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STREAM QUALITY ASSESSMENT ON MILITARY TRAINING GROUNDS NEAR WAVERLY, TENNESSEE*

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ABSTRACT—Rapid bioassessment protocols were used during February 2005 to characterize stream quality in a reach of Trace Creek located within the Tennessee Army National Guard Volunteer Training Site—Gorman Quarry near Waverly, Tennessee. The purpose of the study was to characterize stream quality and provide background information for a more comprehensive biological inventory of the training site. Field, laboratory, and analytical methods closely followed those developed for stream assessments by the Tennessee Department of Environment and Conservation. Data describing physical habitat conditions, water quality parameters, and benthic macroinvertebrate assemblages were collected from among 9 sites along Trace Creek. Trace Creek data were compared with similar data from other streams in the Highland Rim Bioregion of the state. These comparisons indicated that Trace Creek contained high quality habitat and an abundance of environmentally "sensitive" benthic macroinvertebrate taxa. Data analyses indicated that Trace Creek would be classified as "non-impaired and fully supporting of designated water usages" according to the Tennessee Department of Environment and Conservation guidelines.

The 155th Engineering Asphalt and Rock Crushing Company of the Tennessee Army National Guard trained with heavy rock-moving machinery and vehicles from 2002–2007 at the Volunteer Training Site—Gorman Quarry (VTS-G) near Waverly, Tennessee. Information describing ecological conditions within a segment of Trace Creek flowing through the installation was gathered as part of an overall biological inventory for the site. Estimates of stream habitat quality, biodiversity, presence of threatened and endangered species, and organism-habitat relationships can often be determined with a modest, carefully planned, sampling effort. Information obtained from such studies can be used by resource managers to evaluate and minimize the potential impacts of training exercises or land-management techniques on natural resources.

Benthic macroinvertebrates are the focus of many studies designed to evaluate and monitor stream quality (Barbour et al., 1999) at small spatial (local upstream influence) and temporal scales (one to several years). Information describing distribution, habitat associations, and life-history patterns of many taxa is available for many regions of the country (Merritt and Cummings, 1996; Thorp and Covich, 2001). For this reason, many states have adopted specific methods for sampling benthic macroinvertebrates as part of their statewide stream quality assessment programs (Maryland Department of Natural Resources, 2003; West Virginia Department of Environmental Protection, 2003).

The Tennessee Department of Environment and Conservation (TDEC) has published a guide for conducting macroinvertebrate surveys in Tennessee streams (TDEC, 2003; Arnwine and Denton, 2001). Development of standard field methods and analytical techniques strengthens and simplifies the process of assessing baseline stream conditions. For example, Smith (1994) used these methods to characterize water quality downstream of our project area, at a site where effluent from a sewage treatment plant entered Trace Creek, as "not fully supporting of its designated water usages" (degraded).

The primary objective of the present study was to apply the TDEC stream assessment protocol to Trace Creek at several sites within the VTS-G. This paper contains a brief discussion of our results and addresses the benefits of using standard stream assessment methods as part of a larger overall natural resources management plan for military lands.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Study Area—Trace Creek is a third-order stream that originates 11.3 km upstream of the VTS-G. An approximately 1,430 m reach of Trace Creek occurs within the training site (Fig. 1). Trace Creek is located within the Western Highland Rim bioregion (Arnwine and Denton, 2001) of Tennessee. Streams in this bioregion are typically clear and have moderate gradients with beds comprised of gravel, sand, and occasionally bedrock. The Trace Creek watershed is dominated by cattle pasture, hay fields, and forest (Arnwine and Denton, 2001). Overland erosion and sedimentation as well as nonpoint inputs of nutrients and other pollutants associated with local agriculture practices are potential stressors to Trace Creek within the VTS-G boundaries.

