

1 **Restored off-channel pond habitats create thermal regime diversity and refuges within a**
2 **Mediterranean-climate watershed**

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4 Restored off-channel ponds create thermal diversity

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15 critically to drafts and gave final approval for publication.

16 **Abstract**

17 Cool-water habitats provide increasingly vital refuges for cold-water fish living on the margins
18 of their historical ranges; consequently, efforts to enhance or create cool-water habitat are
19 becoming a major focus of river restoration practices. However, the effectiveness of restoration
20 projects for providing thermal refuge and creating diverse temperature regimes at the watershed
21 scale remains unclear. In the Klamath River in Northern California, the Karuk Tribe Fisheries
22 Program, the Mid-Klamath Watershed Council, and the U.S. Forest Service constructed a series
23 of off-channel ponds that recreate floodplain habitat and support juvenile coho salmon
24 (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) and steelhead (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) along the Klamath River and its
25 tributaries. We instrumented these ponds and applied multivariate auto-regressive time series
26 models of fine-scale temperature data from ponds, tributaries, and the mainstem Klamath River
27 to assess how off-channel ponds contributed to thermal regime diversity and thermal refuge
28 habitat in the Klamath riverscape. Our analysis demonstrated that ponds provide diverse thermal
29 habitats that are significantly cooler than creek or mainstem river habitats, even during severe
30 drought. Wavelet analysis of long-term (10 years) temperature data indicated that thermal
31 buffering (i.e. dampening of diel variation) increased over time but was disrupted by drought
32 conditions in 2021. Our analysis demonstrates that in certain situations, human-made off-channel
33 ponds can increase thermal diversity in modified riverscapes even during drought conditions,
34 potentially benefiting floodplain-dependent cold-water species. Restoration actions that create
35 and maintain thermal regime diversity and thermal refuges will become an essential tool to
36 conserve biodiversity in climate-sensitive watersheds.

37

38 **Keywords**

39 habitat diversity, river restoration, salmonids, thermal regimes, time series modeling, thermal
40 refuge, drought

41

42 **Implications for Practice**

- 43 ● River floodplain restoration projects that create thermal refuge can help maintain suitably
44 cool habitat in the face of climate extremes like drought and heat waves.
- 45 ● Even during a severe drought, restored off-channel ponds in the Klamath River
46 maintained diverse thermal regimes and created thermal refuge habitats that likely
47 benefited cold-water fishes.
- 48 ● Building off-channel ponds connected to river mainstems is a relatively quick way of
49 creating thermal habitat diversity in a watershed.
- 50 ● As climate change and drought increase the importance of thermal refuge habitats in
51 riverscapes around the world, managing thermal regimes will be increasingly critical to
52 the integrity of river ecosystems and to river restoration efforts.

53 **Introduction**

54 Restoring river habitat to support healthy fisheries, ecosystems, and human communities is a
55 global conservation priority, especially as regional climates change (Palmer et al. 2008). River
56 ecosystems are particularly sensitive to climate change, and studies have identified significant
57 climate-related increases in water temperature and thermal heterogeneity across riverscapes (e.g.
58 Isaak et al. 2012). Changing thermal regimes can have major impacts on aquatic species, which
59 are highly sensitive to large changes in water temperature due to climate or other factors (e.g.
60 Sullivan et al. 2021; Woodward et al. 2010). As irregular climate patterns such as extreme
61 drought and variable temperatures become more common (Swain et al. 2018), understanding
62 how watershed thermal regimes are poised to change is an increasingly important aspect of
63 planning river conservation and restoration actions (Arismendi et al. 2013; Olden & Naiman
64 2010; Steel et al. 2017).

65 To address the thermal requirements of aquatic species in a changing climate, thermal
66 refuges are an increasingly important riverscape feature. A freshwater thermal refuge is a
67 spatiotemporally distinct habitat patch that organisms use to avoid stressful temperatures
68 elsewhere in the river (Sullivan et al. 2021). In particular, cool-water refuges are critical for
69 populations of aquatic species that exist in marginal habitats and frequently experience heat
70 stress (Ebersole et al. 2020; but see Armstrong et al. 2021). Cool-water thermal refuges can form
71 in many ways within a river system: tributary confluences (e.g. Brewitt et al. 2017), groundwater
72 upwellings (e.g. Bilby 1984; Dugdale et al. 2015), deep pools (e.g. Tate et al. 2007), and off-
73 channel floodplain areas (e.g. Dugdale et al. 2013) can all provide cooler habitats compared to
74 the predominant temperature in the mainstem river (Sullivan et al. 2021). Cold-water fish such as
75 salmonids especially benefit from cool-water refuges. Studies on both Pacific salmonids
76 (*Oncorhynchus spp.*) and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) have shown that access to cool-water
77 refuges allows salmonids to avoid stressful or lethal water temperatures during summer heat
78 waves (Dugdale et al. 2015; Hess et al. 2016). Coho salmon and steelhead with access to cool-
79 water refuges have been shown to forage more efficiently by reducing heat stress in cooler areas
80 and foraging in warmer, more prey-dense parts of the watershed (Brewitt et al. 2017). In northern
81 California, thermal refuges have been shown to reduce exposure of juvenile coho salmon to the
82 myxozoan parasite, *Ceratomyxa shasta*, because cooler areas have fewer parasitic spores and
83 alleviate disease effects (Chiaramonte et al. 2016). Cool water refuges in the Klamath watershed
84 have also been shown to reduce lamprey wounds on redband trout (Ortega et al. 2023).
85 Understanding thermal refuge dynamics in rivers that support coldwater fish is critical for
86 conserving, restoring, and managing these ecosystems.

87 A key challenge to managing thermal refuges is understanding the timing and spatial
88 distribution of thermal regimes throughout a riverscape. Coldwater fishes, for example, can
89 thrive in riverscapes with diverse thermal regimes that create areas with warmer water and more
90 food availability, and areas with cooler water and less food but that act as refuges from high
91 temperatures, floods, droughts, disease, and invasive species (e.g. Brewitt et al. 2017; Ebersole et
92 al. 2020). Historically, thermal refuge habitats in stream systems were created by complex

93 floodplain features such as oxbow lakes, springs, seeps, and seasonal flooding (Sullivan et al.
94 2021). Thermal regimes in such floodplain habitats are often dictated by geomorphic and
95 hydrologic context, and temperatures in floodplain waters can vary greatly depending on
96 elevation, climate, groundwater influence, water level, and connectivity to other waterbodies
97 (Arscott et al. 2001). In particular, connections between groundwater and floodplain habitats are
98 complex, and variability in the temperature and flow of groundwater can create thermal mosaics
99 across habitats (Arrigoni et al. 2008). Connections to groundwater can also influence the
100 dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration in water: depending on the source, groundwater that
101 creates cooler thermal habitats can have high or low DO concentrations, which influences the
102 quality of floodplain habitat for fish (Larsen & Woelfle-Erskine 2018). In many cases,
103 channelization, river regulation, riverbank development, agriculture, and water diversions have
104 damaged river-floodplain connections, and these habitats are often no longer accessible to fish
105 (Bond et al. 2019).

106 In certain contexts, restoration efforts that focus on reestablishing connections between
107 rivers and floodplains and re-activating floodplains as thermal refuges can help restore thermal
108 refuge options in degraded watersheds (Knox et al. 2022). This approach is exemplified in the
109 Klamath River watershed in Northern California. To create refuge habitat for juvenile coho (*O.*
110 *kisutch*) and steelhead (*O. mykiss*), the Karuk Tribe Fisheries Program (KFP), in collaboration
111 with the US Forest Service and the Mid-Klamath Watershed Council (MKWC), collaborated to
112 construct a series of human-made off-channel ponds throughout the mid-Klamath (MKWC 2014;
113 2020; and 2022; Wickman et al. 2020). These off-channel ponds connect to shallow groundwater
114 within the floodplain (MKWC 2014; 2020; and 2022; Wickman et al. 2020). Groundwater
115 upwelling into the ponds is thought to sustain these ponds as cool-water refuges during hotter
116 periods of the summer. These ponds are especially important cool-water habitat during extreme
117 drought, when fish need refuge from high water temperatures caused by low flow and extreme
118 air temperatures (Maher et al. 2019). Juvenile coho salmon in the Klamath River begin to seek
119 cooler waters at around 19 °C, which occurs with increasing frequency in the Klamath River
120 during summer, making the ponds a potentially critical refuge habitat (Asarian et al. 2020; Sutton
121 & Soto 2012). Efforts to restore, create, or maintain cool-water refuge habitat are crucial
122 restoration actions in systems like the Klamath River that support cold-water fishes. However, it
123 is unclear whether localized restoration projects like off-channel ponds create a diverse selection
124 of thermal refuges at a riverscape scale, particularly during stressful periods such as droughts.
125 Additionally, few studies examine the long-term outcomes of thermal habitat restoration in a
126 riverscape throughout recurring periods of drought. In this study, we analyze a decade of
127 temperature data to explore thermal refuges and thermal regime diversity created by off-channel
128 ponds in the mid-Klamath riverscape. We also measured dissolved oxygen (DO) in the off-
129 channel ponds as a possible source of stress limiting refuge potential. We hypothesized that off-
130 channel ponds would create cool thermal refuges because of groundwater connections, and that
131 off-channel ponds would contribute to thermal regime diversity by adding unique regimes to the
132 riverscape. Specifically, we predicted that: 1) off-channel ponds would have significantly

133 different thermal regimes compared to creeks and the mainstem river; 2) off-channel ponds
134 would provide cooler and more thermally stable habitats compared to creek and river habitats on
135 daily and seasonal scales; and 3) thermal regime stability in ponds would increase over time.
136 Testing these predictions may help reveal the potential and limitations of off-channel ponds for
137 creating thermal refuges in degraded watersheds, especially under changing climate conditions.

