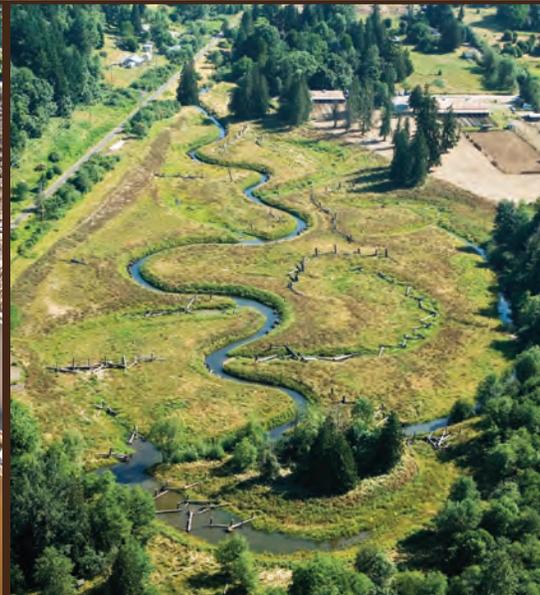
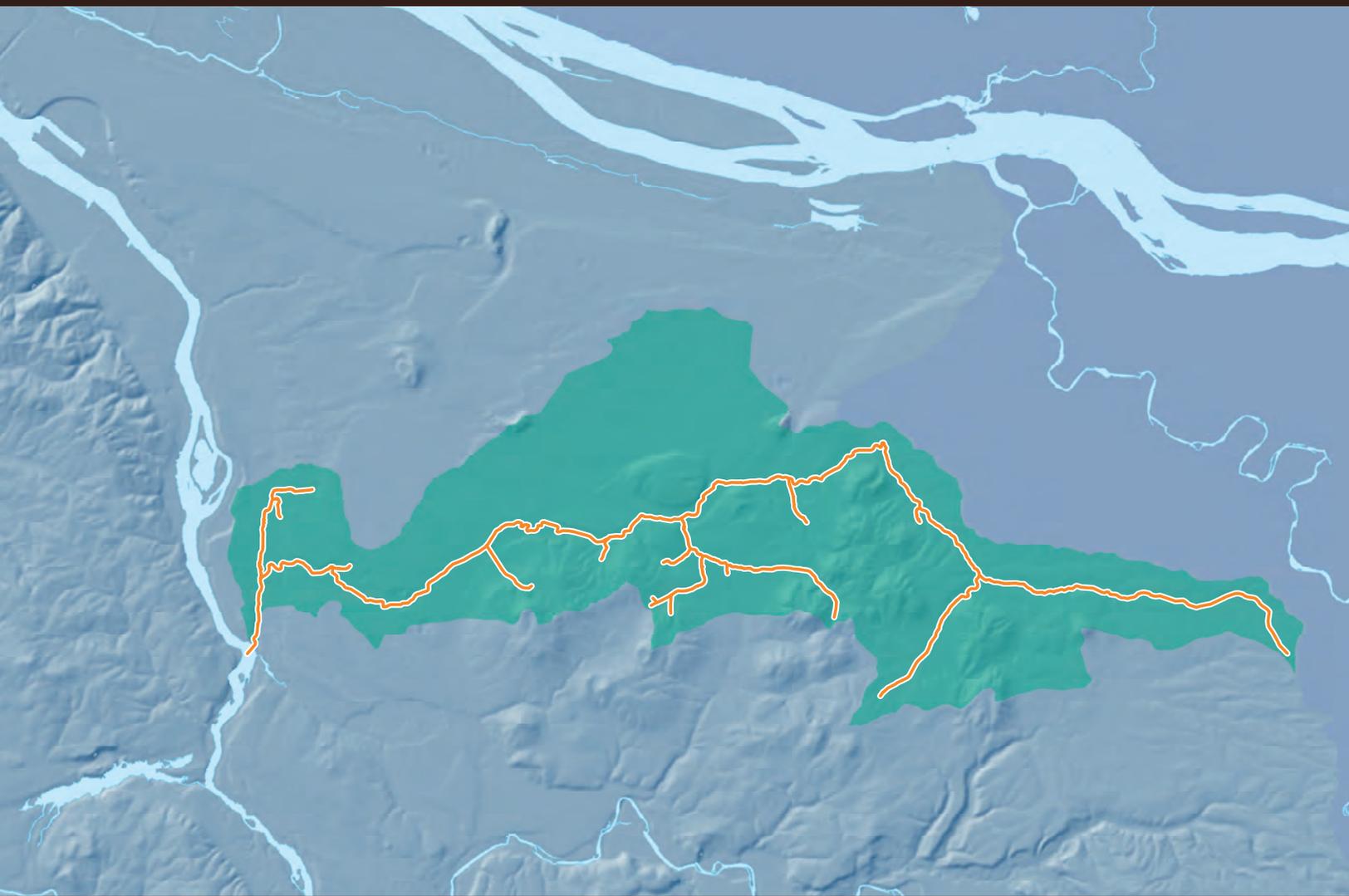


STATUS AND TRENDS OF SALMONID POTENTIAL IN JOHNSON CREEK: 2000–2009

CITY OF PORTLAND, BUREAU OF ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES | APRIL 2010



STATUS & TRENDS OF SALMONID POTENTIAL IN JOHNSON CREEK: 2000 TO 2009

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Table of Contents

Introduction.....	1
Project Context	1
Scope of Analysis.....	2
Johnson Creek Watershed Overview	5
Watershed Description	5
Indicator Species	6
Coho Salmon	7
Winter Steelhead	8
Fall Chinook.....	8
Restoration Projects.....	9
Tideman Johnson Park	9
Errol Creek Confluence	11
Schweitzer	13
Kelley Creek Confluence	16
Kelley Creek Obstructions.....	17
Analysis of Restoration Projects and the Current State of Johnson Creek	21
Analytical Approach	21
Johnson Creek Habitat Model.....	22
Template Condition	22
Conditions in 2000	23
Conditions in 2009	24
Salmonid Habitat Potential in Johnson Creek	27
Watershed-Scale Analysis	27
Restoration Effectiveness	27
Results by Project.....	28
Multispecies Diagnosis.....	31
Reach-Scale Analysis	31
Reach-Scale Effects	32
Restoration and Protection Values.....	33
Conclusions.....	41
References Cited	43
Printed References.....	43
Personal Communication.....	46

Appendix A: Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment Attributes

Appendix B: EDT Attribute Changes from Restoration

Appendix C: Reach-Scale Multispecies Diagnosis

Tables

Table 1.	Restoration Projects in Johnson Creek Considered in this Analysis.....	9
Table 2.	Habitat Potential (in Numbers of Adult Salmonids) of the Johnson Creek Watershed under Template, 2000, and 2009 Conditions.....	27
Table 3.	Increase in Habitat Potential (in Number of Adult Salmonids) in Johnson Creek Watershed from Individual Restoration Projects	30

Figures

Figure 1.	The Johnson Creek Watershed with Stream Reaches and Restoration Projects Considered in this Analysis	2
Figure 2.	Restoration Activities near the Confluence of Kelley Creek with Johnson Creek	14
Figure 3.	Average Habitat Area and Composition in the Primary Reaches Where Restoration Occurred	24
Figure 4.	Rating of Large Woody Debris Before and After Restoration	26
Figure 5.	Habitat Potential in Numbers of Adult Salmonids of Johnson Creek Watershed in 2000 and 2009.....	27
Figure 6.	Increase in Habitat Potential (in Number of Adult Salmonids) in Johnson Creek Watershed from Individual Restoration Projects	29
Figure 7.	Limitation of Salmonid Life Stages by Survival-Related Attributes in Johnson Creek in 2009.....	35
Figure 8.	Relative Change in the Productivity and Capacity for Indicator Species in Reaches with Restoration	37
Figure 9.	Restoration and Protection Values of Reaches Used by Indicator Species in 2000 (Dots) and 2009 (Bars).....	39

Photos

Photo 1.	Example of WPA Modification of Johnson Creek Stream Channel (Reach 13 off Foster Road).....	6
Photo 2.	Johnson Creek at Tideman Johnson Park Before and After Restoration	10
Photo 3.	Mouth of Errol Creek Before and During Restoration.....	12
Photo 4.	Site of the Schweitzer Restoration Project Before and After Restoration.....	15
Photo 5.	Confluence of Kelley Creek with Johnson Creek Before and After Restoration.....	16
Photo 6.	Step Structures on Kelley Creek Before and After Restoration	18
Photo 7.	Box Culverts on Kelley Creek at Foster Road Before and After Restoration.....	19

Acronyms and Abbreviations

cfs	cubic feet per second
City	City of Portland
DPS	Distinct Population Segment
EDT	Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment
ESA	Endangered Species Act
ESU	Evolutionarily Significant Unit
ODEQ	Oregon Department of Environmental Quality
ODFW	Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife
SAR	smolt-to-adult return
UGB	urban growth boundary
WPA	Works Progress Administration

Project Context

The City of Portland (City) has made significant commitments to the restoration of environmental conditions in the Johnson Creek watershed. The City has made these investments to improve ecosystem services such as flood control and water quality, to contribute to recovery of salmonid populations listed under the federal Endangered Species Act (ESA), and to enhance the quality of life for Portland residents (City of Portland 2005). Johnson Creek and its tributaries comprise the largest stream system within the City's jurisdiction, and are, therefore, of key importance to issues such as salmonid recovery and stormwater management (Meross 2000).

To achieve these goals, the City has undertaken major stream restoration efforts to restore conditions affected by urban development in the lower Willamette River and key tributaries including Johnson Creek. The direction and prioritization of these investments has been supported by scientific studies and analysis aimed at understanding the potential of Portland's urban streams and to identify habitat limitations and opportunities. A key component of these tributary studies has been the assessment of conditions to support strategic investments in habitat restoration and protection actions. This has included in-depth studies of fish assemblages and habitat use in the lower Willamette River (Friesen 2005) and tributaries including Johnson Creek (ODFW 1999, 2000a, 2000b). The City has synthesized much of this information to create an analytical framework for assessment of Portland streams and identification of limiting factors and priorities (McConnaha 2003; Primozich 2004). The City's analytical framework has been applied to the assessment of conditions in Johnson Creek (McConnaha 2003) and to the evaluation of restoration efforts in Tryon Creek (ICF Jones & Stokes 2008). These efforts have provided an understanding of the ecological potential of these streams and have helped the City plan and prioritize restoration actions. The analytical framework has also quantified habitat potential of the streams and identified its key role in recovery of ESA-listed salmonid populations in the lower Willamette River.

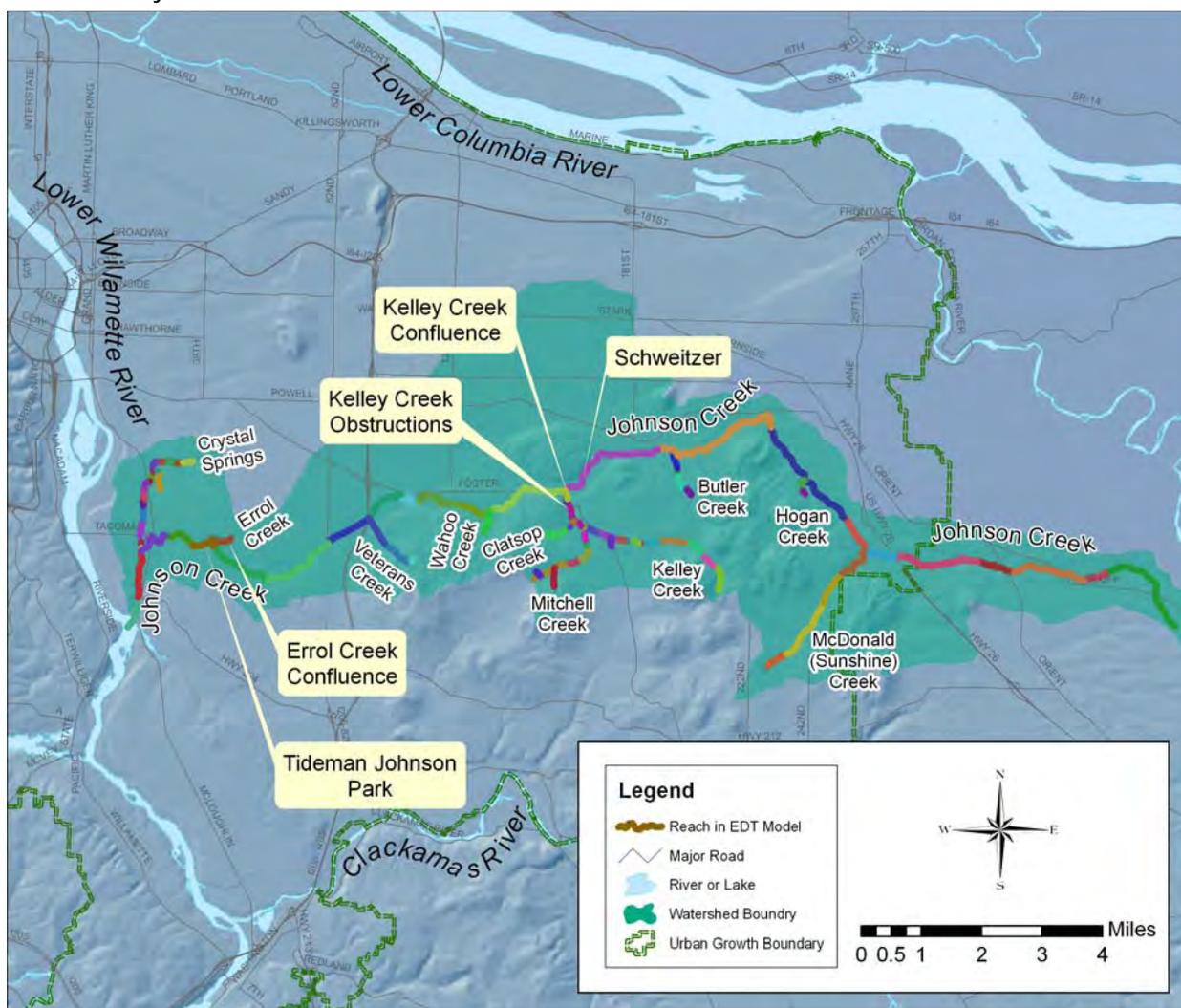
In this report, we analyze and compare the impact of restoration projects in Johnson Creek on the habitat potential to support native salmonid fishes. To do this, we compare the habitat potential at two points in time, 2000 and 2009. During this period, the City undertook several major stream restoration actions in Johnson Creek to provide flood control, enhance the natural character of the stream, and to contribute to restoration of ESA-listed coho salmon, winter steelhead and fall Chinook salmon. In this analysis we have assessed the potential biological value of these projects and quantified the contribution of the City's efforts to restoration of ESA-listed salmonid populations in the lower Willamette River. The analysis also serves as a tool to evaluate restoration priorities and recovery actions in Johnson Creek to continue progress toward the City's ecological goals for Johnson Creek.

Scope of Analysis

The objective of the analysis was to assess the benefits of major restoration projects on the potential of Johnson Creek watershed to maintain salmonid populations. The investigation covered five restoration actions that have occurred since 2000 in the following areas of Johnson Creek (Figure 1):

- Tideman Johnson Park (stream mile 2.7)
- Errol Creek Confluence (stream mile 2.9)
- Kelley Creek Confluence (stream mile 10.8)
- Kelley Creek Obstructions (0.25 and 0.28 mile above confluence)
- Schweitzer (stream mile 12.8)

Figure 1. The Johnson Creek Watershed with Stream Reaches and Restoration Projects Considered in this Analysis



The investigation evaluated the effects of restoration actions on three salmonid species: coho, winter steelhead, and fall Chinook. These species serve as indicators of the normative condition, or

intrinsic potential, for Johnson Creek and the status of conditions for the co-evolved biological community. In other words, we make the assumption that the development of conditions in Johnson Creek conducive to these three native salmon species are likely to be conducive to other co-evolved fish, invertebrate and wildlife species. The biological requirements of salmonids are well known and can be evaluated within the analytical framework used in this analysis, thereby allowing evaluation of progress toward the development of a normative ecological system in Johnson Creek (Davis 1994).

Johnson Creek Watershed Overview

Watershed Description

The following description is based on the draft watershed characterization by the Bureau of Environmental Services (2005). The Johnson Creek watershed (54 square miles) is within the Willamette River basin in western Oregon (Figure 1); the mouth of the creek is approximately 18 miles from the confluence of the Willamette with the Columbia River. The headwaters of Johnson Creek watershed are largely in unincorporated Clackamas and Multnomah counties and in the cities of Gresham and Damascus, while the lower watershed is primarily within the cities of Portland (38% of the watershed) and Milwaukie. Land use is highly variable, with predominantly agricultural and forested land outside the regional urban growth boundary (UGB) and mixed urban uses (i.e., residential, industrial, commercial, and open space) within the UGB (Figure 1).

The strong contrast of winter versus summer precipitation in the Pacific Northwest gives Johnson Creek a strongly seasonal hydrograph. For example, in mid-lower Johnson Creek (at the Sycamore USGS gauge), flow during winter storms is often between 100 and 300 cubic feet per second (cfs), while summer baseflow is typically less than 10 cfs (Lee and Snyder 2009). The dimensions of the watershed (i.e., long with relatively short tributaries) and impervious surfaces in urbanized portions of the watershed cause rapid fluctuations in flow during storms (Clark 1999). Several tributaries in the watershed are spring-fed (e.g., Crystal Springs and Errol Creek), and, therefore, have less variable flow throughout the year.

Water quality in Johnson Creek varies with land use and underlying geology (Sonoda and Yeakley 2007; Waite et al. 2008), but does not meet Oregon Department of Environmental Quality (ODEQ) water quality standards for bacteria, summer temperature, or compounds including DDT, PCBs, and PAHs (ODEQ 2010). Given that the Damascus area is expected to experience a ten-fold increase in population from 1994 to 2020 (Metro 2004), urbanization will be an increasingly important driver for water quality in Johnson Creek in the foreseeable future.

Information on the pre-European development condition of Johnson Creek is lacking; however, the stream is part of a stream-riverine wetlands complex that characterized the predevelopment condition of the lower Willamette River (Davis 1994). Prior to about 1900, the watershed was largely forested, including extensive forested wetlands, especially in very low-gradient areas such as the Lents Neighborhood (Johnson Creek Watershed Council 2003). Johnson Creek was a low-gradient stream with a complex channel and high levels of structure provided by large amounts of downed trees and wood (McConnaha 2003).

The Johnson Creek watershed has been dramatically altered over the years due to urbanization and agriculture. The upper watershed now has largely agricultural land uses, consisting of small farms and nursery operations. Proceeding toward the mouth, the watershed is increasingly urbanized. The most pervasive modification of the stream itself occurred in the 1930s when the Works Progress Administration (WPA) undertook a major re-engineering of the stream in an effort to control persistent flooding. Extensive sections of the stream were diverted into an artificial channel constructed with basalt armoring on the bank and large cobble on the channel floor (Photo 1). The stream was straightened and diverted from its original floodplain. Although the WPA work was not effective in controlling flooding of the stream, it did radically alter the character of the stream

(McConnaha 2003). Salmon were reported in some abundance in the stream up through the mid-twentieth century despite degradation of water quality, riparian condition and other factors. During the latter part of the century and following the WPA modifications, salmon abundance declined to the present condition with minimal abundance and ESA listing of most anadromous salmonids in Johnson Creek.

