The Development of a Wetland Classification and Risk Assessment Index (WCRAI) for non-wetland specialists for the management of natural wetland ecosystems

PJ Oberholster\textsuperscript{1,2,3}, P McMillan\textsuperscript{1}, K Durgapersad\textsuperscript{4} AR de Klerk\textsuperscript{1,5} and AM Botha\textsuperscript{5}

\textsuperscript{1}CSIR Natural Resources and the Environment, Meiring Naude Road, Pretoria, 0001, South Africa
\textsuperscript{2}Department of Paraclinical Sciences, Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Pretoria, Onderstepoort, 0110 South Africa
\textsuperscript{3}CSIR Natural Resources and the Environment, Jan Cilliers Street, Stellenbosch 7599, South Africa
\textsuperscript{4}ESKOM, Research, Testing and Development, Private Bag 40175, Cleveland 2022, South Africa
\textsuperscript{5}Department of Genetics, University of Stellenbosch, Matieland, 7601, South Africa

Corresponding author: Prof A-M Botha

Department of Genetic, University of Stellenbosch, Private Bag X1, Stellenbosch
7600, South Africa
(+27)-21-808-5832,
ambo@sun.co.za

Abstract

The Wetland Classification and Risk Assessment Index (WCRAI) are based on manifestations of ecological processes in natural wetland ecosystems. The index is hierarchical in structure and is designed to allow identification and rapid assessment at the broadest levels by non wetland experts in different disciplines to manage natural wetlands.

From previous studies, landscape ecology has demonstrated the importance of considering landscape context in addition to local site attributes when explaining wetland ecological processes and ecological integrity. The pressures that land uses and activities exert on wetlands, generate impacts that affect both the biotic and abiotic characteristics of the surface
water column and the surrounding riparian zone. Therefore, human-altered land in a catchment and spatial patterns of surrounding wetlands provide a direct way to measure human impacts and can be correlated with indicators, such as water chemistry and biotic variables. The objective of this study was to develop and test the WCRAI, so that the index can be used to classify different types of wetland and to assess their ecological condition (also known as “Eco-status”) in three eco regions of South Africa. Three phases were employed during the development of the WCRAI which ranged from a desktop study (during which the WCRAI was developed) through to applying the index to a set of different case studies to refine the index and determine its applicability. Data generated from the survey of 29 selected wetlands conducted during 2008-2012 indicated that the eco-status of these wetlands ranged from “Unmodified, natural” (Class A) to “largely modified” (Class D). These results obtained from the WCRAI were indicative of the integrity of these wetlands when compared to the status of the abiotic and biotic variables measured at each sampling site. From an economical perspective, the WCRAI can play a crucial role in preventing unnecessary degradation of wetlands, hence reducing financial loss through management, restoration or rehabilitation efforts. The methodology can be applied very easily (due to its simplistic nature) by industry stakeholders to continually monitor these wetlands.

**Keywords:** Rapid wetland assessment index, conductivity, pH, aquatic vegetation, wetland management.

1. Introduction

Wetlands also known as “green kidneys”, have diverse ecological attributes and provide important ecosystem services such as water storage, biogeochemical cycling and maintenance.
biodiversity and biotic productivity (Stevenson, et al., 2002; U.S. EPA, 2002). Wetland conservation forms a broader component of water resources due to the higher water stress associated with anthropogenic activities such as agricultural practices, industrial and urban expansion and climate change (Winter, 1992; Guntensergen et al., 2001). According to the South African National Water Act (Act 36 of 1998) a wetland is defined as land which is transitional between terrestrial and aquatic systems where the water table is usually at or near the surface, or the land is periodically covered with shallow water, and which under normal circumstances supports vegetation typically adapted to life in saturated soil.

According to DWA (2004b) wetlands constitute approximately 6% of land surface worldwide and they are found in every climate, from the tropics to the frozen tundra. In South Africa alone, as described by Swanepoel and Barnard (2007), almost 35-50% of the wetlands were lost or severely destroyed due to unsustainable social and economic pressures where these ecosystems were viewed as excellent systems for water abstraction, drainage, grazing, sewage waste disposal, mining and cultivation. These natural water resources have been affected by anthropogenic activities such as infrastructure development, industrial effluents and urban sewage effluents (Oberholster et al., 2008, 2010). With a high rate of human population growth and its accompanying rapidly growing demands on the country’s limited water resources, more than one-third of South Africa’s wetlands have already been destroyed; this figure is expected to increase rapidly in the near future (Breen and Begg, 1989). Unfortunately, the economic value of wetlands for human well-being and industry has rarely been assessed in monetary terms. The largest wetland contributions are estimated to be in their regulation and attenuation of flows, especially for flood control, including intensity and duration, storm protection and erosion (~US $5,000 ha\(^{-1}\)), water supply, storage and retention (~US $4,000 ha\(^{-1}\)), and wastewater treatment and pollution control as well as detoxification
(~US $4,000 ha\(^{-1}\)). Importantly, these values do not consider the value of wetlands for maintaining aquatic biodiversity, e.g. fish (Kalff, 2001).

