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Do all roads lead to Rome? Exploring community trajectories in response to anthropogenic salinisation and dilution of rivers

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Do all roads lead to Rome? Exploring community trajectories in response to anthropogenic salinisation and dilution of rivers

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4 SUMMARY

Abiotic stress shapes how communities assemble and support ecological functions. However, it remains unclear whether artificially increasing or decreasing stress levels would lead to communities assembling predictably along a single axis of variation or along multiple context-dependent trajectories of change. In response to stress intensity alterations, we hypothesise that a single trajectory of change occurs when trait-based assembly prevails, while multiple trajectories of change arise when dispersal-related processes modify colonisation and trait-filtering dynamics. Here, we test these hypotheses using aquatic macroinvertebrates from rivers exposed to gradients of natural salinity and artificially diluted or salinised ion contents. Our results showed that trait-filtering was important in driving community assembly in natural and diluted rivers, while dispersal-related processes seem to play a relevant role in response to salinisation. Salinised rivers showed novel communities with different trait composition, while natural and diluted communities exhibited similar taxonomic and trait compositional patterns along the conductivity gradient. Our findings suggest that the artificial modification of chemical stressors can result in different biological communities depending on the direction of the change (salinisation or dilution), with trait-filtering, and organism dispersal and colonisation dynamics having differential roles in community assembly. The approach presented here provides both empirical and conceptual insights that can help anticipating the ecological effects of global change, especially for those stressors with both natural and anthropogenic origins.

24 INTRODUCTION

Abiotic stress, defined as the harmful environmental conditions exceeding the normal range experienced by organisms, is a key force determining how communities assemble and support ecosystem functions and services [1–3]. Chronic abiotic stress may arise naturally or be caused by ongoing global change [4,5], as occur with fire disturbance frequency, flow intermittence or water salinity. However, it remains unclear whether anthropogenically modified stress levels would result in communities assembling along a single axis based on organism's stress tolerance or along multiple *Author for correspondence (*tano.gutierrez@ub.edu*).

trajectories of change depending on differential dispersal and colonisation abilities and population dynamics [6,7].

Empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that abiotic filtering and interspecific competition are the most important mechanisms driving the predictable assembly of communities in response to environmental change [2,7] (trait-filtering processes). At a given stress level, abiotic filtering would select the organisms showing the most suitable response traits (i.e. physiological, morphological and life-history adaptations conferring resistance to environmental stress) within the regional species pool. Among them, the proportion of organisms able to cope with stress depends on each lineage's evolutionary context [8,9] and the stressor historical persistence within the region [10]. Besides having a suitable set of traits, organisms showing a better ability to compete for resources or exploit underutilised alternatives would show greater abundances [11]. However, other factors, such as population dynamics and organism's dispersal and colonisation capacities, can influence community assembly leading to multiple trajectories of change along stress gradients [6,12] (dispersal-related processes). For example, organisms may have optimum environmental conditions in habitats that are difficult to reach because of their low dispersal ability or landscape barriers [6]. In contrast, organisms may establish in a newly disturbed habitat despite suboptimum conditions, when they are good dispersers and have multiple population sources well connected through the landscape [13]. When these first colonisers have appropriate resources to thrive, they may act as a barrier impeding further colonisation (founder effect), shaping historically contingent communities [7,12].

Rivers offer a promising avenue to identify the mechanisms driving community responses to stress, as they exhibit marked natural and anthropogenic environmental gradients [14]. For example, as a result of global change, the salt concentration of most rivers is changing worldwide [15,16]. Many freshwater rivers are being salinised by anthropogenic salt inputs (e.g. salt mining, de-icing salt), whereas many other naturally saline rivers are being diluted by human activities that reduce their salt concentration (e.g. agricultural drainages). Furthermore, climate change may intensify both processes as a result of altered rainfall and evapotranspiration regimes (either increasing or decreasing effective precipitation) or because of sea level rise or intrusion [17]. It is already well known that aquatic organisms show a strong specificity along the salinity gradient [14] and that both impacts are driving strong detrimental changes in the diversity and community composition of rivers [13,16] and their ecosystem functioning [18,19]. Studies performed so far have investigated biological responses along a limited span of the

 salinity gradient, considering only salinisation or dilution, but not both processes. Therefore, it remains
 unclear if artificially modifying river salinity could yield similar or novel communities respect to
 naturally assembled communities.

