

Draft Articles

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DRAFT Articles November 29, 2010
Pulse of the Delta

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1 Introduction | Overview

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6 Welcome to the Pulse of the Delta!

7 Welcome to the first issue of the *Pulse of the Delta: Monitoring and Managing Water*
8 *Quality in the Sacramento – San Joaquin Delta*, the new publication of the emerging Delta
9 Regional Monitoring Program (RMP). The *Pulse of the Delta* is intended to make
10 important information on water quality in the Delta available to managers, decision-
11 makers, and the public. Publication of this report is a direct response to Delta RMP
12 stakeholders' desire for an accessible water quality summary for the Delta that
13 addresses important regional questions. Delta water supports diverse beneficial uses,
14 including irrigation and drinking water supply, wildlife habitat, and recreation. Yet at
15 the same time, water quality problems are ever-present and serious. Key water quality
16 problems such as pollutants in runoff from cities and farms, mercury from historic
17 mining, and salts entering from the ocean and in irrigation tailwater are inseparable
18 from other problems such as the fragile levee system and the decline of native species.
19 The intense search for solutions to the Delta's problems has highlighted the importance
20 of comprehensive information on its condition. The Delta RMP will address this need
21 by better defining water quality problems of regional concern. The *Pulse of the Delta* is
22 designed to help the Delta RMP fulfill this goal by communicating the most relevant
23 information to advance public debate about the issues and to support informed
24 decisions that lead to a healthy, sustainable, and productive Delta ecosystem.

25

26 This first edition introduces the basic structure of the *Pulse of the Delta*. Each Pulse will
27 be organized around a general theme that represents a regional water quality

1 management priority for the Delta. It is widely recognized that managing the Delta's
2 resources in a sustainable manner will depend on reliable information about the Delta
3 ecosystem and possible consequences of human activity. The Delta RMP will help - in
4 collaboration with existing programs - by identifying and trying to remedy specific
5 problems that currently prevent such comprehensive regional assessments. As an initial
6 step toward this goal, the theme of this first edition is "Re-thinking Monitoring in the
7 Delta".

8 **Re-Thinking Monitoring**

9 The opening article of this issue (**page XX**) summarizes a study by U.C. Davis
10 researchers that evaluated the role of contaminants in the decline of some of the Delta's
11 fish populations (Johnson et al. 2010). This study has special significance for the Delta
12 RMP for two main reasons. First, it provided a first attempt at comprehensively
13 assessing a Delta water quality issue by synthesizing data from various sources. And
14 second, it illustrates many of the problems the Delta RMP will need to solve to fulfill its
15 role in synthesizing and communicating water quality information to support
16 management decisions.

17

18 In the early 2000s, a collapse in the abundance of four Delta fish species, delta smelt,
19 longfin smelt, striped bass, and threadfin shad (see **Sidebar: Pelagic Organism
20 Decline**), captured the attention of resource managers, scientists, politicians, and the
21 general public. This fish population crash became known as the POD. The major goal of
22 the U.C. Davis study was to determine whether contaminants could be implicated in
23 the cause of the POD. Pesticides and other contaminants were suspected as one of the
24 possible causes. Analyses of contaminants' potential role were hindered, however,
25 because data were either missing, unavailable, scattered among various data owners, or
26 not in a format suitable for analysis.

27

1 The inability of regulators and researchers to respond more adequately to this public
2 concern highlighted the need for changes in monitoring practices. These changes
3 include regularly compiling, assessing, and reporting data, and better coordination of
4 monitoring efforts. The need for these changes provided the impetus for developing the
5 Delta RMP. The new Program intends to be a forum for “re-thinking monitoring” in the
6 Delta, with the ultimate goal of producing more useful and accessible water quality
7 information.

8 **Working Together for Better Monitoring Information**

9 The Management Update section of this edition is entirely devoted to the approach
10 taken by the Delta RMP for “re-thinking the monitoring system” (page XX).
11 Coordination and collaboration are of central importance in changing the monitoring
12 system, and the Delta RMP will need to build strategic partnerships with existing
13 programs to foster realistic solutions. The Delta RMP will focus initially on
14 contaminants-related issues under the direct control of the State and Central Valley
15 Water Boards (Water Boards). Program development will proceed gradually, based on
16 funding availability and feasibility. The Water Boards are investing resources in
17 developing and establishing the Delta RMP in order to build additional interest and
18 involvement in the region. But the Water Boards cannot develop a successful RMP on
19 their own: a truly successful and sustainable program will require support from
20 stakeholders. The Water Boards are fully committed to the success of a Delta RMP and
21 are willing to negotiate changes to regulatory requirements in order to achieve more
22 comprehensive and integrated monitoring. Stakeholders with an interest in the Delta
23 region will need to actively contribute time and resources to continue developing the
24 major aspects of the program: governance, monitoring objectives, funding, data
25 integration, and coordination with other programs. Initial work will concentrate on
26 improving the current system of data management and on developing efficiencies
27 through improved coordination of existing monitoring.

1 **Regional Monitoring in the Delta: Past, Present, and Future**

2 The three Feature Articles in this issue cover Delta water quality topics that are
3 receiving a great deal of attention: ammonia, pyrethroids, and contaminants of
4 emerging concern (CECs). They represent an old (ammonia), a new (pyrethroids), and a
5 possible future management concern (CECs).

6
7 **Ammonia** has been a concern in the Delta for more than 10 years (**page XX**). Ammonia
8 levels in Delta water have increased significantly over the past decade. However, only
9 recently have enough data accumulated to address the question of whether current
10 ammonia levels are causing impairments to the Bay-Delta ecosystem. One of the key
11 findings of recent monitoring is that ambient ammonia levels are unlikely to be toxic to
12 fish in the Delta. However, ammonia may be having a significant impact on fish
13 through its influence on the productivity of the food web. An emerging hypothesis links
14 higher ambient ammonia levels to low algal production in Suisun Bay and the Delta -
15 one of the factors that may contribute to the POD by reducing the food supply for fish.
16 There is a growing consensus about these effects on the foodweb in Suisun Bay. The
17 evidence is building that ammonia inhibits the spring bloom of diatoms, algae that are
18 an important component of the Bay-Delta foodweb. The ammonia issue provides a
19 prime example of the challenges involved in identifying cause and effect in a complex
20 ecosystem affected by multiple, interactive stressors. The fact that most of the ammonia
21 of concern originates from a source in the Delta, while at least one of the apparent
22 impacts extends into the San Francisco Bay region, complicates scientific investigations
23 and regulation. The Delta RMP can play a coordinating role and ensure Central Valley
24 stakeholder input and representation on this type of issue.

25

26 **Pyrethroids** have demanded the attention of regulators since the mid-2000s. Concern
27 was heightened in 2005, when U.C. Berkeley researchers found they cause widespread
28 toxicity to sediment-dwelling invertebrates in suburban creeks in the Sacramento area
29 (**page xx**). Pyrethroids were introduced as an alternative to organophosphorus

1 insecticides, when the latter were phased out from uses in home products and by
2 professional pest control firms. The organophosphates were widely known to cause
3 toxicity in aquatic systems after heavy rains washed residues into creeks and rivers.
4 Many had hoped the shift to pyrethroids would eliminate these unintended effects on
5 aquatic life. But in recent years, environmental monitoring, much of it in the Delta, has
6 shown we have largely just traded one toxicant for another. Before these studies, the
7 widespread toxicity caused by pyrethroids went unnoticed in California for many
8 years, and is probably still going unnoticed elsewhere, because monitoring programs
9 have not been looking for it or haven't been able to detect it. The pyrethroids story
10 illustrates how the mixture of toxicants in Delta waters changes over time as pesticides
11 and other chemicals fall in and out of favor. It also demonstrates that monitoring
12 programs must adapt to the array of constantly changing threats or risk monitoring for
13 the problems of yesterday.

14

15 **Contaminants of emerging concern** (CECs) are the potential water quality challenges
16 of tomorrow (**page XX**). Over the past 30 years more than 100,000 chemicals have been
17 registered or approved for commercial use in the U.S. For most of these chemicals,
18 major information gaps limit our ability to assess their potential risks and monitoring of
19 these chemicals does not routinely occur. As a result, many chemicals that have not
20 been adequately tested for their potential impacts to humans and wildlife are
21 continuously released to the environment. Analytical methods have progressed to the
22 point that it is possible to measure trace quantities (below parts per trillion) of many
23 contaminants in water, which has led to frequent detection of a variety of previously
24 unmonitored chemicals in the environment. Determining whether or not some of these
25 chemicals may be a problem is a formidable challenge. Observations of endocrine
26 disruption in fish and other organisms at low contaminant concentrations in aquatic
27 environments (**page XX**) have raised concerns regarding the potential for impacts of
28 other CECs that have been detected at similar concentrations. Water bodies that
29 continuously receive wastewater effluent and runoff from highly urbanized areas are of

1 particular concern (**page XX**). Several types of high volume use chemicals have gained
2 the attention of researchers and regulators, including pharmaceuticals and personal
3 care products (PPCPs), surfactants, stain repellents, flame retardants, antimicrobials,
4 and nanomaterials. The considerable challenge of managing CECs is largely due to
5 limitations in the regulatory system at the state, national, and international level. The
6 deficiency of information for current-use chemicals poses an obstacle to regulators and
7 scientists in their endeavors to focus on the highest risk chemicals and avoid repeating
8 past mistakes that resulted in extensive global contamination by toxic chemicals (as
9 happened, for example, with polychlorinated biphenyls and organochlorine pesticides).
10 In California, a number of efforts are underway to develop strategies for CEC
11 identification and prioritization, as well as processes for determining thresholds of
12 concern. An effective strategy for the Delta RMP will be to partner with other programs
13 and to stay apprised of the lessons to be learned from them. Collaborating with other
14 programs on chemical prioritization approaches and projects of mutual interest will
15 reduce costs, maximize program effectiveness, and increase the collective
16 understanding of CEC occurrence and risks.

17
18 In this first edition, the *Pulse of the Delta* presents an overview of selected topics that
19 water quality regulators have identified as current priorities. As the Delta RMP evolves,
20 it will continue to develop high-quality information on water quality parameters critical
21 to the health of the Delta. Gradually, a more comprehensive picture of water quality
22 will emerge, and, incrementally, our understanding will advance. The experience with
23 the POD underscores the tremendous need for such comprehensive water quality
24 information, especially in a resource that faces as many and intertwined challenges as
25 the Delta.

26

1 Did Contaminants Play a Role in the Pelagic Organism 2 Decline?

3
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5

6 The Pelagic Organism Decline (POD) involves four species (Delta smelt, longfin smelt,
7 threadfin shad, and striped bass) that spend a portion of their life in the Delta and are
8 considered indicators of the overall health of the Delta ecosystem (**Figure 1**). Identifying
9 the cause of their decline has become the focus of a large effort by numerous state and
10 federal agencies. As part of this effort, the State Water Resources Control Board and the
11 Central Valley Regional Water Quality Control Board sponsored a review of the
12 available data on contaminants, water and sediment toxicity, and histopathology to
13 evaluate the role of contaminants in the POD. The following three specific questions
14 motivated this review:
15

- 16 • Are available water chemistry data sufficient to indicate the presence of
17 contaminants in the Delta at concentrations necessary to cause sublethal or lethal
18 effects sufficient to cause and/or maintain the POD?
- 19 • Are available toxicity data sufficient to indicate the presence of contaminants in the
20 Delta at concentrations necessary to cause sublethal or lethal effects sufficient to
21 cause and/or maintain the POD?
- 22 • Are available histopathology data sufficient to indicate that species of fish in the
23 Delta have been exposed to contaminants at concentrations necessary to cause
24 sublethal or lethal effects sufficient to cause and/or maintain the POD?
25

26 The Water Boards' review, "Evaluation of Chemical, Toxicological, and
27 Histopathological Data to Determine Their Role in the Pelagic Organism Decline"

1 (Johnson et al. 2010), was published in April 2010 and is available on the Delta RMP
2 homepage. It concluded that a step decline did occur between 2000 and 2002 for at least
3 three species (Delta smelt, threadfin shad, striped bass) and that the longfin smelt
4 experienced a more gradual decline. Because the larval and juvenile stages of all four
5 species are found in the Delta between January and June, it is possible that toxicity due
6 to contaminants could affect these sensitive life stages, either directly or through
7 impacts on their prey items. However, the review concluded that, while contaminants
8 are unlikely to be a major cause of the POD, they cannot be eliminated as a possible
9 contributor to the decline (**Figure 2**).

10
11 The conclusion that contaminants are unlikely to be a major cause is supported by three
12 findings: First, where data were available to compare, contaminants were not found at
13 higher concentrations during the POD years compared to previous years. Second, there
14 is no evidence that POD species are more sensitive to chemicals present in the Delta
15 than are other fish. And third, there was as much or more toxicity in water collected in
16 the Delta prior to as there was during the POD.

17
18 The ambiguity of the overall conclusion stems in part from gaps in the historical data
19 record, as well as from data quality issues associated with older data, and the difficulty
20 involved in finding, accessing, and integrating data from multiple sources. For example,
21 only a few chemicals had a time series of historical data sufficient to assess their role in
22 the POD. Problems with historical data included detection limits above toxic levels,
23 inadequately preserved samples, and insufficient sampling during the presumed
24 sensitive January to June period (except for diazinon and chlorpyrifos). Similarly, it is
25 not possible to determine if lesions in POD fish were more or less common or severe
26 prior to the POD years, primarily because of the lack of histopathology data from the
27 pre-POD and early POD years. Even in the later POD years, when more data are
28 available, there is little evidence of lesions in either POD or non-POD species.

29

1 Where data were sufficient to make pre- and post-POD comparisons, there does not
2 appear to be a strong signal that distinguishes the two periods. For example, the toxicity
3 data indicate there was as much or more overall toxicity in the Delta in the pre-POD
4 years as in the POD years. Even so, there are unanswered questions about the possible
5 role of sediment toxicity and toxicity from the organophosphorus pesticide chlorpyrifos
6 (the only chemical to exceed water quality objectives in more than 5% of samples) on
7 prey items. While striped bass are more sensitive to chlorpyrifos than are other, non-
8 POD, species, the Water Board study reached the preliminary conclusion that POD
9 species are not on the whole more sensitive than non-POD species to the mixture of
10 chemicals found in the Delta.

11

12 The Water Boards review raised a number of questions that are being addressed in
13 follow-on studies. Unfortunately, while future research can better assess the relative
14 sensitivity of POD species to contaminants in the Delta, it cannot recreate history and
15 fill the key data gaps in the historical record. In order to help ensure that future Delta-
16 wide synthesis efforts related to contaminants have data adequate to address questions
17 at the regional scale, the Johnson et al. (2010) report makes a number of specific
18 recommendations, including:

19

- 20 • develop a long-term water quality monitoring program that includes regionally
21 coordinated water chemistry, toxicity, and histopathology samples and incorporates
22 new and emerging contaminants in a multiple lines-of-evidence assessment
23 approach;
- 24 • develop a conceptual model of the Delta that combines critical physical forcing
25 functions and biological elements of the ecosystem;
- 26 • provide for ongoing data integration and interpretation aimed at both scientists and
27 decision-makers;

- 1 • improve data management and integration to provide for more consistent quality
2 control and easier access, perhaps through the California Environmental Data
3 Exchange Network or other data portals; and
- 4 • address key research needs such as identification of unknown toxicants, the toxicity
5 of contaminants on invertebrate prey species, improved data mining of historical
6 data, and the role of sediment toxicity, among others.

7 **Lessons Learned: Why the POD and Contaminants Story Can't Be Told**

8 One of the main messages of the Water Boards' Contaminants Synthesis Report is that
9 data are insufficient in both quantity and quality to determine the role of contaminants
10 in the POD. Future research may improve our general understanding of how
11 contaminants impact POD species but the main question "Did contaminants play a
12 larger role in the POD?" will likely remain open to debate. The investigations of the role
13 of contaminants in the POD were hindered because data were either missing,
14 unavailable, scattered among various data owners, or not in a format that would allow
15 the types of analyses needed for such an assessment.

16

17 Several types of problems were encountered, some of which have been corrected over
18 time but several of which continue to hamper current studies. Inadequate
19 documentation was a severe problem with historical data and made the majority of
20 historical data unusable. Inadequate detection limits, poor preservation, and missing or
21 incomplete quality assurance data reduced the utility of a large percentage of aquatic
22 chemistry and toxicity data. Even where individual data points met the data quality
23 requirements, spatial and temporal gaps in coverage limited the ability to draw
24 conclusions about trends over the Delta as a whole. In addition, data from many
25 sources were not publicly available or were available in hard copy or electronic formats
26 that did not support data integration and analysis.

27

1 While many of these technical issues have been corrected, current monitoring designs
2 and data management approaches are not sufficient to enable integrated assessments at
3 the scale of the Delta. Comprehensive conceptual models, large-scale assessment
4 designs, and improved data management procedures and systems are critical
5 prerequisites to such assessments.

6

7 Contact: Mike Johnson, MLJ-LLC, mjohnson@mlj-llc.com.

8

9 For more information:

10 [http://www.waterboards.ca.gov/centralvalley/water_issues/delta_water_quality/comprehen](http://www.waterboards.ca.gov/centralvalley/water_issues/delta_water_quality/comprehensive_monitoring_program/index.shtml)
11 [sive_monitoring_program/index.shtml](http://www.waterboards.ca.gov/centralvalley/water_issues/delta_water_quality/comprehensive_monitoring_program/index.shtml)

12

1 **SIDEBAR**

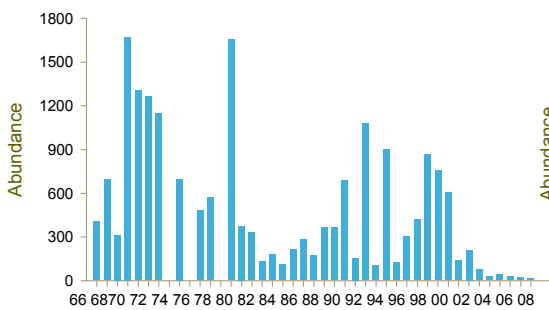
2 **Pelagic Organism Decline (POD)**

3 **Serious declines of several important fish species in the Estuary are continuing.**
 4 Summer and fall abundance indices calculated by the Interagency Ecological Program
 5 (IEP) suggest recent marked declines in numerous pelagic fishes in the Delta and Suisun
 6 Bay, known as the “pelagic organism decline (POD)”. The fall indices have been
 7 collected for all but two of the last 30 years. The indices for the last three years continue
 8 to hover at record low levels for Delta smelt, striped bass, longfin smelt, and threadfin
 9 shad.

