

11 February 2016

Editor  
Hydrology and Earth System Sciences  
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Germany

Dear Editor,

**Re: Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss., 12, C3698-C3704, 2015 (Response to reviewer's comments)**

I am very pleased to receive highly constructive comments made by two anonymous reviewers on the manuscript that I submitted previously, and published in Open Access Journal, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.*, 12, C3698-C3704, 2015.

Majority of comments from both reviewers reflect similar views. The major issue being raised on the proposed water resource management framework for the wetlands of Murray and Yangtze River basins: was 'simplistic', 'superficial', 'vague' and had limited 'grounding' or 'content' of the concept with supportive materials for the framework. I fully agree that these comments are highly genuine, and I have duly addressed each of those comments in the revised manuscript. However, what I would like to reiterate that the proposed framework is first of its kind based on the palaeoecological records retrieved from the wetlands of two of the world's large river basins in Australia and China, and the framework is yet to be tested.

This study is expected to convey the important message to the resource managers and the scientific community regarding the value of the long term study of ecology and hydrology of the large river basins to understand the fate of ecosystems, diversity and goods and services provided by wetlands to the society. By bringing the scientists, engineers and decision makers at a single platform can initiate debate to find the various ways for tackling the key issues of water resource management in two of the world's large river basins in Australia and China, and beyond.

Yours sincerely,

Giri Kattel

On behalf of co-authors

## Reviewer #1 comments and answers

### General comments

*“...the transition from a fairly comprehensive discussion of eco-hydrology to adaptive water resource management (effectively socio-hydrology) to be very abrupt and not well supported.”*

Answer: As the interaction between people and water is fundamental, the linkage between eco-hydrology and adaptive water resource management or ‘socio-hydrology’ in large river basins is significant and this has been described comprehensively in the revised manuscript. (PAGE 8 LINE 172-188; PAGE 27-29 LINE 654-699)

*“The framework presented comes across as being somewhat simplistic and superficial, without sufficient grounding in the literature (given the framework components proposed have little connection to the body of the manuscript).”*

Answer: This is an important comment. In the revised manuscript, the proposed framework components have been linked to the main body (palaeoecological finding), and described comprehensively to support its grounding with sufficient literature (PAGE 27-29 LINE 654-699; PAGE 29-34 LINE 701-823).

*“ For the last section to form a useful contribution I believe it needs to be substantially enhanced (there is much in recent socio-hydrology and adaptive management literature to augment with). Otherwise I would suggest the authors perhaps de-emphasize this section (e.g. excluding it from the title) and possibly restructure it as either ‘implications of the results’ or ‘possible avenues for future research’ rather than a framework that is capable of guiding water management”*

Answer: Thank you for an advice. In the revised version, the last section has been enhanced substantially by a discussion of ‘socio-hydrology’ and the adaptive management with the support from a wide range of literature in integrated water resource management.

With the view from the Reviewer #2 (who pointed this framework as a significant contribution), we decided not to de-emphasize completely from the title. However, in the revised manuscript, the title has been slightly modified, and the framework has been discussed in detail. The extensive argument on water resource management framework that we have proposed, has now improved the tenet of the framework significantly with regard to its application in water resource management in large river basins of Australia and China (PAGE 29-34 LINE 701-814).

### SPECIFIC COMMENTS:

*1. As the paper currently stands,..the title overemphasizes the development of an adaptive water management framework as a key contribution and goal of the paper (see my comments above as to why this does not seem appropriate). Perhaps the authors could focus the title more on the hydro-ecological evolution of the basins given the strengths of the paper?*

Answer: The title has been modified slightly as per the suggestion from the reviewer (PAGE 1 LINE 1-3).

*“A century scale human-induced hydro-ecological evolution of wetlands of two large river basins in Australia (Murray) and China (Yangtze): Development of an adaptive water resource management framework”*

2. p.8252 L4-5: compared with what previously? A before and after comparison of sediment load would strengthen this point.

Answer: This section has been described for the role of flow regime, the comparison of sediment load prior and after has been given in PAGE 5-6 LINE 103-127.

3. p.8253 second paragraph: it may be worth reaffirming the socio-economic importance of this to highlight the message of why the authors are working up to an adaptive water resource management framework.

Answer: The reason has been provided in the revised version (PAGE 8 LINE 172-188).

4. Section 2.2: this is an excellent description of the site. By comparison, the description of KB (section 2.1) comes across as a little superficial and would benefit from greater context (e.g. climate) and statistics in terms of impacts.

Answer: The description of Kings Billabong has been rewritten and made comparable to Zhangdu Lake (PAGE 9-11 LINE 192-226).

5. Section 2.3: is there an inconsistency here? The lake area is listed as 304.3km<sup>2</sup> and 22067ha.

Answer: Thank you. The inconsistency in unit and the repetition of areas have been clarified.

6. Section 3: I am not convinced that this section adds too much relative to what has already been discussed in sections 1 and 2. As a result it becomes somewhat repetitive. Perhaps sections 2 and 3 could be merged and repetition kept to a minimum, as much of the information in section 2 is repeated without a great deal of additional context or takeaway messages.

Answer: This section is important to describe the conceptual hydrology of the study sites, thus this has been kept. In the revised manuscript, the entire section is rewritten. There is no repetition, and the section now is, concise and convincing (PAGE 12-13 LINE 281-306).

7. p.8258 L13-15: is reservoir construction the sole reason for the two preceding trends? It is not immediately apparent why increased water consumption would result in increased dry season discharge of the Yangtze river. Could you please clarify this point?

Answer: This section has been rewritten and the issue has been clarified (PAGE 12-13 LINE 281-306).

8. Section 4.1 L18-19: is this sentence complete?

Answer: completed.

9. Section 5.1: a finding of greater diversity post interference seems counterintuitive. p.8265 L8-11 cites evidence contrary to this finding. I would suggest the authors attempt to place the present findings into context at this juncture, given their contradictory nature.

Answer: This finding is interesting, and has been addressed in revised manuscript. The increased N2 diversity index of cladocerans in Yangtze River wetlands (Zhangdu and Liangzi) following regulation has reflected increased intermediate frequencies of disturbance (Townsend and Scarsbrook, 1997), while the reduced N2 diversity index of cladocerans in Kings Billabong following regulation was likely to be associated with severe impacts caused by a large scale landscape clearance and river

regulation within a short period by early European immigrants. This has been described in depth in the revised manuscript (PAGE 16 LINE 379-386; PAGE 23 LINE 521-562).

*10. Section 6.2: I found much of this section to be quite repetitive. The detailed discussion of population levels and species, although well supported by literature, comes across as overly detailed. This is especially since, by this point, given the expectation created by the title of the manuscript, I was expecting the discussion to take a more high level focus (i.e. what do these changing population levels mean to higher level ecosystem services and to the socio-economic context). Although this is touched upon briefly in parts, the larger scale message is lost in the detail. This would provide a more intuitive link to then build an adaptive water resources management framework. As it stands, this section has a purely eco-hydrological focus, which is still compelling if a little repetitive. As I said in my earlier comments, de-emphasizing the AWRM focus upfront would most likely alleviate most of these issues.*

Answer: Thank very good comment. In the revised manuscript, both issues: repetition and linkage between eco-hydrology and adaptive water resource management (socio-hydrology) have been established. The changing water quality and population levels of biota following regulation have now been linked to changing biodiversity, ecosystem services as well as other socio-economic contexts such as conflicting demands of natural resources to the society (see details in PAGE 27-29 LINE 654-699). This also has now been linked to build an adaptive water resource management framework in section, 6.3.

*11. Section 6.3 p.8271 L4-6: This is a sweeping opening statement that seems disconnected from the rest of the paper. I do not believe the case for this has been convincingly made to this point (i.e. no discussion of higher level impact or literature citations in this regard). The focus of the paper to this point has consistently been on the detail (i.e. shifts in population composition and diversity at the subfossil cladocedan level) rather than on a connection with socio-economic impacts and river basin management. If the authors choose to retain this section, I believe this link needs to be made much more clearly and convincingly throughout.*

Answer: Thanks. The entire section 6.3 has been rewritten. Relevant high level literatures have now been cited. The focus of the paper is certainly on the shift in population composition and diversity at the subfossil cladocedan levels. The reviewer is correct, the aim for this section is to connect this with socio-economic impacts and river basin management, thus chosen to retain this section, and in the revised version all issues have been convincingly addressed (PAGE 29-35 LINE 701-839).

*12. Section 6.3 p.8271 L14-19: the authors may wish to look at recent literature outlining the evolution of management focus in sub-basins of the Murray river which actually show a shift in focus from socio-economic to environmental water allocation (e.g. Kandasamy et al. (2014)).*

Answer: Thank you. This reference has now been cited (PAGE 35 LINE 839), and various related works have been added in the revised manuscript.

*13. Section 6.3 p.8271 L20-23: This is a very ambitious claim (i.e. "taking into account the historical environmental, technological, economic, institutional, cultural, and social values") which I do not believe the model achieves in its current simplistic state. This statement is unsubstantiated within the context of the presented framework.*

Answer: Thanks. This statement has now been clarified and focused only based on this study (PAGE 29-35 LINE 701-839).

14. Section 6.3 p.8271 L23-26: *As with my comment above, I do not believe the authors show sufficient regard for what "integrated" means in the context of a management framework. There is significant debate in the literature discussing the pros and cons of integrated water resource management, with one of the primary issues being the challenges associated with defining an "integrated" system (e.g. Biswas (2004)).*

Answer: Thanks. The debate on the definition behind 'integrated' water resource management has been extended in the revised manuscript and supported largely by a range of literature including Biswas (2004). (PAGE 30-31 LINE 733-750).

15. Section 6.3 p.8272 L22-24: *The three restoration pillars proposed are very vague, e.g. what does "efficient water allocation" mean? How is this measured? Similarly, L25 refers to improving "livelihoods", "institutional capacities" and "the value of efficient infrastructure" - how would each of these be defined/ measured? I do not believe the authors have convincingly presented a case for this framework. A number of concepts are introduced, none of which are easily measured or translatable to reality, and thus the paper does not provide any useful guidance for practical application. If the authors choose to retain this section, I would suggest building a much stronger foundation from the literature to demonstrate a greater depth of understanding, as well as including practical/ real case examples to illustrate their propositions. Overall, I feel that 6.3 lets the paper down as it is not well supported.*

Answer: This is an important advice. In the revised manuscript, the three restoration pillars: science, engineering and community participation are described in details with stronger foundation of literature (PAGE 29-35 LINE 701-839), and these pillars have also been clarified further in Fig. 7.

