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# Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates, for arid and semi-arid areas using multiple linear regression with percent clay content and rainfall

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## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



## Abstract

Deep drainage estimates are required for effective management of water resources. However, field measurements are time consuming and costly so simple empirical relationships are often used. Relationships developed between clay content of the surface soil and deep drainage have been used extensively in Australia to provide regional estimates of drainage but these relationships have been poorly justified and did not include rainfall in the relationships. Here we present a rigorous appraisal of clay content of soils and rainfall as predictors of drainage using an extensive database of field observations from across Australia. This study found that annual average rainfall and the clay content of the top 2 m of the soil are statistically significant predictors of drainage. Relationships have been defined for annual, perennial and tree type vegetation as a line of best fit along with 95 % confidence intervals. This allows the uncertainty in these drainage estimates to be assessed for the first time.

## 1 Introduction

Invariably, groundwater recharge is associated interchangeably with drainage or potential recharge albeit a distinct difference defines the two terms. Simply, recharge is the flux of water that contributes to the saturated groundwater reservoir whereas drainage is the flux of water that moves through the unsaturated zone past the root zone. Drainage may become recharge after a lag time if there are no impeding layers. The capacity of effective groundwater management practices are broadened as our understanding of the driving processes, timescales and spatial distribution of recharge develop. However, accurate measurement of recharge in semi-arid to arid environments may be difficult to attain due to the drainage fluxes that occur below the root zone. Assuming one-dimensional flow and that drainage will eventually recharge the unconfined aquifer, unsaturated soil zone profiles can provide long-term mean annual recharge estimates for both steady state and transient environments (Walker, 1998). One method used to estimate low drainage fluxes in a transient environment is the

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



chloride front displacement (CFD) method (Walker et al., 1991). To use this method over a large area (up scaling) on the other hand is often not practical because of the costs involved to obtain the required data. Hence, it is necessary to use a surrogate measurement that is more readily available as a proxy for drainage.

5 The first effort to introduce a surrogate measurement for drainage was by Kennett-Smith et al. (1994) who defined a log-linear relationship between drainage and clay content for the 0–2 m soil depth interval. The relationship was based on 89 drainage estimates made using the CFD method in the 300–400 mm rainfall areas of South Australia and Victoria in south-eastern Australia (Fig. 1). The average clay content over  
10 the 0–2 m depth interval (rather than 0–0.5 m or 0–1 m) was chosen as it provided the highest correlation for drainage and clay content using the Kennett-Smith et al. (1994) data set (SKM, 2002).

More recent investigations (Leaney et al., 2004; Wohling, 2007) revised the relationship given by Kennett-Smith et al. (1994) for higher rainfall areas based on local  
15 recharge investigations; however minimal statistical rigour was employed in developing the revised correlations. Personal judgement defined each new relationship rather than a statistical correlation.

Comparison of the log-linear relationship between deep drainage and average clay content (0–2 m) data from the aforementioned work provides evidence for a trend attributable  
20 to rainfall amount (Fig. 2). This can be seen in the relationship of Wohling (2007) which gives the highest drainage throughout the range of clay content using data from field sites with a rainfall range of 470–570 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, compared to the 390–500 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> range of Leaney et al. (2004) and 300–400 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> range of Kennett-Smith et al. (1994).

25 These relationships between drainage and average clay content (0–2 m) have been widely used as a proxy for determining drainage rate estimates beneath annual crops and pastures (Kennett-Smith et al., 1994; Leaney et al., 1999, 2004; Leaney and Herczeg 1999; Leaney 2000; Cook et al., 2001, 2004; Wohling et al., 2005; Wohling 2007) in southeastern Australia.

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**Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates**

D. L. Wohling et al.

---

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Crosbie et al. (2010a) recently compiled and reviewed a database of 4386 recharge and drainage estimates over 172 studies across Australia. This included a review of several previous Australian recharge review papers (Kennett-Smith et al., 1994; Petheram et al., 2000, 2002; Cook et al., 2001; Tolmie and Silburn 2003; Silberstein et al., 2010). Crosbie et al. (2010b) then used this database to develop a tool for estimating the relationships between recharge and rainfall, soil type and land use in data poor areas. The soil type in these relationships were classified into five discrete groups, however the soil properties relevant to drainage are known to exist as a continuum rather than discrete classes (Kennett-Smith et al., 1994).

