

1 **Ecosystem deterioration in the middle Yangtze floodplain lakes over the last two centuries:**  
2 **evidence from sedimentary pigments**

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18 **Highlights**

- 19 • The middle Yangtze lakes have undergone unprecedented increases in algal production during  
20 the Anthropocene.
- 21 • Diazotrophic HABs are stimulated by P-enriched urban wastewater pollution.
- 22 • Agriculturally-derived N pollution favors non-N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria
- 23 • Hydrological connections of lakes with the main channel mitigated against HABs occurrence.

24 **Abstract:**

25 Water quality of floodplain lakes in the Yangtze region which supports ca. 0.45 billion people is being  
26 severely compromised by nutrient pollution, climate change and dam installation resulting from  
27 intensive socio-economic development. However, due to a lack of long-term monitoring data, the onset  
28 and causes of ecosystem degradation are unclear. Here, we used chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments  
29 in dated sediment cores from six lakes spanning the region to reconstruct changes in algae and  
30 cyanobacterial HAB (harmful algal bloom) taxa alongside sedimentary nutrient flux measurements and  
31 historical archives. Sedimentary N fluxes are linked to changes in agriculture, while urbanization has  
32 had greater influences on P fluxes. Over the last 70 years algal and N<sub>2</sub>-fixing HAB pigments increased  
33 markedly in lakes (Luhu, Wanghu) that are strongly influenced by urbanization/industrialization. Algal  
34 assemblages in two other lakes (Futou, Honghu) changed gradually and responded primarily to  
35 agriculture and associated N fluxes; diazotrophic HAB pigments were absent and the lakes retained  
36 macrophyte cover. Local dam installation had no discernible effect on pigment assemblages in three of  
37 the four lakes in the past 70 years, but in the two hydrologically-open lakes (Poyang, Dongting),  
38 increasing algal production was significantly related to the upstream installation of the Three Gorges  
39 Dam (TGD) and to urban/ industrial and agricultural stressors. Temperature only influenced  
40 phototrophs in the most degraded lakes (Luhu, Wanghu). This spatial and temporal overview identifies  
41 that nutrient pollution is the primary regional driver of lake phototrophs, but that diazotrophic HABs  
42 are stimulated by P-enriched urban wastewater pollution, and agriculturally-derived N pollution favors  
43 non-N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria. Despite negative effects of the Three Gorges project, free connection to  
44 the river appears to help mitigate excess HABs in freely connected lakes. Management thus needs to be  
45 tailored appropriately to specific lake conditions and palaeolimnology can be valuable in identifying  
46 appropriate strategies.

47 **Keywords:** Anthropocene, algal production, HABs, hydrological modification, agriculture,  
48 urbanization, industrialization

## 49 **1 Introduction**

50 River floodplain ecosystems provide many benefits to society, but the services they provide are under  
51 threat from river regulation, land-use changes and pollution (Petsch et al., 2022). Floodplain lakes are  
52 dynamic systems, where primary productivity would naturally be sustained by periodic river flooding  
53 (Junk, 2005). In the Yangtze floodplain, this natural balance is being fundamentally altered by a  
54 combination of human socio-economic development and climate change (Dearing et al., 2012; Wang  
55 et al., 2016). Water quality in many Yangtze floodplain lakes is compromised by harmful algal blooms  
56 (HABs), turbid waters and loss of macrophytes (Xu et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2016; Song et al., 2021).  
57 Understanding the main drivers of water quality degradation is vital for effective remediation, but is  
58 particularly challenging in the Yangtze floodplain because of the diverse range of interacting stressors  
59 across a large, spatially heterogeneous and heavily modified floodplain.

60 Intensive nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) loading from fertilizer usage, aquaculture nutrient release  
61 and domestic and industrial sewage is causing eutrophication and ecological degradation of lakes all  
62 over the world (Conley et al., 2009; Waters et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019; Wurtsbaugh et al., 2019),  
63 resulting in problems such as turbid waters, loss of aquatic macrophytes, reduced algal diversity (Dong  
64 et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2022) and associated reduction in ecosystem services (Janssen et al., 2021). In  
65 particular, the increased incidence of toxic HABs (i.e., cyanobacterial blooms) presents an emerging  
66 threat to human and ecosystem health (Taranu et al., 2015; Song et al., 2021). For example, HABs in  
67 Taihu Lake (lower Yangtze Basin) have compromised the regional drinking water source, and initiated  
68 major remediation work (Paerl et al., 2016). Although remote sensing has noted a rise in surface blooms  
69 (Zong et al., 2019), the onset and magnitude of algal blooms are unclear, especially in developing  
70 regions (Taranu et al., 2015). In addition, there is a long-running debate on whether N or P exerts overall  
71 control on HABs (Conley et al., 2009; Paerl et al., 2016; Schindler et al., 2012). Because the causes,  
72 and so the remediation options of HABs can differ among different lakes (e.g., Richardson et al., 2018),  
73 developing an understanding of how nutrient pollution and other drivers affect water quality is required.

74 Damming of rivers influences water flows and fluxes of sediments and nutrients on a global scale  
75 (Maavara et al., 2020). Reservoir formation from major damming projects on large rivers can degrade

76 downstream water quality by mobilising bioavailable nutrients to exacerbate regional-scale  
77 eutrophication (Chen et al., 2020). However, dams which regulate single lakes also have localised  
78 consequences (Chen et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2018). Periodic flooding can supply or remove nutrients,  
79 suspended particles and phytoplankton, thereby influencing turbidity, light availability and primary  
80 productivity in floodplain lakes (Tockner et al., 1999; Squires and Lesack, 2002; Richardson et al.,  
81 2018). Reducing (variability in) water retention time (WRT) by damming lake inflows can increase P  
82 retention in lakes and emphasize internal nutrient cycling processes (Vollenweider, 1976). WRT also  
83 influences HAB development because cyanobacteria compete well in lentic waters, whereas diatoms  
84 prefer well-flushed and lotic-influenced systems (Elliott, 2010; Liu et al., 2017). Since river  
85 connectivity (and WRT) plays a complex role which interacts with local hydrology, the effects of  
86 damming are likely to vary among lakes and need to be further explored (Cross et al., 2014; Olsson et  
87 al., 2022).

88 In addition to nutrients and hydrological regulation, climate change can also influence lake ecosystems  
89 (Lin et al., 2021). Together with atmospheric stilling, higher temperatures are increasing lake  
90 stratification in many lakes globally (Woolway et al., 2020). Bloom-forming cyanobacteria may have  
91 physiological advantages over eukaryotic algae under warmer conditions (Griffith and Gobler, 2020)  
92 and so warming appears to act synergistically with nutrients to exaggerate the extent and duration of  
93 HABs (Paerl and Paul, 2012; Lin et al., 2021). Rainfall variability can influence river discharge and  
94 lake flushing rates, affecting the seasonal development of algal communities (Cross et al., 2014;  
95 Richardson et al., 2019). Shifts in the hydrological balance of floodplain lakes can change phototrophic  
96 community composition (McGowan et al., 2011), but floodplain hydrology is naturally spatially  
97 heterogeneous, making lake responses to environmental stressors difficult to predict (Remmer et al.,  
98 2020). In the heavily-dammed mid-Yangtze region, it is not clear whether rainfall variability is able to  
99 exert a significant influence on floodplain ecosystems. Given the complexity of phytoplankton response  
100 to multiple stressors, developing an understanding of how nutrient pollution and other drivers affect  
101 floodplain lake ecosystems is required.

102 Typical in China, the mid-Yangtze region has experienced rapid socio-economic development and  
103 population growth, with key transition points including the establishment of the People's Republic of  
104 China in 1949 CE and the "reform and opening-up" policy for economic development in 1978 CE (Yu  
105 et al., 2019). Using palaeolimnology to reconstruct water quality changes and environmental drivers  
106 over long timescales offers important insights into floodplain lake dynamics that pre-date water quality  
107 monitoring records (Wolfe et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2016). As sedimentary biomarkers for phototrophic  
108 primary producers, including HABs, chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments are a reliable index to track  
109 the timing, nature and extent of water quality changes (McGowan, 2013). Since water quality  
110 monitoring was scarce in the Yangtze region before the 1980s, long-term sediment-based  
111 reconstructions of ecological change through the period of intensive change in comparison to earlier  
112 ecological baselines can inform restoration possibilities (Battarbee and Bennion, 2011). Also, when  
113 coupled with archival records of socio-economic and meteorological change, palaeolimnological  
114 records can help to infer the causes of lake ecosystem change (McGowan et al., 2012; Bunting et al.,  
115 2016). Palaeolimnological comparisons across landscapes provide a long-term overview of multi-lake  
116 dynamics that can help to extricate the regional and local drivers of change and provide focal points for  
117 management (Quinlan et al., 2002; Mills et al., 2017). In contrast to small lake districts where lake  
118 dynamics can be highly spatially organized (Kratz et al., 1997; Dixit et al., 2000; Leavitt et al., 2006),  
119 floodplain landscapes are generally more heterogenous (Wolfe et al., 2008; McGowan et al., 2011).  
120 Long-term comparisons across landscapes can identify commonalities and differences in lake responses  
121 to environmental drivers and ascertain whether regional versus local environmental drivers of change  
122 are most important (Moorhouse et al., 2018).

