Program Introduction and Overview

Assessment Needs for Salmon Recovery & Watershed Protection

The Redwood Creek Basin Assessment began as project of the North Coast Watershed Assessment Program (NCWAP). The NCWAP was an interagency effort between the California Resources Agency and the California Environmental Protection Agency (CalEPA) established in 2000 to provide a consistent scientific foundation for collaborative watershed restoration efforts and to better meet California's needs for protecting and restoring salmon species and their habitats under state and federal laws. The program was developed by a team of managers and technical staff from the following departments with watershed responsibilities for the North Coast:

- California Resources Agency;
- California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG);
- California Department of Forestry and Fire Protection (CDF);
- California Department of Conservation/California Geological Survey (DOC/CGS);
- California Department of Water Resources (DWR);
- North Coast Regional Water Quality Control Board (NCRWQCB) of the State Water Resources Control Board.

The California Resources Agency in coordination with CalEPA, initiated the program in part in response to specific requests from landowners and watershed groups that the State take a leadership role in conducting scientifically credible, interdisciplinary assessments that could be used for multiple purposes. The need for comprehensive watershed information grew in importance with listings of salmonids as threatened species, the Total Maximum Daily Load (TMDL) consent decree, and the increased availability of assistance grants for protecting and restoring watersheds.

Funding for the NCWAP was cut from the State budget before the Redwood Creek assessment project was complete. This assessment report was completed largely by the CDFGs Coastal Watershed Planning and Assessment Program (CWPAP) with inputs from other Resources Agency Departments as budgets, personnel, and time constraints allowed.

Listings under the federal Endangered Species Act for areas within the North Coast region (the North Coast Hydrologic Unit) began with coho salmon in 1997, followed by Chinook salmon in 1999, and steelhead in 2000. In 2001, coho was proposed for listing under the California Endangered Species Act. Concerns about the potential impacts of salmonid listings and TMDLs on the economy are particularly strong on the North Coast where natural resource-dependent industries predominate. Cumulative impacts related to human activities including landslides, flooding, timber harvest, mining, roads, ranching, agricultural uses, and development along with natural processes can adversely affect watershed conditions and fish habitat. In order to recover California's salmonid fisheries, it is necessary to first assess and understand the interactions among management activities, dominant ecological processes and functions, and factors limiting populations and their habitat.

The program integrates and augments existing watershed assessment programs to utilize methodologies and manuals available from each participating department. The program also responds to recommendations from a Scientific Review Panel (SRP) which was created under the auspices of the State's Watershed Protection and Restoration Council as required by the March, 1998 Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) between the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) and the California Resources Agency. The MOU required a comprehensive review of the California Forest Practice Rules (FPRs) with regard to their adequacy for the protection of salmonid species. In addition, the promise of significant new state and federal salmonid restoration funds highlighted the need for watershed assessments to ensure those dollars are well spent.

Program Assessment Region and Agency Roles

Originally, the program was to provide baseline environmental and biological information for approximately 6.5 million acres of public and private lands over a several-year period. This area was to include all coastal drainages from Sonoma County north to Oregon, corresponding with the NCRWQCBs region (Figure I- 1). The Redwood Creek assessment is one of five watershed assessments completed under this program: Gualala, Mattole, Redwood, Albion, and Big Basins.

Figure I- 1. NCWAP assessment area.

The roles of the five participating agencies in these efforts are as follows:

- CDFG collected, developed, and analyzed data related to anadromous fisheries habitat and populations. It also led an interagency evaluation of factors affecting anadromous fisheries production at the watershed level, provided recommendations for restoration and monitoring in the final synthesis report.
- CDF collected, developed, and analyzed data related to vegetation, fire hazard and land use.
- DOC/CGS included a baseline mapping of landslide potential, and discussions of geologic and fluvial processes that effect watershed conditions.
- NCRWQCB compiled, collected, and analyzed water quality data for the assessments. The assessment included comparison of recently collected and past available information comprised of water temperature, sediment, and water chemistry data sets.
- DWR provided discussion of hydrology, stream flows and precipitation patterns.

