1	Zeng L, McGowan S, Cao Y, Chen X Effects of dam construction and increasing pollutants on the					
2	ecohydrological evolution of a shallow freshwater lake in the Yangtze floodplain. Science of the Total					
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8	evolution of a shallow freshwater lake in the Yangtze floodplain					
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16 Abstract:

Large river-floodplain systems which provide a variety of societal, economic and 17 biological benefits are undergoing extensive and intensive human disturbance. 18 However, floodplain lakes responses to multiple stressors are poorly understood. The 19 20 Yangtze River and its floodplain which provide water and food resources for more than 300 million people are an important region in China. Hydrological regulation as well 21 22 as socio-economic development have brought profound negative influence on this ecologically important area. To improve understanding of decadal-scale responses of 23 24 floodplain lakes to multiple stressors, lake sediment proxies including particle size, geochemical elements, diatoms and chironomids were analyzed in a lead-210 dated core 25 from Futou Lake. The analyses show that dams constructed in 1935 and the early 1970s 26 stabilized hydrological conditions in Futou Lake and impeded the interaction with the 27 Yangtze River, resulting in a decrease in major elements (e.g. Mg, Al, Fe) transported 28 into the lake and an increase of macrophyte-related chironomids (C. sylvestris-type, P. 29 penicillatus-type and Paratanytarsus sp.). After the late 1990s, further decreases of 30 major elements and increases in median grain size are attributed to the erosion of the 31 32 Yangtze riverbed and declining supply of major elements-enriched sediments from the 33 upper Yangtze caused by the impoundment of the Three Gorges Dam. Chironomid and diatom assemblages indicate that hydrological stabilization caused by dam 34 35 constructions stimulated the growth of macrophytes, which may be important in buffering against an ecosystem state change towards a phytoplankton-dominated and 36 37 turbid state with ongoing eutrophication. However, a recent increase in Zn, TP and the emergence of eutrophic diatom and chironomid species indicate initial signs of water 38 39 quality deterioration which may related to the combined effects of hydrological stabilization and aquaculture. Over all, the sediment record from Futou Lake 40 41 emphasizes the importance of interactions between hydrological change and pollutant loads in determining floodplain lake ecosystem state. 42

Key words: Lake sediments; Paleohydrology; Multiple proxies; Ecosystem state
change; Yangtze floodplain

45 **1 Introduction**

Floodplains which receive uninterrupted nutrients, sediments and water from both the 46 river channel and terrestrial sources are among the most productive and diverse 47 landscapes on earth (Tockner and Stanford, 2002). High productivity combined with 48 other societal and economic benefits, such as water supply, flood control, irrigation, 49 navigation and recreation, make floodplains appealing for human habitation and, 50 51 consequently, many floodplains are densely-populated (Fang et al., 2006; Tockner et al., 2010). Due to multiple stressors including changing hydrology, climate warming and 52 53 human disturbance, shallow lakes within floodplain areas are suffering from environmental deterioration (Tockner et al., 2010). Eutrophication is one of the most 54 widespread and severe problems of freshwater ecosystems (Smith et al., 1999; Paerl 55 and Huisman, 2008) and is thought to play a critical role in determining ecosystem 56 states in shallow lakes, altering the likelihood of transitions between macrophyte-57 dominated clear water state and algae-dominated turbid state (Scheffer et al., 2001). 58 While these states are known to exist in floodplain lakes, their existence appears to be 59 linked to flood frequency and therefore hydrological connectivity (Van Geest et al., 60 61 2007; Bhattacharya et al., 2016).

62 In a river-floodplain system, the river and its lateral floodplain are an inseparable unit in terms of water, sediment, nutrients, and organisms (Junk et al., 1989). Natural 63 64 hydrological regimes which stimulate lateral interaction and nutrient cycling between the floodplain and the main channel maintain the diversity of river-floodplain systems 65 66 (Junk et al., 1989). Hydrological connectivity is one of the main factors that influences the nutrient cycle, light conditions and ecosystem function of these shallow freshwater 67 68 floodplain lakes (Sokal et al., 2010; Bayley, 1995; Chen et al., 2017). For example, phytoplankton production shows a unimodal response to hydrological conditions due 69 70 to the trade-off between light availability and nutrients in the Peace-Athabasca Delta (McGowan et al., 2011). As well as eutrophication, anthropogenic modification of the 71 natural flow regime of a river-floodplain system for the benefits of flood control, 72 hydroelectricity and agriculture also influences floodplain lakes (Chen et al., 2016; 73 Kattel et al., 2016). 74

The Yangtze floodplain, an important economic, cultural and societal zone in China, provides homelands and water resources for more than 300 million people (Dong et al., 2012). Over the last several decades, with the intensification of industrial and agricultural activities and rapid population expansion, lakes in this area have suffered

