

Novel water sources restore plant and animal communities along an urban river

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ABSTRACT

Many projects have been undertaken to restore urban rivers in arid regions. At the same time, passive discharge of urban water sources has stimulated redevelopment of wetlands and riparian forests along stretches of dewatered rivers. In Phoenix, Arizona, for example, some segments of the dewatered Salt River have been actively restored by planting and irrigation, whereas others have revegetated in response to runoff from storm drains and effluent drains. Our research documents how biotic communities differ between these actively restored and ‘accidentally’ restored areas, and between wetter and drier urban reaches. We addressed these objectives with a multi-taxa, multi-season sampling approach along reaches of the Salt River. We quantified plants using cover estimates in quadrats, birds using fixed radius, point-count surveys, and herpetofauna (amphibians and reptiles) using visual-encounter surveys. One notable finding was that wetland plants had greater richness and cover at accidentally restored sites compared with actively restored, dry urban, and non-urban reference sites. Birds and herpetofauna, however, were most species-rich at actively restored and non-urban reference sites, and riparian birds were more abundant at sites with perennial flows compared with ephemeral reaches. From a landscape perspective, the range of management approaches along the river (including *laissez-faire*) is sustaining a diverse riparian and wetland mosaic. Urban water subsidies are sustaining freshwater forests and marshlands, the latter a regionally declining ecosystem. In urbanized rivers of arid regions, mapping and conserving perennial stream flows arising from stormwater and effluent discharge can be an important complement to active restoration. Copyright © 2014 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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INTRODUCTION

As urban areas expand worldwide, there is a growing need to identify inexpensive and sustainable ways to restore riverine communities and the ecosystem services they provide (Bernhardt and Palmer, 2007; Everard and Moggridge, 2012). Urban rivers present a special challenge to restoration practitioners because of the extent to which their physical environments have been altered (Wenger *et al.*, 2009; Hawley and Bledsoe, 2011). Restoration of appropriate flows of water and sediments is fundamental but can be strategically difficult and expensive to achieve (Arthington *et al.*, 2010). Water resource development has been one of the causes for global declines in wetlands and riparian woodlands (Allan and Flecker, 1993; Dynesius and Nilsson, 1994). Although environmental flows are being released from upstream dams in some cities to restore seasonal flood pulses (Rood *et al.*, 2005), a more basic

challenge in many arid watersheds is to provide sufficient base flows for maintenance of these declining wetland and riparian ecosystems. Base flow release from upstream dams can be politically implausible, necessitating structure-based alternatives such as drip irrigation of planted trees (Gerlak *et al.*, 2009; Bernhardt and Palmer, 2011).

A complementary approach to such purposeful or active restoration is to pursue protection of the many wetlands that have developed in response to urban water subsidies (Trammell *et al.*, 2011). There are now many wetlands in arid regions that are sustained by leakage or outflows from agricultural or urban hydro-infrastructure (Briggs and Cornelius, 1998; Briggs and Cornelius, 1998; White and Stromberg, 2009; Sueltenfuss *et al.*, 2013). However, the efficacy of storm drain outflow, municipal effluent, and other novel urban water sources for environmental restoration is only beginning to be explored (Brooks *et al.*, 2006; Bijoor *et al.*, 2012; Walsh *et al.*, 2012; Scheffers and Paszkowski, 2013).

Developing suitable criteria for assessing restoration outcomes is yet another challenge for urban river restorationists. The biotic communities of urban rivers have

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undergone extensive change, and their novel species assemblages test the limits of traditional assessment rubrics (Dufour and Piégay, 2009). Overarching ecological objectives, such as increasing ecosystem functions or abundance of functional types, can be more appropriate than context-specific goals such as increased abundance of specific species (Bateman *et al.*, 2012). Multi-taxa data are being increasingly utilized to capture the wide array of responses that are evident among broad taxonomic groups (Colwell and Coddington, 1994; Kotze and Samways, 1999; Dallimer *et al.*, 2012).

One urban river in the American Southwest that has been extensively modified is the Salt. Upstream dams and diversion canals have enabled the development of an extensive irrigated and riparianized cityscape, but at great environmental cost (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1987; Fitzhugh and Richter, 2004). To restore environmental amenities, portions of the river and its riparian zone have undergone active restoration, and others are targeted for restoration, pending appropriation of funds. Simultaneously, some sections of the Salt River have been 'accidentally' revitalized by the passive discharge of municipal effluent to the river bed, and by return of irrigation water and storm runoff into the river via storm drains. These water sources are sustaining wetland and riparian vegetation and wildlife (Rea, 1988; Makings *et al.*, 2011; Banville and Bateman, 2012), but there has been no systematic comparison of biotic communities between actively restored areas and areas accidentally restored by novel urban water sources.

Using the Salt River in the Phoenix metropolitan area as our study area, we focused on plants, amphibians, reptiles, and birds to address the following questions: How similar are biotic communities at actively restored and accidentally rewatered urban river sites with respect to species diversity, composition, and abundance? How do these communities compare with those in non-restored, dry urban reaches and in non-urban reference areas? Are responses similar across taxonomic groups and across seasons? Our overall goal was to increase knowledge of the factors that influence riparian and wetland biota in urban freshwater ecosystems and thereby inform restoration and management. These issues are of particular importance given the increases in aridity that are projected to further reduce river base flows in the American Southwest and in other arid regions throughout the world (Seager *et al.*, 2007; Palmer *et al.*, 2009).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study river

The Salt River drains a watershed of 35 000 km² as it flows southwest from its head waters in mountainous north-central Arizona, through the Sonoran Desert, to its confluence with the Gila River west of Phoenix. The Salt River is part of the Colorado Basin that has been classified as vulnerable to impacts induced by climate change

(Loaiciga, 2009). The region is arid with average annual maximum and minimum temperatures of 30 and 16 °C (Station 026486, Phoenix; WRCC, 2012), and annual precipitation of 20 cm.

During the 1800s, the Salt River flowed within a 3-km wide floodplain and sustained a variety of communities including marshes, riparian shrublands, and forests (Rea, 1983; Hendrickson and Minckley, 1984; Graf, 2000). In the early 1900s, the Salt River was dammed and flow-regulated upstream of Phoenix to provide water for irrigated agriculture and, increasingly, for municipal uses. The Salt River today is wholly diverted into a series of delivery canals at Granite Reef Diversion Dam, resulting in a desiccated river bed over much of its length through Phoenix (Figure 1; Appendix 1). Mean annual flow upstream of the diversion point is 28 000 cfs (USGS 09502000, Salt River below Stewart Mountain Dam; <http://nwis.waterdata.usgs.gov>). Mean annual and median flow in the center of the Phoenix metro area are, respectively, 196 and 8 cfs (USGS 09512165, Salt River at Priest Drive near Phoenix). Rains occur mainly in winter (November to March) and late summer (July to August), and the urbanized river undergoes periodic flood pulses in winter owing to stream flow releases from upstream dams during years with abundant winter rain and snow. Following large floods in the 1970s and 1980s, the river in the central city was channelized to increase flood water conveyance, creating a deeper and narrower river bed (Graf, 2000; Roberge, 2002). In the 1990s, a series of riparian restorations were planned, some of which were funded and implemented (Gerlak *et al.*, 2009).

Study sites

We established one or two study sites in each of six reach types: (1) non-urban reference, (2) mixed-use, actively restored, (3) actively restored urban, (4) semi-restored urban, (5) accidentally restored urban, all with perennial flow, and (6) dry urban reaches with ephemeral flow (Figure 1; Table I). Each site consisted of a 300-m long stretch of the river and its associated wetland and riparian zones. Site elevation ranged from 286 to 412 m.

Reference sites are useful in restoration planning and assessment but should be used carefully (Beauchamp and Shafroth, 2011; McClain *et al.*, 2011). Our reference reach was intended as a contrast for the flow-regulated urban Salt River and thus was located in the flow-regulated portion of the river upstream of the city. Specifically, it was on the Tonto National Forest upstream of Granite Reef Diversion Dam, approximately 5 miles from the closest city boundary. Although stream flow is perennial, the magnitude and timing of flows have been altered by flow-regulating dams (Fenner *et al.*, 1985). Reaches below dams often have reduced richness of plant species owing to disruption of longitudinal connectivity and reduction in spatio-temporal heterogeneity (Uowolo *et al.*, 2005; Stromberg *et al.*, 2012) and thus do not

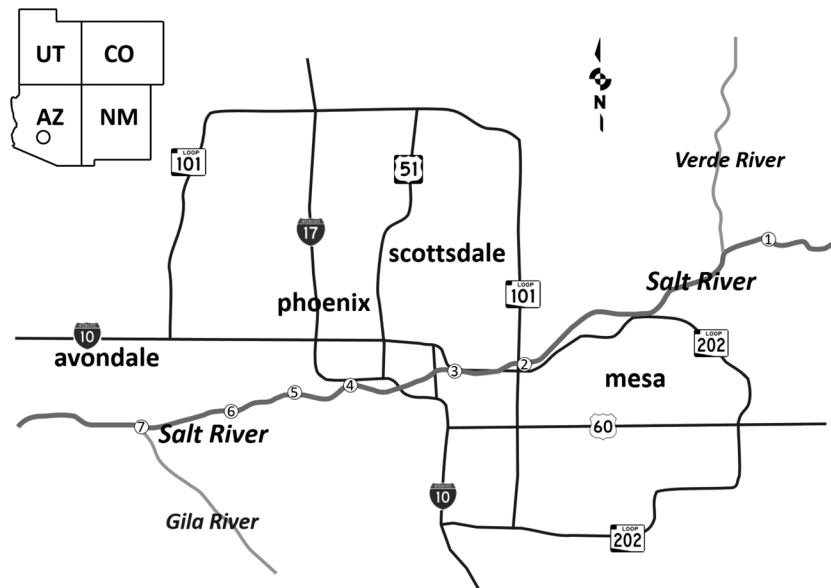


Figure 1. Study map of seven river reaches in central Arizona, which differ in levels of urbanization, water subsidy, and ecological restoration (defined in Tables I and II).