A commonly used wetland classification index was that developed by Cowardin and co-workers (Cowardin et al., 1979). This hierarchical classification index is comprised of five systems, with further divisions into subsystems that reflect different water regimes. Classes and subclasses were determined on the basis of vegetation and substrate characteristics. This classification scheme of fifty wetland types has been widely implemented and is the official classification scheme used by the United States Wildlife and Fisheries Service and is the basis for the United States National Wetlands Inventory maps. In South Africa, both Morant (1983) and Breen (1988) proposed that the Cowardin system for classifying wetlands be used, subject to modification of the classification, for the purpose of establishing a National Inventory of Wetlands in South Africa. Silberbauer and King (1991) based their classification of wetlands in the south-western Cape Province of South Africa, on the Cowardin classification index. Rowntree (1993) also conducted a hydro-geomorphic classification of wetlands in the north-western Cape Province by using the Cowardin classification as a preliminary descriptor for the classification of the studied wetlands. However, later studies that used the Cowardin wetland classification system have noted that the system is difficult to use, particularly in the highly ephemeral wetland systems of the more semi-arid areas of South Africa (e.g., Dely et al., 1999). Therefore, an adaptation of the hydrogeomorphic classification system was proposed in later studies for the palustrine wetlands of South Africa (Jones and Day, 2003; Kotze et al., 2005), and a hydro-geomorphic classification system has recently been proposed as the basis for all inland wetland classification in South Africa (Ewart-Smith et al., 2006). Hence, these proposed wetland classification systems needs expert knowledge of wetland characteristics and is not user friendly and difficult to interpret
for non-experts from different disciplines e.g. environmental officers. Furthermore, these proposed classification systems do not include rapid risk assessment features that can be used by non-experts to monitor degradation of wetlands over time and space.

The objectives of the study were: (1) To develop a Wetland Classification and Risk Assessment Index (WCRAI) based on manifestations of ecological processes in natural wetland ecosystems in three eco-regions of South Africa. (2) To design the index in such a way to allow identification and rapid assessment at the broadest levels by non-experts from different disciplines. (3) To base the index on broad landform types, surface morphology, hydro-chemical characteristics, biological communities and external environmental stressors.

2. Materials and Methods

The study was divided into three components which together will aid in determining the characteristics and risk assessment of wetlands to human impacts on wetlands in three ecoregions of South Africa. In the first phase the required data was obtained through collecting existing literature and used to develop the guidelines. During the second phase the index was applied to a set of selected wetlands to evaluate the applicability of the assessment index. During the third phase the data obtained from the various case studies was used to further refine the index. The following processes were followed:

2.1 Development of WCRAI using selected wetland characteristics

Wetland characteristics used to developed the WCRAI is summarized in Table 1. These include: (a) *Landform and Hydrology* - are widely acknowledged as the two fundamental features that determine the existence of all types of wetlands since hydrological
characteristics indicate the way that water flows into, through and out of a wetland system due to its landscape, terrain and form, whilst landform settings determine the size, shape, and potential depth of the wetlands (Ellery et al., 2005); (b) Wetland types - were classified according to a method modified from DWAF (2007); (c) Wetland size or scale - was determined based on the categories, according to the geomorphic scale of Semeniuk (1987), Using a 100 m measuring tape and 1: 50 000 map to estimate length and breadth of a wetland area; (d) Wetland zones - were used for the determination of the cross-section distances of a wetland (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000) as wetland boundaries may be distinguished by the occurrence of water, or waterlogged soils, or vegetation species, or forms that are typical of water conditions, but it should be noted that the zones used in the selected wetlands does not include forest wetlands. Wetland vegetation species to determine the different zones was done according to Gerber et al., (2004) (supplementary figure 1) (e) Hydroperiod - is a major component of wetlands and distinguishes the wetland habitat from other terrestrial habitats (Semeniuk and Semeniuk, 1995). It is also the single most important factor which influences biological responses by its presence, depth, chemistry and movement. The time period of water availability in a wetland, is directly related to the rates and quantities of precipitation and evaporation, mechanisms of recharge and discharge, and the shape of the wetland. All data generated from the different wetland characteristics under study as set out under heading 1.1 was incorporated in the field sheet (Figure 1).

