

DISSERTATION

ASSESSING LONG-TERM CONSERVATION OF GROUNDWATER RESOURCES IN THE
OGALLALA AQUIFER REGION USING HYDRO-AGRONOMIC MODELING

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ABSTRACT

ASSESSING LONG-TERM CONSERVATION OF GROUNDWATER RESOURCES IN THE OGALLALA AQUIFER REGION USING HYDRO-AGRONOMIC MODELING

Groundwater is vital for domestic use, municipalities, agricultural irrigation, industrial processes, etc. Over the past century, excessive groundwater depletion has occurred globally and regionally, notably in arid and semi-arid regions, often due to providing irrigation water for crop cultivation. The High Plains Aquifer (HPA) is the largest freshwater aquifer in the United States and has experienced severe depletion in the past few decades due to excessive pumping for agricultural irrigation. There is a need to determine management strategies that conserve groundwater, thereby allowing irrigation for coming decades, while maintaining current levels of crop yield within the context of a changing climate. Numerical models can be useful tools in this effort. Hydrologic models can be used to assess current and future storage of groundwater and how this storage depends on system inputs and outputs, whereas agronomic models can be used to assess the impact of water availability on crop production. Linking these models to jointly assess groundwater storage and crop production can be helpful in exploring management practices that conserve groundwater and maintain crop yield under future possible climate conditions. The objectives of this dissertation are: i) to develop a linked modeling system between DSSAT, an agronomic model, and MODFLOW, a groundwater flow model to be used for evaluating long-term impacts of climate and management strategies on water use efficiency and farm profitability of agricultural systems while managing groundwater sustainably; ii) to use the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system in a global sensitivity analysis framework to

determine the system factors (climate, soil, management, aquifer) that control crop yield and groundwater storage in a groundwater-stressed irrigated region, thereby pointing to possibilities of efficient management; and iii) to quantify the effect of groundwater conservation strategies and climate on crop yield and groundwater storage to identify irrigation and planting practices that will maintain adequate crop yield while minimizing groundwater depletion. These three objectives are applied to the hydro-agronomic system of Finney County, Kansas, which lies within the HPA.

Major findings include: 1) climate-related parameters significantly affect crop yields, especially for maize and sorghum, and soybean and winter wheat yields are sensitive to a combination of cultivar genetic parameters, soil-related parameters, and climate-related parameters; 2) Climatic parameters account for 44%, 29%, 40%, and 36% variation in yield of maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum; 3) Hydrogeologic parameters (aquifer hydraulic conductivity, aquifer specific yield, and riverbed conductance) have a relatively low influence on crop yields; 4) water table elevation, recharge, and irrigation pumping are considerably sensitive to soil- and climate-related parameters, while ET, river leakage, and groundwater/aquifer discharge are highly influenced by hydrogeological parameters (e.g., riverbed conductance, and specific yield); 5) the best management practice is the combination of implementing drip irrigation and planting quarter plots under both dry and wet future climate conditions. Other irrigation systems (sprinkler) and planting decisions (half-plots) can also be implemented without severe groundwater depletion. If crop yield is to be maintained in this region of the HPA, groundwater depletion can be minimized but not completely prevented. Results highlight the need for implementing new irrigation technologies, and likely changing crop type decisions (e.g.,

limiting corn cultivation) in coming decades in this region of the HPA. Results from this dissertation can be used in other groundwater-irrigated regions facing depletion of groundwater.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Groundwater resources are used for domestic use, municipalities, agricultural irrigation, industrial processes, etc. Groundwater provides drinking water for 30% of the world's population and 47% of the rural population. Of the groundwater used globally, 43% is for crop irrigation and 24% is for industrial applications. Over the past century, groundwater resources have declined rapidly, notably in arid and semi-arid regions due to over-extraction for irrigation and lack of other viable water sources for irrigation and drinking water. Groundwater globally depleted by about 4,500 km³ during 1900 – 2008, with depletion rates of 126 km³ yr⁻¹ in 1960 to 283 km³ yr⁻¹ in 2000 and, regionally, 1000 km³ in the United States during 1900 – 2008; 170.3 km³ in North China Plain during 1900 – 2008; 91.3 km³ in north-central Middle East during 2003 – 2009; and 1.5 km³ in the Nairobi aquifer, Kenya since 1950.

The High Plains Aquifer (HPA) is the largest fresh groundwater resources in the U.S. to provide 30% of total crop and animal production nationally. Due to excessive pumping for agricultural irrigation, the HPA has experienced severe depletion in the past few decades. Between 1960 and 2008, groundwater storage has decreased by 360 km³, accounting for 36% of total groundwater depletion in U.S.A, while the change in water table elevation varies from a decline of 78 m (256 ft) to a rise of 26 m (85 ft), with an average of 5 m (16 ft) in decline, accounting for 9% of the area-weighted average saturated thickness. Declines have taken place mainly in Eastern Colorado, Southwest Kansas, the Panhandle of Oklahoma, and Northwest Texas. Increases have occurred in Central Nebraska due to higher precipitation rates,

composition of soil layer (e.g., the sandy soils that allow more infiltration and percolation) and the presence of streams for surface water irrigation. Besides exhausting a valuable resource, and therefore limiting future use of groundwater for irrigation and crop production, groundwater depletion can result in many negative issues, such as land subsidence and associated damage to infrastructure, wetland degradation, lowering well pumping capacity, increase in pumping costs, and reduction or cessation of groundwater discharge to streams.

Land management strategies are needed to conserve groundwater in the High Plains Aquifer. These strategies must be implemented in accordance with expected changes in future climate patterns in the region. As the aquifer region covers a broad area of the United States, strategies must be adapted for local conditions. Spatially distributed, physically based hydro-agronomic models can be a key tool in assessing the impacts of climate, land management, and local cultivation practices and conditions, to 1) enhance understanding of the interplay between cultivation, crop growth, climate, and groundwater resources and 2) identify strategies that can provide the highest degree of groundwater conservation while maintaining crop yield (i.e. economic prosperity) in the region.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

Hydrologic models can be used to assess current and future storage of groundwater and how this storage depends on system inputs and outputs, whereas agronomic models can be used to assess the impact of water availability on crop production. Linking these models to jointly assess groundwater storage and crop production can be helpful in exploring management practices that conserve groundwater and maintain crop yield with future climate conditions.

This dissertation aims to:

1. develop a linked modeling system between DSSAT, an agronomic model, and MODFLOW, a groundwater flow model to be used for evaluating long-term impacts of climate and management strategies on water use efficiency and farm profitability of agricultural systems while managing groundwater sustainably;
2. use the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system in a global sensitivity analysis framework to determine the system factors (climate, soil, management, aquifer) that control crop yield and groundwater storage in a groundwater-stressed irrigated region; and
3. quantify the effect of groundwater conservation strategies and climate on crop yield and groundwater storage to identify irrigation and planting practices that will maintain adequate crop yield while minimizing groundwater depletion.

These three objectives are applied to the hydro-agronomic system of Finney County, Kansas, which lies within the Ogallala Aquifer Region. As with many areas within the Ogallala Aquifer Region, Finney County has experienced significant groundwater depletion in recent decades due to irrigation practices, and future economic prosperity depends on future groundwater conservation.

Each objective forms the basis for a journal article. The first objective has been summarized in a paper published in *Agricultural Water Management*: “DSSAT-MODFLOW: A new modeling framework for exploring groundwater conservation strategies in irrigated areas”, *Agricultural Water Management* 232 (2020) (Xiang et al., 2020). The second objective has been summarized in a manuscript submitted to *Journal of Hydrology*: “Using DSSAT-MODFLOW to Determine the Controls of Groundwater Storage and Crop Yield in Groundwater-Based Irrigated Regions”. The third objective is summarized in a manuscript that will be submitted to *Water Resources Research*.

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CHAPTER 2 - DSSAT-MODFLOW: A NEW MODELING FRAMEWORK FOR EXPLORING GROUNDWATER CONSERVATION STRATEGIES IN IRRIGATED AREAS¹

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Excessive groundwater depletion occurs in various regions of the world (Konikow and Kendy, 2005), principally due to intensive use of groundwater for irrigation in arid and semi-arid regions. According to a recent global study using hydrologic models, total global groundwater depletion had increased from 126 km³ yr⁻¹ in 1960 to 283 km³ yr⁻¹ in 2000 (Wada et al., 2010). In the first 8 years of the 21st century, total groundwater consumption was more than 1100 km³, approximately one-fourth the entire depletion experienced during the 20th century (Konikow, 2011). Groundwater depletion has led to decreasing well yields, increased pumping costs, land subsidence and associated damage to infrastructure, wetland degradation, reduction in groundwater discharge to streams, and seawater intrusion in coastal areas (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson, 2012; Famiglietti, 2014; Konikow and Kendy, 2005; Motagh et al., 2008; Varela-Ortega et al., 2011; Werner, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014)

Although groundwater sustainability, i.e. the use of groundwater without causing a decrease in groundwater storage, may not be possible for many arid and semi-arid regions, land and water management strategies can be pursued to minimize groundwater depletion while maintaining adequate crop yield for local populations and export. Often, numerical models are used to explore the impact of various management strategies on groundwater storage and crop yield. These modeling approaches can be classified into three broad modeling groups: 1) groundwater-based, 2) agronomic-based, and 3) linked agronomic-groundwater-based models.

¹ This paper has been published in Agricultural Water Management: “DSSAT-MODFLOW: A New Modeling Framework for Exploring Groundwater Conservation Strategies in Irrigated Areas”, *Agricultural Water Management* 232 (2020)

Groundwater-based approaches use numerical groundwater flow models to simulate groundwater head, groundwater flow, and groundwater storage under a variety of management scenarios. Examples include Ebraheem et al. (2003), Dawoud et al. (2005), Mao et al. (2005), and Mylopoulos (2007), who used process-based groundwater flow models to investigate the impact of groundwater management options on groundwater storage and conservation in southwest Egypt, the Nile River Valley, northern China, and northern Greece, respectively. Models used in these studies include MODFLOW (Harbaugh, 2005), a finite difference groundwater flow model, and TRIWACO (Dawoud et al., 2005), a finite element groundwater flow model. Management strategies include reduction in pumping, new irrigation canals, irrigation patterns, and increase in irrigation efficiency. MODFLOW with the Farm Process (MF-FMP) (Schmid et al., 2006), which includes routines for plant consumptive use of water, was employed by Hanson et al. (2010) to evaluate sources of irrigation water for Central Valley, California. A recent study (Wada et al., 2012) linked global-scale hydrological land surface (PRC-GLOBWB) and groundwater (MODFLOW) models to simulate changes in global groundwater storage due to climate and groundwater pumping. These groundwater-based approaches, while successfully simulating groundwater energy and flow in aquifers, neglect the effect of groundwater management strategies on crop yield.

In contrast, agronomic-based approaches simulate the effect of the interactions between genetics, weather and management (e.g. irrigation management) on crop growth, but do not account for the impact of groundwater availability on irrigation capacity and associated crop yield. Yang et al. (2006) used the DSSAT crop growth model (Jones et al., 2003) to optimize water use during the stages of leaf and ear growth of wheat, to minimize groundwater depletion in the north China Plains while Kisekka et al. (2015) used DSSAT to assess effects of various

irrigation management strategies on maize in western Kansas. Other agronomic models that have been used to explore irrigation impact on crop yield include EPIC (Williams et al., 1989), the SIMDualKc model (Rolim et al., 2006; Rosa and Paredes, 2011; Wu et al., 2015), AquaCrop (Raes et al., 2009), and APSIM (Keating et al., 2003). These models typically are applied to one-dimensional soil profiles to represent field-scale dynamics.

A third approach links two or more single-domain models to form an integrated agronomic-hydrologic modeling system. The developers of these integrated models strive to assess impacts of water management strategies on both groundwater storage and crop yield. The Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (Arnold et al., 1998) simulates land surface hydrology and crop yield for a collection of hydrologic response units (HRUs) within a watershed, and has manual irrigation or auto-irrigation routines tied to both surface water sources and groundwater. However, groundwater flow in the aquifer and groundwater discharge to streams is simulated using simplistic flow and lagging equations, without consideration of aquifer heterogeneity or regional groundwater flow patterns. Cai et al. (2003) and Bulatewicz et al. (2010) developed specialized hydrologic-agronomic-economic modeling systems for irrigated river basins, with the latter using the EPIC model for crop yield simulation and the Analytical Element Model (Strack, 1989) for groundwater flow. Xu et al. (2012) linked MODFLOW with SWAP (Soil-Water-Atmosphere-Plant) to provide a modeling system that estimates recharge and evapotranspiration fluxes in groundwater systems, but did not apply it to groundwater management scenarios. Varela-Ortega et al. (2011) applied a linked WEAP-economic model to the Upper Guadiana basin in central Spain to analyze effects of water and agricultural policies; however, the modeling system did not use process-based groundwater flow. Hadded et al. (2013) developed the decision support system WEAP (Water Evaluation and Planning)-MODFLOW for

groundwater management in Tunisia, with WEAP passing water use to MODFLOW to simulate pumping and groundwater levels. Pokhrel et al. (2015) modified a global Land Surface Model (LSM) to include groundwater dynamics, groundwater pumping, irrigation, and crop growth to simulate groundwater depletion at the global scale and also for specific aquifers in the USA. More recently, Bailey et al. (2016) published a linked SWAT-MODFLOW, but the modeling system has not yet been applied to groundwater management scenarios in irrigated regions.

Typically, the modeling systems in this third approach are designed for large (river basin, global) spatial and temporal scales, without consideration of field-scale crop yield, strategies, and conditions (e.g., soil, depth to water table, pumping depth, etc.). There is a need for a modeling framework that addresses field-scale cropping conditions while accounting for groundwater availability in space and time throughout the aquifer system. To assess groundwater storage and crop yield simultaneously over time under various management strategies, groundwater pumping should be dependent on crop water demand, and applied irrigation depths and timing should be constrained by available groundwater volumes and actual pumping rates (i.e., well capacity).

The objective of this chapter is to present a linked agronomic-hydrological modeling system that can be used to evaluate alternative management strategies conducive to both groundwater management and crop production sustainability in groundwater-based irrigated regions. The modeling framework links the DSSAT model with MODFLOW, with one DSSAT simulation for each cultivated field within the MODFLOW aquifer modeling domain. Linkage occurs on an annual basis, with DSSAT-simulated irrigation depths and deep percolation converted to pumping rates and recharge for MODFLOW, respectively. For the following season, saturated thickness simulated by MODFLOW constrains pumping rates, irrigation

depths, and timing for each pumping well. The scheme is demonstrated for Finney County, Kansas, a portion of the Ogallala aquifer region experiencing severe groundwater depletion due to extensive groundwater pumping for irrigation. Whereas this paper focuses on the presentation of the model and a demonstration example, future studies can focus on assessing and quantifying the impact of conservation strategies on both groundwater storage and crop yield.

2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF DSSAT-MODFLOW MODELING SYSTEM

2.2.1 MODEL OVERVIEW

2.2.1.1 DECISION SUPPORT SYSTEM FOR AGROTECHNOLOGY TRANSFER (DSSAT)

The Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) is a software application program that comprises crop simulation models for over 40 crops. DSSAT is supported by data base management programs for soil, weather, crop management and experimental data, and by utilities and application programs. The crop simulation models simulate growth, development and yield as a function of the soil-plant-atmosphere dynamics. DSSAT and its crop simulation models have been used for many applications ranging from on-farm and precision management to regional assessments of the impact of climate variability and climate change. The crop models require daily weather data, soil surface and profile information, and detailed crop management as input (e.g., irrigation schedules). Crop genetic information is defined in a crop species file that is provided by DSSAT and cultivar or variety information that is provided by the user. Simulations are initiated either at planting or prior to planting through the simulation of a bare fallow period. The simulations are conducted at a daily time step and, in some cases, at an hourly time step depending on the process and the crop model. At the end of the day the plant and soil water, nitrogen and carbon balances are updated, as well as the crop's vegetative and reproductive development stage. DSSAT integrates the effects of soil, crop

cultivar, weather and management options, and allows users to ask “what if” question by conducting virtual simulation experiments.

DSSAT also provides for evaluation of crop model outputs with experimental data, thus allowing users to compare simulated outcomes with observed results. This is critical prior to any application of a crop model, especially if real-world decisions or recommendations are based on modeled results. Crop model evaluation is accomplished by inputting the user’s minimum data, running the model, and comparing outputs with observed data. DSSAT includes improved application programs for seasonal, spatial, sequence and crop rotation analyses that assess the economic risks and environmental impacts associated with irrigation, fertilizer and nutrient management, climate variability, climate change, soil carbon sequestration, and precision management (Hoogenboom et al., 2019)

2.2.1.2 MODFLOW

The MODFLOW (Harbaugh, 2005) is a physically-based, spatially-distributed groundwater flow model that solves the groundwater flow equation for spatial- and time-dependent groundwater hydraulic head using the finite difference method. It can be used to simulate groundwater flow in both confined and unconfined aquifers. The aquifer model domain is discretized into cells laterally and vertically, with uniform properties of the aquifer (e.g., hydraulic conductivity, specific storage, and specific yield) within a grid cell. The MODFLOW can be run for steady-state or transient conditions, with the latter simulating groundwater head for each grid cell at each time step of the simulation period. The time domain is divided into stress periods, with each stress period divided into time steps. A stress period is a length of simulation time over which all groundwater stresses (e.g., recharge, pumping) remain constant.

2.2.2 DSSAT-MODFLOW MODELING SYSTEM

The linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system developed in this study is based on a simulation loop that passes data between DSSAT and MODFLOW on an annual basis. This system therefore assumes that crop growth is not dependent on the position of the water table, as there is no feedback between MODFLOW and DSSAT during the growing season. The current version of the model therefore may not be applicable regions with shallow water tables. The linkage process and annual simulation loop are summarized in the schematic shown in Fig. 2-1.

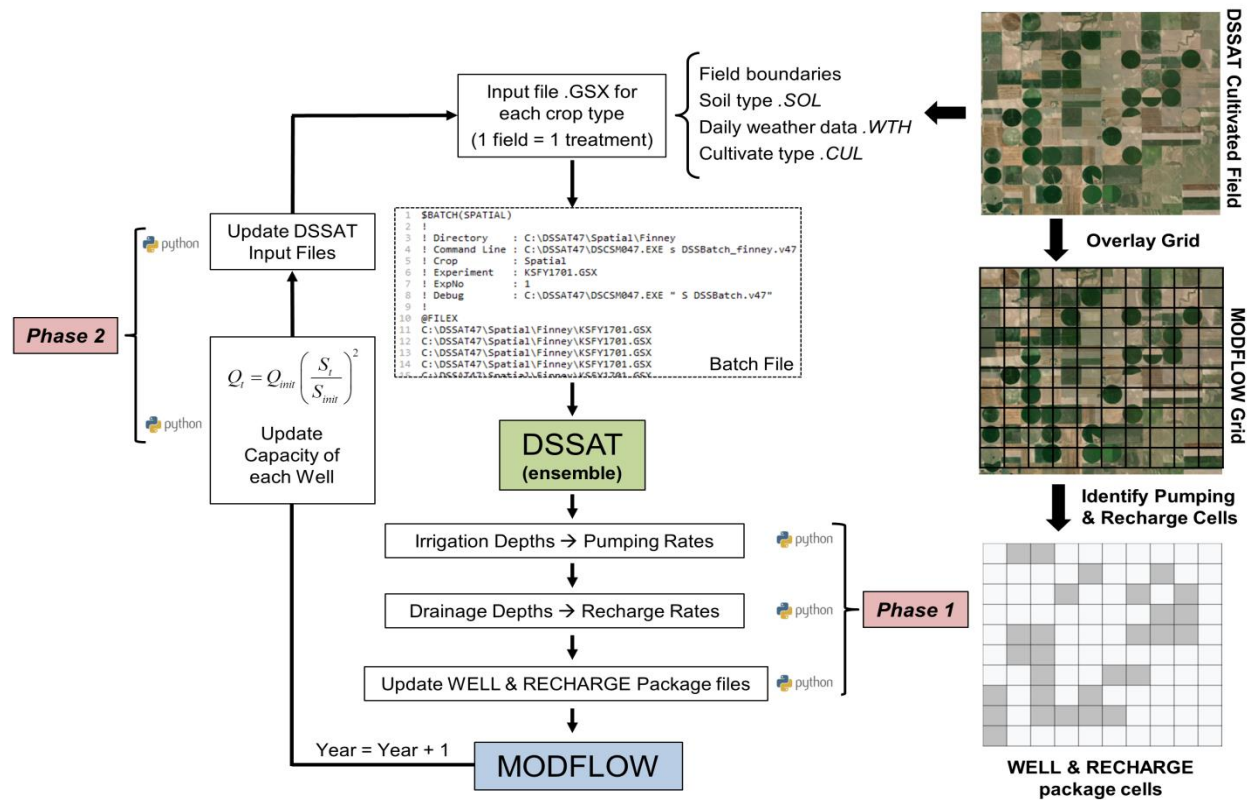


Fig. 2-1. Schematic showing the procedure of linking multiple DSSAT simulations with a MODFLOW model. The modeling framework consists of a batch of DSSAT simulations, a MODFLOW model, and two Python scripts to transfer data between the models.

For a selected model domain, one DSSAT model is run for each cultivated field according to field boundaries (to calculate total cultivated area), soil type, daily weather data, and cultivar type. Mapping DSSAT output to MODFLOW, and vice versa, is explained in the following subsections.

Step 1: Ensemble of DSSAT Simulations

The DSSAT model is used to simulate crop yield and water use. The Spatial module/utility with a batch file is used to simulate the ensemble of DSSAT field simulations within the model domain. The batch file contains a list of all main .GSX input files (*see Fig. 2-S1 in Appendices for example*), with one .GSX input file for each crop type within the model domain. Within each .GSX file, weather data, soil type, cultivar type, planting schedule, and irrigation method, are specified for each field of that crop type (*see Fig. 2-S2 in Appendices for example*). Within each simulation, DSSAT calculates the applied irrigation depths/amount (mm) throughout the growing season for each field.

Step 2: Linkage Phase 1 (DSSAT → MODFLOW)

Phase 1 in the linkage process converts DSSAT output to MODFLOW input, using a Python script. Pumped groundwater volumes are mapped to MODFLOW's grid cells (rows and columns) (see gray cells on the MODFLOW grid in Fig. 2-1) using the intersected portion of each field in each grid cell, and then written to a text file for MODFLOW's Well package, which lists the rate and corresponding layer, row, and column of each pumping cell active during the current growing season. As irrigation occurs only for a fraction of days during the growing season, consequently most daily pumping rates are 0. For the case of a field containing multiple irrigation wells, water use is proportionally distributed to each irrigation well according to the ratio of authorized withdrawal quantity of each single well.

Recharge volumes for each grid cell are written to a text file for MODFLOW's Recharge package. Total recharge includes precipitation recharge and irrigation return recharge. As DSSAT simulations account for precipitation, precipitation recharge is estimated only for cells that do not contain a cultivated field, or for cultivated field cells during the non-growing season. Precipitation recharge can be estimated using a number of techniques. For the application shown

in this paper (Section 2.3), precipitation recharge is computed using a power function (Liu et al., 2010). For cells that contain a cultivated field, recharge from irrigation events is assumed to be equal to the daily deep percolation from the bottom of the soil profile, as simulated by DSSAT. The depth of deep percolation is multiplied by the field area to provide a daily volumetric flow rate, and then mapped to the intersected grid cells. The volume of recharge for each cell is then divided by the cell area, to provide a rate in L/T for inclusion in MODFLOW's Recharge package. (*see Fig. 2- S3 in Appendices for one year example*)

Step 3: MODFLOW Simulation

Following the conclusion of annual DSSAT runs and the conversion of irrigation depths to pumping rates, the MODFLOW simulation is run for the year to simulate groundwater hydraulic head (i.e., water table elevation for unconfined aquifers) for each finite difference grid cell. Daily stress periods are used to account for daily pumping rates provided by DSSAT. The groundwater head values at the end of the year are used to compute saturated thickness (i.e., groundwater head - bedrock elevation), which is used to update well capacity for each pumping well, as discussed in Step 4. The final groundwater head values at the end of the year are used as initial conditions for the simulation of the following year.

Step 4: Linkage Phase 2 (MODFLOW → DSSAT)

Phase 2 of the linkage process has two main purposes: (1) compute a new well capacity for each pumping well, and (2) update irrigation parameters in the DSSAT simulations that rely on the well capacity. The impact of groundwater decline expressed in the form of well capacity on grain yield and a producer's irrigation decisions were demonstrated in Araya et al. (2018) and Rouhi Rad et al. (2019), respectively. In this study, well capacity is defined as the maximum rate at which the well can reasonably operate, given the local saturated thickness of the aquifer.

Well capacity Q_t [L^3/T] is updated (see Figure 1) using the following relationship for unconfined aquifers (Harman, 1966):

$$Q_t = Q_{init} \left(\frac{S_t}{S_{init}} \right)^2 \quad (2-1)$$

Where Q_{init} and S_{init} are the pumping rate [L^3/T] and aquifer saturated thickness [L] at some designated time $t = 0$, and S_t is the aquifer saturated thickness [L] after t years. Saturated thickness S_t is calculated for each grid cell as the difference between the MODFLOW-simulated groundwater head (approximately equivalent to the water table in unconfined aquifers) and the bedrock elevation, with the latter often specified as the bottom of the lowest layer in the MODFLOW model.

The IFREQ (Irrigation Frequency) and IRAMT (Irrigation Application Depth) parameters control irrigation application in DSSAT simulations. The IFREQ parameter relates to the minimum number of days between irrigation events, which is equal to the time (days) required to irrigate the field, and IRAMT (mm) is the irrigation management depth. These parameters are listed in the .GSX input files of DSSAT. The values for these two parameters are constrained by the rate at which the groundwater can be extracted from the aquifer, i.e., the well capacity of the pumping well supplying the groundwater as well as the amount of area irrigated. In this way, the updated well capacity of each pumping well as provided by MODFLOW is used to constrain the irrigation capacity simulated by DSSAT for each irrigated field in the model domain. To update IFREQ for each field, an assumption is made that 2.54 cm (1 inch) of water is supplied to the entire field. The time required to apply irrigation is then calculated by dividing the volume of water applied to the field by the well capacity Q_t for the pumping well that provides water to the field. If IFREQ is calculated to be longer than 14 days, which is assumed to

be the longest time for a single irrigation event, then IFREQ is set to 14 days and instead the depth of irrigation IRAMT is re-calculated to provide a depth < 2.54 cm (1.0 inch).

Step 5: Multiple-Year Simulation

Multiple-year simulations are feasible through a batch file (*see Fig. 2-S4 in Appendices for one year example*) that contains a series of command-lines for looping simulations under the environment of DOS, OS/2, or Microsoft Windows. Command-lines in the batch are divided into blocks in terms of year, since the linked model exchange information annually, which is user-friendly to prepare a batch file for the simulations of the linked model.

2.2.3 Model CAPABILITIES AND LIMITATIONS

Although not performed in this current study, the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system as explained in Section 2.2.2 can be used to explore alternative groundwater conservation strategies in irrigated areas, with both crop yield (on a field-by-field basis) and water table elevation and saturated thickness (on a cell-by-cell basis) tracked each year in the simulation period. The model can also be run under varying climate patterns to investigate the impact of climate on management scenarios. The variation of water table elevation and simulated crop yields are dynamically linked together through pumping rates and irrigation application timing and depth, which is conducive to making comprehensive sustainable groundwater use plans.

Currently, the linked model does not simulate water movement in the vadose zone, i.e., between the bottom of the soil layer and the top of water table. In the current system, deep percolation from the bottom of the soil profile, as simulated by DSSAT, and precipitation-based recharge, as simulated by a power function, are assumed to reach the water table instantaneously. Future versions of the modeling system could use the UZF (Unsaturated Zone Flow) package of MODFLOW to route the near-surface percolation water to the water table.

2.3 APPLICATION OF DSSAT-MODFLOW: FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS

2.3.1 STUDY REGION

The Ogallala aquifer (also often referred to as the High Plains Aquifer) underlies approximately 45,000 km² and portions of South Dakota, Wyoming, Nebraska, Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas (Fig. 2-2), providing water for about one fifth of all irrigated cropland in the USA and 30% of total crop and animal production in the USA (Guru and Horne, 2001; Rosenberg et al., 1999). The composition of aquifer material includes poorly sorted clay, silt, sand, and gravel, while the composition of bedrock unit is siltstone, shale, loosely to moderately cemented clay and silt, chalk, limestone, dolomite, conglomerate, claystone, gypsum, anhydrite, and bedded salt. The elevation of the aquifer bedrock is from 366 m (1200 ft) to 1829 m (6000 ft) above NGVD 29 (Gutentag et al., 1984).

Approximately 88% of the water pumped from the Ogallala aquifer is used for irrigated agriculture, in comparison with 60% of agricultural irrigation that is dependent on groundwater overall in the USA (Gollehon and Winston, 2013; Scanlon et al., 2012). The agricultural area makes up 41% of total land area in the Ogallala Aquifer Region (OAR), which contain 53% row crops, 33% small grains, and 14% pasture, alfalfa, and fallow lands. Furthermore, the agricultural land use supplies a large percentage of the total crop and animal production for the United States, including 19% of wheat, 19% of cotton, 15% of corn, 3% of sorghum, and about

18% of cattle and swine production (“USGS High Plains Aquifer WLMS: Physical/Cultural Setting,” n.d.).

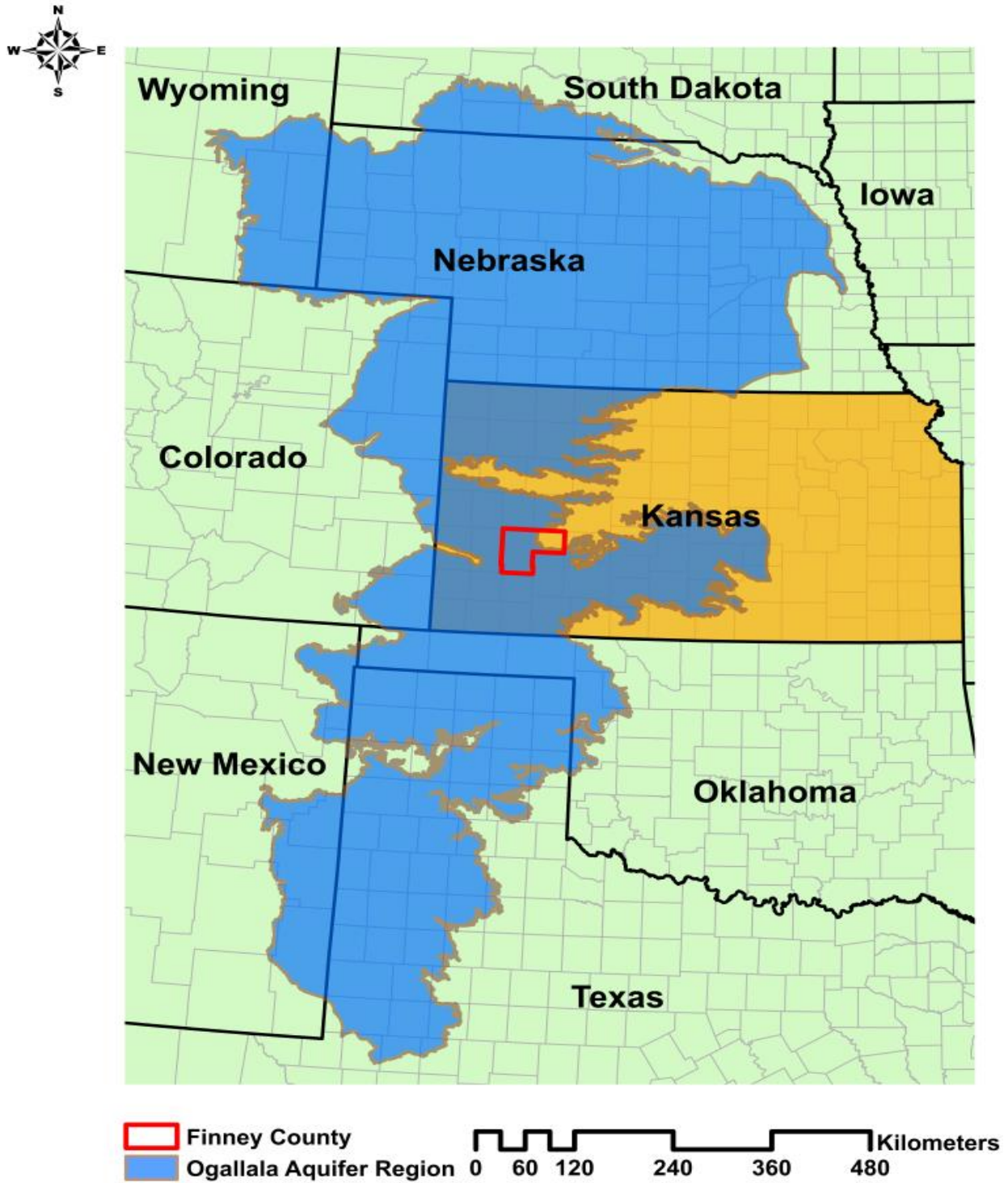


Fig. 2-2. Map of study region of Finney County in the Ogallala Aquifer. The area of Finney County is enclosed with the red contour line. The blue domain is the Ogallala Aquifer, and the states are separated by black lines.

Due to excessive pumping for irrigation, the rate of groundwater depletion has increased from $2.6 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during 1900 – 2000 to $12.5 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during 2003-2013 (Famiglietti, 2014), with 6% of the amount of groundwater storage decreased from the predevelopment period (1950s) during the 20th century (McGuire et al., 2003). The change in water table elevation from predevelopment to 2015 ranges from a decline of 78 m (256 ft) to a rise in 26 m (85 ft), with an average of 5 m (16 ft) decline (McGuire, 2014). Declines occur primarily in eastern Colorado, southwest Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, and rises in central Nebraska. Saturated thickness ranges from $> 305 \text{ m}$ (1,000 ft) in central Nebraska to $< 15 \text{ m}$ (50 ft) in large regions of eastern Colorado, western Kansas, and west Texas. According to Haacker et al. (2016), current rates of decline in parts of the southern and central High Plains regions may result in a near-complete depletion of groundwater in the next 20-30 years and an associated cessation of irrigation.

Finney County, Kansas (see Fig. 2-2 for county outline) is selected as the study area for the DSSAT-MODFLOW application (Fig. 2-2) due to its high dependence on groundwater for irrigation (roughly 97% of the total groundwater withdrawals) and a resulting 15-meter (50-foot) average decline in water table elevation in the majority of the county since 1950. Groundwater is used to irrigate 105,218 hectares (260,000 acres), using 1629 irrigation wells.

Fig. 2-3A shows a map of average water table elevation (m) during the 1997-2007 period, obtained by interpolating between 522 observation wells in the county. Water table elevation values for the wells were obtained from the Kansas Geological Survey's (KGS) Water Well Levels Database (WIZARD) and the KGS Water Well Completion Records Database (WWC5). About 10% of the point values were not involved in interpolation for calculating the interpolation error. The Ordinary Kriging method under Geostatistical Analyst Extension in ArcMap was used to make the interpolated surface of water table elevation maps for different years. Fig. 2-3B

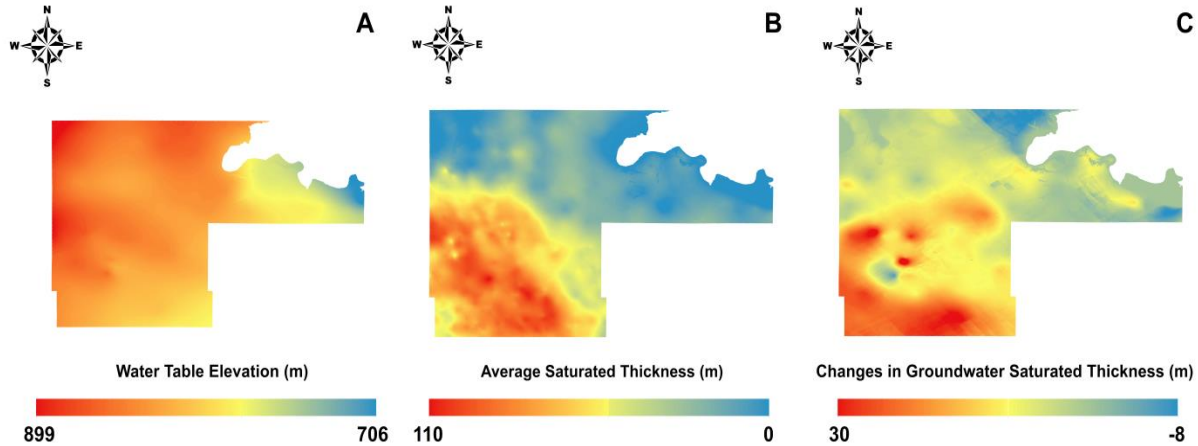


Fig. 2-3. Map of groundwater conditions in the Finney County. A) Average water table elevation in Finney County between 1997 and 2007; B) Average groundwater saturated thickness between 1997 and 2007; and C) The change in groundwater saturated thickness between 1997 and 2007.

shows an average saturated thickness (m) during 1997-2007 period. Saturated thickness was calculated as the difference between the water table elevation and the bedrock elevation. The bedrock elevation raster was derived from the well log data of drilled wells of WWC5 using the Ordinary Kriging method. Fig. 3C shows a change in saturated thickness between 1997 and 2007, with negative values indicating an increase in water table elevation. As seen in Fig. 2-3C, the southern part of the county has experienced the highest water table decline, with some areas up to 30 m (99 ft) over the time period, due to an initially high saturated thickness and an imbalance between pumping and recharge.

