

Seasonal and inter-annual community structure characteristics of zooplankton driven by water environment factors in a sub-lake of Lake Poyang, China

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Background. Sub-lakes are important for the maintenance of the ecosystem integrity of Lake Poyang, and zooplankton play an important role in its substance and energy flow.

Methods. A seasonal investigation of zooplankton was conducted in spring (April), summer (July), autumn (October) and winter (January of the following year) from 2012 to 2016 in a sub-lake of Lake Poyang. The aim of the present study was to understand the seasonal dynamics and interannual variation of zooplankton communities and their relationship to environmental factors.

Results. A total of 115 species were identified in all samples in the four years, which comprised of 87 Rotifera, 13 Cladocera and 15 Copepoda. Rotifera was the dominant group in terms of quantity, and its species richness and abundance were significantly higher when compared to Cladocera and Copepoda ($P < 0.05$), while Cladocera dominated in terms of biomass. The species richness of Rotifera exhibited a significant seasonal difference ($P < 0.05$). Both the density and biomass of zooplankton revealed significant seasonal differences ($P < 0.05$). In general, the density and biomass of zooplankton were higher in summer and autumn, when compared to winter and spring. Biodiversity indices were dramatically lower in spring than in the other seasons. The non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis suggested that these zooplankton communities can be divided into three groups: spring community, summer-autumn community, and winter community. The seasonal succession of zooplankton communities did not have interannual reproducibility. In high water level years, the dominant species of zooplankton (Cladocerans and Copepods) in the wet season had a lower density, and the result in low water level years was exactly the opposite. The redundancy analysis revealed that water temperature (WT), conductivity, pH and dissolved oxygen (DO) had significant effects on the zooplankton community.

Conclusions. The community structure of zooplankton has a significant seasonal pattern, but has no interannual repeatability. In high water level years, the dominant species of zooplankton (Cladocerans and Copepods) in the wet season had a lower density, and the result in low water level years was exactly the opposite. The density, biomass and diversity indices of zooplankton were significantly different in different seasons. The present study was helpful in the further understanding of the ecosystem stability of lakes connected with rivers, providing scientific guidance for the protection of lake wetlands.

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23 **Abstract**

24 **Background.** Sub-lakes are important for the maintenance of the ecosystem integrity of Lake
25 Poyang, and zooplankton play an important role in its substance and energy flow.

26 **Methods.** A seasonal investigation of zooplankton was conducted in spring (April), summer
27 (July), autumn (October) and winter (January of the following year) from 2012 to 2016 in a sub-
28 lake of Lake Poyang. The aim of the present study was to understand the seasonal dynamics and
29 interannual variation of zooplankton communities and their relationship to environmental
30 factors.

31 **Results.** A total of 115 species were identified in all samples in the four years, which comprised
32 of 87 Rotifera, 13 Cladocera and 15 Copepoda. Rotifera was the dominant group in terms of
33 quantity, and its species richness and abundance were significantly higher when compared to
34 Cladocera and Copepoda ($P<0.05$), while Cladocera dominated in terms of biomass. The species
35 richness of Rotifera exhibited a significant seasonal difference ($P<0.05$). Both the density and
36 biomass of zooplankton revealed significant seasonal differences ($P<0.05$). In general, the
37 density and biomass of zooplankton were higher in summer and autumn, when compared to
38 winter and spring. Biodiversity indices were dramatically lower in spring than in the other
39 seasons. The non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis suggested that these
40 zooplankton communities can be divided into three groups: spring community, summer–autumn
41 community, and winter community. The seasonal succession of zooplankton communities did
42 not have interannual reproducibility. In high water level years, the dominant species of
43 zooplankton (Cladocerans and Copepods) in the wet season had a lower density, and the result in
44 low water level years was exactly the opposite. The redundancy analysis revealed that water
45 temperature (WT), conductivity, pH and dissolved oxygen (DO) had significant effects on the
46 zooplankton community.

47 **Conclusions.** The community structure of zooplankton has a significant seasonal pattern, but has no
48 interannual repeatability. In high water level years, the dominant species of zooplankton
49 (Cladocerans and Copepods) in the wet season had a lower density, and the result in low water
50 level years was exactly the opposite. The density, biomass and diversity indices of zooplankton were
51 significantly different in different seasons. The present study was helpful in the further understanding of
52 the ecosystem stability of lakes connected with rivers, providing scientific guidance for the protection of
53 lake wetlands.

54

55 Introduction

56 Lake Poyang, the largest freshwater lake in China, is a connected lake, in which water levels
57 fluctuate widely in different seasons (Wu, 1994). In its low water period, more than 100
58 separated sub-lakes appear in Lake Poyang (Hu et al., 2015). When these sub-lakes connect with
59 the main lake in the high water period, a close exchange of material, energy and biology occur
60 among these water bodies. Sub-lakes are of significant ecological value due to the huge
61 vegetation biomass (Huang & Guo, 2007; Li & Liu, 2001), high biodiversity (Wu, 1994; Ge et

62 al., 2010), fish nurseries and reproduction sites in the high water period (Zhang & Wang, 1982),
63 and ideal habitats provided for wintering birds (Qi et al., 2011; Hu and Ge et al., 2014). All these
64 values play an important and unique role in maintaining the biological integrity and species
65 diversity of the Lake Poyang wetland ecosystem.

66 As important biological parts and a link between the primary producer and higher consumers,
67 zooplanktons are essential for maintaining the health and stability of aquatic ecosystems. These
68 also indicate the trophic state of lakes, and can be accurately reflected by the spontaneous
69 variation in zooplankton (Pereira et al., 2002; Krylov, 2015). Zooplankton communities have
70 significant seasonal fluctuations under the influence of biotic and abiotic factors. Environmental
71 factors, such as total nitrogen (TN), total phosphorus (TP), water temperature (WT), water clarity
72 and the biomass of microalgae all play an important role in the succession of zooplankton
73 communities (Yang et al., 2014; Hu and Yang et al., 2014). The periodical connection between
74 lakes and rivers also affect the ecological structure and function of zooplankton communities.
75 Different degrees of water level have different degrees of effect on zooplankton (Goździejewska
76 et al., 2016). Planktivorous fish exerts high top-down control on zooplankton, especially on
77 macro-zooplankton, which may lead to a decrease in the number of *Daphnia* (Scheffer et al.,
78 1997) and miniaturization of the zooplankton community.

79 The increases in N and P levels in recent decades (Lv, 1996; Wang et al., 2008) have led to the
80 eutrophication of Lake Poyang. In 2011, TN was 1.389 mg/L and TP was 0.067 mg/L on average
81 (Chen et al, 2013), while the *Jiangxi Water Resources Bulletin* (2012–2015) indicated that the
82 water of Lake Poyang exhibited moderate eutrophication (<http://www.jxsl.gov.cn/>). Although
83 Lake Poyang has reached the level of eutrophication, fortunately, there was no outbreak of
84 cyanobacteria bloom due to the connection of the lake with the Yangtze River and the seasonal
85 fluctuations in water level (Hu & Zhu, 2014). However, cyanobacterial blooms have already taken
86 place in its sub-lakes, due to unmanaged development and resource utilization (Dai et al., 2015).
87 The ecological and environmental problems faced by sub-lakes are epitomes of the
88 environmental deterioration of Lake Poyang, and the ecological decline in sub-lakes may
89 eventually seriously affect its wetland ecosystem and the function of the whole lake.

90 The first study of zooplankton in Lake Poyang focused on the species in the 1960s (Deng et
91 al., 1963). Subsequently, some discontinuous researches on zooplankton have been conducted,
92 but these studies were relatively limited. For example, Xie et al. (1997, 1998 and 2000) carried

93 out an annual dynamic research on zooplankton in Lake Poyang. Wang et al. (2003) catalogued
94 150 zooplankton species in spring and winter. Liu et al. (2016) characterized the characteristics
95 of all crustaceans. According to records (Huang & Guo, 2007), there is a total of 207
96 zooplankton species in China, but reports on zooplankton in the sub-lakes of Lake Poyang
97 remain very limited in the past decades. Zooplanktons in sub-lakes were reported only until the
98 recent years (Zhang et al., 2014). Furthermore, there are very few reports on seasonal and annual
99 variations in zooplankton communities in sub-lakes. Zooplankton are the main feeding target of
100 many fishes, and its distribution and variation can be used as a scientific basis for exploring fish
101 stocks and finding fishing grounds (Huang et al., 2010). At the same time, zooplanktons are also
102 important indicators of aquatic environment change (Peter et al., 2010). The population structure,
103 quantity, and dominant species can be an important indicator of water quality monitoring (Wang,
104 et al., 2012). Therefore, the study on the spatial and temporal distribution pattern of zooplankton
105 can provide a vital scientific basis for the protection and sustainable utilization of lake resources.

106 The present study carried out a preliminary research of the seasonal variations of zooplankton
107 communities in Shahu Lake, a sub-lake of Lake Poyang. The samples were collected seasonally
108 from April 2012 to January 2016. The specific aims were as follows: (1) investigate the seasonal
109 and interannual variations of zooplankton communities in a sub-lake, and (2) identify the
110 dominant physicochemical factors that affect the variation in zooplankton community structures.

111

112 **Materials & Methods**

113 **Sampling site**

114 Lake Poyang (28° 24'–29° 46'N, 115° 49'–116° 46') is located downstream of the Yangtze
115 River (Fig. 1-A). It has an area of 3, 210 km² in the highest water level period and 146 km² in the
116 lowest water level period (Zhang, 1988). Its catchment has a subtropical monsoon climate with
117 an average annual rainfall of 1, 400–1, 900 mm, and an average annual temperature of 16.7–17.7
118 °C (Wu, 1994). Jiangxi Poyang Lake National Nature Reserve lies to the northwest of Lake
119 Poyang (Fig. 1-B), and there are nine sub-lakes in the reserve. Shahu Lake, which has a surface
120 area of 1.4 km², is one of these, and has a flat bottom and few submerged plants (Fig. 1-C).
121 There is significant seasonal water level fluctuation in Shahu Lake. The maximum water
122 fluctuation amplitude is approximately 6 m between flood and dry season. During the dry season,
123 local fishermen fish in the lake using a method known as “lake enclosed in autumn”. This

124 involves the fishermen discharging water through a water-gate, and fishing with a long mesh bag
125 fixed at its gate from October to January of the next year. Through this process the water level
126 gradually decreases to 0.2–0.3 m.