Here, we test three competing hypotheses of community assembly (Fig. 1) by exploring if macroinvertebrate diversity and composition of natural, diluted and salinised rivers follow a single or multiple trajectories of change along a wide salinity gradient (electrical conductivity: 0.3 to >100 mS cm^{-1}). Firstly (H₁), we hypothesise that community assembly in response to dilution and salinisation will be explained by abiotic filtering and competition. Taxa showing the most suited traits to cope with a given salinity will be selected (trait-based assembly). As a result, communities with altered salt concentrations will resemble natural communities at the same salinity. Secondly (H₂), dispersal-related processes will influence community assembly in response to dilution and salinisation. Opportunistic colonisation by good dispersers followed by trait-based abiotic and biotic filtering will result in novel communities and multiple trajectories of change (dispersal-based assembly). Thirdly (H₃), trait-based assembly and dispersal-related processes have differential importance depending on the direction of change along the stress gradient (directional-dependent assembly).

81 METHODS

83 Identifying diluted and salinised rivers

A total of 107 sampling sites were surveyed in rivers across the Eastern part of the Iberian Peninsula (Fig S1). Each site was sampled up to four times (170 samples), mostly during spring and summer (period 2000-2018). Sampling sites included lowland and mid-mountain rivers (<1,200 m a.s.l.) of Mediterranean climate, which exhibit a substantial variation in mean annual precipitation (250 to 900 mm) and different combinations of natural, semi-natural and anthropogenic land-uses.

91 These rivers have a varying concentration of salts, which depends on natural and anthropogenic factors.
92 Natural saline rivers were found in areas with increasing aridity and evaporitic outcrops [16]. However,
93 some naturally freshwater rivers were salinised due to potash and sodium chlorine mining activities
94 [20], whereas some of the naturally saline rivers were diluted mainly due to irrigation agriculture [19].
95 We performed dissolved sulphate isotopic analyses (δ³⁴S_{SO4} and δ¹⁸O_{SO4}), and compiled bibliographic

data [20–22] to distinguish if salinity was due to natural water-rock interaction or to the influence of potash mine tailings (Supplementary Information S1 and Table S1); other important sources of sulphate in the basin (fertilizers, urban effluents) [20] were also considered. On the other hand, to establish which naturally saline rivers (flowing over evaporitic outcrops) can be anthropogenically diluted, we selected those showing $\geq 20\%$ of irrigating agriculture at the entire catchment scale or $\geq 50\%$ at the local scale. Local land-use estimation was carried out through the intersection between the entire catchment and a 1-km-radius buffer centred on the sampling point. Anthropogenically reduced levels of salinity have been previously reported in rivers exposed to intensive irrigation agriculture due to freshwater inputs from agriculture drainages and from irrigation channels leaks [16,19]. When classifying rivers as anthropogenically diluted, we focused on rivers of potentially high mineralisation (historically exceeding 5 mS cm⁻¹), excluding freshwater rivers draining calcareous-dominated catchments without evaporitic outcrops.

109 Environmental data

Electrical conductivity and pH were determined using a multiparametric probe. Water samples were filtered through glass fibre filters (GF/F) (Whatman, Maidstone, UK), transported to the laboratory on ice, and finally frozen for subsequent analysis. Major anions (chloride, sulphate, nitrite and nitrate) were analysed by HP liquid chromatograph, alkalinity was measured by titration, and ammonium and soluble reactive phosphorous concentrations were estimated using standard colorimetric methods [23]. As water chemistry, and especially salinity [24], may vary over time, we compiled water chemistry data covering previous months or years from own data, water agencies and published papers [25,26] to estimate a time-integrated value for each variable and site, when possible (Table S2).

