

INTRODUCTION

In the lower Coachella Valley, in the Colorado Desert Region of southern California, ground water has been an important source for agricultural, municipal, and domestic water supplies since the early 1920s. Pumping of ground water resulted in water-level declines of as much as 50 ft between the early 1920s and the late 1940s before the importation of Colorado River water in 1949. As a result of the availability of a surface-water supply, pumping of ground water was reduced, and water levels recovered throughout most of the valley from the 1950s through the 1970s. Since the late 1970s, however, the demand for water has exceeded the natural recharge of imported surface water, and ground-water levels have been declining again as a result of increased pumping. Ground-water levels in many areas currently (1996) are lower than previously recorded low levels. These observed water-level declines have the potential to induce new or increased lowering of land-surface elevations (land subsidence) in the lower Coachella Valley. Land subsidence can result in the disruption of surface drainage, reduction of aquifer-system storage, the formation of earth cracks, and damage to wells, buildings, roads, and utility infrastructure.

Geohydrology

Coachella Valley is filled with as much as 12,000 ft of sediments; the upper 2,000 ft of these sediments have been defined by California Department of Water Resources (1979) as water-bearing deposits. In this report, the water-bearing deposits are referred to as the aquifer system. The aquifer system consists of gravel, sand, silt, and clay of alluvial and lacustrine origins. Electrical-resistivity borehole logs for selected wells (fig. 2) indicate that alternating thin layers of fine-grained sediments (silt and clay) are interbedded within the aquifer system. However, because of the limited data, the distribution and continuity of these fine-grained deposits is uncertain.

Because of the lack of perennial surface-water sources in lower Coachella Valley, ground water is the predominant source for agricultural, municipal, and domestic water supplies prior to the importation of Colorado River water through the Coachella Canal in 1949. Water-level data indicate that there were declines of as much as 50 ft between the late 1920s and 1949 in some areas (wells 7536-34G1 and 7536-20M1 (fig. 3)). As a result of the importation of Colorado River water to some parts of the Coachella Valley, ground-water pumping was reduced, and water levels recovered from the 1950s through the 1970s (fig. 3). Since the late 1970s, however, the demand for water has exceeded the deliveries of imported surface water, and ground-water levels generally have been declining throughout lower Coachella Valley (fig. 3) as a result of increased ground-water pumping. Ground-water levels declined by as much as 150 ft from 1949 through the late 1990s in well 7536-20M1. Water levels in many areas of the lower Coachella Valley currently are lower than previously recorded levels.

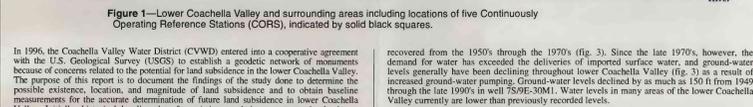


Figure 1—Lower Coachella Valley and surrounding areas including locations of five Continuously Operating Reference Stations (CORS), indicated by solid black squares.

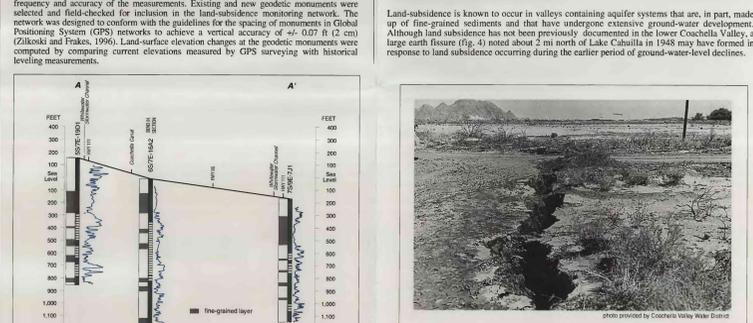


Figure 2—Generalized geohydrologic section in which grey shaded bands represent some of the thicker layers of fine-grained sediments, as interpreted from the electrical resistivity borehole logs depicted to the right of the wells. Screened intervals are indicated by thin lines in each well. (Modified from Reichard and Meadows, 1992)

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DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA
Geography
The Coachella Valley is a northwest-trending valley in southeastern California (fig. 1) that is about 65 mi long with an area of about 400 mi². The upper Coachella Valley is drained primarily by the Whitewater River, which becomes the channelized Whitewater Stormwater Channel that provides drainage for the lower Coachella Valley and empties into the Salton Sea on the east. Land-surface elevations vary from more than 10,000 ft above sea level at the peaks of the surrounding mountains to more than 230 ft below sea level at the Salton Sea.

