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Increasing Fort Ord groundwater supply by use of recharge basins

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Increasing Fort Ord Groundwater Supply by Use of Recharge Basins

A Capstone Project

Presented to the Faculty of Earth Systems Science and Policy

in the

Center for Science, Technology and Information Resources

at

California State University, Monterey Bay

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Bachelor of Science

by

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Abstract

 Currently there is a shortage of water in Monterey County. The Monterey Peninsula Water Management District, which serves central Monterey County, is in the process of finding a water source to provide an extra 10,730 acre-feet of water per year to its constituents, an amount the State Water Resources Control Board determined was being over-pumped from the Carmel River by the California-American Water Company (SWRCB, 1995). In north Monterey County, the Marina Coast Water District is trying to solve the problem of saltwater intrusion in the aquifers that they pump on Fort Ord (MCWRA, 2004).

 Many solutions for these problems are being discussed, especially the prospect of a desalination plant in either Sand City or Moss Landing (MPWMD, 2004). The Marina Coast Water District currently operates a desalination plant but it is not capable of providing enough water to the district to ease the pumping of the wells on Fort Ord (MCWD, 2004). One solution that is being widely used around the world, but not locally, is rainwater harvesting.

 Rainwater harvesting is the capture of rainwater from roofs and roads (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). Once captured, the water can then be stored in cisterns or allowed to recharge the groundwater for future use (Centre for Science and Education, 2004). To calculate the amount of water that can be captured, the catchment area (roofs, etc) is multiplied by the amount of rainfall for that area. That total is then multiplied by a runoff coefficient, called an SCS Curve Number, which adjusts the total runoff available by taking infiltration, evaporation and error in the design of the system into account (Viessman, et al, 2003).

 The amount of runoff that can be captured from the impervious surfaces of Fort Ord is 9665 acre-feet during an average rainfall year, 20240 acre-feet during a wet year, and 4420 acre-feet during a dry year. By simply capturing water from the housing areas and schools on Fort Ord during average, wet and dry years, 4600, 9640 and 2100 acrefeet per year, respectively, can be captured. This water can then be allowed to recharge the groundwater on Fort Ord, where it can not only help increase the water supply, but fill the aquifers to help stop the migration of saltwater intrusion.

Introduction

The current providers of water to the residents of the greater Monterey Peninsula area are the California-American Water Company (Cal-Am), whose resource, although a private company, falls under jurisdiction of the Monterey Peninsula Water Management District (MPWMD) and the Marina Coast Water District (MCWD) (MPWMD, 2004). The boundary of the Monterey Peninsula Water Management District can be seen in Figure 1 (MPWMD, 2004).

Figure 1. Monterey Peninsula Water Management District Boundary Map

The water for the MPWMD is provided from Cal-Am pumps along the Carmel River in Carmel Valley, Ca (MPWMD, 2004). Once a braided system that spread from valley wall to valley wall, the river is now a single channel system that runs the length of the valley floor to the Pacific Ocean (Kondolf & Curry, 1986). The discharge of the river is also controlled by two upstream dams, the San Clemente Dam and the Los Padres Dam, both of which are located near the community of Cachagua, Ca (Figure 2) (Monterey County, 2004).

Figure 2. Location of San Clemente and Los Padres Dams on the Carmel River

In the late 1960's riparian vegetation in the watershed began to die in the Garland Park and Robinson Canyon areas near wells (Figure 3)(Kondolf & Curry, 1984). The Carmel Valley Property Owners Association hired a consultant who concluded that withdrawal from the wells led to the death of the riparian vegetation, however when Cal-Am hired their own consultant, he reported that the withdrawal from the wells only speeded

up the 'natural succession' of the plants (Kondolf $&$ Curry 1984). Finally, in July 1995, in the landmark California Water Rights Decision 1632 and State Water Resources Control District Order WR 95-10, the connection between the groundwater being pumped by Cal-Am and the water in the channel of the river was confirmed (SWRCB, 1995). It was determined that the riparian vegetation was disappearing due to the over-pumping of the river system by Cal-Am (MPWMD, 2004). In WR 95-10, the State Water Resources Control Board determined that Cal-Am was over drafting water from the river at 10,730 acre-feet per year (SWRCB, 1995).

