

1 **Evaluating Clean Water Act progress drivers for Idaho rivers and streams 2002-2022**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 In the United States, the Clean Water Act (CWA) is the primary legislation driving
9 surface water quality management. Its goal is to “restore and maintain the chemical, physical,
10 and biological integrity of the Nation’s waters.” Section 305(b) of the CWA requires states to
11 document CWA progress by reporting whether applicable water quality standards are achieved
12 for all state waters every two years. Developing strategies for increasing the proportion of waters
13 achieving standards requires diagnosing factors driving 305(b) temporal trends. This analysis
14 demonstrates how systematically analyzing 305(b) data in new ways can help document CWA
15 progress (or lack thereof) and associated drivers. Idaho 305(b) data were used to evaluate the
16 relative contribution of assessment progress and restoration to 2002-2022 Idaho 305(b) temporal
17 trends. Assessment progress was defined as progress assessing unassessed waters and correcting
18 assessment errors. Restoration was defined as changes from not achieving to achieving assessed
19 standards because water quality improved. From 2002-2022, the percent Idaho stream kilometers
20 achieving assessed standards increased from 24% to 32%. Systematically evaluating reasons for
21 stream status changes revealed this trend was driven primarily by assessment progress,
22 specifically progress monitoring previously unassessed waters in good condition and correcting
23 prior assessment errors. More stream km changed from impaired to unimpaired because prior
24 assessment errors were corrected than because water quality improved; in each report $\leq 5\%$ of all
25 stream km changing status resulted from water quality improvement. As of 2022, more state
26 stream km were impaired (39%) than unassessed (29%) and restoration success rates will likely
27 become the primary driver of 305(b) temporal trends in the future. Systematically analyzing
28 305(b) data in new ways may help develop new empirically driven strategies for accelerating
29 CWA progress and merits further investigation.

30 **Introduction**

31 In the United States, the Clean Water Act (CWA) is the primary legislation driving
32 surface water quality management. The goal of the CWA is to “restore and maintain the
33 chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the Nation’s waters” [1]. The CWA establishes
34 programs that the US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), states, and USEPA-
35 authorized Native American tribes [2,3] must implement to achieve this goal. States must define
36 water quality standards necessary to protect aquatic life, recreation, and other beneficial uses of
37 water targeted for protection. USEPA reviews and either approves each state-established
38 standard or disapproves and promulgates a standard. In addition, the CWA requires a permit for
39 point source discharges and dredge and fill material discharges to surface water; identification of
40 maximum pollutant inputs that can occur while still meeting state water quality standards (total
41 maximum daily loads, TMDLs) for impaired waters; state programs to address nonpoint source
42 pollution; and state antidegradation policies for maintaining water quality in waters where
43 standards are achieved, among other components. Together, these CWA requirements are
44 intended to achieve water quality standards and thereby protect beneficial uses of water.

45 The CWA includes multiple provisions requiring states and USEPA to document
46 progress towards achieving CWA goals. Section 305(b) requires states to submit a biennial
47 report to USEPA documenting whether applicable water quality standards have been achieved
48 for all state navigable waters, and USEPA to summarize and transmit this information to the U.S.
49 Congress. In addition, section 314 requires “an identification and classification according to
50 eutrophic condition of all publicly owned lakes” to be included in state 305(b) reports, and CWA
51 section 303(d) requires states identify and develop priority rankings for impaired waters that
52 require a TMDL. Since 2002, USEPA has requested states submit a single biennial ‘Integrated

53 Report' (IR) that fulfills all three reporting requirements [4]. The CWA requires USEPA to
54 review and either approve each state list of impaired waters requiring a TMDL (§ 303(d) list) or
55 disapprove and promulgate a modified list for the state [5,6].

56 State 305(b) data document whether each state water is impaired (not achieving one or
57 more standards), unimpaired (achieving all assessed standards) or not assessed but also have
58 several limitations. Because states do not have sufficient resources to monitor and assess all state
59 waters and all applicable water quality standards every two years, each state 305(b) report
60 typically includes updated assessment information for a subset of state standards in a small
61 fraction of state waters. For each water body, water quality standards attainment decisions are
62 typically based on targeted waterbody-specific monitoring for selected water quality standards.
63 After a state has assessed a water body, its impairment status remains the same in subsequent
64 biennial reports until new monitoring data become available and prompt an updated assessment.
65 State 305(b) reports therefore may not reflect recent water quality data for all state waters, are
66 not comprehensive, and 305(b) data patterns may not be representative of those in the entire
67 population of state waters.

