Historical Fresh Water and Salinity Conditions in the Western Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta and Suisun Bay

A summary of historical reviews, reports, analyses and measurements

Appendices

Water Resources Department

Contra Costa Water District

Concord, California

February 2010

Technical Memorandum WR10-001

Exhibit CCWD-6

Exhibit CCWD-6

Historical Fresh Water and Salinity Conditions in the Western Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta and Suisun Bay

Appendices
February 2010

Tables

Figures

Appendix A. Factors Influencing Salinity Intrusion

Salinity intrusion in the Delta is the result of the interaction between tidally-driven saline water from the Pacific Ocean and fresh water from rivers flowing into the Delta. Regional climate change (e.g., sea level rise and change in precipitation regime), physical changes to the Central Valley landscape (e.g., creation of artificial channels and land use changes), and water management practices (e.g., reservoir storage, water diversions for agricultural and municipal and industrial use) affect this interaction between the ocean tides and the freshwater flow, in turn affecting salinity intrusion in the Delta (The Bay Institute (TBI), 1998, Department of Public Works (DPW), 1931, Nichols *et al.*, 1986, Conomos, 1979, and Knowles, 2000).

These factors are grouped into three categories (Table A-1) and discussed individually and qualitatively to provide context for observed salinity variability, which is necessarily due to the cumulative impact of all factors.

Table A-1 – Factors Affecting Salinity Intrusion into the Delta

Natural and artificial factors affect the salinity of the Delta. The factors are grouped into three categories: regional climate change, physical changes to the landscape, and water management practices.

Category	Factors affecting salinity intrusion and specific effect on Delta salinity
Regional Climate Change	• Precipitation regime o Long-term reduction of spring (April-July) snowmelt runoff may increase salinity in the spring, summer, and fall. o A shift to more intense winter runoff may not decrease salinity in the winter because outflows are typically already high during winter storms. • Ocean conditions o Added periodic variability to precipitation (via mechanisms such as the El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) or Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO)) • Sea level rise o Expected to increase salinity intrusion (DWR, 2006). Actual salinity response to rising sea level will depend upon actions taken to protect against flooding or overtopping (e.g., new tidal marsh vs. sea walls or dykes).
Physical Changes to the Landscape	• Deepening, widening, and straightening of Delta channels o Generally increase salinity, but response will depend upon location within the Delta (DWR, 2006)

Category	Factors affecting salinity intrusion and specific effect on Delta salinity

	• Separation of natural floodplains from valley rivers
	  ○ Confining peak flows to river channels would reduce salinity during flood events.
	  ○ Preventing floodplains from draining back into the main channel would increase salinity after floods (late spring and summer).
	
	• Reclamation of Delta islands
	  ○ Varies (the effect on salinity depends on marsh vegetation, depth, and location), but marshes generally dampen tides, reducing salinity intrusion
	
	• Creation of canals and channel "cuts"
	  ○ Generally creates more efficient routes for tidal flows to enter the Delta, thereby increasing salinity intrusion relative to native conditions
	
	• Deposition and erosion of sediments in Suisun Bay (Cappiella *et al.*, 1999)
	  ○ Deposition of mining debris (occurred from 1860's to approximately 1887) reduced salinity in Suisun Bay and the western and central Delta (Enright, 2004, Enright and Culberson, 2009)
	  ○ Erosion (occurring since 1887) increases salinity in Suisun Bay and the western and central Delta (Enright, 2004, Enright and Culberson, 2009)

Water Management Practices (reservoir operations, water diversions, and exports from the Delta)	• Decreasing Net Delta Outflow (NDO) by increasing upstream and in-Delta diversions as well as exports
	  ○ Increases salinity
	
	• Increasing upstream storage capacity
	  ○ Generally increases salinity when reservoirs are filling. Reservoir releases may decrease salinity if they increase outflow. Historically, this occurred when flood control or other releases were required in wetter years. However, as this study shows, this has generally been small and intermittent; salinity measurements indicate it occurred occasionally prior to 1985, and very seldom since. Increased early winter diversion of runoff to storage will maintain or increase high salinities in the winter.

A.1. Climatic Variability

Changes in precipitation regimes and sea levels, brought about by a changing climate, can affect the spatial and temporal salinity conditions in the Delta. Long-term variations in river runoff, precipitation and sea level are discussed below.

A.1.1. Regional Precipitation and Runoff

Precipitation in the Bay-Delta watershed sets the amount of water available within the system which could ultimately reach the Bay and affect salinity conditions. However, since precipitation falls as both rain and snow, runoff to river channels is spread over more months than the precipitation events themselves; any runoff from rain generally reaches the river channels within days of the precipitation event, but runoff resulting from snow is delayed until the spring snowmelt. For this reason, estimates of unimpaired flow (runoff), rather than precipitation, are generally used to characterize hydrological variability. Unimpaired runoff represents the natural water production of a river basin, unaltered by water diversions, reservoir storage and operation, and export of water to or import of water from other basins.

Knowles (2000) determined that variability in freshwater flows accounts for the majority of the Bay's salinity variability. The spatial distribution, seasonal timing, annual magnitude, decadal variability, and long-term trends of unimpaired flow all affect the hydrology and salinity transport in the Delta. Total annual unimpaired flow in the Sacramento and San Joaquin basins from 1872 through 2009 is presented in Section 3.1, with the seasonal distribution provided for 1921 through 2003.

The total annual unimpaired flow of the upper Sacramento Basin for water years 1906 through 2006 exhibits substantial year-to-year variability with a strong decadal oscillation in the 5-year running average (see Figure 3-1). On average, over the last 100 years, the total annual unimpaired Sacramento River flow is increasing by about 0.06% or 11 thousand-acre feet (TAF) each year. However, increased total annual unimpaired flow does not necessarily reduce salinity intrusion. Knowles (2000) illustrated that the seasonal timing of runoff can significantly alter salinity intrusion without any change to the total annual runoff.

Typically, most precipitation in California occurs during winter in the form of snow in the Sierra Nevada. The subsequent melting of this snow, beginning in the spring, feeds the rivers that flow into the Delta. The four months from April through July approximately span the spring season and represent the period of runoff due to snow melt. The long-term trend in spring (April-July) runoff decreased by approximately 1.3 MAF from 1906 to 2006 (Figure A-1). This effect is believed to be caused by climate change; as temperatures warm, more precipitation falls as rain instead of snow, and what snowpack that does accumulate tends to melt earlier in the year. This leads to higher runoff during winter months, but lower runoff in spring or summer, resulting in the potential for greater salinity intrusion. These observed changes in the magnitude and timing of spring runoff of the Sacramento River watershed are consistent with similar changes in spring runoff observed across river watersheds of the western United States (e.g., Dettinger, 2005; Mote *et al.*, 2005; Stewart *et al.*, 2005). Note that, from 1920 to 2006, the long-term trend in spring runoff actually increased slightly (approximately 0.5 MAF).

