1 2	The original published PDF available in this website: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1470160X18308902?via%3Dihub
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4 5	A systematic review of assessment and conservation management in large floodplain rivers – actions postponed
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24 25 26 27 28	 We review approaches to the assessment of ecological condition and conservation management of large floodplain rivers. The review highlights research gaps and emphasizes the importance of developing more holistic indicators of ecosystem condition. Indicators that better reflect landscape level changes in structure and functioning of
28 29	floodplain rivers are needed.

- Studies that distinguish the role of different river floodplain habitat types in
- 31 ecosystem services provision are needed.
- More effective spatial conservation prioritization tools are needed at the river
- 33 floodplain scale.
- 34 Abstract

35 Large floodplain rivers (LFRs) are currently threatened by high levels of human alteration, and utilization is expected to grow. Assessments to determine ecological condition should 36 37 address the specific environmental features of these unique ecosystems, while conservation 38 management requires balancing maintenance of good ecological condition with the ecosystem 39 services provided by LFRs. However, a systematic evaluation of the scientific literature on assessment of ecological condition of LFRs and trade-offs to guide conservation management 40 is currently lacking. Here, we reviewed 153 peer reviewed scientific articles to characterize 41 42 methodological patterns and trends and identify knowledge gaps in the assessment of LFRs. 43 Our review revealed that most approaches used classical biotic indices for assessing 44 ecological condition of LFRs. However, the number of articles specifically addressing the 45 peculiarities of LFRs was low. Many studies used watershed level surveys and assessed 46 samples from small streams to large rivers using the same methodological protocol. Most 47 studies evaluated the status of main stem river habitats only, indicating large knowledge gaps 48 with respect to the diversity of river-floodplain habitat types or lateral connectivity. Studies 49 related to management were oriented toward specific rehabilitation actions rather than broader 50 conservation of LFRs. Papers relating to ecosystem services of LFRs were especially few. Most importantly, these studies did not distinguish the different functional units of river-51 52 floodplain habitat types (e.g. eupotamon, parapotamon) and their role in ecosystem services 53 provision. Overall, the number of articles was too low for meaningful analyses of the 54 relationships and tradeoffs between biodiversity conservation, maintaining ecological 55 condition, and use of ecosystem services in LFRs. Our review highlights research gaps and 56 emphasizes the importance of developing more holistic indicators of ecosystem condition, 57 which better reflect landscape level changes in structure and functioning of LFRs. As human 58 use of water and land increases, the need to develop more effective spatial conservation 59 prioritization tools becomes more important. Empirical research in this field can aid in solving 60 conflicts between socio-economic demands for ecosystem services and nature conservation of 61 LFRs.

key words: ecological condition, biological integrity, ecological status, rehabilitation,
 restoration, biodiversity, ecosystem services

65 Introduction

66 Large floodplain rivers (LFRs) are the lifelines of our landscapes. By draining large catchment areas, they integrate environmental, topographic and hydro-geomorphic conditions. 67 LFRs are four dimensional systems, with longitudinal connectivity along the river gradient, 68 69 lateral connectivity to the floodplain, vertical connections with the substrate and the 70 groundwater layer, and having a temporal trajectory (Ward, 1989). Large river habitats can be 71 considered hierarchically nested from regions down to river reaches, with quality and spatial 72 arrangement of habitat units at the finer spatial scales controlled by processes at coarse spatial 73 levels (Gurnell et al., 2016). Regularly occurring floods and droughts make rivers 74 disturbance-driven systems subjected to periodic rejuvenation of habitats through erosion and 75 deposition processes. As a result, LFRs provide a dynamic mosaic of habitats in various successional states that differ in complexity, connectivity and patchiness (e.g., Thorp et al., 76 77 2006), which is usually considered the foundation of their exceptionally high biodiversity 78 (e.g., Tockner and Ward, 1999).

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80 At the same time, LFRs are subject to intense use by humans, including transformation, 81 reclamation, and degradation of the natural landscape (Tockner and Stanford, 2002; Peipoch et al., 2015). Ancient civilizations arose on floodplains by cultivating the fertile land. 82 Increasing agriculture and urbanization, and the associated river regulation (e.g. 83 channelization, building of dams, flood control by levees) over time have substantially 84 85 reduced the area as well as the spatial and temporal complexity of LFRs. For example, more 86 than 50% of the world's population currently lives within 3 km of freshwaters (Kummu et al., 2011), and more than 600,000 km of inland waterways have been altered for navigation 87 88 worldwide (CIA, 2002). The net result is constriction of floodplains by more than 50% of the 89 historical expanse (for details, see Tockner and Stanford, 2002). In Europe, which is the most 90 human dominated continent, up to 90% of former floodplains have been degraded to functional extinction (Tockner et al., 2010). Modification and degradation is ongoing due to 91 92 agriculture, urbanization, navigation and development of large hydropower projects, making 93 LFRs the most threatened ecosystems on Earth (Arthington et al., 2010; Sommerwerk et al., 94 2010).

