

1 **Title:**

2 Eutrophication has a greater influence on floodplain lake carbon cycling than dam installation  
3 across the middle Yangtze Region

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18 **Highlights:**

- 19 • C/N ratios and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  suggest regional similarities in floodplain lake carbon cycling one  
20 century ago.
- 21 • Timings of shifts in sedimentary proxies indicate larger responses to eutrophication  
22 than dam installation in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.
- 23 • Eutrophication influences production and burial of autochthonous carbon by  
24 stimulating aquatic plant or algal growth.

25 **Abstract:**

26 Carbon cycling in shallow floodplain lakes is complex due to variability in delivery of flood-  
27 derived allochthonous organic matter (OM). Human activities have potential to significantly  
28 modify the carbon balance of lakes by damming which restricts external OM inputs and via  
29 eutrophication which can increase the in-lake production of algae and/or aquatic plants. In  
30 order to understand how these human activities influence carbon cycling in shallow floodplain  
31 lakes over decadal-centennial timescales, we analysed C/N ratios and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from terrestrial  
32 plants, catchment soils, aquatic plants and dated sediment cores from six heavily modified lakes  
33 in the middle Yangtze floodplain. Submerged macrophytes ( $-21.4 \pm 4.6\%$ ) had higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
34 than  $\text{C}_3$  plants from the catchment ( $-26.6 \pm 0.6\%$ ) and emergent and floating plants ( $-26.6 \pm$   
35  $4.0\%$ ). Increases in sedimentary chlorophyll *a* (from primary producers) were associated with  
36 a decline in sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the severely eutrophic Dongting, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang  
37 Lakes after the 1980s. In contrast, sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  increased in Honghu and Futou Lakes  
38 which have abundant submerged macrophytes. The timing and scale of sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
39 changes indicated stronger responses to eutrophication than damming, with eutrophication  
40 responses ranging from a macrophyte proliferation to the dominance of phytoplankton.

41 **Key words:** carbon cycling; algal production; submerged macrophytes; palaeolimnology;  
42 sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ; floodplain lakes

### 43 **1. Introduction**

44 Floodplain lakes are critical and dynamic hotspots for carbon cycling where particulate organic  
45 carbon can be a significant component of the total carbon pool (Cai et al., 2016; Hupp et al.,  
46 2019; Sanders et al., 2017). Under natural conditions, floodplain lakes are periodically  
47 connected with rivers and this connection is strengthened during seasonal flooding. Floods can  
48 be important for the delivery of suspended materials including organic carbon and nutrients  
49 (nitrogen, N and phosphorus, P) from rivers to floodplain lakes (Zhang et al., 2022), leading to  
50 periods where allochthonous carbon delivery to the water bodies is high (during floods) versus  
51 inter-flood periods where relatively more autochthonous carbon sources are generated  
52 internally via photosynthesis using (recycled) nutrients derived from the flood pulse (Hupp et  
53 al., 2019; Liang et al., 2016). Therefore when floodplain lakes are naturally connected to rivers  
54 the relative balance of autochthonous to allochthonous materials in the lake basin should be  
55 primarily linked to flood frequency and seasonality, and by extension to the climatic conditions  
56 (Aspetsberger et al., 2002; Li et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2016).

57 Many floodplain lakes across the world are losing connectivity with the main channel  
58 associated with human development of river catchments (Yang et al., 2011). Floodplain  
59 management to support growing human populations has led to land drainage, damming and  
60 realignment of rivers, and shifts in land use and land cover with major consequences for the  
61 transport and fluxes of materials between river catchments and lakes (Wu et al., 2007; Yang et  
62 al., 2011). Additional to these changes, pollution from nutrients (N, P) has intensified since the  
63 acceleration of synthetic fertilizer applications and the centralisation of urban sewage disposal  
64 and treatment (Yu et al., 2019). Changes in lake hydrological and nutrient balance can have

65 profound effects on the carbon cycling in lakes (Chen et al., 2017). For example, damming may  
66 restrict allochthonous carbon flow to lakes and the restriction of water supply can cause water  
67 level lowering and enhance resuspension and decomposition of lake bottom sediments (Catalán  
68 et al., 2016; Syvitski et al., 2009). In contrast, increased delivery of N and P is known to  
69 stimulate in-lake productivity by enhancing growth of phototrophs (algae, cyanobacteria,  
70 macrophytes), stimulating the production of more autochthonous carbon (i.e., lake  
71 eutrophication) (Downing et al., 2008; Hupp et al., 2019). Understanding how the combined  
72 forces of hydrological change and nutrient pollution interact to affect carbon cycling is key to  
73 integrating the function of floodplain basins in the landscape as traps or sources of carbon and  
74 informing carbon-sensitive management.

75 Lake sediment cores can provide multi-decadal scale archives of changes in lacustrine systems,  
76 which can be used to learn how past shifts in carbon cycling relate to widespread changes in  
77 human activities such as hydrological modification and nutrient pollution (Chen et al., 2017;  
78 Tao et al., 2009). Simple and rapid analytical techniques can be used to characterise organic  
79 matter (OM) in lacustrine sediments and provide past insights into carbon cycling shifts in  
80 lakes. For example, the relative quantities of total organic carbon (TOC) to total nitrogen (TN)  
81 (C/N ratios) and sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  can provide information on sources of OM and how it is  
82 processed within lakes, and thus they are widely used in paleoecology to investigate carbon  
83 cycling (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). Distinctive ratios of C/N in algae (4 – 10) compared with  
84 vascular plants (> 20) mean that this index can help to distinguish whether sedimentary OM  
85 derives from predominantly terrestrial or aquatic sources (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). Because  
86 algae preferentially assimilate lighter carbon ( $^{12}\text{C}$ ) for photosynthesis sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  can  
87 commonly be driven by algal productivity (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). In hydrologically-  
88 stable water bodies, high primary productivity can enrich the remaining inorganic carbon pool  
89 available for photosynthesis and thus the newly-generated OM is enriched in  $^{13}\text{C}$  (Meyers and

90 Teranes, 2002; O’Beirne et al., 2017). Interpretation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in sedimentary OM requires  
91 critical analysis because isotopes integrate OM sources (a) from multiple seasons, (b) across  
92 benthic and pelagic lake habitats where carbon availability and isotopic ratios can differ  
93 (Brenner et al., 2006; Gu et al., 1996) and (c) from catchment and in-lake sources (Maberly et  
94 al., 2013). For instance, a modern survey of over 80 Florida lakes showed that water column  
95 chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) explained ~65 % of the variance in planktonic  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  but only 38% of the  
96 variance in sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , indicating the contribution of OM from non-planktonic sources  
97 (Gu et al., 1996). Because floodplain lakes are shallow, have well-developed and sometimes  
98 densely vegetated littoral zones, with seasonally- and interannually-variable flooding dynamics  
99 affecting the delivery and outwash of catchment-derived OM, interpretation of C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
100 is not straightforward.