Program Guiding Questions

The program's work intends to provide answers to the following assessment questions at the basin and subbasin scales in California's North Coast watersheds:

- What are the history and trends of the size, distribution, and relative health and diversity of salmonid populations?
- What are the current salmonid habitat conditions? How do these conditions compare to desired conditions?

- What are the impacts of geologic, vegetative, fluvial, and other natural processes on watershed and stream conditions?
- How has land use affected these natural processes?
- Based upon these conditions, trends, and relationships, are there elements that could be considered to be limiting factors for salmon and steelhead production?
- What watershed and habitat improvement activities would most likely lead toward more desirable conditions in a timely, cost effective manner?

Program Goals

The program was developed to improve decision-making by landowners, watershed groups, agencies, and other stakeholders with respect to restoration projects and management practices to protect and improve salmonid habitat. It was therefore essential that the program took steps to ensure its assessment methods and products would be understandable, relevant, and scientifically credible. As a result, the interagency team developed the following goals:

- Organize and provide existing information and develop limited baseline data to help evaluate the effectiveness of various resource protection programs over time;
- Provide assessment information to help focus watershed improvement programs, and assist landowners, local watershed groups, and individuals to develop successful projects. This will help guide programs, like the CDFG Fishery Restoration Grants Program, toward those watersheds and project types that can efficiently and effectively improve freshwater habitat and support recovery of salmonid populations;
- Provide assessment information to help focus cooperative interagency, nonprofit and private sector approaches to protect the best watersheds and streams through watershed stewardship, conservation easements, and other incentive programs; and
- Provide assessment information to help landowners and agencies better implement laws that require specific assessments such as the State Forest Practice Act, Clean Water Act, and State Lake and Streambed Alteration Agreements.

North Coast Salmon, Stream, and Watershed Issues

Pacific coast anadromous salmonids are dependent upon a high quality freshwater environment at the beginning and end of their life cycles. They thrive or perish during their freshwater phases depending upon the availability of cool, clean water, free access to migrate up and down their natal streams, clean gravel suitable for successful spawning, adequate food supply, and protective cover to escape predators and ambush prey. These life requirements must be provided by diverse and complex instream habitats as the fish move through their life cycles. If any life requirements are missing or in poor condition at the time a fish or stock requires it, fish survival can be impacted. These life requirement conditions can be identified and evaluated on a spatial and temporal basis at the stream reach and watershed levels. They comprise the factors that support or limit salmonid stock production.

The specific combination of these factors in each stream sets the carrying capacity for salmonids of that stream. The carrying capacity can be changed if one or more of the factors are altered. The importance of individual factors in setting the carrying capacity differs with the life stage of the fish and time of year. All of the important factors for salmonid health must be present in a suitable, though not always optimal, range in streams where fish live and reproduce (Bjorrn and Reiser 1991).

Two important watershed goals are the protection and maintenance of high quality fish habitats. In addition to preservation of high quality habitat, restoration of streams damaged by poor resource management practices of the past is important for anadromous salmonids. Science-based management has progressed significantly and "enough is now known about the habitat requirements of salmonids and about good management practices that further habitat degradation can be prevented, and habitat rehabilitation and enhancement programs can go forward successfully" (Meehan 1991).

Through the course of natural climatic events, hydrologic responses and erosion processes interact to shape freshwater salmonid habitats. The condition of near stream forests throughout a watershed strongly influences habitat structure, water temperature, and food resources of anadromous fish bearing streams. Stream channels interact with their parent watershed geology, morphology, and vegetation to form aquatic habitat in which the anadromous salmonids live.

These processes influence the kind and extent of a watershed's vegetative cover as well, and act to supply nutrients to the stream system. When there are no large disturbances, these natural processes continuously make small changes in a watershed. Managers must constantly judge these small natural changes as well as changes made by human activity. Habitat conditions can be drastically altered when major disruptions of these small interactions occur (Swanston 1991).