We also delineated basins and compiled information to characterise other key environmental features at site and catchment scales that can influence river biological composition such as site elevation, latitude, longitude, basin area, basin mean annual precipitation and land-use. Major land-uses (natural, non-irrigated agriculture, irrigated agriculture and urban zones, Corine Land Cover 2012) were characterised for the whole river basin and just for 1-km-basin upstream sampling point. To control for other anthropogenic impacts beyond salinisation or dilution, we estimated the number of pressures affecting each river through the Mediterranean Reference Criteria (MRC) [27], which ranges from zero

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22	137
23 24	138
24 25	139
26 27	140
28	141
29 30	142
31	1/3
32 33	143
34	144
35 36	145
37	146
38 39	147
40	148
41 42	149
43	150
44 45	150
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(reference undisturbed condition) to 20 pressures (extremely disturbed). The number of pressuresaffecting our sites ranged from zero to 12 pressures.

30 Taxonomic and functional metrics

To assess biological responses along natural and anthropogenic gradients, we estimated several taxonomic and functional metrics.

35 All macroinvertebrate samples were collected following a multi-habitat semiquantitative kick-sample. 36 Samples were preserved in 70%-96% ethanol and specimens were identified and counted to species 37 for Coleoptera, Hemiptera and Trichoptera, genus for most taxa or family in some few cases (e.g. Diptera). Abundances were aggregated into classes to avoid distortions in statistical analysis due to 38 39 large abundance differences (0: 0; 1: 1-3; 2: 4-10; 3: 11-100; 4: >100 individuals). To estimate 40 taxonomic-based metrics, some genera and subfamilies belonging to the same family were aggregated into families when part of them were identified at family-level to avoid distortions and double-counting 41 42 (taxonomic sites x taxa matrix with 166 taxa). For trait-based metrics, we used a sites x taxa matrix 43 with the finest taxonomic units, resulting in 220 taxa. For community composition analysis, we used a 44 matrix including species, genus and family levels (261 taxa).

46 To characterise macroinvertebrate traits, we compiled a database including four fuzzy-coding response 47 traits for the 220 taxa [28–30]: lifespan, number of generations per year, reproduction and respiration 48 modes (Table S3). These response traits, that include 18 trait categories, are potentially related to 49 resilience and resistance to osmotic stress [31–33]: short life-span is linked to reduced time and energy 50 to reach adult stage and reproduce earlier, and enhanced microevolutionary processes; multivoltinism 51 provides higher capacity to increase population and recover after disturbances; ovoviparity and 52 terrestrial reproduction give more independence from the aquatic environmental conditions; and aerial 53 respiration (i.e. spiracle and hydrostatic vesicle modes) are mechanisms which allow coping with low 54 dissolved oxygen concentrations, which may occur at high salinities. For each invertebrate genus, a 52 degree of affinity (i.e. ranging from 0 up to a total of 3, 5, 7) was assigned to each trait category, 155 53 156 according to the frequency of occurrence within the genus. Prior to analysis, fuzzy coded data were 54 55 converted into percentages of affinity for each trait. 157 56

Firstly, as taxonomic-based metrics, we estimated taxonomic, the proportion of Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera and Trichoptera genera (EPT) taxa, Odonata, Coleoptera and Hemiptera (OCH) taxa and non-native taxa for each sample, using the *sites x taxa* matrix with 166 taxa. Secondly, as functional metrics, we calculated response trait diversity and response trait richness based on a functional space built on a Gower's pair-wise functional dissimilarity matrix that included 220 taxa (fuzzy-codingadapted Gower's index [34], see Table S3 for further info on functional metric estimation). Pairwise dissimilarity matrix was based on a *taxon x trait* category matrix, including the 18 trait categories. We selected a 7D functional space because it represented well the original Gower dissimilarity matrix (mean SD error=0.017) [35], and functional spaces with more dimensions did not substantially improved such representation (10D, mean squared deviance error=0.013) (Table S3). Response trait diversity, which represents the functional dispersion of taxa with respect to the average response trait values, was estimated as the mean distance of each taxon to the mean abundance-weighted centroid in the 7D functional response space [36]. Response trait richness, which represents the response trait range variation for the community [37], was estimated as the ratio (from 0 to 1) between the 3D functional space volume of the convex hulls enclosing all the taxa occurring at each sample and that encompassing the 233 taxa studied. Despite the 7D functional space better represented the original trait matrix [35], we used a 3D functional space to estimate response trait richness to avoid multiple non-defined values at sites with low diversity (see methodological details in Table S3).