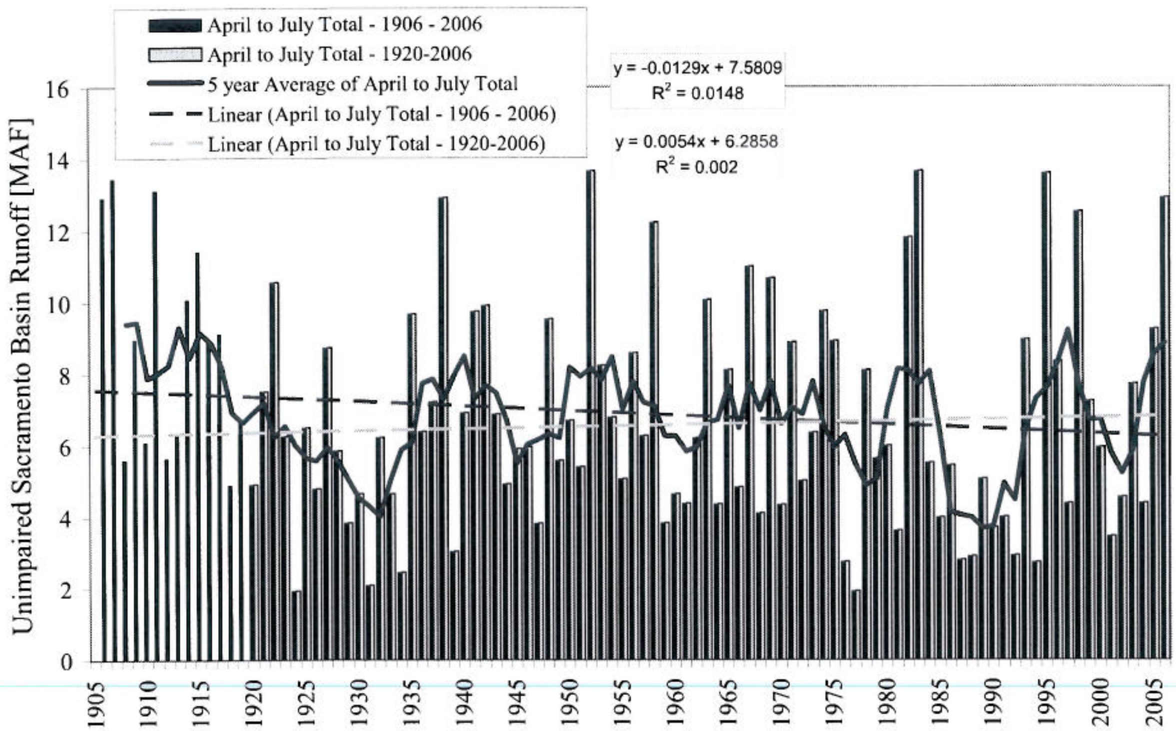


Figure A-1 – Unimpaired runoff from the Sacramento River basins from April to July
Data source: http://cdec.water.ca.gov/cgi-progs/iodir/WSIHIST.

Precipitation and runoff are influenced by regional events such as the Little Ice Age (about 1300 to 1850 CE) and the Medieval Warm Period (about 800 to about 1300 CE). During the Little Ice Age, the winter snowline in the Sierra was generally at a lower elevation, and spring and summer nighttime temperatures were significantly lower. This temperature pattern would allow the snowmelt to last further into the summer, providing a more uniform seasonal distribution of runoff such that significantly less salinity intrusion than occurs today would be expected. This expectation is borne out by paleosalinity studies (see Section 2.3).

At shorter time scales, oceanic conditions such as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) also impact precipitation and runoff patterns. Runoff in the upper watershed is the primary factor that determines freshwater outflow from the Delta. Anthropogenic flow management (upstream diversions, reservoir operations, in-Delta diversions, and south-of-Delta exports) alters the amount and timing of flow from the upper watershed (see Section 2.3). Changes to the physical landscape further alter the amount and timing of flow (see Section 2.2).

A.1.2. Sea Level Rise

Sea level fluctuations resulting from the repeated glacial advance and retreat during the Pleistocene epoch (extending from 2 million years ago to 15,000 years ago) resulted in deposition of alternating layers of marine and alluvial sediments in the Delta (TBI, 1998). A warming trend starting about 15,000 years ago ended the last glacial advance and triggered rapid sea-level rise. At the end of this period (known as the "Holocene Transgression") approximately 6,000 years ago, sea level had risen sufficiently to inundate the Delta at high tide (Atwater *et al.*, 1979).

Sea level is estimated to have risen at an average rate of about 5 cm/century during the past 6,000 years and at an average rate of 1-2 cm/century during the past 3,000 years (Cayan *et al.*, 2008). Observations of sea level at the Golden Gate in San Francisco reveal that the mean sea level has risen at an average rate of 2.2 cm/decade (or 0.22 mm/yr) over the past 100 years (Cayan *et al.*, 2008). Future increases in sea level are expected to increase salinity intrusion into the Delta (DWR, 2006); actual salinity response to rising sea level will depend upon actions taken to protect against flooding or levee overtopping (e.g. new tidal marsh would generally reduce salinity intrusion, while construction of sea walls or dykes may further increase salinity).

A.2. Physical Changes to the Delta and Central Valley

Creation of artificial channels, reclamation of marshlands, land use changes and other physical changes to the landscape of the Delta and Central Valley have significantly altered water movement through the Delta and the intrusion of salinity into the Delta. Major physical changes to the Delta and Central Valley landscape have occurred over the last 150 years. As many of these physical changes were made prior to flow and salinity monitoring (which began in the 1920's), only a qualitative discussion is presented below.

A.2.1. Deepening, Widening, and Straightening Channels (early 1900's-present)

The lower Sacramento River was widened to 3,500 feet and straightened (creating Decker Island) around 1910 (Lund *et al.*, 2007). Progressive deepening of shipping channels began in the early 1900's. Original channel depths were less than 10 feet; channels were gradually dredged to depths exceeding 30 feet, and maintenance dredging continues today.

These changes to the river channels have increased salinity intrusion. Deepening the river channels increases the propagation speed of tidal waves, leading to increased salinity intrusion. Similarly, straightening the river channels provides a shorter path for the passage of the tidal waves and increases salinity intrusion. Widening of the river channels increases the tidal prism (the volume of water in the channels), resulting in further salinity intrusion. Larger cross-sections reduce velocities, lowering friction losses and maintaining more tidal energy, which is the driving force for dispersing salinity into the Delta.

A.2.2. Reclamation of Marshland (1850-1920)

In the Central Valley

The original natural floodplains captured large winter flows, gradually releasing the water back into the river channels throughout the spring and summer, resulting in a more uniform flow into the Delta (reduced peak flow and increased low flow) compared to current conditions. The increased surface area of water stored in these natural floodplains increased total evaporation and groundwater recharge, reducing total annual inflow into the Delta.

Even with less Delta inflow, the difference in the seasonal flow pattern may have limited salinity intrusion. The drainage of floodplains back into rivers during the spring and groundwater seepage back to the rivers in the summer and fall provided a delayed increase in river flows during the low flow period. Raising and strengthening natural levees in the Central Valley effectively disconnected the rivers from their floodplains, removing this natural water storage, increasing the peak flood flows and reducing the low flows. The net effect of these changes in the Central Valley was to reduce salinity during floods, when salinity is typically already low, and increase salinity during the following summers and falls, which is likely to have led to increased maximum annual salinity intrusion.

In the Delta

Reclamation of Delta marshland began around 1850. By 1920, almost all land within the legal Delta[1] had been diked and drained for agriculture (DPW, 1931). Before the levees were armored and the marshes were drained, the channels would have been shallower and longer (more sinuous), which would have slowed propagation of the tides into the Delta, reduced tidal energy and reduced salinity intrusion.

The natural marsh surface would have increased the tidal prism. However, the shallow marsh depth and native vegetation would have slowed the tidal wave progression. The combined effect on salinity intrusion depends on the location and depth of the marsh, the native vegetation distribution, and the dendritic channels that were removed from the tidally active system.

Figure A-2 shows the western, central, and southern portions of the Delta in 1869. For comparison, Figure A-3 shows the same area in 1992, with man-made channels highlighted grey.

A.2.3. Mining debris

Hydraulic mining in the Sierra Nevada began in the 1860's and produced large quantities of debris which traveled down the Sacramento River, through the Delta and into the Bay. Mining debris may have contributed to the extensive flooding reported in 1878 and 1881. Cappiella *et al.* (1999) estimate that, from 1867 to 1887, approximately 115 million cubic meters (Mm3) of sediment were deposited in Suisun Bay. This deposition was due to the inflow of hydraulic mining debris.

---

[1] The legal Delta is defined in California Water Code Section 12220.

