

1 Evaluating ecosystem functioning following river restoration: the  
2 role of hydromorphology, bacteria, and macroinvertebrates

3 Running head: Ecosystem function in restored rivers

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36 **ABSTRACT**

37 Ecological restoration of freshwater ecosystems is now being implemented to  
38 mitigate anthropogenic disruption. Most emphasis is placed on assessing  
39 physico-chemical and hydro-morphological properties to monitor restoration  
40 progress. However, less is known about the structural integrity and ecosystem  
41 health of aquatic ecosystems. In particular, little is known about how ecosystem  
42 function changes following river habitat restoration, especially in China. Leaf  
43 litter decomposition can be used as an indicator of stream ecosystem integrity.  
44 Therefore, the leaf breakdown rate was measured to assess the ecosystem  
45 function of restored rivers. By comparing leaf breakdown rates in urban rivers  
46 undergoing habitat restoration with that in degraded urban rivers and rivers in  
47 forested areas (i.e., reference conditions), we aimed to determine: (i) how  
48 habitat restoration affected leaf litter decomposition? (ii) the relationship  
49 between leaf litter decomposition to both environmental (habitat and physico-  
50 chemical variables) and biological factors (benthic communities), and (iii)  
51 identify the factors that contribute most to the variance in leaf litter breakdown  
52 rates. The results demonstrated a significant increase in leaf breakdown rate  
53 (120% in summer and 28% in winter) in the restored rivers compared to the  
54 degraded rivers. All environmental and biotic factors evaluated contributed  
55 synergistically to the differences in leaf litter decomposition among the three  
56 river types. The role of macroinvertebrates, mainly shredders, appeared to be

57 particularly important, contributing 52% (summer) and 33% (winter) to the  
58 variance in decomposition, followed by habitat characteristics (e.g. substrate  
59 diversity, water velocity; 17% in summer, 29% in winter), physico-chemical  
60 variables (e.g. nutrient and organic pollutants; 11% in summer, 1% in winter)  
61 and biofilm bacteria (0% in summer, 15% in winter). Habitat restoration  
62 positively affected the structure and function of the previously degraded  
63 streams. Knowledge on controlling variables and their attribution to changes of  
64 ecosystem functioning provides guidance to assist the future planning of  
65 ecological restoration strategies.

66

67 *Keywords:* habitat restoration, ecosystem function, leaf litter breakdown, river  
68 ecosystems, freshwater management

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## 72 **1. Introduction**

73 With the increasing use of habitat restoration to manage freshwater  
74 ecosystems around the world, an abundance of publications emerged about  
75 the monitoring and evaluation of restoration projects (Bernhardt et al. 2005;  
76 Palmer and Ruhi 2019). Evaluation of restoration not only monitors the  
77 progress of the restoration, but the experience gained can be used as a basis  
78 to form more systematic and efficient restoration strategies for future endeavors  
79 (Knodolf and Micheli 1995; Zan et al. 2017). Within the overall assessment  
80 process, it is important to include both structural and functional variables when  
81 evaluating the response of ecosystem condition to human activities (Matthews  
82 et al. 1982; Gessner and Chauvet 2002; Pascoal et al. 2005). Currently, water  
83 quality and hydro-morphological aspects of study receive the greatest attention  
84 for monitoring the restoration progress in freshwater systems. A few studies  
85 included biological indicators such as measures of microbes, algae,  
86 invertebrates, and fish to assess the structural integrity and ecosystem health  
87 (Coe et al. 2009; Frainer et al. 2017; Schmutz et al. 2016). However, few  
88 studies have been conducted to assess the functional ecosystem response to  
89 freshwater management by examining processes such as primary production,  
90 ecosystem respiration (Niyogi et al. 2002; Colangelo 2007; Aldridge et al. 2009),  
91 or leaf litter decomposition (Dangles et al. 2004; Wenger et al. 2009; Flores et  
92 al. 2011).

93 Anthropogenic disturbances (such as logging and damming) impact  
94 freshwaters in many ways, including geomorphology, hydrology, water quality,  
95 riparian plant communities, aquatic communities, and many other factors (Little  
96 and Altermatt 2018; Hashemi et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019). River ecological  
97 restoration, in turn, may reverse this damage through restructuring  
98 heterogeneous habitat, re-introducing aquatic plants, riparian zone re-  
99 forestation, etc., all of which can directly or indirectly affect organic matter  
100 breakdown in streams.

101 Organic matter breakdown is important ecosystem function in aquatic  
102 system in terms of nutrient cycling and energy flow (McKie et al. 2006; Tiegs et  
103 al. 2019), driving the stream food-web interactions (Zhang et al. 2004). Organic  
104 matter breakdown has been proposed as a good indicator of ecosystem  
105 integrity (Pascoal et al. 2005; McKie and Malmqvist 2009), and an alternative  
106 measure of stream health (Young et al. 2008; Niyogi et al. 2013). Such  
107 ecosystem functioning is regulated by both physico-chemical and biological  
108 factors (Pascoal and Cassio 2004). Environmental factors such as pH (Dangles  
109 et al. 2004), temperature (Ferreira and Chauvet 2011; Martínez et al. 2014),  
110 current velocity (Martínez et al. 2015), organic matter input (Graça et al. 2015),  
111 and leaf nutrient status (Greenwood et al. 2007; Pérez et al. 2012) can play  
112 important roles in influencing leaf litter decomposition. Elevated temperature  
113 and dissolved nutrients (N and P) in streams speed up leaf decomposition

114 through stimulating microbial activity (Gulis et al. 2006; Hladyz et al.  
115 2010; Ferreira and Chauvet 2011) and increase the abundance and biomass  
116 of shredders (Robinson and Gessner 2000). High inputs of nutrients and  
117 organic matter, however, slow down leaf decay rate by reducing the activity of  
118 microbial and invertebrate decomposers as a result of a reduction in dissolved  
119 oxygen (Medeiros et al. 2008). Faster flow velocity may enhance leaf  
120 decomposition through increasing shear force on leaf litters (Paul et al. 2006).  
121 In contrast, acidification can slow leaf breakdown by affecting the diversity and  
122 activity of aquatic organisms (Dangles and Chauvet 2003) and pollution with  
123 heavy metals can harm both microbes and macroinvertebrates (Niyogi et al.  
124 2001).

125 Leaf litter decomposition may also be influenced by the interactions of those  
126 aquatic organisms that convert leaf litter mass to fine particulate organic matter  
127 (FPOM), dissolved organic matter, and CO<sub>2</sub> (Gessner et al. 1999; Zhang et al.  
128 2003). Starting from microbial colonization, micro-organisms spread over the  
129 leaf surface, then penetrate the leaf interior, reducing leaf toughness through  
130 hydrolytic processes, and contribute to leaf litter mineralization (Hieber and  
131 Gessner 2002; Gessner et al. 2010). Both softened leaves and colonized  
132 microbes enhances the food quality, provides important nutrients for  
133 invertebrates (Graça 2001). Macroinvertebrates can be classified into five  
134 functional feeding groups (FFGs; Mandaville 2002), collector-gatherers (C-G),

135 collector–filterers (C-F), scrapers (Scr), shredders (Shr), and predators (Prd).  
136 Among these FFGs, the feeding activity of leaf-shredding insects were thought  
137 to be most important in accounting for differences in leaf breakdown rates  
138 between streams (Benfield et al. 1991). Shredding invertebrates speed up leaf  
139 decomposition by breaking coarse particulate organic matter into smaller  
140 fragments (Suberkropp 1998; Gulis and Suberkropp 2003; Martínez et al. 2015).  
141 The enhanced surface area of recalcitrant compounds, in turn, stimulates the  
142 colonization of microbial species favoring the metabolism of such compounds  
143 (Gessner et al., 2010; Noël et al. 2020), contributing to the subsequent  
144 decomposition and overall mineralization (Palmer and Ruhi, 2019).

145 In summary, environmental and biological factors contribute synergistically  
146 to leaf decay in the aquatic ecosystems. However, the relative importance of  
147 environmental and aquatic organisms on leaf breakdown has rarely been  
148 studied (Encalada et al. 2010), particularly in streams of shifting habitat status.  
149 In this study, we compared leaf litter breakdown rates, as a measure of  
150 ecosystem function in three contrasting river types: i.e. (1) degraded urban  
151 rivers, (2) urban rivers undergoing habitat restoration and (3) rivers in forested  
152 areas (i.e., reference conditions) (Fig. 1). In each we assessed the importance  
153 of the habitat composition, water chemistry and both benthic bacterial and  
154 macroinvertebrate communities in two seasons (winter and summer). We  
155 aimed to determine: (i) how habitat restoration affects leaf litter decomposition?



