NUMERICAL SIMULATION OF WATERSHED HYDROLOGY

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Mathematical Simulation of Rainfall Runoff Processes

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PREFACE

This research is part of a continuing effort at The University of Texas to develop methods for a numerical simulation of watersheds which will be both operational from the standpoint of engineering usage and realistic from the standpoint of simulating physical processes occurring in the watershed. It is felt that the simulation processes must be closely related to real physical processes if the method is to be useful in predicting the effect of changes that may occur in a particular watershed. It is hoped that in the future efforts can be made to correlate parameters used in the numerical simulation with physical observations made in specific watersheds, and to establish the correspondence between the physical processes occurring in the watershed and the numerical simulation of these processes.

The Stanford Watershed Model was studied as the first generalized watershed model that appeared to be generally available. It soon became apparent that it was difficult to obtain a clear understanding of the inner workings of the model. However, in making a detailed translation of the model into Fortran IV compiler language, a rather complete understanding of the model was achieved and is presented as a part of this report. As the study progressed, it became apparent that the model represented a tremendous breakthrough in hydrologic research. But as with most scientific breakthroughs, its greatest value was the demonstration of what could be done with continuous accounting modeling of a portion of the hydrologic cycle.

Two somewhat conflicting goals emerge as one builds a watershed model. First, the model must give engineering answers to the problem of hydrograph synthesis. The practicing engineer or hydrologist wants a design hydrograph whose accuracy is commensurate with the accuracy of the other variables in the problem. But the research hydrologist wants a model which as closely resembles natural processes as possible. Only with close modeling will he have a tool which will help to understand and explain the complex processes that occur in the natural watershed.

In this study emphasis was continually given to utilizing meaningful parameters for each process, and an attempt was made to model the
various physical processes as closely as possible. Hence, evaporation
occurs only during daylight hours, transpiration only from the root
zone, soil moisture movement in the unsaturated zone is based on the
unsaturated form of Darcy's law, etc.

Chapter 1 discusses the general runoff process, identifying the important physical processes. Standard methods of estimating the storm runoff and the hydrograph are reviewed in Chapter 2. An evaluation of the Stanford Watershed Model IV is given in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 contains a discussion of flow through unsaturated porous media, an area unfamiliar to most engineers. A modified watershed model is presented in Chapter 5 with applications reported in Chapter 6. Suggestions for areas of future research are given in Chapter 7.

ABSTRACT

The Stanford Watershed Model has been reviewed and used as a pattern for developing a new watershed simulation model. The new model incorporates considerable flexibility of input data and model time steps which were not available in the Stanford Model. New parameters describing the infiltration, evaporation, and soil water movement processes have been defined and related to physical properties of the watershed where possible. Application to two experimental watersheds are reported.

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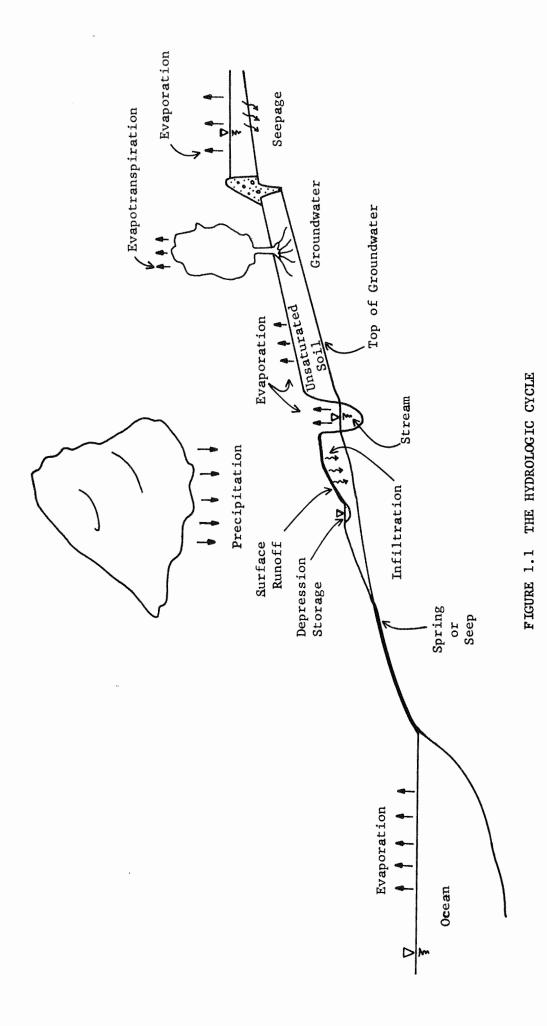
Chapter 1

THE RUNOFF PHENOMENON

The runoff portion of the hydrologic cycle embraces those processes by which precipitation, after reaching the watershed with both time and areal distribution, is converted into streamflow at the basin outlet. Observation has led to satisfactory identification of these processes; however, mathematical models of the various processes are not well developed although much effort is currently being expended in this field. The interaction of the various processes is not well understood. In this chapter, each of the processes which affect the conversion of precipitation into streamflow will be examined in a qualitative way. Figure 1.1 identifies these various processes.

Interception Storage

Some of the water falling to the ground is intercepted by vegetation and by man made structures. This water is said to be in interception storage. Interception storage is characterized by fixed maximum volume (with regard to the time scale of one precipitation event, although it varies seasonally). This water never reaches the earth surface, but subsequently evaporates. The storage is filled by the earliest part of the precipitation. Some storage capacity is regained during periods of no rainfall within the storm. The volume of interception storage available is a function of the exposed surface area of intercepting surfaces. This area will change with the growing season, as well as with change in



land use.

Surface Depression Storage

This storage consists of cracks, crevices, depressions, and indentations in the earth's surface. If the watershed contains soils which exhibit shrinkage cracks upon drying, the volume of depression storage will decrease as the storm progresses. Water entering depression storage is removed by both the infiltration process and the evaporation process. The volume of surface depression storage available in a particular watershed depends on the nature of the watershed surface. Urban watersheds, in general, have much less depression storage volume than do agricultural lands, particularly agricultural lands where contour plowing and/or farm ponds are present. In agricultural watersheds, the condition of the land throughout the growing season will vary, causing a variation in the total depression storage volume.

Overland Flow and Overland Flow Storage

Overland flow, or sheet flow, is the flow of water at a small depth over the earth's surface. Overland flow provides the conveyance from the point where the water falls to the smallest "channel." It is essentially a two dimensional flow problem; the flow may be either laminar or turbulent. This process has been studied in detail both in theory and experimentally. Overland flow storage is water in transit in the overland flow process. It is a function of the length of the overland flow reach and the flow rate. Overland flow rate is a function

of the length, slope, and roughness of the reach.

Evaporation

The process of conversion from liquid or solid state to vapor state occurs continuously at all water-air interfaces. Evaporation is responsible for removal of water from interception storage, from surface depression storage, from both overland flow storage and stream storage, and from the water contained in the soil structure. Water is also removed from plants by transpiration, a form of evaporation.

Evaporation is inversely related to the partial pressure (or humidity) and directly to available energy. Wind may prevent the air adjacent to an air-water interface from becoming saturated, and hence may increase evaporation. In general evaporation increases with increased temperature and wind.

Evapotranspiration varies widely with the plant species, as well as with the temperature.

Infiltration

Infiltration is the entry of water into the pore spaces of the soil. In general, water will infiltrate more rapidly into a dry soil than a wet one, and more rapidly into a sand than a silt. Infiltration rates tend to decrease as the volume of water infiltrated increases.

Many empirical formula have been proposed for describing either the instantaneous infiltration rate, or the average infiltration rate.

Infiltration occurs continuously from depression storage and overland flow storage, provided water is available for infiltration.

Soil Water Storage and Flow

Water stored in the soil is either in the saturated zone or the unsaturated zone. Storage in and flow through the saturated zone is probably the best understood portion of the hydrologic cycle. Flow is proportional to the driving force and inversely proportional to a resistance factor. Storage consists of the pore space of the soil matrix. Storage in the upper part of the unsaturated zone, commonly called the root zone, has always been of concern to agriculturists. In addition to saturation, these people define two other terms to describe the amount of water in storage in the root zone. Field capacity refers to that volume of water held by capillary forces in the pore spaces against the force of gravity. Wilting point is that volume of water present in the soil when permanent wilting of plants takes place. Water available for plant use is that between field capacity and wilting point. Depth of the root zone may vary; twenty-four to thirty inches is often cited as the range.

Flow through the unsaturated zone has only recently received attention from investigators. Since this process is also the topic of this investigation, discussion of the factors involved will be delayed until Chapter 4.

Stream Flow and Stream Storage

Stream flow is differentiated from overland flow by the presence of a width of stream, i.e., the flow is three dimensional in the stream. The hydraulics of open channel flow are well understood for streams of

regular cross section. When inflow becomes a function of length, even these solutions are difficult. With the additional complexity of a natural channel, most investigators have turned to approximations. Best known of these is the unit hydrograph, which assumes a linear flow system. Another commonly used method is channel routing, where the continuity equation is combined with a channel equation. The channel equation describes the relation between the rate of inflow to a reach of the stream, the outflow from this reach, and the storage within the reach. Adequate channel equations do not exist, and approximations must be used.

Each of the processes sketched briefly here has been the subject of investigators in many different fields. An extensive list of references will be found in Chow (1964).

Chapter 2

METHODS OF ESTIMATING STORM RUNOFF

Many engineering design problems require an estimate of the response of a watershed to a "design" storm. Some of the more widely known methods are reviewed briefly in this chapter.

Methods of Estimating Runoff Volume

Soil Conservation Service Method: This method, developed by the Soil Conservation Service as a guide for their field personnel, is probably the most complete, comprehensive method available. It is based on observations made in many parts of the United States. The factors considered are soil type, land use, and land treatment. These are combined to give an index number, which is used in an equation together with rainfall to predict runoff volume. A table is provided for shifting the index to either a dry antecedent moisture condition (Condition I) or near saturated antecedent moisture condition (Condition III). The runoff equation is

$$Q = \frac{(P - 0.2 \text{ S})^2}{P + 0.8 \text{ S}}$$
 (2.1)

where Q is the direct runoff, in inches

P is storm rainfall, in inches, and

S is the maximum potential difference between P and Q

in inches at time of storm's beginning.

The value of S can be estimated by the relation

Index Number =
$$\frac{1000}{10 + S}$$
 (2.2)

Coaxial Correlation: This method, proposed by Kohler and Linsley (1951), provides a graphical means of determining runoff from rainfall. The parameters used are antecedent precipitation index (API), the date of the storm, the amount of rainfall, and the duration of the storm. The API is an index to soil moisture, and hence, to infiltration. The time of year as reflected by the date is included to reflect the condition of the cover on the watershed, the likelihood of snow, and the condition of the soil surface. Duration provides a measure of average rainfall intensity. Recorded values of rainfall and concurrent storm runoff are required to derive the coaxial plot—in addition to a great deal of patience. The plot thus derived is applicable only to that particular basin. They have been applied, however, with good results to similar basins in the immediate vicinity. This method makes no attempt to model the rainfall runoff process, but rather represents a statistical approach.

Methods of Hydrograph Estimation, The Unit Hydrograph

The most popular method in use today is probably the unit hydrograph proposed by Sherman in 1932. The basic assumption made by Sherman was that the shape of the hydrograph was completely determined, except for a vertical scale factor, by the basin characteristics. Thus, a "characteristic" hydrograph of rainfall excess could be derived for any basin. By changing the ordinates of this graph, the area under the

curve, corresponding to runoff, could be made equal to one inch of excess rainfall over the basin. Hence the name, "unit hydrograph." The hydrograph for any other storm of similar duration and areal distribution can be found by adjusting the scale of the ordinate until the runoff volume is correct. It has been pointed out by many investigators that Sherman's assumption is equivalent to assuming a linear response by the basin. However, the natural channel is a nonlinear device. In spite of this departure from basic assumption, the unit hydrograph continues to be used with seemingly satisfactory results by most engineers.

Methods of Estimating Peak Flow

Chow (1962) has described many methods which have been used to estimate peak flow rates for use in determining required waterway openings. Only two methods will be described here, the Rational Method, and a method due to the Soil Conservation Service.

Rational Method: The origin of this widely used method is not known. Chow (1964) traces it to Kuichling in 1889 in American literature and to Lloyd-Davis in English writings. This method assumes that, for a constant rainfall of sufficient duration, called the time of concentration, the runoff rate becomes a fixed fraction of the rainfall rate, or

$$Q = C I A \tag{2.3}$$

where Q is the runoff rate in c. f. s.,

I is the rainfall rate in inches/hour,

A is the area in acres, and

C is a runoff factor, varying from zero (no runoff) to one (impervious area).

When used for design work, it is necessary to choose the proper value of both the coefficient C and the Intensity, I. The intensity is normally determined by assuming the peak flow will occur when runoff is produced on all the area. Thus, the "time of concentration" (the time necessary for water from the most hydraulically remote part of the watershed to reach the outlet) determines the rainfall duration. This in turn, is used in an intensity-duration relation to determine the value of I. It is sometimes possible to obtain higher rates of runoff by using only a portion of the basin when estimating time of concentration. The shorter time of concentration will yield a higher intensity, which may more than compensate for the loss of area.

Soil Conservation Service: This method is not described because of special merit, but rather as typical of current developments. As described by Kent (1968), the method utilizes the excess runoff determined by the Soil Conservation Service method described earlier in this chapter. It is somewhat similar to the Rational Method, in that a basin lag time is determined from a time of concentration. A chart is provided so that lag time can be estimated from the index number used in the determination of excess rainfall. Thus, the retardedness of the land surface is reflected in the value of the lag time. Other factors involved in the lag time are basin area and average basin slope. Two standard time distributions of rainfall are used, one for the west coast of the United States, the Hawaiian Islands and Alaska; and the other for the remainder of the United States, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Both distributions produce a low intensity rainfall

during the first ten hours of a twenty-four hour period followed by a period of a very heavy rainfall, and finally another period of low intensity rainfall. The rainfall corresponds approximately to the twenty-five year frequency as shown in the Rainfall Atlases of the United States Weather Bureau. A triangular shaped hydrograph is assumed, with the peak runoff occurring at a time equal to the basin lag time plus one-half the storm duration. Peak discharge may be computed

$$Q_{p} = \frac{K A Q}{T_{p}}$$
 (2.4)

where $\boldsymbol{Q}_{\boldsymbol{p}}$ is the estimated peak rate of discharge

A is the area

Q is the storm runoff

K is a conversion factor, and

 T_{p} is time to peak.

Equation 2.4 is for a uniform rain. In order to adapt this to the nonuniform standard rainfall, the equation was modified to

$$\Delta q_{p} = \frac{484 \text{ A } \Delta Q}{\frac{\Delta D}{2} + L}$$
 (2.5)

where A is the area, in square miles,

 ΔQ is incremental runoff volume, inches

 ΔD is an incremental time, in hours

L is lag, in hours, and

 Δq_p is the incremental peak discharge, in c. f. s., i.e. the peak of a triangular hydrograph containing Q volume of runoff.

These incremental hydrographs are combined linearly to produce the design hydrograph. The whole process has been programmed for a digital computer, and charts are included which allow reading of the peak runoff rate directly as a function of drainage area, slope, and basin index number.

Chapter 3

THE STANFORD WATERSHED MODEL IV

The processes discussed in Chapter 1 are interrelated, and to some degree simultaneous in action. Adding to this complexity is the fact that observations are not generally available from controlled experiments, but rather, from random events in nature. This lack of controlled experiments is one of the major obstacles to hydrologic research. The result has been a great many empirical runoff relations. A few of these were discussed in the last chapter.

With the advent of the high speed digital computer, it has become feasible to construct a mathematical model of the entire runoff process. At least three such models have been reported in the literature.

Apparently the first embryonic attempt began in 1957 when Professor Ray K. Linsley of Stanford University attempted a very simple rainfall-runoff study with one of his graduate classes in hydrology. From this beginning and with the aid of many other people, notably Dr. Norman H. Crawford, the model to be discussed in this chapter has evolved. This model is not static; Model VI is being tested at Stanford.

A second model, reported by Rockwood (1958), and developed by the Corps of Engineers, and the Portland River Forecast Center for use on the Columbia River Basin, is also undergoing evolution, Kuehl (1967), Schermerhorn and Kuehl (1968), Rockwood (1968). This model lacks detailed simulation of the natural processes; it is in fact, essentially

a flood routing model.

A third model has been reported by Boughton (1966) in Australia. This model was constructed with the Stanford model as a guide, and has as its distinguishing feature the use of daily rainfall data, rather than data from a continuous recorder. This, of course, has necessitated a longer scale of time for the model, with the resultant loss of detail. Other models have been reported by Holtan and Lopez (1969), by Dawdy (1969), and by Ayers and Balek (1968).

In addition to the work currently underway at Hydrocomp, Palo Alto, California, on the Stanford Model, and the work reported herein, Dr. L. Douglas James, of the University of Kentucky, has used a translation of the Stanford Watershed Model II, with some modifications from Model IV included. The computer programs written at Stanford were all in SUBALGOL, an extinct version of Burrough's early compiler. This compiler language barrier has, no doubt, limited the availability of the Stanford models to other researchers. Model IV, with the exception of the snowmelt subroutine, has been translated into Fortran IV by the author.

Some terms pecular to the model need to be defined before proceeding to a discussion of the model and of the computer program. A parameter is a constant value associated with a particular basin, e.g., the recession constant for groundwater flow. A variable is the physical quantity determined by the model, e.g., the total evaporation. A flowpoint is the point on a stream where the hydrograph is to be computed by the model. A basin may contain more than one flowpoint. A

segment is the working unit of area for application of the runoff processes. A basin may consist of more than one segment.

The Stanford model is a continuous accounting model in the sense that the location of the water within the system is continuously known. The model, in fact, operates on a 15 minute cycle, i.e., adjustments in the location of water in the system are made each 15 minutes.

Figure 3.1 is a diagram of the watershed model as interpreted at the University of Texas. The model consists of storage units with flow between the units prescribed by relationships which approximate the physical phenomenon. Water entering the system in the form of precipitation is subjected, first of all, to the demands of interception storage. The total volume of interception storage is specified by the parameter EPXM. All available interception storage (SCEP) is filled, and the remainder of the precipitation (P3 in the program) proceeds to the surface. Interception storage is decreased each hour from 9:00 a.m. through 8:00 p.m. by the withdrawal of a volume sufficient to satisfy the hourly evapotranspiration potential (EPHRLI), which is calculated as 1/12 of the daily evapotranspiration potential, EP.

The soil is divided into four storage areas. The Upper Zone Storage area includes the depression storage and a shallow depth of the top soil. No physical limitation is given to this zone; however, it is intended to have small storage volume and a fast reaction time. The Lower Zone Storage area is much larger in volume, and apparently embraces the remainder of the unsaturated soil zone. Groundwater Storage is that storage active in causing base flow, while Deep Percolation is that

FIGURE 3.1 SCHEMATIC OF STANFORD WATERSHED MODEL IV

storage lost to the system. Both Upper Zone Storage (UZS) and Lower Zone Storage (LZS) have associated nominal storage values, UZSN and LZSN, respectively. Recommended values for LZSN are:

For Seasonal Rainfall. 4 + .25 (MAR)

For Reasonably Uniform Rainfall. . . 4 + .125 (MAR) where MAR is mean annual rainfall. UZSN will vary from 0.06 LZSN for steep slopes to 0.14 LZSN for mild slopes.

In addition to the nominal storage parameters, the model requires the use of an infiltration index, CB, and an interflow index CC. CB is related to the soil type; however, this relationship has not been established. A range of 0.3 to 1.2 is suggested. The interflow index does not seem to have a physical meaning.

Water reaching the surface is divided between direct infiltration and surface phenomena. The portion going to each varies during a storm, and is a function of the amount to be divided and the volume of water in Lower Zone Storage. As shown in Figure 3.2, the lower zone storage rating (D4F/CB) is relatively constant when the Lower Zone Storage volume is high, and increases rapidly as the storage becomes less than the nominal. Figure 3.3 shows the manner in which the division between surface water and infiltration is made as a function of the amount of water available and the lower zone storage rating. Thus, early in a storm, Lower Zone Storage will be low, and the Lower Zone Storage rating will be high (Figure 3.2). Whether the intensity of the rainfall is high or low, a relatively large amount of infiltration will occur, with a somewhat smaller amount being associated

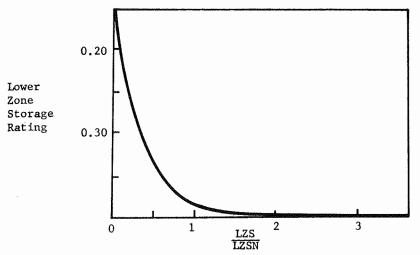
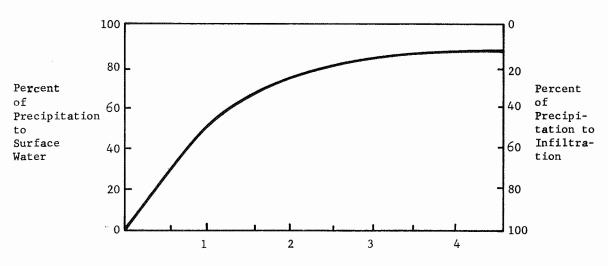


FIGURE 3.2 LOWER ZONE STORAGE RATING vs. LOWER ZONE STORAGE INDEX



Ratio of Water Available at Surface to Lower Zone Storage Rating

FIGURE 3.3 DIVISION BETWEEN SURFACE WATER AND INFILTRATION

with the larger intensity storm. The curve in Figure 3.2 has the following mathematical representation:

Lower Zone Storage Rating =
$$2^{-(2 + Z)}$$
 (3.1)

where Z = 4 LZS/LZSN for 0 < LZS/LZSN < 1

or Z = 2(1 + LZS/LZSN) for $1 \le LZS/LZSN \le 2$

or Z = 6 for $2 \le LZS/LZSN$

Z is called LNRATHM in the watershed model, while the ration LZS/LZSN is called LNRAT. The equation for Figure 3.3 is

Infiltration Percent = [1 - (Available Water/Lower Zone Storage

$$Rating)/(2 \cdot CB) \] \cdot \ 100 \tag{3.3}$$

for Available Water < CB. Lower Zone Storage Rating and

Infiltration Percent = [CB · (Lower Zone Storage Rating/Available

Water)/2] • 100
$$(3.4)$$

for Available Water ≥ CB·Lower Zone Storage Rating.

Surface water is next subjected to division between Overland Flow Storage, Interflow Storage, and Upper Zone Storage. The division between the first two and the latter is controlled by the existing Upper Zone Storage, as shown in Figure 3.4.

This curve is represented mathematically by

Percent to UZS =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 - 1/2 & (UZS/UZSN) \cdot (1/(1 + UZI)^{UZI} \end{bmatrix}$$
 100 (3.5)

for $0 \le UZS/UZSN \le 2$, and with

$$UZI = 2 \left| \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{UZS}{UZSN} - 1 \right| + 1 \right|$$
 (3.6)

or by Percent to UZS =
$$[(1/(1 + UZI))^{UZI}]100$$
 (3.7)

for
$$UZS/UZSN > 2$$
, and with $UZI = 2$ $UZS/UZSN - 2 + 1$. (3.8)

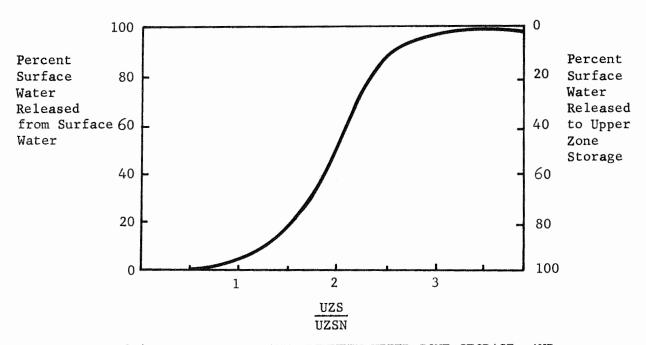


FIGURE 3.4 DIVISION OF WATER BETWEEN UPPER ZONE STORAGE, AND OVERLAND FLOW STORAGE AND INTERFLOW STORAGE

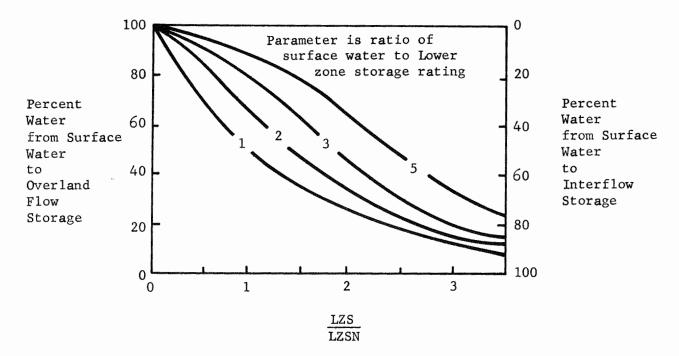


FIGURE 3.5 DIVISION OF WATER BETWEEN OVERLAND FLOW STORAGE AND INTERFLOW STORAGE

The water designated for Overland Flow Storage and for Interflow Storage is divided as shown in Figure 3.5 where both CB and CC equal 1. Decreasing CB causes the curves to drop more rapidly, while decreasing CC has the opposite effect.

