

2. FINDINGS

Findings are important facts, issues and challenges related to water supply planning and management in East-Central Illinois identified by the Committee. Findings subsequently provide a basis for recommending a regional water supply plan (Chapter 3).

This chapter begins with the Committee’s findings related to the flow of water through and the storage of water in the environment. This is followed by findings related to climate variability and change, present and future water demands and withdrawals, impacts of groundwater withdrawals, future water availability, the costs and benefits of water withdrawals, and the balance among water availability, demand and supply. Findings related to current laws, regulations and property rights, institutional organization and governance, and technical assistance then are presented. A summary of key findings is provided at the end of the chapter, followed by conclusions.

The water cycle

Nature’s plumbing system consists of water storage vessels and conduits – aquifers and river basins. Water moves through the environment continuously at varying rates dependent upon climatic, soil and geological conditions (Figure 2 and Appendix 1). Variations and changes in climate cause the amount of water available in surface waters and shallow aquifers to vary over time. Spatial variations in soil and geology strongly influence the flow of water through the environment – including groundwater recharge, discharge and water storage, and create spatial differences in the impacts of withdrawing water from aquifers and streams. Knowledge of the water [hydrologic] cycle and intertwined water supply issues provides a sound basis for water supply planning and management¹.

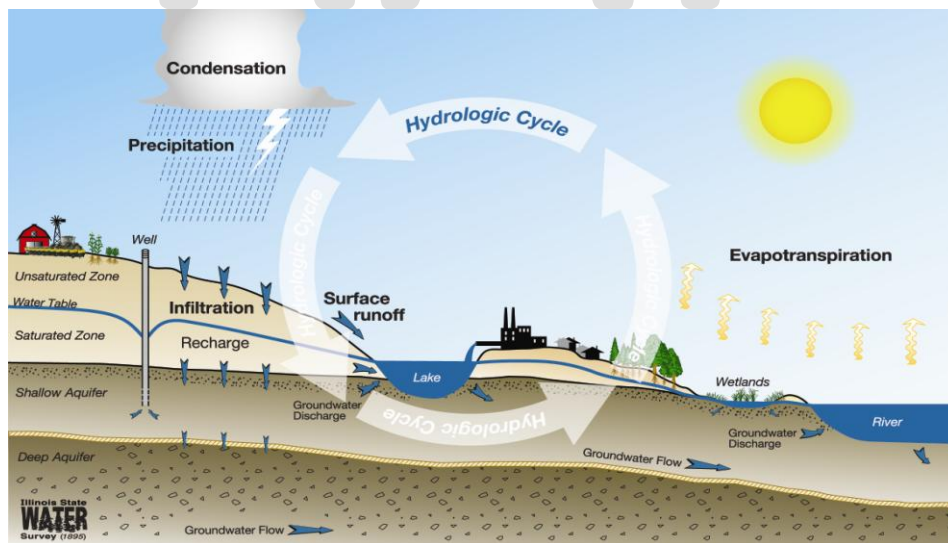


Figure 2. The water [hydrologic] cycle (from the Illinois State Water Survey).

800 Healthy aquatic and riparian ecosystems are essential components of the natural water
801 infrastructure and it is important to maintain their integrity and diversity. However, knowledge and
802 understanding of the impacts of water withdrawals on aquatic and riparian ecosystems in the region is
803 rudimentary. More is known about the impacts of waste water discharges on streamflow and aquatic
804 and riparian ecosystems. Such discharges are regulated to meet water quality standards.

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807 Climate

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809 Precipitation and temperature are the most important climatic variables affecting water availability
810 and water demand: water demand generally increases with higher temperature and lower precipitation;
811 the availability of surface water and shallow groundwater generally decreases with higher temperature
812 and lower precipitation. In general, hot and dry weather conditions stress water resources.

813

814 Historical climate records indicate a high degree of variability from year-to-year and decade-to-
815 decade in precipitation, streamflow and groundwater elevation in shallow aquifers (Appendix 1). Figure
816 3 shows the smoothed record over the past century of precipitation in the Illinois River watershed,
817 streamflow in the lower Illinois River, and groundwater elevation in a shallow well at Snicarte in Mason
818 County. Streamflow and groundwater elevation are strongly influenced by precipitation: typically, a 20
819 percent decrease in precipitation results in more than 50 percent decrease in runoff. Flow in many
820 small streams and recharge to reservoirs and shallow aquifers is reduced in periods of drought¹.

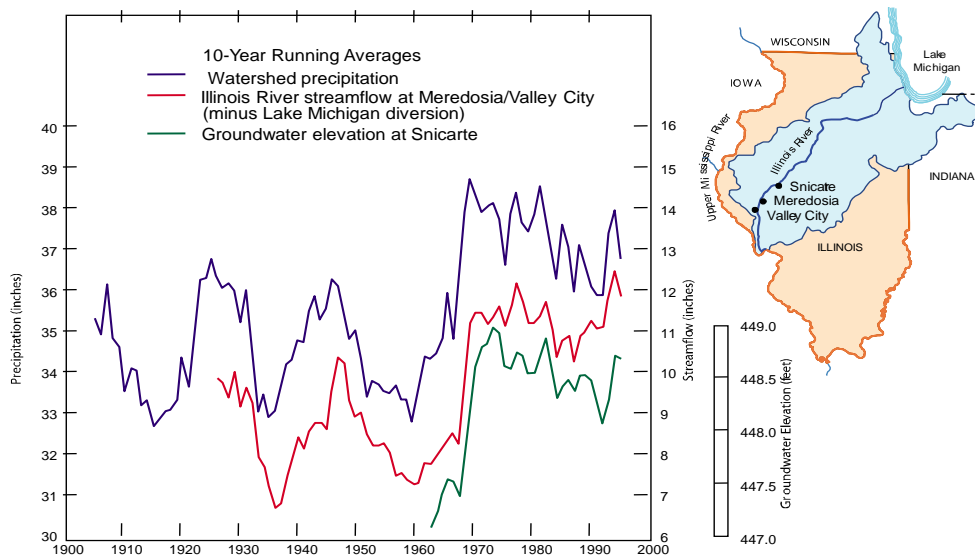
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822 In selecting the magnitude and frequency of droughts to plan for, precipitation return periods often
823 are considered. For example, precipitation with a 1-in-50 year return period (a 50-year drought) has a 2
824 percent chance of occurring each year; precipitation with a 1-in-100 year return period (a 100-year
825 drought) has a 1 percent chance of occurring each year. In Illinois, summer (May-September)
826 precipitation with a 50-year drought is about 38 percent below normal (1971-2000), and with a 100-year
827 drought it is about 42 percent below normal¹. Specified precipitation amounts can be transformed into
828 streamflow amounts in each river basin, thus allowing the hydrological impacts of climate variability and
829 change to be evaluated.

830

831 The availability of surface water supplies to meet demand typically is limited most during severe
832 droughts. The past 30 years generally have been wet and favorable for water supplies, although periodic
833 droughts and floods have created problems. A two year drought occurred in 1988-1989 and 2005 was a
834 drought year in many parts of the state. State-wide precipitation in 1988 averaged only 29.6 inches – 25
835 percent below normal (1971-2000) – but 1988 was only the eighth driest year on record¹. More severe
836 12-month droughts and severe multi-year droughts have occurred in the past, especially in the first 60
837 years of the 20th Century. Drought conditions persisted from April 1952 through March 1957, the
838 longest recorded drought in Illinois history¹. In 1953-1954, the worst drought on record for Springfield,
839 runoff into Lake Springfield averaged only 0.1 inches, compared to 9.0 inches in an average year and 1.1
840 inches in the 1988-1989 drought². For Decatur, the worst drought on record occurred in 1930-1931 and
841 for Bloomington in 1939-1940². Tree-ring analysis indicates a 10-year drought in the region from 1565
842 through 1574¹. It is multi-year droughts that have the greatest, long-reaching, persistent impacts on
843 water availability. Generally high precipitation over the past few decades may have led to a false

844 perception and acceptance of low risk in water supply planning and management.



845
846 Figure 3. Precipitation in the Illinois River watershed (top), streamflow in the lower Illinois River
847 (middle) and groundwater elevation at Snicarte (bottom) are closely correlated¹. The Snicarte well
848 is completed in the unconfined Mahomet Aquifer some 4 miles east of the Illinois River.
849

850 Although guidelines by the Illinois Environmental Protection Agency are for six months water
851 storage for a 40-year drought, there are no state requirements for water storage or drought
852 preparedness. Since the 1960s, Illinois State Water Survey scientists and engineers have focused on
853 estimating yields associated with specific drought frequencies, such as a 50-year drought. Best estimates
854 of water yields with 50 percent confidence limits traditionally have been considered to be firm numbers.
855 Recognizing that these best estimates may overestimate available water, the Illinois State Water Survey
856 now gives emphasis to estimating yields for specific drought frequencies, analyzing uncertainty in data
857 and methods, and providing confidence limits on yield estimates². Acceptance of a 90 percent
858 confidence limit provides a higher degree of confidence and less risk in water supply planning and
859 management than a 50 percent confidence limit.
860

861 High temperature also reduces water availability, but much less than a reduction in precipitation: it
862 has been calculated that an increase in temperature of 7 degrees Fahrenheit (°F) results in only a few
863 percent decrease in runoff¹. In 1952-56, average annual precipitation across Illinois was 18 percent
864 below normal and temperature was 2.1°F above normal; average annual runoff was 48 percent below
865 normal¹.
866

867 Global annual average temperature has increased over the past 150 years such that the current
868 global average temperature is higher than at any time since the mid-19th Century. However, annual
869 average temperature in Illinois in recent decades has increased much less than the global average, and it
870 is no warmer today in Illinois than it was in the 1930s and 1940s. Annual precipitation in Illinois has
871 increased markedly since the early 20th Century, but precipitation also was high in the 19th Century
872 before decreasing near the end of the century. Climate records indicate that the global temperature
873 trend has not been a consistent indicator of regional climate conditions in Illinois¹.