Furthermore, we estimated the community weighted means for four trait categories and combinations of them that could be positively related to higher resilience and resistance to osmotic stress: the proportion of organisms with short life-span, multivoltinism, ovoviparity and terrestrial reproduction and aerial respiration (combining spiracle and hydrostatic vesicle modes).

- Data analysis

To assess if biological responses to salinity differed between communities exposed to natural and altered salt concentrations, we used Boosted Regression Trees (BRT), Linear Mixed-effect Models LMM, *lme4* R package [38] and multivariate generalised linear models (*manyglm* function, *mvabund* R package) [39]. Before analyses, we applied a log-transformation to family richness and response trait richness and a square-root transformation to the proportion of organisms showing aerial respiration. Besides, logit-, log- or square-root-transformations were applied to quantitative environmental

predictors to reduce their distribution skewness and improve linearity, when necessary. In all models,we used mean conductivity for each site to have a time-integrated measure of osmotic stress.

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To summarise the main axes of biological variation, we also performed a non-metric MultiDimensional Scaling (MDS) based on a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix, built upon the matrix of macroinvertebrate family, genus and species abundances excluding rare taxa (i.e. taxa occurring in less than 5 sampling sites). The first MDS axis represented well the original Bray-Curtis similarities (r=0.88).

We used BRT to rank predictor importance for taxonomic richness, response trait diversity and response trait richness, community mean trait categories and MDS axis 1. BRT is a non-parametric regression technique able to handle heterogeneous predictors, non-linear relationships and missing values. As predictors, we included water chemistry (conductivity, pH, ion contents, and nutrients), catchment descriptors (basin area, climate, elevation, and geographic coordinates), land-uses (irrigation agriculture and urban intensity) and multiple anthropogenic impacts (alteration salinity class, MRC). The results of these analyses showed that mean conductivity was the most important predictor across response variables (median rank=2) (Table S4). In addition, mean conductivity was highly correlated with sulphate (r=0.91), alkalinity : salinity ratio (r=-0.88), chloride (r=0.90) and chloride : salinity ratio (r=0.75), suggesting that ionic composition is well represented by mean conductivity.

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Using LMM we modelled salinity effects on taxonomic richness, response trait diversity and response trait richness, community mean trait categories and MDS axis 1. Each model included conductivity, a factor indicating alteration class (levels: natural control, diluted and salinised), and the pairwise interaction between conductivity and alteration class. To control for other environmental covariates and assisted by BRT results, we also included sampling site elevation, latitude, catchment area, mean catchment annual precipitation and percentage of irrigation agriculture and urban land-uses as fixed factors. LMM are ideal statistical techniques to cope with residual dependent structures caused by repeated measures in the same location [40], through the use of a random intercept factor (Site code). To quantify predictor's effect sizes and significance, we adopted a multi-model inference approach [41], using the *MuMIM* R package [42]. This statistical technique ranks all the models generated using all the possible combination of predictors using the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). Then, a set of top models is selected to produce an average model only if the model ranking first is ambiguously supported (model weight<0.90). We chose top models differing in no more than four AIC units

(delta≤4) from the model ranked first (minimum AIC). We adopted a natural average method to conduct the model averaging, which consists in averaging predictors only over models in which the predictor appears and weighting predictor's effect size by the summed weights of these models [43]. For each LMM model, two measures of goodness-of-fit were estimated [44]: marginal goodness-of-fit $(r_{\rm m}^2)$ indicates the variance explained only by the fixed factors, while conditional goodness-of-fit $(r_{\rm c}^2)$ shows the variance accounted for by both fixed and random terms.

Given that taxonomic and trait diversity and richness can be correlated by chance (selection probability effect) [45], we performed null models to confirm whether the observed response diversity and richness patterns were not simply a consequence of the underlying taxonomic variation. Methodological details are described in Table S7.

