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Discussion

A reply to “Relevant factors in the eutrophication of the Uruguay River and the Río Negro”



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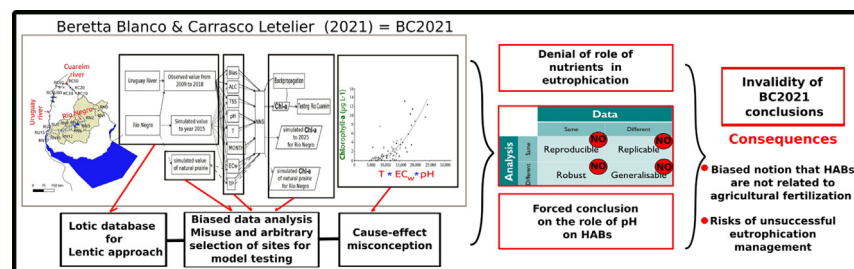
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HIGHLIGHTS

- BC2021 claims that pH, EC and T modulate river eutrophication.
- BC2021 claims that main factors controlling eutrophication are not directly linked to agriculture.
- We revisited BC2021's database and detected arbitrary mishandling analysis and site selection to come to forced conclusions.
- We confirmed that the increase in pH is a consequence (not a cause) of microalgae productivity.
- We support the limnological paradigm that nutrients enhance algal blooms.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

A recent paper by Beretta-Blanco and Carrasco-Letelier (2021) claims that agricultural eutrophication is not one of the main causes for cyanobacterial blooms in rivers and artificial reservoirs. By combining rivers of markedly different hydrological characteristics e.g., presence/absence and number of dams, river discharge and geological setting, the study speculates about the role of nutrients for modulating phytoplankton chlorophyll-a. Here, we identified serious flaws, from erratic and inaccurate data manipulation. The study did not define how erroneous original dataset values were treated, how the variables below the detection/quantification limit were numerically introduced, lack of mandatory variables for river studies such as flow and rainfall, arbitrary removal of pH > 7.5 values (which were not outliers), and finally how extreme values of other environmental variables were included. In addition, we identified conceptual and procedural mistakes such as biased construction/evaluation of model prediction capability. The study trained the model using pooled data from a short restricted lotic section of the (large) Uruguay River and from both lotic and reservoir domains of the Negro River, but then tested predictability within the (small) Cuareim River. Besides these methodological considerations, the article shows misinterpretations of the statistical correlation of cause and effect neglecting basic limnological knowledge of the ecology of harmful algal blooms (HABs) and international research on land use effects on freshwater quality. The argument that pH is a predictor variable for HABs neglects overwhelming basic paradigms of carbon fluxes and change in pH because of primary productivity. As a result, the article introduces the notion that HABs formation are not related to agricultural land use and water residence time and generate a great risk for the management of surface waterbodies. This reply also emphasizes the need for good practices of open data management, especially for public databases in view of external reproducibility.

1. Introduction

The increase in nutrient concentration at ecological scales is one of the largest current problems for water quality worldwide as reported by the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal #6 (<https://www.sdg6data.org/>). Eutrophication is the increase in primary production of aquatic systems (i.e., macrophytes and/or phytoplankton) from excessive contribution and availability of nitrogen and phosphorus from either natural or anthropic origin (Wetzel, 2001; Moss et al., 2011; Bhagwati and Ahamad, 2019; Ibelings et al., 2021). In addition, the eutrophication process is also defined using dissolved oxygen, total nitrogen, total carbon and chlorophyll-a concentrations (Nixon, 1995). In particular, current intensive agricultural land use is one of the main causes of eutrophication (Altieri and Nicholls, 2001; Allan, 2004; Moss, 2009; Wurtsbaugh et al., 2019). Eutrophication exerts multiple consequences at local (e.g., increase of HABs, Paerl et al., 2001), regional (e.g., decrease or loss of several ecosystem services; Dodds et al., 2009; Janssen et al., 2021) and global levels (e.g., positive feedback with climate change; Moss et al., 2011; Li et al., 2021). The massive application of agrochemicals associated with such agricultural management practices leads to the elimination or reduction of the native vegetation cover. One of the consequences is the decrease in soil porosity, and the increase in surface runoff and soil transport as a result of disaggregation (Hu et al., 2018). These are “high-impact” land uses, associated with negative alteration of soil properties and increased diffuse water pollution (Glendell et al., 2014). The contact of rainwater with the particles forming soil aggregates generates electrostatic repulsive forces that lead to their dispersion, so the structure of the soil becomes altered. Grassland soils are mostly mollisols, with dominant 2:1 clay minerals of net negative charge that are not pH dependent (Li et al., 2017). Thus, for example, with the extensive application of phosphate fertilizers they can be adsorbed on the surface of these particles, decreasing the stability of the aggregates and then migrating to the water during soil erosion (Li et al., 2017). As reported by Hu et al. (2018), internal forces in soil can hierarchically contribute to more erosion processes than the force of the splash impact of raindrops. Hence, a change in the chemical properties of the soil can, to a large extent, lead to a decreased infiltration rate due to the structural instability generated by the dispersion of clay and the soil surface sealing. Consequently, these processes determine that soils do behave differently under conditions of rain and respond differently in terms of amount of runoff and erosive processes (Norton et al., 1999). None of these quantitative variations are considered into erosion models such as the USLE-RUSLE (LaRocque, 2013). Instead, LaRocque (2013) excludes the simulation of important erosion processes. These models were first elaborated for soils of the USA and then used in other regions with scarce data, and despite being developed at plot-scale, they have

been applied to larger areas (Favis-Mortlock et al., 2001; Borrelli et al., 2020; Abdulkareem et al., 2021).