Figure 3. Location of Garland Ranch Regional Park on the Carmel River (MSN, 2004)

This decision led to an expanded effort to find water for the Monterey area. At the time the MPWMD had plans to build a new dam on the Carmel River, slightly downstream of the Los Padres Dam (MPWMD, 2004). Named "the New Los Padres Dam" and referred to as "Plan A", the new structure was set to be able to contain 24,000 acre-feet of water and would completely engulf the existing Los Padres Dam (MPWMD, 2004). Concerns over environmental and aesthetic impacts of the new dam caused for its implementation to be rejected by Monterey County voters in 1995 (MPWMD, 2004). The idea of a dam was not completely dismissed by politicians and board members for almost ten years, but has recently been determined to be an obsolete project to obtain more water (MPWMD, 2004). However, though very unlikely, the Cal-Am Water Company, if they desired, could build the dam as a privately owned structure, using company profits and passing the cost onto the same voters who originally rejected it (Curry, 2003).

For many years, there were two alternative plans to the new dam. The first plan was a small desalination plant in Sand City that would produce enough water to compensate for the 10,730 acre-feet being over-drafted by Cal-Am, and allow for a small amount of growth (MPWMD, 2004). This plant would have been owned and operated by the MPWMD, which is an elected board, effectively meaning that Monterey County voters would be able to be part of the decision-making regarding the operation of the plant. While this was a popular option for those concerned with the yet unknown repercussions of desalination plants (both in the health of the ocean and in terms of growth on land), many in Monterey, including those in hospitality and local politics favor what is called "Plan B" (Sand City, 2004).

"Plan B" also contains a desalination plant (MPWMD, 2004). However, this plant would be much larger in size and therefore have the potential to produce much more potable water (MPWMD, 2004). This large, centralized plant will be located in Moss Landing, Ca and be used to provide water to not only the area surrounding the city of Monterey, but also all of Monterey County, which stretches from Moss Landing in the north to San Luis Obispo County in the south and from the Pacific Ocean in the west to as far east as King City (Figure 4) (MPWMD, 2004). The original concept of this plant had one tremendous strength: that it will utilize energy from neighboring Duke Energy, thus making the project extremely cost effective (Figures 5 and 6) (MPWMD, 2004). One major drawback is that the plant will be owned by Cal-Am, leaving Monterey County voters unable to control its operation or cost (MPWMD, 2003). The second part of "Plan B" involves pumping water from the Carmel River to the Seaside Basin on Fort Ord where it will be stored until there is a shortage of water (MPWMD, 2004).

On March 31, 2004, the Monterey Peninsula Water Management District voted to discard the plans for the Sand City plant after studies determined that the plant would only be able to produce approximately 9,000 acre-feet of water per year (Hennessey, 2004). Additionally, the small north county water district, the Pajaro-Sunny Mesa Community Services District, has purchased the original site for the Moss Landing plant (Hennessey, 2004). The water board voted 5-2 to wait three to four months before the discussing where the new location of the plant should be (Hennessey, 2004).

Figure 4. Map of Monterey County

Figure 5. Aerial View of Moss Landing. Original site for desalination plant is in the center of the page

Figure 6. Duke Energy, the proposed neighbor to the original Moss Landing desalination plant

 The water that is distributed by the Marina Coast Water District is provided through pumping of groundwater out of the Salinas Basin on Fort Ord (MCWD, 2004). The water is being pumped out of the aquifers at a much higher rate than it is being recharged, which has led to salt water intrusion to occur in the A, Upper and Lower 180['], and 400^{\degree} aquifers (figures 7 and 8), rendering these aquifers unable to provide potable water (MCWRA, 2004). Drilling wells into deeper aquifers does not seem to alleviate this problem – many of the aquifers, though considered confined are being found to have holes in their aquitards (solid barriers between underground aquifers), allowing salt water to flow freely into them (Teraszki, 2003). Also, as wells are drilled deeper, they come in contact with more saline water (Environment Canada, 2004).

