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Final Project Report

Continued monitoring of hydrological and water quality trends at the Frog Pond, Homestead, FL: Analysis of water levels and quality variation

S-175

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Executive Summary

Detailed hydrological and water quality multivariate time series were obtained at the Frog Pond (Homestead, FL) a small agricultural watershed located at the boundary of Everglades National Park (ENP) in south Florida. This area is subject to one of the most expensive and ambitious environmental restoration projects in history. Several project

s seek the restoration of the wetland ecosystems of the ENP by enhancing water deliveries into the Park while maintaining flood protection in the adjacent agricultural fields. In addition, surface water entering the ENP must satisfy the current regulatory standards (<0.010 mg/l of total P). Drainage canals that are the basis for the regional water management surround the area. Under current environmental regulations the water level in the western canal (L-31W) is maintained high with respect to the eastern canal (C-111) in order to increase water delivery west into the Park. This is achieved by permanently closing the canal gate S-175 located at the southwest section of L-31W while pumping water into the canal from the North. This affects the groundwater elevation in the area by creating a west to east groundwater flow in the northern part of the Frog Pond and around the structure (south and south-west) in the lower section of the area. During some periods, groundwater is close to the surface, increasing the flooding risk in the area after intensive rainfall events. In addition, a detention pond S-332D was constructed in the NW section of the area in summer 2002. This project describes the analysis of the variation of water levels and chemical concentrations in surface and ground waters in this area to provide a better understanding of land use and hydrology interactions.

A network of 16 wells with automatic logging of groundwater heads, 4 surface stage recorders at the canals/ditches surrounding the area, 2 rain gauges, and an automatic weather station for evapotranspiration estimation was established in March 2002. This network was distributed across the lower 1 x 2 mile section of the Frog Pond, from Torcise ditch to Ingraham Highway 9336. Biweekly ground and surface water concentrations and biannual soil concentrations of 25 different chemicals were obtained from the 21 stations in the network from March 2002-Oct

2004. The hydrological and water quality trends and interactions in the area were studied and modeled using dynamic factor analysis (DFA) in two parallel efforts contained in this report. This novel technique in the field of hydrology is designed to determine latent or background effects governing variability or fluctuations in complex time series.

The project main findings are:

- Elevations in canals surrounding to the watershed were found to be the main factors explaining daily groundwater profiles, while rainfall events are responsible for instantaneous or localized groundwater responses that in some cases can be directly associated with the risk of flooding.
- A simple model is proposed to estimate average daily groundwater levels across the study area accurately during the experimental period by knowing just the location and levels of the two canals in the area. Using this tool, different canal management alternatives could be explored and optimized in terms of risk of flooding for conditions similar to those studied.
- Monthly variation of agrochemicals in groundwater is affected by land use (local agriculture and regional canal management) and rainfall.
- Monthly variation of natural elements in groundwater shows evidence of active exchange between canals and local groundwater.
- In addition to agricultural land use (crop management/distribution and soil enrichment), water table depth is the most important factor controlling agrochemicals in groundwater, followed by the occurrence of leaching rainfall.
- Although nutrient levels in groundwater are generally low, their presence and correlation with land use found show the need to better manage agricultural water and fertilizer (amount and timing).
- A significant reduction of agrichemicals in the groundwater could be achieved by maintaining the groundwater table as low as possible at all times. A deeper water table increases the chemical transport path lengths and times and results in an increase of chemical degradation and soil binding.

- Reductions in fertilizer use in 2003-2004 season, resulting from presentation of previous year's results to the farmers in the area, show that this has had a direct positive impact in groundwater quality during last season.

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Introduction

In the first half of the 20th century a complex drainage canal system was built in south Florida to protect urban and agricultural areas against flooding. However, this regional water management also led to the draining of protected natural wetland areas in the adjacent Everglades National Park (ENP) creating a negative impact on the environment. In an attempt to restore the wetland ecosystem of the ENP, the Combined Structural and Operational Project (CSOP) and the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan (CERP) are being implemented along the extensive eastern boundary with the developed area (agricultural and urban) (SFWMD, 2004a). The goal of these plans is to enhance water deliveries into the ENP while maintaining flood protection for developed areas. In addition, water quality is at the core of the restoration effort. Surface waters entering the ENP must not exceed a maximum regulatory level of total phosphorous of 0.010 mg/l and other chemicals must be monitored as well (Florida Senate Bill 0626ER, 2003). Implementation of these projects is complex and requires detailed understanding of the hydrological processes involved. Predicting the water quality interactions between surface water flow in the canals and the shallow and extremely permeable Biscayne aquifer (Fish and Stewart, 1991) is a priority for ecosystem restoration of the Everglades and flood protection of urban and agricultural areas. A previous short-term local scale study in the area (Genereux and Guardiario, 1998, 2001; Genereux and Slater, 1999) has shown the complexity of the groundwater system with extremely permeable materials and evidence of a very dynamic interaction between canals and the aquifer. Muñoz-Carpena et al. (2003), based on preliminary hydrological data (1-year) obtained in the same study area as the one in this report presented the following findings:

- Rainfall and canal levels control ground water levels at different time and spatial scales.
- When the water table is already high in the area (<2 ft from the soil surface) it raises three times faster in response to rainfall than if it is deeper.

- Microtopography, as a factor that greatly affects land usability, must be considered in successful management of this area and others alike in Miami-Dade County.
- The canal structure S-175 shifted flow from the general east to west direction to west to east south of and around the structure. This influence reaches over 2 miles north and south of the structure.
- The geophysical conditions of the area limit the efficiency of water storage alternatives like detention ponds, due to large seepage. Daily seepage was estimated in excess of 30% of the pumping into the pond for an event in June 2003.

Detailed data sets containing temporal variation of hydrological and water quality variables have the potential to be used to understand the surface-groundwater-land use interactions in the area. However, data analysis based on visual inspection and descriptive statistics can be complex and may not be sufficient, especially when dealing with multivariate time series.

Chemical fluctuations in shallow groundwater typically result from different cumulative effects, such as land use and associated chemical concentration in the topsoil, net vertical recharge (affected by leaching rainfall), local depth to groundwater, lateral recharge from ground or surface water sources, etc. Although some of these effects can be measured accurately, it is impractical to measure others, i.e. those with unstructured spatial and temporal distribution. An example of this is land use in an intensive commercial horticulture setting managed by different farmers. Typically land parcels can be combined or used independently for different crops and management practices (chemical application times and rates, irrigation, etc.), which vary from farmer to farmer. These combinations change from year to year depending on marketing, farmer specialty or preferences, etc. This generates the need for estimation by indirect methods applied to observed water quality data at fixed observation sites (Márkus et al., 1999).

Although standard multivariate analysis techniques are useful tools and can be adapted to analyze time series to obtain information about the interactions between variables, the time component of the data is ignored. A preferred method for

studying multivariate time series is dynamic factor analysis (DFA), because it allows estimating common patterns and interactions in several time series and studying the effect of explanatory time-dependent variables as well (Zuur et al., 2003b). Multivariate time series may be analyzed as response functions assuming that there are common driving forces behind them, i.e. factors or latent effects that determine the variation of the individual observations with time. These factors can be described by trends and/or explanatory variables. Dynamic factor analysis is a specialized time series technique originally developed for the study of economic models (Geweke, 1977) that has been recently used with variations in disciplines like psychology (Molenaar, 1985, 1989, 1993; Molenaar and de Gooijer, 1988; Molenaar et al., 1992, 1999) and economics (Harvey, 1989; Lütkepohl, 1991). Lately, Zuur and Pierce (2004) used dynamic factor analysis for fisheries applications, while Mendelssohn and Schwing (2002) applied it to large oceanographical time series.

Márkus et al. (1999) applied dynamic factor analysis in hydrology to identify common patterns of groundwater levels in a karstic area of Hungary. Although they identified two common trends as recharge (infiltration) and extraction (pumping), no explanatory variables were included in the model. In addition, since the timing of water level measurements available in the study was not systematic, this study considered only annual average water elevation, and information related to seasonality was lost. There is no previous application of DFA to water quality studies. Analysis of large water quality datasets is complex because of the many factors affecting the chemical concentration variation in the system. DFA can be an effective methodology to handle such datasets and identifying the dominant factors controlling such variation.

In 2004, the South Dade Soil and Conservation District funded a continuation of our previous work in the area (Muñoz-Carpena and Li, 2003) to complement the exiting database. This additional data provides the opportunity to improve our understanding of the water and chemical movement in the area by including inter-annual variability (2.5 years total) that illustrates the response of the system to various weather conditions and land use patterns.

Objectives

This project focuses on the analysis of the variation of water levels and chemical concentrations in surface and ground waters in the Frog Pond, Homestead, FL, during March 2002-Oct 2004 to provide a better understanding of land use and hydrology interactions. The hydrological and water quality trends and interactions in the area were studied and modeled using dynamic factor analysis (DFA) in two parallel efforts:

1. The objective of the first effort was to apply dynamic factor analysis and modeling to study the interactions between daily time series of hydrological variables to explain ground and surface water level variations within the southern section of the Frog Pond. The analysis was conducted in three steps: i) identification of common trends of ground and surface water levels; ii) inclusion of explanatory variables in the multilinear DFA model; iii) extension of results to the spatial field domain to simulate observed values.
2. The second effort focused on understanding the water quality changes in the area. Four agrochemical species of nitrogen and phosphorus, plus two natural tracers, Fluoride (F) and Chloride (Cl), were included in the analysis. DFA was conducted in three steps: i) identification of common trends of groundwater quality; ii) inclusion of explanatory variables in the multi-lineal dynamic factor model; and iii) study of interactions between ground and surface water quality and canal management, hydrology and land use components.

Materials and methods

Hydrological Monitoring Network

The study was conducted at the Frog Pond (Fig. 1), a small watershed of 2023 ha located at the boundary of Everglades National Park (ENP) in Homestead, Florida. This public land was leased for the last 11 years to a group of growers that farm under restricted conditions (low inputs and limited flood protection). The area adjoins two canals managed by the South Florida Water Management District (SFWMD) regional network: C-111 (west) and L-31W (east). Water level in both canals is regulated by remotely operated structures S-177 (spillway) and S-175 (culvert), respectively. Under the CSOP operations, the water level in canal L-31W is maintained high in order to increase water delivery into ENP, while pushing agricultural return flows away to the east. This is achieved by keeping the gate at structure S-175 permanently closed while pumping water from canal C-111 into the L-31W in the northern part of the Frog Pond. In addition a system of detention ponds and a 14.2 m³/s pumping station (Fig. 1) was constructed in June 2002 in accordance with new environmental regulations in the area (USACE, 2002). This system influences surface and groundwater flow patterns and elevation in the area.

