

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

1 Title

2 Macroinvertebrate, algal, and diatom assemblages respond differently to both drying and wetting  
3 transitions in non-perennial streams

4

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## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

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27 Keywords

28 hydrologic metric, IRES, non-perennial stream, resilience, resistance

29

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

30 Abstract

31

32 1. Biological assemblages in streams are influenced by hydrological dynamics, particularly in  
33 non-perennial systems. Although there has been increasing attention on how drying  
34 impacts stream organisms, few studies have investigated how specific characteristics of  
35 drying and subsequent wetting transitions influence biotic responses via resistance and  
36 resilience traits.

37 2. Here, we characterized how hydrologic metrics, including those quantifying drying and  
38 wetting transitions as well as wet and dry phases, alter diversity and composition of three  
39 aquatic assemblages in non-perennial streams in southern California: benthic  
40 macroinvertebrates, soft-bodied (non-diatom) algae, and diatoms.

41 3. We found that flow duration prior to sampling was correlated with variation in  
42 macroinvertebrate and soft-bodied algal assemblage composition. The composition and  
43 richness of diatom assemblages, however, were predominantly influenced by the drying  
44 start date prior to sampling. Contrary to other studies, the duration of the dry phase  
45 preceding sampling did not influence the composition or richness of any assemblage.  
46 Although our study was conducted within a region in which each assemblage experienced  
47 comparable environmental conditions, we found no single hydrologic metric that  
48 influenced all assemblages in the same way.

49 4. The hot-summer mediterranean climate of southern California likely acts as a strong  
50 environmental filter, with taxa in this region relying on resistance and resilience adaptations  
51 to survive and recolonize non-perennial streams following wetting. The different responses  
52 of algal and diatom assemblages to hydrologic metrics suggests greater resilience to drying  
53 and wetting events, particularly for primary producers.

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

- 54        5. As drying and wetting patterns continue to change, understanding biodiversity responses to  
55        hydrologic metrics could inform management actions that enhance the ecological  
56        resilience of communities in non-perennial streams. In particular, the creation and  
57        enhancement of flow regimes with natural timing and duration of wet and dry phases that  
58        sustain refuges could support community persistence in a changing environment.  
59

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

### 60 1. Introduction

61

62 Non-perennial streams, which sometimes cease to flow and typically lose most or all surface  
63 water (Busch *et al.*, 2020), experience hydrological transitions between dry and wet phases. The  
64 complex and variable hydrology of non-perennial rivers, also commonly termed intermittent rivers  
65 and ephemeral streams, or IRES, is often simplified into two hydrological phases: a wet phase, in  
66 which surface water is connected and flowing, and a dry phase, in which any surface water is  
67 absent (Busch *et al.*, 2020). The persistence of aquatic biota in non-perennial streams is often  
68 linked to the duration of dry phases (Datry, Larned & Tockner, 2014; Leigh & Datry, 2017; Soria *et al.*,  
69 *et al.*, 2017). However, responses to drying and wetting may vary among assemblages due to the  
70 timing, rate of change, and other hydrological characteristics of transitions between wet and dry  
71 phases. Assemblage responses may differ due to differences in traits conferring resistance (the  
72 ability to survive dry phases) and resilience (the ability to recover after water returns; Gasith &  
73 Resh, 1999; Fritz & Dodds, 2004; Bogan *et al.*, 2017). This may be especially true in arid and  
74 mediterranean-climate regions, where transitions can be rapid and differences in water availability  
75 between wet and dry phases can be extreme (Bogan & Lytle, 2007). Examining responses of diverse  
76 assemblages to drying and wetting transitions is necessary to understand biological persistence in  
77 non-perennial streams (Jaeger, Olden & Pelland, 2014; Pumo *et al.*, 2016).

78

79 Benthic macroinvertebrates, soft-bodied algae, and diatoms have morphological, physiological,  
80 behavioral, and life history traits that provide resistance to dry phases and resilience following  
81 wetting. Resistant taxa may take refuge in isolated pools that form as rivers dry (Bogan & Lytle,  
82 2007; Robson *et al.*, 2008; Stubbington *et al.*, 2017). As these pools dry, taxa may also find refuge  
83 under leaf packs or in moist sediment, including benthic macroinvertebrates and diatoms that

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

84 migrate vertically into the hyporheic zone (Robson *et al.*, 2008; Wyatt *et al.*, 2014; Stubbington *et*  
85 *al.*, 2017). In addition to using refuges, many algae and diatoms have desiccation-tolerant,  
86 dormant life stages (cells or spores) that promote survival during a dry phase (Robson, 2000;  
87 Stanley, Fisher & Jones, Jr., 2004; Calapez *et al.*, 2014). Similarly, some benthic macroinvertebrates  
88 enter desiccation-tolerant states that persist within stream sediments (Stubbington & Datry, 2013).  
89 Subsequent wetting after dry phases often breaks the dormancy of resistant life stages (Timoner *et*  
90 *al.*, 2014; Sabater *et al.*, 2017; Stubbington *et al.*, 2017). For example, in non-perennial streams in  
91 the arid southwestern USA, larval stoneflies (*Mesocapnia arizonensis*) can survive for several years  
92 underground and then resurface to reproduce rapidly during brief periods of stream flow (Bogan,  
93 2017). Adaptations to promote drying resistance can be common in arid and mediterranean-  
94 climate regions, where extreme drying disturbances occur regularly (Lytle & Poff, 2004), while taxa  
95 may also be well adapted to recolonize when flow resumes.

96

97 Benthic macroinvertebrates, algae, and diatoms in non-perennial streams also have resilience  
98 traits that enable recovery from refuges when surface water returns. Dispersal via flight and  
99 crawling overland may be the dominant mode of recolonization for macroinvertebrates in arid and  
100 semi-arid regions, where dispersal primarily stems from local perennial refuges (Bogan & Boersma,  
101 2012; Boersma & Lytle, 2014; Fournier *et al.*, 2022). In addition, where perennial reaches occur  
102 upstream of non-perennial ones, recovery via both active and passive drift from these refuges can  
103 occur during wetting transitions (Romaní & Sabater, 1997; Mackie *et al.* 2013; Doretto *et al.*, 2018).  
104 Benthic macroinvertebrates also recover by active swimming or crawling from downstream  
105 reaches once stream connectivity is restored (McArthur & Barnes, 1985).