2.3.2 DSSAT-MODFLOW MODEL SETUP

2.3.2.1 INITIAL DATA PROCESSING

The fields and associated irrigation pumping wells in Finney County used for the DSSAT-MODFLOW model application are shown in Fig. 2-4. The spatial extent of each field was delineated using the National Agricultural Imagery Program (NAIP) aerial photo for 2015, resulting in rectangular and circular croplands within the county. Only fields with groundwater irrigation were included in the modeling system. These were identified using information from the state of Kansas' Water Information Management and Analysis System (WIMAS) and the

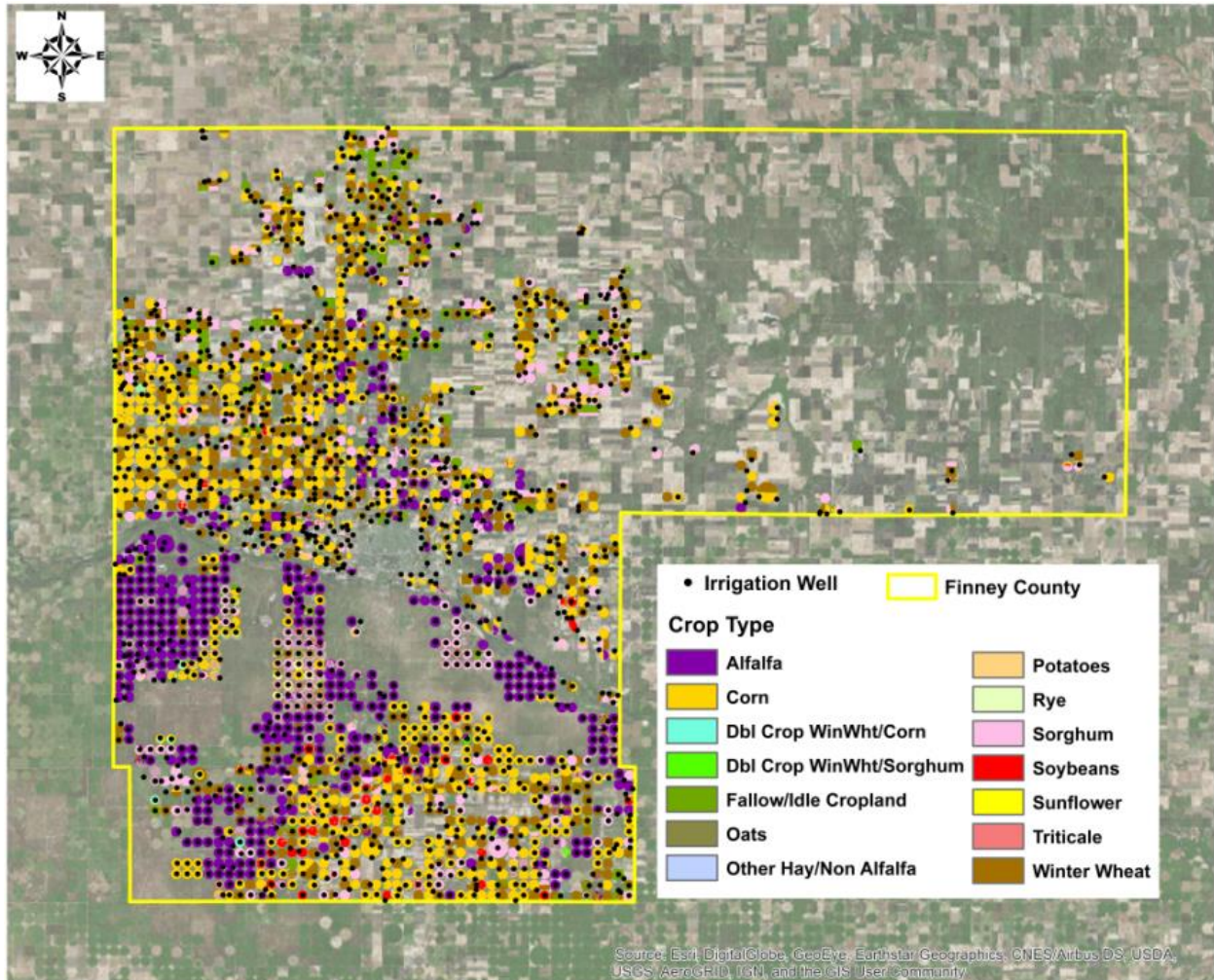


Fig. 2-4. Map of irrigation wells and crop types. In the Finney County, there are five major crop types, including corn, winter wheat, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale.

Public Land Survey System (PLSS), with the latter dividing the land into sections and quarter sections. If one or more irrigation wells are in a quarter section, then the parcel is classified as irrigated land. If there are no wells in the quarter section, but the quarter section includes a center pivot, and an irrigation well is located within a certain radial distance from the field, then the parcel is also considered as irrigated. Using this method, 1332 groundwater-irrigated field and 1629 irrigation pumping wells were located within the county (see Fig. 2-4). Authorized groundwater withdrawal quantity for each parcel, obtained from WIMAS, was used to determine the number of fields serviced by each pumping well, with the well's authorized quantity proportionally partitioned to the fields according to field spatial area.

2.3.2.2 ENSEMBLE OF DSSAT SIMULATION

The DSSAT model was previously calibrated and tested for the study area using experimental data, with cultivar parameters and associated calibrated values provided for corn, wheat, and grain in Araya et al. (2017). One DSSAT simulation was run for each of the 1332 fields shown in Fig. 2-4 according to properties of fields (e.g., soil type, crop type, soil water content, etc.), planting management (e.g. planting schedule, irrigation method, etc.), weather information, cultivar type, etc. All input information were organized into files according to DSSAT input file format, including Soil Input File (.SOL), Daily Weather Data (.WTH), Cultivar Input File (.CUL), Spatial Execution File (.GSX). Operations and management were summarized in the MgmtEvents.OUT.

As mentioned in section 2.3.2.1, all croplands in the same quarter section are considered as a whole parcel (field). To determine dominant soil and crop type (in 2015) for the groundwater-based irrigated parcels, the Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) and USDA's Cropland Data Layer (CDL) were utilized, respectively. The Zonal Statistics Tool in ArcMap was applied to determine dominant soil and crop type (in 2015) for each irrigated field. Since the SSURGO maps include a vast variety of soil types and to facilitate the DSSAT simulation, the dominant soil types of fields were merged into the seven specific soil groups, including Beeler silt loam, Las clay loam, Manter fine sandy loam, Richfield silt loam, Satanta loam, Ulysses silt loam, and Valent fine sand. Six major crops such as corn, winter wheat, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale on 564, 484, 28, 206, and 50 fields, respectively, in Finney County (Fig. 2-4) were simulated with the DSSAT model.

Historical weather data for 2000-2007 period was collected from a weather station located within the Finney County (39° N, 100° W) for DSSAT simulations. Weather data include

latitude (LAT), longitude (LONG), elevation (ELEV), air temperature average (TAV), air temperature amplitude (AMP), height of temperature measurements (REFHT), height of wind measurements (WNDHT), date (DATE), solar radiation (SRAD), maximum air temperature (TMAX), minimum air temperature (TMIN), precipitation (RAIN), and optional model parameters, such as dew-point temperature (DEWP), wind velocity (WIND), photosynthetic active radiation (PAR), respectively (Jones and Singels, 2008; Tsuji et al., 1994) (*see Fig. 2-S5 in Appendices*).

2.3.2.3 MODFLOW MODEL

The calibrated MODFLOW model for southwest Kansas Groundwater Management District No.3 (GMD3), developed by the Kansas Geological Survey (KGS) (Liu et al., 2010), was used for linkage with the DSSAT model. The domain area of the MODFLOW model is 161 kilometers by 241 kilometers (100 miles by 150 miles) with a rectangular expanse that contains GMD3 and extends approximately 9.7 kilometers (6 miles) to the north, east, south, and west (Fig. 2-5A). The dimensions of each grid cell are 1.61 kilometers by 1.61 kilometers (1 mile by 1 mile). The KGS MODFLOW model contains two main phases, i.e., a steady-state simulation for the predevelopment period (1944-1946), and a transient simulation for the periods between 1947 and 2007. Time-varying specified-head and time-varying flux boundaries were applied along the northern and southern side of the model domain and the western and eastern edges of the model area, respectively. The top of the Permian and Cretaceous bedrock was considered as a no-flow boundary for the lower boundary of the model, while land surface was treated as the upper boundary of the model. Hydraulic conductivity (K) and specific yield (S_y) were dynamically updated through the observed water levels to take into account the influence of the decline in water table during transient periods; therefore, the calibrated model was divided

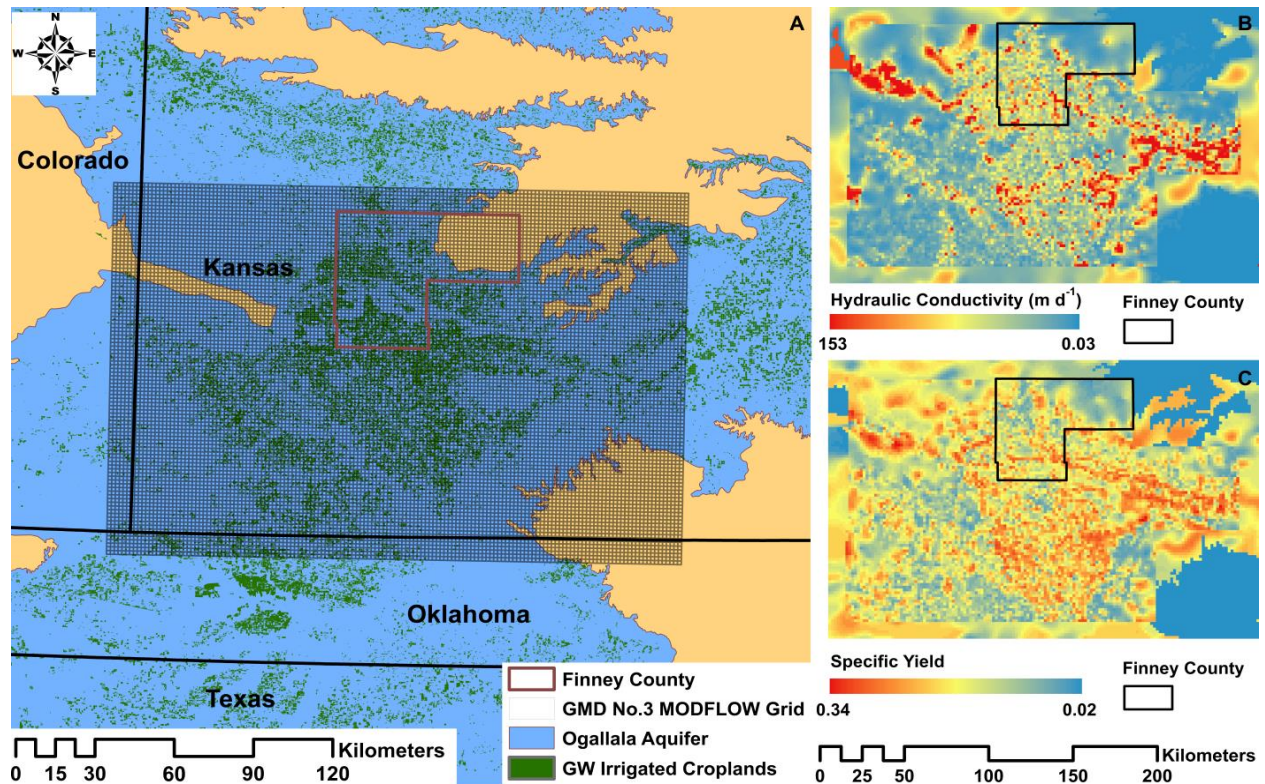


Fig. 2-5. Map of the domain area of KGS MODFLOW model, hydraulic conductivity, and specific yield. A) the domain area of MODFLOW model with total size of 161 kilometers by 241 kilometers (100 miles by 150 miles) and the size of 1.61 kilometers by 1.61 kilometers (1 mile by 1 mile) grid cell; B) the horizontal distribution of hydraulic conductivity in the KGS model area, with range from 0.03 to 153 $m d^{-1}$, and in the Finney County enclosed within the black contour line; C) the horizontal variation in specific yield in the model area, with range from 0.02 to 0.34, and in the Finney County enclosed within the black contour line.

into six periods, including predevelopment, predevelopment-1966, 1967-1976, 1977-1986, 1987-1996, and 1997-2007. Fig. 2-5B and 2-5C show cell-by-cell values of K and S_y used in the aquifer during the 1997-2007 simulation period. The pumped volumes from the Ogallala aquifer for the model were obtained from reported water-use records during 2000 - 2007 period (Liu et al., 2010).

Recharge to the water table occurs through precipitation recharge and irrigation return (deep percolation). Precipitation recharge was computed by a power-function relationship, and irrigation return recharge was calculated depending on the irrigation method. The model simulated stream-aquifer interaction using the stream package (STR), with 18 segments and 764 reaches in the three major streams (i.e., Arkansas River, Cimarron River, and Crooked Creek),

depending on stream stage calculated by the Manning equation with the assumption of a rectangular channel.

The stress period of the original KGS model is monthly, whereas the DSSAT simulations provide daily-based irrigation depths that are converted to daily pumping rates. As pumping simulated by the Well package is a stress for MODFLOW, the MODFLOW model was converted to daily stress periods, requiring changes to the Discretization file (.DIS), the Recharge Package file (.RCH), the Time-Variant Specified-Head Package file (.CHD), and the Stream Package file (.STR). The Well Package and Recharge Package input files were updated through the Phase 1 Python Code (see Figure 2-1), using depths of applied irrigation and deep percolation simulated by DSSAT for each cultivated field.

2.3.2.4 LINKED DSSAT-MODFLOW MODEL FOR FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS

The linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system for Finney County follows the data flow shown in Fig. 2-1. Following 1332 DSSAT simulations for the first year, with one simulation for each field, the DSSAT-simulated irrigation depths were converted to daily pumping rates for the 1629 pumping wells and mapped to the MODFLOW Well package. Similarly, recharge rates from precipitation and from DSSAT-simulated deep percolation were converted to daily recharge rates for each grid cell. The MODFLOW model was then run for that year, providing updated water table elevation and saturated thickness for each grid cell within the county boundary. The MODFLOW model for the entire GMD3 was run, with pumping rates only modified for the grid cells within the Finney County boundary.

Updated saturated thickness was used to update well capacity using Equ. 2-1. To do so, the initial well capacity Q_{mit} for each pumping well and the initial saturated thickness S_{mit} for each grid cell must be specified. Based on the KGS Water Well Completion Records Database

(WWC5), the well capacity value was available for only 503 irrigation wells in Finney County. Since the well capacity was measured during the 1975-1978 period for the majority of these irrigation wells, this period was selected to create an interpolated surface (raster) of well capacity in Finney County with the available values. The Geostatistical Analyst Extension in ArcMap was used to make the interpolated surface using Ordinary Kriging. By creating the interpolated surface of well capacity, the well capacity values were estimated for all irrigation pumping wells in the county during 1975-1978, which was considered as Q_{init} . Results are shown in Fig. 2-6A, with well capacity ranging from 1,499 to 16,566 $\text{m}^3 \text{d}^{-1}$ (275 to 3,039 gal min^{-1}). S_{init} values for the 1975-1978 period were calculated using water table elevation measurements from the KGS Water Well Level Database (WIZARD). Measurements from 1975 to 1978 were interpolated annually in the same way as for the Q_{init} values. Using the lithologic log information of the drilled wells in Finney County (as obtained from WWC5), the approximate location of the aquifer's base was located and the bed-rock elevation was estimated at 2281 borehole locations. Subsequently, an interpolated surface of bed-rock elevation was created for the county by using the same interpolation method. The saturated thickness raster was created by subtracting the bed-rock elevation raster from the water table elevation raster. The mean saturated thickness raster, considered as S_{init} , was created in ArcMap for the period of 1975 to 1978 as the initial saturated thickness (Fig. 2-6B).

The simulation was made for the 2000 - 2007 period, with simulation results compared against observed groundwater levels and estimated county-wide crop yield for corn, sorghum, winter wheat, and soybeans. A scenario without pumping was also simulated to quantify the influence of pumping on groundwater levels in the county.

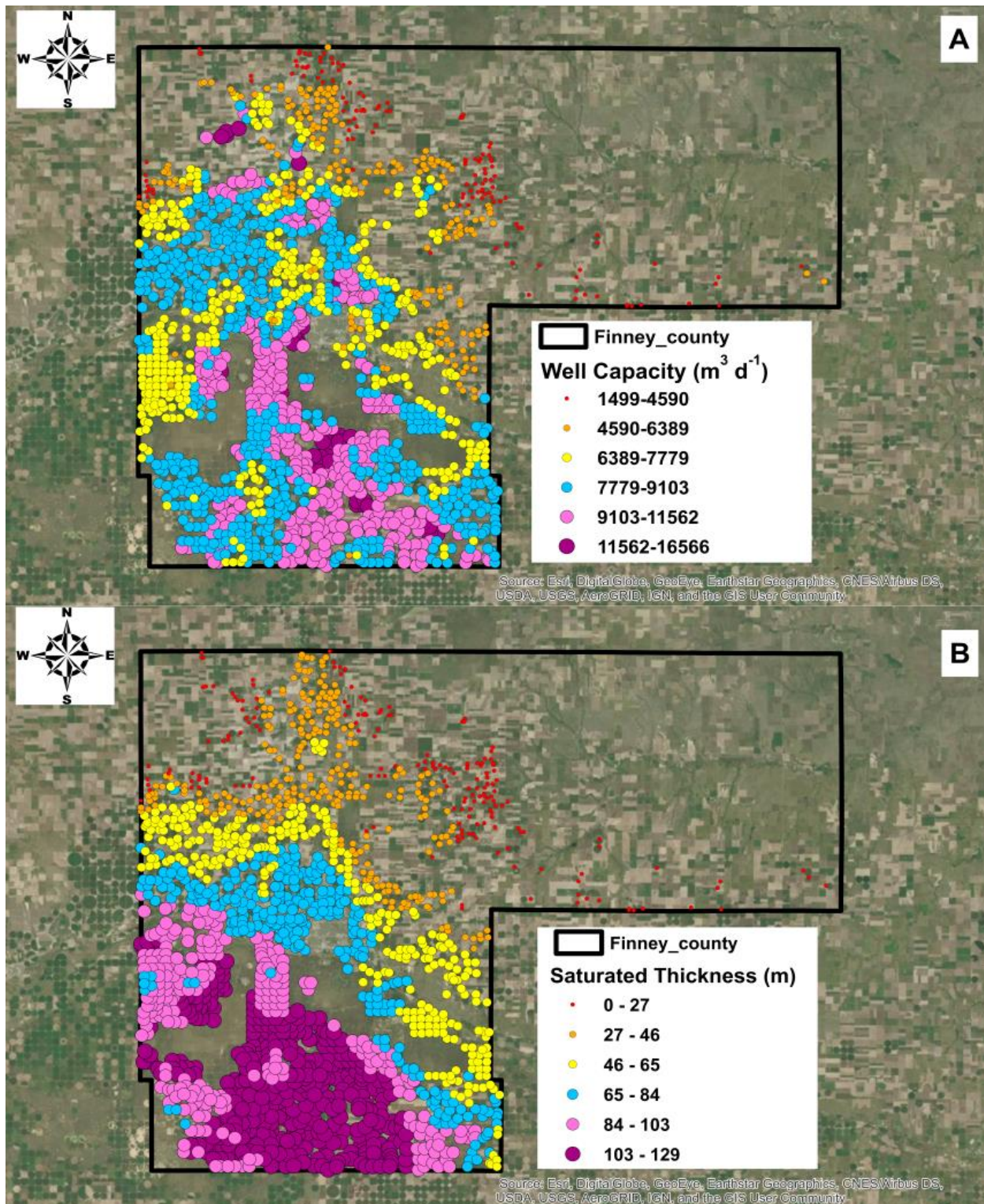


Fig. 2-6. Map of initial well capacity and saturated thickness in Finney County. A) Initial well capacity in Finney County during 1975 to 1978; B) Initial saturated thickness in Finney County that is averaged between 1975 and 1978.

2.3.2.5 SCENARIO ANALYSIS

A simple model application was performed to demonstrate the use of the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system. An end-member analysis was performed for assessing the effects of 1) pumping at the current rates of 2000-2007, and 2) cessation of all pumping, for the 2000-2007 time period. Crop yield for both scenarios were also assessed. Future studies can use the DSSAT-MODFLOW system to explore and quantify the effects of irrigation technology and management practices.

2.3.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.3.3.1 WATER TABLE ELEVATION

The comparison between observed and simulated water table elevation (WTE) for both the original MODFLOW model and the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model is shown in Fig. 2-7A and 7B, respectively. As seen in the figures, the points for both models are scattered along the 1:1 line, with no apparent pattern for either model, and average errors for the original MODFLOW and the linked model are -8.5 m (-28 ft) and -8.7 m (-29 ft), respectively. Fig. 2-7C shows the results from both models plotted against each other, showing a strong similarity in groundwater head output from the two models, with NSCE of 0.99 and scaled RMSE of 0.01637 (1.637 %). This is an especially important result, as this indicates that the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system is able to provide pumping rates comparable to the reported pumping rates used in the original MODFLOW model. Therefore, DSSAT can be used as a “pumping rate simulator” for MODFLOW models in groundwater-irrigated regions.

Fig. 2-8A shows the cell-by-cell WTE values (m) in the end of 2007 due to continuous pumping for the 2000-2007 periods, with high water tables in the northern and western edges of the county. Fig. 2-8B shows the same plot for the scenario without pumping, and Fig. 2-8C

shows the difference in WTE between the two scenarios (i.e., groundwater drawdown). For the latter, as expected large differences occur in the regions of densely-located irrigation well (see Fig. 2-4).

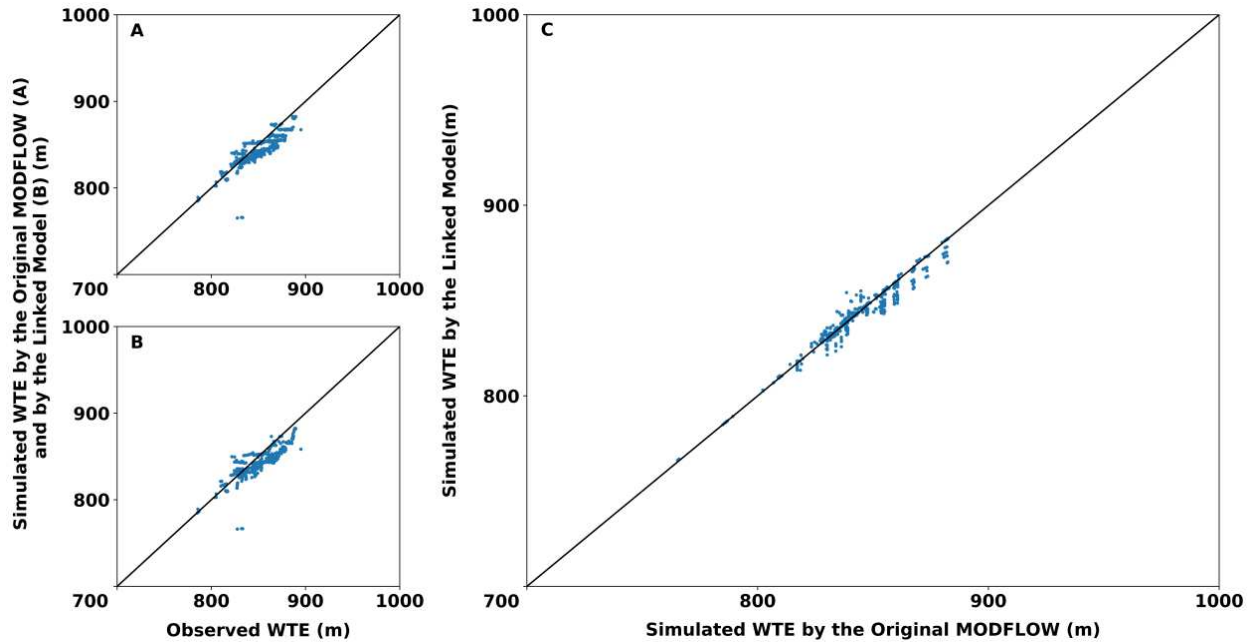


Fig. 2-7. The comparison of simulated water table elevation (WTE) and observed water table elevation and the comparison of simulated water table elevation between MODFLOW model and the linked model. A) the comparison of observed and simulated water table elevation by the original MODFLOW model; B) the comparison of observed and simulated water table elevation by the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model; C) the comparison of simulated water table elevation between MODFLOW model and the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model.

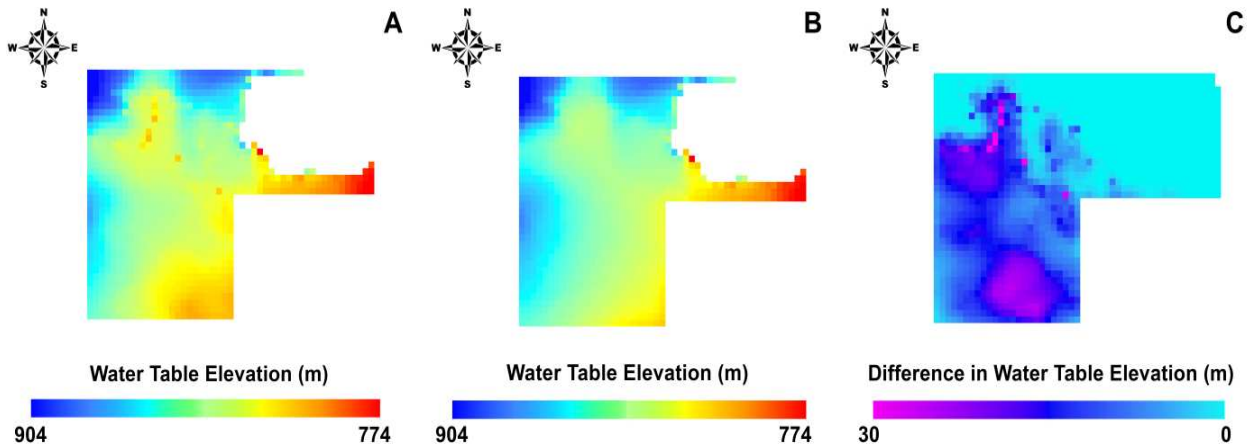


Fig. 2-8. The water table elevation with pumping and without pumping and the groundwater drawdown in Finney County during 2000-2007 simulated by the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model. A) Water table elevation in the Finney County with pumping; B) Water table elevation in the Finney County without pumping; C) Groundwater drawdown due to pumping in the Finney County during 2000 – 2007.

2.3.3.2 CROP YIELD

Estimates of county-wide observed and simulated crop yield for 2002 and 2007 are presented in Fig. 2-9 for corn, sorghum, winter wheat, and soybean. Results are shown for the

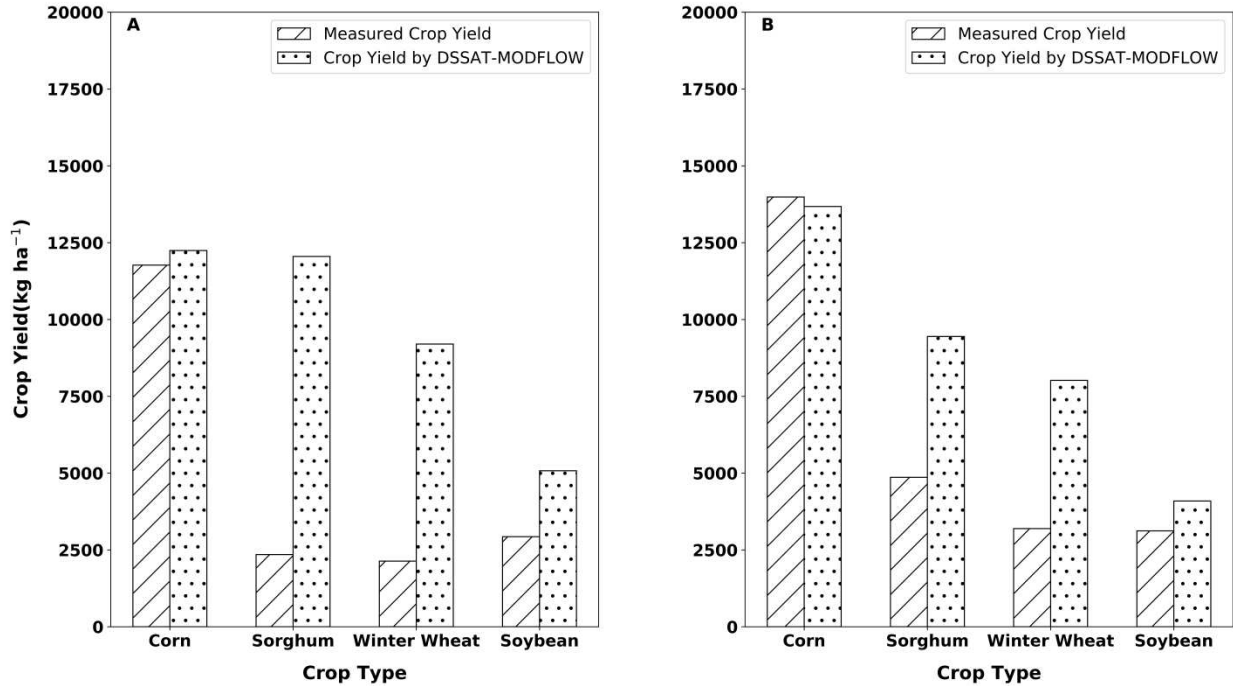


Fig. 2-9. Comparison between measured crop yield and simulated crop yield. A) Comparison between average measured crop yield and simulated crop yield by the DSSAT-MODFLOW linkage in 2002. Standard error mean are 0.003, 0.2, 0.3, 16 kg ha⁻¹ for simulated corn, sorghum, winter wheat, soybean, respectively. B) Comparison between average measured crop yield and simulated crop yield by the DSSAT-MODFLOW linkage in 2007. Standard error mean are 0, 0.06, 0.5, 8 kg ha⁻¹ for simulated corn, sorghum, winter wheat, soybean, respectively.

county-based measurements and the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model, with results from measurements and the linked model using a method: calculating a weighted average of crop yield using the area of each field. In 2002, simulated yield for the crops are extremely high (12,052 kg ha⁻¹ and 9200 kg ha⁻¹ for sorghum and winter wheat, respectively) compared to the measured values (2,349 kg ha⁻¹ and 2,137 kg ha⁻¹ for sorghum and winter wheat, respectively), possibly due to uncertainty in the weather data input into the DSSAT simulations. In addition, measured values include fields for the entire county, whereas model results are only for groundwater-irrigated fields. Other fields may not have as high of crop yield, due to dependence on surface water or reliance on rainfall in the case of dryland farming, thereby decreasing the overall

average crop yield. Also, it could be due to the reason that the modeled crop yield does not account for pest/weed pressure. Furthermore, for sorghum and winter wheat, which show a large difference between simulated and measured values, the reason could be an inadequate calibration for southwest Kansas. In general, simulated yields will be difficult to match county average yields for sorghum and winter wheat because these crops are either not irrigated or under deficit irrigation, so there exists a wide standard deviation around the mean yield. In 2007, the measured value for corn ($13,980 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) is a little higher than the simulated value ($13,677 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$), and the measured and simulated values for soybean are $3,120 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ and $4,092 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$, respectively.

2.3.3.3 Well Capacity and Saturated Thickness

Well capacity should be tracked through time to determine feasibility of future pumping in the region. The relationship between well capacity ($\text{m}^3 \text{ d}^{-1}$) for each pumping well and

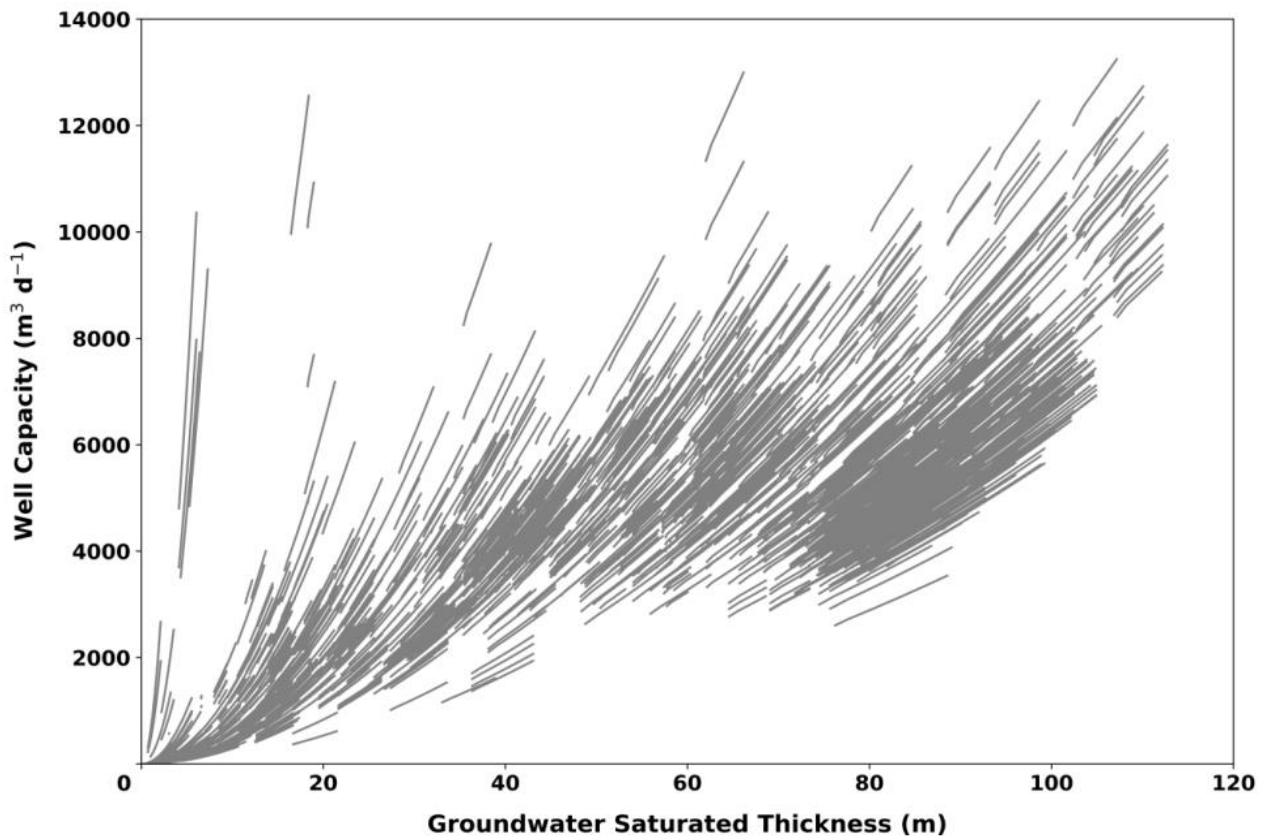


Fig. 2-10. The relationship between well capacity ($\text{m}^3 \text{ d}^{-1}$) and groundwater saturated thickness (m) for each pumping well in Finney County. The relationship is tracked during the 2000-2007 time period, with well capacity decreasing as saturated thickness decreases. For some wells, well capacity approached 0 as the groundwater is completely depleted in the local area.

groundwater saturated thickness in the local area of the pumping well (i.e., the grid cell in which the pumping well resides) is shown in Fig. 2-10. There is one trend line for each pumping well, showing the decrease in well capacity during the 2000-2007 time periods due to decrease in saturated thickness. Each segment trends to 0, with several wells reaching 0 well capacity due to a complete depletion of groundwater in the local area around the pumping well. For areas with a large saturated thickness (> 76 m), well capacities are not significantly sensitive to the change in saturated thickness, whereas areas with small saturated thickness (< 18 m) exhibit a strong sensitivity of well capacity to saturated thickness. Similarly, well capacity is sensitive to saturated thickness for wells with high pumping rates (> 8000 m³ d⁻¹), not for wells with low pumping rates. The trend in well capacity, of course, could be reversed if pumping ceases.

2.3.3.4 PERCENT CHANGE IN WELL CAPACITY

The percent change in well capacity for each pumping well during the 2000-2007 period in Finney County is shown in Fig. 2-11. Well capacity changes spatially in terms of crop type, which dictates pumping rates, and aquifer characteristics, which dictate saturated thickness. Dark and light blue dots represent wells that increased capacity due to replenishment of groundwater. However, the majority of Finney County experiences a decline in well capacity. The highest changes in well capacity (>60%) occurred in the north region of the Finney County in which corn and winter wheat were grown (see Fig. 2-4), due to low well capacity and small initial saturated thickness (see Fig. 2-3B and Fig. 2-6). Moderate changes in well capacity (20%-40%), and high changes (> 40%) occurs in the southern area, again related to initial well capacity and initial saturated thickness.

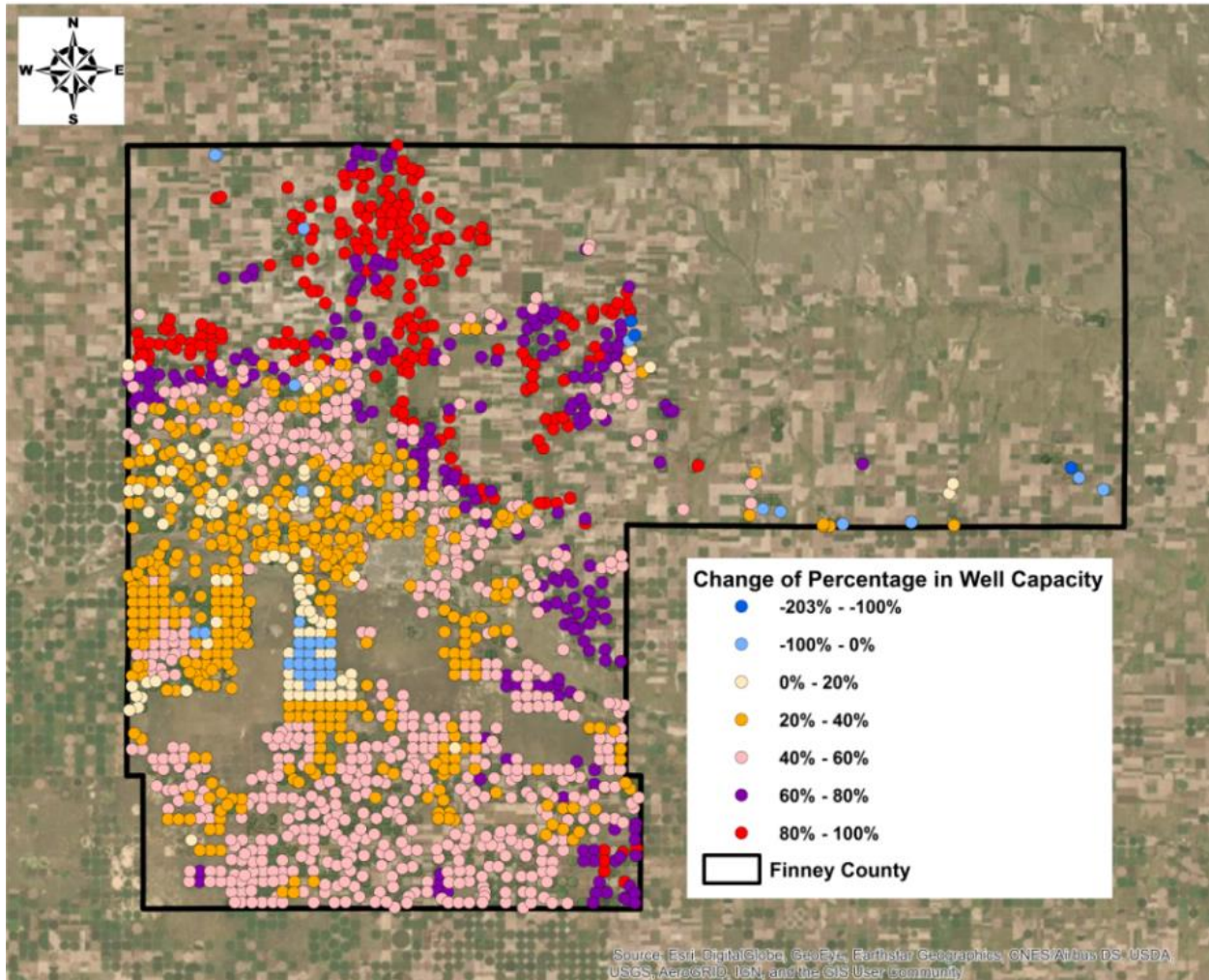


Fig. 2-11. The change in well capacity in Finney County during the simulated 2000-2007 period, expressed as a percentage. Negative values indicate an increase in well capacity.

