

Prepared in cooperation with the City of Wichita

Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

U.S. Department of the Interior U.S. Geological Survey

Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

By Jennifer L. Graham, Guy M. Foster, Thomas J. Williams, Ariele R. Kramer, and Theodore D. Harris

Prepared in cooperation with the City of Wichita

Scientific Investigations Report 2017–5016

U.S. Department of the Interior U.S. Geological Survey

U.S. Department of the Interior

RYAN K. ZINKE, Secretary

U.S. Geological Survey

William H. Werkheiser, Acting Director

U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Virginia: 2017

For more information on the USGS—the Federal source for science about the Earth, its natural and living resources, natural hazards, and the environment—visit [https://www.usgs.gov](http://www.usgs.gov) or call 1–888–ASK–USGS.

For an overview of USGS information products, including maps, imagery, and publications, visit [https://s](http://www.usgs.gov/pubprod)tore.usgs.gov.

Any use of trade, firm, or product names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

Although this information product, for the most part, is in the public domain, it also may contain copyrighted materials as noted in the text. Permission to reproduce copyrighted items must be secured from the copyright owner.

Suggested citation:

Graham, J.L., Foster, G.M., Williams, T.J., Kramer, A.R., and Harris, T.D., 2017, Occurrence of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2017–5016, 57 p., https://doi.org/10.3133/sir20175016.

ISSN 2328-0328 (online)

Contents

Figures

Tables

Conversion Factors

U.S. customary units to International System of Units

Datum

Horizontal coordinate information is referenced to the North American Datum of 1927 (NAD 27).

Supplemental Information

Concentrations of chemical constituents in water are given in either micrograms per liter (µg/L) or nanograms per liter (ng/L).

Abundances are given in cells per milliliter (cells/mL).

Abbreviations

Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

By Jennifer L. Graham, Guy M. Foster, Thomas J. Williams, Ariele R. Kramer, and Theodore D. Harris

Abstract

Cheney Reservoir, located in south-central Kansas, is one of the primary drinking-water supplies for the city of Wichita and an important recreational resource. Since 1990, cyanobacterial blooms have been present occasionally in Cheney Reservoir, resulting in increased treatment costs and decreased recreational use. Cyanobacteria, the cyanotoxin microcystin, and the taste-and-odor compounds geosmin and 2-methylisoborneol have been measured in Cheney Reservoir by the U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with the city of Wichita, for about 16 years. The purpose of this report is to describe the occurrence of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir during May 2001 through June 2016 and to update previously published logistic regression models that used continuous water-quality data to estimate the probability of microcystin and geosmin occurrence above relevant thresholds.

Cyanobacteria, microcystin, and geosmin were detected in about 84, 52, and 31 percent of samples collected in Cheney Reservoir during May 2001 through June 2016, respectively. 2-methylisoborneol was less common, detected in only 3 percent of samples. Microcystin and geosmin concentrations exceeded advisory values of concern more frequently than cyanobacterial abundance; therefore, cyanobacteria are not a good indicator of the presence of these taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir. Broad seasonal patterns in cyanobacteria and microcystin were evident, though abundance and concentration varied by orders of magnitude across years. Cyanobacterial abundances generally peaked in late summer or early fall (August through October), and smaller peaks were observed in winter (January through February). In a typical year, microcystin was first detected in June or July, increased to its seasonal maxima in the summer (July through September), and then decreased. Seasonal patterns in geosmin were less consistent than cyanobacteria and microcystin, but geosmin typically had a small peak during winter (January through March) during most years and a large peak during summer (July through September) during some years. Though the relation between cyanobacterial abundance and microcystin and geosmin concentrations was positive, overall correlations were weak, likely because production is strain-specific and cyanobacterial strain composition

may vary substantially over time. Microcystin often was present without taste-and-odor compounds. By comparison, where taste-and-odor compounds were present, microcystin frequently was detected. Taste-and-odor compounds, therefore, may be used as indicators that microcystin may be present; however, microcystin was present without taste-and-odor compounds, so taste or odor alone does not provide sufficient warning to ensure human-health protection.

Logistic regression models that estimate the probability of microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 micrograms per liter and geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter were developed. Models were developed using the complete dataset (January 2003 through June 2016 for microcystin [14-year dataset]; May 2001 through June 2016 for geosmin [16-year dataset]) and an abbreviated 4-year dataset (January 2013 through June 2016 for microcystin and geosmin). Performance of the newly developed models was compared with previously published models that were developed using data collected during May 2001 through December 2009. A seasonal component and chlorophyll fluorescence (a surrogate for algal biomass) were the explanatory variables for microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 micrograms per liter in all models. All models were relatively robust, though the previously published and 14-year models performed better over time; however, as a tool to estimate microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 micrograms per liter in a real-time notification system near the Cheney Dam, the 4-year model is most representative of recent (2013 through 2016) conditions. All models for geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter had different explanatory variables and model forms. The previously published and 16-year models were not robust over time, likely because of changing environmental conditions and seasonal patterns in geosmin occurrence. By comparison, the abbreviated 4-year model may be a useful tool to estimate geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter in a real-time notification system near the Cheney Dam. The better performance of the abbreviated 4-year geosmin model during 2013 through 2016 relative to the previously published and 16-year models demonstrates the need for continuous reevaluation of models estimating the probability of occurrence.

Introduction

Cyanobacteria (also called blue-green algae) cause a multitude of water-quality concerns, including the potential to produce toxins and taste-and-odor compounds. Toxins and taste-and-odor compounds may cause substantial economic and public health concerns and are of particular interest in lakes, reservoirs, and rivers that are used for drinking-water supply and recreation (Graham and others, 2008). Cyanobacterial toxins (cyanotoxins) have been implicated in human and animal illness and death in at least 43 States in the United States, including Kansas (Graham and others, 2009; Trevino-Garrison and others, 2015). Several countries have set national standards or guidelines for cyanotoxins in drinking water (Hudnell, 2008). The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency recently (2015) released health advisory values for the cyanotoxins microcystin and cylindrospermopsin in finished drinking water. The 10-day health advisory values for microcystin in finished drinking water are 0.3 microgram per liter (μg/L) for young children (less than six years old) and 1.6 μg/L for all other ages. The 10-day health advisory values for cylindrospermopsin are 0.7 μg/L for young children and 3.0 μg/L for all other ages (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2015). Many U.S. States have established monitoring programs to minimize potential exposure to cyanotoxins through recreational activities (Graham and others, 2009). The Kansas Department of Health and Environment (KDHE) uses two advisory levels to issue recreational public health advisories or warnings for cyanobacterial harmful algal blooms (CyanoHABs) in Kansas reservoirs. Cyanobacterial abundances between 80,000 and 250,000 cells per milliliter (cells/ mL) or microcystin concentrations between 4 and 20 µg/L are the current (2016) advisory levels for public health watches; cyanobacterial abundances or microcystin concentrations greater than or equal to 250,000 cells/mL and 20 µg/L are the current advisory levels for public health warnings (KDHE, 2015). Unlike cyanotoxins, taste-and-odor compounds have no known effects on human health, and there are no regulations or advisory values for these compounds. Aesthetic issues are associated with taste-and-odor compounds at low concentrations (5 to 10 nanograms per liter [ng/L]), and remedial actions commonly are implemented as soon as taste or odor is detected in a drinking-water supply (Taylor and others, 2005).

Cheney Reservoir, located in south-central Kansas (fig. 1), is one of the primary drinking-water supplies for the city of Wichita and an important recreational resource. During 1995 through 2013, about 70 percent of Wichita's annual municipal water supply came from Cheney Reservoir (Hansen and others, 2014). Because of population growth, urban development, and water-supply needs, the city of Wichita will continue to rely on Cheney Reservoir as a drinking-water supply for the foreseeable future. Since 1990, cyanobacterial blooms have been present occasionally in Cheney Reservoir, resulting in increased treatment costs and decreased recreational use (Christensen and others, 2006; Kansas Department of Health and Environment, 2016a). Since April 2001,

the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), in cooperation with the city of Wichita, has routinely collected discrete samples for cyanobacteria, the cyanotoxin microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds; and has continuously measured water-quality conditions to develop a real-time notification system of changing water-quality conditions that may affect drinking-water treatment.

Purpose and Scope

Cyanobacteria, the cyanotoxin microcystin, and the tasteand-odor compounds geosmin and 2-methylisoborneol (MIB) have been measured in Cheney Reservoir (fig. 1) for about 16 years. The purpose of this report is to describe the occurrence of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir during May 2001 through June 2016 and to update previously published logistic regression models that used continuous water-quality data to estimate the probability of microcystin and geosmin occurrence above relevant thresholds (Stone and others, 2013). A detailed analysis of the environmental factors related to the occurrence of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir and changes over time are beyond the scope of this report. Quantification of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir over a relatively long period will provide the city of Wichita and the State of Kansas a better understanding of associated waterquality concerns in the reservoir with respect to drinking water and recreational activities. The logistic regression models presented in this report provide useful indicators of microcystin and geosmin occurrence in Cheney Reservoir. In addition, the methods used in this study could be applied to other sites regionally, nationally, and globally.

Description of the Study Area

Cheney Reservoir, located in south-central Kansas (fig. 1), was constructed by the Bureau of Reclamation, U.S. Department of the Interior, between 1962 and 1965. The primary purpose of Cheney Reservoir was to provide the city of Wichita, Kansas, with a reliable municipal water supply, downstream flood control, wildlife habitat, and recreational areas (Bureau of Reclamation, 2016). Cheney Reservoir has a contributing watershed of 933 square miles (mi2). Land use in the Cheney Reservoir watershed predominately is rural; less than 1 percent of the land use in the watershed is classified as urban (fig. 1). All agricultural crops, including wheat, compose about 51 percent of the land use. About 26 percent of the watershed for Cheney Reservoir is grassland and about 18 percent is Conservation Reserve Program land (Peterson and others, 2010).

At a pool elevation of 1,420.7 feet (ft), Cheney Reservoir has a maximum depth of 41 ft, a mean depth of 16.8 ft, and a surface area of about 15.5 mi² (Kansas Biological Survey, 2012). Thermal and chemical stratification rarely happen in

Figure 1. Location of the U.S. Geological Survey water-quality monitoring station in Cheney Reservoir and land use in the Cheney Reservoir watershed.

Cheney Reservoir primarily because of the relatively shallow depths and persistent winds (Smith and others, 2002). Cheney Reservoir is eutrophic, and algal growth is likely light limited (Smith and others, 2002; Christensen and others, 2006). Cheney Reservoir is listed as an impaired waterway under section 303(d) of the 1972 Clean Water Act (Federal Water Pollution Control Act, 33 U.S.C. §1251 et seq.). Siltation is listed as an impairment to water supply, and eutrophication and pH are listed as impairments to aquatic life in Cheney Reservoir (KDHE, 2016b).

Methods

Continuous real-time (hourly) and discrete water-quality data were collected at one USGS station in Cheney Reservoir near Cheney Dam (fig. 1; USGS station 07144790). Water quality has been measured continuously at this station since April 2001; discrete water-quality samples have been routinely collected since May 2001. Continuous and discrete waterquality data collected by the USGS at the Cheney Reservoir station from May 2001 through June 2016 were used in analyses and to develop station-specific logistic regression models.

