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High Capacity Wells and Baseflow Decline in The Wolf River Basin, Northeaster Wisconsin (USA)

Susan A. Borchardt *University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee*, borcha48@uwm.edu

Woonsup Choi *University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee*, choiw@uwm.edu

Weon Shik Han *Yonsei University*

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Abstract

19 The baseflow of the Wolf River (drainage area of $1,200 \text{ km}^2$) in northeastern Wisconsin (USA) has declined by over 30% during the last thirty years, whereas climatic, land cover, and soil characteristics of the basin have remained unchanged. Because groundwater basins do not always coincide with surface water basins, estimating groundwater discharge to streams using variables only pertinent to the surface water basin can be ineffective. The purpose of this study is to explain the decline in the baseflow of the Wolf River by developing a multiple regression model. To take into account variables pertaining to the groundwater basin, withdrawal rates from high capacity wells both inside the Wolf River basin and in two adjacent basins were included in the regression model. The other explanatory variables include annual precipitation and growing degree days. Groundwater discharge to the river was calculated using streamflow records with the computer program Groundwater Toolbox from the United States Geological Survey. Without the high capacity wells data, the model only explained 29.6% of the variability in the 30 groundwater discharge. When the high capacity wells data within the Wolf River basin were included, r^2 31 improved to be 0.512. With the high capacity wells data in adjacent basins, r^2 improved to be 0.700. The study suggests that human activity taking place outside of the basin has had an effect on the baseflow, and should be taken into account when examining baseflow changes.

Keywords*: baseflow, groundwater, regression model, high capacity wells*

1. Introduction

 makes the soil an effective flow path for groundwater to be connected to the surface water (Todd and Mays 2005). Since groundwater discharge makes up a majority of the streamflow in areas where the aquifer flows through highly permeable sand and gravel deposits (Barlow and Leake 2012), it is of great importance to be able to predict changes to baseflow in the stream.

 The relationship between high capacity wells and baseflow decline has been well documented. Weeks et al. (1965) and Weeks and Stangland (1971) explored the relationship between high capacity wells and baseflow in Wisconsin. Wahl and Tororelli (1997) analyzed baseflow trends in the Oklahoma panhandle in relation to the decline of groundwater levels caused by high capacity wells. Barlow and Leake (2012) reported that the reduction of groundwater discharge to streams resulted from the pumping of high capacity wells. Ambient groundwater that normally would have discharged as baseflow to surface water can be diverted away from discharge points by the gradients created by high capacity wells. The gradients are a result of the decline in groundwater surrounding the pumping wells (Sophocleous 2002). The studies above suggest that the decline of baseflow can be better understood when taking into account the withdrawal rate of high capacity wells. In the studies cited above, the wells were all located within the boundaries of the same surface water basin. However, because groundwater divides do not always coincide with the surface water divides, high capacity wells can be located in the same groundwater basin but outside the surface water basin boundary. Therefore wells outside, but adjacent to the basin boundary can possibly affect the baseflow of the basin.

 Regression models have been developed to estimate recharge to the groundwater using the characteristics of the surface water basin such as climate, geomorphology, and land cover (Scanlon et al. 2002). Several different regression methods have been developed to estimate recharge at the basin level. Santhi et al. (2008) used variables such as relief, precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, and soil permeability to construct regression equations explaining the variability of baseflow across the United States. Lorenz and Delin (2007) developed an alternative regression model to predict recharge using growing degree days, precipitation, and specific yield across the state of Minnesota (USA). Cherkauer and Ansari (2005) estimated recharge-precipitation ratios from soil conductivity, hill slope, depth to the

 water table, length of flow to the main channel, and percent of natural land cover at several catchments in southeastern Wisconsin. These studies suggest that the climate variables of both temperature (potential evapotranspiration and growing degree days) and precipitation are strongly related to the rate of recharge to the groundwater system, and thus influence baseflow rate of the river.

 This study aims to determine the variability of annual baseflow using a regression model that takes into account the withdrawal rate of high capacity wells outside of the basin. It focuses on the Wolf River basin in northeastern Wisconsin where mean annual streamflow has declined over the last three decades, and hypothesizes that the decline is largely due to the high capacity wells located outside of the basin. The study has three main components. First, the groundwater divide is identified for the Wolf River basin. Second, the baseflow is determined for the Wolf River from the observed streamflow data. Third, a regression model is built to predict baseflow using both climatic and anthropogenic variables. The results of the study can be useful for estimating future changes in baseflow as a result of either the approval of additional well permits or the abandonment of existing high capacity wells.

2. Study Area

103 The study area is the Wolf River basin (drainage area of $1,200 \text{ km}^2$) located in Langlade County in northeast Wisconsin (Fig. 1). The surface geologic formation consists of glacial unconsolidated sand and gravel overlying Precambrian bedrock (Mickelson 1987). These deposits range in thickness from less than 6 m in the northeastern and western parts of Langlade County to over 150 m in the central part of the county. The geologic material is very coarse textured and contains a large percent of sand- and gravel- sized particles (Batton 1987; Mickelson 1987). The glacial melt formed an area of outwash called the Antigo Flats, where irrigated agriculture is used to produce potatoes.

