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1 Modelling the Effects of Climate and Land-use 2 Change on the Hydrochemistry and Ecology of the 3 River Wye (Wales)

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Interactions between climate change and land use change might have substantial effects on aquatic
21 ecosystems, but are still poorly understood. Using the Welsh River Wye as a case study, we linked
22 models of water quality (Integrated Catchment - INCA) and climate (GFDL - Geophysical Fluid
23 Dynamics Laboratory and IPSL - Institut Pierre Simon Laplace) under greenhouse gas scenarios
24 (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) to drive a bespoke ecosystem model that simulated the responses of aquatic
25 organisms. The potential effects of economic and social development were also investigated using
26 scenarios from the EU MARS project (Managing Aquatic Ecosystems and Water Resources under
27 Multiple Stress). Longitudinal position along the river mediated response to increasing anthropogenic
28 pressures. Upland locations appeared particularly sensitive to nutrient enrichment or potential re-
29 acidification compared to lowland environments which are already eutrophic. These results can guide
30 attempts to mitigate future impacts and reiterate the need for sensitive land management in upland,
31 temperate environments which are likely to become increasingly important to water supply and
32 biodiversity conservation as the effects of climate change intensify.

33

34 *Keywords:* Climate Change, Water quality, River Wye, Nitrogen, Ecology

35

36 1 INTRODUCTION

37 Reports from the Paris Agreement and the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
38 (Pachauri et al., 2014) have made clear the global significance of climate change driven by
39 anthropogenic sources of carbon dioxide. The positive and negative impacts of climate change across
40 the globe are still being considered and debated, but the potential changes in precipitation,
41 temperature and sea level rise over the next century are likely to have important impacts on
42 hydrology, water quality and ecology (Whitehead et al., 2009). The IPCC report considers the impacts
43 of socioeconomic change superimposed on climate change, showing how socio-economic pathways
44 (SSPs) will interact with climate change to generate a combined impact on people and livelihoods.
45 This provides an integrated framework for addressing issues of change for national, regional and local
46 governments and organizations to consider.

47 Previous studies have highlighted the importance of cross-sectorial approaches to assess the impacts
48 of climate change on river water quality and ecosystems. For example, Palmer et al.(2009) pointed
49 out the importance of collaborations among multiple partners and wise land use planning to minimise
50 additional development in watersheds with valued rivers, stating that special attention should be given
51 to diversifying and replicating habitats of special importance. Meyer et al.(1999) reviewed models that
52 could be used to explore potential effects of climate change on freshwater ecosystems and discussed
53 potential ecological risks, benefits, and costs of climate change. However, very few examples of
54 integrate modelling approaches for the assessment of climate and land use change impacts on
55 aquatic ecosystems and water quality exist in the literature.

56 The IPCC report and the EU Water Framework Directive (Chave, 2001; EU, 2000) have provided a
57 backdrop to the MARS project (Managing Aquatic Ecosystems and Water Resources under Multiple
58 Stress) funded by the European Union under the 7th Framework Programme (Hering et al., 2015). In
59 any such study there is a need to understand the effects of multiple stressors on surface waters and
60 groundwaters, their biota, and the ecosystem services they provide to people. River ecosystems are
61 very likely to be affected by land-use or climate changes (Strayer and Dudgeon, 2010). Several
62 studies have observed a reduction in diversity or abundance of river organisms in response to land-
63 use (e.g., Gutiérrez-Cánovas et al., 2013), climate change (e.g., Durance and Ormerod, 2007) or
64 anthropogenic disturbances (Ruhí et al., 2015). The reduction in river biodiversity is likely to reduce
65 the capacity of these ecosystems to provide essential goods and services (Hooper et al., 2005) such
66 as clean water.

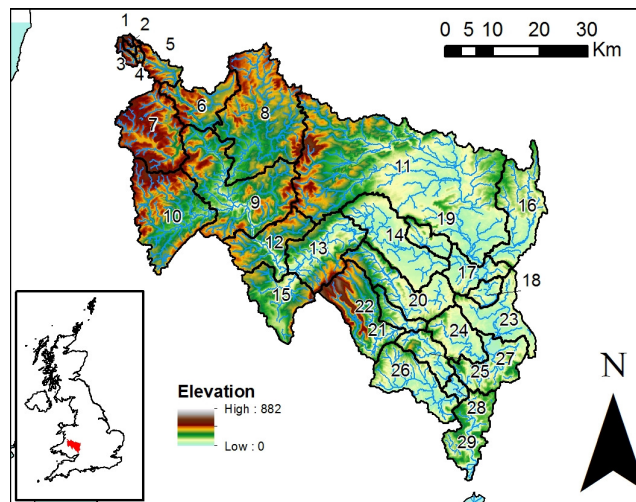
67 As part of the MARS project, upland Wales has been investigated as a Northern Region that has
68 been subject to much environmental change over the past 50 years (Durance and Ormerod, 2007;
69 Whitehead et al., 2009, 1998a). Many of the upland headwaters in mid and southern Wales drain into
70 large river systems and one of those is the River Wye (Figure 1). In this study we evaluate the River
71 Wye in terms of its hydrology, water quality and ecology and how these might change under a
72 changing climate and changing socio-economic pressures. We utilise the INCA suite of models
73 (Wade et al., 2002; Whitehead et al., 1998a) to quantify the change and use the model to simulate
74 new future approaches to manage the environment.

75 2 THE WYE CATCHMENT

76 The River Wye catchment is located in the Western Regions of the UK, in South and Mid- Wales, as
77 shown in Figure 1. It flows from Mid-Wales towards South-East Wales, reaching the River Severn
78 estuary and the Bristol Channel at the town of Chepstow. Its catchment area is 4131 km². The
79 catchment is included into the following coordinates (degrees latitude/longitude datum WGS84): N:
80 52.5, W: -3.8, S: 51.6, E: -2.4. The Rivers Lugg and the Monnow are its main tributaries, flowing into
81 the main River Wye reach downstream of Hereford (Jarvie et al., 2005). The main land use is

82 agriculture with livestock farming predominating in the north and west and more intensive arable
83 farming in the south and east of the catchment. There is some industry based around the major towns
84 (e.g. Monmouth and Chepstow). The upland areas of the catchment are generally used for rough
85 grazing, while lowland areas support mixed and dairy-farming and horticulture (Osborne et al., 1980).
86 The water quality of the River Wye is characterised by patterns of high winter concentrations of nitrate
87 and low summer concentrations (Osborne et al., 1980), mainly related to agriculture and fertiliser
88 usage.