Major watershed disruptions can be caused by catastrophic events or created over time by multiple small natural or human disturbances. These disruptions can drastically alter instream habitat conditions and the aquatic communities that depend upon them for days, years, decades or longer. Thus, it is important to understand the critical, interdependent relationships of salmon and steelhead with their natal streams during their freshwater life phases, and their streams' dependency upon the watersheds within which they are nested, and the energy of the watershed processes that binds them together.

In general, natural disturbance regimes like landslides and wildfires do not impact larger basins like the Redwood Creek in their entirety at any given time. Rather, they normally rotate episodically across the entire basin as a mosaic composed of the smaller subbasin, watershed, or sub-watershed units over long periods. This creates a dynamic variety of habitat conditions and quality over the larger basin (Reice 1994).

The rotating nature of these relatively large, isolated events at the regional or basin scale assures streams in the area will be in suitable condition for salmonid stocks. A dramatic, large-scale example occurred in May 1980 in the Toutle River, Washington, which was inundated in slurry when Mt. St. Helens erupted. The river rapidly became unsuitable for fish. In response, returning salmon runs avoided the river that year and used other nearby suitable streams on an opportunistic basis, but returned to the Toutle two years later as conditions improved. This return occurred much sooner than had been initially expected (Quinn et al. 1991; Leider 1989).

Human disturbance sites, although they may be individually small in comparison to natural disturbance events, usually are spatially distributed widely across basin level watersheds (Reeves et al. 1995). For example, a rural road or building site is an extremely small land disturbance compared to a forty-acre landslide or wildfire covering several square miles. However, when all roads in a basin the size of Redwood Creek are looked at collectively, their disturbance effects are much more widely distributed than a single large, isolated landslide that has a high, but relatively localized impact to a single sub-watershed.

Human disturbance regimes collectively extend across basins and even regional scales and have lingering effects. Examples include water diversions, conversion of near stream areas to urban usage, removal of large mature vegetation, widespread soil disturbance leading to increased erosion rates, construction of levees or armored banks that can disconnect the stream from its floodplain, and the installation of dams and reservoirs that disrupt normal flow regimes and prevent free movement of salmonids and other fish. These disruptions often develop in concert and in an extremely short period on the natural, geologic time scale.

Human disturbances are often concentrated in time because of newly developed technology or market forces such as the California Gold Rush or the post-WWII logging boom in Northern California. The intense human land use of the last century, combined with the transport energy of two mid-century record floods on the North Coast, created stream habitat impacts at the basin and regional scales. The result of these recent combined disruptions has overlain the pre-European disturbance regime process and conditions.

Consequently, stream habitat quality and quantity are generally depressed across most of the North Coast region. It is within this widely impacted environment that both human and natural disturbances continue to occur, but with vastly fewer habitat refugia lifeboats than were historically available to salmon and steelhead.

Thus, a general reduction in salmonid stocks can at least partially be attributed to this impacted freshwater environment.

Although no historic fish counts exist for Redwood Creek, Department of Fish and Game fish ladder counts at Benbow Dam and Cape Horn Dam, in the Eel River system, reflect an over 80% decline in coho salmon, Chinook salmon, and steelhead trout populations over the span of the last century (Figure I- 2). The Eel River, especially the South Fork Eel River, which is the location of Benbow Dam, although larger than Redwood Creek, has similar basin conditions and land use history. Anecdotal evidence from anglers and longtime local residents supports the likelihood of a similar decline in Redwood Creek's anadromous fishery resources.