138

139 **Materials and Methods**

140 *Study site*

141 The Klamath River begins at Klamath Lake in southern Oregon and flows southwest through
142 northern California to the Pacific Ocean. The watershed is heavily impacted by hydropower
143 dams, agricultural water diversions, megafires, and poor water quality (including high water
144 temperatures) that have devastated populations of native salmonids (Asarian et al. 2020; Orona
145 2022). To create cool-water refuge habitat, the KFP, National Forest Service, and MKWC have
146 constructed a variety of off-channel, groundwater-fed ponds that provide habitat for juvenile
147 coho salmon and steelhead (see summary of previous research and findings on these systems in
148 Table 1). Our study focused on nine human-made ponds constructed between 2010 and 2019 in
149 the mid-Klamath watershed. The ponds are located on Horse Creek and Seiad Creek (Fig. 1),
150 which are both tributaries to the Klamath River. Goodman Pond is adjacent to Middle Creek, a
151 tributary of Horse Creek. Ponds are human-made and are fed mainly by groundwater before
152 flowing into the creek. Ponds range between 0.7m and 1.1m average water depth during the
153 summer but sustain higher water levels during the wet season (see Table 1).

154 As newly constructed habitats, these off-channel ponds were excavated with backhoes.
155 They were sparsely vegetated at the start, and had large woody debris purposefully placed to
156 enhance habitat heterogeneity. After construction, banks were stabilized with native grass
157 seeding and weed-free straw, and additional native riparian plants were planted and tended at
158 some ponds (MKWC 2014; 2020; and 2022; Wickman et al. 2020). Aquatic vegetation was left
159 to develop as time went on. As a result, ponds initially received full sun exposure, and the
160 development and ongoing restoration plantings of riparian canopy cover and aquatic vegetation
161 could influence thermal stability in these ponds over time.

162

163 *Data collection*

164 We examined water temperature and air temperature regimes in the Mid-Klamath riverscape
165 using temperature sensors and data from long-term monitoring programs. These datasets
166 included several habitat types: off-channel ponds, creeks, and the mainstem Klamath River.
167 Importantly, much of our data collection took place during the severe drought of 2020-2021, the
168 second driest year on record in California (California Department of Water Resources 2021).

169 In July 2020, we deployed 30 temperature sensors (HOBO MX2201, Onset Corporation,
170 Massachusetts) programmed to measure temperature every 15 minutes in ponds and creeks. We
171 placed 1-4 sensors in each pond to capture local-scale temperature variation. Sensors were
172 installed at approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ the water depth (at time of placement), except for two sensors in

173 Goodman Pond, one in Upper Lawrence Pond, and one in Lower Lawrence Pond, where sensors
174 were placed on the bottom of the pond. Sensors were placed near the outlet, around the sides, and
175 as close to the center of the pond as possible. We chose these locations to capture within-pond
176 variation in thermal habitat, to maximize access and safety, and to facilitate future monitoring.
177 We also placed 1 sensor in the creek upstream of the outlet of each pond. We placed sensors
178 between 7 and 13 July 2020 and read them out between 11 and 13 July 2021. We removed
179 incomplete sensor time series ($n = 6$ pond sensors and $n = 3$ creek sensors) resulting either from
180 sensor malfunction or sensors that were no longer submerged because of drought-related
181 decreases in water level. In ponds and creeks with multiple sensors, we averaged remaining
182 sensor readings to obtain an average time series per site. In the 5 ponds with only one sensor, we
183 used that sensor's time series. We averaged sensor readings per site because sensors in the same
184 site captured very similar patterns (see Figure S1 and Table S1). We calculated and modeled
185 daily temperature means (instead of using sub daily data) to avoid having to account for diel
186 periodicity in the MAR models (Hampton et al. 2013; Holmes et al. 2023), which would have
187 made these models unnecessarily complex.F

188 Water levels in the pond fluctuated throughout the year, leading to different depths for
189 the sensors throughout the study period, which could influence temperatures. We removed from
190 analysis sensors that were completely out of the water (thus, recording air temperature rather
191 than water temperature) because of depth fluctuations. To understand how well the remaining
192 sensors represent thermal habitats in the ponds, we took post hoc temperature depth profiles in
193 June 2023 at several locations in each pond (Figure S2). We found that the location and depth of
194 our long-term temperature sensors placed in 2020 were generally representative of temperatures
195 found in the 2023 depth profiles. To further quantify any error that was introduced by fluctuating
196 water depths throughout the year, we compared sensors at different depths for sites with more
197 than one sensor. We found that sensors at different depths captured very similar patterns (Figure
198 S1 and Table S1), suggesting that even if water depth fluctuated, sensor readings likely stayed
199 relatively consistent.

200 Klamath River temperature data were collected by the Karuk Tribe and accessed with
201 permission from the Karuk Tribe Water Quality Department (Accessed 27 September 2022). We
202 used data between May 2020 and February 2021. We used a combination of data readings from
203 the Seiad Valley station as well as interpolated data using a linear regression from the Orleans
204 station when Seiad Valley data was unavailable (5.5% of Seiad Valley data was interpolated).
205 Additionally, we obtained air temperature time series from the National Oceanic and
206 Atmospheric Administration's Climate Data Online database for Siskiyou County, CA (NOAA
207 2020). We used the Slater Butte air sensor, located relatively close (13 km) to our study sites in
208 Seiad Creek. Although these two sites differ in elevation (1423 m vs. 430 m), we expected
209 fluctuations in air temperature at these two locations to be correlated, and we note that our
210 models quantify the effects of fluctuations around the mean rather than absolute values of air
211 temperature (see next section). Also, we measured DO in a single location in each pond over
212 several days in July 2020 (Figure S3), and we took post hoc DO and temperature depth profiles

213 in each pond in June 2023 (Figure S2). Finally, we analyzed historical temperature data from
214 temperature sensors in Alexander and Stender Ponds, provided by MKWC. These are the two
215 oldest ponds in the study and were constructed in 2010, and temperature data were collected
216 hourly in these ponds from 2010-2021 via similar sensors to those we deployed (HOBO U22,
217 Onset Corporation, Massachusetts). Each pond had a single HOBO U22 sensor that was placed
218 in an accessible location near large woody debris on the side of the pond and suspended
219 approximately 1/3 the depth of the pond.

220

221 *Thermal diversity*

222 To analyze variation in thermal regimes across the riverscape, we used multivariate auto-
223 regressive model (MAR) models. The MAR model is a time series model that takes advantage of
224 temporal correlation in environmental variables to estimate the effects of a particular driver,
225 while also accounting for stochastic process error (Holmes et al. 2014; Ives et al. 2003; Ruhí et
226 al. 2015). MAR models can also incorporate environmental covariate data, which allows us to
227 quantify the effects of external drivers on the process of interest (in our case, variation in water
228 temperature). A MAR model in the matrix form can be expressed as follows:

229

$$230 \quad X_t = BX_{t-1} + Cc_{t-1} + w_t, \text{ where } w_t \sim \text{MVN}(0, Q) \quad [\text{Eqn. 1}]$$

231

232 X_t , where temperature at a given day (X_t) is a function of temperature the previous day (X_{t-1})
233 plus sensitivity to a covariate, here variation in air temperature (Cc_{t-1}); and process error (w_t).
234 As a covariate (c_{t-1}), we used a time series of air temperature with a one-day time lag, after
235 examining support for other lags (results not shown); and the C matrix captured site-specific
236 sensitivity to air temperature. In turn, process error (w_t) was drawn from a multivariate normal
237 distribution, with mean zero and covariance matrix Q. In our case, Q captured stochasticity in
238 water temperature (i.e., temporal variation in water temperature that was unrelated to air
239 temperature). B is an interaction matrix that can model the effect of each state on itself (diagonal
240 parameters) and on each other (off-diagonal parameters). In our case, we set off-diagonal
241 parameters to zero (as we did not expect sites to interact with each other) and estimated the
242 diagonal parameters, often used to capture “density-dependence” in population processes, or
243 pull-back to mean. When analyzing a thermal regime, these B parameters capture how fast
244 temperature goes back to the mean after an anomalously high or low value (in our case, a
245 warmer- or colder-than-average day).

246 To test our first prediction that off-channel ponds have significantly different thermal
247 regimes compared to creeks and the mainstem, we developed four MAR model hypotheses that
248 represent different levels of complexity in thermal regimes (as in Leathers et al. 2022). Each
249 hypothesis was tested by manipulating the matrices of the MAR model, capturing stochastic or
250 ‘unexplained’ variation (Q matrix), and deterministic or covariate-explained variation (C matrix).
251 This strategy allowed modeling mean daily temperatures among pond, creek, and river habitats
252 in different ways (Fig. 2). The first hypothesis was that all sites had different levels of stochastic

253 and deterministic variability (i.e., as many thermal regimes as sites). The second hypothesis was
254 that each habitat type (pond, creek, and river) had some typical level of stochastic and
255 deterministic variability, but sites within the same habitat type did not differ from each other.
256 The third hypothesis predicted that stochastic and deterministic variability depended on the
257 watershed (Horse Creek vs. Seiad Creek vs. Klamath River), but not the specific site or habitat
258 type. The fourth hypothesis predicted that all sites would have the same level of stochastic and
259 deterministic variability (i.e., a single, watershed-level thermal regime). We used Akaike's
260 Information Criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc) to compare support for the different
261 hypotheses. All data and covariate data was z-scored, and model outputs were examined for
262 normality and autocorrelation of residuals via the Autocorrelation Function (ACF). We used the
263 MARSS package version 3.11.3 (Holmes et al. 2021) in R (R Development Core Team 2021).

264

265 *Thermal buffering*

266 To quantify thermal buffering of ponds (relative to creeks), we compared daily maximum
267 temperatures (averaged across all sensors in a site, see Figure S1 and Table S1) in each pond and
268 creek during the three hottest months of 2020 (15 July – 15 September), and then ran a one-way
269 ANOVA of temperature ~ site. We repeated the same process for the winter, focusing on daily
270 minimum temperatures during the three coldest months (15 December 2020 – 15 February
271 2021). We assured that model residuals met assumptions of normality and homogeneity of
272 variances.