156 (ii) the relationship between leaf decomposition to both habitat factors  
157 (substrate diversity, water velocity) and physico-chemical variables, (iii) the  
158 relationship between leaf litter breakdown and benthic organisms, and (iv)  
159 which factors contribute to most of the variance in leaf litter breakdown rate  
160 within these three river types. Our first hypothesis is that stream habitat  
161 restoration would enhance the leaf breakdown rate and be a useful indicator of  
162 success. Our second hypothesis is that leaf decomposition would be affected  
163 by both abiotic and biological factors. Habitat restoration will lead to faster  
164 current velocity that speed the leaf decay through physical process. Improved  
165 substrate diversity, dissolved oxygen and living space would shift the  
166 community composition and stimulate the microbial and macroinvertebrate  
167 activities in decomposing leaf litters. Our third hypothesis is that microbes and  
168 macroinvertebrate will contribute more on leaf mass loss than abiotic factors  
169 through microbial degradation and feeding activity of shredders.

170       Practically, knowledge derived from this study will enrich our understanding  
171 on the response of ecosystem function to river ecological restoration and linked  
172 important controlling variables, which will be useful for policymakers and water  
173 managers in future planning of ecological restoration strategies for degraded  
174 freshwater streams (Solangi et al. 2019).

175

## 176 **2. Methods**

177 *2.1. Study sites*

178 This study investigated three stream types (Fig. S1), each with three  
179 replicates in both winter (December 2017 to January 2018) and summer (June  
180 to August 2018). The stream types were a reference forest stream, a restored  
181 urban stream, and a degraded urban stream. The nine streams are located in  
182 the same watershed (the Shaoxi River), Zhejiang Province PRC within the Anji  
183 City Region.

184 The degraded rivers possessed similar conditions to those in the pre-  
185 restored urban rivers (Lin et al. 2019). The degraded urban rivers were  
186 canalized with concrete, had high cover of mud, and high pollutant loads and  
187 were classified recently as “rivers to be restored” by the local water  
188 conservancy bureau. The three restored urban rivers had been restored for up  
189 to seven years using an ecological restoration strategy in an attempt to recover  
190 a more natural river form. This involved re-connection and re-meandering the  
191 river channels, natural reconstruction of the riverbed using diverse substrates  
192 (e.g. boulders, cobbles, and pebbles), construction of floating islands,  
193 transplant of submerged macrophytes and emergent plants, and riparian zone  
194 re-afforestation. The three undisturbed forest streams were 40-km upstream of  
195 these urban rivers within the Tianmu Mountains and were viewed as  
196 approximations to reference sites, for the pre-urban landscape form they  
197 represented (Violin et al. 2011).

198

199 *2.2. Habitat characteristics (denoted Habitat)*

200 Habitat surveys were performed in both winter and summer. Within each  
201 river, we visually estimated the reach canopy cover, counted the river-bed types,  
202 measured the water velocity across the channel by Teledyne flow meters (ISCO,  
203 Lincoln, NE, USA), and tested the substrate composition by selecting 100  
204 sediment particles on the riverbed randomly and counting the percentage of  
205 substrate classes (boulders, cobbles, pebbles, sand grains), according to  
206 Kondolf (1997). The substrate diversity was calculated for each site by means  
207 of the Shannon-Weiner diversity index  $H'$  (Shannon 1997) for each site.

208

209 *2.3. Physico-chemical parameters of stream water (denoted ENV)*

210 Physico-chemical characteristics of surface water were measured in three  
211 sampling spots in each stream in both experimental seasons. pH, dissolved  
212 oxygen (DO) and turbidity were *in situ* measured with a HACH pH/temperature  
213 meter (LA-pH 10, HACH, Loveland, CO, USA), a YSI (Professional Plus, YSI  
214 Incorporated, Yellow Springs, OH, USA), and a turbidity meter (DR2100Q,  
215 HACH, Loveland, CO, USA) respectively. One liter of water sample was  
216 collected from each location, filtered through 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  filters, and analysed  
217 within 48 hour for a range of chemical measures, these included ammonium  
218 nitrogen ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ), nitrate-nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ), total phosphorus (TP) with a Lachat

219 flow injection analyzer (QuickChem 8500, Hach, USA), total organic carbon  
220 (TOC), total nitrogen (TN) with a total organic carbon analyzer (Multi N/C3100,  
221 Jena, Germany), and chemical oxygen demand (COD) with a COD analyzer  
222 (DR1010, HACH, Loveland, CO, USA).

223

#### 224 *2.4. Spatial factors (denoted Spatial factor)*

225 Geographical position and dispersal across the rivers were assessed using  
226 Principal Coordinates of Neighborhood Matrices (PCNM) (Guo et al., 2019). An  
227 euclidean distance matrix was calculated using geographic coordinates  
228 (latitude and longitude) with the 'earth.dist' function in the 'fossil' R package.  
229 PCNM matrices were then derived using the 'pcnm' function in the 'vegan' R  
230 package (Jyrkänkallio-Mikkola et al., 2017). Seven PCNMs were generated,  
231 and those with positive eigenvalues (PCNM2-5) together with latitude and  
232 longitude were used as spatial factors (Guo et al., 2019).

233

#### 234 *2.5. Macroinvertebrates*

235 Macroinvertebrates were sampled in three randomly-distributed sampling  
236 quadrats (1m x 1m) close to leaf bags in each river using a kick net (opening:  
237 9.5 cm x 14.5 cm; mesh size: 500 mm) in both winter (January 2018) and  
238 summer (August 2018) to coincide with the end of the litter breakdown studies.  
239 After disturbing substrates for around ten minutes, macroinvertebrate samples

240 were collected and *in situ* stored in 70% ethanol. Macroinvertebrates were then  
241 sorted and identified to family level according to Merritt et al. (2008). Alpha-  
242 diversity indices ( $\alpha$ -diversity, i.e. total abundance, total richness, Shannon-  
243 Wiener diversity) were calculated; all macroinvertebrates except Chironomidae  
244 were classified into functional feeding groups (FFGs) at family level according  
245 to Mandaville (2002), i.e. shredder, collector-gather, predator, scraper,  
246 collector-filterer. The relative abundance of each FFG was calculated and  
247 analyzed.

248

## 249 *2.6. Biofilm Bacteria*

250 Biofilm colonized on three 10 cm × 10 cm autoclaved unglazed ceramic tiles  
251 at 0.3 water depth of rivers were collected from each river after 39 days  
252 experiment in both seasons. After scraping and filtering on 0.22  $\mu$ m pore size  
253 polycarbonate membrane filters (Millipore, MA, USA), DNA was extracted (MO  
254 BIO PowerBiofilm<sup>®</sup> DNA Isolation Kit, MO BIO Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA,  
255 USA) for each sample based on these filtrates, the V3-V4 region of bacterial  
256 16S rRNA genes were amplified using PCR primer pairs 237F/802R according  
257 to protocol described in Lin et al. 2019, purified via MagPure Gel Pure DNA  
258 Mini Kit (Magen, Guangzhou, China) and sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq  
259 platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) at Suzhou Genewiz Company.

260 Sequences were treated and analysed via QIIME 1.8.0. Following removal  
261 of the primer, all low-quality reads that containing ambiguous characters, a  
262 sequence length less than 200 bp, and having an average quality score < 20  
263 were discarded. After removal of chimeras detected using the UCHIME  
264 algorithm (Edgar et al. 2011), the high-quality reads were clustered into OTUs  
265 (Operational Taxonomic Units) via USEARCH (1.9.6) with a 97% similarity  
266 (Edgar 2010). All OTUs were then assigned to taxonomic category using the  
267 Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) classifier at a confidence threshold of 0.8.  
268 Bacterial  $\alpha$ -diversity indices (i.e. Shannon-Weiner index; Chao1 richness) were  
269 calculated based on the results of the operational taxonomic units (OTUs).

270

## 271 *2.7. Leaf Litter Decomposition*

272 Leaves of *Cinnamomun camphora* (Camphor), an evergreen and widely  
273 distributed tree in Southern China, were collected just after abscission around  
274 the Xi'an-Jiaotong Liverpool University campus (31°16'28" N, 120°44'17" E) in  
275 November 2017 and May 2018 for winter and summer experiment, respectively.  
276 After gently removing small, attached particles, intact leaves were oven dried  
277 at 60°C for 48 hours, weighed into 5g groups, and placed in coarse-mesh (8-  
278 mm mesh) bags (16/20 cm). Six leaf bags were prepared and distributed at the  
279 bottom of each river on the first day of the experiment in each season. Four leaf  
280 bags were retrieved from each river after 39d of leaf immersion, with the other

281 two bags missing. The collected leaves were gently rinsed with deionized water,  
282 dried at 60°C to constant mass (48 h), and weighed to the nearest 0.001 g. The  
283 leaf breakdown rate was calculated according to the formula:

284

$$285 \ln (W_t/W_0) = - kt + b$$

286

287 Where  $W_t$  is the leaf weight remaining at time  $t$ ,  $W_0$  is the initial leaf weight,  $t$  is  
288 the time in d, and  $b$  is the y-intercept.