95 In sum, LFRs are highly complex natural systems of high biodiversity and societal value, but 96 severely degraded and in urgent need of protection and rehabilitation. It shall be noted here 97 that rehabilitation is used throughout this article to reference all measures and attempts to 98 mitigate degradation and to improve ecosystem functions and processes. This acknowledges 99 the persistence and irreversibility of certain uses and changes, respectively, and the 100 corresponding impossibility to restore LFRs to historical or pristine states (i.e. restoration). 101 Due to their size, inherent complexity and integrative nature, LFRs are costly to sample and 102 assess (e.g. de Leeuw et al., 2007; Flotemersch et al., 2011). Broader challenges include the 103 need to identify and prioritize the most pressing stressors on LFRs while balancing 104 conservation and rehabilitation of ecological condition with the diverse benefits that LFRs 105 provide to society (i.e. ecosystem services; see Fig. 1). Accordingly, examples of in-depth 106 assessment of pressure effects, rehabilitation measures in or rehabilitation guidance for LFRs 107 are rather scarce (e.g. Zajicek et al., 2018). Correspondingly, in Germany an analysis of the 108 first river basin management plans implementing the European Water Framework Directive (WFD, 2000/60/EEC) revealed that huge knowledge gaps were evident (especially for large 109 110 rivers), and mostly conceptual measures were planned (Kail and Wolter, 2011). Trade-offs and synergies between the spatial distribution of ecological condition and ecosystem services 111 112 have to be understood and quantified. LFR management is expected to either spare the land for biodiversity conservation or for human use, or to share it between conservation and use for the joint benefit of both nature and the society (Cordingley at et al., 2016; Doody et al., 2016).

115 This evaluation procedure requires scientifically robust methods that can assess the ecological

116 or conservation status of LFRs and also identify optimal solutions for the allocation of

resources (i.e. prioritization of the landscape for conservation/rehabilitation and/or for use).

118 This systematic review aims to evaluate status and progress in assessing and managing LFRs, 119 defining research gaps and future research avenues. Several research and review articles 120 emphasize the importance of natural patterns and processes in the effective conservation of 121 LFRs (e.g. Jungwirth et al., 2002; Thorp et al., 2010). However, a systematic evaluation of 122 assessment approaches for LFRs and how well they address societal goals of maintaining 123 good ecological condition, conserving biodiversity, and capitalizing on ecosystem services is 124 currently lacking. Consequently, we conducted a systematic review to summarize trends in 125 the assessment of ecological condition, conservation and ecosystem services of LFRs. 126 Specifically, we asked the following two questions: 1) how is ecological condition of LFRs 127 assessed, and 2) how can maintenance of ecological condition be balanced with use of 128 ecosystem services of LFRs?

129 Materials and Methods

130 We conducted a systematic evaluation of the peer-reviewed literature relating to the 131 determination, conservation and rehabilitation of ecological condition, the conservation of 132 biodiversity and/or the use of ecosystem services in LFRs. We performed a literature search in 133 the Web of Science (WoS; http://apps.webofknowledge.com) database using the following keywords combination: ("ecological status" OR "ecological condition" OR "ecosystem 134 health" OR "ecological integrity" OR "biological integrity" OR conservation OR 135 rehabilitation OR restoration OR biodiversity OR "ecosystem services") AND (river* OR 136 137 floodplain* OR "floodplain-lake*" OR oxbow*). For simplicity, we selected English 138 language articles only. The search was executed on 11 December 2017, and yielded 2426 139 articles in the time period from 1992 to 2017. All authors were assigned an equal number of 140 articles to screen against review criteria. Because the definition of large rivers varied, we decided to incorporate all studies dealing with potamal floodplain rivers larger than 1000 km² 141 142 in catchment size. Articles were excluded from the analyses if i) the main topic was not 143 related to assessment of ecological condition, conservation or ecosystem services, ii) the focus 144 was only on small streams and rivers, or iii) evaluations were performed at the level of sites or 145 sub-catchments with unclear relation to LFRs. We also excluded review articles, except where 146 they contained detailed case studies for effective evaluation (e.g. details of restoration projects 147 in Jungwirth et al., 2002). This procedure resulted in a total of 153 papers matching our study 148 criteria.

