

Responses to HESS Referee Comments on Second Review Fox et al. Manuscript

Again, the authors appreciate the excellent review comments from the Editor and Referees. Our responses to each comment are shown below the comments in italics. Attached is a markup version of the manuscript so the editor and reviewers can see the modifications that have been made.

Referee #3 Comments:

Authors did a good job on incorporating the reviewer comments in the revised manuscript, providing a stronger argument to support their message that San Francisco Bay-Delta outflow level would be similar under current condition and natural condition. However, a few minor points need to be addressed, which I listed below.

Specific comments:

1. Line 26~30: This part is confusing. There are 3 points need to be clarified: 1. Annual average Delta outflow reduction, exists or not? 2. Does the human activity contribute to the Delta outflow reduction? 3. Does outflow reduction have impact on freshwater aquatic species?

- a. *We tried to clarify this section. The paragraph wording has been modified to read:*

“This analysis shows that the long-term, annual average Delta outflow under current conditions is consistent with outflow under natural landscape conditions. The amount of water currently used by farms, cities, and others is about equal to the amount of water formerly used by native vegetation. Development of water resources in California’s Central Valley transferred water formerly used by native vegetation to new beneficial uses without substantially reducing the long-term annual average supply to the San Francisco Bay-Delta estuary. Based on this finding, it is unlikely that observed declines in native freshwater aquatic species are the result of annual average Delta outflow reductions.”

2. Line 130~131: “without any losses or modifications on the way and with no recognition of the natural landscape” This sentence is misleading. Please revise it according to the “unimpaired” outflow definition in Line 537~541.

- a. *We have replaced this sentence to be consistent with Lines 537-541:*

“CDWR’s unimpaired outflow calculation removes the impacts of most upstream alterations from the observed hydrologic record. However, the calculation does not remove alterations such as channel improvements, levees, and flood bypasses. As a result, the calculation assumes that rim inflows from the surrounding mountain ranges are routed through the existing system of channels and bypasses in the Delta with little or no interaction with the natural landscape”

3. Line 474~475: I would say the rim inflows act as water supply. Inflow and precipitation are very different.

- a. *This sentence has been modified based on review comments to read:*

“Therefore, rim inflows supplement precipitation as a water supply to the Valley Floor.”

4. By comparing the current outflow of 19.5 billion m³/yr (62% water consumption) and best estimated natural outflow of 19.6~20.4 billion m³/yr (60% water consumption), the authors argue that the current-level and natural-level of Delta outflows are indistinguishable. The outflow levels are similar, but not indistinguishable. The current-level outflow is estimated with a higher water supply of 51.6 billion m³/yr, but it is still lower than the estimated natural outflow. So the human activities do have impact on the outflow, but it is not as significant as indicated by the “unimpaired” outflow.
 - a. *We agree with the reviewer comments. Lines 505-606 and 513 in the markup version of the manuscript have been modified to reflect this comment.*

5. Line 596: Double period.
 - a. *This has been corrected.*

1 Reconstructing the Natural Hydrology of the San Francisco 2 Bay-Delta Watershed

3
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14 **Abstract**

15 We evaluated the impact of landscape changes on the amount of Delta outflow reaching San
16 Francisco Bay. The natural landscape was reconstructed and water balances were used to
17 estimate the long-term annual average Delta outflow that would have occurred under natural
18 landscape conditions if the climate from 1922 to 2009 were to repeat. These outflows are
19 referred to as “natural” Delta outflows and are the first published estimate of natural Delta
20 outflow. These “natural” Delta outflows were then compared with current Delta outflows for the
21 same climate and existing landscape, including its re-engineered system of reservoirs, canals,
22 aqueducts and pumping plants.

23 This analysis shows that the long-term, annual average Delta outflow under current conditions
24 has not declined is consistent with compared to natural outflow under natural landscape
25 conditions. under natural landscape conditions is similar equal to current Delta outflow because
26 The amount of water currently used by farms, cities, and others is about equal to the amount of
27 water formerly used by native vegetation. Thus, human The dD development of water resources in

28 California's Central Valley transferred water formerly used by native vegetation to new
29 beneficial uses without substantially reducing the long-term annual average supply to the San
30 Francisco Bay-Delta estuary. Based on this finding~~Thus~~, it is unlikely that observed declines in
31 native freshwater aquatic species are the result of annual average Delta outflow reductions.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 The San Francisco Estuary, composed of San Francisco Bay and the Sacramento-San Joaquin
34 River Delta, is the largest estuary along the Pacific coast of the United States and the home to a
35 rich ecosystem. The Delta serves as one of the principal hubs of California's water system,
36 which delivers 45 percent of the water used statewide to 25 million residents and 16,000 km² of
37 farmland.

38 The Central Valley of California is a 60 to 100 km wide broad flat alluvial plain, stretching over
39 750 km from north to south and covering about 58,000 km² (containing the irrigated land from
40 south of Redding to south of Bakersfield in Figure 1). This valley is entirely surrounded by
41 mountains except for a narrow gap on its western edge through which the combined Sacramento
42 and San Joaquin Rivers flow to the Pacific Ocean through San Francisco Bay (Figure 1). This
43 valley is the agricultural heartland of the United States, producing over 360 products and more
44 than half of the country's vegetables, fruits and nuts. It is often considered the most productive
45 agricultural region in the world, a status achieved by significantly re-engineering the natural
46 landscape. The tributary watersheds in the northern portion of the Central Valley, referred to in
47 this work as the Valley Floor (Figure 2), are the major sources of freshwater to the San Francisco
48 Bay-Delta system. The Sacramento River from the north and the San Joaquin River from the
49 south flow toward each other, joining in the Delta.

50 The development of California from small-scale human settlements that co-existed with an
51 environment rich in native vegetation to the eighth largest economy in the world was facilitated
52 by reconfiguring the state's water resources to serve new uses: agriculture, industry, and a
53 burgeoning population. The redistribution of water from native vegetation to other uses was
54 accompanied by significant declines in native aquatic species that rely on the San Francisco Bay-
55 Delta system. Declines in native aquatic species have been documented in the San Francisco
56 Bay-Delta system over the last several decades (Jassby et al., 1995; MacNally et al., 2010;
57 Thomson et al., 2010). Many aquatic species have been classified as endangered, threatened,

58 and species of concern, e.g., Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, Delta smelt,
59 Sacramento Splittail, Longfin smelt, Southern green sturgeon (Lund et al., 2007). These declines
60 have been attributed to several factors including reduced volume and altered timing of freshwater
61 flows from the tributary watersheds (Delta outflow); decreased sediment loads; increased
62 nutrient loads; changes in nutrient stoichiometry; contaminants; introduced species; habitat
63 degradation and loss; and shifts in the ocean-atmosphere system (Luoma and Nichols, 1993;
64 Jassby et al., 1995; Bennett and Moyle, 1996; MacNally et al., 2010; Glibert, 2010; Glibert et al.,
65 2011; Miller et al., 2012; Cloern and Jassby, 2012).

66 The native species of concern evolved and thrived under natural landscape conditions, or those
67 that existed prior to European settlement starting in the mid-18th century. These undisturbed
68 conditions are referred to in this work as “natural” conditions, meaning undisturbed by western
69 civilization. Thus, “natural” Delta outflows are those that would have occurred with “natural”
70 landscape conditions.

71 The natural landscape included immense inland marshes located in natural flood basins along
72 major rivers (Alexander et al., 1874; Hall, 1887; Garone, 2011), lush riparian forests on river
73 levees (Katibah, 1984), and vast swaths of grasslands interwoven with vernal pools and immense
74 valley oaks in park-like savannas that extended from the floodplains to the oak- and pine-covered
75 foothills (Holland, 1978; Burcham, 1957; Dutzi, 1978). This landscape was fed by periodic
76 overflows of the rivers into natural flood basins along the major rivers. Figure 3 is an idealized
77 cross-section through the Valley Floor that illustrates the major features of this natural landscape.
78 This landscape was dramatically altered, starting in the mid-18th century, to support new land
79 and water uses. The native vegetation was largely replaced by cultivated crops, the flood basins
80 were drained, the rivers were confined between levees, headwater reservoirs were built to store
81 floodwaters, and an extensive system of canals and aqueducts was built to move water from its
82 point of origin to distant locations.