In an effort to ease the pumping of groundwater from Fort Ord, MCWD has installed a small desalination plant (MCWD, 2004). Because of it's small size, that plant can only produce 13% of the water needed by MCWD, even when running at full operation (MCWD, 2004). MCWD has recently begun a process to renovate and update their desalination plant in an effort to be able to produce more water at a lower cost.

 Another option, which has yet to be explored by either district, is the harvesting of water on Fort Ord. Water harvesting is the process of collecting rainwater that would otherwise runoff the surface and not recharge a surface reservoir (such as a lake or river) or the groundwater (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). The water that is collected can then be used to either recharge the groundwater or stored for use in the immediate future as a resource for flushing toilets or landscaping (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). If the water that is captured is to be used as drinking water, the filtration system through which it passes needs to be very high quality, as the water will often contain contaminants from the roofs and roads on which it fell (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004).

 The first step to rainwater harvesting is to determine the catchment area, or the area where the rain that will be gathered will fall. In general, this is an impervious area over which water will runoff and can be redirected for storage (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). On Fort Ord, the two main areas for catchment are roofs and streets. Because of the differences in physical structure and contaminants, these two catchment areas need to be discussed separately.

 When using a roof for a catchment area, it is necessary to have rain gutters and a conduit, or downspout, to gather and transport the water from the roof to the ground (United Nations Environment Programme, 2004b). The most common sized gutters are 1 inch per every 100 square feet of roof and 4 inch downspouts (Montana State University, 2004). Fortunately, most roofs are already equipped with this hardware, easing the work and cost necessary to implement such a program. It is also highly recommended that a coarse mesh filter be placed at the head of the conduit to prevent large pieces of debris from contaminating the water (Centre for Science and Education, 2004).

 The next component in many rainwater-harvesting systems is a first flush device. This part of the system will allow for a certain amount of water from the first rains of the season to be diverted away from the water supply that is being gathered (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). This is important because the water from the first flush will have the highest amount of contaminants, and by eliminating that water from the supply immediately, you decrease the amount of filtration needed to properly clean the water for use (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). This can be achieved by either having a turning valve that allows a certain amount of water to flow through before beginning the diversion into a storage container or through a separate downspout (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). Approximately 10 gallons of water for every 1000 square foot catchment area will flow into a separate pipe with a sealed top that is attached to the gutter and downspout system. Once this pipe is full, the remaining water will then flow into a storage container (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). The first flush water can easily be stored in a separate container to be analyzed by the Monterey Bay Sanctuary Citizen Watershed Monitoring Network and the Coastal Watershed Council, two groups who collaborate to study the contaminant levels of first flush rains throughout Monterey and Santa Cruz counties (Coastal Watershed Council, 2004).

Figure 9. Example of a First Flush Filter (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004)

Figure 10. Example of a First Flush Filter (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004)

The water that makes it past the first flush device must then be filtered to remove contaminants. Simple filters include a charcoal filter, a slow sand filter, and a mixed media, also called a Dewas (named for the area in India where it was designed), filter (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). These filters are very simple, using layers of pebbles, sand and charcoal to filter out debris and dirt from the water supply (figures 11, 12 and 13). Figure 14 illustrates a commonly used downspout filter designed by the German company WISY (Rainwater Harvesting Systems Ltd, 2004).

