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1 ***Making Waves. Bridging theory and practice towards multiple stressor***
2 **management in freshwater ecosystems**

3 **Authors:** Bryan M. Spears^{1*}, Daniel S. Chapman^{1,2}, Laurence Carvalho¹, Christian K.
4 Feld³, Mark O. Gessner^{4,5}, Jeremy J. Piggott⁶, Lindsay F. Banin¹, Cayetano Gutiérrez-
5 Cánovas^{7,8}, Anne Lyche Solheim⁹, Jessica A. Richardson^{1,10}, Rafaela Schinegger¹¹,
6 Pedro Segurado¹², Stephen J. Thackeray¹⁰, Sebastian Birk³

7 ¹ UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Edinburgh EH26 0QB, UK

8 ² Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling, UK FK9 4LA

9 ³ University of Duisburg-Essen, Aquatic Ecology and Centre for Water and
10 Environmental Research, 45117 Essen, Germany

11 ⁴ Department of Experimental Limnology, Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and
12 Inland Fisheries (IGB), Alte Fischerhütte 2, 16775 Stechlin, Germany

13 ⁵ Department of Ecology, Berlin Institute of Technology (TU Berlin), Ernst-Reuter-Platz
14 1, 10587 Berlin, Germany

15 ⁶ School of Natural Sciences, Trinity College Dublin, the University of Dublin, Dublin 2,
16 Ireland

17 ⁷ Centre of Molecular and Environmental Biology (CBMA), Department of Biology,
18 University of Minho, Campus of Gualtar, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

19 ⁸ Institute of Science and Innovation for Bio-Sustainability (IB-S), University of Minho,
20 Campus of Gualtar, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

21 ⁹ Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Gaustadalléen 21, 0349 Oslo, Norway

22 ¹⁰ UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Lancaster LA1 4AP, UK

23 ¹¹ Institute of Hydrobiology and Aquatic Ecosystem Management, University of Natural
24 Resources and Life Sciences Vienna, 1180 Vienna, Austria

25 ¹² Forest Research Centre (CEF), School of Agriculture, University of Lisbon. Tapada
26 da Ajuda, 1349-017 Lisboa, Portugal

27 * Corresponding author (spear@ceh.ac.uk)

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29 Management.

30 **Abstract**

31 Despite advances in conceptual understanding, single-stressor abatement
32 approaches remain common in the management of fresh waters, even though they
33 can produce unexpected ecological responses when multiple stressors interact. Here
34 we identify limitations restricting the development of multiple-stressor management
35 strategies and address these, bridging theory and practice, within a novel empirical
36 framework. Those critical limitations include that (i) monitoring schemes fall short of
37 accounting for theory on relationships between multiple-stressor interactions and
38 ecological responses, (ii) current empirical modelling approaches neglect the
39 prevalence and intensity of multiple-stressor interactions, and (iii) mechanisms of
40 stressor interactions are often poorly understood. We offer practical recommendations
41 for the use of empirical models and experiments to predict the effects of freshwater
42 degradation in response to changes in multiple stressors, demonstrating this approach
43 in a case study. Drawing on our framework, we offer practical recommendations to
44 support the development of effective management strategies in three general multiple-
45 stressor scenarios.

46 **1.0 Introduction**

47 **1.1 Freshwater ecosystems under stress.** Freshwater ecosystems are commonly
48 exposed to multiple anthropogenic stressors, which can interact and produce
49 ecological surprises (Ormerod et al., 2010). While conceptual understanding and
50 experimental demonstration of these interactions is now well established (Schäfer &
51 Piggott, 2018), a major challenge remains to develop approaches to detect, quantify
52 and manage stressor interactions in the real world (Feld et al., 2016). To inform this
53 development, various attempts have been made to assess the frequency of stressor
54 interactions across a broad range of freshwater ecosystems (Birk, 2019). These
55 endeavours have identified issues that limit our capacity to generalise and predict
56 undesirable ecological responses to single stressor reduction strategies. More
57 conspicuously, very few published studies demonstrate the successful management
58 of single or multiple stressors, where interactions and hierarchies have first been
59 quantified.

60 This inability to generalise poses a problem for ecosystem management, which has
61 historically focussed on abating individual stressors (Schindler et al., 2016). Well-
62 informed multiple-stressor management could offer opportunities to offset effects of
63 large-scale stressors that are hard to manage locally, including anthropogenic warming
64 and changes in precipitation patterns associated with climate change (Moss et al.,
65 2011) or the widespread proliferation of synthetic chemicals (Bernhardt et al., 2017)
66 and toxic substances from industrial and domestic sources (Walters et al., 2020).
67 There is an urgent need to develop methods to diagnose multiple stressor interactions
68 and assess responses of ecological indicators to them across both degradation and
69 recovery pathways. These methods must be applicable to data gathered at different
70 scales and resolutions (Blair et al., 2019).

