as tropical and boreal systems) is of maximum urgency.  
447 These areas can be essential to maintain the species pools and biological structures from  
448 which we still require to learn. This urgency cannot be separated from the paradigm of a  
449 joint fate of nature and human societies, i.e. that keeping a healthy environment is key  
450 for a healthy society.

451

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460

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739

740 **Table 1.** *Main drivers and stressors affecting river networks, potential intensity, and*  
 741 *extent, of impacts associated to the occurrence of stressors.*

742

<b>Driver</b>		<b>Stressors</b>	<b>Potential Intensity</b>	<b>Geographic extent</b>
Climate change		Rainfall anomalies	Moderate	Regional to local
		Exceptional flood or drought events	High	Regional to local
		Temperature anomalies	Moderate	Regional
Land use and changes	Mining	Heavy metal contamination	High	Regional to local
	Agriculture	Nutrient excess, pesticides	Moderate to high	Regional to local
	Farming	Nutrient excess, pesticides	Moderate to high	Regional to local
	Urbanization	Imperviousness, damming	High	Regional to local
	Forestry	Siltation	Moderate to high	Regional to local
Hydrological cycle alterations		Damming	High	Local
		Water abstraction	High	Regional to local
		Groundwater exploitation	High	Regional to local
Geomorphological alterations		Siltation	Moderate to high	Regional to local
		Temperature alteration	Moderate to high	Local
Physico-chemical alterations		Nutrient increase	Moderate to high	Local
		pH alteration	Moderate to high	Local
		Heavy metal pollution	High	Local
		Organic microcontaminants	High	Local
		Salinization	High	Local
		Thermal pollution	Moderate to high	Local
Biological alterations		Overharvesting	Moderate to high	Regional to local
		Exotic invasive species	High	Local

743

744

745

746 **Table 2.** *Environmental and biological elements modulating the effects of multiple*  
 747 *stressors on river ecosystems, arranged in a spatial of increasing complexity.*  
 748

Characteristics of biological assemblages	Composition of the species pool in each biological group Life-cycle duration of each biological group; combination of all of them Dispersal capacity of the assemblage Resistance and resilience of each biological assemblage to stressors Food web complexity
Ecosystem configuration	Size Longitudinal connectivity within the river network; lateral and vertical connectivity Geomorphological complexity and availability of refugia (spatial / temporal)
Environmental characteristics (physical and chemical)	Present environmental characteristics of the ecoregion or biome Past environmental conditions (legacy effects)

749

750

751

752 **Table 3.** *Socio-economic elements and factors to be considered to determine the*  
753 *relevance of multiple stressor effects to river networks.*

754

<b>Elements</b>	<b>Factors</b>
Basin	Population density Economic sector(s) prevailing Land uses
Region/Country	Governance and institutional involvement on sustainable development Implemented legislative framework Societal stewardship on environmental issues Financial capacities and technological development