Figure A-2 - Map of the Delta in 1869

Channels of the western, central, and southern Delta in 1869, prior to extensive reclamation efforts (Gibbes, 1869)

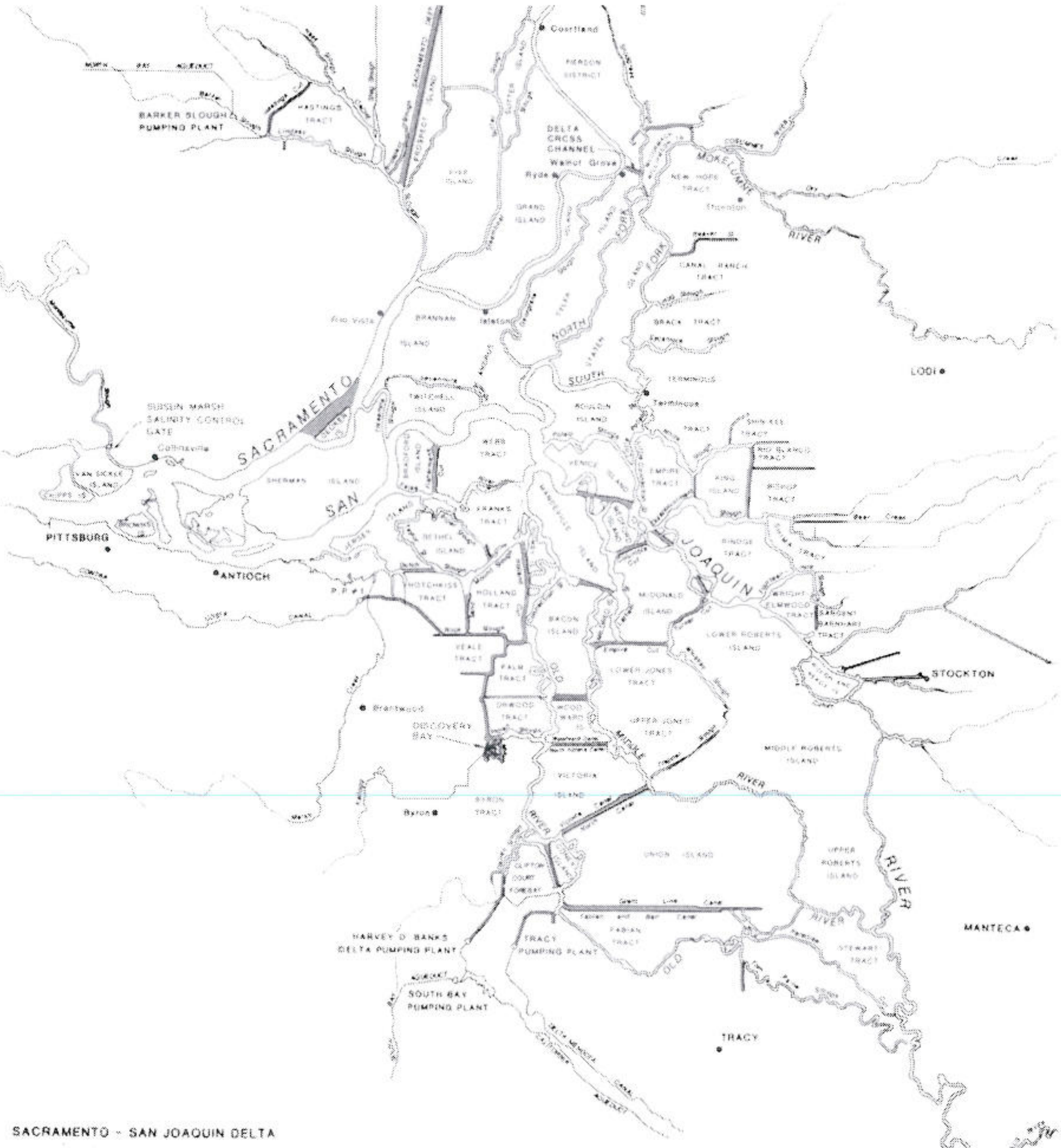


Figure A-3 – Map of the Delta in 1992

Channels of the western, central, and southern Delta from the Delta Atlas (DWR, 1992) Constructed waterways (highlighted in grey) generally create more efficient routes for tidal flows to enter the Delta, thereby increasing salinity intrusion relative to the native tidal marshes.

Cessation of hydraulic mining around 1884 resulted in erosion of Suisun Bay, which continues to erode even today. From 1887 to 1990, approximately 262 Mm3 of sediment were eroded from Suisun Bay. The net change in volume of sediment during 1867-1887 was 68 Mm3 (net deposition) and during 1887-1990 was -175 Mm3 (net erosion). As a result of these changes, the tidal flat of Suisun Bay increased from about 41 km^2 in 1867 to 52 km^2 in 1887, but decreased to 12 km^2 by 1990 (due to erosion subsequent to the cessation of hydraulic mining). Cappiella *et al.* (1999) attributed the change in the Suisun Bay area from being a largely depositional environment to an erosional environment not only to the hydraulic mining practices of the late 1800's but also to increased upstream water management practices. The Suisun Marsh Branch of the DWR estimated that erosion of Suisun Bay (modeled as a uniform change in depth of 0.75 meters) has increased salinity in Suisun Bay and the western Delta by as much as 20% (Enright, 2004; Enright and Culberson, 2009).

A.3. Water Management Practices

Extensive local, state, and federal projects have been built to move water around the state, altering the natural flow patterns throughout the Delta and in upstream watersheds. For clarity in the discussion that follows, definitions and discussions of actual flow and salinity, unimpaired flow and salinity, and natural flow and salinity, are given below.

Historical (actual) flow and salinity
Historical (or actual) flow and salinity refer to the flow and electrical conductivity, total dissolved solids concentration, or chloride concentration that occurred in the estuary. Historical conditions have been observed, measured, or estimated at various times and locations; they are now measured at monitoring stations throughout the estuary. Historical data are also used to estimate flow and water quality conditions at other locations with the following tools: the DAYFLOW program from IEP, the DSM2 model from the California Department of Water Resources, the X2[2] equation (Kimmerer and Monismith, 1992) and Contra Costa Water District's salinity outflow model (also referred to as the G-model) (Denton, 1993; Denton and Sullivan, 1993). The use of these tools to estimate flow and water quality is necessarily dependent upon the Delta configuration to which they were calibrated. Use of these tools in hypothetical configurations (such as pre-levee conditions, flooding of islands, etc) is subject to un-quantified error.

Unimpaired flow and salinity
Unimpaired flows are hypothetical flows that would have occurred in the absence of upstream diversions and storage, but with the existing Delta and tributary configuration. Unimpaired flows are estimated by the California Department of Water Resources (DWR) for the 24 basins of the Central Valley; the Delta is one of the 24 basins. Additionally, DWR estimates unimpaired in-Delta use and unimpaired net Delta outflow (NDO). Unimpaired NDO estimates can be used to estimate unimpaired water quality using a salinity-outflow relationship such as the X2 or G-model tools discussed above.

[2] X2 is defined as the distance from the Golden Gate to the 2 part-per-thousand isohaline (equivalent to a salinity of 2 grams of salt per kilogram of water), measured along the axis of the San Francisco Estuary. X2 is often used as an indicator of freshwater availability and fish habitat conditions in the Delta (Jassby *et al.*, 1995; Monismith, 1998).

Since unimpaired flows assume the existing Delta configuration, the use of these tools should not violate their basic assumptions. However, the results should be taken in context. Water quality based on unimpaired flows compared to water quality based on historical (actual) flows shows how water management activities affect water quality. Water quality based on unimpaired flows cannot be considered natural.

