

1 **A century-scale human-induced hydro-ecological evolution of wetlands of two large**
2 **river basins in Australia (Murray) and China (Yangtze)**

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4 **G. R. Kattel^{1,2,3}, X. Dong^{1,4} and X. Yang¹**

5 [1] Nanjing Institute of Geography and Limnology Chinese Academy of Sciences, 73 East
6 Beijing Road, Nanjing 210008, China;

7 [2] Water Research Network, Faculty of Science and Technology, Federation University
8 Australia, Mt Helen, Ballarat, Vic 3350, Australia;

9 [3] Environmental Hydrology and Water Resources Group, School of Infrastructure
10 Engineering, the University of Melbourne, Parkville, Melbourne, Vic 3010, Australia;

11 [4] Aarhus Institute of Advanced Studies, Høegh-Guldbergs Gade 6B, Aarhus C, DK-8000
12 Denmark.

13 Correspondence: G.R. Kattel (grkattel@niglas.ac.cn)

14 **Abstract**

15

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

38 **1. Introduction**

39

40 There has been a worldwide growing awareness of the value of healthy flow regimes
41 (hydrology), as key ‘drivers’ of the ecology of large rivers and the floodplain wetlands which
42 attend them (Bedford, 1996; Puckridge et al., 1998; Richter et al., 2003). Natural flows
43 maintain ecological processes which include valuable biodiversity in the ecosystems of river
44 systems and their associated floodplain wetlands. The river channels connected to these
45 floodplain wetlands discharge water, mixed with rich sources of carbon, energy and nutrients
46 from the river and its catchments, to the wetlands (Bunn and Arthington, 2002; Maddock et
47 al., 2004). In addition, the allochthonous sources of organic matter deposited during flood
48 pulses support reproduction and growth of biota (Junk et al., 1989; McGowan et al., 2011).
49 Integration of local autochthonous production, including algae and inputs from the riparian
50 zone during pulse events, further supports available energy for higher trophic levels (Thorp
51 and Delong, 1994). As a result, large rivers and their associated floodplain wetlands are a
52 potential source of ecosystem goods and services to humans; for example, flood attenuation,
53 water purification, fisheries and other foods, plus a range of marketable goods (Poff et al.,
54 2003; Di Baldassarre et al., 2013).

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

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

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

76 Further, despite some adjustments to the change by the society (Di Baldassarre et al.,
77 2013), the threats posed by widespread hydrological alterations to large rivers are often
78 ignored or sidelined, with the demand for energy, irrigated food production, and industrial
79 use for the projected growth of human population being given a higher priority (Power et al.,
80 1996). It is important, therefore, that while water allocation plans are being formulated to
81 provide greater water security for immediate community use, it will be essential that
82 understanding of the considerable socioeconomic benefits provided by healthy floodplain
83 wetland ecosystems associated with these large rivers are not lost, and that degraded
84 ecosystems are restored for the benefit of future generations (Poff et al., 2003). Key socio-
85 economic benefits, such as water purification, flood abatement and carbon sequestration, all
86 of which are maintained by wetland biodiversity and ecosystem functioning, will thus not be

87 impaired if care is given to the wetlands of large river basins to ensure that they are not lost
88 or degraded (Zedler and Kercher, 2005).

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

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

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

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

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

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

156 The subfossil cladocerans have responded to past climate change, eutrophication, and
157 water pollution in many shallow lakes (Jeppesen et al., 2001). Some cladocerans are also
158 significant indicators of locally associated hydrological factors, including the river flow, lake
159 water depth, sediment properties, macrophyte cover, and biotic interactions (Nevalainen,
160 2011). Recently, Pawlowski et al. (2015) have documented cladoceran-inferred palaeo-
161 hydrology, including the formation of meandering channels, hydraulic characteristics and

162 water level change in the oxbow lake of the Grabia River (central Poland) during the late
163 Glacial and Holocene periods. Whereas the role of fossil cladocerans is becoming
164 increasingly significant for understanding the past hydrology of large river basins elsewhere,
165 understanding cladoceran response to long term hydrology and water level change of
166 wetlands (eco-hydrology) in the Murray and Yangtze rivers currently is limited. In this paper,
167 we aim to examine three sites: the Murray and Yangtze River floodplain wetlands, Kings
168 Billabong (Murray), and the Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes (Yangtze), each of which have been
169 exposed to large scale human-induced hydrological disturbances during the 20th century as
170 inferred by subfossil assemblage and diversity of cladocerans, and **to discuss associated**
171 **measures needed for water resource management.**

172

173 **2 Study areas**

174

175 **2.1 Kings Billabong (Murray River)**

176

177 Kings Billabong (34° 14' S & 142° 13' E) is a shallow (~1.8 m deep) wetland (210 ha),
178 located along the River Murray near Mildura (northwest Victoria), Australia (Fig. 1A), and
179 was once an important source of food and water for the *Nyeri Nyeri* Aboriginal Community.
180 The intensification of agriculture around Kings Billabong by early European settlers began in
181 1891 and continued until 1923. Initially in 1896, Kings Billabong was used as a pumping
182 station and was converted to water storage basin (Lloyd, 2012). Modification of the
183 landscapes around the billabong and construction of dams, including the series of locks and
184 weirs for upstream water storages, have significantly altered the natural flow regime of the
185 River Murray which feeds Kings Billabong (Gippel and Blackham, 2002). The hydrology
186 and, in particular, the variability of flows which include duration and water retention time in

187 the river, have substantially influenced the volume of water in Kings Billabong (Lloyd,
188 2012). Since formal regulation of the River Murray began in 1927, with construction of Lock
189 11 at Mildura and Lock 15 at Euston in 1937, downstream river flows and naturally occurring
190 flood pulses have altered in many wetlands, including Kings Billabong (Gippel and
191 Blackham, 2002). The artificial flooding linking Kings Billabong to the weir pool of Lock 11
192 has led to this wetland becoming permanently inundated.

193 The first sign of ecological impact due to river regulation on Kings Billabong was
194 observed as a widespread dieback of River Red Gum (RRG) forests and the establishment of
195 fringing Cumbungi (*Typha* sp.) vegetation (Parks Victoria, 2008). Logging of RRG forests
196 was intensified in the region until the 1950s, with the timber used to fuel steam-operated
197 pumps and paddleboats along the river (Parks Victoria, 2008). The life cycle of native
198 aquatic biota in the wetlands around the lower Murray has thus become disrupted due to the
199 variation in natural wet-dry events caused by river regulation (Ellis and Meredith, 2005).
200 Increased distribution range of exotic fish and weeds were also observed following
201 regulation. For example, in a survey of native and exotic fish in Kings Billabong, *Gambusia*
202 (an exotic species), comprised 35% of the total species collected (Ellis and Meredith, 2005).

203 Apart from human activity, climate change has also impacted the condition of Kings
204 Billabong. Average water temperatures in the Southeast Australia have risen over the past 60
205 years and there has been a decrease of 40% in the total rainfall in the region (Cai and Cowan,
206 2008). This regional variability in climate change has led to significant changes in river flow,
207 wetland volume, thermal structure and alteration of catchment inputs, all of which are
208 influenced by a marked increase in frequency and intensity of extreme events such as
209 droughts and floods (Lake et al., 2000).

210

211 **2.2 Zhangdu Lake (Yangtze River)**

212

213 Zhangdu Lake (30° 39' N & 114° 42' E) is a floodplain wetland (1.2 m deep) of the Yangtze
214 River system, which is located in Hubei Province, central China (Fig. 1B). During high river
215 flows, Zhangdu Lake previously received flood pulses from the Yangtze River, however the
216 lake was disconnected from the Yangtze River in the 1950s, due to the construction of dams
217 and widespread land reclamation across the catchment. By the 1980s, the shoreline of
218 Zhangdu Lake had been significantly modified as a result of the increased reclamation
219 activity and construction of water conservancy infrastructure, which commenced in the
220 1970s. In 2005, after the reclamation of 50 square km of shoreline, funding from the World
221 Wildlife Fund enabled Zhangdu Lake to be seasonally reconnected with Yangtze River for
222 the purpose of habitat restoration. This lake now has an area of 35.2 km², with an average
223 depth of 1.2 m and a maximum depth of 2.3 m. The watershed lies within the northern
224 subtropical monsoon zone, with a mean annual temperature of 16.3°C, a mean annual rainfall
225 of 1150 mm and evaporation of 1525.4 mm. The terrain slopes gently with an elevation of 16
226 to 21 m. The main inflows of Zhangdu Lake are from the Daoshui River in the west and the
227 Jushui River in the east. Water drains from the lake into the Yangtze River via an artificial
228 channel in the south-eastern corner. Historically, Zhangdu Lake has interacted not only with
229 the Yangtze River when the water level is high, but it has also connected with surrounding
230 lakes, Qi Lake and Tao Lake, during flood events (Zhang et al., 2013). However, due to the
231 construction of dams, dykes and land reclamation, it became disconnected from the river in
232 the 1950s. Water conservancy and reclamation construction reached a peak in the 1970s,
233 attaining its current finished and formed shape during the 1980s. Following the mid-20th
234 century reclamation phase, the rate of carbon accumulation in Zhangdu Lake has increased,
235 possibly due to an increase in shallow marginal areas favouring the growth of carbon rich
236 macrophytes (Dong et al., 2012). However, the ecological impacts of disconnection from the

237 river in Zhangdu Lake have become severe. Wild fishery production has reduced from 95%
238 in 1949 to less than 5% in 2002, and fish diversity has decreased, from 80 species in 1950s to
239 52 species at present (Wang et al., 2005). To address this decline, funding from the World
240 Wildlife Fund (WWF) in 2005 reconnected Zhangdu Lake with the Yangtze River.

