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Greater Sage-Grouse and Range Management: Insights from a 25-Year Case Study in Utah and Wyoming $\stackrel{\wedge}{\sim}$

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ABSTRACT

Conservation of sagebrush (Artemisia spp.) systems is one of the most difficult and pressing concerns in western 27 North America. Sagebrush obligates, such as greater sage-grouse (Centrocercus urophasianus; hereafter sage- 28 grouse), have experienced population declines as sagebrush systems have degraded. Science-based management 29 is crucial to improve certainty in range management practices. Although large-scale implementation of manage- 30 ment regimens within an experimental design is difficult, long-term case studies provide opportunities to improve 31 learning and develop and refine hypotheses. We used 25 years of data across three large landscapes in northern 32 Utah and southwestern Wyoming to assess sage-grouse population change and corresponding land management 33 differences in a case study design. Sage-grouse lek counts at our Deseret Land and Livestock (DLL) study site in- 34 creased relative to surrounding populations in correspondence with the implementation of small-acreage sagebrush 35 treatments designed to reduce shrub cover and increase herbaceous understory within a prescriptive grazing 36 management framework. The higher lek counts were sustained for nearly 15 years. However, with continued sagebrush 37 treatments and the onset of adverse winter conditions. DLL lek counts declined to levels consistent with surrounding 38 areas. During summer, DLL sage-grouse broods used plots of small, treated sagebrush mosaics more than untreated 39 reference sites. We hypothesize that sagebrush treatments on DLL increased availability of grasses and forbs to sage-40 grouse, similar to other studies, but that cumulative annual reductions in sagebrush may have reduced availability of 41 sagebrush cover for sage-grouse seasonal needs at DLL, especially when extreme winter weather occurred. 42© 2015 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. on behalf of Society for Range Management. This is an open access 43 article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

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45 Introduction

Increasing losses in biodiversity across the globe demand an unprec edented scale and certainty in application of conservation actions to slow
 declines (Waldron et al., 2013). Most imperiled are species with high
 vulnerability and low adaptive capacity that can only be maintained
 through species-specific management actions (Goble et al., 2012).
 Science-based management underpins conservation effectiveness, and

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without it, well-intentioned practitioners may implement actions that 52 are ineffective or even detrimental to species recovery. Effectiveness of 53 management actions can take decades to assess given inherent variabil- 54 ity in climate and lag times that can span years to decades, particularly 55 for species with low reproductive rates and longer life spans. Moreover, 56 although experimental design and replication are trademarks of science- 57 based management, replicated experiments can be difficult or even im- 58 possible to conduct on large scales. In these scenarios, case studies can 59 offer an approach that provides reliable information and serves as a valuable precursor to hypothesis testing (Hebblewhite, 2011). 61

Conservation of sagebrush (*Artemisia* spp.) ecosystems is one of the 62 most pressing issues in western North America (Knick and Connelly, 63 2011). Sagebrush occurs across a large portion of western North 64 America where sagebrush communities and their associated fauna are 65 threatened by energy development, urbanization, conversion to crop- 66 land, invasion of exotic plants and subsequent catastrophic wildfire, 67

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conifer encroachment, and sagebrush eradication (Naugle, 2011; Knick
et al., 2013; Murphy et al., 2013). Loss and degradation of sagebrush communities have led to conservation challenges for a variety of species
(Baker et al., 1976; Miller and Eddleman, 2000; Bradley, 2010). At greatest
risk are obligate species found only in this ecotype (Oyler-McCance et al.,
2001; Ingelfinger and Anderson, 2004; Holloran, 2005).