Continuous Water-Quality Monitoring

The Cheney Reservoir water-quality monitoring station (fig. 1) was equipped with a YSI 6-series water-quality monitor to measure continuous (hourly) specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen (YSI Clark cell or optical dissolved-oxygen sensors), turbidity (YSI model 6026 and 6136 turbidity sensors), and chlorophyll fluorescence (YSI model 6025 sensor). The YSI Clark cell dissolved-oxygen sensor was used from April 2001 through January 2007 and was replaced by the YSI model 6150 optical dissolved-oxygen sensor in February 2007. A YSI model 6026 turbidity sensor was used from April 2001 through September 2006 and was replaced by the YSI model 6136 turbidity sensor in October 2006. The YSI 6-series was replaced by a Xylem YSI EXO2

4 Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

water-quality monitor in October 2014 and measured the same water-quality parameters. All data are considered comparable during the period of record despite the changes in the waterquality monitor during the course of the study. There are some documented differences in 6026 and 6136 turbidity sensor. Stone and others (2013) developed a relation to convert 6026 turbidity data to 6136 turbidity data; however, there was a lot of scatter around the relation. In the dataset used for analyses in this report, the difference in corrected and uncorrected 6026 turbidity values was 12 formazin nephelometric units or less (median=0.2), so no adjustments were made to turbidity values. Reservoir elevation was measured using a Design Analysis H–350 nonsubmersible pressure transducer and H–355 gas system. The water-quality monitor and pressure transducer were maintained in accordance with standard USGS procedures (Wilde, variously dated; Wagner and others, 2006; Sauer and Turnipseed, 2010). Continuous water-quality data were recorded hourly and are available through the USGS National Water Information System database at [https://doi.org/10.5066/](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN) [F7P55KJN](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN).

Sensor maxima were not exceeded for any of the physicochemical properties measured, with the exception of one fluorescence measurement (409 μ g/L; sensor maxima=400 μ g/L) on August 11, 2003. According to the guidelines established in Wagner and others (2006), during 2001 through 2016, 92 percent of the continuous data were rated as excellent (requiring corrections of less than plus or minus 5 percent), 4 percent were rated as good (requiring corrections of less than plus or minus 10 percent), 2 percent were rated as fair (requiring corrections of less than plus or minus 15 percent), and 2 percent were rated as poor (requiring corrections of greater than plus or minus 15 percent). Time-series measurements occasionally were missing or deleted from the dataset because of equipment malfunction, excessive fouling caused by environmental conditions, or temporary removal of the sensors because of ice on the reservoir. During April 2001 through June 2016, about 5 percent of the water temperature record; 11 percent of the turbidity record; 9 percent of the dissolved oxygen record; and 7 percent of the specific conductance, pH, and fluorescence records were missing or deleted, largely because of sensor removal during ice cover.

Discrete Water-Quality Sampling

Discrete water-quality samples were collected about biweekly to monthly from May 2001 through June 2016 at USGS water-quality monitoring station 07144790. Most samples (226 of 230) were collected between 8:45 a.m. and 12:15 p.m. During May 2001 through July 2004, samples were collected near the surface using a Teflon Kemmerer bottle or a weighted bottle sampler with a 1-liter Teflon bottle following USGS methods (U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated); these samples were not depth integrated. Starting in August 2004, discrete water-quality samples were collected as integrated photic-zone (depth at which light is about 1 percent of

that at the surface) samples using a double check-valve bailer (Lane and others, 2003); these samples were depth integrated. Vertical profiles collected in Cheney Reservoir indicated that thermal stratification rarely happens and water-quality conditions typically are uniform throughout the water column. Water-quality results collected before and after the sampling procedure change in summer 2004 were similar. All water samples were analyzed for phytoplankton community composition and the taste-and-odor compounds geosmin and MIB. Starting in June 2003, all samples also were analyzed for the cyanotoxin microcystin. All samples were processed and analyzed as described in Stone and others (2013). Geosmin, MIB, and microcystin data are available through the USGS National Water Information System database at [https://doi.org/10.5066/](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN) [F7P55KJN](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN)*.* Phytoplankton community composition data are available in Graham (2017).

Phytoplankton samples (preserved with a 9:1 Lugol's iodine:acetic acid solution) were analyzed for taxonomic identification and enumeration by BSA Environmental Services, Inc., Beachwood, Ohio. Phytoplankton were enumerated to the lowest possible taxonomic level using membrane-filtered slides (McNabb, 1960) and a Leica DMLB compound microscope (\times 100, \times 200, \times 400, \times 630, and \times 1000 magnification). This technique preserves cell structure and provides good resolution, allowing samples to be examined at high magnifications. The magnification used depended upon the size of dominant taxa and presence of particulates. The goal was to count at multiple magnifications so identification and enumeration of taxa that span several orders of magnitude in size was achieved. If a sample was dominated by cells or natural units below 10 to 20 micrometers (μm) in size, or when cells were fragile and difficult to identify, most counting was completed at \times 630 magnification. Samples were thoroughly mixed as part of the filtering process to ensure that organisms were evenly distributed. The abundance of common taxa was estimated by random field counts. At least 400 natural units (colonies, filaments, and unicells) were enumerated to the lowest possible taxonomic level from each sample. In addition, an entire strip of the filter was counted at high magnification (usually \times 630 magnification) exclusively for cyanobacteria missed during the random field counts to further ensure complete potential harmful algal species detection. For abundant filamentous taxa, the total number of cells per filament was estimated by quantifying the number of cells within a known length (for example, 100 μm) of 25 filaments. The mean number of cells per known length was then calculated and applied to measurements of the length and width of each filament encountered to estimate the total cell number of that taxon in the sample. In colonies with extremely small cells (for example, *Microcystis*), cells were enumerated from a small representative area of the colony containing at least 100 cells. In accordance with Lund and others (1958), counting using this approach provides accuracy within 90-percent confidence limits.

During May 2001 through September 2012, only dissolved geosmin and MIB were analyzed; starting in October 2012, total geosmin and MIB were analyzed, and dissolved samples were analyzed if concentrations exceeded 5 ng/L. A comparison of samples in which total and dissolved concentrations were measured indicated that reporting of occurrence was not affected by this change, but maximum concentrations likely were underreported before analysis of total concentrations. Geosmin and MIB were analyzed using solid phase microextraction gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (Zimmerman and others, 2002). Throughout the course of the study, Montgomery Watson Laboratories, Pasadena, California (2001–3), the USGS Organic Geochemistry Research Laboratory, Lawrence, Kans. (2003–7), and Engineering Performance Solutions, LLC, Gainesville, Florida (2007–14) provided analyses for geosmin and MIB. Each time laboratories were changed, an among-laboratory comparison was completed before the change was made to verify comparability of results; an analysis of the among-laboratory comparisons is provided in Stone and others (2013).

Microcystin was analyzed by the USGS Organic Geochemistry Research Laboratory, Lawrence, Kans. Before 2005, unfiltered whole-water samples were analyzed for microcystin (environmental microcystin concentrations) (Christensen and others, 2006). Starting in 2005, all samples were lysed by three sequential freeze-thaw cycles and filtered using 0.7-µm glass-fiber filters before analysis for microcystin (total microcystin concentrations; Loftin and others, 2008). Reporting of microcystin occurrence likely was not affected by the change from environmental to total concentrations, but maxima were likely underreported before the analysis of total concentrations (Graham and others, 2010). Abraxis® enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays were used to measure microcystin (congener independent).

Quality-assurance and quality-control (QA/QC) samples were collected to evaluate variability in sample collection and processing techniques. Stone and others (2013) describe the QA/QC information for the discrete microcystin, geosmin, and MIB samples; and continuous water-quality data collected during April 2001 through December 2009. Relative percentage difference (RPD) was used to evaluate differences in analyte concentrations detected in replicate water samples. The RPD was calculated by dividing the difference between the replicate pair by the mean of the replicate pair and multiplying that value by 100, thereby creating a value that represents the percent difference between replicate samples (Zar, 1999). The medians of individual replicate RPDs for microcystin, geosmin, and MIB were 2 percent (range from 0 to 26 percent, $n=10$), 5 percent (range from 0 to 14 percent, $n=6$), and 2 percent (range from 0 to 11 percent, *n*=7), respectively. Larger RPDs generally were the result of values near the laboratory reporting level.

About 10 percent of the phytoplankton samples collected during 2001 through 2016 were QA/QC samples. Absolute value logarithmic difference (AVLD) was used to evaluate differences in cyanobacterial abundance between replicate pairs (Francy and others, 2015). AVLD was calculated as follows:

$$
AVLD = |log_{10}R1 - log_{10}R2|
$$
 (1)

where

R₁ is cyanobacterial abundance in replicate 1, and

 $R₂$ is cyanobacterial abundance in replicate 2. AVLD was used to evaluate differences for phytoplankton data because RPD calculations are sensitive to rare taxa present in one of the replicate samples but not the other. Replicate pairs with an AVLD less than logarithm 1.0 were considered acceptable for cyanobacterial abundance. The AVLDs for cyanobacterial abundance ranged from 0 to 3.5 $(n=22)$. Median AVLD was 0.3; 73 percent of comparisons had AVLDs less than 0.75. Replicates with AVLDs greater than logarithm 1.0 (27 percent of all comparisons) happened when cyanobacteria were rare and represented less than 5 percent of the total phytoplankton abundance.

Correlation Analysis

Cyanobacterial production of toxins and taste-and-odor compounds is strain specific, and cyanobacterial abundance (or abundance of potential producers) may not be linearly related to the concentration of these compounds in the environment (Graham and others, 2008). Nonparametric Spearman rank-correlation analysis was used to test for monotonic relations between cyanobacterial abundance, microcystin, and geosmin (Helsel and Hirsch, 2002). MIB was not detected frequently enough in Cheney Reservoir to be included in correlation analysis. Spearman rank-correlation coefficients (rho values) were considered significant when probability values $(p$ -values) were less than 0.05.

Development of Logistic Regression Models for Microcystin and Geosmin

Multiple logistic regression was used to develop models to identify factors that best explained the probability of microcystin and geosmin concentrations exceeding selected thresholds, following the methods described in Foster and Graham (2016). MIB was only occasionally detected in Cheney Reservoir, precluding the development of a logistic regression model. Microcystin and geosmin models were developed for the full dataset (microcystin—January 2003 through June 2016, about 14 years; geosmin—May 2001 through June 2016, about 16 years) and an abbreviated dataset (January 2013 through June 2016, about 4 years). January 2013 through June 2016 was selected for the abbreviated dataset because an August 2013 inflow event caused the reservoir to gain about 89,000 acre-feet over 10 days, stimulating a geosmin event in the reservoir (Otten and others, 2016); high geosmin concentrations have been observed in late summer and fall since the 2013 inflow.

6 Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

Logistic regression models the probability of the response variable being in one of two categorical response groups (for example, 0 equals a reference or negative response and 1 equals a positive response) (Helsel and Hirsch, 2002). The logistic regression model form used in this analysis models the probability of obtaining a 1 (positive) response. Additional details on the logistic regression model form used in this analysis are available in Foster and Graham (2016). Because logistic regression models for microcystin and geosmin previously were developed for Cheney Reservoir (Stone and others, 2013), the same categorical thresholds were used to assign concentrations a value of 1 (positive) or 0 (negative). A value of 1 was assigned to concentrations greater than or equal to the analytical detection threshold for microcystin (0.1 µg/L) and the human detection threshold for geosmin (5.0 ng/L; Taylor and others, 2005).

Explanatory variables available as inputs to the multiple logistic regression analyses for the study period (April 2001 through June 2016) were specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, turbidity, chlorophyll fluorescence, and reservoir elevation. Fluorescence sensors for cyanobacteria (which target the accessory pigment phycocyanin found in cyanobacteria) have been operated in Cheney Reservoir since 2007, but these data were not included in logistic model development for two reasons: (1) the period of record is incomplete and (2) data collected by the YSI 6-series phycocyanin sensor (operated May 2007 through September 2014) and EXO2 phycocyanin sensor (operated since October 2014) sensors are not comparable (units of cells per milliliter cyanobacteria and micrograms per liter of phycocyanin, respectively). Seasonal components (sine and cosine variables) were used as explanatory variables to determine if seasonal changes affected the model. All combinations of physicochemical properties and a seasonal component were evaluated to determine which combinations produced the best models.

