

# Effects of anthropogenic pollution and hydrological variation on macroinvertebrates in Mediterranean rivers: a case-study in the upper Tagus river basin (Spain)

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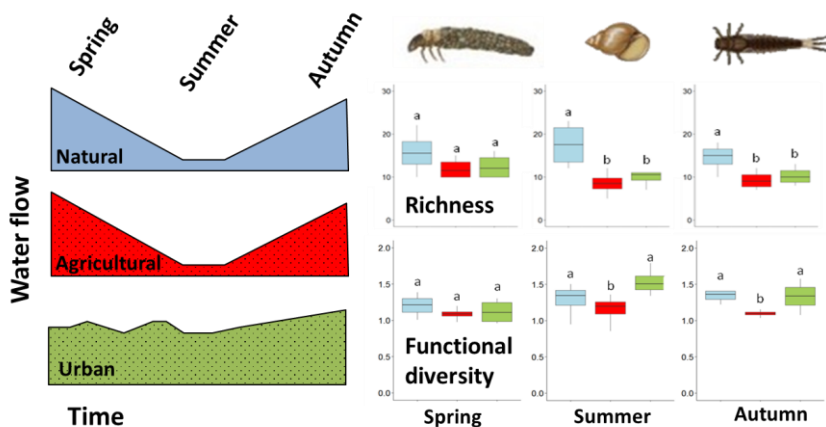
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## Graphical abstract



## Highlights

- We assessed the effect of varying flow conditions and pollution on invertebrates.
- Stronger functional diversity response to pollution during low flow periods.
- Traits representative of pollution and low-flow conditions have been identified.
- Late summer monitoring is recommended to account for maximum ecological disturbance.

23 **Abstract**

24 Seasonal hydrological variation and chemical pollution represent two main drivers of freshwater  
25 biodiversity change in Mediterranean rivers. We investigated to what extent low flow conditions can  
26 modify the effects of chemical pollution on macroinvertebrate communities. To that purpose, we  
27 selected twelve sampling sites in the upper Tagus river basin (central Spain) having different sources  
28 of chemical pollution and levels of seasonal hydrological variation. The sites were classified as natural  
29 (high flow variation, low chemical impact), agricultural (high flow variation, high agricultural chemical  
30 inputs) and urban (limited flow variation, high urban chemical inputs). In these sites, we measured  
31 daily water discharge, nutrients, and contaminant concentrations, and we sampled benthic  
32 macroinvertebrates during spring, summer and autumn. Significant differences related to toxic  
33 pressure and nutrient concentrations were observed between the three groups of sites. Seasonal  
34 patterns were found for some water quality parameters (e.g. nitrites, ammonia, suspended solids,  
35 metal toxicity), particularly in agricultural sites. Taxonomic and functional richness were slightly  
36 lower in the polluted sites (agricultural and urban), particularly during low flow periods (summer and  
37 early autumn). Functional diversity was significantly lower in sites with seasonal flow variation  
38 (agricultural sites) as compared to the more constant ones (urban sites). The frequency of traits such  
39 as large size, asexual reproduction, aquatic passive dispersion and the production of cocoons  
40 increased in response to pollution during low flow periods. This study shows that the impacts of  
41 anthropogenic chemical pollution on taxonomic and functional characteristics of macroinvertebrate  
42 communities seem to be larger during low flow periods. Therefore, further studies and monitoring  
43 campaigns assessing the effects of chemical pollution within these periods are recommended.

44 **Keywords:** Pollution, hydrological variation, biological traits, invertebrates, functional diversity

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## 48 1. Introduction

49 Most Mediterranean rivers are characterized by marked seasonal hydrological variations, undergoing  
50 low flows or even drying completely during summer. Climate change and increasing water demands  
51 are key drivers contributing to hydrological fluctuations in these ecosystems (Barceló and Sabater,  
52 2010; EEA, 2012; Lobanova et al., 2017), and generally tend to exacerbate water scarcity (Gashit and  
53 Resh, 1999; IPCC, 2014; Lobanova et al., 2016). Besides hydrological alterations, several studies show  
54 that Mediterranean rivers are severely impacted by chemical contaminants, whose fate and exposure  
55 are affected by seasonal flow variations (Petrovic et al., 2011; López-Doval et al., 2013). Low flows  
56 lessen the dilution capacity of chemical discharges and alter contaminant degradation patterns due  
57 to water temperature fluctuations and changes in organic matter concentrations or light penetration  
58 (Ademollo et al., 2011; López-Doval et al., 2013; Rice and Westerhoff, 2017; Arenas-Sánchez et al.,  
59 2019a).

60 Benthic macroinvertebrates are key components of lotic ecosystems, comprising species with a high  
61 variability in terms of environmental tolerance and habitat preference (Bonada et al., 2006; Boix et  
62 al., 2010). Therefore, they are considered good integrative indicators of chemical and physical  
63 disturbances and are widely used to evaluate the ecological status of rivers (Resh and Rosenberg,  
64 1993; Boix et al., 2010; Feio et al., 2015). Hydrological variability is one of the most important factors  
65 influencing freshwater macroinvertebrate communities, especially in Mediterranean rivers (Bonada  
66 et al., 2007a; Bonada and Resh, 2013; Prat et al., 2014). Periods of low flow involve a reduction in  
67 habitat availability (Lahr, 1997; Acuña et al., 2005; Verdonschot et al., 2015) and generally result in  
68 increased water temperatures, oxygen depletion, and high nutrient and suspended solid  
69 concentrations, which influence species diversity (Stanley et al., 1997; Acuña et al., 2005). Moreover,  
70 chemical pollution emitted from agriculture and urbanized areas can lead to toxic effects, and jointly  
71 contribute to taxonomic and functional homogenization of macroinvertebrate communities (Manfrin  
72 et al., 2013; Ortiz et al., 2005; Sabater et al., 2016; Parreira-de Castro et al., 2018), limiting their  
73 ecological functions and their ability to respond to additional stressors (Clavel et al., 2011).

74 Some studies in the Mediterranean region have shown that the combination of chemical pollution  
75 and hydrological stress may reduce macroinvertebrate species richness and the abundance of  
76 vulnerable taxa such as Plecoptera, Trichoptera and some Ephemeroptera (Bollmohr and Schulz,  
77 2009; Kalogianni et al., 2017; Karaouzas et al., 2018). However, the number of studies scrutinizing  
78 the impact of chemical pollution and hydrological stress on aquatic invertebrates remains limited,  
79 with a focus on assessing chemical impacts on communities living in temporary rivers close to or  
80 during complete desiccation events (Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2016; Soria et al., 2019).

81 In Europe, the ecological status assessment of rivers and other surface water bodies is conducted  
82 following the recommendations provided by the Water Framework Directive (WFD, Directive  
83 2000/60/EC; EC, 2003), which requires the monitoring of phytoplankton, macroalgae, fish and  
84 benthic macroinvertebrates. According to the WFD, the monitoring of macroinvertebrates in surface  
85 waters should be performed once or twice per year (in summer and/or winter), with sampling times  
86 and frequencies varying according to Member State experts' decision. In some Member States, like  
87 Spain, the monitoring of benthic macroinvertebrates is generally performed in spring, which is  
88 considered the optimal sampling season as it yields maximal taxonomic diversity (MAGRAMA, 2013).  
89 Mediterranean rivers subjected to severe hydrological fluctuations and chemical pollution generally  
90 exhibit highest biodiversity declines during low-flow periods (Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2016; Karaouzas  
91 et al., 2018), which generally occur during the summer season or shortly afterwards. Therefore, it is  
92 expected that monitoring of macroinvertebrates during spring does not capture the worst-case  
93 conditions resulting from the combination of these two stress factors.

94 According to the WFD, benthic macroinvertebrate assessments should be performed based on the  
95 taxonomic identification of the monitored individuals. Nevertheless, several studies show that  
96 monitoring or data analyses based on biological traits can complementarily be used to provide  
97 information on the mechanistic response of aquatic invertebrate assemblages to environmental  
98 constraints (Statzner and Bêche, 2010; Piló et al., 2016, Rico et al. 2016; Kuzmanović et al., 2017),  
99 and have been recommended to form part of future regulatory guidelines for the ecological status

100 assessment of surface waters (Baattrup-Pedersen et al., 2017; Berger et al. 2018). Based on the  
101 available literature, we identified traits that are expected to correspond to an increase or decrease  
102 in tolerance of aquatic invertebrates to each of these two stress factors (Table 1). For example, the  
103 tolerance of aquatic invertebrates to chemical pollution may be decreased for organisms that have  
104 gills or small sizes, due to their potential increased chemical uptake (Paul and Meyer, 2001; Rico et  
105 al. 2015). On the other hand, the ability to reproduce using terrestrial eggs, or to perform diapause  
106 or produce cocoons, can contribute to the high tolerance of invertebrates to harsh environments  
107 characteristic of low-flow conditions, by increasing their isolation capacity or delaying their  
108 development (Williams 2005; Bonada et al. 2007b).