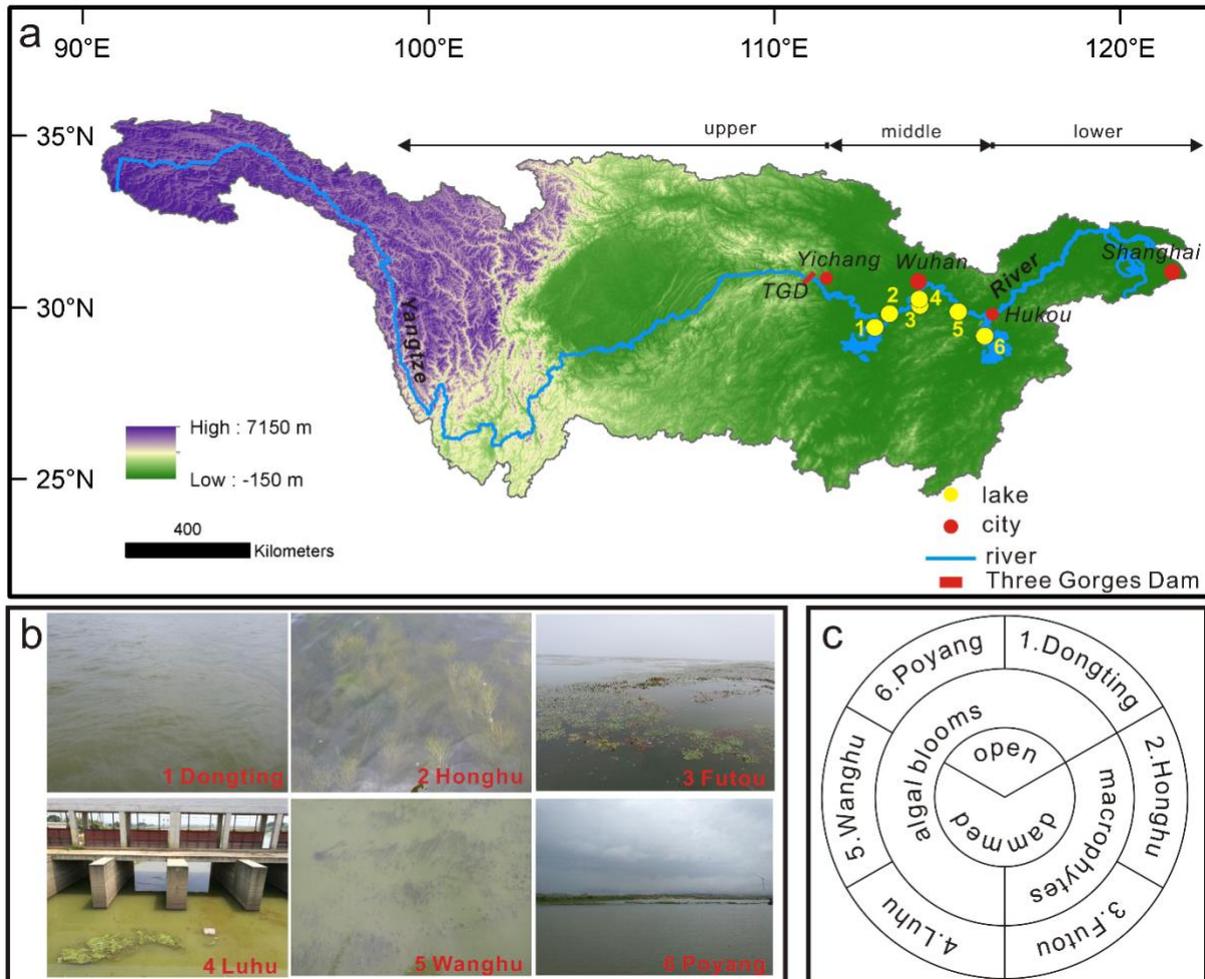
101 The middle reaches of the Yangtze Basin are within an important social-economic zone in  
102 China containing the country’s largest and second largest floodplain lakes (Figure 1). Rapid  
103 expansion in population and industrial and agricultural activities in China has led to significant  
104 nutrient pollution issues (Dong et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2008). Meanwhile, more than 50  
105 thousand dams have been established in this area (e.g., Three Gorges Dam) for hydropower,  
106 irrigation, flood control and water supply over the past century (Yang et al., 2011). As a result,  
107 the floodplain system has severely deteriorated, especially the floodplain lakes (Chen et al.,  
108 2016; Dong et al., 2012, Yang et al., 2008). Lakes are reported to have transitioned from  
109 “macrophyte-dominated” to “algal-dominated” states since the “reform and opening-up”  
110 period of escalating economic development starting in the late 1970s (Dong et al. 2016; Zhang  
111 et al., 2018). Notable increases in carbon burial rates of the middle and lower Yangtze region  
112 have occurred since the 1950s associated with eutrophication (Dong et al., 2012). However, in  
113 general organic carbon is heavily mineralized in these type of floodplain lakes, and carbon  
114 burial is dependent on the size of lakes with larger lakes burying less carbon per unit area (Dong

115 et al., 2012). Better characterization of the OM could help to understand the function of these  
116 lakes in carbon processing and to track how these processes have changed through a period of  
117 major change spanning the “Anthropocene” (Anderson et al., 2020). Therefore, we aimed to 1)  
118 characterise potential sources of OM in the middle Yangtze floodplain (China) by analysing  
119  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C/N ratios of “end members” (catchment plants, soils, aquatic plants) and lake surface  
120 sediments; 2) investigate the relative influences of damming and eutrophication on OM cycling  
121 in six shallow mid-Yangtze floodplain lakes by studying C/N ratios and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and sedimentary  
122 Chl *a* spanning the past 200 years. We hypothesise that localised damming of lakes will reduce  
123 the relative contribution of allochthonous OM while sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and Chl *a* will record  
124 eutrophication responses in these lakes which will accelerate during the 1980s when economic  
125 development expanded rapidly in this region.

## 126 **2. Materials and methods**

### 127 **2.1 Study area**

128 The six floodplain lakes in the middle Yangtze floodplain include the two largest in China  
129 (Dongting and Poyang, > 2500 km<sup>2</sup>) which remain freely connected with the Yangtze River  
130 (Figure 1a). The other lakes (Honghu, Futou, Luhu and Wanghu, 40 – 350 km<sup>2</sup>) have restricted  
131 connectivity with the Yangtze tributaries because of the installation of local dams. There are  
132 obvious differences in water quality across the six lakes, with two having abundant macrophyte  
133 cover (Futou and Honghu) and the others (Dongting, Poyang, Luhu and Wanghu) experiencing  
134 algal blooms with turbid waters which appear to have proliferated in recent years (Figure 1b)  
135 (Zong et al., 2019).