Multivariate generalised linear models (manvglm function [39], mvabund R package) were fitted to explore community composition changes (matrix at family, genus and species levels, 220 taxa) and taxon-specific univariate responses to natural and altered salinity and other covariates, using a negative-binomial error distribution (after exploring mean-variance assumption), excluding rare taxa and selecting one sample per site (n=107). As predictors, we selected mean conductivity, alteration class and their interaction. We also added a mean conductivity quadratic term to capture bell-shaped responses around species' osmotic optimums. Additionally, we tested if including more environmental covariates, such as those used in the LMM, could reduce model AIC, resulting in the inclusion of precipitation and geographical longitude. Predictors were tested for significance with a Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) and a PIT-trap resampling with 999 iterations [39]. We also used Wald tests to examine model terms significance and corrected univariate taxon-specific p-values for multiple testing.

All models were validated by visually checking their residuals for normality and homoscedasticity. The code and functions used to run all these analyses are available in Supplementary Information 2, which were conducted using the R version 3.4.1 [46].

- RESULTS

In sites showing natural salinity, communities at low conductivity (0.3-1.0 mS cm⁻¹) have similar proportions of the salt-sensitive EPT taxa and salt-tolerant OCH taxa (ranging from 20%-60%) (Fig. S4). However, these groups followed opposing trends in response to increasing conductivity so that the proportion of EPT taxa declined sharply while the proportion of OCH taxa increased up to the complete domination of communities at higher conductivities.

Our LMM models showed that conductivity effects differ between natural and salinised sites for taxonomic richness ($r_m^2=56.7\%$) and response trait diversity ($r_m^2=37.8\%$), as observed by the significant interactions (Table 1, Fig. 2a-c; see Tables S5 and S6 for detailed results). Sites under natural (control) conditions showed a significantly stronger reduction of taxonomic richness and response trait diversity with conductivity compared to salinised sites (Fig. 2a,b), while the response of diluted sites did not differ from the natural and salinised sites (Table 1). Response trait richness declined similarly with increasing conductivity across alteration classes ($r_m^2=38.1\%$; (Fig. 2c). Remarkably, while taxonomic and response trait richness declined in salinised sites of higher conductivities, response trait diversity increased along the conductivity gradient. Null models showed that response trait richness patterns were linked to trait filtering rather than simply to taxonomic variation. However, in the case of response trait diversity, only one model parameter (*salinisation*) was indistinguishable from the null distributions (Table S7).

Traits responded differently to conductivity, showing in some cases distinct responses among the salinity alteration classes, as revealed by their significant interactions with conductivity (Table 1; Fig. 2d-g; see Tables S5 and S6 for detailed results). The most evident case was the proportion of organisms with short lifespan, which was higher at salinised sites over the whole gradient, and increased with conductivity, while natural and diluted rivers show progressively a lower proportion of short lifespan organisms along the conductivity gradient (Fig 2d, $r_m^2=67.9\%$; see differences in effect size 95% confidence intervals in Table 1). Salinised sites were dominated by short lifespan organisms such as the dipterans Ceratopogonidae, Chironomidae, Ephydridae and Simuliidae. The proportion of organisms with multivoltine life cycle showed contrasting patterns across alteration classes, showing great disparities at low conductivities but converging progressively at higher salinities (>100 mS cm⁻ ¹) (Fig 2e, $r_m^2=40.4\%$). In this case, the response of the diluted sites was significantly different from that of the natural sites, but indistinguishable from salinised sites' response. The proportion of organisms with ovoviviparous and terrestrial reproduction increased with conductivity across salinity

alteration classes (Fig 2f, $r_m^2=25.8\%$). However, the proportion of organisms with aerial respiration showed a more complex trend in response to conductivity for the three alteration classes (Fig 2g, $r_m^2=46.8\%$), showing a greater increase at salinised sites compared to natural sites, which decreased with higher conductivity. The response of diluted sites was statistically indistinguishable from the other alteration classes. Finally, we did not observe any significant trend for the proportion of non-native taxa (Fig 2h).