68 In response to these limitations, and to water quality standards and assessment methods
69 inconsistencies across states, USEPA developed probabilistic monitoring survey methods to
70 describe water quality status and trends at regional and national scales [7-10]. States use 305(b)
71 data primarily to fulfill CWA reporting requirements and support local water quality
72 management decisions. Some states also use state-scale probability surveys to estimate the
73 percent of state waters achieving specific water quality standards, describe the status of waters at
74 the state scale based on bioassessment, or document state-scale patterns for parameters of interest

75 [11-12]. USEPA used both state 305(b) data and national-scale probabilistic survey results to
76 fulfill its 305(b) reporting requirements to Congress [13].

77 Although 305(b) data have limitations, analyzing 305(b) data trends is still important and
78 useful. State 305(b) data document progress towards achieving CWA administrative goals, and
79 ultimately determine requirements for TMDLs, point source discharge permits, and many other
80 CWA provisions contingent on standards attainment. Even in states with state probabilistic
81 monitoring surveys, states still typically use targeted nonrandom monitoring to assess if
82 applicable standards are achieved in each water body. One sample event at one randomly located
83 site within a water body from a probability survey is often not adequate for standards attainment
84 decisions. Therefore, to develop strategies to increase the proportion of waters achieving
85 applicable standards, states need to identify 305(b) data trends and associated drivers.

86 The objective of this study was to demonstrate how systematically analyzing 305(b) data
87 in new ways can help document CWA progress (or lack thereof) and associated drivers. Idaho
88 2002-2022 305(b) data were used to document temporal trends for the percent Idaho river and
89 stream (hereafter ‘stream’) kilometers (km) assessed, impaired (not achieving one or more water
90 quality standards), and unimpaired (achieving all assessed water quality standards). Stream status
91 changes across years were then systematically analyzed to evaluate the relative contribution of
92 assessment progress and restoration to observed 305(b) temporal trends. ‘Assessment progress’
93 was defined as progress assessing unassessed waters and correcting prior assessment errors.
94 ‘Restoration’ was defined as when a water body changes from not achieving to achieving all
95 assessed standards because water quality improved. Results suggest novel systematic analyses of
96 305(b) data can help identify strategies for accelerating CWA progress.

97 **Materials and Methods**

98 *Idaho Integrated Report Data*

99 Data from all of Idaho's IRs since 2002 (2002, 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018/2020,
100 and 2022) were compiled to evaluate progress towards CWA goals for Idaho streams. Analyses
101 focused on streams because, as of 2022, the Idaho Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ)
102 had assessed 71% of the state's >148,000 stream km using relatively consistent methods since
103 2002 [14,15] (Fig 1). State-scale temporal trends for percent lake surface area impaired would be
104 strongly biased by the relatively few large lakes and reservoirs that comprise most of state lentic
105 surface area and are the primary focus of monitoring efforts. Out of 641 lentic systems in the
106 state, the 47 that exceed 4 km² surface area represent 90% of total state lentic surface area.

107

108 **Fig 1.** Idaho river and stream status in Idaho's 2022 Integrated Report.

109 Starting with Idaho's 2002 IR, DEQ developed and managed IR data for streams using
110 relatively consistent methods across years. Streams were delineated into discrete assessment
111 units (AUs) based on National Hydrography Dataset version 2 (NHDPlus v2, 1:100 k resolution)
112 [16]. Idaho's streams are divided into 5,908 AUs [17]. AUs were delineated primarily based on
113 stream order [18,19], although land use, management, and ownership were also considered in
114 some cases. Generally, 1st and 2nd order streams within a contiguous 12-digit hydrologic unit code
115 subwatershed were lumped into a single AU, each 3rd and 4th order stream were a discrete AU,
116 and streams \geq 5th order were divided into multiple AUs. Compliance with water quality
117 standards and beneficial use support were assessed following standardized agency guidance
118 [14,15] and methods described in IR documents. DEQ managed and reported IR data using

119 Microsoft Excel for the 2002 IR, using USEPA's Assessment Database (ADB) software [20] for
120 2008-2016 IRs, and using EPA's cloud-based Assessment and Total Maximum Daily Load
121 Tracking and Implementation System (ATTAINS) software [21] for the 2018/2020 and 2022
122 IRs. Data compilation methods and associated quality assurance checks, compiled data, and R
123 code used for analyses are included in supporting information.