89 The Wye catchment is rich in wildlife and habitats and this is recognised in the designation of the Wye
90 and several tributaries as a riverine Special Area of Conservation. The area offers many opportunities
91 for water-based recreation. The River Wye is a well-established and nationally significant salmon and
92 brown trout rod fishery and also a locally important coarse fish fishery. Elver fishing also takes place
93 within the tidal reaches of the Wye. The Elan Valley system of reservoirs (North-Western part of the
94 catchment) is vital in providing water for Birmingham, Gloucestershire and South Wales. The local
95 economy is moderately dependent on businesses requiring water abstraction, primarily agricultural,
96 where trickle and spray irrigation is frequently used.



97
98 **Figure 1. The River Wye catchment and the INCA model sub-catchments.**

99 Daily water discharge time series have been retrieved from the National River Flow Archive (NRFA,
100 <http://nrfa.ceh.ac.uk/data/search>). Several stream gauges can be found within the River Wye
101 catchment (see Supplementary Material, Table S1). Nitrate and Ammonium data were obtained from
102 the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology for eight locations within the River Wye catchment, collected
103 from 2004 to 2009 with a monthly to fortnightly frequency, and used for model calibration. Data
104 collected by the Environment Agency of England and Wales was also used for three locations,
105 spanning from 1974 to 2012, and used for model validation (Simpson, 1980).

106 **3 METHODOLOGY**

107 **3.1 THE INTEGRATED CATCHMENT MODEL (INCA)**

108 The INCA model is a process-based model which simulates the main processes related with rainfall-
109 runoff transformation and the cycle and fate of several compounds, such as nitrate, ammonium,
110 carbon and phosphorus. The INCA Model has been developed over several years as a result of
111 several research projects and is a dynamic computer model that predicts water quantity and quality in
112 rivers and catchments. The primary aim of INCA is to provide a process-based representation of the
113 factors and processes controlling flow and water quality dynamics in both the land and in-stream

114 components of river catchments, whilst minimising data requirements and model structural complexity
115 (Whitehead et al., 1998a, 1998b). As such, the INCA model produces daily estimates of discharge,
116 and stream water quality concentrations and fluxes, at discrete points along a river's main channel.
117 Also, the model is semi-distributed, so that spatial variations in land use and management can be
118 taken into account. The hydrological and nutrient fluxes from different land use classes and sub-
119 catchment boundaries are modelled simultaneously and information fed sequentially into a multi-
120 reach river model. The INCA model was originally tested on 20 catchments in the UK for a variety of
121 purposes (Crossman et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2017, 2016; Nizzetto et al., 2016; Whitehead et al., 2016),
122 including catchments in Wales (Bussi et al., 2017b), and over 20 catchments across the EU and now
123 30 catchments around the world. The INCA model has also been tested for land-use and climate
124 change impact assessment applications (Bussi et al., 2016a, 2016b).

125 The INCA model requires time series of Hydrological Effective Rainfall (HER) and Soil Moisture Deficit
126 (SMD) as inputs, and these have to be produced by an independent hydrological model, which takes
127 into account soil water retention and evapotranspiration. In this study, the PERSiST model was used
128 (Futter et al., 2014), a simple and flexible hydrological model especially created to produce inputs for
129 the INCA family of models. Precipitation and temperature data were taken from Met Office stations.
130 Several stations exist within the Wye catchment, measuring daily meteorological variables. Given the
131 topography of the catchment, with steep slopes and relatively large difference in altitude from the
132 uplands to the lowlands, and the natural spatial variability of rainfall and temperature, a single station
133 cannot provide exhaustive information about the precipitation falling on the catchment and the
134 temperature over the whole catchment. For this reason, the average precipitation falling on the
135 catchment and the average catchment temperature were determined, using information from several
136 rain gauges spread all over the catchment. The mean temperature was calculated as the average
137 between minimum and maximum temperature.

138 Spatially distributed information is required to estimate some of the INCA model parameters. The
139 Ordnance Survey (OS) Terrain 50 was used as a digital elevation model. The digital elevation model
140 was used to define the sub-catchment boundaries, and to calculate their areas and mean reach slope.
141 The Land Cover Map 2007, released by the Centre of Ecology and Hydrology in 2011, was used to
142 characterise the land uses in the catchment (Smith et al., 2007). The land cover categories were
143 aggregated to six classes of land use: forest, short vegetation (ungrazed), short vegetation (grazed,
144 non-fertilised), short vegetation (fertilised), arable and urban, following Jin et al. (2012). The
145 proportion of land use for each sub-catchment is required by the INCA model. The River Wye
146 catchment was divided into several sub-catchments (supplementary Material, Table S2). For each
147 catchment, catchment area, reach length and land uses were defined.

148 The INCA model was calibrated over the time period 1/1/2004 – 31/10/2009 and validated over the
149 time period 1960-2015, with a daily time step. The model parameters were manually adjusted to
150 reproduce observed values of hydrological and water quality variables. In particular, observed values
151 of water discharge were used to calibrate the hydrological model parameters (direct runoff residence
152 time, soil water residence time, ground water residence time, threshold soil zone flow, rainfall excess
153 proportion, maximum infiltration rate, discharge/velocity relationship coefficient and exponent) and
154 observed values of nitrate concentration were used to calibrate the INCA model parameters
155 (denitrification rate in soil and river, nitrification rate in soil and river, mineralisation rate in soil,
156 immobilisation rate in soil, fertiliser addition rate in soil, plant uptake). Manual calibration has been
157 proved as a robust method for obtaining acceptable simulations with the INCA family of models
158 (Cremona et al., 2017) Furthermore, while Ledesma et al. (2012) performed a mixed automated and
159 manual calibration, they also highlighted the importance of manual calibration for models and
160 specifically for INCA. More complex calibration techniques have already been applied to the
161 calibration of the INCA model (Bussi et al., 2017a and Bussi et al., 2016a), but given the focus of this
162 study and the goodness-of-fit of the results (presented in a following section), they were not employed

163 in this study. Further research is needed to assess the influence of such techniques on the outcomes
164 of the present paper.