Photo 1. Example of WPA Modification of Johnson Creek Stream Channel (Reach 13 off Foster Road)



Indicator Species

Our conclusions about the efficacy of restoration projects and the general condition of Johnson Creek were made relative to the needs of three native salmonid fishes: coho salmon (*Onchorhynchus kisutch*), fall Chinook salmon (*O. tshawytscha*) and winter steelhead (*O. mykiss*). These species were historically present in Johnson Creek (Folger 1998). We use these species as indicators of diverse conditions in the stream relative to its normative condition (or intrinsic potential). In this light, our analysis is relevant not only to the focal fish species but also to the co-evolved biological community typical of the lower Columbia River region. Put differently, while the analysis addresses conditions for salmonid fish most directly, it indirectly addresses how well the Johnson Creek ecosystem provides functions needed to sustain a healthy watershed.

Coho, Chinook, and steelhead were historically abundant in the lower Willamette River, but have experienced significant declines including their virtual extirpation from many urban streams, including Johnson Creek (Meross 2000; Myers et al. 2006). Populations of the three indicator species do exist in the nearby Clackamas River (Figure 1). While all three species are still present in Johnson Creek (Tinus et al. 2003; Prescott 2006; Van Dyke and Storch 2009), they are not considered to be

self-sustaining and are probably supported to a large degree by the more productive populations in the Clackamas River. All three salmonid indicator species are listed under ESA (NMFS 2010). Coho in Johnson Creek are part of the lower Columbia River coho Evolutionarily Significant Unit (ESU), which is listed as threatened. Fall Chinook in the lower Willamette River are part of the lower Columbia River Chinook ESU, which is listed as threatened. Winter steelhead are part of the lower Columbia River steelhead Distinct Population Segment (DPS), which is also listed as threatened. Critical habitat for steelhead includes the entirety of Johnson Creek, whereas critical habitat for Chinook includes lower Johnson Creek, up to and including Crystal Springs. Critical habitat for coho has not yet been designated.

While this analysis focuses on Johnson Creek, conditions in the lower Willamette and Columbia rivers strongly influence the performance of salmonids in Johnson Creek. For instance, habitat in the Willamette River provides rearing and migration habitat (Friesen 2005) that potentially augments habitat in Johnson Creek (McConnaha 2003). Juvenile salmonids, especially coho, also make use of the Columbia River estuary for additional growth that likely increases marine survival (smolt-to-adult return or SAR) rates (Bottom et al. 2005). Thus, it is most accurate to consider Johnson Creek as part of a continuum of freshwater habitats that extend from the headwaters, through the lower Willamette River, and into the Columbia River estuary.

Coho Salmon

Coho generally spawn in small, lower-gradient stream reaches and side channels during mid-autumn or early winter (Lestelle 2007). In Johnson Creek, coho likely spawn from mid-October through the end of January (Alsby pers. comm.). Based on habitat preferences, we presumed that all reaches of Johnson Creek below barriers¹ were potentially available to coho salmon. A small portion of male coho return to freshwater in their first ocean year (as jacks), but most coho return after 2 years in the ocean. Adults proceed upstream to spawning grounds at approximately 3 years of age and die after spawning.

Juvenile coho favor relatively slow-moving water such as pools downstream of riffles. Juvenile coho have been observed in lower mainstem reaches of Johnson Creek and in lower reaches of Crystal Springs (Tinus et al. 2003). Coho usually spend 1 year in freshwater and emigrate in the spring of their second year. In Johnson Creek and nearby streams, smolts move into the Willamette River and then into the Columbia River estuary where they may feed and rear for periods of a few days to months prior to entering the ocean (Bottom et al. 2005). Friesen et al. (2005) reported extensive use of the lower Willamette River by juvenile coho, although they moved through the area in 1 to 2 weeks. Juvenile coho were abundant in shallow water areas where feeding and growth would occur. Once in the ocean, coho remain over the continental shelf, and are, therefore, a target of commercial and sport troll fisheries. Coho have been extensively exploited by commercial and sport fisheries with harvest rates exceeding 80% in the mid-1980s (PFMC 2001). Recent harvest rates have been considerably reduced, but significant harvest continues on lower Columbia River coho, including coho originating from Johnson Creek.

¹ Examples of barriers in the upper watershed include a dam at Norander Farms on Kelley Creek, dams on reservoirs on Butler and Hogan Creeks, and a bio-swale on Veteran's Creek.

Winter Steelhead

Native steelhead in the Willamette River are classified as winter-run (Busby et al. 1996). Summer-run steelhead occur, as well, but these are the result of hatchery releases in the Clackamas River and elsewhere in the Willamette system. Steelhead are renowned for their ability to ascend into the upper areas of streams and often spawn in higher-gradient reaches of streams (Busby et al. 1996). In the Clackamas River, winter steelhead usually spawn from January through April. However, in Johnson Creek, the spawning period would likely end earlier as a result of the warm temperatures in Johnson Creek late spring (Alsbury pers. comm.). Based on habitat preferences, we presumed that all of Johnson Creek was potentially useable by steelhead.

Juvenile steelhead emerge from the gravel in spring. As juveniles, winter steelhead use the shallower, faster-moving water more than coho or Chinook. Although the distribution of juvenile steelhead in Johnson Creek is not well established, presumed steelhead² were observed during a fish salvage at Tideman Johnson Park when the restoration project was constructed (Prescott 2006). In spring, usually 1 to 3 years after hatching, steelhead juveniles emigrate from Johnson Creek. Friesen et al. (2005) reported that steelhead move rapidly through the lower Willamette and were usually found in deep-water areas. Steelhead continue to move rapidly downstream toward the ocean and spend little time in the Columbia River estuary (Bottom et al. 2005).

The age structure of a viable steelhead population in Johnson Creek is not known. We hypothesize that adverse habitat conditions in Johnson Creek would favor a population in which most steelhead smolt after 1 or 2 years, giving the population a younger age distribution than in the Clackamas (Alsbury pers. comm.). Steelhead usually spend 1 to 3 years in the ocean and return to freshwater to spawn; winter steelhead enter the watershed during late fall. Although most adults die after spawning, some fraction undergo multiple cycles of migration and spawning.

Fall Chinook

Fall Chinook spawn in mainstem reaches and generally favor larger river areas compared to coho and steelhead. Their natural distribution in Johnson Creek is unknown; however, it is likely that fall Chinook would favor the lower portions of the stream, especially the mainstem of Johnson Creek. In this analysis we assumed that fall Chinook were limited to the lower stream reaches below Interstate 205 (near the confluence of Veterans Creek) including the Crystal Springs tributary (Figure 1).

In the lower Columbia River, fall Chinook spawn from mid-October through the end of November. Fall Chinook in the Columbia Basin are predominantly ocean-type, meaning they spend a relatively short time in their natal areas and begin moving toward the estuary during their first summer (sub-yearlings). Juvenile Chinook have been observed in lower Johnson Creek, especially the Crystal Spring tributary (Tinus et al. 2003). Friesen et al. (Friesen et al. 2005) reported large numbers of sub-yearling fall Chinook in the lower Willamette River, where they favored shallow-water areas, likely indicating feeding and rearing. Fall Chinook remain in coastal waters for 2 to 4 years, where they are heavily impacted by commercial and sport fisheries. A portion of males return to freshwater as jacks in their first year. Pre-spawning adults enter the Columbia River in August and September and move rapidly to mainstem and tributary spawning areas.

² These fish were differentiated from non-anadromous rainbow trout based on size.

Restoration Projects

Five major restoration projects were implemented by the City between 2000 and 2009 and were analyzed in this study (Table 1). These projects were undertaken in part for infrastructural reasons, such as flood control, as well as to improve instream riverine conditions for fish and wildlife. These projects resulted in significant changes to the nature of conditions in the stream. We projected the likely biological response to these changes to compare and assess the contribution of the projects to restoration of native salmonids and their ecosystems.

Table 1. Restoration Projects in Johnson Creek Considered in this Analysis

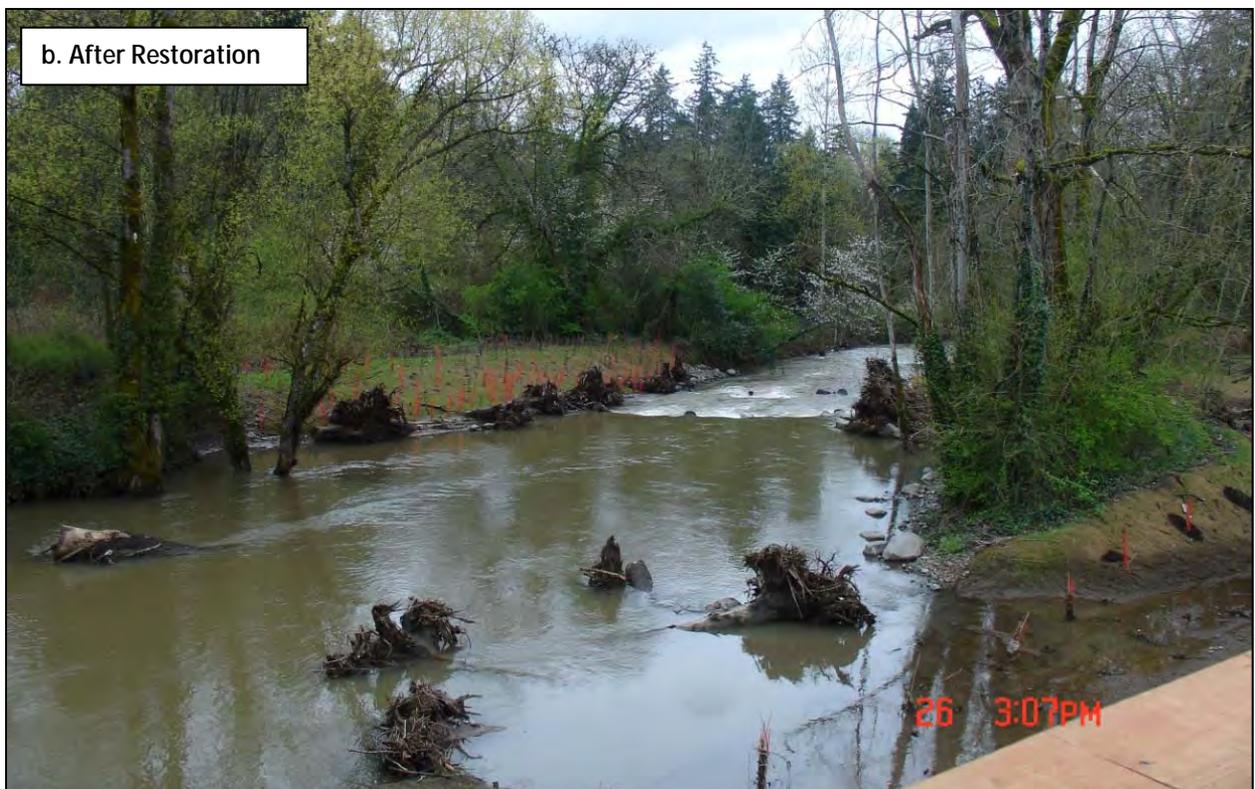
Restoration Area	Primary Reach	Additional Reach(es)
Tideman Johnson Park	Johnson 5A	—
Errol Creek Confluence	Errol 1	Johnson 5B
Schweitzer	Johnson 14	—
Kelley Creek Confluence	Kelley 1	Johnson 14, Johnson 13
Kelley Creek Obstructions	Kelley 1	Kelley 2

Tideman Johnson Park

The City completed the Tideman Johnson Park restoration project in 2006. This area is one of the few portions of lower Johnson Creek that does not appear to have been affected by the WPA channel modifications. The infrastructural purpose of the project was to protect an exposed sewer pipe that crosses Johnson Creek (Photo 2a). Years of erosion had exposed the pipe, creating a potential maintenance and water quality hazard. As part of the effort to fix the sewer line, the City took the opportunity to enhance habitat conditions in the stream and riparian area.

Tideman Johnson Park is adjacent to the intersection of SE 37th Avenue and the Springwater Corridor in reach Johnson 5A (Figure 1). Reach 5 of Johnson Creek had been identified as having high potential restoration value for coho salmon based on the 2000 habitat dataset and analysis (McConnaha 2003). The restoration site extends along 0.3 mile of the creek. Restoration activities included protecting and re-burying the exposed sewer pipe and restoring the floodplain (Photo 2b). The streambank was reshaped to reduce erosion, provide additional flood storage, and enhance stream-floodplain ecological connections. Significant instream habitat enhancements occurred as part of this project, such as the addition of cobbles to increase habitat heterogeneity. Log jams were also added, primarily to prevent erosion, but also to increase habitat complexity. Plantings, large wood, and boulders were placed to additionally reduce erosion and provide a better vegetated riparian area. Finally, a boardwalk was added to minimize foot traffic in the riparian area. The majority of work was completed in 2006.

Photo 2. Johnson Creek at Tideman Johnson Park Before and After Restoration



Errol Creek Confluence

Errol Creek is a small, spring-fed tributary entering Johnson Creek just upstream of Tideman Johnson Park (Figure 1). The stream originates from springs in the Errol Heights wetland complex and flows about 0.3 mile to Johnson Creek. From the wetlands, Errol Creek flows through backyards of a small neighborhood where the stream has been landscaped and tightly confined to a rock-and cement-walled channel (Photo 3a). In efforts to restore portions of Errol Creek, the City of Portland acquired properties, removed dwellings, and conducted restoration projects at the headwater and the confluence. The wetland restoration project included removal of a fish-passage barrier and enhancement of the wetland.

The restoration project at the confluence of Errol Creek with Johnson Creek is near SE 45th Avenue and Harney Street in reach Johnson 5B (Figure 1). This restoration project addressed conditions in the lowermost 0.07 mile (385 feet) of Errol Creek (reach Errol 1). Major actions of the project included moving the stream out of its cement-lined channel into one composed of natural materials, increasing the stream length and complexity, day-lighting a portion of the creek that was in a culvert, creating a wetland designed to accommodate storm flows from Johnson Creek, placing large woody debris, and revegetating the site with native plants (Photo 3b). Project construction was completed in the summer of 2009, and initial revegetation was completed in early 2010. Because Errol Creek is quite small, we assumed that the stream is unlikely to provide significant salmonid spawning habitat. However, the stream and wetland will provide off-channel habitat and a high-flow refuge for salmonids that use this portion of Johnson Creek as juveniles and pre-spawning adults.

Photo 3. Mouth of Errol Creek Before and During Restoration



Schweitzer

The Schweitzer restoration project (formerly called the Brownwood restoration project) is the largest stream restoration effort in the Johnson Creek watershed to date. The site is in the middle portion of Johnson Creek—Reach 14—between SE 158th Drive and SE Circle Avenue, along the Springwater Corridor Trail (Figure 2). This area had been identified as having a high potential for restoration for coho using the City’s earlier data and analysis (McConnaha 2003). The infrastructural purpose of the restoration was to provide overbank flood storage and to moderate the frequent flooding that occurs in this section of the stream. To accomplish this, the City attempted to restore much of the natural riverine function of the section that had been removed by extensive WPA alteration of the stream channel. Prior to restoration, the Schweitzer section of Johnson Creek was a good example of the WPA’s flood-control efforts. The WPA work significantly altered the channel by widening it, deepening it, and lining it with basalt blocks. The stream followed the margin of a field and had little connection to its floodplain and very limited capacity for storing storm flows (Photo 4a).

The Schweitzer project involved excavating a new channel for Johnson Creek and crafting a floodplain to provide over-bank flood storage (Photo 4b). The elevation of the floodplain was reduced by about 12 feet, and a new channel was constructed that was intended to mimic the sinuosity and channel complexity of a natural stream channel. The lowered floodplain, backwaters, and other features provide flood storage and high-flow salmonid refuge. The intent is also to allow Johnson Creek to deposit silt in the floodplain, rather than in the main channel, during periods of high flow. The riverine character of the stream was enhanced by adding woody debris structures, cobbles and gravel, and riparian tree plantings. Once the riparian plants are tall enough to provide shade, they are expected to moderate stream temperatures; currently, they are too small to have an effect on instream conditions. The project was completed in 2007.

Figure 2. Restoration Activities near the Confluence of Kelley Creek with Johnson Creek