Worldwide, it is widely documented that eutrophication is one of the main factors controlling the increase in the frequency and duration of HABs (Reynolds, 2006; Heisler et al., 2008; Paerl and Huisman, 2008; Carey et al., 2012; Paerl and Paul, 2012; O’Neil et al., 2012; Huisman et al., 2018). Other regulatory factors of HABs are the availability of light, water temperature, and water residence time (Paerl and Huisman, 2008; Moss, 2009; Reichwaldt and Ghadouani, 2012). In lotic systems, the increase in water residence time produced by drought events, water extraction, habitat fragmentation, or the construction of dams, generate favorable conditions for the development of several species of HABs (Padisák et al., 1999; Paerl et al., 2011; Bowling et al., 2013; Leigh et al., 2015; Brasil et al., 2016).

Agricultural activities in South America, and particularly in Uruguay have intensified in the last two decades by the application of cutting-edge technologies, massive use of fertilizers/pesticides and irrigation to increase crop production and economical profit (Modernel et al., 2016; Gazzano et al., 2019; Bueno et al., 2021). This process has been unequivocally associated to surface freshwater and coastal eutrophication (Goyenola et al., 2015, 2020, 2021; Aubriot et al., 2017, 2020; Chalar et al., 2017). Bloom formation is driven by the high residence time and the high nutrient concentration in the largest reservoirs of Uruguay, i.e., Salto Grande reservoir on the lower section of Uruguay River and a series of three consecutive reservoirs on the middle section of Negro River (O’Farrell et al., 2012; O’Farrell and Izaguirre, 2014; Bonilla et al., 2015; Bordet et al., 2017; González-Piana et al., 2017; Haakonsson et al., 2017; Martínez de la Escalera et al., 2017). There is regional evidence about the anthropogenic origin and further export of massive cyanobacterial blooms to the Rio de la Plata estuary (Aubriot et al., 2020; Kruk et al., 2021). In addition, it has been shown that this process of bloom formation and export started during the early 1970s due to a combination of climatically-driven increased river discharge and anthropogenic impacts within La Plata Basin (Perez et al., 2021). These studies indicate that in Uruguay, the intensive agricultural activities increase the trophic state of aquatic ecosystems. A recent paper published by Beretta-Blanco and Carrasco-Letelier (2021) (hereafter BC2021) entitled “*Relevant factors in the eutrophication of the Uruguay River and the Río Negro*” claims that water temperature, electrical conductivity and pH are the most relevant factors controlling eutrophication. In addition, the lack of significant correlation between chlorophyll-a concentrations (Chl-a) and total phosphorus, which is not necessarily expected in river systems, allows the study to assert that eutrophication is not directly linked to agricultural land-use. To this end, BC2021 utilized the monitoring database of the Environmental Ministry of Uruguay (formerly National Environmental Directorate - DINAMA), (Ministerio de Ambiente, 2021).

The generation of knowledge through evidence is the basis of the scientific method: from observations questions are raised and then answered following a consistent and potentially replicable methodology (Hilborn and Mangel, 2013). If all analysis components are available and well documented, valuable time is saved for reproducibility of published results, and other researchers can easily revisit and use already published data (Button et al., 2013). Sharing the computer codes of scientific findings publicly helps others understand the analysis, evaluate any study's conclusions, and reuse codes for future analysis, thus contributing to transparent practices, analysis and methodology (Culina et al., 2020).

The objective of this paper is to reply to BC2021 and to demonstrate that the study relied on a series of wrong assumptions and different kinds of errors that need to be amended, rectified and disentangled. In this reply, we discuss the lack of reproducibility from the data acquisition, manipulation and analysis process, and, the wrong interpretation of the statistical results and discussion in the context of current paradigms of limnology and ecology of HABs. We followed the protocols as described in BC2021 paper, with the aim to reproduce the analysis. Also, in the discussion section, we address the statistical findings in the context of the updated regional and international literature. In this paper, we demonstrate that the statistical analyses performed by BC2021 are based on both, biased data-analyses and an ill-defined correlative approach. Altogether, our analysis refutes one of the main conclusions that “factors that drive Chl-a concentrations (i.e., algae) are not directly linked to agriculture land use”.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Reproducibility

The reproducibility of a scientific paper is defined as a work able to be revisited and recreated independently, using the same data and analyses published by the original authors (White et al., 2013; Bello and Renter, 2018). Reproducible is different from replicable, robust, and generalizable (Fig. 1; Culina et al., 2020). Reproducibility can be understood at computer-science level (codes, software, hardware, etc.), empirical-level (detailed information about the experiments and observations allowing transparent data acquisition and availability) and statistical-level (detailed information about the statistical analyses, threshold values of detection and statistical power of the tests as well as the parameters of the models) (The Turing Way Community et al., 2019). In this paper, the three levels of reproducibility mentioned above were analyzed, therefore, both raw data processed for analysis and the codes are available in the Appendix B and C. In addition, for an interactive version available online, all data and codes are hosted in a public repository on the GitHub platform (https://github.com/NALcan/Reply_BC2021).

		Data	
		Same	Different
Analysis	Same	Reproducible	Replicable
	Different	Robust	Generalizable

Fig. 1. Dimensions of reproducible research in science. Diagram redrawn and modified from The Turing Way Community et al. (2019).

2.2. Recreation of the database used by BC2021

All the steps followed to recreate the database used by BC2021 are detailed below.

