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## A Hydrologic Model of the Bear River Basin

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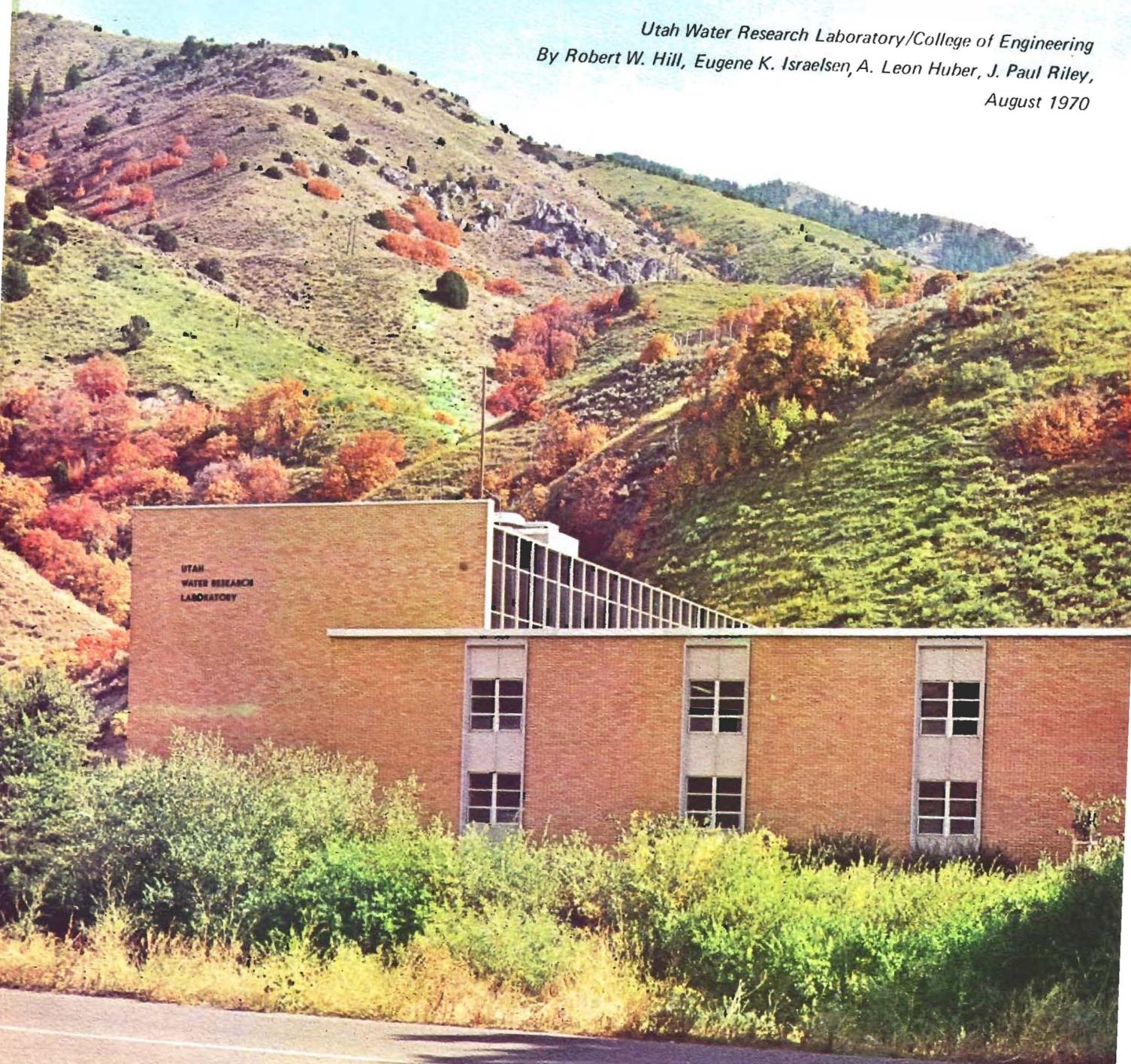
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# A Hydrologic Model of the Bear River Basin

*Utah Water Research Laboratory/College of Engineering*

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*August 1970*



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Utah Water Research Laboratory  
College of Engineering  
Utah State University  
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## ABSTRACT

### A HYDROLOGIC MODEL OF THE BEAR RIVER BASIN

As demands upon available water supplies increase, there is an accompanying increase in the need to assess the downstream consequences resulting from changes at specific locations within a hydrologic system. The problem is approached in this study by hybrid computer simulation of the hydrologic system. Modeling concepts are based upon the development of basic relationships which describe the various hydrologic processes. Within a system these relationships are linked by the continuity-of-mass principle which requires a hydrologic balance at all points. Spatial resolution is achieved by considering the modeled area as a series of subbasins. The time increment adopted for the model is one month, so that time varying quantities are expressed in terms of mean monthly values. The model is general in nature and is applied to a particular hydrologic system through a programmed verification procedure whereby model coefficients are evaluated for the particular system.

In this study the model was synthesized on a hybrid computer and applied to the Bear River basin of western Wyoming, southern Idaho, and northern Utah. Comparisons between observed and computed outflow hydrographs for each subbasin are shown. The utility of the model for predicting the effects of various possible water resource management alternatives is demonstrated for the number 1, or Evanston subbasin. The hybrid computer is very efficient for model development, and the verified model can be readily programmed on the all-digital computer.

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A. Leon Huber  
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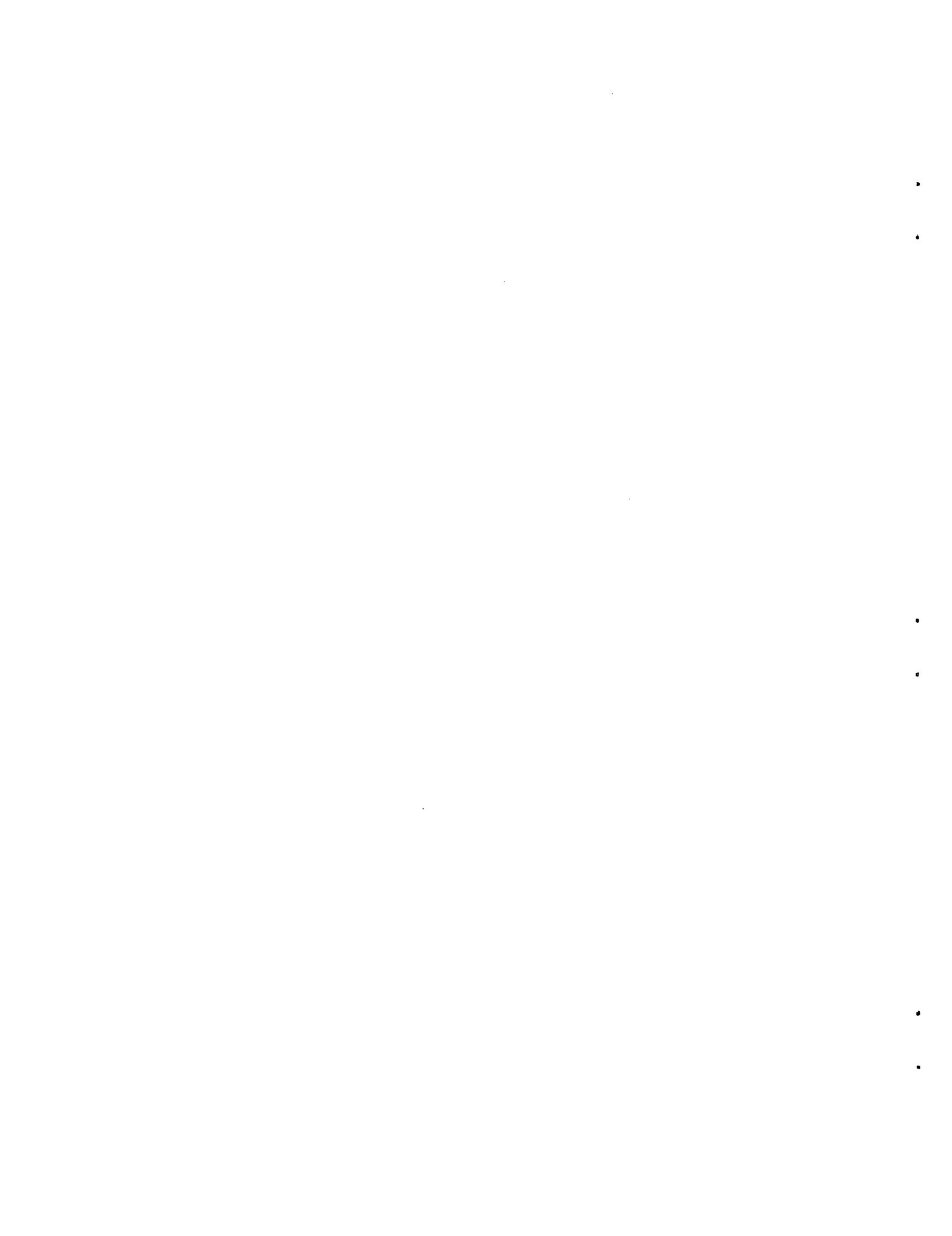
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### General

Of the total precipitation falling on watersheds throughout the world, an average of approximately 85 percent returns directly to the atmosphere through evaporation and use by mountain vegetation. The remaining 15 percent moves from the watersheds as runoff and becomes available in the valleys to be used by man for irrigation, industry, recreation, and many other requirements. The very rapid growth of these requirements in recent years has led to an increasing need for additional usable water resources.