273 We also assessed daily thermal buffering capacity of ponds and creeks by calculating the
274 coefficient of variation (CV) for each day, using 15-minute temperature data. We then averaged
275 daily CVs for each site over the yearlong study period. We used mean CV values to calculate the
276 ratio of creek to pond CV for each pond/tributary pairing. If the creek:pond CV ratio was equal
277 or less than 1, that suggested no significant buffering took place. If the ratio was greater than 1,
278 we considered the pond to “buffer” thermal fluctuations compared to the creek.

279

280 *Thermal stabilization over time*

281 We used wavelet analysis to examine thermal regimes in the frequency and time domains, and to
282 determine whether some scales of variation strengthened over time. Wavelet analysis is useful
283 because it localizes the contribution of each frequency to a given time series, and is not sensitive
284 to the assumption of stationarity (Torrence & Compo 1998). Although the wavelet method does
285 not require pre-specifying a frequency of interest, here we focused on temperature variation at
286 diel (24-hour) and seasonal scales (12-months), and asked whether diel and seasonal variation
287 changed over the years. We interpolated missing values in the historical temperature datasets for
288 Alexander and Stender Ponds (3.3% and 3.9% of days, respectively) via an autoregressive
289 integrated moving average model (ARIMA) and a Kalman filter. An ARIMA model is generally
290 expressed as $ARIMA(p, d, q)$, where p is the order of the autoregressive model, i.e. the
291 dependence of the model on prior values; d is the order of non-seasonal differences, i.e. degree
292 of differencing of raw observations; and q is the order of the moving average, i.e. the model's

293 dependence on longer term values and stochastic “shocks”. After identifying the best-fit ARIMA
294 model, we used the Kalman filter to interpolate missing data (Knappe & de Valpine 2012). We
295 then ran wavelets on the complete time series, using the WaveletComp package in R (Roesch &
296 Schmidbauer 2018). We used the Morlet wavelet function and compared observed power to a
297 null background generated with red noise (i.e. temporally autocorrelated data).

298

299 **Results**

300 *Off-channel ponds increase thermal diversity within the riverscape*

301 Our analysis of riverscape temperatures showed that thermal regimes varied significantly
302 between linked pond, creek, and river habitats (Fig. 3a). The best supported MAR model (i.e.,
303 the model with the lowest AICc score, Model 1) allowed all sites (each pond, creek, and river) to
304 have different levels of stochastic (Q) and deterministic (C) variability (Table 2, Fig. 2). As such,
305 we can infer that each pond contributes a distinct thermal regime to the riverscape and increases
306 thermal habitat options. Additionally, previous-day air temperature significantly influenced
307 water temperature at all sites, as evidenced by the air temperature parameter not including zero at
308 any sites. Notably, the creek habitats were more sensitive to air temperature (i.e., higher C
309 parameter values) than pond or river habitats, as indicated by air temperature effects for creeks
310 being higher and not overlapping with pond or with river habitats (Fig. 3c).

311

312 *Off-channel ponds provide diel and seasonal thermal buffering*

313 Ponds buffered extreme hot and cold-water temperatures in winter and summer. Daily maximum
314 temperatures for the three hottest months of the year were significantly cooler in most ponds
315 compared to creeks on both Seiad Creek ($F_{5,360} = 125.70$, $p < 0.001$) and Horse Creek ($F_{4,299} =$
316 300.90 , $p < 0.001$), except for Lower Seiad Pond, which was not significantly cooler than Seiad
317 Creek in the summer ($p = 0.672$; Figs. 4a-b). Daily minimum temperatures for the three coldest
318 months were warmer in ponds compared to creeks on both Seiad Creek ($F_{5,360} = 168.80$, $p <$
319 0.001) and Horse Creek ($F_{4,300} = 170.00$, $p < 0.001$; Figs. 4c-d), again with the exception of
320 Lower Seiad Pond, which was not significantly warmer than Seiad Creek in the winter ($p =$
321 0.999).

322 Ponds also buffered daily water temperatures compared to creeks. The ratio of creek CV
323 to pond CV was greater than one for all ponds, indicating that daily pond temperature varies less
324 than creek temperature. However, we observed variation in the magnitude of buffering: the
325 highest buffering was in May Pond (creek:pond CV = 5.3; Fig. 3b) and Goodman Pond
326 (creek:pond CV = 5.06), and other ponds exhibited less than half that value (Table S2).

327

328 *Off-channel ponds thermally stabilize over time*

329 Wavelet analysis of the long-term series for Alexander and Stender Ponds (2010-2021) indicated
330 fluctuations at the seasonal (1 year) scale and at the 24-hour scale (Fig. 5). The annual signal
331 remained important across the whole decade, indicating predictable, seasonal fluctuations in
332 water temperature (i.e., winter vs. summer). However, the strength of the 24-hour signal declined

333 over time (despite a small spike in 2021), suggesting that diel fluctuations in temperature (i.e.,
334 day vs. night) became less pronounced as pond succession advanced.

335

336 **Discussion**

337 Cool-water thermal refuges are increasingly critical habitat features for cold-water fishes in
338 watersheds experiencing warming conditions (e.g. Steel et al. 2017). Restoration projects that
339 create a diverse suite of cool-water thermal refuges, such as the off-channel ponds in this study,
340 are examples of floodplain restoration practices that create large volumes of cooler water and
341 restore thermal regimes; however, to what extent these habitats may be valuable under warmer,
342 drier futures remains largely unknown. We found that a) human-made, off-channel ponds had
343 thermal regimes that were significantly different than their adjacent creek and the mainstem
344 Klamath River; b) ponds provided cooler and more thermally stable habitats compared to creek
345 and river habitats; and c) thermal regime stability in ponds generally increased over time, with
346 some exceptions in a severe drought year. Overall, our study shows that off-channel ponds in the
347 mid-Klamath watershed create thermal regime diversity and thermal refuges within the
348 riverscape, adding to the growing evidence on the potential benefits of this restoration strategy.
349 We contend that this approach may be particularly beneficial in Mediterranean-climate
350 watersheds with seasonally and interannually variable hydroclimates, provided other critical
351 conditions are met (e.g., access to the pond, sufficient dissolved oxygen). Understanding the
352 spatial and temporal dimensions of restored cool-water thermal refuges is becoming critical,
353 given the ongoing and projected warming trends (e.g. Albert et al. 2021).

354

355 *Off-channel ponds increase thermal diversity within the riverscape*

356 Based on the results of our MAR model, each of the nine off-channel ponds had a distinct
357 thermal regime and contributed to overall thermal diversity. This finding supports our hypothesis
358 that as large bodies of water with robust groundwater inputs (MKWC 2014; 2020; and 2022;
359 Wickman et al. 2020), off-channel ponds represent significantly different thermal habitats
360 compared to creek or river sites. Diverse thermal regime options such as those created by these
361 off-channel ponds are important features within a riverscape. Such habitat diversity allows
362 mobile animals like fish to balance tradeoffs in food abundance and water temperature (e.g.
363 Brewitt et al. 2017). In a system with stressful thermal conditions for salmonids, such as high
364 summer temperatures in the mainstem Klamath River (Sutton & Soto 2012), the diverse thermal
365 options provided by these ponds can be critical for salmonid survival. Other studies in the
366 Klamath River identified tributary mouths as a source of cool thermal refuges for salmonids
367 moving between the mainstem and tributaries (e.g. Brewitt et al. 2017; Sutton et al. 2007; Sutton
368 & Soto 2012). In this ecosystem, juvenile salmonids in the mainstem Klamath River seek
369 thermal refuge when temperatures reach around 19 degrees C (Sutton & Soto 2012). In the
370 summer during our study, daily maximum water temperatures in Horse Creek averaged 19.14
371 degrees C and Seiad Creek were 19.9 degrees C, slightly exceeding the threshold for salmonids
372 seeking refuge. Ponds, on the other hand, were several degrees cooler, averaging at daily

373 maximums of between 16.1 degrees C in the Horse Creek watershed. and 17.4 and degrees C in
374 the Seiad Creek watershed during the summer. Thus, our results suggest that off-channel ponds
375 likely provide salmonids with a diversity of thermal habitats across the watershed– a facet of
376 ‘biocomplexity’ that may contribute to stabilizing population portfolios (Hilborn et al. 2003;
377 Schindler et al. 2010). Thanks to the diversity of life-history, behavioral, and physiological traits
378 in salmonid populations (e.g. Barrett & Armstrong 2022), floodplain ponds conferring thermal
379 diversity likely help salmonid metapopulations cope with high summer temperatures.

380

381 *Off-channel ponds provide diel and seasonal thermal buffering*

382 In addition to increasing thermal diversity, off-channel ponds also buffered against changes in air
383 temperature– a critical function in light of increasing frequency of heatwaves (Tassone et al.
384 2022). Our MAR analysis showed that off-channel ponds exhibited significant sensitivity to air
385 temperature, but pond sensitivity was much lower than creek or mainstem river sensitivity. We
386 suspect that ponds are less sensitive to changes in air temperature because they are deeper, have
387 higher thermal mass and volume-to-surface ratios, and are more connected to groundwater
388 compared to creeks (MKWC 2014; 2020; and 2022; Wickman et al. 2020). Other studies
389 measuring thermal sensitivity to air temperature in snowmelt-fed streams in California’s Sierra
390 Nevada (Leathers et al. 2022), or in high-latitude streams in Alaska (Lisi et al. 2015), have
391 generally reported higher thermal sensitivities than our study. Our measurements reflect an
392 extreme drought period but still exhibited low thermal sensitivity compared to other published
393 values. This highlights the strong buffering potential of ponds against hot periods, which may
394 insure sensitive fish populations against transient heatwaves (Tassone et al. 2022) as well as
395 long-term, directional warming (Arismendi et al. 2013). This is particularly important in the
396 drought-stricken US West: in the Klamath River, summer water temperatures have warmed over
397 the last 20 years due to climate change, reduced snowpack, and decreased flows (Dettinger et al.
398 2015, Asarian et al. 2020).

