

Quantifying groundwater's contribution to regional environmental flows in diverse hydrologic landscapes

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Abstract

Increasing recognition of the importance of ecosystem services in water resources management has accelerated the development and applications of environmental flows requirements for lotic ecosystems which are often dependent on groundwater. However, most environmental flows management focuses on water infrastructure, like dams or diversions, without explicitly taking groundwater into account and ignoring the importance of groundwaters' contribution to environmental flows. Here, we introduce two methods for estimating groundwater contribution to environmental flows: 1) a groundwater-centric method, which proposes that high levels of ecological protection are maintained if 90% of groundwater discharge is preserved and 2) a surface water-centric method, which quantifies groundwater's contribution to environmental flows from streamflow using region-specific streamflow sensitivity metrics and local environmental flows policies. The two methods are tested in British Columbia, Canada, which has a diverse, complex, and highly coupled groundwater-surface water systems. The two methods gave comparable results in different hydrogeoclimatic settings. Though the two methods are demonstrated using British Columbia as a case study, this framework can be implemented across different spatial and temporal scales for different regions and globally in data-scarce, hydrologically complex landscapes. Application of these methods can aid in a robust and holistic assessment of environmental flows, taking into account the often missing groundwater component.

Keywords: Groundwater, Environmental flows, British Columbia, Surface water centric method, Groundwater centric method

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42 surface water-centric method, which quantifies groundwater's contribution to environmental
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55 1 Groundwater, the forgotten contribution to environmental 56 flows

57 Groundwater is a critical resource supporting human well-being (Aldaya, 2017; Konikow & Kendy,
58 2005), freshwater ecosystems (Barlow & Leake, 2012; Constantz, 1998; Noorduijn et al., 2018),
59 irrigation and thus for food security and other economic activities (Dalin et al., 2017; Siebert &
60 Döll, 2010; Wada et al., 2012). As groundwater and surface water systems are hydrologically
61 interconnected in most parts of the world, groundwater plays a pivotal role in contributing to
62 environmental flows that are defined as “the quantity, timing, and quality of water flows required
63 to sustain freshwater and estuarine ecosystems and the human livelihoods and well-being that
64 depend on these ecosystems.” (Arthington et al., 2018). Groundwater contributions also
65 influence water quality, geomorphic evolution, and the character and composition of riparian
66 zones, all of which are essential for maintaining a healthy aquatic ecosystem (Currell et al., 2012;
67 Malcolm et al., 2004; Maxwell & Condon, 2016). Despite groundwater being critical to a myriad
68 of aquatic ecosystems, and broadly impacted, groundwater contributions to streamflow have not
69 been directly considered or quantified in the current environmental flows literature (de Villiers
70 et al., 2008). Environmental flows studies so far focused on surface water alterations such as
71 dams, impoundments, and stream dependent water diversions (Poff & Zimmerman, 2010) even
72 though, the role of groundwater in ecosystem maintenance is long understood at local and
73 regional scales (Barlow & Leake, 2012; Famiglietti, 2014; Konikow & Kendy, 2005). Like other
74 hydrologic systems, groundwater resources are stressed by unsustainable water pumping to
75 meet the growing demands. Groundwater pumping, which is a direct manifestation of human
76 interference, could impact the groundwater discharge and eventually environmental flows in
77 hydrologically connected streams and wetlands (Acreman et al., 2014; Barlow & Leake, 2012;
78 Bierkens & Wada, 2019; de Graaf et al., 2019; Hendriks et al., 2014). Therefore, for environmental
79 flows assessment to be comprehensive, the groundwater’s contribution needs to be explicitly
80 accounted for (Gleeson & Richter, 2018).

81

82 Baseflow (the portion of streamflow that is not directly generated from the excess rainfall during
83 a storm event and often generated through delayed sources), usually sustains the low flows
84 which partially or completely becomes environmental flows. Though baseflow can originate from
85 various sources like groundwater, snowpack, or glaciers, groundwater discharge is often the most
86 common and volumetrically significant portion (Cartwright et al., 2014; Costelloe et al., 2015).
87 Groundwater pumping can have a significant impact on the environmental flows and this impact
88 could vary drastically depending on the length and intensity of pumping (de Graaf et al., 2019).
89 In a natural gaining stream (water flows from groundwater system to streams), groundwater
90 discharge is directly supporting the environmental flows particularly during low flows.
91 Groundwater pumping, however, reduces the groundwater discharge, thereby decreasing the
92 available water to meet environmental flows. Additionally, prolonged pumping widens the cone
93 of depression until all groundwater pumped is derived from streamflow, further reducing
94 environmental flows (Bierkens & Wada, 2019). More than half of watersheds around the world
95 may reach their environmental flows limits before 2050 due to excessive groundwater pumping,
96 as evidenced by a substantial number of watersheds already reaching the limits (de Graaf et al.,
97 2019). As the human dependence on groundwater resources is not likely to decline any time soon
98 and may even increase in the future (due to an increase in demand and climate change), it is
99 crucial to estimate the groundwater contribution to environmental flows scientifically for
100 sustainable water resource management.

101

102 Scientific literature supports environmental flows regimes as essential to sustain freshwater and
103 estuarine ecosystems and the human livelihood (Acreman et al., 2014; Gleeson & Richter, 2018;
104 Harwood et al., 2014; Zektser et al., 2005). However, few methods have been proposed in the
105 literature to quantify groundwater's contribution to environmental flows (Gleeson & Richter,
106 2018; de Graaf et al., 2019). Quantifying groundwater's contribution to environmental flows has
107 multiple possible applications, such as, in aquifer stress evaluation and efficient water allocation.
108 For instance, groundwater stress is often approached as a ratio between groundwater use and
109 availability, where availability is represented as the mean annual groundwater recharge (Richey
110 et al., 2015; Van Beek et al., 2011; Wada et al., 2012). This approach does not consider the

111 environmental needs and overestimates the groundwater available for human use and
112 underestimates the pressure on groundwater systems. An alternate approach for groundwater
113 stress estimation was proposed by Gleeson et al. (2012) considering the difference between
114 recharge and groundwater environmental contribution as the total groundwater availability.
115 Gleeson et al. (2012) used Q_{90} , the monthly streamflow that exceeded 90% of the time during
116 the study period as the groundwater contribution to environmental flows. Though this method
117 works well for streams with low to moderate flow variability, the fixed percentage of 90%
118 throughout the year may not be accurate for streams with highly variable flow. It is therefore
119 necessary to develop methods to estimate groundwater contribution to environmental flows
120 that are more detailed and have more temporal/flow specific discretization. Additionally, none
121 of the existing environmental flows estimation methods explicitly consider groundwater
122 components (Pastor et al., 2014) due to the lack of adequate groundwater discharge data. Thus,
123 there is a research and management requirement to develop methods to estimate groundwater
124 contribution to environmental flows.

125

126 The objective of this study is to develop two novel methods for estimating the groundwater
127 contribution to environmental flows and demonstrate these methods in a case study area (British
128 Columbia (BC)) with a diverse hydrologic and hydrogeologic setting. The first method is a
129 groundwater-centric method from the application of the groundwater presumptive standard
130 defined by (Gleeson & Richter, 2018), Gleeson and Richter (2018) suggest that high levels of
131 ecological protection are maintained if 90% of groundwater monthly averaged discharge is
132 preserved. The second method is a surface-water centric method developed in this study, which
133 quantifies groundwater's contribution to environmental flows from streamflow using region-
134 specific streamflow sensitivity metrics and local environmental flows policies. It is important to
135 emphasize that the applicability of the two methods in this paper is not limited to the modeled
136 data or scale used here, which are only meant as a first example application. Both the methods
137 can be applied across different spatial and temporal scales based on data availability and
138 application requirements. At smaller scales, these methods can be used with higher resolution
139 model data or field-based data.