106

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

107 Taxon-specific differences in traits conferring resistance and resilience combine to determine how  
108 assemblages respond to hydrological dynamics. Taxonomic richness of aquatic assemblages  
109 typically decreases with increasing dry-phase duration (Datry *et al.*, 2014; Sabater *et al.*, 2016;  
110 Robson & Matthews, 2004). However, less is known about biological responses to other aspects of  
111 the hydrological cycle, including the characteristics of drying and wetting transitions, such as the  
112 rate of change. For example, slower drying onset gives organisms more time to move into refuges  
113 (Vander Vorste, Malard & Datry, 2016; Archdeacon & Reale, 2020) or make metabolic adjustments  
114 that promote desiccation tolerance (Strachan, Chester & Robson, 2015). In contrast, rapid bursts  
115 of precipitation can lead to short periods of stream wetting (<1–3 days), which could trigger the  
116 development of desiccation-sensitive organisms from dormant, desiccation-tolerant life stages.  
117 Despite evidence of resilience to these “false starts” (Strachan, Chester & Robson, 2016;  
118 Stubbington *et al.* 2016), in arid, flashy streams, such events may expose sensitive individuals to  
119 desiccation once the short-term flow ends. The rate and magnitude of wetting may also alter  
120 biological diversity and composition. Wetting can mobilize substrate and displace organisms  
121 (Olsen & Townsend, 2005), particularly in regions with high interseasonal variability in precipitation  
122 where non-perennial streams wet via flash flood events (Ward & Stanford, 1995; Mosisch, 2001).  
123 Despite the importance of hydrological dynamics on biodiversity, to our knowledge, no studies  
124 have examined how quantitative measures of the timing, duration, and rate of drying and wetting  
125 shape the composition of biological assemblages in non-perennial streams.

126

127 Mediterranean climate-regions with hot, dry summers are ideal locations to study relationships  
128 between hydrological transitions and aquatic assemblages because they experience extreme  
129 seasonal and interannual fluctuations in hydrology, and their aquatic species have evolved traits to  
130 persist despite high hydrological variability. The timing of annual wet and dry seasons is often

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

131 predictable in such regions, allowing species to evolve synchronized life history strategies to  
132 survive stream drying (Lytle & Poff, 2004); however, arid streams are also subject to increasingly  
133 stochastic multiyear droughts and extreme precipitation events (Zamora-Reyes, Black & Trouet,  
134 2022; Ban, Li & Lettenmaier, 2023). Here, we characterized how novel hydrologic metrics  
135 describing wet and dry phases and their transitions influenced three aquatic assemblages:  
136 macroinvertebrates, soft-bodied algae, and diatoms in southern California, USA (Figure 1, Table 1).  
137 We made four predictions regarding how the three assemblages respond to key hydrologic metrics.  
138 We predicted that 1) the duration of the wet phase prior to sampling (Wet Duration) would  
139 influence assemblage composition and taxonomic richness, with a positive relationship between  
140 duration and richness reflecting increasing time for recolonization and recovery. We predicted that  
141 2) faster drying rates (Recession Slope) would decrease richness as faster rates could reduce the  
142 time organisms have to move to refuges or enter desiccation-tolerant states. We also predicted  
143 that 3) richness would decrease with more false starts within the dry duration (False Starts per  
144 Duration), due to the loss of desiccation-sensitive organisms. Finally, we predicted that 4) the  
145 length of the dry phase (Dry Duration) would not influence these assemblages, due to the well  
146 adapted resistance and resilience strategies of taxa in arid and semi-arid non-perennial streams.

147

## 148 2. Methods

149

### 150 2.1 Study area

151

152 This study was conducted in southern California, USA, between 34–32° north and 116.25–117.75°  
153 west in 2015–2017. Southern California has a mediterranean climate with cool, wet winters and  
154 hot, dry summers, with almost all precipitation (dominated by rainfall) occurring between October

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

155 and May (Luo *et al.*, 2017; hot and warm-summer mediterranean Köppen climate classes; Figure 2;  
156 Supporting Information (S.I.) 1). Most streams across this region are non-perennial and typically dry  
157 completely in the summer (Mazor *et al.*, 2014). The study sampling locations are primarily  
158 classified as unimpacted reference streams using California's minimum criteria for identifying  
159 reference conditions (Ode *et al.* 2016) and have natural land cover (chaparral, grassland, and oak  
160 or pine forest; Figure 2; Mazor *et al.*, 2014).

161  
162 From 2012–2015, California experienced one of the most severe droughts in the state's recorded  
163 history (Williams *et al.*, 2015; He, Russo & Anderson, 2017), followed by a winter (2015–2016) with  
164 below-average precipitation and then a winter (2016–2017) which was the second wettest winter  
165 on record (Singh *et al.*, 2018). Our study spans 2015–2017, encompassing a wide range of  
166 hydrological patterns. It is likely that assemblages were influenced by the legacy effects of this  
167 severe drought, with such events reducing the abundance and richness of assemblages, including  
168 macroinvertebrates (Bêche *et al.*, 2009).

### 169 170 *2.2 Data collection*

171  
172 California agencies (including the California Environmental Protection Agency: San Diego Regional  
173 Water Quality Control Board and the California Department of Fish and Wildlife) collected  
174 hydrological and biological data following standardized procedures, as part of long-term reference  
175 stream monitoring programs (Ode, 2007; Ode *et al.*, 2016). One Onset HOB0® U20 pressure  
176 transducer logger (Cape Cod, MA, USA) was installed at each site during the autumn dry season  
177 (September to November) to record average reach-scale flow conditions. Pressure transducer  
178 loggers provide a good proxy for discharge in small, dryland intermittent streams (Caldwell *et al.*,

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

179 2018; Lasater *et al.*, 2022). Loggers were deployed at the transition point between riffles and pools  
180 at the lowest possible point within the cross-section of the stream channel. Loggers recorded  
181 water level (depth) and temperature at 6-hour intervals. Sites were visited annually to validate  
182 readings and retrieve data. In addition, conductivity loggers were deployed to assess the accuracy  
183 of loggers in detecting dry days.

