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#### LESSONS TO LEARN FROM ALL OUT INVASION:

## LIFE HISTORY OF BROWN TROUT (SALMO TRUTTA)

## IN A PATAGONIAN RIVER

By

#### SARAH LOUISE O'NEAL

B.S., University of Washington, Seattle, WA, 1999

Thesis

presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Master of Science in Organismal Biology and Ecology

> The University of Montana Polson, MT

> > May 2008

Approved by:

Dr. Jack A. Stanford, Chair Flathead Lake Biological Station

Dr. David A. Strobel, Dean Graduate School

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Organismal Biology and Ecology

# Lessons to learn from all out invasion: life history of brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) in a Patagonian River

Chairperson: Jack A. Stanford

#### ABSTRACT

Brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) are widely introduced throughout Patagonia, though their distribution and impact in the region remain poorly documented. Life history flexibility, and particularly partial migration play a major role in the ability of this species to adapt to Patagonian rivers. Consequently, this study explored habitat, distribution and life history of a partially migratory population of brown trout in the Rio Grande in Tierra del Fuego, Argentina. It described what is known of the history of the invasion. Physical, chemical, and biological habitat data were collected for comparison between sites supporting resident fish with those supporting anadromous fish. Additionally, brown trout and native fish distribution and abundance was described using a combination of local knowledge, angling, electrofishing, and netting.

Results indicate that brown trout developed an anadromous life history form several decades subsequent to their initial introduction, possibly after near extirpation of native galaxiid fish and reduction of invertebrate biomass. Sites supporting resident fish were narrower, and exhibited higher levels of specific conductance and soluble reactive phosphorous than those supporting both resident and anadromous fish. Resident sites additionally exhibited vastly higher invertebrate biomass. Significantly larger scale radii, suggesting faster juvenile growth was documented for fish in sites supporting resident fish versus those supporting anadromous fish, suggesting that food availability indeed may influence the individual 'decision' to migrate. The adult population proved to be exceptionally abundant and exhibited various life history traits which suggest that the Rio Grande supports one of the strongest remaining populations of anadromous brown trout worldwide.

Key words: sea trout, Salmo trutta, invasion, partial migration, Patagonia

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#### **INTRODUCTION**

Brown trout (*Salmo trutta* L.) are the second most widely distributed non-native fish introduced to Patagonia (Pascual et al. 2002), where documentation on the impacts that salmonids have on native communities is scarce and largely inconclusive. Because current distribution of native fish remains undocumented for most Patagonian rivers (Pascual et al. 2002), a call for research indicates that the most useful studies will examine native and nonnative fish distributional patterns which can contribute to an understanding of the nature and extent of invasions in the region (Habit et al. 2004). Macchi et al. state that while it is impossible to reconstruct the pre-salmonid fauna, it is possible to assess the probable impact of salmonids on native ecosystems. And Habit et al. (2004) add that because of the extent, complexity, and urgency of the situation of introduced salmonids in Patagonia, the most useful studies will contribute to theory on invasions and their impacts over several levels, from individual organisms to ecosystem processes such as trophic dynamics.

Biological invasions are a leading cause of species loss worldwide (Simberloff 2001), and there is a growing need to understand the invasion process because of the increasing number of aquatic ecosystems threatened by invasive species (Moyle and Light 1996). Invasions of non-native fishes can have far-reaching effects which may impact all levels of the foodweb (Townsend 1996). Indeed in New Zealand, where trout introductions have been extensively studied, researchers have documented significant declines in native galaxiid fish communities, as well as invertebrate communities subsequent to establishment of trout populations (Huryn 1996, Flecker and Townsend 1994, McDowall 1996, Townsend 1996). Life history plasticity has often been noted as a key characteristic of successful invaders (Moyle and Light 1996; Townsend 1996; Alcarez, Vila-Gispert, Garcia-Berthou 1996). However, few studies specifically address its role in the invasion process (but see Bohn et al. 2004; Bonsall and Mangel, 2004; and Vila-Gispert, Alcaraz, and Garcia-Berthou 2005).

The occurrence of partial migration is one expression of life history plasticity which remains poorly understood even outside the context of invasion. Partial migration, the phenomenon of populations consisting of both migratory and resident individuals (Jonsson and Jonsson 1993), is documented in animal taxa ranging from insects to higher vertebrates (Baker 1978), and is common among fish within freshwater and marine habitats (Jonsson and Jonsson 1993), as well as across the freshwater-saltwater boundary (McDowall 1997). Life history theory indicates that in order for individuals to migrate, the fitness benefits of migration (such as increased reproductive output) must outweigh the fitness costs (such as increased mortality) (Gross, 1987).

The role of environmental factors versus genetics on the 'decision' to migrate is still unknown. While genetics likely play an underlying role in the development of partially migratory populations, previous studies of fish species fail to differentiate genetically between resident and migratory individuals within a population, and in fact indicate that interbreeding often occurs between the migratory and resident individuals (Hindar et al. 1991, Jonsson and Jonsson 1993, Klemetsen et al. 2003). It thus follows that environmental factors contribute considerably to the decision by individuals to migrate. Environmental factors commonly associated with migration include avoidance of adverse ambient conditions such as extreme temperatures, as well as pursuit of preferable reproductive and feeding habitat (Nikolskii 1963).

Gross, Coleman, and McDowall (1988) argue that diadromous migrations evolved according to aquatic productivity. Their argument, known as the 'food availability hypothesis,' is supported by global patterns of diadromy whereby anadromous fish (which feed at sea but spawn in freshwater) occur most frequently at higher latitudes where marine productivity exceeds freshwater productivity and catadromous fish (which feed in freshwater but spawn at sea) occur most frequently at lower latitudes where freshwater productivity exceeds marine productivity.

The food availability hypothesis has been corroborated experimentally in salmonid species by inducing migration via food deprivation (Olsson et al. 2006 and others) and vice-versa, inducing residency by increasing food resources. Body size (Bohlin, Dellefors, and Farmeo 1996) and growth rate (Jonsson 1985), are mechanisms that have additionally been postulated as drivers for migration, though studies regarding those mechanisms are often contradictory.

An assessment of the food availability hypothesis as it relates to an introduced partially migratory population may contribute not only to life history theory in general, but also allow for inferences regarding the course of invasion. Indeed, if the food availability hypothesis appears to apply in the introduced range of a species, the evolution of diadromy during the course of an invasion implies a change in the food base, compelling some fish to migrate to an adjacent habitat exhibiting higher productivity. This implies potentially far-reaching impacts of the invader on the native foodweb. Certainly, the impact of introduced fishes on every trophic level of native ecosystems has been widely documented (Knapp and Matthews 2000; Schindler, Knapp, and Leavitt 2001; Townsend 2003). However, this effect has rarely been explored with respect to life history flexibility, and has never been evaluated in rivers on the south American continent.