We used standard TDEC protocols for invertebrate sampling, habitat assessment, and data analysis (TDEC, 2003). We conducted physical habitat assessments, measured water quality parameters, and collected benthic macroinvertebrate samples on 8–9 February 2005. Data describing physical

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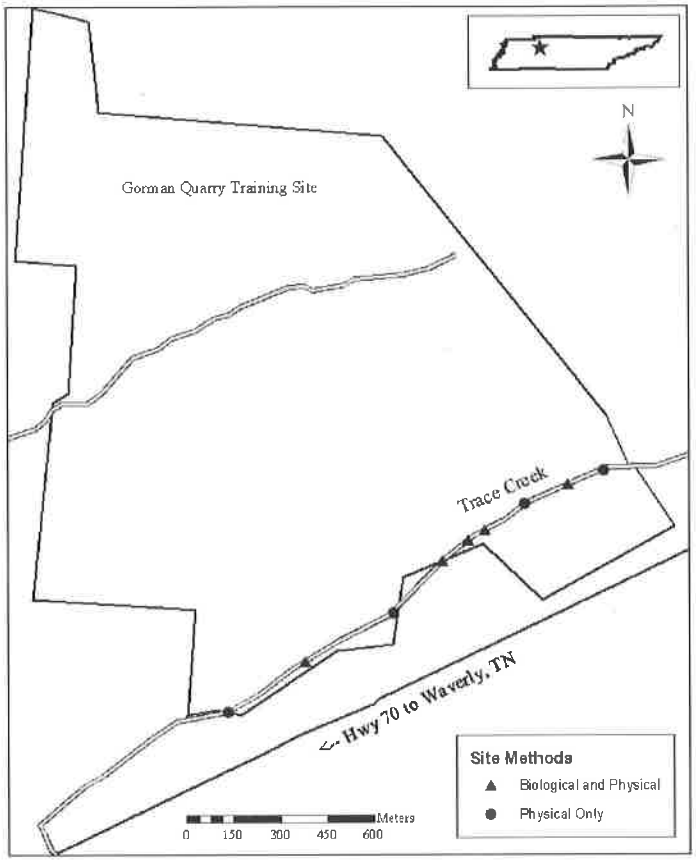

FIG. 1. Sampling sites for a benthic macroinvertebrate stream assessment survey at the Tennessee Army National Guard Volunteer Training Site—Gorman Quarry near Waverly, Tennessee, February 2005.

habitat conditions were collected at nine stream sites (Fig. 1, Table 1). Water quality measurements and benthic macroinvertebrate samples were collected at five stream sites.

Water Quality Parameters—Data describing pH, conductivity, temperature, dissolved oxygen concentration, and turbidity were measured using a Hydrolab Quanta and a Hach 2100P Turbidimeter.

Physical Habitat Assessments—Experienced field personnel evaluated physical habitat quality using the recommended "high-gradient stream survey form" (TDEC, 2003). Accordingly, we used 10 metrics to describe physical habitat status of the stream. Calculated values for each metric were assigned a score from 0 (lowest quality) to 20 (highest quality). Descriptions of each follow:

1) Epifaunal substrate—How much cover/surface area is provided by the substratum (cobble, large rocks, logs and woody debris, and undercut banks) as refugia for macroinvertebrates and fish.
2) Embeddedness—The depth that rocks or logs are embedded in sand, silt, or mud can be correlated with erosion within a watershed and subsequent sedimentation within a stream; low embeddedness indicates better habitat conditions.
3) Velocity and depth—Stream reaches with all four velocity/depth regimes were given the highest scores, whereas reaches with only one or two of these habitat regimes were given lower scores.
4) Sediment deposition—Excessive deposition occurring throughout a reach can result in the formation of point bars or the filling of pools and runs with sand, silt, or mud; heavy levels of deposition indicates poor habitat quality.
5) Channel flow status—The amount of the stream channel covered by water. A low percentage of substrate covered by water represents limited habitat availability to in-stream organisms.
6) Channel alteration—The presence of unnatural stream conditions, such as riprap, bridges, or sections of channelized (straightened) stream can indicate low habitat quality.
7) Frequency of riffles—The presence of typical riffle/pool habitats at a site. Riffles occurring less than 7 stream widths from one another are considered optimal. For example, if a stream is 5 m wide then riffles should be no more than 35 m from the end of one to the beginning of the next to be considered optimal.
8) Bank stability—The amount of erosion or potential for erosion in a reach. Unprotected, steep banks with exposed soils receive the lowest scores, whereas gently sloping banks covered with rooted vegetation are given higher scores.
9) Bank vegetative protection—The amount of coverage/protection from erosion afforded stream banks by plants. Plants are also involved in nutrient uptake and provide allochthonous organic material for detritivores.
10) Riparian vegetative zone width—The width of mature vegetation within 18 m of the stream bank. The presence of roads, agriculture, and other human developments are assumed to decrease stream quality (increasing run-off, nutrient loads, and sedimentation rates).