Water which infiltrates is also divided three ways. An amount dependent on the volume in Lower Zone Storage is diverted to Lower Zone Storage. This relation is shown in Figure 3.6, where the curve has the mathematical form:

Percent to LZS =
$$[(1/(1 + LZI))^{LZI}]100$$
 (3.9)

for LZS/LZSN ≥ 1 , or,

Percent to LZS =
$$[1 - (1/(1 + LZI))^{LZI}(LZS/LZSN)]100$$
 (3.10)

for LZS/LZSN < 1,

where, in either case, LZI = 1.5
$$|LZS/LZSN - 1| + 1$$
. (3.11)

A portion of the water diverted to Overland Flow Storage is released as surface runoff to the stream. The amount of overland flow is based on the empirical relation

$$y = D(1 + 0.6(D/D_e)^3)/L$$
 (3.12)

for the rising side of the overland flow hydrograph, and

$$y = 1.6 D/L$$
 (3.13)

for the recession side, where

y is the depth of flow at the outfall, in ft.,

- D is the volume of storage in ft. 3/ft.,
- L is the length of overland flow, and
- $D_{\underline{e}}$ is the volume of storage at the equilibrium condition corresponding to the current inflow rate η_{\bullet}

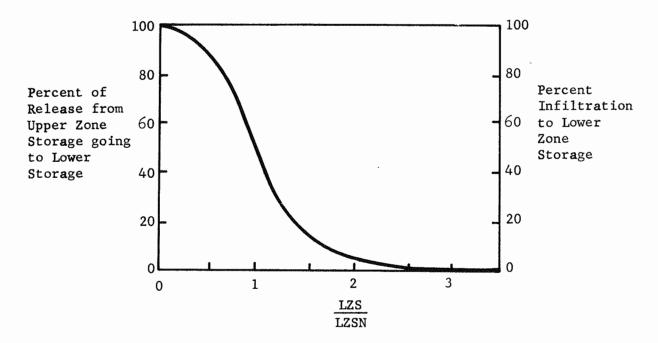


FIGURE 3.6 FLOW INTO LOWER ZONE STORAGE FROM UPPER ZONE STORAGE AND FROM INFILTRATION

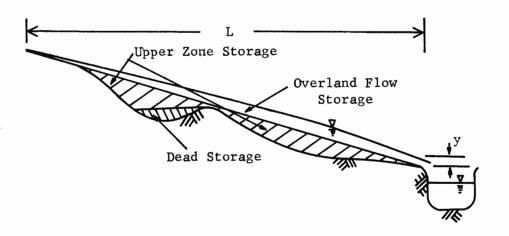


FIGURE 3.7 THE ROLE OF DEAD SURFACE STORAGE IN OVERLAND FLOW

For two dimensional flow, Manning's equation may be written as

$$q = 1.486/n \cdot y^{5/3} \cdot s^{1/2}$$
 (3.14)

where

q is the flow in cfs per foot of width,

n is Manning's roughness factor, and

S is the slope of the energy gradeline, assumed equal to the bed slope.

When an equilibrium condition is obtained on the slope,

$$q = \eta L \tag{3.15}$$

and

$$q(x) = \eta x. \tag{3.16}$$

The volume of water in Overland Flow Storage at Equilibrium may be found by integrating the expression

$$D_{e} = O^{L} y dx. (3.17)$$

Solving Equation (3.13) for y, with the value of q(x) from (3.15) used, this reduces to

$$D_{e} = (n\eta/(1.486 \text{ s}^{1/2}))^{3/5} \int_{0}^{L} x^{3/5} dx$$

$$= (n\eta/(1.486 \text{ s}^{1/2})) 5/8 L^{8/5}.$$
(3.18)

With the current inflow rate known, this equation can be solved for D_{e} , which may be substituted into (3.12) to yield a value of the depth of flow, y, at the outfall. This value of y may then be used in (3.13) to calculate the runoff rate, q.

There is some problem in the model concerning what to use for the inflow rate, η . It is not the total rainfall, since a portion of this is removed by interception, and another portion by infiltration. Still

more is used to replenish Upper Zone Storage, and a part is allocated to Interflow Storage. In the watershed, infiltration occurs from Overland Flow Storage, and the "dead" Upper Zone Storage. Consequently, the "dead" Upper Zone Storage must be replenished from overland flow. This difference is illustrated in Figure 3.7, where a part of Upper Zone Storage is shown as "dead" surface storage. No physical counterpart has been discovered for that portion assigned to Interflow Storage. From Figure 3.1, it may be noted that the water subject to the division between Surface Water and Infiltration consists of the precipitation for the quarter hour period, less that trapped by interception and increased by the amount in Overland Flow Storage at the beginning of the time period (RES). Assuming that none of this volume is assigned to Infiltration, Upper Zone Storage, or to Interflow Storage, the portion of the precipitation occurring during this period which reaches Overland Flow Storage will be

$$\eta = RX - RES$$
(3.19)

where RX is the volume assigned to Overland Flow Storage at the end of the time period.

The model does not keep the initial volume in Overland Flow Storage separate; however, the foregoing reasoning seems to make plausible the use of (3.19) for defining η so long as RX > RES, i.e., the rising side of the overland flow hydrograph.

Water is released from Upper Zone Storage to the lower zones

(Lower Zone Storage, Groundwater Storage, and Deep Percolation) only
when the Upper Zone Storage is relatively fuller than the Lower Zone

Storage, i.e., when

$$(UZS/UZSN)/(LZS/LZSN) > 1 . (3.20)$$

These releases are made on an hourly basis. The percent of Upper Zone Storage releases as a function of the two ratios UZS/UZSN and LZS/LZSN is shown in Figure 3.8. Mathematically, the relation is

Percent UZS released =
$$[0.003 \cdot CB(UZS/UZSN)^{-1}(UZS/UZSN - (3.21) LZS/LZSN)^{3}]100$$

The water thus released from the Upper Zone Storage is divided between Lower Zone Storage and lower zones (Groundwater Storage and Deep Percolation) as shown in Figure 3.6.

The volume of water (INTF) released each fifteen minutes from Interflow Storage to become a part of the streamflow is determined by

$$INTF = LIRC4 \cdot SRGX$$
 (3.22)

where LIRC4 is a quarter hourly interflow recession constant

calculated from a daily interflow recession parameter (IRC). In a similar manner, the contribution from groundwater (GWF) is calculated from

$$GWF = LKK4 \cdot (1 + KV \cdot GWS) \cdot SGW$$
 (3.23)

in which

LKK4 is a quarter hourly groundwater recession constant calculated from a daily groundwater recession parameter (KK24),

KV is a parameter for the variable component of groundwater recession,

GWS is a groundwater slope index, and

SGW is the current groundwater storage.

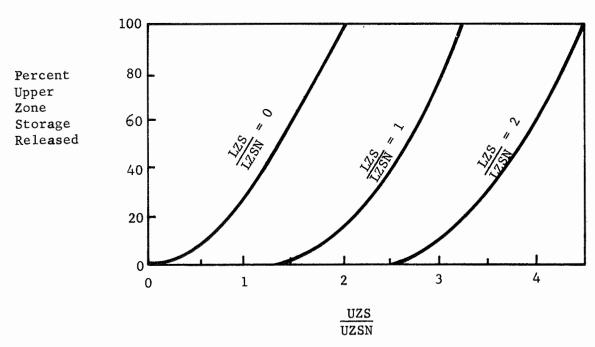


FIGURE 3.8 UPPER ZONE STORAGE RELEASES TO LOWER ZONE STORAGE

As mentioned earlier, water is removed hourly (9:00 a.m. through 8:00 p.m.) from Interception Storage to satisfy the hourly evapotranspiration potential. When the volume available from Interception Storage is less than the hourly evapotranspiration potential, the balance of the potential is removed from Upper Zone Storage. If the hourly evapotranspiration potential is not yet satisfied, the balance is accumulated as the variable REP. At 9:00 p.m. an amount LOS is removed from Groundwater Storage determined by

$$LOS = REP \cdot PA \cdot SGW \cdot K24EL \tag{3.24}$$

where PA is the fraction of the total area which is pervious; hence,

REP·PA is the volume of the day's evapotranspiration potential

which is unsatisfied,

and K24EL is the fraction of the total area from which evapotranspiration takes place directly, i.e., that part of the watershed where the root zone extends into the groundwater table.

Also at 9:00 p.m., water is removed from Lower Zone Storage according to whether the accumulated unsatisfied evapotranspiration (REP) is greater than or less than K3·LZS/LZSN. K3 is an input parameter determining the value of LZS/LZSN at which the evapotranspiration from Lower Zone Storage becomes limited by the unsatisfied evapotranspiration potential. The relation is shown in Figure 3.9, and has the mathematical description

$$AETR = REP(1 - 1/2 \cdot REP(K3 \cdot LZS/LZSN)^{-1})$$
(3.25)

for REP < K3·LZS/LZSN, and

$$AETR = 1/2 \cdot K3 \cdot LZS/LZSN \tag{3.26}$$

for REP > K3.LZS/LZSN, where

AETR is the volume of water removed from Lower Zone Storage in order to satisfy the daily evapotranspiration potential.

The computed runoff is based on a unit area whose composition is the same as that of the total segment, i.e., the same fraction of impervious area. The total runoff (R) is obtained by multiplying by

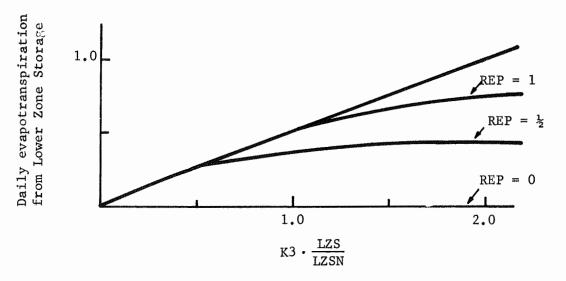
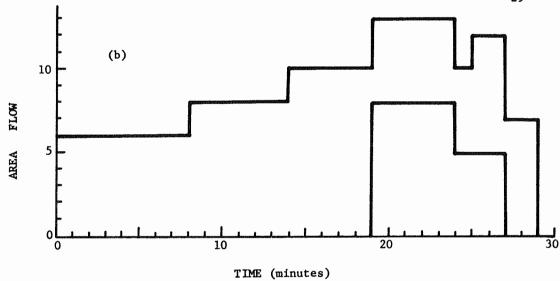
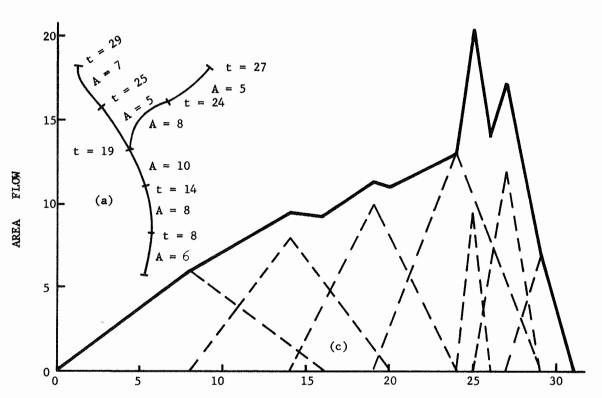


FIGURE 3.9 EVAPORATION FROM LOWER ZONE STORAGE

the total area. The time distribution of the runoff is accomplished by distributing the water forward in time according to a distribution graph determined by three of the input parameters shown in Table 3.1. The method of deriving these values is similar to that used for determining an instantaneous unit hydrograph. The channels within the segment are divided into reaches, Figure 3.10. The time of travel through each reach is estimated, and cumulative times to each point







TIME (minutes)

0-4 4-8 8-12 12-16 16-20 20-24 24-28 Time 28-32 3 8.6 13.8 18.3 24.0 Area 19.6 32.2 10.2 Percent 2.3 6.6 10.7 14.1 15.1 18.5 7.9 **24.**8

FIGURE 3.10 DERIVATION OF THE ROUTING PARAMETERS

noted, i.e., the time of travel from the point to the outlet. Finally a contributing area is assigned each reach. A histogram is determined by plotting the contributory area against the travel time, as shown in Figure 3.10, (b). The histogram is the response of the watershed to an instantaneous rainfall event. To account for finite duration of rainfall, the response from each reach is assumed to vary in a linear manner from zero at the beginning of response (the travel time for the downstream end of the reach) to a maximum at the time when all of the reach is contributing (the travel time for the upstream end of the reach) and decreases linearly to zero in an equal amount of time. Figure 3.10 (c) shows each of the rectangles of Figure 3.10 (b) replaced by an isosceles triangle. These triangles are then combined to give the heavy line shown. A suitable time increment is chosen—in this case, four minutes, and the channel delay histogram determined as shown in the table in Figure 3.10.

Channel storage and attenuation is accomplished after the outflow hydrograph has been computed. An hourly "stream channel storage recession parameter" is used for this purpose.

The user of the model is required to furnish numerical values for the 16 parameters shown in Table 3.1, in addition to the initial conditions in the watershed. Part of these parameters are, at present, poorly defined. It is usually necessary to make several trials, using different values of the parameters, in order to determine the best set of parameter values. The model computes two sets of statistical data, based on the simulated flow and the actual flow. The first set of data consists of a frequency table based on the recorded flows. The

TABLE 3.1

HYDROLOGICAL PARAMETERS REQUIRED BY STANFORD WATERSHED MODEL IV

Variable	Explanation
СВ	Infiltration Index
CC	Interflow Index
EPXM	Maximum Value of Interception Storage
ETL	Evaporation from Stream Surfaces
IRC	Interflow Runoff Recession
KK24	Basic Groundwater Recession Rate
KS1	Stream Channel Storage Recession Parameter
KV	Variable Component of Groundwater Recession
K24EL	Evapotranspiration from Groundwater
K24L	Portion of Groundwater Recharge Assigned to Deep Percolation
К3	Actual Evaporation Loss Index
L	Overland Flow Length
LZSN	Nominal Lower Zone Storage
NN	Manning's n for Overland Flow
SS	Overland Flow Slope
UZSN	Nominal Upper Zone Storage

difference between the simulated mean daily flow and the recorded mean daily flow is called the error (ERR) and for each frequency class the standard deviation of the error is found from

$$SQ_{j} = \underbrace{i=1}^{r_{j}} \underbrace{L = 1}^{n_{j}} \frac{1/2}{L = 1}$$

$$(3.31)$$

where SQ_j is the standard deviation for the j^{th} class and n_j is the number of events in the j^{th} class.

The model also computes the daily correlation coefficient between the simulated and recorded mean daily flows.

$$CORCO = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} \left(\text{FLO}_{i} - \overline{\text{FLO}} \right) \left(\text{DR}_{i} - \overline{\text{DR}} \right) / \left(\sum_{i}^{N} \left(\text{FLO}_{i} - \overline{\text{FLO}} \right)^{2} \right)}{\sum_{i}^{N} \left(\text{DR}_{i} - \overline{\text{DR}} \right)^{2}}$$
(3.32)

where

CORCO is the daily correlation coefficient $FLO_{\underline{i}} \ \ \, \text{is the recorded mean daily flow on the i}^{\underline{th}} \ \, \text{day}$ $\overline{FLO} \ \, \text{is the average recorded mean daily flow}$ $DR_{\underline{i}} \ \, \text{is the simulated mean daily flow on the i}^{\underline{th}} \ \, \text{day}$ $\overline{DR} \ \, \text{is the average simulated mean daily flow}$

N is the number of days in the year

The daily correlation coefficient gives a good overall measure of the performance of the model. However, in areas where the number of runoff events is few, the coefficient may be deceptively high, since it is strongly influenced by a large number of near zero events. In all cases, the standard deviation by classes indicates the degree to which the model

is capable of reproducing the recorded flows in the different ranges of flow.

Precipitation input is divided into two groups; that data from recording gauges (P1), and that from non-recording gauges (PREC). Only one recording gauge may be used for each segment. The time distribution of the recording gauge is applied to the non-recording gauges to approximate the time distribution of the storm over all the watershed. Each gauge is assigned a weighting factor on the basis of the fraction of the area it is assumed to represent. These factors may be determined by a Theissen network technique, or in any other manner desired by the user. The sum of the weights must equal one.

A single figure is calculated from the recording gauge record and the non-recording gauge records, which is the weighted precipitation for the segment. This data is stored on magnetic tape, and it is not necessary to repeat the calculation for subsequent runs.

The normal run uses hourly precipitation data from the recording gauge. However, an option is provided (DCS(11)) so that the data may be on a 15 minute basis. To exercise this option, four fifteen minute rates are written in the form

WWWXXXYYYZZZ

where WWW is the first quarter hour rate in hundredths of an inch with the decimal omitted, XXX represents the second quarter hour, etc. The program will unpack this data, calculate a 15 minute rainfall rate for the basin, using the non-recording gauges, and re-pack the data before storing on tape.

Chapter 4

UNSATURATED FLOW

When water falls to the ground it becomes subject to the processes of evaporation, infiltration, and runoff, as discussed in Chapter 1. The two processes, surface runoff and infiltration, are interrelated, each being parts of a continuity equation which could be written at the surface. In this chapter, surface runoff will be ignored, and a mathematical model formulated to describe the distribution of water in one dimensional space and time within a column of soil.

Physics of Unsaturated Flow

Water exists as solid, liquid, and gas within the soil. While movement is limited to the latter two states, the presence of ice has a profound effect on the movement of water vapor. The actual mechanics of the flow are discussed at length by Remson (1962). Only the necessary salient features of that discussion will be summarized here.

Motion occurs because of unbalanced forces, and hence, it seems natural to examine the forces acting on water within the soil. These forces are: (1) gravitational force in the vertical direction, and the following forces which may act in any direction, (2) so-called capillarity forces, (3) chemical and osmotic forces, and (4) forces due to partial pressure gradients acting on the water vapor. Chemical and osmotic forces cause relatively slow motion in most soils and will not be included. The volume of water moved in the vapor state is small in

comparison to that moved in the liquid state so long as the liquid state is continuous.

Several investigators, beginning with Richards (1931) have shown that Darcy's equation for flow in a saturated porous media,

$$V = -K \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}, \qquad (4.1)$$

- where V is the bulk velocity in the y direction, (i.e., the flow rate through a unit area, ignoring the area of the soil particles),
 - K is the permeability of the soil in L/T units,
 - h is the hydraulic head, usually consisting of a pressure term and a gravitational term, i.e., p/Y + y,
 - y is the direction of the flow,

may be used in unsaturated flow. Indeed, Remson (1962) suggests using the equation for flow in both the vapor and liquid state. When h is viewed as the total potential causing motion, Remson's suggestion seems appropriate.

In unsaturated flow, the pressure term is negative due to the "capillary forces"--actually surface tension effects. It is customary to speak of soil moisture tension rather than pressure, and frequently the negative sign is omitted. Considering only the flow in the liquid state, the total head, h, may be defined as

$$h = \psi + y \tag{4.2}$$

- where ψ is the soil moisture tension potential, or capillary potential with units of length, and
 - y is the vertical distance from an arbitrary reference plane, positive upward.

The capillary potential is negative by this definition. .

Equation for Unsaturated Flow

Figure 4.1 shows a parallelopiped of the soil matrix. Flow is assumed to occur through only the top and bottom surfaces, which have unit area. Applying the continuity principle to the element

$$\rho V - \rho (V + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \cdot \delta y) = \frac{\partial (\rho S_{\bullet}^{*} \delta y)}{\partial t}$$
$$- \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \delta y = \delta y \frac{\partial S}{\partial t}$$
$$- \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial t}$$
 (4.3)

where S is the volume of soilwater per unit soil volume. Substituting 4.2 into 4.1 yields the unsaturated flow form of Darcy's equation

$$V = -K \frac{\partial (\psi + \lambda)}{\partial \lambda} . \tag{4.4}$$

When this expression of velocity is used in the continuity equation, there results the basic partial differential equation for flow through partially saturated porous media due to capillary and gravitation potentials

$$\frac{9 t}{9 \cdot 8} = \frac{9 \lambda}{9} \left[K \frac{9 \lambda}{9 (\lambda + \lambda)} \right]$$

or

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[K \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + 1 \right) \right] \tag{4.5}$$

The soil moisture, S, the permeability, K, and the capillary potential are related, and the relationship is a soil property which does not change as long as the geometry of the soil matrix does not change.

Typical curves of these relations are shown in Figure 4.2. Unfortunately,

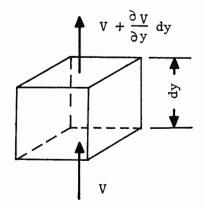
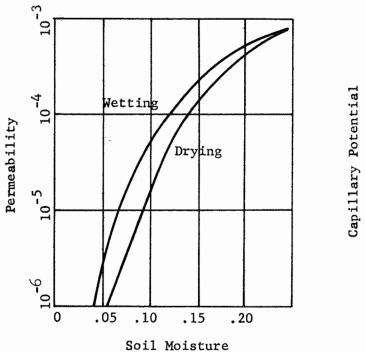


FIGURE 4.1 CONTINUITY FOR UNSATURATED ONE-DIMENSIONAL FLOW



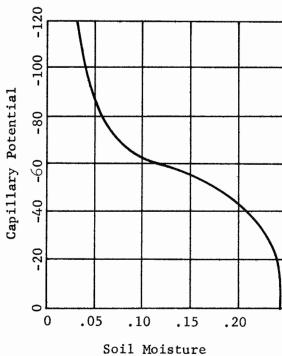


FIGURE 4.2 TYPICAL RELATION BETWEEN SOIL MOISTURE, PERMEABILITY

AND CAPILLARY POTENTIAL

there is a hystersis effect in both the soil moisture-permeability relation and the soil moisture-capillary potential relation. Recently, the suggestion of Poulovassilis (1962) was implemented by Ibrahim and Brutsert (1968). Poulovassilis had shown a method he called the "independent domain concept" to be applicable to the hystersis problem. Essentially, this method reduces both the soil moisture-permeability and the soil moisture-capillary potential functions to single valued functions. Consequently, the analysis will be based on the assumption of a single valued, laboratory determined relationship for both permeability and capillary potential as a function of soil moisture.

If these two relationships could be expressed in a mathematical form, the next step would be to choose one variable as the dependent variable and express the other two variables as a function of this variable.

Rubin (1966) has recognized solutions using both the soil moisture and the capillary potential as the dependent variable. He has suggested the use of a combination of these properties. While any of the three variables could be chosen, there is an advantage in choosing the capillary potential as the basic variable. The advantage consists of being able to express both permeability and soil moisture as uniquely defined functions of capillary potential. There are certain soils for which the soil moisture and the permeability do not change over some range of values of the capillary potential function. See Figure 4.3. Such soils have an air entry value different from zero, i.e., these soils will sustain some tension before the soil moisture is decreased below saturation.

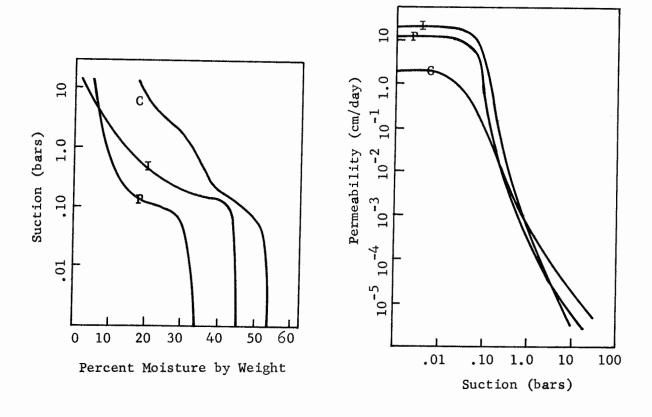


FIGURE 4.3 VARIATION OF PERMEABILITY AND WATER CONTENT WITH CAPILLARY
POTENTIAL FOR

- I Indio Loam
- P Pachappa Sandy Loam
- C Chino Clay

(After Gardner (1958)

Then

$$K = K(\psi)$$
, and $S = S(\psi)$.

Using the chain rule, 4.5 may be rewritten

$$\frac{\partial^{S}}{\partial \psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[K \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + 1 \right) \right] \tag{4.6}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial s} \left[\frac{\partial K}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + 1 \right) + K \frac{\partial^{2} \psi}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \tag{4.7}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial s} \frac{\partial K}{\partial \psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + 1 \right) + K \frac{\partial^{2} \psi}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \tag{4.8}$$

Equation 4.8 is a quasi-linear second order parabolic partial differential equation. Boundary conditions are of the form

for
$$t = 0$$
, $\psi(y,0) = \psi(y)$
for $t > 0$, $\psi(0,t) = G_1(t)$
 $\psi(Y,t) = G_2(t)$

where Y is the thickness of the soil column. Phillip (1957) has obtained a series solution for the special case of ψ (y), G_1 (t), and G_2 (t) all constant. Other investigators have resorted to a finite difference representation of the partial differential equation.

