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BSAM: Basin Simulation Assessment Model Documentation and User Manual

Utah Water Research Laboratory

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Introduction

The river basin hydrologic simulation model is an evolutionary version of the model orginally developed by the UWRL for simulating the streamflow of the Bear River basin in Utah. Variations of the same basic model have been used to simulate many watersheds and river basins in the Western United States, Mexico, and South American. The underlying concept of the model is that of conservation of mass for a monthly time interval. This is represented by the equation of continuity,

Inflow - Outflow = Change in storage. A mathematical description of the various hydrologic components of the continuity equation and the routing processes utilized in the model is included in Appendix A. The computer implementation of the model also incorporates a modified pattern search algorithm to

aid in the calibration phase of the modeling process. A description. of this algorithm as applied to a river basin model is given in the paper, "A Self-Verifying Hybrid Computer Model of River-Basin Hydrology," by R. W. Hill, E. K. Israelsen, A. L. Huber, and J. P. Riley at the Seventh American Water Resources Conference, Washington, D. C., 'October 24-28, 1971.

Figure 1 shows the structure and interrelationship between the main program, BSAM, and the major subprograms. Detailed instructions for using the program and preparing the input-data are given in the following sections. A card listing of the input data for a typical run and the resulting output is given in Appendix B. The FORTRAN computer program is listed in Appendix C.

Figure 1. Structure and Interrelationship between BSAM and major
subprograms.

After the computer model has been compiled and stored in an executable form, operational control and I/O options are determined by the four variables, ITY, IPL, IPRT, and ICOL punched in the first card of the input data deck. Execution control options are shown schematically in Figure 2 and a deck setup for a typical calibration run is shown in Figure 3. Table gives instructions for preparing the input data. Table 2 describes all of the model parameters and Table 3 identifies each line of the output tables. Figure 4 shows keypunch coding sheets prepared for a typical simulation run.

Figure 2. Schematic Diagram of the Execution Control Options for BSAM

Figure 3. Card Deck Setup for a Typical Simulation Run

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3

4-8 9-18 19-28 NLL PLL PHL

14 EI0.5 EI0.5

D. Reservoir parameter cards (Called with ITY = 1, IPL = 3 or 4). These cards are not included if IRES=0, which indicates that there is no reservoir in the subbasin.

i.

Note: If NPS = 1 then will only read one type 2 card and return to read another type 1 card. If NPH is outside the range of (1-5) then will return to read a program option control card.

Number of steps in the search Lower boundary for parameter L Upper boundary for parameter L

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Table 3. Information printed in the output array

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 $1 \quad 1 \quad 0$ R S

- VAR OCT NOV DEC JAN F68 MAR. - APR NAY JUN JLY AUG SEP ANN.
FHR TEMP - PRECIPSNOW MLTSNOW STR - PHR ETCROP PETCROP AET - SM STRRIVER IN TRIB IN UNG INCHR RPSM URB SEE PUMP INRIVER GUR PHR SUR WTR AVL MAT DIV. MAT RET CHL PIN COMP QUTEASE OUT DIFFRES EVAP RES INRES AREA REQ REL ACT REL CNL RELRES EXPT TOT RELEOM STROCHS STRE

PDL . 0783.0688.0674.0672.0682.0834.0887.0985.0989.1005.0944.0837

1ALFALFA . 980.074.0682.08368.0949.0985.0989.1005.0944.0837

2PAS+0HAY . 96 .73 .60 .56 .65 .65 .90 .92 .99 /.03 (.01 .94 .93

3SPR GRU .25 .25 .25 .25 .25 22 JUNEAU 2 1.35 1.02 - 75 - 65 - 80 1.13 1.36 1.92 1.82 1.82 1.83 1.83 1.83 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.94 1.84 1.95 1.84 1201 7 1972 | SAN JUAN ABOVE BLUFF
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CROPT CONT B 1400 9 0 10 0 11 0 12 0 13
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22141110000000

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1.39 1.22 1.66 10 10 10 00 00 00 13 15 10 01 72 CORTEZ, COLD. **72 BLUFF, UTAN** $(SXI2, I2F6.0)$ 723680 3 61.28 44.29 85.51116.30104.70126.10 62.39 83.20 99.63 13.64 26.21 46.08 $(652, 1206.0)$ 723685.0 878. 863. 447. 353. 355. 4160. 1900. 323.0. 2820. 670. 390. 570. 7236990 9 120 , 185 , 150 , 120 , 140 , 1200 , 490 , 720 , 790 , 71 , 51 , 105 ,
 7236950 52 , 82 , 62 , 46 , 40 , 620 , 280 , 250 , $1/0$, 52 , $1/$, 28 , 72 EMP & BBOO. BBOO. 5500. $0.7400.17800.29700.24400.10600.4900.5000.$ \boldsymbol{o} . $(6xyz, 12F6.0)$ 7237100 2120 1590 2060 1010 1480 1090 - 94 $79 187$ $76 - 228$ \bullet $(6xL2, 12F6.0)$ 72 CD7 0 17000 850 810 760 760 8730 35435 77375 65170 84140 24243 20.695 (6XI2,12F6.0)
726W6 0 4311 296 166 136 113 60 1417 5296 3739 3222 3944 4571 $(612, 1256, 0)$ 723745 3 44.53 59.20110.20 119.2 109.5 119.5 64.61 81.10 118.1 17.08 30.60 56.33 \mathbf{z} 0 0 1 $60 - 10$ 0.75 $1.4 - 04$ **LOTH** , , , , , , , , , , , , , $0, 0, 0,$ ρ , q , CMS $\boldsymbol{\rho}$. a. \bullet $\mathbf{0}_{\perp}$ Δ. 5.00 θ . $.40$ $2.6.$ $30.$ $1000.15000.$ \bullet . 4.0 3.0 ϵ . \mathcal{L} \boldsymbol{o} . θ . $.05$ θ . $.6$ \cdot 6 $.5$ 1.9 \mathbf{L} \bullet . o. θ . \boldsymbol{o} . \mathbf{o} . \mathcal{L} \pmb{o} . $\overline{1}$ \overline{L} $\overline{ }$ λ \mathcal{L} \mathcal{L} θ . $\overline{3}$ θ . \mathfrak{o} . \mathbf{z} \mathcal{L} \mathbf{z} \mathfrak{o} . \mathbf{a} \mathbf{v} \mathcal{O}_{λ} \mathcal{L} о. Coding Slast for Spangh (Continued) $\overline{}$ <u>ද</u> \mathbb{R}^2 ta iz $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ α , \mathfrak{o} . \boldsymbol{o} . \mathbf{c} . α . $\mathfrak{o}.$ \boldsymbol{o} . $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. \mathbf{a} $6 - 101$ $3\quad 2\quad 0$ $\overline{}$ $5/10$ 5.0 0.0 $10000...$ 6 20 agoo. المتفورة المستوقف المتار $=$ -4 $15000.$ 25000.0 20 (blank card) \mathbf{r}

Figure 4. Keypunch Coding Sheets Prepared for a Typical Simulation Run

Model Requirements

The fundamental requirements of a computer model of a hydrologic system are:

1. It simulates on a continuous basis all important processes and relationships within the system it represents.

2. It is non-unique with respect to space. This implies that it can be easily applied to different geographic areas with existing hydrologic data.