Greater sage-grouse (Centrocercus urophasianus; hereafter sage-74 grouse) are sagebrush obligates that use this ecosystem throughout all 75 76phases of their life cycle. As with other sagebrush obligates, sage-77 grouse populations have declined in response to habitat loss and degra-78 dation (Garton et al., 2011). New outcome-based science is quantifying 79the efficacy of proactive conservation measures to stem population losses (e.g., conifer removal [Baruch-Mordo et al., 2013] and conserva-80 tion easements [Copeland et al., 2013]), but examples of increasing pop-81 ulations as a direct result of management intervention are rare, leaving 82 83 practitioners unsure of management actions that could be implemented proactively to further conservation of sage-grouse. 84

85 The detrimental impacts of sagebrush canopy removal or reduction on sagebrush obligate species across large areas are widely known 86 87 (Beck et al., 2012). The efficacy of small-scale (e.g., < 200-ha mosaics) 88 shrub removal in sage-grouse management, however, remains fiercely 89 debated. On one hand, removal or thinning of sagebrush in small areas 90 in mosaic patterns within sagebrush landscapes may promote growth 91 of grasses and forbs, which could improve brood-rearing habitat and 92sage-grouse recruitment (e.g., Dahlgren et al., 2006). Conversely, remov-93 al of shrubs may reduce availability of sagebrush during winter, reduce nesting habitat, facilitate invasion of exotic plants, and further fragment 94existing sagebrush systems. Because sage-grouse are currently being 95considered for federal Endangered Species Act listing (Stiver, 2011), a 96 97 better understanding of the response of sage-grouse to small-scale sagebrush canopy reduction with applications of mechanical, chemical, or 98 prescribed fire is needed. Long-term case studies have been suggested 99 as alternative options to assess the efficacy of these practices and pro-100 vide important learning opportunities for practitioners (Krausman 101 102et al., 2009). To date, however, no such long-term studies exist.

In northern Utah, the 76 700-ha private Deseret Land and Livestock 103(DLL) ranch reported a dramatic increase in average males counted per 104 105 lek between the late 1980s and early 2000s (Danvir, 2002). However, in 106 2010, lek counts on DLL declined to levels approximating surrounding 107 populations. DLL employed range management practices during this period that were distinctly different from the surrounding areas in north-108 ern Utah and western Wyoming. These practices included a prescriptive 109 110 grazing strategy where cattle were managed in three or four large herds 111 and rotated through pastures for short periods of time (Danvir et al., 112 2005). Combined with prescriptive grazing, sagebrush treatments were conducted at small (generally < 200-ha) scales in mid- and high-113elevation sagebrush communities. The surrounding areas largely 114 consisted of U.S.D.I. Bureau of Land Management (BLM) allotments 115116 with limited inclusions of nonfederal land. These areas were managed 117 using different grazing regimens and few sagebrush management pro-118 jects. The DLL ranch provided habitat for a sage-grouse population adjacent to populations in north Rich County (RICH) and southwestern 119 Wyoming (WWY). All three populations have been monitored using 120121 spring lek counts of male sage-grouse as an index of abundance for 122multiple decades.

The purpose of this case study was to document changes in sage-123grouse populations over the past 25 years and begin to assess response 124of sage-grouse to differences in long-term, landscape-level (e.g., across 125multiple allotments or an entire 75 000 ha ranch) management actions. 126We first compared counts of breeding males (i.e., number of males per 127 lek) between our three study areas. Next, we considered available 128data on brood counts and sage-grouse use of treatment areas on DLL. Al-129130 though our approach lacks a true experimental design, it is a long-term 131 retrospective case study that considers the preponderance of evidence accumulated over a 25-year period. Our intention was to use these 132data to provide information that begins to fill knowledge gaps and 133

develop hypotheses that could be tested in replicated experimental de- 134 signs in the future. 135

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Study Areas

We identified three study areas for retrospective analysis that included 1) Deseret Land and Livestock (DLL) located in Morgan, Rich, and Weber Counties, Utah; 2) north Rich (RICH) located in Rich County, Utah; and 3) western Wyoming (WWY) located in Uinta and Lincoln Counties, Wyoming (Fig. 1). Sage-grouse habitats in each study area shared similar soils, elevations, vegetation types, and weather patterns. Has tudy areas contained two Major Land Resource Regions (MLRAs) (USDA Agriculture Handbook 296, 2006). Sage-grouse occurred on the study areas throughout MLRA 34A (Cool Central Desertic Basins and Plateaus) and in the lower elevations of MLRA 47 (Wasatch and Uinta Mountains). Occupied habitat throughout the study areas ranged in elevation from 1 950 to 2 600 m on substrate composed of shale- and sandstone-derived Aridisols and Entisols.