184

185 Benthic macroinvertebrates, soft-bodied algae, and diatoms are ubiquitous in freshwater and  
186 commonly used in stream biomonitoring (e.g., Rosenberg & Resh, 1993; Stancheva & Sheath,  
187 2016). Each assemblage was sampled between March and May, typically at least 4–6 weeks after  
188 the most recent wetting event (Ode, 2007; Ode *et al.*, 2016). During each sampling event,  
189 environmental variables were measured: water depth, wetted width, percent canopy cover,  
190 temperature, conductivity, pH, alkalinity (as CaCO<sub>3</sub>), and the proportion of the reach that was riffle,  
191 pool, or run (as described in Ode, 2007; Ode, Fetscher & Busse, 2016). To collect  
192 macroinvertebrates, 150-m stream reaches were divided into 11 lateral transects. At each transect,  
193 a 500- $\mu\text{m}$  D-frame kick net was used to sample 0.09 m<sup>2</sup> of stream bed by kicking and scrubbing  
194 substrate to dislodge benthic macroinvertebrates from representative habitat types (riffles, pools,  
195 runs). Macroinvertebrates were sampled from alternating points at 25%, 50%, and 75% (right,  
196 center, left) of the channel width along the longitudinal transect. The resulting 11 samples (0.99 m<sup>2</sup>  
197 total) were combined into a single composite sample, which was then preserved in ethanol.

198 Benthic macroinvertebrates were enumerated and identified to the highest taxonomic resolution  
199 feasible (species for most insects, sub-family for Chironomidae, genera for mites and snails, and  
200 class for oligochaetes, flatworms, and nematodes; Richards & Rogers, 2011) and each taxon  
201 enumerated.

202

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

203 Benthic soft-bodied algae (including macroalgae and microalgae) and diatoms were sampled along  
204 the same 11 transects from available substrates (e.g., cobble, silt/sand, gravel, bedrock, wood;  
205 Ode, 2007; Ode, Fetscher & Busse, 2016). Soft-bodied algae and diatoms were removed from  
206 substrates by manual brushing or scraping and rinsing. Diatom samples and soft-bodied algae  
207 samples were fixed using formalin and glutaraldehyde, respectively. Soft-bodied algal samples  
208 were processed following Stancheva, Busse & Sheath (2015). At least 600 diatom valves from each  
209 sample were identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible (mostly to genus and morphological  
210 species) and counted on permanent slides prepared from cleaned material. We calculated relative  
211 abundances for both soft-bodied algae and diatoms. In addition to quantitative soft-bodied algae  
212 samples, qualitative samples were collected by hand-picking or scraping organisms observed  
213 within the 150-m reach. These samples were collected to record taxa growing on other surfaces,  
214 including non-mineral substrates such as vegetation, which were not included in quantitative  
215 sampling. These algae were identified and included in calculations of taxonomic richness, but not  
216 relative abundance. Due to fundamental differences in morphology, development, and functional  
217 roles, we analyzed soft-bodied algae separately from diatoms.

218

219 We selected sampling events at which macroinvertebrate, soft-bodied algae, and diatoms were  
220 collected during a period that included a preceding wet phase, a dry phase, and a wet phase that  
221 included the sampling event. In total, we analyzed 27 sampling events (including all three  
222 assemblages) across 20 sites (Figure 2). For each biological sample, we resolved the final taxon list  
223 for each assemblage to avoid overestimating richness (e.g., in the family Baetidae, researchers  
224 identified most organisms to genus, thus we excluded those identified to Family; Cuffney, Bilger &  
225 Haigler, 2007).

226

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

### 227 2.3 Hydrologic metrics and other environmental predictors

228 We used mean daily water level data to estimate hydrologic metrics (Figure 1). To define the start  
229 date, we identified the beginning of the wet event preceding a drying event. Each hydrograph thus  
230 contained two wet phases and a dry phase between them (S.I.2). We identified hydrological events  
231 using the “dygraphs” R package then visually checked each hydrograph (Vanderkam *et al.*, 2018;  
232 S.I.2). We calculated the hydrologic metrics as described in Table 1. We defined a stream as “dry”  
233 when the average daily water level equaled zero for  $\geq 10$  consecutive days. This definition is  
234 important in this region because short, often sudden-onset heavy rainfall events may lead to  
235 stream wetting events that persist for hours to a few days, i.e. “false starts”. Most false starts in  
236 this study lasted 1–3 days (S.I.2).

237 We used Pearson correlations to assess multicollinearity among predictor variables using the  
238 “performance” R package (Lüdecke *et al.*, 2022). We removed multicollinear variables with an  
239 absolute correlation coefficient  $> 0.70$ , retaining variables that were most relevant to our  
240 predictions, i.e., 10 hydrologic predictors (Table 1, S.I.3; Hammond *et al.*, 2021; Price *et al.*, 2021;  
241 Zipper *et al.*, 2021). Final models included all environmental variables except for water depth,  
242 which was correlated with the proportion of pool habitat ( $r = 0.79$ ).

### 243 2.4 Data analysis

244

245 To test our predictions, we related macroinvertebrates, soft-bodied algae, and diatom  
246 assemblages separately to novel metrics describing drying and wetting transitions as well as  
247 standard metrics describing dry and wet phases. We calculated relative abundances and two  
248 alpha diversity metrics, taxonomic richness and Hill-Shannon diversity, for each assemblage in the

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

249 R packages “vegan” (Oksanen *et al.*, 2011) and “hillR” (Li, 2021). We chose Hill-Shannon as a  
250 measure of alpha diversity because Hill numbers vary proportionally with taxon gains and losses,  
251 and Hill-Shannon diversity is more sensitive to rare taxa than other Hill numbers (Roswell, Dushoff  
252 & Winfree, 2021; Aspin & House, 2022).

253

254 Six of the 20 sites were sampled 2-3 times over the 3 years of our study, resulting in 14 out of 27  
255 samples with a temporal component. Although temporal replicates are often removed from  
256 analyses to avoid pseudoreplication, the extent of stream fragmentation and extreme  
257 environmental filtering in our study region means that aquatic communities are often more  
258 correlated spatially across streams than temporally within the same stream (Bogan, Boersma &  
259 Lytle, 2013). To test sample independence and to quantify the potential effect of year on the  
260 assemblage data, we ran linear mixed effect models in the “lme4” package (Bates *et al.*, 2022) on  
261 the 14 repeated samples. We included the alpha diversity metrics as response variables, all the  
262 hydrologic and other environmental variables as predictors, year as a fixed effect, and site as a  
263 random effect. Year did not significantly influence any assemblage, except for Hill-Shannon  
264 diversity of algae (S.I.4). We thus included all 27 samples in further analyses and did not include  
265 year in models. Thus, while our study includes both spatial and temporal components, most of the  
266 variation explained here is spatial. We also ran linear models for each hydrologic metric and  
267 environmental variable with year as the predictor to investigate potential effects of the 2012–2015  
268 drought (S.I.5).

