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chironomids; Palaeolimnology

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Abstract: Due to differential exploitation pressure, ecosystems along the urban to rural gradients often exhibit different status in ecological structure and function. This can be challenging for lake restoration, given the relative strengths, magnitudes and speed of the exploitation. In this paper, we reconstructed the ecological changes over the past century and identified the regime shifts based on subfossil aquatic biota (chironomid records) in three shallow lakes (Shahu, Yanxi and Futou Lake) along an urban-rural gradient in the Yangtze floodplain, China. Our results illustrated the differences among lakes in trajectories, timing of critical transition and current ecological status. Eutrophic chironomid taxa increased markedly and replaced macrophyte-related taxa in urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake, indicated by the shift from a stable, vegetation-dominated state to an alternative, algal-dominated state in 1963 AD and 1975 AD respectively. The ecological regime in rural Futou Lake transited around 1980 AD but it is still in a relatively clear water state with abundant macrophytes due to anthropogenic hydrological controls. The greatest variance of chironomid compositional changes in both Shahu and Yanxi Lake was captured by anthropogenic pollutants, and analyses show that when these pressures are high they may be further amplified by climate warming. Responses along the urban-rural gradient are exemplified by urban Shahu Lake having shifted to a fragile regime with weak resistance and resilience, while rural Futou Lake has stabilized in a new regime with improved ecological resilience. Suburban Yanxi Lake is still moving toward a new state, and as such is unstable, because the types and magnitudes of external stressors are changing with urbanization in the city. It is suggested that active and precise management strategies for lakes should be established along the urban-rural gradient given their distinct development trajectories, drivers and current status.

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a noun. Please replace throughout. Once you performed these changes I would be pleased to accept your paper,  
Reply: Thanks for the editor's comment. We have changed the word "phosphorous" into "phosphorus" all through the text.

*Cover letter*

Dear editor,

With this letter we are submitting the manuscript “*Regime shifts in shallow lake ecosystems along an urban-rural gradient in central China*”. This manuscript has 7848 words, 8 figures and 2 tables.

With the process of urbanization, many rural lakes are gradually embedded in cities and turn to suburban or urban lakes. Aquatic ecosystems in different positions along the urban-rural gradient are more likely to experience different developmental trajectories and have diverse ecological status currently. The understanding around how these lakes respond to such stressors is currently not well known but urgently required to ensure the effectiveness of management strategies on different types of lake ecosystems.

This study reconstructed the developmental history of three lakes along the urban-rural gradient a metropolitan area (Wuhan City) in central China using sedimentary chironomid records. Our results revealed that these lakes had undergone regime shifts in the sequence of their distance from city centre, but their responses to external stressors were spatially and temporally different. Urban and suburban lakes have become eutrophic due to anthropogenic pollutants input and climate warming. Hydrological regulation of the connection between river and lake reduced water-level amplitude in the rural lake, and hence stimulated the development of aquatic vegetation that promoted the resilience of the rural lake temporarily. Given rapid urbanization all over the world, more and more lakes will be embedded in the urban landscape, and hence will face the risk of environmental degradation due to increasing external stressors, especially in rapidly developing regions. Different trajectories and driving forces of environmental changes in lakes along the urban-rural gradient highlight active and targeted strategies for different types of lakes, in order to avoid detrimental regime shifts and sustain a desired state.

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Sincerely yours,

Authors

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1 **Regime shifts in shallow lake ecosystems along an urban-rural gradient in central China**

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37 Palaeolimnology

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40 **1. Introduction**

41 Accelerated urbanization is one of the most dramatic changes in post-1950s (Steffen et al., 2015),  
42 as the global urban population exceeded the rural population in 2008 for the first time in history (Seto  
43 et al., 2010). Rapid urbanization has led to serious environmental and ecological problems, both in  
44 urban and surrounding areas, including air, water and soil pollution, land-cover changes, and alteration  
45 of ecosystem structure and function (McDonnell et al., 1997; Grimm et al., 2008; Seto et al., 2012).  
46 Over the last two decades, research focused on ecological repercussions of rapid urbanization has  
47 increased significantly (Teurlincx et al., 2019). Most studies have focused on the responses of  
48 terrestrial biota and habitats to urbanization, and relatively less attention has been focused on  
49 freshwater habitats, especially lakes (Hill et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2020).

50 In an urban landscape, lakes are a sink for a wide range of contaminants (e.g. nutrients, trace  
51 elements, microplastics, antibiotics) that are released through air, water and detritus (Schueler and  
52 Simpson, 2001; Naselli-Flores, 2008). Urban watersheds generally produce higher pollutant loads per  
53 unit area from storm water runoff, in comparison with rural watersheds (Schueler and Simpson, 2001).  
54 In addition, urban watersheds produce a higher loading of pollutants from municipal wastewater  
55 discharges, especially in developing regions with insufficient water infrastructure (Walsh et al., 2005;  
56 Lee et al., 2019). Pollutant accumulation should favor disproportionate development of  
57 pollution-tolerant species (e.g. harmful cyanobacteria) in urban lakes, subsequently imposing  
58 detrimental effects on human health and ecosystem function (Taranu et al., 2015). Importantly, the  
59 relative location and morphometry of lakes on the urban-rural gradient will be reshaped with the  
60 outward expansion of cities, likely resulting in altered ecosystem functioning across this gradient.  
61 Many initial rural lakes gradually became suburban or urban lakes over time adjacent to the newly



62 founded urban centres (Moore et al., 2003). Concomitantly, the bloom of pollution-tolerant species can  
63 be expected in lakes around urban regions with rapid urbanization.

64 Despite recent water quality monitoring schemes in urban regions, available data are spatially and  
65 temporally limited. Fortunately, sediment records from multiple lakes can improve our knowledge of  
66 long-term aquatic environmental change at a regional scale (Thapalia et al., 2015). Sedimentary records  
67 reveal that most urban lakes generally have experienced ecological shifts from a  
68 macrophyte-dominated, clear water state to an algal-dominated, turbid water state (Nyenje et al., 2010).  
69 Suburban lakes located in the ecotone between urban and rural areas play an important role in regional  
70 sustainable development, yet their response to multiple stressors is typically unknown (Zeng et al.,  
71 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). It is crucial to reveal the mechanisms behind spatial-temporal evolution of  
72 urban lakes in order to avert further environmental degradation and identify effective protection  
73 strategies in different lakes along the urban-rural gradient (Hall et al., 1999; Teurlincx et al., 2019).

74 In the Yangtze floodplain, there are hundreds of shallow freshwater lakes, which provide  
75 important ecosystem services such as wildlife habitats, freshwater and food supply, and water  
76 regulation (Dearing et al., 2012). Since the early 1980s, Chinese urbanization is unprecedented in scale,  
77 with an expansion of urban population from 0.17 billion in 1978 to 0.71 billion in 2013 (Song and  
78 Zhang, 2002). As more and more lakes are embedded in the urban landscape, the influxes of  
79 anthropogenic pollutants increased markedly (Xu et al., 2010). As a consequence, most lakes in this  
80 region have experienced a major alteration from a relatively good water quality to eutrophication  
81 during the 1980s (Le et al., 2010) and over 85% of lakes now are eutrophic or hypertrophic (Yang et al.,  
82 2010). However, while the status of these systems is known, less is known about the transition  
83 processes, and ecosystem trajectories in response to the multiple stressors along the urban-rural

84 gradient, which are important to understand to enable appropriate remediation techniques to be  
85 employed.

86 This study analyzed ecological trajectories of three lakes based on subfossil chironomids  
87 (Insecta, Diptera) in sediment cores collected from urban, suburban and rural areas in Wuhan City  
88 (central China). We hypothesize that lake responses to multiple stressors would be temporally and  
89 spatially different. This study aims to 1) reconstruct ecological trajectories of lakes along the  
90 urban-rural gradient with the expansion of urban areas and 2) examine lake responses to past changes  
91 in external drivers along the urban to rural gradient.

92

## 93 **2. Material and Methods**

### 94 2.1. Study area

95 Wuhan is the capital of Hubei Province, located in central China and the middle reach of the Yangtze  
96 River (Fig. 1). The region belongs to the subtropical monsoonal climatic zone with a mean annual  
97 temperature of 17.4 °C and a mean annual precipitation of 1400 mm. The city is a famous megalopolis  
98 having a population of more than 10 million. High population pressure has stimulated city expansion in  
99 recent years with the expansion of built-up district area from 30 km<sup>2</sup> in 1950 (3 million people) to 220  
100 km<sup>2</sup> in 2005 (8 million people) and sharply to 550 km<sup>2</sup> in 2014 (10 million people) (Bureau of  
101 Statistics of Hubei Province, 2009, 2014; Fig. 2a). The city embraces 166 lakes with surface area of  
102 over 0.05 km<sup>2</sup>. All of them are shallow lakes with water depth less than 5 m and most are fluvial lakes  
103 linked to the evolution of the Yangtze River. Their total area is approximately 867 km<sup>2</sup>, occupying 10.2%  
104 of the total land area of the city (8,494 km<sup>2</sup>). However, 158 out of 166 lakes within the city were  
105 eutrophic and 11 were hypertrophic according to the survey in 2017 (Wuhan Environmental Protection

106 Bureau, 2017). Algal blooms occur frequently, especially in summer in several lakes (e.g. Donghu  
107 Lake and Nanhu Lake) near the city centre. The degradation of lake ecosystems in Wuhan has aroused  
108 widespread public concern.

109 Shahu Lake (central location 30°34'7"N, 114°19'40"E; mean water depth of 2.5 m) is the only  
110 lake exceeding 3 km<sup>2</sup> in surface area within the inner ring line of Wuhan. Lake surface area was about  
111 6.7 km<sup>2</sup> before the 1910s, with free hydrological connection with the Yangtze River and Donghu Lake.  
112 However, its hydrological connection with the Yangtze River was regulated by several local dams after  
113 the 1910s. Due to land reclamation with rapid urbanization, the lake became hydrologically closed after  
114 the 1990s (Zhang, 2009). Moreover, the lake was divided into two small lakes (named Inner and Outer  
115 Shahu Lake) by the construction of Yue-Han Railway in the early 20th century. The water surface area  
116 correspondingly reduced to 3.5 km<sup>2</sup> in the late 1980s, and then sharply to current 3.1 km<sup>2</sup> (Compilation  
117 Committee of Lakes in Hubei Province, 2014; Fig. 2c, Fig. A.1). About 71% of the lost water surface  
118 was converted into built-up areas (Xie et al., 2017). Marginal plants are patched along lakeshore and  
119 mainly dominated by *Nelumbo nucifera* and *Alternanthera* with the disappearance of submerged plants  
120 (Song, 2008). A survey conducted in August 2016 showed that concentrations of total phosphorus  
121 (TP), total nitrogen (TN) and chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) were 588, 4300 and 179 µg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Liang  
122 et al., 2020). But in July 2019, the observed TP was 292 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1).

123 Yanxi Lake (30°32'~30°37'N, 114°27'~114°31'E; mean water depth of 1.9 m) is an agriculturally  
124 important area and fishery production base, as well as drinking water source for villagers living around  
125 the lake. With the expansion of urban area, Yanxi Lake has been transformed from a rural lake to a  
126 suburban lake. Many crop lands in its basin have been converted into built-up purpose (Fig. A.1). The  
127 lake was freely connected with the Yangtze River before the construction of local Wuhui Dam in 1955

128 and Beihu Dam in 1965. Lake surface area reduced from 12.7 km<sup>2</sup> in 1936 to 12.6 km<sup>2</sup> in 1982 (Zhang,  
129 2009), and further to current 11.8 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2c). There were more than 20 industrial factories  
130 surrounding the lake until the mid-1990s. A large influx of untreated industrial and domestic sewage  
131 into the lake has caused the deterioration of water quality (Wu, 1992). After 2000, most of these  
132 factories were generally closed and a variety of sewage treatment measures were implemented. Since  
133 2003, the lake has been built into a holiday resort functions as leisure, agriculture tourism and popular  
134 science tourism. In August 2016, concentrations of TP and Chl-*a* were 42 and 70 µg L<sup>-1</sup>, but increased  
135 to 160 and 111 µg L<sup>-1</sup> respectively in July 2019.

136 Futou Lake is a relatively rural lake (29°57'~30°07'N, 114°09'~114°20'E; mean water depth of  
137 1.65 m), around 57 km away from the city centre. Hydrological connectivity between the lake and the  
138 Yangtze River was regulated by the implements of local Jinshui Dam in 1935 and Xinhe Dam in 1973.  
139 Presently, this lake is in a macrophyte-dominated state, with high abundances of *Pistia stratiotes*,  
140 *Vallisneria natans*, *Potamogeton crispus* and *Ceratophyllum demersum*. Concentration of TP was 43  
141 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in August 2016 and 70 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in July 2019. The development trajectory of this lake has been  
142 detailed by Zeng et al. (2018), and summary plots of Futou Lake are used to compare with the other  
143 two lakes investigated here.

144

## 145 2.2. Core collection

146 Sediment cores were collected using a modified Kajak gravity corer at the approximately centre of  
147 Futou Lake (30°03'16.96"N, 114°12'24.67"E; with length of ~65 cm) in April 2014, and Shahu Lake  
148 (30°34'12.18"N, 114°20'11.30"E; ~61 cm) and Yanxi Lake (30°34'18.08"N, 114°28'42.49"E; ~61 cm)  
149 in October 2011. The cores were sliced at intervals of 1 cm in field. Subsamples were stored in plastic

150 bags and kept in the refrigerator at 4°C before analysis.

151

152 2.3. Laboratory analyses

153 2.3.1. *Chronology*

154 Sediment cores were dated mainly by  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , and corrected by the chronomarker of spheroidal  
155 carbonaceous particles (SCP). Radioactive isotopes  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  were counted at 2-cm  
156 intervals on a gamma spectrometer (Ortec HPGe GWL). Chen et al. (2019) displayed the detailed  
157 measurements and chronological stratigraphy for each lake.

158 2.3.2. *Particle size*

159 Particle size spectra of samples were measured at 1-cm intervals using a Malvern automated laser  
160 optical particle-sizer analyser (Mastersizer-2000) after the removal of carbonate by 10% HCl and  
161 organic matter by 30%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ .

162 2.3.3. *Elements analyses*

163 Element contents (including Cu, Zn and TP) in sediments at 2 cm intervals were determined by the  
164 Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES) after digestion with  
165 HF-HCl-HNO<sub>3</sub>-HClO<sub>4</sub>.

166 2.3.4. *Chironomid analysis*

167 Sediment samples for chironomid analysis were conducted according to standard techniques proposed  
168 by Brooks et al. (2007) at 2 cm intervals. Wet sediment samples were deflocculated in 10% KOH in a  
169 water bath at 75 °C for 15 min, and then sieved through 212 and 90 µm meshes. The residue was  
170 transferred to a grooved perpex sorting tray and examined manually under a stereo-zoom microscope at  
171 x25 magnification with fine forceps. Head capsules were permanently mounted on slides using

172 Hydromatrix<sup>®</sup>, ventral side uppermost, and subsequently identified at x100-400 magnification using the  
173 taxonomy of Brooks et al. (2007), with reference to Rieradevall & Brooks (2001). A minimum of 50  
174 identifiable whole head capsules from each sample is expected to be representative of the extant fauna  
175 (Quinlan and Smol, 2001).

176

#### 177 2.4. Climatic data collection

178 Annual temperature and precipitation data were collected in order to reveal the effects of climate  
179 change on lake development. Annual temperature data since 1905 were obtained from Hankou  
180 Meteorological Station. Monitored precipitation data were discontinuous as rainfall data from 1944 to  
181 1950 was not measured. Simulated rainfall data of the studied region (29.5-30.5°N,113.5-115.5°E)  
182 were then obtained from Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut (KNMI) (website:  
183 [http://climexp.knmi.nl/selectfield\\_obs.cgi](http://climexp.knmi.nl/selectfield_obs.cgi)). Significant positive correlation exists between rainfall data  
184 from Hankou Meteorological Station and KNMI ( $r = 0.69$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Annual rainfall data from KNMI,  
185 combined with temperature data were then used in subsequent ordination analysis (Fig. 2d).

186

#### 187 2.5. Numerical analyses

188 The enrichment of Cu, Zn and TP can indicate increasing anthropogenic disturbances (Boyle et al.,  
189 1999). In order to evaluate the accumulation of elements along time, geoaccumulation index ( $I_{geo}$ ) for  
190 Cu, Zn and TP was calculated as follows:

$$191 \quad I_{geo} = \log_2(C_n / (1.5 * B_n))$$

192 where,  $C_n$  is the measured concentration of element  $n$  in sediment; 1.5 is the background matrix  
193 correction factor due to lithogenic effects;  $B_n$  is the geochemical background value of element  $n$

194 (González-Macías et al., 2006; Ghrefat and Yusuf, 2006; Kim et al., 2018). Considering the different  
195 benchmark of elements in different lakes, here we calculated  $B_n$  as average concentration before 1900  
196 of element  $n$ .

197 Variance partitioning analysis (VPA) was conducted to distinguish the effects of diverse stressors  
198 on fossil chironomid communities. Three explanatory categories were identified as climate,  
199 hydrological condition and anthropogenic pollution. The climate-group includes two variables of  
200 annual temperature and rainfall. The establishment of local dams was considered as a 1/0 dummy  
201 variable for indicating hydrological regulation. Particle size spectra in sediments are closely linked to  
202 hydrological dynamics (Zeng et al., 2018). Damming event and particle fractions together were used to  
203 reflect hydrological changes in three lakes. The geoaccumulation index of Cu, Zn and TP composed the  
204 group of anthropogenic pollution. All explanatory variables were standardized with  
205  $\log_{10}(x+1)$ -transformation to eliminate the effects of different units among them. Rare chironomid taxa  
206 occurred in only one sample or with abundance less than 2% were deleted and would not participate in  
207 ordination analyses. Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) was conducted to extract major  
208 changes in chironomid communities of three lakes. It also showed that the gradient length for Shahu,  
209 Yanxi and Futou Lake was 2.6, 2.0 and 1.8 standard deviation, respectively, suggesting the linear  
210 method was suitable for the subsequent ordination analyses. Redundancy analysis (RDA) was also  
211 employed to identify significant explanatory variables and to estimate the fraction of faunal variance  
212 explained by three categories in variance partitioning. Monte Carlo permutation tests (499 unrestricted  
213 permutations) were conducted to test the significance of variables, and forward selection was used to  
214 determine the minimum subset of significant variables. VPA was carried out to evaluate the relative  
215 importance of each explanatory group and their explanatory power in each lake. Because of limitation

216 of climate data, the time window analyzed in VPA was 1907-2011 AD for Shahu Lake, 1904-2011 AD  
217 for Yanxi Lake and 1914-2014 AD for Futou Lake. All above ordination analyses were based on taxon  
218 percentages with square-root transformation, and conducted in CANOCO version 5.0 (Šmilauer and  
219 Lepš, 2014).

220 The possible abrupt shifts in ecosystem structure and function for three lakes were also detected  
221 using the Sequential *t*-test Analysis of Regime-shifts algorithm (STARS) proposed by Rodionov (2004).  
222 The module shift detection software version 3.2 was initially added in Excel 2010. In parameter setting,  
223 significance level was 0.05 and cut-off length was 5. Regime shift index (RSI) was calculated and  
224 employed to identify the most potential tipping point. Scores of DCA first axis on chironomid data,  
225 which stands for the most important information from chironomids, were involved in the detection.  
226 Gaussian kernel density estimation and autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model  
227 were also conducted to verify whether two different regimes existed before and after the tipping point.  
228 The former was performed with the R statistical software (R Core Team, 2018) using the ‘sm’ package  
229 (Bowman and Azzalini, 2018), and the latter was conducted using Minitab 17.

230

### 231 **3. Results**

#### 232 3.1. Chronology

233  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$  activities generally declined exponentially with mass depth (Chen et al., 2019). The  
234 chronologies of the three sediment cores were calculated based on the constant rate of supply model  
235 (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978). The start of the rapid increase in SCP concentrations corresponds to the  
236 major expansion in coal consumption from 1970. The final chronologies of sediment cores were  
237 established based on the SCP chronomarker-validated  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  chronologies (Fig. 3). Generally,



238 sedimentation rates were less than  $0.2 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  before the 1930s, and then increased to a peak.  
239 Thereafter sedimentation rates decreased and remained low after the 1980s. Detailed results are  
240 presented in Chen et al. (2019).

241

### 242 3.2. Chironomid stratigraphy

243 More than 40 different species morphotypes of chironomids were identified in three cores (Fig. A.2).  
244 Cluster analysis identified significant changes in chironomid composition occurred around 1963, 1975  
245 and 1980 AD for Shahu, Yanxi and Futou Lake, respectively (Fig. 4).

246 In Shahu Lake, there was a major compositional shift from plant-dwelling taxa to nutrient-tolerant  
247 taxa during the past 160 years (Fig. 4a). Before 1963 AD, chironomid assemblages within the lake were  
248 dominated by *C. sylvestris*-type (average ca. 18.1%), *D. nervosus*-type (mean of 13.6%) and  
249 *Paratanytarsus* (mean of 12.3%). Subsequently, major taxa were replaced by *Tanytus* (average ca.  
250 60.6%), *Prosilocerus akamusi*-type (about 7.9%) and *Procladius* (about 13.3%). The prominence of  
251 *Tanytus* after 1990 AD (16 cm-depth), was substantial as the percentage reached up to 90%.

252 Several different taxa co-existed before 1975 AD in Yanxi Lake (Fig. 4b). Major taxa included  
253 *Paratanytarsus* (average percentage of 12.4%), *Microchironomus tener*-type (11.5%), *C.*  
254 *sylvestris*-type (7.5%), *Stempellinella-Zavrelia* (6.6%), *Polypedilum nubifer*-type (4.9%) and *D.*  
255 *nervosus*-type (4.7%). Total abundance of macrophyte-related taxa (*Ablabesmyia*, *Corynoneura*  
256 *edwardsi*-type, *C. sylvestris*-type, *D. nervosus*-type, *Glyptotendipes severini*-type, *Parachironomus*  
257 *vasus*-type, *Paratanytarsus*, *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type and *P. sordens*-type) in this period was  
258 nearly 35.0% in average. Whereafter, chironomid assemblages were dominated by *Tanytus* (ca. 29.9%)  
259 and *P. akamusi*-type (10.4%). Concurrently, some other nutrient-tolerant species such as *Chironomus*

260 *plumosus*-type (mean of 3.7%) and *Microchironomus tabarui*-type (4.6%) also increased. After 1999  
261 AD, the abundance of *Tanytus* increased to the maximum (59.7%) at surface samples.

262 In Futou Lake, chironomid assemblages were dominated by *M. tener*-type before 1980 AD, and  
263 then were macrophyte-related *Paratanytarsus* and *C. sylvestris*-type after its damming. Meanwhile,  
264 nutrient-tolerant *P. akamusi*-type increased after 1994 AD (Fig. 4c).

265

### 266 3.3. Particle size and elemental concentration

267 Sediments in three lakes were mainly composed of clay and silt (Fig. 5). Generally, clay decreased in  
268 the upper strata of three sediment cores, in contrast to increasing proportions of sand. In spite of low  
269 proportions, there were several peaks of sand in three sediment cores.

270 Distinctive changes in sedimentary Cu, Zn and P were observed in Shahu Lake core. Cu, Zn and P  
271 were relatively stable with no notable changes before 1963 AD (Fig. 5a). Cu and Zn sharply increased  
272 from 1963 AD to the late 1990s, followed by slight decreases. Sedimentary P continued to increase and  
273 trebled between 1963 and 2011 AD.

274 Variations of Cu, Zn and P in Yanxi Lake were more complex than in Shahu Lake (Fig. 5b).  
275 Concentrations of Cu and Zn increased markedly after the 1920s, followed by relatively minor  
276 variation after the 1940s. After the 1980s, Cu gradually decreased, while Zn showed an inverse  
277 tendency. Sedimentary P remained low values before the 1960s, and thereafter continued to rise till the  
278 uppermost.

279 Trends of Cu, Zn and P in Futou Lake were similar as they rose before 1900s and then declined  
280 until 1980 (Fig. 5c). Zn and P enriched sharply after 1980 AD, with their concentrations increased by  
281 more than 20%. Concurrently, Cu increased slightly from 41 to ~45 mg/kg.

282

283 3.4. Variation partitioning analysis

284 RDA and VPA revealed that chironomid communities in three lakes were significantly influenced by  
285 different historical changes in climate, hydrological conditions or anthropogenic pollutants since the  
286 early 20<sup>th</sup> century (Table 2).

287 In Shahu Lake, three variables (annual temperature, median grain size and  $I_{geo}$  (P)) assigned to  
288 three explanatory categories comprised the minimum subset of significant variables capturing 60.6% of  
289 the total variance in chironomid assemblages. Anthropogenic pollution independently explained 34.7%  
290 of total variance, and its combined effect with hydrological conditions captured 22.4% of total variance  
291 further (Fig. 6). Climate change was a significant variable but its sole effect was minor. Its interaction  
292 with anthropogenic pollution and hydrological conditions explained 6.5% and 2.5% of total variance,  
293 respectively. Combined effects of three significant variables were negative and explained -9.6% of  
294 species variances.

295 In Yanxi Lake, climate and hydrological variables failed to explain a significant part of total  
296 variance in chironomid communities. The unique effect of anthropogenic pollution captured 44.3% of  
297 total variance.

298 In Futou Lake, the sole effect of hydrological alterations (i.e. damming event and silt fraction)  
299 explained more variance (33.7%) in chironomid assemblages than that (13.3%) of anthropogenic  
300 pollution. Their interactive effect on chironomids was negative with the value of -10.8%. The sole  
301 effect of climate change was not significant.

302

303 3.5. Developmental trajectories and regime shifts

304 The biplot of DCA1 against DCA2 revealed the developmental trajectories and response trends of three  
305 lakes to multiple stressors (i.e. different human disturbances) (Fig. 7). Shahu and Yanxi Lake shifted  
306 from different ecological status towards an identical homogenized eutrophic state. Futou Lake,  
307 however, developed mainly along DCA2 (representing hydrological conditions) and is still in a  
308 relatively desired state with established macrophyte communities. Its development took a different  
309 trajectory compared with urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake due to the different  
310 multi-dimensional stressors impacting it.

311 STARS captured the possible tipping point in each lake: 1963 AD for Shahu Lake, 1975 AD for  
312 Yanxi Lake and 1980 AD for Futou Lake (Table A.1). Gaussian kernel density estimation showed a  
313 bimodal distribution, with two divergent peaks for each lake before and after the detected critical point  
314 (Fig. 8a). ARIMA displayed obvious divergence between the predicted and observed (sedimentary)  
315 biological changes, suggestive of two alternative ecological states for each lake (Fig. 8b). Considering  
316 the replacement of dominated taxa in chironomid assemblages, ARIMA confirmed that both Shahu and  
317 Yanxi Lake had turned into a completely different and worse ecological state after the regime shift than  
318 before. Although experienced regime shift, observed DCA1 scores after 1980 AD in Futou Lake was  
319 more stable than the predicted values. In any case, both of these sets of analyses provide evidence of  
320 bistability before and after the observed tipping points.

321

## 322 **4. Discussion**

### 323 4.1. History of water quality change

324 Significant changes in water quality were reflected by sedimentary proxies including geochemical and  
325 biotic indicators in three lakes during the past century. Generally, the dominance of macrophyte-related

326 chironomids was replaced by eutrophic species in urban and suburban lakes, suggesting their  
327 trajectories toward eutrophication.