An extensive monitoring network distributed across the southern portion of the Frog Pond watershed (780 ha south of the Torcise ditch, Fig. 1) was developed for this study. The first experimental phase of the University of Florida (UF) monitoring network was initiated in February 2002 with the installation of a 1.6 km transect with 10 fully instrumented wells for water elevation, two rain gauges, soil moisture sensors and an automatic weather station (Fig. 2). Wells were 5 m deep cased with 5 cm diameter PVC pipe screened at the lower 4 m section. The pipe was surrounded by a clean silica sand envelope to fill the 20 cm wide borehole and sealed at the top with 20 cm bentonite and 10 cm concrete layers where a 30 cm wide cast iron manhole was set (Fig. 3).

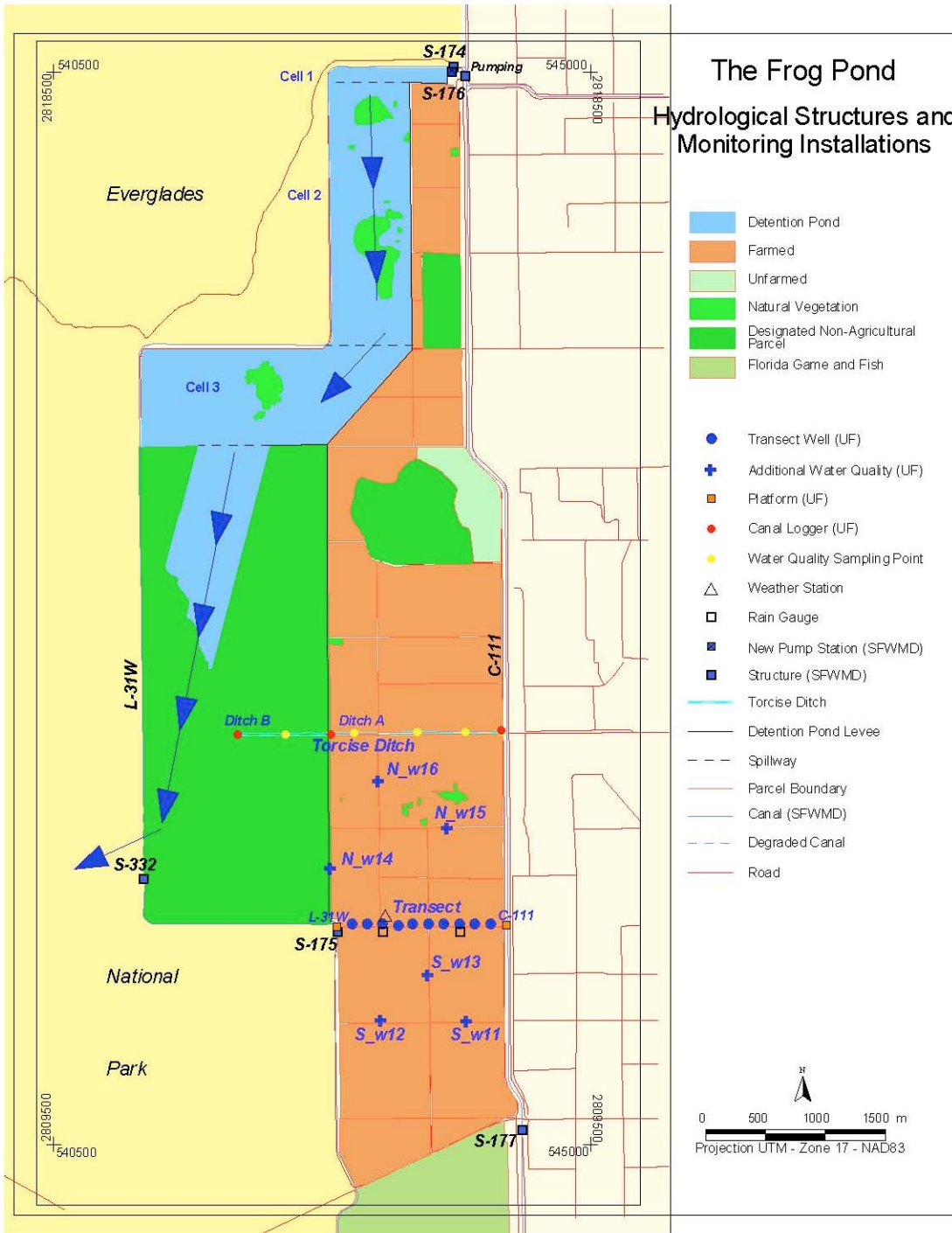


Figure 1. Frog Pond area monitoring network.

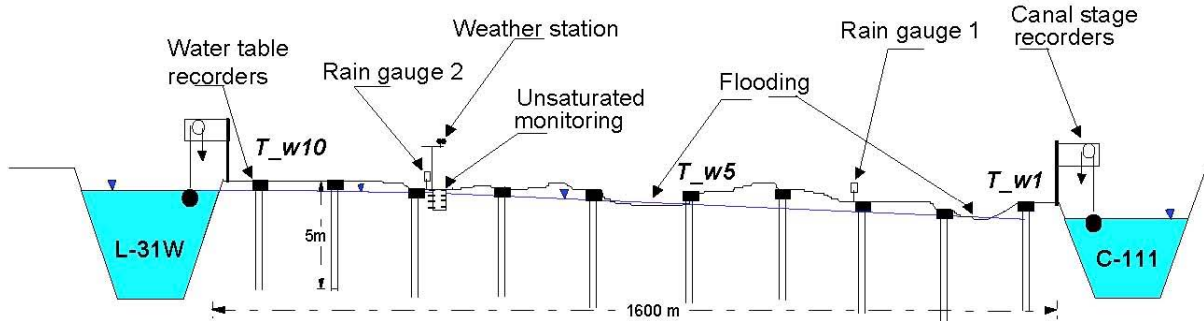


Figure 2. Details of transect monitoring network well transect showing on-site instrumentation.

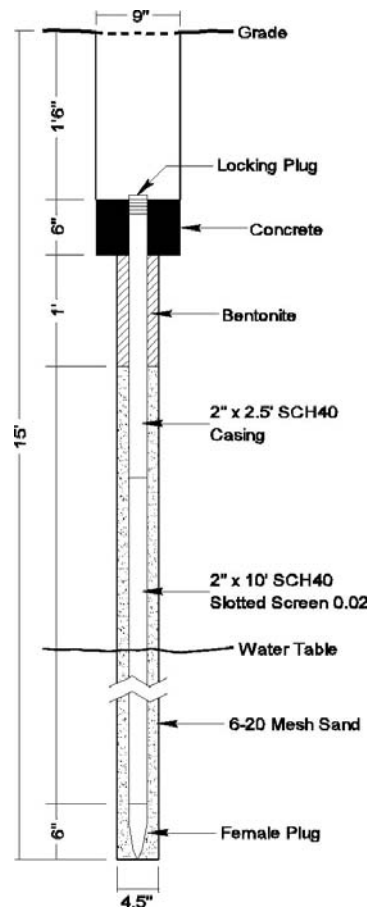


Figure 3. Schematic of monitoring well (from Potter et al., 2004).

Wells and manholes were kept closed and locked at all but maintenance and sampling times. Groundwater levels were registered every 15 minutes by auto-logging pressure transducers compensated for temperature effects and atmospheric pressure (Solinst Inc., Canada). Fifteen minutes rainfall readings were made with

two auto-logging tipping-bucket rain gauges (Onset Computer Corp., USA), each located at 1/3 and 2/3 of the distance along the main transect. Penman-Monteith potential evapotranspiration was estimated based on 15-min weather data (wind speed, solar radiation, relative humidity, air temperature, atmospheric pressure) measured with an automatic weather station (Onset Computer Corp., USA) placed on the well transect at a point 2/3 of the total length). Canal levels at both ends of the transect (C-111 and L-31W) were obtained in this first phase from the SFWMD's online records (SFWMD, 2004b) at structures S-175, S-176 and S-177.

In a second experimental phase started in February 2003, six additional fully instrumented wells and two canal (C-111 and L-31W) and two stage recorders at Torcise drainage ditch (DitchA and DitchB) were added north and south of the original transect and included in the 15-min monitoring protocol (Fig. 1). These new wells were added to study the possible perturbations introduced by the newly constructed detention pond when operation started in summer 2003. To date the detention pond has only been filled in June 2003. Surface water elevations in canals and in the Torcise ditch were recorded by a simple self-contained automatic recorder developed for this purpose (Schumann and Muñoz-Carpena, 2003). The loggers in the two canals were attached to custom-made steel and wood platforms (6x1 m) supported by pillars anchored to the banks and the bottom of the canal.

All monitoring stations (wells, ditch and canal loggers) were surveyed and georeferenced by a registered surveyor (horizontal coordinates, UTM-Zone 17 WGS-84/NAD83; elevation, m NGVD29).