Community composition changes in response to conductivity also differed among natural and salinised sites. The MDS ordination showed a first axis along which communities where distributed in relation with increasing conductivity towards the positive side of this axis (Fig. 3a). When aggregated by conductivity classes (from freshwaters to hypersaline waters, Fig. 3b), salinised samples were generally placed far from the natural and diluted community centroids. Natural and diluted samples showed a greater overlap, although diluted sites displayed substantial differences at mesosaline conductivities. The variation of the MDS axis 1 values in response to conductivity revealed significantly different compositional change trajectories for salinised communities relative to natural and diluted communities, as showed by the significantly less pronounced slope in salinised communities (Fig 2i, $r_{\rm m}^2$ =85.6%; see differences in effect size 95% confidence intervals in Table 1), while diluted and natural sites' responses did not differ. The results of the multivariate GLM (Tables S8 and S9) indicated that macroinvertebrate responses to conductivity differed across alteration classes (LRT=193.4, p < 0.001). However, such differences seemed to be a result of organisms responding differently between salinised and natural sites ("conductivity x salinised" coefficient significance. Wald test value = 8.21; p < 0.001), while organisms' response to salinity was statistically indistinguishable between diluted and natural sites ("conductivity x diluted" coefficient significance, Wald test, value = 6.37; p < 0.711). Furthermore, taxon-specific responses to conductivity varied across natural and altered classes (Fig. S5), including salt-intolerant responses, wide range of conductivity tolerance irrespectively of the alteration class, preference for naturally saline and salinised rivers, and preference for natural saline and diluted rivers.

- 54 315 DISCUSSION
- 56 316

Our results suggest that different ecological processes may shape community assembly in response to anthropogenic alterations, depending on the direction of change along the same environmental gradient. Trait filtering processes seemed to drive community assembly in natural and diluted rivers, whereas dispersal-related processes were more relevant in response to salinisation. Communities at salinised rivers tended to show strong differences in diversity and composition respect to natural communities. However, we found a much evident overlap between the taxonomic composition of diluted and natural communities, despite observing significant differences in other aspects of diversity and trait composition. Overall, these results support our third hypothesis (H₃), indicating divergent trajectories of change between salinised rivers, which resulted in novel communities [13], and diluted rivers, whose communities resembled those of natural rivers with the same conductivity.

Abiotic filtering is often considered one of the major forces determining biological responses to stress [4]. In our study, we observed a consistent richness and diversity decline, and strong compositional changes as salinity increases, which can be attributed to increasing abiotic filtering. However, these changes arose in divergent trajectories when comparing natural and salinised rivers, which supports the role of dispersal-related processes in structuring salinised communities [12]. Generally, organisms show a differential capacity to tolerate osmotic stress as a result of specialised physiological and life history traits [47,48], confirmed by experiments in absence of competition [8,49]. Thus, while organisms inhabiting freshwaters need to actively uptake ions to maintain metabolic functions, taxa tolerating mineralised waters need to match their internal concentrations to external salinity or even actively excrete ions when salinity is sufficiently high. Nonetheless, salt-tolerant organisms are also able to cope with freshwater conditions, as observed experimentally [50]. Diversity declined sharply after conductivities 5-20 mS cm⁻¹, which could be reflecting a critical physiological threshold after which most organisms are unable to thrive. Considering that aquatic insect haemolymph is roughly 15 mS cm⁻¹ [47], only few saline specialists with appropriate physiological mechanisms can live above this threshold. Our data reflected such pattern in natural and altered communities, matching the results of previous studies finding stronger salinity effects after conductivities ranging 5-30 mS cm⁻¹ [15,51,52].

Besides, our results showed that conductivity tends to select organisms with multivoltine life cycle, aerial respiration and ovoviviparous or terrestrial reproduction across alteration classes, as previously observed in natural [32,53] and salinised rivers [54,55]. These trait categories are probably key to cope with the stressful environment of saline rivers [31]. However, we found shorter lifespan organisms in salinised rivers which contrast not only with our patterns for diluted and natural rivers but also with previous studies performed on natural and salinised locations [53,55]. In our study, salinisation could have favoured short lifespan organisms in absence of better suited organisms because of their rapid reproductive cycles. Alternatively, it could have been reflecting a trait syndrome, were other correlated trait is explaining the success of the organisms successfully colonising salinised rivers