79 from problems such as lake area shrinkage for land reclamation (Fang et al., 2006; Du et al., 2011), hydrological regulation (Yang et al., 2011; Kattel et al., 2016), 80 eutrophication (Yang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2011) and declines in biodiversity (Fang 81 et al., 2006). Surveys of 49 lakes and reservoirs in the middle and lower reaches of the 82 83 Yangtze River revealed that 48 are in a eutrophic or hyper-eutrophic state resulting from nutrient enrichment due to the development of agricultural and industrial activities since 84 85 the 1950s (Yang et al., 2008). Over the past five decades, more than 50000 dams and levees have been established in the Yangtze floodplain (Yang et al., 2011), but their 86 87 effects on floodplain lakes are not well established. Sustainable management of this ecological important zone needs a better understanding of the historical trajectory of 88 the river-floodplain system and how lakes in floodplain areas respond to multiple 89 stressors (Wolfe et al., 2012). Instrumental records in this region exist only for the past 90 91 few decades, so information pre-dating the major period of anthropogenic/economic growth state is limited. However, lake sediments which provide fruitful information 92 about lake history have been widely used to determine hydrological change and its 93 ecological effects (McGowan et al., 2011; Bhattacharya et al., 2016; Kattel et al., 2016). 94 95 Past paleolimnological studies in Yangtze floodplain lakes have mainly focused on the 96 effects of anthropogenic pollutants and climate change (Yang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2011), but little attention had been paid to hydrological modifications through damming. 97 98 Futou Lake, the fourth largest lake in Hubei Province, was freely connected with the Yangtze River before the 1930s but experienced hydrological modification (e.g., dam 99 100 construction) and human disturbance thereafter, providing an ideal case study of how floodplain lakes respond to multiple stressors. In this study we aim to (1) reconstruct 101 102 the paleohydrology of Futou Lake and (2) assess individual and synergistic effects of hydrological alteration and increasing pollutants on floodplain freshwater ecosystems. 103

104 2 Materials and methods

105 *2.1 Study area*

Futou Lake (114°10′~114°15′E, 29°56′~30°07′N), which has a water surface area of 126 km² and a mean water depth of 2.9 m, is located in the middle reaches of the Yangtze River. This area is characterized by a subtrophical monsoonal climate with a mean annual temperature of 17.4 °C and a mean annual precipitation of 1400 mm. Before 1935, Futou Lake was freely connected with the Yangtze River. Water flowed into Futou Lake through the Jinshui River during the wet season when the water level 112 in the Yangtze River was higher than that of the lake and flowed out during the dry season. In 1935, a local dam named Jinshui was established at the confluence of the 113 Jinshui and Yangtze rivers for flood control (Fig. 1). Since then the lake has changed 114 into a restricted drainage basin. In 1973, after the impoundment of Xinhe Dam at the 115 confluence of Jinshui River and Futou Lake, hydrological conditions of Futou Lake 116 were modified again (Fig. 1). With the construction of Three Gorges Dam (TGD) in 117 Yichang in the late 1990s, hydrological conditions were further modified. At certain 118 times of the year, depending on the relative water levels of the Yangtze River and Futou 119 120 Lake, gates of both dams are opened for water exchange.



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- 122

Fig. 1 Location of Futou Lake and core site

Futou Lake is one of the few lakes with rich macrophytes covers in the Yangtze 123 124 floodplain. Between the 1970s and the early 1990s, observations suggest that Futou Lake was abundant in aquatic plants (e.g., Pistia stratiotes, Vallisneria natans, 125 Potamogeton crispus, Ceratophyllum demersum), and also noted declines in aquatic 126 plants in recent years (Hai Zeng, fisherman on Futou Lake, personal communication, 127 July 30, 2017). In recent years, more than 70% of its water area has been used for 128 aquaculture. Each year more than 930 tons of total phosphorus and 2800 tons of total 129 nitrogen generated from aquaculture has been emitted into the lake (Committee for 130 Lake Records Compilation of Hubei Province, 2014). Aquaculture production in Futou 131 Lake increased from <10 million Yuan (RMB) in the early 1990s to ca. 60 million Yuan 132 (RMB) in 2008 (Committee for Lake Records Compilation of Hubei Province, 2014). 133 Water-quality monitoring data revealed that total phosphorus (TP) in Futou Lake 134 increased from 0.027 mg L⁻¹ in the 1990s to 0.04 mg L⁻¹ in 2014 and slightly decreased 135 to 0.037 mg L⁻¹ in 2017 (Table 1). Chl a sharply increased from 4.27 to 23.47 μ g L⁻¹ 136 137 between the early 2000s and the 2014, followed by a slight decrease to 20.58 μ g L⁻¹ in 2017. 138 Table 1 Variation of total phosphorus and Chl a in Futou Lake over the last two decades