149 From each study, we extracted the location, spatial scale, year(s) of investigation, the 150 floodplain habitat types studied and other circumstances of data collection (see Appendix I.). We paid special attention to evaluating the role of different river-floodplain functional habitat 151 152 types (for details see Amoros et al., 1982; 1987; Ward and Stanford, 1995) in assessment and 153 management goals. We distinguished five habitat types as follows: MR, main river or 154 eupotamon habitats, which include the main channel and side arms that are connected to the main channel even at low flow; FP1, floodplain 1 or parapotamon, and plesiopotamon 155 156 habitats, which are abandoned braided channels or backwaters blocked from upstream 157 (parapotamon) and from both upstream and downstream direction (plesiopotamon), but often 158 connected to the main arm depending on water level; FP2, floodplain 2 or paleopotamon habitats are oxbows in the floodplain area, which are only rarely connected to the river and to other side arm components by surface flow; FPA, flood protected area, which contains oxbows separated completely from the floodplain by dams; and R, riparian areas, which include all other terrestrial habitats belonging to the floodplain.

163 We characterized each study into six categories based on the main study objectives, as (1) 164 assessment of ecological condition (EC; note that this broad term incorporates evaluation of ecological or ecosystem status, health, condition or ecological/biological integrity), (2) 165 166 conservation (C), (3) rehabilitation or restoration (R, hereafter we use the term rehabilitation 167 only, because – although the term is widely used – true restoration, e.g. of pristine or natural conditions of LFR is rarely intended), (4) ecosystem services (ES), (5) trade-off situation 168 169 between C and ES (C/ES), and (6) biodiversity inventory or monitoring (BDM). Studies that 170 addressed more than one topic were classified to more than one type (e.g., to both EC and 171 BDM).

For ecological assessments (EC), we classified the taxonomic group(s), number and type of variables (metrics) used for the evaluation, the number and type of stressors measured, and the characterization of reference condition. For conservation (C), rehabilitation (R) and ecosystem service (ES) studies we examined the components of biodiversity and services, and whether and how trade-off relationships were handled. We also evaluated the reported involvement of stakeholders in achieving study objectives. Further details of the data collected and reviewed are provided in Appendix I.

179 **Results and Discussion**

180 General findings

181 Of the 153 articles reviewed, 60.0%, 24.7%, 9.5%, 4.2%, 1.6%, and 0.0% addressed EC, 182 BDM, R, C, ES, and C/ES, respectively. The geographic distribution of the studies was highly 183 unequal across continents and ecoregions (Fig. 2). A majority of the studies were conducted 184 in Europe (32.0%) and North America (28.1%), whereas studies from Asia (16.3%), Africa 185 (8.5%), South America (7.8%) and Australia and New Zealand (7.2%) were much less 186 represented. Altogether 73 ecoregions were represented in studies. However, a relatively large 187 proportion were conducted in just three ecoregions: Central & Western Europe 10.5% 188 (Europe), the Upper-Danube 9.2% (Europe), and the Lower Mississippi 5.9% (North 189 America).

190 Assessment of ecological condition

191 Evaluation of ecological condition (EC articles) was mostly performed (48.9% of the studies) 192 using main river assemblages (i.e. in eupotamon habitats). In contrast, other floodplain 193 habitats were assessed by a much lower number of studies (Fig. 3). Specifically, floodplain 194 habitats type 1 (parapotamon, plesiopotamon) and type 2 (paleopotamon) were assessed by 195 22.6% and 18.9% of the studies, respectively, and flood protected areas and riparian systems 196 were considered in only 6.3% and 3.2%, respectively. A majority of the studies (60.9%) 197 incorporated only one habitat type for evaluating ecosystem status. Similar numbers of studies 198 evaluated two (16.5%) and three (19.1%) habitat types; however, only 3.5% studies 199 incorporated four habitat types. No study evaluated all five habitat types of LFRs.