136

137 **Figure 1** (a) Location of the study lakes (1=Dongting, 2=Honghu, 3=Futou, 4=Luhu,  
 138 5=Wanghu, 6=Poyang) in the Yangtze Basin with insets showing (b) the photos and (c) the  
 139 hydrological and ecological features of the lakes. Based on the geology, climate and the  
 140 resulting geomorphology, the Yangtze River is divided into the upper (from the headwaters to  
 141 Yichang), middle (from Yichang to Hukou) and lower (downstream of Hukou) reaches.

## 142 2.2 Sampling

143 In July 2017 samples were taken from soils in the lake catchments (5 paddy soils in total),  
 144 terrestrial plants (12), and aquatic plants (23, including 6 from emergent plants, 10 from  
 145 floating-leaved plants and 7 from submerged macrophytes) in the middle Yangtze floodplain  
 146 (Supporting Information Table S1). In Dongting Lake, surface sediments were collected from

147 11 points in the lake to represent a spread of depths and distance from the shoreline. In the  
148 other lakes, one surface sediment sample was collected from each lake.

149 Sediment cores (61 – 101 cm) from the central part of each lake were collected using a gravity  
150 corer between 2014 and 2017 and sectioned at 1-cm intervals after collection. Subsamples for  
151 pigment analysis were stored at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and subsamples for dating and C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analysis  
152 were stored at  $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Detailed information on the sediment coring were presented in Chen et al.  
153 (2019). The sediment cores were dated using  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  with a constant rate of supply  
154 (CRS) model.  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the Dongting sediment core were analysed at 2-cm intervals  
155 in Nanjing Institute of Geography and Limnology with a gamma spectrometer (Ortec HPGe  
156 GWL) (Supporting Information Figure S1).  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  activities in the Futou sediment core are from  
157 Zeng et al. (2018).  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  chronologies in sediment cores from the other lakes are from  
158 Chen et al. (2019). Due to the detection limit of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating (i.e., older than ca. 150 years), we  
159 limited the temporal span of the data to after 1800 CE.

### 160 **2.3 C/N ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis**

161 C and N mass and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  were analysed at the National Environmental Isotope Facility (NEIF)  
162 at the British Geological Survey, after preliminary treatment at the University of Nottingham  
163 between October 2017 and May 2018. Freeze-dried samples were soaked in HCl (5%) to ensure  
164 that all calcites were removed, and then washed with deionised water three times to eliminate  
165 the extra acid before being dried at  $40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Brodie et al., 2011). The dry samples were then  
166 ground and weighed into tin capsules for analysis.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , TOC and TN content were analysed  
167 using Costech Elemental Analyser (EA) and on-line VG TripleTrap and Optima dual-inlet  
168 mass spectrometer. TOC and TN content were calibrated using the acetanilide standard. C/N  
169 ratios were calculated using corrections for atomic mass.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was calibrated to the Vienna Pee  
170 Dee Belemnite (VPDB) using laboratory standards (BROC 2 and Soil A) which were calibrated

171 against NBS-18, NBS-19 and NBS-22. For each batch of 30 sediment samples, 10 replicates  
172 of the internal NEIF standard BROCC 2 and 2 replicates of the external standard Soil A were  
173 analysed. Analytical precision of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was to within  $< \pm 0.1 \text{ ‰}$  (1 SD).

## 174 **2.4 Chlorophyll *a* analysis**

175 Chl *a*, a pigment found in most photoautotrophs, was extracted and analysed in the sediments  
176 to provide an estimate of the contribution of autochthonous phototrophic OM to the organic  
177 carbon pool (McGowan et al., 2012). High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)  
178 comprising an Agilent 1200 series quaternary pump, autosampler, ODS Hypersil column (250  
179  $\times$  4.6 mm; 5  $\mu\text{m}$  particle size) and photo-diode array (PDA) detector was used to separate and  
180 identify Chl *a* extracted from sediments at the University of Nottingham in 2017 (Chen et al.,  
181 2001). Firstly, freeze-dried sediments were weighted into vials for extraction. Then 5 ml  
182 extraction solvent (acetone: methanol: deionised water 80: 15: 5) was added into the vials to  
183 extract the pigments. During extraction, the vials were kept in freezer at  $-4^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 hours.  
184 After that, the samples were filtered through a 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  PTFE syringe filter, followed by drying  
185 down under  $\text{N}_2$  gas. Subsequently, the samples were dissolved in injection solvent, a mixture  
186 of acetone (70%), ion-pairing reagent (25%) and methanol (5%) and then transferred into  
187 HPLC vials and set up for running in the HPLC. Pigment chromatographic peaks were  
188 calibrated using commercial standards from DHI (Denmark). Concentrations were expressed  
189 as nmole pigment per gram organic carbon ( $\text{nmol g}^{-1}$  TOC) to allow the relative contribution  
190 of autochthonous phototrophic OM to the overall organic carbon pool to be estimated.

