

Hypereutrophication, Hydrogen Sulfide, and Environmental Injustices: Mechanisms and Knowledge Gaps at the Salton Sea

Diego Centeno^{1,2}, Ryan Sinclair³, Quinn Montgomery¹, Aydee Palomino⁴, Juliana Taboada⁴, Alejandra Lopez¹, Consuelo Marquez, Isabella B. Arzeno-Soltero², Mara A. Freilich^{1,5}

¹Department of Earth, Environmental, and Planetary Sciences, Brown University, Providence, RI

²Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of California Los Angeles, CA

³Department of Environmental Microbiology, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, CA

⁴Alianza Coachella Valley, Coachella, CA

⁵Division of Applied Mathematics, Brown University, Providence, RI

Corresponding authors: Mara Freilich (mara_freilich@brown.edu), Isabella B. Arzeno-Soltero (arzenosoltero@ucla.edu)

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2 **and Knowledge Gaps at the Salton Sea**

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4 **Taboada⁴, Alejandra Lopez¹, Consuelo Marquez, Isabella B. Arzeno-Soltero², Mara A.**
5 **Freilich^{1,5}**

6 ¹Department of Earth, Environmental, and Planetary Sciences, Brown University, Providence, RI

7 ²Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of California Los Angeles, CA

8 ³Department of Environmental Microbiology, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, CA

9 ⁴Alianza Coachella Valley, Coachella, CA

10 ⁵Division of Applied Mathematics, Brown University, Providence, RI

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12 Corresponding author: Mara Freilich (mara_freilich@brown.edu), Isabella B. Arzeno-Soltero
13 (arzenosoltero@ucla.edu)

14

15 **Key Points:**

- 16 ● The Salton Sea is a major source of elevated hydrogen sulfide emissions, with
17 concentrations likely underestimated due to limited monitoring.
18 ● Sensor placement and wind direction are crucial in H₂S monitoring, highlighting the
19 distinction between measuring and detecting emissions.
20 ● Environmental justice concerns arise as vulnerable communities are chronically exposed
21 to harmful H₂S levels.

22 **Abstract**

23 The Salton Sea, California's largest lake, is undergoing significant environmental
24 degradation, which has adverse health effects on nearby rural communities, who are primarily
25 Latinx and Torres Martinez Desert Cahuilla Indian. Over the past two decades, the lake's water
26 levels have steadily dropped. Water conditions in the Sea, characterized by low oxygen and high
27 nutrient levels, favor the production of H₂S. This study investigates the connection between the
28 Sea's changing conditions, particularly the worsening water quality, and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S)
29 emissions using air quality and water quality data collected since 2013 and 2004, respectively.
30 H₂S concentrations often exceed California's air quality standards, particularly in areas near the
31 Sea during summer months. Wind patterns substantially impact detection of H₂S. When wind is
32 blowing from the sea towards communities with sensors, which are located to the northwest of
33 the sea, H₂S is detected significantly more often. Current monitoring efforts underestimate the
34 frequency and distribution of H₂S that exceeds air quality standards. An air sensor deployed in
35 shallow water over the Salton Sea by a community science program detected substantially higher
36 concentrations of H₂S, particularly when wind was blowing over exposed sediment and shallow
37 water, suggesting that these are a significant and overlooked H₂S source at the Salton Sea. These
38 findings highlight the need for improved air quality monitoring and more effective
39 environmental management policies to protect public health in the region. The study emphasizes
40 the importance of community-led solutions and provides insights relevant to other regions
41 experiencing similar environmental crises.

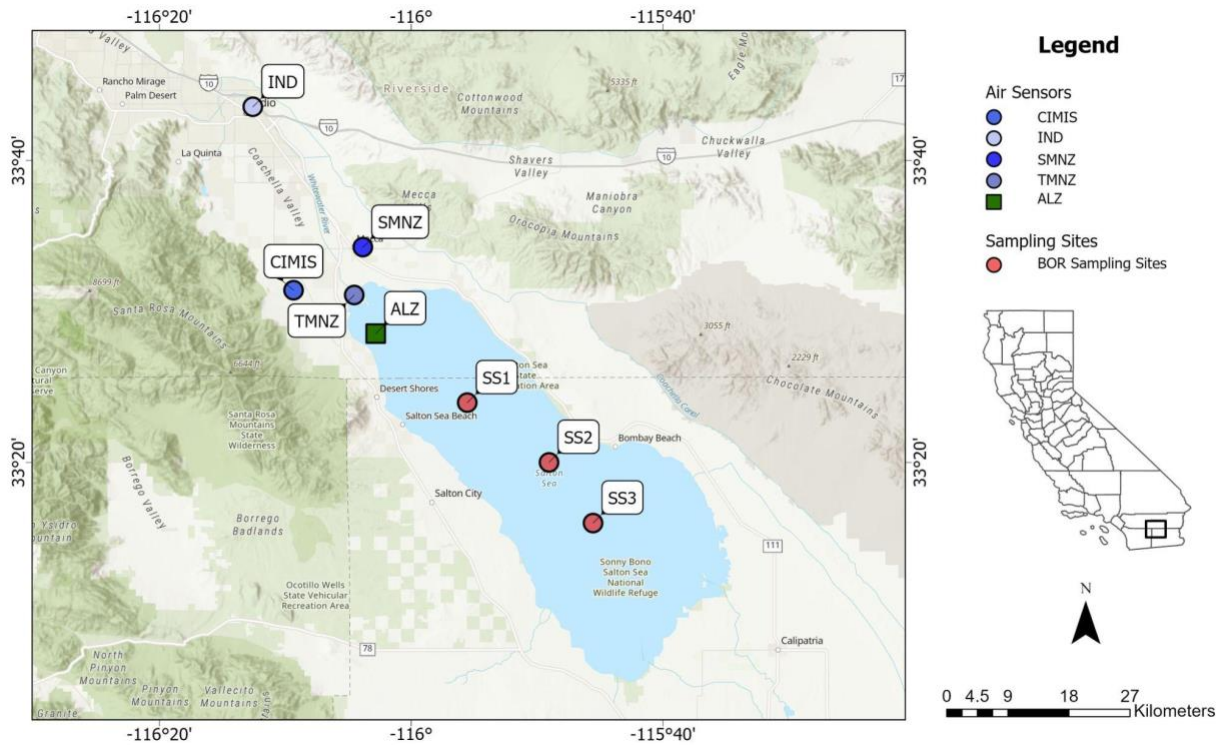
42 43 **Plain Language Summary**

44 The Salton Sea is a heavily contaminated shrinking lake that affects the health of
45 surrounding vulnerable communities in the Coachella and Imperial Valleys. Due to high-nutrient
46 agricultural runoff entering the lake and resulting low oxygen levels, the lake often emits
47 hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), a harmful gas. The study aims to understand what causes H₂S emissions
48 with the aim of predicting and reducing emissions. Using data collected over the past two
49 decades, the connection between water conditions, air quality, and wind patterns was examined
50 to understand when and where harmful H₂S levels occur. During the study period, H₂S
51 concentrations near the Salton Sea frequently exceed California's air quality standards,
52 especially during summer and when winds blow towards communities. Community-deployed
53 sensors detected higher levels of H₂S due to the placement within the sea and suggested
54 emissions from exposed sediment and shallow water. However, current monitoring efforts
55 underreport the scale of H₂S impacts. These findings serve as evidence for the urgent need to
56 improve air quality monitoring and policies to protect public health in the Salton Sea region.
57 Community-led solutions as the ones employed in this study are critical for overcoming
58 environmental injustices and serve as a framework for similar situations worldwide.

