

1 **A century-scale human-induced hydro-ecological evolution of wetlands of two large**  
2 **river basins in Australia (Murray) and China (Yangtze): the potential use of an**  
3 **adaptive water resource management approach**

4

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15 **Abstract**

16

17 Recently, the provision of food and water resources of two of the world's largest river basins,  
18 the Murray and the Yangtze, has been significantly altered through widespread landscape  
19 modification. Long-term sedimentary archives, dating back for some centuries from wetlands  
20 of these river basins, reveal that rapid, basin-wide development has reduced the resilience of  
21 biological communities, resulting in considerable decline in ecosystem services, including  
22 water quality. Large-scale human disturbance to river systems, due to river regulation during  
23 the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, has transformed the hydrology of rivers and wetlands, causing  
24 widespread modification of aquatic biological communities. Changes to cladoceran  
25 zooplankton (water fleas) were used to assess the historical hydrology and ecology of three  
26 Murray and Yangtze River wetlands over the past century. Subfossil assemblages of  
27 cladocerans retrieved from sediment cores (94 cm, 45 cm and 65 cm) of three wetlands:  
28 Kings Billabong (Murray), Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes (Yangtze), showed strong responses  
29 to hydrological changes in the river after the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century. In particular, river regulation  
30 caused by construction of dams and weirs together with river channel modifications, has led  
31 to significant hydrological alterations. These hydrological disturbances were either: 1) a  
32 prolonged inundation of wetlands, or 2) reduced river flow, both of which caused variability  
33 in wetland depth. Inevitably, these phenomena have subsequently transformed the natural  
34 wetland habitats, leading to a switch in cladoceran assemblages to species preferring poor  
35 water quality, and in some cases to eutrophication. The quantitative and qualitative decline of  
36 wetland water conditions is indicative of reduced ecosystem services, and requires the use  
37 effective restoration measures. **An adaptive water resource management approach is**  
38 **potentially useful to restore or optimize the conditions of these wetland ecosystems of both**

39 river basins which have been impacted by 20<sup>th</sup> century human disturbance and climate  
40 change.

## 41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 There has been a worldwide growing awareness of the value of healthy flow regimes  
44 (hydrology), as key ‘drivers’ of the ecology of large rivers and the floodplain wetlands which  
45 attend them (Bedford, 1996; Puckridge et al., 1998; Richter et al., 2003). Natural flows  
46 maintain ecological processes which include valuable biodiversity in the ecosystems of river  
47 systems and their associated floodplain wetlands. The river channels connected to these  
48 floodplain wetlands discharge water, mixed with rich sources of carbon, energy and nutrients  
49 from the river and its catchments, to the wetlands (Bunn and Arthington, 2002; Maddock et  
50 al., 2004). In addition, the allochthonous sources of organic matter deposited during flood  
51 pulses support reproduction and growth of biota (Junk et al., 1989; McGowan et al., 2011).  
52 Integration of local autochthonous production, including algae and inputs from the riparian  
53 zone during pulse events, further supports available energy for higher trophic levels (Thorp  
54 and Delong, 1994). As a result, large rivers and their associated floodplain wetlands are a  
55 potential source of ecosystem goods and services to humans; for example, flood attenuation,  
56 water purification, fisheries and other foods, plus a range of marketable goods (Poff et al.,  
57 2003).

58 However, the flow regime of large rivers has been consistently modified to meet continual  
59 demands of water for mono-agriculture and hydroelectricity (Nilsson and Berggren, 2000;  
60 Davis et al., 2015). Many floodplain wetlands have been transformed into a new regime as a  
61 result of either over-allocation of water to off-stream uses, or to other alterations to the  
62 natural flow regimes of large river systems (Walker, 1985). The construction of dams and  
63 dykes obstruct migration pathways for fish between the river channels and wetlands, and the  
64 newly built reservoirs trap water-borne sediment. The diversion of water may lead to  
65 historical channels becoming permanently or intermittently dry. Subsequent inundation of

66 upstream riparian zones increases soil anoxia, often extinguishing entire plant and animal  
67 populations and altering the riparian environment. Furthermore, downstream hydrological  
68 and geomorphological alterations can reduce groundwater recharge, and modify the pattern of  
69 sediment exchange between rivers and wetlands (Nilsson and Berggren, 2000).

70 Whilst it is recognised that widespread human disturbances have currently caused  
71 variation in biological and species diversity in many floodplain wetlands worldwide (Zhang  
72 et al., 1999; Maddock et al., 2004), the response of biological diversity to these disturbances  
73 is variable. Some floodplain wetlands have a reduced diversity index following the  
74 disturbance, while in other wetlands, the disturbance has paradoxically led to an increased  
75 diversity index (Power et al., 1996). In either case, the nature of these disturbances over time  
76 and space have altered habitat stability, which affects species diversity and ecosystem  
77 functioning, and are now potentially threatening the historical identity of these wetlands  
78 (Dumbrell et al., 2008; Biswas and Malik, 2010).

79 Further, the threats posed by widespread hydrological alterations to large rivers are  
80 often ignored or sidelined, with the demand for energy, irrigated food production, and  
81 industrial use for the projected growth of human population being given a higher priority  
82 (Power et al., 1996). It is important, therefore, that while water allocation plans are being  
83 formulated to provide greater water security for immediate community use, it will be  
84 essential that understanding of the considerable socioeconomic benefits provided by healthy  
85 floodplain wetland ecosystems associated with these large rivers are not lost, and that  
86 degraded ecosystems are restored for the benefit of future generations (Poff et al., 2003).  
87 Key socio-economic benefits, such as water purification, flood abatement and carbon  
88 sequestration, all of which are maintained by wetland biodiversity and ecosystem  
89 functioning, will thus not be impaired if care is given to the wetlands of large river basins to  
90 ensure that they are not lost or degraded (Zedler and Kercher, 2005).

91           Recent evidence suggests that a significant proportion of the national economy of  
92 Australia and China has been generated by two of their large river systems, the Murray and  
93 the Yangtze Rivers respectively. These rivers have contributed to a range of ecosystem  
94 services, including food, mineral, and water resources, to the communities living in the river  
95 basins (Palmer et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015). However, because water has been abstracted  
96 heavily for irrigation, hydroelectricity, and industrial development in both river basins, there  
97 has been widespread disruption in the hydrology of the rivers, which includes the frequency,  
98 timing, and volume of flow in the main river and associated river channels linking to adjacent  
99 floodplain wetlands (Walker et al., 1995). This varying of natural flow regimes has  
100 interrupted natural flood pulses, leading to changes in hydraulic residence time, wetland  
101 depth, nutrient inputs and sediment cycling in addition to changing the structure, function,  
102 and species diversity of downstream floodplain ecosystems (Power et al., 1996; Kingsford,  
103 2000; Chen et al., 2011; Kattel et al., 2015).

104           There are some parallels in the historical experience of these two river systems, which  
105 makes this simultaneous study most appropriate. Records show that following the arrival of  
106 Europeans in Australia in the early 1900s, the Murray River system began to be regulated for  
107 irrigation, hydroelectricity and navigation (Walker, 1985). The wetlands connected to the  
108 river were either inundated as water storage basins, or dehydrated due to upstream water  
109 extraction or diversion of connecting channels. Deforestation of the catchment became  
110 widespread during the expansion of agriculture. As a result, the majority of wetlands have  
111 been subjected to significant bank erosion and sedimentation (Gell et al., 2009). In China,  
112 similar contemporary pressure has been placed on the Yangtze River system, where similar  
113 large scale modifications of rivers and wetlands occurred during the 1950s–1970s. Riparian  
114 floodplain and wetland habitats across the Yangtze River Basin were extensively reclaimed  
115 for agriculture and rural development by the construction of dykes. This resulted in a

116 significant loss of vegetation in the upper reaches of the Yangtze, followed by soil erosion  
117 and siltation of downstream wetlands (Yin and Li, 2001). The river sediment load of the  
118 Yangtze River between the 1960s and 1970s alone was more than 450 Mt/year (Yang et al.,  
119 2011a, b). Consequently, many lakes experienced reduced flood retention capacity due to  
120 disconnection from the main channel of the Yangtze River by construction of embankments  
121 and sluice gates in the river channels, which was subsequently followed by widespread  
122 eutrophication (Yu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012). Because of alterations in natural flood  
123 pulses, ephemeral and temporary lakes tended to have fewer taxa than semi-permanent  
124 channels or terminal lake habitats (Sheldon et al., 2002). In addition, excessive water  
125 abstraction or river-flow regulation in the Yangtze River disrupted natural variability in  
126 connectivity and hydrological regimes, consequently threatening ecological integrity,  
127 including the biodiversity of the floodplain system (Sheldon et al., 2002, Yang et al., 2006).

128         Studies show that the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands have lost significant density  
129 of submerged littoral macrophytes over the past century (Reid et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2008).  
130 For example, the subfossil assemblages of diatoms and cladocerans in the floodplain  
131 wetlands of the mid-reaches of the Murray River indicate a collapse of submerged vegetation  
132 coincident with the first appearance of the introduced conifer, *Pinus radiata* (Reid et al.,  
133 2007). Similarly, the multi-proxy responses, including diatoms and physico-chemistry of  
134 sediment of the Taibai Lake (lower Yangtze), show that after the 1990s, the lake shifted to  
135 hyper-eutrophic condition. This was thought to be due to increased dominance of algal  
136 biomass and a reduced density of submerged macrophytes (Liu et al., 2012). There has been a  
137 characteristic state shift in wetlands of both river systems due to the changes in the dynamics  
138 of submerged vegetation (Reid et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2008). The submerged vegetation in  
139 wetlands reduces phytoplankton by shading the substrate and competing for underwater light  
140 sources needed for photosynthesis, consequently improving the water quality by stabilising

141 sediment resuspension (Jeppesen and Sammalkorpi, 2002; Folke et al., 2004). However, the  
142 characteristic alternative stable states of ecosystems, which are thought to be buffered by  
143 naturally occurring hydrology, nutrient enrichments and submerged vegetation dynamics in  
144 large river floodplain wetlands, (e.g. Scheffer et al., 1993) have been substantially disrupted  
145 in recent decades. Today, the prior, undisturbed ecological state of the Murray and Yangtze  
146 River wetlands has been difficult to understand, due to the effects of multiple stressors,  
147 including human disturbances and climate change. For instance, following river regulation  
148 (1950s), the wetlands of Yangtze have become eutrophic, even in the presence of submerged  
149 vegetation (Qin et al., 2009).

