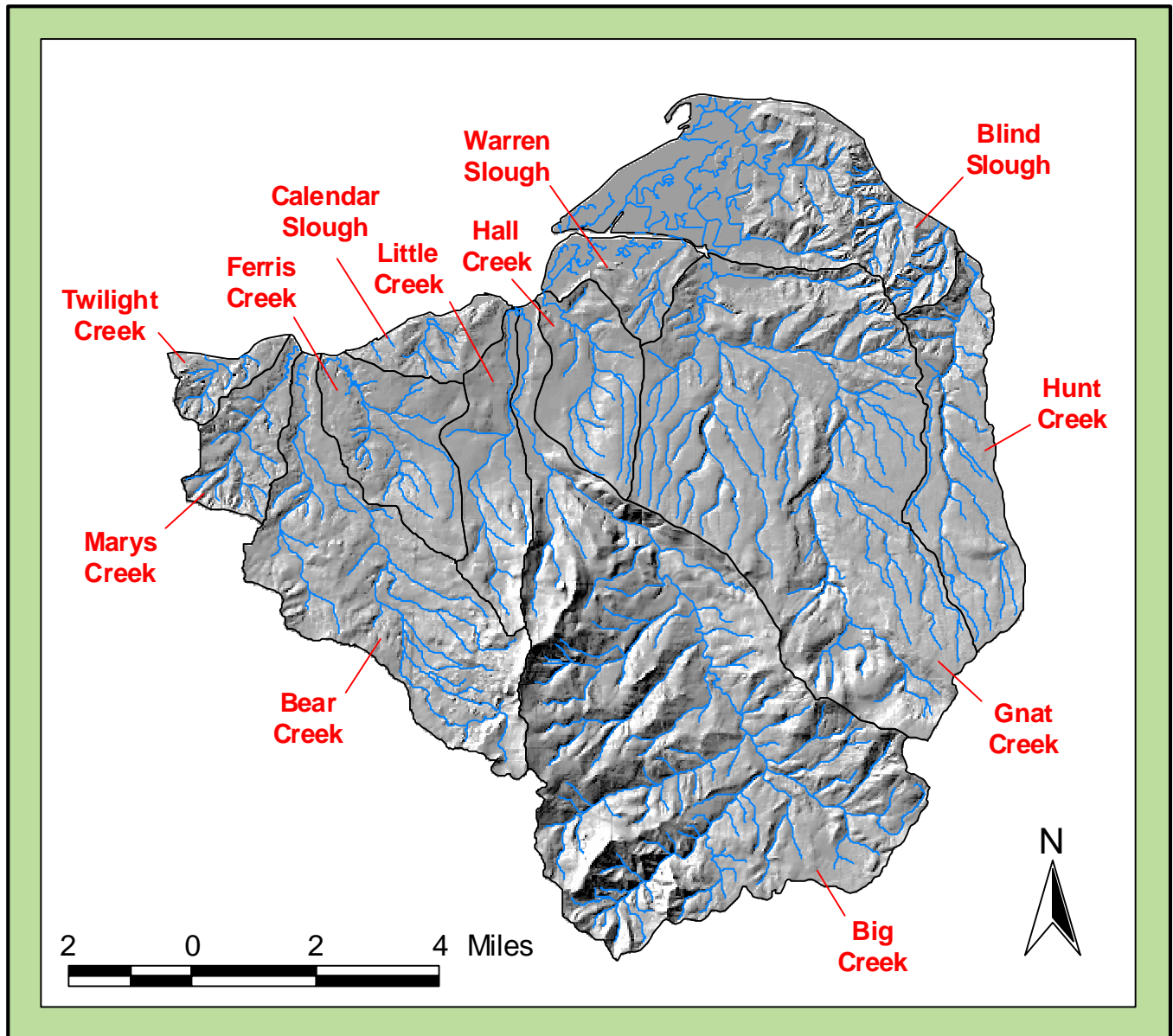


Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed Assessment



E&S Environmental Chemistry, Inc.
and
Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed Council

August, 2000

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Final Report

August, 2000

A report by:

**E&S Environmental Chemistry, Inc.
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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this watershed assessment is to inventory and characterize watershed conditions of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed and to provide recommendations that address the issues of water quality, fisheries and fish habitat, and watershed hydrology. This assessment was conducted by reviewing and synthesizing existing data sets and some new data collected by the watershed council, following the guidelines outlined in the Oregon Watershed Enhancement Board (OWEB) watershed assessment manual (WPN 1999).

It is important to note that many watershed processes cannot be characterized as either good or bad. Rather, these processes must be evaluated by their likely impact on valued resources such as salmonid habitat or water quantity and quality. By summarizing the existing conditions of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed we hope to help natural resource managers and watershed council members understand the complex interactions associated with watersheds. It is through this understanding that watersheds can be managed to protect the natural resources valued by local and national communities.

This assessment is diagnostic. It does not prescribe specific actions for specific stream segments. The intent of this assessment is to provide a decision-making framework for identifying areas of the watershed in need of protection and restoration. The assessment is conducted on a watershed level recognizing that all parts of a watershed function as a whole and that alteration or loss of one watershed process can affect many other processes in the watershed.

1.1.1 The Decision Making Framework

The main product of the OWEB watershed assessment is a set of wall size maps (housed by the watershed council) to be used as a decision-making framework for selecting appropriate sites for on-the-ground restoration. The maps are organized so that they can be directly related to the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) 1:24,000 quad sheets. Included on the maps are outlines of the quad sheet boundaries, and township section, and range lines. These maps allow the information to be compiled by section (Public Land Survey System) and located. By compiling stream information by section, information can be used to make intelligent, science-based decisions on where restoration will be most successful. All sites selected from the maps for restoration should be field checked before restoration or protection. Wall size maps provided to the

watershed councils include anadromous fish distribution, channel habitat type, riparian conditions, and possible fish barrier locations. Additional data are provided in a digital format to the watershed councils. This document supplements and expands on the information contained in the maps. The maps in this document are intended to provide summary visual representation of the data used in this assessment. They are not meant to provide site-specific information. The wall size maps and digital data should be used for identification of on-the-ground restoration opportunities.

1.1.2 Geographic Information Systems (GIS) Data Used in this Assessment

Geographic Information Systems (GIS) are widely used to store and analyze environmental data for the purposes of evaluating watershed condition and guiding appropriate restoration activities. GIS data are only as accurate as their scale and source data. GIS data must be critically reviewed to assure an accurate representation of on-the-ground conditions in a watershed. Key GIS data sets were evaluated for confidence in positional accuracy and in representing actual watershed conditions.

Major GIS data that were used in the development of this assessment are listed in Table 1.1. Following is a description of each of the data layers used in developing this watershed assessment.

Streams (1:24,000): Stream coverages were obtained from the State Service Center for GIS (SSCGIS) and are a part of the Baseline 97 data set. Streams were digitized from the 1:24,000 USGS quads. A visual check of the stream coverage demonstrated that they match the USGS quadrangles, although the positions of the streams were often different from the streams on the aerial photos.

Channel Habitat Types (1:24,000): The 1:24,000 stream coverage was attributed with gradient, side slope constraint, and order, and classified into channel habitat type classes according to the protocol outlined in the OWEB manual (WPN 1999).

Land Use (1:24,000): The land use map was created using three coverages/zoning from CREST (1:24,000), ownership (1:24,000), and a 1992 LANDSAT image obtained from CREST and C-CAP. The three coverages were combined and land use was delineated based on these three attributes. For example, if the LANDSAT image classified the land as bare, and zoning was Exclusive Farm Use, then this polygon was attributed as agriculture. Additionally, if the LANDSAT image classified the

| Table 1.1 Primary GIS data used in developing this watershed assessment. | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------------------|--|
| Coverage | Scale | Source | Notes |
| Streams | 1:24,000 | SSCGIS | |
| Channel Habitat Types | 1:24,000 | E&S | Streams attributed by E&S |
| Land use | 1:24,000 | E&S; CREST; C-CAP; SSCGIS | Created by E&S by combining data |
| Vegetation | 30 meter | OSU-Extension | CLAMS 1995 LANDSAT |
| Aerial Photos | 1 meter | Clatsop County Planning Office | MAY, JUNE, JULY 1994 natural color |
| Watershed Boundaries | 1:24,000 | SSCGIS | Created for the councils by SSCGIS |
| Roads | 1:100,000 | ODF | Updated DLG; Ad Hoc |
| Digital Elevation Models | 10 meter | SSCGIS | |
| Riparian Vegetation | 1:24,000 | E&S | Attributed 1:24,000 streams from aerial photo interpretation |
| Riparian Shade | 1:24,000 | E&S | Attributed 1:24,000 streams from aerial photo interpretation |
| Salmonid Distribution | 1:100,000 | ODFW | Field Biologists |
| ODFW Habitat Surveys | 1:100,000 | ODFW | Attributed 1:100,000 streams from field surveys |
| Hatcheries, release sites, fish counts | 1:250,000 | BPA | Currently being corrected |
| Dikes | 1:24,000 | ACOE | Consistent with USGS quads |
| Debris Flow Potential | | DOGAMI | |
| Points of Diversion | 1:24,000 | OWRD | Currently being updated |

land as developed and the zoning was in the urban growth boundary, this polygon was attributed as developed. The forest lands were delineated by ownership, and categorized as Private Industrial Forest, Private Non-Industrial Forest, State Forest, or Miscellaneous Forest (for those areas where ownership was not specifically identified). All areas characterized as wetlands by the LANDSAT scene were maintained in the coverage.

Zoning: There is no metadata (data describing the coverage) associated with these data. This coverage was provided by CREST and is believed to be the most up to date zoning information for Clatsop County at the time of this assessment. The coverage is currently being updated.

Ownership Ownership was characterized by Oregon State University using the 1991 Atterbury Ownership maps. This coverage does not include land sales since 1991. It is our assumption that all land sales in the North Coast watersheds have been sales that kept the land in the same category. For example, the sale of Cavenham lands to Willamette Industries kept the land in the Industrial Forest category.

C-CAP LANDSAT image: These data consist of one LANDSAT Thematic Mapper scene which was analyzed according to the Coastal Change Analysis Program (C-CAP) protocol to determine land cover. C-CAP inventories coastal submersed habitats, wetland habitats, and adjacent uplands through analysis of satellite imagery (primarily LANDSAT Thematic Mapper), aerial photography, and field data. These are interpreted, categorized, and integrated with other spatial data in a geographic information system. Details on the creation of these coverages can be found in the metadata provided to the watershed council.

Vegetation: The vegetation characterization was completed using a 1995 LANDSAT image from the Coastal Landscape Analysis and Modeling Study (CLAMS) being conducted jointly by the OSU Extension office and the Pacific Northwest Research Station. The LANDSAT scene was characterized into broadleaf, mixed, and conifer-dominated stands, which were further delineated into four categories based on conifer size (small, medium, large and very large).

Aerial Photos: Aerial photos were obtained from the Clatsop County Planning Office and were taken in May, June, and July of 1994 by Spenser Gross. Aerial photos were natural color, digital ortho photos with a 1 m pixel size.

Watershed Boundaries (1:24,000): Watershed boundaries were digitized and corrected by the SSCGIS, according to the watershed council's input. Sixth field subwatersheds were delineated using the Water Resources Department's Water Availability Basins as a base.

Roads (1:100,000): Roads data were obtained from the Oregon Department of Forestry (ODF). ODF maintains fire road information for the entire state of Oregon. These road coverages were developed using the USGS digital line graphs (DLG) as a base and then updated on an ad-hoc basis determined by data availability. The extent of updates that have been included in the roads coverage in these watersheds is unclear. However, a visual check of the data with the aerial photos demonstrated that the data were fairly thorough. A more detailed evaluation is needed to evaluate how well this data set represents 'real-world' values.

Digital Elevation Models (DEMs; 10 m): The 10-m resolution DEMs were obtained from the SSCGIS. Ten meter resolution refers to the cell size attributed with elevation data. Cell sizes in this coverage are 10 m by 10 m, or approximately 1,000 sq. ft. DEMs were mosaiced and sinks were filled.

Riparian Vegetation and Shade: The 1:24,000 stream coverage was attributed from aerial photo interpretation (see Aerial Photos section above). Attributes include vegetation class and shade. Metadata have been provided with the digital data.

Salmonid Distribution (1:100,000): Salmonid distribution coverages were obtained from the Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife (ODFW). ODFW mapped current salmonid distribution by attributing 1:100,000 stream coverages based on survey data and best professional judgment of local fish biologists. Distributions identified spawning, rearing and migration areas. These coverages are dynamic data sets that are scheduled to be updated every two years. These data are available on ODFW's website (<http://www.dfw.state.or.us>).

ODFW Fish Habitat Surveys (1:100,000): Field surveys of stream channel conditions by ODFW were attributed onto 1:100,000 scale stream layers. Two layers exist, including habitat units and reach level data. Reach level data generalize habitat unit

data to give an overview of current habitat conditions. Reach level data can be used as a reference point for later comparative work or for the analysis of overall stream conditions. Habitat data are all of the unit data for the entire survey and are a representation of the condition of the stream at the time of survey. These data change annually since streams are dynamic systems.

Hatcheries, Release Sites, Fish Count Sites (1:250,000): Salmonid release, count, and hatcheries data were obtained from the Bonneville Power Administration on a 1:250,000 scale. Although the on-the-ground locations are not exact on our base map, they provide a general representation of the areas where fish were released or surveys were conducted.

National Wetlands Inventory (1:24,000): The primary source for wetland information used in this assessment was National Wetlands Inventory (NWI) maps created by the United States Fish and Wildlife Service. Very few of the NWI quads were digitized for the Youngs Bay or Nicolai-Wickiup watersheds, so information was generally derived from hard copy NWI maps. Digital data were used for the Skipanon watershed. NWI maps were created from interpretation of 1:58,000 scale aerial photos that were taken in August of 1981 and were generated as an overlay for USGS quadrangles. It is important to note that NWI wetland maps are based on aerial photo interpretation and not on ground-based inventories of wetlands. On-the-ground inventories of wetlands often find extensive wetlands that are not included on the NWI maps.

Dikes (1:24,000): The dikes coverage was created by the Army Corps of Engineers (ACOE) and came from an ACOE study on lower Columbia River flood control. Data were compared to dikes on the USGS quadrangles and found to be consistent.

Debris Flow Potential: The ODF created debris flow hazard maps based on underlying bedrock geology, slope steepness, historical landslide information, and stream channel confinement where applicable. Slope data were generated from 1:24,000 DEMs. These maps were created to show areas where on-the-ground investigation is prudent before conducting land management and development activities. Further information was provided with the digital data.

Points of Diversion (1:24,000): Points of diversion were mapped by the Oregon Water Resources Department (OWRD) by digitizing individual water rights into a

township coverage. Only permitted and certificated rights were digitized. All water rights should be up-to-date and maintained by OWRD. Links from points of diversion to actual water rights were found to be missing in this assessment, probably due to the database needing to be updated (Bob Harmon pers. comm.).

1.1.3 Data Confidence

GIS data vary in how well they represent actual on-the-ground conditions. Several of the data sets used to develop this assessment need to be evaluated and compared to on-the-ground conditions before restoration or final conclusions are made about ecosystem processes. Data sets in need of further evaluation have been listed in the Recommendations section of this document. A few of these will be discussed here because they have characteristics that must be kept in mind while reading this document.

Land Use and Wetlands

The land use was refined from a LANDSAT scene, zoning, NWI and ownership (see section 1.8), which have all been field verified. NWI data were not available digitally for the entire area and so were used only in the areas of digital coverage. Other wetland data were derived from the LANDSAT scene. NWI data are much more accurate because they are derived from aerial photo interpretation. Consequently, some areas that have been classified as wetlands are really agricultural fields. As NWI data becomes more readily available in digital format, the land use coverage should be updated. All land use categories should be field verified before restoration actions begin. We believe that this land use coverage is a fair representation of land use in the watershed for the scale of this assessment. It is most likely an under representation of wetland areas.

Roads

The roads coverage is a key coverage used to evaluate potential sediment sources and changes in watershed hydrology associated with road construction. However, it is not clear that road coverage accurately represents on-the-ground conditions in this watershed. The road coverage was developed from the 1:100,000 USGS digital line graphs. These coverages were then updated on an ad-hoc basis from aerial photos and other sources of information that became available. A visual comparison of the data to aerial photos found the roads coverage to be fairly

thorough. Although this coverage represents the best available data for roads, the data are suspect. A study needs to be developed to determine the accuracy of the roads data.

Channel Habitat Types

Channel habitat types were determined using GIS. Field verification found that these data accurately represent actual on-the-ground conditions (through visual comparison). However, the channel habitat type should be further verified in the field before any restoration actions begin.

Riparian Vegetation and Shade

Riparian conditions need to be further evaluated and ground truthed before restoration actions occur. A visual comparison of field checks to the aerial photo interpretations found the data to be fairly consistent. After site selection using the GIS data, the stream reach identified should be field checked for actual on-the-ground conditions. A more rigorous analysis of the GIS data could also be performed (field data have been provided to the watershed council).

Overall, the confidence in the GIS data is moderate. Field data are always a better choice; however, it is expensive, time intensive and often unfeasible for very large areas. Time can be saved by using the GIS data to select potential sites for restoration. Field verification can then define the exact conditions present. Used in this way the GIS data can provide an efficient decision-making framework to guide restoration activities.

1.2 Setting

The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is a fifth field watershed located in the northwest corner of Clatsop County (Figure 1.1). The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed consists of three major creeks that flow directly into the Columbia Estuary including Bear Creek, Big Creek, and Gnat Creek (Figure 1.2). The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed drains approximately 114 sq. mi. The majority of the Bear Creek subwatershed is owned by the city of Astoria and acts as the primary source of municipal water. The primary economic land use in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is timber harvest with some agriculture in the lowlands.

Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed

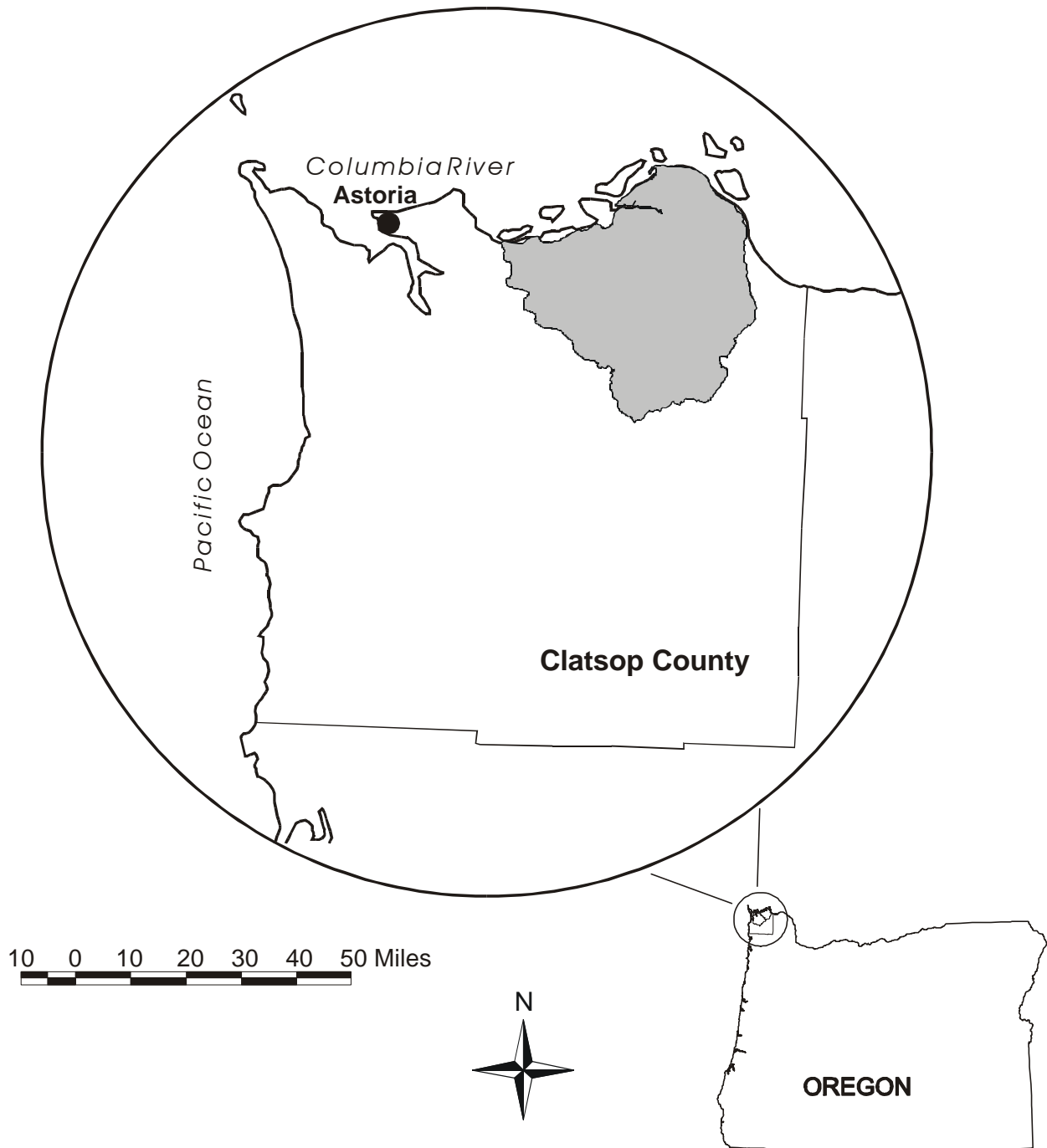


Figure 1.1. Physical location of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

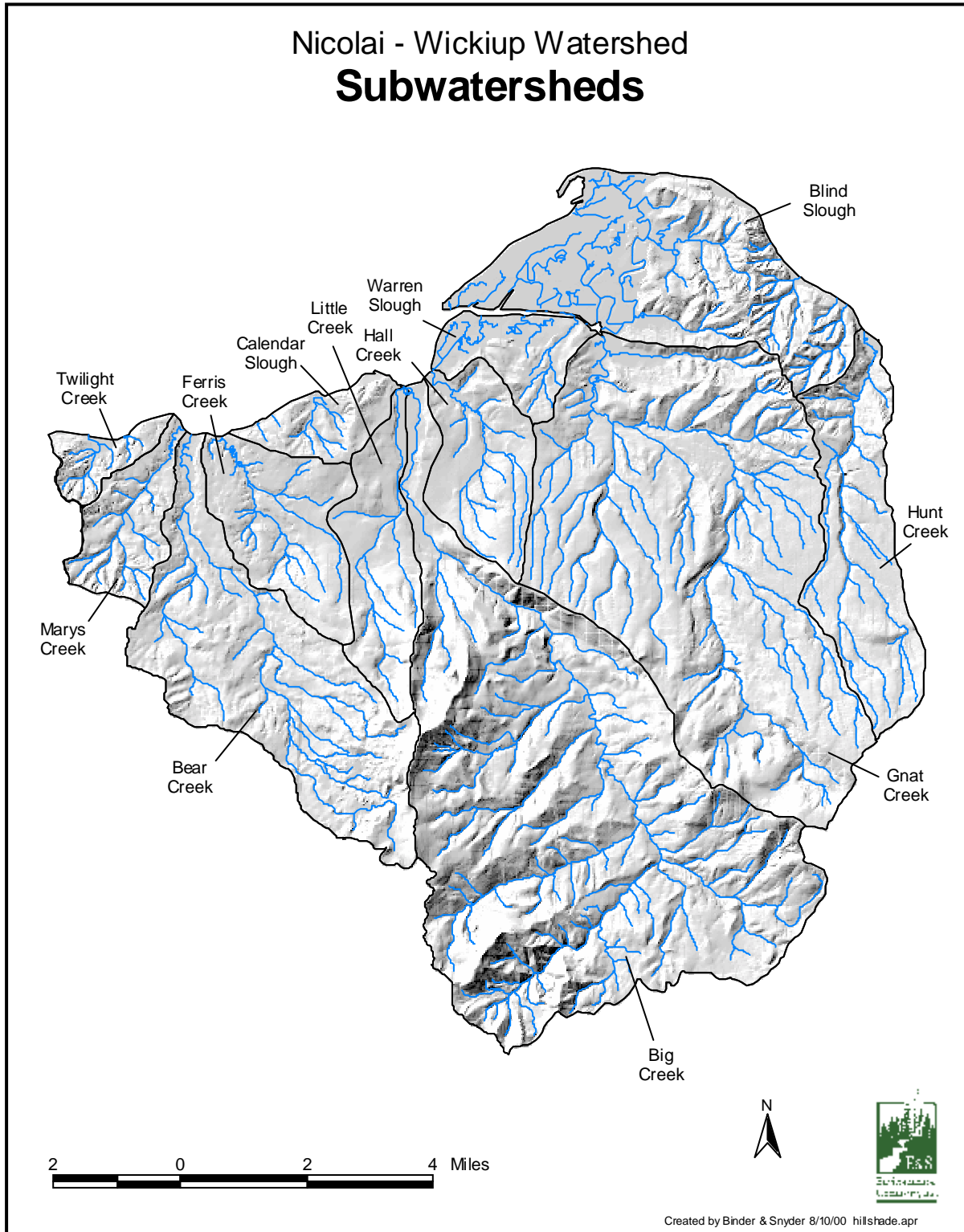


Figure 1.2. Subwatersheds of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed illustrating topography based on a 10 m Digital Elevation Model (DEM).

1.3 Ecoregions

The State of Oregon was divided into ecoregions based on climate, geology, physiography, vegetation, land use, wildlife and hydrology. Each of these ecoregions has characteristic patterns of climate, geology, topography, and natural vegetation that shape and form the function of the watersheds. Dividing the state and the watersheds into different ecoregions permits regional characteristics to be applied to that region. The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is located across two ecoregions (Omernik 1987), the Coastal Uplands and the Willapa Hills.

The Coastal Upland ecoregion extends along the Oregon and Washington coast and is typically associated with the upland areas that drain into the Coastal Lowland ecoregion. The Coastal Upland ecoregion is characterized by coastal upland and headland terraces, with medium to high gradient streams. Elevations run from 0 to 500 ft and the watershed receives from 70 to 125 in of precipitation. Potential natural vegetation includes Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*), western hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*), western red cedar (*Thuja plicata*), Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), grand fir (*Abies grandis*) and red alder (*Alnus rubra*; Franklin and Dyrness 1973).

The Willapa Hills ecoregion extends from the southern portion of Clatsop County, north to the southern extent of Puget Sound. The Willapa Hills ecoregion is characterized by low rolling hills and mountains with medium gradient streams. Elevations range from 0 to 3,000 ft and the watershed receives 50 to 100 in of precipitation annually. Potential natural vegetation includes Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*), western hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*), western red cedar (*Thuja plicata*), Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), grand fir (*Abies grandis*) and red alder (*Alnus rubra*; Franklin and Dyrness 1973).

1.4 Population

Population in the Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed is concentrated in the lower elevations of the watershed and is mostly associated with the rural development (Figure 1.3). Population growth in this region, especially in the city of Astoria, does, however, have a major influence on the natural resources of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. The Bear Creek subwatershed is a municipal watershed that supplies water to the city of Astoria. Consequently, population growth in the city of Astoria can have direct affects on the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Since 1950 the population of Oregon has doubled, and the cities of Astoria and Warrenton are predicted to increase in population at a rate of 1 percent annually (CH2M Hill 1997, 1996). Historically,

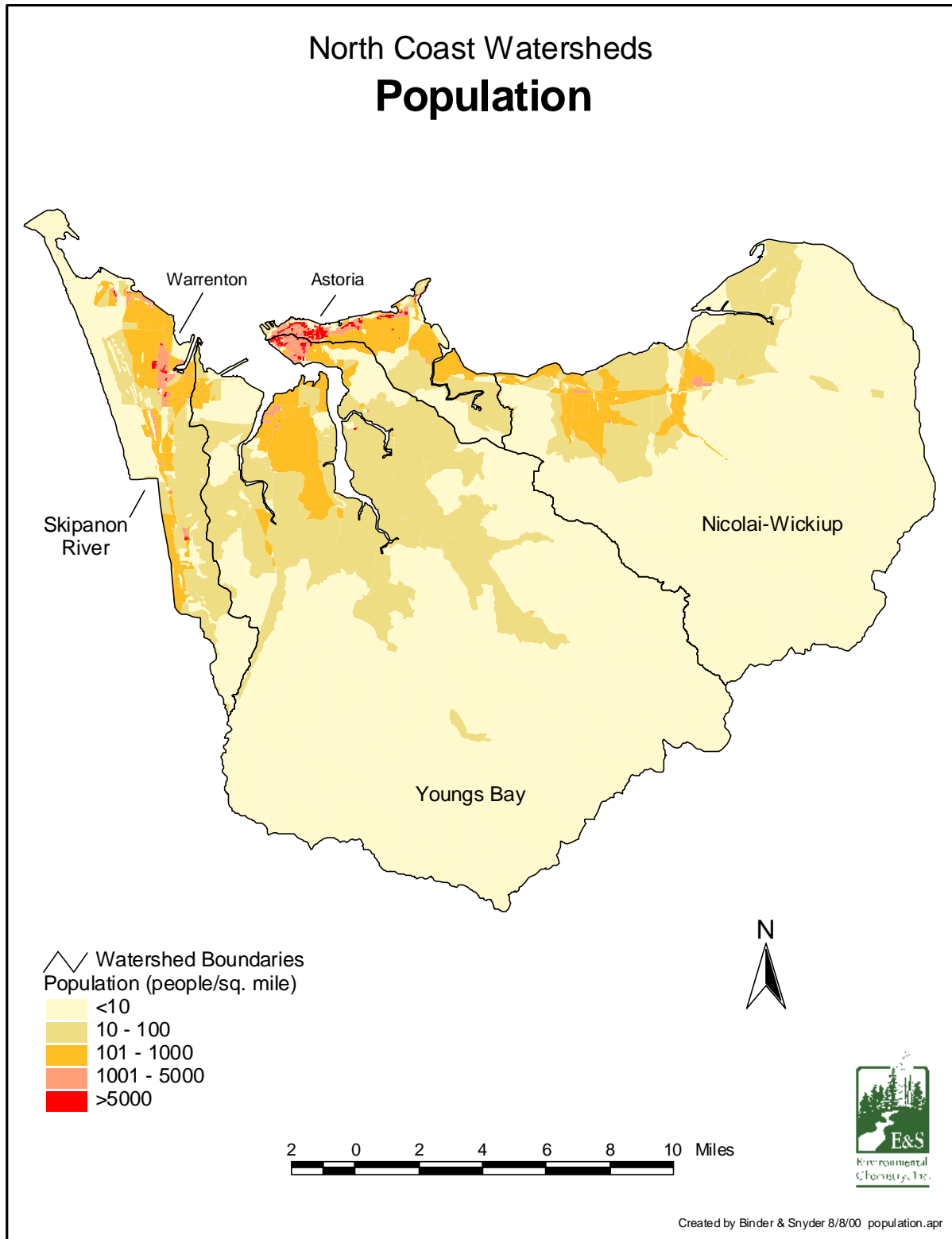


Figure 1.3. Population in the Skipanon, Youngs Bay, and Nicolai-Wickiup watersheds.

population growth in Oregon has been associated with changes in the natural resource industries. However, recent changes in population have been more associated with in-migration due to quality of life concerns. Population growth can be attributed to in-migration and is predicted to continue to increase, leading to increased pressures and demands on natural resources such as water supply and water quality.

1.5 Climate and Topography

The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed experiences a coastal temperate climate strongly influenced by the Pacific Ocean and related weather patterns (Taylor and Hatton 1999). Climate in the Pacific Northwest usually includes an extended winter rainy season followed by a long, dry summer season. In Astoria, air temperatures range between a mean daily minimum of 35° F in January and a mean daily maximum of 70° F in August (OSU-Extension 2000).

Precipitation patterns reflect a strong orographic effect in which precipitation increases with elevation as moist air masses rise over high terrain causing them to cool and drop more precipitation. Mean annual precipitation ranges from 74 inches in the lowlands to 122 inches in the highlands, based on the PRISM model which accounts for these orographic effects (Daly et al. 1994). Snow accumulations are infrequent and transient in the Oregon Coast range. Rainfall is the primary source of precipitation in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

Topography in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is typical of Pacific Northwest Coastal terrain characterized by moderate upland slopes which provide sediment and organic material to the alluvial plain and estuary below. Much of the lowlands were historic floodplains and associated wetlands that were drained and diked for agricultural purposes. Elevations range from sea level at the mouth of the Columbia to 3,010 ft in the headwaters.

1.6 Geology

Geology in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed consists of Quaternary marine and non-marine terrace deposits and alluvium in the lowlands, with Miocene and marine sandstone, siltstone, and shale in the uplands. The coastal mountains are the result of uplifted sea bed deposits intermingled with basalt. Both Wickiup Mountain and the Wickiup Ridge consist of hard, erosion-resistant basalt while the broader areas of the watershed are underlain by thick sandstone and other sedimentary rocks (OSU Extension 2000, Orr et al. 1992).

1.7 Vegetation

Vegetation cover in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed was characterized using the 1995 CLAMS data. CLAMS characterized vegetation by classifying satellite imagery into 15 categories (Table 1.2). The satellite data were acquired in 1988 and updated in 1995. It is important to note that only pixels that had greater than 70 percent cover were characterized as forest types. For example, a pixel that has less than 70 percent cover is characterized as either open or semi-open. If the pixel demonstrates a greater than 70 percent cover, it is further characterized into one of categories 6 through 14. Garano and Brophy (1999) summarized CLAMS data for the Rock Creek watershed by combining these categories to describe the spatial patterns of conifers and open areas. We have used this same approach for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

| Table 1.2. Twelve categories of land cover present in the 1995 CLAMS data set. Categories 0=background, 2=water, and 5=cloud are not shown (Garano and Brophy 1999). DBH is diameter at breast height. | | |
|--|----------------------------|--|
| Class | Cover type | Description |
| 1 | Shadow | Background (portions of the data file that do not contain image information) |
| 3 | Open | Open (0-40% vegetation cover) |
| 4 | Semi-closed | Semi-Closed (41-70% vegetation cover) |
| 6 | Broadleaf | Broadleaf (>70% broadleaf cover) |
| 7 | Mixed, small conifers | Mixed broadleaf/conifer: <70% broadleaf cover; small conifers (# 1 ft [25 cm] DBH) |
| 8 | Mixed, medium conifers | Mixed: <70% broadleaf cover; medium conifers (1-2 ft [26-50 cm] DBH) |
| 9 | Mixed, large conifers | Mixed: <70% broadleaf cover; large conifers (2-3 ft [51-75 cm] DBH) |
| 10 | Mixed, very large conifers | Mixed: <70% broadleaf cover; very large conifers (> 3 ft [75 cm] DBH) |
| 11 | Conifer, small | Conifer: >70% conifer cover, conifers small (#1 ft [25 cm] DBH) |
| 12 | Conifer, medium | Conifer: >70% conifer cover, conifers medium (1-2 ft [26-50 cm] DBH) |
| 13 | Conifer, large | Conifer: >70% conifer cover; conifers large (2-3 ft [51-75 cm] DBH) |
| 14 | Conifer, very large | Conifer: >70% conifer cover; conifers very large (>3 ft [75 cm] DBH) |

1.7.1 Large Conifers

Prior to European settlement, Oregon coastal forests were dominated by conifers (Franklin and Dyrness 1988). These forests were changed dramatically by human influences and activities such as forest harvest, which changed both the age structure and species present in these forests (Garono and Brophy 1999). Conifers, especially old growth, play an important role in ecosystem function in Oregon watersheds by providing shade and large woody debris to streams, slope stabilization, and habitat for wildlife (Naiman and Bilby 1998). Consequently, understanding the age and distribution of conifers within a watershed is essential for managing the system to maintain ecosystem function.

Following the methodology provided in Garono and Brophy (1999), we divided large conifer data into two distinct classes: Mixed Forest/Large Conifers (Classes 9+10+13+14) and Large Conifers (Classes 13+14). The Mixed Forest/Large Conifers class contains those areas that include large conifers, but may be dominated by a broadleaf forest while the Large Conifer class is actually dominated by large conifers (>70 percent conifer cover). Mixed Forest/Large Conifers represent 18 percent of the forests in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Figure 1.4; Table 1.3) while broadleaf (16 percent) and small conifer (21 percent) stands constitute fairly equal proportions of the watershed. Less than 4 percent of the watershed is occupied by large conifer dominated stands. The Nicolai-Wickiup has a fairly large area with large conifers in mixed stands with equal proportions in small conifer (21 percent).

1.7.2 Open Areas

Open areas within a watershed can indicate pastureland and meadows as well as recently harvested timberlands. Open areas can have a large influence on hydrology and slope failure (WPN 1999, Naiman and Bilby 1998, Binkley and Brown 1993). These data were collected in 1995 and many of the open areas have most likely been replanted. Consequently, these data represent the conditions as they existed in 1995. Pacific Northwest forest ecosystems are constantly in a state of flux, where open areas are replanted and new open areas created through clearcutting. Approximately 18 percent of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is open area, much of which is agricultural lands at lower elevations in the watershed such as the Brownsmead area (Table 1.3). Most subwatersheds (except for slough subwatersheds which were cleared for agriculture) were less than 20 percent open areas. However, these forested subwatersheds were

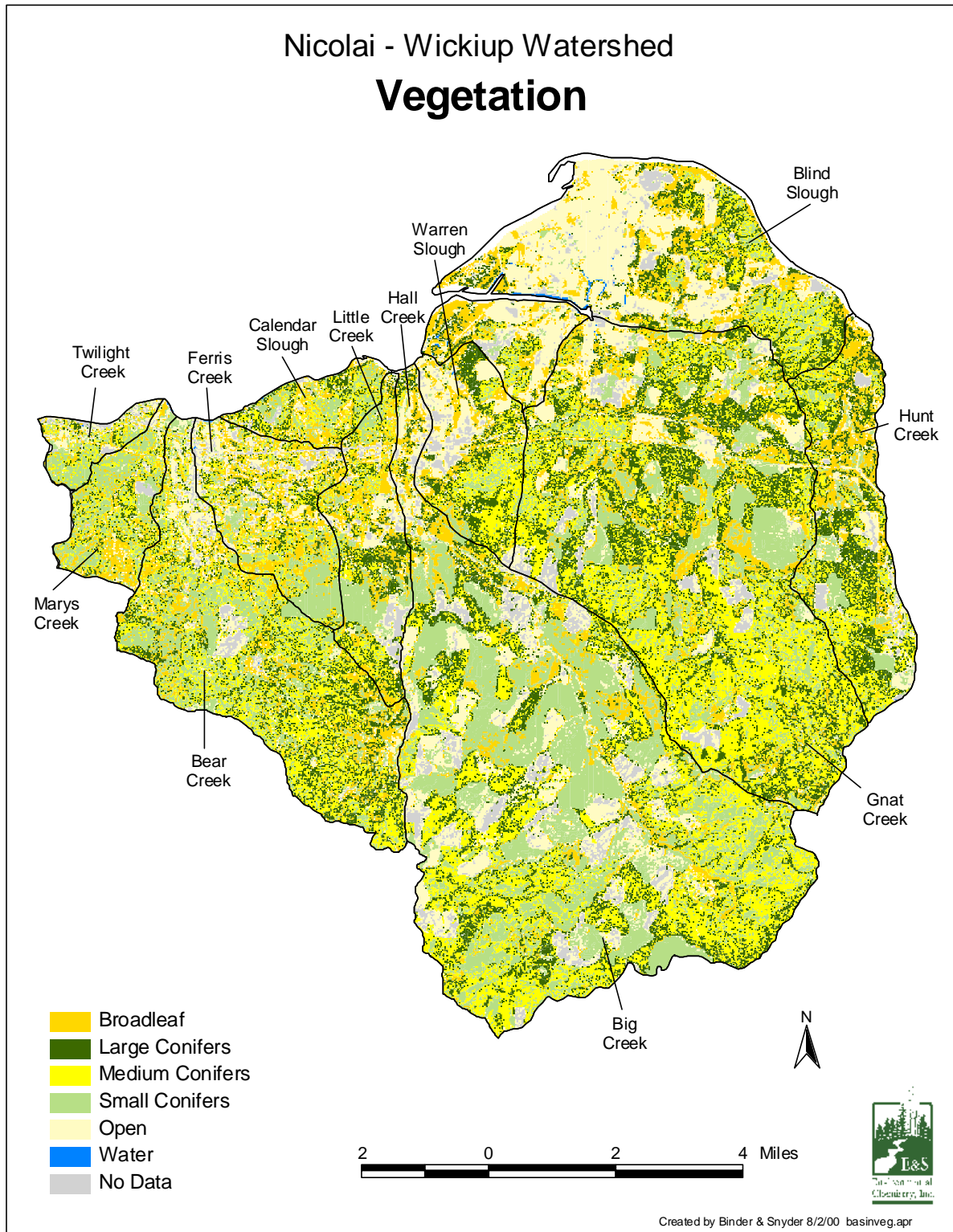


Figure 1.4. Vegetation cover in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Vegetation was characterized by the OSU-Extension using a 1995 LANDSAT scene. Vegetation categories have been aggregated to show the relative distribution of conifers. For example, the medium conifer category includes the mixed medium conifers and the medium conifer categories in Table 1.1.

| Table 1.3. Vegetation cover in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, based on satellite imaging classification from the 1995 CLAMS study (OSU-Extension 1995). | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|-----------|--------------|--------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------|-----------------------|----------------------|--------------|------|---------|--|
| | Total Area | Broadleaf | Lg. conifers | Mixed Lg. conifers | Mixed - Very lg. | Very lg. conifers | Med. conifers | Mixed - Med. conifers | Mixed - Sm. conifers | Sm. conifers | Open | No Data | |
| Subwatershed | sq. mi. | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | |
| Bear Creek | 12 | 16.4 | 1.3 | 15.7 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 10.0 | 16.0 | 15.8 | 11.0 | 10.1 | 2.9 | |
| Big Creek | 33 | 12.1 | 3.9 | 7.0 | 1.8 | 0.2 | 9.8 | 2.4 | 7.6 | 29.1 | 19.6 | 6.5 | |
| Blind Slough | 12 | 16.0 | 1.7 | 10.3 | 2.3 | 0.1 | 5.4 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 1.9 | 41.4 | 4.4 | |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | 23.2 | 2.0 | 14.1 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 3.9 | 15.1 | 21.6 | 5.8 | 9.3 | 3.3 | |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | 13.7 | 0.4 | 6.7 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 11.6 | 32.1 | 4.0 | 17.9 | 8.8 | |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | 27.3 | 0.8 | 9.4 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 1.8 | 11.7 | 12.2 | 11.2 | 18.3 | 6.8 | |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 11.5 | 6.4 | 13.6 | 1.6 | 0.1 | 23.3 | 10.1 | 7.2 | 12.1 | 10.4 | 3.7 | |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | 14.8 | 3.1 | 16.6 | 2.1 | 0.1 | 11.8 | 11.2 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 24.8 | 7.0 | |
| Hunt Creek | 7.0 | 18.7 | 9.2 | 16.8 | 3.0 | 0.1 | 12.3 | 10.9 | 5.1 | 8.3 | 11.3 | 3.9 | |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 22.6 | 2.5 | 15.6 | 2.1 | 0.0 | 4.0 | 10.3 | 8.7 | 11.7 | 15.1 | 7.4 | |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 23.6 | 0.3 | 9.4 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 14.5 | 36.3 | 4.2 | 6.9 | 2.6 | |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | 26.7 | 0.7 | 7.9 | 3.4 | 0.2 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 40.2 | 5.8 | |
| Total | 114 | 15.9 | 3.8 | 12.2 | 1.6 | 0.1 | 12.0 | 9.4 | 9.5 | 11.9 | 17.8 | 4.8 | |

Semi-closed and water categories are not included in this table.

dominated by mixed small conifer and small conifer stands ranging from 5 percent to 42 percent of the total subwatershed area.