874 **Geology and hydrology**

875

876 Geologic and hydrologic conditions vary throughout the region and, together with climate
877 variations, have major implications for water supply (Appendix 1).

878

879 In the eastern half of the region, surface water supplies are limited by low flow in headwaters and
880 few valleys suitable for reservoirs: east of Decatur, only Danville has a surface water supply; elsewhere,
881 there is great dependence on groundwater. In the western half of the region, streamflow generally is
882 higher and Decatur, Bloomington and Springfield have reservoirs. Reservoirs are designed to yield
883 specified amounts of water during specified drought periods. Reservoir yield can fall short of meeting
884 required water demand, if a drought occurs that is more severe than the drought planned for. In all
885 reservoirs, sedimentation causes loss of storage capacity over time and environmentalists are concerned
886 about the ecological impacts of constructing and operating reservoirs.

887

888 Groundwater exists essentially everywhere, but nearly all groundwater withdrawals in the region
889 are from sand and gravel aquifers that have capability to transmit substantial quantities of water.

890

891 Throughout the region, discontinuous shallow aquifers are the source of some community and most
892 self-supplied domestic water supplies. Water levels in these aquifers respond quickly to climate
893 variations: water levels drop during periods of drought and rebound quickly when precipitation
894 increases. Aquifers, streams, lakes, reservoirs and wetlands are like bathtubs – the amount of water in a
895 bathtub decreases as water is withdrawn, unless the faucet is turned on. Across Illinois, some 82
896 community groundwater supplies are at risk of water shortages under moderate to severe drought
897 conditions, including about a dozen in East-Central Illinois¹.

898

899 The withdrawal of groundwater always causes head (water level) in a production well and
900 surrounding wells to decline and a cone of depression to form (Figure 4). The decline in head is called
901 drawdown. Where aquifers are physically connected, pumping water from a deeper confined aquifer
902 can affect an overlying shallow aquifer. For example, a well in Champaign finished in the Glasford
903 Aquifer is reported by the Illinois State Water Survey to no longer yield water, probably due mainly to
904 extensive pumping from nearby wells in the deeper Mahomet Aquifer (Appendix 1).

905

906 Well interference occurs when one well competes and interferes with the groundwater available to
907 another well drawing from the same or connected aquifer. A single high capacity well or a group of wells
908 pumping large amounts of water from a limited aquifer may stress the system. The cones of depression
909 associated with individual wells can merge to form a large sub-regional cone of depression: withdrawals
910 in and around Champaign County have formed a large cone of depression tens of miles across,
911 extending into neighboring counties. It is important to consider the cumulative impacts of pumping
912 groundwater from many wells in multiple jurisdictions.

913

914 Groundwater recharge occurs in all parts of the region, but at varying rates. Groundwater recharge
915 to the confined Mahomet Aquifer is impeded more by thick, relatively impermeable layers of silt and
916 clay (till) than by changes in land cover, such as urbanization³. In the Illinois State Water Survey
917 groundwater flow model, soils developed on the fine-grained till are assigned a recharge rate of 1.75
918 inches per year, although much of that water drains off to surface waters and does not recharge the
919 confined Mahomet Aquifer³. There is evidence that recharge to the confined Mahomet Aquifer is
920 greatest in areas where relatively impermeable layers of silt and clay are absent and leakage from
921 streams provides a large amount of water to the aquifer system. East of the Havana Lowlands in Mason

922 and Tazewell Counties, the Mahomet Aquifer is completely covered by till, except in the narrow alluvial
923 valleys of some major streams. With the exception of four critical stream segments, the alluvial sand
924 deposits do not appear to be connected to the Mahomet Aquifer. The following four key segments
925 appear to provide a large amount of water to the aquifer system by direct leakage from the stream³:

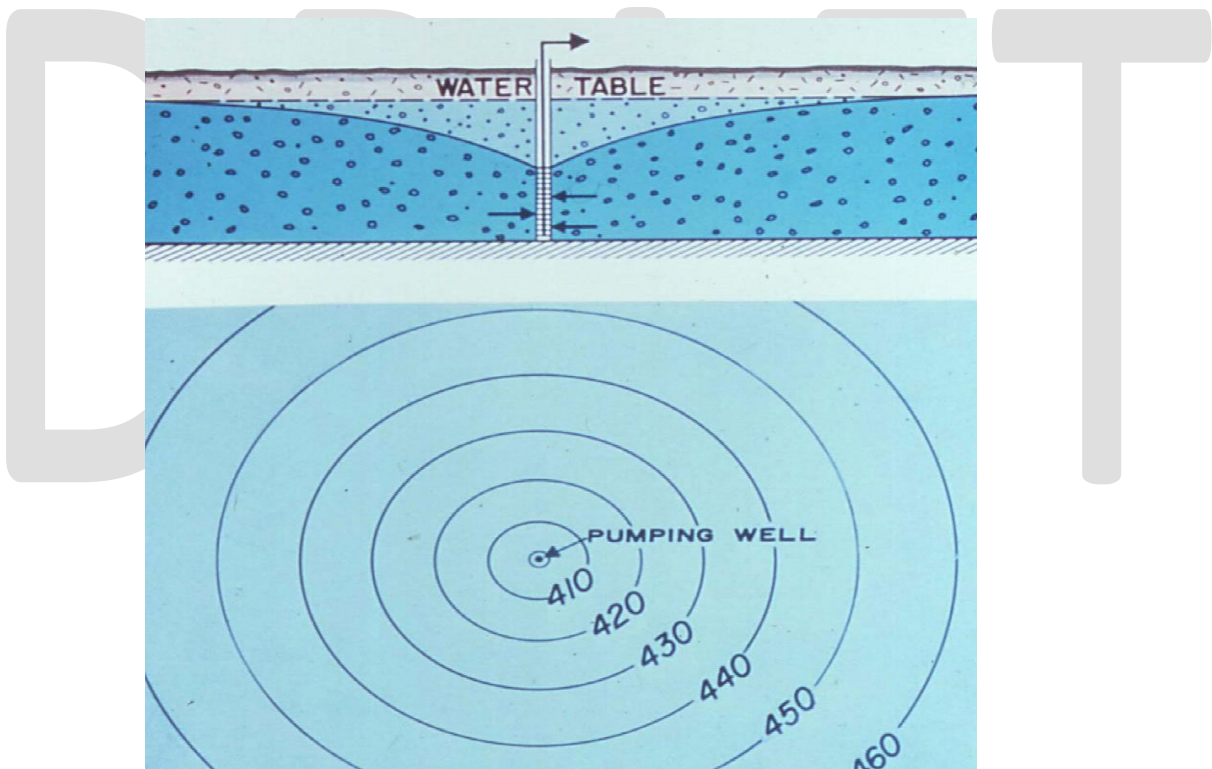
- 926
- 927 • The Middle Fork of the Vermilion River in northeastern Champaign County and eastern Ford
928 County;
- 929 • The Sangamon River between Mahomet and Fisher;
- 930 • The Sangamon River south of Monticello through Allerton Park; and
- 931 • Sugar Creek near McLean.

932

933 Statewide maps of aquifer sensitivity to contamination^{4,5} and potential for aquifer recharge⁶ in
934 Illinois have been published. The map of potential aquifer recharge is based principally on surficial
935 textural classifications, so is qualitative.

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952 Figure 4. Diagram to illustrate head elevations and creation of a cone of depression
953 when groundwater is pumped from an unconfined aquifer. An unpumped water table
954 elevation of 460 feet is shown (from the Illinois State Water Survey).

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957 In the Havana Lowlands, the geology and hydrology of the Mahomet Aquifer are different than in
958 the central and eastern parts of the aquifer. Here, overlying relatively impermeable tills are absent and
959 the aquifer is unconfined and behaves like a quick-response shallow aquifer: droughts and large
960 groundwater withdrawals for crop irrigation in summer lower groundwater levels and create cones of

961 depression, but water levels typically rebound after the growing season and with a return to higher
962 precipitation (Appendix 1). In the Illinois State Water Survey groundwater flow model, soils in the dunal
963 areas are assigned a recharge rate of 15.0 inches per year, and 8.8 inches per year where there are thin,
964 fine-grained lake-bed deposits covering them³. Due to sub-regional variations in geological and
965 hydrological conditions, drawdown (lowering of the water table) in the unconfined aquifer in the
966 Havana Lowlands is much less than, for example, drawdown (lowering of head) in the confined
967 Mahomet Aquifer in Champaign County, even though withdrawals in the Havana Lowlands are much
968 greater³.

