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2 **ASSESSMENT OF SUBSURFACE DRAINAGE MANAGEMENT**  
3 **PRACTICES TO REDUCE NITROGEN LOADINGS USING**  
4 **ANNAGNPS**

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15 **ABSTRACT.** *The goal of the Future Midwest Landscape project is to quantify current and future landscape*  
16 *services across the Midwest region and examine changes expected to occur as a result of two alternative drivers*  
17 *of future change: the growing demand for biofuels; and hypothetical increases in incentives for the use of*  
18 *agricultural conservation practices to mitigate the adverse impact caused by the growing demand for biofuels.*  
19 *Nitrogen losses to surface waters are of great concern on both national and regional scales, and nitrogen losses*  
20 *from drained cropland in the Midwest have been identified as one of the major sources of N in streams. With the*  
21 *growing demand for biofuels and potentially increased corn production, measures are needed to allow the*  
22 *continued high agricultural productivity of naturally poorly drained soils in the Midwest while reducing N losses*  
23 *to surface waters. Therefore, the objective of this study is to examine the long term effects of drainage system*  
24 *management on reducing N losses. To achieve the overall objective of this study, the USDA Annualized*  
25 *Agricultural Non-Point Source (AnnAGNPS) pollutant loading model was applied to the Ohio Upper Auglaize*  
26 *watershed located in the southern portion of the Maumee River Basin. In this study, AnnAGNPS model was*  
27 *calibrated using USGS monitored data; and then the effects of various subsurface drainage management*  
28 *practices on nitrogen loadings were assessed. Wider drain spacings and shallower depths to drain can be used to*  
29 *reduce nitrogen loadings. Nitrogen loading was reduced by 35% by changing drain spacing from 12-m (40-foot)*  
30 *to 15-m (50-foot); and 15% nitrogen was reduced by changing the drain depth from 1.2-m (48-inch) to 1.1-m (42-*

31 *inch) and an additional 20% was reduced by changing the drain depth from 1.1-m (42-inch) to 0.9-m (36-inch).*  
32 *In addition, nitrogen loadings could be significantly reduced by plugging subsurface drains from November 1 to*  
33 *April 1 of each year. About 64% nitrogen was reduced by completely controlling subsurface drainages for a*  
34 *drainage system with drain space of 12-m (40-feet) and drain depth of 1.2-m (48-inch).*

35 **Keywords:** *AnnAGNPS watershed modeling; Ohio Upper Auglaize watershed; Midwest; drainage*  
36 *management practices; water quality.*

## 37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 The Future Midwest Landscape (FML) study is part of the US Environmental Protection Agency  
39 (EPA)'s new Ecosystem Services Research Program, undertaken to examine the variety of ways in  
40 which landscapes that include crop lands, conservation areas, wetlands, lakes, and streams affect  
41 human well-being. The goal of the FML is to quantify current and future landscape services across the  
42 region and examine changes expected to occur as a result of two alternative drivers of future change:  
43 the growing demand for biofuels; and hypothetical increases in incentives for the use of agricultural  
44 conservation practices to mitigate the adverse impact caused by the growing demand for biofuels  
45 (increased corn production particularly).

46 Nitrogen (N) losses to surface waters are of great concern on both national and regional scales.  
47 Scientists have concluded that large areas of hypoxia in the northern Gulf of Mexico are due to  
48 excessive nutrients derived primarily from agricultural runoff via the Mississippi River (Rabalais et al.,  
49 1996, 1999; Aulenbach et al., 2007; USEPA, 2007). Excessive N and phosphorus loading is also  
50 responsible for algal blooms and associated water quality problems in lakes and rivers in other  
51 locations, such as the Lake Erie of the great lake systems in Northern Ohio (Ohio EPA, 2008). Loss of  
52 N to surface waters is also a problem on a local level. Excess nitrate in drinking water can be toxic to  
53 humans, and treatment is expensive when nitrate in surface water supplies exceed EPA threshold levels  
54 (USEPA, 2008).

55 Nitrogen losses from drained cropland have been identified as one of the major sources of N in  
56 streams. There is strong evidence that artificial drainage, installed in many regions of the Midwest,  
57 improves crop production and increases N losses to surface waters (Gilliam et al., 1999; Dinnes et al.,  
58 2002; Kalita et al., 2007). Scientists have proposed ways of reducing N loads to the Gulf of Mexico  
59 and other water bodies. They include the reduction of N fertilization rates and creation of wetlands and  
60 riparian buffers (Mitsch et al., 2001; Crumpton et al., 2007). Others have recommended cessation of  
61 drainage of agricultural lands and/or conversion of agricultural lands back to prairie or wetland such as  
62 the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA)-Natural Resources Conservation Services  
63 (NRCS) Conservation Reserve Program. However, with the growing demand for biofuel, more  
64 agricultural production is required. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop methods to allow the  
65 continued high agricultural productivity of these naturally poorly drained soils while reducing N losses  
66 to surface waters.

67 Research indicates there might be a potential for reducing N loads to surface waters through  
68 management of drainage systems (Drury et al., 1996; Mitchell et al., 2000; Drury et al., 2009).  
69 However, functional relationships have only been documented for a few soils and conditions (Gilliam  
70 and Skaggs, 1986; Kladivko et al., 1999). There have been few studies reporting the effects of drain  
71 spacing and depth on N loss (Kladivko et al., 1999; Sands et al., 2008). Given the expensive nature of  
72 long-term monitoring programs, which are often used to evaluate management effects on non-point  
73 source pollution, computer models have been developed as an acceptable alternative for simulating the  
74 fate and transport of nutrients in drained soils, and for evaluating the effect of drainage system design  
75 and management on nutrients losses to surface waters. Skaggs and Chescheir (2003) simulated the  
76 effects of drain spacing on N losses for soils in North Carolina and Luo (1999) for soils in Minnesota  
77 using DRAINMOD-N (Breve et al., 1997), which is based on a simplified N balance in the profile.  
78 Both studies indicated a potential for reducing N loads to surface waters by increasing drain spacing as  
79 reported in field experiments done by Kladivko et al. (1999). However, a simulation study done by  
80 Davis et al. (2000), using the ADAPT (Chung et al., 1991; Chung et al., 1992; Desmond et al., 1995)

81 model to analyze the effects of drain spacing and depth and fertilization rates on N losses from a  
82 Minnesota soil, had contrary results. Davis et al. (2000) concluded that drain spacing had little effect  
83 on nitrate nitrogen loss through drains and that the best method of reducing N loss was to reduce  
84 fertilization rates. Zhao et al. (2000) also concluded, based on 25-year DRAINMOD-N simulations for  
85 the April-August months, that drain spacing had little effect on N loss to drainage water. Therefore,  
86 more evaluations of the impact of drainage management on N loss to surface waters for soils in other  
87 states are needed. In addition, the previous evaluations were all performed on field scales. Evaluations  
88 on a watershed scale, which are more complex and difficult to monitor, is also needed for various soil  
89 conditions. Furthermore, evaluation on a watershed scale is very important for targeting critical areas  
90 that caused serious problems to achieve the maximum environmental benefit.