124 In each IR cycle, DEQ used recent (< 5 years old) data that were either collected by
125 DEQ, submitted by external entities for the IR through a public call for data, or were otherwise
126 publicly readily available, to assess support of beneficial uses. A data quality screening process
127 was used to determine if external data had sufficient rigor and documentation to be used in the
128 assessment process [14,15]. Generally, DEQ's assessment process was to i) identify beneficial
129 uses of water requiring protection for an AU based on Idaho water quality standards [22], ii)
130 compare any available water chemistry data to applicable water quality standards, and iii) and if
131 available within the AU, use macroinvertebrate, fish, and habitat data collected through DEQ's
132 Beneficial Use Reconnaissance Program (BURP) bioassessment program to assess support of
133 cold water aquatic life beneficial use. Using a targeted non-random monitoring design, DEQ
134 collected BURP data in over 200 wadable 1st-4th order stream reaches throughout Idaho each
135 year in most years since 1993 [23,24]. Multiple fish, habitat, and macroinvertebrate metrics
136 measured by the BURP program are compared to those in reference streams with a similar
137 physiographic setting to assess support of cold-water aquatic life use based on BURP data.
138 Detailed assessment methods are described in Idaho's waterbody assessment guidance [14,15]
139 and IR documents. For each assessed AU, each assessed beneficial use requiring protection was
140 classified as either not assessed, not supporting, or fully supporting, and the cause(s) of
141 impairment was determined based on which monitored parameter(s) violated water quality

142 standards. Within each IR cycle, beneficial uses assessed varied across AUs depending on which
143 uses applied and data were available. Once an AU was assessed, beneficial use support status
144 remained the same in subsequent IR cycles unless new data prompted a revised assessment.

145 Starting with Idaho's 2018/2020 Integrated Report, DEQ split all AUs crossing federally
146 recognized Native American reservation boundaries to create separate AUs inside and outside
147 the boundary. All AUs within federally recognized reservation boundaries were reported as "not
148 assessed" to comply with an Idaho tribal waters policy developed collaboratively by DEQ, EPA,
149 and Idaho Native American tribes [25]. Child AUs outside the reservation boundary resulting
150 from the split generally retained the impairment status of the parent AU prior to the split. When
151 the policy was implemented, 3.6% of stream km were inside a reservation and therefore
152 classified as not assessed. In addition, since the 2002 IR, Idaho has assessed AUs entirely within
153 federally designated Wilderness or certain roadless area categories defined in federal roadless
154 rules with no readily available monitoring data as unimpaired, presuming all beneficial uses are
155 supported due to limited anthropogenic watershed disturbances. Across the 2002-2022 IRs, 4.3-
156 6.7% of stream km were placed in Category 1.

157

158 ***CWA Progress Temporal Trends***

159 CWA progress temporal trends were evaluated by calculating the percent stream km
160 assessed, impaired, and unimpaired within each IR reporting cycle. Streams were impaired if one
161 or more applicable water quality standards were exceeded, and unimpaired if all assessed water
162 quality standards were achieved. For this analysis, streams within reservation boundaries were
163 included when calculating total state stream km and percent km by status prior to implementation

164 of the tribal waters policy (2002-2016 IRs) and were excluded for calculations after
165 implementation of the tribal waters policy (2018/2020 IRs) consistent with policy
166 implementation history. Tribal waters policy implementation had minimal effect on state-wide
167 temporal stream impairment trends and trend driver patterns (see results).