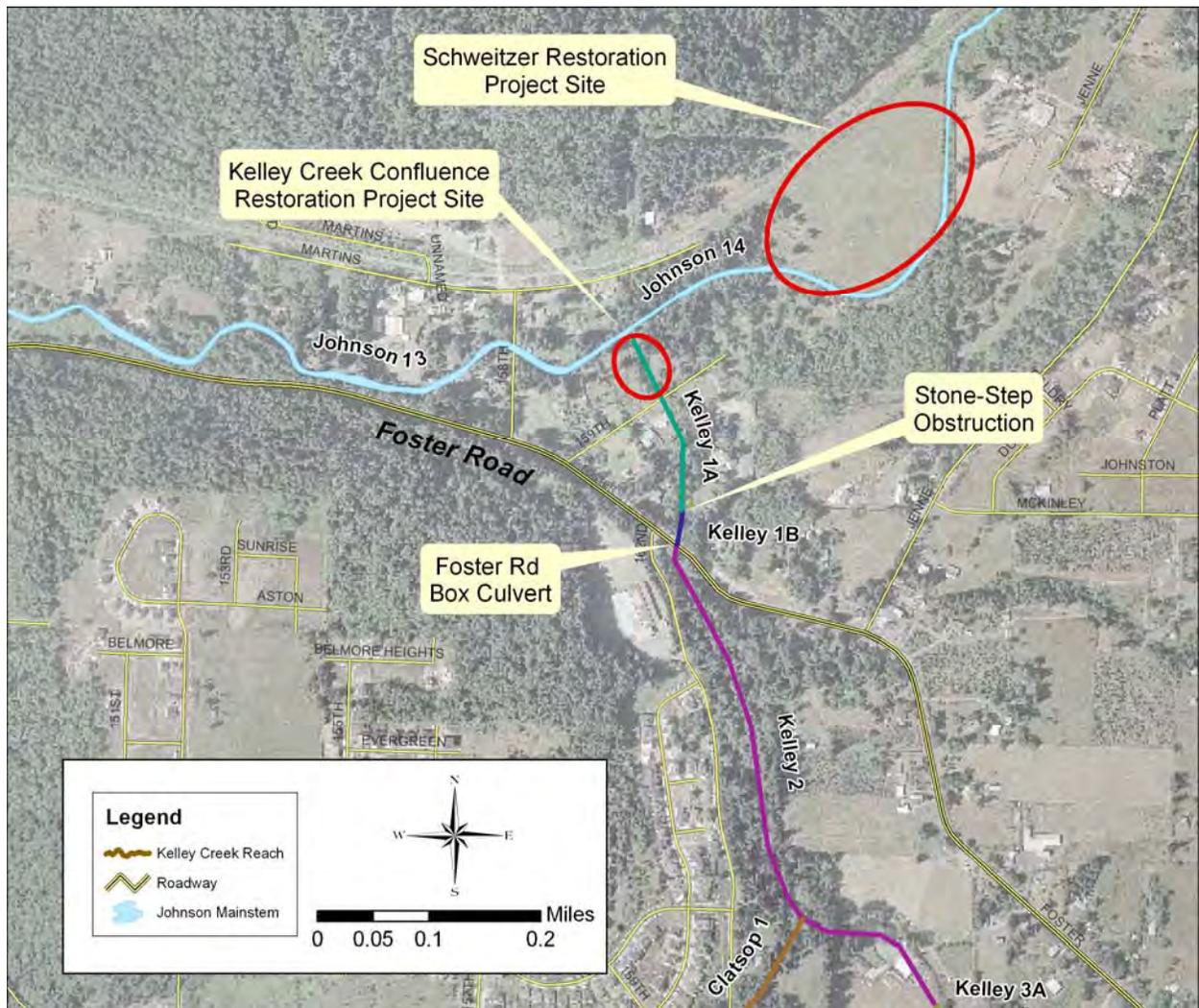
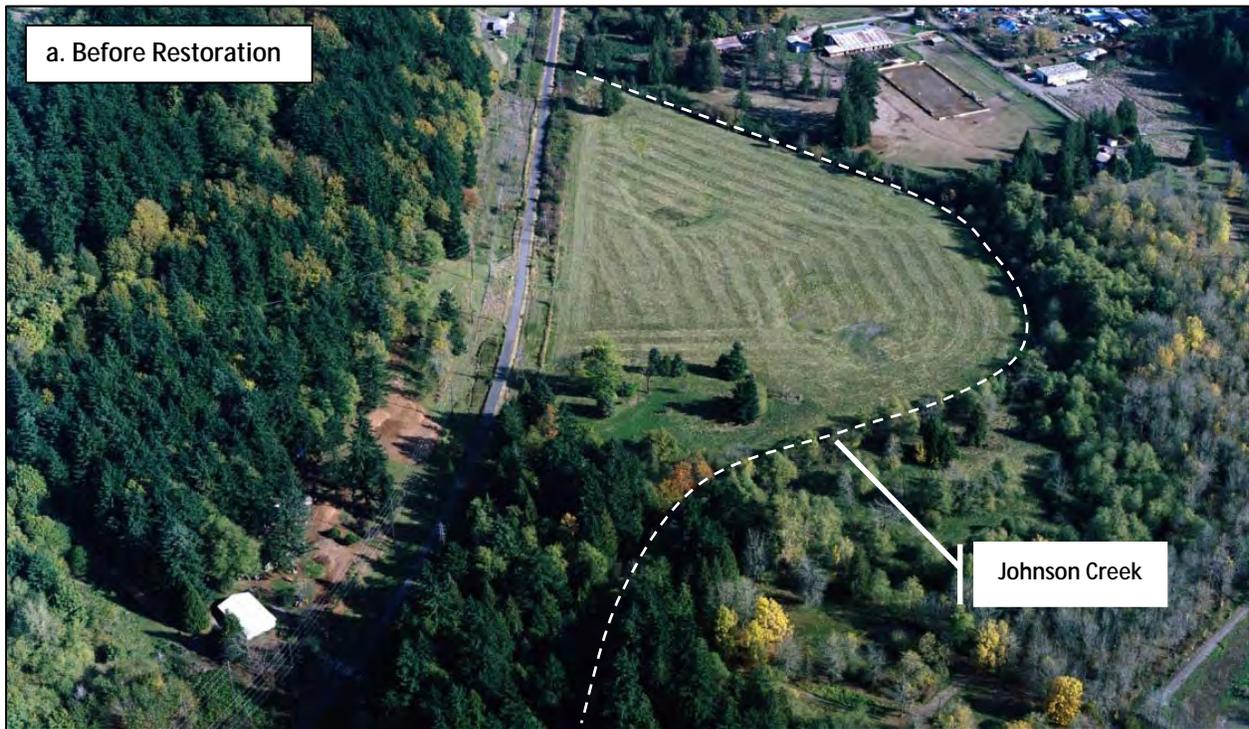


Photo 4. Site of the Schweitzer Restoration Project Before and After Restoration



Kelley Creek Confluence

Kelley Creek is the largest tributary to Johnson Creek, and is located immediately downstream (west) of the Schweitzer site (Figure 2). The lower portion of the stream was channelized and armored, primarily as a result of the WPA activities (Photo 5a). In 2004, the City completed an extensive restoration project in the lowermost 0.09 mile (480 feet) of the stream up to 159th Drive (Photo 5b). Actions included adding sinuosity to the stream channel and adding large woody debris and cobbles to improve habitat heterogeneity. The angle of the stream banks was reduced to allow the stream to connect with the floodplain. The floodplain itself was sculpted and extensively planted with native vegetation. Off-channel habitat was added as backwater spur channels and wetlands adjacent to the stream. Two of the three backwater spur channels are on the Johnson Creek mainstem (in Reaches 13 and 14).

Photo 5. Confluence of Kelley Creek with Johnson Creek Before and After Restoration





Kelley Creek Obstructions

Above 159th Avenue, Kelley Creek was extensively altered by stone works and by the crossing of Foster Road. A waterfall-like step structure (Photo 6a) and a large pond (at Lakeside Gardens) had been built in the section between 159th Avenue and Foster Road (Figure 2). Although the pond was disconnected from Kelley Creek prior to 2000, and was, therefore, not considered in this analysis, the step-structures remained in the channel. Also, until 2002, Kelley Creek passed through two box culverts under Foster Road that greatly restricted anadromous fish access to the Kelley 2 reach (Photo 7a). Kelly 2, above Foster Road, contains some of the best natural stream habitat in Kelley Creek. The National Marine Fisheries Service required the City to correct the passage problems under Foster Road when the road itself was reconfigured. In response, the City constructed a large arch culvert (Photo 6b) that should provide complete connectivity of the Kelley 1 and Kelley 2 reaches (totaling about 0.8 mile). At the same time, the City created notches in the constructed waterfall steps that also restricted passage below Foster Road (Photo 7b).

Photo 6. Step Structures on Kelley Creek Before and After Restoration

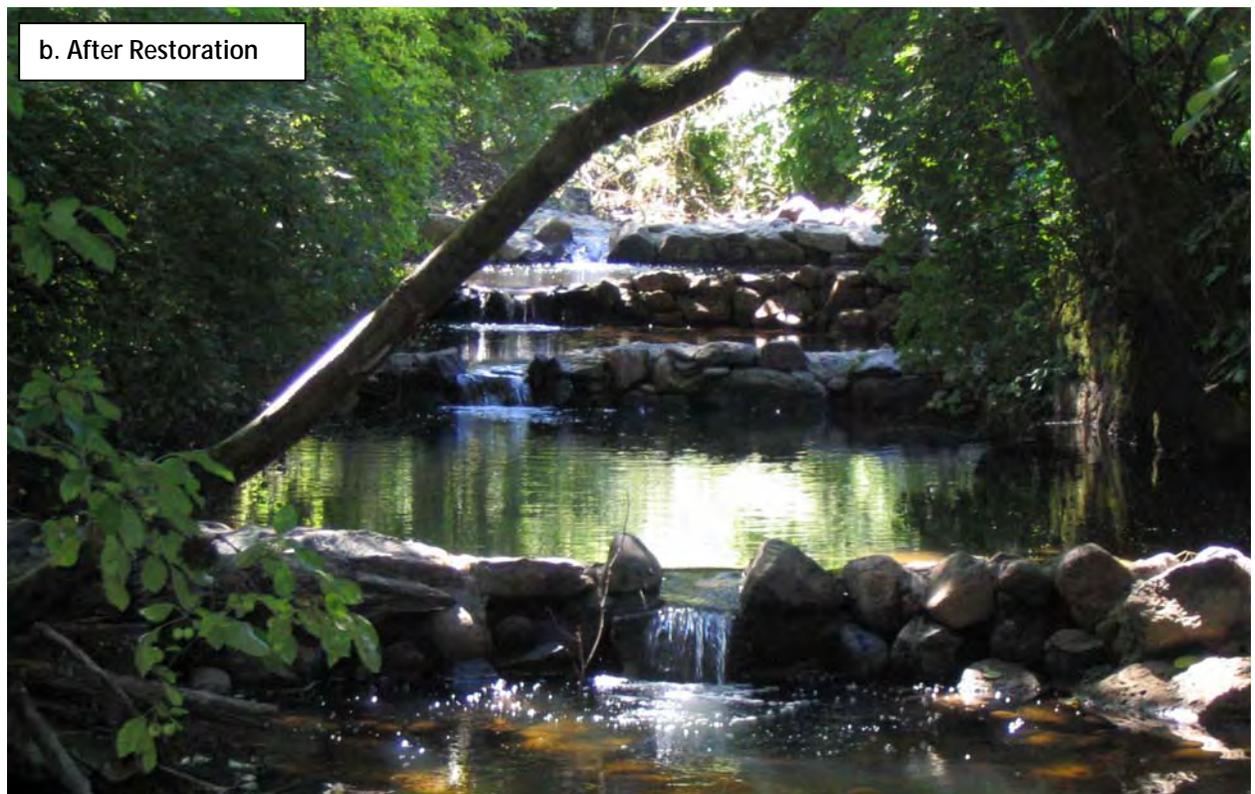


Photo 7. Box Culverts on Kelley Creek at Foster Road Before and After Restoration



Analysis of Restoration Projects and the Current State of Johnson Creek

Analytical Approach

In this analysis, we compared the habitat potential of Johnson Creek in 2000 to that in 2009 for three indicator fish species: coho salmon, fall Chinook salmon, and winter steelhead. Conditions in 2000 were taken as the baseline condition because of an extensive field survey of conditions in Johnson Creek in 1999 and 2000 (prior to the restoration projects considered in this analysis). “Habitat potential” is the capability of the environment, in a given condition, to support species of interest. It is based on both the genetically determined habitat needs and preferences of the species, as well as the quantity and quality of habitat available to the species in a particular environment over the course of its life history. Because each of the indicator species has its own habitat requirements and preferences, each views the environment in Johnson Creek in a slightly different way (Mobrand et al. 1997), requiring species-specific assessments of the stream and of the restoration projects. The multispecies approach used in this analysis provides a broader, community-based assessment of the stream and the restoration projects.

Habitat potential is measured by the expected species performance under the environmental condition. An example performance measure is the theoretical adult abundance in the watershed when the population is in equilibrium with the environment. In this analysis, the restoration projects were compared in terms of the change in expected population abundance after restoration (in 2009) versus the conditions prior to restoration (in 2000). Actual abundance of fish observed in any year may differ considerably from the habitat potential, because actual values reflect natural environmental variation and the effect of non-habitat factors (e.g., harvest and ocean survival conditions, incomplete colonization of newly available habitat). Several metrics of habitat potential, in addition to abundance, are available from this analysis, including biological capacity, productivity, and life history diversity. These metrics are consistent with measures of a “viable salmon population” used to assess salmonid populations under the ESA (McElhany et al. 2000).

The starting point for the analysis was conditions in Johnson Creek in 1999. In that year, the City commissioned the Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife (ODFW) to conduct a detailed survey of habitat conditions in Johnson Creek and its tributaries (ODFW 1999, 2000a, 2000b). That assessment was the basis for development of a detailed species-habitat model for Johnson Creek (McConnaha 2003). The model and associated analysis were used by the City to evaluate conditions in Johnson Creek using coho salmon as the indicator species. The analysis provided a diagnosis of conditions in the stream and a roadmap for its restoration and management (McConnaha 2003). The analysis also informed the City’s prioritization of restoration sites including the projects evaluated in this analysis.

Following completion of the 2000 Johnson Creek model and the stream assessment, the City undertook the five restoration projects in Table 1. To analyze their impact, we modified ODFW survey-based data from 2000 to reflect changed conditions resulting from the restoration projects that were conducted between 2000 and 2009 (details of the methodology are provided below). Environmental conditions outside the immediate area of the restoration project were assumed to be the same as they were in the 2000 survey.

We then calculated the watershed-scale biological performance for the three indicator species under several sets of environmental conditions using the Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment (EDT) model (Blair et al. 2009). We parameterized the model to reflect conditions in the stream for 2000 (without restoration), 2009 (with restoration), and historic reference conditions in terms of physical and biological stream attributes (Appendix A). Habitat assumptions associated with each of the restoration actions are shown in Appendix B. While the primary analysis looked at the five restoration projects together, the analytical framework allowed us to analyze the changes in biological performance that would have occurred if each project had been built in isolation. This analysis was also conducted at the watershed scale, and focused on changes in adult abundance for the three indicator species.

Due to the large size of the watershed compared to the restoration sites, it is useful to evaluate the effects of the restoration actions at the reach scale, as well as the watershed scale. To this end, we evaluated the effects of the five restoration projects taken together, with respect to biological performance at the reach scale. We used EDT to measure the limiting factors in the four main reaches in which restoration occurred (Table 1). We also analyzed the changes in restoration and protection values for all reaches within the watershed.

Johnson Creek Habitat Model

The Johnson Creek salmonid habitat model is based on the concept of Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment (EDT) described by Lichatowich et al. (1995) and Moberand et al. (1997). The mathematical underpinnings of EDT and algorithms in the model are described by Blair et al. (2009). We used the Johnson Creek EDT model to compare biological performance of the indicator species under three conditions:

1. Conditions in 2000 as reported by ODFW (ODFW 1999, 2000a, 2000b)
2. Conditions in 2009 representing environmental changes due to restoration projects
3. A template or reference condition

An EDT model consists of two major components. The first component is the environmental description. For the Johnson Creek EDT model this is a reach-level depiction of conditions based on the empirical ODFW surveys and additional published information. The second component of an EDT model describes the biology of the indicator species. This includes life history information (e.g., time spent in Johnson Creek, maturation schedules, and fecundity) and the definitions of fish populations (e.g., spawning periods and spawning reaches). Population structure and assumptions in the Johnson Creek EDT model have been described by Schwartz and Caplan (2009). The biological depiction of the indicator species also includes a library of species-habitat relationships, or the relationship between survival and capacity for life stages of each species (e.g., eggs, fry, smolts, and adults) and environmental conditions (e.g., temperature, sediment, structure, and flow). The combination of the environmental description and the biological information makes possible an evaluation of the environmental condition “through the eyes of salmon” (Moberand et al. 1997).

Template Condition

The template condition is used in the context of “patient-template analysis” (Lichatowich et al. 1995) as a point of reference to understand how urbanization has altered conditions in Johnson

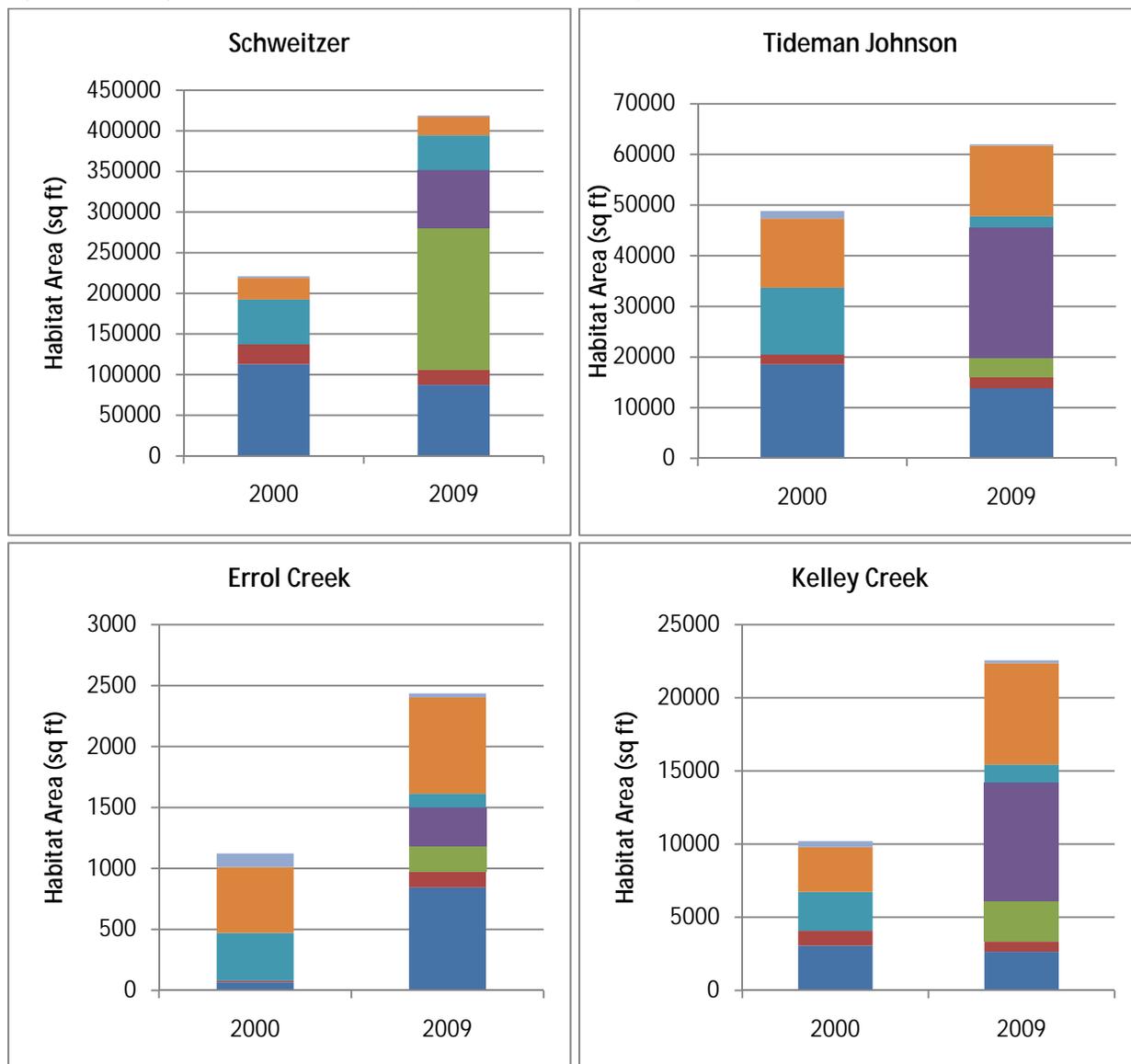
Creek and biological performance of the indicator species. Comparing species performance under the template condition to that under recent conditions (the patient) provides insights into the extent of urbanization and a basis for defining habitat alteration. The template condition applies to reaches within the Johnson Creek watershed as well as to the lower Willamette River. The lower Columbia River is described by a single set of conditions in all model runs.

The template condition describes the state of the stream without human alterations; it is largely hypothetical, but inferred from a variety of informational sources. The template condition was described by McConnaha (2003); only the most influential attributes are explained here. Reach lengths were assumed to be between 10% and 50% longer than in 2000 (see below), given the extensive straightening that Johnson Creek has experienced (Metro 2000). Widths were also assumed to be between 10% and 50% greater than in 2000, depending on how confined the channel would have been by natural features. Habitat composition was based largely on gradient, derived from relationships in unmanaged streams in western Washington (Peterson et al. 1992). Stream temperatures were assumed to be cooler than current temperatures, varying geographically as they do currently. No anthropogenic influence was assumed for most other attributes in the stream (e.g., nutrient enrichment, fish species introductions), so ratings could be applied without specific historical information.

Conditions in 2000

The 2000 Johnson Creek EDT model was developed by McConnaha (2003) based on extensive instream surveys performed by ODFW (1999, 2000a, 2000b). These surveys used standard Oregon habitat assessment methods developed for the Oregon Aquatic Inventory Project (Moore et al. 1997). Information from the ODFW surveys was augmented by data from the City, U.S. Geological Survey (Edwards 1994), and other management agencies. A number of agency reports and studies from the scientific literature were also incorporated. Examples include studies of the biological communities (Pan et al. 2001), water chemistry (Sonoda et al. 2001), effects of urbanization on stream flow (Clark 1999), and obstructions to fish passage (McDermott et al. 1999).

