

## Nationally coordinated river bioassessment

**THE IMPERATIVE NEED FOR NATIONALLY COORDINATED  
BIOASSESSMENT OF RIVERS AND STREAMS**

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35 **Abstract**

36 Declining water quality and ecological condition is a typical trend for rivers and streams  
37 worldwide as human demands for water resources increase. Managing these natural  
38 resources sustainably is a key responsibility of governments. Effective water management  
39 policies require information derived from long-term monitoring and evaluation. Biological  
40 monitoring and assessment are critical for management because bioassessment integrates  
41 the biological, physical and chemical features of a waterbody. Investment in nationally  
42 coordinated riverine bioassessment in Australia has almost ceased and the foci of  
43 management questions are on more localized assessments. However, rivers often span  
44 political and administrative boundaries, and their condition may be best protected and  
45 managed under national policies, supported by a coordinated national bioassessment  
46 framework. We argue that a nationally coordinated program for the bioassessment of  
47 riverine health is an essential element of sustainable management of a nation's water  
48 resources. We outline new techniques and research needed to streamline current  
49 arrangements to meet present-day and emerging challenges for coordinating and  
50 integrating local, regional and national bioassessment activities. This paper draws on  
51 international experience in riverine bioassessment to identify attributes of successful broad  
52 -scale bioassessment programs and strategies needed to modernize freshwater  
53 bioassessment in Australia and re-establish national broad-scale focus.

54 **Additional keywords:** Freshwater monitoring; biological assessment; broad-scale; water  
55 quality; streams; rivers

56 **Introduction**

57 The wellbeing of any nation is strongly connected to its freshwater ecosystems, and this is  
58 particularly so in Australia, being the driest inhabited continent. Yet the multiple and often  
59 competing demands on water for people, livestock, and industry have adversely affected  
60 many of Australia's aquatic environments (Norris *et al.* 2001a). Consequently, many  
61 populations of distinctive aquatic flora and fauna have declined, and some are close to  
62 extinction (Koehn and Lintermans 2012). This trend of declining ecological condition is  
63 typical worldwide (Dudgeon *et al.* 2006). The challenges surrounding sustainable use of  
64 water resources are likely to be further exacerbated by population growth and climate  
65 change (Aldous *et al.* 2011; Pittock and Finlayson 2011).

66 Federal and State governments in Australia have acted to arrest declines in the ecological  
67 health of riverine systems, through the *National River Health Program* (1992), *Council of*  
68 *Australia Governments* water reforms (1994), the *National Water Initiative* (2004), the  
69 *Water Act 2007* (see Australia Government 2015) and the *Water for the Future* program  
70 (2010) These initiatives and similar approaches worldwide require information that is best  
71 derived from a long-term and widespread program of monitoring, assessment and  
72 evaluation. Such a program should evaluate the condition of these resources as functioning  
73 aquatic ecosystems, complementing assessment of their values for agriculture, urban water  
74 supply and other human uses.

75 Freshwater biological assessment, or ‘bioassessment’, is used to quantify the ecological  
76 status of water bodies, describe change in status over time, identify progress against  
77 management targets and diagnose causes and effects of biological degradation.  
78 Bioassessment comprises a suite of methods for surveying aquatic biota. In this paper we  
79 are referring to bioassessment approaches that measure the freshwater communities  
80 resident in a waterbody. We are not referring to the measurement of biomarkers, species  
81 physiology, biochemistry or gene expression. Describing and interpreting the changes in  
82 the composition of benthic invertebrate assemblages has been a particular focus in  
83 Australia and worldwide (e.g. Barbour *et al.* 1999; ANZECC and ARMCANZ 2000a;  
84 Jones *et al.* 2010) and is important for effective management of water resources,  
85 particularly when combined with physical and chemical monitoring (ANZECC and  
86 ARMCANZ 2000b). Bioassessment is of great value in measuring cost-effectiveness of  
87 expenditure for catchments and waterway restoration, to ensure that interventions are  
88 achieving intended ecological objectives.

89 In Europe, bioassessment approaches are a key component of the European Union’s Water  
90 Framework Directive (WFD), a comprehensive policy framework that integrates the  
91 protection and sustainable management of surface and ground water into other areas of  
92 policy (WFD 2000). Working from the subsidiarity principle, the 28 member states of the  
93 European Union (and Norway) have worked towards harmonizing (inter-calibrating) their  
94 national bioassessment procedures, facilitating a timetable of repeat overviews of  
95 condition (status), and assessing change in condition of water bodies across Europe. The  
96 WFD provides a mandate for national policies to drive improvements in the condition of  
97 water bodies, with a target of achieving ‘Good’ status in all water bodies where it is  
98 feasible, and no decline in status.

99 Broad-scale assessment of condition of rivers and streams often spans political and  
100 administrative boundaries, requiring multijurisdictional coordination. In Australia, the  
101 Australian River Assessment System (AUSRIVAS) bioassessment framework (Davies  
102 2000; Simpson and Norris 2000) enabled the National River Health Program's nationwide  
103 assessment of river health (Norris *et al.* 2001b). These data demonstrated massive human-  
104 induced change to Australian rivers (Norris *et al.* 2007). The findings informed decision  
105 making within the Australian Government and contributed to positive changes in  
106 management and investment for broad-scale, environmentally sustainable, water  
107 management. That bioassessment framework established the most spatially extensive  
108 bioassessment data set now available in Australia –a data set that has many benefits  
109 beyond its primary purpose(see Marsh *et al.* 2012).

110 Despite these broad-scale concerns for the sustainable use of water resources in Australia,  
111 investment in nationally coordinated broad-scale freshwater bioassessment has reduced  
112 over the last decade. The National River Health Program was discontinued in 2002 and  
113 national-scale monitoring ceased. The federally funded Sustainable Rivers Audit (Davies  
114 *et al.* 2010) of the Murray-Darling Basin has been scaled back, evolving to focus on  
115 specific ecological objectives related to environmental watering. Australian governments  
116 are increasingly applying bioassessment to shorter-term investigations or analysis of  
117 smaller-scale intervention projects. However, is this shift towards a more local perspective  
118 addressing the broad-scale, longer-term needs of our riverine ecosystems?

119 In this paper, we argue that to attain sustainability for freshwaters nationally in Australia it  
120 is essential to resume a nationally-coordinated program of broad-scale bioassessment so  
121 that managers have continuing and comparable information on changes in condition across  
122 whole river systems, regions and climatic zones. To encourage this reinvigoration, we start  
123 by examining the value and essential attributes of broad-scale bioassessment programs in  
124 Australia, UK/Europe, USA and Canada, and then examine new technologies that hold  
125 promise for overcoming some of the shortcomings of current bioassessment. Last, we  
126 overview a proposed approach to modernize bioassessment in Australia and to re-establish  
127 a national focus.

## 128 **Bioassessment, its value and uses**

129 Benthic invertebrates are commonly used for freshwater bioassessment because they  
130 facilitate the delivery of many ecosystem services and reflect delivery of others, while

131 responding in a broadly systematic way to many human interventions. Invertebrates are  
132 food for fish and other organisms, provide ecosystem functions such as nutrient processing  
133 and retention, and carbon fixation, and are used by humans in recreation and education  
134 (Suter and Cormier 2014). Invertebrate bioassessment provides one of several possible  
135 ‘windows’ onto the status and functioning of freshwater ecosystems.