200 The taxonomic groups most often used to assess ecological condition were fishes and benthic 201 invertebrates, accounting for 45.6% and 35.0% of the studies, respectively. All other taxa (e.g. 202 algae, macrophytes) were much less frequently used (Fig. 4). 83.0% of the papers used only a 203 single taxonomic group for the assessment, 10% applied two groups, and only 7.0% of the 204 studies used three or more groups. Taxonomic (e.g. species richness, number and/or 205 abundance of specific taxa) and functional (e.g. % omnivores, % invertivores) metrics were 206 the most frequently used biological response variables across all studies. In studies using fish 207 as the response group, index-based approaches (i.e., scoring alteration metrics from a 208 reference value and summing values into a single index) were most common (see e.g. Ganasan and Hughes, 1998; Sharma et al., 2017); however, it should be noted that this 209 210 methodology was typically unchanged from how it is applied to assess site-level degradation 211 in small streams and rivers (e.g., Karr, 1981). Assessments that focused on benthic 212 invertebrates tended to rely on diversity indices (e.g. Shannon-Wiener, Simpson indices) and 213 density metrics (individuals m⁻²) (see e.g. Cabecinha et al., 2004; Raburu et al., 2009), which 214 were only infrequently used in fish based studies. Though few in number, studies on 215 macrophytes incorporated structural vegetation variables like maximum vegetation height. 216 For example, in the San Pedro River, (Gila ecoregion, U.S.A.), Stromberg et al. (2006) 217 examined how groundwater withdrawal influences the ecological condition of the floodplain system based on maximum vegetation height across the floodplain, % shrubland cover, and 218 219 absolute as well relative cover of hydric perennial herbs. Interestingly, algae were also 220 relatively rarely used in EA of LFRs. Utilizing algae as indicators, for example, Greiner et al. (2010) used classification algorithms (Self-Organizing Maps) to set up biotypes along an 221 222 alteration gradient and to determine ecological thresholds for setting up the boundaries of 223 condition classes.

224 Many studies, however, did not use biotic indices or any other quantitative assessment of 225 ecological condition. These studies instead examined how the structure (i.e. presence/absence 226 or relative abundance) of biological assemblages was associated with the degradation (i.e. 227 ecological condition) of the habitats using multivariate community analyses (e.g. Pan et al., 228 2014). Further, some articles exclusively assessed habitat condition, which of course is an 229 important component of overall ecological condition, but cannot be used per se for this 230 purpose, if the biotic response to the habitats is not considered. For example, in Austrian rivers Muhar et al. (2000) concluded that only 43 km (5.9%) out of 731 km of large alluvial 231 232 rivers remained in relatively intact condition using a scoring system that characterized the 233 habitat quality based on morphological character, instream structures, longitudinal and lateral 234 connectivity, and hydrological regime compared with reference conditions.

235 A surprisingly large number of papers did not provide a clear description of the methodology of ecological condition assessment by specifying the type of stressors or the response biotic 236 237 metrics. In fact, many studies used only the biotic groups as indicators of ecological condition 238 without evaluating the role of stressor variables (e.g. only 32.5% of the papers examined 239 stressor metric relationships). When stressors were analyzed as part of the assessment, land 240 use variables (e.g. percentage of forest, agricultural land) were the most frequently used, 241 reported in 54.4% of the papers. Land use is not only easy to derive from thematic maps; it seemingly provides a good approximation for ecological degradation of large rivers. For 242 243 example, Trautwein et al. (2012) found two simple land use metrics, % agriculture and % urbanization, were the best correlated stressor metrics with fish-based biotic indices (i.e. 244 245 ecological condition) in the Upper Danube ecoregion, Austria; however, stream fish 246 assemblages of lower mountain rivers were more sensitive to land use changes than fish assemblages inhabiting low gradient, large rivers. In the Paraiba do Sul ecoregion, Brasil,
Pinto et al. (2006) found land use (especially % pasture, % urban area) and riparian condition
closely associated with fish biotic indices.

250 Physical stressors were assessed in 34.2% of the papers. Among these, connectivity (effect of 251 dams), instream and riparian habitat structure (flow regulation, channel modification) were 252 most frequently measured. For example, in main stem rivers in the Central & Western Europe 253 ecoregion, Czech Republic, Musil et al. (2012) demonstrated that weirs and dams affected the 254 biotic status of fish assemblages. In the Upper Lancang (Mekong) ecoregion, China, Zhai et al. (2010) demonstrated how a series of hydropower dams affected the ecological condition 255 256 due to alteration of flow, water quality and sediment transport. Chemical (i.e. water quality) 257 stressors were utilized in 28.1% of studies and included primarily sediment pollution, point 258 source pollution, concentration of nutrients and oxygen content. For example, in the Liao He 259 ecoregion, China, basic physiochemical parameters, BOD5, CODcr, TN, TP, NH3-N, DO, 260 petroleum hydrocarbon and conductivity were associated with an integrated ecological health index (Meng et al., 2009). This integrated index combines physical habitat quality, fecal 261 coliform count, attached algae diversity, and a benthic index of biotic condition (Meng et al., 262 2009). Biological stressors appeared in only 7.0% of studies, and were largely comprised of 263 the number or abundance of non-native species (fish) and livestock grazing. For example, in 264 265 the Southern Iberia ecoregion, Spain, dominance of non-native fishes was an important 266 determinant of ecological condition indicated by fish-based indices (Hermoso et al., 2010). In the Lake Victoria Basin ecoregion, Kenya, excessive grazing and deforestation affected fish-267 based ecological condition (Raburu and Masase, 2012). Nevertheless, most studies showed 268 269 that a combination of stressors shape the structure and assemblages of biotic communities in 270 large rivers (e.g. Weigel and Dimick, 2011; Sarkar et al., 2017), which corresponds well with 271 findings from smaller streams and rivers (Hering et al., 2006; Feld and Hering, 2007).

