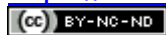


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1 **Using integrated models to analyze and predict the variance of diatom**
2 **community composition in an agricultural area**

3

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15 Key words: daily dataset, diatoms, lowland river, integrated modeling, prediction

16 **Abstract**

17 With the growing demand of assessing the ecological status, there is the need to fully understand the
18 relationship between the planktic diversity and the environmental factors. Species richness and
19 Shannon index have been widely used to describe the biodiversity of a community. Besides, we
20 introduced the first ordination value from non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) as a new
21 index to represent the community similarity variance. In this study, we hypothesized that the variation
22 of diatom community in rivers in an agricultural area were influenced by hydro-chemical variables.
23 We collected daily mixed water samples using ISCO auto water samplers for diatoms and for water-
24 chemistry analysis at the outlet of a lowland river for a consecutive year. An integrated modeling was
25 adopted including random forest (RF) to decide the importance of the environmental factors
26 influencing diatoms, generalized linear models (GLMs) combined with 10-folder cross validation to
27 analyze and predict the diatom variation. The hierarchical analysis highlighted antecedent
28 precipitation index (API) as the controlling hydrological variable and water temperature, Si^{2+} and
29 $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ as the main chemical controlling factors in our study area. The generalized linear models
30 performed better prediction for Shannon index ($R^2 = 0.44$) and NMDS ($R^2 = 0.51$) than diatom
31 abundance ($R^2 = 0.25$) and species richness ($R^2 = 0.25$). Our findings confirmed that Shannon index

32 and the NMDS as an index showed good performance in explaining the relationship between stream
33 biota and its environmental factors and in predicting the diatom community development based on
34 the hydro-chemical predictors. Our study shows and highlights the important hydro-chemical factors
35 in the agricultural rivers, which could contribute to the further understanding of predicting
36 diatom community development and could be implemented in the future water management
37 protocol.

38 **Introduction**

39 Phytoplankton, the most important primary producers, contribute around 50% to the global primary
40 production (Ptacnik et al., 2008) and to the global cycling of nutrients (Lomas et al., 2014). They play
41 irreplaceable roles in aquatic ecosystems. Among the groups of phytoplankton, diatoms are the most
42 widely spread in the world. Furthermore, based on the fast response to changes in water quality,
43 diatoms have been widely used as bio-indicators to assess the ecological status of aquatic ecosystems
44 (B-Béres et al., 2016; Hill et al., 2000, 2003; Stevenson et al., 1999; Wu et al., 2009, 2017; Zalack et
45 al., 2010). Diatom abundance and diversity are the basic and traditional features to represent the
46 variation of diatom communities. The variation in the phytoplankton community shows the recurring
47 species composition, and biodiversity (Reynolds, 1988). The variation of the communities is caused
48 by environmental variation and the response of each species in the community (Reynolds, 1988).
49 Species richness is one of the important properties to describe the biodiversity of a community (Passy
50 et al., 2017). The diversity index (e.g., Shannon index) is an efficient way to quantify the variation in
51 community species composition (Kim et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2019), which can show how each
52 species contributes to the whole community (Weaver & Shannon, 1963). Another technique to
53 represent the community composition variance is non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS),

54 which shows the similarity between samples by calculating the Bray-Curtis distance (Bray & Curtis
55 1957). This technique is widely used to display the community pattern through ordination and
56 clustering (Campos et al., 2021; Cotiyane-Pondo et al., 2020; Fukai et al., 2020). In this study, to
57 couple with other models, we used the first ordination value to represent the similarity of each site
58 (day). Species richness, biomass and Shannon indices have been much used in investigating the
59 spatial community variance (Kafouris et al., 2019), seasonal variance (Woelfel et al., 2007), yet in
60 the annual daily-based variance investigation is still rare (Sun et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019).

61 The temporal variation of phytoplankton follows the seasonal variation of environmental variables
62 (Lewis Jr 1978; Sommer et al., 1986; Winder & Hunter, 2008). Research has focused mostly on large
63 scale interannual seasonality, normally on the differences between cold and warm seasons (Qu et al.,
64 2019; Wang et al., 2015), dry and wet seasons (Zhou et al., 2019). However, the variability of
65 meteorological conditions may cause smaller scale recurrent than seasonal periodic influences on the
66 direct impact factors on stream biota, such as nutrients. Community composition and structure vary
67 within different time periods. Compared to research with large sampling intervals (i.e., seasonal
68 sampling), there have been fewer cases paying attention to the changes in phytoplankton on a short-
69 term scale (Kim et al., 2020; Winder & Hunter, 2008). One recent research by Babitsch et al. (2021)

70 confirmed that low sampling frequencies of chemical pollutants and nutrients in rivers reduce the
71 reliability of its performance in models. Research based on annual daily datasets is very rare, but they
72 may provide the chance to understand the phytoplankton's features and variations. The understanding
73 of these mechanisms could provide a solid base for predicting the future development of diatoms.

74 With the growing demand of assessing the ecological status, of investigating the relationships
75 between biota and environmental influences (Rimet and Bouchez, 2011), there is the need to
76 understand the relationship between the planktic diversity and the environmental factors (Cottenie,
77 2005; Franklin, 2009; Leibold et al., 2004; Laiolo et al., 2018; Santos et al., 2016; Soininen & Luoto,
78 2012). In an agricultural area, the biota in the rivers is mainly controlled by nutrients (Andrus et al.,
79 2013; Cornejo et al., 2019). Fertilizers for enhancing crop growth have led to the enrichment of
80 phosphorous ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$) and nitrogen ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$) in aquatic ecosystems (Guignard et al., 2017; Serediak
81 et al., 2014). Nutrient enrichment (e.g., $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$) is one of the main forces to alter the
82 abundance and diversity of diatoms (Wijewardene et al., 2021). Other than nutrients, hydrological
83 effects also play important roles in shaping diatom communities in lentic aquatic ecosystem in
84 agricultural areas (Sun et al., 2018; Qu et al., 2019). Compared to lakes and reservoirs, rivers show
85 more hydrological dynamics resulting from precipitation and inflow from the upstream lakes.

86 However, the influence of hydro-chemical parameters on biota in rivers in agricultural areas has not
87 yet been fully understood (Indermuehle et al., 2008; Schreiner et al., 2016; Wijewardene et al., 2021).

