

Water Scarcity and Groundwater Resources in the Mattole Basin

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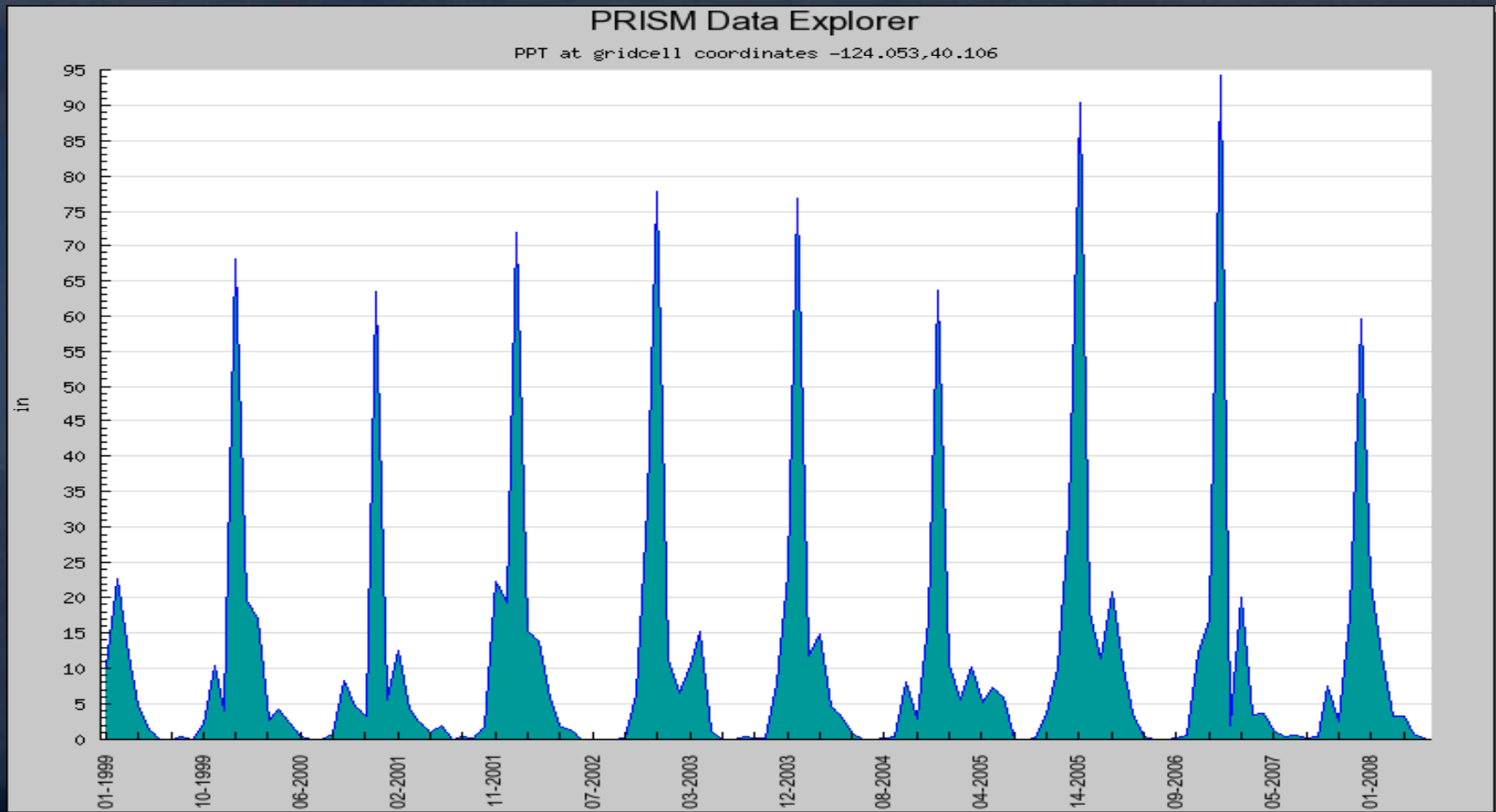
Overview

- Water scarcity in the Mattole watershed
- Hydrologic factors affecting the water balance
- Groundwater resources in the Mattole Basin
- Watershed management alternatives
- Groundwater model & results
- Groundwater, slope stability, and sediment
- Recommendations

Water Scarcity

- Mediterranean climate
 - 95% of annual precipitation falls between October and May
- Channel aggradation
 - Subsurface flow (underflow)
 - Two separate bodies of water with different temperatures and velocities
- Evapotranspiration dominates this system
- Climate change appears to be exacerbating the problem