136 Bioassessment has utility to stakeholders for many reasons at all levels of governance  
137 (Table 1). Bioassessment provides a time-integrated assessment of impacts on aquatic  
138 ecosystems. This is effective at detecting longer-term effects of episodic events (Kowalik  
139 and Ormerod 2006; Beketov *et al.* 2013) and cumulative effects of chronic stressors (Lies  
140 and Beketov 2011). Bioassessment outputs can also be used to generate simple ‘report  
141 cards’ about waterway condition for engagement with managers, politicians and the  
142 broader community (e.g. Norris *et al.* 2001a; Bunn *et al.* 2010). Report cards can  
143 summarize complex biological information into simple ‘traffic light’ style representations  
144 of condition (Table 1) at various scales e.g. Australia (Harrison *et al.* 2011); Europe  
145 (European Commission 2012). Data on trends in indices through time over large scales can  
146 provide informative representations of effects of changes in management actions such as  
147 restoration of riparian zones, mitigation of salinization or provision of environmental flows  
148 (e.g. Thomson *et al.* 2012).

149 Effective bioassessment involves comparison to a reference condition (or ‘control’). The  
150 reference condition approach (Reynoldson *et al.* 1997) uses a regional reference condition  
151 defined by sites in undisturbed (or minimally disturbed) condition. These methods provide  
152 a benchmark against which to judge impacts (Hawkins *et al.* 2010), correcting for the  
153 natural variation in environmental conditions between sites, which is often observed within  
154 broad-scale monitoring programs (Jones *et al.* 2010). The reference condition approach is  
155 also cost-effective for broad-scale surveillance monitoring because it enables a level of  
156 rigor and confidence in the results that can be prohibitive using a traditional ‘Before After  
157 Control Impact’ sampling designs and impossible (for both broad and fine-scale  
158 monitoring) when the disturbance occurred in the past. Bioassessment against a reference  
159 condition is powerful in this context because it can express quantitatively whether  
160 degradation, or recovery, is happening and how quickly.

161 *Two distinct but complementary approaches to bioassessment*

162 Broad-scale surveillance bioassessment and finer-scaled intervention or investigative  
163 bioassessment represent two distinct but complementary approaches. The risk of relying  
164 solely on broad-scale surveillance bioassessment is that the data will have insufficient  
165 detail to detect small changes resulting from management actions at specific locations.  
166 Focussing on bioassessment at fine scales often precludes the collection of long-term  
167 contextual data and shifts in baseline conditions could obscure responses to management  
168 actions. Moreover, sampling only for fine-scale intervention or investigative assessment  
169 may miss some impacts of unforeseen major stressors or those acting at larger scales, and  
170 also may lack the regional context within which to frame the nature of an ecological  
171 response.

## 172 **Australian bioassessment and water policy**

173 Australia currently lacks surveillance monitoring and assessment of riverine condition in  
174 many places that would allow detection of unexpected declines in river condition, and  
175 timely remediation. In the early 1990s, concern regarding broad-scale environmental  
176 events (e.g. the Darling River blue-green algal blooms of 1991; Donnelly *et al.* 1997) and  
177 the inclusion of biological indicators in national policy and water quality guidelines (such  
178 as ANZECC 1992) accelerated the development and implementation of bioassessment in  
179 Australia (Davies 2000). It was recognized that biological data were needed to  
180 complement chemical and physical measurements, and so improve management decisions  
181 regarding the ecological condition of Australia's rivers. Research and development  
182 activities adapted methods and indices from the UK and North America aimed at  
183 standardizing interpretation and reporting, particularly for broad-scale assessment  
184 (Chessman 1995; Marchant *et al.* 1997). The Australian River Assessment System  
185 (AUSRIVAS) was developed during this phase of bioassessment under the Australian  
186 Federal Government National River Health Program (NRHP) (see Davies 1994).

187 The NRHP involved the major environmental agency in each Australian state and territory  
188 as well as university and independent research providers, and was centrally administered  
189 by the Federal government. The objective of the program was to develop a bioassessment  
190 system that could deliver a nation-wide assessment of river health. The program resulted in  
191 just one national river health survey that included 6000 sites (Davies 2000). Since that  
192 initial assessment, no updated nationally coordinated assessment of river and stream  
193 condition has been conducted, and AUSRIVAS is now largely used for targeted site

194 assessments and State or Territory-based assessment purposes.. The NRHP is now defunct  
195 but several states (but not all) have maintained the component bioassessment programs at  
196 state-wide or regional scales (over thousands of square kilometres) (Table 2). A ministerial  
197 requirement still exists under the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation*  
198 *Act 1999* to report to Parliament every five years on the national state of the environment.  
199 However, this national *State of the Environment* reporting on river condition remains  
200 limited because regional assessment is not consistent temporally and the spatial coverage  
201 of sites is not adequate (Harrison *et al.* 2011).

202 The history of riverine bioassessment in Australia ranges from short-term, small-scale  
203 studies of particular issues, through to longer-term and larger-scale programs (Fig. 1).  
204 Broad-scale bioassessment data have been used for post-hoc analyses of drivers of  
205 environment concern such as climate change (e.g. Chessman 2009; Thomson *et al.* 2012).  
206 Some broad-scale bioassessment programs have been complemented by research projects,  
207 such as the Monitoring River Health Initiative (Davies 1994). More recent examples  
208 include assessing the effects of riparian restoration – see the Riparian Restoration  
209 Experiment (Hale *et al.* 2011) and Carbon Project (Giling *et al.* 2013). Smaller-scale  
210 research projects have been used to complement bioassessment programs (e.g. Cotter  
211 River environmental flows studies; Norris and Nichols 2011; White *et al.* 2012), which in  
212 some cases have extended over 5–10 years (e.g. Items 9, 10; Table 2).

213 Although some of the bioassessment programs referred to above and in Table 2 are at  
214 relatively large scales they are not necessarily ongoing or long-term. The current absence  
215 of programs at the broad scale and the long-term is an obvious gap (Fig. 1). This is  
216 particularly important given that changes in land and water use, and climate change, have  
217 broad-scale, cross-boundary impacts. While this is recognised in the Murray Darling Basin  
218 Plan (Commonwealth of Australia 2012), Australia currently lacks a coordinated nation-  
219 wide program addressing multi-decadal impacts and responses (see Fig. 1). To detect the  
220 slower changes wrought by climate change and deal with the long response times expected  
221 for many restoration programs, a reinvigorated national-scale program is needed to address  
222 the clear bioassessment gap at the right-hand end of Figure 1. To encourage this  
223 reinvigoration, we start by examining essential attributes of broad-scale (national / multi-  
224 national) bioassessment programs (again with a focus on riverine benthic invertebrates).

**225 National bioassessment programs in the United Kingdom/Europe, Canada and USA**

226 Broad-scale (multijurisdictional) surveillance bioassessment programs face multiple  
227 operational and financial challenges, as well as ensuring legacies under changing  
228 administrative arrangements. These can be seen when examining the Australian  
229 program alongside three other broad-scale programs.

*230 Bioassessment in the United Kingdom and Europe*

231 Beginning in the early 1970s, the United Kingdom's bioassessment program is the oldest  
232 of the four national surveillance programs considered here. The objective of this program  
233 was to provide ongoing broad-scale assessment of the ecological status of rivers. Regional  
234 biological assessment programs (typically based on invertebrates and fish) were  
235 established prior to this, but they lacked comparability. To enable a UK-wide river  
236 assessment (using invertebrate data), a predictive modelling approach was developed  
237 based on reference condition, the River Invertebrate Prediction and Classification System  
238 (RIVPACS, Wright *et al.* 2000), initially from a reference data set of 268 sites. In 2014,  
239 after three further iterations, the data set includes 685 reference sites (Jones *et al.* 2010).