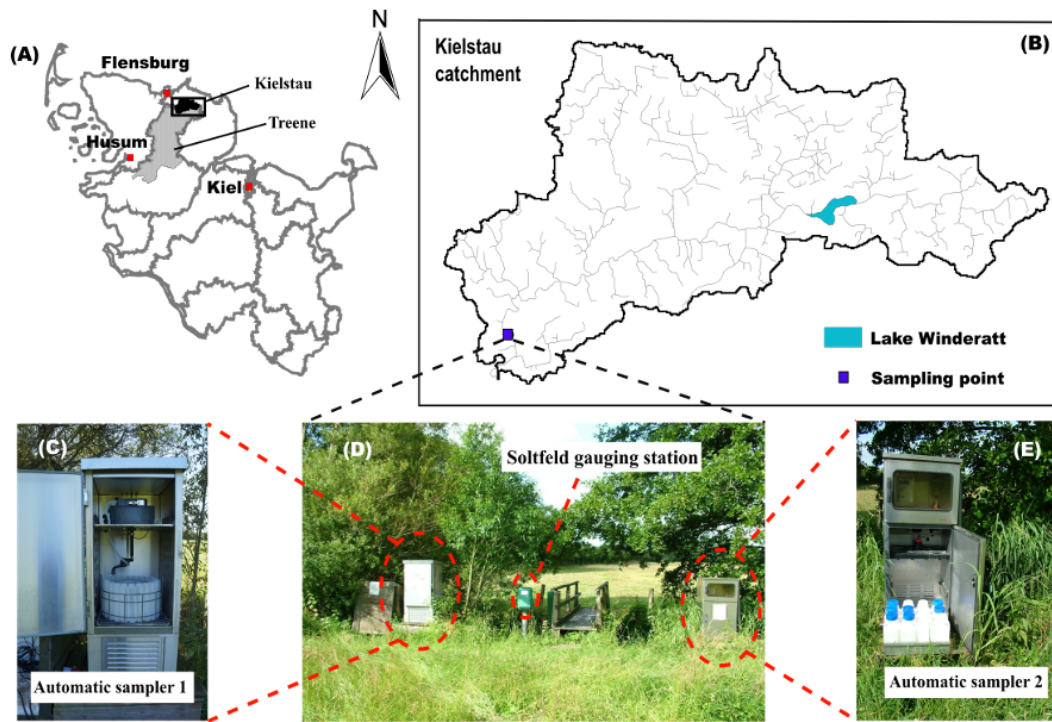
88 In this study, we aimed to address answers for the following questions: 1) what are the main annual
89 variance of diatom community, 2) how the hydro-chemical parameters impact on diatom community
90 regarding the abundance, diversity, and indices, 3) how can the selected hydro-chemical variables
91 perform in predicting the diatom variance, and 4) whether the indices are adequate of representing
92 the community composition variation? We conducted the research by using an annual daily dataset.

93 An integrated modeling was adopted including random forest (RF) to decide the importance of the
94 environmental factors influencing diatoms, generalized linear models (GLMs) combined with 10-
95 folder cross validation to analyze and predict the diatom variation. The research questions were
96 discussed based on the integrated modeling results.

97 **Material and Methods**

98 **Study area**

99 The Kielstau River is a lowland river with a length of ca. 17 km, a drainage area of ca. 50 km². It
100 originates from the upper part of Lake Winderatt and it is a tributary of the Treene River (Fig. 1A),
101 which runs into the Eider River. The dominant land use pattern of Kielstau catchment is agricultural
102 land use, in which arable land is ~55% and pasture ~26% (Fohrer & Schmalz, 2012). Its annual
103 precipitation is around 841 mm (station Satrup, 1961-1990) (DWD, 2010) and the mean annual
104 temperature is 8.2 °C (station Flensburg, 1961-1990). There are six wastewater treatment plants in
105 the Kielstau catchment (Point sources in Fig. 1, B). Discharge is measured at a gauging station (Fig.
106 1D) at the outlet of the catchment, which is part of the official gauging network of the Federal State
107 Schleswig-Holstein. The catchment has been recognized as an UNESCO eco-hydrological
108 demonstration site since 2010 (Fohrer & Schmalz, 2012).



109

110 Fig. 1. Location of the Kielstau catchment (B) in Schleswig-Holstein state (A) and photos of the

111 Soltfeld gauging station (D) and automatic water samplers for daily-mixed samples (C and E).

112 (Photos by Sun, 2015)

113 **Sampling method**

114 Daily mixed water samples have been taken directly from the river by two auto-samplers (Fig. 1, C

115 and E) close to the gauging station at the outlet, from April 29, 2013 to April 30, 2014. The physical

116 variables pH, electric conductivity, water temperature and dissolved oxygen were measured weekly

117 *in situ* with a portable instrument (WTW Multi 340i, Weilheim Germany). One of the auto-samplers

118 (Fig. 1, C: ISCO 6712 Refrigerated Sampler Teledyne) kept the temperature at 4 °C and the water

119 samples from it were used to determine the concentration of nutrients and metal ions in the laboratory
120 of the Department of Hydrology and Water Resources Management of Kiel University according to
121 the DIN standard methods. The water samples from the other auto-sampler (Fig. 1, E: Maxx
122 Refrigerated Sampler SP 5 S) were used to prepare permanent diatom slides for further microscopic
123 analysis.

124 **Hydro-chemical analysis**

125 The chemical variables analyzed included ammonium-nitrogen ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$), nitrate-nitrogen ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$),
126 chloride (Cl^-), metal ions (K^+ , Ca^+ , Na^+ , Mg^{2+} and Si^{2+}), orthophosphate-phosphorus ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$),
127 sulphate (SO_4^{2-}), total phosphorus (TP) and total suspended solids (TSS). The concentration of metal
128 ions was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma (IC) method (EN ISO 10304-1). Hydrological
129 variables included daily discharge (Q), baseflow (BF), surface runoff (SR), precipitation (PREC),
130 water depth (WD) and antecedent precipitation index (API). Surface runoff was calculated by end-
131 member mixing analysis (EMMA) (Christophersen & Hooper, 1992). Baseflow end member was
132 determined from stream water samples taken during dry periods with low discharge. These samples
133 represented a state where the other end member did not contribute significantly. This state included
134 slow catchment processes (which integrate catchment response over a long time) such as groundwater

135 inflow and interflow from soil. In our catchment, upstream effects such as discharge from lake
136 Winderatt and surrounding wetlands also contributed to the baseflow end member since these
137 upstream sources were stable even during baseflow conditions.

138 Precipitation data was obtained from the nearby weather station of Moorau. API was an index to
139 estimate the hydrological condition in the catchment and was calculated on a daily basis (Fedora &
140 Beschta, 1989; Shaw, 1994).