399 We also found that the ponds created daily and seasonal thermal stability compared to
400 adjacent creeks or the mainstem Klamath River. Daily maximum temperatures in the summer
401 were up to 5 °C cooler in ponds compared to adjacent creeks, while daily minimum temperatures
402 in the winter were up to 3 °C warmer in ponds compared to creeks. Overall, off-channel ponds
403 buffer water temperatures throughout various seasons, meaning they likely stay closer to the
404 physiological optima of cold-water fish in both summer and winter months. This buffering
405 capacity also occurs within a day. Hourly temperature data showed that pond temperatures
406 fluctuated far less than creek temperatures throughout day-night thermal cycles during summer
407 months. Additionally, all ponds had thermal buffering capacity, as described by a ratio of creek
408 to pond CVs as greater than one. Buffering capacity was highest in May Pond (5.3) and
409 Goodman Pond (5.06), which are large, deep ponds with strong groundwater inputs.

410

411 *Off-channel ponds thermally stabilize over time*

412 The ponds received some assisted revegetation, and they were subsequently colonized by native
413 and invasive vegetation that created canopy cover, habitat structure, and shading over time (T.
414 Soto, personal observation). As canopy cover developed, we predicted that daily temperature
415 fluctuations in the ponds would become more stable with increasing shade. As expected, wavelet
416 analysis of Alexander and Stender Pond indicated that daily thermal stability increased over ten
417 years. However, the pattern of increasing daily thermal stability broke down in 2021, when daily
418 temperatures fluctuated more widely than prior years in Alexander and especially Stender Pond.
419 The years 2020-2021 were exceptionally dry and hot (California Department of Water Resources
420 2021), but the mechanism that caused pond thermal stability to break down during this drought is
421 not clear, especially given that we did not observe similar patterns during the 2012-2016 drought
422 (Lund et al. 2018). However, even though the daily thermal stability of Stender and Alexander
423 Ponds declined in 2021 compared to prior years, the ponds retained buffering capacity compared
424 to adjacent creeks and provided cooler, more stable thermal environments. This illustrates the
425 importance of analyzing not only temperature averages and extremes, but also the scale and
426 predictability with which regimes fluctuate (Arismendi et al. 2013). Extreme temperature
427 variation at short timescales may be stressful to aquatic species (e.g. Nelson & Palmer 2007), and
428 understanding this variation is important to classifying the impacts of climate events such as the
429 2021 drought.

430

431 *Implications for salmonid conservation*

432 Sullivan et al. (2021) define a thermal refuge in the context of temperate river basins as “a cold-
433 water patch used by poikilotherm (i.e. fishes) avoiding higher temperatures”. We have not
434 presented data on fish use of these ponds in this study; however, other studies have shown that
435 juvenile salmonids used these ponds as refuge habitat throughout the year. Annual fish surveys
436 by MKWC and the KFP indicated that these ponds are used by juvenile coho salmon and
437 steelhead, although fish populations, community composition, and age structure in each pond
438 vary by year throughout the watershed. Growth rates of juvenile salmonids rearing in the ponds
439 depend on a variety of factors, including fish density (Whitmore 2014; Krall 2016). Other studies
440 of non-natal rearing in the Klamath watershed suggest that non-natal rearing, including in the
441 ponds, can contribute significantly to adult returns (Gorman et al. 2016). Thus, the studied off-
442 channel ponds likely provide important rearing habitats for juvenile salmonids in this watershed.

443 Critically, habitat intended as refuge can become an ecological trap (Schlaepfer et al
444 2002) if a pond becomes isolated and fish are no longer able to leave when needed, e.g. to access
445 better food sources, migrate to the ocean, or avoid predators (Ebersole et al. 2020). In several of
446 these ponds, outflow channels connecting the pond to the creek can dry out by late summer,
447 trapping salmonids in ponds and preventing other individuals from entering until winter rains re-
448 wet the outflow channel. In other cases, winter flows may create sediment plugs that cut off
449 outflows. In this system, sediment plugs form most frequently in ponds with weak groundwater
450 inputs and outflow channels connected at 90-degree angles to the creek, compared to oblique
451 angled outlets (e.g. MKWC 2014). MKWC and the KFP have been experimenting with rock

452 structures, beaver dam analogs, and post-assisted log structures that increase water level and
453 connectivity of pond outlets. This work highlights an important point: restored floodplain
454 habitats often require continued human intervention to maintain connectivity with the rest of the
455 watershed, which is key to ensuring that these habitats operate as refuges rather than traps. The
456 specific methods for maintaining lateral (river-to-floodplain) connectivity may vary across
457 watersheds that differ in geomorphic and hydrologic background (e.g. Arrigoni et al. 2008). We
458 do note that periodic connectivity is an inherent property of floodplains, and the risk-reward
459 trade-off of using floodplain habitat has existed during the evolution of salmon using floodplains
460 (e.g. Jeffres et al. 2008). Thus, occasional disconnect from the mainstem does not necessarily
461 mean these habitats are ecological traps. Further research on how intermittent access to pond
462 habitats may affect salmonid behavior, foraging, and survival would help contextualize their role
463 as thermal refuges (e.g. Krall 2016).

464 Another important consideration when restoring floodplain habitat for salmonids is
465 dissolved oxygen (DO) availability. Inadequate levels of DO can impair activity, growth, and
466 survival for juvenile salmonids (Carter 2005). In experimental settings at 15 degrees C, juvenile
467 coho salmon started to display oxygen growth dependence around DO concentrations of 4 mg/L
468 and displayed zero growth below concentrations of 2.3 mg/L (Brett & Blackburn 1981).
469 However, in northern California, juvenile coho salmon have been shown to periodically survive
470 at sublethal DO concentrations (i.e. less than 4 mg/L) for weeks at a time (Woelfle-Erskine et al.
471 2017). In this study, we measured DO at a single location in each pond over several days in July
472 2020, and we took post-hoc DO and temperature depth profiles in each pond in June 2023. In 7
473 out of 9 ponds, DO in at least the first 50 cm of the pond was above the 4 mg/L threshold.
474 Additionally, in several ponds we recorded areas with DO supersaturation, likely due to
475 photosynthesis from algae and macrophytes, indicating some pond microhabitats may provide
476 relief from low-DO areas at least during the day (e.g. Peterson 1982). However, Goodman and
477 Lower Lawrence Ponds exhibited many DO measurements below 3 mg/L. Although fish have
478 been recorded using Goodman Pond (e.g. MKWC 2022), this is cause for concern and DO in
479 Goodman and Lower Lawrence ponds should be more thoroughly monitored.

480 Apart from floodplain restoration in general, our research calls attention to the
481 importance of incorporating thermal regimes into restoration actions in dam-impacted rivers
482 (Olden & Naiman 2010; Palmer & Ruhi 2019; Wohl et al. 2015). In the Klamath River, four
483 dams in the upper part of the watershed are scheduled for removal in 2023 and 2024 (Blumm &
484 Illowsky 2022; Klamath River Renewal Corporation 2020). The off-channel ponds in this study
485 will be used for relocating fish from the mainstem prior to reservoir draw-down to protect them
486 from fine sediment flushing during dam removal (Klamath River Renewal Corporation 2020; T.
487 Soto, personal observation). Additionally, new off-channel ponds will be constructed in dam
488 reservoir footprints post dam removal. In addition to long-term restoration strategies such as dam
489 removal, off-channel ponds offer quick support to depressed coho populations, providing a
490 relatively fast-acting restoration strategy that creates diverse thermal habitats for salmonids.

491 Our study has shown that in the mid-Klamath River watershed, human-made off-channel
492 ponds are effective at creating diverse thermal refuge habitats that likely benefit cold-water
493 fishes. These thermal refuges persist even during severe drought. However, beyond our study
494 watershed, the geomorphic and hydrologic context of other riverscapes may lead to different
495 results. Critically, the ponds described in this study have persistent sources of well-oxygenated
496 groundwater that help create large volumes of cooler water, and these groundwater sources were
497 investigated before pond excavation began (e.g. MKWC 2014). Ponds also require some level of
498 continued human maintenance to ensure pond outflows stay connected to the rest of the river
499 network (e.g. MKWC 2014). Use of these ponds as thermal refuge by salmonids and other cold-
500 water species may be variable and influenced by other concurrent restoration efforts in the
501 watershed. Thus, applying this restoration strategy to other river systems should be approached
502 with appropriate consideration. Overall, as climate change and droughts increase the importance
503 of access to thermal refuge habitats in riverscapes (e.g. Tassone et al. 2022), managing thermal
504 regimes will be increasingly critical to the integrity of river ecosystems.