Mediterranean Climate



Continuity

$$Q_{in} = Q_{out}$$

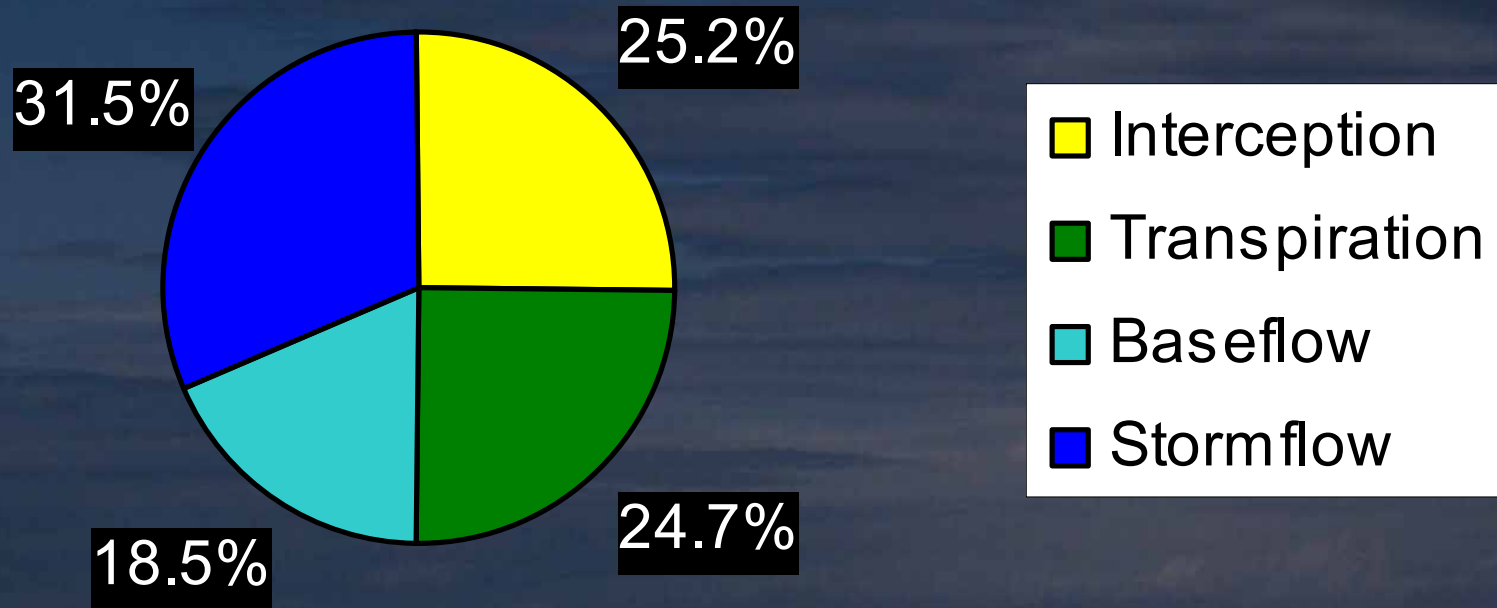
In

- Precipitation
- Fog subsidy

Out

- Ocean outflow
- Evapotranspiration
 - Evaporation
- Inter-basin transfer

Caspar Creek Water Balance



Evapotranspiration

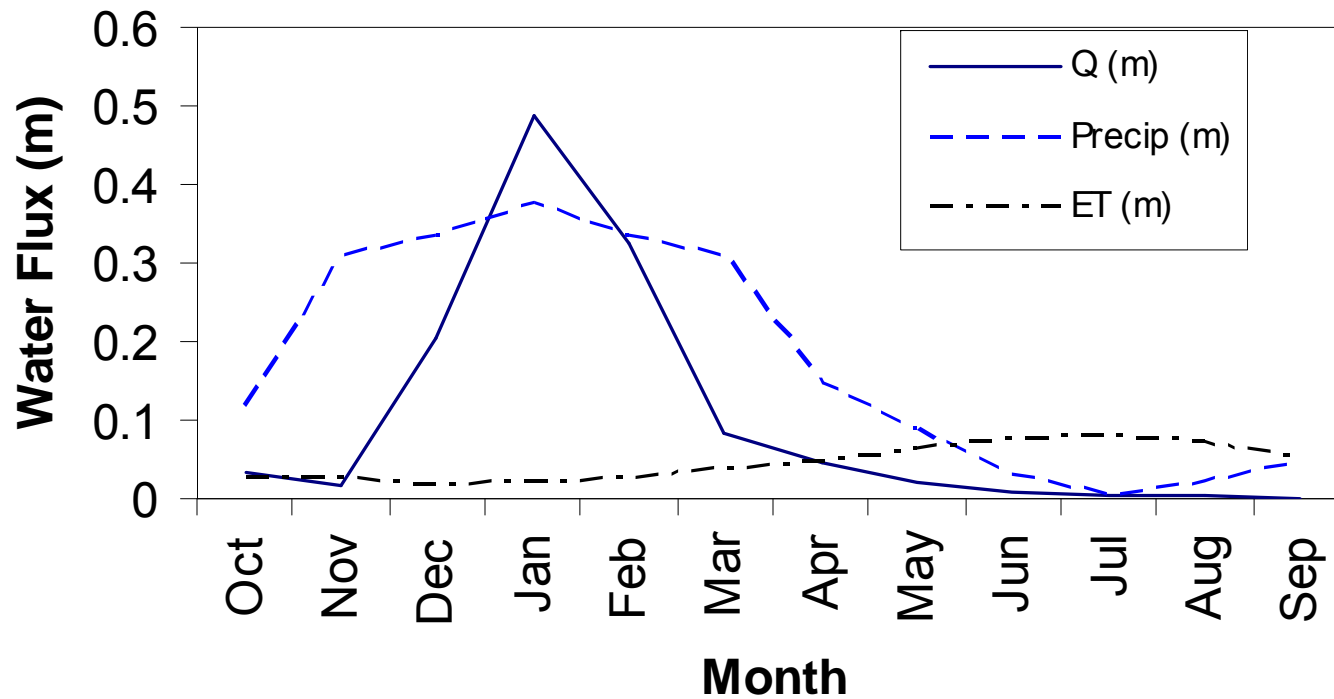
$$E_{mass} = \frac{m R_n + \rho_a c_p (\delta e) g_a}{\lambda_v (m + \gamma)}$$

where:

- E_{mass} = mass of water evapotranspired (kg)
- m = slope of the saturation vapor pressure curve (Pa K-1)
- R_n = net irradiance (W m-2)
- ρ_a = density of air (kg m-3)
- c_p = heat capacity of air (J kg-1 K-1)
- g_a = atmospheric conductance (m s-1)
- δe = vapor pressure deficit (Pa)
- λ_v = latent heat of vaporization (J kg-1)
- γ = psychrometric constant (Pa K-1)

Timing is Everything

2008 Mean Normalized Flow, Precipitation, and Evapotranspiration in the Mattole Basin



Fog as a Hydrologic Factor

- Fog suppresses evapotranspiration
 - Increases shade
 - Reduces vapor pressure deficit
 - Reduces wind and advection
 - Fischer *et. al.* showed that due to shading, coastal fog in the Channel Islands reduces drought stress from 22%-40% relative to similar inland locations

Fog as a Hydrologic Factor

- Fog drip as precipitation in redwood forests
 - Dawson showed that fog increases water budget from 22% to 46% with a mean of 34%
 - Azavedo & Morgan measured up to 425 mm of annual fog drip.
 - Limm showed that water is utilized by many understory species
 - Fischer *et. al.* showed that due to fog drip and foliar uptake, coastal fog the Channel Islands reduces drought stress from 22%-36% relative to similar inland locations
 - Redwoods appear to have evolved to strip moisture from fog

Fog Subsidy

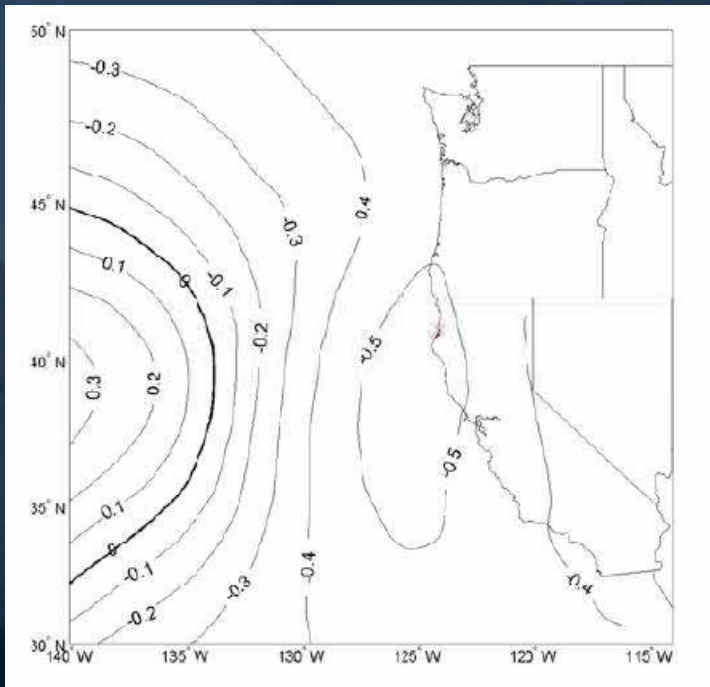
- Stable isotope studies indicate that up to 45% of dry season plant moisture in coastal redwoods is derived from fog
- Direct uptake of fog through leaves is ~8%
- The remainder is via fog drip and root uptake
- Other understory species can acquire as much as 100% of their dry season moisture from fog

Stable Isotope Studies

- Fog is enriched in ^{18}O and ^2H with respect to precipitation
 - Fog moisture is primarily generated from evaporation from the ocean surface and is transported much shorter distances than the cloud moisture that generates rainfall.
 - Analysis of the ratio of ^{18}O to ^{16}O and ^2H to ^1H in plant matter indicates how much plant moisture was derived from fog.

Dawson Studies

- Analysis of ^{18}O to ^{16}O in tree rings served as the basis to reconstruct fog frequency over the tree's lifetime
- Fog has declined significantly (possibly as much as 50%) since 1900



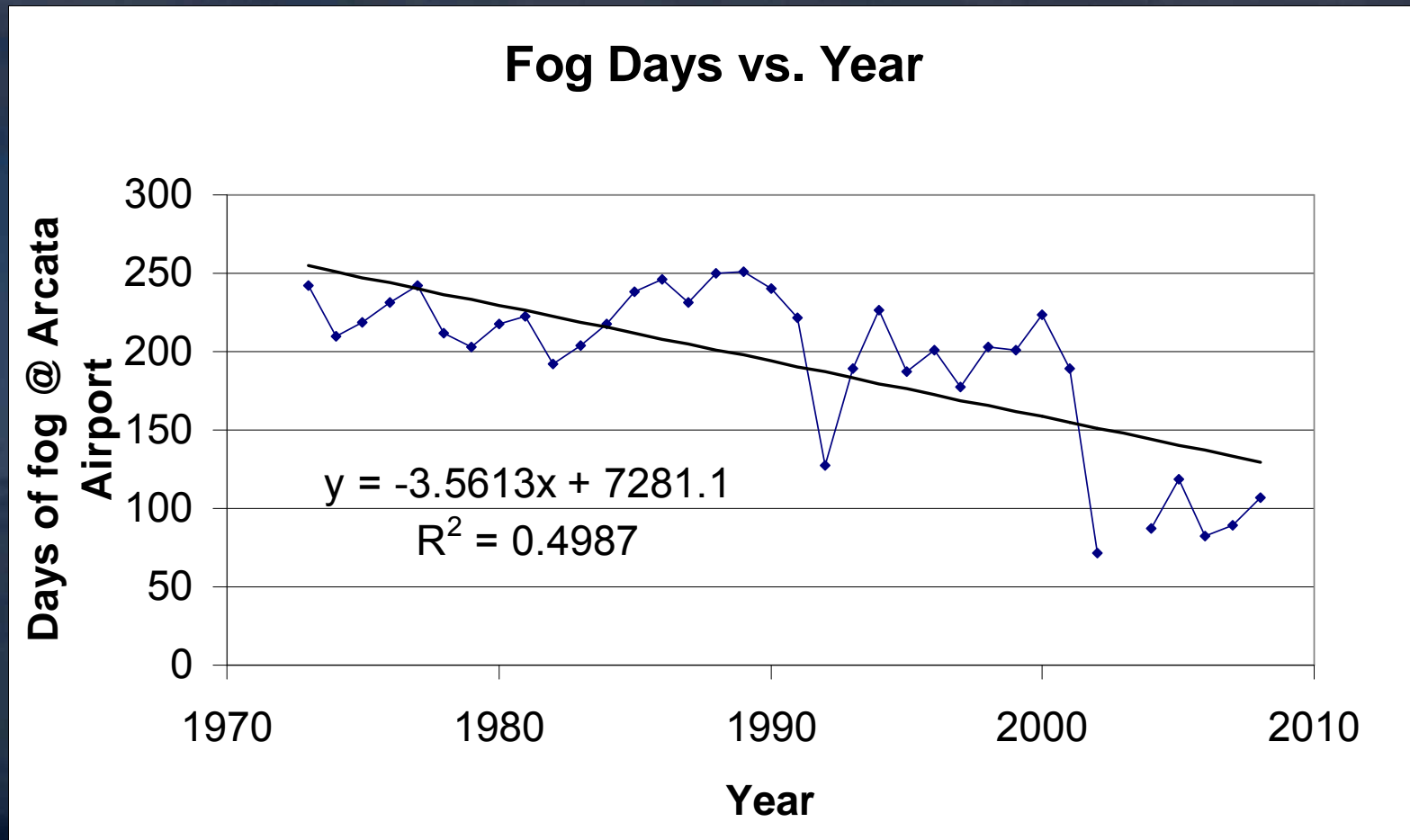
SST correlations with Arcata fog frequency. Correlations exceeding +/- 0.27 are significant at 95%.