2.2. Rapid Risk Assessment Protocol to Determine the Ecostatus of a Wetland

For the risk assessment and measurements of ecological end points in wetlands, it is necessary to place the risk assessment processes into an ecosystem context in order to identify the key linkages between stressors and wetland responses (DWA, 2004a). This requires an understanding of the three principal factors (ecology, hydrology and
geomorphology) that determine the structural and functional characteristics of wetlands, and then using this information to identify the trigger points at which stressors operate to disrupt wetland processes and cause adverse effects. Therefore, one of the most important steps in the development of a rapid wetland assessment module is to identify and confirm clear trigger endpoints with their associated values to set the stage for future risk management efforts. At the wetland scale, the following trigger end points were employed within the different ecological zones and included in the score sheet (Figure 2).

The Wet Grassland and Meadow Zone – (a) Bank stability: An assessment of the degree of bank erosion was followed according to Spencer (1998): 5 = stable (the wetland banks are stable and well protected by vegetation cover); 4 = good (some minor spot erosion occurring or areas of limited vegetation); 3 = moderate (some erosion occurring, spot erosion points are often inter-linked, and possibly minor structural and vegetation damage); 2 = poor (significant areas of erosion occurring, little vegetation present); 1 = unstable (extensive erosion occurring, bare banks, steep or undercut banks). (b) Degree of pugging: The pugging of surface soil by livestock was measured according to Bacon et al. (1994), by using the mean of the number of animal hoof marks in five quadrants (each of one m$^2$ in area) placed randomly on the sediment surface at the water’s edge of a wetland under study. Pugging causes soil compaction, helps to accelerate erosion, lowers water infiltration rates, and leads to a reduction in water storage capacity. (c) Width of fringing vegetation strip: The mean width of vegetation fringing the wetland was based on visual estimates of the riparian strip using ecological zones at four major cross-section points at each wetland (Castelle et al., 1994; Bren, 1993). In the case of wetlands where the sides differed in their degree of steepness, the maximum flood height was used to distinguish between the wetland riparian strip and other floodplain flora. It appears that buffer strips that are less than 5 m wide
provide minimal protection to aquatic resources under most environmental conditions; and buffer strips greater than 20 m in width are most frequently recommended as providing the best protection for the physical, chemical and biological components of wetlands (Barling et al. (1994).

*The Open Water and Marsh Zone* – (a) pH: The water pH levels was calculated based on changes in biodiversity (Kalff, 2001). The highest score was allocated to a wetland where the pH is neutral (± 7). The loss of species richness commences when the pH of wetlands declines below pH 6.0, although not all taxonomic groups are equally affected. An increase in pH above 8 can cause the development of phytoplankton blooms, such as toxic blue green algae. (b) Electrical conductivity: wetlands that are seasonally variable in salinity are categorized by the salinity state in which the wetland exists for the major part of the year. It must also be taken in account when measuring aquatic vegetation cover that there is a strong relationship between wetland salinity and the diversity and abundance of freshwater plants. Freshwater plant composition shifts when salinity rises above 5500 µS/cm, while few freshwater forms remain at salinity levels above 8500 µS cm⁻¹. Conductivity ranges for this index were based on Hillman, (1986) and Crabb, (1997). With regard to depressional wetlands (pans) the conductivity categories were adjusted using information from de Klerk et al. (2012), Ferreira (2010) and Grundling et al. (2003). This is due to the fact the conductivity values in any individual pan varies seasonally, but that real differences can be found between different pan types. Reed pans usually retain high water levels throughout the year due to a strong influence of groundwater; whereas other pan types are subjected to evaporation, evolve, and tend to become more saline. However, for this rapid index, these different pan types are not noted.
(c) Dissolved Oxygen: The categories for dissolved oxygen concentrations were based on the recorded responses of fish (Alabaster and Lloyd, 1982; Kalff, 2001). (d) Aquatic vegetation cover: The percentage of water surface that is covered with aquatic vegetation including emergent, submerged and floating plants was based on Pressey (1987) and Mitchell (1990). A wetland totally covered by aquatic vegetation, e.g. without any visible open water, may be due to nutrient enrichment. Such wetlands were considered to be in a poor condition and are allocated a low score. An estimate of vegetation cover between 51-85 % was allocated the highest score in this index. (e) Algae as indicator of progressive eutrophication and relative abundance of macroalgae was used to indicate the trophic status of wetlands according to Oberholster et al. (2010) and Oberholster (2011). The categories used for the index was (1) mats of macro algae present >1.0 m² = hypertrophic; (2) clumps or mats of drifting macroalgae present (0.51-1.0 m²) = eutrophic; (3) (0.11-0.5 m²) = mesotrophic; (4) absence of algae mats = oligotrophic.