1.8 Land Use

Watershed processes are often affected by land management practices which increase watershed disturbance. For example, management of forest land for timber harvest can influence watershed hydrology by increasing road densities and clearing vegetation (WPN 1999, Naiman and Bilby 1998). Wetlands are often drained for agriculture because of their rich organic soils,

resulting in habitat loss and the disconnection of floodplains from the rivers. By understanding the human influences and activities and their associated economic values, land managers and local stakeholders can better evaluate the effects on their watersheds and how to mitigate those impacts to maintain natural ecosystem processes.

The land use map was created using three coverages: Clatsop County zoning from CREST, forest land ownership, and a 1992 LANDSAT image obtained from CREST and C-CAP. The three coverages were combined and land use was delineated based on the zoning class, forest owner, and the land cover class. For example, if the LANDSAT image classified the land as bare, and zoning was Exclusive Farm Use, then this polygon was attributed as agriculture. Additionally, if the LANDSAT image classified the land as developed and the zoning was in the urban growth boundary, this polygon was attributed as developed. The forest lands were delineated by ownership, and categorized as Private Industrial Forest, Private Non-Industrial Forest, State Forest, or Miscellaneous Forest (for those areas where ownership was not specifically identified). All areas characterized as wetlands by the LANDSAT scene were maintained in the coverage and verified using the National Wetlands Inventory (NWI) data where available. It is likely that many of the areas characterized as wetlands are actually farmed land. These wetlands are categorized by the NWI as farmed wetlands based on aerial photo interpretation. Since we have retained NWI and satellite-identified wetlands over all other categories (such as zoning or ownership), many agricultural areas are actually categorized as wetlands. Metadata for the LANDSAT image and the ownership coverage have been included with this assessment. There are no metadata provided with the zoning coverage.

As in most coastal Oregon watersheds, the dominant land use in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is industrial forest, accounting for 48 percent of the watershed's total area (Table 1.4; Figure 1.5). Additionally, 27 percent of the watershed is occupied by the Clatsop State Forest. The lowland areas of the watershed have some agriculture in the floodplains and development. Watershed processes in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed today are most likely affected by changes in forest management, increased development to accommodate population growth, and floodplain and wetland loss. Specific habitat and water quality related effects typically associated with land use activities are listed in Table 1.5.

Table 1.4 Land use in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed calculated from the refined land use coverage.

| | Grand Total | Agriculture | Developed | Estuarine Wetland | Grassland | Industrial Forest | Non-Industrial Forest | Palustrine Wetland | Shoreline | State Forest | Unknown Forest | Water |
|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------|----------------|-------|
| | mi ² | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Subwatershed | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bear Creek | 12.4 | 0.15 | 0.40 | 0.01 | 1.74 | 39.58 | 57.01 | 0.66 | - | - | - | 0.45 |
| Big Creek | 33.2 | 0.39 | 0.16 | - | 0.39 | 85.63 | 2.72 | 0.36 | - | 10.35 | - | 0.00 |
| Blind Slough | 11.7 | 26.89 | 0.11 | 0.47 | 0.26 | 2.99 | 20.01 | 9.72 | - | 38.34 | 0.25 | 0.97 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | 1.41 | 0.21 | 0.47 | 0.37 | - | 62.70 | 3.46 | - | 30.64 | - | 0.73 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | 0.21 | 5.39 | 2.81 | 1.11 | 35.24 | 42.31 | 2.73 | - | 9.39 | 0.13 | 0.68 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | 2.01 | 3.39 | 0.08 | 11.98 | 27.79 | 53.16 | 1.45 | - | 0.10 | 0.04 | - |
| Gnat Creek | 27.2 | 0.44 | 0.14 | - | 0.14 | 32.76 | 2.41 | 0.74 | - | 63.18 | 0.13 | 0.06 |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | 4.57 | 2.43 | - | 6.25 | 37.56 | 36.56 | 1.77 | 0.89 | 9.89 | - | 0.07 |
| Hunt Cr. | 7.0 | - | 0.33 | 0.01 | 0.10 | 48.81 | 5.24 | 0.79 | - | 43.81 | 0.92 | - |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 3.59 | 0.75 | - | 4.70 | 47.24 | 41.58 | 2.13 | - | 0.00 | - | 0.00 |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 0.09 | 0.57 | 0.07 | 0.52 | 91.25 | 4.28 | 3.22 | - | - | - | - |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | 7.96 | 0.12 | - | 2.51 | - | 28.28 | 15.46 | 0.00 | 44.35 | - | 1.32 |
| Total | 114.4 | 3.58 | 0.52 | 0.10 | 1.40 | 47.53 | 17.69 | 2.13 | 0.03 | 26.67 | 0.12 | 0.22 |

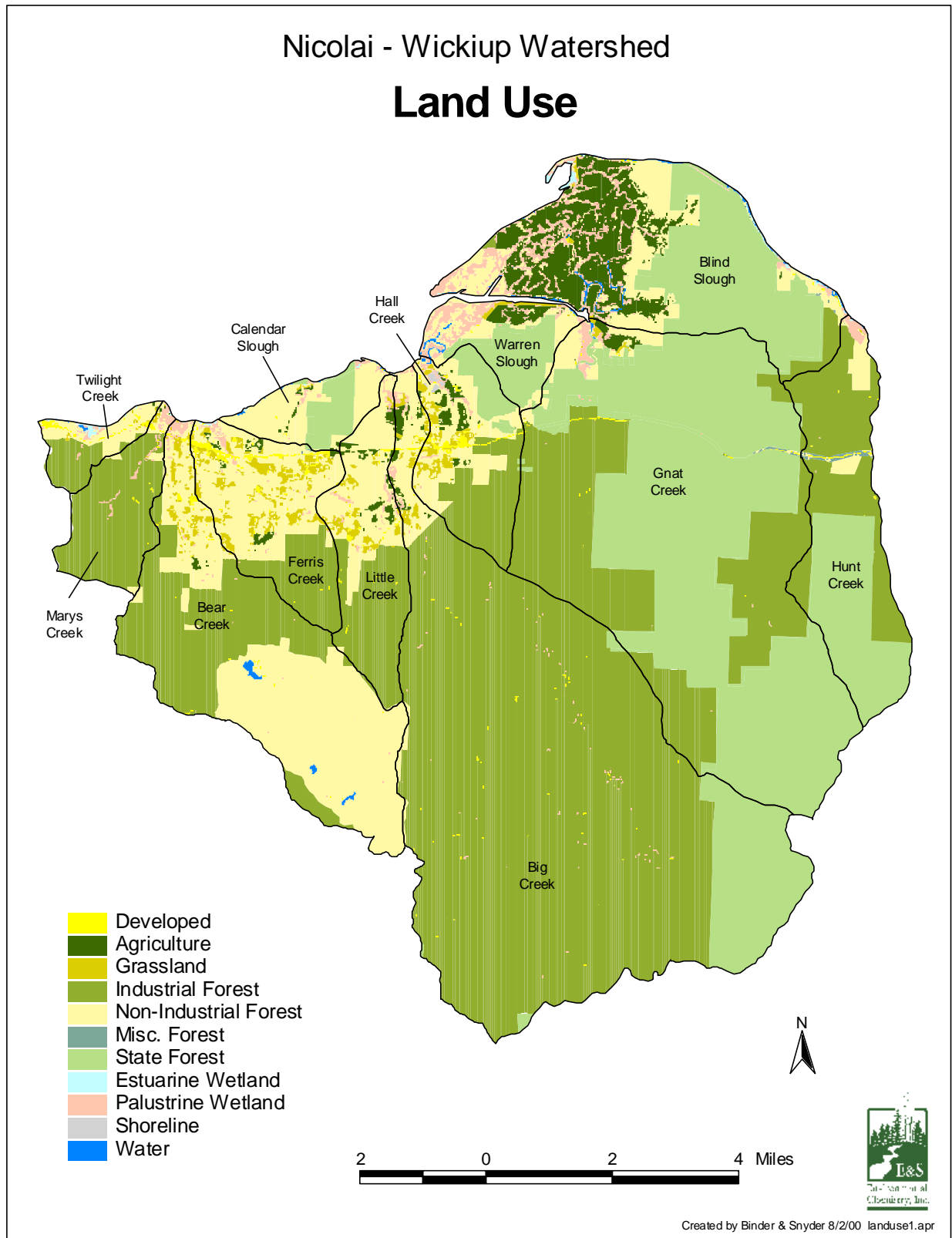


Figure 1.5. Land use in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data displayed are from the refined land use coverage.

| Table 1.5. Typical watershed issues organized by major land use activity (WPN 1999) | | |
|---|---|--|
| Land Use Category | Habitat-Related Effects | Water Quality Effects |
| Forestry | Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Large wood abundance Shade and canopy Substrate quality Flow alteration Passage barriers | Temperature Turbidity Fine sediments Pesticides and herbicides |
| Crop-land grazing | Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Large wood abundance Shade and canopy Substrate quality Flow alteration | Temperature Dissolved oxygen Turbidity Fine sediments Suspended sediments Nutrients, bacteria Pesticides and herbicides |
| Feedlots and dairies | Channel modification | Suspended sediments Nutrients Bacteria Pesticides and herbicides |
| Urban areas | Flow alteration Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Large wood abundance Shade and canopy Substrate quality Passage barriers | Temperature Dissolved oxygen Turbidity Suspended sediments Fine sediments Nutrients Organic and inorganic toxics Bacteria |
| Mining | Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Substrate quality | Turbidity Suspended sediments Fine sediments Nutrients Organic and inorganic toxics |
| Dams and irrigation works | Flow alteration Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Substrate quality Passage barriers | Temperature Dissolved oxygen Fine sediments |
| Road networks | Flow alteration Channel modification Pool quantity and quality Substrate quality Passage barriers | Turbidity Suspended sediments Fine sediments |

1.9 Channel Habitat Types

Stream channel geomorphology is the result of the complex interaction of ecosystem conditions and processes including geology, climate, terrain, disturbance and biological factors. Stream channels can be categorized and grouped based on their geomorphologic characteristics. Differences in geomorphology produce different responses to similar watershed processes such as changes in discharge or sediment loading (Naiman and Bilby 1998). Stream channels with similar geomorphology will have a similar response to changes in land use and ecosystem structure. Classifying stream channels by geomorphology allows us to predict channel response to changes in watershed condition.

Stream channels were separated into channel habitat type (CHT) categories using the OWEB protocol. Categories were based on stream geomorphic structure including stream size, gradient, and side-slope constraint (Table 1.6). By identifying current channel forms in the watershed, we can understand how land use activities may have affected the channel form as well as identify how different channels may respond to particular restoration efforts. Ultimately, changes in watershed processes will affect channel form and produce changes in fish habitat.

Channel response to changes in ecosystem processes is strongly influenced by channel confinement and gradient (Naiman and Bilby 1998). For example, unconfined channels possess floodplains that mitigate peak flow effects and allow channel migration. In contrast, confined channels translate high flows into higher velocities with greater basal shear stress. Ultimately, these characteristics control stream conditions such as bedload material, sediment transport, and fish habitat quality. Generally, more confined, higher gradient streams demonstrate little response to watershed disturbances and restoration efforts (Figure 1.6). By grouping the channels into geomorphologic types, we can determine which channels are most responsive to disturbances in the watershed as well as those channels most likely to respond to restoration activities.

Channel habitat types with high sensitivities typically are low gradient streams with extensive floodplains. Approximately 25 percent of the channels in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed demonstrate a high sensitivity to both watershed disturbance and restoration activities and occur in the lower elevations of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Table 1.7; Figure 1.7). Those channel habitat types with moderate sensitivity generally have small floodplains with moderate gradients. Channels with moderate sensitivity to watershed disturbance account for 40 percent of the stream channels, with the majority of these channels exhibiting a moderately steep

| Code | CHT Name | Channel Gradient | Channel Confinement | Channel Size |
|------|---------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| ES | Small Estuary | <1% | Unconfined to moderately confined | Small to medium |
| EL | Large Estuary | <1% | Unconfined to moderately confined | Large |
| FP1 | Low Gradient Large Floodplain | <1% | Unconfined | Large |
| FP2 | Low Gradient Medium Floodplain | <2% | Unconfined | Medium to large |
| FP3 | Low Gradient Small Floodplain | <2% | Unconfined | Small to medium |
| AF | Alluvial Fan | 1-5% | Variable | Small to medium |
| LM | Low Gradient Moderately Confined | <2% | Moderately confined | Variable |
| LC | Low Gradient Confined | <2% | Confined | Variable |
| MM | Moderate Gradient Moderately Confined | 2-4% | Moderately confined | Variable |
| MC | Moderate Gradient Confined | 2-4% | Confined | Variable |
| MH | Moderate Gradient Headwater | 1-6% | Confined | Small |
| MV | Moderately Steep Narrow Valley | 3-10% | Confined | Small to medium |
| BC | Bedrock Canyon | 1 - >20% | Confined | Variable |
| SV | Steep Narrow Valley | 8-16% | Confined | Small |
| VH | Very Steep Headwater | >16% | Confined | Small |

narrow valley channel form (MV; 30 percent). Channel geomorphologies in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed suggest that most streams demonstrate a high sensitivity to watershed disturbance and restoration activities and occur in the lower and mid elevations of the watershed.

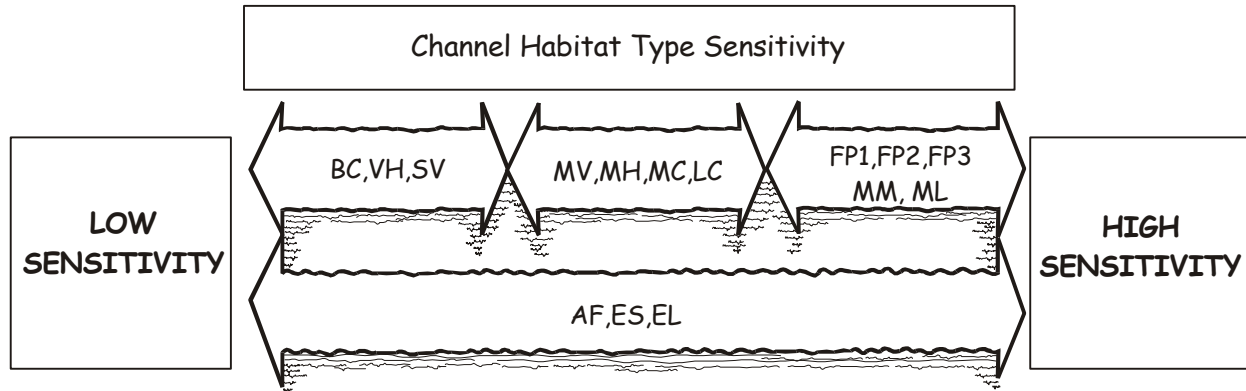


Figure 1.6. Different channel types respond differently to adjustment in channel pattern, location, width, depth, sediment storage, and bed roughness. Such changes may not only result in alteration of aquatic habitat, but the more responsive areas are most likely to exhibit physical changes from land management activities and restoration efforts. (WPN 1999)

Table 1.7. Channel habitat types in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Channel habitat types are grouped by their sensitivity to watershed disturbance.

| | | PERCENT CHANNEL HABITAT TYPE | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|------------------------------|------|------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|
| Channel Sensitivity | | Low | | | Moderate | | | | | | High | | | | |
| Subwatershed | Stream Length | % BC | % SV | % VH | % EL | % ES | % LC | % MC | % MH | % MV | % FP1 | % FP2 | % FP3 | % LM | % MM |
| Bear Creek | 33 | - | 20 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 53 | - | 4.5 | 1.5 | - | 21 |
| Big Creek | 91 | - | 27 | 21 | - | - | 2.6 | 10 | 2.3 | 28 | - | 7.1 | 0.5 | - | 1.3 |
| Blind Slough | 46 | - | 27 | 5.9 | 0.9 | - | - | 3.4 | - | 2.0 | 54 | - | 1.9 | 0.8 | 3.6 |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | - | 25 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 35 | - | - | - | - | 40 |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | - | 11 | - | - | 8.5 | - | - | - | 16 | - | - | - | - | 64 |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | - | 32 | 1.4 | - | - | - | - | - | 43 | - | 14 | - | 7.9 | 1.9 |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | - | 32 | 3.1 | - | - | 1.0 | 3.5 | 8.9 | 39 | 5.0 | 3.2 | - | - | 4.5 |
| Hall Creek | 14 | - | 34 | 4.4 | - | - | - | 6.6 | - | 32 | 0.1 | 7.8 | 4.0 | - | 12 |
| Hunt Cr. | 24 | 11 | 27 | - | - | 2.2 | 1.7 | - | 20 | 32 | - | 0.9 | - | 2.6 | 2.0 |
| Little Creek | 11 | - | 29 | 18 | - | - | - | - | - | 21 | - | 18 | - | 5.6 | 8.0 |
| Marys Creek | 10 | - | 7.8 | 2.5 | - | - | - | - | - | 44 | - | 15 | - | - | 31 |
| Warren Slough | 10 | - | - | - | 0.1 | - | - | - | 1.5 | 14 | 40 | 12 | 8.6 | 7.1 | 17 |
| Total | 345 | 0.7 | 26.5 | 7.9 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 30.3 | 9.6 | 5.4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 7.6 |

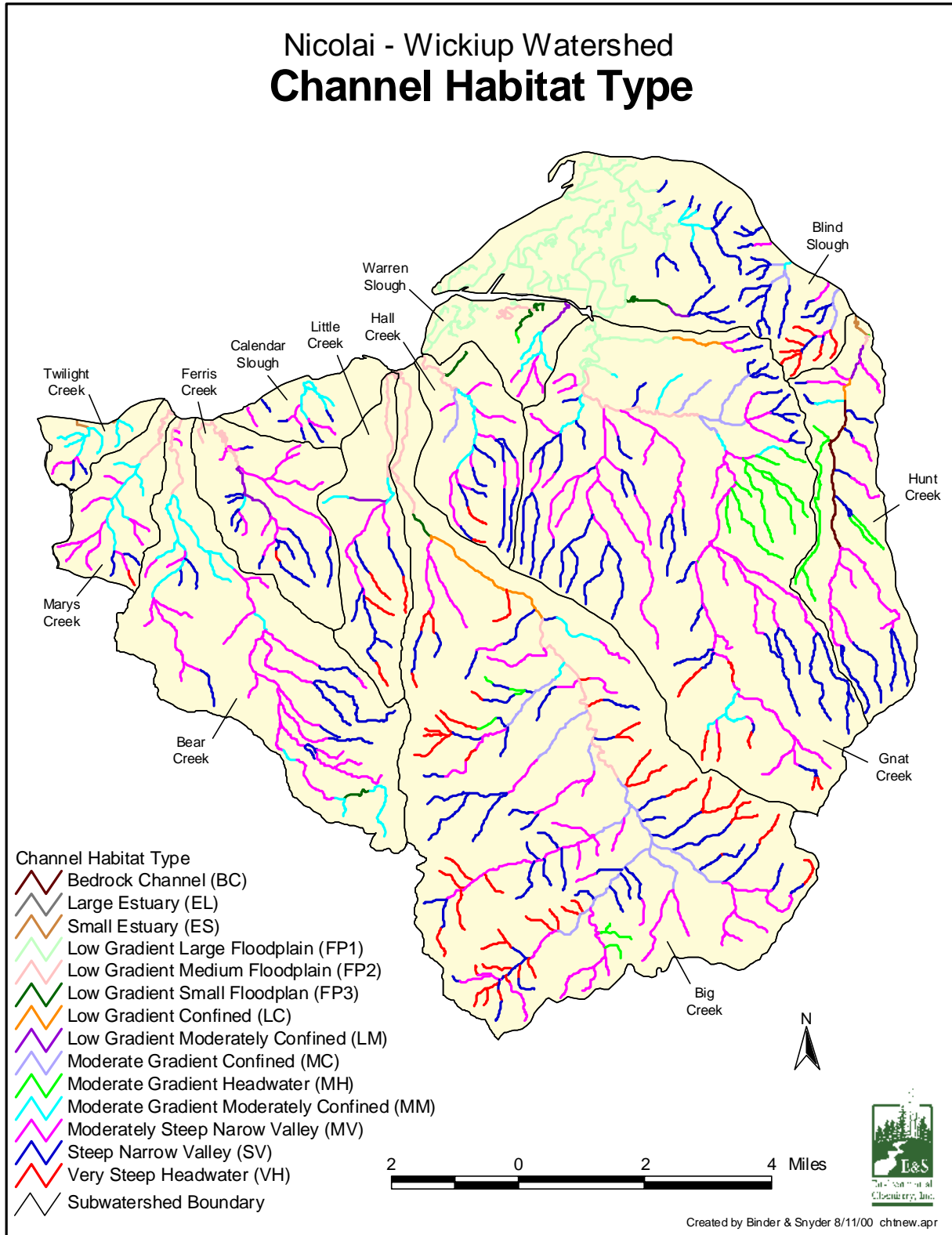


Figure 1.7. Channel habitat types in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Stream reaches were classified by slope, size, and side-slope according to OWEB protocols (WPN 1999).

1.10 History

The history of a watershed is an important part of any watershed assessment because it provides information on how conditions have changed over time and provides a reference point for current conditions. The history of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed has been compiled by the watershed council (Jim Bergeron) and included in the Appendices of this document (Appendix A). The history section provides insight on issues that relate to landscape features such as aquatic/riparian habitat, fish populations, and water quality. Having information on these prior conditions will allow local stakeholders to develop appropriate reference conditions when conducting restoration activities.

CHAPTER 2 FISHERIES

2.1 Introduction

The OWEB assessment process focuses on watershed processes that affect salmonids and their associated habitats. Understanding the current condition of salmonid populations in a watershed is vital to identifying the effects of the spatial and temporal distribution of key habitat areas on salmonids. Additionally, salmonids are often used as indicator species under the assumption that salmonids are the most sensitive species in a stream network (WPN 1999, Bottom et al. 1998, Tuchmann et al. 1996). Habitat conditions that are good for salmon reflect good habitat conditions for most aquatic species. Understanding the complex life cycles, spatial distribution, and current status of salmonids in a watershed is key to evaluating watershed management practices and their effects on watershed health.

2.2 Fish Presence

There are numerous fish species that occur in the Columbia River estuary that may use resources in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. A 1967 report on fish species occurring in the Columbia River Estuary and tributaries identified 28 families and 77 species of fish (Reimers and Bond 1967). Excluding marine and introduced fish, six families and 17 species of freshwater fish remain. Sculpins (*Cottus* spp.) were found to be the most widely distributed species in lower Columbia River tributaries. Selected species occurring in the lower Columbia River tributaries are listed in Table 2.1.

2.3 Species of Concern

The National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) has listed several anadromous fish species that exist or could potentially exist in the watershed as threatened under the Endangered Species Act (Table 2.2). Chum and chinook are listed as threatened and steelhead is listed as a candidate by NMFS. Coho has been listed as a candidate for listing and coastal cutthroat is proposed to be listed as threatened. Listing occurs for entire Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESU) which is defined as a genetically or ecologically distinctive group of Pacific salmon, steelhead, or sea-run cutthroat trout (Appendix B).

The Endangered Species Act requires that any land providing habitat for endangered species must be properly managed. Relationships between land cover and rare species decline has been established. An understanding of the land patterns associated with the distribution of these

| Common Name | Species | Source |
|--------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Coho | <i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Coastal Cutthroat | <i>Oncorhynchus clarki clarki</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Chum | <i>Oncorhynchus keta</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Chinook | <i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Steelhead | <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss irideus</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Pacific Lamprey | <i>Lampetra tridentata</i> spp. | ODFW 1995 |
| Northern Squawfish | <i>Ptychocheilus oregonensis</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Longnose Dace | <i>Rhinichthys cataractae</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Redside Shiner | <i>Richardsonius balteatus</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Sandroller | <i>Percopsis transmontana</i> | ODFW 1995 |
| Sculpins | <i>Cottus</i> spp. | ODFW 1995; Reimers and Bond 1967 |
| Leopard Dace | <i>Rhinichthys falcatus</i> | ODFW 1995 |

| Fish | ESU | Status |
|--|---|---------------------|
| Coho | Lower Columbia River/Southwest Washington | Candidate |
| Coastal Cutthroat | Southwestern Washington/Columbia River | Proposed Threatened |
| Chum | Columbia River | Threatened |
| Chinook | Lower Columbia River | Threatened |
| Steelhead | Oregon Coast | Candidate |
| * An Evolutionarily Significant Unit or "ESU" is a genetically or ecologically distinctive group of Pacific salmon, steelhead, or sea-run cutthroat trout. | | |

species can lead to a better understanding of how to preserve these species. The OWEB process focuses on salmonids in the watershed.

In addition to provisions of the Endangered Species Act, private timber, federal, and state owned lands have their own mandates for the protection and conservation of the habitats related to these threatened and endangered species. Private timber practices are regulated by the Forest

Practices Act, which is designed to help protect important habitats. The Oregon Department of Forestry is developing an assessment and management plan to detail forest management practices within areas occupied by threatened species. Due to the complex interactions in watersheds, all of these practices must be coordinated with private landowners to manage the natural resources for the protection of the critical habitats associated with these species.

Many of the following paragraphs have been taken directly from ODFW's *Biennial Report on the Status of Wild Fish in Oregon* (ODFW 1995) or from the NMFS website (<http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/1salmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.4 Coho

2.4.1 Life History

The coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) is an anadromous species that rears for part of its life in the Pacific Ocean and spawns in freshwater streams in North America. Coho salmon spend several weeks to several months in freshwater before spawning, depending on the distance they migrate to reach their spawning grounds. Adults die within two weeks after spawning. Juveniles normally spend one summer and one winter in freshwater, although they may remain for one or two extra years in the coldest rivers in their range. They migrate to the ocean in the spring, generally one year after emergence, as silvery smolts about four to five inches long (Table 2.3). Most adults mature at three years of age (ODFW 1995).

2.4.2 Listing Status

On July 25, 1995, NMFS determined that listing was not warranted for the Lower Columbia Coho ESU (Appendix B). However, the ESU is designated as a candidate for listing due to concerns over specific risk factors. This ESU includes all naturally spawned populations of coho salmon from Columbia River tributaries below the Klickitat River on the Washington side and below the Deschutes River on the Oregon side (including the Willamette River as far upriver as Willamette Falls), as well as coastal drainages in southwest Washington between the Columbia River and Point Grenville. Major river watersheds containing spawning and rearing habitat for this ESU comprise approximately 10,418 sq. mi. in Oregon and Washington. The following counties lie partially or wholly within these watersheds: Oregon - Clackamas, Clatsop, Columbia, Hood River, Marion, Multnomah, Wasco, and Washington; Washington - Clark,

| Fish | Return | Spawn | Out-migration |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| Coho ^{1,2} | Aug-Dec | late Oct-Dec | spring |
| Chinook, fall ³ | Aug-Sep | fall | summer |
| Chinook, spring ² | Apr-Jun | Sep | Hatchery Release |
| Chinook, summer ² | Jul-Sep | Sep-Nov | Hatchery Release |
| Steelhead, winter ³ | Nov-Apr | Dec-Jun | Mar-June |
| Coastal Cutthroat ⁴ | Jul-Mar (Nov-Dec, peak) | Dec-June, Feb (peak) | Apr-Jun |
| Chum ³ | Oct-Nov | Nov-Dec | spring |

¹ Status Review of Coho Salmon from Washington, Oregon, and California
² Joseph Sheahan, personal communication
³ Status Report: Columbia River Fish Runs, 1938-1997
⁴ Status Review of Coastal Cutthroat Trout from Washington, Oregon, and California

Cowlitz, Grays Harbor, Jefferson, Klickitat, Lewis, Mason, Pacific, Skamania, Thurston, and Wahkiakum (Source: <http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/1salmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.4.3 Population Status

Coastal watershed wild coho production has declined from approximately 1.5 million fish at the turn of the century to approximately 70,000 in the 1990s. Wild populations still occur in most coastal watersheds and in the Clackamas and Sandy Rivers in the Columbia River watershed. Remaining coho populations generally spawn and rear in small, low gradient (less than 3 percent) tributary streams, although rearing may also take place in lakes where available.

Coho populations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed have been provisionally listed as genuine wild populations (ODFW 1995). However, it is believed that these are not actual wild populations and need to be removed from the provisional listing (Michelle Long; Walt Weber pers. comm.). Populations have been monitored by ODFW and data have been compiled in the StreamNet database. Three methodologies for estimating fish abundance have been used in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed: peak or index live fish (# sampled from index locations), total live fish (live fish trapped at a location), and sport counts (counts made from sport catches; Figure 2.1). Spawning surveys in Little Creek show a diminishing population of wild coho (Figure

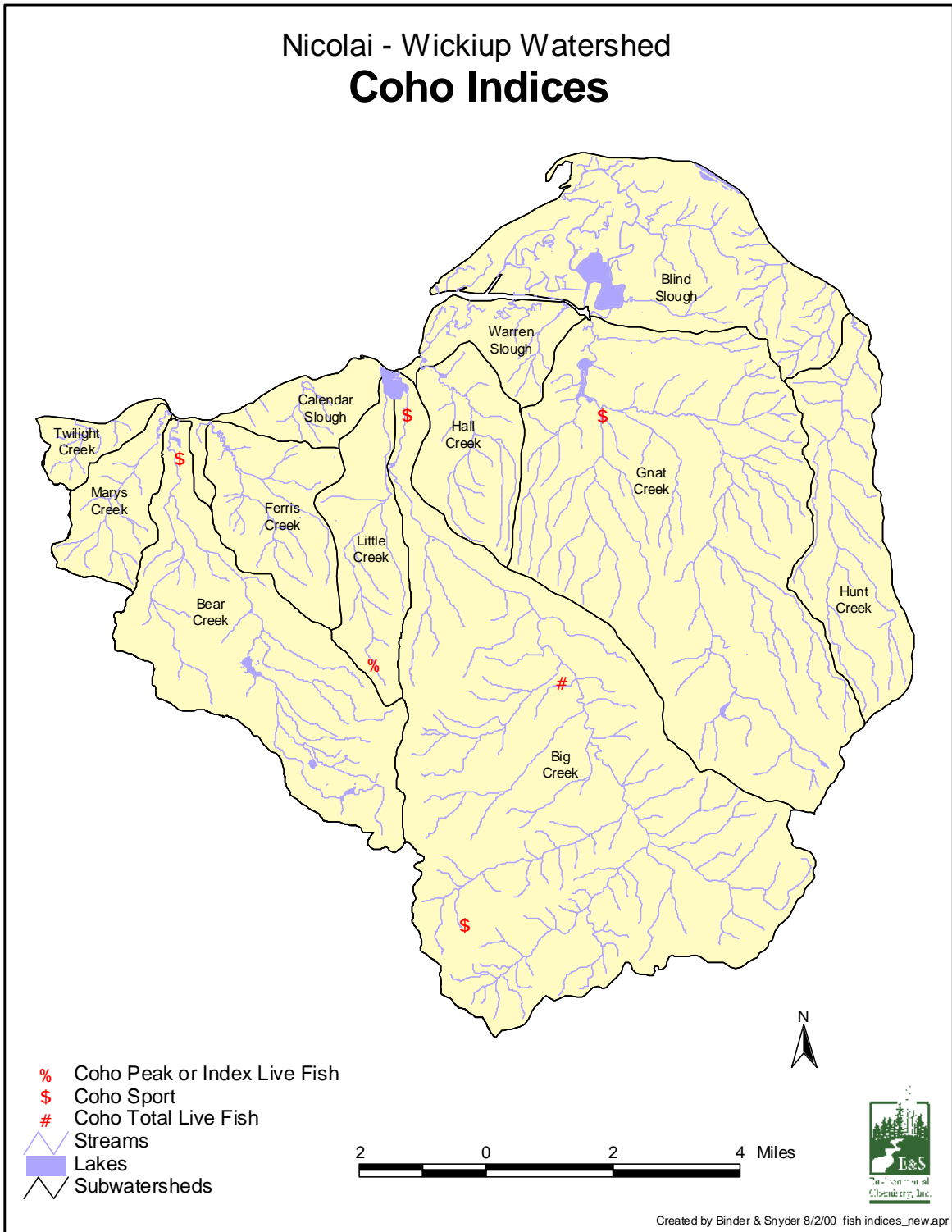


Figure 2.1. Locations and types of coho counts in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Points represent the upper extent of the survey. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

2.2). It is important to note that this observation is based on a general trend in the data and not a result of rigorous statistical analysis. Statistics would be needed to identify actual trends in fish populations, which is beyond the scope of this assessment. Hatchery returns to the Big Creek fish hatchery appear moderate but are generally low in comparison to the numbers stocked (Figure 2.3; Walt Weber pers. comm.).

2.4.4 *Species Distribution*

ODFW mapped current coho distribution by attributing 1:100,000 stream coverages based on survey data and best professional judgment of local fish biologists. Distributions identified spawning, rearing and migration areas. These coverages are dynamic data sets that are scheduled to be updated every two years. These data are available on ODFW's website (<ftp://ftp.dfw.state.or.us/pub/gis>).

Coho occurs in almost all of the subwatersheds in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Figure 2.4). Coho occurs in the Bear Creek subwatershed and are limited from upstream reaches by the water control structure at the Bear Creek reservoir. Distribution is limited in both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek subwatersheds by artificial barriers at their respective fish hatcheries. Hunt Creek is also used by Coho; however the falls located approximately 0.5 miles upstream from the mouth significantly limits the amount of the creek that can be used as habitat. All of these runs have been provisionally listed as genuine wild populations.

2.4.5 *Hatcheries*

Hatchery influences on coho populations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed are widespread. Both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek fish hatcheries are located in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, however only the Big Creek fish hatchery raises coho salmon. Historical release data for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed show approximately 39,000 coho released in both Bear Creek and Marys Creek in 1982 (Figure 2.5; Genovese and Emmett 1997). Virtually all streams in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed received coho fry and presmolts for several years in the early 1980s except for Big Creek and Gnat Creek. Several coho stocks were used for these releases. More recently, Big Creek has been stocked with coho. Big Creek has received about 500,000 hatchery coho salmon annually between 1992 and 1999. All of the broodstocks were Big Creek (Big Creek hatchery).

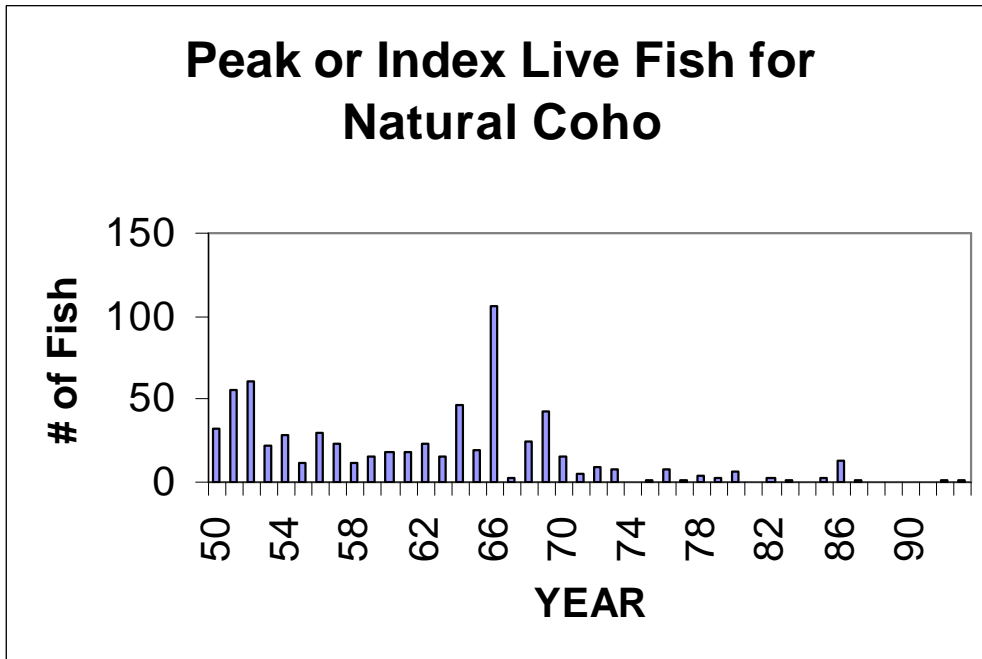


Figure 2.2. Coho spawning counts (peak or index live fish) for Little Creek for the period of 1950 to 1994. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

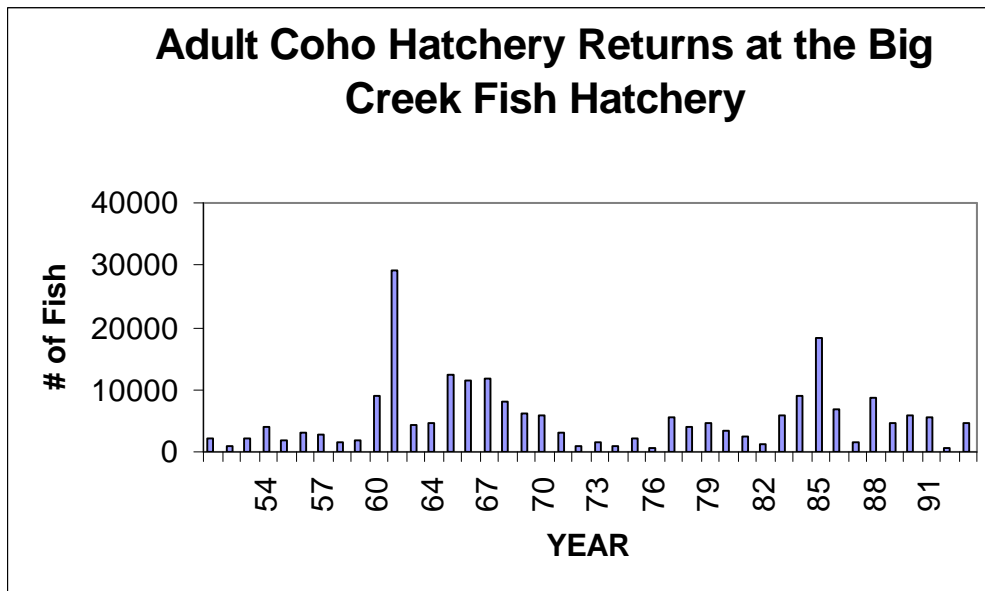


Figure 2.3. Hatchery coho returns for the Big Creek hatchery for the period 1951 to 1993. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

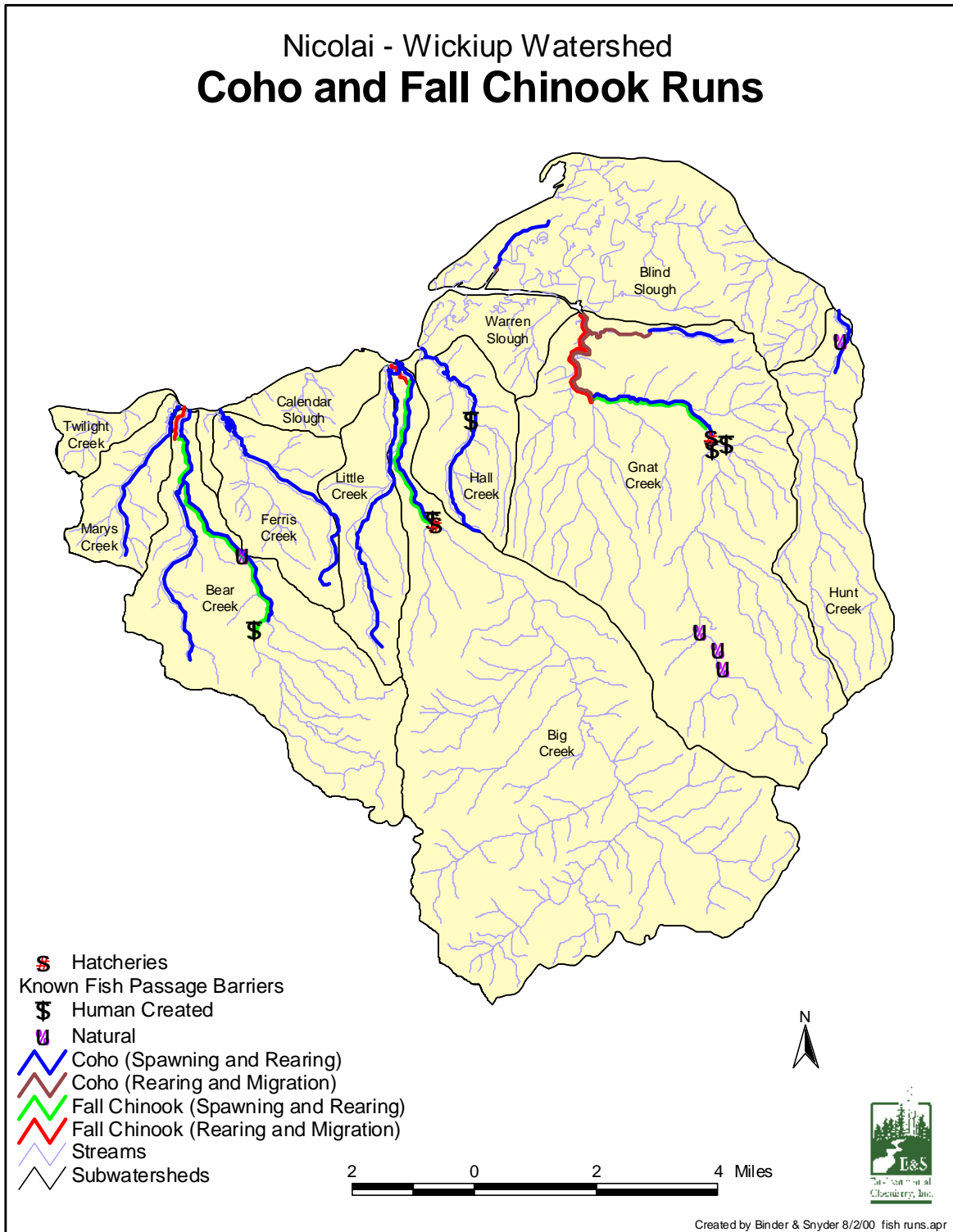


Figure 2.4. Coho and fall chinook distribution in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed showing the location of fish barriers and hatcheries. Distribution data were obtained from ODFW and were based on local fish surveys and best professional judgement of local fish biologists. Fish barriers were identified by local watershed council members.

