



1 **Beaver dam influences on streamflow hydraulic properties and** 2 **thermal regimes**

3 Milada Majerova ¹, Bethany T. Neilson ¹, Brett B. Roper ^{2,3}

4

5 ¹ Utah Water Research Laboratory, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Utah State University, 8200
6 Old Main Hill, Logan, Utah, 84322-8200, United States

7 ² Department of Watershed Sciences, Utah State University, 8200 Old Main Hill, Logan, Utah 84322-8200, United
8 States

9 ³ Fish and Aquatic Ecology Unit, U.S. Forest Service, 860 North 1200 East, Logan, Utah 84321, United States

10

11 *Correspondence to:* M. Majerova (milada.majerova@gmail.com) and B.T. Neilson (bethany.neilson@usu.edu)

12

13 **Abstract.** Beaver dams alter channel hydraulics which in turn change the geomorphic templates of streams. Variability
14 in geomorphic units, the building blocks of stream systems, and water temperature, critical to stream ecological
15 function, define habitat heterogeneity and availability. While prior research has shown the impact of beaver dams on
16 stream hydraulics, geomorphic template, or temperature, the connections or feedbacks between these habitat measures
17 are not well understood. This has left questions regarding relationships between temperature variability at different
18 spatial scales to hydraulic properties such as flow depth and velocity that are dependent on the geomorphology. We
19 combine detailed predicted hydraulic properties, field based maps with an additional classification scheme of
20 geomorphic units, and detailed water temperature observations throughout a study reach to demonstrate the
21 relationship between these factors at different spatial scales (reach, beaver dam complexes, and geomorphic units).
22 Over a three week, low flow period we found temperature to vary 2 °C between the upstream and downstream extents
23 of the reach with a net warming of 1 °C during the day and a net cooling of 0.5 °C at night. At the beaver dam complex
24 scale, net warming of 1.15 °C occurred during the day with variable cooling at night. Regardless of limited temperature
25 changes at these larger scales, the temperature variability in a beaver dam complex reached up to 10.5 °C due to the
26 diversity of geomorphic units within the complex. At the geomorphic unit scale, the highly altered flow velocity and
27 depth distributions within primary units provide an explanation of the temperature variability within the dam complex.
28 Riffles, with the greatest velocity variability and least depth variability, have the smallest temperature variability and
29 range. The lowest velocity variability occurred within margins, pools, and backwaters which exhibit the widest
30 temperature ranges, but range from shallow to deep. Overall, the predicted flow hydraulic properties for different
31 geomorphic units suggest that velocity is the primary factor in determining the variability of water temperature.
32 However, water depth can also play a role as it impacts warming patterns and can dictate thermal stratification. These
33 findings begin to link key attributes of different geomorphic units to thermal variability and illustrates the value of the
34 geomorphic variability associated with the development of beaver dam complexes.

35

36 **1 Introduction**

37 The presence of beaver dams in streams changes channel hydraulics resulting in decreased flow velocities and
38 increased flow depths within beaver ponds (Green and Westbrook, 2009, Nyssen et al., 2011, Westbrook et al., 2006)



39 and thus increases the hydraulic variability within stream reaches. Hydraulic diversity introduced to the system by
40 beaver dams changes depositional and erosional processes of the stream (Pollock et al., 2007), resulting in a changed
41 geomorphic template. Different geomorphic unit patterns, which are considered the building blocks of stream systems
42 (Brierley, 1996), define the amount and variability of physical habitat along the streams (Brierley and Fryirs, 2013,
43 Montgomery, 2001, Newson and Newson, 2000, Wheaton et al., 2010, Roegner et al., 2008). However, few studies
44 have investigated the influences of beaver dams on the connections between channel hydraulics and the geomorphic
45 template (e.g., Green and Westbrook, 2009, Pollock et al., 2007, Wheaton et al., 2004, Levine and Meyer, 2014, Stout
46 et al., 2016).

47

48 Habitat availability and quality also require an understanding of water temperatures (Hickman and Raleigh, 1982,
49 Dallas and Rivers-Moore, 2012, Allen, 1995). Water temperature is primarily dictated by climatic drivers (such as
50 solar radiation, air temperature and wind speed), channel structure and complexity, groundwater influences, and
51 riparian vegetation (Sullivan and Adams, 1991, Poole and Berman, 2001). Beaver dams and beaver activity can
52 significantly alter many of these factors and change the relative importance of various heat transfer mechanisms (e.g.,
53 groundwater exchanges, Westhoff et al., 2007, Beschta, 1997, Keery et al., 2007, Hannah et al., 2004). Findings
54 within the literature regarding the impacts of beaver dams on temperature have been contradictory. Some document
55 longitudinal trends and overall increases in downstream temperature (Andersen, 2011, Margolis et al., 2001, Salyer,
56 1935, McRae and Edwards, 1994, Shetter and Whalls, 1955, Majerova et al., 2015). Others find longitudinal buffering
57 of diel summer temperature extremes (Weber et al., 2017) or compare temperature across beaver ponds with increases
58 in temperature below low-head beaver dams but cooling below high-head dams (Fuller and Peckarsky, 2011). At
59 larger scales (~20 km), insignificant temperature changes have been observed due to beaver dam influences (Talabere,
60 2002). Majerova et al. (2015) highlighted the importance of spatial as well as temporal scales when examining the
61 influences of beaver dams on temperature. They illustrated the role of individual beaver dams on cumulative
62 downstream warming and/or cooling and demonstrated increased thermal variability after beaver colonization.
63 Literature regarding the impacts of beaver dams on stream temperature in relation to fish are similarly inconsistent
64 and few studies are based on in-situ measurements (Kemp et al., 2012, Gibson and Olden, 2014).

65

66 These individual studies all highlight that beaver dams impact stream hydraulics, geomorphic template, and water
67 temperature. We also know stream temperature is influenced by channel complexity (longitudinally and laterally) and
68 the associated variability in geomorphic units that creates habitat heterogeneity, often characterized by different
69 temperature regimes (Dallas and Rivers-Moore, 2011, Poole and Berman, 2001, Schmadel et al., 2015). For example,
70 pools can exhibit thermal stratification (Elliott, 2000, Nielsen et al., 1994, Tate et al., 2007), marginal areas can have
71 higher temperatures (Clark et al., 1999), riffle temperatures may differ from pools (Nordlie and Arthur, 1981),
72 backwaters can have higher summer maxima (Appleton, 1976, Harrison and Elsworth, 1958, Allanson, 1961), and
73 small side channels can experience groundwater influences (Mosley, 1983). Regardless of such findings, the
74 connections between stream hydraulics, geomorphic structure, and temperature are still not well understood. Many
75 questions remain regarding our ability to relate different temperature responses at varied spatial scales (geomorphic



76 units, beaver dam complexes, or reaches) to detailed descriptions of hydraulic properties such as flow depth and
77 velocity.

78

79 To begin addressing the connections between habitat measures (channel hydraulics, geomorphic templates, and
80 temperature variability) and the influence of beaver dams and complexes, we first investigate the variability in
81 hydraulic properties throughout a reach influenced by beaver dams using a 2D hydraulic model. We compare
82 frequency distributions of depth and velocity at the reach and beaver dam complex scales. We then identify
83 geomorphic units based on classification tools and compare depth and velocity frequency distributions for geomorphic
84 units (pools, backwaters, margins, and riffles) and combine these results with temperature observations to establish
85 the role of hydraulic factors in dictating thermal responses at the beaver dam complex and geomorphic unit scales.
86 Finally, we illustrate the importance of measuring temperature responses at different spatial scales by comparing
87 temperature ranges at reach, beaver dam complex, and geomorphic unit scales.

88

89 **2 Site Description**

90 Curtis Creek, a tributary of the Blacksmith Fork River, is located in the northern Utah and drains a portion of the Bear
91 River Range. It is a first-order mountain stream with a snowmelt dominated hydrologic regime where runoff starts in
92 late April and continues until mid-June. The study reach, a 750 m long section of the stream, has a relatively steep
93 average slope of 0.035, supporting a streambed of coarse gravel to large cobble. The reach was part of Utah Division
94 of Wildlife Resources (UDWR) stream relocation project when in 2001, some segments of the channel (about 440 m
95 of stream length) were moved and reconstructed (Fig. 1, old channel). As a result, man-made boulder vortex weirs
96 were placed in the new channel with a meandering planform and the banks of the realigned channel were stabilized
97 with boulders, root wads, logs, and erosion control blankets. The riparian area surrounding the channel prior to and
98 following relocation was heavily grazed by elk and did not support woody riparian vegetation. Around 2005, grazing
99 pressure was lessened and the area was fenced (though some grazing was still allowed). This facilitated the modest
100 recovery of the riparian woody vegetation (*Salix* sp.) which attracted beaver and promoted beaver colonization in
101 early summer of 2009. Multiple dams with heights ranging from 0.5 to 1.3 m were built over the course of three years
102 resulting in dam density of 9.3 dam/km by year 2012 (Fig. 1). Beaver dams created ponded areas, promoted overbank
103 flooding, created new side channels, and reconnected the new channel with the old channel via damming. This
104 promoted channel-floodplain reconnection, especially in segments that were reconstructed and confined prior to
105 beaver colonization.