Sage-grouse habitat in our study areas included at least three community types based on elevation: 1) low elevations (<2000 m) were tominated by Wyoming big sagebrush (*A. tridentata wyomingensis*) or low sagebrush (*A. arbuscula*) and Douglas rabbitbrush (*Chrysothamnus viscidiflorus*); 2) midelevation (between 2000 m and 2100 m) habitats were dominated by basin big sagebrush (*A. t. tridentata*) with inclusions of low sagebrush, often intermixed with rabbitbrush; and 3) high elevation (>2100 m) sagebrush communities were dominated by mountain big sagebrush (*A. t. vaseyana*), with intermixed bitterbrush (*Purshia tridentata*), serviceberry (*Amalanchier alnifolia*) or snowberry (*Symphoricarpos albus*), and inclusions of aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) 160 and Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga meniziesii*) at the highest elevations. 161 Mean annual precipitation was 25 cm at lower elevations and 55 cm at higher elevations. Irrigated, native riparian, and meadow habitats (<5% of study area) occurred along the Bear and Green River drainages. 164

Anthropogenic influences in each study area included livestock grazing by domestic cattle as the primary land use. During our study period 166 we estimated active well density at 4.54 wells per 100 km², 1.96 wells 167 per 100 km², and 2.86 wells per 100 km² for DLL, RICH, and WWY, respectively in 6.4-km buffers (see Walker et al., 2007) around known 169 leks. Well spudding rates during the study period were 2.22 per 100 170 km², 0.44 per 100 km², and 0.76 per 100 km², for DLL, RICH, and 171 WWY, respectively (Utah data from http://stage.mapserv.utah.gov/ 172 oilgasmining; Wyoming data from http://wogcc.state.wy.us). Well pad 173 densities in all three areas were extremely low compared with density 174 thresholds (e.g., 150 wells per 100 km²) showing negative impacts to 175 sage-grouse populations in other areas (Harju et al., 2010). Therefore 176 we did not consider differences in oil and gas well densities between 177 study areas as likely to influence sage-grouse populations. 178

The three study areas differed in land ownership, grazing manage- 179 ment strategies, and frequency of sagebrush removal. The RICH study 180 area was 158 100 ha in size, including ~ 53% publicly owned and 47% 181 privately owned lands. The WWY study area was 407 000 ha in size, in- 182 cluding ~64% publicly and 36% privately owned lands. The RICH and 183 WWY study areas were primarily federally owned lands, principally 184 controlled by the U.S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Land Manage- 185 ment (BLM); U.S. Department of Agriculture; and U.S. Forest Service 186 (USFS). Most of the private rangelands "checker-boarded" within the 187 RICH and WWY areas were managed as part of BLM allotments. Allot- 188 ments in the northern and southern portion of the WWY area were gen-189 erally single pastures grazed May-September. The central portion of the 190 area consisted of the Uinta-Cumberland allotment, which used a four- 191 pasture deferred-rotation grazing plan in which pastures were grazed 192 for 1-2 months per pasture May-October. Allotments in RICH included 193 single pastures grazed May-September. Few pastures in RICH or WWY 194 received growing-season rest, and cattle were generally stocked at a 195 rate of 2.5–5 AUM \cdot ha⁻¹. Conversely, DLL consisted of 76 700 ha, 93% 196 of which was privately owned with the remaining 7% BLM inholdings. 197

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