140 **2 Methods and Data**

141 **2.1 Groundwater contribution to environmental flows**

142 The groundwater contribution to environmental flows can be estimated either by adopting a
143 groundwater-centric method or by using a surface water-centric method. In the groundwater-
144 centric method, groundwater-supported environmental flows are estimated using modeled
145 groundwater discharge to the streams. Whereas, in the later, the low flows in the streams are
146 used based on the assumption that the entire low flows in the streams are supported by
147 groundwater. Both methods can be applied at varying temporal and spatial scales. In this study,
148 however, the methods are demonstrated using monthly simulated data (1960 to 2010) and the
149 results are presented as annual aggregates. The slow nature of groundwater discharge and the
150 regional extent of this study makes this choice reasonable. The two methods were systematically
151 compared at different spatial scales (regional scale, biogeoclimatic zones and hydrozones) both
152 statistically (using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and graphically. The difference between the two
153 methods was determined to assess the comparability of the estimates, and multiscale
154 aggregation was applied to test how these differences vary with different hydroclimatic
155 conditions. Additionally, the methods were applied separately in rainfall dominant regions and
156 snowfall dominant regions (described in Section 2.2).

157 For the current case study, the streamflow and groundwater discharge outputs from a global-
158 scale groundwater and surface water model were used. For a detailed model description, we
159 refer to de Graaf et al (2017, 2019), a summarized description is given below. The model consists
160 of a coupling between the hydrological model PCR-GLOBWB2.0 (Sutanudjaja et al. 2018) and a
161 groundwater flow model based on MODFLOW (de Graaf et al. 2019). This coupled groundwater
162 and surface water model runs at high spatial resolution (5-arcminutes globally) at a daily to
163 monthly time step. The model simulates groundwater and surface water storages and fluxes and
164 interaction between groundwater, surface water, soil moisture, and atmosphere. Unique of this
165 model is the dynamic coupling between groundwater and surface water resources via
166 groundwater drainage and river infiltration (de Graaf et al 2019) and the globally detailed
167 parameterization of the sub-surface, including the simulation of groundwater flow for confined

168 and unconfined conditions (de Graaf et al 2015, 2017). For this study, model outputs of a
169 historical human run (i.e., including human water uses) were used (de Graaf et al 2019).

170 One could argue that a regionally or locally calibrated model outputs or observed data would be
171 more accurate to use in a regional study. The intention of this paper, however, is to develop and
172 compare two methods for estimating groundwater contribution to environmental flows. The
173 current model inputs are used for demonstration purposes. Therefore, these methods could be
174 forced with streamflow/groundwater discharge data from a well parameterized regional or local
175 model, if and when it is available. In this study, however, global-scale modeled data were chosen,
176 because of the unavailability of uniformly gridded data with adequate temporal range,
177 particularly for groundwater discharge. Additionally, even at a larger scale, a reliable non
178 modeled groundwater discharge dataset does not exist for the required spatial and temporal
179 scale.

180

181 **2.1.1 Groundwater centric method**

182

183 The groundwater centric method (presumptive standard method) is based on the Sustainability
184 Boundary Approach ((Richter, 2010)), which involves restricting hydrologic alterations to within
185 a percentage-based range of natural or historical flow variability (Fig. 1.a). The groundwater
186 presumptive standard is a standard for managing groundwater pumping appropriate for
187 maintaining environmental flows by explicitly including the potential impacts of groundwater
188 pumping over long temporal scales. The groundwater presumptive standard suggests that high
189 levels of ecological protection will be provided if groundwater pumping decreases monthly
190 natural baseflow by not less than 10% through time (Gleeson & Richter, 2018). The groundwater
191 presumptive standard of 10% should be considered nested within and part of current EF
192 frameworks for streamflow rather than additional 10%. This presumptive standard is intended to
193 provide estimation of environmental flows where detailed scientific assessment of
194 environmental flows cannot be undertaken. The groundwater presumptive standard is estimated
195 as:

$$E_{GW} = 0.9 \cdot Q_{dis} \quad 1)$$

196 where

197 E_{GW} is groundwater's contribution to environmental flows based on the groundwater
198 centric method [m yr^{-1}]

199 Q_{dis} is groundwater discharge, the flux from the aquifer to the stream [m yr^{-1}]

200

201 Spatially distributed estimates of annual groundwater discharge (aggregated from monthly
202 estimated groundwater discharge routed along the stream network) for 51 years (1960 to 2010)
203 were derived from the global hydrological model (as described in section 2.1). More specifically,
204 and relevant for the groundwater centric method, is the interaction between groundwater and
205 surface water and related boundary conditions. Namely, large lakes and the ocean are
206 represented as a Dirichlet boundary condition, where the ocean groundwater head was set to 0
207 m, and water levels of the lakes were set at elevation levels provided by the HydroSHEDS digital
208 elevation map (Lehner & Grill, 2013). The groundwater body and surface water body interactions
209 are incorporated in the groundwater model through MODFLOW's river (RIV) and drain (DRN)
210 packages. Three levels of groundwater-surface water interactions are represented in the model
211 (de Graaf et al., 2017; de Graaf et al., 2015): (1) large rivers, wider than 10 m, (2) smaller rivers,
212 smaller than 10 m, and (3) springs and streams higher up in the valley. A summarized description
213 of how these interactions is simulated is given below, for a more detailed description we refer to
214 de Graaf et al (2017).

215 For large rivers, water is drained from the groundwater system to the river when the simulated
216 groundwater head is above the river head. When modeled groundwater heads drop below the
217 river head, river water infiltrates the groundwater system. This flux, Q_{riv_large} , is calculated in the
218 RIV-package and is positive for infiltration (water entering the system groundwater) and negative
219 for drainage (groundwater leaving the groundwater system). In smaller rivers, the riverbed is
220 assumed to be at the surface elevation, and the groundwater is drained into the river when the
221 simulated groundwater head lies above the riverbed. This flux (Q_{riv_small}), is also calculated in the
222 RIV-package. Runoff, generated by snowmelt, surface runoff, interflow, and groundwater

223 discharge, is routed along the river network to the ocean, lakes, or wetlands using a kinematic
224 wave routing (Sutanudjaja et al., 2018).

225 The groundwater-surface water interactions estimated for large and smaller rivers are the main
226 components of the estimated groundwater discharge. At the 5-arcminutes resolution, however,
227 local springs, and streams higher up in the mountain are not represented well enough by larger
228 and smaller rivers only. Therefore, it is assumed that groundwater drainage above the floodplain
229 level can be tapped by local springs, which are represented as a linear storage-outflow
230 relationship. This flux, Q_{drn} , is calculated in the DRN-package. The total groundwater discharge,
231 Q_{bf} , is thus calculated as:

232

$$Q_{bf} = Q_{riv-large} + Q_{riv-small} + Q_{drn} \quad 2)$$

233 where

234 Q_{bf} is the total groundwater discharge [$m^3 d^{-1}$]

235 $Q_{riv-large}$ is the groundwater drainage or infiltration from groundwater to the surface water
236 estimated for large rivers (width > 10 m) [$m^3 d^{-1}$]

237 $Q_{riv-small}$ is the groundwater drainage from groundwater to surface water estimated for
238 small rivers (width < 10 m) [$m^3 d^{-1}$]

239 Q_{drn} is the is the groundwater drainage representing drainage by local sags, springs, and
240 streams higher up in the mountain [$m^3 d^{-1}$]

241 For this study, Q_{bf} was converted to annual fluxes, $m^3 y^{-1}$. Also, for the methods developed in this
242 study we focused on groundwater drainage only and cells where the yearly sum is 'infiltration'
243 were ignored in the analysis.