328 Before the 1960s in Shahu Lake, chironomid communities mainly consisted of taxa preferring  
329 shallow water with a relatively high density of macrophytes, such as *C. sylvestris*-type, *D.*  
330 *nervosus*-type and *Paratanytarsus* (Brodersen et al., 2001; Davidson et al., 2010). Most of these taxa  
331 are often found in productive and mesotrophic to eutrophic waters. They are frequently common in  
332 shallow lakes in the Yangtze floodplain, and considered to be indicators of flourishing macrophytes  
333 (Langdon et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). Their coexistence and predominance suggested a stable and  
334 good ecological state of Shahu Lake during this period. The lake regime collapsed within just a few  
335 years (20-30 years) and switched to an alternative state after 1963 AD, since the dominance of  
336 clear-water/ plant-preferring taxa (e.g. *Paratanytarsus* genus) were replaced by the rising abundances  
337 of pollution- and/or nutrient-tolerant taxa such as *P. akamusi*-type and *Tanytus*. *P. akamusi*-type was  
338 firstly described by Sasa (1978) and is often encountered in eutrophic to hypertrophic lakes in China  
339 and Japan, with a TP optimum of 118 µg/L in the Yangtze floodplain lakes (Zhang et al., 2012).  
340 *Tanytus* can also be found in mesotrophic and hypereutrophic lakes, has a TP optimum of 169 µg/L in  
341 the study region (Zhang et al., 2012).

342 Yanxi Lake was in a relatively desired state before the 1970s, suggested by the dominance of  
343 mesotrophic *M. tener*-type (Brooks et al., 2007) and clear-water taxa *Paratanytarsus* (Langdon et al.,  
344 2010) and some other plant-inhabiting taxa. After the 1970s, the enrichment of Zn and sedimentary P  
345 indicated an increasing influx of external pollutants into Yanxi Lake. The replacement of phytophilous  
346 chironomid taxa by eutrophic species indicated that the lake was switching from a mesotrophic state  
347 into a eutrophic lake, although the trajectory of change was slower than in Shahu Lake. Until 2010s,

348 Yanxi Lake was still in the process of eutrophication and water deterioration continued as indicated by  
349 our results as well as available monitoring data (Wuhan Environmental Protection Bureau, 2012-2017).  
350 It might suggest that more effective strategies could be made for suburban lakes, or else the resilience  
351 and functional services of these lakes will be lost.

352 Futou Lake is currently one of the few lakes with flourishing aquatic vegetation in the Yangtze  
353 floodplain. This lake has maintained relatively good water quality since the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century indicated  
354 by high abundance of plant-associated chironomids (e.g. *C. sylvestris*-type and *Paratanytarsus*)  
355 throughout the sediment core, especially since the 1980s. Vegetation can sequester nutrients in water  
356 and plays a critical role in the maintenance of aquatic ecosystem stability (Zhang et al., 2016). However,  
357 the enrichment of sedimentary P and heavy metals since the 1980s was suggestive of enhanced human  
358 activities in the catchment. As a consequence, *P. akamusi*-type, a eutrophic indicator, started to increase  
359 after the mid-1990s, albeit at relatively low abundance. Given the trajectories of the other lakes that  
360 contain *P. akamusi*-type, this may be an early warning indicator that the lake may be losing resilience  
361 ahead of a switch to an alternative state.

362

#### 363 4.2. Anthropogenic pollution

364 Variance partitioning revealed that anthropogenic pollution was the major driver for changes in  
365 chironomid communities in both Shahu and Yanxi Lake. Regional palaeoecology studies confirmed the  
366 importance of anthropogenic pollution in regulating water quality in the Yangtze floodplain (Chen et al.,  
367 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). Sedimentary phosphorus was a significant explanatory variable for Shahu  
368 and Yanxi Lake. The enrichment of sedimentary P has accelerated in the urban and suburban lakes  
369 since the 1960s, probably linked to recent demographic and economic increases in Wuhan City (Fig. 2).

370 The dominance of eutrophic species and high sedimentary P content in Shahu Lake indicated that the  
371 urban lake suffered from serious eutrophication, because nutrient inputs from sewage discharge were  
372 greatest in city centre. The magnitude of increases in sedimentary P and eutrophic taxa was relatively  
373 lower in suburban (Yanxi Lake) and rural (Futou Lake) lakes at the same point in time.

374 In suburban and rural lakes, heavy metal enrichment (i.e. Cu and Zn) explained a significant part  
375 of variance in the species data. The enrichment of Cu and Zn is mainly derived from industrial sources  
376 (Boyle et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2012). Anthropogenic pollution generally experienced three distinct  
377 stages in the study area, i.e. an increase in the early 1900s, a sequent recession and then a rapid rebound  
378 after the 1950s. The three stages broadly corresponded to the establishment of modern industry in the  
379 early 1900s, Sino-Japanese and Chinese civil wars from the 1930s to 1940s, and the boosting of heavy  
380 industry after the 1950s in Wuhan. Heavy metal enrichment would typically reduce chironomid  
381 diversity, and promote the proliferation of pollution-tolerant species (Cao et al. 2016). Taken together,  
382 variance in chironomid communities explained by anthropogenic pollution decreased along the  
383 urban-to-rural gradient, indicating that increased pollutant inputs imposed overwhelming effects on  
384 urban and suburban lakes, but relatively minor effects upon the rural lake.

385

#### 386 4.3. Hydrological and climate change

387 Besides anthropogenic pollution, hydrological indicators (i.e. damming and sedimentary particle size)  
388 accounted for a significant part of variance in the species data, especially in the rural lake (Futou Lake).  
389 In a hydrologically-open lake, sedimentary particle size can be a proxy for hydrodynamic intensity, and  
390 an increase in sand percentage may indicate strong inflows that are able to transport coarse particles  
391 into the lake (Chen et al. 2011). However, prolonged water retention time after dam construction would

392 promote the deposition of fine particles, resulting in a relative increase in clay (Zeng et al., 2018). In  
393 Shahu and Futou Lakes, it is unexpected that the percentage of sand displayed an increasing trend after  
394 the 1960s, when both of lakes had suffered from hydrological regulation due to dam construction. This  
395 phenomenon is probably linked to a sharp shrinkage of lake area due to land reclamation after the  
396 1950s (Xie et al., 2017). Both Shahu and Futou Lakes have lost more than 25% of surface area during  
397 the last century (Zhang et al. 2009; Xie et al., 2017). As a consequence, coarse particles would be  
398 readily transported to the lake centre. In the urban lake (Shahu Lake), prolonged hydraulic residence  
399 time and lake shrinkage would promote the enrichment of pollutants. Therefore, the combined effect of  
400 hydrological alteration and anthropogenic pollution captured a high proportion of total variance in  
401 chironomid communities in this lake. In contrast, the combined effect of hydrology and anthropogenic  
402 pollution was negative for the rural Futou Lake, as a reduction in water level amplitude after  
403 hydrological regulation promoted the development of macrophytes and associated chironomid taxa  
404 (Zeng et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019), which can have a stabilizing effect on lake ecosystems  
405 (Jeppesen et al., 1998).

406 In the urban Shahu Lake, changes in chironomid communities were significantly correlated with  
407 increasing temperature. It is noteworthy that the combined effect of temperature and sedimentary  
408 phosphorus explained a higher proportion of variance than the sole effect of temperature (Fig. 7). The  
409 results indicated that rising temperature could indirectly promote the development of nutrient-tolerant  
410 species (Chen et al. 2013). In shallow lakes, climate warming usually accelerates nutrient release from  
411 sediments and renew nutrient supplies into the water column (Jensen and Andersen 1992). However, in  
412 the suburban (Yanxi) and rural (Futou) lakes, the effects of climate variables failed to be significant,  
413 neither their sole effects nor combined effects with other drivers. The effect of climate warming on



414 chironomids would thus likely be amplified in the eutrophic lake (Shahu Lake) with high nutrient  
415 loading.

416

#### 417 4.4. Regime shifts in lakes along an urbanization gradient

418 Regime shifts are increasingly happening in terrestrial and aquatic environments in the context of  
419 continuous human influences (Folke, 2004; Reid et al., 2016). In most cases, ecosystems' regime tends  
420 to shift from a desired state with high resilience to an undesired state with low ability of  
421 self-organization and feedback (Wang et al., 2012, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018), and this appears to have  
422 occurred rapidly in Shahu Lake. Hydrologic regulation can also induce critical transition through  
423 altering vegetation coverage in lake ecosystems (Schooler et al., 2011; Bertani et al., 2016). For  
424 example, water level alteration stemming from dam establishment caused the disappearance of  
425 submerge vegetation (the first regime shift) and then the increase of nutrients triggered the second state  
426 alteration (algal blooms thereafter) in Chaohu Lake, which is located in the same region with our study  
427 (Kong et al., 2017). However, rural Futou Lake in our study seems to respond markedly different from  
428 urban Shahu Lake and Chaohu Lake. Massive macrophytes beds developed as a result of stabilized  
429 hydrological conditions after the detected tipping point in Futou Lake around 1980. The hydrological  
430 change and stabilizing effect of macrophytes promoted ecological resilience in Futou Lake. The  
431 ARIMA results (Fig. 8b) showed that the lake trajectory, based on the previous ecosystem data, was to  
432 further change and decline towards an alternative (eutrophic) state, similar to the Shahu and Yanxi  
433 lakes. But this never happened, due to the altered hydrology and macrophyte growth across the lake.  
434 Nevertheless, the increasing abundance of pollution-tolerant taxa (*P. akamusi*-type) indicated the  
435 continued enrichment of pollutants and nutrients in Futou Lake, and based on the trajectories of the

436 other lakes in this study, would suggest that despite hydrological and macrophyte stability, nutrients are  
437 still increasing and the lake may yet be losing resilience ahead of a transition to an alternative state. As  
438 such, the chironomid data may provide an early warning to this, and other rural lakes, on the edge of  
439 city expansion and subject to enhanced nutrient pollution. While Shahu lake has transitioned to an  
440 alternative state, and Futou lake currently appears to have partially stabilized (for now at least), Yanxi  
441 lake may still be mid-transition regarding its ecological state. Given the location of the transition region,  
442 Yanxi Lake was suffering from multiple stressors with varying types and magnitude resulting from the  
443 expansion of Wuhan city and increasingly altered land-use patterns and population. The lake is still in a  
444 self-adjustment process to the new regime system as DCA1 scores of Yanxi Lake are still declining,  
445 which may indicate the altering biological compositions as ARIMA analyses also predicted.

446

#### 447 4.5. Implication for sustainable management

448 Palaeoecological records provide useful implications for sustainable management of urban freshwater  
449 ecosystems. Regional comparison demonstrated that anthropogenic impacts were overwhelming in  
450 urban and suburban lakes, but relatively weak in the rural lake. Variance partitioning suggested that the  
451 precise management strategy should vary with lake position along the urban-to-rural gradient. The  
452 urban lake has experienced transitions from a phase of exponential pollution to a relatively stable  
453 polluted state. In contrast, the suburban lake is suffering from exponential pollution, and hence it is  
454 urgent to implement effective control measurements (e.g. installation of new sewage treatment plants)  
455 in the rapidly urbanized area. For the rural lake, both moderate hydrological regulation (e.g. water level  
456 stabilization) and reduction of external pollutant input are important for the development of  
457 macrophytes, which can increase resilience of lake ecosystems buffering against external disturbances

458 (e.g. anthropogenic nutrient input) (cf. Scheffer et al. 2003). Additionally, although climate warming  
459 was also important, it cannot be regulated. Under a scenario of increasing temperature in future,  
460 nutrient release from lake sediments would increase the risk of environment deterioration in urban  
461 lakes.

462

## 463 **5. Conclusions**

464 Chironomid stratigraphies, combined with geochemical records and climatic data, demonstrated that  
465 the response of shallow lakes to external stressors was temporally and spatially different along the  
466 urban-rural gradient in a metropolitan area (central China) during the past century. All three lakes had  
467 experienced critical transitions which occurred in the sequence of their distance from city centre.  
468 Anthropogenic disturbance triggered regime shifts within lakes and drove them toward different states.  
469 Given the input of massive pollutants, urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake shifted from clear  
470 water to turbid state in 1963 and 1975, respectively. Climate warming acted as an amplifier of  
471 ecological change in urban lake with high pollution pressures. The dam impoundment in Futou Lake  
472 stabilized hydrological conditions, which facilitated the development of macrophytes after 1980.  
473 However, due to prolonged hydraulic retention time, nutrient enrichment in Futou Lake might be  
474 accelerated. Contrary to the new stable state in Shahu and Futou Lake, suburban Yanxi Lake, located in  
475 the transition region along the rural-urban gradient, now is still in self-adjustment resulting from the  
476 varying stressors in types and magnitude. With the city expansion, lakes along the urban-rural gradient  
477 exist in different ecological states due to the impact of varying drivers. This study also implies that  
478 active and targeted strategies on not only urban lakes but also suburban-rural lakes will be strongly  
479 required to avoid detrimental shifts and sustain a desired state in aquatic ecosystems.

480

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485

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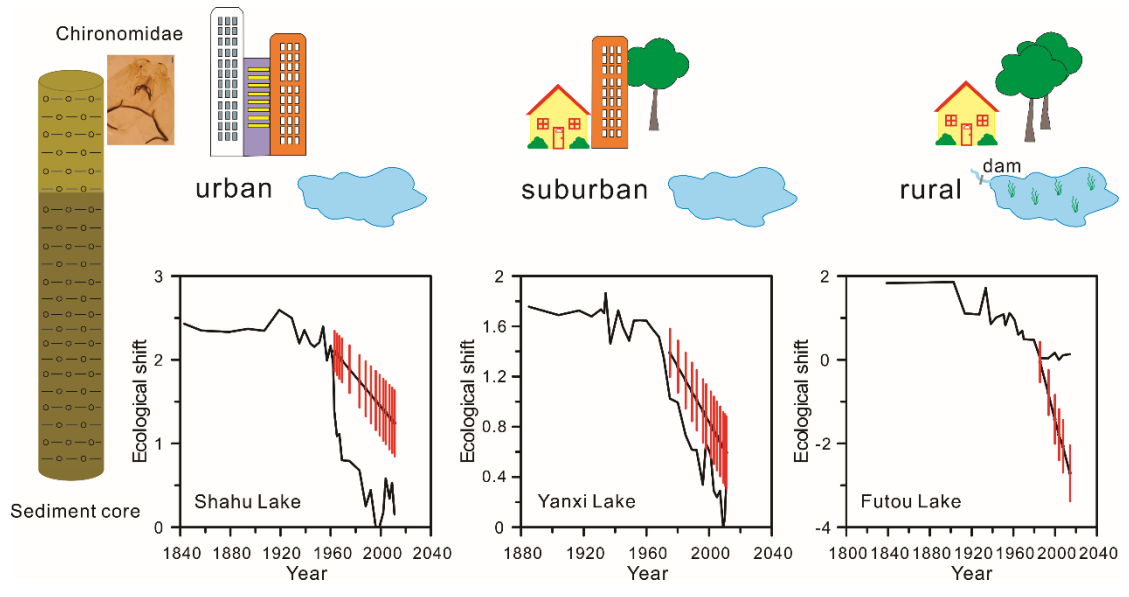
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\*Graphical Abstract



**Highlights**

- Past environmental changes in lakes along the urban-rural gradient were assessed.
- Urban, suburban and rural lakes experienced critical transitions at different times.
- Urban-rural lakes are currently in different ecological states.
- The external driving forces varied among different types of lakes.
- Warming acts as an amplifier of ecological change when pollution pressures are high.