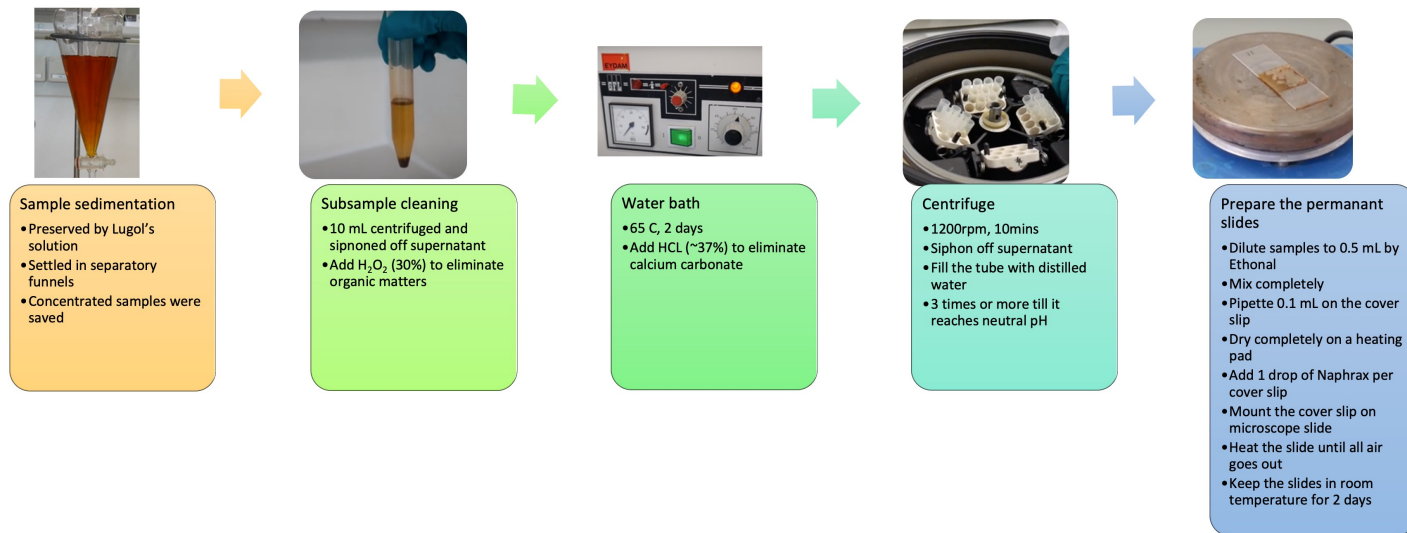
$$141 \text{ API}_t = (k * \text{API}_{t-1}) + P_{t-1} \quad (1)$$

142 where API_t = antecedent precipitation index (mm) at day t, P_{t-1} = precipitation (mm) at the day t-1,
143 and k represents the potential loss of moisture, more details were given in (Wu et al., 2016).

144 **Diatom preparation**

145 The water samples from the second auto-sampler (Fig. 1, E) were transferred into 2.5 L separatory
146 funnels and fixed in 5‰ non-acetic Lugol's iodine solution (Sabater et al., 2008). After a
147 sedimentation period of 48 hours, the undisturbed water samples from the bottom of the separatory
148 funnels were concentrated to 20 mL. The concentrated samples were used to prepare the diatom
149 permanent slides (Fig. 2). We transferred 10 mL of the concentrated samples into centrifuge tubes

150 and then siphoned off the supernatant. Afterwards, 5 mL of 30% hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) was added
151 to eliminate the organic matter with heating in a water bath at 60°C for two days (flexibly adjust the
152 time according to the oxidization process). Then we added 1 mL of 1 mol/L hydrochloric acid (HCl)
153 to eliminate calcium carbonate with a reaction time for at least two hours. The supernatant was
154 removed and refilled to 5 mL with distilled water after the samples staying in a centrifuge at a speed
155 of 1200 rounds/min for 10 mins. This cleaning procedure has been repeated for three times or more
156 until the pH value reached 7. The diatoms samples were determined to 0.5 mL with Ethanol, after
157 which 0.1 mL of the well-mixed sample was put on and dried on a cover slip on a hotplate in a fume
158 cupboard. The permanent diatom slides were afterwards mounted with Naphrax (Northern Biological
159 supplies Ltd., UK, R1=1.74). These diatom slides were used to identify diatom species under a light
160 microscope. A minimum of 300 individuals for each permanent slide was identified and counted with
161 a Zeiss Axioskop microscope at 1000× under oil immersion. Diatoms were identified to the possible
162 lowest taxonomic level (mostly species level) according to the key books by Bey and Ector, 2013;
163 Lange-Bertalot, 2000a, 2000b, 2005, 2007; Round et al., 1990; and Simonsen, 1987.



164

165 Fig. 2. Workflow diagram of the diatom permanent preparation.

166 The abundances were expressed as cells/L. The species richness was represented as the species
 167 number counted in the sample. The Shannon index was calculated according to Weaver & Shannon
 168 (1963) and the difference of diatom community composition was represented by the first dimension
 169 of non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS). The NMDS could be used to visualize differences
 170 in composition with Bray-Curtis similarity index (Stanish et al., 2012). In our study, we simplified it
 171 and chose the first ordination number to present the similarity of the community composition in
 172 temporal point of view.