127 **Sampling design**

128 Zooplankton were seasonally sampled (spring = April, summer = July, autumn = October and
129 winter = January) at three points in Shahu Lake from April 2012 to January 2016. With the water
130 level declining, the water only remained in deepest area, and the water depth was only
131 approximately 0.2–0.3 m. Hence, these three sampling points in winter were set in the lake, in
132 which the water depth was more than 1.4 m in autumn 2012 (Fig. 1-D). Zooplanktons were
133 sampled three times at each point, and nine samples were collected in each season, resulting in a
134 total of 144 samples over the four years. A 5-L modified Schindler–Patalas sampler was used to
135 collect 10 L of mixed water at approximately 50 cm below the water surface for each sample. A
136 plankton net (mesh size, 64 μm) was used to filter the water and collect the zooplankton, which
137 gathered from the end of the net, and these were immediately preserved in 50 mL plastic bottles
138 with 4% formalin. In the laboratory, the zooplanktons were counted and identified under a
139 microscope (Olympus SZ61, Japan and Olympus CX23, Korea). When there were excessive
140 individuals in one sample, a sub-sample method was used to estimate the actual quantity. In the
141 present study, copepod nauplii were considered as one taxon. Four bibliographies, including
142 three faunas, were used for zooplankton identification (Wang, 1961; Crustacean Research Group,
143 1979; Jiang & Du, 1979; Han & Shu, 1995).

144 The physicochemical parameters were simultaneously measured at the time of collection. WT,
145 pH, conductivity (Cond), dissolved oxygen (DO) and turbidity (Turb) were measured using a
146 multi-function water quality monitor (YSI6600V2, USA).

147 **Data analysis**

148 In the present study, the zooplankton community characteristics mainly include dominant
149 species, diversity index, density, biomass and community clustering map.

150 The dominance index was calculated as follows:

$$151 \quad Y = n_i \times f_i / N \quad (\text{Eqn. 1})$$

152 In which Y represented the dominance index, n_i represented the individual number of i species,
153 f_i represented the occurrence frequency of i species and N represented total numbers of
154 individuals. When Y was greater than or equal to 0.02, this species was defined as dominant

155 species. In the present study, N referred to the total density of zooplankton in each season (Wen
156 et al., 2015).

157 The Shannon–Weiner diversity index (H'), Margalef richness index (D) and Pielou evenness
158 index (J') calculation formulae were as follows:

$$159 \quad H' = -\sum P_i \ln(P_i)$$

$$160 \quad D = (S-1) / \ln N$$

$$161 \quad J' = H' / \ln S \quad (\text{Eqn. 2})$$

162 Where S represented the species number and P_i represented the proportion of i species
163 densities in the total zooplankton density in the sample (Wen et al., 2015).

164 The densities of zooplankton were calculated by dividing the individual numbers of
165 zooplankton that gathered in each collection by the sample volume, and this was expressed by
166 ind./L. The biomass of zooplankton (wet weight) was evaluated according to the method
167 reported by Zhang and Huang (1991). The weight of each nauplii was estimated to be
168 approximately 0.003 mg (Xie & Li, 1998).

169 The seasonal variance of water physicochemical factors, zooplankton density and biomass
170 were analysed by one-way ANOVA, using STATISTICA 7.0 (StatSoft Inc., Tulsa OK, USA).
171 The seasonal variation in zooplankton communities was tested by non-metric multidimensional
172 scaling analysis (NMDS) and analysis of similarities (ANOSIM). Zooplankton individual
173 number data were analysed using a ranked similarity matrix based on Bray–Curtis similarity
174 measures. Rare species, which had an average density of less than 1.0 ind./L, were excluded
175 during NMDS and ANOSIM analyses. NMDS ordination and ANOSIM analyses were
176 performed with the PRIMER 5 computer package (Clarke & Warwick, 1994). The indicator
177 value method (IndVal) was used to detect how strongly each species discriminated among the
178 NMDS groups. The indicator value of a taxon varied from 0 to 100, and the indicator value
179 attained its maximum value when all individuals of a taxon occurred at all sites within a single
180 group (Szulc et al., 2010). The significance of the indicator value for each species was tested with
181 a Monte Carlo randomization procedure with 1, 000 permutations. IndVal was performed using
182 the *indval* function in R package *labdsv* (R version 3.4.1, R Development Core Team 2017).

183 The correlation between water physicochemical factors and zooplankton dominant species was
184 analysed through redundancy analysis (RDA), and the significance was determined using the
185 Monte Carlo test. The RDA and Monte Carlo tests were performed using Canoco for Windows

186 4.5 software (Ter Braak & Smilauer 2002). Except for the NMDS analysis, all variables were
187 transformed by $\ln(x + 1)$ prior to analysis.

188

189 **Results**

190 **Physical-chemical variables**

191 The seasonal mean values of physicochemical factors in Shahu Lake from April 2012 to
192 January 2016 are presented in Table 1. The one-way ANOVA revealed that all physicochemical
193 factors had significant seasonal differences ($P < 0.05$). WT rose from spring, reaching a maximum
194 (~ 29.4 °C) in summer, falling in autumn and dropping to the minimum (~ 9.2 °C) in winter.
195 Conductivity had an average range (\pm SE) from 90.2 ± 15.4 to 532.6 ± 446.2 μ S/cm with a
196 minimum value of 60.7 μ S/cm in April 2013 and a maximum value of 1049 μ S/cm in October
197 2013. DO and water turbidity were highest (11.0 ± 1.2 mg/L, and 142.1 ± 75.2 NTU, respectively)
198 in winter and lowest (5.9 ± 2.1 mg/L, and 35.1 ± 27.4 NTU, respectively) in summer. In contrast,
199 pH was lowest (6.7 ± 0.6 mg/L) in winter and highest (7.6 ± 0.7 mg/L) in summer.

200 **Species composition**

201 **Species richness**

202 A total of 115 species of zooplankton were found (Appendix Table 1). There were 87 species
203 of Rotifera, 13 species of Cladocera and 15 species of Copepoda. The species of these three main
204 groups comprised of 76.1%, 11.1% and 12.8% of the total species number, respectively.
205 Zooplankton species richness had no significant interannual variation. There were 56 species
206 captured in 2012, 65 species in 2013, 61 species in 2014 and 72 species in 2015 (Fig. 2). Merely
207 24 species occurred simultaneously over the four years: 18 rotifera species, two cladocera
208 species and four copepoda species. Zooplankton species richness exhibited significant seasonal
209 differences ($P = 0.041$). In every season, rotifers, which comprised 36.4–81.3% of the total
210 species number, were the dominant component. A total of 58 species was found in spring with
211 the minimum (11 species) in 2014 and the maximum (34 species) in 2015. There were 88 species
212 collected in summer, with the minimum (33 species) in 2014 and the maximum (48 species) in
213 2013 and 2015. In autumn, 72 species were captured, and the minimum (23 species) were found
214 in 2012 and the maximum (42 species) were found in 2014. In winter, 65 species were identified,
215 and the minimum (23 species) were found in 2012 and the maximum (35 species) were identified
216 in 2015.

217 **Dominant species**

218 From 2012 to 2015, there were 13 dominant species, 10 dominant species, 16 dominant
219 species and eight dominant species in each year (Table 2). *Bosmina longirostris*, copepod nauplii
220 and *Microcyclops varicans* dominated in four years. In spring, *Keratella cochlearis* and
221 *Conochilus unicornis* were dominant species. Especially in spring 2014, the outbreak of *C.*
222 *unicornis* leading to the highest density (1908.8 ind./L) of rotifers. In summer and autumn, the
223 dominant genera of rotifers were *Brachionus*, *Keratella*, *Polyarthra*, *Asplanchna* and
224 *Trichocerca*. In winter, the dominant species were replaced by *Polyarthra dolichoptera*,
225 *Synchaeta oblonga*, *K. cochlearis*, *C. unicornis* and *A. priodonta*.

226 **Zooplankton density and biomass**

227 **Seasonal variation**

228 Total density of zooplankton showed similar trend with species richness (Fig.3-A). In general,
229 the maximum density occurred in summer or autumn and the minimum density appeared in
230 spring or winter. Zooplankton density was highest in autumn (140.0 ind./L), followed by summer
231 (83.0 ind./L) and spring (56.9 ind./L). The minimum density was found in winter (1.3 ind./L).
232 Rotifers density showed no significant seasonal difference ($P=0.123$). However, the densities of
233 cladocerans and copepods in winter were significantly lower, when compared to the other
234 seasons ($P<0.001$). The maximum density of cladocerans was observed in October 2014 (219.2
235 ind./L), while the maximum density of copepods was observed in July 2014 (137.6 ind./L).

236 The biomass of zooplankton was significantly lower in winter (Fig. 3-B), when compared to
237 the other seasons ($P<0.05$). The highest biomass of rotifers was in autumn, and the lowest was in
238 winter. The biomass of both cladocerans and copepods was highest in spring and lowest in
239 winter. Although the density of cladocerans was lower than rotifers and copepods, this
240 contributed 50% of the total biomass of zooplankton and was 1.7 times and 1.9 times the
241 biomass of rotifers and copepods.

242 **Interannual variation**

243 The interannual variation in zooplankton density was significant ($P=0.012$). The density of
244 2014 was significantly higher than in the three other years (Fig.4-A). The outbreak of *C.*
245 *unicornis* resulting in highest density of rotifer in spring 2014 than in the other years ($P=0.018$).
246 The density of cladocera in 2014 was significantly higher than in 2012 and 2015 ($P=0.039$). The
247 biomass of zooplankton in 2015 was significantly lower than in the other three years ($P=0.036$,

248 Fig. 4-B). The density and biomass of zooplankton in spring 2015 was very low (18.2 ind./L,
249 0.16 mg/L, respectively), and the density and biomass of 2015 were lower than in previous years.

250 **Species diversity index**

251 There was some fluctuation in the zooplankton diversity index over the sixteen seasons (Fig.5).
252 The Shannon–Weiner index (H') was in the range of 0.2–3.1 (Fig.5-A), with average was 2.37.
253 The Margalef index (D) was in the range of 1.1–7.6 (Fig.5-B), with an average of 4.2. Pielou's
254 evenness index (J') was in the range of 0.09–0.85 (Fig.5-C), with an average of 0.69. The results
255 of the one-way ANOVA revealed that the Shannon–Wiener index and Pielou's index had
256 significant seasonal variation ($P < 0.001$, and $P = 0.002$, respectively). The seasonal variation in the
257 Margalef index was not significant.

