



Towards a general framework for the assessment of interactive effects of multiple stressors on aquatic ecosystems: Results from the Making Aquatic Ecosystems Great Again (MAEGA) workshop

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1 **Towards a general framework for the assessment of interactive effects of multiple**  
2 **stressors on aquatic ecosystems:**

3 **Results from the Making Aquatic Ecosystems Great Again (MAEGA) workshop**  
4

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29 **Abstract**

30 A workshop was held in Wageningen, The Netherlands, in September 2017 to collate data and  
31 literature on three aquatic ecosystem types (agricultural drainage ditches, urban floodplains, and  
32 urban estuaries), and develop a general framework for the assessment of multiple stressors on the  
33 structure and functioning of these systems. An assessment framework considering multiple  
34 stressors is crucial for our understanding of ecosystem responses within a multiply stressed  
35 environment, and to inform appropriate environmental management strategies. The framework  
36 consists of two components: (i) problem identification and (ii) impact assessment. Both assessments  
37 together proceed through the following steps: 1) ecosystem selection; 2) identification of stressors  
38 and quantification of their intensity; 3) identification of receptors or sensitive groups for each  
39 stressor; 4) identification of stressor-response relationships and their potential interactions; 5)  
40 construction of an ecological model that includes relevant functional groups and endpoints; 6)  
41 prediction of impacts of multiple stressors, 7) confirmation of these predictions with experimental  
42 and monitoring data, and 8) potential adjustment of the ecological model. Steps 7 and 8 allow the  
43 assessment to be adaptive and can be repeated until a satisfactory match between model  
44 predictions and experimental and monitoring data has been obtained. This paper is the preface of  
45 the MAEGA (Making Aquatic Ecosystems Great Again) special section that includes three associated  
46 papers which are also published in this volume, which present applications of the framework for  
47 each of the three aquatic systems.

48

49 **Keywords:** multiple stressors, aquatic ecosystems, workshop, ecological models, ecological risk  
50 assessment framework

51

## 52 1. Introduction

53 Decision makers generally focus on single-stressors, even though multiple stressor impacts  
54 are the norm rather than the exception as causes of observed ecosystem degradation. For example,  
55 Schinegger et al. (2012) analysed human pressures on fish and benthic invertebrate communities at  
56 9330 river sites in Europe, indicating 31% of the communities were affected by one of the four  
57 evaluated stressors (water quality, hydrology, morphology or connectivity) and 47% by two or more.  
58 Similarly, Schäfer et al. (2016) evaluated monitoring data of large streams and rivers in Germany  
59 and found that all sites were at risk of effects by at least one stressor, with 97% of the sites exposed  
60 to two stressors or more. In marine systems, Halpern et al. (2015) ruled out a single stressor  
61 approach for situations where management efforts need to be prioritised, instead focusing on the  
62 cumulative human impact of twenty identified stressors over time.

63 A major obstacle to any discussion of the interactive effects of multiple stressors is the lack  
64 of a clear terminology, e.g. stressors', 'additivity', 'synergism' and 'antagonism'. As defined by  
65 Schäfer and Piggott (2018), a stressor is "a natural or anthropogenic environmental factor that can  
66 affect an individual", and synergism and antagonism are "the interactions between stressors that  
67 result in a stronger and weaker combined effect of stressors, respectively, than that predicted by a  
68 null model". Although synergism has received the most attention in the scientific literature, more  
69 complex types of interaction categories may be required to appropriately capture the joint response  
70 (for an overview see Piggott et al., 2015a). Further, the prevalence of the different types of  
71 interactions varied strongly across meta-analyses (Côté et al., 2016). The level of biological  
72 organisation studied may partly explain this variability, given that antagonism was rarely observed  
73 in physiological responses, whereas synergism was rarely associated with the community and  
74 ecosystem level. However, the assessment of which types of interactions are prevalent across  
75 studies varied with the null model used, which is often overlooked by authors (Griffen et al., 2016;  
76 Schäfer and Piggott, 2018), and may also contribute to the high variability, e.g. Côté et al. (2016).  
77 Schäfer and Piggott (2018) presented a range of null models and guidance on their selection based  
78 on the underlying mechanistic assumptions and their applicability in predicting effects of multiple  
79 stressors. In contrast to commonly used statistical null models, such as simple addition based on the  
80 linear model, several authors (Schäfer and Piggott, 2018; De Laender, 2018; Thompson et al., 2018)  
81 urged the development of mechanistic models for the prediction of interactions that explicitly  
82 incorporate ecological processes. De Laender (2018) illustrated that mechanistic inferences from  
83 statistical null models are hampered when the same mechanisms of interaction lead to different