2.3.3.5 RESULTS OF PUMPING VS. NO PUMPING

Considering all cell-by-cell results from Finney County, average water table elevation gradually depletes during the 2000-2007 period. This is shown in Fig. 2-12, which shows the pre-development water table elevation (WTE), the elevation of the bedrock, and the WTE with full irrigation (i.e., the baseline model used in this study) (Fig. 2-12A). The average crop yields (kg ha⁻¹) are also shown for this scenario (Fig. 2-12B). Results from the second scenario, in which no groundwater pumping occurs during the 1997-2007 period, are also shown, along with average crop yield. As seen from the results, no irrigation during the decadal period increases average WTE from 846 m to 848 m (2,775 ft to 2,782 ft), with the change in WTE ranging from

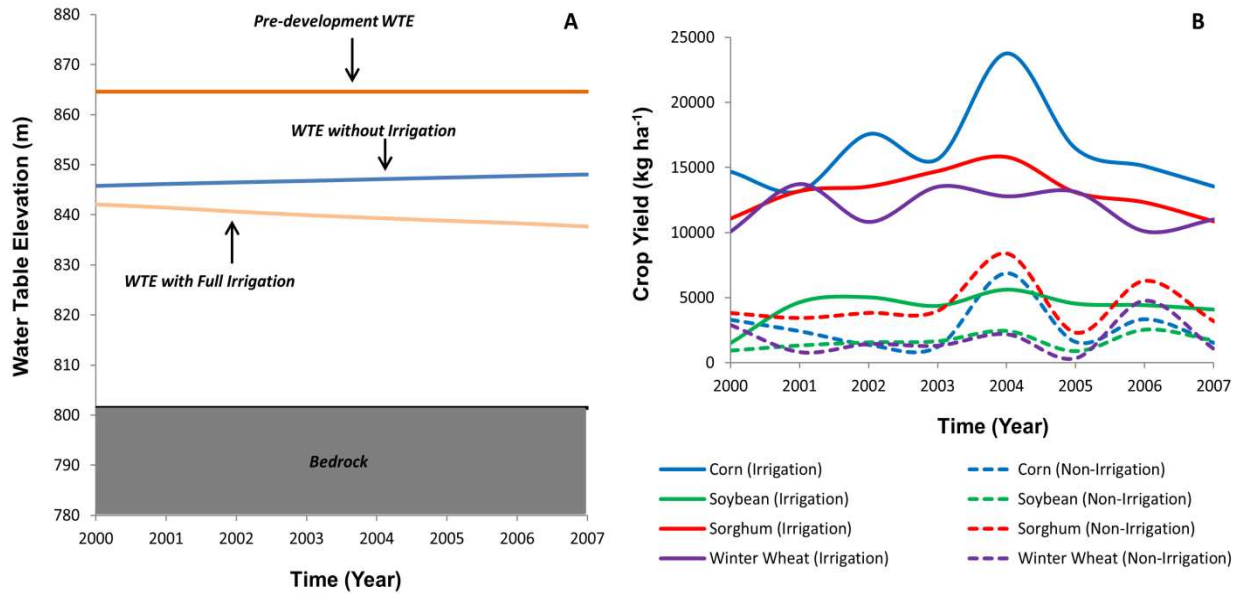


Fig. 2-12. Water table elevation (WTE) and crop yield under the scenarios of 1) full pumping and 2) no pumping) from 2000-2007. The WTE of the pre-development period (pre-1946) and the bedrock elevation also are shown.

a decline of 2 m (6 ft) to a rise of 9 m (29 ft). However, this increase is at the expense of crop yields, which are decreased from 16238 kg ha⁻¹ (Corn), 4277 kg ha⁻¹ (Soybean), 13071 kg ha⁻¹ (Sorghum), and 11892 kg ha⁻¹ (Winter Wheat) for the full irrigation scenario to 2705 kg ha⁻¹ (Corn), 1632 kg ha⁻¹ (Soybean), 4405 kg ha⁻¹ (Sorghum), and 1851 kg ha⁻¹ (Winter Wheat) for the non-irrigation scenario, with a decrease of crop yields by 83%, 62%, 66%, 84% for corn, soybean, sorghum, and winter wheat, respectively.

Therefore, management strategies are sought that balance between conserving groundwater and maintaining crop yield for future decades, i.e., that can decrease the gap between the “full pumping” and “no pumping” scenarios while also preserving adequate crop yield for the local economy. Such strategies may include implementing irrigation technology to increase irrigation efficiency, optimized irrigation scheduling, and crop selection. The linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model presented in this paper can assist in assessing the influence of these management strategies. The influence of future climate patterns on these impacts can also be estimated using the linked model.

2.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents a linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling framework and applied it to the Ogallala aquifer within Finney County, Kansas, a region experiencing significant groundwater depletion due to irrigation practices. The linkage between the models occurs on an annual time step, with irrigation depths from an ensemble of field-scale DSSAT simulations (DSSAT version 4.7) converted to pumping rates for the MODFLOW simulation (MODFLOW 2000). The MODFLOW simulates groundwater head, which can be used to update saturated thickness and thereby well capacities for each pumping well in the model domain. Well capacities are then used to constrain irrigation application in the DSSAT simulations during the following growing season. Python scripts are used to pass information between the two models and prepare input files. Batch files for DSSAT are used to run the ensemble of simulations for each year. Model results are tested against water table elevation and crop yield.

This chapter focuses on the presentation and demonstration of the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system, whereas future studies can focus on assessing future conditions under changes in climate and management practices. The DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system can be a valuable tool in assessing groundwater conservation strategies in groundwater-irrigated regions, since it tracks jointly groundwater resources (groundwater head, saturated thickness), pumping conditions (well capacity), and crop yield. Therefore, any strategy used to conserve groundwater can also be assessed in terms of resulting crop yield to determine feasibility for local economies. The model can be used to assess changes in irrigation technology, crop selection, and climate change. In addition, in areas where pumping rates are not readily available, the DSSAT portion of the linked model can be used to estimate pumping rates, based on DSSAT's crop growth routines and associated irrigation depths.

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CHAPTER 3 – USING DSSAT-MODFLOW TO DETERMINE THE CONTROLS OF GROUNDWATER STORAGE AND CROP YIELD IN GROUNDWATER-BASED IRRIGATED REGIONS²

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Groundwater resources are declining rapidly (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson, 2012; Castle et al., 2014b; Famiglietti, 2014; Haacker et al., 2016; Konikow, 2011; Konikow and Kendy, 2005; McGuire et al., 2003; Virginia L McGuire, 2014; Wada, 2016; Wada et al., 2010) notably in arid and semi-arid regions due to overexploitation (Rodríguez-Estrella, 2012) and lack of other viable water sources for irrigation and drinking water (Steward and Allen, 2016). Anthropogenic influences on groundwater storage (Döll et al., 2012) include the route of water movement (e.g. allocation (Petts, 1996), canal (Kanooni and Monem, 2014), etc.), domestic use (Chávez García Silva et al., 2020), agricultural irrigation (Wada et al., 2012), and manufacturing and industry (Gracia-de-Rentería et al., 2020), with depletion problems becoming worse due to increasing population (Carter and Parker, 2009; Castle et al., 2014). According to an estimation by Konikow (2011), groundwater globally depleted by about 4,500 km³ during 1900 – 2008, and regionally, 1000 km³ in the United States during 1900 – 2008 (Konikow, 2015); 170.3 km³ in North China Plain during 1900 – 2008 (Feng et al., 2013); 91.3 km³ in north-central Middle East during 2003 – 2009 (Voss et al., 2013); and 1.5 km³ in the Nairobi aquifer, Kenya since 1950 (Oiro et al., 2020).

In view of groundwater sustainability, many studies have focused on conserving groundwater resources (Chang et al., 2017; Gates et al., 2011; Q. Huang et al., 2013; Mays, 2013; Sheng, 2005). Most studies use a water balance modeling approach to estimate historical

² This paper has been submitted to *Journal of Hydrology*

and current groundwater volumes and explore the effect of management strategies and future stresses (e.g. population growth, land use change, climate) (Batelaan et al., 2003; Candela et al., 2012a; Carter and Parker, 2009; Cuthbert et al., 2019; Deng and Bailey, 2017; Farhadi et al., 2016; Gorelick and Zheng, 2015; Holman et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2013b; Jha et al., 2007; Kløve et al., 2014; Kumar, 2012; Masciopinto and Liso, 2016; McCallum et al., 2010; Mishra, 2014; Sekhar et al., 2013). Other modeling approaches through the recognition that in many regions groundwater storage and associated fluxes are controlled by agricultural production through irrigation, link groundwater models to agronomic models, resulting in a hydro-agronomic modeling approach. These approaches include the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (Arnold et al., 1998), although the groundwater system is simulated in a simplistic, lumped basis; the linked system of MODFLOW and SWAP (Soil-Water-Atmosphere-Plant) (Xu et al., 2012); the linked system of MODFLOW and WEAP (Water Evaluation and Planning) (Hadded et al., 2013); a global Land Surface Model to simulate crop growth and associated groundwater depletion for regions worldwide (Pokhrel et al., 2015); the linked SWAT-MODFLOW system (Bailey et al., 2016), recently applied to assess impact of climate change on groundwater storage and crop yield in a large river basin in the western United States (Aliyari et al., 2021); and the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW system (Xiang et al., 2020), which links irrigation demand and groundwater pumping on an annual basis.

However, these modeling studies have been performed without a detailed assessment of the factors that control groundwater storage and crop yield in these linked hydro-agronomic systems. Such an understanding can provide valuable insights into 1) causes for groundwater depletion; 2) sustainable management strategies; and 3) possible future trends of groundwater depletion and crop yield in such systems. Quantifying these controls can be performed through

model sensitivity analysis (SA) schemes, which have been widely implemented to understand uncertainties of a system caused by model input factors (Mishra, 2009) for parameterization (Castaings et al., 2009; Dzotsi et al., 2013; Khatun et al., 2018), model understanding (Francos et al., 2003), model development (Pathak et al., 2007), model calibration (Foglia et al., 2009), model verification (Pfannerstill et al., 2015; Ratto et al., 2001), optimization (Yassin et al., 2017), model simplification (Brooks et al., 2001; Campolongo et al., 2007), uncertainty quantification (Vezzaro and Mikkelsen, 2012), management strategies (Roura-Pascual et al., 2010), and system design safety (Contini et al., 2000) in different fields of science and technology (Badra, 2007; Davis et al., 2011; Lamboni et al., 2009; Marino et al., 2008; Pianosi et al., 2016; Song et al., 2015; Tjiputra et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2020). Prior research has proved the necessity of sensitivity analysis (Kisekka et al., 2013; Sin et al., 2009; Trucano et al., 2006). SA has been applied to groundwater systems (Allen et al., 2004; Bahremand and Smedt, 2008; Deng and Bailey, 2020; Henderson et al., 2010; Javadi et al., 2011; Sun and Yeh, 1990; Sykes et al., 1985) and agronomic systems (Confalonieri et al., 2010; Dzotsi et al., 2013; Lamboni et al., 2009; Richter et al., 2010; Ruget et al., 2002; Thorp et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2013, 2005). For example, to simplify the complexity of hydrological parameter dimension, Chen et al. (2017) used the Sobol' method, with Latin-Hypercube sampling, to identify influential input parameters for the process of calibration with the goal of reducing computation cost. Climate change increases uncertain factors on groundwater systems, McCallum et al. (2010) used SA to determine the most important parameters in controlling groundwater recharge, within the context of climate change. For agronomic systems, Makowski et al. (2006) applied two SA schemes (i.e., winding stairs and extended FAST) to the AZODYN crop model to assess the contributions of genetic parameters on model responses. Varella et al. (2010) improved the quality of estimation

of soil-related parameters using the Extended FAST method and the Bayes theory-based function of RMSE through the STICS-wheat crop model. Adejuwon (2005) applied SA to the EPIC crop model to determine the suitability of an agronomic model for assessing the impact of future climate on crop yield prediction. However, SA has not yet been applied to a coupled groundwater-agronomic system, which may provide insights into the system that could not be achieved by assessing either system independently.

The objective of this chapter is to present results of applying SA to the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system (Xiang et al., 2020) to determine the governing environmental and management factors that control groundwater storage and crop yield in an intensively irrigated groundwater basin. Methods are applied to the DSSAT-MODFLOW linkage system using the Morris screening method followed by the Sobol' variance-based method, using random sampling. In total, fifty-seven parameters are considered for this study, including 10 soil-related parameters, 3 hydrologic parameters, and 44 cultivar genetic parameters. The study region for the research is in Southwest Kansas, a portion of the High Plains Aquifer (HPA) experiencing overdraft due to appropriation of water for irrigation.

3.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section provides details about the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system, its application to the study region in Southwest Kansas, and the implementation of SA to identify the system parameters that govern groundwater storage and crop yield. The study region will be presented first to provide context for the subsequent description of methods. The overall description of DSSAT-MODFLOW theory and linkage, and its initial application and testing to the study region, was detailed in Xiang et al. (2020).

3.2.1 STUDY REGION: FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS

The High Plains Aquifer (HPA), also referred to as the Ogallala Aquifer, is one of the largest fresh groundwater sources in the world, with a total area of 450,000 km² (174,000 mi²), partially covering eight Central States, including South Dakota, Wyoming, Nebraska, Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas (Fig.3-1A). The agricultural area of the aquifer

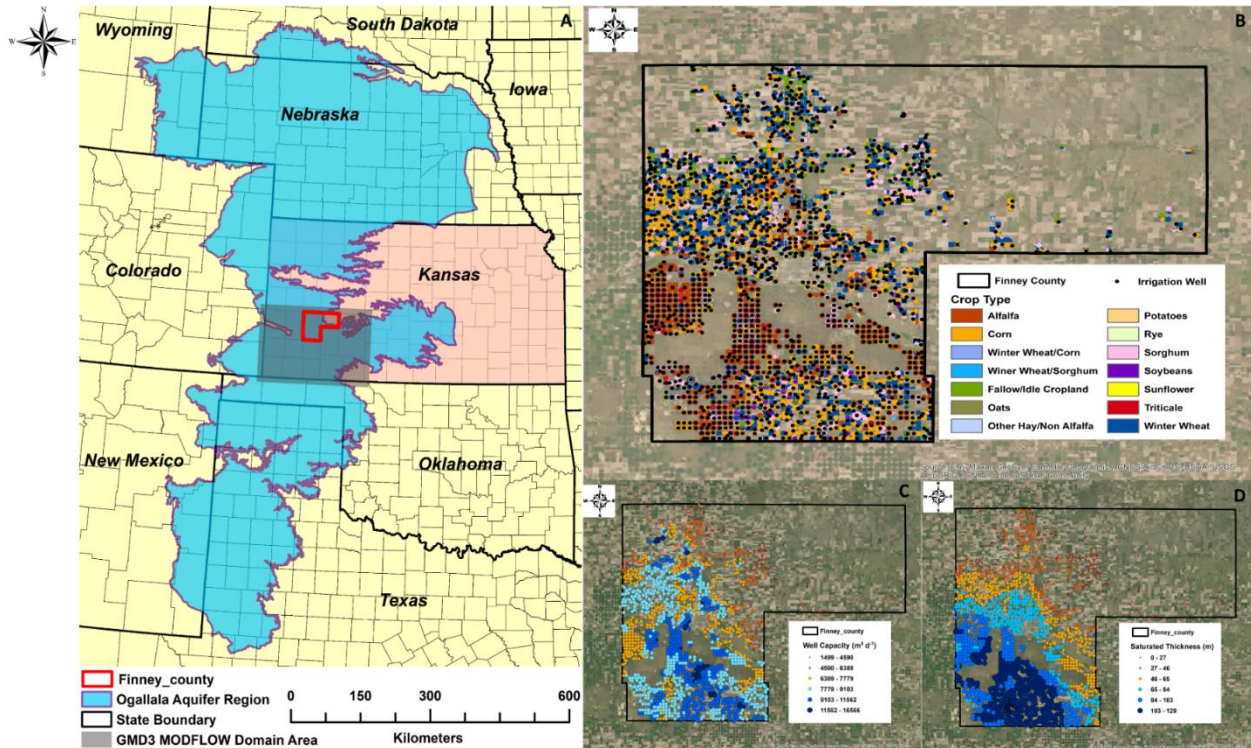


Fig. 3-1 Map of study region and related information. Fig.A shows map of study region of Finney County, southwest of Kansas, in the Ogallala Aquifer. The Finney County area is encompassed within the red contour line. The blue region enclosed with light purple line is the Ogallala Aquifer, and the states are divided with black lines; Fig.B shows map of irrigation well and crop types (Finney County mainly contains five crops, including corn, winter wheat, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale); Fig.C & D show initial well capacity during 1975-1978 and initial average saturated thickness during 1975-1978 in Finney County, respectively.

region provides 30% of total crop and animal production for the U.S.A. (Guru and Horne, 2001; Rosenberg et al., 1999) accounting for 41% (i.e., 20% irrigated cropland in the U.S.A.) of total land area with an annual production of over \$35 billion (Basso et al., 2013). Of crops produced in the HPA, 86% is for row crops and small grains, and 14% is for pasture, alfalfa, and fallow lands (“USGS High Plains Aquifer WLMS: Physical/Cultural Setting,” n.d.). Approximately 90% of water pumped from the HPA is used for agricultural irrigation, compared with 42% of

groundwater withdrawn for cropland in other regions of the U.S.A. (Gollehon and Winston, 2013; Scanlon et al., 2012). The composition of aquifer material in the HPA consists of poorly sorted clay, silt, sand, and gravel, and the composition of bedrock unit is siltstone, shale, loosely to moderately cemented clay and silt, chalk, limestone, dolomite, conglomerate, claystone, gypsum, anhydrite, and bedded salt. The range of the elevation of aquifer bedrock is from 366 m (1200ft) to 1829 m (6000ft) (Gutentag et al., 1984).

Due to excessive pumping for agricultural irrigation, the HPA has experienced severe depletion in the past few decades. Between 1960 and 2008, groundwater storage has decreased by 360 km³, accounting for 36% of total groundwater depletion in U.S.A., while the change in water table elevation varies from a decline of 78 m (256 ft) to a rise of 26 m (85 ft), with an average of 5 m (16ft) in decline, accounting for 9% of the area-weighted average saturated thickness (McGuire, 2014). Declines have taken place mainly in Eastern Colorado, Southwest Kansas, the Panhandle of Oklahoma, and Northwest Texas. Increases have occurred in Central Nebraska due to higher precipitation rates, composition of soil layer (e.g., the sandy soils that allow more infiltration and percolation) and the presence of streams for surface water irrigation. Finney County (Fig. 3-1) (105,218 ha; 260,000 ac), located in Southwestern Kansas, was chosen as the study region for this research due to a strong dependence on groundwater pumping (1,629 wells) for irrigation resulting in water table elevation declines up to 15 m since 1950. Main crop types cultivated in this region are corn (maize), winter wheat, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale. Fig. 3-1 shows the location of Finney County within Southwest Kansas and the broader High Plains Aquifer (Fig. 3-1A), the crop type in 2006 and the location of pumping wells (Fig. 3-1B), the well capacity (i.e., available pumping rate) during 1975-178 (Fig. 3-1C), and the point-calculated saturated thickness of the aquifer at pumping well locations in 1975-1878 (Fig. 3-1D).

3.2.2 DSSAT-MODFLOW LINKED MODEL

The Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) (Jones et al., 2003) is a computer program that can be used on over 40 crops to simulate growth, development, and yield on the basis of the dynamics among the soil-plant-atmosphere system. The DSSAT cropping modeling system model requires input information (e.g., weather, soil, crop management, cultivar genetic coefficient data, etc.) to perform agronomic simulations. The model is designed for single field applications. MODFLOW (Harbaugh, 2005) is a 3D groundwater flow model widely used to simulate groundwater head, groundwater storage, and groundwater flow rates in both confined and unconfined aquifers. The aquifer domain is discretized into grid cells horizontally and vertically, with each cell representing a volume of aquifer and provided values of hydraulic conductivity, specific yield, and specific storage, in addition to a suite of groundwater sources and sinks (e.g., recharge, pumping, groundwater discharge to streams, stream seepage to groundwater, groundwater ET). The finite difference method is used to solve for groundwater head for each grid cell, for each time step of a specified simulation period. The span of the simulation period is first divided into stress periods (i.e., a simulation time that groundwater stresses stay constant), and then into time steps.

The linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling system (shown in Fig. 3-2) was developed (Xiang et al., 2020) to exchange information between the groundwater system (i.e., water table elevation, saturated thickness, and well capacity) and the agronomic system (i.e., irrigation depth, and volume of drained water from the soil profile that recharges the aquifer) on an annual basis, so that each system can be impacted by the other. The data flow within the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW system is shown in Fig. 3-2. The simulation of the whole linked hydro-agronomic system contains four steps. Step 1 is an ensemble of DSSAT simulations, with a

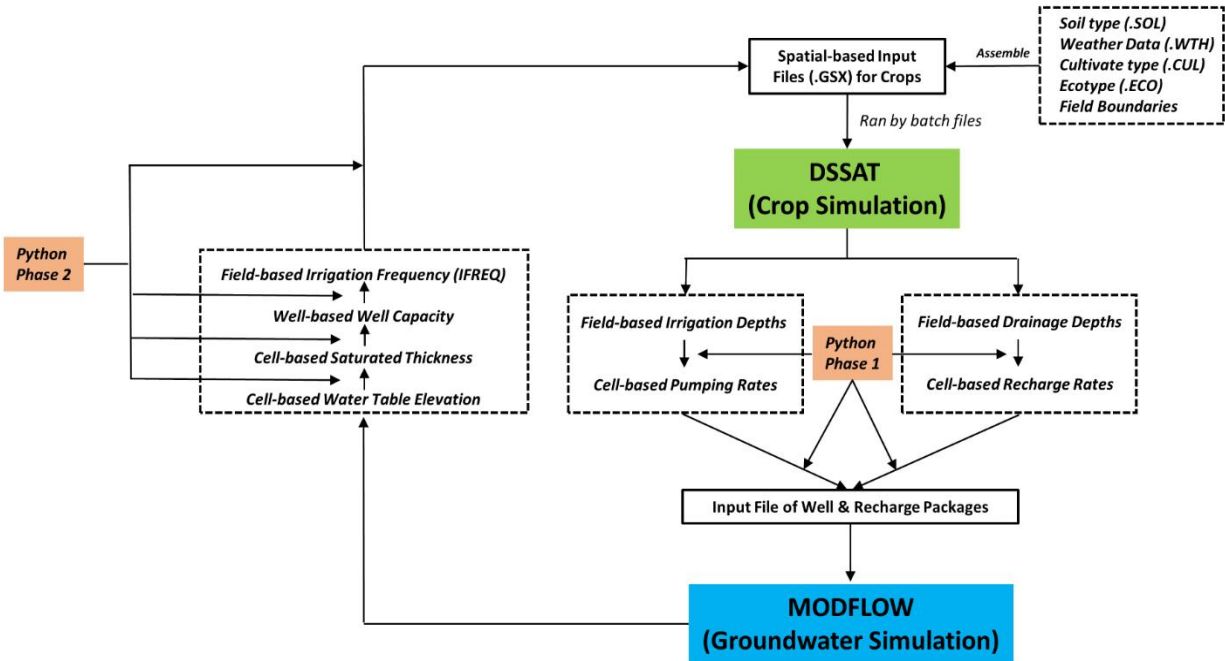


Fig. 3-2 The DSSAT-MODFLOW framework showing the linkage between DSSAT and MODFLOW simulations.

single DSSAT simulation for each cultivated field in the study region, with a spatial module mode through a batch file. Input information includes soil type, weather data, and cultivar genetic information in input files .SOL, .WTH., .CUL, respectively to trigger agronomic simulations through spatial-input files of .GSX for each crop type. Step 2 is the conversion of DSSAT outputs to inputs for MODFLOW. Python programming language is used as the linkage script (Python phase 1) to convert daily field-based irrigation depth and recharge depth simulated by DSSAT to daily grid cell-based pumping rates and recharge rates for MODFLOW simulations (Xiang et al., 2020). Python phase 1 is also used for preparing MODFLOW input files. Step 3 is the MODFLOW simulation. MODFLOW simulates groundwater hydraulic head (i.e., water table elevation for unconfined aquifers) for each grid cell, with daily stress periods to be consistent with daily outputs by DSSAT for daily pumping and recharge rates. The hydraulic head in the last day of year is saved as initial head for the subsequent year. Step 4 is to i) calculate well capacity for each irrigation well in terms of saturated thickness (i.e., water table

elevation – bedrock elevation); ii) update irrigation frequency (i.e., irrigation parameter for DSSAT simulation) based on well capacity in i); and iii) create input files for DSSAT simulations of the following year (i.e., .CUL, .ECO, and .GSX). All detailed information about MODFLOW, DSSAT, and the linkage procedure is demonstrated in Xiang et al. (2020).

3.2.3 DSSAT-MODFLOW APPLICATION TO FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS

For Finney County, DSSAT was previously calibrated for corn, wheat, sorghum, and soybean (Araya et al., 2017). For application with the DSSAT-MODFLOW framework, each of the 1,332 cultivated fields are included 564, 484, 28, 206, and 50 fields for corn, winter wheat, soybean, sorghum, and triticale, respectively, Fig. 3-1B), with a single DSSAT simulation for each field. The MODFLOW model for Groundwater Management District No.3 (GMD3) (see gray shaded area Fig. 3-1A), developed by the Kansas Geological Survey (KGS) (Liu et al., 2011), was used to link with DSSAT. The MODFLOW model includes a steady-state simulation and transient simulation in the period of 1944 – 1946 and 1947 – 2007, respectively. The domain area of KGS model is 161 km by 241 km (100 miles by 150 miles shown in grey area in Fig. 3-1A), and each grid cell is 1.61 km by 1.61 km (1 mile by 1 mile). To be consistent with daily irrigation and recharge depths from DSSAT for daily pumping and recharge rates, the MODFLOW model was converted to daily stress periods, requiring files to be updated (e.g., Discretization file (.DIS), Recharge Package file (.RCH), and Time-Variant Specified-Head Package file (.CHD), and Stream Package file (.STR)). As described in Xiang et al. (2020), the DSSAT-MODFLOW model was run for the 2000-2007 time period and tested against measured groundwater levels and county-wide crop yield.

3.2.4 FRAMEWORK FOR SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Sensitivity analysis (SA) was applied to the DSSAT-MODFLOW model provided in Xiang et al. (2020) to qualitatively (Morris screening method) and quantitatively (Sobol' method) evaluate the factors governing groundwater storage and crop yield in Finney County, Kansas. In so doing, we attempt to provide general insights and conclusions for groundwater-irrigated regions that are experiencing groundwater overdraft. In total, 57 parameters were included in the SA.

Based on Saltelli et al. (2004), SA explores how variation in model input factors influence uncertainty related to the model outputs. Sensitivity analysis is generally classified into two groups: 1) local sensitivity analysis (LSA), and 2) global sensitivity analysis (GSA). LSA assesses the local impact of the variation in inputs on model response through evaluating the gradient or partial derivative of model outputs in vicinity of nominal values of the input factors, while GSA apportions the uncertainty of model outputs to the variation of each input parameter in their entire range of interest. LSA is implemented by altering one value of an input with other values of input factors remaining constant, whereas in GSA all input factors are changed simultaneously over the entire range of each input factor (Zhou and Lin, 2017). The limitations of LSA are: 1) not applicable for nonlinear models (Frey and Patil, 2002) and 2) interactions between parameters are not considered (Saltelli et al., 2008). Therefore, GSA was applied in this study to quantitatively evaluate factors governing the hydro-agronomic system.

3.2.4.1 MORRIS SCREENING METHOD

The Morris SA is a GSA method developed by Morris (1991) to reduce the model complexity through identifying the non-influential input factors using 'One at A Time' (OAT) design, with several incremental ratios called elementary effects (EE). The distribution of EE

that is related to each input parameter is acquired by randomly sampling the space of model input parameters. Two sensitivity measurements obtained by the Morris screening method are μ , measuring the primary effect of an input factor on model response and σ , describing interaction effects of a parameter with other parameters, with nonlinear effects. The potential results that can be determined by the Morris method are negligible, linear, nonlinear, or involved in interactions with other parameters in terms of μ and σ . To estimate two measurements, Morris (1991) suggested that the number of executions is determined by the following relationship (Equ. 3-1):

$$N = r \times (k + 1) \quad (3 - 1)$$

where N is the number of executable model runs, r is the number of trajectories (usually 4 to 10), and k is the number of input factors of a model. (*see Fig. 3-S1 in Supplementary Information for one year example*)

3.2.4.3 SOBOL' VARIANCE-BASED METHOD

The Sobol' variance-based SA offers quantitative measurements (e.g., first-order, second-order, total-order sensitivity indices, etc.) to obtain the percentage of each input parameters' contribution to the distribution of uncertainty of model responses. Compared with the first-order index, the total-order index is a more relatively reliable measurement of the effect of an input factor on model output due to the consideration of interactions of a parameter with other parameters. To implement Sobol' sensitivity analysis for obtaining first-order and total-order indices, the number of simulation runs needed is determined by:

$$N = n \times (2k + 2) \quad (3 - 2)$$

where n is the sample size for estimation of one individual effect and k is the number of input parameters.

3.2.4.3 OVERALL SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK

Since DSSAT integrates genotype, environmental, experimental data, and management data, it is considerably driven by cultivar genetic, climate-related, and soil-related parameters (Jones et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; Mourice et al., 2014; Rezzoug et al., 2008). In addition, movement of groundwater in confined and unconfined aquifers exceptionally depends on property of geologic formations of soil, sand, and rock, with relation to hydrogeologic parameters of specific yield (Xiao et al., 2021) and hydraulic conductivity (Gómez-Hernández and Gorelick, 1989). Furthermore, to quantify interactions between groundwater and surface water, riverbed conductance (Wei and Bailey, 2019) is also another significant factor for the hydro-agronomic system. Therefore, 57 parameters (Tab. 3-1), including 44 cultivar parameters (DSSAT model), 10 soil parameters (DSSAT model), and 3 hydrogeologic parameters (MODFLOW model), are selected for the Morris screening method. Based on Equ. 3-1, 580 model simulations were run for the Morris method calculations. The Sobol' method was then applied only to the most influential parameters as identified by the Morris screening method, in addition to four climate-related parameters (i.e., maximum temperature, minimum temperature, solar radiation, and precipitation). The climate parameters were not screened by the Morris method due to their importance in the hydro-agronomic system (Jones et al., 2003; Kour et al., 2016). As described in Section 3.3, 24 parameters of the 57 initial parameters were identified in the Morris screening method as being influential. With the additional four climate parameters, and according to Equ. 3-2, the number of DSSAT-MODFLOW model simulations run in the Sobol' method was 14,848. Model results were processed using SimLab (*SIMLAB, Version 2.2 Simulation Environment for Uncertainty and Sensitivity Analysis*, 2004).

Tab. 3-1 Parameters from the hydro-agronomic system selected for the Morris screening method

Parameter Name	File Name	Definition	Unit	Range
Cultivar Genetic Parameters				
P1 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg. C) during which the plant is not responsive to changes in photoperiod	degre e-day	100 - 450 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
P2 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Extent to which development (expressed as days) is delayed for each hour increase in photoperiod above the longest photoperiod at which development proceeds at a maximum rate (which is considered to be 12.5 hours).	day	0.01 - 2.0 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
P5 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Thermal time from silking to physiological maturity (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg.C).	degre e-day	600 - 1000 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
G2 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Maximum possible number of kernels per plant.	Kerne l	440 - 1000 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
G3 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Kernel filling rate during the linear grain filling stage and under optimum conditions.	mg- day ⁻¹	5- 16 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
PHINT ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Phylochron interval; the interval in thermal time (degree days) between successive leaf tip appearances.	degre e-day	25 - 75 (DeJonge et al., 2012; Kisekka et al., 2017)
RUE ^a	MZCER04 7.ECO	Radiation use efficiency	g-MJ ⁻¹	2 - 5 (DeJonge et al., 2012)
P1 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase (expressed in degree days above TBASE during which the plant is not responsive to changes in photoperiod	degre e-day	150 - 500(Lamsal, 2017)
P2 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from the end of the juvenile stage to tassel initiation under short days (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	90 - 110 (Lamsal, 2017)
P2O ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Critical photoperiod or the longest day length (in hours) at which development occurs at a maximum rate. At values higher than P2O, the rate of development is reduced	hour	11 - 16 (Lamsal, 2017)
P2R ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Extent to which phasic development leading to panicle initiation (expressed in degree days) is delayed for each hour increase in photoperiod above P2O	degre e-day	0 - 300 (Araya et al., 2017)
PANTH ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from the end of tassel initiation to anthesis (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	500 - 700 (Araya et al., 2017)
P3 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from to end of flag leaf expansion to anthesis (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	0 - 200 (Araya et al., 2017)
P4 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from anthesis to beginning grain filling (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	50 - 100 (Araya et al., 2017)
P5 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from beginning of grain filling to physiological maturity (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	400 - 700 (Lamsal, 2017)

PHINT ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Phylochron interval; the interval in thermal time between successive leaf tip appearances (degree days)	degre e-day	30 - 90 (Lamsal, 2017)
G1 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Scaler for relative leaf size	-	0 - 30 (Lamsal, 2017)
G2 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Scaler for partitioning of assimilates to the panicle (head).	-	4 - 10 (Lamsal, 2017)
TBASE ^b	SGCER047 .ECO	Base temperature	°C	4 - 9 (Lamsal, 2017)
RUE ^b	SGCER047 .ECO	Radiation use efficiency	g-MJ ⁻¹	3 - 6 (Lamsal, 2017)
P1V ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Days, optimum vernalizing temperature, required for vernalization	day	25 - 100 (Li et al., 2018)
P1D ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Photoperiod response (% reduction in rate/10 h drop in pp)	%	35 - 200 (Li et al., 2018)
P5 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Grain filling (excluding lag) phase duration (oC.d)	degre e-day	500 - 1000 (Li et al., 2018)
G1 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Kernel number per unit canopy weight at anthesis (#/g)	Numb er/gra m	15 - 60 (Li et al., 2018)
G2 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Standard kernel size under optimum conditions (mg)	mg	20 - 90 (Li et al., 2018)
G3 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Standard, non-stressed mature tiller wt (incl grain) (g dwt)	g-dwt	0.5 - 10 (Li et al., 2018)
PHINT ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Interval between successive leaf tip appearances (oC.d)	deg.C -days	0 - 200 (Araya et al., 2017)
CSDL ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Critical Short Day Length below which reproductive development progresses with no daylength effect (for short-day plants) (hour)	hour	11 - 15 (Boote et al., 2003)
PPSEN ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Slope of the relative response of development to photoperiod with time (positive for shortday plants)	hour ⁻¹	0.1 - 0.4 (Boote et al., 2003)
EM-FL ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between plant emergence and flower appearance (R1) (photothermal days)	days	10 - 35 (Boote et al., 2003)
FL-SH ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between first flower and first pod (R3) (photothermal days)	days	3 - 12 (Boote et al., 2003)
FL-SD ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between first flower and first seed (R5) (photothermal days)	days	10 - 20 (Boote et al., 2003)
SD-PM ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between first seed (R5) and physiological maturity (R7) (photothermal days)	days	25 - 40 (Boote et al., 2003)
FL-LF ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between first flower (R1) and end of leaf expansion (photothermal days)	days	10 - 30 (Boote et al., 2003)
LFMAX ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Maximum leaf photosynthesis rate at 30 C, 350 vpm CO ₂ , and high light (mg CO ₂ /m ² -s)	mg- CO ₂ / m ² -s	0.9 - 1.3 (Boote et al., 2003)
SLAVR ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Specific leaf area of cultivar under standard growth conditions (cm ² /g)	cm ² /g	280 - 410 (Boote et al., 2003)
SIZLF ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Maximum size of full leaf (three leaflets) (cm ²)	cm ²	140 - 210 (Boote et al., 2003)
WTPSD ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Maximum weight per seed (g)	g	0.15 - 0.22 (Boote et al., 2003)
SFDUR ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Seed filling duration for pod cohort at standard growth conditions (photothermal days)	days	15 - 27 (Boote et al., 2003)

SDPDV ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Average seed per pod under standard growing conditions (#/pod)	numb er/pod	1.5 - 2.5 (Boote et al., 2003)
PODUR ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time required for cultivar to reach final pod load under optimal conditions (photothermal days)	day	7 - 17 (Boote et al., 2003)
THRSH ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Threshing percentage. The maximum ratio of (seed/(seed+shell)) at maturity. Causes seeds to stop growing as their dry weight increases until shells are filled in a cohort.	-	75 - 80 (Boote et al., 2003)
SDPRO ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Fraction protein in seeds (g(protein)/g(seed))	-	0.37 - 0.43 (Boote et al., 2003)
SDLIP ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Fraction oil in seeds (g(oil)/g(seed))	-	0.18 - 0.22 (Boote et al., 2003)

Hydrogeologic Parameters

K	Kst6.DAT	Hydraulic Conductivity	ft- day ⁻¹	0.9-1.1
Sy	Sys6.DAT	Specific Yield	-	0.7-1.3
Cond	.str	Riverbed/streambed hydraulic conductance	ft ² - day ⁻¹	0.7-1.3

Soil-related Parameters

SLPF	SOIL.SOL	Soil fertility factor/Photosynthesis factor	-	0.7 - 1.0 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLU1	SOIL.SOL	Evaporation limit	cm	3 - 12 (Lamsal, 2017; Corbeels et al., 2016)
SLDR	SOIL.SOL	Drainage rate	day ⁻¹	0 - 1 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLRO	SOIL.SOL	Runoff curve number	-	60 - 95 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLLL	SOIL.SOL	Drained lower limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.02 - 0.25 (Lamsal, 2017; Corbeels et al., 2016)
SDUL	SOIL.SOL	Drained upper limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.25 - 0.42 (Lamsal, 2017)
SSAT	SOIL.SOL	Saturated water limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.3 - 0.6(Lamsal, 2017; Corbeels et al., 2016)
SSKS	SOIL.SOL	Saturated hydraulic conductivity	cmh ⁻¹	0.2 - 2.5 (Lamsal, 2017)
SBDM	SOIL.SOL	Bulk density	gcm ³	1.1 - 1.6 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLOC	SOIL.SOL	Soil organic carbon	%	0.3 - 2.5 (Lamsal, 2017)

^a Maize genetic parameter; ^b Sorghum genetic parameter; ^c Wheat genetic parameter; ^d Soybean genetic parameter.