Natural flow and salinity

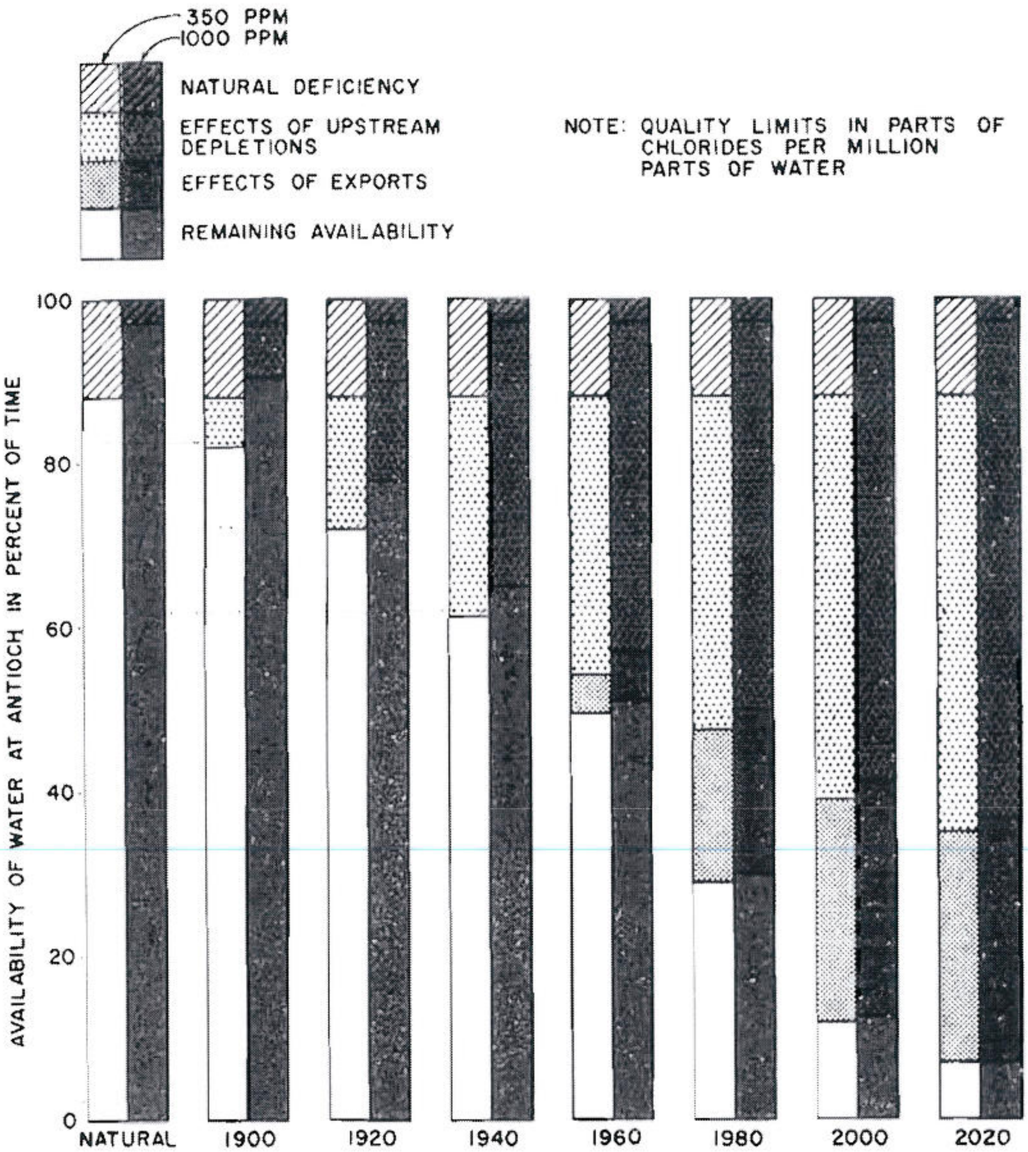
Natural flow and salinity reflect pre-European settlement conditions, with a virgin landscape in both the Central Valley and the Delta, native vegetation, and no diversions or constructed storage. As discussed above, the natural landscape included natural storage on the floodplains and extensive Delta marsh. Estimation of natural flow requires assumptions regarding the pre-European landscape and vegetation throughout the Central Valley. Estimation of natural salinity requires development of new models to account for pre-European Delta geometry, incorporating the estimates of natural flow. These assumptions induce an unknown level of error. For this reason, no attempt is made in this report to calculate natural flow or the resulting salinity. Instead, paleosalinity studies are examined to provide evidence of salinity in the pre-European era.

Water management practices have continually evolved since the mid-1850's. As discussed in Section 1.1, anthropogenic modification include diversion of water upstream and within the Delta, construction of reservoirs, and system operations to meet regulatory requirements.

The irrigated acreage in the Central Valley has been steadily increasing since 1880 (Figure 1-3), increasing the upstream diversions of water. There were two periods of rapid growth in irrigated acreage: from 1880 to 1920 and from 1940 to 1980. In-Delta diversions (Figure 1-3) began in 1869 with reclamation of Sherman Island; from 1869 to 1930, in-Delta diversions are assumed to have grown in proportion to the area of reclaimed marshland (from Atwater *et al.*, 1979).

Upstream diversions first became an issue with respect to Delta salinity around 1916 with the rapid growth of the rice cultivation industry (Antioch Case, Town of Antioch v. Williams Irrigation District, 1922, 188 Cal. 451; see Appendix E.2). These early "pre-project" diversions for irrigation had particularly large impacts because of the seasonality of water availability and water use. Diversions for agriculture typically start in the spring and continue through the early fall (when river flow is already low). These early irrigation practices, combined with the decrease in spring and summer flow due to the separation of rivers from their natural floodplains, resulted in a significant reduction of the spring and summer river flow, leading to increased salinity intrusion.

Figure A-4 shows the Department of Water Resources' estimates of the effects of upstream diversions and south-of-Delta exports on the salinity in the San Joaquin River at Antioch (DWR, 1960). DWR's 1960 report indicated that water with less than 350 mg/L chlorides would be present at Antioch approximately 88% of the time on average "naturally," and that availability decreased to approximately 62% by 1940 due to upstream diversions. This illustrates that upstream depletions had a significant effect on salinity at Antioch during 1900-1940, prior to the construction of large upstream reservoirs. (For reference, Shasta Dam was completed in 1945.)



DELTA WATER QUALITY WITHOUT SALINITY CONTROL

Figure A-4 - Salinity on the San Joaquin River at Antioch (DWR, 1960)

The Department of Water Resources examined the effects of upstream depletions and south-of-Delta exports on salinity in the San Joaquin River at Antioch, estimating the percent of time water that a certain quality of water (with less than 350 mg/L chlorides; or less than 1,000 mg/L chlorides) would be available in the river without reservoir releases to provide salinity control. The estimates for 1960, 1980, 2000, and 2020 assume the reservoirs do not make releases for salinity control and therefore underestimate the actual quality of water during these years.

Figure A-4 also shows estimates of the availability of water in 1960, 1980, 2000, and 2020, without reservoir releases to provide salinity control, demonstrating that upstream depletions and in-Delta exports would have continued to degrade water quality at Antioch.

Exports from the south Delta started in 1951 with the completion of the federal Central Valley Project pumping facility near Tracy, California. Exports from the State Water Project Banks Pumping Plant, just to the west of the federal facility, began in 1967. As shown in Figure 1-3, south-of-Delta exports increased rapidly from 1951 through the mid-1970s, and since then the combined exports have averaged more than 4 million acre-feet per year.

Construction of upstream reservoirs also altered natural patterns of flow into the Delta. Figure A-5 and Figure A-6 show the extent and rapid rise of constructed reservoirs in the upstream watersheds of the Delta (DWR, 1993). The location, year of completion and approximate storage capacities (in acre-feet, AF) are shown in Figure A-5. Figure A-6 shows the temporal development of reservoir capacity. Reservoir construction began in 1850. The major reservoirs of the Central Valley Project (CVP) and State Water Project (SWP) are the Shasta (4.5 MAF capacity) and Oroville (3.5 MAF) reservoirs, respectively. These reservoirs capture the flow in the wet season (reducing the flow into the Delta in the wet season) and release water for irrigation and diversions.