2.2.1. Site selection

The OAN (Observatorio Ambiental Nacional; Ministerio de Ambiente, 2021; <https://www.ambiente.gub.uy/oan/>) is an environmental data repository from the Environmental Ministry of Uruguay (formerly National Environmental Directorate - DINAMA) that makes environmental data gathered in the frame of the national monitoring program and other associated institutions, available to scientists and managers. In particular, OAN holds water quality data for the Uruguay and Negro Rivers and associated tributaries. Fig. 2 and Table A1 show the sampling stations within the main rivers and tributaries, where data for the environmental variables used by BC2021 can be retrieved (i.e., Chl-a, alkalinity, water conductivity, total phosphorus, total suspended solids, pH, and water temperature). The data used in this reply were downloaded from the OAN site on the 27th of July 2021.

The selected data by BC2021 for the Negro River were collected between 2009-05-01 and 2018-11-30 and for the Uruguay River between 2014-06-01 and 2018-11-31. However, the study did not specify the

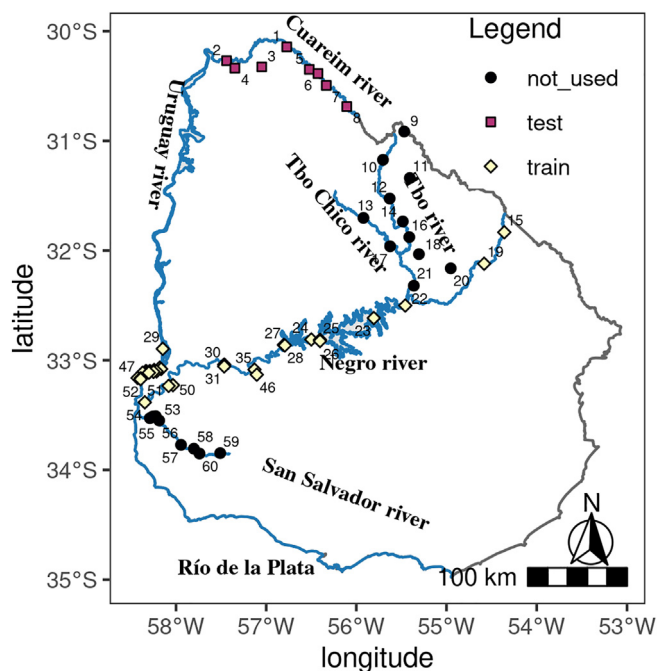


Fig. 2. Map of the OAN monitoring stations showing the data used by BC2021 (Negro River, Uruguay River, and Cuareim River) and other available data not used by BC2021 (i.e., San Salvador River, Tacuarembó (Tbo) River, and Tacuarembó (Tbo) Chico River, in black). The colors represent different aspects of data handling by BC2021, i.e., the training of the models (yellow, Negro River and Uruguay River, respectively) and validation of the models (violet points, Cuareim River). Site code: 1 = RC50, 2 = RC60, 3 = RC3C70, 4 = RCYU80, 5 = RC40, 6 = RC35, 7 = RC20, 8 = RC10, 9 = CU1, 10 = TG1, 11 = CU2, 12 = TG2, 13 = TCH010, 14 = CU3, 15 = RNO, 16 = TG3, 17 = TCH020, 18 = YA1, 19 = RN1, 20 = CA1, 21 = TG4, 22 = RN2, 23 = RN3, 24 = RN7, 25 = RN5, 26 = RN6, 27 = RN10, 28 = RN9, 29 = RU0, 30 = RN14, 31 = RN13, 32 = RU1, 33 = RU2, 34 = RU4, 35 = RN11, 36 = RU7, 37 = RU12, 38 = RU5, 39 = RU11, 40 = RU3, 41 = RU8, 42 = RU6, 43 = RU10, 44 = RU13, 45 = RU9, 46 = RN12, 47 = RU15, 48 = RU16, 49 = RU14, 50 = RN15, 51 = RN16, 52 = RN17, 53 = SS6, 54 = SS6.5, 55 = SS7, 56 = SS5, 57 = SS4, 58 = SS3, 59 = SS1, 60 = SS2. For further detailed information, see Table A1. https://github.com/NALcan/Reply_BC2021/blob/master/6.Interactive_code_files/MapofSamplingStations.md#published-map.

temporal window used to validate the model for the Cuareim River data. The database used by us to reproduce the analyses in this article, includes all sites from Negro River and Uruguay River with Chl-a data available in the OAN which were all specified in Table 1 from BC2021 (Appendix B and Table A1).

In our case, data from the Cuareim River are only used for plotting Fig. 4 and Table A3, but not for other remaining analysis, as BC2021 used the Cuareim River data only for validating the neural network (Neural Net Simulation; NNS).

2.2.2. Variables selection

The database used to reproduce the analyses in this article included the same variables as reported by BC2021 (Appendix B).

2.2.3. Data cleaning

We exactly followed the criteria explicitly reported by BC2021 for the database curation. In cases where the criteria were not reported, we made some decisions: when the data-base presented special characters (i.e., <LD, below limit detection), we opted to replace them (i.e., NA, not available). Since there was no definition of outliers in BC2021 for the environmental variables, we adopted the same criteria used in BC2021 for Chl-a, which implied a removal of the values higher than the 99.5% percentile. Outliers were estimated using pooled data from the Negro River and Uruguay River.