Several grandiose and costly schemes have been suggested to supplement existing water resources in the western United States. The enormity of the engineering, social, and legal aspects of implementing one of these schemes certainly shifts the realization of the proposed resource supplement well into the future. However, the need for additional water resources protrudes from immediate future requirements and refuses to disappear even though ignored. Alternative methods must then be identified in order to satisfy or appease the immediate future requirements.

Alternate methods of supplementing water resources must be almost immediately applicable, relatively inexpensive, and effective. Some of the methods proposed to fill the immediate need include groundwater mining, conjunctive use of ground and surface water, and more efficient use of existing supplies. The research work described in this report has focused on the efficient use of existing supplies.

Efficient use of water in a dynamic system implies that the system be described with sufficient accuracy to quantitatively predict depletions resulting from water use in the system. The next step is to realistically alter the system parameters

and points of use to determine system configurations which produce increased benefits and/or decreased water use. The ultimate result of this method is to determine the system configuration which maximizes the benefits per unit of water resource depletion. Water use includes the consumptive use of water and the addition of undesirable elements to the water. This report, however, deals with the hydrology and consumptive use of water in the Bear River basin.

System simulation is a tool currently employed by many researchers to increase the definition of dynamic systems. Since hydrologic systems, like the Bear River basin, are certainly dynamic, the tool of simulation modeling was employed to gain increased system definition. The various processes within the model are linked by the continuity of mass principle, which requires a hydrologic balance at all points. The computer is essential for the solution of the time-dependent differential equations of the model and for the selection of coefficients required during calibration and testing.

#### Scope of Study

The scope of this study is limited to describing the hydrology of the Bear River basin and demonstrating the possibility of increased efficiency of water use through selection of proper management alternatives.

Objectives. The objectives of this research project were as follows:

1. To simulate the complex hydrologic flow system of the Bear River basin.
2. To demonstrate the applicability of the simulation model to efficient water resources planning in the Bear River basin by evaluating various alternative management possibilities subject to selected constraints.

### Procedure

To meet the objectives of this study the following procedure was followed:

1. Basic hydrologic data for the Bear River basin were assembled and analyzed.
2. The Bear River basin was divided into ten subbasins based upon the available hydrologic data and the physical characteristics of the basin.
3. A simulation model was verified for each subbasin. These subbasin models were then linked together to form the model of the entire basin.
4. Three management alternatives were applied to a single subbasin (Evanston) to demonstrate the use of the model in selecting management alternatives.

### Discussion

Several problems were encountered during the modeling of the ten subbasins. These problems stemmed from the lack of adequate data required to verify proposed model configurations. Determination of ungaged surface and subsurface flows always presents a problem, but this problem can usually be solved if other data requirements are satisfied. Correlation techniques provide satisfactory estimates of temporal and spatial distribution of ungaged flows. Records of water diversion for irrigation use were lacking in all of the subbasins. Irrigation diversions are important because they alter the hydrologic system, and thus affect stream depletions, groundwater inputs, evapo-transpiration losses, and irrigation delivery efficiencies. Records for other required inputs were adequate for formulating satisfactory models.

The Bear Lake and Malad subbasins presented the largest problem in the verification process.

The Bear Lake subbasin seems to have a large amount of ungaged inflow and evaporation losses from the lake surface are high. Flow records, diversion records, and data for correlation are lacking for the Malad subbasin. Because of this

problem the Malad model could not be satisfactorily verified. Fortunately, however, the subbasin does not include any of the main stem of the Bear River, and inflows of the Malad River to the Bear River are gaged. All other subbasins could be satisfactorily verified. Until sufficient data are available, the Malad subbasin will be deleted from management studies.

Management applications were demonstrated in the four upper subbasins by changing land use patterns. Perhaps the most significant change in land use would be the complete removal of phreatophytes and this alternative was demonstrated in one of the management runs. Other possible management schemes, not yet tested by the model, might involve the construction of additional reservoirs, enlargement of existing reservoirs, alteration of reservoir operating rules, and various combinations of reservoir operation and land use patterns. Export of water from the basin could be studied though, at present, there are no facilities to perform sizable exports. The management schemes shown are to demonstrate the capability of the model to predict system responses to proposed or desired changes within the system.

## CHAPTER II

### THE BEAR RIVER BASIN

#### Description of the Study Area

The boundaries and subbasins of the Bear River basin are shown in Figure 2.1, which also indicates the location of the existing streamflow measuring stations.

The Bear River (USBR, 1970) originates in Utah but flows through parts of Wyoming, Idaho, and Utah before entering the Great Salt Lake. This interstate river is the largest stream in the Western Hemisphere which terminates before reaching the ocean. The river winds and twists about 500 miles in a U-shaped course to cover the 90 airline miles from its origin to its mouth. Included in the Bear River basin are 7,465 square miles of mountain and valley lands.

From its Utah origin the river flows for 20 miles down the north slopes of the Uinta Mountains, Utah's east-west mountain range. Near the Wyoming border the river enters the Bear River Valley, the first of five major valleys. The valleys are separated by narrow canyons or gorges which form ideal locations for hydroelectric power generation.

The Bear River Valley is the highest and longest valley in the Bear River basin. The valley is narrow, five miles or less in width, and extends for nearly 100 miles along the western border of Wyoming. However, a significant portion of the valley lies in Utah and Idaho.

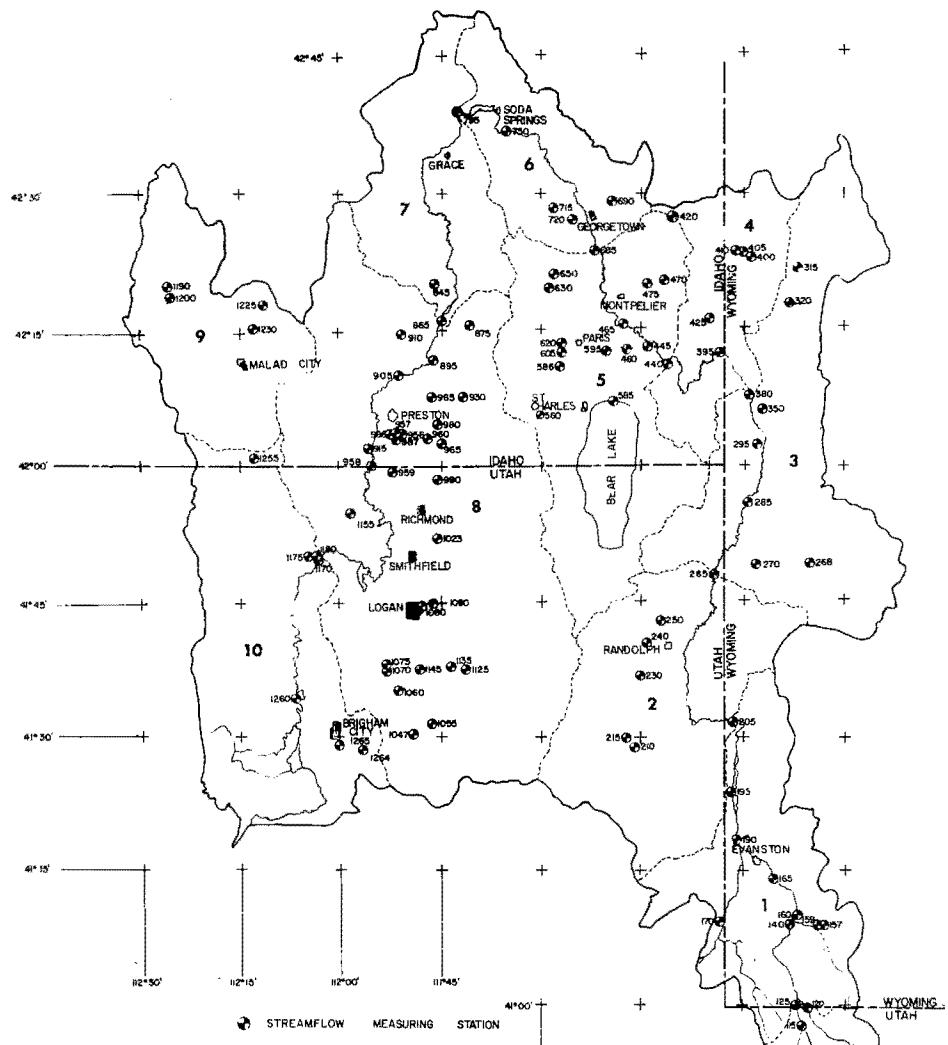
Near the Idaho border the river flows westward to enter the Bear Lake Valley which is about 50 miles long and 12 miles wide. The south end of Bear Lake valley is occupied mostly by Bear Lake and Mud Lake. Bear Lake is about 20 miles long and averages seven miles in width, while Mud Lake, at the north end of Bear Lake, is about three miles in diameter. Bear River did not naturally flow into Bear Lake, but inlet and outlet canals have been constructed north of

the lakes to facilitate hydroelectric power generation. A combined active storage of these two lakes of about 1,450,000 acre-feet provides a complete control of the flow in Bear River at that location.