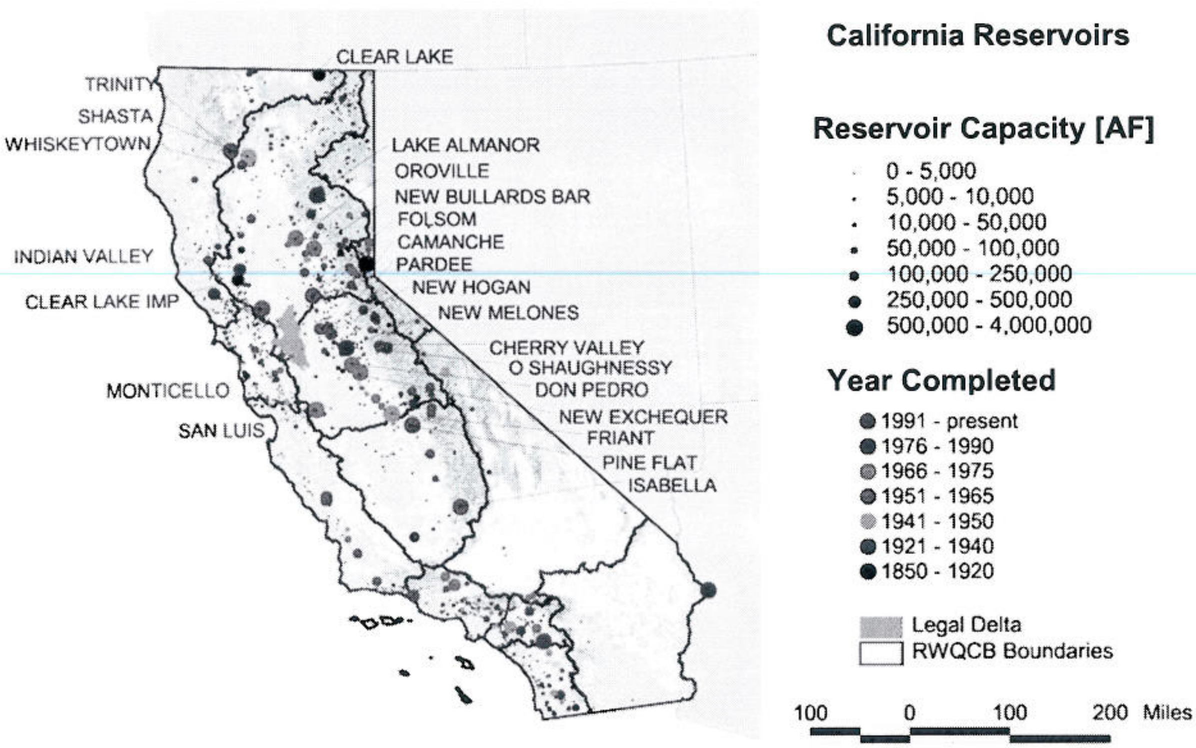


Figure A-5 – Storage reservoirs in California

Location of storage reservoirs within California. Reservoir capacity is indicated by the size of the circle, while the year construction was completed is indicated by color.

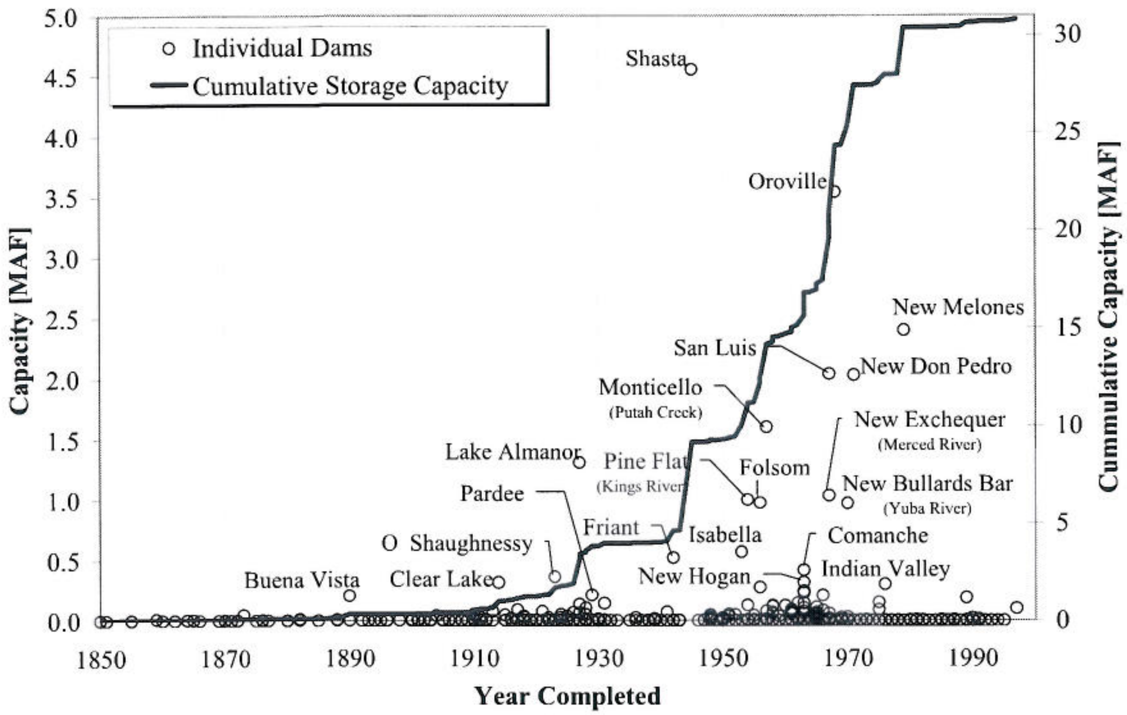


Figure A-6 – Surface Reservoir Capacity

Timeline of reservoir development in California. Individual reservoir capacity is indicated by the blue circles (left axis), while the cumulative capacity is indicated with the red line (right axis).

Water management practices have been altered by regulations that require maintenance of specified flow and salinity conditions at locations in the Bay-Delta region during certain periods of the year. The 1978 Water Quality Control Plan and State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) Decision 1485 established water quality standards to manage salinity to protect Delta agriculture and municipal and industrial (M&I) uses. The listing of delta smelt as a threatened species under the Endangered Species Act in 1993, followed by the Bay-Delta Accord in 1994 and the adoption of a new water quality control plan by the State Water Resources Control Board in 1995 changed the amount and timing of reservoir releases and south-of-Delta exports. California's Rice Straw Burning Act was enacted in 1992 to reduce air pollution by phasing out the burning of rice field stubble; by 1999, Sacramento Basin rice farmers were diverting additional water to flood harvested fields to decompose the stubble.

Changes in water diversions and reservoir operations have altered the magnitude and timing of river flows to the Delta, and anthropogenic modifications to the Delta landscape have altered the interaction of fresh water from the rivers with salt water from the ocean, thus changing patterns of salinity intrusion into the Delta.

Appendix B. Paleoclimatic Records of Hydrology and Salinity

This section presents paleoclimate records of hydrology (precipitation and unimpaired runoff) and salinity in the Bay-Delta region, in addition to those presented in Section 2 of the main report.

B.1. Methods of Paleoclimatic Reconstruction

The field of paleoclimatology aims to deduce climatological information from natural "archives" in order to reconstruct past global climate. These archives are created by such Earth processes as the formation of ice sheets, sediments, rocks, and forests. Examples of information sampled from such archives include atmospheric temperatures from ice cores and precipitation cycles from tree rings. When samples are dated, through radiometric or other methods, the data preserved therein become proxy indices, establishing a timeline of major events in the local environment of the sample. Multiple samples collected over larger spatial scales can be cross-dated to create regional climate and landscape process chronologies.