165 3.2 ECOLOGICAL MODELLING

166 In order to forecast the response of the biological communities of the River Wye to land-use and
167 climate change scenarios, ecological models were built using biological and environmental data from
168 78 locations placed in Mid and North Wales. In those rivers, one sample of aquatic invertebrates was
169 collected for each location in spring (March-April 2012-13) using kick-sampling (2-minutes just in
170 riffles) to characterise the biological communities. Invertebrate richness (number of invertebrate taxa)
171 and response diversity (variety and range of biological traits to cope with disturbance based on
172 functional richness, Villéger et al., 2008) were derived to quantify the response of these aquatic
173 communities. Response traits included fuzzy coded traits such as number of generations per year,
174 lifespan, reproduction mode, respiration type, resistance form and dispersal capacity (Tachet et al.,
175 2010). For each invertebrate genus, we created a *taxa x traits* table where a number of affinity points
176 (i.e. 3, 5, 7) were distributed across the categories of each trait, according to the frequency of
177 occurrence within the genus. This way of gathering trait information is called fuzzy coded approach
178 (Chevenet et al. 1994), and entails compiling the intraspecific biological information available for the
179 species belonging to each genus (e.g., juvenile and adults, male and female, different species).
180 Before analysing data, fuzzy coded data were converted to percentages of affinity for each trait. This
181 procedure standardises the potential differences in the codification scores (i.e. different initial number
182 of affinity points). To estimate response diversity, we first computed a matrix containing the pair-wise
183 functional dissimilarity across taxa, using Gower's index from the *taxa x traits* table (hereafter, Gower
184 trait matrix) (Gower, 1971). Second, based on Gower trait matrix, we built a functional space through
185 a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA). This analysis reduces all trait categories to a few main axes
186 (or coordinates), retaining a high proportion of cross-species variance, and represents taxa in the
187 space defined by these main axes (Villéger et al., 2008). To select the number of relevant functional
188 axes, we assessed the minimum number of dimensions (from two to 10) that provided a good
189 representation of the original Gower trait matrix (Maire et al., 2015). We kept two dimensions (mean
190 squared deviance, mSD=0.009), which represented 31.5% of the original trait variation.

191 The main gradients of anthropogenic or natural environmental variation were also characterised,
192 including annual pH, total oxidised nitrogen (TON), altitude (alt), precipitation of the wettest month
193 (prec_max), geographical latitude (lat) and longitude (lon). TON was log-transformed to reduce
194 distribution skewness. All the predictors were standardised to mean=0 and SD=1 to allow for within-
195 model coefficient comparison in form of Standardised Effect Sizes (SES).

196 To assess the influence of the stressors, natural descriptions and their interactions on the biotic
197 indicators, we adopted a multi-model inference procedure (Grueber et al., 2011), which is a useful
198 method to quantify multi-stressor effects on biological communities (Feld et al., 2016). First, as global
199 models, we fitted a Quasipoisson error distribution model for species richness and a generalised
200 linear model with a Gaussian error distribution for response diversity. For each global model, pH, TON
201 and the interaction pH x TON were included as stressors, and altitude, precipitation of the wettest
202 month, latitude, longitude, and the interaction pH x latitude as descriptors of natural variability.
203 Second, using the MuMIn R package (Bartoń, 2014), we fitted the models resulting from all possible
204 predictor combinations included in the global model, which were ranked according to their Akaike
205 Information Criterion (AIC) value, i.e. the model ranking first was the one minimising the AIC value.
206 Third, the top models that differed in two AIC units or less ($\Delta AIC \leq 2$) from the model ranked first were
207 retained, along with their model weights (probability of being the best model). Four, two final models
208 were obtained by using a model averaging approach, where we derived a weighted mean of the
209 coefficients from the top models where each predictor appeared, using model weights ('natural
210 average', Burnham & Anderson, 2002). Also, for each of the top models, we checked residuals to

211 assess the normality and homoscedasticity of their distributions. Ecological modelling was conducted
 212 using the R statistical software (R Core Team 2016).

213 3.3 ANTHROPOGENIC DRIVERS

214 Socio-economic scenarios

215 Future socio-economic scenarios were implemented within the INCA model to simulate the impact of
 216 human-induced changes such as land-use change, population growth and agriculture intensification.
 217 These scenarios were based on the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) from Moss et al.
 218 (2010), van Vuuren et al. (2014), O'Neill et al. (2014) and Kriegler et al. (2014). The scenarios were
 219 downscaled in the MARS project in concert with the stakeholders, such that they represent likely and
 220 achievable futures (Cremona et al., 2017). Three scenarios were considered:

- 221 1. Consensus (based on SSP2). In this world, trends typical of recent decades continue, with
 222 some progress towards achieving development goals, reductions in resource and energy
 223 intensity at historic rates, and slowly decreasing fossil fuel dependency.
- 224 2. Fragmentation, or Fragmented World (based on SSP3). The world is separated into regions
 225 characterised by extreme poverty, pockets of moderate wealth and a bulk of countries that
 226 struggle to maintain living standards for a strongly growing population. Changes in pH were
 227 also considered, as very intense use of fossil energy (coal and unconventional sources) with
 228 absence of flue-gas desulphurisation technologies to reduce costs is foreseen. This would
 229 lead to a pervasive and large acid sulphur deposition, which decreases pH (2030: -0.50 pH
 230 units / 2060: -0.75 pH units).
- 231 3. Technoworld (based on SSP5). This world stresses conventional development oriented
 232 toward economic growth as the solution to social and economic problems through the pursuit
 233 of enlightened self-interest. The preference for rapid conventional development leads to an
 234 energy system dominated by fossil fuels, resulting in high GHG emissions and challenges to
 235 mitigation. Lower socio-environmental challenges to adaptation result from attainment of
 236 human development goals, robust economic growth, highly engineered infrastructure with
 237 redundancy to minimize disruptions from extreme events, and highly managed ecosystems.

238 The socio-economic scenarios were implemented by changing some of the INCA model parameters
 239 in order to reproduce the impact of the different storylines, as indicated in Table 1. The baseline land
 240 uses are reported in the Supplementary Material, Table S2.

241 **Table 1. Land-use change scenarios implemented in INCA.**

Scenario	Consensus	Fragmentation	Technoworld
Forest land variations	10% of the forest area turned into arable land	5% of the forest area turned into grassland	10% of the forest area turned into arable land
Arable land variations	30% of arable land was into grassland	15% of grassland turned into arable land	30% of grassland was turned arable land
Fertiliser use variations	Nitrogen fertiliser application decreased by 50%	Nitrogen fertiliser application increased by 15%	Nitrogen fertiliser application increased by 30%
Growing season variations	Growing season extended two months due to climate change	Growing season extended two months due to climate change	Growing season extended two months due to climate change
Population growth	Effluent flows were increased by 30% due to population growth	Effluent flows were increased by 30% due to population growth	Effluent flows were increased by 30% due to population growth

242

243 The socio-economic scenarios were implemented by changing some of the INCA model parameters
 244 in order to reproduce the impact of the different storylines, and in accordance with the guidelines of
 245 the MARS project. In particular, the consensus scenario was implemented in the following way: 10%
 246 of the forest area was turned into forest land; 30% of arable land was turned into grassland; the

247 nitrogen fertiliser application was decreased by 50%; the growing season was extended two months
 248 due to climate change; the effluent flows were increased by 30% due to population growth. The
 249 fragmentation scenario was implemented in the following way: 5% of the forest area was turned into
 250 grassland; 15% of grassland was turned into arable land; the nitrogen fertiliser application was
 251 increased by 15%; the growing season was extended two months due to climate change; the effluent
 252 flows were increased by 30% due to population growth. The technoworld scenario was implemented
 253 in the following way: 10% of the forest area was turned into arable land; 30% of grassland was turned
 254 into arable land; the nitrogen fertiliser application was increased by 30%; the growing season was
 255 extended two months due to climate change; the effluent flows were increased by 30% due to
 256 population growth.