241

242 **2.3 Liangzi Lake (Yangtze River)**

243

244 Liangzi Lake (30°3' N, 114°26' E) is a shallow wetland (3-5 m deep), located in southeast
245 region of Hubei province on the southern bank of the middle reaches of the Yangtze River.
246 The lake area is 304.3 km² with a drainage area of 3,265 km². The lake has an elevation of 20
247 m and is 31.7 km in length with a mean width of 9.6 km (Fig. 1B). The lake connects to
248 Yangtze River via a 43.3 km river canal (Xie et al., 2001). Since 1992, the western part of the
249 lake, approximately 6000 ha in area with mean depth of 4.2 m, has been separated from the
250 main lake by a 2000 m nylon screen (mesh size 20 mm) for the purpose of aquaculture. Water
251 exchange occurs easily between the two parts of the lake. Intensive stocking with commercial
252 fish, including grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Val.), bighead carp *Aristichthys nobilis*
253 (Richardson) and silver carp *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix* (Cuvier and Valenciennes), is
254 common in the western part of the Liangzi Lake (Xie et al., 2001). Because of grass carp
255 stocking, macrophytes were completely eliminated from the western part of the lake.
256 However, areas of less intensive aquaculture still maintain an abundant density of submersed
257 macrophytes, with *Potamogeton maackianus* (A. Bennet) as the dominant species (Xie et al.,
258 2001). Apart from fisheries, Liangzi Lake provides significant services for drinking water,
259 irrigation, transportation and recreation to the people living around the four large cities,
260 Wuhan, Huangshi, Ezhou and Xianning Liangzi. Recently, one of the largest foreign

261 investment projects to date in central and southern China, the Hubei Liangzi Lake
262 International Golf Club, has opened a training centre at the edge of the lake.

263

264 **2.4 Hydrological contexts of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

265

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

272 Naturally occurring spring flood patterns in the River Murray, experienced prior to the
273 construction of Lock 11 in 1927, have been altered by regulation, and as a result, the amount
274 of water released to meet peak irrigation demands has changed (Lloyd, 2012). Increased
275 demand for water has resulted in the flow of the Lower Murray River falling below the
276 historical baseline (Fig. 2 A-i). Regulation for wetland permanency has led to the depth of
277 Kings Billabong being above the historical baseline level (Fig. 2 A-ii).

278 In Zhangdu Lake, water levels were maintained through inflows from two rivers, the
279 Daoshui River from the west and the Jushui River from the east, and outflow to the Yangtze
280 River via by an artificial channel from the southeast corner of the lake. The water level was
281 maintained by permanent connectivity between the Zhangdu Lake and the Yangtze River
282 channels prior to the 1950s, but became disrupted by regulation (Fig. 2 B-i). The decline in
283 annual discharge of the Yangtze River (-11%) after the 1950s (Yang et al., 2011a,b), has led
284 to a reduction of the historical baseline flow of the river, subsequently reducing the baseline
285 water level in Zhangdu Lake (Fig. 2 B-ii). The South-to-North Water Diversion Projects, in

286 addition to wetland reclamation and construction of new dams, particularly after the 1970s-
287 80s, has further altered the hydrology of Zhangdu Lake (Qin et al, 2009; Yang et al., 2010).
288 However, the project initiated in 2005 by the World Wildlife Fund for Nature has recharged
289 the channel hydrology and increased the water level of Zhangdu Lake (Fig. 2 B ii).

290

291 **3 Methods**

292

293 **3.1 Eco-hydrological assessment of Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

294

295 Questions related to evolution of eco-hydrology of the wetlands of large river basins of
296 Australia and China are rarely addressed. The observed monitoring data available for ecology
297 and hydrology are often short and sketchy, and may not be reliable guides in reconstructing
298 the contiguous century-scale variability. However, the biological communities such as
299 phytoplankton and zooplankton respond very well to flow regimes, habitat and channel
300 modifications, and nutritional inputs during the flood events (Van den et al., 1994). The
301 subfossil records of biota such as cladoceran zooplankton, and chemicals such as stable
302 isotopes of carbon and nitrogen archived in wetland sediment, have the potential to indicate
303 past ecological and hydrological changes of the floodplain environments. For example, the
304 growth of small size littoral cladocerans (*Alona* sp.) can flourish at low flood frequency
305 environments, which, together with the increased growth of telematic plants, can provide
306 crucial information regarding the past hydrological and ecological conditions of the riverine
307 wetlands (Pawlowski et al., 2015).

308 In order to understand the changes in past hydrological conditions of wetlands
309 associated with large rivers, the diversity and ecological conditions of the three floodplain
310 wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake, were assessed using subfossil

311 cladoceran zooplankton remains retrieved from lake sediments deposited over the past
312 century. A high resolution subsampling of a 94 cm long core, collected from Kings
313 Billabong, was carried out at 1 cm intervals.

314 In the case of Zhangdu Lake, a subsampling of a 45 cm long core was carried out at 1
315 cm intervals for up to 27 cm, and at 2 cm intervals for up to 45 cm respectively. For Liangzi
316 Lake, the subsampling of a 65 cm core was carried out at 2 cm intervals. Subsamples from all
317 three lakes, weighing approximately 3-4 g each as wet sediment, were treated with 100 mL of
318 10% KOH solution, and heated at 60°C on a hotplate for at least 45 minutes. Sieving of the
319 sub-sample mixture was carried out through a 38 µm mesh. More than 200 identifiable
320 cladoceran remains were enumerated at 400x magnification from each subsample. Numbers
321 were converted to individuals per g dry weight (gdW⁻¹) of sediment, followed by the
322 calculation of relative proportion of the remains present in the sample (Kattel et al., 2008).
323 Cladoceran taxa were identified following the procedures suggested by Frey (1986), Shiel
324 and Dickson (1995), Zhu et al. (2005) and Szeroczyńska and Sarmaja-Korjonen (2007).

325

326 **3.2 Dating**

327

328 The age chronology was based on the standard ²¹⁰Pb dating for all sites (Appleby, 2001). For
329 Kings Billabong, radionuclide activity was detected at 51 cm, while the radionuclide
330 activities for Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes were detected at 45 cm and 65 cm respectively. The
331 age modelling of Kings Billabong can be found in detail in Kattel et al. (2015).

332 The sediment samples from Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes were dated using ²¹⁰Pb and
333 ¹³⁷Cs levels by non-destructive gamma spectrometry laboratory at the State Key Laboratory
334 of Lake Science and Environment, NIGLAS. The activities of ²¹⁰Pb, ²²⁶Ra and ¹³⁷Cs in
335 samples were determined by counting with an Ortec HPGe GWL series well-type coaxial low

336 background intrinsic germanium detector. The ^{137}Cs was used to identify the peak that
337 indicated use of the 1963 nuclear bomb. This evidence was then used for developing a
338 constant rate of supply (CRS) model to calculate ^{210}Pb chronology for the core. The
339 important dates relevant to hydrological changes were indicated in the stratigraphy.

