

SAN LUIS WATER DISTRICT AND PANOCHE WATER DISTRICT

FINAL ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT

INTERIM CONTRACT RENEWAL

Appendix E
National Marine Fisheries Service Biological Opinion

February 2011



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NATIONAL MARINE FISHERIES SERVICE

Southwest Region
501 West Ocean Boulevard, Suite 4200
Long Beach, California 90802- 4213

February 23, 2011

In response refer to:
2010/04827

David E. Hyatt
Supervisory Wildlife Biologist
U.S. Bureau of Reclamation
South-Central California Area Office
1243 N Street
Fresno, California 93721-1813

Dear Mr. Hyatt:

This letter transmits NOAA's National Marine Fisheries Service's (NMFS) biological opinion (BO) (Enclosure 1) based on our review of the San Luis Water District (SLWD) and Panoche Water District (PWD) Interim Renewal Contracts 2011-2013 (proposed action). The NMFS BO reviews their effects on federally listed endangered Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*), threatened Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon (*O. tshawytscha*), threatened Central Valley steelhead (*O. mykiss*), the threatened Southern distinct population segment (DPS) of North American green sturgeon (*Acipenser medirostris*), and the designated critical habitat of Central Valley steelhead and the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon, in accordance with section 7(a)(2) of the Endangered Species Act (ESA) of 1973, as amended (16 U.S.C 1531 *et seq.*).

The information provided includes the September 22, 2010, consultation initiation letter, memorandums from the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (BOR) dated December 17 and 29, 2010, and multiple emails from BOR between December 28, 2010, and January 14, 2011. A complete administrative record of this consultation is on file at the Central Valley Area Office of NMFS.

Based on the best scientific and commercial information, the BO concludes that the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contracts, as presented by the BOR, are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of the listed species or destroy or adversely modify designated critical habitat. NMFS has also included an incidental take statement with reasonable and prudent measures and non-discretionary terms and conditions that are necessary and appropriate to avoid, minimize, or monitor incidental take of listed salmonids and sturgeon associated with the project.

This letter also transmits NMFS' Essential Fish Habitat (EFH) conservation recommendations for Pacific salmon as required by the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act (MSA) as amended (16 U.S.C. 1801 *et seq.*; Enclosure 2). The document concludes that the execution of the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contracts will adversely affect the EFH of Pacific salmon in the action area and adopts certain terms and conditions of the incidental take

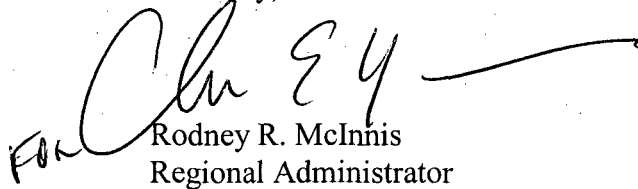


statement and the ESA conservation recommendations of the biological opinion as the EFH conservation recommendations.

Reclamation has a statutory requirement under section 305(b)(4)(B) of the MSA to submit a detailed response in writing to NMFS within 30 days of receipt of these conservation recommendations that includes a description of the measures proposed for avoiding, mitigating, or offsetting the impact of the activity on EFH (50 CFR 600.920 (k)). If unable to complete a final response within 30 days, Reclamation should provide an interim written response within 30 days before submitting its final response.

Please contact Ms. Leslie Mirise in our Central Valley Area Office at (916) 930-3638 or via email at Leslie.Mirise@noaa.gov, if you have any questions regarding this document or require additional information.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Rodney R. McInnis", with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right. The signature is written over the printed name and title.

Rodney R. McInnis
Regional Administrator

Enclosures (2)

cc: Copy to file – ARN# 151422SWR2008SA00269
NMFS-PRD, Long Beach, CA
Joseph Dillon, NMFS-HCD, Santa Rosa, CA

BIOLOGICAL OPINION

ACTION AGENCY: U.S. Bureau of Reclamation

ACTIVITY: San Luis Water District and Panoche Water District Interim
Renewal Contracts 2011-2013

**CONSULTATION
CONDUCTED BY:** Southwest Region, National Marine Fisheries Service

FILE NUMBER: 2010/04827
ARN: 151422SWR2008SA00269

DATE ISSUED: February 23, 2011

I. CONSULTATION HISTORY

On December 29, 2008, NOAA's National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) provided a biological opinion for the San Luis Water District and Panoche Water District Interim Renewal Contracts (2008/04445) (SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contracts 2009-2011 BO) which covered the time period from January 1, 2009 through February 28, 2011.

On October 5, 2010, NMFS received your letter dated September 22, 2010 requesting initiation of Endangered Species Act (ESA) section 7 consultation for the San Luis Water District and Panoche Water District Interim Renewal Contracts 2011-2013.

On December 15, 2010, Dr. Jennifer Lewis of the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (BOR) and Leslie Mirise of NMFS spoke via telephone regarding the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contracts (IRC) 2011-2013 project description and additional information needed in order to complete consultation.

On December 17, 2010, NMFS received a memorandum from Dr. Jennifer Lewis addressing questions from Leslie Mirise regarding the compliance efforts associated with the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contract 2009-2011 BO (2008/04445) terms and conditions.

On December 21, 2010, NMFS provided an insufficiency letter to BOR that requested additional information deemed necessary to make a determination for the proposed action.

On December 22, 2010, Leslie Mirise sent Dr. Jennifer Lewis an email documenting comments and questions from the memorandum received on December 17, 2010.

On December 23, 2010, Dr. Jennifer Lewis sent additional information to Leslie Mirise regarding access to Data Collection and Review Team Reports for the Grasslands Bypass Project (GBP).

On December 28, 2010, a conference call occurred between Rhonda Reed, Leslie Mirise, and Norm Ponferrada of NMFS; and David Hyatt, Chris Eacock, Cheryl Carter, and Rain Healer of BOR to discuss the additional information necessary to complete consultation.

On December 28, 2010, an email was provided by Chris Eacock containing requested selenium data for Mud Slough and the San Joaquin River at Crows Landing.

On December 29, 2010, an email was provided by David Hyatt with an attached memorandum containing supplemental information as requested in NMFS' December 21, 2010, insufficiency letter.

On January 5, 2011, an email was provided by David Hyatt stating BOR's determination on effects to Essential Fish Habitat (EFH).

On January 10, 2011, Leslie Mirise contacted Dr. Jennifer Lewis to notify Reclamation that the effects analysis does not concur with a not likely to adversely affect determination and that a conference call is recommended to discuss potential next steps.

On January 11, 2011, a conference call occurred between Rhonda Reed, Leslie Mirise, Dr. Jennifer Lewis, David Hyatt, Chris Eacock, Rain Healer, and Ms. McDonald to discuss additional information required to complete consultation.

On January 12, 2011, two emails were provided by David Hyatt to Leslie Mirise containing additional information as discussed in the January 11 conference call.

On January 13, 2011, two emails were provided by BOR, one from Chris Eacock and one from Dr. Jennifer Lewis containing additional information for consultation.

On January 14, 2011, an email was provided by Dr. Jennifer Lewis containing requested project description information.

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPOSED ACTION

The proposed Federal action is the execution of the interim water service contracts for the delivery of water from the Central Valley Project (CVP) to the San Luis and Panoche water districts for a period of 24 months, beginning on March 1, 2011, and running through February 28, 2013. The project description in the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contracts 2011 - 2013 environmental assessment (EA) included language that drainage management for PWD and SLWD lands located within Charleston Drainage District (participants in the GBP) are included within the GBP analysis and environmental commitments in the ROD; therefore, drainage management is not part of the proposed action within the EA. However, in the consultation for

the GBP 3rd Use Agreement, NMFS' concurrence letter (2009/04097) dated November 18, 2009, states that the, "execution of the [GBP] Use Agreement will satisfy the terms and conditions 2a and 2b within the Biological and Conference Opinion (2008/04445) dated December 29, 2008. In addition, NMFS hereby adopts the previously issued Conference Opinion as a Biological Opinion as it relates to critical habitat of the Southern [distinct population segment] DPS of North American green sturgeon which was designated in the final rule issued in the Federal Register on October 9, 2009 (74 FR 52300). NMFS reached this determination based on the analysis of effects considered in the preceding Biological and Conference Opinion (2008/04445) dated December 29, 2008." Therefore, the drainage analysis performed in the GBP consultation defers the drainage analysis back to the contributing water districts and the separate actions that would constitute permitting of water deliveries (and their associated drainage) to each water district. Not including a drainage analysis associated with the SLWD and PWD IRC 2011-2013 (a separate action from both the GBP and the SLWD and PWD IRC 2009-2011) in this consultation would leave those potential impacts unaccounted for; therefore, this consultation includes a drainage analysis within this project description. Because this SLWD and PWD IRC 2011-2013 operates under "status quo" condition, it is assumed, as far as operations are concerned, that Reclamation will be operating within the realm of the biological assessment (BA) project description, provided for the SLWD and PWD IRC 2009-2011, in addition to the applicable information received during the consultation period.

Effects to the listed species and designated and proposed critical habitat resulting from the combined operational effects of the CVP and State Water Project (SWP) were consulted on separately in NMFS' 2009 Biological Opinion on the long-term operations of the Central Valley Project and State Water Project (2009 NMFS Operations BO). Therefore, this BO (analyzing the effects of implementation of the SLWD and PWD IRC 2011-2013) will not analyze the operational effects of the CVP and SWP to listed species and designated critical habitat as part of the effects of this proposed action because the effects of those Federal activities (e.g., storing, pumping, and releasing water for agricultural and municipal and industrial uses) were analyzed in the 2009 NMFS Operations BO. In addition, this consultation will not analyze potential effects resulting from the following independent actions that would require separate permitting and consultations because they are not interrelated or interdependent to the proposed action of executing the SLWD and PWD IRC 2011-2013:

- Any future water assignments of CVP water service contracts involving San Luis Unit contractors.
- Water transfers and exchanges involving San Luis Unit contractors.
- Inclusion and exclusions to the district boundaries for the San Luis Unit contractors, including land annexations.
- Any changes in place or purpose of use.
- Renewal of long-term water service contracts.
- Extension of the GBP.
- Other measures/activities that are considered as part of the environmental baseline, such as the Central Valley Habitat Monitoring Program, the current GBP, the Central Valley Project Conservation Program, the San Joaquin River Restoration Program (SJRRP), or Central Valley Project Implementation Act (CVPIA) activities designated b1 (other) which will also continue to achieve separate program-specific ESA compliance.

- Other programs in place under CVPIA or portions of the Delta Stewardship (previously known as the CALFED) program.

Instead, this consultation has as its primary focus the potential effects of the delivery of CVP water to SLWD and PWD, and the resulting discharge of agricultural drainage to streams in which listed species and designated critical habitats under NMFS' jurisdiction occur.

A. Project Activities

The interim water service contracts will provide for the continued delivery of the same quantities of CVP water contract amounts to the same lands currently covered under the existing long-term water service contracts. Like the long-term water service contracts for contractors in the San Luis Unit, the interim water service contracts will authorize deliveries of CVP water from both the San Luis and Delta-Mendota Canals, if those contractors have the capability to take CVP water via both canals. Water deliveries will be made through existing CVP facilities, and the execution of these interim water service contracts does not require the construction of any new facilities, the installation of any new structures, or the modification of any existing facilities, and allows the CVP water to be beneficially used within the authorized place of use for the CVP water south of the Delta.

The execution of the SLWD and PWD IRC 2011-2013 will allow for the delivery of full contract amounts specifically detailed in the contracts and in the BA received for the SLWD and PWD IRC 2009-2011. The contracts contain a provision which authorizes BOR to impose shortages that result from hydrologic conditions and the requirements of laws and regulations. Other contract terms include new provisions required by CVPIA for water measurements and conservation. The 2009 NMFS Operations BO describes in detail the hydrological, climatological, geological, statutory, and regulatory constraints placed upon the delivery and conveyance systems of the CVP limiting the ability of the CVP to convey water through project facilities, and in almost all years these preclude the delivery of full contract amounts to CVP contractors. This consultation, however, considers water deliveries up to the full contract amounts for the two San Luis Unit contractors nevertheless. Deliveries of water that would be over the contract amounts are not part of this action and would require separate environmental review under the ESA and the National Environmental Policy Act.

In an effort to meet water quality objectives established by the Regional Water Quality Control Board (RWQCB), primarily that of reducing the amount of selenium discharged into the San Joaquin River system over time, agricultural drainage is discharged from the PWD and the Charleston Drainage District of the SLWD (the sole source of drainage originating in the SLWD) to the GBP, which was developed for that purpose and has an existing agreement, the GBP 3rd Use Agreement, through December 31, 2019. NMFS issued a concurrence letter for the GBP 3rd Use Agreement on November 18, 2009 (2009/04097, ARN # 151422SWR2001SA5967).

On October 5, 2010, the Central Valley RWQCB adopted Resolution R5-2010-0046 amending the Sacramento River and San Joaquin River Basins (Basin Plan) to modify the existing compliance schedule for the GBP selenium control plan to allow agricultural subsurface drainage

discharges to the Lower San Joaquin River to continue through December 31, 2019. Since October 2005, the Basin Plan set the selenium objective at 5 ppb over a 4-day average in the San Joaquin River at the confluence of the Merced River. This same objective was used in the drainage analysis in the SLWD and PWD Interim Renewal Contract 2009-2011 BO and is still in place over the same portion of the San Joaquin River for this project. This original objective was intended to extend up the San Joaquin River upstream of the Merced River to Sack Dam and Mud Slough (north) on October 1, 2009. The Resolution R5-2010-0046 delays that extension for a 2-mile portion of the San Joaquin River and 7-miles of Mud Slough (north) until 2019.

Both SLWD and PWD have also adopted the Westside Regional Drainage Plan that includes the following actions intended to reduce agricultural drainage to zero subsurface discharge:

- Lining District water delivery facilities to the extent that available funding will allow.
- Encouraging grower participation in programs to acquire and install high efficiency (*i.e.*, drip) irrigation systems.
- Operation of the PWD Russell Avenue Recirculation System which captures and recirculates drainage generated within the PWD.
- Continuing drainwater displacement projects such as road wetting for dust control.
- Continuing to develop, manage, and utilize 6,000 acres of regional reuse facilities where collected subsurface drainage is applied to salt tolerant crops under monitored and controlled conditions.
- Participating in well installation and pumping activities of the Westside Regional Drainage Plan to reduce downslope migrations or hydraulic pressure on lower lying lands.

B. Description of the Action Area

A biological assessment was not submitted for this project and a specific action area was not described in the September 22, 2010, initiation letter, nor the December 28, 2010, supplemental information memorandum. However, because the project description is assumed to be identical to the previous SLWD and PWD IRC 2009-2011 consultation, the Action Area is assumed to be identical to that described in Reclamation's biological assessment submitted to NMFS on June 26, 2008, and NMFS' corresponding SLWD and PWD IRC 2009-2011 BO dated, December 29, 2008 (2008/04445).

The action area is defined as all areas to be affected directly or indirectly by the Federal action and not merely the immediate area involved in the action (50 CFR § 402.02). The action area for the purposes of this biological opinion includes the waters of Mud Slough downstream from the San Luis Drain (which collects consolidated subsurface drainage of the GBP), and the San Joaquin River from the confluence of Mud Slough (*i.e.*, just upstream from the confluence of the Merced and San Joaquin rivers) through the southern Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta, which includes waterways southwest of the City of Stockton, including Old River and Middle River, down to the point where State and Federal pumping facilities divert a substantial portion of those waters to the California Aqueduct and the Delta-Mendota Canal, and thereby influence the direction of flow, at approximately the confluence with the Grant Line and Victoria canals,

respectively. Operation of the State and Federal pumps combined with tidal influence causes a reverse (*i.e.*, upstream) flow in the mainstem San Joaquin River from the Delta to approximately the confluence with Old River just below Mossdale. Therefore, the waters of Mud Slough enter the San Joaquin River and flow downstream to Old River where they converge with waters flowing upstream in the San Joaquin River from the Delta and entering Old River as well. This segment of the San Joaquin River and the associated waterways described above pass through portions of Merced, Stanislaus, and San Joaquin counties. The direct and indirect effects of the proposed project are anticipated to encompass the entire width of the river channel from levee to levee, along the entire length of the reach defined above. The scope and sensitivity of these impacts will be discussed in the effects analysis section of the opinion.

III. STATUS OF THE SPECIES AND CRITICAL HABITAT

The following federally listed species evolutionarily significant units (ESU) or distinct population segments (DPS) and designated critical habitat occur in the action area and may be affected by the proposed TBP:

Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon ESU (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*)
Listed as endangered (70 FR 37160, June 28, 2005)

Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU (*O. tshawytscha*)
Listed as threatened (70 FR 37160, June 28, 2005)

California Central Valley steelhead DPS (*O. mykiss*) (referred to as Central Valley steelhead throughout this biological opinion)
Listed as threatened (71 FR 834, January 5, 2006)

Central Valley steelhead designated critical habitat
(70 FR 52488, September 2, 2005)

Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon (*Acipenser medirostris*)
Listed as threatened (71 FR 17757, April 7, 2006)

Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon designated critical habitat (74 FR 52300, October 9, 2009)

A. Species and Critical Habitat Listing Status

NMFS has recently completed an updated status review of 16 salmon ESUs, including Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, and concluded that the species' status should remain as previously listed (70 FR 37160, June 28, 2005). On January 5, 2006, NMFS published a final listing determination for 10 steelhead DPSs, including Central Valley steelhead. The new listing concludes that Central Valley steelhead will remain listed as threatened (71 FR 834).

Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon were originally listed as threatened in an emergency interim rule, which was published on August 4, 1989 (54 FR 32085). A new emergency interim rule was published on April 2, 1990 (55 FR 12191). A final rule listing Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon as threatened was published on November 5, 1990 (55 FR 46515). The ESU consists of only one population that is confined to the upper Sacramento River in California's Central Valley. The ESU was reclassified as endangered on January 4, 1994 (59 FR 440), due to increased variability of run sizes, expected weak returns as a result of two small year classes in 1991 and 1993, and a 99 percent decline between 1966 and 1991. The Livingston Stone National Fish Hatchery (LSNFH) population has been included in the listed Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population (70 FR 37160, June 28, 2005). NMFS designated critical habitat for winter-run Chinook salmon on June 16, 1993 (58 FR 33212). Critical habitat was delineated as the Sacramento River from Keswick Dam at river mile (RM) 302 to Chipps Island (RM 0) at the westward margin of the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta (Delta), including Kimball Island, Winter Island, and Brown's Island; all waters from Chipps Island westward to the Carquinez Bridge, including Honker Bay, Grizzly Bay, Suisun Bay, and the Carquinez Strait; all waters of San Pablo Bay westward of the Carquinez Bridge, and all waters of San Francisco Bay north of the San Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge. Designated critical habitat for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon does not occur within the action area for the proposed SLWD and PWD IRC.

Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon were listed as threatened on September 16, 1999 (64 FR 50394). This ESU consists of spring-run Chinook salmon occurring in the Sacramento River basin. The Feather River Hatchery (FRH) spring-run Chinook salmon population has been included as part of the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU in the most recent modification of the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon listing status (70 FR 37160, June 28, 2005). Critical habitat was designated for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon on September 2, 2005 (70 FR 52488), but does not occur in the action area for the proposed SLWD and PWD IRC.

Central Valley steelhead were listed as threatened under the ESA on March 19, 1998 (63 FR 13347). This DPS consists of steelhead populations in the Sacramento and San Joaquin River (inclusive of and downstream of the Merced River) basins in California's Central Valley. The Coleman National Fish Hatchery and FRH steelhead populations have been included as part of the Central Valley steelhead DPS in the most recent modification of the Central Valley steelhead listing status (71 FR 834, January 5, 2006). These populations were previously included in the DPS but were not deemed essential for conservation and thus not part of the listed steelhead population. Critical habitat was designated for steelhead in the Central Valley on September 2, 2005 (70 FR 52488). Critical habitat includes the stream channels to the ordinary high water line within designated stream reaches such as those of the American, Feather, and Yuba Rivers, and Deer, Mill, Battle, Antelope, and Clear Creeks in the Sacramento River basin; the Calaveras, Mokelumne, Stanislaus, and Tuolumne Rivers in the San Joaquin River basin; and, the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers and Delta. Designated critical habitat for the Central Valley steelhead is found within the action area for the proposed SLWD and PWD IRC.

The Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon was listed as threatened on April 7, 2006 (71 FR 17757). The Southern DPS of green sturgeon presently contains only a single spawning population in the Sacramento River, and rearing individuals may occur within the action area. Critical habitat was designated for the Southern DPS of green sturgeon on October 9, 2009 (74 FR 52300). Critical habitat includes the stream channels and waterways in the Sacramento – San Joaquin River Delta to the ordinary high water line except for certain excluded areas. Critical habitat also includes the main stem Sacramento River upstream from the I Street Bridge to Keswick Dam, and the Feather River upstream to the fish barrier dam adjacent to the Feather River Fish Hatchery. Coastal Marine areas include waters out to a depth of 60 meters from Monterey Bay, California, to the Juan De Fuca Straits in Washington. Coastal estuaries designated as critical habitat include San Francisco Bay, Suisun Bay, San Pablo Bay, and the lower Columbia River estuary. Certain coastal bays and estuaries in California (Humboldt Bay), Oregon (Coos Bay, Winchester Bay, Yaquina Bay, and Nehalem Bay), and Washington (Willapa Bay and Grays Harbor) are also included as critical habitat for Southern DPS of green sturgeon. Critical habitat for the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon is found within the action area for the proposed SLWD and PWD IRC.

B. Species Life History and Population Dynamics

1. Chinook Salmon

a. *General Life History*

Chinook salmon exhibit two generalized freshwater life history types (Healey 1991). “Stream-type” Chinook salmon, enter freshwater months before spawning and reside in freshwater for a year or more following emergence, whereas “ocean-type” Chinook salmon spawn soon after entering freshwater and migrate to the ocean as fry or parr within their first year. Spring-run Chinook salmon exhibit a stream-type life history. Adults enter freshwater in the spring, hold over summer, spawn in fall, and the juveniles typically spend a year or more in freshwater before emigrating. Winter-run Chinook salmon are somewhat anomalous in that they have characteristics of both stream- and ocean-type races (Healey 1991). Adults enter freshwater in winter or early spring, and delay spawning until spring or early summer (stream-type). However, juvenile winter-run Chinook salmon migrate to sea after only 4 to 7 months of river life (ocean-type). Adequate instream flows and cool water temperatures are more critical for the survival of Chinook salmon exhibiting a stream-type life history due to over summering by adults and/or juveniles.

Chinook salmon typically mature between 2 and 6 years of age (Myers *et al.* 1998). Freshwater entry and spawning timing generally are thought to be related to local water temperature and flow regimes. Runs are designated on the basis of adult migration timing; however, distinct runs also differ in the degree of maturation at the time of river entry, thermal regime and flow characteristics of their spawning site, and the actual time of spawning (Myers *et al.* 1998). Both spring-run and winter-run Chinook salmon tend to enter freshwater as immature fish, migrate far upriver, and delay spawning for weeks or months. For comparison, fall-run Chinook salmon enter freshwater at an advanced stage of maturity, move rapidly to their spawning areas on the

mainstem or lower tributaries of the rivers, and spawn within a few days or weeks of freshwater entry (Healey 1991).

During their upstream migration, adult Chinook salmon require stream flows sufficient to provide olfactory and other orientation cues used to locate their natal streams. Adequate stream flows are necessary to allow adult passage to upstream holding habitat. The preferred temperature range for upstream migration is 38°F to 56°F (Bell 1991, CDFG 1998). Boles (1988) recommends water temperatures below 65°F for adult Chinook salmon migration, and Lindley *et al.* (2004) report that adult migration is blocked when temperatures reach 70°F, and that fish can become stressed as temperatures approach 70°F. Reclamation reports that spring-run Chinook salmon holding in upper watershed locations prefer water temperatures below 60°F; although salmon can tolerate temperatures up to 65°F before they experience an increased susceptibility to disease (Williams 2006).

Information on the migration rates of adult Chinook salmon in freshwater is scant and primarily comes from the Columbia River basin where information regarding migration behavior is needed to assess the effects of dams on travel times and passage (Matter *et al.* 2003). Keefer *et al.* (2004) found migration rates of Chinook salmon ranging from approximately 10 kilometers (km) per day to greater than 35 km per day and to be primarily correlated with date, and secondarily with discharge, year, and reach, in the Columbia River basin. Matter *et al.* (2003) documented migration rates of adult Chinook salmon ranging from 29 to 32 km per day in the Snake River. Adult Chinook salmon inserted with sonic tags and tracked throughout the Delta and lower Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers were observed exhibiting substantial upstream and downstream movement in a random fashion while on their upstream migration (California Bay-Delta Authority (CALFED 2001). Adult salmonids migrating upstream are assumed to make greater use of pool and mid-channel habitat than channel margins (Stillwater Sciences 2004), particularly larger salmon such as Chinook salmon, as described by Hughes (2004). Adults are thought to exhibit crepuscular behavior during their upstream migrations; meaning that they primarily are active during twilight hours. Recent hydroacoustic monitoring showed peak upstream movement of adult Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon in lower Mill Creek, a tributary to the Sacramento River, occurring in the 4-hour period before sunrise and again after sunset.

Spawning Chinook salmon require clean, loose gravel in swift, relatively shallow riffles or along the margins of deeper runs, and suitable water temperatures, depths, and velocities for redd construction and adequate oxygenation of incubating eggs. Chinook salmon spawning typically occurs in gravel beds that are located at the tails of holding pools (USFWS 1995a). The range of water depths and velocities in spawning beds that Chinook salmon find acceptable is very broad. The upper preferred water temperature for spawning Chinook salmon is 55°F to 57°F (Chambers 1956, Smith 1973, Bjornn and Reiser 1991, and Snider 2001).

Incubating eggs are vulnerable to adverse effects from floods, siltation, desiccation, disease, predation, poor gravel percolation, and poor water quality. Studies of Chinook salmon egg survival to hatching conducted by Shelton (1995) indicated 87 percent of fry emerged successfully from large gravel with adequate subgravel flow. The optimal water temperature for egg incubation ranges from 41°F to 56°F (44°F to 54°F [Rich 1997], 46°F to 56°F [NMFS 1997

Winter-run Chinook salmon Recovery Plan], and 41°F to 55.4°F [Moyle 2002]). A significant reduction in egg viability occurs at water temperatures above 57.5°F and total embryo mortality can occur at temperatures above 62°F (NMFS 1997). Alderdice and Velsen (1978) found that the upper and lower temperatures resulting in 50 percent pre-hatch mortality were 61°F and 37°F, respectively, when the incubation temperature was held constant. As water temperatures increase, the rate of embryo malformations also increases, as well as the susceptibility to fungus and bacterial infestations. The length of development for Chinook salmon embryos is dependent on the ambient water temperature surrounding the egg pocket in the redd. Colder water necessitates longer development times as metabolic processes are slowed. Within the appropriate water temperature range for embryo incubation, embryos hatch in 40 to 60 days, and the alevins (yolk-sac fry) remain in the gravel for an additional 4 to 6 weeks before emerging from the gravel.

During the 4 to 6 week period when alevins remain in the gravel, they utilize their yolk-sac to nourish their bodies. As their yolk-sac is depleted, fry begin to emerge from the gravel to begin exogenous feeding in their natal stream. The post-emergent fry disperse to the margins of their natal stream, seeking out shallow waters with slower currents, finer sediments, and bank cover such as overhanging and submerged vegetation, root wads, and fallen woody debris, and begin feeding on zooplankton, small insects, and other micro-crustaceans. As they switch from endogenous nourishment to exogenous feeding, the fry's yolk-sac is reabsorbed, and the belly suture closes over the former location of the yolk-sac (button-up fry). Fry typically range from 25 mm to 40 mm during this stage. Some fry may take up residence in their natal stream for several weeks to a year or more, while others actively migrate, or are displaced downstream by the stream's current. Once started downstream, fry may continue downstream to the estuary and rear, or may take up residence in river reaches along the way for a period of time ranging from weeks to a year (Healey 1991).

Rearing fry seek nearshore habitats containing beneficial aspects such as riparian vegetation and associated substrates important for providing aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates, predator avoidance, and slower velocities for resting (NMFS 1996a). The benefits of shallow water habitats for salmonid rearing also have recently been realized as shallow water habitat has been found to be more productive than the main river channels, supporting higher growth rates, partially due to higher prey consumption rates, as well as favorable environmental temperatures (Sommer *et al.* 2001).

When juvenile Chinook salmon reach a length of 50 mm to 57 mm, they move into deeper water with higher current velocities, but still seek shelter and velocity refugia to minimize energy expenditures. In the mainstems of larger rivers, juveniles tend to migrate along the margins and avoid the elevated water velocities found in the thalweg of the channel. When the channel of the river is greater than 9 to 10 feet in depth, juvenile salmon tend to inhabit the surface waters (Healey 1982). Migrational cues, such as increasing turbidity from runoff, increased flows, changes in day length, or intraspecific competition from other fish in their natal streams may spur outmigration of juveniles when they have reached the appropriate stage of maturation (Kjelson *et al.* 1982, Brandes and McLain 2001).

Similar to adult movement, juvenile salmonid downstream movement is primarily crepuscular. Martin *et al.* (2001) found that the daily migration of juveniles passing Red Bluff Diversion Dam (RBDD) is highest in the four hour period prior to sunrise. Juvenile Chinook salmon migration rates vary considerably presumably depending on the physiological stage of the juvenile and hydrologic conditions. Kjelson *et al.* (1982) found fry Chinook salmon to travel as fast as 30 km per day in the Sacramento River and Sommer *et al.* (2001) found rates ranging from approximately 0.5 miles up to more than 6 miles per day in the Yolo Bypass. As Chinook salmon begin the smoltification stage, they prefer to rear further downstream where ambient salinity is up to 1.5 to 2.5 parts per thousand (Healey 1980, Levy and Northcote 1981).

Fry and parr may rear within riverine or estuarine habitats of the Sacramento River, the Delta, and their tributaries. In addition, Central Valley Chinook salmon juveniles have been observed rearing in the lower reaches of non-natal tributaries and intermittent streams in the Sacramento Valley during the winter months (Maslin *et al.* 1997, Snider 2001). Within the Delta, juvenile Chinook salmon forage in shallow areas with protective cover, such as intertidal and subtidal mudflats, marshes, channels, and sloughs (McDonald 1960, Dunford 1975). Cladocerans, copepods, amphipods, and larvae of diptera, as well as small arachnids and ants are common prey items (Kjelson *et al.* 1982, Sommer *et al.* 2001, MacFarlane and Norton 2002). Shallow water habitats are more productive than the main river channels, supporting higher growth rates, partially due to higher prey consumption rates, as well as favorable environmental temperatures (Sommer *et al.* 2001). Optimal water temperatures for the growth of juvenile Chinook salmon in the Delta are between 54°F to 57°F (Brett 1952). In Suisun and San Pablo Bays water temperatures reach 54°F by February in a typical year. Other portions of the Delta (*i.e.*, south Delta and central Delta) can reach 70°F by February in a dry year. However, cooler temperatures are usually the norm until after the spring runoff has ended.

Within the estuarine habitat, juvenile Chinook salmon movements are dictated by the tidal cycles, following the rising tide into shallow water habitats from the deeper main channels, and returning to the main channels when the tide recedes (Levy and Northcote 1982, Levings 1982, Levings *et al.* 1986, Healey 1991). As juvenile Chinook salmon increase in length, they tend to school in the surface waters of the main and secondary channels and sloughs, following the tides into shallow water habitats to feed (Allen and Hassler 1986). In Suisun Marsh, Moyle *et al.* (1989) reported that Chinook salmon fry tend to remain close to the banks and vegetation, near protective cover, and in dead-end tidal channels. Kjelson *et al.* (1982) reported that juvenile Chinook salmon demonstrated a diel migration pattern, orienting themselves to nearshore cover and structure during the day, but moving into more open, offshore waters at night. The fish also distributed themselves vertically in relation to ambient light. During the night, juveniles were distributed randomly in the water column, but would school up during the day into the upper 3 meters of the water column. Available data indicates that juvenile Chinook salmon use Suisun Marsh extensively both as a migratory pathway and rearing area as they move downstream to the Pacific Ocean. Juvenile Chinook salmon were found to spend about 40 days migrating through the Delta to the mouth of San Francisco Bay and grew little in length or weight until they reached the Gulf of the Farallones (MacFarlane and Norton 2002). Based on the mainly ocean-type life history observed (*i.e.*, fall-run Chinook salmon) MacFarlane and Norton (2002) concluded that unlike other salmonid populations in the Pacific Northwest, Central Valley Chinook salmon show little estuarine dependence and may benefit from expedited ocean entry.

b. *Sacramento River Winter-Run Chinook Salmon*

The distribution of winter-run Chinook salmon spawning and rearing historically was limited to the upper Sacramento River and its tributaries, where spring-fed streams provided cold water throughout the summer, allowing for spawning, egg incubation, and rearing during the mid-summer period (Slater 1963, Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998). The construction of Shasta Dam in 1943 blocked access to all of these waters except Battle Creek, which has its own impediments to upstream migration (*i.e.*, the fish weir at the Coleman National Fish Hatchery and other small hydroelectric facilities situated upstream of the weir) (Moyle *et al.* 1989, NMFS 1997, 1998a,b). Approximately, 299 miles of historical tributary spawning habitat in the upper Sacramento River is now inaccessible to winter-run Chinook salmon. Yoshiyama *et al.* (2001) estimated that in 1938, the Upper Sacramento had a “potential spawning capacity” of 14,303 redds. Most components of the winter-run Chinook salmon life history (*e.g.*, spawning, incubation, freshwater rearing) have been compromised by the habitat blockage in the upper Sacramento River.

Adult winter-run Chinook salmon enter San Francisco Bay from November through June (Hallock and Fisher 1985) and migrate past the RBDD from mid-December through early August (NMFS 1997). The majority of the run passes RBDD from January through May, with the peak passage occurring in mid-March (Hallock and Fisher 1985). The timing of migration may vary somewhat due to changes in river flows, dam operations, and water year type (Table 1; Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998, Moyle 2002). Spawning occurs primarily from mid-April to mid-August, with the peak activity occurring in May and June in the Sacramento River reach between Keswick Dam and RBDD (Vogel and Marine 1991). The majority of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon spawners are 3 years old.

Table 1. The temporal occurrence of adult (a) and juvenile (b) Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon in the Sacramento River. Darker shades indicate months of greatest relative abundance.

a) Adult												
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Sac. River basin ¹												
Sac. River ²												
b) Juvenile												
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Sac. River @ Red Bluff ³												
Sac. River @ Red Bluff ²												
Sac. River @ Knights L. ⁴												
Lower Sac. River (seine) ⁵												
West Sac. River (trawl) ⁵												

Source: ¹Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998; Moyle 2002; ²Myers *et al.* 1998; ³Martin *et al.* 2001; ⁴Snider and Titus 2000;

⁵USFWS 2001a, b

Relative Abundance:  = High  = Medium  = Low

Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon fry begin to emerge from the gravel in late June to early July and continue through October (Fisher 1994). Emigration of juvenile Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon past RBDD may begin as early as mid July, typically peaks in September, and can continue through March in dry years (Vogel and Marine 1991, NMFS 1997). Juvenile Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon occur in the Delta primarily from November through early May based on data collected from trawls in the Sacramento River at West Sacramento (RM 57; USFWS 2001a,b). The timing of migration may vary somewhat due to changes in river flows, dam operations, and water year type. Winter-run Chinook salmon juveniles remain in the Delta until they reach a fork length of approximately 118 mm and are from 5 to 10 months of age, and then begin emigrating to the ocean as early as November and continue through May (Fisher 1994, Myers *et al.* 1998).

Historical Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population estimates, which included males and females, were as high as near 100,000 fish in the 1960s, but declined to under 200 fish in the 1990s (Good *et al.* 2005). Population estimates in 2003 (8,218), 2004 (7,869), 2005 (15,875) and 2006 (17,304) show a recent increase in the population size (CDFG GrandTab, March 2010) and a 4-year average of 12,316 (Table 2, Figure 1). The 2006 run was the highest since the 1994 listing. Abundance measures over the last decade suggest that the abundance was initially increasing (Good *et al.* 2005). However, escapement estimates for 2007, 2008, 2009, and 2010 show a precipitous decline in escapement numbers based on redd counts and carcass counts. Estimates place the adult escapement numbers for 2007 at 2,542 fish, 2,830 fish for

2008, and 4,658 fish for 2009 (CDFG Grand Tab 2011) and 1,596 fish for 2010 (NMFS 2011[JPE letter]).

Table 2. Winter-run Chinook salmon population estimates from RBDD counts (1986 to 2001) and carcass counts (2001 to 2006), and corresponding cohort replacement rates for the years since 1986 (CDFG Grand Tab March 2010).

Year	Population Estimate ^a	5-Year Moving Average of Population Estimate	Cohort Replacement Rate ^b	5-Year Moving Average of Cohort Replacement Rate	NMFS-Calculated Juvenile Production Estimate (JPE) ^c
1986	2596				
1987	2185				
1988	2878				
1989	696		0.27		
1990	430	1,757	0.20		
1991	211	1,280	0.07		40,100
1992	1240	1,091	1.78		273,100
1993	387	593	0.90	0.64	90,500
1994	186	491	0.88	0.77	74,500
1995	1297	664	1.05	0.94	338,107
1996	1337	889	3.45	1.61	165,069
1997	880	817	4.73	2.20	138,316
1998	2992	1,338	2.31	2.48	454,792
1999	3288	1,959	2.46	2.80	289,724
2000	1352	1,970	1.54	2.90	370,221
2001	8224	3,347	2.75	2.76	1,864,802
2002	7441	4,659	2.26	2.26	2,136,747
2003	8218	5,705	6.08	3.02	1,896,649
2004	7869	6,621	0.96	2.72	881,719
2005	15839	9,518	2.13	2.84	3,556,995
2006	17296	11,333	2.10	2.71	3,890,534
2007	2542	10,353	0.32	2.32	1,100,067
2008	2830	9,275	0.18	1.14	1,152,043
2009	4537 ^d	8,609	0.26	1.00	1,144,860 ^e
2010	1,596	5,760	0.63	0.70	332,012
median	2,542	1970	1.29	2.29	412,507

^a Population estimates were based on RBDD counts until 2001. Starting in 2001, population estimates were based on carcass surveys.

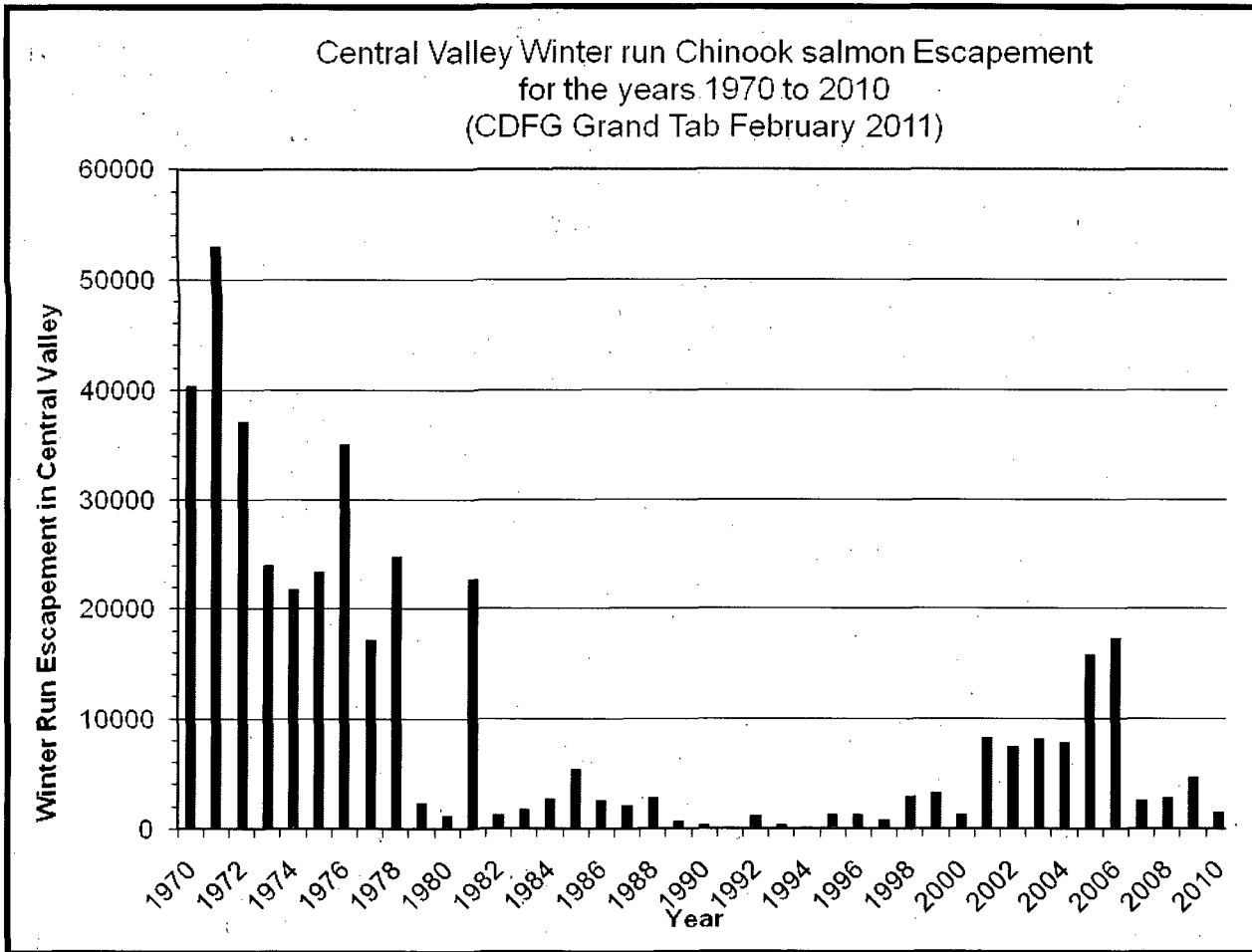
^b The majority of winter-run spawners are 3 years old. Therefore, NMFS calculated the CRR using spawning population of a given year, divided by the spawning population 3 years prior.