83 In this study, the hypothesis that current annual average freshwater flows are lower than natural
84 annual average flows into the estuary is tested using a simple water balance, normalized to the
85 contemporary climate. We then compare our natural Delta outflow estimate with an estimate of
86 Delta outflow that occurs annually under current conditions. This is the first published estimate
87 of natural Delta outflow into the San Francisco Bay-Delta estuary. Others have used a surrogate,

88 known as “unimpaired” flows in California, to estimate natural outflows. As will be
89 demonstrated, the surrogate fails to account for evapotranspiration by native vegetation, the
90 major consumptive use of water in the natural system, resulting in a significant overestimate of
91 natural Delta outflows.

92

93 **2 Study Area Background**

94 Prior to development, starting in the mid-18th century, the channels of the major rivers did not
95 have adequate capacity to carry normal winter rainfall runoff and spring snowmelt (Grunsky,
96 1929; CA State Engineer, 1908). The rivers overflowed their banks into vast natural flood basins
97 flanking both sides of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers (Hall, 1880; Grunsky, 1929).
98 Sediment deposited as the rivers spread out over the floodplain and built up natural levees along
99 the river channels. These natural levees were much larger and more developed along the
100 Sacramento River than along the San Joaquin River (Hall, 1880).

101 The natural levees were lined with lush riparian forest. The floodplains contained large expanses
102 of tule marsh, seasonal wetlands, vernal pools, grasslands, lakes, sloughs and other landforms
103 that slowed the passage of flood waters (Whipple et al., 2012; Garone, 2011; Holmes and
104 Eckmann, 1912). Groundwater generally moved from recharge areas along the sides of the
105 valley towards topographically lower areas in the central part of the valley, where it was depleted
106 through marsh, vernal pool, and riparian forest evapotranspiration (TBI, 1998; Bertoldi et al.,
107 1991; Williamson et al., 1989; Davis et al., 1959).

108 Grasslands interspersed with vernal pools (seasonal wetlands) stretched from the edge of the
109 floodplain to the foothills, generally overlying relatively impermeable hardpans and claypans
110 that supported perched water tables. This habitat once occupied nearly all level lands between
111 the foothills and floodplain and was the dominant vegetation under natural conditions, supplied
112 by perched aquifers, overland runoff from the foothills, and precipitation.

113 This natural landscape, summarized in Figure 4, was radically modified, starting in the mid-18th
114 century, to make it suitable for agricultural (Smith and Verrill, 1998) and urban uses, creating the
115 world’s largest water system supporting the eighth largest economy in the world. The native
116 vegetation was removed, river channels were dredged and rip-rapped, levees were raised, the

117 flood basins were drained, bypasses were installed to route flood waters directly into the Delta,
118 and head-stream reservoirs were built to replace side-stream storage, provide protection from
119 floods, and generate electricity. Massive hydraulic works were built to move water from areas of
120 relative abundance to areas of relative scarcity throughout the state, including to Los Angeles
121 and the San Francisco Bay Area. The history of these changes have been documented elsewhere
122 (Kelley, 1959; Bain et al., 1966; Kahrl, 1979; Thompson, 1957; Kelley, 1989; Hundley, 2001;
123 Olmstead and Rhode, 2004; CDWR, 2013b).

124 **3 Methods**

125 Annual average Delta outflow was estimated under natural landscape conditions (natural Delta
126 outflow) using a conventional water balance. The results of this calculation are compared with
127 two estimates of Delta outflow by the California Department of Water Resources (CDWR): (1)
128 current Delta outflow (CDWR, 2012) and (2) unimpaired Delta outflow (CDWR, 2007).
129 CDWR’s unimpaired outflow calculation removes the impacts of most upstream alterations from
130 the observed hydrologic record. However, the calculation does not remove alterations such as
131 channel improvements, levees, and flood bypasses. As a result, the calculation assumes that rim
132 inflows from the surrounding mountain ranges are routed through the existing system of
133 channels and bypasses in the Delta with little or no interaction with the natural landscape
134 ~~“Unimpaired” outflows are rim inflows from the surrounding mountain ranges, modified or~~
135 ~~“unimpaired” to remove impacts of upstream alterations that are routed through the existing~~
136 ~~system of channels and bypasses into the Delta (Figure 2), without any losses or modifications~~
137 ~~on the way and with no recognition of the natural landscape~~ (CDWR, 2007). These
138 “unimpaired” outflows are frequently misused as a surrogate for “natural” Delta outflow (Cloern
139 and Jassby, 2012, Dynesius and Nilsson, 1994). All three of these estimates are based on the
140 level-of-development methodology and the climate over the period 1922 to 2009 to facilitate
141 direct comparisons.

142 **3.1 Level of Development Methodology**

143 These three estimates of Delta outflow – natural, current and unimpaired – were estimated using
144 a synthetic multi-year hydrologic sequence utilizing a “level of development” approach (Draper
145 et al., 2004). This method routes the same amount of water (rim inflows plus precipitation) over

146 a defined historical period assuming “frozen” conditions such as land use, flood control and
147 water supply facility operations, and environmental regulations. In other words, this method
148 simulates river flows under a repeat of historical climate, but holding land use and facility
149 operations constant.

150 A historical hydrologic sequence may be generated to represent development as it existed in a
151 particular year (i.e., “1990 level of development”), as it exists today (i.e., “current level of
152 development”), or as it may exist under a projected scenario (i.e., “future level of development”).
153 This approach allows us to estimate the impact of anthropogenic changes on natural Delta
154 outflow by comparing a “natural” level of development with a “current” level of development.

155 Thus, our estimate of natural outflow is not an estimate of actual flows that occurred under
156 Paleolithic or more recent conditions prior to European settlement (Ingram et al., 1996;
157 Malamud-Roam et al., 2006; Meko et al., 2001). Rather, our natural Delta outflow calculation is
158 an estimate that assumes the contemporary precipitation and inflow pattern to the Valley Floor
159 with the Valley Floor in a natural or undeveloped state, i.e., before flood control facilities,
160 levees, land reclamation, irrigation projects, imports, etc.

161 Natural outflow calculations were performed on a monthly basis assuming long-term climatic
162 conditions observed over an 88-year period (1922 to 2009). The calculations assume a
163 conventional California October through September water year. Water balances were calculated
164 around the portion of the Central Valley that drains into San Francisco Bay (referred to as the
165 "Valley Floor") as shown in Figure 2.

166 **3.2 Natural Delta Outflow**

167 Natural Delta outflow was calculated using a conventional water balance as the difference
168 between water supply and water use:

$$169 \text{ Natural Delta Outflow} = \text{Water Supply} - \text{Water Use} \quad (1)$$

170 “Natural” Delta outflows are the outflows that would result if the climate for the period 1922 to
171 2009 were to occur under “natural” landscape conditions. “Natural” landscape conditions are
172 those that existed prior to the advent of European settlement, starting in the mid-18th century,
173 including native vegetation (Figure 4) and natural landforms such as stream-side flood basins
174 and low levees.

175 The water supply is the sum of rim inflows from the surrounding mountain ranges into the
176 Valley Floor plus precipitation on the Valley Floor, adjusted to remove impairments such as
177 diversions. The only losses of water under natural conditions were evaporation from water
178 surfaces and evapotranspiration by native vegetation. Water that is not evaporated or
179 evapotranspired flows out of the Delta into San Francisco Bay and is referred to here as “Delta
180 outflow.”

181 Eq. (1) assumes that the long-term, annual average change in groundwater storage would have
182 been zero under pre-development conditions. This assumption would not significantly affect
183 long-term annual average calculations as the year-to-year fluctuations of groundwater exchanges
184 are insignificant compared to average surface water flows. However, it would affect seasonal
185 flow patterns, which is the subject of ongoing work. Net groundwater depletions under pre-
186 development conditions are approximately zero and unimportant to the overall annual water
187 balance (Gleick, 1987).