In general these investigators have been interested in some special aspect of the unsaturated flow phenomina. Gardner and Fireman (1958) and Liakopoulos (1966) investigated evaporation from the soil surface.

Gardner and Fireman included a saturated zone (a water table). Gardner (1959), Nielsen, et al. (1961) and Biswas, et al. (1966) all considered the redistribution of water within the soil column. Youngs (1957) considered the soil water profile with the surface maintained at saturation. Rubin. (1966) studied infiltration into initially air dry Rehovat sand. He

recognized three types of infiltration:

- (a) Infiltration controlled by the rate of rainfall; occurs only when rainfall rate is less than saturated permeability of soil.
- (b) Preponding which occurs immediately when rainfall rate exceeds saturated permeability and lasts until ponding occurs.
- (c) Surface ponding when a saturated zone occurs at the soil surface.

For a given soil, the time to incipient ponding (i.e., the time of preponding) decreases as the rainfall intensity increases and increases with increasing initial dryness of the soil. Figure 4.4 shows the infiltration rate as a function of time for a hypothetical soil.

The finite difference solutions have used various representations of the derivatives. A common approximation of the first derivative

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{\psi_2 - \psi_1}{\Delta y} \tag{4.9}$$

is sometimes used. Here Δy is the distance between the points 1 and 2. The approximation possesses various degrees of error depending on the position of the point within the interval where the derivative is to be evaluated. Thus, if the derivative is to be evaluated at the midpoint of the interval, the error has order $(\Delta y)^2$. However, use of 4.9 to evaluate the derivative at either end of the interval may introduce errors of the order of magnitude of Δy . Since in finite difference schemes, the Δy value is normally less than unity, evaluation at the midpoint is usually more accurate. The difficulty of using 4.4 in finite difference form to evaluate the infiltration rate may now be examined.

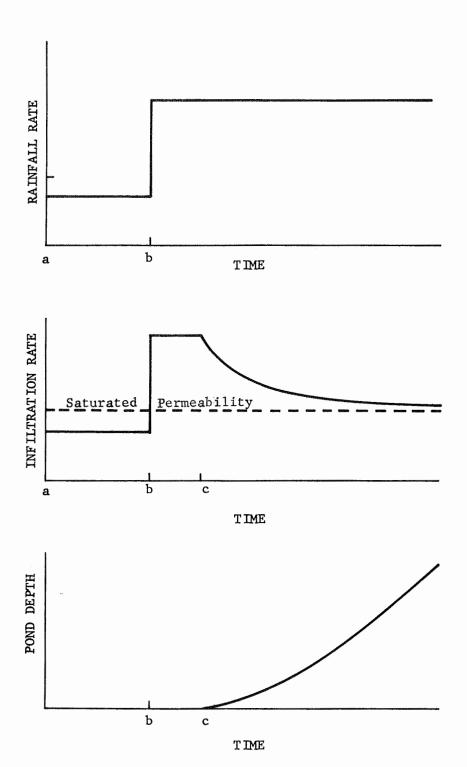


FIGURE 4.4 INFILTRATION RATES FOR THE THREE RAINFALL CONDITIONS

- b - c

Supply control Incipient ponding Ponding

c -

Substituting 4.9 into 4.4 with the evaluation occurring at the surface.

$$[v]_{y=0} = -[K]_{y=0} (\frac{\psi_1 - \psi_0}{\Delta y} + 1)$$
 (4.10)

where the subscripts 0 and 1 on the ψ term indicate the value of ψ at the surface and at a distance Δy below the surface respectively. When 4.10 is used to describe the infiltration rate, the error is of the order Δy . Since Δy is necessarily finite, it is impossible to predict precisely the infiltration rate from finite difference analysis. However, the use of a very small value for Δy gives a good approximation. More serious objections to the use of 4.4 to describe infiltration rates are based on the inadequacy of that equation itself. In particular, two phenomena which may strongly influence the infiltration rate are the rainfall impact effect and the flow of air out of the soil as it is being replaced by the water. The effect of the displaced air is probably very small except for extreme rainfall rates. Extreme rainfall rates may produce almost instantaneous flooding of the surface, trapping large quantities of air within the soil horizon. The effects of this air on the infiltration rate has not been studied.

The energy of the raindrop at impact causes some penetration of the water into the soil matrix, a phenomenon which might be termed "forced infiltration." This phenomenon has been observed, primarily by those interested in the erosion effects of such impacts.

The inclusion of either of these phenomenon in a mathematical model may be extremely difficult until more theoretical work has been accomplished. The movement of air and water simultaneously within the soil matrix will involve the concepts of two phase flow systems. Some

restructuring of the soil matrix occurs due to the impact of the raindrop; the problem of describing this mathematically seems insurmountable.

Movement of water beneath the soil surface may be described by 4.10

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{y} = \alpha} = - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{y} = \alpha} \left(\frac{\psi_{\mathbf{i}} - \psi_{\mathbf{i} - 1}}{\Delta \mathbf{y} \bullet \bullet} + 1 \right) \tag{4.11}$$

where the point y equal α is between the nodes i and i-1. The velocity V may be viewed as the velocity of the water leaving the area of node i-1 and entering the area of node i. This equation will be used in Chapter 5 to describe the movement of water after infiltration has occurred.

Related Investigations

Some time was spent during this investigation studying the behavior of a finite difference model of a soil column. The model was obtained by substituting 4.11 in the continuity equation, 4.3. The resulting equation related the values of the capillary potential at three node points at one time step to the values at the same three nodes at the previous time step. The resulting system of nonlinear algebraic equations were solved by an iterative technique which assured the use of the proper values of permeability and soil moisture when the solution was reached. Boundary conditions at the surface consisted of a period of no flow at the surface, a period of rainfall, followed by a period of evaporation. An impervious layer was assumed to exist at the bottom, with the water removed from any saturated zone formed at the bottom at a rate proportional to the thickness of the saturated zone. As may be seen from 4.8, and as noted by Rubin (1966), the finite difference equations are inadequate for saturated flow because of the presence of the d\(\psi / \dS \) term

which is undefined in the saturated zone. Consequently the location of the interface between a saturated zone and an unsaturated zone must be obtained as part of the solution, with the proper form of Darcy's law applied in each zone. Finite difference solutions provide values of the dependent variable only at the node points. When the interface occurred between nodes, some interpolation scheme had to be used to locate the interface. Both linear and quadratic interpolation were tried. However, the soil moisture appears to approach the saturated value in an asymptotic manner, producing large errors in the interpolation process. result of these difficulties within the computer model was instability of the location of the interface. This led to abandoment of this line of inquiry. Some method which does not require differing forms of Darcy's law for the saturated and unsaturated zones will avoid these difficulties. Rubin (1966) asserts his combination of permeability, soil moisture and capillary potential accomplishes this feat. Almost certainly such a model can be used to ascertain an infiltration model somewhat better than the one presented in Chapter 5. However, such a study was considered outside the scope of the present investigation.

Chapter 5

A MODIFIED WATERSHED MODEL

The Stanford Watershed Model, as described in Chapter 3, has not received widespread use to date. This is due, in part, to the computer language used. A second cause is the inability to associate the computer program directly with the steps in the physical process. A third restriction on the use of the Stanford Model is the inability to deal with time units shorter than one hour. On small watersheds this is a serious limitation. In this chapter a modified watershed model is presented which attempts to deal with these last two problems. Extensive use has been made of the processes of the Stanford Model, particularly relating to overland flow and stream routing. The material reviewed in Chapter 4 has been used as a guide to the unsaturated flow process. A schematic of the watershed model is shown in Figure 5.1; each phase will be discussed in detail.

The computer program which has been written to implement the modified watershed model is given in Appendix 1. It has been written to accommodate rainfall measured at irregular intervals in either accumulated form as from a weighing gauge or as a rate from a tipping bucket gauge. Either of these records is converted to a record with the average rate for the specified time period. This period may be as short as one minute,

^{*}Although the model operates on a 15 minute cycle, the routing period must be in units of whole hours, and this effectively removed the quarter-hour variations.

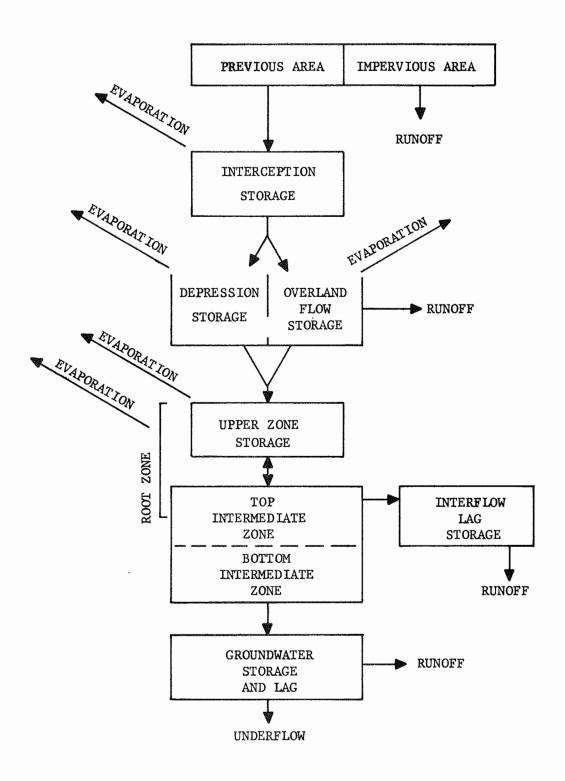


FIGURE 5.1 SCHEMATIC OF UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS WATERSHED MODEL

or as long as one day. A similar record is prepared from the measured streamflow when this is available. The maximum length of the basic accounting cycle is set at fifteen minutes. A full discussion of the input variables and the output available is found in Appendix 1.

Interception Storage

All precipitation falling on the pervious area is routed through interception storage. The volume of water in interception storage in inches at any time is limited by an input parameter, VINSTM, which may vary monthly. This parameter may be estimated as a function of the type and density of material above ground. In agricultural areas, the maximum interception storage may be very small early in the year, increasing to a maximum as the crops mature in the fall, and then drop sharply as the fields are prepared for the winter. On the other hand, in forest or urban areas, the maximum volume may be relatively constant over the annual cycle.

Surface Storage

Water passing through interception storage arrives at the ground surface. It may fall into one of two types of storage: depression storage or overland flow storage. Depression storage, or dead storage, is that volume of storage within depressions of all sizes in the watershed. A depression is defined as a hole or low area with no outlet. Within the pervious area of the watershed, three types of areas are delinenated as shown in Figure 5.2. These areas are characterized as (A) areas from which overland flow proceeds directly to the stream: (B)

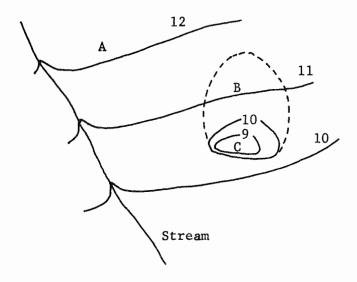
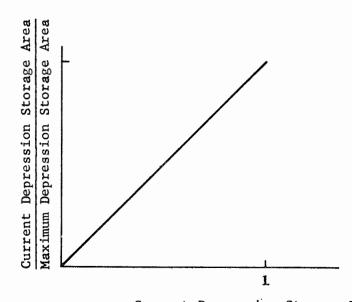


FIGURE 5.2 THREE TYPES OF AREAS WITHIN WATERSHED

- A) OVERLAND FLOW DIRECTLY TO STREAM
- B) OVERLAND FLOW TO DEPRESSION STORAGE
- C) DEPRESSION STORAGE



Current Depression Storage Volume Maximum Depression Storage Volume

FIGURE 5.3 ASSUMED RELATION BETWEEN SURFACE AREA AND VOLUME OF DEPRESSION STORAGE

areas from which overland flow proceeds into a depression; and (C) areas of depression storage. The areas of depression storage vary from the hole caused by a woman's shoe to farm ponds and other flow retarding structures. The surface area of the water in depression storage at any time is assumed to vary linearly with the volume of depression storage, Figure 5.3. Rainfall reaching the land surface is divided between overland flow storage (OLS) and depression storage (DS) on the basis of the surface area of each type of storage. Overland flow storage is further divided between that flow going directly to the stream and the flow going into depression storage. Infiltration and evaporation, also surface phenomena, are based on the surface area of each type of storage.

The overland flow model used is taken from the Stanford Model. It is a quasi-turbulent form of Izzard's overland flow equations

OLF =
$$\frac{64200 \text{ s}^{0.5}}{\text{nL}} \left(\frac{\text{D}}{\text{L}}\right)^{5/3} \left(1 + 0.6 \left(\frac{\text{D}}{\text{De}}\right)^{3.5/3}\right)$$
 (5.1)

where OLF is the rate of runoff in inches per hour per unit area,

- n is the Manning roughness factor for overland flow (ROUGH),
- L is the length of the overland flow reach in feet (VLENGH),
- S is the slope of the overland flow surface (SLOPE),
- D is the storage in ft. 3/ft. and is defined as the average of the storage at the beginning of the time period and the storage at the end of the time period (OFSAVG),
- $D_{
 m e}$ is the storage in ft. $^3/{
 m ft.}$ for an equilibrium condition (OFSEQU), and is defined by

OFSEQU =
$$\frac{0.000818 \text{ i}^{0.6} \text{ n}^{0.6} \text{ L}^{1.6}}{\text{s}^{0.3}}$$
(5.2)

where i is the precipitation rate, in inches per hour (XI). This model is based on the following empirical relationship between outflow depth and storage

$$y = \frac{D}{L} [1 + 0.6 (\frac{D}{D_e})^3]$$
 (5.3)

where y is the depth, in feet, at the lower edge of the flow plane.

These equations were developed by Linsley and Crawford (1966), and plots showing quite good agreement with a finite difference solution of the partial differential equation of varied flow were presented.

Overland flow generated on that portion of the watershed classified as contributing directly to streamflow is added to the variable RO. That part of overland flow originating on the area contributing to depression storage is added to depression storage. Some of the smaller depression storage areas will fill rapidly and surface runoff from areas originally designated as depression areas will commence when these areas are filled. For small indentions of the soil this will occur early in the storm, while for larger storage areas the runoff will not occur until much later. A typical relationship between area producing runoff through depression storage and the volume in depression storage is shown in Figure 5.4. The curve is assumed to be a parabolic with vertex at the origin and may be written as

$$X_{a} = \left(\frac{1}{C} \frac{DS}{DSMAX}\right)^{0.5} \tag{5.4}$$

where $\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{a}}$ is the fraction of the pervious area which originally was designated as depression storage, or an area contributing flow to depression storage, but is now producing runoff,

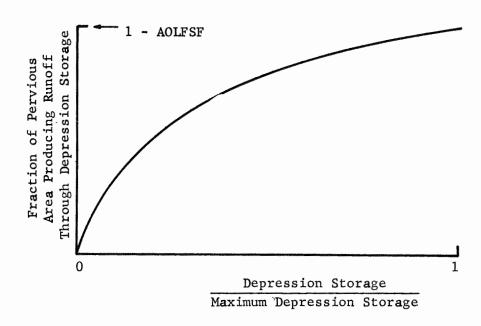


FIGURE 5.4 ASSUMED RELATION BETWEEN VOLUME OF DEPRESSION STORAGE,

AND SURFACE RUNOFF FROM DEPRESSION STORAGE

DS is the actual depression storage volume, in inches of depth,
DSMAX is the maximum depression storage volume in inches of
depth, and

C is a constant, normally with a value of 1.

The actual shape of this relation will vary from one basin to the next. However, it is felt that the parabola is adequate for most basins, based on the following preliminary investigation. The depression storage of a basin is the sum of the storage of many different depressions. Figure 5.5 shows several normalized volume-area distribution curves which might characterize different basins. The area under any curve is one, i.e., all of the depression storage within the basin. The basins labeled a and b have a significant proportion of their depression storage in shallow depressions. Basin by has a uniform distribution -- equal volume in shallow, intermediate, and deep basins; while both c and d possess considerable amounts of storage in deep depressions. If one assumes that the area producing runoff into a depression is approximately linearly related to the area of the depression storage (that is, the surface area of the depression when full), the relation between fraction of depression storage volume (DS/DSMAX) and the fraction of area which was originally classified as depression storage oriented but is now producing runoff to the stream may be derived. This relation is shown in Figure 5.6. The relation of equation 5.4 is also shown. The fit is reasonably good, except for that portion of the curve generated by deep ponds, i.e., basins with the characteristics of c or d. However, type d basins can be fitted with equation 5.4 provided C is chosen so

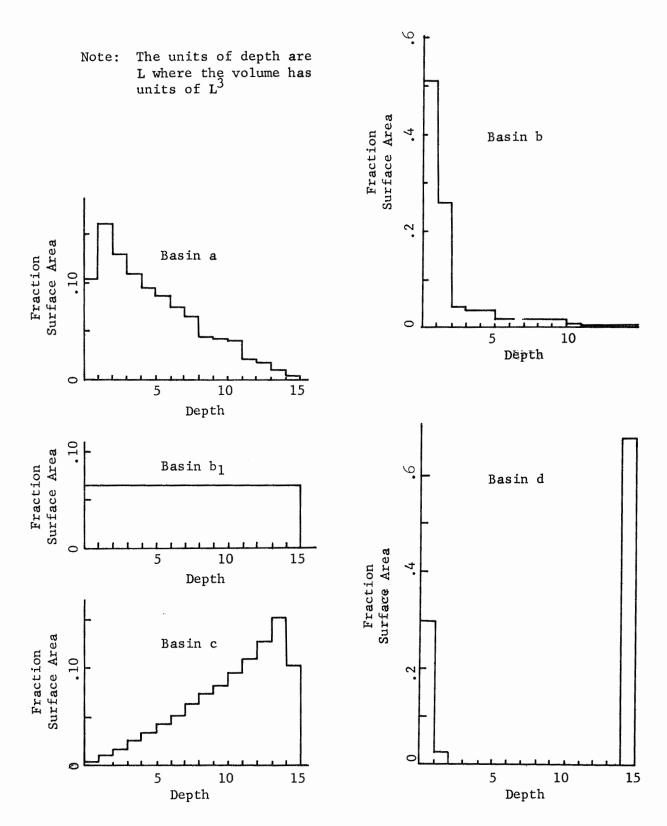


FIGURE 5.5 NORMALIZED AREA-VOLUME HISTOGRAMS

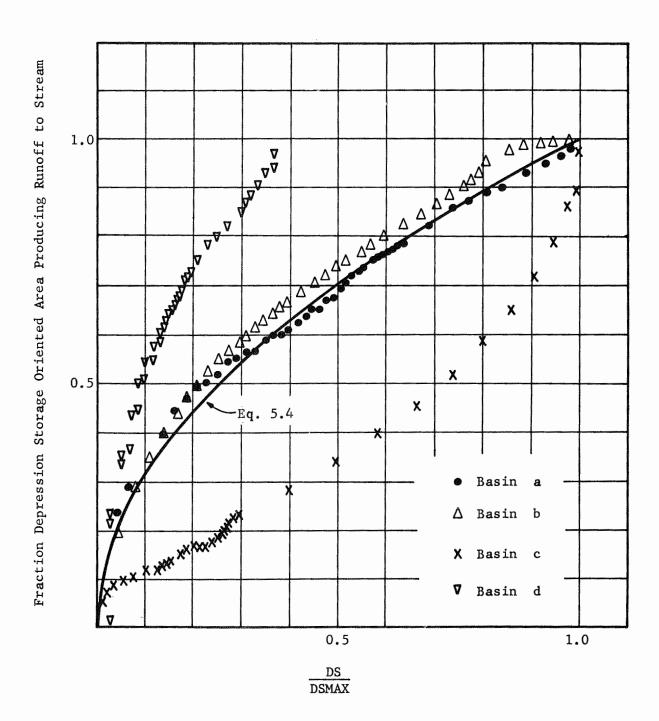


FIGURE 5.6 INFLUENCE OF DEPRESSION STORAGE CHARACTERISTICS ON FRACTION OF AREA PRODUCING RUNOFF

as to cause the curve to pass through the point defined by subtracting the pond storage from the total basin depression storage, and subtracting the pond area (and associated drainage area) from the total area. It is doubtful if natural basins of type c exist, although this might be the distribution for a basin after several "stock pond" type improvements have been made. In such a case, equation 5.4 should probably be replaced by an expotential curve of the form

$$X_{a} = C \qquad \left(\frac{DS}{DSMAX}\right)^{Z} \tag{5.5}$$

where C and z are parameters needed to obtain adequate fit.

Infiltration

The infiltration rate was given in Chapter 4 as being dependent on (a) the available water, i.e., the rainfall rate; or (b) the ability of the soil to conduct the water through the soil in its unsaturated condition, i.e., Rubin's preponding condition, or (c) the ponded depth, the thickness of the saturated zone, and the saturated permeability. Ponding of water occurs only for the third condition. The first is characterized by a rainfall rate less than the saturated permeability of the soil, and the second by a rainfall rate greater than the saturated permeability. Equation 4.4 may be rewritten as

$$V_{o} = -(K)_{y=0} \left[\left(\frac{dy}{dS} \right) \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial S} \right)_{y=0} + 1 \right]$$
 (5.6)

where V_0 is the infiltration rate. This equation is applicable to both conditions (a) and (b) and $\partial S/\partial y$ should be viewed as the dependent variable.

Referring to Figure 5.7, the infiltration rate of ponded rainfall is given by

$$V_{o} = -K_{sat} \left[\frac{POND - \psi_{ae}}{SATDPH} + 1 \right]$$
 (5.7)

where POND and SATDPH have the meanings shown in the figure, and

 ψ is the value of soil tension at air entry.

Holtan (1961) proposed an infiltration equation

$$f = a F_p^n + f_c (5.8)$$

where f is the infiltration rate when supply is not the limiting factor, $\text{f}_{\text{c}} \text{ is the constant infiltration rate, the saturated permeability of } \\ \text{the soil,}$

 $\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{p}}$ is the total volume which can be infiltrated before a constant rate of infiltration is reached,

a and n are constants.

Holtan recommends a be taken as 0.62 and n as 1.387. F_p is a measure of the voids remaining in the soil column at any time, and hence is also a measure of the water in storage in the column. Since Holtan's equation is for the period when rainfall excess exists, i.e., ponding,

$$-[K]_{y=0} = -K_{sat} = -f_{c}$$
 (5.9)

where the minus sign is a matter of convention. Then to the extent that

$$K_{\text{sat}} \left[\frac{\text{POND} - \psi_{\text{ae}}}{\text{SATDPH}} \right] = a F_{\text{p}}^{\text{n}}$$
 (5.10)

Holtan's equation approximates equation 5.7. Holtan found from experimental data that \mathbf{F}_p could be expressed as

$$[F_p]_0 = K S_0$$
 (5.11)

where the zero subscript indicates evaluation at time zero,

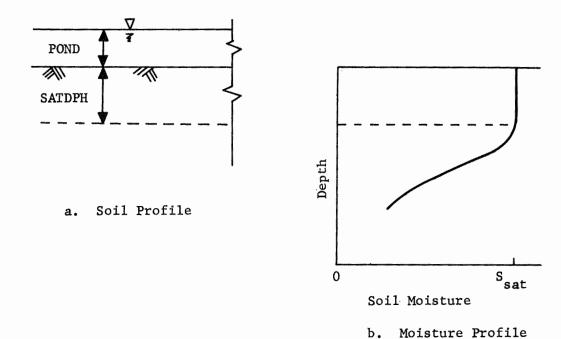


FIGURE 5.7 INFILTRATION WITH PONDED RAINFALL

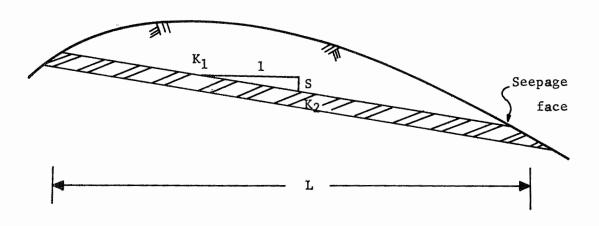


FIGURE 5.8 IDEALIZED INTERFLOW MODEL

K is a vegetative factor given in Table 5.1, and S is the available pore space in the 0-21 inch depth.

TABLE 5.1
HOLTAN'S VEGETATIVE FACTOR

<u>Value of Vegetative Factor K</u>
1.00
.70
. 45
.35
.30

Holtan's equation is particularly suited to a continuous accounting type watershed model, since the independent variable is the unsaturated pore space within the top layer of soil. Defining this layer to be the Upper Zone, equation 5.8 may be written

$$f = a(UZST - UZS)^{n} + SATPRM$$

$$= C1 (UZST - UZS)^{C2} + SATPRM$$
(5.12)

where UZST is the total pore space in the Upper Zone, porosity times thickness in inches 3/inch 2.

UZS is the current volume of water in the Upper Zone in inches 3 / inch 2 .

SATPRM is the saturated permeability of the Upper Zone, in inches per hour.

C1 and C2 are input constants, corresponding to Holtan's a \cdot K and n.