258 **Community structure**

259 The NMDS results revealed that, apart from July 2012, zooplankton in July and October in all
260 four years were at high density, and had similar dominant species. In addition, these combined as
261 a summer–autumn community (Fig. 6). Zooplankton in January was categorized as a low-density
262 winter community. The zooplankton community of July 2012 and April in all four years were
263 separated into independent branches, because the species composition and density of
264 zooplankton in these seasons were quite different from those in the other seasons. During the
265 month, the species composition and diversity of zooplankton were quite different and formed
266 separate communities. However, the inter-annual zooplankton communities could not be
267 distinguished from each other. This result indicated that the seasonal variation of the zooplankton
268 community structure in Shahu Lake was greater than the interannual variety. In order to identify
269 the key indicator species of the three main NMDS groups (i.e., spring, summer-autumn and
270 winter), the indicator value method (IndVal) was used, and it was revealed that the three groups
271 were characterized by different indicator species (Appendix Table 2).

272 **Redundancy analysis of zooplankton and environmental factors**

273 Before the redundancy analysis (RDA), a preliminary detrended correspondence analysis
274 (DCA) on species-sample data produced a longest gradient length of 3.184, suggesting that both
275 RDA and canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) were appropriate. The RDA was selected to
276 illustrate the relationships between the dominant species of zooplankton and environment factors
277 (Fig.7). The first axis explained the 15.6 % of the variance in species data, and the 50 % of the
278 variance in species–environment relationship (Table 3). The second axis explained the 7.4 % of

279 the variance in species data, and the 23.7% of the variance in species–environment relationship.
280 The Monte Carlo permutation test revealed that WT ($P=0.002$), conductivity ($P=0.002$), pH
281 ($P=0.018$) and DO concentrations ($P=0.026$) had significant effects on zooplankton
282 communities. WT had a higher correlation with Axis 1 ($R=0.695$), and Spearman rank
283 correlation analysis indicated that WT had significant positive correlation with zooplankton
284 ($R=0.722$, $P<0.05$).

285

286 **Discussion** Temporal pattern of zooplankton communities in the sub-lake

287 Rotifera are an important component of zooplankton community in a freshwater lake. The
288 small size, fast growth rate and parthenogenetic reproduction (Gilbert, 1999; Inaotombi et al.,
289 2016) means that the abundance is generally dominant (Romo, 1990). In the present study,
290 rotifers were also the dominant group in Shahu Lake. The quarterly survey in 2012–2015
291 identified 87 Rotifers, 13 Cladocerans and 15 Copepods, with an average of 63 species each
292 year. Nevertheless, the species richness was lower, when compared with the historical research
293 records in Lake Poyang (Xie et al., 1997, 1998; Wang et al., 2003; Huang & Guo, 2007). The
294 density of three species (*B. longirostris*, Copepod nauplii and *M. varicans*) of zooplankton were
295 separately analyzed, which were dominant species in four years, and it was found that the density
296 changes have similar patterns (Fig. 8). Both in the flood season (summer) and retreat period
297 (autumn), the density of these three zooplanktons were significantly less in high water level
298 years than in low water level years. The comparative analysis revealed that these changes were
299 closely correlated to the inter-annual hydrological situation (Gal et al., 2014), and that these
300 might have correlations with the number variation of fishes entering the lake under different
301 water levels. Usually, these three dominant species (both crustaceans zooplankton) are food
302 resources for planktonic feeding fishes (Mamani et al., 2019). Hence, the predation pressures of
303 fishes might be the direct cause of changes in zooplankton density. As a sub-lake of the Lake
304 Poyang, the habitat diversity in Shahu Lake is lower than that of Lake Poyang. Furthermore, the
305 samples in the present study were only taken in the open water area. In addition, the lake has
306 faced intensive human activities, such as beach grazing, fishing, eutrophication caused by
307 pollution, etc. These objective factors may have led to species richness decrease. The NMDS
308 analysis suggested that seasonal variation was more significant than interannual in the
309 zooplankton community structure, and that this could be divided into three community groups

310 associated with distinct indicator species (Fig. 6, Appendix Table 2). According to the previous
311 studies of zooplankton in Lake Poyang (Xie et al., 1997, 1998; Liu et al., 2016), the seasonal
312 dynamics of zooplankton community structure can be roughly observed. Rotifers peaked in
313 summer and autumn. Cladocerans and copepods achieved their peaks in spring, summer and
314 autumn. However, all three groups were at minimum levels in winter. The present study also had
315 the same seasonal dynamic patterns. Though the sub-lake was separated from the Lake Poyang
316 in the dry season, the seasonal dynamics of the zooplankton community in Shahu Lake was
317 similar to those of Lake Poyang. Similar patterns of seasonal changes in zooplankton community
318 have been reported in other lakes (Hu & Yang, 2014; Lin et al., 2014).

319 The density and biomass of zooplankton exhibited a significant difference among seasons
320 ($P=0.035$, $P=0.002$). Over the four years, rotifers were the main component of zooplankton,
321 which represented 72.3% of the total zooplankton abundance, and had 6.5 times and 4.4 times
322 the density of cladocerans and copepods, respectively. Zooplankton density was highest in
323 autumn and lowest in winter. With one exception, the maximum density (1971.0 ind./L) occurred
324 in spring 2014 due to the outbreak of *C. unicornis*. The biomass of zooplankton was significantly
325 lower in winter than in other seasons ($P<0.05$). The highest biomass of rotifers was in autumn
326 and lowest in winter. An earlier study reported that cladocerans and copepods are the main
327 component of zooplankton productivity due to the larger body size (Castro & Gonçalves, 2007).
328 In the present study, it was also found that the biomass of both cladocerans and copepods was
329 highest in spring. Although the density of cladocerans was lower than rotifers and copepods, this
330 contributed to 50% of the total biomass of zooplankton.

331 In the present study, it was found that the seasonal succession characteristics of the
332 zooplankton community in Shahu Lake were consistent with the reported previous model
333 (Sommer, 1986). In winter, the cold temperature and lack of food resulted in a decline in
334 zooplankton reproductive capacity. Thus a minimum zooplankton density was observed in this
335 period. In spring, the phytoplankton biomass increased with rising temperatures and provided
336 more food resource to phytoplanktivorous zooplankton (Cladocera and Calanoida).
337 Simultaneously, the hatching of dormant eggs and copepods diapause ontogeny developed into
338 supplementary populations. The result was an increase in zooplankton abundance in spring
339 (Hairston et al., 2000). The numbers of *Daphnia* gradually decreased after midsummer, and this
340 was replaced by smaller species and copepods (Threlkeld, 1979; Steiner, 2004; Deng et al.,

341 2008). After autumn, with fishing causing less vulnerability to fish predation, the abundance of
342 rotifers rapidly increases, becoming the dominant groups in Shahu Lake.

343 Some studies have found that the spring-summer zooplankton community is not a complete
344 repetitive succession in small sub-lakes due to the difference in interannual water temperature
345 and rainfall (Rettig et al., 2006). There was a large variation in the spring zooplankton
346 community of the Shahu Lake among the four years, while the other seasons the community
347 structures tended to be similar. In early spring, Shahu Lake and Lake Poyang were still not
348 connected. Zooplankton communities in Shahu Lake were mainly affected by rainfall, human
349 disturbance and other unspecified factors. Therefore, zooplankton community succession in this
350 period may not have a uniform direction. In summer, Shahu Lake was connected with the main
351 lake. The material and biological exchanges between the sub-lake and main lake resulted in a
352 similarity in water environment and biological community structure. Therefore, the zooplankton
353 community succession was back to the early stages (Baranyi et al., 2002).

354 **Effects of environmental factors on zooplankton community**

355 Water physicochemical factors can affect species composition and the abundance of a
356 zooplankton community. The significant differences in physicochemical factors in different
357 seasons lead to seasonal zooplankton dynamics (Deyzel 2004). Some studies have pointed out
358 that the seasonal dynamics of zooplankton can be influenced by temperature (Hu et al., 2014;
359 Hussain et al., 2016). Water temperature has an important effect on dormant eggs hatching,
360 growth and reproduction of zooplankton (Korpelainen, 1986; Hu et al., 2008). For example, the
361 net reproduction rate of *Brachionus diversicornis* is highest when the temperature is 30 °C (Ning
362 et al., 2013), which might be the main reason why *B. diversicornis* is the dominant species in
363 summer in the Shahu Lake. Temperature also affects phytoplankton as well as zooplankton. High
364 temperature was favourable for the growth of phytoplankton, and the biomass of phytoplankton
365 in Lake Poyang was highest in summer (Wu et al., 2013). Low temperature limits the predation
366 of zooplankton on phytoplankton (Zheng et al., 2015). Hence, zooplankton has a high density in
367 summer and a low density in winter in the Shahu Lake.

368 Different zooplankton species have different adaptations to temperature (Tao et al., 2008). The
369 number of resting eggs increases in both higher and lower temperatures (Shi & Shi, 1996). In the
370 present study, it was found that the dominant species in summer were thermophilic species, such
371 as *Brachionus* spp. and *Trichocerca* spp., and wide suitable temperature species, such as

372 *Keratella* spp. The dominant species in winter were those suitable for low temperature species,
373 such as *Polyarthra dolichoptera* and *Synchacta* spp. and so on. Therefore, the seasonal variation
374 of temperature is one of the reasons for the substitution of zooplankton dominant species. The
375 WT variation was significant in Shahu Lake, which was highest in summer and lowest in winter
376 (Table 1). The RDA suggested that there was a positive correlation between temperature and
377 most of the dominant species. The Spearman rank correlation analysis also revealed that
378 temperature has a positive correlation with the species richness ($R=0.376$, $P=0.009$), density
379 ($R=0.401$, $P=0.005$) and biomass ($R=0.480$, $P=0.001$) of zooplankton.

380 The results of the redundancy analysis revealed that conductivity, pH and dissolved oxygen
381 also had a significant effect on the seasonal variation of the zooplankton community. Berzins and
382 Pejler (1987) reported that some species of rotifers, which could instruct the water oligotrophic
383 conditions, generally appeared in water at pH 7.0 or at a slightly lower pH value. Some other
384 species of Rotifera indicated that eutrophic conditions prefer water with a pH value higher than
385 7.0. The pH value of Shahu Lake was higher than 7.0, and its water was at a certain degree of
386 eutrophication. Among its dominant species, such as *Brachionus* spp., *A. brightwelli*, *S. oblonga*,
387 *Filinia longiseta*, *Daphnia pulex*, *Bosmina longirostris* and *Bosmina coregoni*, most were
388 commonly found to be indicator species of eutrophication. Phytoplankton blooms can lead to
389 higher water pH values. There is a correlation between the water pH value in summer and
390 phytoplankton. In the present study, the Spearman rank correlation analysis revealed that
391 significant positive correlations existed between pH and zooplankton species richness ($R=0.644$,
392 $P<0.001$) and the Shannon–Weiner diversity index ($R=0.487$, $P<0.001$). In the present study, it
393 was found that there was a significant positive correlation between conductivity and copepods
394 ($R=0.463$, $P<0.001$), but there was a weakly positive correlation between conductivity and
395 cladocerans ($R=0.078$, $P<=0.597$). This was consistent with a previous study (Soto & Rios,
396 2006).