188 Water balances are reported for three hydrologic regions that comprise the Valley Floor: the
189 Sacramento Basin, the San Joaquin Basin, and the Delta (Figure 2). Water balances were
190 calculated at a finer resolution for sixteen subsets of the Valley Floor, referred to as "planning
191 areas" (CDWR, 2005a, 2005b) shown on Figure 2.

192 The results of these conventional water balance calculations are compared with current Delta
193 outflow (CDWR, 2012) and a surrogate for natural outflow, unimpaired outflow (CDWR, 2007),
194 estimated based on the level-of-development methodology.

195 **3.3 Natural Water Supply**

196 The water supply used in the natural water balances was estimated as the sum of rim inflows
197 around the periphery of the Valley Floor plus precipitation that falls on the Valley Floor. The
198 long-term annual average natural water supply is 50.1 billion m³/yr, comprising 34.2 billion
199 m³/yr from rim inflows and 15.9 billion m³/yr from precipitation over the Valley Floor.

200 The Valley Floor boundary is defined by the drainage basins of the gages used to determine
201 valley rim inflows, adjusted (i.e., “unimpaired”) to remove the effects of upstream storage
202 regulation, imports and exports. Rim inflows are defined as the natural water supply from the
203 surrounding mountains and other watersheds to the Valley Floor. The rim inflows were

204 compiled for undeveloped and developed watersheds from several sources that cover different
205 portions of the study area.

206 Rim inflows have been affected by changes in land use and forest management and by loss of
207 natural meadows. Agricultural and urban development represents a relatively small portion
208 (about five percent) of the rim watersheds. While low elevation hardwoods and chaparral have
209 been lost and annual grassland areas have increased (Thorne et al., 2008), much of the rim
210 watersheds remain characterized by conifer forest. Forest management practices, which have
211 resulted in denser forest stands compared to pre-development conditions, may significantly affect
212 runoff timing and volume (Bales et al., 2011; CDWR, 2013b). Denser forest canopy prevents
213 snow from reaching the ground and leads to greater evapotranspiration and earlier snowmelt
214 (CDWR, 2013b). However, scientific evidence necessary to quantify relationships between
215 forest management and water supply has been inconclusive. Therefore, our work assumes
216 natural inflows from the rim watersheds are equal to historical inflows adjusted to remove the
217 effects of upstream storage regulation, imports and exports (i.e., unimpaired inflows).

218 Historical flow records were generated from U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) and California
219 Department of Water Resources (CDWR) gage data and extended through linear correlation with
220 gaged flows in nearby watersheds. Rim inflows from ungaged watersheds were estimated from
221 adjacent gaged watersheds based on relative drainage area and average annual precipitation.

222 Unimpaired flows (CDWR, 2013a) from developed rim watersheds in the Sacramento and San
223 Joaquin hydrologic regions were assumed to equal natural inflows. Similarly, unimpaired flows
224 from the rim watershed south of the Valley Floor (i.e., the Tulare Lake hydrologic region) were
225 assumed to be equal to natural inflows (CDWR, 2012). Minimal groundwater flow from the
226 Sierra Nevada and Coastal Range to the Valley Floor is assumed, due to the presence of bedrock
227 and high surface slopes (Armstrong and Stidd, 1967; Gleick, 1987; Williamson et al., 1989).

228 In addition to rim inflows from surrounding mountain watersheds, precipitation falling directly
229 on the Valley Floor contributes to the water supply. Precipitation was calculated for each
230 planning area within the Valley Floor using distributed grids obtained from the PRISM Climate
231 Group at Oregon State University (Daly et al., 2000; Daly and Bryant, 2013; PRISM Climate
232 Group, 2013).

233 3.4 Natural Water Use

234 The pre-development Valley Floor was a diverse ecosystem of immense inland marshes, lush
235 riparian forests, and vast swaths of grasslands interwoven with vernal pools and immense valley
236 oaks in park-like savannas that extended from the floodplains to the oak- and pine-covered
237 foothills (Bryan, 1923; Davis et al., 1959; Thompson, 1961, 1977; Roberts et al., 1977; Dutzi,
238 1978; Warner and Hendrix, 1985; TBI, 1998; Cunningham, 2010; Garone, 2011; Whipple et al.,
239 2012).

240 Under natural conditions, the only water use was evapotranspiration by natural vegetation and
241 evaporation from water surfaces such as lakes, rivers, and sloughs. We estimated the amount of
242 water used by natural vegetation from the areal extent and evapotranspiration rate for each type
243 of vegetation. We also estimated evaporation from lakes, rivers, and sloughs based on the area
244 and evaporation rates from these bodies of water.

245 Estimating the water used by natural vegetation (ET) requires information on the vegetation
246 evapotranspiration rate (ET_v) and the areal extent of vegetation (A_v). The volume of water used
247 by natural vegetation is then estimated in Eq. (2) as the product of ET_v and A_v summed over all
248 planning areas i and vegetation types j :

$$249 \left| ET = \sum_{i,j} (ET_v \times A_v) \right. \quad (2)$$

250 The same method was applied to evapotranspiration from free water surfaces such as lakes,
251 ponds, sloughs, and river channels. The remainder of the section discusses how ET_v and A_v were
252 estimated.

253 3.4.1 Evapotranspiration

254 The reference crop method was used to estimate evapotranspiration by natural vegetation
255 (Howes and Pasquet, 2013; Howes et al., 2015). As shown in Eq. (3), the evapotranspiration rate
256 is related to the grass reference evapotranspiration (ET_o) for a standardized grass reference crop
257 grown under idealized conditions multiplied by a vegetation coefficient (K_v) that accounts for
258 canopy/plant characteristics:

$$259 ET_v = ET_o \times K_v \quad (3)$$

260 Two methods were used to estimate K_v , depending upon the available water supply used by
261 various vegetation categories. The methods used to develop the K_v and ET_v used in this study
262 are discussed in detail in Howes et al., (2015). The methods are briefly summarized in the
263 following paragraphs.

264 For non-stressed vegetation with a continuous water supply throughout the growing season, K_v
265 was estimated from published studies of actual monthly (or more frequent) ET_v using a grass
266 reference evapotranspiration (ET_o) (Howes et al., 2015). The ET_o used to derive the K_v values
267 for this study was computed using the Standardized Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al.,
268 2005) when a full set of meteorological data was available; otherwise, the Hargreaves equation
269 was used. The accuracy of this method was confirmed for permanent wetlands and riparian
270 forest using actual evapotranspiration measured using remote sensing at two sites in central
271 California (Howes et al., 2015).

272 For vegetation depending solely on precipitation (chaparral and a portion of the grasslands and
273 valley/foothill hardwood), a daily soil water balance using the dual-crop coefficient method
274 (Allen et al., 1998) was used to estimate ET_v and K_v over the 88-year study period (Howes et al.,
275 2015). The ET_v values directly from the daily soil water balance were used in Equation (2) for
276 vegetation types reliant solely on precipitation. Since the daily soil water balance accounts for
277 variable precipitation, the ET_v from vegetation reliant on precipitation varies from year to year.
278 As a reference, the long-term annual average K_v values for these vegetation types were
279 calculated from daily soil water balances for each planning area and are summarized in Table 1.

280 The K_v values summarized in Table 1 for non-water stressed vegetation were used in Eq. (3) to
281 estimate monthly average ET_v for vegetation types that had access to full year-round water
282 supply by planning area. Long-term average ET_v values for all vegetation types are shown in
283 Table 2 (Howes et al., 2015).

284 3.4.2 Vegetation Areas

285 The vegetation present on the Valley Floor under natural conditions included rainfed and
286 perennial grasslands, vernal pools, permanent and seasonal wetlands, valley/foothill hardwood,
287 riparian forest, saltbush, and chaparral (Howes et al., 2015; Barbour et al., 1993; Garone, 2011;
288 Küchler, 1977). The areal extent of each type of vegetation was estimated from historic maps

289 and contemporary estimates based on historic sources (Hall, 1887; Burcham, 1957; K uchler,
290 1977; Roberts et al., 1977; Dutzi, 1978; Fox, 1987; TBI, 1998; CSU Chico, 2003; Garone, 2011;
291 Whipple et al., 2012; Fox and Sears, 2014), supplemented by early soil surveys for vernal pools
292 (Holmes et al., 1915; Nelson et al., 1918; Strahorn et al., 1911; Lapham et al., 1909; Sweet et
293 al., 1909; Holmes and Eckmann, 1912; Mann et al., 1911; Lapham and Holmes, 1908; Lapham
294 et al., 1904; Watson et al., 1929).