However, wetlands impacted by acid mine drainage (AMD) as in the case of our study may have large mats of low pH tolerant filamentous algae at very low water column nutrient levels. A study by Niyogi et al. (1999) showed a strong inverse relationship between deposition of metal oxides caused by AMD and algal biomass. They further observed that algal biomass was undetectable at high levels of hydroxide deposition from AMD, while the chl-\(a\) concentration reached 80 mg m\(^{-2}\) at the lowest levels of ferric hydroxide precipitation.

Therefore in AMD impacted wetlands with low pH values, association need to be rather made between low pH values and algae mats, than nutrient enrichment. (f) Spatial heterogeneity of macrophytes - the numbers of layers of aquatic vegetation occurring was noted according to Williams (1983) and Oberholster et al. (2010) and included the following five layers of aquatic vegetation: (1) free-floating at surface, (2) free floating beneath surface, (3) emergent, (4) in substrate with floating leaves, and (5) submerged (anchored in substrate).
2.3. The Rapid Risk Assessment Matrix

The appropriate steps/instructions to be applied when employing the WCRAI on selected wetlands is summarized in Figure 3.

2.3.1 Wetland variable scores

The different variable scores obtained from the selected study sites at each wetland under investigation were incorporated into the score sheet after completion of the field measurements (Figure 2) where an average for each variable of the 4 selected wetland sites were generated. The sum of the averages of each variable (with a maximum possible total score of 36) was than transformed to a percentage. The percentage outputs were expressed as the standard South African Department of Water Affairs’ A-F ecological categories (Kleynhans, 1996, 1999) (Table 2) and provide a score of the present ecological state or the habitat integrity of each wetland system being examined.

2.3.2 Land Use Evaluation Criteria

A rapid risk assessment method for scoring land use disturbances on the selected wetlands was formulated as part of this study to prioritize wetland classification in terms of land use impacts (Figure 1 and 3). The trigger end points with their associated ranking values vary from 0, 1 and 2. Basic environmental information on the immediate catchment or sub catchment of each wetland under study were obtained from current land-use cartography (1: 50 000). We quantified land cover through observations of the immediate area surrounding the wetland. Importantly, the ranking values used to determine possible trigger end points or impacts cannot be correlated to the habitat integrity of the wetland under study, but rather give an indicative value of alterations that are occurring in the immediate catchment. The
higher the score, the more likely is the chance that these alterations at catchment or sub catchment scale will have direct and indirect impacts on a wetland under study.

2.3.3. The Validation of the WCRAI

To validate the WCRAI, selected water quality variables were measured and used as indicators of ecosystem integrity within the wetlands selected for the case study so as to compare the spatial results obtained from the WCRAI with those of the water quality parameters from a scientific perspective. The key environmental stressors occurring in the immediate catchment or sub catchment of the selected wetlands varied from untreated sewage outflows from sewage treatment plants, acid rain from industries and coal power plants, acid mine drainage from decanting or abundant mines, residue from smelters and slime dams, agriculture and livestock.

3. Results

3.1 Case studies of selected wetlands

Data generated from the survey of 29 wetlands conducted during 2008-2012 in three different eco-regions with the use of the WCRAI indicated that the eco-status of these wetlands ranged from unmodified to largely modified. The results of these assessments are summarized in Table 5. Wetlands in the Mpumalanga and Gauteng regions were categorized as either “Class C” (moderately modified) or “Class D” (largely modified) and their surrounding catchments revealed a wide range of external stressors on the selected wetlands. The single largest stressor impacting these wetlands was salinity, as reflected in the measurement of above average electrical conductivity values (Figure 4). The increased salinity values have triggered
a chain of events that were characterized by an increase in the growth of *Phragmites australis* reedbeds to the point where this species now dominates the open water zone of many of the selected wetlands. The overgrowth of *Phragmites australis* reedbeds in the sampled wetlands affected environmental attributes and biogeochemical processes in a variety of ways, including reduced light availability to submersed macrophytes, reduced water temperatures due to shading, reduced circulation of the water column with resultant changes to processes of gas exchange (between water, atmosphere, sediments and plants), material transport (especially particulate material) and increasing inputs of detrital carbon.

