

Fish Life Histories, Wildfire, and Resilience—A Case Study of Rainbow Trout in the Boise River, Idaho

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Introduction

In this short piece we address the question of how aquatic ecosystems and species can change in response to disturbances, such as those related to the influence of wildfire on stream ecosystems. Our focal species is rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) in the Boise River, Idaho. Rainbow trout in this system have persisted in the face of widespread and often severe wildfires occurring since the 1990s (Rieman and others 1997; Burton 2005; Dunham and others 2007).

Wildfire can lead to a variety of changes in stream environments (Minshall 2003). In the Boise River, recent wildfires ranged from light to severe burns (Dunham and others 2007), leading to variable changes in riparian and hillslope vegetation, and in some cases initiation of major channel reorganizing events (Benda and others 2003; Miller and others 2003). These events often involved massive erosion of stream channels, sometimes throughout an entire tributary. In the latter case, local populations of rainbow trout were reduced to undetectable levels (Burton 2005). In others, a patchwork of wildfire appeared to eliminate rainbow trout from some reaches of stream, but not others (Rieman and others 1997). Following these wildfires, water temperatures remained elevated for several years, particularly for streams influenced by channel reorganization (Dunham and others 2007; Figure 1). In spite of these dramatic environmental changes, rainbow trout have remained widespread in streams within the Boise River (Dunham and others 2007). What characteristics of this species' biology have conferred resilience in the face of these massive disturbances? What constraints may limit resilience?

One key to species resilience may be the expression of diverse and flexible life histories (Bisson and others 2009; Healey 2009; Waples and others 2009; Greene and others 2010). Our work on rainbow trout suggests the species is flexible in terms of how individuals and populations respond to variable environments, and that responses can be constrained by human influences that alter natural variability. The two major constraints we focus on here are invasions of nonnative trout (Neville and Dunham, in press) and loss of connectivity caused by stream culverts that block fish passage (Neville and others 2009).

Our work in the Boise River focused on smaller streams because both physical (Benda and others 2003; Miller and others 2003; Wondzell and King 2003) and biotic responses to wildfire may be more evident (Dunham and others 2003; Gresswell 1999; Minshall 2003). We recognized three broad classes of streams (Dunham and others 2007): 1) those lacking a recent history of wildfire; 2) streams with a recent history of moderate to high severity wildfire; and 3) streams in watersheds with a recent history of moderate-high severity wildfire that were followed by massive channel reorganization from a debris flow or severe flood. These events



Figure 1. Immediate aftermath of the 2003 Hot Creek Fire in the Boise National Forest. Pictured stream is a fish-bearing tributary to the upper Middle Fork Boise River (photo credit: Joseph Benjamin).

(fires, channel reorganization) occurred from 8-10 years prior to when we sampled fish, allowing for at least 2-3 generations of local reproduction.

We examined patterns of population density among these three classes of streams (for methods see Rosenberger and Dunham 2005; Dunham and others 2007), and found that density of age 1+ fish differed among the three classes of streams (Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance, $X^2=5.96$, $df=2$, $p = 0.02$). In streams without a recent history of wildfire densities of age 1+ fish were highest (0.22 fish/m²), those in burned streams were intermediate (0.17 fish/m²), and densities in reorganized streams were lowest (0.05 fish/m²).

The sizes of fish at different ages were also different among streams. For the youngest three age classes (0+, 1+, 2+), fish were smallest in unburned streams and largest in reorganized streams (A. Rosenberger and J. Dunham, unpublished). This paralleled the pattern of water temperature in these streams, with unburned streams being coldest and reorganized streams being warmer (Dunham and others 2007). Warmer water temperatures could lead to faster metabolism and growth, if sufficient food is available (Hughes and Grand 2000). Additionally, fish in warmer streams may experience a longer growing season, and thus more opportunity to gain a larger size. Even though summer temperatures in the warmest streams exceeded levels that can be stressful to individuals, availability of suitable temperatures in spring and fall can still lead to faster growth (e.g., Tattam 2007). Faster growth may also be attributed to lower population densities and less intraspecific competition (Grant and others 1998; Ward and others 2006), especially in reorganized streams.

In parallel with growth, age at maturity was youngest in the warmer reorganized streams (A. Rosenberger and J. Dunham, unpublished data). A few individuals in

reorganized streams began maturing as early as their first summer (age 0+), with the frequency of mature individuals increasing in the 1+ and 2+ age classes. By age 1+, we observed that 27% of the total number of fish sampled were mature, with males predominating among mature individuals (83% of total mature individuals). For the age 1+ cohort, larger males and females were much more likely to be mature. By age 2+ the length differences were no longer significant, perhaps reflecting the influences of size-selective mortality or emigration. In other words, fish that grew faster and matured at age 1+ may have reproduced and died, thus leaving behind only slower growing fish in the 2+ age class, or older fish may have emigrated. The pattern of growth and maturity we observed has been observed repeatedly in other salmonids grown in captivity (Wysujack and others 2008) and in the field (Olsson and others 2006; McMillan and others, in press).