Most assessments used either field intensive (50.0%) or field rapid (27.9%) data collection 272 273 methodology (Fig. 5). This result clearly reflects a certain need for extensive sampling of 274 biota to represent status of LFRs, and which can be only partially replaced by modern remote 275 methods, even if collection of biological data is time consuming and resource intensive (e.g. Flotemersch et al., 2011). However, besides conventional methodologies, innovative 276 277 methodological approaches became increasingly implemented. For example, Dzubakova et 278 al., (2015) applied LiDAR imagery to evaluate the dynamics of lateral connectivity in river 279 floodplain habitats, and similarly, Karim et al. (2014) developed a method to quantify 280 connectivity (timing, duration) of floodplain wetlands over space and time using high resolution laser altimetry. A large majority of studies measured ecological condition against a 281 282 reference; however, the method used to define reference conditions varied widely (Fig. 6), 283 with designation of reference sites (29.8%) and modelling stressor-response relationships 284 (29.8%) being equally most important. In contrast, half of the studies did not describe how 285 natural variation was partitioned from human impacts (Fig. 7). When natural variation was 286 addressed, most studies used site-based classifications (i.e. evaluation of sites in major 287 typological classes) or focused on a single habitat type for filtering the role of natural environmental variation to detect perturbation effects (22.8%, Fig. 7). These approaches 288 289 generally concur with those used in smaller streams and rivers (see Roset et al., 2007; 290 Hermoso and Linke, 2012).

291 Conservation, rehabilitation and relationship with ecosystem services

292 Studies addressing management actions were more rehabilitation than conservation oriented. 293 This is probably due to the typically high levels of human use throughout LFRs. Also, 294 although systematic conservation planning exercises may be done at large spatial scales, 295 selection of areas for conservation focus is typically at finer scales (i.e. among stream 296 segments and their associated watersheds) within large river systems (Esselman and Allan, 297 2011; Hermoso et al., 2011; Dolezsai et al., 2015). These studies do not deal with the peculiarities of LFRs by addressing different scales, which are only indirectly related to the 298 299 conservation management of LFRs. Our review suggests that systematic approaches that select among different reaches and floodplain habitats within the potamal section of LFRs are 300 301 relatively rare. We also found that although floodplain habitats and their associated main stem 302 section are often the focus of large scale rehabilitation projects (e.g. Tockner and Schiemer, 303 1997; Whalen et al., 2002), these areas are selected rather haphazardly or based on their 304 ecological status relative to a small number of potential candidate sites (Buijse et al., 2002; 305 Jungwirth et al., 2002; Sommerwerk et al., 2010; Hein et al., 2016). Most rehabilitation efforts 306 targeted the enhancement of habitat at small spatial extents (e.g. hundreds of meters to a few 307 kilometres; see e.g. Thomas et al., 2015; Morandi et al., 2017) or focused on increasing lateral 308 connectivity between the main channel and the floodplain (see e.g. Jacobson et al., 2011; 309 Riguier et al., 2015; Kozak et al., 2016). The emergent general conclusion of the studies is: 310 although in many cases rehabilitation activities enhanced habitat conditions and increased 311 biodiversity to some degree, the outcome of the rehabilitation depended greatly on the 312 selected abiotic and biotic variables, the spatial scale of the rehabilitation activity and the 313 temporal scales considered for evaluating rehabilitation effects (Bernhardt et al., 2005; Palmer 314 et al., 2010; Muhar et al., 2016). Prime reasons for failure of rehabilitation activities in LFRs were: i) the overarching effect of catchment or landscape level alterations, ii) inadequate 315 316 improvement of instream habitat quality, iii) limited recolonization potential of the species 317 pool, and iv) the lack of a diverse species pool in the altered catchments (Palmer et al., 2010; 318 Tonkin et al., 2014; Muhar et al., 2016; Stoll et al., 2016).