84 deviations from a null model and that different mechanisms can lead to the same deviations. In light  
85 of the observation that interaction mechanisms depend on the level of biological organisation (Côté  
86 et al., 2016), we suggest that different mechanistic models are required for different levels of  
87 biological organisation. Depending on the expected interaction of effects, at the individual level a  
88 toxicokinetic-toxicodynamic (TK-TD) model predicting the interactive effects of chemicals (e.g.  
89 Ashauer et al., 2007) may be most appropriate, whereas at the community level, models based on  
90 simpler predator-prey relationships (e.g. Peace et al., 2016) or resource competition (De Laender,  
91 2018) may be more appropriate. At the ecosystem level, models including a simple (e.g. De Laender  
92 et al., 2015) or complex (i.e. non-spatial (Traas et al., 2004) or spatial (e.g. Topping et al., 2016))  
93 food-web structure could be more appropriate. However, guidance for incorporating models into  
94 the assessment of the ecological consequences of multiple stressors is lacking. In light of this, the  
95 horizon scanning exercise executed by the Society of Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry  
96 (SETAC) identified multiple stressors of chemicals in the environment as a top question for European  
97 and Latin American environmental science communities (Van den Brink et al., 2018; Furley et al.,  
98 2018).

99 We aim to develop an approach, supporting model incorporation within an assessment  
100 framework of ecological consequences from multiple stressors, and apply this framework to three  
101 aquatic ecosystem types facing increasing pressure due to anthropogenic activities: agricultural  
102 drainage ditches, urban floodplains, and urban estuaries. The Making Aquatic Ecosystems Great  
103 Again (MAEGA) workshop was held in Wageningen, The Netherlands, in September 2017, and  
104 resulted in a proposed framework on how modelling can be used to assess interactions among  
105 stressors. Moreover, we collated data and literature on the three ecosystem types. This information  
106 was then used for assessing multiple stressor effects on the structure and functioning of these  
107 systems. The current paper is the preface of the MAEGA (Making Aquatic Ecosystems Great Again)  
108 special section of STOTEN that presents the framework. The following papers present the  
109 application of the framework in each of the three ecosystems (O'Brien et al., this volume; Monk et  
110 al., this volume; Bracewell et al., this volume).

111

## 112 **2. General framework**

113 The proposed framework builds on the approach from a previous workshop held in Sydney,  
114 Australia in 2014. The outcomes from the first workshop are presented in Baird et al. (2016), Dafforn  
115 et al. (2016), Chariton et al. (2016) and Van den Brink et al. (2016). The proposed framework consists

116 of two components, (i) problem identification and (ii) impact assessment. This framework is based  
117 on practical steps formulated by Van den Brink et al. (2016) for the future ecological risk assessment  
118 of multiple stressors (Fig. 1). Applying both components of the framework consists of the following  
119 steps: 1) ecosystem selection; 2) identification of stressors and quantification of their intensity; 3)  
120 identification of receptors or sensitive groups for each stressor; 4) identification of stressor-  
121 response relationships and their potential interactions; 5) construction of an ecological model that  
122 includes relevant functional groups and endpoints; 6) prediction of the impact of multiple stressors,  
123 7) confronting these predictions with experimental and monitoring data, and 8) potential  
124 adjustment of the ecological model. Steps 7 and 8 can be repeated until a satisfactory match  
125 between model predictions and observations is obtained.