A literature search of comparable studies found that no other work had used actual soil clay content data as a proxy for drainage or recharge in correlation with rainfall. Sophocleous (1992) used multi-linear regression analysis of total annual precipitation, average maximum spring soil profile water storage, average shallowest spring depth to water table and average spring precipitation rate to assess recharge. Delin et al. (2000) applied multi-linear regression models to assess the effects of topography and soil properties on recharge on lowland and upland agricultural field sites near Princeton, Minnesota; and used precipitation (amount of water applied), average rainfall or irrigation water application intensity and antecedent moisture content for the entire unsaturated zone as the independent variables. Keese et al. (2005) evaluated controls on recharge by simulating drainage in a five metre thick one-dimensional unsaturated flow code using climate data, vegetation and soil coverages from online sources for Texas and simulated 30-year mean annual recharge. Keese et al. (2005), also found that vegetation and soil textural variability both resulted in a large range of recharge rates within each region; however the spatially weighted long-term recharge rates were much less variable and positively correlated with mean annual rainfall. Keese et al. (2005) explained that for non-vegetated, texturally variable simulations, multi-linear regressions using log-log data shows that including clay content (profile average) with precipitation explains 80% of the variation in recharge and that recharge varies over 1 to 2 orders of magnitude locally, with in each region, because of textural variability among soil

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## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

profiles. The modelled results presented by Keese et al. (2005), specifically the order of magnitude over which recharge varies, are comparable with the measured results presented in this paper.

This paper builds upon previous research by using multiple linear regression (MLR) to develop relationships capable of predicting drainage from measured soil clay content and mean annual rainfall, where previous studies have not used both rainfall and measured soil clay content to estimate drainage. Specifically the aims of this paper are to:

1. determine if a statistically significant relationship can be developed to predict drainage using previously published field data;
2. determine the best metric of the clay content of the soil; and
3. estimate the uncertainty in the drainage estimates made using MLR.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Data collation

In order to improve the statistical correlation between drainage, clay content and rainfall, as developed in this paper; we filtered the database of Crosbie et al. (2010a) to include only those recharge and drainage estimates that detailed rainfall amount and clay content of the soil. Less than 5% (202 recharge/drainage estimates) of the original database (Crosbie et al., 2010a) fitted these criteria (Fig. 1). It is from this filtered set of data, which includes all data presented in Fig. 2, that the MLR is performed. The data was re-queried and re-classified to assess how soil structure may affect drainage rates. The average clay content was determined over various intervals (0 to 0.5 m, 0 to 1 m and 0 to 2 m) to determine the best depth averaging use as a predictor of drainage. Also, a classification based on the highest clay percentage in a soil profile (rather than

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



an average over an interval) was used to investigate whether or not the use of impeding layers could improve the correlation.

The data was categorized into annuals, perennials and tree type vegetation as differing vegetation types were found to give differing rates of drainage for a particular soil type and rainfall (Crosbie et al., 2010b). An analysis was also performed on a combined perennial and tree category due to a scarcity of data for both groups. Of those 202 recharge and drainage estimates having soil textural data, 177 are estimates beneath annuals, 7 beneath perennials and 18 beneath trees. The mean annual rainfall ranged between 260 and 731 mm and clay content between zero and 60 % for those cleared annual vegetation sites; while for perennial vegetation, mean rainfall ranged from 587 mm to 1265 mm and soil clay content between zero and 60 %; and for tree vegetation annual rainfall varied from 460 mm to 731 mm with clay content between 0.7 and 60 %.

