Reclamation estimates that from May through August 15 a change in the water year classification from Dry to Critical in the Western Delta and Interior Delta locations in Table 2 could result in a gain of about 115,000 af, in upstream reservoir carryover storage at the end of September. Including the Delta outflow compliance in Table 3 for the same period would increase the gain in reservoir carryover storage to about 185,000 af. There could be reductions in the release from Keswick Reservoir up to about 1,000 cubic feet second in late May and June under a Critical year classification.

D-1641 requires that the number of days less than or equal to 150 mg/l chloride at Contra Costa Pumping Plant be greater than 165 days for a Dry year and 155 days for a Critical year. DWR and Reclamation do not anticipate that this objective would be a controlling criteria for the Projects under either year classification and both objectives would be met. The minimum Net Delta Outflow required from February through June (Collinsville X2 at 7,100 cfs) should be adequate to achieve the Contra Costa objective under either the Dry or Critical classification.

SWRCB recognition of the change in water year type is in the public interest. The change will provide for a water year classification reflective of the extremely dry hydrologic conditions in 2013 and allow the projects to operate in a manner that will provide the maximum benefit to critical beneficial users without unreasonably affecting other designated beneficial uses. As noted above there will be no significant impacts to agricultural or municipal uses, and the change will provide significant benefit to fisheries resources. State and federal agencies have been focused on the protection and improvement of fishery conditions in the Delta watershed, and are in the process of analyzing options for balancing project operations for the numerous different beneficial uses. Approval of the following request would result in water quality conditions in the North Delta that are consistent with the hydrology we are currently experiencing, while preserving cold water storage critical to salmon survival.

Requested Action:
Reclamation and DWR request that the SWRCB recognize the change in year classification need and act immediately. Delaying such recognition to even June 1 will significantly impair Reclamation's ability to meet cold water temperature objectives on the Sacramento River. At present, the controlling D-1641 Delta water quality objectives for the Projects that are linked to the Sacramento Valley Index are Jersey Point in Table 2, Emmaton in Table 2. In addition, Delta Outflow in Table 3, may become a controlling standard and will also impact cold water pool storage starting in the middle of June.

We believe the SWRCB may balance protection of the beneficial uses in light of the critical water year type experienced on the Sacramento River in 2013. Immediate benefits to cold water pool storage can be achieved through the Projects meeting critical water year standards for the Interior and Western Delta salinity standards in Table 2. The compliance points at issue are Sacramento River at Emmaton (Interagency Station Number D-22), San Joaquin River at Jersey
Subject: SWRCB Water Right Decision 1641 Water Year Classification

Point (Interagency Station Number D-15), South Fork Mokelumne River at Terminous (Interagency Station Number C-13), and San Joaquin River at San Andreas Landing (Interagency Station Number C-4).

Additional cold water pool benefits can be achieved in July through September with recognition of the critical water year type in Table 3, Water Quality Objectives for Fish and Wildlife Beneficial Uses. As noted above; Delta outflow objectives will likely control project operations in July through September, where agricultural objectives are met under a critical water year designation. A Delta outflow standard reflective of the critical water year type may produce an additional 70,000 af of cold water pool storage.

If you have any questions or would like more information regarding this notification, please contact Mr. Paul Fujitani of Reclamation at 916-979-2197 or Mr. John Leahig at 916-574-2722.

Sincerely,

Ronald Milligan, Operations Manager
Central Valley Operations Office
U.S. Bureau of Reclamation

David H. Roose, Chief
SWP Operations Control Office
Department of Water Resources

Attachment - 4

cc: Mr. Craig M. Wilson, Delta Watermaster
State Water Resources Control Board
1001 I Street
Sacramento, California  95812

Ms. Maria Rae
Central Valley Office Supervisor
National Marine Fisheries Service
650 Capitol Mall, Suite 5-100
Sacramento, California  95814

Mr. Les Grober
State Water Resources Control Board
Division of Water Rights
1001 I Street
Sacramento, California  95812
(w/encl to each)
Historic trends are utilized to project Sac Valley floor hydrologic conditions.

With record dryness and 2013 land development conditions, Sacramento Valley depletion rates will likely be a significant uncertainty for the remainder of the summer of 2013.
Drought Severity Index by Division
Weekly Value for Period Ending MAY 18, 2013
Long Term Palmer
U.S. Seasonal Drought Outlook
Drought Tendency During the Valid Period
Valid for May 16 - August 31, 2013
Released May 16, 2013

KEY:

- Drought to persist or intensify
- Drought ongoing, some improvement
- Drought likely to improve, impacts ease
- Drought development likely

Depicts large-scale trends based on subjectively derived probabilities guided by short- and long-range statistical and dynamical forecasts. Short-term events such as individual storms cannot be accurately forecast more than a few days in advance. Use caution for applications such as crops that can be affected by such events.

"Ongoing" drought areas are approximated from the Drought Monitor (D1 to D4 intensity). For weekly drought updates, see the latest U.S. Drought Monitor. NOTE: the green improvement areas imply at least a 1-category improvement in the Drought Monitor intensity levels, but do not necessarily imply drought elimination.
November 25, 2014

To: Barbara Vlavis  
Executive Director  
AquAlliance  
P.O. Box 4024  
Chico, CA 95927

From: Kit H. Custis  
CA PG 3942, CEG 1219, CHG 254  
P.O. Box 337  
Fair Oaks, CA 95628

RE: Comments and Recommendations on U.S. Bureau of Reclamation and San Luis & Delta-Mendota Water Authority Draft Long-Term Water Transfer DRAFT EIS/EIR, dated September 2014

This letter provides comments and recommendations on the information provided in the September 2014 Draft Long-Term Water Transfer Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report (Draft EIS/EIR) prepared by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (BoR) and San Luis & Delta-Mendota Water Authority (SLDWA). This document evaluates the potential impacts of alternatives over a 10-year period, 2015 through 2024, for transferring Central Valley Project (CVP) and non-CVP water from north of the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta (Delta) to CVP contractors south of the Delta. These transfers require the use of CVP and State Water Project (SWP) facilities. This Draft EIS/EIR evaluated impacts of alternatives for water transfers made available through groundwater substitution, cropland idling, crop shifting, reservoir release, and conservation.

This letter focuses mostly on the groundwater substitution element of the transfers for the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin and proves comments and recommendations regarding the potential impacts, technical information submitted, and monitoring and mitigation measures. Comments and recommendations are also provided regarding the biological resources, crop idling/crop shifting when those resources or activities impact or are impacted by the groundwater substitution transfers. This letter has two parts. The first part comments on the Draft Long-Term Water Transfer Draft EIS/EIR. The second part provides additional technical information on surface water–groundwater interactions that are relevant to the evaluation of potential impacts from the proposed water transfers, monitoring during the transfers and designing and implementing mitigation measures.

I. Comments and Recommendations on the Draft Long-Term Water Transfer DRAFT EIS/EIR

The Draft EIS/EIR evaluated a number of potential environmental impacts from the groundwater substitution transfers using a finite element groundwater model, SACFEM2013. The potential impacts evaluated include: groundwater levels; surface water flow; water quality; biological resources, including vegetation, wildlife and fisheries; and the associated cumulative effects and impacts. Two mitigation measures, WS-1 and GW-1, are provided for monitoring and
mitigating potential impacts from groundwater substitution transfers. I will provide comments and recommendations on these topics following seven comments and recommendations on general issues, assumptions and methods that are used throughout the Draft EIS/EIR.

General Comments

1. The Draft EIS/EIR has an underlying assumption that specific information on each proposed transfer will be evaluated in the future by the Bureau of Reclamation, the California Department of Water Resources (DWR), perhaps the California State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB), and local agencies, presumably the County, or other designated local agency (Sections 1.5, 3.1.4.1-WS-1 and 3.3.4.1-GW-1). The Draft EIS/EIR relies on the results of the SACFEM2013 groundwater modeling effort to validate the conclusion of less than significant and reasonable impacts that cause no injury from the groundwater substitution transfer pumping. This conclusion is reached based on model simulation results, and assumption of implementation of mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1. However, the Draft EIS/EIR provides only limited information on the wells to be used in the groundwater substitution transfers (see Table 3.3-3), and no information on non-participating wells that may be impacted. Information that is still needed to evaluate the potential impacts simulated by the groundwater modeling and the potential significance of the groundwater substitution transfer pumping includes, but isn’t limited to:

   a. proposed transfer wells locations that are sufficiently accurate to allow for determination of distances between the wells and areas of potential impact,
   b. the distances between the transfer wells and surface water features,
   c. the number of non-participating wells in the vicinity of the transfer wells that may be impacted by the pumping,
   d. the distance between the transfer wells and non-participant wells that may be impacted by the transfer pumping, including domestic, public water supply and agricultural wells,
   e. the number of non-participating wells in the vicinity of the transfer wells that can be expected to be pumped to provide public water supply or irrigation water during the same period as the transfer pumping,
   f. the amount of well interference anticipated at each of the non-participating domestic, public water supply and agricultural wells in the vicinity of transfer wells,
   g. the aquifers that the non-participating wells in the vicinity of the transfer wells are drawing groundwater from,
   h. groundwater level hydrographs near the non-participating and participating transfer wells, to document the pre-transfer trends and fluctuations in groundwater elevations in order to evaluate the current conditions and serve as a reference for monitoring impacts from transfer pumping,
   i. the identity and locations of wells that will be used to monitor groundwater substitution transfer pumping impacts, the aquifers these wells are monitoring, frequency for taking and reporting measurements, and the types and methods for monitoring and reporting,
   j. groundwater level decline thresholds at each monitoring well that require actions be taken to reduce or cease groundwater substitution transfer pumping to prevent impacts from excessive drawdown, including impacts to non-participating wells, surface water features, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife, other surface structures, and regional economics.

This list addresses only the minimum of information needed about the groundwater wells and does not address other elements of the groundwater substitution transfer, which I will discuss under separate sections, including the WS-1 and GW-1 mitigation measures, the SACFEM2013 groundwater modeling effort, and stream depletion impacts.
I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include the additional well information and monitoring requirements listed above. I recommend that mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1 be revised to provide specific requirements for monitoring, thresholds of significance, and actions to be taken when the thresholds are exceeded.

2. The only maps provided by the Draft EIS/EIR that show the location of the groundwater substitution transfer wells, and the rivers and streams potentially impacted are the simulated drawdown Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31, which are at a scale of approximately 1 inch to 18 miles on letter size paper. These figures show clusters of wells and several rivers, creeks and canals. A few are labeled, but apparently not all of the streams and creeks evaluated for groundwater substitution impacts are shown. Figures 3.7-1 and 3.8-2 show the major rivers and reservoirs evaluated in the biological analyses, and Tables 3.7-2, 3.7-3, and 3.8-3 list up to 34 small rivers or creeks that were apparently evaluated for stream depletion using the SACFEM2013 groundwater model. Without river/stream/creek labels on the drawdown figures at a scale that allows for reasonable measurement and review, it is difficult to determine the anticipated drawdown at the 34 small rivers and creeks or other important habitat areas. The Fisheries Section 3.7, and Vegetation and Wildlife Section 3.8 provide discussions of the potential impacts from groundwater substitution transfer induced stream depletion (Sections 3.7.2.1.1, 3.8.2.1.1 and 3.8.2.1.4). The Well Acceptance Criteria of Table B-1 in Appendix B of the October 2013 joint DWR and BoR document titled Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals (DTIPWTP) lists in the table footnotes eight major and three minor surface water features tributary to the Delta that are affected by groundwater pumping. Apparently, the Well Acceptance Criteria in Table B-1 will be applied to these eleven surface water features as part of mitigation measure GW-1. Whether the Well Acceptance Criteria will also be applied to the creeks listed in Tables 3.7-2, 3.7-3 and 3.8-2 is not specifically stated in the Draft EIS/EIR or GW-1.

The lack of maps with sufficient detail to see the relationship between the wells and the surface water features prevents adequate review of the Draft EIS/EIR analysis to determine whether mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1 will be effective at mitigating pumping impacts. As I will discuss in Part 2 of this letter, the distance between a surface water feature and a pumping well is a critical parameter in estimating the rate and duration of stream depletion. Maps are needed of each seller’s service area at a scale that allows for reasonably accurate measurement of distances between the groundwater substitution transfer wells and surface water features, other non-participating wells, proposed monitoring wells, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife areas, critical surface structures, and regional economic features.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide additional maps of each seller’s service area at a scale that allows for reasonably accurate measurement of distances between the groundwater substitution transfer wells and surface water features listed in Tables 3.7-2, 3.7-3, 3.8-3 and B-1 as well as other non-listed surface water dependent features such as wetlands and riparian areas, non-participating wells, the proposed monitoring wells, wildlife areas, critical surface structures, regional economic features, and other structures that might be impacted by groundwater substitution pumping.

3. The Draft EIS/EIR evaluated a number of potential environmental impacts from the groundwater substitution transfers using the finite element groundwater model SACFEM2013. The results of the modeling effort were used in the assessment of the
potential biological resource impacts from reductions in surface water flow caused by groundwater substitution transfer pumping (pages 3.7-18 to 3.7-30, and 3.8-49 to 3.8-67). The Draft EIS/EIR assumes that SACFEM2013 model results are sufficiently accurate to justify removing most of the small creeks from a detailed effects analysis (Table 3.7-3 and 3.8-3).

Statements are given that the mean monthly reduction in the Sacramento, Feather, Yuba and American rivers will be less than 10 percent (pages 3.7-25 and 3.8-49) and that other stream requirements of flow magnitude, timing, temperature, and water quality would continue to be met. However, actual SACFEM2013 model results on anticipated changes in flow, temperature and water quality are not provided for all of the surface water features that may be potentially impacted by the groundwater substitution transfer projects. Creeks that passed a preliminary screening, Tables 3.7-3 and 3.7-4, were selected to be modeled by water year type for stream depletion that exceeds 1 cubic feet per second (cfs) and 10% reduction in mean monthly flow. Results of the modeling effort are presented in Tables 3.8-4 to 3.8-7.

The Draft EIS/EIR notes that not all surface water features were evaluated because some lacked sufficient historical flow data, or they were too small to model (page 3.7-20). The Draft EIS/EIR then assumes that the pumping impacts to un-modeled small surface water features are similar to nearby modeled features. No maps with sufficient detail are provided to allow for determination of the spatial relationship between the modeled and un-modeled surface water features, or the relationship between the groundwater substitution transfer wells and the modeled and un-modeled surface water features (see comment no. 2). The distance between a well and a surface water feature is a critical parameter in determining the rate and timing of surface water depletion resulting from groundwater pumping. The validity of the assumption that the un-modeled surface water features will respond similarly to the modeled is dependent on the distance between them and their respective distances to the pumping transfer well(s). I will discuss in more detail in Part 2 the importance of distance in the calculation of stream depletion.

The Draft EIS/EIR also provides Figures B-5 and B-6 of Draft EIS/EIR Appendix B that graph in aggregate the changes in stream-aquifer interactions, presumably equal to changes in stream flow, based on the SACFEM2013 simulations. While these graphs are interesting for several reasons, they don’t provide information specific to each seller service area on flow losses expected in each river and creek. No figures are provided that show the longitudinal- or cross-sections of channel where impacts are expected, or the rate of stream depletion in each channel section. Maps with rates and times of stream depletion by longitudinal channel section are needed to allow for an adequate review of the Draft EIR/EIS conclusion of less than significant and reasonable impacts with no injury. These maps are also needed to evaluate the specific locations for monitoring potential impacts.

Statements are made in Section 3.7 that reductions in surface flow due to groundwater substitution pumping would be observed in monitoring wells in the region as required by mitigation measure GW-1. Thus detailed maps that show the locations of the monitoring wells and the areas of potential impact along with the rates and seasons of anticipated stream depletion are needed for each service area. These maps are also needed to allow for evaluation of the cumulative effects whenever pumping by multiple sellers can impact the same resource. Without site-specific information on expected locations and changes in flow at each potentially impacted surface water feature, it’s difficult to evaluate the adequacy of any monitoring effort.
I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide additional information on the anticipated changes in surface water flow, temperature, water quality and channel geomorphology for each river, creek and surface water feature in the areas of groundwater substitution transfer pumping. In addition, I recommend that maps showing the along channel longitudinal sections, the maximum anticipated changes in flow rate, water temperature, water quality, and the timing of the maximum anticipated rate of stream depletion due to groundwater substitution transfer pumping be provided at an appropriate scale to allow for adequate measurement and review in the Draft EIS/EIR, and for use in the WS-I and GW-I mitigation monitoring programs.

4. The results of the SACFEM2013 simulation are used to evaluate stream depletion quantities and impacts for vegetation and wildlife resources that are dependent on surface water (Sections 3.7 and 3.8), and to determine the expected lowering of groundwater levels in the areas of transfer pumping (Section 3.3). The groundwater substitution transfer pumping simulation was run from water year (WY) 1970 to WY 2003 and assumed 12 periods of groundwater substitution transfer at various annual transfer volumes as shown in Figure 3.3-25. The apparent Draft EIS/EIR baseline for analysis of groundwater pumping impacts ends with WY 2003 because of limitations of the CalSim II surface water operations model. The CalSim II model was jointly developed by DWR and BoR and is used to determine available export capacity of the Delta. The WY 2003 time limitation was adopted in the SACFEM2013 groundwater-modeling effort apparently because of the desire to combine the simulation of groundwater impacts with estimating the timing of when groundwater substitution water could be transferred through the Delta (Section 3.3.2.1.1). The description of the SACFEM2013 modeling effort states that the volume of groundwater pumping was determined by “comparing the supply in the seller service area to the demand in the buyer service area” (page 3.3-60).

While this is an interesting modeling exercise, and much can be learned from it, the simulations didn’t evaluate the impacts of pumping the maximum annual amount proposed for each of the 10 years of the project. It is important that with any simulation used to analyze potential project impacts that the maximum levels of stress, pumping, proposed by the project be simulated at each of the project locations for the entire duration of the project. This is especially important whenever the simulations are used to justify the conclusion that project impacts will be less than significant, reasonable, and cause no injury. Because the groundwater modeling effort didn’t include the most recent 11 years of record, it appears to have missed simulating the most recent periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping and other groundwater impacting events, such as recent changes in groundwater elevations and groundwater storage (DWR, 2014b), and the reduced recharge due to the recent periods of drought. Without taking the hydrologic conditions during the recent 11 years into account, the results of the SACFEM2013 model simulation may not accurately depict the current conditions or predict the effects from the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping during the next 10 years.

Although the Draft EIS/EIR project description is specific on the volumes and periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping as shown in Tables 2-4 and 2-5, the write-up of the groundwater modeling effort aggregated the volume pumped (Sections 3.3.2.4.2 and B.4.3.1.2 in Appendix B). The simulated volume of groundwater pumped doesn’t reach the maximum being requested by the project in any individual year or for all ten years (Figures B-4 in Appendix B and 3.3-25). Note, the annual groundwater substitution transfer amounts shown in Figure B-4 in Appendix B are not the same as the amounts simulated by the SACFEM2013 model as shown in Figure 3.3-25. The presentation of the SACFEM2013
model results in Sections 3.3.2.4.2 and B.4.3.1.2 don’t tabulate or provide detailed maps by seller service area on the pumping rates, cumulative pumped volumes, pumping times and durations, or which aquifers were pumped in the simulations. The model documentation doesn’t provide the maximum drawdown or the expected centers of maximum drawdown for each seller service area.

The documentation of the SACFEM2013 model results should also discuss the variations in potential impacts that might result from pumping transfer wells other than those simulated. If the groundwater simulation didn’t pump all of the transfer wells listed in Table 3.3-3 for each seller at their maximum rate, then the modeling documentation should describe how the impacts from the simulation should be evaluated for the non-simulated transfer wells and for those well simulated at less than maximum pumping. For example, if the modeling effort provides the pumping time and distance drawdown characteristics of each well this information can be used to estimate the drawdown at different distances, pumping rates, and durations of pumping (see pages 238 to 244 in Driscoll, 1986). The Draft EIS/EIR should provide the time-drawdown and distance-drawdown hydraulic characteristics for each groundwater substitution transfer well so that non-simulated impacts can be estimated. The Draft EIS/EIR should then describe a method(s) for estimating the drawdown at different distances, rates and durations of pumping so that non-participant well owners can estimate and evaluate the potential impacts to their well(s) from well interference due to the pumping of groundwater substitution transfer well(s).

Because the rate of stream depletion is scaled to pumping rate and because the model documentation doesn’t indicate the pumping locations, rates, volumes, times or durations that produced the pumped volumes shown in Figure 3.3-25, or the stream depletions shown in Figures B-5 and B-6 in Appendix B, there is uncertainty whether the SACFEM2013 modeling simulated the maximum rate of stream depletion for the proposed 10-year project. The annual volume of groundwater pumping shown in Figure 3.3-25 are less than the maximum requested, and pumping for a continuous 10 years was not simulated. This suggests that the stream-interaction values or stream depletion(?) shown in Figures B-5 and B-6 of Appendix B are not the maximum level of impact that might occur from the 10-year project.

Without information on the rate, timing and duration of the groundwater pumping, there can be no evaluation of whether the annual simulated impacts are representative of the two pumping seasons listed in Table 2-5, or just a single 3-month pumping season. Whenever the simulated annual pumping rate was greater than the single season maximum of 163,571 acre-feet (AF), two seasons of pumping are required, but the percentage in each season is unknown. If the simulated pumping time represents only one season or a mixture of the two seasons, then the simulation may not reflect the actual timing and/or duration of maximum groundwater substitution pumping impacts proposed in Table 2-5. If a simulation doesn’t evaluate the project under existing conditions or simulate the maximum stress allowed by the project description, then it raises a question of whether the Draft EIS/EIR adequately evaluated the projects potential impacts. Without thorough documentation of the SACFEM2013 groundwater impact simulation, it is difficult to review and analyze the model’s predictions for potential impacts from each seller’s groundwater substitution transfer project, or use the model results in designing and setting impact thresholds for the groundwater monitoring required in mitigation measure GW-1.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide a more complete description of the SACFEM2013 groundwater modeling effort, including tabulation of the groundwater substitution pumping rates, volumes, durations,
and dates for each simulated well; the hydraulic characteristics of each well simulated; the aquifer(s) pumped by each simulation well; the impacts from the maximum proposed pumping, annually and during the 10-years of the proposed project; sufficiently detailed maps of the well locations in each seller's service area that non-participants and the public can use to identify any well's relationship to the groundwater substitution transfer wells and understand the potential impacts to groundwater levels. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR provide, for each transfer well, the pumping time and distance drawdown characteristics such that drawdown for durations, distances and rates of pumping other than those simulated can be estimated. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR also provide an explanation of why the simulation is representative of the current (2014) conditions, how the simulation can be used to assess current and future conditions, and how the simulation can be used to evaluate, monitor and set impact thresholds for future impacts from the 10-year project at the maximum groundwater substitution transfer pumping volumes listed in Tables 2-4 and 2-5.

5. The Draft EIS/EIR was written from the perspective of the process of transferring surface waters through the Delta. This surface water point of view has carried over into some of the analyses of impacts and mitigations for groundwater pumping. For example, the discussions of potential impacts to surface water users, fisheries, and other stream dependent biological resources are thought of as occurring “downstream” of the groundwater substitution wells. While it is correct that groundwater pumping can impact down gradient resources, pumping can also affect up gradient and lateral resources. A pumped well creates a depression in the surrounding aquifer, often referred to as a “cone of depression.” Thus, the area of impact around a pumping well is not a single point, but a region whose extent is sometimes called the “area, radius or zone of influence.” The length of stream affected by groundwater pumping is related to the distance between the well and the stream (Figures 16 and 29 from Barlow and Leake, 2012; Exhibits 1.1 and 1.2). Miller and Durnford (2005) noted that for an ideal aquifer and stream at longer durations of pumping, when the stream depletion rate approaches the well pumping rate, 50% the stream depletion occurs within a stream reach length of twice the distance between the stream and well, and 87% of the depletion occurs within a reach length of 10 times the stream to well distance. Obviously, for non-ideal aquifers and streams the length of stream depleted will vary from the ideal, but this illustrates that stream depletion caused by a pumping well is not focused at one point, but occurs along a length of stream with impacts that occur upstream and downstream from the point on the stream that is typically closest to the well.

Because groundwater is generally flowing, the water table or piezometric surface has a slope. This slope causes the cone of depression around a pumping well to elongate along the direction of regional flow. The elongated cone of depression is often referred to as a “capture zone” (Frind and others, 2002) and determining its extent is a basic part of a pump and treat groundwater cleanup program (USEPA, 2008a). This “capture zone” is related to stream depletion capture because the pumping well intercepts groundwater that would eventually discharge to surface water or be used by surface vegetation. If the “capture zone” extents far enough it may cross a surface water feature and induce greater seepage. However, unlike the capture needed for a contaminant plume, stream depletion can occur without the actual molecule of water that enters the well having to originate from the stream (Figure 29; Exhibit 1.2).

The stream depletion occurs when groundwater is either intercepted before reaching the stream or seepage from the stream is increased. This water only has to backfill the change
in storage caused by pumping, it doesn’t have to enter the well. The “capture zone” also extends upgradient to the recharge area that’s the normal source of water flowing past the well. The aquifer recharge that flows past the pumping well may be derived from a wide mountain front area, it could be a section of another river that crosses the the “capture zone”, or an overlying area of agricultural irrigation. In a complex hydrogeologic setting, numerical modeling that utilize particle tracking is needed to define where a pumping well is recharged and where it may deplete surface water features (Frind and others, 2002; Franke and others, 1998).

The concepts of a wide zone of influence and an elongated “capture zone” are important for the Sacramento Valley groundwater substitution transfers projects because the analysis and monitoring of potential pumping impacts requires a multidirectional evaluation. It can’t be assumed that stream depletion impacts from pumping occur only downstream from the point on the stream closest to the pumping well. Any monitoring of the effects of groundwater substitution pumping on surface or ground water levels, rates and areas of stream depletion, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife impacts, and other critical structures needs to cover a much wider area than what is needed for a direct surface water diversion. This is a fundamental issue with the Draft EIS/EIR. The environmental analyses, monitoring requirements and mitigation measures appear to be developed without adequately considering the multidirectional, wide extent of potential impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to address the wide extent of potential impacts for groundwater substitution transfer pumping. This should include conducting numerical modeling of the groundwater basin using particle tracking to determine which surface water features and other structures are potentially impacted by the pumping of each transfer well and to determine the extent of stream depletion along each potentially impacted surface water feature. The monitoring and mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1 should also be revised to account for a wide area of potential impact from groundwater substitution transfer pumping.

6. The Draft EIS/EIR is written with the assumption that project specific evaluation for each seller agency will be done at a later time by the BoR and/or DWR, and at the local level (see Section 3.3.1.2.3, mitigation measure GW-1 in Section 3.3.4.1, and Section 3.1 in the DTIPWRP). The Draft EIS/EIR lists in Table 3.3-1 and Table 3-1 of the DTIPWRP the Groundwater Management Plans (GMP), agreements and county ordinances that regulate the sellers at a local level. The Draft EIS/EIR discusses only two county ordinances, the Colusa Ordinance No. 615 and Yolo Export Ordinance No. 1617, one agreement, the Water Forum Agreement in Sacramento County, and one conjunctive use program, the American River Basin Regional Conjunctive Use Program. The Table 3-1 in the DTIPWRP lists short descriptions of the county ordinances related to groundwater transfers, if one exists. These descriptions don’t always identify the actual ordinance number that applies to a groundwater substitution transfer, but sources for additional information are provided in the table.

The DTIPWRP (page 27) and GW-1 (page 3.3-88) instructs the entity participating in a groundwater substitution transfer that they are responsible for compliance with local groundwater management plans and ordinances. Except for the brief discussion of the two ordinances, one agreement, and one conjunctive use program listed above, the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t describe the requirements of local GMPs, ordinances, and agreements listed in Tables 3.3-1 (page 3.3-8) and Table 3-1 (page 27). Thus, the actual groundwater substitution
transfer project permit requirements, restrictions, conditions, or exemptions required for each seller service area by BoR, DWR, and one or more County GMP or groundwater ordinance will apparently be determined at a future date. It follows that any actual monitoring requirements, mitigation measures, thresholds of significance required by BoR, DWR or local governing agencies will also be determined at a future date. The mechanism for the public to participate in the determination of the actual groundwater substitution transfer project permit requirements, restrictions, conditions, mitigation measures or exemptions isn’t specified in the Draft EIS/EIR.

Additional information is needed on what the local regulations require for exporting groundwater out of each seller’s groundwater basin. The Draft EIS/EIR needs to discuss how the local regulations ensure that the project complies with California Water Code (WC) Sections 1220, 1745.10, 1810, 10750, 10753.7, 10920-10936, and 12924 (for more detailed discussion of these Water Codes see Draft EIS/EIR Section 3.3.1.2.2). Although the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t document, compare or evaluate the requirements of all local agencies that have authority over groundwater substitution transfers in each seller service area, the Draft EIS/EIR concludes that the environmental impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping by each of the sellers will either be less than significant and cause no injury, or be mitigated to less than significant through mitigation measures WS-1, and GW-1 with its reliance on compliance with local regulations. Because the spatial limits of groundwater substitution pumping impacts are controlled by hydrogeology, hydrology, and rates, durations and seasons of pumping, the impacts may not be limited to the boundaries of each seller’s service area, GMPs, or County. There is a possibility that a seller’s groundwater substitution area of impact will occur in multiple local jurisdictions, which should result in project requirements coming from multiple local as well as state and federal agencies. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t discuss which of the multiple local agencies would be the lead agency, how an agreement between agencies would be reached, or how the requirements of the other agencies will be enforced. The Draft EIS/EIR only briefly mentions the Northern Sacramento Valley Integrated Regional Water Management Plan (IRWMP) (page 3.3-91 and -92) and doesn’t mention the American River IRWMP (http://www.rwah2o.org/rwa/programs/irwmp/), the Yuba County IRWMP (http://yubairwmp.org/the-plan-irwmp/content/irwmp-plan), or the Yolo County IRWMP (http://www.yolowra.org/irwmp.html). The Draft EIR/EIS doesn’t provide information on the water management requirements of the IRWMP covering each seller service area or how the groundwater substitution transfers will be accounted for in the IRWMP process.

Because the Draft EIS/EIR requires that each individual transfer project meet the requirements of Water Code sections listed above, and because it assumes that each of the sellers will separately comply with all federal, state and local regulation, GMPs, IRWMPs, ordinances or agreements, the Draft EIS/EIR should provide an analysis of how these local regulations, GMPs, ordinances or agreements will ensure each seller’s project achieves the goals of no injury, less than significant and reasonable impacts. Each seller’s project analysis should identify what future analyses, ordinances, project conditions, exemptions, monitoring and mitigation measures are required to ensure that each of the seller’s project meets or exceed the goals of the Draft EIS/EIR.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include a discussion and comparison of the local regulations, GMPs, IRWMPs, ordinances and agreements that govern each of the seller’s proposed groundwater substitution transfers. I recommend each analysis demonstrate that each seller’s project will meet or exceed the environmental protection goals of the Draft EIS/EIR. I recommend an analysis that compares local and regional management plans,
ordinances, regulations, and agreements with the monitoring and mitigation measures in the Draft EIS/EIR to identify any additional mitigation measures needed to ensure compliance with local, regional, state and federal regulations. I recommend an analysis that includes: (1) a discussion on how the local lead agency will be determined; (2) how multiagency jurisdictions will be enforced; (3) how conflicts between different local, regional, state and federal regulatory jurisdictions will be resolved; and (4) how public participation will occur.

7. The Draft EIS/EIR provides only one groundwater elevation map of the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin, Figure 3.3-4, which shows contours from wells screened from a depth greater than 100 feet to less than 400 feet below ground surface (bgs) (>100 to < 400 feet bgs) and only for the northern portion of the proposed groundwater substitution transfer seller area. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide maps showing groundwater elevations, or depth to groundwater, for groundwater substitution transfer seller areas in Placer, Sutter, Yolo, Yuba, and Sacramento counties.

The DWR provides on a web site a number of additional groundwater level and depth to groundwater maps at: http://www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/Groundwater Level/gw_level_monitoring.cfm#Well%20Depth%20Summary%20Maps.

For example, there are maps that show the change in groundwater levels from the spring of 2004 to spring of 2014 for shallow screened wells (<200 feet bgs), intermediate wells (>200 to <600 feet bgs), deep wells (>600 feet bgs), and well screened in the >100 to < 400 feet bgs interval. In addition, the DWR web site has a series of well depth summary maps for Butte, Colusa, Glenn, and Tehama counties, and the Redding Basin that show the density of wells screened at less than 150 feet bgs, and between 150 and 500 feet bgs, along with contours of the depth to groundwater in the summer of 2013. There are also numerous other groundwater elevation contour maps on DWR’s web page, going back to 2006. Historical and recent groundwater elevation and depth contours maps for Placer, Sutter, Yolo, Yuba, and Sacramento counties may be available from the groundwater substitution transfer sellers, other water agencies in those counties, the IRWMP documents, or technical reports on groundwater management (for example, Northern California Water Association, 2014a, b, and c).

Historic change and current groundwater contour maps are critical to establishing an environmental baseline for the groundwater substitution transfers. This information is needed to evaluate the impacts from groundwater substitution transfers because it establishes the present groundwater basin conditions and document the changes and trends in groundwater levels in the last 10-plus years, which were not simulated by the SACFEM2013 modeling.

Information on the depth to shallow groundwater is critically important because of the analysis of impacts to vegetation and wildlife in Section 3.8 assumed, based on the results of the SACFEM2013 model, that the current depth to shallow groundwater is greater than 15 feet bgs for most of the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin (page 3.8-32). Because the simulation showed a condition of greater than 15 feet depth to groundwater, the Draft EIS/EIR concluded that impacts from lowering of the shallow water table as a result of the groundwater substitution transfer pumping would be less than significant (page 3.8-47).

This assumption however appears to conflict with the DWR shallow well depth summary maps (DWR, 2014a) that show contours of the depth to groundwater in wells less than 150 feet bgs in the summer 2013. These maps show extensive areas around the Sutter Buttes
and to the north were the depth to groundwater is less than 10 feet and 20 feet (Exhibit 2.1). These maps also show extensive areas where the depth to groundwater is less than 40 feet, a depth significant to some tree species such as the valley oak (page 3.8-32). There is also a recent trend of lower groundwater levels in a number of areas in the Sacramento Valley as shown on the DWR 2004 to 2014 groundwater change maps for shallow, intermediate, deep aquifer zones available from the web site listed above (DWR, 2014b). Exhibit 2.1 has a composite map of the shallow zone well depth maps and traces of the shallow zone 2004 to 2014 groundwater elevation change contours.

These groundwater elevation, depth and changes in elevation maps are important for documenting baseline groundwater conditions. The recent trend of decreased groundwater levels should be included in the analysis of groundwater substitution pumping impacts because the drawdowns shown in Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31 will interact with existing conditions, and may cause additional long-term decreases in groundwater levels. The Draft EIS/EIR's assessment of the impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping to existing and future wells, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife, and surface structures should factor in these recent trends in groundwater levels and not rely solely on SACFEM2013 model simulations that ended in 2003. In addition, the hydrographs in Appendix E that show the SACFEM2013 model results should identify wells near the selected 34-hydrograph locations where groundwater level measurements have been taken and show these actual groundwater levels on the hydrographs. Currently the public is left with the task of finding groundwater level data near the 34 selected hydrograph locations and then validating the simulation results by making comparisons between the simulated water levels and the actual water levels. This model validation task should be part of the Draft EIS/EIR.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include maps of recent groundwater levels and depths to groundwater along with changes in groundwater levels and depths for at least the last 11 years for all of the counties where the seller agencies propose a groundwater substitution transfer project. I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide additional verification of the SACFEM2013 model results by comparing them to measured groundwater levels in the vicinity of the 34 selected modeling hydrograph locations. I also recommend the hydrographs of actual water level measurements in the vicinity be included on the simulation hydrographs, so that the public can review the accuracy of the simulation. I recommend contour maps showing the current depth to groundwater be made from actual shallow groundwater measurements and that these contours be shown on maps of the surface water features identified and evaluated in Draft EIS/EIR Sections 3.3-Groundwater, 3.7-Fisheries (Table 3.7-3), and 3.8-Vegetation and Wildlife (Table 3.8-3). I recommend that the SACFEM2013 simulation drawdowns be combined with the current (2014) groundwater elevations for each groundwater substitution transfer aquifer to show the cumulative impacts of the 10-year project on existing groundwater elevations.

Groundwater Model SACFEM2013

A finite element groundwater model, SACFEM2013, was used to evaluate the potential for changes in groundwater levels and stream depletion from groundwater substitution transfer pumping during the 10-year period of the project. The results of the simulations were used to evaluate the impacts to fisheries, vegetation and wildlife (Section 3.7 and 3.8). Section 3.3.2.1 discusses the use of the model for estimating regional groundwater level declines due to groundwater substitution pumping. Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31 provide simulated changes in
groundwater elevation or head for three intervals, up to 35 feet bgs, 200 to 300 feet bgs, and 700 to 900 feet bgs. Figures 3.3-32 to 3.3-40 and Appendix E provide hydrographs of model simulations for 34 selected locations shown on the simulated groundwater elevation change maps. Sections 3.7.2.1.1, 3.7.2.1.3, 3.7.2.4.1, 3.8.2.1.1, 3.8.2.1.4, and 3.8.2.4.1 provide discussion on the potential impacts of groundwater substitution transfer pumping on fisheries, vegetation and wildlife resources from a drop in the shallow groundwater table and depletion of stream flows.

The SACFEM2013 model was set up to simulate transient flow conditions from WY 1970 to WY 2010 (page 3.3-60). Historic data from 1970 to 2003 were use to estimate the potential impacts from groundwater substitution transfers during the 10-year period of the project. The simulation terminated at 2003 because that was the last simulation period available for the CalSim II model, a planning model designed to simulate operations of the CVP and SWP reservoirs and water delivery systems. Additional SACFEM2013 model documentation is given in Appendix D, which provides information on the model gridding, layering, assumptions and calculation methods. Several of the model designs and parameters selected likely influenced the model's ability to predict future impacts from the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project. Those include: the time period of the model, the assumptions about the amount and frequency of groundwater substitution pumping, the model's nodal spacing, estimates of aquifer properties, the number of streams simulated, streambed parameters, and specified-flux boundaries. There are at least two other groundwater simulation models developed for the Sacramento Valley, a U.S. Geological Survey model, USGS-CVHM (Faunt, ed., 2009) and a DWR-C2VSim model (Brush and others, 2013a and 2013b).

A comparison between the SACFEM2013 and these two other models provides an interesting assessment of how these three models estimated the hydrogeologic character and conditions of the Sacramento Valley. A comparison also demonstrates that there is no one correct groundwater model, that models with different parameter distributions can achieve reasonable calibration. With models of differing hydrogeologic characteristics, the predictions of future impacts by each model should be expected to differ. Determining which of the models accurately predicts future impacts requires the validation of each model's prediction with new field data. The Draft EIS/EIR mitigation measures for groundwater substitution transfer pumping shouldn't assume that the SACFEM2013 model results are all that is needed to demonstrate no injury and less than significant impacts from the proposed project. Validation of the model-based conclusion of no impacts requires collection of new field data and comparison to simulation predictions throughout and beyond the 10-year project.

A comparison of portions of the SACFEM2013 simulation for the Draft EIS/EIR with the two other models is given below.

8. Period of Modeled Historic Groundwater Conditions – Although the model simulation period ended in 2003, the Draft EIS/EIR indicates that the model was run to 2010, but the results were not provided. From the model write-up it is unknown whether the latest groundwater elevations were a factor in the modeling effort. The simulation hydrographs in Appendix E terminate in 2004. Apparently, the hydrologic conditions for the latest 10 years are not included because the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t discuss how the model simulations agree with the current baseline conditions. Specifically, the change in groundwater elevation between 2004 and 2014 as document by DWR (2014b) in a series of three maps. I've
provided in attached Exhibits 3.1 to 3.3 maps that are composites of DWR's 2004 to 2014 groundwater change maps with Draft EIS/EIR Figures 3.3-29, 3.3-30 and 3.3-31, the SACFEM2013 1990 hydrologic conditions simulations of drawdown by zone. The 1990 hydrologic condition was selected for comparison because the sequence of groundwater pumping events is the closest match to the actual pumping requested in the Draft EIS/EIR. Note that the depth intervals of the two sets of maps don’t exactly coincide, but they are generally grouped as shallow, intermediate and deep aquifers.

Exhibits 3.1 to 3.3 show that the simulated changes in groundwater elevation from the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project appear to widen the existing groundwater depressions. The pumping depression southwest of Orland will expand to the east and northeast, as will the depression in the Williams area. A pumping depression will develop in the Live Oaks area and to the east. In the southeastern Sacramento area, the pumping depression from the 10-year project will apparently extent southeastward beyond the limits of the Sacramento Valley transfer project boundary. Combining the existing areas of recent sustained groundwater drawdown with the additional drawdown from the groundwater substitution transfer pumping could slow the recovery of groundwater elevations. The 10-year project pumping east of Orland may connect the two existing groundwater depressions around Orland and Chico to create one large depression. Because the DWR 2004 to 2014 groundwater change maps don’t extend completely to the southern portions of the Sacramento Valley groundwater substitution transfer area in Placer, Sutter, Yolo, Yuba, and Sacramento counties, no evaluation can be made about the impact of 10 years of groundwater substitution transfer pumping on existing groundwater conditions in those or adjacent areas.

I recommended the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how the SACFEM2013 simulations incorporate the changes in groundwater level from 2004 to 2014 in assessing the potential impacts from the proposed 10 years of groundwater substitution transfer pumping. I recommended this discussion include evaluation of the rate and duration of groundwater level recovery that factors in the existing (2014) groundwater levels. I also recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how during the 10 years of project transfers through the Delta will be made with a CalSim II model that's only current to the year 2003.

9. Simulation Pumping Volume and Frequency - The model simulated a series of groundwater pumping events in 12 out of the 34 years of simulation (page 3.3-60). The logic of a multiyear, variable hydrology simulation was that it allowed for evaluation of the cumulative effects of pumping in previous years (page 3.3-61). Figure 3.3-25 shows the simulated periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping. The 1990 simulation period most closely matches the multiyear pumping being requested by the 10-year project. The 1990 simulation period included groundwater pumping 7 out of 10 years, with pumping values ranging from approximately 95,000 acre-feet per year (AFY) to approximately 262,000 AFY, as measured from Figure 3.3-35. Note the actual pumping rates, volumes, and pumping durations were not provided in the simulation documentation. Apparently, none of the modeled groundwater substitution pumping simulation periods was given the actual maximum groundwater substitution pumping value of 290,495 AFY as calculated from Table 2-5. The time-weighted annual average pumping rate for the 1990 simulation period is approximately 126,900 AF, as measured from Figure 3.3-35. This represents approximately 44% of the maximum pumping rate requested in the Draft EIS/EIR (126,900 AF/290,495 AF = 0.437). Therefore the SACFEM2013 Draft EIS/EIR simulations may only represent a portion of the project’s potential impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping.
I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how the SACFEM2013 simulations provide a full and accurate estimation of the potential impacts from the groundwater substitution transfer pumping throughout the 10-year project. I also recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include SACFEM2013 simulations at the maximum requested annual volume of 290,495 AF for each of the 10 years of pumping.

10. Simulation Grid Size - The SACFEM2013 documentation states that the grid used for groundwater substitution transfer simulations has 153,812 nodes and 306,813 elements (page D-3 of Appendix D). The model nodal spacing varies from 410 feet to 3,000 feet, with an approximate nodal spacing of 1,640 feet along streams and flood bypasses. While this nodal spacing is reasonable for regional groundwater simulations, the results of the simulations may not provide the detail needed to evaluate drawdown interference between the groundwater substitution transfer wells and adjacent non-participating wells. Information is needed on the locations of the groundwater substitution transfer wells and the adjacent non-participating wells in order to determine whether the current simulation grid spacing can accurately estimate well interference. The Draft EIS/EIR analysis of groundwater substitution pumping impacts should be based on an appropriate model grid spacing to establish accurate maximum thresholds for well interference caused by the transfer well pumping. The Draft EIS/EIR should provide sufficient information that an owner of a non-participating well can determine accurately the maximum anticipated increase in drawdown at their well during the 10 years of groundwater substitution transfer pumping. Whether this amount of increased drawdown is significant at each non-participating well is a matter of the current well design and groundwater conditions at each well. The Draft EIS/EIR should establish values for the maximum allowable well interference drawdown from groundwater substitution transfer pumping, which should be based on the costs and inconvenience of lowering the water level. The Draft EIS/EIR should establish the economic costs and level of injury that are reasonable for a non-participating well owner to assume and will keep the impacts from the 10-year project in compliance with the no injury rule as required by WC Section 1706, 1725 and 1736 (Section 1.3.2.3).

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how the maximum thresholds for water level drawdown due to well interference from groundwater substitution transfer pumping will be established for non-participating wells, and provide a process for assigning a threshold to each non-participating well, along with monitoring requirements and specific mitigation measures should the threshold be exceeded. The Draft EIS/EIR also should be revised to provide the threshold values for well system repair costs used in set the maximum allowable well interference drawdown, along with the documentation and analysis of why the well interference drawdown and cost thresholds are considered reasonable and result in no injury to non-participating well owners, and comply with the Water Code.

11. Simulation Hydrogeologic Parameter Values - The SACFEM2013 model was developed with seven layers of varying thickness that extend from the shallow water table to the base of fresh water. The USGS-CVHM model has ten layers, while the DWR-C2VSim model has 3 layers. All of the models assume that the uppermost layer, layer 1, was unconfined and the lower layers are confined aquifer. The hydrogeologic parameters values differ for each of these models as shown in a summary table in Exhibit 4.1. Both the CVHM and C2VSim models divided the Central Valley in to 21 subregions (Figure 3, Brush and others, 2013a; Exhibit 4.4). The SACFEM2013 doesn’t use subregions from the Sacramento Valley model. As discussed below, the SACFEM2013 appears to use the same distribution of the
horizontal hydraulic conductivity, \( K_h \), for all model layers (Figure D-4 of Appendix D). Both the CVHM and the C2VSim models appear to have more varied hydraulic conductivity distributions than SACFEM2013.

Development of the SACFEM2013 simulations used horizontal hydraulic conductivity values derived from the well logs of large-diameter irrigation wells. Shallow and low-yielding wells, less than 100 gallons per minute (gpm), and domestic-type wells were not used (page D-12 of Appendix D). The values of specific capacity (gallons per minute per foot of drawdown) from the DWR well completion reports were used to estimate transmissivity around a well using an empirical equation for confined aquifer developed from Jacob’s modified nonequilibrium equation (see equation 8 page D-13 and Appendix 16D of Driscoll, 1986 in Exhibit 4.6). Transmissivity was converted to \( K_h \) by assuming the aquifer thickness was equal to the length of the well screen interval. These well \( K_h \) values were then averaged using a geometric mean with surrounding wells within a critical distance of 6 miles. The results of the geometric mean averaging were then gridded using a kriging to produce \( K_h \) values across the modeled area (Figure D-4 in Appendix D). The transmissivity of each model layer was then calculated at each node by multiplying the kriged geometric mean value of \( K_h \) by the aquifer layer thickness. The vertical hydraulic conductivity, \( K_v \), was calculated by assuming a uniform \( K_h : K_v \) ratio of 50:1 for layer 1 and 500:1 for layers 2 to 7.

The CVHM model (Faunt, ed., 2009) used the percentage of coarse-grained material from well logs and boreholes as the primary variable in a sediment texture analysis of the Central Valley, which was divided into nine textural provinces and domains (Figures A10 to A14; Exhibits 4.7a to 4.7i). The Sacramento Valley has three textural domains, Redding, eastern, and western Sacramento domains (page 30, Faunt, ed., 2009). The coarse-grained fraction was correlated to horizontal (\( K_h \)) and vertical (\( K_v \)) conductivity (page 154, Faunt, ed., 2009). The \( K_h \) values were estimated using kriging and a weighted arithmetic mean, a type of power mean, whereas the \( K_v \) value estimates used either a harmonic or geometric mean. Faunt (ed., 2009) notes that the arithmetic mean is most influenced by the coarser-grained material, whereas the fine-grained material more heavily weights both the harmonic and geometric means. Figure C14 (Exhibit 4.7j) shows the relationship between the percentage of coarse-grained deposits and hydraulic conductivity for the different types of means. For the Sacramento Valley the texture-weighted power-mean value was -0.5, a value midway between the harmonic and geometric means (Table C8, Exhibit 4.3).

Table C8 lists the end member hydraulic conductivity values used in the CVHM model with those for the Sacramento Valley ranging from 670 feet/day (ft/day) for coarse-grained to 0.075 ft/day for fine-grained. The table also lists field and laboratory values of \( K_h \) and \( K_v \) for coarse and fine-grained deposits. The Redding textural domain has the highest percentage of coarse-grained material of the three in Sacramento Valley, a mean of 39 percent, with the western portion becoming coarser with depth (page 30, Faunt, ed., 2009). The western and eastern Sacramento domains are finer-grained, with the eastern mean at 32 percent coarse-grained deposits, and the western mean at 25 percent. Figure A15B(A7) (Exhibit 4.7k) shows the cumulative distribution of kriged sediment textures for each layer of the CVHM model for the Sacramento Valley. Figures A12A to A12E (Exhibits 4.7c to 4.7g) show the distribution of coarse-grained deposits in CVHM groundwater model layers 1, 3, Corcoran Clay, 6 and 9 for the Sacramento and San Joaquin Valleys. Isolated coarser-grained deposits that occur in layer 1 are associated with the Sacramento River, distal parts of fans from the Cascade Range and northern Sierra Nevada, and the American River (page 30, Faunt, ed., 2009; Figure A14, Exhibit 4.7i). Although the texture maps, Figures A12A to A12E of CVHM, and the hydraulic conductivity distribution map of Figure D4 of SACFEM2013, show different characteristic of each model’s hydraulic conductivity, they can be compared by
their visual complexity. The CVHM texture also varies by model layer, whereas the SACFEM2013 apparently applied the same Kh distribution to each layer. The CVHM western and eastern Sacramento domains appear to have smaller coarse-grained areas than the SACFEM2013 higher hydraulic conductivity areas (Figures A12, C14 and A15 in Exhibits 4.7c, 4.7j, and 4.7k versus D4 in Appendix D). Figure 12E (Exhibit 4.7g) shows layer 9 with high percentages of coarse-grained deposits that have higher Kh values (Figure C14) in the western parts of the Redding (10) and northern western portion of the western Sacramento (11) province. Whereas Figure D4 of SACFEM2013 shows these same areas as having the lowest Kh values, suggesting finer-grained textures dominate.

The C2Vsim model divided the Sacramento Valley into seven subregions, as did the USGS-CVHM model. Like the USGS model, hydraulic conductivity varies with the three model layers for the Sacramento Valley. The spatial variability of the Kh and Kv values for the C2VSim model is greater than with the SACFEM2013 model (compare Figures 34 and 35 from Brush and others, 2013a in Exhibits 4.8a to 4.8f to Figures D4 of Appendix D). Table 5 of Brush and others, 2013a (Exhibit 4.2) shows the range of model parameters for the saturated groundwater portion of the C2Vsim model. Kh values range from 2.2 ft/day to 100 ft/day, and Kv from 0.005 ft/day to 0.299 ft/day. The highest Kh value for the C2VSim model is less than for SACFEM2013 (100 ft/day vs 450 ft/day), while the lowest values are lower (0.005 ft/day vs <0.1 ft/day).