The framework for implementing SA with the DSSAT-MODFLOW linked system is described in Fig. 3-3. The major task of prior-processing is to create sample files for the Morris screening and Sobol' sensitivity analysis, respectively, based on identified parameters, with prior distribution and range of parameters, using the random sampling method. Python phase 1 (see Fig. 3-3) is used to update input files (i.e., .CUL, .ECO, .SOL, and .WTH for DSSAT and

Kst.DAT, Sys.DAT, and .str for MODFLOW) for the hydro-agronomic modeling system in terms of values of parameters in the DSSAT experiments in the sample file. To reduce computation cost, parallel simulations through batch files are introduced for all model runs on computing servers. The post-processing procedure has two main tasks: 1) organize outputs of model responses fitting them to the format of input files for SimLab to obtain qualitative and quantitative measurements; and 2) visualize the evaluations of SA (Fig. 3-3).

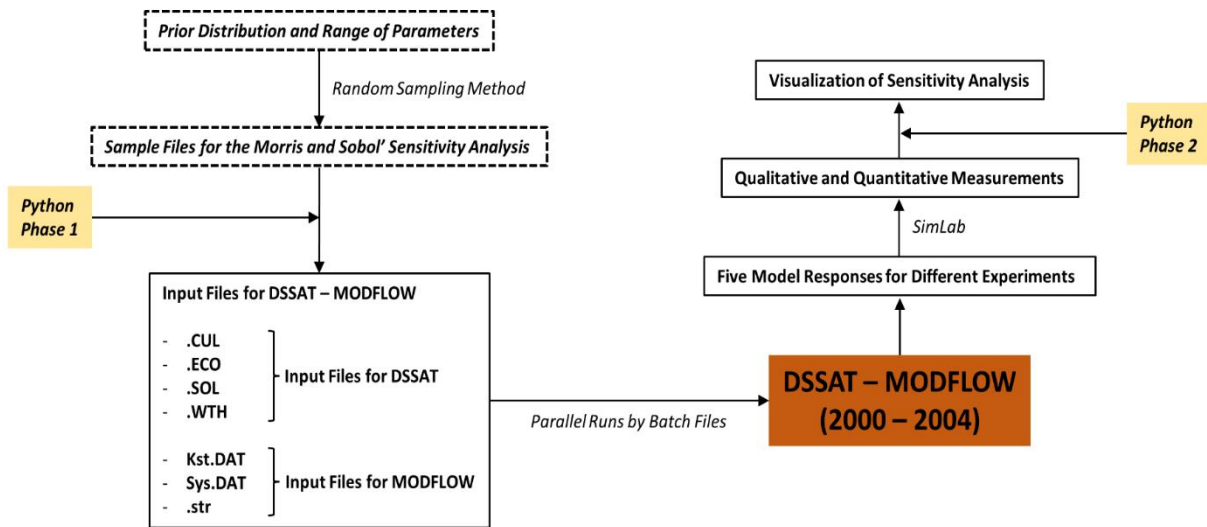


Fig. 3-3 Schematic showing the entire system of assemble with prior-processing, model simulation, and post-processing for sensitivity analysis of the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW system.

3.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.3.1 SCREENING PARAMETER USING THE MORRIS METHOD

The results of qualitative measurements using the Morris screening sensitivity analysis are shown in Figs. 3-4A, B, C, D, and E for maize yield, soybean yield, wheat yield, sorghum yield, and water table elevation, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3-4A, most parameters are located within μ - σ plane below the 1:1 diagonal line, showing the parameters' primarily influence on maize yield, with little interactions with other parameters. The larger the value of μ is, the more the effect a parameter has on maize yield; therefore, RUE, G3, P5, P1, SLPF, and G2, with large μ , indicates maize yield is relatively more sensitive to these parameters (i.e., those

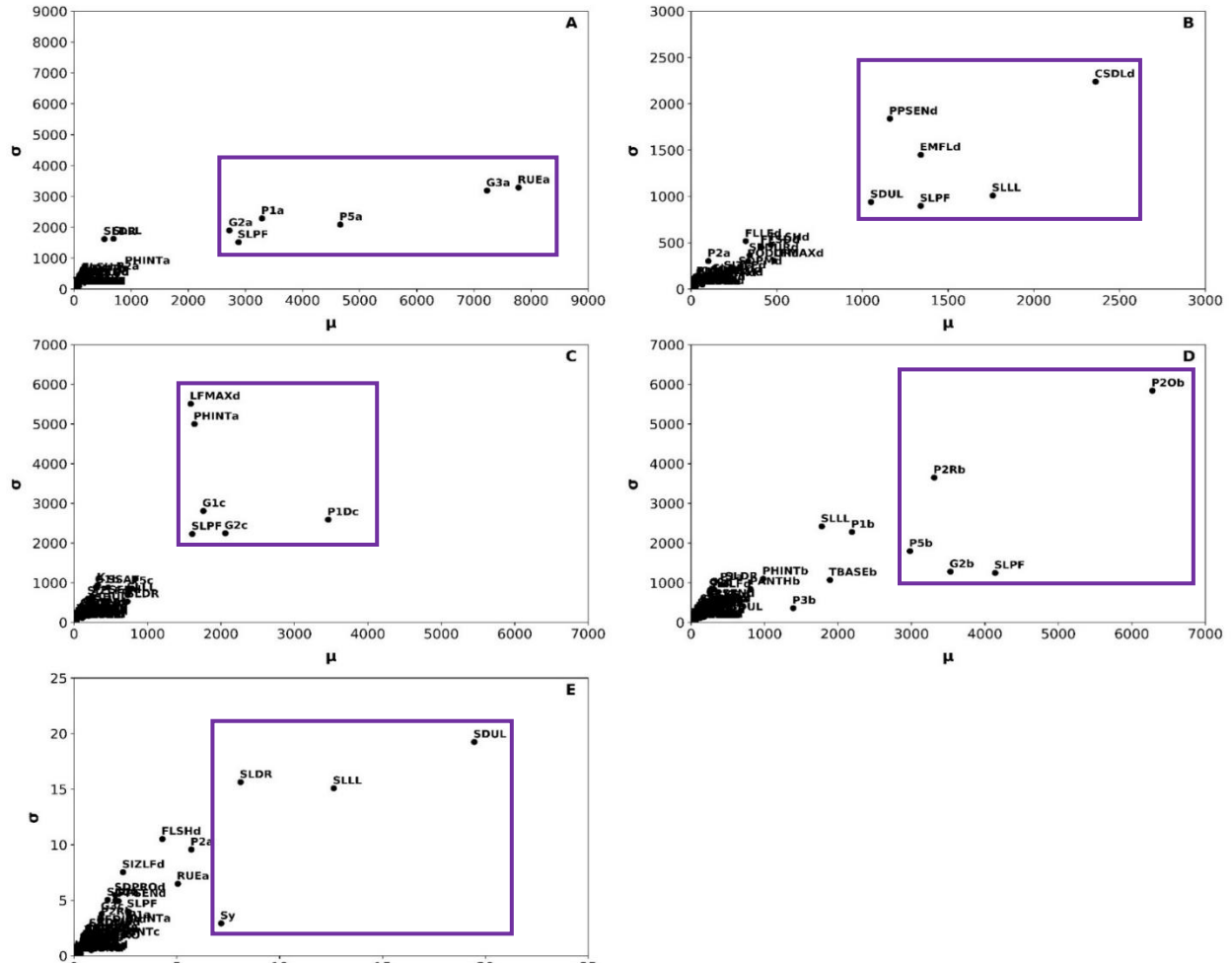


Fig. 3-4 Parameters (within the purple box) selected for the Sobol' sensitivity analysis after the Morris screening method (totally fifty-seven parameters for the Morris screening). The letter of a indicates maize genetic parameter; the letter of b indicates sorghum genetic parameters; the letter c indicates wheat genetic parameters; the letter d indicates soybean genetic parameters. A) Qualitative measurements of parameters for maize yield; B) Qualitative measurements of parameters for soybean yield; C) Qualitative measurements of parameters for wheat yield; D) Qualitative measurements of parameters for sorghum yield; E) Qualitative measurements of parameters for water table elevation.

parameters considerably affect uncertainty of maize yield). The parameters are further analyzed quantitatively using the Sobol' variance-based method. For soybean yield (shown in Fig. 3-4B), there are more interactions among soybean-related genetic and soil-related parameters, and the parameters with high μ and σ are selected for later quantitative analysis. In addition, since the entire hydro-agronomic system is focused on a system instead of a single hydrological, agronomic system or one crop type, parameters from the other system or crop model routines affect other model responses. PHINT is one of the maize-related genetic parameters, but it increases the uncertainty of wheat yield (Fig. 3-4C); in general, interactions with other

parameters are important in understanding the factors that govern the entire system. Results for sorghum yield are shown in Fig. 3-4D, indicating that the genetic parameters mainly influence the uncertainty in simulated sorghum yield, with strong interaction with other parameters. Water table elevation (Fig. 3-4E) is significantly driven by soil-related parameters, especially SDUL and SLLL, with relation to soil water capacity, soil specific yield, and overall drainage of soil water to the underlying aquifer. Overall, soil parameters have a strong influence on both crop yield and groundwater levels. The most influential twenty-four parameters (see Tab. 3-2) were selected to use in the Sobol' SA method.

Tab. 3-2 Parameters from the hydro-agronomic system selected for the Sobol' quantitative method after the Morris screening method

Parameter Name	File Name	Definition	Unit	Range
Cultivar Genetic Parameters				
P1 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg. C) during which the plant is not responsive to changes in photoperiod	degre e-day	100 - 450 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
P5 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Thermal time from silking to physiological maturity (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg.C).	degre e-day	600 - 1000 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
G2 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Maximum possible number of kernels per plant.	Kerne l	440 - 1000 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
G3 ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Kernel filling rate during the linear grain filling stage and under optimum conditions.	mg- day ⁻¹	5- 16 (Kisekka et al., 2017)
PHINT ^a	MZCER04 7.CUL	Phylochron interval; the interval in thermal time (degree days) between successive leaf tip appearances.	degre e-day	25 - 75 (DeJonge et al., 2012; Kisekka et al., 2017)
RUE ^a	MZCER04 7.ECO	Radiation use efficiency	g-MJ ⁻¹	2 - 5 (DeJonge et al., 2012)
P2O ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Critical photoperiod or the longest day length (in hours) at which development occurs at a maximum rate. At values higher than P2O, the rate of development is reduced	hour	11 - 16 (Lamsal, 2017)
P2R ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Extent to which phasic development leading to panicle initiation (expressed in degree days) is delayed for each hour increase in photoperiod above P2O	degre e-day	0 - 300 (Araya et al., 2017)
P5 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Thermal time from beginning of grain filling to physiological maturity (degree days above TBASE)	degre e-day	400 - 700 (Lamsal, 2017)
G2 ^b	SGCER047 .CUL	Scaler for partitioning of assimilates to the panicle (head).	-	4 - 10 (Lamsal, 2017)

P1D ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Photoperiod response (% reduction in rate/10 h drop in pp)	%	35 - 200 (Li et al., 2018)
G1 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Kernel number per unit canopy weight at anthesis (#/g)	Number/gram	15 - 60 (Li et al., 2018)
G2 ^c	WHCER04 7.CUL	Standard kernel size under optimum conditions (mg)	mg	20 - 90 (Li et al., 2018)
CSDL ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Critical Short Day Length below which reproductive development progresses with no daylength effect (for short-day plants) (hour)	hour	11 - 15 (Boote et al., 2003)
PPSEN ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Slope of the relative response of development to photoperiod with time (positive for shortday plants)	hour ⁻¹	0.1 - 0.4 (Boote et al., 2003)
EM-FL ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Time between plant emergence and flower appearance (R1) (photothermal days)	days	10 - 35 (Boote et al., 2003)
LFMAX ^d	SBGRO047 .CUL	Maximum leaf photosynthesis rate at 30 C, 350 vpm CO ₂ , and high light (mg CO ₂ /m ² -s)	mg-CO ₂ /m ² -s	0.9 - 1.3 (Boote et al., 2003)
Hydrogeologic Parameters				
K	Kst6.DAT	Hydraulic Conductivity	-	0.9-1.1
Sy	Sys6.DAT	Specific Yield	-	0.7-1.3
Cond	.str	Riverbed/streambed hydraulic conductance	-	0.7-1.3
Soil-related Parameters				
SLPF	SOIL.SOL	Soil fertility factor/Photosynthesis factor	-	0.7 - 1.0 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLDR	SOIL.SOL	Drainage rate	day ⁻¹	0 - 1 (Lamsal, 2017)
SLLL	SOIL.SOL	Drained lower limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.02 - 0.25 (Lamsal, 2017; Corbeels et al., 2016)
SDUL	SOIL.SOL	Drained upper limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.25 - 0.42 (Lamsal, 2017)
Climate-related Parameters				
SRAD	.WTH	Solar radiation	MJ- m ² - day ⁻¹	0.6-1.4 (Tyagi et al., 2018)
TMAX	.WTH	Temperature Maximum	°C	0.6-1.4 (Tyagi et al., 2018)
TMIN	.WTH	Temperature Minimum	°C	0.6-1.4 (Tyagi et al., 2018)
RAIN	.WTH	Rainfall (including snow)	mm- day ⁻¹	0.6-1.4 (Tyagi et al., 2018)

^a Maize genetic parameter; ^b Sorghum genetic parameter; ^c Wheat genetic parameter; ^d Soybean genetic parameter.

3.3.2 QUANTITATIVE RANKING PARAMETERS USING THE SOBOL' METHOD

Results of the Sobol' method are shown in Figs. 3-5 and 3-6, and first- and total-order indices of 28 (24 identified from the Morris method + 4 climate parameters) parameters for both agronomic and hydrological responses are shown in Tabs. 3-3 and 3-4. Figure 3-5 summarizes

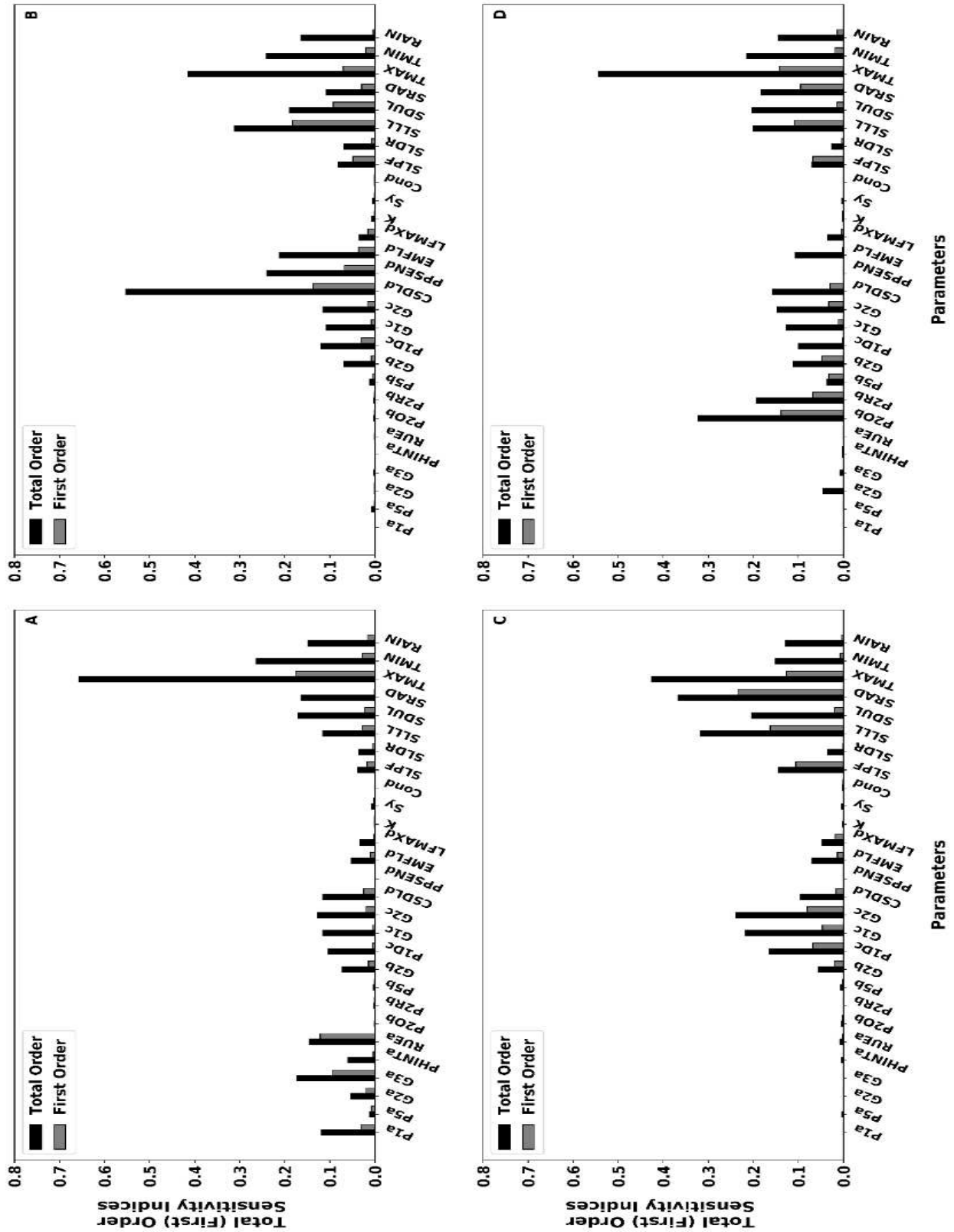


Fig. 3-5 Sobol' sensitivity indices of twenty-eight parameters from the DSSAT-MODFLOW framework system for agronomic responses (i.e., Fig. 3-5A maize yield; Fig. 3-5B soybean yield; Fig. 3-5C wheat yield; Fig. 3-5D sorghum yield) are shown above. First-order sensitivity indices (grey bar) and total-order sensitivity indices (black bar) are shown, respectively.

the sensitivity indices for crop yield, and Fig. 3-6 summarizes indices for hydrologic system responses (water table elevation, groundwater ET, recharge, irrigation pumping, river leakage, groundwater discharge). Based on results shown in Fig. 3-5, climate parameters contribute strongly to crop yield, and they also highly interact with other parameters in terms of the difference of first- and total-order indices. For quantitative measurements for maize yield shown in Fig. 3-5A, TMAX has the greatest control on model simulations due to its high first-order and total-order indices, and sorghum-related genetic and hydrological parameters are negligible due to low indices (close to 0). As shown in Fig. 3-5B, both soybean-related genetic, climate parameters, and soil parameters dominate the model response (i.e., soybean yield), and similarly, there is almost no impact of hydrological parameters on soybean yield, which is same for wheat and sorghum yields. Sorghum yield (Fig. 3-5D) is strongly influenced by climate-related parameters and sorghum genetic parameters, and by more parameters than those of winter wheat yield (Fig. 3-5C), indicating that uncertainty of sorghum yield is harder to control compared with winter wheat yield. Winter wheat is mainly driven by climate, soil-related parameters, and winter wheat genetic parameters (Fig. 3-5C). From a systems point of view, for those four major crop types, crop yields are not controlled by their own cultivar genetic parameters alone, but also by other cultivar genetic parameters. For example, besides maize genetic parameters, several winter wheat, and soybean cultivar genetic parameters are interactively sensitive to maize yield. Similarly, this situation occurs in other crop types; therefore, to have accurate simulations of crop yields, the different cultivar genetic parameters for the crops within the simulated system should be included in calibration.

Fig. 3-6 shows quantitative results of parameters for hydrologic responses (i.e., water table elevation, ET, recharge, irrigation pumping, river leakage, and aquifer seepage). As we can

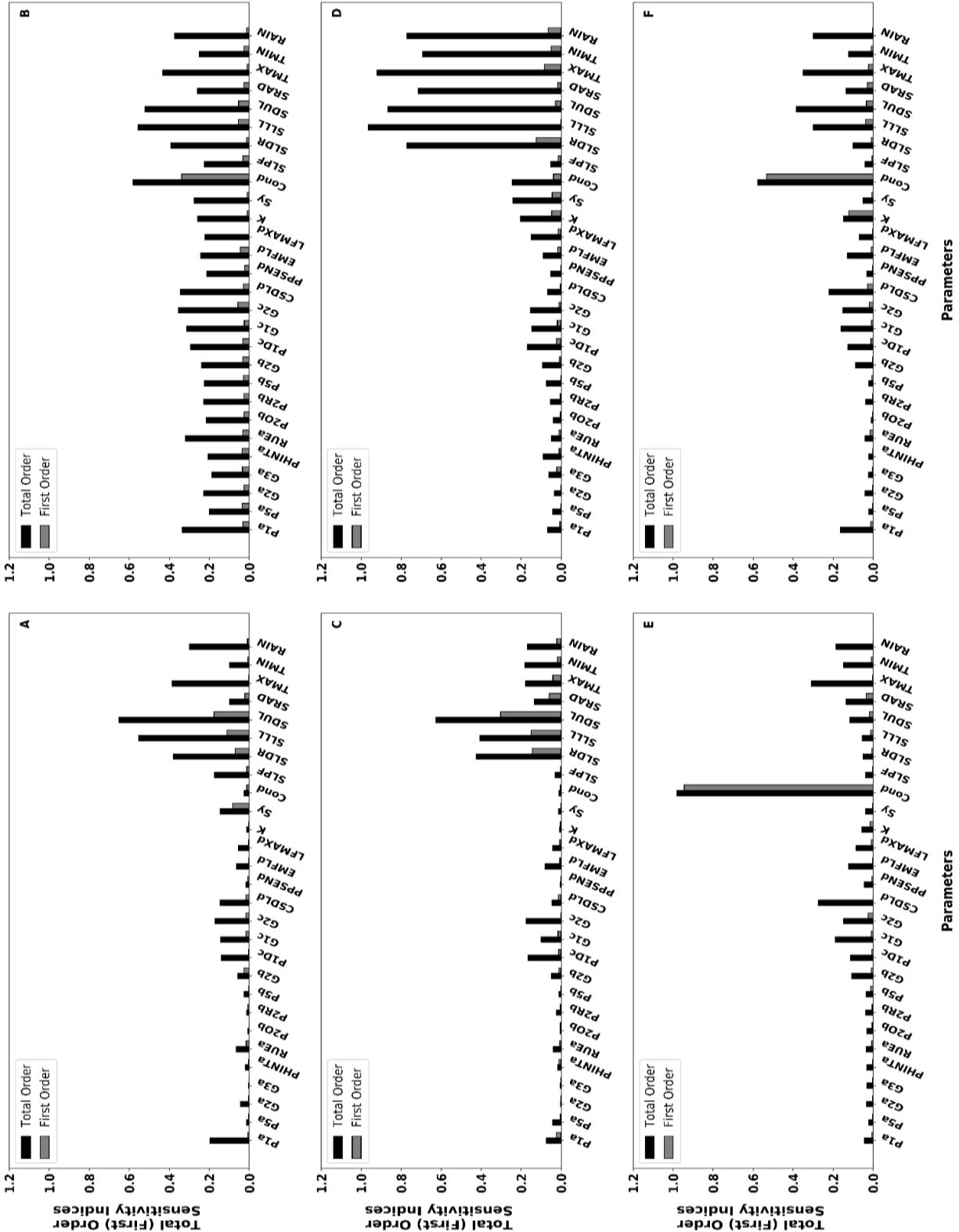


Fig. 3-6 Sobol' sensitivity indices of twenty-eight parameters from the DSSAT-MODFLOW framework system for hydrologic responses (i.e., Fig.6A water table elevation; Fig.6B ET; Fig.6C recharge; Fig.6D irrigation pumping; Fig.6E river leakage; Fig.6F groundwater discharge) are shown above. First-order sensitivity indices (grey bar) and total-order sensitivity indices (black bar) are shown, respectively.

see in Fig. 3-6A, few cultivar genetic parameters appreciably affect water table elevation, and specific yield, soil-related, and climate parameters contribute to the variation of water table elevation, especially soil parameters. In comparison with Fig. 3-6B, all parameters are related to the uncertainty of ET, and except for riverbed conductance, other parameters with very low first-order indices and high total-order indices indicate the system intensively interact among parameters, causing the high degree of uncertainty of ET. Compared with the uncertainty of water table elevation, the uncertainty of recharge (Fig. 3-6C) is caused by similar parameters, since recharge has a positive relationship with water table elevation. In Fig. 3-6D, soil-related and climate-related parameters influence the variability of irrigation pumping, because crop growth is driven by climate-related parameters, and then impact on water productivity; in addition, climate-related parameters can change water content in soil layer, which triggers irrigation. The interaction between river and groundwater (Fig. 3-6E and Fig. 3-6F) is principally controlled by riverbed conductance, and climate, sorghum and soybean genetic parameters are slightly sensitive to river leakage and aquifer discharge, respectively. These results indicate a complex system of interacting environmental factors. Of note is that, except for groundwater-surface water interactions (Fig. 3-6E, 3-6F), climate variables and soil properties have a stronger influence on hydrologic fluxes (recharge, ET, pumping) than hydrogeologic factors (K hydraulic conductivity, S_y specific yield). Climate impacts crop germination, growth, and irrigation needs, and therefore controls the overall response of crop yield and pumping in the region.

Tab. 3-3 First order and Total sensitivity indices of 28 parameters for agronomic responses.

S_i	Parameters	Sobol' value for maize yield	Sobol' value for soybean yield	Sobol' value for wheat yield	Sobol' value for sorghum yield	S_{Ti}	Parameters	Sobol' value for maize yield	Sobol' value for soybean yield	Sobol' value for wheat yield	Sobol' value for sorghum yield
1	P1 ^a	0.02970	0.00000 ^b	0.00034	0.00025	1	P1 ^a	0.11826	0.00001	0.00057	0.00032
2	P5 ^a	0.00779	0.00133	0.00054	0.00036	2	P5 ^a	0.01170	0.00761	0.00409	0.00091
3	G2 ^a	0.01936	0.00045	0.00049	0.00102	3	G2 ^a	0.05416	0.00087	0.00083	0.04586

4	G3 ^a	0.09471	0.00017	0.00000 ^e	0.00021	4	G3 ^a	0.17286	0.00255	0.00070	0.00784
5	PHINT ^a	0.00396	0.00000 ^e	0.00071	0.00156	5	PHINT ^a	0.06033	0.00002	0.00542	0.00180
6	RUE ^a	0.12132	0.00012	0.00219	0.00083	6	RUE ^a	0.14555	0.00055	0.00773	0.00089
7	P2O ^b	0.00006	0.00129	0.00252	0.13837	7	P2O ^b	0.00059	0.00201	0.00463	0.32304
8	P2R ^b	0.00055	0.00133	0.00041	0.06774	8	P2R ^b	0.00183	0.00237	0.00087	0.19326
9	P5 ^b	0.00067	0.00421	0.00211	0.03273	9	P5 ^b	0.00331	0.01079	0.00578	0.03718
10	G2 ^b	0.01450	0.00818	0.02010	0.04758	10	G2 ^b	0.07263	0.06845	0.05648	0.11172
11	P1D ^c	0.00556	0.03000	0.06780	0.00224	11	P1D ^c	0.10316	0.12050	0.16472	0.09949
12	G1 ^c	0.00447	0.00817	0.04653	0.01143	12	G1 ^c	0.11517	0.108107	0.21783	0.12710
13	G2 ^c	0.01930	0.01640	0.08067	0.03280	13	G2 ^c	0.12812	0.11478	0.23919	0.14696
14	CSDL ^d	0.02494	0.13676	0.01620	0.03030	14	CSDL ^d	0.11494	0.55306	0.09503	0.15773
15	PPSEN ^d	0.00000 ^e	0.06757	0.00075	0.00049	15	PPSEN ^d	0.00005	0.23995	0.00097	0.00027
16	EM-FL ^d	0.01050	0.03640	0.01367	0.00163	16	EM-FL ^d	0.05223	0.21110	0.06970	0.10673
17	LFMAX ^d	0.00308	0.01535	0.01860	0.00421	17	LFMAX ^d	0.03275	0.03498	0.04723	0.03532
18	K	0.00027	0.00119	0.00075	0.00145	18	K	0.00111	0.00639	0.00133	0.00191
19	Sy	0.00188	0.00109	0.00046	0.00103	19	Sy	0.00729	0.00598	0.00419	0.00315
20	Cond	0.00007	0.00051	0.00116	0.00012	20	Cond	0.00018	0.00081	0.00188	0.00059
21	SLPF	0.01756	0.04909	0.10584	0.06805	21	SLPF	0.03854	0.08031	0.14438	0.06987
22	SLDR	0.00447	0.00761	0.00111	0.00379	22	SLDR	0.03617	0.06922	0.03534	0.02664
23	SLLL	0.02804	0.18279	0.16301	0.10945	23	SLLL	0.11528	0.31228	0.31770	0.20096
24	SDUL	0.02240	0.09291	0.01940	0.01461	24	SDUL	0.17009	0.19009	0.20318	0.20303
25	SRAD	0.00126	0.02920	0.23446	0.09498	25	SRAD	0.16316	0.10774	0.36615	0.18345
26	TMAX	0.17644	0.07029	0.12633	0.14219	26	TMAX	0.65724	0.41471	0.42629	0.54271
27	TMIN	0.02741	0.01989	0.00778	0.01907	27	TMIN	0.26287	0.24095	0.15070	0.21435
28	RAIN	0.01640	0.00343	0.00388	0.01396	28	RAIN	0.14798	0.16435	0.12799	0.14571
	SUM	0.65659	0.78574	0.93780	0.84244		SUM	2.78755	3.07141	2.70090	2.98877

^a Maize genetic parameter; ^b Sorghum genetic parameter; ^c Wheat genetic parameter; ^d Soybean genetic parameter; ^e The value of S_i for 4 parameters were slightly smaller than 0, due to numerical integration, and then the values were set to be 0.

Tab. 3-4 First order and Total sensitivity indices of 28 parameters for hydrologic responses.

S _i	Parameters	Sobol' value for Water Table Elevation	Sobol' value for ET	Sobol' value for Recharge	Sobol' value for Irrigation Pumping	Sobol' value for River Leakage	Sobol' value for Aquifer Seepage
1	P1 ^a	0.00712	0.03150	0.02382	0.00859	0.00543	0.01212
2	P5 ^a	0.00446	0.03590	0.00460	0.00034	0.00211	0.00122
3	G2 ^a	0.00334	0.02510	0.00173	0.00202	0.00354	0.00247
4	G3 ^a	0.00142	0.03420	0.00086	0.02210	0.00142	0.00394
5	PHINT ^a	0.00286	0.03560	0.01105	0.00990	0.00223	0.00101
6	RUE ^a	0.01508	0.03250	0.00844	0.01055	0.00717	0.01476
7	P2O ^b	0.00138	0.02490	0.00349	0.00488	0.00444	0.00224
8	P2R ^b	0.00648	0.02540	0.00470	0.00583	0.00417	0.00207
9	P5 ^b	0.00243	0.02840	0.00223	0.00080	0.01223	0.00578
10	G2 ^b	0.02647	0.03180	0.01230	0.00913	0.00888	0.00137
11	P1D ^c	0.00303	0.03182	0.01275	0.02398	0.00562	0.01120
12	G1 ^c	0.01650	0.02440	0.01598	0.01921	0.00891	0.00797
13	G2 ^c	0.01653	0.05680	0.00133	0.01072	0.02458	0.01951
14	CSDL ^d	0.01764	0.02860	0.01504	0.00406	0.00035	0.02712
15	PPSEN ^d	0.00682	0.02290	0.00135	0.00093	0.00532	0.00212
16	EM-FL ^d	0.00199	0.04440	0.00706	0.01780	0.00341	0.00990
17	LFMAX ^d	0.00372	0.00058	0.00830	0.01547	0.00841	0.00289
18	K	0.00205	0.00920	0.00514	0.04750	0.01472	0.12060
19	Sy	0.08279	0.01100	0.00126	0.04450	0.00279	0.00632
20	Cond	0.01240	0.33739	0.00479	0.03850	0.94473	0.53243
21	SLPF	0.01180	0.03130	0.00305	0.01530	0.00251	0.00498
22	SLDR	0.06984	0.01280	0.14486	0.12418	0.00587	0.00957
23	SLLL	0.11154	0.05400	0.15053	0.00126	0.01194	0.03665
24	SDUL	0.17573	0.05330	0.30284	0.02813	0.01880	0.03274
25	SRAD	0.02190	0.02720	0.05960	0.01810	0.03447	0.02910
26	TMAX	0.00238	0.01041	0.04100	0.08462	0.00231	0.02288
27	TMIN	0.00636	0.02570	0.01856	0.05012	0.00930	0.00906
28	RAIN	0.00883	0.01281	0.02228	0.06465	0.00057	0.00297
	SUM	0.64289	1.09991	0.88894	0.68317	1.15623	0.93499
S _{Ti}	Parameters	Sobol' value for Water Table Elevation	Sobol' value for ET	Sobol' value for Recharge	Sobol' value for Irrigation Pumping	Sobol' value for River Leakage	Sobol' value for Aquifer Seepage

1	P1 ^a	0.19557	0.33438	0.07428	0.06795	0.04225	0.16258
2	P5 ^a	0.01417	0.19827	0.04099	0.04256	0.02245	0.02055
3	G2 ^a	0.04331	0.22789	0.00301	0.03448	0.03228	0.03906
4	G3 ^a	0.00445	0.18589	0.00468	0.06048	0.03058	0.02277
5	PHINT ^a	0.01858	0.20483	0.01731	0.09080	0.03202	0.02261
6	RUE ^a	0.06531	0.31828	0.04018	0.04923	0.03501	0.04075
7	P2O ^b	0.00624	0.21469	0.00589	0.03930	0.03061	0.01025
8	P2R ^b	0.01175	0.22895	0.02282	0.05348	0.03621	0.03605
9	P5 ^b	0.02570	0.22508	0.00978	0.07449	0.03523	0.02207
10	G2 ^b	0.05776	0.23874	0.04783	0.09432	0.10714	0.08644
11	P1D ^c	0.13903	0.29249	0.16550	0.16757	0.11354	0.12679
12	G1 ^c	0.14398	0.31210	0.10071	0.14546	0.18961	0.15944
13	G2 ^c	0.17098	0.35393	0.17455	0.15411	0.14667	0.15205
14	CSDL ^d	0.14540	0.34475	0.04536	0.06718	0.27358	0.21894
15	PPSEN ^d	0.01546	0.21213	0.00396	0.05118	0.04487	0.03177
16	EM-FL ^d	0.06457	0.24193	0.08136	0.08886	0.12172	0.12729
17	LFMAX ^d	0.05378	0.22009	0.04187	0.14849	0.08603	0.06834
18	K	0.01157	0.25759	0.00813	0.20400	0.05592	0.14741
19	Sy	0.14408	0.27624	0.01246	0.24200	0.03809	0.05090
20	Cond	0.02520	0.57992	0.01173	0.24500	0.98057	0.57723
21	SLPF	0.17447	0.22519	0.03079	0.05200	0.03834	0.04010
22	SLDR	0.38021	0.39229	0.42547	0.77019	0.05021	0.10043
23	SLLL	0.55292	0.55542	0.40689	0.96535	0.05428	0.30001
24	SDUL	0.65232	0.52115	0.62618	0.86728	0.11475	0.38296
25	SRAD	0.09775	0.25840	0.13483	0.71359	0.13514	0.13494
26	TMAX	0.38574	0.43237	0.17710	0.92156	0.30957	0.35008
27	TMIN	0.09876	0.24876	0.18147	0.69244	0.14758	0.12203
28	RAIN	0.29872	0.37421	0.16863	0.77064	0.18430	0.29862
	SUM	3.99778	8.47596	3.06376	7.87399	3.48855	3.85246

^a Maize genetic parameter; ^b Sorghum genetic parameter; ^c Wheat genetic parameter; ^d Soybean genetic parameter; ^e The value of S_i for 4 parameters were slightly smaller than 0, due to numerical integration, and then the values were set to be 0.

3.3.3 PARAMETERS QUANTITATIVELY CONTRIBUTING TO UNCERTAINTY OF MODEL RESPONSE

The contribution of each model parameter to model output (crop yield, hydrologic fluxes) is quantified further using frequency distribution plots and pie charts, shown in Fig. 3-7 (crop yield) and Fig. 3-8 (hydrologic fluxes). The left side of each subplot in Fig. 3-7 and Fig. 3-8 shows the distribution of uncertainty of model responses. Compared with uncertainties of hydrological responses (Fig. 3-8), uncertainties of agronomic response (Fig. 3-7) generally have wider dispersions. For maize yield (Fig. 3-7A), over 55% of the uncertainty is due to climate-related (44.2%) and soil-related (13.5%) parameters. Climate and soil parameters account for 34%, 73%, and 50% of yield uncertainty for soybeans (Fig. 3-7B), wheat (Fig. 3-7C), and sorghum (Fig. 3-7D).