150         Understanding the effects of disruption in natural hydrological regimes of the Murray  
151 and Yangtze rivers on diversity and community structure of consumers, such as cladoceran  
152 zooplankton (water fleas) in the adjacent floodplain wetlands, is crucial to assessing wetland  
153 ecosystem health. Both Australia and China have faced increasing challenges in addressing  
154 shortages of water and food supplies, resulting from reduced water flows in these catchments.  
155 A long term monitoring of wetlands exposed to hydrological disturbance is important to  
156 ensure maintenance of ecosystem services, by identifying the causes of degradation and using  
157 effective and adaptive restoration measures.

158         The subfossil cladocerans have responded to past climate change, eutrophication, and  
159 water pollution in many shallow lakes (Jeppesen et al., 2001). Some cladocerans are also  
160 significant indicators of locally associated hydrological factors, including the river flow, lake  
161 water depth, sediment properties, macrophyte cover, and biotic interactions (Nevalainen,  
162 2011). Recently, Pawlowski et al. (2015) have documented cladoceran-inferred palaeo-  
163 hydrology, including the formation of meandering channels, hydraulic characteristics and  
164 water level change in the oxbow lake of the Grabia River (central Poland) during the late  
165 Glacial and Holocene periods. Whereas the role of fossil cladocerans is becoming



166 increasingly significant for understanding the past hydrology of large river basins elsewhere,  
167 understanding cladoceran response to long term hydrology and water level change of  
168 wetlands (eco-hydrology) in the Murray and Yangtze rivers currently is limited. In this paper,  
169 we aim to examine three sites: the Murray and Yangtze River floodplain wetlands, Kings  
170 Billabong (Murray), and the Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes (Yangtze), each of which have been  
171 exposed to large scale human-induced hydrological disturbances during the 20<sup>th</sup> century as  
172 inferred by subfossil assemblage and diversity of cladocerans.

173 Understanding the linkage between eco-hydrology and adaptive water resource  
174 management, or 'socio-hydrology', is becoming increasingly important in large river basins,  
175 since interaction between people and water systems is fundamental to long-term community  
176 and ecological health (Nilsson and Berggren, 2000). However, until recently, the use of  
177 palaeoecology (subfossil cladocerans) has been rarely examined in rapidly changing  
178 environments, nor has its role in socio-hydrology been fully exploited. A participatory  
179 approach of water resource management has been found to be successful in many regulated  
180 environments (Falkenmark, 2004), and such an approach appears to be sustainable in nature  
181 and to provide increased levels of integration between natural and social scientists, land and  
182 water users, land and water managers, planners and policy makers across spatial scales  
183 (Macleod et al., 2007). This type of integrated platform is crucial for learning and exchange  
184 of knowledge among stakeholders for successful management outcomes (Pahl-Wostl, 2009).  
185 Based on the evidential response of subfossil cladocerans to ecological and hydrological  
186 transitions, in this paper we have suggested the potential use of an adaptive water resource  
187 management approach for managing the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands. Application of  
188 such a management approach can contribute significantly to the resolution of critical  
189 management issues of the wetlands of both river basins.

190

191 **2 Study areas**

192

193 **2.1 Kings Billabong (Murray River)**

194

195 Kings Billabong (34° 14' S & 142° 13' E) is a shallow (~1.8 m deep) wetland (210 ha),  
196 located along the River Murray near Mildura (northwest Victoria), Australia (Fig. 1), and was  
197 once an important source of food and water for the *Nyeri Nyeri* Aboriginal Community. The  
198 intensification of agriculture around Kings Billabong by early European settlers began in  
199 1891 and continued until 1923. Initially in 1896, Kings Billabong was used as a pumping  
200 station and was converted to water storage basin (Lloyd, 2012). Modification of the  
201 landscapes around the billabong and construction of dams, including the series of locks and  
202 weirs for upstream water storages, have significantly altered the natural flow regime of the  
203 River Murray which feeds Kings Billabong (Gippel and Blackham, 2002). The hydrology  
204 and, in particular, the variability of flows which include duration and water retention time in  
205 the river, have substantially influenced the volume of water in Kings Billabong (Lloyd,  
206 2012). Since formal regulation of the River Murray began in 1927, with construction of Lock  
207 11 at Mildura and Lock 15 at Euston in 1937, downstream river flows and naturally occurring  
208 flood pulses have altered in many wetlands, including Kings Billabong (Gippel and  
209 Blackham, 2002). The artificial flooding linking Kings Billabong to the weir pool of Lock 11  
210 has led to this wetland becoming permanently inundated.

211 The first sign of ecological impact due to river regulation on Kings Billabong was  
212 observed as a widespread dieback of River Red Gum (RRG) forests and the establishment of  
213 fringing Cumbungi (*Typha* sp.) vegetation (Parks Victoria, 2008). Logging of RRG forests  
214 was intensified in the region until the 1950s, with the timber used to fuel steam-operated  
215 pumps and paddleboats along the river (Parks Victoria, 2008). The life cycle of native

216 aquatic biota in the wetlands around the lower Murray has thus become disrupted due to the  
217 variation in natural wet-dry events caused by river regulation (Ellis and Meredith, 2005).  
218 Increased distribution range of exotic fish and weeds were also observed following  
219 regulation. For example, in a survey of native and exotic fish in Kings Billabong, *Gambusia*  
220 (an exotic species), comprised 35% of the total species collected (Ellis and Meredith, 2005).

221         Apart from human activity, climate change has also impacted the condition of Kings  
222 Billabong. Average water temperatures in the Southeast Australia have risen over the past 60  
223 years and there has been a decrease of 40% in the total rainfall in the region (Cai and Cowan,  
224 2008). This regional variability in climate change has led to significant changes in river flow,  
225 wetland volume, thermal structure and alteration of catchment inputs, all of which are  
226 influenced by a marked increase in frequency and intensity of extreme events such as  
227 droughts and floods (Lake et al., 2000).

228

## 229 **2.2 Zhangdu Lake (Yangtze River)**

230

231 Zhangdu Lake (30° 39' N & 114° 42' E) is a floodplain wetland (1.2 m deep) of the Yangtze  
232 River system, which is located in Hubei Province, central China (Fig. 2). During high river  
233 flows, Zhangdu Lake previously received flood pulses from the Yangtze River, however the  
234 lake was disconnected from the Yangtze River in the 1950s, due to the construction of dams  
235 and widespread land reclamation across the catchment. By the 1980s, the shoreline of  
236 Zhangdu Lake had been significantly modified as a result of the increased reclamation  
237 activity and construction of water conservancy infrastructure, which commenced in the  
238 1970s. In 2005, after the reclamation of 50 square km of shoreline, funding from the World  
239 Wildlife Fund enabled Zhangdu Lake to be seasonally reconnected with Yangtze River for  
240 the purpose of habitat restoration. This lake now has an area of 35.2 km<sup>2</sup>, with an average

241 depth of 1.2 m and a maximum depth of 2.3 m. The watershed lies within the northern  
242 subtropical monsoon zone, with a mean annual temperature of 16.3°C, a mean annual rainfall  
243 of 1150 mm and evaporation of 1525.4 mm. The terrain slopes gently with an elevation of 16  
244 to 21 m. The main inflows of Zhangdu Lake are from the Daoshui River in the west and the  
245 Jushui River in the east. Water drains from the lake into the Yangtze River via an artificial  
246 channel in the south-eastern corner. Historically, Zhangdu Lake has interacted not only with  
247 the Yangtze River when the water level is high, but it has also connected with surrounding  
248 lakes, Qi Lake and Tao Lake, during flood events (Zhang et al., 2013). However, due to the  
249 construction of dams, dykes and land reclamation, it became disconnected from the river in  
250 the 1950s. Water conservancy and reclamation construction reached a peak in the 1970s,  
251 attaining its current finished and formed shape during the 1980s. Following the mid-20<sup>th</sup>  
252 century reclamation phase, the rate of carbon accumulation in Zhangdu Lake has increased,  
253 possibly due to an increase in shallow marginal areas favouring the growth of carbon rich  
254 macrophytes (Dong et al., 2012). However, the ecological impacts of disconnection from the  
255 river in Zhangdu Lake have become severe. Wild fishery production has reduced from 95%  
256 in 1949 to less than 5% in 2002, and fish diversity has decreased, from 80 species in 1950s to  
257 52 species at present (Wang et al., 2005). To address this decline, funding from the World  
258 Wildlife Fund (WWF) in 2005 reconnected Zhangdu Lake with the Yangtze River.

259

### 260 **2.3 Liangzi Lake (Yangtze River)**

261

262 Liangzi Lake (30°3' N, 114°26' E) is a shallow wetland (3-5 m deep), located in southeast  
263 region of Hubei province on the southern bank of the middle reaches of the Yangtze River.  
264 The lake area is 304.3 km<sup>2</sup> with a drainage area of 3,265 km<sup>2</sup>. The lake has an elevation of 20  
265 m and is 31.7 km in length with a mean width of 9.6 km (Fig. 2). The lake connects to

266 Yangtze River via a 43.3 km river canal (Xie et al., 2001). Since 1992, the western part of the  
267 lake, approximately 6000 ha in area with mean depth of 4.2 m, has been separated from the  
268 main lake by a 2000 m nylon screen (mesh size 20 mm) for the purpose of aquaculture. Water  
269 exchange occurs easily between the two parts of the lake. Intensive stocking with commercial  
270 fish, including grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Val.), bighead carp *Aristichthys nobilis*  
271 (Richardson) and silver carp *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix* (Cuvier and Valenciennes), is  
272 common in the western part of the Liangzi Lake (Xie et al., 2001). Because of grass carp  
273 stocking, macrophytes were completely eliminated from the western part of the lake.  
274 However, areas of less intensive aquaculture still maintain an abundant density of submersed  
275 macrophytes, with *Potamogeton maackianus* (A. Bennet) as the dominant species (Xie et al.,  
276 2001). Apart from fisheries, Liangzi Lake provides significant services for drinking water,  
277 irrigation, transportation and recreation to the people living around the four large cities,  
278 Wuhan, Huangshi, Ezhou and Xianning Liangzi. Recently, one of the largest foreign  
279 investment projects to date in central and southern China, the Hubei Liangzi Lake  
280 International Golf Club, has opened a training centre at the edge of the lake.

281

#### 282 **2.4 Hydrological contexts of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

283

284 **Figure 3 presents hydrological contexts for both Murray and Yangtze River systems. This**  
285 **diagram shows the deviation of baseline flows of the two rivers and associated wetlands**  
286 **before and after regulation. Construction of weirs in the lower Murray River during the 1920s**  
287 **and 1930s, and construction of dams in the Yangtze River during the 1950s to the 1970s,**  
288 **significantly altered peak flows and downstream wetland hydrology (Lloyd, 2012; Yang et**  
289 **al., 2011a, b).**

290 Naturally occurring spring flood patterns in the River Murray, experienced prior to the  
291 construction of Lock 11 in 1927, have been altered by regulation, and as a result, the amount  
292 of water released to meet peak irrigation demands has changed (Lloyd, 2012). Increased  
293 demand for water has resulted in the flow of the Lower Murray River falling below the  
294 historical baseline (Fig. 3 A-i). Regulation for wetland permanency has led to the depth of  
295 Kings Billabong being above the historical baseline level (Fig. 3 A-ii).