91 The objective of this study is to examine the long term effects of drainage system management  
92 on reducing N losses within the Upper Auglaize watershed in Ohio using AnnAGNPS.

## 93 **METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

### 94 **AnnAGNPS model description**

95 Annualized Agricultural Non-Point Source (AnnAGNPS) pollutant loading model is an  
96 advanced simulation model developed by the USDA-Agricultural Research Service and NRCS to help  
97 evaluate watershed response to agricultural management practices (Bingner et al., 2009). It is a  
98 continuous simulation, daily time step, pollutant loading model designed to simulate water, sediment  
99 and chemical movement from agricultural watersheds (Bingner et al., 2009). The AnnAGNPS model  
100 evolved from the original single event AGNPS model (Young et al., 1989), but includes significantly  
101 more advanced features than AGNPS. The spatial variability of soils, land use, and topography within  
102 a watershed can be determined by discretizing the watershed into many user-defined, homogeneous,  
103 drainage-area-determined cells. From individual cells, runoff, sediment and associated chemicals can  
104 be predicted from precipitation events that include rainfall, snowmelt and irrigation. AnnAGNPS

105 simulates runoff, sediment, nutrients and pesticides leaving the land surface and their transport through  
106 the channel system to the watershed outlet on a daily time step. Since the model routes the physical and  
107 chemical constituents from each AnnAGNPS cell into the stream network and finally to the watershed  
108 outlet, it has the capability to identify pollutant sources at their origin and to track those pollutants as  
109 they move through the watershed system. The complete AnnAGNPS model suite, which include  
110 programs, pre and post-processors, technical documentation, and user manuals, are currently available  
111 at <http://www.ars.usda.gov/Research/docs.htm?docid=5199>.

112 The hydrology components considered within AnnAGNPS are rainfall, interception, runoff,  
113 evapotranspiration (ET), infiltration/percolation, subsurface lateral flow, subsurface drainage and base  
114 flow. Runoff from each cell is calculated using the SCS curve number method (Soil Conservation  
115 Service, 1985). The modified Penman equation (Penman, 1948; Jensen et al., 1990) is used to  
116 calculate the potential ET (PET), and the actual ET (AET) is represented as a fraction of PET. The  
117 AET is a function of the predicted soil moisture value between wilting point and field capacity.  
118 Percolation is only calculated for downward seepage of soil water due to gravity (Bingner et al., 2009).  
119 Lateral flow is calculated using the Darcy equation, and subsurface drainage is calculated using  
120 Hooghoudt's equation (Freeze and Cherry, 1979; Smedema and Rycroft, 1983). A detailed  
121 methodology of subsurface drainage calculations are described in Yuan et al. (2006). Briefly, for a  
122 given time step, the depth of saturation from the impervious layer is calculated first based on the soil  
123 moisture balance of the root zone layer; then the amount of drainage is calculated based on boundary  
124 conditions (e.g. depth of drain for conventional systems or weir height if in controlled drainage). The  
125 reader is referred to Yuan et al. (2008) for methods of predicting baseflow for AnnAGNPS  
126 simulations.

127 Input data sections utilized within the AnnAGNPS model are presented in figure 1. Required  
128 input parameters include climate data, watershed physical information, and land management  
129 operations such as planting, fertilizer and pesticide applications, cultivation events, and harvesting.  
130 Daily climate information is required to account for temporal variation in weather and multiple climate

131 files can be used to describe the spatial variability of weather. Output files can be generated to describe  
132 runoff, sediment and nutrient loadings on a daily, monthly, or yearly basis. Output information can be  
133 specified for any desired watershed source location such as specific cells, reaches, feedlots, or point  
134 sources.

## 135 The Upper Auglaize Watershed

136 The Upper Auglaize (UA) watershed is located in portions of Auglaize, Allen, Putnam, and  
137 VanWert counties, Ohio in the southern portion of the Maumee River Basin (fig. 2). The watershed  
138 encompasses 85,812 ha upstream of an outlet located at the Fort Jennings (04186500) U.S. Geological  
139 Survey (USGS) stream gage station (fig. 2). Land use is predominately agricultural with 74% cropland,  
140 11% grassland, 6% woodland, and 9% urban and other land uses. Corn and soybeans are the  
141 predominant crops grown in the watershed and together account for an estimated 83% of the  
142 agricultural cropland in cultivation and 62% of the total watershed area. Land-surface elevations in the  
143 UA watershed range from 233 to 361 m above sea level. Most soils in the UA watershed are nearly  
144 level to gently sloping; however, moraine areas and areas near streams can be steeper. In general, soils  
145 in the lower one-third of the watershed tend to be appreciably flatter than those in the upper two-thirds  
146 of the watershed. Blount (Fine, illitic, mesic Aeric Epiaqualfs) and Pewamo (Fine, mixed, active, mesic  
147 Typic Argiaquolls) are the major soil series in the watershed. These soils are characterized as  
148 somewhat poorly to very poorly drained with moderately slow permeability. Therefore, agricultural  
149 fields in the watershed are artificially drained to improve crop production. Subsurface drainage (tile  
150 drainage) systems have been installed to extend and improve drainage in areas serviced by an extensive  
151 network of drainage ditches. Common conservation practices applied in the watershed include grassed  
152 waterways, subsurface and surface drainage, conservation-tillage and no-tillage, grass filter strips, and  
153 erosion control structures.

## 154 Input Preparation of Existing Watershed Conditions

155 Using Geographical Information System (GIS) data layers of elevation, soils, and land use, a  
156 majority of the AnnAGNPS data input requirements were developed by using a customized ArcView  
157 GIS interface (Bingner, 2009). Inputs developed from the ArcView GIS interface include physical  
158 information of the watershed and subwatersheds (AnnAGNPS cells), such as boundary location, area,  
159 land slope and slope direction, and channel reach descriptions. The ArcView GIS interface was also  
160 used to assign soil and land-use information to each subwatershed cell based on soil and land-use data  
161 layers. Additionally the AnnAGNPS Input Editor (Bingner, 2009), a graphical user interface designed  
162 to aid users in selecting appropriate input parameters, was used for developing the soil layer attributes  
163 to supplement the soil spatial layer, establishing the different crop operation and management data, and  
164 providing channel hydraulic characteristics.