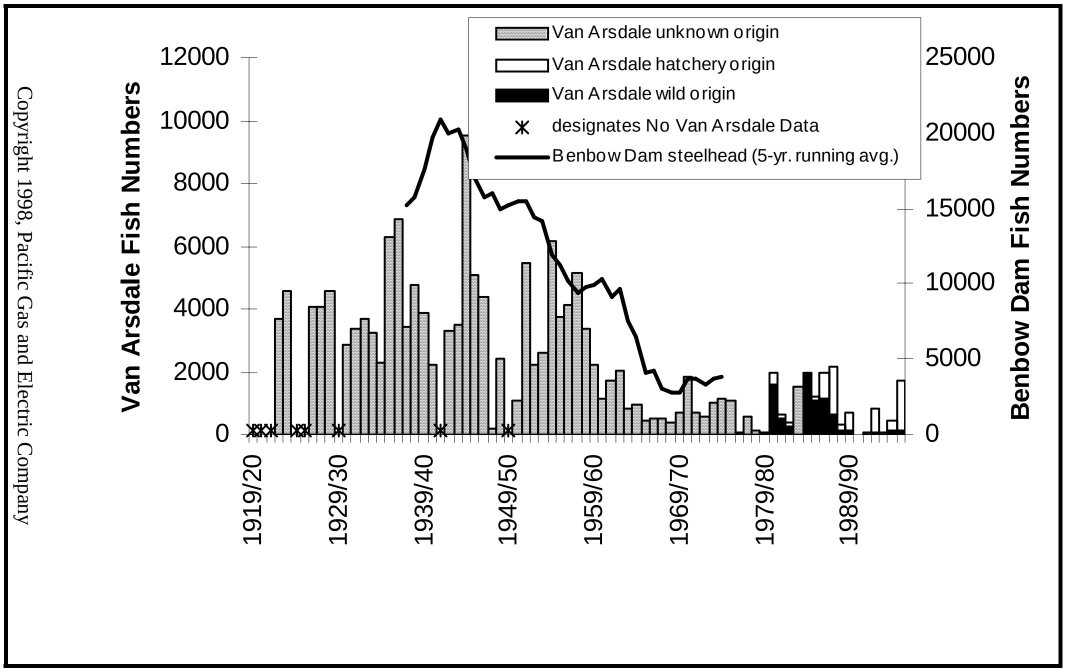

Figure I- 2. Five-year running average of salmonids at Benbow Dam, South Fork Eel River, and mainstem Eel River above Cape Horn Dam and historical steelhead trout ladder counts at Van Arsdale Fisheries Station, mainstem Eel River, and Benbow Dam, South Fork Eel River.

Free passage describes the absence of barriers to the free instream movement of adult and juvenile salmonids. Free movement in streams allows salmonids to find food, escape from high water temperatures, escape from predation, and migrate to and from their stream of origin as juveniles and adults. Temporary or permanent dams, poorly constructed road crossings, landslides, debris jams, or other natural and/or human-caused channel disturbances can disrupt or impede up or downstream fish passage.

Stream condition includes several factors: adequate stream flow, suitable water quality, suitable stream temperature, and diverse and complex habitat. For successful salmonid production, stream flows should follow the natural hydrologic regime of the basin. A natural regime minimizes the frequency and magnitude of storm flows and promotes better flows during dry periods of the water year. Salmonids evolved with the natural hydrograph of coastal watersheds, and changes to the timing, magnitude, and duration of low flows and storm flows can disrupt the ability of fish to follow life history cues.

Habitat diversity for salmonids is created by a combination of deep pools, riffles, and flatwater habitat types. Each of these stream habitats is used by anadromous salmonids during their freshwater residency. Often habitats are partitioned by a particular life stage or species. Pools, and to some degree flatwater habitats, provide escape cover from high velocity flows, hiding areas from predators, and ambush sites for taking prey. Pools and flatwaters are also important juvenile rearing areas, particularly for young coho salmon. They are also necessary for adult resting areas. Excessive levels of sediments fill pools and aggrades flatwater habitats. This reduces depths and can bury complex niches created by large substrate and woody debris. Riffles provide clean spawning gravels and oxygenate water as it tumbles across them. Salmonid fry use riffles and edge waters during rearing. Flatwater areas often provide spatially divided pocket water units that separate individual juveniles which helps promote reduced competition and successful foraging (Flosi et al. 1998).