Data used in this paper are heavily biased in the south-western Murray Darling Basin with the remaining data coming from the mid coast of New South Wales (NSW) and south eastern Queensland (Fig. 1). The studies that have generated most of the data are summarised as follows. Kennett-Smith et al. (1994) compiled a review of studies in the south-western Murray Darling Basin, primarily the Mallee and Wimmera regions of north-western Victoria, eastern South Australia and south-western NSW. Kennett-Smith et al. (1994) used the chloride front displacement (CFD), water balance, and water table fluctuation (WTF) methods to determine drainage and recharge associated with the clearing of *Eucalyptus* mallee woodland (in the form of shrub land, scrub or heath) between 1900–1914 and 1920–1930 for rotational cereal cropping, sheep and beef cattle grazing. Leaney and Herczeg (1999), and Cook et al. (2001) studied the Mallee region of the south-west Murray Darling Basin including the Little Desert and Big Desert using soil-water chloride concentration profiles, groundwater chloride, stable isotopes of water and carbon-14 to determine recharge processes and provide drainage estimates beneath Mallee vegetation and cleared pastures and cropping. Similarly, Leaney (2000) investigated recharge processes and provided drainage

Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



estimates for the Tintinara area of South Australia using the CFD and steady state soil chloride mass balance (CMB) methods for mallee vegetation and cleared dry land cropping and pastures. Cook et al. (2004) investigated drainage and aquifer recharge in the north-east Mallee region of South Australia and determined that clearing of native vegetation (*Eucalyptus mallee*) and replacement with dryland cropping and pastures lead to increased salt loads to the Murray River. Cook et al. (2004) used the CFD method for estimating point estimates of drainage and developed equations for estimating the time lag between an increase in drainage and increase in aquifer recharge. They then spatially extrapolated the data to provide a drainage map and predicted time delays for transport through the unsaturated zone. Wohling et al. (2005) used the CFD method to estimate drainage beneath pastures in the Padthaway region of south east South Australia. Leaney et al. (2006) used the CMB method under native vegetation, dry land pasture, and tree plantations in the lower south-east of South Australia. In the Border Designated Area and Keith region of south-east South Australia, Wohling (2007) used the water balance, daily soil water balance, CMB, CFD and LEACHM (Leaching Estimation and Chemistry Model, Hutson, 2003) to determine recharge and drainage rates beneath native vegetation, pastures and crops. Unpublished data used in Wohling (2009) followed on from the work of Wohling et al. (2005) to estimate additional drainage rates under pastures using the CFD in the Padthaway region of south-east South Australia. Tolmie et al. (2004) used a transient CMB method in south-east Queensland to determine recharge beneath native vegetation, cropping and pastures, and perennial lucerne. Crosbie et al. (2005) investigated recharge in the Tomago Sand Beds near Newcastle, NSW. The WTF method was used to predict gross recharge under perennial vegetation in heath and mining revegetation areas.

## 2.2 Statistical methodology

Regression analysis explains movements in the dependant variable ( $Y$ ) as a function of the independent variables ( $X$ ) through the quantification of an equation. The simplest measure of the quality of fit is the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), which is the

### Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



proportion of variation of  $Y$  about its mean ( $\hat{Y}$ ) that is explained by the model. The higher the  $R^2$  the closer the estimated regression fits the sample data.

The level of significance (significant  $F$ ) tests whether the hypothesis, that the data forms a relationship, is null, specifically testing whether the data has no relationship.

If the hypothesis is null it can be concluded that the equation does have a significant overall fit. For example, when significant  $F$  is less than 0.05 (5%), then a relationship is likely. If significant  $F$  is a more than 0.05, then a relationship is unlikely.

The  $P$ -value provides a measure of how much evidence we have against the null hypothesis, i.e. we test the probability of getting statistics approaching the actual observed data, assuming a hypothesis that is null. The lower the  $P$ -value, the more significant the result is as it is unlikely the null hypothesis is true.

Average annual drainage estimates ( $d$ ) were set as the dependant  $Y$  variable and clay content (either average or highest value) and average annual rainfall were set as the independent  $X$  variables.  $R^2$ , significant  $F$ ,  $P$ -value and regression coefficients were presented as outputs, along with the 95% prediction intervals around the best fit for the best model for each vegetation type. All regression equations were given in the form:

$$\log d = y_0 + (b \times \text{clay}) + (a \times \text{rainfall}) \quad (1)$$

where  $y_0$ ,  $b$  and  $a$  were fitting parameters.