For each metric, scores from 16–20 are considered optimal, whereas scores of 1–5, 6–10, and 11–15 are considered poor, marginal, and sub-optimal, respectively. The greatest possible score for a stream reach was 200. To assess the relative condition of Trace Creek, we referred to standard scores from other reference streams in the region (TDEC, 2003). Scores in the top quartile (greatest 25%) were considered representative of optimal stream condition.

Biological Sampling—Benthic macroinvertebrate samples were collected in accordance with TDEC (2003) protocols using semi-quantitative kick (SQKICK) samples. At each stream site, a 1 m^2 net (500 μm mesh) was positioned near the downstream edge of a riffle. Substrate immediately upstream was disturbed for 20–30 seconds to dislodge and wash organisms into the net. The net was taken to shore, where all contents were washed into a sample container. Forceps were used to remove organisms clinging to the net. The process was repeated a few meters upstream of where the first sample was collected. After debris from both kicks was placed into the sample container, a weak $\leq$10%) formaldehyde solution was used to preserve contents.

Laboratory Analysis—Sample material from each site was spread evenly in a shallow tray and divided into 30 equivalent subsamples. Randomly selected subsamples were processed until 200 ($\pm$ 20) organisms were removed. These organisms were identified to genus or lowest practical taxon level (Merritt and Cummins, 1996; Thorp and Covich, 2001).

TABLE 1. Habitat assessment values with 25[th] percentile ranks (target value for "non-impaired" classification) of reference streams.

Site	Epifaunal Substrate	Embeddedness	Velocity/ Depth	Sediment Deposition	Channel Flow Status	Channel Alteration	Freq. of Riffles	Bank Stability	Vegetative Protection	Riparian Veg Width	Total
1	19	19	18	18	15	20	19	15	13	19	175
2	15	18	15	17	16	20	17	14	15	12	159
3	18	18	19	18	15	19	18	16	14	11	166
4	18	18	19	16	18	15	18	10	4	3	139
5	19	18	18	16	18	20	18	13	12	15	167
6	19	18	17	18	15	20	19	15	11	18	170
7	16	18	19	19	17	20	20	13	8	20	170
8	16	15	17	17	15	20	18	13	6	19	156
9	18	19	16	18	17	20	17	14	12	19	170
Mean	17.6	17.9	17.6	17.4	16.2	19.3	18.2	13.7	10.6	15.1	163.6
25%	12	13	12	11	11	14	13	12	14	12	124

Data Analysis—We applied TDEC methods for assessing stream quality relative to other streams within the same region of the state. Macroinvertebrate data were first analyzed and "scored" using seven metrics (Arnwine and Denton, 2001):

1) Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera taxa (EPT)—These taxa are typically less tolerant of perturbation than many other taxa.
2) Taxa richness (TR)—The total number of taxa found at a site. Low taxa richness can be indicative of habitat perturbation.
3) Percent Oligochaeta and Chironomidae (% OC)—A high percentage of these taxa can indicate low dissolved oxygen concentration (DO), elevated sedimentation rates, or high levels of suspended solids.
4) Percent EPT (% EPT)—This metric is often positively correlated with overall stream condition.
5) North Carolina Biotic Index (NCBI)—This metric uses environmental tolerance values indicative of each taxon's sensitivity to environmental perturbation. For example, *Dicrotendipes* (Diptera: Chironomidae) has a tolerance value of 8.0, which indicates that organisms in this genera are less susceptible to environmental change or degraded habitat conditions. *Isoperla* (Plecoptera: Perlodidae) has a tolerance value of 1.5, which suggests this taxa group is more susceptible to environmental perturbation. Tolerance values (TDEC, 2003) for each organism are summed and divided by the total number of organisms to calculate an average tolerance score for each sample or site.
6) Percent dominance (% DOM)—The relative abundance of the most common taxa at a site. High percent dominance is often associated with degraded or low habitat diversity.
7) Percent clingers (% CLG)—An abundance measure of organisms that are adapted to stable, hard substrates. Habitat stability is often considered an important component of good stream quality.

