COMPARATIVE USE OF MODIFIED AND NATURAL HABITATS OF THE UPPER YELLOWSTONE RIVER BY JUVENILE SALMONIDS

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INSIDE BEND

STRAIGHT

OUTSIDE BEND

RIPRAP

BARB JETTY

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by

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March 2003

The Montana Cooperative Fishery Research Unit is jointly supported by the U.S. Geological Survey, Montana State University– Bozeman, and the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife and Parks. This report has not been review ed for conformity w ith U.S. Geological Survey editorial standards. Any use of trade product or firm names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government, Montana State University, or the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife and Parks. The analyses and recommendations in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the policies of the U.S. Government, Montana State University, or the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife and Parks.

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Abstract: We compared juvenile salmonid use of stabilized main-channel banks (riprap, barbs, jetties) of the upper Yellowstone River to their use of natural, unaltered habitats by electrofishing in spring, summer, and fall, 2001 and 2002. Use of barbs and jetties w as similar to that of natural outside bends, and use of riprap sections was higher than that of outside bends. Artificially-placed boulders and shoreline irregularities associated w ith the stabilized banks likely attracted juvenile salmonids. Bank stabilization did not *directly* decrease quality or quantity of juvenile salmonid habitat along the main channel of the upper Yellowstone River; indirect, geomorphically derived effects of bank stabilization on fish habitat w ere not examined. We also estimated abundances of juvenile salmonids in ephemeral lateral side channels during high discharge associated with spring runoff to determine if and to what extent juvenile salmonids used side channels. The average 50-m side-channel sample unit (250.8 m²) contained about 6.3 juvenile trout (all species) and 15.2 juvenile salmonids (trout plus mountain w hitefish). Because of low-water conditions during both years of the study, the side channels w ere inundated for only about 3 to 10 days in 2001 and 1 to 3 w eeks in 2002. The rapidity w ith w hich these habitats w ere colonized during the brief periods they w ere available suggests that juvenile fish positively selected for these habitats. Habitat modifications that reduce the frequency and duration of inundation of side channels, or reduce side-channel formation rates, or directly preclude inundation or accessibility of side channels would likely decrease juvenile fish habitat and possibly recruitment.

Key words: riprap, barb, jetty, bank stabilization, side channel, trout, salmonid

Introduction

Bank stabilization, flow deflection, and flow confinement structures are common features of the upper Yellow stone River in Montana. The reach extending from Gardiner to Springdale includes 18.9 km of dikes and levees, 33.7 km of riprap, and 276 deflection structures (Chuck Dalby, Montana Department of Natural Resources and Conservation, personal communication). The goal of our study w as to assess the extent to which changes in aquatic habitats caused by bank stabilization, flow deflection, and flow confinement structures affect juvenile salmonid habitat in the upper Yellow stone River. In main-channel riverine habitats, juvenile salmonids

require and are largely restricted to shallow, low -velocity habitats associated with streambanks. Lateral side channels, backw aters, off-channel pools, and tributaries are important nursery habitats not associated with main channels. Our first objective was to compare seasonal juvenile fish use of altered main-channel habitat types to their use of natural, unaltered main-channel habitats to allow assessment of past and future effects of habitat modifications on the fishery resource of the Yellowstone River. Our second objective was to estimate abundances of juvenile salmonids in ephemeral lateral side channels during high discharge associated with spring runoff. We determined if and to what extent juvenile salmonids used side channels to allow estimation of how many fish are displaced w hen a side channel is disconnected or dew atered as a result of bank stabilization. Both objectives were designed to provide information for the concurrent fish habitat study conducted by Zachary H. Bow en, Ken D. Bovee, and Terry J. Waddle of the U.S. Geological Survey Fort Collins Science Center.

Bank stabilization structures include riprap revetments, flow deflection devices such as barbs, jetties, spur dikes, and fish groins, and flow confinement structures such as berms, levees, or dikes. Riprap revetments are bank-stabilization structures constructed with boulders, broken concrete or similar erosion-resistant materials (Sandheinrich and Atchison 1986). The materials can range in size from mediumsized cobble (12-15 cm in diameter) to round or angular boulders as large as 3 m in diameter; angular boulders are typically used along the Yellow stone River. Jetties, spur dikes, rock deflectors, and w ingdams are all rock flow -deflection structures with rocks oriented perpendicular to the water flow or angled downstream. Barbs are rock structures oriented upstream w ith their height not exceeding the w ater surface at bankfull discharge (Buddy Drake, Drake and Associates, personal communication). Deflectors have been used widely for fish habitat restoration and bank stabilization and provide diverse fish habitats superior to continuous revetment or riprap (Elser 1968; Witten and Bulkley 1975; Li et al. 1984; Knight and Cooper 1991; Shields et al. 1995) because they create scour holes at their riverward tips, produce slow -w ater habitat immediately adjacent to the mainstream, and form a complex of depth-velocity-bed type combinations not found adjacent to continuous riprap (Beckett et al. 1983; Li et al. 1984; Baker et al. 1988).

In the spring, many w estern U.S. rivers and streams experience high discharge fed by snow melt from high mountain tributaries. Juvenile fish can be flushed long distances dow nstream in river mainstems during periods of high discharge (Vanderford 1980; Ottaway and Clarke 1981; Ottaway and Forest 1983). Temporary or ephemeral side channels that flow during high discharge are believed to be important habitats for juvenile fish during high flow s because they offer shallow, low -velocity refuge, largely not available in the main channel (Orsborn 1990). More permanent secondary channels and backw aters that flow over a w ider range of discharges are likely even more critical to fish diversity and production, as they provide w ater velocities, depths, and substrates not present in the main river channels over longer time periods (Hjort et al. 1984). Backw aters, off-channel pools, side channels, and tributaries are important for young fish for both rearing and winter habitat (Ragland 1974; Bustard and Narver 1975; Ellis et al. 1979; Tschaplinski and Hartman 1983; Sedell et al. 1984; Hartman and Brow n 1987; Mesick 1995). Loss of these habitats w ould be expected to adversely affect abundances of juvenile fish by limiting recruitment and increasing emigration to dow nstream sections of the river (Orsborn 1990). Side channels can be lost or dew atered by main channel incision resulting from bank stabilization, dewatered by berms or dikes, or prevented from forming by stabilization or modification of main channel banks (Vanderford 1980; Hjort et al. 1984; Dister et al. 1990). Dike or berm structures that block or severely restrict flow through secondary channels produce habitats in w hich the biotic communities are much different from areas that remain flow ing (Baker et al. 1987). They restrict migration betw een the side and main channels, and can change habitat in the side channels to the degree that they are no longer good fish habitat (Baker et al. 1987).

A literature review on the effects of bank stabilization structures on fish and their habitat conducted at the beginning of this study is reproduced in Appendix 2 of this report.

Objectives

Few studies have examined the effects of bank stabilization on fish distribution and their associated habitats in more than one season or year or at more than a handful of sites. Because of the shortage of long-term, large-scale studies pertaining to juvenile use of particular bank habitats during seasonal changes, and because existing studies provide contradictory or inconsistent findings (Appendix 2), conclusive determinations about how shoreline modifications affect juvenile salmonids cannot be made. Our comparative-use study w as designed to help address this deficiency, specifically for juvenile salmonids in the upper Yellow stone River. We also examined juvenile salmonid abundances in ephemeral side channels of the upper Yellowstone River during runoff to assess their importance in this system. Abundance estimates may allow estimation of how many fish are displaced when a side channel is cut-off or dew atered as a result of stabilization projects. Main-channel stream banks and lateral channels are the habitats directly affected by bank stabilization structures.

We focused on juvenile salmonids because juvenile abundances and survival rates typically regulate adult abundances and because this life stage requires and is largely restricted to shallow , low velocity habitats associated w ith main-channel stream banks and lateral channels (Peters et al. 1998; Bradford and Higgins 2001), in addition to off-channel backw aters, pools, and tributaries. New ly emerged salmonids occupy slow w ater at the edge of stream channels (Keenleyside 1962; Chapman 1966; Lister and Genoe 1970). Juvenile salmonids conceal in rocky

substrates during the day (Keith et al. 1998; Dare et al. 2002) and in w inter (Rimmer et al. 1983; Conner et al. 2002; Dare et al. 2002). Juvenile salmonids avoid velocities greater than 11 cm/sec and are typically found at depths less than 30 cm (Li et al. 1984). This has been noted especially along main channels of large rivers where virtually all age-0 trout w ere w ithin a few meters of the edge of the w ater (Contor 1989; Schrader and Grisw old 1992; Griffith and Smith 1993). Such behavior appears to be a combined response of selecting positions of low velocity and proximity to cover on low er gradient stream reaches. Because of their narrow and specific habitat requirements, juvenile fish assemblages are good indicators of habitat structure and the ecological integrity of large river systems (Schiemer et al. 1991).

Specific objectives of our study w ere to:

- 1. Compare juvenile salmonid use of altered bank habitats to use of natural, unaltered bank habitats on the upper Yellow stone River; and
- 2. Determine juvenile salmonid use of lateral, ephemeral side-channel habitats during periods of high run-off on the upper Yellowstone River.

Study Area

Our study area encompassed parts of the upper Yellow stone River from the Mallard's Rest Fishing Access in Paradise Valley 16 km south of Livingston to the Mayor's Landing Fishing Access on the east end of Livingston (Figure 1). The study area w as divided into tw o primary reaches, designated Study Reaches 1 and 2, respectively. Study Reach 1 (segments 7 and 8 in the Upper Yellow stone River Physical Features Inventory Report; USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service and Montana Department of Environmental Quality 1998) extended from Mallard's Rest to about 450 meters upstream from the mouth of Nelson's Spring Creek (Figures 2 and 3), a distance of 10.7 river km (6.7 miles), but w ith a 2.4-km reach (1.5 miles) omitted from Pine Creek Bridge dow nstream. This reach was omitted to meet total river-length limitations of the concurrent fish habitat study conducted by the USGS Fort Collins Science Center. Study Reach 2 (segments 9 and 10 in the Upper Yellow stone River Physical Features Inventory Report) extended from Carter' s Bridge Fishing Access to Mayor's Landing (Figure 4). This reach w as about 8.1 river km long (5.0 miles). The total distance of the tw o reaches w as about 16.4 river km (10.2 miles). The diverse array of bank habitats, their proximity to each other, and the river access points made these segments the preferred study reaches. Native salmonid species in the study area are Yellow stone cutthroat trout *(Oncorhynchus clarki bouvieri)* and mountain w hitefish *(Prosopium w illiamsoni).* Nonnative salmonids are rainbow trout *(O. mykiss),* brow n trout *(Salmo trutta)* and brook trout *(Salvelinus fontinalis).*

Methods

Comparative Use Study

Sample sites w ere 50-m long reaches of shoreline selected using a stratifiedrandom sampling design (Brown and Austen 1996). All riverbanks w ithin each reach w ere stratified according to shoreline type as either inside bends (point bars), outside bends, straight segments, riprap, jetties, or barbs. Shoreline types and stabilization structures were identified using aerial photos, maps, and on-site inspection. Each reach of continuous shoreline type (unaltered banks and riprap) w as divided into numbered 50-m sites. Deflection structures (barbs and jetties) w ere numbered and partitioned into 50-m long sites w ith the deflection structure at the center of the site. Sample sites w ere selected randomly w ithin each reach from the entire set of possible sites of each bank type in each reach. An exception to this w as that some natural outside-bend habitats in Reach 1 w ere excluded because they w ere impossible to sample safely during spring. These sites had high w ater velocities and steep banks that could not be negotiated on foot. We sampled four such 50-m sites in summer to assess their value as juvenile fish habitat, but captured only one juvenile trout therein. We believe the exclusion of these sites did not affect the validity of our findings.