Table I. Location and attributes of study reaches along the Salt River in central Arizona.

Reach name	Reach number	Reach type	Degree of urban	Elevation (m)	Latitude and longitude (decimal degrees)		Mean transect length (m)
Tonto	1	Non-urban reference	1	412	33.558948°	-111.958754°	143 ^a
Base and Meridian Wildlife Area	7	Mixed-use, restored	2	286	33.384375°	-112.303177°	386 ^a
Phoenix Rio Salado	4	Urban, restored	4	323	33.422419°	-112.075205°	234
Tempe Rio Salado	3	Urban, semi-restored	4	347	33.434910°	-111.958754°	261
Price	2	Urban, accidentally restored	4	360	33.437428°	-111.887722°	119
Ave 35	5	Urban dry	4	312	33.411469°	-112.133450°	133
Ave 67	6	Urban dry	3	300	33.395838°	-112.204064°	130

Reach number refers to map in Figure 1.

^a Transects extend on only one side of the river channel.

necessarily represent regional potential. Flow regulation has influenced stream hydrogeomorphology and the biotic communities of the reference site, creating sharply defined zones (a narrow wetland zone with abrupt transition to xeric floodplain) as it has been seen on other flow-regulated rivers in western USA (Merritt and Cooper, 2000). The floodplain on the Tonto National Forest was closed in the late 1970s to authorized grazing and in the early 1990s to off road vehicles but is occasionally grazed by livestock. The river and riparian vegetation are embedded within the Arizona Uplands Division of the Sonoran Desert (Brown, 1994) typified by xeric shrubs, succulents, and small desert legume trees.

The mixed-use, actively restored site is the Base and Meridian Wildlife Area (hereafter, B&M). B&M occupies a portion of the 11-km Tres Rios Ecosystem Restoration Project on the western fringe of Phoenix metropolitan area. The reach

is surrounded by agriculture, commercial use, and undeveloped Sonoran Desert. B&M is managed by Arizona Game and Fish Department. In 2012, restoration efforts included earthmoving, vegetation clearing (non-native *Tamarix* shrubland), drip-line installation, tree, shrub and wetland emergent planting, and spraying of a tackifier for erosion control. These actions had been completed only a few months prior to our first sampling.

We selected two urban sites that were restored, although to varying degrees: Phoenix Rio Salado (PRS) in Phoenix at Central Avenue and Tempe Rio Salado (TRS) between the Tempe Town Lake Dam and Priest Drive. The PRS restoration area covers an 8-km stretch of the Salt River and was a partnership between the US Army Corps of Engineers and the City of Phoenix, which was completed in November 2005. The \$100 million project expenses included earth recontouring, riverbed cleanup, drip irrigation, vegetation planting, low-flow channel stabilization, and construction of a

groundwater delivery system to water the terrace forests and constructed wetlands. Among the riparian and upland trees planted and irrigated on terraces were *Celtis reticulata*, *Cercidium microphyllum*, *Chilopsis linearis*, *Populus fremontii*, *Prosopis pubescens*, *Prosopis velutina*, and *Salix gooddingii*. Several types of herbaceous wetland species were planted along pond edges. The low-flow channel has intermittent to perennial flow owing to outfall from storm drains located in the area. No tree plantings were made in the low-flow channel zone, although willows (*Salix* sp.) and other wetland plants have colonized the channel. We considered TRS to be a semi-restored site because many fewer trees were planted compared with PRS and tree plantings were within or immediately adjacent to the low-flow channel. Trees planted included *Fraxinus* sp., *P. fremontii*, *P. pubescens*, *P. velutina*, and *S. gooddingii*. Prior to the filling of the Tempe Town Lake in 1999, storm drains in the area were rerouted and combined, creating perennial flow from the drain located just below the dam (Boyd B, 2013, City of Tempe, pers. comm). At the time of sampling, the dominant vegetation type at TRS was an (unplanted) and dense *Typha* marshland. The low-flow channel at TRS is bordered by urban land including Sky Harbor International Airport. As part of management to reduce wildlife strikes, the airport actively mows and removes tall vegetation along this reach.

We defined one urban reach near Price drain as accidentally restored. The Price reach has perennial flows owing to a combination of water sources including discharge from one large drain (which includes drainage for a freeway interchange), multiple small storm drains, and until recently, the City of Mesa's Northwest Water Reclamation Plant. Water flows at the site also are influenced by the downstream barrier of the Tempe Town Lake rubber dam.

We identified two sites as dry urban reaches with ephemeral flow: 35th Avenue (Ave 35) and 67th Avenue (Ave 67) river crossings, in Phoenix (Figure 1). The river in both areas receives water discontinuously from storm drains. Ave 35 also receives water periodically from the City of Phoenix's 23rd Avenue Wastewater Treatment Plant.

Vegetation sampling

We sampled vegetation within thirty 2-m² plots distributed along three cross-floodplain transects per site. The transects were between 100 and 250 m apart, and were approximately 125 m in cross-sectional width where riparian zones were narrow and nearly 400 m (on one side of the channel only) where the riparian zone was wide (Table I). Lateral boundaries of transects were delineated by vegetation indicators (transition from riparian to upland plant species) and geomorphic indicators (slope bases of channelized river sections). We sampled cover, by species, using cover classes. To capture phenological variation, we sampled during spring (March), summer dry season (June), and

summer wet season (September) of 2012. (Vegetation at Ave 67 was sampled in 2013, and the spring season data at Price was collected in 2013 because access in 2012 was limited by localized flooding.) To further assess vegetation, we sampled aquatic plants in nine 1-m² plots per site; six of the plots were randomly located along edges of the stream channel, and three were in pools or side channels, if present. Plants were identified to species (where possible) using Kearney *et al.* (1960) and Vascular Plants of Arizona (VPA) (1992–2004). Nomenclature follows the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) Natural Resources Conservation Service PLANTS Database and recent revisions published in VPA (1992–2004) and Canotia (2004–2012). Voucher specimens were collected for most species and deposited in the Arizona State University Herbarium.

Bird sampling

We sampled bird communities along three cross-floodplain transects per site. We established two stations per transect (six per site), and at each station, we counted birds seen and heard using 50-m fixed radius, 15-min point-count surveys. We surveyed during winter (January), spring (April), summer (June), and fall (October) 2013. One trained observer visited each station, and we reversed the order in which stations were surveyed between visits. Surveys were conducted under similar environmental conditions (i.e. no rain and wind from 0 to 3 on Beaufort scale) and were completed within 4 h of sunrise. We began surveys immediately upon arrival at the station and included birds flushed by the observer upon arrival. Observer recorded species on the basis of Sibley (2000) and classified according to Pyle and DeSante (2012). Bird minimum abundance (hereafter, abundance) was calculated as the greatest number of individuals of each species seen or heard at either station along each transect, per season. Because we did not individually mark animals, this method (of minimum abundance) conservatively estimated abundance and ensured that we did not count individuals twice.

Herpetofauna (amphibians and reptiles) sampling

We quantified herpetofauna using daytime visual-encounter surveys similar to Banville and Bateman (2012) with the addition of flipping rocks to locate hidden individuals. We established three 10×20 m plots along each of the three transects (nine plots per site) to ensure equal sampling effort among sites. Because herpetofauna are mainly inactive during winter, we sampled during spring (March and April) and summer (June and September) 2013. We conducted surveys in the morning, during times of high diurnal herpetofauna activity, and under similar environmental conditions (i.e. warm, sunny, wind from 0 to 3 on Beaufort scale). Observers recorded species on the basis of Brennan and Holycross (2009) and classified according to Crother (2008). We defined

herpetofauna minimum abundance (hereafter, abundance) as the greatest number of individuals of each species detected at one of the plots for each transect, per season.

Stream flow and water quality

We characterized each site with respect to stream flow permanence and basic water quality parameters. We measured stream flow permanence by instrumenting sites with Maxim iButton temperature sensors (model #DS1921G) protected in waterproof capsules (model #DS9107). Temperature sensor fluctuations were manually compared with local temperature downloaded from Durango Station (Maricopa Flood Control Weather Gage 4700). Flow presence decisions were ground-truthed to field observations. We measured electrical conductivity of the surface water in the field at each transect during each sampling period using an Oakton Multiparameter PCSTestr 35.

Statistical analysis

To contrast species richness among sites, we generated species accumulation curves (sample-based rarefaction) using EstimateS version 9.1 (Colwell, 2013). For plants, these curves were generated within seasons, using 30 plots per site. For birds and herpetofauna, curves were generated across four seasonal visits using nine plots for herpetofauna and six point-count stations for birds per site.

To assess compositional differences, we calculated relative abundance, by site, of organisms classified within habitat preference guilds (Verberk *et al.*, 2013). For example, we classified plant species according to their wetland indicator class: wetland species were those with designations of obligate wetland or facultative wetland as listed in the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service PLANTS Database, USDA NRSC (2010); mesic species were those with facultative or facultative upland status; and dryland (or xeric) species had adaptations to dry environments. We classified bird species according to main habitat associations (Corman and Wise-Gervais, 2005). Riparian species are terrestrial birds associated (not obligatory) with floodplain forests (e.g. *Populus*, *Prosopis*, and *Salix*). Marshland/aquatic species are birds associated with marshlands or bodies of water. Desert birds are species associated with shrubs and cacti of the Sonoran Desert. Urban species are habitat generalists associated with human habitation or structures. Birds in the 'other' category included raptors and terrestrial passerine species.