505

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521

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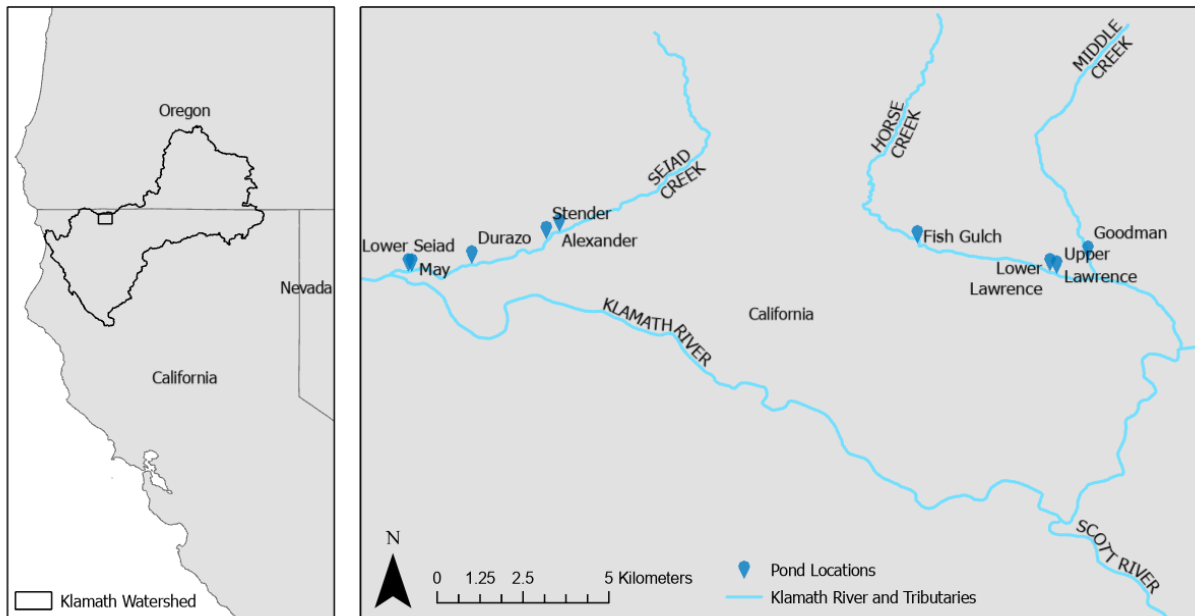
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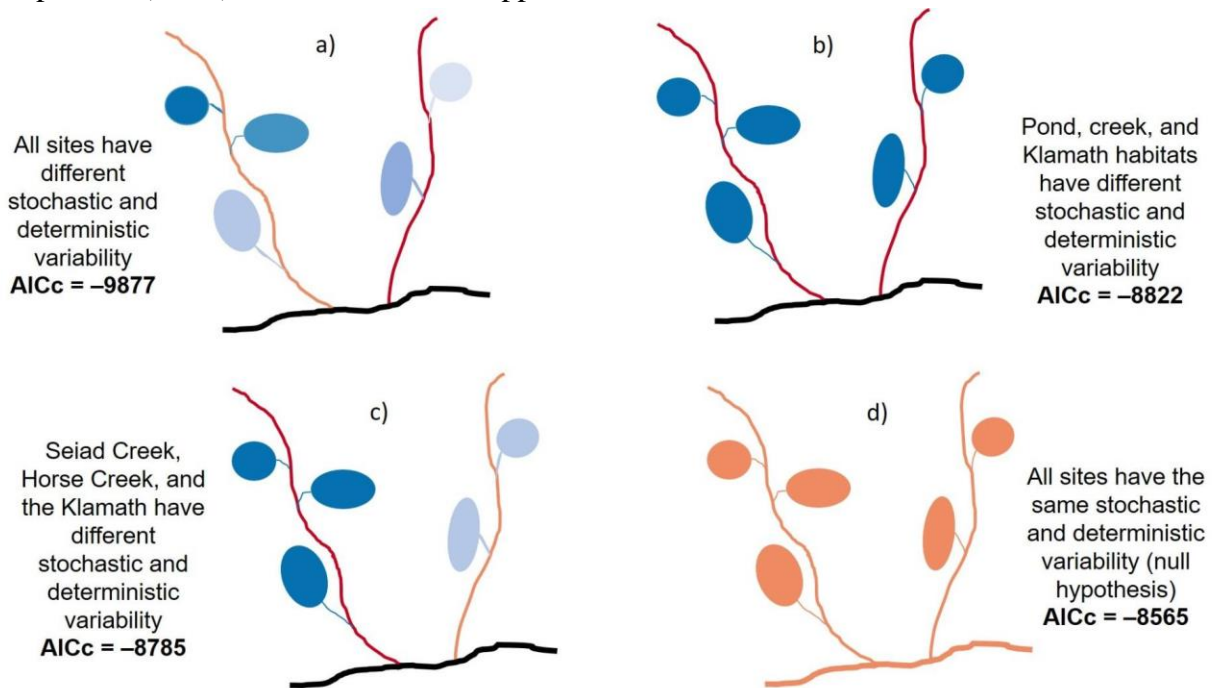
697 **Figures**

698 **Figure 1:** Seiad Creek and Horse Creek are neighboring watersheds feeding the Klamath River
699 in northern California, United States. This study included five ponds on Seiad Creek (Alexander,
700 Stender, Durazo, Lower Seiad, and May) and four ponds on Horse Creek (Fish Gulch, Goodman,
701 Upper Lawrence, and Lower Lawrence). Goodman Pond is on Middle Creek, a tributary of
702 Horse Creek.



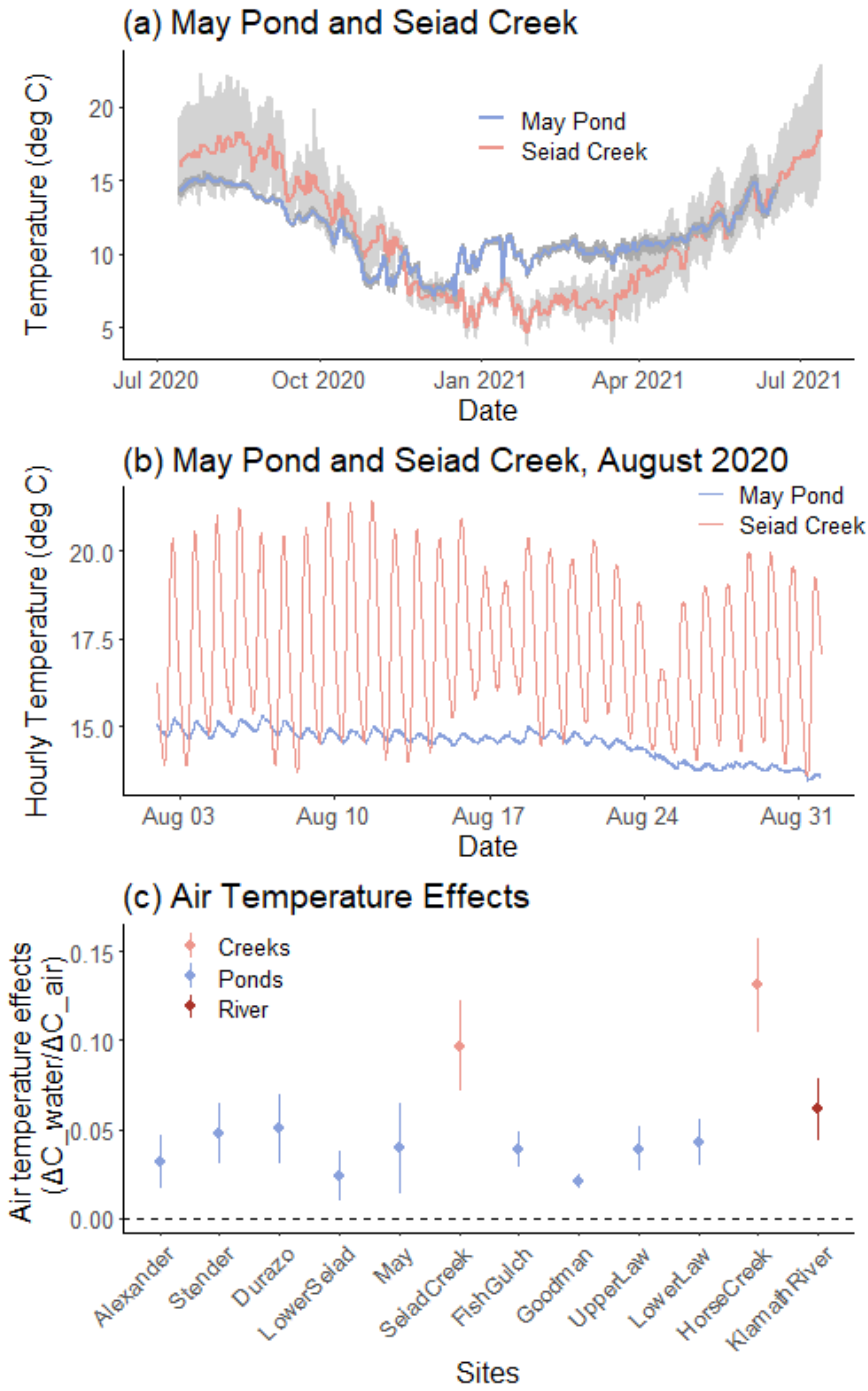
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705 **Figure 2:** Four hypotheses representing different levels of thermal diversity in the riverscape. In
 706 the multivariate autoregressive (MAR) model, we allowed for different levels of complexity in
 707 stochastic variability (Q , variation due to random chance) and deterministic variability (C ,
 708 variation due to changes in air temperature), ranging from a complex array of site-specific
 709 regimes (a) to a simple, watershed-wide thermal regime (d). Colors represent different
 710 configurations of deterministic and stochastic variability in ponds, creeks, and the mainstem
 711 river. We compared the four models using Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for small
 712 sample size (AICc), in which the best supported model has the lowest AICc score.