From: Dawson, Todd, Johnstone, James and John Roden. 2002. Reconstructing historical patterns of fog water utilization and coastal climate using tree ring isotope chronologies of *Sequoia sempervirens*: A report to Save-the-Redwoods League. The University of California, Berkeley.

Trends in Fog Frequency

- Stable isotope studies indicate that:
 - incidence of fog has decreased significantly over the last century
 - fog provides crucial dry-season moisture for many understory plants
 - the fog subsidy is likely the reason that redwoods and Douglas fir can grow so tall
 - fog incidence is directly correlated to sea surface temperatures
 - fog prevalence is a regional phenomenon

The Sunny Arcata Airport?



Advection

- Increased wind speed increases transport of water out of the watershed
 - Decreases humidity
 - Increases evapotranspiration
 - Increases evaporation
 - Reduces fog frequency
 - Anecdotal evidence

Changes to Forest Stands

- 93% of the watershed has been harvested
- Young and very dense forest stands in many locations
- High-grading left tan oaks to dominate in some areas
- Deciduous trees are generally less able to conserve water than coniferous trees

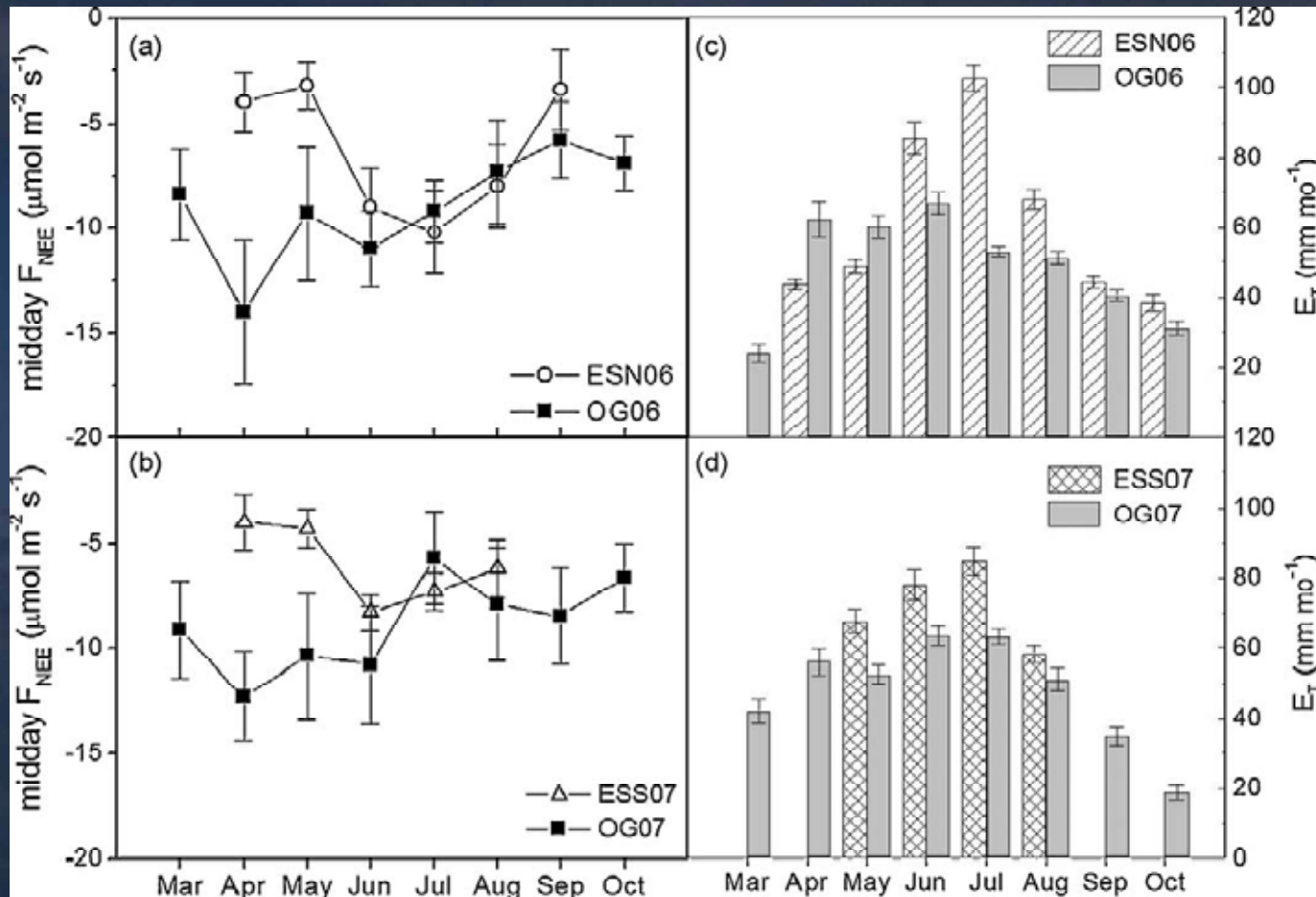
Hydrologic Effects of Younger Forest Stands

- Smaller trees appear to be less effective at creating fog drip
- Less efficient at water utilization
- Appear to have less ability to reduce evapotranspiration by closing stomata
- Reduced soil organic carbon and litter reduces infiltration rates and increases evaporation from soil surface

Effects of Stand Age and Density on Water Use

- Wharton *et. al.* showed that older forests:
 - have lower evapotranspiration (OG = 230 mm, ES = 297 mm)
 - early seral DF stands had less ecophysiological response to water stress than old growth stands.
- Phillips *et. al.* showed that ET from 20 year old (15m) DF > than 450 year old (60m) > 40 year old (32m)

Evapotranspiration from Young vs. Old Forests



From: Wharton, S, M Schroeder, K Tha Paw U, M Falk, K Bible. 2009. Turbulence considerations for comparing ecosystem exchange over old-growth and clear-cut stands for limited fetch and complex canopy flow conditions. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, Vol. 149 pp1477–1490.

Evapotranspiration, Productivity, and Water Use Efficiency

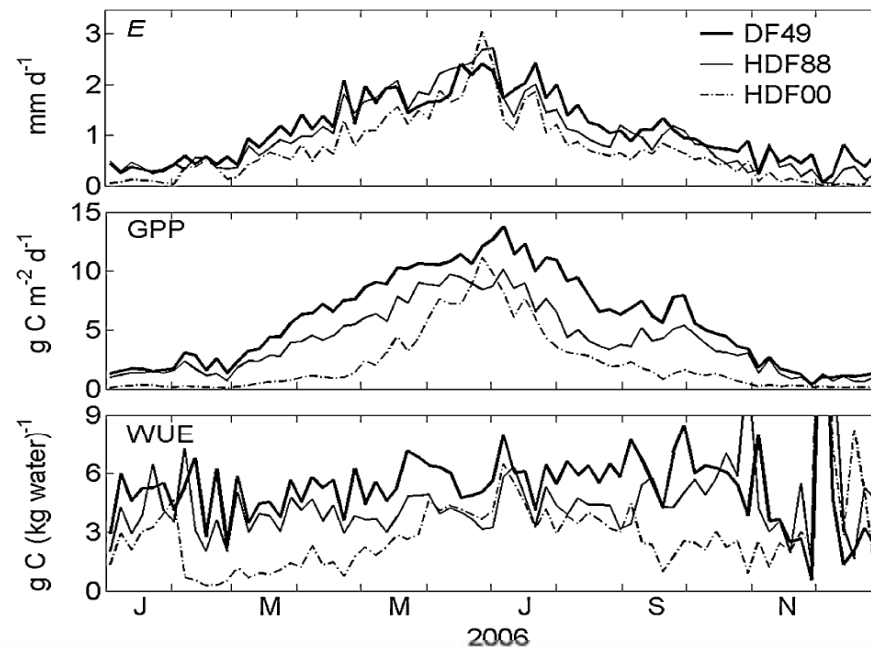


Fig. 12. Comparison of time series of 5-day running mean evapotranspiration (E), gross primary productivity (GPP) and water use efficiency (WUE) at the three different-aged coastal Douglas-fir stands for 2006.