111 <Fig. 1 about here>

 Elevations vary in the Wolf River basin from approximately between 330 and 575 m above sea level. The two other adjacent basins, the Springbrook Creek and the Upper Eau Clair River basins, vary less, with elevations ranging from 435 to 575 m above sea level. The gauging station for the Wolf River (US Geological Survey site number 04074950) is located at latitude 45°11'24" and longitude 88°44'00", approximately in the center of the Wolf River basin (green star in Fig. 1). There are a few more gauging 118 stations outside of the basins with intermittent data.

 The Wolf River basin has eight high capacity wells upstream of the gauging station. The total 120 recorded withdrawal from these wells was 0.22×10^6 m³ in 2013. On the other hand, densely populated high capacity wells, primarily used to irrigate the agricultural land, are located in the Springbrook Creek and the Upper Eau Clair River basins. The 166 high capacity wells in these two basins withdrew a 123 recorded 8.24×10^6 m³ in 2013.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Identification of the Groundwater Divide

 To get a better understanding of the groundwater flow system, a groundwater table elevation map was drawn to determine whether the groundwater divide coincides with the surface water basin divides. The groundwater table map was constructed from a GIS layer compiled by the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources (DNR), containing static depth data of groundwater wells drilled in the state (Smail, Robert A. Email correspondence, 6 January 2015). The well data was sorted to contain only 111-screened wells, which had been drilled in Langlade County since 2012. Screened wells were chosen because they are more likely to only extend into the unconfined aquifer and not into the bedrock aquifer below. The digital elevation model (DEM) dataset was obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS). The

3.3. Regression Model

1b). Two other weather stations (Rhinelander WJFW TV12 and Rhinelander 4 NE station) were used to

fill in missing data as needed. Annual total precipitation varied from 45.1 cm to 109.7 cm (Fig. 2a), with


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229 <Fig. 3 about here>
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4.2. Baseflow Separation

 All seven hydrograph-analysis methods described in section 3.2 were used to separate baseflow from the observed streamflow data, and the resulting outputs were compared (Fig. 4 and Table 2). All 235 seven methods compare favorably with each other, revealing a declining trend $(\sim 30\%)$ over the study period (1983-2013). Particularly low flow years of 1989, 1998, and 2009 were also very low precipitation years, with 1989 being the lowest precipitation year of the study (Fig. 2a). The GDD for the same years do not appear to be correlated to the low flow, with two years (1989 and 2009) having lower that average GDD, and 1998 having higher than average GDD (Fig. 2b).

241 \leq Fig. 4 about here>

 For most years the BFIM method, a hydrograph-separation method, produced the lowest rate and the RORA method, a recession-curve displacement method, produced the highest rate. On average, the BFIM produced and the RORA produced rates were different by 19.1%, and the difference varied between 2.5% and 28.9% over the years. This study investigates the interannual variability of the baseflow, and the graph shows that although each method is slightly different, the variability is consistent between the methods (Fig. 4). The results from the RORA method were chosen for use in the regression model for this study because of its more realistic assumption of the recharge process. The RORA program creates estimates of net recharge. Net recharge is recharge minus leakage to deeper aquifers and losses caused by groundwater evapotranspiration (Rutledge 2000). It assumes that groundwater discharge to

 streams is an episodic response to storms, unlike the hydrograph-separation methods which assume a continuous process (Rutledge 2007). Batton (1987) reported the rise in groundwater elevation after precipitation events in Langlade County; therefore the RORA method is the more reasonable method for 255 this study area. The RORA method is appropriate for basins between 2.5 km² and 1,300 km² (Rutledge) 2000 and 2007), and the Wolf River basin sized at 1,200 km² fits within this range.

4.3. Regression Model

 Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression was run three times using different sets of explanatory variables for the years 1983-2013 (*n* = 31, Table 3). The first run used the climatic variables of annual GDD and annual total precipitation (cm), and the resulting r^2 was 0.296. In the second run, the annual 263 withdrawal rates (10^6 m^3) from the wells located in the Wolf River basin alone were added to the existing 264 variables and the resulting r^2 improved to be 0.512. The large improvement in the r^2 score indicates that the withdrawal rate is significantly affecting the baseflow. Finally, the third run of OLS adds the withdrawal rate of the wells in the two adjacent basins to the withdrawal variable. The addition of the 267 withdrawal rate from the high capacity wells in these two basins brings the r^2 up to 0.700. The model now explains 70% of the variability in the baseflow of the Wolf River.