59 **1 Introduction**

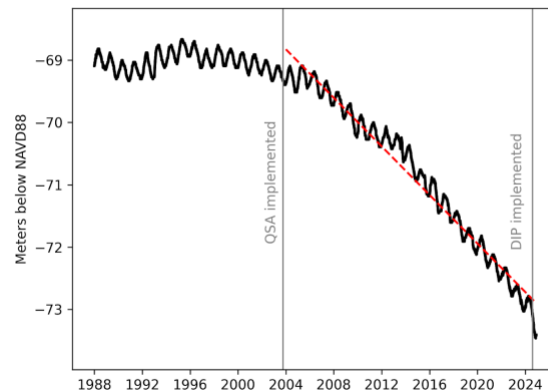
60 Amidst accelerated climate change, the Salton Sea, the largest lake in California, poses a
61 unique threat to the health and well-being of the surrounding rural environmental justice
62 communities. The Salton Sea is located 262 km east of Los Angeles, California in the Colorado
63 Desert subdivision of the Sonoran Desert (Figure 1) in a basin which experiences extreme heat
64 with temperatures reaching over 43°C in the summers, and cold winters with lows of 1°C. The
65 lake is 58 km long, 24 km wide, presently reaches depths up to 11 m and its present water level
66 is 73 meters below sea level (USGS, 2023, Tompson, 2016). The Sea, as we currently know it,

67 formed in 1905, when Colorado River water breached an irrigation canal and spilled into the
 68 Salton Sink. However, previous bodies of water such as Lake Cahuilla have intermittently
 69 occupied the Salton Basin across history (Voyles 2021, Ross 2020).



70
 71 **Figure 1** Map of Salton Sea and Coachella (NW) and Imperial (SE) valleys with air sensor locations and sampling sites.

72 Considered an endorheic basin (a basin that retains water and allows no outflow), the main
 73 inflow for the Sea is agricultural runoff from the highly productive agricultural lands
 74 surrounding the basin with a minor contribution from rainfall. Exacerbated water shortages in the
 75 Western United States, driven by climate change, local policies like the Quantification
 76 Settlement Agreement (QSA), and rising temperatures, have caused Salton Sea water levels to
 77 decline by 0.2 meters per year for nearly two decades resulting in a decrease in the lake depth of
 78 approximately 4 meters since 2003 (USGS, 2023; Figure 2). This has led to serious health
 79 impacts, including higher concentrations of dissolved substances (Frie, 2017) and increased
 80 exposure to dust from emissive playa (Parajuli et al., 2018). In order to provide actionable
 81 information about climate impacts on this desert community, we strive to more precisely
 82 establish the connection between the Salton Sea and the health of nearby communities.



83
 84 **Figure 2** Salton Sea water level relative to NAVD88, as recorded by the USGS Westmorland water gauge (station # 10254005).
 85 The vertical grey lines denote the enactment of the Quantification Settlement Agreement (QSA) and the Deficit Irrigation
 86 Program (DIP). The dashed red line represents the linear fit, with a slope of -0.2 m/year.

87 The communities surrounding the Salton Sea are largely Latinx and Torres Martinez Desert
 88 Cahuilla Indian, with over 23% living below the poverty line in the zipcode that straddles the
 89 north shore (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). Many of the residents are farmworkers, working on the
 90 same fields that eventually run-off to the Salton Sea. Due to the demographic and socioeconomic
 91 make-up, as well as the high environmental pollution burden, these communities can be
 92 characterized as subject to environmental injustices (Raphael and Matsuoka, 2024).

93 Air quality is a particular concern for communities in the Salton Sea region. Excessively
 94 high asthma rates and pulmonary illness among the surrounding communities have been
 95 documented recently (Miao et al., 2022; CIRS, 2021; Sinclair et al., 2021; Farzan et al., 2019;
 96 Johnston et al., 2019; Sinclair et al., 2018). The high prevalence of respiratory issues are often
 97 attributed to dust from the dried lake bed (Biddle et al., 2022). However, recent studies (Biddle et
 98 al. 2021) have suggested that aerosolized particles from the Salton Sea seawater can induce an
 99 inflammatory lung response in an animal model, opening the possibility that a wide range of
 100 particles could have health impacts on local communities.

101 Another prominent air quality concern is malodors due to hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) emitted
 102 from the Sea. Some established sources of H_2S include oil and gas extraction and processing,
 103 agricultural activities — particularly manure — biomass recycling, geothermal power plant
 104 activity, and volcanoes. However, In the Coachella and Imperial Valleys, the Salton Sea itself is
 105 a source of H_2S emissions. It is already known that high nutrient loading, combined with strong
 106 summer stratification in the Salton Sea can lead to eutrophication, hypoxic conditions, and H_2S
 107 production by anaerobic sulfate-reducing bacteria in the Salton Sea bottom waters (Reese et al.,
 108 2008; Watts et al., 2001).

109 Studies conducted in similar environmental justice communities report adverse health
 110 effects such as headaches, irritability, fatigue, joint pain, nausea, respiratory illnesses, and sleep
 111 apnea from chronic low-level exposure to H_2S (1-1000 ppb) (Quist and Johnson, 2023; Lewis
 112 and Copley, 2015; Legator et al., 2001, Aatamila, 2011). While acute H_2S exposure indoors is a
 113 regulated environmental safety factor, much less is known about sources and impacts of chronic
 114 H_2S exposure (Banydeen et al., 2024; Lim et al., 2016).

115 Sulfur chemistry is mediated by microbial organisms and environmental conditions. While
 116 sulfate is reduced to sulfide in environments with low oxygen, when sulfide reaches the surface
 117 of the Sea it is prone to either oxidation, in which case it may precipitate as a sulfur mineral such

118 as gypsum (calcium sulfate dihydrate) (Tiffany et al. 2007) or outgas as H₂S. Previous studies
119 have identified gypsum precipitation events wherein gypsum crystals blanket the surface of the
120 Salton Sea. While this has been observed to occur year-round, the largest gypsum area coverage
121 (GAC) occurs during the summertime (Ma et al., 2020).

122 By leveraging data derived from air monitors and sensors, in-situ sampling, and remote
123 sensing, this study aims to characterize the spatial and temporal variability of H₂S exposure in
124 environmental justice communities in the Coachella and Imperial Valleys and its relationship to
125 physical and chemical conditions in the Salton Sea. We find that wind patterns coupled with
126 hydrological and physicochemical properties are both prerequisites for the outgassing of H₂S and
127 transport from the Salton Sea into nearby communities. Section 2 details the underlying data
128 origin and analysis methods while section 3 unfolds the results, and Section 4 elaborates on the
129 implications of these results, particularly as they pertain to the environmental justice and health
130 of the Coachella Valley community. Section 5 concludes this study and suggests future research
131 directions.

132 **2 Materials and Methods**

133 The data used for this analysis consist of publicly available in-situ physicochemical and
134 meteorological samples (Figure 1), as well as remote sensing measurements.

135 2.1 Physiochemical data

136 As part of their 2004–2020 monitoring program, the Bureau of Reclamation (BOR)
137 collected a wide range of in-situ physicochemical data. For this study, we focus on a subset of
138 these parameters: nitrogen (mg/L), dissolved oxygen (DO, mg/L), sulfate (mg/L), salinity (psu),
139 and temperature (°C). Nitrogen concentrations were derived from a combination of nitrate and
140 nitrite compounds (Lower Colorado Region BOR, 2020), with water samples collected
141 approximately once per season at the surface and bottom of each of the BOR's three sites (SS1,
142 SS2, and SS3; Fig. 1). Although the exact depth of the water column varied intra- and inter-
143 annually due to net evaporation, all bottom samples were collected from depths exceeding 10
144 meters.