106

107 **3 Methods**

108

109 **3.1 Field data collection**

110 The study reach boundaries were set following previous studies (Schmadel et al., 2010, Majerova et al., 2015) and
111 represented a 750 m long reach (Fig. 1). An additional scale of interest is that of a beaver dam complex which includes
112 a beaver dam or a series of beaver dams that are close to each other, the beaver pond, a portion of the upstream channel,



113 and a portion of the downstream channel. Three beaver dam complexes were identified in the Curtis Creek study reach
114 (Fig. 1, black boxes).

115

116 Topographic data and water surface elevations were collected throughout the study reach using a differential rtkGPS
117 (Trimble® R8, Global Navigation Satellite System, Dayton, Ohio, USA). Main and side channel topography
118 resolution ranged from 1.0 to 4.5 points per m^2 with the resolution decreasing on the banks and floodplain (less than
119 or equal to 1 point per m^2). Water surface elevation data were collected longitudinally for base flow ($0.19 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, 2012)
120 and high flow conditions ($0.93 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, 2014) with point densities ranging from 1 point per 0.3 m of stream length to 1
121 point per 20 m of stream length. Discharge measurements were taken at both upstream and downstream boundaries
122 using Marsh McBirney Inc® Flo-Mate™ (Model 2000, Frederick, Maryland) at the time of WSEL survey.

123

124 Two different types of temperature sensors were deployed during the study period at two different spatial scales, the
125 geomorphic unit scale within the beaver dam complex and a reach scale. 25 HOBO Pro v2 temperature sensors (Onset
126 Computer Corporation, Cape Cod, MA) provided temperature data at the geomorphic unit scale in the beaver dam
127 complex #1 (Fig. 1) from September 6 to September 26, 2013 (Snow, 2014) at 5-minute intervals. In pools and deeper
128 backwater areas where stratification could be present, sensors were also placed in a vertical array throughout the water
129 column (up to three sensors in one location). In addition to this fine spatial resolution, 25 HOBO Tidbit v2 temperature
130 sensors were placed in the main channel throughout the study reach and were logging continuous water temperature
131 data every 10 minutes (Fig. 1).

132

133 **3.2 2D Model development**

134 To evaluate hydraulic properties, the open source software Delft3D 4.01 Suite/FLOW module was applied to our
135 study site. This multi-dimensional (2D or 3D) hydrodynamic model solves the shallow water equations derived from
136 the three dimensional Navier-Stokes equations for incompressible free surface flow. The equations used were
137 formulated in orthogonal curvilinear coordinates. Rectangular grids are considered a simplified form of a curvilinear
138 grid (Delft3D- FLOW User Manual, Version 3.15). Hydraulic calculations are grid based and thus model results are
139 presented in the grid cell form. ArcMap 10.2 was used to develop the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) from
140 topographic and bathymetric surveys which was later used to create a $0.4 \times 0.4 \text{ m}$ grid within Delft3D. Beaver dams
141 were included in the grid as part of the geometry. To ensure flow through the structures, the openings were created
142 manually to match the water surface elevations collected above the dams. Measured discharge was used for the
143 upstream boundary condition while measured water surface elevation was used for the downstream boundary. Initially,
144 high flows of $0.93 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ were used for model calibration with later adjustment for low flow of $0.19 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to reflect
145 base flow conditions during summer. A Manning's n value of 0.038 was determined via input parameter sensitivity
146 analysis and applied for the entire study reach for both low and high flow conditions. The same input parameter
147 analysis determined an eddy viscosity of $0.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to achieve the smallest RMSE values. A time step sensitivity
148 analysis showed that results were independent when a time step size of 0.0025 min or less was applied. Therefore, a
149 time step of 0.0025 min was chosen and used for all the simulations. While model results are available for both low



150 and high flow conditions, this work focused on low flow conditions when water temperature can be limiting. To
151 evaluate model outputs at the different spatial scales, Delft3D output files from the low flow model results were
152 processed to create depth and velocity distributions for the study reach and beaver dam complexes. Distributions were
153 normalized by the total count for direct comparison of scales.

154

155 **3.3 Geomorphic mapping**

156 A spatially continuous map of the channel and floodplain identifying and describing individual geomorphic units was
157 constructed from field observations that captured conditions at base flow in summer 2012 based on the approach
158 described within Brierley and Fryirs (2013). Combining a field based delineation of geomorphic units and the DEM
159 constructed from topographic and bathymetric surveys, we applied the classification scheme developed by Wheaton
160 et al. (2015). This allowed for classification of margins, structural elements, and geomorphic units. Tiered
161 classification of geomorphic units first considered stage height (tier 1), then shape (tier 2), and then morphology (tier
162 3). By overlaying the classified geomorphic units with the predicted velocity and depths, cells within the model domain
163 were reclassified into 4 key geomorphic units (pool, backwater, channel margins, and riffle). Additionally, velocity
164 and depth thresholds associated with each of these geomorphic units were established based on model predictions
165 from each unit (Wyrick and Pasternack, 2014). The thresholds established for geomorphic units are: 1) riffles
166 consisting of depths less than 0.4 m and velocities higher than 0.5 m s^{-1} , but including lower velocity, lateral cells so
167 that riffles span the channel; 2) pools consisting of depths equal to or greater than 0.5 m and velocities below 0.5 m s^{-1} ;
168 3) marginal areas consisting of depths less than 0.1 m, velocities that could not exceed 0.1 m s^{-1} , and usually span
169 one to two cells from the water's edge; 4) backwater areas where velocities are less than 0.1 m s^{-1} with varying depths,
170 but had at least two adjacent cells to create a continuous surface. To quantify the variability in flow properties at
171 different spatial scales, depth and velocity distributions were constructed for each of four geomorphic units at the
172 reach and beaver dam complex scale.

173

174 **3.4 Temperature data**

175 To link hydraulic predictions and the geomorphic template to stream temperature, temperature data from September
176 2013 collected within the beaver dam complex #1 (Snow, 2014) were grouped by different geomorphic units. For
177 comparison of the thermal responses at the beaver dam complex and study reach scales, temperature data from the
178 extents of these scales were compared. Further, at the beaver dam complex scale (specifically beaver dam complex
179 #1), a temperature range (minima and maxima) was constructed from the 35 sensors (at 25 locations) within the beaver
180 dam complex to illustrate thermal variability by geomorphic unit for the same time period. Similarly, at the reach
181 scale, temperature ranges captured by the 25 sensors from the main channel of the study reach were evaluated to
182 determine the temperature variability at this scale.

183

184 **4 Results**

185

186 **4.1 Comparison of computed and observed water surface elevations for 2D model**



187 The calibrated 2D model generally under-predicted observed water surface elevations with the greatest differences
188 between computed and observed elevations being in the ponded areas. For the 564 comparison locations throughout
189 the study reach (SI Fig. 1), the average difference between the model and observed water surface elevation was -0.056
190 m, with an RMSE value of 0.078 m. Even though the model under-estimated water surface elevations in general,
191 computed values were higher 6 % of the time by 0.03 m on average.

192

193 **4.2 Geomorphic mapping**

194 By combining the field based delineation of geomorphic units and the DEM, a tier 3 classification scheme was applied
195 that resulted in a detailed map of the study reach and illustrates the influences of beaver dams on channel form and
196 structure (Fig. 2). During the study period, 7 beaver dams were located in the main channel and one was in the old
197 channel at the downstream extent of the reach (Fig 1, Fig. 2). Multiple additional small dams were present in the old
198 channel with herbaceous vegetation or smaller wooden branches being the primary building material. The most
199 upstream main channel dam breached a year prior to the mapping and degradation of the dam continued over the
200 following years. Beaver ponds represented about 33.5 % (1124 m²) of the wetted channel area. Overflow channels
201 and beaver canals resulting from dam construction in the main channel created new flow paths that connected it to the
202 old channel and added 2020 m² of additional wetted area (Fig. 2). New gravel bars at the upstream end of the reach
203 were a result of the dam breach and previous sediment movement from upstream.