340

341 **3.3 Numerical analyses**

342

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

346 For subfossil cladoceran assemblage samples, dendrograms were produced in the
347 TILIA Graph following the constrained incremental sums of squares (CONISS) analysis.
348 Zonation of samples in the diagram was based on the chord-distance dissimilarity coefficients
349 obtained in CONISS (Grimm, 1987). Indirect ordination techniques, such as detrended
350 correspondence analysis (DCA) were used for identifying species alignments with samples
351 over time (Hill and Gauch, 1980). DCA was run for sub-fossil cladoceran samples meeting
352 200 counts in each sample followed by running correspondence analysis (CA) or principal
353 components analysis (PCA) as per the gradient length of the first DCA axis (ter Braak, 1995).
354 The CA and PCA sample scores were incorporated in the stratigraphy diagrams.

355

356 **4 Results**

357

358 The species richness (species count) and assemblages of subfossil cladocerans were assessed
359 in wetlands of both river basins as these biological components are potential indicators for the

360 past environmental conditions including the changes in ecology and hydrology of floodplain
361 wetlands of Murray and Yangtze River basins.

362

363 **4.1 Kings Billabong**

364

365 More than 40 species of subfossil cladocerans were recorded within Kings Billabong. The
366 most commonly recorded cladoceran taxa were *Bosmina meridionalis*, *Chydorus sphaericus*,
367 *Biapertura setigera*, *Dunhevedia crassa*, *Biapertura affinis* and *Alona guttata* (Fig. 3). The
368 diversity of these cladocerans in Kings Billabong, as revealed by the N2 diversity index, was
369 responsive to past hydrology and water level changes. The N2 index was low during the
370 1900s, however, prior to human disturbance of the river during the 1870s, as well as in the
371 1960s, the N2 diversity index was relatively high (Figure 4).

372 The zonation of the assemblage structure of the sub-fossil cladocerans as well as the
373 trend in littoral to planktonic ratios (L:P ratios) were potentially significant to infer the period
374 of the eco-hydrologic change including quantity and quality of water in Kings Billabong (Fig.
375 3). The subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Kings Billabong showed four distinct changes
376 in ecosystem. Until the 1890s, (Zone I) littoral cladocerans such as *Dunhevedia crassa*, *Alona*
377 *guttata*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria* were the dominant species
378 flourished mostly in good water quality condition (Fig. 3). This period experienced a
379 relatively low abundance of the planktonic species *Bosmina meridionalis* (Fig. 3). However,
380 total littoral cladocerans gradually declined, while small littoral species, such as *Alona*
381 *guttata*, became abundant during the period 1890 to 1950 (Zone II). During this time, the
382 water quality began to decline, corresponding to an increasing density of planktonic *B.*
383 *meridionalis* contributing to the total planktonic cladocerans. Some *Daphnia* records (1950s-
384 1970s) were also retrieved, and coincided with a hydrological disruption, in the form of the

385 1956 flood, in the River Murray (Zone III) (Fig. 3). Although total littoral cladocerans
386 declined, some littoral species such as *Alona guttata* and *A. quadrangularis* were still
387 abundant during this time. However, in the 1970s-2000s, conditions of wetland declined
388 corresponding to increased planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata*, *Biapertura*
389 *longispina*, *A. quadrangularis* and *Chydorus sphaericus*, while the littoral *D. crassa* declined
390 significantly. In the meantime, the frequency and density of cladoceran resting eggs also
391 increased in the sediment (Fig. 3).

392 In Kings Billabong, a major hydrological shift occurred in 1927 leading to significant
393 hydrologic-dynamics of wetland including the volume of water (Fig. 3). The L:P ratios of
394 cladocerans indicated a major hydrological change of the wetland when they began to decline
395 rapidly from about 75 cm depth (c.1930s) (Fig. 3). The subfossil assemblages of littoral and
396 planktonic cladocerans over a longer time scale responded to these hydrological changes of
397 the Murray River, together with subsequent changes of water level of Kings Billabong. The
398 construction of Lock 11 in the Murray River near Mildura led to permanent inundation of
399 Kings Billabong during the 1920s-1930s, the time of major hydrological shift (Fig. 3).
400 Because of the expansion of the pelagic habitat as a result of increased amount of water in
401 Kings Billabong, the assemblage of subfossil *Bosmina* was retrieved high in the sediment
402 (Fig. 3). Although the billabong was inundated and hydrologically stable with constant water
403 depth, there was sustained increase in the abundance of some littoral cladocerans including
404 *Alona guttata*, *Alona quadrangularis* and *Biapertura longispina*. Following this hydrological
405 shift, Kings Billabong began to respond to the change with declining water quality. For
406 example, littoral cladocerans such as *A. guttata* and *A. quadrangularis*, which prefer poor
407 water conditions, were sustained together with *B. meridionalis*. However, the assemblage of
408 the dominant littoral cladoceran, *Dunhevedia crassa*, which prefers clean water conditions,
409 significantly declined following the hydrological shift, from pre-regulated, variable water

410 levels to post-regulated environment in Kings Billabong as a result of the sudden imposition
411 of river regulation in 1927 (Fig. 3).

412

413 **4.2 Zhangdu Lake**

414

415 From the Zhangdu Lake, more than 36 cladoceran species were recorded, with *Bosmina*,
416 *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina* being the most commonly recorded taxa (Fig. 4).
417 Other cladoceran species such as small *Alona* sp. (*A. guttata* and *A. rectangula*), also became
418 increasingly responsive to past hydrological disturbances. These hydrological disturbances
419 were also inferred by the N2 diversity index of cladocerans with representation of the species
420 indicating increased disturbances. Whilst prior to the construction of the dam (c. 1881-1954)
421 the N2 index was low compared to the post-dam construction period, during the post
422 disturbance period, the levels of taxa preferring a disturbed environment increased (Fig. 4).

423 Three distinct hydrologic and ecosystem changes were observed in Zhangdu Lake,
424 based on the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans from lake sediment. Planktonic cladocerans
425 dominated the period c. 1880s-1960s (Zone I), when the planktonic *Bosmina* sp. was the most
426 dominant species. During this time, the abundance of total littoral cladocerans declined, when
427 only a few species, including those that characteristically occupy both littoral and planktonic
428 habitats, such as *Chydorus sphaericus*, were present (Fig. 4). However, a major hydrological
429 shift occurred during the c. 1960s-1980s (Zone II) following the construction of dams across
430 the Yangtze River channels (c. 1950s). Sediments deposited in the dam contained increasing
431 numbers of remains of the littoral cladocerans, where by some of the common species of
432 cladocerans such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus*
433 *sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* were gradually becoming
434 dominant (Fig. 4). The abundance of littoral cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *Alona*

435 *intermedia*, *Alona affinis*, *Kurzia lattissima*, *Leydigia leydigi*, *A. guttata*, *Camptocercus*
436 *rectirostris* and *Disparalona rostrata* increased further during the c. 1990s-2000s (Zone III)
437 indicating a significant change in both the ecologic and hydrologic systems. In addition, the
438 concentration of the cladoceran resting eggs increased during this time (Fig. 4).

439 In the Zhangdu Lake, increased diversion of the water from the Yangtze River, during
440 the 1960s-70s because of the construction of dams, led to significant decline in the quantity
441 of water and also the lake level. This resulted in a decrease of water depth around the lake
442 margins, consequently providing suitable conditions for the increased growth of littoral
443 vegetation and associated habitat for cladocerans. In response, the abundance of littoral
444 cladocerans, including *Alona affinis*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*, *Camptocercus*
445 *rectirostris*, *Kurzia latissima* and *Leydigia leydigi*, increased with high L:P ratios (Fig. 4).
446 Smaller *Alona* such as *A. guttata*, *A. rectangula* and *A. intermedia* showed a distinct presence
447 during this time (Fig. 4).

448

449 **4.3 Liangzi Lake**

450

451 More than 20 cladoceran species were recorded from the Liangzi Lake. *Bosmina* sp.,
452 *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula* and *Chydorus sphaericus* were the most
453 common taxa (Figs. 6). The N2 diversity index of Liangzi Lake, prior to c. 1900-1930 (the
454 period of major hydrological disturbance), was lower than the period after the post dam
455 construction period in the Yangtze River (Fig. 5).

456 This hydrological condition in Yangtze River led to four distinct ecosystem changes in
457 Liangzi Lake, as inferred by the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans retrieved from lake
458 sediments. Prior to 1900 (Zone I), the total abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* was high. In
459 the c. 1900s-1920s (Zone II), the relative abundance of *Bosmina* began to decline, while the

460 abundance of littoral species increased. The dominant species during this time were
461 *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona rectangulara*, *Camptocercus rectirostris* and *Dunhevedia crassa* (Fig.
462 5). During the c. 1930s-1950s (Zone III), the relative abundance of *Bosmina* was relatively
463 constant, but the abundance of littoral species continued to increase. Four dominant species
464 were found in this community; *Alona rectangulara*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa*
465 and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*. During the c. 1960s-2000s, the period of major hydrological
466 disturbances due to dam construction in the Yangtze, the total abundance of *Bosmina*
467 increased, particularly in the early 2000s, and four species of littoral species, *Alona guttata*,
468 *Alona intermedia*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina* also became dominant
469 throughout this period (Fig. 5).