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss the uncertainty in aquifer hydraulic parameter estimations for the groundwater substitution transfer pumping simulations and the sensitivity of the model results to the uncertainty in the groundwater hydraulic parameters. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss how the uncertainty in hydraulic conductivity parameters influences: (1) estimates of potential stream depletion (Section 3.3), (2) evaluations of fisheries impacts (Section 3.7), (3) evaluations of vegetation and wildlife impacts (Section 3.8), and (4) the screening procedures that removed a number of the small streams from further environmental impact analysis (Table 3.7-3 and 3.8-3).

12. Simulation Groundwater Storage Parameters - The SACFEM2013 simulations assigned to the upper unconfined model layer 1 a uniform specific yield (Sy) value of 0.12 (dimensionless) (page D-14 in Appendix D; Exhibit 4.1). For the confined model layers 2 to 7 a uniform specific storage, Ss, value of 6.5 x 10⁻⁵ per foot (ft) was used (page D-14 of Appendix D; Exhibit 4.1). Both the CVHM and C2VSim simulations used a range of values of Sy and Ss that were more variable than SACFEM2013 (Exhibits 4.1, 4.8n, and 4.8o). The CVHM simulation used a range of Sy and Ss values, (CVHM Table C8, Exhibits 4.3). The CVHM simulation also used a range of Ss values for coarse-grain elastic and fine-grained elastic and inelastic deposits to simulating subsidence from groundwater pumping. The C2VSim simulations used a range of Sy values for model layer 1 and separate ranges of Ss values for layers 2 and 3 (C2VSim Table 5, Exhibits 4.2; Exhibits 4.8g to 4.8i). The C2VSim and CVHM models assigned a range of coefficients for elastic (Sce) and inelastic (Sci) deposits used in simulating subsidence (Exhibits 4.1, 4.8j to 4.8m). Note, the Ss values are multiplied by the aquifer thickness at each model node at to obtain the dimensionless value of storativity (S) for confined aquifers ($S = Ss \times \text{thickness}$), which is similar to the dimensionless Sy parameter for an unconfined aquifer.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss the uncertainty in aquifer storage parameter estimations for the groundwater substitution transfer pumping simulations and the sensitivity of the model results to the uncertainty in the groundwater storage parameters. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss how
uncertainty in groundwater storage parameters influences: (1) estimates of potential stream depletion (Section 3.3), (2) evaluations of fisheries impacts (Section 3.7), (3) evaluations of vegetation and wildlife impacts (Section 3.8), and (4) the screening procedures that removed a number of the small streams from further environmental impact analysis (Table 3.7-3 and 3.8-3).

13. Simulation River and Stream Parameters - All three models simulated the interactions between the groundwater and streams or rivers. The rate and direction of movement of water between streams and shallow groundwater is governed by the vertical hydraulic conductivity of the streambed, $K_{vb}$, thickness of the streambed, $m$, the wetted perimeter of the stream, $w$, and the difference in elevation between groundwater table and stream. The hydraulic parameters of a streambed are combined into a term called conductance, $C$, which is calculated as the product of $K_{vb}$ times the wetted perimeter divided by the streambed thickness ($C = [K_{vb} \times w]/m$).

The SACFEM2013 simulations assigned all eastern streambeds draining from the Sierra Nevada a $K_{vb}$ value of 6.56 ft/day (2 meters/day), except the Bear River and Big Chico Creek, whose values were unstated (page D-7 of Appendix D). For all western streambeds draining the Coast Ranges, a higher value of $K_{vb}$ at or above 16.4 ft/day (5 meters/day) was assigned. Figure 3.3-24 in the Draft EIS/EIR shows the SACFEM2013 groundwater boundary and the simulated rivers and streams. This map may not be showing all of the small streams evaluated in the simulation based on the streams listed in Tables 3.7-3 and 3.8-3 (also see general comment no. 2).

The streambed $K_{vb}$ values used in CVHM simulation are shown in Figure C26 (Exhibit 5.3). The values of $K_{vb}$ for the Sacramento Valley varying from approximately 0.04 ft/day to 5.6 ft/day are shown in Figure C26. Results of the CVHM simulation of surface water-groundwater interactions, gains and losses, from 1961 to 1977 are compared to measured and simulated stream gauge values in Figures C19A and C19B (Exhibits 5.4a and 5.4b).

The C2VSim simulations also used varying values for streambed $K_{vb}$ ranging from 0 to 44 ft/day with a mean of 1.8 ft/day and lake bed $K_{vb}$ of 0.67 ft/day (page 100, Brush and others, 2013a; Exhibit 5.1). Simulated streambed conductance values are shown in Figure 40 of Brush and others, 2013a (Exhibit 5.2).

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss the uncertainty in streambed parameter estimations for the groundwater substitution transfer pumping simulations and the sensitivity of the model results to the uncertainty in the hydraulic characteristics of the streambeds. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR discuss how uncertainty in the hydraulic characteristics of the streambeds influences: (1) estimates of potential stream depletion (Section 3.3), (2) evaluations of fisheries impacts (Section 3.7), (3) evaluations of vegetation and wildlife impacts (Section 3.8), and (4) the screening procedures that removed a number of the small streams from further environmental impact analysis (Table 3.7-3 and 3.8-3).

14. Groundwater Flow Between Sub-regions - Of the three previously discussed regional groundwater models for the Sacramento Valley, only the reports for the C2VSim simulation provided information on the volume of groundwater that flows laterally among groundwater subregions. The C2VSim simulation results show that groundwater flow between subregions has changed significantly in some areas (Figures 81A to 81C of Brush and others, 2013a and Figure 39 of Brush and others, 2013b; Exhibits 6.1a to 6.1c and 6.2). The SACFEM2013 simulations results presented in the Draft EIS/EIR don’t provide information on the exchange between subregion areas used in simulations by the USGS (Faunt, ed.,
Therefore, the flow of groundwater between the subregions and/or counties of the 10-year project's groundwater substitution transfer sellers wasn’t evaluated for potential impacts on neighboring areas. The loss or gain of groundwater from neighboring subregions should be evaluated in the Draft EIS/EIR.

Accounting for subsurface flow among subregions is an important part of the water balance because it is measures of the amount of impact that groundwater pumping in one subregion has on its neighboring subregions. The subsurface inter-basin movement of groundwater is an important element in the analysis of the environmental impacts from the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer projects because the groundwater substitution transfer pumping by sellers in one region can have a significant impact on the groundwater levels, storage and stream depletion in adjacent regions.

The C2VSim simulations calculated the volume of groundwater that flowed between the subregions and presented the results for three decades, 1922-1929, 1960-1969, and 2000-2009, and for the total simulation period, 1922-2009. Tables 10 through 13 (Brush and others, 2014a; Exhibits 6.3a to d) provide the sum of inter-region groundwater flow for each model subregion, but not the individual values of flow among adjoining subregions. Figures 81 and 39 (Exhibits 6.1a to 6.1c and 6.2) give the simulated annual volume of inter-region flow for the three decades and from 1922 to 2009. An estimate of a portion of the long-term changes in groundwater storage in each subregion can be made by comparing the change in annual volume and flow direction between sub-regions.

For example, in the 1922 to 1929 simulation period subregion 9 (Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta received 81,000 AFY of groundwater flow from adjoining subregions 6, 8, 10 and 11 (Exhibit 6.1a). By 1969 the simulation shows that subregion 9 was still receiving a small volume, 2,000 AFY, of groundwater flow from subregion 6, but losing approximately 56,000 AFY to subregions 8, 10, and 11 (Exhibit 6.1b). A change in groundwater storage from 1929 to 1969 in the Delta of 135,000 AFY; from a plus 81,000 AFY to a minus 54,000 AFY. For 2002-2009, the simulation shows that the Delta still receiving a small volume, 4,000 AFY, of groundwater flow from subregion 6, but now losing 137,000 AFY to subregions 8, 10 and 11 (Exhibit 6.1c). A loss in storage in the Delta of 214,000 AFY from 1929. The 2000-2009 simulation period shows that subregion 8 is receiving a large portion of the groundwater flow out of the Delta, 112,000 AFY, a reversal in groundwater flow direction and a cumulative annual loss to the Delta from 1922-1929 of 147,000 AFY. Subregion 8 in turn loses 17,000 AFY of groundwater flow to subregion 7 in 2000-2009, and receives 123,000 AFY from subregion 11 (Exhibit 6.1c). A reversal of 1922-1929 when subregion 8 received 1,000 AFY from subregions 7 and gave 1,000 AFY to subregion 11.

The 10-year transfer project proposes under the groundwater substitution to pump up to approximately 75,000 AFY from subregions 7 and 8, Table 2-5. This additional pumping will likely cause additional groundwater to flow from the subregion 9, the Delta, and subregion 11 into subregion 8, and eventually to subregion 7. Similar shifts in direction and annual volumes of groundwater flow have occurred with the other Central Valley subregions. The changes direction and volume of flow between the Delta and surrounding subregions appear to be the largest shift in groundwater flow for in Sacramento Valley area.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to evaluate the subsurface flows between subregions in Sacramento Valley due to the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include groundwater model simulations that account for the rates, volumes, times, and changes in direction of groundwater flow between the seller pumping areas and the surrounding non-participating regions. I recommend the Draft
EIS/EIR also analysis the short- and long-term impacts from the changes in subregional groundwater flow caused by the 10-year transfer project.

Mitigation Measure WS-1

15. The purpose of mitigation measure WS-1 as stated in Draft EIS/EIR Section 3.1.4.1 is to mitigate potential impacts to CVP and SWP water supplies from stream depletion caused by groundwater substitution transfer pumping. The stream depletion factor (BoR-SDF) is imposed by the BoR and DWR because they will not move transfer water if doing so violates the no injury rule (page 3.1-21). The no injury rule is discussed in Section 1.3.2.3 and cites CA WC Sections 1725, 1736 and 1706. The language from WC 1736 that also requires transfers to not result in unreasonable effects to fish, wildlife, or other instream beneficial uses is discussed in the subsequent Section 1.3.2.4.

Draft EIS/EIR Sections 3.1.2.4.1 (page 3.1-15) and 3.1.6.1 (page 3.1-21) discuss the impacts from groundwater substitution transfers on surface water. On page 3.1-16 the Draft EIS/EIR states that groundwater recharge, presumably greater because of groundwater substitution pumping, occurring during higher flows would decrease flow in surface waterways. During periods of high flow, the decrease in surface flow won’t affect water supplies or the ability to meet flow or quality standards. The document also states that if groundwater recharge occurs during dry periods, presumably occurring when groundwater substitution transfers are needed, groundwater recharge would decrease flows and affect BoR and DWR operations. BoR and DWR would then need to either decrease Delta exports or release additional flows from surface storage to meet the required standards. These statements are followed by seemingly conflicting statements that:

Transfers would not affect whether the water flow and quality standards are met, however, the actions taken by Reclamation and DWR to meet these standards because of instream flow reductions due to the groundwater recharge could affect CVP and SWP water supplies. (page 3.1-16)

Increased releases from storage would vacate storage that could be filled during wet periods, but would affect water supplies in subsequent years if the storage is not refilled. (page 3.1-17)

The potential for the reduction in surface water storage to eventually cause reductions in streamflow and water quality isn’t clearly addressed in the Draft EIS/EIR.

Overall, the increased supplies delivered from water transfers would be greater than the decrease in supply because of streamflow depletion; however, the impacts from streamflow depletion may affect water users that are not parties to water transfers. On average, the losses due to groundwater and surface water interaction would result in approximately 15,800 AF of water annually compared to the No Action/No Project Alternative, or approximately a loss of 0.3 percent of the supply. (page 3.1-18)

In a period of multiple dry years (such as 1987-1992), the streamflow depletion causes a 2.8 percent reduction in CVP and SWP supplies, or 71,200 AF. (page 3.1-18)

To reduce these effects, Mitigation Measure WS-1 includes a streamflow depletion factor to be incorporated into transfers to account for the potential water supply impacts to the CVP and SWP. Mitigation Measure WS-1 would reduce the impacts to less than significant. (page 3.1-18)

Additional information on the requirements of WS-1 appears to be contained in the October 2013 joint DWR and BoR document titled Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals (DTIPWTP) because the discussion in that document’s Section 3.4.3
on estimating the effects of transfer operations on streamflow says that a default BoR-SDF of 12 percent will be applied “unless available monitoring data analyzed by Project Agencies supports the need for the development of a transfer proposal site-specific SDF” (page 33). The document also states that:

Although real time streamflow depletion due to groundwater substitution pumping for water transfers cannot be directly measured, impacts on streamflow due to groundwater pumping can be modeled. Project Agencies have applied the results from prior modeling efforts to evaluate potential groundwater transfers in the Sacramento Valley to establish an estimated average streamflow depletion factor (SDF) for transfers requiring the use of Project Facilities.

I have several comments on this analysis of stream depletion impacts and mitigation measure WS-1:

a. Sections 2.3.2.2 and 2.3.2.3 discuss potential groundwater substitution and crop idling transfers and the limitations on the timing of the transfers. Transfers typically occur from July to September, but could also occur from April to June if conditions in the Delta allow for transfer. Surface water to be used in groundwater substitution and crop idling transfers would be stored during April to June if the condition of the Delta is unacceptable for transfer.

My understanding of the BoR-SDF in mitigation measure WS-1 is that at the same time transfer surface waters are flowing towards the Delta, a portion of that water is assigned to the waterway to “offset” or compensate for stream depletion caused by groundwater substitution pumping. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t seem to address the issue of how to compensate for groundwater substitution pumping impacts occurring before or after the transfer water flows to the Delta, the long-term losses caused by the pumping in subsequent years, and cumulative impacts from multiple years of pumping by all sellers. Yet the Draft EIS/EIR acknowledges that stream depletion is cumulative and a cumulative increase in depletion can be significantly greater than with a single event (Section 4.3.1.2 in Appendix B). The SACFEM2013 simulation shows that stream depletion will continue for a number of years after the groundwater substitution pumping event (Figures B-4, B-5 and B-6 in Draft EIS/EIR Appendix B). Mitigation measure WS-1 doesn’t appear to fully address how mitigation will occur for stream depletion impacts from groundwater substitution pumping during entire duration of the impact.

I recommend mitigation measure WS-1 be revised to clearly address how reductions in stream flows caused by groundwater substitution transfer pumping will be mitigated to less than significant for all of the times when stream depletion is occurring, including the time before and after the water is physically transferred; long-term impacts; and cumulative impacts from multiple sellers over multiple years of participating in groundwater substitution transfers.

b. Although mitigation measure WS-1 doesn’t state that its implementation is linked to the October 2013 DTIPWTP (that linkage is part of mitigation measure GW-1), the DTIPWTP discusses the use of the BoR-SDF in the methodology for determining the amount of water available for groundwater substitution transfer, and the effects of the groundwater substitution pumping on streamflow in Section 3.4 (page 31). Item 5 on page 31 gives the formula for using four steps in determining the amount of transferable water, one of which is subtraction of the
estimated streamflow reduction. Section 3.4.3 states on page 33 of the DTIPWTP that:

Although real time streamflow depletion due to groundwater substitution pumping for water transfers cannot be directly measured, impacts on streamflow due to groundwater pumping can be modeled. Project Agencies have applied the results from prior modeling efforts to evaluate potential groundwater transfers in the Sacramento Valley to establish an estimated average streamflow depletion factor (SDF) for transfers requiring the use of Project Facilities.

Project Agencies will apply a 12 percent SDF for each project meeting the criteria contained in this chapter unless available monitoring data analyzed by Project Agencies supports the need for the development of a transfer proposal site-specific SDF.

Project Agencies are developing tools to more accurately evaluate the impacts of groundwater substitution transfers on streamflow. These tools may be implemented in the near future and may include a site-specific analysis that could be applied to each transfer proposal.

Mitigation measure WS-1 states on page 3.1-21 that:

The exact percentage of the streamflow depletion factor will be assessed and determined on a regular basis by Reclamation and DWR, in consultation with buyers and sellers, based on the best technical information available at that time. The percentage will be determined based on hydrologic conditions, groundwater and surface water modeling, monitoring information, and past transfer data.

From these statements it appears that: (1) the BoR, DWR and other Project Agencies have previously analyzed the amount of stream depletion caused by past groundwater substitution transfers, and (2) the default of 12% BoR-SDF may not be applied to groundwater substitution during the 10 years of transfers because transfer-specific studies will be needed. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide information or cite references on the previous modeling and/or monitoring efforts to determine the correct stream depletion factor. It also doesn’t provide specific information on the method(s) and review process to be used in implementing mitigation measure WS-1, or what additional assessments are needed to determine the “exact percentage” for the BoR-SDF. Mitigation measure WS-1 appears to require that the assessment, the calculation methodology, and determination of the correct BoR-SDF be done at a future time. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t state whether other regulatory agencies and/or the public will have an opportunity in the future to review and comment on the methodology and determination of the “exact percentage” of the BoR-SDF for each groundwater substitution transfer seller. The Draft EIS/EIR also doesn’t state whether other regulatory agencies and/or public comments will be considered by BoR and DWR in determining the BoR-SDF percentage.

The statement that real time stream depletion can’t be directly measured contradicts other statements in the Draft EIS/EIR, requirements of mitigation measure GW-1, and the scientific literature. For example: Section 3.5 of the DTIPWTP states that one of the objectives of the monitoring plan is to:

Determine the extent of surface water-groundwater interaction in the areas where groundwater is pumped for the transfer. (page 34)

This objective is in the project’s monitoring program therefore it appears to
indicate that some method is available for monitoring the surface water-groundwater interactions, not just the pre-pumping model simulations. The Fisheries (3.7) and Vegetation Wildlife (3.8) sections of the Draft EIS/EIR appear to state that flow reductions in surface waterways caused by groundwater substitution pumping will be monitored. Paragraphs similar to the ones given below state that monitoring wells are part of the mitigation measure for surface waters:

In addition, flow reductions as the result of groundwater declines would be observed at monitoring wells in the region and adverse effects on riparian vegetation would be mitigated by implementation of Mitigation Measure GW-1 (See Section 3.3, Groundwater Resources), because it requires monitoring of wells and implementing a mitigation plan if the seller’s monitoring efforts indicate that the operation of the wells for groundwater substitution pumping are causing substantial adverse impacts. The mitigation plan would include curtailment of pumping until natural recharge corrects the environmental impact. Therefore, the impacts to fisheries resources would be less than significant in these streams. (pages 3.7-26 and 3.7-56)

In addition, the Proposed Action has the potential to cause flow reductions of greater than ten percent on other small creeks where no data are available on existing streamflows to be able to determine this. The impacts of groundwater substitution on flows in small streams and associated water ways would be mitigated by implementation of Mitigation Measure GW-1 (see Section 3.3, Groundwater Resources) because it requires monitoring of wells and implementing a mitigation plan if the seller’s monitoring efforts indicate that the operation of the wells for groundwater substitution pumping are causing substantial adverse impacts. The mitigation plan would include curtailment of pumping until natural recharge corrects the environmental impact. Implementation of these measures would reduce significant effects on vegetation and wildlife resources associated with streams to less than significant. (pages 3.8-51, 3.8-58 and 3.8-68)

All of these statements seem to contradict the statement in mitigation measure WS-1 that stream depletion can’t be measured in real time. Although the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide the technical method(s) for determining surface water flow using monitoring in groundwater wells, it’s reliance on mitigation measure GW-1 to ensure that streamflows are adequate implies that a method is available. Because WS-1 and GW-1 both have one of the same objectives, to mitigation streamflow losses due to groundwater substitution pumping, the mitigation measure are linked. Thus, the real time monitoring of groundwater intended to mitigate streamflow losses under GW-1 might also facilitate real time monitoring of streamflow needed for WS-1. I’ll provide in Part 2 of this letter some additional discussion and references to scientific literature on studies and methods for measuring stream seepage and stream depletion caused by groundwater pumping.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to clearly discuss the methods available for determining the value of the BoR-SDF for each groundwater substitution transfer well. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss the procedure for Project Agency review and approval, along with process for review and comment by other public agencies and the public. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss the methods and results of prior BoR-SDF determinations. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to define the data needed to
determine the “exact percentage” of stream depletion from groundwater substitution pumping during the 10-year transfer project, the technical method(s) that will be used to calculate the amount of stream depletion and the BoR-SDF, and the method(s) for monitoring surface water flow losses and verifying the effectiveness of the BoR-SDF and mitigation measure WS-1.

c. Section 3.4.1 of the DTIPWTP discusses calculation of baseline groundwater pumping for groundwater substitution transfers. Baseline groundwater pumping and stream depletion reduction are part of the four-step process for determining the amount of transferable water (page 31). Water transfer sellers wanting to use groundwater substitution pumping are requested to submit information to:

 Identify all wells that discharge to the contiguous surface water delivery system within which a well is proposed for use in the transfer program, and

 The amount of groundwater pumped monthly during 2013 for each well that discharges to the contiguous surface water delivery system.

Section 3.4.2 discusses measuring groundwater pumping provided for groundwater substitution transfers and states that:

 Sellers should provide pumping records from all wells that discharge to a contiguous surface water delivery system used in groundwater substitution transfers. (page 32)

The requirement that the groundwater transfer pumping baseline and metering of transfer pumping be conditioned on the water being discharged to the contiguous surface water delivery system suggests that if the groundwater substitution pumping discharges to a non-contiguous surface water or directly to a field that the establishment of a pre-transfer pumping baseline and transfer metering aren’t required. Is that the case? If it is the case, then how is the amount of transferable water determined whenever the groundwater substitution transfer pumping doesn’t discharge to a contiguous surface water deliver system? If the pre-transfer baseline pumping is removed from the calculation, does that increase or decrease the amount of transferable water and how does that change the BoR-SDF requirement? Is metering required for groundwater substitution transfer wells that don’t discharge to a contiguous surface streams water delivery system? If not, how will measurement of transferred water and the required amount of the BoR-SDF be verified? All of these factors are relevant because they are linked to mitigation measure WS-1 through the DTIPWTP four-step process to determine the amount of transferrable water. The amount of transferrable water incorporates the BoR-SDF to prevent injury and reduce groundwater substitution pumping stream depletion impacts to less than significant.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide a discussion of how the baseline for pre-transfer groundwater pumping will be determined and how metering of all groundwater substitution transfer pumping for wells will be done regardless of whether the well discharges to a contiguous surface water delivery system. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how the BoR-SDF will be determined, monitored, and it’s effectiveness verified for all groundwater substitution transfer wells regardless of whether the well discharges to a contiguous surface water delivery system.
Mitigation Measure GW-1

16. The Draft EIS/EIR has only two mitigation measures that apply to the groundwater substitution transfers, WS-1 and GW-1. GW-1 is the principle mitigation measure for the 10-year transfer project’s Draft EIS/EIR and is discussed in Section 3.3.4.1. The requirements contained in the October 2013 joint DWR and BoR *Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals* (DTIPWTP) and its 2014 Addendum are included in GW-1 by reference. The monitoring and mitigation measures of GW-1 are generally statements of objectives and requirements for development in the future monitoring and mitigation plans that are approved by BoR and perhaps DWR. GW-1 doesn’t appear to provide any future opportunity for review and comment by parties that may be impacted by the groundwater substitution transfers such as the non-participating well owners, the public, or other regulatory agencies. GW-1 has statements such as:

*The monitoring program will incorporate a sufficient number of monitoring wells to accurately characterize groundwater levels and response in the area before, during, and after transfer pumping takes place.* (page 3.3-88)

*The monitoring program will include a plan to coordinate the collection and organization of monitoring data, and communication with the well operators and other decision makers.* (page 3.3-89)

*Potential sellers will also be required to complete and implement a mitigation plan.* (page 3.3-89)

To ensure that mitigation plans will be feasible, effective, and tailored to local conditions, the plan must include the following elements: (page 3.3-90 and 3.3-91)

- A procedure for the seller to receive reports of purported environmental or effects to non-transferring parties;
- A procedure for investigating any reported effect;
- Development of mitigation options, in cooperation with the affected parties, for legitimate significant effects
- Assurances that adequate financial resources are available to cover reasonably anticipated mitigation needs.

*Reclamation will verify that sellers adopt and implement these measures to minimize the potential for adverse effects related to groundwater extraction.* (page 3.3-91)

GW-1 does have some specifics on requirements for the frequency of groundwater level monitoring, such as weekly monitoring during the transfer period (page 3.3-89). Requirements for the frequency of reporting are less specific. Summary tables to BoR during and after transfer-related groundwater pumping, and a summary report sometime after the post-project reporting period. The project reporting period extends through March of the year following the transfer (page 3.3-90). The requirement for only a single year of groundwater monitoring appears to be insufficient given the duration of the simulated pumping impacts (see Figure B-5 in Appendix B). Other reporting requirements such as groundwater elevation contour maps are given as “should be included” rather than “shall be included” (page 3.3-90).

The BoR should already have monitoring and mitigation plans and evaluation reports based on the requirements of the DTIPWTP for past groundwater substitution transfers, which likely were undertaken by some of the same sellers as the proposed 10-year transfer project. The Draft EIS/EIR should provide these existing BoR approved monitoring programs and mitigation plans as examples of what level of technical specificity is required
to meet the objectives of GW-1 that include: (1) mitigate adverse environmental effects that occur; (2) minimize potential effects to other legal users of water; (3) provide a process for review and response to reported effects; and (4) assure that a local mitigation strategy is in place prior to the groundwater transfer (page 3.3-91). In addition, examples of periodic reporting tables and final evaluation reports should be provided to demonstrate the effectiveness of the GW-1 process at preventing or mitigating impacts from the groundwater substitution transfer pumping. Other deficiencies in GW-1 have been discussed above in my comments nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 and 15, and below in comment no. 18.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include specifics on additional requirements that must be part of mitigation measure GW-1 including: (1) required distances from wells and surface water features, and aquifer zones for groundwater elevation monitoring; (2) the duration of the required post-transfer monitoring that accounts for the effects of the 10 years of pumping; (3) specifics requirements on scale and detail for maps, figures and tables needed to document groundwater substitution pumping impacts; and (4) specific threshold for changes in groundwater elevation, groundwater quality and subsidence that will be considered significant. I recommend the Draft EIR/EIS be revised to provide existing BoR approved monitoring and mitigation plans and reports for past groundwater substitution transfers as examples of the types of technical information necessary to ensure no injury with less than significant impacts and appropriate mitigations. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide specifics on how the public will be able to participate in the BoR and DWR approval and revision process for the 10-year transfer project monitoring and mitigation plans. I also recommend the Draft EIS/EIR revise GW-1 to include the issues discussed elsewhere in my comments nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 15 and 18.

Water Quality

17. The Draft EIS/EIR discusses water quality in Section 3.2, but focuses on potential impacts to surface waters. Discussions of impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping on groundwater quality are given in Section 3.3 (pages 3.3-33 to 3.3-35). The Draft EIS/EIR discusses the potential for impacts to groundwater quality from migration of contaminants as a result of groundwater substitution pumping, but provides only a general description of the current condition of groundwater quality. Section 3.3 gives the following statements on water quality:

Groundwater Quality: Changes in groundwater levels and the potential change in groundwater flow directions could cause a change in groundwater quality through a number of mechanisms. One mechanism is the potential mobilization of areas of poorer quality water, drawn down from shallow zones, or drawn up into previously unaffected areas. Changes in groundwater gradients and flow directions could also cause (and speed) the lateral migration of poorer quality water. (pages 3.3-59 and 3.3-60)

Degradation in groundwater quality such that it would exceed regulatory standards or would substantially impair reasonably anticipated beneficial uses of groundwater; or (page 3.3-61)

Additional pumping is not expected to be in locations or at rates that would cause substantial long-term changes in groundwater levels that would cause changes to groundwater quality. Consequently, changes to groundwater quality due to increased pumping would be less than significant in the Redding Area Groundwater Basin. (page 3.3-66)
Inducing the movement or migration of reduced quality water into previously unaffected areas through groundwater pumping is not likely to be a concern unless groundwater levels and/or flow patterns are substantially altered for a long period of time. Groundwater extraction under the Proposed Action would be limited to short-term withdrawals during the irrigation season. Consequently, effects from the migration of reduced groundwater quality would be less than significant. (page 3.3-83)

Groundwater extracted could be of reduced quality relative to the surface water supply deliveries the seller districts normally receive; however, groundwater quality in the area is normally adequate for agricultural purposes. Distribution of groundwater for municipal supply is subject to groundwater quality monitoring and quality limits prior to distribution to customers. Therefore, potential impacts to the distribution of groundwater would be minimal and this impact would be less than significant. (page 3.3-84)

The Draft EIS/EIR notes that several groundwater quality programs are active in the seller regions (pages 3.3-6 to 3.3-10). No maps are provided that show the baseline groundwater quality and known areas of poor or contaminated groundwater. Groundwater quality information on the Sacramento Valley area is available from existing reports by the USGS (1984, 2008b, 2010, and 2011) and Northern California Water Association (NCWA, 2014c). The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t compare the known groundwater quality problem areas with the SACFEM2013 simulated drawdowns to demonstrate that the proposed projects won’t draw in or expand the areas of known poor water quality. The Draft EIS/EIR analysis doesn’t appear to consider the impacts to the quality of water from private wells. Pumping done as part of the groundwater substitution transfer may cause water quality impacts from geochemical changes resulting from a lowering the water table below historic elevations, which exposes aquifer material to different oxidation/reduction potentials and can alter the mixing ratio of different quality aquifer zones being pumped. Changes in groundwater level can also alter the direction and/or rate of movement of contaminated groundwater plumes both horizontally and vertically, which may expose non-participating wells to contaminants they would not otherwise encounter.

As noted above in my general comment no. 7, the DWR well depth summary maps for the northern Sacramento Valley show that there are potentially thousands of private well owners in and adjacent to the proposed project areas of the groundwater substitution drawdown. Exhibit 2.1 has a composite map of DWR’s northern Sacramento Valley well depth summary maps (DWR, 2014a) for the shallow aquifer zone, wells less than 150 feet deep and the areas of groundwater decline from 2004 to 2014 (DWR, 2014b). Exhibit 7.1 has a table that summarizes the range of the number of shallow wells by county that lie within the areas of groundwater decline from 2004 to 2014. In my general comment no. 5, I discussed the concept of capture zones for wells and the need for groundwater modeling using particle tracking to identify the areas where a well receives recharge. Particle tracking to define a well capture zone(s) can also be used to determine if known zones or areas of poor or contaminated water will migrate as a result of the groundwater substitution transfer pumping. Particle tracking can also identify private and municipal wells that lie within the capture zone of a groundwater substitution transfer well and might experience a reduction in water quality from the transfer pumping. Particle tracking can identify locations where mitigation monitoring of groundwater quality should be conducted to quantify changes in groundwater quality.

Even though there are already a number of shallow wells impacted by historic groundwater level declines, the Draft EIS/EIR reaches the conclusion that the groundwater substitution transfer pumping will not cause injury or a significant impact to groundwater quality. This
conclusion is reached in part because the assumed beneficial use of groundwater substitution pumped water is agricultural, or urban, where the quality of water delivered is monitored by an urban water agency. Only these two beneficial uses are assumed even though Table 3.2-2 lists numerous other uses for waters in the seller service areas. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide sufficient information on existing water quality conditions in the Sacramento Valley to allow for evaluation of potential geochemical changes that groundwater substitution pumping might cause. The Draft EIS/EIR sets a standard of significance in degradation of groundwater quality that requires contaminants exceed regulatory standards or impair reasonably anticipated beneficial uses (page 3.3-61). This standard of significance ignores the regulatory requirements of the Water Quality Control Basin Plans (Basin Plans) (http://www.waterboards.ca.gov/centralvalley/water_issues/basin_plans/index.shtml). The Draft EIS/EIR only briefly discusses the role of the Basin Plans in maintaining water quality (page 3.2-7). In addition this water quality threshold of significance likely violates the State Water Resources Control Board Resolution No. 68-16, titled Statement of Policy with Respect to Maintaining High Quality of Waters in California, that states:

“Whenever the existing quality of water is better than the quality established in policies as of the date on which such policies became effective, such existing high quality will be maintained until it has been demonstrated to the state that any change will be consistent with the maximum benefit to the people of the state, will not unreasonably affect present and anticipated beneficial use of such water and will not result in water quality less than that prescribed in the policies.”

“The nondegradation policy of the State Board (Resolution No. 68-16) applies to surface and groundwaters that are currently better quality than the quality established in 'adopted policies.' In terms of water quality objectives, the basin plans are the source of adopted policies.”

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to document the known condition of the groundwater quality in the Sacramento Valley and Redding Basin and include available maps. I recommend that this assessment evaluate the potential impacts from migration of known areas of poor groundwater quality that could be further impaired or spread as a result of the groundwater substitution transfer pumping. I recommend a groundwater quality mitigation measure be provided for evaluation the existing water quality in wells (assuming owner cooperation) within and adjacent to known areas of poor groundwater quality that lie within and adjacent to the simulated groundwater transfer drawdown areas, especially those that lie within the capture zone. I recommend the groundwater quality mitigation measure include: (1) procedures for sampling wells, (2) methods of water quality analysis, (3) a QA/QC program, (4) standards and threshold for water quality impairment consistent with public health requirements and Basin Plan beneficial uses and SWRCB Resolution No. 68-16, (5) provisions for independent oversight and review by regulatory agencies and affected well owners, and (6) specific reporting and notification requirements that keep the owners of non-participating wells, the public, and regulatory agencies informed. I recommend the groundwater quality mitigation measure include provisions for modification and/or treatment of non-participating wells should the quality of water delivered be significantly altered by groundwater substitution transfers. I recommend the groundwater quality mitigation measure be in effect during the 10-year period of transfer pumping and the following recovery period until groundwater flows return to the pre-project condition. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR also
require a funding mechanism for implementing the groundwater quality mitigation measures for the entire 10-year duration of the groundwater substitution transfers and the recovery period. I recommend the costs of the groundwater quality mitigation monitoring be the responsibility of the project proponents, not the non-participating wells owners or the public. These costs should include reimbursement of any costs incurred by regulatory agency oversight and costs incurred by non-participating well owners.

Subsidence

18. The impacts of subsidence due to groundwater substitution transfer pumping are discussed in Section 3.3. Section 3.3.1.3.2 discusses groundwater-related land subsidence and notes that Global Positioning System (GPS) surveying is conducted by DWR every three years at 339 elevation survey monuments throughout the northern Sacramento Valley (page 3.3-28). In addition, eleven extensometers, as shown in Figure 3.3-11, monitor land subsidence. Figure 3.3-11 provides graphs of the subsidence for five of the eleven extensometers; no information is provided on the results on the GPS surveys. Mitigation measure GW-1 also incorporates by reference the October 2013 DTIPWRP and its 2014 Addendum. The DTIPWRP doesn’t add any additional monitoring or mitigation requirements for subsidence, stating that areas that are susceptible to land subsidence may require land surface elevation surveys, and that the Project Agencies will work with the water transfer proponent to develop a mutually agreed upon subsidence monitoring program (pages 34 and 37). Apparently the Draft EIS/EIR expects that the mutually agreed upon subsidence monitoring programs will be a future mitigation measure. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t discuss how other regulatory agencies or the public will participate in the reviewing and commenting on any future subsidence mitigation measure.

The Draft EIS/EIR relies on local GMPs and county ordinances to prevent impacts from subsidence, but doesn’t discuss any specific monitoring or mitigation measures for each proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping area (page 3.3-7). The Draft EIS/EIR acknowledges that subsidence has occurred in the past in portions of the Sacramento Valley in Yolo County (page 3.3-29), and that the Redding groundwater basin has never been monitored (page 3.3-17). Yet only a qualitative assessment of potential project impacts was done by comparing SACFEM2013 simulated groundwater drawdowns with areas of existing subsidence and by comparing estimates of pre-consolidated heads/historic low heads (page 3.3-61).

The Draft EIS/EIR relies on the mitigation measure GW-1 to prevent and remedy any significant impacts from subsidence. The requirements in mitigation measure GW-1 for subsidence impacts specify that the BoR will determine, apparently in the future and only when mutually agreed upon, the “strategic” monitoring locations throughout the transfer area where land surface elevations will be measured at the beginning and end of each transfer year (page 3.3-89). When the land surface elevation survey indicates an elevation decrease in an area, more subsidence monitoring will be required, which could include: (1) extensometer monitoring, (2) continuous GPS monitoring, or (3) extensive land-elevation benchmark surveys conducted by a licensed surveyor. More extensive monitoring will be required for areas of documented historic or higher susceptibility to land subsidence (page 3.3-89). The Draft EIS/EIR concludes that with these subsidence monitoring mitigation measures of GW-1, impacts will be reduced to less than significant (page 3.3-66).

Exhibits 8.1a to 8.1c provides composite maps using as a base DWR’s Spring 2004 to 2014 Change in Groundwater Elevations (DWR, 2014b) for the shallow (less than 200 feet bgs), intermediate (200 to 600 feet bgs) and the deep (greater than 600 feet bgs) aquifer.
zones in the northern Sacramento Valley. A map of the natural gas pipelines in the Sacramento Valley (Exhibit 8.6) has been scaled and combined with Exhibits 8.1a to 8.1c. Exhibit 8.2 depicts on DWR’s (2014b) intermediate zone change in groundwater elevation map, the locations of extensometers and the GPS subsidence grid (from Figure 6 in DWR, 2008; Exhibit 8.4), and the known subsidence area southeast of Williams and into Yolo County (from Draft EIS/EIR Figure 3.3-11).

The subsidence area in Yolo County isn’t fully shown on the DWR’s 2014 groundwater elevation change maps, but is shown in the composite maps (Exhibits 8.1a to 8.1c). These exhibits and Exhibit 8.2 show that the western line of extensometers lies along the eastern edge of the intermediate zone of greatest groundwater elevation change, and aligns with the central axis of the mapped changes in groundwater elevation in deeper aquifer zone. The extensometers don’t appear to lie within the area of known subsidence southeast of Williams and into Yolo County (Figure 3.3-11). The GPS subsidence grid network does extend across eastern portion of the known subsidence area southeast of Williams and into Yolo County depicted in Figure 3.3-11 and the groundwater elevation change in the intermediate aquifer zone southwest of Orland (Exhibit 8.2).

Although there are several areas in the Sacramento Valley of known decrease in groundwater elevations, known areas of subsidence (Faunt, ed., 2009; Exhibit 8.3), and apparently a GPS network with repeated elevation measurements (Exhibit 8.4), the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide any specific information on the “strategic” locations where groundwater substitution pumping done under the 10-year transfer project will require additional subsidence monitoring. The historic subsidence data along with the GPS grid elevation data, historic groundwater elevation change data and the future areas of drawdown from the 10 years of groundwater substitution pumping shown in Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31 should be sufficient information to develop the initial “strategic” locations for monitoring potential subsidence. The Draft EIS/EIR should be able to provide the specific thresholds of subsidence that will trigger the need for additional extensometer monitoring, continuous GPS monitoring, or extensive land-elevation benchmark surveys by a licensed surveyor as required by GW-1. The Draft EIS/EIR should also specify in mitigation measure GW-1, the frequency and methods of collecting and reporting subsidence measurements, and discuss how the non-participating landowners and the public can obtain this information in a timely manner. In addition, the Draft EIS/EIR should provide a discussion of the thresholds that will trigger implementation of the reimbursement mitigation measure required by GW-1 for repair or modifications to infrastructure damaged by non-reversible subsidence, and the procedures for seeking monetary recovery from subsidence damage (page 3.3-90). The revised Draft EIS/EIR should review the information provided by Galloway and others (2008), and the Pipeline Research Council International (2009) regarding land subsidence hazards.

An objective of the mitigation measure GW-1 is to mitigate adverse environmental effects from groundwater substitution transfer pumping (page 3.3-88). As part of the preliminary assessment of potential environmental impacts from subsidence due to groundwater substitution pumping, a review and determination of the critical structures that might be impacts is recommended. There are a number of critical structures in the Sacramento Valley that may be susceptible to settlement and lateral movement. These include natural gas pipelines, gas transfer and storage facilities, gas wells, railroads, bridges, water and sewer pipelines, water wells, canals, levees, other industrial facilities. Exhibits 8.5 to 8.11 provide several maps of gas pipeline, and gas and oil related facilities obtained from the web sites of the CA Energy Commission (CEC) and the CA Department of Conservation’s Division of Oil, Gas and Geothermal Resources (DOGGR). In addition, composite maps (Exhibits 8.1a
to 8.1c) are provided that show the locations of the natural gas pipelines (Exhibit 8.6) with the DWR 2004 to 2014 change in groundwater elevation maps (DWR, 2014b). Additional maps of railroads, bridges, canals, levees, water and sewer pipelines and important industrial facilities should be sought and the location of those structures compared to the potential areas of subsidence from groundwater substitution transfer pumping. Specific “strategic” subsidence monitoring locations should be given in mitigation measure GW-1 based on analysis of the susceptible infrastructure locations and the potential subsidence areas. The local, state and federal agencies that regulate these critical structures and pipelines as well as the facility owners should be contacted for information on the limitations on the amount of movement and subsidence the infrastructures can withstand. The limitations on movement and subsidence should be incorporated into any triggers or thresholds for additional monitoring and implementing mitigations needed to reduce subsidence impacts to less than significant and cause no injury.

I recommend that: (1) the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide information on initial “strategic” locations and types of subsidence monitoring that are necessary based on the existing conditions and the proposed groundwater substitution pumping areas; (2) the Draft EIS/EIR and mitigation measure GW-1 be revised to provide specific thresholds of subsidence that will trigger the need for additional subsidence monitoring; (3) mitigation measure GW-1 be revised to include the frequency and methods of collecting and reporting subsidence measurements; (4) the Draft EIS/EIR discuss how the non-participating landowners and the public can obtain subsidence information in a timely manner; (5) the Draft EIS/EIR and GW-1 be revised to provide the thresholds that trigger implementation of the reimbursement mitigation measure required by GW-1 for repair or modifications to infrastructure damaged by non-reversible subsidence along with the procedures for seeking monetary recovery from subsidence damage; and (6) the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide a map and inventory of critical structures in the Sacramento Valley that may be susceptible to settlement and lateral movement. These structures should include natural gas pipelines, gas transfer and storage facilities, gas wells, power plants, railroads, bridges, water and sewer pipelines, water wells, canals, levees, other industrial facilities. I further recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR solicit advice from local, state and federal agencies, as well as the infrastructure owners on the amount of subsidence that these critical structures and pipelines can withstand, and provide copies of their responses and incorporate their requirements in mitigation measure GW-1 to ensure the stability and function of these facilities.

Geology and Seismicity

19. Environmental impacts from the project to geologic and soil resources are discussed in Section 3.4 of the Draft EIS/EIR. The Draft EIS/EIR assumes that because the projects don’t involve the construction or modification of infrastructure that could be adversely affected by seismic events, seismicity is not discussed in this section. The Geology and Soils section therefore focused on chemical processes, properties, and potential erodibility of soils due to cropland idling transfers. Impacts of subsidence are discussed in Section 3.3 of the Draft EIS/EIR and above in my comment no. 18.

The Draft EIS/EIR reasoning that because the projects don’t involve new construction or modification of existing structures that there are no potential seismic impacts from the activity undertaken during the transfers is incorrect. The project area has numerous
existing structures that could be affected by the groundwater substitution transfer pumping, specifically settlement induced by subsidence. Although the seismicity in the Sacramento Valley is lower than many areas of California, it’s not insignificant. There is a potential for the groundwater substitution transfer projects to increase the impacts of seismic shaking because of subsidence causing additional stress on existing structures. The discussion in Section 3.3 on potential subsidence from groundwater substitution pumping was only qualitative because the SACFEM2013 simulations didn’t calculate an estimate of subsidence from the transfer projects (page 3.3-61). The subsidence assessment also didn’t acknowledge or consider the numerous natural gas pipelines or other critical facilities and structures that occur the Sacramento Valley. Exhibits 8.5 to 8.11 provide a series of maps that show some of the major natural gas pipelines, oil refineries, terminal storage, and power plants in the Sacramento Valley. In addition, there are a number of railroads, bridges, canals, and water and sewer pipelines within the transfer project area. As I discussed in my comment no. 18 on subsidence impacts, some of these existing structures and pipelines are sited within or traverse areas of known subsidence, existing areas of large groundwater drawdown, and areas within the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping. There are a number of technical documents on seismic impacts to pipelines (O’Rouke and Norberg, 1992; O’Rouke and Liu, 1999, 2012) as well as a proceeding from a recent ASCE conference on pipelines (Miami, Florida, August 2012).

The characteristics of future seismic shaking in California can be assessed using the following web resources provided by the California Geological Survey (CGS) in conjunction with the U.S. Geological Survey and other academic and professional organizations:

- Probabilistic Seismic Ground Motion Interpolator web site: [http://www.quake.ca.gov/gmaps/PSHA/psha_interpolator.html](http://www.quake.ca.gov/gmaps/PSHA/psha_interpolator.html)

In addition to the potential impacts to existing infrastructure from seismic shaking, the occurrence of faults within the Sacramento Valley may influence the movement of groundwater. The USGS-CVHM groundwater model (Faunt, ed., 2009) incorporated a number of horizontal flow groundwater barriers (Figure C1-A, pages 160, 203, and 204; Exhibits 9.1, 9.2, 9.3a and 9.3b) that appear to align with faults shown in a series of screen plots from the interactive web site 2010 Fault Activity Map for California (CGS, 2010) (Exhibits 9.4a to 9.4d, 9.5 and 9.6). The SACFEM2013 model documentation didn’t indicate that faults were considered as potential flow barriers and the resulting simulation maps in Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31 don’t show any flow barriers.

I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to: (1) assess the potential environmental impacts from seismic shaking on critical structures and pipelines in areas of potential subsidence caused by the groundwater substitution transfer pumping; (2) provide maps that identify and locate existing pipelines and critical structures such as storage facilities, railroads and bridges within the areas
affected by groundwater substitution pumping; (3) solicit and provide results of the advice from local, state and federal agencies, as well as the infrastructure owners, on the amount of subsidence that these critical structures and pipelines can withstand under in both static and seismic conditions; (4) provide a mitigation measure(s) that addresses the requirements for monitoring the subsidence in the area of these critical structures and pipelines; and (5) provide specific monitoring and reporting requirements for potential seismic impacts to critical structures that includes establishing any additional structures for monitoring and taking subsidence measurements, and conducting additional periodic surveys of ground elevation and displacement. I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide the thresholds that trigger implementation of the reimbursement mitigation measure required by GW-1 for repair or modifications to infrastructure that may be damaged by seismic movement in areas that have exceeded the thresholds for non-reversible subsidence, and provide procedures for seeking monetary recovery from subsidence damage. I also recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss the importance and impacts of the horizontal flow barriers and/or faults within the Sacramento Valley on the results of the drawdown and stream depletion simulations of SACFEM2013.

II. Additional Technical Information Relevant to the Assessment of Potential Environmental Impacts from the 10-Year Groundwater Substitution Transfers.

Historic Changes in Groundwater Storage

20. The Draft EIS/EIR provides SACFEM2013 simulations of groundwater substitution transfer pumping effects for WY 1970 to WY 2003. The discussion of the simulation didn’t provide specifics on how the model simulated the current conditions of the Sacramento Valley groundwater system or the potential impacts from the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project based on current conditions. A DWR groundwater contour map, Figure 3.3-4, shows the elevations in the spring of 2013 for wells screened at depths greater than 100 ft. bgs. and less than 400 ft. bgs. Figures 3.3-8 and 3.3-9 provide the locations and simulation hydrographs for selected monitoring wells in the Sacramento Valley. Appendix E provides additional monitoring well simulation hydrographs for selected wells at locations shown on Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31. As discusses above in comments no. 7, these hydrographs appear to show only simulated groundwater elevations. Actual measured groundwater elevations are needed to evaluate the accuracy of the simulations. The Draft EIS/EIR briefly discusses on page 3.3-12 the groundwater production, levels and storage for the Redding Basin, and on pages 3.3-21 to 3.3-27 there is a similar discussion for the Sacramento Valley. Faunt (ed., 2009) is cited for the conditions of the Sacramento Valley groundwater budget and Figure 3.3-10, taken from Faunt (ed., 2009; Figure B9; Exhibit 10.2a), shows the historic change in groundwater storage in the Central Valley as determined by the CVHM model simulations. Based in part on the information in Faunt (ed., 2009), the Draft EIS/EIR concludes that the Sacramento Valley basin’s groundwater storage has been relatively constant over the long term, decreasing during dry years and increasing during wetter periods. However, the Draft EIR/EIS’s discussion of the status of groundwater in the Sacramento Valley doesn’t utilize all of the information on groundwater storage or water balance available in Faunt (ed., 2009), more recent simulation studies by Brush and others (2013a and 2013b), or the summary of groundwater conditions in recent reports by the Northern California Water Association (NCWA) (2014a and 2014b).
Faunt (ed., 2009) provides in Table B3 (Exhibit 10.1) selected average annual hydrologic budget values for WYs 1962-2003. In addition, Figures B10-A and B10-B of Faunt (ed., 2009) show bar graphs for the average annual groundwater budget for the Sacramento Valley and the Delta and Eastside Streams (Exhibits 10.2b and 10.2c). Table B3 gives the water balances for subregions in the Sacramento Valley (1 to 7) and the Eastside Streams (8). Table B3 gives values for the net storage from specific yield and compressibility of water; positive values indicate an increase in storage, while a negative value is a decrease. For Sacramento Valley, the sum of the annual average from 1962 to 2003 in net storage is given as -99,000 AFY and for the Eastside streams -26,000 AFY. Unfortunately, the components in Table B3 don’t seem to be a complete groundwater water budget, so following the calculations of the average annual net change in groundwater storage isn’t obvious. Figures 10A and 10B (Exhibits 10.2a and10.2b), however, do provide bar graphs of the groundwater water budgets with values for the entire Sacramento Valley and the Delta and Eastside Streams. If it’s assumed that groundwater pumping shown as a negative value in Figures 10A and 10B represents an outflow from groundwater storage, then other negative values would also be considered outflows. Positive values are therefore assumed to be inflows to groundwater storage.

For the entire Sacramento Valley (subregions 1 to 7), Faunt (ed., 2009) shows the net change in annual groundwater storage as the sum of the negative outflows and positive inflow in Figure 10A at a negative 650,000 AFY (-0.65 million AFY) (2.88 – [0.29+0.03+1.66+1.37+0.18] = 2.88 – 3.53 = -0.65). The values in Figure 10B can be summed in a similar manner and yield a net change in storage of a positive 90,000 AFY for the Delta and Eastside Streams. Unfortunately, the bar graph in Figure 10B for the Eastside Streams (subregion 8) doesn’t have numerical values. A visual comparison of the inflow and outflow bars suggests that for subregion 8 the outflows, mostly pumping, are at or slightly greater than the inflows.

The groundwater budget information by Faunt (ed., 2009) can be compared with two other more recent sources of Sacramento Valley information contained in four documents, Brush and others (2013a and 2013b) and NCWA (2014a and 2014b). Brush and others report on the recent version of the C2VSim groundwater model (version R374) and provide simulation results. The NCWA reports also used the C2VSim (R374) model, but provided additional analysis and results of the historic land development, water use and water balances in Sacramento Valley. Some of the information developed by Brush and others (2013a and 2013b), and Faunt (ed., 2009) on the condition of the Sacramento Valley groundwater system was previously discussed in my comments on the SACFEM2013 model simulations, nos. 8 to 14.