Figure 3. Average Habitat Area and Composition in the Primary Reaches Where Restoration Occurred



■ Small Cobble Riffle
 ■ Backwater Pool
 ■ Beaver Ponds
 ■ Tailout
 ■ Glide
 ■ Scour Pool
 ■ Large Cobble Riffle

Note: Vertical scale differs in each graph.

Conditions in 2009

The 2009 Johnson Creek EDT model began with the data in the 2000 model but modified conditions to represent the restoration projects completed since 2000 (Appendix B). An intensive data collection effort was made by ICF and the City to quantify the changes resulting from restoration efforts in the prior decade. Data collection focused on the parameters that were changed most significantly by the restoration activities:

- Channel morphometry (length and width)
- Habitat composition (e.g., pools, riffles, glides)
- Large woody debris

- Channel confinement (artificial confinement or hydro-modifications)
- Riparian function

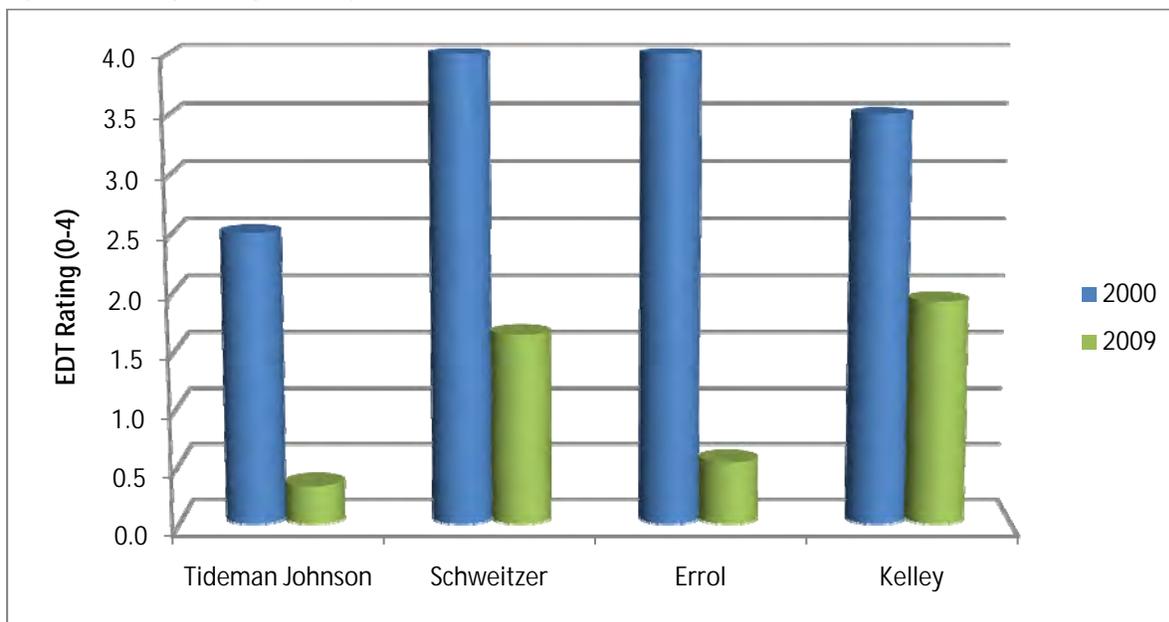
Measurements of channel morphometry relied primarily on CAD designs of the restoration sites, though data from field surveys and aerial photographs were used to supplement and validate CAD-derived data. Widths and lengths during the months of minimal and maximal flow (August and January) were measured for the main channel at each site and for all backwater channels. January widths were based on ordinary high water level, top of bank, or a contour line corresponding to a 9- to 12-month flood event, depending on the data available. Wetted surface area was calculated from these data for high- and low-flow months, as well as the average (Figure 3). Elevations at the upstream and downstream ends of main channels were also measured and used with length measurements to quantify stream gradient across the restoration site.

The habitat composition at restoration sites was measured in the field (with the exception of backwater, described below) by City personnel in July and August of 2009. Because ODFW categorizations had been used when the data were collected (Moore et al. 1997), we aggregated habitat units to determine the composition per the EDT categorization: primary pools, pool tailouts, backwater pools, beaver ponds, glides, small cobble riffles, and large cobble riffles (Figure 3) (Figure 2, Lestelle 2004). This involved summing the wetted areas of habitat units that were sub-types of each EDT type. Because the Errol Creek restoration had not been surveyed at the time of this analysis, we assumed that the habitat composition within the stream was similar to that of Tideman Johnson, but with a smaller fraction of beaver ponds. The assignment of wetland habitat area at the juncture of Errol Creek and Johnson Creek was split between Errol Creek and reach Johnson 5B. We included the area of backwater channels into the area of the main channel by adjusting the width upwards but retaining the true channel length. Although backwater habitat often occurred as spur channels off of the main channel, EDT ignores the arrangement of channels and ultimately uses main channel area and length in its computations. In this way, we were able to account for the quantity of backwater channels and their functional contribution to the stream ecosystem, without altering the geometry of the reaches.

Ratings for the amount of large wood that had been placed in restoration sites were also based on CAD designs and engineering plans for the restoration projects. We recorded counts of wood pieces, making the assumption that pieces placed would meet the minimum requirements to be considered large wood by EDT (>0.1m in diameter and 2m in length) (>0.1m in diameter and 2m in length; Lestelle 2004). Counts were converted to EDT ratings as per the EDT guidelines, using the number of pieces per unit length of stream in which they occur (Figure 4). Data from instream surveys were used to verify that CAD-derived data accurately reflected field conditions.

Artificial confinement of the stream channel (hydro-modifications) in the 2000 and 2009 conditions was rated by the presence and extent of WPA armoring or bridges (City of Portland 2007). In most cases, the restoration projects removed the WPA works and decreased artificial confinement. Riparian function was rated by expert opinion, mainly based on interpretation of aerial photographs and site visits. High values for riparian function were indicated by mature riparian vegetation and connectedness during overbank flows, while low values were indicated by the lack of these indicators (Lestelle 2004). Immature riparian plantings (e.g., at Schweitzer) were rated according to their current state, although they would be expected to have greater values in the future. Values for Errol Creek were estimated for the site at the time of completion.

Figure 4. Rating of Large Woody Debris Before and After Restoration



Note: Values closer to zero represent more pieces of wood per unit stream length.

We updated the estimate of fish passage likelihood for the two obstructions on Kelley Creek that the City improved. The Foster Road crossing was a major obstruction for coho and steelhead in the 2000 model, especially during lower-flow periods (Photo 7a). As a result of restoration, the Foster Road crossing was rated to pose no impediment to adult or juvenile salmonid migration in the 2009 model. The waterfall steps were rated to allow passage to a higher fraction of upstream-moving fish during all months. The structures could still pose a partial barrier (Photo 6b), particularly during low-flow months, and were rated accordingly. These actions created a continuous 0.75-mile habitat corridor from Johnson Creek through reach Kelley 2.

Because restoration sites were smaller than the reach units used in the model, attribute ratings for restoration sites in the 2009 model were calculated as the weighted average of ratings within each restoration site and the value for the rest of the reach (taken from the 2000 dataset). Weights were the average wetted area of the restoration site and the remainder of the reach.

Salmonid Habitat Potential in Johnson Creek

Watershed-Scale Analysis

Restoration Effectiveness

Restoration efforts initiated by the City between 2000 and 2009 significantly increased the habitat potential of the Johnson Creek watershed as a whole to support coho, fall Chinook, and winter steelhead (Figure 5). We estimate that the five projects in Table 1 approximately doubled the habitat potential of the watershed for coho relative to the 2000 condition, and increased it by 20% for winter steelhead and 14% for fall Chinook (Table 2).

Figure 5. Habitat Potential in Numbers of Adult Salmonids of Johnson Creek Watershed in 2000 and 2009

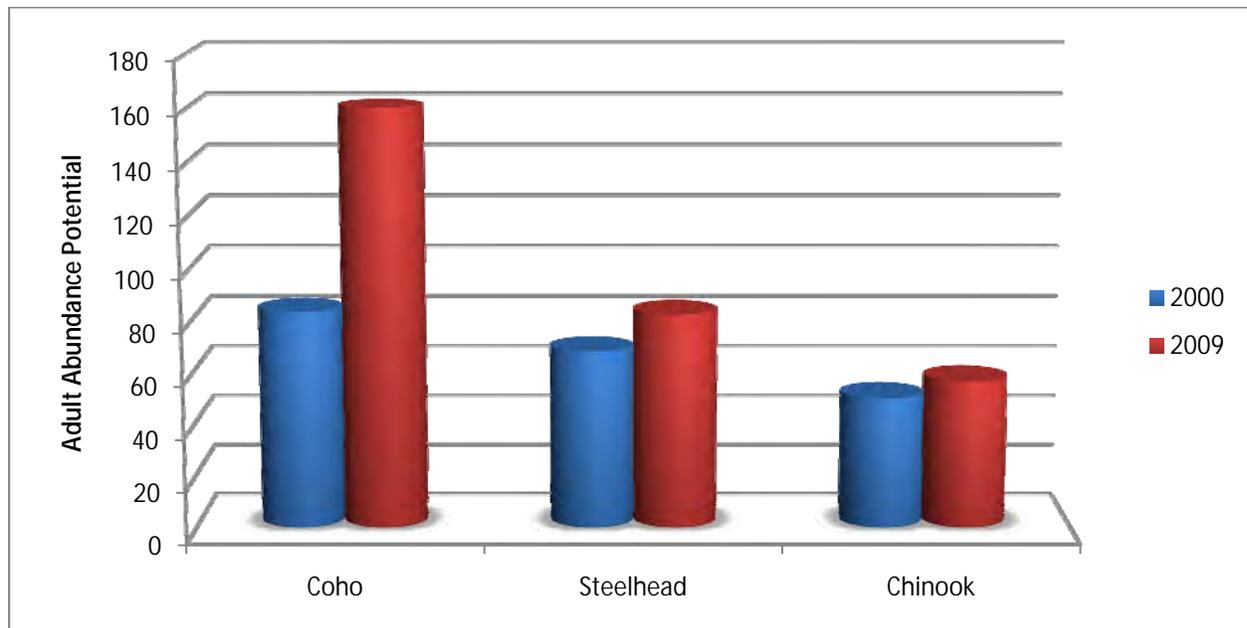


Table 2. Habitat Potential (in Numbers of Adult Salmonids) of the Johnson Creek Watershed under Template, 2000, and 2009 Conditions

Evaluation	Coho	Steelhead	Chinook
Template (Johnson and Willamette)	5,076	1,073	1,521
2000 (without restoration projects)	83	68	50
2009 (with restoration projects)	160	82	57
Gain from 2000 to 2009	77	14	7
Gain as percentage of 2000	92%	20%	14%
2009 as percentage of template	3.2%	7.7%	3.7%

Note: Template conditions were used for both the Willamette River and Johnson Creek in the template evaluation.

The projects clearly provided habitat features that favored coho over the other species, most notably the backwaters added to the stream in four projects and the wetland added in the Errol Creek project. These types of habitats are heavily favored by juvenile coho for summer rearing and overwintering refugia (Bustard and Narver 1975b; Nickelson et al. 1992), but were very rare in Johnson Creek prior to the restoration actions. Steelhead, on the other hand, are less drawn to wetland and backwater habitats, but instead favor riffles during summer and take cover under cobble or wood during winter (Bustard and Narver 1975a). Fall Chinook were assumed to only penetrate as far as I-205 or about half the mainstem channel length, which corresponds to the uppermost observation of juvenile Chinook in a recent survey (Van Dyke and Storch 2009). As a result, they only benefited from the Tideman Johnson Park and Errol Creek Confluence restoration projects. Juveniles of ocean-type fall Chinook spend relatively little time in Johnson Creek compared to coho and steelhead, and therefore experience less benefit from restoration projects.

Despite the improvements in Johnson Creek, conditions in the Johnson Creek watershed as a whole are still greatly constrained and the system still has limited potential to support a normative biological community including salmon and steelhead (Table 2). The coho potential of the improved habitat in 2009 is only 3.2% of that estimated for the template condition. Current potential for the other species is slightly better: 7.7% for steelhead and 3.7% for fall Chinook. The relatively modest improvement in overall fish performance is largely due to the fact that the projects, though significant, only addressed conditions in 0.98 mile, or about 2.5% of the total stream miles in Johnson Creek. Restoration efforts are starting from a base of little or no habitat potential as a result of urbanization and channel reconfiguration. Thus, significant percentage changes in estimated salmon performance translate into still limited fish potential.

The differences in estimated habitat potential among species are the result of differences in habitat preferences, discussed above. Based on historical accounts and the general topography and character of Johnson Creek, the template condition was assumed to consist of expansive wetlands, complex channel form, and ample structure. As discussed above, these types of conditions are especially favored by coho. At the same time, these are the types of conditions that have been removed from Johnson Creek and the lower Willamette River as a result of urbanization over the last 150 years (McConnaha 2003). Wetlands have been filled, large wood has been systematically removed, and the Johnson Creek mainstem has been simplified to a single, heavily armored channel by the WPA action and urbanization.

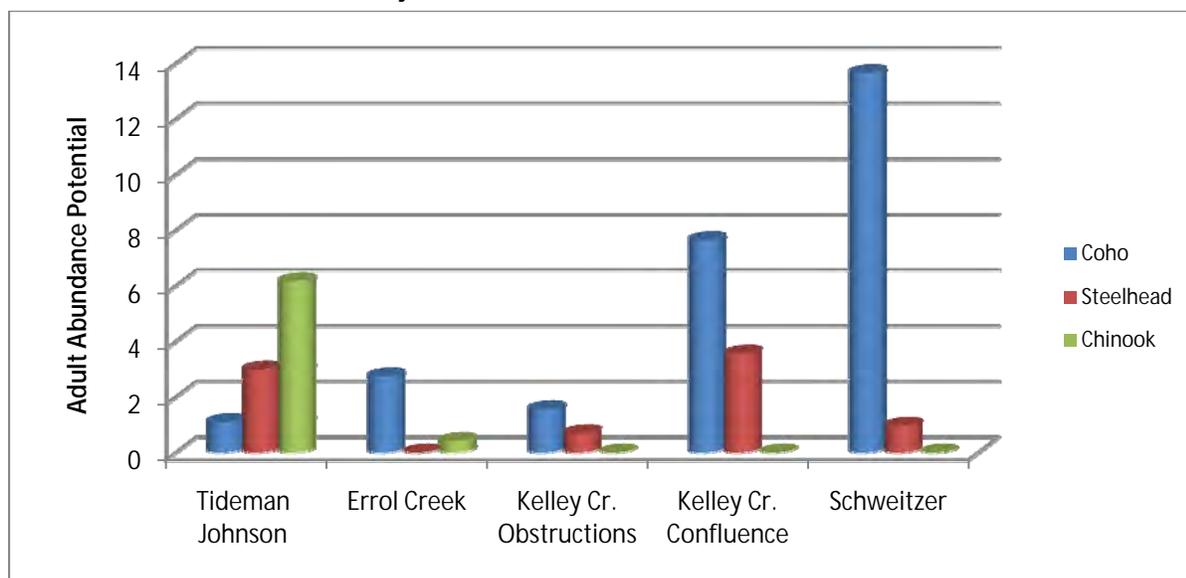
Results by Project

The analytical design allowed us to examine the effect of each restoration action independently and to compare the effectiveness of the City's actions among species at the watershed scale. Although differences in the ecology of the species make it impossible to say that any one action was "best," we identified significant differences in effectiveness among projects and in each project's effects on the indicator species (Table 3; Figure 6). Examining restoration projects independently also allowed us to identify synergisms in effectiveness that occurred with five restoration efforts taking place in the same system. These synergisms arise, for example, when actions affect parts of the stream used during different life stages, or when an action improves access to habitat. The magnitude of these synergisms can be inferred from differences in the effectiveness of all projects taken together versus the total effectiveness of the restoration projects taken individually.

Project Effectiveness

The Schweitzer project was by far the most ambitious restoration action undertaken by the City. The project had the greatest effect of any of the projects on overall salmonid abundance primarily in regard to its effectiveness for increasing the habitat potential for coho (Figure 6). However, the project had a relatively small value for steelhead and no value for fall Chinook because it was above the assumed furthest extent of fall Chinook distribution in Johnson Creek. The effect of riparian plantings maturing through time will yield a higher gain in habitat potential at the Schweitzer site in the future, given the immature state of plantings in 2009. Restoration of lower Kelley Creek also primarily benefited coho, but also provided significant benefits for steelhead. The Kelley Creek project had no value for fall Chinook (Figure 6) because it is above the presumed limit to adult Chinook distribution. Fish production in Kelley Creek also benefited from improvements in passage, primarily at Foster Road. The benefit of increasing passage at Foster Road and the Kelley step structures is primarily due to improved access into relatively good habitat in Kelley 2; these changes added about 0.25 mile of contiguous stream habitat to the Johnson Creek system. Errol Creek restoration benefited coho and fall Chinook but provided no benefit for winter steelhead (Figure 6). Finally, the restoration at Tideman Johnson Park provided the greatest benefit for fall Chinook, followed by winter steelhead, with relatively smaller benefits for coho (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Increase in Habitat Potential (in Number of Adult Salmonids) in Johnson Creek Watershed from Individual Restoration Projects



The variation in species benefits among projects reflects the assumed differences in distribution of the three indicator species within Johnson Creek, differences in environmental characteristics provided by the restoration projects, and differences in habitat preferences between the three salmonid species. Based on typical fish behavior, we assumed that fall Chinook salmon would not penetrate the entire length of Johnson Creek, but would remain confined to stream reaches below I-205, or about halfway up the length of the Johnson Creek mainstem (Figure 1). For this reason, the Schweitzer and Kelley Creek projects provided no benefit for fall Chinook. On the other hand, coho and steelhead were assumed to move throughout the accessible portions of Johnson Creek and thereby encounter the restoration sites at Schweitzer and Kelley Creek (Figure 2).

The five restoration projects provided different types of habitat features that resulted in differences in species response (Table 3). The Schweitzer and Kelley Creek Confluence projects significantly increased the amount of backwater, side-channel, and wetland habitat in Johnson Creek. These are key habitats for juvenile coho during the summer and winter periods, but are not key habitats for winter steelhead. For this reason, the addition of these types of habitat clearly benefited coho over winter steelhead. The Errol Creek Confluence restoration also provided wetland and off-channel habitats for Johnson 5B, although in much smaller amounts than the Schweitzer and Kelley Creek projects. The addition of these habitat types in Reach 5B increased habitat potential for fall Chinook as well as coho, reflecting the value of these habitats for sub-yearling fall Chinook and juvenile coho.

Table 3. Increase in Habitat Potential (in Number of Adult Salmonids) in Johnson Creek Watershed from Individual Restoration Projects

Restoration Project	Increase in Potential Adult Abundance		
	Coho	Steelhead	Chinook
Tideman Johnson Park	1	3	6
Errol Creek Confluence	3	0	1
Schweitzer Project	14	1	0
Kelley Creek Confluence	8	4	0
Kelley Creek Obstructions	2	1	0
Total of individual project gains	28	9	7

The Tideman Johnson Park restoration primarily benefited fall Chinook and winter steelhead with lesser benefits for coho. This project focused on restoration of channel features associated with burial and protection of the sewer pipe. Large wood and structural elements were added to the stream channel as well. However, the project provided less off-channel and secondary-channel features compared to the Schweitzer or Kelley Creek projects. The mainstem habitat characteristics provided in Tideman Johnson Park (Reach 5A) provided summer and winter habitat for winter steelhead and spawning habitat for fall Chinook.