The land-subsidence monitoring network described in this report covers only the lower Coachella Valley. As defined in this report, the lower Coachella Valley extends from about 2 mi north of city limits to the Salton Sea. The lower Coachella Valley is bounded by the upper Coachella Valley to the north, the Mecca Hills to the east, the Salton Sea to the south, and the Santa Rosa Mountains to the west. The valley floor is about 10 mi wide and 20 mi long in the northwest quadrant.

The climate of the lower Coachella Valley is arid desert, with an average annual rainfall of 3.15 in. Temperatures range from about 120°F in the summer on the valley floor to below 32°F in the winter in the surrounding mountains.

MECHANISMS OF LAND SUBSIDENCE
Land-subsidence is known to occur in valleys containing aquifer systems that are, in part, made up of fine-grained sediments and that have undergone extensive ground-water development. Although land subsidence has not been previously documented in the lower Coachella Valley, a large earth fissure (fig. 4) noted about 2 mi north of Lake Calabua in 1948 may have formed in response to land subsidence occurring during the earlier period of ground-water-level declines.

What causes land subsidence, and how do water-level declines relate to land subsidence? The structure of a sedimentary aquifer system is supported by a combination of the skeleton of the sediment grains and the buoyancy of the ground water that fills the intergranular pore space (Meinzer, 1928). When ground water is withdrawn in quantities that result in regional water-level declines, more weight of the overlying sedimentary material must be supported solely by the skeleton. Loss of the buoyancy support increases the intergranular load, or effective stress, on the skeleton. Given an increase in effective stress, the skeleton is subject to deformation. The vertical component of this deformation sometimes results in irreversible compaction of the aquifer system and land subsidence. An aquifer-system skeleton that consists primarily of fine-grained sediments, such as silt and clay, is much more compressible than one that consists primarily of coarse-grained sediments, such as sand and gravel.

Aquifer-system deformation is elastic and reversible if the stress imposed on the skeleton is smaller than the previous maximum effective stress. The historically largest effective stress imposed on the aquifer system—usually as a result of the lowest ground-water level—is called the "preconsolidation stress." If stress imposed on the skeleton is greater than the preconsolidation stress, the pore structure of the fine-grained sediments undergoes significant rearrangement, which results in an irreversible reduction of pore volume and compaction of the aquifer system. A more complete discussion of aquifer-system compaction can be found in Poland (1984).

SUBSIDENCE MONITORING NETWORK

A land-subsidence monitoring network has been established by the USGS in the lower Coachella Valley to assess historical elevation changes and to establish a baseline measurement for future monitoring. Changes in elevation are calculated by comparing land-surface elevations measured at different times. One way to measure land-surface elevations in geographically large areas is to utilize GPS surveying. GPS is a U.S. Department of Defense satellite-based navigation system designed to provide continuous worldwide positioning and navigation capability. GPS surveying utilizes satellite and Earth-based reference station data to accurately locate and determine the elevation of geodetic monuments.