The spatial variation of the selected water quality parameters are presented in Figure 4. From these results it were evident that the conductivity of wetlands 3, 5, 6 and 9 where relative higher to the rest of the wetland tested. pH values also showed an increase at wetlands 5, 9 and 14 relative to pH values measured at wetlands 8, 16, 21, 22, and 28. The low pH ranges were possibly caused by acid rain from the Coal Power Station in the vicinity of wetland 8 and acid mine drainage from abundant mines upstream of wetlands 16, 21, 22, and 28. These wetlands impacted by acid mine drainage had large mats of tolerant green filamentous algae in relationship with low water pH ranges while algae mats were observed in wetland 25 with a pH above 7.8. The latter was possibly due to nutrient enrichment from a sewage treatment plant upstream. Algae mats in wetlands 8, 16, 21, 22, and 28 may be associated to filamentous algae tolerant to low pH values and not due to nutrient enrichment. The dissolved oxygen levels were relatively similar at the respective wetland, whilst a clear decrease was noticed at wetland 3. From the results in Figure 4 it was evident that most of the main variations noticed at the respective wetlands, namely wetlands 3, 5, 6, 9, 16, 21, 22 and 28, with regard to water quality parameters corresponded to a lower eco-status category showed by the WCRAI (Table 3).
During high flow regimes in the summer months, floating macrophytes were remove from some of the selected studied wetlands excluding Pan wetlands. Furthermore, higher water levels in the summer months due to rainfall caused fringing scores of the selected wetlands to vary as well as water conductivity, especially in the case of Pan wetlands. Higher pugging scores were also observed during the winter months in relationship with the summer month and can possibly be related to more water scarcity for animals in the drier winter months.

4. Discussion

Most of the wetlands sampled in this study can be described as channel reedbed marshes due to the lack of open water zones. The vegetation of the reedbed marshes in this study were dominated by *Phragmites australis*, a perennial, emergent, salt-tolerant aquatic plant (Chambers, 1997). The maximum salinity levels tolerated by *Phragmites australis* vary between 5-65 ‰ (Lissner and Schierup, 1997); these values are well above the salinity levels measured in most of the wetlands investigated during this study. A fundamental concern regarding the presence of large stands of *Phragmites australis* is the observed reduction in biodiversity that occurs when many native (indigenous) species of aquatic plants are replaced by the more cosmopolitan species – a feature that was observed in this study.

Water quality is one of the most important factors which influence an aquatic ecosystem’s integrity, as the distribution of aquatic freshwater organisms is controlled mainly by water quality characteristics, including dissolved oxygen, and acidity (Dallas and Day, 1993). Thus, by using these water quality parameters as indicators of ecosystem integrity one would be able to validate the ecological categories obtained from the WCRAI for a specific wetland. Changes in pH levels of water in unimpacted aquatic ecosystems may impact upon associated
biota, whilst changes in electrical conductivity is a useful indicator of changes in dissolved salt loads within a system.

Changes in the various salt concentrations can impact aquatic biota either individually or entire community structure, whilst microbial and other ecological processes may also be affected. This is especially true for depressional wetlands, namely pans, due to these systems having no outlets, e.g. chemicals entering a pan becomes trapped and can accumulate over time. Pans are also subjected to evaporation, evolve, and tend to become more saline. Hence the proper management of these systems are very important (de Klerk et al., 2012). Anoxic conditions can also be lethal to aerobic organisms and many organisms are sensitive to changing dissolved oxygen levels which may result in lethal effects in a short space of time (DWAF, 1996). Thus using these variables one could establish a relative water quality signature of the different wetlands and thus differentiate between different wetlands based on their respective water qualities. From the results (Figure 4), it was evident that wetlands 3, 5, 6, 9, 16, 21, 22, and 28 had the worst measured water qualities when comparing all three selected water quality variables to the rest of the selected wetlands. The rest of the wetlands studied were very similar with regard to changes in water quality variables, with only one of the three water quality variables showing some form of impact on certain wetlands. When these results were compared with the ecological categories obtained from the WCRAI, it was evident that wetlands 3, 5, 6, 9, 16, 21, 22, and 28 rated the lowest in terms of ecological categories, in comparison to the other selected wetlands. This suggests from a scientific perspective that the ecological categories produced by the WCRAI using the selected input variables produces valid and reproducible results.