397 Water level fluctuation was also one of the important factors that affected the zooplankton
398 community structure. It was found that the density and community structure of zooplankton
399 changes as water level fluctuates (Goździejewska et al., 2016). As the fluctuation intensified, the
400 former dominant species, *Daphnia*, was replaced by rotifers (Zhou et al., 2016). The zooplankton
401 composition of the Shahu Lake in summer was dominated by small individual rotifers, copepod
402 nauplii and *Bosmina longirostris*. The main reason was that the Lake Poyang was in the rising

403 water level period from April to July, and the water level changes resulting in a disturbance to
404 zooplankton. When the water level rose, the Shahu Lake was connected with the main lake (Fig
405 8-C). As a consequence, nutrients and other biological communities (such as fishes, Fig 8-D)
406 poured into the sub-lake along with the flood, and interactions occurred among zooplanktons and
407 other aquatic organisms from rivers. This probably was one of the reasons for the great shift in
408 zooplankton community in Shahu Lake from spring to summer. Interval water level differences
409 can also lead to annual zooplankton differences. In the summer of 2012, the water level was
410 significantly higher than in previous years (Fig. 8-C). The continuing high water level could be
411 the reason why the zooplankton community structure in summer 2012 was significantly different
412 from other years.

413 Evaporation, seepage flow and the opening water-gates for fishing from the middle of October
414 resulted in the water level gradually decreasing in Shahu Lake. The water depth was only 20-
415 30cm at the end of fishing. Then most of the lake basin was exposed. The lake bottom sediment
416 and its attachments fully contacted with the atmosphere and the sun. The digestion of organic
417 matter in the sediment was accelerated and the soil structure improved (Hu, 2012). However, the
418 water-gate was not opened during the winter of 2013. Hence, the water depth remained more
419 than one meter in at that period (Fig. 8-C). The stability of the water level maintained a relatively
420 stable environment, coupled with nutrient enrichment and temperature recovery in spring, which
421 led to the outbreak of *Conochilus unicornis* population.

422 **Effects of aquatic organisms on zooplankton community**

423 In addition to environmental factors, biological factors are also important in causing
424 zooplankton community seasonal dynamics (Castro & Gonçalves, 2007). Fish have choices in
425 the process of predation (Dodson, 1970) and most fish prefer bigger zooplankton (Wang, 2010).
426 Filter-feeding fishes such as silver carp (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*) and bighead carp
427 (*Aristichthys nobilis*), have an important place in Shahu Lake (Zeng et al., 2015). After the lake
428 has been fished in winter by being enclosed, zooplankton face lower predation pressure from fish
429 at the start of spring. When the water level rose, the floods not only changed the zooplankton
430 community structure, but also brought many migrating fishes from the rivers and other lakes.
431 These two factors have led to miniaturization of zooplankton species. The larger zooplankton,
432 *Daphnia hyalina*, *D. pulex* and *Sinocalanus dorrii*, were dominant in spring. However, the
433 abundance of these species declined sharply in summer, and some species even disappeared from

434 the lake. This presented a close correlation with fish predation (Scheffer et al., 1997; Steiner,
435 2004; Deng et al., 2008). Therefore, the outbreak of small *C. unicornis* in spring 2014 may have
436 had a certain relationship with the absence of *Daphnia* at that time, which was caused by the end
437 of fishing in winter 2013.

438 In addition to predation relations between fish and zooplankton, some other aquatic organisms
439 have contributed to zooplankton seasonal dynamics by affecting the water environment. In
440 winter, the grasslands, mudflats and shallow waters provide an excellent habitat for wintering
441 migratory birds and a large number of migratory birds live in the Lake Poyang. The feces of
442 winter migratory birds led to an increase in nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations, which
443 increased the eutrophication level of the sub-lakes. The study of the water quality of Shahu
444 through the zooplankton diversity index revealed that spring water quality was worse than other
445 seasons (Zhu et al., 2014; Nie et al., 2018). The dynamics of the zooplankton community is a
446 complex ecological process, and some factors have not been involved in this experiment. The
447 composition and biomass of phytoplankton, interspecific and intraspecific competition, and
448 nutrient concentration all had effect on the succession of zooplankton community.

449

450 **Conclusions**

451 The community structure of zooplankton has a significant seasonal pattern, and has no interannual
452 repeatability. The differences in zooplankton density, biomass and diversity indices were significant in
453 different seasons and years. This study was helpful in further understanding the ecosystem stability of
454 lakes connected with rivers, and providing scientific guidance for the protection of lake wetlands.

455 Overall, ecological civilization construction is very important for the national decision-making
456 of the present Chinese government. Hence, promoting green development and strengthen
457 ecological system protection is imperative. As the largest lake in China, the ecological states of
458 Lake Poyang is of great importance for the whole Yangtze catchment, and is a vital part of the
459 ecological civilization construction of China, such as biodiversity conservation, and water
460 resource planning and management. The results of the present study can thereby provide vital
461 scientific basis for lake ecosystems protection and the sustainable utilization of biodiversity
462 resources.

463

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632

Figure 1

Location of Shahu Lake and the zooplankton sampling points (water depth map based on the water level of October 2012)

(A) Location of the Poyang Lake. (B) Location of Jiangxi Poyang Lake National Nature Reserve. (C) Location of Shahu Lake. (D) Zooplankton sampling points in Shahu Lake.

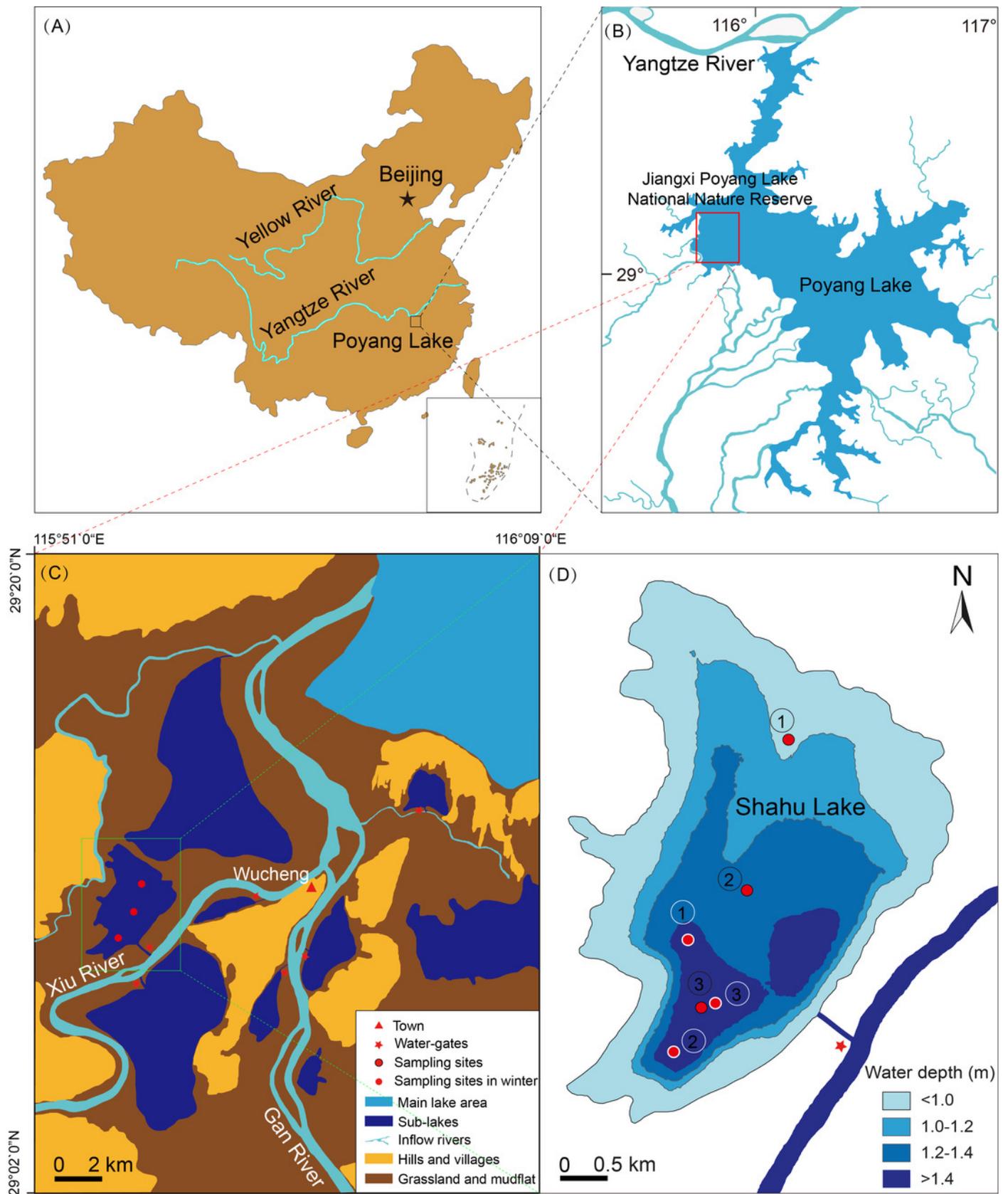


Figure 2

Seasonal variation in species richness of main zooplankton groups in Shahu Lake from April 2012 to January 2016