The fact that the studied salinised sites were relatively distant from naturally saline rivers could have favoured their colonisation by a mix of opportunistic species and saline specialist with good dispersion capacities. Our analyses revealed that some taxa which are highly abundant in naturally saline rivers (genera Ochthebius and Nebrioporus) were absent from salinised rivers, perhaps due to limited dispersion [56,57] or other biotic factors [50]. However, although it remains unknown if organisms already established at salinised sites could act as also as biological barrier for saline specialists, this possibility seems unlikely given the reduced competition pressure at meso- and hypersaline environments [2]. Contrary to previous findings [52,54,55], we did not find estuarine taxa or invasive species frequently occurring at salinised rivers. This could suggest that saline tolerant species available within the inland species pool are preventing invasions from other habitats via competition or estuarine taxa could not reach the salinised spots. On the other hand, dilution led to communities assembling along the same axis of variation than natural communities. Although reducing stress levels allowed a greater number of organisms to colonise diluted rivers, a great extent remain too saline for most opportunistic colonisers (ca. 60% of diluted rivers have conductivities >20 mS cm⁻¹). In addition, naturally saline rivers are typically clustered within arid regions with evaporitic outcrops, which constitute abundant sources of potential saline specialist colonisers.

Our study is the first in comparing the ecological effects of bidirectional anthropogenic salinity modifications along a wide osmotic gradient, and one of the few examples in a wider context of stressors and systems [58]. Nonetheless, our data are limited due to the reduced available number of rivers primarily affected by dilution or salinisation, and not by other human impacts, and because quantifying the precise magnitude of the salinity change requires pre-disturbed data, which is typically unavailable. Particularly, the fact that all salinised sites were concentrated within the same basin (Llobregat River basin), could have affected our capacity to detect biological changes in response to

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salinisation. Future research using manipulative experiments should be performed to overcome these limitations and compare against the observational patterns presented here.

Two major management implications arise from this study. Firstly, salinisation may cause less predictable biological responses compared to dilution, and would depend on the proportion of salt-tolerant species in the regional pool and their dispersal and colonisation capacities [13]. However, reducing osmotic pressure in salinised rivers (e.g. diverting brine effluents) might be an effective restorative measure when rivers are easily accessible by close, abundant sources of freshwater colonisers. On the other hand, dilution reduces the habitat availability for a substantial fraction of mesoand hypersaline specialists, which can threaten their populations [59]. Therefore, the conservation of this unique fraction of biodiversity requires preserving sufficient natural habitats along the full conductivity gradient. Furthermore, these results can be also relevant to predict the impacts of other anthropogenic stressors that also occur naturally and whose frequency and intensity are expected to increase with global change, such as flow intermittence or fire disturbance [60]. In this case, ecological responses would depend on the proportion of tolerant organisms within the regional species pool and their capacity to colonise such novel environments [61].

In conclusion, we showed how the artificial modification of chemical stressors can result in directional-dependent effects along the same stress gradient, where trait-filtering and dispersal-related processes have differential roles in community assembly. The approach presented here provides empirical and conceptual insights that can help anticipating ecological effects of global change and improving environmental management.

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DATA ACCESSIBILITY

Supplementary Information S2 includes the R code and data to reproduce the analysis presented here.

AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS

CG-C, DS-F, MC-A, NB, AM and JV conceived the ideas and designed methodology; All authors collected macroinvertebrate and water samples; NO and AS performed isotopic analysis to identify sites affected by salinisation. JV performed water chemistry analysis. RA, PF, AM and NB identified acroinvertebia. ontributed critically to data publication. COMPETING INTERESTS The no competing interests. macroinvertebrate taxa; CG-C analysed the data; CG-C led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to data interpretation and manuscript reviewing, and gave final approval for

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TABLES

Table 1.