2.3. Analysis of river comparisons

In order to compare the differences in the distribution of environmental variables between the Uruguay and Negro River, in this reply we performed a likelihood ratio test. We fitted maximum likelihood models with a different structure from the following general model (Bolker et al., 2009):

$$y = a + b_i x + \varepsilon$$

$$\varepsilon \approx N(0, e_i \sigma^2)$$

where a is a common intercept, b_i is the coefficient for the groups' (i) mean, ε are the residuals which follows a Normal (N) distribution with mean 0 and variance σ^2 , and e_i is a coefficient for the changes in variance. Three models were fitted:

- I. mean varying for each group (Uruguay River and Negro River) and equal variance ($b_i, e_i = 1$),
- II. equal mean and different variances for each group ($b_i = 0, e_i$),
- III. different mean and variance for each group (b_i, e_i).

We then evaluated the log-likelihood ratio between models I and III to inspect the differences of variance among groups and between models II and III to evaluate differences in mean values among groups. Under the

Table 1

Data considered as outliers following the 99.5% criteria for Chl-a. The four upper rows are the outliers detected in both, this paper and BC2021, while the fifth bottom row reported in italics shows an outlier as reported by BC2021, which does not fulfill the 99.5% criteria. https://github.com/NALcan/Reply_BC2021/blob/master/6.Interactive_code_files/Data_AnalysisVisualization.md#995-percentile-limits-for-chl-a.

Sampling site	Date	Chl-a ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)
RN5	2012-01-19	72.5
RN6	2012-08-15	179.0
RN3	2012-12-05	276.0
RN5	2012-12-06	192.0
<i>RN12</i>	<i>2018-04-17</i>	<i>55.0</i>

null hypothesis, the log-likelihood ratio follows a *Chi square* distribution (Zuur et al., 2009).

All data analyses, visualizations and models were performed in R and RStudio statistical programming environment (R Core Team, 2021; R Studio Team, 2021). Data manipulation and graphics were constructed using the meta package "tidyverse" (Wickham et al., 2019a) and other supplementary packages for plot assembly, dates and hours manipulation, data cleaning, etc. (Grolemund and Wickham, 2011; Neuwirth, 2014; Wickham et al., 2019b; Pedersen, 2020; Firke et al., 2021). Finally, maximum likelihood models were fitted with *gls* function in the "nlme" package (Pinheiro et al., 2021).

3. Results

3.1. Recreation of the database used by BC2021

3.1.1. Data cleaning

The database used by BC2021 comes from a public environmental data repository, but the steps followed to compile it (i.e., data curation), were not clearly explained in order to be reproduced. There are some gaps in the database that should be considered to perform appropriate exploratory and statistical analyses. For example, the original dataset downloaded from the OAN website contains special characters such as "<LD" or "<LC" or "LD < x < LC", which indicate values that are below (<) or between (LD < x < LC) the detection limit (LD) and quantification limit (LC) of each analytical method. There is no explanation about how such values were treated. It is unknown whether such values were either replaced or eliminated, or if the value or the complete observation were eliminated, or if the same criteria for both explanatory and response variables were utilized. In our analysis, the amount of data below LD or LC was 21% for total suspended solids and 12% for the response variable Chl-a for the Uruguay River and Negro River (Table A2). If the percentage of data below the quantification threshold is over 25%, biased information leads to model misspecification and ulterior misinterpretations (Newman et al., 1989; Croghan and Egeghy, 2003). In our analysis, we opted to replace all special values with NA (i.e., not available). After removing such observations, the total amount of data was $n = 465$ for the Negro River and $n = 372$ for the Uruguay River (https://github.com/NALcan/Reply_BC2021/blob/master/6.Interactive_code_files/Data_integration_md.md#how-many-data-per-river-is-available).

3.1.2. Removal of outliers

3.1.2.1. Response variable (Chl-a). BC2021 reported that the criterion utilized to remove outliers was "any measures of Chl-a higher than the 99.5% percentile were regarded as outliers and excluded". However, it is not clear whether the 99.5% percentile was calculated for all sites together or for each single river or sampling site. BC2021 defined as outliers five data points, i.e., RN3 (station 23 in Fig. 2) in 2012-12-05, RN5 (station 25 in Fig. 2) twice for both 2012-12-06 and 2012-01-19, RN6 (station 26 in Fig. 2) in 2012-08-15, and RN12 (station 46 in Fig. 2) in 2018-04-17. However, using the same definition as BC2021 for the Negro and Uruguay River together, we detected only four outliers: RN3 (2012-12-05), RN5 (2012-01-09 and 2012-12-06) and RN6 (2012-08-15) (Table 1), with a Chl-a threshold value of the 99.5% percentile, estimated to be $70.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. When outlier estimation was performed separately for each river (i.e., Uruguay and Negro River), only two data points were eliminated for the Negro River (threshold = $181.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and two data points for the Uruguay River (threshold = $20.0 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) (Table A3). Finally, it must be pointed out that four out of the five outliers detected by BC2021 correspond to the artificial reservoirs located at the Negro River (station 18; 25; 26 in Fig. 2, and Table 1).

3.1.2.2. Environmental variables. BC2021 did not describe how explanatory variables were treated. For example, in the data downloaded from the OAN a wrong water temperature value of 257°C is recorded (RU14,

2014–12-17). We followed the same criteria used for Chl-a and replaced with “NA” all the values from the environmental variables higher than the 99.5% percentile, and hence, we further removed 26 other values considered as outliers (Fig. A1). The threshold values estimated for each environmental variable were as follows: alkalinity = 100 mg L⁻¹, conductivity = 215 μS cm⁻¹, total phosphorus = 280 μg L⁻¹, total suspended solids = 81.9 mg L⁻¹, pH = 8.92, and water temperature = 29.8 °C.