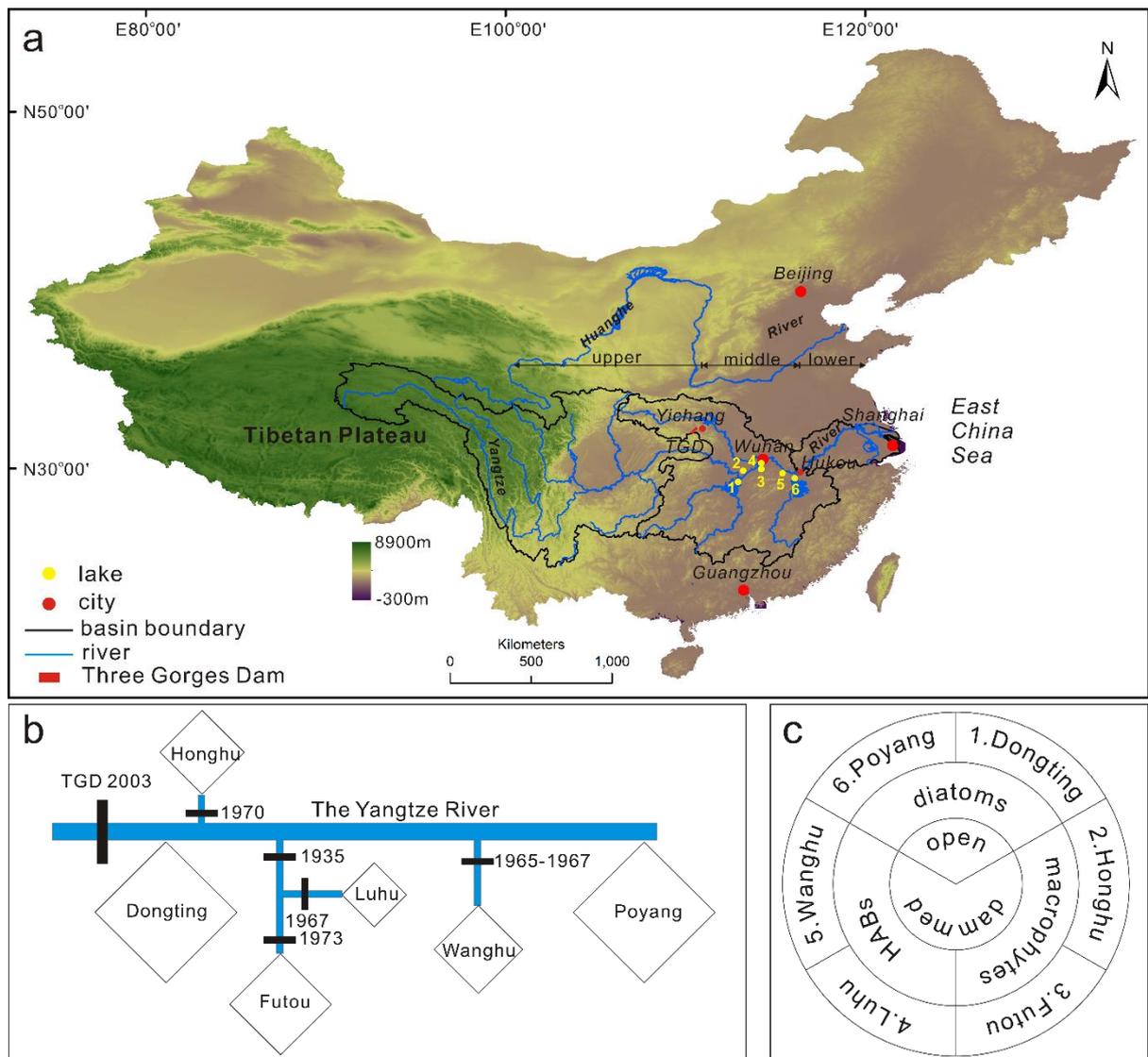
123 Here we investigate six shallow floodplain lakes spanning the middle Yangtze floodplain, including the  
124 two largest floodplain lakes in China, to determine how socio-economic drivers, damming and climate  
125 change have influenced nutrient fluxes and communities of primary producers (including HABs). We  
126 aimed to (1) determine how and when lake phototrophic communities (including HABs) and nutrient  
127 fluxes have changed across the lakes in the region over the past ca. 200 years; (2) quantify how socio-  
128 economic drivers including agricultural changes, urban/industrial development, climate and dam

129 installation have influenced nutrient fluxes and algal communities in the lakes over the past 70 years  
130 (the duration of the historical datasets); and (3) identify which drivers should be targeted for lake  
131 management.

## 132 **2 Materials and methods**

### 133 **2.1 Study area**

134 The Yangtze River, known as the “mother river of China”, has a total length of ca. 6300 km and is the  
135 longest river in Asia and third longest in the world (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2013). Originating from  
136 the Tibetan Plateau in Western China, the Yangtze River flows through the deep rocky canyons in the  
137 upper reaches and then meanders in the vast plain in the middle and lower reaches before entering the  
138 East China Sea (Figure 1a). The middle Yangtze, between the cities of Yichang and Hukou, is  
139 characterized by a sub-tropical monsoon climate, with a mean annual temperature of 13-20 °C and an  
140 annual precipitation of 800-1600 mm (Wang et al., 2016). The geological setting combined with the  
141 seasonally variable monsoonal climate make this area susceptible to flooding (Chen et al., 2001) with  
142 the formation of thousands of floodplain lakes. This study focuses on six large (40-3000 km<sup>2</sup>) freshwater  
143 lakes spanning the Middle Yangtze Basin, including the largest (Poyang Lake) and second largest  
144 (Dongting Lake) freshwater lakes in China by area (Table 1; Supplementary Information). Two of the  
145 lakes (Dongting and Poyang) are freely and directly connected with the Yangtze River and are  
146 dominated by diatoms (Liu et al., 2017), while the others (Honghu, Futou, Luhu and Wanghu) are  
147 indirectly connected with the Yangtze River via tributaries and hydrologically restricted by local dam  
148 construction (Zeng et al., 2022) (Figure 1b). For the four hydrologically restricted lakes, two have  
149 abundant macrophyte cover (Futou and Honghu) (Song et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020) while Luhu and  
150 Wanghu are frequently featuring cyanobacterial HABs (Rao et al., 2018; Zong et al., 2019) (Figure 1c).



151

152 **Figure 1** (a) Location of the Yangtze Basin and the study lakes in mainland China (1=Dongting Lake,  
 153 2=Honghu Lake, 3=Futou Lake, 4=Luhu Lake, 5=Wanghu Lake, 6=Poyang Lake) with insets showing  
 154 (b) the hydrological setting (the size of the squares reflects the relative surface area of each lake) and  
 155 (c) the hydrological conditions and ecological features of the lakes.

**Table 1** Location and water chemistry of the study lakes

Site	1 Dongting	2 Honghu	3 Futou	4 Luhu	5 Wanghu	6 Poyang
Latitude (N)	28°44'-29°35'	29°38'-29°59'	29°55'-30°07'	30°12'-30°17'	29°51'-29°54'	28°24'-29°46'
Longitude (E)	111°53'-113°05'	113°11'-113°28'	114°09'-114°20'	114°9.5'-114°15'	115°20'-115°25'	115°49'-116°46'
Administrative location	Hunan	Jingzhou	Wuhan/Xianning	Wuhan	Huangshi	Jiangxi
Administrative area (km <sup>2</sup> )	211,855	14,069	9,178	8,494	4,583	166,900
Mean lake depth (m)	6.4	1.9	2.9	2.7	3.6	5.1
Lake area (km <sup>2</sup> )	2500	344	115	40	42	2933
Sampling date	2017	2015	2014	2016	2016	2016
Hydrology	Open	Dammed	Dammed	Dammed	Dammed	Open
TP (µg/L)	53.6	8.0	37.4	68.2	223.5	27.2
TN (mg/L)	0.17	0.17	0.20	0.33	0.44	0.29
Water TN/TP ratio	7.02	47.05	11.84	10.71	4.36	23.61
Dominant phytoplankton	Bacillariophytes ~50% <sup>1</sup>	Bacillariophytes 93.72% <sup>2</sup>	Cyanobacteria 34.1% Bacillariophytes 31.6% Euglenophytes 21.6% <sup>3</sup>	Chlorophytes 43.5% Cyanobacteria 41.8% <sup>4</sup>	Cyanobacteria 39.67% Bacillariophytes 23.6% Chlorophytes 20.5% <sup>5</sup>	Bacillariophytes >50% <sup>1</sup>

157

158 Water samples for TN and TP were collected and analyzed in June 2017. Longitude and latitude of lakes are from Google Earth. Dominant phytoplankton groups summarised

159 based on <sup>1</sup> Liu et al., 2017; <sup>2</sup> Deng et al., 2010; <sup>3</sup> Gong et al., 2009; <sup>4</sup> Rao et al., 2018; and <sup>5</sup> Hubei Wildlife Trust, 2005

160 **2.2 Historical archives and climate data**

161 Historical archives for agriculturally-related metrics (rural population, grain and aquaculture production,  
162 N and P fertilizer use) and urbanization/industrialization-related metrics (urban population, concrete  
163 and electricity production, the total length of roads and the number of vehicles) were collected for each  
164 catchment from local Chinese reports (Supporting Information Table S1; Figure S1). Data before the  
165 foundation of the People's Republic of China were rarely recorded and poorly curated, and so only  
166 historical archives from 1949 CE to 2016 CE were used in this study.