To compare abundance across study sites, we used a repeated measures General Linear Model (GLM; SPSS version 20.0). Within-subject factors included seasons, and between-subject factors included sites. We used Tukey post-hoc tests for multiple comparisons of significant factors. We analysed only spring (March and April) and summer (June and September) seasons for herpetofauna because they are inactive during winter. We analysed

winter (January), spring (April), summer (June), and fall (October) for bird species. We further analysed bird abundance by evaluating differences for species specifically affiliated with riparian areas. Because species in the riparian guild are mostly migratory, we included only spring and summer bird counts. For the plant analysis of variance, we included spring, early summer, and late summer data; the between-subject factor was site.

To further determine how plant and animal species community composition varied by site and season, we performed non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS; unconstrained ordination) using R stats version 3.0 with Vegan package (Oksanen *et al.*, 2013). We used a permutation procedure to fit environmental variables (stream flow permanence and degree of urbanization; Table I) onto the ordinations. Significance values of environmental vectors reveal which variables explain differences between sites on the basis of their location on the ordination graph.

RESULTS

Stream flow

The stream flow was perennial in most sites (Table II). At PRS, stream flow was perennial at two of three transects and absent at one transect during summer. The stream at both of the dry sites had surface water <10% of the year. Flowing water was present during the spring vegetation sampling at Ave 35 but was absent at Ave 67 at all sampling times. Stream water at B&M had high electrical conductivity (Table II).

Species richness

Plants. The cumulative numbers of plant species sampled through time varied twofold among sites (Figure 2A). The accidentally restored urban reach (Price) had as many plant species as occurred at the reference reach (68 species each; Table III). Values were also high at one of the two urban restored sites (58 species at PRS). The fewest species (34) were at the driest site (Ave 67). For all sites collectively, 149 vascular plant taxa were sampled (Appendix 2).

Plot-level plant species richness varied by season ($F = 100.6$, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$) and by site ($F = 14.6$, $df = 6$, $P < 0.001$) with significant interaction ($F = 12.7$, $df = 6$, $P < 0.001$). Most sites had substantially greater richness in March than in June or September, owing to seasonal establishment of rain-dependent winter annuals (Figure 3). Richness per plot was significantly greatest in two sites: the accidentally restored urban reach (Price) and the semi-restored urban reach (TRS).

Birds. We observed 108 species of birds along the Salt River during the study (Appendix 3). Similar to patterns for plants, cumulative bird species sampled varied twofold among sites (Figure 2B). Patterns for birds diverged in some ways from plants: the restored sites (B&M and PRS) and reference site

Table II. Stream flow, water salinity, and land cover type for seven reaches along the Salt River in central Arizona.

	Stream flow permanence (%)	Electrical conductivity (ds/m)	Land cover-low flow channel and active floodplain	Land cover – terrace	Land cover – upland
Tonto	100	1.25 ± 0.06	Marsh, riparian forest	Riparian forest	Desert shrubland
Base and Meridian Wildlife Area	100	2.56 ± 0.09	Marsh, riparian forest (planted)	Desert shrubland and agriculture	Desert shrubland and agriculture
Phoenix Rio Salado	99	0.88 ± 0.19	Marsh, riparian forest	Riparian forest (planted)	Urban
Tempe Rio Salado	100	1.29 ± 0.06	Marsh, riparian forest (planted)	Urban	Urban
Price Ave 35	100	1.35 ± 0.04	Marsh, riparian forest	Urban	Urban
Ave 67	6	1.54	Riparian shrubland	Urban	Urban
	7	ND	Riparian shrubland	Urban	Urban

Water quality values are means (± 1 SE) across sampling seasons of 2012. Stream flow permanence is the percent of days in the year in which surface flow was present. ND, no data.

(Tonto) had significantly higher bird species richness compared with the semi-restored (TRS) and dry sites, both of which had lower species totals (Figure 2B; Table III). Ave 67, a dry reach, had significantly fewer species of birds than other sites (Figure 2B).

Herpetofauna. We recorded 11 species of amphibians and reptiles during surveys and observed three additional species near, but not within, a transect (Appendix 4). Cumulative numbers of amphibians and reptiles species sampled varied almost fourfold among sites (Figure 2C). The non-urban reference site (Tonto) had the greatest richness of herpetofauna, followed by the restored sites (B&M and PRS) (Figure 2C; Table III). The semi-restored site (TRS) had the lowest herpetofauna species richness.

Richness: wetland and desert affinity

Plants. A noteworthy feature of the accidentally restored site (Price) was its high number of wetland plant species (26). In comparison, 17 and 18 were present at the actively restored sites, and 11 were at the reference site (Table III; Figure 3). Some wetland species, including *Samolus parviflorus* and *Stemodia durantifolia*, were sampled only at Price. *Eustoma exaltatum* was found only at Price and TRS.

The non-urban reference site differed notably from others in having a high number (42) of xerophytes, many of which were spring annuals not found elsewhere (e.g. *Plagiobothrys arizonicus* and *Chaenactis stevioides*). Number of xerophytes ranged from 15 to 26 among all other sites. Mesophytes ranged from nine to 15 species among sites.

Birds. The restored (B&M and PRS) and non-urban reference sites had high richness of riparian bird species (Table III). Some of these riparian species, such as brown-crested flycatcher (*Myiarchus tyrannulus*), Lucy's Warbler (*Oreothlypis luciae*), and Bell's Vireo (*Vireo bellii*), were

recorded only at the reference site, whereas other species such as Warbling Vireo (*Vireo gilvus*) were recorded only at restored sites. Riparian species richness was lowest at the dry sites (Table III). The restored and semi-restored sites (B&M, PRS, and TRS) and accidentally restored site (Price) had high richness of aquatic and marshland birds species (Table III). The high richness of aquatic and marshland species at the dry site (Ave 35) was due to Northern Pintails (*Anas acuta*) detected when the stream was wet during the winter survey.

The non-urban reference site was noteworthy in having more desert-affiliated bird species than any other site (Table III). For example, the reference site was the only location where desert species such as Cactus Wrens (*Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus*) and nearly all curve-billed thrashers (*Toxostoma curvirostre*) were detected. Surprisingly, the dry sites had low number of desert species but did harbour some desert-adapted birds such as loggerhead shrikes (*Lanius ludovicianus*).

Herpetofauna. Amphibians (mostly toads, *Anaxyrus* spp.), a water-affiliated group, were recorded in transects only at the reference site, one restored site (PRS), and one dry site (Ave 35). However, we observed or heard calls from introduced American bullfrogs (*Lithobates catesbeianus*) at all sites with perennial water flows (i.e. reference, restored, and accidentally restored).

We documented the semi-arboreal desert spiny lizard (*Sceloporus magister*) at the reference site and mixed-use, restored site (B&M). Although not detected within a survey plot, we documented desert iguanas (*Dipsosaurus dorsalis*), a desert specialist, at the dry reaches and in drier portions of the reference site.

Abundance

Plants. Plant cover varied by site ($F = 14.7$, $df = 6$, $P < 0.001$) but not by season, with significant interaction ($F = 10.2$, $df = 6$, $P < 0.001$). The dry sites and mixed-use