969
970 As noted above, surface waters and groundwater are connected through the water cycle. Over time,
971 groundwater withdrawals are balanced by a reduction in groundwater storage, a reduction in natural
972 groundwater discharge to surface waters, and/or an increase in groundwater recharge. In general, an
973 aquifer is more able to support a large amount of water withdrawn from widely distributed wells rather
974 than from wells that are close together, although the economics of withdrawing, treating and
975 distributing water may favor the latter.

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978 Water withdrawal and use

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980 Water withdrawn and used in East-Central Illinois meets domestic, commercial and industrial needs
981 in the region and the needs of people outside the region for some goods and services produced in the
982 region, such as agricultural products and electricity. Past, present and possible future water withdrawals
983 and uses have been described in detail and are summarized in Appendix 1. Key findings from the water
984 demand report⁷ are presented here.

985
986 The average amount of water withdrawn per person each day in the region in 2005 for residential,
987 commercial, industrial and recreational uses and agriculture and irrigation (adjusted to normal weather
988 and excluding electric power generation) was about 312 gallons. High water withdrawals for irrigation in
989 Mason and Tazewell counties are a main reason why regionally-averaged per capita water withdrawals
990 are so high. Average per capita water withdrawal for public water supplies in 2005 was 147 gallons.
991 Average per capita domestic water withdrawal was estimated to be about 82 gallons per day. The
992 commercial and industrial sector also has its own water supplies, much of which is not for potable water
993 use. Withdrawals in this self-supplied sector averaged 160 gallons per employee per day in 2005.

994
995 Once water is withdrawn it is distributed and used. Two types of water use are recognized –
996 consumptive use and non-consumptive use. Water consumption represents that part of water
997 withdrawn that is evaporated, transpired by plants, incorporated into products or crops, consumed by
998 humans or livestock, or otherwise removed from the immediate water environment and is not available
999 for immediate or economical reuse. Almost all withdrawals for once-through, electric power generating
1000 systems represent non-consumptive use, because nearly all the water withdrawn is returned to the
1001 source after passing through the condensers. Furthermore, some of the water withdrawn for
1002 commercial, industrial and public uses also is non-consumptive, as treated waste water discharged to
1003 surface waters is available for reuse. A large but undetermined portion of the smaller withdrawals for
1004 three closed-loop, electric power generating plants and water withdrawn for agricultural irrigation is
1005 evaporated (consumed). Groundwater that is withdrawn, used, treated and discharged to surface
1006 waters is removed from aquifers, but is available for reuse in surface waters.

1007

1008 In 2005, population in the 15-county region was just over one million. Total surface water and
1009 groundwater withdrawals were modeled to be 339 millions of gallons per day (mgd). In fact, 2005 was a
1010 drought year, especially in western parts of the region, and water withdrawals were reported and
1011 estimated to be about 120 mgd higher than modeled withdrawals adjusted to normal weather.

1012
1013 Adjusted to normal weather, public water supply sector withdrawals in 2005 were modeled to be
1014 127 mgd, self-supplied domestic 9 mgd, self-supplied commerce and industry 64 mgd, agriculture and
1015 irrigation 139 mgd, and 1,315 mgd were withdrawn for electric power generation. The electric power
1016 generation sector withdraws the most water, but, as noted above, most withdrawals are for non-
1017 consumptive use.

1018
1019 For all sectors combined, groundwater withdrawals from the Mahomet Aquifer in 2005 (adjusted to
1020 normal weather conditions) are simulated to have been about 220 mgd⁹.

1021
1022 The above figures are for average day withdrawals throughout the year, but withdrawals generally
1023 are higher in summer than in other seasons. Peak day withdrawals for public water supplies typically are
1024 50 to 100 percent higher than annual average day withdrawals and up to a factor of 7 higher for
1025 irrigation. In 2005, a drought summer, peak day water withdrawals for irrigation in the Havana Lowlands
1026 in Mason and Tazewell Counties were reported to be almost one billion gallons.

1027
1028 Peak day demand plays a key role in water demand planning and management and most operators
1029 have drought response plans. Title IV of the Illinois Environmental Protection Act indicates that there
1030 should be continuous operation and maintenance of public water supply installations in order to protect
1031 the public from disease and to assure an adequate supply of pure water for all beneficial uses. This
1032 concept is carried forward in the Illinois Pollution Control Board Rules, in particular 601.101 (Appendix
1033 2). This could be interpreted as a 100 percent dependability standard for public water supplies. In
1034 general, continuous water supplies are planned for by developing capacity to supply water with a high
1035 probability of meeting peak day demand; contingency or emergency response plans are implemented to
1036 address unusual situations. Perfect water supply dependability, meaning no chance of future shortfall,
1037 generally is not optimal where water development costs are high.

1038
1039 The historical record of water conservation in the region is reported to show a slight declining trend
1040 in regional per capita water withdrawals in the public supply sector, although per capita water
1041 withdrawals in 2005 were slightly higher than in 1990. In the self-supplied commercial and industrial
1042 sector, a conservation trend is reported to reflect gains in the efficiency in production processes and
1043 technologies.

1044
1045 A comprehensive, consistent, reasonably accurate and regularly updated inventory of water
1046 withdrawals is necessary for water supply planning and management. The Illinois State Water Survey
1047 operates a voluntary water withdrawal reporting system – the Illinois Water Inventory Program. Much
1048 progress has been made and, even though some important data gaps remain and funding for the
1049 program is unstable, the Illinois Water Inventory Program remains the best source of Illinois water
1050 withdrawal data.

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1056 **Future water demand and withdrawal scenarios**

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1058 Many factors interact to determine how much water will be needed and will be withdrawn. A
1059 plausible range of water withdrawal scenarios has been produced, including consideration of drought
1060 and climate change⁷, and are summarized in Appendix 1. Key findings from the water demand report are
1061 presented here.

1062
1063 Major drivers determining water withdrawals are the number of people living and working in the
1064 region, the demand for products produced in the region, and the average amount of water withdrawn
1065 per person.

1066
1067 Population in the 15-county region of East-Central Illinois is expected to increase from 1.03 million
1068 in 2000 to 1.34 million in 2050 – a 30 percent increase.

1069
1070 If the average amount of water withdrawn per person remains constant and population increases by
1071 30 percent, total water withdrawals also will increase by 30 percent.

1072
1073 If population increases or decreases by more or less than the official 30 percent and the average
1074 amount of water withdrawn per person remains constant, water withdrawals will change by the
1075 percentage change in population.

1076
1077 If population increases by 30 percent and the average amount of water withdrawn per person
1078 increases or decreases, total water withdrawals will increase by 30 percent plus or minus the percentage
1079 change in the average amount of water withdrawn per person.

1080
1081 The major variables that could result in a change in the average amount of water withdrawn per
1082 person and, hence, total water withdrawals are reported to be household income, the price of water,
1083 drought, an increase in temperature, employment and productivity, new industrial facilities, the number
1084 of irrigated acres, and water conservation. Water conservation and water prices probably are more
1085 amenable to control than the other factors influencing water demand.

1086
1087 Demand for water and water withdrawals will increase. Using different combinations of
1088 assumptions, a plausible range of increases in total surface water and groundwater withdrawals in the
1089 region by 2050 (excluding electric power generation) is about 220 to 420 mgd more than 2005 modeled
1090 normal-weather withdrawals of about 340 mgd. This range of increase would be about 100 to 300 mgd
1091 above 2005 reported and estimated withdrawals of about 460 mgd, which was a drought year in parts of
1092 the region. Withdrawals for electric power generation (the large majority of which are non-
1093 consumptive) could decrease by 7 percent to about 1,218 mgd, or increase by 2 percent to about 1,342
1094 mgd.

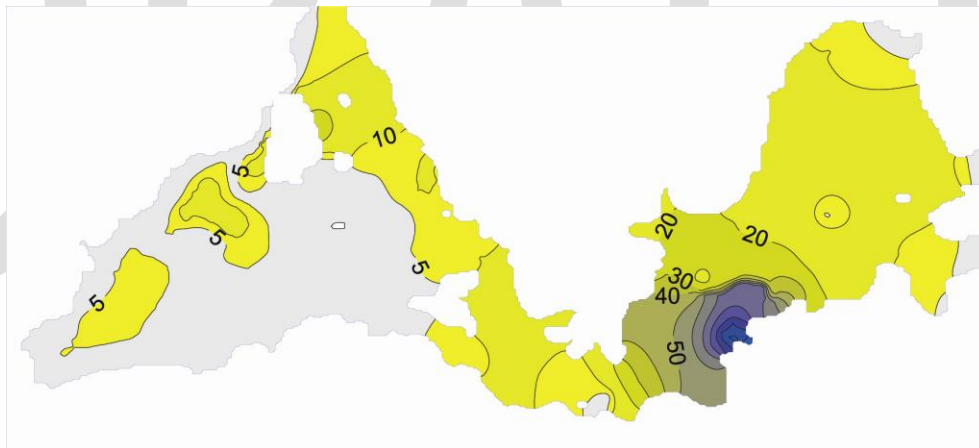
1095
1096 Under normal weather conditions, groundwater withdrawals from the Mahomet Aquifer are
1097 reported to increase from about 220 mgd in 2005 to 260 mgd in the Less Resource Intensive (LRI)
1098 scenario in 2050, 280 mgd in the Baseline (BL) scenario, and 300 mgd in the More Resource Intensive
1099 (MRI) scenario⁸. Withdrawals would be much higher in a drought year, especially for irrigation, and
1100 would increase with some climate change scenarios.