1 **Regime shifts in shallow lake ecosystems along an urban-rural gradient in central China**

2

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13

14 **Abstract:** Due to differential exploitation pressure, ecosystems along the urban to rural gradients  
15 often exhibit different status in ecological structure and function. This can be challenging for lake  
16 restoration, given the relative strengths, magnitudes and speed of the exploitation. In this paper,  
17 we reconstructed the ecological changes over the past century and identified the regime shifts  
18 based on subfossil aquatic biota (chironomid records) in three shallow lakes (Shahu, Yanxi and  
19 Futou Lake) along an urban-rural gradient in the Yangtze floodplain, China. Our results illustrated  
20 the differences among lakes in trajectories, timing of critical transition and current ecological  
21 status. Eutrophic chironomid taxa increased markedly and replaced macrophyte-related taxa in  
22 urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake, indicated by the shift from a stable,

23 vegetation-dominated state to an alternative, algal-dominated state in 1963 AD and 1975 AD  
24 respectively. The ecological regime in rural Futou Lake transited around 1980 AD but it is still in a  
25 relatively clear water state with abundant macrophytes due to anthropogenic hydrological controls.  
26 The greatest variance of chironomid compositional changes in both Shahu and Yanxi Lake was  
27 captured by anthropogenic pollutants, and analyses show that when these pressures are high they  
28 may be further amplified by climate warming. Responses along the urban-rural gradient are  
29 exemplified by urban Shahu Lake having shifted to a fragile regime with weak resistance and  
30 resilience, while rural Futou Lake has stabilized in a new regime with improved ecological  
31 resilience. Suburban Yanxi Lake is still moving toward a new state, and as such is unstable,  
32 because the types and magnitudes of external stressors are changing with urbanization in the city.  
33 It is suggested that active and precise management strategies for lakes should be established along  
34 the urban-rural gradient given their distinct development trajectories, drivers and current status.

35

36 **Keywords:** Critical transition; Urban-rural lakes; Urbanization; Subfossil chironomids;  
37 Palaeolimnology

38

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Accelerated urbanization is one of the most dramatic changes in post-1950s (Steffen et al., 2015),  
42 as the global urban population exceeded the rural population in 2008 for the first time in history (Seto  
43 et al., 2010). Rapid urbanization has led to serious environmental and ecological problems, both in  
44 urban and surrounding areas, including air, water and soil pollution, land-cover changes, and alteration  
45 of ecosystem structure and function (McDonnell et al., 1997; Grimm et al., 2008; Seto et al., 2012).  
46 Over the last two decades, research focused on ecological repercussions of rapid urbanization has  
47 increased significantly (Teurlincx et al., 2019). Most studies have focused on the responses of  
48 terrestrial biota and habitats to urbanization, and relatively less attention has been focused on  
49 freshwater habitats, especially lakes (Hill et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2020).

50 In an urban landscape, lakes are a sink for a wide range of contaminants (e.g. nutrients, trace  
51 elements, microplastics, antibiotics) that are released through air, water and detritus (Schueler and  
52 Simpson, 2001; Naselli-Flores, 2008). Urban watersheds generally produce higher pollutant loads per  
53 unit area from storm water runoff, in comparison with rural watersheds (Schueler and Simpson, 2001).  
54 In addition, urban watersheds produce a higher loading of pollutants from municipal wastewater  
55 discharges, especially in developing regions with insufficient water infrastructure (Walsh et al., 2005;  
56 Lee et al., 2019). Pollutant accumulation should favor disproportionate development of  
57 pollution-tolerant species (e.g. harmful cyanobacteria) in urban lakes, subsequently imposing  
58 detrimental effects on human health and ecosystem function (Taranu et al., 2015). Importantly, the  
59 relative location and morphometry of lakes on the urban-rural gradient will be reshaped with the  
60 outward expansion of cities, likely resulting in altered ecosystem functioning across this gradient.  
61 Many initial rural lakes gradually became suburban or urban lakes over time adjacent to the newly



62 founded urban centres (Moore et al., 2003). Concomitantly, the bloom of pollution-tolerant species can  
63 be expected in lakes around urban regions with rapid urbanization.

64 Despite recent water quality monitoring schemes in urban regions, available data are spatially and  
65 temporally limited. Fortunately, sediment records from multiple lakes can improve our knowledge of  
66 long-term aquatic environmental change at a regional scale (Thapalia et al., 2015). Sedimentary records  
67 reveal that most urban lakes generally have experienced ecological shifts from a  
68 macrophyte-dominated, clear water state to an algal-dominated, turbid water state (Nyenje et al., 2010).  
69 Suburban lakes located in the ecotone between urban and rural areas play an important role in regional  
70 sustainable development, yet their response to multiple stressors is typically unknown (Zeng et al.,  
71 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). It is crucial to reveal the mechanisms behind spatial-temporal evolution of  
72 urban lakes in order to avert further environmental degradation and identify effective protection  
73 strategies in different lakes along the urban-rural gradient (Hall et al., 1999; Teurlincx et al., 2019).

74 In the Yangtze floodplain, there are hundreds of shallow freshwater lakes, which provide  
75 important ecosystem services such as wildlife habitats, freshwater and food supply, and water  
76 regulation (Dearing et al., 2012). Since the early 1980s, Chinese urbanization is unprecedented in scale,  
77 with an expansion of urban population from 0.17 billion in 1978 to 0.71 billion in 2013 (Song and  
78 Zhang, 2002). As more and more lakes are embedded in the urban landscape, the influxes of  
79 anthropogenic pollutants increased markedly (Xu et al., 2010). As a consequence, most lakes in this  
80 region have experienced a major alteration from a relatively good water quality to eutrophication  
81 during the 1980s (Le et al., 2010) and over 85% of lakes now are eutrophic or hypertrophic (Yang et al.,  
82 2010). However, while the status of these systems is known, less is known about the transition  
83 processes, and ecosystem trajectories in response to the multiple stressors along the urban-rural

84 gradient, which are important to understand to enable appropriate remediation techniques to be  
85 employed.

86 This study analyzed ecological trajectories of three lakes based on subfossil chironomids  
87 (Insecta, Diptera) in sediment cores collected from urban, suburban and rural areas in Wuhan City  
88 (central China). We hypothesize that lake responses to multiple stressors would be temporally and  
89 spatially different. This study aims to 1) reconstruct ecological trajectories of lakes along the  
90 urban-rural gradient with the expansion of urban areas and 2) examine lake responses to past changes  
91 in external drivers along the urban to rural gradient.

92

## 93 **2. Material and Methods**

### 94 2.1. Study area

95 Wuhan is the capital of Hubei Province, located in central China and the middle reach of the Yangtze  
96 River (Fig. 1). The region belongs to the subtropical monsoonal climatic zone with a mean annual  
97 temperature of 17.4 °C and a mean annual precipitation of 1400 mm. The city is a famous megalopolis  
98 having a population of more than 10 million. High population pressure has stimulated city expansion in  
99 recent years with the expansion of built-up district area from 30 km<sup>2</sup> in 1950 (3 million people) to 220  
100 km<sup>2</sup> in 2005 (8 million people) and sharply to 550 km<sup>2</sup> in 2014 (10 million people) (Bureau of  
101 Statistics of Hubei Province, 2009, 2014; Fig. 2a). The city embraces 166 lakes with surface area of  
102 over 0.05 km<sup>2</sup>. All of them are shallow lakes with water depth less than 5 m and most are fluvial lakes  
103 linked to the evolution of the Yangtze River. Their total area is approximately 867 km<sup>2</sup>, occupying 10.2%  
104 of the total land area of the city (8,494 km<sup>2</sup>). However, 158 out of 166 lakes within the city were  
105 eutrophic and 11 were hypertrophic according to the survey in 2017 (Wuhan Environmental Protection

106 Bureau, 2017). Algal blooms occur frequently, especially in summer in several lakes (e.g. Donghu  
107 Lake and Nanhu Lake) near the city centre. The degradation of lake ecosystems in Wuhan has aroused  
108 widespread public concern.

109 Shahu Lake (central location 30°34'7"N, 114°19'40"E; mean water depth of 2.5 m) is the only  
110 lake exceeding 3 km<sup>2</sup> in surface area within the inner ring line of Wuhan. Lake surface area was about  
111 6.7 km<sup>2</sup> before the 1910s, with free hydrological connection with the Yangtze River and Donghu Lake.  
112 However, its hydrological connection with the Yangtze River was regulated by several local dams after  
113 the 1910s. Due to land reclamation with rapid urbanization, the lake became hydrologically closed after  
114 the 1990s (Zhang, 2009). Moreover, the lake was divided into two small lakes (named Inner and Outer  
115 Shahu Lake) by the construction of Yue-Han Railway in the early 20th century. The water surface area  
116 correspondingly reduced to 3.5 km<sup>2</sup> in the late 1980s, and then sharply to current 3.1 km<sup>2</sup> (Compilation  
117 Committee of Lakes in Hubei Province, 2014; Fig. 2c, Fig. A.1). About 71% of the lost water surface  
118 was converted into built-up areas (Xie et al., 2017). Marginal plants are patched along lakeshore and  
119 mainly dominated by *Nelumbo nucifera* and *Alternanthera* with the disappearance of submerged plants  
120 (Song, 2008). A survey conducted in August 2016 showed that concentrations of total phosphorus (TP),  
121 total nitrogen (TN) and chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) were 588, 4300 and 179 µg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Liang et al.,  
122 2020). But in July 2019, the observed TP was 292 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1).

123 Yanxi Lake (30°32'~30°37'N, 114°27'~114°31'E; mean water depth of 1.9 m) is an agriculturally  
124 important area and fishery production base, as well as drinking water source for villagers living around  
125 the lake. With the expansion of urban area, Yanxi Lake has been transformed from a rural lake to a  
126 suburban lake. Many crop lands in its basin have been converted into built-up purpose (Fig. A.1). The  
127 lake was freely connected with the Yangtze River before the construction of local Wuhui Dam in 1955

128 and Beihu Dam in 1965. Lake surface area reduced from 12.7 km<sup>2</sup> in 1936 to 12.6 km<sup>2</sup> in 1982 (Zhang,  
129 2009), and further to current 11.8 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2c). There were more than 20 industrial factories  
130 surrounding the lake until the mid-1990s. A large influx of untreated industrial and domestic sewage  
131 into the lake has caused the deterioration of water quality (Wu, 1992). After 2000, most of these  
132 factories were generally closed and a variety of sewage treatment measures were implemented. Since  
133 2003, the lake has been built into a holiday resort functions as leisure, agriculture tourism and popular  
134 science tourism. In August 2016, concentrations of TP and Chl-*a* were 42 and 70 µg L<sup>-1</sup>, but increased  
135 to 160 and 111 µg L<sup>-1</sup> respectively in July 2019.

136 Futou Lake is a relatively rural lake (29°57'~30°07'N, 114°09'~114°20'E; mean water depth of  
137 1.65 m), around 57 km away from the city centre. Hydrological connectivity between the lake and the  
138 Yangtze River was regulated by the implements of local Jinshui Dam in 1935 and Xinhe Dam in 1973.  
139 Presently, this lake is in a macrophyte-dominated state, with high abundances of *Pistia stratiotes*,  
140 *Vallisneria natans*, *Potamogeton crispus* and *Ceratophyllum demersum*. Concentration of TP was 43  
141 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in August 2016 and 70 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in July 2019. The development trajectory of this lake has been  
142 detailed by Zeng et al. (2018), and summary plots of Futou Lake are used to compare with the other  
143 two lakes investigated here.

144

## 145 2.2. Core collection

146 Sediment cores were collected using a modified Kajak gravity corer at the approximately centre of  
147 Futou Lake (30°03'16.96"N, 114°12'24.67"E; with length of ~65 cm) in April 2014, and Shahu Lake  
148 (30°34'12.18"N, 114°20'11.30"E; ~61 cm) and Yanxi Lake (30°34'18.08"N, 114°28'42.49"E; ~61 cm)  
149 in October 2011. The cores were sliced at intervals of 1 cm in field. Subsamples were stored in plastic

150 bags and kept in the refrigerator at 4°C before analysis.

151

152 2.3. Laboratory analyses

153 2.3.1. *Chronology*

154 Sediment cores were dated mainly by  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , and corrected by the chronomarker of spheroidal  
155 carbonaceous particles (SCP). Radioactive isotopes  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  were counted at 2-cm  
156 intervals on a gamma spectrometer (Ortec HPGe GWL). Chen et al. (2019) displayed the detailed  
157 measurements and chronological stratigraphy for each lake.

158 2.3.2. *Particle size*

159 Particle size spectra of samples were measured at 1-cm intervals using a Malvern automated laser  
160 optical particle-sizer analyser (Mastersizer-2000) after the removal of carbonate by 10% HCl and  
161 organic matter by 30%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ .

162 2.3.3. *Elements analyses*

163 Element contents (including Cu, Zn and TP) in sediments at 2 cm intervals were determined by the  
164 Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES) after digestion with  
165 HF-HCl-HNO<sub>3</sub>-HClO<sub>4</sub>.