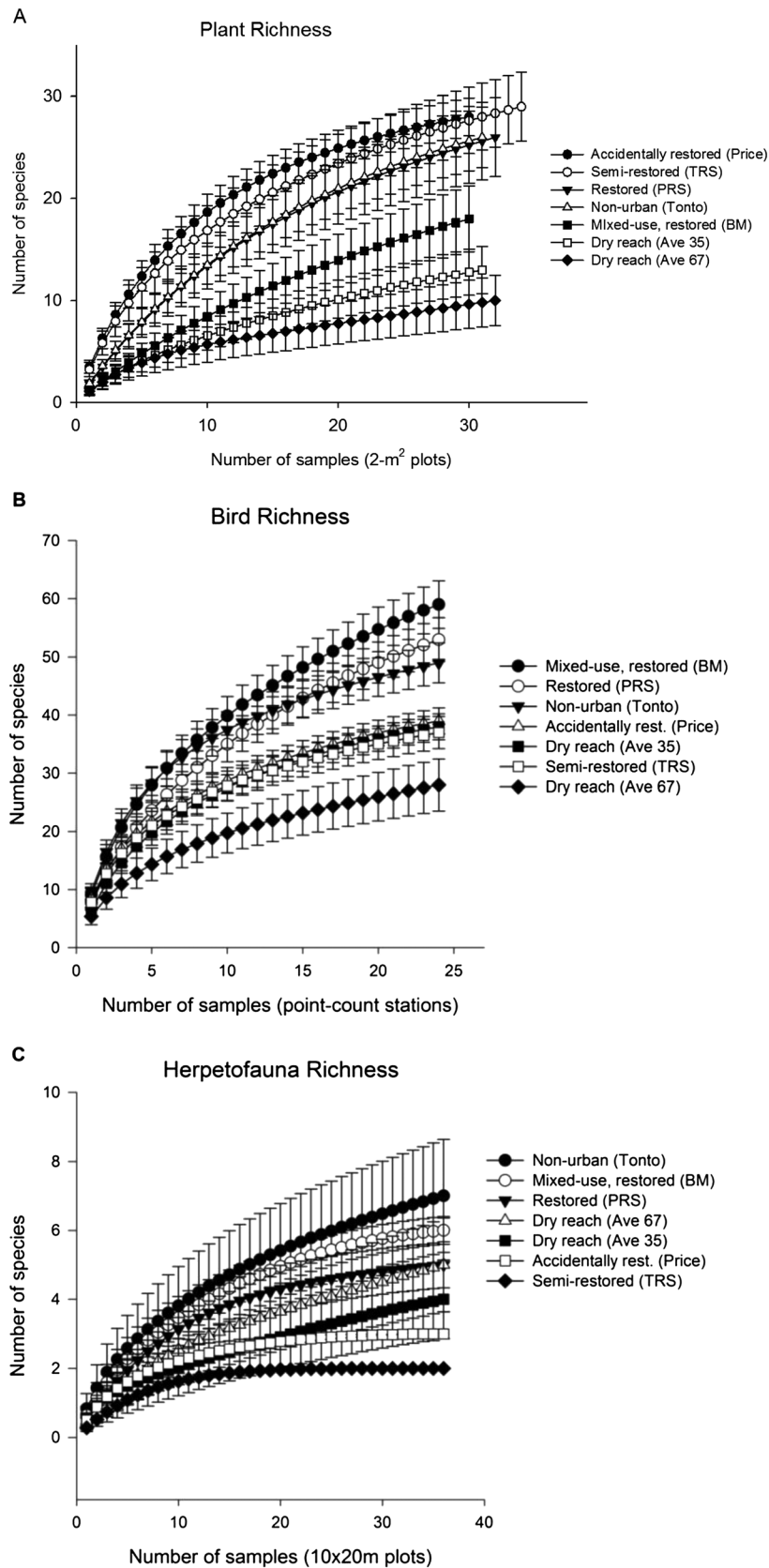


Figure 2. Species accumulation curves for (A) vascular plants, (B) bird species, and (C) herpetofauna species along the Salt River in central Arizona. Plants were surveyed during the pre-monsoon dry season. Birds and herpetofauna were surveyed during warm seasons (March to September).

Table III. Species richness of plant and animal taxa at seven reaches along the Salt River in central Arizona.

	Plant richness							Bird richness				Herpetofauna richness		
	Total	Aquatic	Hydric	Mesic	Xeric	Total	Aquatic, marshland	Riparian terrestrial	Desert	Urban, general	Other	Total	Aquatic (amphib)	Terrestrial (reptiles)
	Tonto	68	6	11	9	42	50	11	12	13	7	7	7	1
Base and Meridian	42	1	10	12	19	62	15	13	10	10	14	6	0	6
Wildlife Area														
Phoenix Rio Salado	58	0	17	15	26	55	15	11	7	13	9	6	2	4
Tempe Rio Salado	42	1	18	8	15	39	9	8	6	12	4	2	0	2
Price	68	3	26	15	24	42	16	7	6	9	4	4	1	3
Ave 35	44	0	7	14	23	43	17	5	4	9	8	5	1	4
Ave 67	34	0	4	9	21	31	6	4	6	9	6	4	0	4

Values are cumulative totals across sampling seasons.

restoration site had sparse cover. The urban restored (PRS), semi-restored (TRS), and accidentally restored (Price) sites all had very high cover (Figure 3; Table IV).

Sites differed in the distribution of cover among plant moisture groups. Cover of wetland plants (including the emergents *Eleocharis geniculata*, *Ludwigia peploides*, *Schoenoplectus acutus*, and *Typha domingensis* and the tree *S. gooddingii*) was greatest at the semi-restored (TRS) site with values also high at the restored (PRS) accidentally restored (Price) sites. Other common species at these sites were *Cynodon dactylon* and *Tamarix ramosissima*. Wetland plants were restricted to a narrow zone along the water's edge of the reference site, with mesophytes (e.g. *C. dactylon* and *P. velutina*) and xerophytes (e.g. *Baccharis sarothroides* and *Ambrosia monogyra*) being the most common plant types. The sparse cover of the mixed-use restored site (B&M) was composed mainly of wetland plants along the water's edge (e.g. *L. peploides*) and haloxerophytes (e.g. *Atriplex lentiformis*) in the open and saline floodplain. Pioneer xerophytes including the shrubs *Bebbia juncea* and *Ambrosia eriocentra* provided the dominant cover at dry sites. *Typha* marshlands were present at Ave 35 during spring, but the wetland plants died with onset of the hot and dry summer.

Birds. Total bird abundance was consistent across seasons ($F=0.530$, $df=1$, $P=0.479$) but varied by site ($F=3.160$, $df=6$, $P=0.036$). Only two sites differed in abundance (B&M, mean = 30.1 ± 3.5 SE; Ave 67, mean = 10.3 , ± 3.5 SE; $P=0.019$). There was no season by site interaction ($F=1.464$, $df=6$, $P=0.260$). However, there were differences in bird abundance per guild (Table IV). Riparian terrestrial bird abundance was similar in spring and summer ($F=1.400$, $df=1$, $P=0.256$), differed by site ($F=5.977$, $df=6$, $P=0.003$; Figure 4A), with an interaction ($F=5.933$, $df=6$, $P=0.003$). The greatest difference among reach types was between the accidentally restored (Price) and dry urban sites ($P < 0.01$), and between the non-urban site (Tonto) and dry sites ($P=0.06$) with the dry sites having the lowest riparian bird abundance.

All reaches had a mix of aquatic/marsh, riparian, desert, and urban-generalist birds (Tables III and IV). Desert species (such as Abert's towhees, *Pipilo aberti*, and white-winged doves, *Zenaida asiatica*) were abundant at all reaches except the dry reaches and were particularly common at one of the accidentally restored sites. Aquatic and marshland birds (such as waterfowl and red-winged blackbird, *Agelaius phoeniceus*) were most abundant at actively and accidentally restored sites. Habitat generalists and species tied to human habitation and structures, such as mourning doves (*Zenaida macroura*) and house finches (*Carpodacus mexicanus*), were common across river reach types but were most abundant in dry reaches.

Herpetofauna. Herpetofauna abundance differed by season ($F=27.562$, $df=1$, $P < 0.001$) but not by site ($F=1.492$,

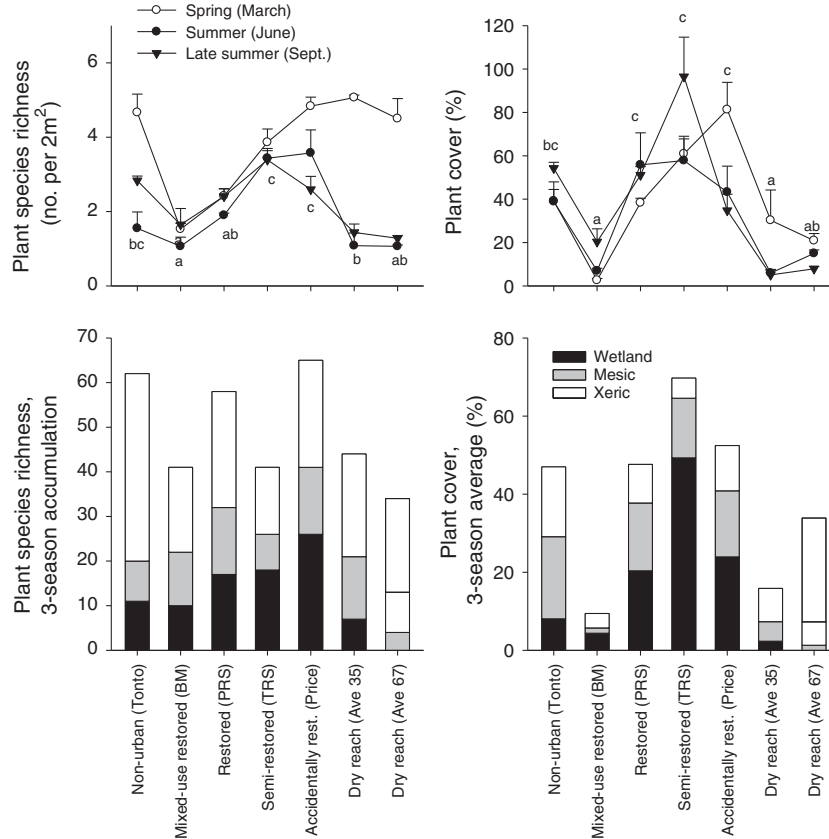


Figure 3. Plant cover for sites along the Salt River. The top panel shows means \pm 1 SE for plot-level richness and cover data collected in three sampling seasons. The bottom panel shows site-level values (30 plots) accumulated over three seasons (species richness) or averaged for three seasons (cover) and categorized by plant moisture class.

$df=6$, $P=0.251$). However, there was a significant season by site interaction ($F=3.026$, $df=6$, $P=0.041$; Figure 4B). The most numerous species was common side-blotched lizard (*Uta stansburiana*), present at all sites. We also detected tiger whiptail (*Aspidoscelis tigris*) at all sites. Both of these species have broad habitat requirements.

Ordination analysis

Plants. The distribution of sites in ordination space was related to stream flow permanence and urbanization. Dry sites formed discrete clusters from wetter sites along NMDS axis 1 (Figure 5A; flow, $P=0.001$). The environmental vector representing an urban component showed sites separating along NMDS axis 3 (Figure 5B; urban $P=0.01$). The PRS site clustered closely in ordination space with TRS as did the reference site (Tonto) with the accidentally restored site (Price; Figure 5A). The mixed-use restored site (B&M) formed its own discrete cluster. The NMDS analysis for plants had a stress level of 8.43% with three dimensions and a linear fit R^2 of 93.7 (Bray distance, square root and Wisconsin transformations, Oksanen *et al.*, 2013).