Brown trout have been introduced into at least 24 countries outside their native European range (Elliott 1994). They proliferate throughout their introduced range, often forming sea-run migratory (sea trout) populations in the southern hemisphere (Frost and Brown 1967). Ironically, sea trout stocks in their native European range are in significant decline, largely due to overfishing, aquaculture activities, and river regulation (Harris and Milner 2006). The declines have instigated a proliferation of literature regarding habitat, life history characteristics, and population dynamics of native sea trout. Consequently, a more thorough understanding of the role of life history and environment in a successfully invading population may shed light on this growing conservation conundrum.

The overarching purpose of this study was to determine the distribution, abundance, and life history variation of an introduced brown trout population in the Rio Grande of Tierra del Fuego. In doing so, impacts of the invader were inferred and the following hypotheses were tested: the resident life history type dominates only where 1) sufficient instream food resources exist, and 2) juvenile growth rates are higher. Additionally, the adult sea run population was described in order to shed light on life history differences between declining native European populations and a successfully established introduced population.

#### **STUDY AREA**

The study was conducted from December 2005 to March 2008 on the Argentine side of the Rio Grande (57° 47' S; 67° 41' W), the largest watershed on Isla Grande of Tierra del Fuego (Fig. 1) with average annual discharge of about 40 m<sup>3</sup>/s (Iturraspe, Gaviño, and Urciuolo 1998). The Rio Grande is a middle order, meandering river (Lorang and Hauer, 2006), originating from a headwater lake, as well as a spring fed Andean stream on the Chilean side of the border. It flows approximately 120 km to the South Atlantic. Major tributaries flowing into the Rio Grande include the Radman (or Rasmussen) and Menendez rivers. Smaller tributaries include the MacLennan (or Ona), Herminita (or Herminia), Moneta, and Candelaria Rivers (Fig. 1). The hydrograph exhibits a pluvial flow regime, dominated largely by rainfall. The floodplain within the study reach is low elevation (ranging from approximately 75m to sea level); low gradient (approximately 1%); and small shrub, grass, and forb dominated.

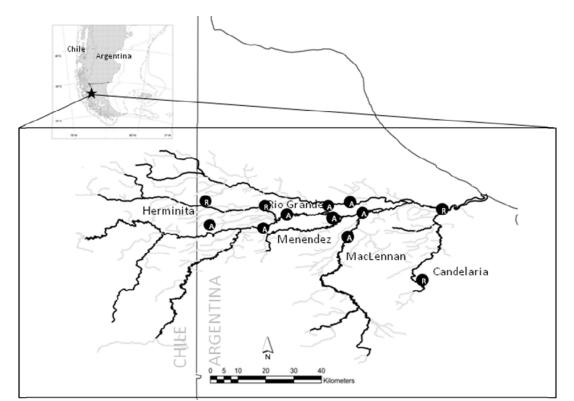


Figure 1. The Rio Grande watershed in southern Patagonia. Sites sampled for juvenile, resident, and habitat metrics are indicated by dark circles with an 'A' in locations where anadromous and resident fish are documented, and an 'R' in locations where only resident fish are documented (no anadromous fish were present).

Due to the relative lack of human disturbance in the floodplain with respect to flow regulation, point source pollution, road development, or flood protection structures, the orthofluvial and parafluvial catena (*sensu* Stanford, Lorang and Hauer 2005), and presumably natural hyporheic flows are undisturbed. Oxbows and abandoned channels occur throughout the floodplain, but maintain hyporheic connectivity to the river, thereby often forming orthofluvial springbrooks. However, extensive grazing by sheep and cattle occurs throughout the island. The river substratum varies in size from fine organics to bedrock, but is dominated by large gravel to small cobble.

Historically, the river contained native perch (*Percichthys sp.*), and galaxiid species including small puyen (*Galaxias maculates* J.), large puyen (*Galaxias platei* S.), and peladilla (*Aplochiton sp.*) (McDowall 1971). As this study shows, the vast majority of native fish have been eliminated from the river. Resident rainbow trout are still found at low densities. Brown trout now clearly dominate the system. Migrating sea-run brown trout dominate the mainstem Rio Grande as well as the tributaries, the Menendez and MacLennan Rivers, though resident fish occur in those rivers as well. Sea-run fish do not reside in or use either the Herminita or the Candelaria Rivers, however, which are both dominated by resident brown trout.

#### HISTORY OF BROWN TROUT IN RIO GRANDE

Precise records describing the earliest introductions of brown trout to Tierra del Fuego as well as mainland Argentina are unavailable (C. Riva Rossi, personal communication). The first documented attempt at introduction of the species into Argentina occurred in 1906 when 6000 eggs were reportedly shipped, but died in transport, probably from the United Kingdom to the Santa Cruz Hatchery in mainland Patagonia (Marini and Mastrarrigo 1963). In 1927, brown trout stocking took place on the Chilean side of Tierra del Fuego in several rivers which may have included headwaters to the Rio Grande drainage (Basulto del Campo 2003). Those fish are of unknown European origin, but possibly from Hamburg, Germany and were marked "Meersforelle," meaning "sea trout," though the source population was not identified (Joyner 1980; R. Behnke, personal communication). Recent genetic studies regarding parental stocks of southern Chilean brown trout suggest that the brown trout in southern Chile are of Atlantic as opposed to Mediterranean drainages (Colihueque, Vergara, and Parraguez 2003; Faundez et al. 1997).

From 1935 to 1937, English settler John Goodall received and reared brown trout ova from Puerto Montt, Chile before releasing them into the Candelaria, Herminita, MacLennan, and Menendez Rivers (Bruno Videla 1978). Potential sources of those ova include Hamburg, Germany or other locations in Europe (Valiente et al. 2007). Rainbow trout (*Onchoryncus mykiss* W.) and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) were stocked during the same period throughout tributaries to the Rio Grande. Stocking of brown trout in the watershed resumed in 1976 (Bruno Videla 1978), and with the exception of 1979-1981, continued annually through at least 2000 (S. Lesta, personal communication).

The first recorded catch of resident brown trout in the river appears in Goodall's records in 1937. Records from 1948 document catches of all three introduced species (resident brown trout, resident rainbow trout, and Atlantic salmon) in the mainstem Rio Grande. Evidently brown trout remained in the stream as a resident population for decades, until local anglers report the emergence of 'large, silver,' apparently sea run fish in the mid- to late-1950s (A. Menendez Behety, personal communication). Local net and rod fishing, with a loosely enforced bag limit of five sea trout per fisherman per day, developed later in the century until catch-and-release angling tourism started in 1986 (Solomon and Czerwinski 2006). As angling tourism grew, public access to the river diminished. Currently, less than 10 stream kilometers are open to angling only by local anglers with an enforced bag limit of one fish per fisherman per day. There is additional access to the river for the general public one day per week. Access to the vast majority of the Argentine section of the river, however, is controlled by private landowners who lead primarily foreign anglers on a daily basis for strictly catch-and-release fishing during the summer and early fall.