204

205 **4.3 Flow hydraulic properties**

206

207 **4.3.1 Study reach**

208 Flow depth and velocity calculated for each cell within the computational domain of the study reach ranged from 0.03
209 to 1.08 m and 0.001 to 2.8 m s⁻¹, respectively. The 0.03 m depth value is set in the model as a minimal depth threshold
210 and dictated when a computational cell was considered wet. The average depth and velocity for the entire study reach
211 was 0.23 m and 0.25 m s⁻¹, respectively. The depth frequency distribution for the reach was positively skewed with
212 majority of depths falling under 0.3 meters (Fig. 3A). The same trend was observed for the reach velocity distribution
213 where areas with low velocity (margins, backwaters) represented about 31 % of the channel.

214

215 Using the geomorphic unit classification (Fig. 2) and predictions of depth and velocity, pools, backwaters, margins,
216 and riffles represented 13, 21, 10, and 10 % of the entire reach computational domain, respectively. These units
217 exhibited different flow properties with an average depth and velocity for pools, backwater, marginal areas, and riffles
218 being 0.66 m (0.50–1.08 m) and 0.11 m s⁻¹ (0.001–0.73 m s⁻¹), 0.38 m (0.03–1.08 m) and 0.03 m/s (0–0.10 m s⁻¹),
219 and 0.06 m (0.03–0.10 m) and 0.03 m s⁻¹ (0–0.1 m s⁻¹), 0.13 m (0.03–0.4 m) and 0.64 m s⁻¹ (0.002–1.83 m s⁻¹),
220 respectively.

221

222 **4.3.2 Beaver dam complex**



223 Combined, the beaver dam complexes (#1- 3, Fig. 1) covered about 67 % of the entire study reach. Similar to the reach
224 scale results, the predicted flow depths ranged from 0.03 to 1.08 m with the average value of 0.27 m. The beaver dam
225 complexes include shallow margin and transitional zones as well as the deepest spots within the beaver ponds. These
226 areas also contained the lowest and often near zero velocities, with an average value of 0.175 m s^{-1} . Similar to the
227 study reach, the distributions were positively skewed for depth, however, there were greater percentages of shallow
228 marginal areas. The velocity distribution is similar in shape and magnitude to the reach scale (Fig. 3B).

229

230 Focusing on beaver dam complex #1 (Fig. 1), which covers about 25 % of the study reach, the pool, backwater,
231 marginal areas, and riffle geomorphic units represented 10, 37, 9, and 11 % respectively (Fig. 4). The frequency
232 distributions for these individual units show how depth and velocity vary significantly over finer spatial scales. Pool
233 depths ranged from 0.50 m to 0.88 m with an average depth of 0.62 m. The velocity distribution was positively skewed
234 with an average velocity of 0.09 m s^{-1} (Fig. 3C). Backwaters had the largest depth range since they covered deep areas
235 as well as shallow zones, but averaged 0.32 m. Velocity distributions reflected the $<0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ threshold used to
236 delineate backwater units. Marginal areas included very shallow areas in the channel ($<0.1 \text{ m}$) and thus had a positively
237 skewed velocity distribution that consisted of low values with many smaller than 0.01 m s^{-1} . The riffle depths resulted
238 in the most symmetrical distribution with a range from 0.03 to 0.33 m and an average of 0.14 m. Velocities were
239 highest in the riffles with values nearing 1.46 m s^{-1} .

240

241 4.4 Water temperature

242

243 4.4.1 Study reach

244 Temperatures through the study reach, as illustrated by observed temperature ranges (minima and maxima) over time
245 based on the 25 main channel sensors, show significant spatial variability over the three week study period in the Fall
246 of 2013 (Fig. 5A). The maximum difference at any time throughout the reach was nearly 2°C . However, if the
247 difference between the most upstream and downstream sensors (Fig. 5B) is only considered, the downstream net
248 warming is $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$ (positive values) during the day and net cooling is 0.5°C during the night (negative values).

249

250 4.4.2 Beaver dam complex #1 and its geomorphic units

251 At the finer scale of the beaver dam complex, similar to the reach scale, the pond warmed by about 1.15°C (Fig. 5D)
252 during the day. However, the cooling effect at night is not present as often and responds differently than the reach
253 scale (Fig. 5B, 5D) in that the temperature reaches its maxima sooner in the day. The temperature decreased more
254 rapidly after the daily peak and the downstream cooling is observed earlier (Fig. 5B, 5D). The temperature sensors
255 placed throughout the beaver dam complex #1 (Fig. 1) demonstrate a wider range of temperatures with maximum
256 differences between temperature minima and maxima approaching 10.5°C at times. To investigate this temperature
257 variability at the finer geomorphic unit scale, these same sensors were grouped by geomorphic units within the beaver
258 dam complex (Fig. 4). The temperature variability within units, as represented by maximum values minus minimum
259 values observed across all sensors within a geomorphic unit classification over time (Fig. 6), show that backwaters



260 have the greatest variability with temperature ranges reaching 10.5 °C. Margins have the second highest variability (5.6
261 °C), followed by pools with 4.1 °C (Fig. 6, SI Fig. 2). No vertical thermal stratification was found in the pools in the
262 main portion of the beaver pond and only small temperature differences were observed between vertical sensors within
263 this area. However, the pool in the backwater area (Fig. 4) experienced thermal stratification that continued into the
264 old channel (SI Fig. 3). In addition to the different thermal regimes recorded vertically, time lags in temperature
265 maxima were also present and ranged from 3 hours between the surface and middle layer and between 3.5 and 5.5
266 hours in the middle and bottom layers (SI Fig. 2). The thermal stratification was responsible for a large fraction of
267 the temperature range present within backwater (Fig. 6, and Fig. 7C) and also created the lowest and highest
268 temperatures among the four geomorphic units (Fig. 7C). Margins also exhibited wide temperature ranges but were
269 similar to those found within pools. As expected, riffles were the least thermally variable with the riffle above and
270 below the pond showing similar temperature ranges and averages. However, when comparing the riffles above and
271 below, the difference in temperature reached up to 1.4 °C and illustrated the warming effect of the pond (Fig. 7C, SI
272 Fig. 4).

273

274 **4.5 Connecting flow hydraulic predictions, geomorphic units and stream temperature**

275 The flow depth and velocity ranges constructed from the model hydraulic predictions showed that backwater had the
276 largest depth range (0.03–0.88 m) and a relatively small velocity range (0.0–0.1 m s⁻¹), but had the greatest thermal
277 variability. At the same time, margins had the smallest depth (0.03–0.1 m) and velocity range (0.0–0.1 m s⁻¹), but still
278 had relatively large temperature variability. Pools had the second largest depth range (0.5–0.88 m) and the velocity
279 range (0.0–0.55 m s⁻¹) was the third smallest, but the temperature variability was still high (Fig. 7). Riffles, with the
280 least thermal variability, had substantially larger velocity ranges and minimal depth ranges (Fig. 7).

281

282 **5 Discussion**

283

284 **5.1 Model Performance**

285 Use of a constant Manning's n for the entire model domain may have translated into a slight increase in the overall
286 RMSE value. Consistent with previous modeling efforts used for habitat analysis Jowett and Duncan, 2012, however,
287 the sensitivity analysis showed that Manning's n does not notably impact computed water surface elevations (SI Fig.
288 6, SI Fig. 7, SI Table 1). This suggests that water surface elevations were mainly influenced by bed topography and
289 the derived computational mesh as well as chosen eddy viscosity parameter. However, another possible error source
290 could be the treatment of beaver dams and flow through them within the modeling. Flow through dams that were part
291 of the channel topography was ensured via openings in the dam in an effort to mimic observed water surface elevations
292 immediately upstream of the structure. This may have led to computational inaccuracies around the dam structures
293 themselves. Different methods for handling flow through the dams may improve overall model accuracy.

294

295 **5.2 Geomorphic mapping**

296 The detailed classification map of the study reach illustrates the impacts of beaver dam development through the



297 diversity of geomorphic units, channel adjustments, and new flow paths throughout the reach (Fig. 2). By combining
298 field based observations with the tier classification map, the in-channel geomorphic unit delineations were more
299 confidently identified and provided the baseline information for further hydraulic analyses. Additionally,
300 temperature sensors were generally placed in the center of the units so small deviation in the boundary delineations
301 could influence depth and velocity frequency distributions, but would not significantly alter the identified thermal
302 variability within these units.

303

304 **5.3 Flow depth and velocity frequency distributions**

305 Depth and velocity distributions for the reach and beaver dam complexes follow similar trends primarily because
306 beaver dam complexes comprise a significant portion of the reach. When considering the geomorphic units within
307 beaver dam complex #1, the depth and velocity distributions clearly differ from the reach and beaver dam complex
308 scales (Fig. 3). Previous efforts have shown pools to have the widest velocity and depth distributions and include more
309 diverse microhabitat (Rosenfeld et al., 2011). In our study, pools had the second widest depth distribution (Fig. 3, Fig.
310 7). Backwater areas, which are created when beaver dams are constructed and have not typically been separated out
311 in previous studies, demonstrated the widest range of depths in our study. Both, pools and backwaters cover deep and
312 low velocity areas of the channel and were mainly a result of beaver dam construction. Stout et al. (2016) made a
313 comparison of the same study reach both with and without beaver dams. They concluded that there was a 50 % increase
314 in depths and 31 % decrease in velocities for this reach when the beaver dams are present. Although this comparison
315 is based on 1D model cross-sectional values that do not represent the geomorphic unit scale, it captures the longitudinal
316 heterogeneity of the hydraulics.