Eight sites of each of the 6 bank types were selected in Reach 1 (Figures 2 and 3). Six sites of each type were randomly chosen in Reach 2 (Figure 4). Sites were assigned a reach-specific number and located using UTM coordinates (Table 1). We used the same set of sites during each sampling season during both years of the study (2001 and 2002).

Sampling was conducted during three functional seasons (spring, summer, and fall) each year to assess seasonal habitat-use patterns. Habitat use may change over time as a function of fish size and changing physiological needs (Hunt 1969; Tschaplinski and Hartman 1983; Rimmer et al. 1984; Bisson et al. 1988). Sampling seasons were as follow s:

Spring: prior to runoff (April 1 to May 15); Summer: during summer low flow (July 1 to August 31); and Fall: as w ater temperatures declined and fish shifted to w intering habitats (October 1 to November 21).

We sampled all 48 sites in Reach 1 during all 6 seasons of the study. All 36 sites in Reach 2 w ere sampling in both spring and both summer seasons, but w inter conditions prevented us from completing all sites there during both fall seasons (Table 1). Only 12 sites w ere sampled in fall 2001 (2 of each bank type) and 26 sites were sampled in fall 2002 (4 inside bends, straight sites, jetties, and barbs; 5 outside bends and riprap sites). Overall, we sampled 14 replicates of each of 6

bank types, in tw o river reaches, in six seasons over tw o years (470 samples).

Fish were sampled using an aluminum drift boat outfitted for electrofishing with a Coffelt VVP-15 electrofishing unit and a gasoline-powered generator. A hand-held mobile electrode, 2.5 m in length w ith a 10-cm diameter anode ring, w as connected to the electrofishing unit w ith 33 m of electric cable. The aluminum driftboat functioned as the cathode. Current w as smooth DC at 200 volts. This setup is considered the most efficient for capturing juvenile fish in large streams (Copp 1989). A team of three operators sampled fish, moving upstream from the lower end of each 50-m site to the upper end. One person operated the hand-held electrode, a second person netted stunned fish and deposited them in the boat's livewell, and a third person maneuvered the drift boat along the bank. Because juvenile salmonids inhabit only shallow w ater, w e sampled only depths less than about 55 cm. Few juvenile salmonids w ere captured in trial runs in w ater deeper than 60 cm, except in scour holes immediately adjacent to the upstream sides of barbs and jetties, and among large boulders in riprap, all of w hich w e sampled throughout the study. All fish captured at each site were temporarily anesthetized w ith clove oil and identified to species. Salmonids w ere enumerated and measured (mm total length). Almost all fish w ere immediately returned to the river alive; some small rainbow and cutthroat trout could not be definitively identified in the field and w ere preserved for conclusive identification in the laboratory.

We considered only juvenile salmonids in our analyses. These included fish from the 2000 year class in spring 2001, the 2001 year class in summer and fall 2001 and spring 2002, and the 2002 year class in summer and fall 2002. Lengthfrequency distributions were constructed for each species during each sampling season and year in each reach to establish maximum lengths that encompassed the appropriate year classes (DeVries and Frie 1996). Fish longer than these maximum lengths were excluded from further consideration. Although we had originally intended to consider all fishes in our analyses, we subsequently limited our investigation to salmonids because other species were too numerous to allow completion of our sampling design; our examination of non-salmonids w as limited and cursory.

Fish abundances w ere expressed as the number of juveniles captured at each 50-m site during a single electrofishing pass. Significant differences among naturallogarithm transformed mean abundances of fish at different bank types w ere tested using analysis of variance (SAS version 8.2). Bank type, season, reach, and year w ere considered class variables. Tukey's multiple comparisons test w as used to distinguish habitats in w hich abundances were significantly different. For all tests, significance was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. Primary comparisons of interest were betw een outside bends and the stabilized banks. Fish abundances tend to be highest at natural outside banks (White 1991) and bank stabilization structures are typically built on outside bends because lateral erosion is greatest there. Sampling of inside

bends and straight sections w as performed primarily to insure comprehensive coverage of all available bank types.

A potential problem w ith our approach is that it depends on equal catchability of fish inhabiting different habitats. For example, if fish found along a natural outside bend were more, or less, catchable by one-pass electrofishing than fish inhabiting riprap, then one-pass catches in these habitats w ould not be directly comparable as indicators of fish abundance. We therefore conducted 3 or 4-pass depletion sampling at a subset of sample sites (2 inside bends, 2 straight sites, 4 outside bends, 4 riprap sites, 4 barbs, and 5 jetties) in summer to calculate capture probabilities in each of the bank types. Capture probabilities w ere calculated using the maximum-likelihood generalized removal estimator (Otis et al. 1978) using the computer program CAPTURE (White et al. 1982) and compared among bank types using analysis of variance (SAS version 8.2).

Habitat parameters were recorded within the area sampled for fish at each sample site (less than 55 cm deep or w ithin 1 m of the shoreline). These included w ater velocity, w ater depth, sample-area w idth, and substrate. Measurements w ere recorded at 1-m intervals along 6 equally-spaced transects 10 m apart extending perpendicularly out from shore at the continuous-shoreline sites (natural banks and riprap). At deflection structures, 7 transects w ere located 12.5 and 25 m upstream and downstream from the center of each structure, at the offshore tip of the structure, and at the 2 junctions of the structure with the shoreline. Substrates w ere classified according to a modified Wentw orth particle-size scale as follow s: large boulder > 512 mm diameter; small boulder 256-512 mm; cobble 64-256 mm; pebble 4-64 mm; gravel 2-4 mm; fines < 2 mm.

Side Channel Study

Ephemeral side channels in both reaches (Figures 2, 3, and 4; Table 2) were located using aerial photos, advice of local experts, and site visits. We defined ephemeral side channels as those that flow ed during spring runoff and not during other seasons. Eleven side channel sites were sampled from 18 to 31 May in 2001. Fifteen sites w ere sampled from 2 June to 2 July in 2002, including 5 of the sites sampled in 2001. During both years, duration of runoff limited the number of sites we could sample. Side channels flowed for only 3 to 10 days in 2001 and 1 to 3 weeks in 2002.

Absolute abundances of juvenile salmonids w ere estimated in 50-m reaches of the side channels by 3 or 4-pass backpack electrofishing depletion sampling. Block nets were used to restrict fish movements within the sampled area. The electrofishing crew consisted of one person electrofishing and one or two persons netting the fish. Captured fish w ere measured and identified to species. Abundance estimates w ere calculated using the maximum-likelihood generalized

removal estimator (Otis et al. 1978) using the computer program CAPTURE (White et al. 1982). Only fish judged to be juveniles based on the length-frequency analyses described in the previous section w ere included in our calculations. Densities of juvenile fish in side channels w ere calculated by dividing estimated abundances by sampled areas.

Results

Comparative Use Study

Most of the salmonids captured during the study were rainbow trout $(N= 2763)$, 62.0%), follow ed by brow n trout (1189, 26.7%), mountain w hitefish (334, 7.5%), Yellow stone cutthroat trout (166, 3.7%), and brook trout (1, < 0.1%). Sizes of fish captured encompassed a broad range including fish over 500 mm TL (Figures 5-16), but most of the fish were juveniles as expected given our sampling protocol. Maximum lengths that encompassed the appropriate year classes of each species in each reach during each sampling season and year as judged by length-frequency analyses are indicated in Figures 5 through 16. In general, juvenile brow n trout w ere larger than sympatric rainbow trout and mountain w hitefish in any season and reach; Yellow stone cutthroat trout w ere smallest. These size differences corresponded to sequence of spaw ning and emergence; brow n trout spaw n in fall and emerge earlier than rainbow trout, w hich spaw n in spring, and Yellow stone cutthroat trout spaw n in early summer. Juvenile mountain w hitefish w ere smaller than brown trout (both are fall spaw ners) because their eggs sizes are smaller. Among seasons, juvenile fish w ere largest in spring because they consisted of fish produced during the previous year. Fish were smallest in summer when they w ere only a few months post-hatch and larger in fall. Fish tended to be slightly larger dow nstream (Reach 2) than upstream (Reach 1). Excluding fish longer than the juvenile maxima indicated by the length-frequency analyses, we considered 2415 rainbow trout (66.7%), 932 brow n trout (25.8%), 169 mountain w hitefish (4.7%), 102 Yellow stone cutthroat trout (2.8%), and 1 brook trout (< 0.1%) in subsequent analyses.

No significant difference among bank types w as found among mean capture probabilities of juvenile fish collected at a subset of sites subjected to depletion sampling ($P= 0.5945$; Figure 17). The overall mean capture probability w as 0.743. In other w ords, the probability that any individual juvenile fish inhabiting one of our 50-m sample sites w ould be captured during a single electrofishing pass was about 74.3% and did not differ among bank types. Because mean capture probabilities w ere not significantly different among the six bank types, w e w ere able to directly compare one-pass catches among the habitats as indicators of fish abundance therein. Numbers of each salmonid species captured at each 50-m sampling site during each sampling season are listed in Appendix 1.

Mean numbers of rainbow trout captured were significantly different among the six bank types (P< 0.0001; Figure 18; Table 3). No significant interaction existed betw een bank type and reach, season, year, or combination thereof (all P> 0.05). Mean abundance at inside bends (0.769) was low est, follow ed by straight sections (3.359). Abundances at barbs (4.974), outside bends (5.684), and jetties (7.692) w ere not significantly different. Mean abundance at riprap sites was highest (8.304), but not significantly different from abundance at jetties. Abundances w ere significantly different among seasons (P< 0.0001) and betw een reaches (P< 0.0001) but not betw een years (P= 0.0804).

A significant interaction existed betw een bank type and reach among mean abundances of brow n trout captured at the six bank types (P= 0.0003). In other w ords, the relationships among the abundances at the different bank types w ere different in Reaches 1 and 2. Specifically, abundances at outside bends and jetties w ere low er in Reach 2 than in Reach 1 relative to expected abundances at the other bank types (Figure 18; Table 4). We therefore treated abundances at the six bank types in each reach separately and repeated the analysis of variance. Bank type, season, and year were considered class variables. Mean numbers of brow n trout captured w ere significantly different among the six bank types in the tw o reaches (P< 0.001; Figure 18; Table 4). No significant interaction existed betw een bank type and season, year, or combination thereof (all P > 0.05). Abundances w ere significantly different among seasons (P< 0.0001) and betw een years (P= 0.0001). In Reach 1, mean abundances at inside bends (0.354) and straight sections (1.229) were low est. Mean abundances at barbs (1.896), outside bends (2.313), jetties (3.250), and riprap (3.625) were not significantly different. In Reach 2, mean abundances at inside bends (0.133) and outside bends (0.774) w ere lowest, but mean abundances at jetties (1.400) and straight sections (2.233) w ere not significantly higher than at outside bends (Figure 18). Mean abundance at barbs (2.333) was significantly higher than at outside bends, but w as not significantly different from mean abundances at jetties and straight sections. Mean abundance was highest in riprap (3.774), but w as not significantly different from abundances at barbs and straight sections.