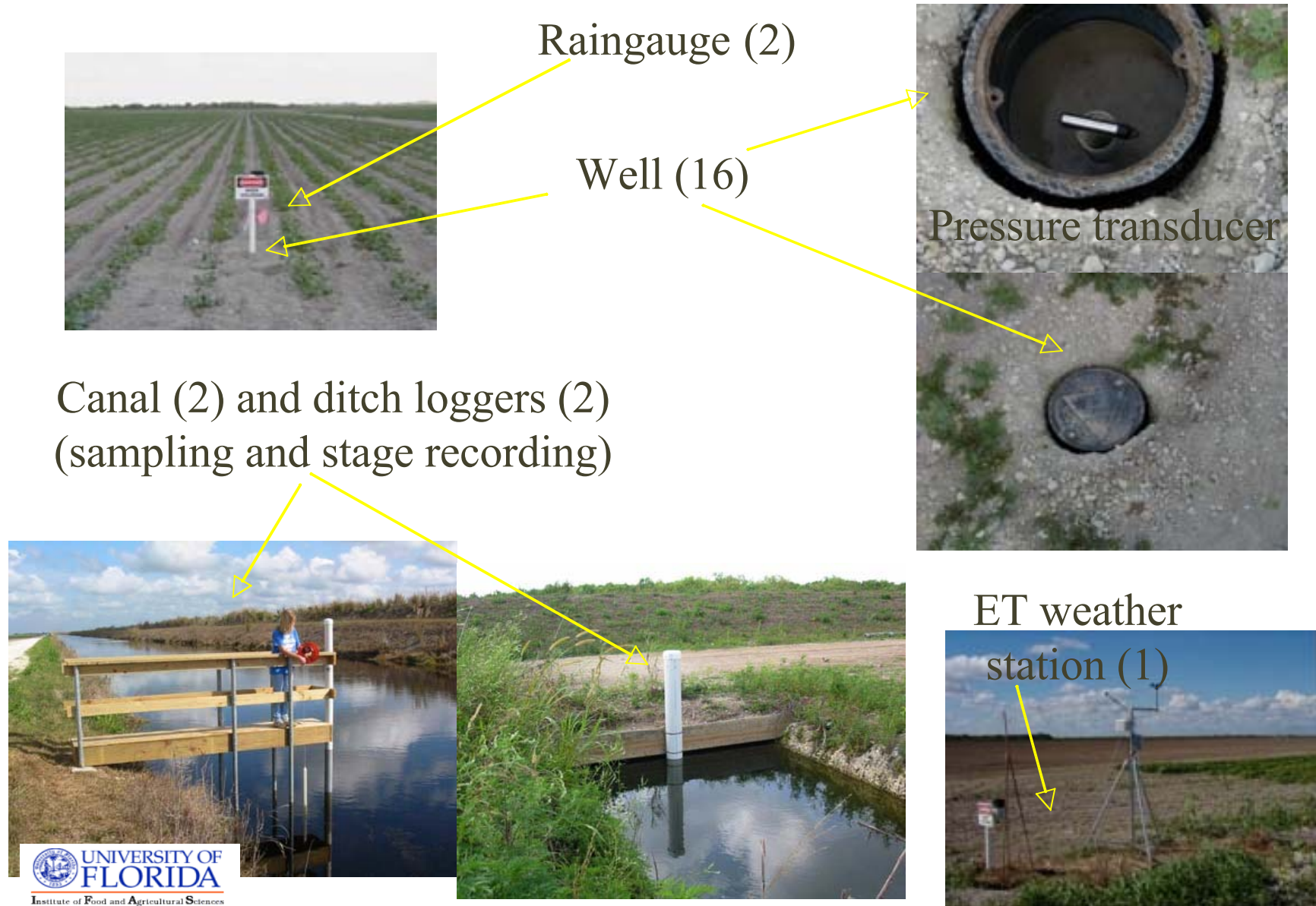


Figure 4. Details of field instrumentation

Water Quality Sampling

Surface and groundwater quality grab samples were collected in acid cleaned and pre-labeled 500 ml bottles every two weeks at each monitoring location (2 canals and 16 wells for the second phase; 2 canals and 10 wells for the first phase). QA/QC field and laboratory procedures were followed at all times (FL-DEP, 2002). Water quality samples are analyzed for concentration of 25 components including macro-elements (F, Cl, Br, SO₄-S, NH₄-N, NO₃-N, PO₄-P, total P, Ca, K, Mg, Na), trace elements (Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Zn, Al, As, Mn, Mo, Se), pH and EC (see Appendix B).

Soil samples were collected every 6 months, at the beginning and end of the cropping season (i.e. at the end and beginning of the rainy season), from the land adjacent to each well. The soil samples were analyzed for TP, NH₄-N, NO₃-N, FI, Cl and water soluble P following QA/QC procedures described in Appendix B.

In addition, atrazine concentrations for a subset of the samples (April-August, 2003) are being obtained through collaboration with the USGS Biological Resources Division (Ecotoxicology Program) in Gainesville (details can be obtained from that office).

Data Storage and Maintenance

Hydrological and water quality data is maintained on-line in the UF-HydroBase system (<http://carpena.ifas.ufl.edu>) (Muñoz-Carpena and Li, 2003). Data was uploaded every 4 weeks to the server and audited for quality control within the following two weeks.

Dynamic Factor Analysis, DFA

a) Description

DFA is a statistical technique for the analysis of multivariate time series that first received this name from the pioneering work of Geweke (1977). It has been designed to identify underlying common trends or latent effects in several time series and interactions among them. Moreover it allows for evaluation of the effect of

explanatory variables. DFA is similar to factor analysis and principal component analysis, but it is designed to be used with non-stationary time series. Notice that conventional multivariate methods usually require independent observations, which is not the case for time series (Márkus et al., 1999). Using DFA, the time series of measured data of N response variables can be modeled as the sum of a i) linear combination of common trends or factors, ii) a level parameter, iii) explanatory variables, and iv) noise (error) component, so that the dynamic factor model (DFM) can be formulated as (Harvey, 1989; Lütkepohl, 1991; Zuur et al., 2003b):

$$s_n(t) = [\gamma_{m,n}]\{\alpha_m(t)\} + \{\mu_n\} + [\beta_{k,n}]\{v_k(t)\} + \varepsilon_n(t) \quad (1)$$

$$\{\alpha_m(t)\} = \{\alpha_m(t-1)\} + \{\eta_m(t)\} \quad (2)$$

where $s_n(t)$ is the value of the n^{th} response variable at time t (with $1 \leq n \leq N$); $\alpha_m(t)$ is the m^{th} unknown trend (with $1 \leq m \leq M$) at time t ; $\gamma_{m,n}$ represents the unknown factor loadings; μ_n is the n^{th} constant level parameter for displacing up and down each linear combination of common trends; $\beta_{k,n}$ stands for the unknown regression parameters (with $1 \leq k \leq K$) for the K explanatory variables $v_k(t)$; $\varepsilon_n(t)$ and $\eta_m(t)$ are error components, which are assumed to be independent of each other and normally distributed with zero mean and unknown covariance matrix \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{Q} , for $\varepsilon_n(t)$ and $\eta_m(t)$, respectively. Notice that with this DFM (Eq. 1 and 2), if seasonal or cyclic components are present in the time series, they will be masked and included in the trend component (Eq. 2). The unknown parameters can be estimated using the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm (Dempster et al., 1977; Shumway and Stoffer, 1982; Wu et al., 1996). Technically, within the DFA framework, the trends are modeled as a random walk. Regression parameters and trends are estimated using the Kalman filter/smoothing algorithm and the EM method, while the explanatory variables are modeled as in linear regression (Zuur and Pierce, 2004). It is worth noticing that the incorporation of explanatory variables results in a complete, unified description of the DFM within the EM framework (Zuur et al., 2003b). These techniques are implemented in the statistical software package Brodgar v2.3.3 (www.brodgar.com) used in the study.

Results from the DFA were interpreted in terms of the estimated parameters $\gamma_{m,n}$ and $\beta_{k,n}$, the canonical correlations, and match between model estimations and observed values. To assess the significance of the regression parameters, standard errors for them are included. Low values for the standard error indicate the statistical significance of the corresponding parameter. The goodness-of-fit of the model can be assessed by visual inspection, the coefficient of determination and Akaike's Information Criterion, AIC (Akaike, 1974). The coefficient of determination Cd compares the variance about the 1:1 line (perfect agreement) to the variance of the observed data (see Appendix A). Notice that for non-regression models the Cd does not represent the proportion of sum squares (i.e. deviation of the observed values to their mean) explained by the model and it ranges from $-\infty$ to 1 (Wilson, 2001). Thereby $Cd=1$ implies that the plot of predicted vs. observed matches the 1:1 line. Statistical significance (p-value) for Cd was estimated with the bootstrap percentile-t method (Zoubir and Boashash, 1998). The AIC is a statistical criterion for model selection. It combines the measure of fit with a penalty term based on the number of parameters used in the model. When comparing two or more models, the smallest AIC indicates the most appropriate model.

The common trends, $\alpha_m(t)$, are functions that represent the patterns in the data that cannot be described with the explanatory variables included in the model. Factor loadings $\gamma_{m,n}$, indicate the weight of a particular common trend in the response time series, s_n . In addition, the comparison of factor loadings of different time series allows for detection of interactions between the different s_n . Canonical correlations coefficients ($\rho_{m,n}$) are used to quantify the cross-correlation between the response variables (s_n) and the common trends (α_m). The terms "high", "moderate", and "weak" correlation are usually applied to $\rho_{m,n} > 0.75$, 0.50-0.75, and 0.30-0.50, respectively. The influence or weight of each explanatory variable v_k on each s_n is given by the regression parameters, $\beta_{k,n}$.

b) Time series of hydrological variables and analysis procedure

Response and explanatory variables

The 21 daily time series used in the analysis were: a) groundwater table elevations (*WTE*) given in m NGVD29 at sixteen wells; b) surface water level (*SWL*) given in m NGDV29 in the two canals (C-111 and L-31W) and in the two Torcise ditch locations; and c) average net recharge (*nRech*) in mm/day. *WTE* in the wells located along the transect (*T_w1* – *T_w10*), south (*S_w11*, *S_w12*, *S_w13*) and north of it (*N_w14*, *N_w15*; *N_w16*), and *SWL* data from the two stage recorders at the ditch (*DitchA* and *DitchB*) were considered as response variables, while canals' *SWL*, and *nRech* were selected as explanatory variables. Although the analysis of time series can be conducted using daily increments of the hydrological variables, this would partially remove information about the underlying patterns that might be important (Márkus et al., 1999). Therefore, daily-averaged data (non-stationary) was used from a period of over 2-years (796 days, 28/03/2002 – 31/05/2004). *nRech* contains the rainfall and evapotranspiration (*ET_o*) information and is calculated as the difference between cumulative daily rainfall and evapotranspiration data. Due to the high cross-correlation between the two rain gauges (0.95, $p < 0.001$), the average of the two time series was used.

Analysis procedure

The DFA was conducted in three incremental steps. First, no explanatory variables and up to four trends were simultaneously considered in order to detect which wells were influenced by the same underlying effects (common trends). To reduce the number of model parameters needed, the smaller number of trends to adequately represent the response variables was investigated. DFA was applied on standardized time series, because this facilitates the interpretation of factor loadings and the comparison of regression parameters. It is worth noting that although normality of data is beneficial for DFA, it is not strictly necessary (Zuur et al., 2003a). Second, the analysis was repeated, taking into account the three explanatory variables described above to look at a possible reduction in the influence of the

common trends obtained in the previous step. Finally, in order to predict *WTE*, DFA was also conducted with non-standardized data and using the explanatory variables with the most impact. To assess the robustness of this model, the DFM in this last step was developed from a reduced data set used for calibration, and then validated using independent data (unused portion of the data set).

For all DFA the option to use a symmetric, non-diagonal covariance matrix (**H**) of the error term ε_t was selected. The off-diagonal elements of **H** represent information in response variables that cannot be described by the common trends or the explanatory variables. Its inclusion in the analysis translates into a smaller number of common trends needed for an adequate model fit (Zuur et al., 2003a).