^c JPE estimates were derived from NMFS calculations utilizing RBDD winter-run counts through 2001, and carcass counts thereafter for deriving adult escapement numbers. Only estimated to RBDD, does not include survival to the Delta.

^dCDFG (2010)

^eNMFS (2010) preliminary estimate to Reclamation

Figure 1. Annual estimated Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon escapement population 1967 through 2010. Sources: CDFG 2011 (Grand Tab February 1, 2011).



Two current methods are utilized to estimate the juvenile production of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon: the Juvenile Production Estimate (JPE) method, and the Juvenile Production Index (JPI) method (Gaines and Poytress 2004). Gaines and Poytress (2004) estimated the juvenile population of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon exiting the upper Sacramento River at RBDD to be 3,707,916 juveniles per year using the JPI method between the years 1995 and 2003 (excluding 2000 and 2001). Using the JPE method, they estimated an average of 3,857,036 juveniles exiting the upper Sacramento River at RBDD between the years of 1996 and 2003. Averaging these two estimates yields an estimated population size of 3,782,476.

Based on the RBDD counts, the population has been growing rapidly since the 1990s with positive short-term trends (excluding the 2007 preliminary escapement numbers). An age-structured density-independent model of spawning escapement by Botsford and Brittnacker (1998 as referenced in Good *et al.* 2005) assessing the viability of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon found the species was certain to fall below the quasi-extinction threshold of 3

consecutive spawning runs with fewer than 50 females (Good *et al.* 2005). Lindley *et al.* (2004) assessed the viability of the population using a Bayesian model based on spawning escapement that allowed for density dependence and a change in population growth rate in response to conservation measures found a biologically significant expected quasi-extinction probability of 28 percent. Although the status of the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population appears to be improving, there is only one population, and it depends on cold-water releases from Shasta Dam, which could be vulnerable to a prolonged drought (Good *et al.* 2005). Recent population trends in the previous 4 years have indicated that the status of the winter-run Chinook salmon population may be changing as reflected in the diminished abundance during this period. The current winter-run Chinook salmon JPE for 2011 is only 332,012 fish entering the Delta, a substantial decline from the previous JPE values seen in the last decade.

Recently, Lindley *et al.* (2007) determined that the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population that spawns below Keswick Dam is at a moderate extinction risk according to population viability analysis (PVA), and at a low risk according to other criteria (*i.e.*, population size, population decline, and the risk of wide ranging catastrophe). However, concerns of genetic introgression with hatchery populations are increasing. Hatchery-origin winter-run Chinook salmon from LSNFH have made up more than 5 percent of the natural spawning run in recent years and in 2005, it exceeded 18 percent of the natural run. If the proportion of hatchery origin fish from the LSNFH exceeded 15 percent in 2006-2007, Lindley *et al.* (2007) recommended reclassifying the winter-run Chinook population extinction risk as moderate, rather than low, based on the impacts of the hatchery fish over multiple generations of spawners. However, since 2005, the percentage of hatchery fish recovered at the LSNFH has been consistently below 15 percent. Furthermore, Lindley's assessment in 2007 did not include the recent declines in adult escapement abundance which may modify the conclusion reached in 2007.

Lindley *et al.* (2007) also states that the winter-run Chinook salmon population fails the "representation and redundancy rule" because it has only one population, and that population spawns outside of the ecoregion in which it evolved. In order to satisfy the "representation and redundancy rule," at least two populations of winter-run Chinook salmon would have to be re-established in the basalt- and porous-lava region of its origin. An ESU represented by only one spawning population at moderate risk of extinction is at a high risk of extinction over an extended period of time (Lindley *et al.* 2007).

Viable Salmonid Population Summary for Sacramento River Winter-run Chinook Salmon

Abundance. During the first part of this decade, redd and carcass surveys as well as fish counts, suggested that the abundance of winter-run Chinook salmon was increasing since its listing. However, the depressed 2007, 2008, 2009, and 2010 abundance estimates are an exception to this trend and may represent a combination of a new cycle of poor ocean productivity (Lindley *et al.* 2009) and recent drought conditions in the Central Valley. Population growth is estimated to be positive in the short-term trend at 0.26; however, the long-term trend is negative, averaging -0.14. Recent winter-run Chinook salmon abundance represents only 3 percent of the maximum post-1967, 5-year geometric mean, and is not yet well established (Good *et al.* 2005). The current annual and five year averaged cohort replacement rates (CRR) are both below 1.0. The

annual CRR has been below 1.0 for the past four years and indicates that the winter-run population is not replacing itself.

Productivity. ESU productivity has been positive over the short term, and adult escapement and juvenile production had been increasing annually (Good *et al.* 2005) until recently, with declining escapement estimates for the years 2007 through 2010. However, the long-term trend for the ESU remains negative, as it consists of only one population that is subject to possible impacts from environmental and artificial conditions. The most recent CRR estimates suggest a reduction in productivity for the three separate cohorts.

Spatial Structure. The greatest risk factor for winter-run Chinook salmon lies with their spatial structure (Good *et al.* 2005). The remnant population cannot access historical winter-run Chinook salmon habitat and must be artificially maintained in the Sacramento River by a regulated, finite cold-water pool behind Shasta Dam. Winter-run Chinook salmon require cold water temperatures in summer that simulate their upper basin habitat, and they are more likely to be exposed to the impacts of drought in a lower basin environment. Battle Creek remains the most feasible opportunity for the ESU to expand its spatial structure, which currently is limited to the upper 25-mile reach of the mainstem Sacramento River below Keswick Dam. Based on Reasonable and Prudent Alternative actions described in the 2009 NMFS Operations BO, passage of winter-run Chinook salmon above Keswick and Shasta Dams is being considered as one of the actions. This would reintroduce winter-run Chinook salmon into regions they had historically occupied and significantly benefit the spatial structure of the ESU.

Diversity. The second highest risk factor for the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon ESU has been the detrimental effects on its diversity. The present winter-run Chinook salmon population has resulted from the introgression of several stocks that occurred when Shasta Dam blocked access to the upper watershed. A second genetic bottleneck occurred with the construction of Keswick Dam; and there may have been several others within the recent past (Good *et al.* 2005). Concerns of genetic introgression with hatchery populations are also increasing. Hatchery-origin winter-run Chinook salmon from LSNFH have made up more than 5 percent of the natural spawning run in recent years and in 2005, it exceeded 18 percent of the natural run. The average over the last 10 years (approximately 3 generations) has been 8 percent, still below the low-risk threshold for hatchery influence. Since 2005, the percentage of hatchery fish in the river has been consistently below 15 percent.

c. Central Valley Spring-Run Chinook Salmon

Historically the spring-run Chinook salmon were the second most abundant salmon run in the Central Valley (CDFG 1998). These fish occupied the upper and middle reaches (1,000 to 6,000 foot elevations) of the San Joaquin, American, Yuba, Feather, Sacramento, McCloud and Pit rivers, with smaller populations in most tributaries with sufficient habitat for over-summering adults (Stone 1874, Rutter 1904, Clark 1929). The Central Valley drainage as a whole is estimated to have supported spring-run Chinook salmon runs as large as 600,000 fish between the late 1880s and 1940s (CDFG 1998). Before the construction of Friant Dam, nearly 50,000 adults were counted in the San Joaquin River alone (Fry 1961). Construction of other low elevation dams in the foothills of the Sierras on the American, Mokelumne, Stanislaus,

Tuolumne, and Merced Rivers extirpated Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon from these watersheds. Naturally spawning populations of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon currently are restricted to accessible reaches of the upper Sacramento River, Antelope Creek, Battle Creek, Beegum Creek, Big Chico Creek, Butte Creek, Clear Creek, Deer Creek, Feather River, Mill Creek, and Yuba River (CDFG 1998).

Adult Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon leave the ocean to begin their upstream migration in late January and early February (CDFG 1998) and enter the Sacramento River between March and September, primarily in May and June (Table 3; Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998, Moyle 2002). Lindley *et al.* (2007) indicates adult Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon enter native tributaries from the Sacramento River primarily between mid April and mid June. Typically, spring-run Chinook salmon utilize mid- to high-elevation streams that provide appropriate temperatures and sufficient flow, cover, and pool depth to allow over-summering while conserving energy and allowing their gonadal tissue to mature (Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998). Spring-run Chinook salmon spawning occurs between September and October depending on water temperatures. Between 56 and 87 percent of adult spring-run Chinook salmon that enter the Sacramento River basin to spawn are 3 years old (Calkins *et al.* 1940, Fisher 1994).

Spring-run Chinook salmon fry emerge from the gravel from November to March (Moyle 2002) and the emigration timing is highly variable, as they may migrate downstream as young-of-the-year or as juveniles or yearlings. The modal size of fry migrants at approximately 40 mm between December and April in Mill, Butte, and Deer Creeks reflects a prolonged emergence of fry from the gravel (Lindley *et al.* 2007). Studies in Butte Creek (Ward *et al.* 2002, 2003, McReynolds *et al.* 2005) found the majority of spring-run Chinook salmon migrants to be fry occurring primarily during December, January, and February; and that these movements appeared to be influenced by flow. Small numbers of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon remained in Butte Creek to rear and migrated as yearlings during the following winter and spring. Juvenile emigration patterns in Mill and Deer Creeks are very similar to patterns observed in Butte Creek, with the exception that Mill and Deer Creek juveniles typically exhibit a later young-of-the-year migration and an earlier yearling migration (Lindley *et al.* 2007).

Once juveniles emerge from the gravel they initially seek areas of shallow water and low velocities while they finish absorbing the yolk sac and transition to exogenous feeding (Moyle 2002). Many also will disperse downstream during high-flow events. As is the case in other salmonids, there is a shift in microhabitat use by juveniles to deeper faster water as they grow larger. Microhabitat use can be influenced by the presence of predators which can force fish to select areas of heavy cover and suppress foraging in open areas (Moyle 2002). The emigration period for spring-run Chinook salmon extends from November to early May, with up to 69 percent of the young-of-the-year fish outmigrating through the lower Sacramento River and Delta during this period (CDFG 1998). Peak movement of juvenile Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon in the Sacramento River at Knights Landing occurs in December, and again in March and April. However, juveniles also are observed between November and the end of May (Snider and Titus 2000). Based on the available information, the emigration timing of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon appears highly variable (CDFG 1998). Some fish may begin emigrating soon after emergence from the gravel, whereas others over-summer and emigrate as yearlings with the onset of intense fall storms (CDFG 1998).

Table 3. The temporal occurrence of adult (a) and juvenile (b) Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon in the Sacramento River. Darker shades indicate months of greatest relative abundance.

(a) Adult												
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
^{1,2} Sac. River basin												
³ Sac. River												
⁴ Mill Creek												
⁴ Deer Creek												
⁴ Butte Creek												
(b) Juvenile												
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
⁵ Sac. River Tribs												
⁶ Upper Butte Creek												
⁴ Mill, Deer, Butte Creeks												
³ Sac. River at RBDD												
⁷ Sac. River at Knights Landing (KL)												

Source: ¹Yoshiyama *et al.* 1998; ²Moyle 2002; ³Myers *et al.* 1998; ⁴Lindley *et al.* 2007; ⁵CDFG 1998; ⁶McReynolds *et al.* 2005; Ward *et al.* 2002, 2003; ⁷Snider and Titus 2000

Relative Abundance:  = High  = Medium  = Low

On the Feather River, significant numbers of spring-run Chinook salmon, as identified by run timing, return to the FRH. In 2002, the FRH reported 4,189 returning spring-run Chinook salmon, which is 22 percent below the 10-year average of 4,727 fish. However, coded-wire tag (CWT) information from these hatchery returns indicates substantial introgression has occurred between fall-run and spring-run Chinook salmon populations within the Feather River system due to hatchery practices. Because Chinook salmon have not always been temporally separated in the hatchery, spring-run and fall-run Chinook salmon have been spawned together, thus compromising the genetic integrity of the spring-run Chinook salmon stock. The number of naturally spawning spring-run Chinook salmon in the Feather River has been estimated only periodically since the 1960s, with estimates ranging from 2 fish in 1978 to 2,908 fish in 1964. However, the genetic integrity of this population is questionable because of the significant temporal and spatial overlap between spawning populations of spring-run and fall-run Chinook salmon (Good *et al.* 2005). For the reasons discussed above, the Feather River spring-run Chinook population numbers are not included in the following discussion of ESU abundance.

The Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU has displayed broad fluctuations in adult abundance, ranging from 1,403 in 1993 to 24,903 in 1998 (Table 4, Figure 2). Sacramento River tributary populations in Mill, Deer, and Butte Creeks are probably the best trend indicators for the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU as a whole because these streams contain the

primary independent populations within the ESU. Generally, these streams have shown a positive escapement trend since 1991. Escapement numbers are dominated by Butte Creek returns, which have averaged over 7,000 fish since 1995. During this same period, adult returns on Mill Creek have averaged 778 fish, and 1,463 fish on Deer Creek. Although recent trends are positive, annual abundance estimates display a high level of fluctuation, and the overall number of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon remains well below estimates of historic abundance. Additionally, in 2002 and 2003, mean water temperatures in Butte Creek exceeded 21°C for 10 or more days in July (reviewed by Williams 2006). These persistent high water temperatures, coupled with high fish densities, precipitated an outbreak of Columnaris Disease (*Flexibacter columnaris*) and Ichthyophthiriasis (*Ichthyophthirius multifiliis*) in the adult spring-run Chinook salmon over-summering in Butte Creek. In 2002, this contributed to the pre-spawning mortality of approximately 20 to 30 percent of the adults. In 2003, approximately 65 percent of the adults succumbed, resulting in a loss of an estimated 11,231 adult spring-run Chinook salmon in Butte Creek.

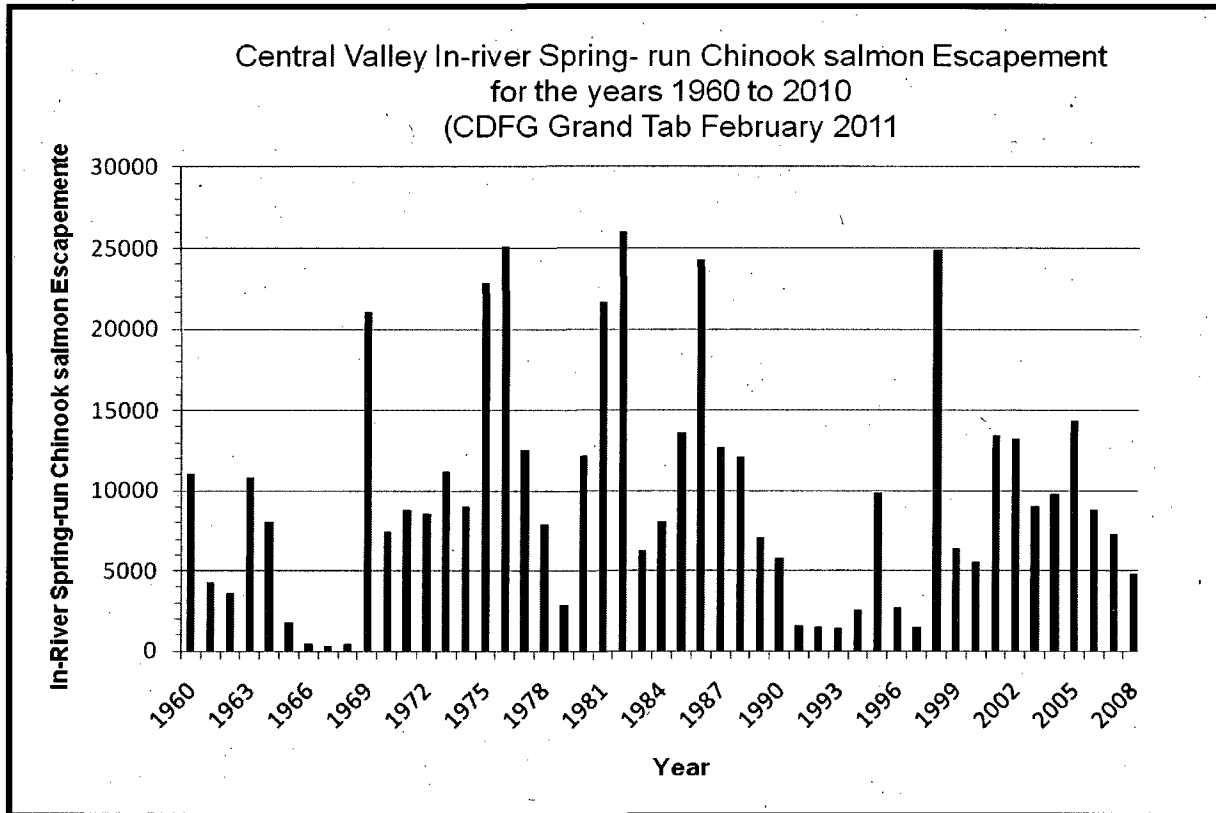
Table 4. Central Valley Spring-run Chinook salmon population estimates from CDFG Grand Tab (March 2010) with corresponding cohort replacement rates for years since 1986.

Year	Sacramento River Basin Escapement Run Size ^a	FRFH Population	Tributary Populations	5-Year Moving Average of Tributary Population Estimate	Trib CRR ^b	5-Year Moving Average of Trib CRR	5-Year Moving Average of Basin Population Estimate	Basin CRR	5-Year Moving Average of Basin CRR
1986	25696	1,433	24,263						
1987	13888	1,213	12,675						
1988	18933	6,833	12,100						
1989	12163	5,078	7,085		0.29			0.47	
1990	7683	1,893	5,790	12383	0.46		15673	0.55	
1991	5927	4,303	1,624	7855	0.13		11719	0.31	
1992	3044	1,497	1,547	5629	0.22		9550	0.25	
1993	6075	4,672	1,403	3490	0.24	0.27	6978	0.79	0.48
1994	6187	3,641	2,546	2582	1.57	0.52	5783	1.04	0.59
1995	15238	5,414	9,824	3389	6.35	1.70	7294	5.01	1.48
1996	9083	6,381	2,702	3604	1.93	2.06	7925	1.50	1.72
1997	5193	3,653	1,540	3603	0.60	2.14	8355	0.84	1.83
1998	31649	6,746	24,903	8303	2.53	2.60	13470	2.08	2.09
1999	10100	3,731	6,369	9068	2.36	2.75	14253	1.11	2.11
2000	9282	3,657	5,625	8228	3.65	2.22	13061	1.79	1.46
2001	17709	4,135	13,574	10402	0.55	1.94	14787	0.56	1.28
2002	17487	4,189	13,298	12754	2.09	2.24	17245	1.73	1.45
2003	17691	8,662	9,029	9579	1.61	2.05	14454	1.91	1.42
2004	14006	4,212	9,794	10264	0.72	1.72	15235	0.79	1.36
2005	16126	1,774	14,352	12009	1.08	1.21	16604	0.92	1.18
2006	10828	2,061	8,767	11048	0.97	1.29	15228	0.61	1.19
2007	9974	2,674	7,300	9848	0.75	1.02	13725	0.71	0.99
2008	6420	1,624	4,796	9002	0.33	0.77	11471	0.40	0.69
2009	3802	989	2,813	7606	0.32	0.69	9430	0.35	0.60
Median	10464	3694	7192.5	8652	0.75	1.72	13266	0.79	1.36

^a NMFS included both the escapement numbers from the Feather River Fish Hatchery (FRFH) and the Sacramento River and its tributaries in this table. Sacramento River Basin run size is the sum of the escapement numbers from the FRFH and the tributaries.