3. It is capable of answering questions concerning perturbations in the system or of accurately predicting outputs resulting from varying input and process parameters.

The Conceptual Model

The basis of the hydrologic model is a fundamental and logical mathematical representation of the various hydrologic processes and routing functions. These physical processes are not specific to any particular geography, but rather are applicable to any hydrologic unit. Experimental and analytical results can be used to assist in testing and establishing some of the mathematical relationships included within the model. Under a model verification procedure, equation constants are established which calibrate or fit the model for a particular drainage area. Average values of hydrologic quantities needed for model verification were estimated in one of three ways: (1) From available data, (2) by statistical correlation techniques, and (3) through verification of the model.

A flow diagram of the hydrologic system is shown by Figure A-I. As this flow chart indicates, the total input to a subbasin is the combination of surface and subsurface inflows of water obtained by summing river and tributary inflows, precipitation, groundwater inflows, and imports from other basins. Depletions from the subbasins occur through evapotranspiration, municipal and industrial consumption, and exports. The residual quantity is a combination of surface and subsurface outflow of water from the area. Subsurface flows may undergo various time delays as they move through the system.

Figure A-I. Flow Diagram of the Hydrologic System

The Hydrologic Balance

A dynamic system consists of three basic components, namely the medium or media acted upon, a set of constraints, and an energy supply or driving force. In a hydrologic system, water in any one of its physical states is the medium of interest. The constraints are applied by the physical nature of the hydrologic basin, and the driving forces are supplied by direct solar energy, gravity, and capillary potential fields. The various functions and operations of the different parts of the system are interrelated by the concepts of continuity of mass and momentum. Unless relatively high velocities are encountered, such as in channel flow, the effects of momentum are negligible, and the continuity of mass becomes the only link between the various processes within the system.

Continuity of mass is expressed by the general equation:

Input - Output = Change in Storage A hydrologic balance is the application of this equation to achieve an accounting of physical, hydrologic measurements within a particular unit. Through this means and the application of appropriate translation or routing functions, it is possible to predict the movement of water within a system in terms of its occurrence in space and time.

The concept of the hydrologic balance is pictured by the block diagram in Figure A-I. The inputs to the system are precipitation and surface and groundwater inflow, while the output quantity is divided among surface outflow, groundwater outflow and evapotranspiration. As water passes through this system, storage changes occur on the land surface, in the soil moisture zone, in the groundwater zone, and in the stream channels. These changes occur rapidly in surface locations and more slowly in the subsurface **zones.**

In the course of model development, each of the system processes must be described mathematically as completely as possible. The flow chart of Figure A-I is a schematic representation of the system processes and storage locations and their relationship to each other. In the model each box and copnecting line is represented by a mathematical expression.

Time and Space Increments

Practical data limitations and problem constraints require that increments of time and space be considered during model design. Data, such as temperature and precipitation readings, are usually available as point measurements in terms of time and space; and integration in both dimensions is usually accomplished by the method of finite increments.

The complexity of a model designed to represent a hydrologic system largely depends upon the magnitude of the time and spatial increments utilized in the model. In particular, when large increments are applied, the scale magnitude is such that the effect of phenomena which change over relatively small increments of space and time is insignificant. For instance, on a monthly time increment, interception rates and changing snowpack temperatures are neglected. In addition, the time increment chosen might coincide with the period of cyclic changes in certain hydrologic phenomena. In this event net changes in these phenomena during the time interval are usually negligible. For example, on an annual basis, storage changes within a hydrologic system are often insignificant, whereas on a monthly basis, the magnitude of these changes are frequently appreciable and need to be considered. As time and spatial increments decrease, improved definition of the hydrologic processes is required. No longer can short-term transient effects or appreciable variations in space be neglected, and the mathematical model, therefore, becomes increasingly more complex with an accompanying increase in the requirements of data, computer capacity, and computer capability.

For this report, a monthly time increment and large space units (subbasins) were adopted. Selection of the subbasins was based on hydrologic boundaries and points of data collection. It was felt that the selection of the subbasins and the monthly time increment would satisfy the requirements of a general planning-management model for the basin.

System Processes

Surface Inflows

The basic inflow or input of water into any hydrologic system originates as a form of precipitation. However, for simulation models of valley floor areas, direct precipitation input to the system is greatly overshadowed by river and tributary inflows.

Streamflow is defined as that portion of the precipitation which appears in streams and rivers as the net or residual flow collected from all or a portion of a watershed. When unaffected by the activities of man, such runoff is referred to as "natural or virgin" flow. Artificial diversions and regulatory action in lakes and reservoirs affect the regimes of nearly every stream within the basin.

The surface water inflow component consists of flow traveling over the ground surface and through channels to enter a·stream. At the stream surface runoff usually combines with other flow components to form the total surface runoff hydrograph. Within the runoff cycle surface runoff begins to occur when the capacities of vegetative interception, infiltration, and surface retention are reached. Continued precipitation beyond this point serves as a source for surface runoff. Small basins have different runoff characteristics than do large watersheds, and the characteristics peculiar to each basin must be evaluated on an individual basis.

For each subbasin a limiting rate of surface runoff exists for any particular time period. Surface runoff is assumed to occur when the threshold or limiting rate of surface water supply, consisting of snowmelt, rainfall, canal diversions, or any combination of these, is exceeded.