295 Most of these vegetation maps focused on a single type of vegetation so we were unable to use
296 them as our primary source. Further, we were unable to piece the more limited coverage maps
297 together in any meaningful way as they used different vegetation classification systems and
298 different study areas; even this collection of maps did not cover the entire Valley Floor study
299 area. Thus, we based our natural vegetation estimates on the California State University at Chico
300 ("CSU Chico") pre-1900 map, which covered most of the Valley Floor.

301 The CSU Chico study reviewed and digitized approximately 700 historic maps from numerous
302 collections in public libraries. These sources were pulled together in a series of maps, including
303 a "Pre-1900 Historic Vegetation Map." We used the pre-1900 Historic Vegetation Map as our
304 base map, modified to cover the entire Valley Floor using K uchler (1977) and to further
305 subdivide some of its vegetation classifications to match available evapotranspiration
306 information.

307 CSU Chico characterized its pre-1900 map as "the best available historical vegetation
308 information for the pre-1900 period" noting it provided "a snapshot of the most likely pre Euro-
309 American vegetation cover" (CSU Chico, 2003). This map has been cited by others as
310 representing natural vegetation (Bolger et al., 2011; Vaghti and Greco, 2007). It is based on a
311 patchwork of sources, scales, and dates, with the earliest source map dating to 1874.

312 The accuracy of the CSU Chico pre-1900 map was confirmed to the extent feasible using GIS
313 overlays with other available natural vegetation maps (Hall, 1887; Roberts et al., 1977; Dutzi,
314 1978; Fox, 1987; TBI, 1998; Garone, 2011; Whipple et al., 2012). Original shapefiles were used
315 where available (Whipple et al., 2012; TBI, 1998; K uchler, 1977; CSU Chico, 2003). Other
316 maps were scanned (400-dpi full color scanner), the scanned versions were georeferenced using
317 various data layers (e.g., county, township), and the map features were digitized by hand using

318 editing features in ArcMap. ArcMap's geoprocessing tools were used to determine vegetation
319 areas (Fox and Sears, 2014).

320 The natural vegetation areas estimated using these methods were also compared with those
321 estimated by others. This work estimated about 0.40 million hectares of permanent wetlands.
322 Others have estimated 0.40 (Fox 1987) to 0.53 million hectares (Hilgard 1884, Shelton 1987) for
323 slightly different Valley Floor boundaries. This work estimated about 1.62 million hectares of
324 grasslands. Others have estimated 2.02 (TBI 1998) to 2.18 (Fox, 1987; Shelton 1987) million
325 hectares for slightly different Valley Floor boundaries. The current study estimated
326 approximately 0.77 million hectares of vernal pool habitat in the Valley Floor outside of the
327 floodplain. Others have estimated about 0.97 million hectares of vernal pool habitat (Holland
328 1978, 1998; Holland and Hollander 2007) for slightly different Valley Floor boundaries. This
329 work also estimated 0.29 million hectares of riparian forest based on CSU Chico's map, which is
330 low compared to estimates by others including 0.35, 0.38, 0.37, 0.58, and 0.65 million hectares
331 estimated by Shelton (1987), Roberts et al. (1977) , Katibah (1984) , Fox (1987), and Warner and
332 Hendrix (1985), respectively, for slightly different Valley Floor boundaries.

333 However, as the CSU Chico maps and other sources were based on maps prepared after
334 significant modifications to the landscape had already occurred, they may underestimate some
335 types of natural vegetation (Thompson, 1957; Whipple et al., 2012; CSG, 1862). It follows that
336 reliance on these maps may underestimate evapotranspiration and thereby overestimate natural
337 Delta outflow. Riparian forests, for example, were cleared early to make way for cities and
338 farms and harvested to supply fuel for steamboats traversing the rivers in support of the Gold
339 Rush (Whipple et al., 2012). Widespread conversion of wetlands into agricultural uses began in
340 the 1850s when they were leveed, drained, cleared, leveled or filled; water entering them was
341 impounded, diverted, or drained; and sloughs and crevasses closed to dry out the land (Whipple
342 et al., 2012; Frayer et al., 1989; CSG, 1862). The great wheat bonanza that transformed much of
343 the Central Valley into farmland was well underway by 1874, the date of the earliest historic
344 map in the collection considered by CSU Chico.

345 The results of our natural vegetation area analysis, based on available historic maps and soil
346 surveys, are summarized in Figure 4 and Table 3. These areas represent the starting point for
347 our natural flow estimate. We call this starting point "Case I".

348 Case I represents long-term annual average conditions. These areas are not representative of
349 individual years due to climate-driven variations, which primarily affected grasslands and
350 wetlands. Area size, especially of rainfed grasslands and vernal pools, likely varied from year to
351 year with the amount of precipitation falling on the Valley Floor and surrounding mountains.

352 3.4.3 Sensitivity Analysis

353 A sensitivity analysis was performed to address the uncertainty in both natural vegetation areas
354 and evapotranspiration rates. The areal extent of most types of vegetation was not measured or
355 even observed by botanists in its natural state. Further, the water used by some classes of natural
356 vegetation, such as vernal pools and valley oak savannas, has never been measured in the Valley
357 Floor while the natural water supply is largely based on measurements of rim watershed stream
358 flows or impairments thereof and precipitation. Thus, we formulated a series of cases, in which
359 land use was varied, to explore the range in natural vegetation water use. The cases were
360 selected to address key uncertainties associated with classifying vegetation areas. The eight
361 cases we studied are summarized in Table 4.

362 As grasslands (including vernal pools) and valley/foothill hardwood classifications represent the
363 greatest portions of the Valley floor (see Table 3), our cases focus on these two vegetation
364 classifications. The extent of permanent wetlands, the next largest vegetation classification in
365 the Valley Floor, was extensively surveyed in the 1850s (CSG, 1856; CSG, 1862; Anonymous,
366 1861; Flushman, 2002; Thompson, 1957) and is considered to be accurately estimated in Case I
367 (Table 3). Further, the evapotranspiration from these wetlands has been well studied (Howes et
368 al., 2015). Thus, we have confidence in our estimates of water use by permanent wetlands.

369 Grasslands occupied about half of the Valley Floor area or about 16,000 km² out of 34,000 km²
370 (Table 3). The composition of these grasslands (e.g., the fraction that was perennial, rainfed, and
371 vernal pool) is unknown, as rapid and widespread modifications occurred before any botanical
372 study (Heady et al., 1992; Holmes and Rice, 1996; Holstein, 2001; Burcham, 1957; Garone,
373 2011). Some have attempted to estimate vernal pool area (Holland, 1978; Holland, 1998;
374 Holland and Hollander, 2007), but we are not aware of any attempts to estimate the area of
375 perennial and rainfed grasslands.

376 There is significant controversy over the original composition of grasslands. Some argue pristine
377 grasslands were perennial bunchgrasses (Heady, 1988; Küchler, 1977; Bartolome et al., 2007)
378 while others argue they were dominated by annual forbs (Schiffman, 2007; Holstein, 2001). A
379 discussion of this controversy is provided in Garone (2011). Finally, large expanses of lands
380 classified as "grasslands" by others (Küchler, 1977; Fox, 1987; TBI, 1998; CSU Chico, 2003)
381 were probably vernal pool seasonal wetlands supported by perched aquifers (Zedler, 2003;
382 Holland and Hollander, 2007; Fox and Sears, 2014). Due to these unknowns and controversies,
383 we used six cases to explore the effect of grassland composition on natural water use, the base
384 case compared to five variants.