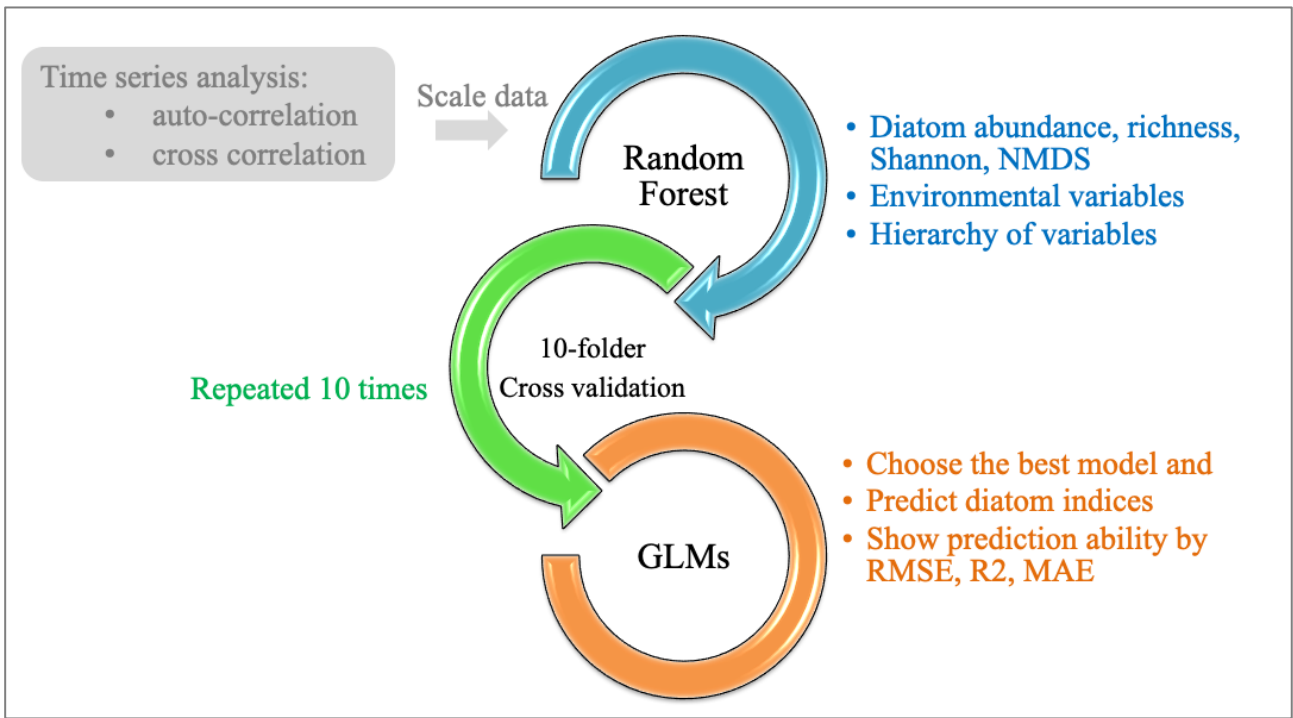
173 **Numerical analysis**

174 First, we checked whether there were obvious linear relationships between the variables by applying

175 the pairwise comparison analysis of all biotic and environmental variables. Second, we applied
176 Pearson's correlation analysis to exclude the variables with high co-linearity. For the variable pairs
177 with correlation coefficients greater than 0.6, we retained the variable which had a lower correlation
178 with the other variables. In addition to that, we took empirical experiences into account to remain
179 both variables if they are both very important for the growth of diatoms (i.e., temperature). We
180 conducted the standard autocorrelation function (ACF) to analyze whether there is a lagged
181 relationship of each variable. The maximum lag time was set to 100 days for ACF to make sure we
182 won't oversee the lagged relationship. Besides the autocorrelation, we checked cross correlation,
183 where one variable was correlated with lagged time series of a second. We applied cross correlation
184 function (CCF) to explore whether there was a lagged relationship between diatom abundance and
185 the other variables. The lag time for CCF was set to 100 days. Prior to the other analyses, we
186 standardized (z-score normalization, *scale* function) all biotic and environmental datasets to avoid
187 the effects from different measured units of the variables.

188 The machine learning models have been developing very fast recently and are now widely used in
189 ecological research (Culter et al., 2007; Derot et al., 2020; Park et al., 2015). Random forest (RF) is
190 a flexible and non-parametric regression tool which can not only be used to analyze non-linear

191 relationships and complex interactions, but also to handle data sets with a large number of
192 observations. RF generates the models by training two-thirds of the observations (“in the bag” data)
193 and tests the models with the remaining ones (“out of bag” data). From the estimates of the out-of-
194 bag error, RF can efficiently test the accuracy of the model by itself (Breiman, 2001). In addition, RF
195 is a powerful statistical classifier to determine the variable importance and to model complex
196 interactions between predictor variables. It is more flexible to deal with missing values (Cutler et al.,
197 2007). RF also shows the importance of the predictors and thus provides the possibility of specifying
198 the hierarchies of environmental factors influencing diatom assemblages. In addition to RF,
199 generalized linear models (GLMs) can be used to quantitatively analyze and represent the variance
200 of predictors by link functions. We conducted all the analysis in R (version 4.0.2; R Core Team, 2020).
201 The RF was used to identify the hierarchy of variables with the package randomForestSRC (Ishwaran
202 and Kogalur, 2021) and its *rfsrc* function. GLMs were applied after RF to analyze the interactions
203 between diatom biotic indicators and environmental variables. Next, GLMs were used to get a
204 regression model to detect the most significant environmental variables coupling with 10-folder cross
205 validation (Kuhn 2020) and the best model was used to predict the diatom indices. The performance
206 of the models was compared by root mean square error (RMSE), R squared, and mean absolute error
207 (MAE). The analytical process was summarized as in Fig. 3.



208

209 Fig. 3. Schematic workflow of the numerical analysis. NMDS: non-metric multidimensional

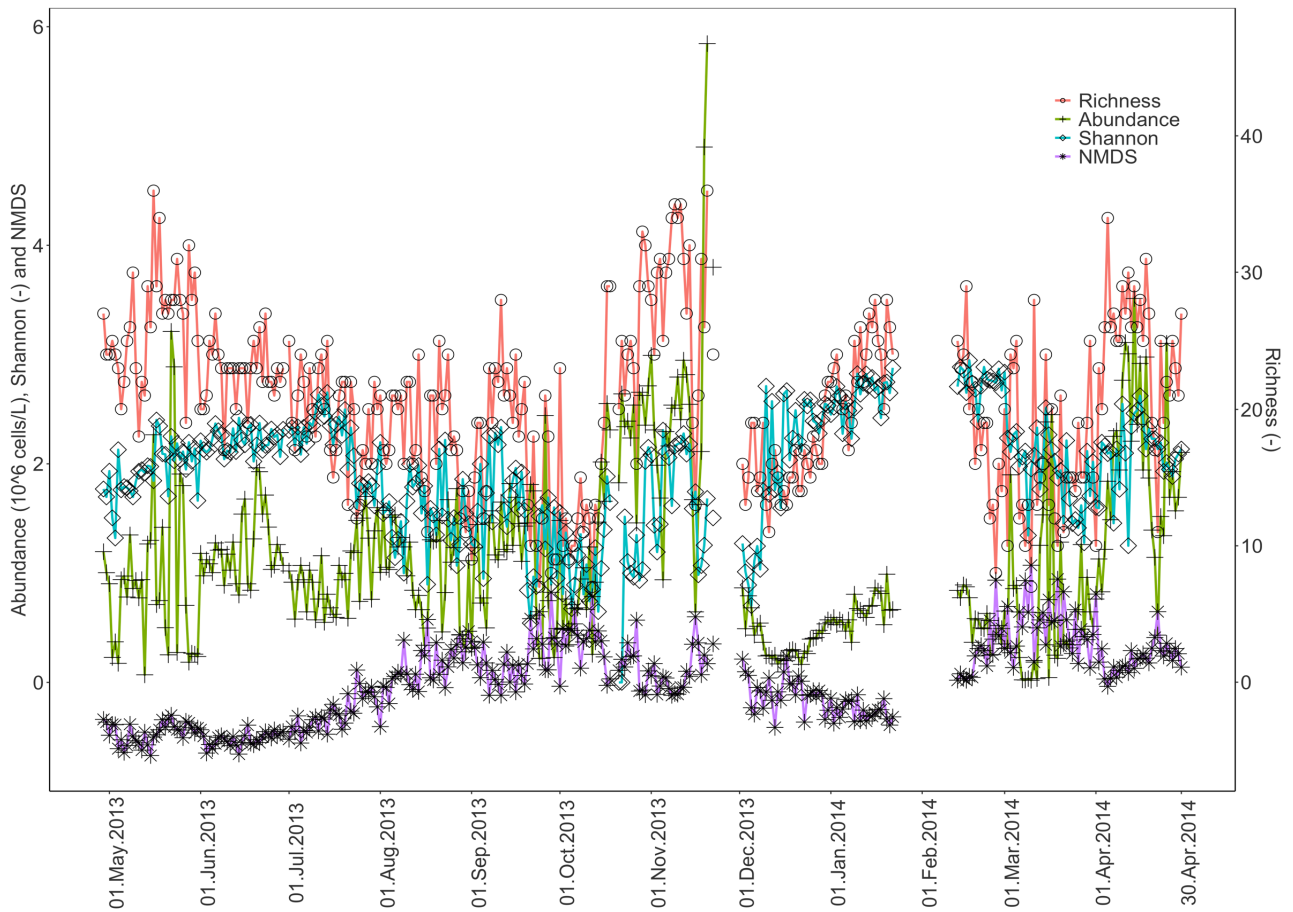
210 scaling, GLMs: generalized linear models, RMSE: root mean square error, MAE: mean absolute