Logistic model equations were developed using the multiple logistic regression routine in SigmaPlot® version 13.0 (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). Explanatory variables were evaluated individually and in selected combinations. Model combinations and the final best model were selected based on the statistical tests described in Stone and others (2013) in the following order: Pearson Chi-Square Statistic, Likelihood Ratio Test statistic, Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic, and the -2 logarithm likelihood ratio. Variance inflation factors and Wald Statistic *p*-values were used to evaluate the redundancy of multiple explanatory variables included in the models and the association between explanatory and dependent variables. Model simplicity also was considered for model selection because as more variables are included, the likelihood that the variability of the system is not described by the sampling dataset increases. A model classification table with a threshold probability for positive classification (TPPC) of 0.5 also was used in final model selection. A model classification table places dependent variable data into one of four categories: (1) positive response predicted as positive (true positive; model sensitivity), (2) reference response

predicted as reference (true negative; model specificity), (3) positive response predicted as reference (false negative), and (4) reference response predicted as positive (false positive) (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). A model was arbitrarily considered suitable for constituent probability computations if the model properly classified 65 percent or more of the sample data as positive or reference, and the positively classified data included the highest measured concentrations. After the best model was selected, the TPPC for the model was adjusted to maximize the number of samples classified as positive to make the model more conservative (more likely to give a false positive than a false negative) by guarding more strongly against false negatives. The regression then used the newly adjusted thresholds, which changed the number of sample data classified as positive and reference, but the model constants and other statistical outputs remained the same.

Occurrence of Cyanobacteria and Associated Compounds in Cheney Reservoir

The USGS has collected continuous (hourly) and discrete water-quality data at a water-quality monitoring station near Cheney Dam for about 16 years. Discrete water-quality samples were collected about biweekly to monthly during May 2001 through June 2016. Water-quality analyses of discretely collected samples included cyanobacterial abundance, the cyanotoxin microcystin (starting in 2003), and the taste-and-odor compounds geosmin and MIB.

Cyanobacterial Abundance

Cyanobacteria were common in Cheney Reservoir and were present in about 84 percent (*n*=214) of the samples collected during May 2001 through June 2016 with abundances ranging from 0 to 160,000 cells/mL (median=2,400 cells/mL) (table 1). The highest cyanobacterial abundances were observed in 2006 (range from 560 to 160,000 cells/mL) and the lowest abundances were observed in 2002 (range from 48 to 2,300 cells/mL) and 2010 (range from 0 to 2,900 cells/mL). The maximum cyanobacterial abundance observed in 2006 was nearly three times higher than the next largest maximum abundance observed in 2013. Cyanobacteria dominated (greater than 50 percent of total algal abundance) the algal community in about 39 percent of samples, most frequently during June through November, but dominance was observed in all months of the year. Cyanobacterial abundance varied substantially among years, but broad seasonal patterns were consistent. Cyanobacterial abundances generally peaked in late summer or early fall (August through October), with smaller peaks observed in winter (January through February) and occasionally in spring (April through May) (fig. 2*A*).

Table 1. Statistical summaries of cyanobacterial abundance, microcystin, geosmin, and 2-methylisoborneol data collected at Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, May 2001 through June 2016.

[*n*, number of samples; --, not measured; <, less than; MIB, 2-methylisoborneol]

Figure 2. Seasonal patterns in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, May 2001 through June 2016. *A*, cyanobacterial abundance. *B*, microscysin concentration. *C*, geosmin concentration.

Though cyanobacteria were common in Cheney Reservoir, abundances at the USGS station near Cheney Dam only occasionally exceeded advisory values of concern. Cyanobacteria are a concern for drinking-water treatment at abundances as low as 20,000 cells/mL (Taylor and others, 2005). Cyanobacterial abundance in Cheney Reservoir exceeded 20,000 cells/mL in about 9 percent of samples. Abundances exceeded 20,000 cells/mL throughout the year, but such abundances happened most frequently in winter (January through February) and summer or early fall (July through October) (fig. 2*A*). The KDHE (2015) advisory level for a public health watch (greater than 80,000 cells/mL) was exceeded in 3 percent of samples, all collected during 2006. Cyanobacterial abundance in Cheney Reservoir never exceeded the KDHE (2015) advisory level for a public health warning (greater than 250,000 cells/mL). Although cyanobacterial abundance near Cheney Dam only exceeded the KDHE (2015) value for a public health watch 1 year during May 2001 through June 2016, the KDHE has occasionally issued public health watches and warnings for the reservoir based on exceedances observed at other locations (KDHE, 2016a).

Genetic analyses have identified *Microcystis* and *Anabaena* as the most likely microcystin and geosmin producers, respectively, in Cheney Reservoir (Otten and others, 2016). These cyanobacterial genera are commonly associated with CyanoHABs throughout the world (Hudnell, 2008). *Microcystis* was present in about 30 percent of samples collected during May 2001 through June 2016, and *Anabaena* was present in about 44 percent of samples. These cyanobacteria were present during most years and were most abundant during summer and early fall (June through October). Abundance of these cyanobacteria never exceeded the KDHE watch values for recreational activities, and *Anabaena* (maximum 11,000 cells/ mL) never exceeded 20,000 cells/mL. *Microcystis* (maximum 40,000 cells/mL) exceeded 20,000 cells/mL once in August 2011.

Microcystin

Microcystin is the most commonly detected cyanotoxin worldwide, and has been present in lakes and reservoirs throughout the United States (Loftin and others, 2016). Overall, microcystin was detected in about 52 percent (*n*=213) of the samples collected from Cheney Reservoir during January 2003 through June 2016. Microcystin concentrations ranged from less than 0.1 to 9.0 μ g/L (median=0.1 μ g/L) (table 1). Microcystin was detected during all months of the year, but was present most frequently (77 to 88 percent of samples) and had the highest concentrations during July through September (fig. 2*B*). With the exception of 2010, microcystin was detected during all years. As observed with cyanobacterial abundance, maximum microcystin concentrations varied by orders of magnitude among years, but broad seasonal patterns were consistent. In a typical year, microcystin was first detected (greater than 0.1 µg/L) in June or July, increased to seasonal maxima

in the summer (July through September), and then decreased (fig. 2*B*).

The highest microcystin concentrations were observed in August of 2011 (maximum=9.0 µg/L) and 2013 (maximum=7.3 μ g/L), and the lowest concentrations were observed in 2004 (maximum of 0.26 µg/L in August) (table 1). Microcystin was not detected in 2010, the year that also had the lowest cyanobacterial abundances; however, maximum microcystin concentrations did not happen during the same years as maximum cyanobacterial abundances (table 1). The overall correlation between microcystin concentration and cyanobacterial abundance was positive but weak (rho=0.44, *p*-value<0.01, *n*=206). Similarly, although *Microcystis* is likely the main microcystin producer in Cheney Reservoir and abundance was positively associated with microcystin concentration, the overall correlation was similar to the more general measure of cyanobacterial abundance (rho=0.45, *p*-value<0.01, *n*=206). The relations between microcystin and cyanobacterial and *Microcystis* abundance are known to be complex, and often are nonlinear because microcystin production is strain-specific. Cyanobacterial strain composition may vary substantially over time (Davis and others, 2009; Bozarth and others, 2010).

Microcystin concentrations at the USGS station near Cheney Dam (fig. 1) exceeded advisory values of concern more frequently than cyanobacterial abundance; therefore, cyanobacteria likely are not a good indicator for microcystin occurrence in Cheney Reservoir. The 10-day health advisory value for young children $(0.3 \mu g/L)$ in finished drinking water (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2015) was exceeded in about 26 percent of samples (56 of 213 samples) collected during January 2003 through June 2016. Most exceedances happened during June through September (50 samples), though the 0.3-µg/L advisory value was also occasionally exceeded in March (1 sample) and October (5 samples) (fig. 2*B*). Exceedances happened during all years except 2010, when microcystin was not detected in Cheney Reservoir. The 10-day health advisory value for all other ages $(1.6 \mu g/L)$ in finished drinking water (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2015) was exceeded in about 7 percent of samples (14 of 213 samples); exceedances happened most frequently in August (5 samples) and September (6 samples), though the 1.6-µg/L advisory value occasionally was exceeded in June (1 sample) and July (2 samples) (fig. 2*B*). The 1.6-µg/L advisory value was exceeded during 6 of the 16 years (2003, 2005, 2006, 2009, 2011, and 2013) data were collected (table 1). Microcystin concentrations exceeded the KDHE (2015) recreational advisory value for a public health watch $(4 \mu g/L)$ in two samples (less than 1 percent of samples collected) during 2003 through 2016; exceedances happened in August of 2011 and 2013. Microcystin concentrations never exceeded the value for a public health warning (20 µg/L). Although microcystin concentrations near Cheney Dam only exceeded the KDHE (2015) advisory value for a public health watch twice, KDHE has occasionally issued public health watches and warnings for the reservoir based on exceedances observed at other locations (KDHE, 2016a).

Geosmin and 2-Methylisoborneol

Many groups of algae and other organisms can produce compounds that cause taste or odor events in drinking water; however, most taste-and-odor problems in drinking water are associated with cyanobacterial production of geosmin and MIB. Humans are sensitive to geosmin and MIB in finished drinking water at concentrations between 5 and 10 ng/L (Taylor and others, 2005). Because analytical detection thresholds ranged from 1 to 5 ng/L during the 16-year study period (Stone and others, 2013), description of geosmin and MIB occurrence is based on concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L. Geosmin was detected in Cheney Reservoir at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L more frequently (about 31 percent of samples, *n*=230) than MIB (about 3 percent of samples, *n*=230) during May 2001 through June 2016. As observed for microcystin, cyanobacteria likely are not a good indicator for taste-and-odor occurrence in Cheney Reservoir because concentrations exceeded the human detection threshold of 5 ng/L more frequently than cyanobacteria exceeded advisory values of concern.

 Geosmin and MIB concentrations ranged from less than 1.0 to 110 ng/L and less than 1 to 10 ng/L, respectively (both medians were less than 5 ng/L) (table 1). Geosmin was detected at concentrations greater than 5 ng/L during all months of the year but most frequently during February and March (50 and 54 percent of samples, respectively). Though geosmin was detected most frequently during winter months, the highest concentrations were detected during late spring through early fall (June through October) when seasonal maxima in cyanobacteria and microcystin also were exceeded (fig. 2). Geosmin was detected at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L during all years except 2012; geosmin was detected in 2012, but the maximum concentration was 3.5 ng/L (table 1). Seasonal patterns in geosmin were less consistent than cyanobacteria and microcystin, but in general, geosmin had a small peak during winter (January through March) during most years and a large peak during summer (July through September) during some years (fig. 2*C*). Summer peaks happened throughout the study period and consistently happened during 2011 and all subsequent years. MIB was detected at concentrations greater than 5 ng/L during late winter and early spring (March through April), early summer (June), and early fall (September), with the highest concentrations observed in early spring and early fall. MIB was detected at concentrations greater than 5 ng/L in 5 of the 16 years data were collected (2002, 2003, 2005, 2013, and 2014); MIB also was detected in 2009, 2010, and 2015, but maximum concentrations ranged from 2.3 to 3.4 ng/L (table 1). Because MIB was detected relatively infrequently, broad seasonal patterns among years were not discernable.