^b Abbreviations: CRR = Cohort Replacement Rate, Trib = tributary

Figure 2: Annual estimated Central Valley in-river spring-run Chinook salmon escapement population for the Sacramento River watershed for years 1960 through 2010 (CDFG Grand Tab 2011).



Lindley *et al.* (2007) indicated that the spring-run population of Chinook salmon in the Central Valley had a low risk of extinction in Butte and Deer Creek, according to their PVA model and the other population viability criteria (*i.e.*, population size, population decline, catastrophic events, and hatchery influence). The Mill Creek population of spring-run Chinook salmon is at moderate extinction risk according to the PVA model, but appears to satisfy the other viability criteria for low-risk status. However, like the winter-run Chinook salmon population, the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon population fails to meet the “representation and redundancy rule” since there is only one demonstrably viable population out of the three diversity groups that historically contained them. The spring-run population is only represented by the group that currently occurs in the northern Sierra Nevada. The spring-run Chinook salmon populations that formerly occurred in the basalt and porous-lava region and southern Sierra Nevada region have been extirpated. The northwestern California region contains a few ephemeral populations of spring-run Chinook salmon that are likely dependent on the Northern Sierra populations for their continued existence. Over the long term, these remaining populations are considered to be vulnerable to catastrophic events, such as volcanic eruptions from Mount Lassen or large forest fires due to the close proximity of their headwaters to each other. Drought is also considered to pose a significant threat to the viability of the spring-run Chinook salmon populations in these three watersheds due to their close proximity to each other. One large event could eliminate all three populations.

Viable Salmonid Population Summary for Central Valley Spring-Run Chinook Salmon

Abundance. Over the first half of the past decade, the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU has experienced a trend of increasing abundance in some natural populations, most dramatically in the Butte Creek population (Good *et al.* 2005). There has been more opportunistic utilization of migration-dependent streams overall. The FRH spring-run Chinook salmon stock has been included in the ESU based on its genetic linkage to the natural population and the potential development of a conservation strategy for the hatchery program. In contrast to the first half of the decade, the last 5 years of adult returns indicate that population abundance is declining from the peaks seen in the 5 years prior (2001 to 2005) for the entire Sacramento River basin. The recent declines in abundance place the Mill and Deer Creek populations in the high extinction risk category due to the rate of decline, and in the case of Deer Creek, also the level of escapement. Butte Creek has sufficient abundance to retain its low extinction risk classification, but the rate of population decline in the past several years is nearly sufficient to classify it as a high extinction risk based on this criteria. Some tributaries, such as Clear Creek and Battle Creek have seen population gains, but the overall abundance numbers are still low.

Productivity. The 5-year geometric mean for the extant Butte, Deer, and Mill Creek spring-run Chinook salmon populations ranges from 491 to 4,513 fish (Good *et al.* 2005), indicating increasing productivity over the short-term and was projected to likely continue into the future (Good *et al.* 2005). However, as mentioned in the previous paragraph, the last 5 years of adult escapement to these tributaries has seen a cumulative decline in fish numbers and the CRR has declined in concert with the population declines. The productivity of the Feather River and Yuba River populations and contribution to the Central Valley spring-run ESU currently is unknown.

Spatial Structure. Spring-run Chinook salmon presence has been reported more frequently in several upper Central Valley creeks, but the sustainability of these runs is unknown. Butte Creek spring-run Chinook salmon cohorts have recently utilized all currently available habitat in the creek; and it is unknown if individuals have opportunistically migrated to other systems. The spatial structure of the spring-run Chinook salmon ESU has been reduced with the extirpation of all San Joaquin River basin spring-run Chinook salmon populations. In the near future, an experimental population of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon will be reintroduced into the San Joaquin River below Friant Dam as part of the San Joaquin River Settlement Agreement. Its long term contribution to the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU is uncertain. The populations in Clear Creek and Battle Creek may add to the spatial structure of the Central Valley spring-run population if they can persist by colonizing waterways in the Basalt and Porous and Northwestern California Coastal Range diversity group areas.

Diversity. The Central Valley spring-run ESU is comprised of two genetic complexes. Analysis of natural and hatchery spring-run Chinook salmon stocks in the Central Valley indicates that the southern Cascades spring-run population complex (Mill, Deer, and Butte creeks) retains genetic integrity. The genetic integrity of the Sierra Nevada spring-run population complex has been somewhat compromised. The Feather River spring-run have introgressed with the fall-run, and it appears that the Yuba River population may have been impacted by FRH fish straying into the

Yuba River. Additionally, the diversity of the spring-run ESU has been further reduced with the loss of the San Joaquin River basin spring-run populations.

2. Central Valley Steelhead

Steelhead can be divided into two life history types, summer-run steelhead and winter-run steelhead, based on their state of sexual maturity at the time of river entry and the duration of their spawning migration, stream-maturing and ocean-maturing. Only winter-run steelhead currently are found in Central Valley rivers and streams (McEwan and Jackson 1996), although there are indications that summer-run steelhead were present in the Sacramento River system prior to the commencement of large-scale dam construction in the 1940s (Interagency Ecological Program (IEP) Steelhead Project Work Team 1999). At present, summer-run steelhead are found only in North Coast drainages, mostly in tributaries of the Eel, Klamath, and Trinity river systems (McEwan and Jackson 1996).

Central Valley steelhead generally leave the ocean from August through April (Busby *et al.* 1996), and spawn from December through April with peaks from January through March in small streams and tributaries where cool, well oxygenated water is available year-round (Hallock *et al.* 1961, McEwan and Jackson 1996; Table 5). Timing of upstream migration is correlated with higher flow events, such as freshets or sand bar breaches at river mouths, and associated lower water temperatures. Unlike Pacific salmon, steelhead are iteroparous, or capable of spawning more than once before death (Barnhart 1986, Busby *et al.* 1996). However, it is rare for steelhead to spawn more than twice before dying; most that do so are females (Busby *et al.* 1996). Iteroparity is more common among southern steelhead populations than northern populations (Busby *et al.* 1996). Although one-time spawners are the great majority, Shapovalov and Taft (1954) reported that repeat spawners are relatively numerous (17.2 percent) in California streams.

Table 5. The temporal occurrence of adult (a) and juvenile (b) Central Valley steelhead in the Central Valley. Darker shades indicate months of greatest relative abundance.

(a) Adult													
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	
^{1,3} Sac. River													
^{2,3} Sac R at Red Bluff													
⁴ Mill, Deer Creeks													
⁶ Sac R. at Fremont Weir													
⁶ Sac R. at Fremont Weir													
⁷ San Joaquin River													
(b) Juvenile													
Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	
^{1,2} Sacramento River													
^{2,8} Sac. R at Knights Land													
⁹ Sac. River @ KL													
¹⁰ Chippis Island (wild)													
⁸ Mossdale													
¹¹ Woodbridge Dam													
¹² Stan R. at Caswell													
¹³ Sac R. at Hood													

Source: ¹Hallock et al. 1961; ²McEwan 2001; ³USFWS unpublished data; ⁴CDFG 1995; ⁵Hallock et al. 1957; ⁶Bailey 1954; ⁷CDFG Steelhead Report Card Data; ⁸CDFG unpublished data; ⁹Snider and Titus 2000; ¹⁰Nobriga and Cadrett 2003; ¹¹Jones & Stokes Associates, Inc., 2002; ¹²S.P. Cramer and Associates, Inc. 2000 and 2001; ¹³Schaffter 1980, 1997.

Relative Abundance:  = High  = Medium  = Low

Spawning occurs during winter and spring months. The length of time it takes for eggs to hatch depends mostly on water temperature. Hatching of steelhead eggs in hatcheries takes about 30 days at 51 °F. Fry emerge from the gravel usually about 4 to 6 weeks after hatching, but factors such as redd depth, gravel size, siltation, and temperature can speed or retard this time (Shapovalov and Taft 1954). Newly emerged fry move to the shallow, protected areas associated with the stream margin (McEwan and Jackson 1996) and they soon move to other areas of the stream and establish feeding locations, which they defend (Shapovalov and Taft 1954).

Steelhead rearing during the summer takes place primarily in higher velocity areas in pools, although YOY also are abundant in glides and riffles. Productive steelhead habitat is characterized by complexity, primarily in the form of large and small woody debris. Cover is an important habitat component for juvenile steelhead both as velocity refugia and as a means of avoiding predation (Meehan and Bjornn 1991).

Juvenile steelhead emigrate episodically from natal streams during fall, winter, and spring high flows. Emigrating Central Valley steelhead use the lower reaches of the Sacramento River and the Delta for rearing and as a migration corridor to the ocean. Juvenile Central Valley steelhead feed mostly on drifting aquatic organisms and terrestrial insects and will also take active bottom invertebrates (Moyle 2002).

Some may utilize tidal marsh areas, non-tidal freshwater marshes, and other shallow water areas in the Delta as rearing areas for short periods prior to their final emigration to the sea. Hallock *et al.* (1961) found that juvenile steelhead in the Sacramento River basin migrate downstream during most months of the year, but the peak period of emigration occurred in the spring, with a much smaller peak in the fall. Nobriga and Cadrett (2003) also have verified these temporal findings based on analysis of captures at Chipps Island.

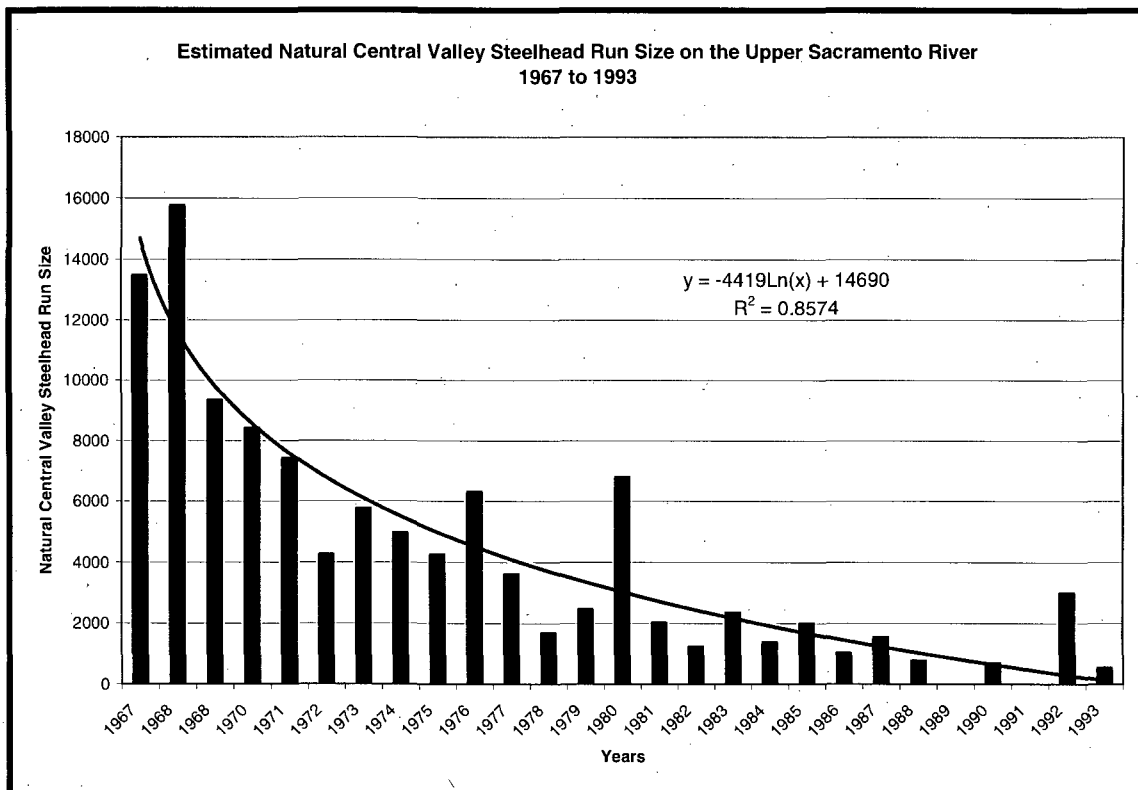
Historic Central Valley steelhead run sizes are difficult to estimate given the paucity of data, but may have approached 1 to 2 million adults annually (McEwan 2001). By the early 1960s the steelhead run size had declined to about 40,000 adults (McEwan 2001). Over the past 40 years, the naturally-spawned steelhead populations in the upper Sacramento River have declined substantially (Figure 3). Hallock *et al.* (1961) estimated an average of 20,540 adult steelhead through the 1960s in the Sacramento River, upstream of the Feather River. Steelhead counts at the RBDD declined from an average of 11,187 for the period of 1967 to 1977, to an average of approximately 2,000 through the early 1990s, with an estimated total annual run size for the entire Sacramento-San Joaquin system, based on RBDD counts, to be no more than 10,000 adults (McEwan and Jackson 1996, McEwan 2001). Steelhead escapement surveys at RBDD ended in 1993 due to changes in dam operations.

Figure 3:

Estimated Central Valley natural steelhead escapement population in the upper Sacramento River based on RBDD counts.

Source: McEwan and Jackson 1996.

Trendline for Figure 3 is a logarithmic function: $Y = -4419 \ln(x) + 14690$ $R^2 = 0.8574$



Note: Steelhead escapement surveys at RBDD ended in 1993

Nobriga and Cadrett (2003) compared CWT and untagged (wild) steelhead smolt catch ratios at Chipps Island trawl from 1998 through 2001 to estimate that about 100,000 to 300,000 steelhead juveniles are produced naturally each year in the Central Valley. In the *Updated Status Review of West Coast Salmon and Steelhead* (Good *et al.* 2005), the Biological Review Team (BRT) made the following conclusion based on the Chipps Island data:

"If we make the fairly generous assumptions (in the sense of generating large estimates of spawners) that average fecundity is 5,000 eggs per female, 1 percent of eggs survive to reach Chipps Island, and 181,000 smolts are produced (the 1998-2000 average), about 3,628 female steelhead spawn naturally in the entire Central Valley. This can be compared with McEwan's (2001) estimate of 1 million to 2 million spawners before 1850, and 40,000 spawners in the 1960s".

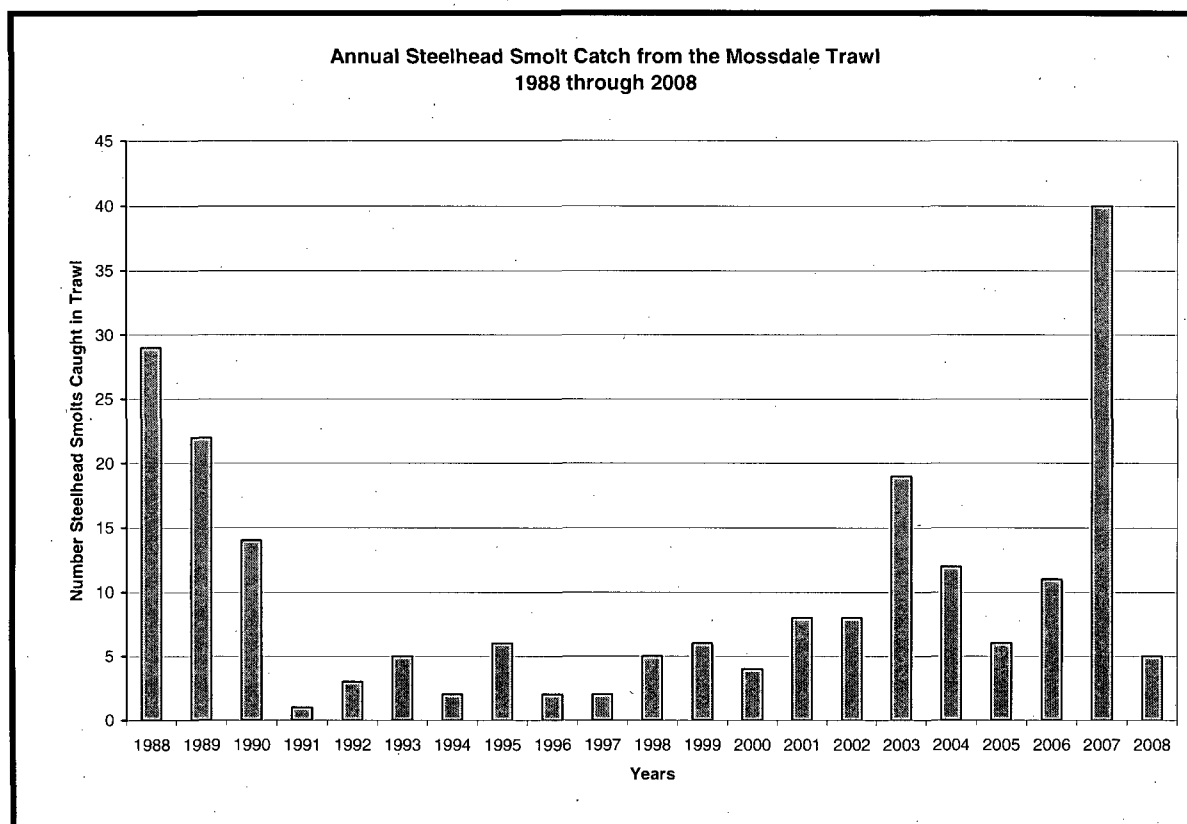
Existing wild steelhead stocks in the Central Valley are mostly confined to the upper Sacramento River and its tributaries, including Antelope, Deer, and Mill creeks and the Yuba River. Populations may exist in Big Chico and Butte creeks and a few wild steelhead are produced in the American and Feather rivers (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Recent snorkel surveys (1999 to

2002) indicate that steelhead are present in Clear Creek (J. Newton, USFWS, pers. comm. 2002, as reported in Good *et al.* 2005). Because of the large resident *O. mykiss* population in Clear Creek, steelhead spawner abundance has not been estimated.

Until recently, Central Valley steelhead were thought to be extirpated from the San Joaquin River system. Recent monitoring has detected small self-sustaining populations of steelhead in the Stanislaus, Mokelumne, and Calaveras rivers, and other streams previously thought to be devoid of steelhead (McEwan 2001). On the Stanislaus River, steelhead smolts have been captured in rotary screw traps at Caswell State Park and Oakdale each year since 1995 (S.P. Cramer and Associates Inc. 2000, 2001). Zimmerman *et al.* (2008) has documented Central Valley steelhead in the Stanislaus, Tuolumne, and Merced rivers based on otolith microchemistry.

It is possible that naturally-spawning populations exist in other streams but are undetected due to lack of monitoring programs (IEP Steelhead Project Work Team 1999). Incidental catches and observations of steelhead juveniles also have occurred on the Tuolumne and Merced rivers during fall-run Chinook salmon monitoring activities, indicating that steelhead are widespread throughout accessible streams and rivers in the Central Valley (Good *et al.* 2005). California Department of Fish and Game staff have prepared catch summaries for juvenile migrant Central Valley steelhead on the San Joaquin River near Mossdale which represents migrants from the Stanislaus, Tuolumne, and Merced rivers. Based on trawl recoveries at Mossdale between 1988 and 2002, as well as rotary screw trap efforts in all three tributaries, CDFG staff stated that it is "clear from this data that rainbow trout do occur in all the tributaries as migrants and that the vast majority of them occur on the Stanislaus River" (Letter from Dean Marston, CDFG, to Michael Aceituno, NMFS, 2004). The documented returns on the order of single fish in these tributaries suggest that existing populations of Central Valley steelhead on the Tuolumne, Merced, and lower San Joaquin rivers are severely depressed (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Annual number of Central Valley steelhead smolts caught while Kodiak trawling at the Mossdale monitoring location on the San Joaquin River (Marston 2004, SJRG 2007, Jonathan Speegle, USFWS 2008, personal communication).



Lindley *et al.* (2006a) indicated that prior population census estimates completed in the 1990s found the Central Valley steelhead spawning population above RBDD had a fairly strong negative population growth rate and small population size. Good *et al.* (2005) indicated the decline was continuing as evidenced by new information (Chippis Island trawl data). Central Valley steelhead populations generally show a continuing decline, an overall low abundance, and fluctuating return rates.