296 In Zhangdu Lake, water levels were maintained through inflows from two rivers, the  
297 Daoshui River from the west and the Jushui River from the east, and outflow to the Yangtze  
298 River via by an artificial channel from the southeast corner of the lake. The water level was  
299 maintained by permanent connectivity between the Zhangdu Lake and the Yangtze River  
300 channels prior to the 1950s, but became disrupted by regulation (Fig. 3 B-i). The decline in  
301 annual discharge of the Yangtze River (-11%) after the 1950s (Yang et al., 2011a,b), has led  
302 to a reduction of the historical baseline flow of the river, subsequently reducing the baseline  
303 water level in Zhangdu Lake (Fig. 3 B-ii). The South-to-North Water Diversion Projects, in  
304 addition to wetland reclamation and construction of new dams, particularly after the 1970s-  
305 80s, has further altered the hydrology of Zhangdu Lake (Qin et al, 2009; Yang et al., 2010).  
306 However, the project initiated in 2005 by the World Wildlife Fund for Nature has recharged  
307 the channel hydrology and increased the water level of Zhangdu Lake (Fig. 3 B ii).

308

### 309 **3 Methods**

310

#### 311 **3.1 Eco-hydrological assessment of Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

312

313 Questions related to evolution of eco-hydrology of the wetlands of large river basins of  
314 Australia and China are rarely addressed. The observed monitoring data available for ecology

315 and hydrology are often short and sketchy, and may not be reliable guides in reconstructing  
316 the contiguous century-scale variability. However, the biological communities such as  
317 phytoplankton and zooplankton respond very well to flow regimes, habitat and channel  
318 modifications, and nutritional inputs during the flood events (Van den et al., 1994). The  
319 subfossil records of biota such as cladoceran zooplankton, and chemicals such as stable  
320 isotopes of carbon and nitrogen archived in wetland sediment, have the potential to indicate  
321 past ecological and hydrological changes of the floodplain environments. For example, the  
322 growth of small size littoral cladocerans (*Alona* sp.) can flourish at low flood frequency  
323 environments, which, together with the increased growth of telematic plants, can provide  
324 crucial information regarding the past hydrological and ecological conditions of the riverine  
325 wetlands (Pawlowski et al., 2015).

326 In order to understand the changes in past hydrological conditions of wetlands  
327 associated with large rivers, the diversity and ecological conditions of the three floodplain  
328 wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake, were assessed using subfossil  
329 cladoceran zooplankton remains retrieved from lake sediments deposited over the past  
330 century. A high resolution subsampling of a 94 cm long core, collected from Kings  
331 Billabong, was carried out at 1 cm intervals.

332 In the case of Zhangdu Lake, a subsampling of a 45 cm long core was carried out at 1  
333 cm intervals for up to 27 cm, and at 2 cm intervals for up to 45 cm respectively. For Liangzi  
334 Lake, the subsampling of a 65 cm core was carried out at 2 cm intervals. Subsamples from all  
335 three lakes, weighing approximately 3-4 g each as wet sediment, were treated with 100 mL of  
336 10% KOH solution, and heated at 60°C on a hotplate for at least 45 minutes. Sieving of the  
337 sub-sample mixture was carried out through a 38 µm mesh. More than 200 identifiable  
338 cladoceran remains were enumerated at 400x magnification from each subsample. Numbers  
339 were converted to individuals per g dry weight (gDW<sup>-1</sup>) of sediment, followed by the

340 calculation of relative proportion of the remains present in the sample (Kattel et al., 2008).  
341 Cladoceran taxa were identified following the procedures suggested by Frey (1986), Shiel  
342 and Dickson (1995), Zhu et al. (2005) and Szeroczyńska and Sarmaja-Korjonen (2007).

343

### 344 **3.2 Dating**

345

346 The age chronology was based on the standard  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating for all sites (Appleby, 2001). For  
347 Kings Billabong, radionuclide activity was detected at 51 cm, while the radionuclide  
348 activities for Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes were detected at 45 cm and 65 cm respectively. The  
349 age modelling of Kings Billabong can be found in detail in Kattel et al. (2015).

350 The sediment samples from Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes were dated using  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  
351  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  levels by non-destructive gamma spectrometry laboratory at the State Key Laboratory  
352 of Lake Science and Environment, NIGLAS. The activities of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in  
353 samples were determined by counting with an Ortec HPGe GWL series well-type coaxial low  
354 background intrinsic germanium detector. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was used to identify the peak that  
355 indicated use of the 1963 nuclear bomb. This evidence was then used for developing a  
356 constant rate of supply (CRS) model to calculate  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  chronology for the core. The  
357 important dates relevant to hydrological changes were indicated in the stratigraphy.

358

### 359 **3.3 Numerical analyses**

360

361 Hill's N2 diversity index was calculated for wetlands of both river systems to test the changes  
362 in species diversity of cladoceran counts over time. This diversity index assumes that the  
363 number of species in an ecosystem is uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973).



364 For subfossil cladoceran assemblage samples, dendrograms were produced in the  
365 TILIA Graph following the constrained incremental sums of squares (CONISS) analysis.  
366 Zonation of samples in the diagram was based on the chord-distance dissimilarity coefficients  
367 obtained in CONISS (Grimm, 1987). Indirect ordination techniques, such as detrended  
368 correspondence analysis (DCA) were used for identifying species alignments with samples  
369 over time (Hill and Gauch, 1980). DCA was run for sub-fossil cladoceran samples meeting  
370 200 counts in each sample followed by running correspondence analysis (CA) or principal  
371 components analysis (PCA) as per the gradient length of the first DCA axis (ter Braak, 1995).  
372 The CA and PCA sample scores were incorporated in the stratigraphy diagrams.

373

## 374 **4 Results**

375

376 The species richness (species count) and assemblages of subfossil cladocerans were assessed  
377 in wetlands of both river basins as these biological components are potential indicators for the  
378 past environmental conditions including the changes in ecology and hydrology of floodplain  
379 wetlands of Murray and Yangtze River basins.

380

### 381 **4.1 Kings Billabong**

382

383 More than 40 species of subfossil cladocerans were recorded within Kings Billabong. The  
384 most commonly recorded cladoceran taxa were *Bosmina meridionalis*, *Chydorus sphaericus*,  
385 *Biapertura setigera*, *Dunhevedia crassa*, *Biapertura affinis* and *Alona guttata* (Fig. 4). The  
386 diversity of these cladocerans in Kings Billabong, as revealed by the N2 diversity index, was  
387 responsive to past hydrology and water level changes. The N2 index was low during the

388 1900s, however, prior to human disturbance of the river during the 1870s, as well as in the  
389 1960s, the N2 diversity index was relatively high (Figure 4).

390 The zonation of the assemblage structure of the sub-fossil cladocerans as well as the  
391 trend in littoral to planktonic ratios (L:P ratios) were potentially significant to infer the period  
392 of the eco-hydrologic change including quantity and quality of water in Kings Billabong (Fig.  
393 4). The subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Kings Billabong showed four distinct changes  
394 in ecosystem. Until the 1890s, (Zone I) littoral cladocerans such as *Dunhevedia crassa*, *Alona*  
395 *guttata*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria* were the dominant species  
396 flourished mostly in good water quality condition (Fig. 4). This period experienced a  
397 relatively low abundance of the planktonic species *Bosmina meridionalis* (Fig. 4). However,  
398 total littoral cladocerans gradually declined, while small littoral species, such as *Alona*  
399 *guttata*, became abundant during the period 1890 to 1950 (Zone II). During this time, the  
400 water quality began to decline, corresponding to an increasing density of planktonic *B.*  
401 *meridionalis* contributing to the total planktonic cladocerans. Some *Daphnia* records (1950s-  
402 1970s) were also retrieved, and coincided with a hydrological disruption, in the form of the  
403 1956 flood, in the River Murray (Zone III) (Fig. 4). Although total littoral cladocerans  
404 declined, some littoral species such as *Alona guttata* and *A. quadrangularis* were still  
405 abundant during this time. However, in the 1970s-2000s, conditions of wetland declined  
406 corresponding to increased planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata*, *Biapertura*  
407 *longispina*, *A. quadrangularis* and *Chydorus sphaericus*, while the littoral *D. crassa* declined  
408 significantly. In the meantime, the frequency and density of cladoceran resting eggs also  
409 increased in the sediment (Fig. 4).

410 In Kings Billabong, a major hydrological shift occurred in 1927 leading to significant  
411 hydrologic-dynamics of wetland including the volume of water (Fig. 4). The L:P ratios of  
412 cladocerans indicated a major hydrological change of the wetland when they began to decline

413 rapidly from about 75 cm depth (c.1930s) (Fig. 4). The subfossil assemblages of littoral and  
414 planktonic cladocerans over a longer time scale responded to these hydrological changes of  
415 the Murray River, together with subsequent changes of water level of Kings Billabong. The  
416 construction of Lock 11 in the Murray River near Mildura led to permanent inundation of  
417 Kings Billabong during the 1920s-1930s, the time of major hydrological shift (Fig. 4).  
418 Because of the expansion of the pelagic habitat as a result of increased amount of water in  
419 Kings Billabong, the assemblage of subfossil *Bosmina* was retrieved high in the sediment  
420 (Fig. 4). Although the billabong was inundated and hydrologically stable with constant water  
421 depth, there was sustained increase in the abundance of some littoral cladocerans including  
422 *Alona guttata*, *Alona quadrangularis* and *Biapertura longispina*. Following this hydrological  
423 shift, Kings Billabong began to respond to the change with declining water quality. For  
424 example, littoral cladocerans such as *A. guttata* and *A. quadrangularis*, which prefer poor  
425 water conditions, were sustained together with *B. meridionalis*. However, the assemblage of  
426 the dominant littoral cladoceran, *Dunhevedia crassa*, which prefers clean water conditions,  
427 significantly declined following the hydrological shift, from pre-regulated, variable water  
428 levels to post-regulated environment in Kings Billabong as a result of the sudden imposition  
429 of river regulation in 1927 (Fig. 4).