The highest geosmin concentrations were observed in June and July 2003 (maxima of 63 and 110 ng/L, respectively) and July 2005 (maximum of 64 ng/L). The highest MIB concentrations were observed in March 2003 (maximum of 10 ng/L) and September 2013 (maximum of 9.7 ng/L). The

highest observed geosmin concentrations did not happen during the same years as the highest cyanobacterial abundances (2006) and microcystin concentrations (2011 and 2013), although high concentrations of microcystin and MIB were detected in 2013 (table 1). The overall correlation between geosmin concentration and cyanobacterial abundance was positive but weak (rho=0.23, *p*-value<0.01, *n*=214). Although *Anabaena* is likely the main geosmin producer in Cheney Reservoir (Otten and others, 2016) and abundance was positively associated with geosmin concentration, the overall correlation was similar to the more general measure of cyanobacterial abundance (rho=0.22, *p*-value<0.01, *n*=214). Like microcystin, the relations between geosmin and cyanobacterial and *Anabaena* abundance are known to be complex and are often nonlinear because geosmin production is strain-specific and cyanobacterial strain composition may vary substantially over time. MIB was not detected at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L in enough samples (8 of 230) for a meaningful comparison with cyanobacterial abundance. Unlike microcystin and geosmin, the likely producer of MIB has not been identified in Cheney Reservoir though benthic, rather than planktonic, cyanobacteria have been hypothesized as a potential source (Otten and others, 2016); analysis of benthic algal communities was not part of this study.

Co-occurrence of Microcystin and Taste-and-Odor Compounds

Complex mixtures of cyanotoxins and taste-and-odor compounds may be present frequently during cyanobacterial blooms (Graham and others, 2010), presenting challenges for drinking-water treatment. Optimal treatment processes may vary depending on the compound or mixture of compounds present in the drinking-water supply (Westrick and others, 2010). During January 2001 through June 2016, microcystin was detected more frequently in Cheney Reservoir (52 percent of samples, *n*=213) than was geosmin (31 percent of samples, *n*=230) or MIB (3 percent of samples, *n*=230). Overall, about 63 percent of samples collected had either detectable microcystin, taste-and-odor compounds at concentrations greater than 5 ng/L, or both. Microcystin and taste-and-odor compounds co-occurred in about 22 percent of samples analyzed for both compounds (*n*=213). When microcystin and the taste-and-odor compound geosmin co-occurred (20 percent of samples), concentrations were not significantly correlated (rho=0.09, *p*-value=0.56, *n*=42). The lack of correlation between microcystin and geosmin concentration is similar to the findings of Graham and others (2010), and likely the result of being produced by two different organisms in Cheney Reservoir (Otten and others, 2016).

Of the samples with detectable microcystin (*n*=110), 43 percent had detectable taste-and-odor compounds at concentrations greater than 5 ng/L. Of the samples with detectable taste-and-odor compounds (*n*=70), about 75 percent had detectable microcystin. Microcystin often was present without taste-and-odor compounds. By comparison, when taste-andodor compounds were present, microcystin frequently was detected. Therefore, taste-and-odor may be used as an indicator that microcystin may be present; however, microcystin did occur without taste-and-odor, so odor alone does not provide sufficient warning to ensure human-health protection.

Logistic Regression Models for Microcystin and Geosmin

Logistic regression models that estimate the probability of microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 µg/L and geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L were developed. Models were developed using the entire 14- (microcystin) to 16-year (geosmin) datasets and abbreviated 4-year datasets that included data collected from January 2013 through June 2016. Final models are presented in table 2. Statistical model output and model datasets are presented in appendixes 1–4. The newly developed models are compared with previously published models that were developed using data collected during May 2001 through December 2009 (Stone and others, 2013).

The Cheney Reservoir station near the Cheney Dam (fig. 1) was selected to develop a real-time notification system of changing water-quality conditions that may affect drinkingwater treatment. Although this station is also representative of recreational conditions near Cheney Dam, it may not be indicative of conditions elsewhere in the reservoir. Additional stations would be required to develop comprehensive notification system indicative of conditions throughout the reservoir.

Microcystin

A seasonal component and chlorophyll fluorescence (a surrogate for algal biomass) were the explanatory variables for microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to $0.1 \mu g/L$ in the previously published model (June 2005 through December 2009; Stone and others, 2013), the 14-year (January 2003 through June 2016) model, and the abbreviated 4-year (January 2013 through June 2016) model. Overall model form was the same in all models, though the coefficients and the TPPCs used to maximize the number of samples classified as positive changed (table 2). The inclusion of the seasonal component and chlorophyll fluorescence as explanatory variables in all models reflects the consistent seasonal pattern in microcystin occurrence, as well as the positive correlation with cyanobacterial abundance during January 2003 through June 2016. The threshold of the 14-year model was reset from 0.5 to 0.43. The final logistic model correctly estimated the likelihood of microcystin concentrations exceeding the 0.1 µg/L threshold 79 percent of the time and not exceeding the detection threshold 61 percent of the time, resulting in an overall accuracy (number of data points

correctly categorized with respect to presence or absence) of 70 percent (table 2; appendix 1). The threshold of the 4-year model was reset from 0.5 to 0.56. The final logistic model correctly estimated the likelihood of microcystin concentrations exceeding the 0.1 µg/L threshold 86 percent of the time and not exceeding the detection threshold 75 percent of the time, resulting in an overall accuracy of 81 percent (table 2; appendix 2).

To compare performance of the three models over time, the TPPC was set to 0.5 for all models, probabilities were calculated for all discrete data points, and evaluated overall and by year (fig. 3*A*). Overall accuracy of the previously published (Stone and others, 2013) and 14-year models was similar (70 and 72 percent, respectively), despite the addition of about 10 years of data to the 14-year model (fig. 3*A)*. Overall accuracy of the 4-year model was lower (65 percent; fig. 3*A*) but was calibrated using a smaller dataset collected during a shorter period than the previously published and 14-year models (fig. 3*A*; table 2). During 2001 through 2016, the difference in the accuracy of the three models ranged from 0 to 36 percent (median=8 percent), and was within 15 percent during 9 of the 14 years. There was no consistent pattern in which model performed the best among years, though the differences in model accuracy tended to be highest between the previously published and 4-year model. The differences in the years used to calibrate the previously published (2005 through 2009) and 4-year (2013 through 2016) models likely caused the higher differences in accuracy between these two models. The most substantial differences between the three models occurred during 2003 and 2010. The 4-year model had the highest accuracy in 2003, possibly because specific conditions that occurred during the 4-year model calibration period were more similar to 2003 than conditions during the calibration periods for the other models. All models performed relatively poorly (accuracy less than 50 percent) in 2010, when microcystin was not detected in the reservoir. During 2013 through 2016, the accuracy of all models was within 5 percent or less except 2014. In 2014, the accuracy of the 4-year model was 23 percent higher than the previously published model and 15 percent higher than the 14-year model. Reasons for the higher accuracy of the 4-year model during 2014 are unclear, but likely related to specific conditions captured by the short-term dataset that are masked in the full dataset.

The previously published (Stone and others, 2013), 14-year, and 4-year models contained the same explanatory variables, though model coefficients changed based on the calibration dataset (table 2). All models were relatively robust when compared using a TPCC of 0.5, though the previously published and 14-year models performed better over time (fig. 3*A*); however, as a tool to estimate microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to $0.1 \mu g/L$ in a real-time notification system near Cheney Dam, the 4-year model has the highest TPPC and accuracy (table 2), and is most representative of recent (2013 through 2016) conditions.

Table 2. Best fit multiple logistic regression models for microcystin and geosmin at Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, May 2001 through June 2016.

D, day of year; cos, cosine; pH, pH in standard units; Chl, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll; TBY, turbidity in formazin nephelometric units; DO, [Additional details on models and model calibration datasets are in appendixes 1-4. n, number of samples; TPPC, threshold probability for positive classification; logit(P), logistic probability of presence; sin, sine; D, d **Table 2.** Best fit multiple logistic regression models for microcystin and geosmin at Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, May 2001 through June 2016.
[Additional details on models and model calibration datasets are in appendixes 1– dissolved oxygen in milligrams per liter] dissolved oxygen in milligrams per liter]

Geosmin

The previously published (May 2001 through December 2009; Stone and others, 2013), the 16-year (May 2001 through June 2016), and the abbreviated 4-year (January 2013 through June 2016) models for geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L all had different explanatory variables and model forms (table 2). The previously published model included a seasonal component and turbidity as explanatory variables, likely because geosmin occurrences in Cheney Reservoir have seasonal patterns mediated by light. By comparison, the 16-year model included turbidity and dissolved oxygen as explanatory variables. Turbidity likely is indicative of the influence of light on the cyanobacterial producers of geosmin, and dissolved oxygen is most likely associated with the influence algal biomass can exert on dissolved oxygen concentrations through algal productivity (Graham and others, 2008). The abbreviated 4-year model included a seasonal component and pH as explanatory variables. The seasonal pattern in geosmin occurrence was more pronounced during 2013 through 2016 than the overall study period and pH, like dissolved oxygen, also may serve as an indicator of algal productivity (Graham and others, 2008). The threshold of the 16-year model was reset from 0.50 to 0.41. The final logistic model correctly estimated the likelihood of geosmin concentrations exceeding the 5 ng/L threshold 35 percent of the time and not exceeding the detection threshold 86 percent of the time, resulting in an overall accuracy of 70 percent (table 2; appendix 3). Although the overall accuracy of the 16-year model was relatively high (70 percent), the model did not perform well when estimating occurrence (positive response; only 35 percent of concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L were correctly categorized). The threshold of the 4-year model was not reset from 0.5. The resulting final logistic model correctly estimated the likelihood of geosmin concentrations exceeding the 5 ng/L threshold 88 percent of the time and not exceeding the detection threshold 79 percent of the time, producing an overall accuracy of 83 percent (table 2; appendix 4).

To compare performance of the three models over time, the TPPC was set to 0.5 for all models, probabilities were calculated for all discrete data points, and evaluated overall and by year (fig. 3*B*). Overall accuracy of the previously published (Stone and others, 2013) and 16-year models was the same (70 percent; fig. 3*B*), despite the addition of about 10 years of data to the 16-year model. Overall accuracy of the 4-year model was lower (54 percent; fig. 3*B*) but was calibrated using a smaller dataset collected during a shorter period than the previously published and 16-year models (fig. 3*B*; table 2). During 2001 through 2016, the difference in the accuracy of the three models ranged from 0 to 68 percent (median=19 percent) and was within 15 percent during only 4 of the 16 years. The difference in the accuracy of the previously published model and the 16-year model across years was smaller and ranged from 0 to 33 percent (median=10 percent) (fig. 3*B*). During 2001 through 2012, the previously published and 16-year

models performed consistently better than the 4-year model. By comparison, during 2013 through 2016, accuracy of the 4-year model was about 30 to 68 percent higher than the previously published and 16-year models in all years except 2015, when the accuracy of all three models was within 10 percent (between 60 and 70 percent) (fig. 3*B*). Performance of the previously published and 16-year models likely was affected by an August 2013 inflow event to the reservoir that caused the reservoir to gain about 89,000 acre-feet in 10 days. The inflow also stimulated a geosmin event in the reservoir that had the highest late summer and fall (September through November) concentrations observed during the study period (Otten and others, 2016). High geosmin concentrations have been observed in late summer and fall since the 2013 inflow event. The higher accuracy of the 4-year model during 2013 through 2016 likely is a result of the specific conditions captured by the short-term dataset during and after the 2013 inflow event.

The previously published (Stone and others, 2013) model and the 16-year model were not robust over time, likely because of changing environmental conditions and seasonal patterns in geosmin occurrence. By comparison, the abbreviated 4-year model may be a useful tool to estimate geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L in a real-time notification system near Cheney Dam. The 4-year model has the highest TPPC and accuracy (table 2), and is most representative of recent (2013 through 2016) conditions in the reservoir. The better performance of the abbreviated 4-year geosmin model during 2013 through 2016 relative to the previously published and 16-year models demonstrates the need for continuous reevaluation of models estimating the probability of occurrence.