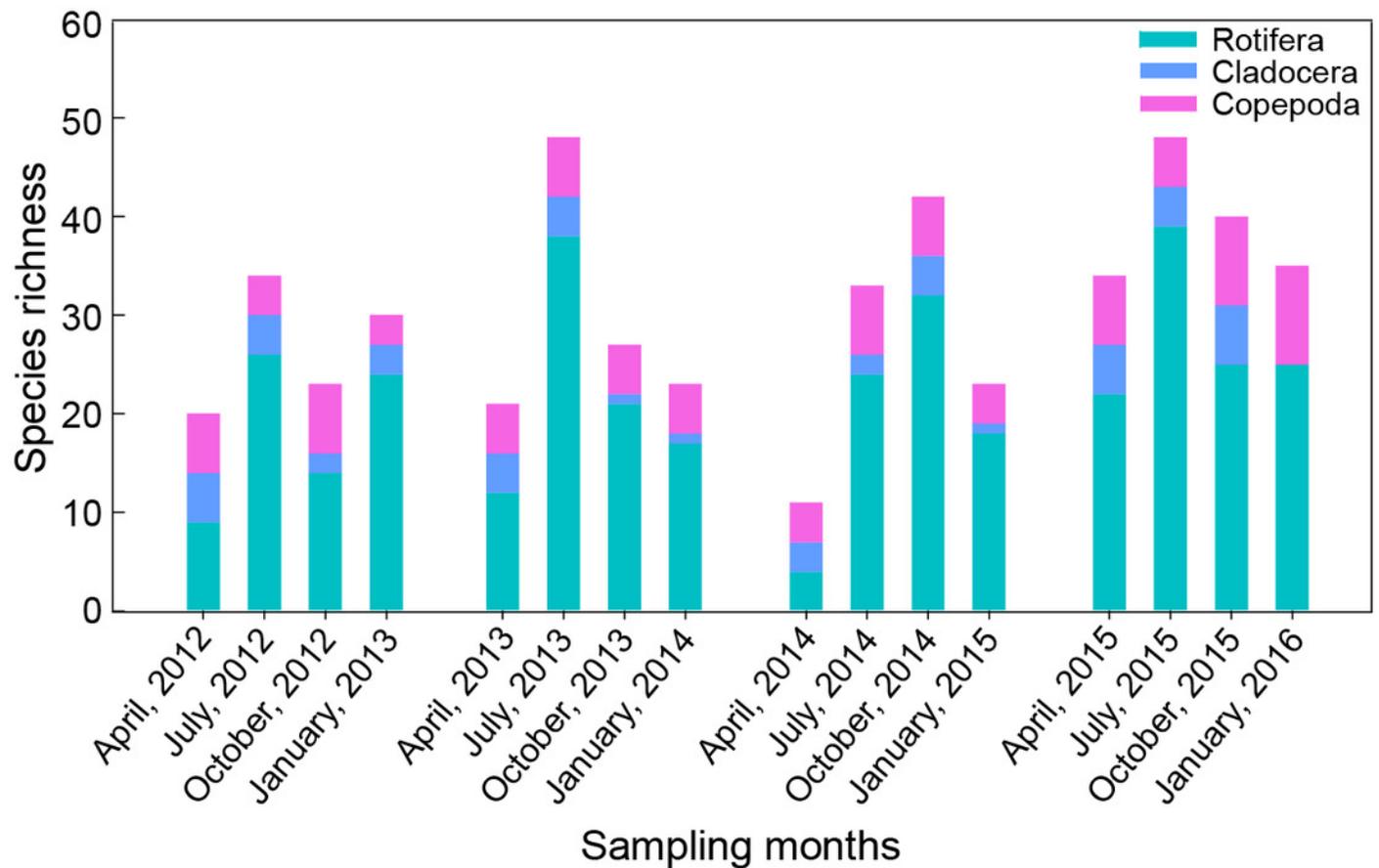


Figure 3

Seasonal variation in mean density (ind./L) and biomass (mg/L), relative density and biomass (%) of each group (Rotifera, Cladocera and Copepoda) in Shahu Lake during 2012-2015

(A) Density variation. (B) Biomass variation.

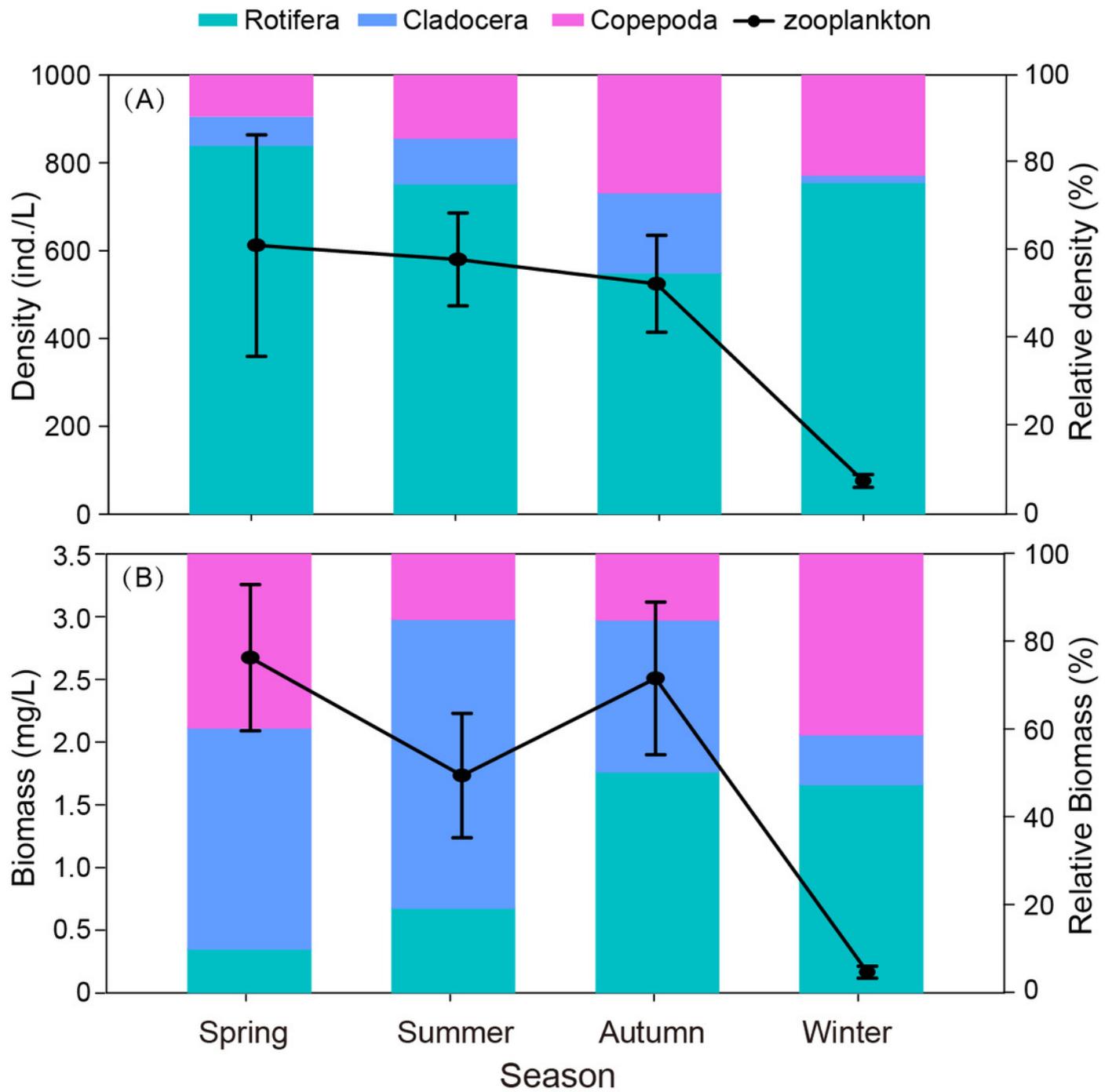


Figure 4

Interannual differences in density (ind./L) and biomass (mg/L), relative density and biomass (%) of zooplankton in Shahu Lake during 2012–2015

(A) Density variation. (B) Biomass variation.

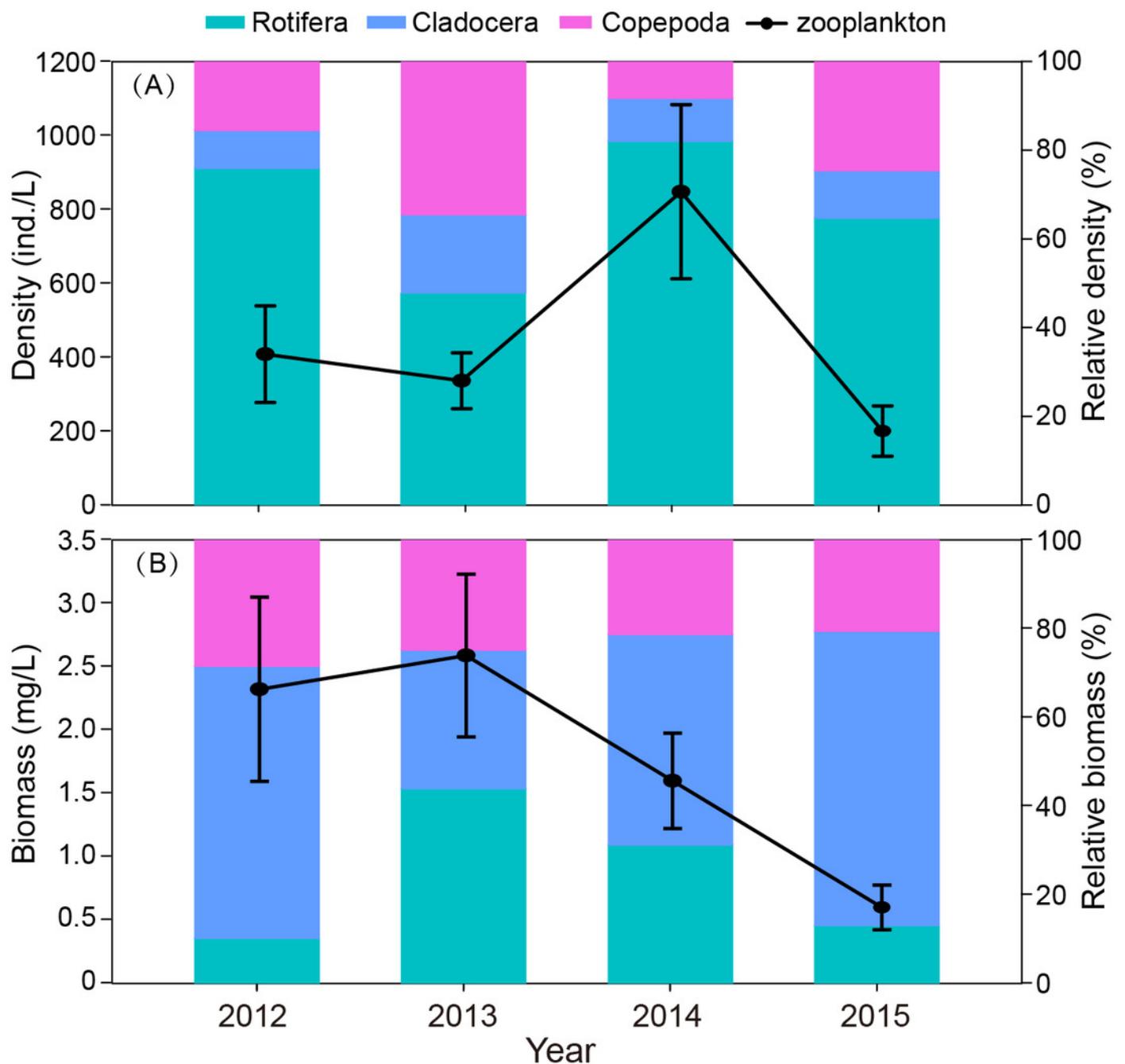


Figure 5

Seasonal variation in biodiversity index in Shahu Lake during 2012–2015

(A) Shannon–Weiner index, H' . (B) Margalef index, D . (C) Pielou's index, J' .