No allowance was made by Holtan for water leaving the Upper Zone, i.e., the volume of the pore space remaining at any time t after the storm began was computed as the pore space available at to less the volume of water infiltrated from t to time t. The watershed model will reflect more accurately the actual volume of water in storage within the Upper Consequently, the Upper Zone can be thinner than Holtan's twenty-one inches. In agricultural lands, the depth to which cultivation takes place seems a reasonable thickness, while in uncultivated areas, the thickness may vary from one-half inch for very tight soils to several inches for sandy soils. The presence of any less permeable zone should terminate the Upper Zone. Equation 5.12 gives the infiltration rate for the period when supply is not the limiting factor, i.e., the potential infiltration. When the rainfall rate is less than this potential infiltration, all of the rainfall is infiltrated. decreases the pore space available, and consequently decreases the infiltration potential for the next time period. Rubin (1966) pointed out that for a uniform supply less than the potential infiltration rate, the soil column eventually reaches an equilibrium state in its upper reaches where the gradient $\frac{\partial [K(y+y)]}{\partial y}$ is just adequate to transfer the supply. This may also occur in the model, as the flow into the Upper Zone may be exactly equal to the flow out of the Upper Zone. Holtan's equation, while not exact, does seem to offer a good approximation to the infiltration process, both in the situation of infiltration limited by supply, and infiltration limited by the soil condition.

Flow Through The Unsaturated Zone

Ideally, one would describe flow through the unsaturated zone using some form of equation 4.4. However, in a watershed model this will have to be approximated. In the continuous accounting model, the volume of water within each interval of depth can be obtained. However, as the number of these intervals increases, the time to perform the calculations also increases, and soon reaches an economic limit. The number of such zones must be limited. The independent variables in equation 4.4 may be written as functions of the soil moisture, S.

$$\psi = f(S) \tag{5.13a}$$

$$K = g(S) \tag{5.13b}$$

Solution of equation 4.4 must yield

$$V = h(S) \tag{5.14}$$

Several forms of the functions f(S) and g(S) have been proposed.

Ibrahim and Brutsaert (1968) proposed

$$g(S) = K_{sat} \left(\frac{S - S^*}{S_{sat} - S^*} \right)^n$$
 (5.15)

where n varies from 2 to 5 and depends on the pore size distribution, assuming the smaller value for pore size distributions with small variances,

 S^* is the soil moisture at which the permeability is "negligibly small," and

 $K_{\mbox{\scriptsize sat}}$ is the saturated permeability.

An attempt was made to fit the data for the soil described by Watson (1967), for Geary Silt Loam, and for Sarpy Loam by a least squares technique. In

each case, the value of S^* needed to minimize the square of the error, E, using the model

$$g(S) = K_i = K_{sat} \left(\frac{S_i - S^*}{S_{sat} - S^*} \right)^n + E_i$$
 (5.16)

became greater than the smallest value of S. This required raising a negative number to a power. The definition of S^* seems arbitrary; a strict interpretation of the definition would require S^* to be zero for each soil.

Gardner (1958) proposed

$$g(S) = K = \frac{a}{\sqrt[4]{\tau + b}}$$

which was subsequently modified to

$$g(S) = K = \frac{K_{sat}}{(\frac{\psi}{\psi^{*}})^{T_{\bullet}} + b^{\bullet}}$$
 (5.17)

by King (1965) to obtain dimensional homogeneity. The constant b is approximately 1 for soils with an air entry capillary potential of zero. An estimate of τ may be obtained by evaluating $\frac{d(\log K)}{d(\log \psi)}$ as ψ approaches $-\infty$. King shows good agreement for four soils, ranging from a sand through a clay. King also gives

$$f(S) = e\left(\frac{\cosh\left[\left(\frac{\psi}{\sqrt{x}}\right)^{\beta} + \alpha\right] - \gamma}{\cosh\left[\left(\frac{\psi}{\sqrt{x}}\right)^{\beta} + \alpha\right] + \gamma}\right)$$
 (5.18)

where e is the porosity of the soil, and

 ψ *, β , γ , and α are "parameters depending on the liquid, the soil, and the capillary pressure history."

The following restrictions on the parameters exist:

$$\alpha \geq 0$$
 $0 < \gamma < \cosh \alpha$

The complexity of equation 5.17 and 5.18 makes curve fitting a prohibitive task.

A somewhat simpler set of functions has been used in the model

$$K = A_1 (S + B_1)^{C_1} + D_1$$
 (5.19)

and

$$-\psi = A_2 (S + B_2)^{C_2} + D_2$$
 (5.20)

Values of the coefficients for the various soils tested are shown in Table 5.2 (a and b), which may be used as a guide in assigning the coefficients. The program moves moisture from one zone to another using equation 4.4 rewritten as

$$V = K \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + 1 \right) \tag{5.21}$$

The value of permeability is the weighted average of the permeability in each zone as determined by equation 5.19. The value of $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}$ is found from

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \frac{\psi_1 - \psi_2}{y_1 - y_2} \tag{5.22}$$

where subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the two zones. The value of ψ is found using equation 5.20. The value of S for each zone is found by dividing the total moisture in the zone by the zone thickness.

Interflow

The phenomenon of interflow, while frequently observed in nature has not been studied in detail. A simplified interflow model is shown in Figure 5.8. The occurrence of water at the seepage face is dependent on the slope of the less permeable zone, S, the permeability of this

		mannar, ratificación magninas Camanaminas de Antalagaria (Antalagaria).	Perme	Permeability		MAN (1975)	
Description and Source	Α,	g	ວ	D	Max. R.E.	Avg. R.E.	R ²
Geary Silt Loam Hanks and Bowers (1962)	797.7	-0.114	7.75	2,9.10-9	007.0	0.139	0.949
Yolo Light Clay Phillip (1957), Gardner (1958)	3.37	-0.103	6.01	-3.0.10 ⁻⁷	0.372	0.147	0.936
Watson (1967)	206.8	0,002	90°7	-6.9.10 ⁻⁴	0.231	0.091	0.919
Sarpy Loam Hanks and Bowers (1962)	1677.2	0.044	8.70	-1.6.10-6	0.652	0.284	0.936
Del Monte Sand (drying) Liakopoulos (1966)	1.689	0.026	2,45	2,4.10 ⁻³	0.233	0.079	0.899
Del Monte Sand (wetting) Liskopoulos (1966)	1,983	-0.00585	2,66	2,2,10-5	0.312	0.188	0.915
Vachaud (1966)	117.32	-0.1185	69*5	7.1.10~4	0.187	0.068	0.954
Remson (1965)	1,6.10 ⁴	0.087	25.16	1,0.10-9	1,790	1,179	0.883

COEFFICIENTS FOR PERMEABILITY AND CAPILLARY POTENTIAL APPROXIMATIONS TABLE 5.2a

			Capillary	Capillary Potential			
Description and Source	A	B	D	Q	Max. R.E.	Avg. R.E.	\mathbb{R}^2
Geary Silt Loam	0.061	0.063	-7.67	-8.11	0.014	0.004	0.963
Yolo Light Clay	Data gi	iven in equat	Data given in equation form: $\psi = -7.87 \ 10^{-7}/12.2.K - 1$ 0.5	= -7.87	10-7/12.2.	K - 1 0.	2
Watson	9*14-	-0.047	-0.033	33.74	800.0	0.001	0.923
Sarpy Loam	26.20	. 7745	-23.91	0.965	2,68	0.753	0.898
Del Monte Sand (drying)	225.3	1.0	-11.35	3.64	0.59	0.239	0.900
Del Monte Sand (wetting)	4,8788	-0.0219	-9.8626	-2.888	0.25	0.119	0.911
Vachaud	9.937	0.6555	-21,28	1.207	1,765	0.478	0.894
Remson	249.76	0.816	-30.89	-2,653	0.480	0.167	0.909

COEFFICIENTS FOR PERMEABILITY AND CAPILLARY POTENTIAL APPROXIMATIONS TABLE 5.2b

zone in relation to the permeability of the zone above it, the depth to the less permeable zone, and the area contributing water to the interflow process, i.e., the length L in Figure 5.8. These variables and perhaps others combine to change a portion of the infiltration hydrograph into the interflow hydrograph. The simplest mathematical formulation of the process would seem to be one which determines the volume of the interflow and produces the interflow hydrograph by lagging this volume. This method is used in the watershed model. The volume of interflow from the top level of the Intermediate Zone is determined by

$$VINFLO = C_{16} (TIZS - C_{10} \cdot VINST) \Delta t$$
 (5.23)

where VINFLO is the volume of water added to the interflow process during the time period Δt ,

TIZS is the volume of water stored in the top half of the Intermediate Zone,

VINST is the total volume of the Intermediate Zone, and c_{10} , c_{16} are the input parameters which must reflect the difference in permeability between the two zones.

When the quantity

TIZS -
$$C_{10}$$
 · VIST ≤ 0 ,

VINFLO is set to zero. \mathbf{C}_{10} is seen to be a parameter which sets a lower limit on the volume of water which must be present before interflow can occur. The interflow hydrograph shape is determined by a lag function

$$X = (C_{14} \cdot DELINF + C_{15}) \Delta t$$
 (5.24)

where X is the volume of water discharged to the stream from

interflow storage in time Δt ,

DELINF is the volume of water in interflow storage, and \mathbf{C}_{14} , \mathbf{C}_{15} are input parameters.

No rationale can be given for Equation 5.24. Probably the parameter \mathbf{C}_{15} can be taken as zero. By analogy to routing equations for stream, the outflow should be related to the volume in storage.

Groundwater Flow

Much of what was said about the difficulties of mathematically modeling the interflow process also applies to the flow of groundwater. The watershed model makes provision for groundwater flow to occur into the stream and also to flow out of the basin. The latter is termed "underflow," and is determined as a function of the water stored in the saturated portion of the soil profile

$$Y = C_{13} \cdot GWS \cdot \Delta t \qquad (5.25)$$

where Y is the volume of water leaving the basin as underflow in the period Δt ,

GWS is the volume of water in groundwater storage, and \mathbf{C}_{13} is an input parameter.

The flow into the stream is determined in a similar manner

$$X = (GWS - C_{11}) \cdot C_{12} \cdot \Delta t$$
 (5.26)

- where X is the volume of water flowing from the groundwater system into the stream during time Δt ,
 - is the volume of water in groundwater storage below which no flow into the stream occurs. (A slight modification here

would allow influent streams to be modeled.)

 C_{12} is an input parameter.

For the base flow period of the stream hydrograph, equation 5.26 is analogous to the commonly used decay equation

$$q_i = k \cdot q_i - 1 = k^i \cdot q_0 \tag{5.27}$$

where q, is the flow for the ithtime period,

 q_{i-1} is the flow for the $(i-1)^{st}$ time period,

 \mathbf{q}_0 is the flow at the beginning of the first time period, and \mathbf{k} is the recession constant.

For equation 5.26,

$$k = \frac{1}{1 - C_{12} \Delta t} \frac{GWS + C_{11}}{GWS - C_{11}}$$
(5.28)

It is seen that k is not constant, but approaches zero as the groundwater storage approaches the input parameter C₁₁. The result of the variable recession constant is a steeper and shorter recession than given by equation 5.27. This is further accentuated by the removal of a volume of water from groundwater storage for underflow.

Evaporation and Evapotranspiration

The evaporation process is highly dependent on the energy received in the form of sunlight. The amount of energy received is reflected in both the total evaporation and in the time distribution of the evaporation. Other important climatic factors in the evaporation process are wind and humidity. The average effect of all three factors will be reflected in the amount of evaporation from an evaporation pan. Accordingly, the model makes use of monthly pan evaporation to establish potential monthly

evaporation for the basin. An average daily potential is determined from the monthly potential, using a second order interpolating equation, and finally an instantaneous potential evaporation rate is determined. Potential evaporation is assumed to occur from thirty minutes past surrise until one hour after sunset, and to reach a peak when three-fourths of this time has elapsed. A skewed sine curve fitted to these three points is used for estimating the instantaneous potential evaporation rate. The time distribution of the evaporation potential agrees well with data reported by van Bavel (1966) as shown in Figure 5.9.

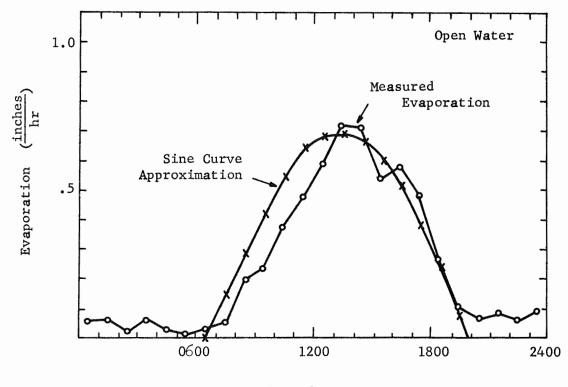
Evaporation occurs first from Interception Storage. If there is insufficient water stored in Interception Storage to satisfy the potential evaporation for this period, additional water is removed, in order, from Overland Flow Storage, Depression Storage, and Upper Zone Storage. Evaporation is assumed to occur at the potential rate from Overland Flow Storage and from Depression Storage. It will also occur at the potential rate from the Upper Zone Storage when the Upper Zone is saturated. However, as the water content of the Upper Zone decreases, the evaporation also decreases because of the difficulty of the soil to deliver the necessary moisture to the surface. This is approximated in the model by using

$$E = EVAPOT \cdot \left(\frac{UZS - UZMIN}{UZST - UZMIN}\right)^{\alpha}$$
 (5.29)

where E is the actual evaporation rate from the soil surface,

EVAPOT is the potential evaporation,

UZS is the current volume of water stored in the Upper Zone,
UZMIN is the minimum volume allowed in the Upper Zone (evaporation





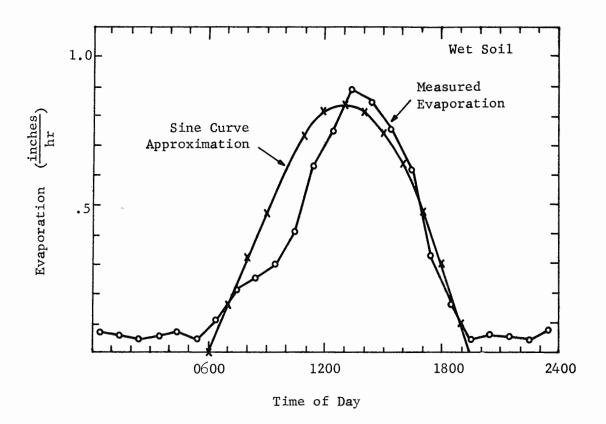


FIGURE 5.9 SINE CURVE APPROXIMATION OF van Bavel's (1966)
EVAPORATION MEASUREMENTS

will not remove the chemically bonded water from the soil particles),

UZST is the total volume allowed in the Upper Zone, and $\alpha \qquad \text{is a parameter describing the soil's ability to deliver} \\$ water to the surface.

The ratio, E/EVAPOT is shown plotted against the moisture values for various levels of the parameter α in Figure 5.10.

Transpiration of water from the soil by plant life seems to be independent of the soil moisture content when the content is above the wilting point. Consequently, during the months when transpiration is a factor, water is removed from the root zone (RTZONE) in addition to the evaporation. This removal is limited by the wilting point moisture content, assumed equal to the minimum volume for each zone. The root zone thickness does not necessarily coincide with the Upper Zone--for deep rooted trees and such crops as alfalfa it should be larger. The monthly evaporation as measured by the pan evaporation is augmented by the monthly consumptive use (TRANPO).

Stream Flow Routing

The runoff for any time period as calculated by the model thus far described must be routed through the basin in order to produce the hydrograph of stream flow. As in the Stanford Model, a distribution graph technique is used. (Figure 3.10) The flow generated during this period is distributed according to input parameters into future runoff intervals,

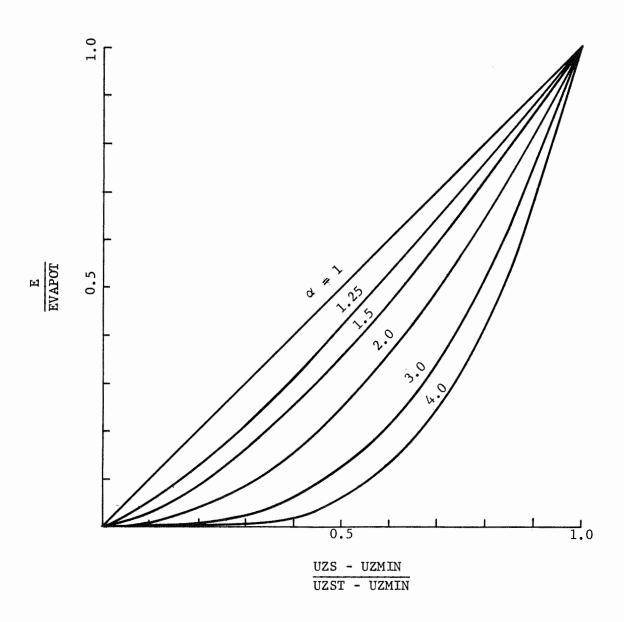


FIGURE 5.10 VARIATION OF TRANSPIRATION WITH MOISTURE CONTENT

i.e., the flow reaching the stream during the present time interval will appear at the gauging point distributed in time.

Watersheds with Multiple Segments

The program will simulate a watershed composed of several subwatersheds or segments. The order in which the segments are simulated must be from upstream to downstream, and the precipitation tape must be prepared in this same sequence. The program processes the segments sequentially; segment numbering must conform to the above usage.

Program Options

The program written to implement this model provides several options which the user may exercise to obtain output which meets his needs. The program will provide detailed storm analysis, printing the stream flow for each time period, or plotting this data on the printer. Options are also available for statistical analyses of several types when measured stream flow is supplied. The correlation coefficient for each storm is provided with the detailed storm analysis. The correlation coefficient is defined as

$$CORRE = \frac{\sum X_{i} Y_{i} - (\sum X_{i} \sum Y_{i})/n}{\left[(\sum X_{i}^{2} - (\sum X_{i})^{2}/n) \cdot (\sum Y_{i}^{2} - (\sum Y_{i})^{2}/n)\right]^{0.5}}$$
(5.30)

The correlation coefficient, defined in the same way, is also provided for the total yearly period. However, this coefficient can be extremely deceiving since each of the time intervals is counted. If the flow rate is zero for a large portion of the time, the correlation coefficient will be unrealistically high. A second measure of the goodness of fit is provided by classifying the flows into several flow ranges, and analyzing each range individually. The ranges are the same as used by the Stanford Model; the logarithm of the interval size is constant. Twenty-five ranges are provided; for each class the total number of cases in that class, the average error of these events, the average absolute error, and, when possible, the standard deviation of the errors is presented. This table allows the user to judge whether the model is doing an equally good job on all magnitude of flows. A third statistic which is provided is the coefficient of weighted absolute errors defined by

$$COEFF = \frac{\sum A_{i} |X_{i}|}{\sum A_{j} f_{j} \times X}$$
 (5.31)

where A

is the weighting factor, defined by $Y_1 + Y_2$

$$A_i = 1n \left(\frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2} \right) + 1$$

 \mathbf{Y}_1 and \mathbf{Y}_2 are the two end points of the flow interval as described above which contain the ith flow rate

is the error, i.e., the difference between the simulated and the recorded flow for the i^{th} time period

 $f_{\mathbf{j}}$ is the number of events in the \mathbf{j}^{th} class

 \overline{x} is the average flow for the time interval.

This coefficient eliminates the time intervals of no flow and provides a logarithmic weighting factor. In general, the smaller it becomes, the better the overall fit.

The adequacy of each part of the proposed model must be tested on existing basins. Two such tests have been performed and are reported in Chapter 6.

With further testing and with more analytical work performed, some aspects of the model are sure to change. For example, a two dimensional finite-difference analysis of the phenomenon of interflow will surely result in a better mathematical model to use in the simulation process. However, the model, as presented in this chapter, contains the basic framework to support improved mathematical statements of the various components of water transfer without destroying the model. This feature, it is believed, will make the basic model structure extremely usable and durable.

Chapter 6

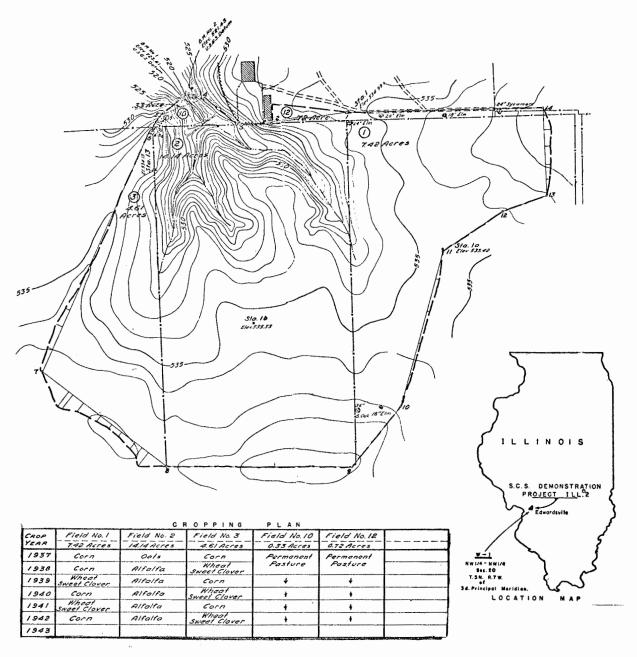
APPLICATIONS OF THE WATERSHED MODEL

The algorithms used to describe the various components of the hydrological cycle within the watershed model have been described in Chapter 5. The use of the model on two small watersheds is described in this chapter.

The Edwardsville, Illinois Watershed

Holtan and Minshall (1968) have presented comprehensive precipation and streamflow data for watersheds WI and WII at the Soil Conservation Service experimential area near Edwardsville, Illinois, for the period July, 1941, through June, 1943. The description of the watershed is complete enough to allow estimation of most of the parameters needed for the model. Watershed WI was chosen because it is the smaller (27.22 acres) and appears to be the more homogeneous. Figure 6.1 shows the contour map of the watershed, together with some land use data as furnished by the Agricultural Research Service. The precipitation records are from weighting type recorders; the watershed contains four recorders. There was little or no variation in the four records—so little, in fact, that only one recorder record is given by Holtan and Minshall for many of the storms. Consequently, a composite precipitation record was constructed relying heavily on recorders R9 and R11, Figure 6.2. Runoff was measured by a triangular weir; runoff rate was reported.

Several small plot infiltration studies were conducted within the experimential watershed. Rather complete descriptions of these are given,



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	WATER SHED CHARACTERISTIC
ŧ.	Size. 27.22 Acres 0.0425 Sq. miles
2.	Range in Elevation (approx. M.S.L.) from 520.0 ft. to 540.0ft.
3.	Prevailing Land Stope
4.	Range in Land Slopes from Q.4 % to 10 %
5.	Length of Principal Waterway785ft.
	Average Slope of Principal Waterway
7.	Tatal Number of Waterways
8.	Number of Acres per Wolerway 9.07
9	Total Length of Waterways 1650 feet
0.	Drainage Density (Langth of waterways per acre)6/ft/ac
1 1.	Form Factor A/L ² 0.77

Field Boundary.

Field Number.

Runoff Measuring Station.

Diversion Terrace.

Drop Structure.

Secondary Traverse Station.

Watershed Boundary Traverse Station.

Wotershed Boundary Traverse Station.

Wotershed Boundary.

NOTE: All other Symbols are those adopted by the U.S. Board of Surveys and Maps.

FIGURE 6.1 DATA FOR WATERSHED WI

VIEW NEGATIVE NUMBER
VIEW NO. 5 Negative No. III.—R.S.—30
VIEW No. 6 Negative No. III.—R.S.—31

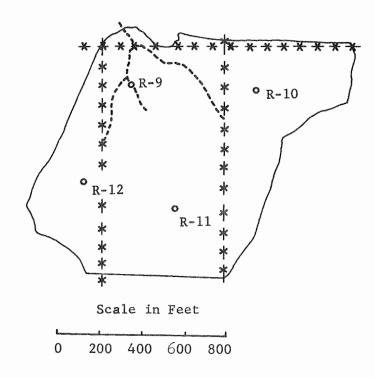


FIGURE 6.2 LOCATION OF RECORDING RAIN GAUGES IN WATERSHED WI

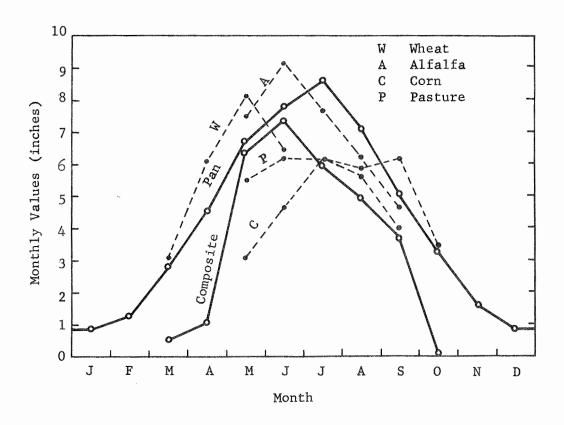


FIGURE 6.3 MONTHLY VARIATION OF PAN EVAPORATION AND CONSUMPTIVE USE

together with soil types and depths. As a result of these experiments, Holtan and Minshall divided the watershed into four areas, based on the average permeability in a three-hour test as shown in Table 6.1.