289

## 290 *2.8. Statistical analysis*

291 All data were analyzed using R (version 3.6.1, R Core Team 2019).  
292 Differences in habitat characteristics, water chemistry,  $\alpha$ -diversity of bacteria,  
293 macroinvertebrate, relative abundance of macroinvertebrate FFGs, and leaf  
294 breakdown rate in three stream types as well as the temporal difference of leaf  
295 litter decomposition were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (Torres-  
296 Mellado et al. 2012), followed by the Tukey–Kramer post hoc test for  
297 comparison of means. To explore relationships between habitat characteristics,  
298 physico-chemical features, biofilm bacterial community, macroinvertebrate  
299 community, and leaf breakdown rate, Spearman's correlation coefficients were  
300 calculated. Environmental factors and leaf decomposition rate were  $\ln(x + 1)$   
301 transformed if the residuals deviated from normality, and explanatory factor that

302 reflects notable multi-collinearity (Spearman correlation coefficient  $\geq 0.85$ ) was  
303 excluded from further analysis (Cai et al. 2017). Stepwise multiple regression  
304 analysis was implemented to determine the best model that best explained the  
305 difference in leaf breakdown rate. We selected explanatory variables by  
306 performing forward selection using the 'adespatial' package in R. Monte Carlo  
307 permutation tests was then used to test the response significance of litter  
308 breakdown rates to abiotic (physico-chemical and habitat variables) and biotic  
309 (bacterial and macroinvertebrate taxonomic variables) indices. Finally,  
310 variables selected by forward selection in the 'packfor' R package were  
311 assigned into three factor groups (Habitat, ENV, Spatial), all variables were  
312 grouped into four explanatory factor groups: habitat, environmental, bacteria,  
313 and macroinvertebrate, variation partitioning was performed to test the  
314 contribution of spatial factors to the variance in leaf mass loss, and to explore  
315 the contribution of abiotic and biotic factors to the variation of leaf breakdown  
316 rate using the 'varpart' function in the 'vegan' R package (Oksanen et al. 2019).

317

### 318 **3. Results**

#### 319 *3.1. Abiotic variables*

320 The variations of abiotic variables in winter 2017 and summer 2018 are  
321 displayed in Table 1. Briefly, forest and restored rivers exhibited a substantially  
322 greater substrate diversity than degraded rivers ( $p < 0.05$ ). In summer, rivers



323 undergoing habitat restoration have a faster current velocity than the other two  
324 river types ( $p < 0.05$ ). Degraded rivers had notable greater concentrations of  
325 TN, TOC, COD, and turbidity ( $p = 0.003$ ,  $p = 0.047$ ,  $p = 0.032$ , and  $p = 0.014$ ,  
326 respectively) than the forest rivers. Restored rivers had increased turbidity and  
327 TN concentrations ( $p = 0.013$  and  $p = 0.060$ , respectively) when compared to  
328 forest rivers and a lower concentration of TN than the degraded ones ( $p =$   
329  $0.073$ ). In winter, forest rivers had greater DO concentrations, lesser TOC,  
330 lower turbidity than that in the degraded rivers ( $p = 0.029$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ,  
331 respectively), and lower TOC than the restored river ( $p = 0.027$ ); compared with  
332 degraded rivers, restored rivers had greater DO and slightly reduced TOC  
333 concentration after habitat restoration ( $p = 0.049$ ,  $p = 0.122$ , respectively).

334

### 335 *3.2. Biotic variables*

336 As summarized in Fig. 2a-e and Table 2b, the taxonomic diversity of  
337 macroinvertebrate as well as the relative abundance of shredder and collector-  
338 gatherer tested in summer 2018 were much smaller in degraded rivers, and  
339 greater in forest and restored rivers ( $p < 0.05$ ). No difference of these indices  
340 was recorded between restored rivers and reference forest rivers ( $p > 0.05$ ). No  
341 differences were detected among three river types with regard to biofilm  
342 bacterial taxonomic compositions (Table 2, Chao1 richness ( $p > 0.05$ ). Bacterial  
343 Shannon-Wiener diversity was much greater in restored and degraded rivers

344 than forest ones ( $p < 0.05$ ); restored rivers had comparable bacterial diversity  
345 with degraded ones ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Fig 2f).

346 In winter 2018, the taxonomic diversity of macroinvertebrates had a similar  
347 trend as that collected in summer investigation (Table 2b). Macroinvertebrate  
348  $\alpha$ -diversity presented considerable heterogeneity for total abundance ( $F_{2,6} =$   
349  $18.19$ ,  $p = 0.0037$ ), total richness ( $F_{2,6} = 19.14$ ,  $p = 0.0033$ ), Shannon-Wiener  
350 diversity ( $F_{2,6} = 17.91$ ,  $p = 0.0039$ ), relative abundance of shredder ( $F_{2,6} = 12.9$ ,  
351  $p = 0.0088$ ) and relative abundance of collector-gatherer ( $F_{2,6} = 21.07$ ,  $p =$   
352  $0.0025$ ). Forest and restored rivers have far more macroinvertebrate  
353 abundance, richness, and Shannon-Wiener diversity than degraded rivers ( $p <$   
354  $0.05$ ; Fig. 2a-c), restored rivers have similar taxonomic diversity to forest rivers  
355 ( $p > 0.05$ ). The relative abundance of shredder and collector-gatherer species  
356 were greater in restored and forest rivers ( $p < 0.05$ ) than in degraded rivers (Fig.  
357 2d-e). In terms of winter bacterial  $\alpha$ -diversity, as shown in Table 2a, a greater  
358 diversity of bacteria was found in degraded rivers than restored rivers, restored  
359 and forest rivers had fewer and comparable bacterial diversity (Fig. 2f).

360

### 361 *3.3. Leaf breakdown rate in winter and summer*

362 In both winter and summer, significant differences of leaf breakdown rate  
363 were found among river types (Winter:  $F_{2,6} = 13.58$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Summer:  $F_{2,6} =$   
364  $20.79$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Forest and restored rivers possessed faster leaf decay rates

365 than degraded rivers in either winter or summer ( $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 3). No difference  
366 in leaf decomposition rate was observed when comparing forest with restored  
367 rivers during both experiment periods ( $p > 0.05$ ).

368 Temporally, leaf litter decay faster in summer than winter ( $F_{5,12} = 0.001$ ,  $p <$   
369  $0.01$ ). In contrast to winter leaf litter decomposition, the leaf breakdown rates  
370 were greater in summer in either forest river ( $p = 0.005$ ), or restored rivers ( $p =$   
371  $0.003$ ). No difference in leaf decomposition, however, was found in degraded  
372 rivers between winter and summer ( $p > 0.05$ ).

373

#### 374 *3.4. Correlation between environmental factors and leaf breakdown rate*

375 The correlation coefficients between abiotic factors (including habitat  
376 features and physico-chemical variables) and leaf litter decomposition rate in  
377 both summer and winter experiment period are displayed in Table 3. Leaf litter  
378 decomposition rate in summer periods had strong, positive correlations with  
379 habitat characteristics (substrate diversity) and negative correlations with  
380 surface water chemical variables (TOC, TN, and  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ). In winter 2018, leaf  
381 litter decompositions were correlated positively with DO, water velocity,  
382 substrate diversity, and negatively with water turbidity, TOC, and COD  
383 concentrations.

384 Stepwise regression analysis indicated a greater correlation with substrate  
385 diversity ( $r^2 = 0.567$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) than physico-chemical variable TOC ( $r^2 = 0.489$ ,

386  $p < 0.05$ ) in summer (Fig. 4a-b). In winter, leaf decomposition rates were highly  
387 correlated with substrate diversity ( $r^2 = 0.456$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and COD ( $r^2 = 0.711$ ,  $p$   
388  $< 0.01$ ; Fig. 4c-d).

389

### 390 *3.5. Correlation between benthic organisms and leaf breakdown rate*

391 Leaf decay rate was positively related to the abundance, richness,  
392 Shannon-Wiener diversity index of macroinvertebrate, and relative abundance  
393 of functional feeding groups such as shredder in both winter and summer (Table  
394 4). Though the leaf breakdown rate was more related to macroinvertebrate  
395 richness in summer and macroinvertebrate abundance in winter, stepwise  
396 regression indicated that the summer litter decay rate was multi-linearly linked  
397 to total abundance, total richness and relative abundance of collector-gatherer.  
398 The predicted values generated based on the model ( $k =$   
399  $0.00003 * \text{Abundance} + 0.00046 * \text{Richness} - 0.00004 * \text{cg} + 0.00954$ ) showed a  
400 strong fit ( $r^2 = 0.925$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 5a). In terms of winter decomposition, it was  
401 strongly related to macroinvertebrate richness ( $r^2 = 0.543$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 5b).

402

### 403 *3.6. Contribution of abiotic and biotic factors in leaf decomposition*

404 To determine the influence of environmental factors on leaf breakdown rate,  
405 spatial factors in particular, abiotic factors were assigned to three factor groups:  
406 Habitat, ENV, and Spatial. The results demonstrated that environmental factors

407 explained 68% of variance in summer leaf decomposition and 33% of variance  
408 in winter leaf decay, respectively (Fig. 6ab). Most of the variation were  
409 explained by habitat variables (44% in summer, 15% in winter), spatial factors  
410 explained the least of variation (6% in summer, 0% in winter).