240 A major component of the program was a quinquennial national river survey, which  
241 provided reports of status and trend. In England and Wales, the first 'national' survey was  
242 of approximately 5000 river sites in 1990 by the National Rivers Authority, and similar  
243 surveillance surveys were conducted in Northern Ireland and Scotland. The surveillance  
244 surveys were repeated in 1995, then 2000 and 2005. After the adoption of the European  
245 Union's Water Framework Directive (European Parliament 2000) into UK national  
246 legislation, the surveillance monitoring program shifted to a rolling (temporally stratified)  
247 survey design with the same broad-scale objectives but approximately a third of sites  
248 sampled each year, and status and trends reported every six years using a new version of  
249 RIVPACS compliant with WFD legislation (now housed in the River Invertebrate  
250 Classification Tool). In addition, new tools were developed, based on the reference  
251 condition approach, to enable the other biological quality elements stipulated in the WFD  
252 to be included in assessments, and water bodies other than rivers to be assessed.

253 With the adoption of the WFD, the UK national system has been subsumed into a far  
254 larger monitoring network covering 29 countries across Europe and comprising more than  
255 300 separate bioassessment systems (Birk *et al.* 2012; Poikane *et al.* 2015). This has



256 required inter-calibrating bioassessment approaches across member states to ensure  
257 comparability in both the quality assessments (e.g. High, Good, Moderate, Poor, Bad) and  
258 targets. This complex process has focussed on harmonising quality class boundaries,  
259 particularly the politically important Good/Moderate boundary. In addition, member states  
260 must establish the uncertainty associated with their systems. Despite the difficulties of  
261 inter-calibration, the WFD provides a framework based on common principles for EU  
262 member states to coordinate efforts to improve the protection of water quantity and  
263 quality, to promote sustainable water use, and to help control trans-boundary water  
264 problems for surface waters.

265 Reporting of status and trends of water resources is now supra-national with all EU  
266 member states working to a common timetable of reporting at member state and regional  
267 level. This reporting is tied to a cyclical management framework with a common goal of  
268 all water bodies achieving ‘Good’ status, and no overall decline in the proportion of sites  
269 failing to achieve this between reporting periods (i.e. 2015, 2021, 2027). Failure puts the  
270 member state at risk of being subject to infraction proceedings and potentially punitive  
271 fines from the European Union. Sitting below this surveillance program, both finer-scale  
272 and investigative monitoring approaches are used to establish the cause of issues and the  
273 effectiveness of interventions designed to improve status. The long-term monitoring of  
274 British rivers show their condition has improved considerably since 1990 (DEFRA 2012).

#### 275 *Bioassessment in Canada*

276 The Canadian aquatic biomonitoring network (CABIN) was developed from regional  
277 bioassessment programs for the Great Lakes (1990—1994) and the Fraser River  
278 (1993—1997) (Reynoldson *et al.* 2001). The regional success of these programs  
279 resulted in a recommendation for a national biomonitoring program (Reynoldson *et al.*  
280 1999) that would:

- 281 • address environmental problems affecting large areas of the country and that have  
282 cumulative effects on freshwater ecosystems;
- 283 • meet regional requirements for biological assessment (e.g. *Prairie Provinces Water*  
284 *Board, Ecosystem Initiatives*);
- 285 • provide the needs of a national early warning system; and

- 286 • address concerns expressed in the Office of the *Auditor General / Commissioner of the*  
 287 *Environment and Sustainable Development 1999* report that there were ‘significant  
 288 shortcomings in the federal government's environmental monitoring activities’ and  
 289 ‘the federal government's approach to effects monitoring is disorganised and lacks  
 290 focus’ (CESD 1999).

291 At present, the program coverage is still patchy because it relies on collaborative  
 292 participation and data sharing by multiple agencies and governments. The network  
 293 currently covers most of British Columbia, the Yukon, Northern Ontario, the Great  
 294 Lakes and Atlantic Canada, and has specific areas of interest in the Northwest  
 295 Territories, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec. There is however,  
 296 no substantial program of surveys and reporting on the condition of rivers and streams  
 297 at the national level. The Canadian Environmental Sustainability Indicators (CESI;  
 298 <https://www.ec.gc.ca/indicateurs-indicators/>) is a survey at selected sites around the  
 299 country that reports on focused physical–chemical water quality variables but it has no  
 300 bioassessment component.

301 *Bioassessment in USA*

302 Bioassessment in the United States is largely conducted in response to requirements of  
 303 the 1972 Clean Water Act (amended in 1987) that states and tribes monitor the water  
 304 quality of their surface and ground waters. The Clean Water Act was enacted to  
 305 ‘restore and maintain the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the nation’s  
 306 waters’. Section 305(b) of the Clean Water Act requires that states report the results of  
 307 their assessments to the US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) and that the  
 308 USEPA summarizes these results in a report to Congress every two years. The intent of  
 309 the national 305(b) reports was to inform Congress about trends and status of the  
 310 nation’s water quality, including aspects of biological integrity.

311 However, the 305(b) summaries have been criticized since the late 1970s for several  
 312 reasons including the lack of ecologically relevant data and inconsistencies in the  
 313 survey designs, methods, and criteria used by different states and tribes (GAO US  
 314 2000; Shapiro *et al.* 2008). In 2005, the USEPA Office of Water, in partnership with  
 315 states, tribes, and the USEPA Office of Research and Development Environmental  
 316 Monitoring and Assessment Program, initiated the National Aquatic Resource Surveys  
 317 (USEPA 2009). These surveys are designed to provide nationally consistent and

318 scientifically valid assessments of the quality of the nation's waters and the stressors  
 319 associated with degradation. These assessments use probability-based survey designs,  
 320 standardized sampling methods and indices to produce estimates of water quality at  
 321 national, regional, and state spatial scales. The surveys are conducted for streams and  
 322 rivers, lakes, coastal waters, and wetlands on a 5-year rotation with streams and rivers  
 323 being surveyed over a two-year period. Biological assessments are based on both  
 324 multi-metric indices and RIVPACS-type observed/expected (O/E) taxa indices.

325 **Comparative summary of national bioassessment in Australia, United**  
 326 **Kingdom/Europe, Canada and USA**

327 Our assessment of the above programs identifies five attributes (Table 3) that broad-scale  
 328 (national or multi-national) aquatic bioassessment programs should meet to be successful:  
 329 a mandate, political context and governance, fitness for purpose, clear objectives and  
 330 relevancy. Table 4 compares these programs against these attributes .We have only  
 331 reviewed selected programs that involve broad spatial scales. . Other countries have  
 332 developed, or are in the process of developing, broad-scale bioassessment programs e.g.  
 333 South Africa (Dickens and Graham 2002), Thailand (Boonsoong *et al.* 2009), the Hindu  
 334 Kush-Himalayan Region (Stubauer *et al.* 2010) and in East Africa (Masese *et al.* 2013).  
 335 Buss *et al.* (2015) reviewed 13 bioassessment protocols used around the world and this  
 336 suggests that our chosen programs are representative of that broader set.

337 The similarities and contrasts between the programs we review are instructive. All  
 338 purport to be national scale (or multi-national in the case of EU) but only the  
 339 UK/Europe and USA programs remain truly broad-scale multi-jurisdictional, and  
 340 indications are that these two programs have the strongest political context and  
 341 governance (Table 4). Spatial coverage might be considered important (or pose  
 342 difficulties) in the development of a comparable broad-scale bioassessment program.  
 343 Smaller countries such as the UK (244,000 km<sup>2</sup>) may be thought of as better suited for  
 344 the approach. However, both the USA (9,631,420 km<sup>2</sup>) and the European Union  
 345 (4,422,773 km<sup>2</sup>) are committed to broad-scale aquatic bioassessment programs not  
 346 matched by Australia (7,682,000 km<sup>2</sup>) or Canada (9,984,670 km<sup>2</sup>), despite their similar  
 347 land areas and variation in environmental conditions.