This concept of surface runoff is particularly important when precipitation is considered as the initial water input to the watershed. Riley and Chadwick (1966) indicate that for particular conditions there exists a limiting or threshold rate of surface supply, R_{tr} , at which surface runoff, S_{r} , begins to occur. This relationship can be written:

 $S_{wr} = W_{gr} - R_{tr}$, $(S_{wr} \ge 0)$ (1)

in which

- s
wr = rate of surface runoff during a particular time
- w
gr rate at which water is available at the soil surface
- R_{tr} = limiting or threshold rate of surface water supply at which surface runoff begins to occur

When considered for a model time increment of one month, an average value of the threshold surface runoff rate, R_{tr} , is probabilistic in nature, depending essentially upon soil surface conditions, soil moisture, storm characteristics, and rate of available water, W_{gr} .

In this study only the valley bottom lands are considered in the model, and it is assumed that no surface runoff from precipitation occurs from these relatively flat areas. Under this assumption, the rate at which precipitation is available at the soil surface at no time exceeds the threshold rate for surface runoff to occur. Thus,

$$
S_{\text{wr}} = 0, \quad (W_{\text{gr}} \le R_{\text{tr}}) \quad . \quad (2)
$$

The model does provide for surface runoff from agricultural lands due to irrigation application rates which exceed soil infiltration rates. The runoff quantity constitutes a portion of the irrigation return flow.

Surface runoff from the surrounding watershed areas is concentrated in stream channels, and therefore, enters the model (valley bottom) as tributary flow. That part of the inflow rate which is measured or gaged is designated as $Q_{\mathbf{i},\mathbf{s}}(\mathbf{m})$.

Unmeasured surface inflows to the model are estimated by a correlation technique which considers three hydrologic parameters, Ramely a gaged tributary inflow rate, precipitation rate, and snowmelt rate. Thus, in functional form:

$$
Q_{1s}(u) = \int \{q_{1s}(m), P_r, W_{sr}\} \cdot \cdot \cdot (3)
$$

in which

- $Q_{is}(u)$ = estimated rate of unmeasured surface inflow
- q_{is} (m) = measured rate of surface inflow from a particular tributary area
- p r gaged precipitation rate in the form \blacksquare of rain on the valley floor
- $\boldsymbol{w}_{\!sr}$ = estimated snowmelt rate in terms of water equivalent

If empirical correlation factors are included in the

preceding equation, the expression becomes:
\n
$$
Q_{is}(u) = k_{u}q_{is}(m) + k_{a}P_{r} + k_{b}W_{sr}
$$
 (4)

in which k_u , k_a , and k_b are correlation factors re-

lating ungaged surface inflow rate to, respectively, a gaged· surface inflow rate, 'precipitation rate, and snowmelt rate. Each of these factors is established through the model verification process for a particular subbasin.

With reference to the measured tributary inflow rate, q_{is}(m), used in Equation 4, this quantity might refer to either the total measured tributary inflow or a specific stream within the area. The main criterion for selecting the gaged area is that the watershed exhibit the same general runoff characteristics as that of the ungaged area.

The second independent term in Equation 4 refers to the rates of precipitation occurring on the valley floor in the form of rain. Because it is assumed that the influence of snow upon the surface runoff is restricted to the melt period, only rainfall is considered by the equation. Generally, a direct plot of rainfall against runoff for individual storms yields a low correlation because of the variable nature of the factors affecting runoff (Chow, 1964). However, when mean monthly values of precipitation and runoff are considered, many of the transient processes are smoothed and reasonably good correlation of runoff with precipitation is achieved.

The third independent term of Equation 4 considers the influence of snowmelt upon surface runoff. Snowmelt rates on the valley floor are predicted in the model by Equation 8. This process is discussed in further deatil later in this chapter.

The total surface inflow rate to the model (valley floor) is estimated by summing the measured rate and estimated ungaged rate from Equation 4. Thus,

$$
Q_{i\,\mathrm{s}} = Q_{i\,\mathrm{s}}(m) + Q_{i\,\mathrm{s}}(u) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \tag{5}
$$

in which Q_{is} refers to the total surface inflow rate, and the two independent quantities are as previously defined.

Interflow

Interflow is defined as the lateral movement of moisture through the plant root zone. The process is discussed in further detail at a later point in this chapter. Interflow rate, N_r , is not treated as a separate identity in the hydrologic model of the valley bottoms, but is considered as being a part of the surface runoff from irrigation. In most cases, small interflow rates are encountered in flat lands. Furthermore, for a model time increment of one month, interflow usually produces an insufficient delay time to enable this quantity to be distinguished from surface runoff.

Groundwater Inflow

Groundwater or subsurface inflow refers to those waters which enter the model area or valley floor beneath the ground surface. Much of this water is subsequently discharged as effluent flow into the main channel of the valley, and thus provides a "base flow" for the stream. Discharge from the groundwater basin of the valley floor also occurs by way of spring flows, pumped waters, and consumptive use by phreatophytes.

Essentially, all groundwater is constantly in motion though velocities may range from several feet per day to only a few inches per year. This groundwater movement is basically confined to permeable geologic formations called aquifers which serve as transmission conduits. Movement and volume of groundwater runoff may be calculated through application of Darcy's Law, providing adequate data are available. However, if subsurface flow data are sparse, time and spatial distribution of groundwater flows can be estimated by an empirical approach through the model verification procedure. For the steep watersheds near the headwaters of major drainage divisions, groundwater inflows to the valley floors were usually sufficiently small to be neglected. At downstream subbasins it may become apparent through the time distribution of the water inputs·to the model in relation to the recorded outflow that groundwater inflow rates are appreciable. Correlation procedures and' transport delays can be used to estimate and simulate groundwater movement'into the subbasin. This water is then distributed with time through use of long transport delay networks on the computer. The required delay setting of these networks is established during the model verification process. Hence, the rate of groundwater inflow is described as follows:

$$
Q_{ig}(u) = k_c q_{is} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot (6)
$$

in which

- $Q_{ig}(u)$ = rate of total unmeasured inflow to the groundwater system
- k_c coefficient relating the rate of unmeasured groundwater inflow to a measured surface runoff rate
- = rate of surface runoff (either total \mathbf{q}_{is} measured tributary inflow or measured inflow from a representative tributary)

For some subbasins a subsurface groundwater movement under the outflow gage in the streambed alluvium occurs. The time and spatial distribution of this outflow forms a component of the groundwater inflow or input to the adjacent downstream subbasin.

Total Inflow

Total inflow rate to the valley bottoms consists of the summation of the surface and groundwater inflow rates. The surface inflows for the most part have already been summed and are concentrated in stream channels as they enter the valley floor or agricultural areas. Gaged surface inflow rates are available from surface water records published by the U. S. Geological Survey.