257 **Climate change scenarios**

258 In order to model the impact of climate change, future scenarios of precipitation and temperature are
 259 needed. These were obtained using two different global circulation models (GCMs): the GFDL
 260 (Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory) model, developed by the National Oceanic and
 261 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA, US) (Donner et al., 2011), and the IPSL (Institut Pierre Simon
 262 Laplace) model, developed by the IPSL Climate Modelling Centre (France) (Dufresne et al., 2013).

263 Daily precipitation and temperature, spatially averaged over the Wye catchments, were obtained from
 264 these two models forced by two different Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs), or
 265 greenhouse gas concentration trajectories (Moss et al., 2008), the RCP4.5 and the RCP8.5. RCP4.5
 266 describes a mean global warming of 1.4 (0.9 to 2.0) °C for 2046-2065, while RCP8.5 presents a
 267 global warming of 2.0 (1.4 to 2.6) °C for the same time period.

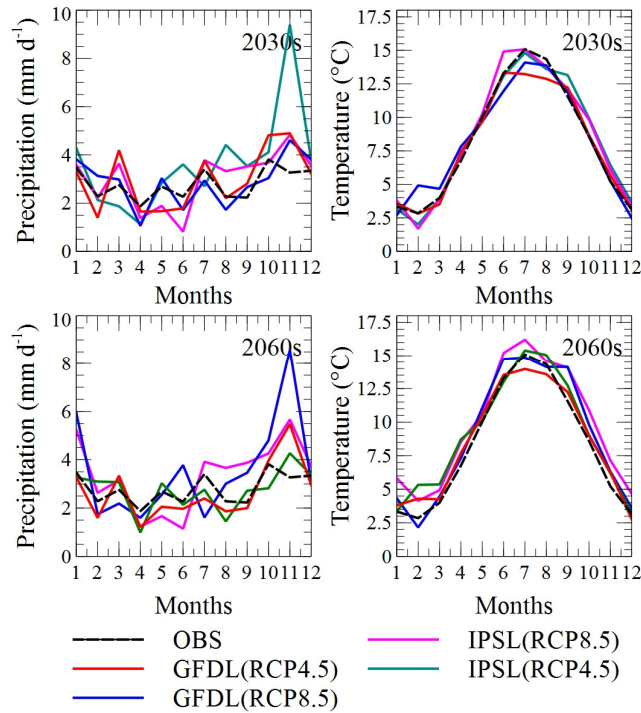
268 The climate model data were corrected in order to remove the model bias in reproducing past
 269 precipitation and temperature. In particular, a Delta Change approach was used to correct the bias of
 270 RCM (Regional climate models) scenarios to generate local climate scenarios. The approach is based
 271 upon transferring the monthly average change signal between RCM (regional climate model) control
 272 (2006-2010 in this case) and RCM scenario period to an observed time series (2006-2010 in this
 273 case). Three data series were used in the bias correction: (1) GCM control periods (2006-2010), (2)
 274 Baseline periods (2006-2010), and (3) GCM scenario period (2011-2099).

275 The scenario daily temperature ($T_{scen,d}$) was derived by adding the absolute monthly change signals
 276 to the observed time series. In the case of precipitation, the observed data were scaled with the
 277 relative change signals given by the RCM:

$$278 \quad T_{scen,d} = T_{obs,d} + (TRCM_{scen,m} - TRCM_{con,m}) \quad (1)$$

$$279 \quad P_{scen,d} = P_{obs,d} * \left(\frac{PRCM_{scen,m}}{PRCM_{con,m}} \right) \quad (2)$$

280 Where $T_{obs,d}$ and $P_{obs,d}$ are observed daily temperature and precipitation, $TRCM_{con,m}$ and $PRCM_{con,m}$
 281 are monthly average RCM temperature and precipitation of the control period, and $TRCM_{scen,m}$ and
 282 $PRCM_{scen,m}$ are monthly average RCM temperature and precipitation of the scenario period. The
 283 resulting time series of climate change-affected precipitation and temperature are summarised in
 284 Figure 2.



285

286
287

Figure 2. Changes in precipitation and temperature forecasted by the climate models (“2030s” indicates the time period 2020-2050, “2060” indicates the time period 2050-2080).

288 Combinations of climate change scenarios and socio-economic scenarios were used to drive the
 289 INCA model and the ecology model, to obtain a wide range of possible future pathways. This
 290 approach has been used widely in the past (Herrero et al., 2017; Prudhomme and Davies, 2009;
 291 Ruiz-Villanueva et al., 2015), and although its limitations have also been clearly pointed out (Singh et
 292 al., 2014), it still provides meaningful results for impact and mitigation analysis.

293 4 RESULTS

294 4.1 MODEL CALIBRATION

295 Flow and nitrate

296 The INCA model was calibrated and validated to reproduce both the observed flow and nitrate
 297 concentration at the stations indicated in the Supplementary Material, Table S2. The results are
 298 shown in Table 2, with calibration and validation performances shown in terms of Nash-Sutcliffe
 299 Efficiency (NSE, Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) for the daily flow and in term of percent bias (PBIAS)
 300 for the nitrate concentration. Reproduction of observed flows was in general good or very good, apart
 301 from the station 2, located in the headwaters (catchment area around 10 km²), where the model was
 302 able to reproduce the low flows but is underestimating the flood peaks (not shown). In terms of nitrate
 303 concentration, again the results were satisfactory ($|PBIAS| < 20\%$) apart from station 2, where the
 304 calibration PBIAS was -53%.

305 Calibration results are also shown in Figure 3, Figure 4 and Figure 5, where the daily time series of
 306 the modelled flows and nitrate concentrations are shown against the corresponding observed values
 307 for selected subcatchments. While it is clear that the model reproduced the observed flow, some
 308 errors in the simulation of the nitrate concentration can be observed, although the general seasonal
 309 patterns were reproduced correctly. Nevertheless, given the uncertainty in both the processes and the