16. Fig. 3: *Why are all graphs identical despite KB being converted to a permanently inundated wetland vs other lakes which are dehydrated?*

Answer: Fig. 3 is important, and presents the general conceptual hydrological frameworks for the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands. In the framework, all graphs look identical because these rivers experience very similar wet and dry cycles (flood pulse and flood pause). However, the hydrological alteration of rivers and associated wetlands has been shown by shift in baseline flow and the lake level in the Fig. 3 following regulation.

*TECHNICAL CORRECTIONS: As a quick note, there are a great deal of minor typos and written/ grammatical mistakes so I would urge the authors to review the paper in detail.*

Answer: These issues have been carefully revised, and corrected accordingly.

1. p.8251 L10: delete "the" before "two of" Done
2. p.8251 L22-26: the addition of a reference that reinforces the broad evolution of this river basin would be useful here. Ref added
3. p.8251 L27: insert "the" before "majority" Done
4. p.8252 L12: insert "the" before "Yangtze River" Done
5. p.8252 L25: insert "a" before "characteristic state" Done
6. p.8253 L12: assess should be "assessing" Done

7. p.8253 L26: delete "a" before "large scale" Done
8. p.8254 L1: insert "an" before "adaptive" Done
9. p.8254 L9: delete either "to" or "until" before "1923" Done
10. p. 8254 L12: insert "the" prior to "natural flow" Sentence rephrased
11. p.8254 L18: delete "in 1927" (twice in same sentence) This should have been 1937
12. p.8255 L11: insert "the" prior to "Yangtze" Sentence rephrased
20. p.8255 L12: insert "the" before "Yangtze" Sentence rephrased
21. p.8256 L23: delete "projects" (repeated twice) Fixed
22. p.8257 L2: do you mean "changes in ecosystem structure"? All section rewritten
23. p.8258 L9: insert "the" prior to "wetland" All section rewritten
24. s5.1: check figure numbering - I think you mean to refer to Figs 4 and 5 Resolved
25. p.8262 L1: delete "until the 1980s..." Done
26. p.8262 L23: insert "to" before "this change" Done
27. p.8263 L21: insert "a" before "decrease" Done
28. p.8264 L13: "2000s" Done
29. p.8264 L18: "within" the Murray and Yangtze? Done as suggested
30. p.8265 L13: delete "that" before "of natural" Done
31. p.8267 L4: check spelling of Liangzi Corrected
32. p.8267 L10: do you mean "decrease in water quality"? Corrected
33. p.8267 L13: "little or no impact" Done
34. p.8267 L17: should be "prefer" Done
35. p.8271 L3: I think you mean "these three wetlands suggest that water resource...." ok
36. p.8272 L20: should this be "changes to ecosystem functioning"? Comprehensively written
37. Fig. 1 caption: insert "the" before "wetland" Done
38. Fig. 3 caption: I think you mean "Kings Billabong's conversion to..." Done
39. Fig. 7 caption: L4 & L5 insert "the" before "ecosystem"; L8 delete "expected" Done
40. Check date inconsistencies of references: Gell (2014 vs 2015 should be 2014, Done); Kattel et al. (2014 vs 2015 should be 2015 Done); Van den Brink (1993 vs 1994 should be 1994 Done); Yang et al. (2011a vs b, corrected)

## REFERENCES

Biswas, A. K.: *Integrated water resources management: a reassessment*, *Water International*, 29, 248-256, 2004 (added)

Kandasamy, J., Sountharajah, D., Sivabalan, P., Chanan, A., Vigneswaran, S., and Sivapalan, M.: *Socio-hydrologic drivers of the pendulum swing between agricultural development and environmental health: a case study from Murrumbidgee River basin, Australia*, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18, 1027–1041, 2014 (added).

Townsend, C.R. and Scarsbrook, M.R.: *The intermediate disturbance hypothesis, refugia, and biodiversity in streams*, *Limnology and Oceanography*, 42, 938-949, 1997 (added).

### Reviewer #2 comments and answers

*“The author discussed the long term impacts of human activity on hydrological and ecological regimes shifting in two of the world’s large river basins. I found the article is well written; the topic is interesting and should find a relatively wide audience.”*

Answer: We are very pleased that the article is interesting and can reach into wider audiences.

*“I do have some questions:*

*1. What do the changes of N2 imply in terms of human activities (e.g. construction dams)? I know the author discussed it in the paper or maybe I missed it. But perhaps the authors could elaborate a bit more on how this change is induced by human activity?”*

Answer: Thanks. The Hill’s N2 diversity index, which has been measured for cladoceran diversity in this study, assumes that the number of species in an ecosystem is uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973). Variation in disturbance can result in the differences in species diversity in the ecosystem. This has been described in (PAGE 16 LINE 369-386, Also see PAGE 23, LINE 544-562).

*What is the final consequence to the environment (say, dominance/distinct of one species leads to what consequence)?*

Answer: A distinct species diversity (for example dominated by a single species) can have functional consequences in ecosystem processes, which may be observed via impact on ecological traits, for example, poor functioning of the ecosystem and processes followed by reduced resilience and services (Chapin III et al., 2000; MacDougall et al., 2013). The collapse of ecosystem may lead to conflicts in natural resources (Liu et al., 2013). This has been addressed comprehensively in the revised manuscript (PAGE 28-29 LINE 668-699).

*2. The ecosystem of a basin might also be affected by other drivers other than only water quantity and quality. Have the authors consider other factors (e.g. nutrients)? Or can the authors justify the use of water quantity and quality as the only drivers?*

Answer: Indeed, the ecosystems of both Murray and Yangtze river basins are affected by a range of drivers. For example, the nutrient release from the agriculture and pastures to the wetland is a key driver. Widespread catchment disturbance including the deforestation can also cause the dynamics of nutrients in the wetlands. The misunderstanding on the link between nutrient dynamics and water quality issues has been clarified in the revised manuscript (PAGE 27-29 LINE 654-699).

*3. In my opinion, the proposed adaptive WRM framework is rather vague and there is a lack of detailed contents. It is based on three pillars, but nothing more than that (with only one example in Yangtze Basin) and it is not at all into detail. I think the three bullet points that might have been mentioned in one way or another in literatures do not form a detailed innovative framework. The*

*added value of this paper, in my opinion, should be the development of this framework. Therefore, I would suggest that the authors expand this section as it highlights the core of this paper.*

Answer: This is an important comment. Section 6.3 has now been rewritten to highlight the core issues (the three pillars: science, engineering and stakeholders involvement in decision making) of the framework. In the new version the grounding or content of the use of the framework has been substantiated by an in-depth analysis of integrated water resource management with supportive reference materials (PAGE 29-35 LINE 701-839) (Also see the Reviewer #1).

## REFERENCES

Biswas, A. K.: Integrated water resources management: a reassessment, *Water International*, 29, 248-256, 2004.

Chapin III, F.S., Zavaleta, E.S., Eviner, V.T., Naylor, R. L., Vitousek, P.M., Reynolds, H.L., Hooper, D.U., Lavorel, S., Sala, O.E., Hobbie, S.E., Mack, M.C. and Diaz, S.: Consequences of changing biodiversity, *Nature*, 405, 234-242, 2000.

Hill, M.O.: Diversity and evenness: A unifying notation and its consequences, *Ecology*, 54:427–432, 1973.

Kandasamy, J., Sountharajah, D., Sivabalan, P., Chanan, A., Vigneswaran, S., and Sivapalan, M.: Socio-hydrologic drivers of the pendulum swing between agricultural development and environmental health: a case study from Murrumbidgee River basin, Australia, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18, 1027–1041, 2014.

Liu, J., Kattel, G., Arp, H.P.H., Yang, H.: Towards threshold-based management of freshwater ecosystems in the context of climate change, *Ecological Modelling*, doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2014.09.010, 2014.

MacDougall, A.S., McCann, K.S., Gellner, G., and Turkington, R.: Diversity loss with persistent human disturbance increases vulnerability to ecosystem collapse, *Nature*, 494, 86-89, 2013.

Townsend, C.R. and Scarsbrook, M.R.: The intermediate disturbance hypothesis, refugia, and biodiversity in streams, *Limnology and Oceanography*, 42, 938-949, 1997.

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

4

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15 **Abstract**

16

17 Recently, the provision of food and water resources of two of the world's large 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 disturbance to 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. An adaptive water resource management  
36 framework for both of these river basins has been proposed to restore or optimize the  
37 conditions of wetland ecosystems impacted by these 20<sup>th</sup> century human disturbance and  
38 climate change.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

189

## 190 2 Study areas

191

### 192 2.1 Kings Billabong (Murray River)

193

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

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

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

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

227

## 228 **2.2 Zhangdu Lake (Yangtze River)**

229

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

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

258

### 259 **2.3 Liangzi Lake (Yangtze River)**

260

261 Liangzi Lake (30°3' N, 114°26' E) is a shallow wetland (3-5 m deep), located in southeast  
262 region of Hubei province on the southern bank of the middle reaches of the Yangtze River.  
263 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  
264 meters and is 31.7 km in length with a mean width of 9.6 km (Fig. 2). The lake connects to

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

280

### 281 **3 Frameworks for changes in hydrology of Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

282

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

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

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

307

## 308 **4 Methods**

309

### 310 **4.1 Assessment of diversity and ecosystems of Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

311

312 The diversity and ecological conditions of the three floodplain wetlands, Kings Billabong,  
313 Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake associated with two large river systems, were assessed using

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

317 In the case of Zhangdu Lake, a subsampling of a 45 cm long core was carried out at 1  
318 cm intervals for up to 27 cm, and at 2 cm intervals for up to 45 cm respectively. For Liangzi  
319 Lake, the subsampling of 65 cm core was carried out at 2 cm intervals. Subsamples from all  
320 three lakes, weighing approximately 3-4 g each as wet sediment, were treated with 100 mL of  
321 10% KOH solution, and heated at 60°C on a hotplate for at least 45 minutes. Sieving of the  
322 sub-sample mixture was carried out through a 38 µm mesh. More than 200 identifiable  
323 cladoceran remains were enumerated at 400 x magnification from each subsample. Numbers  
324 were converted to individuals per g dry weight of sediment, followed by the calculation of  
325 relative proportion of the remains present in the sample (Kattel et al., 2008). Cladoceran taxa  
326 were identified following the procedures suggested by Frey (1986), Shiel and Dickson  
327 (1995), Zhu et al. (2005) and Szeroczyńska and Sarmaja-Korjonen (2007).