71 Here, we demonstrate how empirical data on fresh waters can underpin effective
72 management of ecosystems subject to multiple stressors. Specifically, we explore how
73 theory on multiple-stressor interactions and ecological responses is relevant to
74 empirical data, particularly from national monitoring schemes such as those stipulated
75 by the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD; European Commission, 2000) or the
76 USA Federal Water Pollution Control Act (2002, 'The Clean Water Act'). We argue,
77 however, for greater integration of understanding from such monitoring data with
78 outcomes of experiments and modelling. Finally, we build on this understanding to
79 develop practical recommendations for integrating the assessment and management
80 of multiple stressors into future freshwater management and biodiversity protection
81 strategies, highlighting limitations that remain to be addressed.

82 **1.2 The conceptual basis of stressor interactions.** Conceptual models describing
83 forms and directions of stressor interactions have predominantly focused on
84 quantifying and classifying deviations from additive effects models (Piggott et al.,
85 2015a). Effects are defined as *additive* when an ecological response is equal to the
86 sum of the effects of the individual stressors. *Synergistic* interactions occur when
87 ecological responses are greater than the sum of the additive effects, and *antagonistic*
88 interactions where ecological responses are less than the sum of the additive effects
89 (Figure 1). Additive effects indicate that stressors act independently of one another,
90 and so control of any one stressor should result in exactly proportional ecological
91 responses. Under such a scenario, gradual changes in ecological response should be
92 detected in monitoring data (Hillebrand et al., 2020). Such data may reveal ecological
93 improvements that are greater than expected when stressors producing synergistic
94 interactions are mitigated. In contrast, reduction of an antagonistic stressor could
95 result, counter-intuitively, in the detection of further ecological degradation through

96 monitoring. Piggott et al. (2015b) extended this basic model by considering the
97 cumulative magnitude and direction of effects. This revealed cross-over interactions
98 where combined stressor effects cancel each other and can lead to effects opposite to
99 those of the individual effects. This phenomenon has been called *mitigating synergism*
100 (Piggott et al., 2015b) or *reversal* (Jackson et al., 2016).

101 **2.0 Moving from theory to practice: detection; prediction & management.** The
102 prevalence of interactions across scales and ecosystem types is increasingly
103 recognised. An assessment of more than 100,000 water bodies across Europe,
104 reported under the 2nd WFD River Basin Management cycle (2009–2015) showed that
105 50% of them were affected by two or more stressors, most commonly,
106 hydromorphological modifications and nutrient pollution (EEA, 2018). Likewise, based
107 on 174 pairwise stressor combinations from experiments and surveys across Europe,
108 Birk et al. (2020) report that one-third exhibited detectable interactions and confirmed
109 nutrient pollution as the most common and dominant stressor (i.e. explained the
110 greatest variation in the response variables in the empirical models), although its
111 effects may be moderated by warming and increasing humic content across lakes,
112 with alterations of flow and channel morphology being widespread stressors in rivers.
113 Similar data syntheses across other regions (Rigosi et al., 2014) and ecosystem types
114 can inform large-scale adaptive and mitigative interventions in response to climate
115 change. However, these endeavours must be based on a methodology providing
116 robust comparisons across ecosystem types and geographical regions.

117 **2.1 Detection of multiple-stressor interactions.** The application of quantitative
118 methodologies to detect multiple-stressor interactions involves a number of key
119 challenges. Firstly, current conceptual frameworks disagree on the null model for
120 expected responses to non-interacting stressors. At least three null models feature in

121 current frameworks (additive, multiplicative and dominance) and the choice affects the
122 classification of interaction type (Côté et al., 2016; Schäfer & Piggott, 2018). Current
123 ecological analyses often employ generalised linear models (GLMs) and their
124 extensions. However, it is not widely appreciated that the null model for the interaction
125 is set by the GLM link function or any transformation of the dependent response
126 variable (e.g. Gaussian, additive null model; Poisson or logarithmic, multiplicative null
127 model; binomial, unspecified null model). Thus, in many cases interactions are
128 statistically tested without reference to current interaction frameworks, while one
129 component of the interaction, *dominance*, is not captured by any statistical framework.
130 Greater awareness of how model design influences testing for interactions is needed
131 to avoid statistical pitfalls in informing environmental management.