167 Climate variables were collected from the Climatic Research Unit dataset (CRU TS 4.02) of the  
168 University of East Anglia ([https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/cru\\_ts\\_4.02/ge/](https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/cru_ts_4.02/ge/)) (Harris et al., 2014).  
169 In this dataset, global climate datasets are constructed at 0.5° latitude/longitude resolution based on  
170 monthly observations at meteorological stations across the world since 1900 CE. Mean annual  
171 temperature and total annual rainfall in each catchment were collected at the nearest grid in this study.

172 **2.3 Sediment coring**

173 Sediment cores of < 1m in length were collected using a gravity corer in each lake between 2014 CE  
174 and 2017 CE, maintaining the water-sediment interfaces. Cores were collected at the centre of the four  
175 relatively smaller lakes (Honghu, Futou, Luhu and Wanghu). In the two large lakes (Poyang and  
176 Dongting), sediment cores were collected from areas where previous investigations had indicated good  
177 sedimentation and so the potential for a reliable chronology (Xiang et al., 2002). Sediment cores were  
178 sectioned at 1-cm intervals with subsamples stored in sealed bags at – 20 °C for pigment analyses and  
179 4 °C for dating.

180 **2.4 Chronology**

181 Sediment cores were dated using <sup>210</sup>Pb and <sup>137</sup>Cs. The <sup>210</sup>Pb activities for dating the sediment cores from  
182 Honghu, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang are from Chen et al. (2019). The <sup>210</sup>Pb activities in the sediment  
183 core from Futou Lake are previously published in Zeng et al. (2018). <sup>210</sup>Pb and <sup>137</sup>Cs in the Dongting  
184 Lake sediment core were published in Zeng et al. (2022). Chronologies of the sediment cores were  
185 established using excess <sup>210</sup>Pb with a constant rate of supply (CRS) model and dry mass accumulation

186 rate (DMARs) were calculated (Chen et al., 2019; Zeng et al., 2022). For sediment beyond the detection  
187 limit of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating (i.e., older than ca. 150 years), dates were extrapolated using a linear model from  
188 the last two or three samples with measurable excess  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ . As extrapolated chronologies are less  
189 reliable, we limited the temporal span of the data presented to that after 1800 CE.

## 190 **2.5 TN and TP fluxes**

191 Total phosphorus (TP) in sediment cores from Honghu, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang are from Ji (2020).  
192 TP in the Dongting sediment core was analysed using inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission  
193 spectrometry (ICP-AES) at the Nanjing Institute of Geography and Limnology, Chinese Academy of  
194 Sciences. Total nitrogen (TN) in sediment cores from Dongting, Honghu, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang  
195 were analysed using a Costech Elemental Analyser (EA) and on-line VG TripleTrap and Optima dual-  
196 inlet mass spectrometer at the British Geological Survey. TN and TP data in the Futou sediment core  
197 are from Zeng (2016). Sedimentary TN and TP fluxes were calculated by multiplying DMARs with the  
198 content of TN and TP respectively.

## 199 **2.6 Pigments**

200 Chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments in core samples were analysed using a high performance liquid  
201 chromatography (HPLC) comprised of an Agilent 1200 series quaternary pump, autosampler, ODS  
202 Hypersil column ( $250 \times 4.6$  mm;  $5 \mu\text{m}$  particle size) and photo-diode array (PDA) detector after being  
203 extracted from sediments and dried under  $\text{N}_2$  gas (Chen et al., 2001). Firstly, freeze-dried sediments  
204 were weighted into vials for extraction ( $\sim 0.2$  g in the top 20 cm and  $\sim 1.0$  g below 20 cm due to low  
205 pigment concentrations). Then, 5 ml extraction solvent (acetone: methanol: deionised water 80: 15: 5)  
206 were added into the vials to extract the pigments. During extraction, the vials were kept in a freezer at  
207  $-4^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 hours. After that, the samples were filtered through a  $0.22 \mu\text{m}$  PTFE syringe filter, followed  
208 by drying under  $\text{N}_2$  gas. Subsequently, the samples were dissolved in injection solvent, a mixture of  
209 acetone (70%), ion-pairing reagent (25%) and methanol (5%). Samples were transferred into HPLC  
210 vials and set up for running in the HPLC to separate different pigments. The solvent streams (the mobile  
211 phase) passing through ( $> 20$  kPa; flow rate of  $1 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$ ) the separation column were a modified

212 version of Chen et al. (2001), where the composition of Solvent A (80% methanol: 20% 0.5 M  
213 ammonium acetate), Solvent B (90% acetonitrile: 10% de-ionised water) and Solvent C (100% HPLC-  
214 grade ethyl acetate) are changed with time over a 52-minute sequence. Pigment chromatographic peaks  
215 were calibrated using commercial standards from DHI (Denmark) with concentrations expressed as  
216 nanomole pigment per gram organic carbon ( $\text{nmol g}^{-1}$  TOC). TOC (total organic carbon) was analysed  
217 using a Costech Elemental Analyser (EA) and on-line VG TripleTrap and Optima dual-inlet mass  
218 spectrometer at the British Geological Survey (Zeng et al., 2022). Thirteen pigments including those  
219 from total algae (chlorophyll *a* and its derivatives phaeophorbide *a*, pheophytin *a* and pyropheophytin  
220 *a*, and  $\beta$ -carotene), chlorophytes (chlorophyll *b* and its derivatives pheophytin *b* and pheophytin *b'*),  
221 cryptophytes (alloxanthin), siliceous algae (diatoxanthin),  $\text{N}_2$ -fixing cyanobacteria (aphanizophyll),  
222 colonial cyanobacteria (canthaxanthin) and chlorophytes/cyanobacteria (lutein-zeaxanthin) were  
223 reported in all six lakes with the exception of Futou Lake where aphanizophyll was not detected  
224 (Supporting information Figure S3a-f).

## 225 **2.7 Numerical analyses**

226 To eliminate differences in units or scales of measurements and provide an integrated metric that  
227 emphasizes and identifies the timings of changes, the historical archive datasets were each standardized  
228 using *Z*-scores. Indicators of agriculture (rural population, grain production, N fertilizers, P fertilizers  
229 and aquaculture production) and urbanization/industrialization (urban population, electricity and  
230 concrete production, number of vehicles and length of roads) were then each summed to be used as  
231 proxies for agricultural (*Z*-agriculture) and urban/industrial (*Z*-urban) development in each lake  
232 catchment.

233 As the gradient length assessed by a detrended correspondence analysis was less than 2 standard  
234 deviations, principal component analysis (PCA) was used to summarize sedimentary pigments. To  
235 investigate pigment changes on a common scale among different lakes, a single PCA was performed  
236 using  $\log(x+1)$ -transformed pigment data from all six lakes to summarize and simplify the pigment  
237 dataset. PCA was conducted using the “*vegan 2.5-4*” package (Oksanen et al., 2019). Because PCA axis  
238 1 represented a gradient of abundance in most pigments, the Mann-Kendall trend coefficients of the

239 PCA axis 1 scores were analysed using the “*Kendall version 2.2*” package (McLeod, 2011) to evaluate  
240 whether primary production increased over time in these middle Yangtze floodplain lakes. To assess  
241 periods of major change in the catchment, agricultural and industrial “drivers” and pigment “responses”,  
242 GAMs were fitted to time series of Z-agriculture, Z-urban and pigment PCA axis 1 using the *gamm()*  
243 function with the “*mgcv*” (version 1.8.31) package. The first derivatives were calculated to detect the  
244 timing of significant changes in each lake and catchment using the “*gratia*” package (Simpson, 2020).  
245 In order to disentangle the relative importance of different environmental variables (i.e.,  
246 urbanization/industrialization, agriculture, climate and hydrology) on pigment (algal community)  
247 composition since the 1950s CE in each lake, hierarchical partitioning analysis was used via the  
248 *rdacca.hp()* function with the “*rdacca.hp*” package as this analysis can deal with high collinearity  
249 among the environmental variables (Lai et al., 2022). The response variables were the  $\log(x+1)$ -  
250 transformed pigment datasets. Environmental drivers in the analysis included Z-agriculture and Z-urban,  
251 climate variables (mean annual temperature, total annual rainfall) and dam construction (as 1/0 dummy  
252 variable). For the two open lakes (Dongting and Poyang), dam construction refers to the installation of  
253 the TGD in 2003; for the other lakes (Honghu, Futou, Luhu and Wanghu) only local dams constructed  
254 after 1949 CE were included in the analysis. The relationship between nutrient fluxes (sedimentary TN  
255 and TP fluxes) and algal production (pigment PCA axis 1) in each individual lake (Supporting  
256 Information Figure S4) since the 1850s CE were investigated using linear regression analysis. All  
257 statistics were performed in R (R Core Team, 2020).