From: Rachhpal S. Jassal R, Black A, Spittlehouse D, Brummera C, Nestic Z. 2009. Evapotranspiration and water use efficiency in different-aged Pacific Northwest Douglas-fir stands. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 149:1168–1178

Water Utilization by Trees

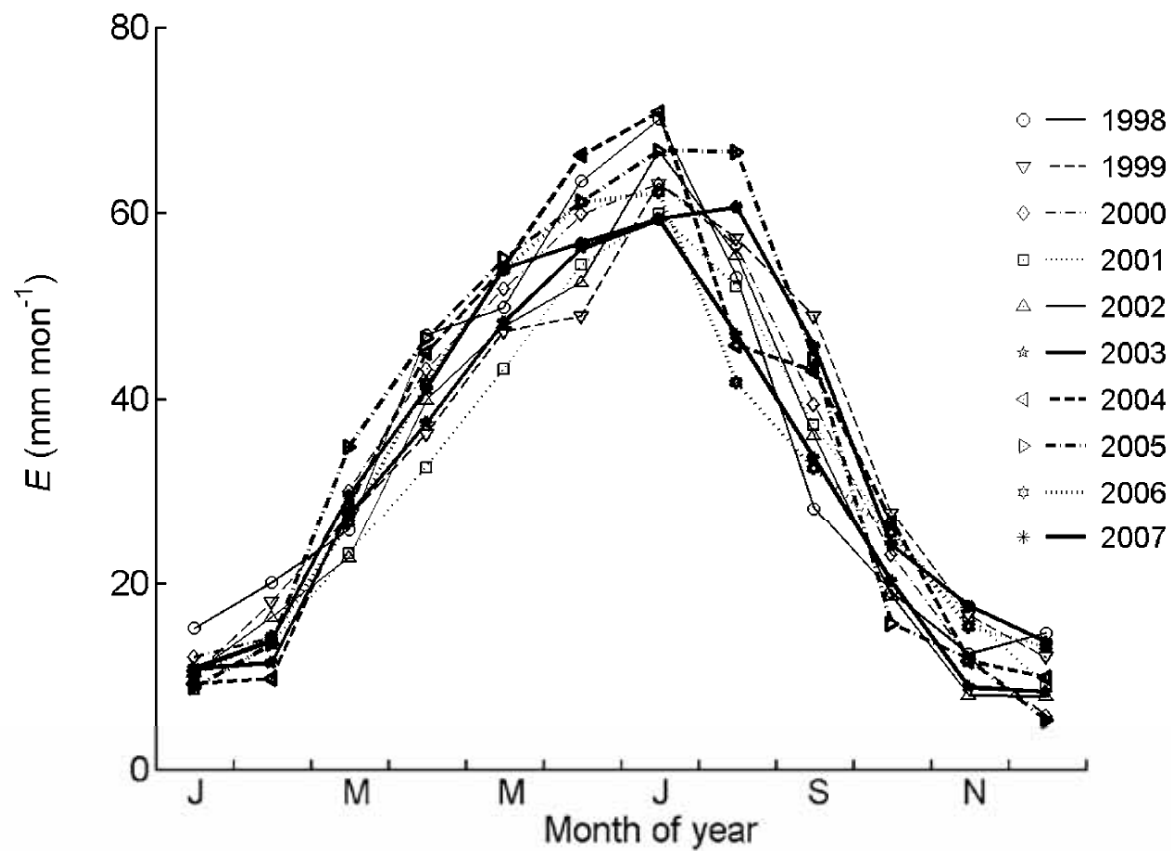
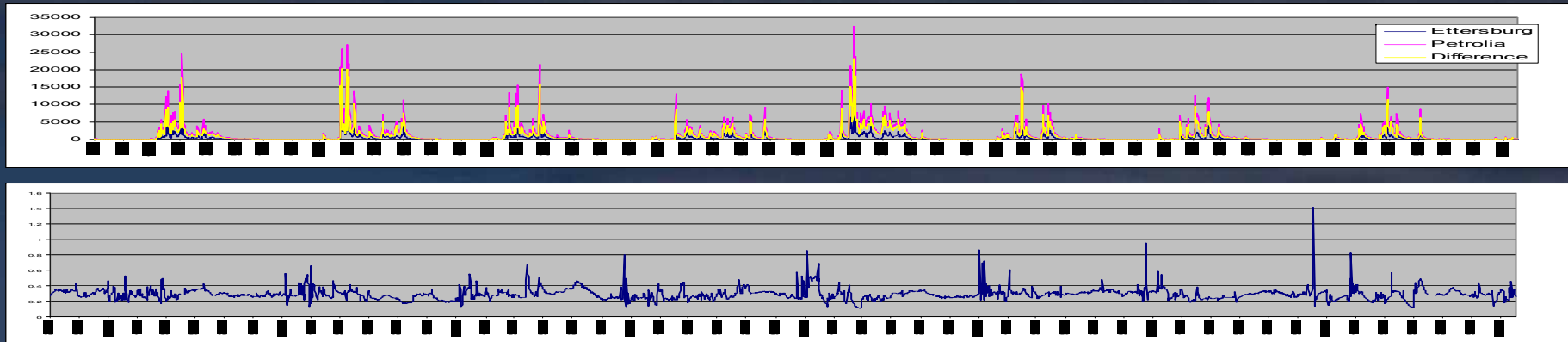


Fig. 6. Interannual variability in monthly evapotranspiration (E) at DF49.

From: Rachhpal S. Jassal R, Black A, Spittlehouse D, Brummera C, Nestic Z. 2009. Evapotranspiration and water use efficiency in different-aged Pacific Northwest Douglas-fir stands. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 149:1168–1178

Small Changes in ET do Result in Significant Changes in Stream Flow



- The Honeydew fire in 2003 resulted in an observed increase in summer flow (July, Aug., & Sept.) that was significant at the 99% confidence interval for five years following the fire.
- Gauged flow at Ettersburg comprised $30.3888\% \pm 0.7337\%$ ($\alpha=0.01$) of the flow at Petrolia before the Honeydew fire.
- After the fire, the flow at Ettersburg comprised only $24.8672\% \pm 0.9213\%$ ($\alpha=0.01$) of the flow at Petrolia.
- Assuming that the distribution of precipitation in the watershed did not change, this equates to an approximate increase in discharge of 3.4 cfs.

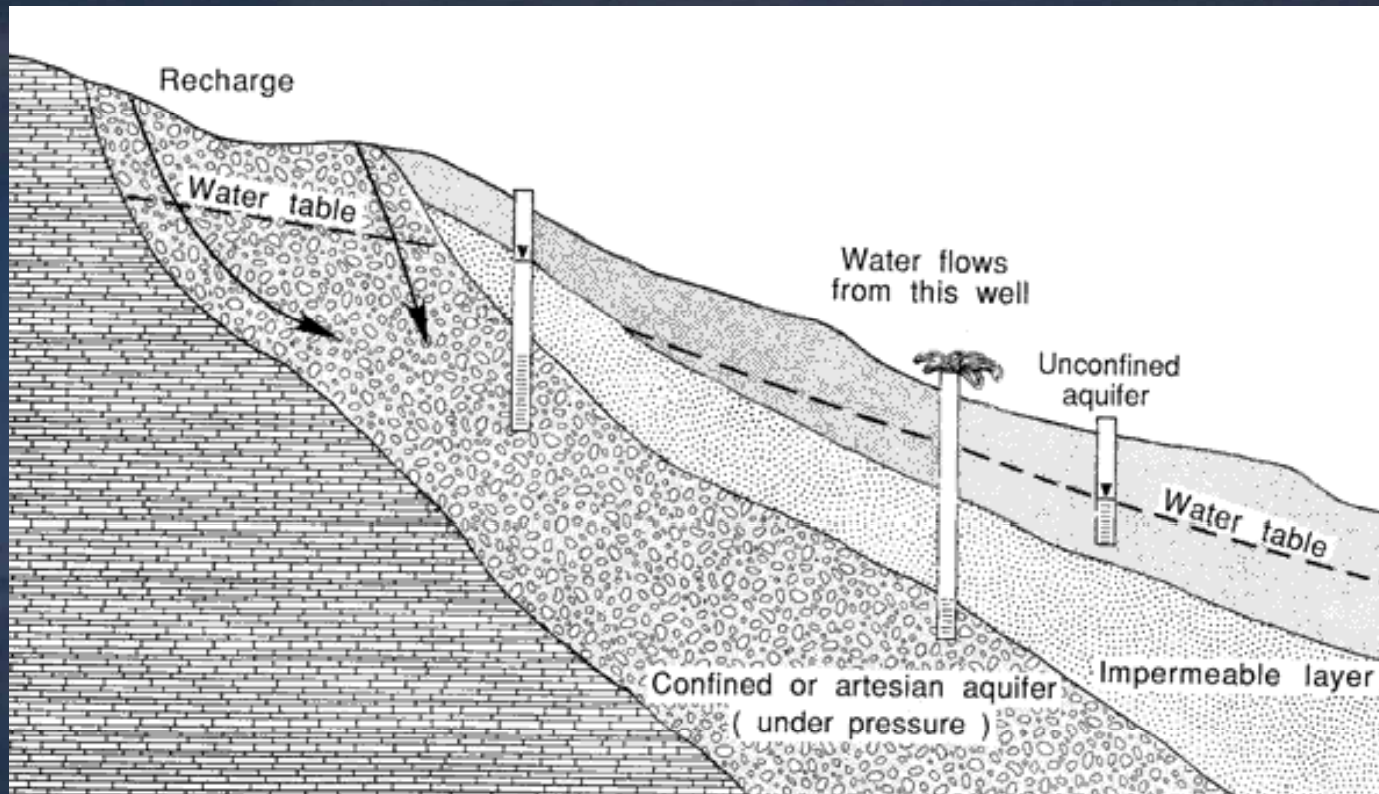
Overstocked Forests

- Most evidence indicates that dense immature stands evapotranspire more water than mature stands.
- Timber harvest and fire clearly increase stream discharge.
- Evapotranspiration rates recover within 12 years following timber harvest.
- Water-limited during dry season.
- Evapotranspiration rates for DF forests range from 35 to 60 inches per year.