348 In the early political development of both Canada and Australia constitutional transfer  
 349 of resource management powers to the regions (provinces and states / territories

350 respectively) was a consequence of their large area. This structure has reduced the  
351 federal (national) role in resource management and tends to drive a piecemeal  
352 approach to broad-scale problems. In Australia, one consequence of this was that the  
353 national program was built on existing state programs and the capacity to take  
354 advantage of higher spatial scale incorporation may have been compromised (a  
355 Framework for the Assessment of River and Wetland Health was subsequently  
356 developed to overcome this very issue, see Alluvium Consulting 2011). In contrast,  
357 resource management in the UK was devolved to the home nations with separate  
358 legislation and structures in Northern Ireland and Scotland, yet from this disparate  
359 network a coordinated program developed. In turn, this has been replaced by a  
360 European framework covering all member states where, working from a principal of  
361 subsidiarity, the reporting of national programs has been synchronised to produce a  
362 system capable of delivering supra-national goals. Although the process of inter-  
363 calibration is challenging and time consuming, it is evident that a federal/state structure  
364 does not preclude consistent broad-scale reporting. In terms of temporal (and political)  
365 continuity there are advantages to incorporating established state monitoring systems  
366 into a broad-scale network, but these advantages have to be weighed against the effort  
367 required (and uncertainty incorporated) when doing so.

368 National aquatic bioassessment programs in the UK, USA, and initially in Australia,  
369 had strong political and/or policy mandates and were developed in response to public  
370 concerns and requests from national and state agencies. The mandates have continued  
371 to evolve in the UK, Europe and USA. In Australia's case, the national program was  
372 developed in response to a perceived crisis and not sustained over the long term. The  
373 initial strong impetus for a national assessment of river health has been weakened by a  
374 changing federal context, continual jurisdictional re-organisations and a lack of a  
375 consistent national policy focus for non-marine aquatic ecosystem management.  
376 Australian riverine bioassessment programs are now serving only state, regional and  
377 local needs. In Canada, there was never a management or political requirement for  
378 national freshwater bioassessment. Canada's national program and methods were  
379 developed from regional projects or initiatives rather than a diverse array of provincial  
380 programs. In that sense, the CABIN program was driven from the bottom up to meet a  
381 need that was not acknowledged at higher levels of Government. It seems that without  
382 a strong policy driving the need for broad-scale bioassessment, the default is smaller

383 scale and local assessments that target specific interventions. Without coordination,  
384 bioassessment at this scale may not produce data that can be aggregated to meet  
385 national reporting and/or policy needs, and may not necessarily align with the broad-  
386 scale, longer-term needs of our riverine ecosystems.

387 In Australia, new challenges are restricting applications of bioassessment. With some  
388 bioassessment techniques currently in use, practitioners cannot readily diagnose the  
389 causes of impairment or place the scale of impairment in a broader context (Nichols  
390 and Dyer 2013). Another challenge relates to unrealistic expectations of the time  
391 needed to measure an ecological response to interventions, which presents a challenge  
392 within short political cycles. Actual ecological responses may be slow and must be  
393 assessed against a background of natural variability. Broad-scale assessments require  
394 considerable effort, coordination and spatial coverage, all of which take time and  
395 resources (Tullos *et al.* 2009). Emerging techniques could help address some of these  
396 challenges. However, the capacity of bioassessment in general, and particularly of  
397 broad-scale and coordinated long-term programs, will continue to be restricted unless  
398 policies and resourcing are focused on emerging water management needs and the  
399 uptake of emerging technologies.

#### 400 **Emerging technologies**

401 A range of emerging technologies and approaches could help improve the efficiency of  
402 bioassessment and its suitability to meet the challenges of current bioassessment and future  
403 broad-scale programs.

#### 404 *Molecular tools*

405 The rapid development of molecular techniques for taxonomic identification, along with  
406 associated advancement in methods for data generation and analysis, has made molecular  
407 analyses both fast and cost-effective (Shokralla *et al.* 2012). High throughput molecular  
408 methods and next generation sequencing (NGS) technology can potentially increase the  
409 accuracy, speed and reduce the costs of the sample sorting and identification. DNA  
410 barcoding uses a short DNA sequence from a specified region of the genome to provide an  
411 identity 'barcode'. The application of molecular techniques to biomonitoring and the  
412 assessment of aquatic ecosystem condition is at the forefront of the technology (Baird and  
413 Hajibabaei 2012; Deiner *et al.* 2015). DNA barcoding can reliably identify species

414 regardless of life-stage or damage to the specimen, and was found to reveal more insect  
415 ‘species’ with greater accuracy than traditional methods (Dapkey 2008). Additionally,  
416 while traditional bioassessment methods target a single group of organisms, e.g.  
417 macroinvertebrates, molecular approaches could collect data on other biotic groups such as  
418 algae and microbial communities, which may offer further insights into ecological  
419 processes (Woodward *et al.* 2013).

420 The opportunity now exists to develop broad-scale bioassessment that is more efficient (in  
421 time and cost). This should further facilitate community or ‘citizen science’ bioassessment  
422 programs that are currently hindered by lack of taxonomic expertise (Biggs *et al.* 2015).  
423 Samples could be collected by trained community members and sent to specialist  
424 laboratories to produce species lists and provide other benefits, such as a faster sample  
425 processing and increased taxonomic resolution compared with traditional morphological  
426 identifications (Stein *et al.* 2014). This could facilitate community engagement and extend  
427 a national bioassessment network.

428 Work has begun on DNA barcoding for use in freshwater bioassessment (Hajibabaei *et al.*  
429 2011; Carew *et al.* 2013) but we need to demonstrate the value of integrating these new  
430 approaches and emerging technologies with existing bioassessment frameworks for broad-  
431 scale monitoring (Pilgrim *et al.* 2011). This requires fundamental research to avoid  
432 introducing new errors (for further discussion see Dafforn *et al.* 2015).

#### 433 *Diagnostic bioassessment and linking bioassessment with ecosystem services*

434 The pioneers of bioassessment have always stressed the importance of integrating  
435 biological information with data from habitat assessments, hydrological investigations, and  
436 knowledge of land use to aid interpretation of biological data and to provide a more  
437 comprehensive diagnostic assessment of impacts (Norris and Norris 1995; Barbour *et al.*  
438 1999; Karr 1999). Bioassessment is important in this sense because (a) the sampling  
439 regime of routine physical and chemical sampling is seldom adequate to describe temporal  
440 variation in the levels of many stressors (e.g. turbidity, pesticides) and cannot detect  
441 stressors that are not specifically targeted for measurement; and (b) without bioassessment  
442 the ecological impacts of particular stressors or combinations of stressors may be simply  
443 inferred. Management could be greatly improved with methods and tools for better  
444 understanding the causes of ecological degradation. Improving the diagnostic capacity of

445 bioassessment is recognised as a priority area for research and development (Jones *et al.*  
446 2010; Murphy *et al.* 2013).