### 3 Results

Within each vegetation category, the data was interrogated to summarise average clay contents for various intervals or the highest clay content across an interval. For each interrogated data set, a regression analysis was performed for both drainage and log drainage terms. Consistently the log drainage regression gave a superior  $R^2$ , and therefore we only provide those results here. Table 1 summarises results from the MLR for annual vegetation.

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion





As described previously, the simplest measure of fit,  $R^2$ , illustrates how well the MLR model fits the sampled data. For the case of drainage below annuals (post-clearing) data, the strongest correlation was given by the average clay content (0–1 m),  $R^2 = 0.489$ . However when we investigated the statistical fit more thoroughly we found that even though there was an overall significance to the MLR for average clay content (0–1 m), (significant  $F = 2.17 \times 10^{-12}$ ), there was no correlation between log drainage and clay ( $P$ -value = 0.837). It was similarly true for the average clay content (0–0.5 m) and highest clay content (0–2 m) MLR results. Despite having a lower degree of fit to the data ( $R^2 = 0.3521$ ), the MLR statistical results for average clay content (0–2 m) showed a relationship was very likely to exist between average clay content (0–2 m), rainfall and log drainage (significant  $F = 3.99 \times 10^{-17}$ ). Moreover, there was evidence for correlations between log drainage and clay ( $P$ -value =  $3.7 \times 10^{-5}$ ); and log drainage and rainfall ( $P$ -value =  $5.68 \times 10^{-18}$ ).

Given that a relationship between average clay content (0–2 m), rainfall and log drainage was very likely to exist (significant  $F = 3.99 \times 10^{-17}$ ), we were warranted in producing 95 % prediction intervals for the annual vegetation log drainage, rainfall and average clay content (0–2 m) correlation (Table 1, Fig. 3). The 95 % prediction interval described a range within which 95 % of data was expected to occur. Data points that fell outside of this range were for estimates of drainage in very low rainfall zones (< 300 m) that have very drainage (< 1 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>).

Results from the MLR for drainage under trees (pre-clearing) and perennials are summarised in Table 2. Limited soil textural information was available in conjunction with drainage or recharge estimates for trees and perennials around Australia and as such a combined category was assessed.

A MLR using the average clay content (0–2 m) for trees gave a good fit against the data,  $R^2 = 0.7665$ . A MLR was performed on average clay contents (0–0.5 m) and (0–1 m) beneath trees, however the results are not given here. Whilst a relationship was likely between log drainage, rainfall and average clay content (0–0.5 m and 0–1 m), significant  $F < 0.05$ , in each case a relationship was not likely between log drainage and

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

clay; and log drainage and rainfall,  $P$ -value  $> 0.05$ . The database included drainage, rainfall and clay content (0–2 m) information for seven perennial vegetation sites that provided a very good statistical fit ( $R^2 = 0.9373$ ) and showed that a relationship was likely to exist (significant  $F = 3.93 \times 10^{-3}$ ). However, it was unlikely that a correlation existed between log drainage and average clay content (0–2 m),  $P$ -value = 0.727.

A review of the recharge and drainage database (Crosbie et al., 2010a) provided limited soil textural data for tree and perennial land use types and as such a merged MLR analysis was performed to test whether an increased sample size would improve the data fit and to test the level of significance of the data set. The merged tree and perennial MLR provided a better fit of the data compared to trees alone,  $R^2 = 0.8696$ , and illustrated that a relationship between average clay (0–2 m), rainfall and log drainage for the merged data was likely to exist, significant  $F = 1.86 \times 10^{-10}$ .

Figure 4 illustrates the MLR analysis for the merged trees and perennials data set, with perennials (red circles) and trees (green circles) highlighted in different colours to distinguish between the two data sources. Two clusters of perennial vegetation data are evident in Fig. 4; (1) those having high rainfall, zero clay content and high recharge; and (2) those having lower rainfall, high clay content (42–60 %) and minimal recharge. The lack of perennial data between the two clusters provided uncertainty and hence use of the merged perennial and tree data set has been provided.