Calculated values for each metric were equalized by assigning scores of 0–6 (habitat conditions of a test stream are among the worst (0) or best (6) relative to other streams in the same region of the state) using TDEC guidelines. Equalized scores for these 7 metrics were summed to calculate a "bioregion score." The maximum possible bioregion score was 42; scores of 32 or higher (top quartile, or 25%) indicate non-impaired stream conditions.Waypoints were collected in the field using a Garmin Geographic Positioning System (Model Map 76). ArcGIS 8 software was used to create maps and measure stream distances.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physical habitat was evaluated at all nine sites along Trace Creek within the VTS-G boundaries (Fig. 1). Much of the reach was bordered by immature forest; estimates of canopy cover averaged only 7.8%. Sediment deposits were slight and consisted mainly of sand. Measured water depths ranged from 4–80 cm with a few large pools exceeding 150 cm. Trace Creek average stream width was 10 m. Substratum ranged from boulder to sand, with gravel (37.7%) and cobble (34.9%) being dominant. Habitat assessment scores among the nine sites ranged from 139–175 (Table 1). The average site score of 163.6 exceeded the Habitat Assessment Guidelines (TDEC, 2003) minimum target score (123) for "non-impaired" streams.

Water chemistry measurements fell within the following value ranges: pH (6.06–6.29), conductivity (127–171 μS), temperature (10.7–11.6°C), dissolved oxygen (5.33–5.76 mg/L), and turbidity (2.60–7.35 NTU). These results do not indicate any obvious problems in water quality at sampling sites within Trace Creek.

The macroinvertebrate community reflected both good water quality and physical habitat conditions. Thirty-eight benthic invertebrate taxa were identified from samples collected among the five Trace Creek sites (Appendix 1). No threatened or endangered stream macroinvertebrates were encountered. The most common taxon was *Isoperla* (Plecoptera: Perlodidae), which comprised 26.4% of the fauna. Plecoptera larvae are usually associated with clean, clear streams and have specific habitat and water quality requirements (Merritt and Cummins, 1996). Other common taxa in the Trace Creek assemblage included *Acentrella*

TABLE 2. Calculated metric values for sites located along Trace Creek.

Site ID	EPT[a]	TR[b]	%OC[c]	%EPT[d]	NCBI[e]	%DOM[f]	%CLG[g]
2	7	16	24.5	71.8	3.4	41.0	58.5
4	9	28	21.4	72.8	3.1	44.5	62.4
5	8	18	13.2	68.6	3.6	24.0	40.2
7	9	20	21.7	61.4	4.0	25.1	16.4
9	7	21	28.7	55.7	4.0	19.3	43.2
Mean	8.0	21.6	21.9	66.1	3.6	30.8	44.2

[a] Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera taxa.
[b] Taxa richness.
[c] Percent Oligochaeta and Chironomidae.
[d] Percent Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera taxa.
[e] Mean North Carolina Biological Index score.
[f] Percent dominance.
[g] Percent clingers.

(Ephemeroptera: Baetidae—16.8%), *Cricotopus/Orthocladius* (Diptera: Chironomidae—7.5%), and immature Heptageniidae (Ephemeroptera—7.0%). Ephemeroptera are widely distributed in lotic and lentic systems, although second- and third-order streams with rocky bottoms often have the greatest diversity (Merritt and Cummins, 1996). The remaining 34 genera had relative abundances less than 6.5%. *Isoperla* (Plecoptera: Perlodidae) was dominant at all stream sites except TC4, where *Acentrella* (Ephemeroptera: Baetidae) had the highest relative abundance of 25.1%. The prevalence of environmentally "sensitive" stonefly and mayfly taxa in Trace Creek samples provided an initial indication of good stream quality.