109 The main objective of this study was to rate how and to what extent varying hydrological conditions  
110 of Mediterranean rivers modify the effects of anthropogenic chemical pollution on benthic  
111 macroinvertebrate communities. For that purpose, we evaluated the taxonomic and functional  
112 responses of macroinvertebrate communities in the upper Tagus river basin (central Spain),  
113 considering permanent rivers subjected to different magnitudes of hydrological variation and  
114 chemical pollution. Our hypotheses were that pollution is expected to reduce taxonomic and  
115 functional diversity of macroinvertebrate communities, and that such impacts may be larger during  
116 low-flow periods as a result of lower dilution potential and altered physico-chemical conditions.  
117 Additionally, based on the expected responses described in Table 1, we also aimed at identifying  
118 biological traits that could be indicators of hydrological stress conditions and/or pollution status.

## 119 **2. Materials and methods**

### 120 **2.1. Study area and site classification**

121 The Tagus River basin is representative of Mediterranean climate, with high temperatures and  
122 pronounced summer droughts affecting the majority of surface waters. Twelve sites were selected  
123 in the upper part of this basin based on different magnitudes of annual hydrological variation and  
124 sources of anthropogenic pollution (Figure 1). Hydrological variation categories were established

125 based on daily flow data provided by the Tagus River Basin Authority (Figure A1 in Appendix A), which  
126 were measured with flow gauges placed at each sampling site or slightly upstream. Sites were defined  
127 as severely influenced by hydrological variation when more than 15% of the total number of days in  
128 the year had flow values below the 20% quantile of the mean annual flow (Figure A1). The pollution  
129 status was established on the basis of land use within the drainage sub-basin of each sampling site.  
130 Land use was assessed using the Corine land cover layers (2006) and ArcGIS software, as described  
131 in Arenas-Sánchez et al. (2019b). The sites were classified as predominantly (1) natural (forests,  
132 grasslands without human alteration), (2) agricultural, and (3) urban (the latter including industrial  
133 activities). Agricultural sites were those located in sub-basins with >75% agricultural land use and  
134 <1% urban land use, and that were severely affected by hydrological variation (i.e., >15% of the total  
135 number of days being dry). Urban sites were those located in drainage sub-basins with >1% of the  
136 land use classified as urban, presenting less pronounced hydrological variation, potentially due to the  
137 relatively constant wastewater flow contributions from cities. Remaining sites having lower  
138 agricultural and urban influence were classified as natural sites and were notably affected by  
139 seasonal flow variation (Table A1).

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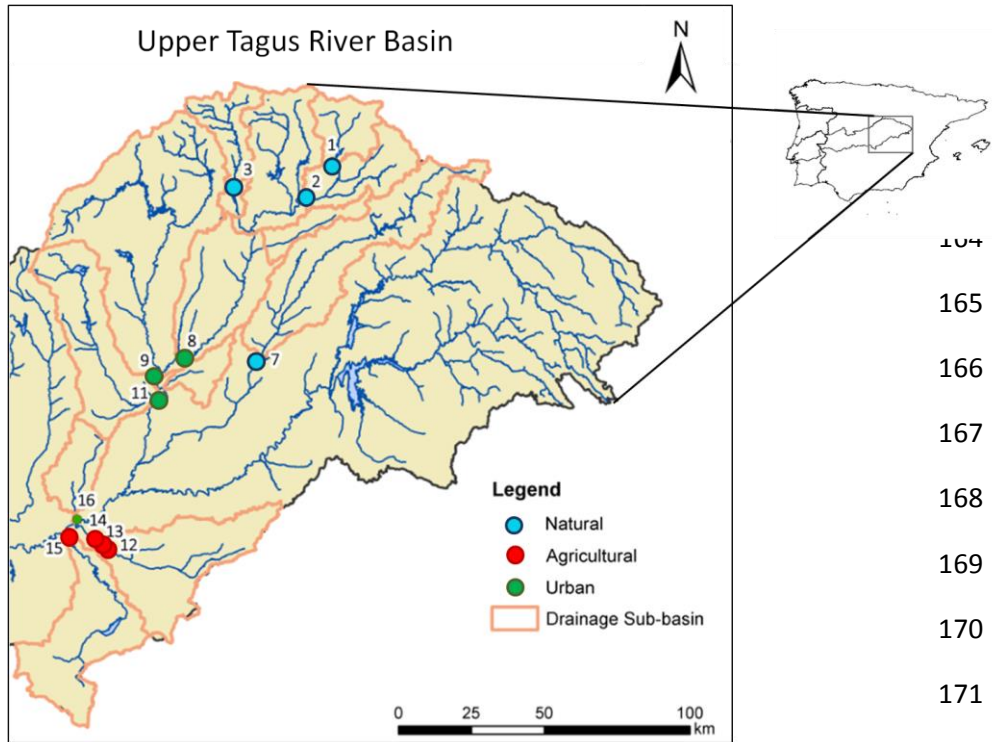
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147 **Table 1.** Trait categories that are expected to influence the tolerance of freshwater invertebrates to pollution  
 148 and low flow conditions by means of resistance or recovery strategies (+: high tolerance; -: low tolerance; +/-:  
 149 high or low tolerance have been observed depending on the dominant response mechanism).

Trait	Trait Category		Pollution		Low flow
Size	Small size <1cm	-	Larger surface/volume ratio, high exposure to some toxicants <sup>1</sup>		
Life cycle duration/ No. cycles per year	Short<1year	+	High population internal and external recovery capacity <sup>2</sup>	+	High population internal and external recovery capacity <sup>3</sup>
Reproduction type	Asexual	+	High internal recovery capacity through fast reproduction <sup>4,5</sup> Larger surface/volume ratio, high exposure to toxicants than eggs in clutches <sup>6</sup>	+	High internal recovery capacity through fast reproduction <sup>3,5</sup>
	Isolated eggs	-			
	Clutches	+			+
Dispersal	Terrestrial/ Vegetation clutches				
	Aerial active		Recolonization of polluted waters from unpolluted areas <sup>7</sup>	+	Recolonization of less dry sites from dried riverbeds or stagnant sites <sup>3</sup>
Substrate relation	Aquatic passive	+	Avoidance of unfavorable conditions	+	Avoidance of unfavorable conditions
	Burrowers	+	Benefit from the deposition of organic matter <sup>8</sup>	+	Benefit from the deposition of organic matter <sup>9</sup>
Resistance forms	Diapause	+	Additional isolation from the environment or stopping development during unfavorable conditions <sup>10</sup>	+	Additional isolation from the environment or stopping development during unfavorable conditions <sup>3,11</sup>
	Resistant eggs	+			
	Cocoons	+			
Respiration	Gills	-	Higher exposure to toxicants in gill-or tegument breathers due to higher surface/volume ratios and higher chemical uptake differing between compounds <sup>1,7</sup> Oxygen depletion due to high organic matter content favors aerial respiration over gills/tegument <sup>10</sup> . Lower chemical uptake <sup>7</sup>	+	More specialized structures (i.e. aerial or gills over tegument) are beneficial under low oxygen conditions due to more stagnant waters, high organic matter and high temperature <sup>3,10</sup>
	Tegument	-		-	
	Aerial	+		+	
Food/Feeding type	Predation	-	Large predators are exposed to toxicants by food ingestion <sup>1</sup>	+	Higher intra-specific competition can lead to dominance of predators <sup>3</sup>
	Detritus<1mm	+/-	Benefit from deposition of detritus associated with organic pollution <sup>1,12</sup> , but polluted sediments favors chemical uptake <sup>12</sup>	+	Benefit from deposition of fine detritus under low flows <sup>13</sup>
	Macrophytes			+	More abundant macrophyte (shredders) and periphyton biomass (scrapers) <sup>3</sup>
	Microphytes		+		

150 1: Dolédec and Statzner (2008); 2: Townsend and Hildrew (1994); 3: Bonada et al. (2007b); 4: Dolédec et al. (2006); 5: Lange et al.  
 151 (2014); 6: Díaz et al. (2008); 7: Rico et al. (2015); 8: Berger et al. (2018) ; 9: Usseglio-Polatera et al. (2000); 10: Statzner and Bêche  
 152 (2010); 11: Williams (2005); 12: Piló et al. (2016) ; 13: Feio and Dolédec (2012).