126

### 127 *2.1. Problem identification process*

128 The problem identification component of the framework has many analogies with the  
129 construction of environmental scenarios for ecological risk assessment of chemicals (Rico et al.,  
130 2016). In both cases, the ecosystem of concern has to be identified and data on its physico-chemical  
131 characteristics, as well as its biological communities, have to be collected. The focus of the data  
132 collection (step 1) will depend on the stressor identity, stressor intensity, and related sensitive  
133 biological endpoints (step 2 and 3), rendering this identification process an iterative process. For  
134 instance, if a photosynthesis inhibiting herbicide is one of the stressors, then local data collection  
135 should focus on primary producers or photosynthesis inhibition (Van den Brink et al., 2006), whereas  
136 when deposited sediment is one of the stressors, data on the sedimentation-sensitive benthic  
137 invertebrates (e.g. determined based on traits, Piggott et al., 2015b) are needed. Conversely, the  
138 selection of stressors will require an assessment of their relevance for the organisms in the chosen  
139 ecosystem. This typically requires data on how the intensity of each stressor varies in space and  
140 time. If available, the data collection should extend its focus from classical monitoring data on  
141 communities and stressor intensity (e.g. concentrations in water) to new forms of evidence,  
142 including ecogenomics information, remote sensing data, and other 'big data' sets, to provide a  
143 broader view on the biodiversity and types of stressor modes of action present in the chosen  
144 environment (Brack et al., 2018; Chariton et al., 2016; Dafforn et al., 2016). All data on the  
145 ecosystem and stressor of concern should be integrated (sensu Rico et al., 2016) into an  
146 environmental scenario, including a description of both the stressor and the ecosystem of

147 consideration, though this data will overlap in certain parameters or variables (e.g. temperature,  
148 invasive species).

149           Once environmental and stressor data are collected and integrated (steps 1 and 2), the next  
150 step is to identify the biological endpoints that are most sensitive to the stressors (step 3). If the  
151 stressor is a toxicant, knowledge on the chemical mode of action (Barron et al., 2015; Napierska et  
152 al., 2018), ecotoxicological modes of action (Barata et al., 2012), classical sensitivity data (e.g. at  
153 <https://cfpub.epa.gov/ecotox/>), or data from models that can predict sensitivity (e.g. Rico and Van  
154 den Brink, 2015; Raimondo et al., 2015; Toropov et al., 2017) can be used to assess sensitive groups.  
155 When the stressor is not a toxicant, a literature search on previously conducted experiments  
156 performed with these stressors, using single and multi-species test systems, will be a good starting  
157 point (e.g. Jackson et al., 2016; Crain et al., 2008). If experimental information is lacking, knowledge  
158 of the stressor mode of action (for classifications see e.g. Martin et al., 2014; Schäfer and Piggott,  
159 2018) can be used to draw hypotheses on the relative sensitivity of biological endpoints related to  
160 the chosen ecosystem and level of biological organisation. Such data can also be used to derive  
161 stressor-response relationships for the identified sensitive endpoint or endpoints (step 4). For  
162 instance, classical species sensitivity distributions incorporating only species from sensitive groups  
163 (sensu Maltby et al., 2005) can be used for chemicals, if the aim is to establish community level  
164 stressor-response relationships. For other stressors, these stressor-response relationships can  
165 either be derived from the results of controlled experiments (e.g. Wagenhoff et al., 2012) or  
166 estimated using available evidence and expert knowledge, including environmental preferences or  
167 species occurrence data (Schmidt-Kloiber and Hering, 2015). Next, determining how the different  
168 stressors interact with each other given the biological scenario (step 4) needs to be carefully  
169 considered. For this, a simple, conceptual model of the ecosystem of concern should be developed  
170 (step 5) that at least includes the expected sensitive endpoints to the stressors (step 3) and their  
171 physico-chemical and biological stressor-response pathways (Van den Brink et al., 2016). These  
172 models can vary in their level of complexity and focus on different levels of biological organisation,  
173 as necessary.