269

270 *2.4.1 Assemblage composition and association with hydrologic metrics*

271

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

272 To identify hydrologic metrics associated with the composition of each assemblage, we created a  
273 non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination with a Bray-Curtis distance matrix of log-  
274 transformed relative abundance in vegan (Oksanen *et al.*, 2011). Due to the low stress ( $< 0.20$ ) and  
275 stable two-dimensional solutions for each NMDS, we retained all taxa in our analysis (McCune,  
276 Grace & Urban, 2002). We used the vegan 'envfit' function to fit linear correlations of hydrologic  
277 metrics and environmental variables ( $p < 0.015$ ) to the NMDS ordinations with 999 permutations  
278 (Oksanen, 2013). To facilitate comparison across assemblages, we rotated all ordinations to align  
279 NMDS axis 1 with the hydrologic metric Wet Duration, because Wet Duration had the largest  $R^2$  for  
280 two of the three ordinations. We tested the effects of the sampling year with multi-response  
281 permutation procedures (MRPP) in vegan.

282

### 283 *2.4.2 Diversity responses to hydrologic metrics*

284

285 To identify which hydrologic metrics predict richness and Hill-Shannon diversity, we ran general  
286 linear models. For each assemblage and diversity metric, we ran a global model that included all  
287 10 hydrologic metrics and year as predictors and the diversity metric as the response variable. We  
288 also ran univariate models for each individual hydrologic metric and compared these with a null  
289 model without any hydrologic metrics (predictor = 1), which enabled us to directly test the impacts  
290 of Wet Duration, Recession Slope, False Starts per Duration, and Dry Duration on assemblage  
291 richness, thus testing our four predictions. Due to the relatively small number of sites relative to  
292 predictors, we did not include the environmental variables or include site as a random effect. Site  
293 had a negligible effect on our results when included as a random effect, suggesting some level of  
294 sample independence (S.I.4). We compared models using Akaike information criteria values  
295 corrected for small sample sizes (AICc; Warren & Seifert, 2011; Galante *et al.*, 2018), calculated in

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

296 the “MuMIn” package (Bartoń, 2022). To determine if models differed from the baseline null  
297 models, we set an absolute AICc difference of 3 (Lu *et al.*, 2016). Models of algal richness included  
298 qualitative and quantitative samples, while models of algal Hill-Shannon only included quantitative  
299 samples. We used R for all analyses (R Core Team, 2020).

300

### 301 3. Results

302

#### 303 *3.1 Hydrologic metrics and environmental variables*

304

305 As expected for streams in arid regions, hydrologic metrics and some environmental variables were  
306 highly variable across the 27 hydrological events. Across the 10 hydrologic metrics, only Peak  
307 Depth (adjusted  $R^2 = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and Wet Duration (adjusted  $R^2 = 0.33$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) varied across  
308 years (S.I.5). Two environmental variables differed among years; the proportion of riffles (adjusted  
309  $R^2 = 0.32$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and wetted width (adjusted  $R^2 = 0.20$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; S.I.5), each was larger in non-  
310 drought years.

311

#### 312 *3.2 Biological diversity summary*

313

314 Across the 27 samples, 152 macroinvertebrate, 207 soft-bodied algae, and 225 diatom taxa were  
315 identified, with mean richness of 13, 5, and 16 taxa per sample, respectively (Table 2). An  
316 additional 11 soft-bodied algae taxa were collected with qualitative sampling. Eleven of the most  
317 common macroinvertebrate taxa, present in  $\geq 70\%$  of samples, were either Diptera or  
318 Ephemeroptera, including nine from the Chironomidae. The four most common algae were  
319 cyanobacteria from four families (Pseudanabaenaceae, Chroococcaceae, Merismopediaceae, and

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

320 Aphanothecaceae). Nine diatom taxa were present in  $\geq 70\%$  of samples, including three taxa from  
321 the Achnanthesiaceae and two from Bacillariaceae. For more information on common and rare  
322 taxa, see S.I.6.

323

### 324 *3.3 Assemblage composition and association with hydrologic metrics*

325

326 Benthic macroinvertebrate assemblages varied among years (Figure 3a; MRPP:  $A = 0.040$ ,  $p =$   
327  $0.002$ ; S.I.7). Samples from 2017 clustered in the upper right of the ordination while samples from  
328 2015 and 2016 overlapped and were widely distributed. The assemblage composition of soft-  
329 bodied algae and diatoms from all years overlapped (soft-bodied algae: Figure 3b, MRPP:  $A =$   
330  $0.0006$ ,  $p = 0.94$ ; diatoms: Figure 3c, MRPP:  $A = 0.019$ ,  $p = 0.64$ ). Soft-bodied algal samples were  
331 clustered more within ordination space whereas diatom samples were particularly dispersed.

332

333 All assemblages responded more strongly to hydrologic metrics than to environmental variables  
334 (Figure 3, Table 3). Macroinvertebrates and soft-bodied algae had the strongest correlation with  
335 Wet Duration, supporting our first prediction ( $R^2 = 0.59$ ;  $R^2 = 0.49$ , respectively). Diatoms had the  
336 strongest correlation with Dry Date ( $R^2 = 0.40$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ). Contrary to predictions two and three,  
337 Recession Slope and False Starts per Duration were not associated with the composition of any  
338 assemblage. As per our fourth prediction, no assemblage was correlated to Dry Duration. Algal  
339 assemblages were also correlated with the Peak-to-Sample slope ( $R^2 = 0.27$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ). Only  
340 benthic macroinvertebrates were correlated with any environmental variables, namely canopy  
341 cover ( $R^2 = 0.407$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and the proportion of riffle habitat ( $R^2 = 0.357$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ).