244 **2.1.2 Surface water centric method**

245 During low flow conditions, groundwater is often the sole source of river water, and is a critical
246 flux particularly in montane environments which sustains downstream water supplies and
247 provide other ecosystem services (Frisbee et al., 2011). Low flows are often identified using Q_{90}
248 or Q_{80} rule, where flows lower than the 90th or 80th percentile respectively, equate to low flow

249 conditions (Pastor et al., 2014). This method uses a surface water centric position to identify
250 groundwater fluxes from streamflow hydrographs and explicitly considers surface water EF
251 metrics (Fig. 1.b). The environmental flows metrics in this study are based on the environmental
252 flows policy (BC EF policy) for British Columbia (Province of British Columbia 2016b) (similar
253 methodologies are used globally (Pastor et al., 2014)). The stream sensitive classification (Table
254 1) based on BC EF policy is used here to estimate the proportion of annual streamflow reserved
255 for environmental flows. With the use of BC EF policy, the final estimates will be at annual scale
256 but alternatively, a monthly or daily methodology could be developed by applying a similar logic
257 to the flow sensitivities. In the following, a method for calculating the annual contribution of
258 groundwater is described but alternatively, sub-annual contributions could be calculated if the
259 role of groundwater contribution during high flow months was understood.

260

261 Groundwater's contribution to environmental flows (E_{SW}) based on this method can be described
262 as:

$$E_{SW} = k_{EFN} * Q_{GW} \quad 3)$$

263 where

264 E_{SW} is groundwater's contribution to environmental flows based on surface water centric
265 method [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

266 k_{EFN} is the coefficient representing the proportion of annual streamflow reserved for EF [-
267]

268 Q_{GW} is mean annual groundwater supported streamflow [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

269

270 In order to derive the mean annual groundwater supported streamflow (Q_{GW}), each month is
271 classified into low, moderate, and high sensitivity months using Mean Monthly Streamflow
272 (MMF) data (Table 1). The high sensitivity months are assumed to represent a low flow season
273 that is primarily supported by groundwater. The maximum monthly flow during low flow
274 conditions was used as a representative MMF (Q_{LF}) to provide a conservative estimate of
275 groundwater's contribution to streamflow. For major streams which never enter low flow
276 conditions, the representative MMF is the lowest monthly flow within the intermediate or high
277 flow conditions. The mean annual groundwater supported streamflow (Q_{GW}) is derived using the

278 extrapolation of the representative MMF (Q_{LF}) based on the sensitivity classification.
279 Groundwater discharge to streams increases during high flow conditions, and therefore, using
280 such an annual extrapolation would in some cases yield an underestimation of annual
281 groundwater supported streamflow.

282
283 Q_{GW} represents groundwater's annual contribution to streamflow normalized by grid cell area:
284

$$Q_{GW} = \frac{12 \cdot f_{local} \cdot Q_{LF}}{A_{cell}} \quad 4)$$

285 where

286 Q_{GW} is mean annual groundwater supported streamflow [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

287 f_{local} is the ratio of locally derived streamflow (from grid cell area) to total streamflow [-]

288 Q_{LF} is the representative MMF [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

289 A_{cell} is area of the grid cell ($\sim 100 \text{ km}^2$) [m^2]

290
291 The surface water discharge generated within a grid cell was calculated by subtracting the
292 upstream routed discharge from the cell's discharge. The local additions equate to the sum of
293 discharges into the stream from the local cell area, such as baseflow, runoff, interflow. The ratio
294 of local additions to streamflow, f_{local} , are derived as follows:

295

$$f_{local} = \left(1 - \frac{Q_{LF, \text{upstream}}}{Q_{LF}}\right) \quad 5)$$

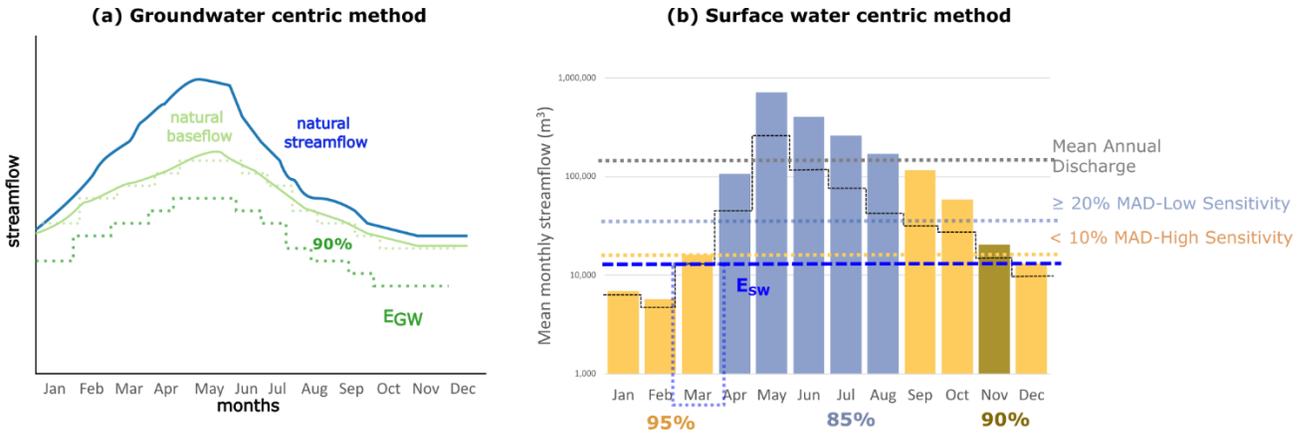
296 where

297 f_{local} is the ratio of locally derived streamflow (from grid cell area) to total streamflow [-]

298 $Q_{LF, \text{upstream}}$ is the upstream flow of the representative MMF [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

299 Q_{LF} is the representative MMF [$m^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$]

300



301

302 Fig. 1 Conceptual diagram of a) Groundwater centric method and b) Surface water centric
 303 method for estimating groundwater contribution to environmental flows

304 Note: MAD = Mean Annual Discharge; See Table 1 for the definition of High and Low Sensitivity

305

306 Table 1. Classification of flow sensitivities based on BC EF policy using mean monthly flows and
 307 mean annual discharge values.

Hydrologic season	Stream classification	Criteria	k _{EFN}
Low flow	High sensitivity	<10% MAD	95%
Intermediate flow	Moderate sensitivity	10-20% MAD	90%
High flow	Low sensitivity	>20% MAD	80%

308 Note: MAD – Mean Annual Discharge

309

310 2.2 Hydrology of British Columbia

311 This study uses British Columbia (BC), Canada as an example study area to demonstrate the
 312 groundwater centric and surface water centric methods (See section 2.1). British Columbia (total
 313 area = 944735 km²) is one of the most hydro-climatically diverse regions in North America,
 314 consisting of around 14 distinct biogeoclimatic zones that have been previously mapped. It lies
 315 in Western Cordillera of North America bordered by the Pacific Ocean in the western side and
 316 Rocky Mountain ranges in the east. The northeastern part of the province, however, extends