Pan evaporation rates were secured from the United States Weather Bureau records. Monthly values are shown on Figure 6.3. As shown on Figure 6.1, crops for 1942 consisted of corn, alfalfa, wheat and sweet clover, in addition to a small amount of permanent pasture. The consumptive use of these crops was estimated by the Blaney-Criddle method (Chow, 1964). These monthly values are plotted on Figure 6.3. Also shown on Figure 6.3 is the monthly transpiration potential used by the model.

TABLE 6.1

DISTRIBUTION OF EQUILIBRIUM INFILTRATION RATES FOR WATERSHED WI

Percent of Total Area	Infiltration Rate (inch/hour)
12.06	0 - 0.53
20.99	0.53 - 0.67
19.63	0.67 - 0.83
47.32	over 0.83

Holtan and Minshall indicate no groundwater contribution to streamflow from WI. There was some, however, from WII, of which WI is a part. It seems logical then to suppose that some amount of "underflow" was occurring.

Selecting the Parameters

One goal of the watershed model is to have physically meaningful and physically determined parameters. The parameters and the basis of the

selected value will be discussed.

- Impervious Area: Figure 6.1 shows no impervious area, assume a value of zero.
- Division of Pervious Area: No benching or contouring is evident from

 Figure 6.1. Consequently 0.8 of the total area was used as producing

 runoff directly to the stream, 0.15 as producing runoff directly to

 depression storage, and 0.05 as depression storage, except for the

 months of October and May. Values for October were 0.4, 0.5, and

 0.1 while 0.3, 0.55, and 0.15 were used for May. These changes were

 necessary to account for the land preparation prior to planting

 winter wheat on 4.61 acres in October and corn on 7.42 acres in May.
- Infiltration Parameters: From equation 5.12, three parameters are needed in the infiltration equation: C1, C2, and SATPRM. C1 was found using Holtan's recommended value of 0.62 times a vegetative factor of 0.35 from Table 5.1. C2 is also Holtan's recommended value. The saturated permeability was originally taken as 0.15 inches/hour. However, after studying the storms of October 30-31, 1941, when the soil was saturated, this value was revised to 0.05.
- Unsaturated Permeability and Capillary Potential Parameters: At the present stage of development, these parameters are difficult to assign. Holtan and Minshall give soil horizon descriptions at four sites within WI. Bogota silt loam is the predominate soil type, which they describe as "highly permeable." Chow (1964), quoting from the United States Soil Conservation Service, classifies the Bogota series as group C--slow infiltration rates generally with impeding layer.

The soils listed in Table 5.2, for which the parameters have been found by a curve fitting technique, are not well described in the literature from which the data were taken. In fact, all are laboratory results from reconstituted soils. The values of Geary Silt Loam were used initially. However, the value of saturated permeability as computed by equation 5.19 did not agree with the value used in the infiltration equation. Reference to the table in Chow (1964) showed that this soil is in group B, a group with somewhat more permeability than group C. Consequently, the parameters were changed to describe a less permeable soil. Final values are given in Table 6.2.

Routing Parameters: A basic time interval of 10 minutes was chosen as corresponding reasonably well with the size of the watershed without causing the program to consume an excess amount of time for execution.

The contour map, Figure 6.1, was examined, and the following velocities assigned:

areas below e1. 530 1.63 ft/sec areas between e1. 530 and 535 1.13 ft/sec areas above e1. 535 0.67 ft/sec

Travel times and areas were estimated as shown in Figure 6.4 in which the travel times in minutes are underlined and the contributing areas, in acres, are indicated along the stream reach. The time distribution of runoff corresponding to an instantaneous rainfall is shown in Figure 6.5. The resulting routing elements were

0.12 0.42 0.40 0.06.

TABLE 6.2 PARAMETER VALUES

Parameter					Va1ue	s			
XLAT				38.8			<u></u>		
XLONG				90.0					
CORTZ				0					
Monthly Pan	Evaporation			0.84 8.70		2.72 5.10			7.80 0.84
TRANPO				0.0 5.91	0.0 4.97	0.52 3.66			7.33 0.0
NEWVAL	0 0	0 0	1 1	0 0	0 1	1 0			
KSEGMT	1								
JRINT	10								
ISEG1	0								
ISEG2	0								
NRELEM	4								
LAG	0								
C	0.12	0.42	0.40	0.06					
PANFAC	0.8								
ALPHA	3.5								
RTZONE	15.								
ATOTAL	27.22								
APERVS	1.0								
AOLFSF	Oct:	0.4,	Nov-Ap	r: 0.8	3, May:	0.55	, Jun-	Sep:	0.8
AOLFDS	Oct:	0.5,	Nov-Ap	r: 0.1	l5, May	: 0.2	5, Jun	-Sep:	0.15
DSMAX	0.25								
VINSTM	0.005								
DEPTHI	12.								
DEPTHU	0.75								
CHANLG	0.55								
C1	0.20								
C2	1.387								

TABLE 6.2 (continued)

Parameter		Values	
C3	186.		
C4	-0.114		
C5	7.745		
c 6	0.2026.10-6		
C7	-10.		
C8	0.2		
C9	-3.0		
C10	0.9		
C11	0		
C12	0		
C13	0.001		
C14	0.995		
C15	0		
ROUGH	0.065		
SLOPE	0.0175		
VLENGH	75.		
SATPRM	0.05		
UZST	4.14		
VIZST	67.44		
c 16	0.001		
SMMIN	0.15		

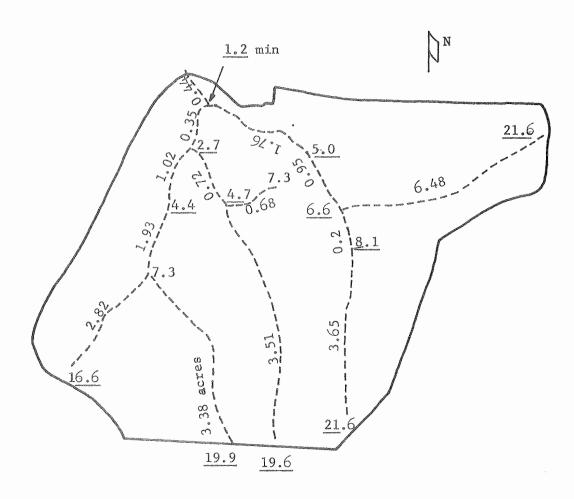


FIGURE 6.4 TRAVEL TIMES AND CONTRIBUTING AREAS FOR WATERSHED WI

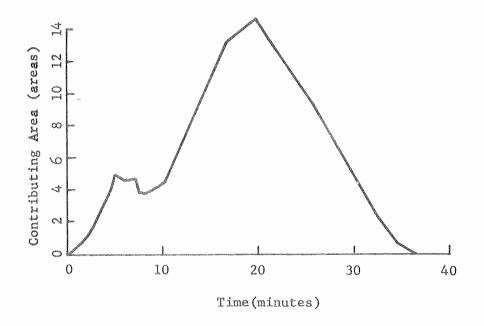


FIGURE 6.5 CONTRIBUTING AREAS OF WATERSHED WI TO AN INSTANTANEOUS INPUT

Upper Zone: A depth of nine inches was chosen for the Upper Zone Storage.

This figure was selected as the probable depth of cultivation during the 1940 era. A maximum moisture content of 0.46 (by volume) was used because of the silt loam classification. A wilting point of 0.15 was used.

Intermediate Zone: No data is available on the soil below about 60 inches. An Intermediate Zone depth of 12 feet was selected as being adequate to prevent any groundwater flow being significant in the model. The same soil moisture limits were used in this zone as in the Upper Zone.

Interflow: The soil descriptions given by Holtan and Minshall indicate a restrictive clay layer at the 18 inch level on the portion of the watershed above elevation 530. Quite probably interflow does occur due to this clay layer. Transfer to interflow from the top portion of the Intermediate Zone is allowed when this zone is 0.9 full. The amount transferred is 0.001 of that volume above 0.9. The volumetric recession constant for the interflow storage is 0.99.

Results of Computer Run

The results of this choice of parameters is presented in Tables 6.3 and 6.4 and in the hydrographs of Figure 6.6 through 6.9. The hydrographs presented where chosen before the computer run as typical of the various conditions encountered by the model.

The model has not been as successful as was expected using the parameters assigned on the basis of available data. The most serious discrepancy is in generating the proper volume of runoff for each storm.

TABLE 6.3 SUMMARY OF MONTHLY SIMULATED AND MEASURED VALUES

Month	Rainfall (inches)	Measured Runoff (inches)	Simulated Runoff (inches)	Simulated Evaporation (inches)
Oct	8.10	1.01	1.04	0.10
Nov	2.87	0.77	0.24	0
Dec	1.59	T	0	0
Jan	1.23	0.01	0	0
Feb	2.59	0.90	0.03	0
Mar	2.01	0.10	0.01	0.43
Apr	2.22	0.34	0.03	0.83
May	5.25	0.10	0.57	5.09
Jun	7 .5 6	1.31	2.16	6.00
Ju1	8.20	3.46	3.57	4.75
Aug	3.49	0.46	0.94	3.94
Sep	1.43	T	0.01	2.91
Annual	46.54	8.58	8.59	24.04

TABLE 6.4 COMPARISON OF SIMULATED AND MEASURED VALUES FOR EACH STORM

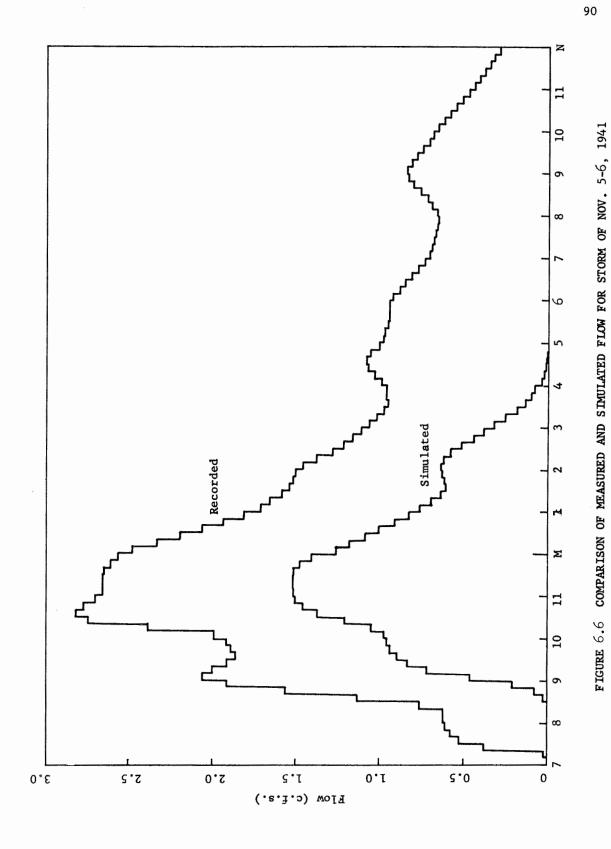
Date	Rainfall	Runoff	(inches)	Correlation
	(inches)	Measured	Simulated	Coefficient
10- 2-41	0.30			
10- 2-41	0.20			
10- 5-41	0.36	0.0084	0.0404	0.9484
10- 7-41	0.24	0.0004	0.0007	0.9484
10- 9-41	0.86	0.0025	0.1996	0.7560
10-14-41	0.42	0.0023	0.0490	0.9453
10-17-41	1.44	0.1729	0.2302	0.8557
10-17-41				
10-20-41	1.89	0.3322	0.3866	0.8020
10-26-41	0.37	0.0031	0	0
10-30-41				U
10-31-41	2.02	0.3898	0.0941	0.8701
11- 5-41	2,04	0.7495	0.2308	0:8747
11- 6-41			.,	
11-10-41	0.01			
11-17-41	0.01			
11-19-41	0.29			
11-20-41		0.0001		
11-22-41	0.35	0.0031		
11-23-41	0.05	0.0055		
11-24-41	0.12	0.0255		
12-12-41	0.30			
12-22-41	0.28			
12-23-41	0.44	0.0007		
12-25-41	0.28	0.0050		
12-26-41	0.29			•
1- 1-42	0.28			
1-18-42	0.05			
1-30-42				
1-31-42	0.90	0.0102		
2- 3-42	1 / 0	0 5000	0.0077	0 70/0
2- 6-42	1.40	0.5999	0.0271	0.7963
2- 9-42	0.21			
2-15-42		0.0051		
2-16-42	0.55	0.0851		
2-23-42	0.35			
2-26-42	0.05			
2-27-42		0.0157		
2-28-42		0.0082		

TABLE 6.4 (continued)

Data	Rainfall	Runoff	(inches)	Correlation
Date	(inches)	Measured	Simulated	Coefficient
3- 4-42 3- 5-42	0.03			- All of the control
3- 7-42 3- 8-42	0.71	0.1365		
3-12-42 3-13-42	0.65	0.0874	0.0073	0.4577
3-20-42	0.07			
3-25-42 3-26-42	0.25			
3-27-42	0.23			
3-30-42	0.07			
4- 6-42 4- 7-42	1.16	0.0199	0.0215	0.9712
4- 8-42	1.17	0.3211	0.0019	0.5257
4-10-42 4-24-42	0.02			
4-24-42	0.02			
5- 2-42	0.17			
5- 3-42	1.05	0.0107	0.1629	0.3763
5- 5-42 5- 6-42	1.11	0.0465	0.2928	0.8658
5-11-42	0.03			
5-13-42	0.60	0.0047	0.0792	0.6288
5-15-42	0 .9 6	0.0288	0.1080	0.9270
5-17-42	0.10			
5-18-42	0.59	0.0098		
5-23-42	0.16			
5-26-42 5-31-42	0.07 0.41		0.0002	0
(1 / 0	0.50	0.0050	0 1051	0.71/1
6- 1-42 6- 6-42	0.59 0.12	0.0058	0.1051	0.7161
6- 9-42	0.12			
6-10-42	0.07			
6-11-42	0.18			
6-13-42	1.35	0.1442	0.5503	0.9823
6-15-42	0.31			
6-18-42	0.52	0.0033	0.0322	0.0768
6-19-42	0.10			
6-20-42	0.03	0 0075	0.6521	0.9685
6-21-42 6 - 25-42	1.69 0.50	0.0275	0.0341	0.7083
6-26-42	1.79	0.8281	0.8110	0.9064
J 20 -r2			0,0110	0.700 -r

TABLE 6.4 (continued)

Date	Rainfal1	Runoff	(inches)	Correlation
·	(inches)	Measured	Simulated	Coefficient
7- 7-42 7-10-42	6.97	3,2982	3.3998	0.9164
7-12-42 7-14-42 7-19-42	0.45 0.51 0.09	0.0703 0.0598	0.1111 0.0274	0.9463 0.5551
7-21-42 7-26-42	0.63 0.31	0.0174	0.0662	0.9378
8- 2-42 8- 3-42	0.18 0.20			
8- 6-42 8- 7-42	2.21	0.2157	0.5390	0.9014
8-14-42 8-15-42	0.90	0.0024		
9- 7-42 9- 8-42	0.82	0.0020	0.0027	0.1332
9-19-42 9-26-42	0.46 0.15			



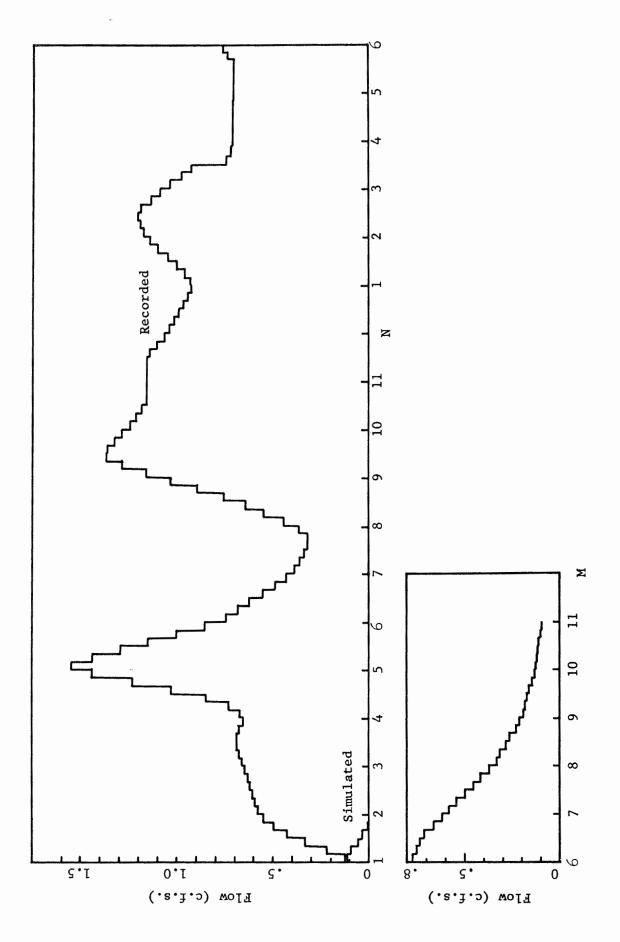
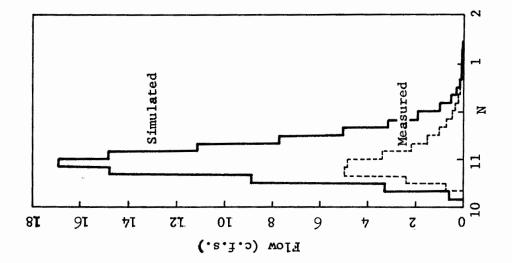
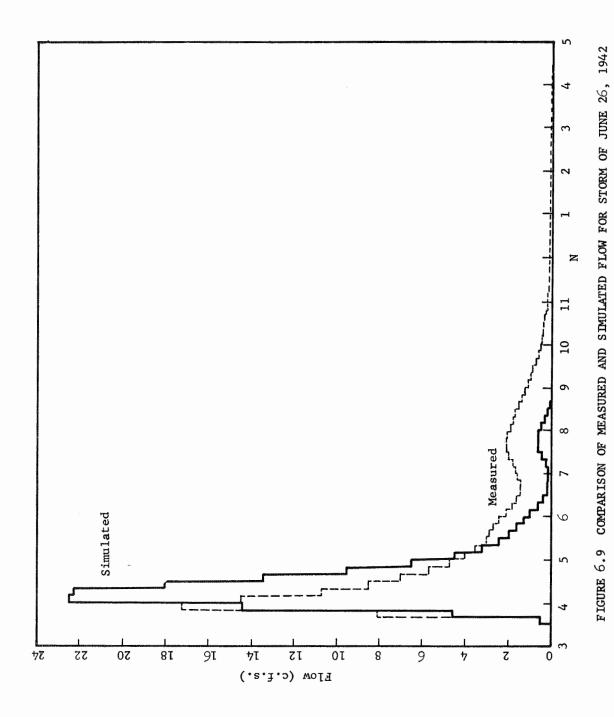


FIGURE 6,7 COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND SIMULATED FLOW FOR STORM OF FEB. 6, 1942





Part of this failure is attributable to the lack of a frozen soil facility within the model. Holtan and Minshall state that infiltrometer tests were discontinued during the winter because the soil was saturated. Figure 6.10 shows the daily maximum and minimum temperatures recorded at Greenville, Illinois, for the period November, 1941, through March, 1942. Greenville is about 30 miles east of Edwardsville. Clearly the ground was frozen throughout much of February. Fluker (1958) found soil temperature extremes to lag air temperature extremes by one month. Quite possibly the period of frozen ground extended well into March. If the ground is frozen and near saturation, virtually no infiltration, soil moisture movement, or evaporation will occur. The complexity of including the affects of temperature in the model are much greater than simply the problem of securing the daily temperatures (although this is a data preparation chore not to be overlooked). Rather the problem is in modeling the head flow process. thermal characteristics of soils vary with the soil type and with moisture content. Also, the soil moisture freezes from the surface down; there may be no infiltration or evaporation at the surface because it is frozen while moisture transfer occurs a few inches beneath the surface below the frost line. Almost certainly some simple model such as "no evaporation, infiltration, or soil moisture movement while the air temperature is below 30° F." would improve the performance of the model, particularly during February.

Application to Mukewater Creek Watershed

Coskun and Moore (1969) reported the results of application of the Stanford Model to the Mukewater Creek watershed in central Texas. Using

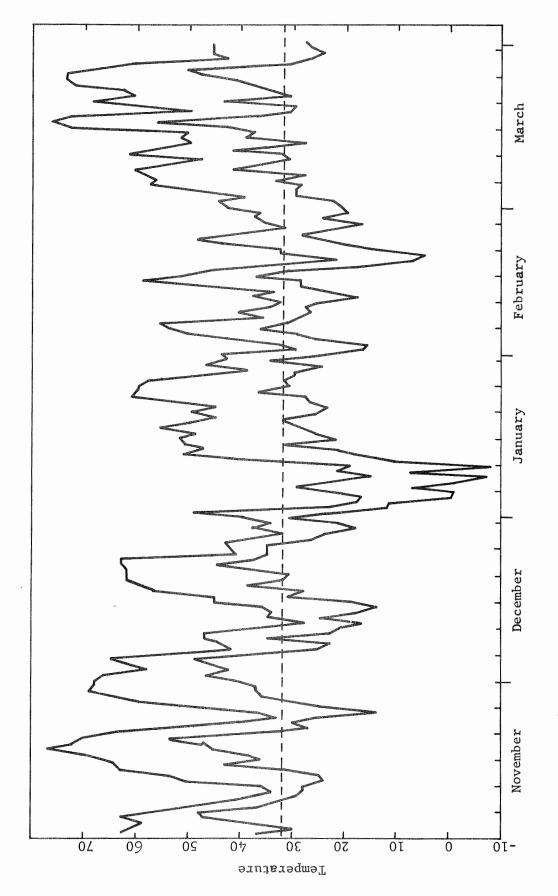


FIGURE 6.10 DAILY MAXIMUM MINIMUM TEMPERATURES AT GREENVILLE, ILLINOIS, 1941-1942

the rainfall data from their study, a similar application has been made with the proposed model.

Mukewater Creek is one of numerous small watersheds which have been studied in detail by the United States Geological Survey in co-operation with the Texas Water Development Board, and the United States Soil Conservation Service. Sauer (1965) has given the physiographic features as well as a summary of the hydrologic data for the period 1952-1960. Figure 6.11 shows the location of the watershed as well as the location of the rain gauges. The watershed contains 70.4 square miles above the stream gauging station at Trickham, Texas. About one half the watershed area is devoted to farming and the other half to ranching. Sauer reported the existence of 211 stock ponds by March, 1962. controlled 20 percent of the drainage area. Six flood retarding structures were built between 1960-1965. These control almost 40 percent of the drainage area. Sauer concluded that areal distribution of the rain was insignificant when correlating rainfall and runoff. Coskun and Moore utilized the rainfall records from four recording rain gauges to produce a single hourly rainfall record for use in their application of the Stanford Model.

While some attempt was made to assign parameter values from available information, the emphasis in this application has been on determining the "best" set of parameters. Those parameters which are common to both the Stanford Model and to this model were assigned the values used by Coskun and Moore. Other values were assigned on the basis of the experience with the Edwardsville watershed. Only mean daily flow values are available for comparison to simulated values, except for hydrographs

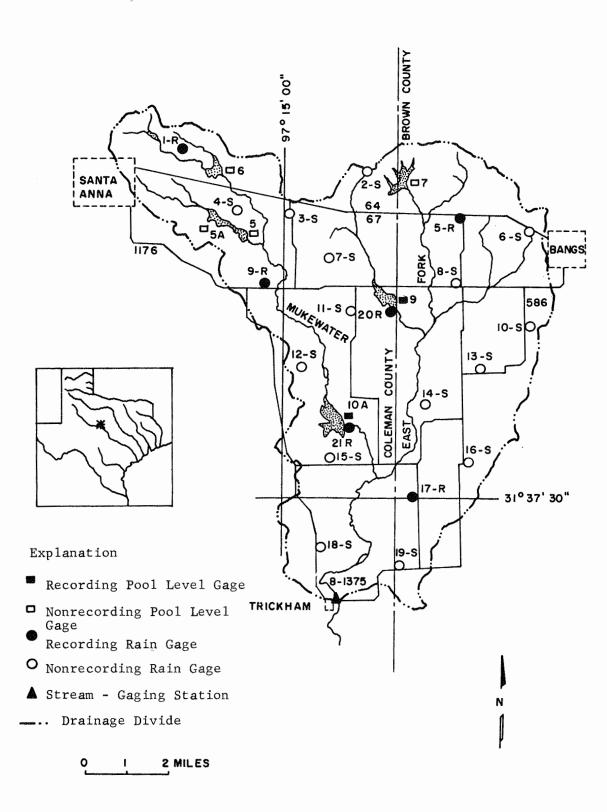
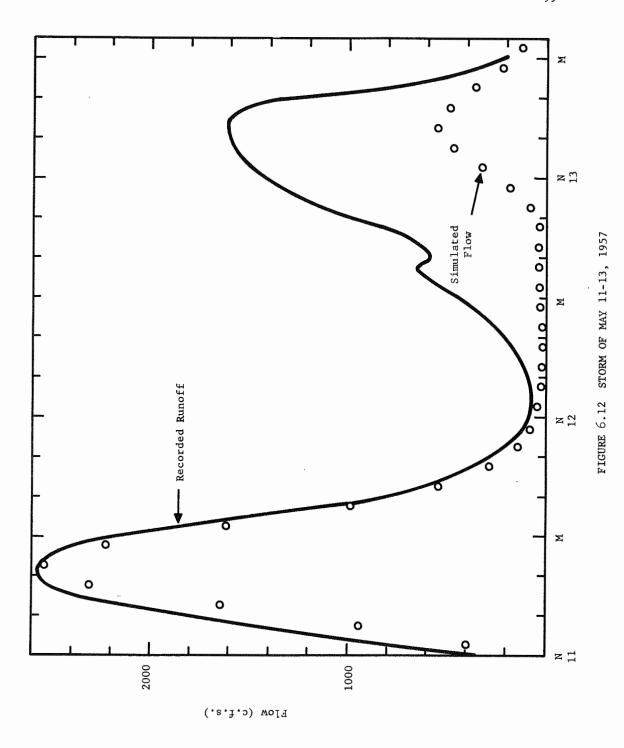


FIG. 6.11 MUKEWATER CREEK STUDY AREA

of the storms of May 11-13, 17-18, 1957 and February 22-23, 1958, which were reported by Coskun and Moore.