342

### 343 *3.4 Diversity responses to hydrologic metrics*

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

344

345 Contrary to our first prediction, Wet Duration did not influence diversity metrics. All hydrologic  
346 metrics explained negligible variance in metrics representing both macroinvertebrate and algal  
347 assemblages: False Starts per Duration explained the most variance in macroinvertebrate  
348 assemblages ( $R^2 = 0.06$ ), partially supporting our third prediction, while Peak Depth explained the  
349 most variance for algal assemblages ( $R^2 = 0.04$ ). Models including Recession Slope consistently  
350 performed better than null models (AICc difference  $> 3$ ), although they explained virtually no  
351 variance in any assemblage ( $R^2 < 0.01$ ). Models including only Recession Slope performed the best  
352 for macroinvertebrates (AICc = 192.81) and algae (AICc = 218.64), despite little variance explained,  
353 partially supporting our second prediction. Richness was not predicted by Dry Duration, supporting  
354 our final prediction. Dry Date best predicted diatom assemblage richness ( $R^2 = 0.26$ ) and  
355 performed better than the null model (AICc = 223.8), although the global model explained the most  
356 variance for diatom assemblages ( $R^2 = 0.27$ ; Table 4). Results for Hill-Shannon diversity were  
357 largely redundant and are presented in S.1.7.

358

## 359 4. Discussion

360

361 We investigated biological responses of macroinvertebrate, soft-bodied algae, and diatom  
362 assemblages to novel drying and wetting transitions as well as dry and wet phase characteristics in  
363 non-perennial streams in mediterranean southern California. We found contrasting responses of  
364 three assemblages to hydrologic metrics, suggesting that the diverse morphological, physiological,  
365 behavioral, and life history adaptations to extreme hydrological variability likely determine how  
366 assemblages respond to the transitions between wet and dry phases. We found partial support for  
367 our first prediction: Wet Duration influenced macroinvertebrate and algal assemblage

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

368 compositions while an unpredicted hydrologic metric, Dry Date, had the largest impact on diatom  
369 composition and richness. We also found partial support for our second prediction: Recession  
370 Slope appeared to influence macroinvertebrate and algal richness, despite explaining little  
371 variance. The number of Fase Starts per Duration did not influence assemblage composition or  
372 diversity, contrary to our third hypothesis. Finally, our fourth prediction, that Dry Duration would  
373 not influence assemblage diversity or composition was supported across the three assemblages.  
374 Collectively, these results demonstrate how the extreme aridity of southern California likely acts as  
375 a strong regional filter that limits the regional species pool to taxa with specialized resistance and  
376 resilience traits.

377

### 378 *4.1 Prediction 1: Influence of Wet Duration*

379

380 Our first prediction, that the duration of the wet phase prior to sampling would explain spatial  
381 variation in assemblage composition and richness was partially supported. Wet Duration was  
382 significantly associated with the composition of both macroinvertebrate and soft-bodied algal  
383 assemblages, reflecting the importance of flow duration for recovery after wetting; in general, the  
384 longer streams flow, the greater the opportunity for taxa to recover (Mackie *et al.* 2013). Aerial  
385 colonization is typically the principal method by which macroinvertebrates recolonize arid and  
386 semi-arid streams, with some taxa capable of flying long distances (Bogan & Boersma, 2012; May,  
387 2019). In contrast, soft-bodied algae can recolonize via drift from upstream refuges and/or  
388 repopulate from the sediment upon wetting (Robson *et al.*, 2008; Sabater *et al.*, 2017; Garg &  
389 Maldener, 2021. For example, *Zygnema*, a soft-bodied charophyte alga from non-perennial streams  
390 in southern California, can recover upon wetting due to quick germination of desiccation-tolerant  
391 spore-like cells (Fuller, 2013). Such resistant life stages allow algal assemblages to recover within

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

392 as little as two weeks after wetting (Dodds *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, benthic macroinvertebrate  
393 populations can recover within four weeks in small, non-perennial prairie streams (Fritz & Dodds,  
394 2004) and in mediterranean California (Bêche & Resh, 2007) although recovery time varies widely  
395 across families (Fowler, 2004; Sarremejane *et al.*, 2019).

396

397 Unlike macroinvertebrates and algae, we found no relationship between Wet Duration and spatial  
398 variation in diatom assemblages. Rather, diatom assemblage composition and diversity were most  
399 influenced by the calendar date on which the preceding dry event began, highlighting the  
400 importance of dry-phase timing for this taxonomic group. Many diatoms identified in this study  
401 produce resting spores, likely an adaptation to the predictable seasonal cycles observed in non-  
402 perennial systems that allows their persistence (Bonada & Resh, 2013). In addition, diatoms have  
403 different colonization patterns, preferentially recolonizing from refuges like dried biofilms, than  
404 other types of algae, which tend to recolonize from drift (Robson *et al.*, 2008), altering their  
405 responses to hydrological dynamics. Probable cues to initiate desiccation-tolerant behavioral or  
406 morphological adaptations include seasonal water limitation, nutrient limitation, and changes in  
407 temperature, further indicating the influence of Dry Date on diatom assemblages.

408

### 409 *4.2 Predictions 2 and 3: Influence of Recession Slope and False Starts per Duration*

410

411 The richness of benthic macroinvertebrates and algae were related to the Recession Slope of the  
412 previous dry phase, partially supporting our second prediction. We also predicted that short-  
413 duration flow events could expose emerging organisms to dry conditions ultimately influencing  
414 diversity, but False Starts per Duration was not a significant predictor of diversity metrics for any  
415 assemblage. While some algae and diatoms can repopulate within minutes of wetting (Timoner *et*

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

416 *al.*, 2014), they may be able to shift back to desiccation-tolerant forms just as quickly, making them  
417 unaffected by false starts. Similarly, invertebrates can survive and develop in damp sediment  
418 without surface flow (Strachan, Chester & Robson, 2016; Tronstad, Tronstad & Benke, 2005).  
419 Equally, flows of only 1–3 days may be too short to break the dormancy of many  
420 macroinvertebrates. However, given the low variance in diversity metrics explained by the  
421 hydrologic metrics, we hesitate to make strong inferences about biological community dynamics  
422 based on these results. Therefore, we suspect that environmental variables not included in the  
423 models may be more important for the richness and diversity assemblages.

424

### 425 4.3 Prediction 4: Influence of Dry Duration

426

427 Following our fourth prediction, the length of the previous dry phase did not influence the  
428 composition or richness of any assemblage, in contrast to prior research (Sabater *et al.*, 2016;  
429 Soria *et al.*, 2017; Pineda-Morante *et al.*, 2022; Miao *et al.*, 2023). Their lack of response to Dry  
430 Duration suggests that the taxa in this region are well-adapted to dry phases (Bogan *et al.*, 2017).  
431 Southern California is an arid region dominated by non-perennial streams (Mazor *et al.*, 2014), and  
432 its aridity acts as a selective regional filter on species distributions that favors organisms with  
433 adaptations which facilitate survival during dry phases (Weiher & Keddy, 1995). In addition, this  
434 region has high interannual climatic variability, leading to variable hydrological patterns and  
435 biological communities (Bêche & Resh, 2007).