## 4 Discussion

SKM (2002) summarised a compilation of work undertaken during the 1990's by various authors (Kennett-Smith et al., 1992a,b, 1993; HydroTechnology, 1994; O'Connell et al., 1997) and provided an assessment of recharge dependence on the average clay content for several intervals in the unsaturated zone (0–0.5 m, 0–1 m and 0–2 m) beneath non-cleared and cleared land in the Wimmera-Mallee region of southern Australia. With limited data available in terms of clay content, and encompassing a narrow rainfall range, SKM (2002) suggested that clay content within the 0–2 m interval provided the best fit as a proxy measurement for determining drainage. Now, with the

### Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



aid of a larger database of recharge and drainage estimates across Australia detailing clay content in the unsaturated zone over a larger rainfall range, we have been able to develop a more reliable approach for predicting drainage and can now provide an uncertainty range about those drainage estimates. Using this larger data, we have provided statistical evidence that (a) the average clay content rather than the highest clay content for a soil profile was a more appropriate proxy measure, and that (b) the average clay content (0–2 m) still provided the best predictor of drainage; and in conjunction with rainfall data improved the significance of such a correlation with drainage that had previously not been specified, and have an improved confidence in using the average clay content (0–2 m) of the unsaturated zone as a reliable proxy for estimating drainage rates for cleared annuals across Australia.

Many of the drainage data analysed here have been estimated using the CFD method; assumptions to these estimates include the date of native vegetation clearance. The clearance date has a large effect on drainage rate predictions using the CFD method. In some cases, we have taken broad scale information rather than paddock scale and subsequently have used a very uncertain date rather than the exact date. If a site was not cleared or cleared sometime after we had originally assumed, then there is a probability that we have been looking at a historical rather than a displaced chloride profile, particularly in very low rainfall zones like the Mallee region.

A larger sample size can imply that there will be a reduced likelihood of a few data points skewing the result. For example, the average clay content (0–1 m) annual data set had three data points with low drainage rates that had very low clay contents and tended to bias the data set, therefore giving the MLR a negative relationship between clay and drainage. This was a relationship that was opposite to what we would have expected.

The 95 % prediction intervals given in Fig. 3 ( $\log d$  vs. average clay content 0–2 m vs. rainfall) display an approximate two order of magnitude spread of data. The method of Crosbie et al. (2010b) developed to predict recharge in data poor areas presented 95 % prediction intervals having greater than two orders of magnitude threshold. Our

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



somewhat improved 95 % prediction intervals were realised via the development of regression equations made using field measurements of soil clay content, as compared to Crosbie et al. (2010b) who assigns an Australia-wide coverage of integrated vegetation and soil types to correlate mean annual rainfall with recharge estimates. More importantly, our work provided an indication of the uncertainty in the drainage vs. % clay correlation that has been used in studies for the last two decades without any such consideration to the level of uncertainty involved.

Numerous factors affect diffuse recharge to unconfined aquifers including vegetation type and density, climate variability, soil texture, land use and land management practices. As a general rule, recharge decreases as soil texture becomes heavier. Heavy textured soils have lower hydraulic conductivities and higher water holding capacities, whereas sandy soils have high permeability and low water holding capacity and as such drainage through sandier textured soils is likely to be higher than through heavier (clay) soils (SKM, 2002). The degree of correlation between drainage under very high clay contents becomes less apparent as cracks and other preferential flow paths can increase drainage.

The frequency and distribution of heavy rainfall events, particularly in more arid areas, may provide a greater dependence on local recharge. In semi-arid to arid landscapes where low water fluxes are common, residence times in unsaturated zones may be long, and as such the potential for spatial and temporal variability of recharge can be significant. Moreover, the unpredictability of recharge due to climatic variability (rainfall and evapotranspiration amount, duration and intensity) combined with spatial variability of soil texture presents difficulties when estimating the spatial and temporal variability of recharge. While the spatial variability within a land use class may present uncertainties when assessing site specific recharge rates in a broad ranging correlation. For example, annuals encompass a considerable diversity of annual crops and pastures and can represent a variety of farming management practices, including cropping and fallow rotations, direct drill or conventional tillage, and winter crops or summer crops.

**Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates**

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract Introduction

Conclusions References

Tables Figures

◀ ▶

◀ ▶

Back Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



---

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

---

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Given the broad range of variables presented, up scaling point measurements will lead to even larger uncertainties for any management scale predictions. Up scaling requires mapping of percentage clay content over large areas. Consequently, the accuracy of drainage estimates at management scale boundaries are dependent upon the correlation between the measured soil profile clay content at each investigation site compared to an estimate of clay content from a Geographical Information System (GIS) layer, for example the Soil Landscape Unit (SLU) coverage (DWLBC, 2010). A regression through measured soil textural data and SLU soil textural estimates from Wohling (2007) (data not provided here) gave evidence that use of such a relationship for up scaling was not reliable. Consequently up scaling using SLU estimates of clay content (0–2 m), which will ultimately depend on a correlation between field and SLU estimates of clay content, should be exercised with caution.

An over-riding question is whether there was enough data to give indicative drainage information about perennial (clay content 0–2 m, 7 sites) and tree (clay content 0–2 m, 18 sites) vegetation types? When we combined the trees (clay content 0–2 m, 18 sites) and perennials (clay content 0–2 m, giving a total of 25 data points), the MLR correlation was more significant than either of the individual trees or perennials datasets. It also provided a better regression coefficient ( $R^2$ ) than either of the tree datasets. Until such time as the database can be expanded with more trees and perennials information, use of a combined correlation is prudent.

## 5 Conclusions

By incorporating a multi-linear regression approach, we have been able to establish significant relationships to predict drainage beneath annual and, tree and perennial vegetation types using measured and published soil clay content field data and mean annual rainfall data; we have statistically established that the best metric of the clay content of the soil is the average clay content from 0 to 2 m for both annual vegetation and a combined tree and perennials data set. Previous studies had not used both mean

annual rainfall and measured soil textural data to estimate drainage. Furthermore, given the significance of the correlations between drainage, soil texture and rainfall, we provided 95 % prediction intervals to illustrate the uncertainty of those drainage estimates.

As in the future, drainage rates are estimated at new sites concurrently with the collection of soil texture data, we will be able to improve the relationships between rainfall, clay content and drainage. We expect that the order of magnitude that our 95 % prediction intervals encompass will diminish as the uncertainty of drainage estimates improves with the addition of further data, that encompasses a greater range of clay content and annual rainfall data.

Improving our methodology for estimating drainage rates in areas where data capture has traditionally been difficult, or of low priority, enables predictions of groundwater flow to be developed and modelled with greater reliability. However it is the prediction of uncertainty surrounding those estimates that will ultimately facilitate our capacity to better manage the groundwater resource in times of increasing demand.

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## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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### Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



---

**Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates**

---

D. L. Wohling et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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**Table 1.** Multiple linear regression results under annual vegetation.

Data treatment, ANNUALS	Average clay % (0–0.5 m)	Average clay % (0–1 m)	Average clay % (0–2 m)	Highest clay % (0–2 m)
$R^2$	0.4323	0.4890	0.3521	0.3233
Observations	79	83	177	51
Significant $F$	$4.54 \times 10^{-10}$	$2.17 \times 10^{-12}$	$3.99 \times 10^{-17}$	$8.51 \times 10^{-5}$
$P$ -value (clay variable)	0.867	0.837	$3.7 \times 10^{-5}$	0.608
$P$ -value (rainfall variable)	$1.16 \times 10^{-10}$	$2.84 \times 10^{-13}$	$5.68 \times 10^{-18}$	$2.65 \times 10^{-5}$
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) multiple regression	-0.493	-0.757	-0.039	-1.006
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) multiple regression	$-6.20 \times 10^{-4}$	$7.87 \times 10^{-4}$	$-1.19 \times 10^{-2}$	$-2.75 \times 10^{-3}$
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) multiple regression	$3.52 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.98 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.03 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.38 \times 10^{-3}$
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) 95 % prediction interval – lower			-0.993	
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) 95 % prediction interval – lower			$-1.19 \times 10^{-2}$	
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) 95 % prediction interval – lower			$2.99 \times 10^{-3}$	
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) 95 % prediction interval – higher			0.915	
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) 95 % prediction interval – higher			$-1.19 \times 10^{-2}$	
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) 95 % prediction interval – higher			$3.06 \times 10^{-3}$	