132 Secondly, stressors may vary in their intensity of effect and stressor gradient lengths
133 differ among studies and data collections. Both factors can markedly influence the
134 outcome of multiple-stressor analyses where interactions may lurk outside the data
135 range. Notably, large datasets covering wide spatial or temporal scales tend to
136 encompass longer gradients and reveal stronger interactions (Feld et al., 2016;
137 Schinegger et al., 2016).

138 Thirdly, paired-stressor interactions may not capture the full complexity of outcomes,
139 yet, are most commonly applied (Gessner & Tilili, 2016), constraining the scope for
140 detection of higher-order interactions (Feld et al., 2016). In addition, stressors can
141 affect multiple ecosystem components, with the predominant types of interactions
142 varying among levels of ecological organisation (individuals, populations,
143 communities) and the specific response variables considered (Côté et al., 2016;
144 Jackson et al., 2016; Gieswein et al., 2017), including functional traits (Schinegger et
145 al., 2016).

146 Finally, a key factor in determining the detection of stressor interactions is sample size,
147 which will co-vary positively with the statistical power of the interaction term. Thus,
148 more emphasis should be given to identifying interaction forms (e.g. antagonism,
149 synergism, and mutualism) and effect sizes, and to estimating their importance using
150 information-theoretic approaches rather than reporting significance levels (e.g. $p <$
151 0.05) when interpreting model outputs (Wasserstein et al., 2019).

152 **2.2 Increasing confidence in prediction.** There are promising ways forward here.
153 Specifically, to improve understanding of the processes underlying ecosystem
154 responses to stressor interactions, we advocate novel analyses that combine large-
155 scale observations and controlled experiments to take advantage of the strengths of
156 both approaches.

157 Controlled experiments unravel cause-and-effect relationships by allowing
158 unequivocal comparisons of ecosystem state among levels of anthropogenic stress,
159 and the attribution of ecological responses to theoretically-defined interactions
160 (Richardson et al., 2019). However, experimental settings necessarily simplify real-
161 world situations. Moreover, complex (higher-order) interactions can be difficult to
162 assess in controlled experiments, where the number of experimental units is limited,
163 even in outdoor mesocosms (Piggott et al., 2015b; Richardson et al., 2019).

164 In contrast, assessments based on large-scale datasets are commonly statistically
165 unbalanced, suffer from a multitude of confounding factors that cannot be teased apart,
166 and rarely include controls (Bull et al., 2020). The key strength of this approach,
167 however, is that the assessments reflect real-world responses to stressor gradients,
168 encompassing complex responses of networks of species interacting in natural
169 communities across scales (Bruder et al., 2019). Clearly, an integrated experimental

170 and observational approach is beneficial (Birk et al., 2020), but also potentially
171 expensive and time consuming. However, where complex interactions are detected,
172 and likely to confound recovery, this approach is likely a worthwhile investment to
173 inform costly management interventions.

174 **2.3 Towards a novel multiple-stressor management framework.** A general
175 framework for predicting ecological responses to multiple-stressor management is
176 overdue (Côté et al., 2016). In particular, there is a pressing need to move from
177 conceptual diagrams towards real-world context to underpin management decisions
178 (Figure 1). Given the volume and heterogeneity of available data, such a framework
179 needs to be flexible. It should draw on data collected across various scales, both spatial
180 and temporal, from small mesocosm experiments to large river basins and from hours
181 to millennia. Practically, it is essential to understand when controlling stressors at local
182 scales (e.g. reducing local nutrient pollution) can mitigate effects of global stressors
183 not locally-manageable (e.g. climate warming) (Brown et al., 2013).

184 We propose a unifying approach that is underpinned by empirical linear models that
185 quantify and visualise multiple-stressor interactions in the context of ecological targets.
186 The first step is to develop a theoretically justified, and well-fitting statistical model to
187 describe multiple-stressor interactions in the given ecosystem (Box 1). The exact
188 model design will depend on both the expertise of the analyst and the data structure.
189 Therefore, we focus here on a generalised linear (mixed) modelling (GL(M)M)
190 framework. GL(M)Ms are widely used and flexible enough to accommodate different
191 data types and implicit grouping structures (e.g. year or site random effects) and have
192 established model selection procedures for optimising the quantification of stressor
193 fixed effects (Box 1).

194 Once a model has been developed, it can be used to examine stressor-change
195 scenarios relevant to potential management actions (Figure 1). Using the GL(M)M, we
196 can investigate both (i) the expected value of the ecological indicator in response to
197 stressor change, calculated using the fixed effect coefficients and link function, and (ii)
198 the probability of exceeding a critical threshold or meeting a management target,
199 calculated from the fixed effect coefficients and distributions of residual errors and
200 random effect variances.