168

169 ***Trend Drivers***

170 Temporal trend drivers were evaluated by systematically analyzing AU status change
171 reasons. For 2008-2022 IR cycles, each AU/cycle combination was assigned to one change
172 reason class based on if and how AU impairment status changed from the prior cycle. An AU
173 had ‘no change’ if its impairment status (not assessed, impaired, unimpaired) did not change
174 from the prior cycle. Otherwise, AU status change was classified as either ‘restored (impaired to
175 unimpaired)’, or into one of several classes representing assessment progress: ‘not assessed to
176 impaired’, ‘not assessed to unimpaired’, ‘unimpaired to impaired’, ‘impaired to not assessed’ or
177 ‘unimpaired to not assessed’. The percent stream km within each class were calculated for each
178 IR.

179 Streams classified as ‘restored (impaired to unimpaired)’ potentially represent cases
180 where the CWA goal of restoring water quality was achieved. However, AUs may also change
181 from impaired to unimpaired because the original impairment decision was incorrect rather than
182 because water quality improved. For example, if water quality data were associated with the
183 wrong AU, assessment protocols were applied incorrectly, or improved monitoring or
184 assessment methods indicated the original impairment decision was incorrect. For each AU
185 changing from impaired to unimpaired, available documentation was reviewed. Each IR 2008-

186 2022 included a ‘delisted waters’ appendix documenting AU/cause combinations changing from
187 impaired to not impaired. For each case, the appendix included text justifying for the change that
188 was USEPA reviewed as part of its 303(d) list approval decisions. Delisting justification text,
189 along with other relevant documentation when available, were reviewed and the status change
190 reason was classified as ‘original assessment incorrect’, ‘water quality standards attained’, or
191 ‘unclear’. Change reasons were classified as ‘unclear’ if available information was insufficient to
192 assign a change reason. The percent stream km changing from impaired to unimpaired for each
193 reason was calculated for each IR cycle.

194

195 **Results and Discussion**

196 From 2002-2022, the percent of Idaho stream km assessed increased from 59% to 71%
197 (Fig 2). Concurrently, the percent impaired km increased from 35% to 39%, and the percent
198 unimpaired km increased from 24% to 32% (Fig 2). Because calculated percent km impaired and
199 unimpaired were based on targeted nonrandom monitoring, these percentages likely are not
200 representative of the entire population of state streams. A comprehensive and unbiased estimate
201 of the percent state stream km unimpaired and impaired would require collecting monitoring data
202 needed to assess each of Idaho’s >100 water quality criteria using a probabilistic survey design.
203 Although EPA’s probabilistic stream monitoring programs included Idaho streams, they were not
204 designed to assess compliance with Idaho water quality standards; they were designed to
205 generate unbiased estimates of percent stream km in EPA-defined ‘good’, ‘fair’, or ‘poor’
206 condition classes at the regional and national scale [26]. During 2013 and 2015, DEQ’s Idaho
207 Wadable Streams Survey collected BURP data using a probabilistic design to estimate the

208 percent of state 1st-4th order wadable stream km supporting cold water aquatic life use (71.2%
 209 supporting, 28.8% not supporting) [25]. However, the survey evaluated support of only one
 210 beneficial use (cold water aquatic life) for a subset of Idaho streams based only on BURP data,
 211 whereas percentages calculated here are based on all readily available data and assessed
 212 beneficial uses across all Idaho streams. Although percentages calculated here may not be
 213 representative of the entire population of state waters, they are still useful; systematically
 214 analyzing 305(b) data can help identify programmatic reasons for CWA progress (or lack
 215 thereof) and complement probabilistic surveys.

216

217 **Fig 2.** Percent Idaho stream km assessed, impaired, and not impaired.

218

219 **Table 1.** Percent stream km changing status by status change class during each integrated report
 220 cycle.