Birds. The NMDS for the bird community indicated that a three-dimensional solution best fit the data (stress = 12.64%,

linear fit $R^2=86.3$, Bray distance, square root transformation, Oksanen *et al.*, 2013; Figure 6A and B). NMDS axis 1 best described seasonal differences in the bird communities, with migratory waterfowl abundant during winter (i.e. northern shoveler, *Anas clypeata*; bufflehead, *Bucephala albeola*; gadwall, *Anas strepera*; and pied-billed grebe, *Podilymbus podiceps*; Figure 6A). NMDS axis 2 revealed structuring among the bird communities by the environmental vector representing flow with dry sites forming clusters from wetter sites (Figure 6B; flow $P < 0.001$). The non-urban reference (Tonto), restored (PRS), and accidentally restored (Price) sites clustered closely in ordination space (Figure 6B). Consistent with bird abundance results, the bird community of dry reaches had more species associated with human infrastructure (i.e. house sparrow, *Passer domesticus*; northern mockingbird, *Mimus polyglottos*; house finch, *C. mexicanus*; and mourning dove, *Z. macroura*). The bird community of the reference reach had greater numbers of specialist species such as riparian-associated species (brown-crested flycatcher, *M. tyrannulus*; yellow warbler, *Setophaga petechia*; and Lucy's warbler, *O. luciae*) and desert-associated species (ladder-backed woodpecker, *Picoides scalaris*, and phainopepla, *Phainopepla nitens*). Accidentally restored and actively restored sites had

Table IV. Total cover or abundance of plants and animals, and relative abundance by category, at seven reaches along the Salt River in central Arizona.

	Plant cover (three-season average)					Bird abundance					Herpetofauna abundance		
	Total	Hydric (%)	Mesic (%)	Xeric (%)	Total	Aquatic, marshland (%)	Riparian terrestrial (%)	Desert (%)	Urban, general (%)	Other (%)	Total (%)	Aquatic (amphib) (%)	Terrestrial (reptiles) (%)
Tonto	47	17	45	38	502	12	8	33	41	6	25	1	99
Base and Meridian Wildlife Area	9	46	14	39	605	14	23	14	40	10	38	0	100
Phoenix Rio	48	43	37	21	413	23	10	27	32	7	44	7	93
Salado	70	71	22	7	456	14	16	25	44	1	30	0	100
Salado	52	46	32	22	663	14	18	43	23	1	42	2	98
Price Ave 35	16	15	32	54	523	6	23	5	46	19	16	4	96
Price Ave 67	23	4	18	78	437	6	8	5	76	5	49	0	100

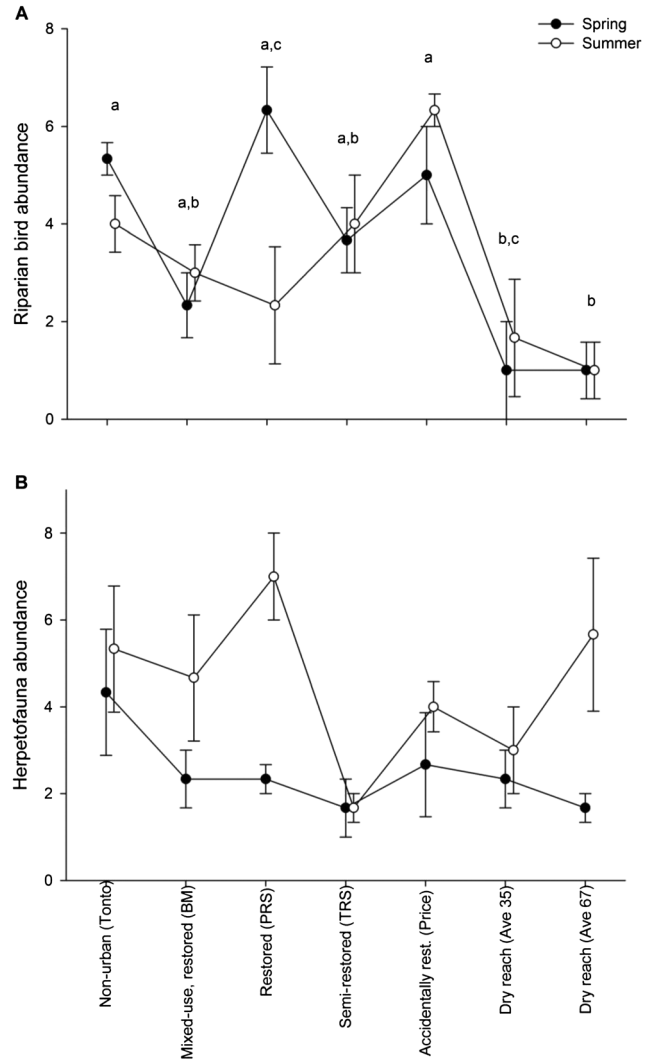


Figure 4. Abundance of (A) riparian birds and (B) abundance of amphibian and reptile species (herpetofauna) during spring and summer seasons sampled among seven river reaches. Both taxa abundance varied by season and bird abundance varied by site (indicated by letters).

the greatest overlap, reflecting underlying similarity in bird community composition.

Herpetofauna. The NMDS for herpetofauna indicated that a three-dimensional solution best fit the data (stress = 8.31%, linear fit $R^2 = 95.3$, Bray distance, Wisconsin transformation, Oksanen *et al.*, 2013; Figure 7). Habitat generalist species (tiger whiptails and common side-blotched lizards) were more associated with the urbanization gradient (Figure 7). The reference reach spans a continuum from wet stream edge to riparian terrace/desert upland and thus has wide spread on NMDS axis 1. Along NMDS axis 2, urban sites such as the restored (PRS), semi-restored (TRS), and accidentally restored (Price) sites cluster together and are dissimilar to the non-urban reference site.

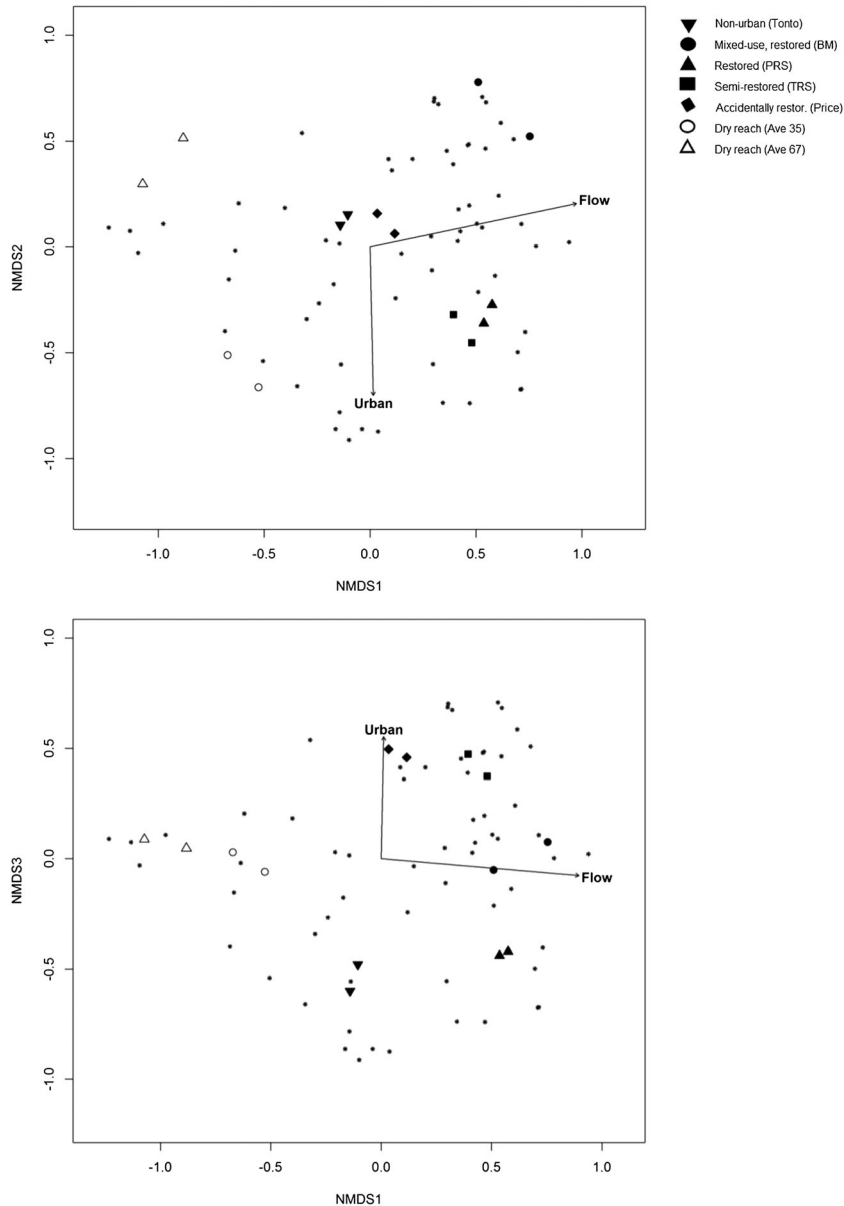


Figure 5. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) graph showing locations of seven vegetation sampling sites in each of two seasons (July and September). (A) NMDS axis 1 separates plant species (small dots) by flow permanence, and (B) NMDS axes 2 and 3 separate species by degree of urbanization.