174

## 175 *2.2. Impact assessment of multiple stressors*

176           From the conceptual model developed in step 5, predictions of interactive effects should be  
177 derived to generate hypotheses (step 6). These predictions should indicate, at minimum, the  
178 qualitative response of endpoints (e.g. increase or decrease in population size or receptor activity)

179 and thus evaluate predictions in the context of observations (step 7). Observations refer to a)  
180 experimental data on the stressors of concern using relevant species or species assemblages,  
181 preferentially acquired under natural conditions, and b) monitoring data from the ecosystem of  
182 concern that evaluate the stressors of concern. If deviations are found between prediction and  
183 observation, the conceptual model may be adjusted until a satisfactory fit is obtained (Grimm et al.,  
184 2014). When no satisfactory fit can be obtained, the observed deviations should be translated into  
185 research questions and more experimental, monitoring or modelling work should be performed.  
186 The same data used for the construction of the model and stressor-response relationships may be  
187 partly needed for the evaluation of the model outcome. Therefore, it may not always be possible to  
188 complete a full validation or “evaludation” of the model using independent data (sensu Augusiak et  
189 al., 2014).

190

### 191 **3. Case studies**

#### 192 *3.1. Agricultural drainage ditches*

193 Drainage ditches are ubiquitous features of agricultural landscapes and can be havens for  
194 biodiversity when properly managed (Verdonschot et al., 2011). Using the framework presented  
195 here, Bracewell et al. (this volume) developed a conceptual food web model using functional groups  
196 to assess the effects of selected stressors on ditch communities. Nutrients, pesticides, management  
197 practices (dredging and mowing), salinisation, and siltation were identified as the most common  
198 and important stressors for this ecosystem type. Bracewell et al. (this volume) performed a  
199 literature review of each stressor-functional group combination to determine the relative effects of  
200 individual stressors on each functional group. Due to limited published experimental results for  
201 most of the stressors, they took a qualitative approach to assess the impact of each stressor on the  
202 food web structure of ditches. A series of conceptual null models were then developed to illustrate  
203 this qualitative assessment of the direct effects of single stressors and selected paired-stressor  
204 combinations. Such a qualitative approach proved to be useful in identifying potential stressor  
205 interactions within these data-poor systems and as a first-step to considering multiple stressor  
206 scenarios in drainage ditch management.

207

#### 208 *3.2. Urban floodplains*



209 Freshwater floodplains are highly complex, dynamic, and diverse ecosystems. Key drivers of  
210 change (e.g. urbanisation) cause direct and indirect pressures (e.g. altered inundation period) acting  
211 to create complex stress regimes. In the third paper of this special section, Monk et al. (this volume)  
212 applied a conceptual iterative model that incorporated stressor-based environmental filtering of  
213 biota within urban floodplains. Evidence was obtained from scientific literature using standardised  
214 search terms focusing on urbanisation as the driver of key pressures and stressors and their  
215 subsequent impacts on the biotic response of composition (i.e. species presence-absence) and  
216 function (i.e. biomass). The strength of direct and indirect effects of both individual and multiple  
217 pathways was quantified using two literature-based analyses: a weight-of-evidence approach and a  
218 network meta-analysis. The weight-of-evidence approach demonstrated the strength of  
219 incorporating study quality alongside data sufficiency, while the network meta-analysis highlighted  
220 the significance of indirect pathways within multiple pressure and stressor environments. Indeed,  
221 the importance of indirect effects in the analysis suggests that we are often missing key mechanistic  
222 evidence by which urbanisation pressures influence key biological receptors. The two approaches  
223 highlight that combining multiple spatio-temporal scales is critical for our understanding of direct  
224 and indirect ecological responses within multiple pressure and stressor environments.

225

### 226 *3.3. Urban estuaries*

227 Urban estuaries are highly diverse and among the most productive and valuable ecosystems  
228 in the world (e.g. Costanza et al 2014), but they are also among the most degraded (Crain et al 2009).  
229 Given that three-quarters of all large cities and more than 40% of the global population lives within  
230 100 km of the coast, urbanised estuarine ecosystems are particularly vulnerable to compounding  
231 impacts from several anthropogenic stressors (Crain et al 2008). Urban estuaries, including ports  
232 and harbours are commonly exposed to chemical (e.g. contaminants), physical (e.g. built  
233 infrastructure), and biological (non-indigenous species) stressors. It is important to understand the  
234 interactive threats posed by these stressors so management efforts can be prioritised relative to the  
235 severity of the threats. In the fourth and last paper of this special section, O'Brien et al. (this volume)  
236 explored selected urban stressors and their potential interactions, linking interactive effects to  
237 responses in community structure and key ecological functions, including productivity and  
238 metabolism. They highlighted the potential for stressor combinations to change the nature of urban  
239 estuarine environments, creating new impacts that could not be predicted by studying only single  
240 stressors. Structural and functional endpoints were assessed in a meta-analysis approach that