The remaining two components of total inflow, namely ungaged surface inflow and groundwater inflow, are estimated from Equation 4 and 6, respectively. Therefore, the total inflow, $Q₄$, to a given subbasin is given by the following expression:

 $Q_i = Q_{is} + Q_{ig}$ (7) in which the terms Q_{is} and Q_{ig} are given by Equations 5 and 6, respectively.

Precipitation

The ultimate source of water input to any hydrologic unit is precipitation in one form or another. Precipitation is considered to be any moisture which emanates from the atmosphere and falls to the earth.

Precipitation input to the hydrologic system varies with respect to both time and space and it is therefore, necessary to convert point measurements from climatological stations into an integrated or averaged monthly value over a finite area. Some precipitation data are available for all subbasins used in this study.

Two forms of precipitation, rain and snow, are considered in this study. Air temperature is used as the criterion for establishing the occurrence of these two forms. This criterion is not an ideal index for determining the form of precipitation since no one temperature exists below which it always snows and above which it always rains. However, the surface air temperature appears to be the most suitable single index of precipitation form now available.

Based on investigations by the U. S. Army (1956) at a surface air temperature of 35° F, there is a 50 percent chance that precipitation will be as snow, whereas at 32^{O} F the probability is 95 percent of precipitation falling as snow. In this study a double standard was used because average monthly temperatures provided the criteria. Snow was assumed to fall be-Iowa threshold temperature, and snowmelt was assumed to occur above another threshold temperature. This assumption provided for the occurrence of snowfall and snowmelt during the same month. These threshold temperatures varied in the different subbasins.

Temperature

Air temperature is an important parameter in a hydrologic system because it can be utilized as a criterion for establishing the form of precipitation, and as an index of the energy available for the snowmelt and evapotranspiration processes. Temperature varies according to both time and space. To obtain average temperature values for the valley floor, or a portion thereof, within a particular subbasin, requires that point measurements be utilized for estimating an effective or average temperature value for an area. In this study average temperatures for a particular area and a given time period (one month) are estimated by an arithmetic average of temperature measurements taken in the subbasin.

Snowmelt

Although rationai formulas which include the various factors involved in the snowmelt process have been developed, data limitations often prohibit a strictly analytical approach to the process. Rational models include fundamental processes, such as those which relate to energy transfer, and requirements for input data are high. An additional restriction to the analytical approach for snowmelt computation is a large modeling time increment such as a month. Many of the short-term, transient phenomeon which occur within a snowpack cannot be represented in a macroscopic model of this scale. An empirical relationship was, therefore, adopted for this study model. Riley et al. (1966) proposed a relationship which states that the rate of melt is proportional to the available energy and the quantity of precipitation stored as snow. As a differential equation the relationship is written:

$$
\frac{d W_{\rm s}(t)}{dt} = - k_{\rm s} (T_{\rm a} - T_{\rm b}) \frac{R I_{\rm s}}{R I_{\rm h}} W_{\rm s}(t) . . . (8)
$$

in which the undefined terms are:

 $k_{\rm s}$ a constant

 $\mathbf{r}_{_{\mathbf{a}}}$ surface air temperature in degrees F

 $l_{\rm s}$ = the radiation index on a surface possessing a known degree and aspect of slope

- RI_h = the radiation index for a horizontal surface at the same latitude as the particular watershed under study
- W_{α} snow storage in terms of water equivalent
- assumed base temperature in degrees F at T_h which melt begins to occur.

Riley et al. (1966) report reasonable agreement between predicted snowmelt rates from Equation 8 and observed values. They used a value of k_s equal to 0.10 based on studies using data from several snow courses in the Rocky Mountain area where average snow depths are high. It has been found, however, that the value of k_{s} is somewhat inversely dependent upon snowpack depth. In other words, as the snow depth decreases pack melt rates increase for a given energy input. Thus, k_s is relatively larger for areas of shallow snowpack depth and relatively smaller for areas where depths tend to be large. The radiation index paramater allows adjustment to be made for variation of the total insolation with land surface slope and aspect. However, since only the valley floors are included in the modeling area, it is assumed that the topographic surface of the area is essentially horizontal. This assumption simplifie Equation 8 in that RI_s becomes equal to RI_h and their ratio goes to unity.

The independent variables on the right side of Equation 8 can be expressed as either continuous functions of time or as step functions consisting of mean constant values for a given time increment. For this study a time increment was utilized and integration was performed in steps over each successive time period. Hence, the final values of $W_{\rm g}$ (t) at the end of a particular time period became the initial value for the integration process over the following period. On this basis, and setting the ratio RI_s/RI_h equal to unity (assuming the agricultural area is flat), the differential form of Equation 8 becomes:

$$
\int_{W_S}^{W_S(1)} \frac{dW_S}{W_S} = -k_S (T_a - T_b) \int_0^1 dt \dots (9)
$$

W_S(0)
W_S(1) = W_S(0) exp {-k_S (T_A - T_b)}. ... (10)

Canal Diversions

Canal diversions profoundly affect the time and spatial distribution of water within an irrigated area. A portion of this diverted water is returned directly to the stream as spill and portion is evaporated directly to the atmosphere. Another portion enters the soil profile through canal seepage and the infiltration on the irrigated lands, and the remainder returns to the source as overland flow or evaporates. Some of the water which enters the soil profile is lost through plant consumptive use. The remainder either percolates downward to the groundwater basin or is intercepted by drainage systems. Irrigation practices, therefore, alter the distribution characteristics of a hydrologic system. The irrigation efficiency factors used in this study include both the conveyance and application efficiencies. A composite irrigation efficiency factor is given by the following expression:

$$
Eff = (W_{tr} - W_{sp}) E_c E_a \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots (11)
$$

in which

Eff = water conveyance and application efficiency in percent

w
sp the spills

- $E_{\rm c}$ = the conveyance efficiency
- $E_{\rm a}$ application efficiency
- $\boldsymbol{w}_{\texttt{tr}}$ total rate at which water is diverted from the stream or reservoir

Records of water diversion to the agriculture lands within each subbasin were found to be lacking. Adjustment of these records was necessary in many cases to get a realistic application rate for the irrigated acreage.