317

318 **5.4 Hydraulic properties, geomorphic units, and thermal variability**

319 The range of reach scale temperatures reflects variations within the reach (Fig. 5A) and highlights the warming effects
320 of a series of beaver complexes on longitudinal stream temperature patterns (Fig. 5B). The temperature sensors placed
321 in the main channel flow experience vertically well mixed conditions and mostly have similar thermal regimes as
322 illustrated by the small temperature ranges observed over time (Fig. 5A), but are limited in density in geomorphically
323 complex areas (e.g., beaver dam complexes). However, temperature ranges constructed from the 35 sensors placed
324 throughout the dam complex and within many of the same geomorphic units illustrates that the spatial variability
325 throughout the complex approaches 10.5 °C. Similar to Majerova et al. (2015), these results highlight the importance
326 of the spatial scale and resolution at which the measurements and observations are made. The high density
327 measurements made within specific geomorphic units in the beaver dam complex (Fig. 6, 7, SI Fig. 2) better represent
328 the habitat diversity available for the various fish species and life stages. These wide temperature ranges represent the
329 influence of highly variable hydraulic properties (Fig. 3C) and complex hydraulic mixing patterns within different
330 geomorphic units that in turn influence dominant heat fluxes and thermal responses. This highlights that the variability
331 in geomorphic unit types within a beaver dam complex and the resulting, but highly interdependent, depth and velocity
332 distributions (Fig. 3C), are key in creating variable thermal regimes.

333



334 Geomorphic units within main flow of the pond and the riffles above and below the ponded area generally experience
335 vertically well mixed conditions and short residence times which result in similar temperature regimes (SI Fig. 4). The
336 lower velocity pools tend to experience greater temperature variability, but unlike other studies (Nielsen et al., 1994,
337 Tate et al., 2007, Elliott, 2000) no stratification was present. Clark et al. (1999) also observed limited stratification in
338 two rivers in the UK and attributed this to insufficient depths. Consistent with these findings, Butler and Hunt (2013)
339 observed stratification when depths were greater than 1 m. While both depth and velocities within pools are key to
340 quantifying thermal stratification, other factors such as dissolved organic carbon and turbidity must also be considered
341 (Merck and Neilson, 2012, Cory et al., 2015, Wang and Seyed-Yagoobi, 1994, Kirk, 1985). The lowest velocity areas
342 of the beaver pond have either the greatest depth (backwater) or the smallest depth (margins) and a range of ~3-22 °C
343 for backwater areas and ~5-19 °C for margins during the three week study period (Fig. 7). Within the backwater unit
344 near the boundary of the old channel, there is significant thermal stratification that contributes to the overall
345 temperature variability within the beaver dam complex (SI Fig. 3). The varied thermal responses within these units
346 are dependent on a number of factors, many of which can be tied back to hydraulic properties.

347

348 Thermal stratification within the backwater area is a result of low velocities that minimize lateral and vertical mixing
349 and increase residence times (SI Fig. 3). Additionally, rooted macrophyte growth created a shallow surface layer of
350 water that would warm significantly during the day due to solar radiation inputs, while the water beneath the thick
351 vegetation was shaded from solar influences. Combined with localized groundwater upwelling in this area, it is clear
352 how such strong thermal stratification could develop in relatively shallow areas. Similarly, Clark et al. (1999) observed
353 heating of the surface layer isolated by the vegetation in 40 study locations, out of which 24 locations experienced
354 more than 1 °C difference. They also observed time lags between the surface layer and main channel temperatures
355 and the differences in the timing of the peak was more pronounced than for the minimum daily values. In their study,
356 water temperature in the surface layer of the backwater area peaked on average 150 minutes earlier than in the main
357 channel. This differs from our observations where no time lag is present between the surface layer of the backwater
358 and main flow (SI Fig. 3). However, there was a time lag between the bottom layer and the main flow temperature
359 which reached up to 8 hours. These cool bottom layers can be extremely important refugia for fish survival in summer
360 months, especially in changing flow conditions over the last decade (Nielsen et al., 1994, Dallas and Rivers-Moore,
361 2012, Nielsen et al., 1994, Tate et al., 2007, SI Fig. 3, SI Fig. 5).

362

363 When considering temperature variability within the margins, low velocities and shallow depths translate into small
364 volume to surface area ratios and long residence times. As the surface area to volume ratio is increased, more energy
365 can be exchanged across the air-water interface area and with long residence times, the temperature of small parcels
366 of water can be significantly altered (e.g., Gu et al., 1998). In general, marginal areas are expected to have higher daily
367 temperatures (Appleton, 1976, Harrison and Elsworth, 1958, Allanson, 1961, Clark et al., 1999). We found these areas
368 had warmer temperatures during the day and a wide temperature range (Fig. 7). Energy gains during the day from the
369 sun and energy losses during the night due longwave radiative exchange and evaporation are generally the primary
370 causes of these large temperature changes. Others have found these areas to cool and heat differently than the main



371 channel (e.g., Rutherford et al., 1993), but these effects have also been found to vary during the day depending on the
372 location, depth, and localized shading (Neilson et al., 2009). Further, Neilson et al. (2010) found these areas to be a
373 heat source at night and a heat sink during a portion of the day. Regardless, these studies have focused on a more
374 typical density of marginal areas that are lower than that observed within beaver dam complexes. Some preliminary
375 modeling work to identify dominant heat fluxes within various portions of this beaver dam complex has shown that
376 the thermal responses of many areas representing individual or combined geomorphic features are dominated by
377 surface heat fluxes, radiation penetration of the water column, and the residence time (Snow, 2014). This further
378 highlights the role of hydraulic properties and geomorphic templates on small scale temperature responses.

379

380 Beaver dams significantly contribute to spatial heterogeneity of hydraulic properties resulting in the changed
381 geomorphic template of the stream that creates stream systems (Brierley, 1996) and defines the physical habitat
382 diversity (Brierley and Fryirs, 2013, Montgomery, 2001, Newson and Newson, 2000, Wheaton et al., 2010, Roegner
383 et al., 2008). In general, model predictions of flow hydraulics within different geomorphic units and the associated
384 temperature variability illustrate the dominant role of velocity in thermal responses as it more directly represents
385 residence time distributions. The temperature variability within marginal areas, backwater, and pools illustrate this
386 point well (Fig. 7C). Overall, when assessing geomorphic units and predicted hydraulic properties, the variability in
387 temperature regimes can generally be explained. While the localized and site specific conditions (e.g., shading and
388 groundwater exchanges) can create many thermal anomalies, identification of geomorphic units and the associated
389 hydraulic properties will allow one to anticipate the potential thermal variability within each unit. These estimates can
390 be based on velocity distributions, but depth is still important due it providing a volume surrogate that represents the
391 potential for thermal buffering. Regardless, it is important to remember that absolute temperatures in streams are only
392 partially dictated by hydraulic properties as many other factors must be considered (e.g., surface heat fluxes,
393 groundwater exchanges, shading, water chemistry, aquatic vegetation). In areas of beaver dam complex development,
394 it is clear that the dams increase the development of varied geomorphic units that correspond with lower velocities,
395 higher residence times, and significant depth and temperature variability which all serve to diversify aquatic habitat.
396 The thermal and physical diversity of conditions found within beaver dam complexes have been shown to improve
397 trout growth (Sigourney et al., 2006) and suggest that stream sections with beaver dams will likely increase overall
398 trout production (Gard, 1961) even if total counts are not higher. Therefore, the widespread presence of beaver dam
399 complexes in a watershed would likely only positively affect trout population dynamics.

400

401 **6 Conclusion**

402 This study relates stream hydraulics and the geomorphic template of a stream impacted by beaver dams to stream
403 temperature; an important indicator of habitat availability and quality. Using predicted hydraulic properties, detailed
404 field observations of geomorphic units, and water temperature measurements, we demonstrate that geomorphic units
405 within beaver dam complexes exhibit highly unique thermal responses in part due to the variability in flow velocities
406 and depths. Velocity plays a more dominant role in temperature distributions as it provides a more accurate indicator
407 of residence time. While geomorphic units within main flow of the river generally experience vertically well mixed



408 conditions and uniform temperatures, the lower velocity pools, backwaters and margins tend to experience greater
409 temperature variability. Observed thermal stratification in the backwaters was attributed to low velocities as well as
410 macrophyte growth and local groundwater inputs in the area. Low velocities and shallow depths of marginal areas
411 translate into small volume to surface area ratios and long residence times resulting in wide daily variations in
412 temperature.