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



**Table 2.** Multiple linear regression results under trees and perennial vegetation types.

	Trees	Perennials	Trees & perennials
Data treatment, trees & perennials	Average clay % (0–2 m)	Average clay % (0–2 m)	Average clay % (0–2 m)
$R^2$	0.7665	0.9373	0.8696
Observations	18	7	25
Significant $F$	$1.83 \times 10^5$	$3.93 \times 10^3$	$1.86 \times 10^{10}$
$P$ -value (clay variable)	$4.92 \times 10^6$	0.727	$1.62 \times 10^6$
$P$ -value (rainfall variable)	$5.89 \times 10^3$	0.039	$2.27 \times 10^7$
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) multiple regression	–0.986	–1.846	–0.723
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) multiple regression	$-3.35 \times 10^2$	$-4.77 \times 10^3$	$-2.74 \times 10^2$
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) multiple regression	$3.62 \times 10^3$	$3.91 \times 10^3$	$2.99 \times 10^3$
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) 95 % prediction interval – lower			–1.671
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) 95 % prediction interval – lower			$-2.76 \times 10^2$
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) 95 % prediction interval – lower			$2.92 \times 10^3$
Coefficient – intercept ( $y_0$ ) 95 % prediction interval – higher			0.225
Coefficient – $b$ (clay) 95 % prediction interval – higher			$-2.72 \times 10^2$
Coefficient – $a$ (rainfall) 95 % prediction interval – higher			$3.08 \times 10^3$

**Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates**

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

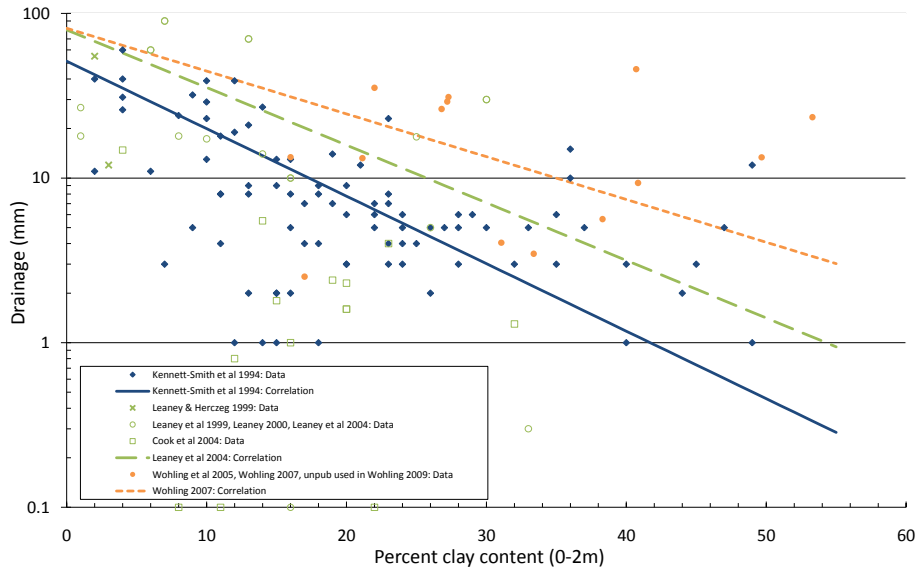
Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion