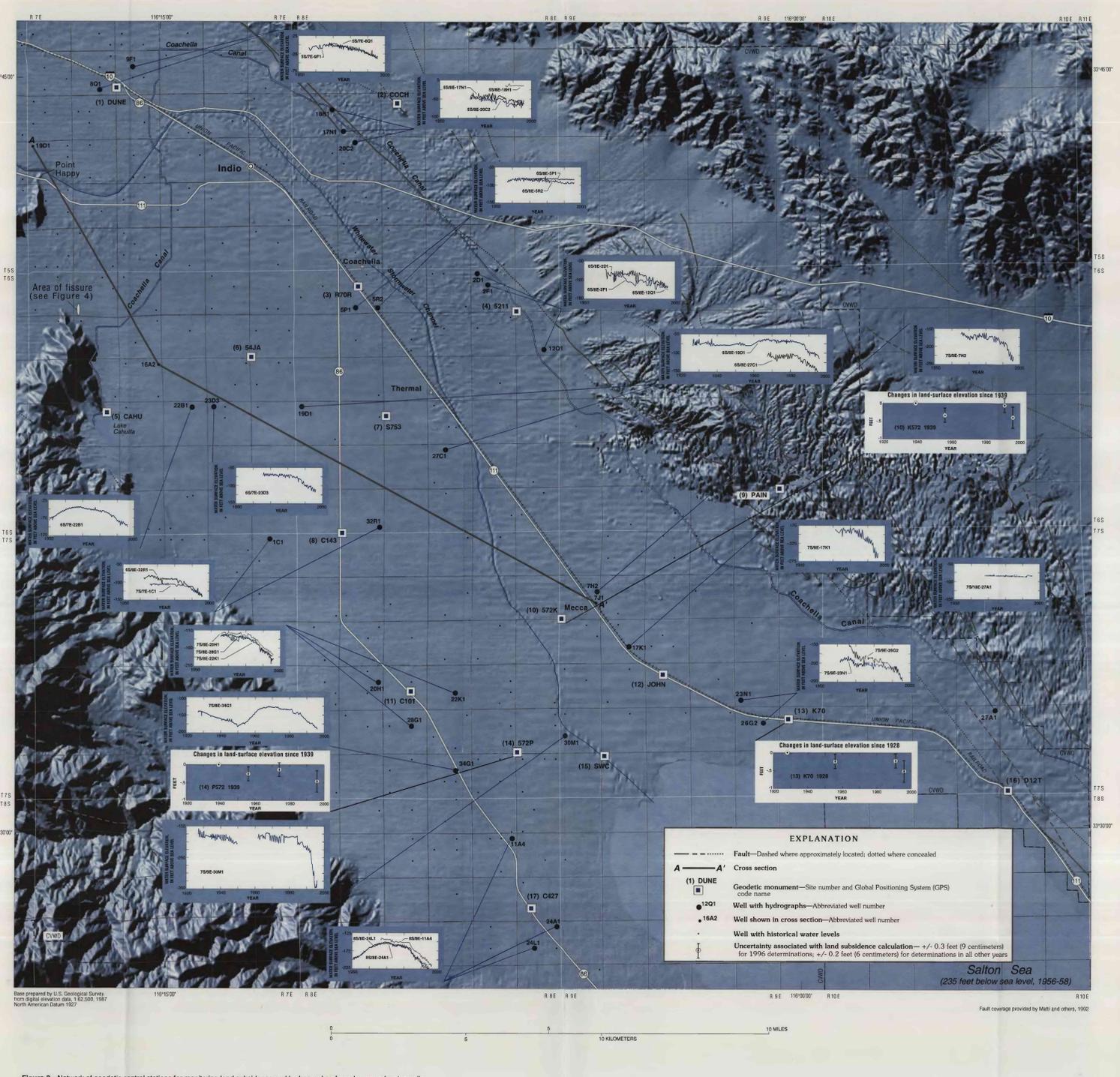


Figure 3—Network of geodetic control stations for monitoring land subsidence and hydrographs of nearby ground-water wells.

Table 1—Horizontal position, vertical coordinates, and differences in land-surface elevation for geodetic network monuments in lower Coachella Valley, California