3.2. Chl-a versus environmental variables

BC2021 reported biplots of environmental variables and Chl-a (see Fig. 3 in BC2021). In order to facilitate visual comparison of Fig. 3 in BC2021 and Fig. 3 presented in this paper, we have scanned BC2021-biplots and compare them case-by-case to our results using prime letters (Fig. 3). First, we detected distinct inconsistencies and differences in the distributions (Fig. 3). The scatterplots of Chl-a with explanatory variables without further treatment (i.e. removal of extreme values) are shown in Fig. A1. Second, we detected that some data were not included in the BC2021 dataset. All pH values reported by BC2021 are lower than 7.5, but pH values in our dataset were even higher than 8 and reached a maximum of 8.88 (Fig. 3 d and d'). This is particularly relevant as pH was suggested by BC2021 to be one of the “*Relevant factors in the eutrophication of the Uruguay River and the Río Negro*”.

3.3. Differences in the abiotic variables between rivers

The environmental variables used in this work showed significant differences in mean and variance between the Uruguay River and Negro River, except for water temperature and log₁₀ normalized Chl-a that showed significant differences in the mean but not in the variance (Fig. 4 and Table A4).

4. Discussion

The statistical analysis of ecological data represents a challenge from the numerical point of view for detecting outliers, assessing correlation between explicative variables, nonlinear relationships among variables, occurrence of many zero observations, and spatial and temporal correlations (Zuur et al., 2010; White et al., 2013). There are various protocols to ensure the correct communication of data collection and preparation process, statistical analysis and validation of models, which all together ultimately conform the quality and credibility of the information (Zuur et al., 2010; Zuur and Ieno, 2016). Good practices for opening and documenting any investigation cycle add value to the data, ensuring their integrity and reproducibility in a responsible manner (White et al., 2013; Bello and Renter, 2018). In this article, it was not possible to consistently reproduce the results published by BC2021 due to information gaps in the procedures. This is especially relevant as the database in question is publicly available in a national repository. We show here that data selection and the treatment of outliers and missing data in BC2021 was somehow biased and/or unclear. A noticeable example is the conclusion that pH is one of the main environmental variables modulating Chl-a concentration. Specifically, we showed BC2021 did not include almost 40% of the high pH observations, but the reason behind is unknown for the readers. Such an arbitrary and ill-defined method of data removal is clearly needed to reach the wrong conclusions about the causes and consequences of limnological process in rivers.

BC2021 relied on a correlative approach (artificial neural networks) to predict the Chl-a concentration (i.e., effect) based on some selected environmental variables (i.e., potential causes). Even under a correct use of the data, correlative models do not allow to define cause and effect mechanisms (Matthews, 2000; Messerli, 2012; Velickovic, 2015). Under this analysis and result interpretations, BC2021 proposed that the cause of the increased Chl-a levels is related to changes in pH and water temperature, but at the same time, such an increase in Chl-a levels is not related to

agriculture and anthropogenic eutrophication. Below, we briefly discuss some well-known paradigms of river ecology to show that the conclusions reported by BC2021, are neither sustained within the current limnological paradigms, nor there is enough scientific evidence to support them.

The OAN database for both Uruguay River and Negro River basin contains nearly 100 water quality variables (e.g., physico-chemical, microbiological, pesticides) (Ministerio de Ambiente, 2021). BC2021 selected only six variables without clearly pre-defined criteria (i.e., Chl-a, alkalinity, water conductivity, total phosphorus, total suspended solids, pH, and water temperature), but excluded other classical important limnological variables, such as total nitrogen concentration, or river flow and/or rainfall, which are particularly relevant for studies in lotic systems. The sites used to train and test the models in BC2021 exhibited systematic differences in their environmental conditions. To train the models, BC2021 used data sampled downstream of the hydroelectric reservoir (Salto Grande dam) for only a very short section of the Uruguay River. However, in the case of Negro River, data were selected from samples in the lotic course of the river, but also from the three major reservoirs (i.e., Bonete, Baygorria, and Palmar Reservoirs, Fig. 2). BC2021 used Cuareim River data to test the models. However, other small rivers in the basin of the Negro and Uruguay Rivers (e.g., San Salvador and Tacuarembó rivers), which are available in the OAN database, were not used by BC2021.

Cuareim River displays different dynamics and drivers, being inadequate to compare it with Negro River and Uruguay River. Moreover, the Cuareim River exhibits high flow peaks after heavy rains that are quickly discharged into the Uruguay River, but also, in dry summers the main channel often dries up and disappears intermittently (DINAMA, 2011). This hydrological regime is extremely different from the dynamics of the Negro and Uruguay River, whose hydrological regimes are largely governed by the management of dams to fulfill the country's hydroelectric demands and other economic and cultural uses (DINAMA, 2018). In turn, these differences exert direct consequences on nutrient cycling and therefore on water chemistry (Yeom et al., 2019).

Spurious correlations between conductivity and Chl-a levels arise because of the choice of data sets to train the models. The Negro River holds naturally much higher water conductivity values than those of the Uruguay River (Fig. 4), because this river flows over Cretaceous basalts, i.e., the so-called Basalt Basin of the Geologic Chart of Uruguay (Bossi et al., 1998), while Negro River flows over a sandy sedimentary basin formed during Late Quaternary. The exclusion of Uruguay River reservoir (with high Chl-a values and low water conductivity; Conde et al., 1996; Chalar et al., 2002; Kruk et al., 2015) and the inclusion of Negro River reservoirs (with high Chl-a values and high water conductivity; Chalar et al., 2014) likely led BC2021 to suggest a significant correlation between these variables. The inclusion of data available from other sources (e.g., Administrative Commission of the Uruguay River) from the Salto Grande Reservoir containing high Chl-a values and low water conductivity values would surely modify this type of association. In this sense, extensive monthly water chemistry data taken from December 2016 to November 2018 in sites located throughout the 500-km-long Uruguay River including both upstream and downstream sections of Salto Grande Reservoir are available at the web site of the Administrative Commission of the Uruguay River (Comité Científico CARU, 2019a, 2019b, www.CARU.org.uy).