Numbers of juvenile mountain w hitefish (169), Yellow stone cutthroat trout (102), and brook trout (1) captured w ere insufficient to test for differences in abundances among bank types. We combined abundances of all four trout species to test for differences in abundances of the trout assemblage as a whole among bank types. Mean numbers of trout captured w ere significantly different among the six bank types (P< 0.0001; Figure 18; Table 5). No significant interaction existed betw een bank type and reach, season, year, or combination thereof (all P > 0.05). Mean abundance at inside bends (1.038) was low est, follow ed by straight sections (5.103). Mean abundances at barbs (7.436) and outside bends (7.747) were not significantly different. Mean abundance at jetties (10.449) was not significantly different from mean abundances at barbs or riprap (12.203), but abundance at

riprap was significantly higher than at barbs. Abundances were significantly different among seasons (P< 0.0001) and betw een reaches (P< 0.0001) but not betw een years $(P= 0.5614)$.

Inclusion of mountain w hitefish in the analysis resulted in essentially the same conclusions for all salmonids in aggregate (Figure 18; Table 6). Mean numbers of all salmonids captured w ere significantly different among the six bank types (P< 0.0001). No significant interaction existed betw een bank type and reach, season, year, or combination thereof (all P > 0.05). Abundances were significantly different among seasons ($P= 0.0004$) and betw een reaches ($P< 0.0001$) but not betw een years ($P= 0.7775$). Multiple comparisons testing revealed the same relationships among bank types as among rainbow trout abundances (Figure 18). Mean abundance at inside bends (1.538) was low est, follow ed by straight sections (5.423). Abundances at barbs (7.923), outside bends (8.443), and jetties (10.590) w ere not significantly different. Mean abundance at riprap sites was highest (12.215), but not significantly different from abundance at jetties.

Habitat characteristics of the six bank types suggested some reasons for the differences and similarities in juvenile fish abundances w e observed. Inside bends and straight sections tended to be wider and more open than the other bank types w hereas riprap sites and jetties w ere the narrow est (Figure 19); w idths of outside bends and barbs were intermediate. Depth distributions of inside bends and straight sections showed these habitats w ere uniformly shallow w hereas riprap and jetties tended to have little shallow habitat relative to deep areas (Figure 20). A w ide distribution of depths characterized outside bends and barbs. Slopes of the bank types reflected a combination of their depths and widths (Figure 21). Inside bends sloped gradually, w hereas slopes along many riprap and jetty transects were steep. Straight sites, outside bends, and barbs had intermediate slopes, though some transects at barbs were relatively steep. Modal w ater velocities at all of the bank types w ere close to zero (Figure 22). High velocities w ere most common at outside bends and inside bends and to a lesser extent at riprap. Negative velocities (upstream flow s) were evident in eddies formed by barbs, jetties, and inside bends. Most of the fish we captured at barb and jetty sites were found immediately upstream and adjacent to these structures in the eddies formed there. Perhaps the most obvious difference betw een the natural and stabilized sites was the invariable presence of large and small boulders at the latter (Figure 23). Substrates at the natural sites w ere primarily cobble. On a micro-habitat scale, regardless of bank type, presence of boulders w hether natural or artificial, tended to be the best predictor of juvenile fish presence. Notable also was the prevalence of fines at barb and jetty sites (Figure 23), primarily in the silty depositional areas downstream from the deflection structures; fish w ere almost never found in these areas. The master's thesis currently being prepared by the junior author w ill examine the influences of site-specific habitat characteristics on juvenile salmonid abundances in greater detail.

The most common non-game species we encountered was the mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdi*), w hich w as collected in 442 of our 470 main-channel samples (94%). Mottled sculpin w ere found in all types of habitats but w ere most numerous in cobble substrates where w ater velocities were high. Longnose dace (*Rhinichthys cataractae*) were collected in 286 samples (61%), mostly in shallow, slow habitats and eddies; few w ere seen near boulders at stabilized sites. Longnose suckers (*Catostomus catostomus*) and mountain suckers (*C. platyrhynchus*) were both collected, w ith longnose more common. Sub-adult and adult suckers were found in deep, slow w ater near stabilization structures. Schools of juvenile suckers w ere typically found in slackw ater near riprap and along sand beaches betw een barbs. Tw o juvenile common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and one brook stickleback (*Culaea inconstans*) w ere collected during summer 2001 at jetty site 36 near the Free River fishing access site.

Side Channel Study

Mean side channel w idths ranged from 1.9 to 13.2 m and averaged 5.0 m w ide. Areas of the 50-m long sample units ranged from 95 to 658 m² (mean 250.8 m²). Flow durations were 3 to 10 days in 2001 and 1 to 3 w eeks in 2002. Most of the juvenile fish captured in side channels w ere mountain w hitefish (60.1%), follow ed by rainbow trout (30.2%), brow n trout (8.4%), and Yellow stone cutthroat trout (1.3%). Estimated abundances of all trout species combined ranged from 0 to 10 fish per sample unit in 2001 and 0 to 14 fish in 2002 (Table 2). Estimated abundances of all salmonids (trout plus mountain w hitefish) ranged from 1 to 39 fish per sample unit in 2001 and 3 to 39 fish in 2002 (Table 2). Densities w ere higher in 2002 than 2001. Mean densities of trout were 0.0124 fish/m 2 (SD $\,$ ± 0.0117 , range 0-0.0343 fish/m 2) in 2001 and 0.0346 fish/m 2 (SD ± 0.0362 , range 0-0.1340 fish/m²) in 2002. The mean trout density for both years combined was 0.0252 fish/m 2 (SD ±0.0302, range 0-0.1340 fish/m 2). Mean densities of all salmonids w ere 0.0491 fish/m 2 (SD ±0.0606, range 0.0056-0.2191 fish/m 2) in 2001 and 0.0691 fish/m² (SD ±0.0971, range 0.0061-0.4021 fish/m²) in 2002. The mean salmonid density for both years combined was 0.0606 fish/m² (SD ± 0.0828 , range 0.0056-0.4021 fish/m²). On average, each 50-m side-channel sample unit contained about 6.3 trout and 15.2 salmonids.

Juvenile salmonids used the side channels during runoff, in appreciable numbers in some instances, despite the short durations of inundation experienced in both years. On several occasions, w e observed juvenile fish actively entering the low er ends of side channels as they filled.

Discussion

Comparative Use Study

Our first objective was to compare juvenile salmonid use of altered main-channel bank habitats to use of natural, unaltered bank habitats along the upper Yellow stone River. We successfully completed this component, w hich w as the most comprehensive investigation of its type to date. Use was examined at 14 replicates of each of 6 bank types, in two river reaches, in six seasons over two years (470 samples). Our primary findings w ere that, in general, juvenile salmonid use of barbs and jetties was similar to that of natural outside bends, and that use of riprap sections was higher than that of natural outside bends. We can infer from these findings that bank stabilization does not *directly* decrease juvenile salmonid habitat along the main channel of the upper Yellowstone River and that therefore juvenile salmonid recruitment from main-channel habitats should not be affected by bank stabilization. Indirect, geomorphically derived effects of bank stabilization (e.g., incision, aggradation, changes in bank lengths) may affect juvenile salmonid habitat, but such effects were outside the scope of our study design.

These results are somew hat surprising in light of findings of previous studies in coldw ater systems, most of w hich showed negative effects of bank stabilization on fish (Appendix 2), and the general belief that natural habitats are better than altered habitats for w ild salmonids. The simplest explanation for this incongruity is that many (but not all) of the natural banks of the main channel of the segments of the upper Yellowstone River we sampled are at present relatively poor juvenile salmonid habitat. Many of these banks are relatively uniform and are characterized primarily by cobble substrates. They largely lack the complex, irregular form and roughness elements such as boulders, vegetation, and large woody debris (logs, root w ads) that juvenile salmonids prefer for foraging sites, visual isolation from conspecifics, cover from predators (Bryant 1983; Platts 1991; Fausch 1993), and w inter habitat (Heifetz et al. 1986; Hillman et al. 1987; Griffith and Smith 1993; Riehle and Griffith 1993; Quinn and Peterson 1996). Moreover, heterogeneous substrates provide low-velocity refuges for salmonid fry, thus decreasing the probability of dow nstream displacement during high discharges (Heggenes 1988; Moore and Gregory 1988; Meyer and Griffith 1997). An inference from these studies is that simplification of complex natural streambank by stabilization structures w ould lead to reduction of habitat diversity, w hich w ould be detrimental to juvenile salmonids. On the other hand, diversification of simple, homogeneous natural habitat by stabilization structures w ould be beneficial. Artificially-placed boulders and shoreline irregularities associated w ith stabilized banks of the Yellow stone River provide such structure and therefore attract juvenile salmonids. Most of the studies that inferred negative effects of bank stabilization were conducted in small, relatively pristine streams, w hich likely had less-uniform banks and more structural elements than the Yellow stone River. In those streams, bank stabilization may

have simplified bank habitats and therefore reduced their value for fish. Most of the studies that inferred positive effects were conducted in small streams highly degraded by farming and grazing (Hunt 1988; Binns 1994; Avery 1995); stabilization there likely increased bank habitat complexity. Findings from the much larger Thompson River in British Columbia (mean annual discharge 775 m 3 /s) and Skagit River in Washington (472 m $3/$ s) w ere similar to ours; large riprap supported more juvenile salmonids than small riprap or natural cobble-boulder banks (Lister et al. 1995; Beamer and Henderson 1998). The incremental effects of bank stabilization are likely site-specific and dependent on w hether or not artificial structures increase or decrease habitat diversity, and more importantly, w hether or not juvenile habitat is limiting.

Another line of supporting evidence for our contention that main-channel banks of the upper Yellow stone River are at present relatively poor or unimportant juvenile salmonid habitat is provided by corresponding data from other rivers. The overall mean number of juvenile salmonids w e captured at 50-m main-channel sample sites along the Yellow stone River w as 7.3 (Table 5). Corresponding juvenile abundances in the Box Canyon and Pinehaven-Riverside reaches of the Henry' s Fork of the Snake River in Idaho were 80.6 and 5.3 rainbow trout, respectively (Mitro and Zale 2002), in the Barnosky and Woodson reaches of the Ruby River, Montana, 14.2 and 27.4 brow n trout, respectively (Opitz 1999), and in Poindexter Slough, Montana, 63.0 brow n trout (Opitz 1999). In general, abundances captured along the Yellow stone River were comparatively low . It seems likely therefore that mainchannel bank habitats of the Yellow stone River are not especially important juvenile-rearing habitats; recruitment likely occurs from other habitats such as tributary streams, upstream reaches, the spring creeks, backw aters, or other offchannel habitats.

Our study had a number of limitations that could affect interpretation of our results. For example, the scarcity of large w oody debris along the Yellow stone River may be natural, indicative of an already altered system, or a temporary anomaly caused by the 1996 and 1997 floods. If riparian trees were cleared historically or w ere prevented from recruiting to the river by bank stabilization, grazing, or other land management practices, then the abundances of fish we captured along natural banks may have been artificially low . Minor forest clearing has occurred, but probably not enough to make a difference; the lack of w etted large w oody debris is likely related to channel geometry that exports such debris downstream during runoff (Mike Merigliano, University of Montana, personal communication) or causes it to be deposited above the w aterlines w e sampled (Chuck Dalby, personal communication). The floods of 1996 and 1997 likely contributed to these processes. A related limitation w as that both years of our study w ere low -w ater years (USGS provisional data; http://mt.w aterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/). This may have affected our findings, if for example, low w ater elevations prevented juvenile salmonids from accessing preferred natural habitats or large w oody debris and

restricted them to accessible stabilized banks instead. How ever, low w ater restricted access to some stabilized banks at times as well.