The material sampled for paleoclimatic reconstructions has limitations that decrease the resolution and confidence of data going back in time. Although paleoclimatic reconstructions have a coarser temporal resolution than modern measurements, the variations in climate and landscape responses to change are reliably described "in the first person" because the evidence of localized climate change is preserved as a time series *in situ*, absent of human influence.

The San Francisco Bay-Delta has been the focus of several paleoclimatic reconstructions. Surveys have sampled from Browns Island (Goman and Wells, 2000; May, 1999; Malamud-Roam and Ingram, 2004), Roe Island (May, 1999; Malamud-Roam and Ingram, 2004) Rush Ranch (Starratt, 2001; Byrne *et al.*, 2001; Starratt, 2004), and China Camp and Benicia State Parks (Malamud-Roam and Ingram, 2004).

Sediment cores are the predominate archive used to reconstruct Bay-Delta climate. Changes in wetland plant and algae communities are the dominant response in the Bay-Delta to climate change and associated fluctuations in temperature and precipitation. Proxies of plant and algae response to environmental conditions are preserved in the sediment cores and determined by quantification and taxonomic identification of diatom frustules (Byrne *et al.*, 2001; Starratt, 2001; Starratt, 2004), plant seeds and roots (Goman and Wells, 2000) and plant pollen (May, 1999; Byrne *et al.*, 2001; Malamud-Roam and Ingram, 2004) and measurement of peat carbon isotope ratios (Byrne *et al.*, 2001; Malamud-Roam and Ingram, 2004).

Plant communities in the Delta are characterized by salt tolerance. Salt-tolerant plant communities are dominated by pickleweed (*Salicornia* spp.) while freshwater plant assemblages are dominated by tule (*Scirpus* spp.) and cattail (*Typha* spp.) (Atwater *et al.*, 1979). Plants contribute pollen, seeds, and vegetative tissue in the form of peat to the sediment archive. Plant material deposited to surface sediments are significantly correlated to the surrounding standing vegetation, and thus plant material preserved in sediment cores are considered autochthonous to the type of wetland existent at the time of sediment deposition, allowing reconstruction of the salinity conditions in the Delta over time.

Diatom taxa are classified according to their salinity preference expressed as the Diatom Salinity Index (DSI) (Eq 1) (Starratt, 2004). Starratt (2001) classified salinity preference as freshwater (F; 0-2‰), freshwater and brackish water (FB; 0-30‰), brackish (B; 2-30‰), brackish and marine (BM; 2-35‰), and marine (M; 30-35‰). Samples dominated by marine taxa have a DSI range of 0.00 to 0.30.

$$DSI = \frac{F + FB + 0.5B}{F + FB + B + BM + M} \tag{1}$$

Carbon-isotope ratios ($^{13}C/^{12}C$) (Eq 2) are measured by spectrometry and the δ notation calculated as

$$\delta^{13}C = \left[\left(\frac{{}^{13}C/{}^{12}C_{sample}}{{}^{13}C/{}^{12}C_{std}} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 \tag{2}$$

The $\delta^{13}C$ value of peat samples is a proxy for the composition of the plant assemblages contributing vegetation to the formation of the peat. Plants utilizing the C_4 mechanism have higher $\delta^{13}C$ values (~-14‰) than those utilizing the C_3 or CAM (~-27‰) (Table B-1). Using the $\delta^{13}C$ proxy can detect the presence of upland bunchgrasses such as *Spartina* and *Distichlis*.

Pollen can be classified to the taxonomic family level. *Chenopodiaceae (*now *Salicornioideae*) is representative of salt-tolerant *Salicornia*. *Cyperaceae* is representative of freshwater species including *Scirpus*. The ratio of *Chenopodiaceae* to the sum of *Chenopodiaceae* and *Cyperaceae* (Eq. 3) is a proxy of the percent relative abundance of salt-tolerant species (May, 1999).

$$\%ST = \frac{Chenopodiaceae}{Chenopodiaceae + Cyperaceae} \tag{3}$$

To establish chronologies for sediment archives, dates must be established for when material was deposited through the length of the sediment cores. Radiocarbon dating by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) determines age by counting the ^{14}C content of plant seeds or carbonate shells calibrated against a northern hemisphere atmospheric carbon calibration curve (Malamud-Roam *et al.*, 2006). Radiocarbon dating is valid to about 40,000 years before present (BP)[3], making it an ideal method for establishing dates through the period of interest for the Bay and Delta. When archived proxies are correlated with the sediment core chronology, a timeline is established reconstructing past climate and landscape response.

Table B-1 – Carbon Isotope Ratios ($\delta^{13}C$) of Plant Species in the San Francisco Estuary
(adapted from Byrne et al. 2001)

Species	Common Name	Photosynthetic Pathway	δ13C (‰)
Distichlis spicata	Saltgrass	C4	-13.5
Spartina foliosa	California cordgrass	C4	-12.7
Cuscuta salina	Salt-marsh dodder	C3	-29.8
Frankenia grandifolia	Alkali heath	C3	-30.2
Grindelia stricta	Gumplant	C3	-26.4
Jaumea carnosa	Marsh jaumea	C3	-27.2
Juncus balticus	Baltic rush	C3	-28.4
Lepidium latifolium	Perennial pepperweed	C3	-26.6
Scirpus californicus	California bulrush	C3	-27.5
Scirpus maritimus	Alkali bulrush	C3	-25.5
Typha latifolia	Cattail	C3	-27.8
Salicornia virginica	Pickleweed	CAM	-27.2

A large number of paleoclimatic reconstructions exist for California and the western U.S., but a complete discussion is beyond the scope of this report. These reconstructions are reviewed by Malamud-Roam *et al.* (2006; 2007) and provide important context to events in the Bay and Delta by recording major non-localized events and larger regional climate shifts. Important examples include: Central Valley oaks, Sierra Nevada giant sequoias, and White Mountain Bristlecone pines used to establish precipitation and temperature from the location of the tree line and tree rings; Mono Lake sediments and submerged tree stump rings for precipitation; and Sacramento and San Joaquin River floodplain deposits for flood events. These studies establish a record of environmental conditions in the Bay and Delta from their formation to the present.

B.2. Major Regional Climatic Events

Formation of the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta

The Holocene epoch began approximately 8000 BCE at the end of Pleistocene glaciations (Malamud-Roam *et al.*, 2007). In the early Holocene, a general warming and drying period in California accompanied high orbitally driven insolation until insolation reached current values at approximately 6000 BCE. In the Sierra Nevada, western slopes were in the early stages of ecological succession following the retreat of glaciers. The modern river floodplain systems were forming in the Central Valley. Parts of the Delta and Bay were river valleys

[3] Before Present (BP) is a time scale, with the year 1950 as the origin, used in many scientific disciplines. Thus, 100 BP refers to the calendar year 1850.

prior to approximately 8000 to 6000 BCE, when rapidly rising sea level entered the Golden Gate and formed the early Bay estuary (Atwater *et al.*, 1979). A fringe of tidal marshes retreated from a spreading Bay until approximately 4000 BCE when the rate of submergence slowed to 1 to 2 cm per year, allowing the formation of extensive Delta marshes over the next 2000 years (Atwater *et al.*, 1979). Sedimentation from upstream sources kept up with subsidence from increasing sea-level rise.

2000 – 1 BCE

After 2000 BCE, information from archives indicates climate in the Bay and Delta was cooler with greater freshwater inflows. The Sierra Nevada became more moist and cooler during a period ca. 4000-3500 BP (Malamud-Roam *et al.*, 2006).

1 BCE - Present

The cooler and wetter period ended approximately 1 BCE, replaced by more arid conditions (Malamud-Roam, 2007). Major climatic events, known from other parts of the world, are captured in the regional paleoclimatic reconstructions and help to calibrate or correlate these reconstructions to global events. Unusually dry conditions prevailed during the Medieval Warm Period (approximately 800-1300 CE). Wetter and cooler conditions existed during the Little Ice Age (approximately 1400-1700 CE). These climate variations are reflected in variations in the plant communities.