Age TP (mg L^{-1}) Chl a (μ g L^{-1}) Source	
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1990s	0.027	-	Wang and Dou, 1998
2001-2003	0.035	4.27	Yang et al., 2008
2014	0.040	23.47	Wu et al., 2017
2017	0.037	20.58	This study

139

140 2.2 Sediment core

In 2014, a sediment core (ca. 85 cm) was collected from the central part of Futou Lake 141 using a gravity corer (Fig. 1). The water-sediment interface was well preserved. The 142 sediment core was sectioned at 1 cm intervals in the field and samples were stored at 4 143 ^oC until analysis. Particle size and geochemical proxies were selected because they have 144 been shown to be useful indicators of hydrological change (Chen et al., 2016). 145 Biological proxies were also analysed because chironomids can indicate macrophyte 146 coverage in Yangtze Delta lakes (Cao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2012) and diatoms are 147 sensitive to nutrient pollution (Battarbee 2001). 148

149 2.3 Chronology

Radio activities of ²¹⁰Pb, ¹³⁷Cs and ²²⁶Rn was measured by a direct gamma spectrometry
using the Ortec HPGe GWL series of well-type, coaxial, low background and intrinsic
geranium detectors at an interval of 2 cm (a total of 44 samples). Reference material of

²¹⁰Pb was supplied by University of Liverpool. Sedimentary chronology was calculated

using the constant rate of supply (CRS) model (Appleby et al., 2001).

155 *2.4 Particle size*

156 Particle size spectra of samples were measured at 1-cm intervals (a total of 82 samples)

using a Malvern automated laser optical particle-sizer analyser (Mastersizer-2000) after

the removal of carbonates by 10% HCl and organic matter by 30% H₂O₂.

159 2.5 Geochemical elements

Metal elements (Al, Fe, Li, K, Mg, Cr, Cu, Zn, Sr) and total phosphorus (TP) were analysed using an inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES)

after digesting sediments in a mixture of HF, HCl, HNO₃ and HClO₄ (3:0.5:6:0.5). After

being weighed out (ca. 0.125 g), samples were transferred into a Teflon beaker for acid

digestion and dilution before analysis (see details in Liu et al., 2007). Reference

165 materials (GSD-9, GSD-11) were supplied by the Chinese Academy of Geological

Sciences. One duplicate sample was analysed for every fifteen samples. Thereproducibility of the duplicated sediment samples was >90% for all elements. Blank

168 digestion solution results were <5% for all samples and elements and all standard

deviations in prepared samples were <7% of documented certified values. Subsampling
intervals for elemental analysis were at 2-cm resolution. 41 samples were used for
geochemical analysis.

172 *2.6 Chironomids*

Sediment samples for chironomid analysis were prepared according to standard 173 methods by Brooks et al. (2007) at 2-cm intervals in the upper 30 cm and at 4-cm 174 intervals at lower levels. 27 chironomid samples were analysed. Samples were 175 deflocculated in 10% KOH in a water bath at 75 °C for 15 minutes and then sieved 176 177 through 212 and 90 µm meshes. The residue was transferred to a grooved Perspex sorting tray and examined manually under a setero-zoom microscope at $25 \times$ 178 magnification with fine forceps. Head capsules were permanently mounted on slides 179 using Hydromatrix[®]. Chironomid species were identified using an Olympus CX31 180 microscope (magnification×100/×400). Chironomid taxonomy mainly followed 181 Wiederholm (1983), Rieradevall and Brooks (2001) and Brooks et al. (2007). At least 182 50 head capsules were counted for each sample in the upper 52 cm and between 70 and 183 184 82 cm. Between 53 and 69 cm, at least 45 head capsules were counted, expect for samples at the depth of 57, 61 and 69 cm where chironomids were poorly preserved. 185

186 *2.7 Diatom*

Diatom analysis followed standard procedures by Battarbee et al. (2001), and samples 187 188 were counted at 1 cm intervals. The diatom suspension was mounted on slides with Naphrax[®] after the removal of carbonates by HCl and organic matter by H₂O₂. Diatom 189 190 valves were identified using an Olympus CX31 microscope with an oil immersion objective (magnification×1000). Diatom taxonomy mainly followed Krammer and 191 192 Lange-Bertalot (1986-1991). As diatoms were poorly preserved in the bottom of the sediment core, only subsamples in the upper 40 cm were enumerated. A total of 40 193 194 diatom samples were analysed. A minimum of 300 valves were counted for each sample in the upper 22 cm. Between 23 and 27 cm, 200 to 300 valves were counted. Between 195 28 and 40 cm, 100 to 200 valves were counted where preservation was suboptimal. As 196 relative abundances of some epiphytic and benthic diatoms species such as Achnanthes, 197 Amphora, Caloneis, Cymbella, Epithemia, Eunotia, Gomphonema, Navicula, Nitzschia 198 and *Pinnularia* were low, they were summed and presented at genus level. 199

200 2.8 Historical archives

201 Annual sediment load data from the main channel was collected to evaluate the quantity

of sediments being transported by the Yangtze River. Hankou Hydrological Station (Fig.