Important aspects of water quality for anadromous salmonids are water temperature, turbidity, water chemistry, and sediment load. In general, suitable water temperatures for salmonids are between 48-56°F for successful spawning and incubation, and between 50-52°F and 60-64°F, depending on species, for growth and rearing. Additionally, cool water holds more oxygen, and salmonids require high levels of dissolved oxygen in all stages of their life cycle.

A second important aspect of water quality is turbidity. Fine suspended sediments (turbidity) affect nutrient levels in streams that in turn affect primary productivity of aquatic vegetation and insect life. This eventually reverberates through the food chain and affects salmonid food availability. Additionally, high levels of turbidity interfere with a juvenile salmonids' ability to feed and can lead to reduced growth rates and survival.

A third important aspect of water quality is stream sediment load. Salmonids cannot successfully reproduce when forced to spawn in streambeds with excessive silt, clays, and other fine sediment. Eggs and embryos suffocate under excessive fine sediment conditions because oxygenated water is prevented from passing through the egg nest, or redd. Additionally, high sediment loads can cap the redd and prevent emergent fry from escaping the gravel into the stream at the end of incubation. High sediment loads can also cause abrasions on fish gills, which may increase susceptibility to infection. At extreme levels, sediment can clog the gills causing death. Additionally, materials toxic to salmonids can cling to sediment and be transported through downstream areas.

A functional riparian zone helps to control the amount of sunlight reaching the stream, provides vegetative litter, and contributes invertebrates to the local salmonid diet. These contribute to the production of food for the aquatic community, including salmonids. Tree roots and other vegetative cover provide stream bank cohesion and buffer impacts from adjacent uplands. Near-stream vegetation eventually provides large woody debris and complexity to the stream (Flosi et al. 1998).

Riparian zone functions are important to anadromous salmonids for numerous reasons. Riparian vegetation helps keep stream temperatures in the range that is suitable for salmonids by maintaining cool stream temperatures in the summer and insulating streams from heat loss in the winter. Larval and adult macro-invertebrates are important to the salmonid diet and they are in turn dependent upon nutrient contributions from the riparian zone. Additionally, stream bank cohesion and maintenance of undercut banks provided by riparian zones in good condition maintains diverse salmonid habitat, and helps reduce bank failure and fine sediment yield to the stream. Lastly, the large woody debris provided by riparian zones shapes channel morphology, helps retain organic matter and provides essential cover for salmonids (Murphy and Meehan 1991).

Therefore, excessive natural or man-caused disturbances to the riparian zone, as well as directly to the stream and/or the basin itself can have serious impacts to the aquatic community, including anadromous salmonids. Generally, this seems to be the case in streams and watersheds in the North Coast of California. This is borne out by the recent decision to include many North Coast Chinook and coho salmon, and steelhead trout stocks on the Endangered Species Act list.

Disturbance and Recovery of Stream and Watershed Conditions

Natural and Human Disturbances

Intrinsic processes that shape streams and watersheds of the Redwood Creek Basin are numerous and complex. Streams and watersheds change through dynamic processes of disturbance and recovery (Madej 1999). In general, disturbance events alter a streams equilibrium or average conditions, while recovery occurs as stream conditions return towards equilibrium after disturbance events. Given the program's focus on anadromous salmonids, an important goal is to determine the degree to which current stream and watershed conditions in the region are providing salmonid habitat capable of supporting sustainable populations of anadromous salmonids. To do this, we must consider the habitat requirements for all life stages of salmonids. We must look at the disturbance history and recovery of stream systems, including riparian and upslope areas, which affect the streams through multiple biophysical processes.

Disturbance and recovery processes can be influenced by both natural and human events. A disturbance event such as sediment from a natural landslide can fill instream pools providing salmon habitat just as readily as sediment from a road failure. On the recovery side, natural processes (such as small stream-side landslides) that replace instream large woody debris washed out by a flood flow help to restore salmonid habitat, as does large woody debris placed in a stream by a landowner as a part of a restoration project.