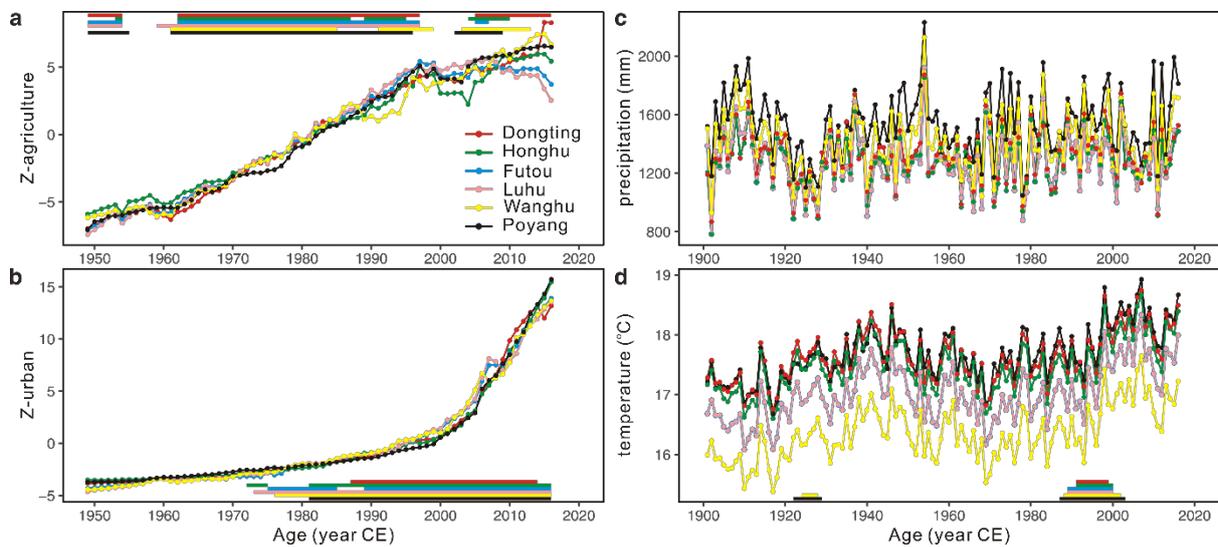
## 258 **3 Results**

### 259 **3.1 Historical archives**

260 Z-agriculture and Z-urban indicate that changes in agriculture preceded those in  
261 urbanization/industrialization in all lake catchments (Figure 2a, b). There was a period of sustained  
262 agricultural growth between 1949 CE and the mid-1990s CE (slope =  $\sim 0.25$ ) in all six catchments with  
263 the exception of a hiatus in growth between 1955 CE and the early 1960s CE associated with the Great  
264 Famine (Dearing et al., 2012), and followed by a reduction in growth rate afterwards (slope =  $\sim 0.15$ ),

265 associated with rural depopulation as people moved into cities (Figure 2a) (Yang, 2013). Z-urban  
266 increased exponentially with a slow and significant increase starting around the 1980s CE associated  
267 with the release of the “reform and opening up” policy (Dearing et al., 2012), which accelerated in all  
268 catchments in the early 2000s CE (Figure 2b).

269 Total annual precipitation fluctuated at around 1350 mm in all the catchments with no overall directional  
270 trend through time (Figure 2c). Mean annual surface temperatures fluctuated around  $\sim 16.2$  °C in the  
271 Wanghu catchment and  $\sim 17.0$  °C in other catchments before the 1990s CE, followed by a significant  
272 increase between the 1990s and  $\sim 2000$  CE (Figure 2d).



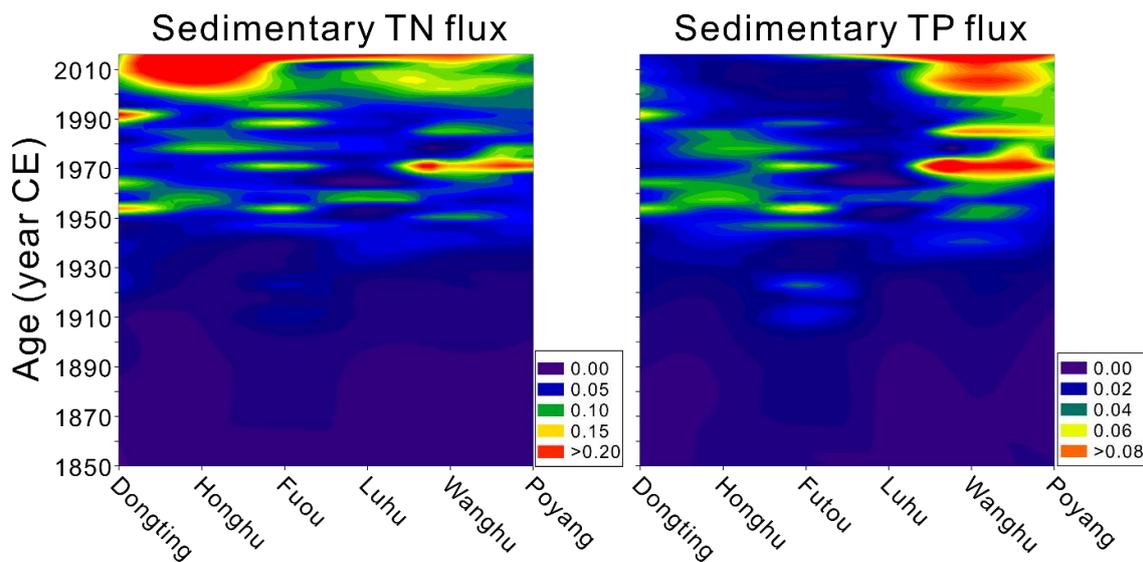
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274 **Figure 2** Summarized Z-scores of agricultural (a) and industrial/urban (b) drivers and total annual  
275 rainfall (c) and mean annual temperature (d) in each catchment. The horizontal bars in (a), (b) and (d)  
276 indicate the period when the first derivatives of the fitted GAMs values were significantly larger than  
277 0, indicating periods of significant change.

### 278 3.2 Sedimentary TN and TP fluxes

279 Fluxes of N and P increased markedly in all lakes, relative to fluxes before  $\sim$  the 1950s CE (Figure 3).  
280 Between the 1950s and 2010s CE, TN fluxes were highly variable but increased from  $< 0.05$  g cm<sup>-2</sup>  
281 year<sup>-1</sup> to  $> 0.10$  g cm<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 3). TP fluxes also increased since the 1950s CE, but temporal  
282 trends differed among lakes (Figure 3). Before the 1950s CE, sedimentary TP fluxes in the lakes were  
283 generally low ( $\sim 0.01$  g cm<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>). Since then, TP fluxes increased to ca.  $0.04$  g cm<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> by the

284 1980s CE, followed by a decrease in Dongting, Honghu and Futou Lakes. However, TP fluxes  
 285 continued to increase in Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang Lakes from 1950 CE onwards. In the 2010s CE,  
 286 sedimentary TP fluxes were more than  $0.025 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  in Dongting, Luhu, Wanghu and Poyang  
 287 Lakes, which was ca. 2-fold of that in Honghu and Futou Lakes ( $\sim 0.01 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 3). Overall,  
 288 there was a more marked increase in TN fluxes in the upstream lakes relative to the downstream lakes  
 289 where TP increased more prominently.



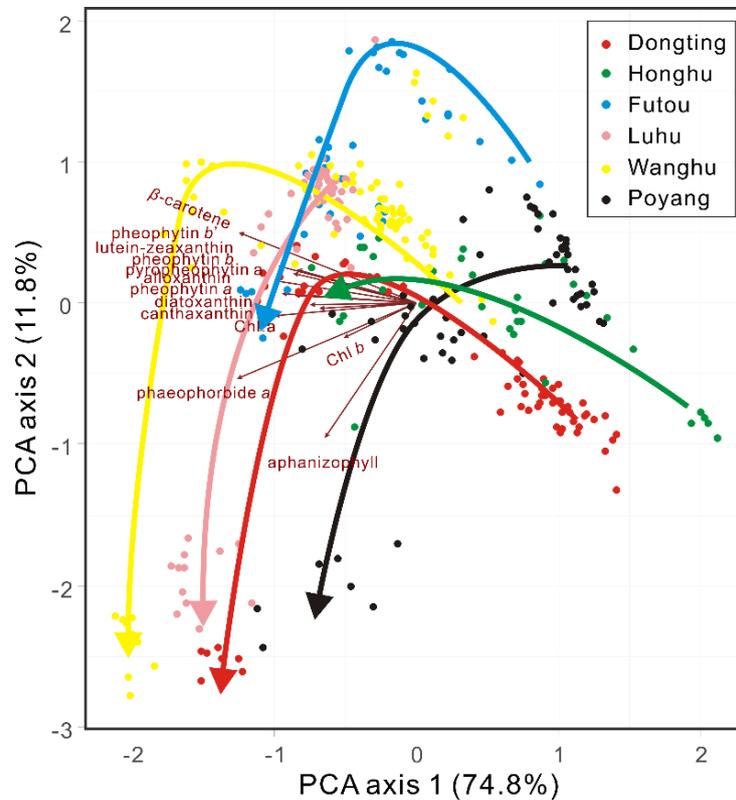
290

291 **Figure 3** Sedimentary TN and TP fluxes in six lakes of the middle Yangtze floodplain. (unit:  $\text{g cm}^{-2}$   
 292  $\text{year}^{-1}$ ).