Perhaps the most important limitation of our study is that we do not know how important main-channel banks are to recruitment of salmonids in the Yellow stone River. They may be inconsequential if most juveniles in the system are produced in tributaries, spring creeks, side channels, or farther upstream. Conversely, mainchannel banks could be producing most of the fish that later recruit to the fishable population. The salmonid fishery of the Yellowstone River is relatively unique in that it is not considered recruitment-limited (Joel Tohtz, Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife and Parks, personal communication), meaning that adult abundances do not track disturbances or weather conditions that typically affect juvenile survival and abundance; other bottlenecks apparently limit adult salmonid abundances in this river. Lack of a recruitment limitation is likely related to natural resilience of the system resulting from its present environmental quality and connectivity (Joel Tohtz, personal communication). In the long term, cumulative insults to the system may degrade this resiliency and elicit recruitment limitations.

Our study w as also limited in that it addressed only juvenile fish. Adequate recruitment is a necessary factor in maintaining a healthy fish population, but it is only one component. Habitat and food for sub-adult and adult fish are also required, as are spaw ning sites. Our study did not address the effects of bank stabilization on these factors. If habitat for older fish is decreased by bank stabilization, or it decreases food availability, or limits spaw ning habitat, then the fact that bank stabilization does not limit main-channel habitat for juvenile salmonids may be irrelevant. Conditions for all life stages must be met to produce adequate numbers of catchable-sized adults. Our study only showed that bank stabilization does not diminish the value of main-channel banks as juvenile habitat. Furthermore, w e ignored all non-salmonid species. Our findings should not be construed to mean that bank stabilization is " good for fish" across the board.

Adult salmonid abundance monitoring as conducted by Montana Fish, Wildlife and Parks is perhaps the most effective and comprehensive method for assessing fundamental effects of environmental perturbations on fish in the upper Yellowstone River system. Such monitoring may not allow inference of precisely what is causing a problem, but it can identify if a problem exists. Studies can then be designed to determine exactly w here the problem lies. Trends in adult abundance will reflect significant effects of bank stabilization on the fishery. Of course, countermeasures may be difficult or functionally impossible by the time that declines in adult abundances are noted.

Side Channel Study

Side channels may be important natural nursery habitat for juvenile salmonids in the

Yellow stone River system, considering the relative paucity of boulders, large w oody debris, and other cover and roughness elements along the main-channel banks of the Yellow stone River. Their role may be especially important during runoff w hen shallow , low -velocity habitat is negligible along the main channel and is present primarily in the side channels and overbank areas (Zachary Bow en, personal communication). The densities of fish we estimated in the side channels were not exceptionally remarkable, except that they w ere attained in short time periods. Because of low-water conditions during both years of the study, the side channels we sampled were inundated for only about 3 to 10 days in 2001 and 1 to 3 weeks in 2002. Often, our samples had to be made w ithin a few days of the commencement of flow. Nevertheless, none of the side channels were completely barren of fish and some contained high densities, especially of mountain w hitefish. Because flow durations w ere short, it is unlikely that the densities w e estimated approximated the potential carrying capacity of the side channels. The rapidity with which these habitats were colonized during the brief periods they were available suggests that juvenile fish congregated in these habitats. If side channels w ere inundated for longer durations, more frequently, and over greater areas, then it seems likely that availability of juvenile fish habitat w ould be increased and therefore perhaps greater recruitment w ould be elicited. On the other hand, if mainchannel bank stabilization causes main-channel incision and reduces the frequency and duration of inundation of side channels, or reduces side-channel formation rates, or directly precludes inundation or accessibility of side channels by dike or berm structures, then juvenile fish habitat and recruitment w ill likely be reduced. An understanding of the effect and extent of such geomorphological changes is needed to better comprehend the effects of bank stabilization on the fishery resources of the Yellow stone River. The concurrent geomorphology study being conducted by Montana DNRC is examining the type and abundance of side channels from Gardiner to Springdale and how and w hy those characteristics may have changed from 1948-49 to 1999 (Chuck Dalby, personal communication).

Additional Research Needs

Several additional investigations w ould provide a more comprehensive understanding of the effects of bank stabilization on aquatic biota of the upper Yellow stone River. First, additional sampling during years w ith higher discharges, both along main-channel banks and in side channels, w ould allow inference about the applicability of our findings under more normal conditions. Second, assessment of the effects of bank stabilization on non-game fishes, macroinvertebrates, and adult and sub-adult salmonids would provide a more holistic assessment of this issue. Third, a comprehensive assessment of recruitment dynamics of salmonids in the upper Yellow stone River system would provide managers with an understanding of w hich habitats (e.g., tributaries, spring creeks, backw aters, side channels, upstream reaches) actually produce the juvenile fish that later become catchable adults and therefore may require protection.

Management Implications

Because juvenile salmonid abundances along altered main-channel banks of the upper Yellow stone River were similar or greater than those along unaltered banks, juvenile salmonid recruitment from main-channel habitats should not be deleteriously affected by incremental increases in bank stabilization. Indirect or cumulative effects of bank stabilization, or both, may affect juvenile salmonid habitat.

Habitat modifications that reduce the frequency and duration of inundation of side channels, or reduce side-channel formation rates, or directly preclude inundation or accessibility of side channels would likely decrease juvenile fish habitat and possibly recruitment.

Acknowledgments

Funding for this study w as provided by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Omaha District, under the patient oversight and guidance of Michael C. Gilbert. The study w as conducted in association w ith the Governor' s Upper Yellow stone River Task Force; the Task Force's Members, Coordinator Liz Galli-Noble, and Technical Advisory Committee greatly facilitated conduct of the study. Billie Kerans graciously provided expert statistical advice. John Borkow ski and Matthew G. Mitro assisted w ith study design. Zachary Bow en, Ken Bovee, Terry Waddle, and other staff at the USGS Fort Collins Science Center provided technical and moral support. Critical reviews of an earlier draft of this report were graciously provided by Chuck Dalby, Marcus Miller, Robert S. Nebel, Bradley Shepard, Allan Steinle, and Joel Tohtz. William Gould confirmed non-game species identifications. Field and technical assistance w ere provided by Ben Bailey, Tera Bandy, Mary Beatty, Carrie Brooke, Pete Brown, Adam J. Craig, Chris Curre, Pete Finch, David Hamalainen, Cody Hankinson, Ryan Harnish, Nathan Jones, Shane Keep, Ryan Limb, Halcyon Lukins, Thomas E. McMahon, Chris Ow en, Sid Rider, Denton Saunders, Kevin Szafranski, and Mike Zambarano. We extend our heartfelt thanks to all who helped in this endeavor.

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	UTM coordinates		2001			2002		
Site	E	N	Spring	Summer	Fall	Spring	Summer	Fall
Reach 1								
Inside Bend								
1	530176	5037001	30 MAR	22 AUG	31 OCT	24 APR	23 JUL	22 OCT
11	532615	5038793	6 APR	23 JUL	9 OCT	24 APR	14 AUG	22 OCT
34	532740	5039628	18 APR	18 AUG	25 OCT	17 APR	31 JUL	22 OCT
44	532766	5039671	25 APR	18 AUG	25 OCT	17 APR	31 JUL	10 OCT
22	532944	5041945	10 APR	24 JUL	23 OCT	8 MAY	7 AUG	9 NOV
28	532996	5042040	17 APR	31 JUL	23 OCT	8 MAY	7 AUG	7 NOV
42	532411	5042985	25 APR	15 AUG	31 OCT	8 MAY	7 AUG	15 OCT
30	532943	5043183	17 APR	15 AUG	3 NOV	10 MAY	5 AUG	8 OCT
Straight								
$\sqrt{3}$	530833	5037325	31 MAR	20 AUG	25 OCT	24 APR	23 JUL	17 OCT
43	530901	5037377	25 APR	20 AUG	25 OCT	24 APR	31 JUL	17 OCT
$\overline{5}$	531094	5037437	5 APR	23 JUL	9 OCT	12 APR	17 JUL	10 OCT
14	531271	5034525	17 APR	23 JUL	26 OCT	24 APR	15 AUG	10 OCT
12	531882	5038047	7 APR	23 JUL	26 OCT	12 APR	15 JUL	17 OCT
21	532639	5042480	10 APR	31 JUL	23 OCT	8 MAY	7 AUG	7 NOV
23	532599	5042540	13 APR	15 AUG	26 OCT	10 MAY	14 AUG	7 NOV
20	532772	5043422	10 APR	15 AUG	7 OCT	20 APR	5 AUG	8 OCT
Outside Bend								
$\overline{2}$	532093	5038447	31 MAR	23 JUL	16 OCT	5 APR	17 JUL	17 OCT
6	532778	5039610	15 APR	23 JUL	19 OCT	5 APR	15 AUG	17 OCT
17	532599	5038717	7 APR	18 AUG	26 OCT	12 APR	15 JUL	19 OCT
37	533001	5042203	24 APR	17 AUG	7 OCT	20 APR	7 AUG	9 NOV
25	533008	5042016	13 APR	24 JUL	23 OCT	20 APR	2 AUG	15 OCT
38	533015	5042015	24 APR	17 AUG	23 OCT	20 APR	2 AUG	15 OCT

Table 1. Shoreline sample site locations and sampling dates, Yellowstone River, 2001 and 2002.

Table 2. Locations, dates sampled, and areas of sampled side channels, and estimated numbers and densities of all juvenile trout and all juvenile salmonids (including mountain w hitefish) therein, Yellow stone River, 2001 and 2002.

Table 3. Numbers of rainbow trout captured by single-pass electrofishing at 50-m sample sites along specific bank types, Yellow stone River, 2001-2002.

Table 4. Numbers of brown trout captured by single-pass electrofishing at 50-m sample sites along specific bank types, Yellow stone River, 2001-2002.

Table 5. Combined numbers of rainbow , brow n, Yellowstone cutthroat and brook trout captured by single-pass electrofishing at 50-m sample sites along specific bank types, Yellow stone River, 2001-2002.

Table 6. Combined numbers of all salmonids (all trout and mountain w hitefish) captured by single-pass electrofishing at 50-m sample sites along specific bank types, Yellow stone River, 2001-2002.

Figure 2. Approximate locations of Reach 1, Part 1 sample sites by bank type, Yellowstone River, 2001 and 2002. Site numbers and letters correspond to those listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Figure 3. Approximate locations of Reach 1, Part 2 sample sites by bank type, Yellowstone River, 2001 and 2002. Site numbers and letters correspond to those listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Figure 4. Approximate locations of Reach 2 sample sites by bank type, Yellowstone River, 2001 and 2002. Site numbers and letters correspond to those listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

SPRING 2001, REACH 1

Figure 5. Length-frequency distributions, Spring 2001, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SPRING 2001, REACH 2

Figure 6. Length-frequency distributions, Spring 2001, Reach 2, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SUMMER 2001, REACH 1

Figure 7. Length-frequency distributions, Summer 2001, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SUMMER 2001, REACH 2

Figure 8. Length-frequency distributions, Summer 2001, Reach 2, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

FALL 2001, REACH 1

Figure 9. Length-frequency distributions, Fall 2001, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

FALL 2001, REACH 2

Figure 10. Length-frequency distributions, Fall 2001, Reach 2, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SPRING 2002, REACH 1

Figure 11. Length-frequency distributions, Spring 2002, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SPRING 2002, REACH 2

Figure 12. Length-frequency distributions, Spring 2002, Reach 2, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

SUMMER 2002, REACH 1

Figure 13. Length-frequency distributions, Summer 2002, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

Figure 14. Length-frequency distributions, Summer 2002, Reach 2, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

FALL 2002, REACH 1

Figure 15. Length-frequency distributions, Fall 2002, Reach 1, Yellowstone River. Dashed vertical lines indicate maximum lengths of fish considered juveniles.