201 We have developed this multiple-stressor mitigation approach within a series of
202 conceptual models (Figure 1; Box 1), assuming for simplicity similar individual stressor
203 effect sizes within the interactions. In the additive-stressor scenario, the most effective
204 strategy for ecosystem management would be dual stressor control, with the extent of
205 management intervention depending on the distance between the current ecosystem
206 state and the ecological target on a plane defined by the stressor gradients. The path
207 to recovery can require that longer distances are covered when synergistic interactions
208 occur between stressors, meaning that the stressor abatement required to reach a
209 given ecological target is greater than under the assumption of an additive relationship.
210 In the case of an antagonistic interaction, for example the Romanian Rivers case study
211 in Figure 1, single stressor control (e.g. reduction of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ at high concentrations of
212 toxic substances) could even be counterproductive, as dampening stressor effects are
213 removed.

214 **3.0 Practical recommendations for multiple-stressor management.** The current
215 shortcomings of multiple-stressor management outlined above are global in scope.
216 This represents a clear weakness in ecological assessments underpinning, for
217 example, the European WFD (Carvalho et al., 2019). Indeed, nearly all WFD
218 assessment methods have been developed to be responsive to single stressors (Birk

219 et al., 2012). This raises the question, to what extent the currently limited success in
220 restoring water bodies in Europe is the result of targeting only single stressors?
221 Drawing on our framework, we offer practical recommendations for four general
222 scenarios to support the development of novel multiple-stressor management
223 strategies for fresh waters.

224 1. **Additive Stressors.** Additive stressors represent the simplest case, where a
225 dominant stressor does not notably interact with other stressors. It is evident
226 that priority must be given here to mitigating impacts of the dominant stressor
227 to achieve improvements (Kath et al., 2018). Where two (or more) stressors act
228 additively and with equal strength, either stressor can be controlled to achieve
229 the same effect. Prioritisation of abatement of one stressor or the other can be
230 guided by evaluating cost-effectiveness and expected treatment efficacy as well
231 as opportunities to achieve added benefits (e.g. habitat creation through
232 wetland management to reduce nutrient loading to lakes) beyond the direct
233 abatement effects.

234 2. **Two interacting stressors.** Where two stressors interact, the type of
235 interaction and the underlying mechanisms need to be considered when
236 selecting measures. If the interaction is antagonistic, the most complex case
237 facing managers, the combined stressor effect can be less than expected. For
238 example, a nutrient enrichment effect on lake phytoplankton biomass, caused
239 by land-use change, might be dampened by an increase in flushing rate
240 associated with increased rainfall, caused by climate change, especially in lakes
241 with short retention times. For lakes with long retention times, an increase in
242 precipitation may have the opposite effect, as it can increase nutrient loading.
243 Thus, it is important to understand the lake and catchment context to assess

244 vulnerability in relation to predicted changes in nutrient loading (non-antagonist)
245 and nutrient losses from the lake due to changes in flushing rate (antagonist).
246 Conversely, when stressors interact synergistically, as observed for
247 phytoplankton and cyanobacteria abundance in relation to nutrient enrichment
248 and warming (Richardson et al., 2019), nutrient control may need to be
249 reinforced to achieve ecological improvements, or warming be restricted, for
250 example through hydrological control, or both.

251 3. **More than two interacting stressors.** Where three (or more) stressors act to
252 produce higher-order interactions, stressor hierarchies need to be identified to
253 enable prioritisation of mitigation measures. Knowledge on individual effects
254 and two-way interactions can help inform the potential for higher-order
255 interactions. However, it must be recognised that conclusions derived from such
256 analyses can be misleading especially where higher-order interactions are
257 important. For example, Ryo et al. (2018) report on higher order interactions
258 driving macroinvertebrate diversity in Swiss rivers; diversity increased with
259 terrestrial forest cover (dominant stressor), but this effect was moderated by
260 interactions with both elevation gradient and climatic conditions. Where biotic
261 relationships are complex and dominant stressors are absent, uncertainties in
262 model predictions are likely to be high (Bruder et al., 2019). In this case,
263 experimentation will be vital to managing the risk of undesirable mitigation
264 effects. If the control of three or more stressors is deemed practically impossible
265 to achieve experimentally, managers may have little option but to consider
266 phased mitigation approaches (Dyste & Vallet, 2019) coupled with adaptive
267 management responses (Spears et al., 2016).

268

269 **4.0 Final Considerations.** Three final points need brief mention.

270 First, in a very recent broad synthesis, Hillebrand et al. (2020) found ecological
271 responses to stressors along the degradation pathway are generally gradual. This
272 finding is highly relevant to water management where notable system changes are
273 expected only when thresholds, at times arbitrary or operational thresholds, are
274 surpassed.