Natural disturbance and recovery processes, at scales from small to very large, have been at work on North Coast watersheds since their formation millions of years ago. Recent major natural disturbance events have included large flood events such as occurred in 1955 and 1964 (Lisle 1981a) and 1974 (U.S. EPA 2001) ground shaking and related tectonic uplift associated with the 1992 Cape Mendocino earthquake (Carver et al. 1994).

Major human disturbances (e.g., post-European development, dam construction, agricultural and residential conversions, and the methods of timber harvesting practices used particularly before the implementation of the 1973 Z'Berg-Nejedly Forest Practice Act) have occurred over the past 150 years (Ice 2000). Salmonid habitat also was degraded during parts of the last century by well-intentioned but misguided restoration actions such as removing large woody debris from streams (Ice 1990). More recently, efforts at watershed restoration have been made, generally at the local level. For example, in California and the Pacific Northwest, minor dams from some streams have been removed to clear barriers to spawning and juvenile anadromous fish. For a thorough treatment of stream and watershed recovery processes, see the publication by the Federal Interagency Stream Restoration Working Group (FISRWG 1998).

Defining Recovery

There is general agreement that improvements in a condition or set of conditions constitute recovery. In that context, recovery is a process. One can determine a simple rate of recovery by the degree of improvement over some time period, and from only two points in time. And one can discuss recovery and rates of recovery in a general sense. However, a simple rate of recovery is not very useful until put into the context of its position on a scale to the endpoint of recovered.

In general, recovered fish habitat supports a stable fish population. Recovery not only implies, but necessitates, knowledge of an endpoint. In the case of a recovered watershed, the endpoint is a set of conditions deemed appropriate for a watershed with its processes in balance and able to withstand perturbations without large fluctuations in those processes and conditions. However, the endpoint of recovered for one condition or function may be on a different time and geographic scale than for another condition or function.

Some types and locations of stream recovery for salmonids can occur more readily than others or in succession stages. For example, in headwater areas where steeper source reaches predominate, suspended sediment such as that generated by a streamside landslide or a road fill failure may start clearing immediately, while coarser sediments carried as bedload tend to flush after a few years (Lisle 1981a; Madej and Ozaki 1996). On the other hand, excessive sediments inputs from the same source reaches may continue for decades adding to chronic turbidity and channel aggradation problems. Broadleaf riparian vegetation can return to create shading, stabilize banks, and improve fish habitat within a decade or so, but re-establishment of overstory canopy, LWD sources, and microclimate benefits provided by large conifers takes much longer. In areas lower in the watershed, where lower-gradient response reaches predominate, it can take several decades for deposited sediment to be transported out (Madej 1982; Koehler et al. 2001), for widened stream channels to narrow, for aggraded streambeds to return to pre-disturbance level, and for streambanks to fully revegetate and stabilize (Lisle 1981b). Lower reach streams will require a similar period for the near-stream trees to attain the girth needed for recruitment into the stream as large woody debris to help create adequate habitat complexity and shelter for fish, or for deep pools to be re-scoured in the larger mainstems (Lisle and Napolitano 1998).

Factors and Rates of Recovery

Over the past quarter-century, several changes have allowed the streams and aquatic ecosystems to move generally towards recovery. The rate of timber harvest on California's north coast has slowed during this period, with declining submissions of timber harvesting plans in many watersheds (THPs) and smaller average THPs (T. Spittler, personal communications). However, in some watersheds, the amount of acreage harvested has increased sharply since 1990 as timber stands mature into merchantable second-growth or third-growth timber.