Previous land management and training practices have not resulted in poor stream quality in the VTS-G portion of Trace Creek. Biometric values (Table 2) for Trace Creek translated into bioregion-based scores of 32–36 (mean = 33.6; Table 3). Streams in the Western Highland Rim Bioregion with scores greater than 31 are considered "non-impaired and fully supporting of designated water usages" (TDEC, 2003).

Natural resource management on military lands often requires development of an Integrated Natural Resource Management Plan or basic environmental monitoring plans. Primary objectives should include maintenance of high stream quality within potentially affected watersheds. Implementation of best management practices (BMPs) can minimize potential impacts of training exercises and resource management activities on aquatic habitats. Also, a standard stream bioassessment program can be used to monitor and identify ecological changes in stream quality. Management plans that combine these two practices offer both a proactive effort to minimize problems before they occur (BMPs) as well as a "system check" measure (RBPs monitoring) to recognize a problem before, or relatively soon after, it occurs.

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TABLE 3. Bioregion scores for Trace Creek benthic macroinvertebrate index.

Site ID	EPT[a]	TR[b]	%OC[c]	%EPT[d]	NCBI[e]	%DOM[f]	%CLG[g]	Total
2	2	2	6	6	6	4	6	32
4	4	4	6	6	6	4	6	36
5	4	2	6	6	6	6	4	34
7	4	4	6	6	6	6	0	32
9	2	4	6	6	6	6	4	34
Mean	3.2	3.2	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.2	4.0	33.6

[a] Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera taxa.
[b] Taxa richness.
[c] Percent Oligochaeta and Chironomidae.
[d] Percent Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera taxa.
[e] Mean North Carolina Biological Index score.
[f] Percent dominance.
[g] Percent clingers.

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APPENDIX A

Benthic macroinvertebrate taxa collected in Trace Creek at the Tennessee Army National Guard Volunteer Training Site, near Waverly, Tennessee, February 2005. Tolerance values (TV) as well as designations of intolerant (IT) and clinger (CLG) taxa are indicated.

Order	Family	Genus	Total	TV	IT/CLG
Amphipoda	Crangonyctidae	*Crangonyx*	3	7.87	
Coleoptera	Elmidae	*Optioservus*	1	2.36	IT, CLG
Diptera	Chironomidae		17	5.12	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Corynoneura*	5	6.01	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Cricotopus/Orthocladius*	72	4.86	CLG
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Eukiefferiella*	1	3.43	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Polypedilum*	6	5.69	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Tanytarsus*	10	6.76	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Thienemanniella*	28	5.86	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Thienemannimyia*	6	6.2	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Tvetenia*	1	3.65	
Diptera	Chironomidae	*Zavrelia*	11	5.3	
Diptera	Simuliidae	*Simulium*	11	4	CLG
Diptera	Simuliidae	*Prosimulium*	2	4.01	CLG
Diptera	Tipulidae	*Dicranota*	2	0	IT
Ephemeroptera	Baetidae	*Acentrella*	162	3.6	
Ephemeroptera	Caenidae	*Caenis*	4	7.41	
Ephemeroptera	Heptageniidae		67	4	CLG
Ephemeroptera	Heptageniidae	*Leucrocuta*	1	2.4	IT, CLG
Ephemeroptera	Heptageniidae	*Maccaffertium*	5	3	
Ephemeroptera	Isonychiidae	*Isonychia*	37	3.45	
Ephemeroptera	Leptophlebiidae		1	1.8	IT
Hydracarina			1	5.53	
Isopoda	Asellidae	*Lirceus*	59	7.85	
Oligochaeta	Lumbriculidae		2	7.3	
Oligochaeta	Naididae		51	8.94	
Plecoptera	Capniidae		44	0.9	IT
Plecoptera	Chloroperlidae		1	0.7	IT
Plecoptera	Chloroperlidae	*Haploperla*	5	0.98	IT, CLG
Plecoptera	Chloroperlidae	*Sweltsa*	2	0	IT, CLG
Plecoptera	Leuctridae		10	0.2	IT
Plecoptera	Leuctridae	*Leuctra*	1	0.67	IT, CLG
Plecoptera	Nemouridae		38	1.2	
Plecoptera	Nemouridae	*Amphinemura*	1	3.33	
Plecoptera	Perlidae	*Clioperla*	1	4.72	
Plecoptera	Perlodidae	*Isoperla*	254	1.5	IT, CLG
Trichopetera	Rhyacophilidae	*Rhyacophila*	1	0.73	IT, CLG
Turbellaria			40	4	
		Total	964		
		# spp.	38		
		Mean tolerance score	3.66		