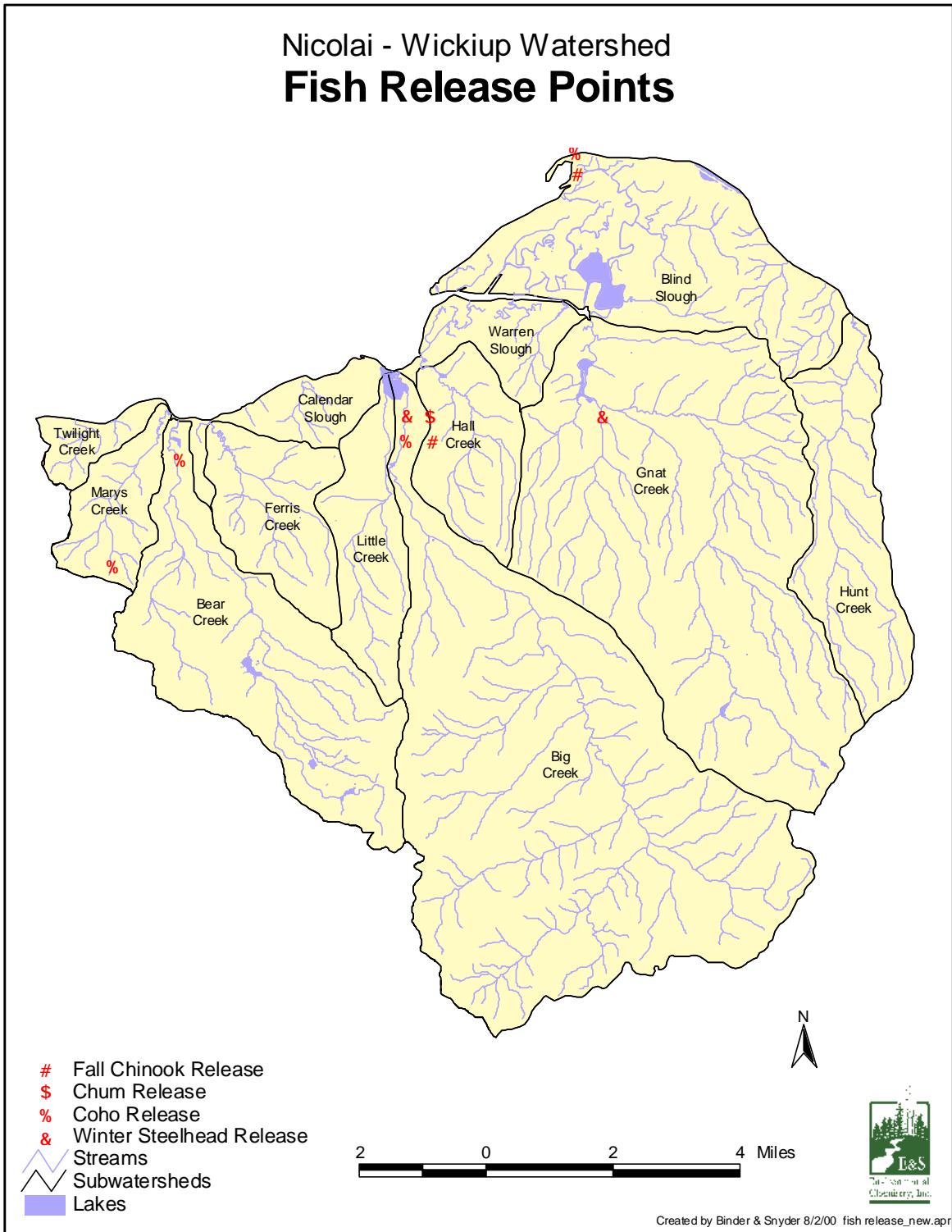


Figure 2.5. Coho, chinook, chum, and steelhead release locations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

Hatchery coho may have contributed to the decline of wild coho salmon. Hatchery programs supported historical harvest rates in mixed-stock fisheries that were excessive for sustained wild fish production. Hatchery coho have also strayed to spawn with wild fish, which may have reduced the fitness and therefore survival of the wild populations through outbreeding depression (ODFW 1995; Flemming and Gross 1993, 1989; Hemmingsen et al. 1986) and which lowered effective population sizes. Finally, hatcheries may have reduced survival of wild juveniles through increased competition for limited food in streams, bays, and the ocean in years of low ocean productivity; through attraction of predators during mass migrations; and through initiation or aggravation of disease problems (Nickelson et al. 1986).

2.5 Chinook

2.5.1 Life History

Oregon chinook salmon populations exhibit a wider range of life history diversity than coho or chum salmon, with variation in the date, size and age at juvenile ocean entry; in ocean migration patterns; and in adult migration season, spawning habitat selection, age at maturity and size (Table 2.3; Nicholas and Hankin 1989, Healey 1994). Generally, subyearling juveniles rear in coastal streams from three to six months and rear in estuaries from one week to five months. Nearly all Oregon coastal chinook salmon enter the ocean during their first summer or fall. Columbia River fall chinook show a similar rearing pattern, but Columbia River spring chinook (and a small percentage of fish in coastal chinook populations) spend one summer and one winter in freshwater. Juvenile chinook salmon with this life history of prolonged freshwater rearing tend to move downstream from the area where they hatched into larger rivers during their first spring. Migration to the ocean occurs during the second spring with variation in outmigration depending on amount and timing of spring runoff and individual population differences (ODFW 1995).

2.5.2 Listing Status

Chinook salmon was listed as a threatened species on March 24, 1999. The ESU includes all naturally spawned populations of chinook salmon from the Columbia River and its tributaries from its mouth at the Pacific Ocean, upstream to a transitional point between Washington and Oregon east of the Hood River and the White Salmon River. It includes the Willamette River to

Willamette Falls, Oregon, exclusive of spring-run chinook salmon in the Clackamas River
(Source: <http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/1salmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.5.3 Population Status

Lower Columbia fall chinook is chinook that enters the Columbia River as mature fish and spawn in small tributaries in the lower watershed. No wild populations have been sampled for allozyme (genetic) variation in this group, although Big Creek hatchery fish, founded from this group, were analyzed (Marshall 1993). The fish are distinctive from all other Columbia watershed chinook in that they are mature upon river entry, have a short migration more similar to coastal populations, and spawn soon after arrival on the spawning grounds. Their ocean distribution is somewhat south of north coast populations, extending along the coasts of Washington and British Columbia. Juveniles have a subyearling life history. Scattered naturally spawning fish are still observed in the lower Clackamas River and in small streams such as Plympton Creek, Gnat Creek, Big Creek, Clatskanie River, Hood River, and in the Youngs Bay and Columbia Gorge areas. Observations by ODFW district staff indicate that these fish generally spawn from September to early November.

Most spawning has been observed in September, although fresh adults have been observed in late October and dead fish have been found in late November. Harvest management staff have concluded, based on expansions of coded-wire tag recoveries from these fish, that a huge proportion of the fish in these tributaries have been strays from Big Creek hatchery "tules" along with some strays of Rogue River "brights" released into Big Creek. The Plympton Creek "tules" were collected for hatchery broodstock in 1990, 1991 and 1994, with most of the females removed from the watershed in 1990 (ODFW 1995). The information that is available indicates that the fall chinook populations in the lower Columbia watershed are reduced from historical numbers, with much of the natural spawning dominated by hatchery fish from the 11 Oregon and Washington fall chinook hatcheries located in the lower Columbia.

Populations were monitored in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed by ODFW and data have been compiled in the StreamNet database. Three methodologies for estimating fish abundance were used in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed: peak or index live fish, total live fish, and sport counts (Figure 2.6). Data for naturally occurring fall chinook abundance are lacking. Peak or index live fish surveys or total live fish surveys have not been included in the StreamNet

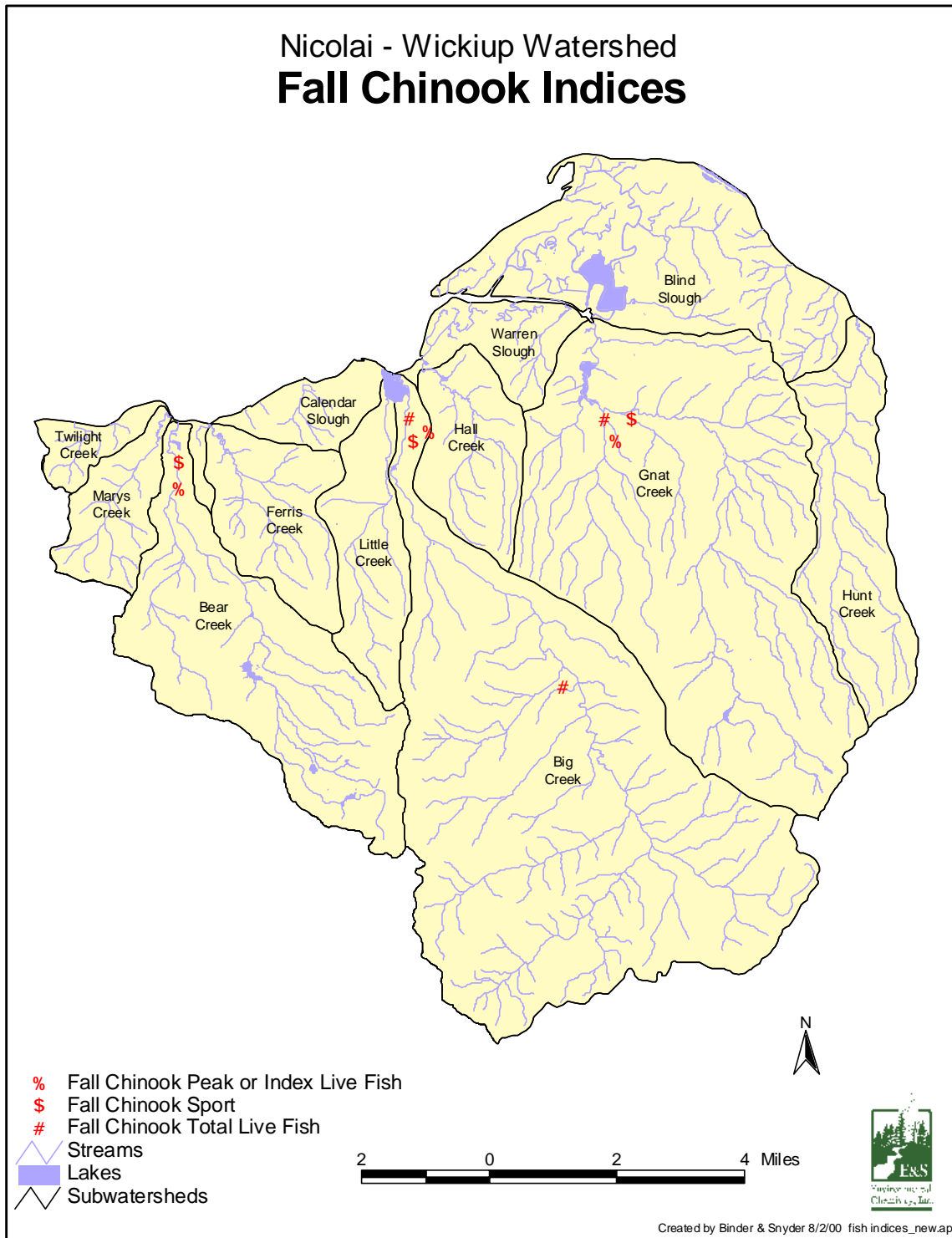


Figure 2.6. Location and types of fall chinook counts in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Points represent the upper extent of the survey. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

database since 1986. Hatchery returns of fall chinook have been monitored for the Big Creek fish hatchery and show poor returns in relation to the number released (Figure 2.7).

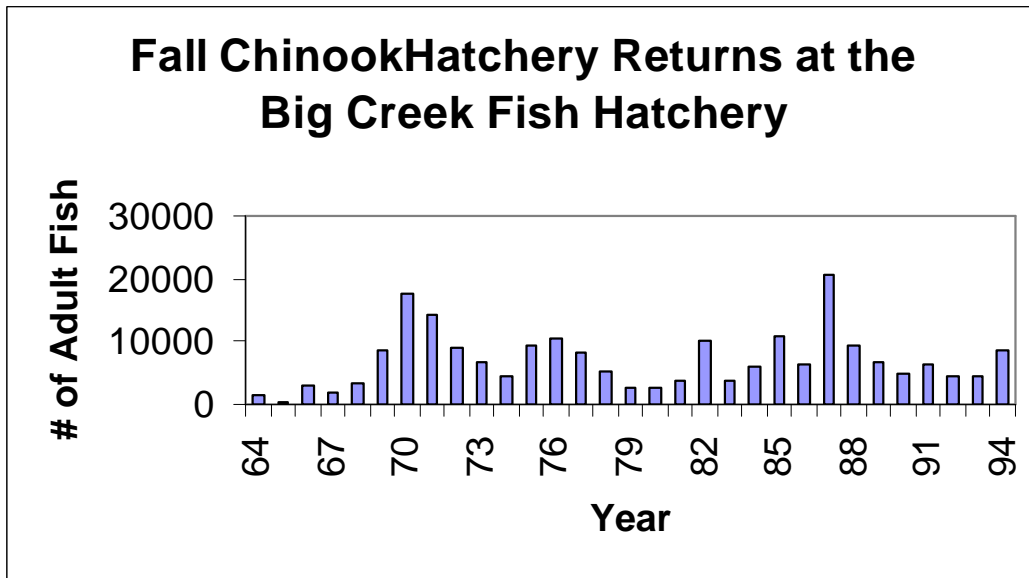


Figure 2.7. Fall chinook hatchery returns at the Big Creek hatchery for the period of 1964 to 1994. Data were obtained from the StreamNet database.

2.5.4 Species Distribution

ODFW mapped current chinook distribution by attributing 1:100,000 stream coverages based on survey data and best professional judgment of local fish biologists. Distributions identified spawning, rearing and migration areas. These coverages are dynamic data sets that are scheduled to be updated every two years. These data are available on ODFW's website (<ftp://ftp.dfw.state.or.us/pub/gis>).

Fall chinook occurs in almost all of the subwatersheds in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Figure 2.4), including the Bear Creek subwatershed where they are limited from upstream reaches by the water control structure at the Bear Creek Reservoir. Distribution is limited in both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek subwatershed by their respective fish hatcheries. According to the *Biennial Report on the Status of Wild Fish* (ODFW 1995) Hunt Creek was historically used by chinook. However, there are no data available that definitely states whether or not there

ever were any chinook in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Walt Weber pers. comm.). Currently, it is unlikely that there are any native chinook still in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

2.5.5 Hatcheries

Releases of "tule" fall chinook from Oregon facilities included 13-14 million smolts below Bonneville Dam, 10 million smolts in the Big Creek and Youngs Bay area, and 1-8 million smolts and fry in the lower Willamette in 1992 and 1993. Less than 5 percent of the fish are marked so the number of returning hatchery adults straying to natural spawning areas must be estimated from limited tag recoveries. Based on expansions of coded-wire tags recovered in streams most of the natural spawning can be attributed to hatchery strays. This pattern probably dates to the 1960s.

Historically, Big Creek has been stocked with fall chinook, receiving more than 125 million fish over the last decade. More recently, Big Creek has received from 5 to 12 million hatchery fall chinook annually from 1995 to 1999.

Fall chinook from the Rogue River was historically introduced into the lower Columbia River and was released into Big Creek and the Youngs Bay area. The purpose of this program was to provide a south migrating fall chinook for harvest along the Oregon coast and a "brighter" fall chinook in the lower river harvest. About 500,000 to 700,000 Rogue River smolts were released in 1992 and 1993. The fish are adapted to a long migration up the Rogue River and so enter the Columbia River "brighter" than the local populations. All Rogue River "brights" have been marked and straying is being monitored. The Rogue River stock are no longer being released in Big Creek due to straying concerns. There has been some straying into natural spawning areas and into lower Columbia River hatcheries. Their spawning time does not overlap with the later part of the natural spawning distribution of the local "tules." And, based on their marks, they are removed from the hatchery tule spawning escapement.

2.6 Coastal Cutthroat

2.6.1 Life History

Coastal cutthroat trout exhibits diverse patterns in life history and migration behaviors. Populations of coastal cutthroat trout show marked differences in their preferred rearing environments (river, lake, estuary, or ocean); size and age at migration; timing of migrations; age at maturity; and frequency of repeat spawning. Anadromous or sea-run populations migrate to

the ocean (or estuary) for usually less than a year before returning to freshwater. Anadromous cutthroat trout either spawn during the first winter or spring after their return or undergo a second ocean migration before maturing and spawning in freshwater. Anadromous cutthroat are present in most coastal rivers. Nonmigratory (resident) forms of coastal cutthroat trout occur in small headwater streams and exhibit little instream movement. They generally are smaller, become sexually mature at a younger age, and may have a shorter life span than many migratory cutthroat trout populations. Resident cutthroat trout populations are often isolated and restricted above waterfall barriers, but may also coexist with other life history types (ODFW 1995).

2.6.2 Listing Status

Coastal cutthroat were proposed for listing as a threatened species on April 5, 1999. The Lower Columbia ESU includes populations of coastal cutthroat trout in the Columbia River and its tributaries downstream from the Klickitat River in Washington and Fifteenmile Creek in Oregon (inclusive) and the Willamette River and its tributaries downstream from Willamette Falls. The ESU also includes coastal cutthroat trout populations in Washington coastal drainages from the Columbia River to Grays Harbor (inclusive). Major river watersheds containing spawning and rearing habitat for this ESU comprise approximately 12,136 sq. mi. in Oregon and Washington. The following counties lie partially or wholly within these watersheds: Oregon - Clackamas, Clatsop, Columbia, Hood River, Marion, Multnomah, Wasco, and Washington; Washington - Clark, Cowlitz, Grays Harbor, Jefferson, Klickitat, Lewis, Mason, Pacific, Skamania, Thurston, Wahkiakum, and Yakima (Source: <http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/Isalmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.6.3 Population Status

The abundance of sea-run cutthroat trout in the lower Columbia watershed appears to have significantly declined in recent years. Although these populations are not routinely monitored, angler surveys conducted in the lower mainstem Columbia during the 1970s typically observed annual catches of up to 5,000 fish. Similar data in the late 1980s estimate the annual catch as low as 500 fish (ODFW 1995). Effective in 1994, all wild cutthroat trout caught by anglers in the Columbia River must be released unharmed.

Systematic abundance estimates also are not available for most resident, fluvial (migrate to spawning tributaries) or adfluvial (migrate between spawning tributaries and lakes) cutthroat

populations. However, anecdotal observations indicate that they remain relatively abundant, even in streams where the abundance of sea-run fish has sharply declined. This pattern suggests that anadromous populations are most impacted by problems occurring along migration corridors, in estuaries, or in near-shore marine environments.

2.6.4 *Species Distribution*

Anadromous cutthroat trout distributions have not been mapped by ODFW. The 1995 biennial report on the status of wild fish (ODFW 1995) reported a distribution including Bear Creek (below reservoir), Ferris Creek, Gnat Creek (below falls), and Hunt Creek (below falls). Most of the creeks in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed were reported to contain resident cutthroat populations.

2.6.5 *Hatcheries*

The effects of long-term hatchery releases of sea-run cutthroat trout on wild stock abundance in this group is unknown. The hatchery broodstock used in most programs was developed from the wild population in Big Creek on the lower Columbia River. Annual releases into Big Creek (5,000) and Gnat Creek (3,000) were discontinued after 1993. Starting in 1994, remaining lower Columbia River cutthroat trout releases have been switched to standing water bodies. However, in 1997, 3,165 hatchery sea-run cutthroat were again released in Big Creek in an attempt to recover broodstock. It apparently failed since few, if any, sea-run cutthroat trout have been seen at the Big Creek hatchery weir.

2.6.6 *Species Interactions*

Cutthroat trout populations with different life history patterns may be sympatric (able to exchange genetic information) in the same river. The level of genetic exchange between cutthroat trout of different life history types, for example, between sea-run and resident forms, is poorly understood. A single population may be polymorphic for several life histories; or the life histories may form separate breeding populations through assortative mating, but still exchange low levels of gene flow; or the life history types may form completely reproductively isolated gene pools. Extensive genetic and life history surveys will be needed to clarify these relationships.

2.7 Chum

2.7.1 Life History

The chum salmon is an anadromous species that rears in the Pacific and Arctic oceans and spawns in freshwater streams in North America. Most of the chum salmon life span is spent in a marine environment. Adults typically enter spawning streams ripe, promptly spawn, and die within two weeks of arrival (Table 2.3). Most spawning runs are over a short distance, although exceptionally long runs occur in some watersheds in Asia and Alaska. Adults are strong swimmers, but poor jumpers and are restricted to spawning areas below barriers, including minor barriers that are easily passed by other anadromous species. Juveniles are intolerant of prolonged exposure to freshwater and migrate to estuarine waters promptly after emergence. A brief residence in an estuarine environment appears to be important for smoltification and for early feeding and growth. Movement offshore occurs when the juveniles reach full saltwater tolerance and have grown to a size that allows them to feed on larger organisms and avoid predators. Chum salmon mature at 2 to 6 years of age and may reach sizes over 40 pounds.

2.7.2 Listing Status

Chum salmon were listed as a threatened species on March 25, 1999. The ESU includes all naturally spawned populations of chum salmon in the Columbia River and its tributaries in Washington and Oregon (Source: <http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/1salmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.7.3 Population Status

Oregon currently has 55 populations on its provisional list, including 23 in the Columbia watershed and 32 in coastal watersheds. The species in Oregon requires typical low gradient, gravel-rich, barrier-free freshwater habitats and productive estuaries. In Oregon, most chum mature at 3 to 4 years and weigh 10 to 15 pounds as adults.

Chum salmon populations are very depressed to extinct in Oregon subwatersheds of the lower Columbia River. Small numbers of scattered adults are still observed and might provide the means for naturally recolonizing the area if conditions permitted. However, conditions on the Oregon side of the river are poorly suited to the natural production of chum. Spawning habitat is poor or inaccessible. Large numbers of hatchery coho and chinook are released into some of the potential juvenile chum rearing areas, such as the Youngs Bay area, where 3 to 5 million coho were released in 1992 and 1993. Gill-net fisheries can intercept adult chum salmon in October.

The 1992 Columbia River commercial harvest landed about 700 chum salmon, most of which are thought to have come from Washington rivers (ODFW and WDF 1993). In comparison, Columbia River harvests prior to the 1940s landed 100,000 to 600,000 fish annually.

2.7.4 *Species Distribution*

ODFW mapped current chum distribution by attributing 1:100,000 stream coverages based on survey data and best professional judgment of local fish biologists. Distributions identified spawning, rearing and migration areas. These coverages are dynamic data sets that are scheduled to be updated every two years. These data are available on ODFW's website (<ftp://ftp.dfw.state.or.us/pub/gis>).

Currently, chum salmon occur only in the lower portions of the Bear Creek subwatershed. Historically, chum were found in almost all of the subwatersheds in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed including Marys, Bear, Ferris, Big, Fertile Valley, Gnat, and Hunt Creeks. However, many of these areas are considered poor chum habitats due to large numbers of hatchery coho and chinook and poor or inaccessible spawning areas (ODFW 1995).

2.7.5 *Hatcheries*

Oregon has never had a large chum salmon hatchery program, and there are currently no state hatchery programs for the species. One private hatchery has operated in the Nehalem estuary over the past few years. The objective at this hatchery has been to collect all returning hatchery adults; however some straying has occurred. Between 1982 and 1984, about 120,000 hatchery chum were released into Big Creek by ODFW. Chum salmon are probably impacted by coho salmon hatchery programs that release large numbers of hatchery smolts into estuaries that are used by rearing juvenile chum. Coho salmon juveniles have been shown to be a major predator on chum juveniles in the Northwest (Hargreaves and LeBrasseur 1986). Juvenile chum salmon may also be affected by large releases of fall chinook salmon hatchery fish, particularly presmolts, since fall chinook juveniles also rear in estuaries and may compete with chum juveniles.

2.8 Steelhead

2.8.1 Life History

Most coastal steelhead in Oregon are winter-run fish, with summer-run fish in only a few large watersheds outside of this assessment area. The subspecies (*Oncorhynchus mykiss irideus*) includes a resident phenotype (rainbow trout) and an anadromous phenotype (coastal steelhead). The steelhead express a further array of life histories including various freshwater and saltwater rearing strategies and various adult spawning migration strategies. Juvenile steelhead may rear one to four years in freshwater prior to their first migration to saltwater. Saltwater residency may last one to three years. Adult steelhead may enter freshwater on spawning migrations year around if habitat is available for them, but generally spawn in the winter and spring (Table 2.3). Adults that enter between May and October are called "summer-run" fish. These fish hold several months in freshwater prior to spawning. Adults that enter between November and April are called "winter-run" fish. These fish are more sexually mature upon freshwater entry and hold for a shorter time prior to spawning. Rainbow trout are thought to spawn at three to five years of age, generally in the winter or spring, although some populations vary from this pattern. Both rainbow and steelhead may spawn more than once. Steelhead return to saltwater between spawning runs.

2.8.2 Listing Status

On March 19, 1998, NMFS determined that listing was not warranted for the Oregon Coast ESU. However, the ESU is designated as a candidate for listing due to concerns over specific risk factors. The ESU includes steelhead from Oregon coastal rivers between the Columbia River and Cape Blanco. Major river basins containing spawning and rearing habitat for this ESU comprise approximately 10,604 sq. mi. in Oregon. The following counties lie partially or wholly within these basins: Benton, Clatsop, Columbia, Coos, Curry, Douglas, Jackson, Josephine, Lane, Lincoln, Polk, Tillamook, Washington, and Yamhill (Source: <http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/1salmon/salmesa/index.htm>).

2.8.3 Population Status

Most of the winter steelhead populations in the lower Columbia watershed are small. Observations of sport catch in the Lewis & Clark River, and the South Fork Klaskanine River

indicate these populations have more than 300 adults each, although no comprehensive populations surveys have been done.

2.8.4 *Species Distribution*

ODFW mapped current steelhead distribution by attributing 1:100,000 stream coverages based on survey data and best professional judgment of local fish biologists. Distributions identified spawning, rearing and migration areas. These coverages are dynamic data sets that are scheduled to be updated every two years. These data are available on ODFW's website (<ftp://ftp.dfw.state.or.us/pub/gis>).

Winter steelhead occur in almost all of the subwatersheds in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Figure 2.8). Winter steelhead occur in the Bear, Big, Fertile Valley, and Gnat Creek subwatersheds. Distribution is shown to extend beyond both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek fish hatcheries. Populations above the fish hatcheries are most likely resident rainbow trout.

2.8.5 *Hatcheries*

Most of the lower Columbia watershed steelhead populations have been planted with a winter steelhead broodstock founded from Big Creek in the lower Columbia watershed. Between 1983 and 1993, only about 200,000 winter steelhead were stocked in Big Creek. Big Creek is currently more heavily stocked, receiving between 50,000 and 70,000 winter steelhead annually for the period of 1995 to 1999. More than 400,000 winter steelhead were stocked in Gnat Creek between 1981 and 1993. Gnat Creek received approximately 30,000 to 40,000 winter steelhead annually between 1995 and 1999.

As recently as 1991, more than 45,000 summer steelhead were released in Gnat Creek. However, no data were available on their survival or return. It is doubtful that these steelhead were released as smolts. The steelhead were probably released as fry or pre-smolt in which survival would be expected to be poor.

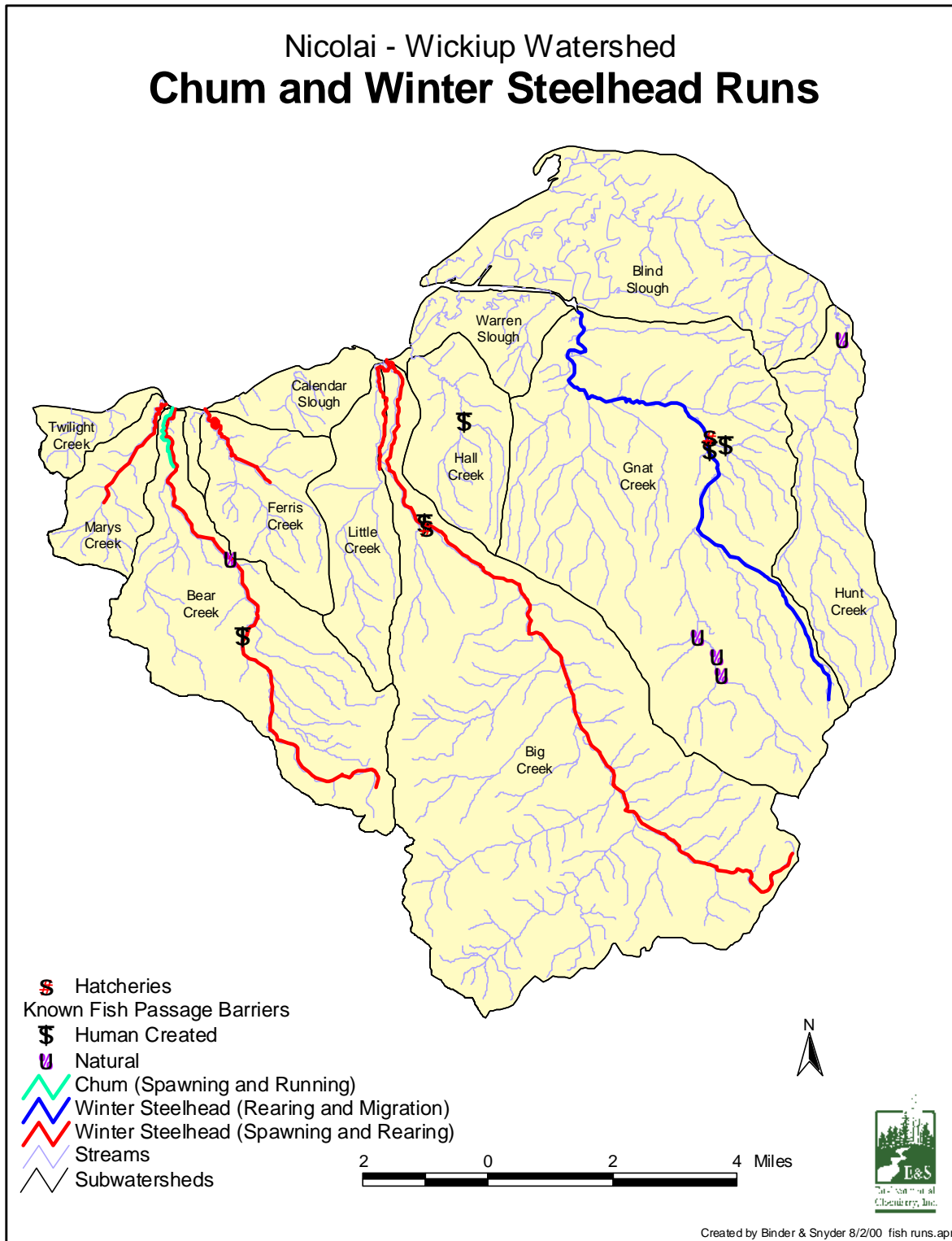


Figure 2.8. Chum and winter steelhead distributions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Distribution data were obtained from ODFW and were based on local fish surveys and best professional judgement of local fish biologists. Fish barriers were identified by local watershed council members.

2.9 Conclusions

The National Marine Fisheries Service has listed several anadromous fish species that exist, or could potentially exist, in the watershed as threatened. Chum and chinook were listed as threatened and steelhead was listed as a candidate by NMFS. Coho has been identified as a candidate for listing while coastal cutthroat is proposed to be listed as threatened.

Fisheries in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed lack self-sustaining anadromous fish populations. Native coho, chum, and chinook have been eliminated (if there ever were any). Sea-run cutthroat trout appears to be at very low levels. Native winter steelhead is present in fair numbers only in the Lewis & Clark River (Youngs Bay watershed). Consequently, even if significant improvements were made in habitat and ocean conditions, anadromous fish levels in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed would most likely remain low (Walt Weber pers. comm.). To improve fisheries in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, it is imperative that brood stock development programs be developed that provide fish stocks capable of using improved habitats to become self-sustaining populations. Possible brood stock sources include late spawning Cowlitz River hatchery coho, Washington lower Columbia River chum, Lewis & Clark River winter steelhead, and Clatskanie River or Lewis & Clark River sea-run cutthroat trout. The above list is not all inclusive and establishment of these broodstocks must take into account current local terminal fishery programs and local gill-net fisheries. Potential issues include over harvest of developing broodstocks, competition, predation, and attraction of avian predators.

An additional problem exists in that fish are excluded from some of the better fish habitat available due to the Big Creek and Gnat Creek ODFW fish hatcheries. These barriers have led to the virtual elimination of native steelhead and sea-run cutthroat populations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Walt Weber pers. comm.) and have limited the expansion of introduced coho broodstock. Removal of the hatcheries would eliminate this problem, although these hatcheries may be needed for broodstock development.

CHAPTER 3 AQUATIC AND RIPARIAN HABITATS

3.1 Introduction

Distribution and abundance of salmonids within a given watershed varies with habitat conditions such as substrate and pool frequency, as well as biological factors such as food distribution (i.e. insects and algae). In addition, salmonids have complex life histories and use different areas of a watershed during different parts of their life cycle. For example, salmonids need gravel substrates for spawning but may move to different stream segments during rearing. The interactions of these factors in space and time make it difficult to determine specific factors affecting salmonid populations. Consequently, entire watersheds, not just individual components, must be managed to maintain fish habitats (Garano and Brophy 1999).

Understanding the spatial and temporal distribution of key aquatic habitat components is the first step in learning to maintain conditions suitable to sustain salmonid populations. These components must then be linked to larger scale watershed processes that may control them. For example, a stream that lacks sufficient large woody debris (LWD) often has poor LWD recruitment potential in the riparian areas of that stream. By identifying this link, riparian areas can be managed to include more conifers to increase LWD recruitment potential. Also, high stream temperatures can often be linked to lack of shade as a result of poorly vegetated riparian areas. By linking actual conditions to current watershed-level processes, land managers can better understand how to manage the resources to maintain these key aquatic habitat components.

3.2 Aquatic Habitat Inventory Data

To assess current habitat conditions within the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed we have compiled fish habitat survey data collected according to the ODFW protocol (Moore et al. 1997). Stream survey data are like a snapshot in time of current stream conditions. Streams are dynamic systems and channel conditions may change drastically from year to year, depending on environmental conditions. Nevertheless, these data are useful in describing trends in habitat conditions that may be linked to larger watershed processes. Through understanding these habitat distribution patterns, land managers can identify and address problem areas or processes.

ODFW has established statewide benchmark values as guidelines for an initial evaluation of habitat quality (Table 3.1). The benchmarks rate conditions as desirable, moderate, or undesirable in relation to the natural regime of these streams. These values depend upon

| Table 3.1. ODFW aquatic inventory and analysis habitat benchmarks. | | |
|--|-------------|-----------|
| | Undesirable | Desirable |
| Pools | | |
| Pool Area (percent total stream area) | <10 | >35 |
| Pool Frequency (channel widths between pools) | >20 | 5-8 |
| Residual Pool Depth (meters) | | |
| Low Gradient (slope<3%) or small (<7m width) | <0.2 | >0.5 |
| High Gradient (slope >3%) or large (>7m width) | <0.5 | >1 |
| Riffles | | |
| Gravel (percent area) | <15 | >35 |
| Large Woody Debris | | |
| Pieces (per 100m) | <10 | >20 |
| Volume (m ³ per 100m) | <20 | >30 |
| "Key" Pieces (>60cm dia. & >10cm long per 100m) | <1 | >3 |
| Shade (reach average %) | | |
| Stream Width <12 m | <60 | >70 |
| Stream Width >12 m | <50 | >60 |
| Riparian Conifers (30 m from both sides) | | |
| Number > 20-in dbh/1,000-ft stream length) | <150 | >300 |
| Number > 35-in dbh/1,000-ft stream length) | <75 | >200 |

climate, geology, vegetation and disturbance history, and can help to identify patterns in habitat features that can lead to a better understanding of the effects of watershed processes on the current conditions of the stream channel.

Since 1992, 12 streams and rivers have been surveyed in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Figure 3.1; Table 3.2). Since the surveys started, there have been flood events, including a major flood in February of 1996, that may have significantly changed stream channel conditions. However, these surveys may still provided some insight into current habitat condition patterns. For example, streams that lacked large woody debris before the flood may have been affected by poor recruitment potential in the riparian zone. Although the flood may have brought in some large woody debris, most likely the channels still lack LWD. ODFW is also assessing the relative change in habitat after major flood events by comparing data before and after the 1996 flood event. All sites must be field verified for conditions before on-the-ground restoration is planned.

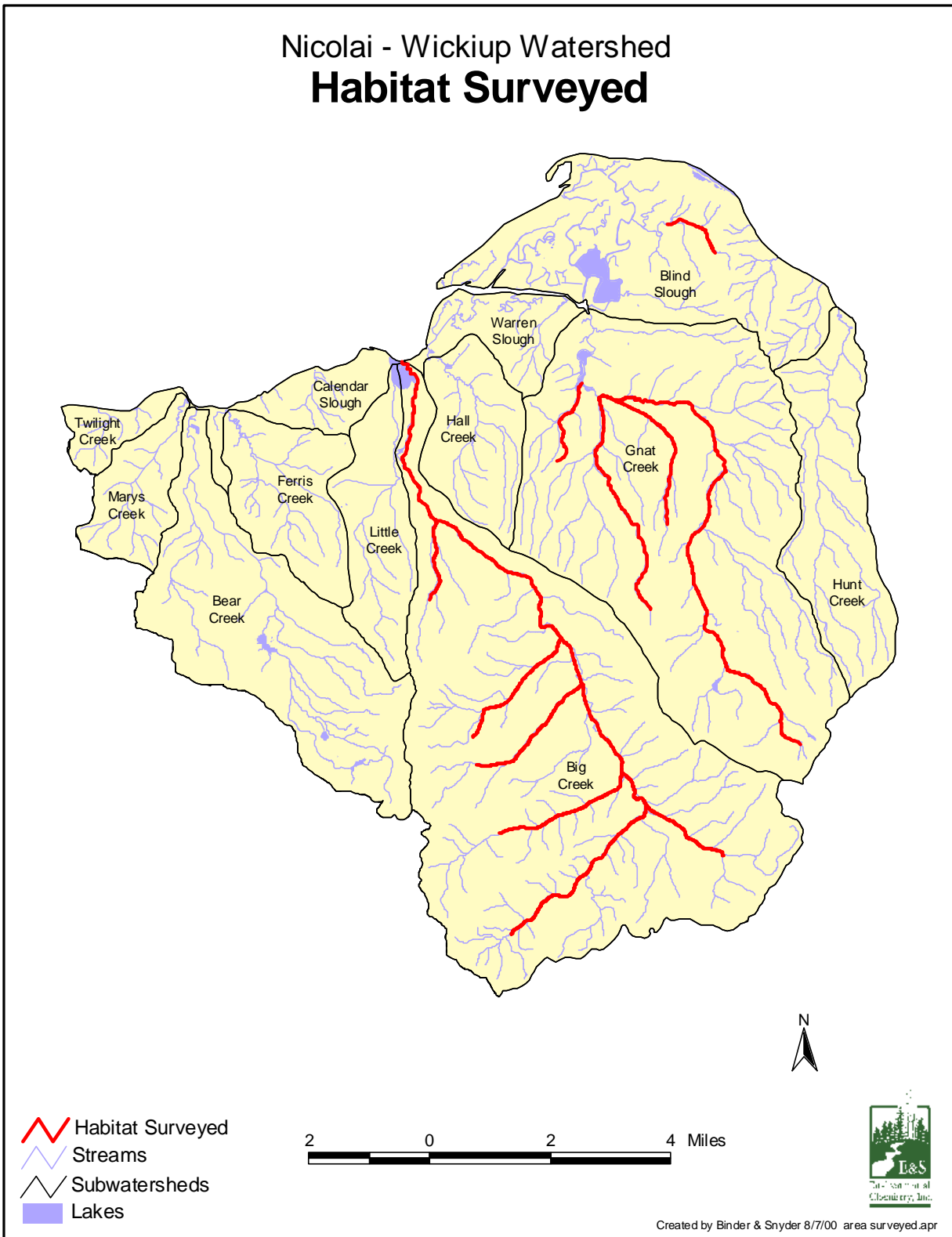


Figure 3.1. Streams surveyed for habitat conditions by ODFW. Survey dates are listed in Table 3.2.

| Table 3.2. Reaches surveyed in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. | |
|--|---------------|
| Reaches Surveyed | Year Surveyed |
| Loowit Cr. | 1990 |
| Upper Big Cr., Coon Cr., Elk Cr. | 1992 |
| Lower Big Cr., Big Noise Cr., Mill Cr., Mud Cr., Rock Cr., Gnat Cr., Pig Pen Cr., Supply Cr. | 1994 |
| NF Gnat Cr. | 1996 |
| Peterson Cr. | 1997 |

3.2.1 Stream Morphology and Substrates

Stream morphology describes the physical state of the stream, including features such as channel width and depth, pool frequency, and pool area (Garano and Brophy 1999). Pools are important features for salmonids, providing refugia and feeding areas. Substrates are also an important channel feature since salmonids use gravel beds for spawning. These gravel beds can be buried by heavy sedimentation resulting in loss of spawning areas as well as reduced invertebrate habitat. For streams that were surveyed, stream morphology and substrates were compared against ODFW benchmarks to evaluate current habitat conditions.

In the streams surveyed, pool frequency and percent pools were generally between moderate and desirable conditions (Table 3.3). Most creeks had undesirable conditions for residual pool depth. Of the streams surveyed, Lower and Upper Big Creek had the best pool conditions with pool depth, frequency, and percent all moderate or desirable.

Gravel beds are important channel features because they provide spawning areas for salmonids. Gravel conditions in riffles were generally moderate to desirable. Only Peterson and Lower Big Creeks had undesirable conditions (Table 3.3). The majority of reaches have moderate gravel conditions.

3.2.2 Large Woody Debris and Riparian Conditions

Large woody debris is an important feature that adds to the complexity of the stream channel. LWD in the stream provides cover, produces and maintains pool habitat, creates surface turbulence, and retains a small woody debris. Functionally, LWD dissipates stream

Table 3.3. Stream morphology and substrates in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed as compared to ODFW benchmark values. Benchmark values for stream habitat conditions have been provided in Table 3.1. Data were collected by ODFW.

| Stream | Reach | Stream Miles | Gradient (%) | Pool Frequency (Channel Width between pools) | Percent Pools | Residual Pool Depth (m) | Gravel in Riffles (% area) |
|-------------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|--|---------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| Big Creek (Lower) | 1 | 3.7 | 0.1 | 8.3 | 75.6 | 9.6 | 54.0 |
| | 2 | 2.6 | 0.5 | 5.4 | 45.9 | 1.3 | 21.0 |
| | 3 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 3.5 | 30.5 | 1.0 | 24.0 |
| | 4 | 3.9 | 1.2 | 11.5 | 10.4 | 1.0 | 24.0 |
| Big Creek (Upper) | 5 | 6.3 | 2.3 | 1.6 | 54.9 | 0.9 | 27.0 |
| | 6 | 6.4 | 1.5 | 3.2 | 46.9 | 0.7 | 28.0 |
| | 7 | 8.1 | 1.6 | 3.8 | 46.8 | 0.7 | 26.0 |
| | 8 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 28.5 | 0.4 | 25.0 |
| 9 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 57.8 | 0.4 | 26.0 | |
| Big Noise Creek | 1 | 8.6 | 5.1 | 20.4 | 31.5 | 0.4 | 18.0 |
| Coon Creek | 1 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 38.7 | 0.4 | 31.0 |
| | 2 | 2.0 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 43.3 | 0.5 | 33.0 |
| | 3 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 2 | 62.4 | 0.5 | 29.0 |
| Elk Creek | 1 | 2.2 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 34.5 | 0.4 | 36.0 |
| | 2 | 2.3 | 3.3 | 3.7 | 44.9 | 0.6 | 38.0 |
| | 3 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 48.9 | 0.5 | 40.0 |
| | 4 | 4.1 | 6.3 | 3.6 | 45.3 | 0.4 | 37.0 |
| Gnat Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 3.4 | 43.2 | 0.4 | 32.0 |
| | 2 | 2.4 | 1.5 | 2.8 | 37.7 | 0.9 | 25.0 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 39.0 | 0.8 | 26.0 |
| | 4 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 3.4 | 26.1 | 0.8 | 24.0 |
| | 5 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 5.9 | 16.0 | 0.7 | 28.0 |
| | 6 | 15.0 | 6.0 | 9.8 | 7.6 | 0.8 | 23.0 |
| | 7 | 1.3 | 5.3 | 4.2 | 11.0 | 0.4 | 30.0 |
| | 8 | 5.1 | 6.6 | 10.2 | 11.5 | 0.4 | 28.0 |
| Loowit Creek | 3 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 11.4 | 7.4 | 0.3 | 29.0 |
| | 4 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 8.8 | 11.6 | 0.3 | 45.0 |
| Mill Creek | 1 | 4.7 | 9.1 | 17.3 | 6.8 | 0.4 | 30.0 |
| Mud Creek | 1 | 0.3 | 5.5 | 10.5 | 12.7 | 0.5 | 30.0 |
| | 2 | 0.8 | 4.1 | 6.8 | 47.3 | 0.4 | 33.0 |
| | 3 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 10.3 | 13.4 | 0.4 | 24.0 |
| | 4 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 11.5 | 7.3 | 0.4 | 23.0 |
| | 5 | 4.4 | 9.7 | 8.6 | 24.0 | 0.4 | 31.0 |
| Peterson Creek | 1 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 219.4 | 11.8 | 0.0 | 4.0 |
| | 2 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 20.6 | 47.5 | 0.4 | 8.0 |
| | 3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 97.3 | 1.4 | 3.0 |
| | 4 | 1.4 | 6.4 | 37.5 | 13.4 | 0.3 | 25.0 |
| Pigpen Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 3.3 | 5.9 | 17.8 | 0.4 | 27.0 |
| | 2 | 6.3 | 8.8 | 10.6 | 15.1 | 0.4 | 31.0 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 3.7 | 13.5 | 13.8 | 0.3 | 55.0 |
| | 4 | 0.2 | 8.6 | 131.6 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 44.0 |
| Rock Creek | 1 | 13.3 | 7.4 | 29.4 | 4.7 | 0.6 | 22.0 |
| Supply Creek | 1 | 5.1 | 4.2 | 11 | 64.3 | 0.6 | 17.0 |
| | = Desirable | | = Undesirable | | = Moderate | | |

energy, retains gravel and sediments, increases stream sinuosity and length, slows the nutrient cycling process, and provides diverse habitat for aquatic organisms (Bischoff 2000, BLM 1996). LWD is most abundant in intermediate-sized channels in third and fourth-order streams. In fifth-order and larger streams, the channel width is generally wider than a typical piece of LWD, and therefore, LWD is not likely to remain stable in the channel. In wide channels LWD is more likely to be found along the edge of the channel.