Timber-harvesting practices have greatly improved over those of the post-war era, due to increased knowledge of forest ecosystem functions, changing public values, advances in road building and yarding techniques, and regulation changes such as mandated streamside buffers that limit equipment operations and removal of timber. Cafferata and Spittler (1998) found that almost all recent landslides occurring in an area logged in the early 1970s were related to legacy logging roads. In contrast, in a neighboring watershed logged in the late 1980s to early 1990s, landslides to date have occurred with about equal frequency in the logged areas as in unlogged areas. However a study of 358 landslides that occurred in the Redwood Creek basin during the 1997 storm season found the volume of sediment generated from landslides in logged areas has been much greater than from unlogged areas (Madej, U.S Geological Survey 2001, written communication.).

Further, most north coast streams have not recently experienced another large event on the scale of the 1964 flood. Therefore, we would expect most north coast streams to show signs of recovery (i.e., passive restoration [FISRWG 1998]). However, the rates and degrees of stream and watershed recovery will likely vary across a given watershed and among different north coast drainages.

In addition to the contributions made to recovery through better land management practices and natural recovery processes, increasing levels of stream and watershed restoration efforts are also contributing to recovery. Examples of these efforts include road upgrades and decommissioning, removal of road-related fish passage barriers, installation of instream fish habitat structures, etc. While little formal evaluation or quantification of the contributions of these efforts to recovery has been made, there is a general consensus that many of these efforts have made important contributions.

Continuing Challenges to Recovery

Given improvements in timber harvesting practices in the last 30 years, the time elapsed since the last major flood event, and the implementation of stream and watershed restoration projects, it is not surprising that many north coast streams show indications of trends towards recovery. Ongoing challenges associated with past activities that are slowing this trend include:

- Chronic sediment delivery from legacy (pre-1975) roads due to inadequate crossing design, construction and maintenance (California State Board of Forestry, Monitoring Study Group 1999) skid trails and landings (Cafferata and Spittler 1998);
- A lack of improvements in stream habitat diversity and complexity, largely from a dearth of large woody debris needed for channel maintenance and development, and successful fish rearing;
- The continuing aggradation of sediments in low-gradient reaches that first deposited as the result of activities and flooding in past decades (Koehler et al. 2001).

Increasing subdivision on several north coast watersheds raises concerns about new stream and watershed disturbances. Private road systems associated with rural development have historically been built and maintained in a fashion that does little to mitigate risks of chronic and catastrophic sediment inputs to streams. While more north coast counties are adopting grading ordinances that will help with this problem, there is a significant legacy of older residential roads that pose an ongoing risk for sediment inputs to streams. Other issues appropriate to north coast streams include potential failures of roads during catastrophic events, erosion from house pads and impermeable surfaces, removal of water from streams for domestic uses, effluent leakages, and the potential for deliberate dumping of toxic chemicals used in illicit drug labs.

Some areas of the North Coast have seen rapidly increasing agricultural activity, particularly conversion of grasslands or woodlands to grapes. Such agricultural activities have typically been subject to little agency review or regulation and can pose significant risk of chronic sediment, chemical, and nutrient inputs to streams.

Associated with development and increased agriculture, some north coast river systems are seeing increasing withdrawal of water, both directly from stream and groundwater sources connected to streams, for human uses. Water withdrawals pose a chronic disturbance to streams and aquatic habitat. Such withdrawals can result in lowered summer stream flows that impede the movement of salmonids and reduce important habitat elements such as pools. Further, the withdrawals can contribute to elevated stream water temperatures that are harmful to salmonids.

Key questions for landowners, agencies, and other stakeholders revolve around whether the trends toward stream recovery will continue at their current rates, and whether those rates will be adequate to allow salmonids to recover their populations in an acceptable time frame. Clearly, the potential exists for new impacts from both human activities and natural disturbance processes to compromise recovery rates to a degree that threatens future salmonid recovery. To predict those cumulative effects will likely require additional site-specific information on sediment generation and delivery rates and additional risk analyses of other major disturbances. Also, our discussion here does not address marine influences on anadromous salmonid populations. While these important influences are outside of the scope of this program, we recognize their importance for sustainable salmonid populations and acknowledge that good quality freshwater habitat alone is not adequate to ensure sustainability.