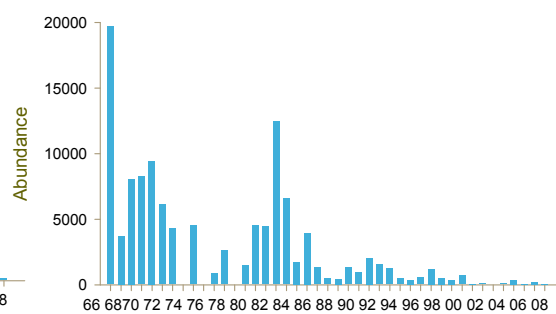
10 Contact: Randy Baxter, California Department of Fish and Game, rbaxter@dfg.ca.gov

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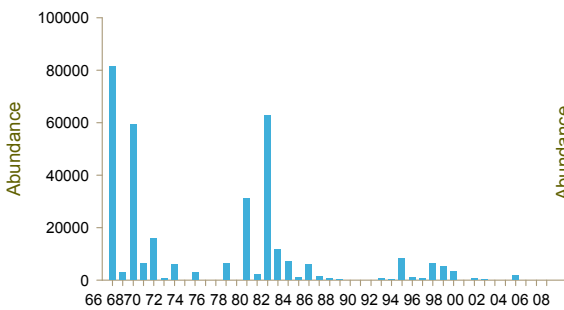
Delta Smelt



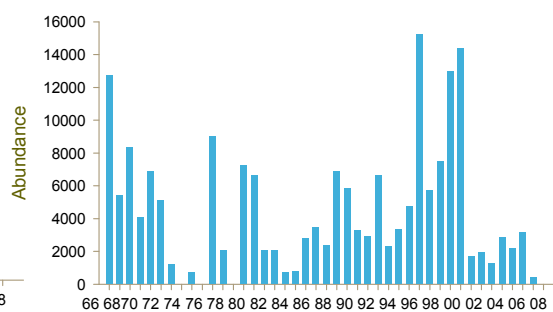
Striped Bass



Longfin Smelt



Threadfin Shad



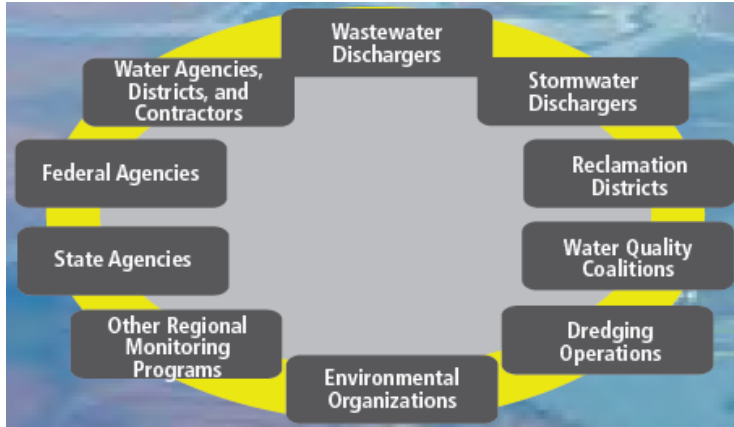
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1 ***ILLUSTRATIONS***

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3 **Delta RMP stakeholders.**



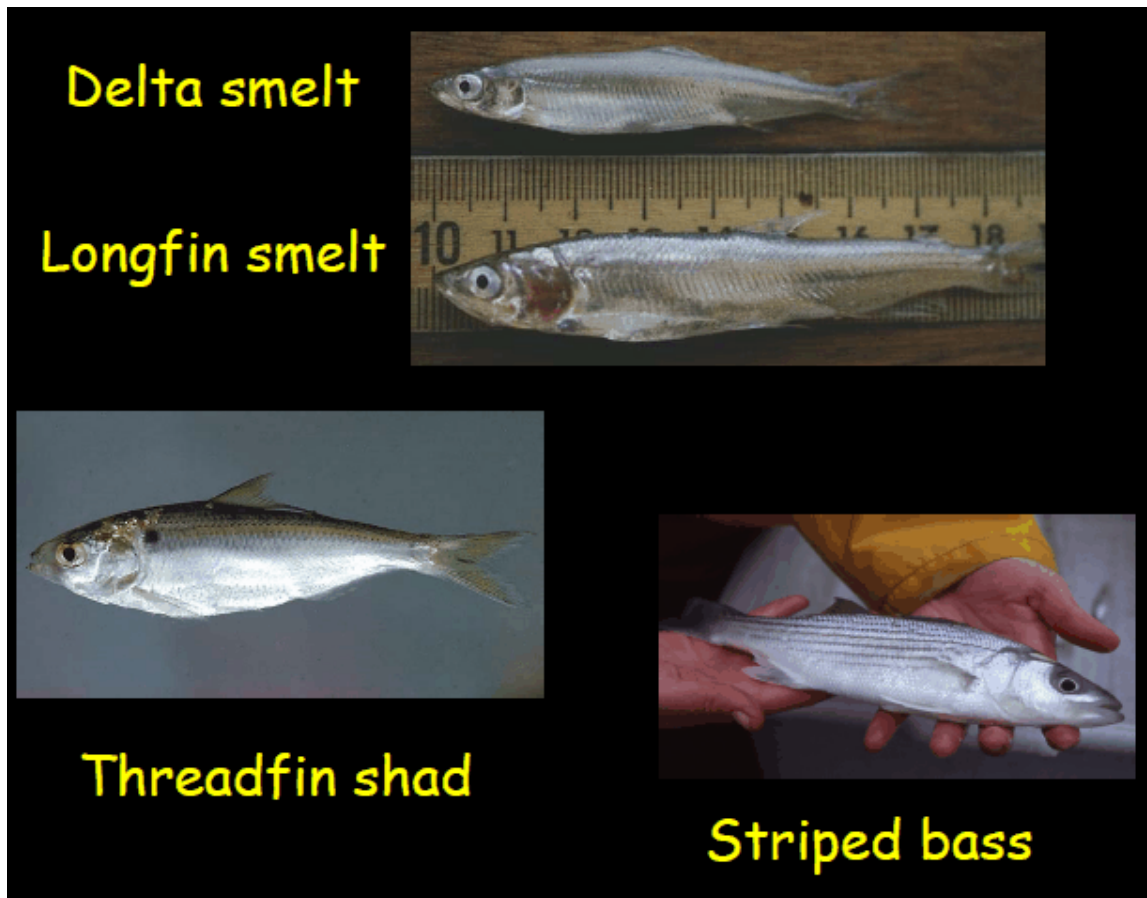
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1 **Figure 1.**

2 **The four POD species: Delta smelt, longfin smelt, striped bass, and threadfin shad.** Delta smelt is a
 3 finger-sized fish that is native to the San Francisco Estuary and listed as threatened under the federal
 4 Endangered Species Act. Longfin smelt is found in several estuaries and lakes along the northern Pacific
 5 coast and is listed as a threatened species under the California Endangered Species Act. Striped bass were
 6 introduced from the East Coast in the late 1800s by the California Fish and Game Commission and are
 7 popular with anglers. Threadfin shad are a favorite food for striped bass and other sport fish.

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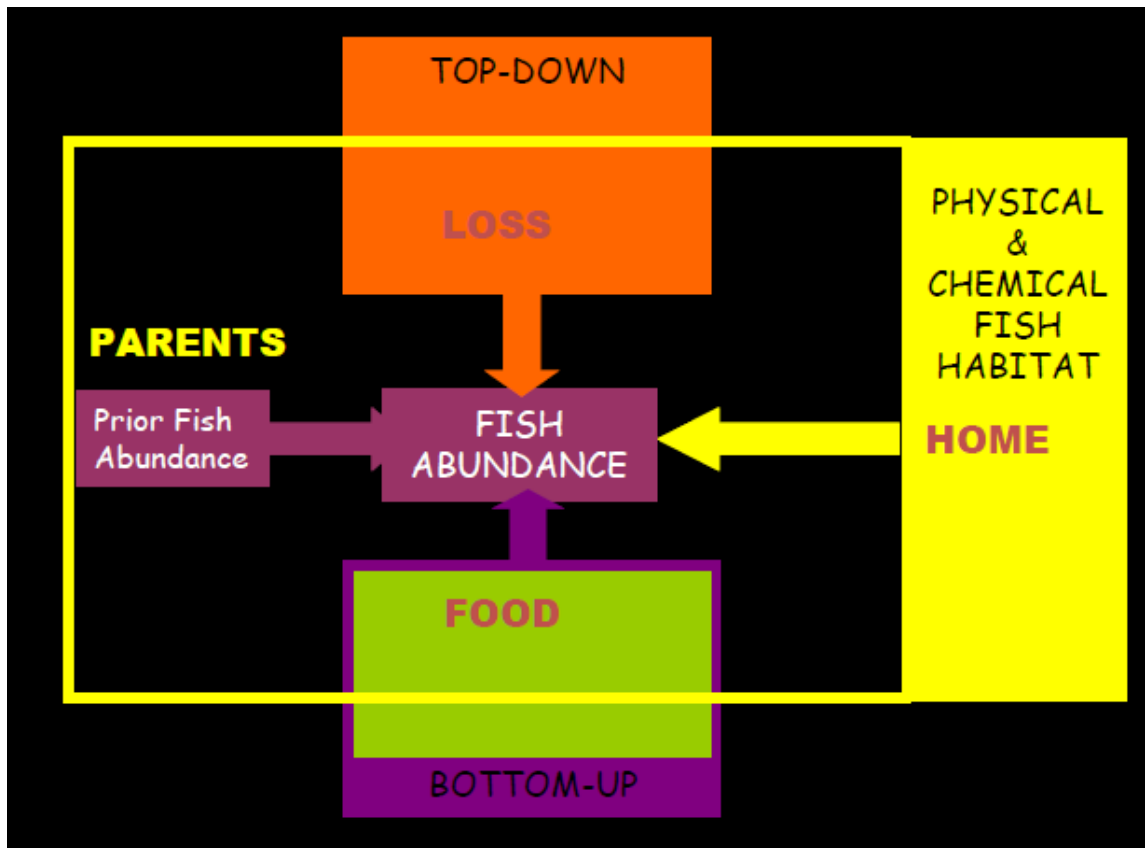


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1 **Figure 2.**

2 **Conceptual model of the POD.** This conceptual model is rooted in food web and fisheries ecology and
 3 identifies four possible causes for the POD: prior low fish abundance (1), degraded water quality (2),
 4 increased mortality (3), and reduced food availability (4). **(1)** Prior fish abundance: decimated fish
 5 population produce less young, exacerbating the effect of stressors. **(2)** Degraded water quality: the
 6 presence of contaminants and other detrimental changes - at least partially due to and in tandem with
 7 extremely modified flows - have resulted in a severe decline of fishes' habitat. **(3)** Increased mortality:
 8 predators and the pumps of the water projects decimate fish populations. **(4)** Reduced food availability:
 9 invasive species, flow modifications, and changes in nutrient levels have drastically altered the food web
 10 and impair the survival and reproduction of the POD species through reduced food availability. Adapted
 11 from Sommer et al 2007.

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1 Management Update

2 Delta RMP: Re-thinking Water Quality Monitoring 3 in the Delta

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6 Highlights

- 7 ⇒ There are numerous active water quality monitoring programs in the
8 Delta
- 9 ⇒ A majority of the existing programs are narrowly focused, designed to
10 comply with regulations and satisfy individual permit requirements
- 11 ⇒ Due to different program mandates, different permit requirements,
12 different procedures for proving compliance, and difficulties in combining
13 existing data, there is no method for utilizing the information
14 comprehensively
- 15 ⇒ The proposed remedy for the lack of integrated, comprehensive
16 monitoring and analysis is a Delta Regional Monitoring Program (Delta
17 RMP)
- 18 ⇒ The Water Boards are committed to the success of a Delta RMP and are
19 willing to negotiate regulatory requirements in order to achieve more
20 integrated monitoring.

1 ⇒ Stakeholders with an interest in Delta water quality will need to
2 contribute time and resources to continue developing the major aspects of
3 the program: governance, monitoring objectives, funding, data
4 integration, and coordination with other programs

5

6 **Monitoring and Managing Water Quality in the Delta**

7 The Delta is California's water crossroads. It provides two-thirds of Californians - an
8 estimated 25 million people - with water. The Delta also supports more than 80% of the
9 state's commercial salmon fishery, and is home to more than 750 plant and animal
10 species - including 31 species that are threatened or endangered - that, in some cases,
11 are found nowhere else. The Delta is the heart of California's water system. And it is in
12 crisis.

13 Preserving the Delta's resources requires decision-makers to carefully evaluate and
14 balance how its waters are used. Recently, but especially in the past decade, the
15 challenges associated with this balancing have escalated. The drastic, simultaneous
16 decline of several key fish species, known as the Pelagic Organism Decline (POD), left
17 water quality managers wondering "What happened?" Immediately following this
18 decline, numerous studies tried to find a cause. Despite millions of dollars of effort
19 (FIGURE 1), no simple answer was found. In addition, it was clear that the data
20 collected was not comprehensive and easy to use.

21

22 A majority of the existing monitoring programs are designed to comply with
23 regulations and satisfy individual permit requirements. These efforts are extremely
24 useful to ensure that discharges do not exceed established limits and impair the health
25 of receiving waters. However, due to different program mandates, different permit
26 requirements, different procedures for proving compliance, and no established method
27 to combine collected data, there is no way to reach a comprehensive understanding of
28 Delta condition. It's time to rethink the existing monitoring scheme.

1
2 By coordinating efforts and making data available, regulatory compliance monitoring
3 will become more efficient, consistent, and cost-effective while developing a more
4 comprehensive view of the Delta. Improvements in the way water quality monitoring is
5 managed will lead to improvements in the way the Delta is managed.

6 **The Water Boards Are Committed to Developing the Delta RMP**

7 The recognition that data from existing monitoring could not be combined easily, let
8 alone combined to identify a definitive reason for the POD, was a wake-up call to
9 regulatory agencies, including the State Water Resources Control Board and the Central
10 Valley Regional Water Quality Control Board (collectively, the Water Boards). Despite
11 being tasked with protecting the beneficial uses of state waters, the researchers and the
12 Water Boards could not definitively conclude whether or not contaminants were a
13 factor in the decline of the pelagic species. This lack of understanding sparked a
14 renewed effort from the Water Boards to determine factors important to the health of
15 the Delta. As a result, the State Water Board, the San Francisco Bay Regional Water
16 Board, and the Central Valley Regional Water Board jointly developed a Bay-Delta
17 Team and a strategic workplan to “improve coordination of Water Board activities
18 affecting the Delta and moderate impacts to the beneficial uses of water in the Bay-
19 Delta.”

20
21 The workplan includes several actions that:

- 22 1) implement the Water Boards’ core water quality responsibilities;
- 23 2) continue to meet prior Water Board commitments;
- 24 3) are responsive to priorities identified by the Governor and the Delta Vision
25 Blue Ribbon Task Force; and
- 26 4) build on existing initiatives, such as the Bay Delta Conservation Plan (BDCP).

27

1 The workplan includes several actions that require coordination with other efforts and
2 entities. The development of a comprehensive water quality monitoring program is
3 included as a priority action. The Water Boards have repeatedly demonstrated their
4 commitment to a regional monitoring program that is developed through a
5 comprehensive stakeholder process. The Water Boards have dedicated staff and
6 funding to assist in coordinating the development of a successful, sustainable program.

7
8 The benefits of a local, stakeholder-developed RMP will be numerous. An RMP that
9 engages all the different interests involved with Delta water quality can help the Water
10 Boards reassess their policies, permits, and regulations and focus actions on the most
11 pressing concerns, many of which require region-wide cooperation for long-term
12 solutions. A well-developed RMP can effectively guide management decisions and
13 establish priorities that benefit multiple parties.

14
15 AN RMP can help transform existing piecemeal monitoring into a more efficient
16 system. Focusing on the Delta system as a whole may reveal opportunities to combine,
17 change, or reduce existing regulatory monitoring requirements. Not only can this save
18 money, it can help develop a broader picture of the condition of the Delta ecosystem.

19
20 In addition to coordinating monitoring, an RMP can improve the management of the
21 resulting data. The RMP will help standardize data formats and protocols, increasing
22 the ease with which data can be combined and extracted from various databases. One of
23 the biggest benefits of an RMP will be improved access to the wealth of collected data.
24 Improved data management systems will help ensure monitoring serves a broad
25 purpose. The information will be used to inform not just Water Board decisions, but
26 also the public. Researchers will also be able to use data generated through the RMP to
27 augment data they collect themselves.

28

1 The RMP can play a large role in informing the public of the challenges and
2 opportunities that exist within the Delta. Publications like the *Delta Pulse*, newsletters,
3 and related writings can disseminate information in non-technical formats. AN RMP
4 can reduce misinformation and help attract additional focus on specific problems. With
5 the RMP, regulators can gain a better idea of specific impacts and attract funding for
6 research, restoration, additional studies, and more.

7
8 The Water Boards have focused efforts on developing and establishing a Delta RMP in
9 order to build additional interest and involvement in the region. The Water Boards
10 cannot develop a successful RMP on their own. The Water Boards are fully committed
11 to the success of the Delta RMP and are willing to negotiate regulatory requirements in
12 order to achieve more integrated monitoring.

13 **Moving Forward with the Delta RMP**

14 While the Water Boards have contributed time and funding to the early development of
15 the Delta RMP, a truly successful and sustainable program will require partnership
16 with stakeholders. Stakeholders with an interest in the Delta region will need to actively
17 contribute time and resources to continue developing the major aspects of the program:
18 governance, monitoring objectives, funding, data integration, and coordination with
19 other programs. To date, the Delta RMP has developed under strong control and
20 guidance from the Water Boards and Aquatic Science Center. Staff have produced the
21 existing documents and coordinated all stakeholder meetings and workgroups. As we
22 continue to move forward in developing a strong, independent Delta RMP, the
23 voluntary, ad-hoc workgroups will need to become more formalized and develop a
24 structure to run with less direction from the Water Boards. AN RMP with active
25 support and involvement from parties directly affected by its findings will be more
26 likely to succeed over the long term. And it's clear from events like the POD that we
27 desperately need to establish an understanding of baseline status and be able to track
28 trends in water quality over time.

1 **Better Information for Better Management**

2 The Delta RMP has been a long time in coming. There are formidable challenges to
3 overcome, as is apparent from previous attempts at developing a comprehensive
4 monitoring program for the Delta. Widely understood is that these previous attempts
5 failed mainly because they were too ambitious. Lessons learned from these previous
6 efforts and from the successful implementation of RMPs in different regions (San
7 Francisco Bay, Southern California Bight) are expected to help avoid these and other
8 potential pitfalls in the future. The following principles will be followed to develop a
9 Delta RMP that is feasible, sustainable, and widely supported:

10

- 11 • start small and focused
- 12 • strive for cost neutrality
- 13 • approach planning and implementation in several consecutive phases that
14 build on each other
- 15 • institutionalize periodic external program review and provide mechanisms
16 for the continuous adaptation of the Delta RMP based on information
17 generated, and
- 18 • pursue an inclusive, tiered stakeholder approach (not just government
19 agencies) and develop a manageable governance structure for obtaining
20 stakeholder input.

21

22 Initially, the Delta RMP will focus on contaminants-related issues and the program
23 development will proceed gradually, based on funding availability and feasibility. With
24 stakeholder support, the Delta RMP will be able to make strides in creating efficiencies
25 in the current monitoring system and improving access to important water quality
26 information. Early success of the Delta RMP could then attract additional funding
27 sources. Through coordination and collaboration with other programs, the Delta RMP

- 1 can foster integrated water quality monitoring and assessments. The envisioned
- 2 outcome is sustainable, better protected uses of Delta water.