165 Soil information was obtained from the USDA-NRCS Soil Survey Geographic (SSURGO)  
166 Database (Natural Resources Conservation Service, 2009). SSURGO provides most of soil parameters  
167 required for an AnnAGNPS simulation, such as soil texture, erosive factor, hydraulic properties, pH  
168 value, and organic matter content. Information on soil N was estimated based on soil organic matter  
169 (Stevenson, 1994). GIS soil maps were used in conjunction with the subwatershed maps to determine  
170 the predominant soil assigned to each AnnAGNPS cell.

171 The characterization of the UA watershed land use, crop operation, and management during  
172 the simulation period was critical in generating estimates of the runoff, sediment and N loadings.  
173 AnnAGNPS has the capability of simulating watershed conditions with changing land use and crop  
174 management over long simulation periods. However, at the UA watershed scale, it was very difficult  
175 to characterize the long-term annual changes, including land use and field management practices,  
176 occurring in the watershed. Inputs for existing watershed conditions were established by using 1999-  
177 2002 LANDSAT imageries and a 4-year crop rotation derived from 1999-2002 field records (Bingner  
178 et al., 2006). A summary of the most prevalent crop rotations determined for the four-year land use  
179 data are shown in table 1. Rotation components are C (Corn), S (Soybeans), W (Wheat) and F (Fallow  
180 meaning permanent grass). The table combines four-year crop sequences that are equivalent except for

181 the year in which they start. In other words, a rotation of CSCS is the same as SCSC for the sake of  
182 identifying existent crop rotations despite the fact that the sequences are offset by one year (the  
183 AnnAGNPS model keeps them separate by using an offset parameter). More details on development  
184 of land use and rotation sequences can be found in Bingner et al. (2006). Because actual tillage  
185 information was not available for each field within the UA watershed, tillage type was applied on a  
186 random basis to each field such that the accumulative percent area of conventional, mulch, and no-till  
187 simulated for the 1999-2002 period was consistent with known percent areas for each tillage type for  
188 the same time period at the watershed scale. Percentages of tillage and land use for the UA watershed  
189 during 1999-2002 are summarized in table 2. AnnAGNPS allows for subsurface drainage systems to  
190 be simulated or not to be simulated for any given field during the model simulations. Since detailed  
191 information on subsurface drainage system location and drain diameter/spacing were not available, it  
192 was not possible to differentiate areas where subsurface drains were installed or the depth and spacing  
193 of any existing drainage system. Local experience substantiated that most fields in the watershed were  
194 subsurface drained to a very large extent. Therefore, the AnnAGNPS simulations were conducted with  
195 subsurface drainage conditions in all cells containing agricultural crops. Model inputs of fertilizer  
196 application such as rates and extents were estimated based on interviews with four custom applicators  
197 operating in or near the UA watershed (table 3). Fertilizer reference information was input based on  
198 AnnAGNPS guidelines and databases. Plant uptake was chosen through literature investigation (Yuan  
199 et al., 2003).

200 Runoff curve numbers were selected based on the National Engineering Handbook, section 4  
201 (SCS, 1985). Crop characteristics and field management practices for various tillage operations were  
202 developed based on RUSLE (Renard et al., 1997) guidelines and local RUSLE databases. Climate data  
203 for an AnnAGNPS simulation can be historically measured, synthetically generated using the climate  
204 generator program (Johnson et al., 1996; Johnson et al., 2000), or created through a combination of  
205 measured and synthesized. Due to the lack of measured long-term weather data for the UA watershed,  
206 a one-hundred-year synthetic weather dataset was developed and used for all simulations in this study.

207 Complete information on weather generation can be found at the AnnAGNPS web site  
208 (<http://www.ars.usda.gov/Research/docs.htm?docid=5199>).

## 209 Model Calibration

210 Annual average flow and suspended sediment data collected at the Fort Jennings USGS stream  
211 gage station for the period of 1979-2002 (24 years) were used to calibrate AnnAGNPS simulated long-  
212 term annual average runoff and suspended sediment loss. The long-term average annual data were  
213 chosen for calibration for the following reasons: 1) long-term average annual information is needed for  
214 evaluation of the drainage management practices; 2) historical weather data were not available, and  
215 100-year synthetic weather data were used for simulations (while synthetic weather data would not  
216 match historical weather data for an individual event, long-term synthetic weather statistics should  
217 reflect historical weather statistics); 3) land use, crop rotation, and management practices during the  
218 simulation period changed from year to year, and annual changes occurring in the watershed was not  
219 fully characterized by AnnAGNPS because of lack of information. The land use and management  
220 practices of 1999-2002 (tables 1 and 2) were considered to represent the existing situation of the  
221 watershed (Bingner et al., 2006). For simulations of existing watershed conditions, 100-year synthetic  
222 weather data were used, with the 4-year land use and tillage operation listed in tables 1 and 2 repeated  
223 for a 100-year period during simulations. However, the spatial distribution of actual tillage practices  
224 was not available for each crop field. From representative tillage transect data, the overall percentages  
225 of tillage types were known while the exact field-by-field values were not. Tillage type was applied on  
226 a random basis to each field to come up with the total amount of conventional, mulch, and no-till  
227 percentages reported for the counties in the watershed (Bingner et al, 2006).

228 Land use and field management for the existing conditions were assumed to represent the  
229 calibration period of 1979-2002. Trial and error were performed to adjust AnnAGNPS parameters of  
230 drainage rate, curve numbers, amount of interception and sediment delivery ratio to produce the long-  
231 term average annual runoff and sediment loading close to that measured at the Fort Jennings USGS

232 stream gage at the outlet. The maximum drainage rate was set to 12.5 mm/day (0.5 inches) based on  
233 local experience. The curve number was selected from the table 9 of the National Engineering  
234 Handbook-section 4 (SCS, 1985). The curve numbers used in model simulations after calibration are  
235 listed in table 4. For example, after calibration, row crop contoured and terraced with good condition  
236 was used for row crops with no tillage; row crop contoured with crop residue and good condition was  
237 used for row crops with mulch tillage; and row crop straight row with poor condition was used for row  
238 crops with conventional tillage (table 9 of the National Engineering Handbook-section 4; SCS, 1985).  
239 By default, AnnAGNPS assumes that interception is zero. A literature review suggests that  
240 interception varies between 1.2 mm and 2.5 mm. A value of 1.5 mm was used. For sediment, the only  
241 parameter adjusted was the sediment delivery ratio and a value of 0.4 was used. More details on  
242 calibration can be found in Bingner et al. (2006).