385 In Case I, all grassland areas outside of the floodplain were classified as either vernal pool (based
386 on soil surveys) or rainfed grassland, as shown in Figure 4 and Table 3. We then varied the
387 rainfed portion to assume it was vernal pool (Case II) and perennial grassland (Case III) to bound
388 the likely range.

389 These three constant-area grassland cases resulted in many negative San Joaquin Basin annual
390 outflows, mostly in dry and critical years. One explanation for this outcome is that the
391 grasslands may have been predominately rainfed in the San Joaquin Basin since this basin is
392 much drier than the other two. Another explanation is that our water balance model assumed the
393 net change in groundwater storage was zero on a long-term basis, which may not be valid on a
394 yearly and basin-wide basis.

395 Groundwater that was recharged in wet and above normal years could have supplied the water
396 needs of natural vegetation in subsequent years. Failure to account for these potential inter-
397 annual sources of water could bias individual year water balances and could result in negative
398 basin outflows for individual years (particularly critical and dry years that follow very wet
399 years). Negative basin annual outflows were primarily limited to the San Joaquin Basin.

400 Thus, in Case IV, all grasslands in the San Joaquin Basin were classified as rainfed grasslands in
401 an attempt to address this possibility, while grasslands in the Sacramento and Delta Basins were
402 classified as a mix of vernal pool and perennial as in Case III. A similar consideration led to the
403 classification of seasonal wetlands in the San Joaquin Basin as rainfed grasslands (Case VIII,
404 discussed later).

405 We also discounted the scenario of grasslands being rainfed valley-wide as unlikely, given that
406 our work and the work of Holland and Hollander (2007) established that a significant fraction of
407 the Valley Floor was vernal pool habitat. Some of these grassland areas, particularly within the
408 flood basins, were likely seasonal wetlands or lakes and ponds (Whipple et al., 2012) with higher
409 water uses, but we had no basis for estimating these areas.

410 It was generally assumed that vegetation areas are constant from year to year in cases I to IV,
411 which is reasonable for a long-term annual average. However, this assumption is an over-
412 simplification when applied to individual years because vegetation area likely varied in response
413 to climate, especially the amount and timing of precipitation and resulting riverbank overflow.
414 The floodplain boundary, for example, would have varied significantly depending on the amount
415 and timing of runoff, which would have affected vegetation both inside and outside of the
416 floodplain. In July 1853, for example, engineers surveying a route for a railroad in the San
417 Joaquin Valley reported: "The river [San Joaquin] had overflowed its banks, and the valley was
418 one vast sheet of water, from 25 to 30 miles broad, and approaching within four to five miles of
419 the hills" (Williamson, 1853). The average floodplain boundary (CDPW, 1931a, 1931b) was
420 typically over 20 miles from these hills. We used the average floodplain boundary to estimate
421 some vegetation types, such as seasonal wetlands within "other floodplain habitat," which would
422 yield inaccuracies when used for individual years.

423 Grasslands are the vegetation type most likely to respond significantly to climate. Thus, in Cases
424 V and VI, the mix of rainfed and perennial grasslands was varied based on the volume of rim
425 inflow to the Sacramento and San Joaquin basins. Vegetation areas in Case V are identical to
426 Case I, except grassland areas not classified as vernal pools are assumed to be a mix of rainfed
427 and perennial grasslands that vary from year to year based on the annual runoff volume as
428 measured by the Eight River Index (CDWR 2013). Grassland areas are assumed to be perennial
429 in the wettest year, rainfed in the driest year, and for all other years, the mix is assumed to vary
430 linearly with annual runoff volume between the wettest year and the driest year.

431 Vegetation areas in Case VI are identical to Case I, except vernal pools are assumed to be a mix
432 of rainfed and perennial grassland. Aggregate grasslands are assumed to be perennial in the
433 wettest year, rainfed in the driest year, and for all other years, the mix is assumed to vary linearly
434 with annual runoff volume between the wettest year and the driest year.

435 We believe Cases V and VI most closely represent water use under natural conditions as it is
436 likely that vegetation varied in this fashion. It is likely that seasonal wetlands varied in a similar
437 fashion, extending further outside of the flood basins in wet years than in dry or critical (Whipple
438 et al., 2012). However, we did not have sufficient data to evaluate this case.

439 We defined two additional vegetation area cases to explore the uncertainty of natural Delta
440 outflow due to evapotranspiration and areal extent of valley foothill hardwoods (Case VII) and
441 wetlands (Case VIII).

442 Case VII was included to explore the effect of valley/foothill hardwoods composition on natural
443 Delta outflow. This case primarily affects Sacramento Basin outflow as 86% of the hardwood
444 vegetation, or 5,300 km², are in this basin. This vegetation class was subdivided into foothill
445 hardwood, present at higher elevations with deeper water tables, and valley oak savannas,
446 present in the Valley Floor where water tables were shallow, for purposes of estimating
447 evapotranspiration (Howes et al., 2015). Foothill hardwoods likely relied on soil moisture as the
448 water table was generally deeper at these higher elevation areas than on the Valley Floor. Valley
449 oak savannas, on the other hand, had deep root systems (Howes et al., 2015) that tapped the
450 shallower groundwater at lower elevations (Bertoldi et al., 1991; Bryan, 1915; Kooser et al.,
451 1861).

452 We had no basis for reliably subdividing valley/foothill hardwood land areas into subclasses.
453 K uchler (1977) suggests about 65% was foothill hardwoods. Thus, we evaluated a range. In
454 Case I, we assumed that 100% of valley/foothill hardwood was foothill hardwood. In Case VII,
455 we assumed 100% was valley oak savanna, holding all other land areas constant as in Table 3.

456 Case VIII classifies San Joaquin Basin seasonal wetlands as rainfed grasslands. The San Joaquin
457 Basin was modeled differently based on our annual water balances, as discussed above,
458 supplemented by soil surveys, eyewitness accounts, and the basin's relatively dry hydrology
459 which suggest that rainfed grasslands (rather than seasonal wetland) is a plausible alternate
460 vegetation classification for seasonal wetlands.

461 **4 Results**

462 The water balance methodology described previously was used to estimate annual average Delta
463 outflow under natural conditions for each year of the 88-year hydrologic sequence (1922-2009).

464 A long-term annual average was computed from individual yearly results and compared with
465 CDWR's (2012, 2007) estimates of long-term annual average Delta outflow under current
466 conditions and unimpaired conditions for a similar period of record.

467 The results of our natural Delta outflow water balances for eight land use cases are summarized
468 in Table 5 and illustrated in Figure 5. Under natural conditions, native vegetation used 27.1 to
469 36.1 billion m³/yr of the natural water supply, falling as precipitation in the mountain ranges
470 surrounding the Valley Floor and on the Valley Floor itself. This amounts to 54% to 72% of the
471 total supply of 50.1 billion m³/yr. The water that was not evapotranspired or evaporated, ranging
472 from 14.0 to 23.0 billion m³/yr, flowed into the Delta and San Francisco Bay. These results are
473 consistent with those reported by others (Shelton, 1987; Bolger et al., 2011; Fox, 1987).

474 The resulting evapotranspiration-to-precipitation (ET/P) ratios, 0.54 to 0.72 are estimated as total
475 water use from Table 5 divided by the sum of Valley Floor precipitation (15.9 billion m³/yr) and
476 rim inflows (34.2 billion m³/yr), and are consistent with ET/P ratios reported by others (Sanford
477 and Selnick, 2013). The Valley Floor vegetation described in this work was not sustained by
478 precipitation falling on the Valley Floor. The Valley Floor also used large quantities of runoff
479 from surrounding watersheds that was not consumed in those watersheds but was made available
480 for consumptive use through the seasonal flooding cycle. Therefore, rim inflows **effectively**
481 **actsupplement-as** precipitation **as a water supply** to the Valley Floor.