Spatial modeling of water levels

The DFM obtained from the last step in the analysis procedure described above is space-dependent, so that the resulting factor loadings and regression parameters are limited to each observation site and thus cannot be used at intermediate locations of the domain. Assuming that the observed response variables represent a finite sample from an infinite collection of time series continuously distributed all over the study area, empirical spatial functions of these DFM parameters can be obtained by interpolation. In this context we performed least-square surface fitting on the relevant DFM parameters across the domain. The resulting model is site specific and should be applied only within the wide range of conditions similar to those found during the experimental period.

c) Time series of water quality and analysis procedure

Response Variables

Sixteen groundwater chemical concentration (mg/l) time series for each chemical were obtained from the wells located along the main transect (*T_w1 – T_w10*), south of the transect (*S_w11, S_w12, S_w13*) and north of it (*N_w14, N_w15; N_w16*) were considered as response variables (Fig. 1). Each of these biweekly time series was averaged monthly. This smoothing procedure favors the underlying common trends against local peaks and thus facilitates the analysis. Although the analysis of

time series can also be conducted using increments of the hydrological variables, this would partially remove information about the underlying patterns that might be important (Márkus et al., 1999). Therefore, monthly averaged data (non-stationary) from a period of over 2-years (26 months, April 2002 – May 2004) were used.

Explanatory variables

From a practical standpoint groundwater chemical variation is a function of chemical inputs, outputs and transformation. In the case of drained agricultural lands like those in the study, we can differentiate between two groups of chemicals based on their source. Products not used in agricultural production (here F and Cl) constitute the first group. Typically, the concentration changes for this group will be driven by lateral inflow and outflow to and from the canals, atmospheric deposition in coastal areas followed by rainfall leaching, chemical transformation, etc. For the second group, the agrochemicals (here $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, and TP), the relatively large concentration at which they are applied will frequently mask most of their natural variability. Shallow groundwater concentration for this group will be dominated by leaching from the topsoil which in turn depends on crop applications, mobility of the product, topsoil enrichment (saturation), rainfall, and the length of the transport flow path (water table depth), among other factors.

Based on this, five observed time series were used as potential explanatory variables in the DFA: a) rainfall (*aR*) (mm/day); b) water table depth (*WTD*) (m NGVD 29); c) soil chemical concentration (*Soil*) (mg/kg); and d) chemical concentrations in the canals bordering the area (*C-111* and *L-31W*) (mg/l).

To approximate the rainfall that can potentially produce leaching of a chemical to the aquifer, the adjusted rainfall (*aR*) was calculated as the ratio between monthly rainfall and number of rainy days in the month. Typically a four-month rainy season occurs in the area from June-September, where over 60% of the total annual precipitation is collected. Since during the wet season it rains almost daily in the area, the adjustment only affects the dry season when sometimes intense and isolated events with a large leaching potential occur. Due to the high cross-correlation between the two field rain gauges (0.95, $p < 0.001$), the average of the two

time series from both devices was used (Fig. 1). The *Soil*, *WTD*, *C-111* and *L-31W* explanatory variables were obtained directly from field observations and sample analyses.

Analysis procedure

DFA was applied on standardized time series, because this facilitates the interpretation of factor loadings and the comparison of regression parameters. Although normality of data is beneficial for DFA, it is not strictly necessary (Zuur et al., 2003a). The analysis was conducted in three incremental steps. First, an exploratory analysis was conducted by visual inspection of the observed data and calculation of cross-correlation among all variables (response and explanatory) for each chemical, with the aim of identifying relevant explanatory variables for the agricultural and non-agricultural chemicals being studied. Second, different DFMs were compared based on AIC and *Cd*. These models were derived by incrementally adding the number of common trends and by testing different combinations of explanatory variables. To choose the 'best' model, a compromise was sought between AIC, goodness-of-fit (*Cd*) and minimum number of common trends and explanatory variables needed. Third, results from the DFA performed for each chemical with the selected models were discussed.

Results

Hydrology

a) Experimental time series

Daily time series of the hydrological variables (rainfall potential evapotranspiration, surface- and groundwater levels) measured at the experimental site are presented in Fig. 5. Fig. 5a shows the seasonal variation of rainfall and ET_o , both being higher in spring and summer and lower in fall and winter. Typically a four-month rainy season occurs in the area from June-September, where over 60% of the total annual precipitation is collected. WTE in the wells along the transect (Fig. 5b) seem to follow the same pattern around the value of 1 m NGVD29. The higher levels were observed during the rainy season, while in May 2002 and May 2004 the levels dropped gradually to around 0.5 m NGVD29. Fig. 5b includes also WTE in the wells located north and south of the transect (in the second experimental phase). Observations in these wells differed from those in the transect. Wells located south of the transect (S_w11 , S_w12 , S_w13) showed lower WTE than the transect wells, while those to the north of the transect (N_w14 , N_w15 , N_w16) presented the highest WTE values. Fig. 5c shows the temporal variations of surface water level in the canals (C-111 and L-31W) and in the ditch. The visual inspection of SWL in C-111 and L-31W indicates the effect of the CSOP interim management strategy, so that SWL_{L-31W} is generally 0.1 – 0.7 m higher than SWL_{C-111} except during February 2003 when the gate at structure S-175 in canal L-31W was opened to accommodate a canal-drawdown study carried out by the SFWMD. In addition, SWL observed in the ditch at the stage recorder *DitchB* closely matches the SWL_{L-31W} . Generally, Fig. 5 suggests that rainfall and canal management can potentially impact WTE ; rainfall is especially important for explaining sharp rises observed in WTE . As an example, complete surface flooding was experienced in at least four wells after the extreme rainfall event (84 mm) in December 2002 (T_w5 and T_w6), and during the third and fourth quarters of 2003 (N_w14 and N_w16). At least one time during the

experimental period, 50% of the wells presented water table depth within the top 15 cm, which usually corresponds to the agricultural soil layer.

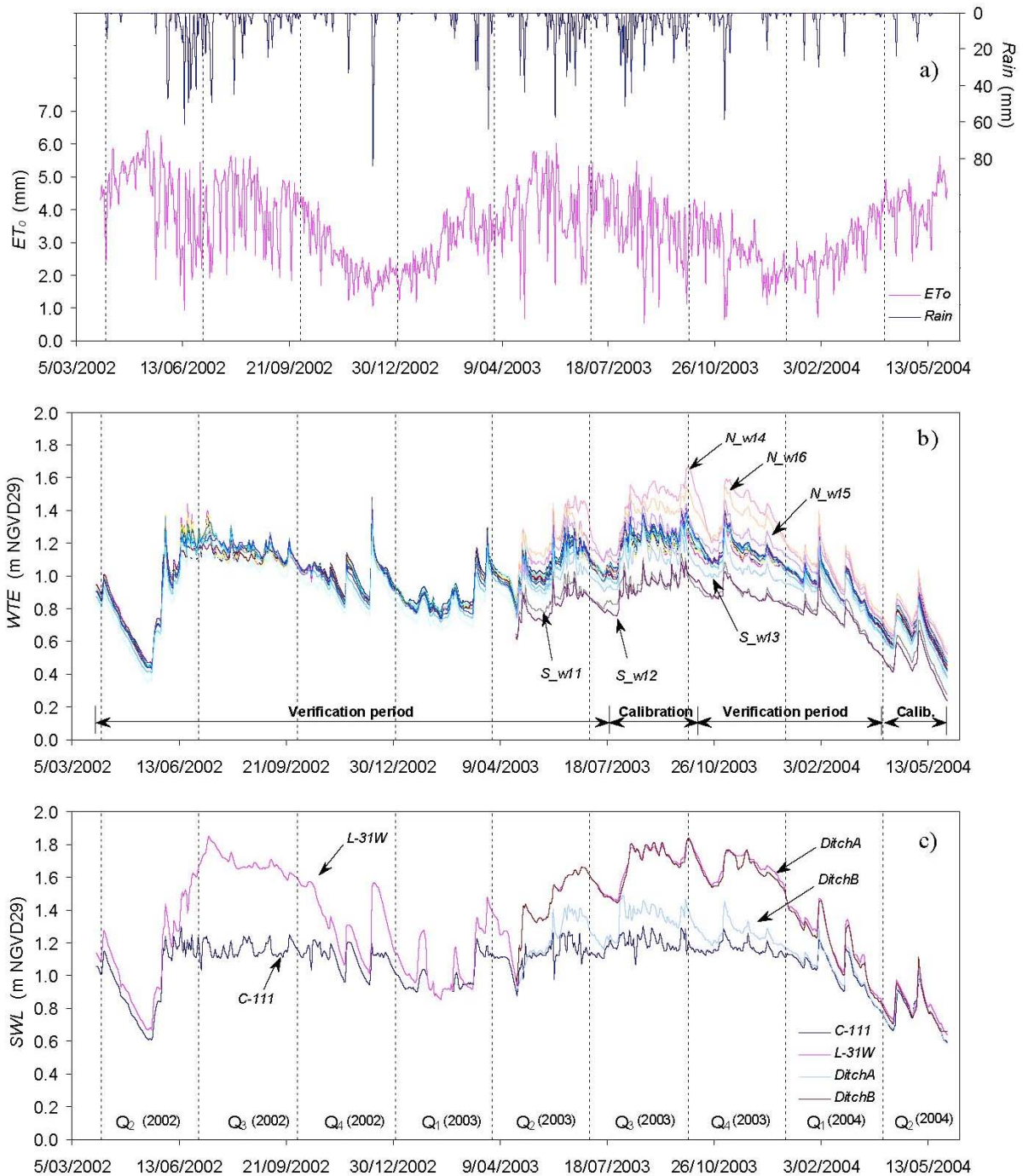


Figure 5. Summary of hydrological time series obtained at the experimental site for the monitoring period

b) Dynamic Factor Analysis

The analysis was performed in several incremental steps to generate the four models summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. DFM models tested in the study (see explanation in the text).

Model	No. of trends	Explanatory variables	Regression parameters	Total number of parameters	<i>Cd</i>
<i>I</i>	1	None	--	36	0.94
<i>II</i>	1	<i>nRech</i> , SWL_{C-111} , SWL_{L-31W}	from DFA	90	0.96
<i>III</i>	0	SWL_{C-111} , SWL_{L-31W}	from DFA	54	0.91
<i>IV</i>	0	SWL_{C-111} , SWL_{L-31W}	Interpolation	22	0.87

First, a simple model (model *I*) with only one trend was used to study the response variables (observed water levels at ground and in an agricultural ditch). DFA results from this model show that there is a common trend governing the water levels across the area. Secondly, three explanatory variables, surface water at the two canals and net recharge (rainfall - ET_o), were included in the analysis in an effort to elucidate the nature of the latent effects (model *II*). The results showed that the effect of the trend was greatly reduced (by an order of magnitude) in favor of the explanatory variables. Among these, the low values of the regression parameters for recharge showed that the effect of this variable is weak compared to the canal water levels. To prove this, a third analysis was conducted with only the two canal explanatory variables and one common trend. This increased the weight of the explanatory variables over the common trend and greatly reduced the correlation between the trend and observed data ($\rho_{1,n} = 0.12 - 0.26$) while achieving good fit with observed data (coefficient of determination, $0.95 < Cd < 0.99$). This means that in this area the fluctuations in ground and ditch water levels across the domain can be sufficiently explained by the explanatory variables (canal levels) without the need for unexplained common trends. To this end, a last DFA was performed on a model with the two explanatory variables and no trend using a subset of the time series for calibration (model *III*). This dynamic factor model was validated with acceptable results ($0.69 < Cd < 0.99$) against independent data consisting of the rest of the time series not used in the calibration/development of the model.