166 2.3.4. *Chironomid analysis*

167 Sediment samples for chironomid analysis were conducted according to standard techniques proposed  
168 by Brooks et al. (2007) at 2 cm intervals. Wet sediment samples were deflocculated in 10% KOH in a  
169 water bath at 75 °C for 15 min, and then sieved through 212 and 90 µm meshes. The residue was  
170 transferred to a grooved perpex sorting tray and examined manually under a stereo-zoom microscope at  
171 x25 magnification with fine forceps. Head capsules were permanently mounted on slides using

172 Hydromatrix<sup>®</sup>, ventral side uppermost, and subsequently identified at x100-400 magnification using the  
173 taxonomy of Brooks et al. (2007), with reference to Rieradevall & Brooks (2001). A minimum of 50  
174 identifiable whole head capsules from each sample is expected to be representative of the extant fauna  
175 (Quinlan and Smol, 2001).

176

#### 177 2.4. Climatic data collection

178 Annual temperature and precipitation data were collected in order to reveal the effects of climate  
179 change on lake development. Annual temperature data since 1905 were obtained from Hankou  
180 Meteorological Station. Monitored precipitation data were discontinuous as rainfall data from 1944 to  
181 1950 was not measured. Simulated rainfall data of the studied region (29.5-30.5°N,113.5-115.5°E)  
182 were then obtained from Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut (KNMI) (website:  
183 [http://climexp.knmi.nl/selectfield\\_obs.cgi](http://climexp.knmi.nl/selectfield_obs.cgi)). Significant positive correlation exists between rainfall data  
184 from Hankou Meteorological Station and KNMI ( $r = 0.69$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Annual rainfall data from KNMI,  
185 combined with temperature data were then used in subsequent ordination analysis (Fig. 2d).

186

#### 187 2.5. Numerical analyses

188 The enrichment of Cu, Zn and TP can indicate increasing anthropogenic disturbances (Boyle et al.,  
189 1999). In order to evaluate the accumulation of elements along time, geoaccumulation index ( $I_{geo}$ ) for  
190 Cu, Zn and TP was calculated as follows:

$$191 \quad I_{geo} = \log_2(C_n / (1.5 * B_n))$$

192 where,  $C_n$  is the measured concentration of element  $n$  in sediment; 1.5 is the background matrix  
193 correction factor due to lithogenic effects;  $B_n$  is the geochemical background value of element  $n$

194 (González-Macías et al., 2006; Ghrefat and Yusuf, 2006; Kim et al., 2018). Considering the different  
195 benchmark of elements in different lakes, here we calculated  $B_n$  as average concentration before 1900  
196 of element  $n$ .

197 Variance partitioning analysis (VPA) was conducted to distinguish the effects of diverse stressors  
198 on fossil chironomid communities. Three explanatory categories were identified as climate,  
199 hydrological condition and anthropogenic pollution. The climate-group includes two variables of  
200 annual temperature and rainfall. The establishment of local dams was considered as a 1/0 dummy  
201 variable for indicating hydrological regulation. Particle size spectra in sediments are closely linked to  
202 hydrological dynamics (Zeng et al., 2018). Damming event and particle fractions together were used to  
203 reflect hydrological changes in three lakes. The geoaccumulation index of Cu, Zn and TP composed the  
204 group of anthropogenic pollution. All explanatory variables were standardized with  
205  $\log_{10}(x+1)$ -transformation to eliminate the effects of different units among them. Rare chironomid taxa  
206 occurred in only one sample or with abundance less than 2% were deleted and would not participate in  
207 ordination analyses. Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) was conducted to extract major  
208 changes in chironomid communities of three lakes. It also showed that the gradient length for Shahu,  
209 Yanxi and Futou Lake was 2.6, 2.0 and 1.8 standard deviation, respectively, suggesting the linear  
210 method was suitable for the subsequent ordination analyses. Redundancy analysis (RDA) was also  
211 employed to identify significant explanatory variables and to estimate the fraction of faunal variance  
212 explained by three categories in variance partitioning. Monte Carlo permutation tests (499 unrestricted  
213 permutations) were conducted to test the significance of variables, and forward selection was used to  
214 determine the minimum subset of significant variables. VPA was carried out to evaluate the relative  
215 importance of each explanatory group and their explanatory power in each lake. Because of limitation

216 of climate data, the time window analyzed in VPA was 1907-2011 AD for Shahu Lake, 1904-2011 AD  
217 for Yanxi Lake and 1914-2014 AD for Futou Lake. All above ordination analyses were based on taxon  
218 percentages with square-root transformation, and conducted in CANOCO version 5.0 (Šmilauer and  
219 Lepš, 2014).

220 The possible abrupt shifts in ecosystem structure and function for three lakes were also detected  
221 using the Sequential *t*-test Analysis of Regime-shifts algorithm (STARS) proposed by Rodionov (2004).  
222 The module shift detection software version 3.2 was initially added in Excel 2010. In parameter setting,  
223 significance level was 0.05 and cut-off length was 5. Regime shift index (RSI) was calculated and  
224 employed to identify the most potential tipping point. Scores of DCA first axis on chironomid data,  
225 which stands for the most important information from chironomids, were involved in the detection.  
226 Gaussian kernel density estimation and autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model  
227 were also conducted to verify whether two different regimes existed before and after the tipping point.  
228 The former was performed with the R statistical software (R Core Team, 2018) using the ‘sm’ package  
229 (Bowman and Azzalini, 2018), and the latter was conducted using Minitab 17.

230

### 231 **3. Results**

#### 232 3.1. Chronology

233  $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$  activities generally declined exponentially with mass depth (Chen et al., 2019). The  
234 chronologies of the three sediment cores were calculated based on the constant rate of supply model  
235 (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978). The start of the rapid increase in SCP concentrations corresponds to the  
236 major expansion in coal consumption from 1970. The final chronologies of sediment cores were  
237 established based on the SCP chronomarker-validated  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  chronologies (Fig. 3). Generally,



238 sedimentation rates were less than  $0.2 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  before the 1930s, and then increased to a peak.  
239 Thereafter sedimentation rates decreased and remained low after the 1980s. Detailed results are  
240 presented in Chen et al. (2019).

241

### 242 3.2. Chironomid stratigraphy

243 More than 40 different species morphotypes of chironomids were identified in three cores (Fig. A.2).  
244 Cluster analysis identified significant changes in chironomid composition occurred around 1963, 1975  
245 and 1980 AD for Shahu, Yanxi and Futou Lake, respectively (Fig. 4).

246 In Shahu Lake, there was a major compositional shift from plant-dwelling taxa to nutrient-tolerant  
247 taxa during the past 160 years (Fig. 4a). Before 1963 AD, chironomid assemblages within the lake were  
248 dominated by *C. sylvestris*-type (average ca. 18.1%), *D. nervosus*-type (mean of 13.6%) and  
249 *Paratanytarsus* (mean of 12.3%). Subsequently, major taxa were replaced by *Tanytus* (average ca.  
250 60.6%), *Prosilocerus akamusi*-type (about 7.9%) and *Procladius* (about 13.3%). The prominence of  
251 *Tanytus* after 1990 AD (16 cm-depth), was substantial as the percentage reached up to 90%.

252 Several different taxa co-existed before 1975 AD in Yanxi Lake (Fig. 4b). Major taxa included  
253 *Paratanytarsus* (average percentage of 12.4%), *Microchironomus tener*-type (11.5%), *C.*  
254 *sylvestris*-type (7.5%), *Stempellinella-Zavrelia* (6.6%), *Polypedilum nubifer*-type (4.9%) and *D.*  
255 *nervosus*-type (4.7%). Total abundance of macrophyte-related taxa (*Ablabesmyia*, *Corynonueura*  
256 *edwardsi*-type, *C. sylvestris*-type, *D. nervosus*-type, *Glyptotendipes severini*-type, *Parachironomus*  
257 *vasus*-type, *Paratanytarsus*, *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type and *P. sordens*-type) in this period was  
258 nearly 35.0% in average. Whereafter, chironomid assemblages were dominated by *Tanytus* (ca. 29.9%)  
259 and *P. akamusi*-type (10.4%). Concurrently, some other nutrient-tolerant species such as *Chironomus*

260 *plumosus*-type (mean of 3.7%) and *Microchironomus tabarui*-type (4.6%) also increased. After 1999  
261 AD, the abundance of *Tanytus* increased to the maximum (59.7%) at surface samples.

262 In Futou Lake, chironomid assemblages were dominated by *M. tener*-type before 1980 AD, and  
263 then were macrophyte-related *Paratanytarsus* and *C. sylvestris*-type after its damming. Meanwhile,  
264 nutrient-tolerant *P. akamusi*-type increased after 1994 AD (Fig. 4c).

265

### 266 3.3. Particle size and elemental concentration

267 Sediments in three lakes were mainly composed of clay and silt (Fig. 5). Generally, clay decreased in  
268 the upper strata of three sediment cores, in contrast to increasing proportions of sand. In spite of low  
269 proportions, there were several peaks of sand in three sediment cores.

270 Distinctive changes in sedimentary Cu, Zn and P were observed in Shahu Lake core. Cu, Zn and P  
271 were relatively stable with no notable changes before 1963 AD (Fig. 5a). Cu and Zn sharply increased  
272 from 1963 AD to the late 1990s, followed by slight decreases. Sedimentary P continued to increase and  
273 trebled between 1963 and 2011 AD.

274 Variations of Cu, Zn and P in Yanxi Lake were more complex than in Shahu Lake (Fig. 5b).  
275 Concentrations of Cu and Zn increased markedly after the 1920s, followed by relatively minor  
276 variation after the 1940s. After the 1980s, Cu gradually decreased, while Zn showed an inverse  
277 tendency. Sedimentary P remained low values before the 1960s, and thereafter continued to rise till the  
278 uppermost.

279 Trends of Cu, Zn and P in Futou Lake were similar as they rose before 1900s and then declined  
280 until 1980 (Fig. 5c). Zn and P enriched sharply after 1980 AD, with their concentrations increased by  
281 more than 20%. Concurrently, Cu increased slightly from 41 to ~45 mg/kg.

282

### 283 3.4. Variation partitioning analysis

284 RDA and VPA revealed that chironomid communities in three lakes were significantly influenced by  
285 different historical changes in climate, hydrological conditions or anthropogenic pollutants since the  
286 early 20<sup>th</sup> century (Table 2).

287 In Shahu Lake, three variables (annual temperature, median grain size and  $I_{geo}$  (P)) assigned to  
288 three explanatory categories comprised the minimum subset of significant variables capturing 60.6% of  
289 the total variance in chironomid assemblages. Anthropogenic pollution independently explained 34.7%  
290 of total variance, and its combined effect with hydrological conditions captured 22.4% of total variance  
291 further (Fig. 6). Climate change was a significant variable but its sole effect was minor. Its interaction  
292 with anthropogenic pollution and hydrological conditions explained 6.5% and 2.5% of total variance,  
293 respectively. Combined effects of three significant variables were negative and explained -9.6% of  
294 species variances.

295 In Yanxi Lake, climate and hydrological variables failed to explain a significant part of total  
296 variance in chironomid communities. The unique effect of anthropogenic pollution captured 44.3% of  
297 total variance.

298 In Futou Lake, the sole effect of hydrological alterations (i.e. damming event and silt fraction)  
299 explained more variance (33.7%) in chironomid assemblages than that (13.3%) of anthropogenic  
300 pollution. Their interactive effect on chironomids was negative with the value of -10.8%. The sole  
301 effect of climate change was not significant.

302

### 303 3.5. Developmental trajectories and regime shifts

304 The biplot of DCA1 against DCA2 revealed the developmental trajectories and response trends of three  
305 lakes to multiple stressors (i.e. different human disturbances) (Fig. 7). Shahu and Yanxi Lake shifted  
306 from different ecological status towards an identical homogenized eutrophic state. Futou Lake,  
307 however, developed mainly along DCA2 (representing hydrological conditions) and is still in a  
308 relatively desired state with established macrophyte communities. Its development took a different  
309 trajectory compared with urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake due to the different  
310 multi-dimensional stressors impacting it.

311 STARS captured the possible tipping point in each lake: 1963 AD for Shahu Lake, 1975 AD for  
312 Yanxi Lake and 1980 AD for Futou Lake (Table A.1). Gaussian kernel density estimation showed a  
313 bimodal distribution, with two divergent peaks for each lake before and after the detected critical point  
314 (Fig. 8a). ARIMA displayed obvious divergence between the predicted and observed (sedimentary)  
315 biological changes, suggestive of two alternative ecological states for each lake (Fig. 8b). Considering  
316 the replacement of dominated taxa in chironomid assemblages, ARIMA confirmed that both Shahu and  
317 Yanxi Lake had turned into a completely different and worse ecological state after the regime shift than  
318 before. Although experienced regime shift, observed DCA1 scores after 1980 AD in Futou Lake was  
319 more stable than the predicted values. In any case, both of these sets of analyses provide evidence of  
320 bistability before and after the observed tipping points.

321

## 322 **4. Discussion**

### 323 4.1. History of water quality change

324 Significant changes in water quality were reflected by sedimentary proxies including geochemical and  
325 biotic indicators in three lakes during the past century. Generally, the dominance of macrophyte-related

326 chironomids was replaced by eutrophic species in urban and suburban lakes, suggesting their  
327 trajectories toward eutrophication.

328 Before the 1960s in Shahu Lake, chironomid communities mainly consisted of taxa preferring  
329 shallow water with a relatively high density of macrophytes, such as *C. sylvestris*-type, *D.*  
330 *nervosus*-type and *Paratanytarsus* (Brodersen et al., 2001; Davidson et al., 2010). Most of these taxa  
331 are often found in productive and mesotrophic to eutrophic waters. They are frequently common in  
332 shallow lakes in the Yangtze floodplain, and considered to be indicators of flourishing macrophytes  
333 (Langdon et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). Their coexistence and predominance suggested a stable and  
334 good ecological state of Shahu Lake during this period. The lake regime collapsed within just a few  
335 years (20-30 years) and switched to an alternative state after 1963 AD, since the dominance of  
336 clear-water/ plant-preferring taxa (e.g. *Paratanytarsus* genus) were replaced by the rising abundances  
337 of pollution- and/or nutrient-tolerant taxa such as *P. akamusi*-type and *Tanytus*. *P. akamusi*-type was  
338 firstly described by Sasa (1978) and is often encountered in eutrophic to hypertrophic lakes in China  
339 and Japan, with a TP optimum of 118 µg/L in the Yangtze floodplain lakes (Zhang et al., 2012).  
340 *Tanytus* can also be found in mesotrophic and hypereutrophic lakes, has a TP optimum of 169 µg/L in  
341 the study region (Zhang et al., 2012).