### 293 3.3 Summarising pigment trends in the lakes

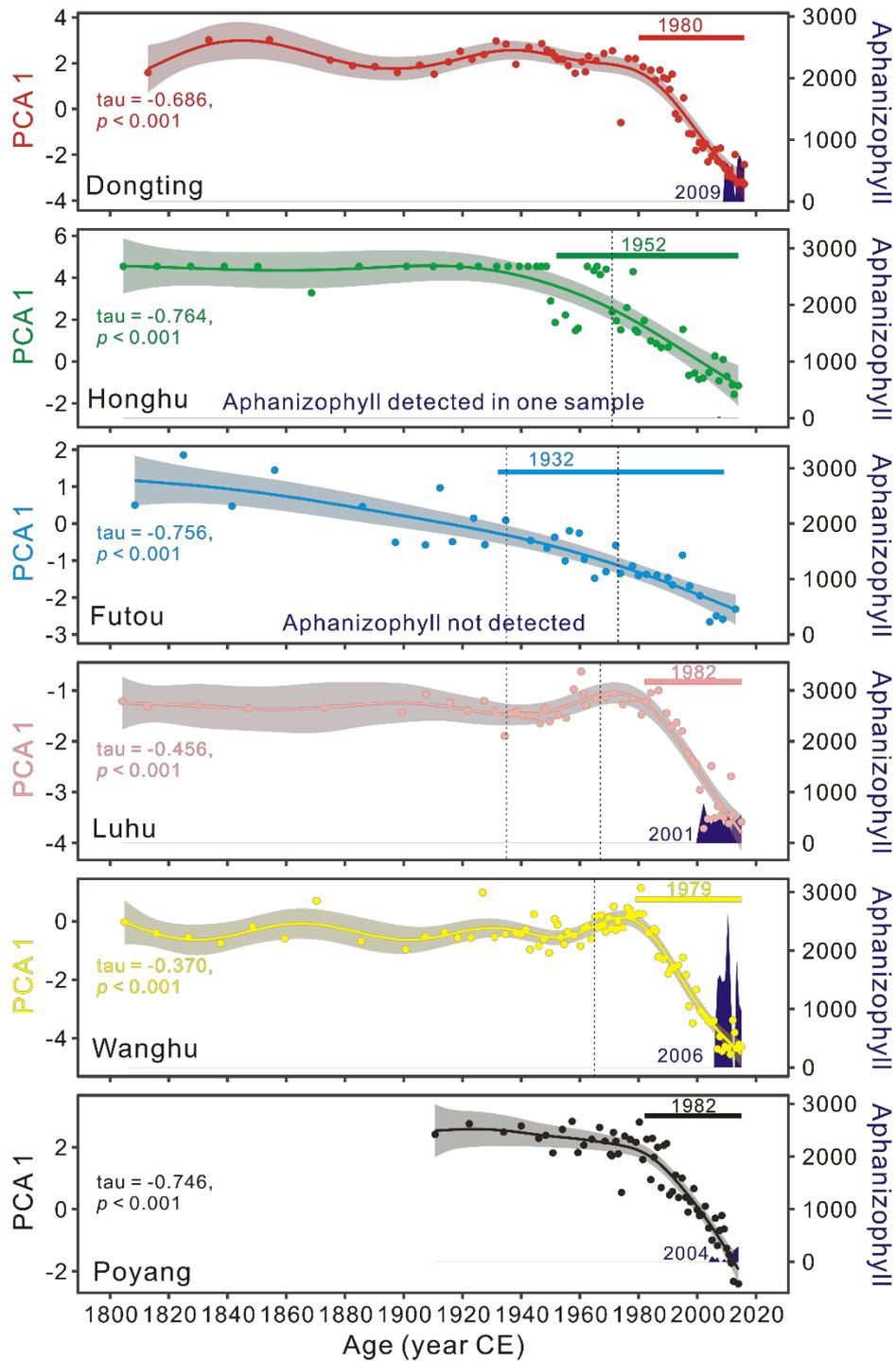
294 Biomarker pigments from siliceous algae, cryptophytes, cyanobacteria and chlorophytes were present  
 295 in all the lakes (Figure 4, Figure S4). When the pigment assemblages from all six lake cores were  
 296 ordinated together, the first PCA axis (PCA axis 1, 74.8% variance) was significantly negatively  
 297 correlated with all pigments ( $R < -0.38, p < 0.001$ ). PCA axis 1 of pigments was therefore inferred to  
 298 indicate overall algal (pigment) production in the lakes. The second PCA axis explained a further 11.8 %  
 299 of the variance and was significantly correlated with aphanizopyll from HAB-forming cyanobacteria  
 300 ( $R = 0.61, p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 4). Trajectories of change were greatest in pigment assemblages from  
 301 Luhu and Wanghu Lakes, and in the large open drainage lakes (Dongting, Poyang). Pigments in these  
 302 four lakes moved towards negative PCA axis 2 scores (Figure 4), indicating the appearances of

303 aphanizophyll after ~ 2000 CE (Figure 5; Supporting information Figure S3a-f). Aphanizophyll was  
 304 not detected in significant quantities in the other macrophyte-dominated lakes (Futou, Honghu) and  
 305 algal (pigment) change was also less pronounced in these sites.



306  
 307 **Figure 4** Biplot of PCA of sedimentary pigments from all six lakes. The coloured arrows indicate the  
 308 trajectory from samples of older age to younger age.

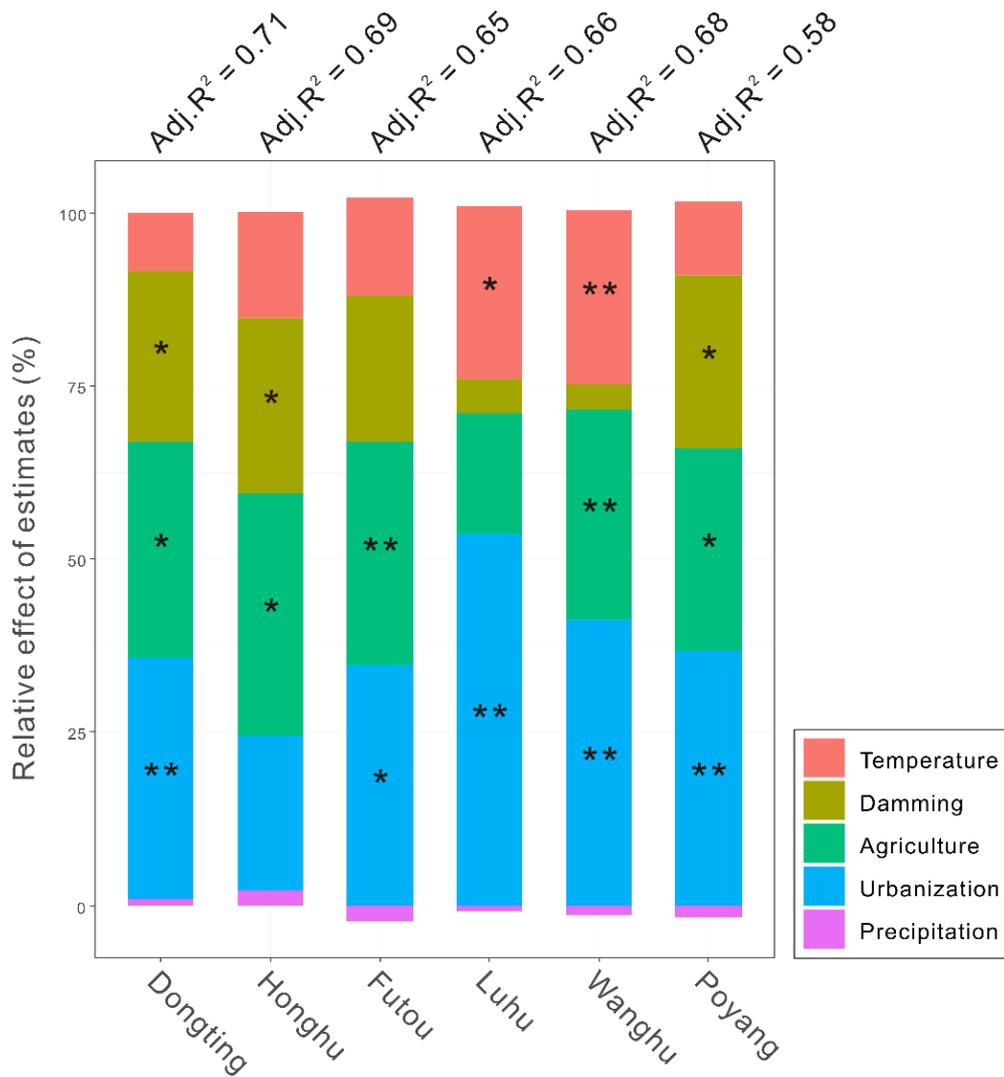
309 GAM analyses identified the periods of most significant change in pigment PCA axis 1 (algal  
 310 production) and indicated that lakes fell into two categories: in the first group of lakes, algal  
 311 assemblages shifted abruptly around 1979-1982 CE (Luhu, Wanghu, Dongting, Poyang), whereas the  
 312 second group (Honghu, Futou) changed more gradually and the change started earlier (1952 CE and  
 313 1932 CE respectively) (Figure 5). Mann-Kendall coefficients ( $\tau$ ) of pigment PCA axis 1 indicated an  
 314 increase in algal production (decrease in pigment PCA axis 1) in all of the lakes over the last two  
 315 centuries ( $\tau \leq 0.37$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), but a more consistent increase in the second group of lakes which  
 316 changed more gradually (Figure 5).



317

318 **Figure 5** Observed and GAM fitted values for all-lake pigment PCA axis 1 scores (the band is the 95%  
 319 pointwise confidence interval on the fitted values). The horizontal lines show the period when the first  
 320 derivative of pigment PCA axis 1 is significantly different from 0, with the year indicating the start of  
 321 the period. The vertical dashed lines indicate the date of local dam construction. tau is the MK  
 322 coefficient values and  $p$  is the significance level. Aphanizophyll concentrations are indicated in purple,  
 323 alongside the timing of this pigment first appearance in each lake.