FALL 2002, REACH 2

Figure 17. Mean capture probabilities of juvenile salmonids by bank type, Yellow stone River. Error bars represent ±1 SD. The dashed horizontal line indicates the overall mean of 0.743.

Figure 18. Mean numbers of juvenile salmonids captured by one-pass electrofishing by bank type, 2001 and 2002, Yellowstone River. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Figure 19. Frequency distributions of transect w idths by bank type, Yellowstone River.

Figure 20. Frequency distributions of depths along transects by bank type, Yellow stone River.

Figure 21. Frequency distributions of transect slopes by bank type, Yellowstone River.

Figure 22. Frequency distributions of w ater velocities along transects by bank type, Yellowstone River.

Figure 23. Frequency distributions of substrate sizes along transects by bank type, Yellow stone River.

Appendix 1

Individual Sample Records

Appendix 1. Numbers of each salmonid species captured by single-pass electrofishing at each 50-m sampling site during each sampling season. BA= barb, IB= inside bend, JT= jett y, OB= outside bend, RR= riprap, and ST= straight.

Appendix 2

Literature Review

FEBRUARY 2001

MONTANA COOPERATIVE FISHERY RESEARCH UNIT

EFFECTS OF BANK STABILIZATION STRUCTURES ON FISH AND THEIR HABITAT

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A LITERATURE REVIEW

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Executive Summary

This literature review is the first deliverable associated w ith a research project entitled " Comparative use of modified and natural habitats of the Upper Yellow stone River by juvenile salmonids" conducted by the Montana Cooperative Fishery Research Unit with funding provided by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Omaha District, in association with the Governor's Upper Yellow stone River Task Force. The goal of the study is to assess the extent to w hich changes in aquatic habitats caused by bank stabilization, flow deflection, and flow confinement structures affect juvenile fish in the upper Yellow stone River. The field component of the study w ill involve comparing juvenile fish use of altered aquatic habitat types to their use of natural, unaltered habitats. This information will be used to estimate past and future effects of habitat modifications on the fishery resource of the Yellowstone River.

This review was conducted to summarize pertinent research and to guide the development of the sampling program. It summarizes and integrates previous studies addressing the effects of bank stabilization structures on river processes, invertebrates, and foremost, fish. We have organized this literature review based on the predominant concepts w e found in the literature including hydrologic processes in rivers, importance of side channels and backw aters in providing a diversity of habitats, and the positive and negative effects of bank stabilization on rivers and their biota. Also included is a section addressing sampling techniques described in the literature that may be useful on the Yellowstone River. Finally, we have provided annotations of the most important references expressly dealing with the effects of bank stabilization on fish.

Previous studies examining the physical effects of banks stabilization structures on rivers show ed that these structures reduce channel braiding and meandering, thereby reducing physical habitat diversity, w hich results in less diverse and productive fish assemblages. Because riprap provides many interstitial spaces and high amounts of surface area, aquatic invertebrates (i.e., fish food) flourish therein. Some studies show ed higher diversities and abundances of fish along revetted banks than natural banks. These studies tended to take place in previously degraded habitats or w armw ater ecosystems. Other studies showed decreases in abundances of fish along revetted banks compared to unaltered banks. These studies generally examined relatively pristine habitats or coldwater ecosystems inhabited by salmonids. Banks stabilized w ith deflection structures had higher densities and diversities of fish than revetted banks. Deflection structures created habitats w ith low w ater velocities directly adjacent to the mainstream and more heterogeneity of depth, velocity, and stream bed than revetted banks; this diversity of habitat characteristics w as beneficial to fish. We found no studies w hich comprehensively addressed long-term effects of bank stabilization over large spatial scales. None of the fish sampling techniques used in previous studies addressing effects of bank stabilization structures appears to be perfectly suited to our needs on the Yellowstone River.

Effects of Bank Stabilization on Physical River Processes

Physical attributes (e.g., channel pattern and shape, pool-riffle spacing, sediment size distribution) of a river's channel result from complex interactions among supply of water and sediment to the river and localized hydraulic processes which govern sediment erosion, transport and deposition (Leopold et al. 1964; Dunne and Leopold 1978). Movement of water and sediment through the river's channels over time tend to create a relatively stable equilibrium fluvial geomorphology (form and structure) that efficiently transports supplied water and sediments (Leopold et al. 1964). In snowmelt driven rivers such as the Yellowstone, bank full stage discharge during spring runoff dictates this geomorphology (Williams 1978; Andrews 1980; Andrews and Nankervis 1995). Stable alluvial channels typically accommodate snowmelt runoff through an annual pattern of lateral (e.g., bank erosion and point bar deposition) and vertical (e.g., scour and fill) processes that maintain channel width and bed elevation as the channel migrates across the flood plain. This annual cycle is also responsible for maintaining a diverse mix of sediment types and sizes (Gordon et al. 1992), w hich is important because different species of aquatic organisms differ in their substrate preferences and requirements (Gordon et al. 1992). For example, chironomid midge larvae require mud into which they can burrow , w hereas salmonids require a mix of gravel, sand, and cobble for optimum spawning substrate (Beschta and Platts 1986; Gordon et al. 1992). Thus, the distribution of sediment types and sizes along a stream can be a paramount factor affecting the persistence of fish and invertebrates (Gordon et al. 1992).

Bank stabilization and flow diversion structures alter a river's natural adjustment processes, thereby causing changes in channel morphology, hydraulic geometry (width, depth, slope, roughness), channel pattern, bank erodability, and supplies of sediment and large woody debris (Beschta and Platts 1986; Brookes 1988). Responses may include changes in rates of lateral channel migration, substrate size distributions, channel-bed elevation, pool-riffle spacing, and frequency of side channel and over-bank flows (Leopold et al. 1964; Gregory and Walling 1973; Schumm 1977; Simons and Senturk 1977; Steiger et al. 1998; Petts et al. 1989; Klingeman et al. 1999). Channel incision resulting from bank stabilization lowers stage at a given flow (Stern et al. 1980) and thereby reduces the frequency of inundation of side channels. Coupled with increased sediment deposition in side channels caused by decreased w ater velocities there, such incision can eventually cause side channels to become part of the flood plain and not the active channel.

For example, revetted banks (banks stabilized w ith riprap) on the low er Mississippi River shortened the river length 229 km, and levees reduced the floodplain by 90% (Baker et al. 1988a). Levees and dikes along the Vistula River, Poland, reduced the number of islands and braided reaches, decreased the channel w idth by 50%, and deepened the riverbed by 1.3 m (Backiel and Penczak 1989). The Piave River in Italy also became less braided and its channel width decreased after flow deflection structures were installed (Surian 1999). Bank revetments along the Rhine River caused the riverbed to deepen by up to 7 m and reduced the number of backw aters,

braids, and side channels (Dister et al. 1990). Channelized and riprapped sections of Little Prickly Pear Creek north of Helena, Montana, were uniformly shallow and homogeneous, whereas unaltered sections varied in depth and alternated betw een pools and riffles (Elser 1968). Thus, bank stabilization structures not only alter the banks they are designed to protect, but by redirecting a river's energy, change the morphology and physical structure of a river. These changes, in turn, w ould be expected to change the quantity and quality of fish habitats.

Importance of Channel Migration, Side Channels, and Backwaters to Fish Habitat

Importance of Channel Migration

When a river is not allowed to move its channel laterally, unnatural regimens of sediment flow occur that lead to decreased amounts of important habitats where fish can find food, cover, or spaw ning substrates (White 1991; Schmetterling et al. in press). In particular, creation of pools and riffles typical of meandering streams may be limited (Montgomery and Buffington 1997). Channel migration provides a river with large w oody debris (Murphy and Koski 1989), w hich is a critical habitat requirement in most trout streams. Input of large w oody debris to a river stabilizes the channel, traps sediment and debris that modifies channel shape by redirecting currents, and provides shelter for fish (Gordon et al. 1992). Abundances and biomasses of trout in reaches of 13 Montana streams altered by channel relocation, riprapping, clearing, and diking to preclude natural meandering w ere only 29% and 11%, respectively, of those in unaltered reaches (Peters and Alvord 1964). Channel migration can also provide required spawning substrates. For example, erosive channel w idening on the South Fork Kern River, California, resulted in significantly more spaw ning habitat and higher densities of redds and age-0 golden trout (*Oncorhynchus aguabonita*) than in stable narrow reaches (Knapp et al. 1998). Because bank stabilization structures restrain a river's natural lateral channel migration, they allow less large w oody debris input, substrate deposition, and pool, riffle, and side-channel formation, and thereby lead to decreased habitat quality for fish. These changes in turn, w ould be expected to limit abundance and production of fish.

Sidechannels and Backw aters Provide Nutrients and Habitat Complexity

Biotic production in rivers is positively correlated with periodic inundation of their floodplains (Odum et al. 1979; Junk et al. 1989; Bayley 1991) as exchange of w ater, sediments, nutrients, and organisms betw een rivers and their backwaters on the floodplain is thereby achieved (Junk et al. 1989; Dister et al. 1990; Bayley 1991). Flooded lateral habitats are major production zones for plankton, w hich are released into the river as flood w aters recede and are essential food for early life stages of fish (Schiemer and Spindler 1989; Schiemer et al. 1991). Flood control and channel stabilization projects may eliminate backw aters on floodplains or disconnect them from the river (Sandheinrich and Atchison 1986; Dister et al. 1990) thereby reducing productivity of the river. Bank stabilization projects may also impede establishment of riparian vegetation, especially cottonw oods, and thereby limit energy inputs, shade, and sediment and pollutant filtration (Robert Hazlew ood, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, personal communication).

Backw aters, braids, and side channels provide w ater velocities, depths, and substrates not present in adjoining main river channels (Hjort et al. 1984) and thereby increase available habitat diversity to the benefit of fish and invertebrates. For example, fish species richness w as greatest in backw aters of the Missouri River in South Dakota, Nebraska, and Iowa (Kallemeyn and Novotny 1977) and reaches in North Dakota w ith extensive backw aters had higher densities of invertebrates than revetted or w ooded reaches (Burress et al. 1982). Banks along the Danube and Morava rivers that included littoral bays supported higher densities and diversities of juvenile fish than adjacent riprapped banks (Schiemer and Spindler 1989; Jurajda 1995). The fish assemblage in a backw ater of the Willamette River, Oregon, w as characterized by more trophic complexity and larger fish than the main river channel itself (Hjort et al. 1984).

Habitat diversity is especially important for salmonids because they require different w ater velocities (Cunjak and Power 1987; Greenberg et al. 1996; Petays et al. 1997), depths (Cunjak and Pow er 1987; Baltz et al. 1991; Greenberg et al. 1996; Petays et al. 1997), cover types (Heggenes 1988; Mesick 1988), and substrates (Greenberg et al. 1996) at different sizes and ages. Small trout tend to prefer shallow, low -velocity areas w ith small substrate sizes or vegetation, w hereas large trout prefer deeper w ater w ith higher w ater velocities and larger substrate sizes and overhead cover. Grow th and survival rates of juvenile trout are higher in side channels than the main channel, and side channels are a preferred spawning location for salmonids (Mesick 1995; Downing 2000). Preference of large trout for deep water may help avoid predation by terrestrial predators, w hereas preference for shallow w ater by small trout may be an attempt to avoid competition and predation by large trout (Schlosser 1987).