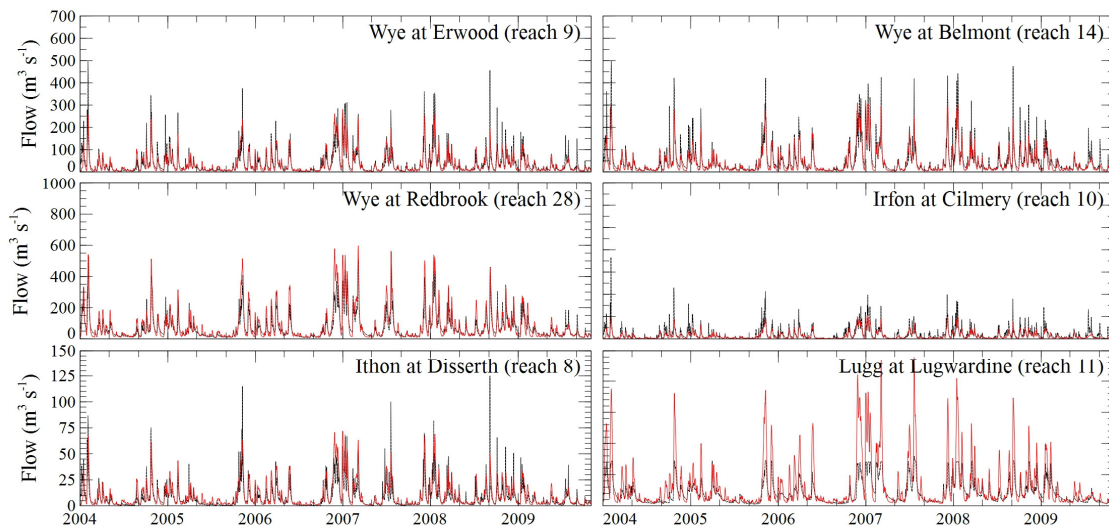
310 nitrate measurements, the generic behaviour and the catchment response to climate and land-use
 311 changes, the performance of the model can be considered satisfactory.

312

Table 2. INCA model calibration and validation results

Stream	Station	Calibration (2004-2009)		Validation (1960-2015)	
		NSE Flow	PBIAS Nitrate	NSE Flow	PBIAS Nitrate
Wye	2	0.22	-53%	0.19	-50%
Wye	6	-	-	0.60	-
Wye	9	0.77	-15%	0.79	-
Wye	12	-	-14%	-	-
Wye	14	0.82	-	0.73	-66%
Wye	17	0.61	-	-	-
Wye	27	-	19%	-	-
Wye	28	0.66	13%	0.79	-2%
Wye	29	-	18%	-	-
Llynfi	15	0.59	17%	0.56	-
Ieithon	8	0.60	-	0.64	-
Irfon	10	0.58	-	0.61	-
Mynwy	21	0.43	-	0.52	-

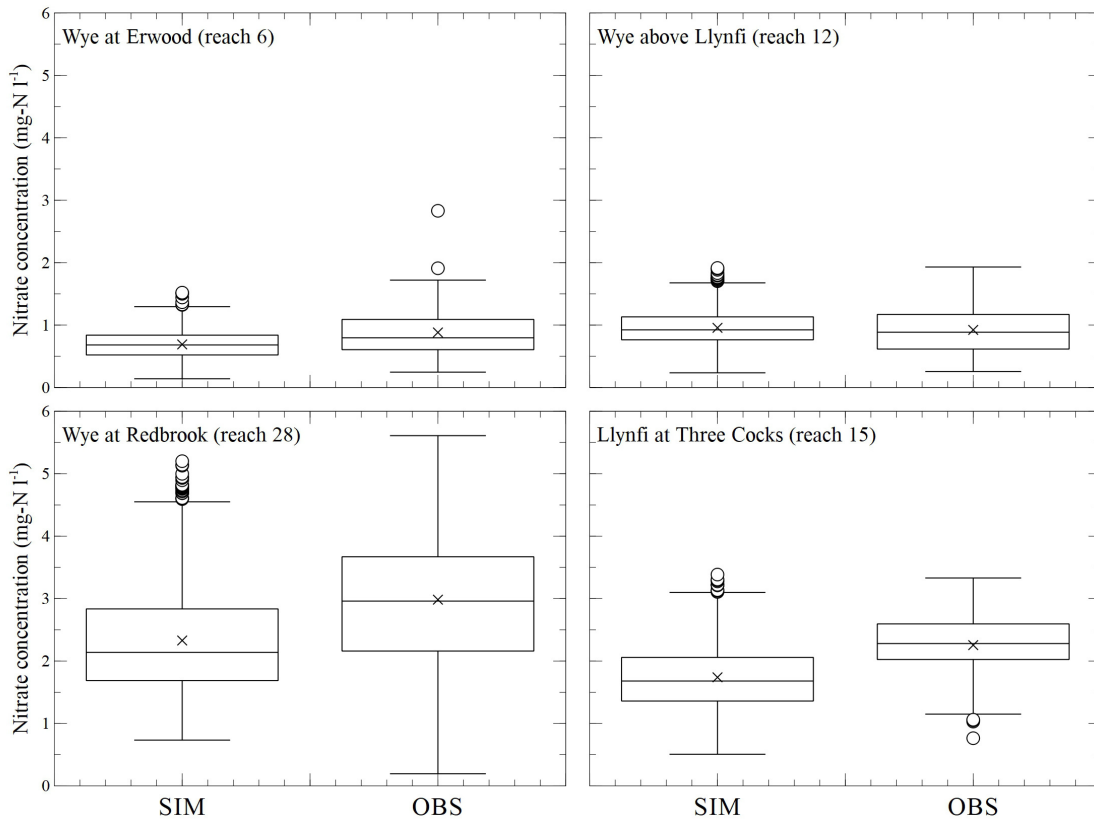
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314

315 **Figure 3. INCA model results and observed flow at six sites along the Wye (2004-2009). Note that the stream gauge for**
 316 **the River Lugg does not measure flows above 35 m³ s⁻¹. Red lines: model results. Black lines: measurements.**

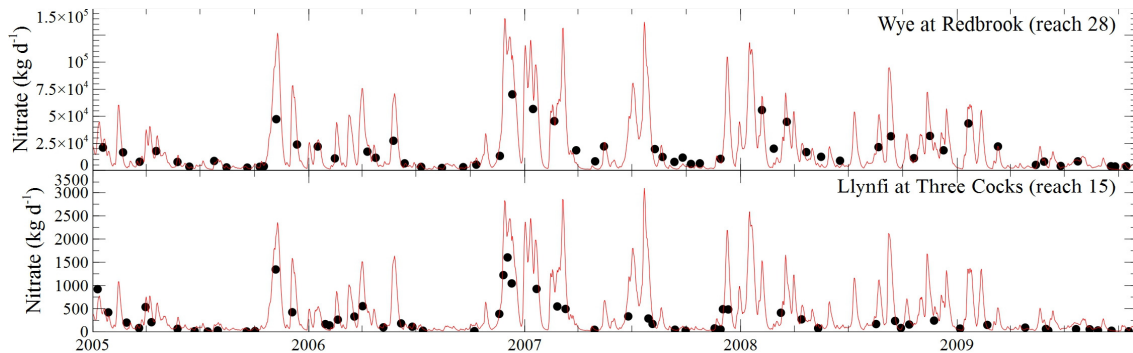
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Figure 4. INCA model results for Nitrate-N at six sites along the Wye (2004-2009).



320

321

Figure 5. INCA model results for nitrate loads, 2004-2009. Red lines: model results. Black dots: measurements.