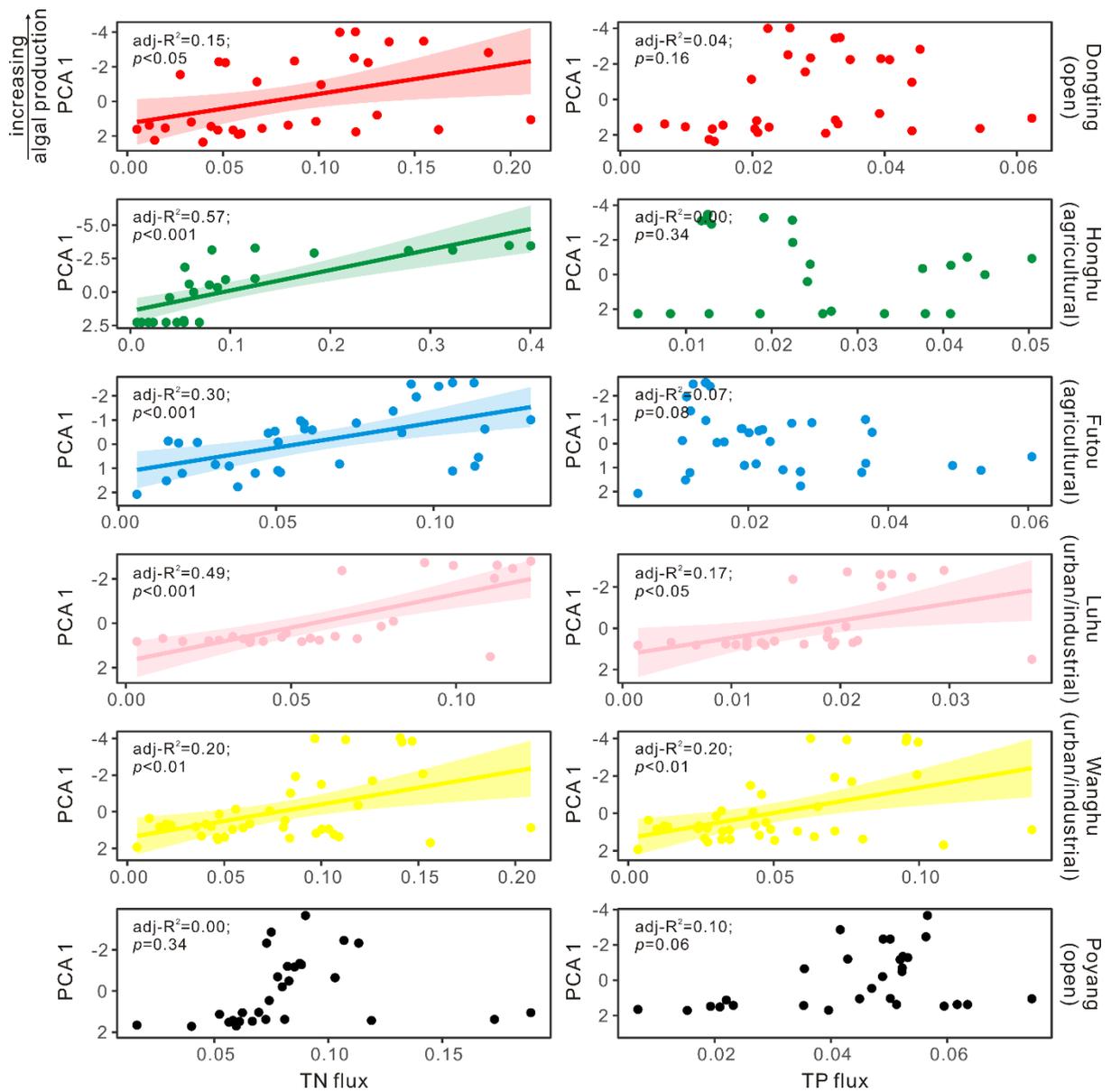
324 Hierarchical partitioning analysis was used to investigate changes since 1949 CE and showed that the  
325 environmental variables (i.e., urbanization/industrialization, agriculture, precipitation, temperature,  
326 damming) explained ~ 65% (adj.  $R^2 = 0.58$  to  $0.71$ ) of the variance in algal community composition of  
327 the six studied lakes. Human activities (agriculture and urbanization/industrialization) accounted for  
328 more than 57% of the total explained variances (Figure 6). Urban and industrial activities had the  
329 greatest effect on Luhu Lake (53.5%,  $p < 0.01$ ), followed by Wanghu (42.2%,  $p < 0.01$ ), Poyang (36.6%,  
330  $p < 0.01$ ), Dongting (35.0%,  $p < 0.01$ ), Futou (34.6%,  $p < 0.05$ ) and Honghu (22.3%,  $p > 0.05$ ) (Figure  
331 6). In contrast, agricultural activities had the greatest effect on algal community in Honghu (35.0%,  $p$   
332  $< 0.05$ ), followed by Futou (32.4%,  $p < 0.01$ ), Dongting (31.3%,  $p < 0.05$ ), Wanghu (30.5%,  $p < 0.01$ ),  
333 Poyang (29.4%,  $p < 0.05$ ) and Luhu (17.6%,  $p > 0.05$ ). While there are no local dams installed at the  
334 hydrologically open lakes (Dongting and Poyang), the TGD operation has changed river flows entering  
335 the lakes since 2003 CE. In these two lakes, the construction of the TGD also explained significant ( $p$   
336  $< 0.05$ ) amounts of the variance in algal community composition, accounting for 24.5% and 24.9% of  
337 the total explained variance, respectively. In Luhu and Wanghu Lakes, temperature rather than  
338 damming explained significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) amount of the variances in algal community composition and  
339 accounted for 25.0% and 25.2% of the total explained variances, respectively.



340

341 **Figure 6** Relative importance of each individual environmental variable calculated by hierarchical  
 342 partitioning in estimating algal assemblage change (sedimentary pigments) after 1949 CE in the study  
 343 lakes. Adj. R<sup>2</sup> indicates the total variance explained by the explanatory variables. Significance level of  
 344 the explanatory variables were based on permutation test based on 999 randomizations. \*\* < 0.01; \* <  
 345 0.05

346 Regression analysis showed that relationships between PCA axis 1 (algal production) and sedimentary  
 347 TN and TP fluxes since the ~1850s CE differed among lakes (Figure 7). In Dongting, Honghu and  
 348 Futou Lakes, the first PCA axis of pigments was significantly correlated with TN but not with TP flux.  
 349 In Luhu and Wanghu Lakes, both TN and TP fluxes were significantly correlated with pigment PCA  
 350 axis 1. In Poyang Lake, there was no significant correlation between TN and TP fluxes and PCA axis 1  
 351 of pigments.



352

353 **Figure 7** Linear regression between the first PCA axis of pigments (indicated algal production) and TN  
 354 (left) and TP (right) fluxes (unit:  $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) to each lake (since  $\sim 1850$  CE). The shaded bands  
 355 surrounding the fitted lines indicate the 95 % confidence intervals.