We found surprisingly few papers (1.6%) addressing ecosystem services in LFRs. Although 319 320 the number of studies on ecosystem services of freshwaters is generally increasing, Hanna et 321 al. (2018) concluded these are almost exclusively quantifying ecosystem services at the scale 322 of watersheds or across multiple watersheds. Consequently, this review agrees with Hanna et 323 al. (2018) that evaluation of ecosystem services at the scale of LFRs is still rare. Ecosystem 324 services studies also did not distinguish between the different functional units of river-325 floodplain habitat types (i.e. eupotamon, parapotamon, plesiopotamon) and their potential role 326 in ecosystem services provision. An important exception is Schindler et al. (2014), who 327 reviewed the effects of 38 floodplain management interventions on 21 ecosystem services. 328 The authors found that rehabilitation measures generally improved the multifunctionality of 329 the riverscape and resulted in win-win situations for enhancing the overall supply of 330 ecosystem services (Schindler et al., 2014, 2016). Overall, the number of studies is still too 331 low for meaningful analyses of the relationships between biodiversity conservation, 332 maintenance of ecological condition and ecosystem services in LFRs (but see e.g. Thorp et 333 al., 2010 for a more general paper).

334 Conclusions and suggestions for future research

335 Our systematic review revealed a strong geographic bias in the literature toward developed

- 336 countries in Europe and North America. Given systematically high levels of threat to rivers
- around the globe (Vörösmarty et al. 2010), this is a substantial research gap and further
- 338 studies are clearly required in less examined continents to better understand the ecology and

- 339 conservation management of LFRs. In fact, conservation management of LFRs could
- 340 significantly benefit from intensive research in currently less studied and still relatively intact
- 341 LFRs in terms of spatial organization of habitat patterns, functional connectivity between
- 342 them and potential reference conditions. Europe and North America have a long history of
- intense, large scale river engineering and use and thus, largely lack stretches appropriate for
- 344 use as natural references. Potential reference LFRs, however, may still exist in less developed
- areas, such as areas of South America, Asia and Africa. Even if they occur in markedly
 different biogeographic realms than more altered LFRs, which limits their applicability as
- reference for taxonomic evaluations, they can still provide reference for functional
- 348 composition of species communities as well as functional connectivity between resources and
- thus, will enhance our understanding of ecological function and processes in LFRs. We
- acknowledge that ecology of LFRs has been investigated in some areas that our review
- 351 indicates are understudied (e.g. in Russia and China), where results have simply not yet
- 352 reached the English-dominated contemporary scientific literature.

353 Our review suggests that most ecological assessments to date have adopted use of classical 354 biotic index based evaluations (e.g. Angermeier and Karr, 1994; Karr, 1999). Not surprisingly, these evaluations rely largely on fish and benthic invertebrate assemblages. Both 355 356 taxa have a relatively long history of development and application as indicators (Karr, 1981), 357 with established sampling guidance and diagnostic tools, particularly in small rivers (Herman 358 and Nejadhashemi, 2015). However, it should be noted that the number of articles specifically 359 addressing application of biotic indices in LFRs is low. Many studies applied sampling at the 360 watershed level, where samples from small streams to large rivers were evaluated using the 361 same methodological protocol. In addition, most studies evaluated the status of main stem 362 river habitats only (see e.g. Flotemersch et al., 2006; Whittier et al., 2007; Birk et al., 2012a; 363 Ruaro and Gubiani, 2013), but did not specifically consider the peculiarities of LFRs. The 364 number of articles addressing the ecological assessment of the whole riverine landscape (i.e. 365 all types of riverscape habitats) was very small (Fig. 3).

366 Most indices used to evaluate biotic condition were not specific to LFRs. A notable exception is the floodplain index, which was developed to assess ecological condition of and lateral 367 368 connectivity between individual water bodies within a floodplain landscape (multiple riverine 369 habitat types). The index is based on species specific habitat preferences, which were assigned to indicator values (Chovanec and Waringer, 2001; Chovanec et al., 2005; Illyova and 370 371 Matecni, 2014; Šporka et al., 2016; Funk et al., 2017). The index is an effective biological 372 indicator of spatial and temporal changes in the lateral hydrological connectivity of riverfloodplain functional habitat types (Chovanec et al., 2005; Šporka et al., 2016). Since 373 374 dynamic lateral hydrological connectivity is one of the most important determinants of river-375 floodplain systems (Bayley, 1995; Johnson et al., 1995; Ward et al., 2001), the floodplain 376 index may serve as key measure for evaluating the ecological condition of LFRs at the 377 landscape scale. However, the floodplain index cannot be related to specific stressors and 378 thus, may not effectively indicate the summed effect of different physical, chemical and 379 biological stressors on biota and the LFR system in general. Therefore, other metrics are also 380 necessary for the effective evaluation of the ecological condition of LFRs, which we briefly 381 review here to guide future assessment research.