My comment no. 14 on groundwater flow between subregions is also relevant to this discussion of the historic changes in groundwater storage. Accounting for the transfer of groundwater between regions is critical for understanding the impacts of pumping in one region or area on the adjacent regions. The sources of water backfilling a groundwater depression don’t all have to come from surface waters, ie., stream depletion, precipitation, deep percolation, and artificial recharge. Some of that “recharge” can come from adjacent aquifers by horizontal and vertical flow. When pumping creates a depression in the water table or piezometric surface, the depression steepens the gradient thereby increasing the rate of flow towards it; the depression can also change the direction of groundwater flow. Often the “recharge” to a pumping depression comes from adjacent groundwater storage that lies outside the zone of influence of the pumping. When the rates and volumes of recharge from surface waters are insufficient to rapidly backfill a pumping depression, the impact on groundwater storage and elevations in adjacent regions increases.
Brush and others (2013a) provide a breakdown of water budget by subregion, Tables 10 to 13 (Exhibits 6.3a to 6.3d), but only for the selected three decades (1922-1929, 1960-1969, and 2000-2009), and for the total modeled period from 1922 to 2009. They do provide values for the change in groundwater storage for all 21 of the Central Valley subregions and 5 hydrologic regions. Of particular importance to the discussion of the current condition of the groundwater basin are the results of the C2VSim simulations of the annual average change in groundwater storage for each of the three decades and from 1922 to 2009, Tables 10 to 13 (Exhibits 6.3a to 6.3d). For the Sacramento Valley (subregions 1 to 7), Table 10 lists the 1922-2009 change in storage as -165,417 AFY (I'm assuming the units of the table are acre-feet), and for the Eastern Streams (subregion 8) -135,304 AFY. For the most recent decade, 2000-2009, the average annual change in groundwater storage has increased in both the Sacramento Valley and the Eastern Streams to -303,425 AFY and -140,715 AFY, respectively (Table 13). Although the tables in Brush and others don’t list the groundwater flow between subbasins, Figures 81A to 81C (2013a) and Figure 39 (2013b) (Exhibits 6.1a to 6.1c and 6.2) provide this information for the selected decades and for the total simulation period. As discussed above in my comment no. 14, the change in interbasin groundwater flow can be significant particularly when recharge in a region is deficient. The Draft EIS/EIR should specifically discuss and account for any changes in the rate and direction of interbasin groundwater flow. Interbasin groundwater flow may become a hidden long-term impact that increases the time needed for recovery of groundwater levels from groundwater substitution transfer pumping, and can extend the impact from groundwater substitution transfer pumping to areas outside of the groundwater substitution transfer seller’s boundary.

Two recent reports on the condition of groundwater in the Sacramento Valley are provided by the Northern California Water Association (NCWA, 2014a and 2014b). Tables 3-6, 3-7, and 3-8 in the NCWA technical supplement report (2014b; Exhibits 10.5a to 10.5c) provide water balance information for the Sacramento Valley for the same three decades as Brush and others (2013a). The NCWA tables separate the water balance elements into three types, land uses (Table 3-6), streams and rivers (Table 3-7), and groundwater (Table 3-8). The values of the change in groundwater storage given in Table 3-8 are similar to those given by Brush and others (2013a). The NCWA technical supplement report (2014b) also provides additional information on the 1922 to 2009 water balance through the use of graphs and bar charts. Figures 3-22 and 3-24 (Exhibits 10.6c and 10.6d) provide graphs of simulated estimates of annual groundwater pumping in the Sacramento Valley and the annual stream accretion. Positive stream accretion occurs when groundwater discharges to surface water, negative when groundwater is recharged. Other graphs include simulated deep percolation, Figures 3-26 and 3-27 (Exhibits 10.6e and 10.6f), annual diversions, Figures 3-19 and 3-20 (Exhibits 10.6a and 10.6b), and relative percentages of surface water to groundwater supplies, Figure 3-29 (10.6g).

The NCWA technical supplement report (2014b) notes in Sections 3.8 and 3.8.4 that negative changes in groundwater storage... suggest that the groundwater basin is under stress and experiencing overdraft in some locations. Review of the Sacramento Valley water balance, as characterized based on C2VSim R374 and summarized in Tables 3-6 through 3-8 reveals substantial changes in water balance parameters over time that affect overall groundwater conditions. ... Over time, it appears that losses from surface streams have increased as a result of declining groundwater levels. The declining levels result from increased demand for groundwater as a source of supply without corresponding increases in groundwater recharge. (page 41)
A contributing factor to the decrease in accretions to rivers and streams over the last 90 years is that deep percolation of surface water supplies (and other forms of recharge) has not increased in a manner that offsets increased groundwater pumping. (page 48)

The simulated groundwater pumping graph in NCWA Figure 3-22 and stream accretion graph in NCWA Figure 3-24 were combined into one graph by scaling and adjusting their axes (Exhibits 10.7). The vertical scales of these two graphs were adjusted so that a zero value of stream accretion aligned with 1.5 million acre-feet (MAF) of annual groundwater pumping. This alignment was done to reflect the fact that in the early 1920s, groundwater pumping was approximately 0.5 MAF per year (MAFY) while stream accretion was approximately 1.0 MAF. As shown in the combined graph, stream accretion generally decreases at approximately the same rate as groundwater pumping increases. Thus, at a point of no appreciable groundwater pumping, pre-1920s, the total long-term average annual stream accretion was likely 1.5 MAF, based on the C2VSim simulations.

Drawn on top of the stream depletion and groundwater pumping graphs are several visually fit, straight trend lines. These lines, which run from 1940 to the mid-1970s and the late 1980s to mid-1990s, are mirror images reflected around the horizontal 0 accretion axis. Information provided at the bottom of the composite graph was taken from NCWA Tables 3-7 and 3-8 (Exhibits 10.5b and 10.5c). The slope of the trend line from 1940 to the mid-1970s is approximately (+-)27,000 AFY, and (+-)85,000 AFY in the late 1980s to the mid-1990s; a 3-fold increase in slope. After the mid-1990s the slope of groundwater pumping flattens to be similar to that of the 1940s–mid-1970s, while the stream depletion line became almost flat, i.e., no change in rate of accretion. The reason for the stream depletion rate being flat is unknown, but there are several factors that could contribute to a fixed rate of stream accretion.

First, after depleting 1.5 MAFY from the Sacramento Valley streams, the surface waters may not be able to provide much more, at least no increase to match the pumping. Second, this may also be a consequence of the model design because the number of streams simulated was limited. Third, the model’s grid may not extend out far enough to encompass all of the streams that contribute to groundwater recharge. More information on the areas of where streams gain and lose in the Sacramento Valley is needed to determine if there are any sections of stream, gaining or losing, that might still have the ability to interact at a variable rate in the future, i.e., during and after the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project.

A third graph is drawn on the composite accretion-pumping graph in Exhibit 10.7 that shows the C2VSim simulated cumulative change in groundwater storage for the Sacramento Valley from 1922 to 2009. This graph was taken from Figure 35 of Brush and others, 2013b (Exhibit 10.4). A straight trend line with a negative slope of approximately -163,417 AFY is drawn on top of the third graph, which is the value for average annual change in storage from 1922 to 2009 given in Table 10 of Brush and others (2013a; Exhibit 6.3a) for the seven subregions of the Sacramento Valley. The selected graph of the cumulative change in groundwater storage is one of three available.

The graph of cumulative change in groundwater storage for the Sacramento Valley in Figure 35 differs from the graph in Figure 83 in Brush and others (2013a; Exhibit 10.3) and in Figure B9 of Faunt (ed., 2009; Exhibit 10.2a). Both of Figure 83 and Figure B9 show a gain in groundwater storage with their Sacramento Valley graphs lying generally above the horizontal line of zero change in storage. The cumulative change in groundwater storage graph from Figure 35 (Exhibit 10.4) was selected because:
• its slope is a close match for the average annual change in storage from 1922 to 2009 of -163,417 AFY given in Table 10,
• the values for change in groundwater storage in the three selected decades are all negative (Table 3-8, NCWA, 2014b), which the other two graphs don’t clearly indicate,
• the calculation of average annual change in groundwater storage from 1962 to 2003 shown in Table B3 and Figures B10-A and B10-B of Faunt (ed., 2009) are negative, which conflicts with Figures B9 and 83, and
• change in DWR groundwater elevation maps from spring 2004 to spring 2014 (Exhibit 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3) suggest that there are significant regions of the Sacramento Valley that have lost groundwater storage, which suggests that the current condition is one of a loss in storage rather than a gain.

Additional review and analysis of the changes in groundwater storage in the Sacramento Valley is needed. Any additional review of changes in groundwater storage in the Sacramento Valley should consider the recent changes in groundwater elevations such as those shown in DWR (2014b) for WYs 2004 to 2014, and Figures 2-4 and 2-5 of NCWA, 2014b (Exhibit 10.8 and 10.9), as well as other studies such as the support documents for the regional IRWMPs.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide a more comprehensive assessment of the historic change in groundwater storage in the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin, and other seller sources areas within the proposed 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project. I also recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to include an assessment of the impacts of groundwater flow among subregions due to the proposed 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project.

The Concept of the Stream Depletion Factor, SDF

21. The Draft EIS/EIR proposes that a stream depletion factor, BoR-SDF, be applied to groundwater substitution transfers as mitigation for flow losses due to groundwater pumping. The Draft EIS/EIR implies that the BoR-SDF will be a fixed percentage of the transferred groundwater substitution water. The main text of the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t clearly specify the BoR-SDF percentage, but appended documents state that the default is 12%, unless available monitoring data analyzed by Project Agencies supports the need for the development of a transfer proposal site-specific SDF (page 33 in the DTIPWTP). Elsewhere in the Draft EIS/EIR, the average annual surface water–groundwater interaction losses are estimated at approximately 15,800 AF and in multiple dry years losses of 71,200 AFY are anticipated (page 3.1-18). The Draft EIS/EIR proposes mitigation measure WS-1, which utilizes the BoR-SDF with the transfers to account for the losses from stream depletions, and thereby reduces the water supply impacts to less than significant (page 3.1-18). As I discussed above in my comment no. 9, the maximum annual groundwater substitution pumping is 290,495 AF as calculated from Table 2-5. The estimated annual average surface water–groundwater interaction loss of 15,800 AF is 5.4 % of the maximum allowable annual groundwater substitution transfer, while a loss of 71,200 AF is 24.5%.

The use of a fixed percentage of transfer water to mitigate increased stream flow losses from the groundwater substitution pumping may not result in the reduction of stream flow impacts to less than significant. I’ve discussed above in my comment no. 15 several of the issues about the design of mitigation measure WS-1. The following are additional comments on WS-1 specific to the fixed percentage BoR-SDF and how it differs from the concept of stream depletion commonly used in scientific literature.
Jenkins (1968a and b; Barlow and Leake, 2012) defined the “stream depletion factor” (herein called the Jenkins-SDF) as the product of the square of the distance between a well and a surface water body \((a^2)\) multiplied by the storage coefficient (S or Sy) divided by the transmissivity (T) (Jenkins-SDF = distance\(^2\) x storage coefficient/transmissivity = \(a^2 \times \frac{S}{T}\)) (see Table 1 and page 14 in Barlow and Leake, 2012). The units of the Jenkins-SDF are in time, i.e., days, years, etc. The Jenkins-SDF also occurs in Theis’ well function, \(W(u)\) (see pages 136 and 150 in Domenico and Schwartz, 1990). Domenico and Schwartz (1990) showed that the Jenkins-SDF can be expressed as a dimensionless Fourier number, which occurs in all unsteady groundwater flow problems. The Jenkins-SDF has several other important characteristics that are not part of the BoR-SDF, which likely influence the actual rate and volume of surface water lost due to groundwater substitution transfer pumping.

1. The value of stream depletion varies with the duration of pumping and unlike the BoR-SDF isn’t a fixed value. For an ideal aquifer (homogeneous, isotropic and infinite), two ideal curves normalized to the Jenkins-SDF value can be created that show stream depletion as a percentage of the total pumping rate or total pumped volume against the normalized logarithm of pumping time (see Figure 1 from Miller and Durnford, 2005; Exhibit 11.1). In Figure 1, equation no. 1 shows the instantaneous rate of stream depletion as a percentage of the maximum pumping rate versus the logarithm of normalized time, and equation no. 2 shows the volume of depletion as a percentage of the total volume pumped versus the logarithm of normalized time. Jenkins somewhat arbitrarily defined his SDF as the pumping duration equal to the calculated stream depletion factor \(a^2 \times S/T\). Jenkins noted that for the ideal aquifer at the time of the SDF, the cumulative volume of water depleted from the stream equals 28% of the total volume pumped (Jenkins, 1968a; Wallace and Durnford, 2005 and 2007). As shown in Figure 1 in Exhibit 11.1, when the actual pumping duration is normalized to the Jenkins-SDF, the ideal volume curve always goes through 28% when the pumping time equals the Jenkins-SDF (time/SDF = 1; Jenkins, 1968a).

2. An important factor in the Jenkins-SDF is that stream depletion varies with the square of the distance between the well and the stream, whereas, the depletion rate varies only linearly with changes in S or T. The ratio of T/S is also called the hydraulic diffusivity, D, which has units of length\(^2\)/time (see Table 1 and Box A in Barlow and Leake, 2012). The rate that hydraulic stress propagates through an aquifer is a function of the diffusivity. Greater values of D result in more rapid propagation of hydraulic stresses. Barlow and Leake (2012) note that the ratio T/S (or T/Sy) controls the timing of stream depletion and not each value individually. Streamflow depletion can occur more rapidly in confined aquifers than in unconfined aquifers because S is much smaller than Sy, resulting in a larger D value.

3. For a given duration of pumping, the percentage of instantaneous depletion is greater than the percentage of volume depleted. For the ideal aquifer at a pumping duration equal to the Jenkins-SDF value, the instantaneous depletion is 48% of the maximum pumping rate, while the cumulative volume of depletion is 28% of the total pumped volume (Figure 1, Exhibit 11.1). For a non-ideal aquifer where numerical simulations are needed to estimate stream depletion, e.g., the SACFEM2013 simulations, the time when the cumulative volume of stream depletion is at 28% of the total volume pumped can be used as an “effective” Jenkins-SDF to allow for evaluation and comparison of potential impacts from pumping.

4. Stream depletion continues to occur after pumping ceases. Jenkins (1968a, b) referred to this as residual depletion. Depending on the duration of pumping and the value of the Jenkins-SDF, stream depletion can be greater after pumping ceases (see
Barlow and Leake (2012) give the following five key points regarding stream depletion after cessation of pumping:

a. **Maximum depletion can occur after pumping stops, particularly for aquifers with low diffusivity or for large distances between pumping locations and the stream.**

b. **Over the time interval from when pumping starts until the water table recovers to original pre-pumping levels, the volume of depletion will equal the volume pumped.**

c. Higher aquifer diffusivity and smaller distances between the pumping location and the stream increase the maximum rate of depletion that occurs through time, but decrease the time interval until water levels are fully recovered after pumping stops.

d. Lower aquifer diffusivity and larger distances between the pumping location and the stream decrease the maximum rate of depletion that occurs through time, but increase the time interval until water levels are fully recovered after pumping stops.

e. **Low-permeability streambed sediments, such as those illustrated in figure 11, can extend the period of time during which depletion occurs after pumping stops.**

f. **In many cases, the time from cessation of pumping until full recovery can be longer than the time that the well was pumped.**

5. As noted above in key point no. 4b, the volume of stream depletion will eventually equal the total pumped volume. The time required for full aquifer recovery from pumping depends on the value of the Jenkins-SDF, availability of water to capture, the rate and duration of recharge above what normally occurs, and other factors like the streambed sediment permeability and aquifer layering. Figure 1 in Exhibit 11.1 also shows that for an ideal aquifer the time needed to reach 95% depletion is approximately 127 times the Jenkins-SDF value. This is consistent with the estimates made by Wallace and others (1990) in Table 3 (Exhibit 11.2) on the time it takes to reach 95% depletion, which they consider a point where a new dynamic equilibrium is established. Although the 127-times-SDF multiplier assumes continuous pumping, the fact is the time for full recovery by residual depletion without pumping shouldn’t be any sooner than it takes to obtain 95% stream depletion with pumping. In other words, rate and volume of loss from a stream can’t be any higher without pumping than with pumping, all other parameters being equal. This means that without some additional source of recharge above what normally occurs, including natural wet and dry cycles, the total time required to achieve full recovery from the 10 years of groundwater substitution transfer pumping will be much longer than the 5 years cited in the Draft EIS/EIR (pages 3.3-80). For additional discussion of the stream depletion under natural variations in recharge and discharge see Maddock and Vionnet (1998).

Another factor that isn’t clearly acknowledged in the Draft EIS/EIR is the difference between the instantaneous depletion rate and cumulative volumetric depletion rate. The Draft EIS/EIR appears to focus on cumulative volumetric depletion in mitigation measure WS-1. However, the instantaneous stream depletion rate is probably more important when evaluating impacts to fisheries and stream habitat. The instantaneous rate of flow, instantaneous depth of flow and the corresponding instantaneous wetted perimeter of flow at any point in a stream are the best measures of habitat value to the fish and other water dependent species. The cumulative volume of stream depletion relative to the total pumped volume, on the other hand, can’t be easily translated stream to instantaneous flow, water depth or wetted perimeter at a point in a stream because discharges having different hydrographs can result in the same total volume of flow. For example, if I estimate that the stream depletion during a 3- to 6-month period of groundwater substitution pumping will be a maximum of 1 cubic-foot-per-second, I can evaluate the significance of this change to the stream’s habitat value using the stream’s historic hydrograph and fluvial geomorphology. However, if I estimate that over the same period of pumping the stream will lose, at the end
of pumping, a total 12 percent of the total volume pumped, I can’t determine what changes will occur in the habitat function of the stream at a specific time and place. Perhaps, if I assume that the cumulative volume of stream depletion increases linearly with time, going from zero at time zero, to 12% at the end of pumping, then I could also assume that the instantaneous rate of stream depletion would also change linearly from 0% at the start to 24% of the pumping rate at the end of pumping. Remember that in this case the area under the instantaneous depletion curve is triangular, and therefore the maximum instantaneous depletion rate would be twice the total cumulative depletion rate. In reality, the ratio of instantaneous to volumetric depletion for the ideal Jenkins-SDF curves vary with pumping duration; the ratio is approximately 1.7:1 for time/SDF = 1 (Figure 1, Exhibit 11.1). Figure 1 also shows for the ideal curve that when the instantaneous depletion (eq. 1) is 24%, the volumetric depletion is 10% (eq. 2), a ratio of 2.4:1, and when eq. 1 is at 83%, eq. 2 is at 70%, a ratio of 1.19:1.

Mitigation measure WS-1 appears to be based on the cumulative volume of water pumped for each period of groundwater substitution transfers, not the instantaneous rate of stream depletion caused by the pumping. Mitigation measure WS-1 uses of a fixed value for compensating stream losses, which is inconsistent with the hydraulics of stream depletion. Because stream depletion actually increases with pumping time, mitigation measure WS-1 needs to specify the maximum duration of pumping allowed, ensuring that the depletion rate stays below the WS-1 value, i.e., 12%. This maximum duration of pumping should be established based on impacts to stream habitat from instantaneous changes in stream flow, not the cumulative change in volume. The maximum duration of allowable pumping would change with the distance between the well and stream and with the diffusivity around each well because these control the rate of stream depletion. The well acceptance criteria in Table B-1 of Appendix B in the DTIPWTP suggests that some calculation has been made to establish the specified setback distances, but no methodology or calculation is given in the Draft EIS/EIR. The Draft EIS/EIR should document how the maximum allowable stream depletion rate, instantaneous and volumetric, and the associated maximum duration of pumping will be calculated for each well in the groundwater substitution transfer project.

Although the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t fully evaluate the potential stream depletion that may occur with the proposed 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project, another report prepared by CH2M Hill (2010) and submitted to DWR provides additional analysis on the simulated impacts from the 2009 groundwater substitution transfers. The simulations of the 2009 transfer impacts were done using the SACFEM model, presumably an earlier version of the SACFEM2013 model. Figures 4, 5 and 6 in the CH2M Hill 2010 report provide simulation graphs of stream depletion for three groundwater substitution transfer periods, 1976, 1987 and 1994 (Exhibits 11.3a to 11.3c). Graphs (a) to (c) in each figure appear somewhat like Figures B-5 and B-6 in Appendix B of the Draft EIS/EIR in that they show a depletion peak shortly after pumping starts, with a gradual decay following the cessation of pumping. Graphs (d) of Figures 4, 5 and 6 are not provided in the Draft EIS/EIR, but provide important additional information. These (d) graphs show the cumulative depletion for each of the three scenarios and are essentially the volumetric depletion curve of eq. 2 in Miller and Durnford’s Figure 1 (Exhibit 11.1). These cumulative volume depletion curves are important because they show the time needed to fully recover from the three groundwater substitution transfer pumping events. For example, Figure 4(d) shows that recovery from the pumping event in 1976 is only approximately 60% after 25 years; much longer than the 5 years for 55% to 75% recovery stated in the Draft EIS/EIR (pages 3.3-70). For comparison, Figure 4(d) of CH2MHill (2010) is plotted on Miller and Durnford’s Figure 1 in Exhibit 11.1 by normalizing the values plotted in 4(d) by an effective Jenkins-SDF value of 2.4 years.
Notice that for the simulated Figure 4(d) Jenkins-SDF curve, depletion initially occurs sooner than with an ideal aquifer, but then depletion slows. At 127 times the SDF, approximately 300 years, the depletion is at approximately 80%.

A point can be identified on each graph (d) where the volume of stream depletion is equal to 28%, the Jenkins-SDF point, and the time since pumping started measured. For example, in Figure 4(d) approximately at approximately 2.4 years after the beginning of pumping the volume of depletion reaches 28%. For Figure 5(d) the time to 28% is similar, estimated at 2.3 years. The time interval to 28% volumetric depletion in Figure 6(d) is significantly greater at an estimated 7.5 years. The results presented in both Figures 4 and 5 are from simulation of stream depletion during dry or critically dry years followed by normal or dry years, while the simulation scenario of Figure 6 is for a critical year followed by wet years. All of the cumulative (d) graphs are filtered for the Delta conditions. This may be the reason it takes longer for stream depletion to reach 28% during a wet period than dry period when one might expect the opposite because of the increased stream flow would provides more water for recharge.

The point of this discussion is that the simulated stream depletions from the SACFEM2013 modeling can also be presented as cumulative depletion response curves that are normalized by the effective Jenkins-SDF time. The stream depletion can then be estimated for any rate or duration of pumping at an individual well when the stream depletion response curves given as percentages of both the maximum pumping rate and total volume pumped are normalized to the effective Jenkins-SDF (without the Delta conditions filter). Losses for different distances between the well and surface water feature can be roughly estimated without the need to run another simulation by adjusting the Jenkins-SDF curves by the ratio of the square of the different distances. Cumulative depletion for different pumping rates during and following the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project can be estimated by the principle of superposition (Wallace and other, 1990; Barlow and Leake, 2012). As I discussed in my comment no. 15b, additional discussion is needed in the Draft EIS/EIR on how the amount of stream depletion for WS-1 is calculated. This discussion should include normalized stream depletion response curves for each groundwater substitution transfer well so that impacts from pumping can be estimated for different pumping durations and rates.

Barlow and Leake (2012) provide an extensive discussion of the factors controlling stream depletion including several misconceptions (pages 39 to 45). Review of their discussion of stream depletion misconceptions is recommended as part of any revision of the Draft EIS/EIR. Barlow and Leake identified the following misconceptions regarding stream depletion (page 39):

- **Misconception 1.** Total development of groundwater resources from an aquifer system is “safe” or “sustainable” at rates up to the average rate of recharge.
- **Misconception 2.** Depletion is dependent on the rate and direction of water movement in the aquifer.
- **Misconception 3.** Depletion stops when pumping ceases.
- **Misconception 4.** Pumping groundwater exclusively below a confining layer will eliminate the possibility of depletion of surface water connected to the overlying groundwater system.

I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to document stream depletion response curves for each groundwater substitution transfer well. These response curves should be normalized to the effective Jenkins-SDF value, given as a percentage of the pumping rate and total pumped volume, along with the
distance between the well and the modeled surface water feature. Multiple stream depletion response curves should be provided, if necessary. I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to review how the BoR-SDF value accounts for the variability in rate and volume of stream depletion. I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to document how the maximum allowable instantaneous and volumetric stream depletion rates, and the associated maximum duration of pumping will be calculated for each well in the groundwater substitution transfer project to ensure that the BoR-SDR provides adequate flow mitigation. I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to discuss how WS-1 addresses the common stream depletion misconceptions noted by Barlow and Leake (2012).

Measurement of Stream Seepage in Real Time

22. Barlow and Leake (2012) state that methods for determining the effects of pumping on stream flow follow two general approaches: (1) collection and analysis of field data, and (2) analytical and numerical modeling (page 50). The Draft EIS/EIR states in the OTIPWTP that stream depletion can’t be measured in real time (page 33) and instead relies on simulations of groundwater pumping to determine impacts to surface waters. As discussed in my comment no. 15b, the Draft EIS/EIR also states that monitoring of surface-water-groundwater interaction is part of mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1. The statement that stream depletion measurements, i.e., stream seepage rates, surface water depths, and surface flows, can’t be done in “real time” conflicts with scientific literature. Measurements of stream flow and water depth are fundamental to stream surveys. Although measurement of the seepage rate from or into a stream is done less often and is generally more difficult than other direct surface water measurements, procedures for making these measurements are well documented (Barlow and Leake, 2012; Rosenberry and LaBaugh, 2008; Zamora, 2008; Stonestrom and Constantz, ed., 2003; Constantz, 2008; Kalbus and others, 2006). Linking field measurements to changes in stream flow and seepage to adjacent groundwater pumping is made more difficult because of the lag between the start of pumping and stream response, damping of the pumping response with increases in distance between the well and measured surface water body, and the variation in seepage rate with the increases in pumping time or pumping cycles. Measurements of surface water and groundwater flow are also difficult because of inherent measurement errors that are sometimes greater than the change in flow being sought. Barlow and Leake (2012) discuss the measurement of stream depletion and conclude that:

Two general approaches are used to monitor streamflow depletion: (1) short-term field tests lasting several hours to several months to determine local-scale effects of pumping from a specific well or well field on streams that are in relative close proximity to the location of withdrawal and (2) statistical analyses of hydrologic and climatic data collected over a period of many years to test correlations between long-term changes in streamflow conditions with basinwide development of groundwater resources. Direct measurement of streamflow depletion is made difficult by the limitations of streamflow-measurement techniques to accurately detect a pumping-induced change in streamflow, the ability to differentiate a pumping-induced change in streamflow from other stresses that cause streamflow fluctuations, and by the diffusive effects of a groundwater system that delay the arrival and reduce the peak effect of a particular pumping stress. (Page 77)

The Draft EIS/EIR provides the following statements in the DTIPWTP regarding groundwater substitution transfers, which are therefore part of mitigation measure GW-1:
- ... must account for ... the extent to which transfer-related groundwater pumping decreases
streamflow (resulting from surface water-groundwater interaction), and the timing of those decreases in available surface water supply. (page 25);

- Project Agencies are developing tools to more accurately evaluate the impacts of groundwater substitution transfers on streamflow. These tools may be implemented in the near future and may include a site-specific analysis that could be applied to each transfer proposal. (page 33);

- Water transfer proponents transferring water via groundwater substitution transfers must establish a monitoring program capable of identifying any adverse transfer related effects before they become significant. (page 34);

The objectives of the DTIPWTP groundwater substitution transfer-monitoring program include:

- Determine the extent of surface water-groundwater interaction in the areas where groundwater is pumped for the transfer;
- Determine the direct effects of transfer pumping on the groundwater basin, observable until March of the year following the transfer;
- Assess the magnitude and potential significance of any effects on other legal users of water, instream beneficial uses, the environment, and the economy. (page 34)

All of these statements and monitoring objectives imply that measurement of impacts to surface water from groundwater substitution transfer pumping is possible. While measurement of stream depletion is complex and problematic, it is possible. The conflicting statements in the Draft EIS/EIR that “real time” measurements can’t be done while apparently including a requirement for field monitoring of the effects of stream depletion in mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1 need further explanation.

I recommend that the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to evaluate and discuss the methods, techniques and procedures available for monitoring and measuring the rate, volume and impacts of stream depletion due to groundwater substitution transfer pumping. The revised Draft EIS/EIR should provide specific mitigation measures, procedures and methods for monitoring groundwater substitution transfer pumping impacts on surface water features, including the frequency of monitoring and reporting.

Other Available Data to Consider in the Establishing Baseline Conditions

23. The Draft EIS/EIR for the 10-year long-term water transfer project should provide a review of the existing technical documents that describe historic environmental, surface water and groundwater conditions in the Sacramento Valley. The information in these technical documents is critical for establish an accurate and complete environmental baseline and for evaluating the potential impacts from future water transfers. Exhibit 12.1 provides an annotated bibliography provided by researchers with AquAlliance (Nora and Jim) of some of the available technical reports on groundwater resources in the Sacramento Valley. In addition to creating a complete bibliography of relevant technical reports, the Draft EIS/EIR should provide an index map showing the areas or locations covered by each report should be developed. For an example of an index map, see the 1:250000 scale regional geologic map sheets produced by the California Geological Survey.

Other information is likely available from local government agencies that would document the current condition of the groundwater basin both quantity and quality. For example, Exhibit 12.2 has a list provide by B. Smith, a researcher with AquAlliance, of recently well permits issued since January 1, 2009 for wells that have gone dry in Shasta County. A GIS should be used to plot the locations of the wells that have gone dry. The locations of these dry wells should then be compared to the current groundwater levels, past groundwater
substitution transfer pumping areas, and the proposed 10-year long-term project pumping areas. This type of spatial analysis would help to establish an accurate baseline on groundwater elevations and impacts on existing wells, and provide the foundation for assessing the potential impacts from the 10-year long-term groundwater substitution transfer pumping. Other relevant information on baseline conditions in the 10-year Transfer Project area can be found in the Integrated Regional Water Management Plans for the Northern Sacramento Valley Basin, the American River Basin, Yuba County, and Yolo County, see my comment no. 6.

I recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide an annotated bibliography and index map(s) of all documents that are relevant to proposed 10-year long-term water transfer project and describe or provide data on the historic and environmental, surface water and groundwater baseline conditions in the Sacramento Valley. I also recommend the Draft EIS/EIR be revised to provide information from local and regional agencies on the conditions of wells within their jurisdictions covering at least the last 10 years. This local information should include, if available, replacement well permits issued for dry wells, complaints or treatment systems installed because of poor water quality, and damage to infrastructure from subsidence or settlement. I recommend this information be mapped and compared to areas of past groundwater substitution transfer pumping, areas of known groundwater level depression, and the pumping area for the proposed 10-year project.

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Department of Water Resources, 2014a, Maps of Domestic Well Depth Summary with Depth to Groundwater Contours for Wells Screened at Depths Less Than 150 Feet, for Butte County, Colusa County, Glenn County, Tehama County, and Redding Basin, Northern Regional Office, January 2014 (http://www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/gw_level_monitoring.cfm#Well%20Depth%20Summary%20Maps)

Department of Water Resources, 2014b, Northern Sacramento Valley Change in Groundwater Elevation Maps; Shallow Aquifer Zone, (Well depths less than 200 ft bgs), Spring 2013 to Spring 2014, Plate 1S-A; Intermediate Aquifer Zone, (Well depths generally greater than 200 ft and less than 600 ft deep bgs), Spring 2013 to Spring 2014, Plate 1I-B; Deep Aquifer Zone, (Well depths greater than 600 ft bgs) Spring 2013 to Spring 2014, Plate 1D-B, (http://www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/gw_level_monitoring.cfm)


List of Exhibits

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1.2 – Figure 29 from Barlow and Leake, 2012
2.1 – Composite map of domestic wells, < 150 ft. bgs depth summary maps for northern Sacramento Valley (DWR, 2014a) and traced shallow zone, well depths < 200 ft. bgs., 2004 to 2014 changes in groundwater elevation (DWR, 2014b)
3.1 – Composite plot of DWR’s spring 2004 to spring 2014 groundwater elevation change maps for shallow aquifer zone, well depths less than 200 feet bgs, and Draft EIS/EIR SACFEM2013-1990 hydrologic conditions simulations shown in Figures 3.3-29, aquifer depth approximately 35 feet
3.2 – Composite plot of DWR’s spring 2004 to spring 2014 groundwater elevation change maps for intermediate aquifer zone, well depths greater than 200 feet and less than 600 feet bgs, and Draft EIS/EIR SACFEM2013-1990 hydrologic conditions simulations shown in Figures 3.3-30, aquifer depth approximately 200 to 300 feet
3.3 – Composite plot of DWR’s spring 2004 to spring 2014 groundwater elevation change maps for deep aquifer zone, well depths greater than 600 feet bgs, and Draft EIS/EIR SACFEM2013-1990 hydrologic conditions simulations shown in Figures 3.3-31, aquifer depth approximately 700 to 900 feet
4.1 – Summary Table of Sacramento Valley Groundwater Model Parameters
4.2 – Table 5, Brush and others, 2013a, C2VSim model parameter ranges
4.3 – Table C8, Faunt, ed., 2009, CVHM model, measured and simulated hydraulic properties
4.4 – Figure 3, Brush and others, 2013a, C2VSim model subregions and hydrologic regions
4.5 – Table A1, Faunt, ed., 2009, CVHM Water-balance subregions within the Central Valley, California
4.6 – Appendix 16.D, Driscoll, 1986, Empirical equations used to estimate specific capacity and transmissivity
4.7a to k – Figures A10A and B (a, b), A12A to E (c to g), A13 (h), A14 (i), C14 (j) and A15 (k) from Faunt, ed., 2009, CVHM model parameters
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5.1 – Page 100 from Brush and others, 2013a
5.2 – Figure 40, River-bed conductance from Brush and others, 2013a
5.3 – Figure C26, Distribution of cells used for streams, streambed hydraulic conductivity values from Faunt, ed., 2009
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6.1a to c – Figure 81A to C (a, b, c), Simulated average annual subsurface flows between subregions from Brush and others, 2013a
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6.3a to d – Tables 10 to 13 (a, b, c, d), Central Valley basin flows from the C2VSim model from Brush and others, 2013a
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8.3 – Figure B15A, Areal extent of land subsidence in the Central Valley from Faunt, ed., 2009

8.4 – Figure 6, Extensometer and GPS survey locations in the Sacramento Valley from DWR, 2008

8.5 – Energy Map of California, Map S-2, 2000, California Department of Conservation, Division of Oil, Gas and Geothermal Resources

8.6 – California Natural Gas Pipelines map by California Energy Commission

8.7 – California Natural Gas Pipelines and Storage Facilities map by California Energy Commission

8.8 – California Oil Refineries and Terminals map by California Energy Commission

8.9 – California Natural Gas Pipelines – Oil Refineries and Terminals map by California Energy Commission

8.10 – California Power Plants map by California Energy Commission


9.1 – Figure C1-A, Central Valley Hydrologic Model grid, with horizontal flow barrier from Faunt, ed., 2009

9.2 – Page 160 from Faunt, ed., 2009

9.3a, b – Pages 203 (a) and 204 (b) from Faunt, ed., 2009

9.4a to d – Four screen prints of CGS’s 2010 Fault Activity Map of California web site, accesses October 31, 2014

9.5 – Explanation for 2010 Fault Activity Map of California

9.6 – An Explanatory Text to Accompany the Fault Activity Map of California, first 12 pages

10.1 – Table B3 from Faunt, ed., 2009

10.2a to c – Figures B9 (a), B10-A (b) and B10-B (c) from Faunt, ed., 2009

10.3 – Figure B3 from Brush and others, 2013a

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10.5a to c – Tables 3-6 (a), 3-7 (b) and 3-8 (c) from NCWA, 2014b

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10.7 – Composite of Figures 3-22, 3-24 from NCWA, 2014b, and Figure 35 from Brush and others, 2013b

10.8 – Figure 2-4 from Brush and others, 2013b

10.9 – Figure 2-5 Brush and others, 2013b

11.1 – Figure 1 from Miller and Durnford, 2005

11.2 – Table 3 from Wallace and others, 1990

11.3a to c – Figures 4 (a), 5 (b) and 6 (c) from CH2MHill, 2010

12.1 – Annotated bibliography of reports relevant to groundwater resource assessment in the Sacramento Valley provided by Nora and Jim, researchers with AquAlliance, 11 pages

12.2 – List of permits to replace dry wells in Shasta County provided by B. Smith, researcher with AquAlliance, 2 pages
Critique of Long-Term Water Transfers Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report Public Draft

Economic Issues

December 1, 2014
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Executive Summary

The US Bureau of Reclamations and San Luis & Delta-Mendota Water Authority released the Public Draft of the Long-Term Water Transfers Draft Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report (LTWT) in September 2014. The purpose of the LTWT, as we understand, is to evaluate the potential impacts of three proposed water-transfer alternatives, as well as a no action alternative. AquAlliance asked ECONorthwest to critique and provide written comments on the LTWT.

In general, the analysis described in the LTWT suffers from significant omissions and errors. These omissions and errors matter. As written the report provides stakeholders and decision makers with a biased and incomplete description of the environmental and economic consequences of water transfers. In the following sections of this report we describe our critiques in detail. Our major critiques include the following.

The LTWT ignores relevant background information about the affected environment that would have helped inform the analysis. The LTWT provides a cursory description of the relevant affected environment that paints an incomplete picture of the context within which water transfers would happen. A more complete, accurate and up-to-date description would have included, for example: information from the many recent reports on California's climate and groundwater conditions; current data on water transfers; and, a market analysis of water prices, prices for agricultural commodities and how price changes influence the number and volumes of water transfers. As such, the deficient description is the shaky foundation upon which a lacking analysis rests. The resulting effort yields questionable results regarding the likely future frequency and amounts of water transfers and their environmental and economic consequences.

The LTWT relies on outdated and incomplete data. The analysis described in the LTWT relies on obsolete data for certain key variables and ignored other relevant data and information. For example, the analysis assumes a price for water that bears no resemblance to the current reality. It also ignored relevant research results on the impacts of groundwater pumping on stream flow depletion and the current status of groundwater levels as provided by monitoring wells. The water transfers at issue in the LTWT would not happen in an economic vacuum. Growers and water sellers and buyers react to changing prices and market conditions. The analysis described in the LTWT, however, is silent on these forces and how they would influence water transfers.

The LTWT underestimates negative impacts on the regional economy in the sellers area. The LTWT acknowledges that negative economic impacts would be worse if water transfers happen over consecutive years. The analysis, however, estimates impacts for single-year transfers, ignoring the data on the frequency of recent consecutive-year transfers. The analysis also fails to address the extent to which water transfers cause economic harm to water-based recreational activities.

The LTWT finds significant negative effects but the vague and incomplete proposed monitoring and mitigation plans would not address these effects. The LTWT proposed both a monitoring and
mitigation program for significant negative impacts. Implementing these programs would take planning, effort and financial resources on the part of sellers, injured third parties, and regulatory agencies. The LTWT does not include these costs. The monitoring program is vague and depends on potential sellers implementing the program. This conflict of interest pits financial gain from water sales against complete and impartial monitoring efforts. This opens the door to lax, biased, or incomplete monitoring, which could lead to negative environmental and economic consequences for third parties. The monitoring program includes monitoring subsidence, however, the program is vague on requirements and what amount of subsidence would trigger a halt in water transfers. Injured third parties would bear the costs of bringing to the sellers’ attention harm caused by groundwater pumping. The analysis described in the LTWT assumes that disagreements regarding third-party damages would be settled cooperatively between third parties and sellers, without presenting evidence substantiating such an optimistic assumption. The LTWT is silent on the economic consequences of sellers and injured third parties not cooperatively agreeing on harm and compensation.

The LTWT ignores the environmental externalities and economic subsidies that water transfers support. The LTWT lists Westlands Water District as one of the CVP contractors expressing interest in purchasing transfer water. The environmental externalities caused by agricultural production on Westlands are well documented, as are the economic subsidies that support this production. To the extent that the water transfers at issue in the LTWT facilitate agricultural production on Westlands, they also contribute to the environmental externalities and economic subsidies of that production. The LTWT is silent on these environmental and economic consequences of the water transfers.

The LTWT underestimates the cumulative effects of water transfers. Cumulative effects analyses under NEPA and CEQA are intended to identify impacts that materialize or are compounded when the proposed action is implemented at the same time as or in conjunction with other actions. The LTWT addresses cumulative effects for each resource area and provides a global description of the methods and actions considered for analysis in each resource area. The analysis, however, provides cursory discussion of potential cumulative effects for the regional economy, and ignores the full range of possible cumulative outcomes associated with the proposed transfer.
1 Introduction and Context

The US Bureau of Reclamations (BOR) and San Luis & Delta-Mendota Water Authority (SLDMWA) released the public draft of the Long-Term Water Transfers Draft Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report (LTWT) in September 2014. The LTWT covers water transfers that would happen between 2015 through 2024. Because the transfers would use federal and state infrastructure, the LTWT must comply with NEPA and CEQA guidelines. BOR is the lead agency regarding NEPA requirements, and SLDMWA is the lead agency for CEQA requirements.¹

The premise underlying the proposed water transfers is that sellers, mostly in the Sacramento Valley, would idle cropland, switch to less water-intensive crops, and/or substitute groundwater for surface water, and send the surface water they would otherwise have used through the Bay Delta to buyers in the south.

The proposed transfers would happen within a context of environmental conditions that both highlight the increasing demand for water throughout California and raise concerns regarding the environmental and economic effects of the water transfers at issue in the LTWT. These conditions include:

- Current drought conditions of historic proportion coming on the heals of consecutive dry years.
- Increasing concerns over the demands on groundwater and groundwater conditions throughout the state, including in the Sacramento Valley.
- Increasing competition for water from all user groups including agricultural, municipal and industrial users, and environmental requirements that help protect habitats and water quality.

Within this context, regulatory agencies face increasing demands from stakeholders for transparent decisions that rely on the best available science and information when balancing competing demands. For example, the relevant NEPA requirements for the LTWT analysis include:

“Rigorous exploration and objective evaluation of all reasonable alternatives, …”²

AquAlliance asked ECONorthwest to review the LTWT and provide comments on the extent to which the analysis described in the report fulfills the NEPA requirement. We describe the results of our initial review and critique of the document in this report. The relatively short

¹ LTWT, page 1-1, 2-1.
² LTWT page 2-1.
public comment period limited the extent of our review. Should the comment period be extended or reopened, we may expand and revise our comments.

The remainder of our report is as follows. In the next section, Section 2, we comment on the LTWT’s incomplete description of the affected environment within which the water transfers would happen. We cite sources with relevant information that if included would yield a more complete and comprehensive description of the affected environment.

In Section 3 we highlight deficiencies in the data and analysis described in the LTWT. For example, we note that the model relies on outdated prices for water and agricultural commodities—two central components of the analysis. The analysis also estimates that water transfers would happen in a static environment where water prices and commodity prices remain fixed. These conditions do not reflect the dynamic reality of water demands and use.

In Section 4 we note instances in which the analysis described in the LTWT underestimates the impacts of water transfers on the regional economy in the source-water areas.

In Section 5 we draw attention to some of the deficiencies of the proposed monitoring and mitigation programs that the LTWT’s authors claim will adequately address any negative effects of the transfers. These deficiencies include the inherent conflicts of interests in the programs, excluding the costs of the programs, and vague and ill-defined critical components of the programs.

In Section 6 we describe some of the environmental and economic externalities associated with the use of the transferred water.

In Section 7, we list some of the deficiencies in the analysis of cumulative effects. For example, the analysis ignores the impacts of transfers that would happen in addition to those at issue in the LTWT.
2 The LTWT ignores relevant background information about the affected environment that would have helped inform the analysis

The LTWT provides a cursory description of the relevant affected environment that paints an incomplete picture of the context within which water transfers would happen. A more complete, accurate and up-to-date description would have included, for example: information from the many recent reports on California’s climate and groundwater conditions; current data on water transfers; and, a market analysis of water prices, prices for agricultural commodities and how price changes influence the number and volumes of water transfers. As such, the deficient description is the shaky foundation upon which a lacking analysis rests. The resulting effort yields questionable results regarding the likely future frequency and amounts of water transfers and their environmental and economic consequences.

Specific concerns regarding the LTWT’s incomplete description of the affected environment in the Sacramento Valley include the following.

**Incomplete description of current climate conditions**

According to the California Department of Water Resources (DWR), 2013 was the driest year on record for many parts of the state. Such drought conditions are one reason given for why growers and municipal and industrial (M&I) users in the south would purchase water from other parts of California. The analysis described in the LTWT fails to acknowledge, however, that other parts of the state, including the Sacramento Valley, also feel the effects of drought. How agricultural and M&I water users in the north respond to recent drought conditions would affect water transfers. The authors of the LTWT exclude these factors from their analysis.

For example, in a recent letter to the BOR, the Glenn-Colusa Irrigation District (GCID) indicated they were developing a groundwater supplemental supply program and that developing this program takes priority over participating in water transfers as described in the LTWT.

“GCID’s position is that it will pursue, as a priority, the proposed Groundwater Supplemental Supply Program over any proposed transfer program within the region, including Reclamation’s Long-Term Water Transfer Program (LTWTP).”

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“... It is important to underscore that GCID would prioritize pumping during dry and critically dry water years for use in the Groundwater Supplemental Supply Program, and thus wells used under that program would not otherwise be available for USBR’s LTWTP.”

GCID’s focus on its own groundwater program over BOR water transfers is notable because the LTWT lists GCID as a potential seller with the largest volume of water for sale, 91,000 af. GCID’s reasons for pursuing its groundwater supply program include concerns over water availability during dry years.

“The primary objective is to develop a reliable supplemental water source for GCID during dry and critically dry years. The proposed goals are as follows:

• Increase system reliability and flexibility
• Offset reductions in Sacramento River diversions by GCIS during drought years to replace supplies for crops and habitat
• Periodically reduce Sacramento River diversions to accommodate fishery and restoration flows
• Protect agricultural production”

A related point is that the LTWT fails to discuss the possibility that current climate and water conditions may represent a new benchmark rather than a deviation from past trends. The increasing number of years with water transfers (described below), and reports on climate change and its impacts on water conditions, are two arguments in support of exploring this point. For example, according to a report commissioned by the Northern California Water Association (NCWA),

“This year [2014] we face unprecedented drought conditions, following a decade of relatively dry years and increased demands on our groundwater resources. These increased demands have two principal causes. The reduced availability of surface water during dry years brings a predictable shift towards greater use of groundwater. The second is expanding and intensifying agricultural land use within the Sacramento Valley, together with increasing urban water demands, leading to increased reliance on groundwater even in ‘normal’ years.”

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5 LTWT, Table 2-4, page 2-14.
Fails to consider concerns regarding the oversubscription of water resources

The analysis described in the LTWT fails to acknowledge the problem of supporting water transfers using “paper water,” or oversubscribed water in the Sacramento Valley. A report on water transfer issues in California describes one aspect of this problem.

“The inability of interested parties to agree on the volume of transferable water associated with the short-term fallowing of agricultural lands has caused substantial controversy and delays in approving certain water transfer proposals. The primary issue for interested parties is whether a fallowing-based transfer proposal would actually increase the burden on the CVP and SWP to maintain water quality and flow conditions in downstream portions of the Sacramento River and Delta because upstream transfer proponents were allowed to transfer what might prove to be ‘paper’ water.”

Stakeholders in the Sacramento Valley concerned about this problem researched the extent of paper water and found that rights to water significantly exceed available supply. Testimony by the California Water Impact Network submitted to the State Water Resources Control Board concluded that, “The ratio of total consumptive use claims to average unimpaired flow in the Sacramento River Basin is about 5.6 acre-feet of claims per acre-foot of unimpaired flow.” Thus, claims on water in the Sacramento Valley significantly exceed the available supply.

Incomplete description of current groundwater conditions

The LTWT excluded current information on groundwater conditions in the Sacramento Valley. This information includes concerns regarding historically low groundwater levels in certain areas of the Sacramento Valley, related concerns over subsidence caused by depleted groundwater, and a lack of groundwater monitoring information.

According to the DWR, groundwater levels are decreasing throughout California, including in the Sacramento Valley. Groundwater levels decreased since the spring of 2013, and “notably” since the spring of 2010. A related point, according to the DWR, is that there are “significant” gaps in groundwater monitoring data for areas throughout the state, including the Sacramento Valley. There’s also a lack of understanding

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10 DWR, 2014a, page ii.

11 DWR, 2014a, page ii.
regarding groundwater recharge and interactions between surface and groundwater in the Sacramento Valley. According to the NCWA report,

“[G]roundwater changes can take many years to become apparent, and we have not yet been able to measure with certainty the long-term impacts of the current level of groundwater use as it affects our measures of sustainability.”

“Persistently declining groundwater levels in many areas of the Sacramento Valley over the past decade reveal that groundwater discharge exceeds recharge. Simply put: if the objective is to stem or reverse the trend, the groundwater balance must be adjusted either by putting more water into the ground or taking less out.”

According to the DWR, the Sacramento River hydrologic region has 23 groundwater basins ranked “high” or “medium” as described by the CASGEM groundwater basin prioritization study. These rankings describe a groundwater basin’s importance in meeting demands for urban and agricultural water use. The San Joaquin River hydrologic region has nine “high,” or “medium” ranked basins.

A recent report from Glenn County indicates that current groundwater levels in the county are at the lowest levels recorded going back to the start of record keeping in the 1920s.

“Data in reference to groundwater levels has been collected from both private and dedicated monitoring wells located within Glenn County, in some cases dating as far back as the 1920’s. The lowest levels in these wells were most frequently associated with measurements from the 1976-77 monitoring period, which coincided with one of the more severe droughts in California’s history. In the years following the 76-77 drought, groundwater levels often approached these historic lows but rarely fell below them. However, recent (2012-13) data indicate levels in many wells have declined below those historic thresholds and are now at the lowest levels observed since monitoring began.”

“Readily available monitoring data obtained through DWR’s California Statewide Groundwater Elevation Monitoring (CASGEM) is available for 100 wells, and of those 100, 21 still show their lowest levels as occurring in 1977, while 21 had an all-time low water surface elevation level in 2013, and an

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additional 15 wells reached their lowest point in 2009-2012. Therefore, one out of every five monitored wells in the area was at its lowest-ever recorded level in 2013, and one out of every three wells monitored in the area was at its lowest-ever recorded level between 2009 and 2013.”

Regarding the limited groundwater modeling described in the LTWT, consulting hydrologist Kit Custis comments,

“Because the groundwater modeling effort [described in the LTWT] didn’t include the most recent 11 years record, it appears to have missed simulating the most recent periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping and other groundwater impacting events, such as recent changes in groundwater elevations and groundwater storage [citation omitted], and the reduced recharge due to the recent periods of drought. Without taking the hydrologic conditions during the recent 11 years into account, the results of the SACFEM2013 model simulation may not accurately depict current conditions or predict the effects from the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping during the next 10 years.”