Status Change Class		2008	2010	2012	2014	2016	2018/ 2020	2022
1	no change	88.1	93.8	96.8	96.2	96.5	98.1	96.1
2	unimpaired to impaired	2.0	1.2	0.6	0.1	0.7	0.3	2.7
3	not assessed to impaired	2.1	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.7
4	not assessed to unimpaired	3.6	2.0	1.6	2.3	1.0	0.9	0.3
5	assessed to not assessed	1.2	1.2	0.4	0.2	1.0	0.1	0.05
5a	impaired to not assessed	1.0	1.2	0.04	0.2	0.1	0.06	0
5b	unimpaired to not assessed	0.2	0	0.3	0	0.9	0.06	0.05
6	restored (impaired to unimpaired)	3.0	1.1	0.2	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.05
6a	water quality standards attained	0.5	0.1	0.02	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.01
6b	original assessment was incorrect	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.04
6c	restored reason unclear	2.3	0.2	0.01	0.1	0.02	0	0
status change total ($\sum 2-6$)		11.9	6.2	3.3	3.8	3.4	2.0	3.8
newly assessed ($\sum 3,4$)		5.7	2.7	2.1	2.6	1.3	1.1	1.0
newly impaired ($\sum 2,3$)		4.1	1.9	1.1	0.4	1.0	0.5	3.4
assessment-driven status change ($\sum 2-5$)		8.9	5.1	3.1	2.9	3.0	1.5	3.7
corrected assessment errors ($\sum 5, 6b$)		1.4	2.1	0.6	0.9	1.3	0.5	0.09

221

222 Idaho 305(b) temporal trends (Fig 2) were driven primarily by assessment progress rather
223 than restoration. Assessment-driven status changes accounted for $\geq 75\%$ of all stream km
224 changing status each cycle (Table 1). The percent stream km changing due to assessment
225 progress was at least 3 times greater than percent km changing from impaired to unimpaired each
226 cycle. In addition, the observed increase in percent unimpaired stream km appears driven
227 primarily by progress monitoring previously unassessed waters in good condition. More stream
228 km changed from not assessed to unimpaired than for any other change reason in 6 out of 7 IR
229 cycles. Monitoring previously unassessed waters in good condition also prompted more status
230 changes than restoration. In each cycle fewer stream km changed from impaired to unimpaired
231 than changed from not assessed to unimpaired (Table 1). In each report $\leq 5\%$ of all status
232 changes were due to water quality improvement. Correcting assessment errors was the primary
233 reason streams changed from impaired to unimpaired rather than water quality improvement.
234 Less than 25% of stream km changing from impaired to unimpaired each cycle changed status
235 because water quality improved. In all reporting cycles except 2008, more stream km changed
236 from impaired to unimpaired because the original impairment decision was incorrect than
237 because water quality improved (Table 1). For the 2008 IR, this study classified the restoration
238 reason as 'unclear' for many streams because limited or unclear status change justification was
239 included in the 2008 IR. Restoration reasons were classified as unclear for a much smaller
240 fraction of waters later cycles as IR data management and documentation practices improved
241 (Table 1).

242 Assessment errors were common. Status changes due to assessment error correction
243 include streams changing from impaired to not assessed, not impaired to not assessed, and
244 changing from impaired to not impaired because assessment errors were corrected. Together,

245 these represented 2-38% of all stream km changing status per cycle, and 2-43% of all
246 assessment-driven changes each cycle (Table 1). The relatively high assessment error rate is
247 partly a legacy of coarse assessment methods used prior to 2002 and is probably not unique to
248 Idaho. In response to citizen lawsuits related to limited USEPA implementation of the CWA's
249 TMDL program, in 2000 the U.S. Congress commissioned a National Research Council (NRC)
250 evaluation of the scientific basis for CWA assessment and TMDL processes [27]. The NRC
251 report recommended USEPA allow states to develop a both a 'preliminary list' of potentially
252 impaired waters needing further investigation separate from the list of impaired waters required
253 by the CWA (303(d) list) because "many waters now on state 303d lists were placed there
254 without the benefit of adequate water quality standards, data, or waterbody assessment" [27].
255 USEPA did not implement this recommendation; USEPA IR guidance does not allow states to
256 develop a preliminary list [4,28]. In Idaho, citizens groups successfully sued USEPA for
257 approving Idaho's 1992 303(d) list because it did not adequately consider all readily available
258 water quality data [29]. A court order led to USEPA promulgating a revised version of Idaho's
259 1994 303(d) list that increased the number of 303(d)-listed water bodies from 62 to 962 and
260 established a timeline for developing TMDLs for these waters [29, 30]. While subsequent
261 monitoring and assessment confirmed many added waters were impaired, USEPA also added
262 some waters based on failure to meet water quality objectives established by partner agencies
263 such as the U.S. Forest Service rather than based on compliance with Idaho water quality
264 standards, or in some cases based on qualitative assessments or public desire to maintain existing
265 water quality for certain waters [30]. Based on delisting documentation reviewed for restored
266 waters, the legacy of this lawsuit, plus unrelated assessment errors such as associating data with
267 the wrong AU, using data with unknown or limited QA/QC documentation, and applying BURP