The river flows northwest from the Bear Lake Valley through several miles of hilly and broken grazing lands and through a narrow channel near Soda Springs, Idaho, into Gem Valley. In the narrow lava channel are located the Soda Reservoir and hydroelectric power plant. Gem Valley is a broad agricultural area which was formed in the northern and central portions by a lava flow plain. Originally, the Bear River flowed north through Gem Valley to the Snake River. However, lava flows eventually turned the course of Bear River south toward the Great Salt Lake. Gem Valley south of the lava flow is about 500 feet lower than the central portion. This drop is used for power generation. The southern portion of Gem Valley is also called Gentile and Mound Valley. At the south end of Gem Valley the river enters the Oneida Narrows, a canyon about 11 miles long, which forms another power generation location.

From Oneida Narrows the Bear River enters Cache Valley, one of the more highly developed valleys in the Bear River basin. The river enters Cache Valley from the northeast, meanders southward, and leaves the valley through a gorge into the Lower Bear River Valley. Cache Valley is about 45 miles long and 10 miles wide. Several tributaries enter Cache Valley and combine with Bear River prior to leaving the valley. The gorge followed by the river in leaving Cache Valley forms a good location for power generation.

The Bear River continues through the Lower Bear River Valley and into the Great Salt Lake. The Lower Bear River Valley is part of the generally flat



<u>Subbasin</u>	<u>Name</u>
1	Evanston
2	Randolph
3	Cokeville
4	Thomas Fork
5	Bear Lake
6	Soda
7	Oneida
8	Cache Valley
9	Malad
10	Tremonton

Figure 2.1. The Bear River basin and subbasins.

Salt Lake Valley that drains toward the Bear River. The Malad River enters the Bear River in the Lower Bear River Valley from an origin some 50 miles to the north.

Valley elevations range from 7,800 feet near Evanston, Wyoming, in the Bear River Valley to 4,200 feet at the Bear River Bay in the Lower Bear River Valley.

#### Climate

Wide seasonal and diurnal temperature variations characterize the typical mountain continental climate of the Bear River basin. The high valleys have long hard winters and short cool summers. The climate of the lower valleys is generally more moderate. The average frost-free season varies from about 30-days in the higher valleys to over 150 days in the Lower Bear River Valley. Precipitation is heaviest in the mountain sections with the majority of precipitation coming as snow. About one-third of the annual precipitation occurs during the growing season which results in the irrigation water demand on the Bear River and its tributaries.

#### Soil Materials

Soils in the Bear River basin have been deposited by winds, lakes, and streams. The parent materials are quartzites and sandstones in the upper valleys; limestone, dolomites, and sandstone in the central valleys; and tuffaceous sediments, limestone, shale, and basalts in the lower valley.

#### Surface Flows

The maximum annual flows normally occur during the snowmelt period in May or June, but can also appear in April or July. The maximum discharge at the Utah-Wyoming border of 2,860 cfs occurred on June 12, 1965. The maximum discharge recorded at the Harer station near the lower end of the Upper Bear River Valley was 4,440 cfs on May 7, 1952. The maximum flow in the Lower Bear

River Valley near Corinne was 7,200 cfs on May 3, 1952. The maximum flows result from melting snow and spring rainstorms. After the snow has melted, the river flow drops to a low level and remains fairly constant through the remainder of the year. Minimum flows have occurred in April, September, October, and November. Local, high intensity, summer thundershowers cause high flows in tributaries but seldom cause record setting flows in the main stem.

Diversion of water from the main stem of the Bear River and its tributaries has increased since about 1860. The consumptive use associated with the increased diversions has affected river flows throughout the entire basin. The average flow near the upper part of the river near the Utah-Wyoming state line is about 135,000 acre-feet per year. The average annual flow at the Harer station east of Dingle, Idaho, is about 367,000 acre-feet. Near Corinne, Utah, the average annual flow of the Bear River is nearly 1,174,000 acre-feet. The length of records used to obtain these estimates is not equal, and the flows are partly controlled; but the comparison does portray the relative magnitudes of flow at successive downstream points along the course of the Bear River.

The quantity of water used consumptively by irrigated crops is usually much less than the total quantity applied. Water used consumptively by evaporation and plant transpiration is lost to the basin. Part of the water applied, but not used consumptively, either percolates to the water table or returns directly to the stream as overland flow. These waters become available for reuse.

#### Land Use

The land use in the Bear River system ranges from pasture and meadow hay in the upper reaches through pasture, alfalfa, and grains in the middle reaches to potatoes, sugar beets, and small truck garden items in the lower reaches. Pasture, alfalfa, and grains are also grown in certain areas of the

lower subbasins. In addition, lakes, rivers, and marshes occupy significant areas within the Bear River basin. The water-loving vegetation which borders these water bodies is classified into the general category of phreatophytes. Because phreatophytes deplete the water supplies they were considered in the model. Municipalities and dwellings cover many acres in the basin. Land use statistics are summarized in Table 2.1.

#### Subbasins

In developing a hydrologic model, spatial resolution is achieved by dividing the total area into specific spatial increments or subbasins. Increasing the number of subbasins within a particular area increases the spatial resolution of the model, and there-

fore, its general utility. However, this trend also increases model complexity, so that data and computer requirements are also usually substantially increased. The selection of the appropriate spatial increment is, therefore, an important phase of hydrologic modeling, and is based upon many considerations, the most important of which is data availability, land and water use patterns, and the resolution required in answering questions relating to basin planning and management problems. In this study the Bear River basin was divided into 10 subbasins, and each of these is outlined in Figure 2.1. Only the valley floor was included in the hydrologic model of each subbasin with surface and subsurface flows to this area being included as inputs to the model.

Table 2.1. Summary of water related land use in the Bear River basin (all units in acres).

Crops	Subbasins	Evanston	Randolph	Canyon	Cache	Bear	Soda	Oneida	Cache	Malad	Tremonton
		01	02	03	Fork	Lake	05	06	Valley	08	09
Alfalfa	1	2599	1916	577	425	8959	2677	11873	52429	8006	17803
Pasture	2	8823	5518	9076	7435	12347	3703	5381	27563	7254	13750
Other hay	3	19835	40025	18982	13064	20121	6098	2367	6058	753	1158
Small grains	4	314	1213	510	319	10098	3022	7927	50020	5064	16645
Corn	5					42		36	9469	182	6513
Sugar beets	6							1471	4827	137	8612
Potatoes	7							1363	289	91	72
Orchard	8								392		2093
Peas	9								0		0
Tomatoes	10								3		507
Small truck	11					46		466	683		217
Idle	12								0		0
Beans	13								275		217
Total		31571	48672	29145	21243	51613	15500	30884	152008	21487	67587
Open water	B	632	884	0	291	21283	848	597	7515	1172	934
Mashes, tules, cattails	C1	609	2145	68	720	7307	0	0	15863	1758	3092
Grasses, willows, cottonwoods	C2	3523	765	1344	199	3100	2886	1233	15771	2930	4525
Grasses & med. density trees	C3	261	608	15	0	2636	0	0	5776	0	2698
Low water table, light density	C4	2434	2073	803	924	8030	1890	1005	7775	163	9506
Total		7459	6475	2230	2134	42356	5624	2835	52700	6023	20755

## CHAPTER III

### THE HYDROLOGIC MODEL

Simulation is a technique for investigating the behavior or response of a dynamic system subject to particular constraints and input functions. This technique has been applied by means of both physical and electronic models. Physical models and analog models consisting of electrical resistor-capacitor networks have been used to investigate hydraulic and hydrologic phenomena for many years. However, simulation by means of high-speed electronic computers is a relatively new technique.

The advantages of simulation include the following:

1. The system can be non-destructively tested, which is of practical interest in the hydrologic design of structures such as large dams and flood control works in a river basin.
2. Proposed modifications of existing systems can be tested for improved performance. This is especially desirable if the original system is in operation, since operation time will not be lost during testing.
3. Hypothetical system designs may be verified at minimum expense, thus paying large dividends if the proposed system turns out to be inefficient.
4. Simulation provides insight into the system being studied and is thus a powerful teaching device.

#### Formulation of a Hydrologic Model

#### 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 general research philosophy involved in the development of a simulation model of a dynamic system, such as a hydrologic unit, is shown by the flow diagram of Figure 3.1. In addition to predicting system responses to particular input functions and parameter changes, the process of model development provides for improvement of system relationships.