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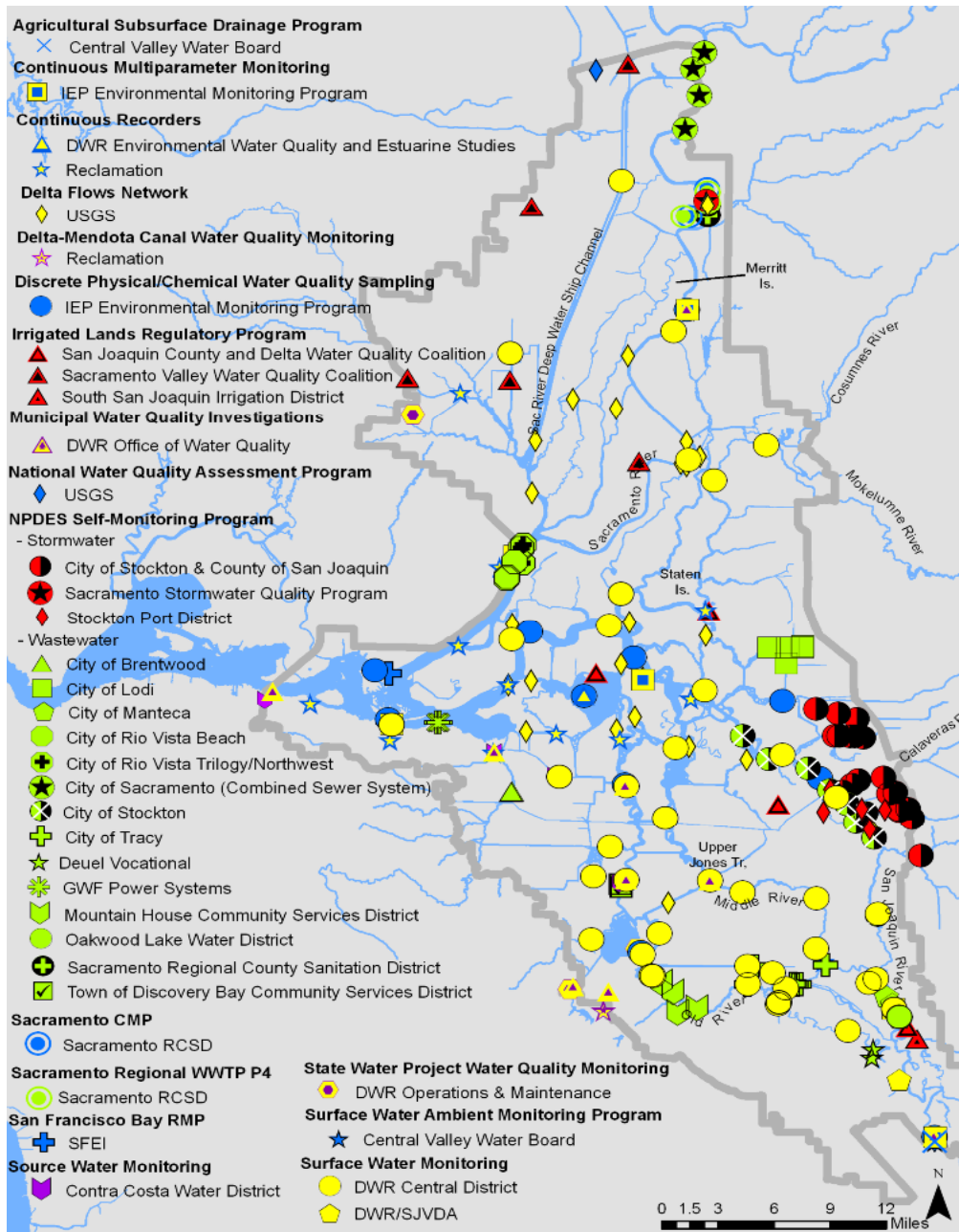
1 SIDE BAR

2 1. Delta Vision

3 In February 2007, the governor appointed the independent Delta Vision Blue Ribbon
4 Task Force to find a durable vision for sustainable management of the Delta. Delta
5 Vision was based on a growing consensus among scientists and decision makers that
6 current conditions in the Delta are not sustainable and a new approach is needed to
7 secure California's water supply and protect this unique ecosystem. Perhaps *the* core
8 Task Force recommendation is the one to “create a California Delta Ecosystem and
9 Water Council to govern the co-equal values of healthy estuarine ecosystem function
10 and a reliable water supply, and to approve policies for enhancing the Delta as a place.”
11 The recommendation resulted in the formation of the Delta Stewardship Council, which
12 is charged with developing a comprehensive Delta Plan for achieving the co-equal goals
13 of water supply and ecosystem. The Delta Stewardship Council must adopt and
14 implement the Delta Plan by January 1, 2012.
15 More information: <http://deltacouncil.ca.gov/>.

2. Water Quality Monitoring in the Delta

Seventeen long-term water quality monitoring programs are underway in the Delta, collecting data at more than 200 different sampling locations. At least 22 different entities are involved in collecting the data, at an estimated annual cost of \$9 to \$12M.

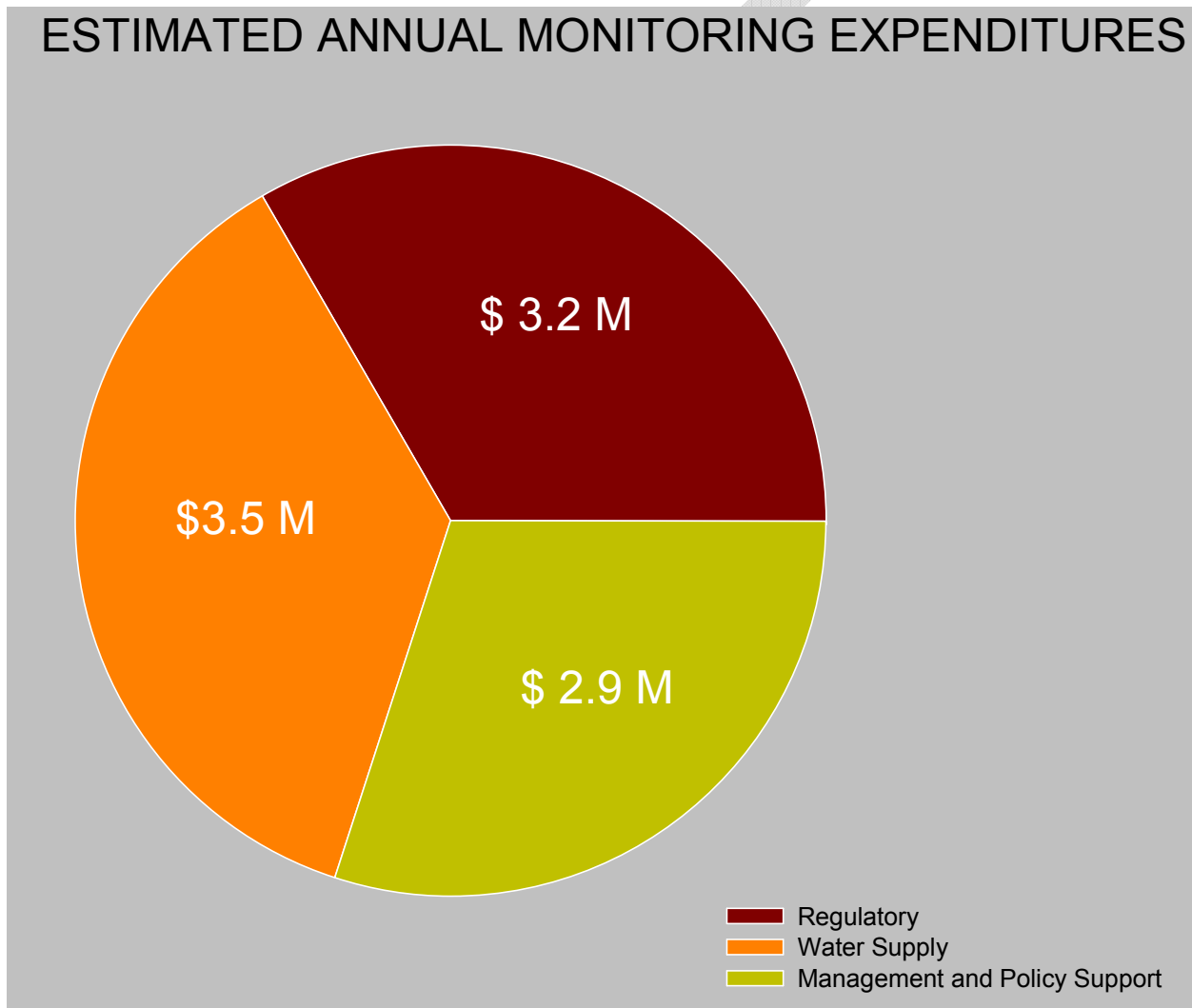


1 **ILLUSTRATIONS**

2 **FIGURE 1.**

3 **Total annual cost of surface water monitoring in the Delta is estimated to be in the range of \$9 to**
4 **\$12M.** Based on available data, monitoring expenditures in the Delta exceed \$9M. Cost estimates were
5 not available for all monitoring programs.

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1 Ammonia in the Delta: State of the Science, 2 Implications for Management

3
4 Thomas Jabusch, Aquatic Science Center

5
6 Chris Foe, Central Valley Regional Water Board, cfoe@waterboards.ca.gov

7 8 Highlights

- 9
- 10 ⇒ A significant increase in total ammonia levels in waters of the Delta has
11 occurred over the past 10 years
 - 12 ⇒ Total ammonia is the sum of free ammonia (also known as unionized
13 ammonia, chemical symbol NH_3) and ammonium (or ionized ammonia,
14 chemical symbol NH_4^+)
 - 15 ⇒ Elevated concentrations of free ammonia can be toxic to fish and other
16 aquatic life
 - 17 ⇒ One of the key findings of recent monitoring is that ambient levels of free
18 ammonia are unlikely to be toxic to fish in the Delta
 - 19 ⇒ An emerging hypothesis links elevated ammonium levels to low primary
20 production in Suisun Bay and the Delta
 - 21 ⇒ Further monitoring and modeling will be essential to evaluate how altered
22 ammonium levels and nutrient balances are affecting the Delta's
23 phytoplankton community and what types of nutrient management
24 strategies might help the Delta-Suisun Bay food web recover

1 **Rising Concerns Over Ammonia**

2 A significant increase in ammonia levels in Delta waterways over the past 10 years has
3 triggered concerns about their impact on the Bay-Delta ecosystem. Ammonia can be
4 toxic to fish and other aquatic life and, as ammonium (see **Sidebar: The Different**
5 **Forms of Ammonia**), may also be a factor controlling algal growth. This article
6 summarizes recent studies evaluating the role of ammonia and presents an emerging
7 hypothesis for how current ammonia levels may be significantly impacting the Delta
8 and San Francisco Bay.

9 As part of an integrated series of workshops sponsored by the IEP, the Central Valley
10 Regional Water Board organized the 2009 Ammonia Summit to discuss current
11 knowledge about the role of ammonia in the Bay-Delta ecosystem. In this article, we
12 report on the status of ammonia research and assessment since the Summit. Only
13 recently have enough data accumulated through focused monitoring and experimental
14 studies to begin to address the question of whether current ammonia levels are causing
15 beneficial use impairments to the Bay-Delta ecosystem.

16 Estimates based on available nutrient monitoring data and river flow information
17 identify the Sacramento Regional Wastewater Treatment Plant (SRWTP) as the source
18 of 90% of the total ammonia in the Delta portion of the Sacramento River and as the
19 single largest source of ammonia in the Bay-Delta system. There are also other sources
20 of ammonia to the Bay-Delta system, particularly in the vicinity and downstream of
21 Suisun Bay. These include other wastewater treatment plants, agricultural runoff,
22 atmospheric deposition, internal cycling, and possibly discharges from wetlands.

23

24 **Ammonia Toxicity in the Delta: Searching for the Smoking Gun**

25 One of the key findings of recent monitoring is that ambient free ammonia
26 concentrations (see **Sidebar: The Different Forms of Ammonia**) found at Delta
27 sampling sites during a two-year monitoring study (see **Sidebar: Ammonia Monitoring**
28 **in the Delta**) never exceeded known toxicity thresholds for sensitive local species like

1 Delta smelt (**Figure 3**). Free ammonia concentrations were highest at Hood, the first
2 monitoring station downstream of the SRWTP, and lowest at the two upstream stations.
3 Compared to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) chronic ammonia
4 criterion for juvenile fish present in the Delta, ambient ammonia levels at all Delta sites
5 were considered safe (**Figure 4**).

6 Free ammonia levels from the ambient monitoring study also never exceeded USEPA's
7 new and more stringent draft criteria for freshwater mussels, but the safety margin was
8 much smaller than for juvenile fish (**Figure 5**). Because freshwater mussels are more
9 sensitive to free ammonia than fish, the proposed chronic ammonia criterion to protect
10 freshwater mussels is about five to ten times lower than the existing chronic criterion
11 for juvenile fish. Other reported results indicate that toxic effects to freshwater mussels
12 are possible, if sensitive mussels are present immediately below the SRWTP outfall. The
13 State Water Contractors (SWC) compared ambient ammonia levels immediately
14 downstream of the SRWTP mixing zone with the draft USEPA ammonia criterion for
15 freshwater mussels. The SWC report that the draft USEPA ammonia criterion was
16 exceeded 21 percent of the time between 2007 and 2008 and 41 percent of the time in
17 2009. The new criterion is intended to protect highly sensitive Unionid freshwater
18 mussels, which have been reported in the Sacramento watershed (personal
19 communication, Jeanette Howard of The Nature Conservancy) but have not been
20 confirmed below the SRWTP outfall.

21 The research group of Dr. Swee Teh from the U.C. Davis School of Veterinary Medicine
22 reported that ambient ammonia levels could affect the reproduction and survival of
23 larvae of the copepod *Pseudodiaptomus forbesi*, a zooplankton species that is an
24 important forage organism for larval fish in the Delta (Teh et al. 2009). They also
25 observed more toxicity at lower pH values, suggesting that ammonium ions may be
26 more toxic to these invertebrates than free ammonia, a finding that is at odds with our
27 current understanding of ammonia toxicity. Additional experiments are now being
28 performed to confirm these findings.

1 **Impacts on the Delta-Suisun Bay Foodweb**

2 An emerging hypothesis links increased ambient levels of ammonium to low algal
3 growth rates and chlorophyll levels in Suisun Bay and the Delta – this is considered to
4 be one of the factors possibly contributing to the POD (see **Opening Article** on page
5 **XX**). Studies inside the Delta so far have not been entirely conclusive, but there is a
6 growing consensus about downstream effects on the food web in Suisun Bay. Drs.
7 Richard Dugdale and Frances Wilkerson and their colleagues at San Francisco State
8 University have studied the role of ammonium in controlling phytoplankton
9 productivity in the San Francisco Estuary since 1999 (Dugdale et al. 2007). Their studies
10 provide evidence that ammonium-induced shutdown of nitrate (another form of
11 nitrogen that is an important nutrient for algal growth) uptake prevents spring algae
12 blooms from developing when conditions are otherwise favorable. (An algal bloom is a
13 rapid increase in the number of algal cells such that the blooming algae dominate the
14 algal community.) They observed that spring blooms only occur in years when ambient
15 ammonium is below levels reported to inhibit nitrate uptake and algal production
16 (**Figure 6**). Focused monitoring in spring 2010 detected two diatom blooms in Suisun
17 Bay. Both occurred when ammonium was below the nitrate uptake shutdown level of
18 0.056 mg/L. At all other times, ammonium levels in Suisun Bay were above this
19 threshold and no blooms were observed. Suppression of algal blooms in Suisun Bay is
20 presently the most compelling evidence for beneficial use impairment by ammonia and
21 ammonium originating in the Delta's watershed.

22 There are also growing concerns that current ammonium levels may suppress algal
23 growth in the Delta upstream from Suisun Bay. Ammonium levels in the river
24 downstream of the SRWTP are high enough to shut down nitrate uptake in algae
25 (Parker et al. 2010). This is an important observation, since it points to a possible
26 mechanism for the observed shift in the Delta algae community from ecologically
27 important diatoms to smaller, less desirable flagellates and blue-green algae (Brown,
28 2010; Lehman, 2010, Glibert 2010). Support for this possible link comes from statistical

1 correlations between long-term changes in ammonium loadings to the Delta from the
2 SRWTP and the observed system-wide changes in the algae community (Glibert 2010).
3 A dwindling algal food supply of inferior quality is one of the “bottom up” factors
4 suspected to contribute to the POD (Sommer et al. 2007). For zooplankton, an important
5 link in the food web of fish, diatoms are considered to be more nutritious as prey than
6 smaller algae such as flagellates and blue-green algae. As experiments in large
7 experimental enclosures show (**Figure 7**), small flagellates and blue-greens dominate
8 phytoplankton communities with high ammonium uptake, whereas diatoms prevail in
9 communities with high nitrate uptake. This implies that the smaller flagellates and blue-
10 green algae have an edge competing for nutrients and grow faster than diatoms when
11 the ambient nitrate-ammonium balance shifts from nitrate to ammonium. A higher
12 growth rate of flagellates and blue-green algae would cause these “bad food” smaller-
13 sized cells to gradually replace the “good food” diatom-dominated community. A
14 recently published study suggests that not only changes in the ammonium-nitrate
15 balance, but also changes in the nitrogen-phosphorus balance over the past decade are
16 now favoring blue-greens and flagellates over diatoms (Glibert 2010). It has been
17 documented that the algal community of the Delta has changed from a community
18 dominated by diatoms to a community dominated by flagellates and blue-green algae
19 (Brown, 2010; Lehman, 2010), consistent with these predictions. Whether this is in fact
20 the result of the observed changes in nutrient levels or some other factor is not known,
21 because some critical monitoring data are still missing. Follow-up monitoring and
22 forecast models are needed to evaluate how the changed nutrient levels and balances
23 are affecting the Delta’s phytoplankton community and what types of nutrient
24 management strategies might help the Delta-Suisun Bay foodweb revert to a healthy,
25 diatom-based system.

1 **Implications for Nutrient Management**

2 There is a growing consensus that ambient ammonia levels in the Delta may be causing
3 beneficial use impairments. This has significant implications for water quality control,
4 ecosystem restoration, and future monitoring and research.

5 The Central Valley Water Board's monitoring study (see Sidebar) confirmed the Delta
6 as a source of ammonia to Suisun Bay. Recent monitoring by the San Francisco Bay
7 Water Board found elevated ammonia levels at both ends of Suisun Bay, indicating that
8 not all of the ammonia originates from the Delta and thus the SRWTP. Preliminary
9 calculations suggest that combined ammonia loads may need to be reduced by 50 to 85
10 percent to eliminate ammonium-induced suppression of diatom production in Suisun
11 Bay. Reducing ammonia levels in the Delta will require more stringent nutrient load
12 controls on wastewater treatment plants that discharge significant loads of ammonia to
13 Suisun Bay and the Delta.

14

15 **Outlook for Monitoring and Research**

16 The ammonia issue provides a prime example of the challenges involved in establishing
17 cause-effect relationships in a complex ecosystem affected by multiple, interacting
18 stressors. There is growing evidence that current ammonia levels in the Delta are
19 impairing beneficial uses, but it is not clear if they are a prime factor responsible for the
20 observed demise of the Delta food web. By itself, the ammonia issue is but one of the
21 many facets of an extremely complex and highly modified system. The issue is
22 significant as an indicator of altered hydrology and nutrient supply, which arguably
23 represent the main concerns of managers. There is a growing consensus that current
24 research and monitoring programs are too narrowly focused to provide answers to
25 these big questions. New holistic approaches are needed to study the Estuary and to
26 compare it to past conditions and with other estuaries of similar size. Holistic
27 approaches will require multidisciplinary collaborations that integrate water quality

1 studies with hydrologic modeling, landscape ecology, and historical and comparative
2 system analyses.

3 For ammonia specifically, Central Valley Regional Board staff evaluated the science
4 needs and priorities that came out of the 2009 Ammonia Summit
5 ([http://www.swrcb.ca.gov/rwqcb5/water_issues/delta_water_quality/ambient_amm
7 onia_concentrations/index.shtml](http://www.swrcb.ca.gov/rwqcb5/water_issues/delta_water_quality/ambient_amm
6 onia_concentrations/index.shtml)) and identified future research priorities. Regional
8 Board staff recommended specific experimental field studies to better understand the
9 effect of ammonia and other nutrients on algal growth and species composition in the
10 Delta. But there will also be a need for comprehensive, integrated long-term monitoring
11 of nutrients and phytoplankton to better understand and adaptively manage the long-
12 term relationships among nutrient levels and algae composition and growth. The
13 emerging Delta RMP can play a valuable role in developing the needed long-term
14 monitoring, coordinating resources and sampling activities, and synthesizing results.
15 Since most of the ammonia of concern originates in the Central Valley while at least one
16 of the impacts extends into the San Francisco Bay region, two Regional Boards are
17 involved in the issue, complicating both the scientific investigations and the ultimate
18 regulation. The Delta RMP could also play a role in cross-regional science coordination
and ensuring appropriate stakeholder input and representation.