Hydrological responses have less uncertainty in terms of shape and range of distributions, with narrow and peaked distributions. Results are summarized in Fig. 3-8. Note that the scales of

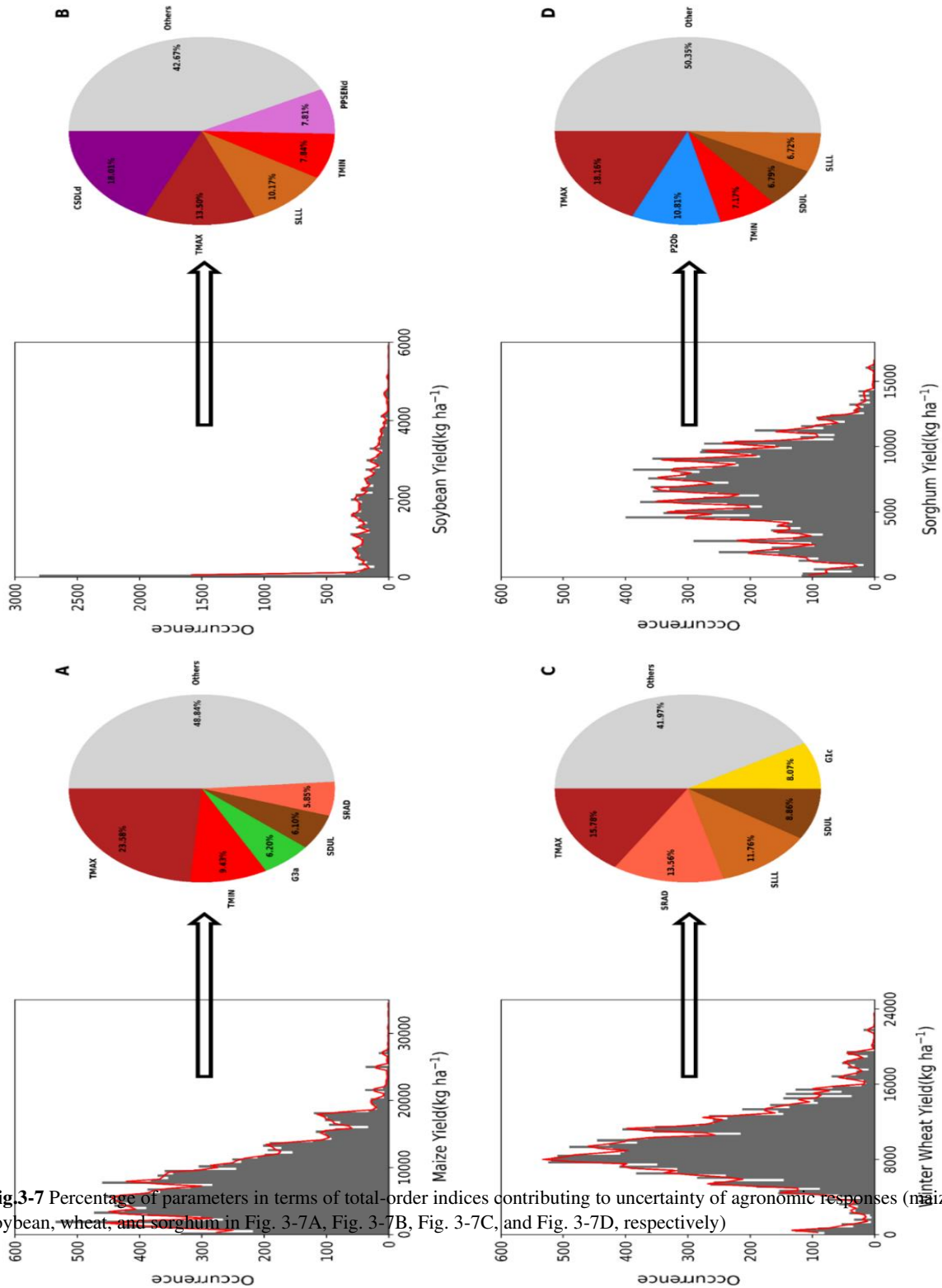


Fig.3-7 Percentage of parameters in terms of total-order indices contributing to uncertainty of agronomic responses (maize yield, soybean, wheat, and sorghum in Fig. 3-7A, Fig. 3-7B, Fig. 3-7C, and Fig. 3-7D, respectively)

hydrologic fluxes on the x axis of each chart in Fig. 3-8 vary in magnitude, to provide more accurate visualization. Recharge (Fig. 3-8C) and pumping (Fig. 3-8D) have much larger

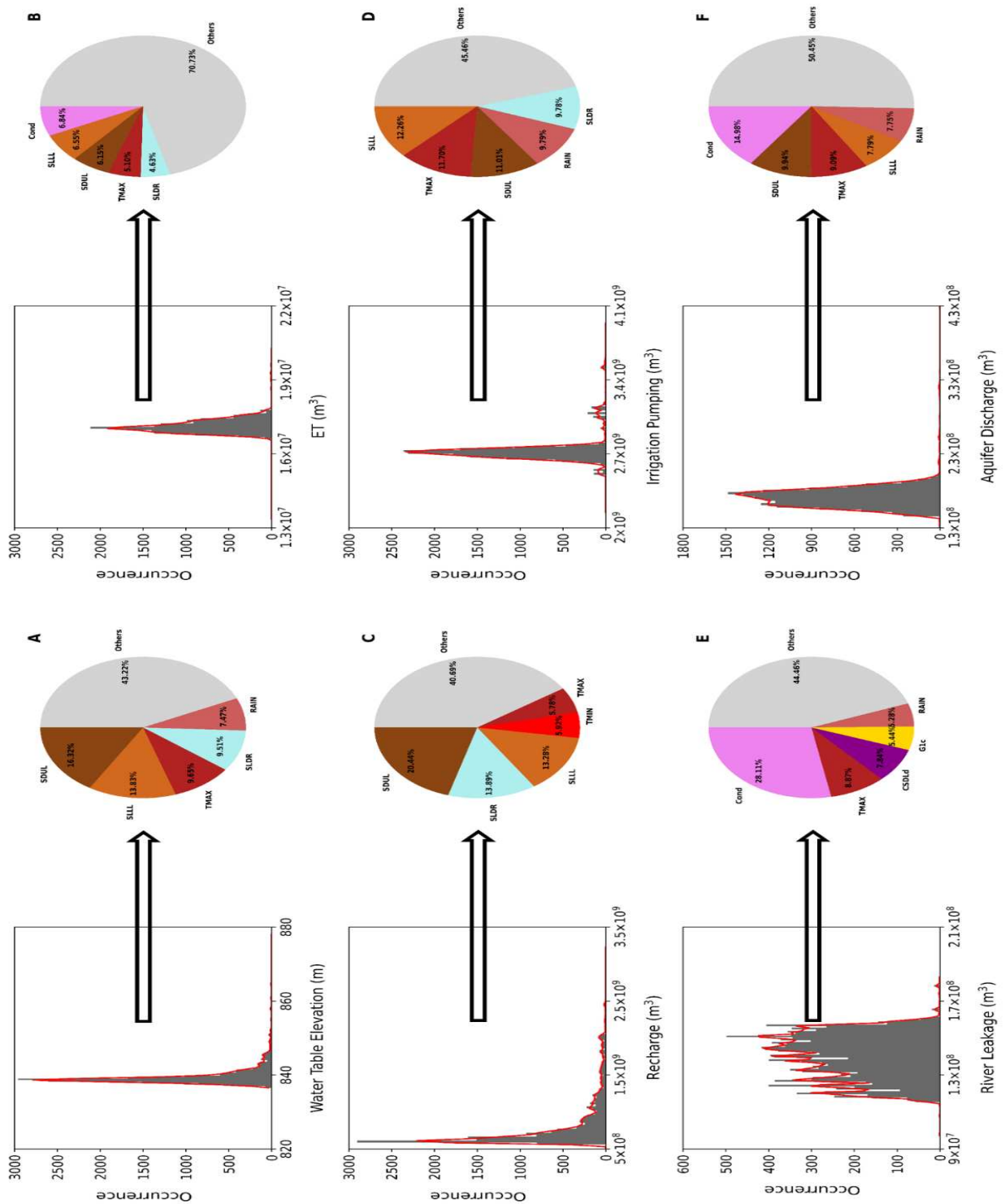


Fig.3-8 Percentage of parameters in terms of total-order indices contributing to uncertainty of hydrological responses (water table elevation, ET, recharge, irrigation pumping, river leakage, and aquifer discharge in Fig.8A, Fig.8B, Fig.8C, Fig.8D, Fig.8E, and Fig.8F, respectively)

magnitudes than ET (Fig. 3-8B), stream seepage (Fig. 3-8E), and groundwater discharge (Fig. 3-8F). Soil-related parameters considerably affect water table elevation (44% of uncertainty) and recharge (53% of uncertainty), with relation to interaction between soil properties and the amount of water that passes from the soil profile to the water table (Fig. 3-8A, C). As shown in Fig. 3-8B, uncertainty of ET is caused by all parameters, with almost even uncertainty in input factors to ET. Over 80% of uncertainty in irrigation pumping can be attributed to soil-related, climate-related, and hydrogeological parameters (Fig. 3-8D) mainly due to the control of these parameters on rainfall and crop growth, which triggers irrigation events and associated pumping. Stream seepage to the aquifer (Fig. 3-8E) and groundwater discharge to streams (Fig. 3-8F) are controlled by riverbed conductance, climate parameters, and, to a lesser degree, crop genetic parameters.

3.3.4 COMPARISON OF MODEL RESPONSES UNDER EXTREME CONDITIONS

To quantitatively identify the influence of sensitive parameters on model responses, the most sensitive parameter for each model response is selected to implement a case study. Fig. 3-9 shows comparisons of model responses under scenarios with minimum and maximum values of the corresponding most sensitive parameters. The most influential parameters for each model response are shown in Figs. 3-6 and 3-7. For example, TMAX is the most influential parameter for maize yield (Fig. 3-6A), CDSLd is the most influential parameter for soybean yield (Fig. 3-6B), and SDUL is the most influential parameter for water table elevation (Fig. 3-7A). ET, with riverbed conductance as the most influential parameter (see Figure 3-6B), is increased only by 3% (Fig. 3-9A), demonstrating that although parameters may have a relatively high sensitivity index for a given system response, the magnitude of response change can be quite minimal. Similar to groundwater ET, river leakage (lkg) and groundwater discharge (spg) are

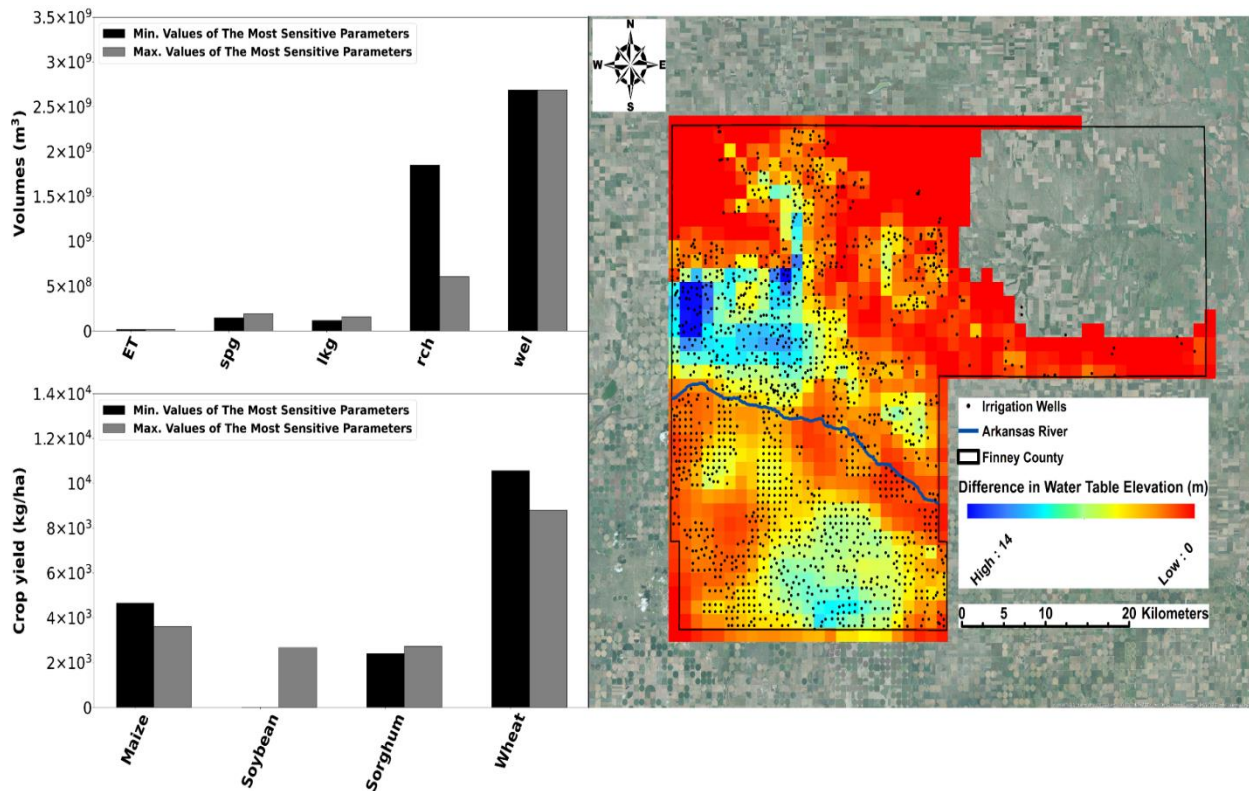


Fig. 3-9 Comparison of responses of the hydro-agronomic system under scenarios with minimum and maximum values of the corresponding most sensitive parameters. Fig.9A shows the influence of the most sensitive parameter on each hydrological model response; Fig.9B shows the influence of the most sensitive parameter on each agronomic model response; Fig.9C shows the spatial influence of the most sensitive parameter on water table elevation.

increased by 38% and 29% when applying the values of their respective influential parameters. However, the overall volume of water attributed to these two fluxes is very small compared to the change in recharge and groundwater pumping. For example, the volume of pumping is 18 times than that of the volume of groundwater discharge. This is due to the small spatial area in which the Arkansas River is in connection with the aquifer, as compared to the area over which recharge and pumping occur. Regardless, the flux values shown in Figure 3-9A are important regarding the overall influence of system parameters on the hydrologic balance in the system. With comparison to original volumes of the baseline simulation (i.e., 16,313,840 m³ for ET, 159,131,449 m³ for groundwater discharge, 72,440,221 m³ for river leakage, 877,641,153 m³ for recharge, and 2,651,042,093 m³ for groundwater pumping), the relative percentage change in

hydrologic fluxes are 4% to 7%, -8% to 20%, 60% to 120%, -31% to 111%, and 13% to 15% for ET, groundwater discharge, river leakage, recharge, and groundwater pumping, respectively, under scenarios with minimum and maximum values of the corresponding most sensitive parameters. The large change in groundwater pumping volume is demonstrated by the change in water table elevation, shown in Figure 3-9C for each MODFLOW grid cell in the Finney County area. Some locations have a difference of up to 14 m, which is severe compared to observed decadal changes in the region. The largest changes in water table elevation occur in areas of maize (compared with crop type distribution in Fig. 3-1B).

Similarly, Figure 3-9B shows the change in crop yield when the values of the respective influential parameters are implemented in the simulations. Maximum temperature is the most sensitive parameter for maize, sorghum, and wheat yield, but higher maximum temperature for maize and wheat has negatively impact on crop yields, indicating maximum temperature should be in a reasonable range (Kassie et al., 2016). The soybean yield is mostly driven by a cultivar genetic parameter of CSDL, and the difference between the two scenarios is 2670 kg/ha. For each crop, the yield values shown in Fig. 9B represent a change of 29%, 2,567%, 13%, and 20%, respectively, for maize, soybean, sorghum, and wheat. Compared to crop yields of the baseline simulation (i.e., 12,356 kg/ha for maize, 2,436 kg/ha for soybean, 11,244 kg/ha for sorghum, and 10,561 kg/ha for wheat), the relative percentage change in crop yields is -71% to -62%, -96% to 10%, -79% to -76%, and -32% to -18% for maize, soybean, sorghum, and wheat, respectively, under scenarios with minimum and maximum values of the corresponding most sensitive parameters.

3.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Two sensitivity analyses (i.e., Morris screening method and Sobol' variance-based method) were applied to a groundwater-irrigated hydro-agronomic system to assess the governing system factors on crop yield and groundwater storage. The DSSAT-MODFLOW linked modeling system was used as the simulator. A combination of Python scripts and SimLab pre- and post-processing were used to generate parameter values, update model files for DSSAT and MODFLOW, run the model simulations, and calculate sensitivity indices for both the Morris method and the Sobol' method. Fifty-seven parameters were reduced to 24 parameters after the Morris screening method, and the sensitivity of 28 parameters (including 4 climate-related parameters) were analyzed on 10 model responses (i.e., maize yield, soybean yield, winter wheat yield, sorghum yield, water table elevation, ET, recharge, irrigation pumping, river leakage, and aquifer seepage) using Sobol' variance-based sensitivity analysis.

From the results we conclude that climate-related parameters significantly affect crop yields, especially for maize and sorghum, and soybean and winter wheat yields are sensitive to a combination of cultivar genetic parameters, soil-related parameters, and climate-related parameters. Climatic parameters account for 44%, 29%, 40%, and 36% variation in yield of maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum. Hydrogeologic parameters (aquifer hydraulic conductivity, aquifer specific yield, and riverbed conductance) have a relatively low influence on crop yields. Hydrological responses show variations in influential parameters. Water table elevation, recharge, and irrigation pumping are considerably sensitive to soil- and climate-related parameters, while ET, river leakage, and aquifer seepage are highly influenced by hydrogeological parameter (e.g., riverbed conductance, and specific yield) (shown in Fig. 6). Soil

parameters accounted for 44%, 20%, 50%, and 34% variation in water table elevation, ET, recharge, and irrigation pumping.

These results point to the general importance of soil water management and climatic patterns in groundwater-irrigated regions. They can be helpful from the perspective of understanding what might increase crop yield and conserve groundwater, and also what parameters should receive more attention in field sampling and monitoring. Although the study area is in a region with sparse rainfall and hence the need for ongoing pumping, climate plays an important role in crop yield, principally through maximum daily temperature and solar radiation. Therefore, future climate change will have an ever-increasing impact on crop production and associated groundwater conservation, even without accounting for future changing rainfall patterns. Climate cannot be controlled by local water managers and growers; however, they should be made aware of the implications of increasing temperatures on crop yields and hydrologic fluxes in these systems. For hydrologic fluxes, climate and soil parameters have approximately the same influence, pointing to the need for advanced irrigation systems that increase irrigation efficiency. Also, since the influence of maximum temperature on crop growth is exacerbated by water deficits (Hatfield and Prueger, 2015), a minimum level of soil water content should be maintained throughout the growing season. These general results are applicable to other regions within the High Plains Aquifer and similar groundwater-irrigated systems, and the methods presented herein can serve as a guide for identifying controlling factors in other hydro-agronomic systems.

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CHAPTER 4 – QUANTIFYING THE IMPACT OF CLIMATE AND MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES ON GROUNDWATER CONSERVATION IN THE HIGH PLAINS AQUIFER³

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Groundwater is significant for domestic use, agricultural irrigation, industrial processes, etc. Groundwater provides 50% of all drinking water (Lall et al., 2020) for 35% of the world's population (Grönwall & Danert, 2020). Of the groundwater used globally, 43% (Siebert et al., 2010) is for crop irrigation and 33% is for industrial applications (Lall et al., 2020). In semi-arid and arid regions, agricultural irrigation is highly dependent on groundwater (Foster et al., 2014), which often leads to groundwater depletion in aquifer systems and associated impacts such as land subsidence, wetland degradation, lowering of well pumping capacity, increase in pumping costs, and reduction or cessation of groundwater discharge (i.e. baseflow) to streams (Konikow and Kendy, 2005; Motagh et al., 2008; Werner 2010; Varela-Ortega et al., 2011; Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). In the past century, global groundwater storage lost approximately 3,400 km³ (Konikow, 2011), with depletion rates of 126 km³ yr⁻¹ in 1960 to 283 km³ yr⁻¹ in 2000 (Wada et al., 2010), while more than 1,100 km³ was depleted merely in the first 8 years of the 21st century (Konikow, 2011), with an average depletion rate of 138 km³ yr⁻¹. Regionally, groundwater depletions are 1000 km³ in the United States during the years of 1900 to 2008 (Konikow, 2015), with depletion rates of 12.5 km³ yr⁻¹ (27.6 mm yr⁻¹) and 3.1 km³ yr⁻¹ (20.4 mm yr⁻¹) for the High Plains and California's Central Valley (Famiglietti, 2014); 170.3 km³ in North China Plain throughout 1900 to 2008 (Feng et al., 2013), with an 8.3 km³ yr⁻¹ (22 mm yr⁻¹) depletion rate (Famiglietti, 2014); and 91.3 km³ in north-central Middle East from 2003 to

³ This paper is ready to submit to *Water Resources Research*

2009 (Voss et al., 2013), with a rate of $13 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (17.3 mm yr^{-1}) (Famiglietti, 2014). These depletions are caused principally by over-extraction for crop irrigation. Future changes in rainfall patterns and temperature may also exacerbate the issue of depletion in certain regions. Without management of groundwater resources, many aquifer systems may experience a complete depletion of groundwater in the coming decades (Haacker et al., 2016).

To assist with groundwater management in irrigated regions, many modeling frameworks have been proposed and used to explore the impact of future climate conditions (McCallum et al., 2010; Holman et al., 2012; Masciopinto & Liso, 2016; Deng & Bailey, 2017; Cuthbert et al., 2019) and the impact of potential management strategies (Manghi et al., 2012; Singh, 2013; Foster et al., 2014; Klaas et al., 2020). These frameworks use single application or combinations of hydrologic, hydrogeologic, agronomic, and economic modeling tools. Some studies use only hydrologic models such as MODFLOW (Harbaugh, 2005) or the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (Arnold et al., 1998) to explore future groundwater resources under management scenarios (Jha et al., 2007; Carter & Parker, 2009; Candela et al., 2012; Kumar, 2012; Huang et al., 2013; Sekhar et al., 2013; Klove et al., 2014; Mishra et al., 2014; Gorelick and Zheng, 2015; Farhadi et al., 2016; Ni and Parajuli, 2018), whereas others use only agronomic models such as EPIC (Williams et al., 1989) or DSSAT (Jones et al., 2003) to explore future crop yield under management scenarios (Parry et al., 2004; Ewert et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2009; Audsley et al., 2006; Deryng et al., 2011; Ventrella et al., 2012; Kadiyala et al., 2015; Kihara et al., 2015; Christian et al., 2016; Grundy et al., 2016).

Several studies have used combinations of models such as MPM-WEAP (Varela-Ortega et al., 2011), MODFLOW-SWAP (Xu et al., 2012), MODFLOW-WEAP (Hadded et al., 2013), SWAT-MODFLOW (Bailey et al., 2016), AquaCrop-Economic model with SPIDERR (Foster et

al., 2017), or APSIM-Potato model with a simplistic lumped estimation of groundwater depletion (Tang et al., 2019). For example, Aliyari et al. (2021) used SWAT-MODFLOW to quantify the impact of climate change on groundwater storage and crop yield during the 21st century but did not include effects of management strategies. In general, studies have not yet assessed crop yield and groundwater storage conjunctively under scenarios of climate change and management practices in a physical based, spatially distributed manner. There is a need for a physically based modeling approach that can assist with identifying optimal conservation strategies (i.e., minimize groundwater depletion and maximize crop yield) for future climate patterns in groundwater-depleted regions.

The objective of this chapter is to quantify the impact of climate change and potential management strategies on hydro-agronomic state variables (groundwater storage, crop yield) in a semi-arid region that has experienced significant groundwater depletion in recent decades. The area of interest is southwest Kansas, a region of the High Plains Aquifer, USA, with the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW (Xiang et al., 2020) model applied to Finney County, Kansas (3,370 km²) to simulate the interactions between the agronomic (soil-plant system) and groundwater systems. Interactions include recharge from the soil profile to the water table, and groundwater pumping from the aquifer to the land surface as irrigation. Irrigation is limited based on available groundwater storage in localized sections of the aquifer. Once the best set of model parameters is identified, the DSSAT-MODFLOW model is run for the years 2021-2050 under scenarios of climate patterns, irrigation systems, and planting levels. The result of the modeling scenarios is the identification of management strategies that provide the lowest groundwater depletion and the highest crop yield under varying future climate trends (wet, dry). As the conditions of

southwest Kansas are similar to other regions worldwide in patterns of crop production and groundwater irrigation, results from this study can be applied elsewhere.

4.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section discusses the DSSAT-MODFLOW linked model and its application to the study region in Finney County, in southwest Kansas, USA to quantify the impact of future downscaled climate scenarios and management strategies on groundwater storage and crop yield during the 2021-2050 period. Characteristics of the study region will be presented first, followed by a method to identify the best set of model parameters for a historical period, and then the use of the calibrated model for the future climate and management scenarios.

4.2.1 STUDY REGION: FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS, HIGH PLAINS AQUIFER

The study region is Finney County (38.0625° N latitude and 100.8903° W longitude), with a total area of 3,370 km² (1,302 mi²), in southwest Kansas, within the High Plains Aquifer (HPA), also referred to as the Ogallala Aquifer. The HPA (Fig. 4-1) is one of the largest freshwater aquifers in the world and resides in portions of eight states: South Dakota, Wyoming, Nebraska, Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas, with a total area of 450,000 km² (174,000 mi²). Approximately 88% of pumped groundwater from the HPA is used for irrigated croplands (41% of total land area) (Golleshon and Winston, 2013; Scanlon et al., 2012), accounting for 20% of irrigated croplands in the U.S. and 30% of total crop and animal production in the U.S. (Guru and Horne, 2001; Rosenberg et al., 1999), with an annual output value of over \$35 billion (Basso et al., 2013). The agricultural area in the HPA contains 53% row crops, 33% small grains, and 14% pasture, etc. In addition, it provides 18% production of cattle and swine (USGS High Plain Aquifer WLMS: Physical/Cultural Setting, 2019). The composition of aquifer material and the bedrock unit are poorly sorted clay, silt, sand, gravel and siltstone,

shale, loosely to moderately cemented clay and silt, chalk, limestone, dolomite, conglomerate, claystone, gypsum, anhydrite, bedded salt, respectively.

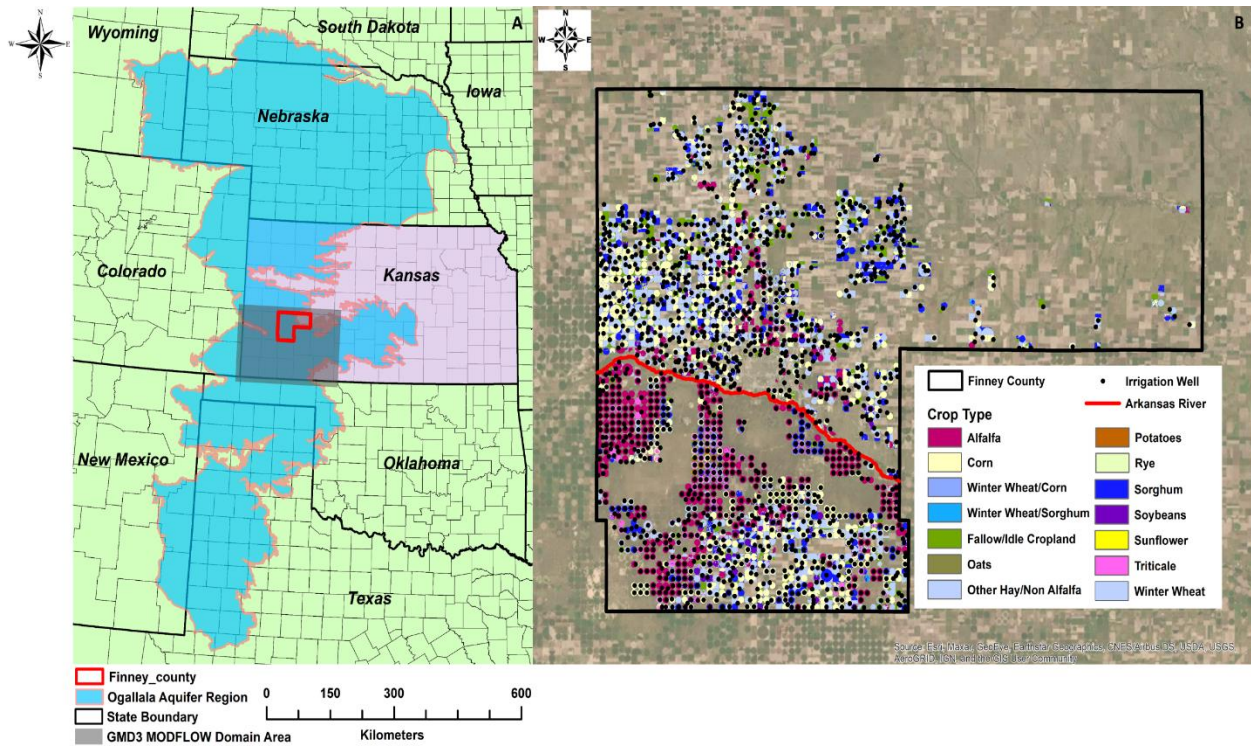


Fig. 4-1 Map of study region and related information. Fig. 4-1A shows map of study region of Finney County, southwest of Kansas, in the Ogallala Aquifer. The Finney County area is encompassed within the red contour line. The blue region enclosed with light brown line is the Ogallala Aquifer, and the states are divided with black lines; Fig.1B shows map of irrigation well and crop types (Finney County mainly contains five crops, including corn, winter wheat, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale).

Excessive pumping in the HPA since the 1950s has led to extensive groundwater depletion. For example, the rate of groundwater depletion increased by about $10 \text{ km}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ on average throughout 2003 to 2013 compared with that during the 20th century (Famiglietti, 2014), and the quantity of groundwater storage decreased by approximately 400 km^3 during 1900 – 2008, which accounts for 40% of overall depletion in the U.S. However, the change of water table elevation varies spatially, with some areas (central Nebraska) experiencing an increase in groundwater storage due to higher precipitation rates and less dependence on groundwater for irrigation. In other areas, such as eastern Colorado, southwest Kansas, the panhandle of Oklahoma, and the panhandle of Texas, declines have been up to 78 m.

Finney County, in the southwest Kansas, is selected in this study to identify optimal management strategies under the effect of climate change, due to a high dependence on groundwater irrigation (over 95% pumped groundwater for crop irrigation) and an excessive drawdown of water table elevation (i.e., approximately 15 m (50 ft) decline in water head since 1950). There are approximately 1,630 irrigation wells in the county, providing water for a total cropland of 105,218 ha (260,000 ac). The main crops grown in Finney County include corn (corn), winter wheat, soybeans, and sorghum.

4.2.2 DSSAT-MODFLOW: DETAILS AND APPLICATION TO FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS

This study uses the coupled DSSAT-MODFLOW model of Xiang et al. (2020). This model simulates jointly agronomic processes and state variables (crop yield, soil hydrologic and nutrient dynamics) and hydrogeologic processes and state variables (groundwater storage, groundwater head, groundwater pumping, groundwater-surface water interactions), with deep percolation (i.e. recharge) and applied irrigation (i.e. groundwater pumping volumes) passed from DSSAT to MODFLOW, and resulting simulated groundwater storage from MODFLOW providing a constraint on allowed irrigation application during the following growing season for DSSAT. A separate DSSAT model is prepared for each cultivated field.

DSSAT (Jones et al., 2003), Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer, is an assembly of programming codes to simulate crop growth, development, and production in terms of dynamics among cycles of soil-plant-atmosphere for over 40 possible crop types in a one-dimensional soil profile setting. It is often applied for policy decision-making, management strategies and yield prediction under different scales (i.e., on-farm or regional assessment). DSSAT needs input information to make simulations, including weather data, soil profile, crop

management, cultivar genetic parameters, etc., and it contains multiple modules of simulations (i.e., seasonal, spatial, sequential simulations) specified by users.

MODFLOW (Harbaugh, 2005) is a 3D physically based groundwater flow model that simulates groundwater head, groundwater budget (e.g., groundwater storage, groundwater recharge and discharge, etc.), and groundwater flow rates using the finite difference method. MODFLOW requires aquifer properties (hydraulic conductivity, specific yield, and specific storage) be specified for each finite difference cell in the model domain. The simulation period is divided into stress period (i.e., a groundwater stress remains constant), and then into time steps.

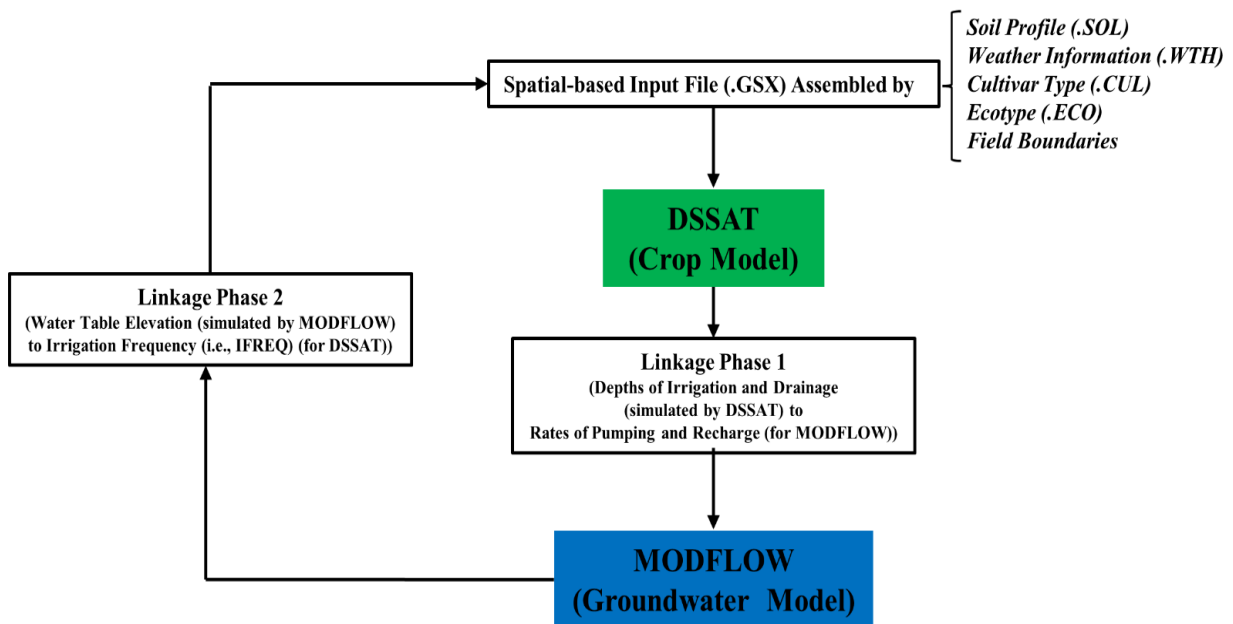


Fig. 4-2 The DSSAT-MODFLOW framework showing the linkage between DSSAT and MODFLOW simulation.

The linkage framework of DSSAT-MODFLOW is described in Fig. 4-2. The major task for the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW is to make a connection between the agronomic and hydrological systems through exchanging information (i.e., depths of irrigation and drainage for the agronomic system and water table elevation, saturated thickness, and well capacity for the hydrogeologic system). The overall linkage procedure, which occurs on an annual basis, is summarized by the following steps:

1. *Run ensemble of DSSAT simulations.* Since DSSAT is a 1D model, a separate DSSAT model must be set up and run for each cultivated field in the model domain. The ensemble is prepared using the spatial module mode through a batch file with all input information assembling into the .GSX input file. The ensemble of simulations is run for an entire growing season.
2. *Convert DSSAT outputs to MODFLOW inputs.* Daily depths of applied irrigation are converted to groundwater pumping volumes to be used in MODFLOW's Well package, and daily soil drainage depths are converted to recharge volumes to be used in MODFLOW's Recharge package. Python scripts are used to read DSSAT outputs and prepare MODFLOW input files.
3. *Run MODFLOW.* MODFLOW is run for the growing season, simulated daily groundwater head and groundwater storage for each finite difference cell. The groundwater head at the final day of the simulation period will be used as initial conditions for the following year.
4. *Prepare DSSAT inputs using MODFLOW outputs.* The final step in the linkage process prepares input variables for the ensemble of DSSAT simulations, to be run the following growing season. The DSSAT input variable IFREQ, which controls the irrigation frequency during the growing season, is constrained by the available groundwater storage in corresponding MODFLOW grid cells.

DSSAT and MODFLOW models for Finney County were constructed and calibrated separately by Araya et al. (2017) and Liu et al. (2011), respectively. The domain of DSSAT simulations contains corn, winter wheat, sorghum, soybean, and triticale (regarded same as winter wheat in our study), with a total of 1,332 cultivated fields: 564 for corn, 484 for winter

wheat, 28 for soybean, 206 for sorghum, and 50 for triticale. For each field, DSSAT simulates crop yield and water budgets (i.e., irrigation and drainage depths). The MODFLOW model has a simulation period of 1944 to 2007. The domain area of the MODFLOW model is 161 km by 241 km (100 miles by 150 miles, shown in grey area in Fig.1A), with each grid cell 1.61 km by 1.61 km (1 mile by 1 mile). The stress period of the MODFLOW model is changed to daily stress period to be consistent with daily outputs of DSSAT simulation (Xiang et al., 2020).

4.2.3 PARAMETER ESTIMATION FOR DSSAT-MODFLOW

Xiang et al. (2020) introduced the DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling framework. However, they used model parameters from the separate modeling studies in southwest Kansas of DSSAT (Araya et al., 2017) and MODFLOW (Liu et al., 2011) which, while providing good results for groundwater head in comparison to observed head at monitoring wells, provided poor results for yield of sorghum, winter wheat, and soybean. Therefore, before applying the model to investigate effects of future climate and management strategies on system variables, we estimate the values of major parameters of the coupled DSSAT-MODFLOW model. The years 2000-2003 are used as the calibration period, and the 2004-2007 years are used as the testing period.

The parameter estimation process is based on a sensitivity analysis of model parameters using the Sobol' method. This method was used by Xiang et al. (2022) in their study of hydro-agronomic controls on groundwater storage and crop yield in Finney County, and results from these simulations are used here. From the ensemble of simulations, the parameter values that provide the best fit between the simulated and observed state variables are selected. Model results are tested against annual-based measurements of crop yield (i.e., corn, soybean, sorghum, and winter wheat), derived from the NASS official website (<https://quickstats.nass.usda.gov/>), and groundwater head measurements from USGS monitoring wells. A description of the 28

parameters included in model parameter estimation are listed in Tab. 4-1. The method uses 14,848 simulations of DSSAT-MODFLOW for the 2000-2003 calibration period (Xiang. et al., 2022). From the results of these simulations, the top 1% of simulations with the highest Kling-Gupta Efficiency (KGE for hydrologic response) and Index of Agreement (*d* for agronomic response) based on fits between simulated and observed state variables (groundwater head, crop yield) are selected from which posterior distributions of model results are generated (Fig. 4-3). Due to a group of 28 parameters that can individually have effect on each of the 5 state variables (groundwater head, corn yield, soybean yield, winter wheat yield, sorghum yield), the best set of parameters for all state variables (the values in the 9th column summarized in Tab. 1) is estimated in terms of the best set of parameters for each of state variables (the mean value of each parameter’s cumulative distribution function (CDF)) through weights of percentage of total Sobol’ indices for each state variable.

Tab. 4-1. Best sets of estimation of parameters for individual model responses and the overall model responses with definitions and units of parameters.