211 error.

212 **Results**

213 **Diatom succession**

214 We recorded a total of 113 taxa from 45 genera of diatoms. The most dominant species (defined as
215 relative abundance > 5%) were *Achnantheidium minutissimum* (Kütz.) Czarnecki (39.9%), *Navicula*
216 *lanceolata* (Ag.) Ehr. (15.9%), and *Planothidium lanceolatum* (Bréb. ex Kütz.) Lange-Bertalot
217 (6.4%). These three species dominated for almost the entire sampling year, especially *Achnantheidium*
218 *minutissimum*. The highest diatom abundance was recorded as 5.96×10^6 cells/L in wintertime
219 (November) and the lowest was 1.97×10^4 cells/L in spring (March). The averaged diatom abundance
220 of the sampling period was 1.14×10^6 cells/L. The diatom abundance showed obvious seasonal
221 variations throughout the year (Fig. 4). Diatom species richness showed relatively less variation, but
222 the trend agreed with the variation of diatom abundance. The greatest diversity of the diatoms was 36
223 taxa per sample, the minimal was 7 and the mean value was 25 per sample. The Shannon index value
224 ranged between 0.54 and 2.95. NMDS value ranged from -0.67 to 1.07 with an average of around 0
225 (scaled data). From a temporal point of view, the NMDS indicated a trend of more similarity for
226 diatom community composition in spring and autumn than in summer and winter.



227

228 Fig. 4. Daily diatom indicators throughout the sampling period (April. 29, 2013- April.30, 2014):

229 abundance (10^6 cells/L), Shannon index, non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS), and species

230 richness; missing data are shown as blank.

231 **Environmental variables**

232 Eleven environmental variables were retained to run the following analyses. Their characteristics are

233 shown in Table 2. Concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, pH, and Cl concentration remained stable. Except

234 Ca²⁺, the metal ions of K⁺ and Si²⁺ varied only in a narrow range. However, the hydrological
 235 parameters, specifically the API showed high variations throughout the sampling period.

236 Table 2. Summary of the selected environmental parameters used in the statistical analysis. WT: water
 237 temperature, API: antecedent precipitation index, BF: baseflow, PREC: precipitation.

Variables	Unit	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean ± SD
NH ₄ -N	mg/L	0.01	2.22	0.11	0.17 ± 0.20
PO ₄ -P	mg/L	0.02	0.50	0.10	0.12 ± 0.08
Cl ⁻	mg/L	16.26	43.72	29.49	29.88 ± 4.57
K ⁺	mg/L	3.24	7.66	4.87	4.95 ± 0.76
Ca ²⁺	mg/L	39.53	92.75	74.00	73.27 ± 7.67
Si ²⁺	mg/L	1.99	8.51	4.22	4.89 ± 1.68
WT	°C	1.20	16.70	10.60	10.35 ± 3.69
API	mm	0.88	122.54	18.91	30.23 ± 32.10
BF	m ³ /s	0.01	0.37	0.11	0.12 ± 0.05
PREC	mm	0.00	40.30	0.10	1.74 ± 4.10
pH	-	7.20	8.20	7.60	7.60 ± 0.16

238 **Time series analysis**

239 We calculated the autocorrelation with a lag of 100 days but showed only the first 30 days in our
 240 figures (Fig. 5). As for diatom abundance, species richness, Shannon index and NMDS, the
 241 autocorrelation coefficients showed quite similar trend. There was a sharp decrease for all biotic
 242 parameters within 2 days. This indicated the quick changes in the abundance and richness of diatoms.

243 Shannon index and NMDS remained more stable than diatom abundance and species richness.

244 Environmental variables showed larger differences. The AC of some variables like API and Si²⁺

245 remained high even after 15 days indicating they were quite stable; the sharp decline of the

246 precipitation curve showed the random nature of precipitation.