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173 **Figure 1.** Map showing the study area (upper Tagus river basin) and selected sampling sites. Sites are marked  
174 with different colors according to their established category.

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## 176 2.2. Sampling and analysis of abiotic parameters

177

178 Three sampling campaigns were carried out at each sampling site in 2016: spring (April 11-14),  
179 summer (July 11-14) and autumn (November 21-24). Each of these sampling campaigns aimed at  
180 covering three representative stages of the hydrological cycle of Mediterranean rivers, namely: (1)  
181 base flow conditions, which corresponds to the period with highest precipitation, (2) contraction  
182 phase during summer dry periods, and (3) expansion phase, after the first autumn rainfall events.

183

184 Water temperature, dissolved oxygen (DO), electrical conductivity (EC) and total suspended solids  
185 (TSS) were measured in the middle section of the river transect with a portable multiparameter probe  
186 (HANNA Instruments, USA, model HI98194). At each site and sampling date, flow values ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ) were  
187 obtained from the daily series monitored by the Tagus River Basin Authority at the nearest flow



188 gauge. Substrate composition was recorded as the percentage of stones and blocks, gravel and  
189 pebbles, sand, clay and fine inorganic material, macrophytes, algae, plant debris and mud (Table A2).  
190 A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) performed on the substrate proportions and a one-way ANOVA  
191 on the PCA scores of the first-two axes, indicated a minor influence of substrate for separating sites  
192 (see detailed description in Appendix A and Figure A2), so substrate composition was not considered  
193 further in the analyses. Water samples were taken for the analysis of nutrients ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$   
194 and total P), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), metals (Mn, Fe, Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb, Hg) and 52 organic  
195 contaminants: 20 pesticides and 32 point source contaminants (PSC). PSCs included 24  
196 pharmaceuticals (9 of them antibiotics), 4 estrogens and steroids, and 3 alkaloids and other  
197 stimulants (see Rico et al. (2019) and Arenas-Sánchez et al. (2019b) for further details on the sampling  
198 and analysis of nutrients and water contaminants).

199 Toxicity of pollutant mixtures for invertebrates in the collected samples was evaluated using Toxic  
200 Units (TU). The TU approach relies on the summation of the individual toxic pressures exerted by  
201 each compound to a given standard test species assuming concentration addition (Sprague, 1971;  
202 Liess and Von Der Ohe, 2005). In this study, they were calculated as the sum of the ratio between the  
203 measured environmental concentration of each chemical and the corresponding EC50-48 for  
204 *Daphnia magna* (using immobility as endpoint). TUs were calculated separately for metals, pesticides  
205 and PSCs. EC50 values were derived from laboratory experiments, or from QSARs (Quantitative  
206 Structure-Activity Relationships) when experimental data were not available. Further details on the  
207 selection of toxicity values and the TU calculations are provided in Appendix A.

208

## 209 **2.3. Macroinvertebrate data**

### 210 **2.3.1. Sampling and identification**

211 Three macroinvertebrate samples were collected at each sampling site per sampling campaign.  
212 Samples were taken using a Surber net from the left, middle and right sections of the river, trying to  
213 cover the main available habitats. The outlining frame was placed on the river bottom with the net

214 pointing downstream and all substrate within the frame was rubbed or stirred at a depth of 5 to 10  
215 cm for 2 minutes to collect invertebrates. Organisms were transferred to a plastic container and  
216 preserved with 70% ethanol until further identification in the laboratory.

217 Taxonomic identification was performed based on Tachet et al. (2010). Due to damage or lost  
218 features of some of the preserved organisms, identification at genus level was not possible for all  
219 taxa. Consequently, to keep consistency, taxonomic classification was done at the family level.  
220 Chironomidae was one of the most abundant families. To adjust the weight of this family in the  
221 analysis, we considered identifying five subfamilies or tribes (Orthoclaadiinae, Tanypodinae,  
222 Diamesinae, Tanytarsini, Chironomini). Since identification for this group was not always possible at  
223 the same taxonomic level, a compensative adjustment for the coarser taxonomic resolution was  
224 performed according to the method described in Appendix A. Macroinvertebrate samples collected  
225 at each site were pooled together and abundances were  $\ln(x+1)$  transformed to reduce the impact  
226 of dominant taxa and to approximate a normal distribution of the data.

### 227 **2.3.2. Biological traits**

228 Information on ten biological traits (see Table A6 for full set of categories analyzed) for the  
229 invertebrate taxa identified in this study were extracted from Tachet et al. (2010). In this database,  
230 the affinity of each taxon to the different trait categories is quantified using a “fuzzy” coding approach  
231 (Chevenet et al., 1994). This method gives an affinity score per taxon and trait category ranging from  
232 “0” (no affinity) to X (X, the strongest affinity; with X varying from 3 to 5 depending on the trait). This  
233 way of coding is described elsewhere (e.g. Bournaud et al., 1992; Chevenet et al., 1994), and allows  
234 for considering the varying nature of trait sources, and the within-family or within-genus trait  
235 variation. Affinity scores were standardized so that their sum for a given taxon and a given trait  
236 equaled one, yielding trait category profiles for each taxon (see e.g. Gayraud et al., 2003).

237 Matching of our invertebrate monitoring dataset to the Tachet et al. (2010) database was done at  
238 the family level, and trait category profiles were averaged across genera. Since some trait differences

239 are expected between Mediterranean and non-Mediterranean taxa (Bonada and Dolédec, 2011),  
240 family trait averages were calculated only considering the Mediterranean genera identified by  
241 Bonada and Dolédec (2011). In this way, each genus was given a weight proportional to the number  
242 of Iberian species recorded in the Freshwater Ecology database  
243 (<https://www.freshwaterecology.info>) and the Global Biodiversity Information Facility database  
244 (GBIF; <https://www.gbif.org>). When a genus had no identified or recorded species, a minimum value  
245 of one was given. For generalist taxa such as Diptera and Oligochaeta, no Mediterranean genera  
246 could be identified in most cases, so average values for all genera included in Tachet et al. (2010)  
247 were used.

## 248 **2.4. Data analyses**

### 249 **2.4.1. Abiotic parameters**

250 Abiotic parameters were individually assessed for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The type of  
251 transformation giving the best fit (S-W statistic close to 1,  $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ) for each variable was  
252 selected for further analyses. PCAs were performed on hydrological, physical and chemical, and  
253 contaminant (i.e., TUs) parameters considering all seasons together to evaluate overall differences  
254 between site groups (natural, agricultural, urban), and comparing the three sampling seasons within  
255 groups of sites to assess temporal differences. Statistical differences between seasons or between  
256 groups of sites were assessed by a Monte-Carlo test with 999 permutations on the variance of  
257 environmental parameters explained by groups. Finally, a one-way ANOVA was applied to each  
258 variable to account for significant differences between groups of sites, and to test for seasonal  
259 differences within each group of sites.

### 260 **2.5.2. Structural and functional indices**

261 The effects of chemical pollution and hydrological variation on the structural and functional  
262 characteristics of the macroinvertebrate community were evaluated in terms of taxonomic and trait-  
263 based richness and diversity indices. In addition, we calculated the Iberian Biological Monitoring

264 Working Party (IBMWP) index (Alba-Tercedor et al., 2004), which is commonly used for assessing the  
265 biological status of surface waters in Spain according to the WFD. We evaluated taxonomic richness  
266 and diversity based on the total number of taxonomic entries (i.e., families) and the Simpson index,  
267 respectively. Functional richness was calculated as the amount of niche or functional space occupied  
268 by the trait categories of all taxa in the community (Villéger et al., 2008). Functional diversity was  
269 assessed using the Rao quadratic entropy (RaoQ, Champely and Chessel, 2002), which sums the trait  
270 distances of any pair of taxa weighted by their relative abundance. For these indices, significant  
271 differences between the three groups of sites were tested by one-way ANOVAs followed by a  
272 pairwise t-test performed at each season.

### 273 **2.5.3. Relationship between taxa distribution and their traits**

274 Co-inertia analysis (Dolédec and Chessel, 1994; Dray et al., 2003) was performed to assess the  
275 correlation between taxa distribution and trait data from each season, and to evaluate the  
276 contribution of seasons to the differences between sites. A significant correlation would be the sign  
277 that trait selection operates according to site and season. Before co-inertia analysis, taxonomic and  
278 trait profiles of taxa were analyzed using Fuzzy Correspondence Analysis (Chevenet et al., 1994). In  
279 these analyses, taxa were given the same weight ( $1/n$  being  $n$  the number of taxa), so that the  
280 influence of highly abundant taxa was reduced (see Chevenet et al., 1994). Rare taxa with less than  
281 two organisms in only one sampling site per season were not included in the analysis. We used the  
282 *RV*-coefficient (Robert and Escoufier, 1976) to measure the correlation between trait data and taxa  
283 distribution and we assessed the significance of the *RV*-coefficient using 999 random Monte-Carlo  
284 permutations of the taxa distribution table. The amount of random values higher than our observed  
285 *RV*-coefficient gave us a simulated p-value.