Salmonids also exhibit seasonal shifts in habitat use, especially during w inter w hen mortality of juveniles is highest and year-class strength is determined. Movement into slower, deeper w ater in w inter and taking refuge in the substrate during daylight hours when water temperatures decrease below 10 $^{\circ}$ C is a general response for age-0 salmonids (Rimmer et al. 1983; Campbell and Neuner 1985; Baltz et al. 1987; Contor and Griffith 1995). Fish may move singly or in small groups into interstices in the substrate (Hartman 1963) anyw here from 15 to 30 cm deep beneath the substrate surface (Griffith and Smith 1993). Such concealment cover typically consists of large substrate sizes that provide appropriately sized interstices (Mitro 1999). Age-0 cutthroat (*O. clarki*) and brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) w ere absent from cobble substrate but present in boulder substrate during w inter on the South Fork of the Snake River (Griffith and Smith 1993); the smallest substrate used was 20 cm in diameter. Size of substrate used by juvenile trout in winter may also depend on time of day. In artificial streams, small brow n trout concealed themselves in coarse substrates less frequently in the evening than during the day (Heggenes et al. 1993). These studies show that presence of coarse substrate that provides interstitial cover is a critical requirement of juvenile trout in w inter. Reducing addition of such substrates by precluding bank erosion would therefore be detrimental. However, bank stabilization structures that incorporate coarse substrates may benefit salmonids in w inter if such substrates are rare along unaltered banks. Coarse substrates may also become more common as channels incise in response to constrainment of the channel and reduced addition of bank material caused by stabilization structures. Older age classes of w intering trout also shelter w ithin the interstitial spaces of coarse substrates (Bjornn 1971; Hillman et al. 1987; Petays et al. 1997) or use backw aters with abundant overhead cover, low w ater velocities, and groundw ater inflow s (Cunjak and Pow er 1986).

A diversity of habitat types, as provided by backwaters, braids, and side channels in addition to a main channel, is therefore required to support all of the sizes and ages of a w ild trout population. Loss of this diversity through elimination of habitats other than the main channel w ould be expected to negatively affect abundances of trout by limiting recruitment and increasing emigration to more diverse reaches elsew here. For example, experimental increases in lateral backw aters and eddies on Mack Creek, Oregon, resulted in greater densities of age-0 cutthroat trout, w hereas these fish were almost eliminated from stream sections w here these lateral habitats w ere reduced (Moore and Gregory 1988). Similarly, increases in salmonid production resulted from the opening of ponds adjacent to the channel on Fish Creek, Oregon (F. E. Everest et al., U.S.F.S Pacific Northwest Research Station, unpublished data in Frissel and Naw a 1992).

Biological Effects of Riprap

Effects of Riprap on Invertebrates

Because riprap provides many interstitial spaces and high amounts of surface area, aquatic invertebrates flourish therein. Riprap in streams often becomes a location for sediment and debris deposition (Shields 1991), w hich enhances habitat for benthic invertebrates by providing additional food and cover (Burress et al. 1982; Mathis et al. 1982), except when the deposited sediments consist of sand (Sanders et al. 1986). Channelized reaches of the Missouri River in South Dakota had higher diversities, but low er densities, of invertebrates than natural reaches (Wolf et al. 1972). Invertebrate drift w as greater along riprapped, channelized banks of the Missouri River in Iow a than along natural banks (Kallemeyn and Novotny 1977) and current-sw ept rocks in dikes and revetments supported more diversity and a higher density of macroinvertebrates than did natural stream substrates along the Missouri River in North Dakota (Burress et al. 1982). Similarly, higher total numbers of invertebrates were collected from revetted banks than natural banks along the Willamette River, Oregon (Hjort et al. 1984). On the other hand, artificial substrates placed in an unchannelized stretch w ith natural banks on the Missouri River near Vermillion, South Dakota, had 70% greater standing crops of invertebrates than at riprapped banks near Sioux City, Iowa (Nord and Schmulbach 1973). Abundant aquatic invertebrates in riprap may serve as a superior food source for fish, but no studies have been conducted that directly show that higher abundances of aquatic invertebrates in riprap benefit fish.

Positive Effects of Riprap on Fish

Positive or neutral effects on fish resulting from bank stabilization with riprap have been observed in warmwater systems, primarily the Mississippi River. Revetted banks along the low er Mississippi River in Mississippi supported the highest percentage, by w eight, of fish species considered to have a sporting or commercial value compared to natural banks (Pennington et al. 1983a; Pennington et al. 1983b). Fish abundances (mostly freshw ater drum *Aplodinotus grunniens*, flathead catfish *Pylodictis olivaris*, common carp *Cyprinus carpio*, and blue catfish *Ictalurus furcatus*) in the Mississippi River near Eudora, Arkansas, w ere similar along old revetments, new revetments, and natural banks, w hich suggested that fish inhabiting natural riverbanks recovered rapidly after bank perturbation caused by the placement of riprap (Pennington et al. 1985). Abundances and aggregate weights of all species combined w ere greater at revetted banks than natural banks of Pool 24 of the Mississippi River in Missouri, and fish diversities at both bank types w ere equal (Farabee 1986). Revetted banks of the Willamette River, Orgeon, supported higher densities of small w armw ater fish than unaltered banks, w hich w ere inhabited by low densities of large fish (Hjort et al. 1984).

Positive or neutral effects of riprap have also been observed in coldw ater systems. Abundance of 6 to 12 inch brow n trout increased 35% and abundance of 12-inch and larger brown trout increased 86% after 0.7 miles of riprap w ere installed on Willow Creek, Wisconsin (Hunt 1988). Also in Wisconsin, Millville Creek w as stabilized with riprap to mitigate effects of bank degradation caused by cattle grazing and row crop farming in the riparian zone (Avery 1995). Mean densities of brow n trout increased from 65 fish/mile to 102 fish/mile after the bank stabilization (but the author considered this increase in density insufficient justification for the \$26,800/mile cost of the riprap). Seven years after 2,150 feet of riprap and 111 habitat improvement devices (deflectors, plunges, overhangs, channel blocks, ramps, logs) w ere installed on Beaver Creek, Wyoming, to mitigate habitat degradation stemming from cattle grazing, abundances of brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) 6 inches and longer had increased 1,814% and abundances of brook trout less than 6 inches had increased 1,462% (Binns 1994). Abundances of yearling steelhead (*O. mykiss*) and cutthroat trout increased shortly after banks along large streams in central western Washington w ere riprapped (Knudsen and Dilley 1987). Fish species diversity (but not abundance) w as greater along riprapped banks than along natural banks of the Sacramento River, California (Michny 1988). Large riprap (rock > 30 cm in diameter) supported higher juvenile chinook salmon (*O. tshawyt scha*) and steelhead trout densities than natural cobble-boulder banks on the Thompson River in British Columbia in both summer and w inter (Lister et al. 1995). The overall densities of yearling and older salmonids in 15 w estern Washington rivers w ere unaffected or increased at riprapped banks (Peters et

al. 1998) and sub-yearling rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*) in the Skagit River, Washington, w ere more abundant in riprap compared to the mean reach abundance (Beamer and Henderson 1998). Several of these studies are described more completely in the annotated bibliography of this document.

Negative Effects of Riprap on Fish

Few studies conducted in w armwater systems indicated negative effects of riprap on fish. Riprapped banks of the Willamette River, Oregon, w ere poor habitat for larvae of w armw ater fish compared to natural banks (Li et al. 1984) and species diversity along revetted banks w as low er than at the unaltered banks (Hjort et al. 1984). Riprap also provides habitat favoring introduced exotic species. Riprapped banks on the St. Clair River, Michigan, had higher densities of round gobies (*Neogobius melanostomus*), tubenose gobies (*Proterorhinus marmoratus*), and zebra mussels (*Dreissena polymorpha*) than natural sand and macrophyte-dominated substrate (Jude and DeBoe 1996).

Assessment s of riprap in coldw ater systems inhabited by salmonids tended to show deleterious effects. Most of these studies are covered in greater detail in the annotated bibliography. Brown and rainbow trout w ere significantly more abundant in unaltered sections than in channelized and riprapped sections of Little Prickly Pear Creek north of Helena, Montana, and non-salmonid fishes were almost completely absent in the altered reaches (Elser 1968). Biomasses of juvenile coho salmon (O. *kisutch*), juvenile steelhead, and cutthroat trout decreased shortly after long lengths of bank w ere stabilized along small streams in central w estern Washington (Knudsen and Dilley 1987); in larger streams, only slight reductions in numbers of juvenile coho salmon and young-of-the-year cutthroat trout occurred. Densities of rainbow trout in the Big Wood River, Idaho, w ere highest in areas w ith diverse channel features and in the presence of woody cover (17.4 trout/100 m²), whereas riprapped banks held almost as few fish (2.1 trout/100 m 2) as habitats lacking any cover (1.2 trout/100 m $^2)$ (Thurow 1988). Sub-yearling cutthroat trout, coho salmon, and chinook salmon densities w ere low er at riprapped banks than natural banks on the Skagit River (Beamer and Henderson 1998) and 15 other rivers in w estern Washington (Peters et al. 1998). Relative abundances of juvenile chinook salmon along riprapped banks of the Sacramento River, California, w ere 25% of those along natural banks (Michny 1987; U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 1992).

Enhancements to Riprap that Benefit Fish

Various enhancements can be incorporated into riprapped banks to benefit fish including off-bankline revetments, larger rock size, fish groins, filling interstices with gravel, rearing benches, and indented revetments (Shields et al. 1995). Some of these show great promise, but have not been extensively deployed yet (Shields et al. 1995).

Placing boulders of 1.0 m to 1.5 m in diameter along the toe of the bank (intersection of bank and edge of the stream channel) on the Coldwater River, British Columbia, appeared to increase rearing densities of all salmonids except sub-yearling steelhead trout by providing cover from high water velocities (Lister et al. 1995). Traditional riprap revetments along the Sacramento River, California, enhanced w ith low ridges of riprap called "fish groins" running perpendicular to the channel from the toe of the bank to the top of the bank w ere used by juvenile salmonids more than unimproved riprap, but not as much as natural banks (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 1992). A gradually sloping (1V:5H) gravel bench parallel to the channel, called a rearing bench, placed at an elevation where it was inundated at moderate flows provided shallow habitat for juvenile salmonids by simulating hydraulic conditions associated with natural gravel bars (Michny 1987); fish abundances therein w ere intermediate betw een those at natural and unimproved riprapped banks. Incorporation of notches or gaps in revetted banks facilitates formation of littoral bays, w hich enhance fish abundances in altered reaches (Kallemeyn and Novotny 1977). Combined longitudinal and transverse dikes along the River Rhô ne in France created backw ater impoundments inhabited by more abundant and diverse assemblages of juvenile fish than in the adjacent river (Poizat and Pont 1996; Nicolas and Pont 1997)

The size of material used in constructing riprap affects microhabitat selection by salmonids because substrate size is an important criterion determining habitat suitability as described previously (Bustard and Narver 1975; Rimmer et al. 1984; Greenberg et al. 1996). On the Skagit River, Washington, small rock (i.e., rubble from 64 to 256 mm in diameter) riprap adversely affected all species (coho salmon, chinook salmon, chum salmon *O. keta*, and rainbow trout) of fish compared to boulder riprap (Beamer and Henderson 1998). A Mississippi River bank riprapped w ith 60-cm diameter rock had a fish biomass catch-per-unit-effort rate more than tw ice as great as a similar bank riprapped w ith rock 30 to 60 cm in diameter (Farabee 1986). Banks of the Thompson and Coldw ater Rivers, British Columbia, riprapped with material of mean diameter greater than 30 cm supported higher chinook salmon, coho salmon, and steelhead trout densities during summer and w inter than banks riprapped w ith material of mean diameter less than 30 cm (Lister et al. 1995). Filling the interstices of riprap w ith gravel can also enhance habitat value of riprap for juvenile salmonids (Michny 1987; U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 1992).