322

It is relevant to remind that the measure of the goodness of fit of a model depends on the purposes of the model. In this study, the model will not be used for nitrate forecasting or daily-based nitrate modelling, but rather for assessing the long-term changes in average concentrations of nitrate in the river. For this reason, we assessed the model results using an average-based statistic such as the PBIAS. From this point of view, the model can be judged as fit for the purposes of this study.

327

4.2 CLIMATE CHANGE AND LAND-USE CHANGE IMPACTS

328

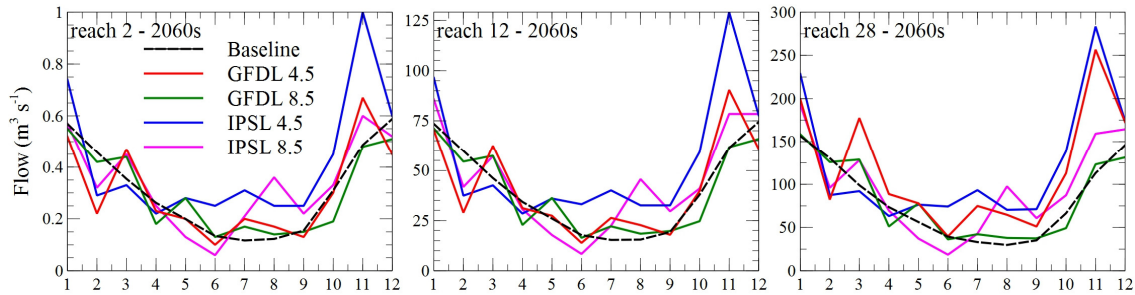
Flow and nitrate

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The impacts of climate change on the flows of the River Wye for the time period 2050-2079 (hereafter 2060s) are shown in Figure 6. It is shown that the different combinations of climate model and RCP

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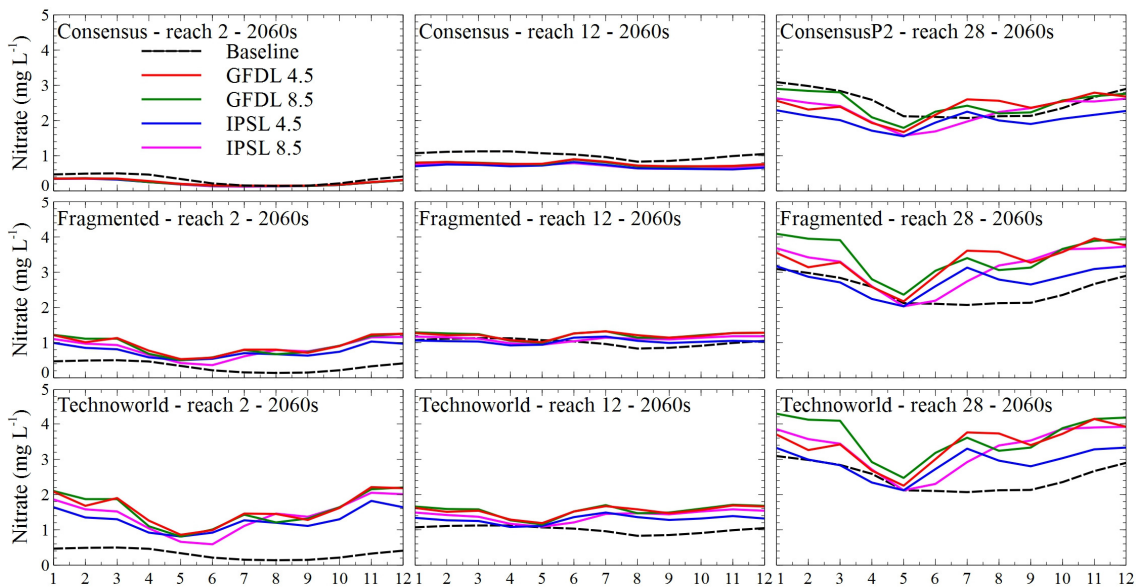
331 provided slightly different results. For example, the model GFDL, coupled with the RCP 8.5 indicated
 332 that little changes in hydrology should occur, in agreement with the results in Figure 2, i.e. little
 333 changes in precipitation and temperature. Meanwhile, the model IPSL coupled with the RCP 4.5
 334 forecasts an increase of 50-100% in autumn-early winter flows. The impacts of climate change on the
 335 nitrate concentration of the River Wye for 2060s are shown in Figure 7. Nitrogen concentrations are
 336 expected to decrease in the consensus world for the middle and low Wye. However, for the
 337 fragmented and technoworld scenarios, models predicted a strong increase in nitrogen concentration
 338 for the upper and low Wye.



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Figure 6. Impacts of climate change on flow.



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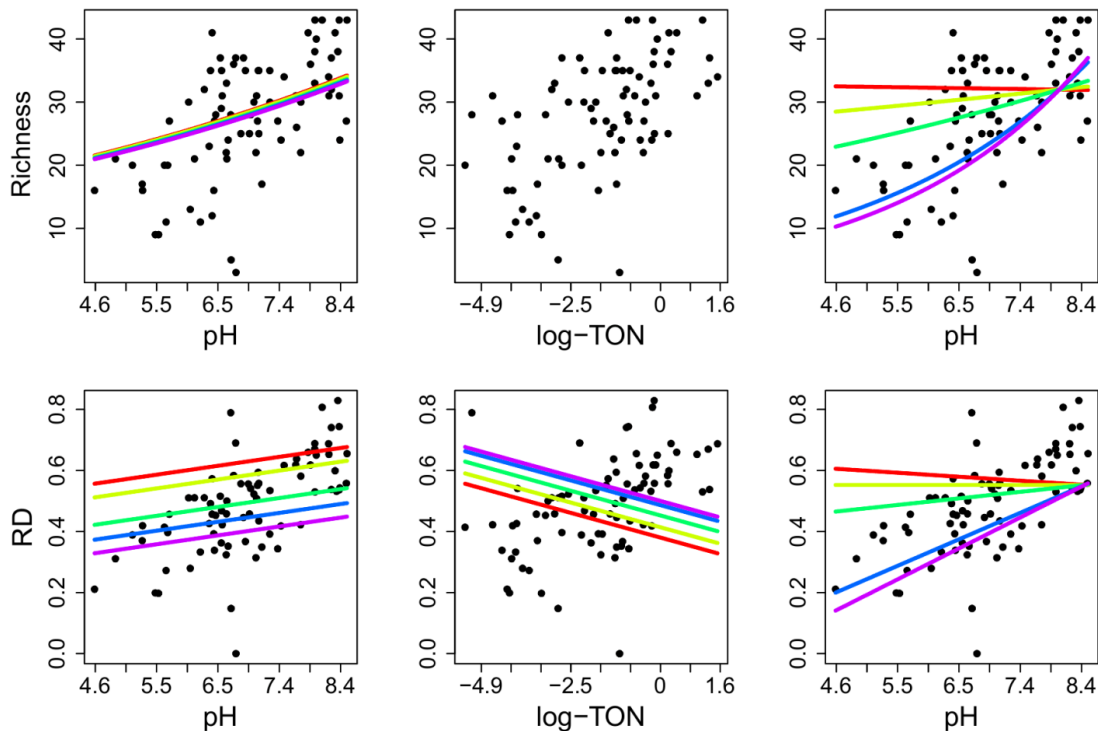
Figure 7. Impacts of climate change and land-use change on nitrate (in nitrate-N).