286 To test for differences between groups of sites with different pollution level and hydrological  
287 variation, one-way ANOVAs followed by t-tests were performed on the site scores of the first-two  
288 co-inertia axes. Besides, taxa with scores between the highest absolute values and 75% of the lowest

289 (absolute) value, along the two axes, were selected as those having the largest contribution to the  
290 separation of sites. Finally, to assess trait-specific responses to pollution, hydrological variation, and  
291 especially to pollution under low flow conditions, only trait categories whose contribution summed  
292 90% of the variance along the first two co-inertia axes (when significant) were considered in each  
293 season. Their distribution along the co-inertia axes was assessed, determining whether they were  
294 more prevalent in polluted or natural sites. Only trait categories showing an increase in the relative  
295 contribution to the variance of the first two co-inertia axes in summer and/or autumn (as potentially  
296 delayed low flow period) were considered for further statistical analysis. We computed trait category  
297 profiles by multiplying the relative abundance of taxa per site and frequency of trait categories of  
298 taxa. One-way ANOVA followed by t-test was applied to each trait category profile in natural,  
299 agricultural and urban sites in each season. These final tests allowed evaluating the seasonal variation  
300 on the differential occurrence of those categories in each group of sites, as signs of response to  
301 hydrological variation (i.e. frequency increase in natural sites during low flow periods) or enhanced  
302 pollution effect in agricultural and/or urban sites.

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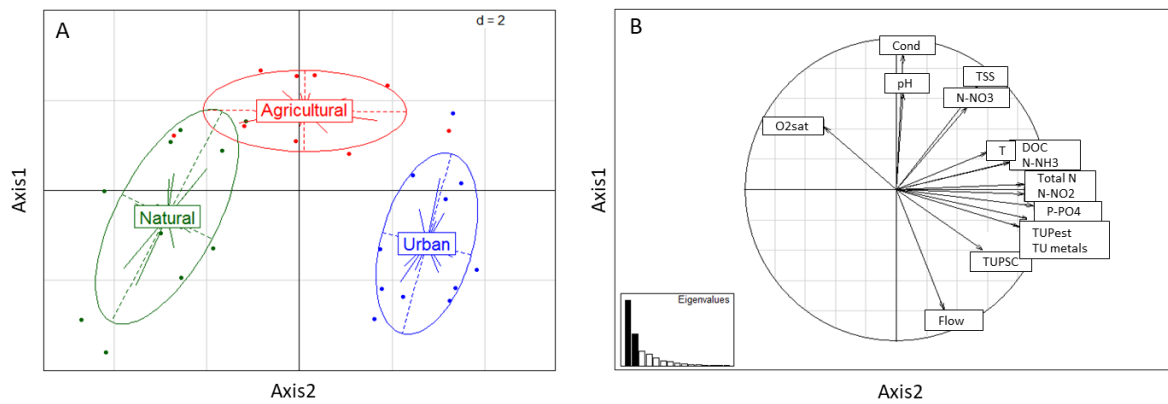
304 All statistical analyses were performed in the R environment (R Development Core Team, 2019), using  
305 the ade4 (Dray and Dufour, 2007), vegan (Oksanen et al., 2016) and FD (Laliberté et al., 2014)  
306 packages. Due to the large number of tests performed, corrections for multiple testing were applied  
307 (i.e., false discovery rate).

### 308 **3. Results**

#### 309 **3.1. Spatial and temporal variation of abiotic parameters**

310 The first two axes of the PCA performed on the abiotic parameters accounted for 43% and 21% of  
311 the total variance, respectively. Along the first PCA axis,  $TU_{\text{Pesticides}}$ , total N, N-NO<sub>2</sub>, P-PO<sub>4</sub> and  $TU_{\text{Metals}}$ ,  
312 were the most contributive parameters separating urban from natural sites (Figure 2, Table 2). Other  
313 parameters with less influence on that axis were DOC and N-NH<sub>3</sub>. Along the second PCA axis, higher  
314 N-NO<sub>3</sub>, TSS, conductivity, pH values and lower flow isolated agricultural sites (Figure 2, Table 2). A

315 Monte-Carlo permutation test demonstrated that the three groups of sites were significantly  
316 different (simulated p-value = 0.001,  $R^2 = 0.478$ ).



317  
318 **Figure 2.** Results of a PCA performed on the abiotic parameters measured in the 12 sampling sites in spring,  
319 summer and autumn. A) Distribution of the sampling sites (dots) and groups of sites (ellipses) along the first-  
320 two axes (noted Axis1 and Axis2). B) Correlation circle showing the abiotic parameters loadings along the first  
321 two PCA axes. Insert gives the diagram of eigenvalues (maximum: 6.5).

322  
323 In addition, the PCA and Monte-Carlo tests performed on abiotic parameters within groups of sites  
324 showed that the sampling season significantly influenced the parameter values in natural (simulated  
325 p-value: 0.026,  $R^2$ : 0.32) and agricultural (simulated p-value: 0.002,  $R^2$ : 0.40) sites, but only marginally  
326 in urban sites (simulated p-value: 0.075,  $R^2$ : 0.27). Marked differences occurred between spring and  
327 summer samples, particularly in agricultural sites (Figure A3). Water flow was noticeably lower in all  
328 groups of sites in summer, but this seasonal difference was not significant due to the variability  
329 among sites (Table A3). N-NO<sub>2</sub> and N-NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations increased in summer in all groups of sites,  
330 with higher values in polluted sites, especially in the urban ones (Table 2, Table A3). Overall, oxygen  
331 saturation was lower in summer and autumn, with values below 70-80% in some samples taken in  
332 agricultural sites; whereas in urban sites this parameter was regularly maintained below 70% in all  
333 samples. Suspended solids (TSS) showed similar values for agricultural and urban sites in spring;  
334 whereas they increased in all sites during summer, becoming slightly higher in agricultural sites (Table  
335 A3). Water temperature was expectedly up to 7°C higher in summer in all groups of sites but was not

336 especially higher in sites with lower flows (Table A3).  $TU_{PSC}$  did not show a clear seasonal variation,  
 337 while  $TU_{Pesticides}$  and  $TU_{Metals}$  showed significant seasonal variation in agricultural sites, with higher  
 338 values in spring and summer, respectively (Table 2, Table A3).

339 **Table 2.** Mean ( $\pm$  standard deviation) parameter values for each group of sites, and ANOVA p-values (P)  
 340 indicating statistical differences between seasons. -: not significant.

	Natural		Agricultural		Urban	
	Mean $\pm$ SD	P	Mean $\pm$ SD	P	Mean $\pm$ SD	P
Flow ( $m^3 s^{-1}$ )	1.24 $\pm$ 0.83	-	0.15 $\pm$ 0.13	-	8.76 $\pm$ 7.18	-
Temperature ( $^{\circ}C$ )	12.0 $\pm$ 4.3	0.001	13.9 $\pm$ 5.1	<0.001	16.7 $\pm$ 5.91	<0.001
pH	7.98 $\pm$ 0.84	-	8.10 $\pm$ 0.53	0.053	7.70 $\pm$ 0.68	-
Conductivity ( $\mu S cm^{-1}$ )	1871 $\pm$ 1718	-	5040 $\pm$ 287	-	1383 $\pm$ 869	-
TSS ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	24.2 $\pm$ 31.3	-	113 $\pm$ 114	<0.001	57.2 $\pm$ 63.1	-
O <sub>2</sub> sat (%)	84.3 $\pm$ 10.2	0.043	81.7 $\pm$ 20.6	-	66.9 $\pm$ 13.5	-
DOC ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	2.94 $\pm$ 1.42	-	6.03 $\pm$ 1.33	-	6.76 $\pm$ 1.35	-
N-NH <sub>3</sub> ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	0.01 $\pm$ 0.02	0.043	0.08 $\pm$ 0.18	-	0.19 $\pm$ 0.26	0.069
N-NO <sub>2</sub> ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	0.006 $\pm$ 0.006	0.001	0.05 $\pm$ 0.07	0.067	0.42 $\pm$ 0.46	0.069
N-NO <sub>3</sub> ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	1.65 $\pm$ 1.3	-	5.53 $\pm$ 2.87	-	3.61 $\pm$ 2.16	-
Total N ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	1.7 $\pm$ 1.32	-	6.24 $\pm$ 2.80	-	10.2 $\pm$ 3.65	-
P-PO <sub>4</sub> ( $mg L^{-1}$ )	0.005 $\pm$ 0.004	-	0.06 $\pm$ 0.07	-	0.34 $\pm$ 0.28	-
$TU_{Metals}$	0.08 $\pm$ 0.05	-	0.15 $\pm$ 0.08	0.019	0.51 $\pm$ 0.30	-
$TU_{Pesticides}$	1E-05 $\pm$ 2E-05	-	1E-04 $\pm$ 1E-04	0.009	2E-03 $\pm$ 1E-03	-
$TU_{PSC}$	6E-05 $\pm$ 7E-05	-	3E-04 $\pm$ 4E-04	-	4E-04 $\pm$ 3E-04	-
$TU_{Total}$	7E-05 $\pm$ 7E-05	-	4E-04 $\pm$ 4E-04	-	2E-03 $\pm$ 1E-03	-