275 Secondly, our current understanding of multiple stressor effects essentially comes from
276 assessing impacts of increasing stress, that is, the ecosystem degradation pathway
277 (Birk et al., 2020; Spears et al., 2021), whereas there is still much to learn about the
278 processes governing recovery, especially where multiple stressor interactions are
279 operating. For example, it remains unknown whether multiple stressor interactions
280 increase the likelihood that recovery trajectories depart from degradation pathways, a
281 phenomenon known as hysteresis, which requires further conceptual, experimental,
282 and empirical attention.

283 Finally, no study has yet demonstrated the successful management of a freshwater
284 ecosystem in which multiple stressor interactions have been identified and quantified
285 and used to inform interventions. Nevertheless, the freshwater scientific community
286 has an impressive historical resource in long-term monitoring data covering past
287 restoration case studies with which to address this issue. It is important that this
288 resource be utilised to produce systematic evidence (Bernhardt et al., 2005) across a
289 large number of fresh waters for which both ecosystem degradation and recovery data
290 are available (Elosegi et al., 2017); where recovery has been incomplete following
291 single stressor management or has occurred slowly (e.g. Jeppesen et al., 2005;
292 McCrackin, et al., 2016); and for which multiple stressor interactions are operating, but
293 have not yet been tested (Verdonschot et al., 2009). We propose building this evidence
294 base using the approach presented here to retrospectively analyse and report on data
295 from past degradation and restoration case studies.

296

297 **5.0 Conclusions**

298 1. The lack of consideration of interactions between multiple stressors represent
299 a potential major limitation in achieving ecological restoration of freshwater
300 ecosystems.

301 2. Conceptual models for multiple stressor interactions can be developed to inform
302 novel management approaches, helping practitioners avoid the many pitfalls
303 associated with the detection of interactions.

304 3. Outputs from empirical analyses of monitoring data and controlled experiments
305 in realistic settings should be systematically combined to guide multiple stressor
306 management strategies, for example, to support climate change resilience
307 planning.

308 4. Empirical models can be constructed based on past data covering both stressor
309 increase and decrease to provide novel insights into the effects of interactions
310 on both ecosystem degradation and recovery pathways.

311

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440

441 **Figure 1. Conceptual and empirical application of paired-stressor models.** In the upper panel we demonstrate conceptual
442 situations of common stressor interaction forms as well as paired stressors abatement options relative to an ecological target, for
443 example, as set by the 'Good-Moderate Boundary' as defined in the European Water Framework Directive (WFD). The most effective
444 stressor abatement option is coloured green. In the lower panel we utilise Romanian National River Monitoring Data to demonstrate
445 the landscape of responses in invertebrate community composition relative to an antagonistic interaction between toxic substances and
446 nutrient enrichment, quantified using the proposed generalised linear modelling approach (GLM) described (Box 1). This analysis is
447 used to estimate the severity of effect of the stressors on the ecological response and also the probability that the ecological indicator
448 will fail management targets for any given stressor combination, within the measured data range. Practically, a manager may wish to
449 explore a range of nutrient abatement scenarios, which are under local control, contrasting with the regional control of toxic substances.
450 However, the manager must proceed cautiously for the model suggests that a reduction of nitrate at high levels of toxic substances may,
451 counter-intuitively, aggravate ecological degradation (e.g. upper left quadrant). Complicating matters further; the most severe interaction
452 effects occur on or beyond the upper limits of the data range for both stressors indicating the need to confirm such effects across stressor
453 gradients using experimental approaches. In general, the most effective stressor management approach in this case would be dual
454 stressor control to ensure the system is maintained within the lower left quadrant.

455 **Case study description.** These data represent 62 river monitoring stations between 2013 and 2016 at mountainous and lowland rivers
456 in Romania and are representative of similar monitoring programmes in many other countries. Here, toxic stress is measured as 'multi-
457 substance Potentially Affected Fraction' (msPAF, i.e. composite metric for toxic substances; De Zwart & Posthuma, 2005); nutrient
458 enrichment is measured as nitrate-nitrogen concentration; the ecological response is measured as an Ecological Status Ratio (ESR),
459 i.e. the number of benthic invertebrate families normalised by river type-specific reference values (mean of 0.67). ESR is the observed
460 value of a biological indicator, divided by the expected value under reference conditions. The model output (b) is used here to display
461 the probability that the target threshold of the WFD derived 'good-moderate' ecological status (>0.55) is failed across the stressor
462 landscape.