#### **METHODS**

#### FRESHWATER HABITAT CHARACTERIZATION

In order to characterize freshwater habitat, several habitat variables were collected throughout the watershed. Habitat variables were additionally used to evaluate factors

limiting juvenile growth and thus to test the food availability hypothesis. They included physical (temperature, average depth, width, and velocity), chemical (specific conductance, pH, total persulfate nitrogen, nitrate-nitrite, ammonia, total phosphorus, and soluble reactive phosphorus), and biological (chlorophyll a, ash-free dry mass, and invertebrate density and biomass) variables, and were measured three times during the season at twelve sites (Figure 1). Sites were selected to encompass as much of the Argentine portion of the basin as possible. Duplicate sites within tributaries were located as far as possible from one another in order to minimize spatial correlation, though accessibility was a major factor in site selection as well. Four sites were located in tributaries known by local anglers and landowners to support resident fish only (Candelaria and Herminita Rivers). Eight additional sites were located in tributaries (Menendez and MacLennan Rivers) and the mainstem Rio Grande known to support both low densities of resident fish as well as migrating and spawning anadromous fish (Figure 1). Measurements were taken within ten days of one another across the floodplain in late December (hereon referred to as spring), late February (hereon referred to as summer), and mid-April (hereon referred to as fall) of 2007.

Average particle size of the river bottom was determined using the Wolman (1954) method in riffles where algae and invertebrate samples were additionally collected. During each habitat sampling event, an approximate discharge measurement was collected. Cross-sectional area was determined across three transects in which depth and width were measured to the nearest centimeter. Approximate velocity between transects was measured using a neutrally buoyant object.

All water chemistry sampling equipment was acid-washed between sites and subsequently rinsed with sample water prior to grab sample collection. Dissolved nutrient samples were filtered through 0.45µm mesh membrane filters. Samples were frozen until analysis of primary plant growth nutrients, nitrogen and phosphorus. This was performed using an autoanalyzer according to routine protocol (APHA 1998). Specific conductance and pH were additionally measured using an Oakton model 10 meter (Vernon Hills, IL, US) that was calibrated with standard solutions before and after each sampling period.

Algal biomass was quantified using both ash-free dry mass (AFDM) methodology as well as analysis for the pigment Chlorophyll a. Prior to AFDM sample collection, glass fiber filters were pre-ashed and weighed. Three replicate samples for both parameters were collected from randomly selected rocks (for a total of six rocks per site) within riffles, using a 4-cm<sup>2</sup> sampling template. Algal material was scraped from the sampling area and placed onto a glass fiber filter (pre-ashed and weighed for AFDM only). Water was extracted using a Nalgene (Rochester, NY, US) hand vacuum pump. Filters with samples were subsequently placed into vials, wrapped in aluminum foil to prevent penetration of light, and frozen until analysis. All AFDM samples were dried to a constant weight at 105°C and weighed to the nearest 0.1 milligram (mg), oxidized at 500°C, rewetted and re-dried to a constant weight at 105°C, and finally re-weighed to the nearest 0.1 mg. Dry mass was calculated as the weight of dried material plus filter weight minus the original filter weight, divided by the area of the sampled rocks  $(4-cm^2)$ . AFDM was calculated as the weight of the dry mass minus the residual ash, divided by the area of the sampled rocks, according to Steinman and Lamberti (1996). All Chlorophyll *a* samples were analyzed within ninety days of sample collection. Chlorophyll a was measured using the fluorometric method described in APHA et al. (1998).

Benthic macroinvertebrate samples were collected in triplicate from a riffle within each sampling site using a Surber sampler with 500  $\mu$ m mesh. For each sample, river bottom substrate was cleaned and organisms were kicked from a 0.3 m<sup>2</sup> area into the sampling net. The sample was subsequently decanted in a bucket, filtered through a 250  $\mu$ m sieve, transferred to a sampling jar, and preserved using ethanol diluted to approximately 70% (Hauer and Resh 1996). Samples were later identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible, and enumerated using a dissecting microscope. Assistance with identification was provided by local experts from the Laboratory of Ecological Investigations and Animal Systematics at the National University of Patagonia in Esquel, Argentina. After identification, samples were dried in pre-weighed aluminum cups at 60° C for 48 hours before re-weighing. Weights were determined to the nearest mg. Scud (*Hyalella araucana* G.) specimens were weighed separately due to their apparent importance in trout diets as revealed by preliminary data. All other invertebrate taxa were pooled.

Additionally, temperature was collected every ninety minutes using iButton temperature data loggers (Maxim Integrated Products, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, US). Loggers were pre- and post-calibrated using controlled temperature baths to correct for any systematic bias or error. Temperatures were averaged on a daily basis for the purposes of this paper.

#### JUVENILE DISTRIBUTION, GROWTH, AND DIET

Three-pass electrofishing, using a Smith Root LR-24 (Vancouver, WA, US) backpack unit, was conducted twice during the season to determine juvenile densities and growth rates at the twelve sites shown in Figure 1. Block nets (5 mm mesh) were used whenever possible. All fish were weighed to the nearest 0.1 g and measured to the nearest mm. Fish over 90 mm were sampled for stomach contents and scales. Using a syringe and wide diameter plastic tubing with sufficient length to reach the stomach, water was flushed into the stomach cavity to force evacuation of its contents. Scales were removed 5 - 10 rows above the lateral line between the adipose and dorsal fins. All scale samples were dried and preserved. Population densities were determined using the Zippin (1958) estimation method divided by the unit area of each reach.

In addition to electrofishing, investigative fyke netting was conducted to shed light on juvenile freshwater migration patterns between tributaries and the mainstem. Fyke nets (6.3-mm mesh) were installed facing both up and downstream, and attached to each other and the river bank in all tributaries for a minimum of 48 hours during the summer and the fall. Nets were monitored twice daily, and migrants were sampled as described above for electrofishing.

#### DISTRIBUTION AND ABUNDANCE OF ADULT TROUT

Adult resident and anadromous brown trout were collected by hook and line from January through April of 2006 through 2008 by tourism anglers as well as scientists. Adult fish were collected from throughout the Argentine section of the mainstem Rio Grande and samples were taken by both scientists and trained guides. Additional angling took place on accessible tributaries. Floy T-bar anchor tags were inserted underneath the dorsal fin of fish >30 cm due to the size of the tag. Fork length and girth anterior to the dorsal fin were measured to the nearest five centimeters for all fish, and scale samples were taken from between the dorsal and adipose fins, above the lateral line. Adipose fins were clipped during the 2006 season for genetic analysis as well as a measure of tag retention. Because fish were not killed, sex was generally determined by morphology. Males exhibit a slight kype or a precursory kype while females do not. In order to evaluate freshwater feeding habits of returning migratory fish, some of the tagged fish were additionally analyzed for stomach contents as described above for juvenile sampling.

#### AGE AND GROWTH OF ADULT TROUT

Scale samples were cleaned and acetate impressions were made using a heated hydraulic press. Impressions were subsequently magnified under a dissecting microscope and digital images were taken for later analysis using Spot software (Diagnostic Instruments, Sterling Heights, MI, US). ImageJ image analysis software (<u>http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij</u>) was used to inspect each scale sample. Annuli were counted, and their radii measured along the anterior-posterior axis of the scale. Ages at spawning events were inferred by the degree of scarring on the annuli (Figure 2). The absence of spawning marks, however, does not confirm the absence of spawning behavior (Elliott and Chambers 1996) such that reported numbers of spawning events serve as a minimum estimate. Resident and anadromous brown trout were distinguished both by morphology as well as scale growth patterns. Resident brown trout are generally smaller, darker colored with a more densely spotted pattern, and exhibited a fusiform body shape relative to that of sea trout. Additionally, circuli spacing on scales is wider during the post-smolt phase due to higher growth rates in the marine vs. freshwater environment (Figure 2).