243         Following the calibration and simulation of existing conditions' runoff and sediment loading,  
244 N loading from the watershed was simulated. No further calibration was performed for N loading  
245 because information on N loading was not available at the Fort Jennings USGS stream gage station.  
246 However, water quality data were available from the Maumee River at Waterville USGS stream gage  
247 station (figure 2). Water and pollutant loadings from the UA watershed go through the Waterville  
248 stream gage station before they enter the Lake Erie (figure 2). Thus, AnnAGNPS simulated long-term  
249 average annual N loading was compared with average annual (1996-2003) N data collected at the  
250 Waterville stream gage station. As discussed in runoff and sediment calibration, the long-term average  
251 annual N loss information is needed for evaluation of the impact of drainage management practices on  
252 N loss.

## 253 Evaluation of Drainage Management Practices on Nitrogen Loading

254         Controlled drainage, the process of using a structure (weir or "stop log") to reduce drainage  
255 outflow (water is held at certain level in the field through this control structure), has been widely  
256 studied for crop production and environmental benefit (Evans and Skaggs, 1989; Evans et al., 1995).

257 Research has shown that controlled drainage conserves water and reduces nitrate loss from agricultural  
258 fields (Gilliam et al., 1979, 1999; Evans et al., 1995; Skaggs and Chescheir, 2003). Therefore, this is  
259 accepted as a best management practice in some states because of the benefit to water quality. Thus, it  
260 is very important for AnnAGNPS to be able to simulate the impact of controlled drainage on N  
261 loading.

262 Using the calibrated model, the effects of drain spacing and depth on N loading were evaluated.  
263 Drain spacings of 9.1-m (30-feet), 12.2-m (40 feet) and 15.2-m (50-feet) and depths of 1.2-m (48-  
264 inch), 1.1-m (42-inch), 0.9-m (36-inch), 0.8-m (30-inch), and 0.6-m (24-inch) were selected and  
265 analyzed based on local experience. Following the simulations on drain spacing and depth, drains  
266 turned completely off (the weir levels were set at the surface) during the dormant season (November 1  
267 to April 1 the second year) were simulated to evaluate the impact of keeping water in the field during  
268 the dormant season on N loading.

## 269 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

270 Model calibration results are presented in table 5. Results of N loadings from different  
271 drainage management scenarios are displayed in figures 3-5.

### 272 **Model Calibration**

273 Annual average runoff (1979-2002) observed at the Fort Jennings USGS stream gage station  
274 was 254 mm. After calibration, the simulated 100-year annual average runoff was 254 mm, which  
275 consisted of 163.6 mm from direct surface runoff and 90.4 mm from subsurface quick return flow  
276 (table 5). Subsurface drainage flow was the major component of subsurface quick return flow. Annual  
277 average sediment loading (1979-2002) observed at the Fort Jennings USGS stream gage station was  
278 0.753 T/ha/yr. After calibration, the simulated 100-year annual average sediment loading was 0.771  
279 T/ha/yr (table 5). More details on runoff and sediment calibration and their changes from different  
280 management scenarios can be found in Yuan et al. (2006). Runoff and sediment calibration is

281 important for this study because parameters used during calibration are the basis for N loading and  
282 additional alternative management scenarios evaluation.

283 Evaluating and calibrating the model in a more intensive way, such as comparison of annual  
284 runoff and sediment, was not possible because historical weather data were not available for the study  
285 site (Yuan et al., 2006). In addition, when and where land use changed and how field management  
286 operation (including planting, harvesting, and tillage operations) changed during 1979-2002 were not  
287 known. The 4-year land use and management practices of 1999-2002 (tables 1 and 2) were assumed to  
288 represent the condition for 1979-2002 calibration period, and they were repeated during the simulation  
289 period. Therefore, the calibration of the model is limited to average annual. The average annual  
290 reflects the long-term situation that occurred in the watershed over the years; thus, the critical  
291 parameters impacting runoff and sediment loadings from the watershed can still be calibrated to better  
292 reflect the actual conditions of the watershed.

293 The simulated 100-year average annual agricultural N loading was 12.6 kg/ha/yr, with 12.2  
294 kg/ha/yr dissolved N (table 5) using those calibrated parameters for runoff and sediment. Average  
295 annual N loading (1996-2003) observed at the Waterville stream gage station was 18.9 kg/ha/yr which  
296 included point source and nonpoint source N loadings. No additional calibration was performed because  
297 it is very difficult to separate agricultural nonpoint source N loading from total N loading which  
298 includes point source and nonpoint source at the Waterville stream gage station. In addition, the  
299 sensitive parameters for N loading such as N fertilizer application rate, soil N concentration and plant  
300 uptake (Yuan et al., 2003) were carefully chosen to best represent the watershed condition. Further  
301 adjusting those parameters may result in loss of accuracy in representing the watershed condition. For  
302 instance, fertilizer application rates were directly obtained from farmer surveys and soil N  
303 concentration was estimated based on soil organic matter (Stevenson, 1994). Finally, to evaluate the  
304 effects of drainage management practices on N loading, the relative impact of those drainage  
305 management practices on N loading is needed. The comparison of their relative impacts could be used  
306 for future drainage management planning and decision making.

## 307 EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVE DRAINAGE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

308 Long-term AnnAGNPS simulation results indicate a reduction in N loading as drain spacing is  
309 increased (figure 3). As the drain spacing increases, the drainage intensity decreases, which reduces the  
310 amount of N leaving the agricultural fields. The study done by Gilliam and Skaggs (1986) on several  
311 field sites indicated that N losses from drained agricultural fields increased with drainage rates or with  
312 the intensity of drainage. Skaggs et al (2005) defined that the drainage intensity is generally associated  
313 with drain depth and spacing; and the drainage intensity is assumed to be high with closely spaced  
314 drains. Therefore, N losses are expected to be lower with wider drain spacings resulting in decreasing  
315 drainage water than with closer drain spacings. Field studies from Indiana done by Kladivko et al.  
316 (1999) with three drain spacings (5-m, 10-m and 20-m), all of which provided sufficient drainage for  
317 crop production, consistently showed that wider drain spacings resulted in less N losses from  
318 agricultural fields than closer drain spacings. Drain spacings of 9-m (30-feet), 12-m (40-feet) and 15-  
319 m (50-feet) were used for this study based on NRCS recommendations and other references (Zucker  
320 and Brown, 1998; Wright and Sands, 2001). As shown from this study, N loading reduced by about  
321 35% by changing drain spacing from 12-m (40-feet) to 15-m (50-feet) (figure 3). This reduction rate  
322 may not be comparable with results obtained from other locations because there are other factors that  
323 affect drainage rates and N loading in addition to drain spacing and depth. These include soil physical  
324 and chemical properties such as hydraulic conductivity and drainable porosity, the depth of the profile  
325 through which water moves to the drains, and soil N level and amount of fertilizer applied. Other  
326 factors such as surface depressional storage, which affects surface runoff and hence the amount of  
327 water that is removed by subsurface drainage would also impact subsurface drainage rate. Finally,  
328 drain diameter and the size and configuration of openings in the drain tube may also affect the drainage  
329 rate. The results are useful for drainage management decision making either at the time of drain  
330 installation or when producers are considering further drainage improvement. If close drain spacings  
331 are shown to be less desirable for water quality, then modification of existing drain lines with water

332 table control structures to have some drain lines turned off might be a practical strategy to mitigate the  
333 negative impacts of drainage water.