Droughts

Two extreme droughts occurred in the region from about 900 to 1150 CE and from 1200 to 1350 CE. Low freshwater inflows to the Delta occurred during periods 1230-1150, 1400-1300, 2700-2600, and 3700-3450 B.P.

Flood Events

Periods of increase moisture occurred from 800-730 BP and 650-300 BP. Massive flooding inundated the Central Valley in the winter of 1861 (Malamud-Roam *et al.*, 2006). High periods of inflow occurred during 1180-1100, 2400-2200, 3400-3100, and 5100-3800 BP.

Sampling for paleoclimatic reconstructions captures the modern era, enabling a comparison of current conditions with conditions over the past several thousand years. The erratic nature of precipitation in California observed over the past century have been normal and small compared to natural variations over the past millennia.

Reconstructed River Flow and Precipitation Records

Meko *et al.* (2001a) used tree-ring chronologies in statistical regression models to reconstruct time series of annual unimpaired Sacramento River flow for approximately the past 1,100 years (see Section 2.1). Similarly, Graumlich (1987) used tree ring data from the Pacific Northwest to reconstruct precipitation records for the period of 1675-1975 (Figure B-1). Compared to the average observed precipitation from 1899 to 1975, the reconstructed record has above-average precipitation during the latter half of the nineteenth century (1850-1900) (Figure B-1). These relatively wet conditions during the late 1800's and the severe dry conditions from the 1920's trough the 1930's in the reconstructed precipitation record are consistent with the annual unimpaired Sacramento River flow reconstruction from Meko *et al.* (2001) presented in Section 2.1.

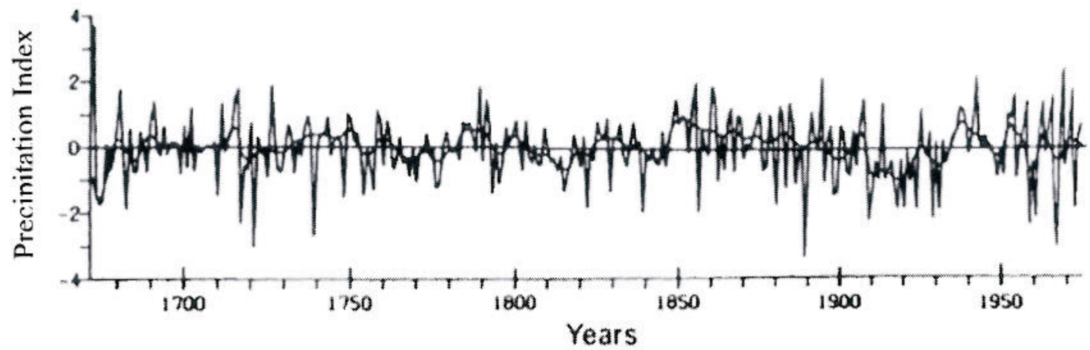


Figure B-1 – Reconstructed annual precipitation, 1675-1975

Data from Graumlich (1987). Precipitation index is presented in units of standard deviation from the 1899-1975 observed mean value.

Estimates of annual precipitation (Graumlich, 1987) and unimpaired runoff (Meko *et al.*, 2001a) from tree ring analysis are used in this study to provide hydrological context, indicating the relative hydrology (e.g. wet or dry) of a specific year and surrounding decade. The reconstructed hydrological data are not used to estimate salinity intrusion for two reasons. First, the seasonal distribution of hydrology is critical in determining salinity variability; two years with the same total annual flow could have significantly different salinity intrusion due to the timing of the flow (Knowles, 2000). Second, since 1850, anthropogenic modifications to the landscape and river flows alter the hydrodynamic response to freshwater flow, somewhat decoupling the unimpaired hydrology from the downstream response (i.e. salinity intrusion).

Malamud-Roam *et al.* (2005) and Goman *et al.* (2008) review paleoclimate as it relates to San Francisco Bay. Generally, they found that paleoclimatic studies showed that a wetter (and fresher) period existed from about 4000 BP to about 2000 BP. In the past 2,000 years, the climate has been cooling and becoming drier, with several extreme periods, including decades-long periods of very wet conditions and century-long periods of drought. As discussed in the next section, the century-long periods of drought are found in paleosalinity records in Suisun Bay and Rush Ranch in Suisun Marsh, but are much less evident in Browns Island, indicating a predominately freshwater marsh throughout the Delta. Citing Meko *et al.* (2001), they note that only one period had a six-year drought more severe than the 1928-1934 period: a seven-year drought ending in 984 CE. They also not the most extreme dry year was in 1580 CE, and state that it was almost certainly drier than 1977. On the whole, however, the last 600 years have been a generally wet period. This is reflected in the salinity records discussed in the next section.

B.3. *Reconstructed Salinity in the Bay-Delta*

Starratt (2001) reconstructed historical salinity variability at Rush Ranch, in the northwestern Suisun Marsh, over the last 3,000 years by examining diatoms from sediment cores. The taxa were classified according to their salinity preference: freshwater (< 2‰), freshwater and brackish water (0‰ to 30‰), brackish (2‰ to 30‰), brackish and marine (2‰ to > 30‰), and marine (> 30‰). Based on the composition of the diatom assemblages, Starrat identified centennial-scale salinity cycles (Table B-2).

Table B-2 – Salinity Intervals over the last 3,000 years at Rush Ranch
Salinity intervals determined from the diatom populations in a sediment core in northwestern Suisun Marsh.

Approximate Years	*Type of Interval* [a]
1850 CE – present	[not classified]
1250 CE – 1850 CE	fresh
250 CE – 1250 CE	brackish
500 BCE – 250 CE	fresh
1000 BCE – 500 BCE	brackish

[a] Classification according to Starratt (2001)

These results correspond well to other paleoclimatic reconstructions. The most recent broad-scale freshwater interval roughly corresponds to the Little Ice Age, and the most recent brackish interval corresponds to the Medieval Warm Period.

Starratt notes that the post-1850 interval indicates an increase in the percentage of diatoms that prefer brackish and marine salinities compared to the last freshwater interval, indicating an increase in salinity during the last 150 years, in comparison to the previous 600 years. During the post-1850 period, diatoms that prefer "marine" environments constitute as much as 50% of the total diatom population, a percentage that is at or above that of any other period. During the most recent years, "freshwater" assemblages constitute about 20% of the total population, a percentage that is only about 10% higher than the most recent *brackish* interval from 250 to 1250 CE.

Malamud-Roam *et al.* (2006) compared reconstructed salinity records for the past three thousand years from four locations (three tidal marsh locations and one location in the Bay) in the Bay-Delta region (Figure B-2(a)). Figure B-2(b) shows several periods with higher than average salinity (e.g., 1600-1300 and 1000-800 BP and 1900 CE to present) and several periods with lower than average salinity (e.g., 1300 to 1200 BP and 150 to 100 BP). These paleosalinity records are consistent with each other and with the paleoclimatic records of river flow and salinity presented in Section 2.