470

471 **5 Discussion**

472

473 **5.1 Shifts in hydrology and its implications for ecosystem functioning of wetlands within** 474 **the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

475

476 Over the past century, impacts on the Murray and Yangtze Rivers included the construction
477 of irrigation dams, hydroelectric power plants, regulation works for navigation, land
478 reclamation projects, and large-scale flood control measures (Maheshwari et al., 1995; Sun et
479 al., 2012). As a result, vast areas of floodplain wetlands of both river systems have been
480 drained and disconnected from the river. In some areas, this reduced hydrological
481 connectivity has resulted in a flushing of organic matter and nutrients from the floodplains
482 only during extreme floods, when the river retention capacity is the lowest. Therefore,
483 organic matter from the floodplain system is not accessible to wetland organisms. With the
484 loss of dynamically connected floodplains, the biogeochemical budget of the Murray and

485 Yangtze River wetlands has changed significantly. Previous evidence strongly suggests that
486 the climatic cycles of drought and flood have become extreme, triggering unusual responses
487 of floodplain wetlands to the disturbance regime of these rivers (Zhang et al., 2012).

488 Wetlands losing hydrological connections with the river result in divergence of aquatic
489 micro- and macro-invertebrate assemblages (Qin et al., 2009). The disruptions in the natural
490 variability and connectivity of hydrological regimes, due to river-flow regulation, have
491 consequently reduced ecological integrity, resulting in reduced invertebrate diversity
492 (Sheldon et al., 2002). The downstream impacts of low flows in the River Murray were
493 visible mainly following the construction of Hume Dam in 1936, but at present, average
494 monthly and annual flows are still considerably lower than those of natural conditions in the
495 past (Maheshwari et al., 1995). The study of natural flow regimes in the Murray River
496 suggests that the strength of average annual floods (with an annual exceedance probability of
497 50%) has reduced by over 50% at all stations. The effects of large floods with an average
498 recurrence interval of 20 years or more, are, however, relatively low (Maheshwari et al.,
499 1995). The number of low flows defined by a given annual non-exceedance probability, are
500 higher under regulated conditions than under natural conditions (Maheshwari et al., 1995).
501 The implications of these changes are not only for communities of native plants and animals
502 in both riverine and floodplain environments, but also for the long-term use of the riverine
503 resources by humans (Maheshwari et al., 1995). Although the humans have consistently
504 advanced the technology by compromising the low-flows environments for economic
505 growth (Sivapalan, 2012), the exchange of particulate and dissolved organic matter, including
506 suspended sediments, nutrients, and algal biomasses by rivers and their associated wetlands
507 have substantially declined (Tockner et al., 1999). These nutrients are fundamental for the
508 support of ecosystem structure and function in riverine food webs (Bunn and Arthington,
509 2002). The current flow regimes also determine which physical habitats are available for all

510 aquatic species that have evolved life history strategies primarily in direct response to natural
511 flow regimes (Bedford, 1996).

512 Permanent inundation of wetlands occurred in many areas across the Lower Murray
513 River in response to the 1914 Commonwealth Act. This legislation enforced a requirement to
514 manage the Murray River's water by the construction of locks, weirs, and water storage
515 areas. Construction of the Mildura Weir (Lock 11), which began in August 1923, resulted in
516 an increased water level in Kings Billabong by the time construction was completed in 1927.
517 These long periods of water storage in Kings Billabong are thought to have increased
518 stagnation, nutrient levels, and primary productivity, subsequently impacting the higher
519 trophic levels around the billabong (Kattel et al., 2015). Some have argued that the high
520 nutrient input in the river system, combined with relatively long water residence times in
521 water storages, supports phytoplankton growth and a tendency towards eutrophication and
522 poor water quality (e.g. Tockner et al., 1999; Chaparro et al., 2015).

523 In the Yangtze River, construction of many dams and water impoundments has
524 significantly altered downstream hydrological regimes, which have directly affected the
525 relationship between the Yangtze River and its river channels and floodplain wetlands,
526 including the Zhangdu Lake (e.g. Yang et al., 2011a, b). The construction of dams throughout
527 this catchment has caused changes in channel morphology and sedimentology, with a
528 concomitant drastic decline in sediment transportation and severe channel erosion in
529 connections to lakes. From the monitoring of stream cross-sections, changes to river channels
530 are evident, including the reduction of water level within wetlands (Yang et al., 2011a, b).
531 These have inevitably induced alterations in inundation patterns of the wetlands, resulting in
532 changes to ecosystem structure and function, which in turn have disturbed the habitats of
533 biota (Maheshwari et al., 1995; Sun et al., 2012). As a consequence of a rapid expansion of
534 human activity in the watershed during the 1960s, significant changes at the base of the food

535 web in Zhangdu Lake have been observed in the subfossil composition of testate amoeba
536 communities. For instance, the characteristic oligotrophic, lake-dwelling species (e.g.
537 *Diffugia biwae*) have been replaced by eutrophic species (e.g. *Diffugia oblonga*) (Qin et al.,
538 2009).

539

540 **5.2 Cladoceran-inferred responses to hydrological shifts in Murray and Yangtze River** 541 **wetlands**

542

543 Cladoceran assemblages of three floodplain wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake,
544 and Liangzi Lake all have shown strong responses to human-mediated hydrological
545 alterations in the Murray and Yangtze Rivers over the past century. Although the N2
546 diversity index did not show a strong response to disturbance, the impact of river regulation
547 and permanent inundation of Kings Billabong in the 1920s nonetheless revealed a decline in
548 the density of littoral species.

549 As indicated earlier, Hill's N2 diversity index assumes that the number of species in an
550 ecosystem is uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973). Following this advice, we assumed that the
551 distribution of cladoceran species along the temporal scale of Murray and Yangtze River
552 wetlands should also have been uniform. However, the N2 diversity index of cladocerans in
553 Kings Billabong and Yangtze River wetlands was found to be non-uniform across our
554 measurement period, and, in addition, they showed different trends in diversity. Following
555 similar regulation and construction of dams in the two sites, the N2 diversity index decreased
556 in Kings Billabong, whereas the N2 index in Yangtze River wetlands increased. These
557 differences in responses of cladoceran diversity to regulation as shown by the N2 diversity
558 index suggest some degree of variations in disturbances between the two river systems.
559 Unlike the occurrence of more severe and frequent disturbances in Kings Billabong following

560 the arrival of early European immigrants, the gradual or intermediate type of disturbances in
561 Yangtze River wetlands could have resulted in the increased species diversity of cladocerans
562 following regulation. With the historical perspective, the disturbances in Kings Billabong
563 occurred within a very short time scale (e.g. years), while the disturbance in Yangtze River
564 wetlands occurred over a longer time scale (e.g. decades), and could be characterised as an
565 intermediate frequencies of disturbance (Collins and Glenn, 1997). Indeed, records indicate
566 that the early European immigrants in Australia transformed the landscapes quickly, which
567 had severe impacts on Kings Billabong cladocerans. However, unlike Kings Billabong, the
568 Yangtze River wetlands did not experience such a severe disturbance, and as the intermediate
569 disturbance hypothesis model suggests, the diversity index increased following the
570 disturbance (Townsend and Scarsbrook, 1997) indicating the intermediate frequencies of
571 disturbance in cladoceran diversity of the Zhangdu and Liangzi lakes.