1 SIDEBARS

2 1. The Different Forms of Ammonia

3 Two forms of ammonia are commonly reported and considered in a water quality
4 management context: total ammonia and free ammonia. Total ammonia is the sum of
5 both free ammonia (also known as unionized ammonia, chemical symbol NH_3) and
6 ammonium (or ionized ammonia, chemical symbol NH_4^+). This distinction is important
7 because free ammonia is the more toxic form to fish. Total ammonia is easy to measure
8 and can be converted into a value for free ammonia, based on the pH and water
9 temperature, which are the two major factors that determine the balance between free
10 ammonia (NH_3) and ammonium (NH_4^+) in water - a pH or temperature increase, the
11 proportion of free ammonia, the more toxic form, increases. Ammonium, or ionized
12 ammonia, is the form of ammonia nitrogen taken up by algae as a nutrient.

13 2. Ammonia Monitoring in the Delta

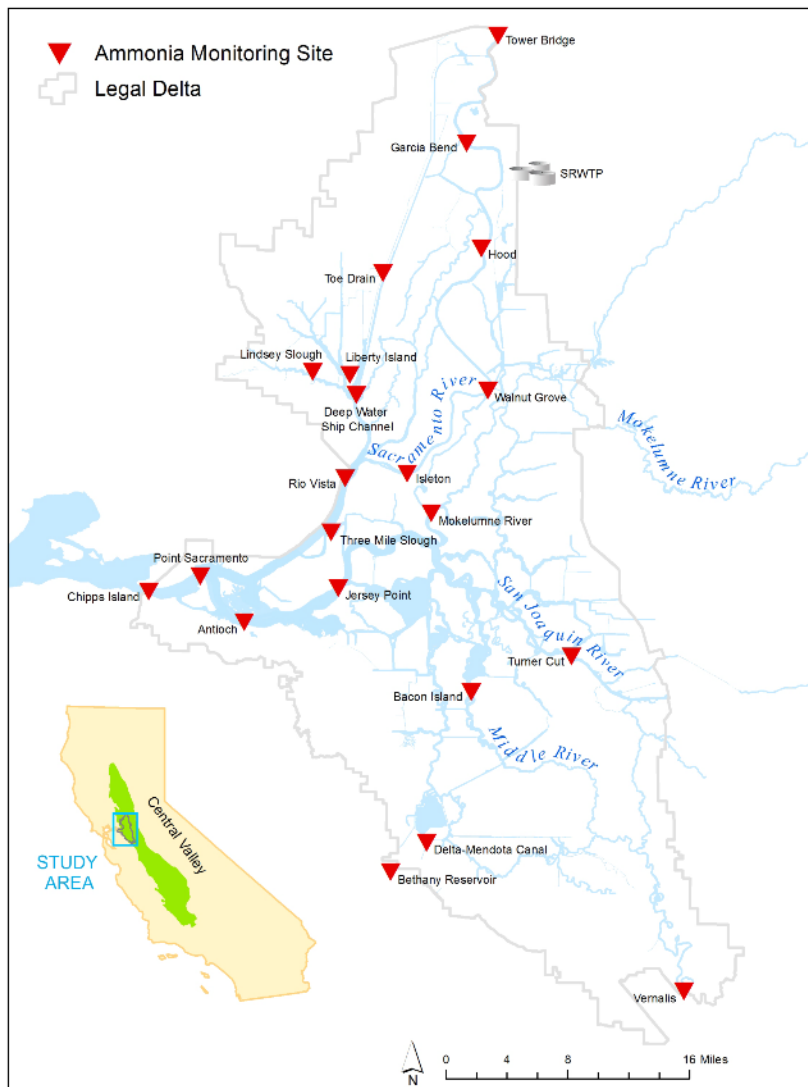
14 To evaluate impacts of ammonia levels downstream of the Sacramento Regional
15 Wastewater Treatment Plant (SRWTP), staff from the Central Valley Regional Water
16 Board measured nutrient patterns at 21 sites between March 2009 and February 2010
17 (Foe et al. 2010). The study was designed to fill in critical information for assessing
18 possible beneficial use impairments caused by ammonia that could not be gleaned from
19 existing long-term monitoring datasets. The purpose of this study was threefold. First,
20 collect nutrient data, including ammonia, at key locations in the Delta throughout an
21 annual hydrologic cycle to characterize concentrations and compare with reported
22 toxicity endpoints for sensitive local aquatic organisms. Second, determine biologically
23 and tidally induced short-term variability in nutrient concentrations at key locations.
24 Third, compare ancillary water quality measurements collected in this study with real-
25 time remote sensing values reported by the California Data Exchange Center (CDEC)
26 for the same time and place to determine the comparability of the two data sets. The

1 sampling sites include nine stations along the Sacramento River from the City of
2 Sacramento to Chipps Island (**Figure 1**). Each station was visited monthly and samples
3 were analyzed for different forms of nitrogen (including ammonia), phosphorus,
4 chlorophyll, and additional water quality parameters. Of particular importance was the
5 measurement of ammonia concentrations together with the associated pH values to
6 estimate ambient levels of free ammonia. The data were used to characterize ammonia
7 levels and compare them with USEPA chronic and acute toxicity criteria and other
8 toxicity thresholds for sensitive local species. The measured ammonia concentrations
9 never exceeded any of these values. The transect sampling resolved clear spatial trends
10 downstream of the SRWTP that point to the microbial transformation of ammonia to
11 nitrite and nitrate as the environmental process with the largest effect on nutrient
12 patterns downstream of the SRWTP (**Figure 2**). Intensive sampling was conducted on
13 three occasions at Rio Vista and Antioch by collecting water every two hours for two
14 days from each site. This was done to determine whether there were diel (day/night) or
15 tidally induced changes in nutrient concentrations, but no consistent pattern was
16 observed. Comparison of ancillary data with those from the remotely operated CDEC
17 meters suggests good agreement in pH but significant differences in some other
18 parameters (turbidity and chlorophyll). This result reaffirms the importance of
19 collecting quality-assured ancillary parameters as part of each ambient monitoring
20 study.

1 ILLUSTRATIONS

2 **Figure 1.**

3 **Central Valley Regional Board staff monitored nutrients, including ammonia, at 21 sites in the Delta**
4 **between March 2009 and February 2010. The SRWTP discharges to the Delta between Garcia Bend and**
5 **Hood.**



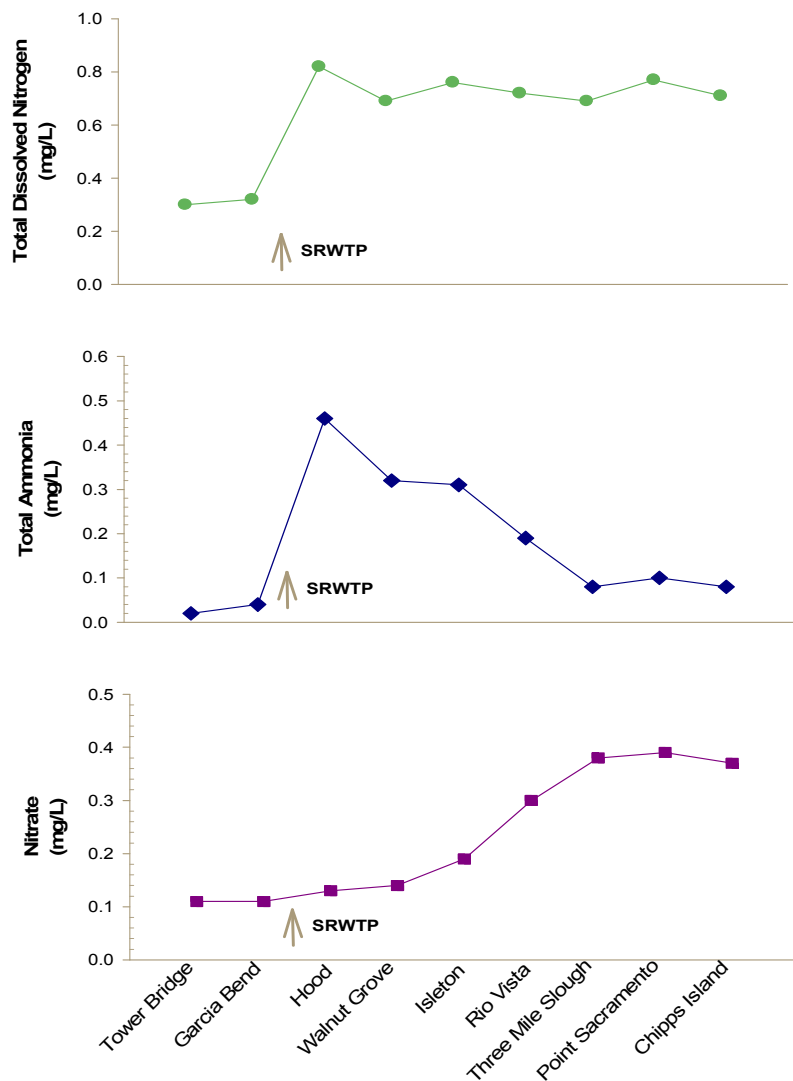
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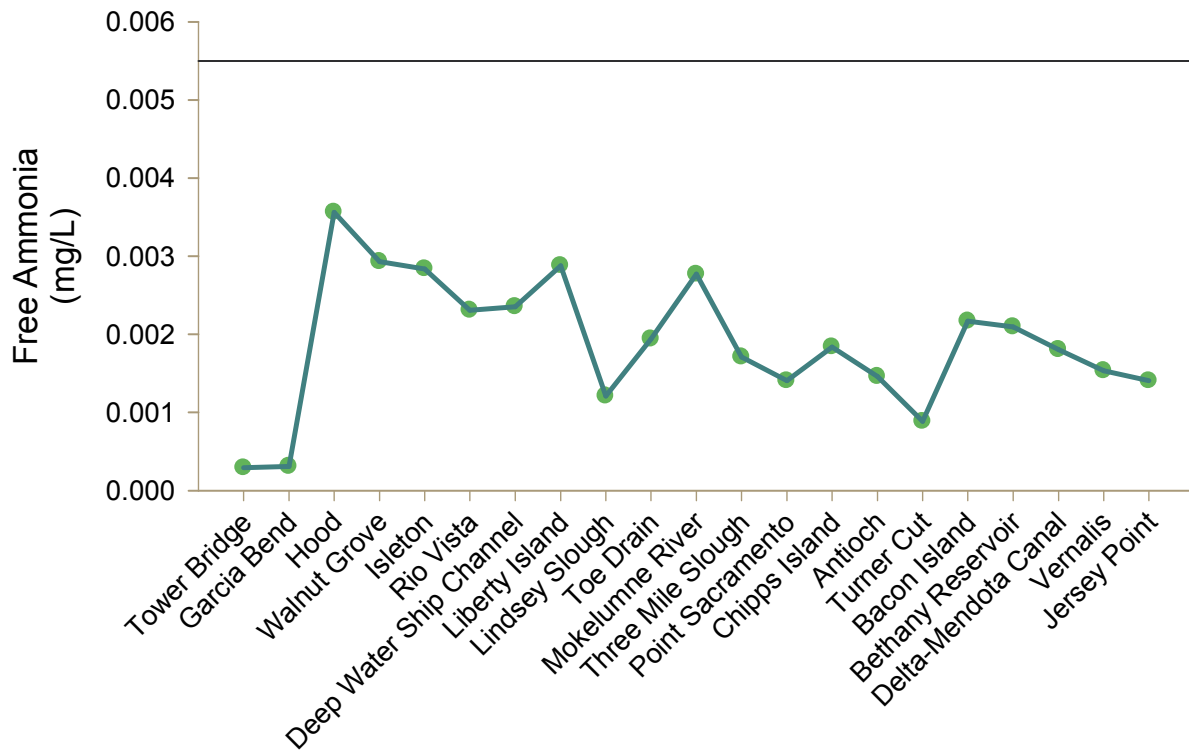
1 **Figure 2.**

2 **Ammonia concentrations increased below the SRWTP outfall and gradually declined downstream.**

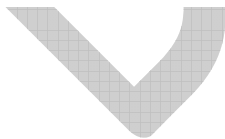
3 Total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) is the sum of all forms of dissolved forms of nitrogen. TDN concentrations
 4 remain constant between Hood and Chipps Island while ammonia and nitrite/nitrate concentrations are the
 5 mirror image of each other. The data suggest that there are no other large nitrogen sources or sinks and
 6 that the microbial transformation of ammonia to nitrite and nitrate is a key process in determining nitrogen
 7 patterns along the water flow path.



1 **Figure 3.**
 2 **Measured free ammonia concentrations at Delta sampling sites are below the estimated no effect**
 3 **threshold for Delta smelt.** The black line represents a conservative estimate of the chronic no effect
 4 concentration for Delta smelt. Symbols represent mean of free ammonia levels in the Delta between March
 5 2009 and February 2010.

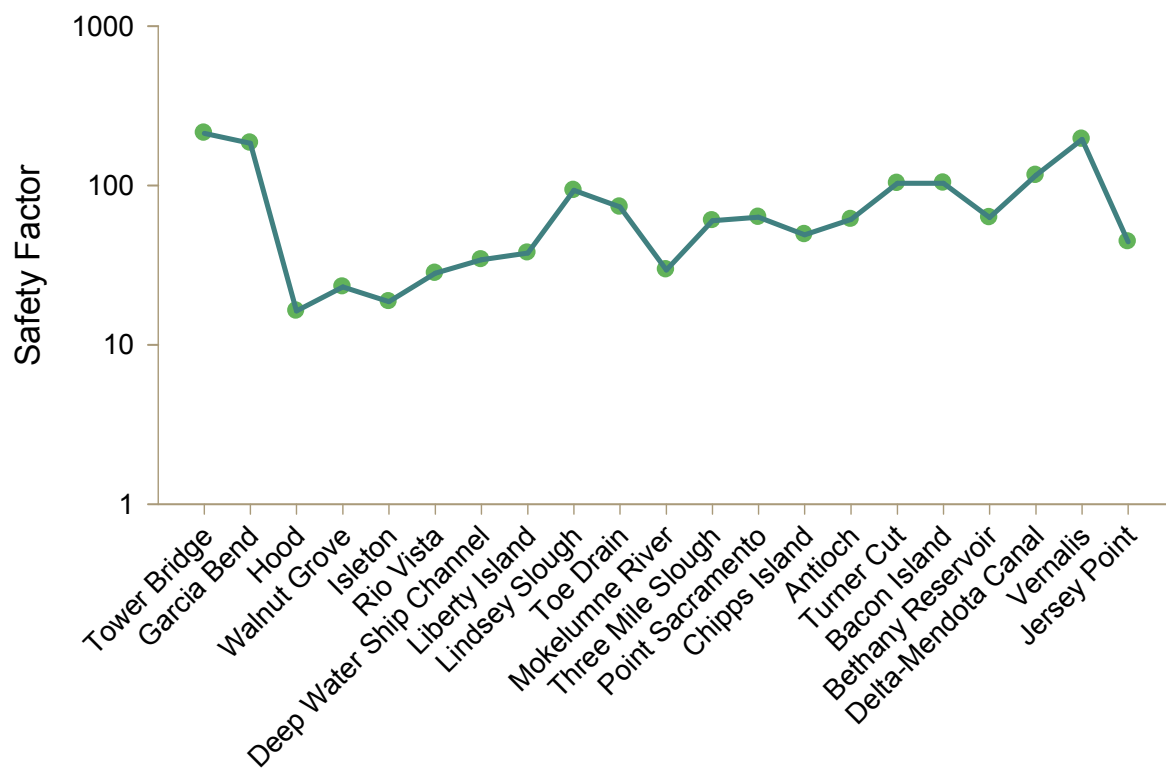


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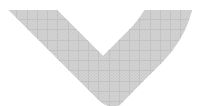


1 **Figure 4.**
2 **Safety factor values for all Delta sites were greater than one when compared against the USEPA**
3 **chronic ammonia criterion for protection of juvenile fish. A safety factor greater than one is considered**
4 **safe.**

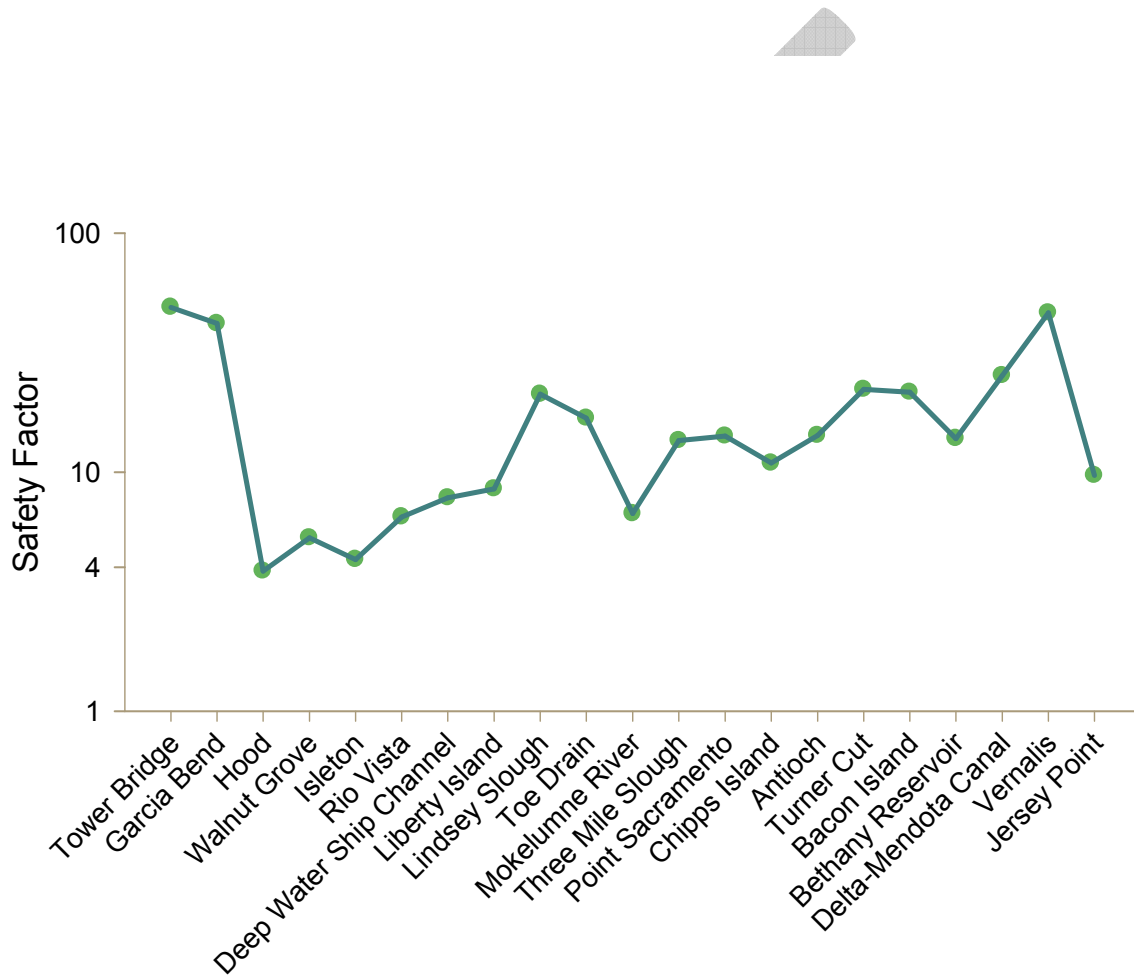
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1 **Figure 5.**
2 **Ammonia levels in Delta water never exceeded USEPA's new draft criterion for freshwater mussels.**
3 Mussels are more sensitive to ammonia than larval fish, and the safety factor of four at Hood indicates a
4 relatively small safety margin.