Policies, Acts, and Listings

Several federal and state statutes have significant implications for watersheds, streams, fisheries, and their management. Here, we present only a brief listing and description of some of the laws.

Federal Statutes

One of the most fundamental of federal environmental statutes is the **National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA)**. NEPA is essentially an environmental impact assessment and disclosure law. Projects contemplated or plans prepared by federal agencies or funded by them must have an environmental assessment completed and released for public review and comment, including the consideration of more than one alternative. The law does not require that the least impacting alternative be chosen, only that the impacts be disclosed.

The federal **Clean Water Act** has a number of sections relevant for watersheds and water quality. Section 208 deals with non-point source pollutants arising from silvicultural activities, including cumulative impacts. Section 303 deals with water bodies that are impaired to the extent that their water quality is not suitable for the beneficial uses identified for those waters. For water bodies identified as impaired, the US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) or its state counterpart (locally, the North Coast Regional Water Quality Control Board and the State Water Resources Control Board) must set targets for Total Maximum Daily Loads (TMDLs) of the pollutants that are causing the impairment. Section 404 deals with the alterations of wetlands and streams through filling or other modifications, and requires the issuance of federal permits for most such activities.

The federal **Endangered Species Act (ESA)** addresses the protection of animal species whose populations have declined to critically low levels. Two levels of species risk are defined. A threatened species is any species that is likely to become an endangered species within the foreseeable future throughout all or a significant portion of its range. An endangered species is any species that is in danger of extinction throughout all or a significant portion of its range. In general, the law forbids the take of listed species. Taking is defined as harassing, harming, pursuing, hunting, shooting, wounding, killing, trapping, capturing, or collecting a species or attempting to engage in any such conduct. A take of a species listed as threatened may be allowed where specially permitted through the completion and approval of a Habitat Conservation Plan (HCP). An HCP is a document that describes how an agency or landowner will manage their activities to reduce effects on vulnerable species. An HCP discusses the applicant's proposed activities and describes the steps that will be taken to avoid, minimize, or mitigate the take of species that are covered by the plan. Many of California’s salmon runs are listed under the ESA, including the Chinook and coho salmon and steelhead found in the Redwood Creek Basin.

State Statutes

The state analogue of NEPA is the **California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA)**. CEQA goes beyond NEPA in that it requires the project or plan proponent to select for implementation the least environmentally impacting alternative considered. When the least impacting alternative would still cause significant adverse environmental impacts, a statement of overriding considerations must be prepared.

The **Porter-Cologne Water Quality Control Act** establishes state water quality law and defines how the state will implement the federal authorities that have been delegated to it by the US EPA under the federal Clean Water Act. For example, the US EPA has delegated to the state certain authorities and responsibilities to implement TMDLs for impaired water bodies and NPDES (national pollution discharge elimination system) permits to point-source dischargers to water bodies.

Sections 1600 et seq. of the Fish and Game Code are implemented by the Department of Fish and Game. These agreements are required for any activities that alter the beds or banks of streams or lakes. A 1600 agreement typically would be involved in a road project where a stream crossing was constructed. While treated as ministerial in the past, the courts have more recently indicated that these agreements constitute discretionary permits and thus must be accompanied by an environmental impact review per CEQA.

The **California Endangered Species Act (CESA)**. The California Endangered Species Act (Fish & Game Code §§ 2050, et seq.) generally parallels the main provisions of the Federal Endangered Species Act and is administered by the California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG). Coho salmon in the Redwood Creek Basin are listed as threatened under CESA.

The **Z'Berg-Nejedly Forest Practice Act (FPA)** and associated **Forest Practice Rules** establish extensive permitting, review, and management practice requirements for commercial timber harvesting. Evolving in part in response to water quality protection requirements established by the 1972 amendments to the federal Clean Water Act, the FPA and Rules provide for significant measures to protect watersheds, watershed function, water quality, and fishery habitat.