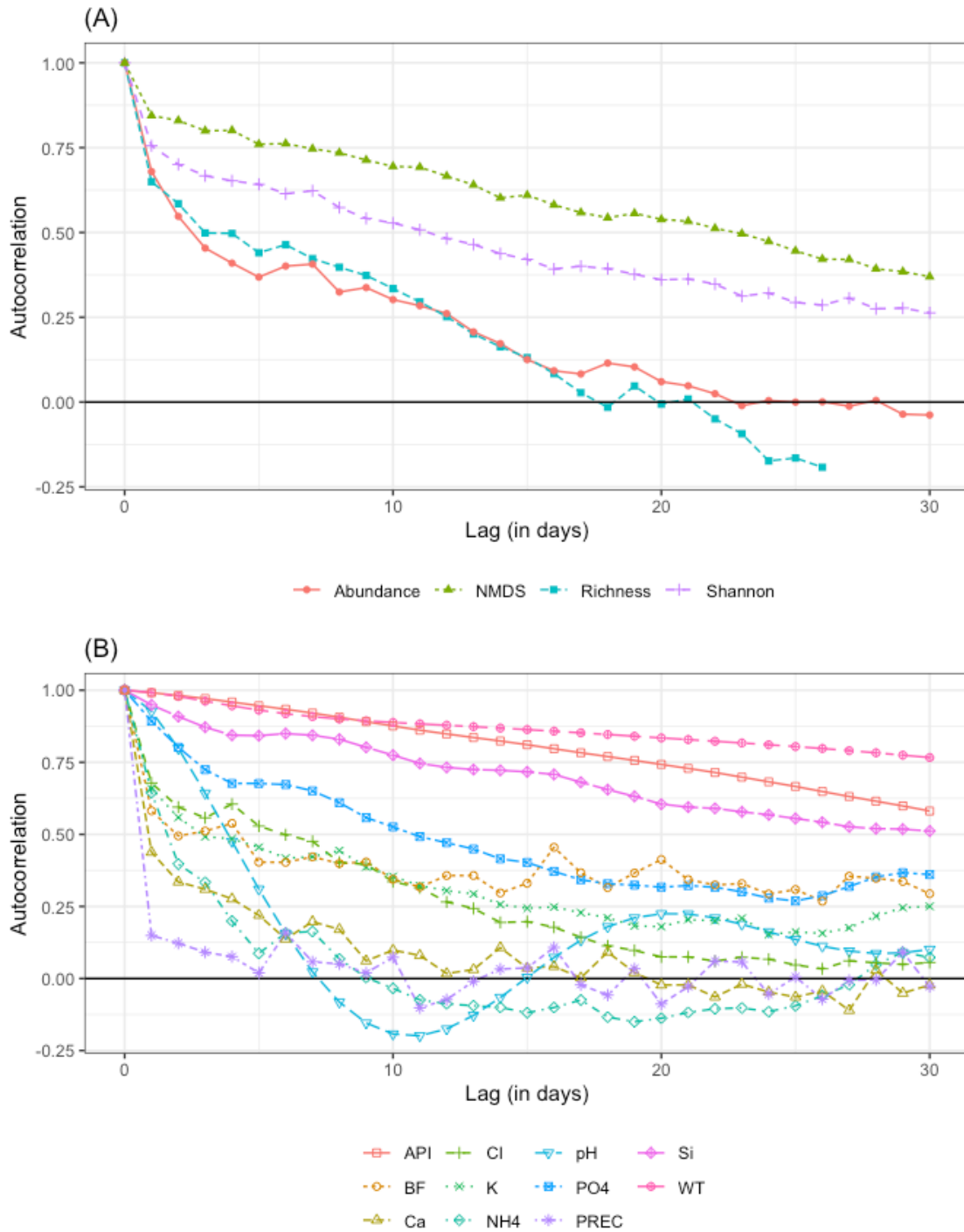
247 Results of cross correlation showed the relationship between diatom indicators and environmental

248 variables, respectively. Our results showed small cross correlation coefficients (Fig. 6) up to ± 0.4 .

249 The low coefficients indicated that there was no single linear relationship among them. However, the

250 cross-correlation coefficients between Shannon index, NMDS and environmental parameters were

251 slightly higher than diatom abundance and species richness.



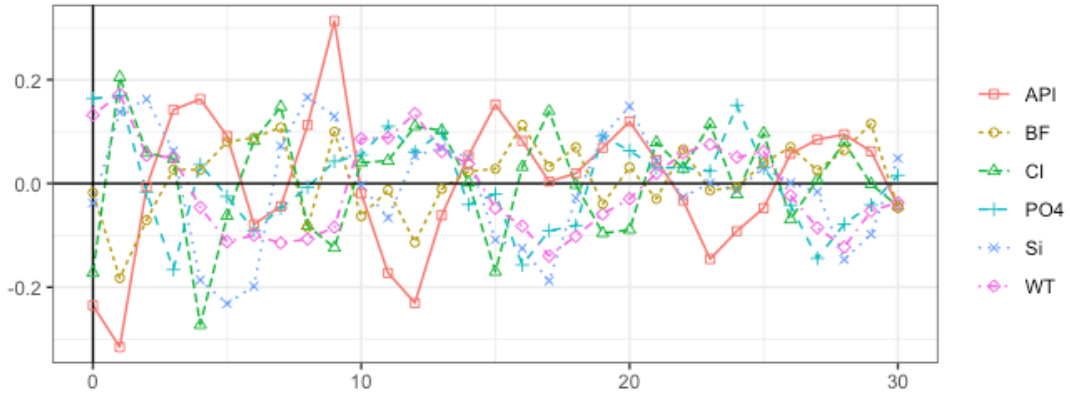
252

253 Fig. 5. (A) Autocorrelation of diatom abundance, species richness, Shannon index, and non-metric

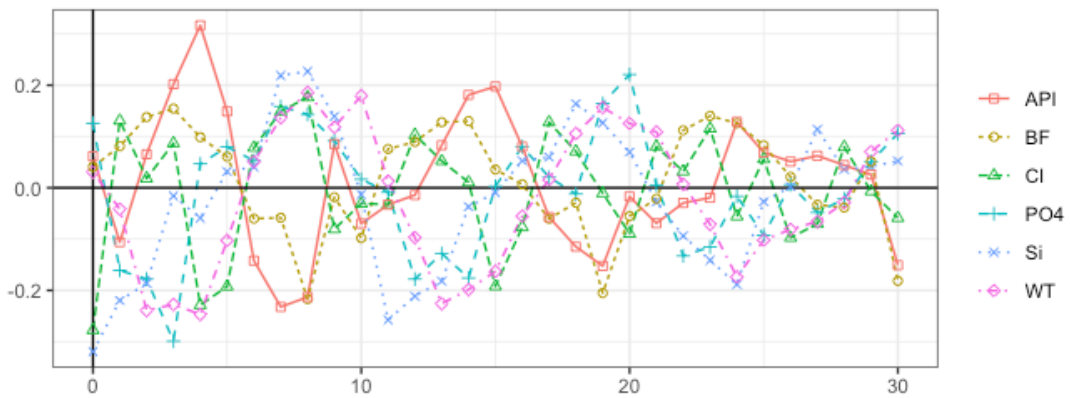
254 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) and (B) autocorrelation of selected environmental variables. WT:

255 water temperature, API: antecedent precipitation index, BF: baseflow, PREC: precipitation.