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SALAMANDERS AS FISHING BAIT IN THE BLUE RIDGE PHYSIOGRAPHIC PROVINCE OF EAST TENNESSEE

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ABSTRACT—Knowledge of the uses made of salamanders by humans is important for conservation and management purposes. This investigation, conducted primarily within the Blue Ridge Mountain counties of Tennessee, reports on the use and selling of salamanders as fishing bait from May 2002 to June 2003. One of 75 bait, tackle, and marina businesses surveyed sold live salamanders. Selling prices ranged from $4.00–$7.00 per dozen. Lack of reliable suppliers, concern for endangered species, and the uncertainty about the legality of selling salamanders were given as reasons for businesses not selling salamanders. Of 321 fishermen surveyed, 6.5% reported using salamanders as bait during the time frame of this investigation. Most fishermen who used salamanders caught rather than purchased them.

Sold under the vernacular names “waterdogs,” “water-lizards,” and “spring-lizards,” salamanders have been marketed to fishermen as bait. Etnier and Starnes (1993) listed salamanders as effective natural baits for black basses, *Micropterus* spp., and writers of popular bass fishing books tout the use of salamanders as bait as well (Circle, 2000; Weiss, 2001). A long history of using salamanders as bait in the Blue Ridge Mountains exists. In the early 1950s fishing with salamanders in the southern Appalachians was so popular that thousands were collected and some were even shipped to the Piedmont and Coastal Plain (Martof, 1953).

Most fishermen who use salamanders select stream and streamside species. *Desmognathus* are preferred; however, species of *Eurycea* and *Gyrinophilus* are also collected for bait. Some species of these genera existing in or near the Blue Ridge Physiographic Province of East Tennessee are of interest to conservation groups. *Desmognathus aeneus* Brown and Bishop (seepage salamander) and *Eurycea junaluska* Sever, Dundee, and Sullivan (Junaluska salamander) are listed as species “in need of management” by the Tennessee Wildlife Resources Agency (2002) and the Tennessee Natural Heritage Program (2001). *Desmognathus quadramaculatus* Holbrook (black-bellied salamander) is “watch-listed” by the Tennessee Natural Heritage Program (2001).

Salamander population declines, geographic range extensions, and hybridization due to fishing and bait trade activities have been documented. Redmond (1980) reported on the decline of local populations of *Desmognathus welteri* Barbour (Black Mountain dusky salamander) in Tennessee, suggesting that the species' distributional pattern may have been altered by fishermen. Martof (1953) and Camp (1989) discussed *D. quadramaculatus* introductions in Georgia as a result of fishing activities. In central California Fitzpatrick and Shaffer (2004) found hybridization between two historically isolated species, *Ambystoma californiense* and *A. tigrinum mavortium*, as a result of bait trade activities. Benjamin and Shaffer (2007) found hybrids of these two *Ambystoma* species to exhibit hybrid vigor, and they suggest hybrids may eventually replace the historically pure *A. californiense*.

This investigation was undertaken at the request of the Tennessee Wildlife Resources Agency (TWRA) and United States Forest Service (USFS). The purpose of the study was to determine the scope of the salamander bait trade from May 2002 to June 2003 and the use of salamanders by fishermen in the Blue Ridge Physiographic Province of East Tennessee.