## 191 **3. Results and discussion**

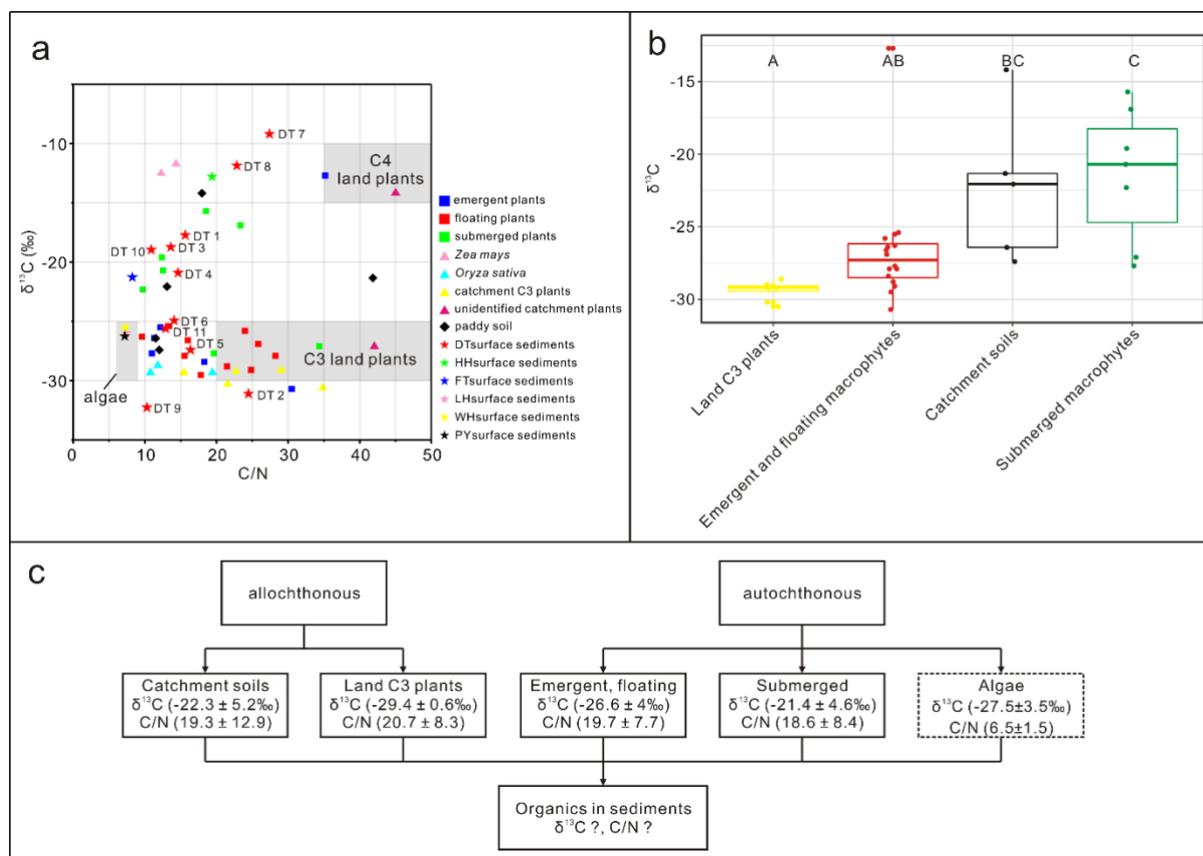
### 192 **3.1 Samples from aquatic plants, catchment plants and soils**

193 To interpret sedimentary carbon profiles, the signatures of potential sedimentary source  
194 materials need to be established. Analysis of the modern samples shows that aquatic plants and

195 catchment land plants have similar C/N ratios but distinctive isotope compositions in the  
196 middle Yangtze floodplain (Figure 2a and 2b). Similar to values of Meyers and Teranes (2002),  
197 *Zea mays*, a common C<sub>4</sub> plant, is characterized by a relatively positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $-12.0 \pm$   
198  $0.6\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 2$ ), whereas other catchment plants, such as *Oryza sativa* ( $-29 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 3$ ) and  
199 *Artemisia selengensis*, *Graminae*, and *Pinaceae* ( $-29.6 \pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 5$ ), have a negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $p$   
200  $< 0.05$ ) (Figure 2a). Terrestrial plants use atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\sim -7\text{‰}$ ) for photosynthesis  
201 (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). C<sub>3</sub> plants (i.e., *Oryza sativa*) use the Calvin photosynthetic  
202 pathway (isotopic discrimination  $\sim -20\text{‰}$ ), whereas C<sub>4</sub> plants (*Zea mays*) use the Hatch-Slack  
203 pathway (isotopic discrimination  $-6\text{‰}$  to  $-4\text{‰}$ ) (Meyers and Lallier-Vergés, 1999). Therefore,  
204 OM produced by C<sub>3</sub> plants is characterized by a lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $-27\text{‰}$ ) compared to C<sub>4</sub>  
205 plants ( $-13\text{‰}$  to  $-11\text{‰}$ ) (Meyers and Lallier-Vergés, 1999; Wu et al., 2007).

206 Submerged macrophytes sampled in the middle Yangtze floodplain lakes had higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
207 ( $-21.4 \pm 4.6\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 7$ ) than emergent and floating plants ( $-26.6 \pm 4.0\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 16$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ )  
208 (Figure 2b). This is commonly observed as they use different sources of carbon for  
209 photosynthesis (Aichner et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2021). Autotrophs in lakes potentially use  
210 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> for photosynthesis (Meyers and Lallier-Vergés,  
211 1999; Meyers and Teranes, 2002). Aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> has a similar isotopic signature to atmospheric  
212 CO<sub>2</sub> ( $-7\text{‰}$ ), whereas HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = \sim 1\text{‰}$ ) is less depleted in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  due to the fractionation  
213 during hydration (Deuser and Degens 1967). Therefore, emergent and floating plants ( $-26.6 \pm$   
214  $4\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 16$ ), living at the surface and margins of lakes, are able to more easily access carbon  
215 as CO<sub>2</sub> and have isotopic ratios closer to land C<sub>3</sub> plants ( $-29.4 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$ ,  $n = 8$ ) ( $p = 0.58$ ) (Figure  
216 2b). In contrast, submerged macrophytes, inhabiting the bottom of lakes, are more likely to  
217 utilize HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> for photosynthesis when aqueous CO<sub>2</sub> is insufficient in these alkaline lakes.

218 Therefore, submerged macrophytes have higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Wu et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2021), and are  
 219 in the range of  $-21.4 \pm 4.6\%$  in this study (Figure 2b).



220  
 221 **Figure 2** (a) C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of aquatic and land plants, catchment soils and surface sediments in  
 222 the six lakes. The grey bars indicate values of algae, C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> plants from Meyers and Teranes,  
 223 2002. (b) Boxplot showing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of different sources. Differences among groups ( $p < 0.05$ )  
 224 were assessed using one-way ANOVA. Different letters on the boxes indicate significant  
 225 differences between groups. (c) Flow diagram showing C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (mean  $\pm$  1sd) of OM  
 226 from potential sources in the middle Yangtze floodplain. Values of algae (dashed box) are from  
 227 Meyers and Teranes (2002).

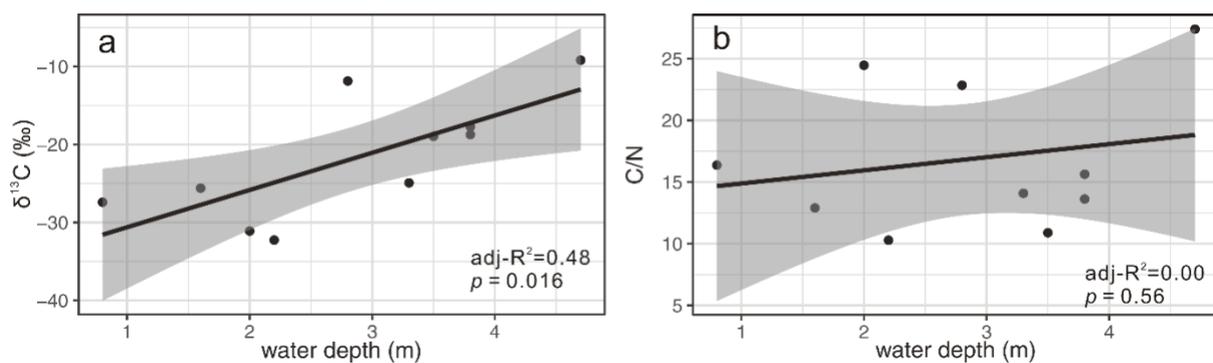
228 Both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $-27\%$  to  $-14\%$ ) and C/N (12 to 42) of paddy soils in the middle Yangtze Basin  
 229 have a wide range of variation (Figure 2a).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C/N of catchment soil are determined by  
 230 the carbon signature of catchment plants and the subsequent processes in soils (Kendall et al.,