411 To explore the driver of leaf decomposition in freshwater ecosystems,  
412 abiotic and biotic variables tested were assigned into four sets of explanatory  
413 factor groups: habitat characteristics (denoted Habitat), physico-chemical  
414 variables (denoted ENV), macroinvertebrate matrix (denoted  
415 Macroinvertebrate) and bacterial alpha diversity (denoted Bacteria). Variation  
416 partitioning revealed that 99% of the variation of the summer leaf breakdown  
417 rate was explained; macroinvertebrate taxonomic matrix accounted for most of  
418 the variance of decomposition (52%), followed by habitat factors (17%) and  
419 physico-chemical variables (11%) (Fig. 6a). 59% of the total variation was  
420 shared by ENV, Habitat, and Macroinvertebrate, additionally, Habitat and  
421 Macroinvertebrate accounted for 4% of the decomposition variance. Bacteria  
422 explained nothing on its own, however, 11% of the variation was shared by  
423 ENV, Macroinvertebrate, and Bacteria, 5% shared by ENV, Habitat, and  
424 Bacteria and 5% shared by Habitat, Macroinvertebrate, and Bacteria. No  
425 shared effect was found among four sets of factor groups (Fig. 6c).

426 In terms of winter litter breakdown, 80% of the variation was explained by  
427 the four-factor groups. Macroinvertebrates still contributed most to leaf

428 decomposition among river types (33%), Habitat accounted for comparable  
429 variance (29%), followed by Bacteria (15%) and ENV (1%). Moreover, 55% of  
430 the total variance was shared by all four factors, 34% shared by ENV and  
431 Bacteria, 30% shared by Habitat, Macroinvertebrates and Bacteria, 20% by  
432 ENV, Habitat, and Macroinvertebrates, 11% by ENV and Habitat, and 1% by  
433 ENV and Macroinvertebrates (Fig. 6d).

434

## 435 **4. Discussion**

### 436 *4.1. Leaf decomposition in degraded-restored-forest streams*

437 Our overarching result that significant differences in leaf breakdown rate  
438 were found among the three river types in both winter and summer support our  
439 first hypothesis that stream habitat restoration would enhance the leaf  
440 breakdown rate significantly. Indeed, leaf breakdown happened much faster in  
441 the restored rivers than the degraded ones, in accordance with previous  
442 research that increasing habitat heterogeneity following habitat restoration  
443 drove elevated litter decomposition rates (Frainer et al. 2014, 2017). This  
444 suggests that habitat restoration can assist in reversing river degradation by  
445 enhancing habitat heterogeneity and improving the ecosystem function. Leaf  
446 litter decomposed at comparable speeds in the restored and the forest rivers  
447 indicated that the ecosystem function has been recovered to natural status  
448 under river management. A further important result was that environmental

449 factors, including habitat characteristics, physico-chemical variables in the  
450 surface water and spatial factors, contributed to the differences in leaf  
451 decomposition rates among the river types. Habitat factors appeared to be  
452 more important in controlling leaf decomposition than physico-chemical  
453 variables. These results are in line with Frainer et al. (2017) who showed leaf  
454 decomposition was positively related to habitat heterogeneity. Spatial factors  
455 had the least contribution in both experiment periods, indicating that the spatial  
456 variation in sampling sites has little influence on our experiment, rather than  
457 spatial factors, local environmental conditions (i.e. longitude or latitude) best  
458 determined the variance of leaf mass loss.

459 In the winter, the restored rivers had a more diverse substrate mix and faster  
460 leaf mass loss rate than degraded rivers, results similar to those of Rasmussen  
461 et al. (2012), indicating that streams with more heterogeneous physical habitats  
462 had faster litter decomposition rates than streams with uniform physical habitats.  
463 Riverbed reconstruction and aquatic macrophytes re-introduction implemented  
464 in the restored rivers enhanced the habitat heterogeneity (Taniguchi et al. 2003),  
465 providing living habitat for periphyton, which in turn increased the activity of  
466 microbes and the abundance of shredding invertebrates (Ledger and Hildrew  
467 2005; Jarno et al. 2018) on leaf decomposition. Moreover, restored rivers  
468 possessed higher DO and lower TOC concentration than the degraded urban  
469 rivers, which also led to faster decomposition in restored rivers (Medeiros et al.

470 2008; Graça et al. 2015). With saturated DO induced by hydraulic connection  
471 and the re-introduction of aquatic plants in the restored rivers, an reduce of  
472 previous concentrated organic matter provides energy and nutrients resources  
473 for both microbes and macroinvertebrates, hence stimulating leaf litter  
474 decomposition (Graça 2001). However, very high concentrations of organic  
475 matter including complex pollutants caused by urbanization depletes DO (Allan  
476 2004), which in turn reduces the activity of microorganisms (fungal, bacteria)  
477 and shredder abundance, both of which affect leaf decomposition in degraded  
478 rivers (Wantzen and Wagner 2006; Lujan et al. 2013; Graça et al. 2015).

479 In the summer, the restored rivers had a greater substrate diversity and  
480 faster flow velocity than degraded ones. The faster flow was caused by channel  
481 reconnection, which increases the shear force on leaf litters (Paul et al. 2006),  
482 and along with the enhanced substrates produced during riverbed  
483 reconstruction stimulates the growth of abundant microbial and shredding  
484 decomposers (Shi et al. 2019), which all combine to produce faster leaf litter  
485 decomposition in the restored rivers. Moreover, due to increased flow and  
486 developed nutrient cycling, the TN concentration in the restored rivers was  
487 lower than that in degraded rivers, but greater than the TN concentration in  
488 forest rivers. These moderate dissolved nutrient concentrations in rehabilitated  
489 streams provide aquatic biotas with abundant food resources, which in turn  
490 promote the metabolism activities (including organic matter breakdown) of



491 biotas in the form of microbial decomposition (Hladyz et al. 2010; Ferreira and  
492 Chauvet 2011) and invertebrate decomposition (Gulis et al. 2006). On the  
493 contrary, leaf decomposition was reduced in the degraded rivers where habitat  
494 diversity was low and eutrophication was present, presumably by the depletion  
495 of dissolved oxygen (Allan 2004), and reduced abundance and activity of leaf  
496 associated aquatic organisms (Couceiro et al. 2006), here measured as total  
497 macroinvertebrate abundance and leaf-shredding species, such as shredders  
498 and collector-gatherers, which led to the greatest decomposition in the first  
499 phase of leaf litter decay (Gingerich et al. 2015; Tiegs et al. 2013).

500 Leaf decay much faster in summer in both forest and restored rivers, which  
501 is in line with Follstad Shah et al. (2016) who suggested that warming could  
502 result in a dramatic increase in leaf breakdown rates. It is possible that this  
503 could in part be attributed to the enhanced shear force on leaf litters due to the  
504 speed flow velocity in summer in both river types, and increased water  
505 temperatures which together stimulates the metabolism of microbial and  
506 macroinvertebrate decomposers in streams with heterogenous habitat  
507 (Gonçalves et al. 2013; Follstad Shah et al. 2016). It is notable that, no  
508 difference in leaf breakdown rate was observed in different seasons in  
509 degraded rivers. Relative low abundance, richness and diversity of detritivores  
510 presented in the degraded rivers might diminished the litter breakdown  
511 increases with temperature (Boyero et al. 2011).

512

513 *4.2. Bacteria on leaf decomposition*

514 Biofilm bacteria play an important role in the initial decomposition of organic  
515 matter such as leaf litters (Bärlocher et al. 2005) as they break down large  
516 molecules (cellulose, chitin, and lignin) within leaf litters into smaller  
517 compounds through biochemical and physiological processes (Das et al. 2007).  
518 Here, bacteria contributed less than macroinvertebrate to the variance of leaf  
519 decomposition rates. Bacterial  $\alpha$ -diversity accounted for none in the summer  
520 and 15% in winter leaf decomposition. This result is in accordance with Baldy  
521 et al. (1995) who showed that bacteria contributed little to leaf litter breakdown  
522 in a large river and another study which indicated that bacteria contribute less  
523 (4.2 to 13.9%) to overall leaf carbon loss in a polluted river (Pascoal and Ca'ássio  
524 2004). The aerobic atmosphere in the studied rivers studied here might limit the  
525 contribution of bacteria in leaf litter decomposition as bacteria contribute more  
526 to leaf decay under anoxic or hypoxic conditions (Pascoal and Ca'ássio 2004).  
527 Biofilm samples collected from the ceramic tiles rather than leaf litters might  
528 also interpreted the less contribution of bacteria to some extent, for the  
529 difference in bacterial community compositions between epilithic biofilm and  
530 biofilm associated with plant litter, although the difference is less pronounced  
531 (Buesing et al. 2009). However, bacteria account for more variance in winter  
532 leaf decomposition than summer ones. Less diverse bacteria in winter may

533 enhance their contribution, as bacterial diversity was linked negatively to the  
534 leaf decomposition ( $r = -0.1674$  in summer,  $r = -0.3766$  in winter, respectively).  
535 However, litter decomposition can be controlled by the biodiversity, biomass,  
536 and activities of bacteria (Lecerf et al. 2005), evaluating  $\alpha$ -diversity alone in this  
537 study may obscure the contribution of bacteria in leaf mass loss (Gulis et al.  
538 2006).