Figure 11. Charcoal filter (Centre for

Figure 11. Charloan Inter (Centre for Sci-
Science and Environment, 2004) Figure 12. Sand Filter (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004)

Figure 13. Dewas Filter (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004) Figure 14. WISY downspout filter

(Rainwater Harvesting Systems, Ltd, 2004)

For large roofs in countries such as India, a larger filter system designed by R. Jeyakumar is used to filter out dirt and debris (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). This larger mixed media filter consists of circular chambers of sand, gravel and then pebbles. After the water is filtered through these chambers, it spills into a storage container

where it can be chlorinated or ozonated to remove biological contaminants (figure 15) (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). For individual consumers of harvested rainwater, there is also the option to disinfect the water coming into their tap through a charcoal or reverse osmosis filtration system (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). Table 1 includes a synopsis of different filtration types and their features, which are published in the Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting (2004).

For larger, more contaminated areas, such as Fort Ord, more complex filtration and purification of the water is needed. This is due to the fact that the California Health and Safety Code, under the Toxic Injection Well Control Act of 1985, does not permit the deliberate recharge of uncontaminated groundwater with potentially contaminated surface water, such as would be collected from the rainwater harvesting systems and potentially diverted to recharge basins on Fort Ord (California Health and Safety Code, 2004).

Figure 15. R. Jeyakumar filter (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004)

Table 1. Filtration Types

 Once the water has been initially filtered, it must be diverted into a storage container. The largest and most readily available storage container is the earth's groundwater system. Groundwater recharge is a natural function of the water cycle (Ritter, et al, 1995). After water falls to the ground in the form of precipitation, it will then move in several different pathways (Figure 16) (Viessman, et al, 2003). The first is infiltration into the soil. After the soil becomes fully saturated, the water will then form rills, which will then become part of surface flow (Viessman, et al, 2003). This surface flow can drain into a puddle, a river, a lake, or any other type of reservoir (Viessman, et al, 2003). Once in these reservoirs, the standing water will then slowly infiltrate the soil, recharging the groundwater (Goudie, 1981). The surface water and the groundwater are truly one

water: any change in the amount of surface water will change the infiltration to groundwater, and any removal of groundwater will lower the level of the surface water as it replaces the water that was just pumped out (Sax, 2003). When water doesn't have the opportunity to act in this fashion due impervious cover in the watershed, it can be directed to do so from a rainwater harvesting system through a recharge basin (Viessman, et al, 2003).

Figure 16. The Water Cycle (USGS, 2004)

A recharge basin is an artificially dug basin that is covered in riprap (granite blocks) in order form pools of standing water (Goudie, 1981). The riprap forms as a defense against erosion of the surrounding soils, so that they do not cause the basin to fill with sediment and overflow, and thus flood surrounding areas. As the water is allowed to sit in the recharge basin, it is able to infiltrate the soil, and increase groundwater levels (Goudie, 1981). Water can then be stored in the groundwater system for future use, at which time it can be pumped to the surface through wells.

Other options for storage include many types of above and below ground storage tanks or cisterns (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). These tanks can be attached to a rainwater harvesting system either before or after filtration. For individual use a cistern would be attached after filtration to ensure that as much debris as possible would be removed from the water before it is sent through pipes into a residence (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). However, for a large, public areas such as Fort Ord, where water needs to be more thoroughly treated than can be done with simple filters, a cistern can be directly attached to a downspout (provided a coarse mesh filter is in place to remove large pieces of debris). Water can then be transported by truck to the local treatment facility for proper cleaning before it is put into the water supply for that particular community. Table 2 illustrates different material that can be used for creating cisterns (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004).