334 Results also showed that N loading decreased as drain depth decreased (figure 4). This is  
335 because as drain depth decreased, drainage intensity decreased which resulted in less drainage water  
336 leaving the agricultural fields (Skaggs et al, 2005). Less drainage water carried less N out of the  
337 agricultural fields. Thus, N loadings are expected to be lower with shallower drain depth than with  
338 deeper drain depth. Davis et al. (2000) used the Agricultural Drainage and Pesticide Transport  
339 (ADAPT) model, a daily time step continuous water table management model, to simulate the impact  
340 of fertilizer and drain spacing and depth on N losses for a Webster clay loam near Waseca, Southern  
341 Minnesota. Their results showed that N losses decreased as drain depths (1.5-m, 1.2-m and 0.9-m)  
342 decreased. Results from Skaggs and Chescheir (2003) with DRAINMOD simulations for a Portsmouth  
343 sandy loam at Plymouth, North Carolina also showed that N losses decreased as drain depths (1.5-m,  
344 1.25-m, 1.0-m and 0.75-m) decreased. ADAPT and DRAINMOD are field scale models. Depths of  
345 1.2-m (48-inch), 1.1-m (42-inch), 0.9-m (36-inch), 0.8-m (30-inch), and 0.6-m (24-inch) were used in  
346 this study based on the NRCS recommendation. About 15% of N was reduced by changing the drain  
347 depth from 1.2-m (48-inch) to 1.1-m (42-inch) (figure 4). An additional 20% of N was reduced by  
348 changing the drain depth from 1.1-m (42-inch) to 0.9-m (36-inch) (figure 4). There was only a slight  
349 reduction predicted by changing the drain depth from 0.8-m (30-inch) to 0.6-m (24-inch) (figure 4).  
350 Thus, drain depths shallower than 0.6-m (24-inch) were not analyzed. This reduction rate may not be  
351 comparable with results obtained from other locations because there are other factors discussed  
352 previously impacting drainage rate and N loading. The results on drain depths are also useful for drain  
353 installation and/or further drainage improvement. If deeper drain depths are shown to be less desirable  
354 for water quality, then modification of existing drain depth can be achieved with water table control  
355 structures to raise water table (acting as shallow drain) according to crop growth stage. Holding water  
356 in the fields will increase the time for denitrification to occur and decrease the transport of N from  
357 subsurface water losses to surface waters.

358 Nitrogen loading could be significantly reduced by controlling water into subsurface drains  
359 from November 1 to April 1 of each year based on model simulations (figure 5). This result is  
360 consistent with field observations at various locations (Gilliam and Skaggs, 1986; Drury et al., 1996;  
361 Ng et al., 2002; Osmond et al., 2002; Drury et al., 2009). About 64% of N was reduced by completely  
362 controlling subsurface drainages (setting weirs at surface) for drain depth of 1.2-m (48-inch) when  
363 compared to the conventional drainage system (free drainage from November 1 to April 1) (figure 5).  
364 Similarly, 66% of N was reduced for a drain depth of 1.1-m (42-inch), and 59% for a drain depth of  
365 0.9-m (36-inch) (figure 5). As shallower drains, completely controlling subsurface drains (setting weirs  
366 at surface) in the dormant season also hold water in the fields which potentially increases  
367 denitrification and decreases the amount of subsurface water losses to surface waters which decrease N  
368 load to surface water. However, little additional impact was found by completely controlling  
369 subsurface drains in the dormant season for drain depths shallower than 0.8-m (30-inch). Therefore, if  
370 agricultural producers are adverse to the idea of “completely controlling subsurface drainages or  
371 completely turning the drains off” at any time, setting the drainage outlet (depth of drain) at 24-inch or  
372 above would achieve the goal of reducing N loading significantly without turning the drains off (figure  
373 5). As indicated in figure 5, nitrogen loading does not change much by completely controlling  
374 subsurface drainages in dormant season for drain depths of 30-inch and 24-inch.

375 Therefore, wider drain spacings and shallow drain depths are recommended to reduce N  
376 loading from the fields. In addition, wider drain spacings and shallow drain depths also conserve  
377 water. However, information on how crops react to different drainage management practices is also  
378 needed to make any final decisions. Completely turning the drains off during the dormant season  
379 (November 1 to April 1) appears to be an ideal and very promising approach in reducing N loading  
380 because there is not much of a concern for impacting crop productivity for this practice. However,  
381 shallow drains such as setting the drainage outlet (depth of drain) at 24-inch or above would achieve  
382 the goal of reducing N loading significantly as completely turning the drains off during the dormant  
383 season (November 1 to April 1).

384           Although models are simplifications of the real world and uncertainty is an inevitable part of  
385 model simulation, utilization of the AnnAGNPS model can provide evaluation of the relative impact of  
386 drainage management practices on N loading, which could be used to provide information needed for  
387 future drainage management and planning at the watershed scale. Future watershed modeling work  
388 would focus on identify critical areas which should be targeted first for drainage management practices  
389 implementation to achieve maximum water quality benefits.

390           The main focus of this paper was to assess the impact of alternative drainage management  
391 practices on N loading and to examine strategies used to reduce N loading from agricultural fields.  
392 Since most conservation program assessments would be performed by models, given the difficulties of  
393 obtaining long-term monitoring data, application of the AnnAGNPS model for UA watershed drainage  
394 management practices assessment provides an excellent tool for this purpose.

## 395 **SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

396           AnnAGNPS model was applied to the Ohio UA watershed to evaluate the impact of subsurface  
397 drainage management practices on N losses. The model was calibrated using average annual data  
398 collected at the Fort Jennings USGS gauging station because historical weather data were not  
399 available, and 100-year synthetic weather data were used for simulation. Although significant efforts  
400 were spent in characterizing land use, tillage, crop rotation, and management practices during model  
401 calibration, the day by day temporal and field by field spatial variations of the information were not  
402 fully represented in the model. The synthetic weather data would not match historical weather data for  
403 an individual event, long-term synthetic weather statistics should reflect historical weather statistics;  
404 furthermore, the average annual reflects the long-term situation that occurred in the watershed over the  
405 years; thus, the critical parameters impacting runoff and sediment loadings from the watershed can still  
406 be calibrated to better reflect the actual conditions of the watershed.