145 Salinity and temperature contributions to density were accounted for by using a haline
146 contraction (α) and thermal expansion coefficient (β) computed through the equation of state of
147 seawater (TEOS-10). Stratification was approximated using the difference between surface and
148 bottom density measurements, normalized by the water column depth.

149 2.2. Meteorological and H₂S data

150 Wind velocity and hydrogen sulfide concentrations were taken from the South Coast Air
151 Quality Management District (SCAQMD; aqmd.gov) meteorological platforms and accessed
152 using a public records request. The data are 1-hour averages, and their availability varies by
153 instrument location, generally covering a 10-year time period between 2013 and 2024 (Table 1).
154 The 3 SCAQMD meteorological platforms are situated on the northern end of the Salton Sea
155 region (Figure 1). The Indio (IND; 33.708566, -116.215394) and Mecca (SMNZ; 33.571019, -
156 116.063823) monitors are located within the Indio and Mecca communities in the Coachella
157 Valley, respectively, while the Torres Martinez monitor (TMNZ; 33.518298, -116.075356)
158 borders the contemporary northwest Salton Sea shore. These monitors provide wind speed, wind
159 direction, and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) concentrations. In 2023, as part of a community science
160 initiative, Alianza Coachella Valley deployed an Aeroqual AQS-1 sensor above the northern
161 Salton Sea (33.475697, -116.046867) to monitor real-time hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) levels and

162 other pollutants (Fig. 1). This sensor continuously measures H₂S along with NO₂ and volatile
 163 organic compounds (VOCs). The real-time H₂S data collected by the sensor is publicly
 164 accessible on saltonseascience.org.

165 2.3 Remote Sensing

166 Satellite imagery was gathered for the years 2000-2023 from the MODIS (Moderate
 167 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) Terra satellite. High-resolution data in multiple spectral
 168 bands was utilized to compute a gypsum Index (GI) and a Gypsum Area Coverage (GAC)
 169 parameter, following the methodology proposed by Ma et al. (2020). To address the impact of
 170 occasional cloud cover, our analysis is limited to days when at least 95% of the Salton Sea's
 171 surface was free of cloud coverage.

172 Table 1: Dataset Sources, Timeframes and Variables

Dataset Type	Physicochemical	Meteorological	Remote Sensing
Source	Bureau of Reclamation	SCAQMD ¹ , CIMIS ² , SSET ³	MODIS TERRA
Years	2004-2020	2013-2024	2000-2023
Sites	SS1, SS2, SS3	Saul Martinez, Torres Martinez, Indio, Alianza	Salton Sea Area
Data	Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L), Sulfate (mg/L), Nitrite and Nitrate N (mg/L), Salinity (ppt), Temperature (°C)	Wind speed (m/s), Wind direction (compass degrees), H ₂ S (ppb)	Gypsum Index

- 173 1. South Coast Air Quality Monitoring District
 174 2. California Irrigation Management Information System
 175 3. Salton Sea Environmental Timeseries
 176

177 3 Results

178 3.1 H₂S Concentrations North of the Salton Sea Frequently Exceed California Standards

179 Monitors deployed by the South Coast Air Quality Monitoring District (SCAQMD),
 180 frequently show H₂S levels that exceed the California Air Resources Board (CARB) hourly
 181 exposure standard of 30 ppb (Fig. 3a) in communities within the Torres Martinez Reservation, as
 182 well as those in Mecca and Indio (Fig. 1). While the total number of hours exceeding this
 183 standard fluctuates from year to year (Fig. 3a), these exceedances are most commonly observed
 184 during the warmer months (June–September; Fig. 3b). To define seasons, we use an air

185 temperature climatology derived from data collected between 2020 and 2024 at the CIMIS Oasis
 186 meteorological station (Fig. 1). Summer corresponds to months when the air temperature is
 187 climatologically 5°C above the annual mean (June–September), while winter includes months
 188 when the air temperature is climatologically 5°C below the annual mean.

189 Distance plays a key role in H₂S exposure, with communities farther from the Salton Sea
 190 experiencing fewer high H₂S events. The Torrez Martínez (TMNZ) site recorded the highest
 191 number of exceedances, followed by the Saul Martínez (SMNZ) site (Fig. 3). Limited data from
 192 the Indio (IND) site (2021-2022) prevents a definitive comparison, though during this period,

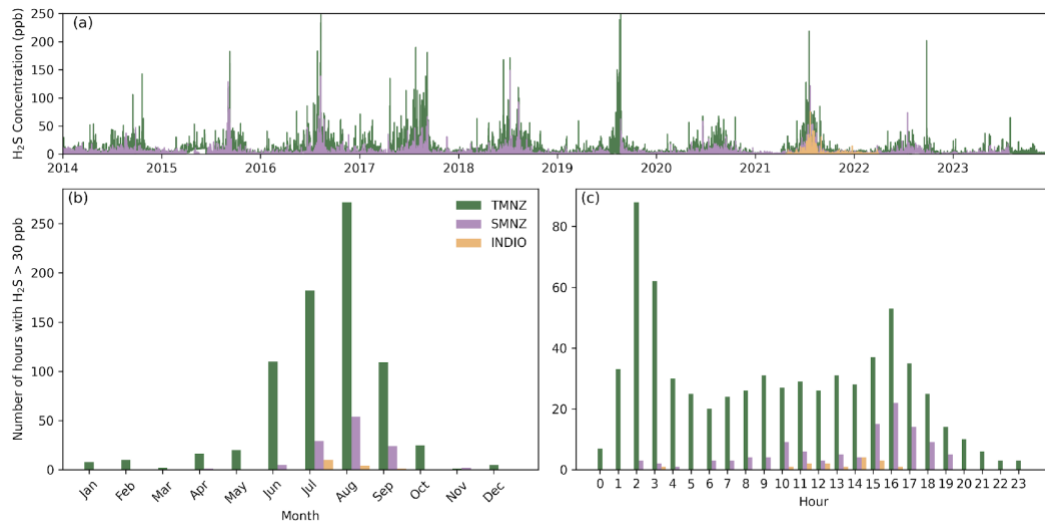


Figure 3: (a) Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) concentrations measured by the SCAQMD sensors, as shown in Fig. 1. (b) Monthly hydrogen sulfide hourly exceedances (above the CARB hourly exposure standard of 30 ppb) for the years depicted in (a). (c) Hourly hydrogen sulfide exceedances (above the CARB hourly exposure standard of 30 ppb) during the summer months for the years shown in (a).

193 IND recorded lower H₂S concentrations than both TMNZ and SMNZ.

194 Although H₂S hourly exceedances have diurnal patterns, the details vary by season and site.
 195 During the summer (June-September) months at site TMNZ, exceedances were most often
 196 recorded from 02:00-03:00 (nighttime) and 15:00-17:00 (afternoon), whereas the SMNZ site
 197 presented a peak in exceedances in the afternoon but not in the nighttime (Fig. 3c and Fig S1).
 198 While fewer exceedances are observed during the winter (November-March) and transition
 199 (April, May, October) months, the available data (mostly from TMNZ) suggest that exceedances
 200 occur near midday in the winter and shortly after midnight in the spring (Fig. S1 a, d).

201 3.2 Wind Patterns Point to the Salton Sea as a Source of H₂S Exceedances

202 To identify the potential drivers of hydrogen sulfide peaks detected by monitors north of the
 203 Salton Sea, we examine the atmospheric conditions during periods of H₂S exceedances. Since
 204 most of the exceedances at sites SMNZ and TMNZ occur during the summer time, we focus on
 205 summer wind and pollution data for those sites for the years 2014-2023 and 2018-2020, when
 206 concurrent wind and H₂S data are available at SMNZ and TMNZ, respectively.