The DWR reports that areas of the Sacramento Valley are at risk for subsidence from depleted groundwater. Most of the groundwater basins susceptible to future subsidence are also ranked “high” and “medium” priority by the CASGEM groundwater basin prioritization analysis. According to the DWR and based on data from 2008 through 2014, approximately 36 percent of long-term wells surveyed in the Sacramento Valley are at or below the historical spring low levels. Another measure indicates that 50 percent of groundwater levels in 18 groundwater basins in the Sacramento Valley are at or below historical spring low levels. A white paper by a consulting engineer on groundwater use and subsidence in the Sacramento Valley noted that subsidence may happen years after groundwater pumping and that real-time monitoring of groundwater pumping “will generally tend to underestimate the long-term settlement of the ground surface.”

Subsidence can cause substantial economic harm. According to a report by consulting engineers studying subsidence in California,

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“Land subsidence has been discovered in many areas of the state, causing billions of dollars of damage. Impacts from subsidence fall into the following categories:

- Loss of conveyance capacity in canals, streams and rivers, and flood bypass channels;
- Diminished effectiveness of levees;
- Damage to roads, bridges, building foundations, pipelines, and other surface and subsurface infrastructure; and
- Development of earth fissures, which can damage surface and subsurface structures and allow for contamination at the land surface to enter shallow aquifers.”

Subsidence in Colusa, Yolo and Solano counties in the Sacramento Valley during the 1976-77 drought caused widespread well casing damages, which made some wells unusable. A recent series of reports by the Stanford Woods Institute for the Environment and the Bill Lane Center for the American West at the Water in the West center at Stanford University describe the subsidence concerns regarding groundwater pumping in California, including the Sacramento Valley. Custis notes the types of infrastructure in the Sacramento Valley susceptible to damage from subsidence,

“There are a number of critical structures in the Sacramento Valley that may be susceptible to settlement and lateral movement. These include natural gas pipelines, gas transfer and storage facilities, gas wells, railroads bridges, water and sewer pipelines, water wells, canals, levees, other industrial facilities.”

In response to concerns over groundwater use and related issues, the California legislature recently passed, and Governor Brown signed into law, the Sustainable Groundwater Management Act (Act). The Act will affect groundwater users including those supplying water transfers. The LTWT makes no mention of how the Act could affect the context within which water transfers would happen, or the transfers themselves. This is a significant omission.

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23 opr.ca.gov/s_groundwater.php.
Carriage Water Costs

The LTWT assumes that required carriage water component of water transfers from the Sacramento River will account for 20 percent of transferred water.

“Transfers from the Sacramento River assume a 20 percent carriage water adjustment to maintain Delta salinity.”

Recent data on the percentage of required carriage water are higher than the 20-percent assumption in the LTWT. For example, the DWR describes a recent carriage water percentage of 30.

“Another cost related to transferring water is carriage water. … For the Sacramento River, this has generally been about 20 percent of the transfer water … It is worth noting, however, that in 2012 and 2013 carriage water losses for the Sacramento River were as high as 30 percent of transfer water.”

To the extent that carriage water requirements exceed 20 percent, the LTWT overestimates the amount of water delivered south through the Bay Delta to water purchasers, and thus the economic benefits of these transfers.

Data and modeling ignore recent trends in water transfers

Using water data from 1970 through 2003, the LTWT estimates that future water transfers will happen on average 12 out of 33 years. Twelve of 33 years is a transfer probability of approximately 36 percent. By ignoring water data for years after 2003, the analysis excludes relevant information on the more recent dry trend and current historical drought. For example, Table 1-3 on page 1-17 of the LTWT lists years and amounts of water transfers from 2000 through 2014. This data shows that water transfers happened in 9 of the previous 15 years, or a transfer probability of 60 percent, almost double that used in the LTWT. For years after 2003, transfers happened in eight out of 11 years, for a transfer percent of approximately 73.

Other sources of data on the frequency of water transfers do not support the LTWT’s water-transfer results. For example, a report by the Western Canal Water District (WCWD) includes a table showing water transfers from the Sacramento Valley through the Bay Delta from 2001 through projected 2010. The information in this table shows transfers happening in eight out of ten years. A similar report by WCWD in 2014

24 LTWT page B-18.
26 LTWT, page 3.3-60 and -61.
included a table of water transfers for years 2006 through projected 2014. The data in that table shows transfers happening during seven of nine years.  

Taken together, these two reports show water transfers from the Sacramento Valley south through the Bay Delta in 11 out of 14 years between 2001 through 2014. This works out to a transfer probability of approximately 79 percent.

These results demonstrate two important points. First, using a transfer probability of 36 percent greatly underestimates the actual years that transfers happened post-2003, the last year of data in the LTWT analysis. Underestimating transfers leads to underestimating the environmental and economic effects of the transfers.

Second, the data upon which conclusions in the LTWT rest do not depict actual conditions post-2003. That is, by relying on flawed or incomplete data, models that use this data produce flawed or biased results. The estimated transfer frequency (36 percent of years), does not match the recent actual transfer frequency (60, 73, or 79 percent, depending on the source and years included).

At an October 21st, 2014 public hearing in Chico, California on the LTWT, a consultant working with BOR on the LTWT commented on the water model and the 1970 through 2003 data upon which the model relies. In response to questions about why the model did not include data from the previous ten years, or why the period of analysis was not extended out to the current drought situation, the consultant replied that the modeling tools “are not up-to-date.”

According to resource agencies in California, variable, even extreme climate and rainfall conditions are the norm. Climate change is projected to make these trends worse and increase prediction uncertainties. The recent Bay Delta Conservation Plan describes this uncertainty,

“Variability and uncertainty are the dominant characteristics of California’s water resources.”

“Precipitation is the source of 97% of California’s water supply. It varies greatly from year to year, by season, and by where it falls geographically in the state.

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With climate change, the state’s precipitation is expected to become even more unpredictable.31

“However, the total volume of water the state receives can vary dramatically between dry and wet years. California may receive less than 100 MAF of water during a dry year and more than 300 MAF in a wet year (Western Regional Climate Center 2011).”32

“The geographic variation and the unpredictability in precipitation that California receives make it challenging to manage the available runoff that can be diverted or captured in storage to meet urban and agricultural water needs.”33

“Historically, precipitation in most of California has been dominated by extreme variability seasonally, annually, and over decade time scales; in the context of climate change, projections of future precipitation are even more uncertain than projections for temperature. Uncertainty regarding precipitation projections is greatest in the northern part of the state, and a stronger tendency toward drying is indicated in the southern part of the state.”34

Consultants working for the BOR admit that the water model and data upon which the LTWT analysis and conclusions rest are not up to date. We note above the model’s unreliability and poor projection capabilities regarding water transfers post-2003. The DWR concludes that variability and extremes characterize the state’s weather and rainfall conditions, and that climate change is increasing this variability and uncertainty. Taken together, these facts raise questions regarding the veracity of the projected water transfers described in the LTWT, and the estimated environmental and economic consequences of those transfers.

**The analysis does not adequately take into account recent trends in agricultural production**

Not included in the LTWT’s description of current conditions are recent trends in agricultural production that affect groundwater use and conditions in the Sacramento Valley. For example, according to a recent report, approximately half the increase in irrigated acres in the Sacramento Valley since 2008 (approximately 200,000 acres), happened on lands not served by surface water suppliers. Irrigating these lands takes approximately 300,000 acre-feet (af) of groundwater per year.35

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33 DWR, 2013, page 5-2.
34 DWR, 2013, page 5-2.
A related point is the lack of discussion or analysis in the LTWT of trends in prices for agricultural goods produced with surface and groundwater, trends in prices for water, and how these factors affect grower decisions. For example, the analysis fails to address the extent to which historically high prices for water (discussed below) increase groundwater mining and sale in the Sacramento Valley, and how this affects water transfers and their environmental and economic consequences.

Another agricultural trend not discussed in the LTWT, but which has implications for water transfers and their consequences, is the increasing use of pressurized irrigation methods in the Sacramento Valley. Pressurized irrigation reduces groundwater recharge by limiting water percolation. Some growers supply their pressurized irrigation systems using groundwater, even when they have access to surface water. According to the report commissioned by the NCWA,

“The increasing use of pressurized irrigation systems using groundwater is likely to be an increasingly important factor in the overall management of groundwater and surface water in the Sacramento Valley as a whole, particularly as such system displace the use of available surface water.”

In response to the recent trend in high prices for almonds, olives, walnuts and other tree crops, growers in the San Joaquin and Sacramento Valleys planted more acres of these trees and other permanent-type crops, and less acres of lower valued annual crops. Such a change increases and “hardens” demand for water in both valleys because growers no longer have the flexibility of idling these acres in response to drought. Thus, one of the arguments in support of water transfers—that growers south of the Bay Delta planted increased acres of tree crops that have higher water demands—also affects growers and water use and demands north of the Bay Delta.

The LTWT is silent on these trends or how they would influence future water transfers from the Sacramento Valley.

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3 The LTWT relies on outdated and incomplete data

In addition to the deficiencies described in previous sections, the analysis described in the LTWT relies on obsolete data for certain key variables. The analysis also ignored other relevant data and information. These shortcomings include the following.

**The LTWT assumes a price for water that bears no resemblance to the current reality**

The analysis described in the LTWT assumes a price of water of $225 per af of water. This amount drastically underestimates the current price for water. Dollar amounts for water trades are not readily available to the public. However, information on the current price of water from news articles and other sources reveals a range of current prices that exceed $225 by a significant amount.

A report by Bloomberg News on the impacts of drought on water prices reports water prices of $1,000 to $2,000 per af. The article also quotes a spokesman for the BOR,

“The rising prices are ‘a function of supply and demand in a very dry year and the fact that there are a lot of competing uses for water in California,’ said Mat Maucieri, a spokesman for the Bureau of Reclamation.”

An article in the Sacramento Bee on water transfers noted that one buyer was paying “in the neighborhood of $500 to $600 an acre-foot.” The Glenn-Colusa Irrigation District commenting on the LTWT noted that the $225 per af price used in the analysis was the price paid for water over eight years ago.

Water users, sellers and buyers would surely respond differently to a market price of water of $1,000 to $2,000 per af, than they would to a price of $225. As such, the extent to which growers idle cropland, switch to less water intensive crops, and substitute groundwater for surface water in the LTWT likely does not reflect this difference. As we note below, missing from the LTWT analysis is an assessment of the economics of water markets, how sellers and buyers respond to changing water prices, and how this affects the type and amount of water transfers.

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38 LTWT, page 3.10-27.
**Ignored impacts on tax revenues to local governments from IMPLAN results**

The LTWT describes estimating impacts of water transfers on employment, labor income and total value of output using IMPLAN.\(^{42}\) IMPLAN is a commonly used software and data package that helps analysts estimate economic impacts of policy changes or compare economic impacts of allocation alternatives, e.g., alternative logging proposals or alternative water-transfer amounts. According to the IMPLAN website, IMPLAN “… allows an analyst to trace spending through an economy and measure the cumulative effects of that spending.”\(^{43}\) IMPLAN traces the economic benefits of increased spending as it works its way through an economy, or, when spending decreases, the negative economic impacts of decreased spending. From our own experience using IMPLAN, and from information on the IMPLAN website, in addition to the employment, labor income and total value of output reported in the LTWT, IMPLAN also quantifies the impacts of alternatives on government finances and tax revenues.\(^{44}\) For example, the IMPLAN website describes how the software can estimate state, local, and federal tax amounts collected (or lost) as a result of a change in an economy, such as reduced agricultural activity.\(^{45}\)

Even though IMPLAN calculates impacts of alternatives on local government finances and tax revenues, the analysis described in the LTWT does not report these results. That is, the authors apparently choose not to report the output from IMPLAN on how the transfer alternatives would affect the dollar amounts of tax revenues to local governments as a result of the reduced agricultural activity and spending. Instead, the report notes that impacts “to local government finances, including tax revenues and costs, are described qualitatively.” [emphasis added]\(^{46}\) The report does not explain why the analysts chose to address impacts on local tax revenues of the water-transfer alternatives qualitatively, rather than rely on the estimates of tax impacts produced by IMPLAN.

**Ignored own research results on stream flow depletion factors**

The LTWT makes no mention of the results from studies of the impacts of groundwater pumping in support of water transfers on stream flow depletion. A technical memo on the impacts of groundwater pumping on stream flow depletion describes the analysis and concludes that,

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\(^{42}\) LTWT, page 3.10-21.

\(^{43}\) IMPLAN web site, implan.com/index.php?option=com_glossary&id=236&letter=E.


\(^{46}\) LTWT, page 3.10-24.
“The effect of groundwater substitution transfer pumping on stream flow, when considered as a percent of the groundwater pumped for the program, is significant.”

“The three scenarios presented here estimated effects of transfer pumping on stream flow when dry, normal, and wet conditions followed transfer pumping. Estimated stream flow losses in the five-year period following each scenario were 44, 39, and 19 percent of the amount of groundwater pumped during the four-month transfer period.”

In spite of these results, information distributed by the DWR and BOR to those interested in making water transfers in 2014, cites a stream flow depletion factor of 12 percent. It’s not clear how BOR justifies using a 12-percent depletion factor when analyses conducted by their contractors found depletion factors of 44, 39 and 19 percent.

We understand that the same SACFEM model that produced other results in the LTWT also produced the stream flow depletion factors. Yet, while the LTWT reports other results from SACFEM, it makes no mention of these results. It also ignores the assumed 12-percent depletion factor cited by DWR and BOR. Instead, it states that stream flow depletion will be studied at a later date. This approach ignores their own modeling results on stream flow depletion.

Incomplete and selective use of information from groundwater monitoring wells

The LTWT omits a significant concluding passage when describing results from a groundwater monitoring well in the Sacramento Valley.

For well 21N03W33A004M, the LTWT states,

“Water levels at well 21N03W33A004M generally declined during the 1970s and prior to import of surface water conveyed by the Tehama-Colusa Canal. During the 1980s, groundwater levels recovered due to import and use of surface water supply and because of the 1982 to 1984 wet water years [citation omitted].”

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50 LTWT, page 3.3-60.
51 LTWT, page 3.1-21.
52 LTWT, page 3.3-22.
The document cites a DWR report from 2014 on drought response and gaps in groundwater monitoring. The description in the DWR report, however, includes this additional concluding passage that the LTWT authors excluded,

“Water levels declined again in the 2008 drought period, followed by a brief recovery during 2010 to 2011, and then returning to 2008 levels (which are notably lower than the 1977-79 drought levels).” [emphasis added]

The omission matters as it completely changes the conclusion regarding current groundwater conditions as reported by the well.

The description in the LTWT of results from well 15N03W01N001M match those from the DWR source document. That description concludes,

“…After the 2008-2009 drought, water levels declined to historical lows. Water levels recovered quickly during 2010 and 2011, then after returned to the trend of long-term decline.” [emphasis added]

Taken together these results indicate a long-term trend in declining groundwater levels in areas around the wells. The LTWT discounts or ignores these results instead favoring results from other wells. On this point, consulting hydrologist Custis describes other relevant data on groundwater monitoring,

“The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide maps showing groundwater elevations, or depth to groundwater, for groundwater substitution transfer seller areas in Sutter, Yolo, Yuba, and Sacramento counties.

The DWR provides on a web site a number of additional groundwater level and depth to groundwater maps at: [website omitted].”

Custis notes other deficiencies of the groundwater monitoring as described in the LTWT.

“…[T]he Draft EIS/EIR provides only limited information on the wells to be used in the groundwater substitution transfers [citation omitted], and no information on the non-participating wells that may be impacted.”

Custis goes on to list other recommended groundwater monitoring information that the LTWT does not include.

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53 LTWT, page 3.3-22.
55 LTWT, page 3.3-22.
56 Custis 2014, pages 9-10.
A related point is the available monitoring data from past water transfers. DWR and BOR apparently already collect information on the impacts of groundwater pumping in support of water transfers on groundwater levels.\textsuperscript{59} The LTWT makes no mention of this data or how it could help inform the analysis of impacts of water transfers at issue in the LTWT on groundwater levels and related concerns. It would seem that BOR has available data relevant to its analysis described in the LTWT but makes no use of this data. On this point Custis notes,

“The BoR should already have monitoring and mitigation plans and evaluation reports based on the requirements of the DTIPWTP for past groundwater substitution transfers, which likely were undertaken by some of the same sellers as the proposed 10-year transfer project.”\textsuperscript{60}

\textbf{The analysis relies on outdated prices for agricultural commodities}

The analysis described in the LTWT uses outdated prices for agricultural commodities to estimate the volume and value of water transfers. The analysis relies on prices for rice, processing tomatoes, corn and alfalfa from 2006 through 2010.\textsuperscript{61} The analysis compares the price of water, which as we note above bears no resemblance to current prices, with prices for agricultural commodities to estimate cases in which selling water is more profitable than producing crops. Using outdated commodity prices compounds the error of using water prices that greatly underestimate actual prices. The combined effect is misleading results and conclusions regarding the degree of participation by growers in the water transfer program.

\textbf{No mention of how prices for water and agricultural commodities could impact the affected environment, water transfers and their environmental and economic consequences}

The water transfers at issue in the LTWT would not happen in an economic vacuum. Growers and water sellers and buyers react to changing price and market conditions. The LTWT, however, is silent on these forces and how they would influence water transfers.

The analysis depicted in the LTWT assumes a static water price of $225 per af and prices for agricultural commodities as they existed in 2006 through 2010.\textsuperscript{62} Such a static analysis

\begin{footnotesize}
\item[58] Custis 2014, page 2.
\item[60] Custis 2014, page 24.
\item[61] LTWT, page 3.10-27, -28.
\item[62] LTWT, page 3.10-27.
\end{footnotesize}
provides a single estimate, or a snapshot view, of estimated water transfers. A more informative and useful analysis would have described how changing water and commodity prices influence the conclusions re the number and volumes of water transfers. Such a sensitivity analysis would allow readers to better compare current or expected future prices with prices in the analysis to see how these conditions affect results.

The LTWT is also silent on likely transaction costs and how they influence water transfers. Water transactions, particularly out-of-basin and cross-Delta, would require a diverse and substantial set of transaction costs that are not quantitatively included in the analysis. Omitting these transaction costs either overestimates the benefit potential to buyers and sellers of these transactions, or implies that these transaction costs will be borne by the public. Communication, information, and contracting costs have long inhibited water markets in California, and while mechanisms for overcoming these challenges have improved, they do have real costs, particularly across diverse regions and incorporating farmers using differing operations.63 Transaction costs are hurdles to transactions, functionally a third party that must be satisfied before the buyer and seller can find opportunities to both be made better off by the transaction. For example, if a seller is willing to sell water at $250 per af, and a buyer is willing to pay $300 per af, if there are $60 per af in transaction costs, the transaction cannot efficiently take place.

Cross-Delta transaction would also impose a number of costs on the Delta conveyance system. Pumping costs at Banks and Jones Pumping Plants should be incorporated into transaction costs. Transactions could also affect congestion and overall capacity for these plants and the SWP and CVP systems overall. Energy, management, staffing, delays, and other costs and impositions could arise that would either require compensation by the buyers and sellers, or externalities on other parties.

Permitting, liability, and long-term protection of water rights all contribute to additional concerns for buyers and sellers that functionally generate additional forms of transaction costs. If these are incorporated into willingness-to-pay for buyers and willingness-to-accept for sellers, the transactions become less desirable. Alternatively, if these costs are borne by public agencies, as with the variety of other transaction costs mentioned above and referenced qualitatively throughout the LTWT, the burden for taxpayers could be substantial. These public contributions require demonstration of benefits to the public as a whole. The LTWT does not demonstrate benefits to portions of the public that are not party to transactions. On this point Custis notes,

"Because the spatial limits of groundwater substitution pumping impacts are controlled by hydrogeology, hydrology, and rates, durations and seasons of pumping, the impacts may not be limited to the boundaries of each seller’s service area, GMPs [groundwater

management plan], or County. There is a possibility that a seller’s groundwater substitution area of impact will occur in multiple local jurisdictions, which should results [sic] in project requirements coming from multiple local as well as state and federal agencies. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t discuss which of the multiple local agencies would be the lead agency, how an agreement between agencies would be reached, or how the requirements of the other agencies will be enforced.”

Overall, the estimates of benefits and costs of transactions, as well as identification of efficient transactions, do not include the diverse and substantial set of transaction costs that cross-Delta transfers would require. Therefore the analysis either overestimates the benefits of the LTWT, or hides public costs to manage and overcome these transaction costs.

64 Custis 2014, page 9.
4 The LTWT underestimates negative impacts on the regional economy in the sellers area

In this section we describe our comments on the analysis of regional economic effects in the LTWT.

Underestimates economic effects on regional economy in sellers area

In the sections above, we describe omissions and errors regarding the estimated number and volumes of water transfers. Some of these errors could lead to underestimating the number and volume of water transfers, some could have the opposite effect. In this subsection we focus on additional examples of how the LTWT likely underestimates the number and volume of water transfers that will happen in the future. By underestimating the water transfers the LTWT also underestimates the negative impacts of the transfers on the regional economy in the sellers area.

The negative economic effects listed in the LTWT include:

- Approximately 500 lost jobs in Glenn, Colusa, Yolo, Sutter, Butte and Solano counties.
- Over $20 million in lost labor income and over $61 million in lost economic output in these same counties.
- Unquantified but increased pumping costs for water users in areas where groundwater levels decline.
- Unquantified but negative affects on other local economic effects.
- Unquantified but negative affects on tenant farmers.65

The LTWT analysis of some regional economic effects assumes non-consecutive years of water transfers. If water transfers happen in consecutive years, impacts would be greater than reported in the LTWT.

“Local effects would be more adverse if cropland idling transfers occurred in consecutive years. Business owners would likely be able to recover from reduced sales in a single year, but it would be more difficult if sales remained low for multiple years.”66

As shown in LTWT Table 1-3 on page 1-17, from 2004 through 2014, there have been eight water-transfer years out of 11, and 5 cases of consecutive transfer years. Given these recent

65 LTWT, page 3.10-45 and -46.
66 LTWT, page 3.10-33.
conditions, it is likely that consecutive years of water transfers will happen more frequently than assumed in the LTWT.

**Incomplete description of impacts on pumping costs**

The LTWT reports that farmers in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Valleys pay water-pumping costs of approximately $0.32 per af.\(^67\) The LTWT analysis estimates that as a result of groundwater-substitution transfers, pumping costs for “many growers” would increase by $0.32 to $1.60 per af.\(^68\) This represents a non-trivial increase of 100 to 500 percent. In some cases, cost increases could be $6.40 to $8.00 per af.\(^69\) Expressed on a percentage basis these amounts are increases of 2,000 to 2,500 percent. The LTWT describes these increases in pumping costs as “adverse.” The analysis, however, does not report a total estimated increase in pumping costs or describe the increase as a percentage of current costs, either of which would have helped the reader better understand the significance of the increase.\(^70\) A related point is that the analysis of pumping costs in the LTWT relies on results from the water modeling, the deficiencies of which we describe above and elsewhere in this report.

It’s also not clear from the description of the analysis if the “adverse” effects on pumping costs apply only to those participating in water transfers, or also affect third parties that will not benefit from the transfers.

**No mention of costs of deepening or installing new wells**

The LTWT makes no mention of increased costs of deepening or installing new wells as a result of the impacts of groundwater pumping on groundwater levels. As we note above in section 2 under the description of current groundwater conditions, the CASGEM groundwater basin prioritization study lists 23 basins in the Sacramento Valley ranked “high” or “medium” dependent on groundwater. These basins support private residential wells, public water supply wells, and irrigation wells.\(^71\) Recent news reports describe the intensity of well drilling operations in California’s Central Valley.\(^72\) To the extent that groundwater pumping in support of water transfers lowers groundwater levels, some

\(^68\) LTWT, page 3.10-36.
\(^69\) LTWT, page 3.10-36.
\(^70\) A related point is that Figures 3.10-5 and 3.10-6 are confusing in that the captions include “September 1990” and “September 1976,” respectively. The discussion on page 3.10-36, which introduces the figures, makes no mention of these dates or their significance.
\(^71\) DWR, 2014b, pages 2-5.
current water users depending on groundwater may face increased costs of deepening or installing new wells. The analysis described in the LTWT does not address these costs.

**Underestimates the significance of impacts on unemployment rates**

Any negative impacts of water transfers on agricultural production and related unemployment effects, would take place against a backdrop of already hurting economies. As Figure 3.10-7 illustrates, current unemployment rates in the seller counties runs between approximately 8 and 18 percent. The LTWT analysis estimates that water transfers will idle approximately 500 workers in the Sacramento Valley. The analysis assumes that impacts of transfers on unemployment would be temporary.

“Reductions in employment associated with cropland idling transfers would contribute to unemployment in the region. However, cropland idling effects are temporary and under the Proposed Action, cropland idling transfers would not occur each year over the 10-year period.”73

As we note above, however, data on the frequency of recent water transfers do not support the LTWT assumptions regarding infrequent future water-transfer years. Thus, the LTWT analysis likely underestimated the negative impacts of the plan on unemployment in the Sacramento Valley.

**No mention of economic harm to local economies from lost water-based recreational activities**

The analysis of regional economic effects in the LTWT focuses on impacts of water transfers on agricultural production and related businesses. The LTWT ignores other negative impacts on the regional economy. For example, the LTWT is silent on the impacts of water transfers on reservoirs such as Lake Oroville and others in the sellers area, and the related impacts on the region’s water-based recreational economy. In their letter commenting on the LTWT, the Butte County Board of Supervisors noted their concerns that the LTWT “…failed to take into account the reduction in stream flows and the lowering of Lake Oroville that will harm the local economy.”74 In an earlier letter to Governor Brown commenting on the BDCP, the Butte County Board of Supervisors noted the importance of the lake to the region’s economy, and the fact that the State of California has not fulfilled commitments made regarding developments at Lake Oroville.75 Ignoring the potential impacts of water transfers on Lake Oroville and the associated economic impacts compounds the negative effects of the State’s failure to fulfill past commitments at the lake.

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73 LTWT, page 3.10-49.
**Arbitrary limits on crop idling**

The analysis in the LTWT relies on arbitrary limits on crop idling as a means of avoiding negative economic impacts. The DWR and BOR document that provides technical guidance for those interested in making water transfers describes the possibility of negative economic effects of crop idling, however, the guidelines for the amount of idling that would cause economic harm appear arbitrary. The relevant passage from the document states,

“Cropland idling/crop shifting transfers have the potential to affect the local economy. Parties that depend on farming-related activities can experience decreases in business if land idling becomes extensive. Limiting cropland idling to 20 percent of the total irrigable land in a county should limit economic effects.” [emphasis added]

While the statement may be true, it lacks the analytical rigor that would satisfy NEPA requirements for, “Rigorous exploration and objective evaluation of all reasonable alternatives, …” As such, the guidelines on crop idling seem arbitrary rather than the result of rigorous and objective analysis.

Table 3.10-22 lists the total number of acres affected by cropland idling in the analysis described in the LTWT. As shown in this table, approximately 60,000 acres could be idled in Glenn, Colusa, Yolo, Sutter, and Butte counties. In the table below, we show the total number of acres of irrigable land in each county, and 20 percent of these acres. According to the guidelines noted above, up to 257,000 acres could be idled in these counties without significant economic effects. This seems doubtful. Rather than relying on arbitrary rules of thumb and assumed limited economic effects of idling, a more complete and transparent assessment of the economic effects of water transfers would take an analytical and quantified approach.

**Table 1: Acres of Cropland, by County, 2011.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Acres of Cropland</th>
<th>20 Percent of Acres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Butte</td>
<td>224,592</td>
<td>47,969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colusa</td>
<td>291,435</td>
<td>56,246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glenn</td>
<td>250,493</td>
<td>50,099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sutter</td>
<td>239,846</td>
<td>58,287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yolo</td>
<td>281,228</td>
<td>44,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,287,594</td>
<td>257,519</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


77 LTWT page 2-1.
5 The LTWT finds significant negative effects but the vague and incomplete proposed monitoring and mitigation plans would not address these effects

The LTWT concludes that water transfers will have some significantly negative impacts on groundwater resources. As we note in earlier sections of this report, the analysis described in the LTWT likely underestimates the negative effects of water transfers. For example, the analysis likely underestimates the frequency of water-transfer years, and so the negative effects of the transfers. The analysis also ignores negative impacts on water-based recreational activities and the associated negative economic consequences. The monitoring and mitigation plans focus only on the negative effects listed in the LTWT. Thus, they would address only a subset of the likely total negative economic consequences of the water transfers. In addition, the vague and incomplete proposed monitoring and mitigation plans would not adequately address those negative effects listed in the LTWT. Concerns regarding these plans include the following.

The LTWT ignored the costs of monitoring and mitigation

The LTWT proposes both a monitoring and mitigation program for significant negative impacts of water transfers on groundwater resources. Implementing these programs would take planning, effort and financial resources. The LTWT, however, does not include these costs in their analysis of alternatives. For example, water sellers would be required to monitor and record groundwater conditions and coordinate with regulators regarding the impacts of their groundwater pumping on groundwater levels. Water seller will incur costs monitoring, measuring, recording, and reporting the necessary information. The LTWT excludes these and related costs from the analysis.

Likewise, the mitigation of negative groundwater consequences would also require time, effort, and costs to water sellers, third parties negatively affected by groundwater pumping, and regulators. LTWT excludes these costs as well.

The monitoring and mitigation programs include inherent conflicts of interests

The monitoring program as described in the LTWT is vague and depends on sellers implementing the program. This conflict of interest pits financial gain from water sales against complete and impartial monitoring efforts. This opens the door to lax, biased, or incomplete monitoring, which could lead to negative environmental and economic consequences for third parties not part of the water transfers.
The monitoring program includes provisions for a coordination plan that would share information among “well operators and other decision makers.” Such confidential results would keep other stakeholders in the dark regarding the impacts of water transfers. Given the fact that multiple wells belonging to multiple property owners can access the same groundwater aquifer, and that groundwater pumping can affect flows of surface water, such a confidential program seems counter to the wellbeing of the regional economy in the sellers area. An open monitoring program with public results would better communicate the potential environmental and economic risks of groundwater pumping in support of water transfers.

If the seller’s monitoring program finds that water sales are causing “substantial adverse impacts” the seller will be responsible for implementing a mitigation program. The conflict of interest is obvious.

One method of avoiding the obvious conflicts of interests is requiring monitoring by independent third parties not involved with or affected by groundwater pumping in support of water transfers. Such monitoring could be detailed, transparent and public, which would alleviate concerns over the risks and consequences of negative environmental and economic effects of groundwater pumping. Mitigation decisions and requirements should likewise be detailed, transparent and public for the same reasons.

**Insufficient monitoring period**

As described in the LTWT, groundwater levels would be monitored through March of the year following a transfer. It’s not clear that this limited monitoring period is sufficiently long enough to track potential impacts on groundwater of water transfers. For example, the report cited above for the NCWA states,

“…[G]roundwater changes can take many years to become apparent, and we have not yet been able to measure with certainty the long-term impacts of the current level of groundwater use as it affects our measures of sustainability.”

An insufficient monitoring period could underestimate the impacts of groundwater pumping on groundwater levels and impacts on stream flow depletions. Lowering groundwater level and increasing stream flow depletions would generate negative environmental and economic impacts. The monitoring period in the LTWT may cause analysts to underestimate the environmental and economic effects of the water-transfers alternatives.

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79 LTWT, page 3.3-89.
80 LTWT, page 3.3-90.
Insufficient monitoring for land subsidence

The monitoring program includes monitoring subsidence, however, the program is vague on monitoring requirements and what amount of subsidence would trigger a halt in water transfers. Custis describes a number of technical deficiencies in the proposed mitigation plan.

“The Draft EIS/EIR should be able to provide the specific thresholds of subsidence that will trigger the need for additional extensometer monitoring, continuous GPS monitoring, or extensive land-elevation benchmark surveys by a licensed surveyor as required by GW-1. The Draft EIS/EIR should also specify in mitigation measure GW-1, the frequency and methods of collecting and reporting subsidence measurements, and discuss how the non-participating landowners and the public can obtain this information in a timely manner. In addition, the Draft EIS/EIR should provide a discussion of the thresholds that will trigger implementation of the reimbursement mitigation measure required by GW-1 for repair or modifications to infrastructure damaged by non-reversible subsidence, and the procedures for seeking monetary recovery from subsidence damage [citation omitted].”

“Specific ‘strategic’ subsidence monitoring locations should be given in mitigation measure GW-1 based on analysis of the susceptible infrastructure locations and the potential subsidence areas.”

Implementing the Custis recommendations will take time and financial resources for water sellers, local jurisdictions and third parties negatively affected by groundwater pumping. The LTWT does not include the costs of these measures in the analysis. Thus, the costs of the water transfers described in the LTWT underestimate the true costs of the program.

Vague significance criteria

The mitigation program includes a number of vague descriptions of critical components. Relevant missing descriptions include details on:

- How regulators and stakeholders would define “substantial adverse impacts” from groundwater pumping.
- What constitutes a “significant” increase in pumping costs suffered by injured third parties.
- Required modifications to damaged third-party infrastructure or the installation of new infrastructure.

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82 Custis 2014, page 28.
• The procedure that injured third parties would use when making claims against a seller.
• The procedure that regulators and stakeholders would use when investigating third-party claims.
• What constitutes “legitimate significant effects” on third parties.\(^{83}\)

A vague and ill-defined mitigation program increases risks of environmental and economic harm, and shifts the costs of such harm from water sellers to third parties and society in general. The analysis described in the LWTW does not identify, describe or quantify these risks, costs and consequences. A related point is that the LTWT makes no mention of BOR addressing these or similar issues as part of reviewing past annual water transfers. Including such information from past water transfers—if BOR considered these effects—in the LWTW could help illustrate or describe the uncertainties listed above.

**The mitigation plan puts costs on to injured third parties**

Injured third parties bear the costs of bringing to the sellers’ attention harm caused by groundwater pumping. Also, the LTWT states that proposed mitigation options would be developed “in cooperation”\(^{84}\) with injured third parties. This approach places costs on injured third parties rather than on sellers. That is, those who would not benefit financially from the program bear the costs of bringing negative impacts to the sellers’ attention. They also would incur costs of documenting and presenting their damages in the context of an ill-defined mitigation program. This raises equity concerns that those suffering costs of the program bear the additional costs of identifying, describing and calling attention to their costs. The analysis described in the LTWT further assumes that disagreements regarding third-party damages would be settled cooperatively, without presenting evidence substantiating such an optimistic assumption. The LTWT is silent on the economic consequences of sellers and injured third parties not cooperatively agreeing on harm and compensation.

As we note above, information the BOR collected from past water transfers may help inform the types and amounts of costs that injured third parties could incur as a result of the water transfers at issue in the LTWT.

**BOR’s role in monitoring and mitigation**

The LTWT describes a substantive role for BOR in the monitoring and mitigation program, without specifics of how BOR would implement its responsibilities. Topic not addressed include:

\(^{83}\) LTWT, page 3.3-88 through -91.
\(^{84}\) LTWT, page 3.3-91.
The costs to BOR of monitoring and mitigation.
The details of interactions between sellers, injured third parties, and BOR staff regarding the details of monitoring and mitigation.
The details of collecting, organizing and publishing relevant details of monitoring and mitigation.
The details of decision making processes that affect monitoring and mitigation.
The details of interactions between BOR and other federal or state agencies, and BOR and local jurisdictions.

**Lead CEQA agency**

SLDMWA is the lead state agency regarding CEQA compliance. It is also one of three potential buyers for the transferred water. This arrangement creates a conflict of interest in that the lead CEQA agency also has a self interest in facilitating the water transfers. As described on their website, SLDMWA delivers approximately 3 million af of water to member agencies. SLDMWA has a financial and operational interest in delivering water to its members. Thus, SLDMWA is not an impartial agent.

The LTWT provides no information on why SLDMWA is the lead state agency and not the California Department of Water Resources.

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85 LTWT EIS/EIR, Table 1-2, page 1-5. The other two buyers are Contra Costa Water District and the East Bay Municipal Utility District.
6 The LTWT ignores the economic costs of environmental externalities and subsidies that water transfers support

The LTWT lists Westlands Water District as one of the CVP contractors expressing interest in purchasing transfer water. The environmental externalities caused by agricultural production in Westlands are well documented, as are the economic subsidies that support this production. To the extent that the water transfers at issue in the LTWT facilitate agricultural production in Westlands, they also contribute to the environmental externalities and economic subsidies of that production. The LTWT is silent on these environmental and economic consequences of the water transfers.

In this section we summarize recent information on the environmental externalities and economic subsidies of agricultural production on Westlands that water transfers would support.

The environmental and economic externalities of Westlands have a long history

For decades, high levels of selenium have posed a serious environmental threat to drinking water, soil quality, and agriculture in the Westlands Water District. This naturally occurring element leaches into soil and drinking water when irrigation water is applied and when significant levels accumulate, has been known to cause deformities and death in wildlife and human beings. The most extreme example of this type of degradation occurred from 1981-1986 during the Kesterson Disaster, when the federally operated San Luis Unit diverted selenium-rich wastewater into the Kesterson National Wildlife Refuge, killing over one thousand birds and causing severe birth defects.

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87 LTWT, page 1-5.
Current environmental concerns

Since the Kesterson Disaster, the Westlands has followed a “no-discharge policy” where irrigated wastewater is reused on agricultural land or stored in groundwater aquifers.\(^\text{91}\) In spite of the well-documented concerns regarding selenium contaminated runoff from Westlands, as yet there is no official monitoring of selenium levels in the district.\(^\text{92}\) The San Luis Act (1960) gives the BOR, not the Westlands Water District, responsibility for disposing of Westland Water,\(^\text{93}\) but as of yet neither entity has implemented any meaningful solution. This failure prompted the Westlands District to bring a lawsuit against the BOR in 1995, which was finally brought to the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals in 2000.\(^\text{94}\) The court upheld a lower court’s decision to force the BOR to provide drainage to the district but allowed that solutions other than a drain might be considered.\(^\text{95}\)

At first, it seemed that large-scale retirement of farmland was the solution favored by both the Westlands and the federal government.\(^\text{96}\) In 2001, the District released a fact sheet entitled “Why Land Retirement Makes Sense for the Westlands Water District” advocating for a possible deal with the federal government that would retire up to 200,000 acres of agricultural land. According to the federal government’s National Economic Development analysis, this option would result in an economic gain of $3.6 million per year excluding any additional savings as a result of reduced crop subsidies.\(^\text{97}\) Instead, after more than a decade of negotiations, the federal


Westlands Water District.

government and the Westlands Water District finally signed an agreement in 2014 which lifts the federal government’s obligation to provide drainage to the district, forgives the nearly $400 million the district owes to the federal government for its part in the construction of the Central Valley Project (CVP), assures the district almost 900,000 acre-feet of water per year from the CVP, and requires only 100,000 acres of land be retired. This leaves over 100,000 more acres of selenium-degraded land that the Westlands Water District will now need to decide how to drain in the years to come. In addition, while the BOR’s Environmental Assessment found that there would be no significant environmental impact as a result of the interim renewal contracts with the Westlands and other CVP districts, several environmental groups have criticized the study as violating federal environmental requirements, including the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969.

**Economic subsidies to the Westlands water district**

As the largest water district in California and the largest recipient of water under the Central Valley Project, the Westlands Water District receives significant crop, water, and power subsidies to supplement its agricultural activities. According to a report by the Environmental Working Group, between 2005 and 2009, the federal government issued almost $55 million of counter cyclical and direct crop subsidies to 356 individuals in the district. The district’s 350 farms networks are entitled to over 1.1 million acre-feet of water per year, more than twice the allocation of the City of Los Angeles. In 2002, the group estimated that the federal

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government paid $110 million per year in water subsidies, making its water drastically less expensive than that allocated to urban households.  

In 2002, the Westlands Water District received more than $70 million in power subsidies. Although the Westlands receives 25% of all water from the CVP, it consumes 60% of the electricity required to deliver water to all districts and 60% of all government granted power subsidies to the CVP.  

As mentioned above, the federal government has subsidized the Central Valley Project since its construction. While farmers were meant to pay $1 billion of the $3.6 billion project cost fifty years after its completion, it’s estimated that by 2008, only 20% of that debt had been repaid.  

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7 The LTWT underestimates the cumulative effects of water transfers

Cumulative effects analyses under NEPA and CEQA are intended to identify impacts that materialize or are compounded when the proposed action is implemented at the same time as or in conjunction with other actions. In Chapters 3 and 4, the LTWT addresses cumulative effects for each resource area and provides a global description of the methods and actions considered for analysis in each resource area. Section 3.10 provides a cursory discussion of potential cumulative effects for the regional economy, but ignores the full range of possible cumulative outcomes associated with the proposed action.

According to NEPA and CEQA requirements, cumulative effects analysis must examine the possibility of effects occurring across several dimensions. When multiple projects produce effects within the same geographic and temporal range, they may:

- Expand or contract the set of possible impacts.
- Increase or decrease the likelihood of specific potential impacts.
- Accelerate or decelerate the timing of specific potential impacts.
- Change the trajectory of potential impacts.
- Increase or decrease the economic importance of specific potential impacts.
- Shift the distribution of uncertainty or risk borne by different groups.

Cumulative effects may arise as multiple projects interact in a linear fashion, resulting in impacts that are additive. Interactions might also be non-linear, either offsetting each other to be less than additive, or exacerbating each other to be greater than additive.

The LTWT does not adequately consider cumulative effects within this framework, so misses important interactions that could result in significant impacts beyond those identified for the project alone.

One of the greatest potential sources of cumulative impacts is non-CVP water transfers. Although transfers under the SWP were considered, the possibility of other transfers occurring was not. Additional transfers would have similar impacts in the sellers’ region, and may also lead to net effects that exceed sustainable thresholds and have a larger impact than each would individually. For example, the analysis

- Ignores cumulative effects of additional water transfers on water prices, and fails to examine the effects of price on the decisions and behaviors of farmers in the context of other water transfers.
- Ignores effects resulting from additional water transfers that have the potential to influence agricultural prices, and how those agricultural prices influence decisions about water transfers.
• Treats effects as “temporary” and thus not significant, and thereby fails to adequately account for potential thresholds in the local agricultural economy where short-term effects would become long-term effects.
• Assumes mitigation for groundwater effects of the proposed action would make farmers whole, so fails to properly account for potential threshold effects in groundwater resources, and associated costs to farmers.
• Ignores the possibility that increased uncertainty related to groundwater levels, agricultural market conditions, etc. from the proposed action, in conjunction with other actions, would adversely affect farmers.
• Ignores the cumulative effects of additional water transfers on environmental resources and conditions including aquatic, riparian, terrestrial and avian species and habitats.
December 1, 2014

Mr. Brad Hubbard  Ms. Frances Mizuno
United States Bureau of Reclamation  San Luis & Delta Mendota Water Authority
2800 Cottage Way, MP-410  842 6th Street
Sacramento, CA 95825  Los Banos, CA 93635
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Dear Mr. Hubbard and Ms. Mizuno:


AquAlliance exists to sustain and defend northern California waters. We have participated in past water transfer processes, commented on past transfer documents, and sued the Bureau twice in the last five years. In doing so we seek to protect the Sacramento River’s watershed in order to sustain family farms and communities, enhance Delta water quality, protect creeks and rivers, native flora and fauna, vernal pools and recreational opportunities, and to participate in planning locally and regionally for the watershed’s long-term future. The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program is seriously deficient and should be withdrawn. If the Bureau and DWR are determined to pursue water transfers from the Sacramento Valley, AquAlliance requests that the agencies regroup and prepare an adequate programmatic EIS/EIR.

This letter relies significantly on, references, and incorporates by reference as though fully stated herein, for which we expressly request that a response to each comment contained therein be provided, the following comments submitted on behalf of AquAlliance:
AquAlliance, Written Comments  
Long Term Water Transfer, Draft EIS/EIR  
December 1, 2014

- Mish, Kyran D., 2014. Comments for AquAlliance on Long-Term Water Transfers Draft EIR/EIS. (“Mish,” Exhibit C)

In addition, we renew the following comments previously submitted, attached hereto, as fully bearing upon the presently proposed project and request:

- 2009 Drought Water Bank (“DWB”). (Exhibit F)
- 2010-2011 Water Transfer Program. (Exhibit G)
- 2013 Water Transfer Program. (Exhibit G)
- 2014 Water Transfer Program. (Exhibit G)
- C-WIN, CSPA, AquAlliance Comments and Attachments for the Bay Delta Conservation Plan’s EIS/EIR. (Exhibit H)
- AquAlliance’s comments on the Bay Delta Conservation Plan’s EIS/EIR. (Exhibit H)
- CSPA’s comments on the Bay Delta Conservation Plan’s EIS/EIR. (Exhibit H)

I. The EIS/EIR Contains an Inadequate Project Description.

A “finite project description is indispensable to an informative, legally adequate EIR.” County of Inyo v. City of Los Angeles (1977) 71 Cal.App.3d 185, 192. CEQA defines a “project” to include “the whole of an action” that may result in adverse environmental change. CEQA Guidelines § 15378. A project may not be split into component parts each subject to separate environmental review. See, e.g., Orinda Ass’n v. Board of Supervisors (1986) 182 Cal.App.3d 1145, 1171; Riverwatch v. County of San Diego (1999) 76 Cal.App.4th 1428. Without a complete and accurate description of the project and all of its components, an accurate environmental analysis is not possible. See, e.g., Santiago County Water Dist. v. County of Orange (1981) 118 Cal.App.3d 818, 829; Sierra Club v. City of Orange (2008) 163 Cal.App.4th 523, 533; City of Santee v. County of San Diego (1989) 214 Cal.App.3d 1438, 1450; Blue Mountains Biodiversity Project v. United States Forest Service, 161 F.3d 1208, 1215 (9th Cir. 2008).
As discussed, below, and in the expert reports submitted by Custis, EcoNorthwest, Cannon, and Mish on behalf of AquAlliance, the EIS/EIR fails to comport with these standards.

a. The Project / Proposed Action Alternative Description Lacks Detail Necessary for Full Environmental Analysis.

i. Actual transfer buyers, sellers, modes, amounts, criteria, market demands, availability, and timing, are undisclosed.

The Proposed Action Alternative is poorly specified and needs additional clarity before decision-makers and the public can understand its human and environmental consequences. The Lead Agencies tacitly admit that they have no idea how many acre-feet of water may be made available, by what mechanism the water may be made available (fallowing, groundwater substitution, or crop changes), or to what ultimate use (public health, urban, agricultural) the water may be put.

Glenn Colusa Irrigation District is listed as the largest potential seller, but its General Manager, Thad Bettner, asserted publicly on October 7, 2014 that the district hadn’t committed to the 91,000 AF found in Table ES-2 (Potential Sellers). GCID subsequently sent the Bureau a letter that states that GCID plans to pursue its own Groundwater Supplemental Supply Program and that, “It is important for Reclamation to understand that GCID has not approved the operation of any District facilities attributed to the LTWTP Action/Project that is presented in the draft EIR/EIS.”

The letters continues stating that, “It is important to underscore that GCID would prioritize pumping during dry and critically dry water years for use in the Groundwater Supplemental Supply Program, and thus wells used under that program would not otherwise be available for the USBR’s LTWTP.” First, these public and written comments contradict the EIS/EIR on page 3.8-37 where it states that, “The availability of supplies in the seller service area was determined based on data provided by the potential sellers.” Second, the largest potential seller in the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program is seemingly unable or unwilling to participate in the groundwater substitution component during dry and critically dry years. In addition, GCID has stated that “it will not participate in a groundwater substitution transfer, and for land idling reduce the acreage from 20,000 acres to no more than 10,000 acres.” Similarly, the Sacramento Suburban Water District received $2 million from the Governor’s Water Action Plan to move groundwater to member agencies that have been “[h]eavily dependent on Folsom reservoir,” according to John Woodling of the Sacramento Regional Water Authority.

Woodling continues that, “During these dry times, the groundwater basin really is our insurance

1 GCID October 14, 2014.
2 GCID November 6, 2014 Board Meeting Item #6.
policy,” (Id). Knowing that smart water managers are very aware of this fact, why would Sacramento Suburban Water District turn around and propose to sell 30,000 AF of water to the out-of-region buyers through groundwater substitution transfers during the Project’s “[d]ry and critically dry years”? In short, the EIS/EIR has no way of knowing what transfers may occur, and when.

It is also not possible to determine with confidence just how much water is requested by potential urban and agricultural buyers and how firm the requests are. What are SLDMWA’s specific requests for agricultural or urban uses of Project water? What are the SLDMWA’s present agricultural water demands for the 850,000 acres that it serves? Left to guess at the possible requests for water, we look at the 2009 DWB where there were between 400,000 and 500,000 AF of presumably urban buyer requests alone (which had priority over agricultural purchases, according to the 2009 DWB priorities) and a cumulative total of less than 400,000 AF from willing sellers. It is highly possible, based on the example during the 2009 DWB, that many buyers are not likely to have their needs addressed by the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program. How would this affect the project objectives and purpose? How would this affect variable circumstances for other proposed transfers?

The EIS/EIR also fails to address the ability and willingness of potential buyers to pay for Project water given the supplies that may be available. Complaints from agricultural water districts were registered in the comments on the Draft Environmental Water Account EIS/EIR and reported in the Final EIS/EIR in January 2004 indicating that they could not compete on price with urban areas buying water from the EWA. Given the absence of priority criteria, will agricultural water buyers identified in Table ES-1 have the ability to buy water when competing with urban districts? Moreover, since buyers are not disclosed in the EIS/EIR for non-CVP river water, these further effects on water market conditions and competition between agricultural and urban sectors is impossible to evaluate. Who are the buyers that may request non-CVP river water, and what are their maximum requests? That DWR is not the CEQA lead agency further complicates the evaluation of competition for water in the EIS/EIR.

Nor does the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program prevent rice growers (or other farmers) from “double-dipping,” but actually encourages it. Districts and their growers have opted to turn back their surface supplies from the CVP and the State Water Project and substitute groundwater to cultivate their rice crop—thereby receiving premiums on both their CVP contract surface water as well as their rice crop each fall when it goes to market. There appear to be no caps on water sale prices to prevent windfall profits to sellers of Sacramento Valley water — especially for crops with high market prices, such as rice.

The EIS/EIR is inadequate because it fails to identify and analyze the market context for crops as well as water that would ultimately influence the size and scope of the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program.
Transfer Program. The Project’s sellers and buyers are highly sensitive to the influences of prices—prices for water as well as crops such as rice, orchard and vineyard commodities, and other field crops. It is plausible that crop idling would occur more in field crops, while groundwater substitution would be more likely for orchard and vineyard crops. However, high prices for rice—the Sacramento Valley’s largest field crop—undermines this logic and leads to substantial groundwater substitution. These potential issues and impacts should be recognized in the EIS/EIR because crop prices are key factors in choices potential water sellers would weigh in deciding whether to idle crops, substitute groundwater, or decline to participate in the Project altogether.

To enable a more complete and discrete project description, the EIS/EIR should propose criteria other than price alone to manage allocation of state water resources. The EIS/EIR should consider some priority criteria as was included in the 2009 Drought Water Bank EA/FONSI (p. 3-88). Do both authorizing agencies, the Bureau and DWR, lack criteria to prioritize water transfers? Are transfers approved on a first-come first-serve basis, as generated by market conditions alone? What is the legal or policy basis to act without providing priority criteria? A lack of criteria fails to encourage regions to develop their own water supplies more efficiently and cost-effectively without damage to resources of other regions. If criteria will be applied, these need to be disclosed and analyzed in the EIS/EIR.