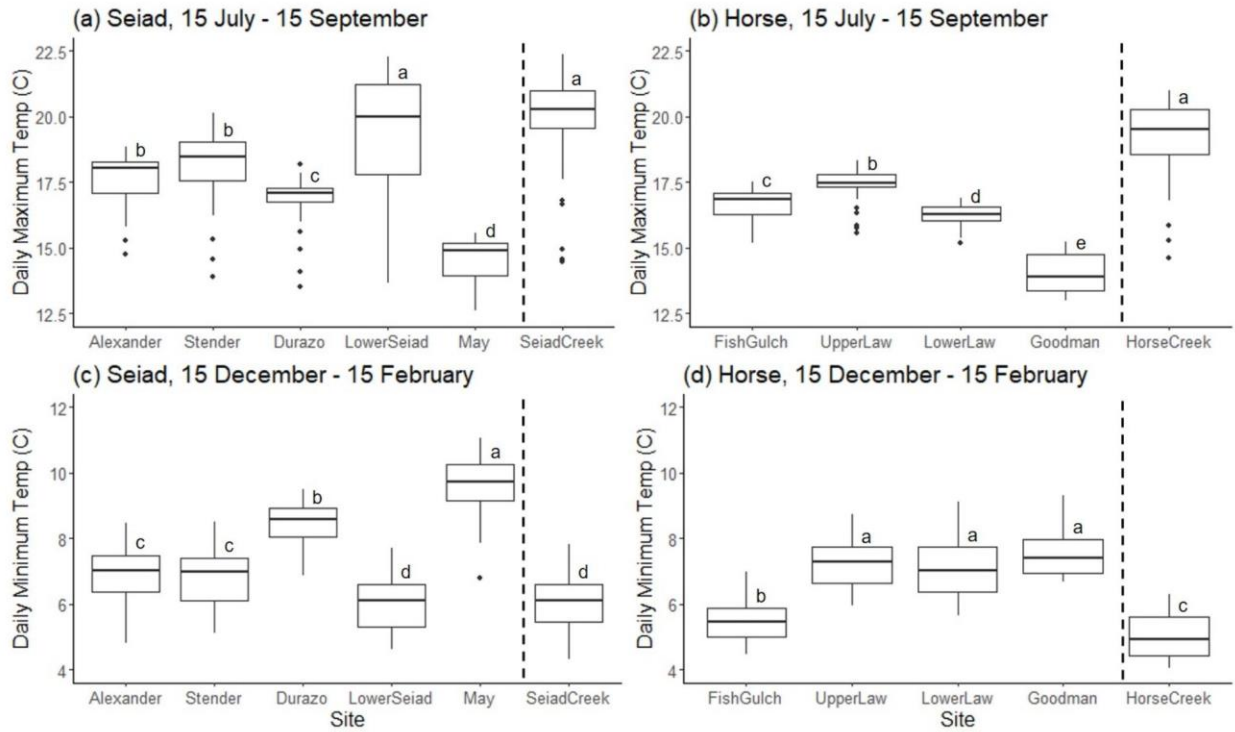
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715 **Figure 3:** (a) Daily mean temperatures in May Pond (blue) and Seiad Creek (red) throughout the
 716 study period. Gray lines display 15-minute temperature readings. (b) Daily temperatures in May
 717 Pond (blue) and Seiad Creek (red) in August 2020. May Pond exhibits the strongest thermal
 718 buffering. (c) Air temperature (C) effects in the best supported multivariate auto-regressive
 719 model (MAR). Air temperature was a significant covariate for all ponds, and Horse Creek and
 720 Seiad Creek had particularly strong air temperature effects compared to ponds.



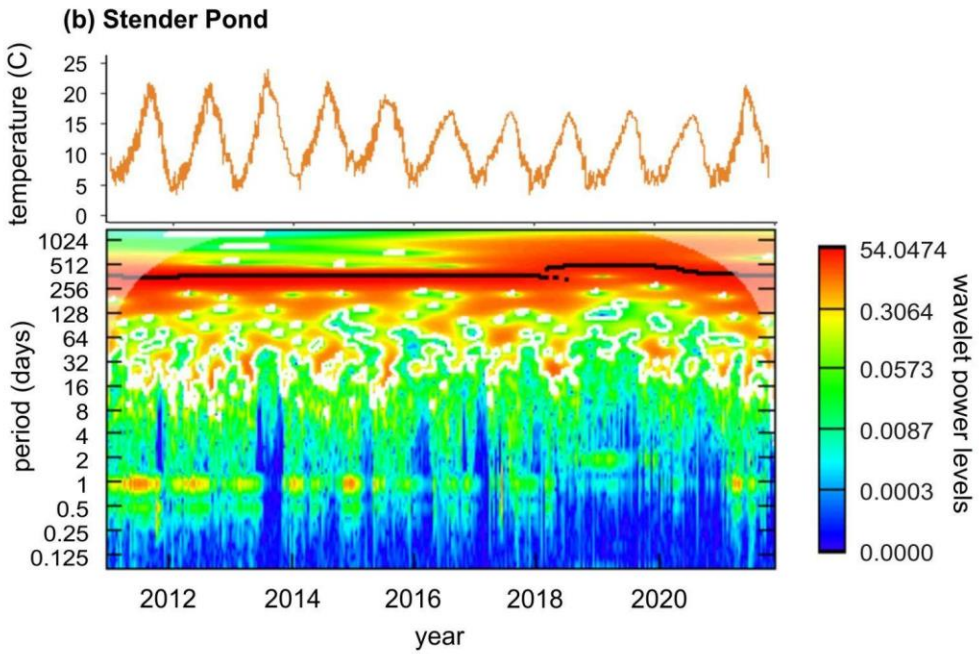
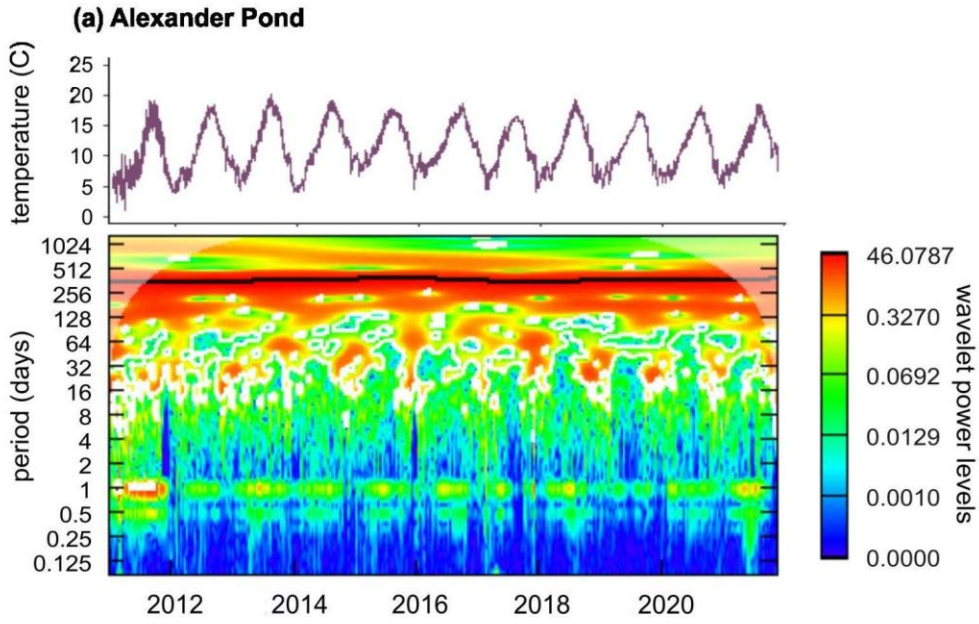
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722 **Figure 4:** Boxplots showing daily maximum temperatures for the three hottest months in the
 723 study period (15 July - 15 September 2020) for (a) Seiad ponds and creek and (b) Horse ponds
 724 and creek. All ponds were significantly cooler than creeks except for Lower Seiad Pond. Figs. (c)
 725 and (d) show boxplots of the daily minimum temperature of the three coldest months in the study
 726 period (15 December - 15 February 2020-2021). Ponds were significantly warmer than creeks
 727 except for Lower Seiad Pond. Letters represent significant groupings from ANOVA analysis.
 728 The vertical dashed line in each graph is a visual aid to separate the pond and creek habitats
 729 (ponds are on the left of the line, and creeks are on the right).



730
731

732 **Figure 5:** Hourly water temperatures from 2010-2020 and wavelet diagrams for Alexander (a)
733 and Stender (b) Ponds. Wavelet diagrams identify the contribution of each frequency to the
734 power, or strength, of a particular thermal regime. More powerful regimes with a stronger
735 frequency are red, and less powerful regimes are blue. Statistically significant frequencies are
736 outlined with a white line. Both ponds exhibit strong seasonal frequencies (period = 365 days)
737 because of strong and regular temperature fluctuations in winter and summer. Both ponds also
738 show strong frequencies at the daily scale (period = 1 day) because the cycle of day and night
739 creates a strong and regular thermal fluctuation. In both ponds, the daily frequency becomes
740 smaller and less red over time, indicating that daily temperature fluctuations decreased over the
741 11-year timespan. We predict this decrease in the power of daily regimes is due to the
742 development of aquatic and riparian vegetation that provides shading.



744 **Tables**

745 **Table 1.** Evidence of salmonid use in off-channel ponds. Upper Lawrence and Lower Lawrence
 746 Ponds are the only ponds not included here.