539 Moreover, aquatic fungi, mainly hyphomycetes, have been reported to be  
540 more important in the early stages of leaf litter decomposition than bacteria  
541 (Rasmussen et al. 2012). Although microbial leaf decomposition results from  
542 the combined actions of fungi and bacteria (Das et al. 2007), fungi are more  
543 efficient than bacteria in leaf breakdown through invasion and enzymatic  
544 hydrolysis of leaf material and lysed hyphae (Chamier 1985; Shearer 1992; Das  
545 et al. 2007). Here, unfortunately, fungi were not taken into consideration and  
546 this limits the comprehensive interpretation of leaf litter decay.

547

#### 548 *4.3. Role of Macroinvertebrates on leaf mass loss*

549 Apart from physical abrasion and microbial degradation, invertebrate  
550 fragmentation is one of the most important processes in leaf decomposition  
551 (Graça 2001; Zhang et al. 2003). Here, the abundance, richness, and diversity  
552 of macroinvertebrate in conserved rivers (forest and restored rivers) were  
553 greater than those in urban degraded rivers, attributing to the enhanced habitat

554 substrate diversity, faster water current flows, and improved water quality  
555 (Iñiguez-Armijos et al. 2016; Turley et al. 2016) in the restored rivers. Among  
556 all factors tested, macroinvertebrate indices account for most of the leaf  
557 decomposition variance, 52% in summer and 33% in winter, respectively, and  
558 are similar to those of Gingerich, Panaccioneb and Andersona (2015). The  
559 macroinvertebrate contribution to leaf decay was greater than physico-chemical  
560 and microbial factors. Invertebrates play dominant roles in the later stage of  
561 breakdown (Webster and Benfield 1986), mainly due to the increased  
562 macroinvertebrate abundance, diversity, and subsequent macroinvertebrate  
563 associated leaf-shredding activities, as leaf decomposition had significant  
564 positive correlations with macroinvertebrate  $\alpha$ -diversity indices.

565 Aquatic decomposition is often driven by invertebrates known as shredders  
566 (Encalada et al. 2010; Chara-Serna et al. 2012; Iñiguez-Armijos et al. 2016).  
567 Here, leaf breakdown rate in both summer and winter were all associated  
568 positively with shredder abundance ( $r = 0.8787$  in summer,  $r = 0.7468$  in winter,  
569 respectively). Consistent with researches which demonstrated a weakened leaf  
570 decay due to a decreased shredder abundance (Wallace et al. 1996;  
571 Sponseller and Benfield 2001). The relative abundance of shredders was  
572 greater in heterogeneous habitat rivers (forest and restored rivers) than  
573 degraded rivers (Frainer et al. 2017), demonstrating the reasons for faster leaf  
574 decay in the forest and restored rivers compared to degraded rivers. However,

575 elsewhere it has been shown that shredders play a minor role in leaf litter  
576 breakdown in neotropical streams (Mathuriau and Chauvet 2002; Goncsalves  
577 et al. 2007). Further studies might help to explore the cause of variations.

578

## 579 **5. Conclusions**

580 This study indicates that habitat restoration had an important positive effect  
581 on leaf breakdown rates in river ecosystems, hence enhancing ecosystem  
582 function. Leaf litter decayed faster in rivers under positive management (forest  
583 and restored rivers) than degraded urban rivers. Leaf decomposition rate can,  
584 therefore, be a good indicator of successful ecological restoration. All factors  
585 measured here (i.e., physico-chemical factors, habitat factors,  
586 macroinvertebrate, and bacteria) made an appreciable contribution to the leaf  
587 litter breakdown process in our study streams. Our results suggest that under  
588 habitat restoration, faster water and a more diverse substrate increased the  
589 physical abrasion of the leaf litter by stronger shear forces, enhanced the  
590 metabolism of leaf litter by active benthic biological decomposers such as  
591 macroinvertebrates and bacteria. Accelerated nutrient dilution and cycling  
592 declined excessive nutrient and organic pollutants in the surface water of the  
593 restored rivers, which in turn promoted the productivity and activity  
594 decomposers by providing moderate nutrient and appropriate living habitat. The  
595 biofilm bacteria present can break down large molecules of leaf litter into

596 smaller compounds for macroinvertebrates and the greater abundance of  
597 shredders can combine to produce a faster leaf decay rate in the forest and  
598 restored rivers compared to degraded rivers through feeding activities. To  
599 summarize, all factors evaluated in this study played a synergetic contribution  
600 to the change in leaf litter decomposition rates among the three river types. The  
601 role of macroinvertebrates, mainly shredders appeared to be particularly  
602 important, followed by habitat factors, physico-chemical variables, and biofilm  
603 bacteria. For the comprehensive evaluation of the stream ecosystem function,  
604 leaf-associated fungal community and microbial production should also be  
605 tested in future determinations.

606 Our findings show that the habitat restoration of streams can improve  
607 degraded streams by increasing habitat elements, enhancing channel  
608 connectivity, changing water chemistry and aquatic communities (e.g., microbe,  
609 macroinvertebrate), all of which combine to improve energy and nutrient cycling  
610 process, here measured using leaf litter decomposition rates. Habitat  
611 restoration positively affected the structure and function of the deteriorate  
612 stream ecosystems. The overall findings of this study contribute to our  
613 understanding of the responses of ecosystem function to habitat restoration in  
614 urban rivers, providing useful evidence that habitat restoration can be used as  
615 an effective measure of freshwater management via recovering ecosystem  
616 structure and function. For future water conservation and management, we

617 recommend that habitat features, physico-chemical properties and aquatic  
618 organisms should be taken into consideration in ecological restoration  
619 strategies to restore the ecosystem integrity and related ecosystem process.