413

414 This study also illustrates the importance of scale by comparing temperature responses across reach and beaver dam
415 complex scales. We observed the warming effects of multiple beaver dam complexes on longitudinal stream
416 temperature as captured by the 2 °C within reach temperature differences. In contrast, when temperature is measured
417 at smaller spatial scales, temperature differences within individual geomorphic units reached up to 10.5 °C within a
418 beaver dam complex. This wide temperature range illustrates the influence of highly variable depth and velocity
419 distributions and complex hydraulic mixing patterns within different geomorphic units.

420

421 Beaver dams significantly contribute to spatial heterogeneity of hydraulic properties resulting in a changed
422 geomorphic template of streams. We demonstrated this imposed variability through predicted spatial distributions of
423 hydraulic properties within a reach with multiple beaver dam complexes containing diverse geomorphic units. We
424 additionally illustrated how changing hydraulics influenced the variability of thermal responses and provide insight
425 regarding links in geomorphic changes and various habitat diversity measures.

426

427 **Acknowledgements**

428 This research was primarily funded by the Utah Water Research Laboratory and funding provided as part of a
429 cooperative agreement with the U.S. Forest Service's Watershed, Fish, Wildlife, Air, and Rare Plants staff group. The
430 authors would additionally like to thank the Utah Division of Wildlife Resources for facilitating this research and the
431 numerous field crew members for their help with data collection. We are also thankful to Joe Wheaton for feedback
432 and discussion in early stages of this paper. The support and resources from Center for High Performance Computing
433 at the University of Utah are gratefully acknowledged. Namely, help of Wim R. Cardoen with providing technical
434 guidance is appreciated.

435

436 **References**

- 437 Allanson, B. R.: Investigations into the ecology of polluted inland waters in the Transvaal, *Hydrobiologia*, 18, xiii-
438 xiii, 1961.
- 439 Allen, J. D.: *Stream ecology, Structure and function of running waters*. Chapman u. Hall, 1995.
- 440 Andersen, D. C., Shafroth, P.B., Pritekel, C.M. and O'Neill, M.W.: Managed flood effects on beaver pond habitat in
441 a desert riverine ecosystem, *Bill Williams River, Arizona USA, Wetlands*, 31(2), 195-206, 10.1007/s13157-011-
442 0154-y 2011.
- 443 Appleton, C.: OBSERVATIONS ON THERMAL REGIME OF A STREAM IN EASTERN TRANSVAAL, WITH
444 REFERENCE TO CERTAIN AQUATIC PULMONATA, *S. Afr. J. Sci.*, 72, 20-23, 1976.
- 445 Beschta, R. L.: Riparian shade and stream temperature: an alternative perspective, *Rangelands*, 19, 25-28, 1997.
- 446 Brierley, G. J.: Channel morphology and element assemblages: a constructivist approach to facies modelling,
447 *Advances in fluvial dynamics and stratigraphy*, 263-298, 1996.



- 448 Brierley, G. J., and Fryirs, K. A.: Geomorphology and river management: applications of the river styles framework,
449 John Wiley & Sons, 2013.
- 450 Butler, N., and Hunt, J.: Characterization of pool thermal stratification in the San Joaquin River system, AGU Fall
451 Meeting Abstracts, 2013, 1461,
- 452 Clark, E., Webb, B., and Ladle, M.: Microthermal gradients and ecological implications in Dorset rivers,
453 Hydrological Processes, 13, 423-438, 1999.
- 454 Cory, R., Harrold, K., Neilson, B., and Kling, G.: Controls on dissolved organic matter (DOM) degradation in a
455 headwater stream: the influence of photochemical and hydrological conditions in determining light-limitation or
456 substrate-limitation of photo-degradation, Biogeosciences, 12, 6669-6685, 2015.
- 457 Dallas, H., and Rivers-Moore, N.: Micro-scale heterogeneity in water temperature, Water SA, 37, 505-512, 2011.
- 458 Dallas, H. F., and Rivers-Moore, N. A.: Critical thermal maxima of aquatic macroinvertebrates: towards identifying
459 bioindicators of thermal alteration, Hydrobiologia, 679, 61-76, 2012.
- 460 Elliott, J.: Pools as refugia for brown trout during two summer droughts: trout responses to thermal and oxygen
461 stress, J. Fish Biol., 56, 938-948, 2000.
- 462 Fuller, M. R., and Peckarsky, B. L.: Ecosystem engineering by beavers affects mayfly life histories, Freshwat. Biol.,
463 56, 969-979, 10.1111/j.1365-2427.2010.02548.x, 2011.
- 464 Gard, R.: Effects of beaver on trout in Sagehen Creek, California, The Journal of Wildlife Management, 25, 221-
465 242, 1961.
- 466 Gibson, P. P., and Olden, J. D.: Ecology, management, and conservation implications of North American beaver
467 (*Castor canadensis*) in dryland streams, Aquat. Conserv.: Mar. Freshwat. Ecosyst., 24, 391-409, 2014.
- 468 Green, K. C., and Westbrook, C. J.: Changes in riparian area structure, channel hydraulics, and sediment yield
469 following loss of beaver dams, Journal of Ecosystems and Management, 10, 2009.
- 470 Gu, R., Montgomery, S., and Austin, T. A.: Quantifying the effects of stream discharge on summer river
471 temperature, Hydrological Sciences Journal, 43, 885-904, 1998.
- 472 Hannah, D. M., Malcolm, I. A., Soulsby, C., and Youngson, A. F.: Heat exchanges and temperatures within a
473 salmon spawning stream in the Cairngorms, Scotland: seasonal and sub-seasonal dynamics, River Res. Appl., 20,
474 635-652, 2004.
- 475 Harrison, A., and Elsworth, J.: Hydrobiological Studies on the Great Berg River, Western Cape Province: Part I
476 General Description, Chemical Studies and Main Features of the Flora and Fauna, Trans. R. Soc. S. Afr., 35, 125-
477 226, 1958.
- 478 Hickman, T. J., and Raleigh, R. F.: Habitat suitability index models: cutthroat trout, US Fish and Wildlife Service,
479 1982.
- 480 Jowett, I. G., and Duncan, M. J.: Effectiveness of 1D and 2D hydraulic models for instream habitat analysis in a
481 braided river, Ecol. Eng., 48, 92-100, 2012.
- 482 Keery, J., Binley, A., Crook, N., and Smith, J. W.: Temporal and spatial variability of groundwater-surface water
483 fluxes: development and application of an analytical method using temperature time series, Journal of Hydrology,
484 336, 1-16, 2007.
- 485 Kemp, P. S., Worthington, T. A., Langford, T. E. L., Tree, A. R. J., and Gaywood, M. J.: Qualitative and
486 quantitative effects of reintroduced beavers on stream fish, Fish Fish., 13, 158-181, 10.1111/j.1467-
487 2979.2011.00421.x, 2012.
- 488 Kirk, J. T.: Effects of suspensoids (turbidity) on penetration of solar radiation in aquatic ecosystems, in: Perspectives
489 in Southern Hemisphere Limnology, Springer, 195-208, 1985.
- 490 Levine, R., and Meyer, G. A.: Beaver dams and channel sediment dynamics on Odell Creek, Centennial Valley,
491 Montana, USA, Geomorphology, 205, 51-64, 10.1016/j.geomorph.2013.04.035, 2014.
- 492 Majerova, M., Neilson, B., Schmadel, N., Wheaton, J., and Snow, C.: Impacts of beaver dams on hydrologic and
493 temperature regimes in a mountain stream, Hydrology and Earth System Sciences, 19, 3541-3556, 2015.
- 494 Margolis, B. E., Castro, M. S., and Raesly, R. L.: The impact of beaver impoundments on the water chemistry of
495 two Appalachian streams, Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci., 58, 2271-2283, DOI 10.1139/cjfas-58-11-2271, 2001.
- 496 McRae, G., and Edwards, C. J.: Thermal Characteristics of Wisconsin Headwater Streams Occupied by Beaver:
497 Implications for Brook Trout Habitat, Trans. Am. Fish. Soc., 123, 641-656, 10.1577/1548-
498 8659(1994)123<0641:TCOWHS>2.3.CO;2, 1994.
- 499 Merck, M., and Neilson, B. T.: Modelling in-pool temperature variability in a beaded arctic stream, Hydrological
500 Processes, 26, 3921-3933, 2012.
- 501 Montgomery, D. R.: Geomorphology, river ecology, and ecosystem management, Geomorphic Processes and
502 Riverine Habitat, 247-253, 2001.