DISCUSSION

Our multi-taxa approach provides an assessment of how urban riparian biotic communities compare among reaches that have been actively restored via planting and irrigation and those that have been accidentally restored by passive discharge of novel urban sources of water sufficient to create perennial stream flows. One major conclusion is that passive urban discharge along arid urban streams can provide the hydrologic conditions needed for establishing critical wetland and riparian habitat without other types of intervention or management. Importantly, the accidentally restored areas maintain a subset of the riparian-wetland complex – freshwater marshes – that is,

perhaps in the greatest need of regional restoration. Weisberg *et al.* (2013) note that riparian herbaceous wetlands have declined dramatically in the desert Southwest and have advocated for restoration of diverse and dynamic mosaics, including marshlands, as an alternative to a single-minded focus on tree establishment. Urbanization of the Salt River has inadvertently allowed for development of intermixed marshlands and riparian forests via the discharge of effluent and stormwater from outfalls that drain large urban catchments with extensive impermeable surfaces; these surface waters are confined within a comparatively deep and narrow cobble and silt-lined stream channel. Although the suite of plants at the rewetted sites colonize via multiple dispersal mechanisms

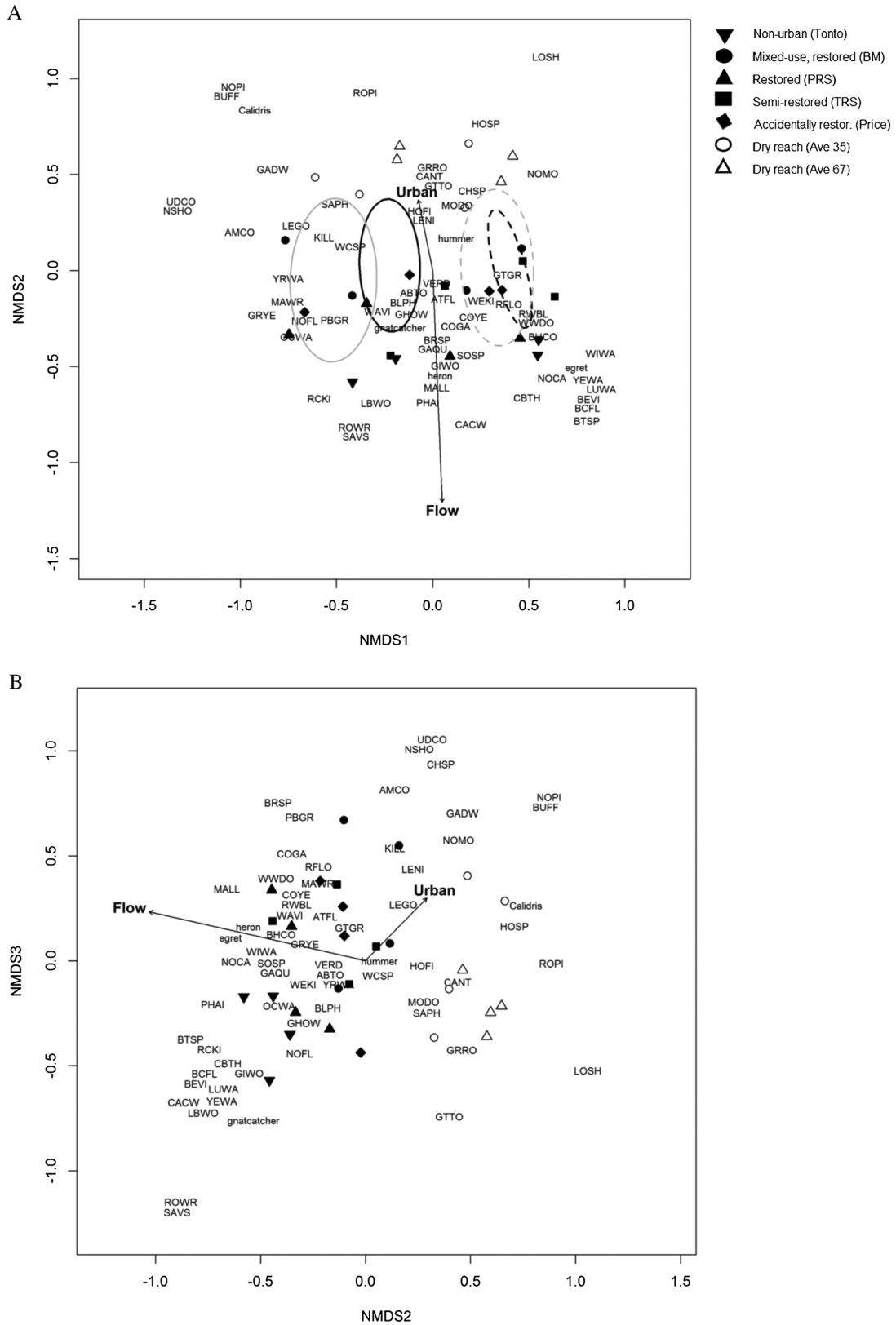


Figure 6. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS and SE ellipses) graphs for bird species (plotted as four-letter codes; Appendix 3) sampled among seven river reaches. (A) NMDS axis 1 separates bird species by season, with most waterfowl and marshland birds being abundant during winter (ellipses: fall is black, winter is grey, spring is grey dotted, and summer is black dotted). (B) NMDS axis 2 separates bird community by amount of flow, with urban dry sites most dissimilar to other reaches.

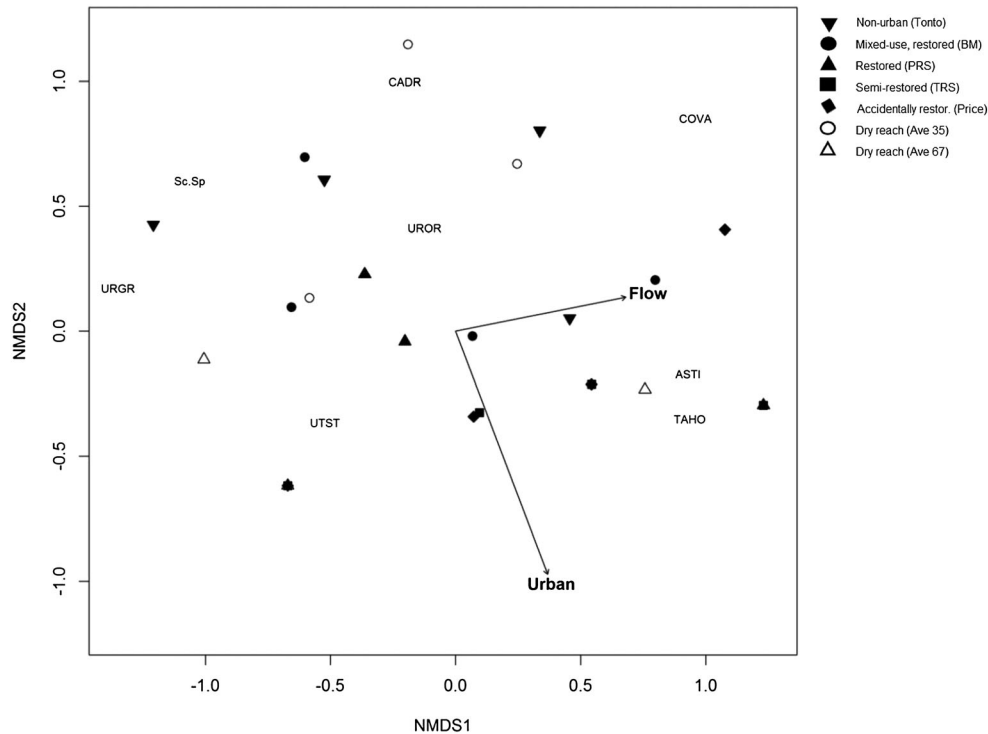


Figure 7. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) graph for herpetofauna species (plotted as four-letter codes; Appendix 4) sampled among seven river reaches.

(wind, animals, and water), near-surface water availability is critical to long-term survival, underscoring the importance of effluent and stormwater runoff as a restoration water source (Stromberg *et al.*, 2009; Kehr *et al.*, 2014). Providing means to secure these novel water sources and protect these freshwater habitats will benefit many species including migratory birds and herpetofauna (Trammell *et al.*, 2011; Scheffers and Paszkowski, 2013).

Another conclusion is that accidental and active restoration can serve as complementary approaches to river management. The actively restored reaches (B&M and PRS) differed from the accidentally restored (Price) areas in having greater richness of birds and herpetofauna (including arboreal reptiles), patterns that reflected the direct planting and irrigation of riparian trees. More generally, although many individual restoration projects fall short of their goals (Benayas *et al.*, 2009; Violin *et al.*, 2011), restoration may be successful when viewed through a larger lens. Although heavily engineered urban streams such as the Salt River often have low habitat diversity at any particular location, the presence of a range of stream conditions and management approaches over a river length can increase habitat diversity at the landscape scale (Gurnell *et al.*, 2012). Collectively, the actively restored and accidentally restored sites, as well as dry reaches, are contributing to a diverse riparian and wetland mosaic along the urbanized Salt River including pioneer riparian gallery forests and shrublands, marshlands, and xeroriparian

pioneer shrublands with desert-adapted wildlife. These results are similar to those of Aronson *et al.* (2014) who investigated plant and bird richness in 147 international cities and found that many species (a high percentage of which were native) do occupy urban habitats.

However, the reference reach differs in some significant ways from the urban reaches. It supported unique bird and plant species, the greatest herpetofauna species richness, and high total numbers of plant species. It also sustained a wide swath of mature *Prosopis* forests on high floodplains and river terraces (Haase, 1972). These patterns occurred because, unlike the channelized urbanized river sections, this reach retains lateral connectivity with the desert uplands. This finding can provide guidance for future restoration measures in the urban setting.

Consideration of seasonal changes of biodiversity is another important element in riparian management. Conservation and restoration of freshwater habitats must account for annual cycles and habitat use of terrestrial, riparian, and aquatic species (Dudgeon *et al.*, 2006). For example, we found that waterfowl and marshland birds used urban reaches to a greater extent during the winter, which is a time when many species overwinter in southern latitudes. With respect to plants, one guild of the riparian-zone plant community, cool-season annuals, was unexpectedly sparse at the restored reaches (and abundant elsewhere). This may have been a result of the soil bulldozing and disruption of soil seed banks that occurred during the active restoration phase. The seeds of such species do provide an important food source for many birds and mammals.