Summary

Cyanobacterial toxins and taste-and-odor compounds may cause substantial economic and public health concerns and are of particular interest in lakes, reservoirs, and rivers that are used for drinking-water supply and recreation. Cheney Reservoir, located in south-central Kansas, is one of the primary drinking-water supplies for the city of Wichita and an important recreational resource. Since 1990, cyanobacterial blooms have occasionally been present in Cheney Reservoir, resulting in increased treatment costs and decreased recreational use. Cyanobacteria, the cyanotoxin microcystin, and the taste-and-odor compounds geosmin and 2-methylisoborneol (MIB) have been measured in Cheney Reservoir by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), in cooperation with the city of Wichita, for about 16 years. The purpose of this report is to describe the occurrence of cyanobacteria, microcystin, and taste-and-odor compounds in Cheney Reservoir during May 2001 through June 2016 and to update previously published logistic regression models that used continuous water-quality data to estimate the probability of microcystin and geosmin occurrence above relevant thresholds.

The USGS collected continuous real-time (hourly) and discrete water-quality data at a water-quality monitoring station near Cheney Dam during April 2001 through June 2016. Water-quality analyses of discretely collected samples included cyanobacterial abundance, the cyanotoxin microcystin (starting in 2003), and the taste-and-odor compounds geosmin and MIB. Continuous water-quality measurements included specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, turbidity, and chlorophyll fluorescence.

Cyanobacteria were common in Cheney Reservoir, and were present in about 84 percent of the samples collected during May 2001 through June 2016. Cyanobacterial abundance varied substantially among years, but broad seasonal patterns were consistent. Cyanobacterial abundances generally peaked in late summer or early fall (August through October), with smaller peaks observed in winter (January through February) and occasionally in spring (April through May). Though cyanobacteria were common in Cheney Reservoir, abundances near Cheney Dam exceeded advisory values of concern in less than 10 percent of samples.

Microcystin was detected in about 52 percent of the samples collected during January 2003 through June 2016. As observed with cyanobacterial abundance, maximum microcystin concentrations varied by orders of magnitude among years, but broad seasonal patterns were consistent. In a typical year, microcystin was first detected in June or July, increased to seasonal maxima in the summer (July through September), and then decreased. The overall correlation between microcystin concentration and cyanobacterial abundance was positive but weak. Microcystin concentrations in Cheney Reservoir exceeded advisory values of concern more frequently than cyanobacterial abundance, indicating cyanobacteria likely are not a good indicator for microcystin occurrence in Cheney Reservoir. Microcystin concentrations exceeded advisory values of concern for drinking water in about 26 percent of samples and for recreation in less than 1 percent of samples.

Geosmin was detected in Cheney Reservoir at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter (ng/L) more frequently (about 31 percent of samples) than MIB (about 3 percent of samples) during May 2001 through June 2016. As observed for microcystin, cyanobacteria likely are not a good indicator for taste-and-odor compound occurrence in Cheney Reservoir because concentrations exceeded the human detection threshold of 5 ng/L more frequently than cyanobacteria exceeded advisory values of concern. Seasonal patterns in geosmin were less consistent than cyanobacteria and microcystin, but in general geosmin had a small peak during winter (January through March) during most years and a large peak during summer (July through September) during some years. Because MIB was detected infrequently, broad seasonal patterns among years were not discernable. The overall correlation between geosmin concentration and cyanobacterial abundance was positive but weak.

Complex mixtures of cyanotoxins and taste-and-odor compounds may be present frequently during cyanobacterial blooms, presenting challenges for drinking-water treatment.

During January 2001 through June 2016 microcystin was detected more frequently in Cheney Reservoir than was geosmin or MIB. Microcystin often was present without tasteand-odor compounds. By comparison, where taste-and-odor compounds were present, microcystin frequently was detected. Taste-and-odor compounds, therefore, may be used as an indicator that microcystin may be present; however, microcystin was present without taste-and-odor compounds, so taste or odor alone does not provide sufficient warning to ensure human-health protection.

Logistic regression models that estimate the probability of microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 microgram per liter (μ g/L) and geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L were developed using the complete dataset (January 2003 through June 2016 for microcystin [14-year dataset]; May 2001 through June 2016 for geosmin [16-year dataset]) and an abbreviated 4-year dataset (January 2013 through June 2016 for microcystin and geosmin). Performance of the newly developed models was compared with previously published models that were developed using data collected during May 2001 through December 2009. A seasonal component and chlorophyll fluorescence (a surrogate for algal biomass) were the explanatory variables for microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 µg/L in all models. All microcystin models were relatively robust, though the previously published and 14-year models performed better over time; however, as a tool to estimate microcystin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to $0.1 \mu g/L$ in a real-time notification system near Cheney Dam, the 4-year model is most representative of recent (2013 through 2016) conditions. All models for geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L had different explanatory variables and model forms. The previously published and 16-year models were not robust over time, likely because of changing environmental conditions and seasonal patterns in geosmin occurrence. By comparison, the abbreviated 4-year model may be a useful tool to estimate geosmin occurrence at concentrations greater than or equal to 5 ng/L in a real-time notification system near Cheney Dam. The better performance of the abbreviated 4-year geosmin model during 2013 through 2016 relative to the previously published and 16-year models demonstrates the need for continuous reevaluation of models estimating the probability of occurrence.

References Cited

Bozarth, C.S., Schwartz, A.D., Shepardson, J.W., Colwell, F.S., and Dreher, T.W., 2010, Population turnover in a *Microcystis* bloom results in predominantly nontoxic variants late in the season: Applied and Environmental Microbiology, v. 76, no. 15, p. 5207–5213. [Also available at [http://](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00001-10) dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00001-10.]

16 Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

Bureau of Reclamation, 2016, Wichita project: Bureau of Reclamation Projects & Facilities Web page, accessed October 2016 at <https://www.usbr.gov/projects/index.php?id=403>.

Christensen, V.G., Graham, J.L., Milligan, C.R., Pope, L.M., and Ziegler, A.C., 2006, Water quality and relation to tasteand-odor compounds in the North Fork Ninnescah River and Cheney Reservoir, south-central Kansas, 1997–2003: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2006–5095, 43 p. [Also available at [https://pubs.usgs.gov/](https://pubs.usgs.gov/sir/2006/5095/) [sir/2006/5095/](https://pubs.usgs.gov/sir/2006/5095/).]

Davis, T.W., Berry, D.L., Boyer, G.L., Gobler, C.J., 2009, The effects of temperature and nutrients on the growth and dynamics of toxic and non-toxic strains of *Microcystis* during cyanobacteria blooms: Harmful Algae, v. 8, no. 5, p. 715–725. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2009.02.004) [hal.2009.02.004.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2009.02.004)]

Foster, G.M., and Graham, J.L., 2016, Logistic and linear regression model documentation for statistical relations between continuous real-time and discrete water-quality constituents in the Kansas River, Kansas, July 2012 through June 2015: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 2016– 1040, 27 p. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/ofr20161040) [ofr20161040.](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/ofr20161040)]

Francy, D.S., Graham, J.L., Stelzer, E.A., Ecker, C.D., Brady, A.M.G., Struffolino, Pamela, and Loftin, K.A., 2015, Water quality, cyanobacteria, and environmental factors and their relations to microcystin concentrations for use in predictive models at Ohio Lake Erie and inland lake recreational sites, 2013–14: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2015–5120, 58 p. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/sir20155120) [org/10.3133/sir20155120](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/sir20155120).]

Graham, J.L., 2017, Phytoplankton data for Cheney Reservoir near Cheney, Kansas, June 2001 through October 2016: U.S. Geological Survey data release, [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7ZG6QFX) [org/10.5066/F7ZG6QFX](https://doi.org/10.5066/F7ZG6QFX).

Graham, J.L., Loftin, K.A., and Kamman, Neil, 2009, Monitoring recreational freshwaters: LakeLine, v. 29, Summer 2009, p. 18–24. [Also available at [https://ks.water.usgs.](https://ks.water.usgs.gov/static_pages/studies/water_quality/cyanobacteria/LLsummer-graham2.pdf) [gov/static_pages/studies/water_quality/cyanobacteria/](https://ks.water.usgs.gov/static_pages/studies/water_quality/cyanobacteria/LLsummer-graham2.pdf) [LLsummer-graham2.pdf](https://ks.water.usgs.gov/static_pages/studies/water_quality/cyanobacteria/LLsummer-graham2.pdf).]

Graham, J.L., Loftin, K.A., Meyer, M.T., and Ziegler, A.C., 2010, Cyanotoxin mixtures and taste-and-odor compounds in cyanobacterial blooms from the midwestern United States: Environmental Science and Technology, v. 44, no. 19, p. 7361–7368. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es1008938) [org/10.1021/es1008938](http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es1008938).]

Graham, J.L., Loftin, K.A., Ziegler, A.C., and Meyer, M.T., 2008, Cyanobacteria in lakes and reservoirs—Toxin and taste-and-odor sampling guidelines (ver. 1.0): U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chap. A7, sec. 7.5, accessed September 2016 at [https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A/](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A/).

Hansen, C.V., Whisnant, J.A., and Lanning-Rush, J.L., 2014, Status of groundwater levels and storage volume in the *Equus* Beds aquifer near Wichita, Kansas, 2012 to 2014: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2014–5185, 39 p. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/sir20145185) [org/10.3133/sir20145185](http://dx.doi.org/10.3133/sir20145185).]

Helsel, D.R., and Hirsch, R.M., 2002, Statistical methods in water resources—Hydrologic analysis and interpretation: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 4, chap. A3, 522 p. [Also available at <https://pubs.usgs.gov/twri/twri4a3/>.]

Hudnell, H.K., ed., 2008, Cyanobacterial harmful algal blooms—State of the science and research needs: Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology, v. 619, 950 p. [Also available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-75865-7>.]

Kansas Applied Remote Sensing Program, 2009, 2005 Kansas land cover patterns—Level IV: Kansas Biological Survey, University of Kansas, Kansas Applied Remote Sensing Program Web page, accessed January 2017 at [http://www.kars.](http://www.kars.ku.edu/research/2005-kansas-land-cover-patterns-level-iv/) [ku.edu/research/2005-kansas-land-cover-patterns-level-iv/](http://www.kars.ku.edu/research/2005-kansas-land-cover-patterns-level-iv/).

Kansas Biological Survey, 2012, Bathymetric and sediment survey of Cheney Reservoir, Reno-Kingman-Sedgwick Counties, Kansas: Kansas Biological Survey Report 2011– 01, 54 p. [Also available at [http://www.kwo.org/Reservoirs/](http://www.kwo.org/Reservoirs/ReservoirBathymetry/Rpt_Cheney_FINAL_report_082813_kbs.pdf) ReservoirBathymetry/Rpt_Cheney_FINAL_report_082813 [kbs.pdf.](http://www.kwo.org/Reservoirs/ReservoirBathymetry/Rpt_Cheney_FINAL_report_082813_kbs.pdf)]

Kansas Department of Health and Environment [KDHE], 2015, Policy—Guidelines for addressing harmful algal blooms in Kansas recreational waters: Kansas Department of Health and Environment Internal Directive 1101.1, accessed September 2016 at [http://www.kdheks.gov/](http://www.kdheks.gov/algae-illness/download/HAB_policy.pdf) [algae-illness/download/HAB_policy.pdf](http://www.kdheks.gov/algae-illness/download/HAB_policy.pdf).

Kansas Department of Health and Environment [KDHE], 2016a, Historical HABs: Kansas Department of Health and Environment, accessed September 2016 at [http://www.](http://www.kdheks.gov/algae-illness/historical_habs.htm) [kdheks.gov/algae-illness/historical_habs.htm](http://www.kdheks.gov/algae-illness/historical_habs.htm).

Kansas Department of Health and Environment [KDHE], 2016b, 2016 303(d) list of all impaired/potentially impaired waters: Kansas Department of Health and Environment, accessed September 2016 at [http://www.kdheks.gov/](http://www.kdheks.gov/tmdl/2016/Proposed_Public_List_2016_All_Impaired_Waters.pdf) tmdl/2016/Proposed_Public_List_2016_All_Impaired [Waters.pdf](http://www.kdheks.gov/tmdl/2016/Proposed_Public_List_2016_All_Impaired_Waters.pdf).