METHODS

Bait store personnel, fishermen, and TWRA officers were interviewed to determine the use of salamanders as bait. Employees of 75 bait stores were interviewed by personal visitation, telephone, or both. Businesses surveyed were determined by consulting TWRA officers and USFS personnel, by asking fishermen where they purchased live bait, and by phonebook listings. With few exceptions, business personnel interviewed were located within, or in close proximity to, the Blue Ridge counties of East Tennessee. Interviews were conducted during May, June, and July of 2002 and 2003. Most businesses were contacted twice, once in 2002 and once in 2003. Those reported as, or actually, selling live salamanders were contacted more frequently than those not so reported. The scope of the investigation was limited to the Blue Ridge counties of East Tennessee at the request of TWRA and USFS.

Seven TWRA officers assigned to the Blue Ridge counties were interviewed. They were contacted to ascertain their knowledge of businesses selling salamanders and to obtain recommendations on businesses to contact. Fishermen (n = 321) were interviewed on nine bodies of water located in East Tennessee to determine their use and acquisition of salamanders. Waterways surveyed were determined after discussions with TWRA officers, USFS personnel, and local fishermen.

RESULTS

Of 75 bait, tackle, and marina businesses contacted in 21 East Tennessee counties (Table 1), only one sold live

TABLE 1. Numbers of bait dealers contacted in each county.

County	No. Bait Stores
Anderson	2
Blount	4
Bradley	1
Campbell	2
Carter	4
Cocke	2
Green	3
Hamblen	1
Hamilton	6
Hawkins	1
Jefferson	3
Johnson	1
Knox	1
Loudon	4
McMinn	1
Meigs	2
Monroe	6
Polk	8
Sevier	8
Sullivan	11
Washington	4

salamanders between March 2002 and June 2003. This store, located in Carter County, sold live salamanders during the spring months of 2002; even though six visitations and three phone calls were made to this store during spring and summer 2002, no live salamanders could be purchased. Personnel at this business reported that salamanders sold quickly, and they were able to sell all they could obtain (several hundred individuals). When contacted during the spring months of 2003, they were not selling salamanders because their supplier had stopped collecting them.

Two businesses reported selling live salamanders prior to this investigation. One business sold live salamanders obtained from a person in North Carolina during 2001. These businesses did not have a supplier during 2002 and 2003. Interviews of fishermen revealed an additional two businesses that had in recent years sold live salamanders. However, when contacted, they reported not selling live salamanders during the time frame of this investigation. Thus, four of the 75 businesses contacted had sold live salamanders prior to this investigation. Two other businesses mentioned the chance of selling endangered salamanders as the reason they do not sell live salamanders. Employees of five businesses surveyed thought it unlawful to sell live salamanders.

Of the 321 fishermen interviewed, 131 were fishing for trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss* Walbaum (rainbow trout) and *Salmo trutta* Linnaeus (brown trout), and 190 for bass, *Micropterus* spp. (Table 2). No trout fisherman reported using live salamanders as bait when fishing for trout. Among bass fishermen 24.7% reported fishing with live salamanders while pursuing bass prior to or during the time of this investigation. Of all fishermen interviewed only 6.5% (n = 21) fished with salamanders from March 2002 to June 2003.

TABLE 2. Numbers of trout and bass fishermen surveyed on nine East Tennessee waterways.

Waterway	# of Fishermen	Type of Fishing
Cherokee Lake	94	Bass
Citico Creek	78	Trout
Doe River	2	Trout
Douglas Lake	14	Bass
Nolichucky River	9	Bass
Tellico Lake	50	Bass
Tellico River	31	Trout
Watauga Lake	23	Bass
Watauga River	20	Trout

Most fishermen caught salamanders rather than purchasing them. Of the 21 bass fishermen fishing with live salamanders from March 2002 to June 2003, 16 caught their own salamanders, three purchased salamanders from bait stores, and two had both caught their own and purchased them.

Almost all fishermen using salamanders as bait did so during spring months. Only two fishermen continued using salamanders into summer months. No fishermen reported fishing with salamanders during autumn months.