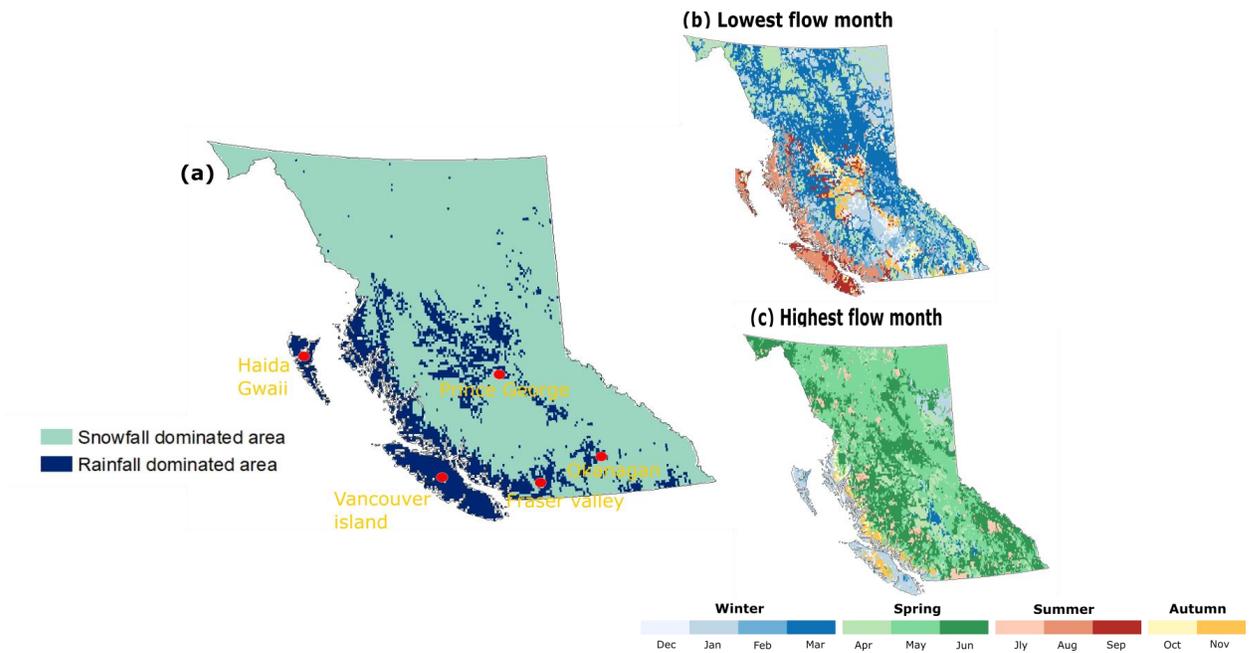
317 beyond the Rocky ranges into the Alberta Plateau (Pike et al., 2010). The study area is
318 characterized by a wide variety of terrain types and hydrogeological materials, from mountain
319 peaks exceeding 4000 m in elevation to broad plateaus and alluvial valleys at sea level. The annual
320 precipitation received in British Columbia varies widely from around 4100 mm/yr on the coast to
321 320 mm/yr in the arid interior, largely determined by the mountain ranges along the coast and
322 the eastern border (Pike et al., 2010).

323
324 British Columbia consists of around 1130 mapped aquifers, with 36% (404 aquifers) being
325 unconfined and 64% (726 aquifers) being confined in nature (Berardinucci & Ronneseth, 2002).
326 The aquifers in British Columbia are categorized into six major types based on hydrogeology: 1)
327 unconfined fluvial/glaciofluvial aquifers: sand and gravel aquifers that are generally shallow,
328 unconfined, and occur along river or stream valleys (e.g., Chilliwack-Rosedale aquifer along the
329 Fraser River, aquifers along the Cowichan River on the east coast of Vancouver Island, aquifers
330 along the Kettle River at the Southern Interior), 2) unconfined deltaic aquifers: sand and gravel
331 aquifers that are shallow, unconfined, and which form deltas at the mouth of rivers and streams
332 (e.g., the Scotch Creek aquifer at Shuswap Lake), 3) unconfined alluvial or colluvial aquifers: sand
333 and gravel aquifers that form alluvial fans or are of colluvial origin near the land surface (e.g.,
334 Vedder River Fan aquifer at the City of Chilliwack), 4) aquifers of glacial or pre-glacial origin:
335 identified in well records as occurring at depths underneath till or glaciolacustrine deposits, and
336 glaciomarine sand, sand and gravel aquifers (e.g., Abbotsford-Sumas Aquifer in Cordillera Region,
337 Quadra Sand in Georgia Depression, aquifers in low-lying areas in the Fraser Lowland), 5)
338 sedimentary bedrock aquifers: consists of fractured sedimentary rocks and karstic limestone
339 rocks (e.g, Nanaimo group) and 6) crystalline bedrock aquifers: consists of flat lying to gently
340 dipping volcanic aquifers and fractured crystalline rocks (e.g., large volcanic bedrock aquifer in
341 the Central Interior, aquifer underlying the Saanich Peninsula). Each of these categories of
342 aquifers had its unique characteristics in terms of development and vulnerability that requires
343 unique ways of sustainable management. This heterogeneity allows the proposed methodology
344 to be tested in multiple settings. In similar fashion to the hydrogeologic diversity, the stream flow
345 sensitivity to groundwater discharge is also very heterogeneous in British Columbia. Accounting

346 for this difference in the stream sensitivity is crucial in formulating environmental flows
347 regulations.

348

349 Streamflow in British Columbia is highly seasonal and controlled by localized climatic influences.
350 Based on the dominant source of the streamflow, the regions in British Columbia can be classified
351 into rainfall dominant areas, snowfall dominant areas and mixed regions (Fig. 2) (Allen et al.,
352 2010). As the name implies, in the rainfall dominant regions, precipitation in the form of rainfall
353 is the largest contributor to the streamflow. These regions are characterized with early winter
354 (November - December) high flows and late summer (July - August) low flows. Rain dominated
355 systems are found primarily in the coastal lowland areas and at lower elevations on the western
356 Coastal Mountains. These regions are strongly influenced by precipitation intensity with
357 relatively little smoothing or lagging evident in stream hydrographs. In contrast, the snow
358 dominant regions of the interior plateau and mountain areas at higher elevations have
359 streamflow more derived from melting snow with highest flows in spring (April - June) and low
360 flows during the winter months. These systems integrate precipitation inputs over the winter and
361 spring within the snowpack then release the stored water during spring-summer melt.



362

363 Fig. 2 a) Rainfall dominant and snowfall dominant areas in BC along with (b) lowest and (c) highest
364 flow months.

365

366 **3 Results**

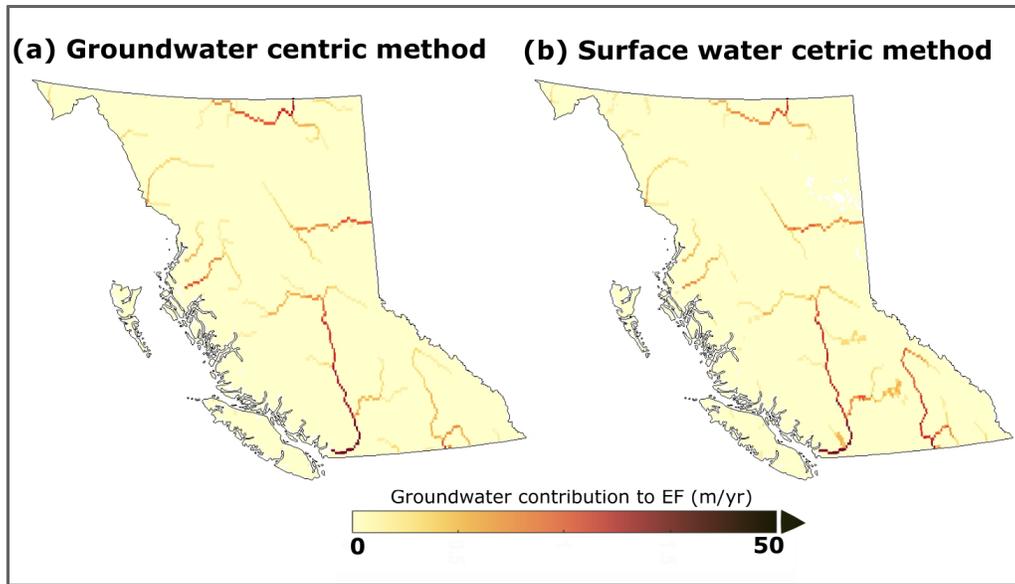
367 **3.1 Estimated role of groundwater in maintaining environmental flows in British Columbia**