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342

### 343 3.2. Impact of chemical pollution and hydrological variation on invertebrate communities

#### 344 3.2.1. Structural and functional indices

345 Taxonomic and functional richness, functional diversity and the IBMWP (Iberian Biological  
 346 Monitoring Working Party) index showed significant (ANOVA p-value<0.05) or marginally significant  
 347 (ANOVA 0.05 $\leq$ p-value<0.10) higher values in natural than in agricultural and urban sites (Figure 3;  
 348 Table A4). These differences were larger in summer and autumn for most indices, with generally  
 349 higher values in summer for natural sites as compared to spring. Moreover, in summer, agricultural  
 350 sites showed lower values in taxonomic and functional richness compared to the urban sites. Such  
 351 trend was also observed, to a lower extent, in autumn (Figure 3, Table A4). Functional diversity was

352 consistently low in agricultural sites but increased in urban sites in summer and autumn (Figure 3).  
 353 The IBMWP index showed significant differences related to the three sample groups but did not show  
 354 significant seasonal differences within each sample group. Taxonomic diversity did not show clear  
 355 differences among groups (Table A4; Figure A4).

356  
 357 **3.2.2. Taxonomic and trait response to pollution and hydrological variation**

358 **3.2.2.1 Relationship between taxa distribution and their traits**

359 The co-inertia analysis performed at each season showed that the taxa distribution and their traits  
 360 were significantly correlated, indicating a non-random distribution of traits according to sites on each  
 361 season (Table A5; Figure 4). The percentage of variance explained by the first co-inertia axis ranged  
 362 from 26% to 30%, and from 18% to 24% for the second co-inertia axis, so that about 50% of the total  
 363 variability was considered by the first two axes in each season (Table A5).

364  
 365 Along the first co-inertia axis, polluted sites (agricultural and urban) were separated from less natural  
 366 sites at each season, with a more significant difference between sites in summer compared to the  
 367 other seasons (Table 3). Furthermore, agricultural sites were significantly distinguished from urban  
 368 sites on the first co-inertia axis in summer, with the latter sites showing the largest differences with  
 369 natural sites (Figure 4, Table 3). In autumn, polluted sites (agricultural and urban) were significantly  
 370 separated along the second co-inertia axis (Table 3).

371 **Table 3.** Results from the one-way ANOVA and pairwise t-test (p-values) performed on the site scores  
 372 corresponding to the first and second co-inertia axis (A: natural; B: agricultural; C: urban). n.s.: not significant;  
 373 NA: not assessed due to the non-significant differences in the ANOVA.

	Co-inertia Axis1				Co-inertia Axis2			
	ANOVA	Pairwise t-test			ANOVA	Pairwise t-test		
		A-B	A-C	B-C		A-B	A-C	B-C
Spring	0.040	n.s. <sup>1</sup>	0.015	n.s.	n.s.	NA	NA	NA
Summer	0.001	0.020	<0.001	0.010	n.s.	NA	NA	NA
Autumn	0.006	0.004	0.005	n.s.	0.030	n.s.	n.s.	0.010

374 <sup>1</sup>0.1>p-value>0.05

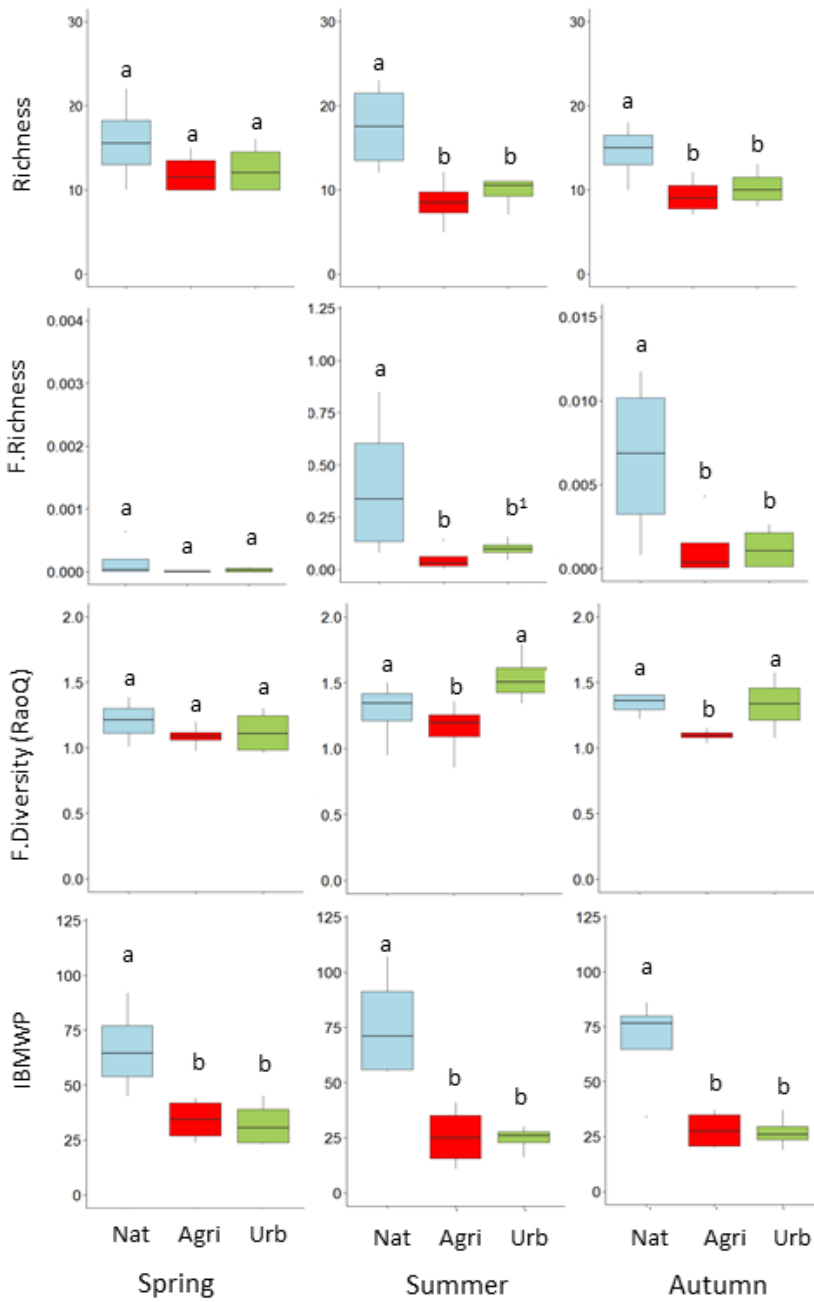


375 Overall, Hirudinea (Glossiphoniidae, Erpobdellidae), Gastropoda (Physidae), Oligochaeta  
376 (Lumbriculidae, Enchytraeidae, Tubificidae), Diptera (Psychodidae, Tipulidae, Tanitarsini,  
377 Chironomini) showed higher relative abundance in sites affected by pollution (agricultural and  
378 urban); while Plecoptera (Leuctridae, Capniidae), Ephemeroptera (Potamanthidae, or  
379 Heptageniidae), Trichoptera (Rhyacophilidae) and Bivalvia (Sphaeriidae) were more abundant in  
380 more natural sites (Figure 4B). The number of taxa with a large contribution to the differences  
381 between groups of sites along each co-inertia axis was higher in summer and autumn (i.e. taxa  
382 with scores above the threshold; Figure 4B). In these two seasons, Odonata (Aeshnidae) and  
383 Coleoptera (Elmidae) or Diptera (Tipulidae or Athericidae, especially in autumn) were more  
384 prominent in natural sites. Caenidae (Ephemeroptera) were strongly associated with agricultural  
385 sites (Figure 4B). This taxon, together with other taxa such as Lymnaeidae (Gastropoda) or  
386 Psychodidae (Diptera), contributed to the significant differences between polluted and natural  
387 sites in summer and autumn, as well as increased abundances of pollution tolerant taxa in urban  
388 sites such as Glossiphoniidae or Erpobdellidae (Figure 4B; Table B1).