241 revealed unexpected trends in the magnitude of responses to multiple stressors. This allowed them  
242 to go beyond comparisons relying on community structural responses to single stressors, and to  
243 propose a new idea of how multiple stressor impacts should be measured at locally relevant scales.  
244 Importantly, the authors highlighted significant gaps in the literature, which are hindering our  
245 understanding of the effects of multiple stressors on urban estuarine ecosystems.

246

#### 247 **4. Next steps**

248         Each of the three workshop groups worked independently to explore the application of the  
249 proposed general framework outlined above. The groups used different methods dictated by the  
250 different availabilities of formal evidence, and explored the use of different meta-analysis methods.  
251 The next workshop will focus on an evaluation of the relative pros and cons of each approach, and  
252 the development and application of the consensus methodology on specific data-rich ecosystem  
253 case studies.

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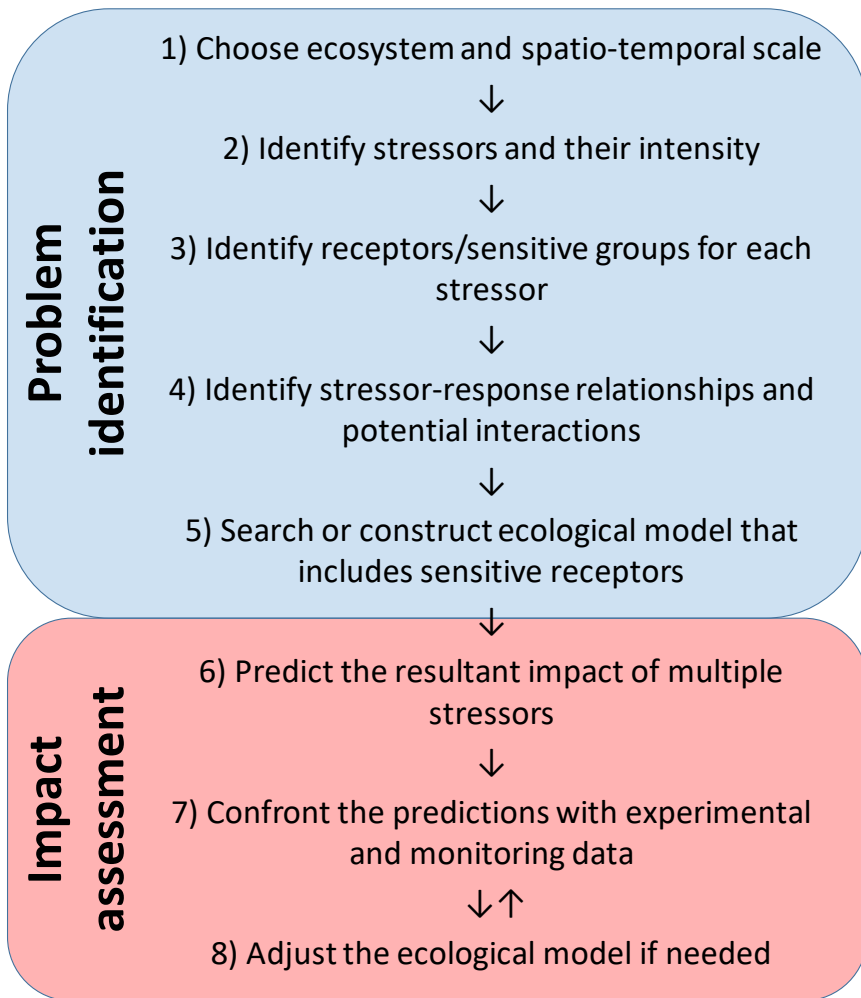
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382 *Figure 1. General framework showing how models can be incorporated into the assessment of the*  
383 *interactive ecological consequences of multiple stressors.*