The type of material used in bank stabilization may also affect fish density. Revetted banks that incorporate woody vegetation provide more cover for fish and have a more natural appearance than rock riprap (Hunter 1991; McClure 1991; Shields 1991). Furthermore, revetted banks on the Sacramento River, California, that incorporated woody vegetation suffered less damage from high flow velocities than unvegetated banks of the same age and similar curvature (Shields 1991).

Speculation about Conflicting Findings of Riprap Studies

The studies described above addressing the effects of bank stabilization w ith riprap on river biota provide ambiguous results when considered in aggregate. Some case studies showed higher diversities and abundances of fish and invertebrates along riprapped banks than natural banks. Other studies indicated decreases in abundances and diversities of fish along riprapped banks compared to natural banks. In some studies, benefits were accrued by some species w hile others were deleteriously affected. In this section, w e provide conjecture on why such disparate findings exist. However, it is important to note that this is, for the most part, mere speculation.

Some of the studies showing positive effects of riprap on fish (i.e., Binns 1994 and Avery 1995) w ere before-and-after studies conducted in streams suffering previous bank degradation from cattle grazing or other agriculture-related effects. Pre-existing conditions in these cases were already degraded and were no longer natural. Therefore, the ostensible positive effects of riprap in these cases may be view ed more realistically as partial mitigation of more severe past damage.

The beneficial effects of riprap in large, w armwater rivers such as the Mississippi may perhaps be view ed similarly. Historically, such rivers w ere congested with woodydebris snags, w hich because they w ere often the only hard substrates available (most substrates in these rivers consist of sand and gravel), w ere important sources of cover for fish and attachment sites for benthic invertebrates (Allan 1995). For example, in the Saltilla River, Georgia, woody debris represented only 4% of the total habitat surface available, but supported 60% of the total invertebrate biomass (Benke et al. 1985). Four of the 8 species of fish collected in this study obtained at least 60% of their prey biomass from w oody debris, and all of the fish species used woody debris to some extent as cover (Benke et al. 1985). Removal of snags during the 19th and 20th centuries from large rivers to facilitate navigation (Funk and Robinson 1974) has severly diminished availability of hard substrates, leaving only shifting sand substrates. When riprap is introduced into these hard-substrate-limited systems, it is quickly colonized by invertebrates and used as cover by fish (Dardeau et al. 1995). Again, the pre-existing conditions used to compare riprapped banks to w ere already somew hat degraded and no longer provided a valid comparison. Studies conducted in coldw ater systems tended to show negative effects of riprap on salmonids. In these systems, results may have differed from those in w armw ater systems because hard substrate w as likely not a limiting factor, considering that many freestone trout streams are characterized by a diverse range of substrate sizes, often including boulders. In addition, the absence of undercut banks along revetment s may have been detrimental to salmonids.

Differing effects of riprap in different studies may also have been an artifact of w hen those studies w ere conducted and which life stages or species were focused on. Because microhabitat requirements change diurnally, seasonally, ontogenically, and as a function of prevailing w eather and flow conditions, temporal and procedural differences in sampling protocols may have introducted confounding factors and led researchers to different conclusions.

Finally, it is important to recognize that riprap comes in various forms, sizes, and configurations, and can be made up of a variety of materials, w hich can influence its suitability as invertebrate and fish habitat. The physical descriptions of riprap in many of the studies we read were often incomplete or vague, thus making it difficult to recognize important distinctions (e.g., size of rock, incorporation of LWD) that may have helped reduce the uncertainty of our conclusions.

Current Deflection Structures

Current deflection structures are the primary alternative to riprap for stabilizing the longitudinal profile of rivers. In general, current deflection structures extend from a riverbank into the channel to redirect w ater flow away from the bank tow ard the middle of the channel (Peters et al. 1998; NRCS and DEQ 1998). The redirected flow is sometimes intended to maintain a navigation channel (Sandheinrich and Atchison 1986). Many variations of these structures exist and the nomenclature in the literature defining them is inconsistent. Spur dikes, w ingdams, transverse dikes, and rock deflectors are all current deflection structures made w ith human-placed rock oriented dow nstream (NRCS and DEQ 1998; Joel Tohtz, Montana Fish, Wildlife and Parks, personal communication). Dike fields are a series of deflection structures and the associated pools betw een them (Pennington et al. 1983a). Barbs are structures made w ith human-placed rock oriented upstream (Buddy Drake, Drake and Associates, personal communication). Barbs can also be distinguished from other deflection structures because their height should not exceed the w ater surface at bankfull discharge (Buddy Drake, personal communication). Our literature search and consultations did not reveal any information explicitly describing the effects of barbs on fish.

Positive Effects of Current Deflection Structures on Fish

Deflectors are considered a superior bank stabilization type for fish compared to riprap (Li et al. 1984; Sandheinrich and At chison 1986; Peters et al. 1998). Rock deflectors in the Wolf Creek Canyon section of Prickly Pear Creek, Montana, created physical stream characteristics comparable to those associated w ith natural banks (Elser 1968). Highest densities of larval fish in the Willamette River, Oregon, w ere found at a shallow , sloped beach habitat adjacent to deflection structures (Li et al. 1984). Fish densities along banks w ith deflector structures in Batupan Bogue Creek, Mississippi, w ere comparable to densities along natural banks, and w ere significantly greater than densities along riprapped banks (Knight and Cooper 1991); scour holes associated with the deflectors provided deepw ater refuges for fish, including large individuals. During high flow s, juvenile brown trout in the Rio Grande River, Colorado, moved to locations dow nstream of boulder bank deflectors, and age-0 trout w ere frequently observed in the low velocity areas there as w ell (Shuler et al. 1994). Fish densities in 15 w estern Washington rivers w ere generally greater at deflector-stabilized banks than natural banks in w inter (Peters et al. 1998).

The superior performance of deflectors as fish habitat compared to riprap is related to their creation of stable pools or scour holes (Witten and Bulkley 1975; Bulkley et al. 1976; Knight and Cooper 1991; Shields et al. 1993; Shields et al. 1995), lentic habitat connected w ith the main channel (Backiel and Penczak 1989), and provision of a complex of depth-velocity-bed type combinations, which are not typically found adjacent to riprap (Beckett et al. 1983; Li et al. 1984; Baker et al. 1988b). Deflectors, especially w hen in series (dike fields), provide more habitat heterogeneity than simple revetted banks and therefore support more diverse fish and macroinvertebrate assemblages and can also provide spaw ning and nursery areas for some species (Pennington et al. 1983a; Sandheinrich and Atchison 1986; Baker et al. 1987). Fish habitat value of channel reaches that lack a diversity of habitats, especially reaches of low hydraulic contrast w ith minimal pools, w ould likely be enhanced by the addition of deflectors. Larger and more numerous deflectors would be expected to provide more habitat (up to a point) in such reaches.

Negative Effects of Current Deflection Structures on Fish

Dike fields and other deflection structures can also deleteriously affect physical riverine processes and biota. Because dike fields and other deflection structures redirect flow into the thalw eg of a river, riverbed degradation and dew atering of sidechannels and backw aters may result (Sandheinrich and Atchison 1986). Densities of cutthroat trout during spring w ere significantly less at deflector-stabilized banks than natural banks in w estern Washington rivers, perhaps because large w oody debris incorporated into the structures w as poorly placed (Peters et al. 1998). Deflection structures in the Willamette River, Oregon, provided better habitat for larval fishes than riprap, but not as good as at natural banks (Li et al. 1984).

Shortcomings of Bank Stabilization Studies

In the section on conflicting findings of riprap studies we identified confounding factors influencing conclusions drawn from specific studies. In addition to these factors, the scope of these studies tends to limit their applicability. Most studies are limited to certain seasons and are of short duration (< 2 years), thereby limiting understanding of year-class, population, and fishery level effects because patterns of habitat use vary depending on life stage and species (Schiemer et al. 1991; Jurajda 1995; Lister et al. 1995). Effects, or lack thereof, observed during a given season of inquiry may be eclipsed by more pervasive effects during other seasons w hen sampling w as not conducted. These studies also invariably examine only localized effects of bank stabilization on physical and biological properties of rivers. Therefore, macroscale (channel reaches at least ten or more channel w idths long including a variety of habitat types) and long-term effects of bank stabilization have not been clearly addressed (Shields et al. 1995). Compensatory effects (e.g., shifts in habitat use that

compensate for localized deleterious effects) have therefore not been examined. These factors render understanding of the cumulative effects of bank stabilization on the fish populations and fishery characteristics over entire river reaches incomplete.

Sampling Methods

Numerous sampling methods have been used for assessing fish abundances in altered and unaltered bank habitats. Our literature review and consultations identified a number of possible sampling alternatives that may determine relative, and possibly absolute, abundances of fish in different bank habitats along the Yellow stone River. These include grid-point or transect electrofishing via driftboat or jet boat, multi-pass electrofishing w ith a driftboat and shore-based backpack electrofisher in combination, snorkeling surveys, and underw ater video imaging and photography. Because the upper Yellow stone River is a dynamic system w ith diverse habitats, some techniques may be more conducive to sampling certain areas than other techniques. Seasonal differences in performance may also exist. How ever, none of the techniques found in the literature has been tested and validated for the purpose of assessing juvenile salmonid abundances along different kinds of banks of a river the size and configuration of the Yellow stone.

Acknowledgments

Bradley B. Shepard, Joel Tohtz, and Bruce Rich of the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife and Parks, Thomas E. McMahon, Montana State University, and Buddy Drake, Drake and Associates, contributed to this review by providing literature citations, local know ledge, and technical advice. Our w ork w as aided greatly by a draft manuscript entitled " Effects of riprap bank stabilization on stream salmonids in the w estern US" by David A. Schmetterling, Christopher G. Clancy, and Troy M. Brandt, w hich will soon be published in *Fisheries* magazine. The manuscript introduced us to many of the citations and concepts found in our review . An earlier draft of this report w as review ed by Charles Dalby, Montana Department of Natural Resource Conservation, Robert Hazlewood, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Bradley B. Shepard, Robert S. Nebel, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, and Michael Merigliano, University of Montana; these review s significantly enhanced this document.

Prominent Literature Annotations

The follow ing annotations summarize the most important literature citations w e found that expressly addressed bank stabilization structures and their effects on fish. Four of the annotations summarize studies conducted on w armw ater systems and the other seven annotations describe w ork conducted on salmonids. They are listed in reverse chronological order w ithin each group.

Warmwater

Farabee, G. B. 1986. Fish species associated w ith revetted and natural main channel border habitats in Pool 24 of the upper Mississippi River. North American Journal of Fisheries Management 6:504-508.

Tw o revetted and tw o natural banks w ithin Pool 24 of the Mississippi River in Missouri w ere electrofished over a 3-year period to determine the fish species and species diversities associated with the two bank types. One of the revetted banks was stabilized with rock greater than and equal to 2 feet in diameter, w hereas the other revetted bank w as stabilized with rock less than 2 feet in diameter. Thirty-three species of fish w ere collected along the revetted and natural bank types alike, but gizzard shad (*Dorosoma cepedianum*) and common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) dominated catches (65% combined). Seventy percent of all fish collected during the study w ere taken at the revetted banks, and 58 percent of those w ere collected from the bank stabilized w ith the larger rock. Catch-per-unit-effort rates and aggregate weights of fish collected were highest at the large-rock revetment, intermediate at the small-rock revetment, and low est at the natural banks. The author concluded that need for bank stabilization measures and provision of fish habitat in the upper Mississippi River may be reconciled if large-diameter, loosely placed rocks (\geq 2 feet in diameter) are used w hen revetments are constructed.