1), the nearest hydrological station located downstream of the Three Gorges Dam
(TGD), has long-term instrumental measurements of water discharge (started in 1865)
in the middle Yangtze River. Since the 1950s, sediment load data has also been
measured. Wang et al. (2008) used the established relationship between annual water
discharge and annual sediment load from the 1950s to 2005 to reconstruct the sediment
load of the middle Yangtze River before the 1950s.

209 2.9 Numerical analysis

Stratigraphic diagrams of particle size and elements were plotted using Grapher 7 (Golden Software Inc.). In order to summarize the most important gradients of variation in elemental concentrations, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed. PCA was performed on log(x+1)-transformed data analysis using Canoco v. 4.5 (ter Braak and Smilauer, 2002). Analysis of non-parametric statistics were perform using R language to test the significance level of elements between sample groups (R core team, 2016).

217 Only diatom and chironomid taxa occurring in at least two samples and with an 218 abundance $\geq 2\%$ were used in the diagrams and analyses. Stratigraphic diagrams of the 219 major taxa of diatoms and chironomids were plotted using C2. Detrended 220 correspondence analysis (DCA) was performed on square-root transformed diatom and 221 chironomid data using Canoco v. 4.5 (ter Braak and Smilauer, 2002).

222 **3 Results**

223 3.1 Chronology

As observed in ¹³⁷Cs profiles of other Yangtze floodplain lakes (Xiang et al., 2002), 224 ¹³⁷Cs activities in Futou Lake were low and fluctuated in the sediment core profile. 225 ¹³⁷Cs peaks in the year 1963, corresponding with atomic weapons testing, and peak 226 activity is recorded in the Futou Lake core at 13 cm (Fig. 2a). Excess ²¹⁰Pb activity in 227 the sediment core showed an exponential declining trend ($R^2=0.862$, p<0.01) (Fig. 2b) 228 and the chronology derived from the ²¹⁰Pb profile dates the sediments at 13 cm to ca. 229 1995. Eroded soil particles carrying ¹³⁷Cs can be transported and deposited in lakes 230 from the catchment (Ritchie and McHenry, 1990). In floodplain lakes, hydrological 231 connectivity could influence the activity of ¹³⁷Cs by mediating the concentration of 232 suspended particles transported into them. Hence, the ¹³⁷Cs profile in Futou Lake may 233 be influenced by hydrological regulation and soil erosion processes. Therefore, in this 234 study, the chronology is mainly based upon the ²¹⁰Pb activities. The CRS model gave a 235 mean sediment rate of 0.41 cm yr⁻¹ with the upper 65 cm representing ca. 157 years of 236

sediment accumulation at which depth the detection limit of ²¹⁰Pb dating was reached.
The chronology below 65 cm was established using a linear regression equation derived
from the mean sediment rate in the upper 65 cm (Fig. 2c). Based on the linear regression
equation, the age of sediments at the bottom of the sediment core was estimated to be
ca. 1815.





243 244

Fig. 2 ¹³⁷Cs (a), ²¹⁰Pb activity profiles (b) and age-depth model and dry mass accumulation rate (DMAR) (c) in Futou sediment core

The dry mass accumulation rate (DMAR) sequence of the upper 65 cm was calculated using the established chronology (Fig. 2c). Before the 1970s, DMAR in Futou Lake gradually increased to the maximum of about 0.4 g cm⁻² yr⁻¹. Since then, DMAR showed a declining trend with a mean value of 0.21 g cm⁻² yr⁻¹ between 1973 and 1995 and 0.09 g cm⁻² yr⁻¹ after 1995.

250 *3.2 Particle size and geochemical elements*

The sediments were mainly composed of fine particles ($<64 \mu m$) (Fig. 3). Before the 251 early 1970s, proportions of clay ($<4 \mu m$) and silt (4-64 μm), which were inversely 252 correlated, fluctuated around 45% and 50%, respectively. Percentage of clay increased 253 from $\sim 25\%$ in the early 1970s to 50% in the late 1990s, while proportions of silt 254 decreased from ~ 70 to $\sim 50\%$ during the same period. As a result, median grain size of 255 samples decreased from 8.3 to 4 µm. Since the late 1990s, proportions of sand increased 256 markedly from <1 to >15% and percentage of clay decreased from ~ 50 to ~ 25\%. 257 Consequently, median grain size increased from 4 to 8 µm. 258