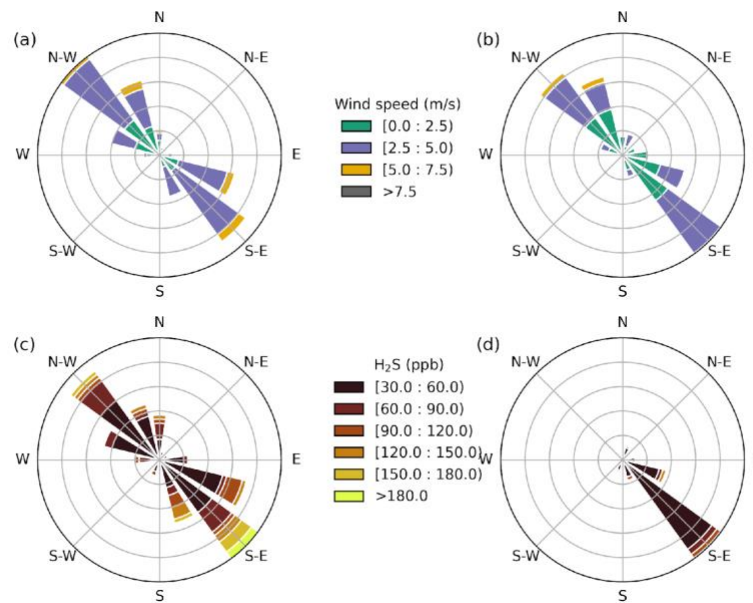
207 The Salton Sea region often experiences high wind due to the geography of the area.
 208 During the summer months, both northwesterly and southeasterly winds are observed at TMNZ
 209 and SMNZ with average speeds of 2-5 m/s (Fig. 4a,b). Similarly to the H₂S emissions (Fig. 3),
 210 the wind direction exhibits consistent diurnal variability with westerly and northwesterly winds

211 from 3 AM - 3 PM local time and easterly and southeasterly winds from 5 PM - 2 AM at the
 212 SMNZ and IND sites. The TMNZ site has a slightly different diurnal pattern with the wind being
 213 most frequently westerly and northwesterly from 8 PM - 6 AM and easterly and southeasterly
 214 from 11 AM - 6 PM.

215 Pollution roses for the same sites and periods were generated by plotting H₂S concentration
 216 as a function of wind direction during summer hours when H₂S levels exceed the CARB
 217 standard at the respective monitor. Pollution roses (Fig. 4c,d) at both TMNZ and SMNZ show
 218 that H₂S exceedances are most frequently detected during episodes of southeasterly winds.

219 Although the SCAQMD monitors typically detect only sporadic H₂S exceedances outside
 220 of the summer months, exceedances at the TMNZ site occur year-round (Fig. S1), suggesting
 221 continuous, albeit variable, H₂S presence.

222



223
 224 **Figure 4** Wind and pollution roses for Torres Martinez (TMNZ; panels a, c) and Saul Martinez (SMNZ; panels b, d), based on
 225 summer (June–August) wind and H₂S data from the South Coast Air Quality Management District (SCAQMD). Concurrent wind
 226 and H₂S data were available for TMNZ from 2018 to 2020 and for SMNZ from 2015 to 2022. The pollution roses (panels c, d)
 227 depict only periods when H₂S concentrations exceeded the 30 ppb California Air Resources Board (CARB) standard. Colors in
 228 the pollution roses indicate H₂S concentration levels, while the roses' directions correspond to wind direction.

229

230 3.3 Historical H₂S Observations Fail to Capture True Emission Frequency

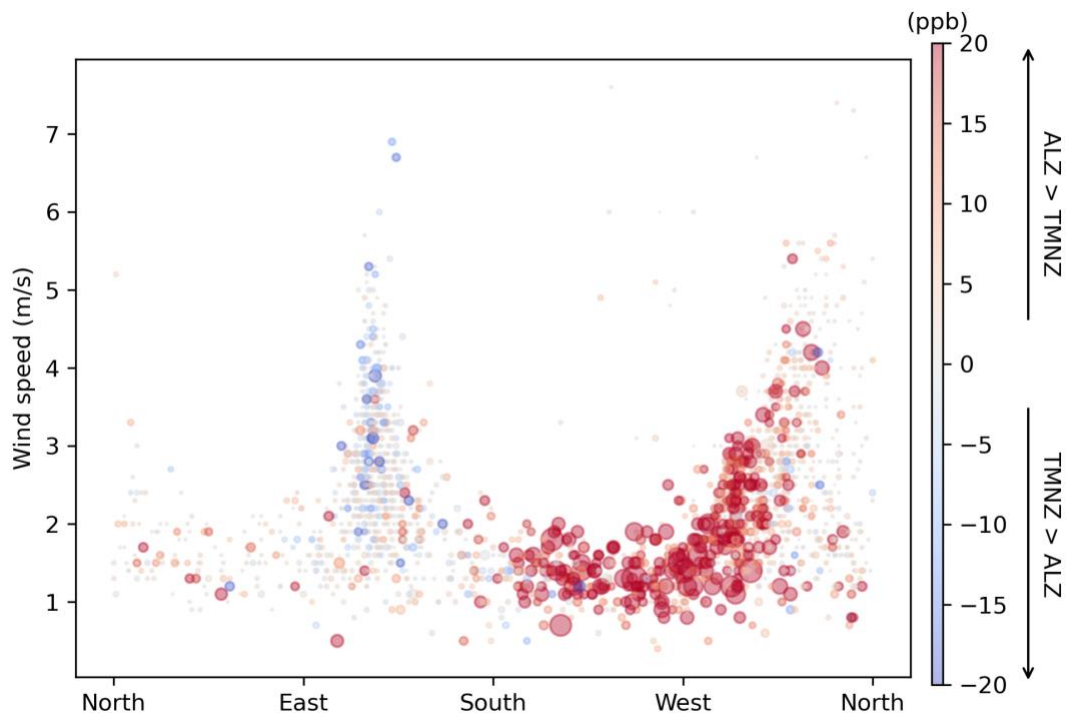
231 In early 2024, when both the TMNZ monitor (designated "near shore" by SCAQMD due to
 232 its proximity to the Sea) and the Alianza (ALZ) sensor were operational, a stark contrast in
 233 recorded H₂S exceedances emerged. For example, between May 1, 2024 and July 25, 2024, the
 234 ALZ sensor detected 177 hours of exceedances above the CARB threshold, while the TMNZ
 235 monitor recorded only four. This discrepancy is likely due to the ALZ sensor being positioned
 236 directly above the Sea, closer to the H₂S sources than the SCAQMD monitors, and therefore less
 237 influenced by wind advection and turbulent diffusion.

238 To further investigate this, we analyzed the relationship between wind direction and the
 239 discrepancies in exceedances from May to July 2024, a period of frequent H₂S emissions when
 240 both sensors were active (Fig. 5). Wind data from a nearby California Irrigation Management
 241 Information System (CIMIS) station (Fig. 1), along with wind speed and differences in H₂S

242 concentrations between ALZ and TMNZ, support this conclusion. The largest discrepancies
 243 between the sensors occur when winds originate from the southwest, west, and northwest (Fig.
 244 5). When the wind blows from these directions, H₂S is 17ppb higher at the ALZ location than at
 245 the TMNZ location (K-S test $p < 0.01$). Since TMNZ northwest of ALZ, these wind patterns
 246 suggest that emissions are being blown away from the SCAQMD monitors, causing them to
 247 underestimate the number of exceedances. While winds from the northeast might also contribute
 248 to such discrepancies, minimal H₂S is detected from that direction. By contrast, when the wind
 249 blows from the southeast, the TMNZ monitor and ALZ sensor measure the same H₂S levels
 250 within sensor uncertainty (K-S test $p < 0.01$).