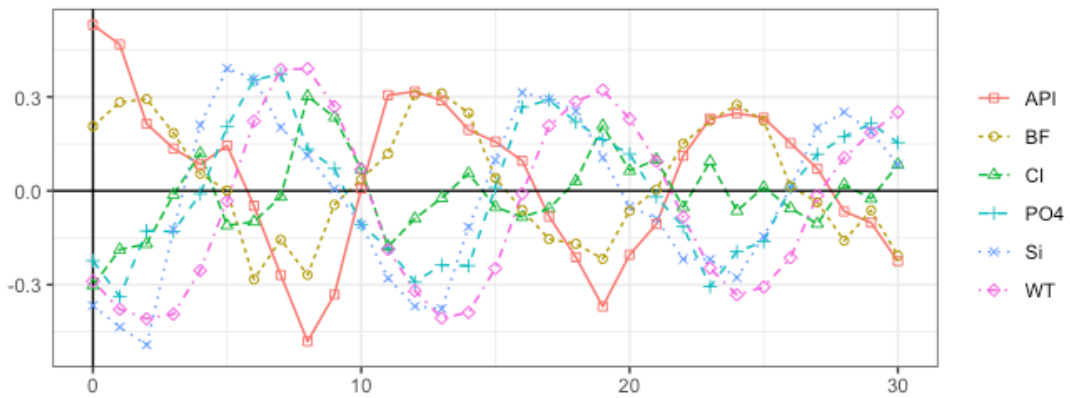
(A) Cross correlation with abundance



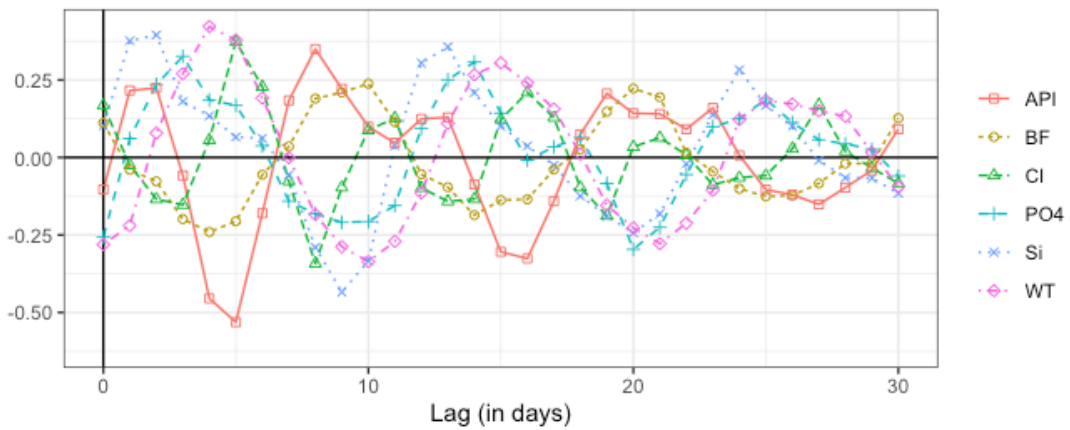
(B) Cross correlation with species richness



(C) Cross correlation with Shannon index



(D) Cross correlation with NMDS



257 Fig. 6. Cross correlation coefficient between diatom (A) abundance, (B) species richness, (C)
258 Shannon index, (D) non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) and selected environmental
259 variables, respectively. WT: water temperature, API: antecedent precipitation index, BF: baseflow.

260 **Performance of models**

261 The random forest (RF) models (Table 3) showed the variance of the biotic indicators (diatom
262 abundance, species richness and Shannon index) explained by environmental variables and the
263 variance of importance of the environmental variables. The results of the RF models showed
264 satisfactory results. Namely 42% of the diatom abundance variance was explained by our selected
265 environmental variables, while variances in diatom species richness, Shannon index, and NMDS were
266 explained with 46%, 61%, and 69%, respectively. Shannon index and NMDS were better explained
267 than traditional measurements. The out-of-bag error rates of the RF models were below 0.6%, thus
268 indicated that the models were quite reliable.

269 In addition, the variable importance of the environmental variables was calculated (Fig. 7). Among
270 all environmental variables, the antecedent precipitation index (API) showed the greatest importance.

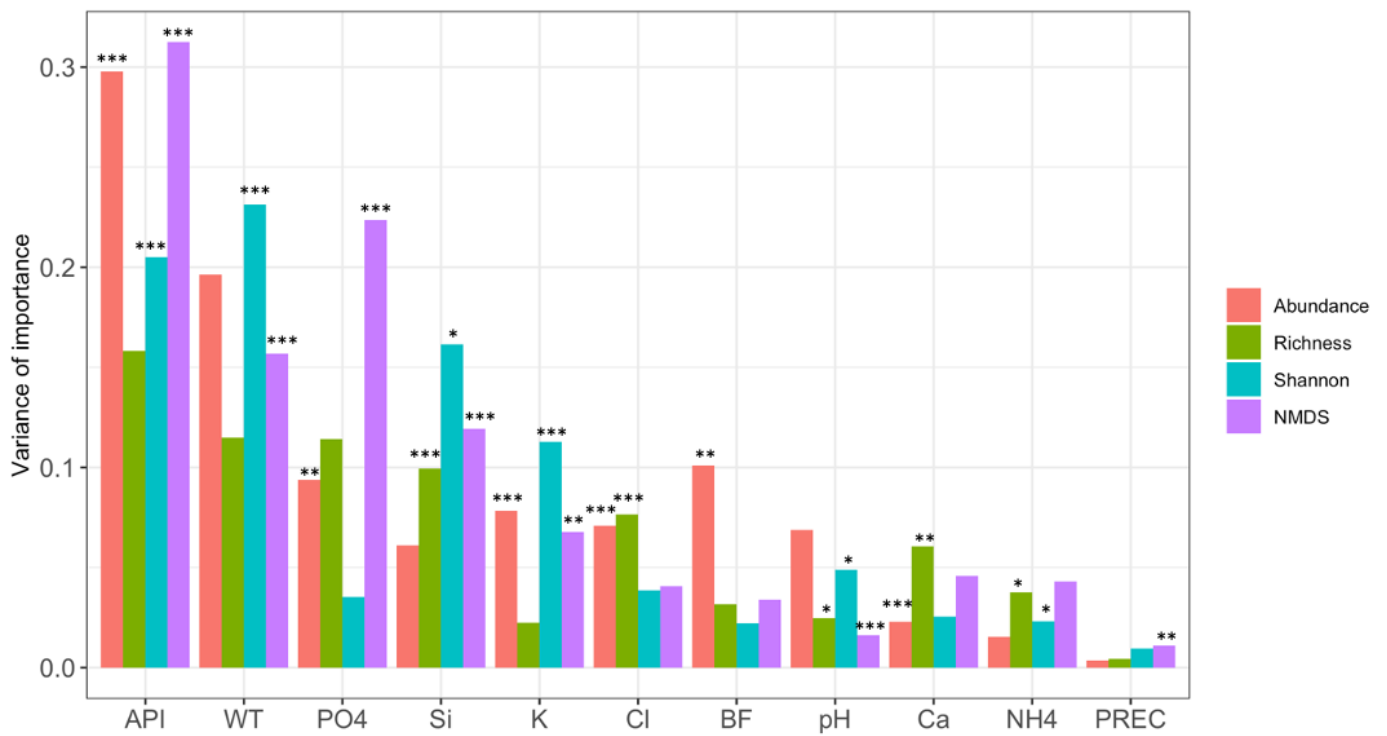
271 Additionally, the API, $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, Si^{2+} and K^+ were also important for diatom indicators. However, there
272 were differences among the important variables related to different diatom indicators. For instance,

273 the API and water temperature explained most of the variance of diatom abundance. The four most
 274 important environmental variables for species richness contributed less. Apart from other indicators,
 275 PO₄-P showed least importance of explaining variance of Shannon index. In contrast, PO₄-P was the
 276 second important variable for explaining the variance in NMDS. The statistically significant
 277 environmental variables were detected by the generalized linear models (Fig.7 shown by ‘*’). The
 278 performance of GLMs’ prediction was showed in Table 3.