342 Yanxi Lake was in a relatively desired state before the 1970s, suggested by the dominance of  
343 mesotrophic *M. tener*-type (Brooks et al., 2007) and clear-water taxa *Paratanytarsus* (Langdon et al.,  
344 2010) and some other plant-inhabiting taxa. After the 1970s, the enrichment of Zn and sedimentary P  
345 indicated an increasing influx of external pollutants into Yanxi Lake. The replacement of phytophilous  
346 chironomid taxa by eutrophic species indicated that the lake was switching from a mesotrophic state  
347 into a eutrophic lake, although the trajectory of change was slower than in Shahu Lake. Until 2010s,

348 Yanxi Lake was still in the process of eutrophication and water deterioration continued as indicated by  
349 our results as well as available monitoring data (Wuhan Environmental Protection Bureau, 2012-2017).  
350 It might suggest that more effective strategies could be made for suburban lakes, or else the resilience  
351 and functional services of these lakes will be lost.

352 Futou Lake is currently one of the few lakes with flourishing aquatic vegetation in the Yangtze  
353 floodplain. This lake has maintained relatively good water quality since the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century indicated  
354 by high abundance of plant-associated chironomids (e.g. *C. sylvestris*-type and *Paratanytarsus*)  
355 throughout the sediment core, especially since the 1980s. Vegetation can sequester nutrients in water  
356 and plays a critical role in the maintenance of aquatic ecosystem stability (Zhang et al., 2016). However,  
357 the enrichment of sedimentary P and heavy metals since the 1980s was suggestive of enhanced human  
358 activities in the catchment. As a consequence, *P. akamusi*-type, a eutrophic indicator, started to increase  
359 after the mid-1990s, albeit at relatively low abundance. Given the trajectories of the other lakes that  
360 contain *P. akamusi*-type, this may be an early warning indicator that the lake may be losing resilience  
361 ahead of a switch to an alternative state.

362

#### 363 4.2. Anthropogenic pollution

364 Variance partitioning revealed that anthropogenic pollution was the major driver for changes in  
365 chironomid communities in both Shahu and Yanxi Lake. Regional palaeoecology studies confirmed the  
366 importance of anthropogenic pollution in regulating water quality in the Yangtze floodplain (Chen et al.,  
367 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). Sedimentary phosphorus was a significant explanatory variable for Shahu  
368 and Yanxi Lake. The enrichment of sedimentary P has accelerated in the urban and suburban lakes  
369 since the 1960s, probably linked to recent demographic and economic increases in Wuhan City (Fig. 2).

370 The dominance of eutrophic species and high sedimentary P content in Shahu Lake indicated that the  
371 urban lake suffered from serious eutrophication, because nutrient inputs from sewage discharge were  
372 greatest in city centre. The magnitude of increases in sedimentary P and eutrophic taxa was relatively  
373 lower in suburban (Yanxi Lake) and rural (Futou Lake) lakes at the same point in time.

374 In suburban and rural lakes, heavy metal enrichment (i.e. Cu and Zn) explained a significant part  
375 of variance in the species data. The enrichment of Cu and Zn is mainly derived from industrial sources  
376 (Boyle et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2012). Anthropogenic pollution generally experienced three distinct  
377 stages in the study area, i.e. an increase in the early 1900s, a sequent recession and then a rapid rebound  
378 after the 1950s. The three stages broadly corresponded to the establishment of modern industry in the  
379 early 1900s, Sino-Japanese and Chinese civil wars from the 1930s to 1940s, and the boosting of heavy  
380 industry after the 1950s in Wuhan. Heavy metal enrichment would typically reduce chironomid  
381 diversity, and promote the proliferation of pollution-tolerant species (Cao et al. 2016). Taken together,  
382 variance in chironomid communities explained by anthropogenic pollution decreased along the  
383 urban-to-rural gradient, indicating that increased pollutant inputs imposed overwhelming effects on  
384 urban and suburban lakes, but relatively minor effects upon the rural lake.

385

#### 386 4.3. Hydrological and climate change

387 Besides anthropogenic pollution, hydrological indicators (i.e. damming and sedimentary particle size)  
388 accounted for a significant part of variance in the species data, especially in the rural lake (Futou Lake).  
389 In a hydrologically-open lake, sedimentary particle size can be a proxy for hydrodynamic intensity, and  
390 an increase in sand percentage may indicate strong inflows that are able to transport coarse particles  
391 into the lake (Chen et al. 2011). However, prolonged water retention time after dam construction would

392 promote the deposition of fine particles, resulting in a relative increase in clay (Zeng et al., 2018). In  
393 Shahu and Futou Lakes, it is unexpected that the percentage of sand displayed an increasing trend after  
394 the 1960s, when both of lakes had suffered from hydrological regulation due to dam construction. This  
395 phenomenon is probably linked to a sharp shrinkage of lake area due to land reclamation after the  
396 1950s (Xie et al., 2017). Both Shahu and Futou Lakes have lost more than 25% of surface area during  
397 the last century (Zhang et al. 2009; Xie et al., 2017). As a consequence, coarse particles would be  
398 readily transported to the lake centre. In the urban lake (Shahu Lake), prolonged hydraulic residence  
399 time and lake shrinkage would promote the enrichment of pollutants. Therefore, the combined effect of  
400 hydrological alteration and anthropogenic pollution captured a high proportion of total variance in  
401 chironomid communities in this lake. In contrast, the combined effect of hydrology and anthropogenic  
402 pollution was negative for the rural Futou Lake, as a reduction in water level amplitude after  
403 hydrological regulation promoted the development of macrophytes and associated chironomid taxa  
404 (Zeng et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019), which can have a stabilizing effect on lake ecosystems  
405 (Jeppesen et al., 1998).

406 In the urban Shahu Lake, changes in chironomid communities were significantly correlated with  
407 increasing temperature. It is noteworthy that the combined effect of temperature and sedimentary  
408 phosphorus explained a higher proportion of variance than the sole effect of temperature (Fig. 7). The  
409 results indicated that rising temperature could indirectly promote the development of nutrient-tolerant  
410 species (Chen et al. 2013). In shallow lakes, climate warming usually accelerates nutrient release from  
411 sediments and renew nutrient supplies into the water column (Jensen and Andersen 1992). However, in  
412 the suburban (Yanxi) and rural (Futou) lakes, the effects of climate variables failed to be significant,  
413 neither their sole effects nor combined effects with other drivers. The effect of climate warming on



414 chironomids would thus likely be amplified in the eutrophic lake (Shahu Lake) with high nutrient  
415 loading.

416

#### 417 4.4. Regime shifts in lakes along an urbanization gradient

418 Regime shifts are increasingly happening in terrestrial and aquatic environments in the context of  
419 continuous human influences (Folke, 2004; Reid et al., 2016). In most cases, ecosystems' regime tends  
420 to shift from a desired state with high resilience to an undesired state with low ability of  
421 self-organization and feedback (Wang et al., 2012, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018), and this appears to have  
422 occurred rapidly in Shahu Lake. Hydrologic regulation can also induce critical transition through  
423 altering vegetation coverage in lake ecosystems (Schooler et al., 2011; Bertani et al., 2016). For  
424 example, water level alteration stemming from dam establishment caused the disappearance of  
425 submerge vegetation (the first regime shift) and then the increase of nutrients triggered the second state  
426 alteration (algal blooms thereafter) in Chaohu Lake, which is located in the same region with our study  
427 (Kong et al., 2017). However, rural Futou Lake in our study seems to respond markedly different from  
428 urban Shahu Lake and Chaohu Lake. Massive macrophytes beds developed as a result of stabilized  
429 hydrological conditions after the detected tipping point in Futou Lake around 1980. The hydrological  
430 change and stabilizing effect of macrophytes promoted ecological resilience in Futou Lake. The  
431 ARIMA results (Fig. 8b) showed that the lake trajectory, based on the previous ecosystem data, was to  
432 further change and decline towards an alternative (eutrophic) state, similar to the Shahu and Yanxi  
433 lakes. But this never happened, due to the altered hydrology and macrophyte growth across the lake.  
434 Nevertheless, the increasing abundance of pollution-tolerant taxa (*P. akamusi*-type) indicated the  
435 continued enrichment of pollutants and nutrients in Futou Lake, and based on the trajectories of the

436 other lakes in this study, would suggest that despite hydrological and macrophyte stability, nutrients are  
437 still increasing and the lake may yet be losing resilience ahead of a transition to an alternative state. As  
438 such, the chironomid data may provide an early warning to this, and other rural lakes, on the edge of  
439 city expansion and subject to enhanced nutrient pollution. While Shahu lake has transitioned to an  
440 alternative state, and Futou lake currently appears to have partially stabilized (for now at least), Yanxi  
441 lake may still be mid-transition regarding its ecological state. Given the location of the transition region,  
442 Yanxi Lake was suffering from multiple stressors with varying types and magnitude resulting from the  
443 expansion of Wuhan city and increasingly altered land-use patterns and population. The lake is still in a  
444 self-adjustment process to the new regime system as DCA1 scores of Yanxi Lake are still declining,  
445 which may indicate the altering biological compositions as ARIMA analyses also predicted.

446

#### 447 4.5. Implication for sustainable management

448 Palaeoecological records provide useful implications for sustainable management of urban freshwater  
449 ecosystems. Regional comparison demonstrated that anthropogenic impacts were overwhelming in  
450 urban and suburban lakes, but relatively weak in the rural lake. Variance partitioning suggested that the  
451 precise management strategy should vary with lake position along the urban-to-rural gradient. The  
452 urban lake has experienced transitions from a phase of exponential pollution to a relatively stable  
453 polluted state. In contrast, the suburban lake is suffering from exponential pollution, and hence it is  
454 urgent to implement effective control measurements (e.g. installation of new sewage treatment plants)  
455 in the rapidly urbanized area. For the rural lake, both moderate hydrological regulation (e.g. water level  
456 stabilization) and reduction of external pollutant input are important for the development of  
457 macrophytes, which can increase resilience of lake ecosystems buffering against external disturbances

458 (e.g. anthropogenic nutrient input) (cf. Scheffer et al. 2003). Additionally, although climate warming  
459 was also important, it cannot be regulated. Under a scenario of increasing temperature in future,  
460 nutrient release from lake sediments would increase the risk of environment deterioration in urban  
461 lakes.

462

## 463 **5. Conclusions**

464 Chironomid stratigraphies, combined with geochemical records and climatic data, demonstrated that  
465 the response of shallow lakes to external stressors was temporally and spatially different along the  
466 urban-rural gradient in a metropolitan area (central China) during the past century. All three lakes had  
467 experienced critical transitions which occurred in the sequence of their distance from city centre.  
468 Anthropogenic disturbance triggered regime shifts within lakes and drove them toward different states.  
469 Given the input of massive pollutants, urban Shahu Lake and suburban Yanxi Lake shifted from clear  
470 water to turbid state in 1963 and 1975, respectively. Climate warming acted as an amplifier of  
471 ecological change in urban lake with high pollution pressures. The dam impoundment in Futou Lake  
472 stabilized hydrological conditions, which facilitated the development of macrophytes after 1980.  
473 However, due to prolonged hydraulic retention time, nutrient enrichment in Futou Lake might be  
474 accelerated. Contrary to the new stable state in Shahu and Futou Lake, suburban Yanxi Lake, located in  
475 the transition region along the rural-urban gradient, now is still in self-adjustment resulting from the  
476 varying stressors in types and magnitude. With the city expansion, lakes along the urban-rural gradient  
477 exist in different ecological states due to the impact of varying drivers. This study also implies that  
478 active and targeted strategies on not only urban lakes but also suburban-rural lakes will be strongly  
479 required to avoid detrimental shifts and sustain a desired state in aquatic ecosystems.

480

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485

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**Table**[Click here to download Table: Table.docx](#)

Table 1 Summarized characteristics of three lakes.

Lake	Water area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Mean depth (m)	Total phosphorous ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )		Land use type	Lake type
			August 2016	July 2019		
Shahu	3.1	2.5	588	292	Urban land	Urban
Yanxi	14.2	1.9	42	160	Cropland, aquaculture, urban land	Suburban
Futou	126	2.9	43	70	Cropland, aquaculture	Rural

Table 2 Significant explanatory variables used in variation partitioning analyses, and their total explained variances of chironomid data for three lakes. Variables are listed according to the variable categories of climate (C), hydrological changes (H) and pollutant input (P). *I*geo is the geoaccumulation index of elements in sediments.