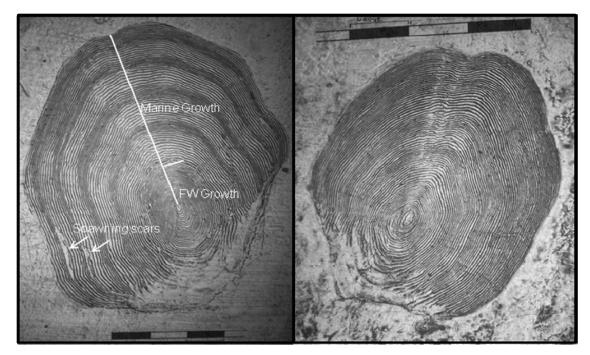


Figure 2. Scale samples from anadromous (left) and resident (right) brown trout from the Rio Grande (images are not to scale). Circuli spacing is notably wider in the marine environment, and resorption due to spawning is evident in the third and fourth marine annuli of the anadromous fish.

Back-calculated length at age was determined using the Fraser-Lee method (Fraser 1916, Lee 1920). The biological intercept (c in the equation below) of 3.83 cm (r=0.81, d.f.=201, p<0.05) was determined using linear least-squares regression. The Fraser-Lee model back-calculates individual body length as:

$$L_i = c + (L_c - c)(S_i/S_c);$$

 $L_i$  = back-calculated fish length at annulus *i*;  $L_c$  = fish length at capture;  $S_i$  = scale radius to annulus *i*;  $S_c$  = total scale radius to annulus *i*; c = the Fraser-Lee correction factor (the intercept point at the y-axis).

Significant differences between growth rates of male and female sea trout were not found, and thus samples were pooled. Blind verification of aging techniques was performed on 75 scale samples by the LFI laboratory at the University of Oslo, Norway. Eighty-five percent of determined ages agreed between datasets. Those that did not agree were for old fish ( $\geq$  8 years) and did not indicate consistent bias in over- or underestimation.

#### STATISTICAL ANALYSES

In order to test the food availability hypothesis, binomial logistic regression was initially used. Binomial logistic regression was chosen due to the categorical nature of the of the response variable (i.e., the presence or absence of anadromy). This analysis was first conducted using the variable 'season' as a factor, as habitat variables were collected three times during the year. However, because the model revealed no significant effect of season (p values ranging from 0.316 to 0.988), values from each season were treated as replicates for subsequent analyses. In the logistic regression model, the explanatory habitat data exhibited both quasicomplete and complete separation, precluding the development of maximum likelihood estimates. Quasicomplete and complete separation occur when there is respectively little to no overlap (i.e., a large difference without commonality) between explanatory data points of the categories of the response variable (Hosmer and Lemeshow 2000). Consequently, a fully parameterized model could not be developed and differences between site types were subsequently analyzed using nonparametric Mann-Whitney exact U tests. The Mann-Whitney test was selected due to small sample sizes as well as nonnormal distribution of data (Landau and Everitt 2000).

Additional comparisons were made between resident and anadromous individuals using univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA). Subsequent multiple comparisons were performed using post hoc Tukey pairwise procedures (Landau and Everitt 2004).

Mark-recapture data was analyzed using a Schnable (1938) estimator. This estimator is used for multiple marking and recapture samples over a short period of time and assumes no immigration, emigration, recruitment, or mortality. While the assumption of no immigration was clearly violated by this migratory population, a third year of data is required for a more appropriate, robust design model. The goal of the analysis was to generate an estimate of the order of magnitude of sea trout in the Rio Grande. Linear regression was used to determine the biological intercept for the Fraser-Lee back-calculation equation. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was met, and the linearity of the relationship between scale radius and total length confirmed.

All statistical calculations were carried out using SPSS 16.0 GP (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, US). A rejection level of 0.05 was used in all tests.

#### RESULTS

#### FRESHWATER HABITAT CHARACTERIZATION

Physical variables including stream width, average depth, current velocity, river bottom particle size, and stream temperature were compared between sites used by resident and anadromous fish and sites used only by resident fish. Only stream width significantly differed between resident and anadromous sites. Streams supporting only resident fish were narrower on average than those supporting resident and anadromous fish (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -3.2, p = 0.001, Figure 3).

Nutrient concentrations were low, at levels characteristic of unpolluted streams (Wetzel 2001). Only SRP was significantly different between sites supporting solely resident vs. sites supporting both resident and anadromous fish (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -4.0, p < 0.001), with higher values in resident sites (Figure 3). While pH values did not differ significantly between site types, specific conductance was also higher in streams supporting only reisdent trout (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -3.4, p < 0.001, Figure 3).

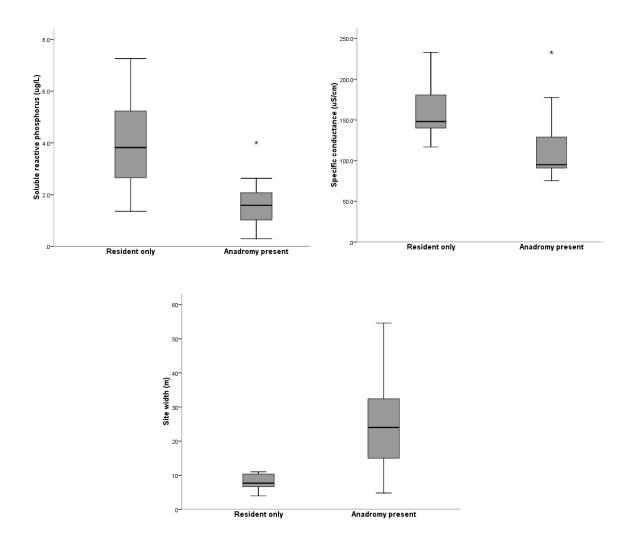


Figure 3. Boxplots of habitat variables exhibiting significant differences between sites supporting solely resident fish (Resident only, gray) vs. sites supporting both anadromous and resident fish (Anadromy present, white). Boxes indicate first and third quartiles, while bars indicate maximum and minimum values. Outliers are shown separately.

Measures of primary productivity, AFDM and chlorophyll *a*, were highly variable, and did not exhibit statistical significance with respect to the presence or absence of anadromy. Separate analyses conducted for scuds and for all other invertebrates indicated that scud density (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -3.7, p < 0.001), scud dry mass (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -2.4, p < 0.001), and other invertebrate biomass (Mann-Whitney U test, z = -2.92, p = 0.003) were significantly different between site types, with sites supporting only resident trout exhibiting higher levels of scud and invertebrate biomass (Figure 4), as well as scud density. Habitat data is summarized according to site and season in Appendix A.