A wetland that was totally covered by a *Phragmites australis* reedbed and without an open water zone was likely to be receiving nutrient enrichment and water with high salinity from
the surrounding catchment. In order to employ the WCRAI effectively in the field, we recommend that both the chemical and physical attributes of wetland surface water, as well as the biological aspects should be monitored. According to Oberholster et al. (2008) the monitoring of chemical and physical attributes of wetland water were insufficient to assess the health of a wetland ecosystem alone. The main reason for this is our relatively limited knowledge of the specific effects of individual compounds and mixtures of toxic and non-toxic substances on aquatic biota. In addition, chemical monitoring does not account for the variety of man-induced perturbations that influence wetland integrity; these include flow alterations, habitat degradation and removal (destruction) of wetlands, all of which can impair the biological health of a wetland (Roux et al., 1993). Furthermore, although certain previous wetland bioassessment studies have only concentrated on correlation coefficients (r), coefficients of determination (r²) and statistical significance (p) of correlations e.g. Gernes and Helgen, (2002). Bird (2010) suggested that these values do not provide the full wetland picture for bioassessment purposes and that emphasis should rather be placed on visual analysis of a site.

The concept of biological monitoring, or biomonitoring, is a product of the assumption that the measurement of the condition (e.g., an increase of filamentous algae which is an indicator of progressive eutrophication in wetlands) can be used to assess the health of an ecosystem (Herricks and Cairns, 1982). A large number of substances can contribute to problems in freshwater wetlands, and therefore only monitoring for numerous substances that may produce a toxic risk using traditional physical and chemical analytical methods are not only costly and impractical, but very often ineffective in detection of the ecological risks. Furthermore, chemical and physical data are biased towards the momentary conditions that exist at the time the sample was collected and many short-term events that may be critical to
ecosystem health remain undetected. In contrast, biological monitoring of indicator species can detect changes in organisms (e.g., the expansion of reedbeds) and relate these changes to the effects on environmental conditions. These results help to identify point or diffuse sources of pollution as well as natural causes that may have been responsible for the environmental changes over a period of time (Ten Brink and Woudstra, 1991).

5. Conclusion

Because Phragmites australis thrives in disturbed wetland areas (e.g., where a road crosses a wetland area), the presence of Phragmites australis has became a signature of wetland alteration in this study. Phragmites australis was an efficient colonizer of open substrate created by disturbance of wetland habitats (e.g., down slope of slimes dams). By using water quality parameters as indicators of ecosystem integrity, we were able to validate the ecological categories obtained from the WCRAI for a specific wetland. In order to employ the WCRAI effectively in the field, we recommend that both the chemical and physical attributes of wetland surface water, as well as the biological aspects should be monitored. Changes in pH levels of water in impacted aquatic ecosystems may impact upon associated biota, whilst changes in electrical conductivity was a usefull indicator of changes in dissolved salt loads within the different wetland systems. From the information gained through the use of this assessment techniques, compared to those obtained during field surveys, it appears that the WCRAI gave an accurate reflection of the environmental status of the selected wetlands. Furthermore, due to the simplicity of the WCRAI, it can easily been employed by non wetland specialists e.g. environmental officers and farmers in the selected ecoregions of South Africa to manage wetlands sustainability.
Acknowledgements

The authors express their sincere gratitude to the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research for provision of funding. The authors also want to thank the unknown referees for critically reviewing the manuscript and suggesting useful changes.