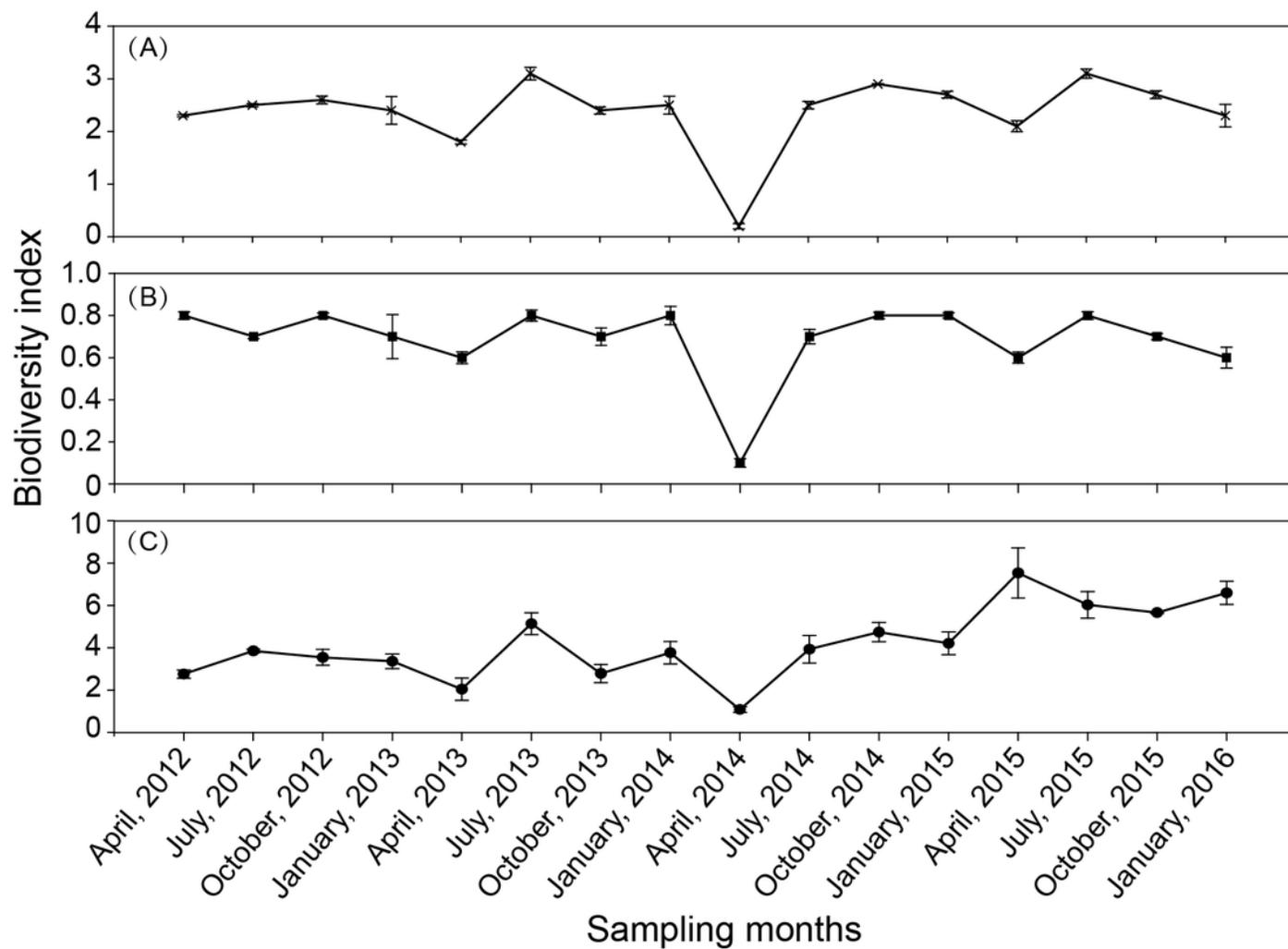


Figure 6

Non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination (NMDS) of zooplankton communities

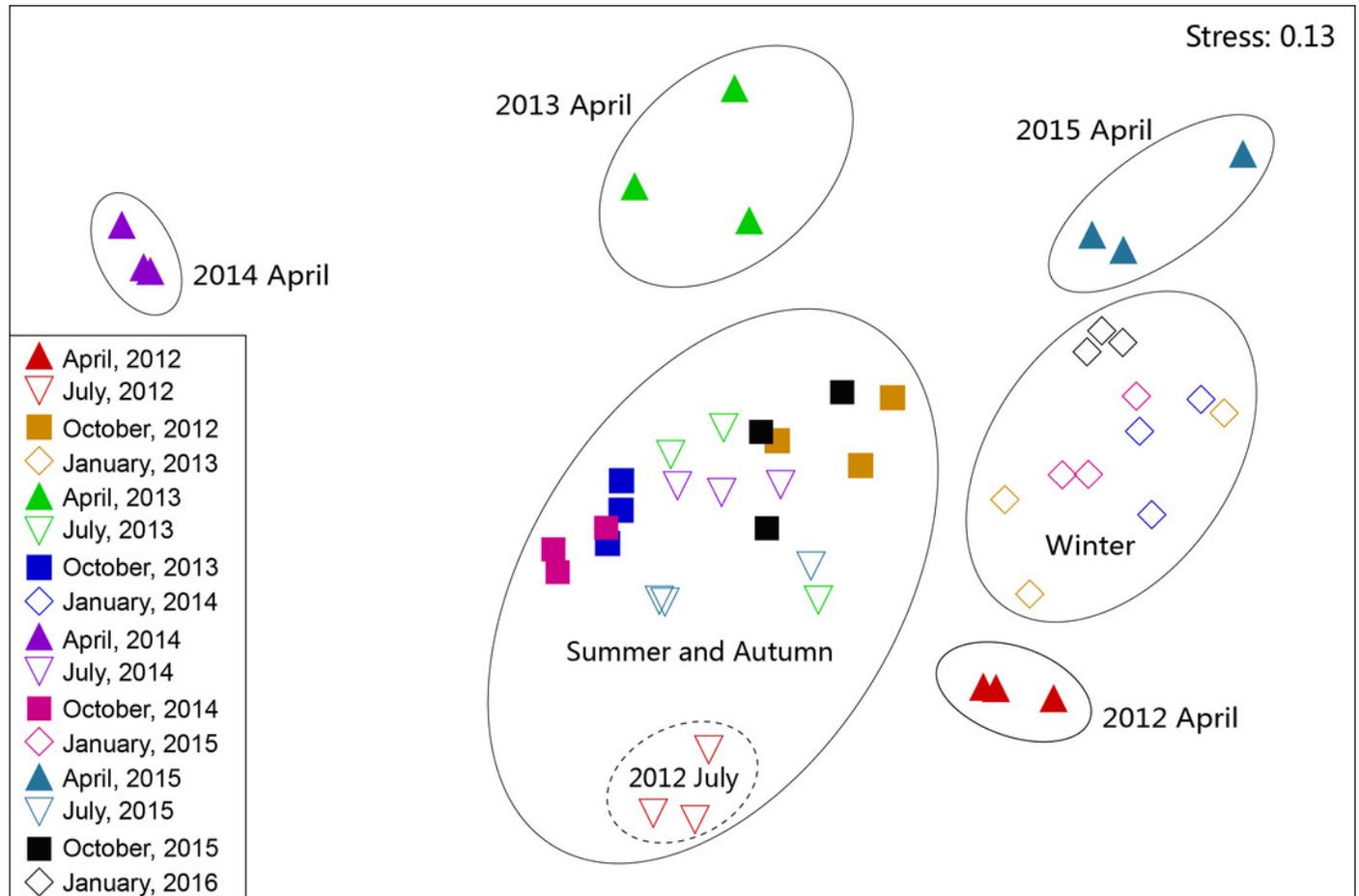


Figure 7

Redundancy analysis (RDA) of zooplankton dominant species and environmental factors in Shahu Lake (WT, water temperature; Cond, conductivity; DO, dissolved oxygen; Turb, turbidity)