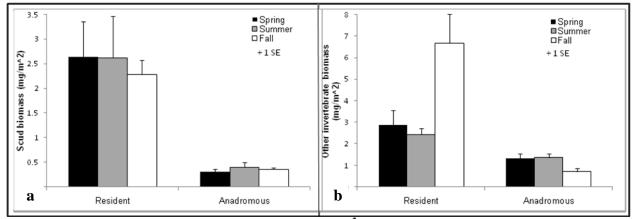


Figure 4. Scud (a) and other invertebrate (b) biomass (mg/m<sup>2</sup>) in sites supporting resident fish only vs. sites supporting both resident and anadromous fish.

#### JUVENILE DISTRIBUTION, GROWTH, AND DIET

Juvenile population density assessed throughout the watershed at sites indicated in Figure 1 ranged from 0 to 0.71 fish/m<sup>2</sup> in the spring, and 0 to 1.88 fish/m<sup>2</sup> in the fall (Figure 5). Tributaries supporting only resident fish exhibited significantly higher juvenile densities than those supporting both resident and anadromous fish (2.107, df = 22, p < 0.05). Specific growth rate for both young-of-the-year (YOY) and parr did not significantly differ between resident and anadromous sites. Fulton's condition factor (K), however, was higher in sites supporting resident fish than in those supporting resident and anadromous fish with a difference approaching statistical significance (t = 1.730, df = 22, p = 0.098).

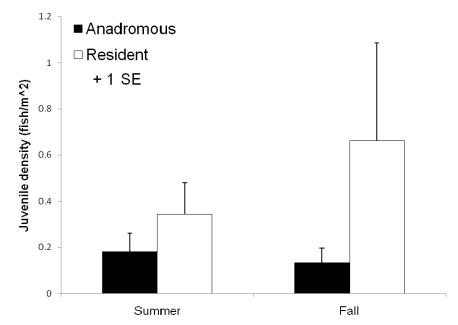


Figure 5. Density of juvenile brown trout in electrofished sites during summer (February) and fall (April) + 1 SE. Anadromous indicates sites which support both resident and anadromous adult fish (Grande, MacLennan and Menndez Rivers), while resident indicates sites which support resident fish only (Candelaria and Herminita Rivers).

Fyke netting for juveniles in freshwater suggested very low levels of summer migration between the mainstem Rio Grande and its tributaries, at zero to two 1+ fish per day or less moving upstream into tributaries supporting resident fish. During fall fyke netting, however, 0+ (96%) and 1+ (4%) fish were documented migrating upstream into tributaries supporting solely resident fish (Herminita (N = 18) and Candelaria (N = 7) Rivers).

Adult residents residing in resident streams exhibited significantly wider annuli spacing during the first year in freshwater versus adult anadromous fish during the first year in freshwater (ANOVA followed by Tukey's test, F(2, 202) = 6.349, p < 0.05), suggesting higher juvenile growth of residents in those streams. Interestingly, adult residents residing in anadromous streams exhibited narrower annuli spacing than residents in resident streams, though differences were not statistically significant (Figure 6).

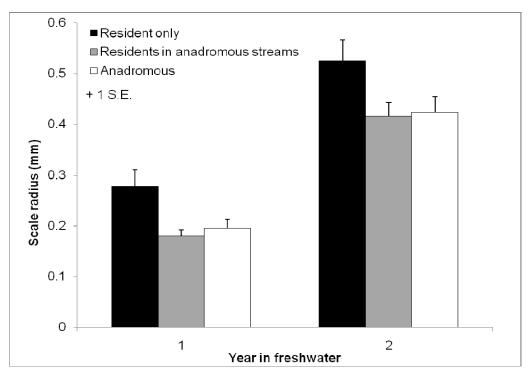


Figure 6. Scale radius for the first and second annuli of adult residents residing in resident streams (black bars), adult residents residing in anadromous streams (gray bars), and anadromous adults (white bars) + 1 SE. Results indicate significantly higher growth of juvenile residents residing in resident streams than anadromous fish during the first year (p < 0.05).

Stomachs of 185 juvenile (0+ and 1+) trout were evacuated, 73 from sites supporting resident and anadromous fish and 112 from sites supporting only resident fish. Most common diet items found in stomachs included scuds (*Hyalella araucana* G.); various chironimid (*Chironimidae*) taxa; snails (*Chilina patagonica* S.), Ephemoptera-Trichopter-Plecoptera (EPT) taxa (*Andesiops sp., cailloma sp., Limnoperla jaffueli* N., *Limnoperla sp., Meridialaris chiloeensis* D., *Neatopsyche sp., Rheochorema sp., and Verger sp.*); terrestrial invertebrates, and juvenile brown trout (*Salmo trutta* L.). Juvenile fish in sites supporting both resident and anadromous fish were more frequently found to have empty stomachs and to have terrestrial invertebrates within stomach contents (Figure 6). Cannibalism was documented only in sites supporting solely resident fish. Stastically significant differences were found between sites supporting anadromous and resident fish vs. those supporting only resident fish for the proportion of juveniles with scuds in their stomachs (ANOVA F(1, 17) = 10.589, p <0.01); and for the proportion of juveniles with snails in their stomachs (ANOVA F(1, 17)=8.358, p < 0.05), as shown in Figure 6.

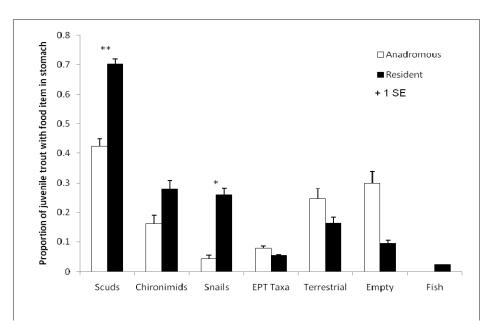


Figure 7. Proportion of juvenile trout with various diet items found in stomach contents between sites supporting both resident and anadromous vs. sites supporting only resident adult fish +1 SE. Most common diet items include scuds (*Hyalella araucana* G.); various chironimid (*Chironimidae*) taxa; snails (*Chilina patagonica* S.), Ephemoptera-Trichoptera-Plecoptera (EPT) taxa (*Andesiops sp., cailloma sp., Linoperla jaffueli* N., *Limnoperla sp., Meridialaris chiloeensis* D., *Neatopsyche sp., Rheochorema sp., and Verger sp.*); terrestrial invertebrates, and brown trout (*Salmo trutta* L.). \*\* indicates a a highly significant (p > 0.005) difference, and \* indicates a significant differenct at the p > 0.05 level.

In addition to brown trout, rainbow trout, and two native galaxid species (*Galaxias maculatus* J. and *Galaxius platei* S.) were documented in very low densities in electrofishing sites. Galaxiids were present only in sites in the lower mainstem Rio Grande, and the lower Candelaria River at densites varying from 0.04 - 0.05 fish/m<sup>2</sup>, an order of magnitude lower than brown trout densities.