Fig. 3 Sedimentary profiles of particle size and elements in Futou sediment core (the grey bar indicatesthe time of dam construction with the depth of the bar accounting for dating error)

Three distinctive patterns of changes in elements were observed. Al, Fe, Li, Mg, K and 262 Cr exhibited similar vertical trends (Fig. 3) wherein they fluctuated before 1935, 263 264 gradually decreased until the late 1990s, followed by a more pronounced decline after 265 1995. In contrast, Sr concentrations increased gradually between 1935 and the early 1970s and rapidly from the early 1970s to the late 1990s. Trends in concentrations of 266 267 Cu, Zn and TP differed from the other elements; concentrations fluctuated before 1935, declined gradually between 1935 and the late 1990s and increased thereafter. After 268 1995, concentrations of Zn and TP increased from ca. 120 and 610 mg kg⁻¹ to more 269 than 140 and 800 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. 270

271 *3.3 PCA of elemental data*

PCA of elemental geochemistry showed that axis 1 and axis 2 explained 74.3% and 272 14.2% of variance in elemental concentrations, respectively (Fig. 4). The first PCA axis 273 (PC1_{elements}) was negatively correlated with Al, Fe, Mg, K, Cr and Li (R^2 >0.75, p<0.001) 274 and positively correlated with Sr (R^2 >0.72, p<0.001). Cu, Zn and TP were positively 275 correlated with axis 2 (PC2_{elements}). Four stages divided by the damming events are 276 distinguished in the ordination plot (analysis of non-parametric statistics, p < 0.05) (Fig. 277 4). Before 1935, samples were placed at the left of the ordination plot, and they then 278 shift between the mid-1930s and early 1970s, towards high abundances of Sr. Between 279 the early 1970s and the late 1990s samples move towards the right of the plot (high Sr). 280

- After 1995, samples sustained high Sr concentrations and low concentrations of Al, Fe,
- Li, Mg, K and Cr.





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Fig. 4 Principle component analysis (PCA) ordination plot of metal elements and TP 3.4 Chironomids

286 A total of 42 chironomid species were identified in the sediment core. Chironomid 287 assemblages were dominated by Microchironomus tener-type, Cricotopus sylvestristype, Paratanytarsus penicillatus-type and Paratanytarsus sp., which had an average 288 abundance of ca. 27.9%, 9.7%, 16.8% and 10.7%, respectively (Fig. 5). Over the last 289 290 200 years, there was a major assemblage shift from *M. tener*-type to *C. sylvestris*-type, 291 P. penicillatus-type and Paratanytarsus sp. Before 1935, chironomid assemblages were dominated by *M. tener*-type (average ca. 38.9%), accompanied by *Clinotanypus* 292 (average ca. 9.2%) and Procladius (about 5.0%) with few C. sylvestris-type, P. 293 penicillatus-type and Polypedilum nubifer-type. Between 1935 and the early 1970s, the 294 295 abundance of Paratanytarsus sp., P. penicillatus-type and C. sylvestris-type increased to 7.3%, 3.3% and 12.8%, respectively. The transition period from the early 1970s to 296 297 1995 was characterized by the decline in *M. tener*-type (from ≥ 50 to $\leq 10\%$) and increases in C. sylvestris-type (from 3.4 to ca. 15%), Paratanytarsus sp. (from ca. 13 to 298 ca. 23%) and P. penicillatus-type (from ≤ 15 to ca. 30%). Since 1995, chironomid 299 assemblages were co-dominated by C. sylvestris-type, Paratanytarsus sp. and P. 300 *penicillatus*-type, with *P. penicillatus*-type having an average abundance of $\geq 32\%$ 301 whilst *M. tener*-type declined to $\leq 5\%$. In this zone, *Glyptotendipes severini*-type, 302 Chironomus plumosus-type and Propsilocerus akamusi-type appeared, whilst species 303

which were present at lower strata (e.g., *Clinotanypus*, *Cryptotendipes*, *Cryptochironomus* and *Harnischia*) disappeared.