- 503 Mosley, M. P.: Variability of water temperatures in the braided Ashley and Rakaia rivers, *N. Z. J. Mar. Freshwat.*
 504 *Res.*, 17, 331-342, 1983.
- 505 Neilson, B. T., Stevens, D. K., Chapra, S., and Bandaragoda, C.: Data collection methodology for dynamic
 506 temperature model testing and corroboration, *Hydrological processes*, 23, 2902-2914, 2009.
- 507 Neilson, B. T., Chapra, S. C., Stevens, D. K., and Bandaragoda, C.: Two-zone transient storage modeling using
 508 temperature and solute data with multiobjective calibration: 1. Temperature, *Water Resources Research*, 46,
 509 W12520, [10.1029/2009WR008756](https://doi.org/10.1029/2009WR008756), 2010.
- 510 Newson, M., and Newson, C.: Geomorphology, ecology and river channel habitat: mesoscale approaches to basin-
 511 scale challenges, *Prog Phys Geogr*, 24, 195-217, 2000.
- 512 Nielsen, J. L., Lisle, T. E., and Ozaki, V.: Thermally stratified pools and their use by steelhead in northern California
 513 streams, *Trans. Am. Fish. Soc.*, 123, 613-626, 1994.
- 514 Nordlie, K. J., and Arthur, J. W.: Effect of elevated water temperature on insect emergence in outdoor experimental
 515 channels, *Environmental Pollution Series A, Ecological and Biological*, 25, 53-65, 1981.
- 516 Nyssen, J., Pontzele, J., and Billi, P.: Effect of beaver dams on the hydrology of small mountain streams: Example
 517 from the Cheval in the Ourthe Orientale basin, Ardennes, Belgium, *Journal of Hydrology*, 402, 92-102,
 518 [10.1016/j.jhydrol.2011.03.008](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2011.03.008), 2011.
- 519 Pollock, M. M., Beechie, T. J., and Jordan, C. E.: Geomorphic changes upstream of beaver dams in Bridge Creek, an
 520 incised stream channel in the interior Columbia River basin, eastern Oregon, *Earth Surface Processes and*
 521 *Landforms*, 32, 1174-1185, [10.1002/esp.1553](https://doi.org/10.1002/esp.1553), 2007.
- 522 Poole, G. C., and Berman, C. H.: An ecological perspective on in-stream temperature: natural heat dynamics and
 523 mechanisms of human-caused thermal degradation, *Environ. Manage.*, 27, 787-802, 2001.
- 524 Roegner, G. C., Diefenderfer, H. L., Borde, A. B., Thom, R. M., Dawley, E. M., Whiting, A. H., Zimmerman, S. A.,
 525 and Johnson, G. E.: Protocols for monitoring habitat restoration projects in the lower Columbia River and estuary,
 526 2008.
- 527 Rosenfeld, J. S., Campbell, K., Leung, E. S., Bernhardt, J., and Post, J.: Habitat effects on depth and velocity
 528 frequency distributions: Implications for modeling hydraulic variation and fish habitat suitability in streams,
 529 *Geomorphology*, 130, 127-135, 2011.
- 530 Rutherford, J. C., Macaskill, J. B., and Williams, B. L.: Natural water temperature variations in the lower Waikato
 531 River, New Zealand, *N. Z. J. Mar. Freshwat. Res.*, 27, 71-85, 1993.
- 532 Salyer, J. C.: Preliminary report on the beaver-trout investigation, *American Game*, 24(1), 6-15, 1935.
- 533 Schmadel, N. M., Neilson, B. T., and Stevens, D. K.: Approaches to estimate uncertainty in longitudinal channel
 534 water balances, *Journal of Hydrology*, 394, 357-369, DOI [10.1016/j.jhydrol.2010.09.011](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2010.09.011), 2010.
- 535 Schmadel, N. M., Neilson, B. T., and Heavilin, J. E.: Spatial considerations of stream hydraulics in reach scale
 536 temperature modeling, *Water Resources Research*, 51, 5566-5581, 2015.
- 537 Shetter, D. S., and Whalls, M. J.: Effect of Impoundment on Water Temperatures of Fuller Creek, Montmorency
 538 County, Michigan, *The Journal of Wildlife Management*, 19, 47-54, [10.2307/3797551](https://doi.org/10.2307/3797551), 1955.
- 539 Sigourney, D. B., Letcher, B. H., and Cunjak, R. A.: Influence of beaver activity on summer growth and condition
 540 of age-2 Atlantic salmon parr, *Trans. Am. Fish. Soc.*, 135, 1068-1075, 2006.
- 541 Snow, C.: Impact of Beaver Ponds on Stream Temperature and on Solar Radiation Penetration in Water, Utah State
 542 University, 138 pp., 2014.
- 543 Stout, T., Majerova, M., and Neilson, B.: Impacts of beaver dams on channel hydraulics and substrate characteristics
 544 in a mountain stream, *Ecohydrology*, 2016.
- 545 Sullivan, K., and Adams, T. N.: The physics of stream heating: An analysis of temperature patterns in stream
 546 environments based on physical principles and field data, 1991.
- 547 Talabere, A. G.: Influence of water temperature and beaver ponds on Lahontan cutthroat trout in a high-desert
 548 stream, southeastern Oregon, 2002.
- 549 Tate, K. W., Lancaster, D. L., and Lile, D. F.: Assessment of thermal stratification within stream pools as a
 550 mechanism to provide refugia for native trout in hot, arid rangelands, *Environ. Monit. Assess.*, 124, 289-300, 2007.
- 551 Wang, J., and Seyed-Yagoobi, J.: Effects of water turbidity and salt concentration levels on penetration of solar
 552 radiation under water, *Solar Energy*, 52, 429-438, 1994.
- 553 Weber, N., Bouwes, N., Pollock, M. M., Volk, C., Wheaton, J. M., Wathen, G., Wirtz, J., and Jordan, C. E.:
 554 Alteration of stream temperature by natural and artificial beaver dams, *PLoS ONE*, 12, e0176313, 2017.
- 555 Westbrook, C. J., Cooper, D. J., and Baker, B. W.: Beaver dams and overbank floods influence groundwater-surface
 556 water interactions of a Rocky Mountain riparian area, *Water Resources Research*, 42, W06404,
 557 [10.1029/2005WR004560](https://doi.org/10.1029/2005WR004560), 2006.



- 558 Westhoff, M., Savenije, H., Luxemburg, W., Stelling, G., Van de Giesen, N., Selker, J., Pfister, L., and Uhlenbrook,
559 S.: A distributed stream temperature model using high resolution temperature observations, 2007.
560 Wheaton, J. M., Pasternack, G. B., and Merz, J. E.: Spawning habitat rehabilitation-I. Conceptual approach and
561 methods, *International Journal of River Basin Management*, 2, 3-20, 2004.
562 Wheaton, J. M., Brasington, J., Darby, S. E., and Sear, D. A.: Accounting for uncertainty in DEMs from repeat
563 topographic surveys: improved sediment budgets, *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*, 35, 136-156, 2010.
564 Wyrick, J., and Pasternack, G.: Geospatial organization of fluvial landforms in a gravel-cobble river: Beyond the
565 riffle-pool couplet, *Geomorphology*, 213, 48-65, 2014.
- 566
567



568 Figure 1 Curtis Creek study reach and beaver dam complexes (black boxes, #1-#3) showing beaver dams with
569 associated beaver ponds, reach and fine beaver dam complex #1 temperature sensors, and pressure transducers at the
570 upstream and downstream end (red squares). The old channel is represented by blue dashed line. Water depth
571 displayed was created from bathymetric data and observed water surface elevation data. It captures different depths
572 within the main channel but also illustrates simplified water surface area in the study reach. Flow is from right to left
573 (A). Spatial scale scheme is shown in (B).

574

575 Figure 2 Tier 3 classification (Wheaton et al., 2015) of Curtis Creek study reach showing margins, structural
576 elements, and specific geomorphic units in and out-of-channel. Flow is from right to left.

577

578 Figure 3 Normalized depth and velocity distributions for the study reach (A), beaver dam complexes in the reach (B,
579 black boxes in Figure 1), and beaver dam complex #1 with its four geomorphic units (C, Fig. 1) constructed from 2D
580 model predictions.

581

582 Figure 4 Tier 3 classification (Wheaton et al., 2015) of the study reach showing beaver dam complex #1 in detail
583 (B). Temperature sensors were placed throughout the complex to investigate how temperature defers among the
584 individual geomorphic units, and above and below the beaver pond.