#### DISTRIBUTION AND ABUNDANCE OF ADULT TROUT

During the summer of 2006, 1043 adult trout were tagged, and adipose fins removed. Of those, twenty (1.9%) were recaptured. During the summer of 2007, 2933 adult trout were tagged. Of those, 66 (2.3%) were recaptured. Tag loss based on 2007 recaptures of fish tagged in 2006 was determined to be minimal (<3%). Because the closed-population assumption of the Schnabel estimate was violated, the estimate should serve as an underestimation of the true population size (Table 1). About 72% of returning anadromous fish were female, while the percentage of female resident fish varied between 25-40% in tributaries where adult residents were collected. The majority of anadromous fish examined for stomach contents (N=89) were not feeding in freshwater as determined by the lack of food in their stomachs or a clean digestive tract. Three notable exceptions, which had small numbers of freshwater macroinvertebrates in their stomachs, were all on their first return to freshwater.

Table 1. Summary of Floy tagged fish collected during January through April of 2006 and 2007 from the mainstem Rio Grande, including associated Schnable (1938) population estimate and associated 95% confidence intervals.

					Female:	Anadromous	95%
		%	%	Female: male	male	population	Confidence
Year	Ν	recaptured	anadromous	(anadromous)	(resident)	estimate	interval
2006	1043	20 (2.5%)	98.7%	1:0.3	1:3	37,803	24,808 -
							79,389
2007	2933	66 (1.9%)	98.1%	1:0.3	1:1.5	55,058	44,784 –
							71,448

#### AGE AND GROWTH OF ADULT TROUT

Scales of both resident and anadromous brown trout were analyzed for freshwater age, marine age (in anadromous fish), spawning marks, and growth rates. Resident fish sampled were predominantly male (63%, N = 74, Table 2) and ranged in age from 2+ to 11 years (Table 3). Spawning marks on resident scale samples ranged in frequency from 0 to 4. Anadromous fish sampled were predominantly female (72% N = 129, Table 2) and ranged in total age from 2+ to 12 years. Spawning marks ranged in frequency from 0 to 6. Fish migrated to sea at two and three years in similar proportions (45.7% and 40.3%, respectively), though seaward migration varied from age 1+ to 4 years. Between rivers, annual growth rates of residents were significantly lower in the Candelaria River than in the Herminita and Menendez Rivers (ANOVA followed by Tukey's test, F(4,73) = 3.56, p < 0.05). No significant differences were found between growth rates of anadromous fish between rivers where they were captured.

includes only fish exi	8	Ratio	Average	Average	Average	Average	Average no.
		females:	length	age	smolt age	sea age	spawning
	Ν	males	(cm)	(years)	(years)	(years)	marks
Candelaria River							
Resident	19	0.2	$23.6\pm2.3$	$4.4 \pm 0.4$			
Herminita River							
Resident	16	0.3	$39.2 \pm 5.7$	$6.2 \pm 1.0$			
MacLennan River							
Resident	16	0.2	$29.8\pm5.7$	$5.3 \pm 2.1$			
Anadromous	4	3.0	$63.8 \pm 17.0$	$7.4 \pm 0.6$	$2.9\pm0.7$	$4.5 \pm 1.8$	$2.8 \pm 1.2$
Menendez River							
Resident	5	0.5	$40.6\pm15.5$	$5.7 \pm 1.4$			
Anadromous	9	2.0	$57.1 \pm 8.9$	$6.1 \pm 1.1$	$2.8\pm0.3$	$3.5\pm0.9$	$1.4 \pm 0.3$
Grande River							
Resident	31	0.7	$42.2 \pm 2.7$	$6.8 \pm 0.4$			$2.7\ \pm 0.4$
Anadromous	104	3.6	$59.4 \pm 3.2$	$7.0 \pm 0.9$	$2.6 \pm 0.1$	$4.6\pm0.5$	$2.6 \pm 0.3$

Table 2. Life history variables of resident and migrant brown trout in tributaries to as well as the mainstem Rio Grande including 95% confidence limits. Average number of spawning marks includes only fish exhibiting one or more mark.

Back-calculated growth indicated that amongst anadromous trout, larger parr migrated to sea earlier (ANOVA followed by Tukey's test F(3,113) = 18.3, p<0.001). Average growth rates for the first year at sea varied from 17.8 cm for 2 year old smolts to 21.7 cm for 1+ year old smolts (Table 4).

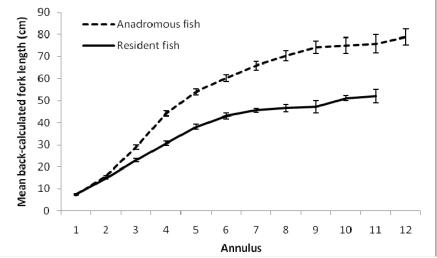


Figure 8. Mean back-calculated growth rates of anadromous and resident brown trout in the Rio Grande basin. Error bars represent ±1 SE.

		Anadromo	us	Resident			
ANNULUS	Mean back- calculated Range JS N length (cm) (cm)				Mean back- calculated length (cm)	Range (cm)	
1	117	7.2	4.7-12.7	88	7.4	5.3-13.3	
2	117	15.7	6.4-36.3	88	14.7	80.8-24.6	
3	116	29.0	79.2-53.4	87	23.0	10.5-40.1	
4	114	44.1	17.6-73.3	75	30.6	12.0-54.2	
5	101	54.0	23.0-85.0	55	38.1	14.4-65.0	
6	70	60.2	26.0-86.1	35	43.0	26.0-61.0	
7	50	65.8	38.0-89.1	23	45.6	33.0-50.0	
8	34	70.4	42.7-91.6	9	46.5	35.1-50.9	
9	23	74.2	43.9-94.7	5	47.1	36.0-52.6	
10	14	74.9	45.0-96.0	4	51.1	48.3-54.0	
11	8	75.8	50.0-86.0	2	52.0	49.0-55.0	
12	3	78.8	72.0-84.5				

Table 3. Back-calculated growth (mean fork length, cm) and SE for anadromous and resident brown trout from scale measurements.

#### DISCUSSION

Life history plasticity appears to have played a particularly crucial role in the successful establishment and spread of brown trout in the Rio Grande. The fact that this population consisted for decades of solely resident brown trout before shifting to the marine environment suggests a change in the food base in the freshwater environment. In New Zealand rivers where brown trout are also introduced, they are known to feed directly on native galaxiids, as well as significantly deplete invertebrate communities (Townsend 2003, Waters 1988). While the original freshwater foodweb of the Rio Grande is undocumented, it can be inferred that there was a sufficient food base to support the formerly resident population. The paucity of native fish remaining in the system combined with local accounts of much higher densities of galaxiids in the past (A. Matias, personal communication) suggests that indeed brown trout likely caused the near extirpation of the native fish through both competition and direct predation.

Further, significantly lower invertebrate biomass in sites supporting anadromous vs. resident brown trout, combined with the higher incidence of terrestrial invertebrates in the diets of juvenile fish as well as the more frequent occurrence of empty stomachs in those sites implies that the food base may indeed be limiting brown trout in sites

supporting anadromous fish. Huryn (1996) determined that introduced brown trout may consume more than 80% of benthic prey production in New Zealand rivers. Thus it appears possible, if not likely, that the formerly resident Rio Grande brown trout population subsisted on substantially higher densities of both native galaxiid fish as well as invertebrates, and may have began seaward migration after depleting those resources.