To quantify the degree of landscape alteration and assess ecological condition it is necessary to determine how much area of the original landscape has been lost, and how structural components and functional processes have been altered (Beechie et al., 2010; Peipoch et al., 385 2015). However, most biotic indices quantify only site level alteration and consequently do 386 not consider or provide information on habitat loss and alteration - including spatial 387 configuration and diversity of different habitat types - at the landscape level. LFRs suffered 388 most from large scale loss of their original habitat due to increasing agricultural land use 389 (Tockner and Stanford, 2002). Therefore, we suggest that assessments of LFRs should 390 explicitly incorporate landscape level metrics of habitat alteration. Patch based evaluations of 391 habitat quantity, complexity (i.e. configuration, diversity, connectivity of patches) and quality 392 are routinely used in terrestrial landscape ecology (Pascual-Hortal and Saura, 2006; Lausch et 393 al., 2015). However, their application in riverscape ecology warrants greater consideration 394 (Erős and Grant, 2015), particularly in ecological assessment and conservation management. 395 For example, environmental history provides an excellent approach for quantifying spatial 396 and temporal changes in habitat quantity, configuration and diversity in LFRs (see e.g. 397 Hohensinner et al., 2004; Farkas-Iványi and Trájer, 2015). Further, graph theoretic and other 398 network based methods are increasingly applied to quantify connectivity relationships (Erős et 399 al., 2012; Wohl et al., 2018). In addition, since lateral diversity of habitats and the biota is a 400 key component of LFRs, the floodplain index mentioned above can serve as a coarse measure 401 for spatial and temporal changes in hydrologic connectivity and its effects on biota. Modelling 402 stressor response relationships with more effective analytical tools (e.g. machine learning 403 methods, Bayesian models) may lead to better predictive indices in the future (Kuehne et al., 404 2017). These tools could better incorporate both structural and functional parameters. In fact, 405 measures of ecosystem function (e.g. water retention, organic matter decomposition, 406 production of trophic levels) are still underutilized in river management (von Schiller et al., 407 2017). Overall, what is still missing is a more holistic approach, i.e. the effective integration 408 of the different approaches in a unified assessment framework (but see Flotemersch et al., 409 2016 for an approach at the watershed level).

410 Classic indices are routinely used for determining quality of the biota (Birk et al., 2012a, 411 2012b; Ruaro and Gubiani, 2013). However, local, single habitat and single index based 412 assessments may fail to correctly reflect the broader ecological condition of LFRs and the 413 alteration of the riverscape (see also Moss et al., 2008), particularly if areas lost by water 414 regulation, land use alteration and other kinds of habitat modification are not considered. For 415 example, a riverscape that has lost 90% of its original area may show good ecological 416 condition at the local scale, due to remnant river-floodplain segments with sufficient habitat 417 quality and connectivity, while at the catchment scale the riverscape is seriously altered. This 418 narrow focus on the site scale and single elements of the riverscape is standard in most environmental assessments of LFRs. For example, in Hungary the assessment of the 419 420 ecological condition of large floodplain rivers (Danube, Tisza) is exclusively based on 421 monitoring the main channel and the floodable area along the river. Oxbows and former side 422 arms in the historic floodplain are treated as lakes in the ecological assessment procedure and 423 their ecological condition is evaluated based on the criteria established for lakes. The formerly 424 vast floodplain area cut off by levees for flood protection is considered terrestrial habitat and 425 thus not evaluated at all. In the German environmental assessment system for the WFD, even 426 the active floodplain is not considered part of the water body and thus not addressed by 427 monitoring. Approaches that restrict the riverscape to the floodplain remaining between 428 levees fall short in assessing the ecological condition, because they ignore the original extent 429 of the riverscape as reference. Such an assessment largely underestimates the loss of habitats, 430 neglects lateral fragmentation effects and consequently cannot estimate the full losses due to 431 human alteration of LFRs. We are fully aware that many historical floodplain areas are 432 irreversibly lost; however, we argue for their conceptual consideration as functional habitats. 433 For fish in particular, small floodplain water bodies that are infrequently connected with the

main channel have been identified as key habitats for floodplain specialists (Schomaker and
Wolter, 2011). We argue that integrating landscape level and local scale evaluations will lead
to more effective evaluation of the ecological condition of LFRs. The joint application of the
different types of indicators of environmental quantity, complexity and quality together with
information on ecological threat indices (Paukert et al., 2011; Tulloch et al., 2015) will allow
development of more informed conservation and management decisions.