368 In British Columbia, the average groundwater contribution to environmental flows was estimated
369 as 25 and 27% of mean annual precipitation by groundwater centric method (E_{GW}) and surface
370 water centric (E_{SW}) method, respectively. Both the methods produce higher groundwater
371 contribution estimates in regions with significant hydraulic connection (mostly along the major
372 rivers) (Fig. 3). The Fraser River that flows from Fraser pass in Rocky Mountain to Strait of Georgia
373 near Vancouver was estimated to have the highest groundwater contribution in British Columbia,
374 by both the methods (Fig. 3) followed by the Okanagan region. When the mean annual fluxes of
375 groundwater contribution to environmental flows for the entire study area were compared, the
376 snowfall dominated regions were having higher contribution than the rainfall dominated regions.
377 The mean contribution in the rainfall dominated region was approximately three times less than
378 that of snowfall dominated region (Fig. SI 1).

379

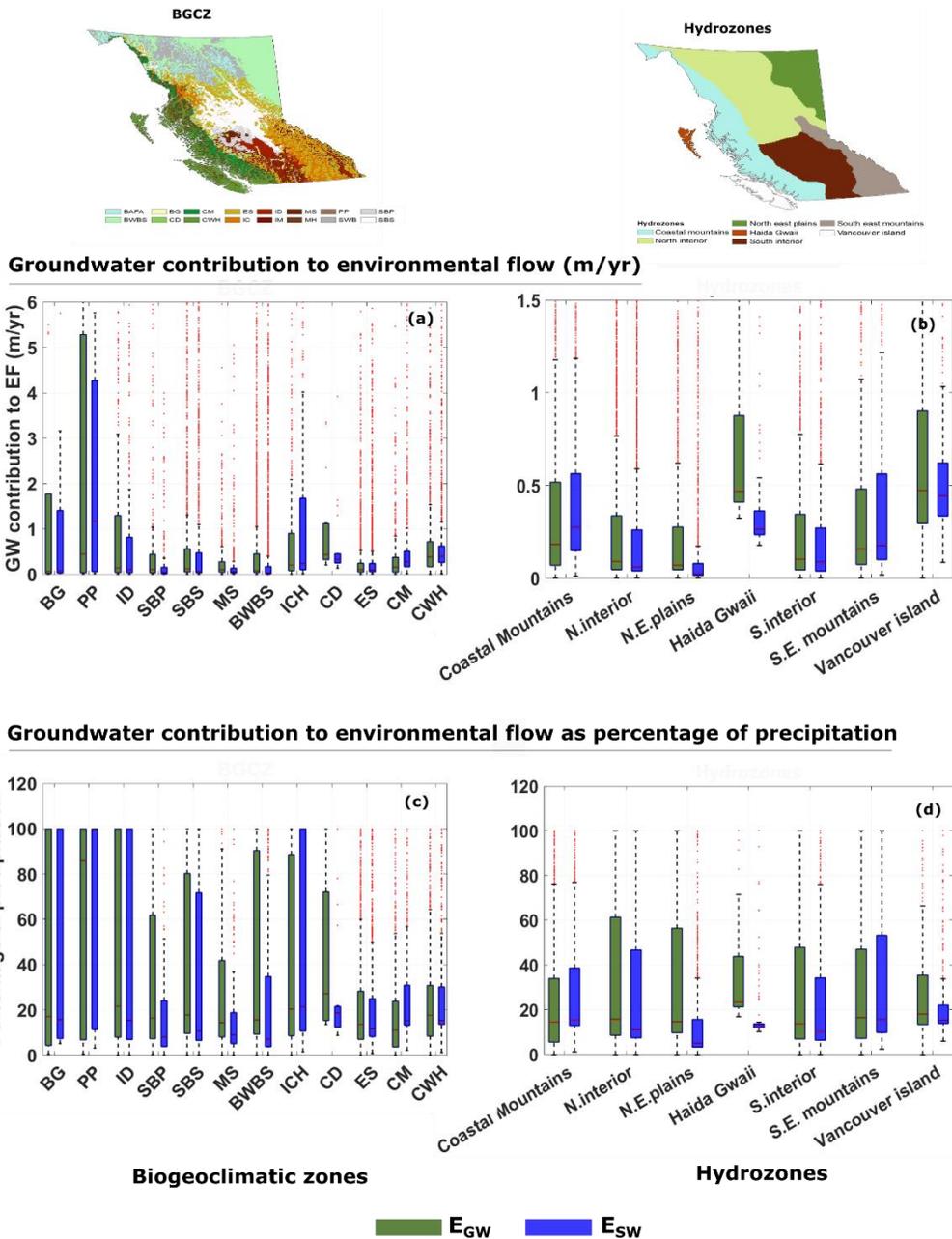
380 In general, the groundwater contribution to environmental flows is higher in the drier
381 biogeoclimatic zones (Bunchgrass (BG), Ponderosa Pine (PP) and Interior Douglas-fir (ID)) than
382 the more wetter zones (Fig. 4a), except for Interior Cedar Hemlock (ICH) (Fig. 4b). In most
383 hydrozones the two methods have very similar results except in Haida Gwaii where the
384 groundwater centric method was estimating higher values compared to the surface water centric
385 method. In drier regions in particular, the groundwater contribution to environmental flows was
386 almost or slightly greater than 100% of the total precipitation received in these regions. This is
387 likely due to the upstream flow contribution to the grids during the routing process.

388



389

390 Fig. 3 Spatial map of mean groundwater contribution to environmental flows in BC calculated
391 using (a) groundwater centric method and (b) surface water centric method.



392

393 Fig. 4 Estimates of E_{GW} and E_{SW} by (a) biogeoclimatic zones (driest on the left and wettest on

394 the right), (b) hydro zones; along with E_{GW} and E_{SW} as percentage of precipitation in

395 different (c) biogeoclimatic zones and (d) hydrozones.

396 **Note:** CM-Coastal Mountain-heather Alpine, IM-Interior Mountain-heather Alpine, MH - Mountain Hemlock, SBS-Sub-Boreal Spruce, BAFA-
 397 Boreal Altai Fescue Alpine, ICH-Interior Cedar -- Hemlock, PP-Ponderosa Pine, SBP-Sub-Boreal Pine -- Spruce, MS-Montane Spruce, ES-
 398 Engelmann Spruce -- Subalpine Fir, ID-Interior Douglas-fir, CWH-Coastal Western Hemlock, BG-Bunchgrass, SWB-Spruce -- Willow -- Birch,
 399 BWBS-Boreal White and Black Spruce, CD- Coastal Douglas-fir