**Fig. 2.** Summary of drainage and percent clay content (0–2 m) correlations.

**Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates**

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

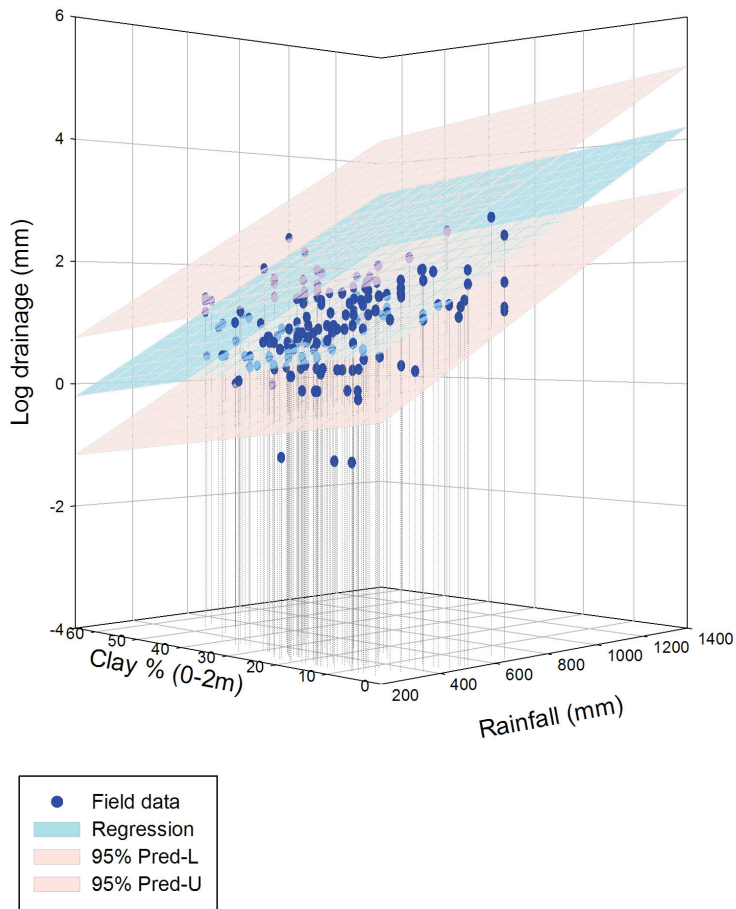
Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion





**Fig. 3.** Plot of regression equation developed for annual vegetation type also showing 95 % prediction intervals.

## Improving confidence in deep drainage estimates

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract Introduction

Conclusions References

Tables Figures

◀ ▶

◀ ▶

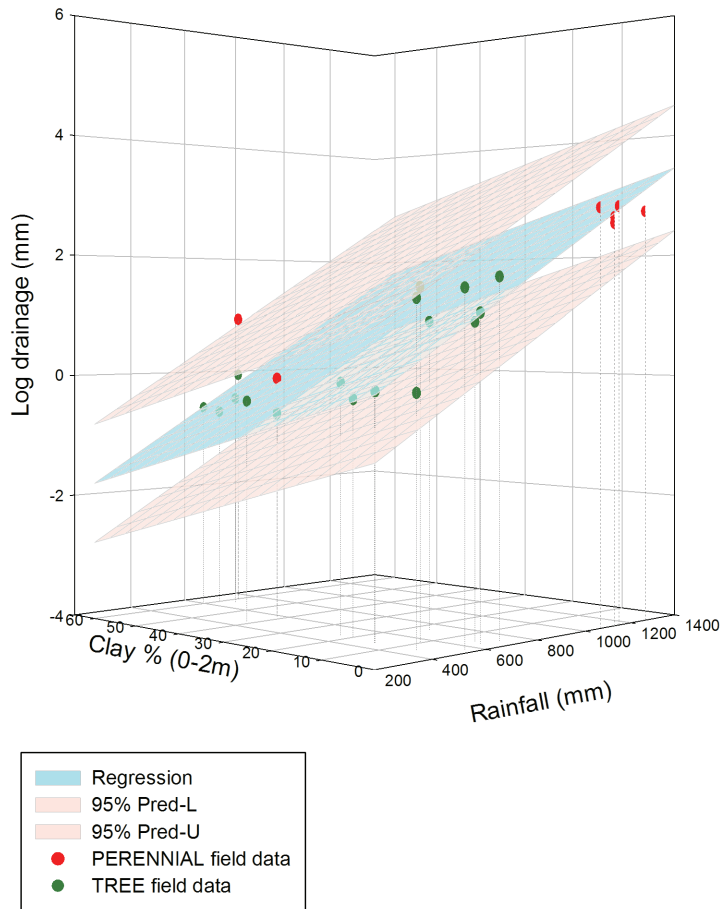
Back Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion





**Fig. 4.** Plot of multi linear regression equation developed for combined tree and perennial vegetation types also showing 95 % prediction intervals.

**Improving confidence  
in deep drainage  
estimates**

D. L. Wohling et al.

Title Page

Abstract Introduction

Conclusions References

Tables Figures

◀ ▶

◀ ▶

Back Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