430

#### 431 **4.2 Zhangdu Lake**

432

433 From the Zhangdu Lake, more than 36 cladoceran species were recorded, with *Bosmina*,  
434 *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina* being the most commonly recorded taxa (Fig. 5).  
435 Other cladoceran species such as small *Alona* sp. (*A. guttata* and *A. rectangula*), also became  
436 increasingly responsive to past hydrological disturbances. These hydrological disturbances  
437 were also inferred by the N2 diversity index of cladocerans with representation of the species

438 **indicating increased disturbances.** Whilst prior to the construction of the dam (c. 1881-1954)  
439 the N2 index was low compared to the post-dam construction period, during the post  
440 disturbance period, the levels of taxa preferring a disturbed environment increased (Fig. 5).

441 Three distinct hydrologic and ecosystem changes were observed in Zhangdu Lake,  
442 based on the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans from lake sediment. Planktonic cladocerans  
443 dominated the period c. 1880s-1960s (Zone I), when the planktonic *Bosmina* sp. was the most  
444 dominant species. During this time, the abundance of total littoral cladocerans declined, when  
445 only a few species, including those that characteristically occupy both littoral and planktonic  
446 habitats, such as *Chydorus sphaericus*, were present (Fig. 5). However, a major hydrological  
447 shift occurred during the c. 1960s-1980s (Zone II) following the construction of dams across  
448 the Yangtze River channels (c. 1950s). Sediments deposited in the dam contained increasing  
449 numbers of remains of the littoral cladocerans, where by some of the common species of  
450 cladocerans such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus*  
451 *sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* were gradually becoming  
452 dominant (Fig. 5). The abundance of littoral cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *Alona*  
453 *intermedia*, *Alona affinis*, *Kurzia lattissima*, *Leydigia leydigi*, *A. guttata*, *Camptocercus*  
454 *rectirostris* and *Disparalona rostrata* increased further during the c. 1990s-2000s (Zone III)  
455 indicating a significant change in both the ecologic and hydrologic systems. In addition, the  
456 concentration of the cladoceran resting eggs increased during this time (Fig. 5).

457 In the Zhangdu Lake, increased diversion of the water from the Yangtze River, during  
458 the 1960s-70s because of the construction of dams, led to significant decline in the quantity  
459 of water and also the lake level. This resulted in a decrease of water depth around the lake  
460 margins, consequently providing suitable conditions for the increased growth of littoral  
461 vegetation and associated habitat for cladocerans. In response, the abundance of littoral  
462 cladocerans, including *Alona affinis*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*, *Camptocercus*

463 *rectirostris*, *Kurzia latissima* and *Leydigia leydigi*, increased with high L:P ratios (Fig. 5).  
464 Smaller *Alona* such as *A. guttata*, *A. rectangula* and *A. intermedia* showed a distinct presence  
465 during this time (Fig. 5).

466

#### 467 **4.3 Liangzi Lake**

468

469 More than 20 cladoceran species were recorded from the Liangzi Lake. *Bosmina* sp.,  
470 *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula* and *Chydorus sphaericus* were the most  
471 common taxa (Figs. 6). The N2 diversity index of Liangzi Lake, prior to c. 1900-1930 (the  
472 period of major hydrological disturbance), was lower than the period after the post dam  
473 construction period in the Yangtze River (Fig. 6).

474 This hydrological condition in Yangtze River led to four distinct ecosystem changes in  
475 Liangzi Lake, as inferred by the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans retrieved from lake  
476 sediments. Prior to 1900 (Zone I), the total abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* was high. In  
477 the c. 1900s-1920s (Zone II), the relative abundance of *Bosmina* began to decline, while the  
478 abundance of littoral species increased. The dominant species during this time were  
479 *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona rectangula*, *Camptocercus rectirostris* and *Dunhevedia crassa* (Fig.  
480 6). During the c. 1930s-1950s (Zone III), the relative abundance of *Bosmina* was relatively  
481 constant, but the abundance of littoral species continued to increase. Four dominant species  
482 were found in this community; *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa*  
483 and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*. During the c. 1960s-2000s, the period of major hydrological  
484 disturbances due to dam construction in the Yangtze, the total abundance of *Bosmina*  
485 increased, particularly in the early 2000s, and four species of littoral species, *Alona guttata*,  
486 *Alona intermedia*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina* also became dominant  
487 throughout this period (Fig. 6).

488

## 489 **5 Discussion**

490

### 491 **5.1 Shifts in hydrology and its implications for ecosystem functioning of wetlands within** 492 **the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

493

494 Over the past century, impacts on the Murray and Yangtze Rivers included the construction  
495 of irrigation dams, hydroelectric power plants, regulation works for navigation, land  
496 reclamation projects, and large-scale flood control measures (Maheshwari et al., 1995; Sun et  
497 al., 2012). As a result, vast areas of floodplain wetlands of both river systems have been  
498 drained and disconnected from the river. In some areas, this reduced hydrological  
499 connectivity has resulted in a flushing of organic matter and nutrients from the floodplains  
500 only during extreme floods, when the river retention capacity is the lowest. Therefore,  
501 organic matter from the floodplain system is not accessible to wetland organisms. With the  
502 loss of dynamically connected floodplains, the biogeochemical budget of the Murray and  
503 Yangtze River wetlands has changed significantly. Previous evidence strongly suggests that  
504 the climatic cycles of drought and flood have become extreme, triggering unusual responses  
505 of floodplain wetlands to the disturbance regime of these rivers (Zhang et al., 2012).

506 Wetlands losing hydrological connections with the river result in divergence of aquatic  
507 micro- and macro-invertebrate assemblages (Qin et al., 2009). The disruptions in the natural  
508 variability and connectivity of hydrological regimes, due to river-flow regulation, have  
509 consequently reduced ecological integrity, resulting in reduced invertebrate diversity  
510 (Sheldon et al., 2002). The downstream impacts of low flows in the River Murray were  
511 visible mainly following the construction of Hume Dam in 1936, but at present, average  
512 monthly and annual flows are still considerably lower than those of natural conditions in the

513 past (Maheshwari et al., 1995). The study of natural flow regimes in the Murray River  
514 suggests that the strength of average annual floods (with an annual exceedance probability of  
515 50%) has reduced by over 50% at all stations. The effects of large floods with an average  
516 recurrence interval of 20 years or more, are, however, relatively low (Maheshwari et al.,  
517 1995). The number of low flows defined by a given annual non-exceedance probability, are  
518 higher under regulated conditions than under natural conditions (Maheshwari et al., 1995).  
519 The implications of these changes are not only for communities of native plants and animals  
520 in both riverine and floodplain environments, but also for the long-term use of the riverine  
521 resources by humans (Maheshwari et al., 1995). Rivers and their associated wetlands  
522 exchange particulate and dissolved organic matter, including suspended sediments, nutrients,  
523 and algal biomasses (Tockner et al., 1999). These nutrients are fundamental for the support of  
524 ecosystem structure and function in riverine food webs (Bunn and Arthington, 2002). The  
525 current flow regimes also determine which physical habitats are available for all aquatic  
526 species that have evolved life history strategies primarily in direct response to natural flow  
527 regimes (Bedford, 1996).

528         Permanent inundation of wetlands occurred in many areas across the Lower Murray  
529 River in response to the 1914 Commonwealth Act. This legislation enforced a requirement to  
530 manage the Murray River's water by the construction of locks, weirs, and water storage  
531 areas. Construction of the Mildura Weir (Lock 11), which began in August 1923, resulted in  
532 an increased water level in Kings Billabong by the time construction was completed in 1927.  
533 These long periods of water storage in Kings Billabong are thought to have increased  
534 stagnation, nutrient levels, and primary productivity, subsequently impacting the higher  
535 trophic levels around the billabong (Kattel et al., 2015). Some have argued that the high  
536 nutrient input in the river system, combined with relatively long water residence times in

537 water storages, supports phytoplankton growth and a tendency towards eutrophication and  
538 poor water quality (e.g. Tockner et al., 1999; Chaparro et al., 2015).

539 In the Yangtze River, construction of many dams and water impoundments has  
540 significantly altered downstream hydrological regimes, which have directly affected the  
541 relationship between the Yangtze River and its river channels and floodplain wetlands,  
542 including the Zhangdu Lake (e.g. Yang et al., 2011a, b). The construction of dams throughout  
543 this catchment has caused changes in channel morphology and sedimentology, with a  
544 concomitant drastic decline in sediment transportation and severe channel erosion in  
545 connections to lakes. From the monitoring of stream cross-sections, changes to river channels  
546 are evident, including the reduction of water level within wetlands (Yang et al., 2011a, b).  
547 These have inevitably induced alterations in inundation patterns of the wetlands, resulting in  
548 changes to ecosystem structure and function, which in turn have disturbed the habitats of  
549 biota (Maheshwari et al., 1995; Sun et al., 2012). As a consequence of a rapid expansion of  
550 human activity in the watershed during the 1960s, significant changes at the base of the food  
551 web in Zhangdu Lake have been observed in the subfossil composition of testate amoeba  
552 communities. For instance, the characteristic oligotrophic, lake-dwelling species (e.g.  
553 *Diffugia biwae*) have been replaced by eutrophic species (e.g. *Diffugia oblonga*) (Qin et al.,  
554 2009).

555

## 556 **5.2 Cladoceran-inferred responses to hydrological shifts in Murray and Yangtze River** 557 **wetlands**

558

559 Cladoceran assemblages of three floodplain wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake,  
560 and Liangzi Lake all have shown strong responses to human-mediated hydrological  
561 alterations in the Murray and Yangtze Rivers over the past century. Although the N2



562 diversity index did not show a strong response to disturbance, the impact of river regulation  
563 and permanent inundation of Kings Billabong in the 1920s nonetheless revealed a decline in  
564 the density of littoral species.

565 As indicated earlier, Hill's N2 diversity index assumes that the number of species in an  
566 ecosystem is uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973). Following this advice, we assumed that the  
567 distribution of cladoceran species along the temporal scale of Murray and Yangtze River  
568 wetlands should also have been uniform. However, the N2 diversity index of cladocerans in  
569 Kings Billabong and Yangtze River wetlands was found to be non-uniform across our  
570 measurement period, and, in addition, they showed different trends in diversity. Following  
571 similar regulation and construction of dams in the two sites, the N2 diversity index decreased  
572 in Kings Billabong, whereas the N2 index in Yangtze River wetlands increased. These  
573 differences in responses of cladoceran diversity to regulation as shown by the N2 diversity  
574 index suggest some degree of variations in disturbances between the two river systems.  
575 Unlike the occurrence of more severe and frequent disturbances in Kings Billabong following  
576 the arrival of early European immigrants, the gradual or intermediate type of disturbances in  
577 Yangtze River wetlands could have resulted in the increased species diversity of cladocerans  
578 following regulation. With the historical perspective, the disturbances in Kings Billabong  
579 occurred within a very short time scale (e.g. years), while the disturbance in Yangtze River  
580 wetlands occurred over a longer time scale (e.g. decades), and could be characterised as an  
581 intermediate frequencies of disturbance (Collins and Glenn, 1997). Indeed, records indicate  
582 that the early European immigrants in Australia transformed the landscapes quickly, which  
583 had severe impacts on Kings Billabong cladocerans. However, unlike Kings Billabong, the  
584 Yangtze River wetlands did not experience such a severe disturbance, and as the intermediate  
585 disturbance hypothesis model suggests, the diversity index increased following the

586 disturbance (Townsend and Scarsbrook, 1997) indicating the intermediate frequencies of  
587 disturbance in cladoceran diversity of the Zhangdu and Liangzi lakes.