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

578 The species such as *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*, are adapted to
579 submerged vegetation and their decline in abundance indicates a reduction of suitable habitat,
580 such as decreased water quality. The increase in the abundance of lentic species, such as
581 *Bosmina meridionalis*, demonstrates a switch from the prior ephemeral state to one of more
582 or less constant inundation. Although drought had little or no impact on the water nutrient
583 levels in Kings Billabong following regulation, by contrast, large-scale flood events such as
584 in 1956, may have significantly increased nutrient input in the water column. The apparent

585 result was to increase the population of *Bosmina*, as well as littoral species (e.g. *A. guttata*)
586 that prefer enriched nutrient environments (Hofmann, 1996). Turbidity from suspended
587 sediment during flood events also limits growth of submerged vegetation, due to a reduction
588 of light penetration. By the early 2000s, planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata* and
589 *Biapertura longispina* were the dominant species. The high density of cladoceran ephippia
590 retrieved from the wetland sediment also indicates 'stress' among the cladoceran community
591 during the prevailing conditions of post- regulation period in the Murray River system
592 (Nevalainen et al., 2011). The low abundance of *D. crassa* following river regulation reflects
593 the impact of river regulation on the aquatic ecosystem, with degraded water quality and
594 reduced resilience in the wetland community. In shallow lakes, a consequence of human-
595 induced actions is the tendency towards a regime shift, followed by poor ecological resilience
596 (Folke et al. 2004). The loss of functional group species and consequent reduced species
597 diversity may lead to a loss of whole trophic levels or 'top-down effects' (Folke et al., 2004).

598 The Zhangdu Lake aquatic community responded to downstream water shortages in the
599 river channel connecting to the lake, as revealed by low lake levels following the construction
600 of dams and reservoirs for water conservation in the 1950s-1970s. Subsequent to river
601 regulation during the 1950s, hydrological alterations of the river channel and changes to the
602 water level of Zhangdu Lake, increased the growth of littoral plants. This also resulted in
603 increased abundance of littoral cladoceran species, such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*,
604 *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* (Fig.
605 4). Although the abundance of littoral species in the lake indicated increased growth of
606 submerged vegetation, the condition of the wetland ecosystem following regulation was poor.
607 The clear water regime, present prior to regulation, gradually transformed to a eutrophic state
608 following the construction of dams. Many small cladocerans recorded in Zhangdu Lake
609 following the work of the 1950s, are typically associated with still (lotic) water, eutrophic and

610 poor water quality conditions, and have been found in similar disturbed habitats elsewhere.
611 For example, in Europe, cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *C. sphaericus* and *S.*
612 *crystallina* have a characteristic affiliation with lotic environments (Nevalainen, 2011). In
613 addition, in Tibet, *Chydorus sphaericus* has been found to be adapted to wide range of
614 environmental gradients, while *Alona affinis* and *Acroperus harpae* colonize dense aquatic
615 macrophytes, and *Graptolebris testudinaria* and *Eurycercus lamellatus* are adapted to
616 shallow littoral environments, with a preference for debris-rich substrates (Liping et al.,
617 2005).

618 Eutrophication in Zhangdu Lake, due to hydrological changes of the wetland, was also
619 indicated by the presence of testate amoeba (Qin et al., 2009). Our results strongly suggest
620 that hydrological alterations of rivers and wetlands can result in eutrophication and lead to an
621 increased abundance of smaller size littoral cladocerans. The low level of floods could reduce
622 water level, increase telematic plant growth, and decrease the redox condition of the wetland
623 resulting in the variation in growth, metabolism and reproduction of such cladocerans
624 (Pawlowski et al., 2015). The shallow littoral environment provides habitats for different fish
625 species, and may increase the predator-prey interactions (Pawlowski et al., 2015). Following
626 regulation, the large number of cladocearn ephippia recorded in the sediment in Zhangdu
627 Lake (which is found in the lower Yangtze), also indicates the decline in lake levels and the
628 loss of lentic habitats, which leads to reduced feeding habitats and reproductive output or an
629 increased ecological stress among the cladoceran community, particularly during the c.
630 1990s-2000s. In Europe, increases in sedimentary resting eggs of cladocerans are reported to
631 be associated with major environmental transitions; for example, climate change (such as
632 Pleistocene-early Holocene), timing of strong predator-prey interactions (fish predation
633 pressure), and increased human impact in the catchment (for example, unprecedented release
634 of chemicals) (Sarmaja-Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

635 The response of the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Liangzi Lake to
636 hydrological change in the Yangtze River during the 1950s was difficult to establish. This
637 could be due to the permanent inflow to this lake from the Yangtze River. The higher
638 abundance of *Bosmina* prior to 1900s indicate that the lake was kept at a certain water level,
639 and much of the trophic materials contained in the surface water met the demands of
640 planktonic cladocerans (Liping et al., 2005). However, the abundance of littoral species
641 *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*
642 during the 1950s are indicative of decreasing depth. During the 1990s to the 2000s, Liangzi
643 Lake was impacted by intensive agriculture practices in the catchment and nutrient inputs
644 into the wetland, as indicated by an increased abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* (Lipping et
645 al., 2005). In 1992, the local government restricted aquaculture to the western part of the
646 Liangzi Lake, since this activity was affecting water quality throughout the entire lake (Xie et
647 al., 2001). This problem had been detected from ecological stress responses of cladocerans,
648 as revealed by an increased density of resting eggs in the sediment, as well as an increased
649 abundance of *Bosmina* and the chydorid species such as *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*,
650 *Chydorus sphaericus*, since these are all found in nutrient-rich environments (Sarmaja-
651 Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

652 All three of these wetlands appear to exhibit characteristic traits of hydrologically
653 triggered ecosystem changes, as revealed by subfossil cladoceran assemblages, since each has
654 tended to undergo regime shifts during recent decades. Furthermore, species richness in each
655 is indicative of reduced water quality. Hydrology strongly drives the community composition
656 of phyto- and zooplankton, relevant nutritional resources, and habitat characteristics, mainly
657 via input of total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorous (TP) from the eutrophic main channels
658 during flood events (Van den et al., 1994; Nevalainen, 2011). The phenomena observed in the
659 dynamics of physical and biological assemblages, and the diversity of cladoceran

660 zooplankton, in Kings Billabong and Zhangdu Lake, for example, have shown tendency of
661 existing in alternative stable states resulting from switching of ecosystems, irrespective of
662 inundation (Kings Billabong) or dehydration (Zhangdu Lake).

663 The alternative 'stable states phenomena' in shallow lakes and wetlands have been
664 widely viewed as indicative of changes to resilience of ecosystems (Scheffer and Jeppesen,
665 2007). Such phenomena have shown the condition of wetlands to vary from a relatively good
666 water quality, vegetation-rich state to a poor, turbid water state, which is usually less
667 desirable to society (Folke et al., 2004). Positive feedback associated with the condition of
668 increased water quality, species richness and population dynamics of *D. crassa* in Kings
669 Billabong prior to 1900 is characteristic of a resilient ecosystem (e.g. Suding et al., 2004).
670 By contrast, an open water habitat, which may be characteristic of a longer flood duration
671 following regulation, leads to negative feedback, which is turbid and less resilient (e.g.
672 Suding et al., 2004). Similarly, in Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes, an increased abundance of
673 smaller, mud-dwelling cladoceran species such as small *Alona* sp. and *Leydigia leydigi*, as
674 well as presence of other meso-eutrophic species, *Chydorus* and *Bosmina* following
675 regulation, is indicative of increased eutrophication (Hofmann, 1996) caused by alteration of
676 flow regime and dehydration of wetlands.

677 Long term persistent human disturbances alter species diversity and have functional
678 consequences in ecosystem processes (MacDougall et al., 2013), which may be observed via
679 impact on ecological traits (Chapin III, 2000). The components of species diversity
680 expressing certain traits include the number of species present (species richness), their
681 relative abundances (species evenness), the particular species present (species composition),
682 the interactions among species (non-additive effects), and the temporal and spatial variation
683 in these properties. The consequence to the environment as a result of cladoceran diversity
684 change in the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands is difficult to predict, but in the longer

685 term, poor functioning of the ecosystem due to reduction in diversity in Kings Billabong is
686 expected. In the Yangtze River wetlands, the dominant species richness trait, for instance
687 abundance of the small *Alona* sp. Group, can also lead to poor ecosystem functioning (e.g.
688 Chapin III, 2000). This evidence strongly reflects the reduction in resilience and the limited
689 capacity of these wetlands to support ecosystem services for the society in these increasingly
690 regulated river basins. Further decline in eco-hydrological conditions including the water
691 quality, water quantity, fishery resources, and recreational amenities, due to cumulative
692 stressors can lead to the collapse of ecosystem services, in which case society will no longer
693 be benefitted (Falkenmark, 2003).