Results of the simulation are shown in Figures 6.12 through 6.19. Figures 6.12, 6.13, and 6.14 show the measured and simulated hydrographs for the three storms cited above. Figures 6.15 through 6.19 show a comparison of mean daily flow values for five of the more active months.

A direct comparison to the Stanford Model is difficult to make except on a statistical basis. Table 6.5 shows a comparison of the monthly runoff values as simulated by Coskun and Moore, those as simulated by this study, and the measured values. Also shown is the correlation coefficient for mean daily flows. As in the Edwardsville application, the mean daily flow series contains numerous zero values which enhance the ° correlation coefficient. Were it possible to choose some single measure of goodness of fit by which to judge a set of parameters, a computer program could be utilized to choose an optimum set of parameter values. However, the insensitivity of the correlation coefficient, even when the zero flow days have been eliminated, render it nearly useless for this purpose. Perhaps the most useful such measure is simply the sum of the absolute value of the errors. Such a sum has the serious drawback that all errors are weighted equally, i.e., a 10 second foot day error carries the same significance whether made on a day when the mean daily flow was 100 cfs or 1000 cfs. In the latter case, the error is of the same order of magnitude as the stream flow measurement inaccuracies, and obviously should not be considered significant. If a relative error is used instead, defined as the ratio of the error to the measured flow, an awkward situation prevails when the measured flow is zero and the simulated flow



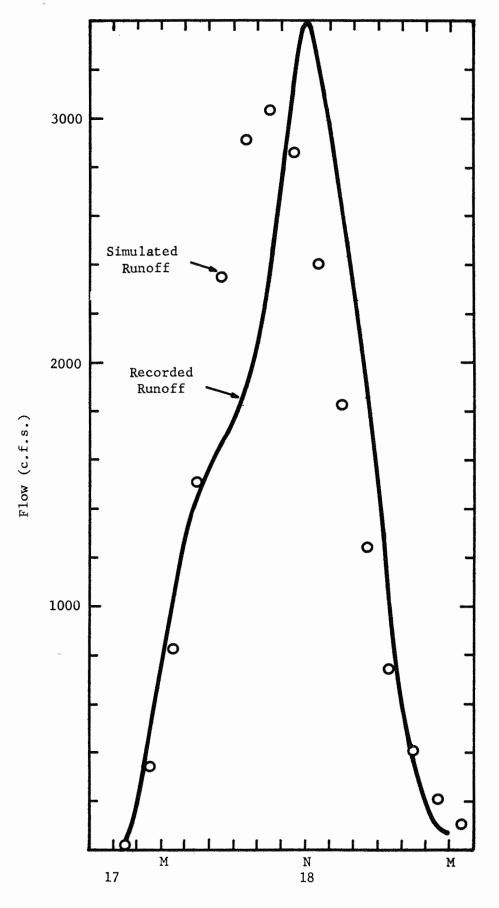


FIGURE 6.13 STORM OF MAY 17-18, 1957

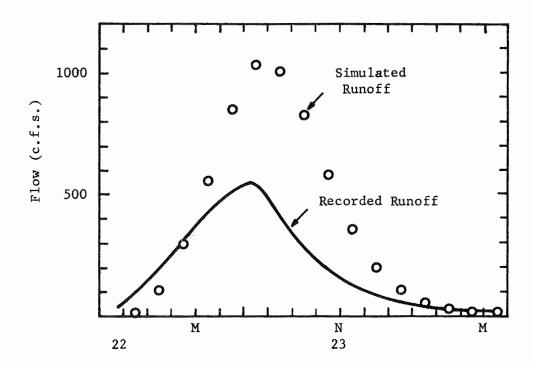


FIGURE 6.14 STORM OF FEBRUARY 22-23, 1958

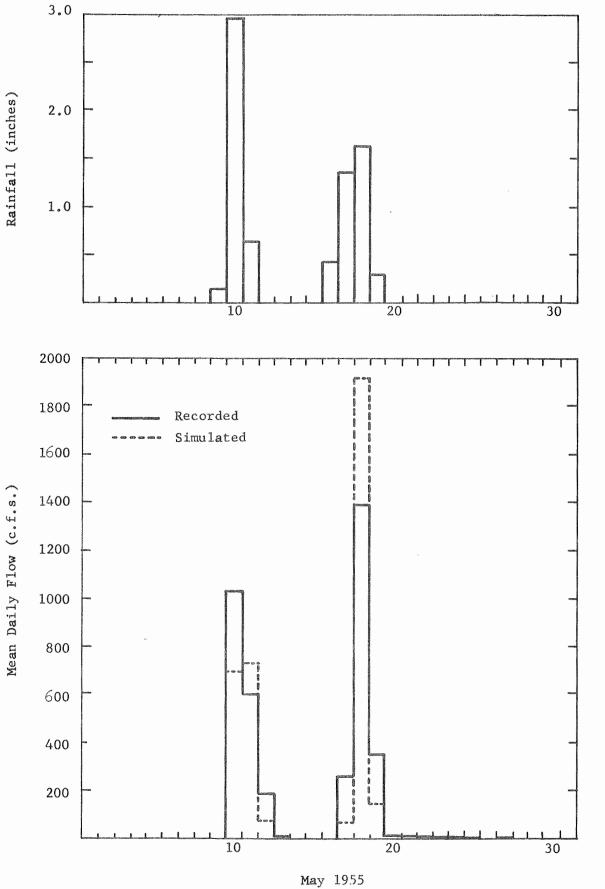


FIGURE 6.15 PRECIPITATION AND RUNOFF FOR MAY 1955



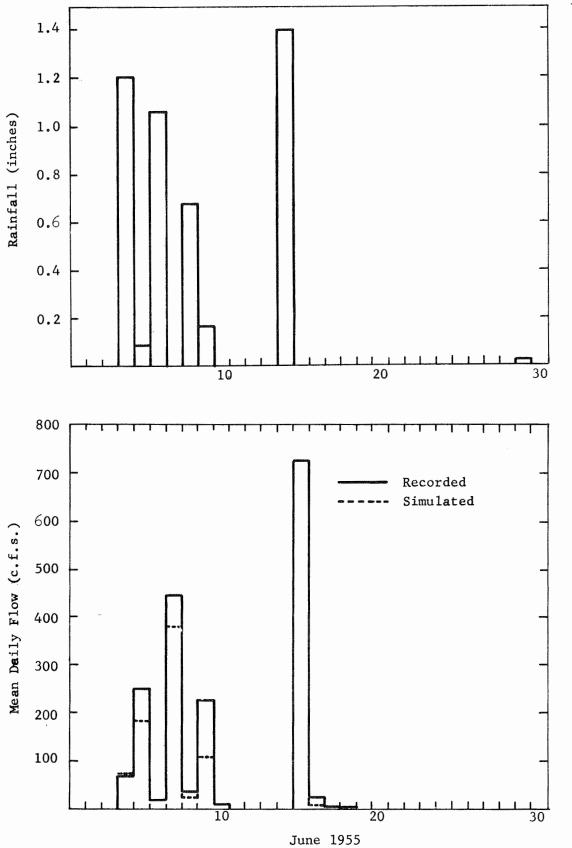


FIGURE 6.16 PRECIPITATION AND RUNOFF FOR JUNE 1955

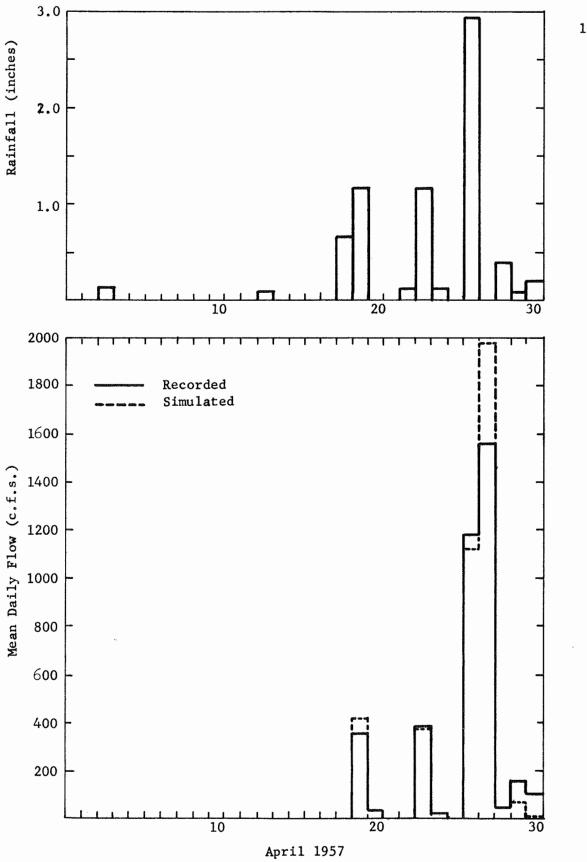
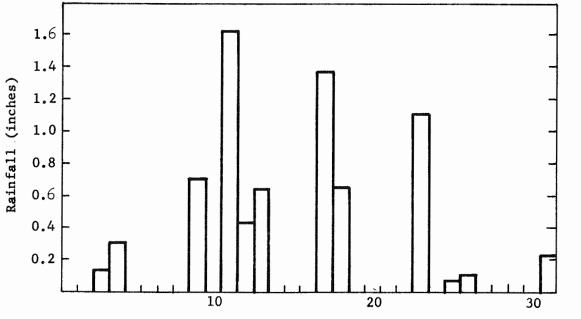


FIGURE 6.17 PRECIPATION AND RUNOFF FOR APRIL 1957



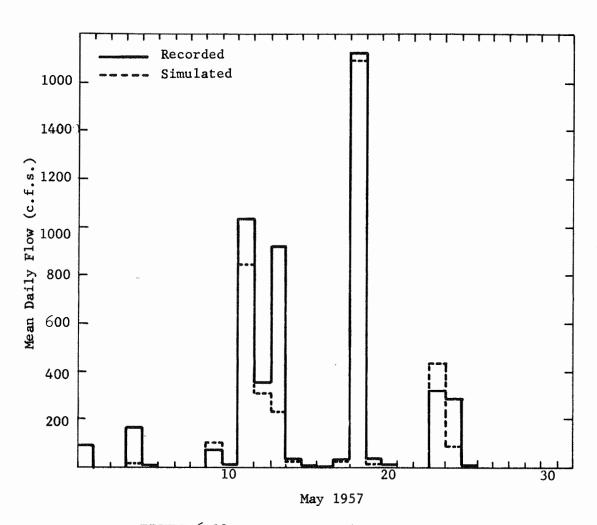
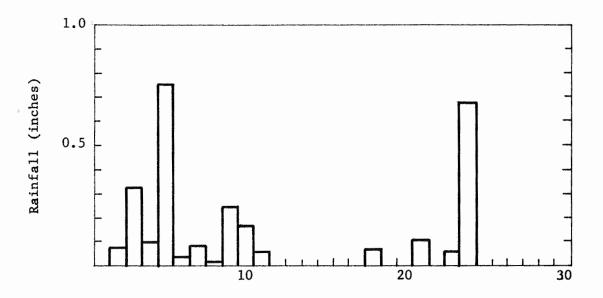


FIGURE 6.18 PRECIPATION AND RUNOFF FOR MAY 1957



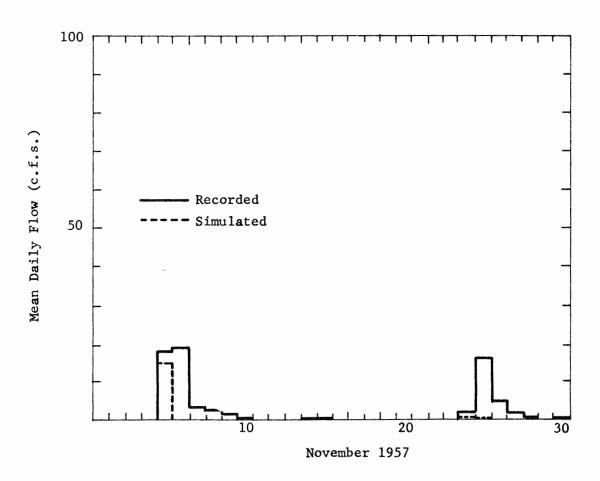


FIGURE 6.19 PRECIPITATION AND RUNOFF FOR NOVEMBER 1957

Correlation Coefficient	0.9500	0.9318	0.9970	0.9550	0.9284	0.9766
Annua1	1.10 0.97 1.46	4.55 4.10 3.62	2.25	5.19 4.96 4.65	0.83 1.06 1.11	4.25 5.92 4.31
Sep		0.49		0.01	0.03	0.02
Aug		0.06 0.01		0,01	0.10 0.16 .14	0.03
July		0.91 1.27 .58		0.01		2.00 2.62 1.67
June	0.02	0.95 0.42 0.80		0.20 0.14	0.07 0.11 .26	2,24 3,18 2,50
Мау	0.18 0.14 .17	2.03 1.80 1.92	2,15	2.75 2.58 2.03	0.11 0.08	0.01 0.04 .11
Apr	0.25 0.18 .49		0.10	2.03 2.03 2.10	0.04	0,01
Mar	0.17 0.01	0.03		0.08 0.07 .16	0.17 0.14 .06	
Feb		0.03	Ð	0.01	0.17 0.13	
Jan	*7		ailable		0.01	
Dec		0.01	Not Ava	0.02	0.03	
Nov		0.05	Data	0.05	0.04 0.07 .10	0.01
Oct	0.50 0.60 .77			0.07 0.05 .06	0.12 0.18 .05	0.01
Source	Recorded Stanford U. T.					
Water Year	1953 -1954	1954 -1955	1955 -1956	1956 -1957	1957 -1958	1958 -1959

TABLE 6.5 COMPARISON OF RECORDED AND SIMULATED RUNOFF VALUES IN INCHES

is nonzero. Both the annual correlation coefficient and the sum of the absolute value of the errors were used in arriving at the "optimal" set of parameters for Mukewater Creek.

Among those parameters which cannot be readily assigned numerical values from field data, the length of overland flow, the constants in the infiltration equation $(C_1, C_2, and saturated permeability), and the thick$ ness of the upper zone seem to be rather important. Some guidance can be obtained from the existing runoff data, and from current computer runs. Figure 6.20 shows the results of one such computer run. Consider a storm in which a considerable amount of rainfall fell in a short period. If no runoff was produced, essentially all the water infiltrated. The infiltration rate throughout the storm must be equal to or greater than the rainfall rate. In Figure 6.20, several of the isolated one hour storms which produced no runoff are shown by horizontal line segments. The left end of the line is plotted at the value of Upper Zone Storage which existed at the beginning of the storm. The line terminates at that value of Upper Zone Storage which would obtain if all of the rainfall were infiltrated. The infiltration curve (equation 5.12) must be an upper envelope for these line eegments. Obviously, to obtain values of the Upper Zone Storage at the beginning of the storm requires the simulation of the entire period. However, unless large changes are made in the parameters from run to run, the values of Upper Zone Storage do not seem to vary over a very large range. When applied to the Mukewater Creek data, the envelope lacked the proper shape for small values of Upper Zone thickness.

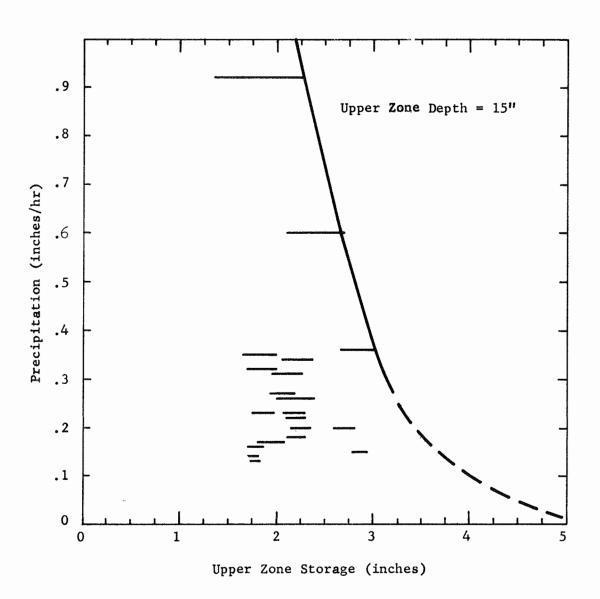


FIGURE 6.20 UPPER ZONE STORAGE FOR STORMS WITHOUT RUNOFF

After the parameters seem to be of the proper magnitude, further corrections can be determined from plots similar to Figure 6.21. The current values of C_1 , C_2 , Upper Zone thickness, and saturated permeability are used to plot the infiltration rate as a function of Upper Zone Storage. Each storm is then examined to determine whether a larger or smaller infiltration rate is required to obtain agreement between simulated and recorded values. In Figure 6.21, the results are indicated by an arrow showing the required direction of change for that storm. The results of such a plot may be that some segment of the infiltration curve must be shifted. Figure 6.22 shows the result of varying C_1 ; Figure 6.23 shows changes due to various values of C_2 ; while Figure 6.24 indicates the affects of depth of the Upper Zone when infiltration is not limited by rainfall. Such curves aid in choosing a new parameter value.

As stated earlier, Sauer reported no significant increase in correlation of runoff and rainfall when areal distribution of rainfall was considered. This conclusion was based on a comparison of recorded runoff and predicted runoff. To determine the predicted runoff, Sauer constructed a coaxial correlation graph using the weighted rainfall. To test the effects of areal distribution of rainfall, he utilized this coaxial correlation graph on each of the 19 segments and added the resulting runoff values. However, he did not compute API (antecedent precipitation index) values for each segment; instead he assumed a uniform value throughout the watershed. Possibly quite different results might be obtained if API were allowed to vary throughout the watershed. An examination of those storms for which this model gave poor results suggests some correlation with those storms which exhibited quite noticable areal distribution. Quite likely, Mukewater Creek is too large to be treated as a homogeneous unit by the model.

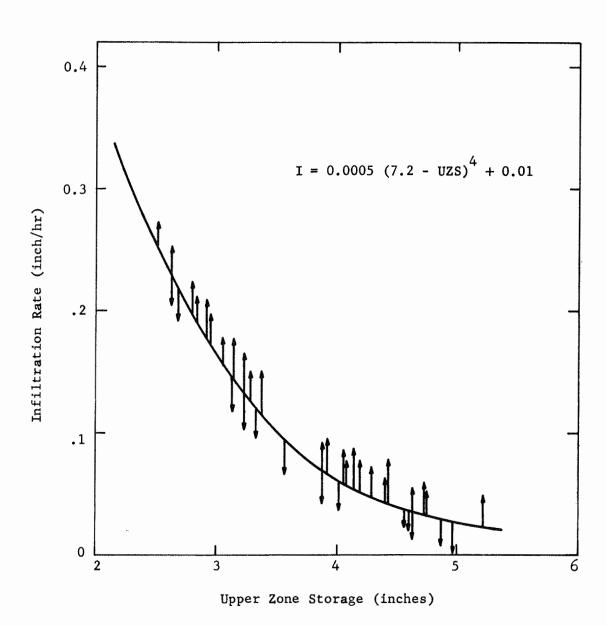


FIGURE 6.21 CHANGES NEEDED IN INFILTRATION RATE

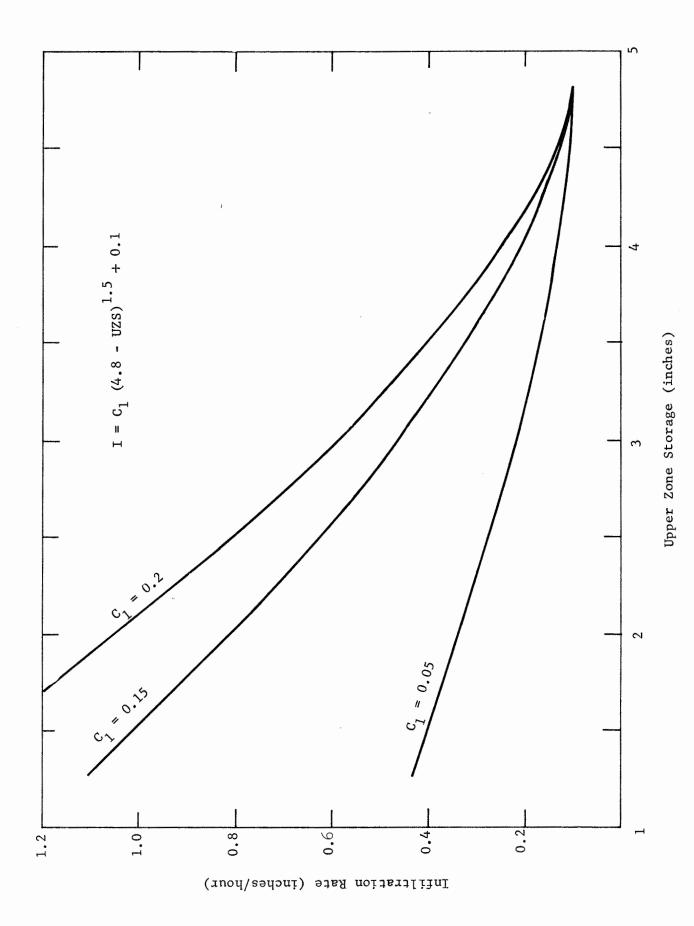


FIGURE 6.22 INFILTRATION RATE FOR VARIOUS VALUES OF $\mathbf{C_1}$

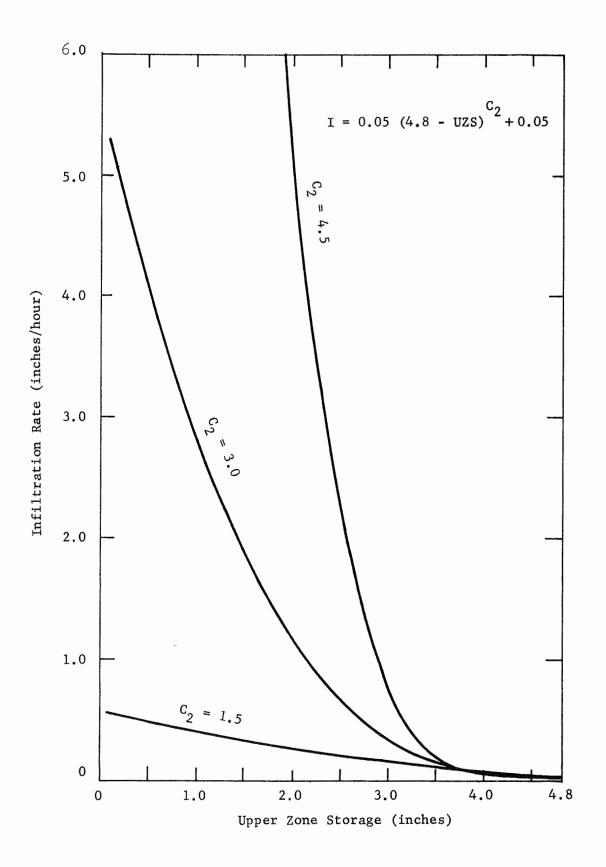


FIGURE 6.23 INFILTRATION RATE FOR VARIOUS VALUES OF $\boldsymbol{c_2}$

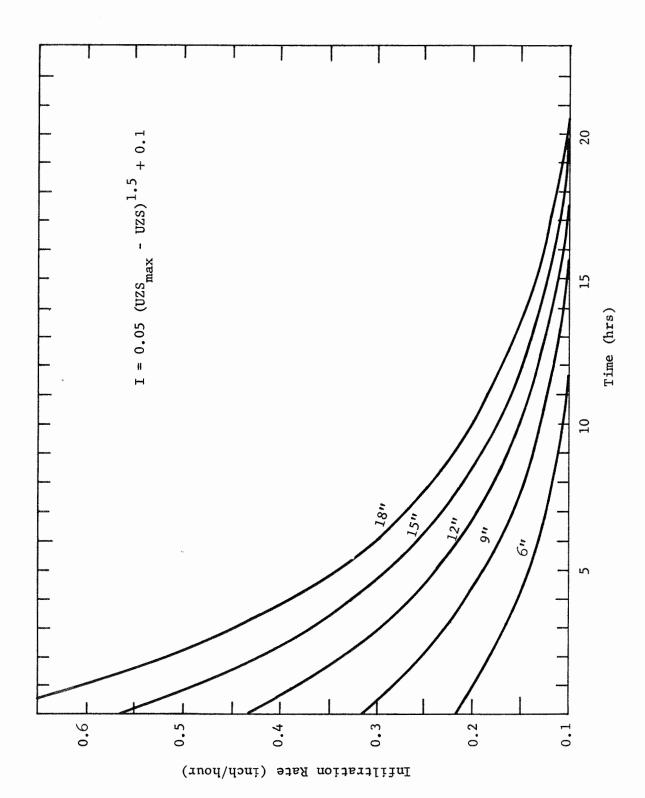


FIGURE 6.24 EFFECTS OF DEPTH OF UPPER ZONE ON INFILTRATION RATES

Chapter 7

CONCLUSIONS AND AREAS OF FUTURE RESEARCH

The validity of the various concepts incorporated into the model cannot be thoroughly tested by application to two watersheds. While the results of the application to the Edwardsville watershed were not as good as expected, those from the Mukewater Creek watershed are considerably more encouraging. Each of the 42 input parameters either has exact physical meaning or is an index of a physical quantity. The parameters in the latter category have been held to a minimum. There remain, however, many unsolved problems when modeling a watershed. Foremost of these problems is the spatial variation in most of the parameters. The Stanford Watershed Model attempted to solve this by assuming a linear distribution across the watershed. However, this is equivalent to assuming some average value of the parameter, such as has been done in the proposed model. The work reported by Holtan and Lopez (1969) uses three zones of differing characteristics to account for the spatial variation. Quite possible, as digital computers become larger, the watershed can be modeled in smaller segments, thereby achieving a greater degree of homogeniety in each subarea.