463 **GLM output.** The model estimates an antagonistic interaction effect between the dominant stressor 'nitrate-nitrogen concentration' and
464 the secondary stressor 'msPAF', while controlling for region ($R^2_{adj} = 0.31$, $P < 0.001$). Circles and triangles show the empirical data,
465 shading and contours the fitted ESR and likelihoods. The 'region' effect in the model adds +0.11 to the plotted expected values for
466 lowland and -0.11 for mountain, depending on which region they are in. The regression formula in R format was normalised number of
467 benthic invertebrate families ~ multi-substance Potentially Affected Fraction * nitrate nitrogen concentration + region.

468 **Box 1.**

469 **Proposed approach for estimating multi-stressor interactions from a mixed effect**
470 **model**

471 A linear mixed effects (LME) model takes the general form: $y = \beta x + v + \epsilon$

472 In which y is the ecological response variable, β is a vector of fixed effects estimates
473 (including the intercept), x is a vector of explanatory variables (stressors and their
474 interactions), v is a vector of normally distributed, independent random effects and ϵ is the
475 normally distributed residual error.

476 For two interacting stressors (x_1 and x_2) modelled from data collected in multiple sites and
477 years the LME equation would be rewritten: $y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_1x_2 + S + Y + \epsilon$

478 Where b are the elements of β and S and Y are the random effects for the site and year.
479 Using this model, the expected value of the ecological response variable y for any
480 combination of stressors is βx . Responses to stressor management scenarios can be
481 estimated easily by changing the values of x .

482 The model can be used to estimate the probability of y exceeding a critical threshold (e.g., a
483 management target) for different values of the stressors. This is because the response y is
484 normally distributed with a mean of $\bar{y} = \beta x$ and a variance of $\sigma^2 = \sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sum \sigma_v^2$, where σ_ϵ^2 is the
485 residual variance and σ_v^2 is a vector of the random effect variances.

486 From the cumulative distribution function of the normal distribution, the probability of
487 exceeding y^* , a critical value of the response variable, is:

488
$$P(y > y^*) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{y^* - \bar{y}}{\sigma \sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$$

489 And the probability of being under y^* is:

490
$$P(y < y^*) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{y^* - \bar{y}}{\sigma \sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$$

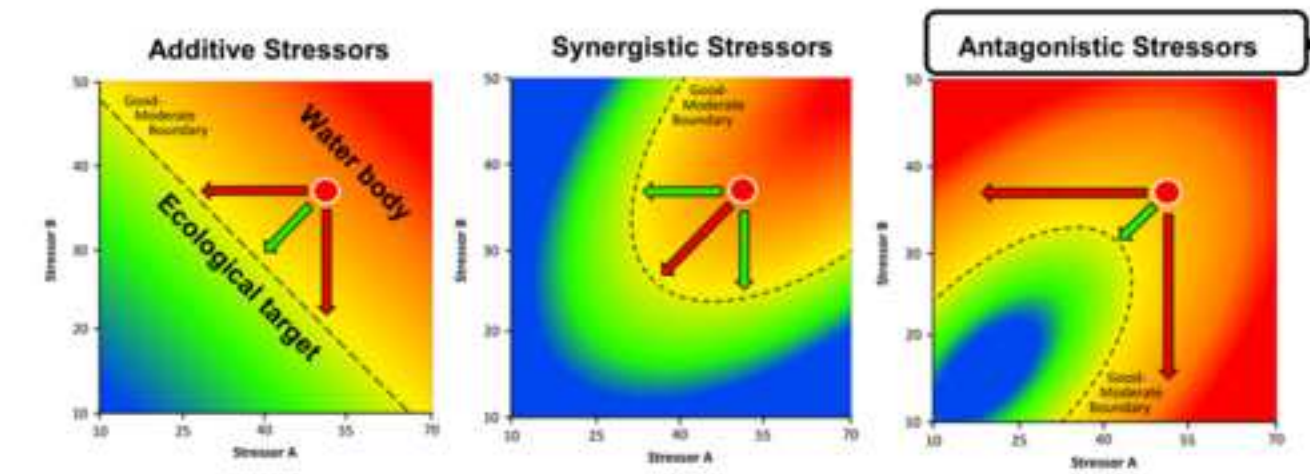
491 In both equations, erf is the error function.

492 **Extension to generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs).** In some circumstances an
493 ecological response variable cannot be reasonably modelled with an LME, for example
494 because it is a count or binary variable. In these cases GLMMs are an appropriate modelling
495 tool. However, extending the analytical approach proposed above for LMEs to GLMMs is not
496 straightforward because the random effect variances are transformed in the link function.
497 While stressor effects can still be estimated then the link function renders the probability of y
498 exceeding a critical threshold difficult to compute directly.