Viable Salmonid Population Summary for Central Valley Steelhead

Abundance. All indications are that natural Central Valley steelhead have continued to decrease in abundance and in the proportion of natural fish over the past 25 years (Good *et al.* 2005); the long-term trend remains negative. There has been little steelhead population monitoring, despite 100 percent marking of hatchery steelhead since 1998. Hatchery production and returns are dominant over natural fish and include significant numbers of non-DPS-origin Eel River steelhead stock. Continued decline in the ratio between wild juvenile steelhead to hatchery juvenile steelhead in fish monitoring efforts indicates that the wild population abundance is declining. Hatchery releases (100 percent adipose fin clipped fish since 1998) have remained relatively constant over the past decade, yet the proportion of adclipped fish to wild adipose fin bearing fish has steadily increased over the past several years.

Productivity. An estimated 100,000 to 300,000 natural juvenile steelhead are estimated to leave the Central Valley annually, based on rough calculations from sporadic catches in trawl gear (Good *et al.* 2005). Concurrently, one million in-DPS hatchery steelhead smolts and another half million out-of-DPS hatchery steelhead smolts are released annually in the Central Valley. The estimated ratio of nonclipped to clipped steelhead has decreased from 0.3 percent to less than 0.1 percent, with a net decrease to one-third of wild female spawners from 1998 to 2000 (Good *et al.* 2005). Recent data from the Chipps Island fish monitoring trawls indicates that in recent years over 90 percent of captured steelhead smolts have been of hatchery origin. In 2010, the data indicated hatchery fish made up 95 percent of the catch.

Spatial Structure. Steelhead appear to be well-distributed where found throughout the Central Valley (Good *et al.* 2005). Until recently, there was very little documented evidence of steelhead due to the lack of monitoring efforts. Since 2000, steelhead have been confirmed in the Stanislaus and Calaveras rivers. The efforts to provide passage of salmonids over impassable dams may increase the spatial diversity of Central Valley steelhead populations if the passage programs are implemented for steelhead.

Diversity. Analysis of natural and hatchery steelhead stocks in the Central Valley reveal genetic structure remaining in the DPS (Nielsen *et al.* 2003). There appears to be a great amount of gene flow among upper Sacramento River basin stocks, due to the post-dam, lower basin distribution of steelhead and management of stocks. Recent reductions in natural population sizes have created genetic bottlenecks in several Central Valley steelhead stocks (Good *et al.* 2005; Nielsen *et al.* 2003). The out-of-basin steelhead stocks of the Nimbus and Mokelumne River hatcheries are not included in the Central Valley steelhead DPS.

3. Southern Distinct Population Segment of North American Green Sturgeon

North American green sturgeon have morphological characteristics of both cartilaginous fish and bony fish. They have some morphological traits similar to sharks, such as a cartilaginous skeleton, heterocercal caudal fin, spiracles, spiral valve intestine, electro-sensory pores on its snout and an enlarged liver. However, like more modern teleosts, North American green sturgeon have five gill arches contained within one branchial chamber, covered by one opercular plate and a functional swim bladder for bouyancy control. Adult green sturgeon have a maximum fork length of 2.3 meters and 159 kg body weight (Miller and Lee 1972, Moyle *et al.* 1992). Green sturgeon can live at least 60 years, based on data from the Klamath River (Emmett *et al.* 1991).

The green sturgeon is the most widely distributed of the *acipenseridae*. They are amphi-Pacific and circumboreal, ranging from the inshore waters of Baja California northwards to the Bering Sea (Moyle 2002). Although widely distributed, they are not very abundant in comparison to the sympatric white sturgeon (*Acipenser transmontanus*). Similar species occur in northern Asiatic river systems and their relatedness to green sturgeon has been discussed in Artyukhin *et al.* (2007).

In North America, spawning populations of green sturgeon are currently found in only three river systems: the Sacramento and Klamath rivers in California and the Rogue River in southern Oregon. Green sturgeon are known to range from Baja California to the Bering Sea along the North American continental shelf. Data from commercial trawl fisheries and tagging studies indicate that the green sturgeon occupy waters within the 110 meter contour (Erickson and Hightower 2007). During the late summer and early fall, subadults and nonspawning adult green sturgeon frequently can be found aggregating in estuaries along the Pacific coast (Emmett *et al.* 1991, Moser and Lindley 2007). Particularly large concentrations of green sturgeon from both the northern and southern populations occur in the Columbia River estuary, Willapa Bay, Grays Harbor and Winchester Bay, with smaller aggregations in Humboldt Bay, Tillamook Bay, Nehalem Bay, and San Francisco and San Pablo Bays (Emmett *et al.* 1991, Moyle *et al.* 1992, and Beamesderfer *et al.* 2007). Lindley *et al.* (2008) reported that green sturgeon make seasonal migratory movements along the west coast of North America, overwintering north of Vancouver Island and south of Cape Spencer, Alaska. Individual fish from the Southern DPS of green sturgeon have been detected in these seasonal aggregations. Information regarding the migration and habitat use of the Southern DPS of green sturgeon has recently emerged. Lindley (2006b) presented preliminary results of large-scale green sturgeon migration studies, and verified past population structure delineations based on genetic work and found frequent large-scale migrations of green sturgeon along the Pacific Coast. This work was further expanded by recent tagging studies of green sturgeon conducted by Erickson and Hightower (2007) and Lindley *et al.* (2008). To date, the data indicates that North American green sturgeon are migrating considerable distances up the Pacific Coast into other estuaries, particularly the Columbia River estuary. This information also agrees with the results of previous green sturgeon tagging studies (CDFG 2002), where CDFG tagged a total of 233 green sturgeon in the San Pablo Bay estuary between 1954 and 2001. A total of 17 tagged fish were recovered: 3 in the Sacramento-San Joaquin Estuary, 2 in the Pacific Ocean off of California, and 12 from commercial fisheries off of the Oregon and Washington coasts. Eight of the 12 recoveries were in the Columbia River estuary (CDFG 2002).

The Southern DPS of green sturgeon includes all green sturgeon populations south of the Eel River, with the only known spawning population being in the Sacramento River. Green sturgeon life history can be broken down into four main stages: eggs and larvae, juveniles, sub-adults, and sexually mature adults. Sexually mature adults are those fish that have fully developed gonads and are capable of spawning. Female green sturgeon are typically 13 to 27 years old when sexually mature and have a total body length (TL) ranging between 145 cm and 205 cm at sexual maturity (Nakamoto *et al.* 1995, Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2006). Male green sturgeon become sexually mature at a younger age and smaller size than females. Typically, male green sturgeon reach sexual maturity between 8 and 18 years of age and have a TL ranging between 120 cm to 185 cm (Nakamoto *et al.* 1995, Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2006). The variation in the size and age of fish upon reaching sexual maturity is a reflection of their growth and nutritional history, genetics, and the environmental conditions they were exposed to during their early growth years. Adult green sturgeon are believed to feed primarily upon benthic invertebrates such as clams, mysid shrimp, grass shrimp, and amphipods (Radtke 1966). Adult sturgeon caught in Washington state waters were found to have fed on Pacific sand lance (*Ammodytes hexapterus*) and callinassid shrimp (Moyle *et al.* 1992). It is unknown what forage species are consumed by adults in the Sacramento River upstream of the Delta.

Adult green sturgeon are gonochoristic (sex genetically fixed), oviparous and iteroparous. They are believed to spawn every 2 to 5 years (Beamesderfer *et al.* 2007). Upon maturation of their gonadal tissue, but prior to ovulation or spermiation, the sexually mature fish enter freshwater and migrate upriver to their spawning grounds. The remainder of the adult's life is generally spent in the ocean or near-shore environment (bays and estuaries) without venturing upriver into freshwater. Younger females may not spawn the first time they undergo oogenesis and subsequently they reabsorb their gametes without spawning. Adult female green sturgeon produce between 60,000 and 140,000 eggs, depending on body size, with a mean egg diameter of 4.3 mm (Moyle *et al.* 1992, Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2001). They have the largest egg size of any sturgeon, and the volume of yolk ensures an ample supply of energy for the developing embryo. The outside of the eggs are adhesive, and are more dense than those of white sturgeon (Kynard *et al.* 2005, Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2009). Adults begin their upstream spawning migrations into freshwater in late February with spawning occurring between March and July (CDFG 2002, Heublin 2006, Heublin *et al.* 2009, Vogel 2008). Peak spawning is believed to occur between April and June in deep, turbulent, mainstem channels over large cobble and rocky substrates with crevices and interstices. Females broadcast spawn their eggs over this substrate, while the male releases its milt (sperm) into the water column. Fertilization occurs externally in the water column and the fertilized eggs sink into the interstices of the substrate where they develop further (Kynard *et al.* 2005, Heublin *et al.* 2009).

Known historic and current spawning occurs in the Sacramento River (Adams *et al.* 2002, Beamesderfer *et al.* 2004, Adams *et al.* 2007). Currently, Keswick and Shasta dams on the mainstem of the Sacramento River block passage to the upper river. Although no historical accounts exist for identified green sturgeon spawning occurring above the current dam sites, suitable spawning habitat existed and the geographic extent of spawning has been reduced due to the impassable barriers constructed on the river.

Spawning on the Feather River is suspected to have occurred in the past due to the continued presence of adult green sturgeon in the river below Oroville Dam. This continued presence of adults below the dam suggests that fish are trying to migrate to upstream spawning areas now blocked by the dam, which was constructed in 1968.

Spawning in the San Joaquin River system has not been recorded historically or observed recently, but alterations of the San Joaquin River and its tributaries (Stanislaus, Tuolumne, and Merced rivers) occurred early in the European settlement of the region. During the latter half of the 1800s, impassable barriers were built on these tributaries where the water courses left the foothills and entered the valley floor. Therefore, these low elevation dams have blocked potentially suitable spawning habitats located further upstream for approximately a century. Additional destruction of riparian and stream channel habitat by industrialized gold dredging further disturbed any valley floor habitat that was still available for sturgeon spawning. Additional impacts to the watershed include the increased loads of selenium entering the system through agricultural practices in the western side of the San Joaquin Valley. Green sturgeon have recently been identified by UC Davis researchers as being highly sensitive to selenium levels. Currently, only white sturgeon have been encountered in the San Joaquin River system upstream of the Delta, and adults have been captured by sport anglers as far upstream on the San

Joaquin River as Hills Ferry and Mud Slough which are near the confluence of the Merced River with the mainstem San Joaquin River (2007 sturgeon report card - CDFG 2008b)

Kelly *et al.* (2007) indicated that green sturgeon enter the San Francisco Estuary during the spring and remain until autumn (Table 6 in text below). The authors studied the movement of adults in the San Francisco Estuary and found them to make significant long-distance movements with distinct directionality. The movements were not found to be related to salinity, current, or temperature, and Kelly *et al.* (2007) surmised that they are related to resource availability and foraging behavior. Recent acoustical tagging studies on the Rogue River (Erickson *et al.* 2002) have shown that adult green sturgeon will hold for as much as 6 months in deep (> 5m), low gradient reaches or off channel sloughs or coves of the river during summer months when water temperatures were between 15°C and 23°C. When ambient temperatures in the river dropped in autumn and early winter (<10°C) and flows increased, fish moved downstream and into the ocean. Erickson *et al.* (2002) surmised that this holding in deep pools was to conserve energy and utilize abundant food resources. Benson *et al.* (2007) found similar behavior on the Klamath and Trinity River systems with adult sturgeon acoustically tagged during their spawning migrations. Most fish held over the summer in discrete locations characterized by deep, low velocity pools until late fall or early winter when river flows increased with the first storms of the rainy season. Fish then moved rapidly downstream and out of the system. Recent data gathered from acoustically tagged adult green sturgeon revealed comparable behavior by adult fish on the Sacramento River based on the positioning of adult green sturgeon in holding pools on the Sacramento River above the Glenn Colusa Irrigation District (GCID) diversion (RM 205). Studies by Heublin (2006, 2009) and Vogel (2008) have documented the presence of adults in the Sacramento River during the spring and through the fall into the early winter months. These fish hold in upstream locations prior to their emigration from the system later in the year. Like the Rogue and Klamath river systems, downstream migration appears to be triggered by increased flows, decreasing water temperatures, and occurs rapidly once initiated. It should also be noted that some adults rapidly leave the system following their suspected spawning activity and reenter the ocean only in early summer (Heublin 2006). This behavior has also been observed on the other spawning rivers (Benson *et al.* 2007) but may have been an artifact of the stress of the tagging procedure in that study.

Eggs and Larvae. Currently spawning appears to occur primarily above RBDD, based on the recovery of eggs and larvae at the dam in monitoring studies (Gaines and Martin 2002, Brown 2007). Green sturgeon larvae hatch from fertilized eggs after approximately 169 hours at a water temperature of 59°F (Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2001, Deng *et al.* 2002), which is similar to the sympatric white sturgeon development rate (176 hours). Studies conducted at the University of California, Davis by Van Eenennaam *et al.* (2005) indicated that an optimum range of water temperature for egg development ranged between 57.2°F and 62.6°F. Temperatures over 23 °C resulted in 100 percent mortality of fertilized eggs before hatching. Eggs incubated at water temperatures between 63.5°F and 71.6°F resulted in elevated mortalities and an increased occurrence of morphological abnormalities in those eggs that did hatch. At incubation temperatures below 57.2°F, hatching mortality also increased significantly, and morphological abnormalities increased slightly, but not statistically so.

Newly hatched green sturgeon are approximately 12.5 mm to 14.5 mm in length and have a large ovoid yolk sac that supplies nutritional energy until exogenous feeding occurs. These yolk sac larvae are less developed in their morphology than older juveniles and external morphology resembles a “tadpole” with a continuous fin fold on both the dorsal and ventral sides of the caudal trunk. The eyes are well developed with differentiated lenses and pigmentation.

Olfactory and auditory vesicles are present while the mouth and respiratory structures are only shallow clefts on the head. At 10 days of age, the yolk sac has become greatly reduced in size and the larvae initiates exogenous feeding through a functional mouth. The fin folds have become more developed and formation of fin rays begins to occur in all fin tissues. By 45 days of age, the green sturgeon larvae have completed their metamorphosis, which is characterized by the development of dorsal, lateral, and ventral scutes, elongation of the barbels, rostrum, and caudal peduncle, reabsorption of the caudal and ventral fin folds, and the development of fin rays. The juvenile fish resembles the adult form, including the dark olive coloring, with a dark mid-ventral stripe (Deng *et al.* 2002) and are approximately 75 mm TL. At this stage of development, the fish are considered juveniles and are no longer larvae.

Green sturgeon larvae do not exhibit the initial pelagic swim-up behavior characteristic of other *acipenseridae*. They are strongly oriented to the bottom and exhibit nocturnal activity patterns. After 6 days, the larvae exhibit nocturnal swim-up activity (Deng *et al.* 2002) and nocturnal downstream migrational movements (Kynard *et al.* 2005). Juvenile fish continue to exhibit nocturnal behavioral beyond the metamorphosis from larvae to juvenile stages. Kynard *et al.*'s (2005) laboratory studies indicated that juvenile fish continued to migrate downstream at night for the first 6 months of life. When ambient water temperatures reached 46.4°F, downstream migrational behavior diminished and holding behavior increased. This data suggests that 9 to 10 month old fish would hold over in their natal rivers during the ensuing winter following hatching, but at a location downstream of their spawning grounds.

Green sturgeon juveniles tested under laboratory conditions had optimal bioenergetic performance (*i.e.* growth, food conversion, swimming ability) between 59°F and 66.2°F under either full or reduced rations (Mayfield and Cech 2004). This temperature range overlaps the egg incubation temperature range for peak hatching success previously discussed. Ambient water temperature conditions in the Rogue and Klamath River systems range from 39°F to approximately 75.2°F. The Sacramento River has similar temperature profiles, and, like the previous two rivers, is a regulated system with several dams controlling flows on its mainstem (Shasta and Keswick dams), and its tributaries (Whiskeytown, Oroville, Folsom, and Nimbus dams).

Larval and juvenile green sturgeon are subject to predation by both native and introduced fish species. Prickly sculpin (*Cottus asper*) have been shown to be an effective predator on the larvae of sympatric white sturgeon (Gadomski and Parsley 2005). This study also indicated that the lowered turbidity found in tailwater streams and rivers due to dams increased the effectiveness of sculpin predation on sturgeon larvae under laboratory conditions.

Larval and juvenile sturgeons have been caught in traps at two sites in the upper Sacramento River: below the RBDD (RM 243) and from the GCID pumping plant (RM 205) (CDFG 2002).

Larvae captured at the RBDD site are typically only a few days to a few weeks old, with lengths ranging from 24 mm to 31 mm. This body length is equivalent to 15 to 28 days post hatch as determined by Deng *et al.* (2002). Recoveries of larvae at the RBDD rotary screw traps (RSTs) occur between late April/early May and late August with the peak of recoveries occurring in June (1995-1999 and 2003-2008 data). The mean yearly total length of post-larval green sturgeon captured in the GCID rotary screw trap, approximately 30 miles downstream of RBDD, ranged from 33 mm to 44 mm between 1997 and 2005 (CDFG 2002) indicating they are approximately 3-4 weeks old (Van Eenennaam *et al.* 2001, Deng *et al.* 2002). Taken together, the average length of larvae captured at the two monitoring sites indicate that fish were hatched upriver of the monitoring site and drifted downstream over the course of 2 to 4 weeks of growth. According to the CDFG document commenting on the NMFS proposal to list the southern DPS of green sturgeon (CDFG 2002), some green sturgeon rear to larger sizes above RBDD, or move back to this location after spending time downstream. Two sturgeon between 180 and 400 mm TL were captured in the rotary-screw trap during 1999 and green sturgeon within this size range have been impinged on diffuser screens associated with a fish ladder at RBDD (K. Brown, USFWS, pers. comm. as cited in CDFG 2002).

Table 6. The temporal occurrence of (a) adult, (b) larval (c) juvenile and (d) subadult coastal migrant Southern DPS of green sturgeon. Locations emphasize the Central Valley of California. Darker shades indicate months of greatest relative abundance.

(a) Adult-sexually mature (≥ 145 – 205 cm TL for females and ≥ 120 – 185 cm TL old for males)

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Upper Sac. River ^{a,b,c,i}	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
SF Bay Estuary ^{d,h,i}	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

(b) Larval and juvenile (≤ 10 months old)

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
RBDD, Sac River ^c					■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
GCID, Sac River ^c					■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

(c) Older Juvenile (> 10 months old and ≤ 3 years old)

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
South Delta ^{*f}	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Sac-SJ Delta ^f	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Sac-SJ Delta ^e												
Suisun Bay ^e	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

(d) Sub-Adult/non-sexually mature (approx. 75 cm to 145 cm for females and 75 to 120 cm for males)

Location	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Pacific Coast ^{c,g}	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

Relative Abundance: ■ = High ■ = Medium ■ = Low

* Fish Facility salvage operations

Sources: ^aUSFWS (2002); ^bMoyle *et al.* (1992); ^cAdams *et al.* (2002) and NMFS (2005a); ^dKelly *et al.* (2007); ^eCDFG (2002); ^fIEP Relational Database, fall midwater trawl green sturgeon captures from 1969 to 2003; ^gNakamoto *et al.* (1995); ^hHeublein (2006); ⁱCDFG Draft Sturgeon Report Card (2008b)

Juvenile green sturgeon have been salvaged at the Harvey O. Banks Pumping Plant and the John E. Skinner Fish Collection Facility (Fish Facilities) in the south Delta, and captured in trawling studies by CDFG during all months of the year (CDFG 2002). The majority of these fish were between 200 mm and 500 mm, indicating they were from 2 to 3 years of age based on Klamath River age distribution work by Nakamoto *et al.* (1995). The lack of a significant proportion of juveniles smaller than approximately 200 mm in Delta captures indicates that juveniles of the Southern DPS of green sturgeon likely hold in the mainstem Sacramento River, as suggested by Kynard *et al.* (2005).