The simulation of the infiltration process needs further improvement. While Holtan's approximation is more closely related to the physical phenomenon than other empirical equations, research using finite difference methods to model the flow in both the saturated and the unsaturated zones should yield even better approximations.

The Mukewater Creek application indicates a serious deficiency in the manner in which the interflow is handled. The classical, but empirical recession constant has not been utilized because it lacks physical significance. The Stanford Model does use this method, and the results are quite apparent in the correlation coefficients for 1957-1958 (Table 6.5). This water year contained twice as many (109) days of recession type flow as did any other year. Were these portions of the hydrograph closely modeled, the correlation coefficient would improve considerably. Future research needs to be directed toward defining a physically meaningful interflow model.

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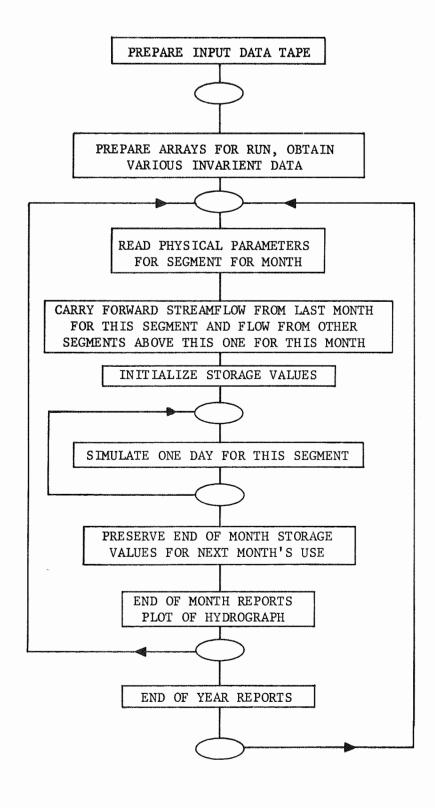
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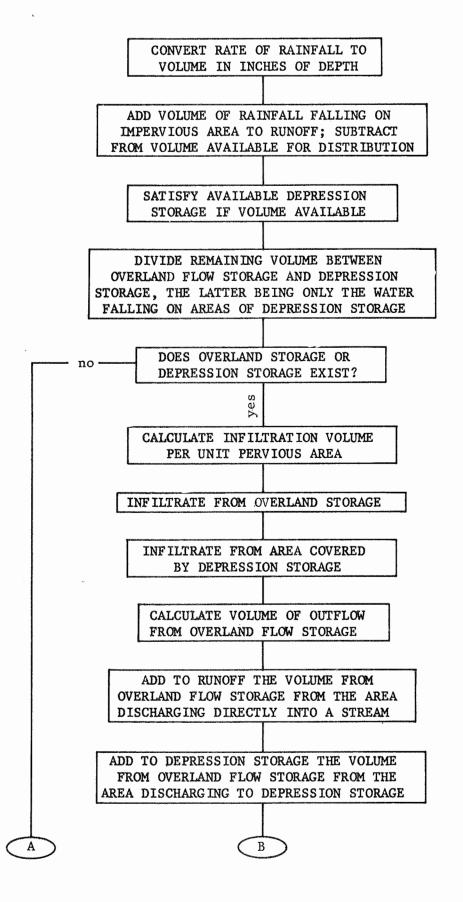
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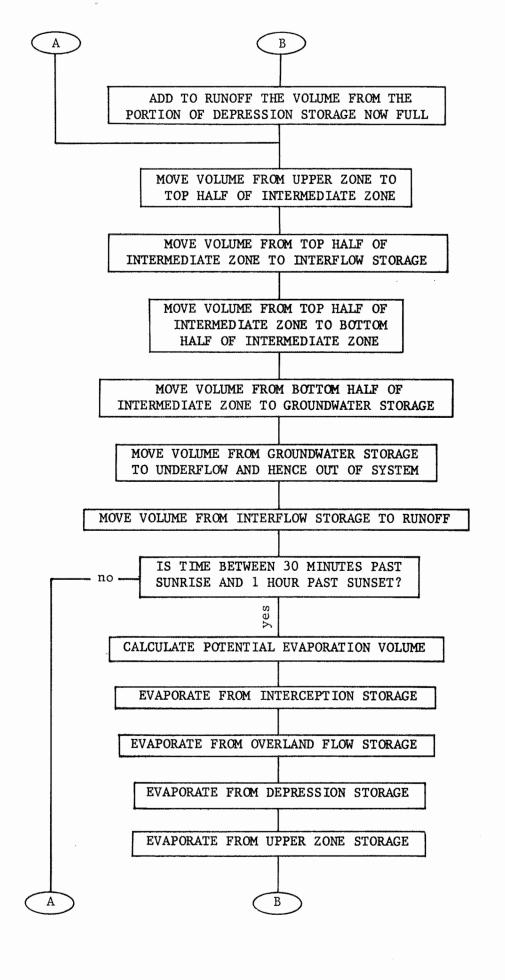
APPENDIX I

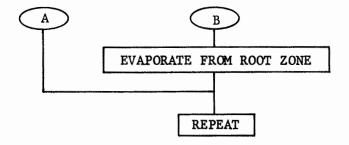
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110	LLi	FL(1) = 0.	119
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- 4	Ø	3F 0+(1,1)A	N
4-4	2	RA(1, J) #0.	S
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N)	.	MI TO	N
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3		K I	K B	. 3	32	3	3	3	3	E 2	3	_3	3	_3		<u> </u>	3	<u>_</u>	3	3	3	3		3	3	3	E .	3	.3	3	3	3	Z :	E E E E — H
00000	C - C E Z = C		250 CONTINUE	降原路科群群游游路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路路	NEW CALENDER YEAR	各种社会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会	IN (MONTH-13) 280°	260 JDTD=0	N C C X	N X	UBPY=365	每冷冷转冷将各特特特各特特特的 10000000000000000000000000000000000	EAP YEARS	而你你你看·母师我妈妈我你你你说我你你说话你你的话,你你的!	IF CMODICLYR,	270 JDPY=366	280 IDAYS#JDPM(MO	IF (MONTH-2) 310,290,3	90 IF (MOD(JYR,4)) 310,3	300 IDAYS=2	你你在好你好不会你我会会我会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会会	RUN EACH SEGMENT THROUGH	经经验条件条件条约条件法律条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件条件	310 IF (NEWVAL(MONTH)+IFIRST) 330,330,320	D 2310, KSFGMT, JRINT, ISEG1, ISEG2,	330 ISIZE=1440/JRIN	I PRECEUPREC (KSEGMT	YESDAY = CHNLG(DO 340 Im1,144	SIMFLO(I)=0	340 CONTINC	各位各种的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人的人	CONSTRUCT RUNDEF ARRAY FOR EACH DAY ON TAPE	DO 350 IHA IDAY
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4) III	127
4 4 9	350	30 B	(C)
5		F (NEWVAL(MONTH)*!F!RST) 430,430,360	
S	360	FAD 2320, PANFAC, ALPHA, RTZONF	
S		EAD 2280, IOPT1, IOPT2, IOPT3, IOPT4	
5		F (IRECON(KSEGMT)) 362, 363, 363	
5	36.2	0PT5 = 1	
S		n TO 364	Ø
S	5	WT 0 = 2 T40	
5	364	WI	8
5		F (10PT1-1) 380,370,380	€
S		EAD 2320, BASE	S
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\$	O	EAD 2280, IFILM	~
9	0	ML	~
\$		F (10PT3-1) 410,420,410	
S	₩	F (IOPT4±1) 430,420,430	1
S	0	FAD 2330, LTR. (NAMSEG(1), I=1,19)	
9	430	WT TNUE TAN	
S		F (JYR-IYR) 450,440,450	
9	4	F (MONTH=10) 450,750,450	
S	SC.	F (ISEG1) 680,680,460	
~	460	ONTINUE	
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	U	ASSIMULATE RUNOFF FROM UPSTREAM SEGMENT(S) INTO RUNOFF ARRAY TW	
		ON TAPE	
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	ပ	TIRST SEGMENT	
	\$ \$ \$ \$ \$	A. 一个个的,我们们的人,我们们的一个人,我们们的一个人,我们们们的一个人,我们们们的一个人的人,我们们们的一个人的,我们们们的一个人的人的人的,我们们们们的一个人的一个人的一个人的一个人的一个人的	
-		SWCH (10LD, INEW, 1SEGMT, KSEGMT, 1DAYS, SIMFLO)	
373		EWIND IOLD	Ø
1	470	EAD (IOLD) MONTH1, IA. JYR1, JSEGMT, IRINT, ISIZE, (SIMFLO(18), IB=1,144TW	
			00
4		ALL TAPCHK(1, 14, MONTH, MONTH1, JYR, JYR1, 1)	00 00
-		F (JSEGMT+1SEG1) 470,480,470	
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TWM (SIMFLO(18), 18=1,1440TWM (SIMFLO(18), 18=1,1440TWM		TEM TEMPLO(18), ISH1,144778	TWM E.(SIMFLO(IB), IB=1,14TWM TWM IZE,(SIMFLO(IB), IB=1,TWM	TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM	TZE, (PREC(IB), IB=1,14TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM TWM
IF (IRINT=JRINT) 490,500,490 CALL SHIFTT (JRINT, IRINT, SIMFLO) WRITE (INEW) MONTH1, I.JYR, KSEGMT, IRINT, ISIZE, 1) READ (IOLD) MONTH1, IA, JYR1, JSEGMT, IRINT, ISIZE,	CALL TAPCHK(I+1,IA,MONTH,MONTH1,JVR,JVR1,2) CONTINUE ************************************	IF (ISEG2) 680,680,520 CALL TPSWCH (IOLD, INEW, 1, KSEGMT, ID REWIND ISCRTH READ (IOLD) MONTH1, IA, JYR1, JSEGMT,	TE (INEW) MONTH (USEGMT+ISEGP)	1440) IF (JSEGMT+1-KSEGMT) 530,560,530 IF (IA-JDPM(MONTH1)) 530,570,530 REWIND ISCRTH DO 610 [#1,IDAYS READ (IOLD) MONTH1,IA,JYR1,JSEGMT,IRINT,IS	CALL TAPCHK(I,IA,MONTH,MONTH1,JYR,JYR1,3) READ (ISCRTH) MONTH1,IA,JYR1,JSEGMT,IRINT1,JS 140) CALL TAPCHK(I,IA,MONTH,MONTH1,JYR,JYR1,4) IF (IRINT1-JRINT) 580,580 CALL SHIFTT (JRINT,IRINT1,PREC) CONTINUE DO 600 II=1,ISIZE SIMFLO(II)=SIMFLO(II)+PREC(II)
64 R	* ·		540	550 570 570	8 8 9 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
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0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 4 10		UE (INEW) MONTH, I, JYR, KSEGMT, JRINT, ISIZE, (SIMFLO(IB), IB#1,1440) TWM UE	2000
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	630	C(1) 10.	4
		LAG+1	
210		L TPSWCH (10LD, INEW, ISEGMT, KSEGMT, IDAYS, SIMFLO)	200
€.	640	READ (IOLD) MONTH1, IA, JYR1, JSEGMT, JRINT, ISIZE, (SIMFLO(18), IR=1,144TWM	2
		¥3-	N
		650 IImIT, ISIZE	3
		ISIZE+T-II	M
		(IA)=SIMFLO(IA)	M
	1	FLO(IA)=SIMFLO(IA=LAG)	3
	650	TINDE	
		660 II=1,LAG	3
		FLO(11) =PREC(11)	M
	•	C(II) #TRS(ISIZE=LAG+II)	3
	099		M
		WRITE (INEW) MONTH, IA. JYR, KSEGMT, JRINT, ISIZE, (SIMFLO(18), 18=1,1440TWM	
		X3L	
∾ (-	(IA-IDAYS) 640,670,670	
\sim	70	CONTINUE	
	4	*****************	
	ပ	ADD FLOW GENERATED LAST MONTH, BUT NOT YET PAST STREAM GAUGING	
		STATION.	
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OTAL.APERVS,AOLF C3,C4,C5,C6,C7,C TPRM.U2ST,VI2ST, *12. *12. AMAX1(SMMIN,X) THI*AMAX1(SMMIN, OO,810.810.810	METERS WETERS ONTH, JYR TOTAL, APERVS, AOLF	CONMENDED A	11.2 11.4 11.6 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5
CHANCG, C1, C2 OPE, VLENGH, S IFIRST=0 DEPTHU=DEPTH X==C4 UZMIN=DEPTH VIZMIN=DEPTH VIZMIN=DEPTH VIZMIN=S+DE IF (ATOTAL)	PRINT 2970, PRINT 2980, PRINT		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
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BIZS=VIZST CONTINUE SSRAIN=0. SSIF=0. SSIF	BIZS=VIZST CONTINUE ***********************************	ZZZZ	EXE NO 444	E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E		EEEEEE EEEEEE	333333
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00 * * O * * * C		BIZSHVIZST CONTINUE ***********************************	4444444444444444444444444444444444444	SSOLFBO. SSOFBO. SSUFBO. SSUFBO. TRS(1)BO.	DAY LOOP REWIND 1 CALL TPSWCH (IOLD, INEW, FSEGMT DO 1530 IDAY=1, IDAYS READ(3)MONTH1, IAI, JYR1, KSEG	HEAD CIOLO MONINE IALLY RALLY EN CO. 10) CALL TAPONK MOAY MAY MAY WAS SEEN THE SEEN SEEN SEEN SEEN SEEN SEEN SEEN SE	DO 1000 I=1,JSIZE SIMFLO(I)=TRS(I)+SIMFLO(I) TRS(I)=0. CONTINUE IA=JSIZE+1 DO 1010 I=IA,1440

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1520 141,18176 NEPREC(1)-DELT AINESSRAIN-1000,1000,1000,1000 AINESSRAIN-2001,1000,1000,1000 AINESSRAIN-2001,1000,1000 I. ADJUST (RAIN.RD.X) I. ADJUST (RAIN.RD.XX) I. ADJUST (RAI
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CALL ADJUST (RAIN, RO.X) ***********************************

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CALL ADJUST (RAIN, VINSTG, AMIN4 (RAIN, VINSTMEVINSTG)) **********************************
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VERLIAND TLOW AND DETAIN VERTICAL VE
X1=(AOLFSF+AOLFDS)*RAIN OLSI#OLS ************************************
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RAIN = OVERLAND STORAGE TWM RAIN = OVERLAND STORAGE TWM CALL ADJUST (RAIN.OLS.X1) TWM 40 DSEDS+RAIN [F (DS=.0001) 11210-11210 TWM 41 TWM 41 TWM 42 TWM 44
RAIN = OVERLAND STORAGE ***********************************
CALL ADJUST (PAIN OLS X1) CALL ADJUST (PAIN OLS X1) TWM 40 DSHDS+RAIN IF (DS = .0001) 1100 .1110 TWM 40 TWM 40 IF (OLS = .0001) 1200 .1110 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 IF (OLS = .0001) 1200 .1110 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 41 TWM 41 TWM 41 TWM 40 TWM 41 TWM 40 T
CALL ADJUST (RAIN.OLS.X1) US=DS+RAIN IF (DS=.0001) 1100.1110 IF (OLS=.0001) 1200.1110 TWM 40 IF (OLS=.0001) 1200.1110 TWM 40 IF (OLS=.0001) 1200.1110 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 40 TWM 41 TWM 41 TWM 40
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₩-1	15 1710 CONTINUE		
	16 XK=C3*((UZS/DEPTHU+T17S/(.5*DEPTH1))*.5		
*	17 IF (XK) 1211, 1212, 121		5
v −i	18 1211 XX = 0.		ŝ
-	19 1212 PSIAH*C7*(U2S/DEPTHU+C8)++C9		5
	20 PSI2H=C7*(T12S/(.5*DEPTHI)+C8)**C9	Σ3-	5
\sim	XHXK*((PS11*PS12)/(,5*(,5*DEPFH]	FLT	454
\sim	22 IF (X) 1220,1280,125	A NAT	5
N.	X 1000 X 11 X		10
C	24 IF (X=(T17S	X 3	5
2	25 1230 X=T1ZS=VIZMIN	X	S
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######################################		ALL ADJUST (TIZS, DELINF, AMINE (VINFLO, TIZS-VIZMIN))	X
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### ##################################		MOVE FROM TOP TO BUTTOM IN INTERMEDIATE ZONE.	
CONTINUE XK=C3*((TIS+BI7S)/DEPTHI+C4)**C5*C6 1 XK = 0, XK=C3*((TIS+BI7S)/DEPTHI+C4)**C5*C6 1 XK = 0, X=XX**(PSI2-PSI1)/(.5*DEPTHI)*1.)*DELT YEX**(PSI2-PSI1)/(.5*DEPTHI)*1.)*DELT IF (X) 1310,1360,1340 X=XX**(PSI2-PSI1)/(.5*DEPTHI)*1.)*DELT IF (X=(BIZS-VIZMIN)) 1320,1330,1330 X=BIZS-VIZMIN) 1320,1330,1330 CALL ADJUST (BIZS,TIZS,X) CALL ADJUST (TIZS,BIZS,X) TWM 47 TWM 48 CONTINUE IF (X=(TIZS-VIZMIN)) 1350,1350 TWM 48 CONTINUE CONTINUE	-81	· 一条本场的存储的存储的设备设备的设备的设备的设备的设备的设备的设备的现在分词的现在分词的现在分词的现在分词的现在分词的 "我们们们们的现在分词的现在分词的现在分词 "我们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们们	
XK=C3+((Tizs+Bizs)/DEPTHI+C4)**C5+C6 IF (XK) 1301, 1302, 1302 1 F (XK) 1301, 1302, 1302 2 F X E 0			
## (XK) 1301, 1302, 1302, 1302 XK = 0.		"CS+((TIZS+BIZS)/DEPTHI+C4)**CS+C6	X
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# RECFLO(IK) *RECFLO(IK)
KFIRST
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                                                                                                                                                                                  X1Y1 = X1Y1 + RECFLOCIK) + TRS(IK)
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       PRINT 2790, (TRS(IK), IK=KFIRST, JJ)
IF (RECFLO(1+1)) 1730,1720,1730
                                            IF (RECFLO(1-1)) 1780,1770,1780
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       IF (JJ-KSECND) 1820,1830,1830
                                                                                                 IMINAMODICARINT*KFIRST, 60)
                                     IF (TRS(I-1)) 1780,1760,1780
                                                                                 IF (!OPT1-1) 1840,1790,1840
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PRINT 2520
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PRINT 2520
PRINT 2540, (SSF(I, J), Jafo, 12), (SSF(I, J), Jaf, 9), SSSF
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PRINT 2550,(SSF(I,J),J=10,12),(SSF(I,J),J=1,9),SSSF
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X=ATOTAL/12.
DO 2120 K=1,12
DO 2110 Ja1.12
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9 PRINT 2620, (SUF([,J),J=10,12),(SUF([,J),J=1,9),SSUF 0 PRINT 2620 1 PRINT 2630	PRINT 2640, (EOMING(I, J), JAIO, 12), (EOMING(I, J), JAI	TAIN NOUD (HORNORY I CONTRIBUTION OF THE STATE OF THE STA	A TRINI MOOD, (TOWON I. J., JENO, NO. (TOWON I. J.), JEN. R	A STATE OF THE STA	CONTRACTOR OF CALL TAILORD CONC ANAGO	A CHILD AND A CHILD AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AN	IF (10FTZ=1) 2240,2240	安格格格特格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格格	CONVERT FLOWS	○ 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2.	8 2140 CONTINUE	PRINT 249	PRINT 2710	3 PRINT 272	PPINT 273	5 DO 2180 Jel. 24	6 IF (ICASE(1, J)-1) 2160,2170,2170	7 2160 PRINT 2740, FLOINT(J), FLOINT(J+		60 10 2180	9 2170 X=ICASE(I,J)	AVGERRESUMERR(I, J)/	4 AVABER #SABSER 1. J.X	STDERFESORT (SEPRSO(1, J) SUMERR(1, J) SSUMERR(1, J) X) / (X 1	3 PRINT 2740, FLOINT(J), FLOINT(J+1), ICASE(I, J), AVGERR, A	4 2180 CONTINUE	5 IF (ICASE(1,25)) 2200,2190,22	6 2190 PRINT 2750, FLOINT(25), 1CASE(1	7 GO TO 2210	8 2200 X#ICASE(I,2	9 AVGERR#SUMERR(1,25)	0 AVABER=SARSER(1,25)/
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SE(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)/X)/(X-1,)) SE(1,25)*AV&BER,STDERR *J) *ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) *ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) *ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) *ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) *ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT) *ATOTAL+	RT((SERSO(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)/X)/(X-1.)) 0. FLOINT(25)*!CASE(1,25)*AVGERR,AVABER,STDERR 1.25 (J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) 1. COBFF 40.JRINT Y(1)*SUMY(1)*X) 0. CORRCO 1. SUMY(1)/X) 1. SORT((XX(1)*SUMX(1)/X)*(Y) 1. SUMX(1)/X) 1. SORT((XX(1)*SUMX(1)/X)) 1. SUMX(1)/X) 1. SORT((XX(1)*SUMX(1)/X)) 1. SUMX(1)/X) 1. SORT((XX(1)*SUMX(1)/X)) 1. SORT((XX(1)*SUMX(TDERR=SORT((SERSO(1.25)-SUMERR(1.25)*SUMERR(1.25)*SUMERR(1.25).X)/(x-1.)) RINT 2750, FLOINT(25); ICASE(1.25); AVGERR, AVABER, STDERR 0 2220 J=1.25 = x+WEIGH(J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1.J); ONTINUE COEFF = XMX(I)*SUMY(I)*XVMY(I)*XVMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*XVMX(I)*XVMX(I)*SUMX(I)*XVMX	PRINT 2750, FLOINT(25), ICASE(1,25), AVGERR, AVABER, STDERR X=0. DO 2220 J=1,25 X=2 X=X=WEIGH(J), FLOINT(25), ICASE(1,25), AVGERR, AVABER, STDERR DO 2220 J=1,25 CONTINUE COEFFSWEIFL(i), (X=AVINFL+ATOTAL+60, S/FLOAT(JRINT)) PRINT 2766, COEFF X=JDF9+1440/JRINT COERCO=(XY(I)-SUMY(I)/X)) PRINT 2770, COEFF X=JDF9+1440/JRINT COERCO=(XY(I)-SUMY(I)/X)) PRINT 2770, COEFF X=JDF9+1440/JRINT COERCO=(XY(I)-SUMY(I)/X)) PRINT 2770, COEFF X=JDF9+1440/JRINT COEFFSWEIFL(I)=0. SUMY(I)=0. XY(I)=0. XY(I)=0	X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X		(ox	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	X		X X	K	(N)	S S	X Z	Z Z	C C	X.	(A)	Z Z	N N	M 00 X	M M M M	M K X X	M & 3	MX XX	X	E S	N X	X 3	N X X X	<u></u>	T T	X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X	Z Z
SECT. 25) AVGERR, AVABER, STDERR J); ATOTAL+60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) ALYSIS CANNOT BE PERFORMED WITHO	RI((SERRSO(1,25) SUMERR(1,25) SUMERR(1,25) X)/(X-0) FLOINT(25) ICASE(1,25) AVGER, AVABER, STDERR (1) X COEFF (1) *FLOAT(ICASE(1, J)) IFL(1) / (X + AVINFL + ATOTAL + 60,5 / FLOAT(JRINT)) (1) *SUMX(1) + SUMY(1) / X) / SGRT((XX(1) - SUMX(1) + SUMX(1) + SUMX(1) + SUMX(1) / X)) (1) *SUMY(1) / X)) (2) *COEFF (3) *CORRCO (4) *CORRCO (5) *CORRCO (6) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (8) *CORRCO (9) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (2) *CORRCO (3) *CORRCO (4) *CORRCO (5) *CORRCO (6) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (8) *CORRCO (9) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (2) *CORRCO (3) *CORRCO (4) *CORRCO (5) *CORRCO (6) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (8) *CORRCO (9) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (2) *CORRCO (3) *CORRCO (4) *CORRCO (5) *CORRCO (6) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (7) *CORRCO (8) *CORRCO (9) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (1) *CORRCO (2) *CORRCO (3) *CORRCO (4) *CORRCO (5) *CORRCO (6) *CORRCO (7) *CO	STDERR=SORT((SERSO(1,25)=SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)/X)/(X-PRINT 2750, FLOINT(25)=ICASE(1,25)*AVGERR,AVABER,STDERR	210 KERESORT((SERRSO(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)XX)/(X-X-0)*CORT(CSC)*ICASE(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)XX)/(X-X-0)*CORT(CORT(U)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J))*CORT(CORT(U)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J))*CORT(CORT(U)*SUMY(I)*SUMY(I)*SUMY(I)*SUMY(I)*SUMY(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*SUMX(I)*CORT(CORT(U)*	_	٠		,	,		*		j										-					-		-		ECOR	•	•	
SUMERR(I.25)*SUMERR(I.25)/X SE(I.25)*AVGERR,AVABER,STDE J); ATOTAL=60.5/FLOAT(JRINT)) ALYSIS CANNOT BE PERFORMED IGNORED.)	RT((SERRSO(1,25).#CASE(1,25).#SUMERR(1,25)XX 0. FLOINT(25).#CASE(1,25).#VGERR,#VABER.#TDE #1,25 (J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) 0. COEFF 40/JRINT Y(!)=SUMY(!)/X)) 0. CORRCO #1,15EGMT *1,15	STDERR=SORT((SERRSO(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*XVGERR,AVABER(1,25)XX=0, X=0, X=0, D0 2220 J=1,25 COEFF=SWEIGH(J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) CONTINUE COFFF=SWEIGH(J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) COFFF=SWEIGH(J)*SUMY(I)XYXSQRT((XX(I)*SUMX(I))* Y(I)*SUMY(I)*SUMY(I)XYX) PRINT 2770*CORRCO CONTINUE D0 2250 I=1,ISEGMT SUMX(I)=0. XY(I)=0	STDERR=SORT((SERRSO(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)X PRINT 2750, FLOINT(25)*ICASE(1,25)*AVGERR,AVABER,STDE DO 2220 J=1,25 X=X+WEIGH(J)*FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) COFFT 2760, COFFT X=JDPY*1440/JRINT COFFT 2760, COFFT XX(1)=0, XX	~ a			•		,	-)																				OH L			
SECT. 25) + SUMERR (1.25) + SU	#1,25 (J) *FLOAT(1CASE(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*AVGERR #1,25 (J) *FLOAT(1CASE(1,J)) #1,25 (J) *COEFF #1,25 (J) *COEFF #1,25 (J) *CORFC #1,25 (J)	STDERRESORT (SERRSO(1,29) *SUMERR(1,29) *SU NEINT 2750 FLOINT(25) *ICASE(1,29) *AVGERR NEO 2220 Jet.25 COBFFESWEIFL(1) *FLOAT(ICASE(1,J)) COBFFESWEIFL(1) *(X*AVINFL*ATOTAL*60.5/FLO COBFFESWEIFL(1) *COEFF CORRCO=(XY(1) = SUMY(1) /X)) CORRCO=(XY(1) = SUMY(1) /X)) CORRCO=(XY(1) = SUMY(1) /X)) CORRCO=(XY(1) = O. CONTINUE CONTINUE SUMERR(1,J) = O. SUMERR(1,J) =	SIDERR=SORT((SERRSO(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*SUMERR(1,25)*AVGERR	ERR(1,25)/X						W W W											`										PERFORMED			
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INPUT CARDS