328

## 329 **4.2 Dating**

330

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

335 The sediment samples from Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes were dated using  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  
336  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  by non-destructive gamma spectrometry laboratory at the State Key Laboratory of Lake  
337 Science and Environment, NIGLAS. The activities of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in samples were  
338 determined by counting with an Ortec HPGe GWL series well-type coaxial low background

339 intrinsic germanium detector. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was used to identify the peak that indicated use of the  
340 1963 nuclear bomb. This evidence was then used for developing a constant rate of supply  
341 (CRS) model to calculate  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  chronology for the core. The important dates relevant to  
342 hydrological changes were indicated in the stratigraphy.

343

### 344 **4.3 Numerical analyses**

345

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

354

## 355 **5 Results**

356

### 357 **5.1 Diversity of subfossil cladocerans (water fleas) in Murray and Yangtze River** 358 **wetlands**

359

360 The species richness (species count) of subfossil cladocerans was higher in the Murray River  
361 wetland than in the Yangtze River wetlands. More than 40 species of subfossil cladoceran  
362 were recorded from Kings Billabong, while core samples from Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi  
363 Lake had only 36 and 20 species, respectively. The most commonly recorded cladoceran taxa

364 in Kings Billabong were *Bosmina meridionalis*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Biapertura setigera*,  
365 *Dunhevedia crassa*, *Biapertura affinis* and *Alona guttata* (Fig. 4) while the most commonly  
366 recorded taxa in Zhangdu Lake were, *Bosmina*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina*,  
367 and in the Liangzi Lake, *Bosmina*, *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula* and  
368 *Chydorus sphaericus* (Figs. 5 & 6).

369 The species diversity test of cladoceran counts over time by using the Hill's N2 diversity  
370 index reflected a small change in both river systems. The Hill's N2 diversity index assumes  
371 that the number of species in an ecosystem is uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973). In Kings  
372 Billabong, the N2 diversity index was low during the 1900s. However, prior to human  
373 disturbance of the river (c. 1870s), as well as in c. 1960s, the N2 diversity index was  
374 relatively high (Figure 5).

375 In Zhangdu Lake, the N2 diversity index prior to the construction of the dam (c. 1881-  
376 1954) was low compared to the post-dam construction period, during which time the taxa  
377 preferring disturbed environment increased (Fig. 5). Similarly, the N2 diversity index of  
378 Liangzi Lake during the earlier period (c. 1900-1930) was lower than post dam construction  
379 period in the Yangtze River (Fig. 6). Differences in responses of cladoceran diversity to  
380 regulation in Murray and Yangtze rivers as shown by the N2 diversity index suggest some  
381 degree of variations in disturbances between the Murray and Yangtze River systems. Unlike  
382 the occurrence of more severe and frequent disturbances in Kings Billabong following the  
383 arrival of early European immigrants, gradual and intermediate frequencies of disturbance in  
384 Yangtze River wetlands may have resulted in the increased species diversity of cladocerans  
385 following regulation similar to the condition described by the intermediate disturbance  
386 hypothesis model (Townsend and Scarsbrook, 1997).

387

## 388 5.2 Cladoceran responses to ecological and hydrological changes of Murray and 389 Yangtze River wetlands

390

### 391 5.2.1 Kings Billabong

392

393 The subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Kings Billabong showed four distinct changes in  
394 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 (Zone I). This period experienced a relatively low abundance of the planktonic species  
397 *Bosmina meridionalis* (Fig. 4). However, total littoral cladocerans gradually declined, while  
398 small littoral species such as *Alona guttata* became abundant during the period 1890 to 1950  
399 (Zone II). During this time, an increasing density of planktonic *B. meridionalis* contributed to  
400 total planktonic cladocerans. Some *Daphnia* records (1950s-1970s) were also retrieved, and  
401 coincided with the timing of the 1956 flood in the River Murray (Zone III) (Fig. 4).  
402 Although total littoral cladocerans declined, some littoral species such as *Alona guttata* and  
403 *A. quadrangularis* were still abundant during this time. However, in the 1970s-2000s,  
404 planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata*, *Biapertura longispina*, *A. quadrangularis*  
405 and *Chydorus sphaericus* dominated, while the littoral *D. crassa* declined significantly. In the  
406 meantime, the frequency and density of cladoceran resting eggs also increased in the  
407 sediment (Fig. 4).

408 In Kings Billabong, the L:P ratios of cladocerans began to decline rapidly from about  
409 75 cm depth (c.1930s) (Fig. 4). The subfossil assemblages of littoral and planktonic  
410 cladocerans responded to hydrological changes of the Murray River, together with  
411 subsequent changes of water level of Kings Billabong. The construction of Lock 11 in the  
412 Murray River near Mildura led to permanent inundation of Kings Billabong during the

413 1920s-1930s, the time of major hydrological shift (Fig. 4). Because of the expansion of the  
414 pelagic habitat in Kings Billabong, the assemblage of subfossil *Bosmina* increased (Fig. 4).  
415 Although the billabong was inundated, there was sustained increase in the abundance of some  
416 littoral cladocerans including *Alona guttata*, *Alona quadrangularis* and *Biapertura*  
417 *longispina*. Following the hydrological shift, Kings Billabong began to respond to this change  
418 with declining water quality. For example, littoral cladocerans such as *A. guttata* and *A.*  
419 *quadrangularis*, which prefer poor water conditions, were sustained together with *B.*  
420 *meridionalis*. However, the assemblage of the dominant littoral cladoceran, *Dunhevedia*  
421 *crassa*, which prefers clean water conditions, significantly declined following the  
422 hydrological shift, from pre-regulated, variable water levels to post-regulated, constant  
423 inundation, in Kings Billabong, due to the imposition of river regulation in 1927 (Fig. 4).

424

### 425 **5.2.2 Zhangdu Lake**

426

427 Three distinct ecosystem changes were observed in Zhangdu Lake, based on the subfossil  
428 assemblage of cladocerans from lake sediment. Planktonic cladocerans dominated the period  
429 c. 1880s-1960s (Zone I), when the planktonic *Bosmina* sp. was the most dominant species.  
430 During this time, the abundance of total littoral cladocerans declined, when only a few  
431 species, including those that characteristically occupy both littoral and planktonic habitats,  
432 such as *Chydorus sphaericus*, were present (Fig. 5). However, the major hydrological shift  
433 occurred during the c. 1960s-1980s (Zone II). Following the construction of dams across the  
434 Yangtze River channels (c. 1950s), sediments deposited in the dam contained increasing  
435 numbers of remains of the littoral cladocerans, where by some of the common species of  
436 cladocerans such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*, *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus*  
437 *sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* were gradually becoming

438 dominant (Fig. 5). The abundance of littoral cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *Alona*  
439 *intermedia*, *Alona affinis*, *Kurzia lattissima*, *Leydigia leydigi*, *A. guttata*, *Camptocercus*  
440 *rectirostris* and *Disparalona rostrata* increased further during the c. 1990s-2000s (Zone III)  
441 indicating a significant change in the system. In addition, the concentration of the cladoceran  
442 resting eggs increased during this time (Fig. 5).

443 In the Zhangdu Lake, increased diversion of the water from the Yangtze River, during  
444 the 1960s-70s because of the construction of dams, led to significant decline in water level.  
445 This resulted in a decrease of water depth around the lake margins, consequently providing  
446 suitable conditions for the increased growth of littoral vegetation and associated habitat for  
447 cladocerans. In response, the abundance of littoral cladocerans, including *Alona affinis*, *Alona*  
448 *guttata*, *Alona intermedia*, *Camptocercus rectirostris*, *Kurzia latissima* and *Leydigia leydigi*,  
449 increased with high L:P ratios (Fig. 5). Smaller *Alona* such as *A. guttata*, *A. rectangula* and *A.*  
450 *intermedia* showed a distinct presence during this time (Fig. 5).

451

### 452 **5.2.3 Liangzi Lake**

453

454 Four distinct ecosystem changes were observed in Liangzi Lake, based on the subfossil  
455 assemblage of cladocerans retrieved from lake sediments. Prior to 1900 (Zone I), the total  
456 abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* was high. In the c. 1900s-1920s (Zone II), the relative  
457 abundance of *Bosmina* began to decline, while the abundance of littoral species increased.  
458 The dominant species during this time were *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona rectangula*,  
459 *Camptocercus rectirostris* and *Dunhevedia crassa* (Fig. 6). During the c. 1930s-1950s (Zone  
460 III), the relative abundance of *Bosmina* was relatively constant, but the abundance of littoral  
461 species continued to increase. Four dominant species were found in this community; *Alona*  
462 *rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*.

463 During the c. 1960s-2000s, the period of major dam construction in the Yangtze, the total  
464 abundance of *Bosmina* increased, particularly in the early 2000s, and four species of littoral  
465 species, *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*, *Chydorus sphaericus* and *Sida crystallina* also  
466 became dominant throughout this period (Fig. 6).