Site	Global Positioning System code name	Bench mark name	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (feet above sea level)	Difference (feet)	Measurement Interval (years)	Adjustment 1: Epoch (years)	Adjustment 2: Epoch (years)	Proximate well number
(1)	DUNE	DUNEPORT Annuity	33°44'46"	116°16'10"	48.809	-0.3	1991-96	5	-17.309	65/76-801, -9F1
(2)	COCH	COACH 1931	33°44'25"	116°09'30"	215.203	fixed	NA	NA	33.496	65/76-17N1, 19H1, -20C2
(3)	RHOR	R70 Reser 1958	33°40'49"	116°10'26"	-72.001	-2	1956-96	40	-54.400	65/96-5P1, -5R2
(4)	5211	USGS 5211	33°33'07"	116°09'49"	-92.171	-3	1991-96	5	-94.290	65/96-20A1, -2P1, -12G1
(5)	CAHU	Lake Calabua	33°38'19"	116°16'25"	4.390	fixed	NA	NA	-30.764	65/76-22B1
(6)	64JA	Ave 54 and Jackson	33°39'24"	116°13'00"	-45.728	—	NA	NA	-46.358	65/76-23D3
(7)	S753	S753 1945	33°38'13"	116°09'49"	-116.972	-3	1945-96	51	-68.230	65/96-19D1, -27C1
(8)	C143	Caltrans 14.3 Reser 1994	33°35'54"	116°10'52"	-129.754	—	NA	NA	-72.686	65/96-32R1, 75/76-1C1
(9)	PAIN	Painted Canyon	33°36'43"	116°00'30"	412.866	fixed	NA	NA	43.309	—
(10)	572K	K572 1939	33°34'09"	116°05'42"	-192.749	-4	1939-96	57	-91.568	75/96-7H2
(11)	C101	Caltrans 10.1 1986	33°32'44"	116°09'16"	-58.461	-1	1986-96	10	-50.405	75/96-20H1, -22K1, -28G1
(12)	JOHN	Johnston	33°33'02"	116°09'16"	-201.171	-3	1991-96	5	-244.290	65/96-20A1, -2P1, -12G1
(13)	K70	K70 1928	33°32'09"	116°00'21"	-192.375	-5	1928-96	68	-91.587	75/96-22N1, -26E2
(14)	P572	P572 1939	33°31'32"	116°06'46"	-191.958	-5	1939-96	57	-91.539	75/96-34G1
(15)	SWC	Stormwater Channel	33°31'27"	116°04'42"	-221.243	-1	1967-96	29	-100.364	75/96-30M1
(16)	D12T	D1299 Tie	33°30'42"	115°55'11"	-199.723	-1	1987-96	9	-73.396	85/96-11A4, -24A1, -24L1
(17)	C427	Caltrans 4.27 1987	33°28'25"	116°06'27"	-133.186	0	1987-96	9	73.396	85/96-11A4, -24A1, -24L1

Long-term historical changes in land-surface elevations are shown by graphs in figure 3.

Network Design

The land-subsidence monitoring network consists of permanent geodetic monuments where horizontal and vertical position can be measured accurately to assess spatial and temporal changes in land-surface elevations. Geodetic monuments are markers that are anchored to the ground or in a structure and used in precise measurements of horizontal or vertical positions or both for surveying and mapping. Historical data for benchmarks in the lower Coachella Valley were compiled and reviewed to determine their geographic extent and the quality of the vertical-control data. Sources of these data include the National Geodetic Survey (NGS) (formerly the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey), California Department of Transportation (Caltrans), U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, and CVWD. Geodetic monuments were visited to assess whether they had been damaged or destroyed and their suitability for GPS observations. The monitoring network in lower Coachella Valley consists of 17 geodetic monuments, of which 15 have historical elevations (table 1). The spacing between benchmarks meets the network design criteria (Zilkoski and Frakes, 1996) of a distance not exceeding 10 km (6.0 mi) and an average spacing not exceeding 7 km (4.2 mi).

Determination of Land-Surface Elevations and Ellipsoid Heights

GPS measurements were made with six dual-frequency, half-wavelength GPS receivers (Ashtech LD-XII and MD-XII) at the 17 geodetic monuments during the period 3-14, 1996, to determine land-surface elevations and ellipsoid heights. In this study, land-surface elevations are referenced to the sea-level datum, National Geodetic Vertical Datum of 1929 (NGVD), so that elevations determined in the 1996 survey can be compared with historical land-surface elevations. Ellipsoid height is the vertical coordinate relative to the satellite reference system, for example, the ellipsoid that closely approximates the Earth's shape; the North American Datum of 1983 (NAD83). The difference between the two reference systems is called the geoid height, and it is about 30 m (98 ft) in Coachella Valley. Land-surface elevations determined by GPS surveying are obtained by adding geoid height to ellipsoid heights. Because the geoid height is a modeled value rather than a measured value, there is less error when computing and comparing ellipsoid heights.