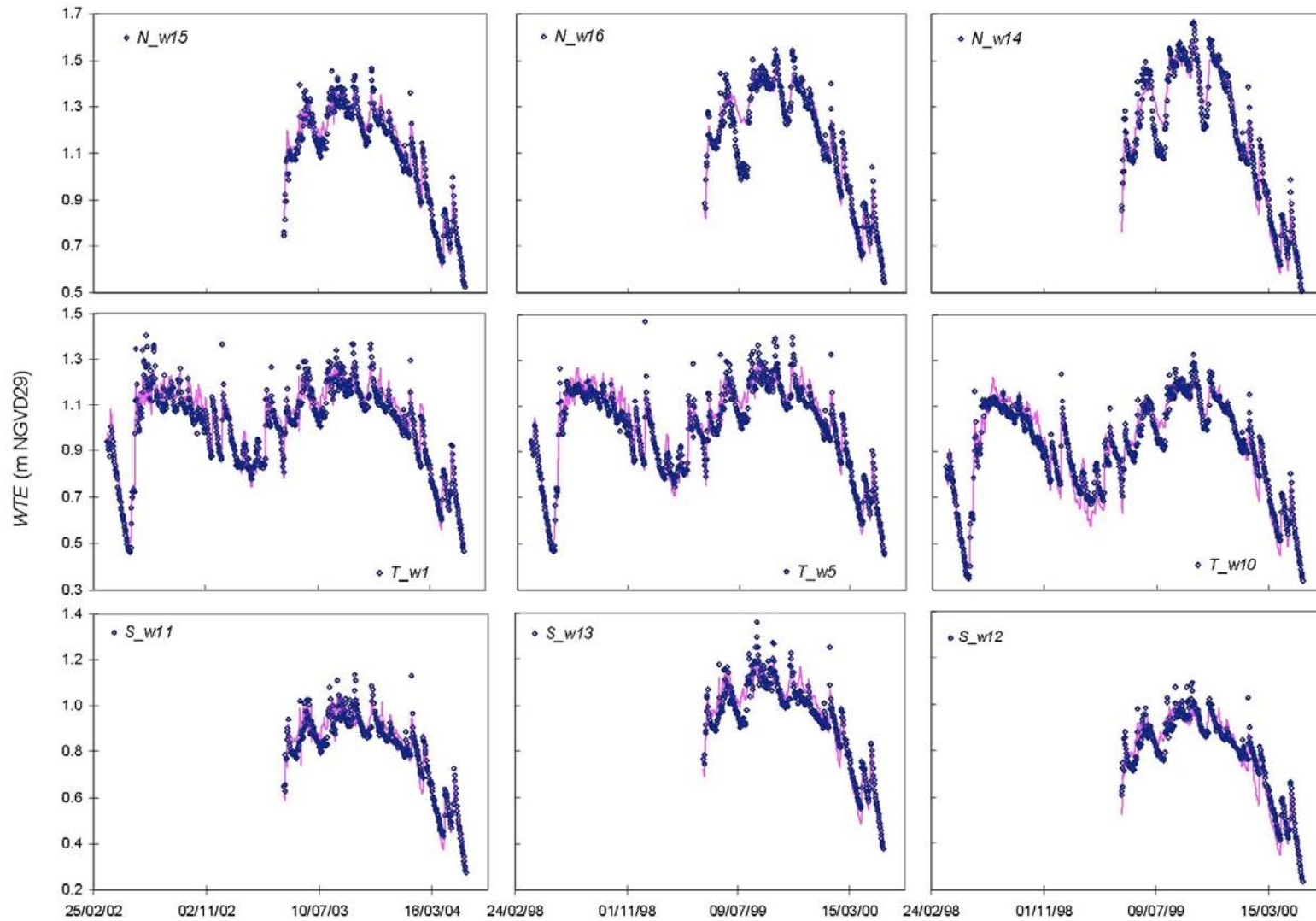


Figure 6. Observed (symbols) and predicted (lines) WTE at the transect and at the wells north and south of it obtained with the DFA model with no trend and canal levels as explanatory variables (Model III).

Fig. 6 shows the *WTE* observed and predicted by Model III at the side and center main transect wells and north and south of it. The DFM successfully predicts the variation across time and space. Although the model does match the sharp rises in water elevation created by large and isolated rainfall events, it is responsive to them.

Spatial model proposed

The influence of the canal water levels was generally opposite to each other across the spatial domain so that the weight of one canal (regression parameter) increases when approaching that canal, while the weight of the other canal decreases. This suggests that the water level across the domain can be spatially modeled using the multilinear model resulting from the DFA. In an effort to extend the model across the spatial domain, the regression parameters obtained for each observation point were interpolated by fitting to empirical surface functions in UTM (X, Y) coordinates (model IV):

$$WL(X, Y, t) = SWL_{C-111}(t) \cdot \beta_{C-111}(X, Y) + SWL_{L-31W}(t) \cdot \beta_{L-31W}(X, Y) + \mu(X, Y) \quad (3)$$

$$\beta_k(X, Y) = \frac{a + b \ln X + cY + dY^2 + hY^3}{1 + e \ln X + fY + gY^2 + iY^3} \quad (4)$$

$$\mu(X, Y) = a + bX \ln X + c\sqrt{X} \ln X + \frac{d \ln X}{X^2} + \frac{e}{\sqrt{Y}} + \frac{f}{Y} \quad (5)$$

where WL (m NGVD29) stands for surface and groundwater levels across the domain at coordinates (X, Y), expressed in UTM (meters) and correspond to northing and easting from WGS-84 (NAD-83), respectively. The values for the model coefficients are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Empirical parameters for Eq. 4. and Eq. 5 (Model IV).

Par.	Eq.	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	Cd
β_{C-111} $k=C-111$	(4)	-1.374	$2.706 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$1.469 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$-5.233 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$1.113 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$-1.065 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$3.778 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$6.214 \cdot 10^{-20}$	$-4.470 \cdot 10^{-20}$	0.899
β_{L-31W} $k=L-31W$	(4)	-0.1678	$-2.286 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.196 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$-2.128 \cdot 10^{-14}$	$9.164 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$-7.112 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$1.264 \cdot 10^{-13}$	0	0	0.961

$$\mu \quad (5) \quad -2.997 \cdot 10^7 \quad -2.922 \quad 4838.810 \quad 5.307 \cdot 10^{16} \quad 4.878 \cdot 10^9 \quad -4.091 \cdot 10^{12} \quad - \quad - \quad - \quad 0.843$$

Eq. 3 derives from the general DFM (Eq. 1) after applying the simplifying assumptions from Model III, while Eq. 4 and 5 were obtained from the least-squares surface interpolation of the DFA parameters across the domain. This model IV has an added benefit that the total number of model parameters required was greatly reduced (Table 1 and 2). The comparison of model predictions with observed data yielded satisfactory results ($0.66 < Cd < 0.99$) with expected error in predictions of 0.07 ± 0.03 m across the domain.

In summary, DFA was successfully applied to understand the hydrological trends in a small agricultural watershed affected by an ongoing environmental restoration project. The technique proved to be a powerful tool for the study of interactions among 21 long-term, non-stationary hydrological time series. Elevations in canals surrounding to the watershed were found to be the main factors explaining daily groundwater profiles, while rainfall events are only responsible for instantaneous or localized groundwater responses that in some cases can be directly associated with the risk of flooding. This substantiates the impact of the regional water management system on the local hydrological conditions of the area. The resulting DFM is deemed useful for watershed management for conditions similar to those present in the area during the experimental period. Using this tool different canal management alternatives could be explored and optimized in terms of risk of flooding.

Water Quality Trends

a) Experimental time series

The total number of samples obtained from the original project inception to date (April 2002 – Oct. 2004) was 1,271 samples representing 30,504 analyses.

Selected agrochemicals and natural tracers

Fig. 7 and 8 depict the standardized values for a subset of the chemicals including four agrochemicals (i.e., orthophosphate [PO₄-P], total phosphorus [TP], ammonia-nitrogen [NH₄-N] and nitrate-nitrogen [NO₃-N]) plus two natural tracers (fluoride [F]

and chloride [Cl]). These figures allow for a quick visual comparison among the variation of the selected chemicals and potential explanatory variables.