Additional uncertainty caused by the incomplete project description includes:

- How many of the proposed transfers would be one year in duration, multi-year, or permanent. How will the duration of any agreement be determined? The duration of a transfer agreement will have dramatic effects on the water market as well as the environmental impact analysis.
- The EIS/EIR purports to be a 10 year project, but is there an actual sunset date, since it continues serially in multiple years? Could any transfer be approved in the next 10 years that would extend beyond 2024?
- The proposed program provides no way to know what ultimate use transferred water will be put to; nor does the EIS/EIR provide any way to know what activities may occur on idled cropland. The EIS/EIR assumptions on these points are inherently incomplete and fail to support any discrete environmental analysis.

In sum, the proposed program provides no way to know which transfers may or may not occur, individually or cumulatively. The lack of a stable and finite project description undermines the entire EIS/EIR. As discussed further, below, description of the environmental setting, evaluation of potentially significant impacts, and formulation of mitigation measures, among other issues, all are rendered unduly imprecise, deferred, and incomplete, subject to the theoretical transfers taking shape at some, unknown, future time.

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4 EcoNorthwest (Exhibit B).
Absence from the DEIS/EIR are any of the required monitoring reports from previous transfer projects. See, e.g., Citizens for East Shore Parks v. State Lands Commission (2010) 48 Cal.App.4th 549; Communities for a Better Environment v. South Coast Air Quality Mgmt. Dist. (2010) 48 Cal.App.4th 310. Without the required monitoring reports, the public is left in the dark regarding this new proposal to sell up to 600,000 AF annually over a 10 year period. No information is provided regarding the impacts to downstream users, wells near production wells, the Sacramento River and its tributaries, refuges, water quality, special status species and the San Francisco Bay Delta Estuary from past CVP transfers or cumulatively including non-CVP water transfers in the area of origin. For example, groundwater substitution transfers and transfers that result in reduced flows in combination with below normal water years are known to have the potential for significant impacts on water quality, fish, wildlife and the flows in the Sacramento River and its tributaries. Providing all such documentation of the terms, conditions, effects, and outcomes of prior transfers is integral to understanding the proposed Project.

b. The Proposed Project is in Fact a Proposed Program.

The lack of any stable, discrete, project description, at best, renders the proposed project a “program,” rather than any specific project itself. “[A] program EIR is distinct from a project EIR, which is prepared for a specific project and must examine in detail site-specific considerations.” Center for Sierra Nevada Conservation v. County of El Dorado (2012) 202 Cal.App.4th 1156, 1184. As discussed further, below, this EIS/EIR does not and cannot complete site-specific and project-specific analysis of unknown transfers at unknown times. Buyers and sellers have “expressed interest,” but no specific transfers or combination of transfers are proposed, and we don’t know which may be proposed or ultimately approved.

Put differently, the EIS/EIR project description is not simply inadequate: the EIS/EIR fails to propose or approve any project at all. Instead, the EIS/EIR should be recharacterized and revised as a program EIS/EIR. Indeed, agency documents have referred to this program, as such, for years. (E.g., Federal Register /Vol. 75, No. 248 /Tuesday, December 28, 2010 /Notices Long-Term North to South Water Transfer Program, Sacramento County, CA; Final EA/FONSI for 2010-2011 Water Transfer Program.) And other external sources also support the proposition that this EIS/EIR does not and cannot review and approve specific transfers:

“Each transfer is unique and must be evaluated individually to determine the quantity and timing of real water made available.” (BDCP DEIR at 1E-2.)

“Although this document seeks to identify in the best and most complete way possible the information needed for transfer approval, to both expedite that approval and to

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reduce participant uncertainty, each transfer is unique and must be considered on its individual factual merits, using all the information that is available at the time of transfer approval and execution of the conveyance or letter of agreement with the respective Project Agency in accordance with the applicable legal requirements. This document does not pre-determine those needs or those facts and does not foreclose the requirement and consideration of additional information.” (Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals (“DTIPWTP”) 2014.)

Indeed, the Bureau and DWR have known for over a decade that programmatic environmental review was and is necessary for water transfers from the Sacramento Valley. The following examples highlight the Bureau and DWR’s deficiencies in complying with NEPA and CEQA.

a. The Sacramento Valley Water Management Agreement was signed in 2002, and the need for a programmatic EIS/EIR was clear at that time it was initiated but never completed.

b. In 2000, the Governor’s Advisory Drought Planning Panel report, *Critical Water Shortage Contingency Plan* promised a program EIR on a drought-response water transfer program, but was never undertaken.


e. The CVPIA mandates the Bureau contribute to the State of California’s *long-term* efforts to protect the San Francisco Bay/Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta Estuary, among other things. (EIS/EIR 1-10.)

Accordingly, the EIS/EIR should be revised to state that it does not and cannot constitute sufficient environmental review of any particular, as-of-yet-unknown, water transfer proposal; and instead be revised, restructured, and recirculated to provide programmatic policies, criteria, and first-tier environmental review.

1. **The EIS/EIR Improperly Segments Environmental Review of the Whole of this Program.**

As discussed throughout these comments, the proposed Project does not exist in a vacuum, but rather is another transfer program in a series of many that have been termed either “temporary,” “short term,” “emergency,” or “one-time” water transfers, and is cumulative to numerous broad programs or plans to develop regional groundwater resources and a conjunctive use system. The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program is also only one of several proposed and existing projects that affect the regional aquifers.

For example, the proposed Project is, in fact, just one project piece required to implement the Sacramento Valley Water Management Agreement (“SVWMA”). The Bureau has publically
stated the need to prepare programmatic environmental review for the SVWMA for over a
decade, and the present EIS/EIR covers a significant portion of the program agreed to under the
SVWMA. In 2003, the Bureau published an NOI/NOP for a “Short-term Sacramento Valley
Water Management Program EIS/EIR.” (68 Federal Register 46218 (Aug 5, 2003).) As
summarized on the Bureau’s current website:

The Short-term phase of the SVWM Program resolves water quality and water rights
issues arising from the need to meet the flow-related water quality objectives of the
1995 Bay-Delta Water Quality Control Plan and the State Water Resources Control
Board’s Phase 8 Water Rights Hearing process, and would promote better water
management in the Sacramento Valley and develop additional water supplies through a
cooperative water management partnership. Program participants include Reclamation,
DWR, Northern California Water Association, San Luis & Delta-Mendota Water
Authority, some Sacramento Valley water users, and Central Valley Project and State
Water Project contractors. SVWM Program actions would be locally-proposed projects
and actions that include the development of groundwater to substitute for surface
water supplies, conjunctive use of groundwater and surface water, refurbish existing
groundwater extraction wells, install groundwater monitoring stations, install new
groundwater extraction wells, reservoir re-operation, system improvements such as
canal lining, tailwater recovery, and improved operations, or surface and groundwater
planning studies. These short-term projects and actions would be implemented for a
period of 10 years in areas of Shasta, Butte, Sutter, Glenn, Tehama, Colusa, Sacramento,
Placer, and Yolo counties.6

The resounding parallels between the SVWMA NOI/NOP and the presently proposed project
are not merely coincidence: they are a piece of the same program. In fact, the SVWMA
continues to require the Bureau and SLDMWA to facilitate water transfers through crop idling
or groundwater substitution:

Management Tools for this Agreement. A key to accomplishing the goals of this
Agreement will be the identification and implementation of a “palette” of voluntary
water management measures (including cost and yield data) that could be implemented
to develop increased water supply, reliability, and operational flexibility. Some of the
measures that may be included in the palette are:

. . .

(v) Transfers and exchanges among Upstream Water Users and with the CVP and SWP
water contractors, either for water from specific reservoirs, or by substituting
groundwater for surface water . . .7

6 http://www.usbr.gov/mp/nepa/nepa_projdetails.cfm?Project_ID=788
It is abundantly clear that the Bureau and SLDMWA are proposing a program through the present draft EIS/EIR to implement this management tool, as required by the SVWMA. But neither CEQA nor NEPA permit this approach of segmenting and piecemealing review of the whole of a project down to its component parts. The water transfers proposed for this project will directly advance SVWMA implementation, and the Bureau and DWR must complete environmental review of the whole of the program, as first proposed in 2003 but since abandoned. For example, the draft EIS/EIR does not reveal that the current Project is part of a much larger set of plans to develop groundwater in the region, to develop a “conjunctive” system for the region, and to integrate northern California’s groundwater into the state’s water supply.

In this vein the U.S. Department of Interior, 2006. Grant Assistance Agreement, Stony Creek Fan Conjunctive Water Management Program and Regional Integration of the lower Tuscan Groundwater formation laid bare the intentions of the Bureau and its largest Sacramento Valley water district partner, Glenn Colusa Irrigation District, to take over the Tuscan groundwater basin to further the implementation of the SVWMA, stating:

GCID shall define three hypothetical water delivery systems from the State Water Project (Oroville), the Central Valley Project (Shasta) and the Orland Project reservoirs sufficient to provide full and reliable surface water delivery to parties now pumping from the Lower Tuscan Formation. The purpose of this activity is to describe and compare the performance of three alternative ways of furnishing a substitute surface water supply to the current Lower Tuscan Formation groundwater users to eliminate the risks to them of more aggressive pumping from the Formation and to optimize conjunctive management of the Sacramento Valley water resources.

d. The Project Description Contains an Inadequate Statement of Objectives, Purpose, and Need.

The lack of a stable project description/prosed alternative, as discussed, above, further obfuscates the need for the Project. Further, without programmatic criteria to prioritize certain transfers, the public is not provided with even a basic understanding of the need for the Project. The importance of this section in a NEPA document can’t be overstated. “It establishes why the agency is proposing to spend large amounts of taxpayers' money while at the same time causing significant environmental impacts... As importantly, the project purpose and need drives the process for alternatives consideration, in-depth analysis, and ultimate selection. The Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) regulations require that the EIS address the "no-action" alternative and "rigorously explore and objectively evaluate all reasonable alternatives."

Furthermore, a well-justified purpose and need is vital to meeting the requirements of Section 4(f) (49 U.S.C. 303) and the Executive Orders on Wetlands (E.O. 11990) and Floodplains (E.O. 11988) and the Section 404(b)(1) Guidelines. Without a well-defined, well-established and well-
justified purpose and need, it will be difficult to determine which alternatives are reasonable, prudent and practicable, and it may be impossible to dismiss the no-build alternative”

With the importance of a Purpose and Need statement revealed above, the Project’s version for purposes of NEPA states that, “The purpose of the Proposed Action is to facilitate and approve voluntary water transfers from willing sellers upstream of the Delta to water users south of the Delta and in the San Francisco Bay Area. Water users have the need for immediately implementable and flexible supplemental water supplies to alleviate shortages,” (p. 1-2). Noticeably missing from this section of the EIS/EIR is a statement about the Bureau’s purpose and need, not the buyers’ purpose and need. The omission of any need on the Bureau’s part for this Project highlights the conflicts in the Bureau’s mission, deficiencies in planning for both the short and long term, and the inadequacy of the EIS/EIR that should provide the public with the basis for the development of the range of reasonable alternatives and the identification and eventual selection of a preferred alternative. The Reclamation’s NEPA Handbook (2012) stresses that, “The need for an accurate (and adequate) purpose and need statement early in the NEPA process cannot be overstated. This statement gives direction to the entire process and ensures alternatives are designed to address project goals.” (p.11-1)

For purposes of CEQA, the Project Objectives (p. 1-2) go on to state that,

SLDMWA has developed the following objectives for long-term water transfers through 2024:

• Develop supplemental water supply for member agencies during times of CVP shortages to meet existing demands.

• Meet the need of member agencies for a water supply that is immediately implementable and flexible and can respond to changes in hydrologic conditions and CVP allocations.

Because shortages are expected due to hydrologic conditions, climatic variability, and regulatory requirements, transfers are needed to meet water demands.

But merely asserting that there are “demands” from their member lacks context, specificity, and rigor. It also fails to mention the need of the non-member buying agencies involved in the Project.

Some context for the policy failures that lead to the stated need for the Project must be presented. First, the hydrologic conditions described on pages ES-1, 1-1, and 1-2 almost always

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apply to the entire state, including the region where sellers are sought, not just the areas served by SLDMWA and non-member buyers as presented here. Second, SLDMWA has chronic water shortages due to its contractors’ junior position in water rights, risks taken by growers to plant permanent crops, and serious long-term overdraft in its service area. Where is this divulged? Third, SLDMWA or its member agencies have sought to buy and actually procured water in many past water years to make up for poor planning and risky business decisions, which violates CEQA’s prohibition against segmenting a project to evade proper environmental review.\(^9\) The habitual nature of the transfers is acknowledged on pages ES-1 and 1-1 stating, “In the past decades, water entities have been implementing water transfers to supplement available water supplies to serve existing demands, and such transfers have become a common tool in water resource planning.” (See Table 1 for an attempt at documenting transfers since actual numbers are not disclosed in the EIS/EIR).

The Bureau and DWR’s facilitation of so-called “temporary” annual transfers in 12 of the last 14 years is illustrated in Table 1 (2014 transfer totals have not been tallied to date).

### Table 1. The table is based on one from Western Canal Water District’s Negative Declaration for a 2010 water transfer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Water Year Type **</th>
<th>Dry</th>
<th>Dry</th>
<th>AN</th>
<th>BN</th>
<th>BN</th>
<th>Wet</th>
<th>Dry</th>
<th>Critical</th>
<th>Dry</th>
<th>BN</th>
<th>Wet</th>
<th>BN</th>
<th>Dry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DWR Drought Water Bank/Dry Year Programs</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enviro Water Acct</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (CVP, SWP, Yuba, inter alia)</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>120.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>274**</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^*\)Table reflects gross AF purchased prior to 20% Delta carriage loss (i.e., actual amounts pumped at Delta are 20% less)

\(^**\) Based on DWR’s measured unimpaired runoff (in million acre-feet)

Abbreviations: AN - Above normal year type and BN - Below normal year type ([http://cdec.water.ca.gov/cgi-progs/iodir/wsihist](http://cdec.water.ca.gov/cgi-progs/iodir/wsihist))

\(^***\) The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program’s EIS/EIR contradicts the 274,000 AF total for 2009 on EIS/EIR page 1-16 that states that the CVP portion alone during 2009 was 390,000 AF.

The Project has become an extension of the so-called “temporary” annual transfers based on the demands of junior water rights holders who expect to receive little contract water during dry years. The low priority of their junior water service contracts within the Central Valley Project leaves their imported surface supplies in question year-to-year. It is the normal and appropriate function of California’s system of water rights law that makes it so. Yet the efforts

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\(^9\) Laurel Heights Improvement Association v. Regents of the University of California, 1988, 47 Cal.3d 376

\(^10\) The Environmental Water Account ended in 2007 (Bay Delta Conservation Plan Draft EIS/EIR 2013). The figures that continue in this row are based on a long-term contract with the Yuba County Water Agency to sell water.
of the Bureau and DWR to oversee, approve, and facilitate water sales from the Sacramento, Feather, and Yuba rivers with fallowing and groundwater substation are only intended to benefit the few western San Joaquin Valley farmers whose contractual surface water rights have always been less reliable than most—and whose lands are the most problematic for irrigation. These growers have chosen to harden demand by planting permanent crops, a very questionable business decision, but the Bureau fails to explain why this “tail” in water rights is wagging the dog.

e. The Project Description does Not Include all Project Components.

i. Carriage water.

The EIS/EIR’s description of and reliance on “carriage water” is completely uncertain, undefined, and provides no meaningful information to the public. The EIS/EIR states that “Outflows would generally increase during the transfer period because carriage water would become additional Delta outflow.” (EIS/EIR 3.2-39.) The EIS/EIR also asserts that, “Carriage water (a portion of the transfer that is not diverted in the Delta and becomes Delta outflow) will be used to maintain water quality in the Delta.” (EIS/EIR 2-29.) Elsewhere the EIS/EIR references 20% carriage losses for CCWD and SLDMWA in the EIS/EIR (3.2-39, 3.2-57-58, and B-6), while prior documents have used higher estimates:

Historically, approximately 20-30% of the water transferred through the Delta would be necessary to enable the maintenance of water quality standards, which are based largely upon the total amount of water moving through the Bay-Delta system. This water, which is not available for delivery to Buyers, is known as “carriage water.” Given historically dry conditions prevailing in 2014, DWR estimates that carriage losses could be higher.

(Biggs West Gridley 2014 Water Transfer Neg Dec, p. 4)(Exhibit I). A Bureau spreadsheet that documents the final transfer numbers for 2013 clearly demonstrates that the 30% figure was used for carriage losses. The spreadsheet further reveals that there are additional water deductions that were made prior to delivery in 2013 for DWR Conveyance Loss (2%) and Warren Act Conveyance Loss (3%). When all the water deductions are tallied for stream depletion, carriage losses, and the two conveyance losses, the actual water available for delivery when groundwater substitution is used is 53%. This is not presented in the EIS/EIR, which allows the Lead Agencies to overestimate the amount of water that is delivered through the Delta to Buyers and therefore the economic benefits of the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program. What is lacking is any meaningful discussion of the need for, role, availability, and effect of carriage water and conveyance losses in any transfer in the EIS/EIR. Without such information it is not possible to determine the water quality and supply effects of the program.

11 Bureau of Reclamation, 2013-12-17 2013 Total Pumpage (FINAL) nlw.xlsx (Exhibit J)
ii. Monitoring and production wells.

The identity and locations of all wells that will be used to monitor groundwater substitution transfer pumping impacts are unknown. The EIS/EIR must include proposed transfer well locations that are sufficiently accurate to allow for determination of distances between the wells and areas of potential impact. These are integral project features that must be disclosed in detail prior to any meaningful effects analysis.

In 2009, GCID installed four production wells to extract 26,530 AF of groundwater as part of its Stony Creek Fan Aquifer Performance Testing Plan. Other districts have also installed production wells, most with public funds, that have been used for past transfers such as Anderson/Cottonwood Irrigation District, Butte Water District, and RD-108. To the extent those wells and any others would be used in this project, they must be considered to be part of the whole of the action, and disclosed and analyzed herein.

i. “Other” transfers.

The EIS/EIR states that, “Other transfers not included in this EIS/EIR could occur during the same time period, subject to their own environmental review (as necessary).” (EIS/EIR 1-2.) In other words, not only is the EIS/EIR unclear precisely about which transfers are likely to occur and are analyzed in this EIR/EIR, it also leaves open-ended the prospect of some transfers not being covered by the EIS/EIR. This apparent piecemealing of transfer projects short-circuits comprehensive environmental review.

f. The Project Description Fails to Include Sufficient Locations, Maps, and Boundaries.

The project description must show the location of the project, its component parts, and the affected environmental features. CEQA Guidelines § 15124(a).

Maps are needed of each seller service area at a scale that allows for reasonably accurate measurement of distances between the groundwater substitution transfer wells and surface water features, other non-participating wells, proposed monitoring wells, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife areas, critical surface structures, and regional economic features. Maps with rates and times of stream depletion by longitudinal channel section are needed to allow for an adequate review of the Draft EIR/EIS conclusion of less than significant and reasonable impacts with no injury. These maps are also needed to evaluate the specific locations for monitoring potential impacts. Thus, detailed maps that show the locations of the monitoring wells and the areas of potential impact along with the rates and seasons of anticipated stream depletion are needed for each seller service area. These maps are also needed to allow for evaluation of the cumulative effects whenever pumping by multiple sellers can impact the same resource. The only maps provided by the Draft EIS/EIR that show the location of the groundwater substitution transfer wells, and the rivers and streams potentially impacted are the simulated drawdown Figures 3.3-26 to 3.3-31, which are at a scale of approximately 1 inch to 18 miles. The lack of maps with sufficient detail to see the relationship between the wells and the surface water
features prevents adequate review of the Draft EIS/EIR analysis to determine groundwater and surface water impacts.

Furthermore, figure 3.1-1, mapping the project area, is impossible to read and determine where each seller and buyer service area actually lies. Nor does the figure itself actually include many geographic points of reference used throughout the EIS/EIR. The EIS/EIR, for example, states that “Pelger MCW is located on the east side of the Sacramento River near Robbins (Figure 3.1-1.)” (EIS/EIR at 3.1-7.) But Robbins is not on the map, and the Pelger MCW is virtually impossible to locate on Figure 3.1-1. Similarly, the EIS/EIR states that the Sacramento River is impaired from Keswick dam to the Delta, but the EIS/EIR contains no description or map showing where Keswick dam is located, or any map enabling an understanding of the geographic scope of this water quality impairment. This problem repeats for literally dozens of existing environmental features described in the EIS/EIR. And, this problem is compounded by the unstable nature of the project description itself, leaving the EIS/EIR to string together multiple combinations of place names where transfers may or may not be imported or exported, and leaving the reader to continually search out secondary information to attempt to follow the EIS/EIR’s terse and convoluted descriptions. A clear explanation, with visual aids, of the affected environment, including all local creeks and streams, and transfer water routes, is necessary to enable any member of the general public to grasp the potential types and locations of environmental impacts caused by the proposed program.

II. The EIS/EIR State Lead Agency Should be DWR, Not SLDMWA.

SLDMWA is not the proper Lead Agency for the Project. California Environmental Quality Act (“CEQA”) Guidelines sections 15367 and 15051 require that the California Department of Water Resources (“DWR”), as the operator of the California Aqueduct and who has responsibility to protect the public health and safety and the financial security of bondholders with respect to the aqueduct, is the more appropriate lead agency. In PCL v DWR, the court found that DWR’s attempt to delegate lead agency authority impermissibly insulated the department from “public awareness and possible reaction to the individual members’ environmental and economic values.”\(^\text{12}\)

Pursuant to CEQA, “‘lead agency’ means the public agency which has the principal responsibility for carrying out or approving a project which may have a significant effect upon the environment.” (Public Res. Code § 21067.) As such, the lead agency must have authority to require imposition of alternatives and mitigation measures to reduce or avoid significant project effects, and must have the authority to disapprove of the project altogether. Here, the DWR clearly fits this description. As the EIS/EIR states, “[t]hese transfers require approval from Reclamation and/or Department of Water Resources (DWR).” (EIS/EIR 1-2.) Additionally, the

EIS/EIR reveals the obvious and long-standing relationship between the Bureau and DWR in facilitating surface water transfers. The Bureau and DWR have collaborated on each DTIWT publication, which provides specific environmental considerations for transfer proposals; are said to have “sponsored drought-related programs” together; have created the joint EIS/EIR for the Environmental Water Account (“EWA”); and “cooperatively implemented the 2009 Drought Water Bank.”

SLDMWA should not serve as the lead agency. The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program has the potential to impact the long-term water supplies, environment, and economies in many California counties far removed from the SLDMWA geographic boundaries. With SLDMWA designated as the lead agency, and no potential sellers or source counties designated as responsible agencies, the process is unreasonably biased toward the narrow functional interests of SLDMWA and its member agencies. According to the EIS/EIR, the SLDMWA’s role is to “[h]elp negotiate transfers in years when the member agencies could experience shortages.” (EIS/EIR 1-1.) Helping to negotiate a transfer is a wholly different role than that of a lead agency with approval authority over a project. All of SLDMWA’s purposes and powers are centered on providing benefit to member organizations, and do not implement the Sustainable Groundwater Management Act. Not only would SLDMWA be advocating on behalf of its members in this process, but nothing provided in the EIS/EIR suggests that it has authority to require mitigation measures or alternatives to reduce or avoid significant project impacts, for example, to groundwater resources in the seller service area, as such limitations would clearly be contrary to the specific interests of the SLDMWA members.

Importantly, DWR not only has jurisdiction over the SLDMWA transfers in ways that SLDMWA does not, but also DWR has review and approval authority over potential transfers outside of the SLDMWA altogether, including, for example, the East Bay Municipal Utilities District, as well as “[o]ther transfers not included in this EIS/EIR [that] could occur during the same time period, subject to their own environmental review (as necessary).” (EIS/EIR 1-2.) Environmental review of transfers should be unified and comprehensive, and cumulative across both geography and over time in a way that DWR and not SLDMWA can provide.

III. The EIS/EIR Fails to Completely and Accurately Describe the Affected Environmental Setting and Baseline Conditions.

A complete and accurate description of the existing and affected environmental setting is critical for an adequate evaluation of impacts to it. See e.g. San Joaquin Raptor/Wildlife Rescue Ctr. v. County of Stanislaus (1994) 27 Cal.App.4th 713; Galante Vineyards v. Monterey Peninsula Water Mgmt. Dist. (1997) 60 Cal.App.4th 1109, 1122; County of Amador v. El Dorado County

13 SLDMWA JPA, para. 6, pp. 4-7.
14 StAmant 2014. Letter to Bureau of Reclamation and SLDMWA re the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program.
As discussed, below, and in the expert reports submitted by Custis, EcoNorthwest, Cannon, and Mish on behalf of AquAlliance, the EIS/EIR fails to comport with these standards.

a. The EIS/EIR Fails to Describe Existing Physical Conditions.

i. Groundwater Supply

The EIS/EIR fails to provide a comprehensive assessment of the historic change in groundwater storage in the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin, and other seller sources areas within the proposed 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project. Historic change and current groundwater contour maps are critical to establishing an environmental baseline for the groundwater substitution transfers. The EIS/EIR uses SACFEM2013 simulations of groundwater substitution transfer pumping effects for WY 1970 to WY 2003, but the discussion of the simulation didn’t provide specifics on how the model simulated the current conditions of the Sacramento Valley groundwater system or the potential impacts from the 10-year groundwater substitution transfer project based on current conditions. Again, The EIS/EIR relies on only modeling to consider impacts from the Project when it should disclose the results from actual monitoring and reporting for water transfer conducted in 12 of the last 14 years.

The EIS/EIR concludes that the Sacramento Valley basin’s groundwater storage has been relatively constant over the long term, decreasing during dry years and increasing during wetter periods, but the EIR/EIS ignores more recent information and study (e.g. Brush 2013a and 2013b, NCWA, 2014a and 2014b). According to the BDCP EIS/EIR:

> Some locales show the early signs of persistent drawdown, including the northern Sacramento County area, areas near Chico, and on the far west side of the Sacramento Valley in Glenn County where water demands are met primarily, and in some locales exclusively, by groundwater. These could be early signs that the limits of sustainable groundwater use have been reached in these areas.”

(BDCP EIS/EIR at 7-13.) The Draft EIS/EIR provides only one groundwater elevation map of the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin, Figure 3.3-4, which shows contours only from selected wells that omit many depths and areas. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t provide maps showing groundwater elevations, or depth to groundwater, for groundwater substitution transfer seller areas in Sutter, Yolo, Yuba, and Sacramento counties. The DWR provides on a web site a number of additional groundwater level and depth to groundwater maps that the EIS/EIR should use to help complete its description of the affected environment.15

15http://www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/gw_level_monitoring.cfm#Well%20Depth%20Summary%20Maps
Presented below are tables that illustrate maximum and average groundwater elevation decreases for Butte, Colusa, Glenn, and Tehama counties at three aquifer levels in the Sacramento Valley between the fall of 2004 and 2013. (Id).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Fall ‘04 - ‘13</th>
<th>Deep Wells (Max decrease gwe)</th>
<th>Deep Wells (Avg. decrease gwe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Butte</td>
<td>-11.4</td>
<td>-8.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colusa</td>
<td>-31.2</td>
<td>-20.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glenn</td>
<td>-60.7</td>
<td>-37.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehama</td>
<td>-19.5</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Fall ‘04 - ‘13</th>
<th>Intermediate Wells (Max decrease gwe)</th>
<th>Intermediate Wells (Avg. decrease gwe)</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>-16.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-40.2</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehama</td>
<td>-20.1</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Fall ‘04 - ‘13</th>
<th>Shallow Wells (Max decrease gwe)</th>
<th>Shallow Wells (Avg. decrease gwe)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>-3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colusa</td>
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<td>-3.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glenn</td>
<td>-44.4</td>
<td>-8.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehama</td>
<td>-15.7</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Below are the results from DWR’s spring monitoring for Sacramento Valley groundwater basin from 2004 to 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Spring ‘04 - ‘14</th>
<th>Deep Wells (Max decrease gwe)</th>
<th>Deep Wells (Avg. decrease gwe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colusa</td>
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<td>-12.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glenn</td>
<td>-49.4</td>
<td>-29.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehama</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
<td>-5.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Spring ‘04 - ‘14</th>
<th>Intermediate Wells (Max decrease gwe)</th>
<th>Intermediate Wells (Avg. decrease gwe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Butte</td>
<td>-25.6</td>
<td>-12.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colusa</td>
<td>-49.9</td>
<td>-15.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glenn</td>
<td>-54.5</td>
<td>-21.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehama</td>
<td>-16.2</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The DWR data clearly present a different picture of the condition of the Sacramento Valley groundwater basin over time than what is provided in the EIS/EIR. This must be corrected and considered in the NEPA and CEQA process.

The EIS/EIR omits other critical information needed to understand the project’s impacts to area groundwater, including but not limited to:

- the distances between the transfer well(s) and surface water features;
- the number of non-participating wells in the vicinity of the transfer wells that may be impacted by the pumping; and,
- the distance between the transfer wells and non-participant wells that may be impacted by the transfer pumping, including domestic, public water supply and agricultural wells.

The EIS/EIR assumes that, “The groundwater modeling results indicate that shallow groundwater is typically deeper than 15 feet in most locations under existing conditions, and often substantially deeper.” (3.8-32.) However, existing hydrologic condition documents clearly show Depth to Groundwater levels in shallow portions of the aquifer system that are <15’ from the surface.

- The Chart titled **Depth to Water by Sub-Inventory Unit (SIU)** on [2014_10_Summary_Table.PDF](https://www.buttecounty.net/wrcdocs/Programs/Monitoring/GWLevels/2014/2014_10_Summary_Table.pdf) page 2/2 shows the Average Depth to Water (feet) in March through October 2014. 7 of 16 Sub-Inventory Units (“SIUs”) in Butte County show average groundwater levels <15’ from the surface at some time of the year. 16

- November 2014 Adobe spreadsheets show numerous monitoring wells with water levels closer than 10’ to the surface. The wells are located in Butte County SIUs designated under the county Basin Management Objective (“BMO”) program. While some of the SIUs are corresponding to an Irrigation District primarily served by surface water, the Butte Sink, Cherokee, North Yuba, Angel Slough, Llano Seco and M&T SIUs have naturally occurring water levels <10’. All 3 pages show ground surface to water surface (feet). 17

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16[https://www.buttecounty.net/wrcdocs/Programs/Monitoring/GWLevels/2014/2014_10_Summary_Table.pdf](https://www.buttecounty.net/wrcdocs/Programs/Monitoring/GWLevels/2014/2014_10_Summary_Table.pdf) (Exhibit K)

17[https://www.buttecounty.net/wrcdocs/Programs/Monitoring/GWLevels/2014/2014_10_Data_Summary_Update.pdf](https://www.buttecounty.net/wrcdocs/Programs/Monitoring/GWLevels/2014/2014_10_Data_Summary_Update.pdf) (Exhibit K)
• The January 2014 BUTTE COUNTY DOMESTIC WELL DEPTH SUMMARY shows the 10’ Depth to Groundwater Contour lines in the lower portion of the map.  

• The January 2014 COLUSA COUNTY DOMESTIC WELL DEPTH SUMMARY shows the 10’ Depth to Groundwater Contour lines in large portions of the county.  

• The January 2014 GLENN COUNTY DOMESTIC WELL DEPTH SUMMARY shows the 10’ Depth to Groundwater Contour lines in the lower portion of the map.

Dan Wendell of The Nature Conservancy, a panelist at a workshop held by the California Natural Resources Agency, the California Department of Food and Agriculture, and California EPA on March 24, 2014, presented a similar picture as the county summaries above, but also raised the alarm about the existing, significant streamflow losses from groundwater pumping and, even more significantly, how long it takes for those losses to appear:

“The Sacramento Valley still has water levels that are fairly shallow,” he said. “There are numerous perennial streams and healthy ecosystems, and the basin is largely within a reasonable definition of sustainable groundwater yield. However, since the 1940s, groundwater discharge to streams in this area has decreased by about 600,000 acre-feet per year due to groundwater pumping, and it’s going to decrease an additional 600,000 acre-feet in coming years under 2009 status quo conditions due to the time it takes effects of groundwater pumping to reach streams. It takes years to decades, our work is showing.”

What areas in the Sellers’ region were used to reach the EIS/EIR conclusion that “[i]ndicate that shallow groundwater is typically deeper than 15 feet”? What prevented the analysis from disclosing the many miles of riparian habitat in the Sacramento Valley that indicate that riparian forest vegetation remains healthy with groundwater levels shallower than 15 feet? As we presented above, there are many areas in the Sellers’ region that have groundwater higher than 15 feet below ground surface.

In addition, the EIS/EIR fails to provide recharge data for the aquifers. Professor Karin Hoover, Assistant Professor of hydrology, hydrogeology, and surficial processes from CSU Chico, found

18 Butte County shallow Groundwater Contours:  
www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/WellDepthSummaryMaps/Domestic_BUTTE.pdf (Exhibit L)

19 Colusa County shallow Groundwater Contours:  
www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/WellDepthSummaryMaps/Domestic_COLUSA.pdf (Exhibit M)

20 Glenn County shallow Groundwater Contours:  
www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/data_and_monitoring/northern_region/GroundwaterLevel/WellDepthSummaryMaps/Domestic_GLENN.pdf (Exhibit N)

in 2008 that, “Although regional measured groundwater levels are purported to ‘recover’ during the winter months (Technical Memorandum 3), data from Spangler (2002) indicate that recovery levels are somewhat less than levels of drawdown, suggesting that, in general, water levels are declining.” According to Dudley, “Test results indicate that the ‘age’ of the groundwater samples ranges from less than 100 years to tens of thousands of years. In general, the more shallow wells in the Lower Tuscan Formation along the eastern margin of the valley have the ‘youngest’ water and the deeper wells in the western and southern portions of the valley have the ‘oldest’ water,” adding that “the youngest groundwater in the Lower Tuscan Formation is probably nearest to recharge areas.” (2005). “This implies that there is currently no active recharge to the Lower Tuscan aquifer system (M.D. Sullivan, personal communication, 2004),” explains Dr. Hoover. “If this is the case, then water in the Lower Tuscan system may constitute fossil water with no known modern recharge mechanism, and, once it is extracted, it is gone as a resource,” (Hoover 2008).

ii. Groundwater Quality

The Draft EIS/EIR discusses the potential for impacts to groundwater quality by migration of contaminants as a result of groundwater substitution pumping, but provides only a general description of the current condition of groundwater quality. No maps are provided that show the baseline groundwater quality and known areas of poor or contaminated groundwater, or from all areas where groundwater pumping may occur. Groundwater quality information on the Sacramento Valley area is available from existing reports by the USGS (1984, 2008b, 2010, and 2011) and Northern California Water Association (NCWA, 2014c). Determination of groundwater quality prior to pumping is critical to avoiding significant adverse impacts, both to adjacent groundwater users impacted by migrating contaminants, as well as surface water potentially impaired by contaminated runoff from irrigated agriculture or other uses.

There are numerous hazardous waste plumes in Butte County, which could easily migrate with the potential increased groundwater pumping proposed for the Project. The State Department of Toxics Control and the Regional Water Resources Control Boards have a great deal of information readily available for all counties involved with the proposed Project. Fluctuating domestic wells can lead to serious contamination from heavy metals and non-aqueous fluids. Because the Bureau fails to disclose basic standards for the mitigation and monitoring requirements, it is unknown if hazardous plumes in the areas of origin will be monitored or not.

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Please note the attached map from the State Water Resources Control Board (2008) that highlights areas vulnerable to groundwater contamination throughout the state. A significant portion of both the areas of origin and the receiving areas are highlighted. When the potential for serious health and safety impacts exists, NEPA and CEQA require that this must be disclosed and analyzed.

iii. Surface Water Flows

The EIS/EIR asserts that, under the no action/no project alternative, “Surface water supplies would not change relative to existing conditions. Water users would continue to experience shortages under certain hydrologic conditions, requiring them to use supplemental water supplies.” (3.1-15.) It would be most helpful if the lead agencies would explain the geographic scope of this statement since the shortages could be experienced throughout the areas of origin, transmission, and delivery – as well as the entire State of California. The section continues with, “Under the No Action/No Project Alternative, some agricultural and urban water users may face potential shortages under dry and critical hydrologic conditions.” Again, to what geographic areas is the EIS/EIR referring? The final sentence in the section reads, “Impacts to surface water supplies would be the same as the existing conditions.” Without further elaboration or a reference that would further explain what exactly are the “existing conditions, mentioned” this is merely a conclusory assertion without the benefit of factual data. For example, existing conditions vary wildly in California weather patterns and agency allocations can as well. For example, in 2014 CVP Settlement Contractors were threatened with an unprecedented 40 percent allocation, which later became 75 percent when they cooperated with water transfers. Failing to disclose the wide range of natural and agency decisions that comprise the No Action/No Project alternative must be corrected and re-circulated in another draft EIS/EIR.

The EIS/EIR states that “[b]ecause of the interaction of surface flows and groundwater flows in riparian systems, including associated wetlands, enables faster recharge of groundwater, these systems are less likely to be impacted by groundwater drawdown as a result of the action alternatives;” therefore, “[t]hese systems are less likely to be impacted by groundwater drawdown as a result of the action alternatives.” (EIS/EIR 3.8-32.) This flawed assumption has been readily discredited by USGS:

There is more of an interaction between the water in lakes and rivers and groundwater than most people think. Some, and often a great deal, of the water flowing in rivers comes from seepage of groundwater into the streambed. Groundwater contributes to streams in most physiographic and climatic settings... Groundwater pumping can alter how water moves between an aquifer and a stream, lake, or wetland by either intercepting groundwater flow that discharges into the surface-water body under natural conditions, or by
increasing the rate of water movement from the surface-water body into an aquifer. A related effect of groundwater pumping is the lowering of groundwater levels below the depth that streamside or wetland vegetation needs to survive. The overall effect is a loss of riparian vegetation and wildlife habitat. \(^{23}\)

Lastly, the EIR/EIS presents the rivers and streams analyzed for impacts from the Proposed Action alternative with numerous omissions and conclusory remarks that are not supported. \((3.8-49 \text{ – } 3.8-51.)\) Examples include:

- **Table 3.8.3 Screening Evaluation Results for Smaller Streams in the Sacramento River Watershed for Detailed Vegetation and Wildlife Impact Analysis for the Proposed Action** fails to designate the counties of origin except for Deer and Mill creeks. Even readers familiar with the region need this basic information.
- Creeks with groundwater/surface water connections, but omitted from Tehama and Butte counties in Table 3.8.3 include, but are not limited to: Clear, Cottonwood, Battle, Singer, Pine, Zimmershed, Rock, Mud, and Big Chico.
- The modeling that is used to omit streams from analysis and to select and analyze other streams is completely inadequate to the task. Page D-3 has information about model resolution. It is normal to have five to ten nodes to resolve a feature of interest, but the nodal spacing is listed as ranging from 125 to 1000 meters, with stream node spacing around 500 meters (EIS/EIR p. D-3). This implies that spatial features smaller than about 2 kilometers cannot be resolved with this model. With the physical response of interest below the threshold of resolution even under the best of circumstances, then you have 100% margin of error, because the model cannot "see" that response. \(^{24}\)

iv. **Surface Water Quality**

The baseline water quality data presented in the EIS/EIR is insufficient to accomplish any meaningful understanding of existing water quality levels throughout the project area. The EIS/EIR fails to show where each affected water body is, or disclose its existing beneficial uses, or numeric water quality objectives. Data that are presented is scattered, inconsistent, incomplete, often severely out of date, and often misleading. Further, the EIS/EIR fails to explain exactly where much of the presented water quality data comes from – indeed, failing to explain exactly where the affected environment is at all.

Many waterways are left out of this section entirely. The biological and vegetation effects of the program are discussed elsewhere in the EIS/EIR, and show that most would be impacted by the proposed program, but these waterways are not discussed in the EIS/EIR water quality section. Diminished flows can affect water quality in a variety of way, for example, causing


\(^{24}\) Mish, p. 8. (Exhibit C)
higher temperatures, lower dissolved oxygen, or high sediment contamination or turbidity. Therefore, these affected waterways should be described and analyzed in the EIS/EIR water quality chapter.

In addition, the EIS/EIR only names the California Aqueduct, the Delta-Mendota Canal, and the San Luis Reservoir as affected waters within the buyer areas. Later, the EIS/EIR admits that increased irrigation in the buyers’ areas may adversely impact stream water quality, but none of these rivers, streams, creeks, or any other potentially affected waterway of any kind, are described in the buyer project areas. (EIS/EIR 3.2-26.)

The EIS/EIR also fails to meaningfully describe the existing water quality in the affected environment. The EIS/EIR repeatedly misleads the public and decision-makers regarding the baseline conditions of waters within the project area by labeling them as “generally high quality.” For example, the EIS/EIR states that “certain segments of the Sacramento River contain several constituents of concern, including Chlordane, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane, Dieldrin, mercury, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), and unknown toxicity (see Table 3.2-1); however, the water quality in the Sacramento River is generally of high quality.” What is the basis for this non-sequitur used here, and repeated throughout the existing environmental descriptions in the EIS/EIR? How do constituents of concern and unknown toxicity translate to generally high quality?

The remaining baseline information presented in the EIS/EIR contains significant gaps that preclude a meaningful understanding of the existing environmental conditions. In order to attempt to characterize the water quality in the affected environmental area, the EIS/EIR lists out beneficial uses, 303(d) impairments, and a variety of water quality monitoring data. The EIS/EIR presents almost no reference to existing numeric water quality objectives, and evaluation of potential breaches of those standards is therefore impossible.

Table 3.2-1 lists 303(d) impairments within the area of analysis. The table states the approximate mileage or acreage of the portion of each water body that is impaired, but fails to inform the public exactly where these stretches are located. For example, table 3.2-1 states that, within the Delta, approximately 43,614 acres are impaired for unknown toxicity, 20,819 acres are impaired for electrical conductivity, and 8,398 acres are impaired for PCBs; but without knowing which acres within the Delta this table describes, it is impossible to know whether transfer water will affect those particular areas. This problem repeats for all impairments listed in table 3.2-1.

The baseline environmental condition of the Delta is poorly described. The EIS/EIR states that: [e]xisting water quality constituents of concern in the Delta can be categorized broadly as metals, pesticides, nutrient enrichment and associated eutrophication, constituents associated with suspended sediments and turbidity, salinity, bromide, and organic
carbon. Salinity is a water quality constituent that is of specific concern and is described below.

(EIS/EIR at 3.2-21.) The EIS/EIR provides no further information about “metals, pesticides, nutrient enrichment and associated eutrophication, constituents associated with suspended sediments and turbidity.” These contaminants are each the focus of intensive regulation and controversy, and could cause significant adverse impacts if contaminated surface waters are transferred, but no meaningful baseline data of existing conditions is provided to facilitate an evaluation of the effects of the incremental changes caused by the proposed program.

The EIS/EIR provides scattered and essentially useless monitoring data to attempt to describe the existing water quality conditions in the program area. First, the EIS/EIR is unclear exactly what year or years it uses to constitute the baseline environmental conditions. Then, Tables 3.2-4 through 3.2-20 provide data from 1980 through 2014. Some tables average data, some use median data, some present isolated data, and none provide a comparison to existing numeric water quality objectives. Of all of the existing environmental baseline data provided, only table 3.2-15 provides any data regarding contamination caused by metals in the water column, and only for Lake Natoma from April to September of 2008. As a result, any contamination relating to any metals in any transfer water is essentially ignored by the EIS/EIR. Moreover, the scattershot data provided in the EIS/EIR does not provide the public with any information about the actual water quality of transfer water that may be used in any future project.

Table 3.2-21 presents mean data from “selected” monitoring stations throughout the Delta. The EIS/EIR states that “[s]ampling period varies, depending on location and constituent, but generally is between 2006-2012.” (EIS/EIR 3.2-22.) EIS/EIR readers simply have no way to know what these data actually represent. Columns are labeled “mean TDS,” “mean electrical conductivity,” and “mean chloride, dissolved.” Are these data averaged for the approximate period of 2006-2012? Were any data excluded? The EIS/EIR lists these monitoring stations, but doesn’t explain where each is actually located, which should be mapped for ease of reference. Nor does the EIS/EIR state what the applicable water quality objective is at each monitoring point for each parameter; nor how often these water quality objectives were breached.

Figure 3.2-2 presents the monthly median chloride concentrations at selected monitoring sites, and misleadingly states that these median concentrations do not exceed the secondary MCL for chloride of 250 mg/L; but that comparison is irrelevant as the Bay-Delta Plan sets water quality objectives for chloride at 250 mg/day, not monthly mean.

Figures 3.2-3 through 3.2-5 show average electrical conductivity at selected monitoring stations, but the EIS/EIR fails to state the relevant water quality standard against which to compare these data, and fails to report the frequency and magnitude of exceedances, which
are numerous and great. When do exceedances occur, and how can the proposed program avoid transferring water from or into waterways with elevated EC?

The EIS/EIR fails to provide any discussion or analysis of how SWRCB Decision 1641 would be implemented. The EIS/EIR states that Decision 1641 “requires Response Plans for water quality and water levels to protect diverters in the south Delta that may affect the opportunity to export transfers.” (EIS/EIR at 2-32.) Later, the EIS/EIR adds that Decision 1641 “require[s] that the Central Valley Project (CVP) and State Water Project (SWP) be operated to protect water quality, and that DWR and/or Reclamation ensure that the flow dependent water quality objectives are met in the Delta (SWRCB 2000).” (EIS/EIR 3.2-10.) Nowhere does the EIS/EIR actually identify what these requirements entail, nor analyze when they would or would not be met by any portion of the proposed program. D-1641 is among the most critical of water quality regulations controlling the proposed program, and the EIS/EIR must provide significantly more analysis of how it would propose to comply with these State Water Board standards. As discussed, below, compliance with D-1641 standards is far from certain.

Similarly, the EIS/EIR notes that “DWR has developed acceptance criteria to govern the water quality of non-Project water that may be conveyed through the California Aqueduct. These criteria dictate that a pump-in entity of any non-project water program must demonstrate that the water is of consistent, predictable, and acceptable quality prior to pumping the local groundwater into the SWP.” (EIS/EIR at 3.2-10.) Again, however, the EIS/EIR fails to explain what these criteria require, and fails to provide any discussion of whether, when, or how these criteria could be met for each transfer contemplated by the program. This lack of information and analysis is insufficient to support informed public and agency environmental decision-making.

IV. The EIS/EIR Fails to Evaluate Inconsistency with Applicable Laws, Plans, and Policies.

a. State Water Policies.

The EIS/EIR should fully disclose the consolidated places of use for DWR and the Bureau, and what criteria might be applied for greater flexibility claimed for the consolidated place of use necessary for any given year's water transfer program, and what project alternatives could avoid this shift. Could the transfers be facilitated through transfer provisions of the Central Valley Project Improvement Act? Would the consolidation be a permanent or temporary request, and would the consolidation be limited to the duration of just the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program? How would the consolidated places of use permit amendments to the SWP and CVP permits relate to their joint point of diversion? Would simply having the joint point of diversion in place under D-1641 suffice for the purpose of the Project?

The EIS/EIR should better describe existing water right claims of sellers, buyers, the Bureau, and DWR. In response to inquiries from the Governor’s Delta Vision Task Force, the SWRCB
acknowledged that while average runoff in the Delta watershed between 1921 and 2003 was 29 million acre-feet annually, the 6,300 active water right permits issued by the SWRCB is approximately 245 million acre-feet. In other words, **water rights on paper are 8.4 times greater than the real water in California’s Central Valley rivers and streams diverted to supply those rights on an average annual basis.** And the SWRCB acknowledges that this ‘water bubble’ does not even take account of the higher priority rights to divert held by pre-1914 appropriators and riparian water right holders. More current research reveals that the average annual unimpaired flow in the Sacramento River basin is 21.6 MAF, but the consumptive use claims are an extraordinary 120.6 MAF – 5.6 times more claims than there is available water. Informing the public about water rights claims would necessarily show that buyers and the Agencies clearly possess junior water rights as compared with those of many willing sellers. Full disclosure of these disparate water right claims and their priority is needed to help explain the actions and motivations of buyers and sellers in the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program. Otherwise the public and decision makers have insufficient information on which to support and make informed choices.

To establish a proper legal context for these water rights, the EIS/EIR should also describe more extensively the applicable California Water Code sections about the treatment of water rights involved in water transfers.

Like federal financial regulators failing to regulate the shadow financial sector, subprime mortgages, Ponzi schemes, and toxic assets of our recent economic history, the state of California has been derelict in its management of scarce water resources. As we mentioned above we are supplementing these comments on this matter of wasteful use and diversion of water by incorporating by reference and attaching the 2011 complaint to the State Water Resources Control Board of the California Water Impact Network the California Sportfishing Protection Alliance, and AquAlliance on public trust, waste and unreasonable use and method of diversion as additional evidence of a systemic failure of governance by the State Water Resources Control Board, the Department of Water Resources and the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, filed with the Board on April 21, 2011. (Exhibit Q)

b. Public Trust Doctrine.

The State of California has the duty to protect the people’s common heritage in streams, lakes, marshlands, and tidelands through the Public Trust Doctrine. The Sacramento, Feather, and Yuba rivers and the Delta are common pool resources. DWR acknowledges this legal reality in

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25 SWRCB, 2008. Water Rights Within the Bay Delta Watershed (Exhibit P.)
26 California Water Impact Network, AquAlliance, and California Sportfishing Protection Alliance 2012. Testimony on Water Availability Analysis for Trinity, Sacramento, and San Joaquin River Basins Tributary to the Bay-Delta Estuary. (Exhibit Q)
its publication, *Water Transfer Approval: Assuring Responsible Transfers.* The application of the Public Trust Doctrine requires an analysis of the public trust values of competing alternatives, as was directed by the State Water Board in the Mono Lake Case. Its applicability to alternatives for the water transfers planned from the Sacramento, Feather, and Yuba rivers and through the Delta, where species recovery, ecosystem restoration, recreation and navigation are pitted against damage from water exports, is exactly the kind of situation suited to a Public Trust analysis, which should be required by the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program. The act of appropriating water—whether for a new use or for a new method of diversion or of use—is an acquisition of a property right from the waters of the state, an act that is therefore subject to regulation under the state’s public trust responsibilities. Groundwater pumping with adverse effects to public trust surface waters must also be considered.

c. Local General Plans and Ordinances.

The Draft EIS/EIR discusses only two county ordinances, the Colusa Ordinance No. 615 and Yolo Export Ordinance No. 1617, one agreement, the Water Forum Agreement in Sacramento County, and one conjunctive use program, the American River Basin Regional Conjunctive Use Program. Except for the brief discussion of the two ordinances, one agreement, and one conjunctive use program listed above, the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t describe the requirements of local GMPs, ordinances, and agreements listed in Tables 3.3-1 (page 3.3-8) and Table 3-1 (page 27). Thus, the actual groundwater substitution transfer project permit requirements, restrictions, conditions, or exemptions required for each seller service area by the Bureau, DWR, and one or more County GMP or groundwater ordinance will apparently be determined at a future date.

Additional information is needed on what the local regulations require for exporting groundwater out of each seller’s groundwater basin. The Draft EIS/EIR needs to discuss how the local regulations ensure that the project complies with Water Code Sections 1220, 1745.10, 1810, 10750, 10753.7, 10920-10936, and 12924 (for more detailed discussion of these Water Codes see Draft EIS/EIR Section 3.3.1.2.2). Although the Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t document, compare or evaluate the requirements of all local agencies that have authority over groundwater substitution transfers in each seller service area, the Draft EIS/EIR concludes that the environmental impacts from groundwater substitution transfer pumping by each of the sellers will either be less than significant and cause no injury, or be mitigated to less than significant through mitigation measures WS-1, and GW-1 with its reliance on compliance with local regulations.