343 Ecological Predictions

344 The results of the ecological modelling showed that pH was the most important stressor
 345 (Supplementary Material, Table S3), with a strong latitudinal interaction (Figure 8; Supplementary
 346 Material, Table S1). Generally, pH was positively related with ecological metrics, with no evident
 347 interaction with TON, as revealed by the non-significant interaction term (Supplementary Material,
 348 Table S3) and the parallel fitted lines (Figure 8). However, at lower latitudes (red: minimum latitude,
 349 yellow: latitude Q10 and green: latitude Q50) acidity had a much lower effect on biotic metrics,
 350 compared to higher latitudes in North Wales (blue: latitude Q90, violet: maximum latitude), where
 351 reduced pH led to low values of invertebrate richness and response diversity. Increased TON values
 352 reduced only invertebrate response diversity (Figure 8; Supplementary Material, Table S3).
 353 Environmental natural descriptors were also important. In particular, rainfall (prec_max) had a general
 354 negative influence in both biotic variables, while longitude had a negative relationship with richness.

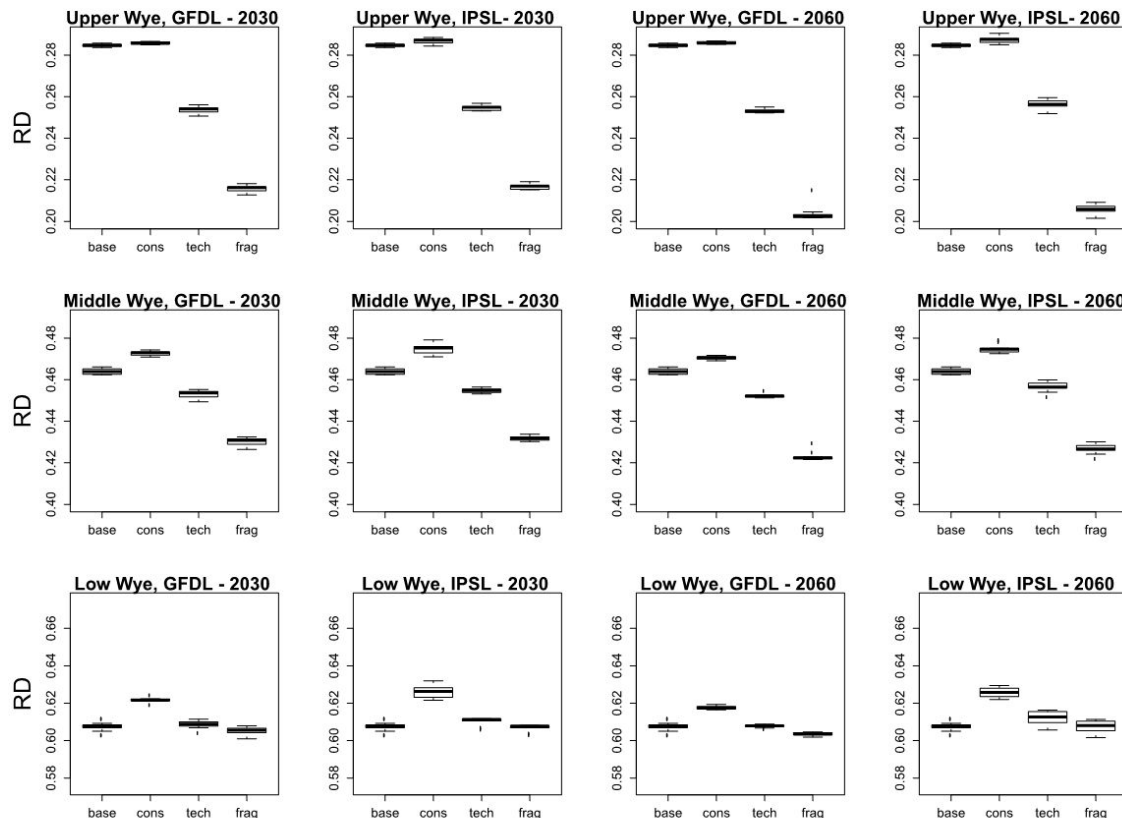
355 Stressors and natural descriptors explained a higher amount of variance for response diversity
356 ($r^2=0.60$) relative to invertebrate richness ($r^2=0.51$).

357



358 **Figure 8. Plots showing ecological responses to multi-stress. The interaction between pH and TON (a), TON and pH (b)**
359 **and pH and latitude (c) are shown. Lines represent fitted values at different levels of the interacting stressor non-**
360 **showed in the abscise axis (red: minimum value, yellow: Q10, green: Q50, blue: Q90 and violet: maximum value)..**

361 The future predictions for the ecological metrics reflected different patterns. Invertebrate richness
362 showed little variation in the future scenarios respect to control conditions (Supplementary
363 Information, Figure S1). Only in the Fragmented scenario invertebrate richness showed a slight
364 reduction respect to control conditions. On the other hand, response diversity displayed different
365 responses in relation with the longitudinal position in the river and future scenario considered (Figure
366 9). The upper Wye site seemed to reflect a substantial reduction in response diversity under the
367 Techno and Fragmented world scenarios for both 2030s and 2060s periods, which is greater in the
368 latter scenario. However, the middle site showed a similar but less pronounced pattern of response
369 diversity decline under Techno and Fragmented world scenarios, and an increase under the
370 consensus world scenario for both periods. The lower Wye is expected to change little respect to
371 current conditions under any of the scenarios considered. Despite the low magnitude of the changes
372 in the lower Wye section, the increase in response diversity under any of the scenarios considered is
373 remarkable.



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Figure 9. Projected changes for invertebrate response diversity (RD) in the upper, middle and low Wye catchment for the baseline period (base), 2030 and 2060, and for each of the climatic models (GFDL, IPSL) and scenarios (cons: consensus world – SSP2, tech: technoworld – SSP5 and frag: fragmented world - SSP3).