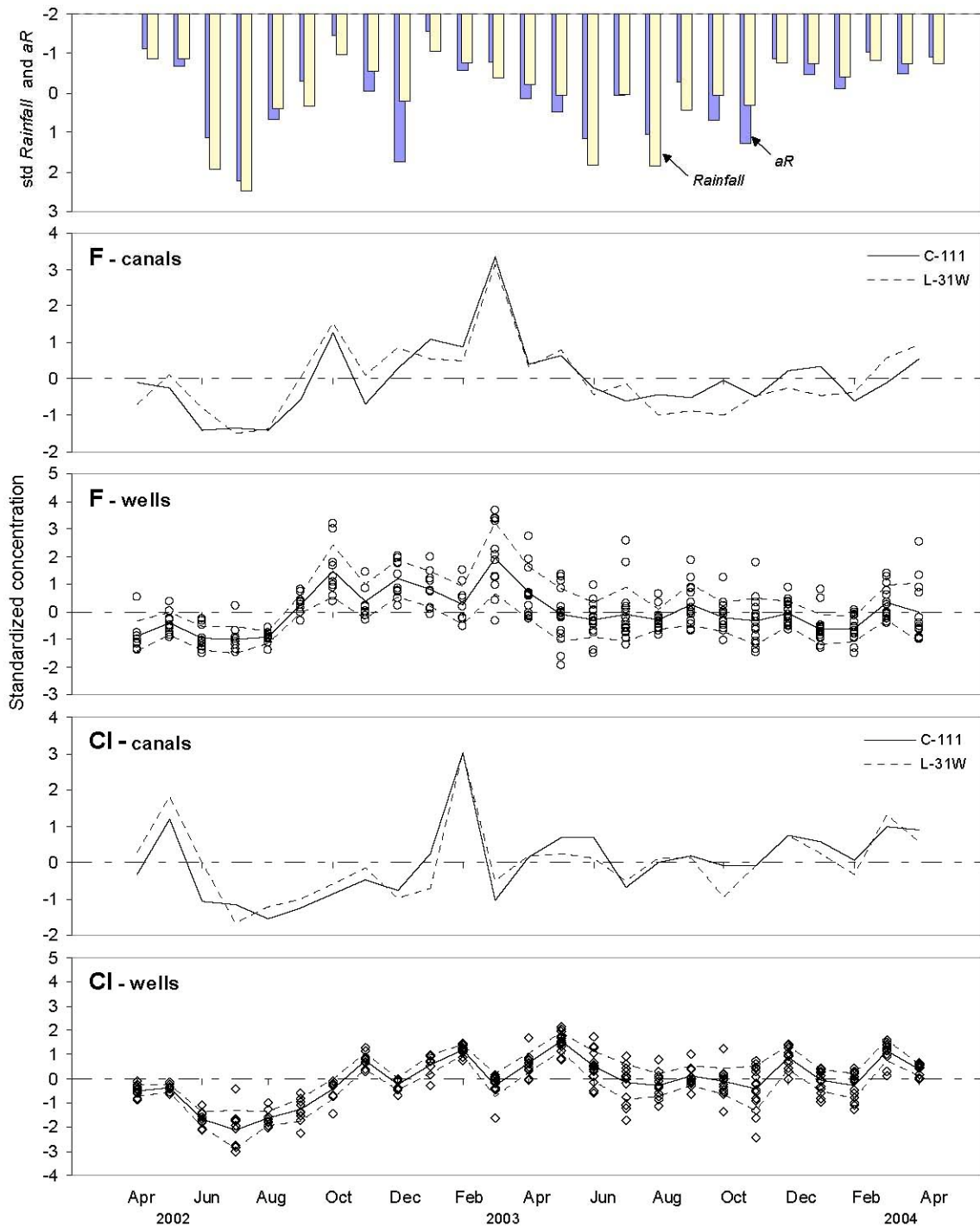


Figure 7. Standardized time series for the explanatory hydrological variables (rainfall, adjusted rainfall [aR]) and chemical concentrations for the F and Cl obtained in the 2 canals (C-111 and

L-31W) and the 16 experimental wells (symbols). Average time series (solid line) and \pm standard deviation (dashed lines) are included for each chemical from the wells.

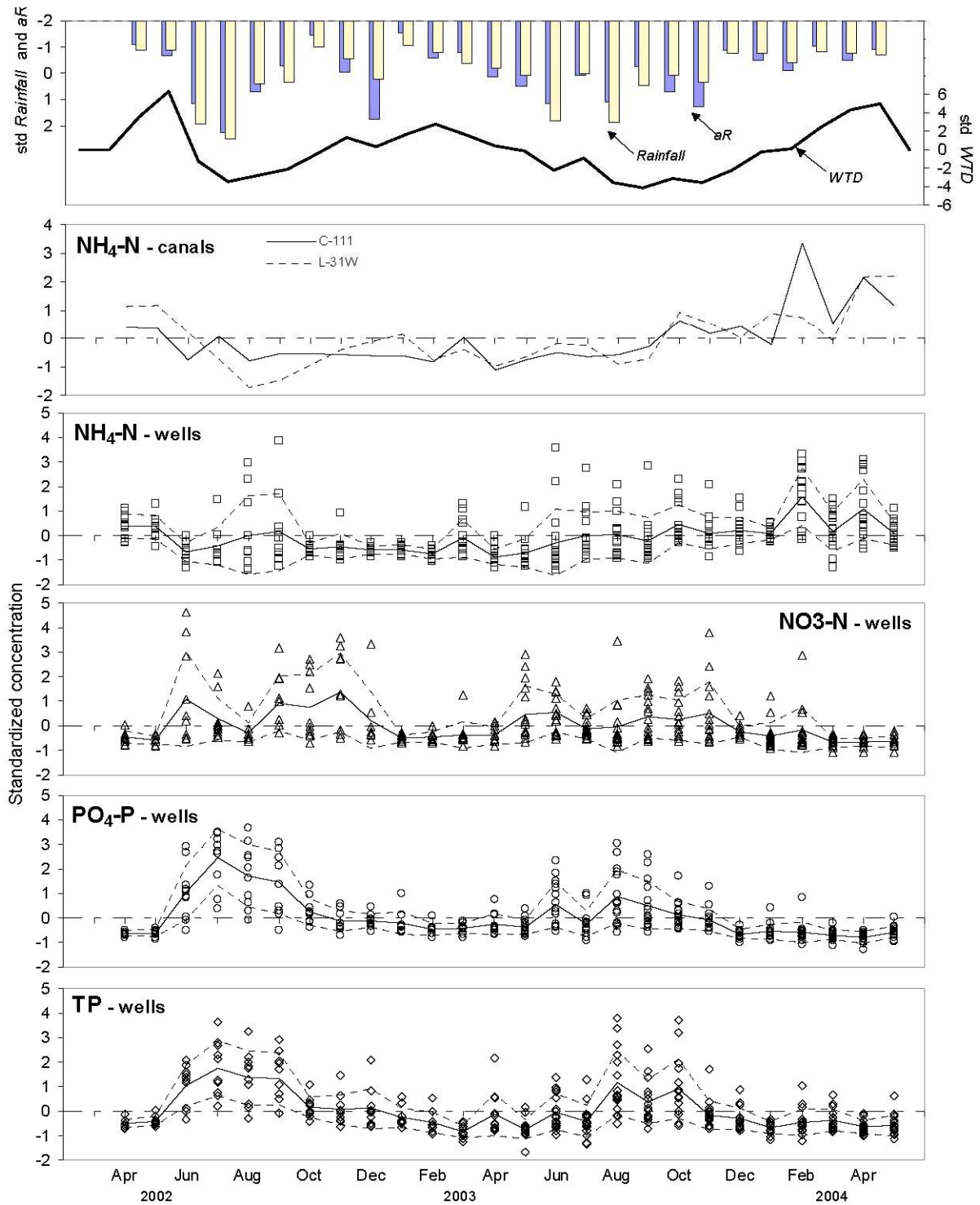


Figure 8. Standardized time series for the explanatory hydrological variables (rainfall, adjusted rainfall [aR], water table depth [WTD]) and agrochemical concentrations obtained in the 2

canals (C-111 and L-31W) and 16 experimental wells (symbols). Average time series (solid line) and \pm standard deviation (dashed lines) are included for each chemical from the wells.

Table 3 summarizes the results for the ground (wells) and surface (canal C-111 and L-31W) samples for the selected chemicals.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for chemicals studied in ground and surface waters ⁽¹⁾.

	Wells	C-111	L-31W
[F]	0.18 \pm 0.08 (0.06 - 0.74)	0.21 \pm 0.08 (0.11 - 0.44)	0.19 \pm 0.08 (0.09 - 0.41)
[Cl]	39.70 \pm 8.51 (8.00 - 60.73)	46.76 \pm 10.84 (30.00 - 79.38)	44.25 \pm 11.65 (25.00 - 79.23)
[NH ₄ -N]	0.20 \pm 0.15 (0.01 - 1.03)	0.12 \pm 0.08 (0.03 - 0.40)	0.13 \pm 0.06 (0.03 - 0.26)
[NO ₃ -N]	0.42 \pm 0.89 (0.002 - 10.46)	0.05 \pm 0.03 (0.02 - 0.10)	0.05 \pm 0.04 (0.01 - 0.14)
[PO ₄ -P]	0.04 \pm 0.06 (0.001 - 0.42)	0.003 \pm 0.002 (0.001 - 0.01)	0.003 \pm 0.002 (0.001 - 0.01)
[TP]	0.08 \pm 0.09 (0.01 - 0.60)	0.02 \pm 0.01 (0.003 - 0.04)	0.02 \pm 0.01 (0.002 - 0.04)

⁽¹⁾ Average \pm standard deviation; Range in parenthesis; concentrations in mg.l

PO₄-P and TP average concentrations and ranges were markedly different in surface and groundwater (Table 3). Mean concentrations of TP in surface waters exceeded the 0.010 mg/l level, in 70-74% of the canal samples (40/57 and 42/57 samples for C-111 and L-31W, respectively). Average concentrations and ranges of both P analyses from canal L-31W closely matched those obtained from C-111 canal. These concentrations in water samples from the monitoring wells were the highest during June-September (summer rainy season), although some isolated peaks occurred in both winter crop seasons, typically associated with large rainfall events (Fig. 7 and 8). The June-September high concentrations indicate a rapid mobilization (leaching) from the topsoil enriched by fertilizers after the crop season. On the other hand, the peaks at the beginning of the crop season can be attributed to the fertilizer just applied to the soil (in pre-planting) and leached by the intense rainfall event.

Average [NO₃-N] in all surface and groundwater samples were below 10 mg/l (U.S. drinking water standard) except for one sample collected in well 2 (June 5, 2002) and another in well 3 (June 19, 2002). On a monthly basis, the higher groundwater

nitrate concentrations were again observed consistently during the rainy seasons, with a second (smaller) increase at the beginning of the winter crop seasons (Fig. 8). Nitrate concentrations in the canals were lower than in the groundwater by around one order of magnitude.

[NH₄-N] in groundwater suggests an inverse pattern to that of nitrate, i.e. the peak ammonia concentrations were generally higher when the nitrate was low (Fig. 8). This might be the result of nitrification of ammonia to nitrate. Average ammonia concentrations in both ground and surface waters were similar (Table 3).

Average concentrations of other natural tracer elements analyzed (F and Cl) were low and within natural and regulatory levels (McCutcheon et al., 1992). Surface and groundwater concentrations were similar for both elements. The similar concentration ranges in surface and groundwater for NH₄-N, Cl, and F, suggest a possible interaction between canals and wells. Although NH₄-N is considerably less mobile than Cl and F, transport of this element can be facilitated by the large hydraulic conductivity and preferential flow paths of the gravelly soil and porous limestone rock (Generaux and Guardiario, 1998; 2001).

Preliminary results for the 2003-2004 season show that reductions in fertilizer use in resulting from presentation of previous year's results to the farmers in the area has had a direct positive impact in groundwater quality during last season.

Other chemicals

Although generally low concentrations, several spikes of SO₄-S and Br were detected in water samples during the vegetable season. Concentrations of trace metals in most of water samples were below detection limits or very low.

b) Dynamic Factor Analysis

Two and a half years of monthly hydrological and water chemical concentration time series (rainfall; water table depth; and soil, ground and surface water concentrations of N-NO₃, N-NH₄, P-PO₄, total P, F and Cl) were selected for the water quality study.

DFA of water quality series was conducted in three steps. First, cross-correlations among all time series for each chemical were determined. This preliminary

procedure allowed identifying relevant explanatory variables for each chemical. However, although cross-correlation coefficients serve as an exploratory tool and provide a measure of the relationship between paired data sets, it does not properly capture simultaneous interactions of multivariate time series. In the second step, a series of DFAs was performed for each chemical to identify the combination of common trends that best describes changes in concentration over time and in sixteen wells across the field, i.e. lowest AIC, (underlined in Table 4).

Table 4. Selection of dynamic factor models based on performance coefficients. Best model indicated in bold characters. Best model without explanatory variables is underlined.