447 Variation in the traits (characteristics) of stream invertebrates is showing renewed promise  
448 for diagnosing likely causes of reduced ecological condition (Statzner and Beche 2010;  
449 Schafer *et al.* 2011). Indeed, the inclusion of evaluations of invertebrate traits (e.g.  
450 sensitive taxonomic groups, functional feeding groups) and interpretation of results based  
451 on the knowledge of invertebrate ecology is not a new concept for bioassessment (Barbour  
452 *et al.* 1999). Stream invertebrate traits can include body size, life-span, dispersal  
453 characteristics, respiration mode and feeding mechanism. However, linking traits to  
454 environmental conditions in a consistent and generalised way requires further research to  
455 provide the mechanistic understanding of species–environment relationships (Pilière *et al.*  
456 2015). The challenge is then to harness this knowledge to develop tools so that trait  
457 information is more easily understood by bioassessment practitioners, and thus aid  
458 diagnostic interpretation of biological data. Importantly, such trait information could be  
459 applied to existing bioassessment data sets to allow the retrospective use of trait-based  
460 assessments.

461 Ecosystem services are increasingly a focus of global conservation and restoration efforts  
462 (Aylward *et al.* 2005). Once research has established relationships between aspects of  
463 water quality and the traits of invertebrates (and other biological groups), the way will be  
464 open for linking broad-scale measures of biological degradation (i.e. bioassessment results  
465 based on the structure of fauna assemblage) to the corresponding consequences for  
466 ecosystem functions or services. At present those links are not always clear (Tolonen *et al.*  
467 2014) and this is an area for improvement in bioassessment. Moreover, as molecular  
468 studies advance over the next decade, functional genes associated with suites of taxa will  
469 be identified, thus further facilitating direct assessment of ecosystem functional  
470 consequences using molecular analysis of samples collected for bioassessment.

#### 471 *Shifting baselines*

472 One of the challenges for bioassessment programs is dealing with broad-scale, longer-term  
473 changes in environmental conditions, most notably in response to climate change. Changes  
474 in baseline conditions mean that bioassessment approaches that rely on reference  
475 conditions need to account for changes in the reference conditions themselves as a  
476 consequence climatic alterations. Research has identified cases where longer-term trends

477 in reference site condition suggest that sites do remain within a stable reference condition  
478 (Metzeling *et al.* 2002; Nichols *et al.* 2010) and the concordance of a reference site to a  
479 reference group in predictive models appears robust for those environments, and at those  
480 spatial and temporal scales and taxonomic level studied. However, these encouraging  
481 relationships may not persist as climate change intensifies, so further review and validation  
482 is urgently needed (Reynoldson and Wright 2000), particularly where the long-term  
483 temporal and spatial variability are high (e.g. in Australia) (Barmuta *et al.* 2003).

484 With appropriate consideration of site selection, bioassessment programs with long-term  
485 data on reference conditions should enable the description of long-term trends in  
486 ecological condition as a consequence of changing climate and other slow environmental  
487 changes (e.g. salinization, changes in catchment land cover). Combining these insights  
488 with modern statistical approaches, GIS and remote sensing tools can allow a detailed  
489 understanding of the effects of climate and its interactions with multiple impacts on  
490 ecological condition (Thomson *et al.* 2012; Dafforn *et al.* 2015).

#### 491 **Strategies for modernizing freshwater bioassessment in Australia**

492 The attributes of successful large regional or national scale bioassessment programs can be  
493 further examined to elaborate strategies to modernize freshwater bioassessment in  
494 Australia and re-establishing a national broad-scale focus.

#### 495 *The mandate*

496 Management of water resources should be based on timely policy decisions supported by  
497 an informed and updated understanding of the national position. Reactive management,  
498 once a crisis has developed, is typically expensive and difficult. Among the many  
499 competing demands on federal government in Australia, the political mandate for state-of-  
500 the-nation assessment of rivers and an adequate sentinel system lacks a national policy  
501 driver and legislative backing. Hence, no mechanism currently exists to establish the  
502 national position regarding riverine ecosystems and changes in the condition of these  
503 resources. We recommend the convening of a summit of policy makers, key stakeholders  
504 and scientists to develop strategies and priorities for riverine protection and conservation.

505 In the absence of a broad-scale environmental crisis like the 1991 algal bloom on the  
506 Darling River, another prospect for creating a sustained national mandate for freshwater



507 bioassessment is to capitalize on public concern for good environmental stewardship. This  
508 requires ‘bottom-up’ pressure for a national approach from diverse, widely dispersed and  
509 informed stakeholders who are concerned about riverine health. Coherently harnessing the  
510 concerns of the broader community into a national voice, perhaps connected through social  
511 media and the internet (e.g. eWater community – [www.ewater.com.au/community](http://www.ewater.com.au/community)), could  
512 provide an opportunity to drive a more enduring mandate, in contrast to disjointed  
513 responses to erupting environmental crises.

514 *Political context and governance*

515 In the USA and Europe, river health assessment programs are legislated and have an  
516 appointed government agency to take responsibility for delivering the programs. With such  
517 responsibility comes necessary governance, which includes setting of program targets,  
518 identifying key indicators of assessment, monitoring, restoration, establishing  
519 measurement endpoints of success and coordination, planning, funding (with cost sharing  
520 as appropriate) and public reporting of progress.

521 The national focus on measuring the ecological and physico-chemical quality of freshwater  
522 resources in Australia has given way to regional and jurisdictional foci, which lack  
523 coordination across borders. If the general community could set a national mandate for  
524 river health assessment through ‘bottom-up’ pressure for ‘good quality’ riverine  
525 ecosystems, then community-run assessment programs (e.g. Waterwatch) would have the  
526 potential to operate and be governed in a more nationally coordinated fashion. An  
527 emphasis on the different values of river health, such as recreation (e.g. fishers), aesthetics  
528 (e.g. real estate agents and property investors) and biodiversity (e.g. horticultural groups)  
529 could help to strengthen this pressure. Attention would need to be paid to principles that  
530 tailor bioassessment for targeted management, while at the same time generating data for  
531 reuse and aggregation to meet management objectives across several spatial and temporal  
532 scales (e.g. as developed for the *Framework for the Assessment of River and Wetland*  
533 *Health*; Alluvium Consulting 2011).

534 *Fit for purpose and clear objectives*

535 A driver for bioassessment, monitoring and evaluation is the presence of well-defined and  
536 measurable ecological objectives for management instruments and policies. Bioassessment  
537 objectives can range from tracking trends in ecological condition through time, to

538 diagnosing the causes of impairment and gauging the success of mitigation activities. At  
539 state or smaller regional scales, these latter objectives may take greater priority at times.  
540 Such data may not be suitable for national-scale assessment if the data cannot be  
541 aggregated in a way to detect trends at that larger spatial scale.

542 Well-crafted ‘SMART’ (specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and timed) ecological  
543 objectives are rare in the policy and regulatory sphere. When present they quantify the  
544 social vision of the desired future state of the ecosystem, while driving the need for  
545 bioassessment to provide ‘measures of success’ of management investment. This need was  
546 addressed in the Murray Darling Basin Watering Strategy (MDBA 2014), which contains a  
547 number of quantified ecological outcomes against which to report the condition of the  
548 Basin river system. Development of quantified ecological outcomes at national scales,  
549 though challenging, would help define the need for a national bioassessment effort.

550 ‘Critical elements’ that determine whether a bioassessment program is ‘fit for purpose’  
551 include its study design, and an understanding of the uncertainty and comparability of the  
552 collected data. These aspects are important for integrating and aggregating results from  
553 different programs for use in broader-scale assessments e.g. national State of the  
554 Environment reporting. For example, Yoder and Barbour (2009) applied the *US critical*  
555 *elements guidelines* (USEPA 2013) for assessing the level of technical rigor of USA  
556 bioassessment programs. As an example in Australia, the *Framework for the Assessment of*  
557 *River and Wetland Health* (FARWH) was designed to aggregate results from disparate  
558 monitoring programs that shared critical elements (Alluvium Consulting 2011).