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**Figure 3.** Taxonomic and functional richness, functional diversity (RaoQ) and Iberian Biological Monitoring Working Party (IBMWP) values in the natural (Nat), agricultural (Agri) and urban (Urb) sites in spring, summer and autumn. Lowercase letters indicate significant differences (pairwise t-test, p-value < 0.05) between groups of sites within each season. <sup>1</sup>0.1 > p-value > 0.05.

### 414 **3.2.2.2. Trait distribution in the sampled communities**

415 The main traits responding to pollution included, by decreasing order of importance,  
416 reproduction type, resistance forms, number of cycles per year and respiration, in all sampling  
417 seasons (Figure 4C; Table A6). Altogether, these traits explained up to 60% of the total explained  
418 variance along the first co-inertia axis in spring (Table A6). In summer and autumn, the role of  
419 these traits contributing to differences between groups of sites on the first-two co-inertia axes  
420 was slightly reduced, and the contribution of other traits such as dispersal strategies, feeding  
421 habits and substrate relation increased (Table A6).

422 Several trait categories showed significant differences between groups of sites (ANOVA p-  
423 value<0.05) in summer and/or autumn (Figure 5, Table A7), and notable changes in profiles  
424 between seasons (see Figure A5 for significant categories with no notable temporal changes).  
425 Large size, asexual reproduction, aquatic passive dispersion and the use of cocoons as resistance  
426 form showed no significant differences between groups in spring, but had a significantly higher  
427 frequency in urban sites than in natural sites in summer. In agricultural sites, the frequency of  
428 those traits was lower than in urban sites, but tended to be higher than in natural sites, while in  
429 autumn differences between most of these trait frequencies tended to decrease again (Figure  
430 5). These trait categories can be classified as having a response to the co-occurrence of pollution  
431 and hydrological variation, with a most prominent response in urban sites.

432 The use of gills or tegument as respiration mechanism, and the feeding type (deposit and  
433 macrophyte feeders) showed significant differences between groups in all sampling seasons,  
434 therefore showing a clearer response to pollution (Figure 5). The relative frequency of  
435 tegument-based respiration and the relative frequency of deposit feeders increased in polluted  
436 sites, with higher values in urban sites as compared to the agricultural ones, especially in  
437 summer. On the other hand, the proportion of gill breathers and macrophyte feeders was lower

438 in polluted sites as compared to the natural ones. Within the polluted sites, the urban sites  
439 presented lower values than the agricultural ones, particularly during summer (Figure 5).

## 440 **4. Discussion**

### 441 **4.1. Abiotic parameters**

442 Observed seasonal trends of abiotic parameters can be interpreted as an indication of potential  
443 stressors and increased risk to aquatic communities during low flow periods. We found higher  
444 N-NO<sub>2</sub> and N-NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in summer, especially in urban sites, which may be a result of  
445 lower river dilution capacity and of the influence of higher temperatures on the level of un-  
446 dissociated ammonia (N-NH<sub>3</sub>). This also supports the fact that flowing waters close to urban  
447 areas were most likely sustained by wastewater effluents (treated or untreated) during low flow  
448 periods (Rice and Westerhoff, 2017). Lower oxygen levels in agricultural sites in summer and  
449 autumn may also indicate an increase in organic matter concentration related to the ecosystem  
450 contraction and accelerated respiration rates associated with temperature increase, as well as  
451 lowered oxygen solubility (Carere et al., 2011). A more evident effect of ecosystems contraction  
452 and turbulence processes associated with rapid temperature inversions under low flows was  
453 observed for suspended solids (TSS) in agricultural sites in summer, as also described by Williams  
454 (2005). Increased water temperature in all groups of sites in summer means it is not possible to  
455 consider this variable as an individual stressor, but potential combined effects with other  
456 stressors such as contaminants are likely (Holmstrup et al., 2010; Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2019a).  
457 TU<sub>PSC</sub> did not show a clear seasonal variation, suggesting that there is a relatively constant  
458 emission of PSCs in the evaluated rivers (Arenas-Sánchez et al. 2019b; Rico et al. 2019). The  
459 seasonal variation of TU<sub>Pesticides</sub> in agricultural sites was most likely related to seasonal pesticide  
460 application patterns, with the highest concentrations and toxic pressure found related to  
461 herbicides in spring (see Rico et al., 2019; Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2019b). Yet, it should be noted  
462 that herbicide toxicity values were well below acute and chronic toxicity thresholds for  
463 invertebrates (i.e. 0.001 and 0.1, respectively). TU<sub>Metals</sub> also showed a clear seasonality. In this

464 case, the increase in toxic pressure in summer can be related to the low water flow during the  
465 ecosystems' contraction period. Therefore, our study shows that a series of environmental  
466 conditions that are most likely associated to flow reduction, together with higher toxic metal  
467 pressure, are more recurrent in agricultural sites compared to natural or urban sites. Although  
468 having higher and permanently flowing waters, urban sites also presented a potential increased  
469 risk in summer due to lowered dilution potential.

#### 470 **4.2. Structural and functional indices**

471 The stronger detrimental effects of pollution during low flow conditions were indicated by several  
472 taxonomic and functional indices. The most pronounced differences between natural, and  
473 agricultural and urban groups of sites, were observed in summer and in autumn, with the lowest  
474 values found in agricultural sites. It should be noted that during the study year, the annual minimum  
475 flow was generally reached in late summer-early autumn, slightly before our autumn sampling  
476 campaign (see Figure A1). This may explain the large community impacts observed within this season,  
477 and is in line with the study by Karaouzas et al (2018), who showed that invertebrate communities  
478 show maximum responses to water stress (based on variables such as discharge or mean duration of  
479 low spills) within 45 days after the water contraction phase.

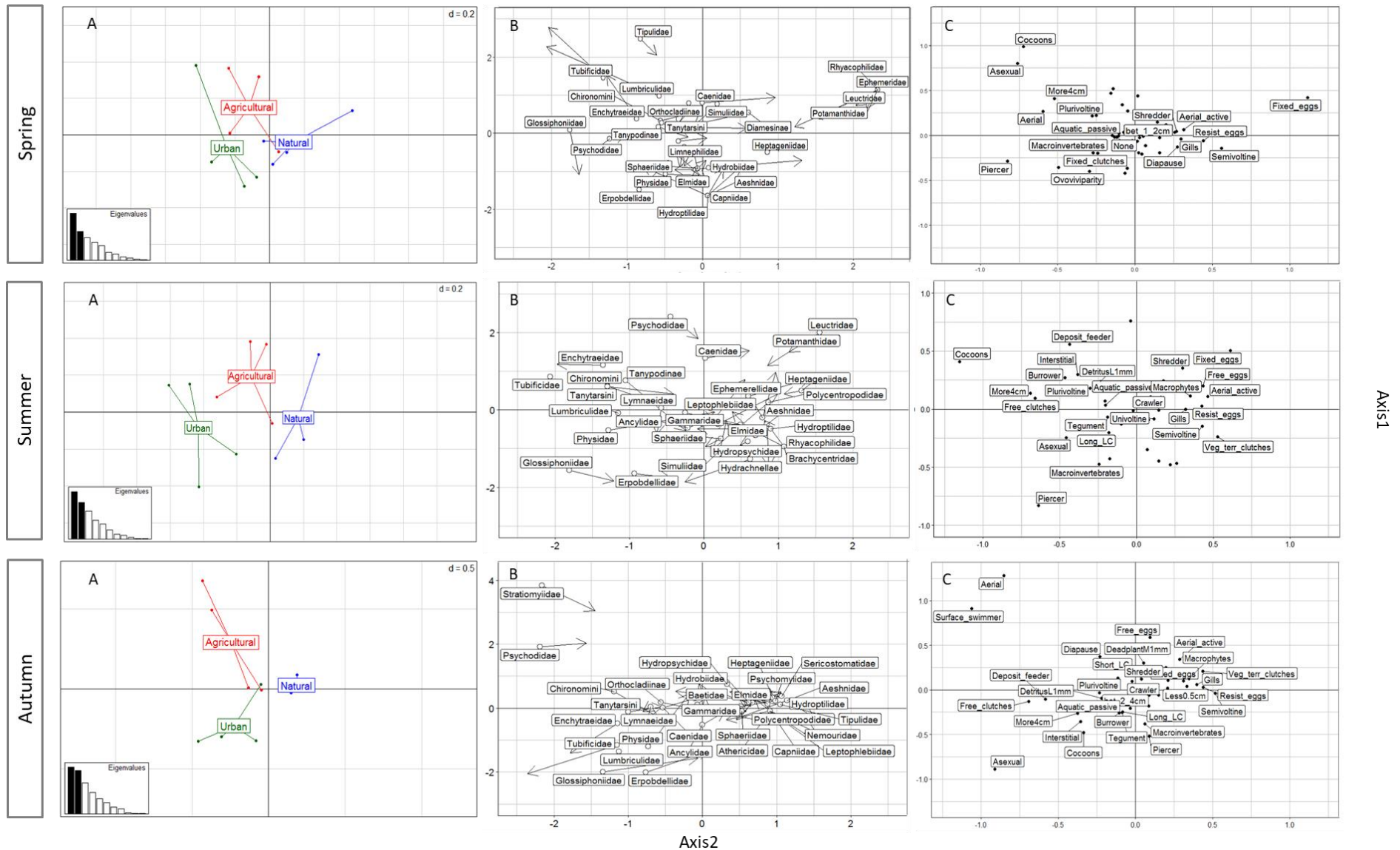
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481 Functional diversity tended to increase in urban sites in summer and autumn as compared to natural  
482 and agricultural sites. This suggests that the diversity of trait categories has more uniform patterns  
483 under stable polluted environments, as previously found by Parreira-de Castro et al. (2017) and Mor  
484 et al. (2019). However, Clavel et al. (2011) also describe that generalist taxa present in these polluted  
485 environments tend to be less complementary than specialist taxa in niche-rich environments, which  
486 leads to lower ecosystem productivity and resilience (Fynke and Snyder, 2008). Functional richness  
487 showed very low values in all groups of sites in spring as compared to summer and autumn, which  
488 can be interpreted as a sign of functional redundancy during spring and the need for ecological  
489 specialization during low flow periods. On the other hand, increased values for several indexes in