 Each of the OLS models indicates that all of the explanatory variables are significant to the model $(p < 0.01$ except for one), and that there is no redundancy in the variables indicated by the small (~ 1) 271 variance inflation factor (VIF) values (Table 4). The *p*-value is 0.054 for GDD in Model 1, suggesting the GDD is marginally significant in this model. In the models, precipitation has positive coefficient whereas both GDD and withdrawal rates have negative coefficients. Table 4 also shows the standardized coefficients (*β*), whose absolute values indicate the sensitivity of the model to the explanatory variable. In Model 2, precipitation has the highest absolute value by a small margin over both GDD and withdrawal

 rates. In Model 3, the withdrawal rate has the highest absolute value by a greater margin over either GDD or precipitation; therefore the withdrawal rate from the three basins has the most influence on the baseflow rate.

 Fig. 5 portrays the correlation between the residuals and the explanatory variables, and between the residuals and the estimated baseflow from Model 3. All the graphs show no correlation between the residuals and the variables. Residuals appear to be somewhat larger with lower withdrawal rates than with higher rates, suggesting better explanatory power of withdrawal rates when they were high.

<Fig. 5 about here>

 Fig. 6 portrays the correlation between the observed baseflow from the RORA method and the baseflow estimated by Model 3, along with the 45-degree (1:1) line and the regression line between the observed and estimated baseflow. As mentioned before, the baseflow tends to be smaller in more recent decades, and residuals have a decreasing trend as well. Residuals (horizontal distance of each case from the 1:1 line in the scatterplot) during 1983-1992 were between −6.78 and 6.04, but the maximum and minimum are vastly different from the rest. The residuals were between −5.33 and 6.62 during 1993- 292 2002, and then between -3.65 and 4.73 during 2003-2013. Standardized residuals have a smaller range during 2003-2013 than previous decades (not shown), suggesting better predictability in more recent decades. All the residuals are within 22.4% of the observed baseflow, and standardized residuals are 295 within \pm 2. The regression line has a slope of 0.7, suggesting that Model 3 generally underestimates in high baseflow years and overestimates in low baseflow years. In Fig. 6, all cases with observed baseflow >35 are located on the right-hand side of the 1:1 line whereas most cases with observed baseflow <25 are located on the left-hand side of the 1:1 line. A couple of very unusual years were found that could not be explained by the climate variables. Large positive residuals were found in 1993 which

 was cold and wet, and in 1991 which was warm and dry. Large negative residuals were found in 1999 when it was warm with average precipitation, and in 1990 which had an average temperature but higher than average precipitation.

<Fig. 6 about here>

5. Discussion

 In this study, a regression model was developed to explain the variability of the annual baseflow of the Wolf River in Langlade County in northeast Wisconsin. This was done by first determining whether the groundwater basin divides extended beyond the divides of the surface water basin. Secondly the baseflow was estimated for 30 years (1983-2013) using the USGS Groundwater Toolbox. The final step was to use ordinary least squares to develop the regression model.

 The study highlights that human activity, i.e. groundwater withdrawal from high capacity wells outside but adjacent to the surface water basin, is affecting the baseflow rate of the Wolf River. Most importantly, high capacity wells outside the boundaries of the surface water basin can have an effect on the baseflow rate. For example, the regression model #2 was only able to explain approximately 50% of the variation in baseflow when the withdrawal rate of only the wells within the boundaries of the surface water basin were used in the model. When the withdrawal rate of the wells from the adjacent basins were added to the withdrawal variable, the model's ability to predict variations in baseflow rate jumped up to 70% (Model #3). These findings are in agreement with previous studies (e.g. Lorenz and Delin 2007; Santhi et al. 2007) that climate variables such as precipitation and temperature affect baseflow rates. The

 study is also in agreement with Wahl and Tortorelli (1997), Barlow and Leake (2012), Sophocleous (2002), Weeks et al. (1965), and Weeks and Stangland (1971) in a sense that high capacity wells play a significant role in baseflow decline.

 The water table map along with the cross section graphs (Fig. 3) are in agreement with Winter et al. (2003) who found that groundwater basins can extend beyond surface water divides, and that the groundwater divides do not always coincide with the surface water divides (Eberts and George 2000; Feinstein et al. 2004). In particular the cross section shows that the high capacity wells located in the Springbrook Creek basin and the eastern portion of the Upper Eau Claire river basin are within the same groundwater basin as the Wolf River.

 This study created a model using baseflow data from just one basin, and it is anticipated that future studies of other basins with declining baseflows could corroborate these findings. It is also anticipated that the model prediction will improve as more actual withdrawal data becomes available. Although an average of the three recording years worked as a substitute for actual values, rates vary from year to year. This annual variation in withdrawal rate may be able to explain some of the larger residuals. There is also a lack of historical streamflow data in the adjacent basins. The gauges to the north at Swamp Creek (USGS site numbers 04074548 and 04074538) have intermittent data and have not recorded since 2009. The gauge to the southeast at the Red River (USGS 04077630) has only been recording since 1992. The next closest gauging station (USGS 05397500 Eau Claire River at Kelly, WI) is southwest of the basins (southwest corner of Fig. 1). This gauging station is directly downstream from the wells and has had a decline of approximately 27% over the study period suggesting high capacity wells maybe affecting other adjacent basins, and further analysis of stream baseflow near clusters of high capacity wells is warranted.

6. Conclusions

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