#### The Conceptual Model

The hydrologic model utilized in this study is a modified version of that developed in earlier studies involving the computer simulation of a complete watershed unit (Riley et al., 1966 and 1967). Simplification was achieved by including only the valley bottom lands of each subbasin.

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, including all of the subbasins located within the Bear River basin. Experimental and analytical results were used whenever possible 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 3.2. 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, 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. Each parameter and process depicted by Figure 3.2 is discussed in some detail in the following sections.

#### 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 three 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:

$$\text{Input} = \text{Output} + \text{Change in storage}$$

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 3.2. 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 3.2 is a schematic representation of the system processes and storage locations and their relationship to each other. In the model each box and connecting 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

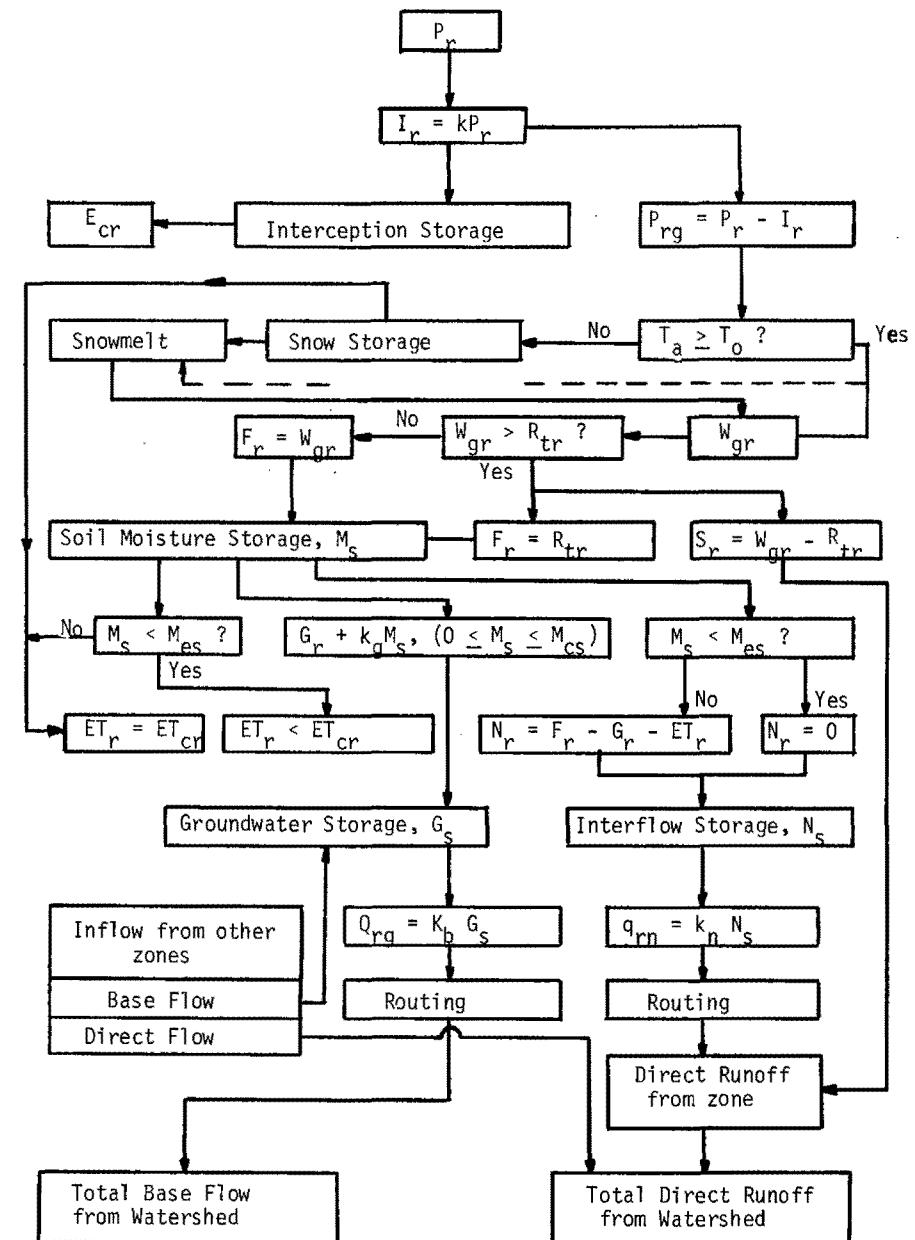
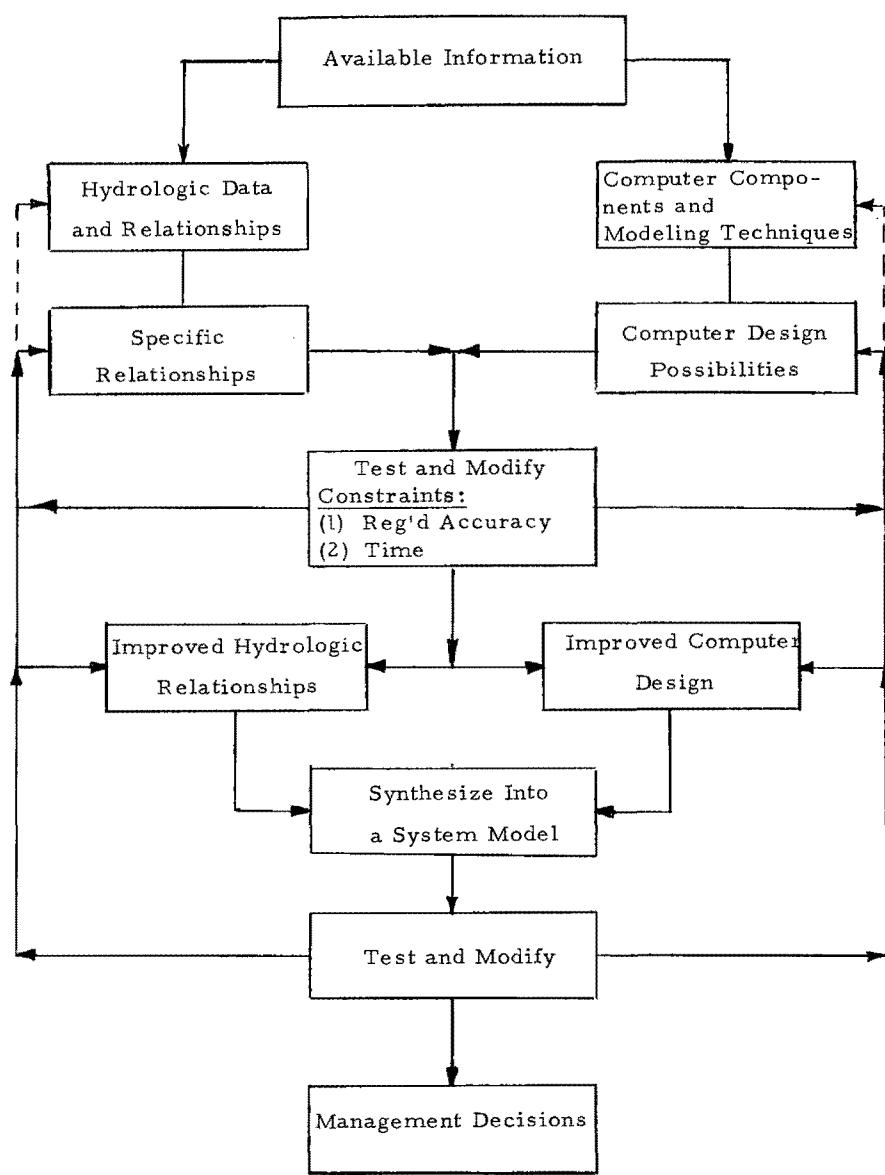


Figure 3.1. Development process of a hydrologic model.

Figure 3.2 Flow diagram for a typical hydrologic model using large time increments.

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 computer capacity and capability.

For the study of the Upper Bear River basin discussed by 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. Except in headwater reaches, no streams in the Bear River basin now carry natural flows. Artificial diversions and regulatory action in lakes and reservoirs affect the regimes of 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 (Chow, 1964), 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 in the Bear River basin, 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:

$$S_{wr} = W_{gr} - R_{tr}, \quad (S_{wr} \geq 0) \quad . . . \quad (3.1)$$

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,

$$S_{wr} = 0, \quad (W_{gr} \leq R_{tr}) \quad . . . \quad (3.2)$$

The model does provide for surface runoff from agricultural lands due to irrigation application rates which exceed soil infiltration rates. This 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  $Q_{is}(m)$ .