Parameters	Description	Unit	Estimated parameters for water table elevation ¹	Estimated parameters for maize yield ²	Estimated parameters for sorghum yield ²	Estimated parameters for soybean yield ²	Estimated parameters for winter wheat yield ²	Estimated parameters for all model responses
P1 ^a	Thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg. C) during which the plant is not responsive to changes in photoperiod	degree-day	264.3 ± 52.3	286.6 ± 55.2	279.0 ± 31.4	292.2 ± 31.0	204.6 ± 43.3	274.5 ± 53.6
P5 ^a	Thermal time from silking to physiological maturity (expressed in degree days above a base temperature of 8 deg.C).	degree-day	888.3 ± 68.1	785.2 ± 72.3	793.8 ± 46.3	818.3 ± 46.3	784.7 ± 41.6	822.5 ± 61.2

G2 ^a	Maximum possible number of kernels per plant.	Kernels	679.5 ± 116.0	721.1 ± 90.9	792.2 ± 89.8	704.7 ± 75.1	707.3 ± 63.5	734.8 ± 96.1
G3 ^a	Kernel filling rate during the linear grain filling stage and under optimum conditions.	mg-day ⁻¹	10.36 ± 1.87	10.28 ± 1.58	11.23 ± 1.49	10.97 ± 0.85	10.17 ± 1.20	10.33 ± 1.57
PHINT ^a	Phylochron interval; the interval in thermal time (degree days) between successive leaf tip appearances.	degree-day	64.12 ± 10.25	48.44 ± 5.89	42.51 ± 7.52	48.55 ± 3.58	47.00 ± 5.46	50.74 ± 6.59
RUE ^a	Radiation use efficiency	g-MJ ⁻¹	3.0 ± 0.5	4.0 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.5
P2O ^b	Critical photoperiod or the longest day length (in hours) at which development occurs at a maximum rate. At values higher than P2O, the rate of development is reduced	hour	14.98 ± 0.80	14.15 ± 0.54	13.03 ± 0.65	13.23 ± 0.54	13.42 ± 0.43	13.07 ± 0.65
P2R ^b	Extent to which phasic development leading to panicle initiation (expressed in degree days) is delayed for each hour increase in photoperiod above P2O	degree-day	220.3 ± 49.1	155.5 ± 47.3	175.5 ± 43.8	100.2 ± 44.2	141.2 ± 22.9	176.2 ± 44.0
P5 ^b	Thermal time from beginning of grain filling to physiological maturity (degree days above TBASE)	degree-day	614.5 ± 48.8	596.7 ± 53.3	552.5 ± 33.3	549.4 ± 29.9	531.5 ± 25.5	567.9 ± 37.0
G2 ^b	Scaler for partitioning of assimilates to the panicle (head).	-	7.9 ± 1.0	5.9 ± 0.9	7.4 ± 0.7	8.0 ± 0.7	7.0 ± 0.6	7.2 ± 0.8
P1D ^c	Photoperiod response (% reduction in	%	98 ± 33	123 ± 28	129 ± 15	106 ± 11	134 ± 31	120 ± 24

	rate/10 h drop in pp)							
G1 ^c	Kernel number per unit canopy weight at anthesis (#/g)	NO./g ram	32 ± 7	21 ± 6	31 ± 6	47 ± 6	38 ± 4	34 ± 5
G2 ^c	Standard kernel size under optimum conditions (mg)	mg	59 ± 12	50 ± 9	60 ± 10	54 ± 7	56 ± 7	56 ± 9
CSDL ^d	Critical Short Day Length below which reproductive development progresses with no daylength effect (for short-day plants) (hour)	hour	13.44 ± 0.89	12.40 ± 0.49	13.25 ± 0.59	13.13 ± 0.54	13.53 ± 0.37	13.13 ± 0.56
PPSEN ^d	Slope of the relative response of development to photoperiod with time (positive for shortday plants)	hour ⁻¹	0.255 ± 0.049	0.220 ± 0.046	0.174 ± 0.038	0.239 ± 0.034	0.201 ± 0.029	0.240 ± 0.035
EM-FL ^d	Time between plant emergence and flower appearance (R1) (photothermal days)	days	13.8 ± 3.7	21.6 ± 3.5	21.04 ± 3.55	23.22 ± 2.87	18.44 ± 1.38	20.90 ± 2.94
LFMAX ^d	Maximum leaf photosynthesis rate at 30 C, 350 vpm CO ₂ , and high light (mg CO ₂ /m ² - s)	mg- CO ₂ / m ² -s	1.117 ± 0.060	1.127 ± 0.029	1.163 ± 0.067	1.127 ± 0.049	1.078 ± 0.031	1.118 ± 0.046
K	Hydraulic Conductivity	- ³	1.011 ± 0.047	0.988 ± 0.021	0.992 ± 0.023	0.981 ± 0.021	1.003 ± 0.025	0.998 ± 0.033
Sy	Specific Yield	- ³	0.869 ± 0.106	0.974 ± 0.049	1.033 ± 0.078	1.004 ± 0.056	0.979 ± 0.047	0.889 ± 0.097
Cond	Riverbed/strea mbed hydraulic conductance	- ³	0.999 ± 0.118	0.948 ± 0.063	1.025 ± 0.079	0.988 ± 0.070	1.000 ± 0.045	0.999 ± 0.108
SLPF	Soil fertility factor/Photosy nthesis factor	-	0.9 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0
SLDR	Drainage rate	day ⁻¹	0.7 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.2
SLLL	Drained lower limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.153 ± 0.041	0.162 ± 0.011	0.111 ± 0.023	0.140 ± 0.030	0.147 ± 0.024	0.143 ± 0.029
SDUL	Drained upper limit	cm ³ cm ⁻³	0.358 ± 0.028	0.341 ± 0.029	0.338 ± 0.023	0.345 ± 0.029	0.340 ± 0.016	0.347 ± 0.025
SRAD	Solar radiation	- ³	1.077 ± 0.135	1.037 ± 0.062	1.040 ± 0.079	0.978 ± 0.053	1.035 ± 0.054	1.033 ± 0.067
TMAX	Temperature Maximum	- ³	1.110 ± 0.112	0.951 ± 0.103	1.003 ± 0.085	1.004 ± 0.053	0.999 ± 0.059	1.000 ± 0.083

TMIN	Temperature Minimum	- ³	0.884 ± 0.086	1.030 ± 0.133	0.984 ± 0.065	1.037 ± 0.075	0.965 ± 0.044	0.999 ± 0.085
RAIN	Rainfall (including snow)	- ³	1.019 ± 0.079	1.082 ± 0.065	0.945 ± 0.056	0.987 ± 0.060	0.969 ± 0.048	1.003 ± 0.063

¹ Model KGE (Kling-Gupta Efficiency) Threshold for water table elevation is from 0.999852 to 0.999894.

² Model d (Index of Agreement) Thresholds for yields of maize, sorghum, soybean, and winter wheat are 0.82 to 0.96, 0.69 to 0.88, 0.92 to 0.95, and 0.56 to 0.91, respectively.

³ The sign of '-' does not indicate those parameters are dimensionless, and multiplier factors are used for those parameters. The units are L/T, %, L²/T, MJ/m²-day, °C, °C, and mm/day for hydraulic conductivity, specific yield, riverbed conductance, solar radiation, temperature maximum, temperature minimum, and rainfall, respectively.

Notation for genetic parameters: ^a for maize genetic parameter; ^b for sorghum genetic parameter; ^c for winter wheat genetic parameter; ^d for soybean genetic parameter.

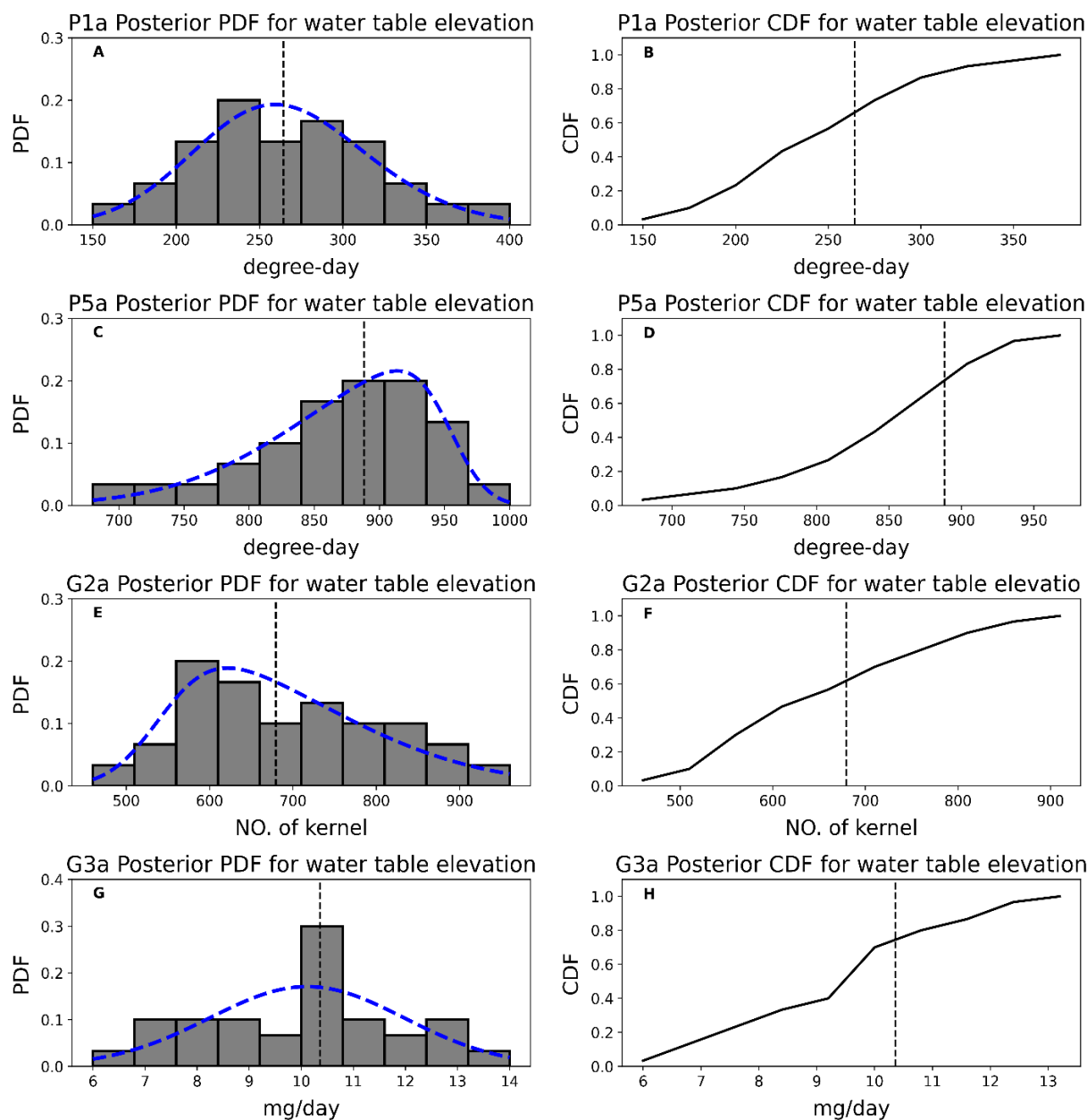


Fig. 4-3 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 10 parameters, for the top 10% of the 14,848 simulations.

4.2.4 CLIMATE DATA FOR 2021 - 2050

Statistically downscaled global circulation model (GCM) data from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) (*see Figure 4-S1&S2 in Appendices*) is used for this study. Daily downscaled meteorological projection data is created at a 1/24-degree (~4km) resolution using the Multivariate Adapted Constructed Analogs (MACA) method (Abatzoglou and Brown, 2012; Abatzoglou, 2013). MACA uses bias correction and spatial patterns to achieve spatial and temporal downscaling, matching large-scale patterns (e.g., simulations of GCMs) to local, observed patterns. In this study we use available daily downscaled results (minimum and maximum temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, solar radiation) from 20 GCMs for Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5. Due to the focus on identifying the most effective irrigation and crop management strategies under various possible future climates, we filter the 20 GCMs to three: one each that represents the wettest, driest, and average conditions. This is performed for both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, resulting in 6 climate scenarios. The following three steps are used to identify these scenarios, which are used as input for the 2020-2050 DSSAT-MODFLOW scenario simulations:

1. GCMs are ranked according to average annual precipitation;
2. Based on the ranking from 1., climate scenarios are divided into four quartiles;
3. The temporal trend of annual precipitation during 2021-2050 is assessed using the Theil-Sen slope, i.e., the median value of all slopes between all pairs of points in the time series. It is due to its robustness to outliers. The most positive slope represents the wet climate trend in the first quartile, the most negative slope represents the dry climate trend in the fourth quartile, and the slope closest to 0 represents the average trends from the second and third quartiles.

Once the 6 climate scenarios are selected, the downscaled daily precipitation and temperature values are written into the DSSAT input files.

4.2.5 ASSESSMENT OF MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES UNDER A CHANGING CLIMATE

Effective irrigation and crop management strategies that limit groundwater use but maintain crop yield are now assessed for the various climate scenarios identified using the method described in Section 4.2.4. The following strategies are assessed:

- *Irrigation type*: surface irrigation (SI) with an irrigation efficiency of 60%; drip irrigation (DI) with an efficiency of 90%; sprinkler irrigation (SPI) with an efficiency of 80%; and center pivot (CP) irrigation with an efficiency of 85%.
- *Planting levels*: full field (level 1), half field (level 2), and quarter field (level 3).

Each of the 4 irrigation types and 3 planting levels are evaluated for each of the 6 future climate patterns, resulting in 72 scenarios. The MODFLOW model is extended to the year 2050, with all hydrogeologic parameters (aquifer hydraulic conductivity, aquifer specific storage, aquifer specific yield, riverbed conductance) held constant.

Results of each of the 72 scenarios are compared according to annual average total crop yield (kg) and average annual groundwater drawdown (m) (i.e., the difference between the initial and final groundwater head values during the year) in the study region. For scenarios that meet a threshold of crop production (based on historical annual average of yield and cultivated areas for each crop type), the ratio of crop yield (kg) to drawdown (m), termed *water use efficiency WUE* (kg/m), is used to identify the most effective management strategies, with strategies being ranked highest for the highest value of W_e . Another term (i.e., *Water Use Profit (WUP, U.S. dollar per m)*) is introduced to identify the management strategies that provide the highest gross revenue of crop yield per unit of groundwater depletion.

4.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.3.1 PARAMETER ESTIMATION AND MODEL TESTING

The PDFs and CDFs of the 28 targeted model parameters are shown in *Figs. 4-S3, S4, S5, S6, S7 in Appendices*. Graphical representation of only 4 parameters (i.e., P1a, P5a, G2a, and G3a) are shown here (Fig. 4-3) for water table elevation (i.e., one of the system responses), with distribution trendlines of parameters. The shape of each PDF indicates the degree of parameter uncertainty, for example the flat posterior distributions indicate greater uncertainty of parameters in comparison with those with peaked and shaped distributions. In addition, the shape of each CDF demonstrates the type of distribution. For instance, the linear shape of a CDF indicates the uniform distributions of probabilities of parameters. The best values of parameters are derived at the means of CDFs (i.e., when the value of a CDF is equal to 0.5), which are values along the x axis that intersects the CDF trendlines (see Fig. 4-3). The best values for each of the 28 parameters are summarized in Tab. 4-1, with standard deviations.

Fig. 4-4 shows the comparison between simulated and observed water table elevation (i.e., groundwater head) during the 2004-2007 period (Fig. 4-4A), and time-series plots of simulated water table elevation and observed measurements for two monitoring wells (Fig. 4-4B, C). The coefficient of Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSE), scaled RMSE, and Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency Coefficient (NSCE) are 7.22 m, 0.07, and 0.83, respectively, for simulated and observed water table elevation for the calibrated DSSAT-MODFLOW model, compared to 12.1 m, 0.11, and 0.59, respectively, for the original model presented in Xiang et al. (2020), a reduction of 40% in RMSE and an increase of 41% in the NSCE.

Fig. 4-5 shows simulated crop yields for corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum for 2004, 2005, 2006, and 2007. The model performs well for most crops and most years. For

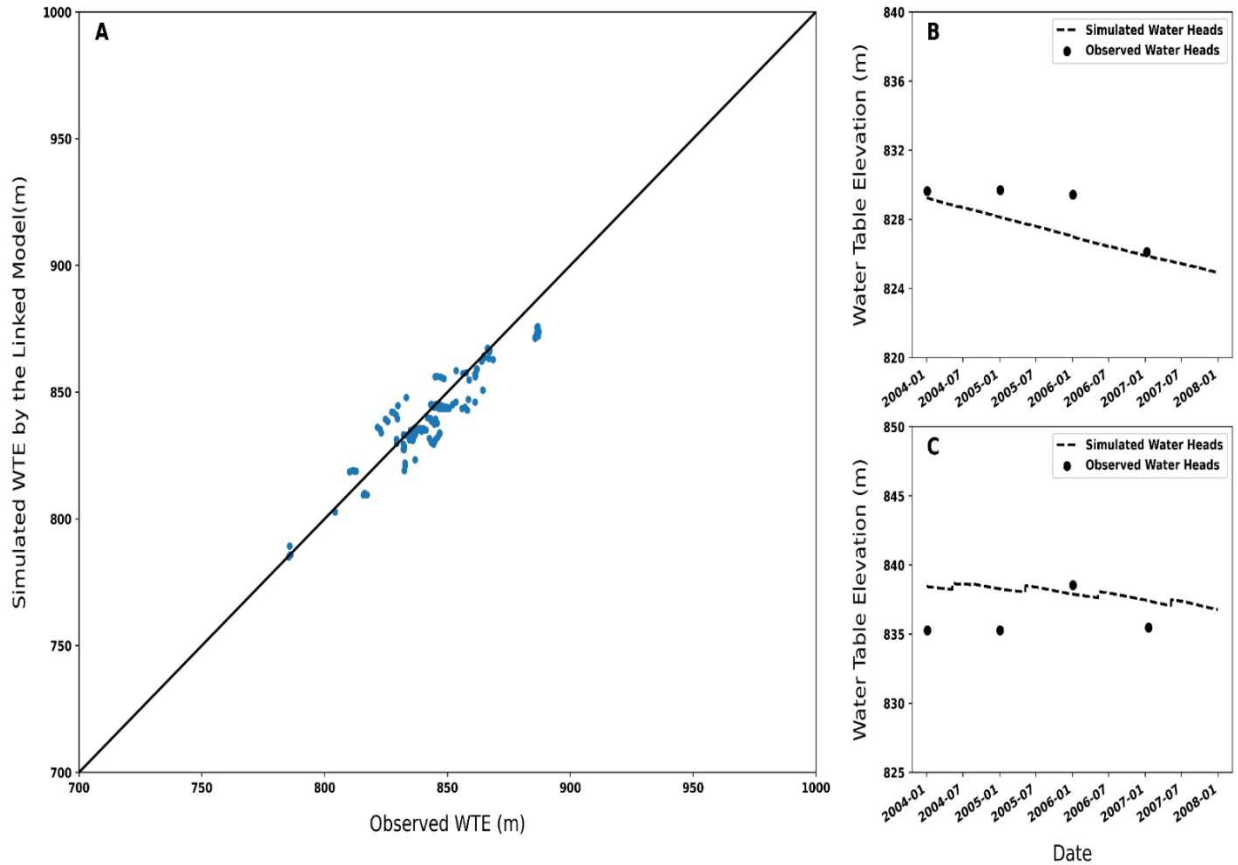


Fig. 4-4 Model validation. Fig.4A shows the comparison between observed water table elevation and simulated water table elevation. Fig.4B & C represent time series plots for simulated water table elevation, in comparison with measured values, in the locations of grid cell with row 17 and column 70 (Fig.4B) and gride cell with row 20 column 80 (Fig.4C).

example, reported crop yields are 13,983 kg/ha, 4,864 kg/ha, 3,195 kg/ha, and 3,121 kg/ha for corn, sorghum, winter wheat, and soybean, respectively, in 2007. Simulated crop yields for the same year using the initial parameter set of DSSAT-MODFLOW (Xiang et al., 2020) are 13,540 kg/ha for corn (3% difference with reported), 10,863 kg/ha for sorghum (123% difference), 10,830 kg/ha for winter wheat (239% difference), and 4,084 kg/ha for soybean (31% difference). Simulated crop yields using the calibrated parameter values in this study are 13,613 kg/ha for corn (3% difference), 5,316 kg/ha for sorghum (9% difference), 3,464 kg/ha for winter wheat (8% difference), and 2,881 kg/ha for soybean (8% difference). Results are similar for years 2004, 2005, and 2006, with the main deviations in simulated values from reported values occurring for corn (Fig. 4-5A), soybean (Fig. 4-5B), winter wheat (Fig. 4-5C), and sorghum (Fig. 4-5D).

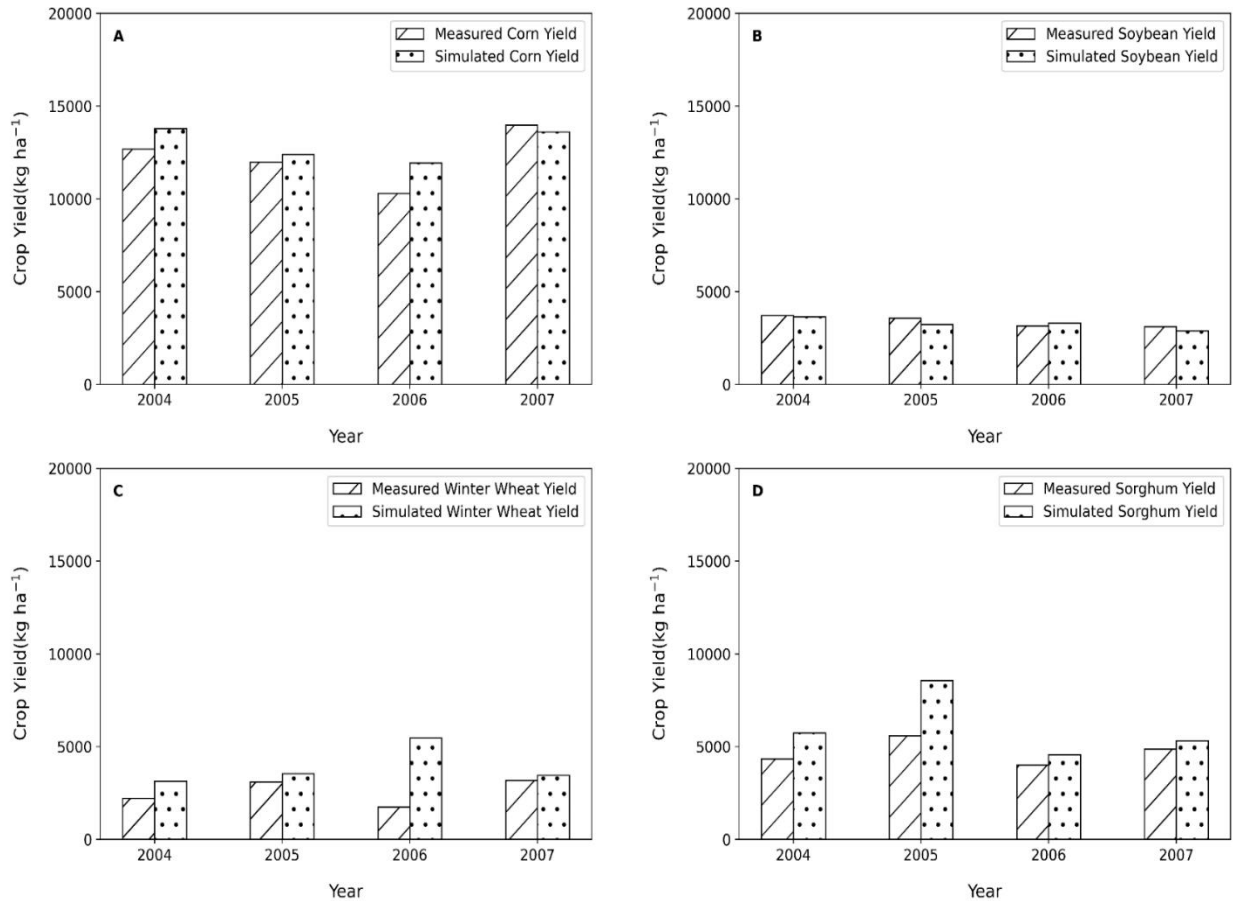


Fig. 4-5 Comparison of simulated crop yields and measured crop yields during 2004 to 2007. Fig. 5A, 5B, 5C, and 5D show the simulated yields of corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum, respectively, compared to measured crop yields in 2004, 2005, 2006, and 2007.

With these results for both groundwater head and crop yield, we conclude that the model can be used to estimate the impact of climate scenarios and irrigation strategies on groundwater storage, water table elevation, groundwater drawdown, and crop yield during the years 2020-2050.

4.3.2 MODEL RESPONSE DRIVEN BY CLIMATE PATTERNS

The impact of climate without management strategies is presented first to provide context for the management strategy results shown in Section 4.3.3. Fig. 4-6 shows annual average water table elevation and crop yield (corn, soybean, winter wheat, sorghum) for the 2021-2050 period, for each of the 40 climate scenarios. From these results we conclude that climate has a

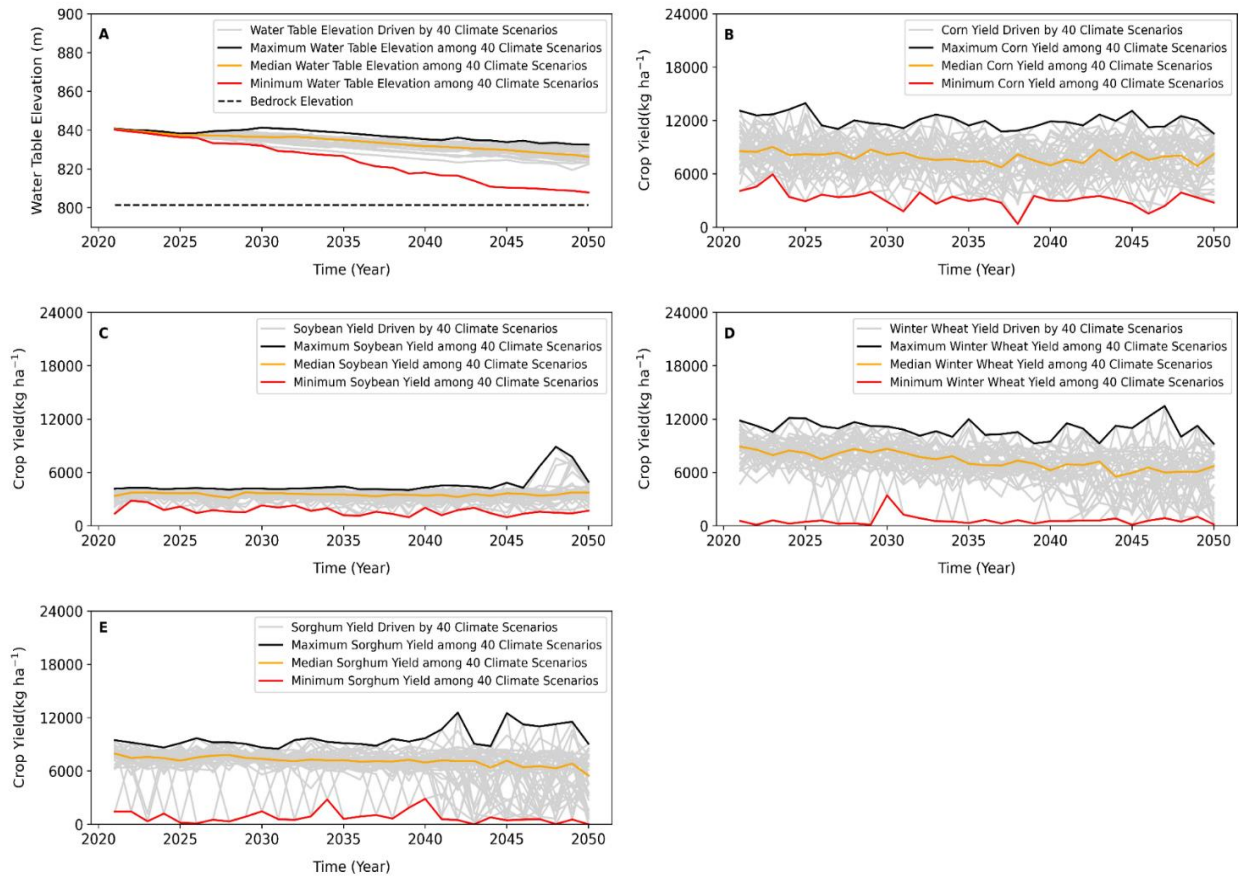


Fig. 4-6 Model responses (i.e., water table elevation in Fig. 4-6A, yields of corn in Fig. 4-6B, soybean in Fig. 4-6C, winter wheat in Fig. 4-6D, and sorghum in Fig. 4-6E) driven by long-term downscaled climate patterns.

significant effect on groundwater storage and crop yield in the study region. The water table elevation (Fig. 4-6A) decreases 8 m over 30 years (0.3 m/yr) under the best (wettest) scenario of climate patterns but decreases 32 m (1.1 m/yr) under the worst (driest) scenario. As seen in Fig. 4-6A, which shows the elevation of the bedrock (dashed black line; 800 m), by 2050 the water table elevation in the driest climate condition is within a few meters of the bedrock, indicating near depletion of all groundwater in the region. However, for most climate scenarios (gray lines), groundwater storage does not decline nearly as much, but still 20% to 50% of the original saturated thickness. In addition, crop yields are greatly influenced by future climate patterns. The average difference in corn yield over 30 years with the best and worst climate conditions is 8,779 kg/ha; similarly, the average differences in yields of soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum are 2,953 kg/ha, 10,323 kg/ha, and 8,902kg/ha, respectively.

4.3.3 IDENTIFYING EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

The relationships between annual crop yield (kg/yr), annual gross revenue (dollars/yr), and annual average groundwater drawdown (m) are shown for the 24 management scenarios under wet climate conditions (Fig. 4-7), average climate conditions (Fig. 4-8), and dry climate conditions (Fig. 4-9), for Finney County. Annual gross revenue is based on data from [https://www.nass.usda.gov/Charts and Maps/Agricultural Prices/](https://www.nass.usda.gov/Charts_and_Maps/Agricultural_Prices/). Results are shown for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum. Each point in the plots represents a different climate-management combination. The color represents the management practices, whereas the symbol (dot, cross) represents the RCP level (4.5 vs. 8.5). Each figure plot shows a black dashed line that indicates the minimum allowed total crop yield, based on historical production. Therefore, each scenario that plots above this line represents a combination of climate and management that maintains adequate crop yield into future decades.

Based on results shown in Fig. 4-7, management scenarios under the RCP8.5 wet period for maize are rejected, while management scenarios under the RCP4.5 wet period for maize are accepted for the applications of *WUE* and *WUP*, with most gross revenue of 9.834×10^7 U.S. Dollars under the combination of drip irrigation system and quarter plant level (Fig. 4-7A). This indicates that if future climate conditions are wet but conform to the assumptions of the RCP8.5 carbon emission scenario, then likely no viable management practice will be able to maintain adequate maize yield. The situation is not so dire for the other three crop types (Fig. 4-7B, C, D), with management scenarios in both the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 conditions providing many acceptable crop yields, although soybean has the fewest (Fig. 4-7B), with only four scenarios under RCP8.5 wet condition recognized as acceptable. For each crop type, the crop yield for the RCP8.5 conditions are always lower than for the RCP4.5 conditions. For winter wheat and

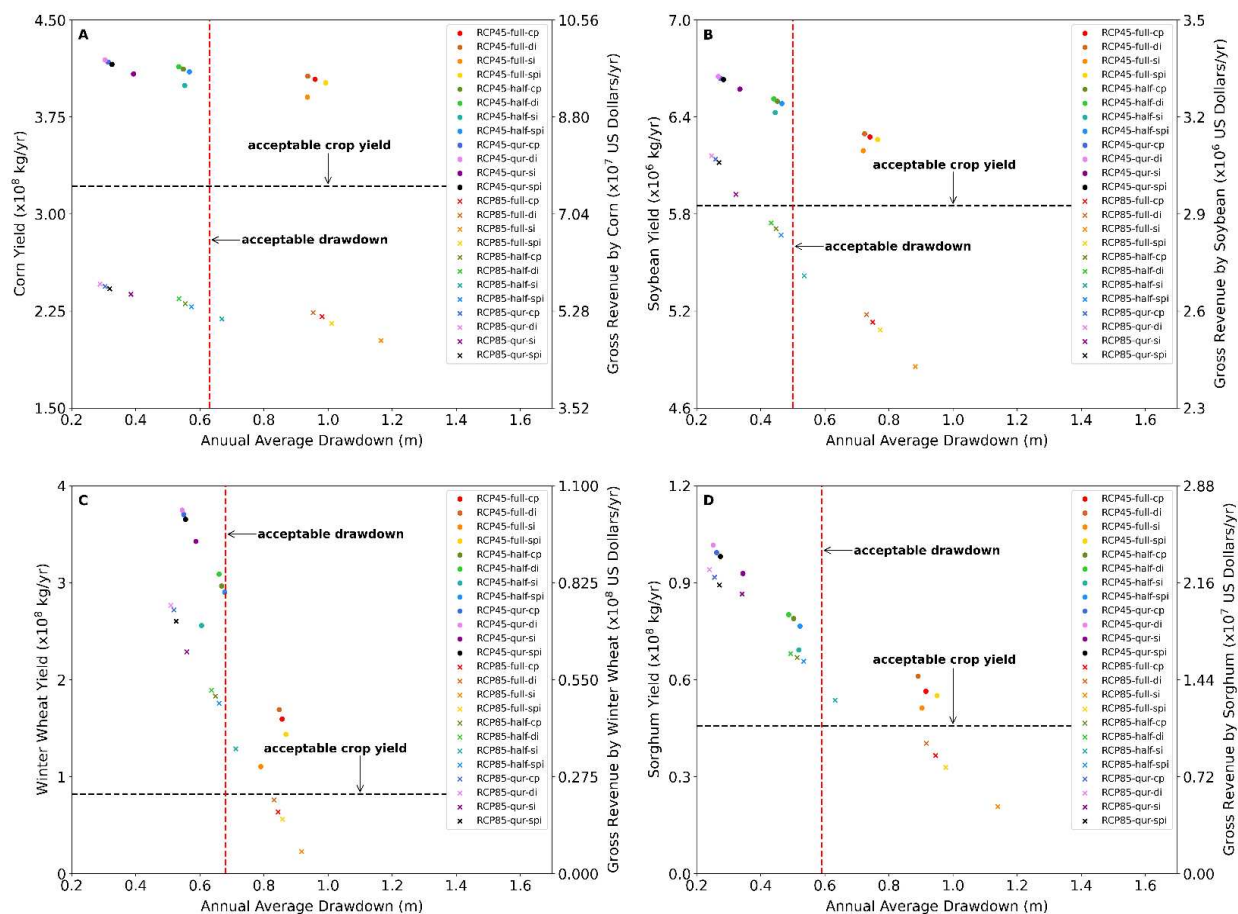


Fig. 4-7 Screening of the alternatives of BMPs under the wet climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5). Fig. 7A, B, C, and D show annual average total crop yields vs. annual average drawdown for corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum, respectively, during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

sorghum, only four management scenarios under RCP8.5 wet condition are rejected; the eliminated management scenarios are involved in plant level 1 (full field planting), which use the most groundwater. If groundwater conservation is a constraint, and an annual drawdown of less than acceptable drawdown (i.e., the average of 24 management practice-based annual average drawdowns for crops in 3 climate conditions) is desired (see vertical red dashed line in Fig. 4-7), then only a few scenarios will yield adequate crop yield. See upper-left region in each plot in Fig. 4-7. The average gross revenue for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum that meet both acceptable drawdown and crop yield are 9.67×10^7 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹, 3.13×10^6 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹, 0.76×10^8 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹, and 2.02×10^7 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹, respectively.

Tab. 4-2. Water Use Efficiency (WUE) ($\times 10^9$ kg of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future wet climate conditions.

Crop Type and Climate Conditions	Water Use Efficiency for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^9$ kg/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_wet_RCP4.5	0.4172	0.7227	1.0397	0.4044	0.7229	1.275	0.4213	0.7512	1.3291	0.434	0.7749	1.3764
Corn_wet_RCP8.5	0.1736	0.3276	0.6183	0.213	0.3975	0.7612	0.225	0.4163	0.8026	0.2347	0.4384	0.8526
Soybean_wet_RCP4.5	0.0086	0.0144	0.0196	0.0082	0.0139	0.0234	0.0085	0.0144	0.0242	0.0087	0.0148	0.0249
Soybean_wet_RCP8.5	0.0055	0.0101	0.0184	0.0066	0.0122	0.0227	0.0068	0.0127	0.0237	0.0071	0.0133	0.025
Winter Wheat_wet_RCP4.5	0.1399	0.4229	0.583	0.1655	0.4285	0.6582	0.1863	0.4443	0.6737	0.1997	0.4681	0.6878
Winter Wheat_wet_RCP8.5	0.025	0.181	0.4089	0.0656	0.2663	0.4949	0.0756	0.2823	0.5242	0.0917	0.2972	0.5434
Sorghum_wet_RCP4.5	0.0568	0.1335	0.2697	0.058	0.1467	0.3575	0.0617	0.157	0.3792	0.0686	0.1645	0.4039
Sorghum_wet_RCP8.5	0.0182	0.0849	0.2532	0.0337	0.1231	0.3298	0.0387	0.1304	0.3583	0.0441	0.138	0.3919

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.

The *WUE* and *WUP* for each of the scenarios shown in Fig. 4-7 is summarized in Tab. 2 and Tab. 4-S1 (*in the Appendices*), respectively. Higher values indicate more crop yield and gross revenue per groundwater used, which correspond to symbols in the upper-left regions of Fig. 4-7 plots. *WUE* and *WUP* values for scenarios that provide crop yield above the minimum threshold are colored in light blue, while values that limit drawdown to less than acceptable drawdown are colored in light red. Scenarios that meet both crop yield and groundwater constraints are colored in light purple. As expected, higher *WUE* values correspond to scenarios with higher irrigation efficiency and smaller plant level. For example, for corn under the wet climate condition with RCP4.5, drip irrigation for quarter plots (#12) has a *WUE* of 1.3764×10^9 kg/m, with an increase of 2 times compared to drip irrigation for full plots (#10), which has as *WUE* of 0.434×10^9 kg/m. Similar results occur for the other three crop types, and for the other irrigation types (surface, sprinkler, center pivot). The drip-quarter plot scenario (#12) is

represented by the pink dot in Fig. 4-7A, which is the farthest left on the plot. Only several scenarios (light purple color) meet both criteria. These are: #2, #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 for maize under the wet climate condition.