Population abundance information concerning the Southern DPS green sturgeon is described in the NMFS status reviews (Adams *et al.* 2002, NMFS 2005a). Limited population abundance information comes from incidental captures of North American green sturgeon from the white sturgeon monitoring program by the CDFG sturgeon tagging program (CDFG 2002). By comparing ratios of white sturgeon to green sturgeon captures, CDFG provides estimates of adult and sub-adult North American green sturgeon abundance. Estimated abundance between 1954

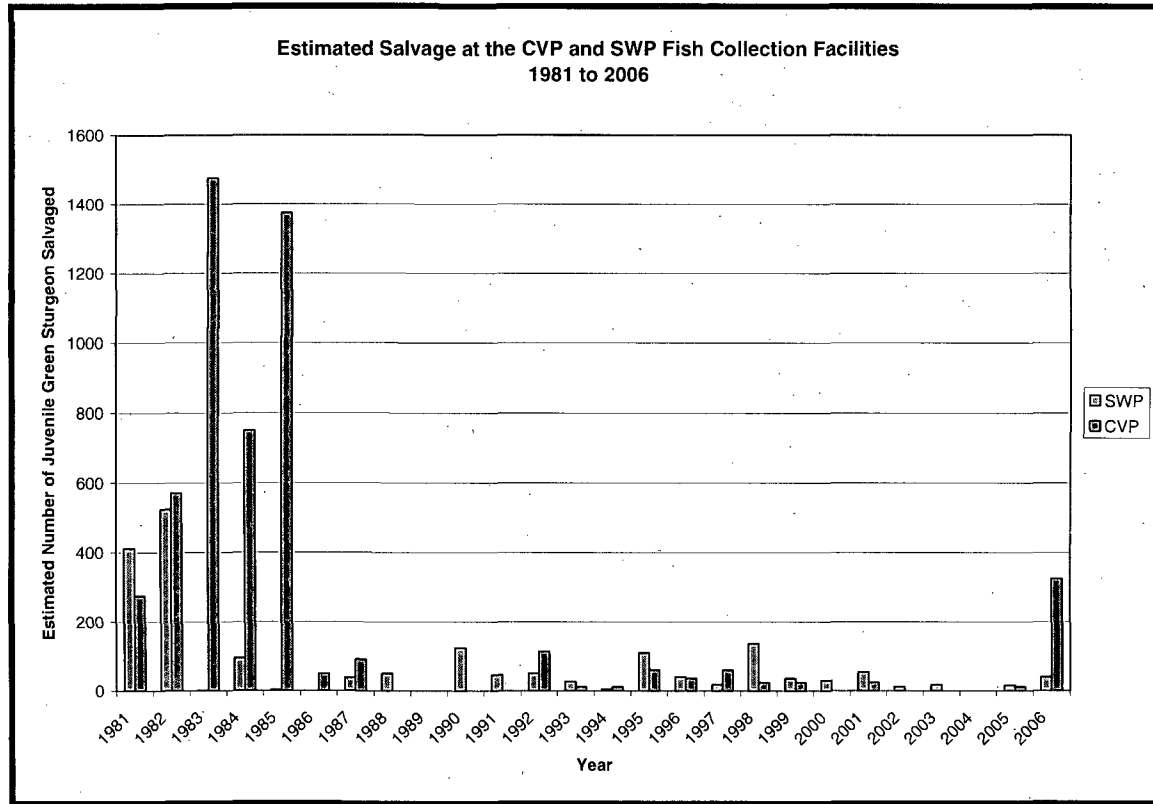
and 2001 ranged from 175 fish to more than 8,000 per year and averaged 1,509 fish per year. Unfortunately, there are many biases and errors associated with these data, and CDFG does not consider these estimates reliable. Fish monitoring efforts at RBDD and GCID on the upper Sacramento River have captured between 0 and 2,068 juvenile North American green sturgeon per year (Adams *et al.* 2002). The only existing information regarding changes in the abundance of the Southern DPS of green sturgeon includes changes in abundance at the John E. Skinner Fish Facility between 1968 and 2001 (Table 7, Figure 5). The average number of North American green sturgeon taken per year at the State Facility prior to 1986 was 732; from 1986 on, the average per year was 47 (70 FR 17386, April 6, 2005). For the Harvey O. Banks Pumping Plant, the average number prior to 1986 was 889; from 1986 to 2001 the average was 32 (70 FR 17386, April 6, 2005). In light of the increased exports, particularly during the previous 10 years, it is clear that the abundance of the Southern DPS green sturgeon is dropping. Additional analysis of green and white sturgeon taken at the Fish Facilities indicates that take of both green and white sturgeon per acre-foot of water exported has decreased substantially since the 1960s (70 FR 17386, April 6, 2005). Catches of sub-adult and adult North American green sturgeon by the IEP between 1996 and 2004 ranged from 1 to 212 green sturgeon per year (212 occurred in 2001), however, the portion of the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon is unknown as these captures were primarily located in San Pablo Bay which is known to consist of a mixture of Northern and Southern DPS North American green sturgeon. Recent spawning population estimates using sibling based genetics by Israel (2006b) indicates spawning populations of 32 spawners in 2002, 64 in 2003, 44 in 2004, 92 in 2005, and 124 in 2006 above RBDD (with an average of 71).

Table 7: The annual occurrence of juvenile Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon at the CVP and SWP fish collection facilities in the South Delta. (Adams et al, (2007), CDFG 2002)

Year	State Facilities		Federal Facilities	
	Salvage Numbers	Numbers per 1000 acre feet	Salvage Numbers	Numbers per 1000 acre feet
1968	12	0.0162		
1969	0	0		
1970	13	0.0254		
1971	168	0.2281		
1972	122	0.0798		
1973	140	0.1112		
1974	7313	3.9805		
1975	2885	1.2033		
1976	240	0.1787		
1977	14	0.0168		
1978	768	0.3482		
1979	423	0.1665		
1980	47	0.0217		
1981	411	0.1825	274	0.1278
1982	523	0.2005	570	0.2553
1983	1	0.0008	1475	0.653
1984	94	0.043	750	0.2881
1985	3	0.0011	1374	0.4917
1985	0	0	49	0.0189
1987	37	0.0168	91	0.0328
1988	50	0.0188	0	0
1989	0	0	0	0
1990	124	0.0514	0	0
1991	45	0.0265	0	0
1992	50	0.0332	114	0.0963
1993	27	0.0084	12	0.0045
1994	5	0.003	12	0.0068
1995	101	0.0478	60	0.0211
1996	40	0.0123	36	0.0139
1997	19	0.0075	60	0.0239
1998	136	0.0806	24	0.0115
1999	36	0.0133	24	0.0095
2000	30	0.008	0	0
2001	54	0.0233	24	0.0106
2002	12	0.0042	0	0
2003	18	0.0052	0	0
2004	0	0	0	0
2005	16	0.0044	12	0.0045
2006	39	0.0078	324	0.1235

Figure 5: Estimated number of North American green sturgeon (Southern DPS) salvaged from the State Water Project and the Central Valley Project fish collection facilities.

Sources: Beamesderfer *et al.*, 2007, CDFG 2002, Adams *et al.* 2007.



As described previously, the majority of spawning by green sturgeon in the Sacramento River system appears to take place above the location of RBDD. This is based on the length and estimated age of larvae captured at RBDD (approximately 2 to 3 weeks of age) and GCID (downstream, approximately 3-4 weeks of age) indicating that hatching occurred above the sampling location. Note that there are many assumptions with this interpretation (*i.e.*, equal sampling efficiency and distribution of larvae across channels) and this information should be considered cautiously.

Available information on green sturgeon indicates that, as with winter-run Chinook salmon, the mainstem Sacramento River may be the last viable spawning habitat (Good *et al.* 2005) for the Southern DPS of green sturgeon. Lindley *et al.* (2007) pointed out that an ESU represented by a single population at moderate risk is at a high risk of extinction over the long term. Although the extinction risk of the Southern DPS of green sturgeon has not been assessed, NMFS believes that the extinction risk has increased because there is only one known population, within the mainstem Sacramento River.

Population Viability Summary for the Southern DPS of North American Green Sturgeon

The Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon has not been analyzed to characterize the status and viability as has been done in recent efforts for Central Valley salmonid populations (Lindley *et al.* 2006, Good *et al.* 2005). NMFS assumes that the general categories for assessing salmonid population viability will also be useful in assessing the viability of the Southern DPS of green sturgeon. The following summary has been compiled from the best available data and information on North American green sturgeon to provide a general synopsis of the viability parameters for this DPS.

Abundance. Currently, there are no reliable data on population sizes, and data on population trends is also lacking. Fishery data collected at Federal and State pumping facilities in the Delta indicate a decreasing trend in abundance between 1968 and 2006 (70 FR 17386).

Productivity. There is insufficient information to evaluate the productivity of green sturgeon. However, as indicated above, there appears to be a declining trend in abundance, which indicates low to negative productivity.

Spatial Structure. Current data indicates that the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon is comprised of a single spawning population in the Sacramento River. Although some individuals have been observed in the Feather and Yuba rivers, it is not yet known if these fish represent separate spawning populations. Therefore, the apparent presence of a single reproducing population puts the DPS at risk, due to the limited spatial structure.

Diversity. Green sturgeon genetic analyses shows strong differentiation between northern and southern populations, and therefore, the species was divided into Northern and Southern DPSs. However, the genetic diversity of the Southern DPS is not well understood.

C. Critical Habitat Condition and Function for Species' Conservation

The designated critical habitat for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon includes the Sacramento River from Keswick Dam (RM 302) to Chipps Island (RM 0) at the westward margin of the Delta; all waters from Chipps Island westward to Carquinez Bridge, including Honker Bay, Grizzly Bay, Suisun Bay, and Carquinez Strait; all waters of San Pablo Bay westward of the Carquinez Bridge; and all waters of San Francisco Estuary to the Golden Gate Bridge north of the San Francisco/Oakland Bay Bridge. In the Sacramento River, critical habitat includes the river water column, river bottom, and adjacent riparian zone used by fry and juveniles for rearing. In the areas westward of Chipps Island, critical habitat includes the estuarine water column and essential foraging habitat and food resources used by Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon as part of their juvenile emigration or adult spawning migration.

Critical habitat was designated for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley steelhead on September 2, 2005 (70 FR 52488). Critical habitat for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon includes stream reaches such as those of the Feather and Yuba rivers, Big

Chico, Butte, Deer, Mill, Battle, Antelope, and Clear creeks, the Sacramento River, as well as portions of the northern Delta. Critical habitat for Central Valley steelhead includes stream reaches such as those of the Sacramento, Feather, and Yuba rivers, and Deer, Mill, Battle, and Antelope creeks in the Sacramento River basin; the San Joaquin River, including its tributaries, and the waterways of the Delta. Critical habitat includes the stream channels in the designated stream reaches and the lateral extent as defined by the ordinary high-water line. In areas where the ordinary high-water line has not been defined, the lateral extent will be defined by the bankfull elevation (defined as the level at which water begins to leave the channel and move into the floodplain; it is reached at a discharge that generally has a recurrence interval of 1 to 2 years on the annual flood series) (Bain and Stevenson 1999; 70 FR 52488). Critical habitat for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon and steelhead is defined as specific areas that contain the primary constituent elements (PCE) and physical habitat elements essential to the conservation of the species. Following are the inland habitat types used as PCEs for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley steelhead, and as physical habitat elements for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon.

PCE for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley steelhead include:

1. Spawning Habitat

Freshwater spawning sites are those with water quantity and quality conditions and substrate supporting spawning, incubation, and larval development. Most spawning habitat in the Central Valley for Chinook salmon and steelhead is located in areas directly downstream of dams containing suitable environmental conditions for spawning and incubation. Spawning habitat for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon is restricted to the Sacramento River primarily between RBDD and Keswick Dam. Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon also spawn on the mainstem Sacramento River between RBDD and Keswick Dam and in tributaries such as Mill, Deer, and Butte Creeks (however, little spawning activity has been recorded in recent years on the Sacramento River mainstem for spring-run Chinook salmon). Spawning habitat for Central Valley steelhead is similar in nature to the requirements of Chinook salmon, primarily occurring in reaches directly below dams (*i.e.*, above RBDD on the Sacramento River) on perennial watersheds throughout the Central Valley. These reaches can be subjected to variations in flows and temperatures, particularly over the summer months, which can have adverse effects upon salmonids spawning below them. Even in degraded reaches, spawning habitat has a high conservation value as its function directly affects the spawning success and reproductive potential of listed salmonids.

2. Freshwater Rearing Habitat

Freshwater rearing sites are those with water quantity and floodplain connectivity to form and maintain physical habitat conditions that support juvenile growth and mobility; water quality and forage supporting juvenile development; and natural cover such as shade, submerged and overhanging large woody material, log jams and beaver dams, aquatic vegetation, large rocks and boulders, side channels, and undercut banks. Both spawning areas and migratory corridors comprise rearing habitat for juveniles, which feed and grow before and during their outmigration. Non-natal, intermittent tributaries also may be used for juvenile rearing. Rearing

habitat condition is strongly affected by habitat complexity, food supply, and the presence of predators of juvenile salmonids. Some complex, productive habitats with floodplains remain in the system (*e.g.*, the lower Cosumnes River, Sacramento River reaches with setback levees [*i.e.*, primarily located upstream of the City of Colusa]) and flood bypasses (*i.e.*, Yolo and Sutter bypasses). However, the channelized, leveed, and riprapped river reaches and sloughs that are common in the Sacramento-San Joaquin system typically have low habitat complexity, low abundance of food organisms, and offer little protection from either fish or avian predators. Juvenile life stages of salmonids are dependant on the function of this habitat for successful survival and recruitment.

3. Freshwater Migration Corridors

Ideal freshwater migration corridors are free of migratory obstructions, with water quantity and quality conditions that enhance migratory movements. They contain natural cover such as riparian canopy structure, submerged and overhanging large woody objects, aquatic vegetation, large rocks, and boulders, side channels, and undercut banks which augment juvenile and adult mobility, survival, and food supply. Migratory corridors are downstream of the spawning areas and include the lower mainstems of the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers and the Delta. These corridors allow the upstream passage of adults, and the downstream emigration of outmigrant juveniles. Migratory habitat condition is strongly affected by the presence of barriers, which can include dams (*i.e.*, hydropower, flood control, and irrigation flashboard dams), unscreened or poorly screened diversions, degraded water quality, or behavioral impediments to migration. For successful survival and recruitment of salmonids, freshwater migration corridors must function sufficiently to provide adequate passage. For this reason, freshwater migration corridors are considered to have a high conservation value even if the migration corridors are significantly degraded compared to their natural state.

4. Estuarine Areas

Estuarine areas free of migratory obstructions with water quality, water quantity, and salinity conditions supporting juvenile and adult physiological transitions between fresh and salt water are included as a PCE. Natural cover such as submerged and overhanging large woody material, aquatic vegetation, and side channels, are suitable for juvenile and adult foraging. Estuarine areas are considered to have a high conservation value as they provide factors which function to provide predator avoidance and as a transitional zone to the ocean environment.

Critical habitat was designated for the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon on October 9, 2009 (74 FR 52300). Critical habitat for Southern DPS green sturgeon includes the stream channels and waterways in the Sacramento – San Joaquin River Delta to the ordinary high water line except for certain excluded areas. Critical habitat also includes the main stem Sacramento River upstream from the I Street Bridge to Keswick Dam, and the Feather River upstream to the fish barrier dam adjacent to the Feather River Fish Hatchery. Coastal Marine areas include waters out to a depth of 60 meters from Monterey Bay, California, to the Juan De Fuca Straits in Washington. Coastal estuaries designated as critical habitat include San Francisco Bay, Suisun Bay, San Pablo Bay, and the lower Columbia River estuary. Certain coastal bays and estuaries in California (Humboldt Bay), Oregon (Coos Bay, Winchester Bay,

Yaquina Bay, and Nehalem Bay), and Washington (Willapa Bay and Grays Harbor) are also included as critical habitat for Southern DPS green sturgeon.

Critical habitat for the Southern DPS of North American green sturgeon includes the estuarine waters of the Delta, which contain the following elements:

1. Food Resources

Abundant food items within estuarine habitats and substrates for juvenile, subadult, and adult life stages are required for the proper functioning of this PCE for green sturgeon. Prey species for juvenile, subadult, and adult green sturgeon within bays and estuaries primarily consist of benthic invertebrates and fish, including crangonid shrimp, callinassid shrimp, burrowing thalassinidean shrimp, amphipods, isopods, clams, annelid worms, crabs, sand lances, and anchovies. These prey species are critical for the rearing, foraging, growth, and development of juvenile, subadult, and adult green sturgeon within the bays and estuaries.

2. Water Flow

Within bays and estuaries adjacent to the Sacramento River (*i.e.*, the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta and the Suisun, San Pablo, and San Francisco bays), sufficient flow into the bay and estuary to allow adults to successfully orient to the incoming flow and migrate upstream to spawning grounds is required. Sufficient flows are needed to attract adult green sturgeon to the Sacramento River from the bay and to initiate the upstream spawning migration into the upper river.

3. Water Quality

Adequate water quality, including temperature, salinity, oxygen content, and other chemical characteristics, is necessary for normal behavior, growth, and viability of all life stages. Suitable water temperatures for juvenile green sturgeon should be below 24°C (75°F). At temperatures above 24°C, juvenile green sturgeon exhibit decreased swimming performance (Mayfield and Cech 2004) and increased cellular stress (Allen *et al.* 2006). Suitable salinities in the estuary range from brackish water (10 parts per thousand - ppt) to salt water (33 ppt). Juveniles transitioning from brackish to salt water can tolerate prolonged exposure to salt water salinities, but may exhibit decreased growth and activity levels (Allen and Cech 2007), whereas subadults and adults tolerate a wide range of salinities (Kelly *et al.* 2007). Subadult and adult green sturgeon occupy a wide range of dissolved oxygen (DO) levels (Kelly *et al.* 2007, Moser and Lindley 2007). Adequate levels of DO are also required to support oxygen consumption by juveniles (ranging from 61.78 mg to 76.06 mg O₂ hr⁻¹ kg⁻¹, Allen and Cech 2007). Suitable water quality also includes water free of contaminants (*e.g.*, organochlorine pesticides, poly aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), or elevated levels of heavy metals) that may disrupt the normal development of juvenile life stages, or the growth, survival, or reproduction of subadult or adult stages.

4. Migratory Corridor

Safe and unobstructed migratory pathways are necessary for the safe and timely passage of adult, sub-adult, and juvenile fish within the region's different estuarine habitats and between the upstream riverine habitat and the marine habitats. Within the waterways comprising the Delta, and bays downstream of the Sacramento River, safe and unobstructed passage is needed for juvenile green sturgeon during the rearing phase of their life cycle. Rearing fish need the ability to freely migrate from the river through the estuarine waterways of the delta and bays and eventually out into the ocean. Passage within the bays and the Delta is also critical for adults and subadults for feeding and summer holding, as well as to access the Sacramento River for their upstream spawning migrations and to make their outmigration back into the ocean. Within bays and estuaries outside of the Delta and the areas comprised by Suisun, San Pablo, and San Francisco bays, safe and unobstructed passage is necessary for adult and subadult green sturgeon to access feeding areas, holding areas, and thermal refugia, and to ensure passage back out into the ocean.

5. Water Depth

A diversity of depths is necessary for shelter, foraging, and migration of juvenile, subadult, and adult life stages. Tagged adults and subadults within the San Francisco Bay estuary primarily occupied waters over shallow depths of less than 10 m, either swimming near the surface or foraging along the bottom (Kelly *et al.* 2007). In a study of juvenile green sturgeon in the Delta, relatively large numbers of juveniles were captured primarily in shallow waters from 3 – 8 feet deep, indicating juveniles may require shallower depths for rearing and foraging (Radtke 1966). Thus, a diversity of depths is important to support different life stages and habitat uses for green sturgeon within estuarine areas.

6. Sediment Quality

Sediment quality (*i.e.*, chemical characteristics) is necessary for normal behavior, growth, and viability of all life stages. This includes sediments free of contaminants (*e.g.*, elevated levels of selenium, PAHs, and organochlorine pesticides) that can cause negative effects on all life stages of green sturgeon.

D. Factors Impacting Listed Species

1. Habitat Blockage

Hydropower, flood control, and water supply dams of the CVP, SWP, and other municipal and private entities have permanently blocked or hindered salmonid access to historical spawning and rearing grounds. Clark (1929) estimated that originally there were 6,000 linear miles of salmon habitat in the Central Valley system and that 80 percent of this habitat had been lost by 1928. Yoshiyama *et al.* (1996) calculated that roughly 2,000 linear miles of salmon habitat was actually available before dam construction and mining, and concluded that 82 percent is not accessible today.