In general, most surveyed streams lacked LWD pieces, volume, and key pieces (over 60 cm dbh and 10 m in length; Table 3.4). Big Noise, Coon, Elk, and Mud Creeks had moderate to desirable conditions in pieces and volume of wood, but lacked key pieces. Riparian conditions followed this trend, with most streams not having sufficient conifers in the riparian zones (Table 3.5). Surveyed streams in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed had poor instream large woody debris, most likely as a result of very few old conifers growing in the riparian areas.

3.2.3 Shade

Shade conditions in the streams surveyed were generally desirable. Only 4 out of the 41 reaches surveyed had undesirable conditions (Table 3.5). Riparian conifer conditions were undesirable in most reaches. Much of the streamside shade may come from hardwood stands such as alder, or other vegetation.

3.3 Riparian Conditions

The riparian zone is the area along streams, rivers and other water bodies where there is direct interaction between the aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems. The riparian zone ecosystem is one of the most highly valued and highly threatened in the United States (Johnson and McCormick 1979; National Research Council 1995, in Kauffman et al. 1997). Riparian vegetation is an important element of a healthy stream system. It provides bank stability, controls erosion, moderates water temperature, provides food for aquatic organisms and large woody debris to increase aquatic habitat diversity, filters surface runoff to reduce the amount of sediments and pollutants that enter the stream, provides wildlife habitat, dissipates flow of energy, and stores water during floods (Bischoff 2000). Natural and human degradation of riparian zones diminishes their ability to provide these critical ecosystem functions.

| Table 3.4. Large woody debris conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed as compared to ODFW habitat benchmark values. Benchmark values for stream habitat conditions have been provided in Table 3.1. Data were collected by ODFW. | | | | | | |
|--|-------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| Stream | Reach | Stream Miles | Gradient (%) | Woody Debris | | |
| | | | | # Pieces / 100m | Volume (m ³ / 100m) | # Key Pieces / 100m |
| Big Creek (Lower) | 1 | 3.7 | 0.1 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.6 | 0.5 | 5.8 | 2.8 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 10.1 | 5.0 | 0.2 |
| | 4 | 3.9 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 0.0 |
| Big Creek (Upper) | 5 | 6.3 | 2.3 | 31.4 | 36.5 | 0.0 |
| | 6 | 6.4 | 1.5 | 21.4 | 16.9 | 0.0 |
| | 7 | 8.1 | 1.6 | 21.3 | 35.9 | 0.0 |
| | 8 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 63.5 | 105.0 | 0.0 |
| | 9 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 57.8 | 135.0 | 0.0 |
| Big Noise Creek | 1 | 8.6 | 5.1 | 26.7 | 35.3 | 1.4 |
| Coon Creek | 1 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 43.1 | 80.6 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.0 | 3.8 | 65.0 | 162.2 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 69.0 | 164.0 | 0.0 |
| Elk Creek | 1 | 2.2 | 3.7 | 50.3 | 87.2 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.3 | 3.3 | 57.0 | 138.5 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 57.4 | 166.1 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 4.1 | 6.3 | 85.3 | 239.7 | 0.0 |
| Gnat Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | 20.2 | 13.1 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.4 | 1.5 | 18.5 | 23.7 | 1.0 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 30.8 | 33.4 | 1.9 |
| | 4 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 17.6 | 10.7 | 0.0 |
| | 5 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 22.2 | 16.1 | 0.3 |
| | 6 | 15.0 | 6 | 26.6 | 41.5 | 1.9 |
| | 7 | 1.3 | 5.3 | 33.4 | 68.7 | 2.9 |
| | 8 | 5.1 | 6.6 | 30.3 | 45.7 | 1.0 |
| Loowit Creek | 3 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Mill Creek | 1 | 4.7 | 9.1 | 32.5 | 56.1 | 1.9 |
| Mud Creek | 1 | 0.3 | 5.5 | 17.3 | 15.2 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 0.8 | 4.1 | 34.4 | 20.5 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 47.5 | 46.1 | 0.6 |
| | 4 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 30.6 | 63.6 | 0.6 |
| | 5 | 4.4 | 9.7 | 63.0 | 138.7 | 2.6 |
| Peterson Creek | 1 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 4.6 | 8.9 | 0.6 |
| | 3 | 0.1 | 0 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 1.4 | 6.4 | 9.0 | 19.6 | 0.8 |
| Pigpen Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 3.3 | 20.2 | 15.5 | 0.4 |
| | 2 | 6.3 | 8.8 | 47.5 | 64.0 | 1.5 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 3.7 | 33.8 | 60.6 | 0.8 |
| | 4 | 0.2 | 8.6 | 63.6 | 124.5 | 5.2 |
| Rock Creek | 1 | 13.3 | 7.4 | 25.1 | 35.3 | 1.1 |
| Supply Creek | 1 | 5.1 | 4.2 | 18.1 | 24.4 | 0.6 |
| | | | | | = Desirable | |
| | | | | | = Undesirable | |
| | | | | | | = Moderate |

Table 3.5. Riparian conifers in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed as compared to ODFW habitat benchmark values. Benchmark values for stream habitat conditions have been provided in Table 3.1. Data were collected by ODFW.

| Stream | Reach | Stream Miles | Gradient (%) | Width (m) | Shade (%) | # Conifers > 20 in dbh per 1,000 ft stream length | # Conifers > 35 in dbh per 1,000 ft stream length |
|-------------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|---|---|
| Big Creek (Lower) | 1 | 3.7 | 0.1 | 9.4 | 67 | 42.2 | 42.2 |
| | 2 | 2.6 | 0.5 | 9.0 | 64 | 60.3 | 60.3 |
| | 3 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 6.7 | 82 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 3.9 | 1.2 | 9.3 | 76 | 24.1 | 24.1 |
| Big Creek (Upper) | 5 | 6.3 | 2.3 | 10.1 | 89 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 6 | 6.4 | 1.5 | 8.9 | 78 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 7 | 8.1 | 1.6 | 7.7 | 83 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 8 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 89 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 9 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 100 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Big Noise Creek | 1 | 8.6 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 67 | 168.9 | 132.7 |
| Coon Creek | 1 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 86 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.0 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 91 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 4.1 | 66 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Elk Creek | 1 | 2.2 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 90 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 2.3 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 82 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 3.6 | 91 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 4.1 | 6.3 | 3.0 | 95 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Gnat Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 6.6 | 87 | 36.2 | 36.2 |
| | 2 | 2.4 | 1.5 | 8.3 | 87 | 54.3 | 36.2 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 6.9 | 82 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 7.6 | 81 | 120.7 | 120.7 |
| | 5 | 3.2 | 2.8 | 7.1 | 79 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 6 | 15.0 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 94 | 36.2 | 30.2 |
| | 7 | 1.3 | 5.3 | 3.4 | 98 | 60.3 | 60.3 |
| | 8 | 5.1 | 6.6 | 2.8 | 97 | 72.4 | 66.4 |
| Loowit Creek | 3 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 94 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 1.9 | 92 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Mill Creek | 1 | 4.7 | 9.1 | 2.5 | 91 | 23.0 | 23.0 |
| Mud Creek | 1 | 0.3 | 5.5 | 2.8 | 90 | 30.0 | 30.0 |
| | 2 | 0.8 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 48 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 3 | 1.2 | 5.2 | 2.7 | 58 | 20.0 | 20.0 |
| | 4 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 2.9 | 76 | 81.0 | 81.0 |
| | 5 | 4.4 | 9.7 | 3.3 | 79 | 54.0 | 54.0 |
| Peterson Creek | 1 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 2.4 | 34 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 91 | 244.0 | 183.0 |
| | 3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 12.3 | 43 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 4 | 1.4 | 6.4 | 1.4 | 91 | 137.0 | 137.0 |
| Pigpen Creek | 1 | 0.7 | 3.3 | 4.1 | 81 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | 2 | 6.3 | 8.8 | 3.2 | 86 | 16.0 | 16.0 |
| | 3 | 0.4 | 3.7 | 2.8 | 82 | 224.0 | 244.0 |
| | 4 | 0.2 | 8.6 | 2.5 | 93 | 91.0 | 91.0 |
| Rock Creek | 1 | 13.3 | 7.4 | 3.1 | 95 | 144.8 | 138.8 |
| Supply Creek | 1 | 5.1 | 4.2 | 6.8 | 71 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | = Desirable | | = Undesirable | | | = Moderate | |

The Clatsop County GIS office provided digital orthophotos taken in 1994 for all of Clatsop County. The riparian assessment was performed using ArcInfo software. A stream channel data layer was overlaid on the orthophotos and a buffer was drawn on each side of the streams. The vegetation composition and continuity were assessed within this buffer.

The riparian zone is the primary natural source of large woody debris. The riparian assessment used two buffer widths for the evaluation of streamside vegetation. These two widths (RA1 and RA2) were based on ecoregion and side slope constraint and represent the area most likely to deliver large woody debris into the stream channel. The RA2 width was always 100 feet. RA1 widths are shown in Table 3.6.

| Constraint | RA1 Width (ft) | | |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| | Coastal Lowlands | Coastal Uplands | Willapa Hills |
| Unconstrained | 25 | 75 | 75 |
| Moderately Constrained | 25 | 50 | 50 |
| Constrained | 25 | 25 | 25 |

3.3.1 Large Woody Debris Recruitment Potential

Riparian vegetation was categorized as having a high, moderate, and low potential for large woody debris recruitment. Vegetation classes defined as coniferous or mixed in the large class (>24 inch dbh) had a high potential for LWD recruitment. Coniferous or mixed vegetation in the medium size class (12-24 inch dbh), and hardwoods in the medium to large class, had moderate potential for LWD recruitment.

LWD recruitment potential was low to moderate in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Table 3.7). Only the Big Creek subwatershed had a small proportion (2 percent) in the high category. Six out of the 12 subwatersheds had greater than 40 percent of the riparian areas in a poor LWD recruitment situation (Figure 3.2). These conditions are likely the result of heavy historical clearcutting for timber in the watersheds, generally leaving the forests in a regenerative state (small to medium conifers; Table 1.2). Several of the lower elevation subwatersheds (Bear Creek, Marys Creek, Warren Slough) had riparian wetlands accounting for 15 to 26 percent of the riparian areas. Although wetlands may or may not contribute LWD to the stream channel depending on the wetland type, they do provide several important habitat features such as back

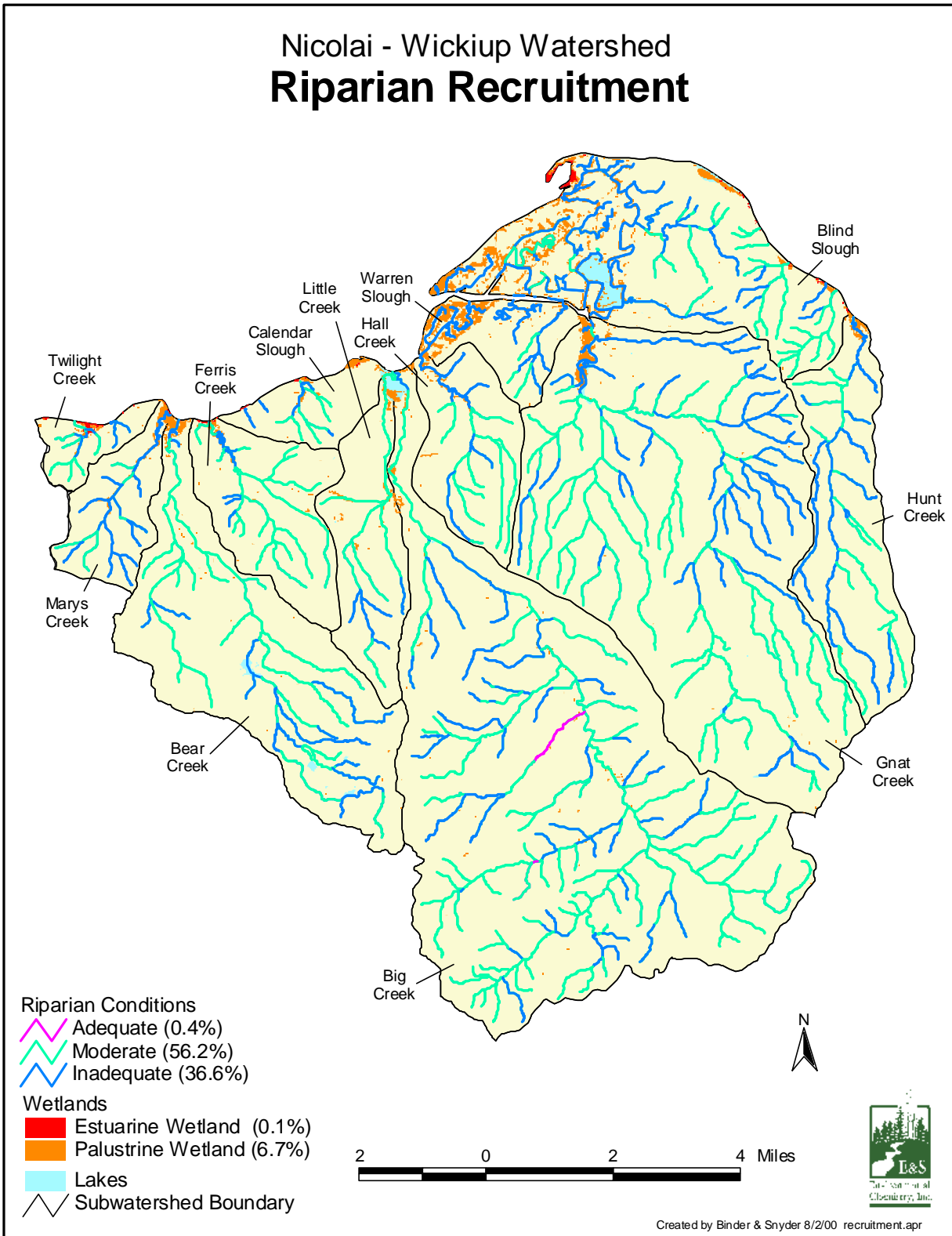


Figure 3.2. Large woody debris recruitment potential in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were developed from aerial photo interpretation conducted by E&S Environmental Chemistry, Inc. Photos used were black and white and taken in 1994.

| Table 3.7. Potential wood recruitment in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, based on aerial photo interpretation conducted by E&S. | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Total Stream Miles | Inadequate (%) | Moderate (%) | Adequate (%) | Estuarine Wetlands (%) | Palustrine Wetlands (%) |
| Bear Creek | 33 | 27.9 | 71.1 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 0.0 |
| Big Creek | 91 | 30.1 | 67.2 | 1.6 | 0.00 | 0.0 |
| Blind Slough | 46 | 42.8 | 31.9 | 0.0 | 0.08 | 25.2 |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | 36.2 | 56.8 | 0.0 | 0.73 | 6.3 |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | 27.8 | 56.9 | 0.0 | 6.35 | 9.0 |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | 16.9 | 74.0 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 9.1 |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | 39.7 | 58.4 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 1.9 |
| Hall Creek | 14 | 26.9 | 65.7 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 7.4 |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | 51.7 | 46.5 | 0.0 | 0.07 | 1.8 |
| Little Creek | 11 | 30.9 | 60.0 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 9.0 |
| Marys Creek | 10 | 67.9 | 16.9 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 15.2 |
| Warren Slough | 10 | 57.1 | 17.1 | 0.0 | 0.00 | 25.9 |
| Total | 345 | 36.6 | 56.2 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 6.7 |

channels and cover. Many of these wetlands are diked and disconnected from the stream limiting access to this habitat. Diking and wetlands is further discussed below in the wetland section (Section 3.6).

3.3.2 Stream Shading

Riparian vegetation provides shade that helps control stream temperature in the summer. While shade will not actually cool a stream, riparian vegetation blocks solar radiation before it reaches the stream and prevents the stream from heating (Bischoff 2000, Beschta 1997, Boyd and Sturdevant 1997, Beschta et al. 1987). The shading ability of the riparian zone is determined by the quality and quantity of vegetation present. The wider the riparian zone and the taller and more dense the vegetation, the better the shading ability (Beschta 1997, Boyd and Sturdevant 1997). Current shade conditions for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed were estimated from the aerial photo interpretation.

Stream shading conditions for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed were generally good across the watershed. This result is similar to the results from the stream surveys (Table 3.8). High

| Table 3.8. Stream shading conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, based on aerial photo interpretation conducted by E&S. | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|-------|----------|--------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Total Stream Miles | % Low | % Medium | % High | Estuarine Wetlands (%) | Palustrine Wetlands (%) |
| Bear Creek | 33 | 5.0 | 11 | 84 | 0.00 | 0.0 |
| Big Creek | 91 | 11 | 17 | 72 | 0.00 | 0.0 |
| Blind Slough | 46 | 23 | 17 | 34 | 0.08 | 25.2 |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | 7.0 | 29 | 57 | 0.73 | 6.3 |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | 14 | 22 | 50 | 6.35 | 9.0 |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | 0.25 | 26 | 65 | 0.00 | 9.1 |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | 6.2 | 14 | 78 | 0.00 | 1.9 |
| Hall Creek | 14 | 12 | 13 | 67 | 0.00 | 7.4 |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | 2.5 | 14 | 82 | 0.07 | 1.8 |
| Little Creek | 11 | 11 | 24 | 56 | 0.00 | 9.0 |
| Marys Creek | 10 | 2.5 | 18 | 64 | 0.00 | 15.2 |
| Warren Slough | 10 | 12 | 37 | 25 | 0.00 | 25.9 |
| Total | 345 | 10 | 17 | 66 | 0.10 | 6.7 |

shading conditions ranged from 25 to 84 percent of the total stream lengths in the subwatersheds. The lower elevation subwatersheds (Bear Creek, Marys Creek, Warren Slough) had large proportions of wetlands in the riparian areas, ranging from 16 to 25 percent (Figure 3.3). Wetlands can provide shade from vegetation, although many of these wetlands are diked and disconnected from the stream as a result of development and agriculture. Shading values of wetlands need to be evaluated on a wetland by wetland basis.

3.4 Fish Passage Barriers

Stream channels are often blocked by poorly designed road culverts at road crossings. This has resulted in significant loss of fish habitat. Anadromous fish migrate upstream and downstream in search of food, habitat, shelter, spawning beds, and better water quality. Fish populations can be significantly limited if they lose access to key habitat areas. One study estimated the loss of fish habitat from forest roads to be 13 percent of total coho summer rearing habitat (Beechie et al. 1994). Another study reported as many as 75 percent of culverts in some forested drainages are either impediments or outright blockages to fish passage based on surveys completed in Washington State (Conroy 1997). Surveys of county and state roads in Oregon

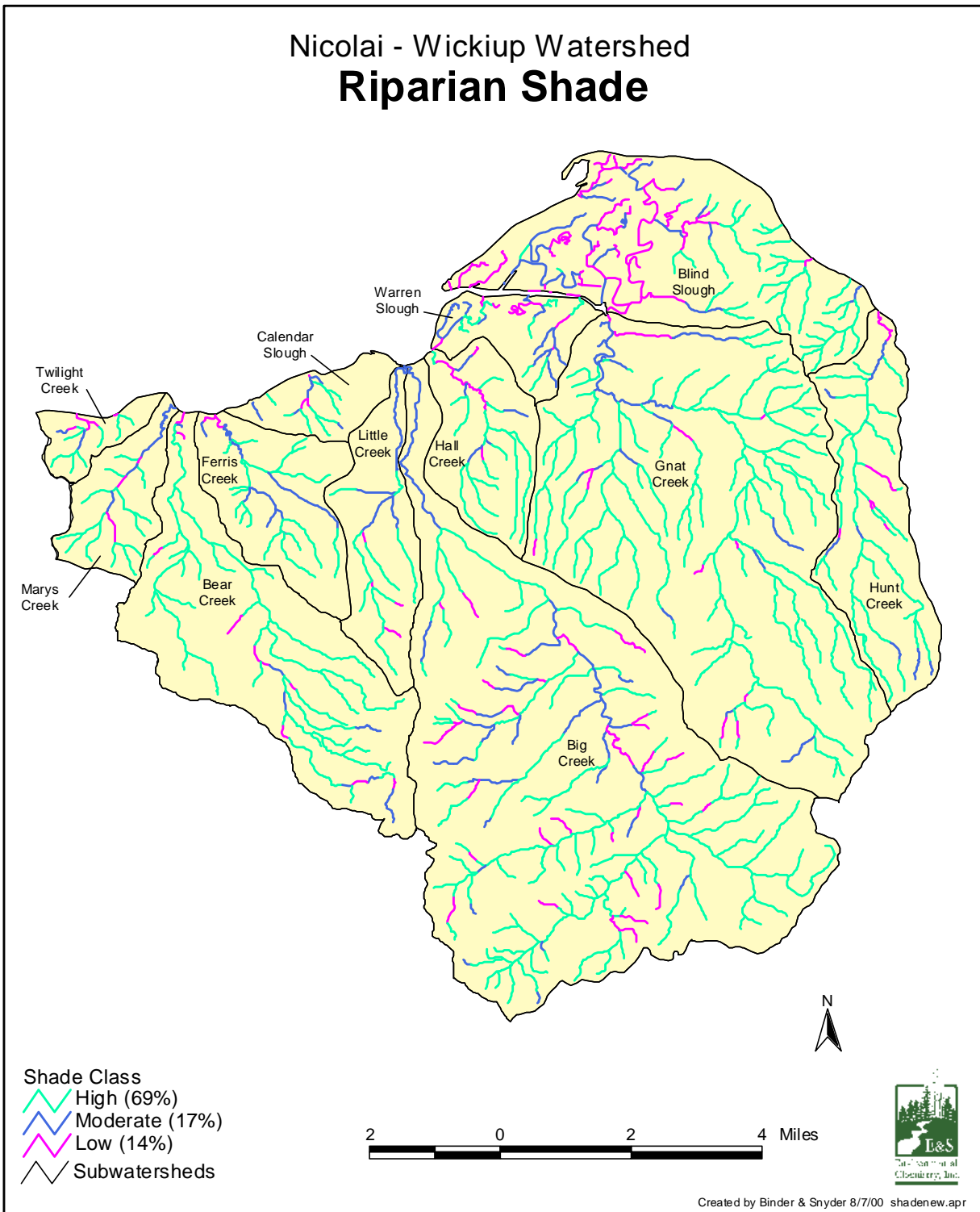


Figure 3.3. Riparian shade conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were developed from aerial photo interpretation conducted by E&S Environmental Chemistry, Inc. Photos used were black and white and taken in 1994.

have found hundreds of culverts that at least partially block fish passage. Potential effects from the loss of fish passage include loss of genetic diversity by isolation of reaches, loss of range for juvenile anadromous and resident fish and loss of resident fish from extreme flood or drought events (prevents return).

3.4.1 Culverts

Culverts can pose several types of problems including excess height, excessive water velocity, insufficient water depth in culvert, disorienting flow patterns and lack of resting pools between culverts. Culverts can also limit fish species during certain parts of their life cycles and not others. For example, a culvert may be passable to larger adult anadromous fish and not juveniles. Culverts may also act as passage barriers only during particular environmental conditions such as high flow events. Because of these variable efforts, it is important to understand the interactions of habitat conditions and life stage for anadromous fish.

There are 424 stream/road crossings in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Table 3.9). ODFW conducted a survey of culverts for state and county roads. Of the 38 culverts surveyed by ODFW, 15 did not meet standards suggesting that they block access to critical habitat areas. Many of these impassable culverts occurred in the lower portions of the watershed blocking access to rather large areas of the watershed (Figure 3.4). The data did not identify whether the culverts were impassable under all environmental conditions (i.e. low flow, high flow). Current data suggest that impassable culverts are a widespread problem in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Culverts blocking access to critical fish habitat areas need to be upgraded to improve fish passage. Culverts on Willamette Industry land are currently being evaluated and either repaired or replaced (see section 6.4.1).

3.4.2 Natural Barriers

There are several natural fish passage barriers that occur in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. In the Bear Creek subwatershed there is a 4 to 5 foot falls that blocks passage at low flows (Figure 3.3). There are a series of falls above the Gnat Creek fish hatchery which blocks passage to the upper most reaches of Gnat Creek. Hunt Creek also has a falls that blocks fish passage, approximately a quarter mile above the confluence with the Columbia River.

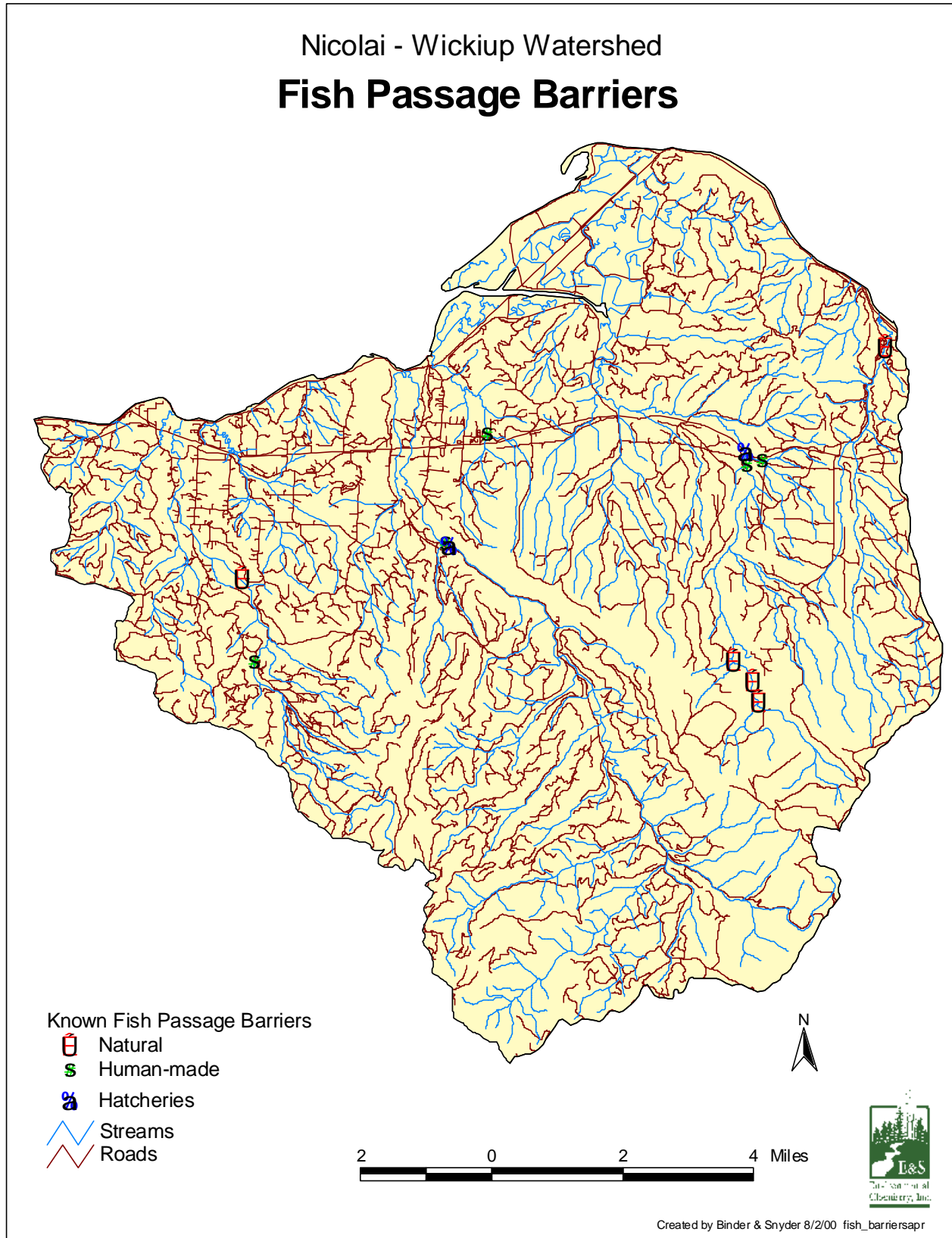


Figure 3.4. Road/stream crossings and known fish passage barriers in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed

Table 3.9. Culverts and road/stream crossings in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Road/stream crossings were generated using GIS. Culvert data were provided by ODFW.

| Subwatershed | Area (mi ²) | Surveyed Culverts | | Road-Stream Crossings | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| | | # Surveyed | # Impassable | (#) | (#/mi ²) |
| Bear Creek | 12 | 0 | 0 | 55 | 4.4 |
| Big Creek | 33 | 0 | 0 | 104 | 3.1 |
| Blind Slough | 12 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 3.4 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5.9 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | 4 | 1 | 17 | 10.0 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | 10 | 6 | 40 | 8.0 |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 4 | 4 | 92 | 3.4 |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | 4 | 4 | 27 | 6.3 |
| Hunt Creek | 7.0 | 5 | 4 | 42 | 6.0 |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 4 | 3 | 27 | 6.1 |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 4.8 |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 2.4 |
| Total | | 38 | 15 | 424 | |

3.4.3 Other Barriers

Both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek fish hatcheries act as fish passage barriers. The Big Creek hatchery prevents access to 83 mi of streams that could potentially provide habitat. Blockage occurs as a result of a water intake on the mainstem of Big Creek. Mill Creek is also blocked by the Mill Creek Dam maintained by the fish hatchery. Blockage at the Gnat Creek hatchery is not quite so significant in that there are a series of falls approximately 3 to 4 mi upstream. However, there may be some potentially significant habitat features in the area between the hatchery and the falls. The east fork of Gnat Creek is blocked by a road fill as a result of highway road construction.

3.5 Channel Modifications

In-channel structures and activities such as dams, dredging or filling can adversely affect aquatic organisms and their associated habitats by changing the physical character of the stream. These changes can ultimately lead to a change in the community composition of instream

aquatic biota. Identifying channel modification activities can address how human-created channel disturbances affect channel morphology, aquatic habitat, and hydrologic functioning.

3.5.1 Channelization and Dredging

Channelization and dredging have not been reported to occur in the streams of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, although there has been some dredging in the Columbia River Estuary. A Dredged Material Disposal Site is located at the mouth of Hunt Creek.

3.5.2 Diking

Substantial portions of the lower Nicolai-Wickiup watershed have been drained and diked to utilize the rich fertile soils often associated with floodplains (Figure 3.5). The most extensive diking has occurred in the Warren Slough and Fertile Valley Creek subwatersheds. Disconnecting the floodplain from the stream can lead to stream simplification and downcutting due to increased water velocities, resulting in deteriorated habitat conditions. Additionally, disconnection from the floodplain can lead to changes in the biotic structure of the stream by limiting nutrient and organic material exchanges between the stream and floodplain.

3.5.3 Log Storage

Log drives were conducted in the Big Creek watershed using winter high flows to float timber into the Columbia Estuary (Envirosphere Company 1981). Small lots of logs were floated for about 12 mi of Big Creek (1892). Log storage can lead to losses of benthic habitats due to physical destruction as a result of log grounding and water quality degradation as a result of log leachate and debris. Logs are no longer stored in these waters.

3.5.4 Splash Damming

Only one splash dam was found in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. The splash dam was located on Hall Creek about 1.5 mi upstream. This dam may be acting as a fish passage barrier and warrants further investigation.

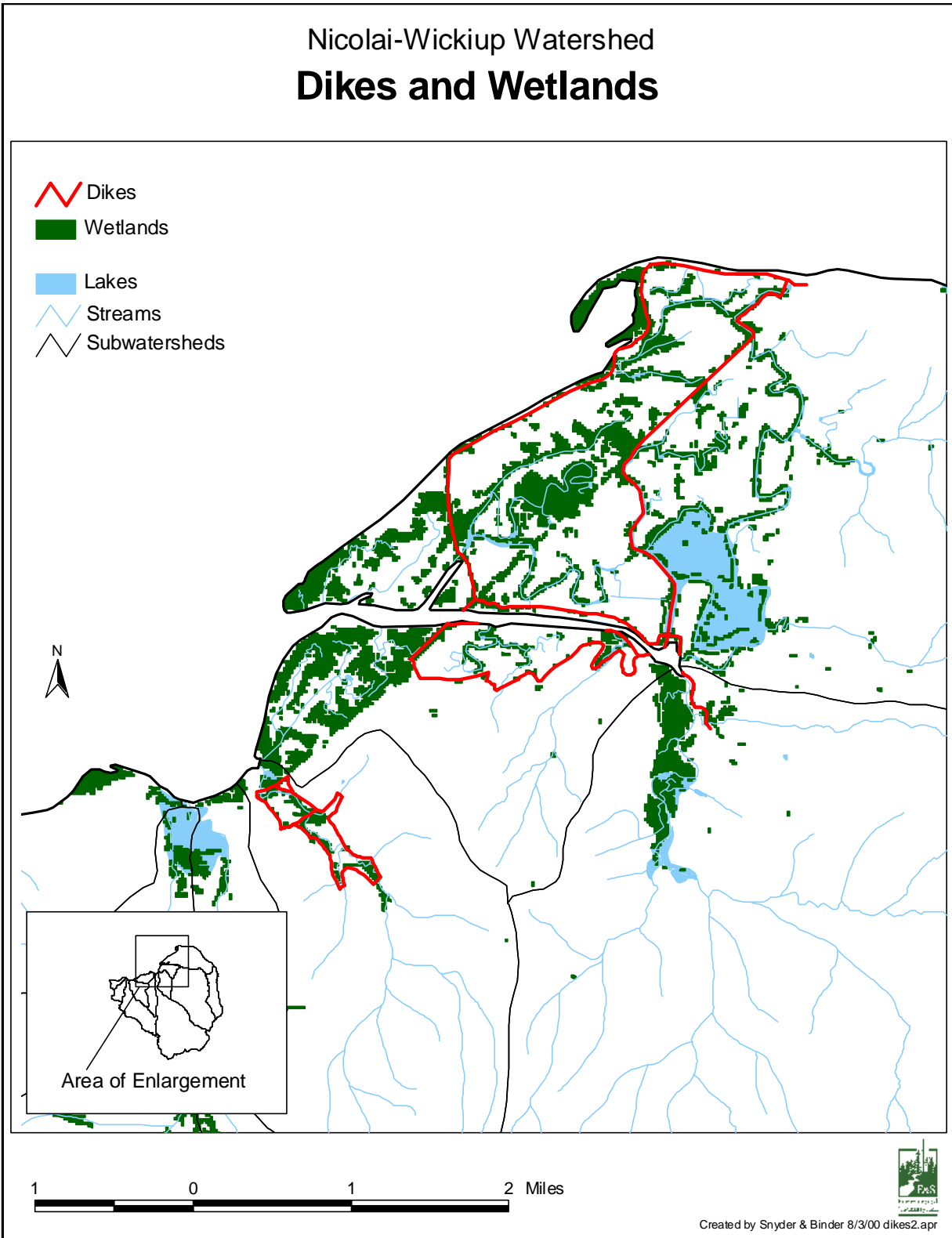


Figure 3.5. Location of dikes and wetlands in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Dike data were provided by the Army Corps of Engineers.

3.5.5 Railroads

Railroads were used extensively throughout Clatsop County, to move logged timber to processing centers. Many of these railroads would follow the rivers and streams. Consequently, construction of the railroads led to dikes, bridges and other channel modifications that have impacted the habitats of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. More detailed information the railroads in Clatsop County can be found in Appendix A.

3.6 Wetlands

Wetlands contribute critical functions to a watershed's health such as water quality improvement, flood attenuation, groundwater recharge and discharge, and fish and wildlife habitat. Because of the importance of these functions, wetlands are regulated by both State and Federal agencies. Determining the location and extent of wetlands within a watershed is critical to understanding watershed processes.

3.6.1 National Wetlands Inventory

The primary source for wetland information used in this assessment was National Wetlands Inventory maps created by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. Very few of the NWI quads were digitized for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, so information was generally derived from hard copy NWI maps. NWI Maps were created from interpretation of 1:58,000-scale aerial photos that were taken in August of 1981. It is important to note that NWI wetland maps are based on aerial photo interpretation and not on ground-based inventories of wetlands. On-the-ground inventories of wetlands often identify extensive wetlands that are not on the NWI maps.

3.6.2 Wetland Extent and Types

Because digital NWI data were not available, wetland extent was calculated from the refined land use coverage generated as a part of this study. Wetlands were identified from a 1992 LANDSAT image obtained from CREST and C-CAP. The image was classified and field verified by C-CAP using local wetland inventories and NWI data.

Wetlands are an important landscape feature in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, representing a little more than 2 percent of the watershed (Table 3.10). The predominant wetland type is palustrine wetlands. Palustrine wetlands are defined as all non-tidal wetlands dominated by trees, shrubs, and persistent emergents and all wetlands that occur in tidal areas with a salinity

| Table 3.10 Wetland area in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Wetland area was calculated from the refined land use cover (see Chapter 1). | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| Subwatershed | Total area mi ² | Estuarine Wetland % | Palustrine Wetland % |
| Bear Creek | 12.43 | 0.01 | 0.66 |
| Big Creek | 33.17 | - | 0.36 |
| Blind Slough | 11.67 | 0.47 | 9.72 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.03 | 0.47 | 3.46 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.68 | 2.81 | 2.73 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.01 | 0.08 | 1.45 |
| Gnat Creek | 27.21 | - | 0.74 |
| Hall Creek | 4.30 | - | 1.77 |
| Hunt Cr. | 7.03 | 0.01 | 0.79 |
| Little Creek | 4.41 | - | 2.13 |
| Marys Creek | 2.90 | 0.07 | 3.22 |
| Warren Slough | 2.52 | - | 15.46 |
| Total | 114.35 | 0.10 | 2.13 |

below 0.5 parts per thousand (Mitsch and Gosselink 1993, Cowardin et al. 1979). Estuarine wetlands represent less than 0.5 percent of the watershed and are concentrated in the Twilight Creek subwatershed. Estuarine wetlands are defined as deepwater tidal habitats and adjacent tidal wetlands that are usually semiclosed by land but have open, partially obstructed, or sporadic access to the ocean and in which ocean saltwater is at least occasionally mixed with freshwater (Mitsch and Gosselink 1993, Cowardin et al. 1979).

The Cowardin classification system is used by the NWI and others in classifying wetlands based on wetland type, vegetation or substrate type, and hydrology. The classification system is a hierarchical approach where the wetland is assigned to a system, subsystem, class, subclass, and water regime. The types and characteristics of wetlands in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed are shown in Table 3.11.

Wetland types are dominated by palustrine emergent wetlands generally located in the lower elevations of the watershed. Some higher elevation wetlands do exist and generally are forested and emergent wetlands. For example, Big Creek has a fair number of forested wetlands extending well into the headwaters. Gnat Creek has forested wetlands as high as 1,000 ft in elevation. Palustrine scrub-shrub wetlands are generally scattered throughout the watershed.

| Table 3.11. Common NWI wetland types located in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Wetland codes are from the Cowardin Wetland Classification used by NWI (Cowardin 1979). | | | |
|--|---------------|--------------------------|---|
| Code | System | Class | Water Regime |
| PSSC | P= palustrine | SS=Scrub/Shrub | C = Seasonally flooded |
| PEMF | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | F= Semipermanently flooded |
| PEMC | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | C = Seasonally flooded |
| PEMCh | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | C = Seasonally flooded h=Diked/impounded |
| PEMFb | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | F= Semipermanently flooded b= beaver |
| PFOA | P= palustrine | FO=Forested | A=Temporarily Flooded |
| PSSR | P= palustrine | SS=Scrub/Shrub | R=Seasonal/Tidal |
| PEMT | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | T=Semipermanent -tidal |
| PEMR | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | R=Seasonal/Tidal |
| PEMA | P= palustrine | EM=emergent | A=Temporarily Flooded |
| PUBH | P= palustrine | UB=Unconsolidated Bottom | H=Permanently Flooded |
| PUBHh | P= palustrine | UB=Unconsolidated Bottom | H=Permanently Flooded h=Diked/impounded |
| PSSY | P= palustrine | SS=Scrub/Shrub | Y=Saturated/Semipermanent/ Seasonal |
| PFOW | P= palustrine | FO=Forested | W=Intermittently Flooded |

3.6.3 Wetlands and Salmonids

Wetlands play an important role in the life cycles of salmonids (Lebovitz 1992, Shreffler et al. 1992, MacDonald et al.1987, Healey 1982, Simenstad et al. 1982). Estuarine wetlands provide holding and feeding areas for salmon smolts migrating out to the ocean. These estuarine wetlands also provide an acclimation area for smolts while they are adapting to marine environments. Riparian wetlands can reduce sediment loads by slowing down flood water, allowing sediments to fall out of the water column and accumulate (Mitsch and Gosselink 1993). Wetlands also provide cover and a food source in the form of a diverse aquatic invertebrate community. Backwater riparian wetlands also provide cover during high flow events, preventing juvenile salmon from being washed downstream.

Wetlands that intersect streams represent important salmonid habitats (WPN 1999, Lebovitz 1992). Stream lengths that ran through both estuarine and palustrine wetlands were calculated using GIS. Of the 688 mi of streams in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, 46 mi (6.7 percent) passed through or are a part of palustrine wetlands (Table 3.12; Figure 3.6). Most of these wetlands are concentrated in the lower elevations of the watershed including Blind Slough, Mary’s Creek and Warren Slough subwatersheds. These wetlands are of particular importance to salmonids in that they are connected to streams and are accessible for habitat utilization. It is important to note that wetland locations were generated from a LANDSAT image in GIS and need to be field verified to determine actual location. Additionally, it is unclear as to the current function of the wetlands, i.e are they modified or disconnected from the stream.

3.6.4 Filling and Diking of Wetlands

Wetlands have been one of the landscape features most impacted by human disturbances. In the Pacific Northwest, it is estimated that 75 percent of wetlands have been lost to human disturbances (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and Canadian Wildlife Service 1990). Somewhere

| Table 3.12. Percent stream channel length that intersect wetlands in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. | | | |
|---|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Total Stream Miles | Estuarine Wetlands (%) | Palustrine Wetlands (%) |
| Bear Creek | 33 | | |
| Big Creek | 91 | | |
| Blind Slough | 46 | 0.08 | 25.2 |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | 0.73 | 6.3 |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | 6.35 | 9.0 |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | 0.00 | 9.1 |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | 0.00 | 1.9 |
| Hall Creek | 14 | 0.00 | 7.4 |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | 0.07 | 1.8 |
| Little Creek | 11 | 0.00 | 9.0 |
| Marys Creek | 10 | 0.00 | 15.2 |
| Warren Slough | 10 | 0.00 | 25.9 |
| Total | 345 | 0.1 | 6.7 |

between 50 and 90 percent of tidal marshes in individual Oregon estuaries have been lost, most as a result of agricultural activities (Frenkel and Morlan 1991, Boulé and Bierly 1987). Loss of wetlands connected to the stream system can lead to salmonid habitat loss and loss of flood attenuation.