As already indicated, a portion of the water diverted for irrigation returns to the streams as overland flow and interflow. Although the large time increment allows this water to be treated in the model as a single identity, it is important to distinguish between the two components. Overland flow (often termed tailwater) is surface return flow or runoff from the end of the field resulting from the application of water to the irrigated land at rates exceeding the infiltration capacity of the soil. Interflow is defined as that part of the soil water which does not enter the groundwater basin, but rather which moves largely in a lateral direction through the upper and more porous portion of the soil profile until it enters a surface or subsurface drainage channel. Both the overland flow and the interflow return to the stream channels in short distances and times consisting of usually only a few days.

Available Soil Moisture

The usual definition of available soil moisture capacity is the difference between the field capacity and the wilting point of the soil. Water within this range is available for plant use, and is termed available soil moisture. The field capacity is defined as the soil moisture content after gravity drainage has occurred. Most of the gravity water drains rapidly from the soil thus affording plants little opportunity for its use. The wilting point represents the soil

moisture content when plants are no longer able to abstract water in sufficient quantities to meet their needs, and permanent wilting occurs. Available soil moisture can be exp'ressed in several units but in this report it carries the unit of depth in inches.

Sources of available water. Basically, moisture in the soil is derived from infiltration, which is the passage of water through the soil surface into the soil profile. The water available for infiltration at the soil surface is derived from three sources, namely, precipitation in the form of rain, P_r , snowmelt, W_{sr} , and irrigation water, W_{dr} . As springtime temperatures rise to the point at which melting occurs, all snow cover on the land is assumed to melt and enter the soil mantle through the infiltration process. In the case of irrigated crops, the most important source of available soil moisture is water which is diverted to the agriculture lands. Thus, the total water available for infiltration into the soil, $W_{_{\mathcal{Q}\mathbf{r}}}$, can be written as:

$$
W_{\text{gr}} = W_{\text{dr}} + P_{\text{r}} + W_{\text{sr}} \qquad (12)
$$

in which all quantities are as previously defined. Available soil moisture quantities. The maxi-

mum quantity of water in a soil available for use by plants is a function of the moisture holding capcity of the soil and the average rooting depth or extraction pattern of the plant.

The basic forces involved in the absorption of water by plants are osmotic, imbibitional, metabolic, and transpiration pull (Thorne and Peterson, 1954). These forces basically define the soil moisture tension or "pull" that must be exerted by the plant to remove water from the soil. Of these forces the principal one is the osmotic pressure created within plant root cells. Opposing these forces are those exerted on the moisture by the soil particles. The forces exerted by the plants vary with different plants, soils, and climates, but the average maximum force which plants can exert in obtaining sufficient water for growth is approximately 15 atmospheres of pressure. At field capacity where water is readily available for plant use, the average soil moisture tension is only about 0.1 atmosphere. However, the soil moisture tension or "pull" plants exert in their quest for water is in itself no indication of the amount of available water contained by the soil. The actual amount of water held by the soil at any given tension value is a function of the soil type.

Determination of the soil depth effectively utilized by a plant is based on the average rooting depth or the average moisture extraction pattern. The soil moisture available for extraction depends on the moisture holding capacity of the soil and the extraction pattern. The typical agricultural crop extracts 70 percent of its moisture from the upper 50 percent of the soil penetrated by the plant roots. Average or typical rooting depths for various plants are reported by McCullock et al. (1967). Illustrative depths include 4 to 6 feet for alfalfa, 4 feet for grains and corn, and 2 to 3 feet for pasture. The average available soil moisture capacity of the irrigated lands was estimated for each subbasin.

Under normal circumstances, additions to available soil moisture storage occur through the infiltration process, F_r . Abstractions or depletions from available soil moisture storage occur through evapotranspirational losses, ET_r , and deep percolation, G_r . Thus, the soil moisture storage existing at any time, t, can be stated:

 $M_{\circ}(t) = (F_{r} - ET_{r} - G_{r}) dt$. . . (13)

Each of the three terms on the right side of this equation is discussed in the following sections.

Infiltration

As already indicated, additions to available soil moisture occur through the process of infiltration, F_r . Factors which influence the infiltration rate include various soil properties and surface characteristics. A moisture gradient induced by the adhesive properties of the soil particles also influence infiltration rate.

In this study, the rate of infiltration into the soil is given by the following equations

$$
\quad \text{and} \quad
$$

 $F_r = W_{gr}$, $(W_{gr} \le R_{tr})$ (14)

 $F_r = R_{tr}$, $(W_{gr} > R_{tr})$ (15) for which all terms were previously defined. The quantity W_{gr} in Equation 14 is given by Equation 12.

Evapotranspiration

The second term on the right side of Equation 13 represents depletion from the soil moisture storage through the evapotranspiration process, ET_r . Comsumptive use, or evapotranspiration is the sum of all water used and lost by growing vegetation due to transpiration through plant foliage and evaporation from the plant and surrounding environment such as adjacent soil surfaces. Potential evapotranspiration is defined as that rate of consumptive use by actively growing plants which occurs under conditions of complete crop cover and non-limiting soil moisture supply.

The evapotranspiration process depends upon many interrelated factors whose individual effects are difficult to determine. Included among these factors are type and density of crop, soil moisture supply, fertilizer, soil salinity, and climate. Climatological parameters usually considered to influence evapotranspiration rates are precipitation, temperature, daylight hours, solar radiation, humidity, wind velocity, cloud cover, and length of growing season. Numerous relationships have been developed for estimating the potential evapotranspiration rate.

Perhaps one of the most universally applied evapotranspiration equations is that proposed by Blaney and Criddle (1950). This equation is written as follows:

â

in which $U = kf$ (i) (16)

- \mathbf{U} = monthly crop potential consumptive use in inches
- k monthly coefficient which varies with type of crop and
- F monthly consumptive use factor and is given by the following equation:

$$
f = \frac{tp}{100}
$$
 (17)

in which

- \mathbf{r} = mean monthly temperature in degrees F
- p monthly percentage of daylight hours of the year

A modification of the Blaney-Criddle formula was proposed by Phelan et al. (1962), wherein the monthly coefficient, k, is subdivided into two parts, a crop coefficient, k_c , and a temperature coefficient, k_t . The relationship describing k_t is an empirical one, depending upon only temperature, and is expressed as:

$$
k_{t} = (0.0173T_{a} - 0.314) \cdots \cdots \cdots \qquad (18)
$$

where T_{a} is the mean monthly temperature in degrees F. The crop coefficient, k_c , is basically a function of the physiology and stage of growth of the crop. Curves of k_c are available for many agriculture crops (Soil Conservation Service, 1964).