As a result of migrational barriers, winter-run Chinook salmon, spring-run Chinook salmon, and steelhead populations have been confined to lower elevation mainstems that historically only were used for migration. Population abundances have declined in these streams due to decreased quantity and quality of spawning and rearing habitat. Higher temperatures at these lower elevations during late-summer and fall are also a major stressor to adult and juvenile salmonids. According to Lindley *et al.* (2004), of the four independent populations of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon that occurred historically, only one mixed stock of winter-run Chinook salmon remains below Keswick Dam. Similarly, of the 18 independent populations of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon that occurred historically, only 3 independent populations remain in Deer, Mill, and Butte creeks. Dependent populations of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon continue to occur in Big Chico, Antelope, Clear, Thomes, and Beegum creeks and the Yuba River, but are thought to rely on the three extant independent populations for their continued survival. Central Valley steelhead historically had at least 81 independent populations based on Lindley *et al.*'s (2006a) analysis of potential habitat in the Central Valley. However, due to dam construction, access to 80 percent of the historically available habitat has been lost. Green sturgeon populations were likely also affected by barriers and alterations to the natural hydrology of Central Valley river systems. In particular, RBDD blocked access to a significant portion of the adult green sturgeon spawning run under the operational procedures prior to the 2009 NMFS Operations BO. Modifications to the operations of the RBDD as required under the 2009 NMFS Operations BO will substantially reduce the impediment to upstream migrations of adult green sturgeon. 2009 NMFS Operations BO interim operational procedures require the RBDD gates to remain in the open position from September 1 until June 15 each year. Starting on June 15, 2012, the gates are required to remain open year round. This interim operational protocol will allow green sturgeon to migrate upstream past the location of the RBDD unimpeded until June 15, which represents approximately 80 percent of the adult spawning migration (approximately 20 percent of the spawning run may occur after June 15). During interim operations, the gates will remain partially open from June 16 to August 31 with a minimum of 12 inches clearance below the gate to allow downstream passage of adult and juvenile green sturgeon, as well as other species of fish including salmonids.

The Suisun Marsh Salinity Control Gates (SMSCG), located on Montezuma Slough, were installed in 1988, and are operated with gates and flashboards to decrease the salinity levels of managed wetlands in Suisun Marsh. The SMSCG are known to block or delay passage of adult Chinook salmon migrating upstream (Edwards *et al.* 1996, Tillman *et al.* 1996, DWR 2002). The effects of the SMSCG on sturgeon are unknown at this time.

2. Water Development

The diversion and storage of natural flows by dams and diversion structures on Central Valley waterways have depleted stream flows and altered the natural cycles by which juvenile and adult salmonids base their migrations. As much as 60 percent of the natural historical inflow to Central Valley watersheds and the Delta have been diverted for human uses. Depleted flows have contributed to higher temperatures, lower DO levels, and decreased recruitment of gravel and large woody debris (LWD). More uniform flows year round have resulted in diminished natural channel formation, altered food web processes, and slower regeneration of riparian vegetation. These stabilized flow patterns have reduced bed load movement (Mount 1995, Ayers

2001), caused spawning gravels to become embedded, and decreased channel widths due to channel incision, all of which has decreased the available spawning and rearing habitat below dams. The storage of unimpeded runoff in these large reservoirs also has altered the normal hydrograph for the Sacramento and San Joaquin River watersheds. Rather than seeing peak flows in these river systems following winter rain events (Sacramento River) or spring snow melt (San Joaquin River), the current hydrology has truncated peaks with a prolonged period of elevated flows (compared to historical levels) continuing into the summer dry season.

Water withdrawals, for agricultural and municipal purposes have reduced river flows and increased temperatures during the critical summer months, and in some cases, have been of a sufficient magnitude to result in reverse flows in the lower San Joaquin River (Reynolds *et al.* 1993). Direct relationships exist between water temperature, water flow, and juvenile salmonid survival (Brandes and McLain 2001). Elevated water temperatures in the Sacramento River have limited the survival of young salmon in those waters. Juvenile fall-run Chinook salmon survival in the Sacramento River is also directly related with June stream flow and June and July Delta outflow (Dettman *et al.* 1987).

Water diversions for irrigated agriculture, municipal and industrial use, and managed wetlands are found throughout the Central Valley. Thousands of small- and medium-size water diversions exist along the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, and their tributaries. Although efforts have been made in recent years to screen some of these diversions, many remain unscreened. Depending on the size, location, and season of operation, these unscreened diversions entrain and kill many life stages of aquatic species, including juvenile salmonids. For example, as of 1997, 98.5 percent of the 3,356 diversions included in a Central Valley database were either unscreened or screened insufficiently to prevent fish entrainment (Herren and Kawasaki 2001). Most of the 370 water diversions operating in Suisun Marsh are unscreened (Herren and Kawasaki 2001).

Outmigrant juvenile salmonids in the Delta have been subjected to adverse environmental conditions created by water export operations at the CVP and SWP facilities. Specifically, juvenile salmonid survival has been reduced by the following: (1) water diversion from the mainstem Sacramento River into the central Delta via the Delta Cross Channel; (2) upstream or reverse flows of water in the lower San Joaquin River and southern Delta waterways; (3) entrainment at the CVP/SWP export facilities and associated problems at Clifton Court Forebay; and (4) increased exposure to introduced, non-native predators such as striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*), largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*), and sunfishes (*Centrarchidae* spp.). On June 4, 2009, NMFS issued a biological and conference opinion on the long-term operations of the CVP and SWP (NMFS 2009b). As a result of the jeopardy and adverse modification determinations, NMFS provided a reasonable and prudent alternative that reduces many of the adverse effects of the CVP and SWP resulting from the stressors described above.

3. Water Conveyance and Flood Control

The development of the water conveyance system in the Delta has resulted in the construction of more than 1,100 miles of channels and diversions to increase channel elevations and flow capacity of the channels (Mount 1995). Levee development in the Central Valley affects

spawning habitat, freshwater rearing habitat, freshwater migration corridors, and estuarine habitat PCEs. As Mount (1995) indicates, there is an “underlying, fundamental conflict inherent in this channelization.” Natural rivers strive to achieve dynamic equilibrium to handle a watershed's supply of discharge and sediment (Mount 1995). The construction of levees disrupts the natural processes of the river, resulting in a multitude of habitat-related effects. Many of these levees use angular rock (riprap) to armor the bank from erosive forces. The effects of channelization, and riprapping, include the alteration of river hydraulics and cover along the bank as a result of changes in bank configuration and structural features (Stillwater Sciences 2006). These changes affect the quantity and quality of nearshore habitat for juvenile salmonids and have been thoroughly studied (USFWS 2000, Schmetterling *et al.* 2001, Garland *et al.* 2002). Simple slopes protected with rock revetment generally create nearshore hydraulic conditions characterized by greater depths and faster, more homogeneous water velocities than occur along natural banks. Higher water velocities typically inhibit deposition and retention of sediment and woody debris. These changes generally reduce the range of habitat conditions typically found along natural shorelines, especially by eliminating the shallow, slow-velocity river margins used by juvenile fish as refuge and escape from fast currents, deep water, and predators (Stillwater Sciences 2006).

Prior to the 1970s, there was so much debris resulting from poor logging practices that many streams were completely clogged and were thought to have been total barriers to fish migration. As a result, in the 1960s and early 1970s it was common practice among fishery management agencies to remove woody debris thought to be a barrier to fish migration (NMFS 1996b). However, it is now recognized that too much LWD was removed from the streams resulting in a loss of salmonid habitat and it is thought that the large scale removal of woody debris prior to 1980 had major, long-term negative effects on rearing habitats for salmonids in northern California (NMFS 1996b). Areas that were subjected to this removal of LWD are still limited in the recovery of salmonid stocks; this limitation could be expected to persist for 50 to 100 years following removal of debris.

Large quantities of downed trees are a functionally important component of many streams (NMFS 1996b). LWD influences stream morphology by affecting channel pattern, position, and geometry, as well as pool formation (Keller and Swanson 1979, Bilby 1984, Robison and Beschta 1990). Reduction of wood in the stream channel, either from past or present activities, generally reduces pool quantity and quality, alters stream shading which can affect water temperature regimes and nutrient input, and can eliminate critical stream habitat needed for both vertebrate and invertebrate populations. Removal of vegetation also can destabilize marginally stable slopes by increasing the subsurface water load, lowering root strength, and altering water flow patterns in the slope.

In addition, the armoring and revetment of stream banks tends to narrow rivers, reducing the amount of habitat per unit channel length (Sweeney *et al.* 2004). As a result of river narrowing, benthic habitat decreases and the number of macroinvertebrates, such as stoneflies and mayflies, per unit channel length decreases affecting salmonid food supply.

4. Land Use Activities

Land use activities continue to have large impacts on salmonid habitat in the Central Valley watershed. Until about 150 years ago, the Sacramento River was bordered by up to 500,000 acres of riparian forest, with bands of vegetation extending outward for 4 or 5 miles (California Resources Agency 1989). Starting with the gold rush, these vast riparian forests were cleared for building materials, fuel, and to clear land for farms on the raised natural levee banks. The degradation and fragmentation of riparian habitat continued with extensive flood control and bank protection projects, together with the conversion of the fertile riparian lands to agriculture outside of the natural levee belt. By 1979, riparian habitat along the Sacramento River diminished to 11,000 to 12,000 acres, or about 2 percent of historic levels (McGill 1987). The clearing of the riparian forests removed a vital source of snags and driftwood in the Sacramento and San Joaquin River basins. This has reduced the volume of LWD input needed to form and maintain stream habitat that salmon depend on in their various life stages. In addition to this loss of LWD sources, removal of snags and obstructions from the active river channel for navigational safety has further reduced the presence of LWD in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, as well as the Delta.

Increased sedimentation resulting from agricultural and urban practices within the Central Valley is one of the primary causes of salmonid habitat degradation (NMFS 1996a). Sedimentation can adversely affect salmonids during all freshwater life stages by: clogging or abrading gill surfaces, adhering to eggs, hampering fry emergence (Phillips and Campbell 1961), burying eggs or alevins, scouring and filling in pools and riffles, reducing primary productivity and photosynthesis activity (Cordone and Kelley 1961), and affecting intergravel permeability and DO levels. Excessive sedimentation over time can cause substrates to become embedded, which reduces successful salmonid spawning and egg and fry survival (Waters 1995).

Land use activities associated with road construction, urban development, logging, mining, agriculture, and recreation have significantly altered fish habitat quantity and quality through the alteration of stream bank and channel morphology; alteration of ambient water temperatures; degradation of water quality; elimination of spawning and rearing habitat; fragmentation of available habitats; elimination of downstream recruitment of LWD; and removal of riparian vegetation, resulting in increased stream bank erosion (Meehan 1991). Urban stormwater and agricultural runoff may be contaminated with herbicides and pesticides, petroleum products, sediment, *etc.* Agricultural practices in the Central Valley have eliminated large trees and logs and other woody debris that would otherwise be recruited into the stream channel (NMFS 1998a).

Since the 1850s, wetlands reclamation for urban and agricultural development has caused the cumulative loss of 79 and 94 percent of the tidal marsh habitat in the Delta downstream and upstream of Chipps Island, respectively (Conomos *et al.* 1985, Nichols *et al.* 1986, Wright and Phillips 1988, Monroe *et al.* 1992, Goals Project 1999). Prior to 1850, approximately 1400 km² of freshwater marsh surrounded the confluence of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, and another 800 km² of saltwater marsh fringed San Francisco Bay's margins. Of the original 2,200 km² of tidally influenced marsh, only about 125 km² of undiked marsh remains today. In Suisun

Marsh, saltwater intrusion and land subsidence gradually has led to the decline of agricultural production. Presently, Suisun Marsh consists largely of tidal sloughs and managed wetlands for duck clubs, which first were established in the 1870s in western Suisun Marsh (Goals Project 1999). Even more extensive losses of wetland marshes occurred in the Sacramento and San Joaquin River Basins. Little of the extensive tracts of wetland marshes that existed prior to 1850 along the valley's river systems and within the natural flood basins exist today. Most has been "reclaimed" for agricultural purposes, leaving only small remnant patches.

Dredging of river channels to enhance inland maritime trade and to provide raw material for levee construction has significantly and detrimentally altered the natural hydrology and function of the river systems in the Central Valley. Starting in the mid-1800s, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Corps) and other private consortiums began straightening river channels and artificially deepening them to enhance shipping commerce. This has led to declines in the natural meandering of river channels and the formation of pool and riffle segments. The deepening of channels beyond their natural depth also has led to a significant alteration in the transport of bed load in the riverine system as well as the local flow velocity in the channel (Mount 1995). The Sacramento Flood Control Project at the turn of the nineteenth century ushered in the start of large scale Corps actions in the Delta and along the rivers of California for reclamation and flood control. The creation of levees and the deep shipping channels reduced the natural tendency of the San Joaquin and Sacramento Rivers to create floodplains along their banks with seasonal inundations during the wet winter season and the spring snow melt periods. These annual inundations provided necessary habitat for rearing and foraging of juvenile native fish that evolved with this flooding process. The armored riprapped levee banks and active maintenance actions of Reclamation Districts precluded the establishment of ecologically important riparian vegetation, introduction of valuable LWD from these riparian corridors, and the productive intertidal mudflats characteristic of the undisturbed Delta habitat.

Urban storm water and agricultural runoff may be contaminated with pesticides, oil, grease, heavy metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), and other organics and nutrients (Regional Board 1998) they can potentially destroy aquatic life necessary for salmonid survival (NMFS 1996a, b). Point source (PS) and non-point source (NPS) pollution occurs at almost every point that urbanization activity influences the watershed. Impervious surfaces (*i.e.*, concrete, asphalt, and buildings) reduce water infiltration and increase runoff, thus creating greater flood hazard (NMFS 1996a, b). Flood control and land drainage schemes may increase the flood risk downstream by concentrating runoff. A flashy discharge pattern results in increased bank erosion with subsequent loss of riparian vegetation, undercut banks and stream channel widening. In addition to the PS and NPS inputs from urban runoff, juvenile salmonids are exposed to increased water temperatures as a result of thermal inputs from municipal, industrial, and agricultural discharges.

Past mining activities routinely resulted in the removal of spawning gravels from streams, the straightening, and channelization of the stream corridor from dredging activities, and the leaching of toxic effluents into streams from mining operations. Many of the effects of past mining operations continue to impact salmonid habitat today. Current mining practices include suction dredging (sand and gravel mining), placer mining, lode mining and gravel mining. Present day mining practices are typically less intrusive than historic operations (hydraulic

mining); however, adverse impacts to salmonid habitat still occur as a result of present-day mining activities. Sand and gravel are used for a large variety of construction activities including base material and asphalt, road bedding, drain rock for leach fields, and aggregate mix for concrete to construct buildings and highways.

Most aggregate is derived principally from pits in active floodplains, pits in inactive river terrace deposits, or directly from the active channel. Other sources include hard rock quarries and mining from deposits within reservoirs. Extraction sites located along or in active floodplains present particular problems for anadromous salmonids. Physical alteration of the stream channel may result in the destruction of existing riparian vegetation and the reduction of available area for seedling establishment (Stillwater Sciences 2002). Loss of vegetation impacts riparian and aquatic habitat by causing a loss of the temperature moderating effects of shade and cover, and habitat diversity. Extensive degradation may induce a decline in the alluvial water table, as the banks are effectively drained to a lowered level, affecting riparian vegetation and water supply (NMFS 1996b). Altering the natural channel configuration will reduce salmonid habitat diversity by creating a wide, shallow channel lacking in the pools and cover necessary for all life stages of anadromous salmonids. In addition, waste products resulting from past and present mining activities, include cyanide (an agent used to extract gold from ore), copper, zinc, cadmium, mercury, asbestos, nickel, chromium, and lead.

Juvenile salmonids are exposed to increased water temperatures in the Delta during the late spring and summer due to the loss of riparian shading, and by thermal inputs from municipal, industrial, and agricultural discharges. Studies by DWR on water quality in the Delta over the last 30 years show a steady decline in the food sources available for juvenile salmonids and sturgeon and an increase in the clarity of the water due to a reduction in phytoplankton and zooplankton. These conditions have contributed to increased mortality of juvenile Chinook salmon, steelhead, and sturgeon as they move through the Delta.

5. Water Quality

The water quality of the Delta has been negatively impacted over the last 150 years. Increased water temperatures, decreased DO levels, and increased turbidity and contaminant loads have degraded the quality of the aquatic habitat for the rearing and migration of salmonids. The Regional Board, in its 1998 Clean Water Act §303(d) list, characterized the Delta as an impaired water body having elevated levels of chlorpyrifos, dichlorodiphenyltrichlor (*i.e.* DDT), diazinon, electrical conductivity, Group A pesticides (aldrin, dieldrin, chlordane, endrin, heptachlor, heptachlor epoxide, hexachlorocyclohexanes (including lindane), endosulfan and toxaphene), mercury, low DO, organic enrichment, and unknown toxicities (Regional Board 1998, 2001).

In general, water degradation or contamination can lead to either acute toxicity, resulting in death when concentrations are sufficiently elevated, or more typically, when concentrations are lower, to chronic or sublethal effects that reduce the physical health of the organism, and lessens its survival over an extended period of time. Mortality may become a secondary effect due to compromised physiology or behavioral changes that lessen the organism's ability to carry out its normal activities. For example, increased levels of heavy metals are detrimental to the health of an organism because they interfere with metabolic functions by inhibiting key enzyme activity in

metabolic pathways, decrease neurological function, degrade cardiovascular output, and act as mutagens, teratogens, or carcinogens in exposed organisms (Rand *et al.* 1995, Goyer 1996). For listed species, these effects may occur directly to the listed fish or to its prey base, which reduces the forage base available to the listed species.

In the aquatic environment, most anthropogenic chemicals and waste materials including toxic organic and inorganic chemicals eventually accumulate in sediment (Ingersoll 1995). Direct exposure to contaminated sediments may cause deleterious effects to listed salmonids or the threatened green sturgeon. This may occur if a fish swims through a plume of the resuspended sediments or rests on contaminated substrate and absorbs the toxic compounds through one of several routes: dermal contact, ingestion, or uptake across the gills. Elevated contaminant levels may be found in localized "hot spots" where discharge occurs or where river currents deposit sediment loads. Sediment contaminant levels can thus be significantly higher than the overlying water column concentrations (EPA 1994). However, the more likely route of exposure to salmonids or sturgeon is through the food chain, when the fish feed on organisms that are contaminated with toxic compounds. Prey species become contaminated either by feeding on the detritus associated with the sediments or dwelling in the sediment itself. Therefore, the degree of exposure to the salmonids and green sturgeon depends on their trophic level and the amount of contaminated forage base they consume. Response of salmonids and green sturgeon to contaminated sediments is similar to water borne exposures.

Low DO levels frequently are observed in the portion of the Stockton deep-water ship channel (DWSC) extending from Channel Point, downstream to the Turner and Columbia Cuts. Over a 5-year period, starting in August 2000, a DO meter has recorded channel DO levels at Rough and Ready Island (Dock 20 of the West Complex). Over the course of this time period, there have been 297 days in which violations of the 5 mg/l DO criteria for the protection of aquatic life in the San Joaquin River between Channel Point and Turner and Columbia Cuts have occurred during the September through May migratory period for salmonids in the San Joaquin River. The data derived from the California Data Exchange Center files indicate that DO depressions occur during all migratory months, with significant events occurring from November through March when listed Central Valley steelhead adults and smolts would be utilizing this portion of the San Joaquin River as a migratory corridor.

Potential factors that contribute to these DO depressions are reduced river flows through the ship channel, released ammonia from the City of Stockton Wastewater Treatment Plant, upstream contributions of organic materials (*e.g.*, algal loads, nutrients, agricultural discharges) and the increased volume of the dredged ship channel. During the winter and early spring emigration period, increased ammonia concentrations in the discharges from the City of Stockton Waste Water Treatment Facility lowers the DO in the adjacent DWSC near the West Complex. In addition to the adverse effects of the lowered DO on salmonid physiology, ammonia is in itself toxic to salmonids at low concentrations. Likewise, adult fish migrating upstream will encounter lowered DO in the DWSC as they move upstream in the fall and early winter due to low flows and excessive algal and nutrient loads coming downstream from the upper San Joaquin River watershed. Levels of DO below 5 mg/L have been reported as delaying or blocking fall-run Chinook salmon in studies conducted by Hallock *et al.* (1970).