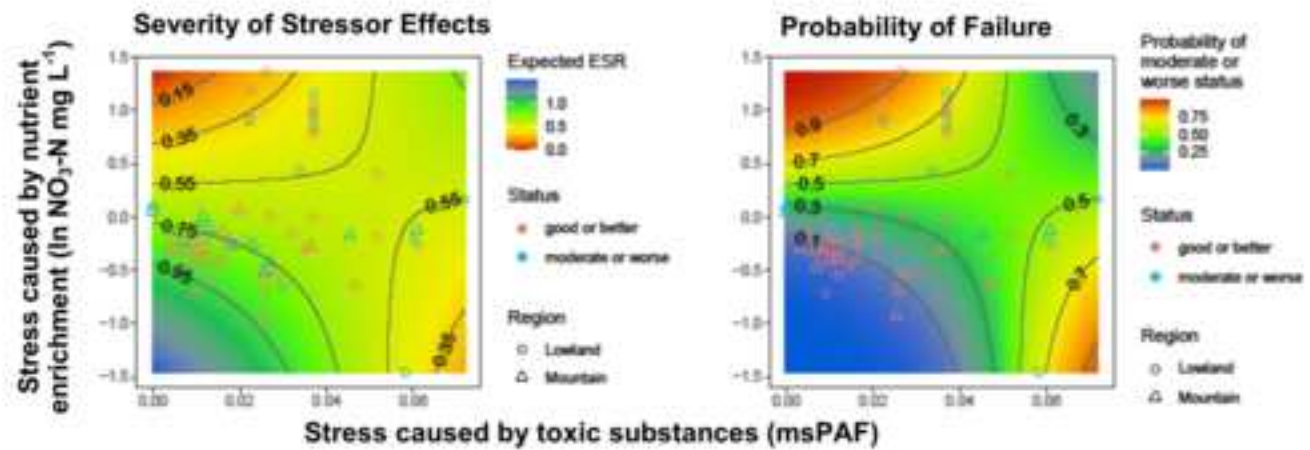
499 Nevertheless, estimating the likelihood of threshold exceedance by simulation should be
500 relatively simple, using a procedure as follows:

- 501 1. Draw random effect coefficients from normal distributions with mean of 0 and variances
502 from σ_v^2 .
 - 503 2. Estimate the expected value of the response variable using these coefficient values and
504 the GLMM link function.
 - 505 3. Record whether this value exceeds the critical threshold.
- 506 Repeat steps 1-3 many times to estimate the exceedance probability.

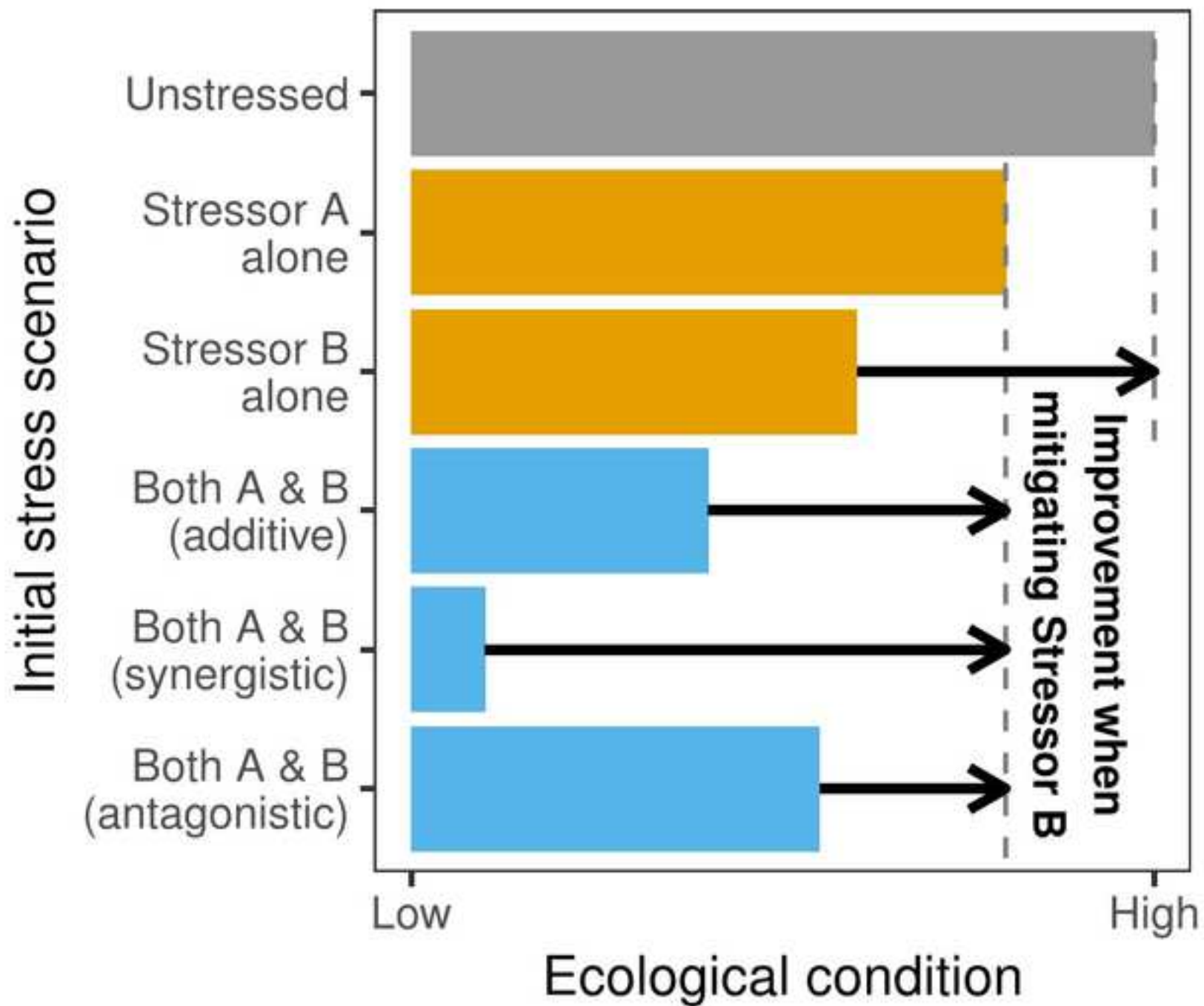
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Conceptual Application:
navigating the multiple stressor landscape