Pennington, C. H., J. A. Baker, and C. L. Bond. 1983. Fishes of selected aquatic habitats on the lower Mississippi River. Technical Report E-83-2, U. S. Army Engineer Waterw ays Experiment Station, Vicksburg, Mississippi.

Fishes in a 60-mile reach of the low er Mississippi River near Vicksburg, Mississippi, w ere sampled to determine species diversity, abundance, and distribution in dike fields (series of transverse and vane dikes and the associated pools and bars), revetted banks, natural banks, and an abandoned river channel. Fish were sampled w ith gill nets, hoop nets, electrofishing, seines, and minnow traps. Dike fields harbored considerably more species than the other habitats and appeared to provide suitable habitats for many life history stages, from larvae to adults. Occurrence of age-0 fish of numerous species indicated the importance of dike fields as rearing areas. Revetted and natural banks supported similar fish species overall, but revetted banks supported the highest percentage, by w eight, of fish w ith sporting or commercial value. Abundances and total weights of these species w ere low est in the abandoned channel.

Despite the differences in number of species, catch-per-unit-effort (both in number and w eight) was not greater in the dike fields than the other habitat types. The authors noted that comparisons among the four habitat types were accurate only assuming that the equipment used in each habitat type adequately sampled the fish occurring there. The authors opined that this assumption w as not strictly met. In addition, differences in fish assemblages among the habitats w ere less distinct during highw ater periods than low-water periods, probably because of decreased habitat segregation and increased fish movement. Certain times of the year precluded the use of some types of sampling equipment, w hich also may have contributed to the lack of distinctness among assemblages.

Pennington, C. H., J. A. Baker, and M. E. Potter. 1983. Fish populations along natural and revetted banks on the lower Mississippi River. North America Journal of Fisheries Management 3:204-211.

Fish populations along two natural and two revetted banks on the lower Mississippi River near Greenville, Mississippi, w ere sampled w ith baited hoop nets and electrofishing. Numbers of species collected in both habitats w ere similar, w ith 24 species collected along natural banks and 27 species collected along revetted banks. Six species were significantly more abundant along revetted banks, w hile four were more abundant at the natural banks. Species considered to have sport or commercial value w ere, in aggregate, more abundant by w eight along revetted banks than natural banks. Fish abundances at the two natural banks w ere similar year-round, w hereas abundances at the two revetted banks w ere more variable, suggesting movements to and from or betw een other habitats.

Hjort, R. C., P. L. Hulett, L. D. LaBolle, and H. W. Li. 1984. Fish and invertebrates of revetments and other habitats in the Willamette River, Oregon. Technical Report E-84-9, prepared by Oregon State University for the U. S. Army Engineer Waterw ays Experiment Station, Vicksburg, Mississippi.

Physical and biological characteristics of revetted riverbanks, unaltered riverbanks, and secondary channels were compared on the Willamette River, Oregon, at low (221-238 m 3 /sec) and moderate (283-425 m 3 /sec) flow s. Higher total numbers of invertebrates w ere collected from revetted banks than natural banks and the diversity of benthic invertebrates at revetted riverbanks was comparable to that of unaltered riverbanks. High densities of small fishes characterized fish assemblages at revetted riverbanks, but species diversity w as low er than at the unaltered riverbanks. Low densities of large fish characterized the unaltered banks. Catches of fishes in the secondary channels w ere low in number of individuals and number of species compared to the other locations. Logs and overhanging vegetation may have precluded some areas w ithin the secondary channels from effective electrofishing, thereby causing the low catches there. Although revetted banks supported higher densities of fish than unaltered banks, the authors cautioned that revetted banks may reduce total habitat area and diversity over time, but their study did not address such effects.

Coldw ater

Beamer, E. M., and R. A. Henderson. 1998. Juvenile salmonid use of natural and hydromodified stream bank habitat in the mainstem Skagit River, northw est Washington. Miscellaneous Report, Skagit System Cooperative, LaConner, Washington.

Juvenile salmonid (chinook, coho, and chum salmon, and rainbow trout) use of paired natural and modified streambanks along 80 miles of the Skagit River, Washington, w as compared using grid-point electrofishing. Wood cover along banks w as the primary determinant of juvenile chinook and coho salmon abundances, and because natural banks had more and more-complex w ood cover, these species were more abundant along natural banks than nearby riprapped banks. Similarly, juvenile chum salmon preferred banks with aquatic plants and cobble substrates, and because these cover types w ere more common along natural banks than riprapped banks, chum salmon abundances w ere greater along natural streambanks than those modified w ith riprap. Conversely, juvenile rainbow trout w ere more abundant in modified banks with boulder-sized riprap (\geq 256 mm in diameter) than along natural banks, but the reverse w as true for banks modified w ith cobble-sized (64 mm to 256 mm diameter) riprap. Incorporation of w ood and plant cover into riprap banks, and use of boulder-sized riprap, may therefore mitigate localized deleterious effects of bank modification. However, the authors cautioned that such measures may not mitigate the effects of reduced channel migration and avulsion rates caused by bank stabilization programs on habitat characteristics of long river reaches (but then again, their study did not specifically address such effects).

Peters, R., B. R. Missildine, and D. L. Low . 1998. Seasonal fish densities near riverbanks treated w ith various stabilization methods. First year report of the Flood Technical Assistance Project. U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service, North Pacific Coast Ecoregion, Western Washington Office, Aquatic Resources Division, Lacey, Washington.

Determination of w hich bank stabilization methods supported the greatest fish densities w as attempted by conducting snorkel surveys at 2 to 8 sites in each of 15 rivers in western Washington. In general, sub-yearling cutthroat and steelhead trout, coho salmon, and chinook salmon were low er at riprap-stabilized banks than natural banks. In contrast, yearling and older trout densities w ere unaffected or increased at riprap-stabilized banks. Fish densities were generally greater at current deflectorstabilized banks than natural banks in w inter. Large woody debris (LWD) incorporated into riprap did not increase fish densities. Large w oody debris incorporated into current deflectors appeared to increase fish densities, but the effect w as not statistically significant. The authors believed that the LWD was a negligible enhancement to bank stabilization structures because it w as poorly placed, small in size, and lacked complexity of shape. They noted that conclusions from this study w ere based on small sample sizes and that more data may result in different conclusions. For example, total fish densities in the spring were on the average 20,000 fish/km few er at current deflector-stabilized sites than control sites. However, the statistical conclusion for this test showed no significant difference, because of small sample sizes (i.e., too few study sites).

Avery, E. L. 1995. Effects of streambank riprapping on physical features and brown trout standing stocks in Millville Creek. Research Report 167, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources.

Millville Creek, a small (7 to 10 cfs during summer) brown trout stream in southw estern Wisconsin w as riprapped to counteract effects of bank degradation caused by dairy-cattle grazing and row-crop farming in the riparian zone. Prior to treatment, the stream w as characterized by near absence of riparian w oody vegetation, unstable streambanks, and extreme streambank erosion. Follow ing riprapping, mean stream depth increased and density of brown trout increased significantly from 65 fish/mile to 102 fish/mile. Although the author did not consider the increase w orth the cost (\$26,000/mile), the study show s that riprapping can have beneficial effects for trout in severely degraded systems.

Lister, D. B., R. J. Beniston, R. Kellerhals, and M. Miles. 1995. Rock size affects juvenile salmonid use of streambank riprap. Pages 621-632 *in* C. R. Thorne, S. R. Abt, F. B. J. Barends, S. T. Maynord, and K. W. Pilarczyk, editors. River, coastal and shoreline protection: erosion control using riprap and armourstone. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., New York.

Assessment of bank stabilization effects on fish was conducted on the Thompson and Coldw ater rivers in British Columbia. Snorkel surveys on the Thompson River in summer and winter revealed that large riprap (rock > 30 cm in diameter) supported higher chinook salmon and steelhead trout densities than small riprap (≤ 30 cm in diameter) or natural cobble-boulder banks. Chinook salmon, steelhead trout, and hat chery-reared coho salmon densities w ere greater in large riprap than small riprap on the Coldw ater River in summer. Placing large (1.0 to 1.5 m diameter) boulders along the toe (intersection of bank w ith edge of the channel) of the bank on the Coldw ater River appeared to increase rearing densities of all salmonids except sub-yearling steelhead trout. The authors concluded that size modifications to standard riprap rock could increase fish habitat value. They cautioned how ever, that no single design prescription w ould be appropriate for all rivers because the size of rock required to increase fish habitat value is dependent on the hydraulic and biological requisites of the particular river. Patterns of fish habitat use should also be known because requirements may vary from case to case, depending on species, life stage and other factors.

Knudsen, E. E., and S. J. Dilley. 1987. Effects of riprap bank reinforcement on juvenile salmonids in four w estern Washington streams. North American Journal of Fisheries Management 7:351-356.

Summer and fall juvenile salmonid abundances were estimated on four streams in central w estern Washington shortly before and after the banks were stabilized with riprap. Electrofishing and seining were used for capturing fish for mark-recapture analyses. Biomasses of juvenile coho salmon, juvenile steelhead, and cutthroat trout decreased after long lengths of bank w ere stabilized in the smaller streams. In larger streams, slight reductions in numbers of juvenile coho salmon and young-of-the-year cutthroat trout occurred, but numbers of yearling steelhead and cutthroat trout increased. The authors surmised that short-term negative effects of riprap construction w ere greater on smaller salmonids than larger salmonids in large streams, and that effects w ere more severe in smaller streams than large streams.

Michny, F. 1987. Sacramento River Chico Landing to Red Bluff Project 1986 juvenile salmon study. U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Division of Ecological Services, Sacramento, California.

This study evaluated juvenile salmon use of alternatives to standard riprap bank stabilization. Juvenile salmon w ere observed and counted (not netted) on the w ater surface after being shocked by an electrofishing boat. Salmon abundances were greatest at the natural banks and low est at the standard rock revetments. Salmon abundances w ere intermediate at modified revetted banks, w hich w ere either covered with 1 to 4 inch river-run gravel or incorporated a 5:1 "fish rearing slope." The author concluded that rearing habitat values of standard riprap w ere substantially low er than natural banks, but that modifications to standard riprap reduced rearing habitat loss.

Elser, A. A. 1968. Fish populations of a trout stream in relation to major habitat zones and channel alterations. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 97:389-397.

Physical stream characteristics and trout abundances w ere compared in altered and natural sections of Little Prickly Pear Creek north of Helena, Montana. Altered sections w ere channelized and riprapped in association w ith railroad and highway construction. Channelized sections were uniformly shallow and homogeneous, w hereas unaltered sections varied in depth and alternated betw een pools and riffles. Brown and rainbow trout w ere significantly more abundant (by up to 78%) in the unaltered sections than in the altered sections, and non-salmonid fishes w ere almost completely absent in the altered reaches. Pairs of transverse rock deflectors installed as velocity checks to improve habitat quality in the highw ay segment resulted in physical stream conditions nearly comparable to unaltered sections, except for absence of vegetative cover. Fish abundances there remained depressed, but the author postulated that the situation w ould improve w ith time, given that the alterations were recent.

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SIDE CHANNELS

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