694 The ecosystems of both Murray and Yangtze rivers are affected by a range of drivers.
695 The cumulative stressors upon these wetlands are nutrient enrichments from agricultural
696 catchments, heavy metal release from industries (mainly in Yangtze wetlands) and climate
697 change (flooding and drought episodes). Increased nitrogen deposition has been reported to
698 have a great effect on diversity and ecosystem functioning of wetlands, leading to collapse of
699 food chains and ecosystems (Hooper et al., 2012). This collapse may lead to crises to higher
700 trophic levels including the humans, with conflicting demands placed on natural resources
701 and increasingly poor public health issues of the local community (Kattel et al., 2013). Such
702 water problems in large river basins are due to increasingly interconnected multi-sector
703 developments such as agriculture, energy, industry, transportation and communication.
704 Several authors (Walker et al., 1995; Kingsford et al., 2000; Fu et al., 2003) suggest that
705 maintaining ecosystem health of wetlands associated with large river basins, requires a new
706 paradigm in water management. Today, the wetlands of both the Murray and Yangtze River
707 basins have faced greater challenges from hydrological modification, water shortage and
708 eutrophication than at any time before (Yang et al., 2006; Shen, 2010; Gell and Reid, 2014),
709 and there are growing concerns about the uncertainties of climate change and socio-economic

710 impacts on these river basins (Palmer et al., 2000). For example, due to rapid decline in water
711 quality, biodiversity and ecological characters of the lower Yangtze River, this region has
712 already been declared as the ecosystem of “lost resilience” (Zhang et al., 2015). A
713 comprehensive synthesis by Varis and Vakkilainen (2001) suggests that following the 1970s,
714 China’s environmental pressures have surpassed the carrying capacity of the ecosystem,
715 resulting in greater challenges for water resource management in the Yangtze and many other
716 river basins. Similarly, a rapidly declining trend of biological diversity and ecosystem states
717 of the Murray River basin has also been widely reported since the 1950s (Kingsford et al.,
718 2000). For example, more than 80% of wetlands in the Lower Murray River reaches
719 (Australia) have undergone a significant decline in flow regimes and ecosystem health, due to
720 rapid rates of sedimentation, turbidity and loss of macrophytes (e.g. Mosley et al., 2012; Gell
721 and Reid, 2014).

722 With increasing demand for water, food, fibre, minerals, and energy in the 21st century,
723 the water related pressures have degraded conditions of these natural resources further (e.g.
724 Davis et al., 2015). It is claimed that solutions for water issues are not possible without a joint
725 effort by the various stakeholders involved in understanding the complexity of water
726 management in large river basins (e.g. Biswas, 2004). It has been envisaged that the current
727 management program needs to be revitalized to resolve growing issues of wetland
728 management and maintenance of associated ecosystem services, including the quantity and
729 quality of water in both river basins.

730 The evidence of eco-hydrological evolution of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands
731 inferred from the subfossil cladoceran assemblages and diversity (Figs. 4 & 5) suggests that
732 both river basins have been profoundly impacted by socio-economic developments over the
733 past century. Many authors suggested that increased dialogues together with continuous
734 learning are needed to achieve better water resource management practice (Holling (1978);

735 Jakeman and Letcher, 2003; Falkenmark, 2004; Macleod et al.2007; Pahl-Wostl, 2007). For
736 example, the time around the 1950s was a benchmark of change in flow regime and
737 ecosystem of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands. Following river regulation (post
738 1950s), both the quantity and quality of water in the Murray and Yangtze river wetlands
739 began to alter, reaching a critically low level of flow, poor water quality and reduced
740 ecosystem health by the 2000s. This condition of changes in flow regime in the Murray River
741 basin was also reported by Maheshwari et al. (1995), where the average monthly and annual
742 flows were considerably lower than those of natural conditions prior to regulation. This point
743 of time in the Murray River basin was crucial for learning about the modification of natural
744 hydraulic residence time that lead to changes in diversity and the associated ecosystem
745 structure and functions of wetlands.

746 Construction of the Hume Dam in the 1930s in the Murray River, and several large
747 dams including the Three Gorges Dam (TGD) since the 1950s in Yangtze River, has had
748 long-lasting effects on downstream flow regimes, as well as wetland ecosystem structure and
749 function (Pittock and Finlayson, 2011; Wu et al., 2003). The understanding of these
750 benchmark evidences of human-induced eco-hydrologic disturbances on these river basins
751 have now been used for modelling the transitioning hydrology and critical level of threshold
752 in the ecosystem of wetlands (Zweig and Kitchens, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). Humans have
753 also consistently shaped the patterns of economic development altering the potential
754 hydrological dynamics and feedbacks in the system through increased environmental
755 consciousness and growing recognition of the interplays between hydrology and society
756 (Sivapalan, 2012; Di Baldassarre et al., 2013). In many instances, progress has been made
757 through the advancement in innovations in water resource management together with
758 environmentally-friendly infrastructure development that have contributed to balanced water
759 allocations across the households, agriculture, industry and environment (Poff et al., 2003;

760 Biswas, 2004; Lee and Ancey, 2009; Jiang, 2009; Yu et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2010; Grafton et
761 al., 2013).

762 In addition, the making the linkages between the restoration requirements suggested by
763 science and the needs of society have become increasingly useful for management decisions
764 of the large river basins (Poff et al., 2003; Pittock and Finlayson, 2011, Liu et al., 2014). The
765 community engagement with all aspects of eco-hydrology, including both structural
766 developments (such as hydropower dams) and non-structural infrastructure programs
767 (typified by awareness approached for adaptation to change as well as water savings has
768 become highly successful (Shen, 2010). Such engagement has enhanced wetland resilience
769 with improved water quality and quantity, including ecosystem functions, consequently
770 assisting the basin-wide management of food and water security issues (Carpenter et al.,
771 2009, Vörösmarty et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2014). For example, the WWF-supported
772 partnership program, together with government agencies and local communities, was highly
773 successful for improving water resources, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the
774 Yangtze River Basin. Under this type of management program, and in partnership with local
775 people, the three Yangtze lakes (Zhangdu, Hong and Tian-e-zhou), which were disconnected
776 from the main channel during the 1950s-1970s, have now been recharged by opening of
777 sluice gates (Yu et al., 2009). The recharging of Zhangdu Lake has not only enhanced
778 resilience of the lake environment to climate change and but also livelihoods of the local
779 people (Yu et al., 2009). Recently, the role of community participation in water resource
780 management has also been reported significant in some wetlands of the Murray Darling
781 Basin. For example, the living Murray project initiated by the Murray Darling Basin
782 Authority with the view of increased indigenous community engagement, has led to
783 improvements in the ecological health of the Barmah–Millewa floodplain wetlands
784 supporting large bird breeding events (MDBA, 2014). This kind of success has also been

785 revealed by the coupled socio-hydrologic models showing strong association between the
786 trajectory of human-water co-evolution and associated goods and services in the
787 Murrumbidgee River basin (one of sub-basins of the River Murray) (Sivapalan et al., 2012;
788 Kandasamy et al., 2014, van Emmerik et al., 2014).

789

790 **6 Conclusions**

791

792 Evidence from subfossil assemblages of cladocerans over the past few decades from all three
793 wetlands, Kings Billabong, Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake, suggest that river regulation by
794 humans in the Murray (Australia) and Yangtze (China) rivers have significantly altered
795 natural flows, including the hydrology and ecology of these wetlands. The response of
796 subfossil cladoceran assemblages was evident via both prolonged flooding (inundation) and
797 dehydration (abstraction) of water in the Murray and Yangtze Rivers, respectively. Other
798 factors, such as land use, socio-economic developments, and rapid climate change,
799 particularly over the past 30-40 years, may have exacerbated the hydrological and ecological
800 processes further. The conditions of wetlands following large-scale disturbances, such as
801 widespread river regulation and construction of dams and reservoirs, have shown tendency to
802 trigger wetland ecosystem switches, and highlights the urgent need for effective restoration
803 measures to improve ecosystem services, through better management of quantity and quality
804 of water. Evidence based on strong scientific research, development of efficient
805 infrastructure, and people's participation together enhance resilience of the Murray and
806 Yangtze River wetlands and help resolve long-term basin-wide water and food security
807 issues.