467

## 468 **6 Discussion**

469

### 470 **6.1 Shifts in hydrology and its implications for ecosystem functioning of wetlands within** 471 **the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands**

472

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

485 Wetlands losing hydrological connections with the river result in divergence of aquatic  
486 micro- and macro-invertebrate assemblages (Qin et al., 2009). The disruptions in the natural  
487 variability and connectivity of hydrological regimes, due to river-flow regulation, have

488 consequently reduced ecological integrity, resulting in reduced invertebrate diversity  
489 (Sheldon et al., 2002). The downstream impacts of low flows in the River Murray were  
490 visible mainly following the construction of Hume Dam in 1936, but at present, average  
491 monthly and annual flows are still considerably lower than those of natural conditions in the  
492 past (Maheshwari et al., 1995). The study of natural flow regimes in the Murray River  
493 suggests that the strength of average annual floods (annual exceedance probability 50%) has  
494 reduced by over 50% at all stations. The effects of large floods with an average recurrence  
495 interval of 20 years or more, are, however, relatively low (Maheshwari et al., 1995). The  
496 number of low flows defined by a given annual non-exceedance probability, are higher under  
497 regulated conditions than under natural conditions (Maheshwari et al., 1995). The  
498 implications of these changes are not only for communities of native plants and animals in  
499 both riverine and floodplain environments, but also for the long-term use of the riverine  
500 resources by humans (Maheshwari et al., 1995). Rivers and their associated wetlands  
501 exchange particulate and dissolved organic matter, including suspended sediments, nutrients,  
502 and algal biomasses (Tockner et al., 1999). These nutrients are fundamental for the support of  
503 ecosystem structure and function in riverine food webs (Bunn and Arthington, 2002). The  
504 current flow regimes also determine which physical habitats are available for all aquatic  
505 species that have evolved life history strategies primarily in direct response to natural flow  
506 regimes (Bedford, 1996).

507         Permanent inundation of wetlands occurred in many areas across the Lower Murray  
508 River in response to the 1914 Commonwealth Act. This legislation enforced a requirement to  
509 manage the Murray River's water by the construction of locks, weirs, and water storage  
510 areas. Construction of the Mildura Weir (Lock 11), which began in August 1923, resulted in  
511 an increased water level in Kings Billabong by the time construction was completed in 1927.  
512 These long periods of water storage in Kings Billabong are thought to have increased

513 stagnation, nutrient levels, and primary productivity, subsequently impacting the higher  
514 trophic levels around the billabong (Kattel et al., 2015). Some have argued that the high  
515 nutrient input in the river system, combined with relatively long water residence times in  
516 water storages, supports phytoplankton growth and a tendency towards eutrophication (e.g.  
517 Tockner et al., 1999; Chaparro et al., 2015).

518 In the Yangtze River, construction of many dams and water impoundments has  
519 significantly altered downstream hydrological regimes, which have directly affected the  
520 relationship between the Yangtze River and its river channels and floodplain wetlands,  
521 including the Zhangdu Lake (e.g. Yang et al., 2011a, b). The construction of dams throughout  
522 this catchment has caused changes in channel morphology and sedimentology, with a  
523 concomitant drastic decline in sediment transportation and severe channel erosion in  
524 connections to lakes. From the monitoring of stream cross-sections, changes to river channels  
525 are evident, including the reduction of water level within wetlands (Yang et al., 2011a, b).  
526 These have inevitably induced alterations in inundation patterns of the wetlands, resulting in  
527 changes to ecosystem structure and function, which in turn have disturbed the habitats of  
528 biota (Maheshwari et al., 1995; Sun et al., 2012). As a consequence of a rapid expansion of  
529 human activity in the watershed during the 1960s, significant changes at the base of the food  
530 web in Zhangdu Lake have been observed in the subfossil composition of testate amoeba  
531 communities. For instance, the characteristic oligotrophic, lake-dwelling species (e.g.  
532 *Diffflugia biwae*) have been replaced by eutrophic species (e.g. *Diffflugia oblonga*) (Qin et al.,  
533 2009).

534

## 535 **6.2 Cladoceran-inferred responses to hydrological shifts in Murray and Yangtze River** 536 **wetlands**

537

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

544 The Hill's N2 diversity index assumes that the number of species in an ecosystem is  
545 uniformly distributed (Hill, 1973). Following this advice, we assumed that the distribution of  
546 cladoceran species along the temporal scale of Murray and Yangtze River wetlands should  
547 also have been uniform. However, the N2 diversity index of cladocerans in Kings Billabong  
548 and Yangtze River wetlands was found to be non-uniform across our measurement period,  
549 and, in addition, they showed different trends. Following similar regulation and construction  
550 of dams in the two sites, the N2 diversity index decreased in Kings Billabong, whereas the  
551 N2 index in Yangtze River wetlands increased. We argue that the observed disturbances in  
552 each site were due to quite different impacts of regulation. In Kings Billabong, the  
553 disturbance appeared to be severe following the arrival of Europeans, whereas the  
554 disturbance in Yangtze River wetlands occurred over a longer time scale, and could be  
555 characterised as an intermediate frequencies of disturbance (Collins and Glenn, 1997).  
556 Indeed, records indicate that the early European immigrants in Australia transformed the  
557 landscapes quickly, which had severe impacts on Kings Billabong cladocerans. However,  
558 unlike Kings Billabong, the Yangtze River wetlands did not experience such a severe  
559 disturbance, and as the intermediate disturbance hypothesis model suggests, the diversity  
560 index increased following the disturbance (Townsend and Scarsbrook, 1997) indicating the  
561 intermediate frequencies of disturbance in cladoceran diversity of the Zhangdu and Liangzi  
562 lakes.

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

569        The species such as *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*, are adapted to  
570 submerged vegetation and their decline in abundance indicates a reduction of suitable habitat,  
571 such as decreased water quality. The increase in the abundance of lentic species, such as  
572 *Bosmina meridionalis*, demonstrates a switch from the prior ephemeral state to one of more  
573 or less constant inundation. Although drought had little or no impact on the water nutrient  
574 levels in Kings Billabong following regulation, by contrast, large-scale flood events such as  
575 in 1956, may have significantly increased nutrient input in the water column. The apparent  
576 result was to increase the population of *Bosmina*, as well as littoral species (e.g. *A. guttata*)  
577 that prefer enriched nutrient environments (Hofmann, 1996). Turbidity from suspended  
578 sediment during flood events also limits growth of submerged vegetation, due to a reduction  
579 of light penetration. By the early 2000s, planktonic *B. meridionalis* and littoral *A. guttata* and  
580 *Biapertura longispina* were the dominant species. The high density of cladoceran ephippia  
581 retrieved from the wetland sediment also indicates “stress” among the cladoceran community  
582 during the prevailing conditions of post- regulation period in the Murray River system  
583 (Nevalainen et al., 2011). The low abundance of *D. crassa* following river regulation reflects  
584 the impact of river regulation on the aquatic ecosystem, with degraded water quality and  
585 reduced resilience in the wetland community. In shallow lakes, a consequence of human-  
586 induced actions is the tendency towards a regime shift, followed by poor ecological resilience

587 (Folke et al. 2004). The loss of functional group species and consequent reduced species  
588 diversity may lead to a loss of whole trophic levels or ‘top-down effects’ (Folke et al., 2004).

589 The Zhangdu Lake aquatic community responded to downstream water shortages in the  
590 river channel connecting to the lake, as revealed by low lake levels following the construction  
591 of dams and reservoirs for water conservation in the 1950s-1970s. Subsequent to river  
592 regulation during the 1950s, hydrological alterations of the river channel and changes to the  
593 water level of Zhangdu Lake, increased the growth of littoral plants. This also resulted in  
594 increased abundance of littoral cladoceran species, such as *Acroperus harpae*, *Alona guttata*,  
595 *Alona rectangula*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Sida crystallina* (Fig.  
596 5). Although the abundance of littoral species in the lake indicated increased growth of  
597 submerged vegetation, the condition of the wetland ecosystem following regulation was poor.  
598 The clear water regime, present prior to regulation, gradually transformed to a eutrophic state  
599 following the construction of dams. Many small cladocerans recorded in Zhangdu Lake  
600 following the work of the 1950s, are typically associated with still (lotic) water, eutrophic and  
601 poor water quality conditions, and have been found in similar disturbed habitats elsewhere.  
602 For example, in Europe, cladoceran species such as *A. harpae*, *C. sphaericus* and *S.*  
603 *crystallina* have a characteristic affiliation with lotic environments (Nevalainen, 2011). In  
604 addition, in Tibet, *Chydorus sphaericus* has been found to be adapted to wide range of  
605 environmental gradients, while *Alona affinis* and *Acroperus harpae* colonize dense aquatic  
606 macrophytes, and *Graptoleberis testudinaria* and *Eurycercus lamellatus* are adapted to  
607 shallow littoral environments, with a preference for debris-rich substrates (Liping et al.,  
608 2005).

609 Eutrophication in Zhangdu Lake, due to hydrological changes of the wetland, was also  
610 indicated by the presence of testate amoeba (Qin et al., 2009). Our results strongly suggest  
611 that hydrological alterations of rivers and wetlands can result in eutrophication and lead to an

612 increased abundance of smaller size littoral cladocerans. The low level of floods could reduce  
613 water level, increase telematic plant growth, and decrease the redox condition of the wetland  
614 resulting in the variation in growth, metabolism and reproduction of such cladocerans  
615 (Pawlowski et al., 2015). The shallow littoral environment provides habitats for different fish  
616 species, and may increase the predator-prey interactions (Pawlowski et al., 2015). Following  
617 regulation, the large number of cladocearn ehippia recorded in the sediment in Zhangdu  
618 Lake (which is found in the lower Yangtze), also indicates the decline in lake levels and the  
619 loss of lentic habitats, which leads to reduced feeding habitats and reproductive output or an  
620 increased ecological stress among the cladoceran community, particularly during the c.  
621 1990s-2000s. In Europe, increases in sedimentary resting eggs of cladocerans are reported to  
622 be associated with major environmental transitions; for example, climate change (e.g.  
623 Pleistocene-early Holocene), timing of strong predator-prey interactions (e.g. fish predation  
624 pressure), and increased human impact in the catchment (e.g. unprecedented release of  
625 chemicals) (e.g. Sarmaja-Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

626 The response of the subfossil assemblage of cladocerans in Liangzi Lake to  
627 hydrological change in the Yangtze River during the 1950s was difficult to establish. This  
628 could be due to the permanent inflow to this lake from the Yangtze River. The higher  
629 abundance of *Bosmina* prior to 1900s indicate that the lake was kept at a certain water level,  
630 and much of the trophic materials contained in the surface water met the demands of  
631 planktonic cladocerans (e.g. Liping et al., 2005). However, the abundance of littoral species  
632 *Alona rectangularis*, *Chydorus sphaericus*, *Dunhevedia crassa* and *Graptoleberis testudinaria*  
633 during the 1950s are indicative of decreasing depth. During the 1990s to the 2000s, Liangzi  
634 Lake was impacted by intensive agriculture practices in the catchment and nutrient inputs  
635 into the wetland, as indicated by an increased abundance of planktonic *Bosmina* (Lipping et  
636 al., 2005). In 1992, the local government restricted aquaculture to the western part of the

637 Liangzi Lake, since this activity was affecting water quality throughout the entire lake (Xie et  
638 al., 2001). This problem had been detected from ecological stress responses of cladocerans,  
639 as revealed by an increased density of resting eggs in the sediment, as well as an increased  
640 abundance of *Bosmina* and the chydorid species such as *Alona guttata*, *Alona intermedia*,  
641 *Chydorus sphaericus*, since these are all found in nutrient-rich environments (e.g. Sarmaja-  
642 Korjonen, 2003; Nevalainen et al., 2011).