1104 **Impacts of groundwater withdrawal**

1105
1106 The Illinois State Water Survey, using data and a geological model provided by the Illinois State
1107 Geological Survey, created a groundwater flow model to simulate the impacts of withdrawing water to
1108 meet the three water demand scenarios⁹. All increases in pumpage were assigned to existing high
1109 capacity wells. A 95 percent confidence level for simulating heads is reported to be about +/- 5 feet.
1110 Simulations have not been conducted for domestic self-supplied withdrawals or pumping from possible
1111 new wellfields in the Mahomet Aquifer to serve Bloomington, Springfield, and/or other communities⁹.
1112 Recharge rates were adjusted up and down by 2 percent per decade to simulate the impacts of potential
1113 future climate changes⁹. The modeling results are preliminary.

1114
1115 Pumping from the confined Mahomet Aquifer is greatest in Champaign County and drawdown
1116 (decline in head) is and will continue to be greatest in and around Illinois American Water's production
1117 wells (Figures 5 and 6). The bull's eye of concern is in Champaign County, but in all cases head in the
1118 Petro North observation (non-pumping) well on Rising Road west of Champaign remains above the top
1119 of the Mahomet Aquifer, i.e., the aquifer is not dewatered locally (Figure 7). However, in a model cell in
1120 northern Champaign, near the boundary of the aquifer, head in the MRI scenario is modeled to drop to
1121 less than 25 feet above the top of the aquifer. Available head above the top of the aquifer is greatest in
1122 the LRI scenario and least in the MRI scenario.

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Figure 5. Simulated drawdown (feet) from 1930 to 2005 based on estimated historical withdrawals that increased over time⁹.

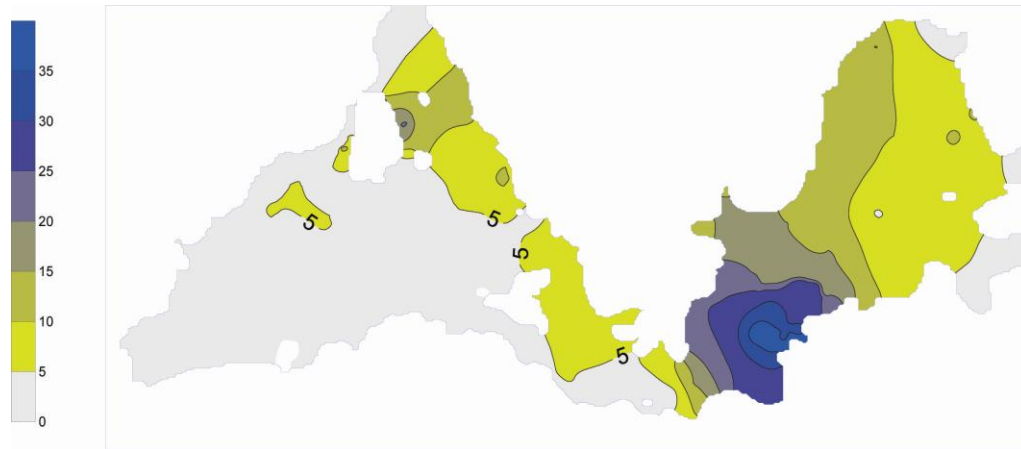


Figure 6. Simulated drawdown (feet) from 2005-2050 for the MRI demand scenario⁹.

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When simulating a 2040 pumping scenario of 51.1 mgd by Illinois American Water, Wittman Hydro Planning Associates, Inc. concluded that such pumping would be sustainable west of Champaign¹⁰. Conditions were considered to be sustainable as long as water levels were predicted to remain above the top of the Mahomet Aquifer, i.e., the Mahomet Aquifer remains saturated. However, in this simulation, heads about three miles to the east of the Petro North well drop to the top of the aquifer and drop below the top of the aquifer in a worst-case scenario, i.e., the aquifer starts to become unsaturated, or partially dewatered. This analysis did not include additional withdrawals from the Mahomet Aquifer by other communities or industries out to 2040, or withdrawals from the Glasford Aquifer. It was recognized that increased pumping by other users would add to the drawdown caused by increased pumping of 16 mgd by Illinois American Water and “reduce the capacity of the aquifer system to yield water in the Champaign area and will exacerbate the effects of expansion of the ILAW source of supply”. Also, it was concluded that “dewatering of shallow water-bearing zones will affect some local wells and will ultimately reduce the capacity of the Mahomet Aquifer due to decreased vertical leakage”¹⁰. Illinois American Water concluded that this level of pumping by Illinois American Water and the resulting impacts would be sustainable in Champaign County¹¹ [see also Appendix 1].

Figure 7 shows past, present and possible future head above the top of the Mahomet Aquifer (elevation 515 feet) in the Petro North well. Head has declined about 83 feet since predevelopment (1930) and is projected to continue to decline under all scenarios considered: the LRI, BL and MRI scenarios to 2050, linear extrapolation of the 1935-2007 trend in head to 2050, and a scenario of Illinois American Water pumping 51.1 mgd in 2040. Head in this observation well some distance away from the main production wells is expected to remain above the top of the aquifer. Also, heads in Illinois American Water’s production wells typically drop an additional 20-30 feet during pumping³. A further consideration is that data from the Illinois State Water Survey groundwater flow model are for transient simulations of average day withdrawals. Heads are expected to be somewhat lower under equilibrium conditions and in summer, especially during drought periods when water demand is higher. In some wells, head at some locations could drop close to or below the top of the aquifer in some pumping scenarios.

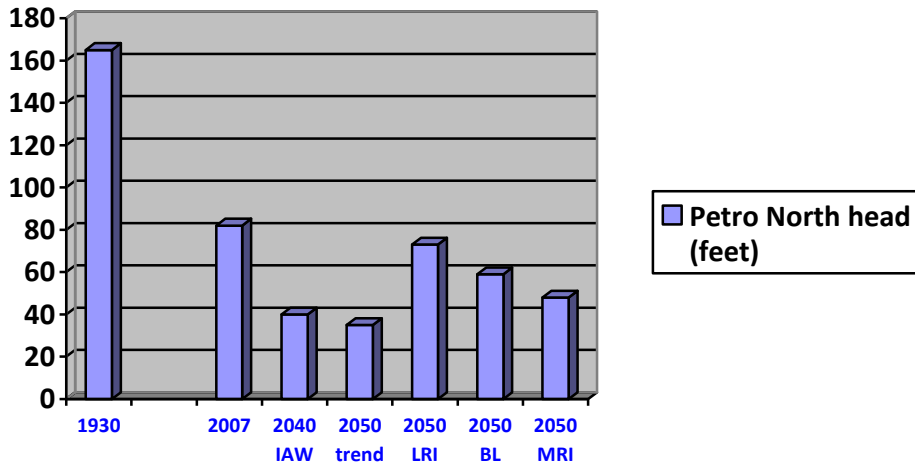


Figure 7. Head (feet) above the top of the Mahomet Aquifer in the Petro North observation well on Rising Road, west of Champaign. The 1930 head is a best estimate^{3,8}. The 2007 head is from observations^{3,8}. The 2040 IAW head (Illinois American Water pumping 51.1 mgd) is from visual interpretation of Figure 34 in reference¹⁰. The 2050 trend head is a linear extrapolation of 1930-2007 head data^{3,8}. The 2050 LRI, BL and MRI heads are from groundwater flow model simulations of the three water demand scenarios⁹.

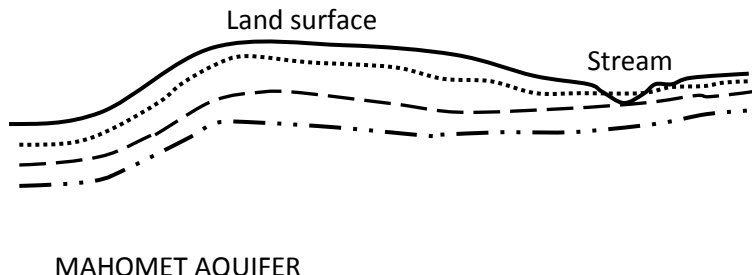
Withdrawing water from the aquifers also has other hydrologic and groundwater flow impacts: in the confined aquifer, recharge is increased by increasing infiltration from the shallow aquifers. Water levels in the shallow unconfined aquifers also are lowered and parts of the shallow aquifers in Champaign County are dewatered locally¹⁰.