268 bioassessment methods to stream types they weren't designed for (ephemeral streams, lake
269 outlets, beaver-influenced streams, etc.), all contributed to assessment errors corrected 2002-
270 2022.

271 It is perhaps not surprising that 2002-2022 trends were driven primarily by assessment
272 progress. Considering 49% of stream km were unassessed but only 35% were impaired in 2002,
273 there was greater potential for assessment progress than restoration at the beginning of the study
274 period. In addition, although the CWA establishes a permit process, minimum wastewater
275 treatment practices, and associated compliance enforcement mechanisms for point source
276 discharges, nonpoint sources do not require a permit under the CWA and are managed primarily
277 through a voluntary adaptive management process in Idaho. State statute [31] and Idaho's
278 nonpoint source management plan [32] specify state and federal land management agencies
279 responsible for identifying and implementing appropriate nonpoint source pollution control
280 measures in Idaho. Idaho's nonpoint source management rules [33] envision a process where
281 designated management agencies implement and iteratively modify nonpoint source pollution
282 control practices as needed until water quality standards are achieved. Rules state that "violations
283 of water quality standards which occur in spite of implementation of best management practices
284 will not be subject to enforcement action" [34] and instead best management practices will be
285 evaluated and modified as needed. Idaho rules also require best management practices
286 addressing agricultural nonpoint sources be adopted on a voluntary basis [35]. For some streams,
287 the 20-year period examined in this study also may not have been sufficient for point or nonpoint
288 source control efforts to achieve water quality standards. To my knowledge, similar trend
289 analyses have not been conducted in other states for comparison. The relative contribution of
290 assessment progress and restoration may vary across states with differing water quality

291 standards, monitoring and assessment approaches, resources, and pollution control approaches.
292 Comparative analyses across states would likely be informative. Considering all state 305(b) data
293 are now stored in a standardized national system (ATTAINS) [21], it may be possible to
294 implement similar analyses in other states or at a national scale.

295

296 **Conclusions**

297 This study demonstrated a novel approach for evaluating 305(b) data. Analyses revealed
298 that Idaho CWA progress 2002-2022 was driven primarily by assessment progress rather than
299 water quality improvement, and assessment errors were common. Analyses focused on the state
300 spatial scale, but the same methods could be used at smaller (basin and subbasin) spatial scales
301 (see supporting information). Results suggest potential strategies for accelerating CWA progress
302 in Idaho. At the start of the study period, more stream km had potential for assessment than
303 restoration (49% unassessed, 35% impaired), but as of 2022 more have potential for restoration
304 (39% impaired, 29% unassessed). Therefore, restoration success rates will likely become an
305 increasingly important driver of 305(b) temporal trends in the future. This study identified AUs
306 restored due to water quality improvement. Describing the characteristics of these streams
307 (watershed landcover, impairing pollutant(s), presence/absence of a TMDL and point source
308 permits, restoration funding and actions, etc.) may develop a profile of streams with a high
309 probability of restoration success. This analysis defined restoration as occurring when an AU
310 changes from impaired to unimpaired due to water quality improvement, consistent with the
311 CWA. Partial restoration also occurs when a pollutant no longer impairs beneficial uses within
312 an AU, but the AU remains impaired by one or more other pollutants. Systematically analyzing

313 characteristics of partially-restored AUs may also yield useful information. Previously,
314 interviews and surveys of state and federal staff implementing the CWA have been used to
315 develop recommendations for accelerating CWA progress [36]. Novel analysis of IR data also
316 holds potential to develop new empirically-driven strategies and merits further investigation.