251 Additionally, there is no clear relationship between wind speed and the amount of H₂S
 252 detected, or the observed discrepancies. These patterns highlight the critical distinction between
 253 emission and detection, emphasizing that sensor placement and wind direction play a crucial role
 254 in the accuracy of H₂S observations.

255



256

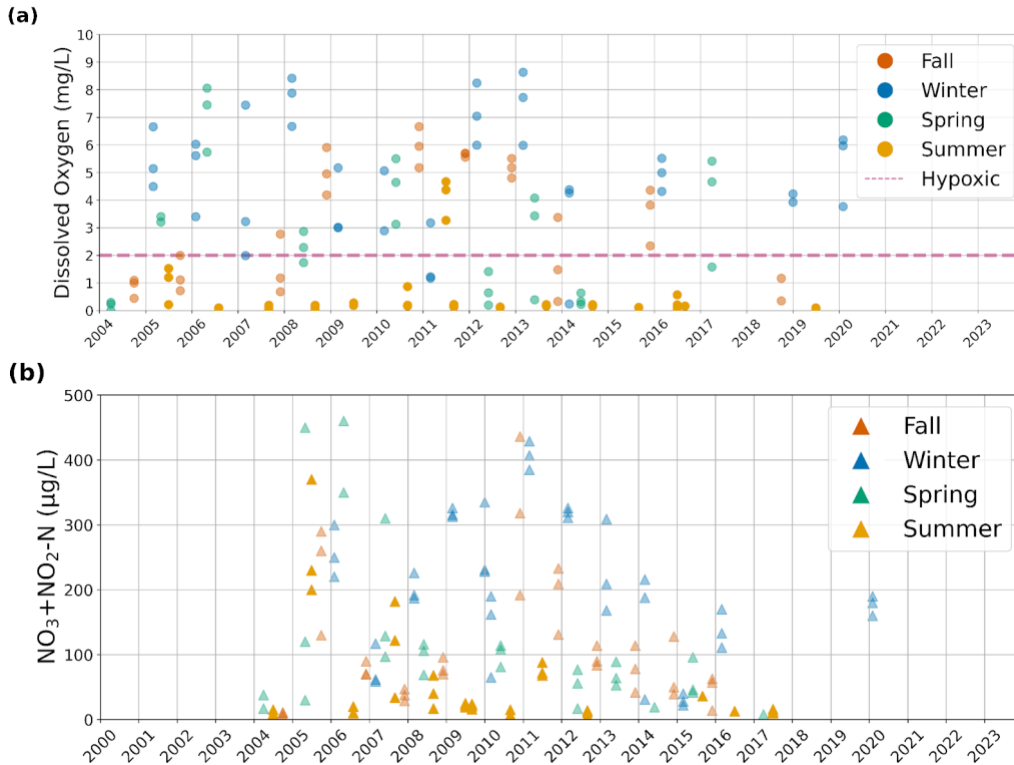
257 **Figure 5** Differences in H₂S concentrations (ppb) between the Alianza (ALZ) and SCAQMD Torres Martinez (TMNZ) sensors
 258 (color) as a function of wind direction and wind speed. Marker size indicates the average H₂S concentration measured by both
 259 sensors, with larger markers highlighting events with higher H₂S levels. Data spans May 1, 2024 through July 25, 2024, the
 260 latest SCAQMD data available at the time of writing.

261

262 3.4 Water Column Characteristics Favor H₂S Production in the Salton Sea

263 Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) is typically produced under anoxic, hypereutrophic conditions,
 264 which are common in the hypolimnion of stratified lakes (Thuy Do., et al, 2014). If the Salton
 265 Sea is generating H₂S, its bottom waters must exhibit these anoxic conditions. Hypoxia is
 266 frequently observed in the dissolved oxygen (DO) profiles measured by the Bureau of
 267 Reclamation at each of their three sampling locations (Fig. 1). DO shows a distinct seasonal
 268 pattern, with hypoxic conditions (DO < 2 mg/L) most prevalent in the summer months (Fig. 6a).
 269 Notably, hypoxia is not restricted to the deep water column (Centeno et al., 2023).

270 Hyper-eutrophication is a potential precursor to the Salton Sea's hypoxic conditions (Hung
 271 et al. 2024). Seasonal averages of nitrate concentrations ($\text{NO}_2\text{-N} + \text{NO}_3\text{-N}$) can reach as high as
 272 1.2 mg/L in the spring, reflecting the impact of exceedingly high nutrient runoff from the
 273 surrounding agricultural fields. Both the Alamo and New Rivers contribute to high nitrate levels,
 274 with seasonal averages exceeding 3.5 mg/L. Bottom-water nitrate concentrations also display a
 275 clear seasonal trend, mirroring the seasonal patterns in DO. Nitrate concentrations tend to be
 276 lowest in summer and highest in winter (Fig. 6b).



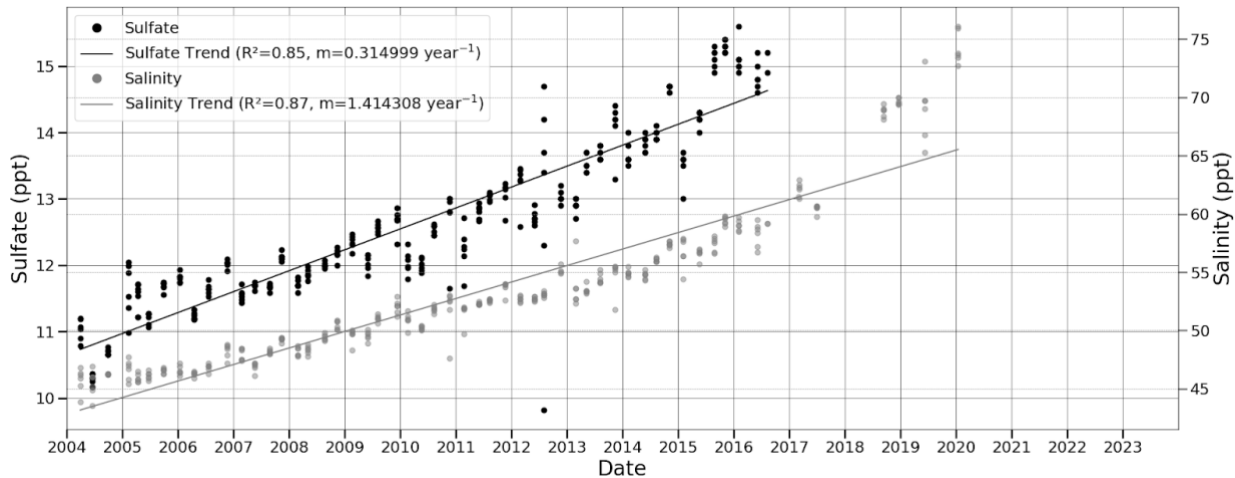
277
 278 **Figure 6** (a) Bottom dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations measured by the Bureau of Reclamation (BoR). In this context,
 279 'bottom water' refers to the average of measurements taken at depths greater than 10 meters across the three BoR sites (SS1-SS3;
 280 Fig. 1). DO is similar across SS1-SS3 and is, therefore, plotted as an average of all sites. (b) Bottom Nitrate concentrations
 281 display near zero concentrations most often during the summer months. Here the seasons are defined based on BOR sampling
 282 and are Fall (SON), Winter (DJF), Spring (MAM), Summer (JJA).
 283

284 The formation of hypoxic conditions is exacerbated by the strong stratification in the Salton
 285 Sea. On average, the Salton Sea buoyancy stratification exhibits weak seasonality with an
 286 observed summertime peak of $\text{O}(10^{-4})$ and weaker values of $\text{O}(10^{-6})$ present throughout the
 287 year. Although the Salton Sea is stratified by both salinity and temperature, the Sea's
 288 stratification in the mid-lake site measured by BOR is consistently temperature dominated, with
 289 salinity playing a reinforcing role (Fig. S2). During the winter and fall months the Sea is
 290 occasionally observed to be predominantly salinity stratified with some observations of
 291 temperature inversions in the fall (Fig. S2).