Project Synergisms

The project results discussed above reflect the analysis of each project in isolation. In other words, changes in abundance (Figure 6; Table 3) are the result of changing conditions appropriate to each restoration project individually while holding all other conditions constant. When considered individually, the restoration projects provide relatively modest gains in salmonid performance. The sum of benefits across all projects considered individually was 28 coho, 9 winter steelhead, and 7 fall Chinook over the 2000 habitat potential for each species (Table 3). The greatest benefit by this calculation was for coho from the Schweitzer project. Even when considered in isolation, and with an immature riparian area, it increased coho in Johnson Creek by 16% in terms of habitat potential relative to the 2000 conditions.

When the projects were considered in aggregate, benefits were much greater than the total benefits of projects considered individually. As stated above, the five restoration projects taken together increased the watershed-scale habitat potential by 77 coho, 14 winter steelhead, and 7 fall Chinook. The difference in the total abundance when considering all projects together versus summing the abundance gain under individual projects is a measure of the synergistic effect of performing multiple actions. These synergisms arise because fish move between restored areas (say, between

the Schweitzer site and Tideman Johnson Park) at different life stages, providing an overall benefit across the life cycle. The Johnson Creek EDT model captures this by moving fish across their life history exposing them to the cumulative effects of multiple projects. Previous work in Tryon Creek similarly demonstrated that projects act synergistically (ICF Jones & Stokes 2008). Synergisms did not affect fall Chinook measurably, because almost all adult potential gain was a result of the Tideman Johnson restoration. Coho benefitted most from synergistic effects, with adult habitat potential increasing by 275% (28 to 77), while winter steelhead experienced a 155% lift (9 to 14). Thus, consideration of projects in isolation—as they might be in a City budgeting or planning exercise—can lead to an incomplete assessment of their benefits.

Multispecies Diagnosis

While the number of adult salmonids that a watershed can support is an easy-to-interpret metric of the watershed's condition, a more complete "diagnosis" can be made by assessing the degree to which individual stream attributes limit salmonid survival through their life cycle. This type of diagnosis is described here; Appendix C provides a similar diagnosis for the reaches in which restoration occurred. Figure 7 summarizes the limitation that stream attributes have on each of the three indicator species for Johnson Creek in 2009. For each species, the total limitation across all attributes is shown as a ranking for each life stage. In addition, the degree of limitation by each of the 18 attributes individually is calculated as the difference between 2009 conditions and template conditions. The specific equations and the range of values for key habitat differ from the other 17 survival attributes³, and are, therefore, symbolized as pies rather than dots.

Under 2009 conditions, several attributes stand out as predominantly limiting for multiple life stages of all three species (Figure 7). The structural diversity of habitat, the availability of key habitat, and chemicals (pollutants) are among the greatest ongoing issues in Johnson Creek. There are additional and sizable survival deficits for incubating eggs of all species from excess suspended sediment and degraded channel stability. Predation, issues related to flow (such as flashiness), and limited food affect colonizing fry. Coho and fall Chinook, which have similar fall spawning periods, experience the effects of temperature, competition, and pathogens (among others) as 0-age rearing juveniles, when winter spawning steelhead do not. Steelhead, on the other hand, experience the effects of high temperature in spring and summer, with significant limitation on early life stages (i.e., spawning, egg incubation, and fry). As one would expect, obstructions are most limiting to in-migrating adults.

Reach-Scale Analysis

We performed two sets of analyses at the reach scale, to meet two related objectives:

- *Evaluate the effects of restoration actions in the specific reaches in which they took place.* Although the five restoration projects performed by the City between 2000 and 2009 had measureable watershed-scale effects on the habitat potential of Johnson Creek, the projects covered less than 1 river mile of the 38 river miles in the watershed. We evaluated the reach-scale effects of the projects to better assess the local implications of the restoration actions. Although restoration projects were smaller than reaches—project sites totaled 1 river mile, while the four primary

³ Survival attributes are composites of the environmental attributes, aggregated to reflect the influence of the environmental conditions on salmonid survival (Appendix A).

affected reaches totaled 2.9 river miles—the effects of restoration are significantly less “diluted” by conditions in the remainder of the watershed in this analysis.

- *Evaluate the potential importance of each reach to inform future watershed management.* Conditions in a reach may have a greater or lesser influence on salmonid populations, as a result of factors such as the reach’s location within the watershed, size, current condition, and potential condition if restored or degraded. We quantified the restoration and protection values of each reach—its potential to support salmonids under alternative environmental conditions (described in more detail below)—in 2009 and compared them to the 2000 values to better understand the effect of City restoration actions over the past decade. The restoration and protection values can be used to support prioritization of future actions.

Reach-Scale Effects

We used two methods to evaluate how restoration affected the reaches in which projects took place. One was to compare the limiting factors in 2000 and 2009, and the other was to examine the change in habitat productivity and capacity for each of the indicator species between 2000 and 2009. Both of these analyses were life-stage specific. It is important to reiterate that the effects of the restoration actions documented in this analysis do not represent their full effects. It will take a number of years for environmental conditions to come into equilibrium with the actions (e.g., riparian vegetation maturing); once this happens there will be additional improvements on factors like riparian function and stream temperature from increased shading.

Restoration improved the conditions in the restored reaches in several important ways (Appendix C); these improvements were generally consistent across species.

- The addition of large woody debris and other actions improved the structural diversity of habitat, which was one of the main limiting factors in all of the reaches in 2000.
- The availability of key habitat was improved in the reaches, especially for juvenile life stages.
- Some key habitat for some life stages was reduced slightly, reflecting how creating of one type of habitat can remove another type of habitat.
- Key habitat availability was increased overall, given that the total habitat area of these reaches increased with restoration (Figure 3).
- Channel stability was also improved in the Kelley 1A and Johnson 14 reaches, the sites of the Kelley Creek Confluence and Schweitzer projects.

To determine how the above improvements in limiting factors would affect salmonid performance at the reach scale, we analyzed the changes restoration had on habitat productivity and capacity. The straightforward population performance metric used at the watershed scale, adult abundance potential, does not apply at the reach scale. However, productivity and capacity can be analyzed at the reach scale as the quality and quantity of habitat experienced by a given indicator species. For the purposes of this analysis, these terms are defined as follows:

- “Productivity” of a reach is the number of individuals at a given life stage that could be produced per individual of the prior life stage, given the characteristics of the habitat.
- “Capacity” of a reach is the maximum number of salmonid individuals of a given life stage that a reach could support if habitat quality was not limiting. Note that capacity is greatly dependent on the size of the reach and is partially dependent on productivity.

We calculated the change in both capacity and productivity for each salmonid life stage in each of the primary reaches that underwent restoration. Absolute capacity and productivity units are not easily comparable among life stages, so we present the magnitude of relative change (Figure 8), specifically, the change for a single life stage in a single reach as a percentage of the total change over all life stages in all reaches. In other words, we are showing how the changes in productivity and capacity for each species are distributed across reaches and life stages. The prior and subsequent sections contain information on absolute magnitudes of changes at the reach scale, using metrics other than capacity and productivity.

Because salmonids have different habitat needs throughout their development, the estimated benefits varied considerably with life stage. Benefits varied among species as well, though similarities were strong among the salmonids considered here when the timing of life stages aligned (e.g., spawning and early development for coho and fall Chinook). The effects of each project on productivity and capacity by species are highly consistent with the watershed-scale analysis; therefore, we do not discuss those implications here.

For coho and winter steelhead, changes in productivity and capacity often occurred together (Figure 8). While capacity is partly dependent on productivity, the degree of correspondence here suggests that the City's actions were sufficiently multi-faceted to improve both metrics significantly. In other words, the actions not only created more habitat, they raised the quality of habitat compared to 2000 conditions. The greatest benefits of restoration for coho and winter steelhead, both in terms of capacity and productivity, were for overwintering juveniles (e.g., 0-age inactive). Capacity, and to a lesser extent productivity, improved for juvenile rearing, particularly for the first summer (0-age resident rearing).

For fall Chinook, there was a loss of capacity in Tideman Johnson Park (reach Johnson 5A), but it was more than made up for by the gain in productivity. Both projects were beneficial to fry, though the majority of the effect from the Tideman Johnson project was for pre-spawning and spawning adults and incubating eggs.

Restoration and Protection Values

We quantified the value of future restoration or protection efforts for individual reaches of Johnson Creek for coho, winter steelhead, and fall Chinook, using 2009 conditions. We also present restoration and protection values for 2000 to further evaluate the effects of the restoration projects since 2000. We evaluated individual reaches for the mainstem of Johnson Creek and for the Willamette River, and groups of reaches for the remainder of the watershed (e.g., upper Kelley Creek or Butler Creek). The scale used to quantify restoration and protection values was the change in predicted abundance at the watershed scale when environmental attributes of each section had template or degraded levels substituted in for current levels (either 2000 or 2009). All remaining sections were held at current levels in making this evaluation, including lower Willamette River reaches. Thus, protection and restoration values quantify the importance of individual reaches, while measuring abundance potential for the overall watershed. Restoration value was calculated as the change in abundance with environmental conditions restored completely in individual sections; protection value was calculated as the change in abundance potential with environmental attributes degraded completely in individual sections. It was only possible to measure the restoration and protection values of stream sections that were designated as spawning locations. Therefore, fewer sections were evaluated for fall Chinook than the other species. Also, Errol Creek does not appear independently of reach Johnson 5B, for which it was considered off-channel habitat.

Several salient patterns for restoration value were shared among species (Figure 9):

- Reaches in the lower and middle mainstem of Johnson Creek, as well as lower Crystal Springs, have the greatest value for restoration. This is due both to environmental conditions being currently degraded, and to the fact that these reaches are used by a larger number of salmonids (in at least some part of their life cycle) than reaches higher in the watershed.
- Restoration value decreased slightly for all species in almost all reaches since 2000, demonstrating that Johnson Creek's ability to support salmonids is closer in 2009 to template conditions than it was in 2000.
- Restoration value increased greatly in middle and upper Kelley Creek since 2000, as a result of increased access (at least to coho and winter steelhead) from improvements to the obstructions in lower Kelley Creek.

For protection value, most of the reaches that ranked highly had undergone restoration. The exception is Johnson 16, which is closer to pristine conditions than the other reaches and had a high protection value in 2000 and 2009 for both coho and winter steelhead. Protection value was negligible in three reaches prior to restoration—lower Kelley Creek, Johnson 14 (Schweitzer site), and Johnson 5A (Tideman Johnson Park site); protection value increased for coho in all three and for winter steelhead in two (lower Kelley and Johnson 5A). For fall Chinook, changes in protection value were not significant; the only measurable change was a small increase in Johnson 5A (Tideman Johnson Park).

Two potential effects of future restoration actions were not measured in this analysis, but are important. One is that more salmonids would benefit from restoration in lower reaches of the system than we accounted for. Any salmon that used Johnson Creek but was not part of a population that was to spawn in the watershed itself was not included in the above estimates. Migrating and rearing juvenile salmon, as well as pre-spawning adults, that originate in streams ranging from the Clackamas River to the McKenzie River could enter Johnson Creek (and probably do). They may do so in search of rearing habitat or to escape high velocities or turbidity in the lower Willamette River. In effect, these fish raise the restoration and protection values of reaches in the lower Johnson Creek mainstem and in Crystal Springs. A second important unmeasured effect would be restoration of the lower Willamette River itself. The abundance potential of Johnson Creek would be improved for all species as a result of the additional rearing habitat for out-migrating juveniles (Friesen 2005). Salmonids from the many watersheds above Johnson Creek would also benefit. While restoration of the lower Willamette has its own set of challenges and limitations, the benefits are particularly high, as seen in our prior analysis of Tryon Creek (ICF Jones & Stokes 2008).

Figure 8. Relative Change in the Productivity and Capacity for Indicator Species in Reaches with –Restoration

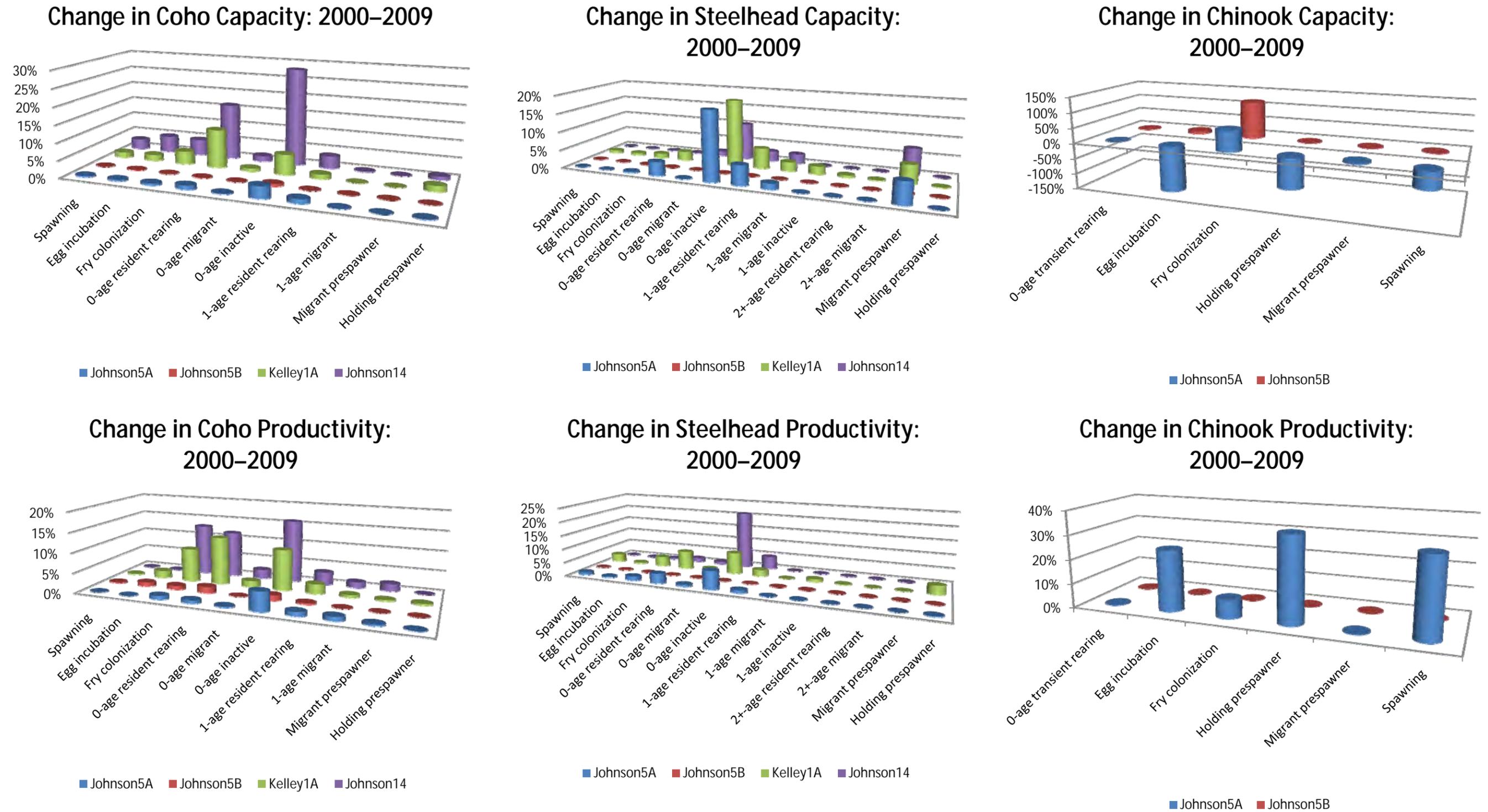
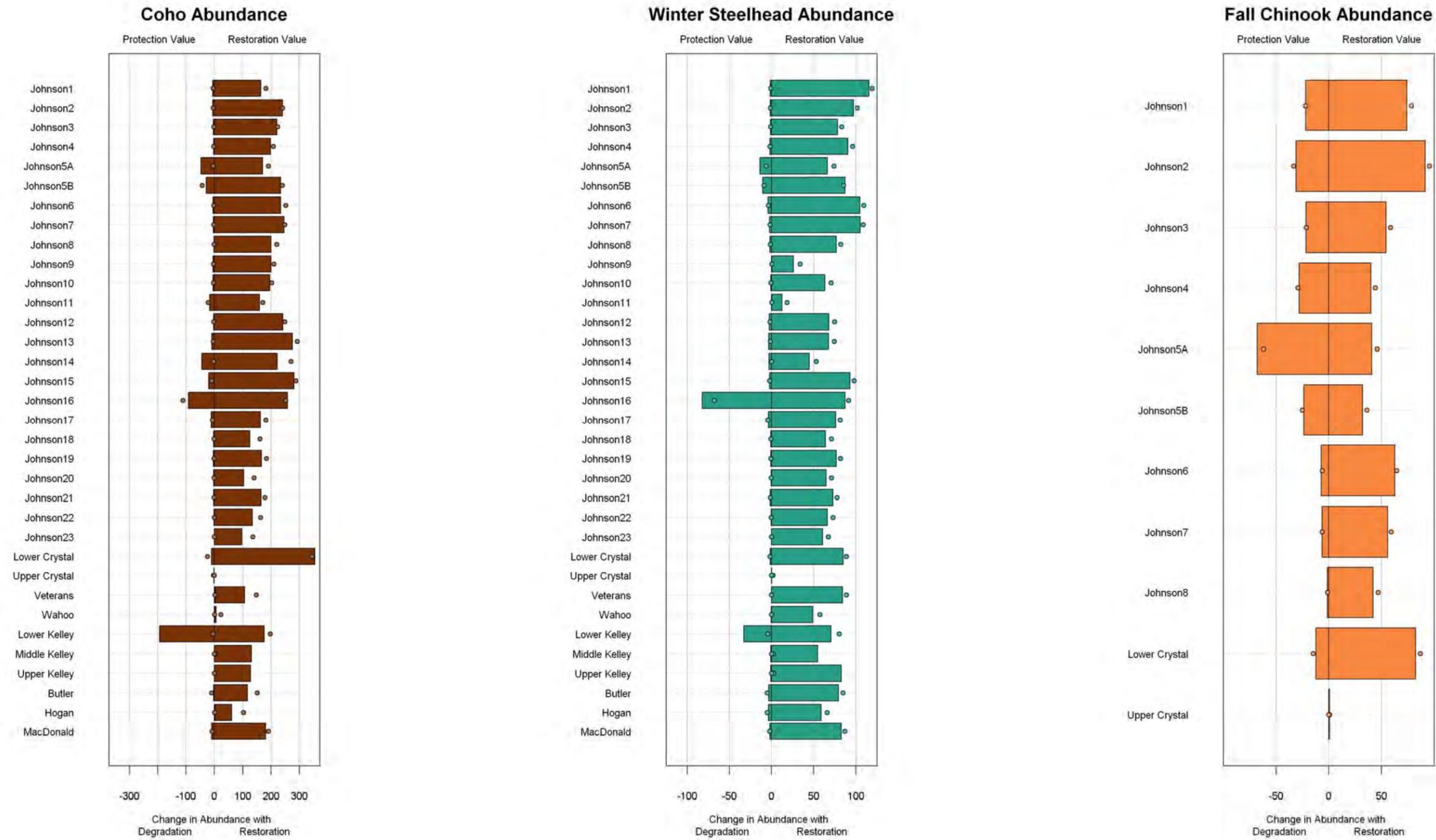


Figure 9. Restoration and Protection Values of Reaches Used by Indicator Species in 2000 (Dots) and 2009 (Bars)



Conclusions

The results of this analysis indicate that the restoration projects undertaken by the City have substantially increased the potential of Johnson Creek to support ESA-listed salmonid species. The projects considered here are clearly moving the stream in a trajectory toward the City's goal of establishing self-sustaining runs of salmon within Johnson Creek. The projects are providing habitat features consistent with a normative ecosystem as indexed by increased performance of native salmonid fishes. Restoration actions enhanced conditions most dramatically for coho salmon, although conditions are improved to a lesser degree for the two other indicator species, fall Chinook and winter steelhead. It is important to remember that the benefits of the restoration projects extend far beyond those shown here for salmonids. Fish, wildlife, and plant species characteristic of salmonid ecosystems in the lower Columbia River should benefit from the projects as well. The non-biological objectives of the projects, like flood control and infrastructure upgrades, are also essential improvements that the City has made, though they are beyond the scope of this report.