808

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810

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829 **References**

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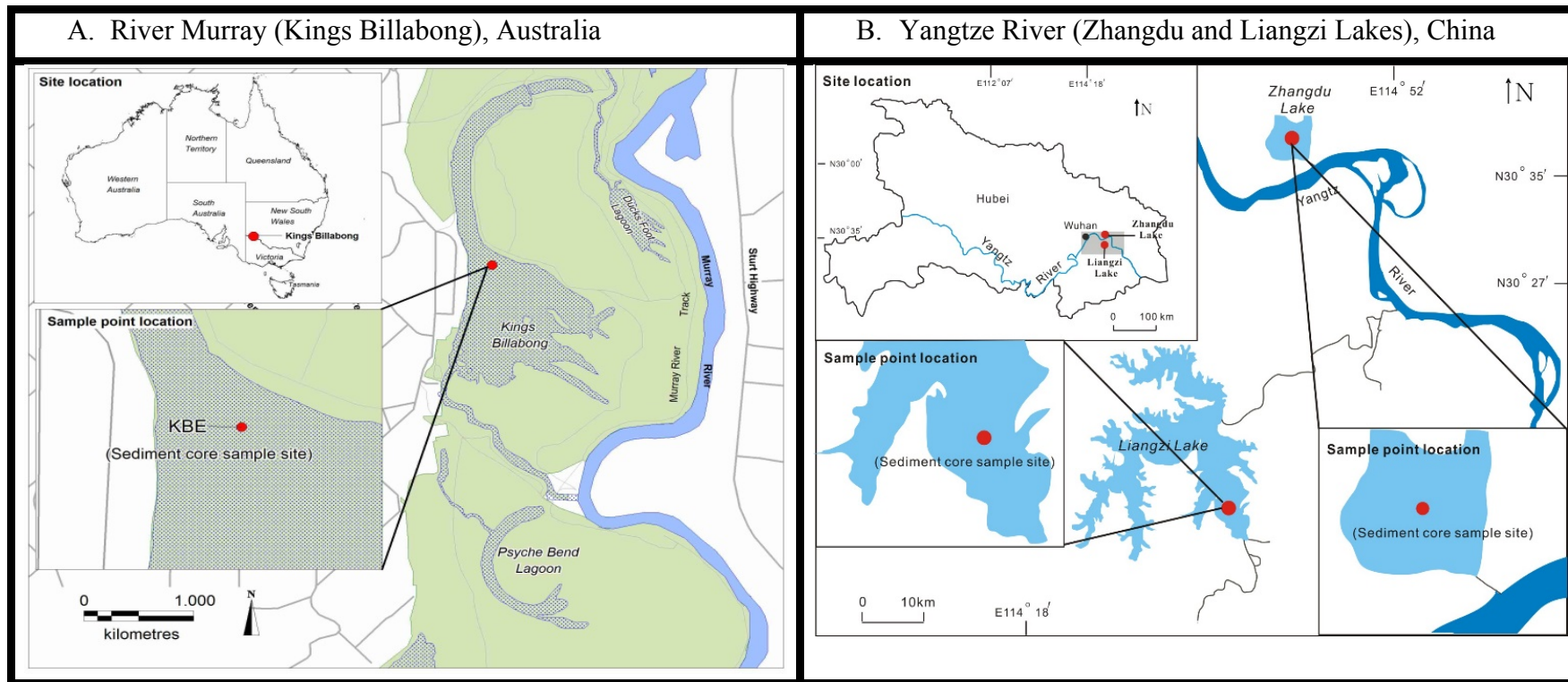


Figure 1. Study areas in Australia and China. A. Kings Billabong, one of the wetland complexes of the River Murray system in Southeast Australia and B. Zhangdu and Liangzi Lake wetland complex around the middle reaches of the Yangtze River in Hubei Province of China. The red dots are coring locations for this study.

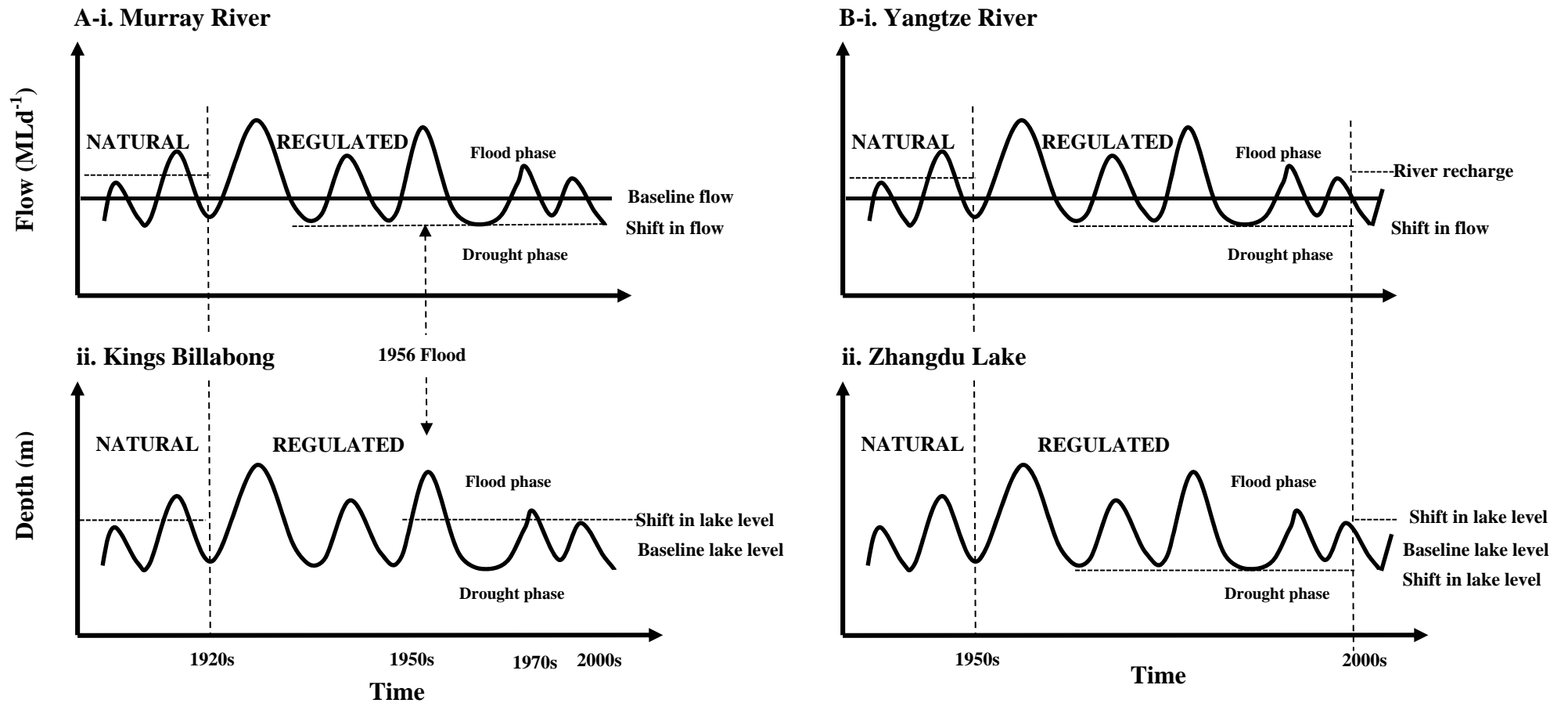


Figure 2. Hydrological contexts of the Murray and Yangtze rivers. A. i & ii. River Murray: regulation was imposed by humans in the 1920s AD, which resulted in low water volume in the down-stream river channels, but Kings Billabong's conversion to a water storage tank permanently led higher lake level, 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

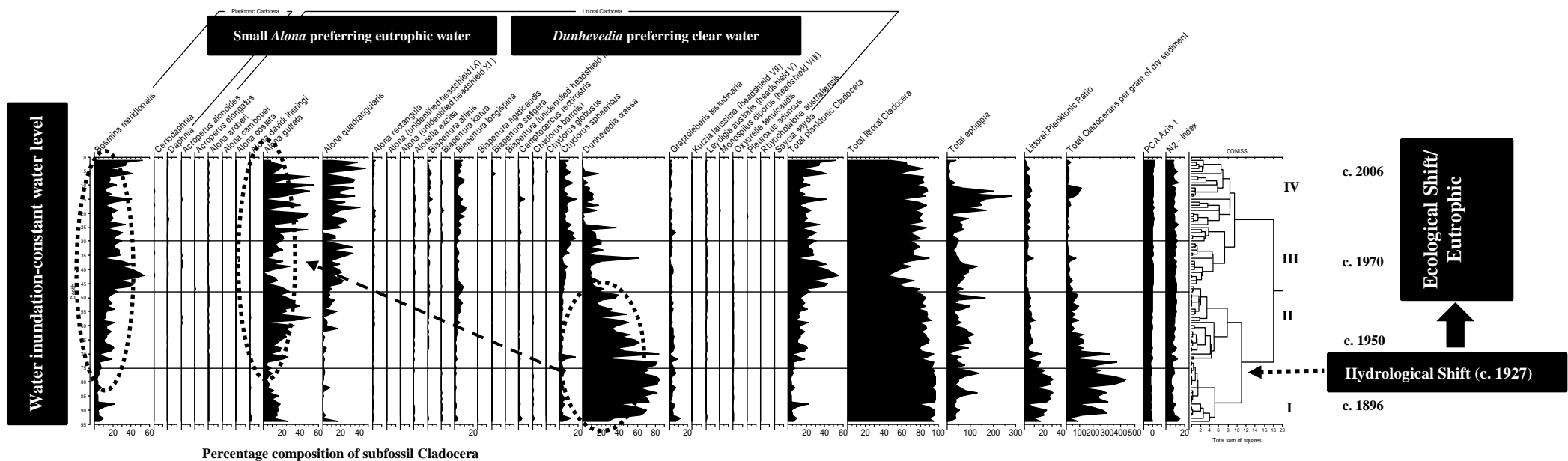


Figure 3. Percentage composition and N2 diversity index of subfossil cladocedans in Kings Billabong, their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Zhangdu Lake