Furthermore, Mahomet Aquifer groundwater flow from Champaign County to Piatt County, estimated to have been 10 mgd in predevelopment times, already has been reversed and Champaign County now “imports” an estimated 3 mgd from Piatt County³. By 2050, water from even further west will be pulled into the expanding cone of depression centered in Champaign County⁹. Possible implications of this groundwater flow reversal for water availability in Piatt County have not been evaluated.

The above simulations are for average day demand, but withdrawals for irrigation occur only in summer. When withdrawals for the summer season are simulated, and periodic withdrawals for the large industrial wellfield in Champaign County are included, the greatest impacts still are in the confined part of the aquifer east of the Havana Lowlands, even though hundreds of millions of gallons of water per day are pumped for irrigation in the Havana Lowlands⁹.

In the Havana Lowlands, groundwater elevation in the vicinity of pumping wells varies by up to 15 feet or more between wet and dry years, and in dry years some small streams may go dry (Appendix 1). Both drought and irrigation pumping reduce groundwater elevation and saturated thickness in the unconfined aquifer (Figure 8). However, there are huge amounts of water in storage in the unconfined aquifer and saturated thickness was reduced by only about seven percent in the drought year of 2005, and has since recovered³. This is due to the fact that the unconfined aquifer in the Havana Lowlands is able to release about 1,000 times more water out of storage per foot of drawdown than in the confined

1202 aquifer⁹. Withdrawals in the Havana Lowlands are projected to continue to increase and groundwater
 1203 elevation and saturated thickness to decrease in the growing season in all three water demand
 1204 scenarios⁹. There is a limit to the increase, however, as a point is reached where all irrigable farmland
 1205 acreage is assumed to be irrigated. However, even with higher withdrawals, groundwater elevation and
 1206 saturated thickness can recover quickly after the growing season and/or drought.
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MAHOMET AQUIFER

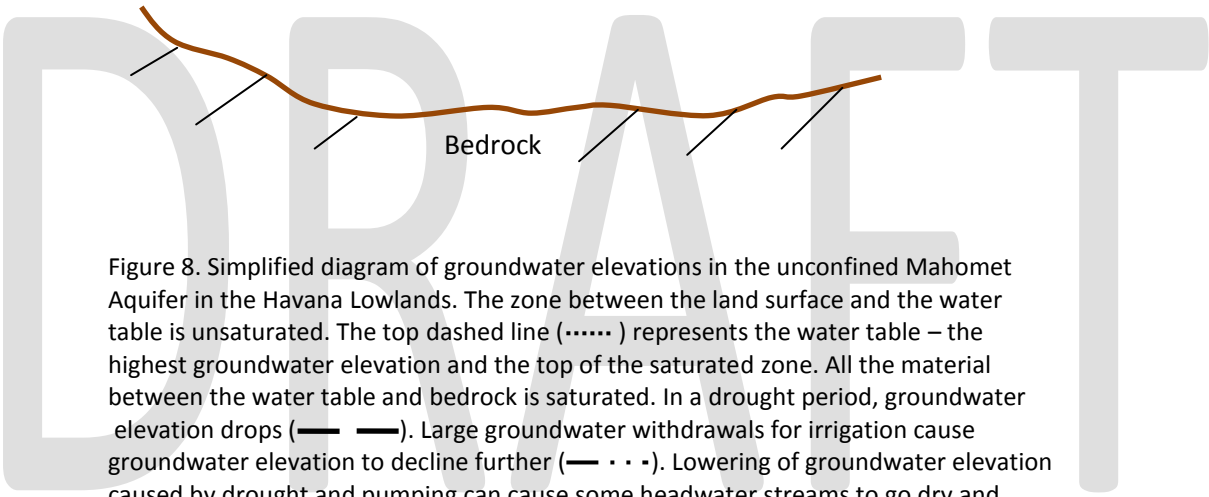


Figure 8. Simplified diagram of groundwater elevations in the unconfined Mahomet Aquifer in the Havana Lowlands. The zone between the land surface and the water table is unsaturated. The top dashed line (.....) represents the water table – the highest groundwater elevation and the top of the saturated zone. All the material between the water table and bedrock is saturated. In a drought period, groundwater elevation drops (— —). Large groundwater withdrawals for irrigation cause groundwater elevation to decline further (— · · ·). Lowering of groundwater elevation caused by drought and pumping can cause some headwater streams to go dry and reduce flow in larger streams.

1233 It was concluded from simulations of the Illinois State Water Survey groundwater flow model that
 1234 groundwater development has caused a significant decrease in the amount of baseflow discharge to
 1235 streams in the region, although a confidence level for calculated changes in streamflow is not
 1236 presented⁹. Baseflow discharge to the Upper Sangamon River and Quiver Creek watersheds is modeled
 1237 to have decreased by about 35-40 percent since 1930, due to reduced groundwater discharge, increased
 1238 leakage out of the rivers, and increased capture of recharge at the surface. Future reductions in
 1239 groundwater discharge to streams are greatest in the MRI scenario and with an assumed decrease in
 1240 recharge due to climate change. Groundwater discharge to streams increases in the LRI scenario and in a
 1241 climate change scenario in which recharge is assumed to increase. Under normal weather conditions in
 1242 all the demand scenario, streams do not dry out; but streams do go dry during drought periods⁹.
 1243 Analyses have not been completed that describe changes in the frequency with which streams go dry, or
 1244 remain dry, in groundwater development scenarios.
 1245

1246 It has been calculated that, in the BL scenario, a reduction of 8 inches (40 percent) from normal
1247 (1971-2000) summer precipitation of about 20 inches would result in an increase in total regional water
1248 demand (excluding electric power plants) of 106 mgd above 2005 normal weather withdrawals⁷.
1249

1250 Again in the BL scenario, an increase in temperature of 3 °F – the mid-point in the temperature
1251 scenarios – would result in an increase in total regional water demand (excluding electric power plants)
1252 of about 39 mgd. An increase in temperature of 6 °F – top of the range of temperature scenarios –
1253 would result in an increase in total regional water demand (excluding electric power plants) of about 78
1254 mgd⁷.
1255

1256 An extreme climate scenario for water supplies would be a decrease in mean annual precipitation, a
1257 recurrence of severe multi-year droughts, and an increase in temperature. All these factors would
1258 combine to increase water demand and decrease water availability. However, the probability of
1259 occurrence of various climate scenarios is unknown, and changes in drawdown due to changes in water
1260 demand under conditions of potential climate change have not been simulated.
1261

1262 All the above simulations are for transient runs, i.e., they simulate drawdown in 2050 associated
1263 with pumping in 2050. However, a further factor to consider is the response time for the aquifer system
1264 to adjust to specified pumping levels. Even if pumping is held constant at 2050 pumping rates, there can
1265 be a delayed response as the aquifer system adjusts to a new equilibrium, or steady state, among
1266 discharge, recharge and water storage. The Illinois State Water Survey has not reported on steady-state
1267 drawdowns⁹, but they could be an additional few feet⁸. And, of course, if pumping continues to increase
1268 beyond 2050, the transient and steady-state impacts will continue to increase.
1269

1270 The Committee finds that allowing water levels in wells to drop below the top of the confined
1271 Mahomet Aquifer and for the aquifer to become partially dewatered (dry), even locally, would represent
1272 a stressed situation. Similarly, the Committee finds that loss of too much saturated thickness in
1273 unconfined aquifers would represent a stressed situation, especially if streams go dry, or remain dry for
1274 a longer period as a result of groundwater development.
1275

1276 The main reason to use a range of scenarios is to demonstrate that determining future water
1277 demands depends on the choice of assumptions about uncertain future conditions. Different
1278 assumptions can lead to the identification of different futures and different management strategies. A
1279 regional water supply plan, therefore, can be developed only in the context of considerable uncertainty
1280 about future conditions – uncertainty that poses challenges, risks and opportunities.
1281

1282

1283 **Future water availability**

1284

1285 The amount of surface water and groundwater available in the future will depend on climate
1286 conditions, groundwater recharge and discharge rates, streamflow, reservoir capacities, and the amount
1287 of water that is withdrawn from storage.
1288

1289 Precipitation and water availability will continue to vary from year-to-year and decade-to-decade
1290 (Appendix 1). Even without considering human-induced climate change or using climate models, it is
1291 reasonable to assume that severe multi-year droughts are likely to recur in the future. With recurrence
1292 of droughts that occurred in the 1930s and 1950s, water levels in many streams, lakes, reservoirs,

1293 wetlands and shallow aquifers will drop to low levels and stress many water supplies and aquatic
1294 ecosystems.

1295
1296 Global climate models indicate that annual average temperature in Illinois could increase between 0
1297 and 6 °F by the year 2050 and continue to increase beyond that date (Appendix 1). However, there is
1298 considerable range in climate model projections and it is not possible to attach a probability to future
1299 temperature changes in the state. If temperature does increase, evapotranspiration will increase and
1300 diminish water levels in streams, lakes, reservoirs, wetlands and shallow aquifers, but much less than
1301 during a severe drought.