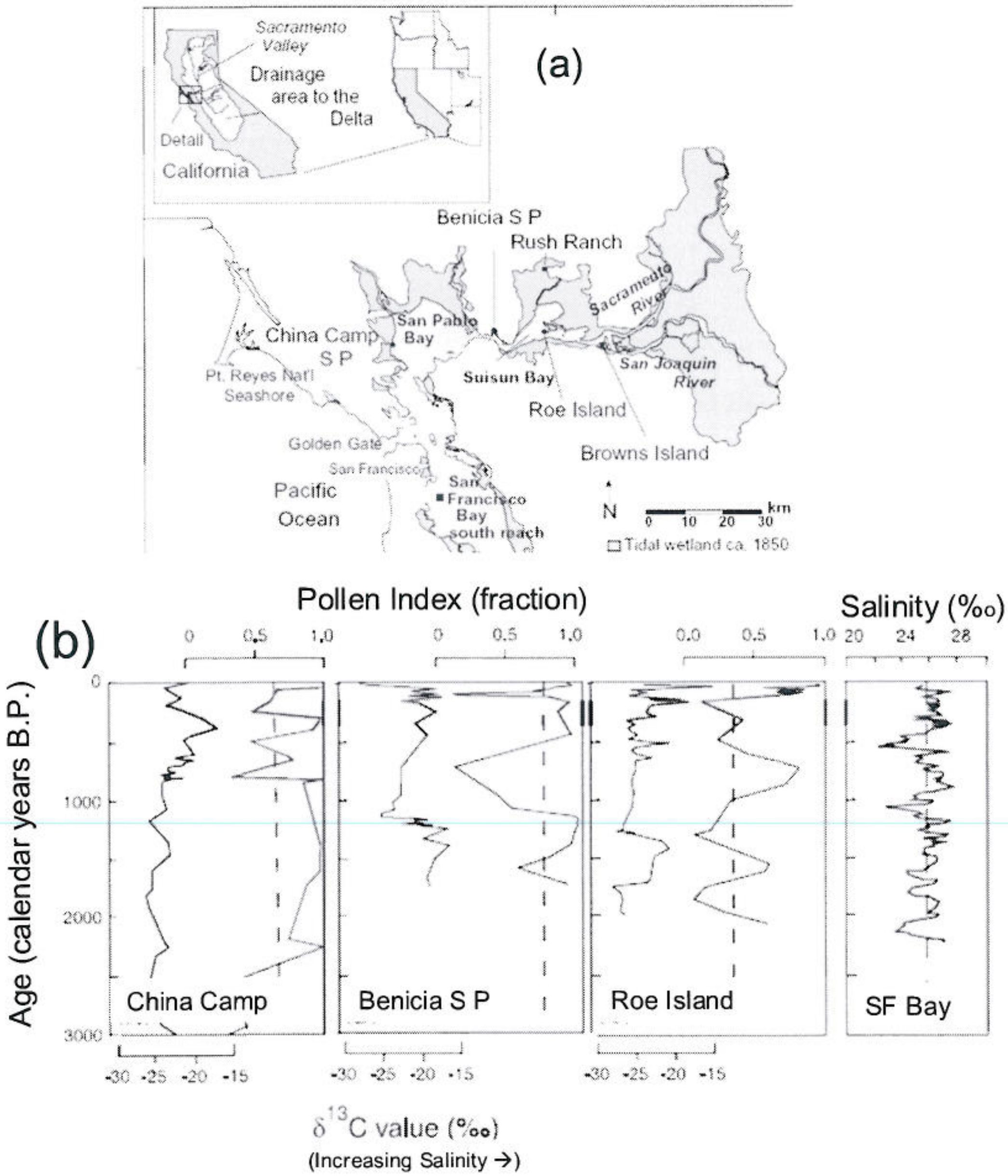


Figure B-2 – Paleosalinity records at selected sites in the San Francisco Estuary

(a) location of the three tidal marsh sites (China Camp, Benicia State Park and Roe Island) and one site in the Estuary (Oyster Point in San Francisco Bay) where sediment cores were obtained.
(b) time series for the pollen index (ranging from 0 to 1, higher values corresponding to higher salinity) and the δ13C values at the tidal marsh sites; salinity at Oyster Point, San Francisco Bay (inferred from δ13O values) is also shown. The broken line shows the estimated mean pollen index prior to European disturbance. (modified from Malamud-Roam and Ingram (2004) and Malamud-Roam et al. (2006))

Appendix C. Quantitative Hydrological Observations

Long-term records of river runoff are useful in understanding hydroclimatic variations. Section 3.1 discusses the long-term variations of the unimpaired Sacramento River runoff and unimpaired San Joaquin River runoff. The estimates of these variables from early 1900's to the present are available on the internet . Estimates prior to the early 1900's (late 1800's to early 1900's) were obtained from a 1923 California Department of Public Works report (DPW, 1923). Table C-1 through Table C-4 present estimates of Sacramento River runoff and San Joaquin River runoff for the period of 1872-2008, obtained from DPW (1923) and http://cdec.water.ca.gov/cgi-progs/iodir/WSIHIST.

The unimpaired Sacramento River runoff is the sum of the flows from the Sacramento River at Bend Bridge, Feather River inflow to Lake Oroville, Yuba River at Smartville, and the American River inflow to Folsom Lake. The unimpaired San Joaquin River runoff is the sum of the flows from the Stanislaus River inflow to New Melones Lake, Tuolumne River inflow to New Don Pedro Reservoir, Merced River inflow to Lake McClure, and San Joaquin River inflow to Millerton Lake.

Table C-1 – Annual unimpaired Sacramento River runoff for 1872-1905
Data source: DPW (1923

Water Year	Sacramento River @ Bend Bridge	Feather River @ Lake Oroville	Yuba River @ Smartville	American River @ Folsom Lake	Sacramento River Runoff
	Acre-feet (AF)				Million acre-feet (MAF)
1872	10,200,000	7,254,000	4,352,000	4,215,600	**26.0**
1873	4,780,000	3,347,000	1,638,400	1,862,200	**11.6**
1874	7,300,000	5,571,000	3,340,800	3,079,800	**19.3**
1875	4,390,000	2,747,000	1,561,600	1,391,600	**10.1**
1876	14,500,000	6,867,000	3,594,000	4,450,900	**29.4**
1877	9,870,000	2,437,000	1,292,800	1,289,200	**14.9**
1878	17,800,000	4,836,000	2,528,000	2,721,700	**27.9**
1879	8,380,000	5,513,000	2,796,800	3,304,900	**20.0**
1880	12,300,000	7,061,000	3,641,600	4,502,100	**27.5**
1881	15,400,000	5,610,000	3,104,000	3,540,300	**27.7**
1882	8,000,000	4,797,000	2,150,400	3,264,000	**18.2**
1883	6,670,000	3,714,000	1,804,800	2,169,200	**14.4**
1884	11,400,000	6,190,000	3,104,000	4,103,000	**24.8**
1885	6,460,000	3,482,000	2,304,000	1,780,400	**14.0**
1886	14,400,000	6,384,000	3,174,400	3,918,900	**27.9**
1887	6,670,000	2,611,000	1,561,600	1,862,200	**12.7**
1888	5,430,000	2,669,000	998,400	1,575,700	**10.7**
1889	10,600,000	5,126,000	1,612,800	1,903,200	**19.2**
1890	22,700,000	12,090,000	6,176,000	7,725,200	**48.7**

Water Year	Sacramento River @ Bend Bridge	Feather River @ Lake Oroville	Yuba River @ Smartville	American River @ Folsom Lake	Sacramento River Runoff
1891	6,460,000	3,482,000	1,747,200	1,944,100	**13.6**
1892	7,250,000	5,416,000	1,945,600	2,568,200	**17.2**
1893	12,400,000	7,177,000	3,488,000	4,399,800	**27.5**
1894	8,640,000	4,410,000	2,432,000	3,304,900	**18.8**
1895	12,300,000	7,177,000	4,160,000	4,737,400	**28.4**
1896	11,343,200	7,738,000	3,641,600	3,857,500	**26.6**
1897	10,391,400	5,610,000	3,040,000	3,632,400	**22.7**
1898	5,135,800	2,805,000	1,184,000	1,186,900	**10.3**
1899	5,977,400	3,288,000	1,984,000	2,362,600	**13.6**
1900	8,712,500	6,500,000	2,956,800	3,683,500	**21.9**
1901	9,020,900	6,229,000	2,854,400	3,714,200	**21.8**
1902	11,380,600	4,468,000	2,432,000	3,079,800	**21.4**
1903	9,941,800	4,483,500	2,368,000	3,038,900	**19.8**
1904	16,095,800	9,377,000	4,101,800	5,249,000	**34.8**
1905	10,775,200	4,529,200	2,403,500	2,050,000	**19.8**