Chemical	Trends	v_k	AIC	Cd	Chemical	Trends	v_k	AIC	Cd
F	1		795	0.52	NH ₄ -N	1		935	0.35
	2		778	0.64		<u>2</u>		<u>800</u>	0.62
	<u>3</u>		<u>768</u>	0.76		3		807	0.68
	4		780	0.83		1	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	971	0.44
	1	<i>aR, Canal</i>	763	0.64		1	<i>Soil, WTD, Canal</i>	782	0.59
Cl	<u>1</u>		<u>513</u>	0.81	2	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	836	0.66	
	2		518	0.86	2	<i>Soil, WTD, Canal</i>	779	0.69	
	1	<i>aR, Canal</i>	485	0.84	PO ₄ -P	1		716	0.67
NO ₃ -N	1		924	0.34		2		666	0.79
	2		886	0.53		3		658	0.84
	3		856	0.70		<u>4</u>		<u>633</u>	0.88
	4		837	0.74		5		649	0.90
	5		828	0.81	1	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	689	0.75	
	<u>6</u>		<u>824</u>	0.83	2	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	632	0.83	
7		847	0.83	TP	1		844	0.51	
1	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	902	0.52		2		838	0.60	
2	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	842	0.66		<u>3</u>		<u>825</u>	0.68	
3	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	826	0.77		4		828	0.78	
					1	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	822	0.63	
				2	<i>aR, Soil, WTD</i>	794	0.72		

Both, orthophosphate and nitrate concentrations required the largest numbers of trends (four and six, respectively) when no explanatory variables are considered. This suggests that various factors or latent effects influence in a different way the groundwater concentration of these agrochemicals across the area. The number of

common trends required to determine the concentration of each chemical in the wells was greatly reduced by including time series of explanatory variables in the DFA (in bold in Table 4). These were rainfall (*aR*), water table depth (*WTD*), agrochemicals concentration in the soil (*Soil*), and concentrations in the canal bordering the watershed (*Canal*).

Effect of land use and canals and rainfall

The relative importance of each variable can be further explored from the DFA analysis (Table 5). DFA results showed that groundwater concentration of three of the agrochemical species studied ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ and TP) were affected by the same explanatory variables (water table depth, enriched topsoil, and occurrence of a leaching rainfall event, in order of decreasing relative importance). This indicates that leaching by rainfall is the main mechanism explaining concentration peaks in groundwater. In the case of N-NH_4 , in addition to leaching, groundwater concentration is governed by lateral exchange with canals.

Table 5. Summary of relative effect of explanatory variables and trends on groundwater chemical variation

Chemical	<i>aR</i> ⁽¹⁾	<i>Canal</i> ⁽¹⁾	<i>WTD</i> ⁽¹⁾	<i>Soil</i> ⁽¹⁾	Trends ⁽²⁾	<i>Cd</i>
F	2	1	--	--	(1) **	0.64
Cl	2	1	--	--	(1) **	0.84
$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$	--	1 (transect)	2	1 (south)	(2) ** (north/south)	0.69
$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$	3	--	1	2	(3) **	0.77
$\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$	3	--	1	2	(2) **	0.83
TP	3	--	1	2	(1) *	0.63

⁽¹⁾ 1, 2, 3: relative increasing importance for explanatory variable; ⁽²⁾ number of trends in parenthesis and *, **, *** average $\rho_n = 0.3-0.5, 0.5-0.75, >0.75$, respectively

Natural tracers studied, F and Cl, are mainly affected by periods of dilution by rainfall recharge, and by exchange with the canals. The active groundwater/canal exchange observed for F, Cl, and N-NH_4 , supports the idea that this process is also relevant in the case of the agrichemicals studied, although it is masked by the high concentrations introduced by fertilizer input in the area.

Fig. 9 illustrates the satisfactory model fit for each chemical across the domain obtained with the models in Table 5.

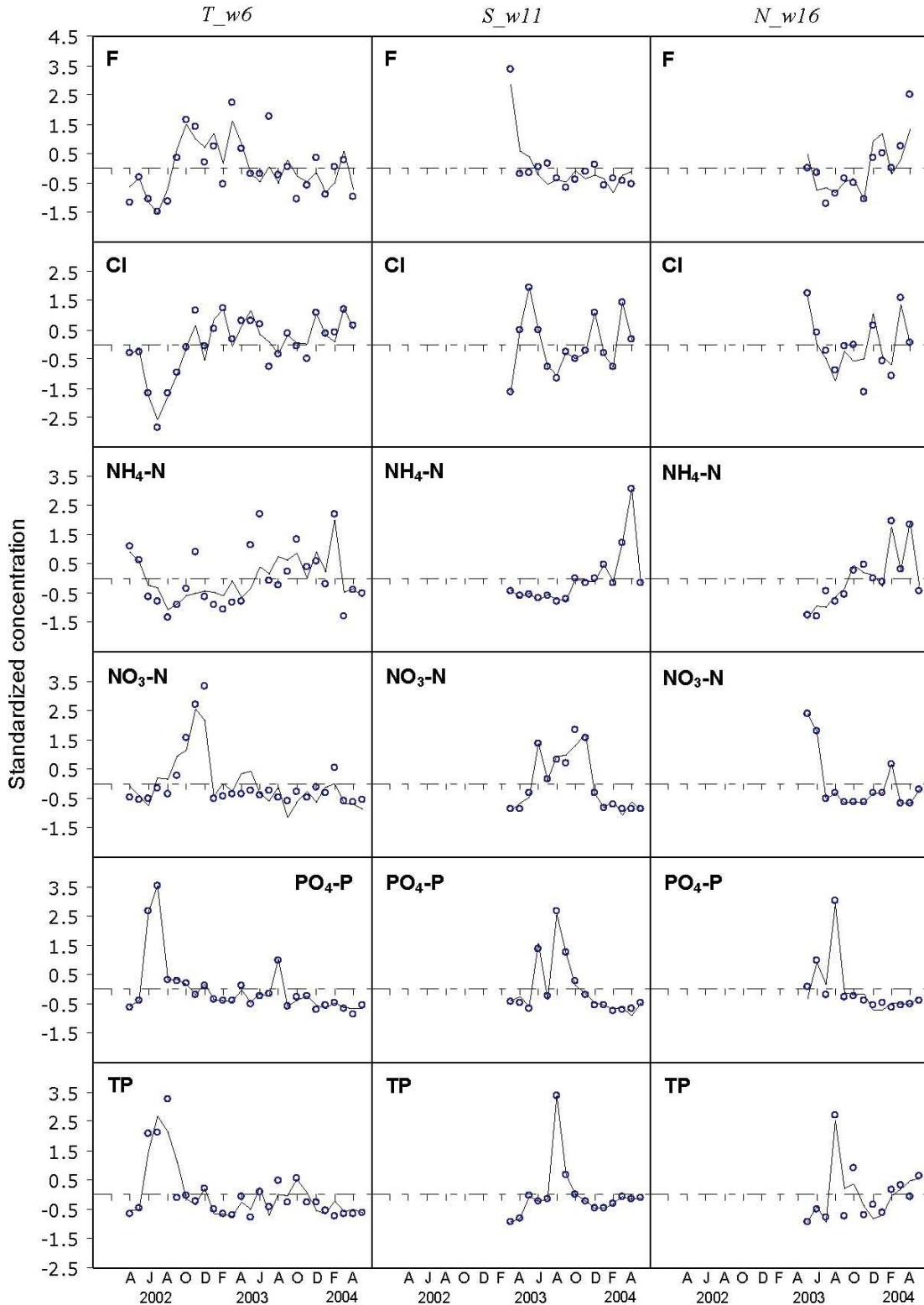


Figure 9. Model fit for the chemicals studied in three of the representative wells, located in the transect (T_w6), south of the transect (S_w11) and north of it (N_w16). North and south wells installed in second experimental phase (February 2003).

The unstructured nature of the common trends found suggests that these are related to the complex spatially and temporally varying land use patterns in the watershed. The results indicate that peak concentrations of agrochemicals in groundwater could be reduced by improving fertilization practices (by splitting and modifying timing) and by operating the regional canal system to maintain the water table low, especially during the rainy periods.

Since *WTD* and *Soil* are conditioned by land management practices, peak concentrations of agrochemicals in groundwater could be reduced by improving fertilization practices (reduction and splitting) and by maintaining the water table at the lowest practical levels not only during the rainy season, but specially during the isolated leaching rainfall events at the end of the year (early crop season, Oct-Dec).

Research and Extension Outcomes

This project generated 2 presentations at international conferences and 3 manuscripts for refereed journals. Results from the DFA analysis for hydrology and water quality data were presented at the joint International Meeting of the Canadian and American Societies of Agricultural Engineers (CSAE/ASAE), Ottawa, Canada in August, 2004. Two research papers on the DFA analysis have been submitted and are under review in two of the top refereed journals of the specialty (*Journal of Hydrology* and *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology*). A third one describing the variation of the additional chemicals in the area is in preparation for the *Journal of Environmental Quality* and will be submitted at the end of the year.

The simplified results and information from this project have been made available to the stakeholders in the area through the University of Florida IFAS-Extension programs and meetings with the agencies involved with water management and studies in the area (SFWMD, USGS, US-COE, USDA-ARS). The following programs were conducted:

Date/Time	Program	Location
02/19/04@9:00-15:00	Workshop: Frog Pond area hydrology and water quality - C-111 Spreader Canal Project SFWMD-USCOE interagency meeting.	Ft.Lauderdale SFWMD Field Office
10/21/04@9:30-11:00	Workshop and local in-service training: Agriculture, Restoration and Hydrology: Water Quality and Flow in the Frog Pond Area	Miami-Dade Extension Office

This report is also available on-line through the TREC's Hydrology web site (<http://carpena.ifas.ufl.edu>). Several extension documents are in preparation and will be released later in 2004. A training session for the online system (UF-HydroBase) was given this year for board members of the SDSWCD and other interested parties.

Preliminary results for the 2003-2004 season show that reductions in fertilizer use in resulting from extension of previous year's results to the farmers in the area has had a direct positive impact in groundwater quality during last season.

Future Research and Education Needs

A sufficiently long record of data that includes inter-annual variability is essential to fully accomplish some of the tasks initiated herein. A continuation of the present study for an additional two and a half years (to a total of 5 years) should provide the basis for an in depth study of some of the particular hydrological mechanisms that affect flow and chemical transport in the area (dual flow and matrix effects, chemical transformations particular to the limestone materials, etc.).

A detailed land use database needs to be developed in the following years to quantify spatially the different inputs in the land. The data should contain crop types and calendars for all parcels in the area including water and agrichemical applications as well as summer cover crops or preparation practices. This is a complex effort that will require the involvement of the management agency and growers in the area with the aim of improving the available practices based on modeling support and field-testing.