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As noted above, this conclusion is derived from information absent from the EIS/EIR and, even if there was information considered by the Lead Agencies, without any apparent analysis. Butte, Glenn, and Shasta counties represent counties with Sellers and all of them have the potential to be heavily impacted by activities in or adjacent to their jurisdictions. AquAlliance has examined their ordinances and found them insufficient to protect other users and the environment (Exhibits U, V, X). Sincere efforts at monitoring for groundwater levels and subsidence become meaningless if the monitoring infrastructure is scant and enforcement absent. The Butte County Department of Water and Resource Conservation also explains that local plans are simply not up to the task of managing a regional resource:

Each of the four counties that overlie the Lower Tuscan aquifer system has their own and separate regulatory structure relating to groundwater management. Tehama County, Colusa, and Butte Counties each have their own version of an export ordinance to protect the citizens from transfer-related third party impacts. Glenn County does not have an export ordinance because it relies on Basin Management Objectives (BMOs) to manage the groundwater resource, and subsequently to protect third parties from transfer related impacts. Recently, Butte County also adopted a BMO type of groundwater management ordinance. Butte County, Tehama County and several irrigation districts in each of the four counties have adopted AB3030 groundwater management plans. All of these groundwater management activities were initiated prior to recognizing that a regional aquifer system exists that extends over more than one county and that certain activities in one county could adversely impact another. Clearly the current ordinances, AB3030 plans, and local BMO activities, which were intended for localized groundwater management, are not well suited for management of a regional groundwater resource like that theorized of the Lower Tuscan aquifer system. ²⁹

There is a possibility that a seller’s groundwater substitution area of impact will occur in multiple local jurisdictions, which should result in project requirements coming from multiple local as well as state and federal agencies. The Draft EIS/EIR doesn’t discuss the obstacles from cross jurisdictional impacts that are immense because groundwater basins cross county lines thereby eliminating authority. (Id) One obvious example is found with productions wells placed in Glenn County in the lower end of the Tuscan Aquifer Basin that may affect the up-gradient part of the aquifer in Butte and Tehama counties.

If the Project proceeds, each seller’s project analysis should identify what future analyses, ordinances, project conditions, exemptions, monitoring and mitigation measures are required to ensure that each of the seller’s project meets or exceed the goals of the Draft EIS/EIR.

V. The EIS/EIR Fails to Adequately Analyze Numerous Environmental Effects.

²⁹ Butte County Department of Water and Resource Conservation, Needs Assessment Tuscan Aquifer Monitoring, Recharge, and Data Management Project., 2007. (Exhibit S)
The EIS/EIR fails to include numerous required elements to support a meaningful analysis of the project’s significant adverse impacts. First, the deficiencies in the incomplete and undefined project description, and incomplete description of existing environmental conditions, render any true impact analysis, or hard look at the project effects, impossible. See, e.g., Santiago County Water Dist. v. County of Orange (1981) 118 Cal.App.3d 818; San Joaquin Raptor Rescue Ctr. v. County of Merced (2007) 149 Cal.App.4th 645. Even the analysis provided, however, employs unsupported and inapplicable standards of significance. (CEQA Guidelines § 15064(b); see, e.g., Oakland Heritage Alliance v. City of Oakland (2011) 195 Cal.App.4th 884, 896; Protect the Historic Amador Waterways v. Amador Water Agency (2004) 116 Cal.App.4th 1099, 1111).

The EIS/EIR fails to completely analyze the project’s significant adverse impacts, and fails to support its conclusions with substantial evidence, failing to characterize the project effects in the proper context and intensity. (Id.; 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(a); City of Maywood v. Los Angeles Unified School Dist. (2012) 208 Cal.App.4th 362, 391; Laurel Heights Improvement Association v. Regents of Univ. of Cal. (1988) 47 Cal.3d 376, 393; Madera Oversight Coalition, Inc. v. County of Madera (2011) 199 Cal.App.4th 48, 102 (“whether an EIR is sufficient as an informational document is a question of law subject to independent review by the courts.”))

As discussed, below, and in the expert reports submitted by Custis, EcoNorthwest, Cannon, and Mish on behalf of AquAlliance, the EIS/EIR fails to comport with these standards.


The EIS/EIR fails to adequately analyze changes to all surface water flows as a result of the proposed project. While the EIS/EIR presents some level of streamflow drawdown analysis in its vegetation and biological resources section, that analysis is not taken into consideration with respect to affects to other water supply rights. This raises the specter of injury to senior water rights holders, and the EIS/EIR fails to provide sufficient information regarding where such rights are held and in what amounts, and where proposed transfers may interfere.

Streamflow depletion in the EIS/EIR is evaluated through modeling, but a closer look at the models employed shows significant omissions. First, because the rate of stream depletion is scaled to pumping rate and because the model documentation doesn’t indicate the pumping locations, rates, volumes, times or durations that produced the pumped volumes shown in Figure 3.3-25, or the stream depletions shown in Figures B-5 and B-6 in Appendix B, it appears that the SACFEM2013 modeling did not simulate the maximum rate of stream depletion for the proposed 10-year project. Second, the available Delta export capacity was determined from CalSim II model results using only conditions through WY 2003, which fails to account for
In addition, the Bay-Delta Conservation Plan establishes flow limits for the Delta that the EIS/EIR fails to consider. Instead, the EIS/EIR states that the proposed projects could decrease outflows by 0.3 percent in winter and spring, and provides a bare conclusion that this impact is less than significant. (EIS/EIR 3.2-39.) Just this year the Bureau of Reclamation and DWR requested a Temporary Urgency Change from the SWRCB, a modification to Delta flow objectives that were not being met, and D-1641 standards, in order to attempt to manage species protection.31

The EIS/EIR attempts to consider changes in available supplies for project participants, but fails to review what other water rights holders may be affected by diminished flows. This is especially important given the EIS/EIR’s conclusion that transfers would be most needed in times of critical shortage.

The EIS/EIR also fails to disclose changes in flows as a result of tailwater and ag drainage, which could lead to significant streamflow impacts.

b. Water Quality.

i. The EIS/EIR improperly excludes substantial amounts of water from any meaningful impact evaluation.

The EIS/EIR fails to provide any evidence to support its proposition that “if the change in flow is less than ten cubic feet per second (cfs), it is assumed that there would be no water quality impacts as this is within the error margins of the model.” (EIS/EIR 3.2-27.) First, the margin of error of the model has no bearing on actual water quality. Second, NPDES permits regularly regulate flows of less than 10 cfs. According to USGS, 10 cfs equals 6.46 million gallons per day (MGD). The EIS/EIR’s assumption that a change in reservoir elevation of less than 1,000 acre feet could not possibly have significant impacts to water quality is similarly baseless. (EIS/EIR 3.2-27.) This amounts to approximately 325,800 gallons of water, more than enough to result in a noticeable difference in water quality. The Federal Clean Water Act is a strict liability statute providing no de minimis exceptions. By way of comparison, the City of Galt Wastewater Treatment Plant maintains flows at 4.5 MGD (NPDES Permit No. CA0081434), the City of Colusa Wastewater Treatment Plant maintains flows of approximately 0.7 MGD (NPDES Permit No. CA0078999), and each of these facilities has been assessed penalties for effluent exceedances by the Regional Water Board in recent years. The EIS/EIR’s conclusion that flows equivalent to entire municipal wastewater treatment plants have no ability to compromise water quality standards is simply wrong.

31 Letter from Mark W. Cowin to Tom Howard, April 9, 2014 (Exhibit U)
Similarly, the EIS/EIR provides the bare conclusion that:

CVP and SWP reservoirs within the Seller Service Area would experience only small changes in storage, which would not be of sufficient magnitude and frequency to result in substantive changes to water quality. Any small changes to water quality would not adversely affect designated beneficial uses, violate existing water quality standards, or substantially degrade water quality. Consequently, potential effects on reservoir water quality would be less than significant.

(EIS/EIR 3.2-31.) The EIS/EIR simply provides no evidence or analysis in making this conclusion.

Lastly, the EIS/EIR provides no actual analysis of potential impacts to San Luis Reservoir as a result of lowering water levels in response to transfers. The EIS/EIR admits that “storage under the Proposed Action would be less than the No Action/No Project Alternative for all months of the year,” and asserts that water levels would be lowered between 3%-6% as a result of the Project. (EIS/EIR 3.2-41.) The EIS/EIR then presents the bare conclusion that “These small changes in storage are not sufficient to adversely affect designated beneficial uses, violate existing water quality standards, or substantially degrade water quality.” The EIS/EIR provides no basis for this determination, including no comparison of baseline environmental conditions to changes in contaminated runoff as a result of any particular water transfer.

ii. The EIS/EIR fails to provide any information with which to evaluate impacts from idled crop fields, or farmlands in buyers’ areas.

The EIS/EIR assumes certain agricultural practices will occur at idle rice fields, when in reality, property owners would be free to re-purpose idled fields in countless and creative ways. (EIS/EIR 3-2.30.) For idled alfalfa, corn, or tomato cropland, the EIS/EIR assumes that property owners will put in place erosion control measures to conserve soil. While this may be a reasonable assumption for some farms, others, who may prefer to pursue multi-year water transfers, may not have an interest in investing in soil conservation. In addition, the EIS/EIR fails to provide analysis of the degree of effectiveness of soil conservation measures where no groundcover is in place. (EIS/EIR 3.2-29.) If proven to be effective, the EIS/EIR should require the Lead Agencies to condition water transfers on these necessary mitigation measures, and provide monitoring and reporting to ensure their continued implementation. We recommend that the Bureau and DWR require, at a minimum, that local governments select independent third-party monitors, who are funded by surcharges on Project transfers paid by the buyers, to oversee the monitoring that is proposed in lieu of Bureau and DWR staff, and that peer-reviewed methods for monitoring be required. If this is not done, the Project’s proposed monitoring and mitigation outline is insufficient and cannot justify the significant risk of adverse environmental impacts.
The EIS/EIR also states that increased erosion would not be of concern in Butte, Colusa, Glenn, Solano, Sutter, and Yolo counties, due to the prevalence of clay and clay loam soils. (EIS/EIR 3.2-29.) This bare conclusion does not provide any meaningful evaluation of the proposed program’s impacts. Does the EIS/EIR really mean to assert that nowhere across six entire counties does soil erosion adversely impact water quality?

The EIS/EIR contradicts itself, stating:

In cases of crop shifting, farmers may alter the application of pesticides and other chemicals which negatively affect water quality if allowed to enter area waterways. Since crop shifting would only affect currently utilized farmland, a significant increase in agricultural constituents of concern is not expected. (EIS/EIR 3.2-30.) Would applications be altered, or remain the same? The EIS/EIR says both. In truth, due to the programmatic nature of this EIS/EIR, although it is a “project” not a “programmatic” document, one cannot know. This level of impact must be evaluated on a project-by-project basis, yet the Lead Agencies assertion that this is a “project” level EIS/EIR precludes additional CEQA and NEPA review.

The EIS/EIR concludes that water quality impacts in the buyer area would be less than significant, but provides no evidence or assurances whatsoever regarding the ultimate use of the purchased water would be. (EIS/EIR 3.2-41.) The EIS/EIR then considers only impacts resulting from increased crop irrigation, acknowledging that “[i]f this water were used to irrigate drainage impaired lands, increased irrigation could cause water to accumulate in the shallow root zone and could leach pollutants into the groundwater and potentially drain into the neighboring surface water bodies.” (EIS/EIR 3.2-41.) The EIS/EIR then dismisses this possibility, assuming that buyers would only use water for “prime or important farmlands.” Missing from this section is any analysis of water quality. What does the EIS/EIR consider to be prime or important farm lands? Do all such actual farms exhibit the same water quality in irrigated runoff? The EIS/EIR provides no assurances its assumptions will be met, and moreover, fails to explain what its assumptions actually are.

The EIS/EIR then again relies on an improper ratio comparison of the amount of transfer water potentially used in buyer areas, to the total amount of all water used in the buyers’ areas. The EIS/EIR adds:

The small incremental supply within the drainage-impaired service areas would not be sufficient to change drainage patterns or existing water quality, particularly given drainage management, water conservation actions and existing regulatory compliance efforts already implemented in that area.

(EIS/EIR 3.2-41.) Again, however, any comparison ratio of transferred water to other irrigation simply provides no analysis of what water quality impacts any individual transfer would have
after application on any individual farm. Moreover, if indeed a transfer is responding to a shortage, the transfer amount could actually constitute all or a majority of water usage for a particular site. Allusion to “existing regulatory compliance efforts” only suggests that regulatory compliance is not already maintained in each and every potential buyer farmland. There is no reasonable dispute that return flows from irrigated agriculture can often compromise water quality standards, but the EIS/EIR simply brushes this impact aside.

The EIS/EIR assumes that transfers may only occur during times of shortage (EIS/EIR 3.2-41), yet the proposed project itself is not so narrowly defined, and nothing in the Water Code limits transfers to circumstances where there has been a demonstrated shortfall in the buyer’s area. As a result of this open-ended project description, the true water quality impacts in the buyers’ areas are completely unknown.

iii. The EIS/EIR ignores numerous potentially significant sources of contamination to surface waters.

The EIS/EIR describes the existing environmental conditions of most of the water bodies within the potential seller areas to be impaired for numerous contaminants; and also provides sampling and monitoring data to show that in-stream exceedances of water quality objectives regularly occur. Yet, the EIS/EIR fails to ever discuss the impact of moving contaminated water from one source to another. For example, where a seller’s water is listed as impaired for certain contaminants, any movement of that water to another waterbody will simply spread this impairment. The EIS/EIR provides no information with which to determine the actual water quality of the seller’s water for any particular transfer, nor any evaluation or monitoring to determine whether moving these contaminants from one water to another would harm beneficial uses or exceed receiving water limits. The EIS/EIR should provide a more particularized review of potential contaminants and their impacts under the proposed project. For example, the EIS/EIR does not analyze water quality impacts from boron, but the BDCP EIS/EIR states, “large-scale, out-of-basin water transfers have reduced the assimilative capacity of the river, thereby exacerbating the water quality issues associated with boron.” (BDCP EIS/EIR at 8-40.) Similarly, dissolved oxygen, among other forms of contamination, pose regular problems pursuant to D-1641. These potentially significant impacts must be disclosed for public and agency review.

What selenium and boron loads in Mud Slough and other tributaries to the San Joaquin River may be expected from application of this water to western San Joaquin Valley lands?

The EIS/EIR fails to disclose whether changes in specific conductivity as a result of the program would result in significant impacts to water quality. First, as noted above, the EIS/EIR presents scattered baseline data, much of which appears to show ongoing EC exceedances, but the EIS/EIR fails to disclose what Bay-Delta EC standards are, and the frequency and magnitude of baseline exceedances. Against this backdrop, the EIS/EIR then admits that program transfers would increase EC by as much as 4.3 percent. (EIS/EIR 3.2-39.) The EIS/EIR fails to disclose
whether these regular EC increases would exacerbate baseline violation conditions. In addition, the EIS/EIR only presents analysis for one monitoring location, whereas the Bay-Delta plan contains EC limits for over a dozen monitoring locations.

The EIS/EIR fails to disclose the extent to which program transfers could harm water quality by moving the “X2” location through the Delta. D-1641 specifies that, from February through June, the location of X2 must be west of Collinsville and additionally must be west of Chipps Island or Port Chicago for a certain number of days each month, depending on the previous month’s Eight River Index. D-1641 specifies that compliance with the X2 standard may occur in one of three ways: (1) the daily average EC at the compliance point is less than or equal to 2.64 millimhos/cm; (2) the 14-day average EC is less than or equal to 2.64 millimhos/cm; or (3) the 3-day average Delta outflow is greater than or equal to the corresponding minimum outflow.

The EIS/EIR relies on an improper ratio approach to its impact evaluation of increased EC concentrations in the Delta Mendota Canal as a result of San Joaquin River diversions. (EIS/EIR 3.2-40.) The EIS/EIR admits that EC in the canal would increase as a result of these diversions, but fails to disclose by how much, or against what existing environmental conditions. Instead, the EIS/EIR compares the transfer amount, approximately 250 cfs, to the total capacity of the canal, about 4,000 cfs, to conclude that EC changes would not be significant. A comparison of the transfer amount to the total canal capacity simply provides no analysis of or information about EC concentrations.

The EIS/EIR fails to meaningfully evaluate potentially significant impacts to surface water quality as a result of groundwater substitution. First, the EIS/EIR provides an improper and misleading comparison, stating that

The amount of groundwater substituted for surface water under the Proposed Action would be relatively small compared to the amount of surface water used to irrigate agricultural fields in the Seller Service Area. Groundwater would mix with surface water in agricultural drainages prior to irrigation return flow reaching the rivers. Constituents of concern that may be present in the groundwater could enter the surface water as a result of mixing with irrigation return flows. Any constituents of concern, however, would be greatly diluted when mixed with the existing surface waters applied because a much higher volume of surface water is used for irrigation purposes in the Seller Service Area. Additionally, groundwater quality in the area is generally good and sufficient for municipal, agricultural, domestic, and industrial uses.

(EIS/EIR at 3.2-21.) The EIS/EIR’s threshold of significance asks whether any water quality objective will be violated, and this must be measured at each discharge point. In turn, any farm that substitutes surface water irrigation for groundwater irrigation must be evaluated against this threshold. The EIS/EIR fails to provide any evidence to support its conclusion that the dilution of the groundwater runoff into surface waters would avoid any significant water quality...
impacts. On one hand the EIS/EIR asserts that groundwater is of good quality, and on the other hand, asserts that the overall quality would improve as it is mixed with surface water irrigation runoff: which source provides the better water quality in this arrangement? It is widely recognized that irrigated agricultural return flows can transport significant contaminants to receiving water bodies. In addition, the EIS/EIR simply assumes that contaminated groundwater would not be pumped and applied to agricultural lands, despite the fact that groundwater extractions may mobilize PCE, TCE, and nitrate plumes under the City of Chico, and fails to disclose the existence of all hazardous waste plumes in the area of origin where groundwater substitution may occur. The assertion that “groundwater is generally good” throughout 6-10 counties is insufficient to provide any meaningful information against which to evaluate any particular transfer.

For “non-Project” reservoirs, the EIS/EIR provides one piece of additional information: modeling projections showing various rates of drawdown in table 3.2-24. The EIS/EIR then concludes that because water quality in these reservoirs is generally good, the reductions would not result in any significant water quality impacts. Again, the EIS/EIR provides no evidence or analysis to support this bare conclusion. Nor does the EIS/EIR present the beneficial uses of Collins Lake, nor Dry Creek, downstream of Collins Lake (see Table 3.2-2). The EIS/EIR does note that Lake McClure, Hell Hole Reservoir, and Camp Far West Reservoir maintain beneficial uses for cold water habitat and wildlife habitat, but fails to evaluate whether these beneficial uses would be impacted. Dissolved oxygen rates will decrease with lower water levels, and any sediment-based contaminant concentration, will increase. And the fact that drawdowns increase in already-critical years only heightens the water quality concerns.

The EIS/EIR repeatedly relies on dilution as the solution, with no actual analysis or receiving water assimilative capacity, and no regulatory authority. It is well-established law that a discharger may receive a mixing zone of dilution to determine compliance with receiving water objectives if and only if the permittee has conducted a mixing zone study, submitted to a Regional Board or the State Board for approval. (See, e.g., Waterkeepers N. Cal. v. AG Indus. Mfg., 2005 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 43006 [“A dilution credit is a limited regulatory exception that must be preceded by a site specific mixing zone study”]; Water Quality Standards; Establishment of Numeric Criteria for Priority Toxic Pollutants for the State of California, 65 Fed. Reg. 31682 (May 18, 2000), 31701 [“All waters . . . are subject to the criteria promulgated today. Such criteria will need to be attained at the end of the discharge pipe, unless the State authorizes a mixing zone.”]) The EIS/EIR entirely ignores Clean Water Act requirements for obtaining dilution credits, and, with no supporting evidence whatsoever, effectively and illegally grants dilution credits across the board. (See, EIS/EIR 3.2-31, 3.2-35, 3.2-36, 3.2-42, 3.2-59). For each instance in which the EIR/EIS wishes to apply dilution credit to its determination of whether water quality impacts will be significant, it must perform – with the approval of the State or Regional

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32 http://www.ci.chico.ca.us/capital_project_services/NitrateArea2NPh3U1-3.asp
Water Board – a mixing zone study considering the impacted waterbody and the specific types and quantities of the proposed pollutant discharge(s). Short of that, each time the EIS/EIR relies on dilution as the solution, it fails to analyze whether any contaminant in any waterbody in any amount could protect beneficial uses or exceed receiving water standards. The more Project water goes to south-of-Delta agricultural users than to urban users, the higher would be their groundwater levels, the more contaminated the groundwater would be in the western San Joaquin Valley and the more the San Joaquin River would be negatively affected from contaminated seepage and tailwater by operation of the Project.

   c. Groundwater Resources.
   
The modeling efforts presented by the EIS/EIR fail to accurately capture the project’s groundwater impacts. First, the SACFEM2013 simulations didn’t evaluate the impacts of pumping the maximum annual amount proposed for each of the 10 years of the project. Second, because the groundwater modeling effort didn’t include the most recent 11 years record, it appears to have missed simulating the most recent periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping and other groundwater impacting events, such as recent changes in groundwater elevations and groundwater storage (DWR, 2014b), and the reduced recharge due to the recent periods of drought. Without taking the hydrologic conditions during the recent 11 years into account, the results of the SACFEM2013 model simulation may not accurately depict the current conditions or predict the effects from the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping during the next 10 years.

   The Lead Agencies are making gross assumptions about the number, size, and behavior of all the surface water resources in the state, just to be able to coerce those assumptions into data that fits into the SACFEM2013 model. The assumptions are driving the modeling instead of the model (and science) driving accurate results. Appendix D is full of inaccurate statements and clear indications that this model is deficient. For example, it’s advertised as a 3D model, but it’s actually a collection of linked 2D models, and those are driven not by science, but by assumptions, e.g., the model can’t calculate the location of the phreatic surface: it relies on assumptions and observations for that data, and that makes the model incapable of prediction.\(^{33}\)

   The Draft EIS/EIR should provide the time-drawdown and distance-drawdown hydraulic characteristics for each groundwater substitution transfer well so that non-participant well owners can estimate and evaluate the potential impacts to their well(s) from well interference due to the pumping the groundwater substitution transfer well(s). This analysis is not present in the EIS/EIR.

\(^{33}\) Mish (Exhibit C) pp. 3 and 4.)
The EIS/EIR wrongly assumes that stream depletion impacts from pumping occur only downstream from the point on the stream closest to the pumping well.\textsuperscript{34} Any monitoring of the effects of groundwater substitution pumping on surface or ground water levels, rates and areas of stream depletion, fisheries, vegetation and wildlife impacts, and other critical structures needs to cover a much wider area than what is needed for a direct surface water diversion.

The EIS/EIR doesn’t compare the known groundwater quality problem areas with the SACFEM2013 simulated drawdowns to demonstrate that the proposed projects won’t draw in or expand the areas of known poor water quality. The EIS/EIR analysis doesn’t appear to consider the impacts to private well owners. Pumping done as part of the groundwater substitution transfer may cause water quality impacts from geochemical changes resulting from a lowering the water table below historic elevations, which exposes aquifer material to different redox conditions and can alter the mixing ratio of different quality aquifer zones being pumped. Changes in groundwater level can also alter the direction and/or rate of movement of contaminated groundwater plumes both horizontally and vertically, which may expose non-participating wells to contaminants they would not otherwise encounter.

The EIS/EIR fails to evaluate any changes in the rate and direction of inter-basin groundwater flow. Inter-basin groundwater flow may become a hidden long-term impact that increases the time needed for recovery of groundwater levels from groundwater substitution transfer pumping, and can extend the impact from groundwater substitution transfer pumping to areas outside of the groundwater substitution transfer seller’s boundary.

Finally, the EIS/EIR should evaluate how Project transfers could add to the already high water table in the western San Joaquin Valley? Impacts from a higher water table could include increased groundwater contamination, lower flood resistance, greater erosion, and loss of suitability of certain parcels to particular land uses.

d. The SACFEM 2013 and CALSIM II Models are Inadequate.

The comments herein are based largely on the attached work of Dr. Custis (Exhibit A) and Dr. Mish (Exhibit C), and we request specific responses to these attached works. The EIR/EIS fails to accurately estimate environmental effects likely to occur during water transfers. The SACFEM2013 model used to predict groundwater resources is flawed by being based on poor technology that is simply not up to the task of accurate large-scale modeling.

The SACFEM2013 model is only partially predictive, in that key aquifer responses are entered as input data instead of being computed as predictive quantities. The model requires considerable data manipulation to be used, and these manipulations are necessarily subject to interpretation. The model description in the EIR/EIS presents no validation results that can be used to provide basic quality-assurance for the analyses used in the EIR/EIS. The model is not

\textsuperscript{34} Custis (Exhibit A)
predictive in many important responses (as mentioned above), so its results are a reflection of past data (e.g., streamflows, phreatic surface location, etc.) instead of providing a predictive capability for future events. As described in previous sections, both the model and the input data contain gross over-simplifications that compromise the ability to provide accurate estimates of real-world responses of water resources. On page 19 of Appendix B, the reader is promised that model uncertainty will be described in Appendix D, but that promise is never delivered. This lack of any formal measure of uncertainty is not an unimportant detail, as it is impossible to provide accurate estimates of margin of error without some formal treatment of uncertainty. Any physical response asserted by the model’s results has a margin of error of 100% if that response involves spatial scales smaller than a kilometer or more.

The EIR/EIS makes little connection between groundwater extraction process modeled by SACFEM2013 and the all-too-real potential for surface subsidence, and the attendant irreversible loss of aquifer capacity. The problem is especially important during drought years, when groundwater substitution is most likely to occur. In a drought, the aquifer already entrains less groundwater than normal, so that additional stresses due to pumping are visited upon the aquifer skeleton. This is exactly the conditions required to cause loss of capacity and the risk of subsidence. Yet the EIR/EIS makes scant mention of these all-too-real problems, and no serious modeling effort is presented in the EIR/EIS to assess the risk of such environmental degradation.

In contrast to the shortcomings of the model, the Bureau/DWR’s DTIPWT seeks information on interactions between groundwater pumping and groundwater/surface water supplies at various increments of less than one and two miles. (DTIPWT at Appendix B.) Where the EIS/EIR fails to provide information at a level of detail required by BOR and DWR to determine whether significant impacts to water supplies may occur, the EIS/EIR fails to provide information needed to support a full analysis of groundwater and surface water impacts, and fails to support its conclusions with evidence.

CalSim II is a highly complex simulation model of a complex system that requires significant expertise to run and understand. Consequently, only a few individuals concentrated in the Department of Water Resources, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation and several consulting firms understand the details and capabilities of the model. State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) staff cannot run the model. To the extent CalSim II is relied upon, the EIR/EIS must be transparent and clearly explain and justify all assumptions made in model runs. It must explicitly state when findings are based on post processing and when findings are based on direct model results. And results must include error bars to account for uncertainty and margin of safety.

As an optimization model, CalSim II is hardwired to assume perfect supply and perfect demand. The notion of perfect supply is predicated on the erroneous assumption that groundwater can always be obtained to augment upstream supply. However, the state and federal projects have
no right to groundwater in the unadjudicated Sacramento River basin. Operating under this assumption risks causing impacts to ecosystems dependent upon groundwater basins in the areas of origin. The notion of perfect demand is also problematic, as it cannot account for the myriad of flow, habitat and water quality requirements mandated by state and federal statutes. Perfect demand assumes water deliveries constrained only by environmental constraints included in the code. In other words, CalSim II never truly measures environmental harm beyond simply projecting how to maximize deliveries without violating the incorporated environmental constraints. As a monthly time-step model, CalSim II cannot determine weekly, daily or instantaneous effects; i.e., it cannot accurately simulate actual instantaneous or even weekly flows. It follows that CalSim II cannot identify real-time impacts to objectives or requirements. Indeed, DWR admits, “CalSim II modeling should only be used in ‘comparative mode,’ that is when comparing the results of alternate CalSim II model runs and that ‘great caution should be taken when comparing actual data to modeled data.” 35

The Department of Civil Engineering University of California at Davis conducted a comprehensive survey of members of California’s technical and policy-oriented water management community regarding the use and development of CalSim II in California. Detailed interviews were conducted with individuals from California’s water community, including staff from both DWR and USBR (the agencies that created, own, and manage the model) and individuals affiliated with consulting firms, water districts, environmental groups, and universities.

The results of the survey, which was funded by the CalFed Science Program and peer-reviewed, should serve as a cautionary note to those who make decisions based on CalSim II. The report cites that in interviewing DWR and USBR management and modeling technical staff: “Many interviewees acknowledge that using CALSIM II in a predictive manner is risky and/or inappropriate, but without any other agency-supported alternative they have no other option.”

The report continues that: “All users agree that CalSim II needs better documentation of the model, data, inputs, and results. CalSim II is data-driven, and so it requires numerous input files, many of which lack documentation,” and “There is considerable debate about the current and desirable state of CalSim II’s calibration and verification,” and “Its representation of the SWP and CVP includes many simplifications that raise concerns regarding the accuracy of results.” “The model’s inability to capture within-month variations sometimes results in overestimates of the volume of water the projects can export from the Sacramento- San Joaquin Bay-Delta and makes it seem easier to meet environmental standards than it is in real operations.” The study concluded by observing, “CalSim II is being used, and will continue to be used, for many other types of analyses for which it may be ill-suited, including in absolute mode.”

In sum, the relied-upon models fail to accurately characterize the existing and future environment, fail to assess project-related impacts at a level of detailed required for the EIS/EIR, and fail to support the EIS/EIR’s conclusions regarding significance of impacts.

e. Seismicity.

The EIS/EIR reasoning that because the projects don’t involve new construction or modification of existing structures that there are no potential seismic impacts from the activity undertaken during the transfers is incorrect. The project area has numerous existing structures that could be affected by the groundwater substitution transfer pumping, specifically settlement induced by subsidence. Although the seismicity in the Sacramento Valley is lower than many areas of California, it’s not insignificant. There is a potential for the groundwater substitution transfer projects to increase the impacts of seismic shaking because of subsidence causing additional stress on existing structures.

The EIS/EIR fails to inform the public through any analysis of the potential effects excessive groundwater pumping in the seller area may have on the numerous known earthquake faults running through and about the north Delta area, and into other regions of Northern California. As recently detailed in a paper published by a well-respected British scientific journal, “[u]plift and seismicity driven by groundwater depletion in central California,” excessive pumping of groundwater from the Central Valley might be affecting the frequency of earthquakes along the San Andreas Fault, and raising the elevation of local mountain belts. The research posits that removal of groundwater lessens the weight and pressure on the Earth’s upper crust, which allows the crust to move upward, releasing pressure on faults, and rendering them closure to failure. Long-Term Water Transfer Agreements have impacted the volume of groundwater extracted as farmers are able to pump and then forego surface water in exchange for money. The drought has exacerbated the need for water in buyer areas, and depleted the natural regeneration of groundwater supply due to the scarcity of rain.

Detailed analyses of this seismicity and focal mechanisms indicate that active geologic structures include blind thrust and reverse faults and associated folds (e.g., Dunnigan Hills) within the Coast Ranges-Sierran Block (“CRSB”) boundary zone on the western margin of the Sacramento Valley, the Willows and Corning faults in the valley interior, and reactivated portions of the Foothill fault system. Other possibly seismogenic faults include the Chico monocline fault in the Sierran foothills and the Paskenta, Elder Creek and Cold Fork faults on the northwestern margin of the Sacramento Valley.  

f. Climate Change.

36 http://archives.datapages.com/data/pacific/data/088/088001/5_ps0880005.htm (Custis, Exhibit A)
The gross omissions and errors within the climate change analysis of the EIS/EIR fail to accurately describe the existing climatological conditions into which the project may be approved, fail to accurately describe the diminution of water and natural resources over recent and future years as a result of climate change, fail to integrate these changing circumstances into any future baseline or cumulative conditions, and fail to completely analyze or support the EIS/EIR conclusions regarding the project’s potentially significant impacts.

i. The EIS/EIR Completely Fails to Incorporate Any Climate Change Information into its Analysis.

The EIS/EIR provides no analysis whatsoever of the extent to which climate change will affect the EIS/EIR assumptions regarding water supply, water quality, groundwater, or fisheries. Despite providing an overview of extant literature and study, all agreeing that California temperatures have been, are, and will continue to be rising, the entire EIS/EIR analysis of climate change interactions with the proposed project states:

As described in the Section 3.6.1.3, changes to annual temperatures, extreme heat, precipitation, sea level rise and storm surge, and snowpack and streamflow are expected to occur in the future because of climate change. Because of the short-term duration of the Proposed Action (10 years), any effects of climate change on this alternative are expected to be minimal. Impacts to the Proposed Action from climate change would be less than significant.

(EIS/EIR 3.6-21 to 3.6-22; similarly, the EIS/EIR Fisheries chapter at 3.7-23 states: “Future climate change is not expected to alter conditions in any reservoir under the No Action/No Project Alternative because there will be limited climate change predicted over the ten year project duration (see Section 3.6, Climate Change/Greenhouse Gas).”)

First, this “analysis” seriously misstates extant science by claiming that climate change impacts “are expected to occur in the future.” The effects of climate change are affecting California’s water resources at present, and have been for years. A 2007 DWR fact sheet, for example, states that “[c]limate change is already impacting California’s water resources.” A more recent 2013 report issued by the California Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment states that “[m]any indicators reveal already discernible impacts of climate change, highlighting the urgency for the state, local government and others to undertake mitigation and adaptation strategies.” The report states that:

[^37]: [http://www.water.ca.gov/climatechange/docs/062807factsheet.pdf](http://www.water.ca.gov/climatechange/docs/062807factsheet.pdf) (Exhibit AA)
Climate is a key factor affecting snow, ice and frozen ground, streams, rivers, lakes and the ocean. Regional climate change, particularly warming temperatures, have affected these natural physical systems.

From October to March, snow accumulates in the Sierra Nevada. This snowpack stores much of the year’s water supply. Spring warming releases the water as snowmelt runoff. Over the past century, spring runoff to the Sacramento River has decreased by 9 percent. Lower runoff volumes from April to July may indicate: (1) warmer winters, during which precipitation falls as rain instead of snow; and (2) earlier springtime warming.

Glaciers are important indicators of climate change. They respond to the combination of winter snowfall and spring and summer temperatures. Like spring snowmelt, the melting of glaciers supplies water to sustain flora and fauna during the warmer months. Glacier shrinkage results in earlier peak runoff and drier summer conditions—changes with ecological impacts—and contributes to sea level rise.

With warming temperatures over the past century, the surface area of glaciers in the Sierra Nevada has been decreasing. Losses have ranged from 20 to 70 percent.

Over the last century, sea levels have risen by an average of 7 inches along the California coast.

Lake waters have been warming at Lake Tahoe, Lake Almanor, Clear Lake and Mono Lake since the 1990s. Changes in water temperature can alter the chemical, physical and biological characteristics of a lake, leading to changes in the composition and abundance of organisms that inhabit it.

Snow-water content—the amount of water stored in the snowpack—has declined in the northern Sierra Nevada and increased in the southern Sierra Nevada, likely reflecting differences in precipitation patterns.

Reduced runoff means less water to meet the state’s domestic, agricultural, hydroelectric power generation, recreation and other needs. Cold water fish habitat, alpine forest growth and wildfire conditions are also impacted.

In addition, climate change threatens to reduce the size of cold water pools in upstream reservoirs and raise temperatures in upstream river reaches for Chinook, and climate change will reduce Delta outflows and cause X2 to migrate further east and upstream. (See, BDCP at 5.B-310, “Delta smelt may occur more frequently in the north Delta diversions area under future climate conditions if sea level rise [and reduced Sacramento River inflow below Freeport] induces movement of the spawning population farther upstream than is currently typical.”)
And, the EIS/EIR “[f]igure 3.6-1 shows the climate change area of analysis,” excluding all of the Sierra Nevadas except those within Placer County, and excluding all of Sacramento County. (EIS/EIR 3.6-2.)

Instead of accounting for these factors in its environmental analysis, the EIS/EIR takes the obtuse approach of relying only on “mid-century” and year 2100 projections to cast climate change as a “long-term” and “future” problem. (See, e.g., EIS/EIR 3.6-10.) First, the U.S. Department of Interior and the California Resources Agency clearly possess better information regarding past, present, and on-going changes to water supplies as a result of climate change than presented in the EIS/EIR, and such information must be incorporated. Second, even the information presented could be more fully described, and where appropriate, extrapolated, to support any meaningful analysis. Presumably these studies and reports provide more than one or two future data points, and instead show curved projections over time. For example, the EIS/EIR states that “[i]n California, snow water equivalent (the amount of water held in a volume of snow) is projected to decrease by 16 percent by 2035, 34 percent by 2070, and 57 percent by 2099, as compared to measurements between 1971 and 2000.” (EIS/EIR 3.6-11.) Are these the only three data points provided by the study? Unless the EIS/EIR assumes that the entire percent decreases will be felt exclusively in years 2035, 2070, and 2099, these data should be extrapolated, as follows, to approximate the snow melt decrease over the project term:

From this it is apparent that snow melt will decrease over the project term. This provides just one example, but the EIS/EIR itself should include meaningful analysis of climate change effects upon annual temperatures, extreme heat, precipitation, evaporation, sea level rise, storm surge, snowpack, groundwater, stream flow, riparian habitat, fisheries, and local economies over the life of the project.
Nine years ago, in 2005, then California Governor Arnold Schwarzenegger stated “[w]e know the science. We see the threat. And we know the time for action is now.” Here, in contrast, the EIS/EIR says, let’s wait another ten years. This is simply unacceptable.

ii. The EIS/EIR Completely Ignores Increased GHG Emission in the Buyer Areas.

The EIS/EIR impact evaluation of increased GHG emissions in the buyer areas consists of a series of incomplete characterizations and unsupported conclusion. First, the EIS/EIR states: “Water transfers to agricultural users . . . could temporarily reduce the amount of land idled relative to the No Action/No Project Alternative.” (EIS/EIR 3.6-22.) This is in part true, but understates the impact, as there is no guarantee that the newly-supported land-uses would either be temporary, or agricultural. Second, the EIS/EIR states that “farmers may also pump less groundwater for irrigation, which would reduce emissions from use of diesel pumps.” This too is entirely speculative, and also contradicts the earlier implication that transfer water would only go to idled cropland. Third, the EIS/EIR summarily concludes that, “[t]he total amount of agricultural activity in the Buyer Service Area relative to GHG emissions would not likely change relative to existing conditions and the impact would be less than significant.” This again contradicts the EIS/EIR earlier statement that a water transfer could result in less idled cropland; and also defies logic and has no support in fact to suggest that increasing provision of a scarce resource would not induce some growth. At a bare minimum, the EIS/EIR should use its own estimated GHG reduction rates achieved as a result of newly idled cropland in the sellers’ service area as means of measuring the estimated GHG emission increases caused by activating idled cropland in the buyers’ service areas.

iii. The EIS/EIR Threshold of Significance for GHG Emissions is Inappropriate.

The EIS/EIR reviews nearly a dozen relevant, agency-adopted, thresholds of significant for GHG emissions, and chooses to select the single threshold that sits a full order of magnitude above all others. The chosen threshold is unsupported in fact or law, and creates internal contradiction within the EIS/EIR. The CEQA Guidelines state that:

A lead agency should consider the following factors, among others, when assessing the significance of impacts from greenhouse gas emissions on the environment:

. . .

Whether the project emissions exceed a threshold of significance that the lead agency determines applies to the project.

39 United Nations World Environment Day Conference, June 1, 2005, San Francisco; see also, Executive Order S-3-05.
The extent to which the project complies with regulations or requirements adopted to implement a statewide, regional, or local plan for the reduction or mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions.

(CEQA Guidelines § 15064.4.) Numerous Air Districts within the affected area have established GHG thresholds of significance that the EIS/EIR improperly chooses not to apply. The EIS/EIR argues that these Air District thresholds are meant to apply to stationary sources, an exercise that “would be overly onerous and is not recommended.” (EIS/EIR 3.6-18.) This must be rejected. The EIS/EIR fails to provide any reason to believe that Air District regulations would not and should not be applied to activities occurring within each respective Air District. The CEQA Guidelines require the lead agency to use “a threshold of significance that the lead agency determines applies to the project;” here, the lead agency has not determined that the local Air District thresholds do not apply to the project activities; rather, it has determined that this evaluation would be too onerous. So instead, the EIS/EIR chooses to apply the threshold of significance adopted by the Antelope Valley Air District and the Mojave Desert Air District, each of which would clearly have latitude to adopt lax air quality thresholds owing to the lack of use intensity within each district. With (hopefully) no transfer water heading to the Mojave Desert, the lead agency has no basis to determine that the Mojave Desert Air District’s thresholds of significance “applies to the project.” The EIS/EIR also notes that the same threshold has been adopted by USEPA for Clean Air Act, Title V permits. But the Title V standard also applies to stationary sources, which the EIS/EIR says are inapplicable. Does any project element require a Title V permit? In short, the EIS/EIR fails to evaluate the project against any threshold of significance that was adopted either (1) for the benefit of an individual air district in which project activities would occur, or (2) for the benefit of regional or statewide GHG emission goals. The EIS/EIR’s unsupported grab of the most lax standard it could find, with no bearing on the project whatsoever, must be rejected.

**g. Fisheries.**

AquAlliance shares the widely held view that operation of the Delta export pumps is the major factor causing the Pelagic Organism Decline (“POD”) and in the deteriorating populations of fall-run Chinook salmon. In 2012, the State Water Resources Control Board received word in early December that the Fall Midwater Trawl surveys for September and October showed horrendous numbers for the target species. The indices for longfin smelt, splittal, and threadfin shad reveal the lowest in history.\(^{40}\) Delta smelt, striped bass, and American shad numbers remain close to their lowest levels (\(\text{Id}\)). The 2013 indices were even worse and the 2014 indices are also abysmal (\(\text{Id}\)). Tom Cannon declared in June 2014 that water transfers have been and will remain devastating to Delta smelt during dry years.\(^{41}\) “In my opinion, the effect of Delta operations this summer [2014] of confining smelt to the Sacramento Deepwater ship channel

\(^{40}\) [http://www.dfg.ca.gov/delta/data/fmwt/indices/index.asp](http://www.dfg.ca.gov/delta/data/fmwt/indices/index.asp). (Exhibit CC)

\(^{41}\) Cannon 2014. Declaration for Preliminary Injunction in AquAlliance and CSPA v. United State Bureau of Reclamation. (Exhibit DD)
upstream of Rio Vista due to adverse environmental conditions in the LSZ that will be exacerbated by the Transfers, both with and without relaxed outflow standards, with no evidence that they can emerge from the ship channel in the fall to produce another generation of smelt, is significant new information showing that the Transfers will have significant adverse impacts on Delta smelt.” Mr. Cannon’s October report observes that “habitat conditions have been very poor and the Delta smelt population is now much closer to extinction with the lowest summer index on record.”

As Mr. Cannon’s comments highlight, attached and fully incorporated as though stated in their entirety, herein, the EIS/EIR has inaccurately characterized the existing environment, including the assumption that delta smelt are not found in the Delta in the summer transfer season, when in fact during dry and critical years when transfers would occur, most if not all delta smelt are found in the Delta; and fails to fully assess the significant and cumulative effects to listed species in multiyear droughts when listed fish are already under maximum stress, which effects could be avoided by limiting transfers in the second or later years of drought.

The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program would exacerbate pumping of fresh water from the Delta, which has already suffered from excessive pumping over the last 12 years. Pumped exports cause reverse flows to occur in Old and Middle Rivers and can result in entrainment of fish and other organisms in the pumps. Pumping can shrink the habitat for Delta smelt (Hypomesus transpacificus) as well, since less water flows out past Chipps Island through Suisun Bay, which Delta smelt often prefer.

The EIS/EIR should also evaluate whether Project effects could alter stream flows necessary to maintain compliance with California Fish and Game Code Section 5937. A recent study issued from the University of California, Davis, documents hundreds of dams failing to maintain these required flows. 42 Both the timing and volumes of transfer water must be considered in conjunction with 5937 flows.

h. Vegetation and Wildlife.

i. The EIS/EIR reaches faulty conclusion for Project and cumulative impacts. Section 3.8.5, Potentially Significant Unavoidable Impacts, declares that, “None of the alternatives would result in potentially significant unavoidable impacts on natural communities, wildlife, or special-status species.” Regarding cumulative biological impacts of the proposed Project (Alternative 2), the EIS/EIR concludes, “Long-term water transfers would not be cumulatively considerable with the other projects because each of the projects would have little or no impact flows [sic] in rivers and creeks in the Sacramento River watershed or the vegetation and wildlife resources that depend on them,” (p. 3.8-92). This is a conclusory

statement without supporting material to justify it, only modeling that has been demonstrated in our comments as extremely deficient.

The EIS/EIR actually discloses there are very likely many significant impacts from the proposed project on terrestrial and aquatic habitat and species. Examples from Chapter 3.8 include:

- “The lacustrine natural communities in the Seller Service Area that would be potentially impacted by the alternatives include the following reservoirs: Shasta, Oroville, New Bullards Bar, Camp Far West, Collins, Folsom, Hell Hole, French Meadows, and McClure,” (p. 3.8-10)
- “The potential impacts of groundwater substitution on natural communities in upland areas was considered potentially significant if it resulted in a consistent, sustained depletion of water levels that were accessible to overlying communities (groundwater depth under existing conditions was 15 feet or less). A sustained depletion would be considered to have occurred if the groundwater basin did not recharge from one year to the next,” (p. 3.8-33).
- “In addition to changing groundwater levels, groundwater substitution transfers could affect stream flows. As groundwater storage refills during and after a transfer, it could result in reduced availability of surface water in nearby streams and wetlands,” (p. 3.8-33).

It should also be noted that the 2008 U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) and 2009 National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) biological opinions did not evaluate potential impacts to in-stream flow due to water transfers involving groundwater substitution. How these potential impacts may adversely affect biological resources in the areas where groundwater pumping will occur, including listed species and their habitat, were also not included. To reach the conclusion that the Project “would not be cumulatively considerable with the other projects” based only on modeling fails to provide the public with meaningful analysis of probable impacts.

ii. The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program has potential adverse impacts for the giant garter snake, a threatened species.

As the Lead and Approving Agencies are well aware, the purpose of the ESA is to conserve the ecosystems on which endangered and threatened species depend and to conserve and recover those species so that they no longer require the protections of the Act. 16 U.S.C. § 1531(b), ESA § 2(b); 16 U.S.C. § 1532(3), ESA §3(3) (defining “conservation” as “the use of all methods and procedures which are necessary to bring any endangered species or threatened species to the point at which the measures provided pursuant to this chapter are no longer necessary”). “The ESA was enacted not merely to forestall the extinction of species (i.e., promote species

43 California Department of Fish and Game. 2013. COMMENTS ON THE DRAFT ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT (2013 DRAFT EA) AND FINDING OF NO SIGNIFICANT IMPACT (FONSI) FOR THE 2013 CENTRAL VALLEY PROJECT (CVP) WATER, p.4. (Exhibit FF)
survival), but to allow a species to recover to the point where it may be delisted.” *Gifford Pinchot Task Force v. U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service*, 378 F3d 1059, 1069 (9th Cir. 2004). To ensure that the statutory purpose will be carried out, the ESA imposes both substantive and procedural requirements on all federal agencies to carry out programs for the conservation of listed species and to insure that their actions are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of any listed species or result in the destruction or adverse modification of critical habitat. 16 U.S.C. § 1536. *See NRDC v. Houston*, 146 F.3d 1118, 1127 (9th Cir. 1998) (action agencies have an “affirmative duty” to ensure that their actions do not jeopardize listed species and “independent obligations” to ensure that proposed actions are not likely to adversely affect listed species). To accomplish this goal, agencies must consult with the Fish and Wildlife Service whenever their actions “may affect” a listed species. 16 U.S.C. § 1536(a)(2); 50 C.F.R. § 402.14(a). Section 7 consultation is required for “any action [that] may affect listed species or critical habitat.” 50 C.F.R. § 402.14. Agency “action” is defined in the ESA’s implementing regulations to “mean all activities or programs of any kind authorized, funded, or carried out, in whole or in part, by Federal agencies in the United States.” 50 C.F.R. § 402.02.

The giant garter snake (“GGS”) is an endemic species to Central Valley California wetlands. (Draft Recovery Plan for the Giant Garter Snake (“DRP”) 1). The giant garter snake, as its name suggests, is the largest of all garter snake species, not to mention one of North America’s largest native snakes, reaching a length of up to 64 inches. Female GGS tend to be larger than males. GGS vary in color, especially depending on the region, from brown to olive, with white, yellow, or orange stripes. The GGS can be distinguished from the common garter snake by its lack of red markings and its larger size. GGS feed primarily on aquatic fish and specialize in ambushing small fish underwater, making aquatic habitat essential to their survival. Females give birth to live young from late July to early September, and brood size can vary from 10 to up to 46 young. Some studies have suggested that the GGS is sensitive to habitat change in that it prefers areas that are familiar and will not typically travel far distances.

If fallowing (idling) occurs, there will be potentially significant impacts to GGS and this is acknowledged on page 3.8-69: “Giant garter snakes have the potential to be affected by the Proposed Action through cropland idling/shifting and the effects of groundwater substitution on small streams and associated wetlands.” The Lead Agencies use language found in a 1997 Programmatic Biological Opinion (as well as the 1999 Draft Recovery Plan) to explain that GGS depend on more than rice fields in the Sacramento Valley. “The giant garter snake inhabits marshes, sloughs, ponds, small lakes, low gradient streams, other waterways and agricultural wetlands such as irrigation and drainage canals and rice fields, and the adjacent uplands. Essential habitat components consist of (1) adequate water during the snake’s active period, (early spring through mid-fall) to provide a prey base and cover; (2) emergent, herbaceous wetland vegetation, such as cattails and bulrushes, for escape cover and foraging habitat; (3)
upland habitat for basking, cover, and retreat sites; and (4) higher elevation uplands for cover and refuge from flood waters."  

Even with the explanation above, that clearly illustrates the importance of upland habitat to GGS, the EIS/EIR concludes that idling or shifting upland crops “[a]re not anticipated to affect giant garter snakes, as they do not provide suitable habitat for this species” (p. 3.8-69). The EIS/EIR is internally contradictory and fails to provide any evidence to support its conclusion that GGS will not be impacted by idling or shifting crops in upland areas. In support of the importance of upland acreage to GGS, a Biological Opinion for Gray Lodge found that, “Giant garter snakes also use burrows as refuge from extreme heat during their active period. The Biological Resources Division (BRD) of the USGS (Wylie et al. 1997) has documented giant garter snakes using burrows in the summer as much as 165 feet (50. meters) away from the marsh edge. Overwintering snakes have been documented using burrows as far as 820 feet (250 meters) from the edge of marsh habitat,” (1998).