440 Limitations on conservation resources means that it is critically important to optimize 441 solutions across multiple conservation/rehabilitation purposes and/or other ecosystem services. As indicated by the very low number of articles on ecosystem services of LFRs, this 442 443 challenge remains widely unaddressed. Furthermore, studies that specifically quantify trade-444 off relationships between different ecosystem services and biodiversity conservation or the 445 maintenance of ecological condition are virtually lacking for LFRs. Watershed level studies 446 offer examples of how to optimize land use for the delivery of ecosystem services and for 447 conservation and/or rehabilitation of biota (e.g. Doody et al., 2016; Terrado et al., 2016; Erős 448 et al., 2018). Similar studies should be conducted in the segments of LFRs, because 449 examining trade-off relationships at larger scales and spatial extents may require different 450 approaches and result in different management outcomes (Erős et al., 2018; Hanna et al., 451 2018).

452 In LFRs, selecting areas for conservation or rehabilitation should focus on reaches sufficiently 453 large to maintain a diverse array of floodplain habitat types and a diverse biotic community 454 (Hein et al., 2016). Spatial prioritization and optimization approaches could help to define 455 river segments 1) of priority for conservation and/or rehabilitation (e.g. biodiversity hotspots, 456 regeneration potential, nutrient retention, ecotourism), 2) primarily for human use (e.g. 457 infrastructure, housing, gravel mining), and 3) for both conservation functions and human use 458 shared according to societal needs and intentions. Taking the "land sharing versus land 459 sparing debate" (see Fisher et al., 2014; Shackelford et al, 2015) into the water would be 460 useful for developing more effective conservation decisions that address societal concerns, 461 especially for LFRs, where human needs for water seem to be in special conflict with 462 conservation aims (Arthington et al., 2010; Sommerwerk et al., 2010).

463 In summary, our review of the ecological research identified substantial challenges in 464 assessing and managing LFRs, primarily emerging from an insufficient recognition of the 465 spatial (longitudinal and lateral) and temporal complexity of LFRs. This review highlights research gaps and emphasizes the importance of developing more holistic indicators and 466 467 assessment schemes of ecological condition that can better reveal landscape level changes in 468 the structure and functioning of LFRs. Improved assessment tools will help to effectively 469 select areas for conservation and rehabilitation, and evaluate those areas which are 470 rehabilitated. Indeed, as human use of water and land is increasing, developing effective 471 spatial prioritization tools becomes more important. Empirical research in this field can aid in 472 solving conflicts between socio-economic demands for ecosystem services and nature 473 conservation in LFRs.

474

475 Acknowledgements

476 This work was supported by the GINOP 2.3.3-15-2016-00019 grant.

477 Literature

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793 **Captions to figures**

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Figure 1. A schematic representation of the purpose of this study for exploring the assessment of ecological condition and its relationship with ecosystem services and for showing the balance between conserving and/or rehabilitating nature and utilizing it for human purposes appearing in peer-reviewed scientific articles.

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Figure 2. The distribution of the studies among continents and ecoregions. Letters indicate the
type of the article as follows. EC, assessment of ecological condition; C, conservation; R,
rehabilitation/restoration; ES, ecosystem services; BDM, biodiversity inventory or
monitoring; C/ES, trade-off between C and ES.

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Figure 3. The percentage (%) distribution of the studies among the different river-floodplain
habitat types. Abbreviations for the functional habitat types are as follows. MR, main river
(eupotamon); FP1, floodplain 1 (parapotamon, plesiopotamon); FP2, floodplain 2
(paleopotamon); FPA, former riverscape habitats in the flood protected area (oxbows etc);
RIP, riparian areas.

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Figure 4. Representation (percentage % of all studies) of different taxonomic groups used toevaluate ecological condition in EC studies.

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Figure 5. The percentage (%) distribution of the type of data collection methods for the assessment of ecological condition among the articles. Field-intensive (>0.5 day site⁻¹), fieldrapid (<0.5 day site⁻¹), desktop (based primarily on spatial and/or remotely sensed data), expert (synthesis of expert knowledge).

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Figure 6. The percentage (%) distribution of the methods of defining reference condition
among the articles. Basis of comparison for ecological condition: Site, selection of reference
sites; BPJ, best professional judgement or expert knowledge; Historical, based on empirically
derived estimate of historical condition; Model, models reference conditions using empirical
approach; Ambient, uses measured range of response.

Figure 7. The percentage (%) distribution of the methods among EC articles that partitioned natural variation from anthropogenic impacts. The categories used were as follows. Classification, categorization of sites based on their habitat characteristics; Untest, univariate tests of factors; Model, models which account for natural gradients; RGR, restricting geographic range.

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Fig. 3.