In other partially migratory salmonid populations where the food availability hypothesis has been tested, growth data suggest that fish which grow more during their first years of life in freshwater residualize in streams as residents, while those that grow less tend to migrate (Olsson and Greenberg 2004, Thériault and Dodson 2003). Indeed, analysis of freshwater annuli spacing of adult resident trout in resident streams was higher than that of adult resident trout in anadromous streams, and significantly higher than that of adult anadromous trout during the first year of life suggesting higher growth. Additionally, in the Rio Grande, higher fall juvenile densities in resident streams as well as fyke netting data suggest that some fish which residualize, largely males, likely migrate into tributaries with higher invertebrate and juvenile trout densities which can sustain them. It is probable that these resident fish descend tributaries and spawn with returning anadromous trout (Klemetsen et al. 2003). It is unknown whether the Rio Grande brown trout population has reached a relatively stable state, or if it will continue to shift toward higher levels of anadromy. Higher conductivity and SRP levels in tributaries supporting resident fish indeed suggest generally higher fertility of those locations (Wetzel 2001).

Regardless of the mechanisms leading to the occurrence of seaward migration in Rio Grande brown trout, comparison of the population with those from Europe clearly indicate that it is amongst the strongest anadromous populations in the world (Table 5). Mark-recapture data collected from the adult sea trout population of the Rio Grande revealed its exceptional size. The closed-population assumption of the Schnabel estimate is violated by this migratory population. However, based on catch records and other observations, immigration into the study reach exceeds both emigration and mortality.

Location	Sources	Parr Density (no./m <sup>2</sup> )	Freshwater growth (year 2, cm)	Mean Smolt Age (years)	Saltwater growth (first year at sea, cm)	Repeat spawners (%)	Maximum age (years)	Maximum length reported (cm)	Average annual declared catch
England	Davidson et al. 2006, Fahy 1978, Harris 2006, Mann et al. 1989, Nall 1930	0.10-0.80	3.7 - 6.8	2.0-3.4	4.4 - 12.5	12.5 - 39.6	8	62.4	1181 (416 - 5692)
Germany	Roche 1992	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	26	n/a	n/a	
Ireland	Fahy 1978, Gargan et al. 2006, Nall 1930	n/a	n/a	2.1 - 2.8	n/a	n/a	8	n/a	320 (37 – 1175)
Norway	Berg and Jonsson 1990, Jonsson 1985, L'Abée-Lund et al. 1989, L'Abée-Lund et al. 1991	0.11	3.6 - 7.5	1.2 - 5.6	7.9 - 20.4	5 – 69	11	69	n/a
Scotland	Butler and Walker 2006, Egglishaw and Shackley 1977, Nall 1930	n/a	n/a	2.1 - 3.4	n/a	16.5 - 65.1 <sup>b</sup>	11 (up to 1980) 5 (1997-2001)	n/a	n/a
Spain	Caballero et al. 2006	n/a	n/a	2.2 - 2.4	n/a	n/a	n/a	71.0	n/a
Sweden	Rubin et al. 2005	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	8	89.0	n/a
The Netherlands	Leeuw 2007	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	21	n/a	n/a	n/a
Turkey	Okumuş et al 2006	n/a	6.5 - 19.5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Wales	Fahy 1978, Nall 1930	n/a	n/a	2.1 - 2.5	n/a	n/a	8	n/a	n/a
Kerguelen Islands <sup>a</sup>	Davaine and Beall 1992	n/a	4 - 10	n/a	5-20	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Rio Grande <sup>a</sup>	This study	0.02 - 1.8	8.5	2.47	17.8 - 21.7	62.9	12	116.0	>>5455°

Table 4. Com	parison of various life	history traits of sea trou	ıt in their native range w	ith those from the Rio Grande.
Tuble I. Com	pullison of various me	motory drands or sea crod	te mi enem maeri e runge ii	in most if our the into or under

<sup>a</sup> The Kerguelen Islands and the Rio Grande are southern hemisphere locations where sea trout have been introduced
<sup>b</sup> The highest repeat spawning rate in Scotland occurred prior to 1980
<sup>c</sup> This value accounts for only 80% of the rods on the river and thus is considered an understimate

Catch rates in upper reaches of the study area are low, and the occurrence of sea trout on the Chilean side of the border is rare (G. Pacho., personal communication). Immigration causes underestimation of true population size (Williams, Nichols, and Conroy 2002). It is thus apparent that the Rio Grande supports tens of thousands of adult anadromous brown trout. Reasons for the large population are likely to include strict harvest limits and inaccessibility of the estuary to commercial fishing as well as few natural predators in the freshwater environment.

Few published population estimates of sea trout in European rivers exist, though rod catch statistics for studied rivers in Ireland, where average annual catch equals 320 sea trout (Gargan et al. 2006, Table 5), England and Wales, where declared catch averages 1181 (Harris 2006, Table 5), and France where run estimates do not exceed 3000 (Euzenat, Fournel, and Fagard 2006) indeed suggest much smaller populations than that in the Rio Grande. Catch records for only 80% of the anglers on the river during the course of the study indicate and average annual catch in the river of well over 5500 sea trout.

Not only do data indicate a surprisingly large population size, various other life history traits of this population suggest the Rio Grande and adjacent marine environment may indeed support one of the strongest existing sea trout populations in the world. While Rio Grande juvenile trout exhibit freshwater growth rates comparable to those in the southern portion of their European range (Mann, Blackburn, and Beaumont 1989; Le Cren 1985; L'Abée-Lund et al. 1989; Table 5), growth rate at sea is more than twice as high as that in English rivers (Davidson, Cove, and Hazlewood 2006; Fahy 1978; Harris 2006; Mann et al. 1989; Nall 1930; Table 5), and on the high end of the range of marine growth rates for Norwegian sea trout (Jonsson and Jonsson 2006, Table 5). Backcalculated growth rates indicated a 17.8 to 21.7 cm increment (Table 5) during the first year at sea, amongst the highest documented rates in the literature from The Netherlands, France (de Leeuw, ter Hofstede, and Winter 2007), and Germany (Roche 1992). Total length of fish collected from the Rio Grande similarly exceeds that of documented European fish. The largest male and female in the Rio Grande dataset were 120 cm and 99 cm in fork length, respectively. The highest values for body length located in the literature were in the 85-90 cm range (LeCren 1985, L'Abée-Lund et al. 1989, de Leeuw

et al. 2007), which are similar to values calculated for the asymptotic length of sea trout based on historical data of intact Scottish populations (Butler and Walker 2006). Sea trout of the sizes attained in Rio Grande are reported only for the Baltic sea trout elsewhere in the world (R. Behnke, personal communication).