Lake	Time period	Significant variables			Total explained (%)
		C	H	P	
Shahu	1907-2011	Annual Temp.	median grain size	<i>I</i> geo(P)	60.6
Yanxi	1904-2011	--	--	<i>I</i> geo(P), <i>I</i> geo(Zn), <i>I</i> geo(Cu)	44.3
Futou	1914-2014	--	Dam, silt	<i>I</i> geo(Cu)	36.3

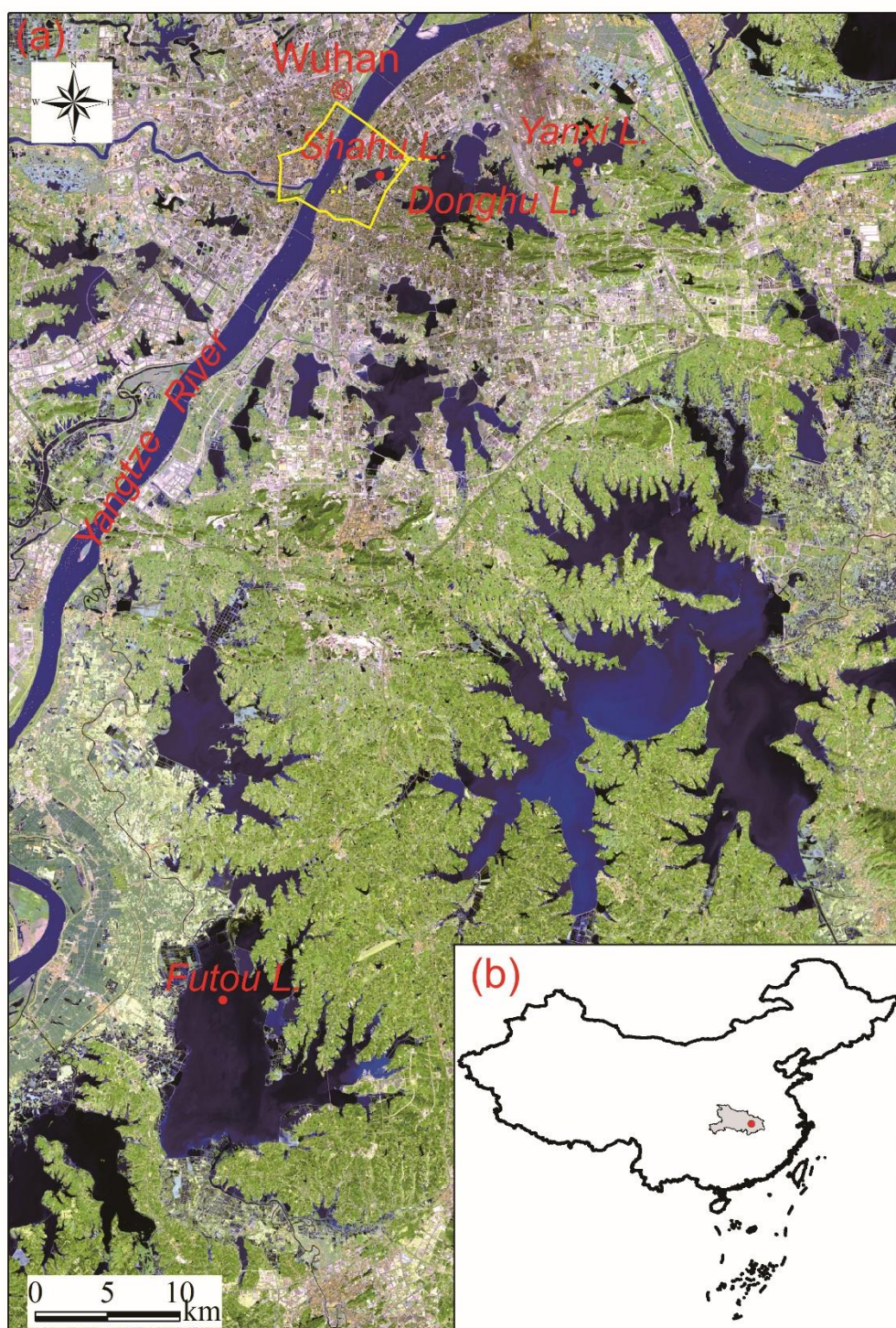


Figure 1 Maps showing the location of lakes in Wuhan (a) and the city in China (b). The *solid yellow line* is the inner ring line of the city, and the *dotted yellow lines* represent the hydrological connections between Shahu Lake and the Yangtze River before 1910s, and between Shahu Lake and Donghu Lake before 1990s.

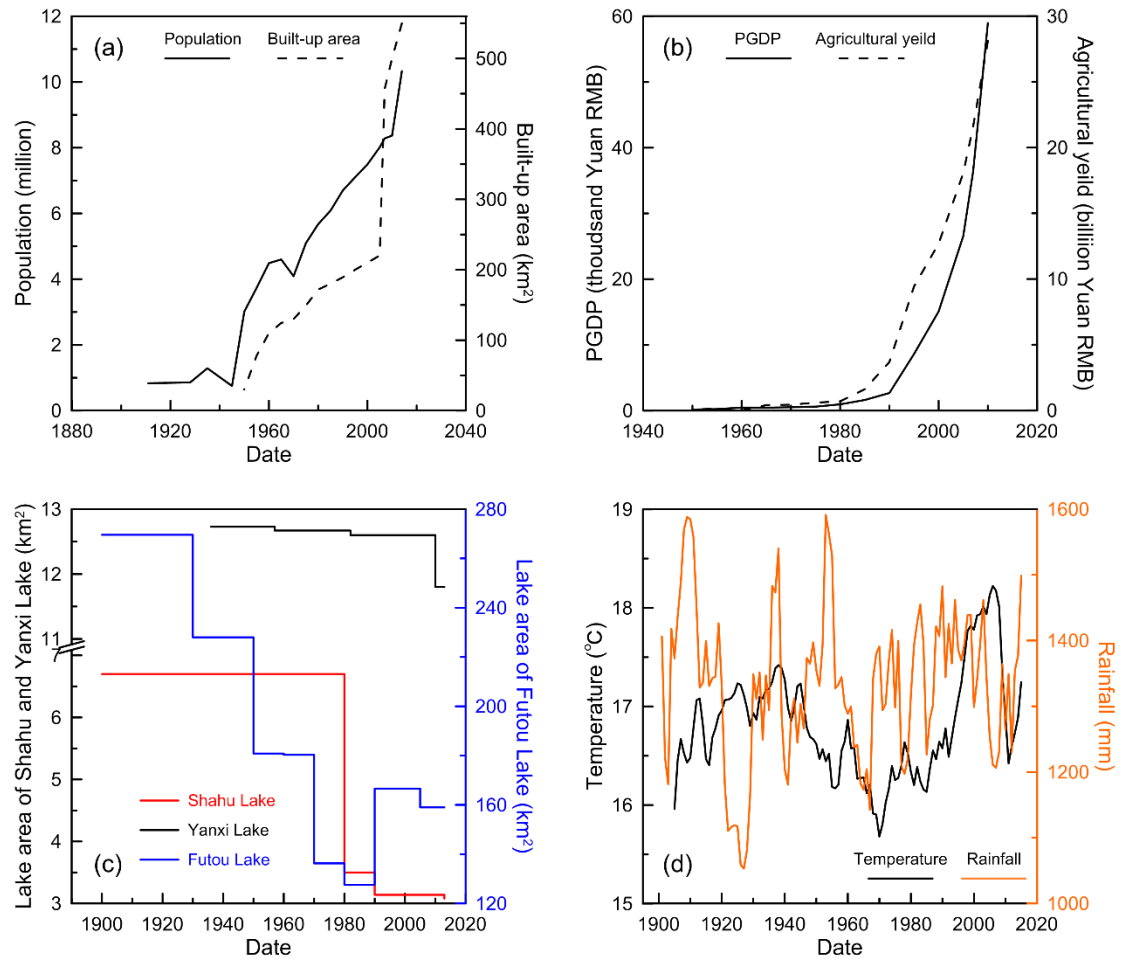


Figure 2 Historical (a, b, c) and climatic (d) records in Wuhan since early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Data of population, Per Capita GDP, built-up area and agricultural yield of Wuhan were cited from Bureau of Statistics of Hubei Province (2009, 2010-2014). Lake area data were cited from Zhang (2009).

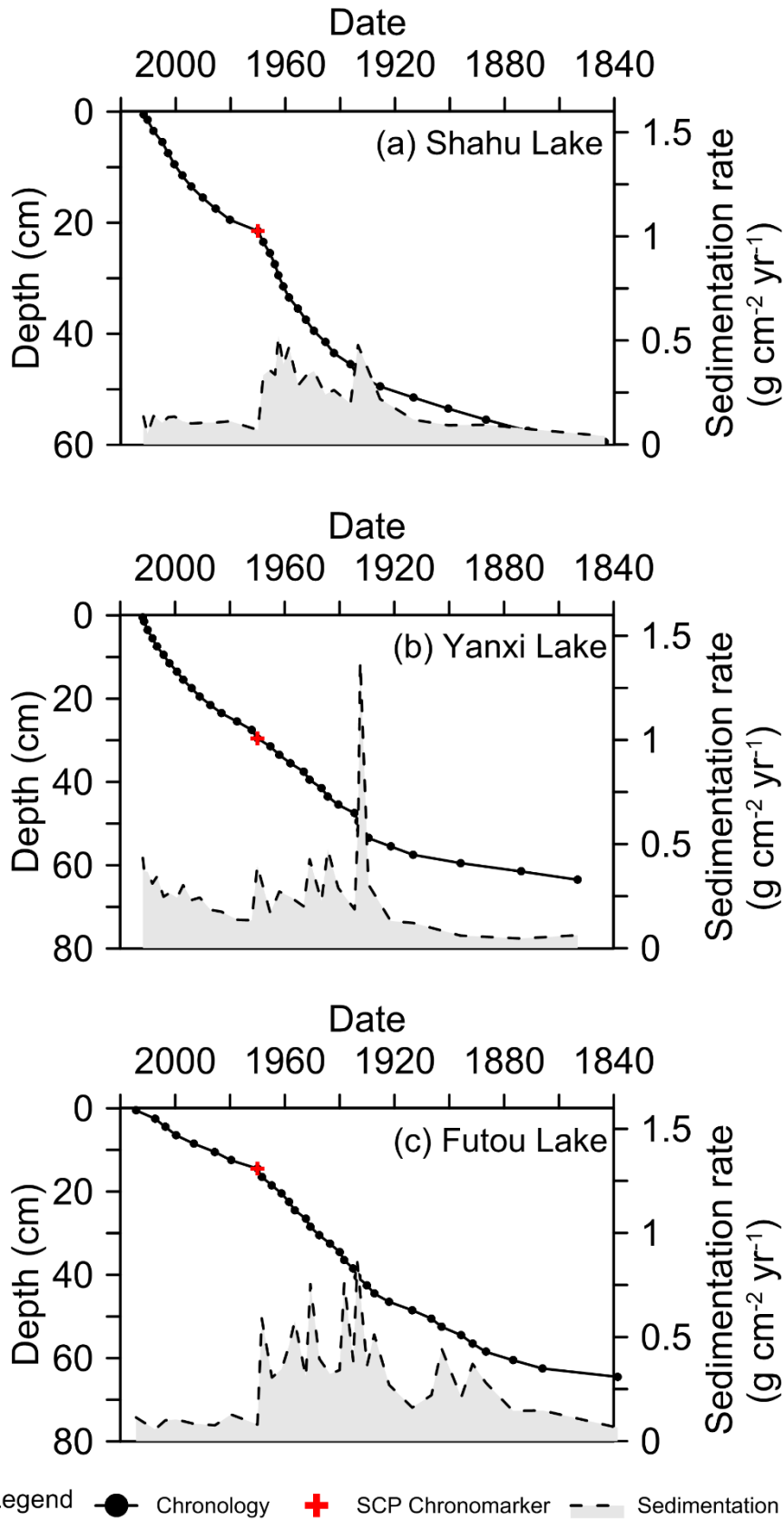


Figure 3 Age-depth models for the sedimentary cores collected from Shahu (a), Yanxi (b) and Futou (c) Lake, with sedimentation rates shown.



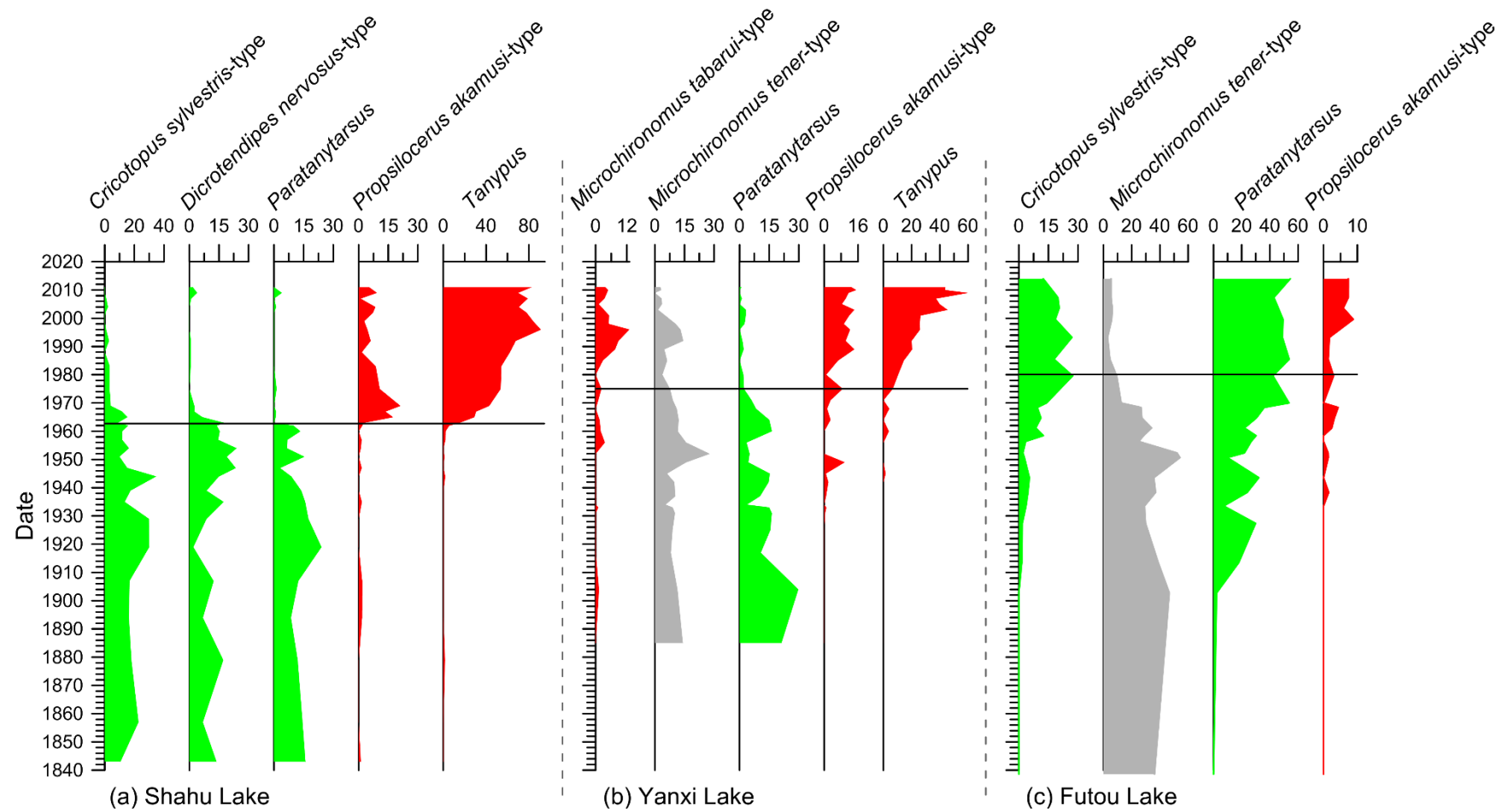


Figure 4 Dominant chironomid species in sediment cores collected from Shahu (a) and Yanxi (b) and Futou (c) Lake. Green color represents macrophyte-related or clear water taxa, whereas the red colored taxa favour more eutrophic conditions.