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

$$Q_{is}(u) = f[q_{is}(m), P_r, W_{sr}] \quad . . . \quad (3.3)$$

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 of rain on the valley floor

$W_{sr}$  = estimated snowmelt rate in terms of water equivalent

If empirical correlation factors are included in the preceding equation, the expression becomes:

$$Q_{is}(u) = k_u q_{is}(m) + k_a P_r + k_b W_{sr} \quad . . . \quad (3.4)$$

in which  $k_u$ ,  $k_a$ , and  $k_b$  are correlation factors relating 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 3.4, 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 3.4 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 3.4 considers the influence of snowmelt upon surface runoff. Snowmelt rates on the valley floor are predicted in the model by Equation 3.9. This process is discussed in further detail 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 3.4. Thus,

$$Q_{is} = Q_{is}(m) + Q_{is}(u) . . . . . \quad (3.5)$$

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, subsurface flow data are sparse within the Bear River basin. Time and spatial distribution of groundwater flows in this study were 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. As the study proceeded downstream to lower subbasins, it generally became apparent through the time distribution of the water inputs to the model in relation to the recorded outflow that groundwater inflow rates were appreciable. Correlation procedures and transport delays were then used to estimate and simulate groundwater movement into the subbasin. This water was then distributed with time through use of long transport delay networks on the computer. The required delay setting of these networks was established during the model verification process. Hence, the rate of groundwater inflow was described as follows:

$$Q_{ig}(u) = k_c q_{is} . . . . . \quad (3.6)$$

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  
 $q_{is}$  = rate of surface runoff (either total measured tributary inflow or measured tributary inflow or measured inflow from a representative tributary)

For some subbasins a subsurface outflow, as groundwater movement under the outflow gage in the streambed alluvium, was determined by the model verification process. The time and spatial distribution of this outflow formed 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 flow 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. These records were utilized wherever possible.

The remaining two components of total inflow, namely ungaged surface inflow and groundwater inflow, are estimated from Equation 3.4 and 3.6, respectively. Therefore, the total inflow,  $Q_i$ , to a given subbasin within the Bear River basin is given by the following expression:

$$Q_i = Q_{is} + Q_{ig} . . . . . \quad (3.7)$$

in which the terms  $Q_{is}$  and  $Q_{ig}$  are given by Equations 3.5 and 3.6, 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. Common spatial integration techniques include the Thiessen weighting procedures and the isohyetal method (Linsley, Kohler, and Paulhus, 1958). A modified isohyetal technique was used to estimate precipitation as a function of time for each subbasin. Some precipitation data are available for all subbasins adopted 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  $35^{\circ}\text{F}$ , there is a 50 percent chance that precipitation will be as snow, whereas at  $32^{\circ}\text{F}$  the probability is 95 percent of precipitation falling as snow. However, in this study a double standard was used because average monthly temperatures provided the criteria. Snow was assumed to fall below about  $35^{\circ}\text{F}$ , and snowmelt was assumed to occur above about  $30^{\circ}\text{F}$ . This assumption provided for the occurrence of snowfall and snowmelt during the same month. These threshold temperatures varied in the different subbasins.

A part of the precipitation falling on an area is stored on the vegetative cover. Because most of this water later returns to the atmosphere through the evaporation process, vegetative interception is regarded as a loss. Interception losses which occur over a long time period, such as a month, are generally expressed as a fraction of the total precipitation for that period (U. S. Army, 1956). That part of the precipitation which reaches the ground, namely the difference between the total precipitation and the interception losses, is generally labeled as "effective precipitation" for the area.

The magnitude of the interception loss is basically a function of the type and density of the vegetative cover within the area. Interception losses for forested areas may be considerable, while interception losses for sparsely timbered and grass covered areas might be small. Since the model of this study includes only the valley floors, which are essentially flat, agriculturally oriented areas, interception losses are neglected, and all precipitation is assumed to be effective.

Some of the precipitation which reaches the ground is retained in depression storage. This form of storage includes puddles and other depressions in the soil surface. Water leaves depression storage through either direct evaporation or as infiltration into the soil. Thus, for models involving large time increments, such as a month, abstractions to depression storage need not be treated separately but can be assumed to be a part of the total evapotranspiration and infiltration loss from the total precipitation quantity.

#### 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. One approach to this problem of spatial integration is to construct isothermal lines for particular time periods and to relate these to selected index stations (Riley and Chadwick, 1967). However, 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 rational 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 phenomena 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:

$$\frac{d[W_s(t)]}{dt} = - k_s (T_a - T_b) \frac{RI_s}{RI_h} W_s(t) . . . (3.9)$$

in which the undefined terms are:

$k_s$  = a constant

$T_a$  = surface air temperature in degrees

F

- $RI_s$  = 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  
 $W_s$  = snow storage in terms of water equivalent  
 $T_b$  = assumed base temperature in degrees or F at which melt begins to occur.  
 In this study  $T_b$  was taken as being equal to 32° F.

Riley et al. (1966) report reasonable agreement between predicted snowmelt rates from Equation 3.9 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 parameter 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 simplified Equation 3.9 in that  $RI_s$  becomes equal to  $RI_h$  and their ratio goes to unity.

The independent variables on the right side of Equation 3.9 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  $W_s(t)$  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, the differential form of Equation 3.9 becomes:

$$\frac{W_s(1)}{W_s(0)} \int \frac{dW_s}{W_s} = -k_s(T_a - 32) \int_0^1 dt \dots \quad (3.10)$$

$$W_s(1) = W_s(0) \exp [-k_s(T_a - 32)] \dots \quad (3.11)$$

#### Canal Diversions

Canal diversions profoundly affect the time and spatial distribution of water within an irrigated area. A portion of this diverted water is evaporated directly to the atmosphere, a second part enters the soil profile through canal seepage and infiltration on the irrigated lands, and the remainder returns to the source as overland flow. 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 factor used in this study includes both the conveyance and application efficiencies. Thus, multiplying total diversions by this factor provides an estimate of that quantity of water which returns directly to the stream as overland flow and/or interflow. This composite irrigation efficiency factor is given by the following expression.

$$Eff = 100 \frac{W_{dr}}{W_{tr}} \dots \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.12)$$

in which

$Eff$  = water conveyance and application efficiency in percent

$W_{dr}$  = rate at which diverted water enters the soil through seepage and infiltration

$W_{tr}$  = 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. The distribution of canal diversion within the hydrologic system can now be expressed as follows:

$$OF_r = (1 - Eff/100) W_{tr} + N_r \dots \quad (3.13)$$

or

$$OF_r = (W_{tr} - W_{dr}) + N_r \dots \dots \quad (3.14)$$

in which

$OF_r$  = total of overland flow (from irrigation applications at rates exceeding infiltration capacity rates) and interflow rates

$N_r$  = interflow rate

All other quantities have been previously defined under Equation 3.12.

It is pointed out that evapotranspiration losses do not appear as such in Equation 3.13 and 3.14. These losses are, however, considered because they are abstracted from the infiltration quantity represented by  $W_{dr}$ . The evapotranspiration process will be further discussed in a subsequent section.

#### 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 expressed 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, effective 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. The rate at which water from this source enters the soil profile through canal seepage and infiltration has been designated as  $W_{dr}$ . Thus, the total water available for infiltration into the soil,  $W_{gr}$ , can be written as:

$$W_{gr} = W_{dr} + P_r + W_{sr} \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.15)$$

in which all quantities are as previously defined.

Available soil moisture quantities. The maximum quantity of water in a soil available for use by plants is a function of the moisture holding capacity 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 agriculture 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 McCulloch 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,  $G_r$ . The assumption is made, however, that deep percolation does not occur until the soil moisture capacity is reached. Thus, the soil moisture storage existing at any time,  $t$ , can be stated:

$$M_s(t) = (F_r - ET_r - G_r) dt \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.16)$$

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 influences infiltration rate.

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

$$F_r = W_{gr}, (W_{gr} \leq R_{tr}) \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.17)$$

and

$$F_r = R_{tr}, (W_{gr} > R_{tr}) \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.18)$$

for which all terms were previously defined. The quantity  $W_{gr}$  is Equation 3.17 is given by Equation 3.15.

#### Evapotranspiration

The second term on the right side of Equation 3.16 represents depletion from the soil moisture storage through the evapotranspiration

process,  $ET_r$ . Consumptive 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, 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:

$$U = kf \dots \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.19)$$

in which

$U$  = 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:

$$f = \frac{tp}{100} \dots \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.20)$$

in which

$t$  = mean monthly temperature in degrees F

$p$  = monthly percentage of daylight hours of the year

A modification to 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:

$$k_t = (0.0173 T_a - 0.314) \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.21)$$

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. Typical curves which indicate values of  $k_c$  throughout the growth cycle of particular crops are shown by Figure 3.3 which is for alfalfa. Similar  $k_c$  curves 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:

$$ET_{cr} = k_c k_t \frac{T_a p}{100} \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.22)$$

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 3.22 was adopted for this study model. Since the time increment selected for use was one month, the variables on the right of Equation 3.22 represent mean monthly values although these parameters could be expressed as continuous functions instead of the indicated step functions. Thus, Equation 3.22 estimates the mean potential evapotranspiration rate during each month.