1302
1303 Scenarios of future precipitation amounts in Illinois produced from global climate model simulations
1304 range from a substantial increase in precipitation to a substantial decrease (Appendix 1). As with
1305 temperature, it is not possible to attach a probability to future precipitation changes in Illinois. If
1306 average annual precipitation decreases by several inches, water levels in streams, lakes, reservoirs,
1307 wetlands and shallow aquifers will decrease, but not as much as during a severe drought. Conversely, if
1308 mean annual precipitation increases, water levels in streams, lakes, reservoirs, wetlands and shallow
1309 aquifers will increase.

1310
1311 The susceptibility of the confined Mahomet Aquifer to long-term changes in temperature and
1312 precipitation is unknown, but it is expected to be much more protected from the potential impacts of
1313 climate change than shallow aquifers and surface waters. Groundwater flow model simulations indicate
1314 that water levels in the unconfined Mahomet Aquifer in the Havana Lowlands could go up or down by
1315 several feet with possible climate change, but head in the confined aquifer is little impacted by climate
1316 change⁹.

1317
1318 Trying to determine how many gallons of water are available, or will be available in the region is
1319 subject to many assumptions and is unlikely to produce meaningful management information. The
1320 approach that many scientists and engineers have adopted is to evaluate the benefits and costs of
1321 storing and withdrawing water to meet demand, rather than focusing on how many gallons of water will
1322 be available.

1323
1324

1325 **Benefits and costs of water withdrawals**

1326

1327 Providing water to meet demand involves considerations of benefits and costs. Many benefits arise
1328 from using water. However, withdrawing water from an aquifer, stream, lake, reservoir or wetland, or
1329 building a reservoir also has financial and environmental costs: storing or withdrawing a small amount of
1330 water has small costs; storing or withdrawing a large amount of water can have large costs. Perhaps the
1331 largest social and economic costs occur when insufficient water is supplied to meet demand and water
1332 shortages occur.

1333

1334 A key challenge is to determine the economic and environmental costs of water supply management
1335 that are socially acceptable. A more comprehensive analysis requires balancing the social and economic
1336 benefits of providing water to meet demand against the economic, social and environmental costs of
1337 providing, or failing to provide water to meet demand. It also requires comparing the costs and benefits
1338 of providing water to meet demand against the costs and benefits of reducing water demand. Such
1339 comprehensive cost-benefit analyses have not been conducted for East-Central Illinois; hence, the

1340 Committee is not in a position to evaluate alternatives or recommend water supply plans based on full
1341 cost-benefit analysis.

1342

1343

1344 **Balancing water availability, demand and supply**

1345

1346 Water demand scenarios combined with data and information on water availability lead the
1347 Committee to conclude that there is sufficient water available in East-Central Illinois to meet water
1348 demands to 2050, provided that i) economic and environmental costs can be tolerated, and ii) drought
1349 preparedness plans are developed and implemented.

1350

1351 The Committee does not have data on the capacity of all existing water supply facilities to meet
1352 existing and future water demands; the capacity of supply facilities was beyond the scope of this
1353 planning effort. However, providing dependable and adequate supplies of clean water to meet
1354 increased demand undoubtedly will require costly expansion of many water facilities, construction of
1355 new facilities, and/or reduction in demand. Funding for new infrastructure and operations may raise
1356 problems, but facility managers have authority and responsibility to resolve these problems. The
1357 Committee will not make recommendations in support of or in opposition to specific water supply
1358 development or conservation projects.

1359

1360 The Committee does view one of its roles to be the gathering and posting of data and information
1361 on water supply issues for deliberation by the public and diverse interest groups. The water demand
1362 scenarios and climate change sensitivity studies for the region are two examples; revealing what the
1363 Committee views as a possible early indication of an emerging issue – dewatering at least one well
1364 finished in the Glasford Aquifer in Champaign – is another.

1365

1366 Reservoirs are the prime sources of water supply for Decatur, Danville, Springfield and Bloomington.
1367 Bloomington's current use is about 12 mgd and the 90 percent estimate of yield in a drought of record is
1368 11.0 mgd. Decatur currently uses about 37 mgd and the 90 percent yield estimate is 34.6 mgd.
1369 Springfield uses about 32 mgd and its 90 percent yield estimate is 23.4 mgd². All three cities will have
1370 increasing water supply deficits in the future unless additional sources of supply are developed².
1371 Increasing deficits are due to increasing demand, and for Bloomington and Springfield to declining yields
1372 due to sedimentation. Droughts of record – or worse – could occur at any time. The 90 percent yield
1373 estimate for Bloomington in 2050 decreases to 10.1 mgd and for Springfield to 21.8 mgd. Decatur has a
1374 dredging program that removes sediment from their lake at about the same rate as sediment is being
1375 deposited from the Sangamon River. It is assumed that they will maintain this program, and thus the
1376 capacity of the reservoir will not change substantially over time². Water demand in 2050 in the BL
1377 scenario increases to 16 mgd for Bloomington, 56 mgd for Decatur and 37 mgd for Springfield². Water
1378 demands increase in the MRI scenario⁷. Danville will have a water supply deficit with the BL scenario by
1379 2050², and a greater deficit with the MRI scenario⁷. In the absence of measures to augment water supply
1380 or reduce water use, it is expected that the Springfield power plant will need to shut down, should a 40-
1381 to 50-year drought occur in the next decade, although sufficient water would still be available for
1382 potable water use¹. Ashland is expected to become part of Cass County Rural Water District, thus
1383 receiving a more dependable supply of water.

1384

1385 If limits on water storage and withdrawals are identified to protect the environment and ensure
1386 sustainable water supplies, these could pose additional challenges to balancing water withdrawals with
1387 water demand in some parts of the region, and result in higher water prices.
1388

1389 A regional perspective can bring to water supply planning greater unity in identifying future water
1390 demands and risks of drought and climate change, an analytical framework for evaluating the long-term,
1391 area-wide impacts of water withdrawals, and guidance on the sustainability of water supplies. In short,
1392 regional planning focuses on shared responsibilities and opportunities. The Committee believes that
1393 meaningful participation by all water facility managers in a regional planning process with their review,
1394 acceptance and implementation of regional guidance can lead to sustainable water supply management
1395 throughout the region, without diminishing the authorities and responsibilities of local water supply
1396 managers.
1397

1398 Water prices are reported to significantly influence water demand in the region⁷ – the higher the
1399 price the lower the demand. Water rate structures and water prices vary across the region due to the
1400 number of local historical and current management strategies and policies. In this pilot study, the
1401 Committee has not discussed water rates in detail.
1402

1403 1404 **Current laws, regulations and property rights**

1405
1406 Appendix 2 provides a summary of relevant water laws, regulations, and property rights. Key
1407 findings are presented here.
1408

1409 Water currently is stored, withdrawn, treated and distributed and waste water is discharged by
1410 public and private water system operators for beneficial use in accordance with existing laws,
1411 regulations and property rights. Complaints can be addressed through the courts.
1412

1413 Water withdrawals in the state are subject to the riparian doctrine of reasonable use. In the case of
1414 a complaint, the legal system allows for adjudication by the courts of the relative needs of landowners.
1415 The lowering of the water table or reduction in water pressure by a groundwater user that reduces or
1416 eliminates the use of a neighbor’s well is not necessarily unreasonable. Also, the law does not specify
1417 that it is unreasonable *per se* to dewater an aquifer, does not treat groundwater and surface water as a
1418 linked resource, and does not define the sustainability of water supplies.
1419

1420 Permits to withdraw water are required only for the public navigable waters of the Illinois River, the
1421 lower Sangamon River and lower Sangamon River South Fork, where maintenance of minimum instream
1422 flows is regarded as a benefit to the public. The construction of all water withdrawal and storage
1423 facilities is regulated, as are discharges of waste water.
1424

1425 An important component of the Water Use Act relating to groundwater is to establish a means of
1426 reviewing potential water conflicts before damage to any person is incurred and to establish a rule for
1427 mitigating water shortage conflicts (Appendix 2). Some counties are exempt. In the event that a land
1428 occupier or person proposes to develop a new point of withdrawal, and withdrawals from the new point
1429 can reasonably be expected to occur in excess of 100,000 gallons on any day, the land occupier or
1430 person is required to notify the Soil and Water Conservation District before construction of the well
1431 begins. The District in turn is required to notify other local units of government that have water systems

1432 that may be impacted by the proposed withdrawal. The District then is required to review, with
1433 assistance of the Illinois State Water Survey and the Illinois State Geological Survey the proposed point
1434 of withdrawal's effect upon other users of the water. The findings of such reviews are to be made public.
1435 However, this is an unfunded mandate for the Soil and Water Conservation Districts and the Scientific
1436 Surveys and the reviews are not conducted. Individual utilities and water authorities develop and
1437 implement their own plans with varying degrees of public participation and review.
1438

1439 The riparian doctrine of reasonable use states that wasteful and malicious use of water is
1440 unreasonable. The Committee is unaware of malicious uses of water in the region, but there is no doubt
1441 that some uses are inefficient and wasteful. There are varying degrees of unavoidable leakage and
1442 unaccounted for flow in water treatment and distribution systems, perhaps up to 15 percent or more.
1443 The efficiency of water used for all purposes could be improved.
1444
1445

1446 Institutional organization and governance

1447
1448 Appendix 2 provides information on institutional organization and governance relevant to water
1449 supply planning and management. Key findings are presented here.
1450