407           AnnAGNPS simulation results of drainage management practices showed that N loading was  
408 decreased as the drain spacing was increased. Changing drain spacing from 12-m (40-feet) to 15-m

409 (50-feet) reduced N loading by 35%. Simulation results also showed that N loading was decreased as  
410 drain depth was decreased. Changing the drain depth from 1.2-m (48-inch) to 1.1-m (42-inch) reduced  
411 N loading by 15%, and an additional 20% reduction can be achieved by changing the drain depth from  
412 1.1-m (42-inch) to 0.9-m (36-inch). Only a slight reduction was predicted by changing the drain depth  
413 from 0.8-m (30-inch) to 0.6-m (24-inch). Furthermore, N loading could be significantly reduced by  
414 controlling subsurface drains from November 1 to April 1 of each year. Up to 66% of N can be  
415 reduced by completely controlling subsurface drainages depending on drain depths. These results are  
416 useful for future drainage management and planning at the watershed scale. Although findings from  
417 this study are consistent with field observations at other locations, but the actual reductions rates  
418 obtained from this study may not be comparable with results obtained from other locations because  
419 there are other factors impacting N loading. Future watershed modeling work would focus on targeting  
420 critical areas for drainage management practices implementation to achieve maximum water quality  
421 benefits.

422 **Notice:** Although this work was reviewed by USEPA and approved for publication, it may not  
423 necessarily reflect official Agency policy. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not  
424 constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

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Table 1. Crop rotations summarized for the 4-year land use, C (Corn), S (Soybeans), W (Wheat) and F (Fallow meaning permanent grass).

Rotation	Area (ha)	Percent of agricultural land use	Accumulated percent
CSCS	16894	21.9%	21.9%
CCCS	10833	14.1%	36.0%
CSSS	6286	8.2%	44.1%
CCSS	5741	7.5%	51.6%
CCSW	5680	7.4%	59.0%
CSWS	4016	5.2%	64.2%
CSCW	3407	4.4%	68.6%
CSSW	3389	4.4%	73.0%
CCFF	1391	1.8%	74.8%
CWSW	1387	1.8%	76.6%
CWSS	1295	1.7%	78.3%
SSSS	1184	1.5%	79.8%
CSWW	1182	1.5%	81.3%
CCCW	1171	1.5%	82.9%
CCWS	1121	1.5%	84.3%
CCCC	1121	1.5%	85.8%
SSSW	1104	1.4%	87.2%
FFWC	1057	1.4%	88.6%
CCSF	575	0.7%	89.3%
CWFW	559	0.7%	90.1%
FFFW	431	0.6%	90.6%

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547 Table 2. Upper Auglaize watershed 4-year crop, tillage, and land-use distribution in percent, the total  
 548 area is 85,812 hectares.

Landuse	Tillage	1999	2000	2001	2002
Corn	Conventional	10.1%	13.1%	10.5%	10.5%
	Mulch till	18.7%	17.0%	20.3%	17.9%
	No till	10.4%	14.1%	12.2%	14.0%
	Total	39.3%	44.2%	43.0%	42.3%
Beans	Conventional	8.7%	6.0%	7.4%	9.4%
	Mulch till	9.6%	16.8%	11.5%	13.7%
	No till	11.8%	11.1%	13.7%	11.2%
	Total	30.0%	33.9%	32.5%	34.2%
Wheat	Conventional	1.9%	2.6%	3.7%	1.6%
	Mulch till	5.3%	3.8%	4.3%	2.7%
	No till	5.2%	4.6%	3.1%	3.8%
	Total	12.4%	10.9%	11.1%	8.0%
Grass	Conventional	1.4%	0.4%	0.5%	0.6%
	Mulch till	4.2%	0.2%	1.7%	3.7%
	No till	2.7%	0.4%	1.1%	1.2%
	Continuous	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%
	Total	8.7%	1.4%	3.7%	5.8%
Forest		5.6%	5.6%	5.6%	5.6%
Residential		2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%
Roads		1.4%	1.4%	1.4%	1.4%
Commercial		0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
Water		0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%
Grand Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

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550 Table 3. Fertilizer application for various crops.

Crop Type	Nitrogen (kg./ha..)	P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (kg./ha.)
Corn	157	50
Soybean	0	34
Wheat	65	45
Alfalfa	0	73

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554 Table 4. Curve numbers used for model simulations after calibration