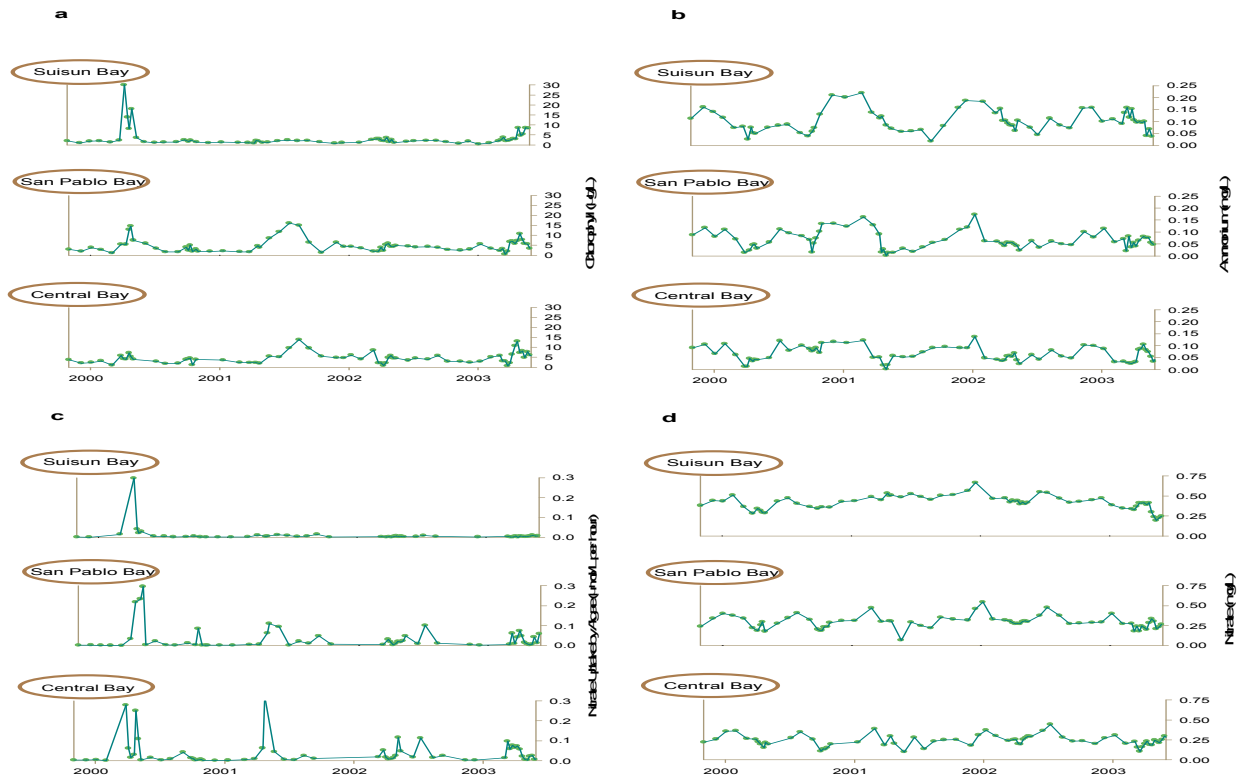


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1 **Figure 6.**

2 **Spring blooms in San Francisco Bay coincide with low ammonium concentrations.** Four spring
 3 peaks in chlorophyll (blooms) occurred in San Pablo and Central Bays (Fig. 6a) and coincided with reduced
 4 ammonium concentrations, often near zero (Fig. 6b). In Suisun Bay, only one bloom was observed, in 2000
 5 that occurred when ammonium concentrations were low in the spring. The chlorophyll peaks in all bays
 6 were coincident with peaks in nitrate uptake (Fig. 6c) that was otherwise very low (almost zero) the rest of
 7 the time. In all three bays sampled, concentrations of ammonium were above 0.056 mg/L most of the year
 8 (Fig. 6b), except during the spring bloom periods.

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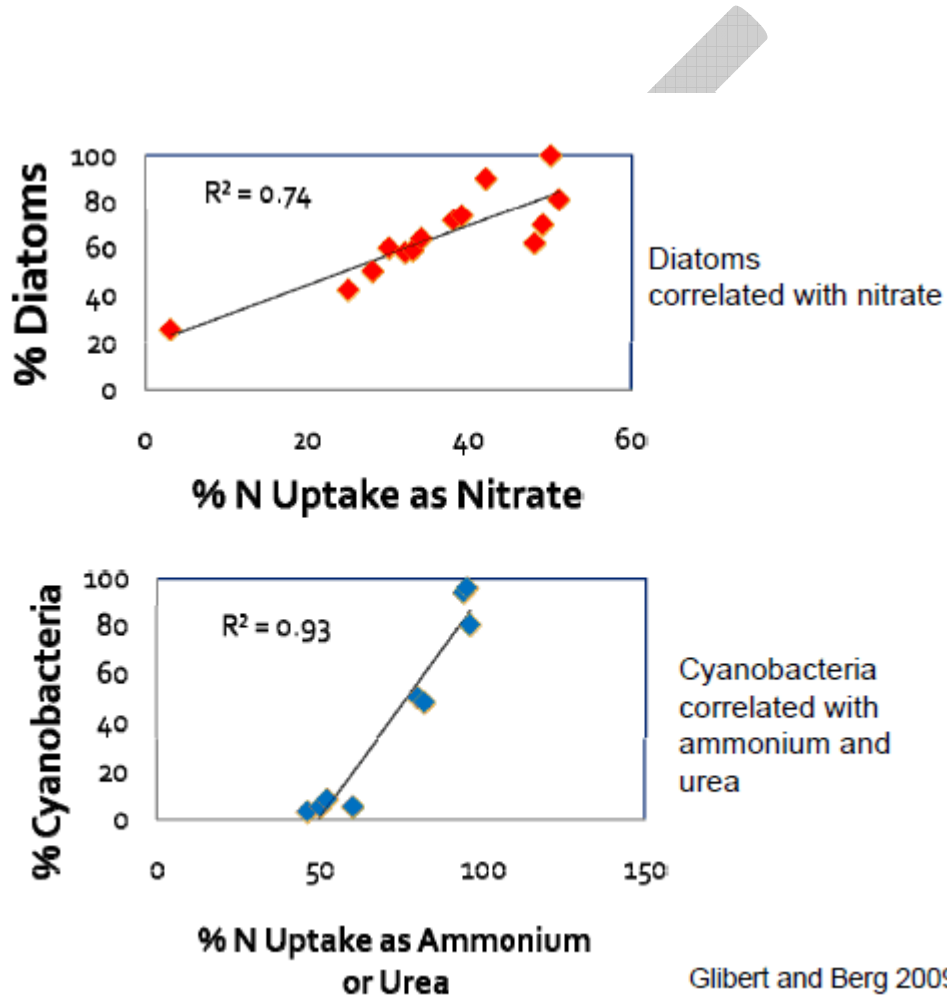


1 **Figure 7.**

2 **Relationship of the availability of different forms of nitrogen to phytoplankton composition.**

3 Researchers at the University of Maryland conducted algal growth studies in large 10,000 L experimental
 4 tanks filled with river water. The abundance of diatoms was correlated with total nitrate uptake by algae and
 5 the abundance of blue-green algae (cyanobacteria) was correlated with ammonium and urea uptake
 6 (Glibert and Berg 2009).

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1 **Not What We Had Hoped For: How Delta Studies** 2 **Have Reshaped our Understanding of Pyrethroid** 3 **Insecticides**

4

5 Donald Weston, U.C. Berkeley, dweston@berkeley.edu

6

7 Thomas Jabusch, Aquatic Science Center

8

9 ⇒ Monitoring studies have shown that actions taken by regulatory
10 agencies and others to control organophosphorus pesticides have
11 led to increased use and water quality problems associated with
12 pyrethroids

13 ⇒ Pyrethroids are acutely toxic to sensitive species at very low
14 concentrations (around a couple parts per trillion), and current
15 analytical detection limits may be 30 times too high to adequately
16 assess potential effects

17 ⇒ Nearly all urban runoff in northern California contains pyrethroids
18 well above concentrations causing toxicity to sensitive aquatic life

19 ⇒ Pyrethroids in urban runoff originate from pesticide use around
20 homes and commercial establishments

21 ⇒ Toxicity caused by pyrethroids is widespread in California but
22 went unnoticed for many years, because monitoring programs
23 were not looking for it or lacked needed analytical capabilities

1 ⇒ Monitoring programs must adapt to the constantly changing mix of
2 toxic threats or risk monitoring the problems of yesterday

3 **Not What We Had Hoped For**

4 Ten years ago, if you walked the pesticide aisle of the local hardware store, you
5 would have found most insecticide products contained one of the
6 organophosphorus compounds, diazinon or chlorpyrifos. That changed in the
7 early 2000s when the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) and
8 manufacturers agreed to withdraw diazinon and chlorpyrifos products intended
9 for urban or residential usage because of health risks to users and their families.
10 As the products were withdrawn, some of the replacement products were
11 labeled “Looking for Dursban? Try this!” Dursban was a tradename for now-
12 unavailable chlorpyrifos. “This” was any of several insecticides from a class
13 known as pyrethroids.

14

15 Starting with the natural plant-produced insecticide pyrethrin, chemists
16 modified the molecule to provide greater potency and longer environmental
17 persistence, and the resulting synthetic compounds became known as
18 pyrethroids. The first pyrethroids were developed in the 1940s, with many more
19 created over the decades that followed. Their use by homeowners had been
20 relatively limited until several of the organophosphates became unavailable in
21 the early 2000s. In agriculture, where organophosphates are still widely used,
22 pyrethroid use remains well behind the organophosphates. But in the urban
23 environment, the withdrawal of the dominant organophosphates led to a
24 dramatic increase in pyrethroid use. In 1999, non-agricultural use of pyrethroids
25 in California was 325,000 pounds. By 2006 it had nearly tripled to 879,000
26 pounds. More recently (2008), use has declined to 442,000 pounds, possibly due
27 to national economic conditions and the availability of alternative insecticides.

28

1 The organophosphates were widely known to cause toxicity in aquatic systems
2 after heavy rains washed residues into creeks and rivers (Kuivila and Foe 1995).
3 Many had hoped the shift to pyrethroids would eliminate these unintended
4 aquatic effects. But in recent years, environmental monitoring, much of it in the
5 Delta, has shown we have largely just traded one toxicant for another. For about
6 five years we have known that pyrethroids commonly occur in creek sediments
7 at concentrations toxic to sensitive invertebrates. In the past two years we have
8 learned that nearly all urban runoff in the Delta contains toxic concentrations of
9 pyrethroids and that municipal wastewater can also be a source (see **Figure 1**).
10 Finally, we are just beginning to appreciate that the pyrethroid toxicity initially
11 thought to be limited to sediments also extends into the water column, with
12 water samples from urban creeks and rivers regularly showing toxicity after
13 storms.

14 **Pyrethroid Toxicity in Urban Creek Sediments**

15 The first regional reports of pyrethroid-related urban sediment toxicity came
16 from an area of intensive housing development in Roseville, a suburb located
17 northeast of Sacramento (Weston et al. 2005). In laboratory tests, all sediments
18 collected within developed suburban areas showed toxicity to the crustacean
19 *Hyaella azteca*. Usually widespread and abundant, *Hyaella* were also
20 conspicuously absent from Roseville creeks in all but those stream reaches with
21 the least residential development. *Hyaella* is a standard test organism that is
22 sensitive to pyrethroids and therefore a good indicator of sediment toxicity from
23 this source (see **Sidebar: Identifying the Cause of Toxicity**). Pyrethroid
24 sediment concentrations capable of causing acute toxicity to *Hyaella* vary
25 depending on the specific compound and sediment characteristics, but are often
26 about 5 parts per billion (Amweg et al. 2005).

27

1 As monitoring efforts expanded, pyrethroid-related toxicity to *Hyalella* was
2 found in about 15% of the agricultural sediment samples collected throughout
3 the Central Valley (Weston et al. 2008). Even more striking was the toxicity in
4 urban sediments, with nearly all sediments tested from Sacramento area creeks
5 showing toxicity (Amweg et al. 2006). Further work by the State Water Board's
6 Surface Water Ambient Monitoring Program demonstrated that urban creek
7 sediment toxicity, much of it likely due to pyrethroids, extended statewide.

8

9 Despite the fact that pyrethroids are the most widely used insecticide in urban
10 environments nationwide, the vast majority of sediment monitoring data on
11 pyrethroids has come from California, and much of that work has been in the
12 Delta. But as the data from California have become known and sediment
13 monitoring for pyrethroid toxicity is initiated elsewhere, similar findings are
14 emerging. Urban creek sediment toxicity to *Hyalella*, related to pyrethroids, has
15 been documented in Texas and Illinois (Hintzen et al. 2009; Ding et al. 2010). In a
16 nationwide survey by USGS, the pyrethroid bifenthrin, more than any other
17 contaminant measured, best explained the sediment toxicity observed in creeks
18 and rivers throughout the U.S. (C. Ingersoll, personal communication).

19

20 **Pyrethroids Are Also Toxic in the Water Column**

21 Pyrethroids are strongly associated with the organic matter found in sediments.
22 Pyrethroid concentrations in sediment are typically about 5,000 times higher than
23 concentrations in the overlying water. Therefore, the initial monitoring studies
24 quite logically focused on the sediment, and the toxicity observed was presumed
25 to be a threat only to bottom-dwelling organisms living in or feeding on those
26 sediments. Yet this presumption failed to consider the extraordinarily high
27 toxicity of dissolved pyrethroids. While, as noted above, 5 parts per billion may

1 be a typical threshold of sediment toxicity to *Hyalella*, several pyrethroids are
2 toxic in water at concentrations of 2 *parts per trillion* (Weston and Jackson 2009).

3

4 While *Hyalella* has not traditionally been used for testing water column toxicity,
5 it is a common resident in local creeks, sensitive to pyrethroids, and for that
6 reason used by several labs in California when pyrethroids are of potential
7 concern. But monitoring of pyrethroids in the water column is still very limited.
8 Water column toxicity due to pyrethroids has been reported in Suisun Bay
9 sloughs (Werner et al. 2010). The creeks draining Vacaville have shown toxicity
10 after rain events, with pyrethroid concentrations in the water about 10 times the
11 acutely toxic threshold level (Weston and Lydy 2010).

12

13 The recent studies also report pyrethroid toxicity in larger streams and rivers. In
14 the American River, toxicity was documented in the reach between Rancho
15 Cordova and Sacramento, due to pyrethroids in stormwater runoff from the
16 surrounding urban lands. Flows in the American River are dam controlled, and
17 are maintained at their lowest during the winter months when storm runoff
18 contributes the most pyrethroids. Presumably, the low flows are exacerbating the
19 impact of pyrethroids, since there is less water in the river available to dilute
20 them to below-toxic levels. In still larger river systems, pyrethroid-related water
21 toxicity has been limited to isolated instances (San Joaquin River) or not found
22 (Sacramento River).

23 **Pyrethroid sources**

24 Prior to these recent studies, conventional wisdom probably would have
25 identified agriculture as the primary source for pyrethroids in particular, and
26 pesticides in general. Through focused monitoring, a different picture is
27 emerging. Sampling by U.C. Berkeley has shown that agriculture can indeed be a
28 source of pyrethroids that can lead to contaminated sediments and isolated

1 events of water toxicity, but toxic pyrethroid inputs from agricultural runoff are
2 scattered and infrequent. For example, 27% of samples from agricultural return
3 drains in the Delta contained pyrethroids. Yet only 10% of the samples had
4 sufficient concentrations to expect acute *Hyaella* toxicity (**Figure 1**).

5

6 More striking are the inputs through urban runoff. Nearly all urban runoff that
7 has been sampled in northern California contains pyrethroids well above
8 concentrations causing toxicity (Weston et al. 2009; Weston and Lydy 2010).

9 Similar findings have emerged from sampling in about a dozen communities
10 extending from the San Francisco Bay area to the Sacramento region (**Figure 1**).

11 Runoff from Delta cities typically contains pyrethroids about 10 times higher
12 than acutely toxic threshold concentrations to *Hyaella*, and concentrations in
13 Southern California are higher still (L. Oki, personal communication). The
14 pyrethroid bifenthrin stands out among the group for its elevated concentrations
15 and frequency of detection in urban runoff, though urban runoff can also contain
16 toxicologically significant concentrations of other pyrethroids such as
17 cypermethrin, cyfluthrin, lambda-cyhalothrin, and permethrin.

18

19 The pyrethroids in urban runoff originate from pesticide use around homes and
20 commercial establishments. However, it is difficult to distinguish the
21 contributions of homeowner-applied pyrethroids from those applied by
22 professional pest control firms, since both groups often use the same compounds.
23 At least for bifenthrin, the pyrethroid of greatest water quality concern,
24 professional applicators in California use four times the quantities applied by
25 homeowners (Weston et al. 2009).

26

27 Another surprising source, only recently identified, is municipal wastewater
28 (**Figure 1**, Weston and Lydy 2010). Treatment plants receive pyrethroids either
29 through seepage of stormwater runoff into the sanitary sewer systems or by

1 deliberate drain disposal of flea and tick products for pets, products for head lice
2 or bed bug treatment, or laundering of pyrethroid-treated fabrics. It had
3 generally been presumed that given their strong tendency to bind to organic
4 matter, pyrethroids would be retained in the sludges that treatment plants are
5 designed to remove from the wastestream. While it is likely that most of the
6 pyrethroids entering the wastestream are removed, enough can remain to cause
7 toxicity in the final effluent. Based on limited data currently available, treatment
8 plants appear to vary dramatically in the presence of pyrethroids or toxicity in
9 their effluent. The causes of this variation have not yet been investigated but are
10 likely related to differences in treatment processes at the different facilities.

11

12 **Planning for Better Environmental Protection**

13 The challenge of measuring extremely low concentrations has been one of the
14 biggest obstacles to recognizing the threats posed by pyrethroids, and even now
15 remain an obstacle to quantifying those threats. It may come as a surprise to the
16 general public, but the inability to measure a pesticide at levels of concern in the
17 environment has not typically prevented state and federal authorities from
18 approving its use. With pyrethroids, the challenges are particularly daunting.
19 Acute toxicity to *Hyalella* begins to appear at about 2 parts per trillion for several
20 pyrethroids. Effects from long-term (chronic) exposure are usually manifested at
21 about one-tenth the concentration of acute effects, so it is possible that
22 unobserved chronic toxicity occurs at about 0.2 parts per trillion. Moreover, at
23 colder winter temperatures pyrethroids are about three times more toxic,
24 bringing the threshold down to about 0.07 parts per trillion. Finally, as a general
25 rule of thumb, in order to be adequately protective it would be desirable to
26 quantify pyrethroids not at concentrations where they are already toxic, but at
27 about 10% of that threshold, or in other words 0.007 parts per trillion. Yet no
28 laboratory has been able to detect pyrethroids at less than about 0.2 parts per

1 trillion, and many labs have far higher detection limits. Existing analytical
2 capabilities are about 30-fold too insensitive relative to where they should
3 optimally be. It is quite likely that the compounds could be present at
4 concentrations capable of causing chronic, or even acute, toxicity, yet be
5 undetectable by even the best analytical lab.

6
7 Recent work with pyrethroids has exposed another shortcoming hindering our
8 ability to protect environmental quality: the lack of reliable quantification of
9 certain pesticide uses. The California Department of Pesticide Regulation (DPR)
10 maintains a Pesticide Use Reporting database to which all professional
11 applicators have to report their pesticide use. The database is a unique and
12 extremely valuable tool, far more comprehensive than that maintained by any
13 other state. Yet it does not incorporate retail sales. Almost all insecticide products
14 available at retail outlets are pyrethroids, so their retail sales and use certainly
15 represent a significant contribution to statewide totals, but the amount sold and
16 used remains unquantified. In addition, even for professional applications, the
17 database does not distinguish between subsurface treatments, such as for
18 termites, and surface applications for ants, spiders and similar pests. Only the
19 surface applications of pyrethroids are likely to present a risk for off-site
20 transport, but the amounts used in such applications are unknown.