- Lane, S.L., Flanagan, Sarah, and Wilde, F.D., 2003, Selection of equipment for water sampling (ver. 2.0): U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chap. A2, accessed November 2012 at [https://pubs.water.](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A2/) [usgs.gov/twri9A2/](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A2/).
- Loftin, K.A., Graham, J.L., Hilborn, E.D., Lehmann, S.C., Meyer, M.T., Dietze, J.E., and Griffith, C.B., 2016, Cyanotoxins in inland lakes of the United States—Occurrence and potential recreational health risks in the EPA National Lakes Assessment 2007: Harmful Algae, v. 56, June 2016, p. 77–90. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2016.04.001) [hal.2016.04.001.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2016.04.001)]
- Loftin, K.A., Meyer, M.T., Rubio, F., Kamp, L., Humphries, E., and Whereat, E., 2008, Comparison of two cell lysis procedures for recovery of microcystins in water samples from Silver Lake in Dover, Delaware, with microcystin producing cyanobacterial accumulations: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 2008–1341, 9 p. [Also available at [https://](https://pubs.usgs.gov/of/2008/1341/) pubs.usgs.gov/of/2008/1341/.]
- Lund, J.W.G., Kipling, C., and LeCren, E.D., 1958, The inverted microscope method of estimated algal numbers and the statistical basis of estimates by counting: Hydrobiologia, v. 11, no. 2, p. 143–170. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF00007865) [org/10.1007/BF00007865](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF00007865).]
- McNabb, C.D., 1960, Enumeration of freshwater phytoplankton concentrated on the membrane filter: Limnology and Oceanography, v. 5, no. 1, p. 57–61. [Also available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.4319/lo.1960.5.1.0057>.]
- Otten, T.G., Graham, J.L., Harris, T.D., and Dreher, T.W., 2016, Elucidation of taste-and odor-producing bacteria and toxigenic cyanobacteria in a Midwestern drinking water supply reservoir by shotgun metagenomics analysis: Applied and Environmental Microbiology, v. 82, no. 17, p. 5410–5420. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01334-16) [AEM.01334-16](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01334-16).]
- Peterson, D.L., Whistler, J.L., Lomas, J.M., Dobbs, K.E., Jakubauskas, M.E., and Martinko, E.A., 2010, 2005 Kansas land cover patterns phase I: University of Kansas, Kansas Biological Survey Report 150, 29 p.
- Sauer, B.B., and Turnipseed, D.P., 2010, Stage measurement at gaging stations: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques and Methods, book 3, chap. A7, 45 p. [Also available at [https://](https://pubs.usgs.gov/tm/tm3-a7/) pubs.usgs.gov/tm/tm3-a7/.]
- Smith, V.H.; Sieber-Denlinger, Jonathan; deNoyelles, Frank, Jr.; Campbell, Scott; Pan, Shugen; Randtke, S.J.; Blain, G.T.; and Strasser, V.A., 2002, Managing taste and odor problems in a eutrophic drinking water reservoir: Lake and Reservoir Management, v. 18, no. 4, p. 319–323. [Also available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07438140209353938>.]
- Stone, M.L., Graham, J.L., and Gatotho, J.W., 2013, Model documentation for relations between continuous real-time and discrete water-quality constituents in Cheney Reservoir near Cheney, Kansas, 2001–2009: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 2013–1123, 100 p. [Also available at [https://pubs.usgs.gov/of/2013/1123/](http://pubs.usgs.gov/of/2013/1123/).]
- Stone, M.L., Juracek, K.E., Graham, J.L., and Foster, G.M., 2015, Quantifying suspended sediment loads delivered to Cheney Reservoir, Kansas—Temporal patterns and management implications: Journal of Soil and Water Conservation, v. 70, no. 2, p. 91–100. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.](http://dx.doi.org/10.2489/jswc.70.2.91) [org/10.2489/jswc.70.2.91](http://dx.doi.org/10.2489/jswc.70.2.91).]
- Systat Software, Inc., 2008, SigmaPlot® 11.0 statistics user's guide: Systat Software, Inc., 564 p.
- Taylor, W.D.; Losee, R.F.; Torobin, Marcia; Izaguirre, George; Sass, Debra; Khiari, Djanette; and Atasi, Khalil, 2005, Early warning and management of surface water taste-and-odor events: American Water Works Association Water Research Foundation, 268 p.
- Trevino-Garrison, Ingrid; DeMent, Jamie; Ahmed, F.S.; Haines-Lieber, Patricia; Langer, Thomas; Ménager, Henri; Neff, Janet; van der Merwe, Deon; and Carney, Edward, 2015, Human illnesses and animal deaths sssociated with freshwater harmful algal blooms—Kansas: Toxins, v. 7, no. 2, p. 353–366. [Also available at [http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/](http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/toxins7020353) [toxins7020353](http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/toxins7020353).]
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2015, Recommendations for public water systems to manage cyanotoxins in drinking water: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA 815–R–15–010, accessed September 2016 at [https://](https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/cyanotoxin-management-drinking-water.pdf) [www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/](https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/cyanotoxin-management-drinking-water.pdf) [cyanotoxin-management-drinking-water.pdf.](https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-06/documents/cyanotoxin-management-drinking-water.pdf)
- U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated, National field manual for the collection of water-quality data: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chaps. A1–A10, accessed September 2016 at [https://pubs.](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A) [water.usgs.gov/twri9A](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A).
- Wagner, R.J., Boulger, R.W., Jr., Oblinger, C.J., and Smith, B.A., 2006, Guidelines and standard procedures for continuous water-quality monitors—Station operation, record computation, and data reporting: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques and Methods, book 1, chap. D3, 51 p. [Also available at <https://pubs.usgs.gov/tm/2006/tm1D3/>.]
- Westrick, J.A., Szlag, D.C., Southwell, B.J., and Sinclair, J.L., 2010, A review of cyanobacteria and cyanotoxins removal/ inactivation in drinking water treatment: Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry, v. 397, p. 1705–1714.

18 Occurrence of Cyanobacteria, Microcystin, and Taste-and-Odor Compounds in Cheney Reservoir, Kansas, 2001–16

- Wilde, F.D., ed., variously dated, Field measurements: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chap. A6, accessed September 2016 at [https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A6/](http://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A6/).
- Zar, J.H., 1999, Biostatistical analysis (4th ed): New Jersey, Prentice-Hall Inc., 663 p.
- Zimmerman, L.R., Ziegler, A.C., and Thurman, E.M., 2002, Method of analysis and quality-assurance practices by U.S. Geological Survey Organic Geochemistry Research Group—Determination of geosmin and methylisoborneol in water using solid-phase microextraction and gas chromatography/mass spectrometry: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 02–337, 12 p. [Also available at [https://ks.water.](https://ks.water.usgs.gov/pubs/abstracts/ofr.02-337.html) [usgs.gov/pubs/abstracts/ofr.02-337.html](https://ks.water.usgs.gov/pubs/abstracts/ofr.02-337.html).]

Appendixes 1–4

Appendix 1. 14-Year Logistic Regression Model Archival Summary for Microcystin Occurrence at Station 07144790, 2003–16

This model archival summary summarizes the logistic model for the probability of microcystin occurrence developed to compute hourly microcystin from January 1, 2003, onward.

Station and Model Information

Station number: 07144790 Station name: Cheney Re Nr Cheney, KS Station location: Latitude 37°43'34", Longitude 97°47'38" referenced to the North American Datum of 1927, in SE¼NE¼NW¼ sec. 6, T. 27 S., R. 04 W., Sedgwick County, Kansas, Hydrologic Unit 11030014.

Equipment: From April 2001 through September 2014, a YSI 6600 water-quality monitor was installed and equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen (YSI Clark cell [from April 2001 through January 2007] or YSI model 6150 optical [from February 2007 through September 2014]), pH, turbidity (YSI model 6026 [from April 2001 through September 2006] or YSI 6136 [from October 2006 through September 2014]), and chlorophyll fluorescence (YSI model 6025 sensor). From October 2014 to the present (December 2016), a Xylem YSI EXO2 water-quality monitor has been used and is equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen, pH, turbidity, and chlorophyll. The Xylem monitor is housed in a 4-inch diameter galvanized steel pipe. Readings from the water-quality monitor are recorded hourly, and data are transmitted hourly by satellite.

Date model was created: August 16, 2016

Model calibration data period: January 21, 2003, through June 15, 2016

Model application date: August 2016 onward

Model-Calibration Dataset

All data were collected using U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) protocols (U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated; https://water.usgs.gov/owq/FieldManual/) and are stored in the National Water Information System database (https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN). Logistic model equations were developed using the multiple logistic regression routine in SigmaPlot® version 13.0 (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). Explanatory variables were evaluated individually and in selected combinations. Explanatory variables selected as inputs to logistic regression were physicochemical properties: specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll fluorescence, and elevation of the reservoir surface. Seasonal components (sine and cosine variables) also were evaluated as explanatory variables in the models to determine if seasonal changes affected the model. All combinations of physicochemical properties and a seasonal component were evaluated to determine which combinations produced the best models.

The final selected logistic regression model was based on 213 concurrent measurements of microcystin occurrence collected from January 21, 2003, through June 15, 2016, and models the probability of the presence or absence of microcystin. Samples were collected throughout the range of continuously observed hydrologic conditions. In total, 103 samples were below the threshold for positive classification (0.1 microgram per liter $[\mu g/L]$). Summary statistics and the complete model-calibration dataset are provided below. Studentized residuals were inspected for values outside the 95-percent confidence interval, and leverage values for independent variables were inspected for values greater than 2. Values outside of the specified ranges were considered potential outliers and were investigated. No outliers were identified in the model-calibration dataset.

Microcystin Sampling Details

Monthly to biweekly discrete water-quality samples collected during May 2001 through July 2004 were collected near the surface using a Teflon Kemmerer bottle or a weighted bottle sampler with a 1-liter Teflon bottle following USGS methods; these samples were not depth integrated. Starting in August 2004 discrete water-quality samples were collected as integrated photic-zone (depth at which light is about 1 percent of that at the surface) samples using a double check-valve bailer; these samples were depth integrated. Water-quality results collected before and after the sampling procedure change in summer 2004 were similar. Total microcystin was analyzed by the USGS Organic Geochemistry Research Laboratory, Lawrence, Kans. All samples were lysed by three sequential freeze-thaw cycles and filtered using 0.7-micrometer glass-fiber filters before analysis for microcystin. Abraxis® enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays were used to measure microcystin (congener independent).

Model Development

Logistic regression analysis was done using SigmaPlot by examining seasonality and other continuously measured data as explanatory variables for estimating microcystin occurrence. Seasonality was selected as the best predictor of microcystin based on a low Pearson Chi-square Statistic, high Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic, low -2 Log Likelihood Statistic, high Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic, significant Wald Statistic, and low Variance Inflation Factor. A model classification table with a threshold probability for positive classification (TPPC) of 0.5 was also used in final model selection. After the best model was selected, the TPPC for the model was adjusted based on the fraction of data classified as positive to make the model more conservative (more likely to overestimate a positive response) by guarding more strongly against false negatives. Values for all the aforementioned statistics and metrics were computed for various models and are included below along with all relevant sample data and more in-depth statistical information.

Model Summary

Summary of final logistic regression analysis for microcystin occurrence at USGS station 07144790.

Probability of microcystin occurrence model:

$$
logit(P) = -0.103 - 1.056 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.663 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.00459\left(Chl\right) \tag{1-1}
$$

where

logit(*P*) is the logistic probability of microcystin occurrence (concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 microgram per liter);

D is the Julian day of the year;

Chl is fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll.