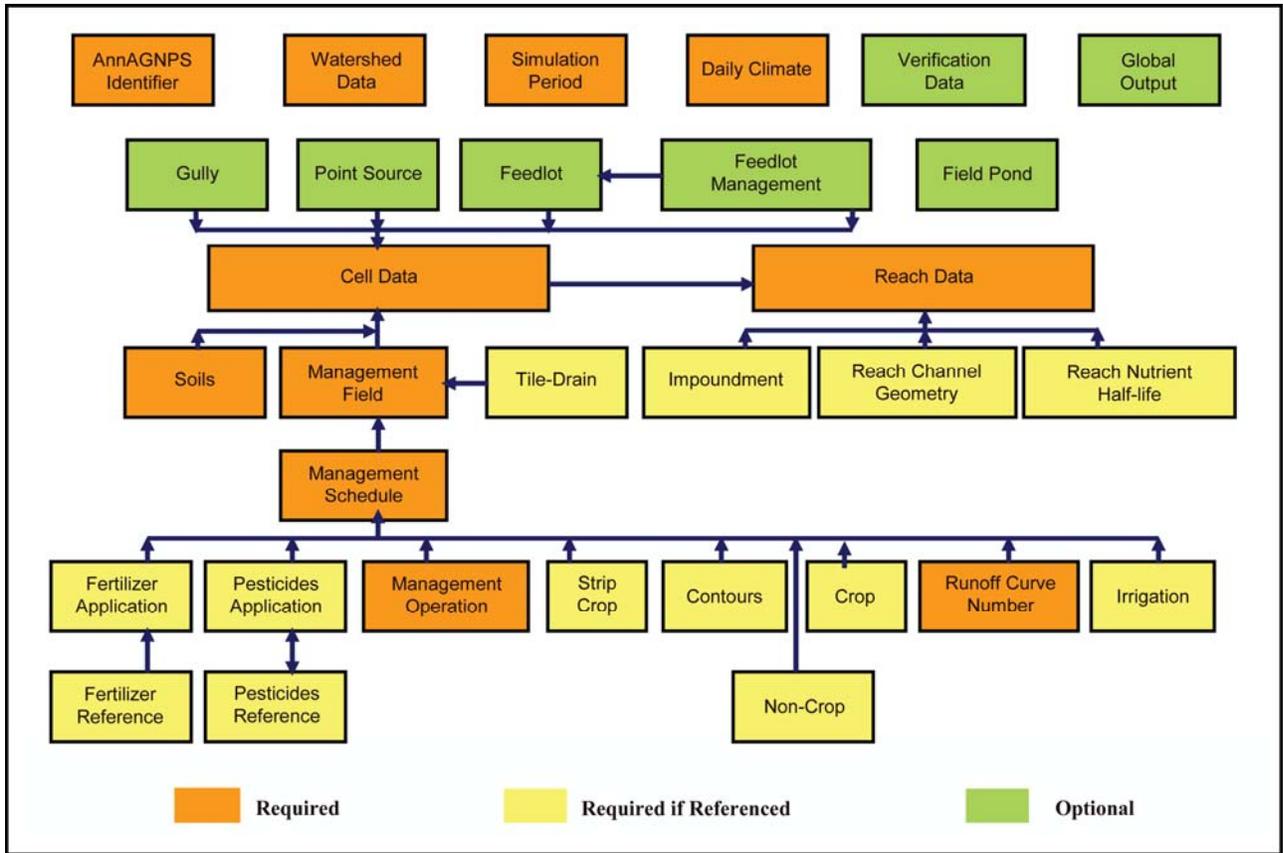
AnnAGNPS land cover	Land cover class from table 9 of the NHD-4 (NRCS, 1985)	Curve Number			
		Hydrological soil group			
		A	B	C	D
Row crop with NT*	Row crop contoured and terraced (good)	62	71	78	81
Row crop with RT*	Row crop contoured with crop residue (good)	64	74	81	85
Row crop with CT*	Row crop straight row (poor)	72	81	88	91
Small grain with NT*	Small grain contoured and terraced (good)	59	70	78	81
Small grain with RT*	Small grain contoured and terraced (good)	60	72	80	84
Small grain with CT*	Small grain contoured and terraced (good)	64	75	83	86
Fallow	Fallow with crop residue (good)	74	83	88	90
Forest	Woods (good)	30	55	70	77
Commercial	Residential (38% impervious)	61	75	83	87
Residential	Residential (38% impervious)	61	75	83	87
Roads	Roads (paved w/ditch)	83	89	92	93

555 \* NT refers to no-tillage, RT refers to reduced tillage and CT refers to conventional tillage.

556  
557 Table 5. Calibration outputs of runoff sediment and nitrogen as compared to observed values for  
558 existing watershed conditions.

Item	AnnAGNPS Simulation	USGS Observation
Watershed annual average direct surface runoff (mm)	162.6	
Watershed annual average subsurface flow (mm)	91.4	
Watershed annual average total runoff (mm)	254.0	254.0
Sediment loading at the watershed outlet (t/ha/Yr)	0.771	0.753
Total N loading at the Waterville gage (kg/ha/Yr)	12.6	18.9

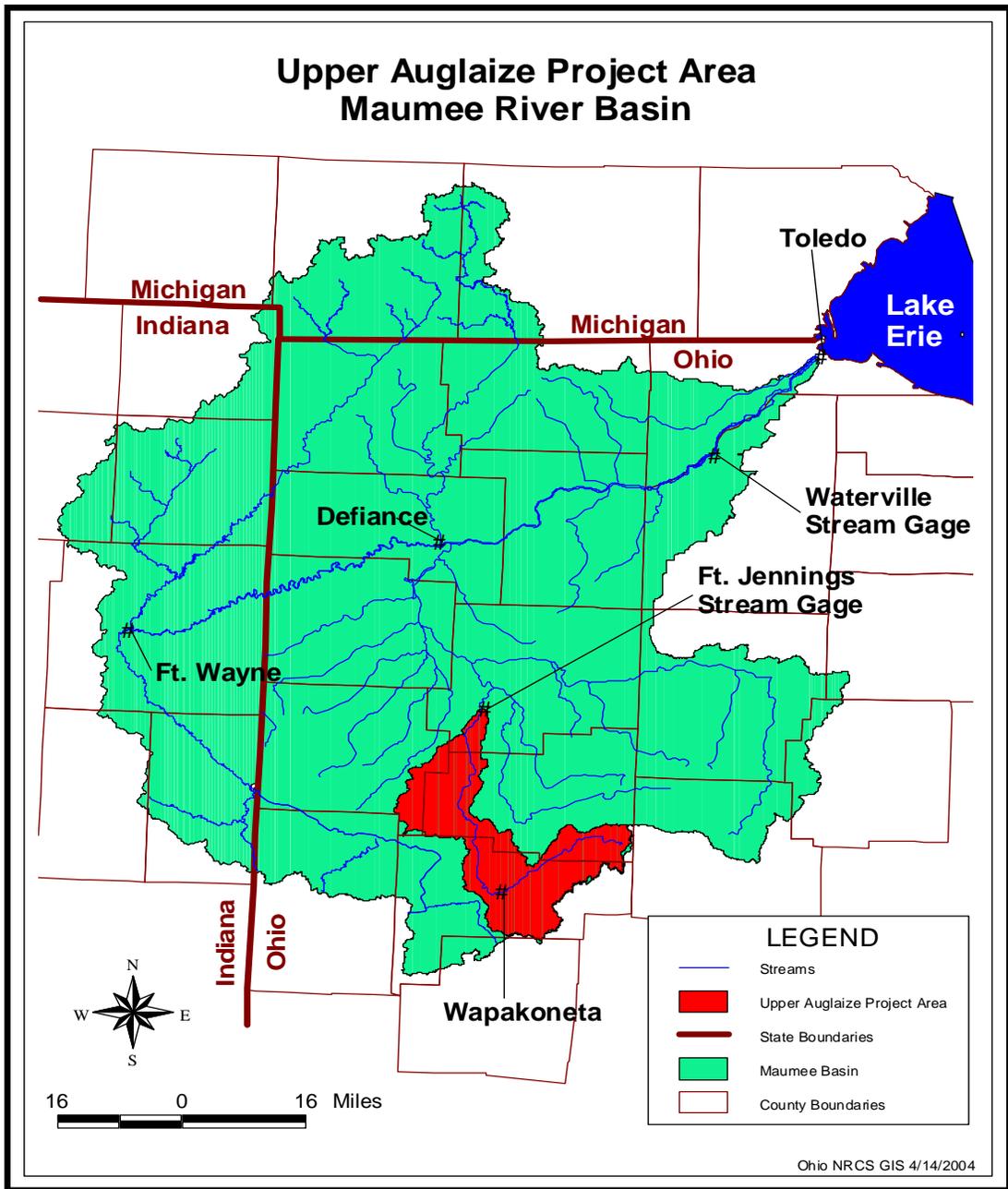
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Figure 1. AnnAGNPS input data sections