620

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627

## 628 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

629 The authors declared that there is no conflict of interest.

630

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636

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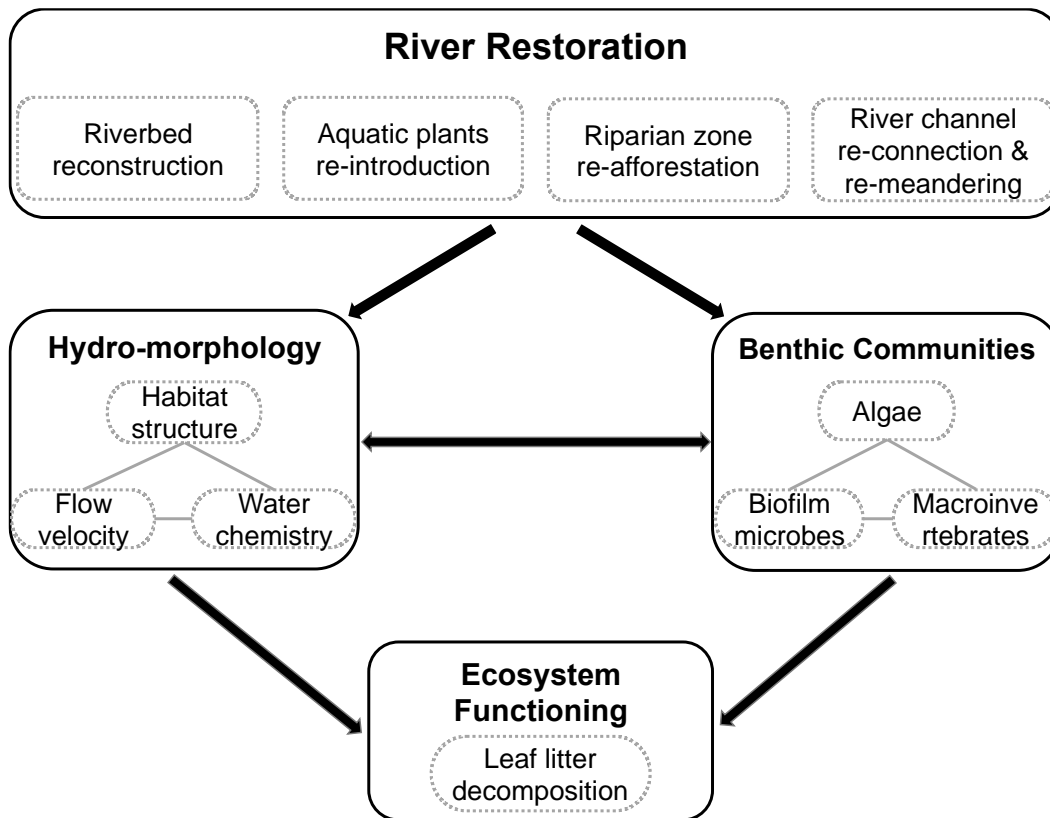
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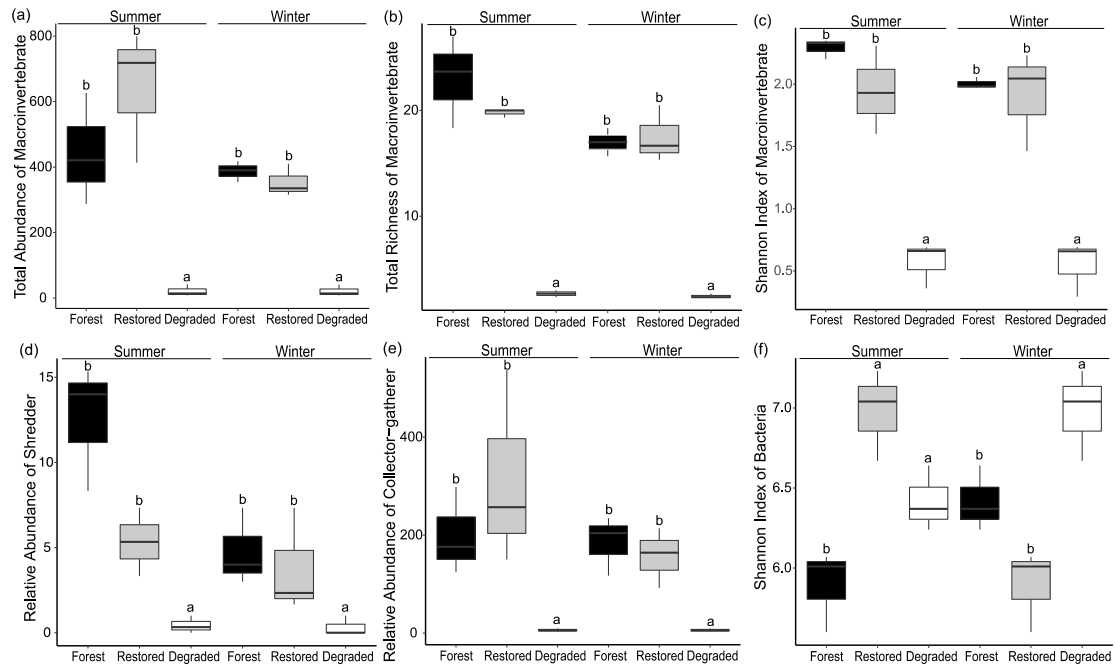
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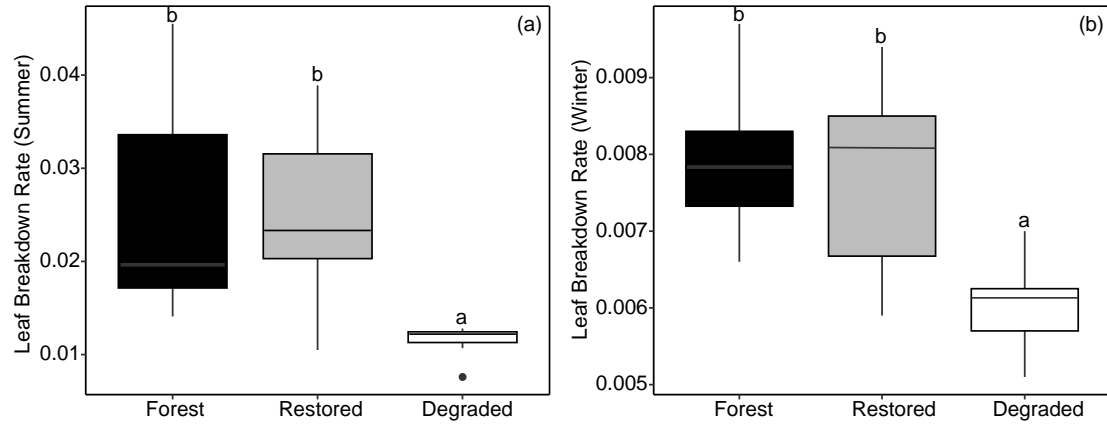
921 **Fig. 1.** Conceptual model of the experiment. River ecological restoration induced the  
 922 variance of a host of environmental conditions (habitat structure, flow velocity and water  
 923 chemistry), which in turn influence the ecosystem structure (benthic communities) and  
 924 ecosystem functioning (leaf litter decomposition) of the river ecosystem.



925

926 **Fig. 2.** Comparison of the macroinvertebrate taxonomic diversity (a) total abundance, (b)  
 927 total richness, (c) Shannon-Wiener diversity, (d) relative abundance of shredder, (e)  
 928 relative abundance of collector-gatherer and bacterial diversity (f) Shannon-Wiener  
 929 diversity of bacteria in three river types in summer and winter within Anji City Region, PRC.  
 930 Mean values ( $\pm$  SE,  $n = 3$ ) are presented; different lower case letters indicate a significant  
 931 difference observed at  $p = 0.05$  level.

932



933

934 **Fig. 3.** Boxplots illustrating leaf breakdown rates in summer (a) and winter (b) in forested,

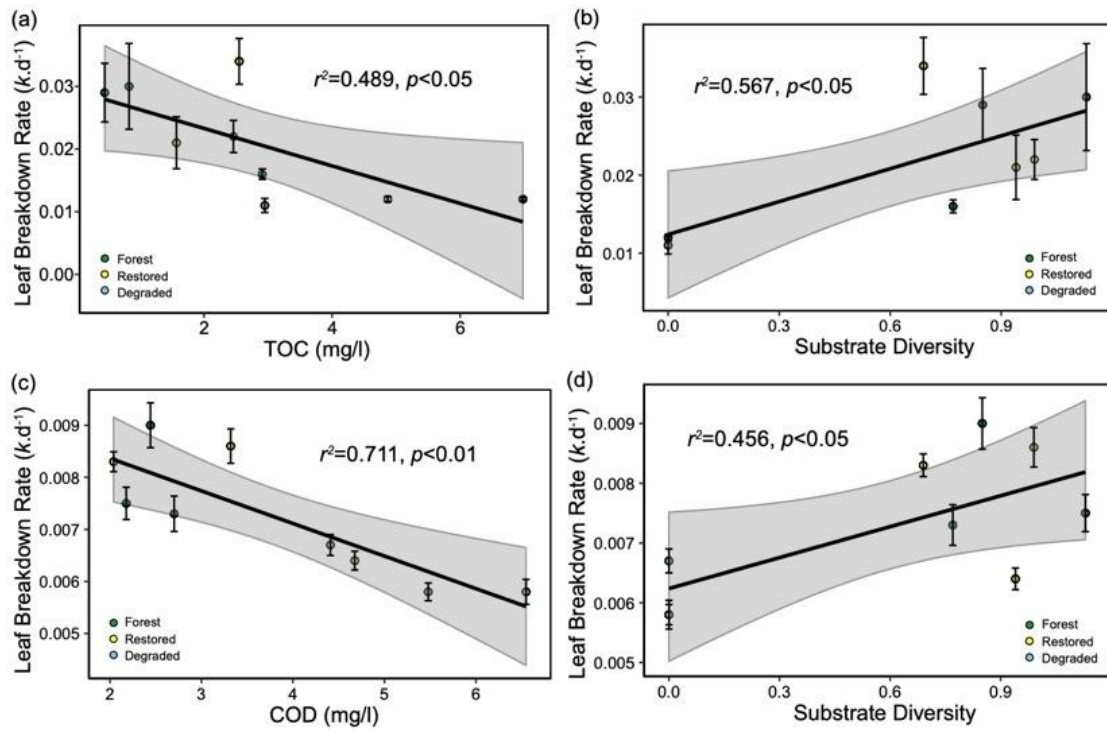
935 restored, and degraded rivers within the Anji City Region, PRC. Blackline: median value;

936 box: quartile interval; whiskers: minimum and maximum value. Different lowercase letters

937 indicate the significant difference observed at the  $p = 0.05$  level.