482 In sum, we believe that Cases V and VI, in which the mix of rainfed and perennial grasslands
483 was varied based on the volume of rim inflow to the Sacramento and San Joaquin basins, most
484 closely represent water consumed under natural conditions. In these cases, native vegetation
485 consumed 30.4 to 29.7 billion m³/yr or about 60% of the natural supply. About 41% of the
486 native vegetation water use in these two cases was consumed by the grassland-vernal pool
487 complex occupying the area between the foothills and the floodplain. About 34% of the native
488 vegetation water use was consumed by permanent and seasonal wetlands, largely within the
489 floodplain. The balance of the native vegetation water use was consumed by riparian vegetation
490 (13%), foothill hardwoods (9%), and saltbush, chaparral, and open water surfaces (3%).

491 In comparison, the current-level, long-term annual average Delta outflow is 19.5 billion m³/yr
492 (CDWR, 2012). This estimate was developed using a reservoir system operations model (Draper
493 et al., 2004) and assumes a 2011 level of development for an 82-year hydrologic sequence (1922

494 to 2003). The current long-term annual average water supply of 51.6 billion m³/yr estimated by
495 CDWR (2012) exceeds the natural water supply in our analysis by 1.5 billion m³/yr due to (1)
496 groundwater overdraft of 0.9 billion m³/yr in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Basins and (2)
497 Sacramento River Basin imports of 0.6 billion m³/yr from the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation
498 Trinity River Diversion Project, a project that transfers water from Lewiston Reservoir through
499 the Clear Creek Tunnel to the Sacramento River (CDWR, 2012).

500 The long-term annual average current level Delta outflow of 19.5 billion m³/yr falls within the
501 range of estimated natural outflows as shown in Figure 6 for the same period of record (14.0 to
502 23.0 billion m³/yr). The current level water balance indicates that 62% of the water supply is
503 currently consumed by irrigation, municipal, industrial, and other uses, based on the 2011 level
504 of development (CDWR, 2013b). This estimate is roughly the midpoint of the range of
505 | estimated natural water use (54% to 72%). ~~and nearly indistinguishable from our best estimates~~
506 | ~~of natural outflow in cases V and VI (60%).~~

507 Thus, current and natural Delta outflows, when reported for the same climatic conditions, are
508 very similar because natural vegetation used nearly as much water (27.1 to 36.1 billion m³/yr) as
509 is consumed currently (31.9 billion m³/yr) for agriculture, municipal, industrial, and other
510 uses. Further, the current and natural Delta outflow estimates are statistically indistinguishable
511 due to uncertainties described elsewhere.

512 In sum, reconfiguring the natural water supply to accommodate new land uses (e.g., see Figure
513 | 4), mitigate flooding, and redistribute the water supply in time and space has not substantially
514 | changed the annual average amount of freshwater reaching San Francisco Bay from the Central
515 Valley, when controlled for climate. This is the case because natural vegetation consumed about
516 as much water as is currently used by the new land uses within the Valley Floor as well as
517 outside of it.

518 We believe our natural Delta outflow estimates were based on conservative assumptions that will
519 tend to underestimate evapotranspiration and thus overestimate natural Delta outflows.
520 Noteworthy conservative assumptions include: (1) all of the permanent wetlands is assumed to
521 be “large stand”, thereby ignoring higher water-using “small stand” wetlands and (2) the maps
522 and soil surveys used to estimate natural vegetation underestimate the extent of some types of

523 natural vegetation, such as wetlands and vernal pools, because significant modifications had been
524 made to the landscape prior to the date of its earliest source (1874).

525 **5 Discussion**

526 This study shows that long-term annual average current and natural outflows fall within the same
527 range, when controlled for climatic conditions. This occurs as the amount of water currently
528 used from Valley Floor watersheds for agriculture, domestic, industrial, and other uses is about
529 equal to the amount of water that would be used if the existing engineered system were replaced
530 by natural vegetation.

531 An estimate of natural Delta outflows is important as reduction in the volume of freshwater
532 reaching the San Francisco Bay-Delta Estuary due to the current level of development has
533 frequently been advanced as one of the causes for the decline in abundance of native species.
534 Further, estimates of hypothetical natural outflow (so-called “unimpaired” outflows) have been
535 proposed to regulate current Delta outflows in an effort to restore ecological health of the
536 estuary. This work indicates that restoring flows to annual average natural outflows are unlikely
537 | to restore ecosystem health because they are nearly indistinguishable from annual average
538 current outflows.

539 The reduced outflow hypothesis advanced by some as a cause of declines in native fish
540 abundance is typically based on “unimpaired” flows of 34.3 billion m³/yr published by CDWR
541 (2007). These “unimpaired” flows are hypothetical flows that never existed. CDWR (2007)
542 differentiates “unimpaired” Delta outflow from “natural” Delta outflow by characterizing them
543 as:

544 *runoff that would have occurred had water flow remained unaltered in rivers and streams*
545 *instead of stored in reservoir, imported, exported, or diverted. The data is a measure of the total*
546 *water supply available for all uses after removing the impacts of most upstream alterations as*
547 *they occurred over the years. Alterations such as channel improvements, levees, and flood*
548 *bypasses are assumed to exist.*

549 The long-term annual average unimpaired Delta outflow estimate of 34.3 billion m³/yr assumes
550 the same rim inflows and Valley Floor precipitation used in our natural water balances in Table
551 5. However, rather than reducing water supply to account for water use associated with the full

552 extent of natural vegetation in the Valley Floor, the unimpaired outflow calculation assumes that
553 water use upstream of the Delta is limited to only Valley Floor precipitation (CDWR, 2007). In
554 other words, the unimpaired outflow calculation assumes the only vegetation present outside of
555 the Delta was perennial grasslands with no access to groundwater. It ignores the presence of
556 perennial grasslands, vernal pools, wetlands, riparian forest, and valley oak savannahs.

557 Thus, the unimpaired outflow calculation effectively assumes rim inflows pass through the
558 Valley Floor and arrive in the Delta in the current system of channel improvements, levees and
559 flood bypasses (i.e., the difference between the natural water supply of 50.1 billion m³/yr and
560 Valley Floor precipitation of 15.9 billion m³/yr is 34.2 billion m³/yr). Thus, by definition,
561 unimpaired Delta outflow calculations provide a high estimate when used as a surrogate for
562 natural Delta outflow.

563 In spite of CDWR's caveats of its theoretical calculation of "unimpaired" Delta outflow from
564 natural Delta outflow, unimpaired outflows have frequently been used as a surrogate measure of
565 natural conditions, presumably because no estimate of natural Delta outflow was published prior
566 to this work. For example, Dynesius and Nilsson (1994) argue that the Bay-Delta watershed is
567 "strongly affected" by fragmentation due to the difference between current Delta outflow and the
568 Delta's reported "virgin mean annual discharge" of 34.8 billion m³/yr, a quantity roughly
569 equivalent to CDWR's long-term annual average unimpaired Delta outflow calculation published
570 by CDWR at the time of this work. More recently, the California State Water Resources Control
571 Board (CSWRCB, 2010) submitted a report to the state legislature suggesting a flow criterion of
572 75 percent of unimpaired Delta outflow from January through June "in order to preserve the
573 attributes of the natural variable system to which native fish species are adapted". This
574 suggested criterion was based on fishery protection alone and did not consider other beneficial
575 uses of water in the estuary.

576 Native aquatic species evolved under natural landscape conditions. Figure 4 demonstrates that
577 very little of the natural landscape remains. Thus, habitat restoration should be an important
578 ingredient in restoring these species. Understanding natural Delta outflow and how it interacts
579 with the natural landscape will be important to guide future restoration planning activities. The
580 Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan (CERP), for example, used natural system modeling
581 to gain a better understanding of south Florida's hydrology prior to drainage and development.

582 CERP, which was designed to restore the Everglades ecosystem while maintaining adequate
583 flood protection and water supply for south Florida, is using insights gained by this modeling
584 effort, in combination with other adaptive management tools, to formulate restoration plans and
585 set targets (SFWMD, 2014).

586 California’s Bay Delta Conservation Plan, another such planning activity, envisions a reversal of
587 the Delta’s ecosystem decline through protection and creation of approximately 590 km² of
588 aquatic and terrestrial habitat (CDWR & USBR, 2013). By reconnecting floodplains, developing
589 new marshes, and returning riverbanks to a more natural state, the plan is designed to boost food
590 supplies and provide greater protection for native fisheries.