What is groundwater?

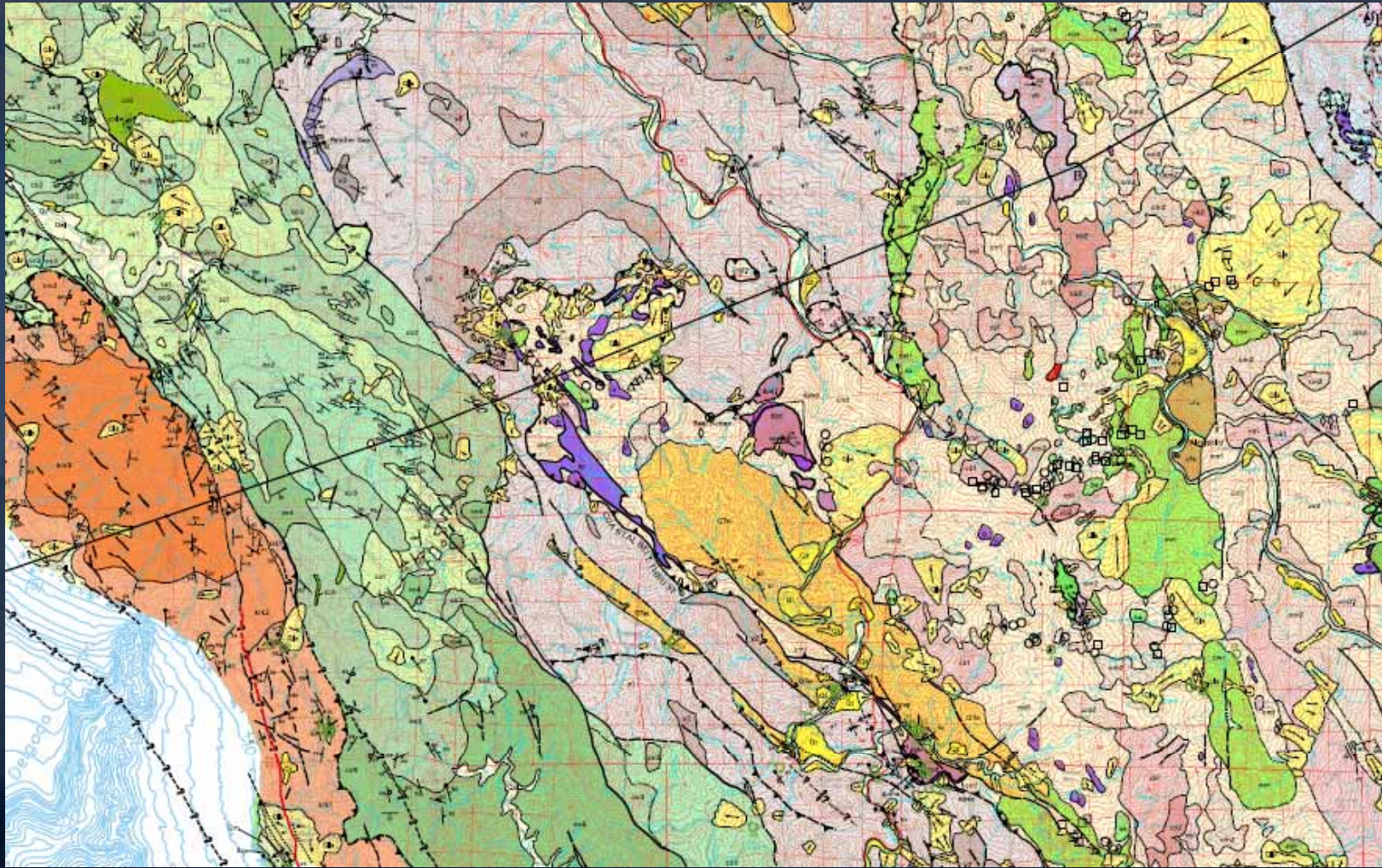
- Groundwater accounts for ~20 % of the freshwater on Earth
- Flow through porous media or in fractured rock
- “Underground streams” are not common in most areas
- Flow velocities can be from tens to billions of times slower than surface water
- Interaction with surface hydrology
 - Gaining and losing stream reaches
 - Subsurface flow – underflow
 - Highly aggraded channels

The Classic Groundwater Model



Recharge zone
Confining layers
Artesian groundwater

Not Such a Simple Model for the Mattole Watershed



Kinds of Groundwater

- Shallow
 - Exists for parts of the year throughout watershed
 - In alluvial and colluvial deposits
 - Transient flow through soil pipes during and following storms
- Deep
 - Hard to find here
 - Rarely exploited
 - Fracture flow dominates
 - “Plastic” bedrock limits prevalence of deep groundwater
- Geologic
 - Not present in the Mattole Basin

Groundwater Resources in the Mattole River Watershed

- Geologically constrained resource
 - “Youthful”
 - Plastic bedrock
 - Shallow alluvial deposits
 - Fine-grained parent material
 - No “geologic” water
 - Steep gradients

How the Landscape Moderates the Flow of Water Through a Watershed

- Surface water hydrology vs. groundwater
 - Flow velocities are several orders of magnitude greater in surface water than in most groundwater systems, so fluctuations occur over different time scales.
 - Transient surface water and groundwater conditions can dramatically affect soil stability, but in different ways.
 - Build up of surface water increases lateral force on in stream constrictions, increasing scour.
 - Build up of groundwater reduces shear strength of soils, which leads to failure.

Anthropogenic Change

- Almost every human activity has served to expedite the flow of water out of the watershed
 - Compaction
 - Impervious surfaces
 - Road cuts
 - Draining / channelization / entrenchment
 - Erosion and soil degradation
 - Overstocked forests
 - Climate change

Compaction & Construction of Impervious Surfaces

- Reduces infiltration rates and thereby increases runoff while reducing groundwater recharge
- Also associated with:
 - loss of soil organic carbon
 - formation of rills and gullies due to increased overland flow velocities
 - changes in vegetation cover

Gullying and Road Cuts

- Not unrelated
- Both have similar effects on shallow groundwater systems
- Typical mechanisms
 - Expose groundwater preferential flow paths
 - Dramatically decreases hydraulic residence time within the watershed
 - Dewateres down-slope

Draining / Channelization / Entrenchment

- Ubiquitous where human development occurs
- Reduces groundwater recharge associated with losing stream reaches
- Increases groundwater discharge into gaining stream reaches
- Little data regarding the presence of upland wetlands prior to widespread ranching and logging

Groundwater Flow Equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[K_{xx} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[K_{yy} \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[K_{zz} \frac{\partial h}{\partial z} \right] + W = S_s \frac{\partial h}{\partial t}$$

where:

- K_{xx} , K_{yy} , and K_{zz} are the values of the hydraulic conductivity along the x, y, and z axes, respectively (ft/day).
- h is the potentiometric head (ft).
- W is the volumetric flux per unit volume, which represents sources or sinks of water with negative values indicating extractions and positive values indicating inputs (day⁻¹).
- S_s is the specific storage of the aquifer media (%).
- t is time (day⁻¹).