Thus, the modified Blaney-Criddle equation for estimating potential evapotranspiration rates is written as follows:

$$
ET_{cr} = k_c k_t \frac{T_a P}{100} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot (19)
$$

Because of its simplicity, low data requirements (only surface air temperature is needed), and applicability to the irrigated areas of the Western United States, Equation 19 was adopted for this study model. Since the time increment selected for use was one month, the variables on the right of Equation 19 represent mean monthly values although these parameters could be expressed as continuous functions instead of the indicated step functions. Thus, Equation 19 estimates the mean potential evapotranspiration rate during each month.

Evapotranspiration losses from the agriculture area during the non-cropping season were estimated from Equation'19. For many crops it was necessary to extend the k_c curves to include the non-growing season (West, 1959). Because the k_c curve for grass pasture seems to represent a reasonable set of values for native vegetation (Riley et $a1.$, 1967), this curve was used as a guide in the development of a similar $k₁$ curve for phreatophytes.

Effects of soil moisture on evapotranspiration. As was discussed earlier, as the moisture content of a soil is reduced by evapotranspiration, the moisture tension which plants must overcome to obtain sufficient water for growth is increased. It is generally conceded that some reduction in the evapotranspiration rate occurs as the available quantity of water decreases in the plant root zone. Studies by the U. S. Salinity Laboratory in Californin (Gardner and Ehlig, 1963) indicate that transpiration occurs at the full potential rate through approximately the first one-third of the available soil moisture range, and that thereafter the actual evapotranspiration rate lags the potential rate. When this critical point in the available moisture range is reached, the plants begin to wilt because soil moisture becomes a limiting factor.

The actual evapotranspiration rate is approximated by the two following equations which take the above phenomenon into account:

and

$$
ETr = ETcr \left(\frac{M_{cs} - M_{es}}{M_{cs}} \right), \{ 0 \leq Ms (t) \leq Mes \}
$$

 \cdots (21)

 $ET_r = ET_{cr}$, $\{M_{es} < M_s(t)\}$ (20)

in which

 ET_r ${\rm _{ET}}_{\rm cr}$ $_{\rm es}$ actual evapotranspiration rate potential evapotranspiration rate = limiting or threshold content of available water within the root zone below which the actual becomes less than the potential evapotranspiration rate

 $M_s(t) =$ quantity of water available for plant consumption which is stored in the root zone at any instant of time

$$
M_{cs} = root zone storage capacity of water available to plants
$$

Deep Percolation

The final independent term, G_r , of Equation 13 represents the rate of deep percolation. Percolation is simply the movement of water through the soil. Deep percolation is defined as water movement through the soil from the plant root zone to the underlying groundwater basin. The dominant potential forces causing water to percolate downward from the plant root zone are gravity and capillary forces. Water is removed quickly by gravity from a saturated soil under normal drainage conditions. Thus, the rate of deep percolation, G_r, is most rapid immediately after irrigation when the gravity force dominates, and decreases constantly, continuing at slower rates through the unsaturated conditions. Because the capillary potential applies through all moisture regimes, deep percolation continues, though at low rates, even when the moisture content of the soil is less than field capacity (Willardson and Pope, 1963).

Because of a lack of data in the study area regarding deep percolation rates in the unsaturated state, and in order to simplify the model, the assumption was made that deep percolation occurs at a continual small percent, k_n, of soil moisture storage between saturation and the limiting threshold storage. Thus, for this model, the deep percolation rate is expressed as:

$$
G_r = F_r - ET_{cr}, \{M_s(t) = M_{cs}\} (22)
$$

$$
G_{r} = k_{p} M_{sg} \{M_{es} < M_{s}(t) < M_{cs} \} \quad . \quad . \quad (23)
$$

$$
G_r = 0
$$
, { $M_s(t) < M_{cs}$ }. (24)

in which all terms are as previously defined.

River Outflow

Using the continuity of mass principle the hydrologic balance is maintained by properly accounting for the quantities of flow at various points within the system. The appropriate translation or routing of inflow water through the system in relationship to the chronological abstraction and additions occurring in space and time concentrates the water at the outlet point as both surface and subsurface outflow. As mentioned earlier, active network delays on the computer simulate the long transport time necessary fot groundwater inflows and deep percolating waters to be routed to the outflow gaging station.

Thus, the total rate of water outflow from a subbasin is obtained through the summation of various quantities as follows:

$$
Q_o = Q_{is} - W_{tr} + OF_r + Q_{ob} - Q_e \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (25)
$$

in which

 Q_{α} total rate of outflow from the system

 $Q_{\texttt{is}}$ = rate of total surface inflow to the subbasin including both measured and unmeasured flows

- W_{rr} total rate at which water is diverted from the stream or reservoir
- OF_{x} total of overland flow and interflow rates
- Q_{ob} = rate of outflow from the groundwater basin of routed deep percolating waters and subsurface inflows to the subbasin
- $Q_{\mathbf{p}}$ = rate of water diversions from surface sources for use outside the boundaries of the subbasin. Exports to other drainage basins fall within this category

If subbasins are selected such that there exists no flow of subsurface water past the gaged outflow point, the hydrograph of surface outflow, Q_{α} , is given by Equation 25. This situation is assumed to exist at reservoir sites within the basin because of construction measures taken to eliminate subsurface flows under the dams which create the reservoir. For this reason, whenever possible, subbasins were terminated at the outfall of a reservoir. These sites thus enabled a check to be made on groundwater inflow rates to the subbasin as predicted from verification studies involving models for one or more upstream subbasins.

For many subbasins the termination or outlet point was taken at a Geological Survey gaging station, and in several of these cases groundwater flow occurs in the streambed alluvium beneath the surface channel. For these basins, the total system outflow can be written as:

$$
Q_{\mathbf{t}\mathbf{o}} = Q_{\mathbf{s}\mathbf{o}} + Q_{\mathbf{g}\mathbf{o}} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot (26)
$$

in which

- $Q_{\rm{so}}$ = rate of surface outflow from the subbasin
- Q_{go} = rate of subsurface or groundwater outflow from the subbasin

Surface outflow rates, $Q_{\rm SO}$, can be compared to the recorded values, but subsurface outflow rates, Q_{go} , are unmeasured and must be predicted or estimated.