559 Important features of the FARWH included the ability to report the variables measured at  
560 sample sites as departure from a reference condition, and that all the indicators used could  
561 be mapped to one of seven super-indices – i.e. catchment disturbance, hydrological  
562 disturbance, water quality and soils, physical form, fringing zone, aquatic biota and (if the  
563 sample was from a wetland) wetland extent – which allowed comparisons of condition  
564 between regions. Where approaches differ, benchmarking exercises can establish  
565 comparability, for example the inter-calibration between the national approaches in  
566 Europe. Likewise, the critical elements principles (e.g. Yoder and Barbour 2009) must also  
567 be applied to bioassessment of local, targeted management interventions; otherwise a  
568 perceived lack of biological response may be misinterpreted by practitioners. The  
569 consequences of using various bioassessment approaches and design options need to be

570 understood, particularly if the data are to be used for multiple purposes. Such  
 571 understanding could be achieved through guidelines for best bioassessment practice and  
 572 practitioner certification.

573 *Currency and relevance*

574 Tables 1 and 2 provide examples of the value of bioassessment for evaluating water  
 575 quality and the ecological health of riverine ecosystems. To keep bioassessment current  
 576 and relevant, two distinct avenues of research are required. One aims to make  
 577 bioassessment more cost effective and useful in terms of diagnostic and other information,  
 578 and investigates emerging technologies as outlined above. The second, needs to promote  
 579 bioassessment as a social and business process, and would investigate topics such as:

- 580 • how bioassessment creates value for the stakeholders (as in Table 1) and how the  
 581 needs of different businesses and stakeholders vary and intersect;
- 582 • how various stakeholder interactions might add value, particularly how to combine  
 583 and maximize returns from ‘bottom up’ community-driven bioassessment, and  
 584 ‘top-down’ government led programs, and how stakeholders might be productively  
 585 engaged; and
- 586 • what methods can be used to identify common concerns from within a multiplicity  
 587 of local community inputs, to help create a national mandate for river health and  
 588 bioassessment.

589 The water sector is constantly evolving and, once initiated, these avenues of research need  
 590 to continue if bioassessment methods are to be kept relevant to practitioners. In addition,  
 591 adoption at a national level of new and integrated approaches active at regional scales  
 592 should be encouraged.

593 *Implementation of the modernization strategies*

594 We propose that riverine bioassessment in Australia needs modernizing to meet the  
 595 evolving needs of practitioners and other stakeholders to achieve more effective outcomes,  
 596 and to support a nationally coordinated program that addresses the broad-scale, longer-  
 597 term needs of our freshwater ecosystems. There are three distinct stages for implementing  
 598 the strategies outlined above (e.g. Fig. 2). In overview, these stages include initial tasks,  
 599 subsequent tasks and strategies that must be funded to be fully realised. Initially, the  
 600 emphasis is on planning, promotion, and establishing core resources, while later efforts are

601 focussed on ‘doing’, particularly once funding is secured, although later iteration between  
602 stages will be inevitable. For example, promotion of the benefits of broad-scale  
603 bioassessment is vital initially but also required periodically to energise and refocus. The  
604 audience for this plan includes researchers (from government, universities, industry bodies  
605 and research organizations), community champions and water industries, other non-  
606 government organizations, and other end-users of bioassessment information (see Table 1).

607 It is important to avoid ‘reinventing the wheel’ and to be adaptive by building on the  
608 significant investments already made in developing bioassessment programs by State,  
609 Territory and Federal governments. FARWH exemplified this in Australia. It was designed  
610 to enable data collected from existing monitoring and assessment programs to be  
611 incorporated into a nationally comparable reporting framework. Subsequently, five options  
612 were outlined for the staged implementation of river health assessment based on increasing  
613 resources, scope and extent of coverage across catchments (see Alluvium Consulting  
614 2011) and that experience could provide a starting template for scaling modernization of  
615 bioassessment from regional through to national levels.

## 616 **Conclusions**

617 Bioassessment in Australia has advanced a long way in the last 30 years and provides  
618 benefits to many stakeholders. However, even with the federally-led water reforms in  
619 Australia over that period, a nationally focused bioassessment program lacks a high  
620 priority policy driver, which is in stark contrast to the USA and UK/EU situation. A re-  
621 invigoration and modernization strategy for bioassessment is needed to avoid the risk of  
622 losing relevance and currency, and to facilitate a nationally coordinated bioassessment  
623 program to address the broad-scale, longer-term needs of riverine ecosystems. Research  
624 has contributed greatly to other national and global efforts in freshwater bioassessment.  
625 Australia has the expertise and capability to build on this knowledge and implement a  
626 modernized bioassessment program on a national scale. Modernization strategies should  
627 not be designed assuming bioassessment professionals will abandon their current practices  
628 in favour of others deemed better. Most jurisdictions will favour ‘adaptive’ investment that  
629 builds on existing capacity and methods.

630 We recommend the following steps to improve bioassessment practice in Australia: (1)  
631 convene a summit of policy makers and key scientists; (2) develop strategies and priorities  
632 for riverine protection and conservation; (3) identify key indicators of assessment,

633 monitoring, restoration, and conservation; (4) establish measurement endpoints of success  
634 and identify expertise; and (5) develop a plan forward for implementation and coordination  
635 that involves both ‘bottom up’ community-driven bioassessment and ‘top-down’  
636 government led programs.

637 An approach to facilitate improved bioassessment practices should integrate lessons  
638 learned and emerging technologies, and ultimately form the basis for a mature professional  
639 climate where ongoing research, training and accreditation are normal aspects of  
640 professional practice. If much, or even all, of this can be achieved then it should become  
641 much easier for bioassessment practitioners to coordinate local, regional and national  
642 activities.

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653

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944 **Table 1. Examples of the value/benefit of bioassessment for different stakeholders**  
 945 **and how results could be communicated. Please note that the stated benefits and**  
 946 **communication strategy could pertain to more than one type of stakeholder (e.g.**  
 947 **national, regional, local or multiple levels).**

Stakeholder	Example stakeholders	Value/benefit (examples of what is in it for them).	Example of how results could be communicated, reported or understood.
Federal agencies	State of the Environment reporting <a href="http://www.environment.gov.au/topics/science-and-research/state-environment-reporting/about-soe-reporting">http://www.environment.gov.au/topics/science-and-research/state-environment-reporting/about-soe-reporting</a>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Provides information to decision makers (Federal and State Ministers) to inform environmental policy, investment and management</li> <li>2. Provides public with current information on the state of Australia's environment</li> <li>3. Assessment also used to meet reporting obligations for national legislation (EPBC Act) and international agreements</li> <li>4. Measures progress towards national natural resource condition targets</li> <li>5. Increased environmental awareness and engagement for sustainable natural resources</li> </ol>	<p>Assessment scores and trends for inland waters, taxa distributions, map layers linked to other national-scale information i.e. biodiversity, climate change, land-use.</p> <p>An indication of the quality of evidence used to make the assessment</p> <p>Evidence synthesized in a way that allows the reader to access further detail if required</p>
State agencies	State of the catchments reporting <a href="http://www.water.nsw.gov.au/Water-management/Monitoring/Catchments/Catchments">http://www.water.nsw.gov.au/Water-management/Monitoring/Catchments/Catchments</a>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>6. Provides the public with an assessment of the condition of natural resources in a region</li> <li>7. Informs policy and investment decisions within and between regions</li> <li>8. Assess ecological recovery following restoration of aquatic resources</li> <li>9. Measures progress towards regional natural resource condition targets</li> </ol>	<p>Assessment scores for inland waters, report cards, and maps.</p> <p>Taxa lists, food web diagrams, ecological information for community educational use</p> <p>An indication of the quality of evidence used to make the assessment.</p> <p>Report results to determine if restoration efforts are attaining their purpose.</p>
Water suppliers	Compliance monitoring <a href="https://www.iconwater.com.au/Sustainability-and-Environment/Environmental-compliance/Operational%20compliance%20reports.aspx">https://www.iconwater.com.au/Sustainability-and-Environment/Environmental-compliance/Operational%20compliance%20reports.aspx</a>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>10. The ability to report on and inform management actions</li> </ol>	<p>Assessment scores over time</p> <p>Diagnostic interpretation</p>
Irrigation companies	<a href="http://npsi.gov.au/national-land-and-water-resources-audit/rivers-and-wetlands">http://npsi.gov.au/national-land-and-water-resources-audit/rivers-and-wetlands</a>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>11. The ability to report on the positive effect on the environment of optimizing the use of fertiliser and minimising runoff to rivers.</li> </ol>	<p>Reports to regulators and board of directors</p>