Practical Application:
mapping antagonistic effects of toxic stress and nutrients on invertebrates in Romanian Rivers



1 ***Making Waves. Bridging theory and practice towards multiple stressor***
2 **management in freshwater ecosystems**

3 **Authors:** Bryan M. Spears^{1*}, Daniel S. Chapman^{1,2}, Laurence Carvalho¹, Christian
4 K. Feld³, Mark O. Gessner^{4,5}, Jeremy J. Piggott⁶, Lindsay F. Banin¹, Cayetano
5 Gutiérrez-Cánovas^{7,8}, Anne Lyche Solheim⁹, Jessica A. Richardson^{1,10}, Rafaela
6 Schinegger¹¹, Pedro Segurado¹², Stephen J. Thackeray¹⁰, Sebastian Birk³

7 ¹ UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Edinburgh EH26 0QB, UK

8 ² Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling, UK FK9 4LA

9 ³ University of Duisburg-Essen, Aquatic Ecology and Centre for Water and
10 Environmental Research, 45117 Essen, Germany

11 ⁴ Department of Experimental Limnology, Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and
12 Inland Fisheries (IGB), Alte Fischerhütte 2, 16775 Stechlin, Germany

13 ⁵ Department of Ecology, Berlin Institute of Technology (TU Berlin), Ernst-Reuter-
14 Platz 1, 10587 Berlin, Germany

15 ⁶ School of Natural Sciences, Trinity College Dublin, the University of Dublin, Dublin
16 2, Ireland

17 ⁷ Centre of Molecular and Environmental Biology (CBMA), Department of Biology,
18 University of Minho, Campus of Gualtar, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

19 ⁸ Institute of Science and Innovation for Bio-Sustainability (IB-S), University of Minho,
20 Campus of Gualtar, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

21 ⁹ Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Gaustadalléen 21, 0349 Oslo, Norway

22 ¹⁰ UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Lancaster LA1 4AP, UK

23 ¹¹ Institute of Hydrobiology and Aquatic Ecosystem Management, University of
24 Natural Resources and Life Sciences Vienna, 1180 Vienna, Austria

25 ¹² Forest Research Centre (CEF), School of Agriculture, University of Lisbon. Tapada
26 da Ajuda, 1349-017 Lisboa, Portugal

27 * Corresponding author (spear@ceh.ac.uk)

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29 Management.

30

31 **Highlights**

- 32 • The management of multiple stressor interactions (MSI) in fresh waters is
33 uncommon
- 34 • Empirical modelling using monitoring data can be used for the detection of
35 MSIs
- 36 • Evidence of MSI effects during degradation and recovery is urgently needed
- 37 • Recommendations are provided on management responses for MSI scenarios