231 2001; Wang et al., 2015). In the middle Yangtze floodplain, C<sub>3</sub> plants (mainly *Oryza sativa*)  
232 with a lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $-29.4 \pm 0.6\%$ ,  $n = 8$ ), are the major agricultural crops (> 90% of the arable  
233 land) (National Bureau of Statistics of China, accessed 2020, <http://data.stats.gov.cn/>). In soils  
234 oxidizing reactions and microbial reactions preferentially utilize <sup>12</sup>C, which probably causes  
235 the observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  increase in paddy soils (Wang et al., 2015), although the values are highly  
236 variable in the middle Yangtze floodplain ( $-22.3 \pm 5.2\%$ ) (Figure 2a).

### 237 **3.2 C/N and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in lake surface sediments**

238 OM in sediments of Yangtze floodplain lakes have four main potential sources: a) land plants  
239 (mainly C<sub>3</sub>) and catchment soils; b) emergent and floating plants; c) submerged macrophytes;  
240 and d) algae (Figure 2c). Particulate OM (POM) transported in rivers may also derive from  
241 these sources, but can undergo significant alteration before it reaches lakes (Kendall et al., 2001;  
242 Wang et al., 2015). Lakes which have retained direct connectivity with the Yangtze River  
243 (Dongting, Poyang) might therefore be expected to have similar OM signatures that are  
244 distinctive from those that have been dammed and derived predominantly from riverine POM  
245 (Hupp et al., 2019). However, there was little evidence of differences among the dammed and  
246 freely connected lakes. Instead, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (ca.  $-26\%$ ) and C/N ( $\sim 7$ ) signatures of surface  
247 sediments in these Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang Lakes were most similar to algae (Figure 2a),  
248 which could reflect the recent increases in algal blooms at these sites (Figure 1b) (Zong et al.,  
249 2019). In contrast, Futou and Honghu Lakes which are densely covered with submerged  
250 macrophytes (Figure 1b) (Song et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2018), have surface sediment C/N and  
251  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures which are more similar to that source (Figure 2a). This indicates that  
252 autochthonous sources of carbon (from either algae or macrophytes) appear to be the most  
253 important contributors to the sedimentary OM composition in these lakes.

254 In Dongting Lake surface sediments, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C/N respectively range from ca.  $-32\text{‰}$  to  
 255  $-9\text{‰}$ , and ca. 10 to 27 ( $n = 11$ ) (Figure 2a). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature in surface sediments of Dongting  
 256 Lake is positively and significantly correlated with water depth ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 3a), resulting  
 257 in an increasing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  gradient from littoral to the central parts of the lake (Chen et al., 2017).  
 258 Dongting Lake is the second largest freshwater lake in China, and the annual water surface area  
 259 fluctuation between the flooding and drought season is  $>1,200 \text{ km}^2$  (Ke et al., 2017). The  
 260 advance and retreat of the lake margin during the flooding and non-flooding seasons integrate  
 261 a large amount of allochthonous OM into the lake (Chen et al., 2017). In addition, the littoral  
 262 areas are more suitable for emergent and floating plants which have lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Therefore,  
 263 littoral areas in Dongting Lake which receive relatively more allochthonous OM and have  
 264 abundant emergent and floating-leaved plants have lower sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Central parts of  
 265 the lake are relatively less influenced by terrestrial OM and so have higher sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
 266 (Chen et al., 2017). The relationship between C/N and water depth is not significant (Figure  
 267 3b), because the C/N ratios of land plants and soils ( $20.7 \pm 8.3$ ) are similar to emergent and  
 268 floating plants ( $19.7 \pm 7.7$ ) and there is a high variation of C/N ratios in each group (Figure 2a).



269

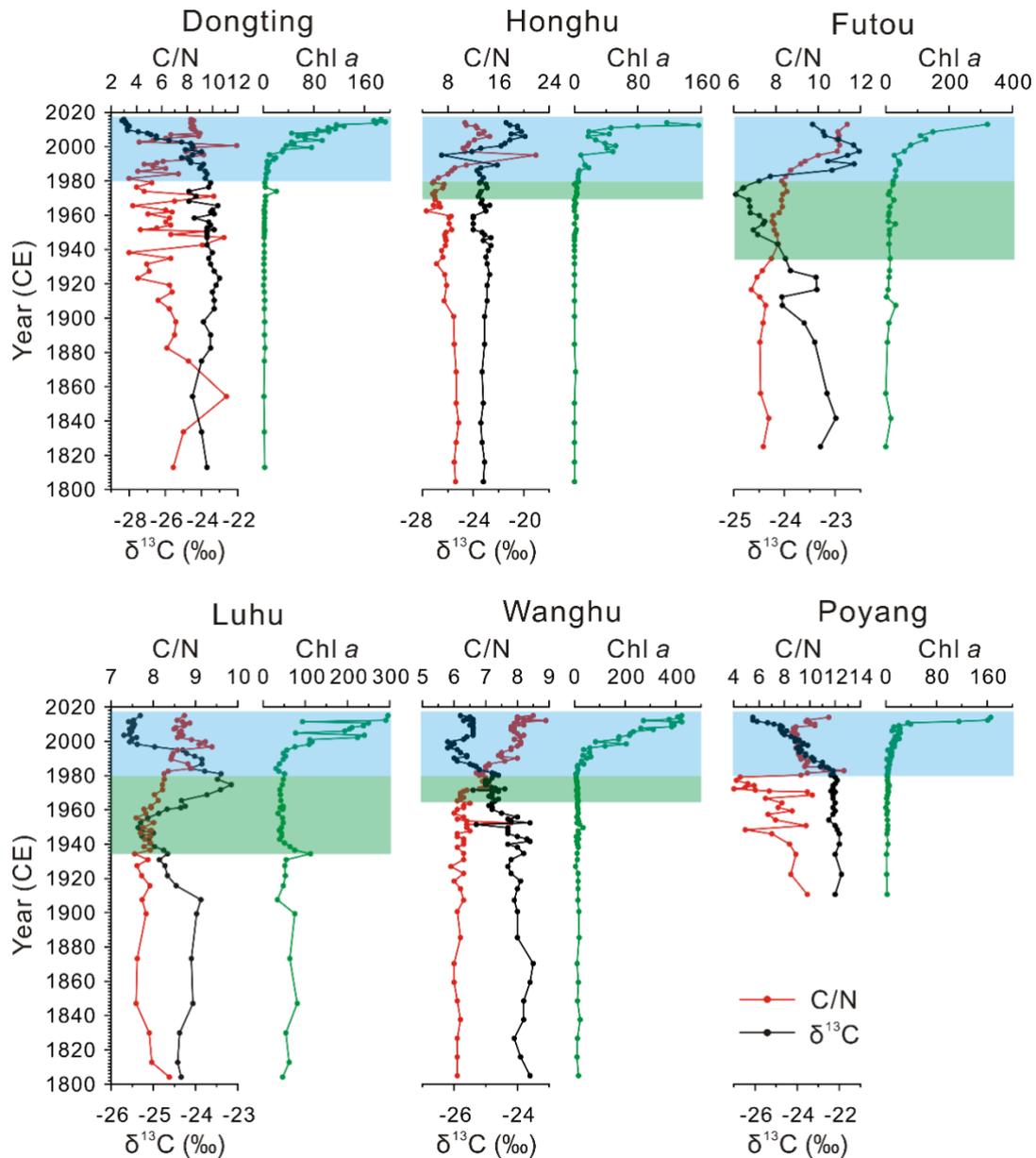
270 **Figure 3** Linear regression between water depth and (a)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and (b) C/N ratios of organic  
 271 matter in surface sediments in Dongting Lake. The shaded band around the fitted line indicates  
 272 the 95 % confidence interval.