292 Along with abundant nitrogen, the Salton Sea exhibits high sulfate concentrations,
 293 facilitating the formation of H_2S . Observations by the BoR reveal concurrent upwards, near-
 294 linear trends in both sulfate and salinity concentrations in the Salton Sea (Fig. 7). Sulfate is a
 295 major component of the salinity in the Salton Sea. Salinity and sulfate concentrations increased
 296 at a rate of ~ 1.4 ppt/year (2004 - 2020) and ~ 0.31 ppt/year (2004-2016), respectively. This

297 represents a 33% increase in salinity and a 36% increase in sulfate by 2016 from 2004 levels.
 298 The collinearity of salinity and sulfate suggests common drivers, namely increased concentration
 299 due to net evaporation of freshwater and continuing inflow from agricultural canals and the
 300 rivers that flow into the Salton Sea. During the time period of these observations, the lake
 301 elevation declined at 0.2 meters/year (Fig. 2) and the total lake volume decreased. Moreover, the
 302 similarity between the percent increase of sulfate and total salinity suggests that any net loss of
 303 sulfate as H₂S is negligible compared with other sources and sinks of sulfate.

304



305

306 **Figure 7** Sulfate concentrations continue to increase in a linear fashion, salinity concentrations reinforce the sulfate increments.

307

308 Another potential byproduct of high sulfate concentrations, in addition to hydrogen sulfide,
 309 is the formation of gypsum. Ma et al. (2020) noted that the Salton Sea exhibits seasonal gypsum
 310 precipitation events visible from satellite imagery. Following Ma et al. (2020), we looked at
 311 changes in the Gypsum Area Coverage (GAC) parameter across the years. While sulfate
 312 increases linearly across the years (Fig. 7), GAC shows no obvious trends (Fig. S3).

313

4 Discussion

314 Our findings suggest, first, that the Salton Sea is a major source of H₂S emissions in the
 315 Coachella Valley, and likely the Imperial Valley as well. Secondly, the concentration of these
 316 emissions may be vastly underestimated, highlighting the need for additional air quality
 317 monitoring around the Sea to fully evaluate the potential impacts. The lack of monitoring around
 318 such water bodies has been identified as an environmental justice issue (Díaz Vázquez et al.,
 319 2024), with limited precedent for management strategies to address this significant challenge.

320 Previous studies in the Salton Sea have identified wind-induced overturning, driven by high
 321 wind speeds, as a primary mechanism for mixing the water column and diffusing H₂S gas into
 322 the atmosphere (Reese et al., 2008; Tiffany et al., 2007). While wind speed is widely recognized
 323 as a critical factor, our findings suggest that this relationship may be more nuanced. We observed
 324 that H₂S is often detected at relatively low wind speeds, indicating that wind *direction* may play
 325 a more significant role in the detection of H₂S by the current sensor network—a result that may
 326 be biased due to the specific placement of sensors.

327 We find that the sensor over the water detects much higher H₂S concentrations than the
 328 sensors on land, particularly when the wind is southwesterly, westerly, and northwesterly. To the

329 northwest of the ALZ sensor, which is the area between the TMNZ and ALZ sensors, we find
330 mostly shallow water (approximately 1 m) and mudflats. The observed pattern implies that H₂S
331 may potentially originate from shallower waters and mud flats (Azad et al., 2005) and not solely
332 from deeper areas of the Salton Sea.

333 The prevailing paradigm in the literature has been that shallower lake regions accumulate
334 less H₂S, while deeper areas produce higher concentrations (Zavialov et al., 2008; Wurtsbaugh &
335 Marcarelli, 2004). However, our findings suggest that the Salton Sea is likely outgassing H₂S
336 consistently from shallow near-shore areas. While this does not rule out the significant role of
337 deeper anoxic layers in accumulating and releasing substantial H₂S concentrations, the extensive
338 surface area of shallow waters, which are in close proximity to nearby communities, must be a
339 key consideration in efforts to mitigate the health and well-being impacts of H₂S. This is
340 particularly significant, as several proposed projects around the Salton Sea will accelerate its
341 shrinkage (e.g. , thereby expanding mudflats (Imperial Irrigation District, 2024) or increasing the
342 extent of shallow water areas (California Natural Resources Agency, 2018), both of which could
343 exacerbate H₂S emissions. The impact of the declining water level on H₂S emissions should be
344 quantified.

345 Our results also indicate that a significant portion of H₂S emissions remains unaccounted
346 for, potentially being transported to communities without air monitoring stations. This is a
347 particular concern in the southern basin which lacks hydrogen sulfide monitoring and where
348 shallow waters are prone to complete mixing and H₂S diffusion (Reese et al, 2008) and in the
349 unincorporated North Shore community that is to the east of the Salton Sea. Adding to this
350 concern, most H₂S exceedances occur in the early morning hours when farmers are working in
351 the fields without protection, highlighting stark environmental injustices.

352 Regardless of the precise source, stratification, dissolved oxygen (DO), sulfate, and nitrate
353 are crucial factors in H₂S generation. Although earlier studies suggested that the Salton Sea's
354 shallowness might limit temperature-dependent stratification by inducing periodic mixing
355 throughout the year (Watts et al., 2001), more recent research proposes that stratification in
356 shallow waters may actually exceed the wind energy required to disrupt it (Rueda and Schladow,
357 2009; Branco and Torgersen, 2008). Even if periodic mixing were occurring at a similar or
358 increased rate, the documented presence of frequent hypoxia in shallower nearshore regions (<10
359 meters) (Centeno et al., 2023) suggests that mixing alone may not be sufficient to prevent year-
360 round hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) emissions, albeit at varying frequencies.

361 The DO and nitrate concentrations in the Salton Sea display a marked seasonality and are
362 both most often lowest during the summer, when hydrogen sulfide emissions are highest. Given
363 the hypereutrophic conditions of the Salton Sea and the high observed nitrate concentrations, it is
364 likely that both nitrate and sulfate reduction co-occur (Borceau et al., 2023). However, sulfate
365 reduction is likely predominantly due to sulfate reducing bacteria in the Sea. In fact, a 2002 study
366 by Wood and others recognized *Beggiatoa* -a cyanobacteria capable of sulfate reduction- as a
367 major biomass component of the Salton Sea's microorganism ecology.

368 We do not observe long term trends in nitrate concentrations, stratification, or Gypsum
369 Area Coverage. In contrast, sulfate and salinity are both increasing, with a long-term trend
370 dominating over any seasonality. The observation that the fraction of the salinity that is sulfate
371 has remained approximately constant suggests that sulfate and total salinity have similar net
372 sources and sinks with evaporation and a reduction in lake volume due to reduced inflows being
373 key factors in increasing concentrations of both. Any losses of sulfate to outgassing of hydrogen
374 sulfide do not generate a net loss of sulfur in the Sea compared with other salinity constituents.