21
22 Following the findings of environmental toxicity for pyrethroids described
23 earlier, the DPR initiated a process known as "re-evaluation" for the hundreds of
24 products sold in California containing pyrethroids. This process, which began in
25 August 2006 and is on-going, provides a way for DPR to obtain from the
26 pesticide registrants the environmental fate and toxicity data needed to establish
27 the extent of the hazard and to mitigate it. Reevaluation is intended resolve many
28 of the environmental issues noted above. But the pace of the process (four years
29 and counting) presents a significant challenge for regulatory authorities, since

1 pesticide use is a moving target. While pyrethroids have replaced
2 organophosphates in urban uses, fipronil, a newer pesticide for which there are
3 few environmental monitoring data, is now replacing pyrethroids in some
4 applications.

5 **A Role for the Delta Regional Monitoring Program**

6 The widespread toxicity in environmental samples caused by pyrethroids went
7 unnoticed in California for many years, and is probably still going unnoticed
8 elsewhere, because monitoring programs were not looking for it. In the rare
9 instances when they did, the methods had detection limits that we now know to
10 be grossly inadequate. Toxicity testing was (and is) usually done with
11 *Ceriodaphnia dubia*, a species extremely sensitive to diazinon and chlorpyrifos, but
12 considerably less sensitive to pyrethroids than is *Hyalella*.

13

14 The pyrethroids story illustrates how toxicants in Delta waters change over time
15 as pesticides fall in and out of favor. Monitoring programs must adapt to the
16 constantly changing threats or risk monitoring for the pesticides, and problems,
17 of yesterday. The Delta Regional Monitoring Program can play an important role
18 by serving as a forum where limitations in analytical methods and gaps in
19 monitoring approaches can be assessed, and by encouraging the adoption of
20 comprehensive monitoring programs for emerging pesticides. In addition, the
21 RMP can provide information that will help shape the control programs that are
22 under development by the Regional Board for pesticides and provide a measure
23 of control program success.

24

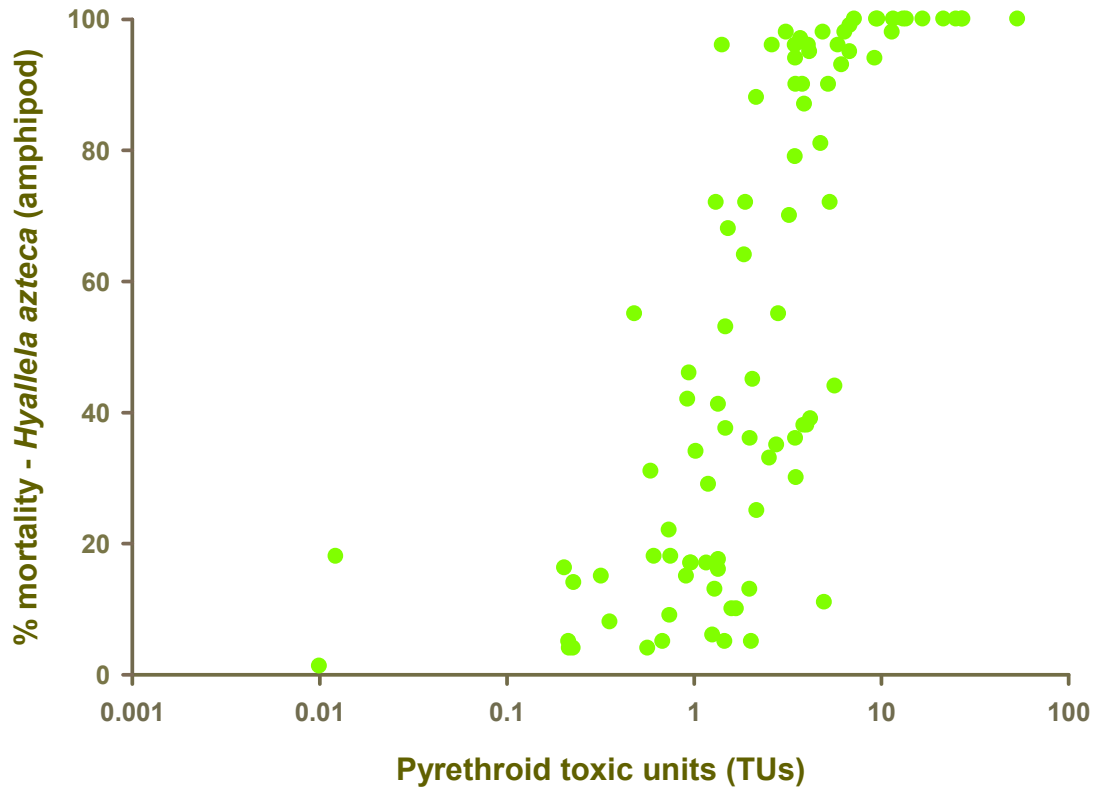
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1 SIDEBARS

2 Identifying the Cause of Toxicity

3



4

5

6

7 Urban runoff may contain a whole range of pollutants that are potentially
8 harmful to aquatic organisms. So, if there is toxicity, how can we tell it is from
9 pyrethroids? The answer can be achieved by comparing the actual toxicity of a
10 water or sediment sample to toxicity estimates based on measured pyrethroid
11 levels. For this purpose, pyrethroid concentrations are translated into toxic units
12 (TUs), where one TU corresponds to 50% mortality in a 10-day toxicity test with
13 *Hyallela azteca*. So if pyrethroids were the sole cause of toxicity, one would expect
14 about 50% mortality when testing environmental samples containing a

1 pyrethroid concentration of 1 TU, with little or no mortality below that
2 concentration, and complete mortality above it. The graph compares pyrethroid
3 TUs in urban creek sediments from the Bay-Delta region with *Hyalella* toxicity
4 test results. Overall, pyrethroid TUs is a good predictor of *Hyalella* toxicity. To
5 confirm pyrethroids as the cause of toxicity, a more elaborate laboratory
6 procedure called Toxicity Identification Evaluation (TIE) was done on 7 runoff
7 samples. A TIE separates the pyrethroids from other toxicants through various
8 chemical and physical manipulations. Toxicity can then be assigned by
9 comparing the toxicity of the manipulated sample with the baseline toxicity of
10 the unaltered sample. The TIE results for all 7 samples pointed to pyrethroids as
11 the cause of toxicity.

12

1 **Measuring Pyrethroids: The Latest Developments**

2 As the pesticides in use change, so must the analytical methods that are used to
3 measure them. Pyrethroid insecticides are more difficult to measure than some
4 other current-use pesticides because of their strong tendency to bind to particles
5 and their toxicity at extremely low concentrations (requiring equally low
6 detection limits). Routine environmental analyses for pyrethroids have typically
7 involved whole-water or bed sediment samples quantified via gas
8 chromatography-electron capture detection (GC-ECD) or gas-chromatography-
9 mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Newer techniques such as tandem mass
10 spectrometry (MS-MS) and negative chemical ionization mass spectrometry have
11 achieved detection levels near 0.1 parts per trillion in water and 0.1 parts per
12 billion in sediment. As newer instrumentation is developed, the detection limits
13 may be lowered further.

14

15 Water measurements are being refined with techniques that split a sample into
16 its dissolved and particulate (filterable) fractions. The dissolved and particulate
17 fractions can then be analyzed separately to better understand pyrethroid
18 movement in the environment. Techniques such as solid-phase microextraction
19 (SPME) are being used to measure the bioavailability of pyrethroids in sediment
20 porewater, providing a better indication of organism exposure.

21

22 Analyses of pyrethroid effects on organisms are shifting from extrapolations
23 based on sediment and water concentrations to analysis of concentrations in
24 tissues of the exposed organisms. Additionally, work has begun on identifying
25 changes in gene expression that could be indicative of pyrethroid exposure; these
26 techniques can help determine physiological effects of pyrethroids on organisms.

27

28 Contact: Michelle Hladik, USGS California Water Science Center, mhladik@usgs.gov.

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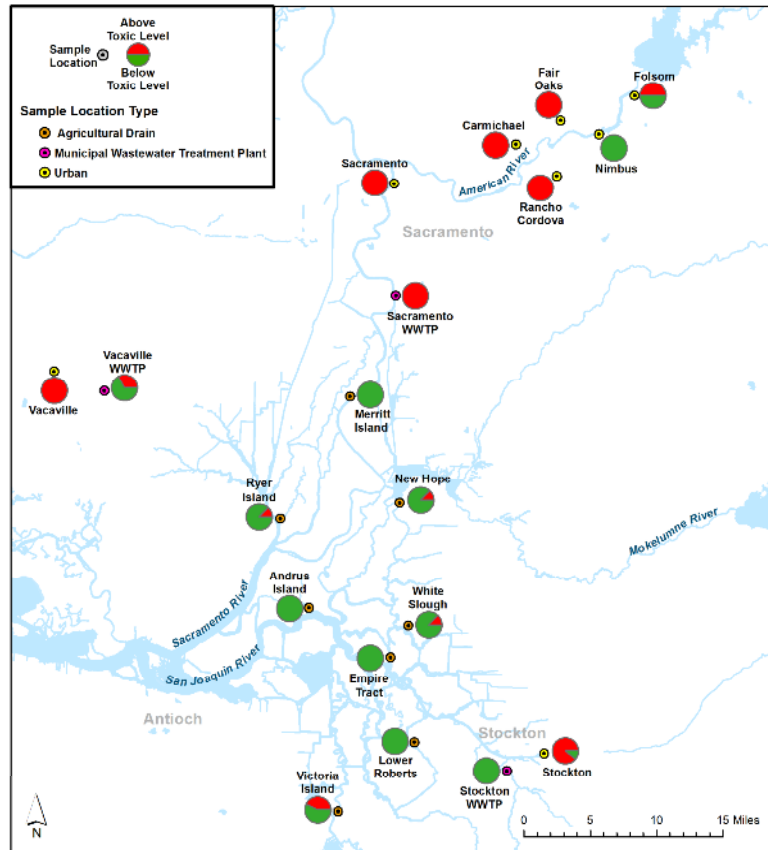
2 More information available at: http://ca.water.usgs.gov/user_projects/toxics/

3

ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1.

The crustacean, *Hyaella azteca*, has recently begun to be used for testing of water samples when pyrethroids are of concern. Most urban runoff causes death or paralysis when tested with *Hyaella*. Agricultural runoff can cause toxicity, but these instances are scattered and infrequent. Wastewater treatment plants vary in the frequency of toxicity in their effluent. Nearly all the *Hyaella* toxicity shown in the figure is believed to be due to pyrethroids.



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1 **Contaminants of Emerging Concern (CECs):**

2 **Adapting to a Moving Target**

3 **Authors:**

4 Susan Klosterhaus, San Francisco Estuary Institute, susan@sfei.org

5

6 Keith Maruya, Southern California Coastal Water Project

7 **Highlights**

- 8 • There are potentially thousands of CECs, the number is increasing, and
9 little information is available to assess risks to humans and wildlife
- 10 • Pest control products (for example flea and ticks shampoos and ant and
11 bug products), drugs (including birth control, menopause management,
12 and psychiatric treatments) and everyday products such as coffee, cars,
13 and furniture are contributing to the problem
- 14 • Few data are available for CECs in the Delta, though studies in San
15 Francisco Bay may provide some insights
- 16 • Endocrine disrupting chemicals are a concern but more information is
17 needed
- 18 • There are several 'new' CECs for which environmental occurrence, fate,
19 and toxicity information is lacking or not available
- 20 • Delta water quality managers can implement strategies used by other
21 state and regional agencies to minimize the impacts of CECs

22 **The CEC Challenge**

23 Over the past 30 years more than 100,000 chemicals have been registered
24 or approved for commercial use in the U.S. These substances include more than

1 84,000 industrial chemicals, 9,000 food additives, 3,000 cosmetics ingredients,
2 1,000 different pesticide active ingredients, and 3,000 pharmaceutical drugs
3 (**Figure 1**). For industrial chemicals alone, production and import in the U.S.
4 totaled 27 trillion pounds in 2005, an 80% increase from 2002 (Wilson and
5 Schwarzman 2009). Global chemical production is projected to continue growing
6 by about 3% per year, and double every 24 years. The primary challenge for
7 regulators and scientists is managing this ever-growing amount of chemicals to
8 insure they do not adversely impact human and environmental health.

9 Only a very small fraction of the large number of chemicals in use is
10 routinely monitored in the environment. These generally include persistent and
11 bioaccumulative compounds such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs),
12 chlorinated pesticides, heavy metals such as mercury, and other chemicals on the
13 USEPA list of regulated priority pollutants. The risks these conventional
14 contaminants pose to ecosystem and human health are relatively well-
15 established and compliance monitoring is conducted as part of risk reduction
16 actions. However, for most chemicals currently in use, major information gaps
17 limit scientists' ability to assess their potential risks and monitoring of these
18 chemicals does not routinely occur. As a result, many chemicals that have not
19 been adequately tested for their potential impacts to humans and wildlife are
20 continuously released to the environment.

21 Despite the information gaps, researchers and some government agencies
22 have begun to collect occurrence, fate, and toxicity data on a variety of
23 unregulated chemicals over the last decade. Analytical methods have progressed
24 to the point that it is possible to measure trace quantities (below parts per
25 trillion) of many contaminants in water, which has led to frequent detection of a
26 variety of previously unmonitored chemicals in the environment. These
27 chemicals have been classified as CECs. CECs can be broadly defined as any
28 synthetic or naturally occurring chemical that is not commonly monitored in the
29 environment but has the potential to enter the environment and cause adverse

1 ecological or human health impacts. Pharmaceuticals and personal care products
2 (PPCPs), current use pesticides, and industrial chemicals such as flame
3 retardants and perfluorinated compounds (PFCs) constitute the majority of
4 chemicals that are commonly considered CECs due to their high volume use,
5 potential for toxicity in non-target species, and the increasing number of studies
6 that report their occurrence in the environment.

7 Determining which of the thousands of chemicals in commerce are CECs
8 and whether or not they may be a problem is a formidable challenge. For most
9 chemicals in use, a number of limitations prevent researchers from assessing
10 their potential risks.

- 11 • The identities of chemicals used in commercial formulations, their
12 applications, and product-specific uses are characterized as confidential
13 business information or are not readily available.
- 14
- 15 • Methods to reliably measure most chemicals in use do not exist.
16 Development of new analytical methods for new chemicals is resource-
17 intensive. Researchers tend to focus their method development efforts on
18 chemicals deemed to be the highest priority risk.
- 19
- 20 • Little to no information exists on chronic toxicity for realistic exposures,
21 toxicity in non-target species (particularly for pharmaceuticals), or
22 sensitive toxicological endpoints, such as endocrine disruption.
23 Knowledge of toxic modes of action for most CECs is minimal and details
24 of toxicity studies conducted by chemical manufacturers are typically not
25 available for public review.
- 26

27 Such large information gaps make it difficult for researchers and regulators to
28 pre-emptively target CECs for monitoring and control. For the vast majority of
29 chemicals in use today, occurrence, persistence, and toxicity data are still needed

1 to establish exposure and risk thresholds to protect the beneficial uses of aquatic
2 ecosystems.

3 **Lessons from San Francisco Bay**

4 Currently little information on CECs is available for the Delta, though
5 studies are on-going (for examples, see Sidebars). Downstream of the Delta,
6 however, the Regional Monitoring Program for Water Quality in the San
7 Francisco Estuary (Bay RMP) has generated one of the most comprehensive
8 datasets for CECs in aquatic ecosystems. Since 2001 the Bay RMP has conducted
9 pilot studies investigating CECs in water, sediment, and wildlife. CECs
10 investigated to date include PFCs, alkylphenol ethoxylates, more than 100
11 PPCPs, and a variety of flame retardants including polybrominated diphenyl
12 ethers (PBDEs) and their replacements. Many of these CECs have been detected
13 in the Bay. Sites in the Delta have not been included in these small pilot studies
14 because they are not within the scope of the Bay RMP. However, sediment,
15 water, and resident clams at the western boundaries of the Sacramento and San
16 Joaquin Rivers, and double-crested cormorant eggs from a nesting site on
17 Wheeler Island (Suisun Bay) are routinely monitored for a variety of chemical
18 contaminants. Bay RMP contaminant loadings studies have also been conducted
19 at Mallard Island, where water flows out of the Delta and into the Bay. Data from
20 these sampling sites are also direct or indirect indicators of potential CEC
21 contamination in the Delta. Among the CECs studied to date by the Bay RMP,
22 only PBDEs and pyrethroid pesticides have so far been added to the long-term,
23 routine monitoring.

24 **PBDEs:** Now considered an established, rather than an emerging, concern,
25 PBDEs are toxic chemicals that are routinely monitored and pervasive
26 throughout the world. PBDEs have been consistently detected in sediments and
27 clams collected at the Bay RMP river sites and in bird eggs collected from
28 Wheeler Island since the analyses began at these sites in 2002. Concentrations in

1 clams at the river sites may be decreasing (**Figure 2**). Concentrations measured in
2 bird eggs in 2006 were lower than those measured in 2002. Concentrations in
3 water at Mallard Island have indicated significant PBDE loading from the Delta
4 to San Francisco Bay. Because PBDEs have been phased out of use, their
5 replacements are now considered CECs and are being monitored in the Bay to
6 better understand their risks (see discussion of current-use flame retardants
7 below).

8 **Pyrethroids (also see Feature article, p. X):** Also no longer considered an
9 emerging concern, pyrethroid pesticides were added to routine Bay RMP
10 sediment monitoring in 2008. Most compounds analyzed have not been detected
11 at the river sites, with only sporadic detection of cypermethrin (0.6 ng/g) and
12 allethrin (0.3 ng/g). This is in contrast to results for the other portions of San
13 Francisco Bay, where detection of other compounds was more frequent in 2009.
14 Continued monitoring will help us understand the contribution of pyrethroids to
15 observed toxicity in the Bay.

16 **PFCs:** PFCs, chemicals used in non-stick cookware, stain-resistant fabrics, and
17 food packaging, among other products, have been detected in bird eggs collected
18 from Wheeler Island and from other locations throughout the Bay over the past
19 few years. Bay RMP studies are on-going to better understand sources of PFCs,
20 including runoff from the Delta. Although the use of PFCs has been restricted
21 over the past decade because of concerns with their potential toxicity to humans
22 and wildlife, they are frequently detected in the environment worldwide.

23 Concentrations of chemical contaminants at the Bay RMP river sites are typically
24 lower than those in other Bay segments. This is likely due to dilution from the
25 large river and tidal flows. In the Delta, higher concentrations of CECs and other
26 chemical contaminants would be expected at sites closer to urbanized areas and

1 near point sources, such as wastewater and stormwater outfalls, further
2 upstream.

3 **Endocrine Disrupting Chemicals: A Focal Point of Concern?**

4 An area of research that has received considerable attention over the last
5 ten years is the environmental impact of endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs).
6 It has been well-established, particularly in fish, that a variety of chemicals can
7 modulate or mimic steroid hormones, and in some cases interfere with
8 reproduction and development. A number of studies have reported feminization
9 of male fish, intersexuality in fish, and induction of the egg precursor protein
10 vitellogenin in male fish at wastewater- impacted sites worldwide. Studies have
11 shown that vitellogenin induction is likely due to exposure to estrogenic
12 chemicals in the effluents, though it is not clear to what extent these substances
13 contribute to intersexuality or the feminization of wild fish (Sumpter et al 2006).

14 The estrogenic substances suspected to be playing a role in causing these
15 endocrine effects are natural and synthetic steroids, including 17 α -
16 ethinylestradiol (EE2), a synthetic estrogen used in birth control pills and
17 management of menopausal symptoms, and alkylphenols such as nonylphenol
18 and its ethoxylates, surfactants used in a variety of industrial applications and
19 consumer products (Desbrow et al 1998; Sumpter et al 2006). In a landmark study
20 investigating population level impacts of estrogens, Kidd et al. (2007) reported a
21 variety of reproductive effects and near extinction of a fish population exposed to
22 low concentrations of EE2 (5-6 ng/L) for seven years in a whole lake experiment.
23 Reported concentrations of EE2 and other estrogenic substances in effluents and
24 some receiving waters are within range of the concentrations shown to cause
25 effects in fish in the Kidd et al. study and others (Sumpter et al. 2006), suggesting
26 the potential for effects at these locations. While researchers are beginning to
27 understand the potential effects of EDCs and which chemicals may contribute to

1 these effects, further study of potential EDCs is needed to better understand the
2 implications of their occurrence in aquatic environments.