In the model described in this report, the groundwater outflow is estimated as a proportion of the total groundwater flux. The groundwater flux is computed by keeping track of all inflows and effluent flows that interface with the shallow groundwater acquifer. These include influent river channel flow, canal seepage, deep percolation, pumped water and groundwater inflow. The net effect of

these variables provides the driving function for a linear reservoir routing subroutine. Flow routing through a linear reservoir is derived as follows from the continuity and linear storage equations:

 $\frac{dS}{dt}$ = I - 0 (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (27)

$$
S = k_{S} 0 \cdot (28)
$$

f.

where

and

 $\frac{dS}{dt}$ = change in storage $I = inflow$ $0 = outflow$ $S = store$ $k_{\rm g}$ = the linear routing rate coefficient

By substituting equation 28 into 27 and assuming I is constant $\frac{d0}{I-0} = \frac{1}{k_s}$ dt is obtained which may then be integrated to give

$$
\int_{0}^{0} \frac{d0}{1-0} = \frac{1}{k_{s}} \int_{0}^{1} dt
$$

or

$$
\ln (I-0) \bigg|_{0}^{0} = -\frac{1}{k_s} t \bigg|_{0}^{1} (29)
$$

By evaluating at the limits of integration, exponentiating both sides and solving for $O₁$ the final routing equation is obtained:

$$
0_1 = I + (0_0 - I) e^{-\frac{1}{k_s}}
$$
 (30)

The routed value of groundwater flux Q_{ob} , is then separated into an effluent portion, $Q_{\alpha f}$, which makes up part of the surface outflow and the groundwater outflow, Q_{go} , by the equation:

$$
Q_{\text{go}} = k_{\text{gw}} Q_{\text{ob}} \cdot (31)
$$

and

$$
Q_{ef} = Q_{ob} - Q_{go} \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots (32)
$$

where k_{gw} is the proportion of groundwater flux that remains as groundwater flow.

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Listing of Input Data Cards

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8 5 8 5
VAR OCT NOV DEC JAN FEB MAR VAR OCT NOV DEC JAN FEB MAR - APR MAY JUN JUL AUG SEP ANN FHR TEMP PRECIPSNOW MLTSNOW STR PHR ETCROP PETCROP AET SM STRRIVER IN TRIB IN DIY M&I RET CNL DIV UNG INPHR RPSM URB SRF PUMP INRIVER GW PHR SUR WTR AVL M&I
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28 READ(KP,180)NPS,NPM,(NDP(L),L=1,NPM)

189 PORMAT(2513)

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XPM(L)=XIR(1,L)

DO CONTINUE

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C WRITE(6,102)

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HRITE(6,102)

DO 37 LL=1,MPS

DO 37 LL=1,MPS

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35 CONTINUE

IF(NPS.GT,1) GO TO 39

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10 MIC (J):

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10091 L=1,NPR

111 FORMAT(1X13,6F12.3)

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END

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SUBROUTINE INTACT(NPR,NL,IPRT,ICOL,PR)
DIMENSION NL(1),PR(1)
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15 PORMAT(28HENTER PARAMETER NO AND VALUE/)
16 PORMAT(28HENTER PARAMETER NO AND VALUE/)
16 PORMAT(15,F15,5)
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19 \mathbf{c} JONES HERE (1971)
SOMBITE (5,187)L.PR(L),D
187 FORMAT(11M CHANGE PARIS,SM FROMF15.5.3M TOF15.5)
182 FORMAT(18MCHANGE PARIS,SM FROMF15.5.3M TOF15.5) PR(L)=D

IL=IL+1

NL(IL)=L

SPI(L.E0.200)60 TO 20

IF(L.E0.200)60 TO 20

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CALL HYDSH(FRT,ICOL,OBJ,OAH)

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IF(ILLE.0) 50 TO 1

IF(ILLE.0) 50 PR(L)=D \mathbf{c} \mathbf{c} $\frac{1}{1}$ $\frac{25}{35}$)
25 MRITE(6,110)(NL(I),I=1,IL)
110 FORMAT(1X8HPAR CMNG24I3)
35 MRPE 112,051,04M
45 CALL MY05M(4,1,051,04M)
45 TVF 112,051,04M
17 SSP E ON SUPRESS PRINTING
0CT 23416
31 SSP ϵ 50 WRITE(6,112) OBJ, OAH SS WRITE(6,112) UPJ,UAT
C-+ ITERATION MODE
103 FORMAT(47MENTER PAR, NO STEPS, INIT VALUE AND FINAL VALUE/)
103 FORMAT(47MENTER PAR, NO STEPS, INIT VALUE AND FINAL VALUE/)
104 FORMAT(215,2F15,5)

 $\mathbf c$

IF(L.LE. 0, DR.L. GT, NPRI) GO TO 60
IF(N.LE. 0) GO TO 1
EN=N
OTEP2-PI)/EN
NF=N+1
IF 33N E ON SUPPRESS PRINT
OCT 23410 ϵ $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{20}$ J ...
18 NAITE(6,185)
185 FONMAT(9M PAR STEPSX3HVAL14X3HOBJ17X3HOAM)
78 TYPE 185
19 NAITE(1,19)
17 ESA E (1,0)
CALL MYOSM(4,1,0BJ,0AM)
IF SSA E (1,0)
17 SSA E (1,0)
0CT 23410
18 NAITE(1,0)
18 NAITE(1,0)
18 NAITE(1,0)
18 NA ϵ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{3}$ J

74 MRITE(6,188)L,I,PR(L),OBJ,OAH

75 TYPE 186,L,I,PR(L),OBJ,OAH

75 TYPE 186,L,I,PR(L),OBJ,OAH

186 CONTINUE

IF (N₁LE₁1) GO 70

88 CONTINUE

60 TO 1

67 DT 03428

99 OCT 23428

1

1

1

1

1

1

1 ċ 9. LONDON END $\begin{smallmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{$

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 \ddot{z}

C READ URBAN LAND AREA AND URBAN MADE AND AREA AND AREA SIS FORMATION PURPOSE CONSIDERED TO THE MADE AND INTERFERENCE OF CONSIDERATION CONSIDERED SECTION OF THE S READ(KR,FMT)IX,(DD(K),K=1,12)

00 145 K=1,12

HD(I;K,J)+HD(I;K,J)+DD(K)*18.**IX

HD(I;K,J)+HD(I;K,J)+DD(K)*18.**IX

130 CONTINUE

2 CONTIN PRINT SUBROUTINE

SUBROUTINE PRNT(J,IDF,ICOL)