The growing season was assumed to begin and end when the mean monthly air temperature reached a value of  $32^{\circ}\text{F}$ . Evapotranspiration losses from the agriculture area during the non-cropping season were estimated from Equation 3.22. 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 al., 1967), this curve was used as a guide in the development of a similar  $k_c$  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. Recent studies by the U.S. Salinity Laboratory in California (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. Thereafter, an essentially linear relationship exists between available soil moisture quantity and actual transpiration rate. The actual evapotranspiration rate is expressed by Riley, Chadwick, and Bagley (1966) in accordance with the end conditions which accompany the two following equations:

$$ET_r = ET_{cr}, [M_{es} < M_s(t) \leq M_{cs}] . . . (3.23)$$

and

$$ET_r = ET_{cr} \frac{M_s(t)}{M_{es}}, (0 \leq M_s(t) \leq M_{es}) . . . (3.24)$$

in which

- $ET_r$  = actual evapotranspiration rate
- $ET_{cr}$  = potential evapotranspiration rate
- $M_{es}$  = 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

Because they are differential with respect to time, both Equations 3.23 and 3.24 are easily programmed on the computer. In the integrated form Equation 3.24 appears as:

$$M_s(2) = M_s(1) \exp \left[ -\frac{ET_{cr}}{M_{es}} (t_2 - t_1) \right] . . . (3.25)$$

in which  $M_s(1)$  and  $M_s(2)$  are the soil moisture storage values at time  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , respectively. Hence, when conditions are such that the available soil moisture storage reduces the potential evapotranspiration rate, the actual consumptive use rate can be expressed by combining Equation 3.22 and 3.24 to read:

$$ET_r = \frac{M_s}{M_{es}} k_c k_t \frac{T_a P}{100} . . . . . (3.26)$$

Equation 3.26 is programmed on the computer to estimate actual evapotranspiration rate. The equation reduces to Equation 3.22 when  $M_s > M_{es}$  so that  $ET_r = ET_{cr}$ .

Effects of slope and elevation on evapotranspiration. In that they affect the available energy supply, land slope (degree and aspect) and elevation influence the evapotranspiration process. Riley and Chadwick (1967) considered the effects of slope by introducing a radiation index parameter. These same authors also introduced an elevation correction into Equation 3.26. This adjustment is necessary for watershed studies since surface air temperature becomes a less reliable index of the available energy with increased elevation above the valley floor. However, because the model of this study was confined to the relatively flat valley floor areas, the effect of both slope and elevation on the evapotranspiration rate is neglected.

### Deep Percolation

The final independent term,  $G_r$ , of Equation 3.16 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. 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 only when the available soil moisture is at its capacity level. In most cases, this assumption causes only slight deviation from prototype conditions. Thus, for this model, the deep percolation rate is expressed as:

$$G_r = F_r - ET_{cr}, [M_s(t) = M_{cs}] \quad . . . \quad (3.27)$$

$$G_r = 0, [M_s(t) < M_{cs}] \quad (3.28)$$

in which all terms are as previously defined.

### River Outflow

Using the continuity of mass principle (Equation 2.1) 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 abstractions 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 for 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:

$$Q_o = Q_{is} - W_{tr} + OF_r + Q_{ob} - Q_e \quad . . . \quad (3.29)$$

in which

$Q_o$	= total rate of outflow from the system
$Q_{is}$	= rate of total surface inflow to the subbasin including both measured and unmeasured flows
$W_{tr}$	= total rate at which water is diverted from the stream or reservoir
$OF_r$	= 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
$Q_e$	= 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,  $Q_{so}$ , is given by Equation 3.29. 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:

$$Q_{to} = Q_{so} + Q_{go} \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.30)$$

in which

$Q_{so}$  = rate of surface outflow from the subbasin

$Q_{go}$  = rate of subsurface or groundwater outflow from the subbasin

Surface outflow rates,  $Q_{so}$ , can be compared to the recorded values, but subsurface outflow rates,  $Q_{go}$ , are unmeasured and must be predicted or estimated. In this study it was assumed that the subsurface outflow rates were directly proportional to the total outflow rates, and  $Q_{go}$  was therefore estimated by the following relationship:

$$Q_{go} = k_d Q_o \dots \dots \dots \quad (3.31)$$

in which

$k_d$  = a coefficient determined by model verification representing the percentage of total outflow which leaves the basin as subsurface flow.

Because of storage and permeability effects, fluctuations in groundwater flow rates tend to be much less extreme than in the case of surface flows. The value of  $k_d$  in Equation 3.31 was, therefore, not maintained as a constant, but was expressed as an inverse function of the surface flow rate,  $Q_{so}$ . During the spring runoff period, for example, the predicted increases in subsurface

outflow rate,  $Q_{go}$ , from Equation 3.31 were considerably less extreme than the increases in observed or computed surface flow rate,  $Q_{so}$ . Relationships expressing  $k_d$  as a function of  $Q_{so}$  were developed for each subbasin through the model verification process.

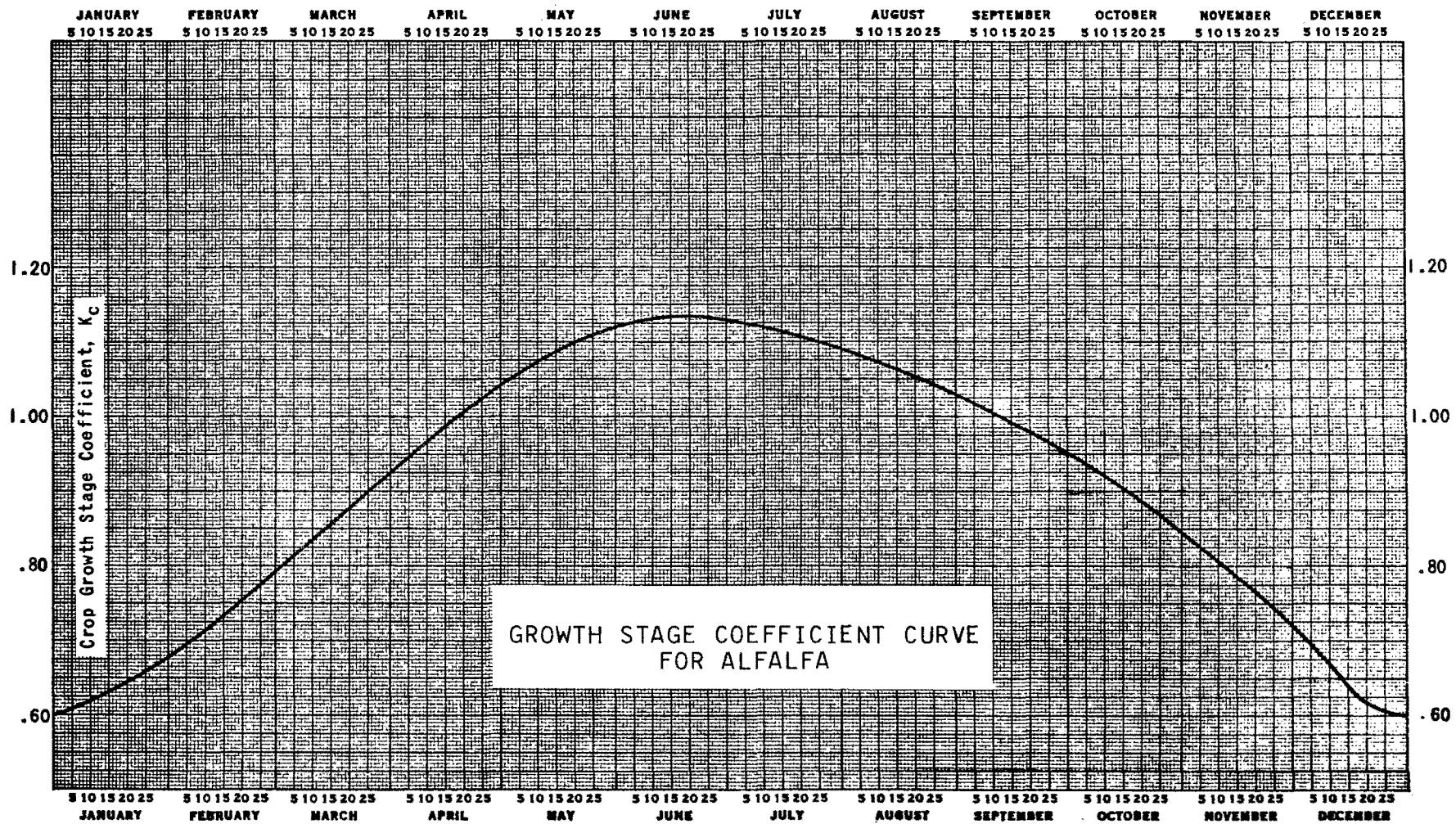


Figure 3.3. Crop growth stage coefficient curve for alfalfa. (Adapted from U. S. Soil Conservation Service Technical Release No. 21)

## CHAPTER IV

### THE COMPUTER MODEL

A computer model of a hydrologic system is produced by programming the mathematical relationships and logic functions of the hydrologic model as described in the previous chapter. The model does not directly simulate the real physical system, but is analogous to the prototype, because both systems are described by the same mathematical relationships. A mathematical function which describes a basic process, such as evapotranspiration, is applicable to many different hydrologic systems. The simulation program developed for the computer incorporates general equations of the various basic processes which occur within the system. The computer model, therefore, is free of the geometric restrictions which are encountered in simulation by means of network analyzers and physical models. The model is applied to a particular prototype system by establishing, through a verification procedure, appropriate constant values for the equations required by the system.