588 However, habitat stability determines the species and functional diversities of biota. In  
589 addition, the species diversity patterns are often context- and system-dependent (Biswas and  
590 Malik, 2010). For example, reduced water level, which results in increased light regime and  
591 higher growth of littoral vegetation, may provide stability of habitat for small *Alona* sp. in  
592 Yangtze River wetlands following the intermediate disturbance (c. 1960s), and consequently  
593 this leads to an increased N2 diversity index (Figs. 4 & 5).

594 The species such as *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*, are adapted to  
595 submerged vegetation and their decline in abundance indicates a reduction of suitable habitat,  
596 such as decreased water quality. The increase in the abundance of lentic species, such as  
597 *Bosmina meridionalis*, demonstrates a switch from the prior ephemeral state to one of more  
598 or less constant inundation. Although drought had little or no impact on the water nutrient  
599 levels in Kings Billabong following regulation, by contrast, large-scale flood events such as  
600 in 1956, may have significantly increased nutrient input in the water column. The apparent  
601 result was to increase the population of *Bosmina*, as well as littoral species (e.g. *A. guttata*)  
602 that prefer enriched nutrient environments (Hofmann, 1996). Turbidity from suspended  
603 sediment during flood events also limits growth of submerged vegetation, due to a reduction  
604 of light penetration. By the early 2000s, planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata* and  
605 *Biapertura longispina* were the dominant species. The high density of cladoceran ephippia  
606 retrieved from the wetland sediment also indicates 'stress' among the cladoceran community  
607 during the prevailing conditions of post- regulation period in the Murray River system  
608 (Nevalainen et al., 2011). The low abundance of *D. crassa* following river regulation reflects  
609 the impact of river regulation on the aquatic ecosystem, with degraded water quality and  
610 reduced resilience in the wetland community. In shallow lakes, a consequence of human-

611 induced actions is the tendency towards a regime shift, followed by poor ecological resilience  
612 (Folke et al. 2004). The loss of functional group species and consequent reduced species  
613 diversity may lead to a loss of whole trophic levels or ‘top-down effects’ (Folke et al., 2004).

614 The Zhangdu Lake aquatic community responded to downstream water shortages in the  
615 river channel connecting to the lake, as revealed by low lake levels following the construction  
616 of dams and reservoirs for water conservation in the 1950s-1970s. Subsequent to river  
617 regulation during the 1950s, hydrological alterations of the river channel and changes to the  
618 water level of Zhangdu Lake, increased the growth of littoral plants. This also resulted in  
619 increased abundance of littoral cladoceran species, such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*,  
620 *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* (Fig.  
621 5). Although the abundance of littoral species in the lake indicated increased growth of  
622 submerged vegetation, the condition of the wetland ecosystem following regulation was poor.  
623 The clear water regime, present prior to regulation, gradually transformed to a eutrophic state  
624 following the construction of dams. Many small cladocerans recorded in Zhangdu Lake  
625 following the work of the 1950s, are typically associated with still (lotic) water, eutrophic and  
626 poor water quality conditions, and have been found in similar disturbed habitats elsewhere.  
627 For example, in Europe, cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *C. sphaericus* and *S.*  
628 *crystallina* have a characteristic affiliation with lotic environments (Nevalainen, 2011). In  
629 addition, in Tibet, *Chydorus sphaericus* has been found to be adapted to wide range of  
630 environmental gradients, while *Alona affinis* and *Acroperus harpae* colonize dense aquatic  
631 macrophytes, and *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Eurycercus lamellatus* are adapted to  
632 shallow littoral environments, with a preference for debris-rich substrates (Liping et al.,  
633 2005).

634 Eutrophication in Zhangdu Lake, due to hydrological changes of the wetland, was also  
635 indicated by the presence of testate amoeba (Qin et al., 2009). Our results strongly suggest

636 that hydrological alterations of rivers and wetlands can result in eutrophication and lead to an  
637 increased abundance of smaller size littoral cladocerans. The low level of floods could reduce  
638 water level, increase telematic plant growth, and decrease the redox condition of the wetland  
639 resulting in the variation in growth, metabolism and reproduction of such cladocerans  
640 (Pawlowski et al., 2015). The shallow littoral environment provides habitats for different fish  
641 species, and may increase the predator-prey interactions (Pawlowski et al., 2015). Following  
642 regulation, the large number of cladocearn ehippia recorded in the sediment in Zhangdu  
643 Lake (which is found in the lower Yangtze), also indicates the decline in lake levels and the  
644 loss of lentic habitats, which leads to reduced feeding habitats and reproductive output or an  
645 increased ecological stress among the cladoceran community, particularly during the c.  
646 1990s-2000s. In Europe, increases in sedimentary resting eggs of cladocerans are reported to  
647 be associated with major environmental transitions; for example, climate change (such as  
648 Pleistocene-early Holocene), timing of strong predator-prey interactions (fish predation  
649 pressure), and increased human impact in the catchment (for example, unprecedented release  
650 of chemicals) (Sarmaja-Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

651 The response of the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Liangzi Lake to  
652 hydrological change in the Yangtze River during the 1950s was difficult to establish. This  
653 could be due to the permanent inflow to this lake from the Yangtze River. The higher  
654 abundance of *Bosmina* prior to 1900s indicate that the lake was kept at a certain water level,  
655 and much of the trophic materials contained in the surface water met the demands of  
656 planktonic cladocerans (Liping et al., 2005). However, the abundance of littoral species  
657 *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*  
658 during the 1950s are indicative of decreasing depth. During the 1990s to the 2000s, Liangzi  
659 Lake was impacted by intensive agriculture practices in the catchment and nutrient inputs  
660 into the wetland, as indicated by an increased abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* (Lipping et

661 al., 2005). In 1992, the local government restricted aquaculture to the western part of the  
662 Liangzi Lake, since this activity was affecting water quality throughout the entire lake (Xie et  
663 al., 2001). This problem had been detected from ecological stress responses of cladocerans,  
664 as revealed by an increased density of resting eggs in the sediment, as well as an increased  
665 abundance of *Bosmina* and the chydorid species such as *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*,  
666 *Chydorus sphaericus*, since these are all found in nutrient-rich environments (Sarmaja-  
667 Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

668 All three of these wetlands appear to exhibit characteristic traits of hydrologically  
669 triggered ecosystem changes, as revealed by subfossil cladoceran assemblages, since each has  
670 tended to undergo regime shifts during recent decades. Furthermore, species richness in each  
671 is indicative of reduced water quality. Hydrology strongly drives the community composition  
672 of phyto- and zooplankton, relevant nutritional resources, and habitat characteristics, mainly  
673 via input of total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorous (TP) from the eutrophic main channels  
674 during flood events (Van den et al., 1994; Nevalainen, 2011). The phenomena observed in the  
675 dynamics of physical and biological assemblages, and the diversity of cladoceran  
676 zooplankton, in Kings Billabong and Zhangdu Lake, for example, have shown tendency of  
677 existing in alternative stable states resulting from switching of ecosystems, irrespective of  
678 inundation (Kings Billabong) or dehydration (Zhangdu Lake).

679 The alternative 'stable states phenomena' in shallow lakes and wetlands have been  
680 widely viewed as indicative of changes to resilience of ecosystems (Scheffer and Jeppesen,  
681 2007). Such phenomena have shown the condition of wetlands to vary from a relatively good  
682 water quality, vegetation-rich state to a poor, turbid water state, which is usually less  
683 desirable to society (Folke et al., 2004). Positive feedback associated with the condition of  
684 increased water quality, species richness and population dynamics of *D. crassa* in Kings  
685 Billabong prior to 1900 is characteristic of a resilient ecosystem (e.g. Suding et al., 2004).

686 By contrast, an open water habitat, which may be characteristic of a longer flood duration  
687 following regulation, leads to negative feedback, which is turbid and less resilient (e.g.  
688 Suding et al., 2004). Similarly, in Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes, an increased abundance of  
689 smaller, mud-dwelling cladoceran species such as small *Alona* sp. and *Leydigia leydigi*, as  
690 well as presence of other meso-eutrophic species, *Chydorus* and *Bosmina* following  
691 regulation, is indicative of increased eutrophication (Hofmann, 1996) caused by alteration of  
692 flow regime and dehydration of wetlands.

693 Long term persistent human disturbances alter species diversity and have functional  
694 consequences in ecosystem processes (MacDougall et al., 2013), which may be observed via  
695 impact on ecological traits (Chapin III, 2000). The components of species diversity  
696 expressing certain traits include the number of species present (species richness), their  
697 relative abundances (species evenness), the particular species present (species composition),  
698 the interactions among species (non-additive effects), and the temporal and spatial variation  
699 in these properties. The consequence to the environment as a result of cladoceran diversity  
700 change in the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands is difficult to predict, but in the longer  
701 term, poor functioning of the ecosystem due to reduction in diversity in Kings Billabong is  
702 expected. In the Yangtze River wetlands, the dominant species richness trait, for instance  
703 abundance of the small *Alona* sp. Group, can also lead to poor ecosystem functioning (e.g.  
704 Chapin III, 2000). This evidence strongly reflects the reduction in resilience and the limited  
705 capacity of these wetlands to support ecosystem services for the society in these increasingly  
706 regulated river basins. Further decline in eco-hydrological conditions including the water  
707 quality, water quantity, fishery resources, and recreational amenities, due to cumulative  
708 stressors can lead to the collapse of ecosystem services, in which case society will no longer  
709 be benefitted (Falkenmark, 2003).