We also compared genetic responses of rainbow trout to changes in habitat associated with wildfire in the Boise and adjacent Payette River basins (Neville and others 2009). We hypothesized that disturbances associated with wildfire and channel reorganization should lead to losses of genetic variation within local populations. Given that populations can potentially be extirpated by disturbances associated with wildfires (Burton 2005), or reduced in distribution (Rieman and others 1997) or abundance (see above), it is reasonable to expect that genetic drift may lead to losses of genetic diversity.

We surveyed genetic variability in samples of rainbow trout collected from 55 small streams representing gradients of disturbance that paralleled our fish population surveys (Dunham and others 2007). We found that variability was similar among streams representing unburned, burned, and reorganized classes, as described above. In contrast, in streams that were isolated by human-caused fish passage barriers (impassable road culverts), we found losses of genetic variability were more likely, as has been found consistently in many similar studies (Neville and others 2006). In some locations, we found unexpectedly high levels of hybridization with nonnative cutthroat trout (*O. clarkii*) and hatchery rainbow trout introduced historically for sport fisheries, although hybridization was not related to fire history (Neville and others 2009; see also Neville and Dunham, in press). Overall, genetic variability within populations was most strongly associated with habitat size, with greater diversity observed in larger habitats. These results highlighted the importance of habitat size and connectivity, both critical factors influencing the resilience of fish in dynamic environments (Rieman and Dunham 2000; Dunham and others 2003; Bisson and others 2009).

In summary, we observed responses of individuals and populations in association with influences of wildfire (e.g., increased water temperatures), and in association with human influences, such as fragmentation of habitat and introductions of nonnative trout. Fish in streams most dramatically impacted by wildfires grew faster, but matured earlier in life with some evidence for shorter overall lifespan resulting from early reproduction. In non-scientific terms, these fish appeared to adopt a “live fast – die young” strategy, but the genetic basis of these responses is unknown. More recent changes, such as loss of genetic variability and changes in allele frequencies due to hybridization were linked to human influences.

Implications for Species Resilience In the Face of Disturbance

In the case of responses of rainbow trout to wildfire and other human influences in the Boise River, we find that wildfire changes both ecosystems and species. We also found that human influences have fragmented habitats (e.g., movement

barriers at road crossings) and constrained opportunities for rainbow trout to express its full range of life histories (e.g., because of hybridization with nonnative trout). These constraints appear to operate in ecological time, but ultimately may also constrain the evolutionary potential of rainbow trout. For example, if isolated populations lose substantial amounts of genetic variability or if genomes become compromised by hybridization with nonnative cutthroat trout these fish may have less capacity for evolutionary responses to their environment. Maintaining opportunities for natural expression of diverse phenotypes may be critical to long-term productivity, persistence, and continued evolutionary resilience of rainbow trout (Bisson and others 2009; Healey 2009; Waples and others 2009; Greene and others 2010).

We found human influences within local habitats to be important, but human impacts may stem from influences or constraints operating much further downstream. For example, major dams in place in the Boise River and downstream in the Snake River have prevented migration of rainbow trout to the sea to express a “steelhead” life history. Steelhead trout were common in the Boise River and other nearby streams prior to their extirpation by these large dams (Busby and others 1996). In locations where migratory fish are available to recolonize empty habitats, populations can be highly resilient to disturbance. Examples include migrants within freshwater systems (e.g., Rieman and others 1997; Dunham and others 1997), but also migrants from marine ecosystems, such as salmon and steelhead (Bisson and others 2005; Howell and others 2006; Bisson and others 2009).

Even without a steelhead life history present, freshwater resident rainbow trout appear resilient in the face of wildfire, except in the smallest and most isolated habitats, as would be expected in theory and from the few empirical data available for salmonid fishes (Dunham and others 2003). Resilience is shown in the ability of rainbow trout to rapidly recolonize habitats following disturbance, variable responses to changing environments (e.g., growth, age at maturity), and maintenance of large enough numbers of adults to avoid genetic drift in the face of disturbance. Lower resilience is evident when other constraints imposed by humans (e.g., movement barriers, nonnative trout) limit the species’ ability to respond to disturbance (Bisson and others 2009; Healey 2009; Waples and others 2009; Greene and others 2010).

Finally, results of this work point to the importance of evaluating multiple responses of a species to wildfire. If, for example, we had relied only on ecological responses, we would have missed critical threats posed by intra and inter-specific hybridization. Furthermore, evaluating only distribution or abundance of a species provides only limited insights into possible mechanisms contributing to resilience. This has important implications for evaluating potential effects of wildfire or fire management alternatives on aquatic species. Whereas it is obvious that we need to understand more about processes that contribute to species responses to wildfire, studies of species responses typically address only the net results of such processes: presence or abundance. Because both of these responses can be influenced by multiple underlying processes, presence or abundance can offer only limited insight into the complex interplay of the underlying genetic, environmental, and demographic drivers. In conclusion, to better understand species responses in the face of changes in aquatic ecosystems caused by wildfire (or any other disturbance) we need to better understand the processes that constrain or contribute to resilience.

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