One major challenge facing aridland riparian systems will be managing both climate change and urban population growth. Climate change models show that, in general, relatively dry subtropical regions such as the American Southwest will experience a decrease in precipitation and become hotter (Seager *et al.*, 2007). In Arizona specifically, surface runoff, lateral flow, soil water, and groundwater recharge are expected to decrease significantly with some watershed discharges projected to decrease by 47% in the 2050s (Ye and Grimm, 2013). The combination of reduced available water supplies and increases in water demand will intensify the competition between human and ecological uses for water (Hall *et al.*, 2008; Loaiciga, 2009). Our results

underscore the importance of utilizing novel sources of water to preserve freshwater habitats along arid urban streams.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1. Photographs from seven reaches along the Salt River in central Arizona. Photo descriptions list reach type, location name, number in reference to Figure 1, elevation, and coordinates in latitude and longitude. Photos taken by M. Banville, except non-urban reference taken by E. Makings.



Non-urban reference site, Tonto National Forest, Map #1, 412 m, 33-558948°, -111-958754°



Restored Phoenix Rio Salado (PRS) Area, Map #4, 323 m, 33-422419°, -112-075205°



Mixed-use, restored Base and Meridian Wildlife Area (B&M), Map #7, 286 m, 33.384375°, -112°303177°



Accidentally restored, Price Drain (Price), Map #2, 360 m,
33·437428°, -111·887722°



Semi-restored Tempe Rio Salado (TRS), Map #3, 347 m,
33·434910°, -111·958754°



Dry reach, 35th Avenue (Ave 35), Map #5, 312 m,
33·411469°, -112·133450°



Dry reach, 67th Avenue (Ave 67), Map #6, 300 m,
33·395838°, -112·204064

APPENDIX 2. Species list for plants sampled in quadrats along the Salt River in central Arizona. Sites included urban reaches and a non-urban reference site.

Scientific name	Family
<i>Acacia constricta</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Acacia greggii</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Acacia stenophylla</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Amaranthus albus</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Ambrosia ambrosioides</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Ambrosia eriocentra</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Amsinckia menziesii</i> var. <i>intermedia</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Aristida purpurea</i>	Poaceae
<i>Atriplex elegans</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Atriplex lentiformis</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Atriplex polycarpa</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Azolla filiculoides</i>	Azollaceae

(Continues)

Appendix 2. Continued

<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Baccharis sarothroides</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Bebbia juncea</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Boerhavia coccinea</i>	Nyctaginaceae
<i>Boerhavia coulteri</i>	Nyctaginaceae
<i>Boerhavia erecta</i>	Nyctaginaceae
<i>Bouteloua aristidoides</i>	Poaceae
<i>Bouteloua curtipendula</i>	Poaceae
<i>Brassica tournefortii</i>	Brassicaceae
<i>Bromus rubens</i>	Poaceae
<i>Calandrinia ciliata</i>	Portulacaceae
<i>Calibrachoa parviflora</i>	Solanaceae
<i>Camissonia californica</i>	Onagraceae
<i>Ceratophyllum demersum</i>	Ceratophyllaceae
<i>Chaenactis stevioides</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Euphorbia albomarginata</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Euphorbia hyssopifolia</i>	Euphorbiaceae

(Continues)

Appendix 2. (Continued)

<i>Euphorbia maculata</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Euphorbia micromera</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Euphorbia polycarpa</i> var. <i>hirtella</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Chenopodium berlandieri</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Chilopsis linearis</i>	Bignoniaceae
<i>Chorizanthe brevicornu</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Cotula australis</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Crassula connata</i>	Crassulaceae
<i>Cryptantha angustifolia</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Cryptantha barbiger</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Cryptantha decipiens</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Cryptantha maritima</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Cryptantha muricata</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Cylindropuntia fulgida</i>	Cactaceae
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	Poaceae
<i>Cyperus elegans</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperus eragrostis</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperus involucratus</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperus odoratus</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperus oxylepis</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Datura wrightii</i>	Solanaceae
<i>Dicoria canescens</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Distichlis spicata</i>	Poaceae
<i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i>	Poaceae
<i>Eclipta prostrata</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Eleocharis geniculata</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Encelia farinosa</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Eriogonum deflexum</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Erodium cicutarium</i>	Geraniaceae
<i>Eustoma exaltatum</i>	Gentianaceae
<i>Funastrum cynanchoides</i> ssp. <i>heterophyllum</i>	Apocynaceae
<i>Gilia</i> sp.	Polemoniaceae
<i>Hedynois cretica</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Heliotropium curassavicum</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Herniaria hirsuta</i>	Caryophyllaceae
<i>Heterotheca subaxillaris</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Hordeum murinum</i>	Poaceae
<i>Hydrocotyle verticillata</i>	Apiaceae
<i>Hymenoclea monogyra</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Hymenoclea salsola</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Lactuca serriola</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Larrea tridentata</i>	Zygophyllaceae
<i>Lemna</i> sp.	Araceae
<i>Lepidium lasiocarpum</i>	Brassicaceae
<i>Lepidium virginicum</i>	Brassicaceae
<i>Leptochloa fusca</i> ssp. <i>uninervia</i>	Poaceae
<i>Logfia arizonica</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Ludwigia peploides</i>	Onagraceae
<i>Lycium andersonii</i>	Solanaceae
<i>Lythrum californicum</i>	Lythraceae
<i>Malva parviflora</i>	Malvaceae
<i>Melilotus indica</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Mentzelia albicaulis</i>	Loasaceae
<i>Najas marina</i>	Najadaceae
<i>Nicotiana obtusifolia</i>	Solanaceae
<i>Oncosiphon piluliferum</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Opuntia</i> sp.	Cactaceae
<i>Parkinsonia aculeata</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Parkinsonia florida</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Pectocarya heterocarpa</i>	Boraginaceae

(Continues)

Appendix 2. (Continued)

<i>Pectocarya platycarpa</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Pectocarya recurvata</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Pennisetum ciliare</i>	Poaceae
<i>Pennisetum setaceum</i>	Poaceae
<i>Phacelia crenulata</i> var. <i>ambigua</i>	Hydrophyllaceae
<i>Phalaris minor</i>	Poaceae
<i>Phoradendron californicum</i>	Santalaceae
<i>Arundo donax</i>	Poaceae
<i>Plagiobothrys arizonicus</i>	Boraginaceae
<i>Plantago ovata</i>	Plantaginaceae
<i>Pluchea odorata</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Pluchea sericea</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Polanisia dodecandra</i>	Capparaceae
<i>Polygonum aviculare</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Persicaria bicornis</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Polygonum persicaria</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Polypogon monspeliensis</i>	Poaceae
<i>Populus fremontii</i>	Salicaceae
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i>	Portulacaceae
<i>Potamogeton</i> sp.	Potamogetonaceae
<i>Prosopis chilensis</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Prosopis pubescens</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Prosopis velutina</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Pseudognaphalium luteoalbum</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Pseudognaphalium stramineum</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Ricinus communis</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Rumex dentatus</i>	Polygonaceae
<i>Salix gooddingii</i>	Salicaceae
<i>Salsola kali</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Samolus parviflorus</i>	Primulaceae
<i>Schismus arabicus</i>	Poaceae
<i>Schoenoplectus acutus</i>	Cyperaceae
<i>Senna covesii</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Sesbania herbacea</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Sesuvium verrucosum</i>	Aizoaceae
<i>Sisymbrium irio</i>	Brassicaceae
<i>Solanum elaeagnifolium</i>	Solanaceae
<i>Sonchus asper</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Sonchus oleraceus</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Sorghum halepense</i>	Poaceae
<i>Sporobolus airoides</i>	Poaceae
<i>Sporobolus</i> sp.	Poaceae
<i>Sporobolus wrightii</i>	Poaceae
<i>Stemodia durantifolia</i>	Plantaginaceae
<i>Stephanomeria pauciflora</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Stuckenia</i> sp.	Potamogetonaceae
<i>Stylocline micropoides</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Symphotrichum expansum</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Tamarix ramosissima</i>	Tamaricaceae
<i>Tidestromia lanuginosa</i>	Amaranthaceae
<i>Trianthema portulacastrum</i>	Aizoaceae
<i>Tribulus terrestris</i>	Zygophyllaceae
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Poaceae
<i>Typha domingensis</i>	Typhaceae
<i>Veronica anagallis-aquatica</i>	Plantaginaceae
<i>Vitex agnus-castus</i>	Verbenaceae
<i>Vulpia octoflora</i>	Poaceae
<i>Washingtonia filifera</i>	Arecaceae
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i>	Asteraceae
<i>Zannichellia palustris</i>	Potamogetonaceae

(Continues)

APPENDIX 3. Species list for birds seen along the Salt River in central Arizona. Bird species are categorized by major habitat type. Riparian (R) species are terrestrial birds associated (not obligate) with floodplain vegetation (e.g. cottonwood, willow, and mesquite). Aquatic (W) species are birds associated with marshlands or bodies of water (such as waders, ducks, and herons). Desert (D) birds are species associated with shrubs and cacti of the Sonoran Desert. Urban (U) species are habitat generalists or associated with human habitation and structures (such as exotic perching birds, swallows, and grackle).