Continued monitoring during operation of the S-332D detention area in the next years will provide an invaluable opportunity to assess the effect of these new areas not only in its water quality but also in water quality effects.

The expanded database will also open the opportunity for a quantitative assessment of the chemical balance and transport in the area by using the improved understanding of flow patterns, water quality trends to test several chemical transport models. This way models can become a powerful tools for evaluation of alternative operation plans, and to assess the effectiveness of BMP's to mitigate potential impacts in surrounding areas. These are clearly important issues that require further attention.

The current infrastructure along the Torcise ditch presents an opportunity for the study of in-stream processes that could be key to understanding the surface water quality dynamics in the area. The ditch transects the area from seemingly low concentration water in the west through the agricultural area towards its discharge at the C-111. The continuous monitoring system (stage) and bi-weekly sampling at the

three points along the canal could be complemented with some detailed monitoring at different depths for other relevant parameters (temperature, DO, ph, EC, nutrients, chlorophyll, etc.).

In addition, the existing monitoring network (field and online components) has the potential to become an outstanding educational tool, both as a demonstration project and as a platform to produce sophisticated educational materials.

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- Frank J. González, Computer Engineer (UF-TREC Homestead)
- Karen Minkowski, GIS Specialist (UF-TREC Homestead)
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- Diego Funes, undergraduate summer student intern (UF Gainesville)
- Brian Rafie, high school summer student intern (Homestead High School)
- Tomas Marino, Technician (UF-TREC Homestead)
- Stuart Muller, Graduate Student (UF ABE Dept. Gainesville)
- Guiquin Yu, Laboratory technician (UF-TREC Homestead)
- Laura Rosado, Laboratory technician (UF-TREC Homestead)

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APPENDICES

A - Table of Existing Monitoring Stations

Station Well ID	UTM NAD 83 Zone 17				Elev. NAD 88 (ft)				Elev. NGVD 1929 (ft)				Elev. NAD 88 (m)				Elev. NGVD 1929 (m)			
	Easting	Northing	Lat.	Long	North Rim	Well Elev.	Dist.	Surf. Ground	North Rim	Well Elev.	Dist.	Surf. Ground	North Rim	Well Elev.	Dist.	Surf. Ground	North Rim	Well Elev.	Ground E	
WL01	544164	2811339	25.4183	80.5608	4.176	3.549	0.79	4.336	5.737	5.11	0.79	5.897	1.273	1.082	0.24	1.322	1.749	1.558	1.798	
WL02	544029	2811339	25.4183	80.5622	4.114	3.732	0.54	4.273	5.675	5.293	0.54	5.834	1.254	1.138	0.165	1.303	1.730	1.613	1.778	
WL03	543896	2811346	25.4184	80.5635	3.039	2.758	1.02	3.782	4.6	4.319	1.02	5.343	0.926	0.841	0.312	1.153	1.402	1.316	1.628	
WL04	543771	2811339	25.4183	80.5648	2.722	2.139	1.27	3.409	4.283	3.7	1.27	4.970	0.830	0.652	0.387	1.039	1.305	1.128	1.515	
WL05	543642	2811340	25.4183	80.5660	2.772	2.007	1.19	3.201	4.333	3.568	1.19	4.762	0.845	0.612	0.364	0.976	1.321	1.088	1.452	
WL06	543510	2811341	25.4183	80.5673	2.67	1.98	0.84	2.823	4.231	3.541	0.84	4.384	0.814	0.604	0.257	0.861	1.290	1.079	1.336	
WL07	543387	2811338	25.4183	80.5686	3.028	2.473	1.31	3.785	4.589	4.034	1.31	5.346	0.923	0.754	0.4	1.154	1.399	1.230	1.630	
WL08	543252	2811342	25.4183	80.5699	3.129	2.278	0.96	3.243	4.69	3.839	0.96	4.804	0.954	0.694	0.294	0.988	1.430	1.170	1.464	
WL09	543121	2811343	25.4184	80.5712	2.766	2.321	1.15	3.473	4.327	3.882	1.15	5.034	0.843	0.707	0.351	1.058	1.319	1.183	1.534	
WL10	542993	2811342	25.4183	80.5725	2.181	1.793	1.41	3.200	3.742	3.354	1.17	4.525	0.665	0.547	0.357	0.904	1.141	1.022	1.379	
WL11	543961	2810529	25.411	80.5629	N/A	7.303	-3.005	4.298	N/A	8.8646	-3.005	5.859	N/A	2.226	-0.916	1.310	N/A	2.702	1.786	
WL12	543237	2810539	25.4111	80.5701	N/A	6.611	-2.657	3.954	N/A	8.1726	-2.657	5.515	N/A	2.015	-0.81	1.205	N/A	2.491	1.681	
WL13	543636	2810918	25.4145	80.5661	4.448	4.13	0.308	4.438	6.009	5.6916	0.308	6.000	1.356	1.259	0.094	1.353	1.832	1.735	1.829	
WL14	542822	2811812	25.4226	80.5742	3.174	2.858	0.732	3.590	4.735	4.4196	0.732	5.151	0.967	0.871	0.223	1.094	1.443	1.347	1.570	
WL15	543801	2812159	25.4257	80.5644	2.913	2.696	0.607	3.303	4.474	4.2576	0.607	4.865	0.888	0.822	0.185	1.007	1.364	1.298	1.483	
WL16	543216	2812543	25.4292	80.5702	3.12	2.751	0.673	3.424	4.681	4.3126	0.673	4.985	0.951	0.839	0.205	1.044	1.427	1.314	1.519	
1.561																				
Canal log	Easting	Northing	Lat.	Long	Elev. NAD 88 (ft) Pipe Elev	Elev. NGVD 1929 (ft) Pipe Elev	Elev. NAD 88 (m) Pipe Elev	Elev. NGVD 1929 (m) Pipe Elev												
CA01	542868	2811317	25.4183	80.5596	10.003	11.565	3.049	3.525												
CA02	544291	2811335	25.4181	80.5737	12.101	13.663	3.688	4.164												
CA03					----	----	----	----												
CA04	542824	2812943	25.4328	80.5741	6.465	8.027	1.971	2.447												
CA05	542033	2812937	25.4328	80.582	7.264	8.826	2.214	2.690												
Benchmark	Easting	Northing	Lat.	Long	Elev. NAD 88 (ft) Pipe Elev	Elev. NGVD 1929 (ft) Pipe Elev	Elev. NAD 88 (m) Pipe Elev	Elev. NGVD 1929 (m) Pipe Elev												
PR - 19					12.385	13.946	3.775	4.251												
J511					7.44	9.001	2.268	2.744												
JBA 800					4.608	6.169	1.405	1.880												
Rebar					4.826	6.387	1.471	1.947												

B- Sample Preparation and Analysis

a) Water samples

The water samples were collected into cleaned and labeled 500 ml bottles. The date of sampling was noted on the labels. The samples were stored in an ice-chest with ice and transported to the Soil and Water laboratory, TREC, University of Florida. The water samples were prepared immediately on receipt and transferred in refrigeration before analysis. The determination of various parameters in the samples is given as follows:

1. Water pH was determined using a pH meter (Orion 501, Orion Research Incorporated, Boston, MA) and EC were measured using a conductivity meter (Accumet Model 30, Denver Instrument Company, Arvada, CO)
2. Total P, ortho-P and NH_4 and NO_3 were analyzed using an Autoanalyzer (AA3, Bran+Luebbe, Buffalo Grove, IL)
3. Anions (F, Cl, Br, and $\text{SO}_4\text{-S}$) were analyzed using an Ion Chromatography (Dionex 500, Dionex Corporation, Sunnyvale, CA)
4. Metals (Ca, K, Mg, Na, Al, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Pb, Zn, As, Mn, Mo and Se) were analyzed using an ICPAES (Inductively-Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometer) (Ultima, JY Horiba Group, Madison, NJ).

b) Soil samples

The soil samples were air-dried, grinded, sieved (<2 mm) and stored in plastic-lined paper bags before chemical analysis. Soil samples were digested according to US-EPA method 3050A and analyzed for TP. Ammonium-N and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in soils were extracted with 2M KCl and analyzed using an Autoanalyzer. Fluoride, Cl and water soluble P in soil were extracted with water (1:5 soil and water ratio) and analyzed using an ion chromatograph (Dionex 500, Dionex Corporation, Sunnyvale, CA).

C- Water quality data collected during the experimental period March 2002-October 2004

Description of sample codes found in the summary tables:

Sample no.	Station	Location ¹	Oservations
1	Well 1	Main transect	
2	Well 2	Main transect	
3	Well 3	Main transect	
4	Well 4	Main transect	
5	Well 5	Main transect	
6	Well 5	Main transect	
7	Well 7	Main transect	
8	Well 8	Main transect	
9	Well 9	Main transect	
10	Well 10	Main transect	
11	Field blank	--	
12	Canal 01	C-111	
12B	Canal 01	C-111	QA/QC field duplicate
13	Canal 02	L-31W	
13B	Canal 02	L-31W	QA/QC field duplicate
14	Canal 03	Torcise ditch east	
15	Canal 04	Torcise ditch mid	
16	Canal 05	Torcise ditch west	
17	Well 11	North of transect	
18	Well 12	North of transect	
19	Well 13	North of transect	
20	Well 14	South of transect	
21	Well 15	South of transect	
22	Well 16	South of transect	

¹ See Appendix 1 for specific locations

FROG POND WATER QUALITY DATA (2002-2004)

Table with columns: Sampling Date, S.No., F mg/L, Cl mg/L, Br mg/L, SO4-S mg/L, NH4-N mg/L, NO3-N mg/L, PO4-P mg/L, pH, EC us/cm, Ca mg/L, Cd mg/L, Co mg/L, Cr mg/L, Cu mg/L, Fe mg/L, K mg/L, Mg mg/L, Na mg/L, Ni mg/L, P mg/L, Pb mg/L, Zn mg/L, Al mg/L, As mg/L, Mn mg/L, Mo mg/L, Se mg/L, comment. Data is grouped by date: 4/10/02, 4/23/02, 5/8/02, 5/22/02, 6/5/02, 6/19/02.

FROG POND WATER QUALITY DATA (2002-2004)

Table with columns: Sampling Date, S.No., F mg/L, Cl mg/L, Br mg/L, SO4-S mg/L, NH4-N mg/L, NO3-N mg/L, PO4-P mg/L, pH, uS/cm, Ca mg/L, Cd mg/L, Co mg/L, Cr mg/L, Cu mg/L, Fe mg/L, K mg/L, Mg mg/L, Na mg/L, Ni mg/L, P mg/L, Pb mg/L, Zn mg/L, Al mg/L, As mg/L, Mn mg/L, Mo mg/L, Se mg/L, comment. Rows represent sampling events from 7/15/03 to 9/11/04.