Rivers and reservoirs display differential morphometry, ecosystem structure and functioning. Reservoirs normally exhibit conditions of higher depth, residence time, sedimentation rate, and light availability than those of rivers (Chalar, 2009; Tundisi and Tundisi, 2012). Reservoir conditions thus typically promote a higher phytoplankton growth rate and biomass than upstream reaches (Soares et al., 2008; Aubriot et al., 2020; Kruk et al., 2021). On the other hand, rivers may also exhibit high availability of nutrients but the low residence time, turbulent regime, and moderate light intensity due to high inorganic turbidity are all limiting factors for microalgae biomass and bloom formation (Reynolds and Descy, 1996; Ferrari et al., 2011; O'Farrell and Izaguirre, 2014; Somma et al., 2021). In this sense, BC2021 analyzed mixed lentic and lotic data (37 lotic and 6

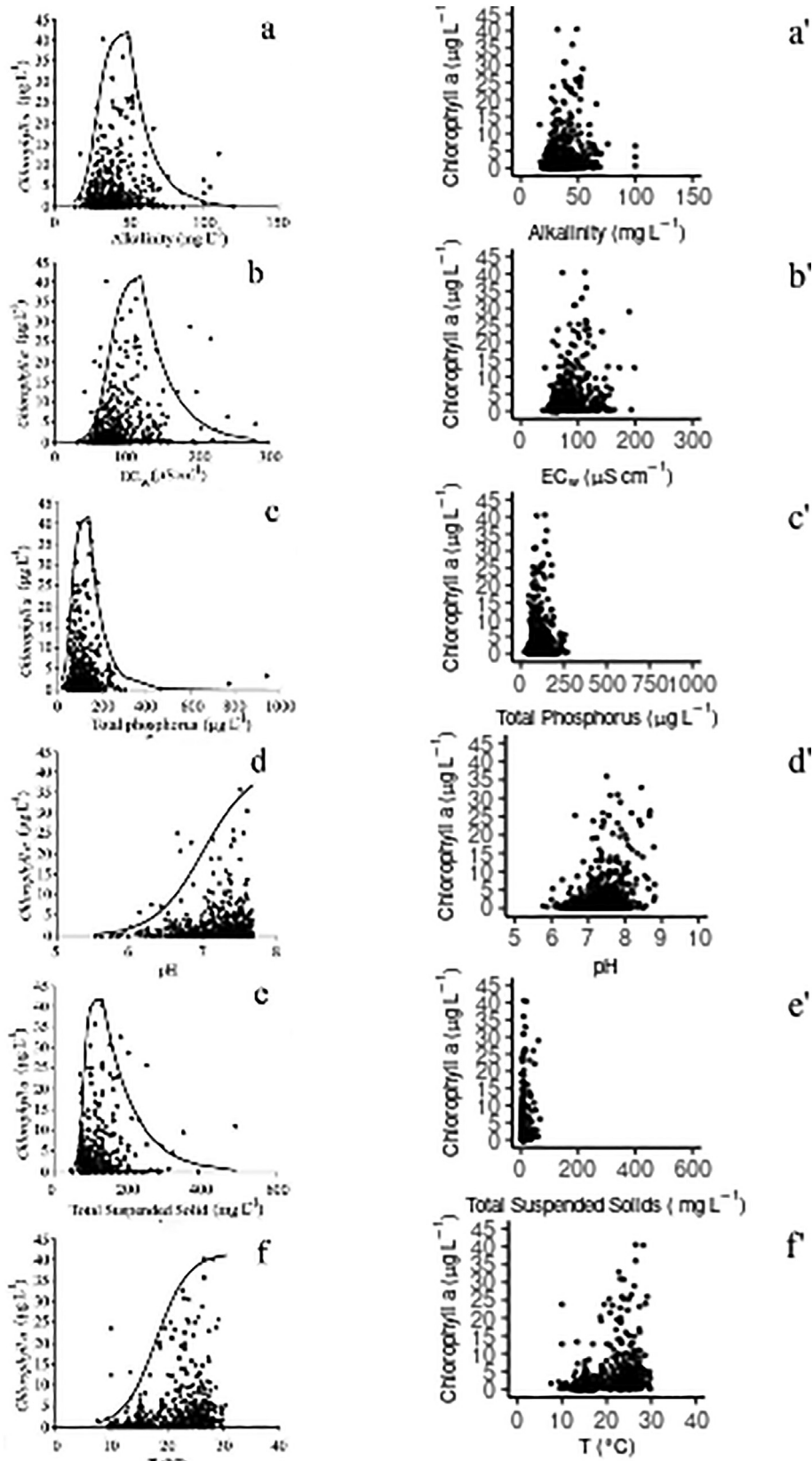


Fig. 3. Biplots of Chl-a versus all environmental variables used: a: alkalinity, b: water conductivity (EC_w), c: total phosphorus, d: pH, e: total suspended solids, f: temperature. In all comparative cases, the graphs scanned from BC2021 are shown to the left (letters) and the graphs of the present paper to the right (prime-letters). To facilitate the visual comparison the axes (x and y) of the biplots we used the same scaling, except for pH (in BC2021 the x axis only attains up to 8), as 58 pH values were removed (d). The Chl-a value of $55 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ that BC2021 considered to as an outlier (RN 2018-04-17) is not shown in any of the biplots, because the Chl-a axis ends at $45 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. https://github.com/NAlcan/Reply_BC2021/blob/master/6.Interactive_code_files/Data_AnalysisVisualization_files/figure-gfm/Figure%203-1.png.