References


### Table 1 Wetland characteristics used to developed the WCRAI.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wetland Types</th>
<th>Landform and Hydrology Description</th>
<th>Wetland Size Description</th>
<th>Wetland Boundary Description</th>
<th>Hydroperiod Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lake wetlands:</strong> Depressions in valley bottoms, which may be temporarily, seasonally, or permanently, inundated. Unlike pans, they have an outlet at the downstream end that links to a stream or river.</td>
<td><strong>Flats</strong> - have a slope of &lt; 1%, with little or no relief or diffuse margins.</td>
<td><strong>Megascale</strong>: more than 10 km x 10 km.</td>
<td><strong>The grassland zone:</strong> is temporarily wet and is usually dominated by a mixture of plant species that may also occur in non-wetland areas, and hydrophytic plant species that are usually restricted to temporarily and seasonally wet areas.</td>
<td><strong>Permanently inundated</strong> - permanently flooded, water covers the land surface throughout the year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hillslope seepage wetland:</strong> Hillslope wetlands are located on the mid and foot-slopes of hillsides and originate where groundwater emerges. Seepage wetlands are usually connected to valley bottom wetlands or rivers.</td>
<td><strong>Depressions</strong> - are depressed basin-shaped areas in the landscape with no external drainage.Depressions may be shallow or deep and may have flat or concave bottoms.</td>
<td><strong>Microscale</strong>: 1000 m x 1000 m up to 10 km x 10 km.</td>
<td><strong>The wet meadow zone:</strong> is seasonally wet and dominated by hydrophytic plant species (usually sedges and grasses &lt; 1 m tall), which are usually restricted to seasonally or temporarily wet areas.</td>
<td><strong>Seasonally inundated</strong> - surface water is present for extended periods, especially during the early part of the growing season, but is absent in the dry season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pan:</strong> Small depressions with an inward draining flow pattern, and no outflow.</td>
<td><strong>Channels</strong> - refer to any incised water course. Channels may be shallow or deep but always have clearly defined margins.</td>
<td><strong>Mesoscale</strong>: 500 m x 500 m up to 1000 m x 1000 m.</td>
<td><strong>The marsh zone:</strong> is usually dominated by tall emergent herbaceous plants such as reeds (e.g. Phragmites australis) (usually &gt; 1 m tall), and consists of permanently or semi-permanently wet areas.</td>
<td><strong>Intermittently inundated</strong> - substrate is usually exposed but surface water is present at various times with no definite seasonal period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>River wetland:</strong> Linear, fluvial, eroded landforms that carry canalized flow on a permanent, seasonal, or episodic basis, and include wetland areas within the active channel.</td>
<td><strong>Channel flat</strong> - comprised of a flat incised by a channel.</td>
<td><strong>Microscale</strong>: 100 m x 100 m up to 500 m x 500 m.</td>
<td><strong>The open water zone:</strong> is usually dominated by free-floating plants on the water surface, free floating beneath surface, emergent in substrate with floating leaves, and submerged (anchored in substrate).</td>
<td><strong>Seasonally waterlogged</strong> - wetland soils that are saturated with water, but where the water does not inundate or cover the soil surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Riverine wetland:</strong> Linear strips parallel to a river but are generally separated from the river channel by natural levees.</td>
<td><strong>Channel disrupting flats</strong> - comprise a flat that is fed and drained by a channel.</td>
<td><strong>Microscale</strong>: 100 m x 100 m up to 500 m x 500 m.</td>
<td><strong>The marsh zone:</strong> is usually dominated by tall emergent herbaceous plants such as reeds (e.g. Phragmites australis) (usually &gt; 1 m tall), and consists of permanently or semi-permanently wet areas.</td>
<td><strong>Intermittently inundated</strong> - substrate is usually exposed but surface water is present at various times with no definite seasonal period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meandering Floodplain:</strong> Linear, fluvial river with a meandering channel. The meandering channel flows within an unconfined depositional valley, and ox-bow lakes or cutoff meanders are often visible.</td>
<td>Slopes - are areas with a gradient &gt; 1%, which may be either concave or convex.</td>
<td>Leptoscale: less than 100 m x 100 m.</td>
<td><strong>The open water zone:</strong> is usually dominated by free-floating plants on the water surface, free floating beneath surface, emergent in substrate with floating leaves, and submerged (anchored in substrate).</td>
<td><strong>Seasonally waterlogged</strong> - wetland soils that are saturated with water, but where the water does not inundate or cover the soil surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unchannelled Valley Bottoms:</strong> Linear, fluvial, valley bottom surfaces that do not have any noticeable channels. The valley floor acts as a depositional environment composed of accumulated sediment.</td>
<td><strong>Slopes</strong> - are areas with a gradient &gt; 1%, which may be either concave or convex.</td>
<td>Leptoscale: less than 100 m x 100 m.</td>
<td><strong>The open water zone:</strong> is usually dominated by free-floating plants on the water surface, free floating beneath surface, emergent in substrate with floating leaves, and submerged (anchored in substrate).</td>
<td><strong>Seasonally waterlogged</strong> - wetland soils that are saturated with water, but where the water does not inundate or cover the soil surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Channelled Valley Bottoms:</strong> Linear, fluvial, valley bottom surfaces that have a straight channel which carries water on a permanent, seasonal or episodic basis. No cutoff meanders or ox-bow are visible.</td>
<td><strong>Slopes</strong> - are areas with a gradient &gt; 1%, which may be either concave or convex.</td>
<td>Leptoscale: less than 100 m x 100 m.</td>
<td><strong>The open water zone:</strong> is usually dominated by free-floating plants on the water surface, free floating beneath surface, emergent in substrate with floating leaves, and submerged (anchored in substrate).</td>