490 natural sites during summer may be related with the fact that initial phases of ecosystem contraction  
491 or flow reduction can lead to higher habitat heterogeneity, density and diversity values (Acuña et al.  
492 2005; Datry et al., 2016; Arenas-Sánchez et al. 2016). Taxonomic diversity did not show clear  
493 differences among site groups. This can be related to the fact that the monitored communities were  
494 dominated by few taxa with high abundances in each group of sites (Table B1). Finally, our study  
495 showed that the IBMWP index allowed us to distinguish differences between site groups but was not  
496 sensitive to structural community changes related to seasonal pollution variability between sites  
497 and/or hydrological periods.

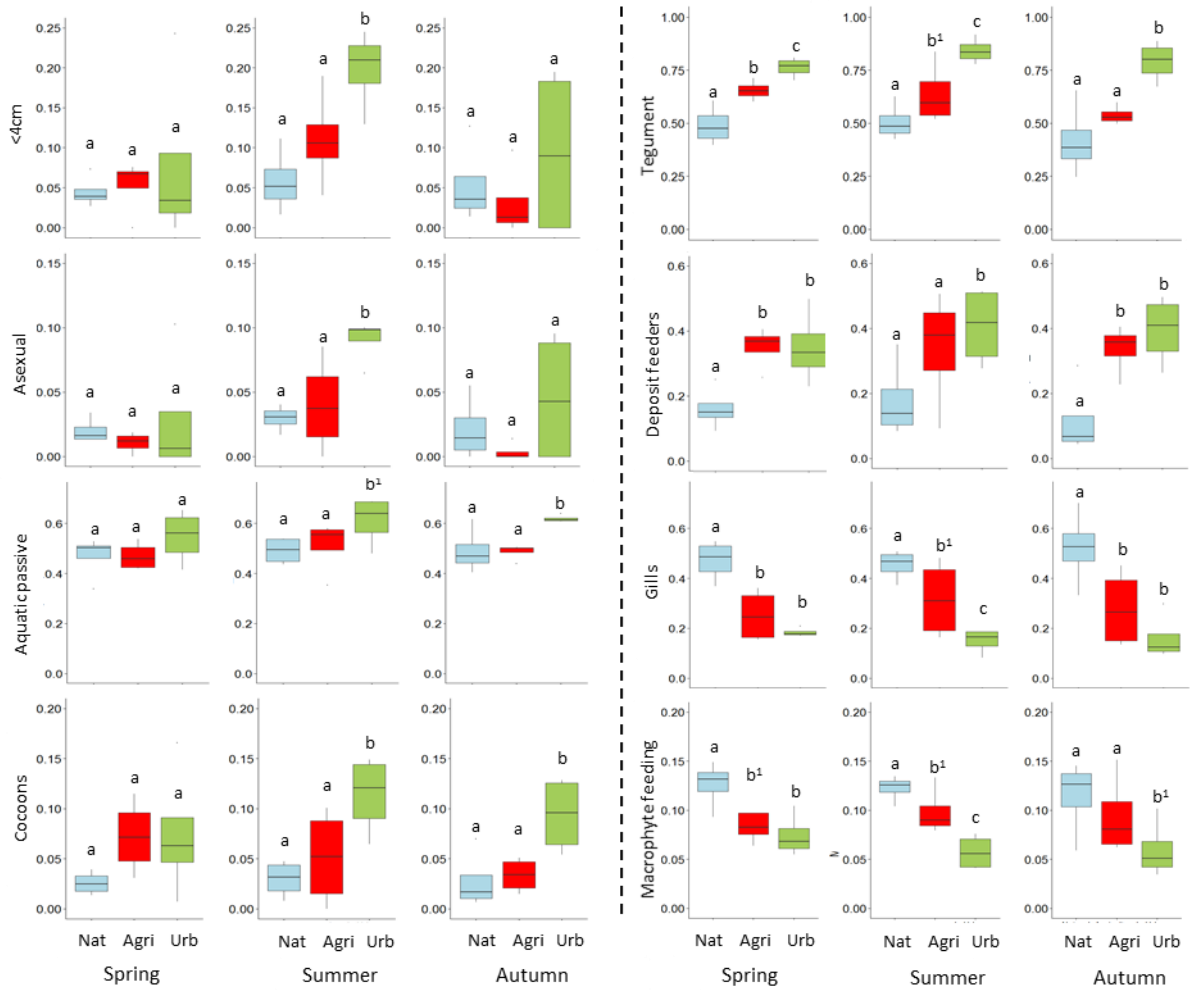
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499 **4.3. Invertebrate communities and their traits in response to pollution and hydrological variation**

500 We found a significant correlation between the abundance of taxa and their traits, and significant  
501 differences between groups of sites and seasons. This indicates that a selection of trait categories operates  
502 according to varying chemical pollution and flow conditions. The differences between groups of sites  
503 increased in summer and autumn (as well as the number of taxa with a large contribution to it; Figure 4B),  
504 which is an additional indication of the influence of flow conditions and chemical pollution on the  
505 monitored macroinvertebrate communities.

506 The majority of taxonomic responses observed in our analysis correspond to tolerant or sensitive taxa to  
507 stress identified elsewhere. For example, the increase in Odonata, Coleoptera and Diptera abundances  
508 observed in natural sites under hydrological stress conditions (i.e., summer and autumn) has already been  
509 shown by several authors (Williams, 2005; Bonada et al., 2007a; Skoulikidis et al., 2011). On the other hand,  
510 Caenidae and several Diptera taxa have shown a relatively high tolerance to pollution and hydrological  
511 stress in other studies performed in the Mediterranean region (Sabater et al., 2016; Kalogianni et al., 2017),  
512 which is in line with the observed taxonomic descriptions of our agricultural sites in summer and autumn.



513 **Figure 4.** Scores of sites (A), taxa (B) and trait categories (C) along the first and second axes of the co-inertia analysis performed separately on each season. Insert gives the diagram  
 514 of eigenvalues. In (A) sites are grouped by level of pollution and hydrological variation (see acronyms in the text). In (B) arrows represent the difference between the position of  
 515 each taxon from its abundance in sites and from its trait profile. Longer arrows mean less coherence for a given family.