Card Number	Variables	Format	Comment Code
1	ISEGMT, ITAPE, IYR, LRY, MASS	514	
2A, 2B	JPREC(1, 2,ISEGMT)	2014	
3A, 3B,	<pre>IRECOD(1, 2,ISEGMT)</pre>	2014	a
4	ISTGAG, KSEGMT, WFSG	214, F4.3	a
5	N, UNIT, MAT(1, 2,16)	14, F6.0, 16A4	a, b
6А, бв,	IYEAR, IMONTH, IDAY, IHOUR(1), SCRAP(1), IHOUR(2), SCRAP(2)IHOUR(N), SCRAP(N), MDF	MAT	a, b
7	blank card to terminate Card 6	series	a, b
8	LOOK, MAT(1, 2,16)	14, 16A4	a, c
9A, 9B,	SCRAP(1, 2,IDAYS)	MAT	a, c
10	JRINT	14	a, d
11	N, UNIT, MAT(1, 2,16)	14, F6.0, 16A4	a, b, d
12A, 12B	IYEAR, IMONTH, IDAY, IHOUR(1), SCRAP(1), IHOUR(2), SCRAP(2)IHOUR(N), SCRAP(N), MDF	MAT	a, b, d
13	blank card to terminate Card 12	2 series	a, b, d
14	IRUN	14	
15	XLAT, XLONG, CORTZ	3F10.0	
16	SCRAP(2, 3,13)	12F6.0	e
17	TRANPO(1, 2,12)	12F6.0	e

Card Number	Variables	Format	Comment Code
18	NEWVAL(1, 2,12)	1214	k
19	KSEGMT, KRINT, ISEG1, ISEG2, NRELEM, LAG, C(1, 2, NRELEM)	I2, I4, 2(I2, 4X), I2, I4, 14F4.0	
20	PANFAC, ALPHA, RTZONE	3F10.0	f
21	IOPT1, IOPT2, IOPT3, IOPT4	514	f
22	BASE	F10.0	f, g
23	IFILM	14	f, h
24	LTR, NAMSEG(1, 2,19)	12, 2X, 19A4	f, i
25A	ATOTAL, APERVS, AOLFSF, AOLFDS, DSMAX, VINSTM, DEPTHI, DEPTHU	8F10.0	f
25B	CHANLG, C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, C7	8F10.0	f
25C	C8, C9, C10, C11, C12, C13, C14, C15	8F10.0	f
25D	ROUGH, SLOPE, VLENGH, SATPRM, UZST, VIZST, C16, SMMIN	8F10.0	f
26	TIZS1, BIZS1, OLS1, DS1, UZS1, GWS1, DELIN1, VINST1	8F10.0	f, j

Comments:

- a. This card(s) should be omitted if ITAPE = 0
- b. This card(s) read by subroutine DATAIN and is repeated for each month
- c. This card(s) read by subroutine DATAMG and should be omited when ISTGAG \geq 0
- d. This card(s) should be omitted for IRECOD(KSEGMT) ≥ 0
- e. This card contains the monthly pan evaporation
- f. Omit for NEWVAL(MONTH) = 0 except for October of the first water year

Comments continued:

- g. Omit Top IOPT. / 1
- h. Omit for IOPT3 \neq 1
- i. Omit when both IOPT1 and IOPT4 \neq 1
- j. Initial values for each segment
- $k_{\:\raisebox{1pt}{\text{\circle*{1.5}}}}$ NEWVAL must not be zero when more than one segment is involved

PREPARATION OF RAINFALL DATA

Rainfall data may be supplied in either an accumulated amount for the day (as read from a weighing type rain gauge) or in intensity.

The parameter MASS, read on card 1 signifies which type record is to be processed:

MASS = 1 for accumulated record

MASS \neq 1 for intensity type record.

The Parameter UNIT, read on card 5 is the constant needed to convert the rainfall record to units of inches per hour. When an accumulated type record is supplied with volume in inches and time in hours and minutes (military time), the value of UNIT is one.

The month, day, and year occupy the first three fields of the precipitation card. The time of the beginning of the precipitation followed by a zero are next. Time of observation and amount of observation alternate until the end of the card is reached. The last column of the card must be read, and must not contain a \$ symbol except for cards containing mean daily values (see section on Preparation of Streamflow Data). When a storm cannot be punched on one card, the following card must contain the month, day, and year information. The observation time and amount alternate across the card as for the first card.

When a storm extends past midnight, a value must be supplied at 2400 hours. The following day's amounts should start at zero for weighing type gauges.

A blank card terminates each month's data.

PREPARATION OF STREAMFLOW DATA

Subroutine DATAIN reads both precipitation and streamflow; consequently, the material in the preceeding section is also true for streamflow data. The parameter UNIT is the number needed to convert the input data into units of cubic feet per second.

Mean daily flows may be read in by means of a special symbol, the \$ symbol, in the last field of the card. The first three fields must contain the month, the day corresponding to the first mean daily flow on this card, and the year. The remainder of the card to the last field may be filled with the day in the field normally occupied by the time and the day's mean daily flow values in the amount field. If the string of days for which mean daily flows are to be entered exceeds a single card, the next card must contain the same type information as the first. Cards containing mean daily flow and detailed streamflow may be mixed as desired. The special symbol differentiates between the two.

APPENDIX II

GLOSSARY OF MAIN PROGRAM VARIABLES

AD()	An array containing the apparent declination of the sun
ALPHA	The input variable determining the ability of the soil to deliver moisture to the surface for evaporation
AOLFDS	Area producing overland flow to Depression Storage as a fraction of the total pervious area in the watershed
AOLFSF	Area producing overland flow to stream as a fraction of the total pervious area of the watershed
APERVS	Pervious area as a fraction of the total area in the watershed
ATOTAL	Total area in the watershed, negative if in square miles positive if in acres
AVABER	Average absolute error
AVGERR	Average error
AVINFL	Average interval flow in inches per time interval
В	A symbol used in the on line plot operation
BASE	The value of stream flow, in c.f.s., below which everything is considered to be base flow; no storm analysis or plots are given for these low flows
BIZS	Bottom Intermediate Zone Storage, in inches
BIZS1	The value of Bottom Intermediate Zone Storage at the beginning of the month
BLANK	A symbol used in the on line plot operation
C()	An array containing the elements of the time delay histogram
CARRYO(,)	An array containing the flow generated in one month but which occurs as stream flow during the next month
CHANLG	Channel lag, the ratio of this routing interval's flow to the last routing interval's flow

CHNLG()	An array containing the flow lagged in the channel lagging operation during the last time increment of the day
COEFF	The coefficient of weighted absolute errors
CORRCO	The correlation coefficient for flow on a routing interval time base
CORREC	A correction for the rising and setting of the sun due to the location of the watershed with respect to the principal meridan
CORTZ	A correction for time zone when the basin is in the wrong time zone with respect to the actual location of the time zone boundaries
COSH	The cosine of the angle H in an equation for the rising and setting of the sun taken from page 403, Explanatory Supplement to the Ephemeris
C1, C2	Constants in the infiltration equation
C3, C4, C5	Constants in the equation for determining the unsaturated permeability
C7, C8, C9	Constants in the equation for defining the capillary potential
C10	The fraction of the Top Intermediate Zone which must be filled before transfer to Interflow Storage
C11, C12	Constants in the equation for flow from groundwater to the stream
C13	Constant in the equation for flow from groundwater to underflow
C14, C15	Constants in the equation used to lag flow through Interflow Storage
c 16	Constant in the equation for transfer of water from Top Intermediate Zone to Interflow Storage
DAILYF()	Simulated mean daily flow
DELINF	The volume of water stored in Interflow Storage
DELIN1()	The volume of water in Interflow Storage at the beginning of the month

DELT	The time, in hours, of the basic operation cycle
DELTA	Angle of declination of the sun used in computing the time of sunrise and sunset, and is computed from AD()
DEPTHI	Thickness of Intermediate Zone, in feet
DEPTHU	Thickness of Upper Zone, in feet
DS	Depression Storage, in inches
DSMAX	Maximum Depression Storage, in inches
DS1()	The Depression Storage at the beginning of the month
EOMGW(,)	End of month Groundwater Storage
EOMINC(,)	End of month Interception Storage
EOMINF(,)	End of month Interflow Storage
EOMINT(,)	End of month Intermediate Zone Storage
EOMSUR(,)	End of month Surface Storage, the sum of Overland Flow Storage and Depression Storage
EOMUZ(,)	End of month Upper Zone Storage
ERR	The difference between simulated flow and recorded flow for the time interval
ET	The time of the day when the sun is directly overhead; used in computing sunrise and sunset
EVAPOT	Evaporation potential for period, in inches
EVAP1()	A constant in a parabolic interpolation equation for evaporation from monthly data

EVAP2() See EVAP1()

EVAP3() See EVAP1()

E1, E2, E3,
E4, E5 Constants in evaporation rate equation from van Bavel's data

FLOINT() Flow interval used in statistical analysis, based on logarithmic increments

FLOMAX The maximum flow to be plotted

GWS Groundwater Storage

GWS1() The Groundwater Storage at the beginning of the month

H One half of the daylight hours, used in computing

sunrise and sunset

HOUR The hour of the day, used in computing the evaporation

potential rate

I An index

IA An index

IAI Dummy variable used in place of the day of the month

when reading data from tape or disks

IB An index

ICASE(,) The number of cases of flow within each class for each

segment

IDAY An index corresponding to days of the month

IDAYS The number of days in the month being processed

IFILM A flag used to signal use of film for plotting (IFILM = 1)

IFIRST A flag used to indicate if the current month is October

of the first year (IFIRST = 1)

IFLAG A flag which is set to 1 if flow above BASE is

encountered during the month in the simulated flow

IHOUR()
An array used to store on a temporary basis the time of

occurrence of rainfall and runoff events being read

from cards

IHOURS The time of beginning of runoff from a storm

II An index

IK An index

IMIN The minutes portion of the time

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IOPT1	If 1, print out simulated flow on a time base of JRINT
	for all flows above a base flow, BASE

IOPT2 If 1, print statistical data

IOPT3 If 1, plot storm hydrographs on Calcomp plotter

IOPT4 If 1, plot monthly stream flow

IOPT5 If 1, recorded streamflow available on tape 3

IPREC() The time base, in minutes, to be used in preparing the precipitation tape

IR Variable denoting position of the recorded flow in the on line plot routine

IRINT A dummy variable used in place of JRINT when reading tape or disk

IRINT1 The routing interval, in minutes, of the segment just upstream of the segment being processed

IRUN A flag to indicate if a run is to be made (IRUN = 1)

IS Variable denoting position of the simulated flow in the on line plot routine

ISCRTH The scratch tape number, specified as unit 1

ISEGMT The number of segments to be processed each month

ISEG1 Segment number of upstream segment

ISEG2 Segment number of upstream segment

ISIZE The number of IPREC time units in the month

ISTGAG The number of storage gauges in the segment

IT The time period, in minutes, of the basic cycle

ITAPE If ITAPE is 1, the precipitation tape is to be prepared

IYR The first year of the first water year to be processed

J An index

JAD An index

JDPM() An array containing the days of the months

JDPY Days per year

JDTD Days to Date

JFIRST A dummy variable used to protect the value of KFIRST

during the printing of the individual storms

JJ The number of values of simulated flow to be printed on

one line

JPLOT() The array used to store the symbols for printing the on

line plot

JPREC() The time base, in minutes, to be used in preparing the

precipitation tape

JRINT The time period, in minutes, to be used in simulating the

streamflow, hence the routing interval

JRINT1 A dummy variable used in place of JRINT when reading tape

or disc

JSEGMT The counter for the number of segments which have been

processed

JSIZE A dummy variable used in place of ISIZE when reading

tape or disks

JYR The year being processed

JYR1 A dummy variable used in place of JYR when reading tape

or disks

K An index

KFIRST	The	location	in	the	SIMFLO	array	of	the	first	element
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of a string of elements characterized by magnitudes

greater than BASE

KSECND The location of the last element in the string described

under KFIRST

KSEGMT The number of the segment being processed

LAG The time of flow through the segment in units of JRINT

minutes

LINE The counter of the number of lines printed in the on

line plot

LOOP The number of basic cycles in a day

LTR The number of letters to be plotted as the name of the

segment

LYR The second year of the last water year to be processed

MASS Equal 1 if precipitation data is from weighing gauge and

hence is in form of sum of rain to date

MAT() A variable format used to read in data

MONTH The month being processed, January equal 1

MONTH1 A dummy variable used in place of MONTH when reading

tape or disks

NAMSEG() The array containing the name of the segment to be plotted

under the plot of stream flow

NEWVAL() An array used to control the reading of new data. When

NEWVAL is zero for a particular month, the physical parameters from the last month will be used. Can be

used only when one segment is being modeled

NRELEM The number of routing elements, C

OFSAVG Average Overland Flow Storage for the period

OFSEQU Equilibrium Overland Flow Storage

OLF Overland Flow, in inches

OLS Overland Flow Storage, in inches

OLSI	Overland Flow Storage at beginning of current period, in inches
OLS1()	Overland Flow Storage at the beginning of the month
PANFAC	A coefficient to be multiplied by the monthly pan evaporation to obtain monthly evaporation potential
POTEVP	The potential evaporation for a day
PREC()	The array containing the precipitation data, sometimes used for scratch storage
PSI1, PSI2	The capillary potential in the various soil zones
R	The symbol used for recorded flow in the on line plot routine
RAIN	The volume of water falling in the time period, in inches
RECFLO()	The recorded stream flow, may be any units, convert with UNIT, of the subroutine DATAIN
RO	The volume of runoff generated in the segment during the current time period
ROUGH	Manning's roughness factor for overland flow
RTZONE	The thickness of the root zone in inches
S	The symbol used for simulated flow in the on line plot routine
SABSER(,)	The sum of the absolute value of the error for the segment for the flow interval
SATPRM	The saturated permeability of the soil, in inches per hour
SCRAP()	An array used for temporary storage when reading data cards
SDAYFL	The volume of runoff for one day, in inches
SEEP	The infiltration volume for the time period in inches
SERRSQ(,)	The sum of the square of the errors for the segment for the flow interval

SEVAP(,)	The sum of the evaporation for the segment for the month, in inches
SGWF(,)	The sum of the groundwater flow for the segment for the month, in inches
SIF(,)	The sum of infiltration for the month, in inches
SIMFLO()	The volume of stream flow in acre-inches for the time period
SLOPE	The slope of overland flow
SMMIN	The minimum soil moisture for all zones, in inches 3 per inch 3
SOLF(,)	The sum of overland flow for the segment for the month, in inches
SRAIN(,)	The sum of precipitation for the segment for the month, in inches
SSEVAP	A dummy variable used to accumulate the monthly sum of evaporation, and again to accumulate the annual sum of evaporation
SSF()	Monthly sum of streamflow for the segment, initially in inches, converted to second-feet days, and then to acrefeet
SSGWF	Dummy variable used to accumulate groundwater flow for month and later for year
SSIF	Dummy variable used to accumulate monthly sum and then annual sum of interflow
SSOLF	Dummy variable used to accumulate monthly sum and then annual sum of overland flow
SSRAIN	Dummy variable used to accumulate monthly sum and then annual sum of precititation
SSSF	Dummy variable used to accumulate monthly sum and then annual sum of stream flow
SSUF	Dummy variable used to accumulate monthly sum and then annual sum of underflow
STDERR	Standard error of estimate of the simulated flow

SUF(,)	The monthly sum of underflow for the segment
SUMERR(,)	The sum of the error for the segment for the flow interval
SUMX()	The sum of the simulated flow for the segment for the year
SUMY()	The sum of the recorded flow for the segment for the year
SWEIFL()	Sum of the weighted absolute error for the segment for the year
TB	The time of beginning of evaporation, in hours
TE	The time of ending of evaporation, in hours
TM	The time of maximum evaporation, in hours
TIZS	Top Intermediate Zone Storage, in inches
TIZS1()	The Top Intermediate Zone Storage at the beginning of the month, in inches
TRANPO()	The difference between pan evaporation and consumptive use for each month
TRS()	A scratch array used at various parts of the program to hold precipitation or streamflow data temporarily
UNDFLO	Accumulator for water assigned to underflow
UZMIN	Minimum moisture in Upper Zone Storage, in inches
UZD	Upper Zone Storage, in inches
UZST	The total Upper Zone Storage available, in inches
UZS1()	The Upper Zone Storage at the beginning of the month, in inches
VINFLO	The volume of water transferred from Intermediate Zone
	Storage to Interflow Storage in any time period, in inches
VINSTG	

VINST1()	Interception storage at the beginning of the month, in inches
VIZMIN	Minimum Moisture in either half of Intermediate Zone, in inches
VIZST	Maximum intermediate Zone Storage, in inches
VLENGH	The length of overland flow, in feet
WEIGH()	The weighting factors assigned to each flow interval in the statistical analysis. Defined as the logarithm of the midpoint of the interval plus one
WFSG	Weighting factor for the storage gauge
X	A dummy floating point variable
XK	The unsaturated permeability in the various soil zones, in inches per hour
XLAT	The latitude of the basin, in degrees
XLONG	The longnitude of the basin, in degrees
XTCKS	The spacing of tick marks on the time axis of the plot (Calcomp plot routine)
XP	One of the scale values printed on the on line plot
XX()	The sum of the square of the simulated stream flow
XY()	The sum of the product of the simulated stream flow and the measured flow $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) \left(1\right) +\left(1\right) \left(1\right) \left(1\right) +\left(1\right) \left(1\right$
X1	The volume of rain reaching the two areas producing overland flow; the accumulator for individual storm simulated flow
X11	The accumulator for the monthly simulated flow
X12	The accumulator for the monthly recorded flow
X2	The accumulator for the individual storm recorded flow
X4	A dummy floating point variable

A dummy floating point variable

Y

YESDAY	The value of the lagged portion of the streamflow generated during the last time increment of the previous day
ΥP	One of the scale values printed on the on line plot
YY()	The sum of the square of the measured stream flow
Y1	A factor used in converting inches per time period to c.f.s.
ZP	One of the scale values printed on the one line plot

Billy Joe Claborn was born in Brown County, Texas, on June 17, 1930, the son of Pearl Leona Chambers Claborn and Garnet Weldon Claborn. Upon completion of his work at Leverett's Chapel High School, Overton, Texas, in 1948, he studied for one year at Draughon's Business College in Dallas, Texas. He spent his freshman year at East Texas State Teachers College, and was drafted into the Army in February, 1951, after completing one semester of work at Kilgore Junior College. Discharged in February 1953, he entered Texas Technological College that fall, and received a Bachelor of Science in Civil Engineering in May, 1956. He married Nancy Ann Keele in 1954. Following a summer of employment with the City of Lubbock, he entered Stanford University in the fall of 1956 and received a Master of Science degree in June, 1957. Employment with Kern County Land Company in Bakersfield, California, was accepted following graduation from Stanford and continued until 1961. During this period two sons were born, Garnett Weldon II, and Forrest Jay. The next two years were spent in Denver, Colorado, in the employ of Tipton and Kalmbach, Inc., Consulting Engineers. During this period a third son, Mitchell Lee, was born. Appointment to the faculty of Texas Technological College, School of Engineering, Department of Civil Engineering with the rank of Assistant Professor became effective September, 1963. A leave of absence was obtained for the academic years 1966-67, 1967-68 to pursue the doctoral degree at The University of Texas at Austin. Course work was completed during this two year period. A daughter, Alison Jane was added to the family. Teaching duties at Texas

Technological College were resumed in September, 1968, with the rank of Associate Professor. Publications consists of the following:

"Testing and Maintaining Deep Wells" with Mel Jans. Presented at Northwest Well Drillers Association Meeting, 1959.

"Tolerable Water Shortages During Droughts for Various Uses"
Texas Water Commission Bulletin 6512, 1965.

"The Stanford Watershed Model as a Tool for Estimating Continuous Streamflow Hydrographs" with Walter L. Moore. Presented at the Spring Meeting Texas Section, American Society of Civil Engineers, Houston, Texas, 1968.

"Application of Continuous Accounting Techniques to Evaluate the Effects of Small Structures on Mukewater Creek, Texas" with Erdal Coskun and Walter L. Moore. Presented at the Conference on The Effects of Watershed Changes on Streamflow, Austin, Texas, 1968.

"Numerical Simulation of Watersheds Using Physical Soil Parameters" with Walter L. Moore. Presented at the Thirteenth Congress of the International Association of Hydraulic Research, Kyoto, Japan, 1969.

"Numerical Model of the Ogallala as a Management Tool" with T. Al Austin and D. M. Wells. Presented at the Ogallala Aquifer Symposium at Lubbock, Texas, 1970.

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This dissertation was typed by Patricia L. Harris.