3 In San Francisco Bay, the Bay RMP is working to address the issue of
4 EDCs through monitoring and effects studies. Alkylphenols were analyzed in
5 Bay water, sediment, and mussels in 2002 and 2010, and a suite of PPCPs,
6 including some potential EDCs, were monitored in water in 2006 and in water,
7 sediment, and mussels in 2010. Many compounds were detected in these studies,
8 though concentrations were at least ten times lower than available toxicity
9 thresholds. Unfortunately the potential for effects due to long-term exposure to
10 these concentrations, a concern not addressed with existing thresholds, is
11 currently unknown. Steroid hormones have not been monitored in the Bay;
12 however, data are expected in 2011 for surface waters at select Bay sites. In 2007,
13 a Bay RMP study observed site-specific alterations in the thyroid endocrine
14 system of Bay fish that were correlated with concentrations of PCBs, PAHs, and
15 chlorinated pesticides in tissues (Brar et al 2010). The Bay RMP is currently
16 identifying next steps regarding further monitoring and EDC effects studies on
17 Bay wildlife.

18 In southern California, the Southern California Coastal Water Research
19 Project (SCCWRP) is collaborating with various partners to characterize the
20 occurrence of CECs and the potential for CEC effects in California coastal waters.
21 In a recently completed study that focused on marine wastewater outfalls,
22 dozens of CECs were detected in effluent, marine waters, marine sediments, and
23 tissue of local flatfish. Although molecular markers provided evidence of CEC
24 exposure in these wild fish, more extreme effects (e.g. intersex, population
25 decline) were not evident. On-going studies are focusing on CEC concentrations
26 and biomarker response for invertebrates and fish in coastal embayments and
27 urban estuaries that receive stormwater runoff. Using this information,
28 SCCWRP and other partners are identifying CECs that should be monitored in

1 recycled and ambient receiving waters throughout the state. As part of these
2 initiatives, SCCWRP is also championing the development and application of
3 molecular tools and screening methodologies to help identify the most toxic
4 CECs, and to make monitoring both more efficient and more relevant to
5 protecting beneficial uses of aquatic ecosystems.

6 **New CECs on the Horizon**

7 Over the past decade, there has been a substantial increase in the number
8 of studies reporting the occurrence of previously unmonitored chemical
9 contaminants in surface waters and wildlife. These, along with observations of
10 endocrine disruption impacts at low concentrations in aquatic environments,
11 have raised concerns regarding the potential for impacts of other CECs that have
12 been detected at similar concentrations. Water bodies that continuously receive
13 wastewater effluent and runoff from highly urbanized areas are of particular
14 concern. In addition to PPCPs, alkylphenols, and PFCs, several other types of
15 high volume use chemicals have gained the attention of researchers and
16 regulators.

17
18 **Current-use flame retardants:** Since a partial PBDE phase-out began in 2003, a
19 number of chemicals have taken their place. Many of these have been identified,
20 though their environmental fate and potential toxicity is still largely unknown.
21 Current-use flame retardant chemicals include other brominated chemical
22 mixtures, some of which contain a brominated phthalate, and chlorinated
23 organophosphate compounds.

24
25 **Antimicrobials:** Triclosan and triclocarban are common components of a wide
26 variety of consumer products, including hand soaps, toothpaste, and other
27 personal care products. They are persistent in the environment and may
28 accumulate in wildlife. Concerns with these compounds include their potential

1 for endocrine disruption in wildlife, the development of widespread antibiotic
2 resistance due to their ubiquitous use, and their potential toxicity to algal and
3 microbial communities.

4

5 **Nanomaterials:** The unique properties of nanomaterials make them valuable for
6 commercial applications but their rapidly increasing use in industrial
7 applications and consumer products raises concerns regarding their potential
8 environmental and human impacts, which are currently unknown. Types of
9 nanomaterials currently being studied to investigate their environmental fate
10 and potential toxicity include nanosilver, titanium dioxide, and carbon
11 nanotubes. Scientists are just beginning to understand the behavior of these
12 materials in aquatic environments.

13

14 **Cyclosiloxanes:** These persistent contaminants are used in a wide variety of
15 personal care products, the manufacture of silicones, and as carriers, lubricants,
16 and solvents in a variety of commercial applications.

17 Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D5), for example, has been recommended as a
18 safer alternative to the use of perchloroethylene in dry cleaning, despite concerns
19 with its potential toxicity. Because of their ubiquitous use and anticipated
20 persistence, cyclosiloxanes like D5 are suspected to be widespread contaminants
21 in aquatic environments; however, information thus far has been limited by the
22 difficulties of measuring these chemicals in environmental matrices.

23

24 **Quaternary ammonium compounds (QACs):** These cationic surfactants are
25 widely used in a variety of industrial applications and consumer products such
26 as fabric softeners and detergents. Though very few studies have been
27 conducted, QAC concentrations in estuarine sediments have been observed to be
28 comparable to or higher than routinely monitored contaminants such as PAHs
29 and PCBs. Concerns with exposure to these compounds include the development

1 of widespread antibiotic resistance, their potential toxicity to microbial
2 communities, and the lack of environmental fate and toxicity information.

3 **Responding to the Challenge**

4 The considerable challenge of managing CECs is a reflection of limitations
5 in the regulation of chemicals at the state, national, and international level.
6 Ideally, all existing and future high volume use synthetic chemicals, including
7 pharmaceuticals and pesticides, as well as their degradation products, would be
8 produced and used following “Green Chemistry” and “Green Pharmacy”
9 principles. This includes conducting appropriate risk assessments so that
10 potentially harmful products could be screened before large-scale manufacture
11 and subsequent release into the environment. At the federal level, modernization
12 of the Toxic Substances Control Act is underway to improve how chemicals are
13 managed before they are approved for use. Until this is completed, development
14 of CEC prioritization approaches and sophisticated toxicity screening methods
15 are needed to identify impacts of chemicals in current use.

16 The deficiency of information for current-use chemicals challenges regulators
17 and scientists to focus on the highest risk chemicals and avoid past mistakes that
18 resulted in extensive global contamination of toxic chemicals (e.g. PCBs, DDT,
19 and PBDEs). In California, a number of regional, state, and federal efforts have
20 been conducted or are underway to develop strategies for CEC identification and
21 prioritization, as well as processes for determining thresholds of concern.

- 22 • The Bay RMP has been monitoring CECs since 2001 and continues to
23 refine approaches for supporting the management of CECs in San
24 Francisco Bay.
- 25 • In Southern California, SCCWRP is monitoring CECs in coastal areas,
26 investigating potential wastewater effluent impacts on fish, and
27 developing molecular tools for identification of CECs.

- 1 • Biomonitoring California is the first state level biomonitoring program
2 and includes identification and prioritization of CECs. Biomonitoring
3 promises particularly useful results for creating policy and taking other
4 actions that protect the public's health. For example, as more data have
5 become available regarding the general population's exposure to a variety
6 of commercial chemicals, public concerns have been aroused over the
7 health risks posed by exposures to unregulated chemicals, such as flame
8 retardants used in furniture or common pesticides used in and around the
9 home. Biomonitoring California aims to determine baseline levels of
10 environmental contaminants in a representative sample of Californians,
11 establish time trends in concentrations, and assess the effectiveness of
12 current regulatory programs.
- 13 • In 2009, SCCWRP and SFEL, along with other partners, convened a
14 workshop to enhance communication and formulate a path forward for
15 integrating science into an effective CEC management strategy for
16 California. Among other recommendations, the participants outlined
17 possible approaches for chemical prioritization and monitoring, and
18 management of CECs (**Figure 3**).
- 19 • The State Water Resources Control Board has recently convened expert
20 advisory panels to recommend strategies for the management of CECs in
21 recycled water and waters discharged to coastal and marine ecosystems.
- 22 • California's Green Chemistry Initiative aims to reduce or eliminate the use
23 of hazardous chemicals in consumer products and contamination of the
24 environment. This will involve development of regulations that create a
25 process for identifying and prioritizing CECs and creation of methods for
26 assessing alternatives to hazardous chemicals currently in use.

- 1 • In 2010 and 2011, various state and federal programs are collaborating to
2 conduct the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)
3 Mussel Watch CECs Early Warning Network: California Pilot Project.
4 Project partners developed a list of priority CECs for analysis in mussels
5 collected throughout the state of California (see Sidebar).

6 Although each of these programs has a unique set of goals, they all aspire to
7 reduce the impact of chemical contaminants on human and environmental
8 health. To the extent possible, collaboration among these programs will improve
9 their overall effectiveness in light of the many uncertainties and limited
10 resources. At a minimum, communication of strategies and findings among
11 researchers within these programs would avoid redundancy and therefore
12 benefit efforts to manage CECs.

13
14 Monitoring of CECs is essential for minimizing the impact of chemical
15 contaminants and protecting beneficial uses in the Delta. The Delta RMP can
16 implement a productive strategy by considering 'lessons learned' by the Bay
17 RMP and other CEC monitoring programs, and even more so, by partnering with
18 these programs. Collaboration on chemical prioritization approaches and
19 projects of mutual interest would reduce costs, maximize program effectiveness,
20 and increase the collective understanding of CEC occurrence and fate in the Bay-
21 Delta system.

1 **SIDEBARS**

2 **Scanning for CECs**

3 The Bay RMP has recently partnered with the National Institute of
4 Standards and Technology (NIST) to take a novel approach to identifying CECs.
5 In contrast to the traditional analytical approach, which targets a specific
6 chemical or chemical class in an environmental sample, this 'broadscan'
7 approach takes advantage of recent advancements in analytical instrumentation
8 by screening sample extracts for a wide variety of chemicals. Following
9 traditional extraction procedures, the sample extract is carried through fewer
10 'clean-up' steps, and then analyzed using two dimensional gas chromatography
11 and time-of-flight mass spectrometry. What makes this approach unique is its
12 ability to separate out individual chemicals in a complex chemical mixture that
13 would otherwise be too difficult to analyze using the traditional 'targeted'
14 approach.

15 The methods developed by NIST will be applied to mussels and harbor
16 seals from San Francisco Bay and are expected to reveal the presence of several
17 compounds that have not been previously targeted for analysis. Once identified,
18 the Bay RMP will be able to evaluate the detected chemicals for their potential to
19 adversely impact Bay wildlife. The Bay RMP is collaborating with the Marine
20 Mammal Center, SCCWRP, and San Diego State University for the project, which
21 is expected to be completed at the end of 2011.

22 Contact: Susan Klosterhaus (susan@sfei.org)

1 **National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration** 2 **(NOAA) Mussel Watch CECs Early Warning** 3 **Network: California Pilot Project**

4 The NOAA National Mussel Watch Program (NMWP) recently teamed up
5 with the Bay RMP, SCCWRP, the State Water Board, U.S. Geological Survey
6 (USGS), and other federal agencies to conduct the NOAA Mussel Watch CECs
7 Early Warning Network: California Pilot Project. Motivated by a desire to
8 increase its focus on CECs, but lacking information on which CECs to monitor,
9 the NMWP suspended its traditional national effort for 2010 and dedicated the
10 entire budget to the California Pilot Project instead. The outcome of the project
11 will be a priority list of CECs to consider in future NMWP efforts nationwide,
12 based on which CECs are detected in mussels throughout California.

13 Mussels from 75 sites throughout the state will be analyzed for a wide
14 variety of CECs, including over 100 pharmaceuticals and personal care products,
15 polybrominated diphenyl ethers and their replacements, perfluorinated
16 compounds, alkylphenols, and current-use pesticides. Sites were selected to
17 provide information on the relative influence of different land uses, sources, and
18 loading pathways on chemical contamination in coastal waters. The land uses
19 examined include municipal wastewater, agricultural, urban, non-urban,
20 stormwater discharges, and marine protected areas. At sites where resident
21 mussels were not found, caged mussels and passive samplers were deployed.
22 This project will be completed in 2011.

23 Contact: Susan Klosterhaus (susan@sfei.org) or Keith Maruya (keithm@sccwrp.org)

24

CEC Projects in the Delta

For more than 6 years, the **U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS)** Environmental Contaminants Division has periodically deployed water sampling devices to assess potential contaminant effects on special status species in the Bay-Delta. The first samplers were deployed quarterly at two sites in Suisun Marsh in 2003. This work was performed in collaboration with researchers from U.C. Davis monitoring Sacramento splittail and another team from the University of Florida who analyzed blood collected from splittail for the presence of vitellogenin (a precursor protein of egg yolk normally found only in females). This study found high levels of vitellogenin in 2 of 12 male splittail indicating the presence of endocrine disrupting chemicals. The sampling devices detected low levels of a number of pesticides in the water including organochlorines, organophosphates, and triazine herbicides. These results led to a much more comprehensive exposure and effects study in 2005. The deployment frequency of the samplers was increased from quarterly to monthly and more sites were added to expand spatial coverage. In laboratory tests, extracts collected from the sampling devices were injected into juvenile striped bass. After the injections, the striped bass were analyzed for vitellogenin and several physiological responses signaling the presence of endocrine disrupting chemicals. Analytical results from the expanded study were consistent with the initial findings: the extracts from the passive sampling devices contained numerous pesticides that were present at low levels in water. The laboratory tests demonstrated that low level mixtures of contaminants found in Delta water can set off responses that signal endocrine disruption in fish. The results indicate a need for a more comprehensive assessment of endocrine disrupting chemicals in the Delta.

Contact: Cathy Johnson, USFWS Environmental Contaminants Division,
Cathy_S_Johnson@fws.gov.

1

2

3 A research team from **U.C. Riverside** and **U.C. Berkeley** found further evidence
4 for a relationship between mixes of toxic chemicals present at low levels and
5 signs of endocrine disruption in fish. In their study, the U.C. team tested surface
6 water samples collected throughout the Central Valley for signs of fish
7 feminization and analyzed for more than 100 chemicals, including steroid
8 hormones, pharmaceuticals, current use pesticides, and other emerging
9 contaminants. Water samples from a site in the Delta continually caused
10 feminization of fish in laboratory tests, but steroid hormones and other typical
11 endocrine disruptors were either absent or present at levels below their effect
12 thresholds. In further analyses, the researchers noticed site-specific patterns of
13 endocrine disruption that could not be related to any single compound (Lavado
14 et al. 2009). Subsequent studies at other Delta locations with expanded chemical
15 analyses finally indicated a potential relationship between feminizing activity in
16 fish and a mixture of alkylphenols and alkylphenol ethoxylates (widely used
17 surfactants) and the pyrethroid insecticide bifenthrin. Each individual group of
18 compounds at environmental concentrations failed to elicit fish feminization in
19 the laboratory. But when bifenthrin was combined with the alkylphenol and
20 alkylphenol ethoxylate mixtures, feminization was observed. Studies are now
21 underway to determine whether there are signs of endocrine disruption in local
22 salmon and trout populations of urban Central Valley watersheds, where
23 bifenthrin is commonly observed after storm events (page **XX**).

24 Contact: Daniel Schlenk, U.C. Riverside, daniel.schlenk@ucr.edu.

25

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27 Researchers from the U.C. Davis Bodega Marine Laboratory are currently
28 examining the impact of endocrine disrupting compounds on the Mississippi
29 silverside, an important forage fish in the Delta-Suisun foodweb. In 2009 and

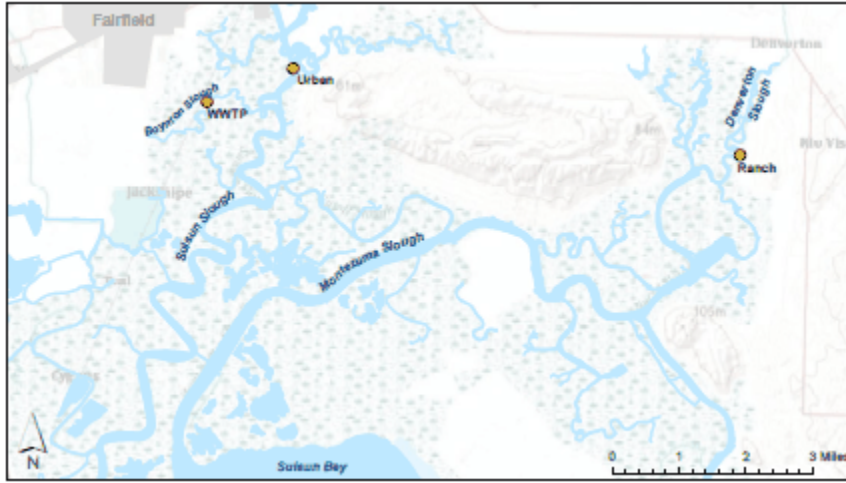
1 2010, the team caught fish monthly from two beaches in Suisun Marsh: Suisun
2 Slough and Denverton Slough. Suisun Slough receives urban runoff and
3 wastewater effluent, and Denverton Slough receives runoff from a local ranch. A
4 bioassay detected estrogenic EDCs at the ranch site and both estrogenic
5 (compounds mimicking female sex hormones) and androgenic EDCs
6 (compounds mimicking male sex hormones) at the urban site.

7
8 An assessment of endocrine effects at the molecular, organism, and population
9 levels in silversides found signs of endocrine disruption at both sites. At the
10 ranch site, only estrogenic EDCs were detected. Sex ratios in the ranch
11 population did not appear to be impacted, but males had higher expression of
12 female genes. At the urban site, both estrogens and androgens were detected.
13 The sex ratio was skewed in favor of males in both years, but males had smaller
14 testes here than at the ranch site. Complex interactions of estrogenic and
15 androgenic endocrine disrupting compounds may explain these apparently
16 counterintuitive findings. Overall results suggest that EDCs may negatively
17 affect fish populations and that endocrine impacts should be evaluated at
18 multiple levels in order for impacts to be accurately assessed.