375 Additionally, inflow, including from agriculture, is a source of both salinity and sulfate, despite
376 the relatively low concentrations compared with the Sea (SSET, 2023). Salinity continues to
377 increase due to the shrinking lake volume, which is due to reduced inflows and evaporation.

378 While the high sulfate concentrations in the Salton Sea generate the potential for sulfate
379 reduction and emission into the atmosphere as hydrogen sulfide, there is not a direct relationship
380 between the sulfate concentration and detection of hydrogen sulfide. More complete
381 understanding of the sulfur cycle in the Salton Sea may aid mechanistic descriptions of H₂S
382 production. When reduced sulfur compounds (e.g. HS⁻¹) reach the surface of the Sea, they may
383 oxidize to form gypsum. Previous studies have established a satellite algorithm to detect the
384 signal of gypsum precipitation on the surface of the Salton Sea (Ma et al. 2020), which may be
385 associated with upwelling of hydrosulfide from the bottom waters. However, no direct
386 relationship has been established here between the area of the Salton Sea that is covered by the
387 satellite-derived gypsum index, and H₂S on shore.

388 5.1 Study Limitations

389 Comprehensive understanding of the magnitude of the impacts of hypereutrophication of
390 the Salton Sea are limited by the frequency of available observations. The Bureau of
391 Reclamation began nutrient sampling in 2004 and discontinued their monitoring in 2020, despite
392 the Salton Sea being California's largest lake. This lack of data poses challenges not only for
393 understanding the dynamics of this distinct environment but also for implementing solutions
394 (Díaz Vázquez et al, 2024, Vera 2024). Improved monitoring should include more air and water
395 quality sensors, an accessible and routinely updated database, and yearly reports regarding
396 significant findings.

397 Throughout this study we have reported hydrogen sulfide temporal dynamics relative to the
398 threshold of 30 ppb (hourly average) established by CARB. The threshold approach is a limiting
399 factor when assessing the harm H₂S imposes on a community because it risks minimizing the
400 negative effects that the community experiences below the chosen threshold. This method fails to
401 consider the experiences and concerns of communities directly affected by the pollutant
402 (Liboiron 2021), thereby inadequately addressing the real-world impact on those living near the
403 source of contamination. H₂S malodors, experienced at concentrations of just 2-3 ppb, can still
404 have latent effects related to quality of life by restricting individuals to their homes during H₂S
405 exceedances, increasing medical costs, and heightening stress. Internationally, the World Health
406 Organization has established a guideline of 10.6 ppb over a 24 hour period to avoid health
407 impacts and a significantly more stringent guideline of 5 ppb over a 30-minute period to avoid
408 significant malodors. Other states have lower hourly standards, including New Mexico, New
409 York, and Kentucky at 10 ppb. This range of standards emphasizes the importance of moving
410 beyond a threshold approach to seek fundamental understanding. It is necessary to consider
411 community-advised perspectives when defining success in mitigating pollution. In this case, the
412 community-driven sampling in the areas near communities revealed the critical role that these
413 areas play in community impacts.

414 5.2 Adverse health effects

415 Surrounding nearby communities are already vulnerable to the many documented health
416 effects associated with the Salton Sea's water and air quality issues. Half a million individuals
417 who inhabit the Coachella and Imperial valleys are at risk of adverse health effects (U.S. CDC).
418 While the health effects from chronic H₂S exposure are less well-understood than those of acute
419 exposure or other air pollution impacts, evidence from other communities suggest substantial

420 adverse health effects. Research in Puna, Hawaii, revealed that more than 40% of individuals
421 chronically exposed to hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) experienced symptoms such as fatigue, memory
422 difficulties, sensory impairments, headaches, lethargy, shortness of breath, difficulty sleeping,
423 numbness, and depression (Legator et al., 2001). Similarly, during a four-month period in
424 Carson, California, residents endured comparable health effects as H₂S levels surpassed 30 ppb
425 for a cumulative duration of over 490 hours (Quist and Johnston, 2023). Low levels of H₂S,
426 below the CARB standard of 30 ppb have been associated with neurological effects and low
427 levels in the range of 1 ppb have been associated with respiratory effects and impacts on eyes
428 and nasal systems (Batterman et al., 2023). These symptoms overlap with known symptoms from
429 asthma and respiratory illnesses, which have high incidences in the communities surrounding the
430 Salton Sea (Miao et al., 2022; CIRS, 2021; Sinclair et al., 2021; Farzan et al., 2019; Johnston et
431 al., 2019; Sinclair et al., 2018). Individuals chronically exposed to malodors and pollutants are
432 often living on the fenceline of industry, residents in communities of color, and low-income
433 (deSouza et al., 2024). These findings further reinforce the reality that these communities bear a
434 disproportionate burden of malodors and other environmental hazards, highlighting the pervasive
435 and systemic nature of environmental injustice.

436 Health impacts from H₂S are becoming a critical environmental justice issue. While
437 fenceline communities near oil and gas extraction have long been exposed to H₂S (Vera 2024),
438 exposure from other sources, such as hypereutrophic lakes, is less frequently discussed. This
439 issue may be escalating due to the combined effects of cultural eutrophication and climate-
440 induced droughts. The lack of attention to these sources means that the full spectrum of H₂S
441 impacts—ranging from malodors to chronic physical and mental health issues, beyond just acute
442 exposures—tends to be overlooked in advocacy, scientific research, and regulatory frameworks.
443 A key challenge is bridging the gap between air and water quality research and regulation, as
444 both are intricately linked in the context of lacustrine H₂S emissions.

445 These findings can help advance solutions to H₂S exposure through mitigation of the
446 sources and short-term adaptation to reduce exposure. Mitigation requires definitive
447 identification of the mechanisms of persistent H₂S emissions. This study suggests that shallow
448 water and exposed sediments are a likely source. These sources hold potential for mitigation
449 through aeration (Yamamoto et al., 2012). Short-term adaptation to reduce odor impacts could
450 involve installing air filters that remove odors, in addition to dust, in homes.

451 **5 Conclusions**

452 Our findings highlight significant pollution exposure from the Salton Sea and outline a
453 pathway for enhanced monitoring and assessment of environmental health in the region. We
454 conclude that the Salton Sea is a major source of H₂S emissions, particularly during the summer
455 months, when concentrations over the past decade frequently exceed the established CARB
456 hourly standard. These elevated H₂S levels pose potential health risks to environmental justice
457 communities in the Coachella and Imperial Valleys, contributing to respiratory issues,
458 headaches, and fatigue. A critical factor in detecting these exceedances is the location of air
459 quality sensors and the prevailing wind direction, emphasizing the distinction between measuring
460 emissions and detecting them. While seasonal variations and wind-induced mixing likely
461 contribute to H₂S outgassing, they do not fully account for the observed emissions. Many of
462 these emissions, which may be underrepresented due to limited air quality monitoring coverage,
463 could originate from shallow water areas or mudflats (Azad et al., 2005).

464 Although the Salton Sea presents a unique environmental case, other rapidly desiccating
465 hypersaline lakes, such as the Great Salt Lake in the U.S. and the Aral Sea in Central Asia

466 (Kazakhstan/Uzbekistan), are experiencing similar physicochemical conditions and nutrient
467 loading in other lakes contributes to hydrogen sulfide emissions (Achá et al. 2018). The lessons
468 learned from the Salton Sea may provide valuable insights for managing these global
469 environmental challenges.

470

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476 an earlier draft; and the community peer reviewers.