591 **6 Conclusions and Recommendations**

592 This study found that the amount of water from the Valley Floor watershed currently consumed
593 for agriculture, domestic, industrial, and other uses is roughly equal to the amount of water
594 formerly used by native vegetation in this same watershed. Thus, Delta outflow, or the amount
595 of freshwater reaching San Francisco Bay, is about the same under current conditions as under
596 natural conditions, when controlled for climate.

597 This finding, which used a conventional water balance methodology and assumed contemporary
598 climatic conditions for both natural and current landscapes, suggests that human disturbances to
599 the landscape and hydrologic cycle have not significantly reduced the annual average volume of
600 freshwater flows entering San Francisco Bay through the Delta. Rather, development has simply
601 redistributed flows from natural vegetation to other beneficial uses. Thus, it is unlikely that
602 observed declines in native freshwater aquatic species are due to reduction in annual average
603 Delta outflow.-

604 Another key finding of this study is that “unimpaired” Delta outflow calculations significantly
605 overestimate natural Delta outflow as they fail to include consumptive use by natural vegetation
606 in the Valley Floor other than rainfed grasslands. Therefore, unimpaired Delta outflow
607 calculations should not be used as a surrogate measure of natural conditions or to set flow
608 standards to restore ecosystem health.

609 Several limitations associated with this work point to areas for future research. The simple water
610 balance methodology utilized in this paper is an appropriate reconnaissance-level step in

611 reconstructing the natural hydrology of a complex system. However, this simple approach is
612 unable to explore several important and relevant questions.

613 First, our analysis only considers long-term annual averages and does not evaluate inter- and
614 intra-annual variability of natural Delta outflow. Ecosystems respond to flows at time scales
615 much shorter than annual. Thus, future work should consider these shorter time scales.

616 Second, our analysis does not account for complex interactions between groundwater and surface
617 water. These interactions would place important limits on water availability to vegetation in a
618 natural landscape on a shorter time scale.

619 Third, many vegetation land areas likely varied with the wetness of the year. We attempted to
620 address this using a sensitivity analysis in which grassland/vernal pools areas were varied as a
621 function of rim inflows and other assumptions.

622 Finally, we assumed natural evapotranspiration rates for vegetation types with a continuous
623 water supply, e.g., permanent wetlands, are constant over the period of record. They likely
624 varied as a function of climate. Future work should include a sensitivity analysis of vegetation
625 coefficient ranges such as those shown in Howes et al. (2015).

626 We recommend future research in several areas of historical landscape ecology, hydrology and
627 estuarine hydrodynamics to address these limitations to support on-going regulatory and habitat
628 restoration activities in the San Francisco Bay-Delta watershed, including:

- 629 • refined natural vegetation mapping in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Basins, following
630 work in the Delta reported by Whipple et al. (2012);
- 631 • evapotranspiration from vernal pools and seasonal wetlands;
- 632 • interactions between groundwater and surface water under natural conditions;
- 633 • inter- and intra-annual variability of natural Delta outflows;
- 634 • natural watershed geomorphology; and
- 635 • natural estuarine salinity transport

636 We recommend that integrated groundwater-surface water models, digital elevation models and
637 hydrodynamic models be developed to support this research. Several collaborative efforts are

638 currently underway to develop such models (Draper, 2014; Kadir and Huang, 2014; Grossinger
639 et al., 2014; Fleenor et al., 2014; DeGeorge and Andrews, 2014). Finally, we recommend future
640 research be conducted to compare the evolution of the San Francisco Bay-Delta watershed with
641 other watersheds around the world.
642

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966 Table 1. Monthly vegetation coefficients (K_v) for non-water stressed and rainfed vegetation
 967 (Howes et al., 2015)

Vegetation	Month											
	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Rainfed Grassland ¹	0.78	0.72	0.64	0.58	0.35	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.16	0.47	0.73
Perennial Grassland	0.55	0.55	0.60	0.95	1.00	1.05	1.10	1.15	1.10	1.00	0.85	0.85
Vernal Pool	0.65	0.70	0.80	1.00	1.05	0.85	0.50	0.15	0.10	0.10	0.25	0.60
Large Stand Wetland	0.70	0.70	0.80	1.00	1.05	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.05	1.10	1.00	0.75
Small Stand Wetland	1.00	1.10	1.50	1.50	1.60	1.70	1.90	1.60	1.50	1.20	1.15	1.00
Foothill Hardwood ¹	0.80	0.77	0.69	0.61	0.52	0.20	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.15	0.46	0.71
Valley Oak Savanna ¹	0.80	0.77	0.69	0.62	0.54	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.41	0.55	0.71
Seasonal Wetland	0.70	0.70	0.80	1.00	1.05	1.10	1.10	1.15	0.75	0.80	0.80	0.75
Riparian Forest	0.80	0.80	0.80	0.80	0.90	1.00	1.10	1.20	1.20	1.15	1.00	0.85
Saltbush	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.35	0.45	0.50	0.60	0.55	0.45	0.35	0.40	0.35
Chaparral ¹	0.55	0.61	0.54	0.40	0.22	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.14	0.40	0.57
Aquatic Surface	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.80	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.00	0.80	0.60

968 ¹Evapotranspiration from rainfed vegetation was estimated from a daily soil water balance. Valley oak savanna K_v
 969 during the summer and fall was estimated to be 0.4 to account for groundwater contribution. The vegetation
 970 coefficients shown are averages over the 88-year period and all Valley Floor planning areas.

971

972 Table 2. Annual average evapotranspiration rates ET_v (cm/yr)

Basin	Planning Area	Rainfed Grassland	Perennial Grassland	Vernal Pool	Large Stand Wetland	Small Stand Wetland	Seasonal Wetland	Foothill Hardwood	Valley Oak Savanna	Riparian Forest	Saltbush	Chaparral	Aquatic Surface
Sacramento	502	39.1	130.1	75.3	139.5	204.3	131.1	45.1	67.1	134.1	60.2	29.5	127.4
	503	39.1	130.1	75.3	139.5	204.3	131.1	45.1	67.1	134.1	60.2	29.5	127.4
	504	34.0	128.9	73.9	137.8	201.7	129.4	40.2	64.0	132.5	59.6	28.8	125.8
	505	32.8	135.9	77.9	145.1	212.5	136.2	40.2	67.1	139.6	62.7	24.7	132.5
	506	32.4	135.0	77.7	144.2	211.3	135.5	39.8	67.1	138.7	62.3	25.0	131.7
	507	35.2	139.2	80.1	148.7	217.9	139.7	42.7	70.1	143.0	64.3	26.9	135.8
	508	36.6	143.3	82.3	152.4	222.5	140.2	42.7	73.2	146.3	67.1	27.4	140.2
	509	32.8	135.9	77.9	145.1	212.5	136.2	40.2	67.1	139.6	62.7	24.7	132.5
Delta	510	31.2	136.8	78.5	146.0	213.8	137.0	38.6	67.1	140.4	63.1	23.2	133.3
	602	27.2	121.3	70.3	129.5	189.8	121.8	33.3	57.9	124.6	55.9	19.3	118.3
San Joaquin	511	34.8	143.3	81.8	153.0	224.1	143.5	42.6	73.2	147.1	66.2	26.4	139.7
	601	27.4	113.5	65.5	121.1	177.4	113.9	32.3	54.9	116.6	52.3	19.0	110.6
	603	33.7	142.7	81.9	152.3	223.3	143.0	41.5	70.1	146.4	65.9	25.5	139.1
	604	30.5	137.2	79.2	149.4	213.4	134.1	39.6	67.1	140.2	64.0	24.4	134.1
	605	24.4	134.1	79.2	146.3	213.4	134.1	30.5	61.0	140.2	64.0	18.3	131.1
	606	24.0	135.6	78.4	144.7	212.1	136.1	31.2	61.0	139.2	62.6	17.4	132.2
	607	29.3	140.2	80.9	149.6	219.5	140.6	36.8	67.1	143.8	64.7	21.6	136.7
	608	28.9	144.6	83.8	154.3	226.4	145.0	36.6	70.1	148.2	66.7	21.5	141.0
	609	29.0	152.1	87.5	162.2	238.0	152.2	37.2	70.1	155.8	70.2	22.0	148.2
	610	29.0	152.1	87.5	162.2	238.0	152.2	37.2	70.1	155.8	70.2	22.0	148.2