Fig. 5 Sedimentary profile of chironomids in Futou sedimentary core (the grey bar indicates the time of
 dam construction with the depth of bar accounting for dating error)

309 *3.5 Diatoms*

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A total of 145 diatom taxa were identified in the sediment core. Diatom assemblages 310 were characterized by planktonic species like Aulacoseira granulata with a few 311 Aulacoseira ambigua, Aulacoseira alpigena, Cyclotella bodanica and Cyclotella. 312 meneghiniana (Fig. 6). Between 1956 and the early 1970s, A. granulata which had an 313 average abundance of over 60% was the dominant species and concentrations of other 314 planktonic taxa such as A. ambigua, A. alpigena and Cyclotella sp. were low. The 315 abundance of epiphytic and benthic diatoms (e.g., Eunotia sp., Cymbella sp., and 316 Navicula sp.) fluctuated around 25%. From the early 1970s to the late 1990s, diatom 317 assemblages were still dominated by planktonic species, especially A. granulata, but 318 the relative abundances started to decline whilst the proportion of epiphytic and benthic 319 diatoms increased (Cocconeis placentula and Gyrosigma acuminatum increased to ca. 320 6% and $\ge 8\%$, respectively). Since the late 1990s, A. granulata had a percentage of about 321 60% and relative abundances of A. ambigua, A. alpigena and Cyclotella sp. increased 322 323 compared with the lower strata (for example, the percentage of A. ambigua increased to more than 9%). During this period, concentration of F. construens var. venter 324 increased to an average abundance of about 11%. 325





327 328

Fig. 6 Sedimentary profiles of diatoms in Futou sedimentary core (the grey bar indicates the time of dam construction with the depth of bar accounting for dating error)

329 3.6 Relationship between geochemical elements and diatoms and chironomids

Comparisons of the PCA1 axis scores from the elements (as indicators of hydrological 330 331 condition) with biotic assemblages (Fig. 7) demonstrate that diatoms and chironomids responded clearly to dam construction. Chironomid assemblages in Futou Lake were 332 successively characterized by *M. tener*-type and *C. sylvestris*-type, *P. penicillatus*-type 333 334 and Paratanytarsus sp. In lakes of Europe and the Yangtze floodplain, Paratanytarsus is found in lakes with dense macrophytes (Zhang et al., 2012; Langdon et al., 2010; Cao 335 et al., 2014). C. sylvestris-type which feed on the epiphytes attached to aquatic plants 336 is also associated with macrophytes in Yangtze floodplain lakes (Cao et al., 2014, 2016). 337 The increase of macrophyte-related chironomid species (C. sylvestris-type, P. 338 339 penicillatus-type and Paratanytarsus sp.) since 1935, and especially after the early 1970s, suggested the development of aquatic plants in Futou Lake. An increase of 340 benthic and epiphytic diatoms (e.g., G. acuminatum) further suggest the growth of 341 macrophytes under more stable hydrological conditions (Liu et al., 2012). 342



Fig. 7 Scatter plots of first DCA axis of chironomids (a) and diatoms (b) against first PCA axis of elements

346 4 Discussion

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344 345

347 *4.1 Effects of dam constructions on natural hydrology*

348 Geochemical compositions of lake sediments provide fruitful information for tracking past changes in hydrological conditions (Rippey et al., 1982; Chen et al., 2016). In 349 350 closed basin lakes, metal elements mainly come from the erosion of topsoil and bedrock from the lake catchment (Rippey et al., 1982), while sediment influxes from inflows 351 352 are the main sources of elements in open lakes (Chen et al., 2016). In a river-floodplain 353 system, the main channel is a major source of elements being transported into floodplain lakes (Junk et al., 1989; Chen et al., 2016). The upper reaches of the Yangtze River 354 sequentially cross through the evaporates of the Tibetan Plateau, the Jurassic Red 355 sandstone of the Sichuan Basin and the carbonatite in the Three Gorges Region (Müller 356 et al., 2008). After weathering, large amounts of major elements (e.g., Mg, Al, Fe) are 357 attached on the suspended particles in the Yangtze River and transported into the middle 358 and lower reaches. Once entering the floodplain lakes, these elements are deposit in the 359 lake bottom with the suspended particles (Chen et al., 2016). In contrast, the floodplain 360 in the middle reaches of the Yangtze River is characterized by unconsolidated fluvial 361 deposits with scarce major elements (Müller et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Therefore, 362 363 it is assumed that variations in sedimentary major elements in Futou Lake should be closely related to the influx from the Yangtze River. Sr which is closely related to Ca, 364 exists as Sr^{2+} in a dissolved form due to the strong chemical carbonate weathering in 365 the Yangtze Basin and relatively low pH of the waters (Chen et al., 2002). However, 366 prolonged water retention time enhances Sr deposition, resulting in elevated 367

sedimentary Sr. PCA1 of elements which strongly correlated with major elements and
Sr therefore appears to reflect hydrological connectivity between the lake and the
Yangtze River.