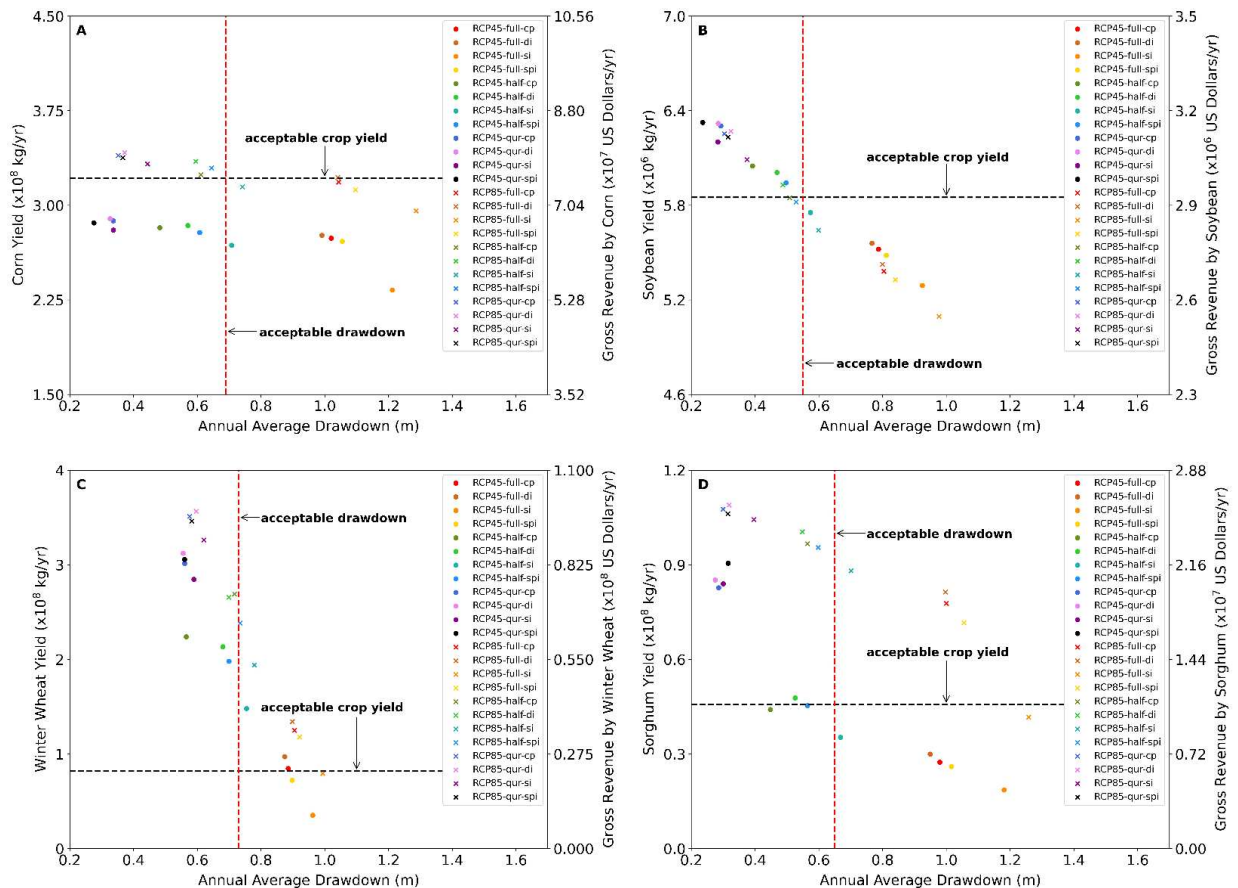


Fig. 4-8 Screening of the alternatives of BMPs under the average climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5). Fig.8A, B, C, and D show annual average total crop yields vs. annual average drawdown for corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum, respectively, during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

Similar patterns occur for average (Fig. 4-8) and dry (Fig. 4-9) climate conditions. None of the management strategies under the dry RCP8.5 climate scenario will provide adequate crop yield (Fig. 4-9A); similarly, only a few management strategies under average RCP8.5 climate condition are conducive to maize growth (Fig. 4-8A), but there are multiple strategies under the RCP8.5 scenario that will be sufficient for soybean (Figs. 4-8 & 9B), winter wheat (Figs. 4-8 & 9C), and sorghum (Figs. 4-8 & 9D). For soybean under an average climate, 5 and 7 management scenarios under the average climate conditions of RCP8.5 and RCP4.5, respectively, provide

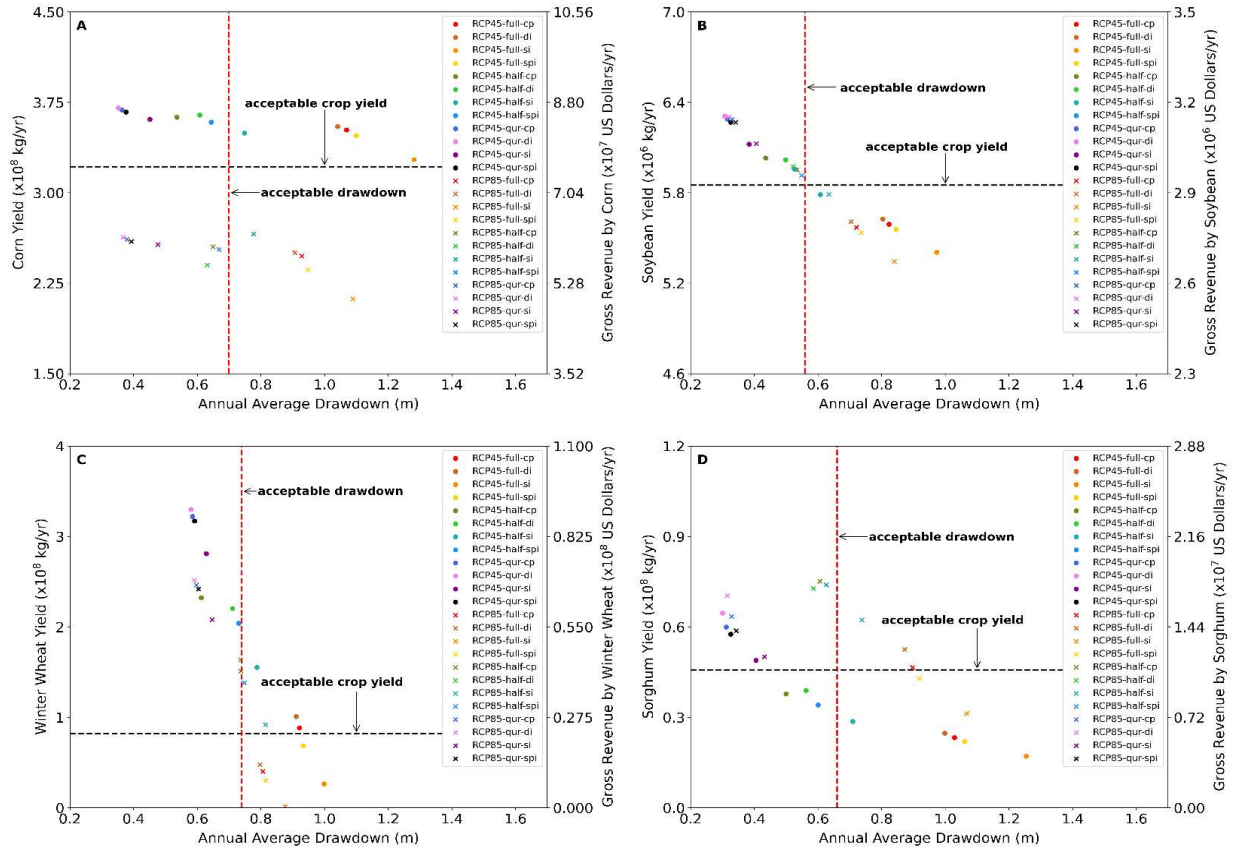


Fig. 4-9 Screening of the alternatives of BMPs under the dry climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5). Fig.9A, B, C, and D show annual average total crop yields vs. annual average drawdown for corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum, respectively, during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

adequate crop yield, with an average gross revenue of 2.99×10^6 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹. For winter wheat and sorghum under average climate conditions, only several management scenarios provide inadequate crop yield, with average gross revenues of 0.64×10^8 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹ and 2.15×10^7 U.S. Dollars-yr⁻¹ for winter wheat and sorghum, respectively, for providing adequate crop yield. The same trend occurs for the dry conditions (Fig. 4-9), although there are several more scenarios under the dry condition that do not provide adequate yield of winter wheat (Fig. 4-9C) and sorghum (Fig. 4-9D), with dry conditions overall providing lower crop yield. If groundwater conservation is considered, and an annual drawdown of acceptable drawdown is defined as the maximum allowed amount, then only 7, 12, 14, and 12 scenarios are adequate for

yield of maize (Fig. 4-8A), soybean (Fig. 4-8B), winter wheat (Fig. 4-8C), and sorghum (Fig. 4-8D), respectively, under the average climate conditions.. Similar results occur for dry conditions (Fig. 4-9).

Tab. 4-3. Water Use Efficiency (WUE) ($\times 10^9$ kg of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future average climate conditions.

Crop Type and Climate Conditions	Water Use Efficiency for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^9$ kg/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_avg_RCP4.5	0.19 21	0.37 91	0.83 2	0.25 72	0.45 82	1.03 7	0.26 84	0.58 46	0.85 45	0.27 86	0.49 76	0.88 66
Corn_avg_RCP8.5	0.22 97	0.42 39	0.74 98	0.28 48	0.51 1	0.92 14	0.30 51	0.53	0.96 49	0.30 94	0.56 26	0.91 79
Soybean_avg_RCP4.5	0.00 57	0.01	0.02 19	0.00 68	0.01 2	0.02 69	0.00 7	0.01 54	0.02 16	0.00 73	0.01 28	0.02 22
Soybean_avg_RCP8.5	0.00 52	0.00 94	0.01 63	0.00 63	0.01 1	0.01 98	0.00 67	0.01 15	0.02 06	0.00 68	0.01 22	0.01 94
Winter Wheat_avg_RCP4.5	0.03 66	0.19 61	0.48 29	0.08 05	0.28 32	0.54 56	0.09 57	0.39 59	0.53 74	0.11 12	0.31 38	0.56 19
Winter Wheat_avg_RCP8.5	0.07 99	0.24 91	0.52 54	0.12 82	0.32 47	0.59 39	0.13 82	0.37 51	0.59 77	0.14 95	0.37 98	0.61
Sorghum_avg_RCP4.5	0.01 57	0.05 28	0.27 99	0.02 56	0.08 04	0.28 69	0.02 8	0.09 84	0.28 94	0.03 16	0.09 09	0.30 96
Sorghum_avg_RCP8.5	0.03 31	0.12 57	0.26 33	0.06 79	0.15 97	0.33 77	0.07 77	0.17 13	0.35 96	0.08 16	0.18 33	0.34 2

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.

The results for the average and dry conditions are summarized in Tab. 3 and Tab. 4-S2 (see in the Appendices), and Tab. 4 and Tab. 4-S3 (see in the Appendices), respectively. Similar to the wet conditions, much higher *WUE* and *WUP* values occur for higher irrigation efficiency practices and less land irrigated. For average conditions, 57 scenarios satisfy the crop yield requirement, 56 scenarios satisfy the groundwater drawdown requirement, and only 45 scenarios satisfy both conditions. These scenarios are: #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP8.5 for maize; #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP4.5 and #3, #6, #9, #11, #12 under RCP8.5 for soybean; #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP4.5 and #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under

RCP8.5 for winter wheat; #3, #6, #9, #11, #12 under RCP4.5 and #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP8.5 for sorghum. For dry conditions, 58 scenarios satisfy the crop yield requirement, 53 scenarios satisfy the groundwater drawdown requirement, and only 43 scenarios satisfy both conditions. These scenarios are: #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP4.5 for maize; #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 for soybean; #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP4.5 and #3, #6, #9, #12 under RCP8.5 for winter wheat; #3, #6, #9, #12 under RCP4.5 and #3, #5, #6, #8, #9, #11, #12 under RCP8.5 for sorghum.

Tab. 4-4. Water Use Efficiency (WUE) ($\times 10^9$ kg of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future dry climate conditions.

Crop Type And Climate Conditions	Water Use Efficiency for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^9$ kg/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_dry_RCP4.5	0.25 57	0.46 71	0.79 98	0.31 59	0.55 69	0.97 5	0.32 93	0.67 64	1.01 47	0.34 11	0.59 97	1.05 22
Corn_dry_RCP8.5	0.19 48	0.34 22	0.53 91	0.24 92	0.37 84	0.66 03	0.26 67	0.39 29	0.68 85	0.27 63	0.37 98	0.71 73
Soybean_dry_RCP4.5	0.00 56	0.00 95	0.01 6	0.00 66	0.01 13	0.01 92	0.00 68	0.01 38	0.01 99	0.00 7	0.01 21	0.02 06
Soybean_dry_RCP8.5	0.00 64	0.00 91	0.01 51	0.00 75	0.01 08	0.01 84	0.00 77	0.01 11	0.01 9	0.00 8	0.01 14	0.01 97
Winter Wheat_dry_RCP4.5	0.02 65	0.19 72	0.44 7	0.07 35	0.27 95	0.53 6	0.09 61	0.37 9	0.55 05	0.11 08	0.30 98	0.56 87
Winter Wheat_dry_RCP8.5	0.00 17	0.10 66	0.32 2	0.03 72	0.18 51	0.40 05	0.05 01	0.20 52	0.41 25	0.05 98	0.22 23	0.42 57
Sorghum_dry_RCP4.5	0.01 37	0.04 04	0.12 07	0.02 07	0.05 69	0.17 69	0.02 26	0.07 56	0.19 23	0.02 48	0.06 92	0.21 54
Sorghum_dry_RCP8.5	0.02 93	0.08 43	0.11 6	0.04 67	0.11 81	0.17 12	0.05 18	0.12 4	0.19 31	0.06 02	0.12 43	0.22 34

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.

4.3.4 FIELD-BASED ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Fig. 4-10, 11, & 12 show field-scale results of average maize yield (kg/ha) and average annual drawdown (m) during 2021 - 2050 in different locations within the Finney County (maize is selected for case study). 4 spots/fields are selected for this study, including the field of NO.199

(top-middle related to results shown in Fig. 4-10A, 11A, &12A) with low saturated thickness and no surface-water interaction, the field of NO. 766 (bottom-middle related to results shown in Fig.4-10B, 11B, &12B) with high saturated thickness and no surface-water interaction, the field of NO.2142 (middle-left related to results shown in Fig. 4-10C, 11C, &12C) with high saturated thickness and surface-water interaction, and the field of NO. 4663 (middle-right related to results

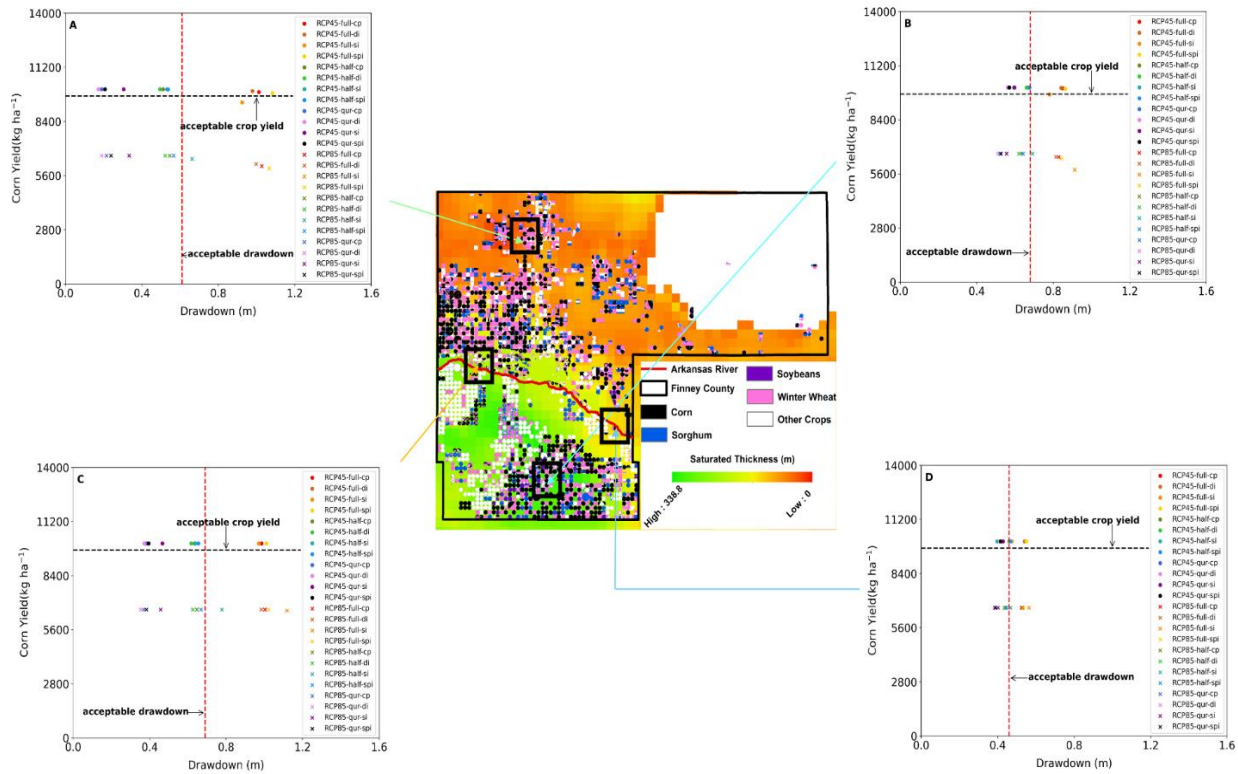


Fig. 4-10 Field-based analysis of the relationship between maize yield (kg/ha) and average annual drawdown (m) in different locations (Fig.10A, B, C, D in the field of NO.199, NO. 766, NO. 2142, NO. 4663 shown in the central map) with 24 BMPs under the wet climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

Based on plots in Fig. 4-10, 11, &12, the management strategies do not significantly affect maize yield (see values of maize yield around a horizontal line under different climate conditions with RCP4.5 and RCP.8.5); however, they considerably have influence on groundwater depletion, which indicates the reasonable application of management strategies is conducive to local groundwater conservation. The yield of maize is mainly controlled by climate

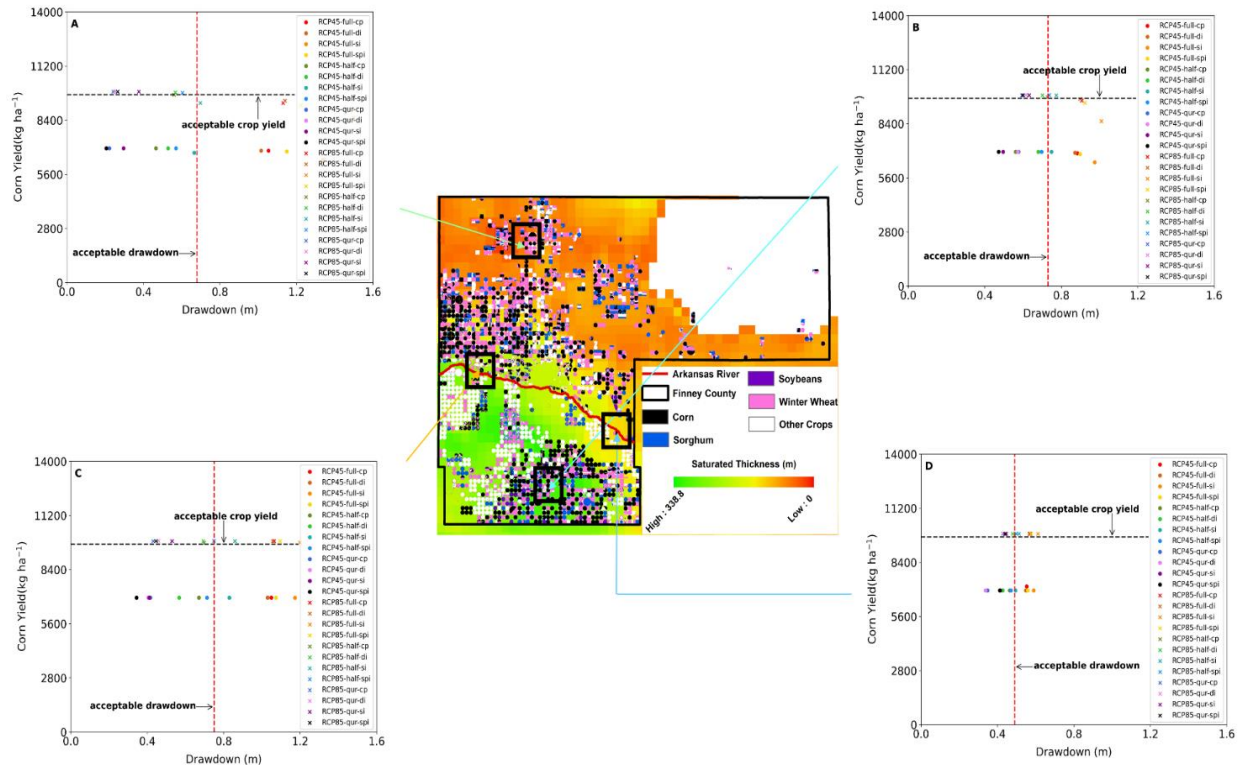


Fig. 4-11 Field-based analysis of the relationship between maize yield (kg/ha) and average annual drawdown (m) in different locations (Fig.10A, B, C, D in the field of NO.199, NO. 766, NO. 2142, NO. 4663 shown in the central map) with 24 BMPs under the average climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

conditions (i.e., wet, average, dry) RCP emission conditions. Groundwater drawdown is greatly affected by management strategies applied in the field with low saturated thickness under 3 climate conditions (see changes in drawdown by management strategies in Fig. 4-10A, 11A, 12A), while it is less impacted by management strategies in the field with high saturated thickness (Fig.4-10B, 11B, 12B); in other words, the field in the areas with low groundwater availability requires more management strategies to conserve groundwater. Management strategies do not extremely influence groundwater depletion with areas of low saturated thickness when areas have interactions with surface-water (Fig. 4-10D); however, these areas could have less drawdowns due to recharge of surface-water into groundwater. The field interacting with groundwater, but with high saturated thickness, has a wide range of changes in

groundwater drawdown by management strategies; however, more groundwater depletion occurs to the field, with comparison with the field with both surface-water interaction and low saturated thickness, due to discharge from groundwater to surface-water in terms of high saturated thickness (Fig. 4-10C).

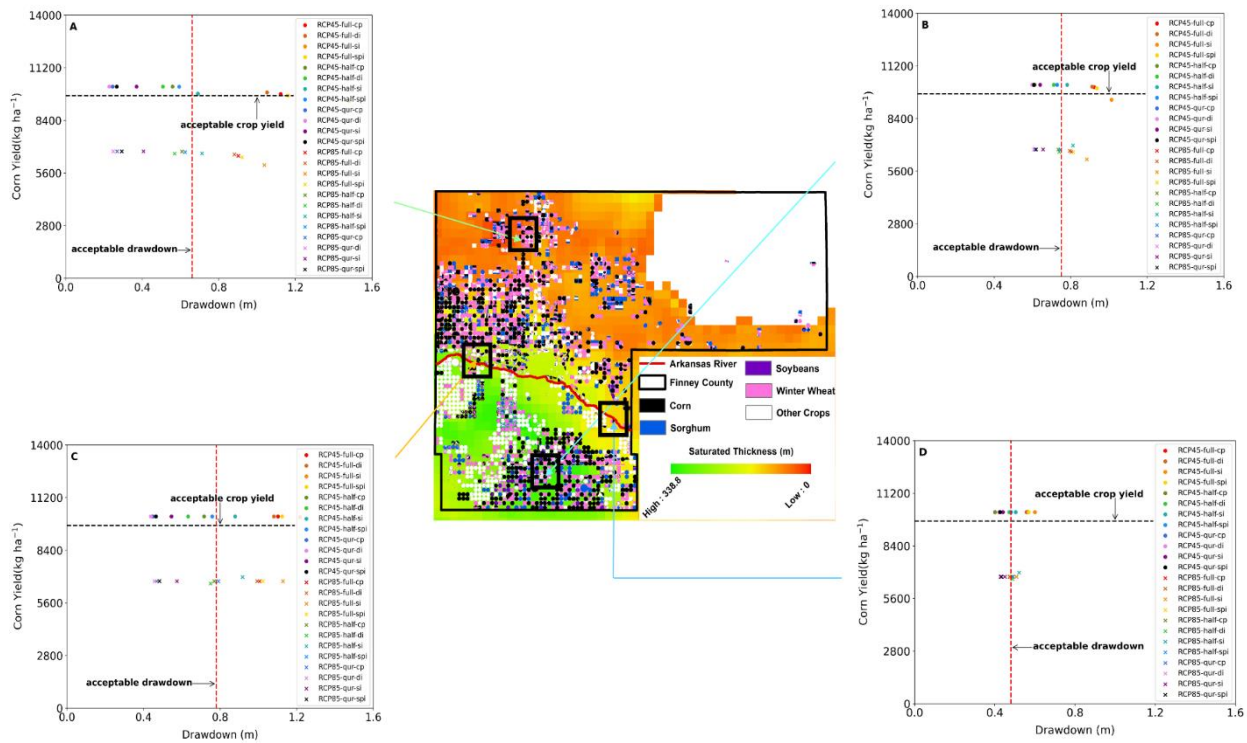


Fig. 4-12 Field-based analysis of the relationship between maize yield (kg/ha) and average annual drawdown (m) in different locations (Fig.10A, B, C, D in the field of NO.199, NO. 766, NO. 2142, NO. 4663 shown in the central map) with 24 BMPs under the dry climate condition (for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) during 2021 – 2050 in Finney County. Irrigation systems include center pivot irrigation (cp), drip irrigation (di), surface irrigation (si) and sprinkler irrigation (spi). Plant levels include full field (full), half field (half), and quarter field (qr).

4.3.5 EFFECT OF BEST MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES THROUGH TIME

The management strategies identified in Section 4.3.3 as providing the highest crop yield for the lowest groundwater drawdown (i.e., best strategies) are now shown in terms of annual water table elevation and crop yield. The strategies providing the lowest crop yield for the high groundwater drawdown (i.e., worst strategies) are shown alongside for comparison. The four scenarios therefore are 1) best strategy during dry conditions (BSD), 2) worst strategy during dry

conditions (WSD), 3) best strategy during wet conditions (BSW), and 4) worst strategy during wet conditions (WSW). Results of water table elevation are averaged according to the crop type associated with the groundwater, e.g., all MODFLOW grid cells that underly corn-cultivated

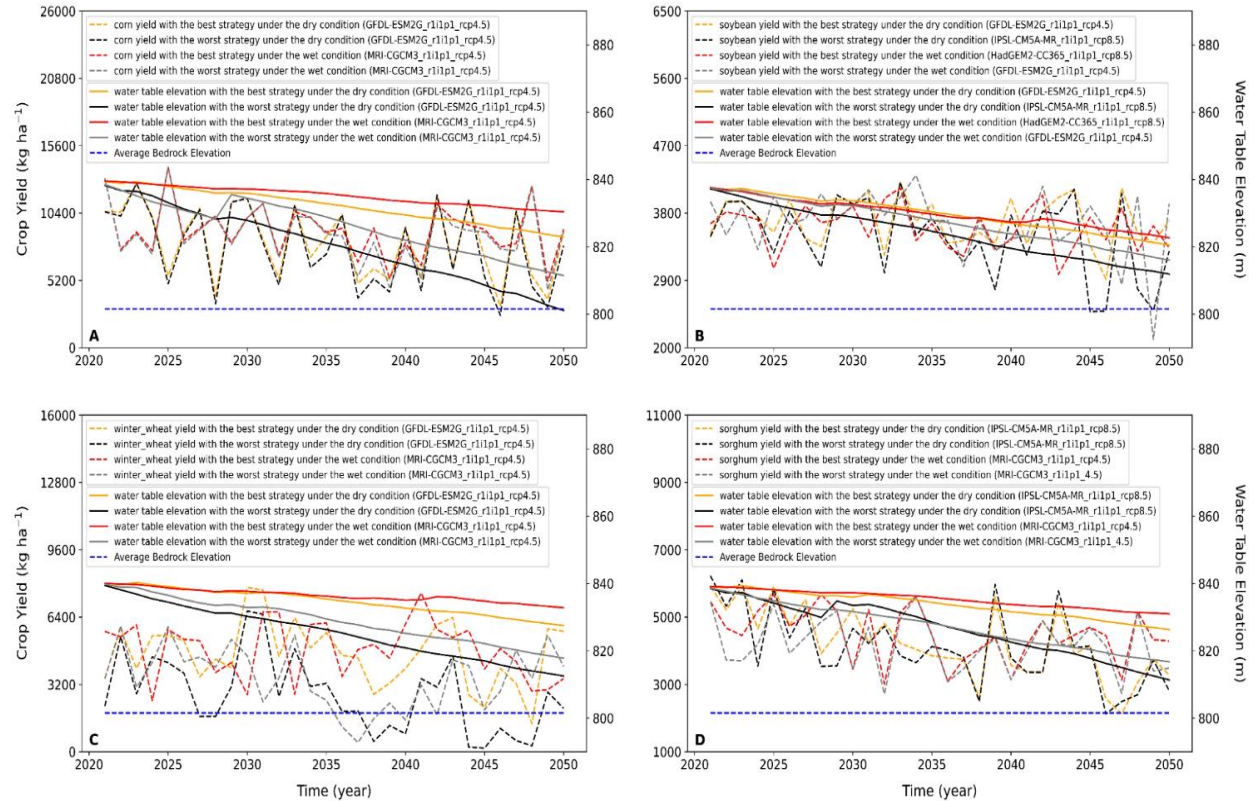


Fig. 4-13 Comparison of model responses under BMPs in the temporal mode. Fig.13A, B, C, and D represent corn-related, soybean-related, winter wheat-related, and sorghum-related responses, respectively, under BMPs during years of 2021 to 2050.

Fig. 4-13 shows changes of water table elevation and crop yield over 30 years (i.e., years of 2021 to 2050) under the 4 management scenarios of BSD, WSD, BSW, and WSW. For corn (shown in Fig. 4-13A), management strategies can be conducive to corn production and groundwater conservation under both dry and wet climate conditions. For example, the best strategy can produce 449 kg/ha yield more on average under the dry condition than the corn yield produced by the worst strategy, and the best strategy causes an extra yield of 319 kg/ha for corn compared to corn yield with the worst strategy under the wet condition. In addition, the best management strategy saves 11.8 m (38.7 ft) in depth of groundwater on average over 30 years in

comparison with the water table elevation applied by the worst management strategy under the dry climate condition, with a maximum difference of 21.9 m (71.9 ft) in depletion in 2050, while the water table elevation has an extra depletion of 9.3 m (30.5 ft) caused by the worst management strategy compared to it with the best management strategy under the wet climate condition, with a maximum difference of 18.9 m (62 ft) in depletion in 2050. Climate conditions (i.e., dry and wet condition) also influence on crop yield and water table elevation when management strategies are applied. For example, corn yield increases by 871 kg/ha due to the wet condition under the best management practice applied, and the corn yield of 1,000 kg/ha under the wet condition can be produced more than the yield under the dry condition when the worst management practice is conducted. Also, the water table depletes 3.1 m (10.2 ft) more under the dry condition than that under the wet condition, with the best management strategy; the water table can be saved 5.6 m (18.4) in depth more under the wet condition than it is under the dry condition, when the worst management strategy is applied. It is worth noting that the water table has extra depletions of 14.9 m (48.9 ft) on average over 30 years and 29.3 m (96.1 ft) in 2050 under the dry condition with the worst strategy in comparison with those under the wet condition with the best strategy. After 30-year pumping, there is no available groundwater resources can be used for irrigation on condition that the worst management scenario is applied under the dry climate condition.

For soybean and soybean-related water table elevation shown in Fig. 4-13B, the temporal changes of crop yield and water table elevation are affected by both management strategies and climate conditions. Soybean yield increases by 217 kg/ha with the best strategy compared to soybean cultivated with the worst strategy in the dry condition, while the yield of soybean has 62 kg/ha for the best management strategy more than that planted through the worst

management strategy under the wet climate condition. In addition, soybean-related water table elevation depletes 2.4 m (7.9 ft) on average over 30 years for the best strategy more than that for the worst strategy in the dry condition, with a range of difference from 0.2 m (0.7 ft) to 4.5 m (14.8 ft), and a 6.1 m (20 ft) of groundwater in depth can be saved due to the best strategy during 30 years in comparison to the water table due to the application of the worst strategy under the wet condition, with a range of difference from 0.4 m (1.3 ft) to 10.8 m (35.4 ft). Furthermore, climate conditions also have significant impacts on soybean yield and water table elevation. For example, the best management strategy gives rise to a difference of 91.6 kg/ha on average for soybean yield between the dry and wet climate conditions, while the worst management strategy can make a difference of 187.7 kg/ha between the dry and wet conditions. An extra depletion of 0.3 m (1 ft) takes place in water table elevation on average over 30 years for the dry condition in comparison to water table elevation for the wet condition under the best management strategy, with a range of difference from -1.2 m (3.9 ft) to 2.4 m (7.9 ft). For the worst management strategy, the wet climate condition is conducive to save 3.4 m (11.2 ft) of groundwater resources in depth on average during 30 years more than water table elevation under the dry climate condition, with a range of difference from 0.2 m (0.7 ft) to 4.6 m (15.1 ft).

For winter wheat (Fig. 4-13C), the best management strategy produces 1,954 kg/ha more in yield of and consumes 5.8 m (19 ft) of groundwater less on average over 30 years than by the worst management strategy under the dry climate condition, while under the wet climate condition, the best strategy produces 1358 kg/ha more and avoids extra groundwater depletion of 11.1 m (36.4 ft) on average during the 30 years. 207 kg/ha more is produced for winter wheat under the wet condition than under the dry condition with the application of the best strategy; similarly, an average extra groundwater depletion of 1.8 m (5.9 ft) is taken place under the dry

climate condition in comparison with the water level under the wet climate condition, under the best management strategy. Under the application of the worst management strategies, the wet climate condition provides 804 kg/ha more and 3.6 m less in groundwater decline compared to those under the dry climate condition. Similar patterns occur for Sorghum (Fig. 4-13D). The best management strategy, as compared to the worst strategy, produces 114 kg/ha more for the dry climate condition and 323 kg/ha for the wet climate condition, and 7.1 m and 8.0 m less in groundwater decline.

4.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter uses a calibrated linked DSSAT-MODFLOW hydro-agronomic model to identify effective management strategies under future climate conditions in Finney County, Kansas, a semi-arid, groundwater-irrigated region of the High Plains Aquifer, USA. The DSSAT-MODFLOW model simulates crop growth, soil dynamics, and groundwater processes, with targeted state variables of crop yield (corn, soybean, winter wheat, sorghum) and groundwater drawdown. Strategies include irrigation type (surface, drip, sprinkler, center pivot) and planting level (full field, half field, quarter field). Climate conditions include wet, average, and dry trends, filtered from a set of 20 GCMs temporally downscaled to daily precipitation and temperature using the MACA dataset for both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5. Effective management strategies maximize crop yield while minimizing groundwater drawdown.

Conclusions from this chapter are:

- If current (“as-is”) management strategies are used in future decades (i.e., years of 2021 to 2050), climate impacts include: i) the wettest predicted future climate results in a water table drawdown of 8 m over 30 years (0.3 m/yr), equal to approximately 20% of the current groundwater storage in the regional aquifer, whereas the driest climate results

in drawdowns of 32 m (1.1 m/yr), equal to approximately 80% of the current groundwater storage. Average conditions results in saturated thickness declines of 20% to 50% over the 30-year period. ii) average crop yields are maintained to near current production, but with a high degree of uncertainty.

- To maintain adequate crop yields (i.e., current production), groundwater levels will decline no matter the type of irrigation system (sprinkler, drip, center pivot) and no matter the cultivation level (quarter-plot, half-plot, full-plot).
- If future climate conditions are wet but conform to the assumptions of the RCP8.5 carbon emission scenario, then likely there are no viable management practices that can maintain adequate corn yield. However, there are multiple irrigation/planting combinations that will suffice for soybean, sorghum, and winter wheat. Therefore, under a future of high carbon emissions, corn cultivation may transfer to other crop types.
- For both dry and wet future climates, the best strategy is a combination of drip irrigation systems (i.e., high efficiency irrigation system) and quarter-cultivated plots. These strategies maintain adequate crop yield and conserve groundwater (< 0.5 m drawdown per year).
- In general, the best strategies under a dry climate and wet climate yield the same temporal pattern in water table elevation, but for corn, winter wheat, and sorghum, higher crop yields for the wet climate; for soybean, the trendline of yield fluctuates between the dry and wet climate conditions. In addition, for average crop yields over 30 years, yields of corn, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum can be produced more 871 kg/ha, 92 kg/ha, 207 kg/ha, and 272 kg/ha, respectively, under the wet climate. The best strategy during a wet future climate, i.e., the scenario that provides the lowest use of groundwater for the

highest crop yield, still results in drawdowns of approximately 9.2 m (30.2 ft), 14.9 m (48.9 ft), 7.3 m (23.9 ft), and 8.2 m (26.9 ft) for areas of corn-related, soybean-related, winter wheat-related, and sorghum-related, respectively, during 2021-2050. Therefore, if crop yields are to be maintained in Finney County and similar regions in the High Plains Aquifer, groundwater storage can only be conserved, not sustained.

- Identifying management strategies should be focused on local (field-scale) conditions.

Climate change is markedly affecting the hydro-agronomic system (e.g., crop yields, water table elevation, groundwater storage, etc.), and this chapter implies that smaller crop areas/fields and higher irrigation efficiency is a useful combination to resist climate change, especially for future dry climate trends, and to have more crop yield and consume less groundwater regionally. Further, this chapter provides another implication that is a trade-off between plant levels (i.e., plant area) and irrigation system under different future climate patterns, which is conducive to solve the real-world issues since the ideal scenario cannot be achieved everywhere. Growers could refer to results of this chapter for their own troubleshooting through having a matchup of issues. This chapter could be used for other groundwater-based irrigated regions, and on condition that it is not available due to the limitations of model framework, researchers could re-build their own framework on a basis of the linked DSSAT-MODFLOW model.

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CHAPTER 5 – SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

This dissertation first presents a linked DSSAT-MODFLOW modeling framework and applied it to the Ogallala aquifer within Finney County, Kansas, a region experiencing significant groundwater depletion due to irrigation practices. The linkage between the models occurs on an annual time step, with irrigation depths from an ensemble of field-scale DSSAT simulations (DSSAT version 4.7) converted to pumping rates for the MODFLOW simulation (MODFLOW 2000). The MODFLOW simulates groundwater head, which can be used to update saturated thickness and thereby well capacities for each pumping well in the model domain. Well capacities are then used to constrain irrigation application in the DSSAT simulations during the following growing season. Python scripts are used to pass information between the two models and prepare input files. Batch files for DSSAT are used to run the ensemble of simulations for each year. Model results are tested against water table elevation and crop yield.

After the development of the linked hydro-agronomic modeling system, two sensitivity analyses (i.e., Morris screening method and Sobol' variance-based method) were applied to the groundwater-irrigated hydro-agronomic system to assess the governing system factors on crop yield and groundwater storage. The DSSAT-MODFLOW linked modeling system was used as the simulator. A combination of Python scripts and SimLab pre- and post-processing were used to generate parameter values, update model files for DSSAT and MODFLOW, run the model simulations, and calculate sensitivity indices for both the Morris method and the Sobol' method. 57 parameters were reduced to 24 parameters after the Morris screening method, and the sensitivity of 28 parameters (including 4 climate-related parameters) were analyzed on 10 model

responses (i.e., maize yield, soybean yield, winter wheat yield, sorghum yield, water table elevation, ET, recharge, irrigation pumping, river leakage, and aquifer seepage) using Sobol' variance-based sensitivity analysis.