643 All three of these wetlands appear to exhibit characteristic traits of hydrologically  
644 triggered ecosystem changes, as revealed by subfossil cladoceran assemblages, since each has  
645 tended to undergo regime shifts during recent decades. Furthermore, species richness in each  
646 is indicative of reduced water quality. Hydrology strongly drives the community composition  
647 of phyto- and zooplankton, relevant nutritional resources, and habitat characteristics, mainly  
648 via input of N and P from the eutrophic main channels during flood events (Van den et al.,  
649 1994; Nevalainen, 2011). The phenomena observed in the dynamics of physical and  
650 biological assemblages, and the diversity of cladoceran zooplankton, in Kings Billabong and  
651 Zhangdu Lake, for example, have shown tendency of existing in alternative stable states  
652 resulting from switching of ecosystems, irrespective of inundation (Kings Billabong) or  
653 dehydration (Zhangdu Lake).

654 The alternative 'stable states phenomena' in shallow lakes and wetlands have been  
655 widely viewed as indicative of changes to resilience of ecosystems (Scheffer and Jeppesen,  
656 2007). Such phenomena have shown the condition of wetlands to vary from a relatively good  
657 water quality, vegetation-rich state to a poor, turbid water state, which is usually less  
658 desirable to society (Folke et al., 2004). Positive feedback associated with the condition of  
659 increased water quality, species richness and population dynamics of *D. crassa* in Kings  
660 Billabong prior to 1900 is characteristic of a resilient ecosystem (e.g. Suding et al., 2004).  
661 By contrast, an open water habitat, which may be characteristic of a longer flood duration

662 following regulation, leads to negative feedback, which is turbid and less resilient (e.g.  
663 Suding et al., 2004). Similarly, in Zhangdu and Liangzi Lakes, an increased abundance of  
664 smaller, mud-dwelling cladoceran species such as small *Alona* sp. and *Leydigia leydigi*, as  
665 well as presence of other meso-eutrophic species, *Chydorus* and *Bosmina* following  
666 regulation, is indicative of increased eutrophication (Hofmann, 1996) caused by alteration of  
667 flow regime and dehydration of wetlands.

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

685 The ecosystems of both Murray and Yangtze rivers are affected by a range of drivers.  
686 The cumulative stressors upon these wetlands are nutrient enrichments from agricultural

687 catchments, heavy metal release from industries (mainly in Yangtze wetlands) and climate  
688 change (flooding and drought episodes). Increased nitrogen deposition has been reported to  
689 have a great effect on diversity and ecosystem functioning of wetlands, leading to collapse of  
690 food chain and ecosystems (Hooper et al., 2012). This collapse may lead to crises to higher  
691 trophic levels including the humans, with conflicting demands placed on natural resources  
692 and increasingly poor public health of the local community (Kattel et al., 2013). The  
693 participatory approach of river basin management can help increase resilience of wetland  
694 ecosystems and goods and services to society (Vörösmarty et al., 2010). Joint action by  
695 various stakeholders including ecologists, resource managers and decision makers can be  
696 useful to achieve management goals for natural resources (Biswas, 2004; Carpenter et al.,  
697 2009, Liu et al., 2014). Such an adaptive management approach for water resources is  
698 increasingly appropriate for maintaining ecosystem services of large river basins (e.g. Richter  
699 et al., 2003).

700

### 701 **6.3 Development of an adaptive water resource management framework for Murray** 702 **and Yangtze River wetlands**

703

704 Water problems in large river basins are increasingly interconnected with multi-sector  
705 developments such as agriculture, energy, industry, transportation and communication.  
706 Several authors (Walker et al., 1995; Kingsford et al., 2000; Fu et al., 2003) suggest that  
707 maintaining ecosystem health of wetlands associated with large river basins, requires a new  
708 paradigm in water management. Today, the wetlands of both the Murray and Yangtze River  
709 basins have faced greater challenges from hydrological modification, water shortage and  
710 eutrophication than at any time before (Yang et al., 2006; Shen, 2010; Gell and Reid, 2014).  
711 There are growing concerns about the uncertainties of climate change and socio-economic

712 impacts on these river basins (Palmer et al., 2000). For example, due to rapid decline in water  
713 quality, biodiversity and ecological characters of the lower Yangtze River, this region has  
714 already been declared as the ecosystem of “lost resilience” (Zhang et al., 2015). A  
715 comprehensive synthesis by Varis and Vakkilainen (2001) suggests that following the 1970s,  
716 China’s environmental pressures have surpassed the carrying capacity of the ecosystem,  
717 resulting in greater challenges for water resource management in the Yangtze and many other  
718 river basins. Similarly, a rapidly declining trend of biological diversity and ecosystem states  
719 of the Murray River basin has also been widely reported following the 1950s (Kingsford et  
720 al., 2000). For example, more than 80% of wetlands in the Lower Murray River reaches  
721 (Australia) have undergone a significant decline in flow regimes and ecosystem health, due to  
722 rapid rates of sedimentation, turbidity and loss of macrophytes (e.g. Mosley et al., 2012; Gell  
723 and Reid, 2014). Additionally, the wetlands of both large river basins have experienced  
724 substantial loss of ecosystem services, and increased river regulation during the 20<sup>th</sup> century.  
725 With increasing demand for water, food, fibre, minerals, and energy in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, these  
726 pressures have degraded conditions of these natural resources even further (e.g. Davis et al.,  
727 2015). Solutions for water issues are not possible without a joint effort by the various  
728 stakeholders involved in understanding the complexity of water management in large river  
729 basins (e.g. Biswas, 2004). It has been envisaged that the current management framework  
730 needs to be revitalized to resolve growing issues of wetland management and maintenance of  
731 associated ecosystem services, including the quantity and quality of water in both river  
732 basins.

733 Adoption of an Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM) framework has been  
734 increasingly useful to resolve issues of quantity and quality of water worldwide. The IWRM  
735 promotes water management by maximizing relevant economic and social welfare in an  
736 equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems (Biswas,

737 2004). Over the past decades, the IWRM approach has been constantly modified as per the  
738 societal needs of local water management. On this basis, we have proposed the development  
739 of an adaptive water resource management framework for wetlands of these two large,  
740 hydrologically-transformed river basins in Australia and China (Fig. 7). This consideration  
741 has been taken into account on the basis of eco-hydrological evolution of wetlands inferred  
742 by subfossil cladoceran assemblages and diversity (Figs. 4 & 5). These changes have been  
743 profoundly implicated by socio-economic developments in both river basins over the past  
744 century. The proposed adaptive water resource management framework (Fig. 7) is integrated  
745 and multi-disciplinary in nature. It is intended to improve management and to accommodate  
746 change by learning from the outcomes of management (restoration) policies and practices, as  
747 described by Holling, (1978) initially, and debated extensively by Jakeman and Letcher,  
748 (2003), Macleod et al. (2007) and Pahl-Wostl (2007). Such a management framework has  
749 been facilitated by dialogue between scientists, stakeholders and policy makers, and can be  
750 expected to result in highly positive outcomes in management (Falkenmark, 2004).

751 In the framework (Fig. 7), we consider that both the quantity and quality of water  
752 determines the resilience of the wetland ecosystems of the Murray and Yangtze Rivers. Prior  
753 to regulation, these wetlands were maintained by sustainable flow regimes with improved  
754 water quality and reasonably good ecological health at baseline conditions. The natural flood  
755 inundations maintained the amount of water, nutrients, carbon and salts in wetlands  
756 supporting biological diversity, ecosystem functioning and associated goods and services  
757 (Junk et al. 1989, Thorp and Delong 1994; Humphries et al. 1999; King et al. 2003). This  
758 evidence is also supported by various eco-hydrological models being developed and tested  
759 previously to measure flow regimes and ecosystems of the large river wetlands worldwide  
760 (Vannote et al. 1980; Naiman et al. 1987; Thoms and Sheldon, 2000).

761 The use of palaeoecological approach in our study provides the 1950s as a benchmark  
762 of change in flow regime and ecosystem of the Murray and Yangtze River wetlands (Fig. 7).  
763 Following river regulation (post 1950s), both the quantity and quality of water in the Murray  
764 and Yangtze river wetlands had been significantly altered, reaching a critically low level of  
765 flow and ecosystem health by the 2000s (Fig. 7). The condition of and changes in flow  
766 regime in the Murray River basin was reported by Maheshwari et al. (1995), where the  
767 average monthly and annual flows were considerably lower than those of natural conditions  
768 prior to regulation. We argue that the 2000s was the critical level of threshold for quality and  
769 quantity of water in wetlands of both river basins, and all available restoration measures  
770 should be adopted to avoid further decline in conditions in these wetlands.