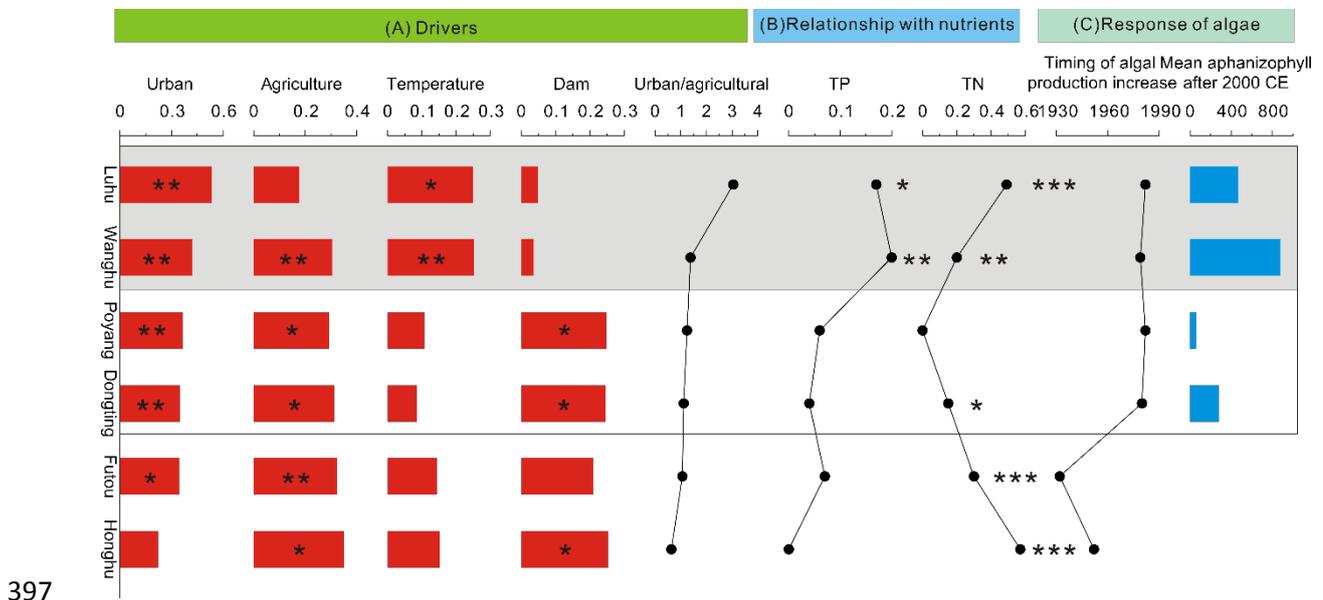
#### 356 **4 Discussion**

357 Many Yangtze floodplain lakes have undergone environmental degradation and declines in ecosystem  
358 services associated with extensive and intensive social-economic development since the 1950s CE  
359 (Dearing et al., 2012; Dong et al., 2016; Kattel et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). However, because water  
360 quality monitoring and remote sensing records mostly began around the 1980s CE in China (Zong et  
361 al., 2019), the timing, trajectories and causes of changes in primary producer communities, including  
362 HABs are unclear. Using chlorophyll and carotenoid pigments as a proxy for phototrophic algae and  
363 cyanobacteria we reveal significant increases in production and shifts in pigment composition across  
364 all six lakes which span the mid-Yangtze region (Figure 5; Figure S4). Shifts in phototrophic pigments  
365 began during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, i.e. pigment concentrations increased relative to organic carbon in the  
366 sediments, indicating either an increase in phototroph production or pigment burial in the lakes, or both.  
367 The changes concur with observed increases in surface cyanobacterial blooms (Zong et al., 2019; Song  
368 et al., 2021), and shifts in diatom assemblages indicating more eutrophic waters (Yang et al., 2008;  
369 Dong et al., 2016). Hence, pigment assemblage shifts appear to faithfully reflect significant water  
370 quality degradation and increased HAB incidences (increases in aphanizopyll and canthaxanthin),  
371 reflecting broader changes in ecosystem functioning across this region. This change, observed from the  
372 1930s CE onwards, far exceed the “baselines” of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Figure S4), demonstrating that shifts  
373 in primary producers were unprecedented in recent history.

374 Unlike some watersheds where eutrophication intensity of lakes is spatially ordered (Quinlan et al.,  
375 2002; Moorhouse et al., 2018), the timing and patterns of phototroph changes were not apparently  
376 organized by watershed position across this large and hydrologically-complex mid-Yangtze region (Lin  
377 et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2022). Changes in pigment assemblages of two lakes were more gradual and  
378 occurred earlier (Futou in 1932 CE and Honghu in 1952 CE) than the other four where significant shifts  
379 happened around 1980 CE (Figure 5). This suggests localised stressors which differed among each sub-  
380 catchment, were driving pigment variability. Comparing the pigment records with dam installation dates,  
381 as well as meteorological and archival records documenting socio-economic development activities  
382 since 1949 CE provides further insights into the reasons for these major water quality declines.

383 **4.1 Consequences of socio-economic development during the Anthropocene**

384 The summarised archival data shows an earlier and more gradual rise in agricultural intensity across the  
 385 region since 1949 CE (Figure 2a), than urban-industrial activities which increased significantly and  
 386 exponentially after ~ 1980 CE (Figure 2b). Although trends in the archival indices were similar across  
 387 the region (Figure 2), the intensity of agricultural versus urban/industrial pressures differed among the  
 388 sub-catchments (Figure S1). This resulted in contrasting timings of phototrophic responses among the  
 389 lakes, and consequently the strength of relationship between urbanization/industrialization versus  
 390 agricultural activities also differed (Figure 8). Agricultural activities explained more of the pigment  
 391 assemblage variance in Honghu and Futou lakes than urban/industrial indicators (Figure 8); major  
 392 increases in algal production started from the ~ 1940s CE (Figure 5), consistent with the gradual  
 393 intensification of agriculture (Figure 2). In contrast, the timing of significant algal production increases  
 394 in Luhu, Wanghu, Dongting and Poyang lakes was coincident with the exponential rise of urban and  
 395 industrial indicators (~ 1980 CE); these indicators explained higher amounts of the variance in the  
 396 sedimentary pigments than agricultural indicators (Figure 8).



397  
 398 **Figure 8** Comparison of (A) the relative importance of drivers calculated by hierarchical partitioning,  
 399 (B) the  $R^2$  values between pigment PCA axis 1 and sedimentary nutrient fluxes, and (C) the response  
 400 of algae among the lakes. Number of \* indicates the significance level, \*\*\* < 0.001; \*\* < 0.01; \* < 0.05

401 The rise in sedimentary nutrient (TN, TP) fluxes after ~ 1950 CE demonstrate how socio-economic  
402 development has increased nutrient loads into aquatic systems across the region. Agricultural use of  
403 synthetic fertilizers has significantly enhanced N loading in China (Yu et al., 2019) and we found that  
404 55% of the variance in sedimentary TN flux was explained by agricultural proxies, of which,  
405 aquaculture products were a more important driver of sedimentary N than grain production (Supporting  
406 Information Figure S2). China is the biggest freshwater aquaculture producer in the world (FAO, 2020),  
407 with Hubei Province in the mid-Yangtze being a hotspot for aquaculture nutrient release (Wang et al.,  
408 2019). Inefficient use of fish feeds can lead to N accumulation in lake sediments (Legaspi et al., 2015).  
409 Grain production (mainly rice in this region) was also a significant explanatory variable for sedimentary  
410 TN fluxes, indicating that fertilizer runoff is another source of N pollution to lakes.

411 P is a component of most agricultural fertilizers, but P wastes associated with human consumption in  
412 China shifted from rural to urban areas as cities expanded (Liu et al., 2016) when P-laden wastewaters  
413 were released into waters via sewage systems (Tong et al., 2017). Accordingly, the largest amount  
414 (26.7%) of the variance in sedimentary TP flux was explained by concrete production, a summary  
415 indicator of urban growth (Supporting Information Figure S2) (Huang et al., 2018). Our results indicate  
416 that this rapid urbanization had major implications for P loading in these lakes, but that agricultural  
417 fertilizers also significantly contributed to P loading (Supporting Information Figure S2). Interestingly,  
418 the elevated P fluxes between 1950 and 1980 CE in the upstream lake sediments (Figure 3) prior to the  
419 period of urban expansion, likely record the period of maximum P fertilizer use before price controls  
420 were imposed on fertilizers by the Chinese government in the 1980s CE (Liu et al., 2016).

421 There were obvious spatial and temporal differences in nutrient fluxes among lakes, which altered how  
422 lake phototrophs responded (Figure 3, Figure 7, Figure 8). N accumulation rates rose markedly in  
423 Honghu and Futou lake sediments in the 2000 CE, but only reached similar levels in Luhu and Wanghu  
424 lakes in the last 5 years. Moreover, PCA axis 1 (an indicator of phototrophic changes) was solely related  
425 with sedimentary TN fluxes in Honghu and Futou lakes ( $p < 0.001$ ), whereas there were significant  
426 relationships between pigment PCA axis 1 and both sedimentary TN and TP fluxes in Luhu and Wanghu  
427 lakes ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 8). Since 2008 CE, wastewater treatment has increased the TN/TP ratio in

428 Chinese freshwaters due to improved P removal (Tong et al., 2020). It seems likely that this shift  
429 explains both the later rise in N fluxes in urbanized Luhu and Wanghu Lakes, and significant phototroph  
430 responses to changes in both N and P fluxes, due to the shifting balance of delivery in these elements  
431 in the urbanized catchments. Overall, our data support the idea that, in agricultural landscapes, lake  
432 water quality and algal production are more likely to be influenced by excessive N pollution (e.g., Moss  
433 et al., 1994), while N and P pollution drives water quality declines in urbanized catchments.

#### 434 **4.2 The effects of dam installation**

435 Construction of the TGD explained a significant amount of the variance in sedimentary pigments from  
436 the two hydrologically open lakes (Dongting and Poyang). The dam was installed upstream of all lakes  
437 in 2003 CE as part of the TGD project and so the lakes remained hydrologically open to the river.  
438 However, the reduction in Yangtze River flows led to a decline in the water exchange ratio (e.g.,  
439 between Dongting Lake and the Yangtze River of ~ 35%; Li et al., 2013) and likely promoted the  
440 retention and sedimentation of nutrients and phototrophs, as registered by the increasing sedimentary  
441 nutrient fluxes and pigment concentrations in the early 1980s CE (Figure 5) (McGowan et al., 2011). It  
442 is also possible that the impoundment of the TGD upstream increased nutrient bio-availability in  
443 riverine waters (Chen et al., 2020) which, in synergy with the rapidly increasing nutrient loads from  
444 socio-economic development, fuelled elevated algal production. Together, the modification of physical  
445 (WRT) and chemical (nutrients) properties likely combined to trigger the huge increase in primary  
446 producer pigment assemblages after the ~ 1980s CE in Dongting and Poyang Lakes.

447 The lakes with open hydrological connections to the Yangtze River had insignificant (Poyang Lake,  $p >$   
448 0.05) or weaker (Dongting Lake) relationships between algal production and nutrient fluxes when  
449 compared with the four locally-dammed lakes (Figure 7). The highly variable hydrological conditions  
450 and water levels in open lakes likely influence this relationship through periodic removal of algal  
451 biomass via wash-out interspersed with periods of accumulation and deposition (Tockner et al., 1999;  
452 Elliott, 2010; Richardson et al., 2019) with complex cycling of N and P sedimentation processes (Pan  
453 et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2017). For example, periodic flooding and drawdown in open lakes may  
454 accelerate the release of P from sediments (Attygalla et al., 2016).