Despite the clear increases in habitat potential provided by the City's substantial restoration efforts, Johnson Creek remains severely compromised in its ability to provide habitat for the indicator species, relative to its historic potential (Van Dyke and Storch 2009). We estimate that even with the significant habitat restoration projects considered in this analysis, habitat potential has been reduced in Johnson Creek for coho salmon by 97% relative to our description of historical conditions (the template). This reduction is due to the cumulative effects of urban and agricultural land uses becoming widespread in the Johnson Creek watershed (Waite et al. 2008), especially the WPA modifications during the 1930s (Photo 1). This conclusion of continued habitat limitations is bolstered by the absence of evidence for a viable anadromous salmonid population in Johnson Creek today. Small numbers of juvenile coho, Chinook, and rainbow trout (potentially steelhead) are found in the stream (Tinus et al. 2003; Van Dyke and Storch 2009), and there are anecdotal accounts of adult salmonids in Johnson Creek and its tributaries. However, it is not clear if the juvenile fish reported in the system are the result of a spawning population in the stream, or if they move into Johnson Creek from the Willamette River and originate in other streams. All of this leads us to conclude that substantial habitat limitations remain in the stream and that they will need to be addressed to achieve viable runs of anadromous fish in the stream.

It is unreasonable to expect that fish will have yet responded to the restoration projects to the extent projected here. Two significant lag factors exist in the system. The first is due to lag in the environment, or the fact that time is required for the habitat restoration projects to mature and produce the equilibrium habitat conditions captured in this analysis. For example, riparian trees need time to grow, and instream habitat formation (e.g., pool and riffle formation) requires several seasons of high flow to move gravel and for the system to achieve its dynamic equilibrium state. The second, and larger, lag is associated with the biological response to the environmental changes. Once the habitat features are formed and somewhat stable, the biological community needs to take advantage of the new features and establish the basis for a food web that can sustain salmonids. For example, the benthic insect community needs to develop around the new substrate condition, and in turn, provide food for higher trophic levels, including juvenile life stages of salmonid species. The new habitats also need to be colonized by adult coho, Chinook, and steelhead. A likely source of these colonists is the set of extant populations in the Clackamas River, including fish from hatchery programs. Returns from these populations will stray and likely contribute to the formation of viable populations in Johnson Creek.

Finally, it is important to recognize that every salmon life history that begins and ends in the Johnson Creek watershed also involves the lower Willamette River, the lower Columbia River, and the Pacific Ocean. Juvenile coho, in particular, use the lower Willamette as rearing habitat (Friesen 2005). A prior EDT analysis of Tryon Creek indicated that restoration of the lower Willamette magnified changes within Tryon Creek itself (ICF Jones & Stokes 2008). This result has been indicated in Johnson Creek as well (McConnaha 2003). Contrariwise, conditions in the Willamette River restrict the benefits of restoration projects in its tributaries, including Johnson Creek (Mulvey et al. 2009). For this reason, it is worth stressing the need to consider Johnson Creek, along with Tryon Creek and other City streams, as parts of a continuum of habitats that collectively contribute to development of viable populations and ecosystems within Portland.

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Appendix A: Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment Attributes

Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment Attributes

Environmental Attributes (Level 2)		Survival Attributes (Level 3)
1 HYDROLOGIC CHARACTERISTICS		
1.1 Flow variation	High flow—change from normative	Flow
	Low flow—change from normative	Withdrawals (entrainment)
	Flow—intra-daily variation	
	Flow—intra-annual flow pattern	
1.2 Hydrologic regime	Hydrologic regime—natural	
2 STREAM CORRIDOR STRUCTURE		
2.1 Channel morphometry	Channel length	Channel length
	Channel width—month maximum width	Channel stability
	Channel width—month minimum width	Channel width
	Gradient	Habitat diversity
2.2 Confinement	Confinement—artificial	Key habitat
	Confinement—natural	Obstructions
2.3 Habitat type	Habitat type—backwater pools	Sediment load
	Habitat type—beaver ponds	
	Habitat type—glides	
	Habitat type—large cobble/boulder riffles	
	Habitat type—off-channel habitat factor	
	Habitat type—pool tailouts	
	Habitat type—primary pools	
2.4 Obstruction	Obstructions to fish migration	
	Water withdrawals	
2.5 Riparian and channel integrity	Bed scour	
	Icing	
	Riparian function	
	Wood	
2.6 Sediment type	Embeddedness	
	Fine sediment (intragravel)	
	Turbidity (suspended sediment)	

Environmental Attributes (Level 2)		Survival Attributes (Level 3)
3 WATER QUALITY		
3.1 Chemistry	Alkalinity	Chemicals (toxic substances)
	Dissolved oxygen	Oxygen
	Metals—in water column	Temperature
	Metals/Pollutants—in sediments/soils	
	Miscellaneous toxic pollutants—water column	
	Nutrient enrichment	
3.2 Temperature variation	Temperature—daily maximum (by month)	
	Temperature—daily minimum (by month)	
	Temperature—spatial variation	
4 BIOLOGICAL COMMUNITY		
4.1 Community effects	Fish community richness	Competition with hatchery fish
	Fish pathogens	Competition with other fish
	Fish species introductions	Food
	Harassment	Harassment
	Hatchery fish outplants	Pathogens
	Predation risk	Predation
	Salmonid carcasses	
4.2 Macroinvertebrates	Benthos diversity and production	

Appendix B: EDT Attribute Changes from Restoration

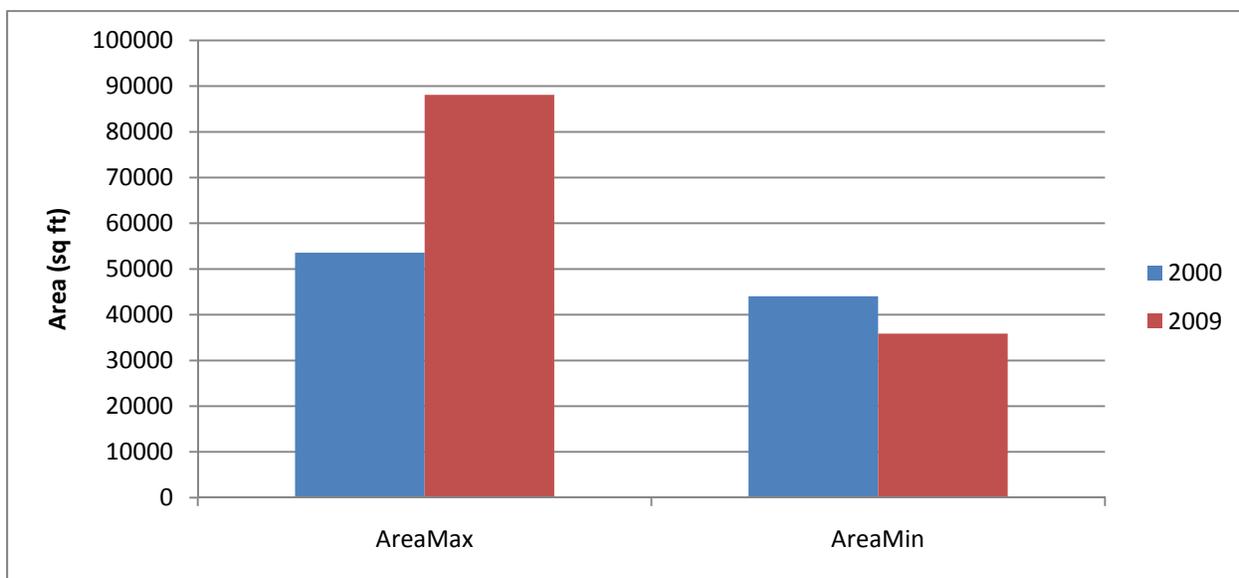
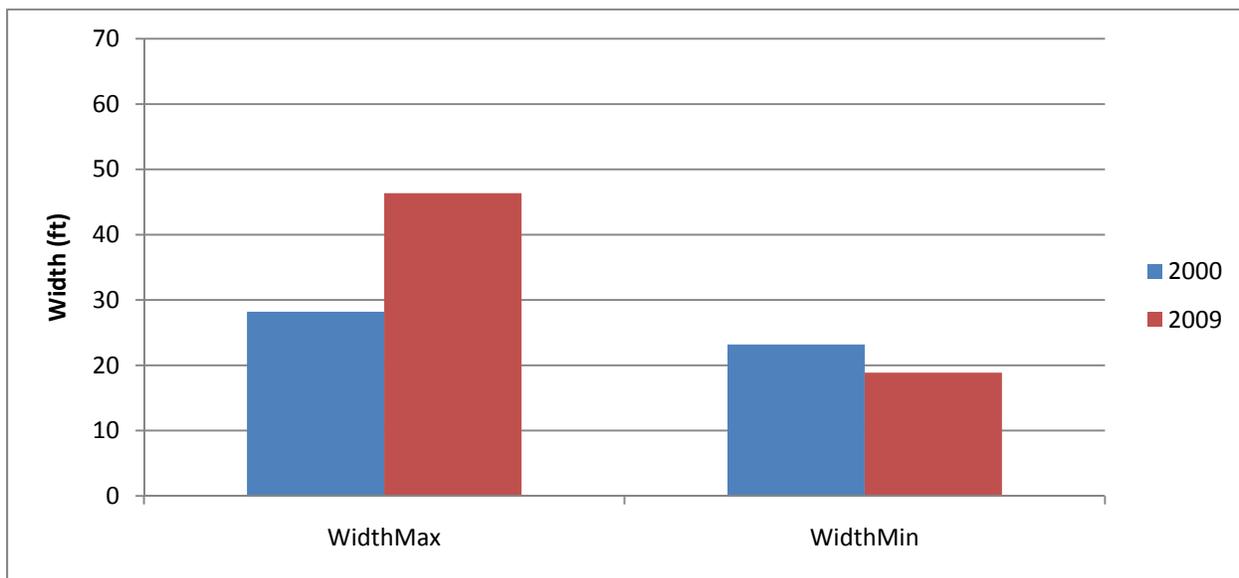
EDT Attribute Changes from Restoration

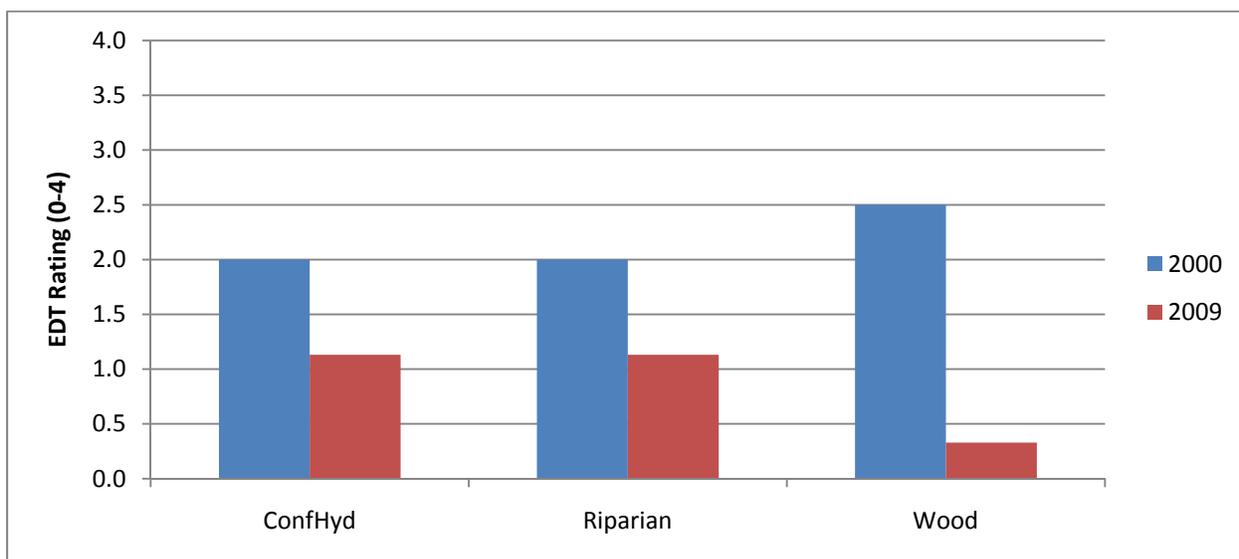
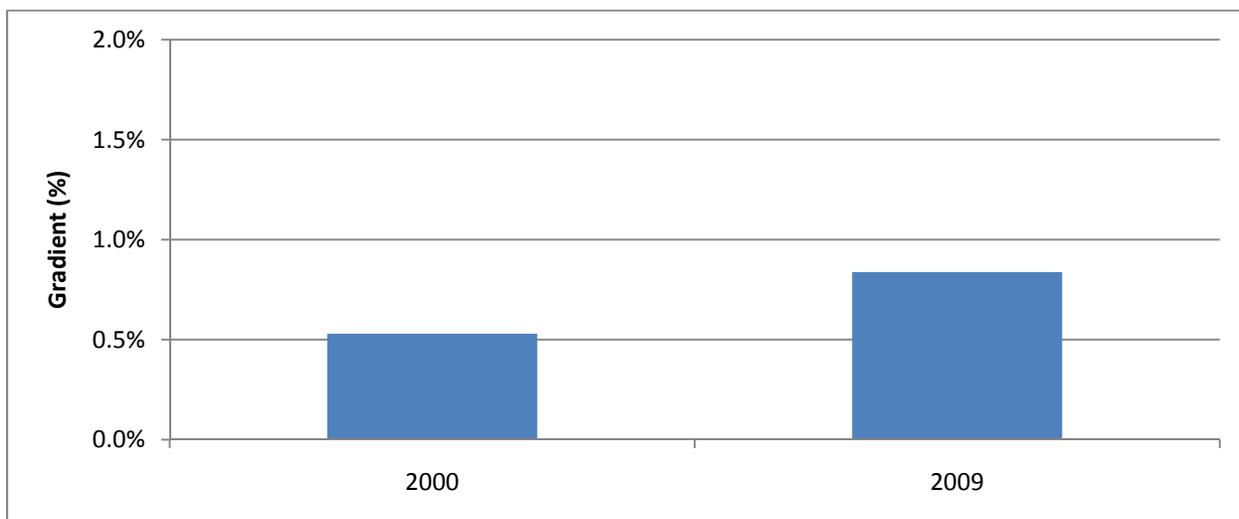
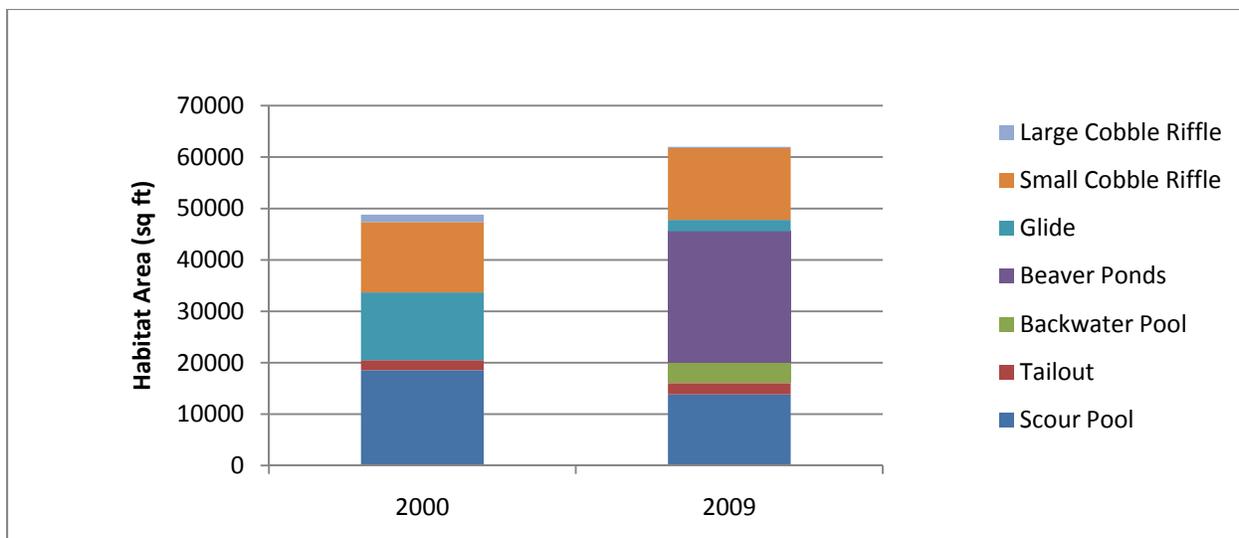
The charts in this appendix present the changes in the following environmental attributes used in the Johnson Creek Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment (EDT) models for 2000 and 2009:

- Reach wetted width (WidthMax and WidthMin)
- Reach wetted area (AreaMax and AreaMin).
- Wetted area of the types of habitat used in EDT
- Reach gradient
- Rating for artificial confinement (ConfHyd), riparian function (Riparian), and large woody debris (Wood). A rating of 4 represents an impaired state, whereas 0 represents a pristine state (no adjustment to benchmark, or ideal, conditions).