## Nationally coordinated river bioassessment

Mining companies	Assess the environmental performance <a href="http://mrmindependentmonitor.com.au/">http://mrmindependentmonitor.com.au/</a>	12. Provides their stakeholders with information relating to their environmental performance.	Reports to regulators and board of directors
Community-based groups	ACT Waterwatch Catchment Health Indicator Program (CHIP) <a href="http://www.act.waterwatch.org.au/Files/CHIP2013_14%20Report%2004FEB2015_FINAL%20%28low%20res%29.pdf">http://www.act.waterwatch.org.au/Files/CHIP2013_14%20Report%2004FEB2015_FINAL%20%28low%20res%29.pdf</a> and South East Queensland (SEQ) Healthy Waterways <a href="http://healthywaterways.org/reportcard#/sub-regions/2014/overview">http://healthywaterways.org/reportcard#/sub-regions/2014/overview</a>	13. Determine recovery or maintenance of ecological condition in response to a community led intervention. 14. Facilitate community engagement in the monitoring and care of local waterways 15. Provide data and information to support an early warning system for aquatic ecosystem health issues.	Report cards that integrate other measures of catchment or reach condition and summarize multiple indices by using 'traffic light' symbols and 'pie chat' graphics.
Recreational groups	Club websites	16. Information to allow them to choose the most appropriate waterways for their recreational pursuits	Water quality score cards, fish survey data, primary pollutants
Tourism	Tourist maps	17. Information to provide to tourists who have an interest in the natural environment and to eco-tourism operators	Water quality score cards, biodiversity score cards
Real Estate	Property profiles	18. Information to provide to investors that could affect property values	Water quality score cards, primary pollutants, land use
Local Councils	Annual (or quarterly reporting), score cards	19. Information to provide to residents and visitors for tourism, investment or recreational purposes 20. Provides detail for state of environment reporting at a local scale	Water quality score cards, biodiversity score cards, primary pollutants
Education	Reports, academic publications	21. Information for report-writing, academic researcher or education (e.g. high school), including ongoing monitoring projects and research	Methods, water quality score cards, biodiversity score cards, diagnostic 'story telling'

949 **Table 2. Examples of state-wide and regional bioassessment programs in Australian**  
 950 **jurisdictions, both government and community-driven.**

Example of state-wide or regional scale bioassessment programs	Objective of bioassessment	Reference
1. Victoria	Protecting the water quality of Victoria's inland waters	<a href="http://www.epa.vic.gov.au/your-environment/water/protecting-victorias-waters/monitoring-victorias-waters">http://www.epa.vic.gov.au/your-environment/water/protecting-victorias-waters/monitoring-victorias-waters</a>
2. New South Wales	Water quality management	<a href="http://www.water.nsw.gov.au/Water-management/Monitoring/Monitoring">http://www.water.nsw.gov.au/Water-management/Monitoring/Monitoring</a>
3. Tasmania	Water quality management	<a href="http://dpiwwe.tas.gov.au/water/water-monitoring-and-assessment">http://dpiwwe.tas.gov.au/water/water-monitoring-and-assessment</a>
4. Basslink monitoring program in Gordon River system, Tasmania by Hydro Tasmania, Hobart (from 2001-2012)	To detect changes in key biological variables through time associated with large power generating projects	<a href="http://www.hydro.com.au/environment/basslink-studies">www.hydro.com.au/environment/basslink-studies</a>
5. The Living Murray program (TLM)	River basin ecological condition of the Murray Basin	<a href="http://www.mdba.gov.au/media-pubs/publications/tlm-program">http://www.mdba.gov.au/media-pubs/publications/tlm-program</a>
6. Sustainable Rivers Audit (SRA)	Federally-funded programs at single ecosystem unit to river basin scales.	<a href="http://www.mdba.gov.au/what-we-do/mon-eval-reporting/sustainable-rivers-audit">http://www.mdba.gov.au/what-we-do/mon-eval-reporting/sustainable-rivers-audit</a> ; Davies <i>et al.</i> (2010)
7. Commonwealth Environment Water Holder Long-Term Intervention Monitoring (CEWH LTIM) (at catchment scales over 5-7 years).	To evaluate the success of investments in environmental flows	<a href="http://www.environment.gov.au/water/cewo/monitoring">http://www.environment.gov.au/water/cewo/monitoring</a>
8. Commonwealth Environment Water Holder Long-Term Intervention Monitoring (CEWH LTIM)	Catchment scales over 5-7 years.	<a href="http://www.environment.gov.au/water/cewo/monitoring">http://www.environment.gov.au/water/cewo/monitoring</a>
9. Australian Capital Territory (ACT) water monitoring and assessment program (13 fixed sites within 2,400 km <sup>2</sup> , ongoing since 1996)	To determine changes to water quality over time and indicate if waters flowing through the ACT are of appropriate quality and management strategies are achieving or maintaining adequate water quality.	<a href="http://www.environment.act.gov.au/water/act_water_reports">http://www.environment.act.gov.au/water/act_water_reports</a>
10. ACT Environmental Flows monitoring program (15 sites sampled since 2000 but other smaller scale studies undertaken since 1996).	To assess the effects of dam operation, water abstraction, and environmental flows, and to provide information for the adaptive management of ACT's water supply catchments in accordance to the License to Take Water (WU67).	<a href="http://www.actew.com.au/Water-Supply-System/Environmental-Flows.aspx">http://www.actew.com.au/Water-Supply-System/Environmental-Flows.aspx</a> see Aquatic Ecology Reports available from <a href="http://www.actew.com.au/About/Reports-and-Publications/Key-Publications.aspx">http://www.actew.com.au/About/Reports-and-Publications/Key-Publications.aspx</a>
11. ACT Waterwatch Catchment Health Indicator Program (ACT Waterwatch program running since 1995 within 13,000km <sup>2</sup> )	Provide community with understanding of water quality and riparian health in their catchment and provide baseline assessment of catchment health to assist natural resource managers and policy.	<a href="http://www.act.waterwatch.org.au/Files/CHIP2013_14%20Report%2004FEB2015_FINAL%20%28low%20res%29.pdf">http://www.act.waterwatch.org.au/Files/CHIP2013_14%20Report%2004FEB2015_FINAL%20%28low%20res%29.pdf</a>
12. SEQ Healthy Waterways (since 2000 monitored 15 catchments with a combined area ~23,000 km <sup>2</sup> )	To understand and communicate the condition of waterways to drive and influence future targets, policy and actions. Monitor and report on waterway health, educate people on the value of our waterways and support reforms to policy and planning.	<a href="http://healthywaterways.org/reportcard/#/sub-regions/2014/overview">http://healthywaterways.org/reportcard/#/sub-regions/2014/overview</a> ; Bunn <i>et al.</i> (2010)

952 **Table 3. Five attributes that broad-scale (national or multijurisdictional)**  
 953 **bioassessment programs should have to be successful.**

Attributes for success	Description
1. A mandate, either political or public	The program must serve a purpose or defined need and fit within a management and policy framework e.g. to provide State of Environment reports, assess adequacy of regulations, and/or to determine effectiveness of policies and management actions.
2. Political context and governance	A program that has a mandate needs dedicated program funding, coordination and the associated governance structure to support such a program. This is particularly important for monitoring programs that by their nature require a long-term commitment.
3. Must be fit for purpose	The program must provide users with the information required and fit within a larger environmental and resource management framework. The output from the program must be transparent and the interpretation evident.
4. Clear objectives	This links to item 1 above (e.g. for early warning, status and trends or adequacy of regulations) with <i>a priori</i> agreement on targets, guidelines or standards for further action or reporting. National-scale bioassessment programs need to be tied to quantified national-scale ecological objectives and management outcomes if they are to be relevant to policy and investment.
5. Be current and relevant	The balance between consistency in data over time and incorporating or considering developments in science is difficult but needs to be continually addressed.