6. Hatchery Operations and Practices

Five hatcheries currently produce Chinook salmon in the Central Valley and four of these also produce steelhead. Releasing large numbers of hatchery fish can pose a threat to wild Chinook salmon and steelhead stocks through genetic impacts, competition for food and other resources between hatchery and wild fish, predation of hatchery fish on wild fish, and increased fishing pressure on wild stocks as a result of hatchery production (Waples 1991). The genetic impacts of artificial propagation programs in the Central Valley primarily are caused by straying of hatchery fish and the subsequent interbreeding of hatchery fish with wild fish. In the Central Valley, practices such as transferring eggs between hatcheries and trucking smolts to distant sites for release contribute to elevated straying levels [Department of the Interior (DOI) 1999]. For example, the primary steelhead broodstock at Nimbus Hatchery on the American River originated from the Eel River basin. One of the recommendations in the Joint Hatchery Review Report (NMFS and CDFG 2001) was to identify and designate new sources of steelhead brood stock to replace the current Eel River origin brood stock.

Hatchery practices as well as spatial and temporal overlaps of habitat use and spawning activity between spring- and fall-run fish have led to the hybridization and homogenization of some subpopulations (CDFG 1998). As early as the 1960s, Slater (1963) observed that early fall- and spring-run Chinook salmon were competing for spawning sites in the Sacramento River below Keswick Dam, and speculated that the two runs may have hybridized. The FRH spring-run Chinook salmon have been documented as straying throughout the Central Valley for many years (CDFG 1998), and in many cases have been recovered from the spawning grounds of fall-run Chinook salmon, an indication that FRH spring-run Chinook salmon may exhibit fall-run life history characteristics. Although the degree of hybridization has not been comprehensively determined, it is clear that the populations of spring-run Chinook salmon spawning in the Feather River and counted at RBDD contain hybridized fish.

The management of hatcheries, such as Nimbus Hatchery and FRH, can directly impact spring-run Chinook salmon and steelhead populations by oversaturating the natural carrying capacity of the limited habitat available below dams. In the case of the Feather River, significant redd superimposition occurs in-river due to hatchery overproduction and the inability to physically separate spring- and fall-run Chinook salmon adults. This concurrent spawning has led to hybridization between the spring- and fall-run Chinook salmon in the Feather River. At Nimbus Hatchery, operating Folsom Dam to meet temperature requirements for returning hatchery fall-run Chinook salmon often limits the amount of water available for steelhead spawning and rearing the rest of the year.

The increase in Central Valley hatchery production has reversed the composition of the steelhead population, from 88 percent naturally produced fish in the 1950s (McEwan 2001) to an estimated 23 to 37 percent naturally-produced fish currently (Nobriga and Cadrett 2003). The increase in hatchery steelhead production proportionate to the wild population has reduced the viability of the wild steelhead populations, increased the use of out-of-basin stocks for hatchery production, and increased straying (NMFS and CDFG 2001). Thus, the ability of natural populations to successfully reproduce and continue their genetic integrity likely has been diminished.

The relatively low number of spawners needed to sustain a hatchery population can result in high harvest-to-escapements ratios in waters where fishing regulations are set according to hatchery population. This can lead to over-exploitation and reduction in the size of wild populations existing in the same system as hatchery populations due to incidental bycatch (McEwan 2001).

Hatcheries also can have some positive effects on salmonid populations. Artificial propagation has been shown to be effective in bolstering the numbers of naturally spawning fish in the short term under specific scenarios. Artificial propagation programs can also aid in conserving genetic resources and guarding against catastrophic loss of naturally spawned populations at critically low abundance levels, as was the case with the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population during the 1990s. However, relative abundance is only one component of a viable salmonid population.

7. Over Utilization

a. *Ocean Commercial and Sport Harvest – Chinook Salmon and Steelhead*

Extensive ocean recreational and commercial troll fisheries for Chinook salmon exist along the Northern and Central California coast, and an inland recreational fishery exists in the Central Valley for Chinook salmon and steelhead. Ocean harvest of Central Valley Chinook salmon is estimated using an abundance index, called the Central Valley Index (CVI). The CVI is the ratio of Chinook salmon harvested south of Point Arena (where 85 percent of Central Valley Chinook salmon are caught) to escapement. CWT returns indicate that Sacramento River salmon congregate off the California coast between Point Arena and Morro Bay.

Since 1970, the CVI for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon generally has ranged between 0.50 and 0.80. In 1990, when ocean harvest of winter-run Chinook salmon was first evaluated by NMFS and the Pacific Fisheries Management Council (PFMC), the CVI harvest rate was near the highest recorded level at 0.79. NMFS determined in a 1991 biological opinion that continuance of the 1990 ocean harvest rate would not prevent the recovery of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon. In addition, the final rule designating winter-run Chinook salmon critical habitat (58 FR 33212, June 16, 1993) stated that commercial and recreational fishing do not appear to be significant factors for the decline of the species. Through the early 1990s, the ocean harvest index was below the 1990 level (*i.e.*, 0.71 in 1991 and 1992, 0.72 in 1993, 0.74 in 1994, 0.78 in 1995, and 0.64 in 1996). In 1996 and 1997, NMFS issued a biological opinion which concluded that incidental ocean harvest of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon represented a significant source of mortality to the endangered population, even though ocean harvest was not a key factor leading to the decline of the population. As a result of these opinions, measures were developed and implemented by the PFMC, NMFS, and CDFG to reduce ocean harvest by approximately 50 percent. In 2001 the CVI dropped to 0.27, most likely due to the reduction in harvest and the higher abundance of other salmonids originating from the Central Valley (Good *et al.* 2005). In April 2010, NMFS reached a jeopardy conclusion regarding the ongoing Fisheries Management Plan (FMP) for west coast ocean salmon fishery in regards to its impacts on the continued survival of the winter-run Chinook salmon population (NMFS 2010).

Ocean fisheries have affected the age structure of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon through targeting large fish for many years and reducing the numbers of 4- and 5-year-old fish (CDFG 1998). Winter-run spawners have also been affected by ocean fisheries, as most spawners return as 3-year olds. As a result of very low returns of fall-run Chinook salmon to the Central Valley in 2007 and 2008, there was a complete closure of commercial and recreational ocean Chinook salmon fishery in 2008 and 2009, respectively. Salmon fisheries were again restricted in 2010 with a limited fishing season due to poor returns of fall-run Chinook salmon in 2009. The Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon population increased by approximately 60 percent in 2009, but declined again in 2010 to 1,596 fish. However, contrary to expectations, even with the 2 years of ocean fishery closures, the Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon population continues to decline. Ocean harvest rates of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon are thought to be a function of the CVI (Good *et al.* 2005). Harvest rates of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ranged from 0.55 to nearly 0.80 between 1970 and 1995 when harvest rates were adjusted for the protection of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon. The drop in the CVI in 2001 as a result of high fall-run escapement to 0.27 also reduced harvest of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon. There is essentially no ocean harvest of steelhead.

b. Inland Sport Harvest –Chinook Salmon and Steelhead

Historically in California, almost half of the river sport fishing effort was in the Sacramento-San Joaquin River system, particularly upstream from the City of Sacramento (Emmett *et al.* 1991). Since 1987, the Fish and Game Commission has adopted increasingly stringent regulations to reduce and virtually eliminate the in-river sport fishery for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon. Present regulations include a year-round closure to Chinook salmon fishing between Keswick Dam and the Deschutes Road Bridge and a rolling closure to Chinook salmon fishing on the Sacramento River between the Deschutes River Bridge and the Carquinez Bridge. The rolling closure spans the months that migrating adult Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon are ascending the Sacramento River to their spawning grounds. These closures have virtually eliminated impacts on Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon caused by recreational angling in freshwater. In 1992, the California Fish and Game Commission adopted gear restrictions (all hooks must be barbless and a maximum of 5.7 cm in length) to minimize hooking injury and mortality of winter-run Chinook salmon caused by trout anglers. That same year, the Commission also adopted regulations which prohibited any salmon from being removed from the water to further reduce the potential for injury and mortality.

In-river recreational fisheries historically have taken Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon throughout the species' range. During the summer, holding adult Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon are easily targeted by anglers when they congregate in large pools. Poaching also occurs at fish ladders, and other areas where adults congregate; however, the significance of poaching on the adult population is unknown. Specific regulations for the protection of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon in Mill, Deer, Butte, and Big Chico creeks and the Yuba River have been added to the existing CDFG regulations. The current regulations, including those developed for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon provide some level of protection for spring-run fish (CDFG 1998).

There is little information on steelhead harvest rates in California. Hallock *et al.* (1961) estimated that harvest rates for Sacramento River steelhead from the 1953-1954 through 1958-1959 seasons ranged from 25.1 percent to 45.6 percent assuming a 20 percent non-return rate of tags. The average annual harvest rate of adult steelhead above RBDD for the 3-year period from 1991-1992 through 1993-1994 was 16 percent (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Since 1998, all hatchery steelhead have been marked with an adipose fin clip allowing anglers to distinguish hatchery and wild steelhead. Current regulations restrict anglers from keeping unmarked steelhead in Central Valley streams. Overall, this regulation has greatly increased protection of naturally produced adult steelhead; however, the total number of Central Valley steelhead contacted might be a significant fraction of basin-wide escapement, and even low catch-and-release mortality may pose a problem for wild populations (Good *et al.* 2005).

c. *Green Sturgeon*

Commercial harvest of white sturgeon results in the incidental bycatch of green sturgeon primarily along the Oregon and Washington coasts and within their coastal estuaries. Oregon and Washington have recently prohibited the retention of green sturgeon in their waters for commercial and recreational fisheries. Adams *et al.* (2002, 2007) reported harvest of green sturgeon from California, Oregon, and Washington between 1985 and 2001. Total captures of green sturgeon in the Columbia River Estuary by commercial means ranged from 240 fish per year to 6,000. Catches in Willapa Bay and Grays Harbor by commercial means combined ranged from 9 fish to 2,494 fish per year. Emmett *et al.* (1991) indicated that averages of 4.7 to 15.9 tons of green sturgeon were landed annually in Grays Harbor and Willapa Bay respectively. Overall, captures appeared to be dropping through the years; however, this could be related to changing fishing regulations. Adams *et al.* (2002, 2007) also reported sport fishing captures in California, Oregon, and Washington. Within the San Francisco Estuary, green sturgeon are captured by sport fisherman targeting the more desirable white sturgeon, particularly in San Pablo and Suisun bays (Emmett *et al.* 1991). Sport fishing in the Columbia River, Willapa Bay, and Grays Harbor captured from 22 to 553 fish per year between 1985 and 2001. Again, it appears sport fishing captures are dropping through time; however, it is not known if this is a result of abundance, changed fishing regulations, or other factors. Based on new research by Israel (2006a) and past tagged fish returns reported by CDFG (2002), a high proportion of green sturgeon present in the Columbia River, Willapa Bay, and Grays Harbor (as much as 80 percent in the Columbia River) may be Southern DPS North American green sturgeon. This indicates a potential threat to the Southern DPS North American green sturgeon population. Beamesderfer *et al.* (2007) estimated that green sturgeon will be vulnerable to slot limits (outside of California) for approximately 14 years of their life span. Fishing gear mortality presents an additional risk to the long-lived sturgeon species such as the green sturgeon (Boreman 1997). Although sturgeon are relatively hardy and generally survive being hooked, their long life makes them vulnerable to repeated hooking encounters, which leads to an overall significant hooking mortality rate over their lifetime. An adult green sturgeon may not become sexually mature until they are 13 to 18 years of age for males (152-185cm), and 16 to 27 years of age for females (165-202 cm) (Van Eenennaam 2006). Even though slot limits “protect” a significant proportion of the life history of green sturgeon from harvest, they do not protect them from fishing pressure.

Green sturgeon are caught incidentally by sport fisherman targeting the more highly desired white sturgeon within the Delta waterways and the Sacramento River. New regulations which went into effect in March 2007, reduced the slot limit of sturgeon from 72 inches to 66 inches, and limit the retention of white sturgeon to one fish per day with a total of 3 fish retained per year. In addition, a non-transferable sturgeon punch card with tags must be obtained by each angler fishing for sturgeon. All sturgeon caught must be recorded on the card, including those released. All green sturgeon must be released unharmed and recorded on the sturgeon punch card by the angler. In 2010, further restrictions to fishing for sturgeon in the upper Sacramento River were enacted between Keswick Dam and the Highway 162 bridge over the Sacramento River near the towns of Cordora and Butte City. These regulations are designed to protect green sturgeon in the upper Sacramento River from unnecessary harm due to fishing pressure (CDFG freshwater fishing regulations 2010-2011).

Poaching rates of green sturgeon in the Central Valley are unknown; however, catches of sturgeon occur during all years, especially during wet years. Unfortunately, there is no catch, effort, and stock size data for this fishery which precludes making exploitation estimates (USFWS 1995a). Areas just downstream of Thermalito Afterbay outlet and Cox's Spillway, and several barriers impeding migration on the Feather River may be areas of high adult mortality from increased fishing effort and poaching. The small population of sturgeon inhabiting the San Joaquin River experiences heavy fishing pressure, particularly regarding illegal snagging and it may be more than the population can support (USFWS 1995a).

8. Disease and Predation

Infectious disease is one of many factors that influence adult and juvenile salmonid survival. Salmonids are exposed to numerous bacterial, protozoan, viral, and parasitic organisms in spawning and rearing areas, hatcheries, migratory routes, and the marine environment (NMFS 1996a, 1996b, 1998a). Specific diseases such as bacterial kidney disease, *Ceratomyxosis shasta* (C-shasta), columnaris, furunculosis, infectious hematopoietic necrosis, redmouth and black spot disease, whirling disease, and erythrocytic inclusion body syndrome are known, among others, to affect steelhead and Chinook salmon (NMFS 1996a, 1996b, 1998a). Very little current or historical information exists to quantify changes in infection levels and mortality rates attributable to these diseases; however, studies have shown that wild fish tend to be less susceptible to pathogens than are hatchery-reared fish. Nevertheless, wild salmonids may contract diseases that are spread through the water column (*i.e.*, waterborne pathogens) as well as through interbreeding with infected hatchery fish. The stress of being released into the wild from a controlled hatchery environment frequently causes latent infections to convert into a more pathological state, and increases the potential of transmission from hatchery reared fish to wild stocks within the same waters.

Accelerated predation also may be a factor in the decline of Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, and to a lesser degree Central Valley steelhead. Human-induced habitat changes such as alteration of natural flow regimes and installation of bank revetment and structures such as dams, bridges, water diversions, piers, and wharves often provide conditions that both disorient juvenile salmonids and attract predators (Stevens 1961, Decato 1978, Vogel *et al.* 1988, Garcia 1989).

On the mainstem Sacramento River, high rates of predation are known to occur at the RBDD, Anderson-Cottonwood Irrigation District's (ACID) diversion dam, GCID's diversion facility, areas where rock revetment has replaced natural river bank vegetation, and at south Delta water diversion structures (e.g., Clifton Court Forebay; CDFG 1998). Predation at RBDD on juvenile winter-run Chinook salmon is believed to be higher than normal due to flow dynamics associated with the operation of this structure. Due to their small size, early emigrating winter-run Chinook salmon may be very susceptible to predation in Lake Red Bluff when the RBDD gates remain closed in summer and early fall. In passing the dam, juveniles are subject to conditions which greatly disorient them, making them highly susceptible to predation by fish or birds. Sacramento pikeminnow (*Ptychocheilus grandis*) and striped bass congregate below the dam and prey on juvenile salmon in the tail waters. The Sacramento pikeminnow is a species native to the Sacramento River basin and has co-evolved with the anadromous salmonids in this system. However, rearing conditions in the Sacramento River today (e.g., warm water, low-irregular flow, standing water, and water diversions) compared to its natural state and function decades ago in the pre-dam era, are more conducive to warm water species such as Sacramento pikeminnow and striped bass than to native salmonids. Tucker *et al.* (1998) reported that predation during the summer months by Sacramento pikeminnow on juvenile salmonids increased to 66 percent of the total weight of stomach contents in the predatory pikeminnow. Striped bass showed a strong preference for juvenile salmonids as prey during this study. This research also indicated that the percent frequency of occurrence for juvenile salmonids nearly equaled other fish species in the stomach contents of the predatory fish. Tucker *et al.* (2003) showed the temporal distribution for these two predators in the RBDD area were directly related to RBDD operations (predators congregated when the dam gates were in, and dispersed when the gates were removed). With the interim RBDD operations proposed under the 2009 NMFS Operations BO the gates of the RBDD remain open for a longer period of time. This should reduce the level of predation upon emigrating salmonids. Eventually the gates will remain open year round and predation should be even further reduced. Some predation is still likely to occur due to the physical structure of the dam remaining in the water way, even with the gates in the open position.

USFWS found that more predatory fish were found at rock revetment bank protection sites between Chico Landing and Red Bluff than at sites with naturally eroding banks (Michny and Hampton 1984). From October 1976 to November 1993, CDFG conducted 10 mark/recapture studies at the SWP's Clifton Court Forebay to estimate pre-screen losses using hatchery-reared juvenile Chinook salmon. Pre-screen losses ranged from 69 percent to 99 percent. Predation by striped bass is thought to be the primary cause of the loss (Gingras 1997, DWR 2009).

Predation on juvenile salmonids has increased as a result of water development activities which have created ideal habitats for predators and non-native invasive species (NIS). Turbulent conditions near dam bypasses, turbine outfalls, water conveyances, and spillways disorient juvenile salmonid migrants and increase their predator avoidance response time, thus improving predator success. Increased exposure to predators has also resulted from reduced water flow through reservoirs; a condition which has increased juvenile travel time. Other locations in the Central Valley where predation is of concern include flood bypasses, post-release sites for salmonids salvaged at the CVP and SWP Fish Facilities, and the SMSCG. Predation on salmon

by striped bass and pikeminnow at salvage release sites in the Delta and lower Sacramento River has been documented (Orsi 1967, Pickard *et al.* 1982); however, accurate predation rates at these sites are difficult to determine. CDFG conducted predation studies from 1987 to 1993 at the SMSCG to determine if the structure attracts and concentrates predators. The dominant predator species at the SMSCG was striped bass, and the remains of juvenile Chinook salmon were identified in their stomach contents (Edwards *et al.* 1996, Tillman *et al.* 1996, NMFS 1997).

Avian predation on fish contributes to the loss of migrating juvenile salmonids by constraining natural and artificial production. Fish-eating birds that occur in the California Central Valley include great blue herons (*Ardea herodias*), gulls (*Larus spp.*), osprey (*Pandion haliaetus*), common mergansers (*Mergus merganser*), American white pelicans (*Pelecanus erythrorhynchos*), double-crested cormorants (*Phalacrocorax spp.*), Caspian terns (*Sterna caspia*), belted kingfishers (*Ceryle alcyon*), black-crowned night herons (*Nycticorax nycticorax*), Forster's terns (*Sterna forsteri*), hooded mergansers (*Lophodytes cucullatus*), and bald eagles (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*) (Stephenson and Fast 2005). These birds have high metabolic rates and require large quantities of food relative to their body size.

Mammals can also be an important source of predation on salmonids within the California Central Valley. Predators such as river otters (*Lutra canadensis*), raccoons (*Procyon lotor*), striped skunk (*Mephitis mephitis*), and western spotted skunk (*Spilogale gracilis*) are common. Other mammals that take salmonid include: badger (*Taxidea taxus*), bobcat (*Linx rufus*), coyote (*Canis latrans*), gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), long-tailed weasel (*Mustela frenata*), mink (*Mustela vison*), mountain lion (*Felis concolor*), red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), and ringtail (*Bassariscus astutus*). These animals, especially river otters, are capable of removing large numbers of salmon and trout from the aquatic habitat (Dolloff 1993). Mammals have the potential to consume large numbers of salmonids, but generally scavenge post-spawned salmon. In the marine environment, pinnipeds, including harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*), California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*), and Steller's sea lions (*Eumetopia jubatus*) are the primary marine mammals preying on salmonids (Spence *et al.* 1996). Pacific striped dolphin (*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*) and killer whale (*Orcinus orca*) can also prey on adult salmonids in the nearshore marine environment, and at times become locally important. Although harbor seal and sea lion predation primarily is confined to the marine and estuarine environments, they are known to travel well into freshwater after migrating fish and have frequently been encountered in the Delta and the lower portions of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers. All of these predators are opportunists, searching out locations where juveniles and adults are most vulnerable, such as the large water diversions in the south Delta.

9. Environmental Variation

Natural changes in the freshwater and marine environments play a major role in salmonid abundance. Recent evidence suggests that marine survival among salmonids fluctuates in response to 20- to 30-year cycles of climatic conditions and ocean productivity (Hare *et al.* 1999, Mantua and Hare 2002). This phenomenon has been referred to as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. In addition, large-scale climatic regime shifts, such as the El Niño condition, appear to change productivity levels over large expanses of the Pacific Ocean. A further confounding effect is the fluctuation between drought and wet conditions in the basins of the American west.