1451 Individual local, county, state and federal governments, non-governmental organizations, rural
1452 water districts, and private entities have individual roles, authorities and responsibilities to plan and
1453 manage water supplies. State-level activities for water supply planning and management in Illinois are
1454 conducted by various agencies, consistent with a variety of statutory authorities and responsibilities.
1455 However, there is no general statute in Illinois that allows comprehensive water resources management
1456 at the state level.
1457

1458 Thirteen Water Authorities in the region have roles in the planning and management of water
1459 supplies in the region, mainly to protect local interests. Their current authorities, geographical coverage
1460 and management strategies are insufficient to provide a framework for comprehensive management of
1461 water supplies across the region.
1462

1463 The Illinois Department of Natural Resources and the Illinois Environmental Protection Agency co-
1464 chair the Governor's Drought Response Task Force. The Task Force meets to coordinate state response
1465 to drought situations. The Committee is pleased that the co-chairs are revising the state's drought
1466 response plan to include drought preparedness. Being prepared for drought is an important component
1467 of providing dependable and sustainable water supplies.
1468

1469 Water supplies in East-Central Illinois, however, are planned and managed largely in piecemeal
1470 manner by individual managers and local and sub-regional authorities. Time horizons for planning vary
1471 from years to decades. Assumptions about future conditions that affect water demand and methods of
1472 water availability and impact analysis vary. No uniform dependability standard is implemented, resulting
1473 in varying risks of water shortages. The concept of the sustainability of water supplies is not uniformly or
1474 comprehensively defined or integrated in water supply management plans. Communication and
1475 cooperation among stakeholders are limited. Technical expertise at the local level often is limited. The
1476 public and many local officials have limited understanding of water supply issues and often are
1477 misinformed. Although there is an increasing tendency for managers to be aware of and take into
1478 consideration conservation and area-wide impacts of withdrawals, there is no planning and

1479 management process or structure for comprehensive water supply planning and management across
1480 the region. Existing laws and regulations do not provide explicit authorities and responsibilities for
1481 providing dependable supplies of water for future generations in a sustainable manner. Yet, despite all
1482 this, there have been relatively few conflicts or water shortages.

1483
1484 Regional, or area-wide, planning has become increasingly accepted in many states and other
1485 countries. This acceptance is based, in part, on awareness that issues of physical and economic
1486 development and of environmental deterioration transcend the geographic limits of local units of
1487 government. It has also been recognized that sound resolution of area-wide problems requires
1488 cooperation and coordination among all units and agencies of government concerned and private
1489 interests.

1490
1491 In Texas, for example, the Texas Water Development Board (the Board) has under Texas Water Code
1492 authority and responsibility for conservation and development of water across all 16 regions of the
1493 state¹². The Board's main responsibilities are threefold: collecting and disseminating water-related data;
1494 assisting with regional water planning and preparing the state water plan for the development of the
1495 state's water resources; and administering cost-effective financial programs for the construction of
1496 water supply, wastewater treatment, flood control and agricultural water conservation projects. The
1497 Board has a strategic plan, rules for regional and state water planning, and has produced a State Water
1498 Plan.

1499
1500 The way that Texas engages all water supply managers in each water supply planning region is for
1501 the Board to provide an opportunity for them to evaluate the Board's water demand projections and
1502 suggested management strategies and to submit to the Board for approval a portfolio of water
1503 management strategies tailored to meet each region's water supply needs. The Board's suggested
1504 management strategies include conservation, reuse of waste water, and new supply development to
1505 meet water demands under worst-case drought conditions. The regions' plans can include modifications
1506 to the Board's projections and suggested management strategies, but environmental and economic
1507 impacts must be assessed and guidelines established by the Board must be adhered to. However, it is
1508 the stakeholders in each region who decide how water supplies and demands are balanced. The Board
1509 provides technical assistance to the regions to enable county-by-county review of the Board's
1510 projections and the counties engage municipalities, utilities and other entities.

1511
1512 Membership in the Texas planning process is voluntary, but state support for financing water supply
1513 and treatment projects is tied to participation in the State Water Plan. The Texas loan program is similar
1514 to the existing Water Pollution Control Loan Program and the Public Water Supply Loan Program
1515 administered by the Illinois Environmental Protection Agency¹³.

1516
1517 The Board¹² identifies the following five benefits of its model that has well established authorities,
1518 responsibilities, incentives and oversight:

- 1519
- 1520 • Broad-based growth of public knowledge of water resource issues;
 - 1521 • Fostering a direct link between water planning and implementation;
 - 1522 • Enhanced cooperation among different interest groups;
 - 1523 • Improved relationships between environmental and development interests; and
 - 1524 • Implementation of water management strategies.

1525
1526 To the list of benefits could be added regional self-sufficiency.

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The sustainability of water resources is addressed in different ways in different states. In Texas, for example, the sustainable development of surface waters is based on safe yield during a drought of record, which already is well regulated and considered in reservoir management. Sustainability of groundwater resources is not required by state law, but most planning groups have adopted a policy of sustainability for their aquifers. In most cases, sustainability is intended to maintain groundwater availability at current levels through perpetuity. All but five of the state’s aquifers have what are described as sustainable values of water availability, and three of these will meet sustainable values in 2060. Several planning groups recommended temporarily overdrawing from their aquifers. In Texas and other states, it is recognized that some environmental costs of providing adequate supplies of water to meet demand must be acknowledged; but the balance between environmental and economic values is variable.

In a regional water supply plan for Southeastern Wisconsin¹⁴, the sustained ability of supplies to meet probable future needs is addressed by establishing objectives, principles and standards. Some examples of the standards are provided below.

- The use of the deep sandstone aquifer should be managed so that the potentiometric surface in that aquifer is sustained or raised under use and recharge conditions within the Southeastern Wisconsin Region.
- The use of groundwater and surface water for water supply purposes should be carried out in a manner which minimizes adverse impacts to the water resources system, including lakes, streams, springs, wetlands and aquatic ecosystems.
- Important groundwater recharge and discharge areas should be identified for preservation or application of land development plans and practices which maintain the natural surface and groundwater hydrology, while protecting the groundwater quality. The use of groundwater and surface water for water supply purposes should be carried out in a manner which minimizes adverse impacts to the water resources system, including lakes, streams, springs, and wetlands.
- Residential per capita water usages should be reduced to the extent practicable.
- Both indoor and outdoor water uses should be optimized through conservation practices that do not adversely affect public health.
- Water uses for commercial, industrial, and institutional land uses should be reduced to the extent practicable.
- Unaccounted-for water in utility systems should be minimized.
- The regional water supply plan should consider the possibility of long-term climate cycles that can affect recharge rates and water demand.
- The recommended regional water supply plan components should be adaptable to change in scope, capacity, and effectiveness to the extent practicable.

The Southeastern Wisconsin Regional Planning Commission (the Commission) defined unacceptable damage as “a change in an important physical property of the ground or surface water system – such as water level, water quality, water temperature, recharge rate, or discharge rate – that approaches a significant percentage of the normal range of variability in that property. Impacts that are 10 percent or less of the range in annual or other historic period of record for any property are considered acceptable, unless it can be shown that the cumulative effect of the change may cause a permanent change in an aquatic system by virtue of increasing the extremes of that property to levels known to be harmful. In

1574 the specific case of the deep sandstone aquifer, the term sustainability is interpreted to mean that the
1575 potentiometric surface in that aquifer is maintained at current levels or raised based upon use and
1576 recharge conditions within Southeastern Wisconsin”¹⁵.

1577
1578 Technical information for developing alternative and recommended water supply plans is provided
1579 in a comprehensive report on state of the art of water supply practices (best management practices)
1580 prepared by Ruekert and Mielke, Inc. ¹⁶.

1581
1582 The Commission is the official area wide planning agency for the seven-county Southeastern
1583 Wisconsin Region. The permissible scope and content of that plan, as outlined in the enabling
1584 legislation, extends to all phases of regional development, implicitly emphasizing the preparation of
1585 plans for the use of land and for supporting transportation, utility, and other public infrastructure
1586 facilities. The work of the Commission emphasizes close cooperation among various levels, units, and
1587 agencies of government, with oversight. Water supply system planning recommendations initially are
1588 advanced at the regional systems level of planning and are followed by implementation actions in the
1589 form of local project planning.

1590
1591 The Southeastern Wisconsin regional water supply plan includes the following major components:

- 1592
1593
- Development of water supply service areas and water demand forecasts;
 - Documentation of existing and potential water supply problems and issues as revealed by inventories, analyses, and forecasts to be prepared under the planning program;
 - Development of recommendations for water conservation efforts to reduce water demand;
 - Development and evaluation of alternative means of addressing the identified water supply problems and issues, culminating in the identification of recommended sources of supply and in recommendations for development of the basic infrastructure required to deliver that supply;
 - Identification of groundwater recharge areas to be considered for protection from incompatible development;
 - Specification of any new institutional structures found necessary to carry out the plan recommendations; and
 - Identification of any constraints to development levels in subareas of the region that may emanate from water supply sustainability concerns.
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1608 Unlike many states, Illinois does not have statutory mandates for developing and implementing
1609 regional water supply plans, permitting of water withdrawals and allocations, or mandatory water
1610 withdrawal reporting.