Citation	Findings relevant to this study	Ponds/creeks included in this study
Whitmore 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluated movement patterns of juvenile coho in and out of ponds. • Juvenile coho growth and retention depends on pond-specific characteristics. 	Alexander Pond
Krall 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessed accessibility, habitat conditions, food availability, and salmon density in ponds. • Recorded high salmon occupancy in ponds in the summer, but access to ponds was sometimes restricted • Estimated salmon growth rates in ponds; growth rates mostly depend on fish density 	Alexander Pond, Stender Pond, Lower Seiad Pond, May Pond
Gorman 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used PIT tag data to track salmon rearing in off-channel ponds and non-natal tributaries. • Non-natal rearing in habitats like off-channel ponds can contribute to adult returns. 	May Pond, Seiad Creek, Horse Creek
Faukner et al. 2019	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Described numbers of juvenile coho PIT tagged in pond or creek locations in the mid-Klamath river watershed. • Fish tagged in off-channel ponds have low detection rates. 	Horse Creek, Seiad Creek, Alexander Pond, Stender Pond, May Pond, Durazo Pond
Maher et al. 2019	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluated temperature, DO, and fish presence in Fish Gulch pond and Horse Creek. • Recorded acceptable temperature and DO levels for juvenile coho and steelhead. 	Fish Gulch Pond, Horse Creek
MKWC 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring report detailing fish counts and temperature dynamics between 2010 and 2014. • Found that the pond buffered water temperatures and supported up to 1500 juvenile coho salmon in winter 2014. 	Alexander Pond
Wickman et al. 2020	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring report detailing fish counts and temperature dynamics between 2014 and 2019. • Pond supported about 300 juvenile coho salmon in 2019 	Durazo Pond

MKWC 2022	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring report detailing fish counts and temperature dynamics between 2016 and 2022. • Pond supported about 1300 juvenile coho salmon in January 2022. 	Goodman Pond
MKWC 2020	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring report detailing fish counts and temperature dynamics between 2014 and 2019. • Pond supported about 200 juvenile coho salmon in 2018. 	May Pond

747

748 **Table 2:** MAR model hypotheses and AICc values. Model 1 was the best supported model with
 749 the lowest AICc score.
 750

Hypothesis	Model Number	AICc
All states have different levels of stochastic (Q) and deterministic (C) variability	Model 1	-9877
Each habitat type (creeks, ponds, Klamath) have different levels of stochastic (Q) and deterministic (C) variability	Model 2	-8822
Each watershed (Horse Creek, Seiad Creek, and Mainstem Klamath) have different levels of stochastic (Q) and deterministic (C) variability	Model 3	-8785
All states have same levels of stochastic (Q) and deterministic (C) variability	Model 4	-8565

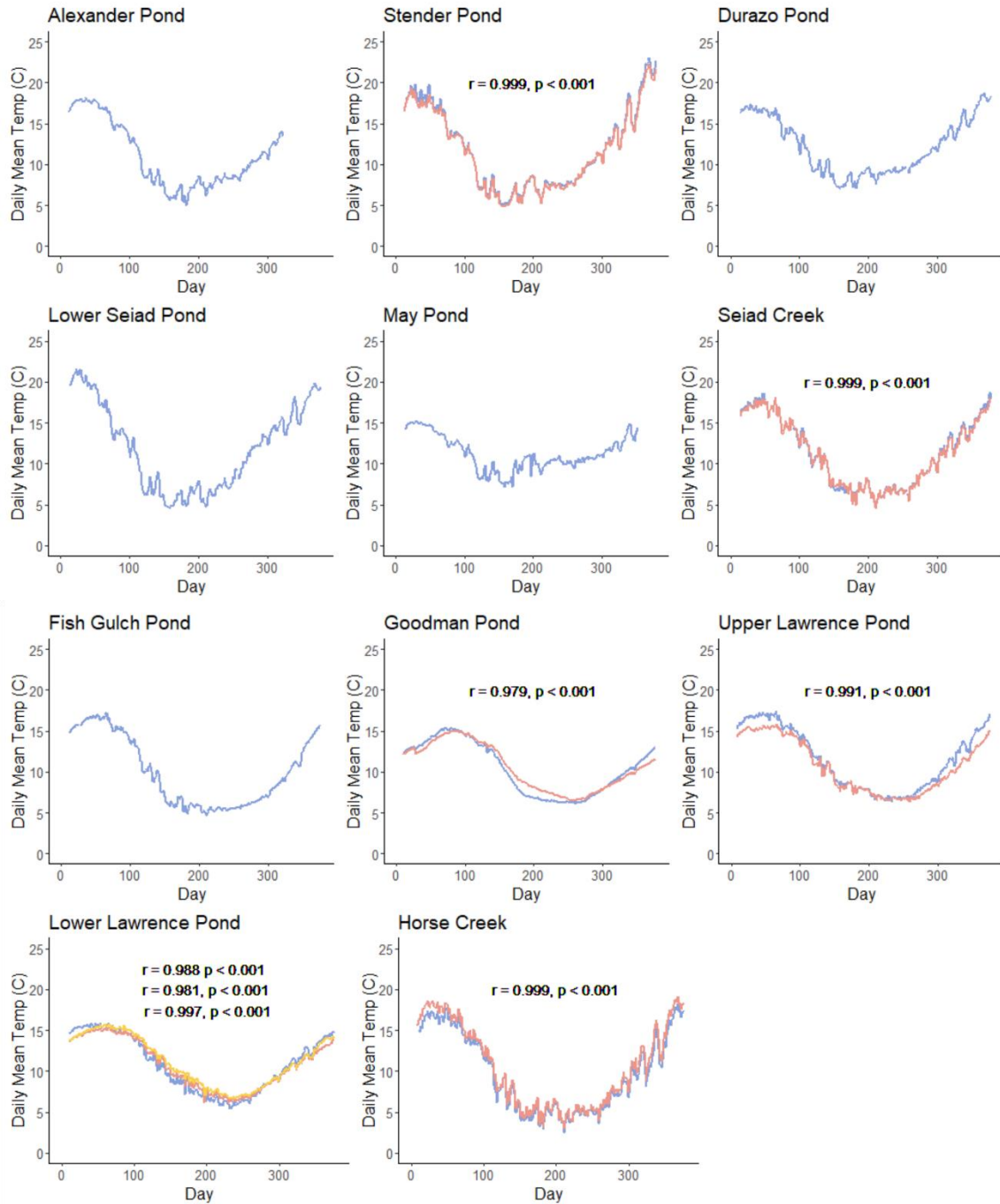
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754 **Supporting Information**

755

756 **Figure S1**

757 Temperature time series from all sensors included in the study, grouped by site. In sites with
758 more than one sensor, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) and the p -value are shown for each
759 time series pair.



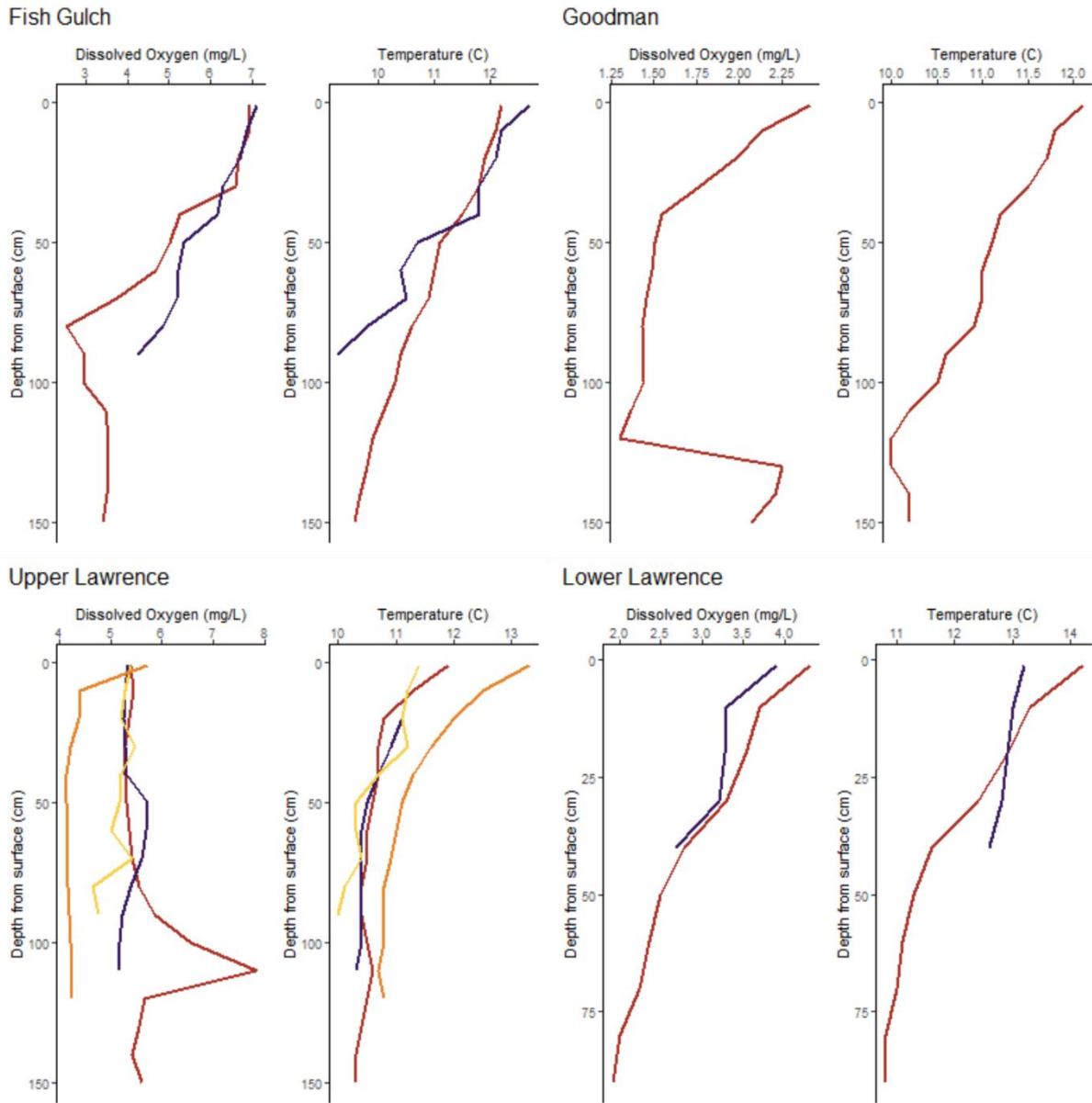
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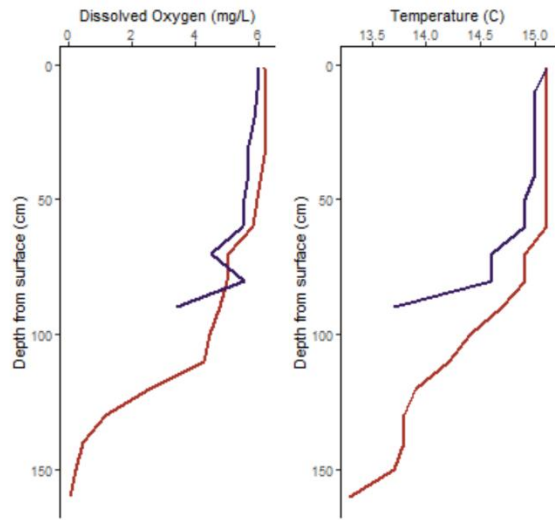
763