771 In our adaptive water resource management framework (Fig. 7), we have proposed the  
772 role of three pillars: science, engineering and community engagement when restoring the  
773 degraded wetlands of these two large river basins of Australia and China. River regulation,  
774 including widespread infrastructure developments across the river basins, has consistently  
775 modified natural hydraulic residence time, leading to changes in diversity and associated  
776 ecosystem structure and function of wetlands. For example, construction of Hume Dam in the  
777 1930s in Murray River, and several large dams, including the Three Gorges Dam (TGD)  
778 since the 1950s in Yangtze River, will have long-lasting effects on downstream flow regimes,  
779 as well as wetland ecosystem structure and function (Pittock and Finlayson, 2011; Wu et al.,  
780 2003). Whilst these infrastructures are already in place, strong scientific evidence including  
781 the understanding of the alteration of historical ecology and hydrology is potentially powerful  
782 tool to unravel the benchmark of the eco-hydrologic conditions of the Murray and Yangtze  
783 River wetlands over time. For example, the use of stable isotopes of carbon in subfossil  
784 cladocerans and chironomids in Kings Billabong indicated the shift in carbon energy source  
785 following the river regulation (Kattel et al., 2015). As this evidence is significant for

786 understanding wetland ecology, the assessment of past moisture regimes based on various  
787 stable isotopes (e.g. oxygen) in water and organisms would be increasingly crucial to identify  
788 the source of water for wetlands and the condition of critical water shortages. Benchmarks  
789 are important for the development of predictive models on wetland restoration programs by  
790 understanding the change of quantity and quality of water over time. Such predictive models  
791 can also identify early warning signals of regime shift in wetlands (Wang et al., 2012).  
792 Resource managers can target restoration measures on the basis of benchmark conditions so  
793 that the investment will not be wasted on restoration of wetlands that would not result in  
794 improved values. Zweig and Kitchens (2009) suggest that the predictive hydrologic models  
795 can be the foundation for restoration programs of degraded wetlands, since these models can  
796 successfully identify the hydrologic effects on the state of transitioning ecosystems.

797 Secondly, innovative and environmentally-friendly infrastructure development and  
798 operation have been proposed in water restoration programs, and there is an increased  
799 demand of efficient infrastructure development for the wetlands of Murray and Yangtze  
800 River basins (e.g. Fu et al., 2010). One of fundamental issues of the integrated water resource  
801 management program is to meet balanced water allocations between industry and  
802 environment (Poff et al., 2003; Biswas, 2004). Due to the overwhelming industrial demand  
803 for water in recent decades, economists have developed efficient environmental water  
804 allocation schemes for various river basins including the Murray and Yangtze (e.g. Lee and  
805 Ancev, 2009; Jiang, 2009). The proposed adaptive water resource management framework  
806 (Fig. 7) highlights the role of institutional capacities and development of efficient water  
807 allocation infrastructures (e.g. Yu et al., 2009). Consideration of efficient infrastructures for  
808 consumptive water uses and environmental water allocation for ecosystem function of large  
809 river basins is crucial for wetland restoration measures and sustainability of ecosystem  
810 services (e.g. Grafton et al., 2013).

811 Finally, the need for strong linkages between scientific community and management  
812 stakeholders is essential in order to achieve the goal of wetland ecosystem management and  
813 restoration (e.g. Pittock and Finlayson, 2011, Liu et al., 2014). Any decision making should  
814 be based on the need of the local community and mutual understanding among scientists,  
815 resource managers and community leaders (Poff et al., 2003). The successful outcomes of  
816 water resource management in river basins would be possible if the community is engaged  
817 with all aspects of environmental hydrology, ecology and water resource management  
818 programs including both structural (e.g. hydropower dams) and non-structural infrastructure  
819 developments (e.g. awareness in adaptation to change), as well as water saving (e.g. Shen,  
820 2010). The proposed adaptive water resource management framework (Fig. 7) is expected to  
821 enhance wetland resilience by improving both water quality and quantity, including  
822 ecosystem function, consequently assisting the basin-wide management of food and water  
823 security issues through extensive community participation. For example, the WWF-supported  
824 partnership program, together with government agencies and local communities, was highly  
825 successful for improving water resources, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the  
826 Yangtze River Basin. Under this type of management program and in partnership with local  
827 people, the three Yangtze lakes (Zhangdu, Hong and Tian-e-zhou), which were disconnected  
828 from the main channel during the 1950s-1970s, have now been recharged by opening of  
829 sluice gates (Yu et al., 2009). The recharging of Zhangdu Lake has not only enhanced  
830 resilience of the lake environment to climate change and but also livelihoods of the local  
831 people (Yu et al., 2009). Recently, the role of community participation in water resource  
832 management has also been reported significant in some wetlands of the Murray Darling  
833 Basin. For example, the living Murray project initiated by the Murray Darling Basin  
834 Authority with the view of increased indigenous community engagement has led to  
835 improvements in the ecological health of the Barmah–Millewa floodplain wetlands

836 supporting large bird breeding events (MDBA, 2014). This kind of success has also been  
837 revealed by the coupled socio-hydrologic models showing strong association between the  
838 trajectory of human-water co-evolution and associated goods and services in the  
839 Murrumbidgee River basin (one of sub-basins of the River Murray) (Kandasamy et al., 2014).

840

## 841 **7 Conclusions**

842

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

858

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860

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874

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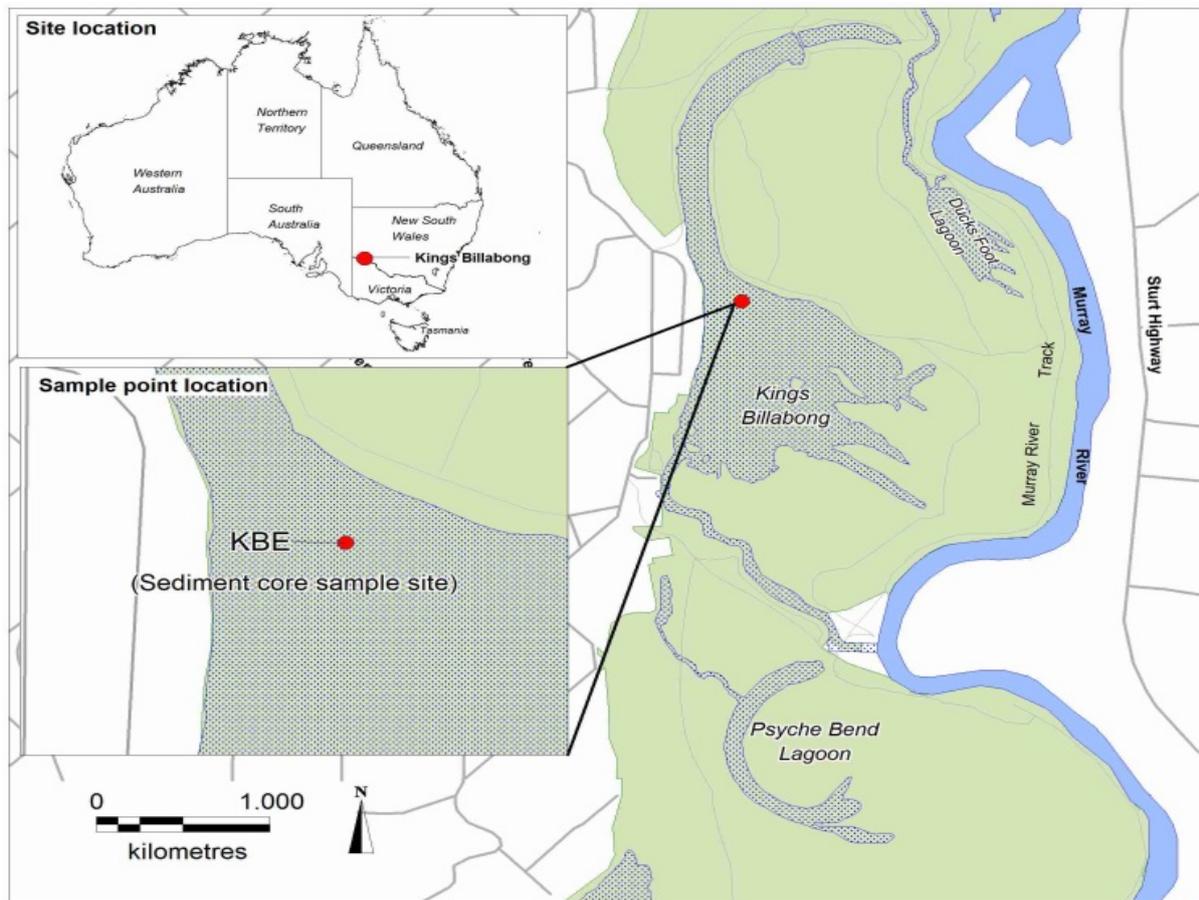
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1190 Figure 1. Kings Billabong, one of the wetland complexes of the River Murray system in  
1191 Southeast Australia. KBE was the deepest point of the lake, where a sediment core for this  
1192 study was taken.