Finite Difference Approximation of the Groundwater Flow Equation

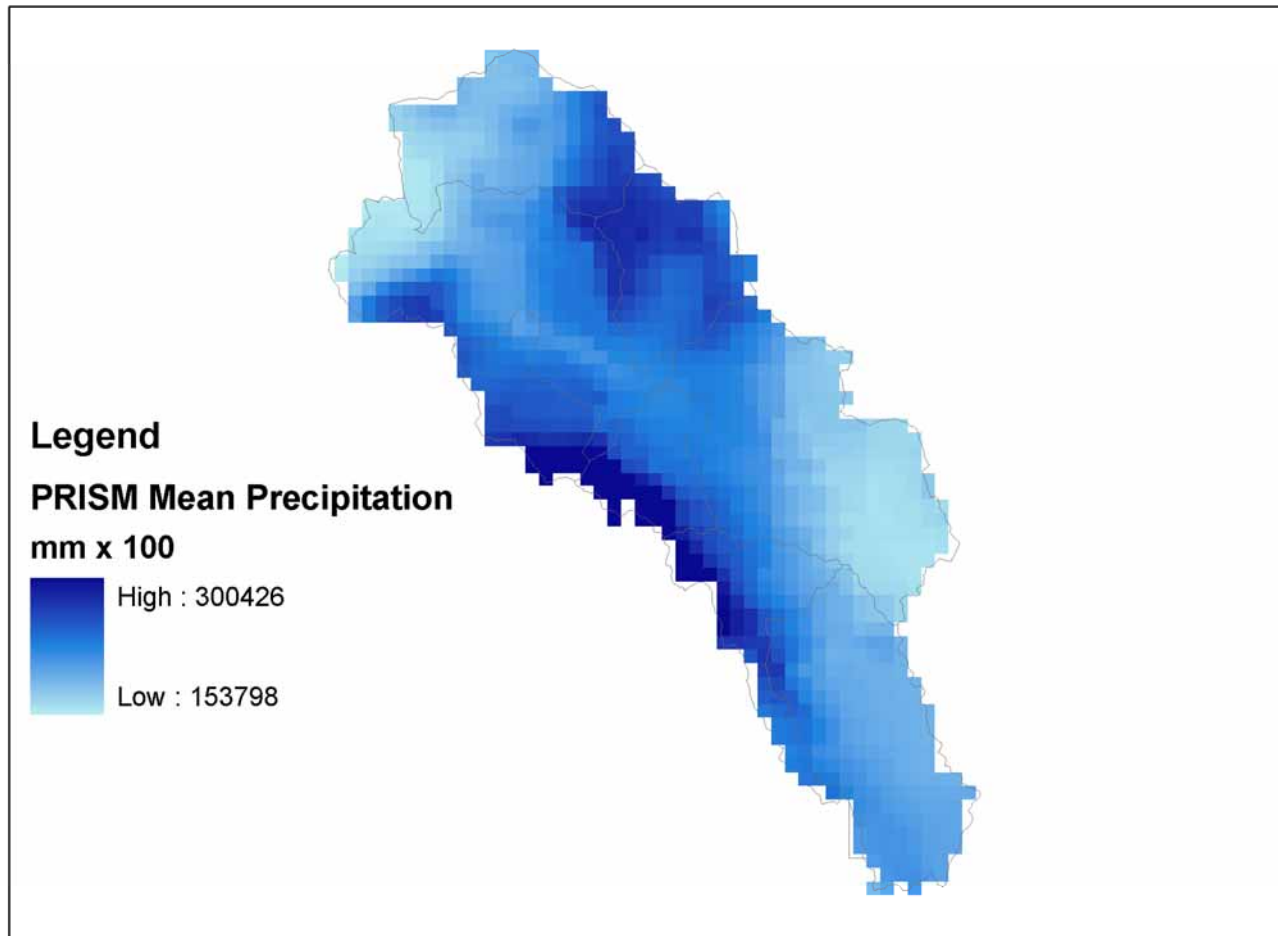
$$\begin{aligned}
 & CR_{i,j-\frac{1}{2},k} \left(h_{i,j-1,k}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + CR_{i,j+\frac{1}{2},k} \left(h_{i,j+1,k}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + \\
 & CC_{i-\frac{1}{2},j,k} \left(h_{i-1,j,k}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + CC_{i+\frac{1}{2},j,k} \left(h_{i+1,j,k}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + \\
 & CV_{i,j,k-\frac{1}{2}} \left(h_{i,j,k-1}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + CC_{i,j,k+\frac{1}{2}} \left(h_{i,j,k+1}^m - h_{i,j,k}^m \right) + P_{i,j,k} h_{i,j,k}^m + Q_{i,j,k} \\
 & = SS_{i,j,k} \left(DELR_j \cdot DELC_i \cdot THICK_{i,j,k} \right) \frac{h_{i,j,k}^m - h_{i,j,k}^{m-1}}{t^m - t^{m-1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

- $h_{i,j,k}$ is the hydraulic head at cell i, j, k at time step m (m.)
- CV , CR , and CC are the hydraulic conductances between node i, j, k and a neighboring node (ft^2/day).
- $P_{i,j,k}$ is the sum of coefficients of head from the source and sink terms
- $Q_{i,j,k}$ is the sum of the constants from source and sink terms where $Q_{i,j,k} < 0$ is flow out of the groundwater system (such as discharge into stream) and $Q_{i,j,k} > 0$ is flow in (such as precipitation).
- $SS_{i,j,k}$ is the specific storage (%).
- $DEL R_j$, $DEL C_i$, and $THICK_{i,j,k}$ are the dimensions of cell i, j, k , which when multiplied represent the volume of element i, j, k (m).
- t^m is the time at step m (days).

Groundwater Models

- MODFLOW
 - Public domain software developed by USGS and academia
 - Finite element grid based model
 - User hostile
 - GIGO, TIGO, AIGO
- Calibration software
 - UCODE, PEST
 - Calibrate using a subset of historic data
 - Validate using the rest of the historic data
- Lack of data for the Mattole
 - Limits analysis to general trends
 - Relied heavily on Caspar Creek data