764 **Figure S2**
765 Depth profiles of dissolved oxygen and temperature taken in each pond in 2023 in the daytime
766 during the DO maxima. Matching colors on dissolved oxygen and temperature plots for each
767 pond represent profiles taken at the same time in the same location.
768

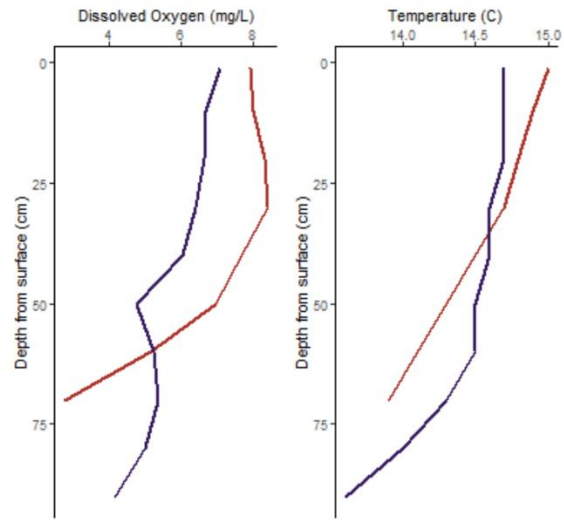


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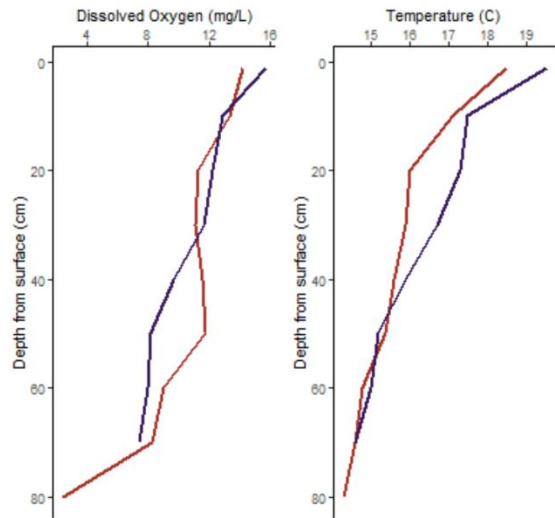
Alexander



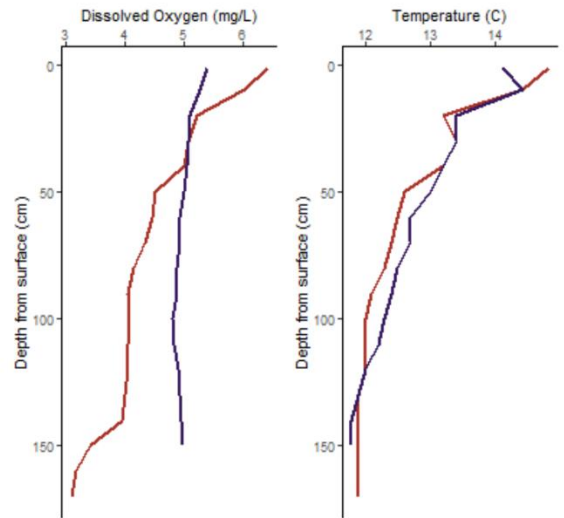
Stender



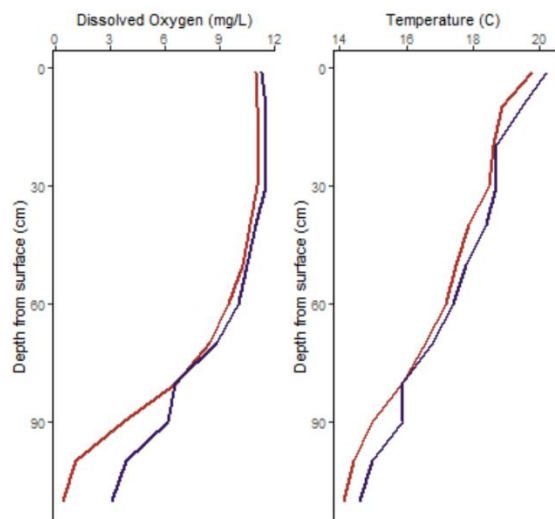
Durazo



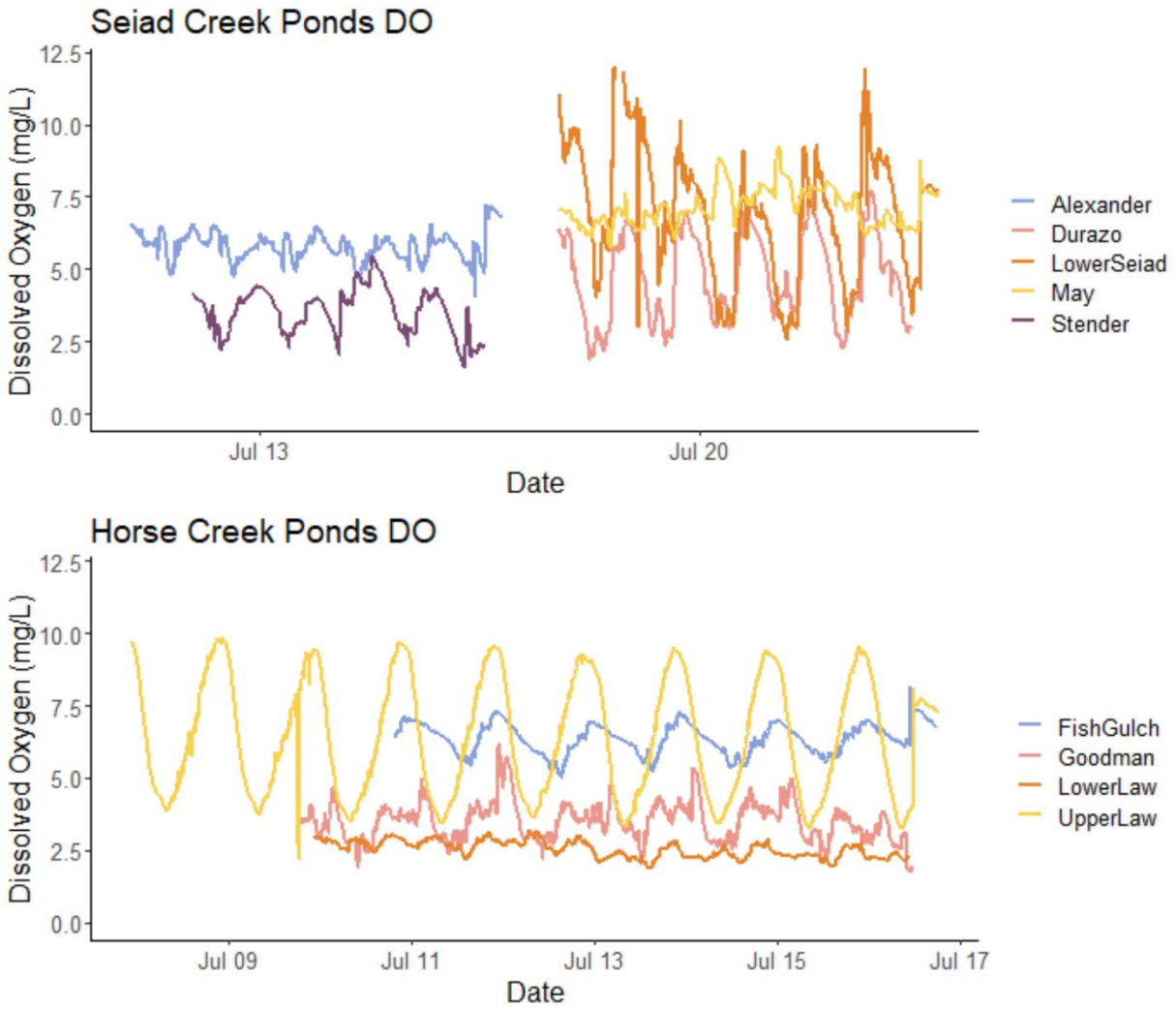
May



Lower Seiad



771 **Figure S3**
772 Dissolved oxygen data recorded in each pond in July 2020.
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775
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777 **Table S1**

778 For each site with more than one sensor, this table shows the mean difference and standard
 779 deviation of daily differences between each pair of time series.

780

Site	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation of Difference
Goodman Pond	0.134 °C	0.708 °C
Upper Lawrence Pond	0.812 °C	0.655 °C
Lower Lawrence Pond	0.655; -0.340; -0.346 °C	0.647; 0.744; 0.212 °C
Horse Creek	0.644 °C	0.367 °C
Stender Pond	0.255 °C	0.286 °C
Seiad Creek	0.105 °C	0.259 °C

781

782

783 **Table S2**
 784 Coefficient of variation (CV) for each individual creek and pond. The last column is the ratio of
 785 creek to pond CV.
 786

Watershed	Creek CV	Pond	Pond CV	CV Ratio
Seiad	9.68	Alexander	2.02	4.79
Seiad	9.68	Stender	3.08	3.14
Seiad	9.68	Durazo	2.02	4.80
Seiad	9.68	Lower Seiad	2.25	4.31
Seiad	9.68	May	1.83	5.30
Horse	9.94	Fish Gulch	2.21	4.49
Horse	9.94	Goodman	1.97	5.06
Horse	9.94	Upper Lawrence	5.09	1.95
Horse	9.94	Lower Lawrence	5.35	1.86

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