585

586 Figure 5 Temperature ranges at the study reach and beaver dam complex scales. A) Temperature ranges throughout
587 the main channel of study reach constructed from 25 temperature sensors placed longitudinally (Fig. 1).
588 Temperature at the upstream and downstream end of the reach illustrates a small overall warming effect at the
589 downstream end. Positive values in temperature differences (B, grey line) represent warming and negative values
590 represent cooling effect at the downstream end of the reach. C) Temperature range within the beaver dam complex
591 #1 from 35 sensors placed in different geomorphic units throughout the complex (Fig. 1, Fig. 3). Temperatures
592 above and below the beaver pond capture pond influences on downstream temperatures with temperature difference
593 (grey line) showing either warming (positive values) or cooling (negative values) (D).

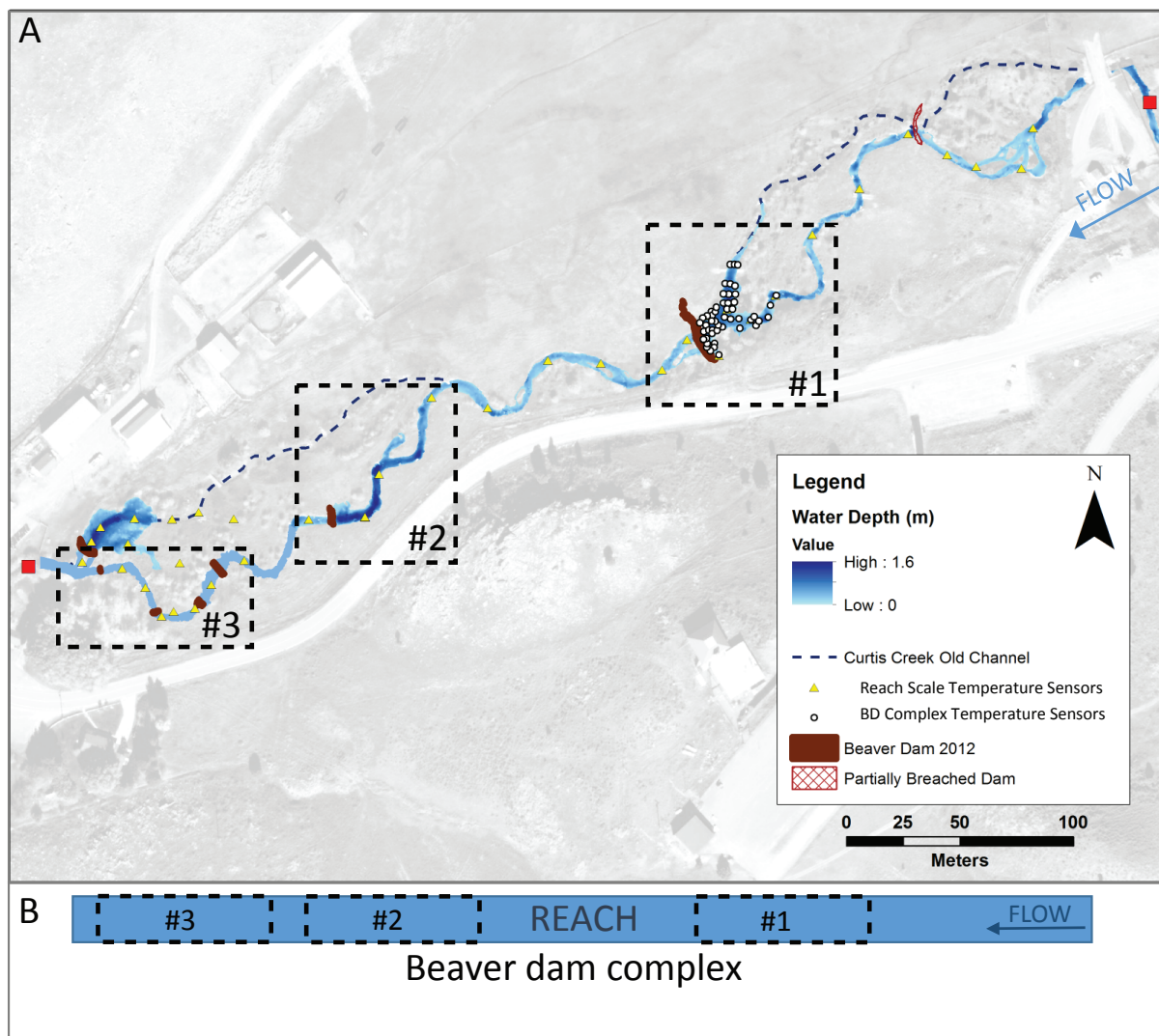
594

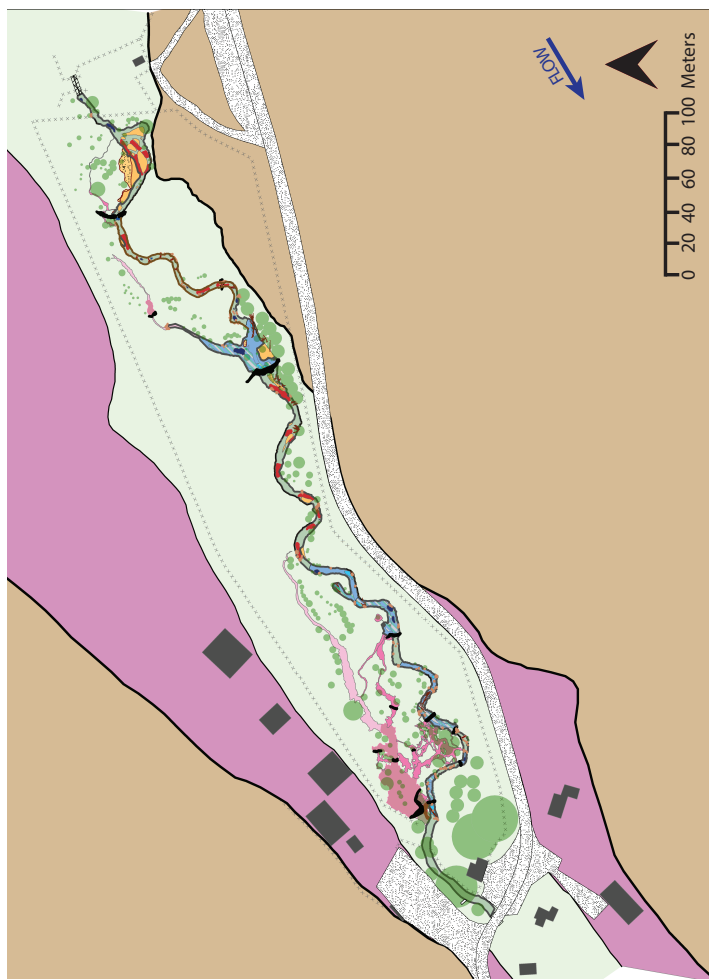
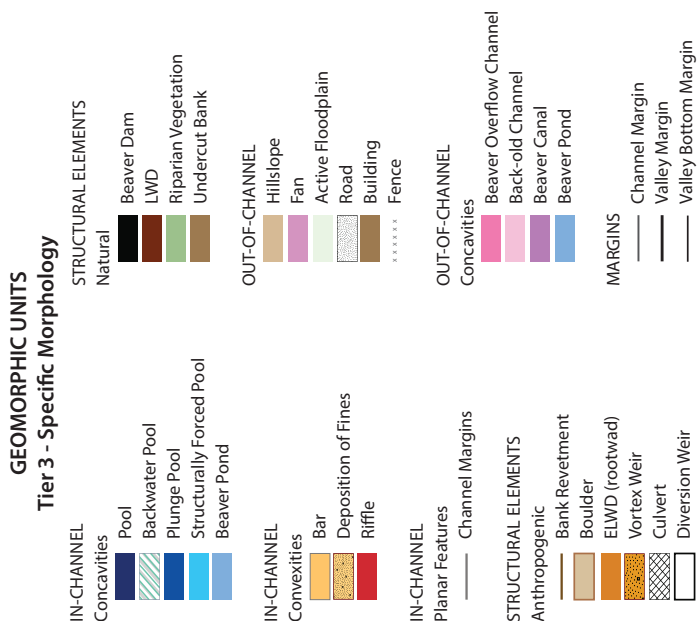
595 Figure 6 Temperature difference (maxima minus minima) for individual geomorphic units within beaver dam
596 complex #1 for a period of twenty days during base flow conditions in September. Lines represent temperature
597 variation within pools (solid light blue), backwater (dashed dark blue), and marginal areas (dotted yellow). The
598 dashed red line illustrates influence of the beaver pond by showing differences between temperature below and
599 above the pond where positive values mean downstream warming and negative values mean downstream cooling
600 effect.