Species codes	Common name	Scientific name	Group	Exotic
ABTO	Abert's towhee	<i>Melospiza aberti</i>	D	
AMCO	American coot	<i>Fulica americana</i>	W	
AMKE	American kestrel	<i>Falco sparverius</i>		
ANHU	Anna's hummingbird	<i>Calypte anna</i>	R	
ATFL	Ash-throated flycatcher	<i>Myiarchus cinerascens</i>	R	
AWPE	American white pelican	<i>Pelecanus erythrorhynchos</i>	W	
BAEA	Bald eagle	<i>Haliaeetus leucocephalus</i>	W	
BARS	Barn swallow	<i>Hirundo rustica</i>	U	
BCFL	Brown-crested flycatcher	<i>Myiarchus tyrannulus</i>	D	
BCHU	Black-chinned hummingbird	<i>Archilochus alexandri</i>	R	
BCNH	Black-crowned night heron	<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i>	W	
BEKI	Belted kingfisher	<i>Megasceryle alcyon</i>	W	
BETH	Bendire's thrasher	<i>Toxostoma bendirei</i>	D	
BEVI	Bell's vireo	<i>Vireo bellii</i>	R	
BHCO	Brown-headed cowbird	<i>Molothrus ater</i>	U	
BLGR	Blue grosbeak	<i>Passerina caerulea</i>	R	
BLPH	Black phoebe	<i>Sayornis nigricans</i>	W	
BLVU	Black vulture	<i>Coragyps atratus</i>		
BNST	Black-necked stilt	<i>Himantopus mexicanus</i>	W	
BRBL	Brewer's blackbird	<i>Euphagus cyanocephalus</i>		
BRSP	Brewer's sparrow	<i>Spizella breweri</i>		
BTGN	Black-tailed gnatcatcher	<i>Poliophtila melanura</i>	D	
BTSP	Black-throated sparrow	<i>Amphispiza bilineata</i>	D	
BUFF	Bufflehead	<i>Bucephala albeola</i>	W	
CACW	Cactus wren	<i>Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus</i>	D	
CANT	Canyon towhee	<i>Melospiza fusca</i>	D	
CANV	Canvasback	<i>Aythya valisineria</i>	W	
CBTH	Curve-billed thrasher	<i>Toxostoma curvirostre</i>	D	
CHSP	Chipping sparrow	<i>Spizella passerina</i>		
CLSW	Cliff swallow	<i>Petrochelidon pyrrhonota</i>	U	
COGA	Common gallinule	<i>Gallinula galeata</i>	W	
COHA	Cooper's hawk	<i>Accipiter cooperii</i>		
COME	Common merganser	<i>Mergus merganser</i>	W	
CORA	Common raven	<i>Corvus corax</i>		
COYE	Common yellowthroat	<i>Geothlypis trichas</i>	R	
DCCO	Double-crested cormorant	<i>Phalacrocorax auritus</i>	W	
EUCD	Eurasian collared-dove	<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>	U	E
EUST	European starling	<i>Sturnus vulgaris</i>	U	E
GADW	Gadwall	<i>Anas strepera</i>	W	
GAQU	Gambel's quail	<i>Callipepla gambelii</i>	D	
GBHE	Great blue heron	<i>Ardea herodias</i>	W	
GHOW	Great horned owl	<i>Bubo virginianus</i>		
GIWO	Gila woodpecker	<i>Melanerpes uropygialis</i>	D	
GREG	Great egret	<i>Ardea alba</i>	W	
GRHE	Green heron	<i>Butorides virescens</i>	W	
GRRO	Greater roadrunner	<i>Geococcyx californianus</i>	D	
GRYE	Greater yellowlegs	<i>Tringa melanoleuca</i>	W	
GTGR	Great-tailed grackle	<i>Quiscalus mexicanus</i>	U	
GTTO	Green-tailed towhee	<i>Pipilo chlorurus</i>		
HOFI	House finch	<i>Carpodacus mexicanus</i>	U	
HOOR	Hooded oriole	<i>Icterus cucullatus</i>	R	
HOSP	House sparrow	<i>Passer domesticus</i>	U	E
INDO	Inca dove	<i>Columbina inca</i>	U	
KILL	Killdeer	<i>Charadrius vociferus</i>	W	

(Continues)

Appendix 3. (Continued)

Species codes	Common name	Scientific name	Group	Exotic
LASP	Lark sparrow	<i>Chondestes grammacus</i>		
LBWO	Ladder-backed woodpecker	<i>Picoides scalaris</i>	D	
LEGO	Lesser goldfinch	<i>Spinus psaltria</i>	R	
LENI	Lesser nighthawk	<i>Chordeiles acutipennis</i>		
LESA	Least sandpiper	<i>Calidris minutilla</i>	W	
LOSH	Loggerhead shrike	<i>Lanius ludovicianus</i>		
LUWA	Lucy's warbler	<i>Oreothlypis luciae</i>	R	
MALL	Mallard	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	W	
MAWR	Marsh wren	<i>Cistothorus palustris</i>	W	
MERL	Merlin	<i>Falco columbarius</i>		
MODO	Mourning dove	<i>Zenaida macroura</i>	U	
NECO	Neotropic cormorant	<i>Phalacrocorax brasilianus</i>	W	
NOCA	Northern cardinal	<i>Cardinalis cardinalis</i>		
NOFL	Northern flicker	<i>Colaptes auratus</i>	U	
NOHA	Northern harrier	<i>Circus cyaneus</i>		
NOMO	Northern mockingbird	<i>Mimus polyglottos</i>	U	
NOPI	Northern pintail	<i>Anas acuta</i>	W	
NRWS	Northern rough-winged swallow	<i>Stelgidopteryx serripennis</i>	U	
NSHO	Northern shoveler	<i>Anas clypeata</i>	W	
OCWA	Orange-crowned warbler	<i>Oreothlypis celata</i>	R	
OSPR	Osprey	<i>Pandion haliaetus</i>	W	
PBGR	Pied-billed grebe	<i>Podilymbus podiceps</i>	W	
PFLB	Peach-faced lovebird	<i>Agapornis roseicollis</i>	U	E
PHAI	Phainopepla	<i>Phainopepla nitens</i>	D	
RCKI	Ruby-crowned kinglet	<i>Regulus calendula</i>	R	
ROPI	Rock pigeon	<i>Columba livia</i>	U	E
ROWR	Rock wren	<i>Salpinctes obsoletus</i>	D	
RTHA	Red-tailed hawk	<i>Buteo jamaicensis</i>		
RWBL	Red-winged blackbird	<i>Agelaius phoeniceus</i>	W	
SAPH	Say's phoebe	<i>Sayornis saya</i>	U	
SAVS	Savannah sparrow	<i>Passerculus sandwichensis</i>		
SNEG	Snowy egret	<i>Egretta thula</i>	W	
SOSP	Song sparrow	<i>Melospiza melodia</i>	R	
SPSA	Spotted Sandpiper	<i>Actitis macularius</i>	W	
SSHA	Sharp-shinned hawk	<i>Accipiter striatus</i>		
TUVU	Turkey vulture	<i>Cathartes aura</i>		
VEFL	Vermilion flycatcher	<i>Pyrocephalus rubinus</i>	R	
VERD	Verdin	<i>Auriparus flaviceps</i>	D	
WAVI	Warbling vireo	<i>Vireo gilvus</i>	R	
WCSP	White-crowned sparrow	<i>Zonotrichia leucophrys</i>		
WEKI	Western kingbird	<i>Tyrannus verticalis</i>		
WEME	Western meadowlark	<i>Sturnella neglecta</i>		
WEWP	Western wood-pewee	<i>Contopus sordidulus</i>		
WFIB	White-faced ibis	<i>Plegadis chihi</i>		
WISN	Wilson's snipe	<i>Gallinago delicata</i>	W	
WIWA	Wilson's warbler	<i>Cardellina pusilla</i>	R	
WWDO	White-winged dove	<i>Zenaida asiatica</i>	D	
YEWA	Yellow warbler	<i>Setophaga petechia</i>	R	
YHBL	Yellow-headed blackbird	<i>Xanthocephalus xanthocephalus</i>	W	
YRWA	Yellow-rumped warbler	<i>Setophaga coronata</i>	R	

APPENDIX 4. Species list for species of amphibians and reptiles observed along the Salt River in central Arizona (T are species detected along survey transects or S only in study site). Species codes used in ordination figures represent scientific name, except when species were combined (e.g. spiny included desert spiny lizards and any unknown *Sceloporus* species).

Species codes	Scientific name	Common name	Sighting	Exotic
Toad	<i>Anaxyrus punctatus</i>	Red-spotted toad	T	
Toad	<i>Anaxyrus woodhousii</i>	Woodhouse's toad	T	
LICA	<i>Lithobates catesbeiana</i>	American bullfrog	T	E
ASTI	<i>Aspidoscelis tigris</i>	Tiger whiptail	T	
CADR	<i>Callisaurus draconoides</i>	Zebra-tailed lizard	T	
COVA	<i>Coleonyx variegatus</i>	Western banded gecko	T	
DIDO	<i>Dipsosaurus dorsalis</i>	Desert iguana	S	
Spiny	<i>Sceloporus magister</i>	Desert spiny lizard	T	
URGR	<i>Urosaurus graciosus</i>	Long-tailed brush lizard	T	
UROR	<i>Urosaurus ornatus</i>	Ornate tree lizard	T	
UTST	<i>Uta stansburiana</i>	Common side-blotched lizard	T	
CRAT	<i>Crotalus atrox</i>	Western diamondback rattlesnake	S	
LAGE	<i>Lampropeltis getula</i>	Common kingsnake	S	
TAHO	<i>Tantilla hobartsmithi</i>	Smith's black-headed snake	T	
TRSC	<i>Trachemys scripta</i>	Pond slider	S	E

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