273 **3.3 Organic matter cycling in the six lakes over the last 200 years**

### 274 3.3.1 Characteristics of OM under natural conditions

275 When anthropogenic activities were less intensive in the catchments, the earlier sedimentary  
276  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature was intermediate ( $\sim -24\text{‰}$  in Dongting,  $\sim -23\text{‰}$  in Honghu,  $\sim -23.5\text{‰}$  in Futou,  
277  $\sim -24.5\text{‰}$  in Luhu,  $\sim -24\text{‰}$  in Wanghu, and  $\sim -22.5\text{‰}$  in Poyang), located somewhere  
278 between the higher submerged macrophyte values ( $-21.4 \pm 4.6 \text{‰}$ ) and those from other  
279 sources (terrestrial plants ( $-29.4 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$ ), floating-leaved and emergent plants ( $-26.6 \pm 4\text{‰}$ ),  
280 algae ( $-31\text{‰}$  to  $-24\text{‰}$ )) (Figure 4 and 5). Although there might be heterogeneity among each  
281 individual lake, as indicated by the wide range of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C/N ratios in the surface sediments  
282 of Dongting Lake, sedimentary records in Dongting Lake sediment core of this study are  
283 similar to previously published records by Chen et al. (2017) (Supporting Information Figure  
284 S2). This suggests that the single sediment core collected from the central part of Dongting  
285 Lake provides a representative record of the history of the lake (Dong et al., 2012).

286 During the earlier century of lower anthropogenic disturbance, primary producer pigment  
287 concentrations were low in the lake sediments (Chl *a*; Figure 4) while water level fluctuations  
288 and disturbances from flooding resulted in low to intermediate levels of submerged macrophyte  
289 coverage (Zeng et al., 2018). Therefore, the intermediate sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values indicate a  
290 mixture of OM from different sources. We saw limited evidence to suggest that there were  
291 systematic differences in these early OM  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures among lakes based on geographic  
292 gradients or differences in lakes size (Dong et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2007). This could suggest  
293 similarities in the processes of carbon transport and deposition in the wetlands across this  
294 region prior to  $\sim$  the 1940s (i.e., the time prior to marked shifts in the sediment core profiles).



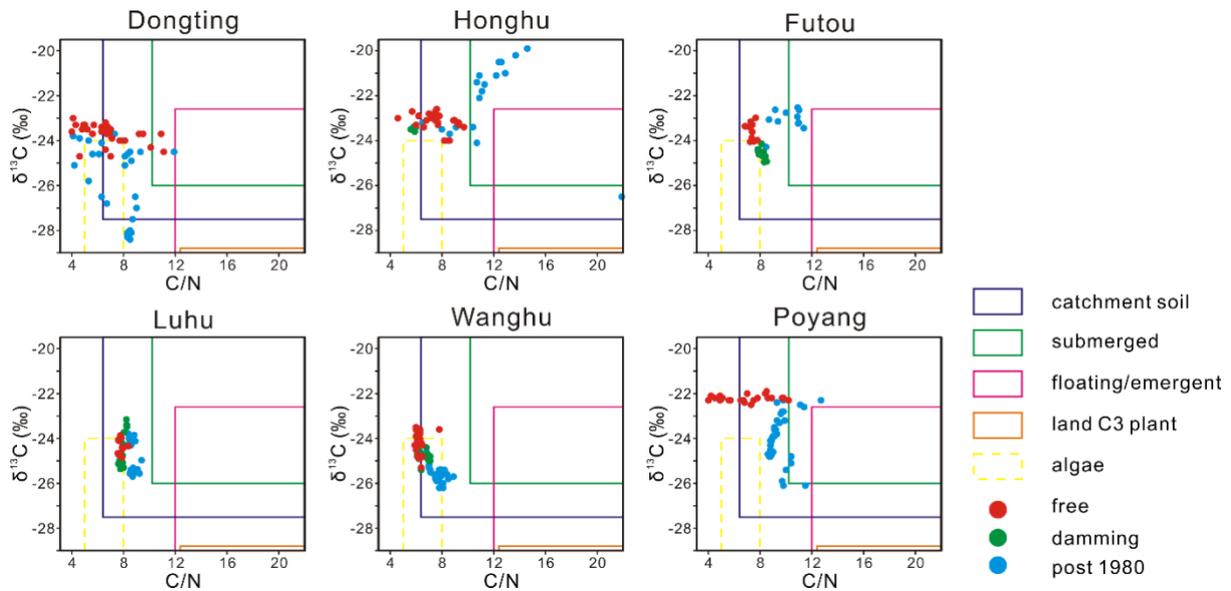
295

296 **Figure 4** C/N (red),  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (black) and Chl *a* (green, unit:  $\text{nmol g}^{-1}$  TOC) of the sediment cores  
 297 from the six lakes since the 19th century. The blue boxes indicate the period after 1980. The  
 298 green boxes indicate the period after local dam construction.