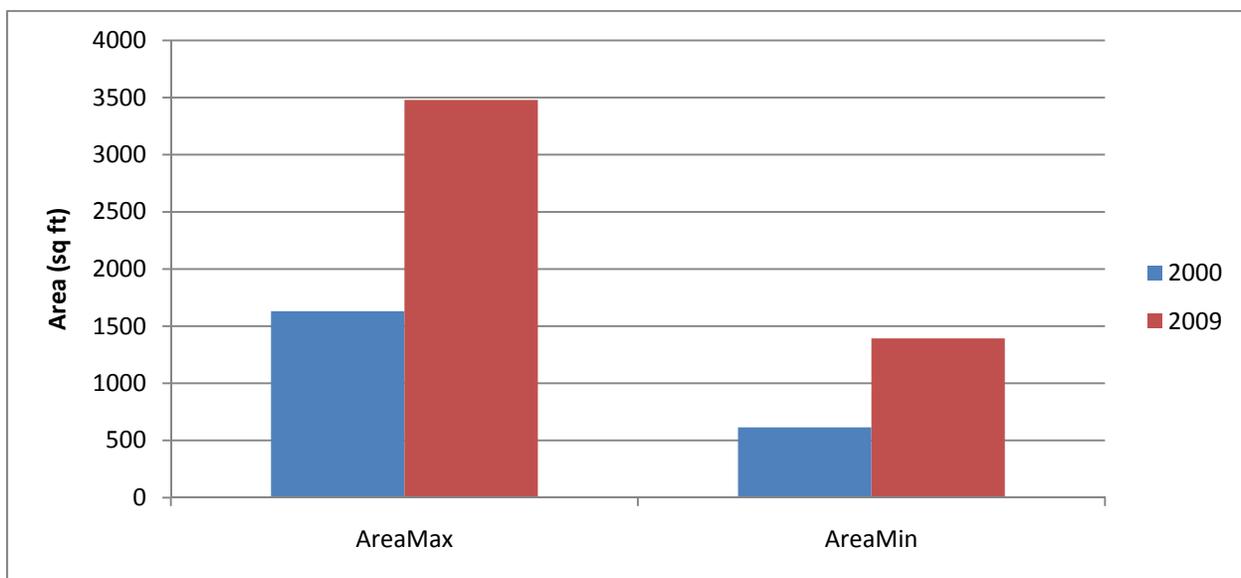
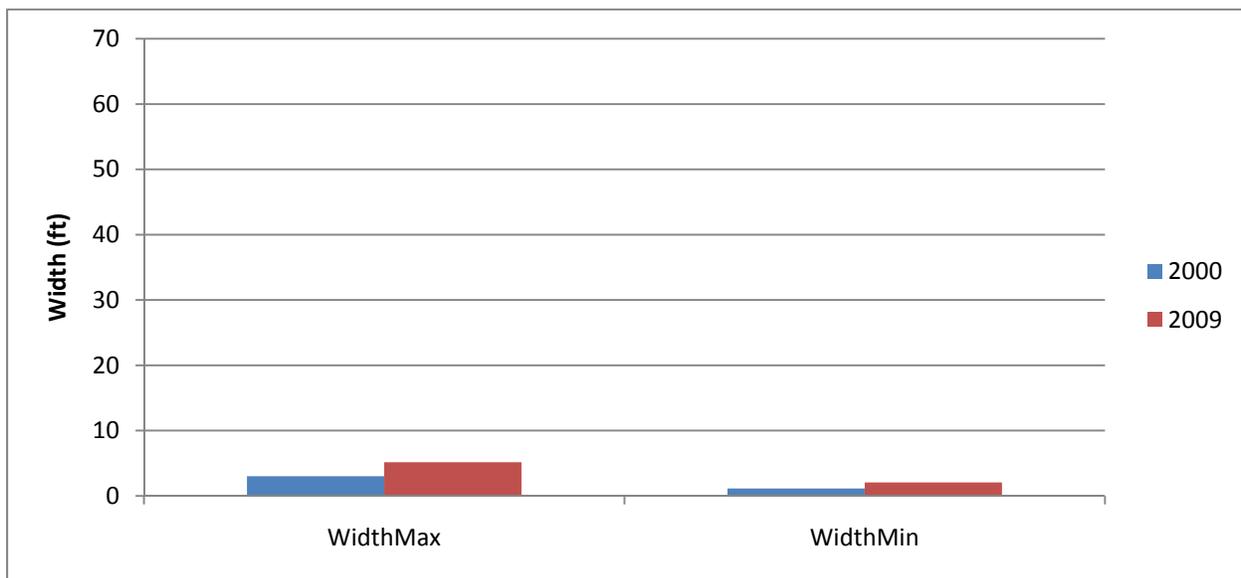
Precise definitions of all attributes are provided in Lestelle (2004). In addition to the changes shown below, the Errol restoration project added 0.3 acre of wetland habitat to reach Johnson 5B.

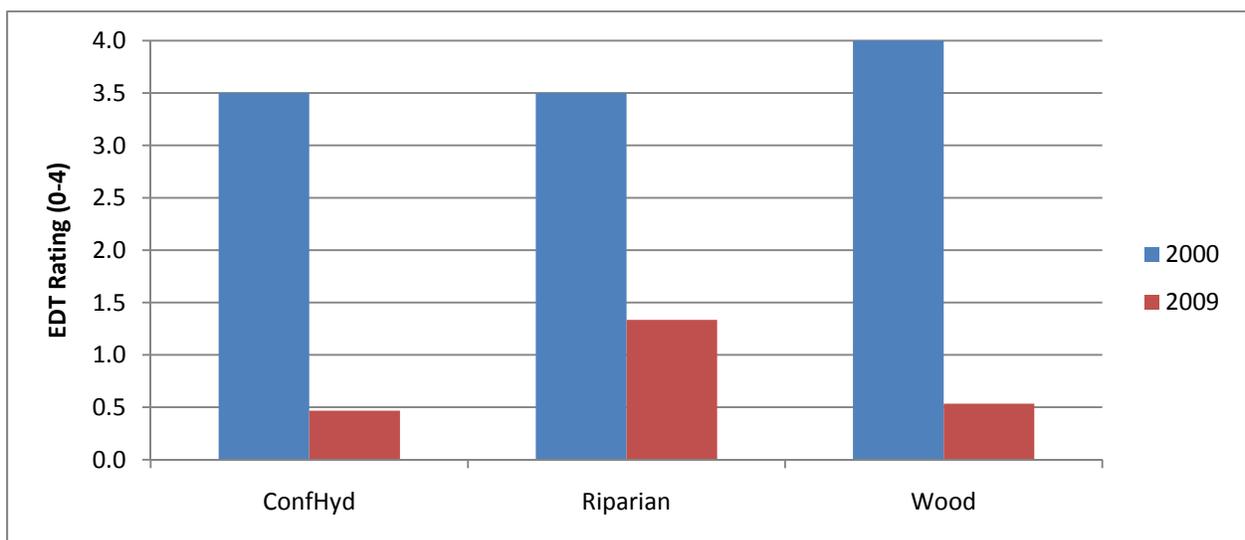
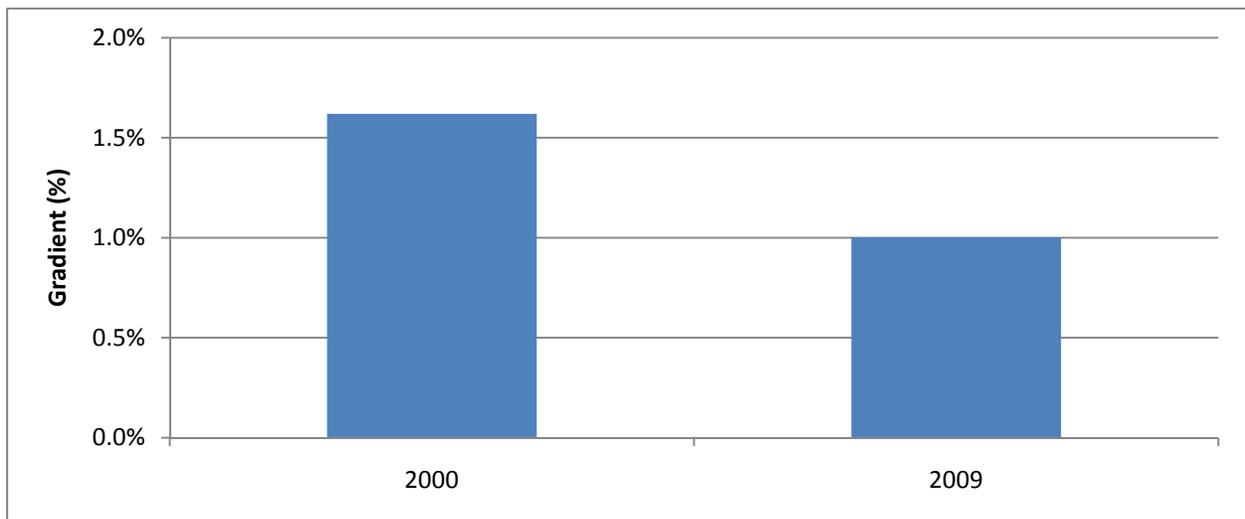
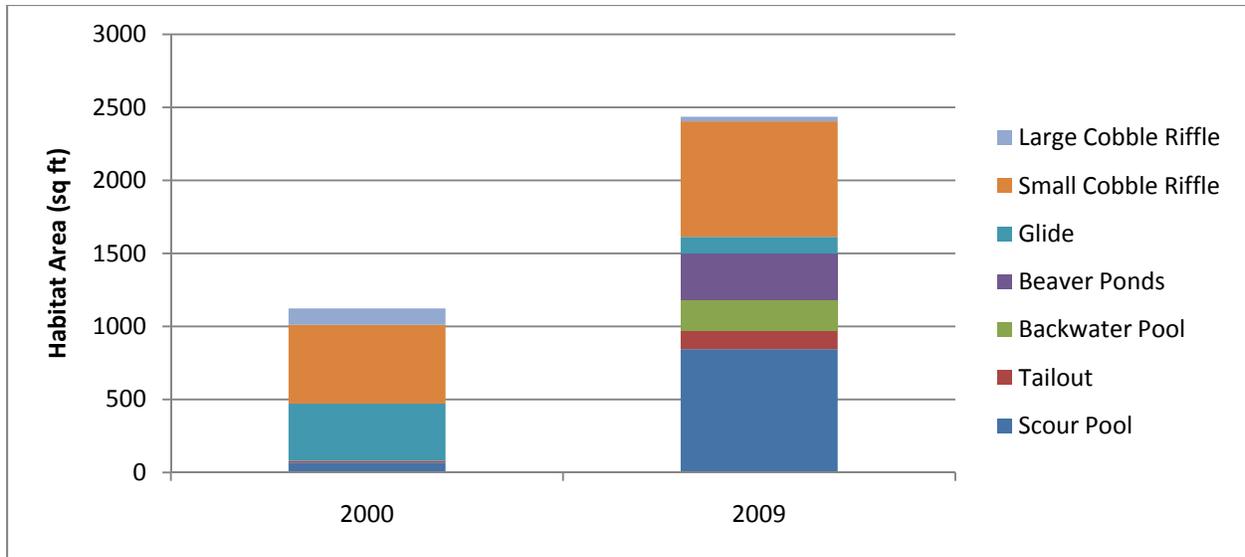
Tideman Johnson Restoration Project



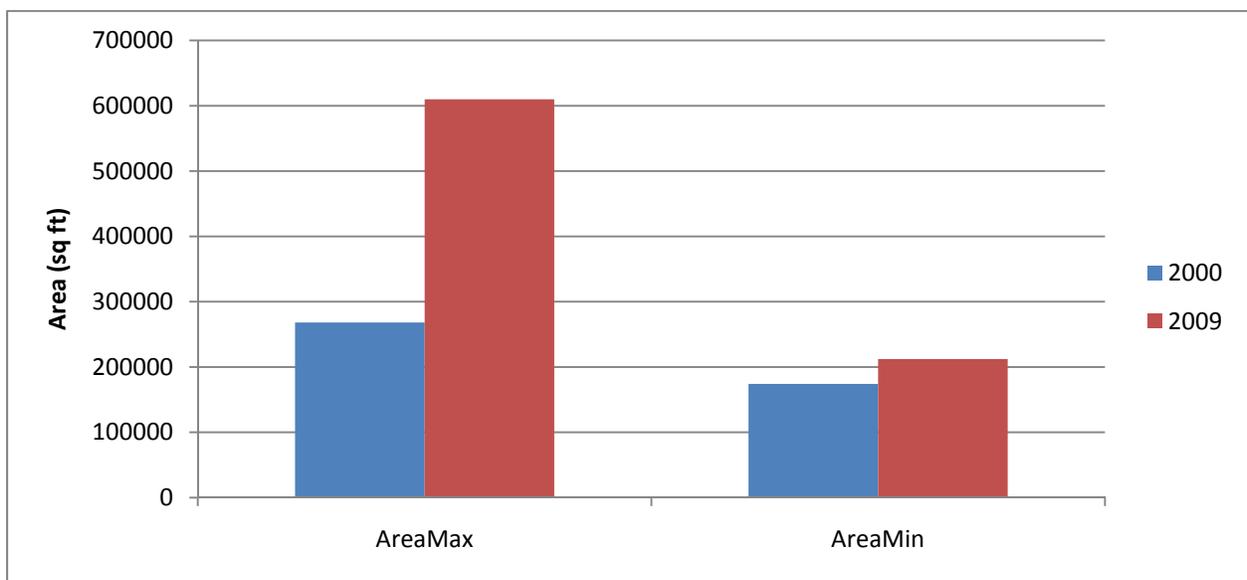
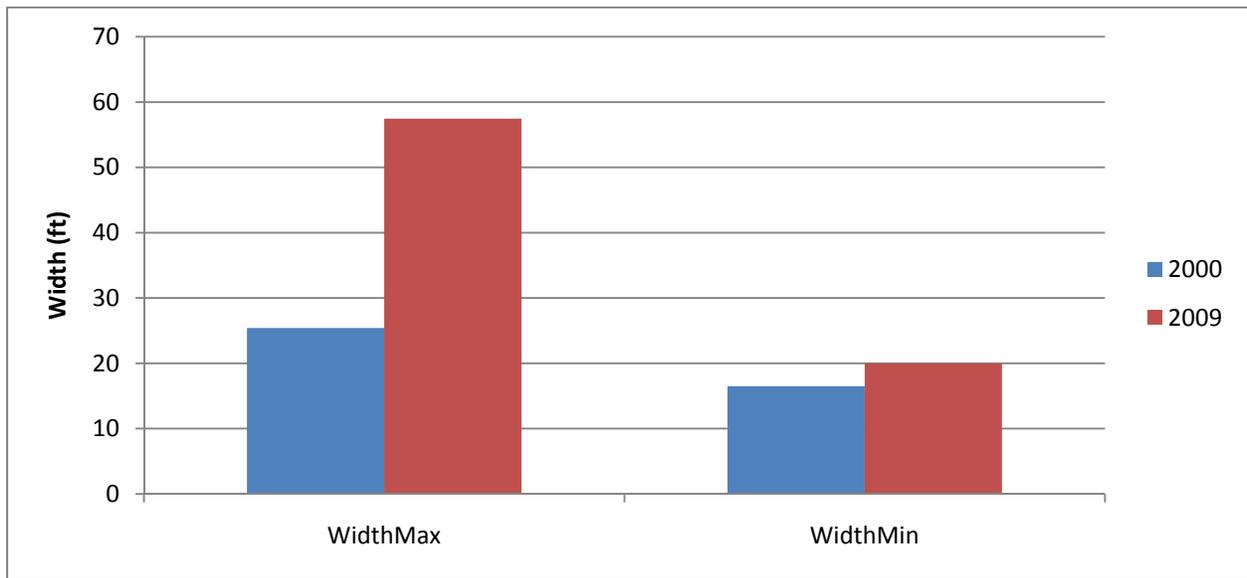


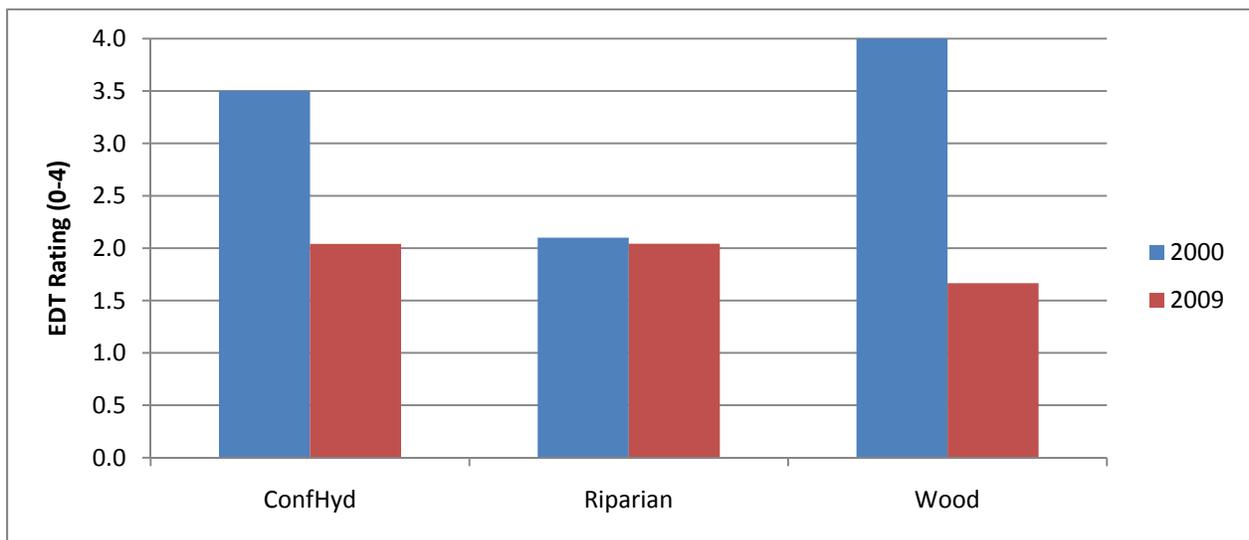
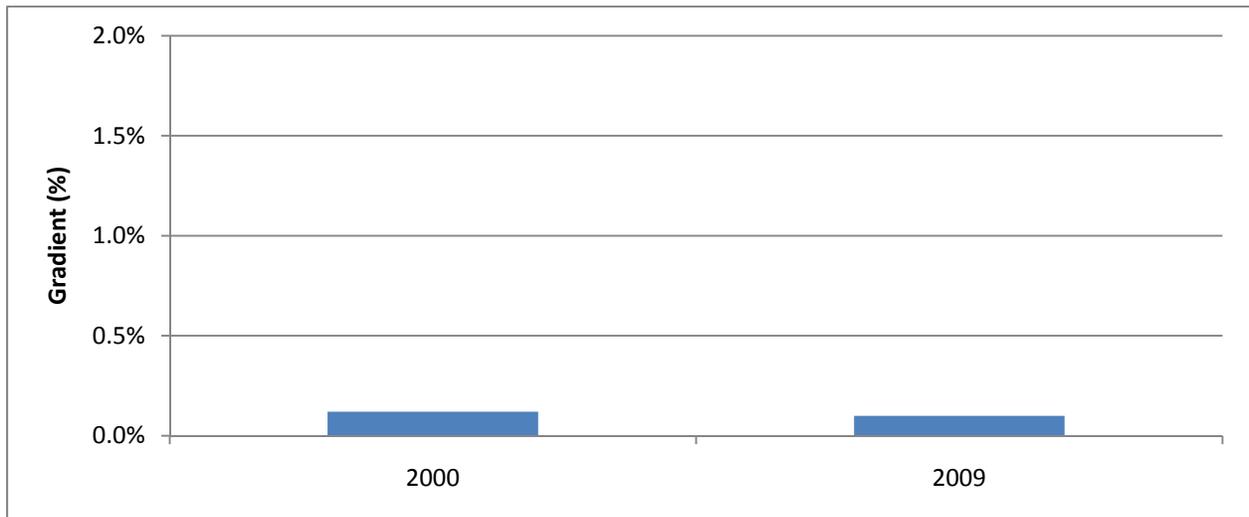
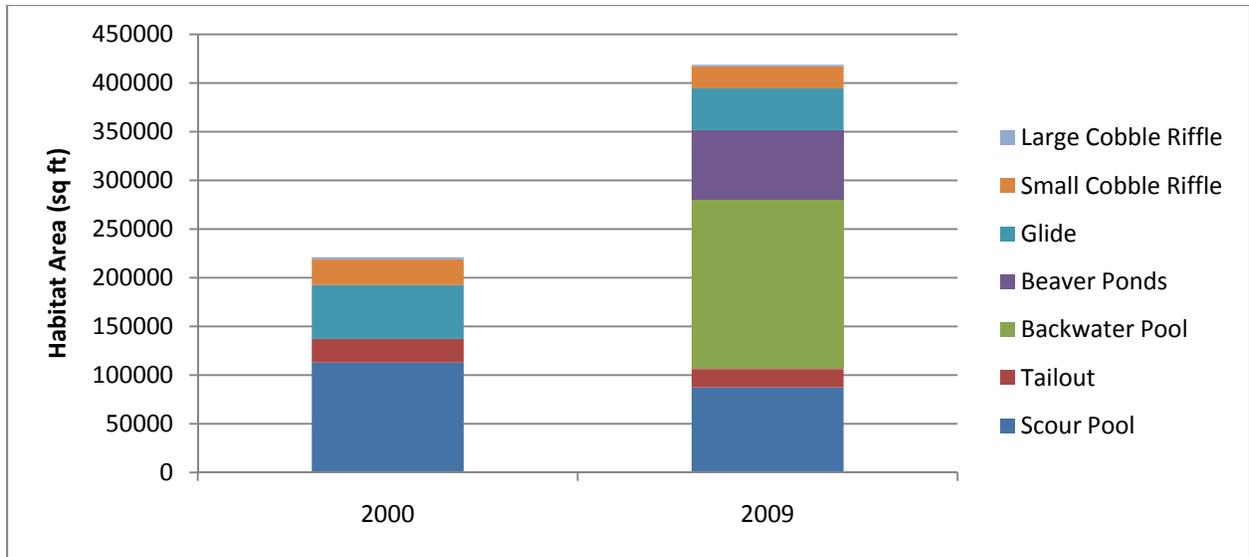
Errol Creek Restoration Project