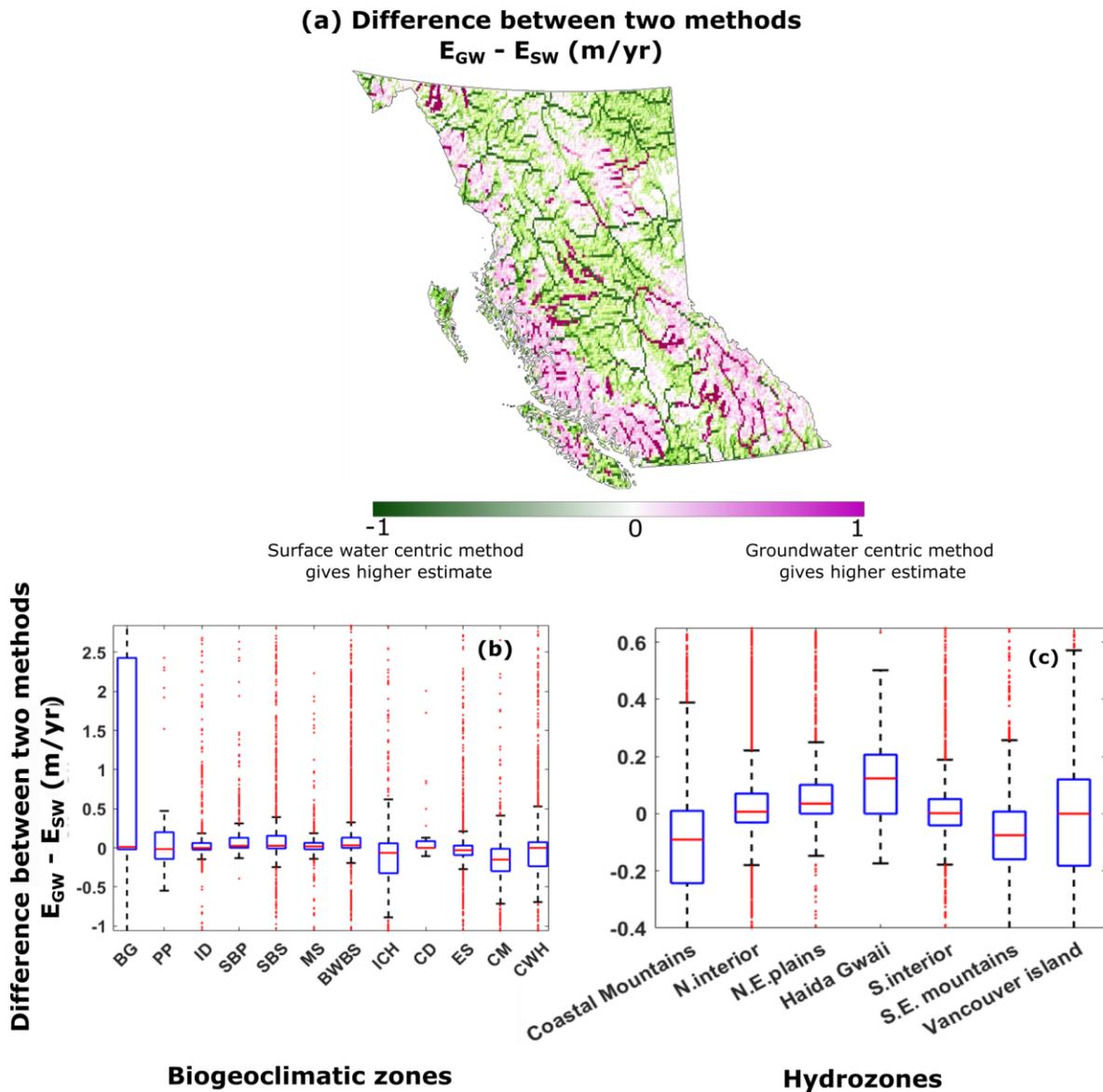
400

401 **3.2 Comparison between two methods to estimate groundwater contribution to**
402 **environmental flows**

403 When the two methods are compared using graphical and statistical methods (results given in
404 supplementary information, see Table S2), the surface water centric method gives higher
405 estimates compared to groundwater centric method along most of the major rivers in British
406 Columbia, except in the Okanagan region (Fig. 5). However, the difference between the two
407 methods is low when averaged over British Columbia (average difference = 0.32 m/yr). In general,
408 the groundwater centric method was producing slightly higher estimates along the Coastal
409 Mountains, Central Vancouver Island and Okanagan region. Despite the difference, when
410 aggregated to the hydrozone level or the biogeoclimatic zones, the median difference between
411 the two methods becomes negligible (close to zero) (Fig. 5 b,c). The statistical difference between
412 the two methods was found significant in most biogeoclimatic zones and hydrozones (see Table
413 S2 in supplementary information). The graphical method is however more reliable in this case as
414 the estimates in each of the zones were having non normal distribution (see Table S3 and S4 in
415 supplementary information).

416
417 When looking at stream order, the groundwater centric method estimates higher values along
418 higher order streams in the southeastern and southwestern part of the study area. Whereas the
419 surface water centric method was giving comparatively higher estimates along the higher order
420 streams for the rest of the province (Fig. 5). On the other hand, when it comes to lower order
421 streams, the groundwater method was giving slightly higher estimates along the Coastal
422 mountain and South eastern region and groundwater centric method was giving slightly higher
423 estimates for the rest of the study area. The comparative performance of the two methods were
424 similar in rainfall dominated and snowfall dominated areas of the province.

425



426

427 Fig. 5 (a) Map showing difference between the groundwater centric method and surface water
 428 centric method for estimating the groundwater contribution to environmental flows and the
 429 difference is also categorized for (b) BGCZ and (c) Hydrozones

430 **4 Discussion - the need and limitations of new methods**

431 Regional to local scale methods of estimating groundwater contribution to environmental flows
 432 are critical for groundwater management, allocation licenses, and mitigation of stream
 433 supported ecosystem deterioration. In a future with increased demand for water from all
 434 sources, it is essential to have integrated management to ensure sustainable water availability to

435 both humans and ecosystems. Herein, two methods for estimating groundwater contribution to
436 environmental flows, which could be a key addition to the integrated management toolkit are
437 discussed.

438 **4.1 The need for quantifying groundwater contribution to environmental flows**

439 To the best of the knowledge of the authors, there are no scientifically robust methods available
440 to estimate the groundwater part of environmental flows. Consequently, few or no
441 environmental flows policies consider groundwater in the allocation process. This elimination
442 could lead to the underestimated environmental flows allocation in regions where rivers are
443 hydraulically connected to overexploited aquifers. There are several examples around the world
444 where stream depletion and ecosystem degradation can be directly linked to groundwater
445 pumping (Alley et al., 2018). By excluding groundwater in environmental flows estimation, not
446 only is the quantity of flow underestimated, but also its quality. Groundwater part of
447 environmental flows plays a key role in regulating the temperature adequate to maintain a high
448 quality functional aquatic habitat (Lapides et al., 2022). In such scenarios where an integrated
449 groundwater-environmental flow management is essential, the use of the proposed methods can
450 give firsthand information on when and where the streams are sensitive to groundwater
451 contribution and thus prioritize the conservation efforts.

452
453 The methods developed in this study can have multiple applications. These methods could be
454 made use in the groundwater informed environmental flows policies formulation process and/or
455 to set ecologically informed groundwater availability limits for human development. In general,
456 methods for quantifying aquifer development capacity are solely based on recharge and will over
457 allocate groundwater resources for human needs, possibly leading to detrimental effects on local
458 ecosystems. Additionally, the unaccounted groundwater hydraulic connectivity could lead to an
459 over or under allocation of environmental flows in heavily managed aquifer- river systems.
460 Therefore, with the application of either of the proposed methods, the underestimation of the
461 environmental flows and the overestimation of groundwater availability for human use can be
462 eliminated.