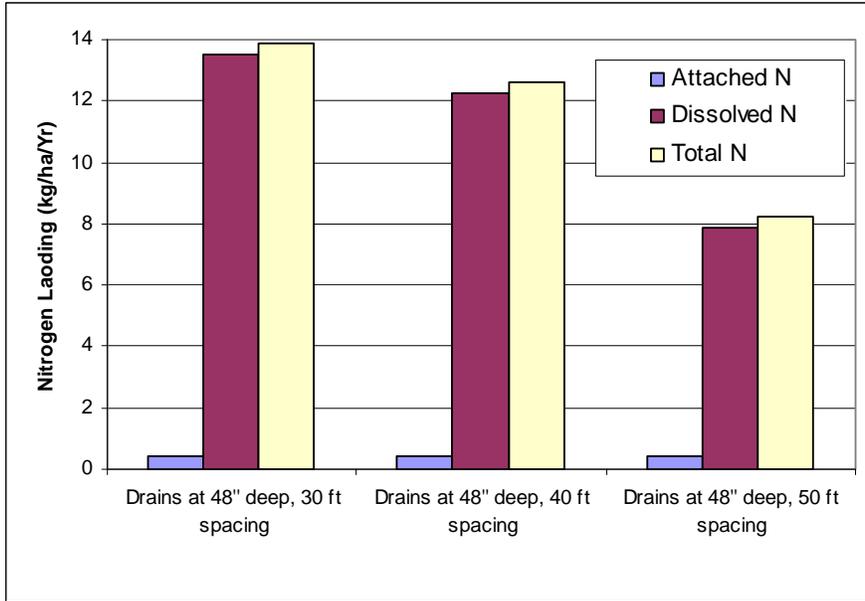
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568 Figure 2. The Maumee River basin drainage network, Upper Auglaize watershed, and the Wapakoneta  
 569 and Fort Jennings Gage Stations.

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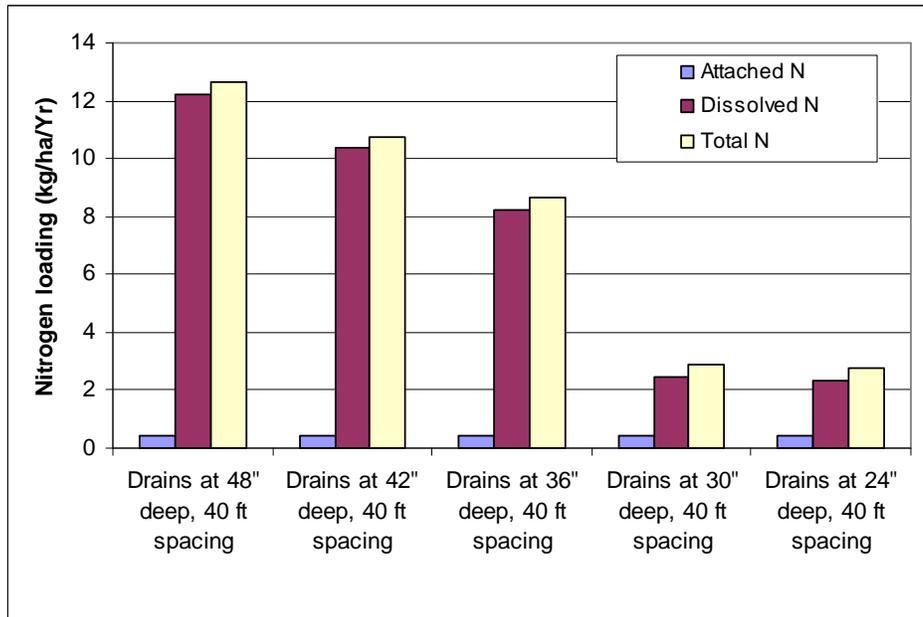
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Figure 3. Effects of drain spacing on N loading



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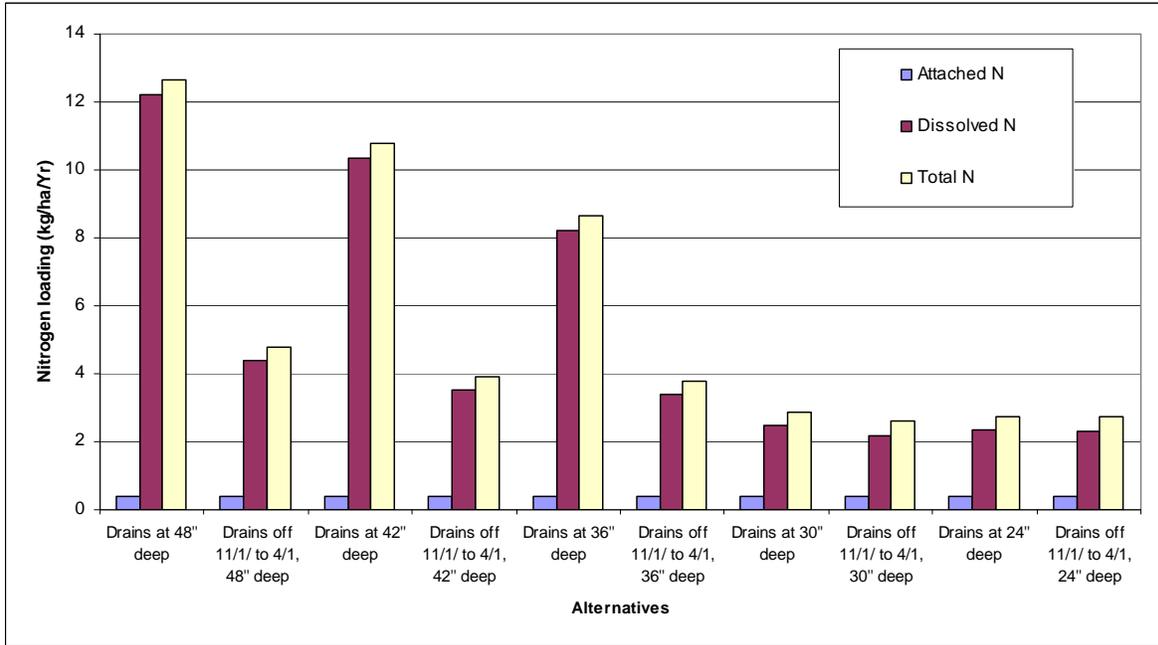
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Figure 4. Effects of drain depth on N loading

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581 Figure 5. Effects of turning drains off during dormant season (Nov. 1 to Apr. 1) on N loading