Electronic computers fall into one of three general classifications, namely analog, digital, and hybrid. The computing components of an analog computer execute the basic operations of addition, multiplication, function generation, and, most important in the study of dynamic or time variant systems, high-speed integration. By connecting computing components through a program "patch panel," it is possible to form an electronic model of a differential equation or a series of differential equations which describe the dynamic performance or operation of a physical system.

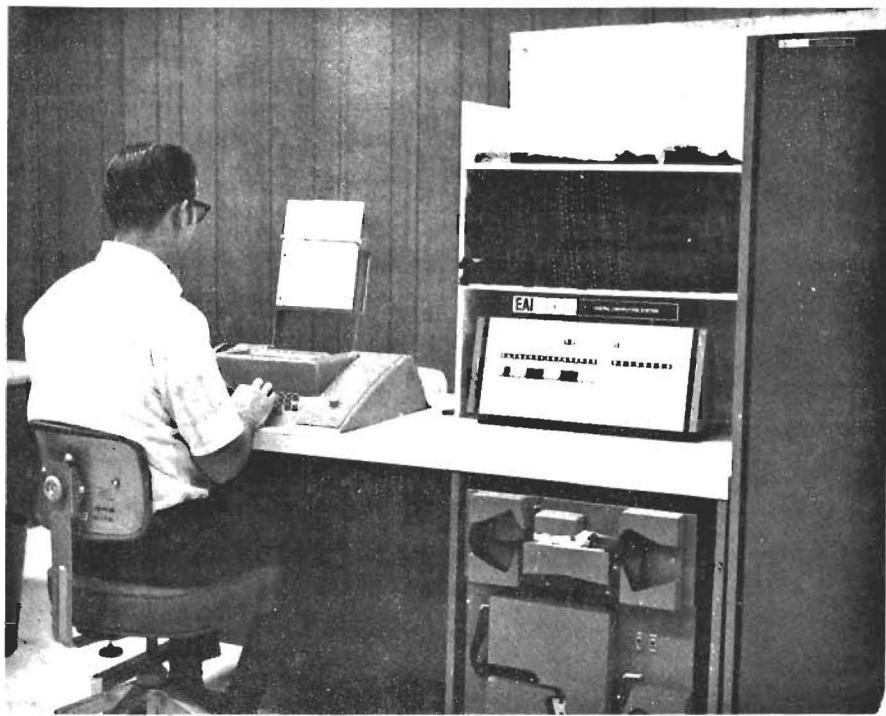
The general-purpose digital computer processes information which is reported by combinations of discrete or instructive data, as compared with the analog computer which operates on continuous data. While the analog computer is a "parallel" system

in which all problem variables are operated on simultaneously, the digital computer is basically a "sequential" system performing step by step operations at high speed.

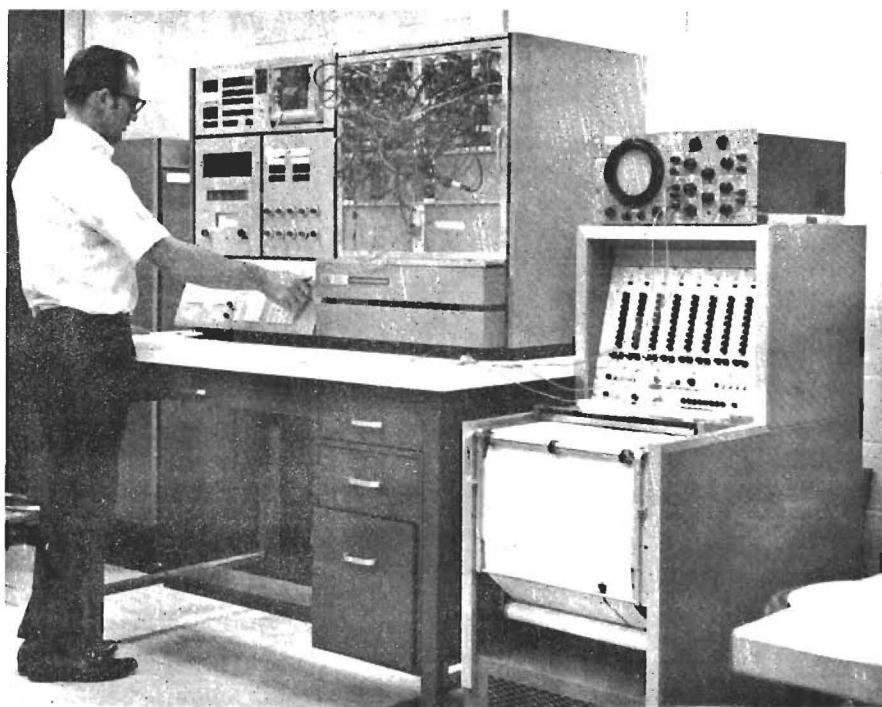
The digital computer is useful in processing large quantities of data or in solving complex mathematical problems which can be converted to a large number of simple arithmetic operations by the operator or by the computer. The digital computer can perform sequences of arithmetic and logical operations, not only on data, but also in its own program, and is, therefore, an immensely powerful device for processing or manipulating large amounts of discrete data and for performing precise arithmetic calculations at high speed.

In analog simulation, the operator communicates with, or controls, the simulation by means of hardware controls, while viewing the continuous problem solution. The digital computer programmer communicates with the computer primarily through "software" or programming languages. The design of software has become of equal or greater significance than hardware design. The development of "higher-order" or problem-oriented languages, in which one programming statement triggers a large number of sequential computer operations, has helped to simplify the interface problem between the user and the digital system.

The hybrid computer combines the memory and logic capabilities of the digital with the high speed and nonlinear solution capabilities of the analog. In addition, the high speed iterative solutions and graphic display which are characteristics of the hybrid computer provide close interaction between the hydrologist and the model. These features make the hybrid a very powerful computer in the development and verification of simulation



The console of the digital unit.



A view of the analog unit showing the servo-set pots, digital voltmeter, program board, and output devices.

Figure 4.1. Two views of the hybrid computer facility at the Utah Water Research Laboratory.

models. Two views of the Electronic Associates Incorporated (EAI) 590 hybrid computer available at the Utah Water Research Laboratory are shown by Figure 4.1.

The computer simulation model of the Bear River hydrologic system was programmed on the hybrid computer. The digital portion of the model was coded in FORTRAN IV (EAI subset), and the analog portion was programmed for the EAI 580 computer. Because an analog computer operates within specific voltage limits, in this case  $\pm 10$  volts, it was necessary to scale the analog component of the model such that these limits were not exceeded. The basic data were input to the digital computer, which processed and controlled the operation of the hydrologic mass balance model programmed on the analog component of the hybrid computer. Monthly values of input and output data were printed as stipulated in the program by the on-line printer as the simulation proceeded. Graphical output at various points within the model was obtained by connecting the x-y plotter to the appropriate terminals on the analog patch-board.

As mentioned earlier, the computer program is general in nature, and is applied to a particular prototype system by a verification procedure.

A general view of the program control structure is shown by Figure 4.2. As illustrated by this figure, the program contains several subroutines, each of which is controlled by the main program, labeled OPVER. Program OPVER performs the following two functions: (1) establishes the various options available for performing the hydrologic simulation, and (2) controls the operation of the modified pattern search for calibrating the model for a particular subbasin. The five options available through OPVER are as follows:

1. Simulation of an entire system of sub-basins without exiting from the simulation subroutine, HYDSM.

2. Input only basic data which are considered to be common for all subbasins that may be subsequently run.
3. Input and operate with data for a particular subbasin. Option 2 must have been previously selected.
4. Rerun the last simulation performed. Options 2 and 3 must have been previously selected.
5. Perform pattern search on subbasin data presently in memory. Options 2 and 3 must have been previously specified.

The subroutine interaction is illustrated by Figure 4.3. Program OPVER establishes the entry and exit conditions for HYDSM, which in turn calls the particular subroutines needed to perform the operations specified by OPVER. OPVER also calls the analog potentiometer subroutine POTST without going through HYDSM during the pattern search operation. A listing of the digital program, a flow chart of the analog program, flow charts for OPVER and the primary subroutines, program notations, and general instructions for use of the model are given in Appendix B.