7							cond x diluted	cond x salinised		
8 9	Metric	cond	diluted	salinised	cond x diluted	cond x salinised	95% CI	95% CI	r^2 m	r^2
10 11 12	Taxonomic richness	-0.343***	-1.243	-1.559	0.146	0.231*	(-0.046, 0.338)	(0.165, 0.297)	56.7	82.1
13 14 15	Response diversity	-0.031***	-0.11	-0.309**	0.015	0.038**	(-0.010, 0.040)	(0.014, 0.062)	37.8	63.2
16 17	Response richness	-1.015***	0.81	-0.763	0.003	0.687	(-0.821, 0.827)	(-0.127, 1.501)	38.1	74.9
18	% short lifespan	-0.031***	0.27	-0.224	-0.028	0.046*	(-0.064, 0.008)	(0.008, 0.084)	67.9	71.8
19	% multivoltine	0.013**	0.548***	0.206	-0.048***	-0.018	(-0.070, -0.026)	(-0.041, 0.005)	40.4	40.4
20										
21 22 23	% ovoviviparous & terrestrial rep.	0.076***	-0.094	0.033	0.019	-0.049	(-0.040, 0.078)	(-0.106, 0.008)	25.8	48.6
24 25 26	% aerial respiration	-0.007	-0.131	-0.942***	0.018	0.114***	(-0.043, 0.079)	(0.055, 0.173)	46.8	78.4
27 28 29	% non-native taxa	-0.003	0.017	-0.003	-0.004	0.001	(-0.013, 0.005)	(-0.008, 0.010)	7.2	51.0
30	MDS axis 1	0.385***	-0.442	1.485**	0.037	-0.201***	(-0.080, 0.154)	(-0.311, -0.091)	85.6	96.0
31 32 33										
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FIGURE AND TABLE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Hypothetical community change trajectories in response to anthropogenic dilution and salinisation. Natural communities: blue squares; Diluted: orange circles; Salinised: red triangles H₁: communities with anthropogenically altered salinity could resemble natural communities with the same salinity (trait-filtering). H₂: communities with altered salinity could differ from natural communities following convergent trajectories (dispersal related-processes). H₃: communities of salinised and diluted rivers would follow divergent trajectories of change (trait-filtering and dispersal-related processes would have different importance depending on the salinity change direction).

Fig. 2. Plots of the models examining the effect of conductivity, altered salinity classes (*diluted* and *salinised*) and their interactions (*cond x diluted*, *cond x salinised*) on taxonomic richness, response trait diversity, response trait richness, community weighted mean traits (proportion of organisms with short life-span, multivoltinism, ovoviparity and terrestrial reproduction and aerial respiration), proportion of non-native taxa and MDS axis 1. Conductivity axis is represented in log-scale. Control: blue filled squares; Diluted: orange empty circles; Salinised: red empty triangles.

Fig. 3. Plot showing the first two axes of the MDS ordination for all samples (a) and grouped by conductivity classes (b) to show the degree of overlap between control, diluted and salinised communities. Control: blue filled squares; Diluted: orange empty circles; Salinised: red empty triangles. Conductivity classes: fresh: $< 0.1 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$; sub: $\ge 0.1 - >5.0 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$; hypo: $\ge 5 - >30 \text{ mS} \text{ cm}^{-1}$; meso: $\ge 30 - >100 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$; hyper: $\ge 100 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$. Parameter d represents the proportion of the representation scale between MDS 1 and 2 axes (e.g. d=0.5 means that the scale of MDS axis 2 is magnified by 2 respect to MDS 1).

Table 1. Results of the models examining the effect of conductivity (*cond*), altered salinity classes (*diluted* and *salinised*) and their interaction (*diluted x cond*, *salinised x cond*) on taxonomic richness, response diversity, response richness, community weighted mean traits and MDS axis 1. Predictor effect sizes and their significance are shown for each model (Significant terms are showed in bold: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001). 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) were also showed for the interaction terms to allow SES comparison. Information for the effect sizes and significance of the other environmental variables can be found in Table S5. Goodness-of-fit is also shown for the fixed factors (r^2_m) and fixed plus the random factor for each site (r^2_c).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Fig. S1. Geographical location of the sampling sites.

Table S1. Results of the $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$ analysis and sulphate concentrations for rivers potentially affected by salinisation.

Table S2. Description of the environmental variables used in the study.

Table S3. Pearson correlation coefficients between functional space (PCoA) axes and original response trait categories.

Supplementary Information S1. Identification of rivers affected by salinisation through isotopic analysis

Supplementary Information S3. Additional model details and results.

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