317

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323

324 **Supporting Information**

325 All data and R code used for analyses, Idaho IR documents 2002-2022, government reports cited
326 in references, and supporting files are available through Open Science Framework at:

327 https://osf.io/z4s89/?view_only=cb3730222db94b5696d994a97345fea8. Supporting files include
328 a description of data compilation methods (S1) and 305(b) temporal trend plots at the basin and
329 subbasin scale (S2).

330

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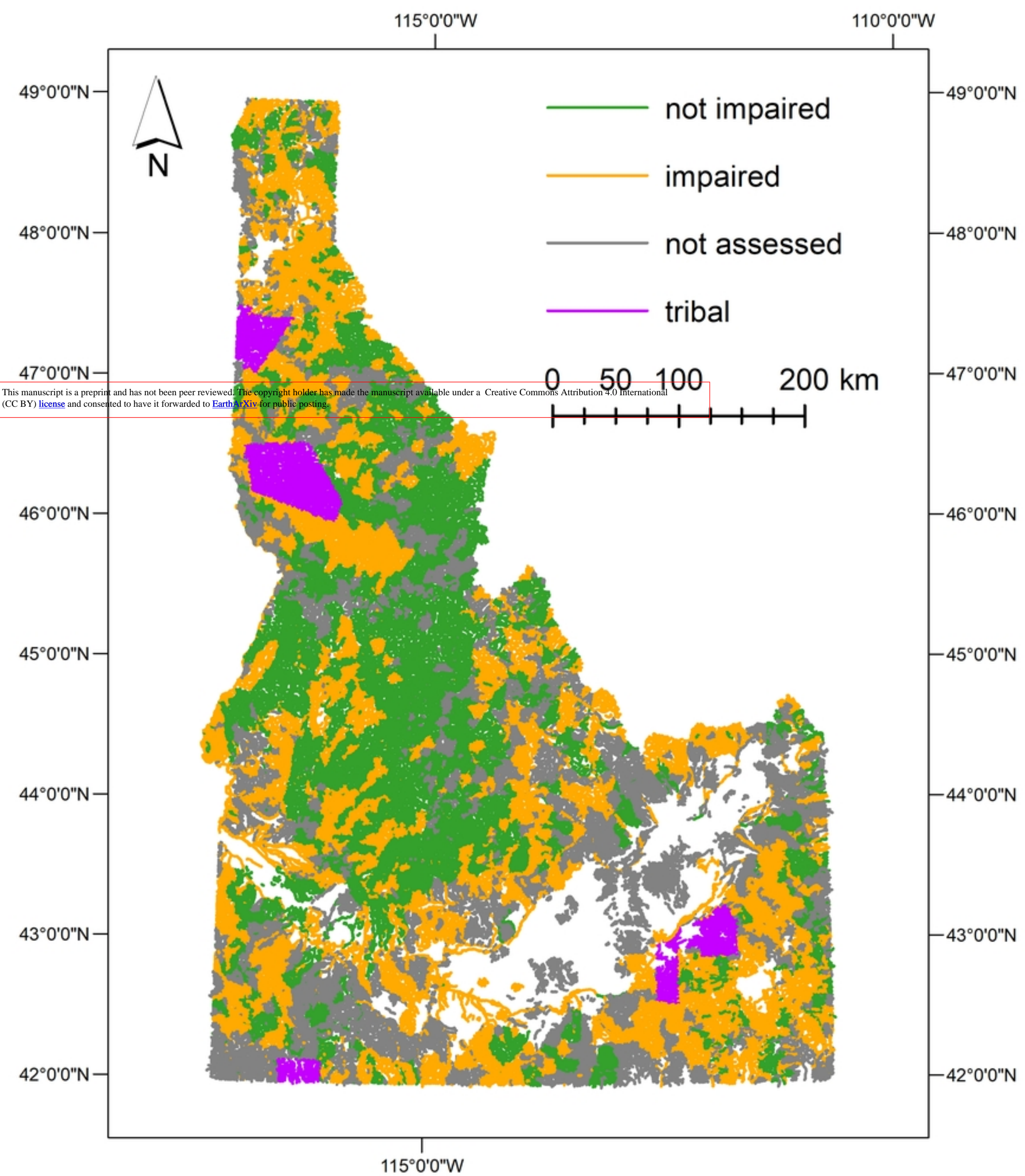