The GPS surveying was done in accordance with the most current edition (version 4) of "Guidelines for establishing GPS-derived ellipsoid heights" (Zilkoski and Frakes, 1996). There were two minor variations from the NGS guidelines. Full-wavelength GPS receivers are stipulated in the guidelines, to compensate for using half-wavelength receivers, the duration of field measurements was nearly tripled from the guidelines. GPS measurements were made at the 17 geodetic monuments on at least 2 different days and data were recorded for 2.5 to 3 hours during each observation period. The second variation was that single-baseline, rather than multi-baseline, processing software was used in post processing. Software used for the baseline and relative-positioning computations was GPS version 5.0 (Ashtech), the software used for the least squares adjustments of GPS observations to local datum coordinates was FILLNET version 3.1 (Ashtech), and the model used for adjusting heights derived from the GPS-satellite datum to the NGVD29 datum was GEOD96 (NGS). During least squares adjustments, the coordinates that are considered known are specified to not change, and the observations made at noncontrol monuments are shifted so that the relative positions between monuments in the network are accurate with the least adjustment to the original measurements.

To compute land-surface elevations, four geodetic monuments in the network served as vertical control—sites 2, 5, 9, and 16 (fig. 3, table 1)—and elevations were determined for the remaining 13 monuments in Adjustment 1. The three criteria for selecting the vertical-control sites were (1) geographic distribution in the study area, (2) stable land-surface elevations, and (3) accurate previous measurements. The vertical control sites selected are in foothill areas, where ground-water pumping is minimal and land-surface elevations were assumed to be stable. The southwest part of the network has no vertical control because all of the benchmarks in this area are in alluvial sediments and, therefore, could not be considered stable.

Because bench-mark candidates for vertical control in ellipsoid height adjustments do not require historical leveling measurements, a different set of bench marks was selected for Adjustment 2. Six bench marks located at the perimeters of the land-subsidence monitoring network were selected as control because of their geographic distribution; they were sites 1, 2, 5, 9, 11, and 16 (fig. 3, table 1). GPS measurements were made by the USGS at these monuments on 3 different days for 6.5 hours each day.

In Adjustment 2, the determination of ellipsoid heights for the 17 geodetic monuments in the network involved two phases of relative positioning and least squares adjustment. In the first phase, horizontal coordinates and ellipsoid heights for the six control monuments were determined by processing measurements made at these monuments with CORSs made simultaneously at several Continuously Operating Reference Stations (CORS). GPS observations are recorded continuously (generally at 30-second intervals) and archived by members of the Southern California Integrated GPS Network (SCIGN) for the CORS in the area surrounding Coachella Valley. Observation data and accurate coordinates of BLYT (near Blythe), DHLG (near Darmit Hill), FNN (near Pinyon Flat), MONP (near Monument Peak), and CRPP (near Yuccaipa) (fig. 1), and precise satellite orbital data produced by NGS were downloaded from GPS data archives. In the second phase, the coordinates of the six Coachella Valley network monuments were then considered known and held fixed during the second phase of Adjustment 2. In which positions and ellipsoid heights for the other 11 monuments were determined. The level of uncertainty for these heights is about +/-0.07 ft (0.02 cm) at a 95-percent confidence level.

SUBSIDENCE DETERMINATIONS

Generally, the comparison of bench-mark elevations measured during surveys made at different times and sometimes by different agencies with various standards of accuracy and methods of various geographic scales incorporates uncertainties of at least +/-0.2 ft (6 cm).

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Well-Numbering System			Conversion Factors		
Well	Agency	Well Number	Multiply	By	To obtain
feet (ft)			0.3048		meter (m)
feet (ft)			30.48		centimeter (cm)
feet (ft)			12		inch (in)
feet (ft)			1.609		kilometer (km)
feet (ft)			2.59		square kilometer (km ²)

Temperature given in degrees Fahrenheit (°F) can be converted to degrees Celsius (°C) by the following equation:	
°C = (°F - 32) / 1.8	

Coordinates determined by Global Positioning System (GPS) surveys are generally marked in metric units. The industry standard for GPS usage is that field measurements and subsequent computations, including datum conversions, are made in feet during leveling surveys. Because most of these data were measured in the metric system, GPS-derived ellipsoid heights were converted from the metric system to that compatible with the leveling system. The use of dual units in this report is intended to facilitate application of the data by maintaining the integrity of the original units of measurement for GPS and leveling surveys.	
WELL NUMBER	SECTION
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17	D B A
18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100	E F G H
	M L K J
	N P Q R

Geodetic Network to Evaluate Historical Elevation Changes and to Monitor Land Subsidence in Lower Coachella Valley, California, 1996

by Marti E. Ikehara, Steven K. Predmore, and Daniel J. Swope, 1997

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