Last, this dissertation uses a calibrated linked DSSAT-MODFLOW hydro-agronomic model to identify effective management strategies under future climate conditions in Finney County, Kansas, a semi-arid, groundwater-irrigated region of the High Plains Aquifer, USA. The DSSAT-MODFLOW model simulates crop growth, soil dynamics, and groundwater processes, with targeted state variables of crop yield (corn, soybean, winter wheat, sorghum) and groundwater drawdown. Strategies include irrigation type (surface, drip, sprinkler, center pivot) and planting level (full field, half field, quarter field). Climate conditions include wet, average, and dry trends, filtered from a set of 20 GCMs temporally downscaled to daily precipitation and temperature using the MACA dataset for both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5. Effective management strategies maximize crop yield while minimizing groundwater drawdown.

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

Major findings from this dissertation, as summarized in the last section of Chapters 2, 3, and 4, are:

- 1) climate-related parameters significantly affect crop yields, especially for maize and sorghum, and soybean and winter wheat yields are sensitive to a combination of cultivar genetic parameters, soil-related parameters, and climate-related parameters;
- 2) Climatic parameters account for 44%, 29%, 40%, and 36% variation in yield of maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum;
- 3) Hydrogeologic parameters (aquifer hydraulic conductivity, aquifer specific yield, and riverbed conductance) have a relatively low influence on crop yields;

- 4) Water table elevation, recharge, and irrigation pumping are considerably sensitive to soil- and climate-related parameters, while ET, river leakage, and aquifer seepage are highly influenced by hydrogeological parameter (e.g., riverbed conductance, and specific yield);
- 5) Soil parameters accounted for 44%, 20%, 50%, and 34% variation in water table elevation, ET, recharge, and irrigation pumping;
- 6) For the dry and wet future climate conditions, the best management practice is the combination of the drip irrigation system (i.e., high efficiency irrigation system) and the plant level 3 (i.e., quarter-plots);
- 7) crop yields are to be maintained in Finney County and similar regions in the High Plains Aquifer, but groundwater storage can only be conserved, not sustained.

5.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

Currently, the linked model does not simulate water movement in the vadose zone, i.e., between the bottom of the soil layer and the top of water table. In the current system, deep percolation from the bottom of the soil profile, as simulated by DSSAT, and precipitation-based recharge, as simulated by a power function, are assumed to reach the water table instantaneously. Future versions of the modeling system could use the UZF (Unsaturated Zone Flow) package of MODFLOW to route the near-surface percolation water to the water table.

The linked hydro-agronomic modeling system can be applied to other groundwater-based irrigation regions to evaluate management practices under different climate conditions. In addition, the modeling framework can be linked with other models to create a novel tool to improve model performance and solve real-world issue, with comprehensive consideration of factor within a system. For example, the DSSAT-MODFLOW model can be linked with an

economic model that would simulate human planting decisions, considering available groundwater storage, weather patterns, and maximizing profit.


```

*CULTIVARS
@C CR INGENO CNAME
 1 WH IB0491 FINNEY

*FIELDS
@L ID_FIELD WSTA.... FLSA FLOB FLDT FLDD FLDS FLST SLTX SLDP ID_SOIL FLNAME
 1 KSFY0001 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 2 FLSC0002 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000007 -99
 3 FLSC0003 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 4 FLSC0004 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 5 FLSC0005 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000007 -99
 6 FLSC0006 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 7 FLSC0007 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 8 FLSC0008 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
 9 FLSC0009 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000007 -99
10 FLSC0010 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000004 -99
11 FLSC0011 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000001 -99
12 FLSC0012 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000007 -99
13 FLSC0013 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000006 -99
14 FLSC0014 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000006 -99
15 FLSC0015 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000007 -99
16 FLSC0016 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
17 FLSC0017 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000002 -99
18 FLSC0018 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000004 -99
19 FLSC0019 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000001 -99
20 FLSC0020 GRGR -99 0 DR000 0 0 00000 -99 180 KSFC000001 -99

*INITIAL CONDITIONS
@C PCR ICDAT ICRN ICND ICRN ICRE ICWD ICRES ICREN ICREP IC RIP ICRID ICNAME
 1 WH 01280 1200 0 1 1 -99 6500 1.14 0 100 15 -99
@C ICBL SH20 SNH4 SNO3
 1 15 .205 3.4 9.8
 1 30 .17 3.2 7.3
 1 60 .092 2.5 5.1
 1 90 .065 2.2 4.7
 1 120 .066 2.7 4.3
 1 150 .066 2.7 4.3
 1 180 .066 2.7 4.3

*PLANTING DETAILS
@P PDATE EDATE PPOP PPOE PLME PLDS PLRS PLRD PLDP PLWT PAGE PENV PLPH SPRL
 1 01290 -99 162 162 S R 16 0 5.5 -99 -99 -99 0

*IRRIGATION AND WATER MANAGEMENT
@I EFIR IDEP ITHR IEPT IOFF IAME IAMT IRNAME
 1 0 -99 -99 -99 -99 -99 -99
@I IDATE IROP IRVAL
 1 02096 IR001 65
 1 02110 IR001 78
 1 02117 IR001 70

*FERTILIZERS (INORGANIC)
@F FDATE FMCD FACD FDEP FAMN FAMP FAMK FAMC FAMO FOCD FERNAME
 1 01290 FE001 AP001 15 0 0 0 0 0 -99 -99
 2 01290 FE001 AP001 15 60 0 0 0 0 -99 -99
 3 01290 FE001 AP001 15 90 0 0 0 0 -99 -99
 3 02156 FE001 AP001 1 90 0 0 0 0 -99 -99

*SIMULATION CONTROLS
@N GENERAL NYERS NREPS START SDATE RSEED SNAME..... SMODEL
 1 GE 1 1 S 01125 2150 wheat Simulation options
@N OPTIONS WATER NITRO SYMBI PHOSP POTAS DISES CHEM TILL CO2
 1 OP Y N N N N N N N
@N METHODS WTHR INCON LIGHT EVAPO INFIL PHOTO HYDRO NSWIT MESOM MESEV MESOL
 1 ME M M E F S L R 1 G S 2
@N MANAGEMENT PLANT IRRIG FERTI RESID HARVS
 1 MA R F N N M
@N OUTPUTS FNAME OVVEW SUMRY FROPT GROUT CAOUT WAOUT NIOUT MIOUT DIOUT VBOSE CHOUT OPOUT FMOPT
 1 OU F N Y 1 N N Y N N N Y N N A

@ AUTOMATIC MANAGEMENT
@N PLANTING PFRST PLAST PH20L PH20U PH20D PSTMX PSTMN
 1 PL 00001 00001 40 100 30 40 10
@N IRRIGATION IMDEP ITHRL ITHRU IROFF IMETH IRAMT IREFF AVWAT IFREQ AIName
 1 IR 30 50 100 GS000 IR001 25 1 -99 0.01 Sowing date
@N NITROGEN NMDEP NMTHR NAMNT NCODE NAOFF
 1 NI 30 50 25 IB001 IB001
@N RESIDUES RIPCN RTIME RIDEP
 1 RE 0 0 0
@N HARVEST HFRST HLAST HPCNP HPCNR
 1 HA 0 00001 100 0

```

Fig. 2-S2 The structure of the .GSX input file, including soil type, cultivar type, planting schedule, and irrigation method.


```

1 set startTime=%time%
2
3 :: 2000 Simulation
4 "A" s B.v47
5 xcopy /y "C\2000.wel" "D\2000*.wel*"
6 "E\python.exe" "D\Linkage_Script_for_Phase1_2000.py"
7 xcopy /y "C\gv18.glo" "D\gv18*.glo*"
8 xcopy /y "C\gv18_new.lst" "D\gv18_new*.lst*"
9 xcopy /y "C\step.bas" "D\step*.bas*"
10 xcopy /y "C\2000.dis" "D\2000*.dis*"
11 xcopy /y "C\steptr.lpf" "D\steptr*.lpf*"
12 xcopy /y "C\gv18.zone" "D\gv18*.zone*"
13 xcopy /y "C\2000.RCH" "D\2000*.RCH*"
14 xcopy /y "C\2000.chd" "D\2000*.chd*"
15 xcopy /y "C\GV18.evt" "D\GV18*.evt*"
16 xcopy /y "C\GMD3.gmg" "D\GMD3*.gmg*"
17 xcopy /y "C\gv181head.oc" "D\gv181head*.oc*"
18 xcopy /y "C\2000.hob" "D\2000*.hob*"
19 xcopy /y "C\2000.obs" "D\2000*.obs*"
20 xcopy /y "C\2000.str" "D\2000*.str*"
21 xcopy /y "C\2000._os" "D\2000*._os*"
22 xcopy /y "C\Base.asp" "D\Base*.asp*"
23 xcopy /y "C\gv18.cbb" "D\gv18*.cbb*"
24 xcopy /y "C\KZ.dat" "D\KZ*.dat*"
25 xcopy /y "C\iniH6.dat" "D\iniH6*.dat*"
26 xcopy /y "C\kst6.dat" "D\kst6*.dat*"
27 xcopy /y "C\Sys6.DAT" "D\Sys6*.DAT*"
28 "C\mf2k_GMS.exe" "C\2000.mfn"
29 xcopy /y "D\2000.hds" "D\Head values from Linkage Model\2000*.hds*"
30 xcopy /y "D\2000._os._ww" "D\One to One Plot\2000*._os._ww*"
31 Del "D\iniH6*.DAT*"
32 "E\python.exe" "D\Linkage_Script_for_Phase2_2000.py"
33 xcopy /y "D\KSFY0111.GSX" "F\KSFY0111*.GSX*"
34 xcopy /y "D\KSFY0121.GSX" "F\KSFY0121*.GSX*"
35 xcopy /y "D\KSFY0131.GSX" "F\KSFY0131*.GSX*"
36 xcopy /y "D\KSFY0141.GSX" "F\KSFY0141*.GSX*"
37 xcopy /y "D\KSFY0151.GSX" "F\KSFY0151*.GSX*"
38 Del "D\gv18*.glo*"
39 Del "D\gv18_new*.lst*"
40 Del "D\step*.bas*"
41 Del "D\steptr*.lpf*"
42 Del "D\gv18*.zone*"
43 Del "D\GV18*.evt*"
44 Del "D\GMD3*.gmg*"
45 Del "D\gv181head*.oc*"
46 Del "D\Base*.asp*"
47 Del "D\gv18*.cbb*"
48 Del "D\KZ*.dat*"
49 Del "D\kst6*.dat*"
50 Del "D\Sys6*.DAT*"
51
52 echo Start Time: %startTime%
53 echo Finish Time:%time%
54 pause
55
56 Notations:
57 A - The directory that DSSAT engine is stored.
58 B - The directory that DSSAT batch file is stored.
59 C - The directory that MODFLOW input files and an executable file are stored.
60 D - The directory that all files relative the the linked model are stored.
61 E - The directory that python language is stored.
62 F - The directory that DSSAT input files are stored.

```

Fig. 2-S4 A batch file to simulate multiple-year linked modeling system (DSSAT-MODFLOW).

LAT – Latitude Degrees, (decimals)
LONG – Longitude Degrees, (decimals)
ELEV – Elevation, (m)
TAV – Air Temperature Average, (°C)
AMP – Air Temperature Amplitude, monthly average, (°C)
REFHT – Height of Temperature Measurement, (m)
WHDHT – Height of Wind Measurement, (m)
SRAD – Solar Radiation (MJ/m²*d)
TMAX – Air Temperature Maximum (°C)
TMIN – Air Temperature Minimum (°C)
RAIN – Precipitation (mm)
DEWP – Dew-point Temperature (°C)
WIND – Wind Run (km/day)
PAR – Photosynthetic Active Radiation (mole/m²*day)
RHUM – Relative Humidity

Fig. 2-S5 Definition, Units of weather-related parameters.

The primary MACA statistically downscaled variable outputs directly obtained by University of Idaho for each model are described below:

- tasmax (daily near-surface maximum temperature in Kelvin)
- tasmin (daily near-surface minimum temperature in Kelvin)
- prec (daily accumulated precipitation in millimeters)
- uas (daily mean 10m eastward wind in meters per second)
- vas (daily mean 10m northward wind in meters per second)
- rhsmax (daily near-surface maximum relative humidity (%))
- rhsmin (daily near-surface minimum relative humidity (%))
- rsds (daily mean surface downwelling shortwave radiation flux in Watts per meter squared)

Fig. 4-S1 The definition and unit of variables derived by MACA.

Calculation for primary variables:

- Wind speed (m/s): to derive daily wind speed, the square root of the added values of the squares of uas and vas was calculated (e.g. $\text{sqrt}(\text{uas}^2 + \text{vas}^2)$). Wind speed was estimated at 2 meters using FAO wind profile relationship approximation (Allen et al., 1998).
- Wind run (km/day): wind speed was multiplied by a factor of 86.4
- Solar radiation (mJ/m²-day): to derive daily solar radiation in mJ per meters squared per day, daily rsds was multiplied by a factor of 0.0864.
- Elevation (m): the elevation raster was used from the METDATA climatology lab (<http://www.climatologylab.org/gridmet.html>). METDATA elevation coordinates were linearly interpolated to the MACA grid coordinates.
- Relative humidity (fraction or %) and dewpoint temperature (deg. C): to derive daily relative humidity and dew point temperature, the average of the daily minimum and maximum humidity were calculated, and then daily average dew point temperature was computed using the daily average temperature and relative humidity.
- Potential Evapotranspiration (PET in mm): the Penman-Monteith methodology was used in the manual “The ASCE Standardized Reference Evapotranspiration Equation”. The short crop reference equation and the ET-methodology which uses the maximum and minimum relative humidities since these variables were downscaled.

Fig. 4-S2 Details of computation of downscaled variables.

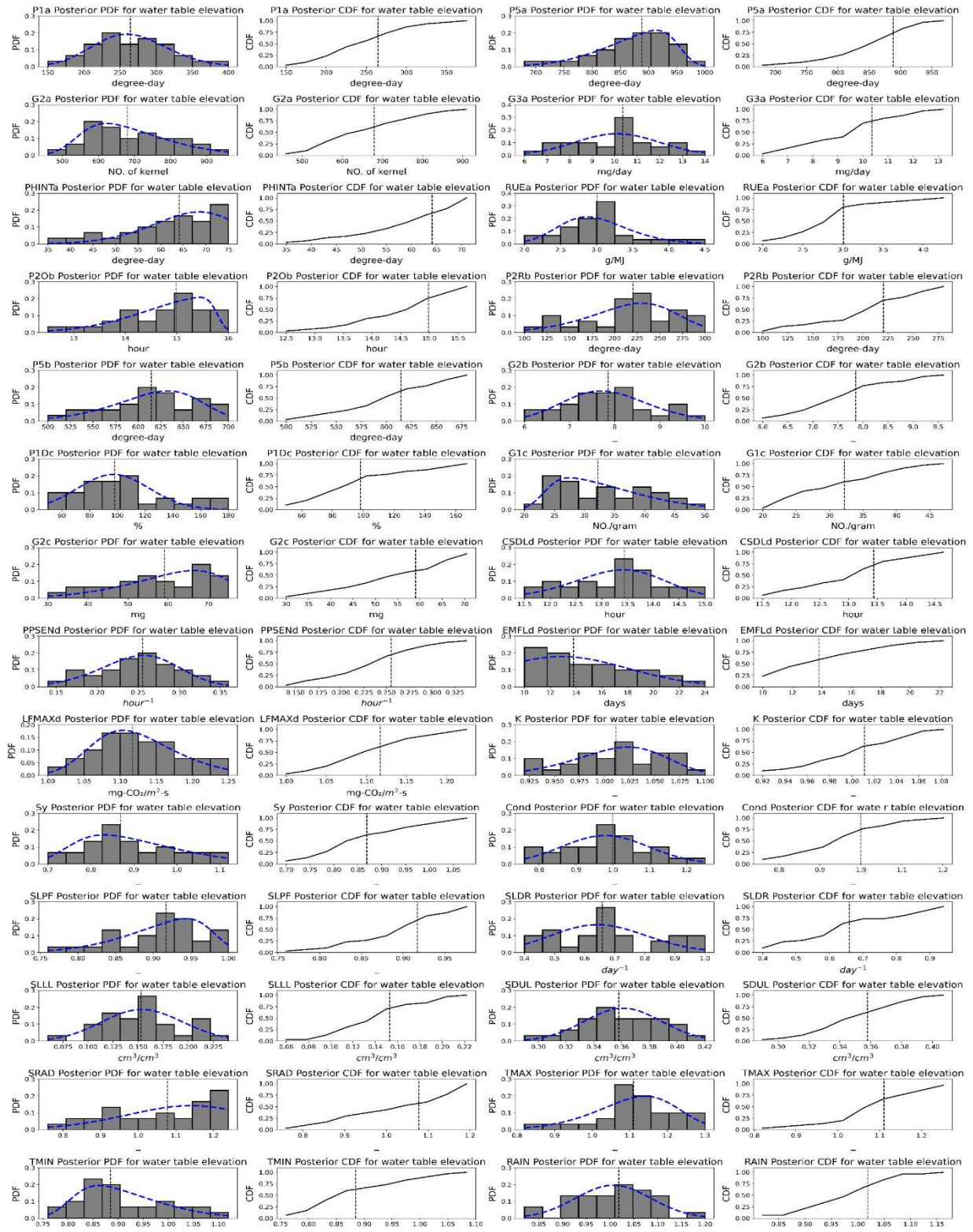


Fig. 4-S3 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 28 parameters for water table elevation for the top 1% of the 14,848 simulations.

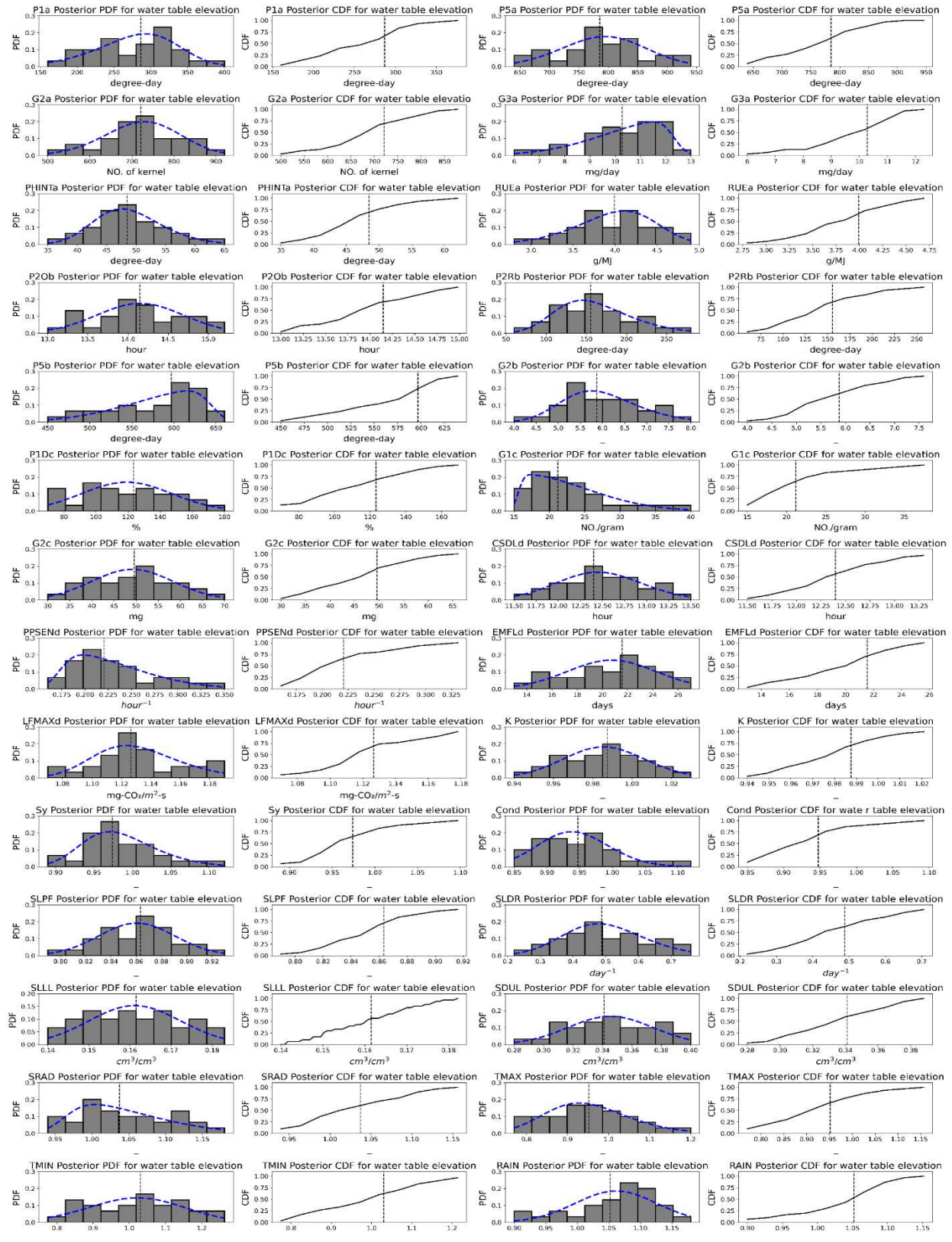


Fig. 4-S4 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 28 parameters for maize for the top 1% of the 14,848 simulations.

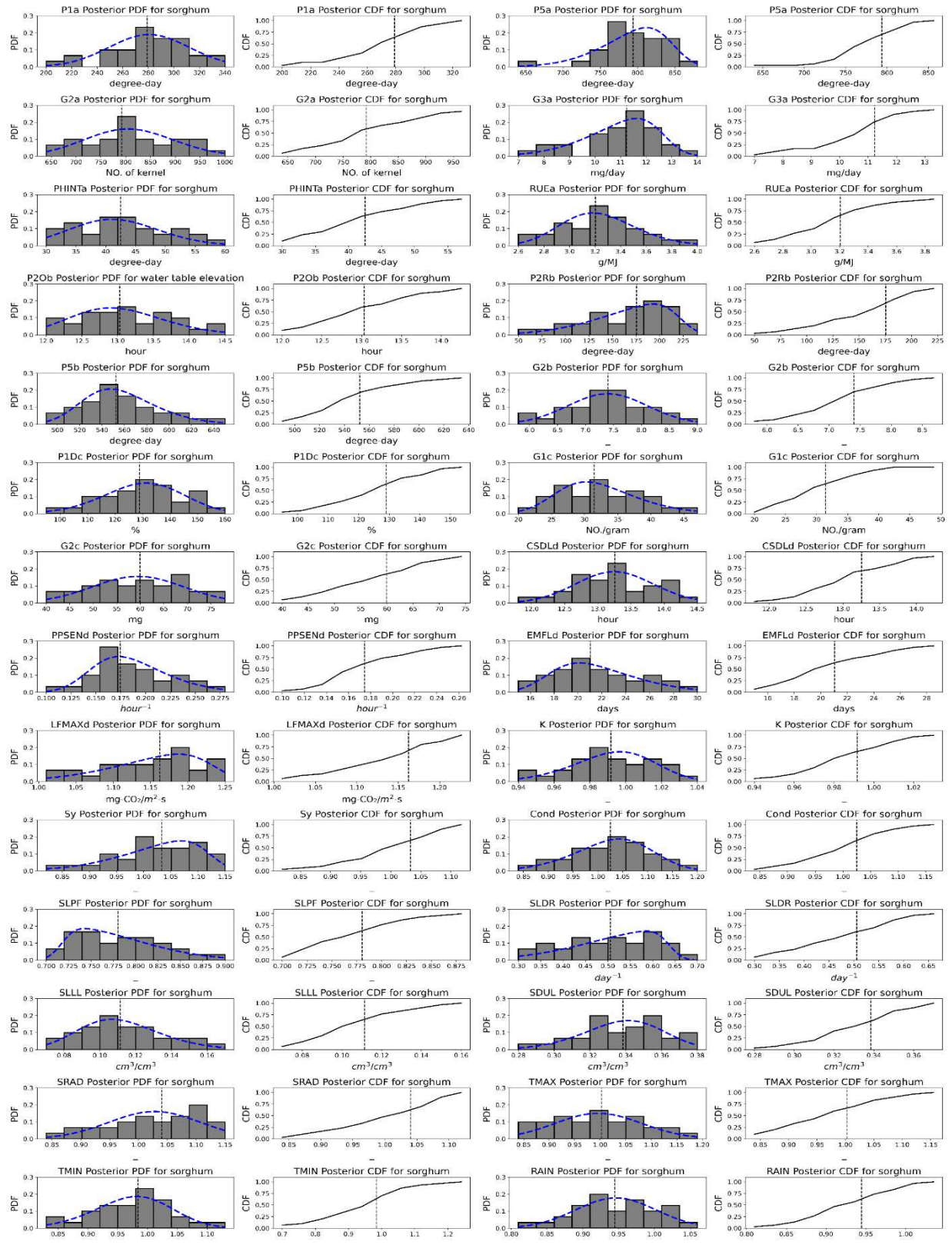


Fig. 4-S5 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 28 parameters for sorghum for the top 1% of the 14,848 simulations.

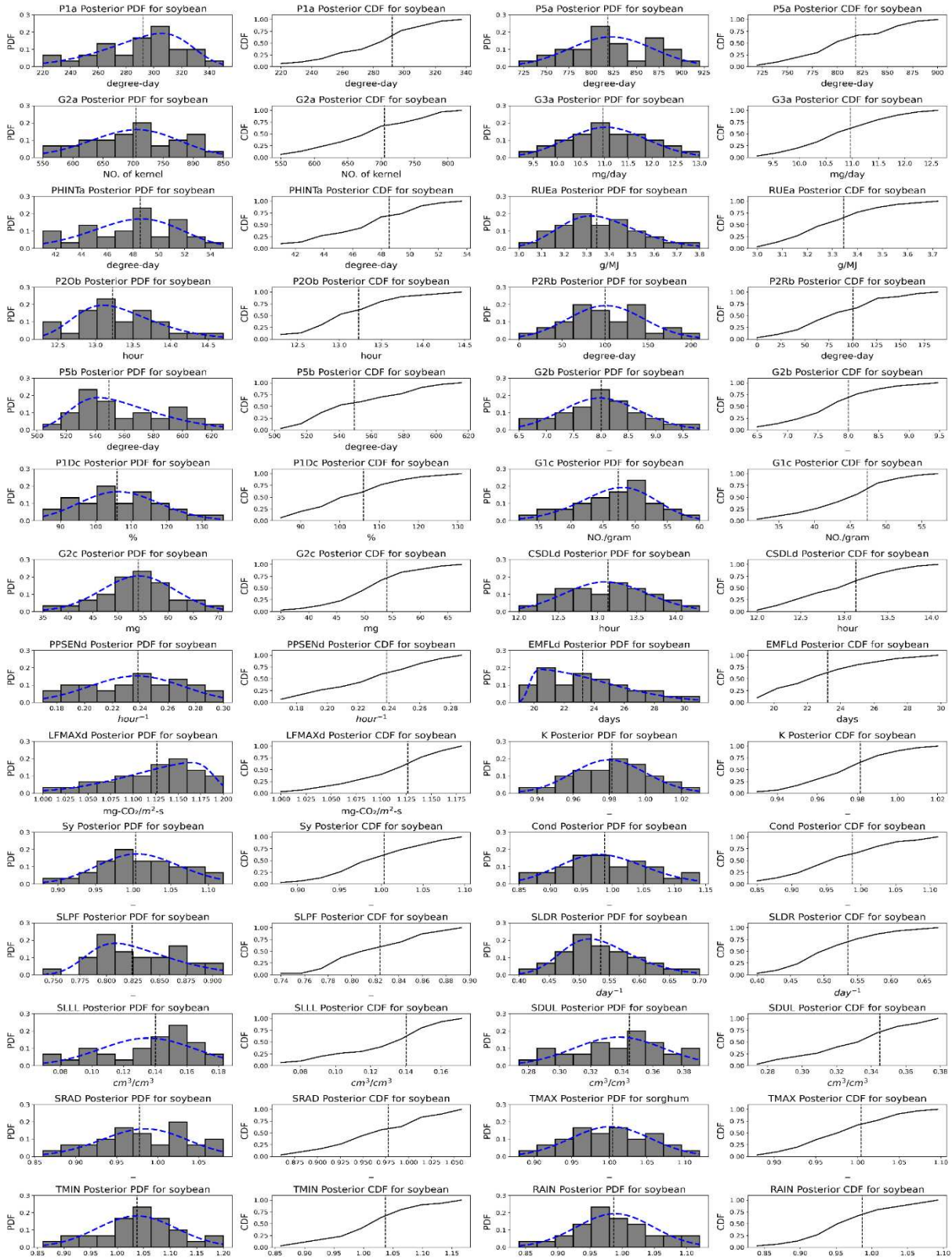


Fig. 4-S6 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 28 parameters for soybean for the top 1% of the 14,848 simulations.

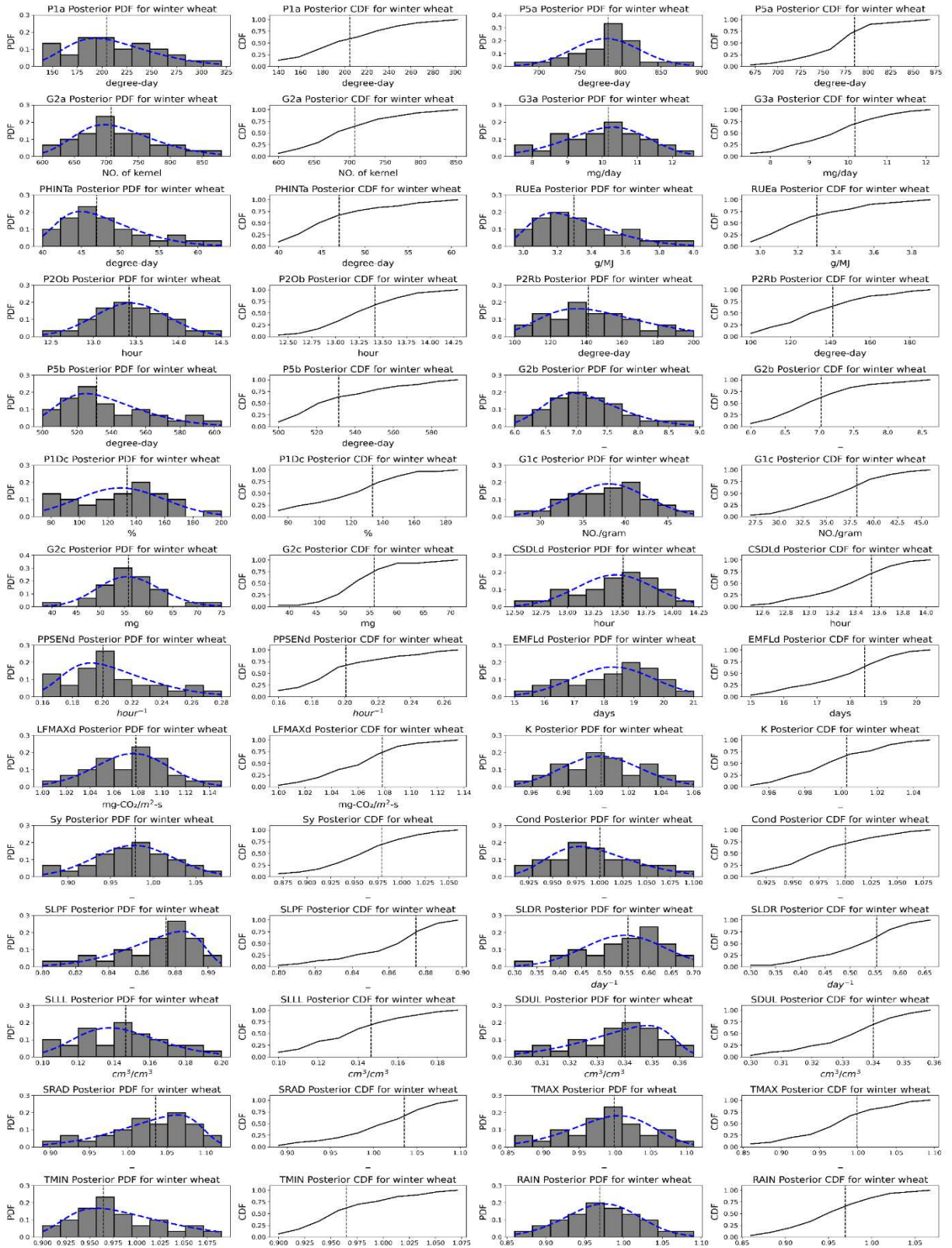


Fig. 4-S7 Posterior distributions of PDFs and CDFs for 28 parameters for winter wheat for the top 1% of the 14,848 simulations.

Tab. 4-S1 Water Use Profit (WUP) ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollars of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future wet climate conditions.

Crop Type and Climate Conditions	Water Use Profit for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollar/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_wet_RCP4.5	0.97 89	1.69 58	2.43 96	0.94 89	1.69 63	2.99 17	0.98 86	1.76 27	3.11 87	1.01 84	1.81 83	3.22 97
Corn_wet_RCP8.5	0.40 73	0.76 87	1.45 08	0.49 98	0.93 27	1.78 61	0.52 8	0.97 68	1.88 33	0.55 07	1.02 87	2.00 06
Soybean_wet_RCP4.5	0.04 2	0.07 04	0.09 58	0.04 01	0.06 79	0.11 44	0.04 15	0.07 04	0.11 83	0.04 25	0.07 23	0.12 17
Soybean_wet_RCP8.5	0.02 69	0.04 94	0.08 99	0.03 23	0.05 96	0.11 09	0.03 32	0.06 21	0.11 58	0.03 47	0.06 5	0.12 22
Winter Wheat_wet_RCP4.5	0.38 19	1.15 45	1.59 16	0.45 18	1.16 98	1.79 69	0.50 86	1.21 29	1.83 92	0.54 52	1.27 79	1.87 77
Winter Wheat_wet_RCP8.5	0.06 83	0.49 41	1.11 63	0.17 91	0.72 7	1.35 11	0.20 64	0.77 07	1.43 11	0.25 03	0.81 14	1.48 35
Sorghum_wet_RCP4.5	0.13 65	0.32 08	0.64 81	0.13 94	0.35 25	0.85 91	0.14 83	0.37 73	0.91 12	0.16 48	0.39 53	0.97 06
Sorghum_wet_RCP8.5	0.04 37	0.20 4	0.60 85	0.08 1	0.29 58	0.79 25	0.09 3	0.31 34	0.86 1	0.10 6	0.33 16	0.94 18

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.

Tab. 4-S2 Water Use Profit (WUP) ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollars of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future average climate conditions.

Crop Type and Climate Conditions	Water Use Profit for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollar/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_avg._RCP4 .5	0.45 08	0.88 95	1.95 23	0.60 35	1.07 51	2.43 33	0.62 98	1.37 17	2.00 5	0.65 37	1.16 76	2.08 04
Corn_avg._RCP8 .5	0.53 9	0.99 47	1.75 94	0.66 83	1.19 9	2.16 2	0.71 59	1.24 36	2.26 41	0.72 6	1.32 01	2.15 38
Soybean_avg._R CP4.5	0.02 79	0.04 89	0.10 7	0.03 32	0.05 86	0.13 15	0.03 42	0.07 53	0.10 56	0.03 57	0.06 26	0.10 85
Soybean_avg._R CP8.5	0.02 54	0.04 59	0.07 97	0.03 08	0.05 38	0.09 68	0.03 27	0.05 62	0.10 07	0.03 32	0.05 96	0.09 48
Winter Wheat_avg._RCP 4.5	0.09 99	0.53 54	1.31 83	0.21 98	0.77 31	1.48 95	0.26 13	1.08 08	1.46 71	0.30 36	0.85 67	1.53 4
Winter Wheat_avg._RCP 8.5	0.21 81	0.68	1.43 43	0.35	0.88 64	1.62 14	0.37 73	1.02 4	1.63 17	0.40 81	1.03 69	1.66 53
Sorghum_avg._R CP4.5	0.03 77	0.12 69	0.67 26	0.06 15	0.19 32	0.68 94	0.06 73	0.23 65	0.69 54	0.07 59	0.21 84	0.74 4
Sorghum_avg._R CP8.5	0.07 95	0.30 21	0.63 27	0.16 32	0.38 38	0.81 15	0.18 67	0.41 16	0.86 41	0.19 61	0.44 05	0.82 18

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.

Tab. 4-S3 Water Use Profit (WUP) ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollars of crop yield per m of groundwater drawdown) for maize, soybean, winter wheat, and sorghum under future dry climate conditions.

Crop Type and Climate Conditions	Water Use Profit for 12 combinations of management scenarios ($\times 10^8$ U.S. Dollar/m)											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Corn_dry_RCP4.5	0.66	1.096	1.8767	0.7412	1.3067	2.2878	0.7727	1.5871	2.3809	0.8004	1.4072	2.4689
Corn_dry_RCP8.5	0.4571	0.803	1.265	0.5847	0.8879	1.5494	0.6258	0.9219	1.6155	0.6483	0.8912	1.6831
Soybean_dry_RCP4.5	0.0274	0.0464	0.0782	0.0323	0.0552	0.0938	0.0332	0.0674	0.0972	0.0342	0.0591	0.1007
Soybean_dry_RCP8.5	0.0313	0.0445	0.0738	0.0367	0.0528	0.0899	0.0376	0.0542	0.0928	0.0391	0.0557	0.0963
Winter Wheat_dry_RCP4.5	0.0723	0.5384	1.2203	0.2007	0.763	1.4633	0.2624	1.0347	1.5029	0.3025	0.8458	1.5526
Winter Wheat_dry_RCP8.5	0.0046	0.291	0.8791	0.1016	0.5053	1.0934	0.1368	0.5602	1.1261	0.1633	0.6069	1.1622
Sorghum_dry_RCP4.5	0.0329	0.0971	0.29	0.0497	0.1367	0.4251	0.0543	0.1817	0.4621	0.0596	0.1663	0.5176
Sorghum_dry_RCP8.5	0.0704	0.2026	0.2788	0.1122	0.2838	0.4114	0.1245	0.298	0.464	0.1447	0.2987	0.5368

1- surface, full; 2 – surface, half; 3 – surface, quarter; 4 – sprinkler, full; 5 – sprinkler, half; 6 – sprinkler, quarter; 7 – center pivot, full; 8 – center pivot, half; 9 – center pivot, quarter; 10 – drip, full; 11 – drip, half; 12 – drip, quarter. Light blue means only acceptable for crop yield; light red means only acceptable for groundwater drawdown; light purple means acceptable for both.