Seasonality (the information contained in the sine [sin] and cosine [cos] component of the equation; Helsel and Hirsch, 2002) and *Chl* make physical and statistical sense as explanatory variables for microcystin.

Previously Published Model

$$
logit(P) = -1.305 - 1.990 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 1.340 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.0511\left(Chl\right) \tag{1-2}
$$

Model author: Stone and others (2013)

Model data period: June 2005 through December 2009

Probability of Microcystin Occurrence Record

The microcystin occurrence record is computed using this regression model, and the complete water-quality record is stored at the National Real-Time Water Quality website: https://nrtwq.usgs.gov/ks. Data are computed at 60 minute intervals.

SigmaPlot® Output for Microcystin at Station 07144790

14-Year Model Form

$$
logit(P) = -0.103 - 1.056 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.663 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.00459\left(Chl\right) \tag{1-3}
$$

Variable Summary Statistics

[μg/L, microgram per liter; *Chl*, is fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in μg/L as chlorophyll; <, less than; --, not computed]

Model Calibration Using Multiple Logistic Regression

See the 14-year model form in equation 1–3 above.

Number of samples=213 Missing observations=17 Estimation criterion: Maximum likelihood Dependent variable: Microcystin binary plus or minus (±) Positive response=1 Reference response=0 Number of unique independent variable combinations=213

Pearson Chi-square Statistic=215.079 (probability value [p-value]=0.354) Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic=38.057 (*p*-value=less than 0.001) -2*Log(Likelihood)**=**256.994 Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic=13.734 (*p*-value=0.089) TPPC=0.43

Details of the logistic regression equation:

[*p*-value, probability value; VIF, Variance Inflation Factor; --, not measured; sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; <, less than; *Chl*, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll]

Data Used in Model Development

[sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; $\mu g/L$, microgram per liter; \geq , greater than or equal to; *Chl*, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in μg/L as chlorophyll; <, less than]

References Cited

Helsel, D.R., and Hirsch, R.M., 2002, Statistical methods in water resources—Hydrologic analysis and interpretation: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 4, chap. A3, 522 p. [Also available at https://pubs.usgs.gov/twri/twri4a3/.]

Systat Software, Inc., 2008, SigmaPlot® 11.0 statistics user's guide: Systat Software, Inc., 564 p.

U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated, National field manual for the collection of water-quality data: U.S.

Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chaps. A1–A10, accessed September 2016 at https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A.

Appendix 2. 4-Year Logistic Regression Model Archival Summary for Microcystin Occurrence at Station 07144790, 2013–16

This model archival summary summarizes the logistic model for the probability of microcystin occurrence developed to compute hourly microcystin from January 1, 2013, onward.

Station and Model Information

Station number: 07144790 Station name: Cheney Re Nr Cheney, KS Station location: Latitude 37°43'34", Longitude 97°47'38" referenced to the North American Datum of 1927, in SE¼NE¼NW¼ sec. 6, T. 27 S., R. 04 W., Sedgwick County, Kansas, Hydrologic Unit 11030014.

Equipment: From April 2001 through September 2014, a YSI 6600 water-quality monitor was installed and equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen (YSI Clark cell [from April 2001 through January 2007] or YSI model 6150 optical [from February 2007 through September 2014]), pH, turbidity (YSI model 6026 [from April 2001 through September 2006] or YSI 6136 [from October 2006 through September 2014]), and chlorophyll. From October 2014 to the present (December 2016), a Xylem YSI EXO2 waterquality monitor has been used and is equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen, pH, turbidity, and chlorophyll fluorescence (YSI model 6025 sensor). The Xylem monitor is housed in a 4 inch diameter galvanized steel pipe. Readings from the water-quality monitor are recorded hourly and data are transmitted hourly by satellite.

Date model was created: August 16, 2016

Model calibration data period: January 15, 2013, through June 15, 2016

Model application date: August 2016 onward

Model-Calibration Dataset

All data were collected using U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) protocols (U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated; https://water.usgs.gov/owq/FieldManual/) and are stored in the National Water Information System database (https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN). Logistic model equations were developed using the multiple logistic regression routine in SigmaPlot® version 11.0 (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). Explanatory variables were evaluated individually and in selected combinations. Explanatory variables selected as inputs to logistic regression were physicochemical properties: specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll fluorescence, and elevation of the reservoir surface. Seasonal components (sine and cosine variables) also were evaluated as explanatory variables in the models to determine if seasonal changes affected the model. All combinations of physicochemical properties and a seasonal component were evaluated to determine which combinations produced the best models.

The final selected logistic regression model was based on 45 concurrent measurements of microcystin occurrence collected from January 15, 2013, through June 15, 2016, and models the probability of the presence or absence of microcystin. Samples were collected throughout the range of continuously observed hydrologic conditions. In total, 16 samples were below the threshold for positive classification (0.1 microgram per liter [μg/L]). Summary statistics and the complete model-calibration dataset are provided below. Studentized residuals were inspected for values outside the 95-percent confidence interval and leverage values for independent variables were inspected for values greater than 2. Values outside of the specified ranges were considered potential outliers and were investigated. No outliers were identified in the model-calibration dataset.

Microcystin Sampling Details

Discrete water-quality samples were collected monthly to biweekly during January 2013 through June 2016. Samples were collected as integrated photic-zone (depth at which light is about 1 percent of that at the surface) samples using a double check-valve bailer; these samples were depth integrated. Total microcystin was analyzed by the USGS Organic Geochemistry Research Laborabory, Lawrence, Kans. All samples were lysed by three sequential freeze-thaw cycles and filtered using 0.7-micrometer glass-fiber filters before analysis for microcystin. Abraxis® enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays were used to measure microcystin (congener independent).

Model Development

Logistic regression analysis was done using SigmaPlot by examining seasonality and other continuously measured data as explanatory variables for estimating microcystin occurrence. Seasonality was selected as the best predictor of microcystin based on a relatively low Pearson Chi-square Statistic, relatively high Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic, relatively low -2 Log Likelihood Statistic, relatively high Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic, significant Wald Statistic, and relatively low Variance Inflation Factor. A model classification table with a threshold probability for positive classification (TPPC) of 0.5 also was used in final model selection. After the best model was selected, the TPPC for the model was adjusted based on the fraction of data classified as positive to make the model more conservative (more likely to overestimate a positive response) by guarding more strongly against false negatives. Values for all of the aforementioned statistics and metrics were computed for various models and are included below along with all relevant sample data and more indepth statistical information.

Model Summary

Summary of final logistic regression analysis for microcystin occurrence at USGS station 07144790.

Probability of microcystin occurrence model:

$$
logit(P) = -0.190 - 1.868 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 1.109 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.0910\left(Chl\right) \tag{2-1}
$$

where

logit(*P*) is the logistic probability of microcystin occurrence (concentrations greater than or equal to 0.1 microgram per liter);

D is the Julian day of the year;

Chl is fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll.

Seasonality (the information contained in the sine [sin] and cosine [cos] component of the equation; Helsel and Hirsch, 2002) and *Chl* make physical and statistical sense as explanatory variables for microcystin.

Previously Published Model

$$
logit(P) = -1.305 - 1.990 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 1.340 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.0511\left(Chl\right) \tag{2-2}
$$

Model author: Stone and others (2013)

Model data period: June 2005 through December 2009

Probability of Microcystin Occurrence Record

The microcystin occurrence record is computed using this regression model, and the complete water-quality record is stored at the National Real-Time Water Quality website: http://nrtwq.usgs.gov/ks. Data are computed at 60 minute intervals.

SigmaPlot® Output for Microcystin at Station 07144790

4-Year Model Form

$$
logit(P) = -0.190 - 1.868 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 1.109 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.0910\left(Chl\right) \tag{2-3}
$$

Variable Summary Statistics

[μg/L, microgram per liter; *Chl*, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll; <, less than; --, not measured]

Model Calibration Using Multiple Logistic Regression

See the 4-year model form in equation 2–3 above.

Number of samples=45 Missing observations=186 Estimation criterion: Maximum likelihood Dependent Variable: Microcystin binary (abbr) plus or minus (\pm) Positive response=1 Reference response=0 Number of unique independent variable combinations=45

Pearson Chi-square Statistic=48.443 (probability value [*p*-value]=0.169) Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic=14.971 (*p*-value=0.002) -2*Log(Likelihood)=43.603 Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic=9.465 (*p*-value=0.305)

TPPC=0.56

Details of the logistic regression equation:

[*p*-value, probability value; VIF, Variance Inflation Factor; --, not measured; sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; <, less than; *Chl*, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in micrograms per liter as chlorophyll]

Chl 1.095 0.988 1.214

Data Used in Model Development

[sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; $\mu g/L$, microgram per liter; \geq , greater than or equal to; *Chl*, fluorescence at wavelength of 650 to 700 nanometers, in μg/L as chlorophyll; <, less than]

References Cited

Helsel, D.R., and Hirsch, R.M., 2002, Statistical methods in water resources—Hydrologic analysis and interpretation: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 4, chap. A3, 522 p. [Also available at https://pubs.usgs.gov/twri/twri4a3/.]

Systat Software, Inc., 2008, SigmaPlot® 11.0 statistics user's guide: Systat Software, Inc., 564 p.

U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated, National field manual for the collection of water-quality data: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chaps. A1–A10, accessed September 2016 at https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A.

Appendix 3. 16-Year Logistic Regression Model Archival Summary for Geosmin Occurrence at Station 07144790, 2001– 16

This model archival summary summarizes the logistic model for the probability of geosmin occurrence developed to compute hourly geosmin from April 1, 2001, onward.

Station and Model Information

Station number: 07144790 Station name: Cheney Re Nr Cheney, KS Station location: Latitude 37°43'34", Longitude 97°47'38" referenced to the North American Datum of 1927, in SE¼NE¼NW¼ sec. 6, T. 27 S., R. 04 W., Sedgwick County, Kansas, Hydrologic Unit 11030014.

Equipment: From April 2001 through September 2014, a YSI 6600 water-quality monitor was installed and equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen (YSI Clark cell [from April 2001 through January 2007] or YSI model 6150 optical [from February 2007 through September 2014]), pH, turbidity (YSI model 6026 [from April 2001 through September 2006] or YSI 6136 [from October 2006 through September 2014]), and chlorophyll fluorescence (YSI model 6025 sensor). From October 2014 to the present (December 2016), a Xylem YSI EXO2 water-quality monitor has been used and is equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen, pH, turbidity, and chlorophyll. The Xylem monitor is housed in a 4-inch diameter galvanized steel pipe. Readings from the water-quality monitor are recorded hourly and data are transmitted hourly by satellite.

Date model was created: August 16, 2016

Model calibration data period: May 3, 2001, through June 15, 2016

Model application date: August 2016 onward

Model-Calibration Dataset

All data were collected using U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) protocols (U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated; https://water.usgs.gov/owq/FieldManual/) and are stored in the National Water Information System database (https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN). Logistic model equations were developed using the multiple logistic regression routine in SigmaPlot® version 11.0 (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). Explanatory variables were evaluated individually and in selected combinations. Explanatory variables selected as inputs to logistic regression were physicochemical properties: specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll fluorescence, and elevation of the reservoir surface. Seasonal components (sine and cosine variables) also were evaluated as explanatory variables in the models to determine if seasonal changes affected the model. All combinations of physicochemical properties and a seasonal component were evaluated to determine which combinations produced the best models.

The final selected logistic regression model is based on 230 concurrent measurements of geosmin occurrence collected from May 3, 2001, through June 15, 2016, and models the probability of the presence or absence of geosmin. Samples were collected throughout the range of continuously observed hydrologic conditions. In total, 111 samples were below the threshold for positive classification (5 nanograms per liter [ng/L]). Summary statistics and the complete model-calibration dataset are provided below. Studentized residuals were inspected for values outside the 95-percent confidence interval, and leverage values for independent variables were inspected for values greater than 2. Values outside of the specified ranges were considered potential outliers and were investigated. No outliers were identified in the model-calibration dataset.