Reduced Water Quality Following the 1960s

Improved Water Quality Prior to the 1960s

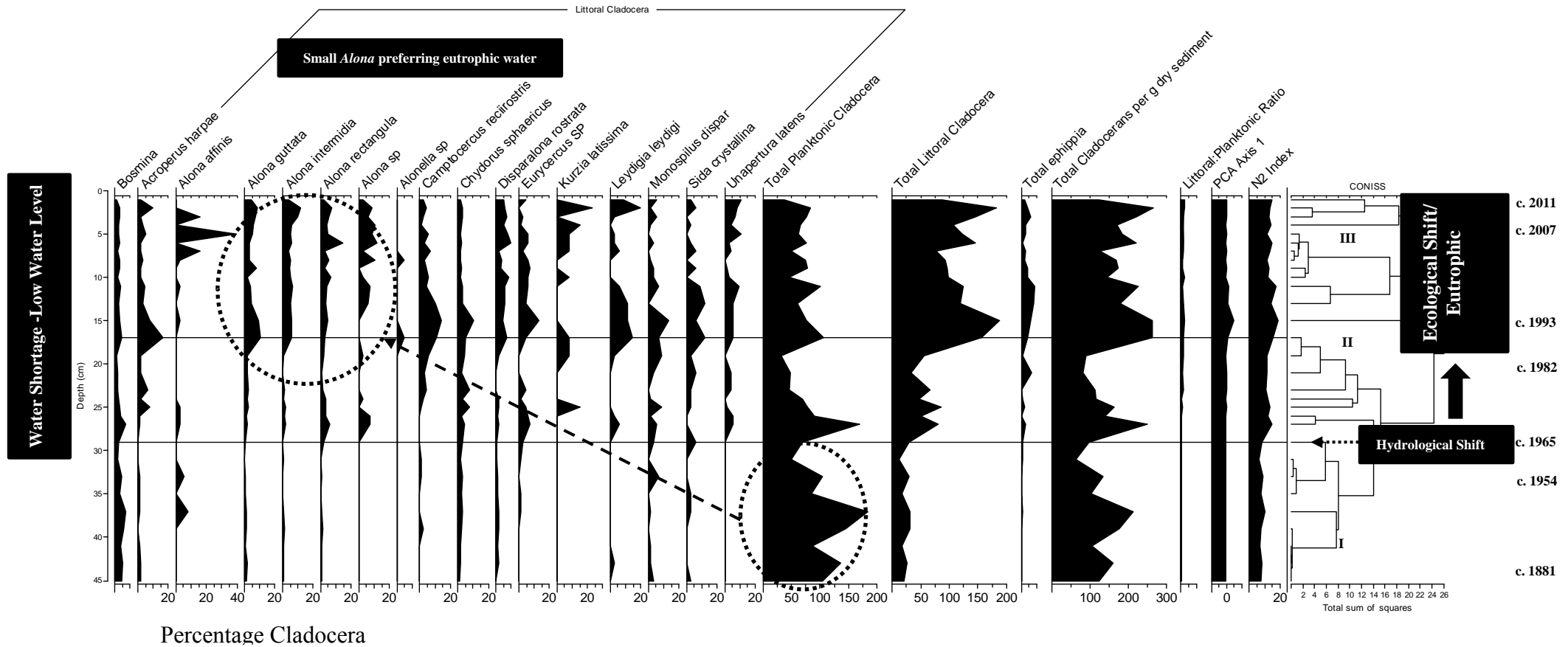


Figure 4. Composition (%) and N2 index of subfossil cladocedans in Zhangdu Lake, and their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Liangzi Lake

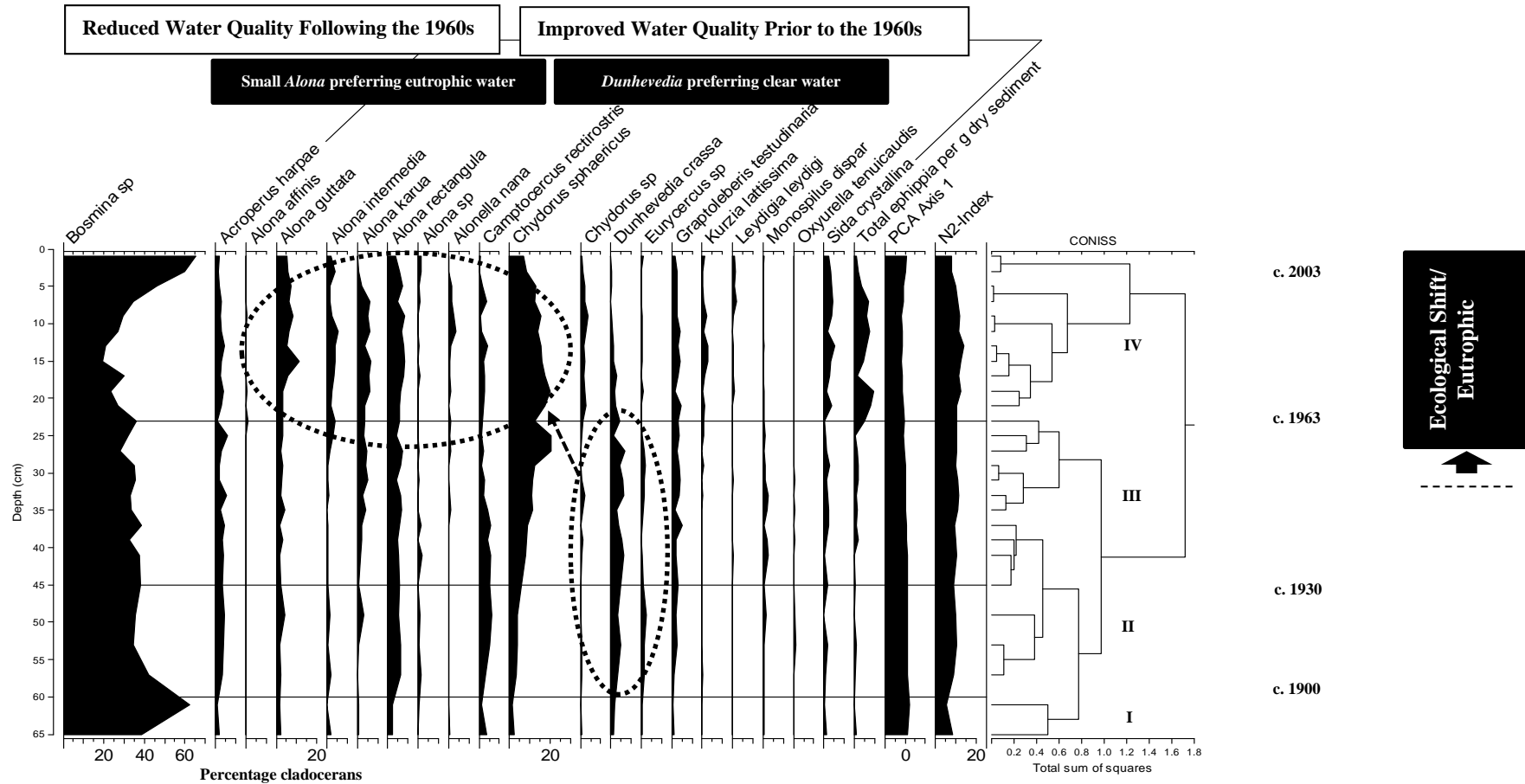


Figure 5. Composition (%) and N2 diversity index of subfossil cladocerans in Liangzi Lake, and their response to past water quality change.