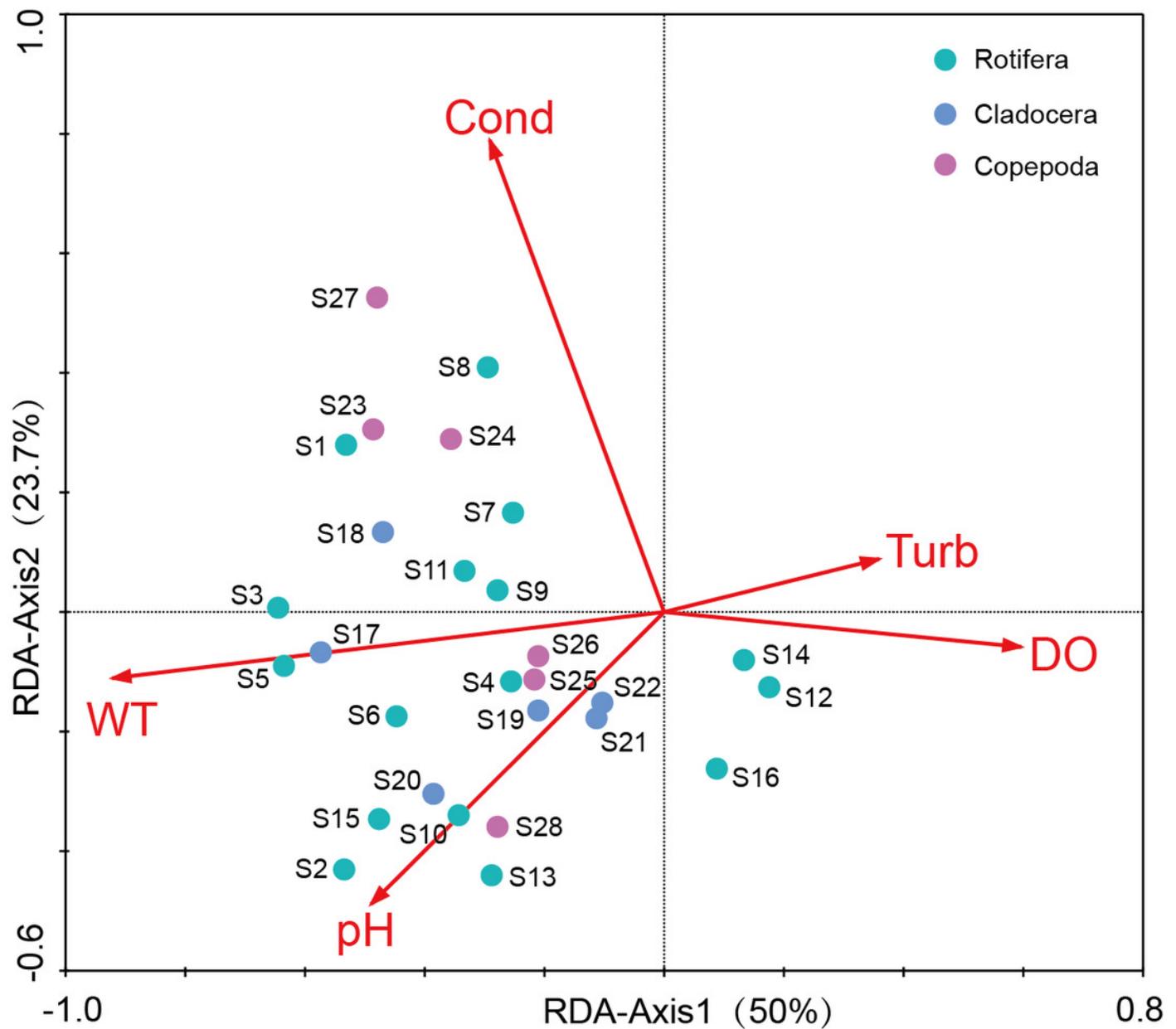


Figure 8

Interannual variation of zooplankton dominant species density in summer and autumn and diurnal variation of water level in 4 years of Shahu Lake.

(A) Interannual variation of zooplankton dominant species density in summer. (B) Interannual variation of zooplankton dominant species density in autumn. (C) diurnal variation of water level in 4 years. (D) Differences in the number of fishes that may enter the sub-lake after hydrological connectivity.

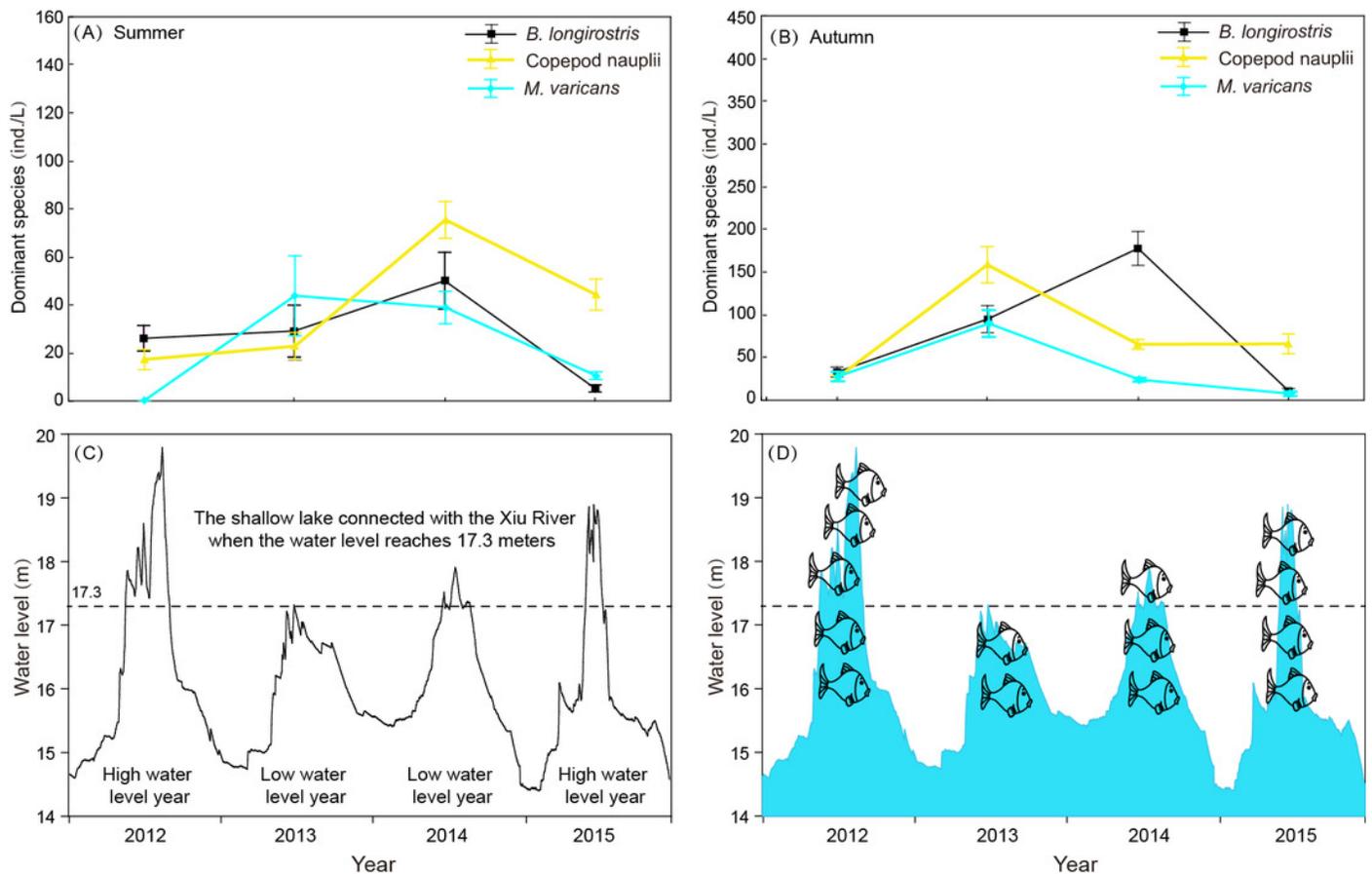


Table 1 (on next page)

Mean values (\pm standard error) of physicochemical factors and their effects on the density of zooplankton in Shahu Lake (n=48)

1 **Table 1.** Mean values (\pm standard error) of physicochemical factors and their effects on the
 2 density of zooplankton in Shahu Lake (n=48).

	April	July	October	January	F	P
Water temperature ($^{\circ}$ C)	20.8 \pm 1.13 ^a	29.4 \pm 0.39 ^b	21.3 \pm 0.21 ^a	9.2 \pm 0.58 ^c	152.48	<0.001
Conductivity (μ S/cm)	90.2 \pm 4.35 ^a	229.0 \pm 68.51 ^{ab}	532.6 \pm 128.79 ^b	279.3 \pm 94.28 ^{ab}	4.52	0.008
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	8.8 \pm 0.15 ^a	5.9 \pm 0.60 ^b	8.9 \pm 0.20 ^a	11.0 \pm 0.35 ^c	32.74	<0.001
pH	7.1 \pm 0.20 ^{ab}	7.5 \pm 0.21 ^a	7.1 \pm 0.20 ^{ab}	6.7 \pm 0.16 ^b	3.08	0.037
Turbidity (NTU)	82.1 \pm 15.37 ^{ab}	35.1 \pm 7.92 ^a	112.4 \pm 23.84 ^b	142.1 \pm 21.69 ^b	6.24	0.001

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Table 2 (on next page)

Dominant species, mean density (ind./L) and dominance (Y) for each year in Shahu Lake during 2012–2015

1 **Table 2.** Dominant species, mean density (ind./L) and dominance (Y) for each year in Shahu
2 Lake during 2012–2015.

Dominant species	2012 ind./L (Y)	2013 ind./L (Y)	2014 ind./L (Y)	2015 ind./L (Y)	Code
Rotifera					
<i>Brachionus angularis</i>	0.9 (0.001)	12.6 (0.024)	8 (0.006)	5.7 (0.023)	S1
<i>Brachionus forficula</i>	5.1 (0.004)	3.2 (0.004)	1.1 (0.000)	5.8 (0.023)	S2
<i>Brachionus diversicornis</i>	7.6 (0.013)	3 (0.006)	0.5 (0.000)	5.6 (0.022)	S3
<i>Keratella cochlearis</i>	35.1 (0.066)	17.7 (0.052)	28 (0.030)	1.8 (0.011)	S4
<i>Keratella. valga</i>	5.8 (0.008)	16.5 (0.049)	13.1 (0.009)	22.7 (0.088)	S5
<i>Asplanchna priodonta</i>	4.8 (0.003)	12 (0.035)	25.6 (0.018)	5.1 (0.034)	S6
<i>Asplanchna. girodi</i>	9.3 (0.021)	1 (0.001)	0.1 (0.000)	0.1 (0.000)	S7
<i>Asplanchna. brightwel</i>	1 (0.000)	19.6 (0.037)	1.9 (0.001)	0.2 (0.000)	S8
<i>Ascomorpha ecaudis</i>	-	30.9 (0.134)	6.5 (0.003)	0.2 (0.000)	S9
<i>Trichocerca cylindrical</i>	11.3 (0.013)	0.1 (0.000)	12.9 (0.009)	4.9 (0.020)	S10
<i>Polyarthra trigla</i>	-	4.9 (0.013)	23.5 (0.017)	4.2 (0.023)	S11
<i>Polyarthra dolichoptera</i>	57.2 (0.139)	3.6 (0.007)	3.9 (0.001)	2.3 (0.009)	S12
<i>Polyarthra vulgare</i>	81.9 (0.133)	-	10 (0.004)	-	S13
<i>Synchaeta oblonga</i>	24.6 (0.031)	3.7 (0.006)	2.4 (0.001)	0.6 (0.002)	S14
<i>Filinia longiseta</i>	3.4 (0.002)	0.3 (0.000)	-	10.3 (0.042)	S15
<i>Conochilus unicornis</i>	-	0.8 (0.001)	495.6 (0.654)	22.1 (0.167)	S16
Cladocera					
<i>Diaphanosoma brachyurum</i>	2.8 (0.034)	3.3 (0.009)	6.5 (0.042)	8.5 (0.210)	S17
<i>Bosmina longirostris</i>	15.2 (0.267)	43.3 (0.551)	66.4 (0.808)	4.7 (0.160)	S18
<i>Bosmina. coregoni</i>	-	10.9 (0.026)	8.6 (0.043)	-	S19
<i>Bosminopsis deitersi</i>	1.5 (0.007)	-	-	5.3 (0.083)	S20
<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	8.4 (0.053)	-	-	-	S21
<i>Daphnia hyalina</i>	5.5 (0.030)	-	-	-	S22
Copepoda					
<i>Copepods nauplii</i>	18.6 (0.264)	48.7 (0.374)	37.4 (0.479)	33.1 (0.677)	S23
<i>Limnoithona sinensis</i>	-	13.6 (0.078)	5.1 (0.038)	3.1 (0.033)	S24
<i>Macrocyclus fuscus</i>	18.6 (0.198)	-	-	0.2 (0.001)	S25
<i>Tropocyclops prasinus</i>	6 (0.048)	-	-	-	S26
<i>Microcyclops varicans</i>	12.8 (0.090)	33.6 (0.161)	16.6 (0.179)	4.7 (0.072)	S27
<i>Mesocyclops leuckarti</i>	-	-	4.3 (0.015)	5.3 (0.066)	S28

3 -, the species density is very small or does not appear.