Most fishermen used relatively few live salamanders when compared to use of other natural baits. Seventeen of the 21 bass fishermen fishing with live salamanders during the course of this investigation used four dozen or fewer per year. Eighteen of the 21 fished with live salamanders during six or fewer fishing trips. However, two fishermen reported using approximately 400–500 salamanders during the spring months. These two fishermen reported catching salamanders from their own property.

The cost of buying a dozen salamanders varied between $4.00 and $7.00. The business located in Carter County reported selling a dozen live salamanders for $7.00. Three fishermen reported paying from $4.00 to $6.00 per dozen prior to this study. One store owner suggested he could sell salamanders for $12.00 per dozen. Such pricing places salamanders at the high end of purchase cost for natural baits and may be too high for some fishermen when minnows and earthworms sell for much less.

The TWRA officers interviewed knew of no businesses selling salamanders during 2002–2003. One officer reported that most fishermen using salamanders caught their own. Another officer stated he thought that most bait dealers no longer sold live salamanders because of state regulations protecting some species and that bait dealers could not distinguish protected species from unprotected ones.

DISCUSSION

No evidence was found of a large salamander bait market in the Blue Ridge Physiographic Province of Eastern Tennessee during the time of this investigation. The salamander bait trade appears to be driven by the availability of local harvesters. The impact of the salamander bait trade on local salamander populations in the Blue Ridge Physiographic

Province of East Tennessee is thought to have been minimal during this investigation.

Three factors influence the selling of salamanders by bait stores: maintenance of a constant supply, concern about selling endangered species, and the legality of selling salamanders. A major concern for businesses willing to sell salamanders is having a supplier that can provide animals on a continuous basis. Most fishermen catch, rather than buy, their own salamanders. One reason for this could be the high purchase price. Another reason may be that few bait shops sell salamanders or sell them on a consistent basis.

The potential harm which could be done to populations of salamanders by localized salamander bait trade activities is real. Local populations could be depleted by the successive removal of sub-adult and adult size individuals (sizes appropriate as fishing bait). Such individuals represent the breeding and future breeding members of the population. Many salamanders do not reach reproductive size until they are four to seven years of age. Bruce (1989, 1990) and Castanet et al. (1996) reported that female and male *Desmognathus monticola* Dunn (seal salamander) first reproduce when five-to-seven and four-to-five years old, respectively. If a stream is heavily harvested for two to three years, enough breeding age and near breeding age individuals could be collected to lessen the survivability of the population or at least affect population dynamics. Redmond (1980), reporting on the distribution and ecology of *Desmognathus welteri* in Tennessee, stated that one of the main causes for the extensive decline of local populations was a result of their being collected as fishing bait. He mentioned finding one bait shop having approximately 300 individuals of *D. welteri* for sale as bait. Further, he stated that collecting pressure probably resulted in the removal of reproductively active females.

The potential of unwanted releases should be considered. An introduction of salamanders collected and transported from a distant location could occur within local populations. If fishermen were to release salamanders at the end of a day of fishing, new alleles could be introduced into local populations. Fitzpatrick and Shaffer (2004) have proven hybridization between *Ambystoma tigrinum mavortium* and *A. californiense* after the barred tiger salamander was introduced by fishing bait dealers. Benjamin and Shaffer (2007) reported the potential harm this hybridization could cause to populations of *A. californiense*. Also, similar to some bait bucket releases of minnows, temporary or persistent populations of salamanders could be established at previously unoccupied sites. Martof (1953) and Camp (1989) reported on populations of *Desmognathus quadramuculatus* established by fishermen in the Piedmont region of Georgia. Redmond (1980) suggested the widespread use of *D. welteri* as bait has resulted in the decline of some populations, while numerous introductions by fishermen may have altered the natural range of this species in Tennessee. Another concern is the spread of parasites and disease by movement and release of salamanders by fishermen (Green and Dodd, 2007).

Events such as those mentioned above could occur in East Tennessee, as one business reported buying salamanders from a harvester from North Carolina. Also, two fishermen reported collecting salamanders in Virginia and fishing with them in Tennessee.

The alteration and loss of habitat are significant factors causing reductions in salamander populations. The use of salamanders as fishing bait is another human activity that has the potential to harm salamander populations.

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