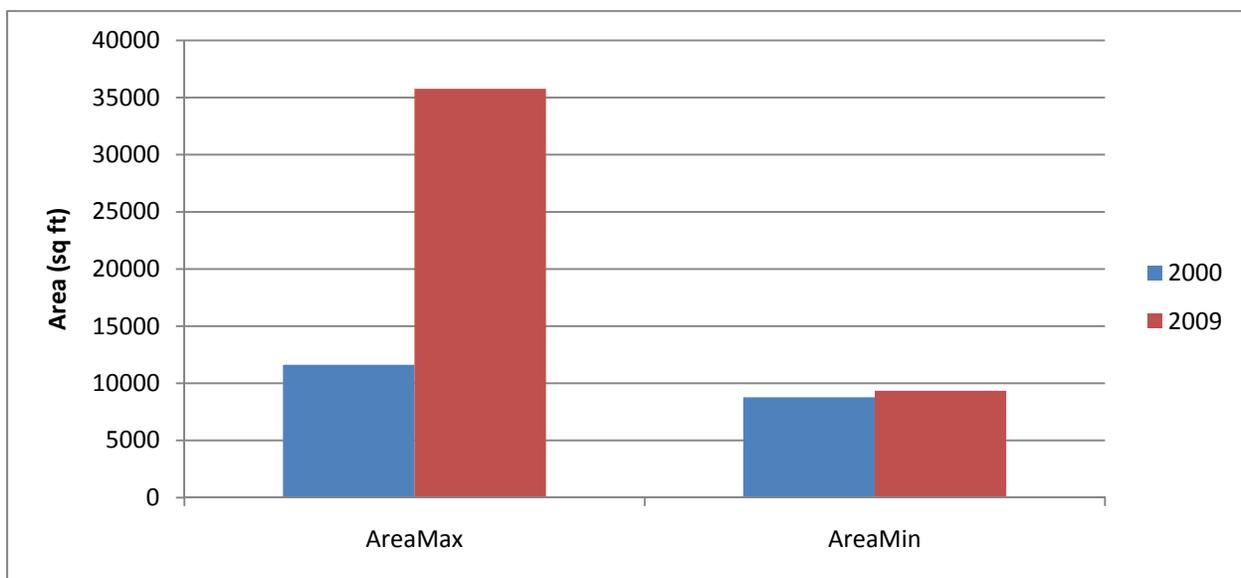
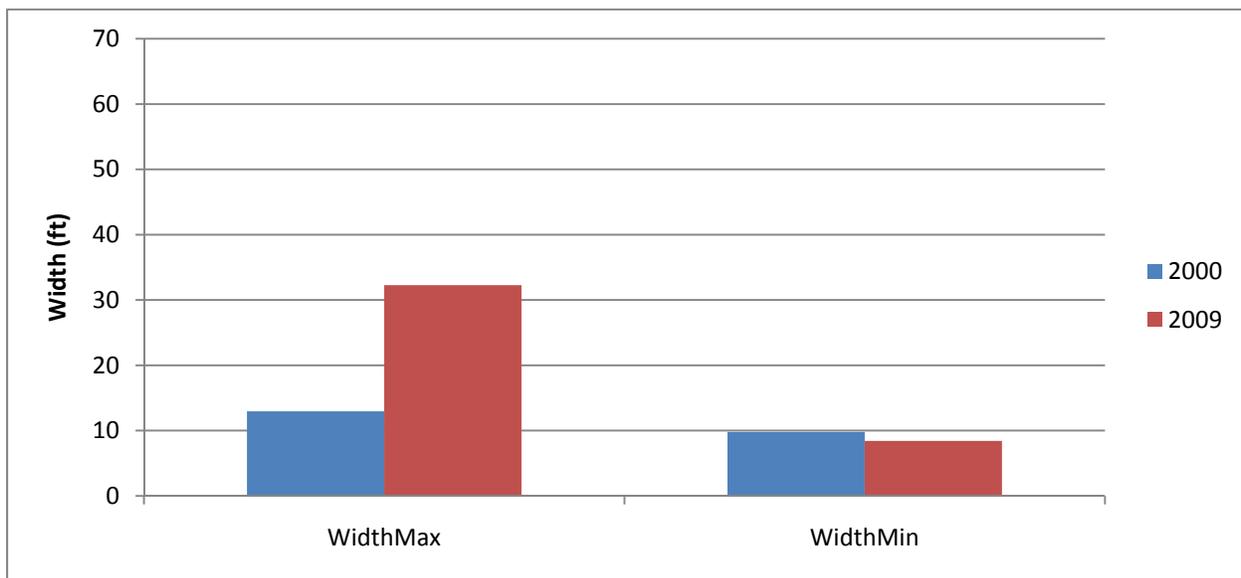


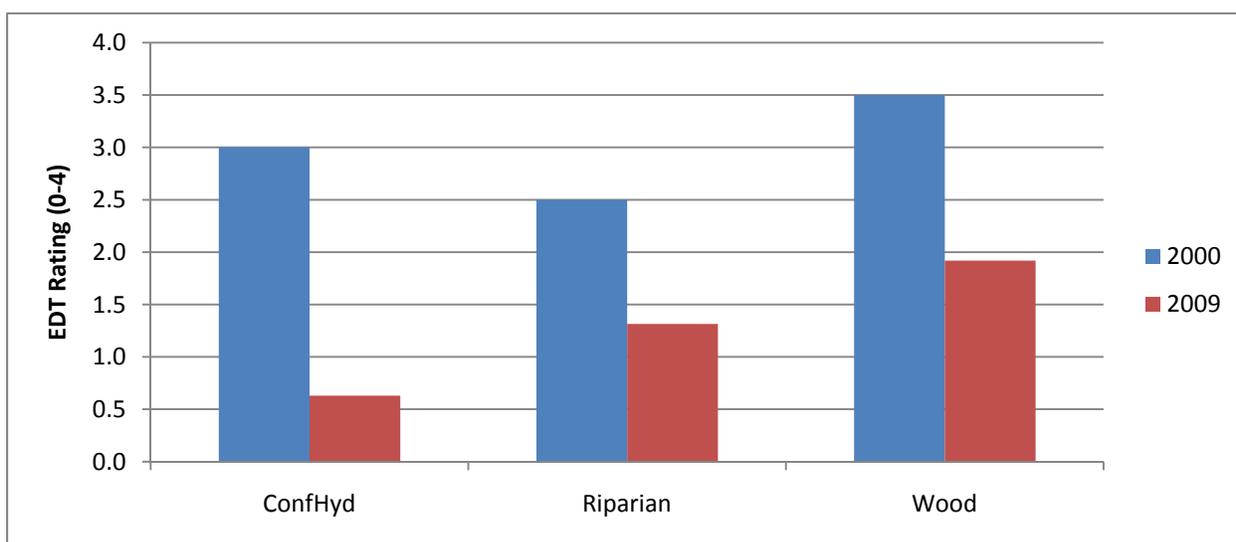
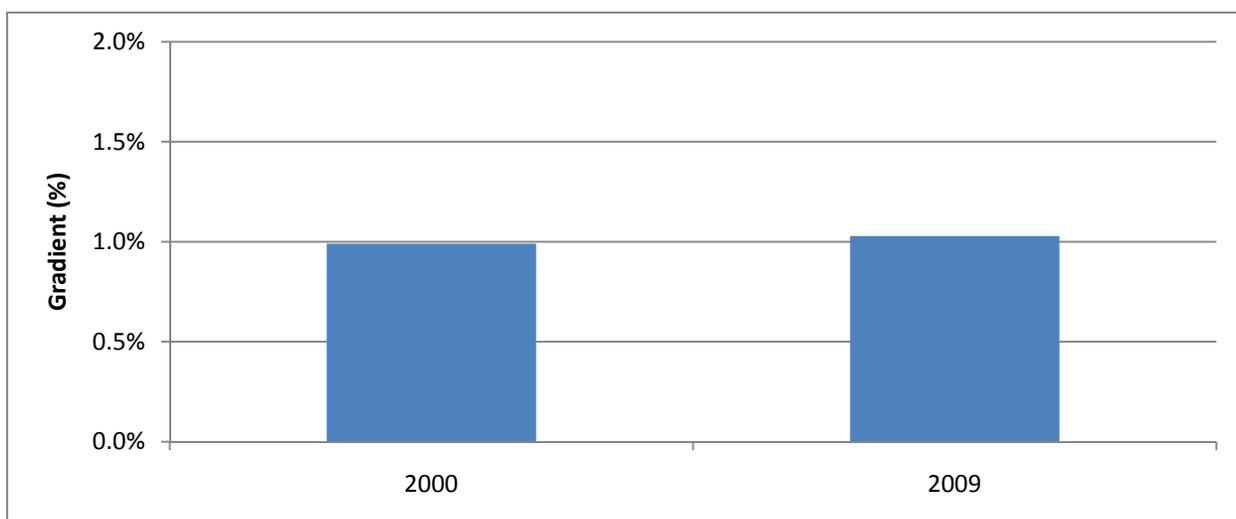
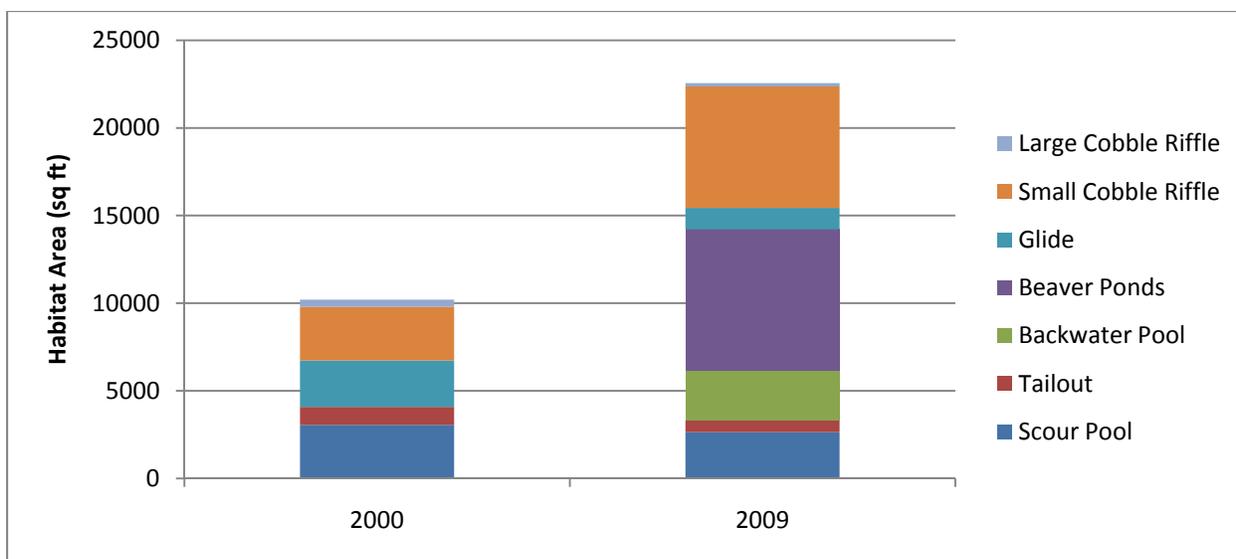
Schweitzer Restoration Project





Kelley Creek Restoration Project





Lestelle, L. C. 2004. Guidelines for Rating Level 2 Environmental Attributes in Ecosystem Diagnosis and Treatment. Mobrand Biometrics, Inc., Vashon, WA.

Appendix C: Reach-Scale Multispecies Diagnosis

Reach: Johnson 5B (Errol Creek Confluence Project)

2009		Rank			Channel Stability			Structural Diversity			Temperature			Predation			Competition			Dissolved Oxygen			Flow			Suspended Sediment			Food			Chemicals			Obstructions			Pathogens			Key Habitat			Life Stage
Life Stage		Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	
Spawning	5	4	4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Spawning	
Egg incubation	2	1	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Egg incubation	
Fry colonization	3	2	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Fry colonization	
0-age resident rearing	1			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age resident rearing	
0-age transient rearing		5		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age transient rearing	
0-age migrant	8			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age migrant	
0-age inactive	4			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age inactive	
1-age resident rearing	6			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age resident rearing	
1-age migrant	10			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age migrant	
1-age inactive				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age inactive	
2+-age resident rearing				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age resident rearing	
2+-age migrant				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age migrant	
2+-age inactive				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age inactive	
Migrant prespawner	9	6	12	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Migrant prespawner	
Holding prespawner	7	3	9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Holding prespawner	

Survival Attributes
- 2009 vs. Template -

- 1-5% above
- <1% above
- Equal
- <1% below
- 1-5% below
- 5-25% below
- >25% below
- Blank Life stage not present

2000		Rank			Channel Stability			Structural Diversity			Temperature			Predation			Competition			Dissolved Oxygen			Flow			Suspended Sediment			Food			Chemicals			Obstructions			Pathogens			Key Habitat			Life Stage		
Life Stage		Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead	Coho	Chinook	Steelhead			
Spawning	5	4	4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Spawning
Egg incubation	2	1	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Egg incubation
Fry colonization	3	2	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Fry colonization
0-age resident rearing	1			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age resident rearing
0-age transient rearing		5		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age transient rearing
0-age migrant	8			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age migrant
0-age inactive	4			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age inactive
1-age resident rearing	6			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age resident rearing
1-age migrant	10			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age migrant
1-age inactive				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age inactive
2+-age resident rearing				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age resident rearing
2+-age migrant				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age migrant
2+-age inactive				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age inactive
Migrant prespawner	9	6	12	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Migrant prespawner
Holding prespawner	7	3	9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Holding prespawner

Key Habitat Comparison
- 2009 vs. Template -

- 0-5% above
- ◐ 0-25% below
- ◑ 25-50% below
- ◒ 50-75% below
- ◓ 75-100% below

Reach: Kelley 1A (Kelley Creek Confluence Project)

2009		Rank		Channel Stability		Structural Diversity		Temperature		Predation		Competition		Dissolved Oxygen		Flow		Suspended Sediment		Food		Chemicals		Obstructions		Pathogens		Key Habitat		Life Stage	
Life Stage		Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead		
Spawning	6	6	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	.	●	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Spawning
Egg incubation	3	2	●	●	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Egg incubation
Fry colonization	4	3	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Fry colonization
0-age resident rearing	1	1	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age resident rearing
0-age migrant	7	7	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age migrant
0-age inactive	2	4	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age inactive
1-age resident rearing	5	5	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age resident rearing
1-age migrant	9	8	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age migrant
1-age inactive		10	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age inactive
2+-age resident rearing		12	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age resident rearing
2+-age migrant		13	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age migrant
2+-age inactive		14	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age inactive
Migrant prespawner	10	11	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Migrant prespawner
Holding prespawner	8	9	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Holding prespawner

Survival Attributes
- 2009 vs. Template -

- 1-5% above
- <1% above
- Equal
- <1% below
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2000		Rank		Channel Stability		Structural Diversity		Temperature		Predation		Competition		Dissolved Oxygen		Flow		Suspended Sediment		Food		Chemicals		Obstructions		Pathogens		Key Habitat		Life Stage	
Life Stage		Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead		
Spawning	8	6	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	.	●	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Spawning
Egg incubation	4	3	●	●	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Egg incubation
Fry colonization	3	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Fry colonization
0-age resident rearing	1	1	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age resident rearing
0-age migrant	7	7	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age migrant
0-age inactive	2	4	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	0-age inactive
1-age resident rearing	5	5	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age resident rearing
1-age migrant	9	9	.	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age migrant
1-age inactive		10	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	1-age inactive
2+-age resident rearing		12	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age resident rearing
2+-age migrant		13	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age migrant
2+-age inactive		14	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	2+-age inactive
Migrant prespawner	10	11	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Migrant prespawner
Holding prespawner	6	8	.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	Holding prespawner

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- 0-5% above
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Reach: Johnson 14 (Schweitzer Project)

2009		Rank		Channel Stability		Structural Diversity		Temperature		Predation		Competition		Dissolved Oxygen		Flow		Suspended Sediment		Food		Chemicals		Obstructions		Pathogens		Key Habitat		Life Stage	
Life Stage		Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead		
Spawning	5	5	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Spawning
Egg incubation	2	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Egg incubation
Fry colonization	3	3	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Fry colonization
0-age resident rearing	1	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age resident rearing
0-age migrant	8	8	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age migrant
0-age inactive	4	7	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age inactive
1-age resident rearing	7	6	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age resident rearing
1-age migrant	9	4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age migrant
1-age inactive		11	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age inactive
2+-age resident rearing		12	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age resident rearing
2+-age migrant		13	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age migrant
2+-age inactive		14	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age inactive
Migrant prespawner	10	9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Migrant prespawner
Holding prespawner	6	10	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Holding prespawner

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2000		Rank		Channel Stability		Structural Diversity		Temperature		Predation		Competition		Dissolved Oxygen		Flow		Suspended Sediment		Food		Chemicals		Obstructions		Pathogens		Key Habitat		Life Stage	
Life Stage		Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead	Coho	Steelhead		
Spawning	5	7	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Spawning
Egg incubation	2	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Egg incubation
Fry colonization	4	4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Fry colonization
0-age resident rearing	1	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age resident rearing
0-age migrant	8	8	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age migrant
0-age inactive	3	3	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0-age inactive
1-age resident rearing	6	5	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age resident rearing
1-age migrant	9	6	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age migrant
1-age inactive		10	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1-age inactive
2+-age resident rearing		12	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age resident rearing
2+-age migrant		13	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age migrant
2+-age inactive		14	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2+-age inactive
Migrant prespawner	10	9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Migrant prespawner
Holding prespawner	7	11	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Holding prespawner

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