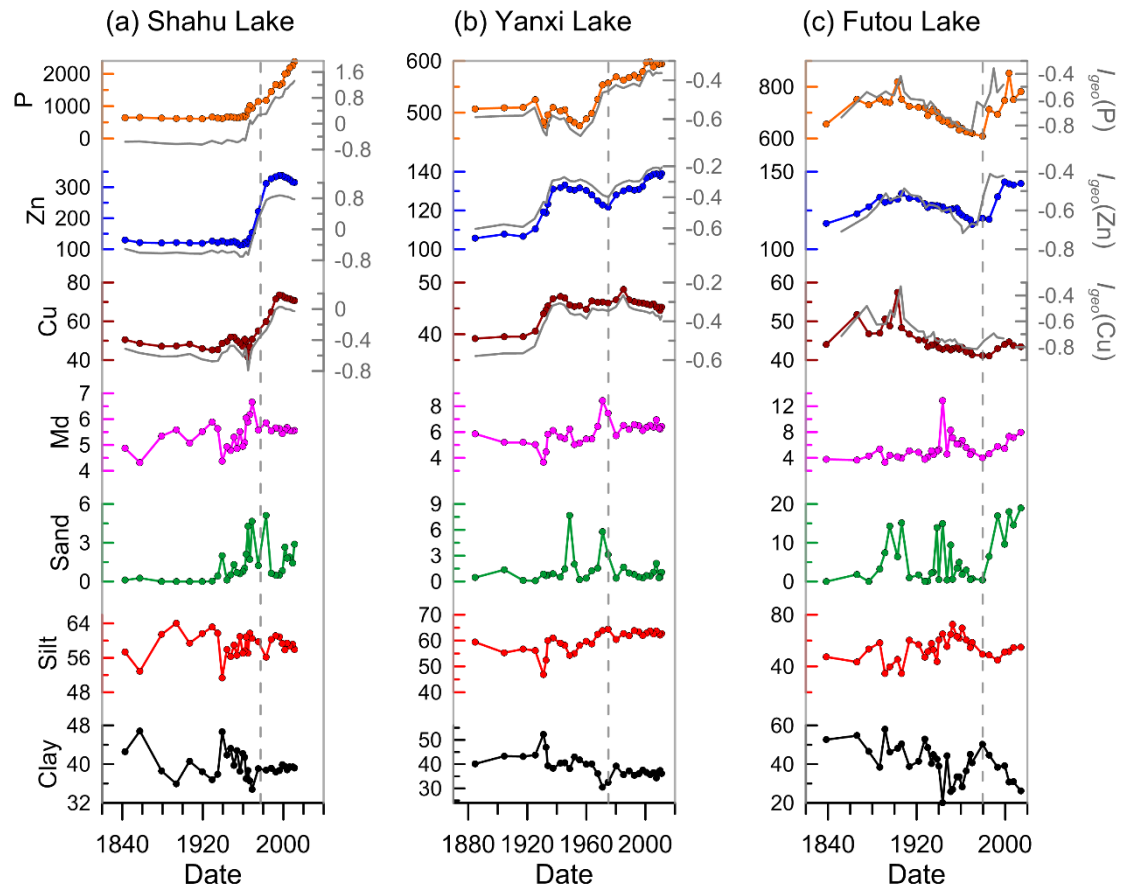
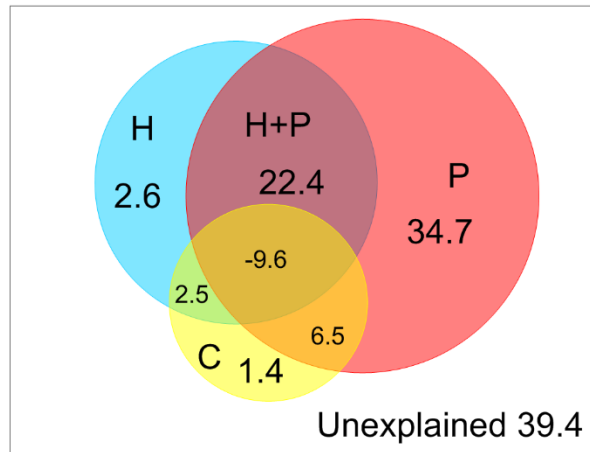
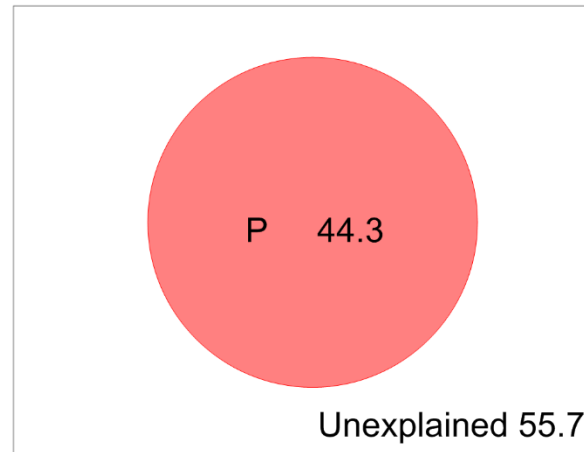


Figure 5 Particle size spectra, elemental contents and geoaccumulation index (*solid grey line*) in the sediment cores collected from Shahu (a) and Yanxi (b) and Futou (c) Lake. Units of vertical axis are % for clay, silt and sand,  $\mu\text{m}$  for median grain size (Md), and mg/kg for Cu, Zn and P. Dotted lines represent abrupt shift point in chironomid assemblages for each lake.

(a) Shahu Lake (1907-2011)



(b) Yanxi Lake (1904-2011)



(c) Futou Lake (1914-2014)

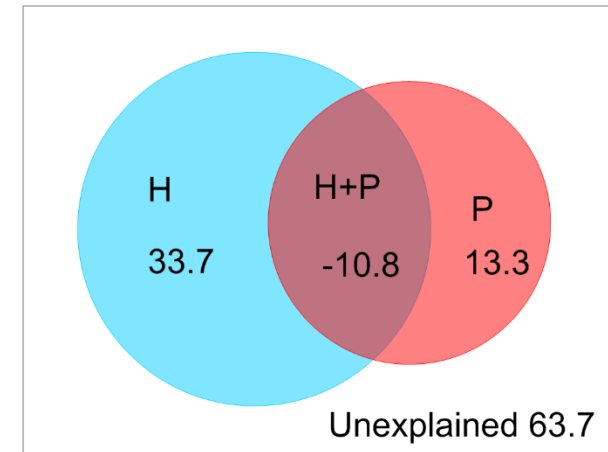


Figure 6 Effects of anthropogenic pollution (P), hydrological (H) and climate (C) change on chironomid communities for Shahu (a), Yanxi (b) and Futou (c) Lake using variance partitioning analysis.

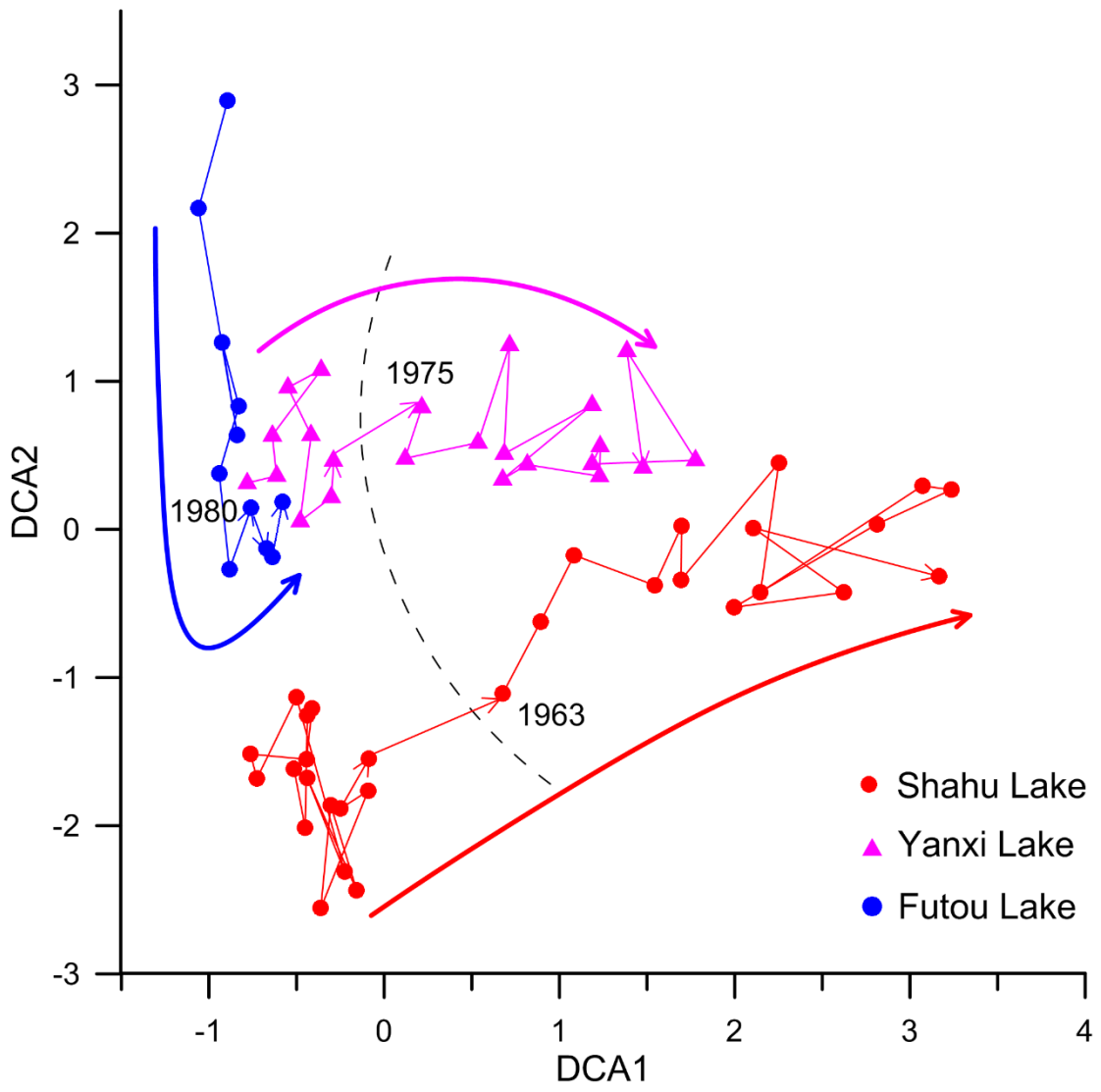


Figure 7 Diagram of DCA1 vs DCA2 for integrated chironomids in all three lakes.

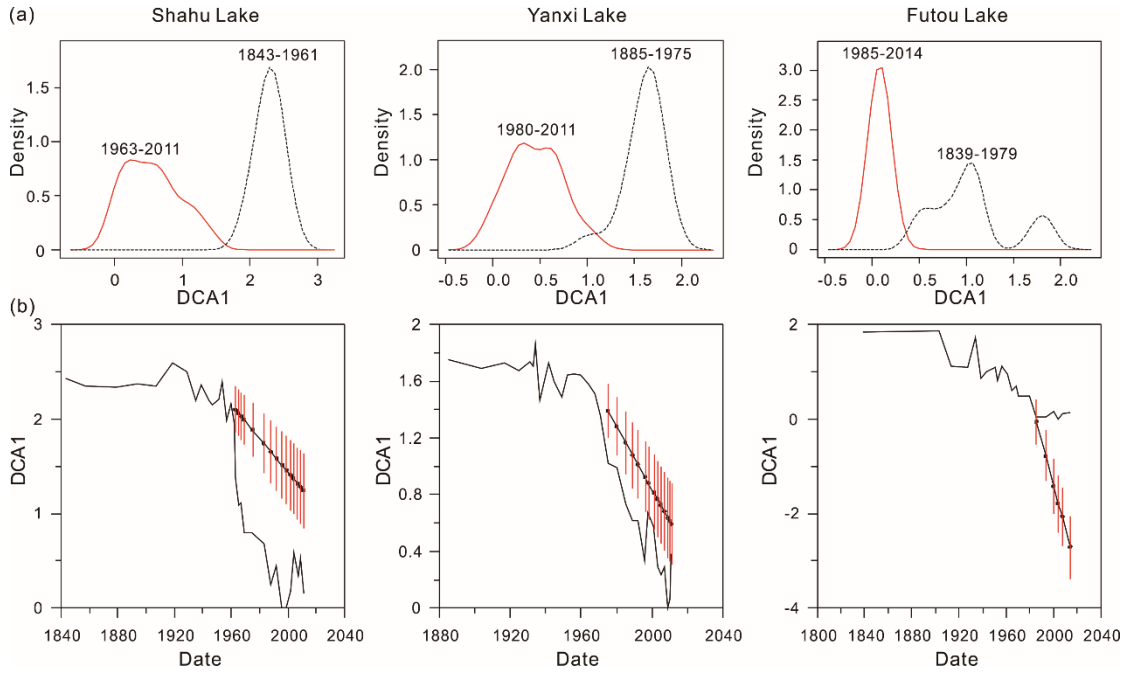


Figure 8 Evidence of bistability between before and after the tipping points in three lakes. The results are based on (a) Gaussian kernel density estimation and (b) autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model.

**Supplementary material for on-line publication only**

[Click here to download Supplementary material for on-line publication only: Appendix.docx](#)

**Declaration of interests**

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

**Author contributions**

Yanmin Cao conceptualized, wrote and revised the original draft.

Peter Langdon and Xu Chen were mainly responsible for revision and improvement of the manuscript.

Chunling Huang completed sample treatments and collected historical data in this manuscript.

Yi Yan, Jia Yang and Linghan Zeng helped the improvement of figures and revision of the manuscript.