938

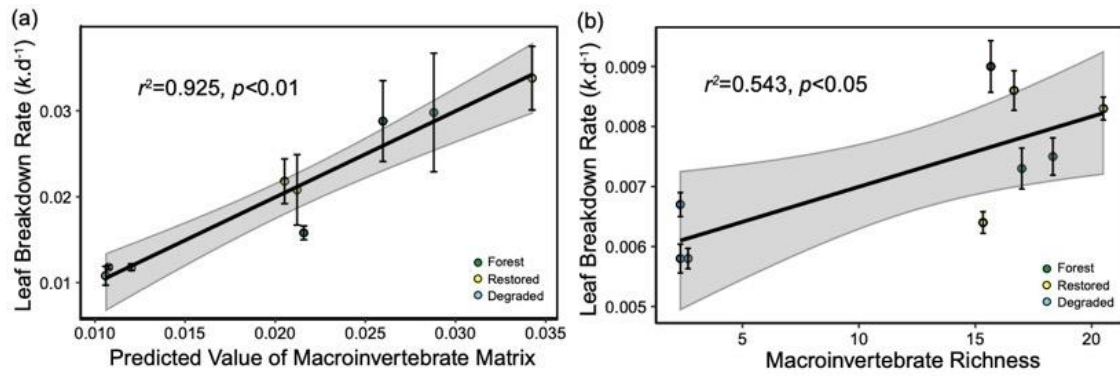




939

940 **Fig. 4.** Stepwise multiple regression analysis to identify the relationship between leaf litter  
 941 breakdown rates by days ( $k \cdot d^{-1}$ ) and physicochemical variable TOC (a), habitat factor  
 942 Substrate diversity (b) in summer and Physico-chemical variable COD (c), habitat factor  
 943 Substrate diversity (d) in winter. The coefficients of determination ( $r^2$ ) and  $p$  are shown in  
 944 each panel. Each data point represents the mean value of each treatment in each stream.

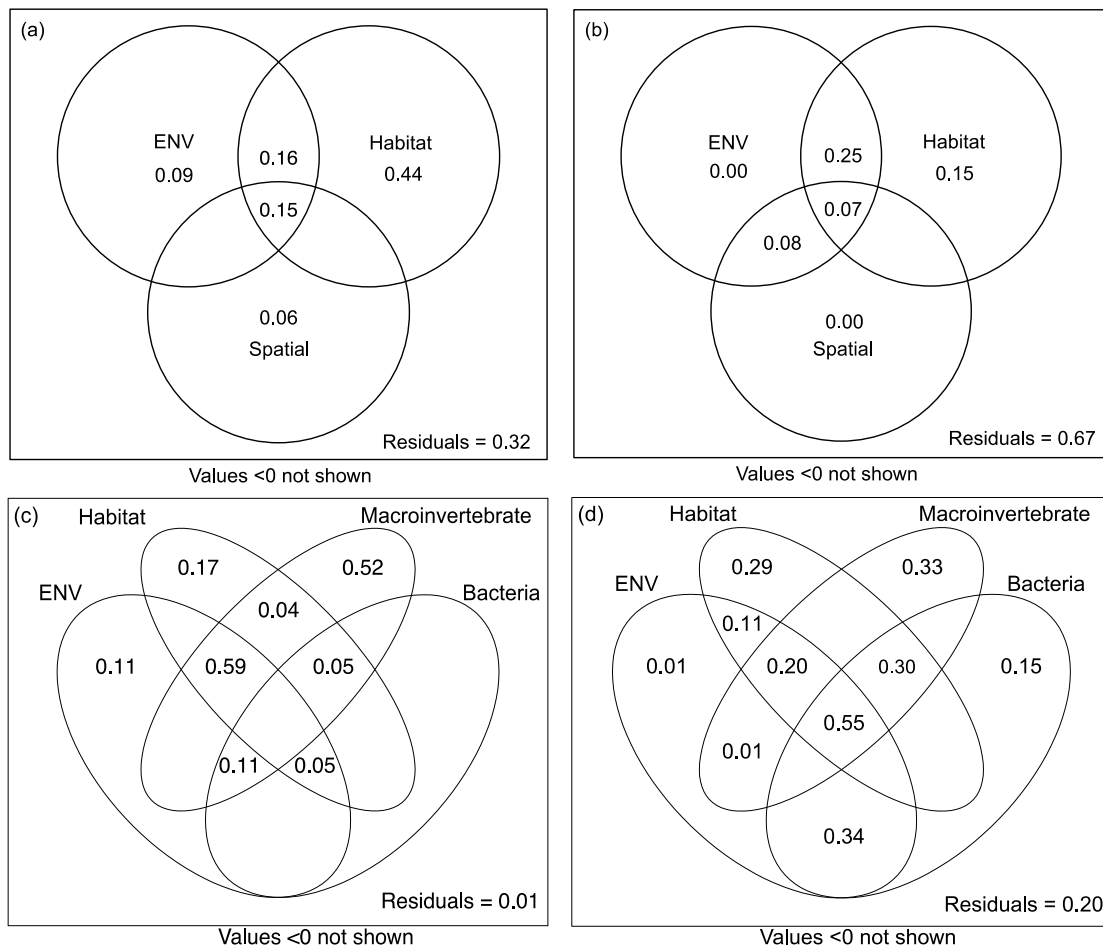
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946

947 **Fig. 5.** Stepwise multiple regression analysis to identify the relationship between leaf litter  
 948 breakdown rates by days ( $k \cdot d^{-1}$ ) and (a) predicted value of macroinvertebrate matrix in  
 949 summer and (b) macroinvertebrate richness in winter. The coefficients of determination ( $r^2$ )  
 950 and  $p$  are shown in each panel. Each data point represents the mean value of each  
 951 treatment in each stream.

952



953

954

**Fig. 6.** Venn diagrams illustrating the variation partitioning analysis for leaf litter breakdown rates by days ( $k d^{-1}$ ) in (a,c) summer and (b,d) winter. Habitat, ENV, Spatial, Macroinvertebrate, and Bacteria are sets of explanatory factor groups representing habitat variables, physico-chemical variables, spational factors, taxonomic diversity of macroinvertebrate, and taxonomic diversity of biofilm bacteria, respectively. Residuals are shown in the lower right corner. All fractions based on adjusted  $R^2$  are shown as percentages of the total variation.

960

961 **Table 1**

962 Mean values of habitat and physico-chemical variables in different types of rivers in winter

963 and summer within the Anji City Region, PRC. The values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard

964 error of three replicate samples.

Environmental Variables	Winter			Summer		
	Forest	Restored	Degraded	Forest	Restored	Degraded
Width (m)	8.83 $\pm$ 1.64	13.17 $\pm$ 3.09	11.57 $\pm$ 5.72	8.83 $\pm$ 1.64	13.17 $\pm$ 3.09	11.57 $\pm$ 5.72
Mean Depth (cm)	35.87 $\pm$ 7.97	28.13 $\pm$ 7.22	22.87 $\pm$ 3.86	35.87 $\pm$ 7.97	28.13 $\pm$ 7.22	22.87 $\pm$ 3.86
Substrate	0.92 $\pm$ 0.11	0.87 $\pm$ 0.09	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00	0.92 $\pm$ 0.11	0.87 $\pm$ 0.09	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00
Velocity	0.04 $\pm$ 0.01	0.20 $\pm$ 0.10	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00	0.01 $\pm$ 0.00	0.41 $\pm$ 0.17	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00
Canopy	71.67 $\pm$ 6.01	3.33 $\pm$ 1.86	21.73 $\pm$ 14.76	81.67 $\pm$ 6.01	4.33 $\pm$ 2.85	27.40 $\pm$ 17.47
Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L)	7.48 $\pm$ 0.18	7.23 $\pm$ 0.31	4.26 $\pm$ 1.92	7.48 $\pm$ 0.18	7.23 $\pm$ 0.31	4.26 $\pm$ 1.92
pH	7.18 $\pm$ 0.10	7.12 $\pm$ 0.13	7.06 $\pm$ 0.10	7.18 $\pm$ 0.10	7.12 $\pm$ 0.13	7.06 $\pm$ 0.10
Turbidity	1.54 $\pm$ 0.46	14.13 $\pm$ 4.74	12.84 $\pm$ 3.38	1.54 $\pm$ 0.46	14.13 $\pm$ 4.74	12.84 $\pm$ 3.38
NH <sub>4</sub> -N (mg/L)	0.52 $\pm$ 0.09	0.61 $\pm$ 0.13	2.3 $\pm$ 1.29	0.52 $\pm$ 0.09	0.61 $\pm$ 0.13	2.30 $\pm$ 1.29
NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg/L)	0.16 $\pm$ 0.01	0.69 $\pm$ 0.22	0.85 $\pm$ 0.40	0.16 $\pm$ 0.01	0.69 $\pm$ 0.22	0.85 $\pm$ 0.40
TN (mg/L)	1.09 $\pm$ 0.05	2.07 $\pm$ 0.47	3.24 $\pm$ 0.16	1.09 $\pm$ 0.05	2.07 $\pm$ 0.47	3.24 $\pm$ 0.16
TP (mg/L)	0.08 $\pm$ 0.04	0.07 $\pm$ 0.01	0.15 $\pm$ 0.05	0.08 $\pm$ 0.04	0.07 $\pm$ 0.01	0.15 $\pm$ 0.05
Chemical Oxygen Demand (mg/L)	6.29 $\pm$ 1.96	10.38 $\pm$ 0.88	16.22 $\pm$ 2.80	6.29 $\pm$ 1.96	10.38 $\pm$ 0.88	16.22 $\pm$ 2.80
Total Organic Carbon (mg/L)	1.40 $\pm$ 0.76	2.19 $\pm$ 0.31	4.93 $\pm$ 1.16	1.40 $\pm$ 0.76	2.19 $\pm$ 0.31	4.93 $\pm$ 1.16

965

966

967 **Table 2**

968 Mean values of (a) bacterial indices and (b) macroinvertebrate taxonomic metrics in  
 969 different types of rivers in winter and summer within the Anji City Region, PRC. The values  
 970 represent the mean  $\pm$  standard error of three replicate samples.