### 299 3.3.2 Responses to hydrological modification

300 Over the past century, the Yangtze Basin has undergone extensive and intensive hydrological  
 301 modification due to dam and reservoir constructions (Yang et al., 2011). Local dams have been  
 302 built in Honghu (~ 1970), Futou (1935, 1973), Luhu (1935, 1967) and Wanghu (1965) Lakes,

303 while the other two lakes maintain free and direct connection with the Yangtze River. Between  
304 the 1940s and the 1980s Chl *a* remained at relatively low values in all six lakes (Figure 4),  
305 indicating low primary production. C/N ratios were highly variable in the two large,  
306 hydrologically open lakes (Dongting and Poyang) (3 – 13) compared with the other four lakes  
307 (Luhu, Wanghu, Honghu and Futou) (6 – 8) which have smaller surface areas and restricted  
308 connection with the Yangtze main channel due to local dam construction (Figure 4). This might  
309 be attributed to the highly variable hydrological conditions in Dongting and Poyang Lakes  
310 (Chen et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2016). The difference in water surface area during the flooding  
311 and non-flooding season is > 1200 km<sup>2</sup> and > 1000 km<sup>2</sup> in Dongting and Poyang Lakes,  
312 respectively (Ke et al., 2017; Shankman and Liang, 2003), which may result in the highly  
313 variable C/N ratios through several mechanisms (Harris, 2016; Ke et al., 2017). Firstly, the  
314 periodic water level fluctuations may incorporate variable amounts of terrestrial OM (i.e.,  
315 catchment soils or plants) which have a wide range of C/N ratios (Chen et al., 2017; Woszczyk  
316 et al., 2014). Secondly, free and direct connection with the Yangtze River means variable  
317 amount of riverine OM can be transported into Dongting and Poyang Lakes during the flooding  
318 and non-flooding seasons (Hupp et al., 2019), as well as the amount of Chl *a* being trapped and  
319 buried in the lakes (Tockner et al., 1999). Thirdly, water level fluctuations may regulate OM  
320 cycling indirectly by changing the redox conditions which regulate the decomposition and  
321 degradation of OM, including Chl *a* (Liang et al., 2016). Therefore, the distinct response in  
322 C/N ratios between dammed and free lakes implies that damming may be a factor influencing  
323 OM cycling in these Yangtze floodplain lakes.

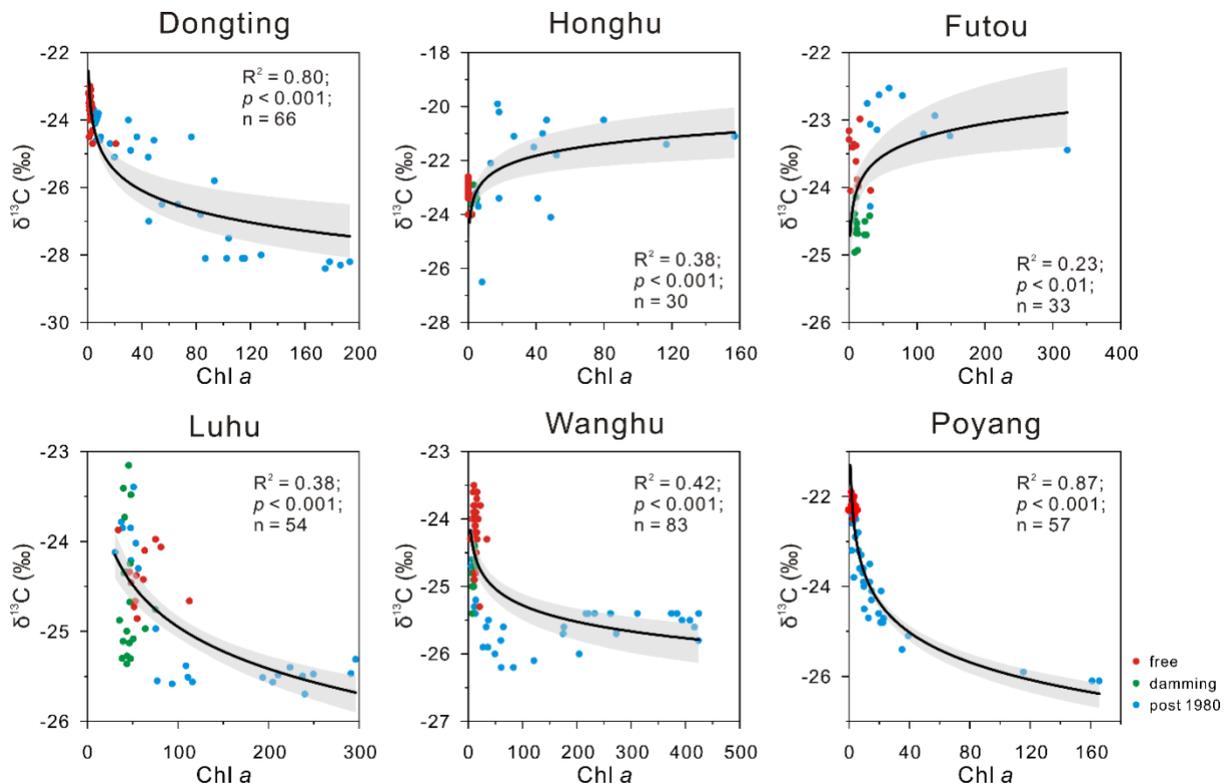


324

325 **Figure 5** Sedimentary C/N vs.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the middle Yangtze floodplain lakes since 1800 CE  
 326 against values of land plants, submerged, emergent and floating plants in the middle Yangtze  
 327 floodplain (rectangles in solid line, showing the mean and 1 standard deviation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
 328 C/N ratios for each group) and algae from Meyers and Teranes (2002) (rectangle in dashed  
 329 line).

330 Hydrological restriction of lakes through damming can promote the development of submerged  
 331 macrophytes (which have higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) because they thrive when water levels become more  
 332 stable and waters become clearer as suspended sediments inputs are reduced (Cao et al., 2014;  
 333 Zeng et al., 2018). Meanwhile, reductions in riverine POM inputs which have lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  would  
 334 be predicted to result in elevated sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in lakes with local dams (Hupp et al., 2019).  
 335 However, there were no obvious and coherent responses in sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  to dam  
 336 installation, except in Luhu Lake where sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  increased (Figure 4). In contrast,  
 337 sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  decreased in Futou Lake and there were no obvious changes in Honghu Lake  
 338 after dam installations. The inconsistent changes in sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  argue against coherent  
 339 and overriding impacts of dam installation on sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . This unexpected pattern may  
 340 be explained by the synchronous intensification of agricultural activities across the Yangtze

341 floodplain since the late 1940s (Dearing et al., 2012), which could have increased the  
 342 contribution of terrestrial OM from the catchments, offsetting the decreases in riverine  
 343 terrestrial OM (Chen et al., 2017). In addition, stabilized water levels after dam construction  
 344 might also promote the development of emergent macrophytes which are characterized by low  
 345  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Azza et al., 2006). Although speculative, we infer that the concurrent increases in  
 346 submerged and emergent and floating macrophytes, as well as terrestrial OM, may underlie the  
 347 observation that dam construction was not marked by a concomitant increases in sedimentary  
 348  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in lakes with local dams.