463

464 Advantages and disadvantages exist for both methods. Namely, E_{GW} is advantageous as it is more
465 aligned with groundwater stress management and represents a peer-reviewed approach to
466 evaluating environmental flows. However, validating groundwater discharge estimates especially
467 at larger scales is inherently difficult (Smakhtin, 2001; Tallaksen, 1995), therefore, uncertainty
468 exists in using modeled groundwater discharge values. In contrast, the E_{SW} method quantifies
469 groundwater contribution to EF using streamflow data, however, the surface water centric
470 approach does not consider groundwater fluxes explicitly. Advantages of the surface water
471 centric approach include being able to apply a regionally specific value to represent k_{EFN} based
472 on stream sensitivity and streamflow data is often more abundant and measurable compared to
473 groundwater discharge data.

474
475 The generic nature and the scale independence makes these methods suitable for local to global
476 scale depending on the data availability. For instance, in resource limited situations, these
477 methods can be forced with a high resolution global/regional hydrological model to identify the
478 regions with higher groundwater- environmental flows sensitivity and to prioritize the regions
479 for further detailed evolution. Or if a finer resolution well parameterized local model outputs are
480 available for a region, it can be used along with these methods as well. In addition, these methods
481 are not limited to the modeled output, but can also be used in conjunction with observed
482 streamflow data. To be able to apply these methods to other areas, it is crucial to constrain
483 uncertainty and limitations of the analyses. If the methods are applied with modeled data,
484 comparing the model input parameters of permeability to aquifer permeability values would help
485 constrain the model's ability to simulate aquifer/local scale processes. Moreover, the surface
486 water centric method only considers the low flow months (high flow is considered only if there
487 are no low flow months) in the estimation, which makes the estimates more conservative,
488 particularly in regions with non-uniform annual precipitation. Therefore, this method is most
489 suitable for regions where the intra annual precipitation deviation is low. In addition, further
490 investigation into how the model performs in diverse hydro-ecologic settings would be crucial to
491 properly constrain the limitations in the groundwater's contribution to environmental flows.

492

493 **4.3 Method limitations**

494 The groundwater centric method which uses a presumptive standard is a peer reviewed
495 volumetric allocation approach that is easily implemented, readily understood, and provides a
496 stable and reliable basis of maximum allowable abstraction on an annual basis. However, the
497 groundwater centric method is limited by data availability, and therefore, the estimates are
498 dependent on modeled values of groundwater discharge. In addition, the fixed value of 10%
499 tolerance does not necessarily account for regionally specific environmental flows policies, nor
500 does it account for variable stream sensitivity to groundwater fluxes, seasonal variability for
501 habitat. However, from a groundwater standpoint, it does provide a conservative metric for
502 protecting the long-term effects of pumping on groundwater's contribution to environmental
503 flows.

504
505 The surface water centric approach to quantifying groundwater's contribution to EF, is similarly
506 a volumetric allocation method, however with an emphasis on protecting low flows. Low flow
507 periods are often supported by groundwater processes (Barlow & Leake, 2012; Poff et al., 1997;
508 Smakhtin, 2001), however, in diverse hydrologic environments, this assumption is often invalid.
509 For example, at high elevations, influences of meltwater on the hydrograph can decrease the
510 ratio of groundwater to surface water supporting low flows. With the streamflow sensitivity
511 classification and flexible proportion of annual streamflow reserved for EF (k_{EFN}), streams with
512 variable flows, such as those at headwaters, can be protected better. This approach is less
513 conservative for low sensitivity streams, as allocations increase in these areas, which does not
514 explicitly protect against the long-term effects of groundwater abstraction, but rather sets a limit
515 on maximum abstraction mitigating low flow deterioration. Though the methods presented in
516 this paper have multiple applications in water management, authors acknowledge the need for
517 considering the local heterogeneity and complexities including effects of non-hydrologic facets
518 like temperature, water chemistry and aquatic responses for understanding actual EF needs. In
519 addition, these methods do not account for the quality of water discharged into the streams.
520 Further research would be required to fully understand the implications of applying these
521 methods in integration with water quality signatures at different scales. Though the model data

522 is only used for the demonstration purpose in this study, we acknowledge the limitations in the
523 application of a relatively coarse resolution model in hydrologically complex and heterogenous
524 environments. The resolution of this study is not useful or appropriate for water resource or
525 allocation decisions at the scale of individual aquifers but is valuable for examining the patterns
526 of spatial and statistics trends across this heterogeneous landscape. Therefore, the results in this
527 paper are presented as provincial-scale maps or aquifer-scale statistical plots rather than
528 displaying or discussing results from individual aquifers.

529 **5 Conclusion**

530 The main object of this study was to develop two methods to quantify groundwater contribution
531 to environmental flows and to demonstrate it using a Canadian study area (British Columbia).
532 The first method is a groundwater-centric method from the application of the groundwater
533 presumptive standard defined by Gleeson and Richter (2018), which suggests that high levels of
534 ecological protection are maintained if 90% of baseflow is preserved. The second surface-water
535 centric approach is a novel method which quantifies groundwater's contribution to
536 environmental flows, with streamflow as input and using region-specific streamflow sensitivity
537 metrics and local environmental flows policies. The developed methods are scale independent
538 and can be used from local to global scale at diverse temporal resolution if there is adequate data
539 available. The estimation of groundwater contribution to environmental flows can have a
540 profound impact on formulating a holistic environmental flows policy and allocation. In
541 conclusion, this paper contributes valuable knowledge on groundwater resources in British
542 Columbia, and additionally, provides methods which can be further applied in data scarce
543 hydrologically complex landscapes worldwide.

544 **Author Contribution**

545 TG, TF and CM devised the conceptual framework of this study with inputs from JSF and IG. IG
546 provided the global-scale modeled data for the analysis and rest of the data are jointly compiled
547 by CM and TF. CM performed the analysis required for this manuscript with help from TF. CM
548 produced the results and visualization shown in the study, and the interpretation of the results

549 was done with help from TG, IG, JSF and TF. CM took the lead in writing the manuscript with
550 major contributions from TG and IG. All authors provided critical feedback and helped shape the
551 research, analysis and manuscript.

552 **Compelling Interests**

553 The authors declare no competing interests.

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556 hydrological calculations were carried out on the Dutch national e-infrastructure with the
557 support of SURF Cooperative.

558 **Data availability**

559 All data needed to reproduce the analysis done in this manuscript will be made available via
560 University of Victoria data repository, Dataverse after the paper is accepted. Additionally, all the
561 codes used in this study are also made available via. GitHub.

562

563 Data for reproducing the results of this study is temporarily provided via. Google drive for the
564 review purpose. Link to data:

565 https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1EOqS46_fHQg8J-eF2yia68p5ZyYdqm8E?usp=sharing

566 **Supplementary Information**

567 Supplementary information is submitted as a separate document.

568

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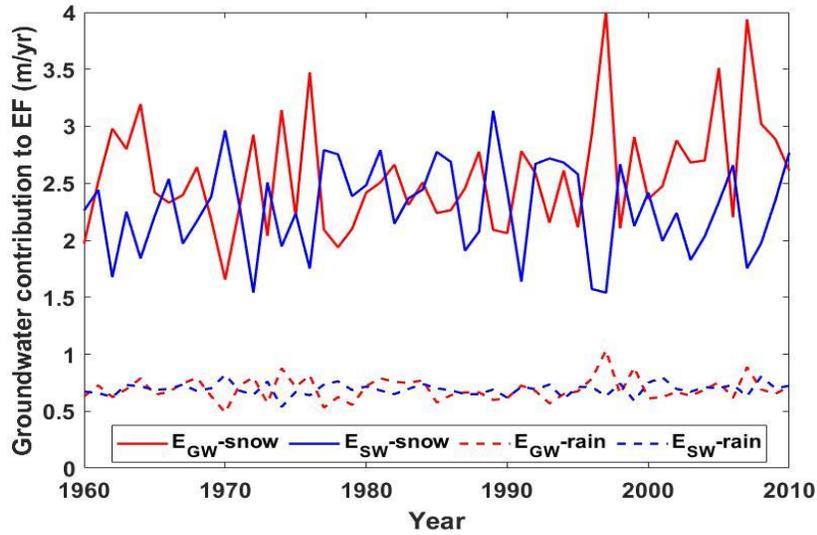
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1 **S1 Groundwater contribution to environmental flows estimation in snowfall dominated and**
2 **rainfall dominated regions in British Columbia**