973

974 Table 3. Area of natural vegetation (A_v) by planning area within the Valley Floor, Case I (Hectares)

Valley	Planning Area	Rainfed Grasslands	Vernal Pool	Permanent Wetland	Seasonal Wetland	Valley/ Foothill Hardwood	Riparian Forest	Saltbush	Chaparral	Aquatic Surface	Total
Sacramento	502	0	0	0	0	692	0	0	0	0	692
	503	114,308	25,046	7	2	130,205	33,271	0	7,478	1,253	311,570
	504	52,570	433	96	977	78,027	34,720	0	39	807	167,667
	505	0	0	0	0	31	0	0	2,170	0	2,201
	506	140,301	94,683	50,395	19,679	71,054	43,383	0	9,541	2,429	431,466
	507	19,523	33,515	60,751	102,700	75,491	80,467	0	0	3,274	375,721
	508	7,289	3,712	0	0	86,369	5,407	0	0	590	103,368
	509	65,863	42,392	27,454	5,395	58,148	25,913	0	22,000	610	247,775
	511	18,066	74,895	20,989	25,425	51,101	17,408	0	0	3,116	211,000
Delta	510	718	4,263	91,810	10,550	21	760	0	0	5,240	113,361
	602	25,265	8,533	115,385	9,128	34	594	0	0	2,858	161,798
San Joaquin	601	3,885	3,874	0	2	0	1	0	0	274	8,037
	603	47,777	59,435	5,117	55,734	80,998	16,614	0	157	629	266,461
	604	1,098	0	0	0	741	311	0	0	0	2,149
	605	4,924	406	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5,331
	606	83,099	70,915	12,084	57,570	0	1,281	41,405	32	1,136	267,523
	607	69,411	64,097	3,295	9,099	1,355	10,574	0	0	820	158,651
	608	66,786	51,142	3,037	4,945	1,689	12,797	0	0	478	140,873
	609	123,728	242,041	17,323	18,450	501	8,462	8,099	0	1,258	419,863
	610	6,547	376	0	0	67	4	0	0	0	6,995
TOTAL		851,158	779,758	407,744	319,657	636,525	291,966	49,505	41,416	24,771	3,402,501

975 Note: Case I assumes: (1) no perennial grasslands; (2) all permanent wetlands are large stand; and (3) all valley/foothill hardwoods are foothill hardwoods.

1 Table 4. Water Balance Cases

Case		Grassland Assumptions		Hardwood Assumptions
		Sacramento & Delta Basins	San Joaquin Basin	
Grasslands – Constant Area	I	Mix of rainfed grassland and vernal pools	Mix of rainfed grassland and vernal pools	Foothill
	II	Vernal pools	Vernal pools	Foothill
	III	Mix of perennial grassland and vernal pools	Mix of perennial grassland and vernal pools	Foothill
	IV	Mix of perennial grassland and vernal pools	Rainfed grassland	Foothill
Grasslands – Variable Area	V	Mix of rainfed and perennial grassland and vernal pools (1)	Mix of rainfed and perennial grassland and vernal pools (1)	Foothill
	VI	Mix of rainfed and perennial grassland (2)	Mix of rainfed and perennial grassland (2)	Foothill
Other	VII	Mix of rainfed grassland and vernal pools	Mix of rainfed grassland and vernal pools	Valley Oak Savanna
	VIII	Mix of perennial grassland and vernal pools	Rainfed grassland (3)	Foothill

- 2 (1) Vegetation areas are identical to Case I, except grassland areas not classified as vernal pools are
3 assumed to be a mix of rainfed and perennial grassland that varies from year to year based on the
4 annual runoff volume as measured by the Eight River Index (CDWR 2013a). Grassland areas are
5 assumed to be perennial in the wettest year, rainfed in the driest year, and for all other years, the mix is
6 assumed to vary linearly with annual runoff volume between the wettest year and driest year.
7 (2) Vegetation areas are identical to Case I, except vernal pools are assumed to be a mix of rainfed and
8 perennial grassland. Aggregate grasslands are assumed to be perennial in the wettest year, rainfed in
9 the driest year, and for all other years, the mix is assumed to vary linearly with annual runoff volume
10 between the wettest year and driest year.
11 (3) Vegetation areas are identical to Case IV, except seasonal wetlands within the floodplain are assumed
12 to be rainfed grasslands.
13

1 Table 5. Natural water balance 1922-2009 Valley Floor (billion m³/yr)

Water Supply		Water Use (billion m³/yr)							
Inflow	34.2	Grasslands – Constant Area			Grasslands – Variable Area			Other Vegetation	
Precipitation	15.9	Case I	Case II	Case III	Case IV	Case V	Case VI	Case VII	Case VIII
Total Water Supply	50.1								
<i>Sacramento Basin</i>									
Rainfed Grasslands		1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	1.5	1.5	0.0
Perennial Grasslands		0.0	0.0	5.6	5.6	2.1	3.6	0.0	5.6
Vernal Pool		2.2	5.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	0.0	2.2	2.2
Large Stand Wetland		2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3
Seasonal Wetland		2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Foothill Hardwood		2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	0.0	2.3
Valley Oak Savanna		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	0.0
Riparian Forest		3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
Saltbush		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Chaparral		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Aquatic Surface		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
		14.2	15.9	18.2	18.2	15.7	15.5	15.5	18.2
<i>Delta</i>									
Rainfed Grassland		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
Perennial Grassland		0.0	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.4
Vernal Pool		0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Large Stand Wetland		2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8
Seasonal Wetland		0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Foothill Hardwood		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Valley Oak Savanna		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Riparian Forest		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Saltbush		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Chaparral		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Aquatic Surface		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
		3.5	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.7
<i>San Joaquin Basin</i>									
Rainfed Grasslands		1.1	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.7	1.5	1.1	3.0
Perennial Grasslands		0.0	0.0	5.8	0.0	2.2	5.1	0.0	0.0
Vernal Pools		4.2	7.5	4.2	0.0	4.2	0.0	4.2	0.0
Large Stand Wetlands		0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Seasonal Wetland		2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	0.0
Foothill Hardwoods		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.4
Valley Oak Savanna		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0
Riparian Forest		0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Saltbush		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Chaparral		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Aquatic Surface		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
		9.5	11.7	14.2	6.8	11.3	10.7	9.7	5.2
Total Water Use		27.1	31.1	36.1	28.7	30.4	29.7	28.7	27.1
Delta Outflow =		23.0	19.0	14.0	21.4	19.6	20.4	21.4	23.0
Total Water Supply – Total Water Use									

2

1

2 Figure 1. California, current land classifications, and major tributaries feeding into and
3 through the Central Valley.

4

5 Figure 2. Valley Floor Study Area showing the area that water use calculations were
6 conducted by planning area and summarized by hydrologic basin. Planning Areas 502, 505,
7 508, 601, 604, 605 and 610 within the Valley Floor are too small to show on this map.
8 Planning area boundaries were defined by CDWR (2005a, 2005b).

9

10 Figure 3. Idealized cross section of the valley floor under natural conditions.

11

12 Figure 4. Natural vegetation in the Valley Floor map portraying the areal extent of natural
13 vegetation based on the “Case I” definition of grassland composition (i.e., all grassland area
14 outside of the floodplain was classified as either vernal pool or rainfed grassland). Although
15 this map represents a composite of several maps, the primary source of information comes
16 from CSU Chico’s pre-1900 Historic Vegetation Map (CSU Chico 2003) (left). Current land
17 use on the Valley Floor (right).

18

19 Figure 5. Schematic showing the average (1922-2009) natural water balance results (billion
20 m^3/yr).

21

22 Figure 6. Comparison of long-term (1922-2009) average annual Delta Outflow estimated
23 based on unimpaired, current (2011) level, and the natural scenarios (Cases I-VII) examined
24 in this study.

25