Table 2. Storage Container (Cistern) Types

MATERIAL	FEATURE	CAUTION		
PLASTICS				
Garbage Cans (20-50 gallon)	Commercially available, inexpensive	Use only new cans		
Fiberglass	Commercially available,	Degradable, requires interior coating		
	alterable and moveable			
Polyethylene/Polypropylene	Commercially available,	Degradable, requires exterior coating		
	alterable and moveable			
METALS				
Steel Drums (55 gallon)	Commercially available,	Verify prior use for toxics, corrodes and		
	alterable and moveable	Rusts, small capacity		
Galvanized Steel Tanks	Commercially available,	Possible corrosion and rust		
	alterable and moveable			
CONCRETE AND MASONRY				
Ferrocement	Durable, immoveable	Potential to crack and fail		
Stone, Concrete Block	Durable, immoveable	Difficult to maintain		
Monolithic/Poured in Place	Durable, immoveable	Potential to crack		
WOOD				
Redwood, Douglas Fir, Cypress	Attractive, durable	Expensive		

 When considering collecting water from roads and storm drains, the removal of contaminants becomes a much greater concern (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). Simple filtration methods described above are not enough to remove such harmful toxins as gasoline and oils (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). In order to remove these chemicals, the pipes that carry the water from the streets need to be diverted to carry the water to a treatment facility where contaminants can be removed. When used in conjunction with harvesting roof water, the amount of water moving through the storm drains should be drastically decreased.

 In many areas in the United States and throughout the world rainwater harvesting has been very successful and is now an everyday part of life (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). In Europe and North America small systems have been built by individual homeowners to increase their water supply and decrease their dependence on their municipal water source (Envireau Rainwater Management, 2004). In Oregon, one homeowner built a system that is able to capture 3600 cubic feet/year of rainwater (Ersson, 2004). This water is used for all daily functions from September to June, when the weather dries and municipal water is once again used (Ersson, 2004).

 In Gansu, China where the climate is extremely arid and groundwater supplies were diminished, rainwater harvesting became essential to residents (Changemakers, 2004). In 1995, the Gansu Research Institute for Water Conservation provided 2000 + households with \$50 each to be able to purchase all of the necessary components of a rainwater harvesting system (Changemakers, 2004). By 2002 tremendous results had been seen, including a 20-40% increase in crop yield and an increase in per capita income from \$100 per year to \$182 per year (Changemakers, 2004). In terms of labor saved, the installation of these systems has saved 70 water fetching labor days per family per year (Changemakers, 2004). After the success of Gansu, rainwater harvesting systems were installed throughout China. By 2001, there were 12,000,000 cisterns and recharge ponds in China, which provide water for over 36,000,000 people (Changemakers, 2004).

 Many countries around the world not only use rainwater harvesting systems as a means to provide water to their citizens, but have made policies regarding doing so (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). In many Caribbean islands, such as Barbados and the United States Virgin Islands, rain water harvesting systems are required on most,

or all, new buildings (United Nations Environment Programme, 2004b). In addition all new buildings in Belgium must have a rainwater harvesting systems installed for use in flushing toilets and for external water supply (Canadian Water and Wastewater Association, 2004). Perhaps the most extensive existence of rainwater harvesting systems is in India, where the climate is dry and most of their water comes from monsoons (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). Many regions and cities has government regulations on where systems must exist, some of which are more restrictive than others. For example, in New Delhi all buildings with a catchment area greater than 100 square meters built after June 2001 must have an attached system (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). Table 3 illustrates government requirements for rainwater harvesting systems per region (Centre for Science and Environment, 2004). The areas in the table refer to catchment size.

Region Name		New Buildings Existing Buildings Land Plots	
Indore	> 250 square m	n/a	n/a
South Delhi	All	All	All
New Delhi	>100 square m	n/a	$>$ 1000 square m
Kanpur	>1000 square m	n/a	n/a
Hyderabad	>300 square m	n/a	n/a
Tamil Nadu	All	All	n/a
Haryana	All	n/a	n/a
Rajasthan	>500 square m	> 500 square m	> 500 square m
Mumbai	$>$ 1000 square m	>1000 square m	>1000 square m
Gujarat	All Government	All Government	n/a

Table 3. Rainwater Harvesting System Requirements

 Though there are no laws forbidding the use of rainwater in the United States as there are in some African countries, such as Uganda or Kenya, there is very little policy or financial incentives to promote it either (United Nations Environment Programme,

2004a). One exception is that the state of California does have a tax credit for having cisterns in operation (Canadian Water and Wastewater Association, 2004). With the lack of water in the United States West reaching an almost critical point, it becomes imperative that local or state governments consider the positive effects that rainwater harvesting systems can have on their water supply.