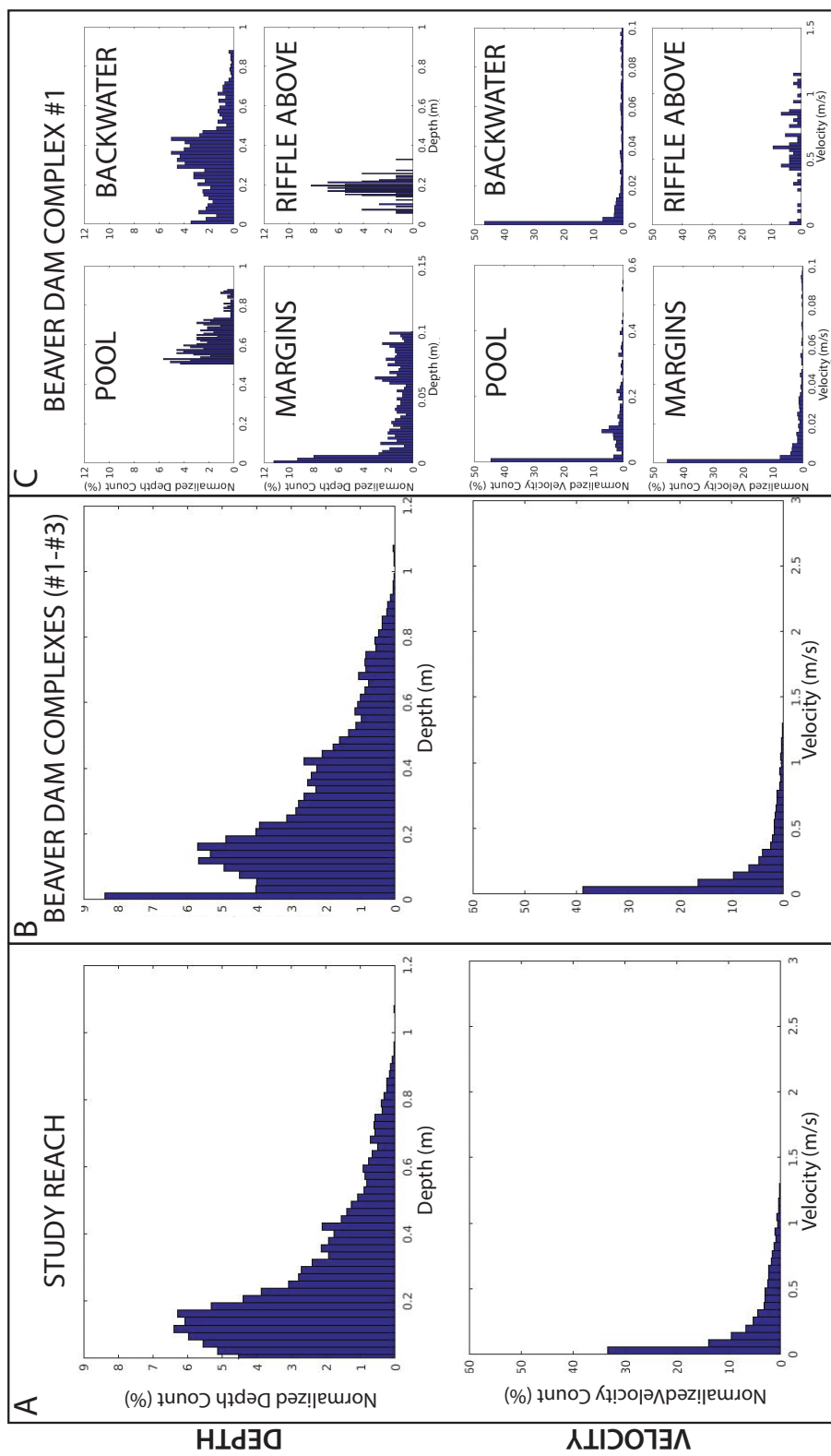


601 Figure 7 Model hydraulic predictions of depth and velocity as ranges of values for individual geomorphic units
602 within the beaver dam complex (A,B). Temperature ranges for same geomorphic units in the beaver dam complex
603 showing temperature variability for base flow conditions where n = the number of temperature sensors within a
604 geomorphic unit classification (C).

605

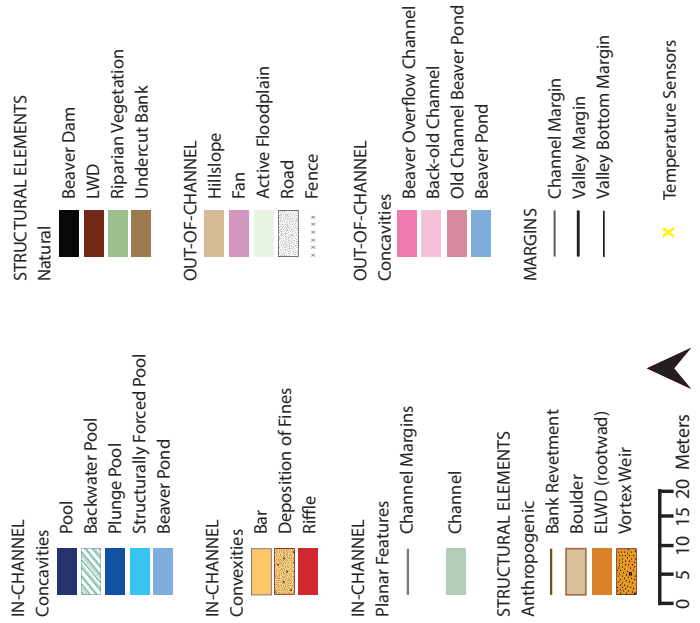






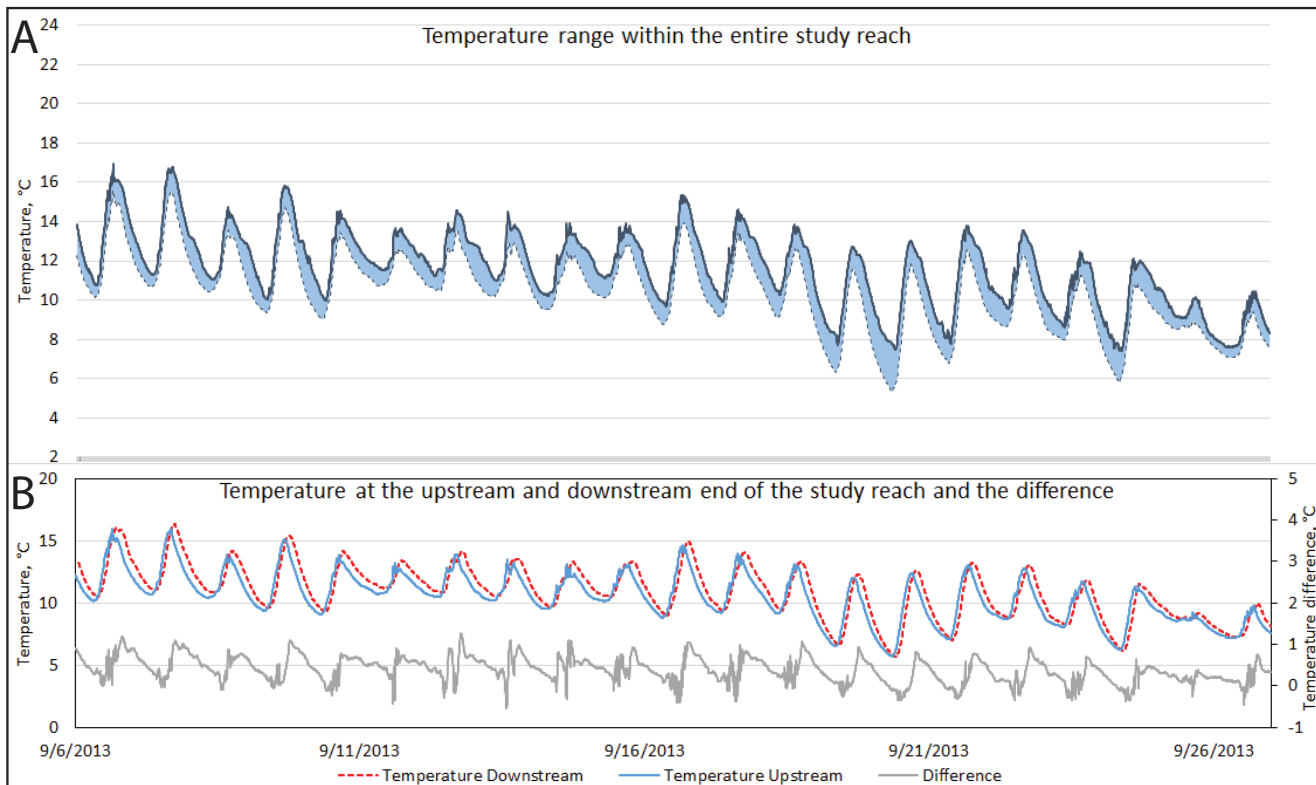


GEOMORPHIC UNITS
Tier 3 - Specific Morphology





Study Reach



Beaver Dam Complex #1