Geosmin Sampling Details

Monthly to biweekly discrete water-quality samples were collected during May 2001 through July 2004 near the surface using a Teflon Kemmerer bottle or a weighted bottle sampler with a 1-liter Teflon bottle following USGS methods; these samples were not depth integrated. Starting in August 2004 discrete water-quality samples were collected as integrated photic-zone (depth at which light is about 1 percent of that at the surface) samples using a double check-valve bailer; these samples were depth integrated. Water-quality results collected before and after the sampling procedure change in summer 2004 were similar. Geosmin was analyzed using solid phase microextraction gas chromatography/mass spectrometry. Throughout the course of the study, Montgomery Watson Laboratories, Pasadena, California (2001–2003), the USGS Organic Geochemistry Research Laboratory, Lawrence, Kans. (2003– 2007), and Engineering Performance Solutions, LLC, Gainesville, Florida (2007–14) provided analyses for geosmin and 2-methylisoborneol. Each time laboratories were changed, an among-laboratory comparison was completed before the change was made to verify comparability of results.

Model Development

Logistic regression analysis was done using SigmaPlot by examining seasonality and other continuously measured data as explanatory variables for estimating geosmin occurrence. Seasonality was selected as the best predictor of geosmin based on a relatively low Pearson Chi-square Statistic, relatively high Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic, relatively low -2 Log Likelihood Statistic, relatively high Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic, significant Wald Statistic, and relatively low Variance Inflation Factor. A model classification table with a threshold probability for positive classification (TPPC) of 0.5 also was used in final model selection. After the best model was selected, the TPPC for the model was adjusted based on the fraction of data classified as positive to make the model more conservative (more likely to overestimate a positive response) by guarding more strongly against false negatives. Values for all of the aforementioned statistics and metrics were computed for various models and are included below along with all relevant sample data and more in-depth statistical information.

Model Summary

Summary of final logistic regression analysis for geosmin occurrence at USGS station 07144790.

Probability of geosmin occurrence model:

$$
logit(P) = -0.774 - 0.0402(TBY) + 0.0745(DO)
$$
\n(3–1)

where

logit(*P*) is the logistic probability of geosmin occurrence (concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter);

TBY is turbidity, in formazin nephelometric units; and

DO is dissolved oxygen, in milligrams per liter.

TBY and *DO* make physical and statistical sense as explanatory variables for geosmin.

Previously Published Model

$$
logit(P) = 0.829 + 0.825 sin \left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.262 cos \left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.102 (TBY)
$$
 (3–2)

Model author: Stone and others (2013)

Model data period: May 2001 through December 2009

Probability of Geosmin Occurrence Record

The geosmin occurrence record is computed using this regression model, and the complete water-quality record is stored at the National Real-Time Water Quality website: https://nrtwq.usgs.gov/ks. Data are computed at 60-minute intervals.

SigmaPlot® Output for Geosmin at Station 07144790

16-Year Model Form

$$
logit(P) = -0.774 - (0.0402 \times TBY) + (0.0745 \times DO)
$$
 (3-3)

Variable Summary Statistics

[μg/L, microgram per liter; *DO*, dissolved oxygen; mg/L, milligram per liter; *TBY*, turbidity; FNU, formazin nephelometric units; <, less than; --, not measured]

Model Calibration Using Multiple Logistic Regression

See the 16-year model form in equation 3–3 above.

Number of samples=230 Estimation criterion: Maximum likelihood Dependent variable: Geosmin plus or minus (\pm) Positive response=1 Reference response=0 Number of unique independent variable combinations=226

Pearson Chi-square Statistic=230.504 (probability value [*p*-value]=0.404) Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic=15.609 (*p*-value=less than 0.001) -2*Log(Likelihood)=268.696 Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic=6.577 (*p*-value=0.583)

TPPC=0.41

Details of the Logistic Regression Equation:

[*p*-value, probability value; VIF, Variance Inflation Factor; --, not measured; *TBY*, turbidity; *DO*, dissolved oxygen]

TBY 0.961 0.931 0.991 *DO* 1.077 0.970 1.197

Data Used in Model Development

[ng/L, nanogram per liter; ≥, greater than or equal to; *DO*, dissolved oxygen; mg/L, milligram per liter; *TBY*, turbidity; FNU, formazin nephelometric units; <, less than]

References Cited

Systat Software, Inc., 2008, SigmaPlot® 11.0 statistics user's guide: Systat Software, Inc., 564 p.

- U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated, National field manual for the collection of water-quality data: U.S.
- Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chaps. A1–A10, accessed September

2016 at https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A.

Appendix 4. 4-Year Logistic Regression Model Archival Summary for Geosmin Occurrence at Station 07144790, 2013– 16

This model archival summary summarizes the logistic model for the probability of geosmin occurrence developed to compute hourly geosmin from January 1, 2013, onward.

Station and Model Information

Station number: 07144790 Station name: Cheney Re Nr Cheney, KS Station location: Latitude 37°43'34", Longitude 97°47'38" referenced to the North American Datum of 1927, in SE¼NE¼NW¼ sec. 6, T. 27 S., R. 04 W., Sedgwick County, Kansas, Hydrologic Unit 11030014.

Equipment: From April 2001 through September 2014, a YSI 6600 water-quality monitor was installed equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen (YSI Clark cell [from April 2001 through January 2007] or YSI model 6150 optical [from February 2007 through September 2014]), pH, turbidity (YSI model 6026 [from April 2001 through September 2006] or YSI 6136 [from October 2006 through September 2014]), and chlorophyll. From October 2014 to the present (December 2016), a Xylem YSI EXO2 water-quality monitor has been used and is equipped with sensors for water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen, pH, turbidity, and chlorophyll fluorescence (YSI model 6025 sensor). The Xylem monitor is housed in a 4-inch diameter galvanized steel pipe. Readings from the water-quality monitor are recorded hourly and data are transmitted hourly by satellite.

Date model was created: August 16, 2016

Model calibration data period: January 15, 2013, through June 15, 2016

Model application date: August 2016 onward

Model-Calibration Dataset

All data were collected using U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) protocols (U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated; https://water.usgs.gov/owq/FieldManual/) and are stored in the National Water Information System database (https://doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN). Logistic model equations were developed using the multiple logistic regression routine in SigmaPlot® version 11.0 (Systat Software, Inc., 2008). Explanatory variables were evaluated individually and in selected combinations. Explanatory variables selected as inputs to logistic regression were physicochemical properties: specific conductance, pH, water temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll fluorescence, and elevation of the reservoir surface. Seasonal components (sine and cosine variables) also were evaluated as explanatory variables in the models to determine if seasonal changes affected the model. All combinations of physicochemical properties and a seasonal component were evaluated to determine which combinations produced the best models.

The final selected logistic regression model is based on 48 concurrent measurements of geosmin occurrence collected from January 15, 2013, through June 15, 2016, and models the probability of the presence or absence of geosmin. Samples were collected throughout the range of continuously observed hydrologic conditions. In total, seven samples were below the threshold for positive classification (5 nanograms per liter [ng/L]). Summary statistics and the complete model-calibration dataset are provided below. Studentized residuals were inspected for values outside the 95-percent confidence interval, and leverage values for independent variables were inspected for values greater than 2. Values outside of the specified ranges were considered potential outliers and were investigated. No outliers were identified in the model-calibration dataset.

Geosmin Sampling Details

Discrete water-quality samples were collected monthly to biweekly during January 2013 through June 2016. Samples were collected as integrated photic-zone (depth at which light is about 1 percent of that at the surface) samples using a double check-valve bailer; these samples were depth integrated. Geosmin was analyzed using solid phase microextraction gas chromatography/mass spectrometry by Engineering Performance Solutions, LLC, Gainesville, Florida.

Model Development

Logistic regression analysis was done using SigmaPlot by examining seasonality and other continuously measured data as explanatory variables for estimating geosmin presence. Seasonality was selected as the best predictor of geosmin based on a relatively low Pearson Chi-square Statistic, relatively high Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic, relatively low -2 Log Likelihood Statistic, relatively high Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic, significant Wald Statistic, and relatively low Variance Inflation Factor. A model classification table with a threshold probability for positive classification (TPPC) of 0.5 also was used in final model selection. After the best model was selected, the TPPC for the model was adjusted based on the fraction of data classified as positive to make the model more conservative (more likely to overestimate a positive response) by guarding more strongly against false negatives. Values for all of the aforementioned statistics and metrics were computed for various models and are included below along with all relevant sample data and more in-depth statistical information.

Model Summary

Summary of final logistic regression analysis for geosmin occurrence at USGS station 07144790.

Probability of geosmin occurrence model:

$$
logit(P) = -34.118 - 3.279 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.393 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 3.995(pH)
$$
 (4-1)

where

logit(*P*) is the logistic probability of geosmin occurrence (concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nanograms per liter);

D is the Julian day of the year;

pH is pH, in standard units.

Seasonality (the information contained in the sine [sin] and cosine [cos] component of the equation; Helsel and Hirsch, 2002) and *pH* make physical and statistical sense as explanatory variables for geosmin.

Previously Published Model

$$
logit(P) = 0.829 + 0.825 sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.262 cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) - 0.102 (TBY)
$$
 (4-2)

Model author: Stone and others (2013)

Model data period: May 2001 through December 2009

Probability of Geosmin Occurrence Record

The geosmin record is computed using this regression model, and the complete water-quality record is stored at the National Real-Time Water Quality website: https://nrtwq.usgs.gov/ks. Data are computed at 60-minute intervals.

SigmaPlot® Output for Geosmin at Station 07144790

4-Year Model Form

$$
logit(P) = -34.118 - 3.279 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 0.393 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi D}{365}\right) + 3.995(pH)
$$
 (4-3)

Variable Summary Statistics

Model Calibration Using Multiple Logistic Regression

See the model form in equation 4–3 above.

Number of samples=48 Missing observations=182 Estimation criterion: Maximum likelihood Dependent variable: Geosmin (abbr) plus or minus (±) Positive response=1 Reference response=0 Number of unique independent variable combinations=48

Pearson Chi-square Statistic=48.980 (probability value [*p*-value]=0.246) Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic=26.395 (*p*-value=less than 0.001) -2*Log(Likelihood)=40.147 Hosmer-Lemeshow Statistic=9.352 (*p*-value=0.313)

TPPC=0.5

Details of the logistic regression equation:

[*p*-value, probability value; VIF, Variance Inflation Factor; --, not measured; sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; *pH*, pH in standard units; <, less than]

Data Used in Model Development

[sin, sine of the seasonality component; cos, cosine of the seasonality component; ng/L, nanogram per liter; ≥, greater than or equal to; *pH*, pH in standard units; <, less than]

References Cited

Helsel, D.R., and Hirsch, R.M., 2002, Statistical methods in water resources—Hydrologic analysis and interpretation: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 4, chap. A3, 522 p. [Also available at https://pubs.usgs.gov/twri/twri4a3/.]

Systat Software, Inc., 2008, SigmaPlot® 11.0 statistics user's guide: Systat Software, Inc., 564 p.

U.S. Geological Survey, variously dated, National field manual for the collection of water-quality data: U.S. Geological Survey Techniques of Water-Resources Investigations, book 9, chaps. A1–A10, accessed September 2016 at https://pubs.water.usgs.gov/twri9A.

Publishing support provided by: Rolla Publishing Service Center

For additional information concerning this publication, contact: Director, USGS Kansas Water Science Center 4821 Quail Crest Place Lawrence, KS 66049 (785) 842–9909

Or visit the Kansas Water Science Center website at: <https://ks.water.usgs.gov>

ISSN 2328-0328 (online) https://doi.org/10.3133/sir20175016