1611

1612

1613 **Technical assistance**

1614

1615 The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, through the Illinois State Water Survey, Illinois State
1616 Geological Survey and other departments, provides valuable technical assistance for water supply
1617 planning and management utilizing resources made available through the state budget and fees-for-
1618 service. The planning process in East-Central Illinois is dependent upon the technical support of the
1619 Scientific Surveys and the Committee wishes to maintain and strengthen this relationship.

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1621 **Summary of key findings**

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- A fundamental fact remains valid: withdrawing and using water is necessary for sustaining life and for domestic, commercial, industrial, agricultural and recreational uses.
- Water is stored, withdrawn, treated and distributed and waste water is discharged by public and private water supply operators for beneficial use in accordance with existing laws, regulations and property rights.
- Climate, surface waters, groundwater and aquatic and riparian ecosystems are physically interconnected and associated resource management issues are intertwined.
- Demand for water and water withdrawals will increase. Using different combinations of assumptions, a plausible range of increases in total surface water and groundwater withdrawals in the region by 2050 (excluding electric power generation) is about 220 to 420 mgd more than 2005 (normal weather) modeled withdrawals of about 340 mgd. This range of increase would be about 100 to 300 mgd above 2005 reported and estimated withdrawals of about 460 mgd, which was a drought year in parts of the region. Withdrawals for electric power generation (the large majority of which are non-consumptive) could decrease by 7 percent to about 1,218 mgd or increase by 2 percent to about 1,342 mgd.
- Under normal weather conditions, groundwater withdrawals from the Mahomet Aquifer are reported to increase from about 220 mgd in 2005 to 260 mgd in the Less Resource Intensive (LRI) scenario in 2050, 280 mgd in the Baseline (BL) scenario, and 300 mgd in the More Resource Intensive (MRI) scenario⁸. Withdrawals would be much higher in a drought year, especially for irrigation, and would increase with some climate change scenarios.
- An extreme climate scenario for water supplies would be a decrease in mean annual precipitation, a recurrence of severe multi-year droughts, and an increase in temperature. All these factors would combine to increase water demand and decrease water availability, especially in surface waters and shallow aquifers. The probability of such a scenario occurring is unknown. However, severe multi-year droughts are likely to recur in the future and pose a great threat to water availability and some water supplies in the region, especially those from surface waters and shallow aquifers. This is a bigger threat than a possible decrease in precipitation and increase in temperature with climate change. Some water supply facilities are not adequately prepared for severe multi-year droughts. Building capacity to be prepared for severe multi-year droughts also would provide protection against the adverse impacts of possible climate change.
- Surface water and shallow groundwater supplies typically are and will continue to be limited during periods of drought.
- Even during periods of drought and with possible climate change, there is sufficient water in the region to meet the future water demand scenarios considered, provided that adequate infrastructure and drought preparedness plans are developed and implemented and economic and environmental costs can be tolerated.
- Withdrawing water from rivers and aquifers, storing, treating, distributing water, and discharging waste water have social and economic benefits and economic and environmental

1668 costs. Determining how much water is to be withdrawn from different sources necessitates
1669 balancing and weighing benefits against costs and risks.

1670

1671 • Reservoirs are the prime sources of water supply for Decatur, Danville, Springfield and
1672 Bloomington. Bloomington’s current use is about 12 mgd and the 90 percent estimate of yield
1673 in a drought-of-record is 11.0 mgd. Decatur currently uses about 37 mgd and the 90 percent
1674 yield estimate is 34.6 mgd. Springfield uses about 32 mgd and its 90 percent yield estimate is
1675 23.4 mgd. Due to increasing water demand and increasing sedimentation, all three cities will
1676 have increasing water supply deficits in the future unless additional sources of supply are
1677 developed and/or demand is reduced. In a drought-of-record, Danville will have a water supply
1678 deficit with the BL scenario by 2050 and a greater deficit with the MRI scenario.

1679

1680 • Withdrawing sufficient water from aquifers to meet demands to 2050 results in increasing
1681 drawdown in wells finished in the aquifers, expanding cones of depression, a reversal of
1682 groundwater flow in some areas, and reduced baseflow in streams. The impacts increase in
1683 proportion to the amount of water withdrawn: they are greatest with the MRI scenario and in
1684 summer when demand is highest, especially in periods of drought and with an assumed increase
1685 in temperature. The bull’s eye of concern is in Champaign County, where drawdown could lower
1686 head in some wells to less than 50 feet above the top of the Mahomet Aquifer in some
1687 scenarios. Some shallow aquifers increasingly are dewatered locally, some wells finished in
1688 these aquifers go dry, and water levels in other wells drop below the pumps and will require
1689 pumps to be lowered to sustain yields.

1690

1691 • The Committee finds that allowing water levels (heads) in wells finished in the Mahomet Aquifer
1692 to drop below the top of the confined aquifer and for the aquifer to become partially dewatered
1693 (dry), even locally, would represent a stressed situation. Similarly, the Committee finds that
1694 allowing water levels in unconfined aquifers to drop to low levels represents a stressed
1695 situation. Similarly, the Committee finds that loss of too much saturated thickness in unconfined
1696 aquifers would represent a stressed situation, especially if streams go dry, or remain dry for a
1697 longer period as a result of groundwater development.

1698

1699 • Groundwater flow model simulations indicate that groundwater development and the creation
1700 of a large cone of depression have reversed groundwater flow from Champaign County to Piatt
1701 County and caused a significant decrease in the amount of baseflow discharged to streams.
1702 Groundwater withdrawals in other parts of the region also have reduced groundwater discharge
1703 to streams.

1704

1705 • The possibility of a slight increase in water withdrawals for electric power generation does not
1706 appear to create a problem, although projections of future electricity demand and associated
1707 water withdrawals are highly uncertain.

1708

1709 • The efficiency of water use can be improved and water demand reduced. Many factors
1710 influencing water demand, e.g., population, income and drought, are impossible or difficult to
1711 control. The price of water and water conservation are two factors influencing water demand
1712 that perhaps are most amenable to control.

1713

- 1714 • The varied physical, demographic and economic characteristics of the region result in distinct
1715 sub-regional variations in water availability, water storage ability and water demand that need
1716 to be factored into the development of a regional plan.
1717
- 1718 • There are uncertainties, errors and data gaps in all aspects of water supply planning and
1719 management, especially climate, water availability, water withdrawals, uses and losses, and
1720 estimates of the impacts of water withdrawals. Research and monitoring can reduce the
1721 uncertainties and errors and fill some of the data gaps, but available data and a range of
1722 plausible scenarios provide a solid basis for assessing and managing risks and identifying
1723 regional guidelines.
1724
- 1725 • Activities for water supply planning and management in Illinois are conducted by various
1726 agencies, consistent with a variety of statutory authorities and responsibilities.
1727
- 1728 • Common law provides users of water with only limited guidance to answering many issues that
1729 will likely arise in the future: for example, common law does not define the sustainability of
1730 water supplies. The planning concept of the sustainability of water supplies, which does not
1731 have a uniform, agreed upon definition, is not uniformly or comprehensively integrated in water
1732 supply management plans in the region.
1733
- 1734 • Water supplies in East-Central Illinois are planned and managed largely in piecemeal manner by
1735 individual managers and local and sub-regional authorities. There is no planning and
1736 management process or structure for comprehensive water supply planning and management
1737 across the region.
1738
- 1739 • Lack of funding prevents the mandatory review of the potential impacts of new high capacity
1740 groundwater withdrawals and realization of the full potential of the voluntary Illinois Water
1741 Inventory Program to provide a comprehensive and consistent data base of water withdrawals .
1742
- 1743 • There is no central authority for collecting, analyzing, archiving and disseminating water-related
1744 data for the region and insufficient input by stakeholders in setting priorities.
1745
- 1746 • The public and many local decision makers have limited understanding of water supply issues
1747 and often are misinformed.
1748
- 1749 • Regional water supply planning increasingly has become accepted in many states and other
1750 countries. This acceptance is based, in part, on awareness that problems of physical and
1751 economic development and of environmental deterioration transcend the geographic limits of
1752 local units of government. It also has been recognized that resolution of regional problems
1753 requires enhanced cooperation and coordination among all stakeholders.
1754
1755

1756 **Conclusions**
1757

1758 In examining the issues and challenges of water supply planning and management in East-Central
1759 Illinois and recognizing the efforts of other states, the Committee was faced with three key issues: (i)

1760 identifying whether changes to water supply planning and management need to be made in the region;
1761 (ii) if so, identifying the changes that need to be made, and (iii) determining whether such changes can
1762 be achieved within existing laws, regulations and property rights.

1763
1764 Based on the above findings, the Committee concludes that improvements in regional water supply
1765 planning and management are needed to continue to provide benefits and to reduce costs and risks for
1766 current and future residents of East-Central Illinois, those outside the region who depend on goods and
1767 services produced in the region, and the environment. The above findings facilitate identification of
1768 improvements that need to be made. A recommended regional water supply plan is presented in
1769 Chapter 3.

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