Figure1

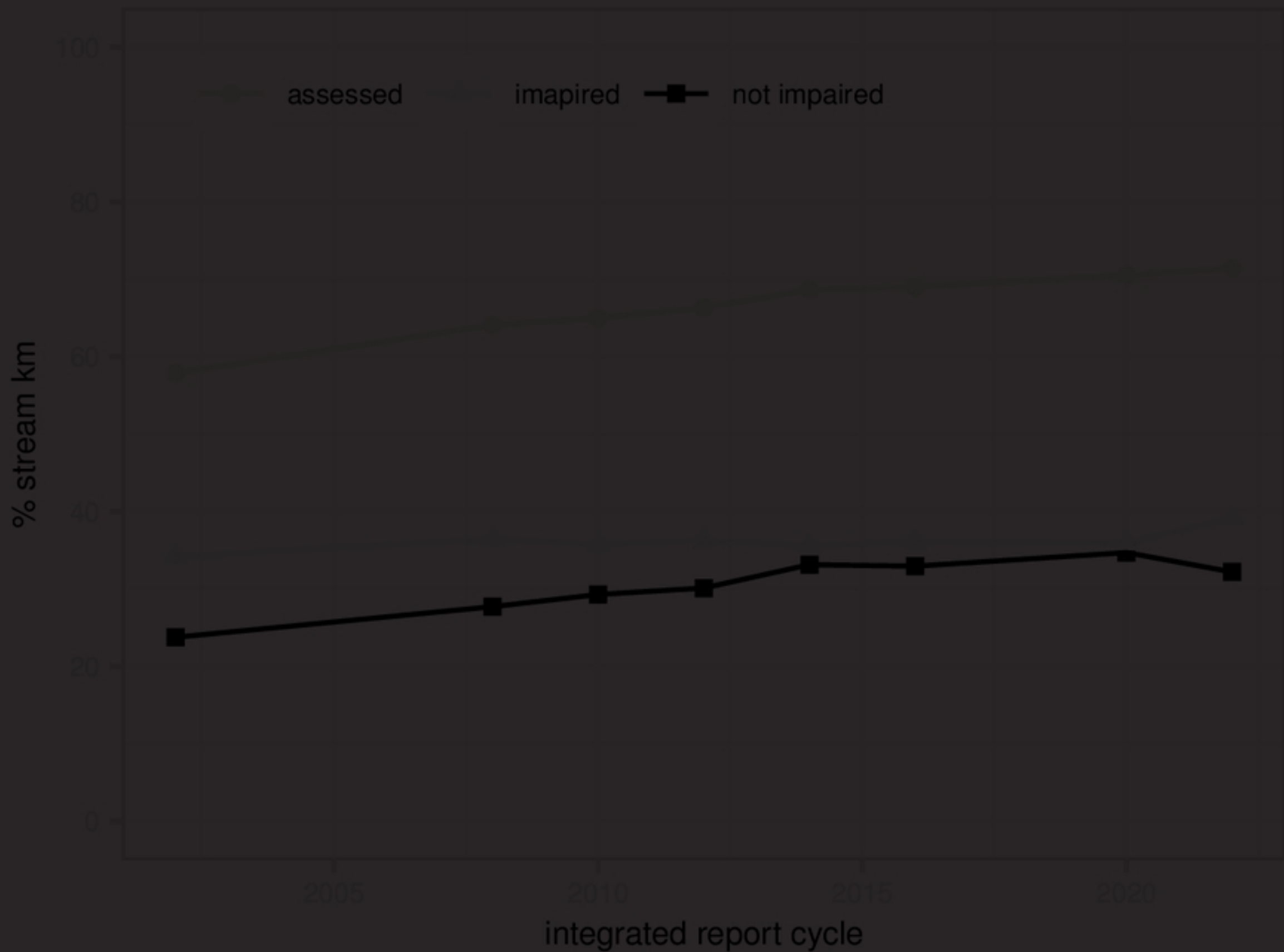


Figure2