349

350 **Figure 6** Regression between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and Chl a (unit: nmol g<sup>-1</sup> TOC) in the sediment cores from  
 351 the lakes. The colour band around the fitted line indicates the 95 % confidence interval. “free”  
 352 indicates period when the lakes were freely connected with the Yangtze River.

### 353 3.3.3 Responses to eutrophication

354 Lakes have undergone severe eutrophication in the Yangtze floodplain since the 1980s due to  
355 intensive and extensive human activities in the catchments (Dong et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,  
356 2018). Elevated burial due to increased primary production enhances sedimentary Chl *a*  
357 through better preservation (Figure 4) (McGowan et al., 2012). At the same time, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
358 C/N of sediments gradually moved from the previously intermediate values to those similar to  
359 algae in Dongting, Poyang, Luhu, and Wanghu Lakes (Figure 5), indicating that algae became  
360 the main source of OM. This resulted in a significant negative relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
361 Chl *a* in these four lakes (Figure 6).

362 The association of elevated primary production with the depletion of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $> 3\text{‰}$  decrease) in  
363 Dongting, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang Lakes differs from the trends in some deeper lakes  
364 (Meyers and Teranes, 2002) but is commonly associated with eutrophication in shallow lakes  
365 (Brenner et al., 1999; Bunting et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2007). Lakes in the middle Yangtze  
366 floodplain are shallow and hence suitable for submerged macrophytes (Cao et al., 2014; Zeng  
367 et al., 2018). Since the ~1980s, the substantial increases in production caused the decreases in  
368 submerged macrophytes in these four lakes (Chen et al., 2017; Scheffer et al., 1993; Zong et  
369 al., 2019) (Figure 1b). Therefore, the decrease in sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in these four lakes after  
370 1980 might reflect changes in the sources of OM from  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched submerged macrophytes  
371 to  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -depleted algae (Wu et al., 2007).

372 Consistent with this interpretation, C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  were high and gradually moved to values  
373 closer to submerged macrophytes in Honghu and Futou Lakes which have abundant submerged  
374 macrophytes after the 1980s (Figure 1b), although algal production increased in these two lakes  
375 (Figure 5). Honghu and Futou Lakes are in earlier stages of eutrophication and have abundant  
376 submerged macrophytes (Cao et al., 2014; Zeng et al., 2018). The coverage of *Myriophyllum*  
377 spp. and *Potamogeton* spp. in Honghu Lake increased from 6% and 10% in the 1950s to 65%  
378 and 65% in the 1990s, respectively (Song et al., 2016). Therefore, the concurrent increases in

379  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and C/N ratios in Honghu and Futou after the 1980s might be attributed to the increasing  
380 contribution of submerged macrophytes, enriched in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , to the OM pool in the early stage of  
381 eutrophication.

382 Despite the low values, C/N ratios slightly increased in Dongting, Poyang, Luhu and Wanghu  
383 Lakes since the 1980s as revealed by the positive Mann-Kendall coefficients ( $p < 0.05$ ), likely  
384 reflecting the influence of allochthonous OM. Increasing C/N ratios normally indicate  
385 increasing contribution of cellulose-rich OM to the sediments (Chen et al., 2017; Meyers and  
386 Teranes, 2002). As noted above, the intensification of human activities such as land  
387 reclamation, deforestation, aquaculture and lake area shrinkage during this time has probably  
388 increased the influxes of allochthonous OM (land  $\text{C}_3$  plants and catchment soil) (Dong et al.,  
389 2012; Chen et al., 2017), which are rich in cellulose and capable of explaining the observed  
390 increase in C/N and depletion of sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Figure 4). This is consistent with the  
391 previous study on Dongting Lake which illustrated that increased contribution of allochthonous  
392 OM resulted in recent increases in the C/N ratios (Chen et al., 2017).

393 Selective degradation of OM during sedimentation and early diagenesis may modify the C/N  
394 ratios and sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . It has been reported that the preferential mineralization of N  
395 relative to C during early diagenesis causes the increases in C/N ratios of lake sediments as  
396 diagenesis proceeds (Gälman et al., 2008; Herczeg et al., 2001). In contrast, the diagenetic loss  
397 of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched components (e.g., carboxyl carbon) and the selective preservation of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -  
398 depleted refractory components are reported to cause the depletion of sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  during  
399 diagenesis (Lehmann et al., 2002; Spiker and Hatcher, 1984). In this study C/N ratios exhibit  
400 an increasing trend ( $p < 0.05$ ) from the bottom to the top of the sediment cores from all the  
401 lakes and sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  showed a decreasing trend from the bottom to the top of the  
402 sediment cores from Dongting, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang Lakes ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 4), which  
403 are opposite to that expected if preferential degradation of N than C and the loss of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -enriched

404 components had occurred during diagenesis. Therefore, we think the alternations in C/N ratios  
405 and sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mainly reflect the changes in the source of OM rather than degradation  
406 processes in these Yangtze floodplain lakes over the last 200 years.

#### 407 **4. Conclusions**

408 Our study provides clear evidence that eutrophication, rather than damming, was the main  
409 factor regulating OM cycling in the Yangtze floodplain lakes over the last 200 years. Since the  
410 1980s the six lakes exhibited contrasting trajectories of OM cycling from similar baseline  
411 values, depending on the degree of eutrophication. In less polluted lakes (Honghu and Futou),  
412 which are in the early stage of eutrophication, submerged macrophytes were the main source  
413 of OM and hence sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is higher. In lakes which have undergone ecosystem state  
414 transitions and are suffering from algal blooms (Dongting, Poyang, Luhu and Wanghu), algae  
415 are the main source of OM and hence the sediments are characterized by depleted  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Our  
416 results indicate that eutrophication induced increases in sedimentation of autochthonously-  
417 derived POM and this had a more pronounced effect than damming on regulating sedimentary  
418 OM.

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#### 427 **Data Availability Statement**

428 The C/N ratios and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data used in the study have been submitted to the repository  
429 PANGAEA Data Archiving & Publication (PDI-29663). The data submission is now being  
430 checked and processed. Temporarily a copy of the data is uploaded as Supporting Information  
431 for review purposes.

432 **Declaration of competing interest:**

433 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
434 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

435 **Author contribution statement**

436 **Linghan Zeng:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis,  
437 Visualization, Writing – original draft; **Suzanne McGowan:** Conceptualization, Methodology,  
438 Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing, Supervision; **George Swann:** Data curation,  
439 Visualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision; **Melanie Leng:** Methodology, Formal  
440 analysis, Data curation, Writing – review & editing; **Xu Chen:** Funding acquisition, Writing –  
441 review & editing.

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