<td><strong>Seasonally waterlogged</strong> - wetland soils that are saturated with water, but where the water does not inundate or cover the soil surface.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 Description of the A-F ecological categories (adapted from Kleynhans, 1996, 1999).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ecological category</th>
<th>Score in percentage (%)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>90-100</td>
<td>Unmodified, natural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>80-90</td>
<td>Largely natural with few modifications. A few small-scale changes in natural habitats and biota may have taken place but the ecosystem functions are essentially unchanged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>60-80</td>
<td>Moderated modified. Loss and changes of natural habitat and biota have occurred, but the basic ecosystem functions are still predominantly unchanged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>40-60</td>
<td>Largely modified. A large loss of natural habitat, biota and basic ecosystem function has occurred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>20-40</td>
<td>Seriously modified. The loss of natural habitat, biota and basic ecosystem functions is extensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>0-20</td>
<td>Critically modified. Modifications have reached a critical level and the system has been modified completely with an almost complete loss of natural habitat and biota.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Summary of ecostatus scores for the 29 wetlands evaluated during the case study period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wetland No.</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Wetland Type</th>
<th>Main landuse stressor</th>
<th>Total Wetland Category Score</th>
<th>Percentage (of Maximum Possible Score) (%)</th>
<th>Wetland Ecostatus Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25° 57’ 32.2” S</td>
<td>29° 46’ 27.96” E</td>
<td>River</td>
<td>Power station</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>26° 37’ 13.53” S</td>
<td>30° 6’ 29.4” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Road</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>26° 46’ 2.80” S</td>
<td>28° 30’ 22.9” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Slimes dam</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26° 3’ 5.32” S</td>
<td>29° 35’ 46.96” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Road</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>26° 2’ 59.08” S</td>
<td>29° 36’ 28.44” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Pipeline</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>26° 2’ 42.2” S</td>
<td>29° 36’ 35.63” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Slimes dam</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>26° 1’ 51.39” S</td>
<td>29° 25’ 15.21” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Treatment plant</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>26° 5’ 51.08” S</td>
<td>28° 57’ 38.59” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Power station</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>26° 14’ 59.44” S</td>
<td>29° 12’ 9.23” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Power station</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>27° 6’ 13.34” S</td>
<td>29° 45’ 49.37” E</td>
<td>Unchannelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Ash dam</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>27° 6’ 41.24” S</td>
<td>29° 45’ 30.77” E</td>
<td>Meandering Floodplain</td>
<td>Ash dam</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>27° 6’ 26.77” S</td>
<td>29° 44’ 15.63” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Road</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>27° 6’ 47.79” S</td>
<td>29° 47’ 1301” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Railway lines</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>26° 16’ 59.2” S</td>
<td>29° 9’ 26.5” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Power Lines</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>25° 58’ 15.17” S</td>
<td>28° 58’ 57.87” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>25° 51’ 22.56” S</td>
<td>28° 8’ 6.98” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Acid mine drainage</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>27° 11’ 12.96” S</td>
<td>27° 41’ 6.92” E</td>
<td>Lake</td>
<td>Industrial inflow</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>26° 16’ 14.00” S</td>
<td>30° 8’ 14.08” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Agriculture and Livestock</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>26° 12’ 28.44” S</td>
<td>30° 1’ 2’ 16.98” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>26° 12’ 49.04” S</td>
<td>30° 13’ 9.76” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>25°46’32.56” S</td>
<td>29° 1’23.50” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Acid mine drainage</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>26° 7’ 26.7” S</td>
<td>27° 40’ 59.8” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Acid mine drainage</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>25° 46’ 11.88” S</td>
<td>29° 28’ 55.23” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Industrial inflow</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>24° 30’ 28.4” S</td>
<td>27° 52’ 0.00” E</td>
<td>Hillslope Seepage</td>
<td>Game farming</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>25° 53’ 11.36” S</td>
<td>26° 18’ 20.47” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Wastewater treatment plant</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>25° 52’ 21.71” S</td>
<td>29° 0’ 36.70” E</td>
<td>Channelled Valley Bottom</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>26° 16’ 14.94” S</td>
<td>30° 14’ 31.68” E</td>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>26° 10’ 7.50” S</td>
<td>27.7’ 12’ 31” E</td>
<td>Riverine</td>
<td>Acid mine drainage</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>23° 39’ 13.78” S</td>
<td>27° 45’ 47.08” E</td>
<td>River</td>
<td>Sand mining</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 1 The WCRAI fieldsheet used during the assessment of a wetland
Fig. 2 The different variable scores obtained from the selected study sites at each wetland under investigation which were incorporated into the report sheet after completion of the field measurements.
Fig. 3 The appropriate steps/instructions to be applied, or the important information to be gathered when using the WCRAI on selected wetlands.
**Fig. 4** Spatial changes in selected water quality parameters, namely electrical conductivity (E.C.), dissolved oxygen (D.O.), and pH. Values have been log$_{10}$ transformed.