477

478 **Open Research**

479 The data used in this study are publicly available from the following sources: Bureau of
480 Reclamation (<https://www.usbr.gov/lc/region/programs/saltonsea.html>), South Coast Air Quality
481 Management District (via public records request), California Irrigation Management Information
482 System (CIMIS Oasis station, <https://cimis.water.ca.gov/>), Salton Sea Environmental Timeseries
483 H₂S Sensor, U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) Salton Sea NR Westmorland water level data
484 (<http://waterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/>), and NASA MODIS L2 data. For ease of reproduction, the
485 curated dataset is available at [DOI to be provided in final manuscript].

486

487 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

488 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

489

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Hypereutrophication, Hydrogen Sulfide, and Environmental Injustices: Mechanisms and Knowledge Gaps at the Salton Sea

Diego Centeno^{1,2}, Ryan Sinclair³, Quinn Montgomery¹, Aydee Palomino⁴, Juliana Taboada⁴, Alejandra Lopez¹, Consuelo Marquez, Isabella B. Arzeno-Soltero², Mara A. Freilich^{1,5}

¹Department of Earth, Environmental, and Planetary Sciences, Brown University, Providence, RI

²Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of California Los Angeles, CA

³Department of Environmental Microbiology, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, CA

⁴Alianza Coachella Valley, Coachella, CA

⁵Division of Applied Mathematics, Brown University, Providence, RI

Contents of this file

Figures S1 to S3

Introduction

This document includes Figures S1 to S3, which provide additional context and support to the main findings presented in the manuscript. While these figures are not central to the primary message, they enhance the overall understanding of the study. The data used to create these figures are detailed in Section 2 (Materials and Methods) of the main manuscript.

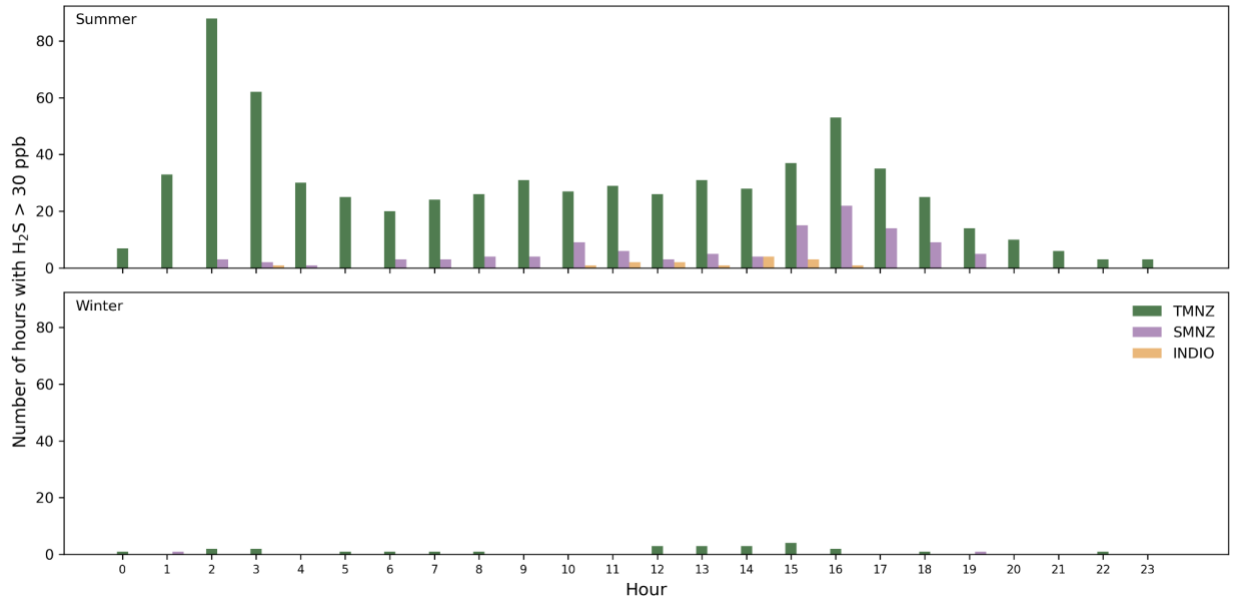


Figure S1. Hourly hydrogen sulfide exceedances (above the CARB hourly exposure standard of 30 ppb) for summer and winter for the years shown in Fig. 3a of the manuscript.

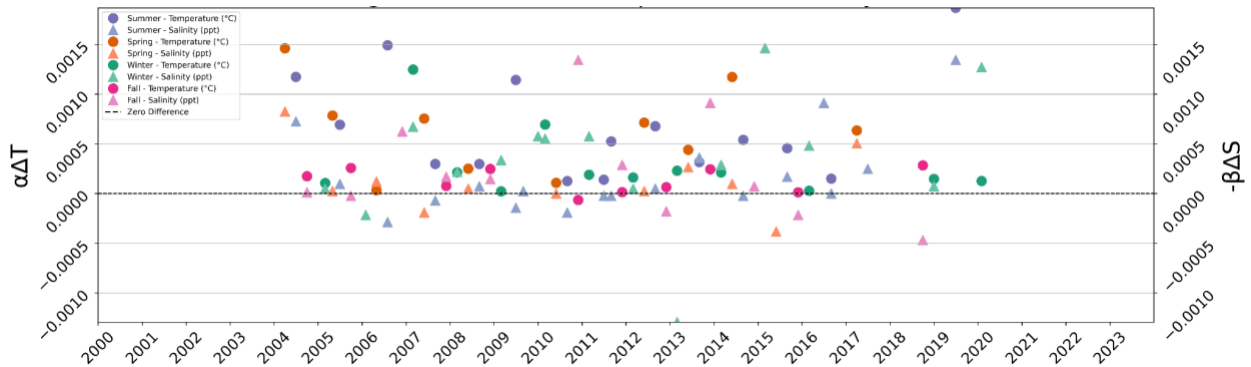


Figure S2. The relative contributions of temperature and salinity to density are calculated by scaling changes in each by their respective thermal expansion and haline contraction coefficients. The differences in temperature and salinity are determined by comparing surface and bottom values. Given the similarity in salinity and temperature across sites SS1-SS3, an average of all sites is plotted.

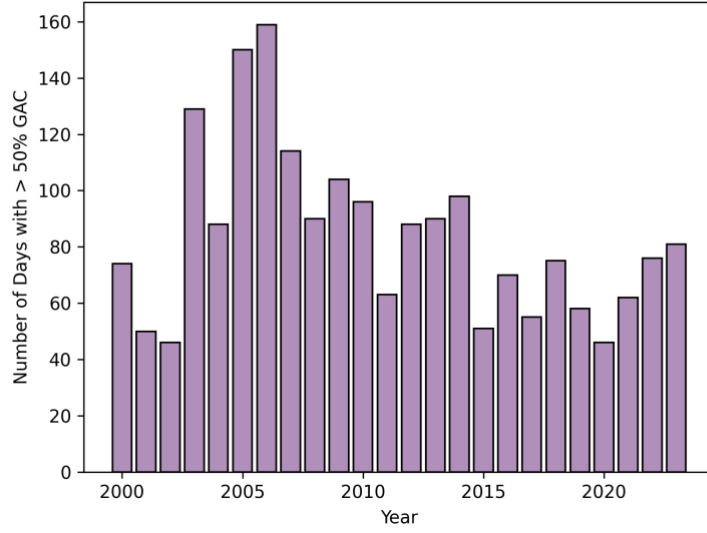


Figure S3. Total number of days in which the Salton Sea has greater than 50% of its area covered by gypsum, as defined by Ma et al. (2020).