436

437 While our results suggest a lack of response to the duration of the dry phase, logger placement in  
438 pool-riffle transitions could have led to misleading ecohydrological relationships if pools persisted  
439 during dry phases because availability and spatial distribution of refuges such as perennial pools

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

440 can alter recolonization patterns across taxa (Crabot et al., 2020; Sarremejane *et al.*, 2021;  
441 Fournier *et al.*, 2022). However, our study sites were selected to avoid groundwater fed pools  
442 (S.I.1), which are found within the region and typically dry 8 - 12 weeks after dry phase onset (U.S.  
443 Fish and Wildlife Service Ventura Office, 2023). Such pools may have been present during the  
444 drying transition and into the dry phase. Regardless, our results suggest the arid environment of  
445 southern California limits the regional species pool to taxa able to persist during seasonal dry  
446 phases.

447

### 448 *4.4 Variable responses and environmental predictors*

449

450 The lack of consistency in predictive metrics across assemblages could reflect different traits  
451 influencing biological responses to drying, such as differences in life cycle duration and dispersal  
452 distance. Many macroinvertebrates exhibit a slower response to environmental stressors than  
453 primary producers (Dodds *et al.*, 2004; Johnson & Hering, 2009). However, diatoms and soft-bodied  
454 algae share many broad traits, such as desiccation-resistant forms and fast reactivation upon  
455 wetting (Sabater *et al.*, 2017). In our study, these taxa responded to different aspects of the  
456 hydrological regime: Wet Duration for soft-bodied algae and Dry Date for diatoms. Soft-bodied  
457 algae often have larger multicellular thalli which are covered by extracellular layers of mucilage.  
458 Additionally, thick cellulose walls in green and chlorophyte filamentous algae are sometimes  
459 calcified or iron-impregnated, which may support their long-term survival during dry phases  
460 (Scarsbrook & Townsend, 1993). The thick-walled resting spores and zygotes formed by many  
461 filamentous cyanobacteria and algae provide long-term protection from dry phases. In addition,  
462 soft-bodied algae proliferate quickly upon wetting due to the fast germination of their resting stages

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

463 (e.g., spores, akinetes, zygospores) that persist in situ, and thus show stronger response to Wet  
464 Duration.

465

466 In contrast, diatoms are unicellular organisms with desiccation-tolerance strategies limited mainly  
467 to formation of resting spores and resting cells by some species, which may make diatom  
468 assemblages more vulnerable to dry phases (Tornés *et al.*, 2021). Diatoms tend to have higher  
469 dispersal rates and shorter generation times compared to soft-bodied algae, allowing for quick  
470 recovery and exploitation of epilithic space (Ledger *et al.*, 2008; Schneider *et al.*, 2012; Nemes-  
471 Kókai *et al.*, 2023). Our research suggests that some diatoms may be resistant to changes in the  
472 duration of dry and wet phases, potentially providing functional redundancy in aquatic food webs  
473 during future climatic changes. Overall, these different responses to drying and wetting could  
474 increase the persistence of primary producers in non-perennial streams in this region.

475

476 Our multivariate analysis suggests that drying and wetting are not the only variables driving  
477 assemblage composition. We detected significant associations between macroinvertebrate  
478 assemblage composition and two non-hydrologic environmental variables: canopy cover and  
479 wetted width. Canopy cover determines how much sunlight reaches the streambed (Jansen,  
480 O'Dowd & Bouma-Gregson, 2020) and thus can influence macroinvertebrate food sources (Aguiar,  
481 Neres-Lima & Moulton, 2017). Canopy cover also influences carbon inputs into a stream with leaf  
482 litter while woody debris increases habitat complexity (Kaufmann *et al.*, 1999). Wetted width is  
483 positively correlated with habitat availability (Cowx, Young & Hellawell, 1984; Dewson, James &  
484 Death, 2007) and complexity (Cazaubon & Giudicelli, 1999), mediating the effects of predation and  
485 resource competition (Diehl, 1992). Further, increased habitat size and complexity often increase  
486 macroinvertebrate community diversity and abundance (Kovalenko, Thomaz & Warfe, 2012) and

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

487 lead to higher community stability through time (Mykrä & Heino, 2017). Thus, while we excluded  
488 environmental predictors from our linear models due to statistical power, variables such as canopy  
489 cover and wetted width may be important determinants of richness and may have shaped the  
490 effects of hydrologic metrics.

491

## 492 5. Conclusions

493

494 Freshwater taxa are increasingly threatened as human water use and global climate change reduce  
495 surface water availability (Bogardi *et al.*, 2012; Seager *et al.*, 2013; Overpeck & Udall, 2020). Many  
496 previously perennial streams are becoming non-perennial (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014; Pumo *et al.*, 2016),  
497 leading to unprecedented shifts in drying and wetting patterns (Tramblay *et al.*, 2021; Zipper *et al.*,  
498 2021). Here we demonstrate that assemblages vary in their responses to drying and wetting,  
499 highlighting a need for further studies exploring how characteristics of wetting and drying  
500 transitions alter the persistence of adapted resistant and resilient taxa. In addition, life history  
501 studies are required to better understand the consequences of changing wetting and drying  
502 characteristics for aquatic taxa. As drying and wetting patterns change (Tramblay *et al.*, 2021;  
503 Zipper *et al.*, 2021), understanding how assemblages respond to the multiple components of both  
504 flowing and drying is vital to stream management and conservation (Leone *et al.*, 2023; Messenger *et al.*,  
505 2023). Our study highlights differing biological responses to drying and wetting regimes that will  
506 become increasingly important for stream management in a drier future.