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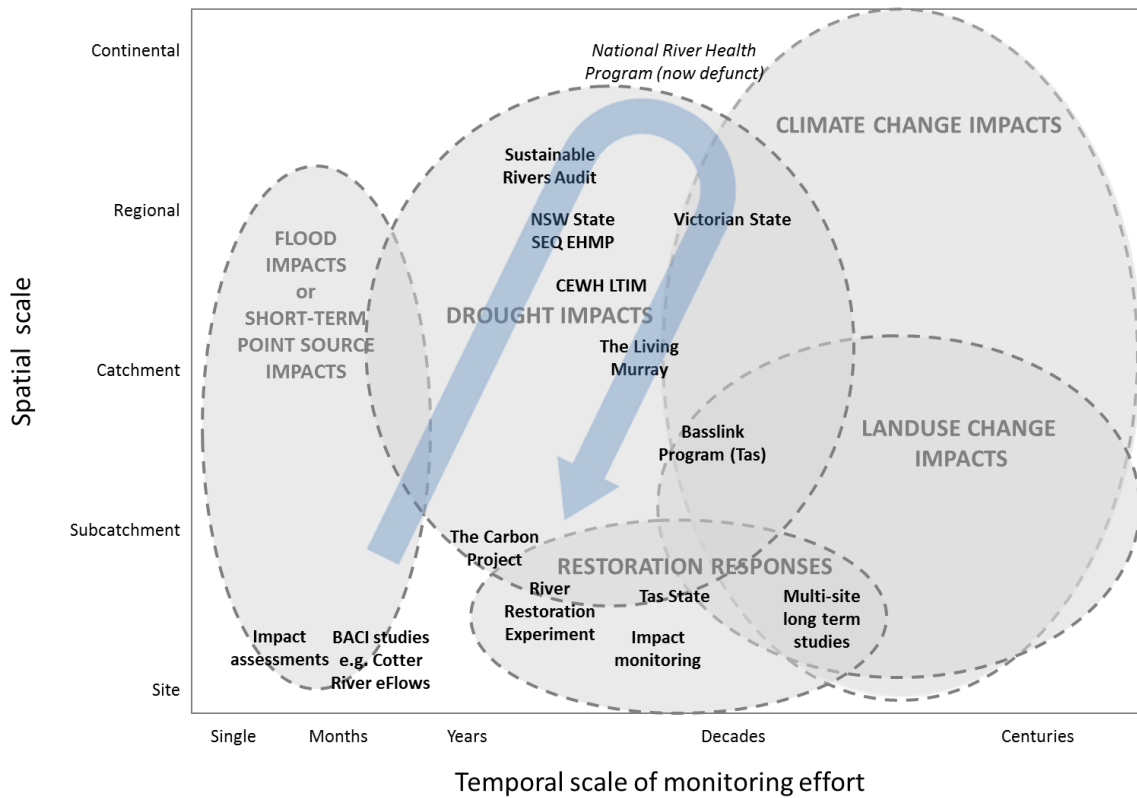
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956**Table 4. Comparison of four national scale aquatic bioassessment programs against five attributes that should be met in order to deliver a successful program.**

Bioassessment Program (and assessment method in brackets)	Mandate	Political context and governance	Fit for purpose	Clear objectives	Current and relevant
Australia (AUSRIVAS)	Strong initially, currently absent	Regionalized and lacks high priority national policy drivers	Yes, but there are concerns that methods are not universally fit for purpose	Initially, clear and well developed. Currently, no national quantified objectives.	Resource limitations
UK (RIVPACS)	Strong national and international legislation – European Union Water Framework Directive	Clear national and supra national	Yes	Clear and well developed	Yes
Canada (CABIN)	Never well developed	Weak Federal responsibility, under the constitution	Yes but difficult to maintain	Clear and well developed	Resource limitations
USA National Aquatic Resource Surveys (both multi-metric indices and RIVPACS-type)	Strong national legislation – US Clean Water Act	Clear partnerships between national and state/tribal agencies	Yes, since 2006	Clear and well developed	Yes.

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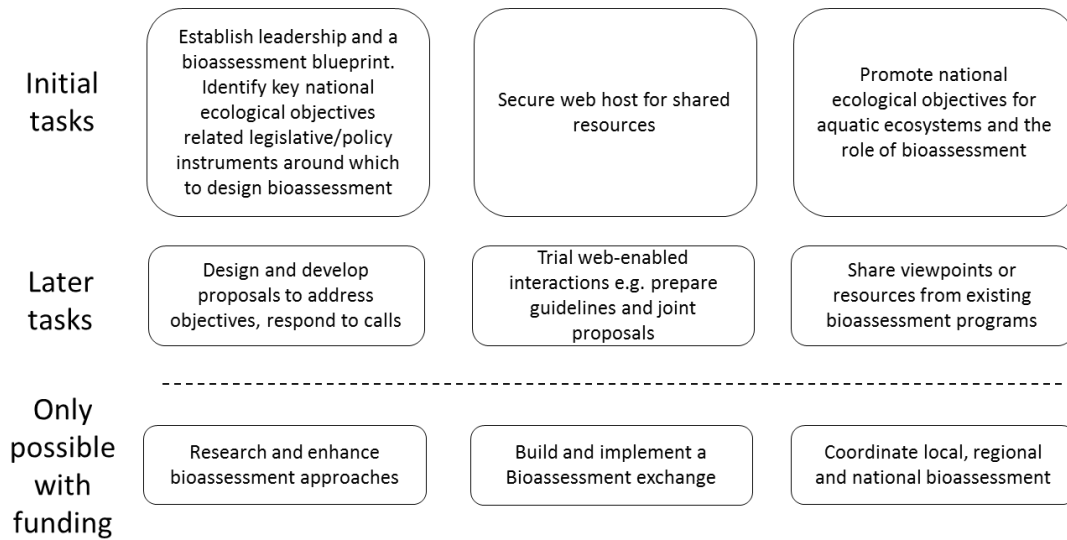
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**Fig. 1.** Bioassessment programs and selected major management issues for Australia, indicating where on the spatial and temporal scale they are placed. ‘Single’ on the temporal scale axis refers to a single sampling occasion. The curved arrow shows the trend (from 1990s to present) in Australian freshwater bioassessment investment. See Table 2 for a description of the bioassessment programs.

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970 **Fig. 2.** Pathway for modernizing freshwater bioassessment in Australia. While the initial  
971 and later tasks would require some level of resourcing, we emphasise that funding is  
972 essential to achieve the third layer.

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