Wetlands in the lower elevations of the watershed have been diked and disconnected from the streams (Figure 3.5). The Blind Slough subwatershed is the most heavily impacted and is predominantly palustrine emergent wetlands that are farmed or used for grazing. The mouth of Hall Creek is also heavily diked, disconnecting the floodplain and local palustrine emergent wetlands. Many of these wetlands may have once been tidal estuarine wetlands that were disconnected as a result of draining the land using tidegates and dike construction. These practices remove the tidal influence, resulting in the loss of saltwater influences and leading to changes in the structure of the wetland.

3.7 Conclusions

Overall, data were insufficient to evaluate current fish passage problems in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Only a small number of culverts have been evaluated. ODFW conducted a survey of culverts for state and county roads. Of the 23 culverts surveyed by ODFW, 15 did not meet standards, suggesting that they block access to critical habitat areas. Many of these impassable culverts occurred in the lower portions of the watershed, blocking access to rather large areas of the watershed. The data did not identify whether the culverts were impassable under all environmental conditions (i.e. low flow, high flow). Current data suggests that impassable culverts are a widespread problem in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Culverts blocking access to critical fish habitat areas need to be upgraded to improve fish passage.

There are several natural fish passage barriers that occur in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. In the Bear Creek subwatershed there is a 4 to 5 ft falls that blocks passage at low flows. Hunt Creek also has a falls that blocks fish passage, approximately a quarter mile above the confluence with the Columbia River. These data need to be combined and mapped in a GIS data base. Culverts should be prioritized according to fish usage or need to be evaluated. A good starting point is the road /stream crossing coverage developed as a part of this assessment.

Both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek fish hatcheries act as fish passage barriers. The Big Creek hatchery prevents access to 83 mi of streams that could potentially provide habitat.

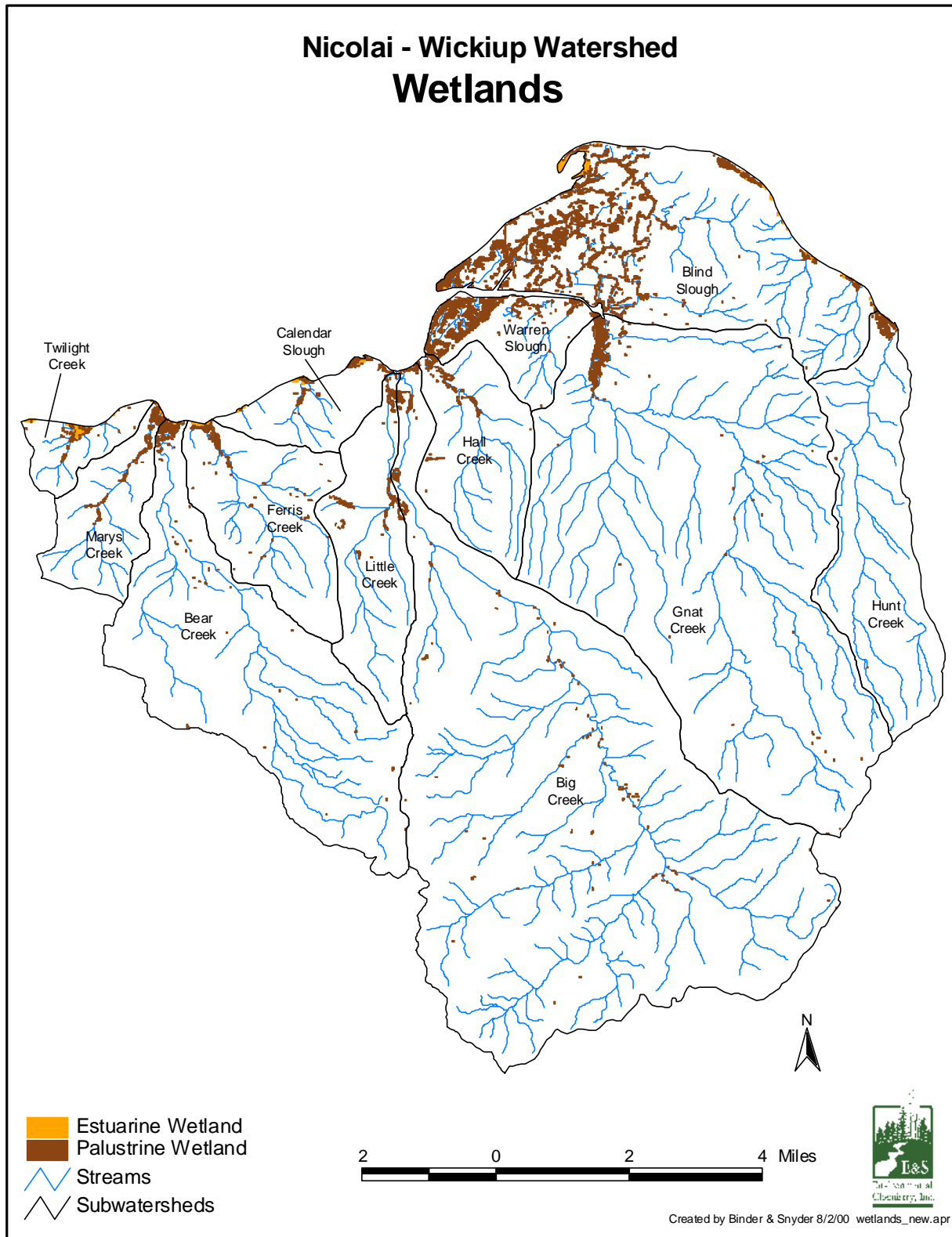


Figure 3.6. Wetlands and streams in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data shown are from the refined land use coverage (see Chapter 1).

Blockage occurs as a result of a water intake on the mainstem of Big Creek. Mill Creek is also blocked by the Mill Creek Dam, which is maintained by the fish hatchery. Blockage at the Gnat Creek hatchery is not quite so significant in that there are a series of falls approximately 3 to 4 mi upstream. However, there may be some potentially significant habitat features in the area between the hatchery and the falls. The east fork of Gnat Creek is blocked by a road fill as a result of highway road construction.

In general, data were lacking to evaluate current stream morphology. Most of the reaches that were surveyed by ODFW were above major fish blockages, including the Gnat Creek and Big Creek fish hatcheries. Overall, both Big Creek and Gnat Creek had good habitat conditions with moderate gravel and pool frequency. These areas could provide good spawning grounds for salmonids, especially coho, fall chinook, and winter steelhead. Restoration of habitat should focus in areas of current coho distribution, since coho is currently thought to be a natural run (ODFW 1995).

Streams generally had moderate instream LWD including key pieces, volume, and number of pieces. Much of this is probably a result of moderate riparian recruitment. Areas that lack LWD would benefit from riparian planting and instream LWD placement.

Estuarine wetlands were once common in the Columbia River estuary, including the Nicolai Wickiup watershed. Many of these wetlands have been diked, disconnecting them from saltwater influences and changing the structure of the wetland. All existing estuarine wetlands currently accessible to salmonids need to be protected or restored. Those wetlands disconnected by dikes need to be evaluated for potential restoration.

Palustrine wetlands are a dominant feature in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Stream side wetlands need to be protected especially those that are in current salmonid distributions. Streamside wetlands that have been disconnected due to diking need to be evaluated for restoration opportunities. Other wetlands should be protected for their roles in maintaining water quality, flood attenuation, and habitat.

CHAPTER 4 HYDROLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Human activities in a watershed can alter the natural hydrologic cycle, potentially causing changes in water quality and aquatic habitats. These types of changes in the landscape can increase or decrease the volume, size, and timing of runoff events and affect low flows by changing groundwater recharge. Some examples of human activities that can affect watershed hydrology are timber harvesting, urbanization, conversion of forested land to agriculture, and construction of road networks. The focus of the hydrologic analysis component of this assessment is to evaluate the potential impacts from land and water use on the hydrology of the watershed (WPN 1999). It is important to note that this assessment only provides a screening for potential hydrologic impacts based on current land use activities in a watershed. Identifying those activities that are actually affecting the hydrology of the watershed would require a more in-depth analysis and is beyond the scope of this assessment.

4.2 General Watershed Characteristics and Peak Flow Processes

Peak flows occur as water moves from the landscape into surface waters. Peak flows are a natural process in any stream and are characterized by the duration and volume of water during the rise and fall of a hydrograph. The primary peak flow generating process for the Coast Range and its associated ecoregions is rain events. The Coast Range generally develops very little snow pack. Snow pack that does develop in the coastal mountains is only on the highest peaks and is of short duration. Rain-on-snow events are infrequent in the Coast Range although these events have contributed to some of the major floods, including the floods of 1964 and 1996. These large floods are rare events, and it is unlikely that current land use practices have exacerbated the flooding effects from rain-on-snow events. Additionally, only two of the subwatersheds have mean elevations above 1000 ft in the rain-on-snow zone (Table 4.1). This hydrologic analysis focuses on the effects of land use practices on the hydrology of these watersheds, using rain events as the primary hydrologic process.

| Table 4.1. Topographic features and precipitation amounts for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed based on GIS calculations. Annual precipitation was estimated from the PRISM model (Daly 1994). | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Subwatershed | Subwatershed Area (mi ²) | Mean Elevation (ft) | Minimum Elevation (ft) | Maximum Elevation (ft) | Mean Annual Precipitation (in) |
| Big Creek | 33 | 1100 | 0 | 3010 | 100 |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 880 | 0 | 3010 | 75 |
| Blind Slough | 12 | 135 | 0 | 845 | 78 |
| Bear Creek | 12 | 835 | 0 | 2705 | 112 |
| Hunt Cr. | 7.0 | 1000 | 0 | 2490 | 70 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | 275 | 0 | 1085 | 98 |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 880 | 0 | 2245 | 99 |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | 310 | 0 | 1340 | 80 |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 185 | 0 | 560 | 95 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | 120 | 0 | 335 | 90 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | 95 | 0 | 360 | 89 |
| Total | 112 | 500 | 0 | 3010 | 90 |

4.3 Hydrologic Characterization

Discharge data is limited and there is currently no stream gage in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Historically, Big Creek, Little Creek, and Bear Creek were gaged (Table 4.2). At least a ten year period of record is needed for a gage to be considered representative (WPN 1999) and Big Creek was gaged for only five years. Consequently, Big Creek data will not be used in this analysis. The only subwatershed with mean daily flow data available was the Bear Creek subwatershed.

| Table 4.2. USGS gaging stations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. | | | | | |
|---|------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| Station Number | Station Name | Drainage Area (mi ²) | Datum (ft above NGVD) | Period of Record | Data Available |
| 14248500 | Big Creek near Knappa, OR | 32 | 100 | 1950-1955 | Peak Flow |
| 14248510 | Little Creek near Knappa, OR | 2 | 225 | 1972-1984 | Peak Flow |
| 14248700 | Bear Creek near Svenson, OR | 3 | 700 | 1965-1975 | Mean Daily Flow; Peak Flow |

The Bear Creek subwatershed is the city of Astoria's municipal watershed and contains three artificial water impoundment structures that influence stream flows: Bear Creek Reservoir and Middle and Wickiup Lakes. The USGS gage on Bear Creek was located below Middle and Wickiup lakes and drained approximately 3 sq. mi. of land. Discharge patterns for Bear Creek are typical of Oregon coastal watersheds with the majority of high flows and storm events occurring between the months of October and May (Figure 4.1). The summer season consists of base flow conditions with very few storm events. Summer base flow may be augmented by control structure releases to maintain adequate water supply to the city of Astoria.

Annual peak flow events for the Bear Creek subwatershed range between 81 and 342 cfs, with the largest event on record reaching 342 cfs, occurring on January 11, 1972. Although no flood stage was established for this gaging station, the Nehalem River discharge (32,600 cfs; gaged near Foss), exceeded flood stage by more than 13,000 cfs during this event. Consequently, it is possible that this was a flood event on Bear Creek as well. Establishing a flood stage for this gage would be useful monitor peak flows and flooding in this watershed.

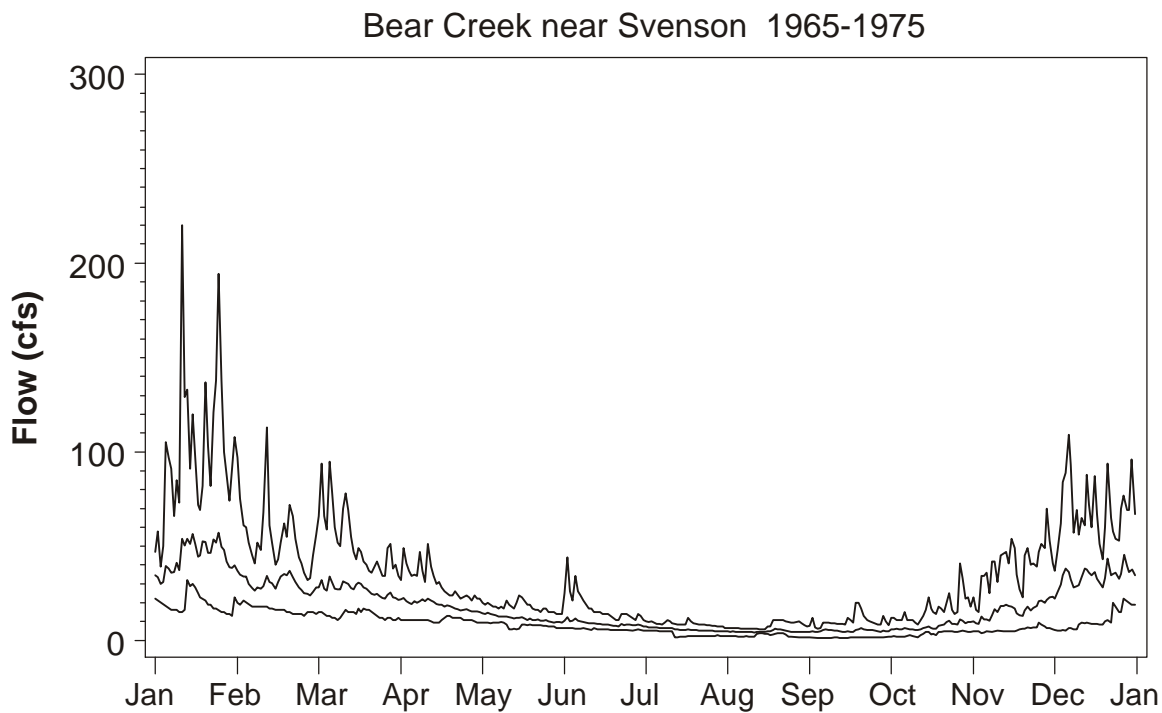


Figure 4.1. River discharge for the period of record. The top line is maximum mean daily flow, the center line is mean daily flow, and the bottom line is minimum mean daily flow. (Data from USGS)

4.4 Potential Land Use Impacts on Peak Flows

Increased peak flows as a result of human disturbances can have deleterious effects on aquatic habitats by increasing streambank erosion and scouring (ODFW 1997). Furthermore, increased peak flows can cause downcutting of channels, resulting in a disconnection from their floodplain. Once a stream is disconnected from its floodplain, the downcutting can be further exacerbated by increased flow velocities as a result of channelization.

All subwatersheds in this component were screened for potential land use practices that may be influencing the hydrologic process associated with these watersheds (WPN 1999). This screening process only deals with the most significant processes affected by land use (i.e runoff). There are four potential land use practices that can affect the hydrology of a watershed: forestry, agriculture and rangeland, forest and rural roads, and urban or rural residential development.

4.4.1 Forestry Practices

The forestry portion of this analysis focuses heavily on the effects of forestry practices, such as timber harvest, on the peak flows in a watershed. These effects are generally most noticeable during either spring snowmelt events or rain-on-snow events (WPN 1999, Naiman and Bilby 1998). Since the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is dominated by rain events, it is unlikely that forest harvest practices are influencing the peak flows of this watershed by increasing the effects of rain-on-snow events. However, because forest harvest practices are common in the watershed, there may be other effects on the watershed's hydrology such as reductions in evapotranspiration, increased infiltration and subsurface flow, and increased overland flow (Naiman and Bilby 1998). These changes may result in modified peak and low flows.

4.4.2 Agriculture and Rangeland

The largest effect on the hydrology of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed from agricultural land use is the draining and diking of wetlands. Agricultural land use is concentrated in the lower portions of the watershed. Historically, these floodplains were wetland areas that trapped rich sediments and accumulated plant material, resulting in rich fertile soils. Because of the economic value of these soils, these floodplains were drained and diked for farming purposes. Disconnecting the floodplain from the rivers has reduced the flood attenuations provided by the floodplain's capacity to store and impede peak flows. This has resulted in the downcutting of channels and increased flow velocities. Further studies evaluating the impacts of wetland loss on

the channel morphology and associated habitats would be useful to elucidate the magnitude of impacts associated with these changes. Further discussion of disconnection of the floodplain and wetland loss can be found in Chapter 3 (Aquatic and Riparian Habitats).

4.4.3 *Forest and Rural Roads*

Road construction associated with timber harvest and rural areas has been shown to increase wintertime peak flows of smaller floods in Oregon Coast Range watersheds (Hicks 1990, Harr 1983). This assessment uses a roaded area threshold of 8 percent of the total watershed area to screen for potential impacts on peak flows (increase >20 percent; WPN 1999). Watersheds with a greater than 8 percent roaded area are considered to have a high potential hydrologic impact, 4 to 8 percent have a moderate potential, and less than 4 percent have a low potential. Roaded area was calculated using a standard road width of 25 ft.

Only the Calendar Slough and Ferris Creek subwatersheds demonstrate a moderate potential for peak flow enhancement as a result of forest road construction (Table 4.3). Channel forms in the Ferris Creek subwatershed are dominated by confined channels, which account for approximately 76 percent of all channel types. There are fewer confined channels in the Calendar Slough subwatershed, which account for only 60 percent of the channel types. These confined channels may be more susceptible to increased peak flows because of a lack of floodplain attenuation. Increased peak flows in these confined channels may result in channel downcutting, thus reducing habitat quality. Further investigation is warranted.

Rural areas (includes agriculture and grassland) in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed currently represent only small portions of the watershed (<4 percent; Table 4.4). The Blind Slough subwatershed has a large rural area (27 percent), although the rural road densities are low (3 percent). Many of the current agriculture areas are zoned for residential development, so there is a potential for increased rural road densities in the future. Currently, the potential for peak flow enhancement from rural road density is low.

4.4.4 *Urban and Rural Residential Areas*

Developed areas in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed represent less than 1 percent of the total watershed area. It is unlikely that urban road densities and impervious areas are having significant impacts in the hydrology of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, although there may be

Table 4.3. Forest road summary for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed based on GIS calculations. The roads coverage data used for this analysis were obtained from the BLM (fire roads).

| Subwatershed | Subwatershed Area (mi ²) | Area Forested (mi ²) | Forest Roads (mi) | Roaded Area (mi ²)* | Percent Forested Area in Roads | Relative Potential Impact |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Bear Creek | 12.4 | 12.0 | 82 | 0.38 | 3.2 | low |
| Big Creek | 33.1 | 32.7 | 162 | 0.76 | 0.8 | low |
| Blind Slough | 11.7 | 7.2 | 56 | 0.26 | 3.6 | low |
| Columbia Slough | 6.7 | 5.5 | 51 | 0.24 | 4.4 | moderate |
| Ferris Creek | 4.7 | 3.8 | 33 | 0.16 | 4.1 | moderate |
| Gnat Creek | 27.2 | 26.8 | 120 | 0.56 | 2.1 | low |
| Hall Creek | 4.2 | 3.6 | 27 | 0.13 | 3.5 | low |
| Hunt Cr. | 7.0 | 6.9 | 42 | 0.20 | 2.8 | low |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 3.9 | 28 | 0.13 | 3.4 | low |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 2.8 | 19 | 0.09 | 3.3 | low |
| Total | 114.5 | 105.2 | 620 | 2.91 | 2.8 | low |

* Width used to calculate roaded area was 25 ft.

Table 4.4. Rural road summary for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed based on GIS calculations. The roads coverage data used for this analysis were obtained from the BLM (fire roads).

| Subwatershed | Subwatershed Area (mi ²) | Rural Area (mi ²) | Rural Roads (mi) | Roaded Area (mi ²)* | Percent Rural Area in Roads | Relative Potential for Peak-Flow Enhancement |
|------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Bear Creek | 12 | 0.02 | 0.06 | 0.0004 | 2.0 | low |
| Big Creek | 33 | 0.13 | 0.89 | 0.006 | 4.5 | moderate |
| Blind Slough | 12 | 3.14 | 8.64 | 0.057 | 1.8 | low |
| Columbia Sloughs | 7 | 0.23 | 1.15 | 0.008 | 3.2 | low |
| Ferris Creek | 5 | 0.10 | 0.56 | 0.004 | 3.7 | low |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 0.12 | 0.17 | 0.001 | 1.0 | low |
| Hall Creek | 4 | 0.20 | 1.06 | 0.007 | 3.5 | low |
| Hunt Cr. | 7 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Little Creek | 4 | 0.16 | 1.81 | 0.012 | 7.5 | high |
| Marys Creek | 3 | 0.003 | - | - | - | - |
| Total | 114 | 4 | 14 | 100.09 | 2442.6 | low |

* Width used to calculate roaded area was 25 ft.

other impacts associated with development such as stream channelization, diking, and loss of riparian areas.

4.5 Conclusions

In general, current land use practices in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed do not demonstrate a high potential for enhancing peak flows as a result of forest harvesting, establishment of agriculture and range lands, construction of forest and rural roads, or establishment of urban and suburban areas. Rain events are the predominant form of precipitation, so there is only a small chance for forestry practices to enhance peak flows as a result of rain-on-snow events. Rain-on-snow events that do occur are large and rare events, and it is unlikely that forest practices are increasing the magnitude of these events. It is generally believed that forest harvest practices have the greatest effect on moderate peak flows (normal, high stream flow events), and not these large, rare events (Naiman and Bilby 1998, Dunne 1983). Because forest harvest practices are common in the watershed, it is possible that there are other impacts to the watershed's hydrology, such as reductions in evapotranspiration, increased infiltration and subsurface flow, and increased overland flow. Both forest and rural road densities are low or occupy such small proportions of the watershed that their potential for enhancing peak flows is low (according to the thresholds established in the Oregon Watershed Assessment Manual). The Calendar Slough and Ferris Creek subwatersheds did demonstrate a moderate potential for peak flow enhancement as a result of forest road construction, which may be further exacerbated by the presence of confined channel forms (60 and 76 percent, respectively).

Urban, suburban, and agricultural development is concentrated in the lower elevations of the watershed, often occurring in the floodplains of the Columbia River (Brownsmead). These land management activities often result in the channelization and diking of the rivers for flood protection and wetland draining. By channelizing and disconnecting the rivers from their floodplains, downcutting of the channel can occur, increasing flow velocities and changing peak flows. Determining the level of impact from diking and channelization warrants further investigation.

CHAPTER 5 WATER USE

Under Oregon law, all water is publicly owned. Consequently, withdrawal of water from surface and some groundwater sources requires a permit, with a few exceptions. The Oregon Water Resources Department administers state water law through a permitting process that issues water rights to many private and public users (Bastasch 1998). In Oregon, water rights are issued as a 'first in time; first in right' permit, which means that older water rights have priority over newer rights. Water rights and water use were examined for each of the water availability watersheds (watersheds defined by the Oregon Water Resources Department for the assessment of flow modification).

Water that is withdrawn from the stream has the potential to affect instream habitats by dewatering that stream. Dewatering a stream refers to the permanent removal of water from the stream channel, thus lowering the natural instream flows. For example, a percentage of the water that is removed from the channel for irrigation is permanently lost from that watershed as a result of plant transpiration and evaporation. Instream habitats can be altered as a result of this dewatering. Possible effects of stream dewatering include increased stream temperatures and the creation of fish passage barriers.

Water is appropriated at a rate of withdrawal that is usually measured in cubic feet per second (cfs). For example, a water right for 2 cfs of irrigation allows a farmer to withdraw water from the stream at a rate of 2 cfs. Typically, there are further restrictions put on these water rights, including a maximum withdrawal amount allowed and the months that the water right can be exercised. Identifying all of these limits is a time-consuming and difficult task, which is beyond the scope of this assessment. However, for subwatersheds identified as high priority basins, this should be the next step.

5.1 Instream Water Rights

Instream water rights were established for the protection of fisheries, aquatic life, and pollution abatement; however, many remain junior to most water rights in these watersheds. Two individual instream water rights exist in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed to protect anadromous and resident fish in Bear and Big Creeks (Table 5.1). Bear Creek supplies municipal water to the city of Astoria and Big Creek operates a fish hatchery. Since these instream water rights have a priority date of 1990, they remain junior to most other water rights in these watersheds. Additionally, municipal water rights can take priority to all other water

| Table 5.1. Instream water rights in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data was obtained from the Oregon Water Resources Department. | | |
|--|----------|--------------------------------------|
| Water Availability Watershed | Priority | Purpose |
| Bear Creek | 11-30-90 | Anadromous and Resident Fish Rearing |
| Big Creek | 11-30-90 | Anadromous and Resident Fish Rearing |
| Mill Creek (leased) | 7-8-24 | Resident Fish Rearing |
| Mill Creek (leased) | 9-23-66 | Resident Fish Rearing |
| Mill Creek (leased) | 12-18-68 | Resident Fish Rearing |

rights under certain circumstances (see section 5.5 below). The Knappa Water Association holds three water rights on Mill Creek for a total of 2.3 cfs (Ed Johnson pers. comm.). These water rights were leased for twenty years starting in 1995 to ODFW as instream water rights to protect trout habitat.

5.2 Consumptive Water Use

5.2.1 Irrigation

Only small amounts of water are appropriated for irrigation purposes and these withdrawals generally occur in the lower portions of the watersheds (Figure 5.1; Table 5.2). Irrigation is defined as the artificial application of water to crops or plants to promote growth or nourish plants (Bastasch 1998). These withdrawals probably have little effect on instream flows since they occur in the lowlands and affect only a small portion of the creeks.

5.2.2 Municipal and Domestic Water Supply

Currently, the majority of Astoria’s water is drawn from the Bear Creek subwatershed, which contains three artificial water impoundments: Bear Creek Reservoir, Middle Lake, and Wickiup Lake. The city of Astoria holds water rights on Bear Creek (1,671 acre-feet of storage) and Cedar Creek (2 cfs; Table 5.2). The city also holds water rights to two undeveloped sources on Youngs River (27 cfs) and Big Creek (~ 49 cfs). The Bear Creek water supply provides an abundant and generally reliable source of water to the city of Astoria. However, as water demands grow, there may be a need to develop the Youngs River and Big Creek sources of water.

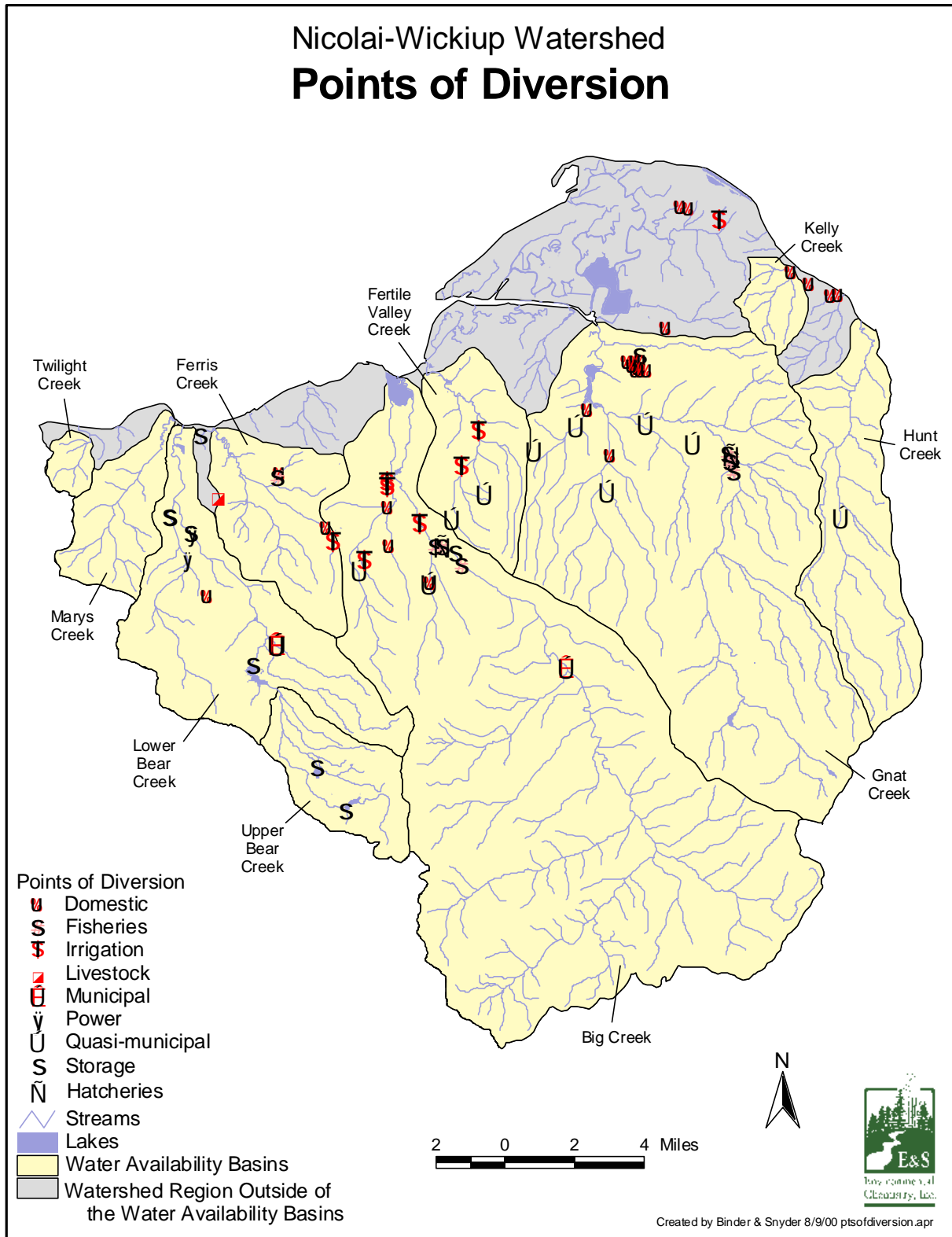


Figure 5.1. Water withdrawals in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were obtained from the Oregon Water Resources Department.

Table 5.2. Water use and storage in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Numbers in parentheses are for water storage in acre-feet. Data was obtained from the Oregon Water Resources Department.

| Water Availability Basin | Irrigation Use (cfs) | Municipal Use (cfs) | Domestic Use (cfs) | Fish/Wildlife Use (cfs) | Other Use (cfs) | Total Use (cfs) |
|------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Big Creek @ mouth | 0.5 | 48.78 | 3.38 | 80.53(4.2) | – | 133.19 |
| Gnat Creek @ mouth | 0.01 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 46.92 (0.25) | – | 48.93 |
| Bear Creek @ mouth | -- | 2.55(675) | 0.025 | 0.14(2.9) | 3.15 | 5.865 |
| Fertile Valley Creek @ mouth | 0.36 | 1.33 | – | – | – | 1.69 |
| Ferris Creek @ mouth | 0.07 | – | 0.04 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.16 |
| Kelly Creek @ mouth | – | – | 0.01 | – | – | 0.01 |
| Hunt Creek @ mouth | 0.01 | – | – | – | – | 0.01 |
| Bear Creek @ 14248700 | – | (996) | – | – | – | – |

A little more than 3 cfs in the Big Creek subwatershed is appropriated for domestic use and is primarily drawn from Little Creek (2.1 cfs for stock watering) and Mill Creek (1.25 cfs). Gnat Creek also has approximately 1 cfs appropriated for domestic use. The Knappa Water Association holds water rights for 1 cfs from Rock Creek and Hunt Creek respectively. In January of 1991, the water association stopped using surface water rights to avoid the cost of building and maintaining a water treatment facility. Consequently, the Rock Creek and Hunt Creek water rights remain undeveloped. The water association now draws its water exclusively from groundwater wells. The domestic demands on water in these basins is small in comparison to the current and potential demands from municipal water uses.

5.3 Non-Consumptive Water Use

5.3.1 Fish and Wildlife

Both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek ODFW fish hatcheries are located in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. The Big Creek fish hatchery holds water rights to more than 80 cfs from Big Creek and its tributaries. The Gnat Creek fish hatchery holds water rights to more than 46 cfs from Gnat Creek and its tributaries. Generally, these demands process water quickly and it re-enters the stream, resulting in a non-consumptive use. However, there may be possible dewatering affects during low-flow periods.

5.4 Water Availability

Only Bear Creek exhibited a high potential for dewatering (Table 5.3). The Bear Creek subwatershed includes three water impoundment structures and supplies water to the city of Astoria. The city of Astoria also holds undeveloped water rights for both Big Creek and the Youngs River. Consequently, Big Creek could develop a larger potential for dewatering as the city of Astoria’s water demands grow.

Both Big and Gnat Creeks have high demands on water as result of fish hatchery operations, although these demands are generally non-consumptive as water is passed directly back into the stream. Other issues may exist such as degradation of stream water quality and fish passage barriers.

| Table 5.3. Dewatering potential in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed based on a 50 percent exceedence*. The dewatering potential is the percent of instream flows that are appropriated for consumptive use during the low flow months. In some cases water has been over-appropriated, resulting in a percentage greater than 100. | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------------------------------|-----------|
| Water Availability Watershed | Dewatering Potential (%)* | | | | | Overall Dewatering Potential | |
| | Jun | Jul | Aug | Sep | Oct | Average Percent Withdrawal | Potential |
| Bear Creek @ mouth | 57.6 | 92.2 | 121.6 | 118.5 | 117.5 | 101.48 | High |
| Big Creek @ mouth | 1.7 | 3.4 | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.2 | 3.72 | Low |
| Fertile Valley Creek @ mouth | 1.0 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 1.9 | Low |
| Ferris Creek @ mouth | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | Low |
| Gnat Creek @ mouth | 0.5 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 0.92 | Low |
| Bear Creek @ 14248700 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Low |
| Kelly Creek @ mouth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Low |
| Twilight Creek @ mouth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Low |
| Hunt Creek @ mouth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Low |
| Marys Creek @ mouth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Low |
| * A 50% exceedence represents the amount of water than can be expected to be in the channel 50% of the time or one out of every two years. | | | | | | | |

5.5 Conclusions

The largest amount of water withdrawn in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is for municipal use and is drawn from the Bear Creek subwatershed. The city of Astoria uses the Bear Creek subwatershed as its primary source of water and also owns two undeveloped water rights for Big Creek and the Youngs River. Municipal water rights have a number of preferences under Oregon water law (Bastasch 1998). First, a municipality can get a water right certificate for part of its permit and keep the remainder in permit status. This allows the municipality to hold the remainder in reserve for future use. Thus, a municipality can hold undeveloped water rights such as the Big Creek and Youngs River water rights, without fully developing those rights and saving them for future needs. Currently, this is a much debated topic. OWRD requires a plan in place to use this water, or the water right will be rescinded. The city of Astoria could not at present get on Big Creek or Youngs River without a plan for using that water. For more information on this topic, contact the Oregon Water Resources Department. Additionally, municipal water rights can overtake more senior water rights if it is deemed in the public interest. There is potential for the city of Astoria to develop these unused water rights and increase the potential for dewatering in both Big Creek and the Youngs River.

CHAPTER 6 SEDIMENT SOURCES

6.1 Introduction

Erosion is a natural watershed process in the Oregon Coast Range. However, most experts agree that land use practices have increased natural levels of erosion in many Oregon and Washington watersheds (WPN 1999, Naiman and Bilby 1998). Separating erosion into natural and human-induced events is difficult. It is perhaps even more difficult to identify the amount of sediment that is “too much” for fish and aquatic organisms. In general, the more a stream deviates from natural sediment levels, the greater the chance for adverse affects on aquatic communities (WPN 1999; Newcombe and MacDonald 1991).

There were several assumptions made about the nature of sediment in this watershed (WPN 1999). First, sediment is a normal and critical component of stream habitat for fish and other aquatic organisms. The more that sediment levels deviate (either up or down) from the natural pattern in a watershed, the more likely it is that aquatic habitat conditions will be altered. Second, human-caused increases in sediment occur at a limited number of locations within the watershed that can be identified by a combination of site characteristics and land use practices. Third, sediment movement is often episodic, with most erosion and downstream soil movement occurring during infrequent and intense runoff events.

Knowledge of current sources of sediment can provide a better understanding of the locations and conditions under which sediment is likely to be contributed in the future. These sources can then be evaluated and prioritized based on their potential affects on fish habitat and water quality to help maintain natural ecosystem functioning.

6.2 Screening for Potential Sediment Sources

Eight potential sediment sources have been identified by OWEB that have significant impacts on watershed conditions (WPN 1999). Not all are present in every watershed, and they vary in influence depending on where and how often they occur. The potential sediment sources include slope instability, road instability, rural road runoff, urban area runoff, crop land, range or pasture lands, burned areas, and other identified sources.

In this watershed, slope instability, road instability, and rural road runoff were determined to be the most significant sediment sources based on the location of the watersheds (Oregon Coast Range) and the local land use. This screening process is outlined in the OWEB watershed assessment manual (WPN 1999). Shallow landslides and deep-seated slumps are common in the

Oregon Coast Range. Streamside landslides and slumps can be major contributors of sediment to streams, and shallow landslides frequently initiate debris flows. Rural roads are a common feature of this watershed, and many are present on steep slopes. Washouts from rural roads contribute sediment to streams, and sometimes initiate debris flows. The density of rural roads, especially unpaved gravel and dirt roads, indicates a high potential for sediment contribution to the stream network.

Urban runoff and surface erosion from crop and range or pasture lands were not analyzed in this assessment. Agricultural lands account for less than four percent of the watershed and are mostly located in the valley bottoms of the watersheds or floodplains of the Columbia River. Developed lands currently occupy less than one percent of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. There have been no large wildfires in the watershed in the past five years, so burned areas are not a significant sediment source.

6.3 Slope Instability

Slope instability is evaluated by collecting information about recent landslide activity and high risk areas that are likely to be active in the future (WPN 1999). Data on recent landslide activity are relatively scarce and no comprehensive on-the-ground inventories of landslides have been conducted in this watershed. The Department of Geological and Mineral Industries (DOGAMI) has created debris flow hazard maps to characterize the future potential for landslide activity based on watershed features such as slope, soils, and geology.

According to potential debris flow hazard maps created by DOGAMI, a little more than one fifth of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is in the debris flow activity zone (Figure 6.1). Ninety percent of the debris flow risk area is in the moderate risk category, while high risk accounts for only 10 percent (Table 6.1). The Big Creek subwatershed contains the largest proportion of potential debris flow area, with 44 percent of the subwatershed in the debris flow zone. The Hunt Creek, Little Creek, and Gnat Creek watersheds all have a moderate proportion of debris flow area, with more than 15 percent of each sub-basin in the potential debris flow zone. Only the Ferris Creek subwatershed lies completely outside the potential debris flow zone.

In 1988, Boise Cascade Corporation commissioned a study of Class I streams in the Big Creek subwatershed, on land that is currently owned by Hampton Resources (Andrus 1988). This study concluded that landslide activity was the primary source of stream sediment in the Big Creek subwatershed. Large streamside slumps chronically deposit sediment into the stream

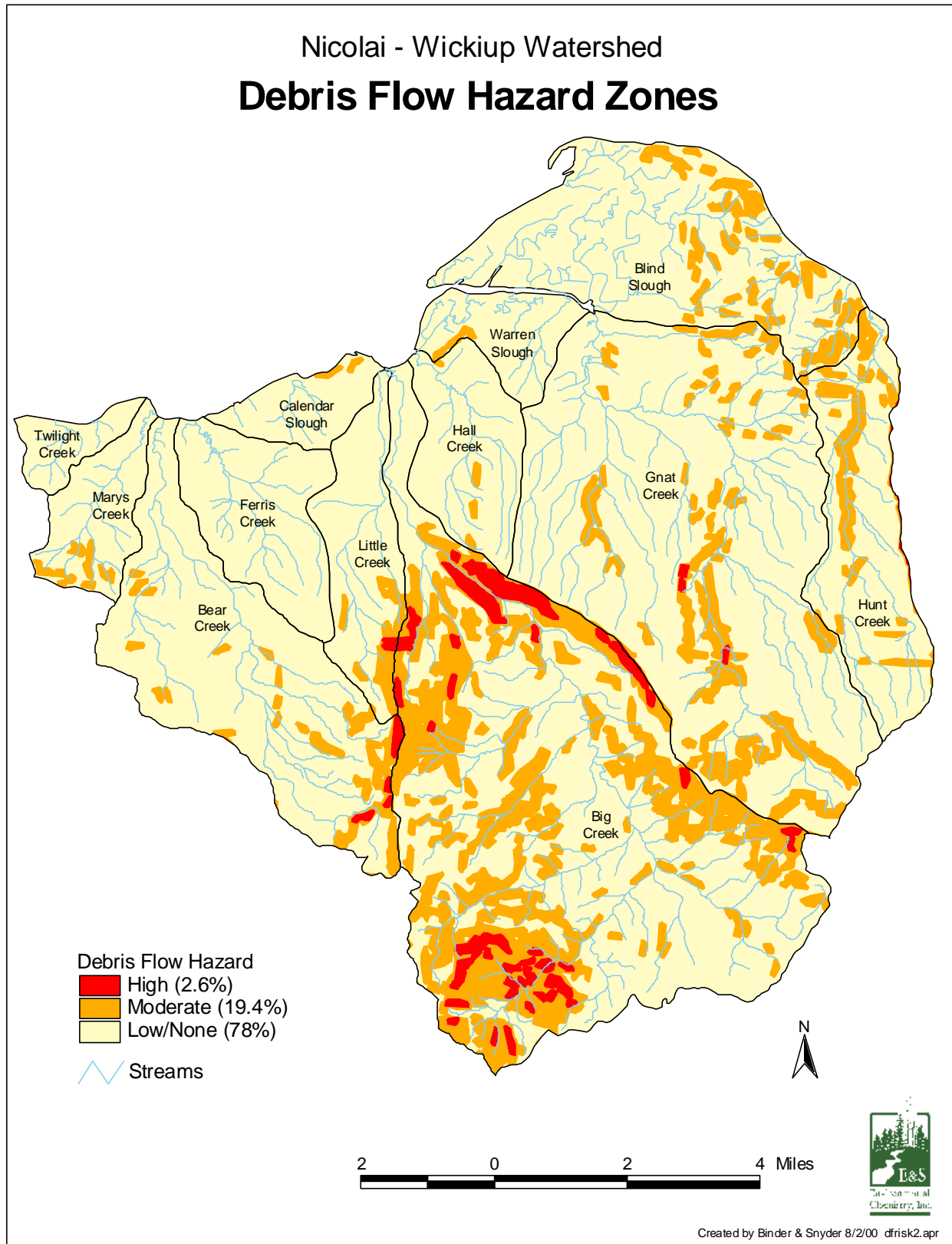


Figure 6.1. Debris flow hazard zones for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were obtained from DOGAMI.

| Table 6.1. Potential debris flow hazard zones in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (DOGAMI 1999). | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Subwatershed | Watershed Area (sq. mi.) | High (%) | Moderate (%) | High + Mod. (%) |
| Big Creek | 33 | 6.7 | 37.3 | 43.9 |
| Hunt Creek | 7.0 | 0.6 | 22.1 | 22.7 |
| Blind Slough | 12 | - | 16.9 | 16.9 |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 0.4 | 16.2 | 16.6 |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 1.2 | 12.7 | 13.8 |
| Bear Creek | 12 | 1.4 | 10.5 | 11.9 |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | - | 10.9 | 10.9 |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | - | 3.9 | 3.9 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | - | 3.8 | 3.8 |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | - | 3.3 | 3.3 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | - | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | - | - | - |
| TOTAL | 115.0 | 2.6 | 19.4 | 22.0 |

during high flows. Approximately half of the sediment in the Big Creek subwatershed was found to be derived from slumps. Shallow landslides also occurred throughout the watershed, but the volume of soil transported to stream channels was small. Debris flows scoured six tributary streams in the years between 1963-1988, three of which occurred during the storm events of 1964-1965. These debris flows deposited large amounts of soil and logs into the main stream channel. Landslide density was approximately 1 shallow and 2.3 deep-seated landslides per square mile. Debris flows occurred at a rate of 0.18/sq. mi.