279 Table 3. Variance of biotic indicators explained by our selected environmental variables in random
 280 forest (first column), and the performance of the generalized linear models (GLMs) prediction in root
 281 mean square error (RMSE), R squared, and mean absolute error (MAE). NMDS: non-metric
 282 multidimensional scaling.

	Random Forest	GLMs		
	% Variance explained	Performance of model in prediction		
		RMSE	R ²	MAE
Diatom abundance	42	0.87	0.25	0.65
Species richness	46	0.88	0.25	0.71
Shannon index	61	0.75	0.44	0.60
NMDS	69	0.71	0.51	0.56

283



284

285 Fig. 7. The variable importance of environmental variables from random forest model for diatom
 286 indicators, and the significance of the environmental variables from the generalized linear models (*p*
 287 value): 0 < *** < 0.001 < ** < 0.01 < * < 0.05.

288 **Discussion**

289 Our random forest (RF) models showed good results in explaining variance of diatom indicators while
290 our generalized linear models (GLMs) showed less satisfactory results in predicting the diatom
291 indicators (Table 3). However, the performance of both explaining variance and predicting the
292 Shannon index non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS) was better than diatom abundance and
293 species richness. We demonstrate the differences of the daily changing trend by time-series analysis,
294 which shows the random nature of diatom abundance and species richness in the studied river (Fig.
295 4 (A)). This could be explained by the very short life spans of phytoplankton, where a single cell can
296 exist less than one week and communities up to weeks (Morin et al., 2016). However, the Shannon
297 index and NMDS showed higher autocorrelation, which indicates that the similarity of Shannon index
298 and NMDS remain higher than the similarity of diatom abundance and species richness in a few
299 consecutive days. This could be because the indices consider more of the biological and ecological
300 characteristics of the species or so-called functional features (Mouchet et al., 2010; Passy 2007;
301 Weithoff and Beisner, 2019; Wu et al., 2017), which generally can be shared by several species or
302 even genera. This higher ‘stability’ also demonstrates better performance in the modeling prediction.
303 In the predicting process of GLMs, the indices are better predicted than the abundance and richness.

304 Taking the critical need of professional knowledge and efforts for species taxonomy into account, the
305 indices, especially trait-based indices (e.g., NMDS in our study) provide the fundament and more
306 possibility of developing new taxonomy-free technologies (Arsenieff et al., 2020; Feio et al., 2020)
307 to assess the status of aquatic systems.

308 The hierarchical analysis of RF highlighted the hydro-chemical parameters, e.g., API, WT, Si^{2+} and
309 $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, in explaining the variance of the diatom indicators (Fig. 6). The autocorrelation analysis (Fig.
310 4 (B)) showed that the hydro-chemical variables remained more stable than the other variables in the
311 study period, and also impacted the diatom community more than the others. The importance of API
312 as a representative of hydrological variables in lowland rivers has been confirmed in previous studies
313 (Wu et al., 2011a, 2011b; Sun et al., 2018). This leads to a higher focus on the hydrological effects
314 on stream biota which have been previously neglected. In comparison with lakes, reservoirs and the
315 other lentic aquatic habitats, a lowland river system is relatively more dynamic. That explains why
316 hydrological conditions of lowland rivers play important roles in structuring biotic communities (Wu
317 et al., 2017, Sun et al., 2018), higher wetness condition (higher API) increases diatom richness and
318 diversity. This finding is in agreement with other research which reveals that drought is a strong
319 negative stressor for diatom richness in lowland streams (B-Béres et al., 2019). A lowland river is a

320 part of an open system, in which the impact from pre-riverine human activities cannot be neglected.

321 API as an integrated proxy is based on the precipitation and gathers the surface runoff from the

322 catchment to the stream and finally to the downstream catchment to the outlet. The present data was

323 recorded at the outlet of the whole catchment, it includes all upstream impacts. Diatom diversity and

324 composition are reported to be highly dependent on the enrichment of nitrogen (Kafouris et al., 2019).

325 However, in the current study, nitrogen is not as important as phosphate. Diatom richness has been

326 reported being controlled by water temperature and pH (Jyrkänkallio-Mikkola et al., 2018), and it

327 could be higher in colder climates and lower water temperatures (Pajunen et al., 2016). The impact

328 of water pH on diatom species richness was also revealed by global and continental scale studies

329 (Soininen et al., 2016; Passy, 2010). Although the pH is one of the statistically significant variables

330 in our study, the diatom variance explained by it is limited. This could be explained by the narrow

331 range of pH (7.2 – 8.2) in the study. Water temperature is one of the most important controlling

332 variables, however, it shows a conflicting effect regarding species richness, with the lowest richness

333 being recorded in October (late autumn) but greatest richness in May, November, and April,

334 compared with Jyrkänkallio-Mikkola et al. (2018).

335 In this study, we focused on the local environmental variables which can be seen as direct variables.
336 Indirect effects from a larger spatial scale have not been included yet, for instance, land use patterns
337 and global climate changes, that have effects on both hydro-morphology and physico-chemistry
338 which leads to an effect on biological conditions (Villeneuve et al., 2018), and on the functional
339 composition of phytoplankton communities (Qu et al., 2018, 2019).

340 **Conclusion**

341 Our findings confirm our hypothesis that diatom community variance is impacted by the hydro-
342 chemical variables. The random forest modeling shows satisfactory results by explaining diatom
343 indicators with a variance percentage ranged between 42% to 69%. The hierarchical analysis
344 highlighted antecedent precipitation index (API) as the controlling hydrological variable, while water
345 temperature, Si^{2+} and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, as the main chemical controlling factors in our study area. Hydrological
346 variables' effects on riverine phytoplankton should draw more attention in the future practical
347 biomonitoring purposes. The generalized linear models performed a better prediction for Shannon
348 index and non-metric multidimensional scaling than diatom abundance and species richness, which
349 confirms that both indices perform adequately in explaining the relationship between stream biota
350 and its environment. Our study shows and highlights the important hydro-chemical factors in the
351 agricultural rivers, which could contribute to the further understanding of predicting diatom
352 community development, and could be implemented in the future water management protocol.

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362 **References**

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