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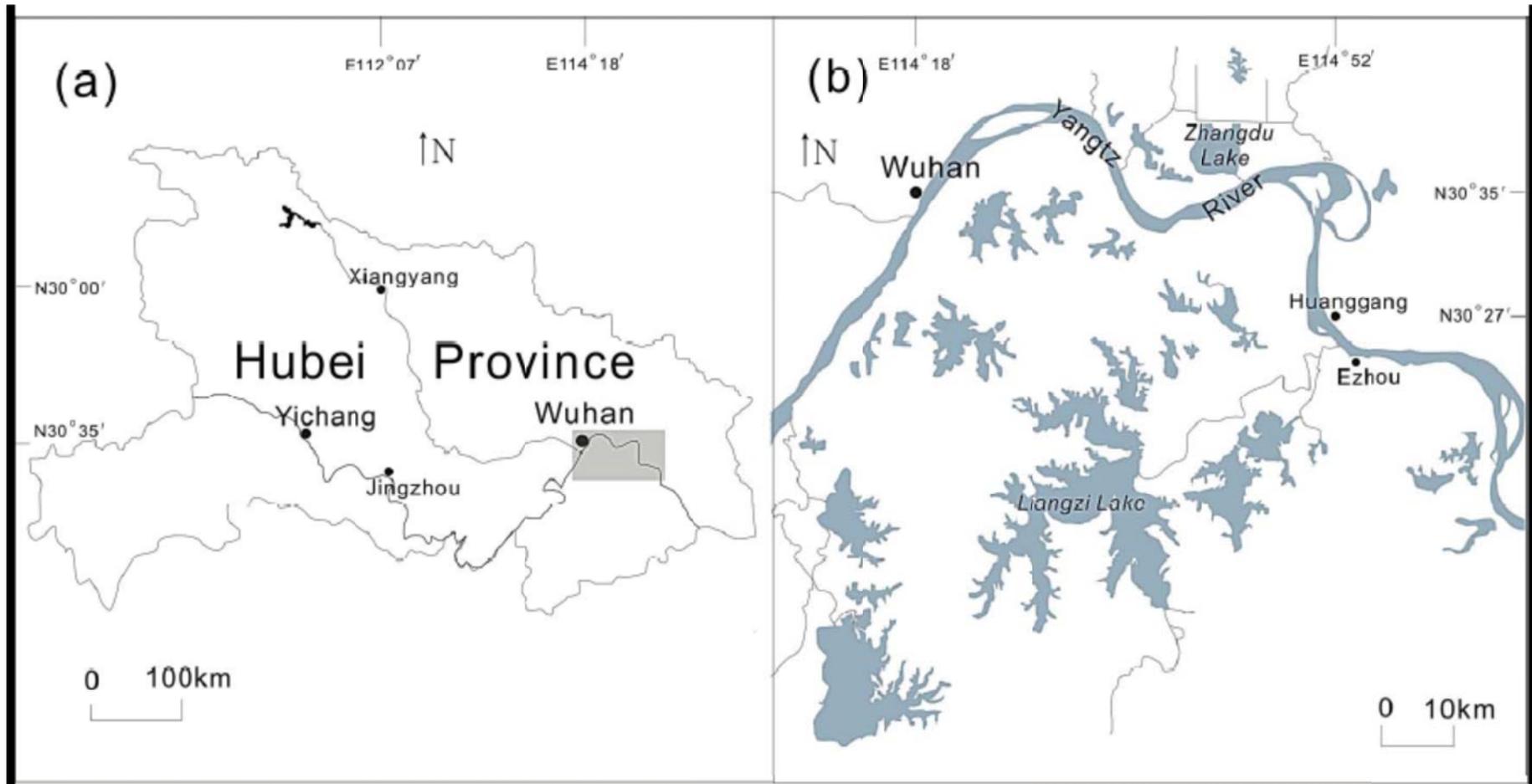


Figure 2. Zhangdu Lake and Liangzi Lake around the middle reaches of the Yangtze River in Hubei Province of China.

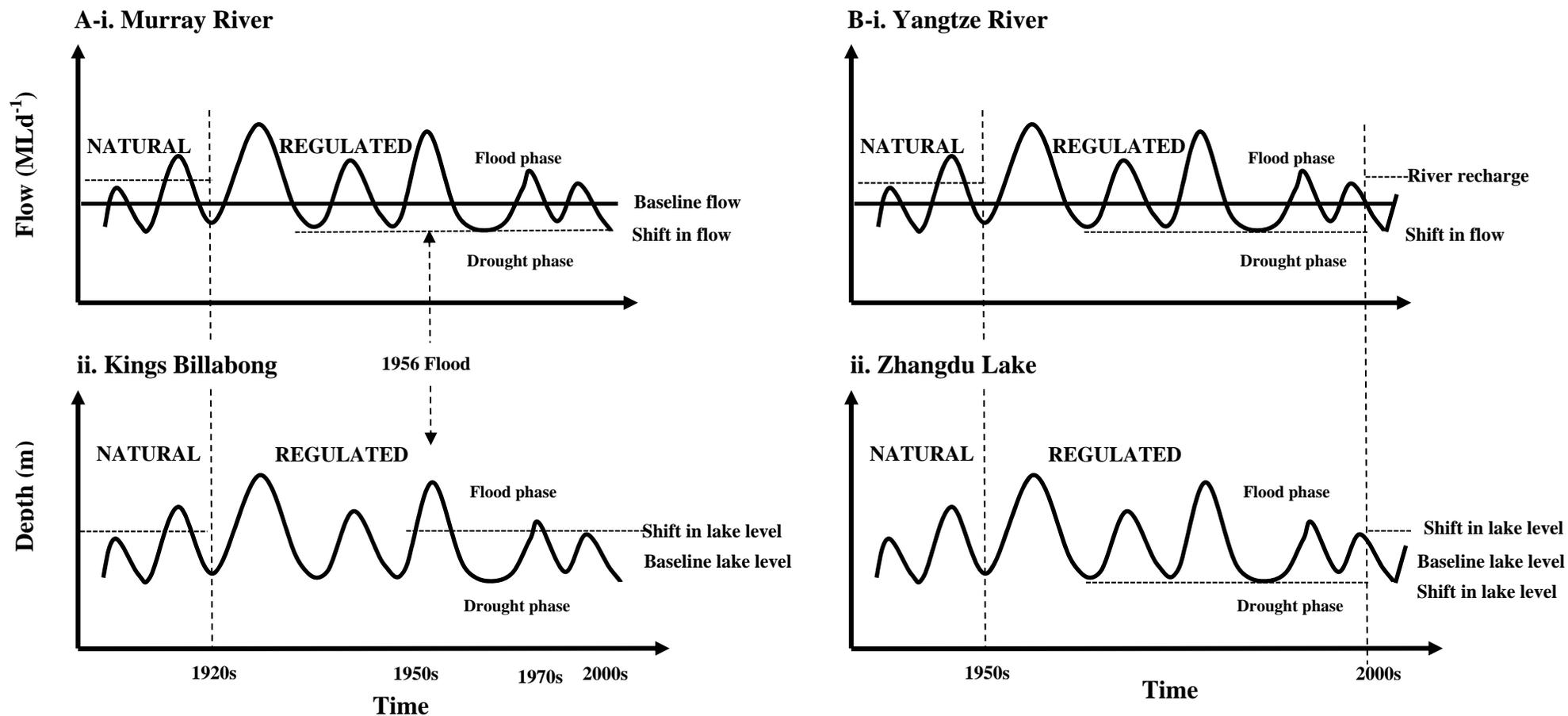


Figure 3. Hydrological frameworks of Murray and Yangtze rivers. A. i & ii. River Murray: regulation was imposed by humans in the 1920s AD, which resulted in low water volume in the down-stream river channels, but Kings Billabong's conversion to a water storage tank permanently led higher lake level, 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

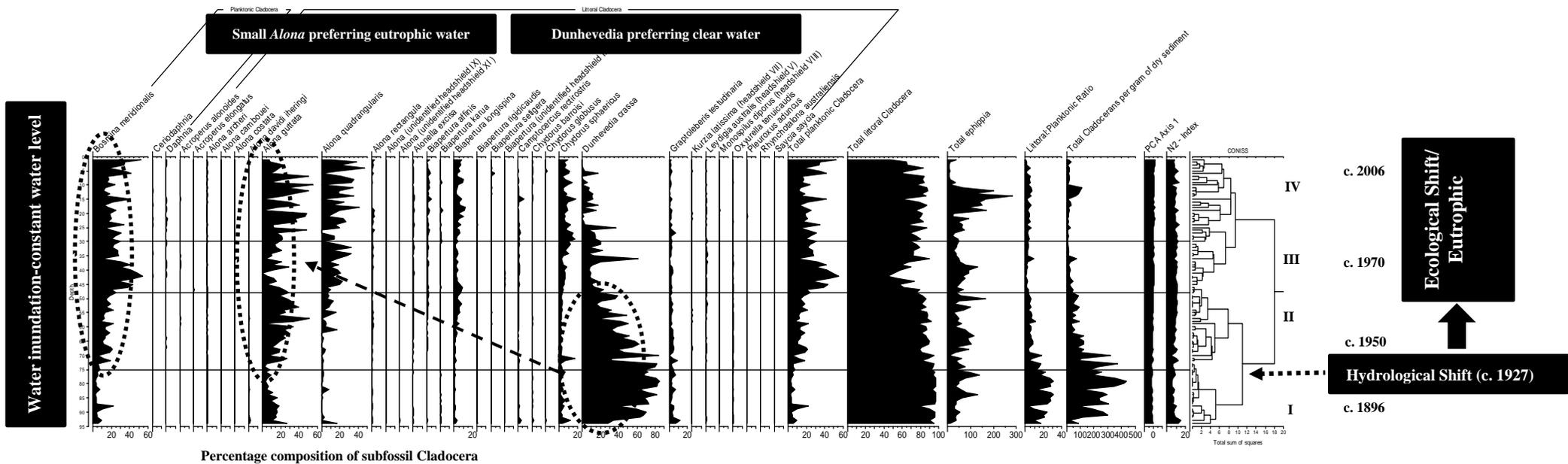


Figure 4. Percentage composition and N2 diversity index of subfossil cladocedans in Kings Billabong, their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

# Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Zhangdu Lake

Reduced Water Quality Following the 1960s

Improved Water Quality Prior to the 1960s

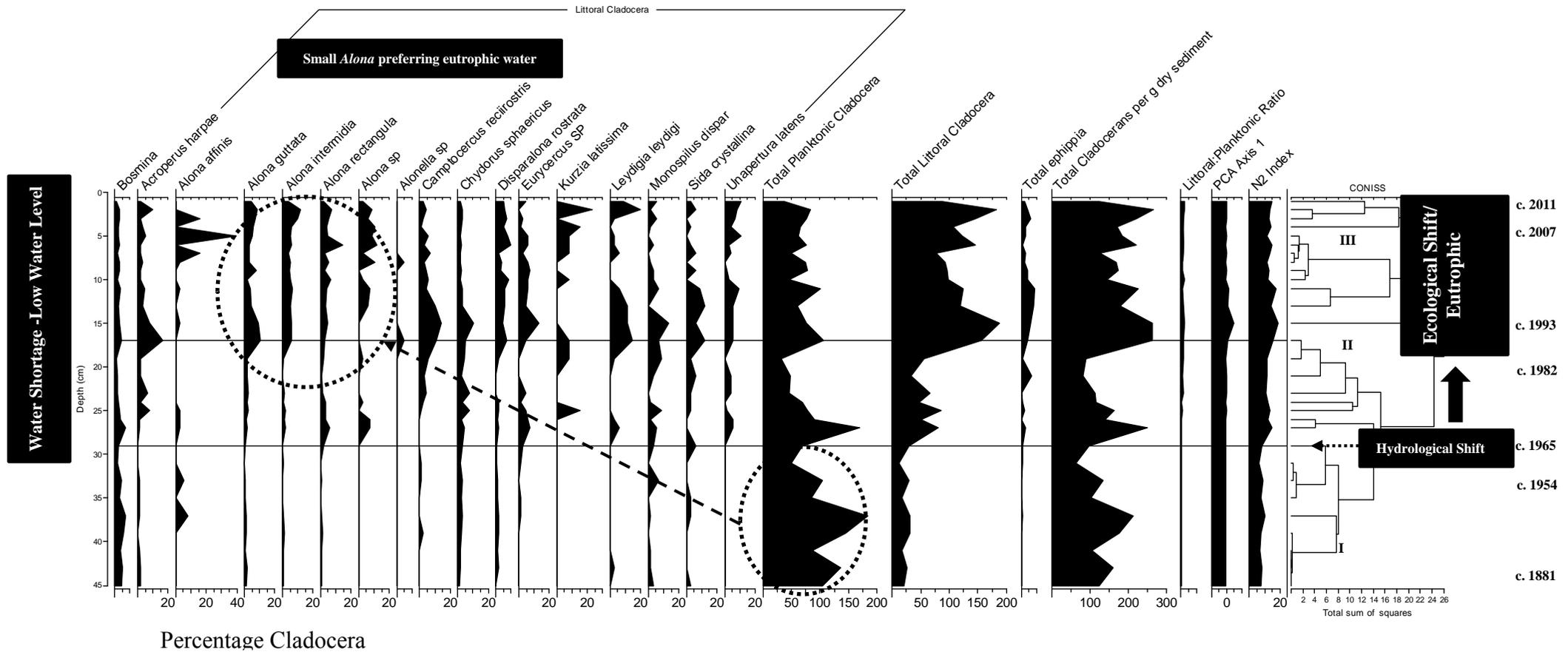


Figure 5. Composition (%) and N2 index of subfossil cladocedans in Zhangdu Lake, and their response to past hydrological and water quality change.

# Wetland Response to Water Quality Change in Liangzi Lake

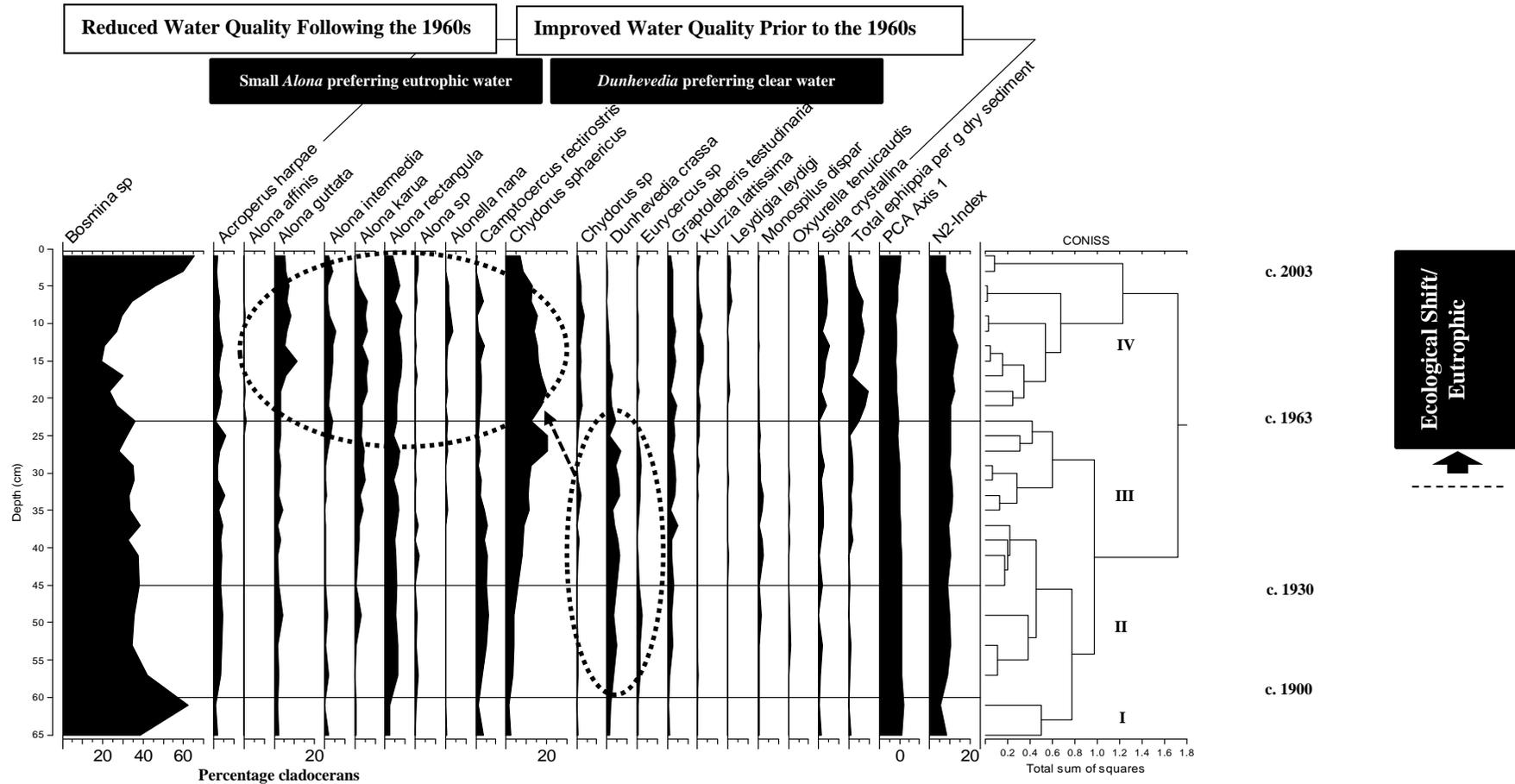


Figure 6. Composition (%) and N2 diversity index of subfossil cladocedans in Liangzi Lake, and their response to past water quality change.

## Adaptive Water Resource Management Framework for Murray and Yangtze River Wetlands

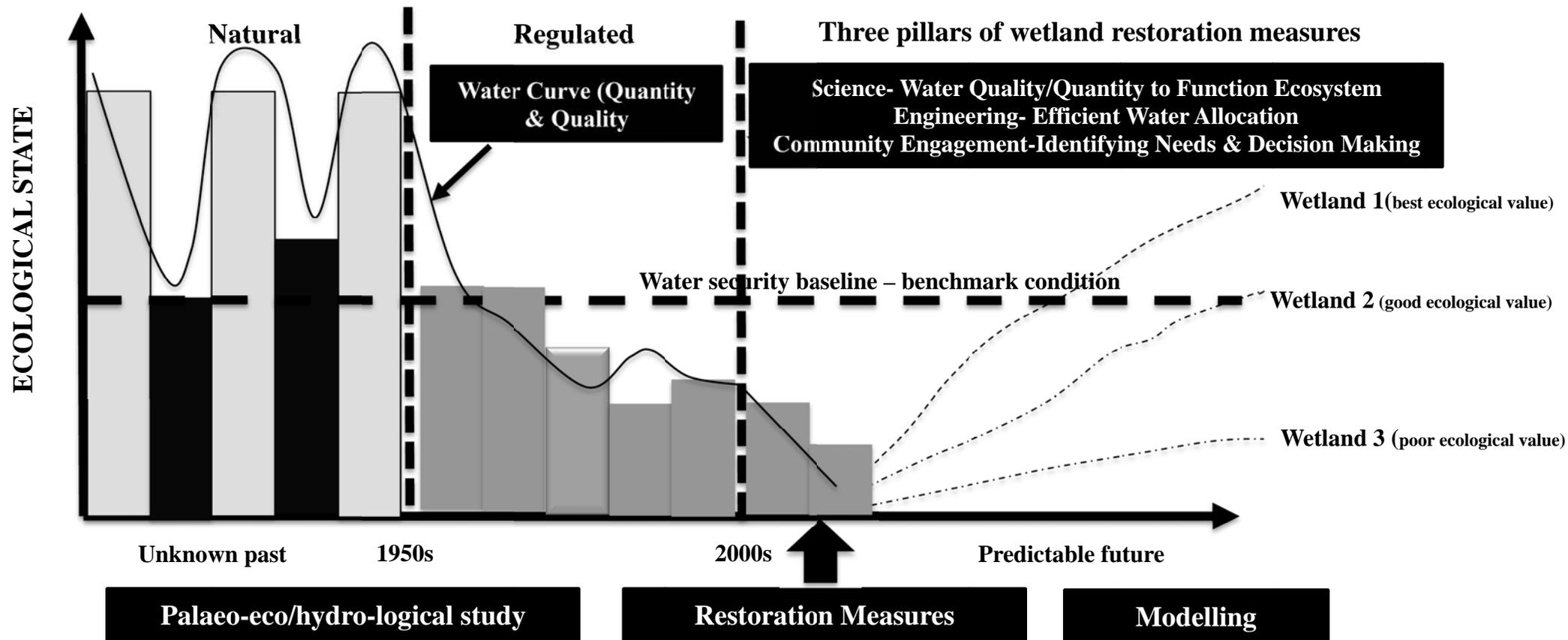


Figure 7. An adaptive water resource management framework based on palaeoecological study in Murray and Yangtze River wetlands: Prior to river regulation (c. 1930-50s), the quantity of water and wetland ecosystems was determined by natural flood pulses, when the water security curve was above the baseline and the state of ecosystem was natural. However, following the 1950s, ecosystem responded to human impacts on both river systems showing a rapid downward movement of the water curve. By the early 2000s, the natural flood pulses reduced followed by deterioration of the condition of wetlands. The ecosystem structure and function were poor due to poor water quality and quantity and limited submerged vegetation. The restoration measures are proposed to bring the water quality and quantity back to the baseline condition by a joint effort from science, engineering and community participation. Scientific knowledge is enhanced by palaeoecological and hydrological monitoring and development of future prediction models in wetland ecosystem. However, not all wetlands can be restored to a baseline condition given their individual variability (detail is described in the text).