Table 3 (on next page)

Eigenvalues of the first and second axes in the redundancy analysis

1 **Table 3.** Eigenvalues of the first and second axes in the redundancy analysis.

Axes	RDA1	RDA2	Total variance
Eigenvalues :	0.156	0.074	1
Species-environment correlations :	0.754	0.806	
Cumulative % variance			
of species data :	15.6	23	
of species-environment relation :	50	73.7	
Sum of all eigenvalues			1
Sum of all canonical eigenvalues			0.313

2

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Table 4(on next page)

Species list of zooplankton in Shahu Lake, 2012-2015

1 **Appendix Table 1.** Species list of zooplankton in Shahu Lake, 2012–2015.

Zooplankton species	2012				2013				2014				2015			
	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter												
Rotifera																
<i>Anarthra aptera</i>										+						
<i>Argonotholca foliacea</i>														++		
<i>Ascomorpha ecaudis</i>					+++	+++	+++			+	+++			+		+
<i>Ascomorpha ovalis</i>							+			+	++		+	+	+	+
<i>Ascomorpha saltans</i>		+++			+	+		+			+			+		
<i>Asplanchna brightwel</i>		+		+		+	+++		++	+				+		
<i>Asplanchna girodi</i>		+++	+++	+++		+	+	+				+		+		
<i>Asplanchna priodonta</i>		++			+	+++	+++				+++	+++	+++	+++	++	+++
<i>Asplanchna sieboldi</i>		+														
<i>Brachionus angularis</i>	+		++			++	+++			+++	++		+	+++	++	+
<i>Brachionus budapestiensis</i>	+		+++	+		+	+	+++		+	++	+++		+++	+	
<i>Brachionus calyciflorus</i>	+	+	++	+		+					+			+		+++
<i>Brachionus capsuliflorus</i>											+	+++	+	+	+	
<i>Brachionus caudatus</i>						+						+++				
<i>Brachionus diversicornis</i>	+	++	+++	+	+	+	+	+			+	+	+	+++	++	
<i>Brachionus falcatus</i>		+++								+++		+++		+++		
<i>Brachionus forficula</i>		++				+		+			+	++		+++	+++	
<i>Brachionus leydigi</i>													+			+
<i>Brachionus urceus</i>				+		+		+				++	+++	++	+	+++
<i>Cephalodella catellina</i>								+								
<i>Cephalodella gibba</i>	+			+												
<i>Cephalodella sterea</i>														+		
<i>Collothea mutabilis</i>						+			+							

<i>Conochiloides dossuarius</i>								++	++					
<i>Conochilus unicornis</i>						+++	+++	++	+++	+++	+++	+++	+++	+++
<i>Eosphora thoa</i>				+	+									+
<i>Eothinia elongata</i>				+										
<i>Epiphanes senla</i>		++												
<i>Euchlanis dilatata</i>									+		+		+	
<i>Filinia longiseta</i>		+				+					+	+++	+++	
<i>Filinia maior</i>		+				+			+++					
<i>Filinia passa</i>		+	+++			+	+					+++	+	
<i>Gastropus hyplopus</i>		++	+		+			+						
<i>Gastropus stylifer</i>		+	+	+					+					
<i>Harringia eupoda</i>														
<i>Kellicottia longispina</i>														
<i>Keratella cochlearis</i>	+++	+++			+	+++	+++		++	+++	+++	++	++	++
<i>Keratella quadrata</i>								+	+		+			+
<i>Keratella ticinensis</i>													+	++
<i>Keratella valga</i>		++	+			+++	+++	+	+	+++	++	+	+++	+++
<i>Lecane luna</i>								+						
<i>Lecane nodosa</i>														
<i>Lecane unguolata</i>														+
<i>Lepadella apsidea</i>														+
<i>Lindia truncata</i>														
<i>Monostyla crenata</i>														
<i>Monostyla elachis</i>														++
<i>Monostyla lunaris</i>												+	+	
<i>Monostyla unguitata</i>									+	+				
<i>Mytilina ventralis</i>											+++			
<i>Notholca labis</i>										+				+
<i>Notommata tripus</i>														+

<i>Pedalia mira</i>				+		+			+	++				
<i>Ploesoma hudsoni</i>			++		+	+		+	++			+++		
<i>Ploesoma truncatum</i>				+		+			+					
<i>Polyarthra dolichoptera</i>	+++	+++	++	+++		+	+	+++			+++	++	+	+
<i>Polyarthra euryptera</i>									++	+		+		
<i>Polyarthra trigla</i>					+	+	+++	+	+++	+++		+	+++	+++
<i>Polyarthra vnlgaris</i>	++	+++	+	+						+++		+		
<i>Pompholyx complanata</i>				+			+							
<i>Pompholyx sulcata</i>									+	+				
<i>Proales daphnicola</i>					+									
<i>Pseudoharringia similis</i>						+								
<i>Resticula gelida</i>						+								
<i>Resticula melandocus</i>						+								
<i>Scaridium longicaudum</i>		++			++	+						+		
<i>Synchaeta atylata</i>				+						+				
<i>Synchaeta tremula</i>				+			+			+				
<i>Synchaeta oblonga</i>		+++		+++	+	+	+++			+++	+			+++
<i>Synchaeta pectinata</i>											+	+		+++
<i>Trichocerca bicristata</i>					+	+				+				
<i>Trichocerca bicuspes</i>												+	+	
<i>Trichocerca capucina</i>		+	+++	+		+++			+	+++		++	+	
<i>Trichocerca cylindrical</i>	+	+++		+	+				+++	+++		++	+++	+
<i>Trichocerca dixon-nuttalli</i>												+		
<i>Trichocerca elongata</i>										+		+	+	
<i>Trichocerca gracilis</i>						+						+++	+	+
<i>Trichocerca longiseta</i>		++		+							+			
<i>Trichocerca lophoessa</i>		++	+			+				+		++	+	+
<i>Trichocerca pusilla</i>										++		++	+	+
<i>Trichocerca rattus</i>												+		+

<i>Neodiaptomus schmackeri</i>													++		++	+
<i>Paracyclops fimbriatus</i>													+			+
<i>Schmackeria forbesi</i>	+		+						++	++	+				+	+
<i>Sinocalanus dorrii</i>	++	+	+		+++	+	+	+	++	+		+	++		+	+
<i>Thermocyclops hyalinus</i>				+									+			
<i>Thermocyclops kawamurai</i>	+++		+		++	+	+	+		++	+	+			+	+
<i>Thermocyclops taihokuensis</i>														+	++	
<i>Tropocyclops prasinus</i>	+++	+	++													

2 Note: + means appeared; ++ means common species (occurrence frequency greater than 0.65); +++ means dominant species (dominance index greater than 0.02).

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Table 5 (on next page)

Summary of indicator species analysis showing indicator value (IV) and p values for each group. S= spring, SA= summer and autumn, W= winter

- 1 **Appendix Table 2.** Summary of indicator species analysis showing indicator value (IV) and p
 2 values for each group. S= spring, SA= summer and autumn, W= winter.

	Group	IV	P values
<i>Sinocalanus dorrii</i>	S	90.62	0.001
<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	S	33.33	0.004
<i>Macrocylops fuscus</i>	S	45.22	0.012
<i>Daphnia hyalina</i>	S	25.00	0.032
<i>Brachionus angularis</i>	SA	86.71	0.001
<i>Brachionus forficula</i>	SA	56.50	0.001
<i>Brachionus diversicornis</i>	SA	73.05	0.001
<i>Keratella valga</i>	SA	90.29	0.001
<i>Asplanchna priodonta</i>	SA	68.48	0.001
<i>Ascomorpha ovalis</i>	SA	52.65	0.001
<i>Trichocerca cylindrical</i>	SA	58.97	0.001
<i>Trichocerca capucina</i>	SA	63.77	0.001
<i>Pedalia mira</i>	SA	56.78	0.001
<i>Diaphanosoma brachyurum</i>	SA	72.27	0.001
<i>Bosmina longirostris</i>	SA	69.57	0.001
Copepod nauplii	SA	75.76	0.001
<i>Limnoithona sinensis</i>	SA	63.97	0.001
<i>Microcylops varicans</i>	SA	71.50	0.001
<i>Polyarthra trigla</i>	SA	72.21	0.002
<i>Filinia longiseta</i>	SA	41.64	0.007
<i>Keratella cochlearis</i>	SA	64.85	0.009
<i>Mesocyclops leuckarti</i>	SA	37.17	0.009
<i>Collothea mutabilis</i>	SA	33.33	0.014
<i>Brachionus falcatus</i>	SA	34.57	0.019
<i>Asplanchna brightwel</i>	SA	46.87	0.021
<i>Trichocerca stylata</i>	SA	29.17	0.022
<i>Scaridum longicaudum</i>	SA	31.97	0.023
<i>Filinia maior</i>	SA	29.17	0.027
<i>Bosminopsis deitersi</i>	SA	28.12	0.039
<i>Brachionus budapestiensis</i>	SA	44.18	0.05
<i>Synchaeta oblonga</i>	W	62.10	0.001

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