 These successes with rainwater harvesting can be applied locally to alleviate the stress in finding a new water source. Systems could be attached to every home or business in the county to be reused in that home or business. However, taking into consideration the large area of Fort Ord and the great proportion of which is impervious cover, harvesting water from this site alone may help to provide a large amount of water needed by the county to either replace the 10, 730 acre-feet per year that Cal-Am can no longer pump or limit the amount of salt water intrusion in north Monterey County.

Methods

 To determine the amount of water that can be captured by rainwater harvesting, the size of the developed area on Fort Ord needs to be determined. The total size of Fort Ord is approximately 28,000 acres (MACTEC, 2004). However, a great portion of this land is undeveloped as part of the Bureau of Land Management Lands. The number of developed acres of land can be determined using GIS data provided by the environmental engineering firm MACTEC on their website for the cleanup of Fort Ord. On this site is a GIS data set regarding parcel maps for Fort Ord, which includes parcel size and land use. Using this information, it can be determined which parcels would contribute to the runoff on Fort Ord and which ones wouldnít. Parcels that are categorized as parks or BLM lands are not included in the data as they are able to naturally process their rainfall and do not significantly contribute to the runoff on Fort Ord.

 Once the size of each of the parcels with impervious cover has been determined, the annual precipitation on Fort Ord needs to be calculated. This was done using historical precipitation data for Monterey (data for Fort Ord was unavailable) provided by the Western Regional Climate Center (2004). Historical data from 1941- 2003 was used to determine rainfall for an average year (19.58 inches), a dry year (8.95 inches) and a wet year (41.01 inches) to illustrate the potential for rainwater harvesting through varying degrees of precipitation.

The area of Fort Ord is then multiplied by precipitation to calculate the total amount of water that is falling into the Fort Ord system and could potentially be harvested. Because some of the precipitation that falls will infiltrate into the surface and some will runoff, the ratio that will runoff is determined using an SCS (Soil Conservation Service) composite curve number (Viessman, et al, 2003). While SCS curve numbers are designed to determine runoff in areas with rainfall patterns consistent with the United States East Coast, it is a reference tool that is nonetheless helpful (Curry, 2004).

 To calculate an SCS composite curve number, the proportion of impervious area to non-impervious area is determined. In the case of Fort Ord, many of these parcels have an equal amount of housing, roads or other structures, as they do parks, lawns and open space. An SCS composite curve number is calculated by dividing the area of each parcel into its respective land use and then multiplying that area by the appropriate SCS curve number (Viessman, et al, 2003). Each area within the parcel is calculated by the

same means and then summed to get an SCS composite curve number (Viessman, et al, 2003). For example, the SCS number for concrete is 100 and the SCS number for parks is 39. If 50% of the parcel is concrete (.5 $*100 = 50$) and 50% of the parcel is park or lawn $(.5*39 = 19.5)$, then we have a composite number of 69.5, which can then be rounded to 70, and applied to the entire parcel.

Each parcel of land will have it's own SCS curve number assigned to it, consisting of 70 in housing areas and 90 in well developed areas. Although the SCS Curve number for roofing and concrete is 100, rainwater harvesting manuals suggest using a number of 90 to compensate for losses due to evaporation and general collection as well as the material over which the rain passes (Texas Guide to Rainwater Harvesting, 2004). If an SCS Curve number cannot be ascertained from the GIS parcel information, a curve number of 70 will be used so as not to overestimate the amount of water that can be captured from that parcel. Because the SCS number represents a percentage, when used in calculations, they will be expressed as .7 and .9 respectively. This SCS curve number will then be multiplied by the total precipitation (precipitation $*$ area) for each parcel to determine the amount of water that will be available for capture for later use.