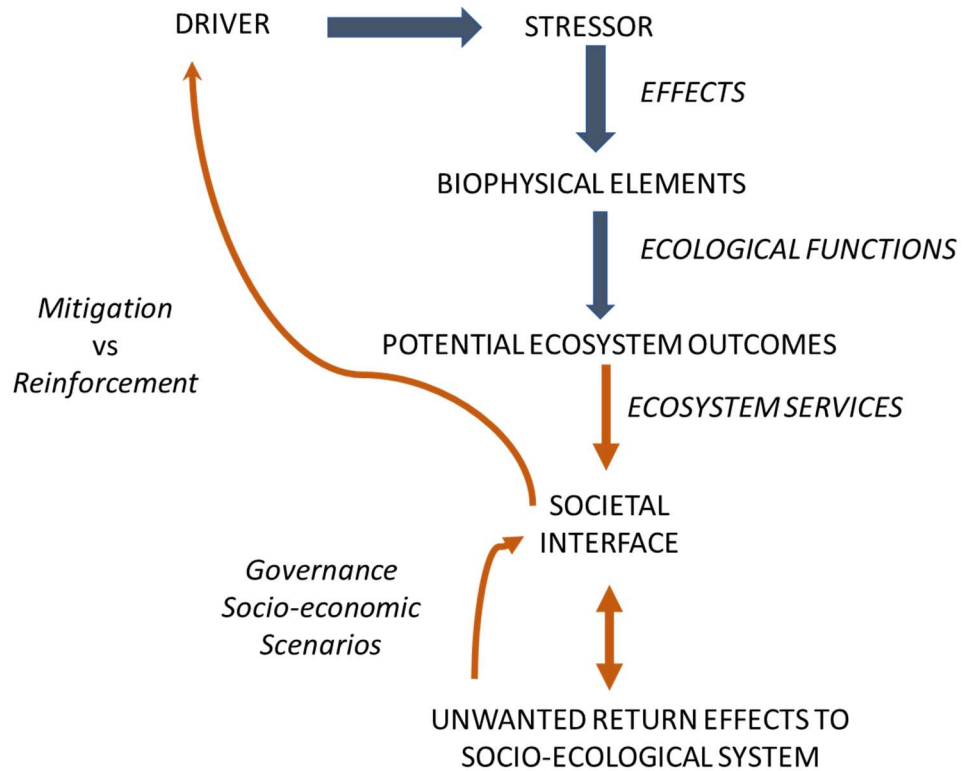
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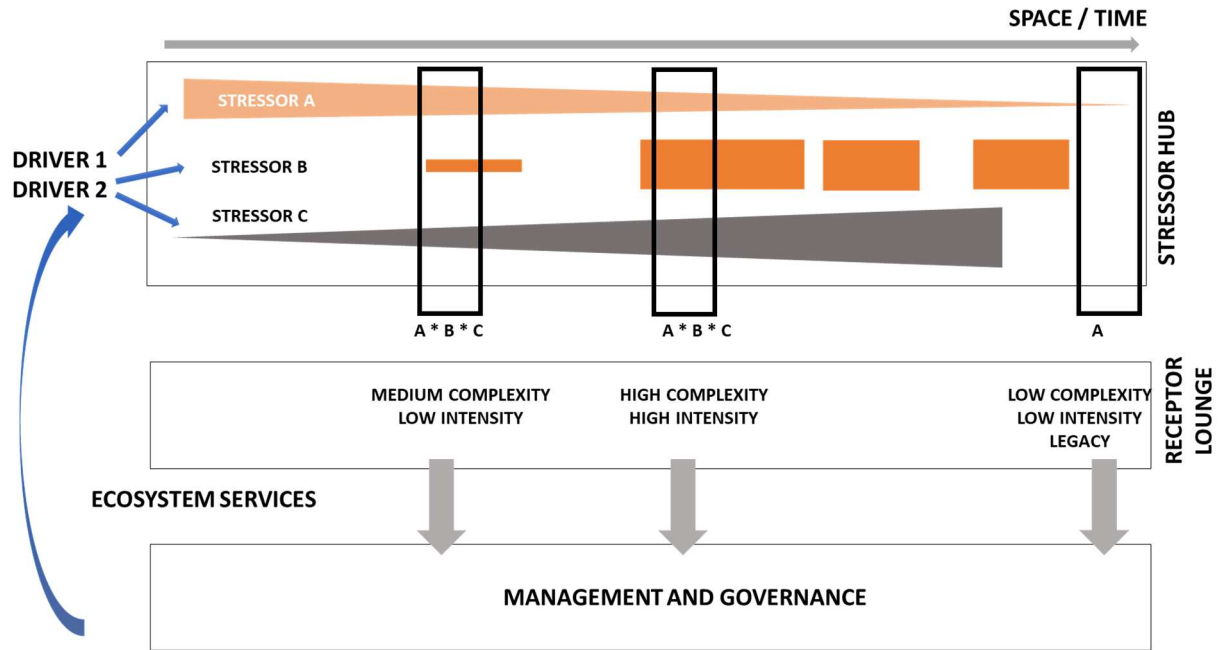
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759 **Figure 1.** Stressors affect the biophysical condition of the river networks and have  
 760 consequences for ecosystem functioning. Societal interactions can either mitigate or  
 761 reinforce the drivers promoting the stressors. Effects transmit from the biological  
 762 receptors to the ecosystem functions and ecosystem services. Societal responses differ in  
 763 governance and socio-economic conditions. Colours reflect biophysical (blue) or  
 764 societal (brown) implications on the loop  
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769 **Figure 2.** Co-occurring multiple stressors may show variations in space and time  
 770 regarding their occurrence, intensity, and frequency. The figure exemplifies several  
 771 combinations of stressors occurring within the stressor hub, and their likely different  
 772 impacts on the receptors (receptor lounge). Changes in ecosystem services can be  
 773 expected in each of the cases, which therefore will require changes in management and  
 774 governance, and if appropriate will likely modify the drivers at the source of stressors.  
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