19 Contact: Susanne Brander, U.C. Davis, snbrander@ucdavis.edu

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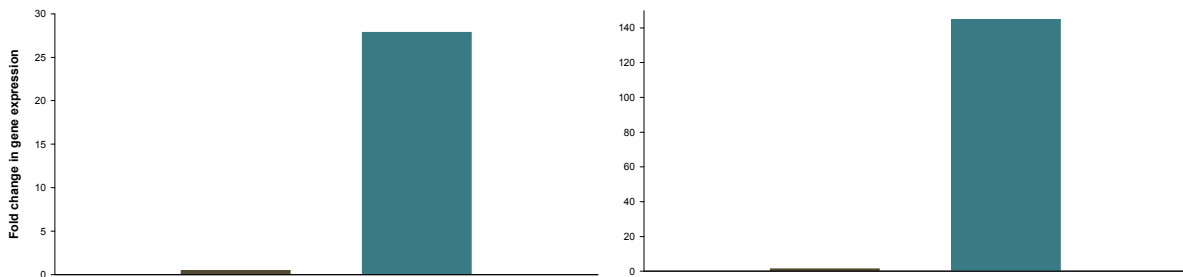


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Gene Expression of Egg Precursor Proteins in Male Mississippi Silversides

Vitellogenin (egg yolk precursor)

Choriogenin L (egg envelope precursor)



■ Suisun Slough (urban site) - estrogenic and androgenic compounds detected
■ Denverton Slough (ranch site) - only estrogenic compounds detected

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7 Scientists from the Southern California **Metropolitan Water District** (MWD) and
8 the Orange County Water District assessed the occurrence of CECs in Delta
9 water. Sampling took place from April 2008 to April 2009 at eleven sites

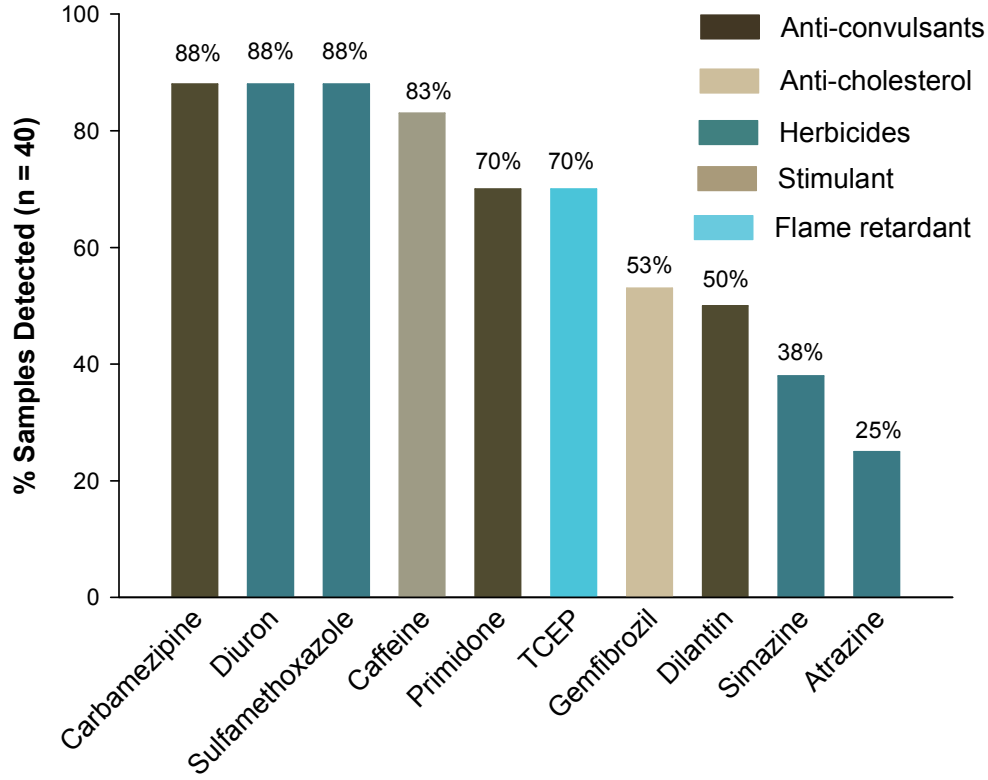
1 representing source water for the State Water Project. The researchers evaluated
2 the presence of endocrine disrupting compounds together with other
3 pharmaceuticals and personal care products and organic contaminants typically
4 found in wastewater. Detectable amounts of CECs were found at all but one site.
5 The site where no CECs were detected is located at the American River upstream
6 of the Sacramento urban area. At the other ten sites, 21 out of 49 analyzed CECs
7 were detected, but all at a part per trillion level – millions of times lower than
8 pharmaceutical doses. The general consensus among experts is that the low
9 levels detected do not pose any risk from a drinking water perspective, but more
10 information about their potential environmental impact is needed.

11 Contact: Carrie Guo, Metropolitan Water District of Southern California,
12 yguo@mwdh2o.com

13 For more information: <http://www.nwri-usa.org/CECs.htm>

14

Top 10 CECs Found in Delta Water



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1 **New Pesticides**

2 Pesticide use changes with time as older pesticides are withdrawn from use, new
3 pesticides or new uses for pesticides are registered, established pests develop
4 resistance, and new pests become a problem.

5 Over the past decade, a major change has been the replacement of
6 organophosphorus insecticides with **pyrethroid insecticides** for both agricultural
7 and residential use (page XX).

8 **Fipronil** is a pyrazole insecticide which has increased in use (almost doubled
9 since 2003) for crop protection, controlling ants and cockroaches, and as the
10 major insecticide used in flea and tick shampoos. As it loses some patent
11 protection in 2010, it is likely that related new products will become available.

12 Fipronil is highly toxic to aquatic organisms and its primary degradates (fipronil
13 disulfinyl, fipronil sulfone, and fipronil sulfide) can exhibit even greater toxicity.

14 **Neonicotinoids** are a class of insecticides that have come under scrutiny as a
15 potential factor in the decline of honey bees in the U.S. They are modeled after
16 nicotine, which is a natural insecticide that acts on the central nervous system.

17 Neonicotinoids are particularly effective against sucking insects such as aphids
18 and against chewing pests such as beetles and certain worms. Neonicotinoid
19 compounds are used in crop protection, professional turf management,
20 professional ornamental production, and in the residential indoor, pet, lawn and
21 garden markets. Use of three of these compounds (acetamiprid, dinotefuran, and
22 thiamethoxam) increased significantly in California, beginning in 2002.

23 While changes in pesticide use patterns often occur over a period of years, some
24 changes are more immediate and occur in response to new pest threats. The
25 European Grapevine Moth was first reported in California in September 2009
26 and has sparked a strong effort by state agencies to detect, quarantine, and
27 eradicate this damaging pest. In response to the very recent threat, three
28 insecticides have recently been registered: methoxyfenozide, spinetoram, and

1 spinosad. **Methoxyfenozide** belongs to the diacylhydrazine class of insecticides
2 that cause moth larvae to undergo an incomplete and premature molt resulting
3 in their death. **Spinetoram** and **spinosad** belong to the spinosyns, a group of
4 chemically modified fermentation products with insecticidal activity that are
5 derived from a soil-dwelling bacterium called *Saccharopolyspora*.

6 Rice is a major crop in California, with over half a million acres in production.
7 There have been major changes in pesticide use over the past three decades, but
8 the total amount of pesticides applied remains high. Use of the **thiocarbamate**
9 **herbicides molinate** and **thiobencarb** decreased significantly over the past five
10 years. Both have been targets of monitoring programs for almost two decades
11 because of documented problems. In the early 1980s, molinate was identified as
12 the cause of seasonal fish kills in agricultural drains carrying tailwater from rice
13 fields. At the same time, residues of thiobencarb were identified as the cause of
14 taste and smell problems in Sacramento's drinking water. The Central Valley
15 Regional Water Board responded to these problems by establishing regulatory
16 targets and monitoring requirements for these pesticides. As the use of
17 thiocarbamates and some other established rice pesticides declines, several "**new**
18 **generation**" rice herbicides are phased in. Examples are **bispyric-sodium**,
19 **cyhalofop-butyl**, **penoxsulam** and **clomazone**. In general, these new generation
20 herbicides can suppress weeds at extremely low application rates compared to
21 previously used herbicides and pose low toxicity risk to humans and wildlife. On
22 the downside, they are prone to induce resistance in weed species and have also
23 been found to damage non-target plants at levels that are below the detection
24 limits of standard analytical methods. There is little information on the
25 occurrence of these newer rice herbicides in the environment because they are
26 not being monitored.

27 As with herbicides, the use of traditional **fungicides** has decreased, while use of
28 newer fungicides such as **boscalid**, **pyrimethanil**, **pyraclostrobin**, **fludioxonil**,
29 **flutolanil** and **mefenoxam** has increased. These compounds are applied to

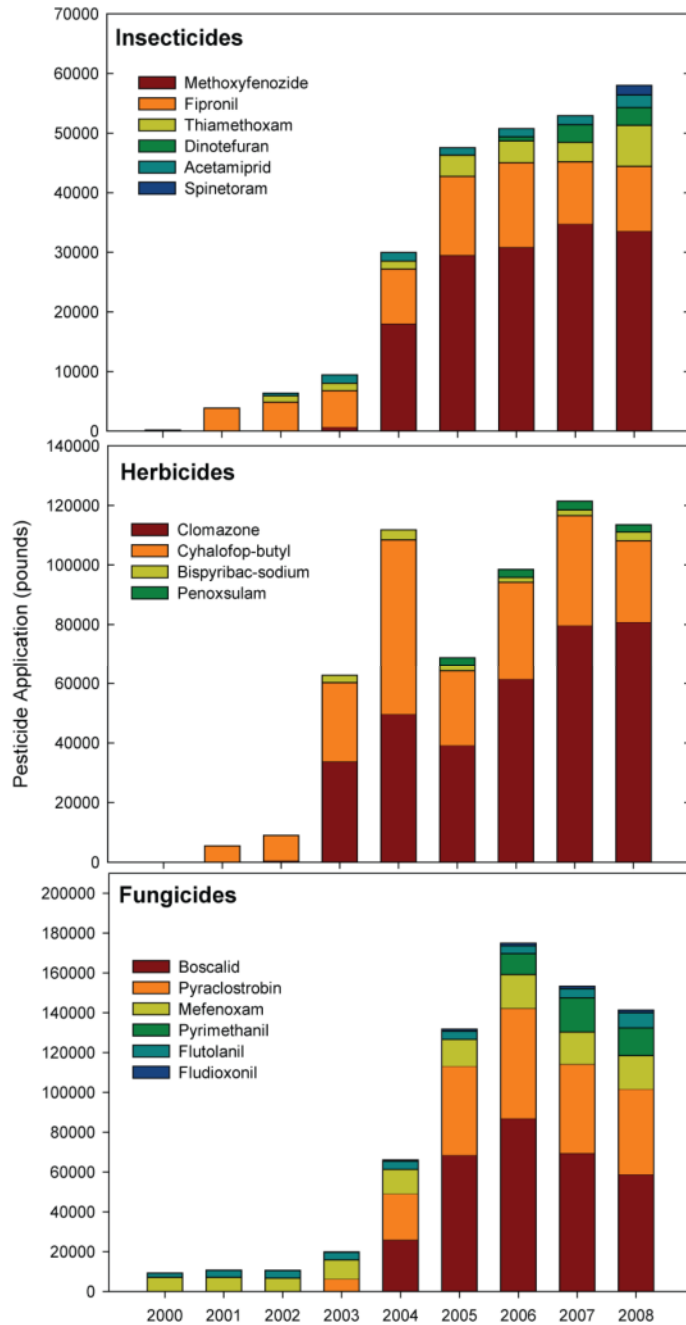
1 various crops including almonds, tomatoes and grapes. Environmental fate and
2 toxicity data are limited for these compounds and few are analyzed in
3 monitoring studies.

4 One future change in pesticide use is the expected registration of the fumigant
5 **methyl iodide** in California. Methyl iodide was approved by the USEPA in 2008
6 as a replacement for methyl bromide. Due to human health concerns, California
7 has set methyl iodide exposure limits at half those allowed by USEPA.

8 Contact: James Orlando, U.S. Geological Survey California Water Science Center,
9 jorlando@usgs.gov.

10 For more information: http://ca.water.usgs.gov/user_projects/toxics/

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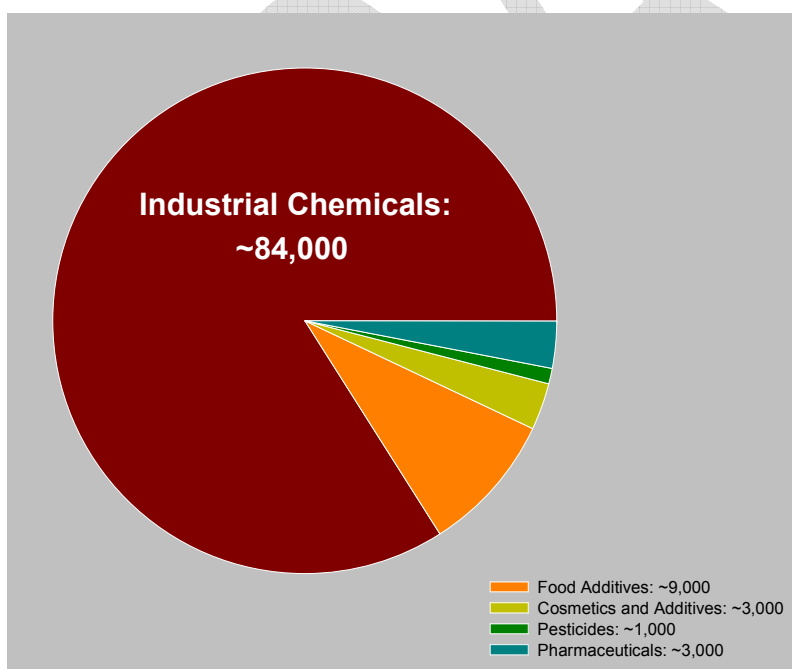
2 Pesticide applications in pounds for the Bay-Delta watershed, based on data contained in the California Department of

3 Pesticide Regulation Pesticide Use Database 2000-2008.

1 ILLUSTRATIONS

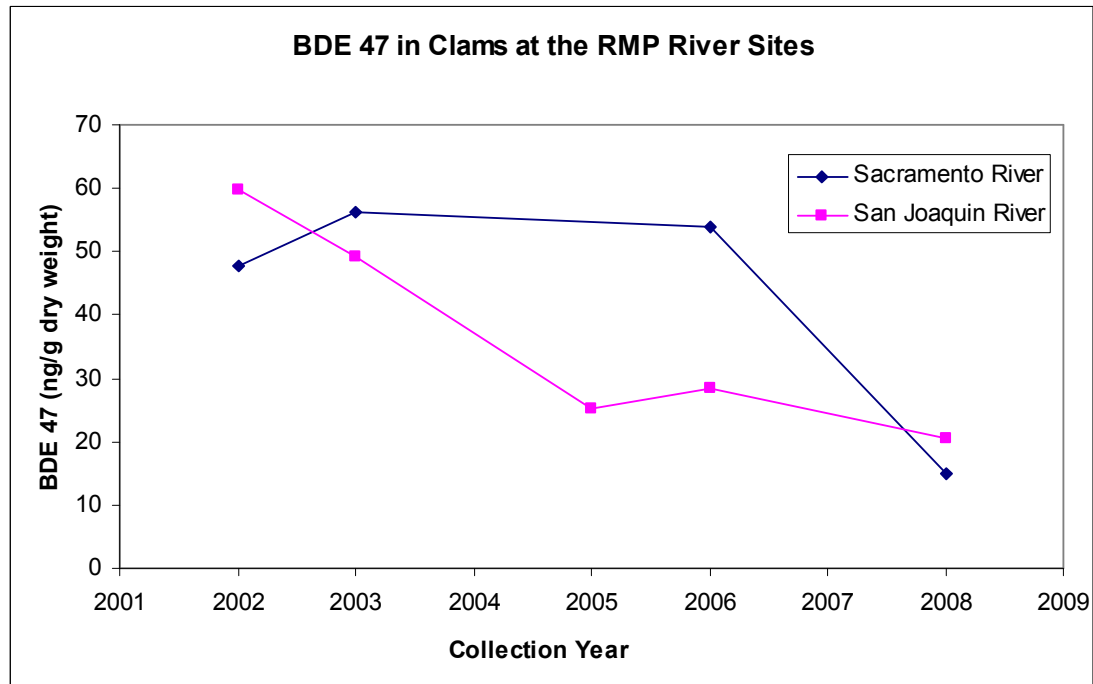
2 Figure 1.

3 **Approximately 100,000 individual chemicals have been registered for commercial use in the**
4 **U.S. over the past 30 years.** Global chemical production is projected to continue growing by about
5 3% per year, and double every 24 years. The primary challenge for regulators and scientists is
6 managing this ever-growing amount of chemicals to insure they do not adversely impact human
7 and environmental health. For most of these chemicals currently, major information gaps limit
8 scientists' ability to assess their potential risks and monitoring of these chemicals does not
9 routinely occur. For example, analytical methodologies are currently limited to several hundred of
10 these non-regulated chemicals. As a result, many chemicals that have not been adequately tested
11 for their potential impacts to humans and wildlife are continuously released to the environment.
12 Chemical classes that receive the majority of public attention (pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, food
13 additives, and pesticides) constitute only a small percentage of this inventory.



15

- 1 **Figure 2.**
2 **Samples taken at Delta sites suggest that concentrations of PBDEs in clams may be**
3 **decreasing.** A partial PBDE phase-out began in 2003. A decreasing trend would be expected in
4 response to the PBDE phase-out.

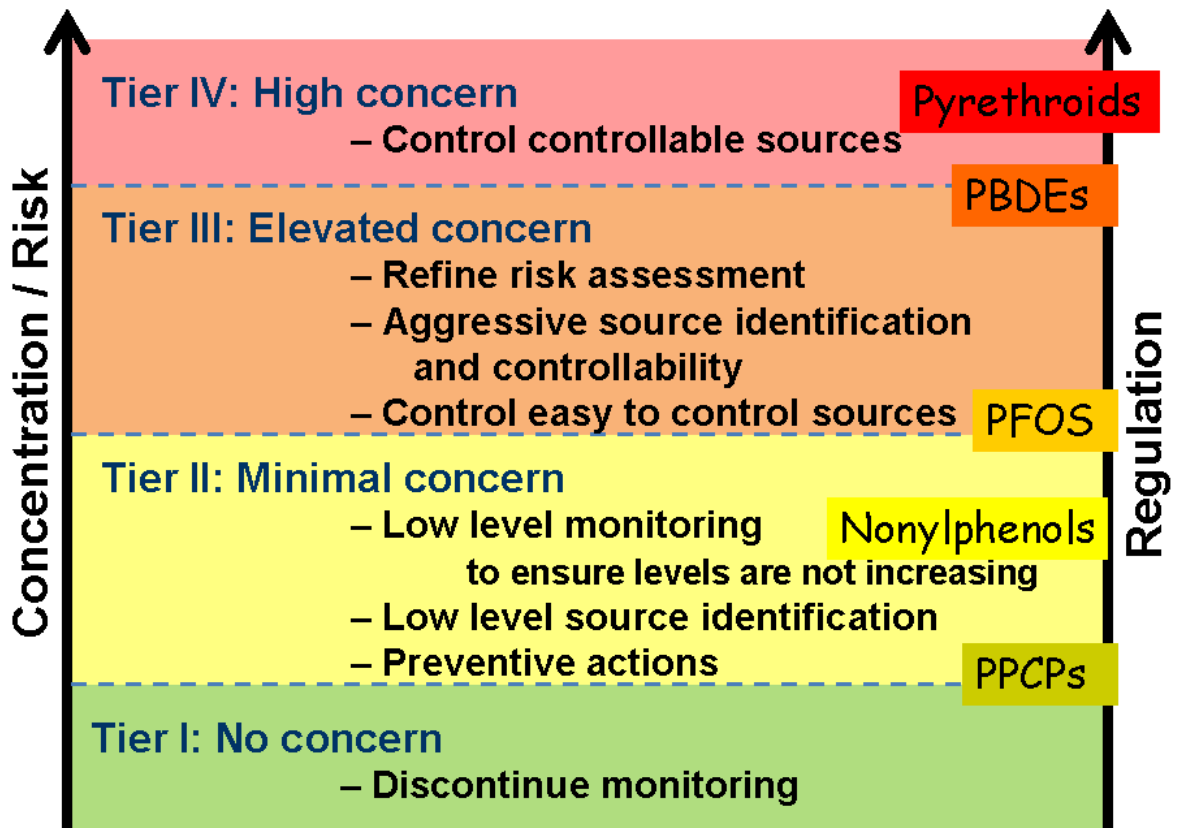


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Figure 3.

In 2009, a statewide workgroup developed a tiered system for prioritizing and monitoring CECs. The prioritization system consists of various levels of risk or effect that are tied to appropriate management actions. The graph shows the San Francisco Bay Regional Water Quality Control Board's interpretation of the system for various CECs (Tom Mumley, pers. communication).



10

1 **Figure 4.**

2 **Endocrine disruptors may impact Delta fish.** This photo shows a largemouth bass, a popular
3 sport fish in the Delta. In some other parts of the country, largemouth bass collected from
4 waterways that contain synthetic organic compounds have been found to show signs of endocrine
5 disruption. In the Potomac River and its tributaries in the Washington D.C. region, some male
6 largemouth bass were even found to grow immature eggs in their reproductive organs.

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