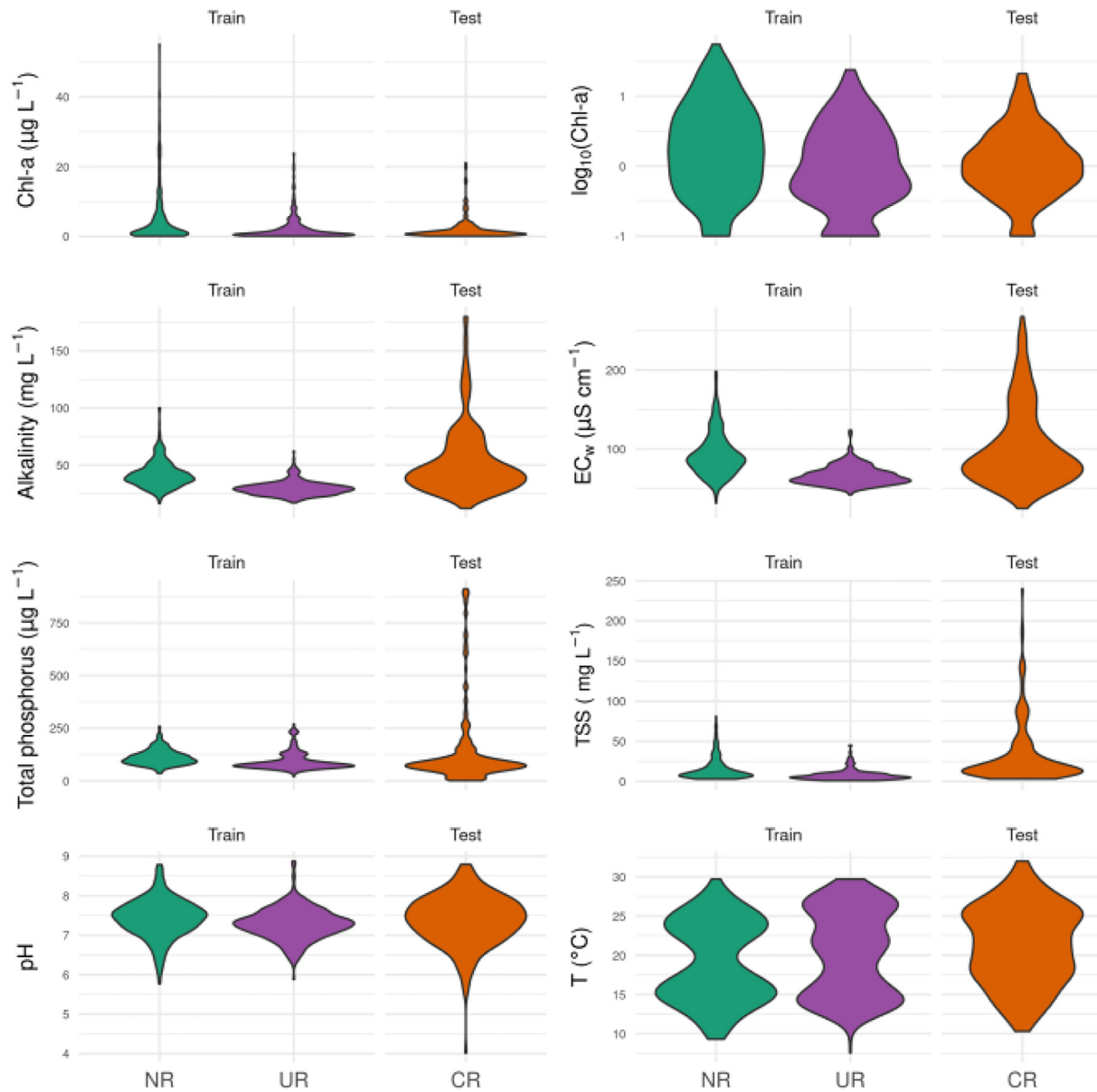


Fig. 4. Violin plots for environmental variables for Negro River (NR, green), Uruguay River (UR, violet), and Cuareim River (CR, orange), respectively. NR and UR data were used to train the model and data from CR to test model performance in BC2021. UR and NR exhibit significant differences (p -values < 0.05) in mean and variance for all environmental variables, except for temperature variance (A4). Note that the Cuareim River was subject to the same outlier removal procedure as explained in Section 2.2.3. https://github.com/NAlcan/Reply_BC2021/blob/master/6.Interactive_code_files/Data_AnalysisVisualization_files/figure4-gfm/Figure4-1.png.

lentic sites) without considering the major differences in the functioning of these two types of systems. The use of a trophic index designed for lakes (i.e., OCDE, 1982), the partial analysis of the relationship between nutrients and Chl-a, and the lack of river flow and rainfall data, likely affects the results and interpretations. Furthermore, BC2021 compared the findings with those of shallow lentic ecosystems, introducing the predation pressure concept by Cladocera as a main structuring factor of river phytoplankton community. However, this concept developed for shallow lakes (Scheffer, 1998; Scheffer and Jeppesen, 2007), does not hold for rivers.