710 The ecosystems of both Murray and Yangtze rivers are affected by a range of drivers.  
711 The cumulative stressors upon these wetlands are nutrient enrichments from agricultural  
712 catchments, heavy metal release from industries (mainly in Yangtze wetlands) and climate  
713 change (flooding and drought episodes). Increased nitrogen deposition has been reported to  
714 have a great effect on diversity and ecosystem functioning of wetlands, leading to collapse of  
715 food chains and ecosystems (Hooper et al., 2012). This collapse may lead to crises to higher  
716 trophic levels including the humans, with conflicting demands placed on natural resources  
717 and increasingly poor public health of the local community (Kattel et al., 2013). The  
718 participatory approach of river basin management can help increase resilience of wetland  
719 ecosystems and goods and services to society (Vörösmarty et al., 2010), and joint action by  
720 various stakeholders including ecologists, resource managers and decision makers can be  
721 useful to achieve management goals for natural resources (Biswas, 2004; Carpenter et al.,  
722 2009, Liu et al., 2014). Such an adaptive management approach for water resources is  
723 increasingly appropriate for maintaining ecosystem services of large river basins (e.g. Richter  
724 et al., 2003).

725

### 726 **5.3 The potential use of an adaptive water resource management approach for the** 727 **management of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

728

729 Water problems in large river basins are increasingly interconnected with multi-sector  
730 developments such as agriculture, energy, industry, transportation and communication.  
731 Several authors (Walker et al., 1995; Kingsford et al., 2000; Fu et al., 2003) suggest that  
732 maintaining ecosystem health of wetlands associated with large river basins, requires a new  
733 paradigm in water management. Today, the wetlands of both the Murray and Yangtze River  
734 basins have faced greater challenges from hydrological modification, water shortage and

735 eutrophication than at any time before (Yang et al., 2006; Shen, 2010; Gell and Reid, 2014),  
736 and there are growing concerns about the uncertainties of climate change and socio-economic  
737 impacts on these river basins (Palmer et al., 2000). For example, due to rapid decline in water  
738 quality, biodiversity and ecological characters of the lower Yangtze River, this region has  
739 already been declared as the ecosystem of “lost resilience” (Zhang et al., 2015). A  
740 comprehensive synthesis by Varis and Vakkilainen (2001) suggests that following the 1970s,  
741 China’s environmental pressures have surpassed the carrying capacity of the ecosystem,  
742 resulting in greater challenges for water resource management in the Yangtze and many other  
743 river basins. Similarly, a rapidly declining trend of biological diversity and ecosystem states  
744 of the Murray River basin has also been widely reported since the 1950s (Kingsford et al.,  
745 2000). For example, more than 80% of wetlands in the Lower Murray River reaches  
746 (Australia) have undergone a significant decline in flow regimes and ecosystem health, due to  
747 rapid rates of sedimentation, turbidity and loss of macrophytes (e.g. Mosley et al., 2012; Gell  
748 and Reid, 2014). Additionally, the wetlands of both large river basins have experienced  
749 substantial loss of ecosystem services, and increased river regulation during the 20<sup>th</sup> century.  
750 With increasing demand for water, food, fibre, minerals, and energy in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, these  
751 pressures have degraded conditions of these natural resources even further (e.g. Davis et al.,  
752 2015). It is claimed that solutions for water issues are not possible without a joint effort by  
753 the various stakeholders involved in understanding the complexity of water management in  
754 large river basins (e.g. Biswas, 2004). It has been envisaged that the current management  
755 approach needs to be revitalized to resolve growing issues of wetland management and  
756 maintenance of associated ecosystem services, including the quantity and quality of water in  
757 both river basins.

758         Adoption of an Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM) approach has been  
759 increasingly useful to resolve issues of quantity and quality of water worldwide. The IWRM



760 promotes water management by maximizing relevant economic and social welfare in an  
761 equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems (Biswas,  
762 2004). Over the past decades, the IWRM approach has been constantly modified as per the  
763 societal needs of local water management. The eco-hydrological evolution of the Murray and  
764 Yangtze river wetlands inferred from the subfossil cladoceran assemblages and diversity  
765 (Figs. 4 & 5), highlights the need of the adoption of an adaptive water resource management  
766 approach in these large river basins that have been profoundly impacted by socio-economic  
767 developments over the past century. The adaptive water resource management approach is an  
768 integrated and multi-disciplinary strategy in nature. It is intended to improve management  
769 and to accommodate change by learning from the outcomes of management (restoration)  
770 policies and practices, as described by Holling (1978) initially, and debated extensively by  
771 Jakeman and Letcher, (2003), Macleod et al. (2007) and Pahl-Wostl (2007). Such a  
772 management approach has been facilitated by dialogue between scientists, stakeholders and  
773 policy makers, and can be expected to result in highly positive outcomes (Falkenmark, 2004).

774 Our study provides the 1950s as a benchmark of change in flow regime and ecosystem  
775 of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands. Following river regulation (post 1950s), both the  
776 quantity and quality of water in the Murray and Yangtze river wetlands had been significantly  
777 altered, reaching a critically low level of flow, poor water quality and reduced ecosystem  
778 health by the 2000s. This condition of changes in flow regime in the Murray River basin was  
779 also reported by Maheshwari et al. (1995), where the average monthly and annual flows were  
780 considerably lower than those of natural conditions prior to regulation. We argue that since  
781 the early 2000s, both the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands have experienced a critical  
782 level of threshold for changing both water quality and quantity, and all available restoration  
783 measures should be adopted to avoid further decline in conditions in these wetlands.

784 In an adaptive water resource management program, the integration of science,  
785 engineering and community engagement has been carefully considered (ref). River  
786 regulation, including the widespread infrastructure developments across the river basins, can  
787 consistently modify natural hydraulic residence time, leading to changes in diversity and the  
788 associated ecosystem structure and functions of wetlands. For example, construction of the  
789 Hume Dam in the 1930s in the Murray River, and several large dams including the Three  
790 Gorges Dam (TGD) since the 1950s in Yangtze River, has had long-lasting effects on  
791 downstream flow regimes, as well as wetland ecosystem structure and function (Pittock and  
792 Finlayson, 2011; Wu et al., 2003). Whilst these infrastructures are already in place, strong  
793 scientific evidence can potentially establish a benchmark for the eco-hydrologic conditions of  
794 these large river basins. Benchmarks have been widely used for developing predictive models  
795 and for identifying the symptoms of transitioning hydrology and critical level of threshold in  
796 the ecosystem of degrading wetlands (Zweig and Kitchens, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). This  
797 information is potentially crucial for resource managers in wetland restoration program to  
798 maintain the quality and quantity of water as well as the disbursement of balanced  
799 allocations. The innovative and environmentally-friendly infrastructure development and its  
800 contribution to water efficiency is fundamental for the adaptive water resource management  
801 program, and has been intended to meet balanced water allocations across the households,  
802 agriculture, industry and environment (Poff et al., 2003; Biswas, 2004; Lee and Ancev, 2009;  
803 Jiang, 2009; Yu et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2010). Such considerations are particularly significant  
804 for large river basins given the increasing volumes of water for infrastructure development,  
805 for human consumption and for environmental water allocation to support ecosystem  
806 function wetland restoration measures and the sustainability of ecosystem services (e.g.  
807 Grafton et al., 2013).

808 In addition to the development of a strong foundation of science and infrastructure  
809 engineering, the making the linkages between the restoration requirements suggested by  
810 science and the needs of society have been considered essential in an adaptive water resource  
811 management program of the large river basins (Pittock and Finlayson, 2011, Liu et al., 2014).  
812 Any decision making should be based on the need of the local community and mutual  
813 understanding among scientists, resource managers and community leaders (Poff et al.,  
814 2003). The successful outcomes of water resource management in river basins would be  
815 possible if the community is engaged with all aspects of environmental hydrology, ecology  
816 and water resource management programs, including both structural developments (such as  
817 hydropower dams) and non-structural infrastructure programs (typified by awareness  
818 approached for adaptation to change as well as water savings Shen, (2010)). Such a  
819 management approach is expected to enhance wetland resilience by improving both water  
820 quality and quantity, including ecosystem functions, which will consequent assist the basin-  
821 wide management of food and water security issues through extensive community  
822 participation. For example, the WWF-supported partnership program, together with  
823 government agencies and local communities, was highly successful for improving water  
824 resources, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the Yangtze River Basin. Under this type  
825 of management program, and in partnership with local people, the three Yangtze lakes  
826 (Zhangdu, Hong and Tian-e-zhou), which were disconnected from the main channel during  
827 the 1950s-1970s, have now been recharged by opening of sluice gates (Yu et al., 2009). The  
828 recharging of Zhangdu Lake has not only enhanced resilience of the lake environment to  
829 climate change and but also livelihoods of the local people (Yu et al., 2009). Recently, the  
830 role of community participation in water resource management has also been reported  
831 significant in some wetlands of the Murray Darling Basin. For example, the living Murray  
832 project initiated by the Murray Darling Basin Authority with the view of increased

833 indigenous community engagement, has led to improvements in the ecological health of the  
834 Barmah–Millewa floodplain wetlands supporting large bird breeding events (MDBA, 2014).  
835 This kind of success has also been revealed by the coupled socio-hydrologic models showing  
836 strong association between the trajectory of human-water co-evolution and associated goods  
837 and services in the Murrumbidgee River basin (one of sub-basins of the River Murray)  
838 (Kandasamy et al., 2014, van Emmerik et al., 2014).

839

## 840 **6 Conclusions**

841

842 Evidence from subfossil assemblages of cladocerans over the past few decades from all three  
843 wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake, suggest that river regulation by  
844 humans in the Murray (Australia) and Yangtze (China) rivers have significantly altered  
845 natural flows, including the hydrology and ecology of these wetlands. The response of  
846 subfossil cladoceran assemblages was evident via both prolonged flooding (inundation) and  
847 dehydration (abstraction) of water in the Murray and Yangtze Rivers, respectively. Other  
848 factors, such as land use, socio-economic developments, and rapid climate change,  
849 particularly over the past 30-40 years, may have exacerbated the hydrological and ecological  
850 processes further. The conditions of wetlands following large-scale disturbances, such as  
851 widespread river regulation and construction of dams and reservoirs, have shown a tendency  
852 to trigger wetland ecosystem switches, and highlights the urgent need for restoration  
853 measures to improve ecosystem services, through better management of quantity and quality  
854 of water. We suggest that the use of an adaptive water resource management approach, based  
855 on science, engineering, and community participation, would be expected to significantly  
856 enhance resilience of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands and help manage long-term  
857 basin-wide water and food security issues.