(a)

Bacteria Indices	Winter			Summer		
	Forest	Restored	Degraded	Forest	Restored	Degraded
OTU	615.22 $\pm$ 41.90	585.00 $\pm$ 19.86	666.89 $\pm$ 69.17	338.44 $\pm$ 60.81	566.00 $\pm$ 217.7	574.83 $\pm$ 55.71
Chao1	715.45 $\pm$ 36.27	708.84 $\pm$ 21.19	769.73 $\pm$ 72.81	423.27 $\pm$ 78.52	661.97 $\pm$ 236.1	724.64 $\pm$ 60.45
Shannon	6.42 $\pm$ 0.12	5.89 $\pm$ 0.15	6.98 $\pm$ 0.16	5.89 $\pm$ 0.15	6.98 $\pm$ 0.16	6.42 $\pm$ 0.12

971

(b)

Macroinvertebrate	Winter			Summer		
	Forest	Restored	Degraded	Forest	Restored	Degraded
Abundance	387.44 $\pm$ 18.42	353.78 $\pm$ 28.66	21.11 $\pm$ 10.26	445.11 $\pm$ 98.6	643.55 $\pm$ 117.44	21.33 $\pm$ 10.48
Richness	17.00 $\pm$ 0.77	17.50 $\pm$ 1.55	2.44 $\pm$ 0.11	23 $\pm$ 2.53	19.78 $\pm$ 0.22	2.67 $\pm$ 0.19
Shannon Diversity	2.00 $\pm$ 0.03	1.91 $\pm$ 0.23	0.55 $\pm$ 0.13	2.29 $\pm$ 0.05	1.95 $\pm$ 0.21	0.57 $\pm$ 0.11
Shredder	4.78 $\pm$ 1.31	3.78 $\pm$ 1.79	0.33 $\pm$ 0.33	12.55 $\pm$ 2.15	56.22 $\pm$ 50.9	0.44 $\pm$ 0.29
Collector-gatherer	185.22 $\pm$ 35.06	156.89 $\pm$ 35.32	6.11 $\pm$ 1.94	199.77 $\pm$ 51.49	314.67 $\pm$ 115.19	6.11 $\pm$ 1.94

972

973

974 **Table 3**

975 Correlations between environmental variables (i.e. habitat characteristics, physico-  
 976 chemical variables) and leaf litter breakdown rates by days ( $k\ d^{-1}$ ) for three types of rivers  
 977 within Anji City Region, PRC. Negative coefficients are specified in capturing parentheses.

ENV Variables	Summer Leaf Breakdown Rate	Winter Leaf Breakdown Rate
pH	0.3933	0.0084
Turbidity	(0.1925)	(0.6946)
DO	0.3933	0.5523
NH <sub>4</sub> -N	(0.7113)	(0.5774)
NO <sub>3</sub> -N	(0.4435)	0.3347
TN	(0.5439)*	(0.3766)
TP	(0.1681)	(0.2343)
TOC	(0.7448)*	(0.5272)
COD	(0.6092)	(0.8117)*
Velocity	0.7969	0.7010*
Substrate	0.6809*	0.5958*
Canopy	0.3598	0.3766

978

979 Note: The one superscript asterisks and dots show the significant level at  $p < 0.05$  and  $0.1$ ,  
 980 respectively.

981

982 **Table 4**

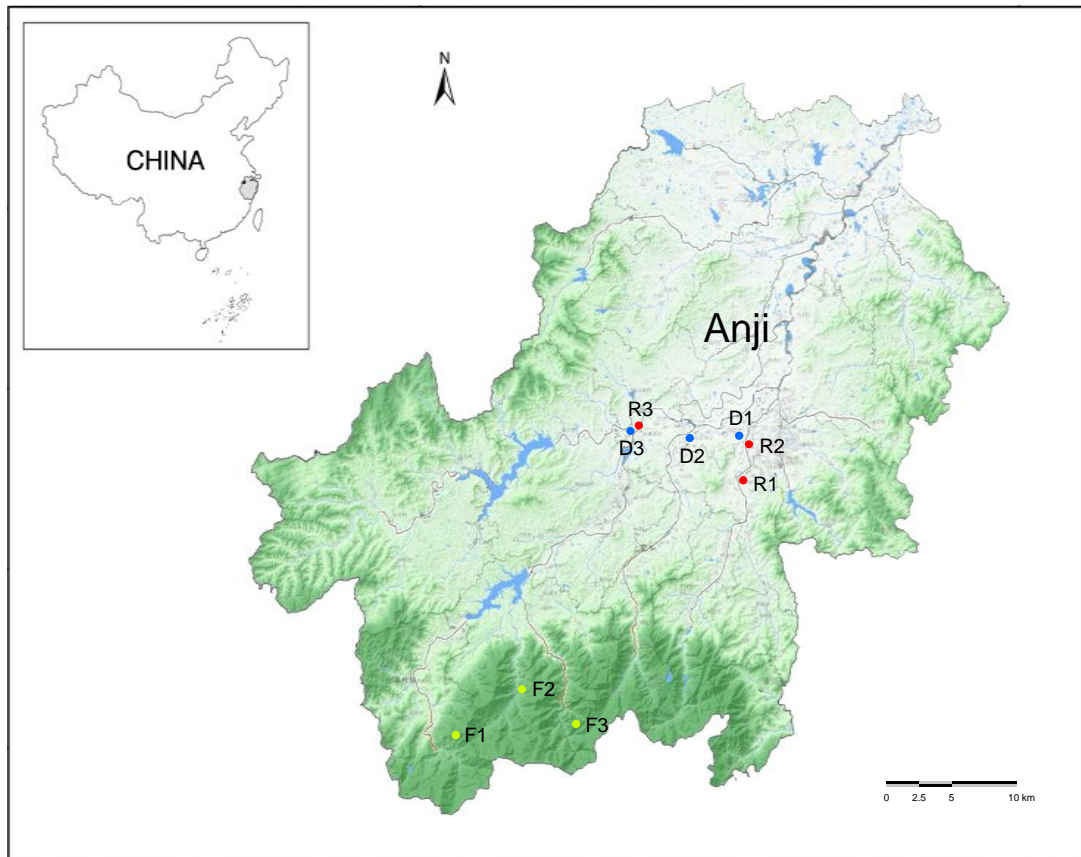
983 Spearman correlation coefficients between biotic factor (i.e. bacterial taxonomic diversity,  
 984 macroinvertebrate -diversity and the relative abundance of shredders) and leaf litter  
 985 breakdown rates by days ( $k\ d^{-1}$ ) for different types of rivers within Anji City Region, PRC.  
 986 Negative coefficients are specified in capturing parentheses.

Biotic Indices	Summer Leaf Breakdown Rate	Winter Leaf Breakdown Rate
Bacterial Richness	(0.0167)	(0.1674)
Bacterial Diversity	(0.1674)	(0.3766)
Invertebrate Abundance	0.8285*	0.8619*
Invertebrate Richness	0.8992*	0.6513*
Invertebrate Diversity	0.8536*	0.6778*
Shredder	0.8787*	0.7468
Collector-gatherer	0.6862	0.5774

987

988 Note: The one superscript asterisks and dots show the significant level at  $p < 0.05$  and  
 989 0.1, respectively.

990



992  
993 **Fig. S1.** Study area and locations of sampling sites within the Anji City Region, People's  
994 Republic of China (PRC), including three degraded urban rivers (D), three rivers under  
995 habitat restoration (R), and three Forested rivers (F).  
996



997 **Table S1 Nomenclature and Abbreviation List**

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N	Nitrogen
P	Phosphorus
CO <sub>2</sub>	Carbon dioxide
DO	Dissolved oxygen
NH <sub>4</sub> -N	Ammonium nitrogen
NO <sub>3</sub> -N	Nitrate-nitrogen
TN	Total nitrogen
TP	Total phosphorus
TOC	Total organic carbon
COD	Chemical oxygen demand
FPOM	Fine particular organic carbon
FFGs	Functional feeding groups
C-F	Collector-filterer
C-G	Collector-gatherer
Scr	Scraper
Shr	Shredder
Prd	Predator
PRC	People republic of China
PCNM	Principal Coordinates of Neighborhood Matrices
OTUs	Operational Taxonomic Units
RDP	Ribosomal Database Project
Camphor	Cinnamomun camphora
Habitat	Habitat variable
ENV	Physico-chemical variables
Spatial	Spatial factors
Macroinvertebrate	Macroinvertebrate matrices
Bacteria	Bacterial alpha-diversity
Alpha-diversity	α-diversity

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