Under natural hydrological conditions, rainfall is the main factor influencing the water 371 discharge and sediment load in the Yangtze River (Chen et al., 2014), affecting water 372 373 exchange intensity between the lake and the Yangtze River. In a wet year, high water discharge transports more sediments into the lake while the strong hydrologic flushing 374 decreases Sr concentrations. Conversely, the weak hydrological connection in a dry 375 376 year decreases the concentration of major elements while increases the concentration of Sr. Hence, the fluctuations of major elements and Sr before 1935 reflected the 377 variation of sediments being transported into Futou Lake under natural hydrological 378 conditions (Fig. 3). 379

Since 1935, the steady decrease of major elements indicates declining sediments being 380 transported into Futou Lake (Fig. 8a), alongside a longer water retention time 381 (increasing Sr concentrations), associated with impeded interactions between Futou 382 383 Lake and the Yangtze River, and the stabilization of hydrological conditions due to dam construction. After the Xinhe Dam established in 1973, lower quantities of element-384 385 enriched sediments from the Upper Yangtze River were transported into Futou Lake, resulting in a further decrease of major elements between the early 1970s and the late 386 387 1990s (Fig. 8a). The decline of DMAR during this period further reflects the decreasing sediment transport into Futou Lake (Fig. 2c). At the same time, finer particles and Sr 388 389 were deposited in the lake due to prolonged water retention time, resulting in the 390 decrease of median grain size and the increase of Sr (Fig. 8b).

391 As hydrological conditions in Futou Lake stabilized due to the establishment of local dams, the increase of median grain size reflects an increasing input of coarse particles 392 393 after the late 1990s. Since the closure of the TGD in 1998, about 150 million tons of sediment enriched in major elements which comes from the upper reaches of the 394 Yangtze River has been trapped in the reservoir (Yang et al., 2014), resulting in a 395 decrease of sediment load in water released from the dam. Observational records from 396 Hankou Hydrological Station show that annual sediment load decreased from 323.12 397 Mt (1991-1998) to 157.57 Mt (1999-2013) (Wang et al., 2008) (Fig. 8c). As a result, 398 DMAR in Futou Lake declined after the closure of the TGD (Fig. 2c). When released 399 from the dam, the sediment-starved water possesses more energy to erode the 400 401 downstream riverbed, resulting in the coarsening of the riverbed substrate. Studies

402 along the Yangtze River revealed that the main channel between Yichang and Hankou changed from a deposition rate of 78 Mt/yr (1956-2000) to an erosion rate of 47 Mt/yr 403 (2003-2012) and the riverbed sediment which was characterized by primarily medium 404 sized sands prior to the TGD closure is now dominated by gravels (Yang et al., 2014). 405 Therefore the coarsening of particle size and further decreasing of major elements can 406 be attributed to the change of material source from the fine-grained, major element-407 enriched sediments from the upper reaches of the Yangtze River prior to the TGD 408 closure to the coarse-grained, major element-depleted sediments from the downstream 409 410 riverbed. This suggests that sedimentation and geochemistry in Futou Lake have been influenced by proximal and distal dam structures. 411





Fig. 8 Comparison between sample score on the first PC axis of elements (a) and median grain size (b)
and annual sediment load (the red line indicates five year running average) in Hankou Hydrology
Station (cited from Wang et al., 2008) (c) during the last 200 years (the grey bar indicates the time of
dam construction with the bar width accounting for dating error)

417 *4.2 Ecological responses to altered hydrology*

Macrophyte cover, an important structuring component of aquatic ecosystems, may be 418 mediated by water depth, water level fluctuation, light conditions and nutrient 419 concentrations in floodplain lakes (Sokal et al., 2010; Van Geest et al., 2007). 420 Hydrological connectivity with the main channel influences macrophyte growth by 421 changing the light conditions through turbidity and thus closed-drainage lakes generally 422 have high macrophyte densities because of lower suspended sediment concentrations 423 and transparent waters (Sokal et al., 2010; Squires et al., 2002). Conversely, macrophyte 424 425 cover in open-drainage lakes is usually sparse (Sokal et al., 2010; McGowan et al., 2011). Accordingly, macrophyte biomass may vary temporally between flood (low 426 biomass) and non-flood (high biomass) years (Sokal et al., 2010; McGowan et al., 2011). 427 In addition, as shallow lakes are susceptible to sediment resuspension which can 428 enhance water turbidity (Blindow et al., 1993), stable hydrological conditions should 429 430 prevent erosion of the lake margins and resuspension of sediments, enhancing water 431 transparency and benefiting the development of macrophytes (Egertson et al., 2004). Water level stabilization may also promote the germination and establishment of 432 macrophytes (Van Geest et al., 2005). Since Jinshui Dam established in 1935, the 433 434 hydrologically open lake changed into a restricted-drainage lake, which probably increased the water transparency. An increase in macrophyte-related chironomid 435 436 species document the spread of macrophytes at this time. After the impoundment of Xinhe Dam in the early 1970s, light and hydrological conditions became increasingly 437 438 favorable for macrophytes. Sustained increases of macrophyte-related chironomids and 439 non-planktonic diatoms indicate further expansion of macrophytes cover in Futou Lake, 440 which is coincident with the dense macrophytes cover during this period (Hai Zeng, fisherman on Futou Lake, personal communication, July 30, 2017). Similar biotic 441 442 responses to reduced hydrological connectivity have been reported in the Yangtze floodplain, Peace-Athabasca Delta, Slave River Delta and lower Rhine floodplain (Liu 443 et al., 2012; McGowan et al., 2011; Sokal et al., 2010; Van Geest et al., 2007). 444