3

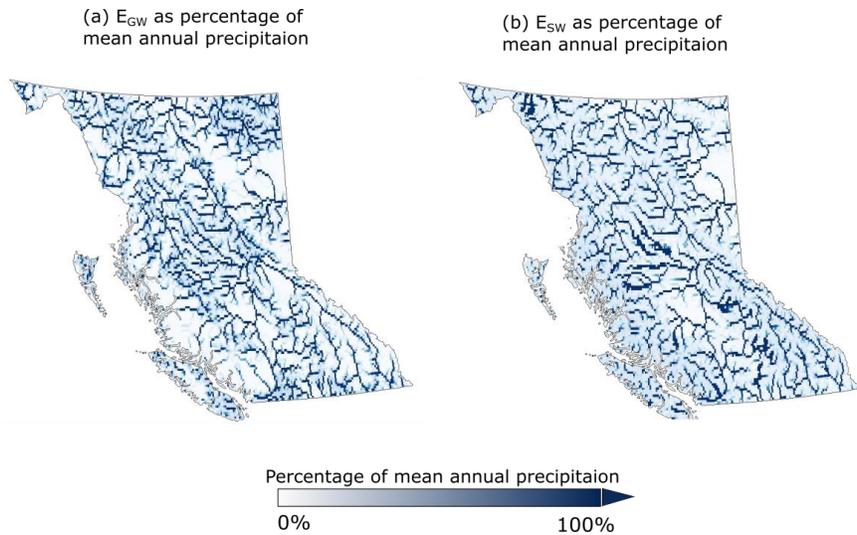


4

5 Fig. SI1 Mean annual groundwater contribution to environmental flows in snowfall dominant
6 areas ($E_{GW-snow}$, $E_{SW-snow}$) and rainfall dominant areas ($E_{GW-rain}$, $E_{SW-rain}$) in British Columbia

7 **S2 Groundwater contribution to environmental flows as percentage of annual precipitation**

8



9

10 Fig. SI2 Annual groundwater contribution to environmental flow (a) groundwater centric
11 method and (b) surface water centric method as percentage of mean annual precipitation

12 **S3 Groundwater contribution to environmental flows estimates in different biogeoclimatic**
 13 **zones and hydrozones in British Columbia**

14

15 Table S1. Results for derived values of EF contribution from groundwater in British Columbia
 16 using groundwater centric method and surface water centric method.
 17

Groundwater contribution to EF (m/yr)	Mean	Median	Max	Min	Mean	Median	Max	Min
	E_{GW}				E_{SW}			
Full BC	2.27	0.09	232.11	0.00	1.99	0.13	285.62	0.00
Bio-geo climatic zones (BGCZ)								
BG	2.79	0.07	18.11	0.00	1.88	0.08	17.37	0.02
PP	4.79	0.45	39.58	0.00	2.79	1.17	17.96	0.02
ID	1.93	0.14	23.25	0.00	1.54	0.10	17.65	0.00
SBP	0.74	0.10	15.02	0.00	0.41	0.05	11.51	0.00
SBS	1.71	0.12	40.33	0.00	1.31	0.07	19.74	0.00
MS	0.59	0.10	23.57	0.00	0.47	0.06	17.63	0.00
BWBS	1.16	0.08	27.57	0.00	0.78	0.04	18.80	0.00
ICH	1.76	0.20	33.51	0.00	2.08	0.23	18.77	0.01
CD	1.37	0.43	9.54	0.20	0.68	0.33	3.92	0.13
ES	0.51	0.10	28.78	0.00	0.56	0.10	19.32	0.01

CM	0.53	0.15	20.41	0.00	0.82	0.28	14.18	0.02
CWH	0.97	0.38	19.40	0.00	1.17	0.39	15.59	0.01
Hydrozones								
Coastal Mountains	0.94	0.18	30.96	0.00	1.07	0.27	19.32	0.01
N.interior	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
N.E.plains	1.15	0.09	40.33	0.00	0.87	0.06	19.74	0.00
Haida Gwaii	0.83	0.07	21.33	0.00	0.43	0.02	11.38	0.00
S.interior	1.05	0.47	13.32	0.32	0.48	0.27	4.64	0.18
S.E.mountains	0.98	0.10	39.58	0.00	0.98	0.09	17.96	0.00
Vancouver island	0.92	0.16	33.51	0.00	1.09	0.18	18.57	0.02

18

19 **S4 Statistical evaluation of the difference significance between two methods of estimation**

20

21 Table S2. Kolmogo- Smoirnoff test results to evaluate the statistical significance of the
 22 difference between estimates from two methods.

23

Zones	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	
	p value	Difference significant
Bio-geo climatic zones (BGCZ)		
BG	0.26	False

PP	0.44	False
ID	0.10	False
SBP	0.00	True
SBS	0.00	True
MS	0.00	True
BWBS	0.00	True
ICH	0.00	True
CD	0.25	False
ES	0.00	True
CM	0.00	False
CWH	0.00	False
Hydrozones		
Coastal Mountains	0.00	True
N.interior	NaN	NaN
N.E.plains	0.00	True
Haida Gwaii	0.00	True
S.interior	0.00	True
S.E.mountains	0.00	True

Vancouver Island	0.00	True
------------------	------	------

24

25 **S5 Statistical evaluation of the normality**

26

27 Normality of the E_{GW} and E_{SW} was tested using 10 different statistical methods. Namely, test1 -

28 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; test 2-Stephens Method; test 3- Marsaglia Method; test 4-Lilliefors

29 test; test 5- Anderson-Darling (AD) test; test 6-Cramer-Von Mises (CvM) test; test 7-Shapiro-

30 Wilk (SW) test; test 8-Shapiro-Francia (SF) test; test 9-Jarque-Bera (JB) test; test 10-D'Agostino

31 and Pearson (DAP) test. In Table S3 and S4, 1 indicate normal distribution and 0 indicate not

32 normal distribution

33

34 Tab S3. Normality test results for E_{GW} for different biogeoclimatic zones and hydrozones

35

Results for E_{GW}	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5	Test 6	Test 7	Test 8	Test 9	Test 10
Bio-geo climatic zones (BGCZ)										
BG	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ID	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
SBP	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
SBS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
MS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
BWBS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

ICH	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ES	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CM	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CWH	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Hydrozones										
Coastal Mountains	NaN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N.interior	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N.E.plains	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Haida Gwaii	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
S.interior	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
S.E.mountains	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Vancouver island	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

36

37 Tab e S4. Normality test results for E_{SW} for different biogeoclimatic zones and hydrozones

Results for E_{SW}	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5	Test 6	Test 7	Test 8	Test 9	Test 10
Bio-geo climatic zones (BGCZ)										

BG	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ID	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
SBP	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
SBS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
MS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
BWBS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
ICH	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ES	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CM	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CWH	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Hydrozones										
Coastal Mountains	NaN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N.interior	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N.E.plains	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Haida Gwaii	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

S.interior	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
S.E.mount ains	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Vancouve r island	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

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