507

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

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525

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

526 Author Contribution Statement

527

528 Conceptualization: MHB, SCC, KSB, CNJ, DCA, MZ, RStu. Developing Methods: MHB, SCC, KSB,

529 CNJ, DCA, CL, RM, AP, MZ, RSta. Conducting the research: MHB, CNJ, CL, RM, RSta. Data Analysis:

530 MHB, SCC, KSB, DCA, CL, RM, AP. Preparation figures & tables: MHB, KSB, DCA. Data

531 interpretation: MHB, SCC, KSB, CNJ, DCA, CL, RM, AP, RSta, RStu, MZ. Writing: MHB, SCC, KSB,

532 CNJ, DCA, CL, RM, AP, RSta, RStu, MZ.

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting

533 Data Availability Statement

534

535 Data are available through the California Environmental Data Exchange Network (CEDEN,

536 [www.ceden.org](http://www.ceden.org)). Data also available through GitHub, along with code used in analyses

537 ([https://github.com/shelleydunkey/drying\\_wetting\\_regimes\\_assemblages](https://github.com/shelleydunkey/drying_wetting_regimes_assemblages)).

Benthic responses to drying and wetting

538 Conflict of Interest Statement

539

540 The authors confirm they have no conflict of interest.

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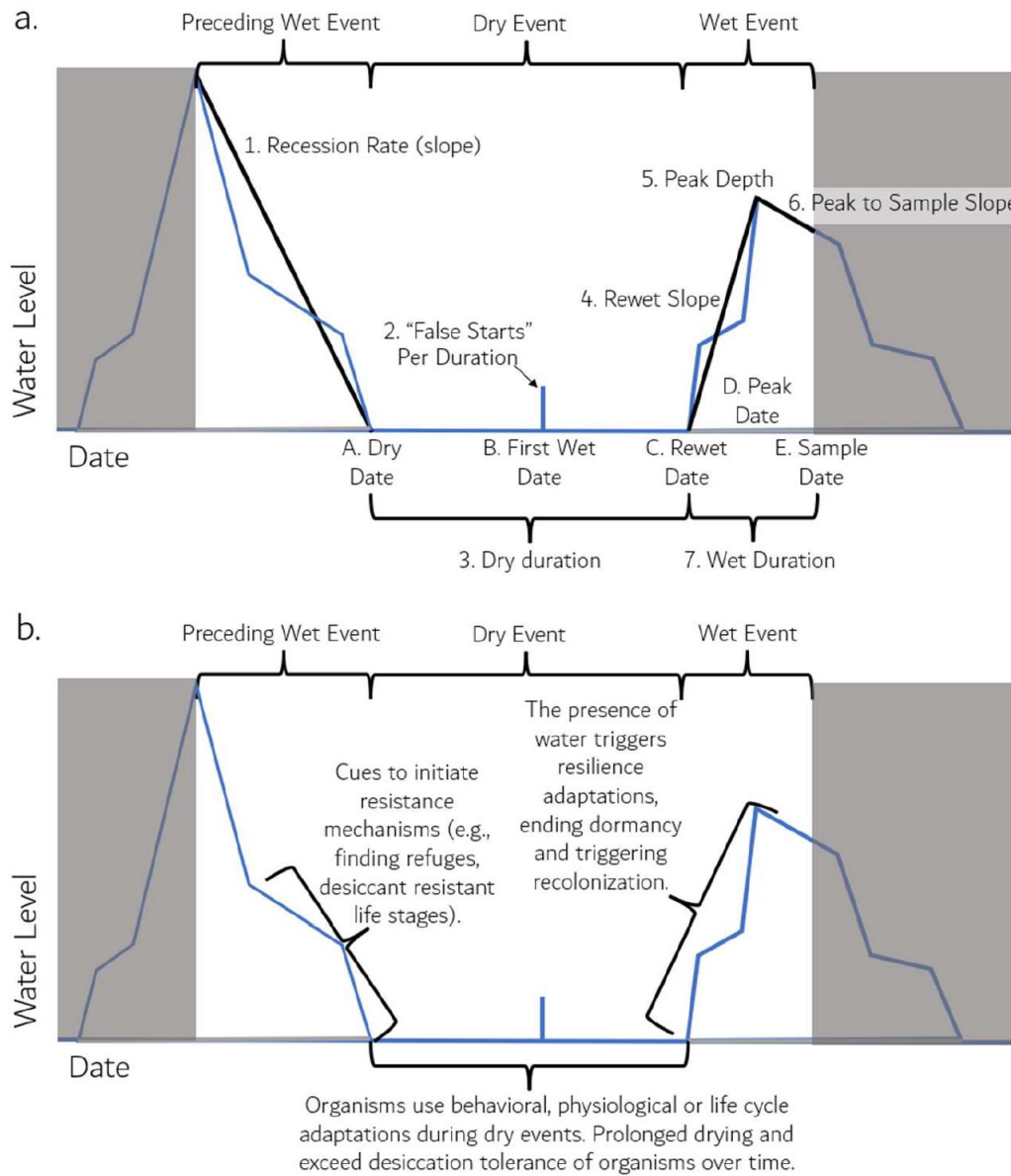
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Benthic responses to drying and wetting