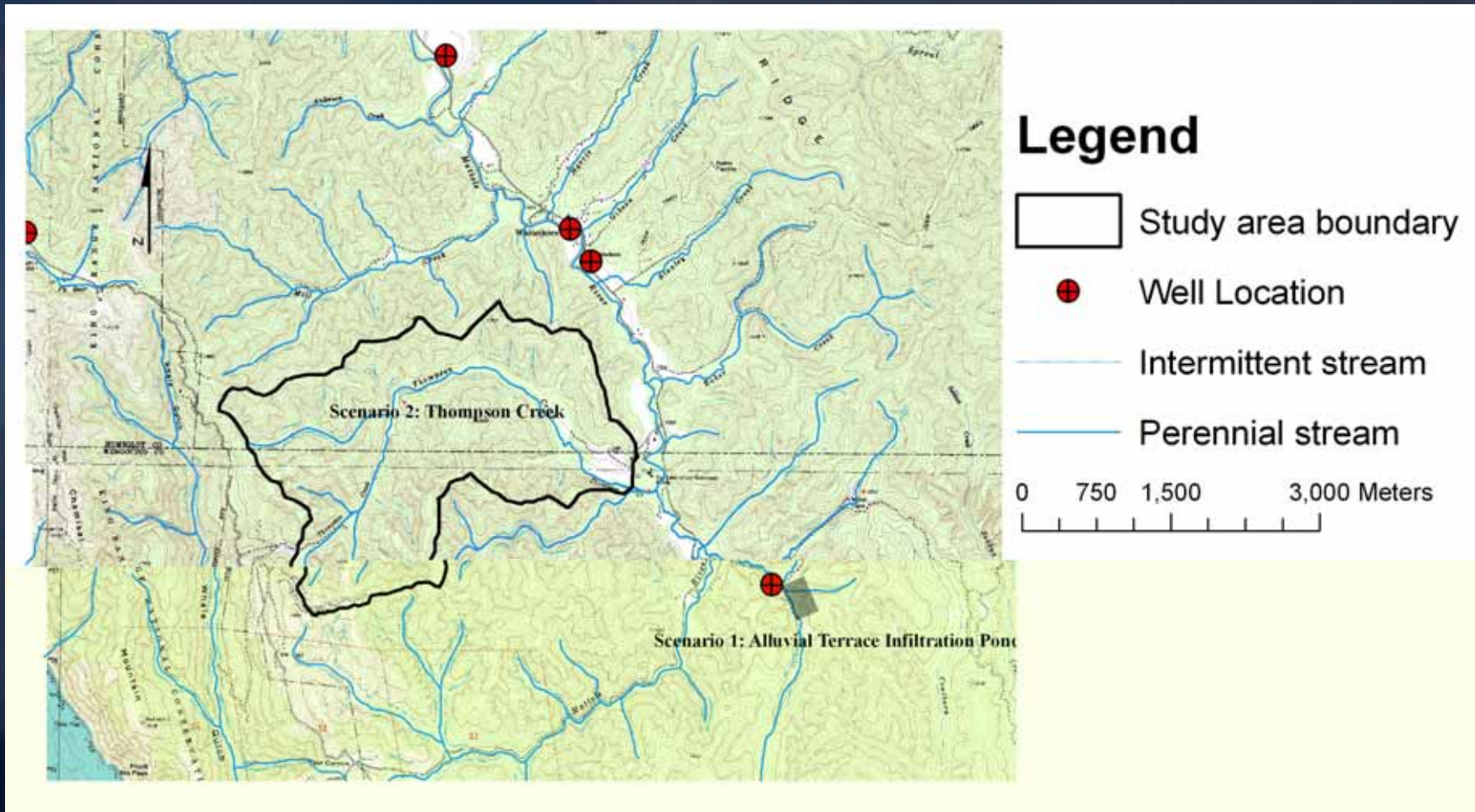
Model Inputs - PRISM



Scenarios

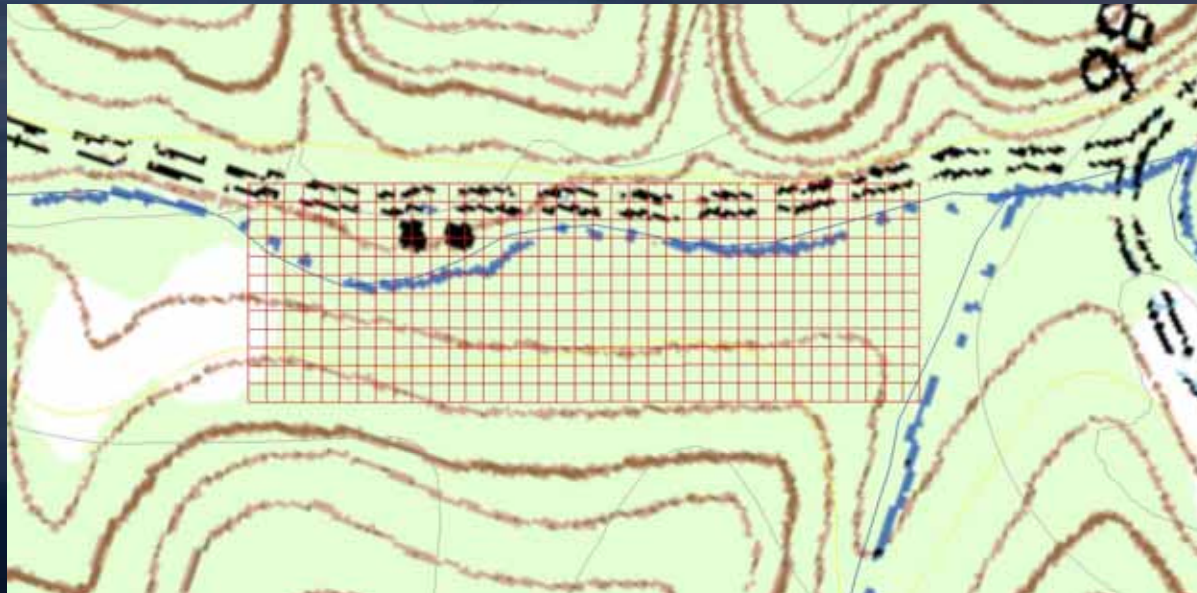
- “Engineered” groundwater recharge
 - Retard runoff during wet season to enhance infiltration
 - Ideal recharge sites would have groundwater transit times > 6 months
 - Preferably wouldn’t require large in-stream structures to avoid adverse effects, permitting, and construction costs
 - Replace the beaver’s role in the hydrologic cycle

MODFLOW Simulations



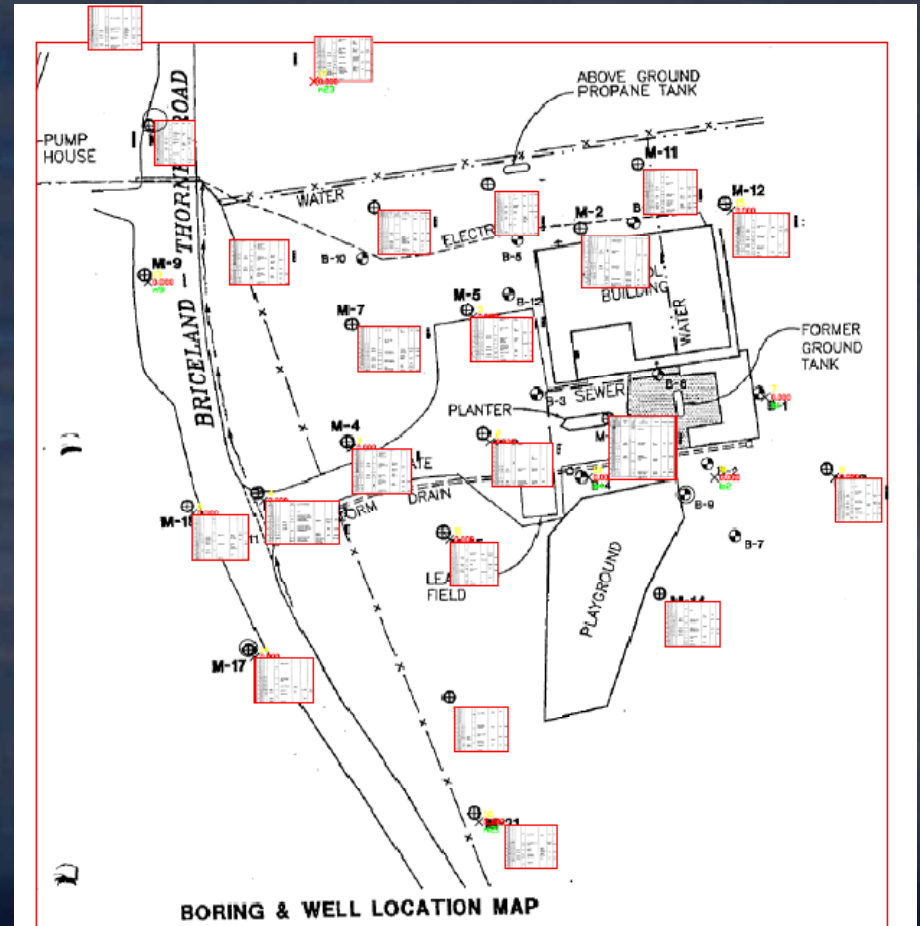
Alluvial Terrace Simulation

- “Leaky” constructed wetland on alluvial terrace
- 22 x 14 cell grid



Alluvial Terrace Simulation

- Leaky fuel tank at Whitethorn School provided:
 - Lithology based on investigation data
 - Groundwater elevation data
- Flow data from Sanctuary Forest monitoring



Alluvial Terrace Simulation Results

- Groundwater transit time to channel < 2 months
- Little effect on dry-season hydrograph
- Optimal hydrogeologic setting would require 130 acres of aquifer to achieve ~1 cfm increase at the end of the dry season
- Infeasible

Upper Watershed Retention Structures

- Construct wood or rock check dams in upper crenulations of watershed to retard runoff and encourage it to infiltrate
- Limited consideration to areas where slope is $<8\%$
- Similar rainwater harvesting approaches have been successful in other locations around the world