Additionally, repeat spawning rates and longevity of Rio Grande sea trout exceed those of many European populations (Table 5). Southern European populations tend to live fewer (3-5) years, but spawn more times, with a repeat spawning rate of up to 60%; and northern populations tend to live longer (up to 8 years), but spawn fewer times with a repeat spawning rate of about 30% (Jonsson and L'Abée-Lund 1993). In contrast, Rio Grande sea trout exhibit both a high degree of iteroparity (64%) as well as remarkable longevity (living up to at least twelve years).

Reasons behind the great success of the Rio Grande fishery remain to be explored. It is likely due to a combination of both hereditary and environmental factors. The estuary at the mouth of the Rio Grande may be one of the most important environmental factors in their success. It is large and shallow, providing the benefits of both high productivity and shelter from large commercial fishing boats. The estuary is adjacent to the highly productive South Patagonian Shelf Ecosystem (Ciancio et al. 2008; Rivas, Dogliotti, and Gagliardinia 2006) where sea trout feed largely on sprats (*Sprattus fiuegensis*, Ciancio et al. 2008). Additionally, as opposed to other anadromous salmonids, sea trout do not generally travel far from coastal areas (Klemetsen et al. 2003), a behavior corroborated by their reported lack of appearance in offshore fishing nets in the area (A. Matias, personal communication). The absence of significant aquaculture activities, and the relative lack of human induced disturbance also likely contribute to the robust nature of the fishery. Further, a strict no kill policy imposed on the vast majority of the river since the mid-1980s appears to have resulted in increased catch rates, average size, and longevity of fish (Solomon and Czerwinski 2006).

This study is the first rigorous analysis of anadromous sea trout on the south American continent clearly documenting their distribution as well as what little remains of the distribution of native galaxiid fish. It implies far-reaching impacts of brown trout in the Rio Grande system, suggesting that severe depletion of native galaxiid and invertebrate communities compelled a shift toward a migratory life history. Juvenile

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growth rates, as inferred from scale data supports the food availability hypothesis as seen in other studies of partially migratory brown trout populations. Indeed, the individual 'decision' to migrate to sea appears to be associated with lower growth rates and fewer available instream food resources. Regardless of the mechanisms compelling migration, the combination of fresh and saltwater habitat available to the Rio Grande population appears to support what may indeed be one of the strongest anadromous populations of the species remaining in the world.

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## APPENDIX A

#### Average (minimum, maximum) values for water chemistry, primary productivity, and secondary productivity related variables by river and season.

	Total phosphorus (µg/L)	Soluble reactive phosphorus (µg/L)	Total persulfate nitrogen (µg/L)	Nitrate-nitrite (µg/L)	Ammonium (µg/L)	Chlorophyll a (µg/cm²)	Ash-free dry mass (mg/cm²)	Invertebrate density (no./m²)
Candelaria (resident only)								
Spring	13.5 (12.4-14.5)	5.0 (4.0-6.0)	505.3 (448.5-562.0)	4.5 (3.1-5.6)	126.6 (59.0-194.1)	0.52 (0.03-2.77)	1.08 (0.00-2.03)	8.6 (2.1-13.2)
Summer	10.7 (9.2-12.2)	3.2 (2.8-3.6)	396.1 (364.9-427.3)	1.4 (0.9-1.8)	39.4 (35.2-43.6)	0.81 (0.00-3.65)	11.33 (0.42-60.07)	8.3 (2.2-16.1)
Fall	13.7 (10.3-17.0)	1.8 (1.4-2.2)	607.7 (391.3-824.1)	1.9 (1.4-2.4)	30.6 (28.8-32.4)	0.12 (0.00-0.19)	1.50 (0.65-3.60)	15.2 (8.5-29.3)
Herminita (resident only)								
Spring	13.3 (11.7-14.8)	2.9 (2.5-3.2)	357.0 (318.3-395.7)	8.9 (2.0-15.8)	55.5 (30.2-80.8)	0.29 (0.06-0.82)	5.64 (0.00-33.00)	36.4 (8.6-66.6)
Summer	14.6 (12.4-16.8)	4.4 (4.2-4.6)	628.9 (439.3-818.5)	5.9 (1.6-10.2)	34.7 (32.6-36.7)	0.78 (0.03-3.35)	0.47 (0.00-2.85)	29.4 (12.9-50.6)
Fall	18.5 (17.9-19.6)	6.6 (5.9-7.3)	552.5 (545.0-560.0)	12.2 (1.0-13.5)	52.7 (40.1-65.4)	0.08 (0.00-0.25)	1.25 (0.00-3.20)	20.0 (3.2-33.7)
MacLennan (resident and anadromous	;)							
Spring	6.7 (n/a)	2.0 (n/a)	282.8 (274.4-291.2)	2.4 (n/a)	36.5 (n/a)	0.78 (0.32-1.60)	2.40 (0.03-5.60)	9.2 (4.4-20.2)
Summer	6.7 (6.3-7.2)	0.7 (0.7-0.8)	224.9 (205.0-244.8)	3.6 (2.3-4.9)	44.1 (43.2-45.0)	1.36 (0.00- 3.35)	10.12 (1.48-45.93)	12.1 (10.4-13.8)
Fall	6.6 (6.1-7.2)	0.3 (n/a)	409.6 (364.1-455.1)	1.6 (0.8-2.3)	51.0 (30.9-71.1)	0.09 (0.00-0.03)	1.15 (0.05-3.93)	27.0 (16.5-37.6)
Menendez (resident and anadromous)								
Spring	7.0 (n/a)	1.4 (1.3-1.4)	282.8 (274.4-291.2)	3.3 (2.1-4.4)	44.4 (24.9-63.9)	0.12 (0.03-0.20)	10.26 (0.10-57.13)	5.6 (22.2-28.7)
Summer	5.4 (4.6-6.2)	1.0 (1.0-1.1)	224.9 (205.0-244.8)	1.1 (1.0-1.2)	51.7 (43.4-60.0)	0.41 (0.06-0.73)	1.50 (0.00-4.63)	22.2 (10.3-34.1)
Fall	32.9 (8.3-57.5)	0.9 (0.5-1.3)	409.6 (364.1-455.1)	3.1 (2.8-3.4)	50.3 (47.6-53.0)	0.01 (0.00-0.05)	1.38 (0.65-3.25)	28.7 (15.8-41.6)
Grande (resident and anadromous)								
Spring	7.0 (6.2-8.0)	2.1 (1.7-2.6)	496.6 (349.4-752.5)	8.9 (3.6-20.6)	49.4 (25.7-91.7)	0.21 (0.03-0.64)	1.16 (0.18-4.05)	13.4 (5.0-21.6)
Summer	10.7 (9.2-12.2)	2.5 (1.6-4.0)	347.3 (266.5-464.5)	5.8 (0.7-17.2)	47.7 (36.6-72.8)	0.58 (0.00-2.04)	7.79 (0.00-62.42)	12.6 (10.7-14.0)
Fall	13.7 (10.3-17.0)	1.9 (1.4-2.3)	559.3 (371.9-842.3)	9.2 (3.8-18.6)	37.2 (34.0-40.4)	0.03 (0.00-0.08)	4.16 (0.00-45.15)	12.3 (4.0-31.3)