Results

Figure 17 is the parcel map provided by MACTEC (2004) that has been used to determine acreage and land use in the parcels on Fort Ord. The parcels were analyzed separately and then grouped together based on land use. Table 4 illustrates the types of land

uses and the amount of runoff that can be captured during an average, wet, and dry rainfall year. The regions where the different land uses are located have been drawn on the map.

Category	Runoff Avg. Year (Acre- Feet/Year)	Runoff Wet Runoff Dry Year (Acre- Year (Acre- Feet/Year)	Feet/Year)
Housing	4025.496745	8431.339198	1840.050861
CSUMB (non-housing)	408.5187517	855.6360575	186.7335458
Schools (non-CSUMB)	169.4381407	354.885503	77.45001833
Buildings	778.6376316	1630.844192	355.9145456
Roads	945.615121	1980.5759	432.2398025
Development	2484.929618	5204.645741	1135.859044
Misc.	851.1458633	1782.711535	389.0579917
Total		9663.7819 20240.6381	4417.305809

Table 4. Potential Runoff for Different Land Use on Fort Ord

 As the above table illustrates, the total amount of runoff that can potentially be captured on Fort Ord using a rainwater harvesting system is approximately 9,700 acrefeet of water during an average rainfall year, 20,000 acre-feet during a wet year and 4,400 acre-feet during a dry year. In each case, the bulk of the runoff available comes from areas of housing on Fort Ord, which includes CSUMB housing, public housing, and current and abandoned military housing in Stillwell, Patton, Hayes, Fitch and Marshall housing communities, providing 4000, 8400, and 1800 acre-feet per year respectively for average, wet and dry years.

 The schools on Fort Ord, including CSUMB, UC system extension schools and public middle and elementary schools could provide approximately 600 acre-feet of water for an average year, 1,200 acre-feet during a wet year and 250 acre-feet during a dry year. Lone standing buildings that are not a part of housing or school campuses also have the ability to provide for a large amount of water. During an average year buildings such as the Department of Defense building and the Astronomy Center are able to provide a combined 800 acre-feet of water. During a wet year that number rises to over 1,600 acrefeet and during a dry year it falls to 350 acre-feet per year.

 Roads and areas that do not fit into the other categories (labeled as miscellaneous) each provide approximately 10 % of the water that can potentially be harvested on Fort Ord. Roads can provide 950 acre-feet of water during an average year, 2,000 acre-feet during a wet year, and 400 acre-feet of water during a dry year. Miscellaneous areas, such as business parks, can provide 850 acre-feet of water during an average year, 1800 acre-feet of water during a wet year, and 400 acre-feet of water during a dry year.

 After housing, the single largest source for captured runoff is the areas marked as development. These areas are on the southwest region of Fort Ord, running next to Highway One and $12th$ Street. During an average rainfall year approximately 2500 acre-

feet of water runs off these parcels. During a wet year, that number can rise to 5200 acrefeet and can fall to 1100 acre-feet during a dry year.

Discussion

 While the areas of impervious cover on Fort Ord have the capability to provide almost 10,000 acre-feet of water during an average year, in the interest of water quality, water should only be gathered from housing and schools. Together, these two land uses provide almost half (48%) of the water that can be captured on Fort Ord, and are likely to be the least polluted, not only from everyday chemicals and debris like oils and gasoline, but from the remnants from military use, such as lead paint and other toxins, that are expected to be found in higher quantities on both roads and in the areas labeled 'development'

 The 4600 acre-feet of water that can be captured from housing and schools on Fort Ord is more than enough to replace the approximate 2,200 acre-feet of water per year that the Marina Coast Water District currently pumps to provide water for the city of Marina (MCWD, 2001). In addition to Marina, MCWD also provides water for Fort Ord. Although the amount that can be pumped from the aquifers has been set by the Fort Ord Reuse Authority under a September 1993 agreement between the Monterey County Water Resource Agency and the federal government at 6,600 acre-feet per year, this amount has not yet been reached (MCWD, 2001). Therefore, the remaining water that can be gathered from rainwater harvesting can be used to provide water for Fort Ord.