6.4 Road Instability

Road construction, especially on steep slopes, can lead to slope failure and result in increased landslide activity (WPN 1999, Sessions et al. 1987). Road stability can be affected by the type of construction. For example, sidecast roads are built by using soil from the inside portion of a road to build up the outside, less stable portion of the road. Sidecast roads work well in moderately steep terrain, but can lead to problems on steep terrain. Road crossings with poorly designed culverts can fail and wash out, create gullies, and deliver large pulses of sediment to the channel. To quantify rural road instability requires data about recent road

washouts, including the factors that may have led to these events, and high risk situations that may lead to future washouts.

Road inventories are the primary source of data used to evaluate the current conditions of roads in the watersheds. The road inventory conducted by ODF is not up-to-date, and is only available in the form of field notebooks (Rick Thoreson pers. comm.). ODF is currently in the process of updating their road inventory. Willamette Industries, Inc. has conducted an extensive road inventory on their lands, which has been summarized below. Remaining roads have either not been assessed or were unavailable at the time of this assessment.

6.4.1 Willamette Industries, Inc. 10-year Legacy Road Improvement/Decommissioning Plan

In 1997 Willamette Industries Inc. developed a forest road inventory in conjunction with the Oregon Department of Forestry (ODF) and the Oregon Forest Industries Council (OFIC). The North Coast Resource Area inventoried approximately 1700 mi of road on company managed forestland in Tillamook, Columbia, and Clatsop Counties. Road features were given a priority class from one to five, with one being highest priority for repair and five being no action needed.

In 1999 the road inventory had been completed and a legacy road improvement and decommissioning plan was developed. The plan has all road segments identified as needing action either repaired or decommissioned within the next 10 years. The plan breaks the road inventory priorities into subclasses. The subclasses in order of singular impact or concern are safety, sedimentation into live streams, mass wasting, sedimentation depositing outside of live streams, and fish passage. An example of this system is that a priority one with a safety concern will be repaired/decommissioned before a priority one that has fish passage issues.

Under the North Coast Resource Area 10-year road plan, all priority one road segments will be repaired/decommissioned by the fall of 2001, and all road segments requiring action will be repaired/decommissioned by the fall of 2008.

Recent concern about sediment from road systems entering waters of the state has prompted Willamette Industries, Inc. to adopt new specifications for forest road location, construction and reconstruction, maintenance and erosion control. Whenever possible existing roads that parallel stream channels are relocated or bypassed and new roads are located near ridge tops to minimize the number of stream crossings. This methods of road location helps minimize the possibility of sediment entering waters of the state. Ditch relief culverts or ditchouts are placed with a minimum spacing of 300-500' and are located to allow any runoff to filter through vegetation on

the forest floor prior to entering flowing water. Ditch relief culverts are placed 50' to 100' ahead of all stream crossing culverts. This allows ditch water to filter through vegetation on the forest floor prior to entering flowing water. Stream crossing culverts are required to be designed to pass a 50 year flood event but all crossing installed by the North Coast Resource Area will pass a 100 year event. Side-cast material in steeper terrain that has the potential to fail is pulled back and the road is set into the hillside. All waste material in these steeper areas is now hauled to stable waste areas.

All-weather haul roads are now surfaced with quarried rock and the top lift is usually a finer grade crushed rock that has been processed with a grader and vibratory roller. By processing the rock the road surface is sealed and water cannot saturate the subgrade. This helps prevent the "pumping" of mud onto the road surface. Roads with natural surfaces have haul restrictions placed on them and active haul is allowed only during periods of dryer weather. All active haul roads are continually monitored and maintained; if a road begins to show signs of failing active hauling will be suspended until the road can be repaired. All non-active haul roads are monitored on an annual basis and during periods of high flows, with routine maintenance performed as needed.

Where there is a potential for erosion, a variety of erosion control methods are used. Silt fences and straw bales are used along with settling basins to help slow water and allow suspended sediment to settle out of the water. Seeding and hand mulching or hydro mulching are used to vegetate surfaces to prevent erosion.

6.4.2 Hampton Resources (formerly owned by Boise Cascade)

According to the 1988 Class I stream survey in the Big Creek subwatershed (survey was conducted on current Hampton owned lands only; Andrus 1988), roads were generally not considered to contribute much sediment to the stream network. There were 20 road-related slides, or 0.6/sq. mi., although only three of these were believed to have contributed a sizable amount of sediment to the stream. Four major culverts were found to be undersized, and sizing and maintenance of smaller culverts throughout the watershed was considered inadequate. These culverts were addressed by Hampton Resources in the intervening years.

6.4.3 Landslide Data

In 1999, DOGAMI compiled and mapped landslide information from state and federal agencies for all of western Oregon. The DOGAMI database of landslides reports eight road-related slides in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, in addition to the 20 in Big Creek subwatershed (Andrus 1988). It is important to note that this information is not the result of a planned inventory of road-related landslides, but rather reflect an ad-hoc collection of known landslide events. Nonetheless, they may provide some indication of general areas which may be particularly slide prone. A more comprehensive inventory of road-related landslides is necessary for an accurate understanding of the relationship between roads and sediment in the stream network.

6.4.4 Culverts

Both Oregon Department of Transportation (ODOT) and Willamette Industries have assembled databases of culverts that are in need of repair or are at risk of causing damage to the stream network. Twilight Creek and Ferris Creek have the highest densities of high-priority culverts, at 1.8/sq. mi. Calendar Slough also has a high density of high priority culverts with 1.5/sq. mi.

Analysis of high priority culverts that are on fish-bearing streams, or potential fish-bearing streams, provides slightly different results. Twilight Creek still has the highest density, at 0.6/sq. mi.; however Marys Creek and Bear Creek also contain high priority culverts, at 0.3 and 0.2/sq. mi., respectively.

GIS-based analysis of road stream crossings reveals that the highest density of crossings is in the Ferris Creek subwatershed, with 7.7 crossings/sq. mi. (Table 6.2). Fertile Valley Creek, Hunt Creek, Little Creek, and Warren Slough subwatersheds each have approximately 6 crossings/sq. mi. The lowest density of road-stream crossings is found in the Big Creek subwatershed, with 3.1 road-stream crossings/sq. mi.

6.5 Road Runoff

The water draining from roads can constitute a significant sediment source into streams. However, the amount of sediment potentially contained in road runoff is difficult to quantify because road conditions and the frequency and timing of use can change rapidly. Poor road surfaces that are used primarily in dry weather may have a smaller impact on sediment

Table 6.2. Stream/road crossings in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Data were calculated using GIS.

| Subwatershed | Area (sq. mi.) | Road-Stream Crossings | |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| | | (#) | (#/sq. mi.) |
| Bear Creek | 12 | 55 | 4.4 |
| Big Creek | 33 | 104 | 3.1 |
| Blind Slough | 12 | 40 | 3.4 |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | 12 | 5.9 |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | 17 | 10.0 |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | 40 | 8.0 |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | 92 | 3.4 |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | 27 | 6.3 |
| Hunt Creek | 7.0 | 42 | 6.0 |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | 27 | 6.1 |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | 14 | 4.8 |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | 6 | 2.4 |

production than roads with high quality surfaces that have higher traffic and are used primarily in the rainy season. ODF fire-road data were used to assess potential sediment contribution from road runoff. Road density within 200 ft of a stream and on slopes greater than 50 percent was calculated using GIS.

Roads in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed demonstrate a high potential for acting as a sediment source to surface waters as a result of high road densities within 200 ft from the stream and predominantly rock road surfaces which can exhibit a broad range of conditions depending upon the timing and frequency of use (Table 6.3). The density of roads within 200 ft of a stream ranged from 0.17 to 0.52 miles of road per mile of stream. Eight of the twelve basins had more than 0.3 miles of road within 200 ft for every mile of stream, suggesting that roads close to streams potentially are significant sediment sources to surface waters. Additionally, the most common road surface in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is gravel, accounting for approximately 82 percent of all the roads in the basin (Table 6.3).

Roads with steeper side slopes tend to accumulate more sediment in their associated drainage ditches, resulting in greater loading of sediments to surface waters. If these ditches become plugged, road failure often ensues. Less than four percent of the roads in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed were constructed on slopes steeper than 50 percent in gradient (Table 6.3). It

Table 6.3. Current road conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. The ODF fire roads coverage was used to calculate these numbers in GIS (see GIS data evaluation).

| Subwatershed | Stream Length mi | Road Length mi | Gravel % | Dirt % | Paved % | Roads <200' from Stream mi/mi* | | Roads <200' from Stream and >50% Slope % |
|-----------------|------------------|----------------|----------|--------|---------|--------------------------------|------|--|
| Bear Creek | 33 | 82 | 85 | 3.5 | 11 | 13 | 0.41 | 1.7 |
| Big Creek | 91 | 162 | 92 | 5.9 | 2.3 | 30 | 0.33 | 2.7 |
| Blind Slough | 46 | 48 | 54 | 20 | 26 | 12 | 0.26 | 1.1 |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | 11 | 89 | 0.0 | 11 | 1.9 | 0.44 | 0.0 |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | 14 | 58 | 4.5 | 37 | 2.2 | 0.52 | 3.8 |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | 36 | 58 | 0.2 | 42 | 6.5 | 0.46 | 1.6 |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | 120 | 87 | 6.3 | 6.8 | 21 | 0.25 | 1.9 |
| Hall Creek | 14 | 27 | 72 | 0.0 | 28 | 5.1 | 0.37 | - |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | 41 | 87 | 4.0 | 8.9 | 9.1 | 0.38 | 0.8 |
| Little Creek | 11 | 28 | 77 | 2.6 | 20 | 4.2 | 0.37 | 1.6 |
| Marys Creek | 10 | 20 | 93 | 2.6 | 4.4 | 2.4 | 0.25 | 1.0 |
| Warren Slough | 10 | 13 | 71 | 0.0 | 29 | 1.8 | 0.17 | - |
| Watershed Total | 345 | 602 | 82 | 6 | 13 | 110 | 0.18 | 1.8 |

* Units are miles of road per mile of stream

is unlikely that road construction on steeper slopes has increased sediment loads from rural roads in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

As a part of the Bear Creek Watershed Evaluation conducted by the OSU-Extension (2000), roads in the Bear Creek subwatershed were examined for potential sediment sources. Bear Creek acts as the municipal water source for the city of Astoria and almost the entire drainage is owned by the city. According to the study, many drainage ditches and culverts were full of sediment or blocked by vegetation, preventing efficient removal of water from the roadbed. Some culverts discharged onto unstable fills, and may potentially cause gullyng. A few roads instigated some small landslides, and could benefit from improvements. In particular, one road-associated landslide that reached the stream channel was identified. Details on the road conditions in the Bear Creek subwatershed can be found in the Bear Creek Watershed Evaluation (OSU-Extension 2000).

6.6 Streambank Erosion

Forty-one miles of streams were surveyed by ODFW in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Of these, 14 percent of the surveyed length had experienced streambank erosion. The Blind Slough

subwatershed experienced the highest proportion of streambank erosion (81 percent), although only 2.4 percent of the streams were surveyed. Because such a small proportion of the streams in this subwatershed were surveyed, it is unclear whether or not the high erosion rate is representative of the subwatershed overall. However, high rates of streambank erosion commonly occur in low elevation, gentle terrain subwatersheds, due to stream channelization and draining of wetlands.

Stream surveys were conducted on most streams in the Bear Creek subwatershed as a part of the Bear Creek Watershed Evaluation (OSU-Extension 2000). Stream banks were found to be relatively stable with a few local areas of recent erosion. It was recommended that streamside slopes greater than 60 percent be monitored since these demonstrate the highest potential for future activity.

6.7 Conclusions

Sediment sources are highly variable across the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Although it is difficult to differentiate between human-induced and natural landslide events at this level of analysis, we can screen for land use practices that may be increasing sediment loading into surface waters. Many culverts have been identified to be at risk of causing damage to the stream network. High-risk culverts that exist on Willamette Industries land have been prioritized and are currently being replaced under the 10-year legacy road plan. In the Big Creek subwatershed, a 1988 landslide study concluded that the primary source of sediments to streams was from slumps not associated with roads (Andrus 1988). Road related landslides did occur, although they were not believed to have contributed significant amounts of sediment to surface waters. Although no other landslide inventories have been conducted in the watershed, it is likely that this is the case in the other subwatersheds as well. All of the subwatersheds had similar road densities within 200 ft of the stream, most of which occurred on slopes less than 50 percent in gradient, and the majority of these roads had gravel surfaces. Culverts also presented a moderate threat to watershed health.

CHAPTER 7 WATER QUALITY

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of the water quality assessment, according to the OWEB manual (WPN 1999), is to complete a screening-level analysis of water quality. A screening-level analysis serves to identify obvious areas of water quality impairment by comparing selected measurements of water quality to certain evaluation criteria. The screening-level analysis uses existing data obtained from a variety of sources. This assessment does not include statistical evaluation of seasonal fluctuations or trends through time, and does not evaluate specific sources of pollution through upstream/downstream comparisons.

7.1.1 Assessment Overview

The water quality assessment proceeds in steps. The first step is to identify uses of the water that are sensitive to adverse changes in water quality, and identify potential sources of pollution in the watershed. The second step establishes the evaluation criteria. The third step examines the existing water quality data in light of the evaluation criteria. Conclusions can then be made about the presence of obvious water quality problems in the watershed, and whether or not additional studies are necessary.

Water quality is evaluated by comparing key indicators against evaluation criteria. Indicators are selected to represent pollution categories. Some aspects of water quality, such as fine sediment and temperature processes, are addressed in other sections of this watershed assessment. Although there are many constituents that contribute to the “water quality” of a stream, the watershed assessment focused on seven that are most often measured, and that may have the most direct effect on aquatic organisms: temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, nutrients, bacteria, turbidity, and chemical contaminants. Evaluation criteria, discussed in Section 7.4, have been determined based on values of these constituents that are generally protective of aquatic life.

7.1.2 Components of Water Quality

Temperature

Cool water temperatures are necessary for the survival and success of native salmon, trout, and other aquatic life. Excessively warm temperatures can adversely affect the survival and growth of many native species. Although there is some debate about which specific temperatures

should apply, and during which part of the year, standards have been set that can be used to determine if the waters in the stream are too warm. Because temperature in the stream varies throughout the day and among the seasons, multiple measurements throughout the day and in different seasons are needed to adequately assess water temperature conditions.

Dissolved oxygen

Aquatic organisms need oxygen to survive. Oxygen from the air dissolves in water in inverse proportion to the water temperature. Warmer water contains less dissolved oxygen at saturated conditions. Organisms adapted to cool water are also generally adapted to relatively high dissolved oxygen conditions. If the dissolved oxygen is too low, the growth and survival of the organisms is jeopardized. As with temperature, dissolved oxygen can vary throughout the day and among the seasons, so multiple measurements, both daily and seasonally, are required for an adequate analysis of water quality conditions.

pH

The pH is a measure of the acidity of water. The chemical form and availability of nutrients, as well as the toxicity of pollutants, can be strongly influenced by pH. Pollutants can contribute to changes in pH as can the growth of aquatic plants through photosynthesis. Excessively high or low pH can create conditions toxic to aquatic organisms.

Nutrients

Nitrogen and phosphorus, the most important plant nutrients in aquatic systems, can contribute to adverse water quality conditions if present in too great abundance. Excessive algae and aquatic plant growth that results from excessive nutrient concentration can result in excessively high pH and low dissolved oxygen, can interfere with recreational use of the water, and in some cases, can produce toxins harmful to livestock and humans.

Bacteria.

Bacterial contamination of water from mammalian or avian sources can cause the spread of disease through contaminated shellfish, contact recreation, or ingestion of the water itself. Bacteria of the coliform group are used as an indicator of bacterial contamination.

Turbidity.

Turbidity is a measure of the clarity of the water. High turbidity is associated with high suspended solids, and can be an indicator of erosion in the watershed. At high levels, the ability of salmonids to see their prey is impaired. As discussed elsewhere, high suspended sediment can have a number of adverse effects on fish and aquatic organisms.

Chemical contaminants.

Synthetic organic compounds, pesticides, and metals can be toxic to aquatic organisms. The presences of such contaminants in the water suggests the presence of point sources of pollution that could be having an adverse effect on the stream ecosystem.

7.2 Beneficial Uses

The Clean Water Act requires that water quality standards be set to protect the beneficial uses that are present in each water body. The Oregon Department of Environmental Quality (ODEQ) has established the beneficial uses applicable to the 18 major river basins in the State. The Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is in the North Coast–Lower Columbia Basin. The beneficial uses established for all streams and tributaries in the basin are (OAR 340-41-202):

| | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| Public domestic water supply ¹ | Salmonid fish spawning |
| Private domestic water supply ¹ | Resident fish and aquatic life |
| Industrial water supply | Wildlife and hunting |
| Irrigation | Fishing |
| Livestock watering | Boating |
| Anadromous fish passage | Water contact recreation |
| Salmonid fish rearing | Aesthetic quality |

In addition, the Columbia River supports a beneficial use of commercial navigation and transportation. Estuaries and adjacent marine waters are considered to support the above beneficial uses as well, not including public or private water supply, irrigation, or livestock watering. Water quality must be managed so the beneficial uses are not impaired.

¹With adequate pretreatment (filtration and disinfection) and natural quality to meet drinking water standards.

7.2.1 Water Uses Sensitive to Water Quality

Not all beneficial uses are equally sensitive to change in water quality. For example, use of the water body for domestic water supply would be impaired long before its use for commercial navigation. In general, water quality is managed to protect the most sensitive beneficial use. In the case of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, the most sensitive beneficial use is probably salmonid fish spawning. It is assumed that if the water quality is sufficient to support the most sensitive use, then all other less sensitive uses will also be supported.

7.3 Pollutant Sources

7.3.1 Point Sources

NPDES permitted discharges

The Clean Water Act prohibits discharge of waste to surface water. In order to discharge any waste, a facility must first obtain a permit from the State. ODEQ issues two primary types of discharge permit. Dischargers with Water Pollution Control Facility (WPCF) permits are not allowed to discharge to a water body. Most WPCF permits are issued for on-site sewage disposal systems. Holders of National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) permits are allowed to discharge wastes to waters of the state, directly or indirectly, but their discharge must meet certain quality standards as specified in their permits. Permits set limits on pollutants from industrial and municipal dischargers based on the ability of the receiving stream to absorb and dissipate the pollutants. Industries, municipal wastewater treatment facilities, fish hatcheries, and similar facilities typically have NPDES permits. The current discharge permits for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed are listed in Table 7.1.

7.3.2 Non-point Sources

The largest current source of pollutants to Oregon's waters is not point sources such as factories and sewage treatment plants. The largest source of water pollution comes from surface water runoff, often called "non-point source" pollution. Rainwater, snowmelt, and irrigation water flowing over roofs, driveways, streets, lawns, agricultural lands, construction sites, and logging operations carries more pollution, such as nutrients, bacteria, and suspended solids, than discharges from industry.

Table 7.1. Permitted facilities that have discharges in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (ODEQ 2000).

| Facility Name | Category | Type | Stream | River Mile |
|-------------------------------|----------|-------|----------------------|------------|
| Astoria Warehousing, Inc | D | WPCF | Big Creek | 1.4 |
| Dunn, Gerald | D | WPCF | Ferris Creek | 0.5 |
| Johnson Oil Co. | D | WPCF | Big Creek | 1.2 |
| Knappa School District No. 4 | D | WPCF | Ferris Creek | 1 |
| Knappa Water Association | D | WPCF | Fertile Valley Creek | 1.2 |
| Log-Jam, Inc. | D | WPCF | Fertile Valley Creek | 1.2 |
| North West Living Homes, Inc. | I | NPDES | Big Creek | 1.5 |
| Pederson, Martin D. | D | WPCF | Fertile Valley Creek | 1.2 |
| Stevens, Ilene L. | D | WPCF | Fertile Valley Creek | 1.2 |
| VB Construction, Inc | I | NPDES | Big Creek | 5.4 |
| Wickiup Water District | I | NPDES | Little Creek | 4 |

D = domestic, I = industrial, A = agricultural, including fish hatcheries, WPCF=water pollution control facility, NPDES=National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System.

Land use can have a strong influence on the quantity and quality of water flowing from a watershed. An undisturbed watershed with natural vegetation in and along streams and rivers and a diversity of habitats on the uplands provides clean water that supports the desirable beneficial uses of the waterway. As the watershed is disturbed through logging, agriculture, and urban development, the water quality in the waterways can become degraded. The percent of the land area of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed affected by industrial forestry, agriculture, and urbanization is shown in Table 7.2. Table 1.4 shows the distribution of all land use types in the watershed. Table 1.5 lists possible water quality effects from various types of land use.

Table 7.2. Percent area of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, by selected land uses.

| Land Use Type | Area (sq mi) | Percent of Total Area |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| Industrial Forest | 54.35 | 47.5 |
| Agriculture | 4.1 | 3.6 |
| Developed | 0.6 | 0.5 |

The most prominent type of land use in the watershed is forestry, with relatively little land in developed areas. This land use pattern suggests that water quality problems associated with toxic industrial chemicals are likely to be of relatively little importance while problems associated with sediment, turbidity, temperature, and possibly bacteria are likely to be more

important. To the extent that herbicides and pesticides are used in forestry and agriculture operations, these compounds may assume greater importance.

7.3.3 *Water Quality Limited Water Bodies*

Sometimes, applying the best available treatment technology to all the point sources in a basin does not bring the stream into compliance with water quality standards. The combination of pollutants from all sources, point and non-point, within the watershed may contribute more pollution than the stream can handle. Under this circumstance, when a stream consistently fails to meet water quality standards for a particular pollutant, it is declared by ODEQ to be “water quality limited” as required by the Clean Water Act Section 303(d). Water bodies on the “303d List” must be analyzed to determine the total amount of pollutant that can be accommodated by the stream (the total maximum daily load – TMDL). This load is then allocated to all the dischargers, including non-point. Dischargers must then take the steps necessary to meet their allocated load.

There are no water bodies in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed included on the ODEQ 1998 303(d) list. Although the 303(d) list identifies water bodies that are known not to meet current water quality standards, the list is not necessarily a complete indicator of water quality in a particular basin. For many stream reaches there is not enough data to make a determination. In addition, the 303(d) listing is tied to the total amount of monitoring done, which is influenced by the number of special monitoring studies completed by ODEQ. Because special studies are frequently concentrated where water quality degradation is a concern, the list is weighted toward poorer quality waters. Consequently the ODEQ has developed the Oregon Water Quality Index (OWQI) as a water quality benchmark that is keyed to indicator sites monitored regularly by ODEQ.

The OWQI integrates measurements of eight selected water quality parameters (temperature, dissolved oxygen, biochemical oxygen demand, pH, ammonia+nitrate nitrogen, total phosphates, total solids, fecal coliform) into a single index value that ranges from 10 (the worst) to 100 (the best). There are no sites in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed that have sufficient data to calculate an OWQI index value.

In order to assess more adequately the water quality conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, we assembled available data from a variety of sources.

7.4 Evaluation Criteria

The evaluation criteria used for the watershed assessment are based on the Oregon Water Quality Standards for the North Coast Basin (ORS 340-41-205) and on literature values where there are no applicable standards, as for example, for nutrients (WPN 1999). They are not identical to the water quality standards in that not all seasonal variations are included. The evaluation criteria are used as indicators that a possible problem may exist. The evaluation criteria are listed in Table 7.3.

The water quality evaluation criteria are applied to the data by noting how many, if any, of the water quality data available for the assessment exceed the criteria. If sufficient data are available, a judgement is made based on the percent exceedence of the criteria as shown in Table 7.4. If insufficient, or no, data are available, it is noted as a data gap to be filled by future monitoring. If any water quality parameter is rated as “moderately impaired” or “impaired”,

| Table 7.3. Water quality criteria and evaluation indicators (WPN 1999) | |
|--|--|
| Water Quality Attribute | Evaluation Criteria |
| Temperature | Daily maximum of 64° F (17.8° C) (7-day moving average) |
| Dissolved Oxygen | 8.0 mg/L |
| pH | Between 6.5 to 8.5 units |
| Nutrients | |
| Total Phosphorus | 0.05 mg/L |
| Total Nitrate | 0.30 mg/L |
| Bacteria | <u>Water-contact recreation</u> 126 E. coli/100 mL (30-day log mean, 5 sample minimum) 406 E. coli/100 mL (single sample maximum) <u>Marine water and shellfish areas</u> 14 fecal coliform/100 mL (median) 43 fecal coliform/100 mL (not more than 10% of samples) |
| Turbidity | 50 NTU maximum |
| Organic Contaminants | Any detectable amount |
| Metal Contaminants | |
| Arsenic | 190 µg/L |
| Cadmium | 0.4 µg/L |
| Chromium (hex) | 11.0 µg/L |
| Copper | 3.6 µg/L |
| Lead | 0.5 µg/L |
| Mercury | 0.012 µg/L |
| Zinc | 32.7 µg/L |

| Percent of Data Exceeding the Criterion | Impairment Category |
|---|---------------------|
| Less than 15 percent | No impairment |
| 15 to 50 percent | Moderately impaired |
| More than 50 percent | Impaired |
| Insufficient data | Unknown |

water quality in the stream reach in question is considered impaired. The condition that caused the impairment should be addressed through stream restoration activities.

7.5 Water Quality Data

7.5.1 STORET

Data were obtained from the EPA STORET² database for the period 1965 through 1999. There were 277 sites in the ODEQ North Coast basin that had water quality data in the STORET database. Of these 277 sites, 85 were from ambient stream or lake stations. The remaining sites were from such locations as point discharges, wells, sewers, pump stations, and similar locations. The ambient water quality sites were distributed among the three watersheds in the North Coast basin as shown in Table 7.5.

| Description | Skipanon River Watershed | Youngs Bay Watershed | Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed |
|---|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Total ambient sites | 38 | 38 | 9 |
| Number of sites sampled more than once | 7 | 8 | 7 |
| Number of sites sampled more than once since 1989 | 3 | 3 | 1 |

Single samples, and data more than 10 years old, may not reflect current conditions. For these reasons, only data since 1989 from sites that had been sampled multiple times were used in this analysis. This is consistent with the practice of ODEQ in establishing the Oregon Water Quality Index.

² STORET data are available on CD-ROM from Earth Info, Inc. 5541 Central Ave., Boulder, CO 80301; (303) 938-1788.

The ambient sites sampled more than once in the Nicolai-Wickiup River Watershed are listed in Table 7.6 and displayed in Figure 7.1.

| Station No. | First Record | Last Record | No. of Samples | No. of Analyses | Location | Latitude | Longitude |
|-------------|--------------|-------------|----------------|-----------------|--|----------|-----------|
| 404110 | 05/08/73 | 09/11/73 | 2 | 32 | Bear Creek at Old Hwy 30 (Burnside) | 46:09:51 | 123:40:03 |
| 14248700 | 03/26/69 | 04/29/75 | 18 | 467 | Bear Creek near Svensen, Oreg. | 46:06:48 | 123:37:55 |
| 404111 | 05/08/73 | 09/11/73 | 2 | 32 | Big Creek at Hwy 30 (Knappa Jct) | 46:10:15 | 123:35:34 |
| 405098 | 09/22/94 | 03/06/97 | 7 | 190 | Big Creek at Rm 2.9 | 46:09:39 | 123:35:08 |
| 404112 | 05/08/73 | 09/11/73 | 2 | 32 | Gnat Creek below Hwy 30 | 46:11:15 | 123:32:07 |
| 14248810 | 03/26/69 | 04/29/75 | 17 | 434 | Waterworks Creek near Svensen Oregon Site No 1 | 46:06:15 | 123:35:55 |
| 14248830 | 03/26/69 | 04/29/75 | 19 | 429 | Waterworks Creek near Svensen Oregon Site No 3 | 46:06:55 | 123:37:25 |

7.5.2 ODEQ sites

ODEQ does not have a currently active regular ambient water quality monitoring site in the Nicolai Wickiup Watershed. Recent data collected at RM 2.9 on Big Creek are presented in Table 7.7.

| Descriptors | Temperature (°C) | Turbidity (NTU) | Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L) | pH (units) | Total NO ₃ -N (mg/L) | Total Phosphorus (mg/L) |
|---------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Number of observations | 7 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| Minimum | 6.9 | 1.0 | 9.3 | 7.4 | 0.170 | 0.060 |
| Maximum | 16.7 | 6.0 | 10.1 | 7.9 | 0.250 | 0.090 |
| Mean | 11.9 | 3.7 | 9.8 | 7.5 | 0.223 | 0.080 |
| Standard dev. | 4.1 | 2.6 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.046 | 0.015 |
| 1st quartile ¹ | 8.0 | 1.3 | 9.8 | 7.4 | 0.210 | 0.068 |
| Median ² | 14.0 | 4.0 | 9.9 | 7.4 | 0.250 | 0.090 |
| 3rd quartile ³ | 15.0 | 6.0 | 10.0 | 7.5 | 0.250 | 0.090 |

¹ 25 percent of values were less than or equal to the 1st quartile value
² 50 percent of values were less than or equal to the median value
³ 75 percent of values were less than or equal to the 3rd quartile value

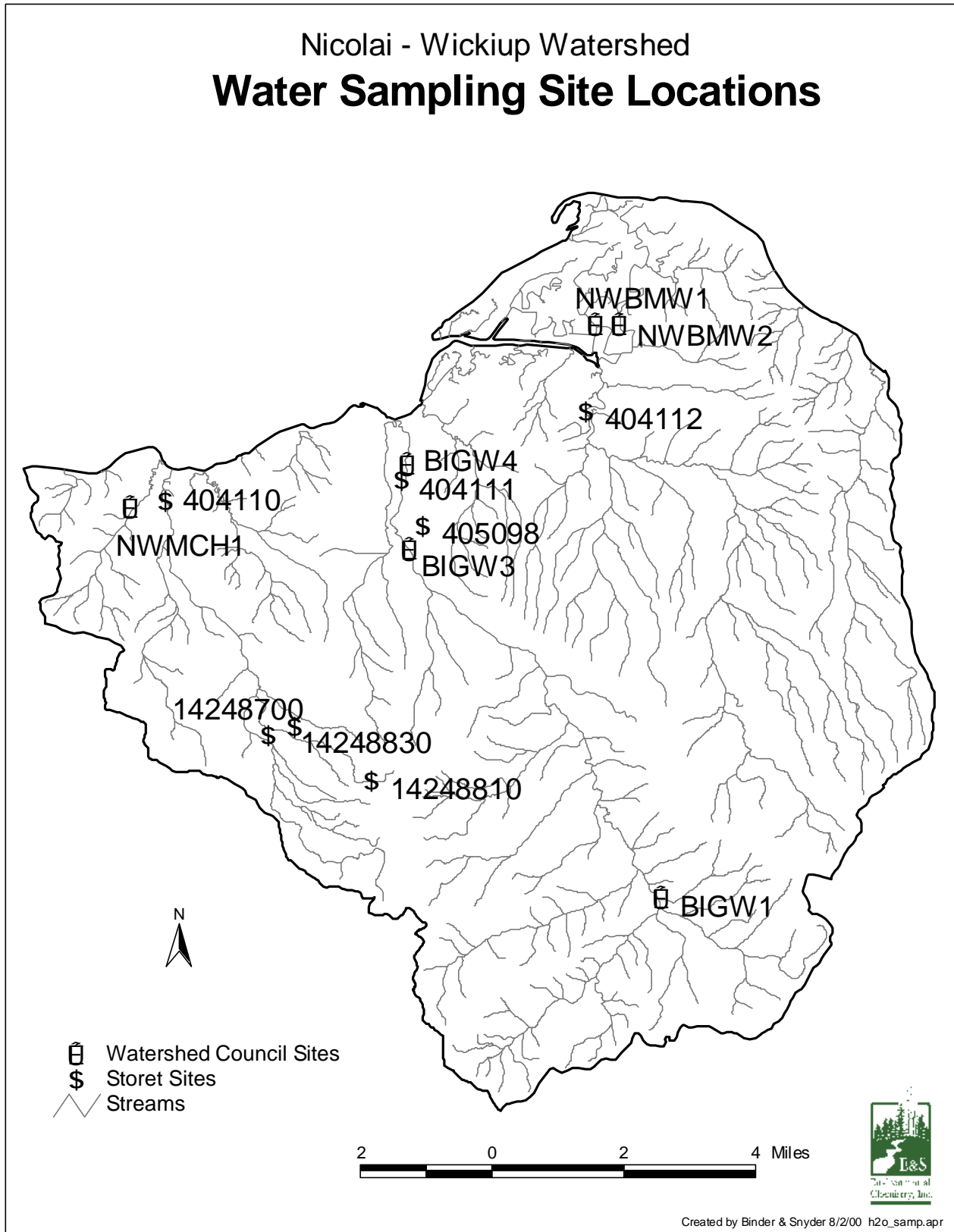


Figure 7.1. Sampling sites in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed with more than one sample since 1965. Site descriptions are provided in Tables 7.6 and 7.8.

7.5.3 Recent Data

Staff and volunteers from the Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed Council collected temperature data during 1999 from several sites in the watershed; three sites on Big Creek, two on Blind Slough, and one on Marys Creek. These sites are listed in Table 7.8. Additional temperature data are available from records at the Big Creek Fish Hatchery. Additional data collected by the watershed council is summarized in Table 7.9.

| Table 7.8. Sites sampled in July through November, 1999 by the Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed Council. | | | |
|---|--|----------|-----------|
| Site ID | Location | Latitude | Longitude |
| BIGW4 | Big Creek near Johanson's/County park | 46:10:27 | 123:35:28 |
| BIGW3 | Big Creek near Graves/Snyder residence | 46:09:20 | 123:35:22 |
| BIGW1 | Big Creek at River Mile 8.5 | 46:04:50 | 123:30:20 |
| NWMCH1 | Marys Creek | 46:09:44 | 123:40:41 |
| NWBMW1 | Brownsmead #1 | 46:12:24 | 123:31:60 |
| NWBMW#2 | Brownsmead #2 | 46:12:25 | 123:31:32 |

7.6 Water Quality Constituents

7.6.1 Temperature

Available temperature data are illustrated in Figures 7.2 to 7.4. Temperatures on Big Creek occasionally exceed the criterion for salmonid spawning, but have not exceeded the temperature criterion for salmonid rearing. Temperatures in the 1970s on Waterworks Creek show a similar pattern, but on at least one occasion exceeded the criterion for salmonid spawning.

The daily maximum temperature (7-day moving average) measured at the fish hatchery on Big Creek in 1999 did not exceed the evaluation criterion for salmonid rearing (17.8°C), but was consistently above the criterion for salmonid spawning (12.8°C) in July and August.

Based on these data, Big Creek would be classified as not impaired with respect to temperature at the screening level of this assessment.

| Table 7.9. Summary of water quality data collected by the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed council in July through November, 1999. | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| Descriptors | Whole pop. | BIGW4 | BIGW3 | BIGW1 | NWBMW1 | WMCH1 | NWBMW2 |
| Water Temperature (°F) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 27 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| Missing values | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Sum of weights | 27 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| Minimum | 48.9 | 48.9 | 49.2 | 54.8 | 67.8 | 49.4 | 66.8 |
| Maximum | 75.3 | 60.2 | 58.8 | 69.2 | 75.3 | 62.0 | 70.5 |
| Mean | 60.3 | 56.2 | 54.9 | 58.8 | 70.9 | 56.8 | 68.5 |
| Standard dev. | 7.0 | 3.9 | 3.1 | 6.1 | 3.5 | 5.8 | 1.9 |
| 1st quartile | 55.2 | 55.8 | 54.8 | 54.9 | 68.2 | 53.4 | 67.6 |
| Median | 58.3 | 57.2 | 55.4 | 55.9 | 70.2 | 57.8 | 68.3 |
| 3rd quartile | 67.3 | 58.1 | 55.9 | 59.4 | 72.9 | 61.1 | 69.4 |
| Air Temperature (°F) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 18 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| Missing values | 6 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 |
| Sum of weights | 18 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| Minimum | 54.3 | 52.0 | 51.5 | 66.3 | 52.0 | 60.8 | 53.0 |
| Maximum | 77.0 | 77.0 | 69.2 | 69.8 | 76.0 | 69.4 | 63.7 |
| Mean | 67.0 | 66.3 | 60.8 | 67.8 | 65.1 | 64.6 | 59.8 |
| Standard dev. | 5.4 | 8.4 | 9.2 | 1.8 | 9.2 | 4.4 | 5.9 |
| 1st quartile | 63.8 | 64.6 | 53.6 | 66.8 | 61.0 | 62.2 | 57.9 |
| Median | 67.4 | 66.6 | 61.2 | 67.4 | 66.0 | 63.5 | 62.8 |
| 3rd quartile | 69.7 | 70.4 | 68.4 | 68.6 | 70.3 | 66.4 | 63.2 |
| Conductivity (uS/cm) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 31 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| Missing values | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sum of weights | 31 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| Minimum | 6.1 | 62.9 | 6.1 | 54.4 | 61.6 | 80.7 | 104.6 |
| Maximum | 130.3 | 82.3 | 81.0 | 72.9 | 130.3 | 101.0 | 121.9 |
| Mean | 84.0 | 74.2 | 61.7 | 66.7 | 106.6 | 92.4 | 114.9 |
| Standard dev. | 25.6 | 8.6 | 27.9 | 7.5 | 26.5 | 9.9 | 8.4 |
| 1st quartile | 69.2 | 66.9 | 64.8 | 65.3 | 106.9 | 82.6 | 109.8 |
| Median | 80.7 | 77.2 | 71.0 | 68.8 | 117.0 | 97.9 | 116.6 |
| 3rd quartile | 102.8 | 80.8 | 76.5 | 72.1 | 117.4 | 100.0 | 121.7 |
| Turbidity (NTU) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 31 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| Missing values | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sum of weights | 31 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| Minimum | 0.7 | 1.2 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 3.3 |
| Maximum | 10.6 | 3.7 | 2.7 | 1.3 | 8.8 | 10.6 | 5.4 |
| Mean | 3.9 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 6.4 | 8.8 | 4.5 |
| Standard dev. | 3.1 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 0.9 |
| 1st quartile | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 4.7 | 8.4 | 4.1 |
| Median | 3.1 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 6.6 | 10.0 | 4.6 |
| 3rd quartile | 5.2 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 1.3 | 7.4 | 10.3 | 5.0 |
| pH (units) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 25 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| Missing values | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Sum of weights | 25 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| Minimum | 6.8 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 6.5 | 7.1 |
| Maximum | 8.2 | 7.3 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 8.2 | 7.0 | 7.7 |
| Mean | 7.2 | 7.1 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 7.5 | 6.9 | 7.4 |

| Descriptors | Whole pop. | BIGW4 | BIGW3 | BIGW1 | NWBMW1 | WMCH1 | NWBMW2 |
|---|------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| Standard dev. | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| 1st quartile | 7.0 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 6.9 | 7.2 |
| Median | 7.1 | 7.2 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 7.3 | 6.9 | 7.3 |
| 3rd quartile | 7.3 | 7.3 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 7.6 | 7.0 | 7.5 |
| Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L) | | | | | | | |
| Number of observations | 15 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| Missing values | 8 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Sum of weights | 15 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| Minimum | 8.1 | 9.8 | 9.5 | 9.0 | 8.1 | 8.6 | 6.0 |
| Maximum | 11.6 | 11.6 | 10.2 | 10.3 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 9.4 |
| Mean | 9.8 | 10.4 | 10.0 | 9.5 | 9.1 | 9.0 | 7.7 |
| Standard dev. | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 2.4 |
| 1st quartile | 9.0 | 9.9 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 6.9 |
| Median | 9.9 | 9.9 | 10.1 | 9.1 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 7.7 |
| 3rd quartile | 10.2 | 11.0 | 10.2 | 9.7 | 9.6 | 9.0 | 8.5 |
| BIGW4 - Johanson's/ County park, BIGW3 - Graves/Snyder residence, BIGW1 - Mile 8.5, NWBMCH1 - Mary's Creek, NWBMW1 - Brownsmead #1, NWBMW2 - Brownsmead #2 ¹ 25 percent of values were less than or equal to the 1 st quartile value; ² 50 percent of values were less than or equal to the median value; ³ 75 percent of values were less than or equal to the 3 rd quartile value | | | | | | | |

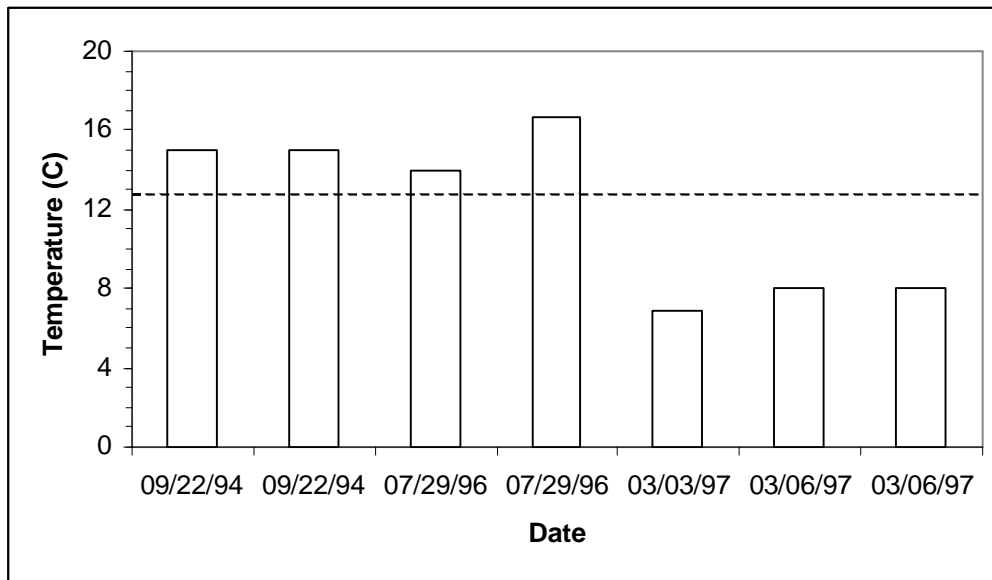


Figure 7.2. Temperature values collected recently at RM 2.9 on Big Creek. Duplicate samples were taken on several days. The horizontal dashed line indicates the criterion for salmonid spawning (12.8° C).

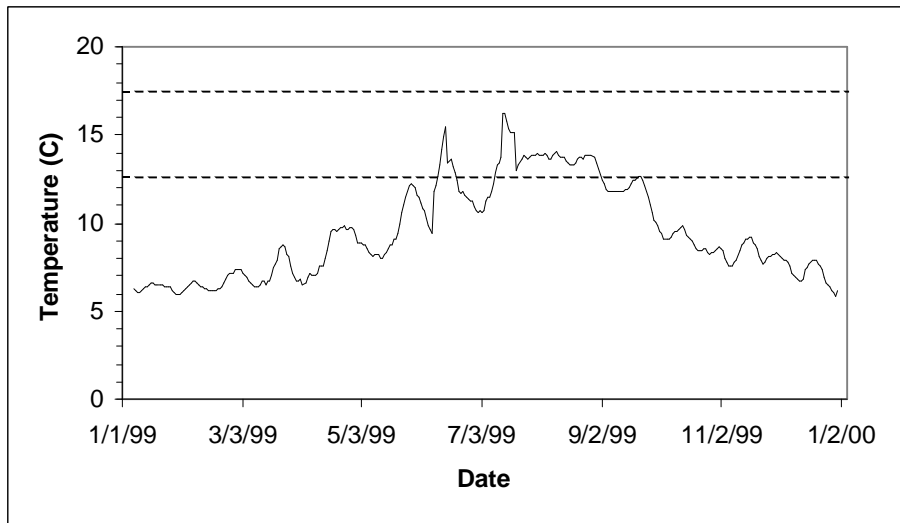


Figure 7.3. Seven-day average maximum temperature recorded at the Big Creek fish hatchery water supply in 1999. The horizontal dashed lines indicate the relevant water quality criteria for salmonid spawning (12.8° C) and rearing (17.8° C).