858

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860

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877

878 **References**

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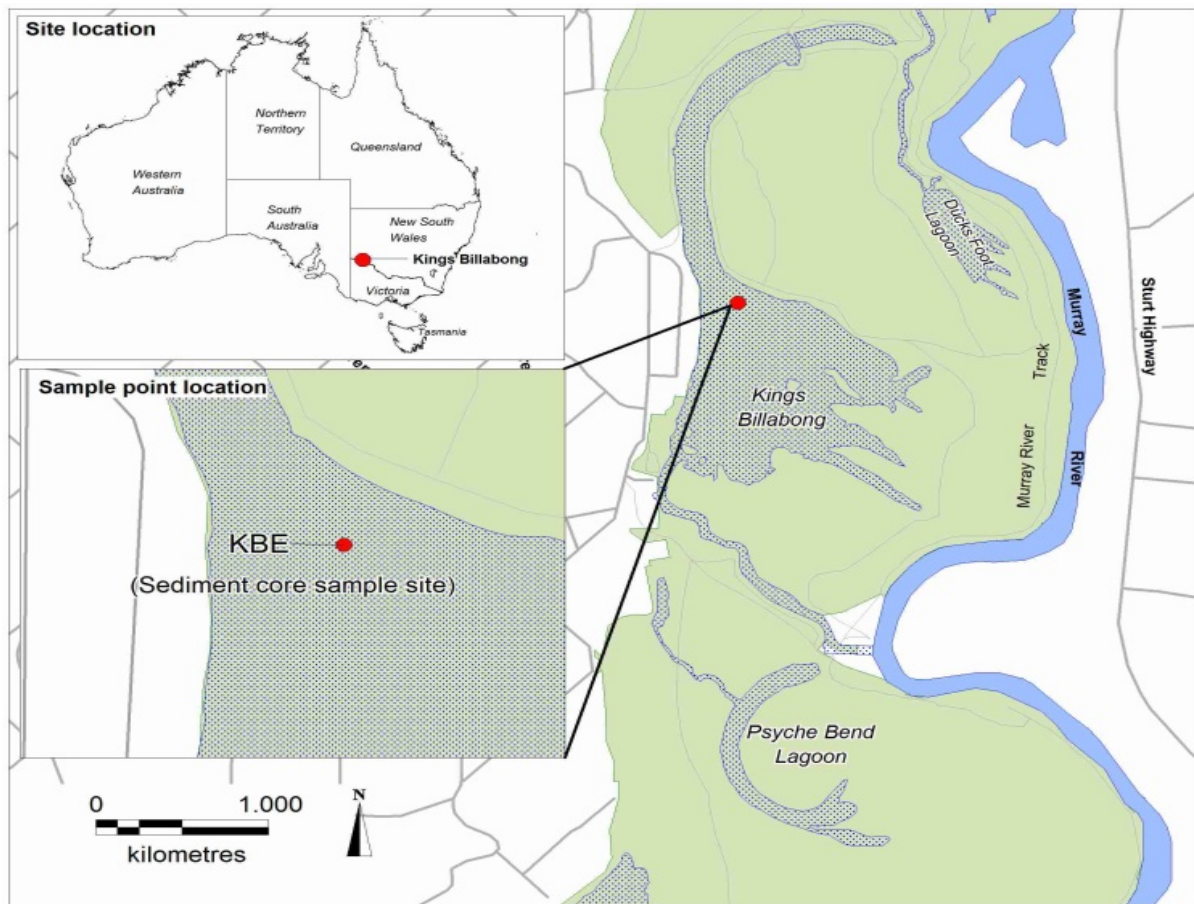
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1183 Figure 1. Kings Billabong, one of the wetland complexes of the River Murray system in  
1184 Southeast Australia. KBE was the deepest point of the lake, where a sediment core for this  
1185 study was taken.

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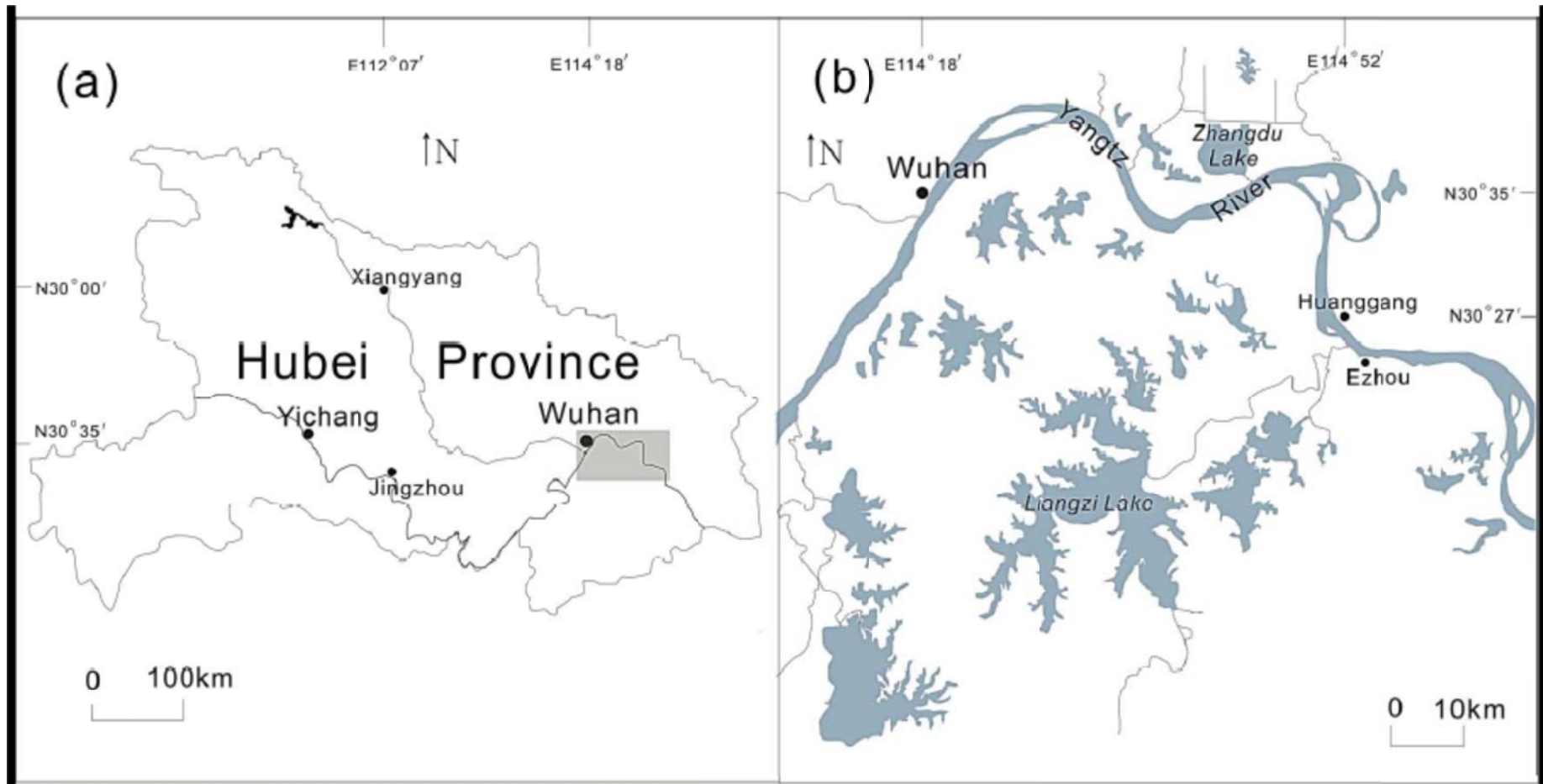


Figure 2. Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake around the middle reaches of the Yangtze River in Hubei Province of China.

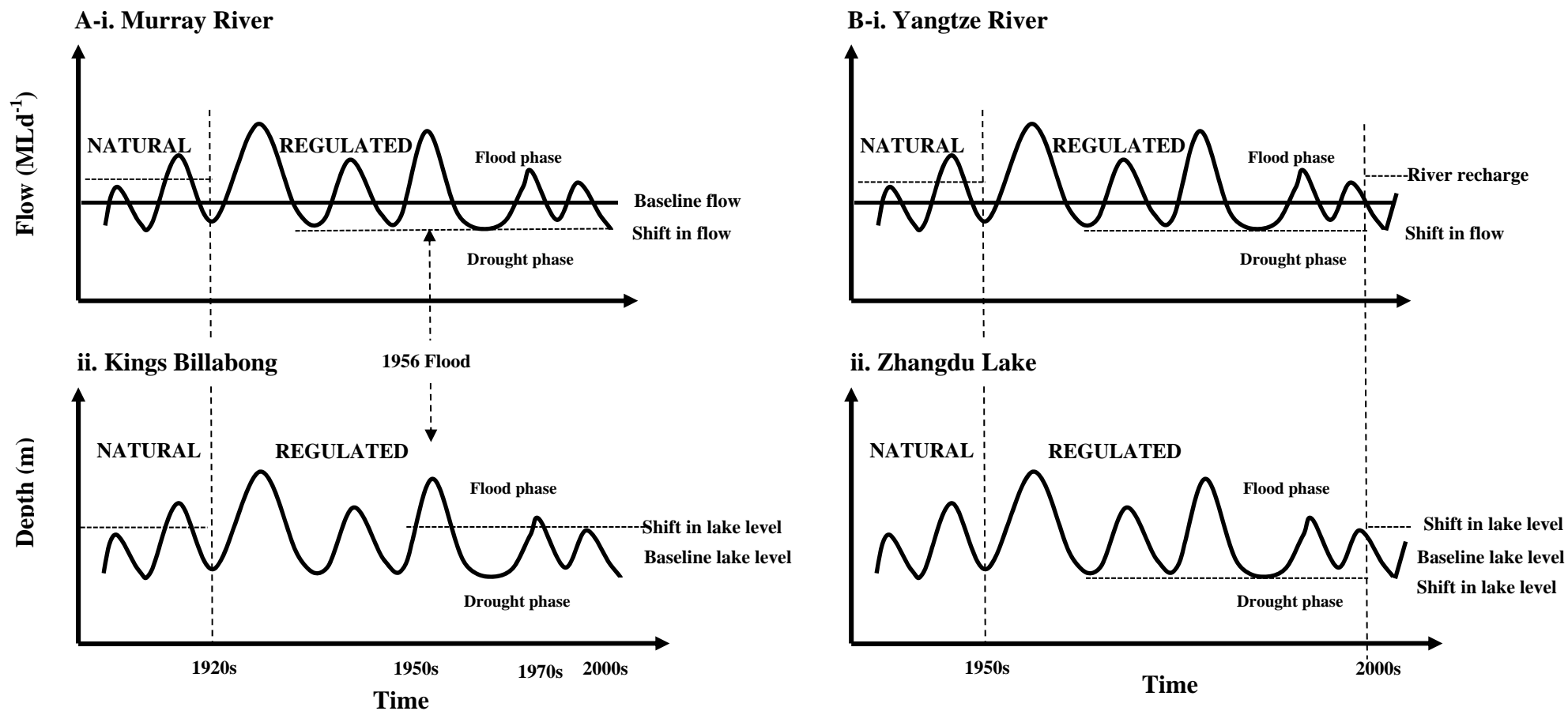


Figure 3. Hydrological contexts of the Murray and Yangtze rivers. A. i & ii. River Murray: regulation was imposed by humans in the 1920s AD, which resulted in low water volume in the down-stream river channels, but Kings Billabong's conversion to a water storage tank permanently led higher lake level, subsequently ceased natural dry-wet cycles; B. i & ii. Yangtze River: the first large scale human impact on the river was imposed during the c. 1950s, which ceased naturally occurring flood pulses in adjacent wetlands leading to a drying up of the river channel connecting to wetlands including low water volume in Zhangdu Lake.

# Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Kings Billabong

Reduced Water Quality Following the 1930s      Improved Water Quality Prior to the 1930s

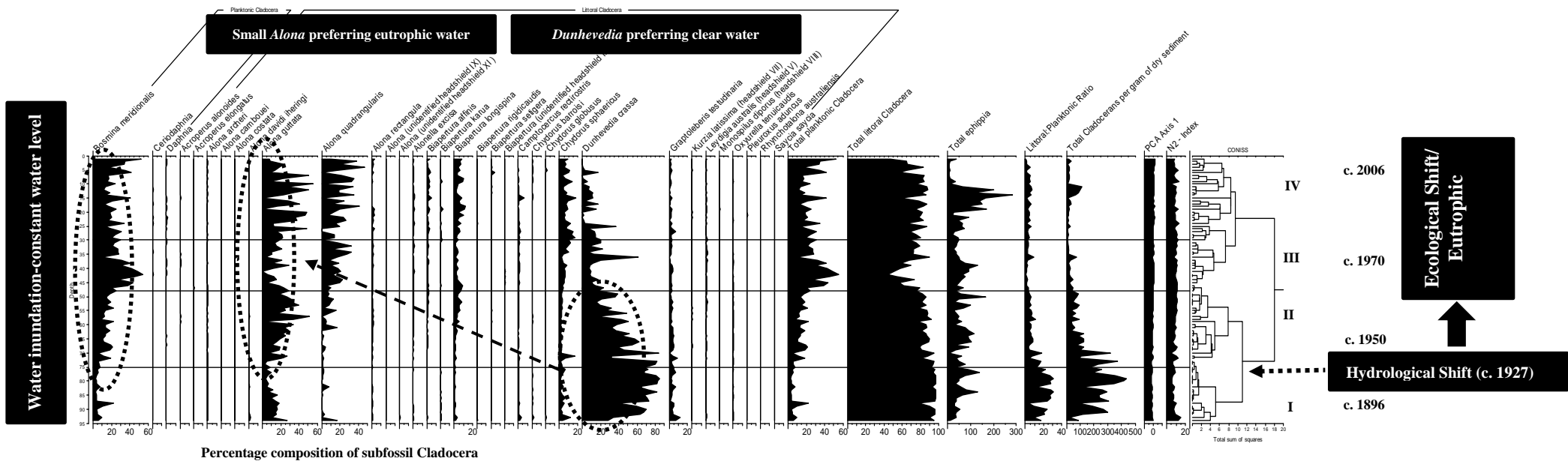


Figure 4. Percentage composition and N<sub>2</sub> diversity index of subfossil cladocedans in Kings Billabong, their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

# Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Zhangdu Lake

Reduced Water Quality Following the 1960s

Improved Water Quality Prior to the 1960s

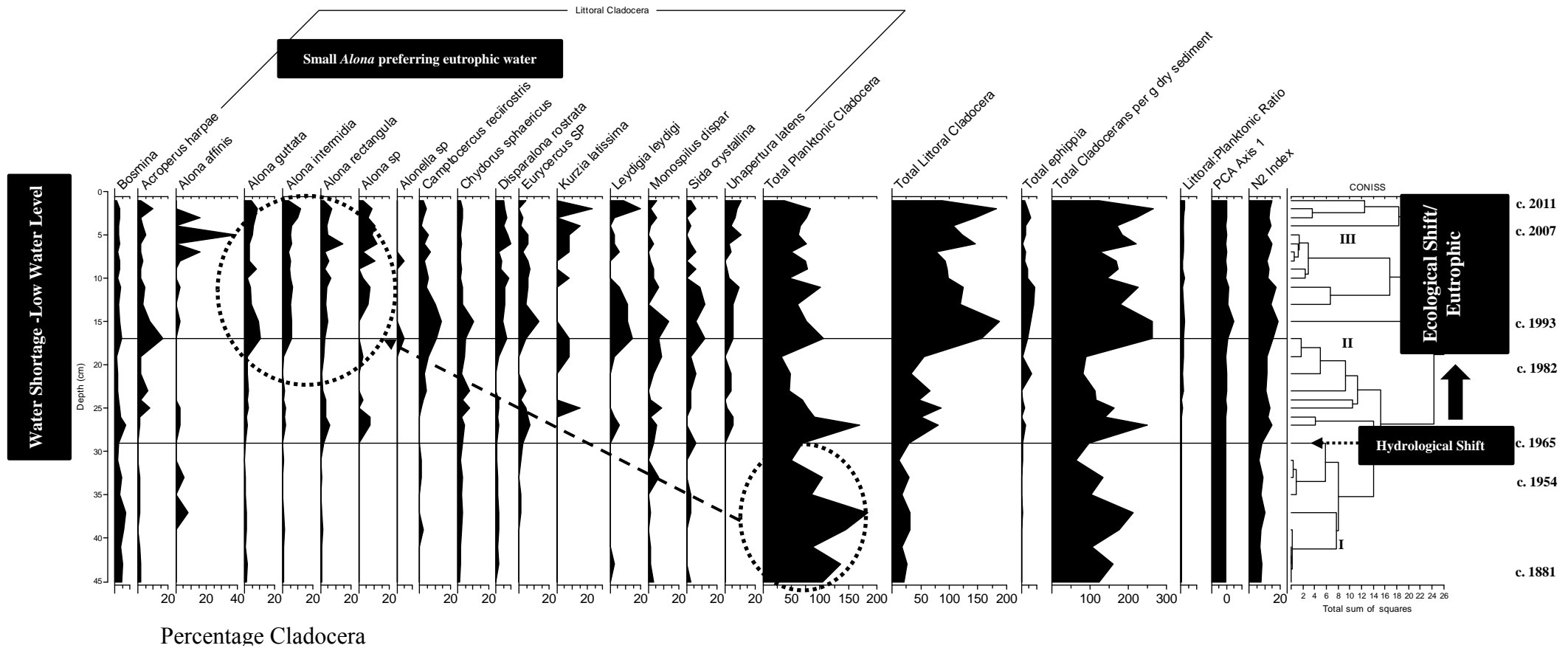


Figure 5. Composition (%) and N2 index of subfossil cladocedans in Zhangdu Lake, and their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

# Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Liangzi Lake

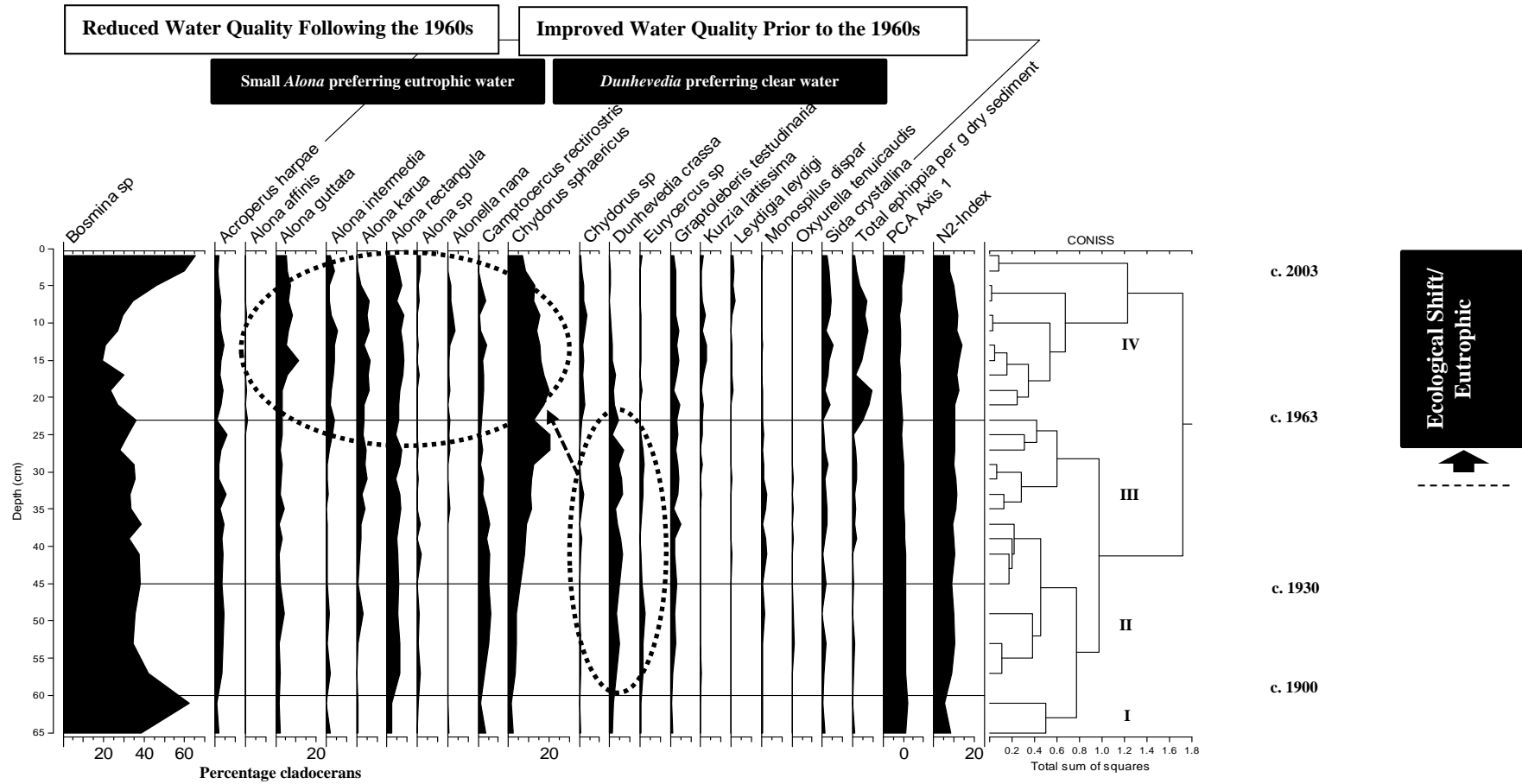


Figure 6. Composition (%) and N2 diversity index of subfossil cladocerans in Liangzi Lake, and their response to past water quality change.