445 *4.3 Increased pollutants since the late 1990s*

Accompanied with the stabilization of hydrological conditions resulting from dam and levee constructions is a blocked lateral exchange between the lake and the main channel, resulting in a lower water exchange ratio and a prolonged water retention time of floodplain lakes (Chen et al., 2016). For example, after the closure of the TGD, prolonged water retention time accompanied with increasing nutrient loads from the 451 catchment resulted in algal proliferation in Dongting Lake. Since the 1990s, Futou Lake has experienced the intensification of aquaculture with more than 70% of its water area 452 being used for aquaculture in recent years. The increase of TP and Chl a in the water 453 column (Table 1) and declining of macrophytes (Hai Zeng, fisherman on Futou Lake, 454 personal communication, July 30, 2017) since the middle 1990s suggest increased 455 nutrients and habitat disturbance pressures in Futou Lake. Despite the relatively low 456 abundances, frequent occurrence of nutrient-tolerant diatom species (e.g. A. alpigena 457 has an TP optima of about 130 μ g L⁻¹ in the Yangtze floodplain lakes) (Yang et al., 458 2008) and chironomid species (e.g. C. plumosus-type, G. severini-type and P. akamusi-459 type) after the late 1990s, together with the sharp increase of Zn and TP concentrations, 460 indicate pollutant enrichment in Futou Lake, which may be attributed to the 461 development of aquaculture and exacerbated sedimentation by hydrological isolation. 462 Even though the high abundance of macorphyte-related chironomids denoted abundant 463 macrophyte cover in Futou Lake, the emergence of nutrient-tolerant chironomid and 464 diatom species indicate initial signs of lake deterioration. We can expect that this 465 hydrologically restricted system may become more and more vulnerable to a state 466 change towards algal dominance and loss of aquatic plants with the continuously 467 468 development of aquaculture and increase in nutrients (Bhattacharya et al., 2016). Once in a turbid state, there are well known challenges with restoring macrophyte 469 470 communities unless human disturbance can be restricted to an extremely low level, which is unlikely in this densely populated region (Scheffer et al., 1993; McGowan et 471 472 al., 2005).

473 *4.4 Implications for floodplain lake protection*

474 The dominance of macrophyte-related chironomids (C. sylvestris-type, Paratanytarsus sp. and *P. penicillatus*-type) and high concentrations of non-planktonic diatoms 475 revealed the development of aquatic macrophytes after the establishment of the 476 proximal Jinshui Dam (in 1935) and Xinhe Dam (in the early 1970s) and the distal TGD 477 in the late 1990s. Macrophytes play an important role in buffering shallow freshwater 478 ecosystems against regime shifts into the turbid algae-dominated state (Scheffer et al., 479 480 2001). Our study provides clear evidence that anthropogenic hydrological regulation which stimulates the growth of macrophytes may buffer against a lake shift into an 481 algae-dominated state caused by eutrophication. Therefore, whilst dam structures 482 undoubtedly alter the 'natural' functioning of floodplain lakes, their effects may not be 483 484 entirely detrimental for ecological and conservation value.

485 Multiple sedimentary proxies demonstrated by our sediment core suggest that the interactions between increasing nutrients and hydrology both should be considered 486 simultaneously for effective lake management in the future. Because sedimentation in 487 floodplain and shallow lake basins can be spatially variable, further multi-coring studies 488 on Futou Lake and other sites might further understanding of whole lake basin 489 490 responses, and help to assess how representative single cores are for floodplain lake paleolimnology. Besides, ongoing water monitoring is urgently needed to provide lake 491 492 ecosystem information for the sustainable management of these important floodplain 493 lakes.

494 Acknowledgements:

We are grateful for Xin Mao, Weilan Xia and Yuxin Zhu for field and laboratory 495 assistance. We appreciate Dr. George Swann, Dr. Stefan Engels and Charlotte Briddon 496 from Nottingham University and anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments. 497 This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant 498 numbers 41572343, 41202248), the Fundamental Research Funds for National 499 University, China University of Geosciences (Wuhan) (grant number G1323511656) 500 501 and State Key Laboratory of Lake Science and Environment (grant no. 2014SKL002). 502 Linghan Zeng is funded by the Vice-Chancellor's Scholarship for Research Excellence from University of Nottingham. 503

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