517

518 **Figure 5.** Trait categories showing significant differences (ANOVA  $p$ -value $<0.05$ ) in at least one season  
 519 between natural, agricultural and urban sites, with notable change in trait frequencies between spring,  
 520 summer and autumn. Lowercase letters indicate significant differences (pairwise  $t$ -test,  $p$ -value $<0.05$ )  
 521 between groups of sites within each season. <sup>1</sup> $0.1>p$ -value $>0.05$ .

522

523 The analysis of trait responses showed that during the low-flow period, differences in trait category  
 524 profiles tended to be more pronounced between groups of sites, indicating a change in the ecology  
 525 and functional characteristics of the macroinvertebrate communities. It is important to note that the  
 526 differences in the relative frequency of those trait categories between agricultural and natural sites  
 527 were lower than those between urban and natural sites, oppositely to what was shown by most



528 biological indexes. This could be related to the fact that urban sites present a more pollution tolerant  
529 and stable macroinvertebrate functional community composition over time.

530 In our study, the frequency of trait categories such as tegument respiration and deposit feeders  
531 increased in polluted rivers, principally in urban sites. On the other hand, gill breathers and  
532 macrophyte feeders were less prominent in such environments. In principle, respiration via gills or  
533 tegument have been associated with a higher chemical uptake and sensitivity to toxicants (Rico et  
534 al., 2015), and with a high susceptibility to organic matter loads and limited dissolved oxygen  
535 concentrations (Statzner and Bêche, 2010; Table 1). Nevertheless, other authors have found a high  
536 abundance of tegument respiration organisms downstream of wastewater treatment plants (Charvet  
537 et al., 1998), and argued that cuticular respiration may be sufficient to supply the oxygen needs of  
538 relatively inactive organisms (Williams and Feltmate, 1992). In our study, the most prominent  
539 tegument respiration organisms in the monitored polluted sites included gastropods (Ancyliidae,  
540 Physidae) and annelids (Erpobdellidae; Figure 4B), which are usually within the most tolerant taxa to  
541 pesticides and other organic compounds with unspecific modes of action (Rico et al., 2015; Van den  
542 Berg et al., 2019). The higher prevalence of deposited feeders in the polluted sites in comparison to  
543 the natural ones is in line with our water quality measurements, which indicated higher DOC levels  
544 (Table A3) in polluted sites, particularly in the urban ones. Similarly, the low abundance of  
545 macrophyte feeders in those environments was expected as the high turbidity and substrate  
546 characteristics impeded the growth of sediment-rooted macrophytes (Figure A2).

547 The effects of pollution (agricultural and urban) during low flow periods (principally during the  
548 summer season) showed a more prominent increase in the proportion of individuals with large size,  
549 asexual reproduction, aquatic passive dispersal habits and using cocoons as resistance form. These  
550 results are in line with our expectations (Table 1). On the other hand, opposite to our expectations,  
551 the frequency of long life cycles had a positive response to chemical pollution in summer and autumn  
552 (Figure 4C, Table A7) (Table 1). This trait category was not assessed as a potential indicator of  
553 hydrological stress or pollution since it is most likely correlated with other trait categories with high

554 affinity for highly polluted sites in summer and autumn (Figure 4C, Table A7). For example, the  
555 proportion of individuals feeding on living macroinvertebrates (i.e. predators) was high in urban sites  
556 (Figure 4C; Table A7), and these organisms normally present a larger size, which may reduce their  
557 level of internal chemical exposure (Table 1), and which is often correlated with longer life cycles (for  
558 a description of trait correlations and syndromes, see Poff et al., 2006; Statzner and Bêche, 2010).  
559 Yet, the increased affinity of large size organisms for polluted sites in summer is in line with our  
560 expectations and does have a mechanistic explanation (Table 1), which makes this category a good  
561 indicator of pollution and hydrological stress in our study.

#### 562 **4.4 Study limitations**

563 One of the main limitations of this study was the low number of sampling sites included, which was  
564 partly a consequence of time and economic constraints. Despite this, we believe the site selection  
565 followed a thorough land use and hydrological variation study, which renders sufficient credibility on  
566 the obtained outcomes. Another potential limitation was the lack of unpolluted sampling sites that  
567 are not subjected to large annual hydrological variation. An effort was made during the site selection  
568 process to include them, but we were unsuccessful in identifying them. This is mainly because rivers  
569 with relatively constant flow (and limited pollution impact) are often affected by other sources of  
570 anthropogenic impact such as damming for hydroelectric power generation. Further evaluations of  
571 biological effects produced by flow variation in combination with pollution should therefore include  
572 such pollution controls and potentially be done under semi-controlled conditions (e.g. making use of  
573 experimental streams or mesocosms). In this way the separate and combined effects of these two  
574 stressors could be better evaluated.

575 The mild influence of hydrological variation on macroinvertebrate communities observed in this  
576 study may be related with the fact that 2016 was a humid year, with an average precipitation of 682  
577 mm that was 5% over the reference value for the period 1981-2010, as described by the  
578 Meteorological State Authority (MAPAMA, 2016). Furthermore, there are a number of factors that  
579 were not measured and that could have also contributed to the observed variability, such as the

580 abundance and type of riparian vegetation and sediment inputs. Follow-up studies including a larger  
581 number of sites and longer time periods, and more frequent sampling, are recommended to increase  
582 spatial and temporal representativeness in the evaluated responses.

583 Our study was based on taxonomic identifications done to the lowest practical and possible  
584 resolution given the number of samples, and the matching between taxonomy and traits was done  
585 at the family level. Some authors have argued that identification at a family level could be sufficient  
586 when assessing the responses on functional descriptors along a stress gradient (Gayraud et al., 2003;  
587 Sajan et al., 2010). However, it is evident that we have possibly lost some sensitivity in biological  
588 responses; the more since it is known that pollution and other stressor's sensitivity may differ  
589 markedly between species belonging to the same genera, as Berger et al. (2018) demonstrated for  
590 Dipterans in their study of taxonomic and traits responses to stressors.

591 Finally, it is important to note that the implementation of the TU approach as a mixture toxicity  
592 measure to predict chemical impacts on macroinvertebrate communities based on grab sampling is  
593 just an approximation to reality. First, because the relative sensitivity of macroinvertebrates to that  
594 of *D. magna* varies significantly across taxa and chemical classes (Rico et al., 2015). And, second,  
595 because the load of certain substances that are known to significantly affect invertebrates over the  
596 short term (i.e., metals, insecticides) and the temporal variation of their aquatic exposure was not  
597 evaluated in detail. Biological responses may be a consequence of this unmeasured variability, and  
598 therefore follow-up studies should consider the implementation of mixture toxicity approaches that  
599 integrate chemical sensitivity differences among species and integrative chemical sampling methods  
600 over suitable time windows.

601

## 602 **5. Conclusions**

603

604 This study shows that the impact of anthropogenic pollution on the taxonomic and functional  
605 composition of aquatic macroinvertebrate communities is larger during low flow periods (i.e.,  
606 typically in summer, but also in early autumn). This was potentially due to lowered dilution capacity

607 and physically altered habitats, but further studies should be performed to confirm the individual or  
608 combined factors related with pollution and low flows affecting this response. In general, pollution  
609 resulted in more tolerant and less diverse communities, with polluted sites suffering from severe  
610 hydrological variation (agricultural sites) showing a trend towards lower richness and functional  
611 richness, and significantly lower functional diversity. In addition, our study shows that the IBMWP  
612 index can identify differences between polluted and non-polluted sites, but lacks sensitivity to assess  
613 macroinvertebrate responses to seasonal hydrological and chemical pollution alterations.  
614 Therefore, this study supports the evaluation of other taxonomic indexes and the integration of  
615 trait-based indices and approaches for the ecological status assessment of Mediterranean rivers.

616 The functional analysis across the different sampling seasons allowed identification of trait  
617 categories related to pollution, and to the co-occurrence of pollution and hydrological stress. The  
618 main trait categories showing an overall increase in polluted sites (principally urban) were tegument  
619 respiration and deposit feeders; while the ones showing a relative decrease were respiration by gills  
620 and feeding on macrophytes. The trait categories that showed a relative increase in polluted sites  
621 during low flow periods (agricultural) were large size, asexual reproduction, aquatic passive dispersal  
622 and the capacity to produce cocoons as resistance forms.

623 The development of future monitoring campaigns and biological quality indices should consider the  
624 combined effects of multiple stressors and focus on at least one period of maximal interaction  
625 among them. The outcomes of our study indicate that late summer or early autumn seems to be the  
626 period with the largest functional biodiversity impacts by pollution and low flow conditions in  
627 Mediterranean rivers. Therefore, further studies and monitoring campaigns assessing the effects of  
628 chemical pollution within these periods are recommended.

629  
630

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632

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641

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