867 Figure Captions



868

869 Figure 1. Conceptual hydrograph illustrating a dry event preceded and followed by wet events, as

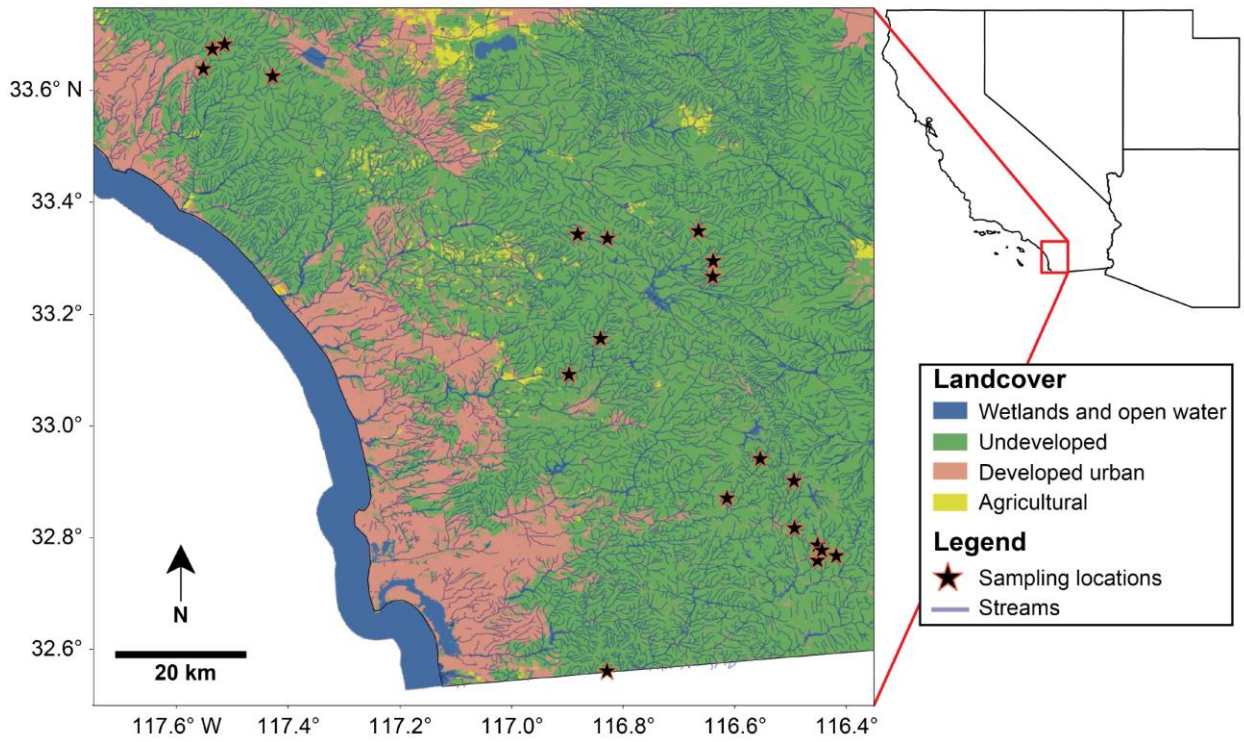
870 analyzed in the present study. (a) A visual representation of the various hydrologic metrics

871 calculated and used in analyses. For detailed metric calculation descriptions, see Table 1. (b)

872 Representations of resistance and resilience adaptations initiated during key periods of the

873 hydrograph. Wide brackets indicate the variation between and within species to various cues.

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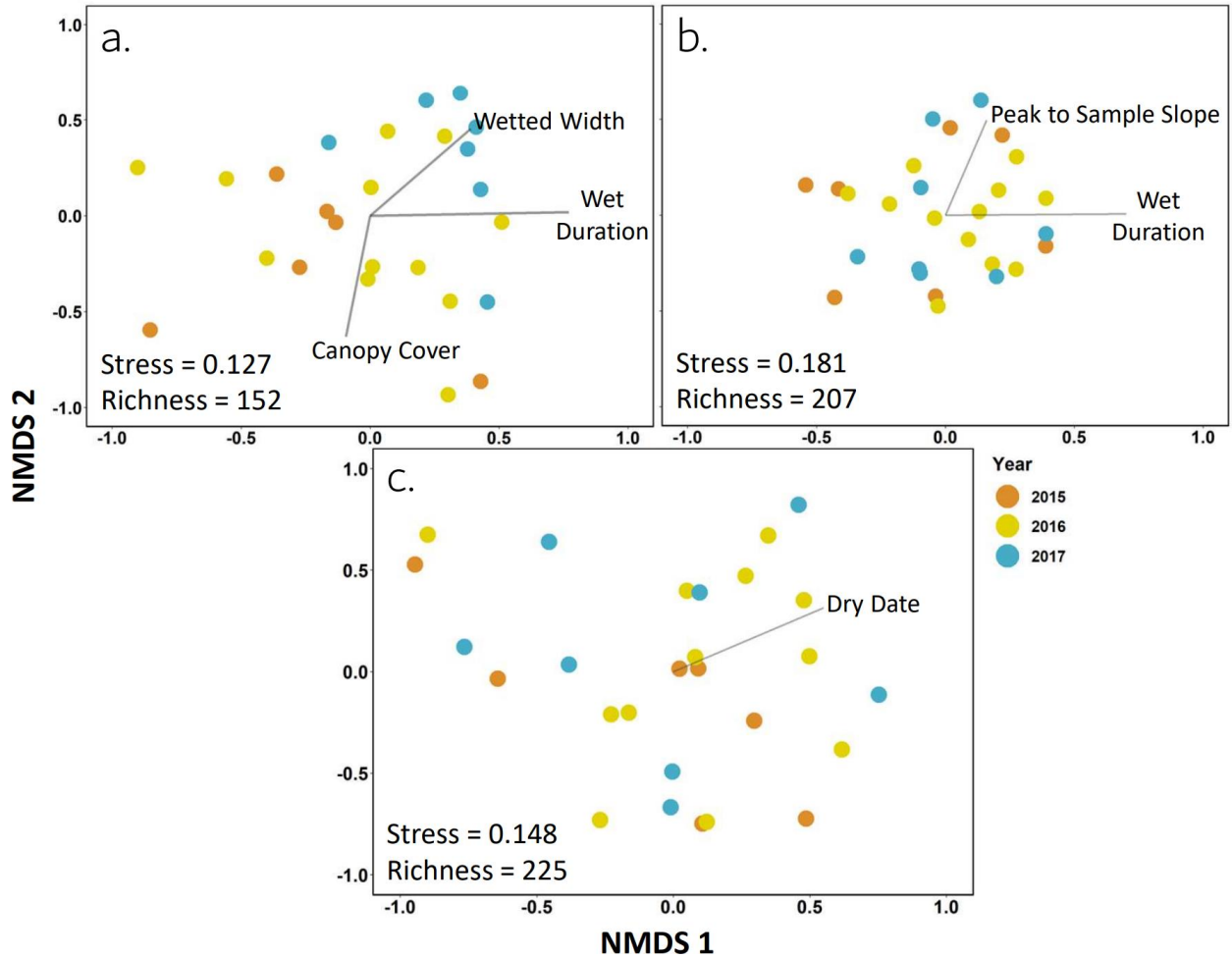


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876 Figure 2. Study site locations in southern California with landcover in the region (16 sites in San  
877 Diego County, three in Orange County, and one in Riverside County; S.I.1).

878

## Benthic responses to drying and wetting



879

880 Figure 3. Two dimensional NMDS ordinations for (a) macroinvertebrate, (b) soft-bodied algal, and  
881 (c) diatom assemblages. The NMDS stress and total taxonomic richness for each assemblage are  
882 displayed. Ordinations were rotated to align the Wet Duration metric with NMDS axis 1 for clearer  
883 comparability among assemblages. Additional vectors are significant environmental variables ( $p <$   
884  $0.015$ ), with the length of the corresponding vector related to the strength of the relationship ( $R^2$   
885 value; Table 4).