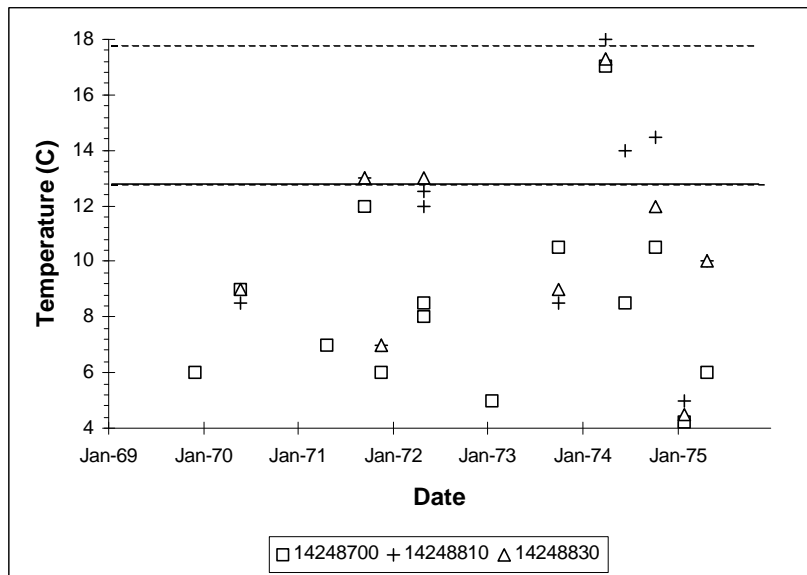


Figure 7.4. Temperatures recorded on Waterworks Creek (14248810, 14248830) and Bear Creek (14248700) between 1969 and 1976. The horizontal dashed lines mark relevant water quality criteria for salmonid spawning (12.8° C) and rearing (17.8° C). Location of sites is shown in Figure 4.1.

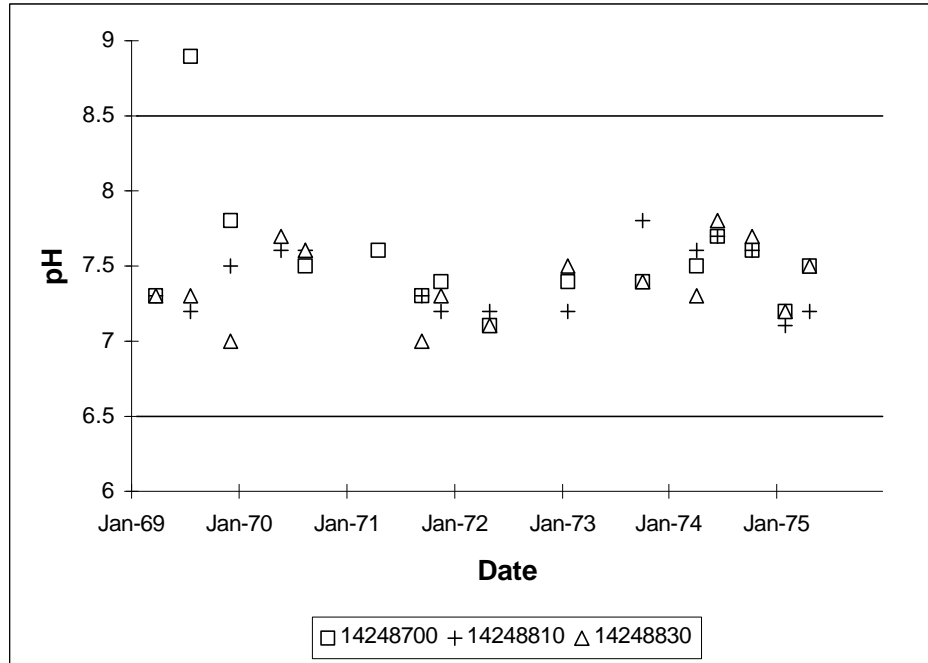


Figure 7.5. Values for pH recorded on Waterworks Creek (14248810, 14248830) and Bear Creek (14248700) between 1969 and 1976. The horizontal dashed lines mark relevant water quality evaluation criteria for pH. Location of sites is shown in Figure 7.1.

7.6.2 Dissolved Oxygen

Dissolved oxygen data for the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed are limited. Data are available for two days (9/22/94 and 7/29/97) at RM 2.9 on Big Creek and for five days in 1999 at three sites on Big Creek (Table 7.9). Of the measurements taken, none was lower than 9.0 mg/L dissolved oxygen. This exceeds the minimum evaluation criterion of 8.0 mg/L. There is not enough information available to assess impairment with respect to dissolved oxygen.

7.6.3 pH

Data for pH are available for Big Creek, Marys Creek, Blind Slough, and Waterworks Creek. Data collected during the 1970s are presented in Figure 7.5. Data collected in 1994 and 1997 are summarized in Table 7.10. Data collected in 1999 (July through November) are summarized in Table 7.9. None of the pH values measured were outside of the evaluation criteria of range 6.5 to 8.5. There is not enough recent information available to assess impairment with respect to pH.

| Table 7.10. Numerical summary of water quality data collected at RM 2.9 on Big Creek in 1994 and 1997. | | | | | |
|--|------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|-------|-------------------------|
| Descriptors | Temperature (°C) | Turbidity (NTU) | Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L) | pH | Total Phosphorus (mg/L) |
| Nbr of observations | 7 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| Min | 6.9 | 1 | 9.3 | 7.4 | 0.06 |
| Max | 16.7 | 6 | 10.1 | 7.9 | 0.09 |
| Mean | 11.94 | 3.67 | 9.8 | 7.5 | 0.08 |
| Standard dev. | 4.12 | 2.58 | 0.34 | 0.25 | 0.015 |
| 1st quartile ¹ | 8 | 1.25 | 9.75 | 7.4 | 0.0675 |
| Median ² | 14 | 4 | 9.9 | 7.4 | 0.09 |
| 3rd quartile ³ | 15 | 6 | 9.95 | 7.525 | 0.09 |
| ¹ 25 percent of values were less than or equal to the 1 st quartile value | | | | | |
| ² 50 percent of values were less than or equal to the median value | | | | | |
| ³ 75 percent of values were less than or equal to the 3 rd quartile value | | | | | |

7.6.4 Nutrients

Phosphorus

Three measurements of total phosphorus, made in 1994 and 1996, are available for consideration (Table 7.10). All three values are greater than the evaluation indicator of 0.50 mg/L.

Nitrogen

Nine measurements of total nitrate-nitrogen (NO₃-N) were available for consideration. They are summarized in Table 7.11. None of the measured values exceed the evaluation indicator of 0.30 mg/L. There is not enough information available to assess impairment with respect to nutrients.

Bacteria

No data were available for bacteria in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

Turbidity

Six measurements of turbidity are available from 1994 and 1996 from RM 2.9 on Big Creek. They are all quite low (Table 7.8), well below the evaluation indicator of 50 NTU.

| Table 7.11. Total nitrate-nitrogen measured in Big Creek and Waterworks Creek (mg/L as N). | |
|---|--------------------|
| Descriptors | NO ₃ -N |
| Number of observations | 9 |
| Missing values | 0 |
| Sum of weights | 9 |
| Min | 0.05 |
| Max | 0.25 |
| Mean | 0.14 |
| Standard dev. | 0.074162 |
| 1st quartile | 0.09 |
| Median | 0.13 |
| 3rd quartile | 0.17 |
| ¹ 25 percent of values were less than or equal to the 1 st quartile value | |
| ² 50 percent of values were less than or equal to the median value | |
| ³ 75 percent of values were less than or equal to the 3 rd quartile value | |

However, the samples were all taken during the dry season (July and September), and so are probably not representative of the maximum turbidity of the stream.

Contaminants

Water samples collected on September 22, 1994 from RM 2.9 on Big Creek have been analyzed for metals including copper, chromium, lead, cadmium, zinc, and arsenic. All results were below the analytical method detection limits.

7.7 Water Quality Conditions

The limited amount of data available for review in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed makes it difficult to adequately assess the water quality conditions in the watershed. What data there are suggest that water quality in the basin is not impaired. Temperatures exceed the salmonid spawning criterion, but if that occurs when salmonids are not spawning, it does not present a problem. The available data suggest that the salmonid rearing criterion is rarely exceeded. The total phosphorus indicator criterion was exceeded by all of the samples for which there are data. This may indicate a potential problem, or it may be an expression of relatively high phosphorus content in soils in the area.

Before an adequate assessment can be made of water quality in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, additional data must be obtained through a carefully designed water quality monitoring program.

CHAPTER 8 WATERSHED CONDITION SUMMARY

8.1 Introduction

Summarizing current conditions and data gaps within a watershed will help to identify how current and past resource management is impacting aquatic resources. Through this summarization, we have attempted to create a decision-making framework for identifying key restoration activities that will improve water quality and aquatic habitats. Following is a summary of key findings and data gaps from the primary components of this watershed including fisheries, fish habitat, hydrology, water use, sediment sources, water quality and wetlands.

8.2 Important Fisheries

Fisheries within the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed have undergone significant changes during the twentieth century. The types of fish present and their locations have been altered from historical conditions in the watershed. Arguably, the most significant activities to affect the fisheries during the last one hundred years are habitat modifications, hatchery programs and harvest.

The National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) has listed several anadromous fish species that do and could potentially exist in the watershed as threatened, including chum and chinook. (Table 8.1). Coho and steelhead have been listed as candidates for listing while coastal cutthroat is proposed to be listed as threatened. Listing occurs for entire Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESU), which is a genetically or ecologically distinctive group of Pacific salmon, steelhead, or sea-run cutthroat trout.

| Table 8.1. Status of anadromous fish occurring in the Lower Columbia ESU's. ¹ Listing status was obtained from the NMFS website (http://www.nwr.noaa.gov/l salmon/salmonesu/index.htm). | | |
|---|---|---------------------|
| Fish | ESU | Status |
| Coho | Lower Columbia River/Southwest Washington | Candidate |
| Coastal Cutthroat | Southwestern Washington/Columbia River | Proposed Threatened |
| Chum | Columbia River | Threatened |
| Chinook | Lower Columbia River | Threatened |
| Steelhead | Oregon Coast | Candidate |

¹ An Evolutionarily Significant Unit or "ESU" is a genetically or ecologically distinctive group of Pacific salmon, steelhead, or sea-run cutthroat trout.

Fisheries in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed lack self-sustaining anadromous fish populations. Native coho, chum, and chinook have been eliminated (if there ever were any). Sea-run cutthroat trout appears to be at very low levels. Native winter steelhead is present in fair numbers only in the Lewis & Clark River (Youngs Bay watershed). Consequently, even if significant improvements were made in habitat and ocean conditions, anadromous fish levels in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed would most likely remain low (Walt Weber pers. comm.). To improve fisheries in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed, it is imperative that brood stock development programs be developed that provide fish stocks capable of using improved habitats and becoming self-sustaining populations. Possible brood stock sources include late spawning Cowlitz River hatchery coho, Washington lower Columbia River chum, Lewis & Clark River winter steelhead, and Clatskanie River or Lewis & Clark River sea-run cutthroat trout. This list is not all-inclusive, and establishment of these broodstocks must take into account current local terminal fishery programs and local gill-net fisheries. Potential issues include over harvest of developing broodstocks, competition, predation, and attraction of avian predators.

An additional problem exists in that fish are excluded from some of the better fish habitat available due to the Big Creek and Gnat Creek ODFW fish hatcheries. These barriers have led to the virtual elimination of native steelhead and searun cutthroat populations in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Walt Weber pers. comm.) and have limited the expansion of introduced coho broodstock. Removal of the hatcheries would eliminate this problem, although these hatcheries may be needed for broodstock development.

8.3 Hydrology and Water Use

8.3.1 Hydrology

Human activities in a watershed can alter the natural hydrologic cycle, potentially causing changes in water quality and aquatic habitats. These types of changes in the landscape can increase or decrease the volume, size, and timing of runoff events and affect low flows by changing groundwater recharge. Some examples of human activities that can impact watershed hydrology are timber harvesting, urbanization, conversion of forested land to agriculture, and construction of road networks. The focus of the hydrologic analysis component of this assessment is to evaluate the potential impacts from land and water use on the hydrology of this watershed (WPN 1999). It is important to note that this assessment only provides a screen for potential hydrologic impacts based on current land use activities in a watershed. Identifying

those activities that are actually affecting the hydrology of the watershed would require a more in-depth analysis and is beyond the scope of this assessment.

In general, current land use practices in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed do not demonstrate a high potential for enhancing peak flows as a result of forest harvesting, establishment of agriculture and range lands, construction of forest and rural roads, and establishment of urban and suburban areas (Table 8.2). Rain events are the predominant form of precipitation, so there is only a small chance for forestry practices to enhance peak flows as a result of rain-on-snow events. Rain-on-snow events that do occur are large and rare events, and it is unlikely that forest practices are increasing the magnitude of these events. Because forest harvest practices are common in the watershed, it is possible that there are other impacts to the watershed's hydrology, such as reductions in evapotranspiration, increased infiltration and subsurface flow, and increased overland flow. Both forest and rural road densities are low or occupy such small proportions of the watershed that their potential for enhancing peak flows is low. The Calendar Slough and Ferris Creek subwatersheds did demonstrate a moderate potential for peak flow enhancement as a result of forest road construction which may be further exacerbated by the presence of confined channel forms (60 and 76 percent, respectively).

Urban, suburban, and agricultural development is concentrated in the lower elevations of the watershed, often occurring in the floodplains of the Columbia River (Brownsmead). These land

| Table 8.2. Potential effects on peak flows from land use practices ¹ . Impact ratings for forest and rural roads are based on calculations from the ODF fire roads coverage. | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| | Area (mi ²) | Forestry Impacts | Forest Road Impacts | Rural Road Impacts |
| Bear Creek | 12.4 | low | low | low |
| Big Creek | 33.1 | low | low | moderate |
| Blind Slough | 11.7 | low | low | low |
| Warren Slough | 6.7 | low | moderate | low |
| Ferris Creek | 4.7 | low | moderate | low |
| Gnat Creek | 27.2 | low | low | low |
| Hall Creek | 4.2 | low | low | low |
| Hunt Cr. | 7.0 | low | low | - |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | low | low | high |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | low | low | - |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | low | low | low |

¹ Impact ratings were based on standards set in the OWEB watershed assessment manual.

management activities often result in the channelization and diking of the rivers for flood protection and wetland draining. By channelizing and disconnecting the rivers from their floodplains, downcutting of the channel can occur, increasing flow velocities and changing peak flows (Naiman and Bilby 1998). Determining the level of impact from diking and channelization warrants further investigation.

8.3.2 Water Use

Water is withdrawn from both surface and subsurface water supplies within almost all the watersheds in Oregon. Much of this water is for beneficial uses, such as irrigation, municipal water supply, and stock watering. When water is removed from these stores, a certain percentage is lost through processes such as evapotranspiration. Water that is “consumed” through these processes does not return to the stream or aquifer, resulting in reduced instream flows, which can adversely affect aquatic communities that are dependent upon this water. In fact, the dewatering of streams has often been cited as one of the major reasons for salmonid declines in the state of Oregon.

Water availability was assessed by ranking subwatersheds according to their dewatering potential (Table 8.3). Dewatering potential is defined as the potential for large proportions of instream flows to be lost from the stream channel through consumptive use.

| Water Availability Watershed | Fish Use ¹ | Avg. Percent Withdrawn ² | Dominant Water Use | Dewatering Potential ³ |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Bear Cr. @ mouth | C, FC, WS, CH | 101 | Municipal | High |
| Big Cr. @ mouth | C, FC, WS | 4 | Fish/Wildlife | Low |
| Fertile Valley Cr. @ mouth | C, WS | 2 | Municipal | Low |
| Ferris Cr. @ mouth | C, WS | 1 | Irrigation | Low |
| Gnat Cr. @ mouth | C, FC, WS | 1 | Fish/Wildlife | Low |
| Bear Cr. @ 14248700 | WS | 0 | Municipal | Low |
| Kelly Cr. @ mouth | -- | 0 | Domestic | Low |
| Twilight Cr. @ mouth | -- | 0 | -- | Low |
| Hunt Cr. @ mouth | C | 0 | Irrigation | Low |
| Mary's Cr. @ mouth | C, WS | 0 | -- | Low |

¹ C=coho, FC=fall chinook, WS=winter steelhead, CH=chum
² Average of low flow months (June, July, August, September, October)
³ Greater than 30% is high, 10 to 30% is moderate, and less than 10% is low

The largest amount of water withdrawals in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed is for municipal use and is drawn from the Bear Creek subwatershed. The city of Astoria uses the Bear Creek subwatershed as its primary source of water and also owns two undeveloped water rights for Big Creek and the Youngs River. Municipal water rights have a number of preferences under Oregon water law (Bastasch 1998). First, a municipality can get a water right certificate for part of its permit and keep the remainder in permit status. This allows the municipality to hold the remainder in reserve for future use. Thus, a municipality can hold undeveloped water rights such as the Big Creek and Youngs River water rights, without fully developing those rights and saving them for future needs. Additionally, municipal water rights can overtake more senior water rights if it is deemed in the public interest. There is potential for the city of Astoria to develop these unused water rights and increase the potential for dewatering in both Big Creek and the Youngs River (Youngs Bay watershed).

Getting appropriated water back into the stream channel can be a difficult process. The Oregon Water Resources Board offers several programs, including water right leasing and conversion, in an attempt to put water back into the stream channel. However, much of this water has high economic value to its users, generating a demand for the water. Alternatives should be identified to conserve water, especially in streams with a high dewatering potential.

8.4 Aquatic Habitats

Distribution and abundance of salmonids within a given watershed varies with habitat conditions such as substrate and pool frequency as well as biological factors such as food distribution (i.e. insects and algae). In addition, salmonids have complex life histories and use different areas of a watershed during different parts of their life cycle. For example, salmonids need gravel substrates for spawning but may move to different stream segments during rearing. The interactions of these factors in space and time make it difficult to determine specific factors affecting salmonid populations. Consequently, entire watersheds, not just individual components, must be managed to maintain fish habitats (Garano and Brophy 1999).

The Endangered Species Act requires that forests providing habitat for endangered species must be properly managed (Tuchmann et al. 1996). An understanding of the land patterns associated with the distribution of these species can lead to a better understanding of how to conserve these species. The OWEB process focuses on salmonids in the watershed.

8.4.1 Fish Passage

Culverts can pose several types of problems including excess height, excessive water velocity, insufficient water depth in culvert, disorienting flow patterns, and lack of resting pools between culverts. Culverts can also limit fish species during certain parts of their life cycles and not others. For example, a culvert may be passable to larger adult anadromous fish and not juveniles. Culverts may also act as passage barriers only during particular environmental conditions such as high flow events. Because of these variable effects, it is important to understand the interactions of habitat conditions and life stage for anadromous fish.

Overall, data were insufficient to evaluate current fish passage problems in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Table 8.4). Only a small proportion of culverts have been evaluated. ODFW conducted a survey of culverts for state and county roads. Of the 23 culverts surveyed by ODFW, 15 did not meet standards, suggesting that they block access to critical habitat areas. Many of these impassable culverts occur in the lower portions of the watershed, blocking access to rather large areas of the watershed. The data did not identify whether the culverts were impassable under all environmental conditions (i.e. low flow, high flow). Current data suggest that impassable culverts are a widespread problem in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Culverts blocking access to critical fish habitat areas need to be upgraded to improve fish passage.

Table 8.4 Fish passage conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

| Subwatershed | Stream Miles | Salmonid Use ¹ | Miles Salmonid Use | # Known Impassable Culverts | # Road/ Stream Crossings | Rank |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| Bear Creek | 33 | C, FC, WS, CH | 12.4 | 0 | 55 | Insufficient data |
| Big Creek | 91 | C, FC, WS | 13.7 | 0 | 104 | Insufficient data |
| Blind Slough | 46 | C | 0.2 | 1 | 0 | Insufficient data |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | -- | 0.0 | 0 | 0 | Insufficient data |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | -- | 0.0 | 1 | 17 | Insufficient data |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | C, WS | 4.7 | 6 | 40 | Insufficient data |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | C, FC, WS | 12.5 | 4 | 92 | Insufficient data |
| Hall Creek | 14 | C | 3.9 | 4 | 27 | Insufficient data |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | C | 1.1 | 4 | 42 | Insufficient data |
| Little Creek | 11 | WS | 5.4 | 3 | 27 | Insufficient data |
| Marys Creek | 10 | C, WS | 3.2 | 0 | 14 | Insufficient data |
| Warren Slough | 10 | -- | 0.0 | 0 | 6 | Insufficient data |

¹ C=coho, FC=fall chinook, WS=winter steelhead, CH=chum

There are several natural fish passage barriers that occur in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. In the Bear Creek subwatershed there is a 4 to 5 foot falls that blocks passage at low flows. Hunt Creek also has a falls that blocks fish passage approximately a quarter mile above the confluence with the Columbia River. These data need to be combined and mapped in a GIS data base. Culverts should be prioritized according to fish usage or need to be evaluated. A good starting point is the road /stream crossing coverage developed as a part of this assessment.

Both the Big Creek and Gnat Creek fish hatcheries act as fish passage barriers. The Big Creek hatchery prevents access to 83 miles of streams that could potentially provide habitat. Blockage occurs as a result of a water intake on the mainstem of Big Creek. Mill Creek is also blocked by the Mill Creek Dam, maintained by the fish hatchery. Blockage at the Gnat Creek hatchery is not quite so significant in that there are a series of falls approximately 3 to 4 miles upstream. However, there may be some potentially significant habitat features in the area between the hatchery and the falls. The east fork of Gnat Creek is blocked by a road fill as a result of highway road construction.

8.4.2 *Fish Habitats*

Understanding the spatial and temporal distribution of key aquatic habitat components is the first step in learning to maintain conditions suitable to sustain salmonid populations. These components must then be linked to larger scale watershed processes that may control them. For example, a stream that lacks sufficient large woody debris (LWD) often has poor LWD recruitment potential in the riparian areas of that stream. By identifying this linkage, riparian areas can be managed to include more conifers to increase LWD recruitment potential. Also, high stream temperatures can often be linked to lack of shade as a result of poorly vegetated riparian areas. By linking actual conditions to current watershed-level processes, land managers can better understand how to manage the resources to maintain these key aquatic habitat components.

Stream Morphology

Pools are important features for salmonids, providing refugia and feeding areas. Substrates are also an important channel feature since salmonids use gravel beds for spawning. These gravel beds can be buried by heavy sedimentation, resulting in loss of spawning areas as well as

reduced invertebrate habitat. For streams that were surveyed, stream morphology and substrates were compared against ODFW benchmarks to evaluate current habitat conditions.

In general, data were lacking to evaluate current stream morphology. Most of the reaches that were surveyed by ODFW were above major fish blockages including the Gnat Creek and Big Creek fish hatcheries. Overall, both Big Creek and Gnat Creek had good habitat conditions with moderate gravel and pool frequency (Table 8.5). These areas could provide good spawning grounds for salmonids, especially coho, fall chinook, and winter steelhead. Restoration of habitat should focus in areas of current coho distribution since coho are currently thought to be natural runs (ODFW 1995).

| Subwatershed | Stream Miles | Fish Use ¹ | Miles Surveyed ² | Pool Frequency ² | Percent Pools ² | Residual Pool Depth ² | Gravel ² |
|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Bear Creek | 33 | C, FC, WS, CH | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Big Creek | 91 | C, FC, WS | 79.8 (30) | MOD (23) | DES (16) | UNDES (14) | MOD (19) |
| Blind Slough | 46 | C | 3.7 (4) | UNDES (3) | MOD (3) | UNDES (2) | UNDES (3) |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | -- | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | -- | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | C, WS | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | C, FC, WS | 53.7 (13) | MOD (10) | DES (5) | DES (6) | MOD (12) |
| Hall Creek | 14 | C | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | C | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Little Creek | 11 | WS | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Marys Creek | 10 | C, WS | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Warren Slough | 10 | -- | 0 | -- | -- | -- | -- |

¹ C=coho, FC=fall chinook, WS=winter steelhead, CH=chum
² Number in parentheses is the number of reaches in that category from ODFW surveys

Large Woody Debris

Large woody debris is an important feature that adds to the complexity of the stream channel. LWD in the stream provides cover, produces and maintains pool habitat, creates surface turbulence, and retains a small woody debris. Functionally, LWD dissipates stream energy, retains gravel and sediments, increases stream sinuosity and length, slows the nutrient cycling process, and provides diverse habitat for aquatic organisms (Bischoff 2000, BLM 1996).

Streams generally had moderate instream LWD including key pieces, volume, and number of pieces (Table 8.6). Much of this is probably a result of moderate riparian recruitment. Areas that lack LWD would benefit from riparian planting and instream LWD placement.

| Subwatershed | Stream Miles | Fish Use ¹ | Riparian Recruitment ² | Riparian Shade ² | Instream LWD ³ |
|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| Bear Creek | 33 | C, FC, WS, CH | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Big Creek | 91 | C, FC, WS | Moderate | Adequate | MOD (46) |
| Blind Slough | 46 | C | Inadequate | Adequate | UNDES (12) |
| Calendar Slough | 4 | -- | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Twilight Creek | 4 | -- | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Ferris Creek | 14 | C, WS | Moderate | Adequate | MOD (26) |
| Gnat Creek | 83 | C, FC, WS | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Hall Creek | 14 | C | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Hunt Creek | 24 | C | Inadequate | Adequate | -- |
| Little Creek | 11 | WS | Moderate | Adequate | -- |
| Marys Creek | 10 | C, WS | Inadequate | Adequate | -- |
| Warren Slough | 10 | -- | Inadequate | Adequate | -- |

¹ C=coho, FC=fall chinook, WS=winter steelhead, CH=chum
² From aerial photo interpretation conducted by E&S Environmental Chemistry, Inc.
³ Number in parentheses is the number of reaches in that category from the ODFW field surveys.

Wetlands

Wetlands contribute critical functions to a watershed’s health, such as water quality improvement, flood attenuation, groundwater recharge and discharge, and fish and wildlife habitat (Mitsch and Gosselink 1993). Because of the importance of these functions, wetlands are regulated by both State and Federal agencies. Additionally, wetlands play an important role in the life cycles of salmonids (Lebovitz 1992). Estuarine wetlands provide holding and feeding areas for salmon smolts migrating out to the ocean. These estuarine wetlands also provide an acclimation area for smolts while they are adapting to marine environments. Riparian wetlands can reduce sediment loads by slowing down flood water, allowing sediments to fall out of the water column and accumulate. Wetlands provide cover and a food source in the form of a diverse aquatic invertebrate community. Backwater riparian wetlands also provide cover during high flow events, preventing juvenile salmon from being washed downstream.

Estuarine Wetlands

Estuarine wetlands were once common in the Columbia River estuary, including the Nicolai Wickiup watershed (Boulé and Bierly 1987). Many of these wetlands have been diked, disconnecting them from saltwater influences and changing the structure of the wetland. All existing estuarine wetlands currently accessible to salmonids need to be protected or restored. Those wetlands disconnected by dikes need to be evaluated for potential restoration.

Palustrine Wetlands

Palustrine wetlands are a dominant feature in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed. Streamside wetlands need to be protected, especially those that are in the current salmonid distribution. Streamside wetlands that have been disconnected due to diking need to be evaluated for restoration opportunities. Other wetlands should be protected for their roles in maintaining water quality, flood attenuation, and habitat.

8.5 Sediment Sources

In this watershed, slope instability, road instability, and rural road runoff were determined to be the most significant potential sediment sources. Shallow landslides and deep-seated slumps are known to be common in the Oregon Coast Range. Streamside landslides and slumps can be major contributors of sediment to streams, and shallow landslides frequently initiate debris flows. Rural roads are a common feature of this watershed, and many are present on steep slopes. Washouts from rural roads contribute sediment to streams, and sometimes initiate debris flows. The density of rural roads, especially unpaved gravel and dirt roads, indicates a high potential for sediment contribution to the stream network.

Sediment sources are highly variable across the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed (Table 8.7). Although it is difficult to differentiate between human-induced and natural landslide events at this level of analysis, we can screen for land use practices that may be increasing sediment loading into surface waters. Many culverts have been identified to be at risk of causing damage to the stream network. High risk culverts that exist on Willamette Industries land have been prioritized and are currently being replaced under the 10 year Legacy Road Plan. In the Big Creek subwatershed, a 1988 landslide study concluded that the primary source of sediments to streams was from slumps not associated with roads (Andrus 1988). Road-related landslides did occur; however, they were not believed to have contributed significant amounts of sediment to

surface waters. Although no other landslide inventories have been conducted in the watershed, it is likely that this is the case in the other subwatersheds as well. All of the subwatersheds had similar road densities within 200 feet of the stream, most of which occurred on slopes less than 50 percent in gradient, and the majority of these roads had gravel surfaces. Culverts also presented a moderate threat to watershed health.

Table 8.7. Potential sediment source conditions in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed.

| | Area (mi ²) | Slope Instability* | Road Instability | Road Runoff | Stream Bank Erosion |
|-----------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| Big Creek | 33 | High | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Hunt Creek | 7.0 | High | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Blind Slough | 12 | Moderate | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | High |
| Gnat Creek | 27 | Moderate | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Little Creek | 4.4 | Moderate | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Bear Creek | 12 | Moderate | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Marys Creek | 2.9 | Moderate | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Warren Slough | 2.5 | Low | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Calendar Slough | 2.0 | Low | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Hall Creek | 4.3 | Low | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Twilight Creek | 1.7 | Low | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |
| Ferris Creek | 5.0 | Low | Insufficient Data | Insufficient Data | -- |

* High was >20% area in high and moderate categories from DOGAMI slope instability analysis. Moderate was 10 to 20% and low was < 10%.

8.6 Water Quality

Water quality is controlled by the interaction of natural and human processes in the watershed. Processes that occur on the hillslope can ultimately control instream water quality. Pollutants are mobilized through surface and subsurface runoff and can cause degradation of stream water quality for both human use and fish habitat. Consequently, many water quality parameters are highly episodic in nature and often associated with certain land use practices. The water quality assessment is based on a process that identifies the beneficial use of water, identifies the criteria that protects these benefits, and evaluates the current water quality conditions using these criteria as a rule set (WPN 1999).

It is not possible to determine water quality impairment in the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed because there is so little data available. Additional data will be required to ascertain the causes of impairment and to devise restoration activities that might improve water quality.

CHAPTER 9. RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 General

- Prioritize restoration and watershed management activities based on information in this assessment and any other assessment work conducted in the watershed. One example is the instream habitat restoration guide developed by ODFW (ODFW 1997). Prioritize areas with known salmonid use for both spawning and rearing. Focus on areas with sufficient water quality for salmonids (low temperature, low turbidity) and areas with good stream channel characteristics (responsive channel habitat type, good geomorphologic conditions, good riparian shade and recruitment potential).
- Maintain relationships and contacts with the Oregon Department of Forestry, the cities of Astoria and Warrenton, and private timber owners to keep up-to-date on data collection, further assessment, and restoration activities on their lands. Update assessment data sets accordingly.
- Develop an understanding of the Forest Practices Act (a copy is housed at the watershed council office). This will provide a better understanding of regulations and mitigation actions necessary for timber harvest.

9.2 General Data

- Use a standardized set of base maps. As a part of this assessment, a series of 1:24,000 base map layers were developed. We recommend that these layers be used as a base map and additional data be maintained at a scale of 1:24,000 or larger (i.e. 1:12,000). All of these layers will relate directly to the USGS 7.5 minute quadrangles which can be used to list later information and find locations in the field.
- Georeference all field data at a scale of 1:24,000 or better. This can be accomplished by using GPS to record latitude and longitude or by marking the location on the USGS quadrangle maps.
- Maintain data in an accessible location and format. The watershed council office is the best place for this. Most data should be maintained in a GIS format and updated annually. Some coverages will be updated periodically by the agency that created the coverage (i.e. salmonid distribution data from ODFW). These data sets should remain current in the watershed council's database.
- Collect additional data in priority areas. The decision-making framework provided with this document allows the user to select strategic locations for data collection based on features such as channel habitat type, known salmonid distribution, and water quality conditions.

- Get expert advice on data collection and processing. Consult with the Technical Advisory Committee, federal and state agencies, and consultants to develop appropriate sampling collection, quality control, and data analysis protocols.
- Evaluate the GIS data layers. Several of the data sets used to develop this assessment need to be evaluated and compared to on-the-ground conditions before restoration or final conclusions are made about ecosystem processes. Layers that need further evaluation or updating include:

Land Use and Wetlands

The land use was refined from a LANDSAT scene, zoning, National Wetlands Inventory (NWI), and ownership (see section 1.8) which have all been field verified. NWI data were not available digitally for the entire area and so were used only in the areas of digital coverage. Additional wetland data were derived from the LANDSAT scene. NWI data are much more accurate since NWI is derived from aerial photo interpretation. Consequently, some areas that have been classified as wetlands are really agricultural fields. As NWI data become more readily available in digital format, the land use coverage should be updated. All land use categories should be field verified before restoration actions occur.

Roads

The roads coverage is a key coverage used to evaluate potential sediment sources and changes in watershed hydrology associated with road construction. However, the roads coverage may not accurately represent on-the-ground conditions in this watershed. The road coverage was developed from the 1:100,000 USGS Digital Line Graphs (DLG) updated on an ad-hoc basis from aerial photos and other sources as they were discovered. Although this coverage represents the best available data for roads, its accuracy is suspect. A study needs to be developed to verify the accuracy of the roads coverage.

Channel Habitat Types

Channel habitat types were determined using GIS. Field verification of these data suggest that the data accurately represent actual on-the-ground conditions (through visual comparison). However, the channel habitat type should be further verified in the field before any restoration actions occur.

Riparian Vegetation and Shade

Riparian conditions need to be further evaluated before restoration actions occur. A visual comparison of field checks to the aerial photo interpretations found the data to be fairly consistent. After site selection using the GIS data, the stream reach identified should be field checked for actual on-the-ground conditions. A more rigorous analysis of the GIS data could also be performed (field data have been provided to the watershed council).

- Refine the land use layer. Continue to develop the land use layer to reflect changes in land use. Update the layer with digital NWI data as they become available.

9.3 Fisheries

- Develop and update a fish limits coverage. This process has been started by ODF.
- Work with ODFW to identify viable populations and distributions of sensitive species, particularly salmonids. These data are critical in developing watershed enhancement strategies.
- Identify and survey areas currently used by salmonids. Collect stream survey data according to ODFW protocols. These data will help identify habitat limitations and areas that may provide good habitat but are currently blocked by a barrier.
- Work with ODFW to establish a brood stock development program that will provide fish stocks capable of establishing self-sustaining populations of coho, chum, chinook, sea-run cutthroat, and steelhead. A brood stock development program will help provide fish capable of using improved habitats, leading to self-sustaining populations of fish.

9.4 Aquatic Habitats

9.4.1 Instream Habitat Conditions

- Field verify the channel habitat type GIS data layer (see section 9.2). Some data have already been collected and visually compared to the layers. A statistical approach should be applied to these data.

9.4.2 Riparian Zones

- Field verify the riparian GIS data layers (see section 9.2). Some data have already been collected and visually compared to the layers. A statistical approach should be applied to these data.
- Prioritize stream reaches for restoration of riparian vegetation. Start in areas currently used by salmonids and lacking in LWD recruitment potential, good shade conditions, or instream LWD.
- Plant riparian conifers and native species in areas lacking LWD recruitment potential. Start in areas of known salmonid use, and use the riparian vegetation map provided with this assessment and ODFW stream surveys to identify candidate reaches. Before any reaches are targeted for planting, they should be field verified for suitability and actual conditions. Vegetation planting should use only native species and mimic comparable undisturbed sites.
- Develop a riparian fencing strategy to maintain riparian vegetation.

9.4.3 Fish Passage

- Complete a culvert survey of all culverts that have not been evaluated for fish passage. Data should be maintained in a GIS. The road/stream crossing coverage is a good place to start. The culvert survey should begin in priority subwatersheds at the mouth of each of the streams. Establish priorities for culvert replacement.
- Replace priority culverts identified in the culvert survey.
- Install fish passages at known fish passage barriers that are caused by human influences.

9.4.4 Wetlands

- Prioritize estuarine wetlands for restoration options based on their value to salmonids for restoration, creation, or maintenance. Landowners with priority wetlands can then be contacted for possible wetland restoration.
- Prioritize for restoration, creation, or maintenance, palustrine wetlands that are connected to streams and provide back water rearing areas for salmonids. Start in areas with known salmonid rearing and spawning habitat.
- Create, restore, and maintain estuarine wetlands based on their prioritization.
- Create, restore, and maintain palustrine wetlands based on their prioritization.

9.5 Hydrology and Water Use

- Update and refine the roads layer (see section 9.2). Keep in contact with ODF and other groups (private land owners) as the roads layer is updated to evaluate its accuracy.
- Develop a strategy to collect continuous discharge data in the primary rivers that flow into Young's Bay. One strategy may be to install a level logger on the Lewis & Clark River and model the other rivers based on these data. Discharge data are essential to evaluate current low flow and peak flow conditions on the watershed. Work with OWRD or the USGS to get stream gages installed.
- Collect meteorologic data and rainfall data to improve modeling capabilities for water availability and flooding. This could be accomplished through local high schools or volunteers.
- Develop an outreach program to encourage water conservation. One of the primary water withdrawals is for municipal use. Educate the public about dewatering effects and how water conservation will help salmonids in the watersheds.

- Identify water rights that are not currently in use and that may be available for instream water rights through leasing or conversion.

9.6 Sediment

- Update and refine the roads layer (see section 9.2). Keep in contact with ODF as the roads layer is updated. Check with other groups (private land owners) to update the roads layer and evaluate its accuracy.
- Identify roads that have not been surveyed for current conditions and fill these data gaps. Work with ODF to develop road survey methodologies.
- Map road failures in areas where data are lacking. Coordinate with watershed stakeholders that are currently collecting road data such as ODF and private timber companies. Develop a strategy to fill in the data gaps.
- Map culvert locations and conditions in conjunction with the culvert survey conducted for fish passage barriers. Check with ODF, ODFW, and local foresters for the best methodologies and data to collect.
- Map all debris flows and landslides. Begin in the areas most susceptible to landslide activity as identified in the DOGAMI debris flow hazard map.
- Where possible, conduct road restoration activities such as road reconstruction, decommissioning, and obliteration.
- Replace undersized culverts that are at risk of washing out. Prioritize these culverts from the culvert surveys.

9.7 Water Quality

- Develop a systematic water quality monitoring program for areas with high priority for restoration activity. Focus the water quality monitoring on constituents that are important for the specific area being restored. Use the water quality data to refine the restoration plans.
- Develop or expand the continuous temperature monitoring network with monitors at strategically located points such as the mouths of tributary streams, locations of known spawning beds, at the interface between major land use types, or downstream of activities with the potential to influence water temperature.
- Include a plan for long-term monitoring in any restoration plan to measure the effects of the restoration activity.
- Begin to develop the capacity within the watershed council to conduct high quality, long term water quality monitoring to document the success of restoration activities.

- Locate and map potential sources of nitrogen, phosphorus, and bacteria in the watershed.
- Conduct all water quality monitoring activities according to established guidelines such as those published by the Oregon Plan for Salmon and Watersheds (OPSW 1999), or EPA (1997, 1993).
- Cooperate with DEQ and other agencies to share data and expertise. Coordinate the council's monitoring activities with those of the agencies, including DEQ's efforts to develop Total Maximum Daily Loads for water quality limited stream segments.

CHAPTER 10 MONITORING PLAN

10.1 Introduction

There are several possible functions of a monitoring plan: to answer questions that arise as a result of the watershed assessment, to fill critical data gaps, and to measure the success of restoration efforts developed as a result of the watershed assessment. Procedures for developing a monitoring plan are provided in some detail in Component XI of the OWEB Assessment Manual (WPN 1999). Those procedures will be summarized here. For further information, refer to the OWEB Manual.

The monitoring plan describes what is being monitored, and why, and lays out an organized approach to the monitoring. It does not necessarily include detailed procedures for actually collecting data. Those procedures can be found in a number of references such as the Oregon Plan Technical Guide (OPSW 1999). Although trained volunteers can often implement all or part of a monitoring program once a plan is developed, developing the plan requires specific knowledge of the appropriate monitoring techniques, data analysis, statistics, and quality assurance. Watershed councils should obtain help from specialists such as agency resource scientists or monitoring consultants when developing a monitoring program.

Monitoring may be undertaken for a number of reasons: 1) to evaluate the existing condition or status of the resource (fill a data gap), 2) to identify cause-and-effect relationships within the watershed, and 3) to determine trends in conditions in response to specific activities. The first type is conducted when little or no information exists about a particular condition, to identify if a problem exists, or to clarify the magnitude of a particular problem. The second type is usually designed to pinpoint the particular cause of a problem and to devise corrective measures. The third type is undertaken to document the effects of a particular restoration action, and may require intensive monitoring over many years or several decades to detect a trend.

It is critical that the objective of any monitoring effort be clearly identified before data collection efforts are planned. The monitoring objective will determine the location, duration, and frequency of field observation or sample collection.

10.2 Filling Data Gaps

The watershed assessment has identified data gaps and other information needs. These needs should be addressed before costly restoration activities are undertaken. Some data gaps, such as riparian condition assessment or verifying wetland location, can be filled through field observation. Others, such as water quality monitoring, require sample collection and analysis following standardized procedures. Still others, such as evaluation of hydrologic impacts cannot be readily monitored and must rely on models and professional expertise.

Field observations to verify assumptions can often be conducted at relatively little expense by volunteers who have been trained by a resource professional in the proper protocols and documentation procedures. More intensive studies involving the collection and analysis of samples are more expensive, and may require the assistance of professional scientists to be successful.

10.3 Monitoring Restoration Activities

The first aspect of monitoring a restoration activity is to document that the activity or practice was implemented correctly. This should be part of every project and should be conducted during or shortly after the activity takes place. It usually consists of visual inspections, field notes, and photographs. Implementation monitoring is a simple and cost-efficient form of monitoring. Although it may seem obvious, complete documentation of what was actually completed is frequently overlooked.

The second aspect of monitoring a restoration activity is to document that the activity or practice was effective, that it actually achieved the desired outcome. This is more complex than implementation monitoring, and may require the commitment of resources for up to several decades in order to detect a trend in highly variable constituents such as stream temperature.

10.4 Developing a Monitoring Plan

The first step toward a monitoring plan is to identify data gaps and prioritize monitoring needs. Once this is done, the monitoring plan can be developed to answer specific questions or fill specific data gaps. The monitoring plan describes the objectives for the monitoring, identifies the resources needed to conduct the monitoring, and describes what activities will take place, at what times, and in what locations. Developing a monitoring plan is an iterative process, and proceeds in stages. Stages may be revisited as the plan is developed and refined.

10.4.1 Objectives

The objectives of a monitoring plan arise from the data gap or question that is being addressed. An example question is, “Does this stream meet the ODEQ water quality standard for temperature?” With the question in mind, the specific objective can be stated, and a preliminary monitoring strategy can be developed. An example of a preliminary strategy is provided in Table 10.1.

| Table 10.1 An example of an initial monitoring strategy (WPN 1999) | |
|--|--|
| Question or data gap | Does the stream meet state standards for temperature? |
| Objective | Measure temperature during critical seasons and times of day to detect exceedence of criteria. |
| Constituents | Temperature |
| Methods | TidBit temperature data loggers |
| Study design | Upstream and downstream of major canopy openings. |
| Locations | Based on access, study design, security, etc. |
| Duration | At least 6 months including summer |
| Frequency | Hourly |

10.4.2 Resources

During this stage, all the resources needed to conduct the monitoring plan are identified. This includes people, money, field equipment, laboratory services, supplies, and any other resources that might be required for the successful completion of the plan.