COMMON/BLK1/LABL(60),AGN(21),CMS(12),PKCMI(12),IDTM(12),BASID(15),

ICOMMON/BLK1/LABL(60),AGN(21),CMC(12),CMC(12),CPKC(25,12),MDG(15),

20UT(60,IS)/PLK2/MANG,NCRPM,ISB,NSB,IVR \mathbf{c} $\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon}$ INITIALIZE ON THE TRIP (10 199)

INITIALIZE ON FIRST CALL

IT(J.GT.1) GOTO 5

NT1=8

NT3=4

NT2=9

NT3=4

NT2=9

NT2=5

10 10 11

10 10 12

10 12

11

I ϵ SOTO 30
33 WRITE(6,121)I,(0UT(I,L),L=7,13)
121 FORMAT(1XI3,7F11.0)

IF IPRT = 0 PRINT ALL LINES

2 OR SUPPRESS PRINTING OF GAGED AND DIFF

2 OR GT SUPPRESS ALL PRINT

2 130 COLUMN LINE PRINTER

2 132 COLUMN LINE PRINTER

2 132 COLUMN LINE PRINTER

INITIALIZE OBJECTIVE FUNCTIONS

CRHAPS. $\begin{small} \textbf{1} & \textbf{0} & \textbf{0$ ccccc COTO 70

SANGRES

TO SNHT - SNHT - SNHT ISNHT - SNHT ISNHT - SNHT - SNHT - SNHT ISNHT ISNHT - SNHT ISNHT - SNHT - SNH

 $\pmb{\ast}$

- ϵ
- \mathbf{c}

UNTP=CTP+(PPT+PT+)
IF(UNTP_LLT₋P.) UNTP=R.
GUNG=COR*OCOR=UNSH+UNR_{**U^}TP
GALCULATE INFLUENT GW
GRIV+RTV+TRB+OUNG
IF(OPIV+GT₊₁₊) GO TC 8P 1.11 COMPUTE SOTIL MATER THROUGH THE SOIL IN ACRE-FT

DPOSE,

SHIMBSHIPOIGS

SHIMBSHIPOIGS

SHIMBSHIPOIGS

SHIMBSHIPOIGS

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SHIMBSHIMPPO

TEON2.GT.LT.0.) GO TO 146

SHIMBSHIMP CSH

IFON2. \mathbf{c} $\mathbf c$

ESTA ARTESTIN PRESENTED IN A SERVER AND PRESENT ON A SERVER AND PRESENT ON A SERVER AND MANUFACTION (SERVER AND SERVER AND SHETTER (NOTE)

SHETTER (NOTE)

SHETTER (NOTE)

CALL DOUTER, 2, PPT,11)

CALL DOUTER, 2, PPT,11)

CALL DOUTER, 3, SNN1,2)

CALL DOUTER, 5, PPT,11)

CALL DOUTER, 5, PPT,11)

CALL DOUTER, 7, AET,111

CALL DOUTER, 7, AET,111
 \mathbf{c} FIGURESCHEMSOUT(37)
195 CALL PRNT(J,IPRT,IC
195 CALL PRNT(J,IPRT,IC
196 CONTINUE
195 CALL PRNT(D,IPRT)
195 CONTINUE
195 CONTIN
RETURN
RETURN

RETURN

ENDERTURN

BLANEY CRIDDLE CU CALCULATION

BLANEY CRIDDLE CU CALCULATION

ENTRE, BLANEY SCIENCE, CRID-CRIPTIC

ETTERT-TEP, AND DENSITY

RETURN

RETURN

CONNAL DIVEPSIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

CRID-TEP (EVANCE)

CRID-TEP (\mathbf{c} \mathbf{c} $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{c} \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \\ \mathbf{c} \\ \mathbf{c} \\ \mathbf{c} \end{array}$ REIUM
Subroutine for m&i cu
Subroutine Urbemi(Wad,Div,Cf,Cu,Rf)
If(Div,Gt,Wad) divewad
Cubdivect
RfBDIVecu. $\mathbf c$ RPEDIV-CU

RETURN

END MADEMAD

ENDUND WATER ROUTING SUBROUTINE

SUBROUTING GROUTING SUBROUTINE

SUBROUTING GROUTING SUBROUTING,

IF(XKG.LE..012) GO TO 1

CO2=07

1002=07

1002=07

2 RETURN

END

2 RETURN c C- RESERVOIR SIMULATION + RESPUBBER PROPIPER PROPIPER AND RELATION INTERFERENCE IN THE STREAM AND INTERFERENCE IN THE STREAM AND

:

* AFTER OPERATIONS

RELIS ACTOUR PELEASE

RELIS ACTOUR RELEASE

RELIS ACTOUR DELEASE

NEW TS ACTOUR CANNE IN STORAGE

IS ACTOUR TO BACK IN STORAGE

IS IN THE EOM

DEPAPT-EVP

DEPAPT-EVP TO BACK

OPERATIONS (RESERVANCE)
 ċ $\mathbf c$ \mathbf{c} $\mathbf{c}^ \mathbf c$ REXPRO COORS

IF (ST.L.T.0.0)STRO.6

SOTO 48

IF (ST.L.T.0.0)STRO.7

IF (ST.C.T.C.T.R.C.T.REL)GO TO 38

RELESTOR

ARDER BRAY.GT.ARD)GO TO 39

REXPRO CO TO 40

ARDER BRAY.GT.ARD)GO TO 39

REXPRO CO TO 40

ARDER BRAY.GT.ARD) \mathbf{c} \mathbf{c} \mathbf{c}

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XDE-XTREES<br>XDE-XR<br>XPERIPAR (PRINCIPS)<br>XPERIPAR (PRINCIPS)<br>XPERIPAR (PRINCIPS)<br>CALL GNUDAR (PDX1, KV, IE)<br>CALL GSDLY(ILW)<br>CALL GNUDAR (PDX1, IE)<br>ISS (CALL GNUDAR (PDX1, IE)<br>ISS (FIGUAR 12.1) 607023<br>XPERIPAR (PRINCIPS)<br>XPERI
    \mathbf c\mathbf{c}\mathbb{Z}^{\mathcal{A}}\epsilonTHE CONNECTION (IO)<br>So If (J.AE, Ayr) Gotos:<br>So If (J.AE, Ayr) Gotos:<br>CALL Gwidar (PDX1,KX,IE)<br>- END OP PLOT INSERT<br>Si Return<br>END
    c \leftrightarrow
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 Δ

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{2\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{$ $\mathbf{v}^{(i)}$ $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$. In the $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$ $\mathbf{z}^{(n)}$. $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$.