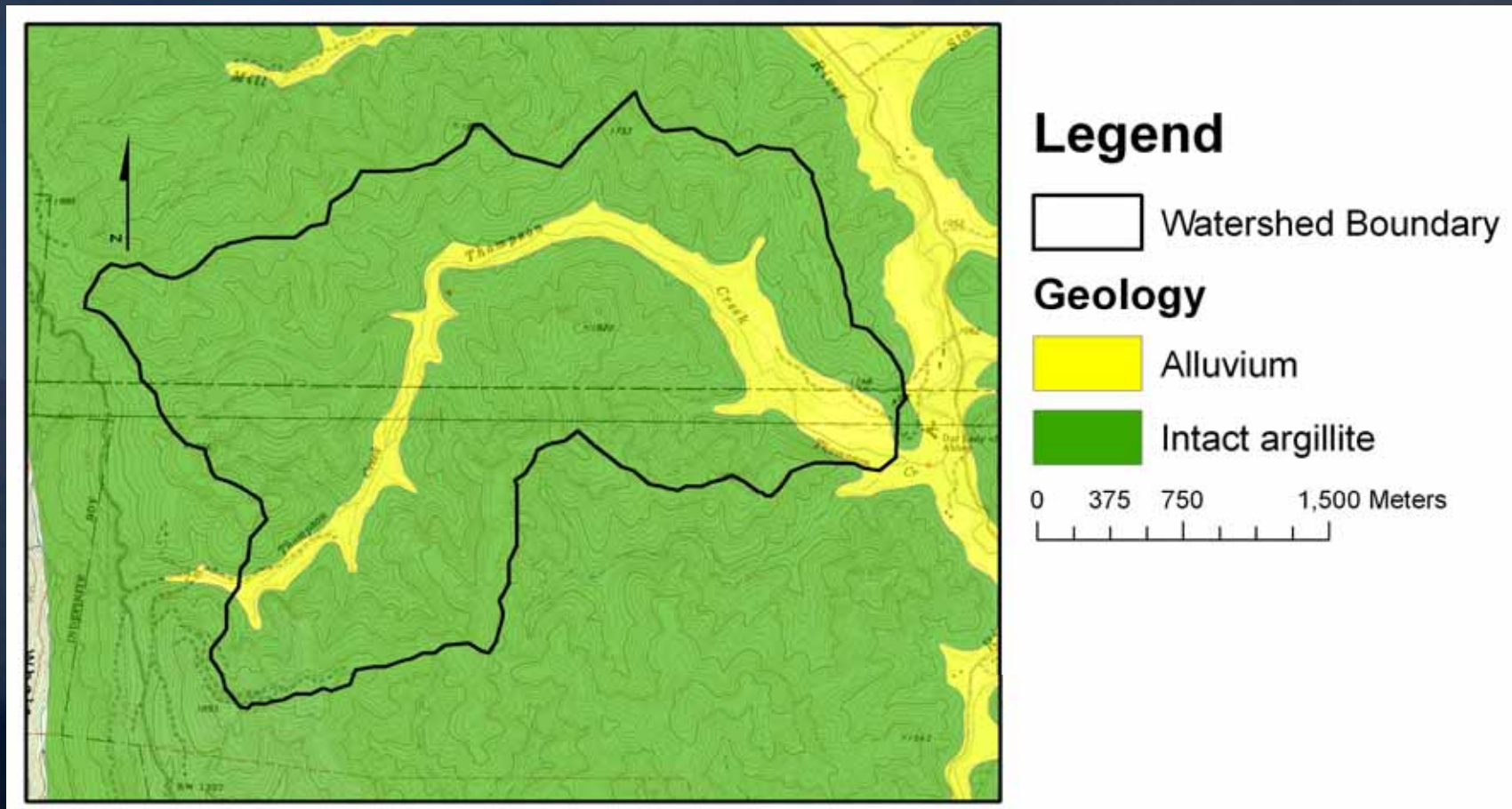
Thompson Creek Simulation

- Grid based on 10m digital elevation model (DEM) with grid of 142 x 105 cells
- Lithology inferred from topography and GIS analysis
- No groundwater data available
- Highly conjectural
- Very unstable & computationally intensive



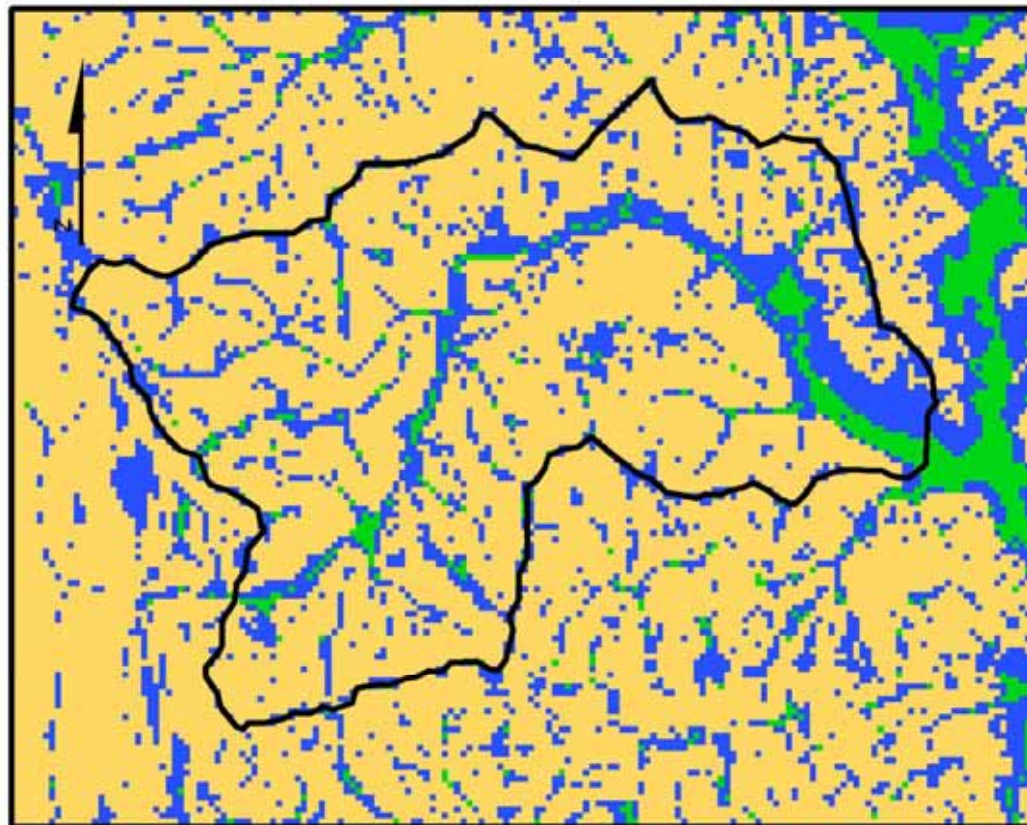
Thompson Creek Simulation

- Geology from McLaughlin et. al.

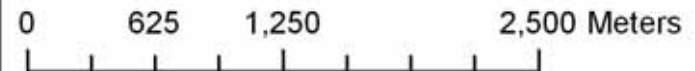


Thompson Creek Simulation

- Increase infiltration by 20% in areas where slope $< 8\%$

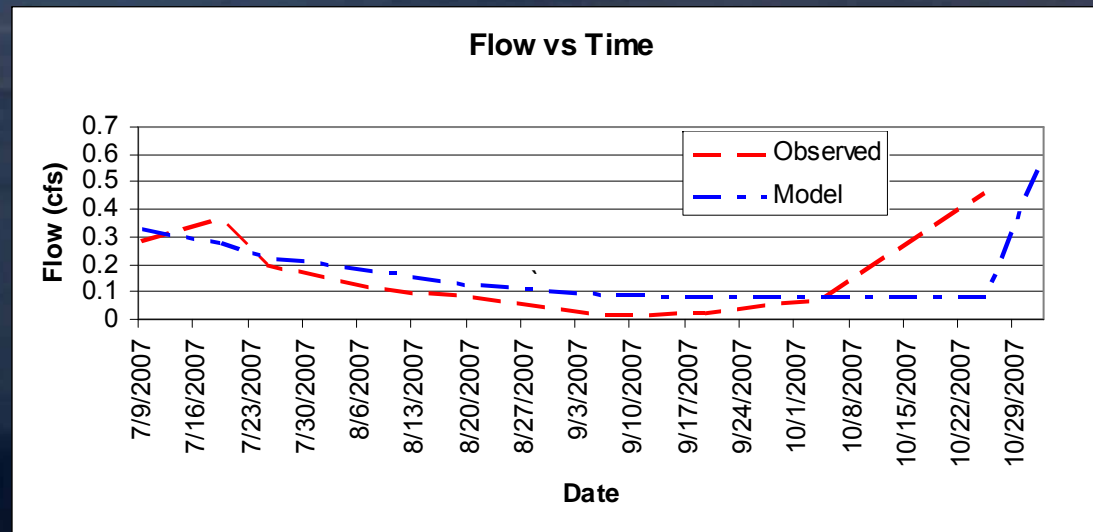


Legend



Thompson Creek Simulation

- Results
 - Relatively little area where slope < 8%, most of which is within the riparian zone
 - Potential benefits are limited and highly correlated to infiltration area



Upper Watershed Wetland Restoration Opportunities

- Compliment aquatic and terrestrial wetland habitat
- Marginally extend hydrograph later into the fall
- Dampens hydrologic peaks
- May mitigate effects of altered precipitation, humidity, and temperature regimes
- Offset anthropogenic changes to infiltration rates
- Comes with geologic risks

Geologic Considerations

- Natural (ambient) erosion rates in NW California were already very high.
- Anthropogenic background erosion rates have greatly exacerbated the problem.
- All sediment, whether fine or coarse causes downstream channel aggradation

Saturated Soils, Mass Wasting and Erosion

- Saturation adversely effects all slope failure mechanisms
 - Topple
 - Slip-out
 - Torrent
 - Collapse
- F_n {soil/regolith properties and conditions}
 - Cohesiveness
 - Friction angle
 - Density
 - Saturation
 - Hydraulic conductivity
 - Overconsolidation – expansiveness
- Hydration and desiccation of expansive soils

Conclusions

- Groundwater is inherently limited due to geological constraints
- Climate factors are likely a major cause of the observed drying of the watershed
- Overstocked forests are probably contributing to the problem
- Climate and forest stand issues will likely continue to exacerbate drying

Conclusions

- Forest thinning and fuel reduction benefit many environmental conditions
 - Forest health benefits
 - Increased fire resistance
 - Erosion & soil conservation
 - Terrestrial habitat improvements
 - Aquatic habitat
 - Water quantity
 - Water quality
 - Carbon sequestration
 - Timber production

Deeper Thoughts

- Does increased CO₂ also increase water use by the forest?
- To what extent does fire risk reduction limit CO₂ emissions?
- How long will it take for the forest to naturally succeed to resemble old growth vs. with thinning?
- How many times can an area burn before the soils can no longer support DF forests?
- Can salmon survive without the forest?