378

5 DISCUSSION

379 The INCA model reproduced the daily flow of the Wye effectively (Moriassi et al., 2007). The model
380 results were more accurate for the lower stretches of the River Wye (e.g. reach 28 in Figure 3) than
381 for the upper reaches (e.g. reach 9 in Figure 3), where the largest flow peaks were slightly
382 underestimated. This is because the upper Wye is located in a mountainous area where the
383 precipitation is potentially locally very large, especially at high elevations, but the spatial
384 representation of the precipitation patterns through the available raingauges in these areas is poor,
385 mainly because the majority of the measuring stations are located at low or middle elevations. Despite
386 this, the results of the hydrological model were satisfactory.

387 Figure 4 and Figure 5 show the results in terms of nitrate concentration and load. It can be seen that
388 the model reproduced well the average concentrations of nitrogen at all reaches and the seasonality
389 of the nitrogen concentration, with lower concentrations in summer and higher concentrations in
390 winter. This behaviour is typical of the diffuse source pollutants such as nitrogen, which enters the
391 systems via fertilisers in the agricultural areas (Whitehead et al., 1998b). This is confirmed by the
392 average concentrations, which were relatively low in the upper reaches and higher in the middle and
393 lower reaches, where the agricultural fraction of the catchment is higher (Supplementary Material,
394 Table S2). The model also showed some errors in predicting the daily concentration of nitrogen.
395 However, this is unlikely to produce any bias in the results of this study, given that these are provided
396 in terms of long-term averages or seasonal averages, and the day-by-day variations of the nitrogen
397 concentration are not analysed. The results in terms of nitrogen loads were clearly better than the
398 concentration ones, due to the good results of the model in predicting the flow.

399 The predicted impacts of climate change on the climate of the Wye catchment were fairly similar for all
400 models and RCPs scenarios, especially in terms of temperature. A slight increase in winter
401 temperature is foreseen for the 2060s, although no large variations are predicted for summer
402 temperatures. The precipitation was forecasted to decrease slightly in summer, apart from the model
403 IPSL under RCP 4.5, which predicted an increase in precipitation, especially in winter. Similar
404 patterns were identified in other catchments in the same climatic area (Bussi et al., 2017b), although
405 in the case of the River Wye the climate change signal on precipitation and temperature was rather
406 weak. The effect of climate change on the flow of the river Wye is shown in Figure 6. It shows that the
407 flow is forecasted to increase based on the IPSL model under RCP 4.5, while the other combinations
408 of climate model and RCP do not show very significant alterations in the flow, in agreement with the
409 predictions shown in terms of precipitation and temperature. These results are similar to other
410 catchments of the area (Bussi et al., 2017b), but differ from other catchments located in Southern or
411 Eastern England, where summer flows are expected to decrease more significantly (Bussi et al.,
412 2016a, 2016b; Guillod et al., 2017). This study therefore confirms the results of previous studies
413 concerning the impact of climate change on flow and water quality (Whitehead et al., 2009).

414 The changes in nitrate concentrations due to the combined climate and land-use change are shown in
415 Figure 7. The key messages are: (i) Climate change is unlikely to cause large variations in the upper
416 reaches, but could lead to significant increases in nitrate concentrations in the lower reaches, due to
417 increased runoff from agricultural areas; (ii) Land-use change plays a very important role in enhancing
418 or controlling the impact of climate changes; and (iii) The consensus scenario is the most effective in
419 controlling the increase of nitrate caused by climate change, due to the reduction in fertiliser use and
420 the reduced extension of arable land. By contrast, the technoworld scenario causes an enhancement
421 of the nitrate concentration increase due to climate change. The fragmented scenario seems not to
422 cause large variations of nitrate concentrations for the upper and middle reaches, but it shows an
423 increase of nitrogen in the lower reaches. No other studies were conducted on the impact of climate
424 change on the nitrate concentration of the River Wye or rivers in the same areas to the authors'
425 knowledge, so no comparisons can be drawn.

426 It is important to bear in mind that socio-economic scenarios were represented as static scenarios, i.e.
427 they do not change along with changes in climate. This is a limitation in the representation of future
428 changes, as climate affects land use and socio-economic development (Bussi et al., 2017a).
429 However, this was compensated by simulating a large number of combinations between climate
430 outcomes, land-use scenarios and socio-economic scenarios, which all span in a relatively narrow
431 range of future conditions.

432 Our ecological models showed that pH is still an important anthropogenic driver of change in the
433 Welsh uplands (Ormerod and Durance, 2009), as occurs in other poor base areas exposed to past
434 sulphur deposition and large rainfall (Reynolds et al., 1999); (Petrin et al., 2008). Nutrients were also
435 important, causing a reduction in response diversity. Predicted changes under future scenarios in
436 nutrient concentration, pH, flow and climate seem to have more pronounced effects on the upper and
437 middle parts of the River Wye, at least for response trait diversity, which reflects the importance of
438 these variables in the ecological models. Uplands could be more sensitive to nutrient enrichment or
439 potential acidification because they have more diverse communities composed of many pollution-
440 intolerant species, while lowland sections are inhabited by generalist and tolerant species (e.g.,
441 Sánchez-Montoya et al. 2009). For the upper part of the Wye, our models predicted a 4-fold or 8-fold
442 increase in nitrogen concentration under fragmented world scenario. The middle section could be also
443 severely affected. The combination of increased nutrients and reduced pH (fragmented world) seems
444 to affect more dramatically the diversity of response traits of the invertebrates than their taxonomic
445 diversity. This result suggests that pollution-tolerant species could be replacing sensitive species at
446 locations affected by high nutrient concentrations, which is reflected by changes in trait diversity. A
447 reduced diversity of response traits could result in a less stable and resilient community (Hooper et
448 al., 2005) and have indirect effects on the ecosystem functions and services provided by rivers

449 (Suding et al., 2008; Woodward et al., 2012). On the other hand, the restorative land-use changes
450 simulated for the consensus world seems to have little impact respect to the biological control
451 conditions, despite the projected reductions in nitrogen. These results might advocate for more
452 ambitious measures if we aim to produce a real recovery of the sites severely impacted by nutrient
453 enrichment.

454 Lastly, some limitations of the model results must be stressed. In particular, the model results are
455 affected by a large uncertainty which has not been quantified in this paper, Some of it can be
456 appreciated in Figure 4, where the results of the nitrate model can be seen. It can be observed that
457 the model errors are sometimes large. Although the model shows a good fit in the reproduction of the
458 average values of nitrate concentration at different locations of the River Wye, the accuracy is not the
459 same in the reproduction of the extreme values, especially the very large values, and in the frequency
460 of the large nitrate peaks. In particular, it looks like the model is attenuating the largest peaks of
461 nitrate concentration. This is probably due to a poor reproduction of the response of the catchment to
462 large storms, especially post-summer storms that wash out nitrogen from the agricultural soils and
463 cause large concentrations in rivers. In this paper, the model results have only been used to assess
464 changes in long-term averages of nitrate concentrations and river diversity, thus the underestimation
465 of the extremes do not invalidate the results, but this model and its results must be used carefully if
466 extrapolated to a different context or employed for different purposes.

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