 The primary reason why MCWD should have priority over MPWMD for this resource is that the issues surrounding the district, especially regarding Fort Ord, are more

pressing. Saltwater intrusion has been occurring for over 50 years, and as of 2001, the overall Salinas Groundwater Basin was being over drafted by 17,000 acre-feet per year (MCWD, 2001). Used in conjunction with the current practice of using recycled water on golf courses and farms, rainwater harvesting could help reduce or even eliminate overdraft, which would mitigate the problem of saltwater intrusion. In addition, water treatment facilities for Fort Ord already exist within the Marina Coast Water District, and the means of introducing the water captured from the rainwater harvesting system can be achieved through simple recharge basins and pumped out through existing wells. Lastly, the bulk of the growth in the area surrounding the city of Monterey is occurring on Fort Ord as new development projects are taking place, and water supplies for this area will need to increase.

 Because the majority of the rain on Fort Ord is seasonal, rainwater harvesting manuals suggest that the water that is captured be used for groundwater recharge (Centre for Science and Education, 2004). Because all of the water comes within a short period of time, storage tanks would need to be extremely large to hold the majority of the water that can be gathered for the whole year at once (Centre for Science and Education, 2004). Recharging the groundwater would also help to raise aquifer levels, even if temporarily. In addition, any excess water that is recharged but not pumped out of the aquifers will aid in slowing saltwater intrusion in the basin.

 The potential for rainwater harvesting on Fort Ord should serve as an example to surrounding cities. If the limited housing on Fort Ord has the capability to provide so much water for consumptive use, cities such as Monterey or Salinas should consider how much water could possibly be provided for their communities by installing rainwater har-

vesting systems. By possibly introducing these systems to building codes to provide water for consumers, if only for use in toilets or landscaping, these cities could reduce their dependence on their current water sources and potentially ease the environmental damage that is occurring in their respective watersheds.

 While the benefit of rainwater harvesting systems is clear, further research needs to be completed to assess the cost of implementing such a program on Fort Ord. Initially, this would be high as the bulk of the costs associated with such a project occur with the purchase of cisterns, filters and piping, however afterwards the remaining costs is simply associated within maintenance. As for whether the costs of maintaining these systems is comparable to desalination or other possible projects is currently unknown, however what is known is that Monterey County has a problem of lack of water and rainwater harvesting is one possible solution.

 One last concern is for the quality of the water that would continue to runoff of Fort Ord through storm drains into Monterey Bay. Because of the high levels of contaminants in the water, its release into the bay violates the Clean Water Act (USEPA, 2004). Studies need to be done to determine how to initially reduce the contaminants in the water from Fort Ord, possibly through clean up of current and former military lands. In addition, it is imperative that there be a focus on treating the water from the storm drains before it can spill into the sanctuary.

Conclusion

 Rainwater harvesting systems have been used throughout the world for centuries to gather water for use within homes and municipalities. There are current examples of

success with these systems in many parts of the world, including China, India and within the United States. With the current research into alternative water sources for Monterey County taking place, rainwater harvesting is a viable option, which should be looked into. By simply attaching rainwater harvesting systems to housing areas and schools on Fort Ord, 4600 acre-feet of water can be captured for use by the Marina Coast Water District to allocate to consumers in Marina and on Fort Ord. Also, the addition of this captured water into the groundwater on Fort Ord has the potential to alleviate the saltwater intrusion that is migrating through the $180'$ and $400'$ aquifers.

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Appendix A. Runoff Potential for Parcels on Fort Ord

PPT for Dry Year (in) 8.95

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