### 455 **4.3 The influence of climate**

456 The amount of rainfall had no apparent effect on lake phototroph composition, but temperature was  
457 significantly correlated with Luhu and Wanghu Lake pigment assemblages (Figure 6). These two lakes  
458 are located within an area where air temperature is lower (mean value  $\leq 17^\circ\text{C}$ ) than other lakes (mean  
459 value  $> 17.5^\circ\text{C}$ ) (Figure 2d). It is plausible that long-term temperature increases have a greater effect  
460 on phototrophs at this lower temperature range. For example, warmer temperatures can modify  
461 phototrophic assemblages by providing a physiological advantage for cyanobacteria (Griffith and  
462 Gobler, 2020), and enhancing sedimentary nutrient release (Tong et al., 2020). The response to  
463 temperature in these lakes which are significantly influenced by nutrient loading indicates that, at this  
464 temperature range, and over decadal timescales, temperature appears to act synergistically with nutrient  
465 loading to influence phototrophic responses (Lin et al., 2021).

466 Temperature was not a significant driver of algal community changes in Dongting, Poyang, Honghu  
467 and Futou Lakes (Figure 6). While this lack of response could be attributed to the influence of the free  
468 hydrological setting in Dongting and Poyang Lakes (see above), we interpret that the dense aquatic  
469 macrophyte coverage in Honghu and Futou Lakes helped to buffer the phototrophic response (Song et  
470 al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2018). Macrophytes may suppress phytoplankton production and HABs through  
471 several mechanisms according to the aquatic stable state hypothesis (Scheffer et al., 1993): by  
472 competing with phytoplankton for nutrients, by providing refuge to zooplankton which feed on  
473 phytoplankton and by limiting sediment resuspension and hence nutrient release (Timms and Moss,  
474 1984; Jeppesen et al., 1998). We therefore hypothesize that the so-called “buffer mechanisms”  
475 associated with macrophyte cover helped to limit phototrophic production in Futou and Honghu Lakes  
476 (Figure 5, Table 1).

### 477 **4.4 HABs**

478 The sedimentary records of HAB indicators confirm remote sensing observations of widespread rises  
479 in surface bloom coverage on lake surfaces across the middle-Yangtze region since the 2000s CE (Zong  
480 et al., 2019). Carotenoids from cyanobacteria including canthaxanthin and zeaxanthin started to rise in

481 all lakes prior to the appearance of aphanizophyll (from N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria) during the 2000s CE  
482 (Figure S4, Figure 5). Of the lakes studied here, Wanghu Lake has the highest concentrations of  
483 aphanizophyll and also shows sustained elevated cyanobacterial bloom coverage since the 2000s CE in  
484 remote sensing records (Zong et al., 2019). Remote sensing also detected surface blooms in Poyang  
485 Lake (since 1990 CE), and Dongting, Futou and Luhu Lakes during the 2000s CE (Figure S4, Figure  
486 5). While there is broad agreement on the rise in prevalence of HABs throughout the region, in contrast  
487 to remote sensing, our pigment analyses provide a continuous, long-term record of cyanobacteria, that  
488 also integrates phytoplankton from surface and deeper waters. N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria pigments  
489 (aphanizophyll) were almost entirely undetectable in Futou and Honghu Lakes where nitrogen pollution  
490 was not intensive. Since other cyanobacterial biomarkers were also present in these lakes  
491 (Supplementary Information), we infer that non-N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria were likely to be prevalent at  
492 these sites (e.g., *Microcystis* spp.) (Figure 3). Higher supply of N relative to P increases the likelihood  
493 that N remains replete later in the growth season when cyanobacteria blooms mostly occur (Xu et al.,  
494 2015). An excess supply of N means that N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacterial taxa (e.g., *Anabaena* spp.,  
495 *Aphanizomenon* spp.) are likely outcompeted by other cyanobacterial HAB-forming taxa (e.g.,  
496 *Microcystis* spp) (Paerl et al 2016; Finlay et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2019). Our analyses suggest that  
497 expansion of urban/industrial activities after 2000 CE exacerbated P pollution in Luhu, Wanghu,  
498 Poyang and Dongting Lakes (sedimentary TN/TP flux < 10 after 2000 CE), resulting in the prevalence  
499 of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria (Schindler et al., 2008; Paerl et al., 2016). In contrast, Honghu and Futou  
500 Lakes which are more significantly influenced by agricultural N (sedimentary TN/TP flux > 15 after  
501 2000 CE) (Figure 3), supported mainly non-N<sub>2</sub>-fixing cyanobacteria.

502 The prevalence of HABs could also be increased by longer lake water retention times from damming  
503 which give a competitive advantage to slow-growing cyanobacteria (O'Neil et al., 2012). WRTs in  
504 Poyang Lake and Dongting Lake are approximately 30 and 29 days, respectively, which is about a sixth  
505 of that in the hydrologically-isolated lakes (~ 190 days in Honghu) (Wang and Dou, 1998). The  
506 production (Poyang) and duration (Dongting) of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing HABs pigments (aphanizophyll) were lower  
507 in the hydrologically open lakes than the restricted-drainage lakes (Wanghu and Luhu) (Figure 8).

508 Phytoplankton surveys confirm that the dominant phytoplankton was cyanobacteria (e.g., *Anabaena*  
509 spp., *Aphanizomenon* spp.) in Wanghu and Luhu Lakes (Hubei Wildlife Trust, 2005; Rao et al., 2018),  
510 with a comparatively low biomass of diazotrophic cyanobacteria in Dongting and Poyang Lakes (Liu  
511 et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019).

512 As observed in Taihu Lake in the lower Yangtze basin (Lin et al., 2021), warming can promote algal  
513 production and HABs by advancing the maximum growth rate and extending the growth season (Paerl  
514 et al., 2012), amplifying the physiological advantage of cyanobacteria (Griffith and Gobler, 2020), and  
515 enhancing sedimentary nutrient release (Tong et al., 2020). Mean annual temperature increased by ~  
516 0.4 °C between 1950-1980 CE and 1981-2016 CE in the Luhu and Wanghu catchments and this proved  
517 to be important in exacerbating the expansion of HABs (Figure 2).

## 518 **5 Conclusions**

519 This study emphasizes the pervasive role of agrarian and urban social-economic development in  
520 enhancing nutrient delivery to lakes beyond 19<sup>th</sup> century baselines which led to significant increases in  
521 algal production in the middle Yangtze floodplain lakes. Algal community shifts associated with  
522 agricultural changes started earlier (~ 1940s CE) than those prompted by urban development (~ 1980  
523 CE), but the degree of algal community change was greater when lakes were influenced by urban change.  
524 Urbanization and industrialization particularly exacerbated P fluxes into these lakes to a greater degree  
525 than agricultural activities, leading to the proliferation of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing HAB-forming taxa. In contrast,  
526 lakes with algal communities that were influenced most by agricultural change retained macrophyte  
527 coverage and this appeared to be important in buffering against major shifts in algal communities.  
528 Management should prioritise protecting lakes that have retained macrophytes from further nutrient  
529 inputs, through agricultural management of aquaculture and cropland N, and avoiding further inputs of  
530 urban wastewaters.

531 The maintenance of an open hydrological connection with the river appears to also be important in  
532 influencing algal community composition and hence, water quality. Although the large and  
533 hydrologically-connected lakes (Dongting and Poyang) showed evidence of significant algal

534 community change, the quantity of cyanobacterial HAB indicators was lower than in other lakes where  
535 HABs increased and algal communities responded less strongly to increasing nutrient fluxes. Therefore,  
536 the maintenance of connectivity of these lakes to the Yangtze River should be a priority.

537 Our results indicate that future climate change is unlikely to have a greater effect on these lakes than  
538 current nutrient inputs and damming. In none of our lakes did phototrophs respond to variability in  
539 annual rainfall, but it is possible that projected future shifts in seasonal distribution of rainfall could  
540 prove to be important. Temperature had significant effects on phototroph communities in two of the  
541 lakes (Wanghu, Luhu) that were the most degraded. In these lakes, macrophyte community coverage is  
542 now lacking, suggesting that macrophyte cover is key in supporting resilience in shallow lakes. Our  
543 analyses indicate that temperature may have exacerbated the HAB issues at these lakes, and that  
544 temperature effects may be more pronounced in lakes at the lower range of temperatures in this region.  
545 Therefore, reduction of nutrient inputs is important as a way of mitigating the effects of increasing  
546 temperature. Further, the results of our analysis suggest that local damming of these lakes had a limited  
547 effect on algal communities relative to nutrient reduction and so remediation measures such as active  
548 hydrological management of dams are unlikely to be effective in the face of such severe eutrophication  
549 cases.

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#### 558 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

#### 561 **Authorship contribution statement**

562 **Linghan Zeng:** Funding acquisition, Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis,  
563 Visualization, Writing – original draft. **George E. A. Swann:** Visualization, Writing – review & editing,  
564 Supervision. **Melanie J. Leng:** Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Xu Chen:** Funding  
565 acquisition, Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Jing Ji:** Data curation, Writing – review &  
566 editing. **Xianyu Huang:** Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. **Suzanne McGowan:**  
567 Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

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**Declare of interest**

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

**Authorship contribution statement**

**Linghan Zeng:** Funding acquisition, Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft. **George E. A. Swann:** Visualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Melanie J. Leng:** Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Xu Chen:** Funding acquisition, Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Jing Ji:** Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Xianyu Huang:** Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. **Suzanne McGowan:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing, Supervision.