More pertinent background information that is lacking in the EIS/EIR is found in the Bureau’s Biological Assessment for the 2009 DWB that disclosed that one GGS study in Colusa County revealed the “longest average movement distances of 0.62 miles, with the longest being 1.7 miles, for sixteen snakes in 2006, and an average of 0.32 miles, with the longest being 0.6 miles for eight snakes in 2007.” (BA at p.16) However, in response to droughts and other changes in water availability, the GGS has been known to travel up to 5 miles in only a few days, and the EIS/EIR should evaluate impacts to GGS survival and reproduction under such extreme conditions.

As the EIS/EIR divulges, flooded rice fields, irrigation canals, streams, and wetlands in the Sacramento Valley can be used by the giant garter snake for foraging, cover and dispersal purposes. The Bureau’s 2009 and 2014 Biological Assessments acknowledge the failure of the Bureau and DWR to complete the Conservation Strategy that was a requirement of the 2004 Biological Opinion (BA at p. 19-20). Research was finally initiated “since 2009,” but is nowhere near the projected 10-year completion date. The unnecessary delay hasn’t daunted the agencies pursuit of transfers that affect GGS despite the absence of the following information that the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service has explicitly required since the 1990s:

- GGS distribution and abundance.
- Ten years of baseline surveys in the Sacramento Valley
- Five years of rice land idling surveys in the Sacramento Valley Recovery Unit and the Mid-Valley Recovery Unit.

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44 Programmatic Consultation with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
404 Permitted Projects with Relatively Small Effects on the Giant Garter Snake within Butte, Colusa, Glenn, Fresno, Merced, Sacramento, San Joaquin, Solano, Stanislaus, Sutter and Yolo Counties, California
This Project and all North-to-South and North-to-North transfers should be delayed until the Bureau and DWR have completed the Conservation Strategy they have known about for at least a decade and a half.

The Bureau and DWR continue to allow an increase in acres fallowed (2013 *Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals* (“DTIPWTP”)) since the 2010/2011 *Water Transfer Program* first proposed to delete or modify other mitigation measures previously adopted as a result of the Environmental Water Account (“EWA”) EIR process. The EWA substantially reduced significant impacts for GGS, but without showing that they are infeasible, the Bureau and DWR proposed to delete the 160 acre maximum for “idled block sizes” for rice fields left fallow rather than flooded and to substitute for it a 320 acre maximum. (See 2003 Draft EWA EIS/EIR, p. 10-55; 2004 Final EWA EIS/EIR, Appendix B, p. 18, Conservation Measure # 4.) There was no evidence in 2010 to support this change nor has there been any provided to the present time. In light of the agencies failure to complete the required Conservation Strategy mentioned above and the data gathered in the Colusa County study, how can the EIS/EIR suggest (although it is not presented in the document, but in the agencies *Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals* papers) that doubling the fallowing acreage is in any way biologically defensible? The Lead and Approving Agencies additionally propose to delete the EWA mitigation measure excluding Yolo County east of Highway 113 from the areas where rice fields may be left fallow rather than flooded, except in three specific areas. 46 (See 2004 Final EWA EIS/EIR, Appendix B, p. 18, Conservation Measure # 2.) What is the biological justification for this change and where is it documented? What are the impacts from this change?

Deleting these mitigation measures required by the EWA approval would violate NEPA and CEQA’s requirements that govern whether, when, and how agencies may eliminate mitigation measures previously adopted under NEPA and CEQA.

Additionally, the 2010/2011 *Water Transfer Program* failed to include sufficient safeguards to protect the giant garter snake and its habitat. The EA for that two-year project concluded, “The frequency and magnitude of rice land idling would likely increase through implementation of water transfer programs in the future. Increased rice idling transfers could result in chronic adverse effects to giant garter snake and their habitats and may result in long-term degradation to snake populations in the lower Sacramento Valley. In order to avoid potentially significant adverse impacts for the snake, additional surveys should be conducted prior to any alteration in water regime or landscape,” (p. 3-110). To address this significant impact the Bureau proposed relying on the 2009 Drought Water Bank (“DWB”) Biological Opinion, which was a one-year BO. Both the expired 2009 BO and the 2014 BO highlighted the Bureau and DWR’s avoidance of

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meeting federal and state laws stating, “This office has consulted with Reclamation, both informally and formally, seven times since 2000 on various forbearance agreements and proposed water transfers for which water is made available [“for delivery south of the delta” is omitted in 2014] by fallowing rice (and other crops) or substituting other crops for rice in the Sacramento Valley. Although transfers of this nature were anticipated in our biological opinion on the environmental Water Account, that program expired in 2007 and, to our knowledge, no water was ever made available to EWA from rice fallowing or rice substitution. The need to consult with such frequency on transfers involving water made available from rice fallowing or rice substitution suggests to us a need for programmatic environmental compliance documents, including a programmatic biological opinion that addresses the additive effects on giant garter snakes of repeated fallowing over time, and the long-term effects of potentially large fluctuations and reductions in the amount and distribution of rice habitat upon which giant garter snakes in the Sacramento Valley depend,” (p.1-2). And here we are in late 2014 still without that programmatic environmental compliance that is needed under the Endangered Species Act.

If the Project is or isn’t approved, we propose that the Lead and Approving Agencies commit to the following conservation recommendations from the 2014 Biological Opinion by changing the word “should” to “shall”:

1. Reclamation should [shall] assist the Service in implementing recovery actions identified in the Draft Recovery Plan for the Giant Garter Snake (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 1999) as well as the final plan if issued during the term of the proposed action.
2. Reclamation should [shall] work with the Service, Department of Water Resources, and water contractors to investigate the long-term response of giant garter snake individuals and local populations to annual fluctuations in habitat from fallowing rice fields.
3. Reclamation should [shall] support the research goals of the Giant Garter Snake Monitoring and Research Strategy for the Sacramento Valley proposed in the Project Description of this biological opinion.
4. Reclamation should [shall] work with the Service to create and restore additional stable perennial wetland habitat for giant garter snakes in the Sacramento Valley so that they are less vulnerable to market-driven fluctuations in rice production. The CVPIA (b)(1)other and CVPCP conservation grant programs would be appropriate for such work.

iii. The EIS/EIR fails to accurately describe the uppermost acreage that could impact GGS.

Page 3.8-69 claims that the Proposed Action “[c]ould idle up to a maximum of approximately 51,573 acres of rice fields,” but the Lead and Approving Agencies are well aware that past
transfers have or could have fallowed much more acreage and that 20 percent is allowed per county under the Draft Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals last written in 2013. Factual numbers for proposed water transfers that included fallowing and groundwater substitution in the last 25 years should be disclosed in a revised and re-circulated draft EIS/EIR. The companion data that should also be presented would disclose how much water was actually transferred each year by seller and delineated by acreage of land fallowed and/or groundwater pumped. This information should not only be disclosed in the EIS/EIR, but it should also be readily available on the Bureau’s web site. In addition, the EIS/EIR should cease equivocating with usage of “could” and “approximately” and select and analyze a firm maximum acreage of idled land, which would provide the public with the ability to consider the impacts from a most significant impact scenario.

“In 1992, Congress passed the Central Valley Project Improvement Act (Act, or CVPIA), which amended previous authorizations of the California Central Valley Project (CVP) to include fish and wildlife protection, restoration, enhancement, and mitigation as project purposes having equal priority with power generation, and irrigation and domestic water uses.”

47 The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program fails to take seriously the equal priority for, “[f]ish and wildlife protection, restoration, enhancement, and mitigation.”

i. Economics.

Our comments are based largely upon the EcoNorthwest report produced for AquAlliance, attached and fully incorporated as though stated in their entirety, herein. Once again, the lack of relevant baseline information and discrete project description thwarts any ability to effectively analyze the project, and the lack of any market analysis of water prices, and prices for agricultural commodities, relegates the EIS/EIR to unsupported conclusions about the likely future frequency and amounts of water transfers and their environmental and economic consequences. The EIS/EIR further relies on obsolete data for certain key variables and ignores other relevant data and information. For example, the analysis assumes a price for water that bears no resemblance to the current reality. Growers and water sellers and buyers react to changing prices and market conditions, but the EIS/EIR is silent on these forces and how they would influence water transfers.

The EIS/EIR underestimates negative impacts on the regional economy in the sellers’ area, acknowledging that negative economic impacts would be worse if water transfers happen over consecutive years, but estimating impacts only for single-year transfers, ignoring the data on the frequency of recent consecutive-year transfers.

As discussed, below, the EIS/EIR’s inadequate evaluation and avoidance of subsidence will result in additional unaccounted-for economic costs. Injured third parties would bear the costs

of bringing to the sellers’ attention harm caused by groundwater pumping, and the ability of parties to resolve disputes with compensation is speculative. The EIS/EIR is silent on these and other ripple cost effects of subsidence.

The EIS/EIR ignores the environmental externalities and economic subsidies that water transfers support. The EIS/EIR lists Westlands Water District as one of the CVP contractors expressing interest in purchasing transfer water. The environmental externalities caused by agricultural production in Westlands WD are well documented, as are the economic subsidies that support this production. To the extent that the water transfers at issue in the EIS/EIR facilitate agricultural production in Westlands WD, they also contribute to the environmental externalities and economic subsidies of that production, but the EIS/EIR is silent on these environmental and economic consequences of the water transfers.

j. Cultural Resources.\textsuperscript{48}

The EIS/EIR fails to adequately provide evidence that water transfers, which draw down reservoir surface elevations at Central Valley Project (CVP) and State Water Project (SWP) reservoirs beyond historically low levels, could not potentially adversely affect cultural resources. The EIS/EIR states that the potential of adverse impacts to cultural resources does exist:

3.13.2.4 Alternative 2: Full Range of Transfers (Proposed Action)
Transfers that draw down reservoir surface elevations at CVP and SWP reservoirs beyond historically low levels could affect cultural resources. The Proposed Action would affect reservoir elevation in CVP and SWP reservoirs and reservoirs participating in stored reservoir water transfers. Water transfers have the potential to affect cultural resources, if transfers result in changing operations beyond the No Action/No Project Alternative. Reservoir surface water elevation changes could expose previously inundated cultural resources to vandalism and/or increased wave action and erosion (p. 3.13-15).

This passage states that the Long Range Water Transfers undertaking may have the potential to affect cultural resources if the water transfers lowered reservoir elevations enough to expose cultural resources. The first step for analysing this would require conducting research for past studies and reports with site specific data for the CVP and SWP reservoirs. The EIS/EIR states:

3.13.1.3 Existing Conditions
This section describes existing conditions for cultural resources within the area of analysis. \textit{All data regarding existing conditions were collected through an examination of archival and current literature pertinent to the area of analysis.} Because action

\textsuperscript{48} Comments in this section are based on the work of Bill Helmer, prepared for AquAlliance on the 2014 Long-Term Water Transfers EIS/EIR
alternatives associated with the project do not involve physical construction-related impacts to cultural resources, no project specific cultural resource studies were conducted in preparation of this Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report (EIS/EIR) (EIS/EIR, p. 3.13-13, emphasis added).

However, there are no references listed for all the data collected which were "pertinent to the area of analysis." Also, the EIS/EIR states on p. 3.13-15 cited above that the lowering of the reservoir water elevations due to water transfers may affect cultural resources. Obviously, such an impact does not need to "[i]nvolve physical construction-related impacts to cultural resources," so this rationale for not conducting specific cultural resource studies contradicts its own assertion.

Instead of conducting a cultural resources study which locates historic resources and traditional cultural properties (with the use of a contemporary Native American ethnological study), and then assesses the amount of project-related water elevation changes which may affect these resources, the EIS/EIR merely stated that their Transfer Operations Model was used to show that the project’s "Impacts to cultural resources at Shasta, Oroville and Folsom reservoirs would be less than significant," (3.13-15, 3.13-16). A chart on page 13.3-15 shows that the proposed project is projected to decrease reservoir elevations at the "critical" level in September by 0.5 ft. at Shasta Reservoir, 2.4 ft. at Lake Oroville, and 1.5 ft. at Folsom Reservoir. (There is no source for this chart, and the reader has to guess that it may be from the Transfer Operations Model. The definitions of the various categories in the chart are also unexplained).

Based upon the findings shown on the chart, it is stated:

The reservoir surface elevation changes under the Proposed Action for these reservoirs would be within the normal operations and would not be expected to expose previously inundated cultural resources to vandalism or increased wave action and wind erosion. Impacts to cultural resources at Shasta, Oroville and Folsom reservoirs would be less than significant (p. 3.13-15).

However, there is no evidence to show that a project-related reservoir drop of 2.4 ft. at Lake Oroville will not uncover cultural resources documented in *The Archaeological and Historical Site Inventory at Lake Oroville, Butte County*, and expose them "to vandalism or increased wave action and wind erosion," thus adversely affecting these resources. This study states that there are 223 archaeological and/or historic sites recorded in the water level fluctuation zone of Lake Oroville (p. 12). Where is the Cultural Study which shows that lowering Lake Oroville 2.4 ft. due to water transfers will not expose specific archaeological sites or traditional cultural properties?

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49 Prepared for the California Department of Water Resources by the Archaeological Research Center, Sacramento, and the Anthropological Studies Center, Rohnert Park, 2004. (Exhibit HH)
Without an inventory of the cultural resources which may be uncovered by the project-related drop in reservoir elevation for all the affected reservoirs, the numbers in the chart on page 13.3-15 mean nothing. The numbers in the chart provide no evidence that the project may or may not have an adverse effect on cultural resources. In contrast, substantial documentation of cultural resources in these areas exists. The threat of potential project-related impacts to cultural resources triggers a Section 106 analysis of the project under the requirements of the National Historic Preservation Act, which "[r]equires Federal agencies to take into account the effects of their undertakings on historic properties" [36 CFR 800.1(a)].

Although the issue here is the raising of the Shasta Reservoir water levels, cultural impacts related to water levels at the Shasta Reservoir has been an ongoing issue for the Winnemem Wintu Tribe. The Winnemem Wintu Tribe and all tribes within the project area (Area of Potential Effects) need to be consulted by federal and state agencies. A project-specific cultural study under CEQA is also required under 15064.5. Determining the Significance of Impacts to Archaeological and Historical Resources. Consultation with federally recognized tribes and California Native American tribes is required for this project.

k. Air Quality.

The EIS/EIR fails to analyze the air quality impacts in all these regions, especially with regard to the Buyers Service Area. Moreover, Appendix F – Air Quality Emissions Calculations exclude portions of the Sellers Service Area in Placer and Merced Counties. Conversely, there was not data supplied in Appendix F concerning the air quality impacts from the water transfers that would affect the Bay Area AQMD counties (Alameda, Contra Costa, Santa Clara), a Monterey Bay Unified APCD county (San Benito) and San Joaquin APCD counties (San Joaquin, Stanislaus, Merced, Fresno and Kings). Consequently, air quality impacts in the Buyers and Sellers Service Areas are unanalyzed and the EIS/EIR conclusions are not supported by evidence.

The EIS/EIR attempts to classify which engines would be subject to the ATCM based on whether an agricultural engine is in an air district designated in attainment for particulate matter and ozone, and is more than a half mile away from any residential area, school or hospital (aka

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50 Folsom Reservoir: [http://online.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424052702304419104579322631095468744](http://online.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424052702304419104579322631095468744)  
sensitive receptors). (See p. 3.5-14). The EIS/EIR claims that the engines in Colusa, Glenn, Shasta and Tehama (part of Sellers Service Area) are exempt from the ATCM. However, 17 CCCR 93115.3 exempts in-use stationary diesel agricultural emissions not only based on the engines being remote, but also “provided owners or operators of such engines comply with the registration requirements of section 93115.8, subdivisions (c) and (d), and the applicable recordkeeping and reporting requirement of section 93115.10,” which the EIS/EIR ignores. Furthermore, the EIS/EIR fails to present any data about the “tier” the subject agricultural diesel engines fall into. While the EIS/EIR identifies the tiers and concomitant requirements for replacement or repowering, it fails to provide any analysis or evidence evaluating whether the engines being used to pump water are operating within the permissible timeframes, depending on the tier designation.

The EIS/EIR analyzes the assessment methods based on existing emissions models from the regulation, diesel emissions factors from USEPA Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors (for Natural gas fired reciprocating engines and gasoline/diesel industrial engines) and CARB Emission Inventory Documentation (for land preparation, harvest operations and windblown dust); and CARB size fractions for particulate matter. None of these references is directly on point to diesel powered water pumps and the emissions caused thereby. Moreover, the EIS/EIR provides absolutely no information as to why these models are appropriate to serve as the basis for thresholds of significance.

The analysis provided in the EIS/EIR is less than complete. Here the “Significance Criteria” were only established and considered for the “sellers in the area of analysis where potential air quality impacts from groundwater substitution and crop idling transfers could occur.” (See p. 3.5-25) But that is only half the equation. The unconsidered air quality impacts include what and how increased crop production and vehicle usage would affect the air quality in the Buyers Service Area. Data and evidence of those impacts were not even considered.

In establishing the significance criteria, the EIS/EIR utilized known thresholds of significance from the air districts in the Sellers Service Area that had published them. For the other districts in the Sellers Service Area, the EIS/EIR made the assumption that “[t]he threshold used to define a ‘major source’ in the [Clean Air Act] CAA (100 tons per year [tpy])” could be “used to evaluate significance.” (See p. 3.5-26). There are several flaws with this over broad application of the “major source” threshold. First, agricultural pumps and associated agricultural activity are not typically considered “major sources,” especially when compared to major industrial sources. Second, the application of the major source threshold runs counter to the legal requirement that “[u]pwind APCDs are required to establish and implement emission control programs commensurate with the extent of pollutant transport to downwind districts,” as announced as a requirement of the California Clean Air Act. (See p. 3.5-11). Finally, the 100 tpy threshold is wildly disproportionate to the limits set in nearby or adjoining air district and covering the same air basin. For example, the Butte AQMD considers significance thresholds for
NOx, ROGs/VOCs and PM10 to be 137lbs/day (25 tpy); Feather River AQMD considers significance thresholds for NOx and VOCs to be 25lbs/day (4.5 tpy) and 80 lbs/day (14.6 tpy) for PM10; Tehama APCD considers significance thresholds for NOx, ROGs/VOCs and PM10 to be 137 lbs/day (25 tpy); Shasta AQMD considers significance thresholds for NOx, ROGs/VOCs and PM10 on two levels – Level “B” is 137 lbs/day (25 tpy) and Level “A” is 25lbs/day (4.5 tpy) and 80 lbs/day (14.6 tpy) for PM10; and Yolo AQMD considers significance thresholds for ROGs/VOCs and NOx to be 54.8 lbs/day (10 tpy) and 80 lbs/day (14.6 tpy) for PM10. Clearly, there is a proportional relationship between these thresholds of significance. In contrast, the EIS/EIR, with substantial evidence to the contrary, assumes that the threshold of significance for those air districts who have not published a CEQA Handbook should be 100 tpy, or an increase by magnitudes of 4 to 20 times more than similarly situated Central Valley air districts.

“When considering a project’s impact on air quality, a lead agency should provide substantial evidence that supports its conclusion in an explicit, quantitative analysis whenever possible.” (See Guide to Air Quality Assessment in Sacramento County, Sacramento Metropolitan Air Quality Management District, 2009, Ch. 2, p. 2-6). Importantly, the EIS/EIR provides no basis, other than an assumption, as to why the major source threshold of significance from the CAA should be used or is appropriate for assessing the significance of the project impacts under CEQA or NEPA. The use of the CAA’s threshold of significance for major sources is erroneous as a matter of law. (See *Endangered Habitats League v. County of Orange* (2005) 131 Cal.App.4th 777, 793 (“The use of an erroneous legal standard [for the threshold of significance in an EIR] is a failure to proceed in the manner required by law that requires reversal.”)) Lead agencies must conduct their own fact-based analysis of the project impacts, regardless of whether the project complies with other regulatory standards. Here, the EIR/EIS uses the CAA threshold without any factual analysis on its own, in violation of CEQA. (*Protect the Historic Amador Waterways v. Amador Water Agency* (2004) 116 Cal.App.4th 1099, 1109; citing *CBE v. California Resources Agency* (2002) 103 Cal.App.4th 98, 114; accord *Mejia v. City of Los Angeles* (2005 130 Cal.App.4th 322, 342 [“A threshold of significance is not conclusive . . . and does not relieve a public agency of the duty to consider the evidence under the fair argument standard.”]).) This uncritical application of the CAA’s major source threshold of significance, especially in light of the similarly situated air district lower standards, represents a failure in the exercise of independent judgment in preparing the EIS/EIR.

VI. **The EIS/EIR Fails to Adequately Analyze Numerous Cumulative Impacts.**

The Ninth Circuit Court makes clear that NEPA mandates “a useful analysis of the cumulative impacts of past, present and future projects.” *Muckleshoot Indian Tribe v. U.S. Forest Service*, 177 F.3d 800, 810 (9th Cir. 1999). “Detail is required in describing the cumulative effects of a proposed action with other proposed actions.” *Id.* CEQA further states that assessment of the
project’s incremental effects must be “viewed in connection with the effects of past projects, the effects of other current projects, and the effects of probable future projects.” (CEQA Guidelines § 15065(a)(3).) “[A] cumulative impact consists of an impact which is created as a result of the combination of the project evaluated in the EIR together with other projects causing related impacts.” (CEQA Guidelines § 15065(a)(3).

An EIR must discuss significant cumulative impacts. CEQA Guidelines §15130(a). Cumulative impacts are defined as two or more individual effects which, when considered together, are considerable or which compound or increase other environmental impacts. CEQA Guidelines § 15355(a). “[I]ndividual effects may be changes resulting from a single project or a number of separate projects. CEQA Guidelines § 15355(a). A legally adequate cumulative impacts analysis views a particular project over time and in conjunction with other related past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects whose impacts might compound or interrelate with those of the project at hand. Cumulative impacts can result from individually minor but collectively significant projects taking place over a period of time. CEQA Guidelines § 15355(b). The cumulative impacts concept recognizes that "[t]he full environmental impact of a proposed . . . action cannot be gauged in a vacuum." Whitman v. Board of Supervisors (1979) 88 Cal. App. 3d 397, 408 (internal quotation omitted).

In assessing the significance of a project’s impact, the Bureau must consider “[c]umulative actions, which when viewed with other proposed actions have cumulatively significant impacts and should therefore be discussed in the same impact statement.” 40 C.F.R. §1508.25(a)(2). A “cumulative impact” includes “the impact on the environment which results from the incremental impact of the action when added to other past, present and reasonably foreseeable future actions regardless of what agency (Federal or non-Federal) or person undertakes such other actions.” Id. §1508.7. The regulations warn that “[s]ignificance cannot be avoided by terming an action temporary or by breaking it down into small component parts.” Id. §1508.27(b)(7).

An environmental impact statement should also consider “[c]onnected actions.” Id. §1508.25(a)(1). Actions are connected where they “[a]re interdependent parts of a larger action and depend on the larger action for their justification.” Id. §1508.25(a)(1)(iii). Further, an environmental impact statement should consider “[s]imilar actions, which when viewed together with other reasonably foreseeable or proposed agency actions, have similarities that provide a basis for evaluating their environmental consequences together, such as common timing or geography.” Id. §1508.25(a)(3) (emphasis added).

As discussed, below, and in the expert reports submitted by Custis, EcoNorthwest, Cannon, and Mish on behalf of AquAlliance, the EIS/EIR fails to comport with these standards for cumulative impacts upon surface and groundwater supplies, vegetation, and biological resources; and, the
baseline and modeling data relied upon by the EIS/EIR that does not account for related transfer projects in the last 11 years.

a. **Recent Past Transfers.**

Because the groundwater modeling effort didn’t include the most recent 11 years record (1970-2003), it appears to have missed simulating the most recent periods of groundwater substitution transfer pumping and other groundwater impacting events, such as recent changes in groundwater elevations and groundwater storage (DWR, 2014b), and the reduced recharge due to the recent periods of drought. Without taking the hydrologic conditions during the recent 11 years into account, the results of the SACFEM2013 model simulation may not accurately depict the current conditions or predict the effects from the proposed groundwater substitution transfer pumping during the next 10 years.

f. In 2009, the Bureau approved a 1 year water transfer program under which a number of transfers were made. Regarding NEPA, the Bureau issued a FONSI based on an EA.

g. In 2010, the Bureau approved a 2 year water transfer program (for 2010 and 2011). No actual transfers were made under this approval. Regarding NEPA, the Bureau again issued a FONSI based on an EA.

h. The Bureau planned 2012 water transfers of 76,000 AF of CVP water all through groundwater substitution.  

i. In 2013, the Bureau approved a 1 year water transfer program, again issuing a FONSI based on an EA. The EA incorporated by reference the environmental analysis in the 2010-2011 EA.

j. The Bureau and SLDMWA’s 2014 Water Transfer Program proposed transferring up to 91,313 AF under current hydrologic conditions and up to 195,126 under improved conditions. This was straight forward, however, when attempting to determine how much water may come from fallowing or groundwater substitution during two different time periods, April-June and July-September, the reader was left to guess.

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51 USBR 2012. Memo to the Deputy Assistant Supervisor, Endangered Species Division, Fish and Wildlife Office, Sacramento, California regarding Section 7 Consultation.

52 The 2014 Water Transfer Program’s EA/MND was deficient in presenting accurate transfer numbers and types of transfers. The numbers in the "totals" row of Table 2-2 presumably should add up to 91,313. Instead, they add up to 110,789. The numbers in the "totals" row of Table 2-3 presumably should add up to 195,126. Instead, they add up to 249,997. Both Tables 2-2 and 2-3 have a footnote stating: “These totals cannot be added together. Agencies could make water available through groundwater substitution, cropland idling, or a combination of the two; however, they will not make the full quantity available through both methods. Table 2-1 reflects the total upper limit for each agency.”
These closely related projects impact the same resources, are not accounted for in the environmental baseline, and must be considered as cumulative impacts.

b. **Yuba Accord**

The relationship between the Lead Agencies is not found in the EIS/EIR, but is illuminated in a 2013 Environmental Assessment. “The Lower Yuba River Accord (Yuba Accord) provides supplemental dry year water supplies to state and Federal water contractors under a Water Purchase Agreement between the Yuba County Water Agency and the California Department of Water Resources (DWR). Subsequent to the execution of the Yuba Accord Water Purchase Agreement, DWR and The San Luis & Delta- Mendota Water Authority (Authority) entered into an agreement for the supply and conveyance of Yuba Accord water, to benefit nine of the Authority’s member districts (Member Districts) that are SOD [south of Delta] CVP water service contractors.”

In a Fact Sheet produced by the Bureau, it provides some numerical context and more of DWR’s involvement by stating, “Under the Lower Yuba River Accord, up to 70,000 acre-feet can be purchased by SLDMA members annually from DWR. This water must be conveyed through the federal and/or state pumping plants in coordination with Reclamation and DWR. Because of conveyance losses, the amount of Yuba Accord water delivered to SLDMA members is reduced by approximately 25 percent to approximately 52,500 acre-feet. Although Reclamation is not a signatory to the Yuba Accord, water conveyed to CVP contractors is treated as if it were Project water.”

However, the Yuba County Water Agency (“YCWA”) may transfer up to 200,000 under Corrected Order WR 2008-0014 for Long-Term Transfer and, “In any year, up to 120,000 af of the potential 200,000 af transfer total may consist of groundwater substitution. (YCWA-1, Appendix B, p. B-97.).”

Potential cumulative impacts from the Project and the YCWA Long-Term Transfer Program from 2008 - 2025 are not disclosed or analyzed in the EIS/EIR. The 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program could transfer up to 600,000 AF per year through the same period that the YCWA Long-Term Transfers are potentially sending 200,000 AF into and south of the Delta. How these two projects operate simultaneously could have a very significant impact on the environment and economy of the Feather River and Yuba River’s watersheds and counties as well as the Delta. The involvement of Browns Valley Irrigation District and Cordua Irrigation District in both long-term programs must also be considered. This must be analyzed and presented to the public in a revised draft EIS/EIR.

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55 State Water Resources Control Board, 2008. ORDER WR 2008 - 0025
Also not available in the EIS/EIR is disclosure of any issues associated with the YCWA transfers that have usually been touted as a model of success. The YCWA transfers have encountered troubling trends for over a decade that, according to the draft Environmental Water Account ("EWA") EIS/EIR, are mitigated by deepening domestic wells (2003 p. 6-81). While digging deeper wells is at least a response to an impact, it hardly serves as a proactive measure to avoid impacts. Additional information finds that it may take 3-4 years to recover from groundwater substitution in the south sub-basin\(^{56}\) although YCWA’s own analysis fails to determine how much river water is sacrificed to achieve the multi-year recharge rate. None of this is found in the EIS/EIR. What is found in the EIS/EIR is that even the inadequate SACFEM2013 modeling reveals that it could take more than six years in the Cordua ID area to recover from multi-year transfer events, although recovery is not defined (pp. 3.3-69 to 3.3-70). This is a very significant impact that isn’t addressed individually or cumulatively.

c. **BDCP**

The EIS/EIR fails to include the Bay Delta Conservation Plan ("BDCP") in the Cumulative Impacts section and in any analysis of the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program. Although we acknowledge that BDCP could not possibly be built during the 10-Year Water Transfer Program’s operation, the EIS/EIR misses the point that the 2015-2024 Water Transfer Program is a prelude to what comes later with BDCP. This connection is entirely absent. If the Twin Tunnels (the facilities identified in “Conservation Measure 1”) are built as planned with the capacity to take 15,000 cubic feet per second (“cfs”) from the Sacramento River, they will have the capacity to drain almost two-thirds of the Sacramento River’s average annual flow of 23,490 cfs at Freeport\(^{57}\) (north of the planned Twin Tunnels). As proposed, the Twin Tunnels will also increase water transfers when the infrastructure for the Project has capacity. This will occur during dry years when State Water Project (“SWP”) contractor allocations drop to 50 percent of Table A amounts or below or when Central Valley Project (“CVP”) agricultural allocations are 40 percent or below, or when both projects’ allocations are at or below these levels (EIS/EIR Chapter 5). With BDCP, North to South water transfers would be in demand and feasible.

Communication regarding assurances for BDCP indicates that the purchase of approximately 1.3 million acre-feet of water is being planned as a mechanism to move water into the Delta to make up for flows that would be removed from the Sacramento River by the BDCP tunnels.\(^{58}\) There is only one place that this water can come from: the Sacramento Valley’s watersheds. It is well know that the San Joaquin River is so depleted that it will not have any capacity to contribute meaningfully to Delta flows. Additionally, the San Joaquin River doesn’t flow past the proposed north Delta diversions and neither does the Mokelumne River.


\(^{58}\) Belin, Lety, 2013. E-mail regarding Summary of Assurances. February 25 (Department of Interior). (Exhibit LL)
As discussed above, the EIS/EIR also fails to reveal that the **2015-2024 Water Transfer Program** is part of many more programs, plans and projects to develop water transfers in the Sacramento Valley, to develop a “conjunctive” system for the region, and to place water districts in a position to integrate the groundwater into the state water supply. BDCP is one of those plans that the federal agencies, together with DWR, SLDMWA, water districts, and others have been pursuing and developing for many years.

**d. Biggs-West Gridley**

The **Biggs-West Gridley Water District Gray Lodge Wildlife Area Water Supply Project**, a Bureau project, is not mentioned anywhere in the Vegetation and Wildlife or Cumulative Impacts sections. This water supply project is located in southern Butte County where Western Canal WD, Richvale ID, Biggs-West Gridley WD, and Butte Water District actively sell water on a regular basis, yet impacts to GGS from this project are not disclosed. This is a serious omission that must be remedied in a recirculated draft EIS/EIR.

**e. Other Projects**

Court settlement discussions between the Bureau and Westlands Water District over provisions of drainage service. Case # CV-F-88-634-LJO/DBL will further strain the already over allocated Central Valley Project with the following conditions:

- **k. A permanent CVP contract for 890,000 acre-feet of water a year exempt from acreage limitations.**
- **l. Minimal land retirement consisting of 100,000 acres; the amount of land Westlands claims it has already retired (115,000 acres) will be credited to this final figure. Worse, the Obama administration has stated it will be satisfied with 100,000 acres of “permanent” land retirement.**
- **m. Forgiveness of nearly $400 million owed by Westlands to the federal government for capital repayment of Central Valley Project debt.**
- **n. Five-Year Warren Act Contracts for Conveyance of Groundwater in the Tehama-Colusa and Corning Canals – Contract Years 2013 through 2017 (March 1, 2013, through February 28, 2018).**

Additional projects with cumulative impacts upon groundwater and surface water resources affected by the proposed project:

- **a. The DWR Dry Year Purchase Agreement for Yuba County Water Agency water transfers from 2015-2025 to SLDMWA.**

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60 [SLDMWA Resolution # 2014 386](http://www.sldmwa.org/OHTDocs/pdf_documents/Meetings/Board/Prepacket/2014_1106_Board_PrePacket.pdf)
b. GCID’s Stony Creek Fan Aquifer Performance Testing Plan to install seven production wells in 2009 to extract 26,530 AF of groundwater as an experiment that was subject to litigation due to GCID’s use of CEQAs exemption for research.

c. Installation of numerous production wells by the Sellers in this Project many with the use of public funds such as Butte Water District, GCID, Anderson Cottonwood Irrigation District, and Yuba County Water Authority among others.

VII. The EIS/EIR Fails to Develop Legally Adequate Mitigation Measures.

CEQA requires that the lead agency consider and adopt feasible mitigation measures that could reduce a project’s adverse impacts to less than significant levels. Pub. Resources Code §§ 21002, 21002.1(a), 21100(b)(3), 21151, 22081(a). An adequate environmental analysis in the EIS/EIR itself is a prerequisite to evaluating proper mitigation measures: this analysis cannot be deferred to the mitigation measure itself. See, e.g., Vineyard Area Citizens for Responsible Growth v. City of Rancho Cordova (2007) 40 Cal.4th 412. Moreover, mitigation measures must A mitigation measure is inadequate if it allows significant impacts to occur before the mitigation measure takes effect. POET, LLC v. State Air Resources Board (2013) 218 Cal.App.4th 681, 740. An agency may not propose a list of measures that are “nonexclusive, undefined, untested and of unknown efficacy.” Communities for a Better Environment v. City of Richmond (2010) 184 Cal.App.4th 70, 95. Formulation of mitigation measure should generally not be deferred. CEQA Guidelines § 15126.4(a)(1)(B). If deferred, however, mitigation measure must offer precise measures, criteria, and performance standards for mitigation measures that have been evaluated as feasible in the EIR, and which can be compared to established thresholds of significance. E.g., POET, LLC v. State Air Resources Board (2013) 218 Cal.App.4th 681; Preserve Wild Santee v. City of Santee (2012) 210 Cal.App.4th 260; Sacramento Old City Association v. City Council (1991) 229 Cal.App.3d 1011; CEQA Guidelines § 15126.4(a)(1)(B); Defend the Bay v. City of Irvine (2004) 119 Cal.App.4th 1261, 1275. Economic compensation alone does not mitigate a significant environmental impact. See CEQA Guidelines § 15370; Gray v. County of Madera (2008) 167 Cal.App.4th 1099, 1122. Where the effectiveness of a mitigation measure is uncertain, the lead agency must conclude the impact will be significant. Citizens for Open Govt. v. City of Lodi (2012) 70 Cal.App.4th 296, 322; Fairview Neighbors v. County of Ventura (1999) 70

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62 “The ACID Groundwater Production Element Project includes the installation of two groundwater wells to supplement existing district surface water and groundwater supplies.”  
63 Prop 13. Ground water storage program 2000-2001: Install eight wells in the Yuba-South Basin to improve water supply reliability for in-basin needs and provide greater flexibility in the operation of the surface water management facilities. $1,500,00;
Cal.App.4th 238, 242. An EIR must not only mitigate direct effects, but also must mitigate cumulative impacts. CEQA Guidelines § 15130(b)(3).

Under NEPA, “all relevant, reasonable mitigation measures that could improve the project are to be identified,” including those outside the agency’s jurisdiction, and including those for adverse impacts determined to be less-than-significant (40 C.F.R. § 1502.16(h)).

As discussed, below, and in the expert reports submitted by Custis, EcoNorthwest, Cannon, and Mish on behalf of AquAlliance, the EIS/EIR fails to comport with these standards.

The EIS/EIR illegally defers the development of and commitment to feasible mitigation measures to reduce or avoid a whole host of potentially significant project impacts. The EIS/EIR relies on mitigation measures WS-1 and GW-1 to reduce or avoid significant project effects through the entire environmental review document, not just for surface and ground water supplies, but also for impacts to vegetation, subsidence, regional economics, . (3.7-26, 3.7-56, 3.10-37, 3.10-51.) Unfortunately, these mitigation measures fail all standards for CEQA compliance, deferring analysis of the impact in question to a future time, including no criteria or performance standards by which to evaluate success, and failing to demonstrate that the measures are feasible or sufficient.

But the precise relationship of these mitigation measures is unclear. For example, the EIS/EIR relies on GW-1 to mitigate impacts to vegetation and wildlife as a result of stream flow loss; why doesn’t the EIS/EIR consider the streamflow mitigation measure for this impact?

   a. Streamflow Depletion.

   WS-1 requires that a portion of transfer water be held back to offset streamflow depletion caused by groundwater substitution pumping, but fails to include critical information to ensure that any such mitigation measure could work. First, it is not clear that any transfer release and the groundwater substitution pumping would simultaneously occur, in real time. If groundwater pumping causes streamflow depletion at any time other than exactly when the transfer is made, then the transfer deduction amount will not avoid streamflow drawdown. And, indeed, it is well known that streamflow depletion can continue, directly and cumulatively, after the transfer activity ends. (E.g., figures B-4, B-5 and B-6 in Draft EIS/EIR Appendix B).

   Next, the EIS/EIR fails to include any meaningful information to determine whether the applicable “streamflow depletion factor” to be applied to any single transfer project will mitigate significant impacts.

   The EIS/EIR provides that “The exact percentage of the streamflow depletion factor will be assessed and determined on a regular basis by Reclamation and DWR, in consultation with buyers and sellers, based on the best technical information available at that time.” (EIS/EIR at

   64 http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/nepa/regs/40/40p3.htm
3.1-21.) More information is required. It is unclear whether WS-1 considers the cumulative volume of water pumped for each groundwater substitution transfers, or the instantaneous rate of stream depletion caused by the pumping. Any factor must be the outcome of numerous measured variables, such as the availability of water to capture, the rate and duration of recharge, the streambed sediment permeability, the duration of pumping, the distance between the well and stream, and others; but the EIS/EIR fails to provide any means of evaluating these various factors. How good must the “best technical information available at that time” be? What is the likelihood it will be available, what constraints does this face, and what requirements are in place to ensure that sufficient information is obtained? Why hasn’t this information been analyzed in the EIS/EIR? What roles do the buyers and sellers have in reaching this determination?

Moreover, the EIS/EIR fails to identify the threshold of significance below which significant impacts would not occur. WS-1 purports to avoid “legal injury,” but fails to define any threshold or criteria that will be applied in the performance of WS-1 to clearly determine when legal injury would ever occur.

b. Groundwater Overdraft.

The EIS/EIR illegally defers formulation and evaluation of mitigation measure GW-1 in much the same way as WS-1. In reliance on GW-1, the EIS/EIR goes so far as to defer the environmental impact analysis that should be provided now, as part of the EIS/EIR itself. Moreover, GW-1 fails to include clear performance standards, criteria, thresholds of significance, evaluation of feasibility, analysis of likelihood of success, and even facially permits significant impacts to occur. And importantly, GW-1 does not, in fact, reduce potentially significant impacts to less-than-significant levels, but rather, attempts to monitor for when significant effects occur, then purports to provide measures to slow the impact from worsening.

GW-1 begins by referencing the DRAFT Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals (“DTIPWTP”) (Reclamation and DWR 2013) and Addendum (Reclamation and DWR 2014). First, it is worth noting that this document is in DRAFT form, as have all such previous iterations of the Technical Information for Preparing Water Transfer Proposals, leaving any guidance for a final mitigation measure uncertain. Second, the DTIPWTP itself requires a project-specific evaluation of then-existing groundwater and surface water conditions to determine potentially significant impacts to water supplies; but this is exactly the type of impact analysis that must occur now in the self-described project EIS/EIR before any consideration of mitigation measures is possible. Even still, the exact scope of future environmental review is unclear as well. “Potential sellers will be required to submit well data,” but the EIS/EIR does not explain what data or why. (EIS/EIR at 3.3-88.)

GW-1 next requires potential sellers “to complete and implement a monitoring program,” but a monitoring program itself cannot prevent significant impacts from occurring. “The monitoring
program will incorporate a sufficient number of monitoring wells to accurately characterize groundwater levels and response in the area before, during, and after transfer pumping takes place.’ (EIS/EIR 3.3-88.) Again, this should be done now, for public review, to determine the significance of project impacts before the project is approved. Moreover, the EIS/EIR fails to provide any guidance on what constitutes “a sufficient number of monitoring wells.” GW-1 then requires monitoring data no less than on a monthly basis, but common sense suggests that significant groundwater pumping could occur in less than a month’s time. GW-1 requires that “Groundwater level monitoring will include measurements before, during and after transfer-related pumping,” but monitoring after transfer-related pumping can only show whether significant impacts have occurred; it cannot prevent them. Yet this is exactly what the EIS/EIR proposes: “The purpose of Mitigation Measure GW-1 is to monitor groundwater levels during transfers to avoid potential effects. If any effects occur despite the monitoring efforts, the mitigation plan will describe how to address those effects.” (EIS/EIR 3.3-91.) Hence, GW-1 only requires elements of the mitigation plan to kick in after monitoring shows significant impacts, which are extremely likely to occur given the fact that monitoring alone amounts to no mitigation or avoidance measure.

Even still, the proposed mitigation plans don’t mitigate significant impacts. The mitigation plan includes the following requirements: “Curtailment of pumping until natural recharge corrects the issue.” This, of course, could take years and is acknowledged in the EIS/EIR (p. 3.1-17 and 18), and really amounts to no mitigation of the significant impact at all. “Reimbursement for significant increases in pumping costs due to the additional groundwater pumping to support the transfer.” In what amount, at what time, as decided by who? Monetary compensation is not always sufficient to cover damages to business operations. “Curtailment of pumping until water levels raise above historic lows if non-reversible subsidence is detected (based on local data to identify elastic versus inelastic subsidence).” It does not follow that any water level above the historic lows avoids or offsets damage from non-reversible subsidence. -only admits that irreversible subsidence may occur. Finally, “[o]ther actions as appropriate” is so vague as to be meaningless. (EIS/EIR 3.3-90.)

The wholesale deferral of these mitigation measures is particularly confusing since the lead agencies should already have monitoring and mitigation plans and evaluation reports based on the requirements of the DTIPWTP for past groundwater substitution transfers, which likely were undertaken by some of the same sellers as the proposed 10-year transfer project. The Draft EIS/EIR should provide these existing Bureau approved monitoring programs and mitigation plans as examples of what level of technical specificity is required to meet the objectives of GW-1.

The DTIPWRP doesn’t add any additional monitoring or mitigation requirements for subsidence, stating that areas that are susceptible to land subsidence may require land surface elevation surveys, and that the Project Agencies will work with the water transfer proponent to develop a mutually agreed upon subsidence monitoring program. The monitoring locations in “strategic” locations are similarly deferred with no guiding criteria.
Lastly, groundwater quality monitoring only appears to be required after a transfer has begun, which again is too late to prevent any significant impact from occurring. (EIS/EIR 3.3-89.)

Mitigation measure GW-1 calls for stopping pumping after significant impacts are detected and then waiting for natural recovery of the water table. This might not be in time for groundwater dependent farms or riparian trees (cottonwoods & willows) to recover from the impact or could greatly extend the time to recovery. In the meantime, riparian-dependent wildlife including Swainson’s hawks would be without nesting habitat, migration corridors, and foraging areas. The mitigation measure should require active restoration of important habitat such as riparian and wetland, not natural recovery. Recovery to an arbitrary water level is not necessarily the same as recovery of wildlife habitat and populations of sensitive species.

The water level monitoring in the mitigation measure should give explicit quantitative criteria for significant impact. Stating that a reduction in flow or GW level is “within natural variation” and therefore not significant is deceptive. The natural variation includes extreme cases and the project should not be allowed to add an additional increment to an already extreme condition. The extremes are supposed to be rare, not long-term and chronic. For example, Little Chico Creek may be essentially dry at times but it is not totally dry and that may be all that allows plants and animals to persist until wetter conditions return. If everything dies because the creek becomes totally dry due to the project, then it may never recover.

VIII. The EIS/EIR Fails to Analyze a Reasonable Range of Alternatives.

The EIS/EIR is required to evaluate and implement feasible project alternatives that would lessen or avoid the project’s potentially significant impacts. Pub. Resources Code §§ 21002, 21002.1(a), 21100(b)(4), 21150; Citizens of Goleta Valley v. Board of Supervisors (1990) 52 Cal.3d 553, 564. This is true even if the EIS/EIR purports to reduce or avoid any or all environmental impacts to less than significant levels. Laurel Heights Improvement Assn. v. Regents of Univ. of Cal. (1988) 47 Cal.3d 376. Alternatives that lessen the project’s environmental impacts must be considered even if they do not meet all project objectives. CEQA Guidelines § 15126.6(a)-(b); Habitat & Watershed Caretakers v City of Santa Cruz (2013) 213 Cal.App.4th 1277, 1302; Center for Biological Diversity v. County of San Bernardino (2010) 185 Cal.App.4th 866. Further, the EIS/EIR must contain an accurate no-project alternative against which to consider the project’s impacts. CEQA Guidelines § 15126.6(e)(1); Mira Mar Mobile Community v. City of Oceanside (2004) 119 Cal.App.4th 477.

Under NEPA, the alternatives analysis constitutes “the heart of the environmental impact statement” (40 C.F.R. § 1502.14). The agency must “rigorously explore and objectively evaluate all reasonable alternatives” (40 C.F.R. § 1502.14(a), 40 C.F.R. § 1502.14(b)), and to identify the preferred alternative (40 C.F.R. § 1502.14(e)). The agency must consider the no action
alternative, other reasonable courses of action, and mitigation measures that are not an element of the proposed action (40 C.F.R. § 1508.25(b)(1)-(3)).

a. No Environmentally Superior Alternative is Identified.

The EIS/EIR fails to follow the law and significantly misleads the public and agency decision-makers in declaring that none of the proposed alternatives are environmentally superior. (EIS/EIR 2-39.) First, neither CEQA nor NEPA provide the lead agencies with discretion to sidestep this determination. As the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) has explained, “[t]hrough the identification of the environmentally preferable alternative, the decision maker is clearly faced with a choice between that alternative and the others, and must consider whether the decision accords with the Congressionally declared polices of the Act.” 65 CEQA provides that “[i]f the environmentally superior alternative is the “no project” alternative, the EIR shall also identify an environmentally superior alternative among the other alternatives.” (CEQA Guidelines § 15126.6(e)(2).)

First, the EIS/EIR fails to identify whether the “no project” alternative is environmentally superior to each other alternative. If that is the case, the EIS/EIR must then identify the next most environmentally protective or beneficial alternative. Here, the EIS/EIR presents evidence that Alternative 3 and Alternative 4 each would lessen the environmental impacts of the proposed project. The EIS/EIR however then shirks its responsibility to identify the environmentally superior alternative by casting the benefits of Alternatives 3 and 4 as mere “trade-offs.” This gross mischaracterization misleads the public and agency decision-makers, as the only “trade-off” between the proposed alternative and Alternatives 3 or 4 would be more or less adverse environmental effect.

The EIS/EIR argument that its conclusion that no project impacts are significant and unavoidable misses the point. Just as an EIS/EIR may not simply omit any alternatives analysis when there is purported to be no significant and unavoidable impact, neither can the agencies decline to identify the environmentally superior alternative. In fact, the proposed project would cause numerous significant and adverse environmental effects, and the EIS/EIR relies on wholly deferred and inadequate mitigation measures to lessen those effects, even allowing some level of significant impacts to occur before kicking in. But mitigation measures alone are not the only way to lessen or avoid significant project effects: the alternatives analysis performs the same function, and should be considered irrespective of the mitigation measures proposed.

b. Feasible Alternatives to Lessen Project Impacts are Excluded.

In light of the oversubscribed water rights system of allocation in California, changing climate conditions, and severely imperiled ecological conditions throughout the Delta, the EIS/EIR

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should consider additional project alternatives to lessen the strain on water resources. Alternatives not considered in the EIS/EIR that promote improved water usage and conservation include:

**Fallowing in the area of demand.** The EIS/EIR proposes fallowing in the area of origin to supply water for the transfers yet fails to present the obvious alternative that would fallow land south of the Delta that holds junior, not senior, water rights. This would qualify as an, “immediately implementable and flexible” alternative that is part of the Purpose and Need section (p.1-2). Whether or not this is a preference for the buyers, this is a pragmatic alternative that should be fully explored in a recirculated EIS/EIR.

**Crop shifting in the area of demand.** The EIS/EIR proposes crop shifting in the area of origin to supply water for the transfers yet fails to present the obvious alternative that would shift crops south of the Delta for land that holds junior, not senior, water rights. Hardening demand by planting perennial crops (or houses) must be viewed as a business decision with its inherent risks, not a reason to dewater already stressed hydrologic systems in the Sacramento Valley. This would qualify as an, “immediately implementable and flexible” alternative that is part of the Purpose and Need section (p.1-2). Whether or not this is a preference for the buyers, this is a pragmatic alternative that should be fully explored in a recirculated EIS/EIR.

**Mandatory conservation in urban areas.** In the third year of a drought, an example of urban areas failing to require serious conservation is EBMUD’s flyer from October’s bills that reflects the weak mandates from the SWRCB.

- Limit watering of outdoor landscapes to two times per week maximum and prevent excess runoff.
- Use only hoses with shutoff nozzles to wash vehicles.
- Use a broom or air blower, not water, to clean hard surfaces such as driveways and sidewalks, except as needed for health and safety purposes.
- Turn off any fountain or decorative water feature unless the water is recirculated.

While it is laudable that EBMUD customers have cut water use by 20 percent over the last decade, before additional water is ever transferred from the Sacramento River watershed to urban areas, mandatory usage cuts must be enacted during statewide droughts. This would qualify as an, “immediately implementable and flexible” alternative that is part of the Purpose and Need section (p.1-2). This alternative should be fully vetted in a recirculated EIS/EIR.

**Land retirement in the area of demand.** Compounding the insanity of growing perennial crops in a desert is the resulting excess contamination of 1 million acres of irrigated land in the San Joaquin Valley and the Tulare Lake Basin that are tainted with salts and trace metals like selenium, boron, arsenic, and mercury. This water drains back—after leaching from these soils

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the salts and trace metals—into sloughs and wetlands and the San Joaquin River, carrying along these pollutants. Retirement of these lands from irrigation usage would stop wasteful use of precious fresh water resources and help stem further bioaccumulation of these toxins that have settled in the sediments of these water bodies. The Lead and Approving Agencies have known about this massive pollution of soil and water in the area of demand for over three decades. Accelerating land retirement could diminish south of Delta exports and provide water for non-polluting buyers. Whether or not this is a preference for all of the buyers, this is a pragmatic alternative that should be fully explored in a recirculated EIS/EIR.

**Adherence to California’s water rights.** As mentioned above, the claims to water in the Central Valley far exceed hydrologic reality by more than five times. Unless senior water rights holders wish to abandon or sell their rights, junior claimants must live within the hydrologic systems of their watersheds. This would qualify as an, “immediately implementable and flexible” alternative that is part of the Purpose and Need section (p.1-2). Whether or not this is a preference for the buyers, this is a pragmatic alternative that should be fully explored in a recirculated EIS/EIR.