BC2021 attempted to simulate the TP concentrations in Negro River under land use change simulation to natural prairie (grasslands) by using a Beretta (2019) model. The interpretation of this simulation is very relevant concerning the potential implications for supporting sustainable land use practices or not. BC2021 concluded that “Thus, changing the entire basin land use to natural prairie would not reduce TP or EC_w to the levels required to produce a significant effect on Chl-a”. BC2021 concludes that HABs in

Negro River are not directly related to agricultural fertilization (although slightly to erosion), and therefore, there is no need to change intensive land use trends and practices in the catchment. The basis of such a simulation is unfortunately unknown, since the Beretta (2019) is not a peer reviewed model (poster presentation in the XXII Latinamerican Congress of Soil Sciences, https://www.researchgate.net/publication/336590807_Poster_Impacto_de_la_erosion_en_el_contenido_de_P_en_Rio_Negro). The interpretation of the results yielded by this model contradicts a massive amount of international and local empirical evidence (Goyenola et al., 2015, 2021), and allows BC2021 to conclude that the high TP levels are naturally exported by the river basin. This implication is extremely important for the environmental management to neglect the impacts of agriculture on natural freshwater systems.

BC2021 reported in the Introduction that “increases in pH may promote cyanobacteria growth” and backed this statement up using Gao et al. (2015) and Zhao et al. (2019). Neither Gao et al. (2015) nor Zhao et al.

(2019) documented such an effect of pH on microalgae growth. Gao et al. (2015) did report that “The sensitivity analyses indicated that a positive relationship existed between Chla and pH”. This is in fact in most cases true, but the increase in pH is actually a consequence of productivity instead of its cause; and this concept is one of the basic paradigms of microalgae productivity (Margalef, 1983; Schneider and Campion-Alsumard, 1999; Wetzel, 2001; Reynolds, 2006; Stumm and Morgan, 2012). In the same regard, Zhao et al. (2019) simply reported threshold pH levels for microalgae growth. Therefore, the pH misinterpretation of BC2021 reveals a conceptually incorrect selection of the explanatory variables.

BC2021 also claimed that changes in temperature and electric conductivity promote eutrophication. This is also in fact to some extent true, since some of the ions contributing to conductivity can be nutrients available for the aquatic primary producers. Both temperature and electric conductivity might exert a positive effect on microalgae growth, but BC2021 actually implies that the observed aquatic eutrophication is driven by temperature, electric conductivity, and pH. A review of undergraduate limnological textbooks would rapidly show otherwise (Margalef, 1983; Wetzel, 2001; Kalf, 2002; Reynolds, 2006). In stark contrast to the implications of BC2021, since the 1970s the international debates around eutrophication have focused on which nutrient, either phosphorus, nitrogen, or both, should be reduced in the basins to reverse the negative effects of eutrophication, both in lakes (e.g., Conley et al., 2009; Paerl et al., 2016a, 2016b; Schindler et al., 2016) and in rivers (McDowell et al., 2009; Dodds and Smith, 2016). It is actually extremely striking that none of three most important relevant factors of eutrophication identified by BC2021 corresponded to a primary source of energy for vegetal and microalgae growth.

Finally, there is a vast literature published demonstrating the relationship between climate warming, eutrophication and HABs (Moss et al., 2011; Jeppesen et al., 2014). However, in order to fully demonstrate such an association it is necessary to analyze long-term ad hoc databases (Ralston and Moore, 2020), since high temperatures promote the occurrence of HABs (Paerl et al., 2016a; Visser et al., 2016; Savadova et al., 2018) due to the effect of temperature on the metabolism of organisms (Brown et al., 2004), especially cyanobacteria (Reynolds, 2006; Paerl et al., 2011; Paerl and Paul, 2012). It has been specifically observed that the highest biomasses and duration of the blooms in Uruguay are observed mainly in summer, in the reservoirs of both Negro and Uruguay River (Chalar, 2006; O’Farrell and Izaguirre, 2014; Bonilla et al., 2015; González-Piana et al., 2017; Haakonsson et al., 2017; Aubriot et al., 2020; Kruk et al., 2015, 2021). Therefore, the association between HABs and temperature reported by BC2021 is likely attributed to the seasonal effect (De León and Chalar, 2003; Sommer et al., 2012; O’Farrell and Izaguirre, 2014) rather than to climate change. Despite some predictions regarding climate warming indicate that higher temperatures will stimulate the occurrence of HABs (Kosten et al., 2012; Paerl, 2017; Ho et al., 2019; Gobler, 2020), the analysis by BC2021 failed to demonstrate this issue because the seasonal effect was not considered.

5. Conclusions

Based on a biased data selection and a correlative approach, BC2021 concluded that the increase in Chl-a values are explained by pH, conductivity, and water temperature and that there is no relation with anthropogenic eutrophication and particularly with intensive agriculture. We showed that data manipulation and an arbitrary selection of sites and explanatory variables for model training and testing led to the wrong conclusions. However, the most important aspect that should be emphasized is that BC2021 ignores fundamental aspects of the functioning of continental aquatic systems and an ever growing amount of empirical evidence indicating opposite conclusions. BC2021 mixed information from reservoirs and rivers, confused response variables with explanatory variables, and based all conclusions on a model that has not been peer-reviewed, which neglects fundamental relationships between water chemistry and land use. In a nutshell, BC2021 promotes a misconception for sustainable environmental

management practices of land use, with potentially very serious consequences for the present and future of water quality and aquatic biodiversity. In addition, it can generate erroneous policies that could impact on the water quality of Uruguay aquatic ecosystems.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: No competing financial interest. On behalf of all authors Ignacio Alcántara and Felipe García-Rodríguez.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.151854>.

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