10.4.3 Details

Identify the specific constituents or parameters that will be measured: the specific location of the monitoring sites; the frequency of sampling and the time of sampling (both seasonal and daily); and the individuals who will conduct the sampling, data reduction, and analysis.

10.4.4 Verification

Conduct a pilot study to ensure that the plan is workable, that all monitoring sites are safely accessible in all seasons that will be required, that all field procedures can be conducted properly, that all field equipment needed is available and is in working order, and that field personnel understand the protocols and can conduct them properly.

10.4.5 Refinement

Refine the monitoring plan based on the results of the pilot study. Use the data collected during the pilot study to determine if the information will meet the monitoring objective and the quality assurance requirements. Make any changes to the protocols, such as moving a sample site or changing a field method, that are necessary to obtain acceptable data.

10.4.6 Write the Plan

It is critical that a written plan be prepared that documents why, how, when, and where the monitoring will be conducted. This is necessary in order to maintain consistency throughout the life of the monitoring plan, and to document your efforts for the benefit of others. The components of a written monitoring plan are included below (WPN 1999).

10.5 Monitoring Protocols

A number of protocols have been developed for use by volunteer groups working in watersheds. The council should seek the help of resource professionals in selecting potential monitoring protocols, and should consider carefully what can actually be accomplished by volunteers before designing a monitoring plan.

Some useful reference materials are listed below.

MONITORING PLAN COMPONENTS

Background

This information can be summarized directly from the Watershed Condition Evaluation Assessment component. Describe the watershed and the previous studies and data available on the issue. This section, as does the rest of the monitoring plan, communicates to others about your monitoring project. The background section provides the basic content for the study and includes such facts as geology, soils, land uses, channel types, and historical content.

Problem Statement, Goals, and Objectives

Summarize the information derived from Stage 1 to document the statement of the data gap to be addressed or the question to be answered.

Site Description

The site description provides the context of the sampling sites in comparison to other sites in the watershed and provides comparability to potential reference sites in other watersheds. The site description can be based on the information from maps generated during the watershed assessment such as channel habitat type, adjacent riparian condition, and elevation. Monitoring sites need to be located specifically on a topographic map so that the exact location can be described using the latitude and longitude.

Methods

The methods section describes the technical portion of the monitoring project. It documents the techniques that will be used to collect samples or field measurements, equipment and equipment calibration, what specific parameters are to be collected, and target periods. This section documents the decisions made in Stage 3 of the planning process. Quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) are essential elements of any monitoring plan. They provide you with evidence that your data is accurate and precise enough to address the questions being asked. These elements are addressed in detail in the OPSW Water Quality Monitoring Guidebook.

Data Storage and Analysis

Thinking through this section is critical early in the monitoring process so you have the support necessary to store, transport, or analyze the data. The Oregon Department of environmental Quality has developed a data storage template that can be used to format data records (see OPSW Water Quality Monitoring Guidebook for details). Planning ahead can save time and money, and spare the agony of lost data.

Timetable and Staff Requirements

Each monitoring project will have a unique schedule of activities that must occur for it to be successful. these planning and implementation activities take time. The OPSW Water Quality Monitoring Guidebook contains general examples of the sequencing of stages and time requirements for a monitoring project.

Reference Materials

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

HISTORY OF NICOLAI-WICKIUP WATERSHED

Prepared by Jim Bergeron and the Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed Council

Appendix A

History of the Nicolai-Wickiup Watershed

Geology

The geological form of the Nicolai-Wickiup watershed came about as a result of the Columbia River floods that occurred as the last glacier was melting. Repeated damming of the upper river by the action of glaciers and floods as the dams were destroyed scoured out the present channel and formed the valley. The watershed is made up of the small streams that flow down that south side slope into the present Columbia. The abundant rainfall led to a mature drainage system with well cut river valleys throughout the slope with few wetlands.

Indians

The Native Americans have lived along the river for at least 10,000 years. The population was denser than most hunter-gatherer populations due to the abundance of salmon. Salmon allowed a supply of food to be relatively easily gathered and stored that carried the tribes throughout periods when food was scarce.

Since the main food source was the river little modification was done to the land, unlike other places where clearing of the ground was often done through annual burning.

The villages were mostly along the big river and the streams were used as special fishing places where salmon were concentrated at falls and rapids. Fish traps probably were used in many of the streams.

The forests were made up of large old growth Douglas Fir with a mix of other trees in certain places. Spruce occurred in the lowlands and in tidal areas. Cedar occupied rocky areas. Alder came in where fires had burned and along the streams.

Settlement

European settlement began with the occupation of Astoria in 1811. The first settlers took land claims in the watershed during the 1840s. Henry Hunt's sawmill on Hunt creek dates from 1844. The logs were taken from the hills surrounding the millsite with oxen[Cumtux Vol. 2, no.3 Page 9]. George Hunts claim was dated November 18, 1848. The first land claims were probably

taken up for the timber. Early logging was by hand, rolling the logs to the Columbia or the creeks and floating them to the mills. In 1880 about ten million board feet of timber was taken out of the Knappa area [Daily Astorian article undated].

In 1880 the Riddle farm was established a few miles south of Svensen. Mrs. Riddle kept a daily diary for many years thereafter. She reported on October 22, 1893 her family took 51 dog salmon, probably from Bear Creek, and used them for fertilizer on the garden. The next evening they took 125 more. By the time they quit she had buried 306 salmon for fertilizer. Loggers from a nearby camp began logging their claim in 1885. She reported a flood in Bear Creek in 1887 that closed the trail to Svensen. Another flood in 1890 helped to move logs caught by low water. These logs were moved on the small streams by the use of splash dams in some streams but apparently not in the Knappa-Svensen area. A Cumtux article reports that in 1892 there were a series of small log drives that started 12 miles upstream on Big Creek. Such drives were held in following years as well. In 1890 the Oregon Supreme Court ruled that portions of streams above mean high tide were not navigable [Cumtux vol.2 no. 3, page10-11].

In 1901 Masten's logging camp was constructed near Mary's Creek. In 1904 a fire south of Svensen burned over much of the area.

Logging

Oxen and horses soon joined the handloggers and were the height of technology until just before the turn of the century. Then steam power was introduced into logging. The first technique was ground logging with the steam donkey engines pulling logs along the surface where they often caught against stumps and other snags [Undated Astoria Budget article]. The first steam donkey used in the county was constructed by a Mr. Chitwood in 1889 from a ship's steam winch. He used it in the Youngs River area [Cumtux vol. 2 no. 2, page 11]. As engines of greater power were developed high lead logging began. This technique utilized limbed standing trees, spar trees, as sources from which to pull logs. Since the logs were pulled through the air much of the time they had less tendency to be snagged. However this type of logging required an area completely clear for the cable so all trees, even those with no economic value, had to be cut [Astorian Budget undated]. The trees along streams were removed and logs were pulled across them. The trenches running up and downhill due to the skidding encouraged erosion. Logging debris often ended up in the stream where it created very large jams, sometimes completely blocking salmon runs.

Railroads

With the steam power came the logging railroads. Soon almost every stream valley had a railroad running from the Columbia River to its headwaters and sometimes across the hills to other watersheds[1933 Clatsop County map]. Mary Riddle mentions a railroad near Svensen in 1908[Cumtux, Vol.4, page 30]. The combination of steam donkeys and railroads allowed the logging of areas far removed from the Columbia River. Culverts and punchon under the rail bed often blocked fish passage into tributaries.

A survey in 1913 found 16 billion board feet of timber in Clatsop County [Astorian Budget undated]. In those days much of the timber of species other than fir was not counted as it had little value. If later techniques had been used it is thought that the amount would have been at least 25 billion board feet. The assessed valuation of all timber in the county in 1920 was 18 million dollars. By 1948 it was 1.3 million. The value had fallen due to the removal of old growth and the lowering of the value of the standing timber in general. The logged land was deemed to have no value. The only regeneration was due to natural seeding and that was held back by repeated fires. The land soon became tax delinquent and much was repossessed by the county. By 1932 the county owned slightly more than 100,000 acres. The depression had contributed to the low land values [Astorian Budget undated].

A bright spot was the actions of Crown Zellerback, a logging company with the foresight to develop “perpetual forestry” at the turn of the century. That company bought up much of the logged lands and replanted.

In 1937 a county committee was set up to decide what should be done with the logged over lands. The prevailing idea was to use them for grazing. Work was begun with the Oregon State University Experimental Farm to find the best grasses to plant and to evaluate various farming techniques. After years of study it was found that the lands were best used to grow trees.

The late 1930s brought the Oregon State Forestry into the picture and an agreement was made for the state to manage the lands for timber with a sharing of the profits with various county-taxing districts.

Fisheries

In 1938 Bonneville Dam was completed and a count could be taken of many fish at the fish ladders. Statistics were kept and published for all fish that run into the river. The numbers of Coho that entered the river in 1938 were estimated at 300,000. They declined fairly regularly to about 50,000 in 1959 [Status Report Columbia River Fish Runs and Fisheries 1938-1997, June 1997]. With the introduction of the Oregon Moist Pellet in the early 60s the hatchery system became more successful and Coho numbers entering the river rose to an average of about 650,000 in the late 60s and early 70s [Duncan Law, personal communication]. They then began a decline probably due to increasing fishing pressure in the ocean to below 400,000 in the early eighties. After the early 90s numbers again rose due to cutbacks of fishing in the ocean.

Chum numbers estimated to enter the Columbia River varied from 150,000 to over 400,000 in the early 40s then declined to very low numbers by 1960. They have remained at low numbers.

With the successes of the hatchery system for Cohoes in the early 60s ocean fisheries were managed to take as many fish as possible without harming wild stocks. The Columbia River fisheries, both sport and commercial, were imposed on top of the ocean take and at times exceeded 90% of the adult stock. Such a take could be sustained by hatchery runs but drove wild fish to extinction in the lower Columbia. Only late running wild stocks continue to exist in isolated pockets within the Columbia and its tributaries.

Big Creek

Big Creek was called Tallasqua by the local Indians and continued to be called that by settlers until about the 1940s when the present name was accepted. It flows into the Columbia about 15 miles above Astoria. The main stream is about 11.5 miles long and has a drainage area of 37 square miles. The first 1½ mile above the Columbia is a spruce tidal wetland. The next two and one half miles pass through flat lowland which in recent years has been pastureland being replaced by housing developments. Upriver from the hatchery, which is located at the three-mile mark, is the canyon where the river drops rapidly and is swift and rocky. Above the first bridge the canyon widens and the stream slows somewhat and has more riffles and pools. A number of tributaries enter the stream from the West Side. The first is Little Creek, which enters near the mouth and flows along the west side of the lower valley paralleling the main stream. Mill Creek,

which serves as a water source for the hatchery enters near there. The others, Pigpen, Mud, Coon and Elk creek, enter above the main canyon.

Logging of the Big Creek area began shortly after 1850 when settlers took land claims. The cut reported in the 1880 census was 10 million board feet from the Knappa area. Big Creek was used to float logs with a twelve-mile drive reported in 1882, although they apparently occurred in other years as well. (Cumtux, vol. 2, No. 3)

In 1925 seventeen and a half acres about 3 miles upstream from the Columbia were purchased by L. W. Hickey who was then the resident manager of the Oregon Fish Commission's Klatskanine hatchery. He later added 1 1/2 acres purchased from the Big Creek Logging Company. He built and operated a trout hatchery at the site [Alder Patch newsletter, Sept. 1980].

In 1938 the Oregon Fish Commission leased the property from Hickey and Clifford Ritter and family moved to the site. He searched the river for a better hatchery site but settled on that area. The hatchery was constructed during 1939 and in 1940 the land purchased by the Columbia River Packers association with the understanding it would be purchased by the OFC when they had the money. They completed the transaction in 1941. Many local people helped with the construction of the hatchery and other facilities which continued over many [Alder Patch newsletter, Sept. 1980].

There were occasional reports of fish runs, surveys, and other operations done on the creek. An August 1949 report by Paul Zimmer, fish management biologist, mentions a huge logjam about 1/2 mile above the fish hatchery that stopped salmon. He saw a number of spring salmon in the deep hole below the jam. He reported that the upper stream had many other jams and that the loggers had pushed logs and debris into the streambed. In some cases the logjams were so big that the stream had been diverted and in other cases the water running over the jams created waterfalls impassable to fish. A culvert at Pigpen with a 4-foot fall was a barrier to fish entering that stream [Unpublished Oregon Fish Commission Reports].

A 1950 report mentions Coho continuing to pass the hatchery to the upper creek in January. There was a fish ladder at the water supply dam. In 1951 much work was done on the creek by hatchery personal to insure the passage of fish into the Coon and Mud Creeks At that time Coho, Chinook, steelhead, cutthroat and chum were reported to run in the creek with chum spawning in Mill creek. The 1950 report on stream clearance mentions logs left in the creek for pool formation and hiding places for fish. A bulldozer was used for stream clearance. When

finished the project had cleared 8 miles of the main stream and 2.0, 1.6, 2.0, and 2.0 miles respectively of Pigpen, Mud, Coon, and Elk Creeks for a total of 17 miles. The salmon had not been able to go much above the intake dam before that.

In 1952 plans were announced to expand the hatchery and develop a new water supply. There were also problems that year with the construction of the new highway 30. Gravel was dredged from the creek for the roadbed and unscreened pumps were used to withdraw water.

During that year surveys suggested repairs of fish passage facilities at the hatchery rack and diversion dam. There was also concern expressed about an area in the main Big Creek channel between Coon and Elk Creek called the chute that was impassable to fish at high flows.

The St. Helens Pulp and Paper Company finished logging in the upper valley in 1952. They had logged down to the stream banks and left a lot of debris in the stream [unpublished Oregon Fish Commission Reports].

Surveys of spawners during the 50s counted Coho and Chum in most of the late fall trips along tributaries such as PigPen and Mud creeks. Chum spawners were allowed into Mill Creek.

In 1977 timber was cut around the hatchery to let in the light. A few years before that the creek had been declared a Wild Stream eliminating the transplanting of fish above the hatchery. Anadromous fish were stopped at the hatchery. When that was done the hatchery had fewer problems with fish diseases.

Gnat Creek

Gnat Creek is about twenty miles above Astoria. The creek is about nine miles long and has a drainage of 22 square miles. The stream has its source in large springs on the hills sloping toward the Columbia River. It has a reputation for stability without flooding. (1953 Reconnaissance Report for Gnat creek Weir). The creek flows into the Columbia through Blind Slough. The mile upstream of Blind Slough is a tidal swamp. For about three miles above tidewater the stream, paralleling highway 30, has spawning gravel and rearing pools. There is an 8 to 10 foot cascade at the upper limit of this segment. Major tributaries of Gnat Creek include Supply Creek, Rock Creek, And Big Noise below the highway bridge and Manary Creek above.

By 1933 a railroad had been constructed from Blind Slough up the creek valley to haul logs.

A 1952 survey of the system reported Chinook, Silver, and Chum Salmon and Steelhead and Cutthroat trout spawning runs into the creek. In that same year a survey of the system was

done to locate a site for a fish weir to be used in a study of Fall Chinook. Gnat Creek was felt to be a typical lower Columbia River Chinook spawning stream. One of the main reasons for the weir was to study natural spawning and the success of hatchery fingerling releases. During the first year 75 Fall Chinook were tagged and a peak of 143 Silvers were counted passing the weir during one day. The weir was located at the confluence of Gnat and Rock Creeks in 1955. It was made of wood with a rock fill in the center of the stream.

The stream had to be cleared of debris before the weir could be constructed. In 1953 Al Washburn and crew started clearing Gnat Creek under a contract with the forest service. They were to remove some mature green timber and all dead timber, standing or down, within 200 feet of the creek. They were to clear out larger log jams and remove all debris 14 inches and over in diameter and twelve feet or more in length from the stream bed and deposit it above the high water level. Recommendations were made to clear most areas below the highway as well.

A 1958 fish survey reported salmon 400 yards above the mouth of Manary creek. The upper limit for fish passage was a dam formed by a cave in of an old bridge about 2.1 miles above the highway. Salmon were observed near the shingle mill and all the way down to the highway bridge.

About 1985 IHN infected the hatchery and wild spawners in the creek. The fish were poisoned with Rotenone as a preventative measure. An overdose killed fish as far downstream as Blind Slough. Shortly thereafter the cascades above the hatchery were altered by blasting the lower section to increase the steepness and create a block to Anadromous passage.

Bear Creek

Bear Creek originates about eight miles south of the town of Svensen and flows in a northerly direction. It enters Svensen Slough inside of Svensen Island. Tidewater extends about $3\frac{3}{4}$ mile up the stream from the Columbia. At about mile 1.5 the stream divides into Little Bear flowing from the west and Big Bear coming from a more easterly direction. The water diversion dam of the city of Astoria is about three miles above the split and has been a total blockage to fish since 1890. There is a 4 $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot 60 degree falls about one and one half miles below the water supply dam. The falls probably blocks fish at low flows but allows passage at high flows. A 1951 survey found small Coho at the foot of the dam.

The tidewater area and main stem of Bear Creek pass through a broad flat valley with a moderate fall. There are a series of riffles and pools. There are no tributaries in that area. The

Big Bear fork passes through farmland in its first $3\frac{1}{4}$ mile then enters forest land, owned and managed by a large timber company in the upper reaches. The valley below the forest land and some above owned by individuals is becoming more urbanized. Little Bear flows through small farms and individual owner forest land for about one mile then through land managed by a big timber operator.

The lower parts of Bear Creek were settled in the 1850s. Mary Riddle reports that her family settled two miles south of Svensen in 1880. (Cumtux Vol. 4, No. 4) She describes a flood near their property in Bear Creek in January of 1887. On October 22, 1893 her family took 51 Chum Salmon, probably from Bear Creek, and returned the next night and took 125 more. A forest fire burned much of the area near their home in 1884 and another even bigger occurred in 1910. By 1933 a railroad was in operation with a spur running along Big Bear Creek [1933 Clatsop County map].

Fish surveys done in the 1950s reported both Chums and Silvers in the stream. Mrs. Levi Huhta stated that many salmon come up the creek depending on the volume of water. Mrs. J. R. Boyle who lived one mile up Little Bear saw Chum Salmon come upstream every year but did not know how far they went.

A December 17, 1951 survey found 13 dead and 4 live Silvers in the first half mile below the dam. Nineteen live and sixteen dead Silvers and two dead Chums were seen between Little Bear and the Svensen road crossing. Most of these surveys reported beaver dams across the creek.

Ferris Creek

Ferris Creek flows into Svensen Slough about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile upriver from the mouth of Bear Creek. Highway 30 crosses the creek about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile above the Columbia and the old Highway crosses about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile above that. The area downstream of Old Highway 30 is a grassy wetland that floods at very high tides. The open grassy areas along the creek continue about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile above the highway. Hillcrest Loop Road crosses the stream about .8 of a mile above the Old Highway Bridge.

Little Ferris creek enters the main stream about .4 mile above the Old Highway Bridge. This tributary is crossed by Conroy road $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile above Ferris Creek. The flow of the main stream was measured at 8 C.F.S. on December 15, 1951 at .3 mile above the Old Highway. The

flow was 2.5 C.F.S. at the Hillcrest crossing. Gravel occurred in the main stem from about .1 mile above the Old Highway and in Little Ferris. The survey reported 14 Coho and 12 Trout. A 1954 survey found 10 Coho and 1 Chum in the main stream and 6 Coho in Little Ferris. A 1954 survey noted 5 Coho in Ferris creek and 1 in Little Ferris. A Mr. Erkkila stated that the stream was fairly alive with salmon during the 1940s but numbers had decreased in the past several years.

Mary's Creek

Mary's Creek flows into Svensen Slough 100 yards west of the mouth of Bear Creek south of the downstream end of Svensen Island. The Old Highway 30 crosses at about 1/2 mile from the river. The tide penetrates about another two hundred yards upriver from the Old Highway Bridge. Downstream of the bridge the channel meanders with sharp turns through a tidal swamp.

The stream source is springs along the sandstone ridge that lies between that stream and the Walooski. The ridge carries the pipeline road. Since there is no rock source the bed of the stream consists of fine sand and mud with wood debris. After a steep fall near the ridge the valley has a gradual and shallow slope and a flat bottom. The stream meanders back and forth and is bordered with many grass-covered wetlands. There are a few places where the valley narrows greatly. Beaver dams are usually numerous but have been scarce during the 1990s.

A November 24, 1954 survey of 1/3 mile above the Old Highway Bridge recorded 64 Chum salmon. Landowners observed a very few Coho during the 1980's and none during the 1990's. A hatch box was operated producing Coho in about 1989.

Fertile Valley Creek or Hall's Creek

Fertile Valley Creek also known as Hall's Creek flows into the Columbia River just south of Knappa Docks. There are no roads or trails that follow the stream. Highway 30 crosses the stream two miles south of the Columbia. A dam about 100 yards north of the highway has blocked fish since at least 1951. The Game Commission at one time apparently approved the dam but if any fish passage was constructed it has been washed out when the water carved a passage west of the structure.

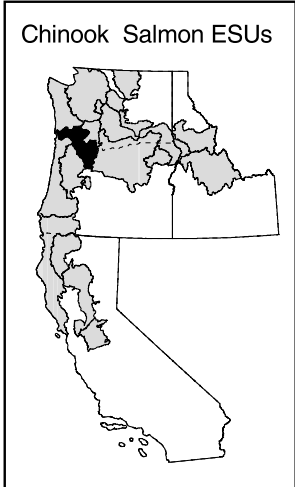
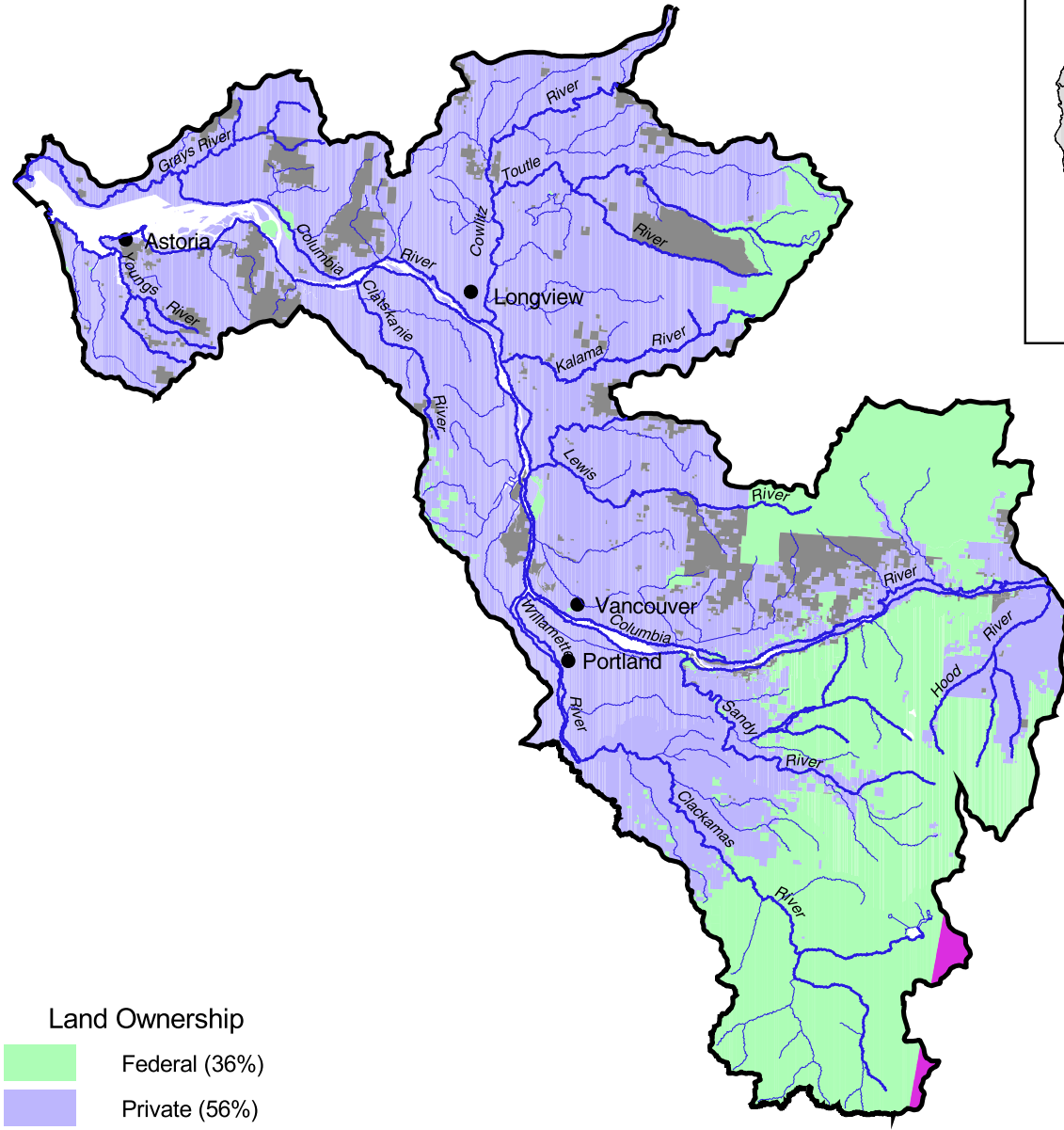
A December 16, 1951 survey reported pea size gravel in the first 50 yards below the dam but mud, silt, and fine sand in the remainder of the creek downriver. Better gravel occurred

above the highway. Three dead Coho and one dead 17 1/2 inch Cutthroat were observed below the dam. River flow was 3 C.F.S. The stream was considered to be of slight value to salmonids but might be more important if the dam were made passable.





APPENDIX B
SALMONID ESUs




LOWER COLUMBIA RIVER CHINOOK SALMON ESU



Land Ownership

-  Federal (36%)
-  Private (56%)
-  State/Local (7%)
-  Tribal (1%)

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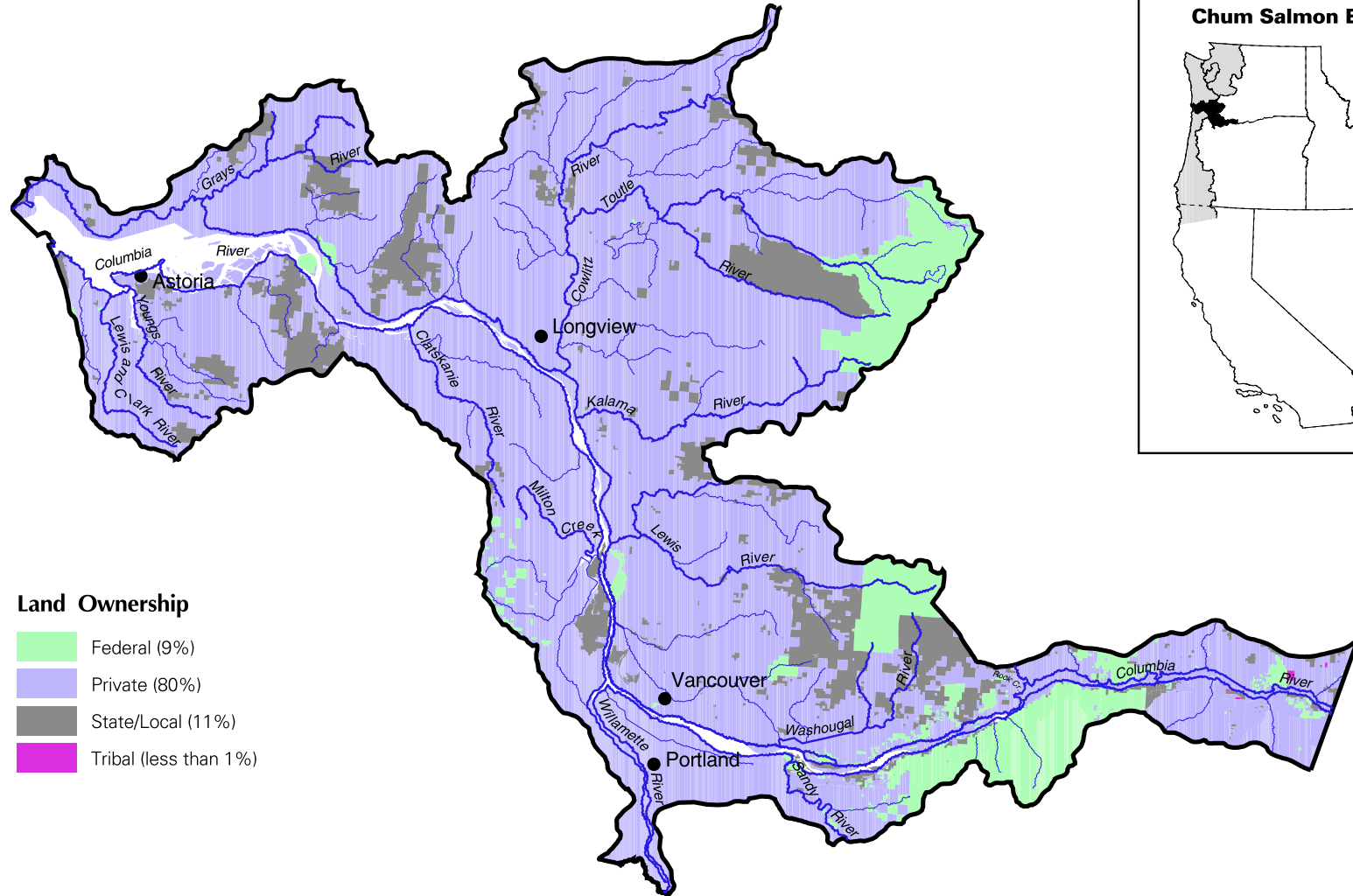
Scale:
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10 0 10 20 30 Kilometers

MAP DATE: 3/9/99
CREATED BY D.A.
HCDGIS\RG\NWS\STONE\CHIN

Note: Map is for general reference only.



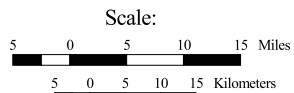
COLUMBIA RIVER CHUM SALMON ESU



Land Ownership

- Federal (9%)
- Private (80%)
- State/Local (11%)
- Tribal (less than 1%)

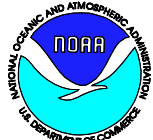
United States Department of Commerce
National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration
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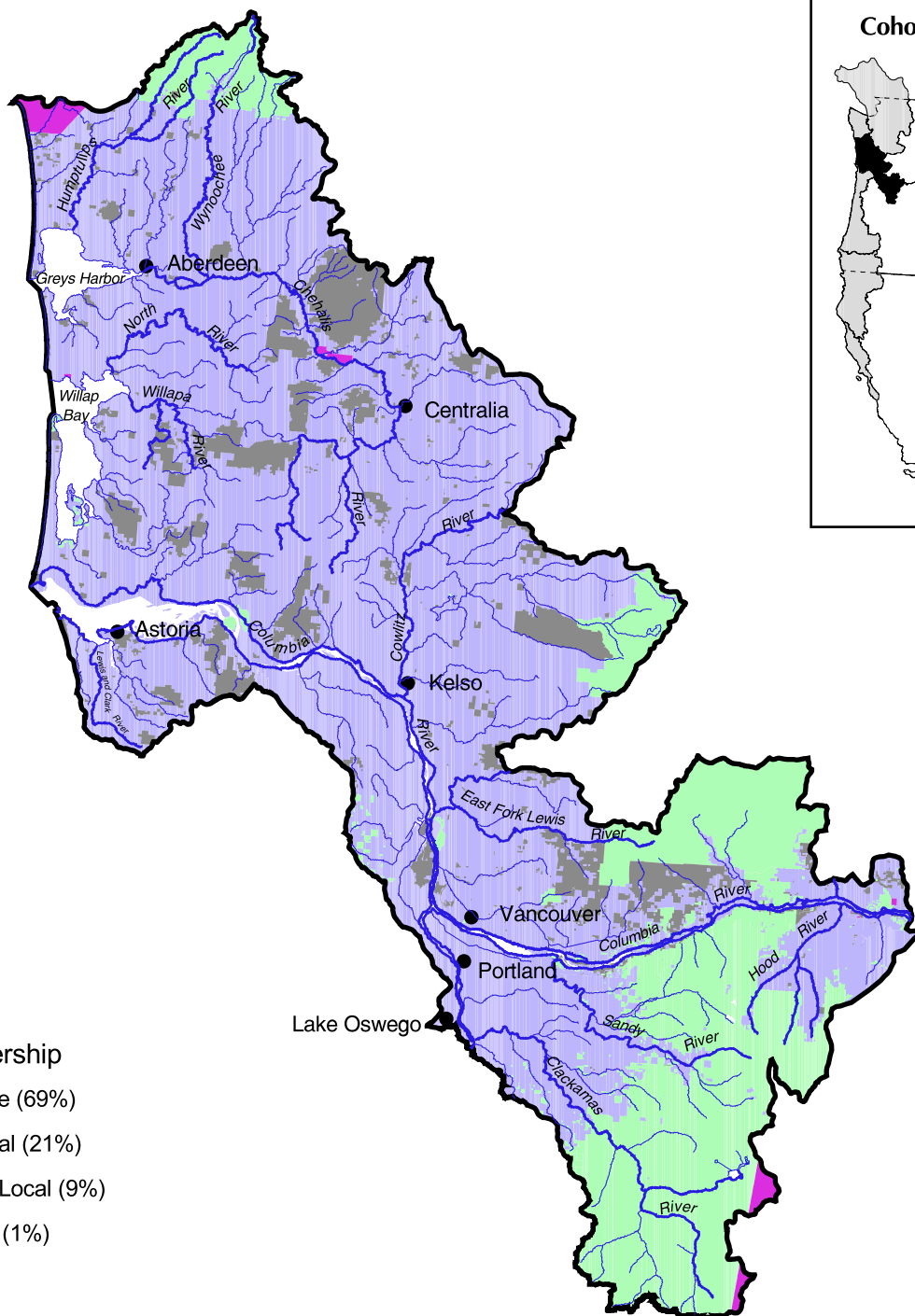
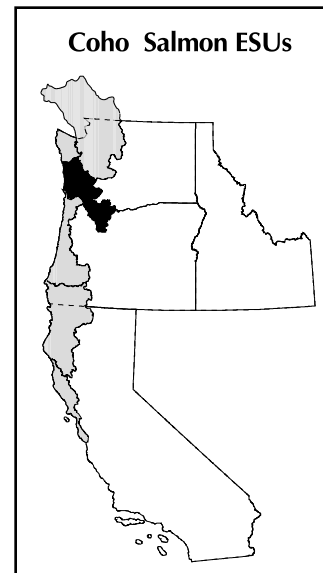
MAP DATE 2/23/99

CREATED BY: D.H.
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


Note: Map is for general reference only.



SOUTHWEST WASHINGTON / LOWER COLUMBIA RIVER COHO SALMON ESU



Land Ownership

-  Private (69%)
-  Federal (21%)
-  State/Local (9%)
-  Tribal (1%)

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Tel (503)-231-2223



Scale:
10 0 10 20 30 Miles

10 0 10 20 30 Kilometers

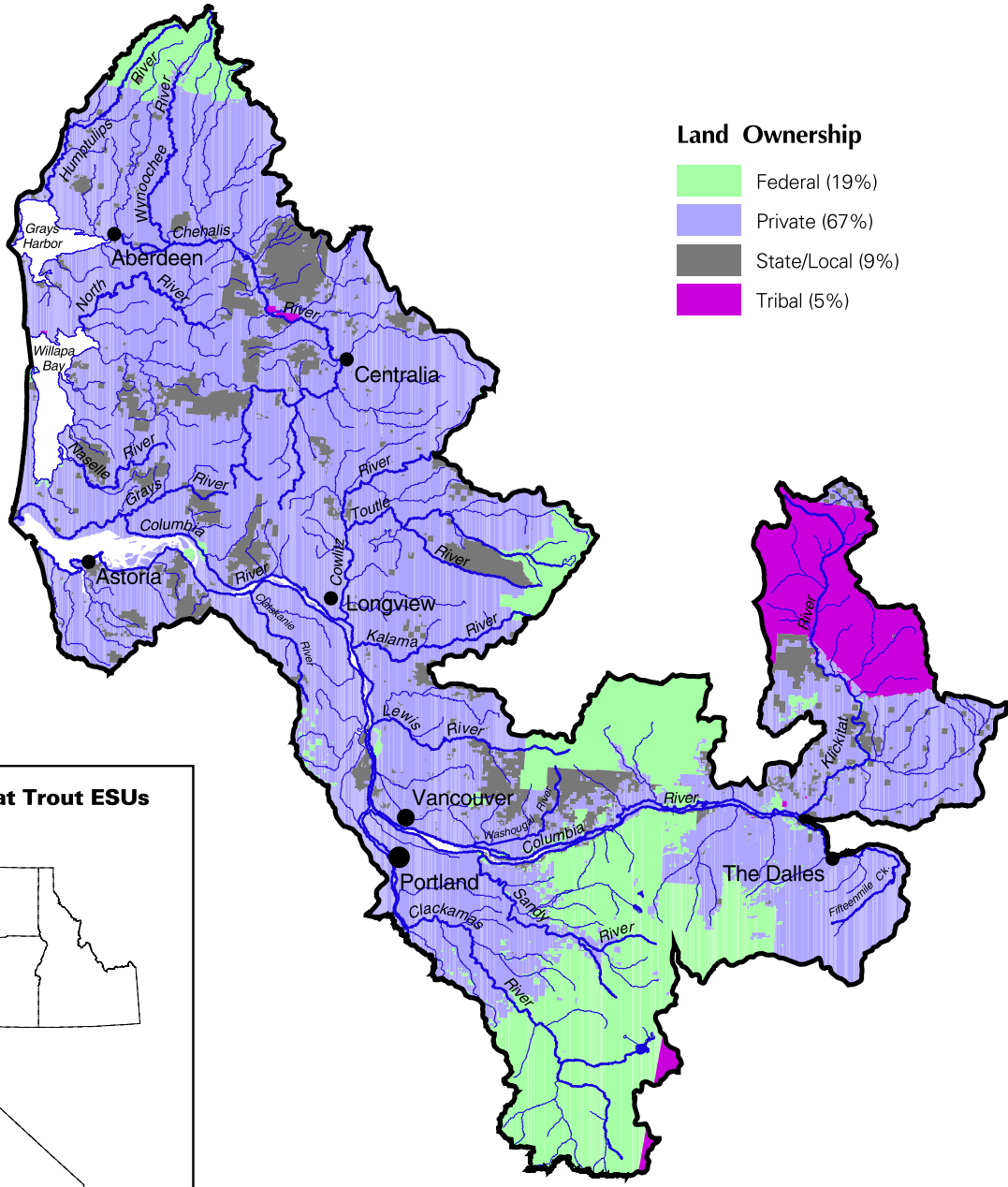
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Created by D.A.

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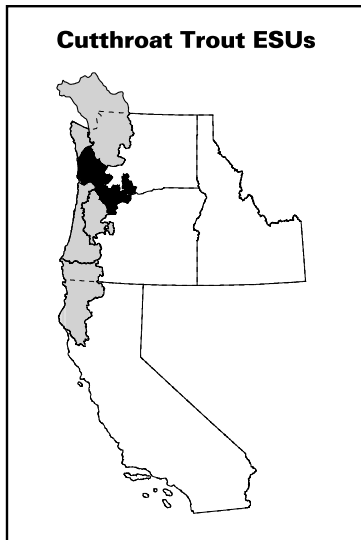
Note: Map is for general reference only.

SOUTHWESTERN WASHINGTON/COLUMBIA RIVER CUTTHROAT TROUT ESU



Land Ownership

- Federal (19%)
- Private (67%)
- State/Local (9%)
- Tribal (5%)



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Scale:
0 10 20 30 40 Miles
0 10 20 30 40 Kilometers

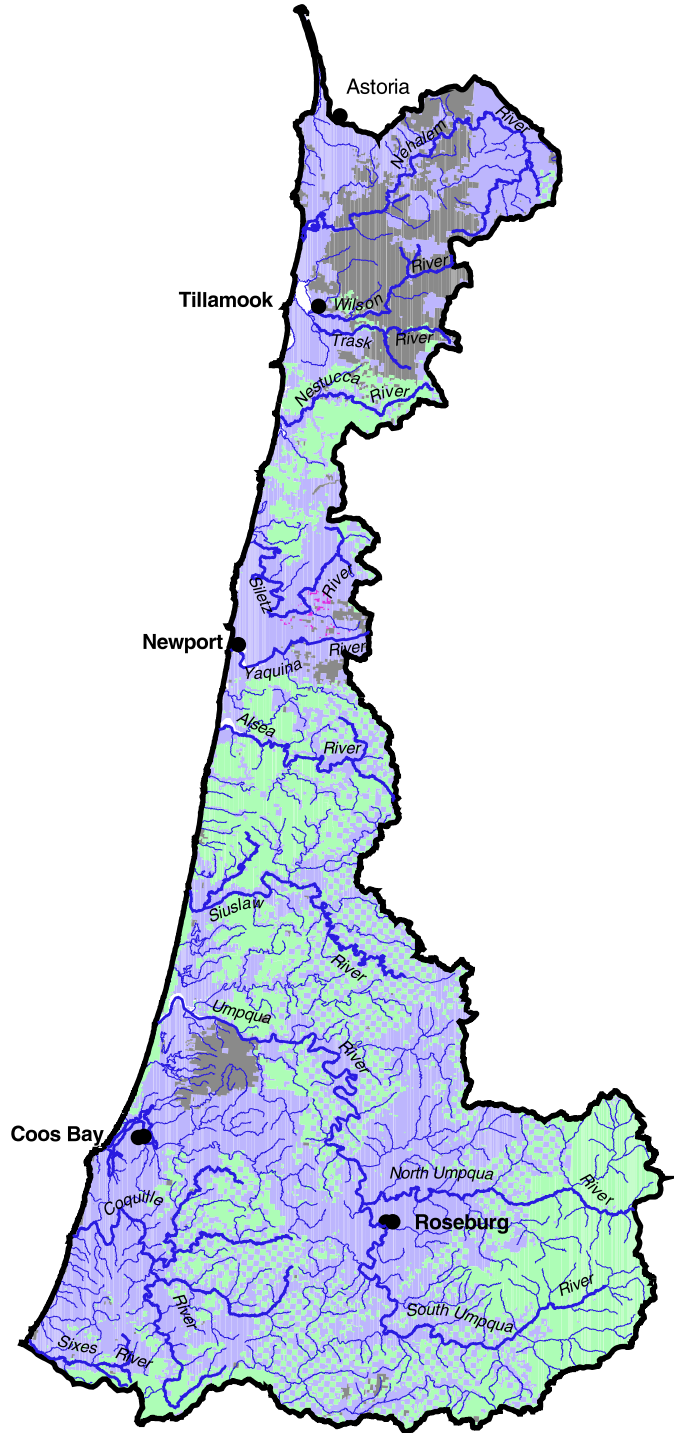
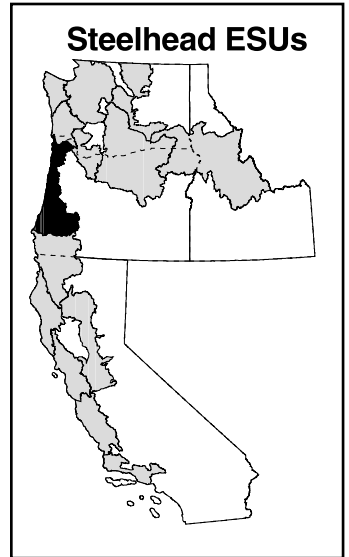
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CREATED BY: D.H.
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



Note: Map is for general reference only.




OREGON COAST STEELHEAD ESU



Land Ownership

-  Federal (35%)
-  Private (56%)
-  State/Local (8%)
-  Tribal (less than 1%)

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SCALE:
10 0 10 20 Miles
10 0 10 20 Kilometers

MAP DATE2/17/99
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HCDGISIRGNWSISTONESTEEL

Note: Map is for general reference only.