**IX. The EIS/EIR Fails to Disclose Irreversible and Irretrievable Commitment of Resources, and Significant and Unavoidable Impacts.**

Under NEPA, impacts should be addressed in proportion to their significance (40 C.F.R. § 1502.2(b)), and all irreversible or irretrievable commitment of resources must be identified (40 C.F.R. § 1502.16). And CEQA requires disclosure of any significant impact that will not be avoided by required mitigation measures or alternatives. CEQA Guidelines § 15093. Here, the EIS/EIR does neither, relegating significant impacts to groundwater depletion, land subsidence, and hardened demand for California’s already-oversubscribed water resources, to future study pursuant to inadequately described mitigation measures, if discussed at all.

a. **Groundwater Depletion.**

As discussed, above, the EIS/EIR groundwater supply mitigation measures rely heavily on monitoring and analysis proposed to occur after groundwater substitution pumping has begun, perhaps for a month or more. Only after groundwater interference, injury, overdraft, or other harms (none of which are assigned a definition or significance threshold) occur, would the EIS/EIR require sellers to propose mitigation measures, which are as of yet undefined. As a result, significant and irretrievable impacts to groundwater are fully permitted by the proposed project.

b. **Subsidence.**

Here, again, the EIS/EIR suffers the same flaw of only catching and proposing to mitigate

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subsidence after it occurs. But damages caused by subsidence can be severe, permanent, and complicated. The EIS/EIR does not purport to avoid these impacts, nor possibly mitigate them to less than significant levels. Instead, the EIS/EIR provides for “Reimbursement for modifications to infrastructure that may be affected by non-reversible subsidence.” This unequivocally provides for significant and irreversible impacts to occur.

c. Transfer Water Dependency.

The EIS/EIR fails to account for long-term impacts of supporting agriculture and urban demands and growth with transfer water. Agriculture hardens demand by expansion and crop type and urban users harden demand by expansion. Both sectors may fail to pursue aggressive conservation and grapple with long-term hydrologic constraints with the delivery of more northern California river water that has been made available by groundwater mining and fallowing. Since California has high variability in precipitation year-to-year (http://cdec.water.ca.gov/cgi-progs/iodir/WSIHIST) (Exhibit Y), and how will purchased water be used and conserved? Should agricultural water users be able to buy Project water, how will DWR and the Bureau assure that transferred water for irrigation is used efficiently? Could purchased water be used for any kind of crop or landscaping, rather than clearly domestic purposes or strictly for drought-tolerant landscaping?

Without a hierarchy of priority uses among agricultural or urban users for purchasing CVP and non-CVP water, the EIS/EIR fails to ensure that California water resources will not go to waste, and will not be used to harden unsustainable demands.

X. The EIS/EIR Fails to Adequately Evaluate Growth-Inducing Impacts.

The EIS/EIR gives short shrift to the growth inducing impact analyses required under both CEQA and NEPA by absolutely failing to realize or by obfuscating the obvious: these types of Long-Term Water Transfers inherently lead to economic and population growth. Not only are the amount of water sales and types of water sales unknown to the Lead Agencies and the public, but once water is sold and transferred to the buyer agency, there are no use limitations or priority-criteria imposed on the buyer. Whether agricultural support or municipal supply, hydraulic fracturing, industrial use, or onward transfer, the potential growth inducing impacts, both economically and physically are limitless. And once agencies and communities are hooked on buying water to sustain economic conditions or to support development and population growth, while drought conditions continue or are exacerbated, unwinding the clock may prove impossible.

Growth inducing impacts are addressed in Section 15126.2(d) of the CEQA Guidelines, and the Council on Environmental Quality NEPA Sections 1502.16(b) and 1508.8(b). CEQA Section 15126.2(b) requires an analysis of a project’s influence on economic or population growth, or increased housing construction and the future developments’ associated environmental impacts. The CEQA Guidelines define growth inducing impacts as “…the ways in which the
proposed project could foster economic or population growth, or the construction of additional housing, either directly or indirectly, in the surrounding environment.” Under NEPA, indirect effects as declared in Section 1508.8(b) include reasonably foreseeable growth inducing effects from changes caused by a project.

A project may have characteristics that encourage and facilitate other activities that could significantly affect the environment, either individually or cumulatively. CEQA Guidelines section 15126.2(d) admonishes the planner not to assume that growth in any area is necessarily beneficial, detrimental, or of little significance to the environment. Included here are projects that would remove physical obstacles to growth, such as provision of new water supply achieved through Long Term Water Transfers. Removal of a barrier such as water shortages may lead to the cultivation of crops with higher-level water dependency and higher profit margins at market, or may supplement perceived and actual advantages of living in population-dense locales, leading to increased population growth.

The EIS/EIR states that direct growth-inducing impacts are typically associated with the construction of new infrastructure while projects promoting growth, like increased water supply in dry years, could have indirect growth inducing effects. Claiming that growth inducing impacts would only be considered significant if the ability to provide needed public services is hindered, or the potential for growth adversely affects the environment, the EIS/EIR then incorrectly concludes that the proposed water transfer from willing sellers to buyers, to meet existing demands, would not directly or indirectly affect growth beyond what is already planned. But the EIS/EIR does not describe “what is already planned,” nor how binding such plans would be.

Similar to the drought period in the late 1980’s and early 1990’s, urban agencies demand was approximately 40 percent of the transfer market. During that drought period, dry-year purchases were short term deals, intended to offset lower deliveries. However, this time around most of the transfer water is available to support longer-term growth, not solely to make up for shortfalls during droughts. Under current law, urban water agencies must establish long-term water supply to support new development, and long term transfers can provide this necessary evidence.68

Adding to these concerns is the increase in fracking interests throughout the state, requiring large-scale water demand to extract oil and gas, run by companies with the financial ability to influence water rights through payment. While one county directly south of the boundary involving this proposed transfer agreement recently banned fracking, other counties in

68 California Senate Bills 221 and 610, entered into law, 2001: requires agencies with over 5000 service connections and those with under 5000 service connections to demonstrate at least 20 years of available water supply respectively, for projects in excess of 500 residential units, or equivalent in combined residential and other demand (large service agencies), or for projects demanding least 10 percent growth in local water needs (small service agencies).
California are either involved in the practice of fracking, have yet to ban the practice, or have no interest in a fracking ban. Notably, the Monterey Shale Formation that stretches south through central California is in the buyer-area of the water districts served by this potential Long-Term Water Transfer Agreement. Without use limitations upon water transfers proposed within this agreement, water transferred under this plan may well be used for fracking.

The EIS/EIR inappropriately fails to evaluate or disclose these reasonably foreseeable growth-inducing impacts.

XI. Conclusion

Taken together, the Bureau, SLDMWA, and DWR treat these serious issues carelessly in the EIS/EIR, the Draft Technical Information for Water Transfers in 2013, and in DWR’s specious avoidance of CEQA review. In so doing, the Lead and Approving Agencies deprive decision makers and the public of their ability to evaluate the potential environmental effects of this Project and violate the full-disclosure purposes and methods of both the National Environmental Policy Act and the California Environmental Quality Act. For each of the foregoing reasons, we urge that the environmental review document for this project be substantially revised and recirculated for public and agency review and comment before any subject project is permitted to proceed.

Sincerely,

__________________________
Barbara Vlamis, Executive Director
AquAlliance

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Bill Jennings, Executive Director
California Sportfishing Protection Association

__________________________
Jason Flanders
Aqua Terra Aeris Law Group
Summary

The Long-Term Water Transfers Environmental Impact Statement/Environmental Impact Report Public Draft (henceforth referred to as the “EIR/EIS”) articulates an ambitious plan to transfer water within the state of California. But this ambition is not matched by a similar degree of technical merit, as the modeling components of the EIR/EIS are potentially inadequate, inaccurate, and insufficient to the task. Because of this shortcoming, the EIR/EIS fails to demonstrate that environmental impacts of these transfers will be acceptably small. In particular, the groundwater substitution components of the proposed water transfers are based on modeling assumptions that likely limit their practical accuracy, and on computational simulation techniques that cannot be trusted for their intended use without additional work.

The EIR/EIS as written fails to make a technically-persuasive case for these water transfers, and therefore the proposed transfers should be rejected until the various water transfer stakeholders can advocate more effectively for these transfers by using sound scientific principles instead of mere assertions of negligible impact on the environment.

Critique Overview

This critique concentrates on the groundwater modeling portions of the EIR/EIS, as those portions of the EIR/EIS provide the least technical information relative to the importance of this particular part of the transfer plans. Groundwater resources are seldom seen directly, but their influence is present throughout the hydrological cycle. When the water table sinks, streams dry up and fish die. And when that phreatic surface drops below the level available to domestic water-supply wells, families lose their water supply. Groundwater mining is an all-too-common source of environmental woes, including irreversible loss of aquifer capacity and subsidence observable at the surface of the ground. So accurate groundwater modeling is an essential component of any trustworthy assessment of potential negative environmental effects.

This critique focuses on four particular aspects of the groundwater modeling efforts outlined in the EIR/EIS, namely:

- the lack of a defensible technical basis for the use of the SacFEM2013 groundwater model in assessing man-made hazards due to groundwater substitution activities,
- the inherent assumptions and potential inaccuracies present in the SacFEM2013 model, including an exposition of how better groundwater modeling techniques could have been deployed to engender more trust in the computed results,
- the lack of any formal characterization of uncertainty in the model that might be used to assess the impact of those SacFEM2013 model inaccuracies, and
- some general comments on the EIR/EIS’s all-too-often inadequate technical treatment of aquifer mechanics.

Sins of omission and commission are thus found in the EIR/EIS, and this critique will attempt to guide the reader through a discussion of each, towards the goal of more accurate and technically-defensible modeling that would be required to support the proposed water transfers.
Professional Background

My professional experience has long been concentrated in the development and deployment of large-scale computational models for engineered and natural systems. I have worked in this professional field for well over thirty years, and have published refereed journal publications on subsurface mechanics and computational simulation of geological processes, as well as texts and related educational works on computational modeling in solid and fluid mechanics. I have served as a regular faculty member on the Civil Engineering faculties of two major U.S. research universities (the University of California, Davis, and the University of Oklahoma), as well as in leading-edge technical and administrative capacities at federal national laboratories. With my academic colleagues and graduate students, I have published journal articles and technical reports on aquifer mechanics, computational geomechanics, fluid-solid interaction, high-performance computing, and on the inherent limits to accuracy of computational modeling for complex systems in the presence of inherent uncertainties. I have an earned M.S. and Ph.D. in Civil Engineering and a B.S. in Mathematics, all from the University of California, Davis. I have lived in Northern California for more than one-half of my adult life, and have long provided pro bono technical assistance on science and engineering topics of import to the quality of life for residents of California. My current work involves simulation of complex man-made and natural systems using some of the largest computers in the world, and so I am well-equipped to describe the state-of-the-art in predictive modeling for large-scale water transfers in California.

Overview of Technical Concerns

This review focuses primarily on the groundwater substitution aspects of the EIR/EIS, because those aspects are where my own expertise is deepest. The groundwater model utilized in the EIR/EIS has enough shortcomings to call into question the trustworthiness of the entire EIR/EIS, and until these shortcomings are remedied, such groundwater transfers should not be permitted. Some representative problems with the SACFEM2013 model are presented below.

Fundamental Technical Problems with the SacFEM2013 Model

In simplest terms, the EIR/EIS fails to make a compelling case for the use of the SacFEM2013 groundwater model in assessing man-made hazards due to groundwater substitution activities.

For example Appendix D of the EIR is provided to document the SacFEM2013 model, but this section of the EIR/EIS raises more questions than answers about the suitability of the model. Some of the assertions made in Appendix D are incorrect, while others are irrelevant to the purpose of the EIR/EIS. And the most fundamental problem with the information presented on the SacFEM2013 model is that Appendix D fails to provide enough technical context to justify the use of SacFEM2013. A technically-informed citizen interested in providing accurate public commentary on the EIR/EIS must search the literature and other open-source documents to find relevant information about the suitability of the SacFEM2013 model. Unfortunately, these searches prove fruitless, because there simply is not enough information provided in the EIR/EIS to perform a technically-defensible characterization of the suitability of SacFEM2013. Because of this, some of the my comments include qualifiers such as “appears to be” or “apparently”. These qualifiers do not imply any insufficiency in my own understanding: they are explicit reminders that the EIR/EIS fails to provide an adequate technical basis for use of SacFEM2013.
One example of incorrect modeling assertions in the EIR/EIS is the characterization\(^1\) of SacFEM2013 and its parent code MicroFEM as “three-dimensional” and “high-resolution”. In fact, the SacFEM2013 model provides only a linked set of two-dimensional analyses\(^2\), and would more charitably be described as “two-and-a-half dimensional” instead of possessing a fully-3D modeling capability. This limitation is not an unimportant detail, as a general-purpose 3D groundwater model could be used to predict many important physical responses, e.g., the location of the phreatic surface within an unconfined aquifer. For the SacFEM2013 model, this prediction is part of the data instead of part of the computed solution, and hence SacFEM2013 apparently has no predictive capability for this all-important aquifer response. Here is the relevant EIR/EIS content on this topic\(^3\):

The uppermost boundary of the SACFEM2013 model is defined at the water table. To develop a total saturated aquifer thickness distribution and, therefore, a total model thickness distribution, it was necessary to construct a groundwater elevation contour map and then subtract the depth to the base of freshwater from that groundwater elevation contour map. Average calendar year groundwater elevation measurements were obtained from the DWR Water Data Library. These measurements were primarily collected biannually, during the spring and fall periods; and these values were averaged at each well location to compute an average water level for each location. These values were then contoured, considering streambed elevations for the gaining reaches of the major streams included in the model, to develop a target groundwater elevation contour map for the year 2000.

Note that, in order to begin a SacFEM2013 analysis, the phreatic surface must be specified instead of predicted, and that this specification is based on past records of water table location instead of on verifiable accurate predictions of future groundwater resources. Since California is currently in an unprecedented drought, and because the assessment of similarly-unprecedented future large-scale groundwater transfers is the whole point of the EIR/EIS, it is technically inappropriate to use an averaged historical basis to locate the water table surface simply because the SacFEM2013 is unable to predict that important parameter from first principles!

A good example of an irrelevant assertion in the EIR/EIS is the list of reasons given\(^4\) why MicroFEM was chosen as the modeling platform. The first reason is true of any finite-element code used to model groundwater response, and the second and third arise from the existence of a graphical user interface for the model input and output data. Any modern computational tool (e.g., the word-processing application I’m using to write this critique) possesses such a user interface, so all three reasons apply equally well to any well-designed finite element application, yet they are used to motivate the choice of only one such application. Why this specific choice of MicroFEM was made is never developed in the EIR/EIS, but it should be, as with the choice of computational model comes a set of model constraints that can limit the model’s utility.

**Technical sidebar:** finite element models are particularly easy to develop and deploy graphical user interfaces for, because the interpolation scheme used to generate the finite element results provides uniquely-defined and easy-to-compute results for every point in the spatial domain. In addition to this readily-accessible supply of spatial data available for visual interpretation of results, these models also can produce results at regular time

\(^1\) EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Page 1
\(^3\) EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Page 4
\(^4\) EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Page 1
intervals (e.g., monthly) that make it easy to generate animations of the spatial data. So
the presence of a graphical user interface is a poor reason to choose a particular finite
element application, as custom visualization tools are readily developed at low cost to
support the use of the model, or public-domain visualization tools can be utilized instead.

Unfortunately for the results presented in the EIR/EIS, MicroFEM is a poor choice for such
large-scale modeling. It is an old code that apparently utilizes only the simplest (and least
accurate) techniques for finite-element modeling of aquifer mechanics, and MicroFEM (and
hence SacFEM2013) embed serious limitations into the model that compromise the accuracy of
the computed results. These limitations include, but are not limited to, the following:

• The model places a remarkably-low upper limit on problem resolution, i.e., 250,000 surface
  nodes are available to the modeler, but no more. This limit would appear to the technically-
  oriented reader to indicate that the advanced age of the MicroFEM program has constrained
  its software architecture so that high-resolution and high-fidelity models are beyond its
  capabilities. In particular, its MS/DOS origins might indicate an inability to address sufficient
  computer memory to support a higher-resolution model, or that its solver routines do not scale
  to support the multiple-processor capabilities available on virtually all current computers. If
  this is the case, then this problem should be explicitly noted in the EIR/EIS as a model
  limitation. If it is not the case, then some justification for this upper limit should be provided
to aid in the impartial evaluation of the SacFEM2013 model.

• As mentioned above, the SacFEM2013 model is only partially predictive, in that some aquifer
  responses are entered as input data instead of being computed as predictive quantities. The
  most serious of these is the lack of ability to predict the location of the phreatic surface in the
  aquifer. This location is a natural candidate as the single the most important predicted
  quantity available for understanding near-surface environmental effects of groundwater
  motion, yet it is apparently not computed by SacFEM2013, which instead relies on its location
  via the a priori data-entry process quoted above.

• As mentioned earlier, the model is not a three-dimensional model, but instead estimates
  groundwater response via approximations involving a suite of two-dimensional layers with
  uniform horizontal permeabilities coupled via estimated leakage parameters that represent the
  actual three-dimensional flow fields of groundwater resources. The limitations of this self-
  induced model constraint are outlined in more detail below, but the summary is simple
  enough: the real-world complexities of California’s groundwater aquifers are over-simplified
  by the SacFEM2013 model into no more than 25 available two-dimensional layers of uniform
  composition, and hence the model results are at best computational simplifications not
  necessarily representative of actual groundwater responses to pumping.

In addition to the model not being a true 3D model of the actual geometric nature of the state’s
groundwater resources, some other problems with the model include the following:

• The model requires considerable data manipulation to be used, and these manipulations are
  necessarily subject to interpretation. This fact implies that the model results depend on the
  choices made by the analyst, and are hence not necessarily reproducible. In other words,
  adjusting of the results (by accident or by design) is an inherent characteristic of the model,
  and that characteristic alone erodes trust in the model. There are technically-defensible ways
to provide accurate assessments of how such adjustments might affect output results used in
decision-making (e.g., sensitivity analyses for these parameters), but these means for
evaluating trust in the model are not mentioned in the EIR/EIS, and one can only conclude
that they have never been performed.

• The model description in the EIR/EIS presents no validation results that can be used to
provide basic quality-assurance for the analyses used in the EIR/EIS. The reader can seek
information on the parent code MicroFEM, but precious little data is available on that code’s
capabilities, so the question of “can the results of this model be trusted?” is not answered by
the EIR/EIS. An expert reviewing the EIR/EIS might seek to examine the MicroFEM code
directly, but the underlying source code is not available, and the MicroFEM tool can only be
purchased for a substantial fee ($1500), so it is infeasible to gain informed public comment on
the suitability of MicroFEM or SacFEM2013 without paying a substantial price.

• The model is not predictive in some aquifer responses (as mentioned above), so its results are
a reflection of past data (e.g., streamflows, phreatic surface location, etc.) instead of providing
a predictive capability for future events. Since accurate prediction of future environmental
effects is the whole point of the EIR/EIS, the SacFEM2013 model is arguably not even
suitable for use in the EIR/EIS, much less in real-world hydrological practice.

The problem of data manipulation mentioned in the first bullet above represents a serious
limitation of the SacFEM2013 model. Model quality can be measured by standard quality-
assurance processes utilized for software development, such as the CMM model widely used in
software practice. The five stages of increasing quality in the CMM model are termed ad hoc (or
chaotic), repeatable, defined, managed, and optimized, and the repeatable stage is generally
accepted as the minimal level of quality appropriate for any critical analysis methodology. Since
analyst intervention in data preparation creates an obvious risk of analyst dependencies in the
output data used to set policy, the current SacFEM2013 workflow is likely only at the “ad
hoc/chaotic” state of quality assurance for a model. This is simply not appropriate for critical
analyses that are used in decision-making on such important resources as water in California.

A typical example of analyst intervention in data preparation can be found in Appendix D of the
EIR/EIS:

After a transmissivity estimate was computed for each location, the transmissivity value was then
divided by the screen length of the production well to yield an estimate of the aquifer horizontal
hydraulic conductivity \( (K_h) \). The final step in the process was to smooth the \( K_h \) field to provide
regional-scale information. Individual well tests produce aquifer productivity estimates that are local
in nature, and might reflect small-scale aquifer heterogeneity that is not necessarily representative of
the basin as a whole. To average these smaller scale variations present in the data set, a FORTRAN
program was developed that evaluated each independent \( K_h \) estimate in terms of the available
surrounding estimates. When this program is executed, each \( K_h \) value is considered in conjunction
with all others present within a user-specified critical radius, and the geometric mean of the available
\( K_h \) values is calculated. This geometric mean value is then assigned as the representative regional
hydraulic conductivity value for that location. The critical radius used in this analysis was 10,000
meters, or about six miles. The point values obtained by this process were then gridded using the
kriging algorithm to develop a \( K_h \) distribution across the model domain. The aquifer transmissivity at
each model node within each model layer was then computed using the geometric mean \( K_h \) values at
that node times the thickness of the model layer. Insufficient data were available to attempt to

\[ 6 \text{ EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Page 13} \]
Subdivide the data set into depth-varying Kh distributions, and it was, therefore, assumed that the computed mean Kh values were representative of the major aquifer units in all model layers. The distribution of K used throughout most of the SACFEM2013 model layers is shown in Figure D-4. During model calibration, minor adjustments were made to the Kh of model layer one east of Dunnigan Hills and in model layers six and seven in the northern Sacramento Valley based on qualitative assessment of Lower Tuscan aquifer test data in this area.

Note the presence of terms such as “adjustments”, “assumed”, “insufficient data”, and “representative”. What is being described in this paragraph is a potentially non-repeatable process that converts the three-dimensional permeability tensor into a homogenized number Kh that is then used to estimate conductivity in a plane parallel to the ground surface. Permeability is a local tensorial property of the aquifer (i.e., it varies from point to point in the 3D subsurface domain), but the resulting Kh is smeared across the domain to convert this tensor with six independent spatially-dependent components into a single number that is applied over a huge geographical area instead. And this conversion is subject to the judgment of each analyst, so the results depend on the skill (or lack thereof) of the particular analyst doing the modeling.

**Technical sidebar:** it is remarkably straightforward to perform accurate and technically-defensible computational analyses to assess the ultimate effect of these data adjustments. One of the most easily-deployed of these techniques is the use of a sensitivity analysis that measures how computed output results depend on adjustments to input parameters. Sensitivity analyses are readily grafted onto nearly any computational model, and while these computations require more effort than not using them, most of the additional effort can readily be offloaded to the computer, so that undue levels of human efforts are not required for their application. Formal sensitivity analyses can also be used to aid in the assessment of model uncertainty (see discussion below), so their omission in the EIR/EIS is a mystery to the technically-informed impartial reviewer of the EIR/EIS.

And that’s only the tip of the larger iceberg of problems with these ad hoc techniques. It is actually quite easy to avoid all these adjustments and oversimplifications entirely, and treat the aquifer as it is, namely as a true three-dimensional physical body of large extent, with a time-varying location of the water table, and with accurate treatment of the complex hydraulic conductivity inherent to the subsurface conditions of California. It’s also remarkably simple to include poromechanical effects (see discussion below) in such a 3D model so that accurate local and regional estimates of environmental impacts such as subsidence and loss of aquifer capacity can be predicted and validated. All of this technology has been available for decades, but it is not utilized in the SacFEM2013 model. The citizens of California clearly deserve a better model for decision-making involving one of their most precious resources!

**Regarding The Need to Characterize Uncertainty in Engineered and Natural Systems**

Some discussion is warranted at this point on the difference between a natural and an engineered system, towards the goal of appreciating why characterizing uncertainty in any proposed water-transfer strategy is an essential goal of a well-considered EIR/EIS. An engineered system is designed entirely by humans, so each component of that system is reasonably well-understood *a priori*, and the uncertainties that are inherent in any system (natural or man-made) are limited to defined uncertainties such as materials chosen, geometric specifications, and conditions of construction and use. So an engineered system such as an automobile (or a groundwater-pumping facility) is uncertain in many aspects, but that uncertainty can in theory be constrained
by quality-control efforts or similar means of repeatability. Constraining these uncertainties comes at a price, of course: that is a large part of what we mean when we refer to quality in an engineered system such as in cars or consumer electronics.

A natural system has a much higher threshold for uncertainty, as we often do not even know of all the components of the system, much less their precise characterization (e.g., in a water-bearing aquifer, the materials that entrain the water are by definition unavailable for characterization, and the mere act of digging some of them up for laboratory inspection often changes their physical behaviors so that the tests we perform in the laboratory may not be entirely relevant to the response of the actual subsurface system). So when studying a natural system, a scientist or engineer must exercise due diligence in the examination and characterization of the system’s response to stresses of operational use, and must consistently provide means to determine the presence and effect of these inherent uncertainties. To do otherwise is to risk visitation by Murphy’s Law, i.e., “anything that can happen, will happen.”

Thus one of the most obvious metrics for evaluating the quality of any environmental plan is to examine the plan’s use of terms such as “uncertainty”, as well its technical relatives that include “validation” (testing of models via physical processes such as laboratory experiments), “verification” (testing of models via comparison with other generally-accepted models), and “calibration” (tuning a model using a given set of physical data that will be used as initial conditions for subsequent verification, validation, and uncertainty characterization). These basic operations are fundamental characteristics of any computational model, and are used in everyday life for everything from weather prediction (where uncertainty dominates and limits the best efforts at forecasting) to the simple requirement that important components of infrastructure such as highway bridges be modeled using multiple independent analyses to provide verification of design quality before construction can begin.

Unfortunately, the EIR/EIS does not contain a formal characterization of model uncertainty, either for the SacFEM2013 application itself, or for the underlying data gathered to support the SacFEM2013 analyses. As described in previous sections, both the model and the input data contain simplifications that potentially compromise the model’s ability to provide accurate estimates of real-world responses of water resources, and these idealizations create more need for uncertainty characterization, not less. And the all-important technical terms “validation” and “verification” do not appear the EIR/EIS. The term “calibration” occurs twice with regard to groundwater models, but only in the context of ad-hoc “adjustments” of the model data.

**Lack of Trust in the SacFEM2013 Model**

In addition to generally-poor modeling assumptions inherent in the SacFEM2013 model, the all-important task of characterizing uncertainty in the model’s implementation and data is neglected in the EIR/EIS. On page 19 of Appendix B, the reader is promised that model uncertainty will be described in Appendix D, but that promise is never delivered: the only mention of this essential modeling component occurs merely as an adjunct to discussion of deep percolation uncertainty.

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7 EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Pages 10 and 13
This lack of any formal measure of uncertainty is not an unimportant detail, as it is impossible to provide accurate estimates of margin of error without some formal treatment of uncertainty. Many such formal approaches exist, but apparently none were deployed for the EIR/EIS modeling efforts. In simple terms, this lack of uncertainty characterization removes the basis for trust in the model results, and hence the entire groundwater substitution analysis presented in the EIR/EIS is not technically defensible. Until this omission is remedied, the EIR/EIS simply proposes that water interests in California trust a model that is arguably not worthy of their trust.

And it’s even worse than this, as while the model is asserted to be “high-resolution”, in fact the SacFEM2013 model is quite the opposite. The actual spatial resolution of the model is given in Appendix D as ranging from 125 meters for regions of interest, up to 1000 meters for areas remote from the transfer effects. Nodal spacing along flood bypasses and streams is given as 500 meters. No mention is made in the EIR/EIS of exactly what this means in terms of trust in the model, but in accepted computational modeling practice, this is not a particularly high resolution.

In fact, there are formal methods for characterizing the ability of a discretized model such as SacFEM2013 to resolve physical responses of interest. These methods are based on elementary aspects of information theory (e.g., the Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem), and their practical result is that a discrete analog (i.e., a computer model) of a continuous system (i.e., the actual subsurface geological deposits that entrain the groundwater) cannot resolve any feature that is less than a multiple of the size of the discretization spacing. For regular periodic features (e.g., the waveforms that make radio transmission possible), that multiple can be a small as two, but for transient phenomena (e.g., the response of an aquifer), established practice in computational simulation has demonstrated that a factor of five or ten is the practical limit on resolution.

Thus the practical limit of the SacFEM2013 model to “see” (i.e., to resolve) any physical response is measured in kilometers! The model can compute results smaller than this scale, but those results cannot be implicitly trusted: they are potentially the computational equivalent of an optical illusion. For this reason alone, the SacFEM2013 model cannot be trusted without substantial follow-on work that the EIR/EIS gives no indication of ever having been performed. And thus any physical response asserted by the model’s results has a margin of error of 100% if that response involves spatial scales smaller than a kilometer or more, i.e., there is little or no predictive power in the model for those length scales.

The additional verification effort required to gain some measure of trust in the model (i.e., refining the nodal spacing by a factor of two and four to create more refined models, and then comparing these higher-resolution results to gain assurance that no computational artifacts exist in the original model, i.e., no optical illusions are being used to set water transfer policy) is quite straightforward and is also standard practice in verifying the utility of a computational model. It is something of a mystery why this standard modeling quality-assurance technique is not presented in the EIR/EIS, but this omission provides yet-another sound technical reason to reject the results of the EIR/EIS until better modeling efforts are provided.

**Technical sidebar:** one important side benefit of performing verification studies by refining the finite element mesh in the spatial and temporal domains is that this extra effort provides important information as to whether the resolution of the model is sufficient. In practice, improving the resolution of a computer model is only a means to
the desired end of gaining higher fidelity, i.e., a closer approximation to reality. So what we really desire from a computer model is not resolution, but fidelity, and while it is notoriously difficult to assess measures of fidelity, verification techniques based on refining the finite element mesh do provide some measure of trust in model results. One particularly simple verification measure involves plotting the computed results for a quantity of interest (e.g., groundwater flux at some point in the aquifer) as a function of model resolution (e.g., a metric indicating the number of the elements in the model, or a representative spatial scale used) for successive refinements of the finite-element mesh. Such plots help the analyst estimate whether the results at any given resolution yield an asymptotically-accurate estimate of the best results the model can provide given its inherent modeling assumptions. When combined with validation data (e.g., model predictions compared to real-world measured data), these verification-and-validation techniques provide a more sound basis for trust in the model than the minimal motivations found in the EIR/EIS.

It is likely that the SacFEM2013 model may be incapable of performing these more refined higher-resolution analyses because of its underlying assumptions (e.g., idealizing the three-dimensional subsurface domain as a set of coupled two-dimensional layers), and if that is the case, then the underlying groundwater model is simply not up to the requirements of accurate regional water transfer modeling. The underlying MicroFEM model is an old simulation tool, originally written for the MS/DOS platform, and it appears to be near the practical limit of its resolution at the stated size\(^8\) of 153,812 nodes (compared to the maximum nodal resolution in MicroFEM of 250,000 nodes cited above). But the current generation of desktop computers can easily handle many millions of nodes for such simulations, and enterprise computers well within the budgets of government agencies are routinely utilized to model systems with hundreds of millions of nodes, so if the SacFEM2013 model is already at its limit of resolution, then it’s clear that a newer, better computational model should be used to replace it.

Inadequacy of Basic Aquifer Mechanics Principles in the EIR/EIS

In addition to all the fundamental problems inherent in the SacFEM2013 model, the EIR/EIS presents a biased view of basic principles of aquifer mechanics, and this bias serves to understate the risks of serious environmental problems that have long been a bane of water policy in California. In particular, the EIR/EIS simply understates the risk of these environmental effects, beginning with its executive summary and continuing throughout the rest of the document. Here’s a representative sample of the problem at its first occurrence\(^9\):

Groundwater substitution would temporarily decrease levels in groundwater basins near the participating wells. Water produced from wells initially comes from groundwater storage. Groundwater storage would refill (or “recharge”) over time, which affects surface water sources. Groundwater pumping captures some groundwater that would otherwise discharge to streams as baseflow and can also induce recharge from streams. Once pumping ceases, this stream depletion continues, replacing the pumped groundwater slowly over time until the depleted storage fully recharges.

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\(^8\) EIR/EIS, Appendix D, Page 3

\(^9\) EIR/EIS, Executive Summary, Page 10
The use of the adverb “fully” implies that the original storage is entirely recovered, but this is not necessarily the case. The science of poromechanics demonstrates that irreversible loss of aquifer capacity can occur with groundwater extraction, and while this physical phenomenon is explained elsewhere in the EIS/EIR, it is apparently ignored by the SacFEM2013 model, and hence it is not predicted with any degree of accuracy for use in estimating this important environmental effect. California has seen many examples of the accumulation of this environmental risk, as the readily-observable phenomenon known as subsidence is the surface expression of this loss of aquifer capacity. The small strains induced in the aquifer skeleton by groundwater extraction accumulate over the depth of the aquifer, and are expressed by the slow downward movement of the ground surface. The EIR/EIS makes little connection between groundwater extraction process modeled by SacFEM2013 and the all-too-real potential for surface subsidence, and the attendant irreversible loss of aquifer capacity. It is remarkably simple to model these coupled fluid- and solid-mechanical effects using modern computers, and it is thus a fatal shortcoming of the EIR/EIS that such a rational science-based approach to estimating these environmental risks has not been undertaken.

The problem is especially important during drought years, when groundwater substitution is most likely to occur. In a drought, the aquifer already entrains less groundwater than normal, so that additional stresses due to pumping are visited upon the aquifer skeleton. This is exactly the conditions required to cause loss of capacity and the risk of subsidence. Yet the EIR/EIS makes scant mention of these all-too-real problems, and no serious modeling effort is presented in the EIR/EIS to assess the risk of such environmental degradation.

Taken together with the other problems catalogued above, it is clear that the EIR/EIS does not accurately estimate potential environmental risks due to groundwater extraction. And since this component of the water transfer process is only one aspect of how water might be moved within the state, the interested reader of the EIR/EIS can only wonder what other important environmental effects have not been accurately assessed in the EIR/EIS.

Conclusions

The current draft version of the EIR/EIS fails to accurately estimate environmental effects likely to occur during water transfers. The model used to predict groundwater resources is flawed by being based on old technology that is apparently not up to the task of accurate large-scale modeling as combined with requisite validation measures and uncertainty characterization efforts needed to justify the use of the model. The reasons given for the use of this model do not stand up even to the most rudimentary examination, and the model neglects important environmental effects that have long been observed in California. The proposed transfers should be rejected until a more sound scientific basis can be established for prediction of all substantial environmental effects, and established practices in the use of computational models are developed and deployed in all aspects of computational prediction of those effects.
LONG TERM TRANSFERS EIR/EIS
REVIEW OF EFFECTS ON SPECIAL STATUS FISH

1. INTRODUCTION

Long term transfers represent Reclamation and San Luis Delta Mendota Water Authority's ability to move water from north of the Delta to south of the Delta using its Central Valley Project storage, conveyance, and export facilities, and associated authorities. The EIS/EIR describes the details and effects of Reclamation's actions to carry out such transfers. Water for transfers would come from stored and saved water north of the Delta that would be delivered in summer south of the Delta. The amount of water proposed for transfer by Reclamation could be up to 600,000 af (Federal Register and EIS/EIR at p. 1-5), but is likely to be over 200 thousand acre-ft. Reclamation's EIS/EIR covers myriad proposed transfers. Some additional proposed State transfers are addressed in the EIS/EIR cumulative impacts assessment.

CSPA has undertaken a review of transfers and the EIS/EIR effects analysis on special status fish species. The species addressed include Chinook salmon, Steelhead, Green and White sturgeon, and Longfin and Delta smelt. These fish all depend on Central Valley river and Delta flows and habitats for portions of their life cycles. A summary of this review is presented in this report.

2. SUMMARY OF CSPA COMMENTS ON SECTION 3.7

A. Effects of Transfers

1. Change in timing and amount of river flows

Table C2 shows that summer Delta inflows from the Sacramento River in dry and critical water years may increase by several thousand cfs to accommodate transfer Delta exports. With non-CVP transfers the total change is not inconsequential. With minimum river flows of 3000-5000 cfs, transfers can double river flow and Delta inflow in summer of drier years when reservoir levels are low and water deliveries are cut back. Holding Delta outflow near minimum and nearly doubling inflow and exports warms the Delta, increases loss of Delta fishes to export pumps, and degrades freshwater and low salinity zone habitat. For more discussion of this effect see Attachments A and B.

River flows in winter can be lower by 10-20% in dry years as previous year's transfer releases are made up by reservoir water retention. Rivers flows may be reduced by
over 1000 cfs although usually in higher precipitation months. The refill of reservoirs
the year after summer transfers reduces winter river flows and Delta inflow. The
effect is greatest in drier years when river flows and reservoir releases are at a
minimum. These indirect winter effects though not as dramatic as direct summer
transfer effects have consequences to drier year winter river rearing and
migration habitat of salmon and smelt.

Overall effects from flow changes:

- Significant negative effect on winter run salmon: (1) young rearing in
  lower Sacramento River in summer, (2) smolt migration in winter, (3)
  adult upstream migration in winter.

- Significant negative effect on delta smelt: (1) young rearing in the Delta in
  summer of drier years, (2) adults migrating upstream into Delta during
  winter.

2. Changes in Delta Exports

Tables C8 and C9 show expected increases in drier year summer exports in the range of
20-60% from CVP transfers. With non-CVP transfer exports of similar magnitude, total
drier year exports are near double or even more in critical years like 2014. Higher
exports increase entrainment and salvage losses of fish and degrade Delta rearing
habitat (higher water temperatures, lower turbidity, and lower primary and
secondary production).

Overall effects from export increases in summer:

- Significant negative effect on delta smelt: (1) from increased entrainment
  of young rearing in the Delta in summer of drier years, (2) from
  degradation of rearing habitat of young.

3. Changes in water source

Water released from reservoirs for transfers in summer is not the same water exported
from the Delta. Exports from the South Delta in summer of drier years typically take the
cooler, slightly brackish, productive upper low salinity zone that has been in residence
in the Delta for some time. The exported water includes nearly all the higher
productivity water of the San Joaquin River that enters the Delta. Exported water is
replaced by reservoir water including that released for transfers. The added reservoir
water in higher Delta inflows degrades Delta habitat with fresher, warmer, clearer
water.

Overall effects from changes:

- Significant negative effect on delta smelt from degradation of rearing
  habitat of young in north, south, and west Delta, and eastern Suisun Bay.

4. Changes in reservoir storage

As it may take several years or more to replace reservoir water released for transfers,
reservoir storage is depleted by transfers in multiyear droughts. Reservoir depletion
over several years may reach 500,000 ac-ft or more total. Long term droughts already deplete reservoirs to the point of affecting cold water pools and winter-spring releases that benefit fish especially in droughts. Storage releases in the summer of 2014 were in fact higher than planned or believed needed to sustain transfers, other water demands, and outflow and water quality requirements. Thus the true effect of transfers on reservoir storage is unknown.

Reductions in cold water pools can lead to (1) adult salmon being susceptible to diseases from warm water, (2) delays in salmon spawning, (3) reduced survival of eggs and embryos, (4) lower young survival during rearing, and (5) and delays and lower survival of smolts during emigration.

Overall effects from reservoir storage reductions:

- Significant negative effect on winter run salmon in multiyear droughts: (1) young rearing in lower Sacramento River in summer, (2) migrating smolts in winter, (3) eggs and embryos in summer, and (4) adults from lower winter attraction flows in multiyear droughts.

B. Cumulative Effects

We believe the addition of water transfers places significant added burden on the special status fish species over that already imposed by climate change, drought, increasing water supply use, record-high Delta diversions, increasing demands on surface and groundwater, as well as increased demand forecasted under the BDCP. The EIS fails to address these factors, although it does mention the potential of added effects from other Central Valley transfers through the Delta (i.e., by State Water Project and non-project water) not covered by the EIS. The EIS acknowledges these effects, but simply states that the added and cumulative effects are insignificant without any analyses as to whether the severely depressed populations and habitats of special status species are potentially affected by the added stress. Based on our assessment of cumulative effects, significant added stresses would occur on the fish and their habitats:

1. *Winter Run Salmon*

The cumulative effects of the above stresses with addition of water transfers will put winter-run in continuing jeopardy and inhibit their recovery. Transfers reduce reservoir storage in multiyear droughts as transfer storage releases cannot be made up until wet years again occur. Low storage limits the amount of Shasta Reservoir cold water pool to sustain winter run through summer spawning, incubation, and rearing. Continuing low fall releases limits the extent of rearing habitat and early emigration cues. Higher August and September flows from reservoir transfer releases may improve early rearing habitat in the upper Sacramento River near Redding, but may also deplete the cold-water pool and send emigration cues that may push young into warmer portions of the lower Sacramento River. Low storage levels in multiyear droughts limit the available water for storage releases in winter to sustain young emigration and upstream adult migration through the Delta and Bay to and from the Pacific Ocean.
2. **Spring and Fall Run Salmon**

Lower river flows in winter and spring in drier years would effect downstream emigration success of fry to the Delta. Poor dry year Delta rearing habitat would be further degraded by lower Delta inflows. High late summer transfers would encourage early migrations and maturation of adult fall run only to subsequently be subjected to lower fall flows and higher water temperatures.

3. **Delta Smelt and Longfin Smelt**

Adult migration and spawning success would be negatively affected by lower Delta winter and spring inflows in multiyear droughts. Lower Delta inflow in late winter and springs of multiyear droughts will reduce survival of young smelt. Higher summer Delta inflows will reduce survival of rearing pre-adult smelt in the Delta from degradation of the low salinity zone and direct and indirect losses to higher Delta exports.

C. **Are the Effects of Transfers Unreasonable?**

Reclamation argues that the effects of transfers are not “unreasonable”. Their main argument is that the BOs state that planned summer transfers up to 600,000 ac-ft would not constitute jeopardy, and that NMFS and USFWS have “OK’d” individual transfers in summer 2014 and past years. The facts are that winter-run salmon and delta smelt populations have further declined significantly since the BOs were prepared. Based on the present situation after two recent periods of drought (6 of last 8 years being dry or critical) we believe the predicted added stress of the whole array of planned transfers is an unreasonable threat to listed salmon and smelt.

D. **Reasonableness of Reclamation’s Assessment in EIS**

As shown in Tables 2-9 and 2-10, the Proposed Action in Reclamation’s opinion would not have any significant, unavoidable adverse impacts. From our review the proposed transfers have significant potential effects that are avoidable. Our review shows that potential effects are greatest in multiyear droughts when listed fish are already under maximum stress. Many of the most significant effects can be avoided by limiting transfers in the second or later years of drought. A more detailed review might yield specific criteria or rules that would allow some transfers to occur under certain circumstances. If transfers cannot be avoided, then other types of restrictions on water supply storage or deliveries could be considered to reduce effects of transfers and risks to the listed species.

E. **Flaws in Reclamation’s Assessment**

Major flaws in Reclamation's assessment are as follows:

1) Reclamation assumes delta smelt are not found in the Delta in the summer transfer season, when in fact during dry and critical years when transfers would occur most if not all delta smelt are found in the Delta (see Attachments A and B).
2) Reclamation downplays the potential total amount of all transfers, when in fact the capacity exists for transfer amounts up to 600,000 ac-ft (see EIS/EIR CHART BELOW). “The “up to” amount of transfer water that could be made available in any year is approximately 473,000 acre-feet. However, it is unlikely that this amount of water could be transferred in any year due to Delta regulatory and other constraints.” (Source: http://www.usbr.gov/mp/PA/water/docs/2014_water_plan_v10.pdf)

3) Reclamation has not assessed the effect on Delta habitat in terms of water temperature, turbidity, and location of the Low Salinity Zone.

4) Reclamation has failed to address population level effects on listed fish.

5) Reclamation has failed to follow the State Board’s recommendation: “The key is to follow the water, not the agreements. Focus on the source of the actual water moving to the transferee. This is the water being transferred and will guide the types of changes in water rights that may be needed.” (p 10-3 of SWRCB Guide to Water Transfers.). Reclamation has failed to identify that the water they divert for transfer in the Delta is not the water released upstream for transfer.

6) Reclamation has failed to assess the cumulative effects on listed fish in multi-year droughts and the consequences of adding transfers on top of emergency drought actions designed to save storage by reducing water demands, exports, and relaxing water quality standards. Reclamation failed to mention its own requests to the State Board for Temporary Urgency Changes in 2013 and 2014 including provisions to exempt transfers from the TUCs that allowed lower Delta outflow and higher salinities in the Delta in summer 2014. Neither BO allowed for transfers under these conditions.
F. Reclamation has not followed its own rules

1. • Transfer may not cause significant adverse effects on Reclamation's ability to deliver CVP water to its contractors.
In 2014 Reclamation had to release more water than expected to meet export demands including transfers. The unplanned release of “extra” Shasta and Folsom storage water adversely affects Reclamation’s ability to meet its contractual demands and permit requirements. For example, North-of-Delta contractors were initially threatened with a 40 percent allocation that was later changed to 75 percent delivery.

2. • Transfer will be limited to water that would be consumptively used or irretrievably lost to beneficial use.
Water diverted from the Delta is not water that would be consumptively used; it is water that would have eventually move to San Francisco Bay.

3. • Transfer will not adversely affect water supplies for fish and wildlife purposes.
Transfers results in storage levels lower than predicted, which limit cold-water pools and the ability to maintain downstream “fish flows”.

4. • Transfers cannot exceed the average annual quantity of water under contract actually delivered.
The amount of CVP storage necessary to meet transfer export demands may be double the contracted amount.

G. Comments on Impact Statements in the EIR/EIS

1. “Water supplies on the rivers downstream of reservoirs could decrease following stored reservoir water transfers, but would be limited by the refill agreements”. The whole subject of “refill agreements” is not adequately covered by Reclamation. The fact that it may take several years or more to refill is a significant effect not addressed.

2. “Water transfers could change reservoir storage in CVP and SWP reservoirs and could result in water quality impacts.” No information as to the specific effects on Shasta, Trinity, or Folsom reservoir storage or downstream tailwater flows was provided.

3. “Water transfers could change reservoir storage non-Project reservoirs participating in reservoir release transfers, which could result in water quality impacts.” The effect on reservoir and tailwater water quality in non-refill years of multiyear droughts was not addressed.

4. “Water transfers could change river flow rates in the Seller Service Area and could affect water quality.” Effects on specific rivers and reaches were not addressed.
5. “Water transfers could change Delta outflows and could result in water quality impacts.” “Water transfers could change Delta salinity and could result in water quality impacts.” Specific effects on Delta water temperature, salinity, and turbidity in drought years like 2014 were not addressed.

6. “Transfer actions could alter hydrologic conditions in the Delta, altering associated habitat availability and suitability” Specific effects of transfers on Delta hydrology in drought years like 2014 were not addressed.

H. Specific Comments on Cumulative Impact Assessments in the EIR/EIS

“The cumulative analysis evaluates potential SWP transfers, but they are not part of the action alternatives for this EIS/EIR.” Given the difficulty of separating these actions and there effects, and that other environmental assessments and biological opinions address joint actions, we see no reason to not address the joint action of transfers through the Delta in this EIR/EIS, especially given the following EIR/EIS statement: "Most of the pumping capacity available would be at the Banks Pumping Plant except for very dry years. Banks is an SWP facility, so SWP-related transfers would have priority. Agreements with DWR would be required for any transfers using SWP facilities."

Note: In 2013, DWR facilitated about 265 thousand acre-feet of water transfers through State Water Project facilities, nearly double the amount anticipated for CVP transfers.

(http://www.water.ca.gov/watertransfers/docs/2014/Transfer_Activities_v11.pdf)

I. Specific Comments on Section 3.7 Fisheries

1. “Water transfers, which would occur from July through September, would coincide with the spawning period of winter-run Chinook salmon. However, spawning occurs upstream of the areas potentially affected by the transfers. Due in part to elevated water temperatures in these downstream areas during this period, emigration would be complete before water transfers commence in July.” P3.7-12

Water transfers also come from Shasta storage releases. Downstream emigration of fry from spawning reaches near Redding commences in July and continues through September.

2. “Summer rearing of CV steelhead would overlap with water transfers occurring in the Seller Service Area (July-September), both in the Sacramento and San Joaquin River and their tributaries (see specific tributaries listed above). Thus water
transfers have the potential to affect steelhead. The majority of rearing, however, would occur in the cooler sections of rivers and creeks above the influence for the water transfers.” P3.7-14. The “majority” of rearing occurs in tailwaters, which would be affected by transfers (e.g., the lower American River tailwater below Folsom Reservoir).

3. “(Delta smelt) Larvae and juveniles are generally present in the Delta from March through June. Delta smelt have typically moved downstream towards Suisun Bay by July because elevated water temperatures and low turbidity conditions in the Delta are less suitable than those downstream (Nobriga et al. 2008). Some delta smelt reside year-round in and around Cache Slough (Sommer et al. 2011). Delta smelt in Suisun Bay and Cache Slough would be outside of the influence of the export facilities.” P3-7-16. In dry and critical years, delta smelt reside primarily in the Delta in summer in the direct path of water moving across the Delta to South Delta export pumps (see Attachments A and B for details).

4. Consistency of Section 3.7 with the provisions of the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) and the CEQA Guidelines. Section 3.7 concludes that all effects are less than significant (e.g., p37-37). Using CEQA criteria - An alternative would have a significant impact on fisheries resources if it would:

a. Cause a substantial reduction in the amount or quality of habitat for target species. YES

b. Have a substantial adverse effect, such as a reduction in area or geographic range, on any riverine, riparian, or wetland habitats, or other sensitive aquatic natural community, or significant natural areas identified in local or regional plans, policies, regulations, or by CDFW, NOAA Fisheries, or USFWS that may affect fisheries resources. YES

c. Conflict with the provisions of an adopted HCP, NCCP, or other approved local, regional, or state habitat conservation plan. YES (Delta Water Quality Control Plan)

d. Cause a substantial adverse effect to any special-status species,
   - Have a substantial adverse effect, either directly or through habitat modifications, on any endangered, rare, or threatened species, as listed in Title 14 of the California Code of Regulations (sections 670.2 or 670.5) or in Title 50, Code of Federal Regulations. A significant impact is one that affects the population of a species as a whole, not individual members. YES (WINTER RUN, DELTA SMELT)

e. Have a substantial adverse effect, either directly or through habitat modifications, on any species identified as a candidate, sensitive, or special-status species in local or regional plans, policies, or regulations, or by CDFW, NOAA Fisheries, or USFWS, including substantially reducing the number or restricting the range of an
endangered, rare, or threatened species. YES (WINTER RUN, DELTA SMELT)

f. Cause a substantial reduction in the area or habitat value of critical habitat areas designated under the federal ESA or essential fish habitat as designated under the Magnuson Stevens Fisheries Act. YES (WINTER, SPRING, FALL, LATE FALL RUN; STEELHEAD, GREEN AND WHITE STURGEON, DELTA AND LONGFIN SMELT)

g. Conflict substantially with goals set forth in an approved recovery plan for a federally listed species, or with goals set forth in an approved State Recovery Strategy (Fish & Game Code Section 2112) for a state listed species. YES, RECOVERY PLANS FOR CV SALMON, DELTA SMELT, AND LONGFIN SMELT.

3. ATTACHMENTS

A. Summer 2014 Water Transfers

Transfers were conducted in the summer of 2014 under a Finding of No Significant Impact NEPA document. Our review of the proposed 2014 transfers is presented in Attachment A.

B. Summer 2014

As background on the overall effect of summer transfers, we present an assessment of the overall effect on Delta Smelt in summer 2014 in Attachment B.