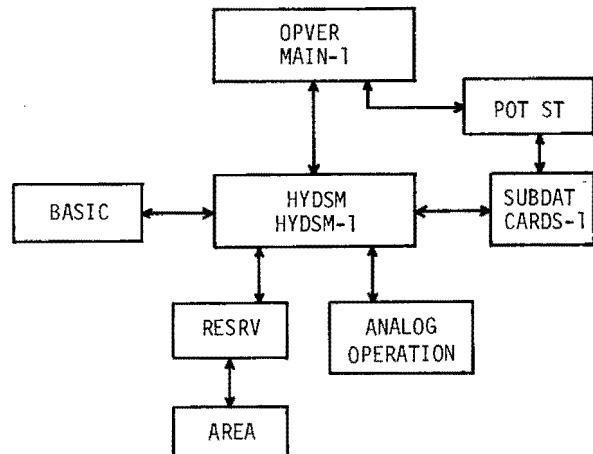


Figure 4.2. General view of the program control structure.

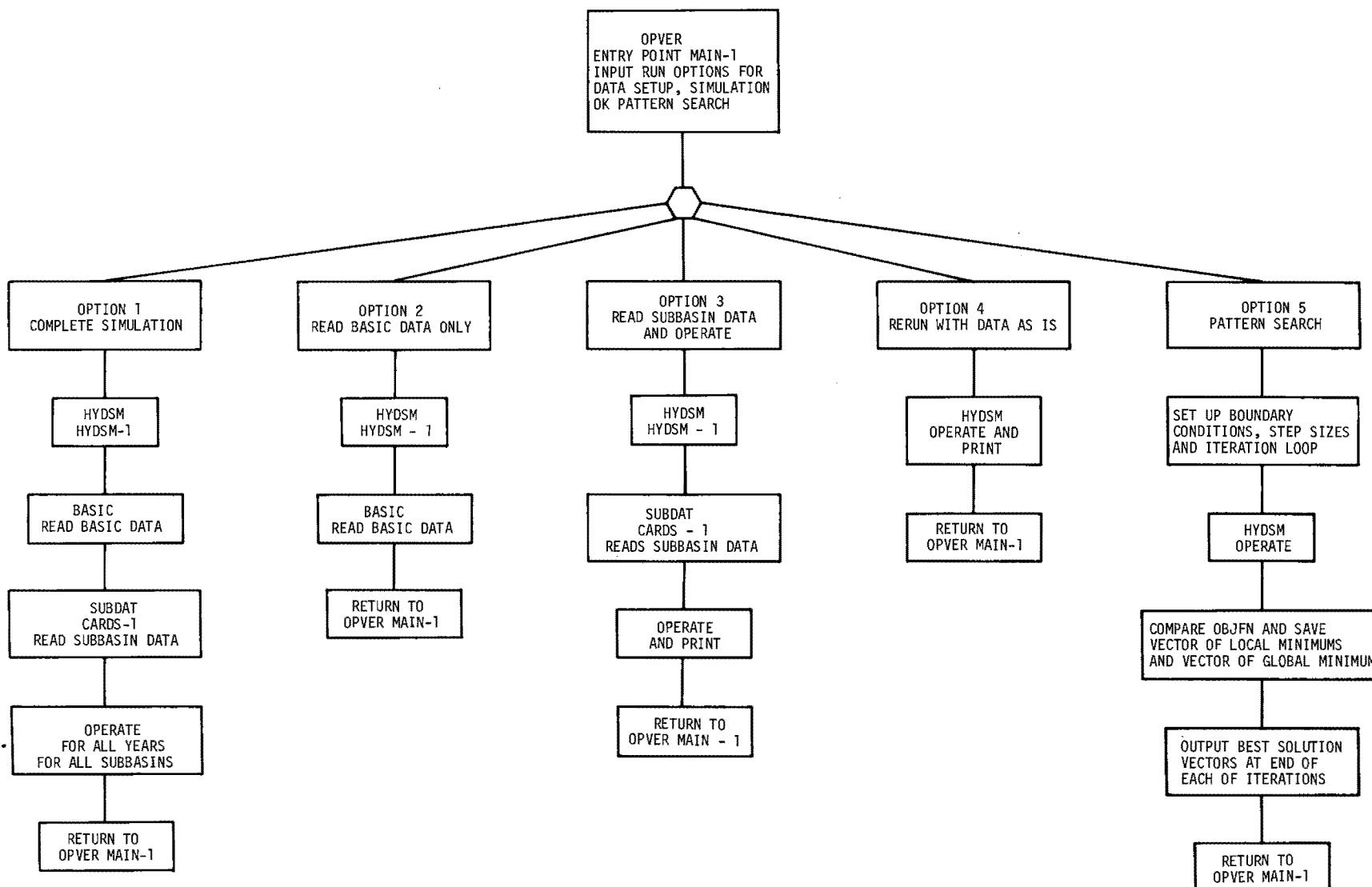


Figure 4.3. A flow diagram of the subroutine interaction for program OPVER.

CHAPTER V  
APPLICATION OF THE HYDROLOGIC MODEL  
TO THE BEAR RIVER BASIN

Verification

The general hydrologic model discussed in the previous chapter is applied to a particular basin through a verification procedure whereby the values of certain model parameters are established for a particular prototype system. Verification of a simulation model is performed in two steps, namely calibration, or system identification, and testing of the model. Data from the prototype system are required in both phases of the verification process. Model calibration involves adjustment of the model parameters until a close fit is achieved between observed and computed output functions. It therefore follows that the accuracy of the model cannot exceed that provided by the historical data from the prototype system.

Evaluation of the model parameters can follow any desired pattern, whether it be random or specified. In this study, each unknown system coefficient is assigned an initial value, an upper and lower bounds, and the number of increments to cover the range. The first selected variable is varied through the specified range while all other variables remain at their initial value. The values of the objective function (measure of error) for each value of the variable are printed, and the value which produced the minimum is stored. After completion of the runs for the first variable, the variable is reset to the initial value and the second variable is taken through the same procedure. After all coefficients have been varied, the set of values which produced each local minimum is run and the resultant objective function value is compared with the smallest attained in all previous runs. The vector which produced the minimum objective function value is selected as the initial

vector for the next phase and the process is repeated until a coefficient vector is found which produces a reasonable correspondence between computed and observed outflows. The algorithm used to implement the many trials required for model calibration is included in Appendix B as part of the digital computer source program for the model.

It should be noted that the choice of the variable vector for each phase is based on the judgment and experience of the programmer. However, selection of all variable vectors following the first choice is tempered by the experience gained during the first phase and subsequent phases of the procedure. Thus, model verification effectively uses all previous experience, including that gained during the verification procedure.

Calibration of the model of this study was based on three years of prototype data. Model output was compared to measured output by computing the sum of the squared deviations, which became the objective function for the pattern search procedure described previously. The final parameter vector that was selected to represent the system was that which minimized the objective function in the calibration procedure. The three years of data required 36 monthly solutions of the simultaneous system of equations in terms of water quantities as a function of time. Ideally, calibration data should cover a wide range of input values, such as those corresponding to a dry, a wet, and an average year.

Comparisons between the observed and computed output values from the calibrated model are shown by Figures 5.1 through 5.9. The verified model coefficients are shown in detail in Appendix C. When values of the model coefficients which produce acceptable reproductions of the output

function from a prototype system have been established, the model is said to be calibrated for that system. It is then assumed that the model is capable of predicting realistic system outputs corresponding to various input functions and system parameters.

#### Sensitivity Analysis

A sensitivity analysis is performed by changing one system variable while holding the remaining variables constant and noting the changes in the model output functions. If small changes in a particular system parameter induce large changes in the output or response function, the system is said to be sensitive to that parameter. Thus, through sensitivity analyses it is possible to establish the relative importance with respect to system response of various system processes and input functions. This kind of information is useful from the standpoint of system management, system modeling, and the assignment of priorities in the collection of field data.

The computer model that was developed under this study performs a sensitivity analysis during calibration. The final phase of the model calibration procedure sets out the most meaningful sensitivity analysis since at this stage all parameters are near their final values. Careful study of the outputs from the verification procedure in Table 5.1 reveals the results of the sensitivity analysis. For example, a seven-fold increase in variable 11 reduced the objective function by about 40 percent, while increasing variable two by something less than double produced a four-fold change in the objective function. On the other hand, a four-fold increase in parameter 13 caused very little change in the objective function. Therefore, variable 13 would be given a low priority for more thorough scrutinization. However, variable two would be given a high priority for additional study. Table

5.1 shows the sensitivity of the variables for the Evanston subbasin. Similar analyses were made for each subbasin of the Bear River basin. Table 5.1 also indicates the gradient of the objective function for each variable parameter, or the rate of change of the objective function per unit change in any variable. This information is useful for establishing parameter values which minimize the objective function, and for estimating the sensitivity of this function to changes in the variable parameters. For each phase of the calibration procedure, initial values of the gradient for each variable are set equal to zero.

Table 5.2 is a printout from the computer program and represents a phase of the calibration process. The table presents the variable parameter number, the terminal values at each end of the range, the increment by which each parameter is changed during the calibration procedure, and the number of runs needed to cover the range. In this case, the initial and final vectors are almost identical because they represent the last phase of the verification procedure. Previous phases in the calibration procedure would show more differences between corresponding parameter values in the initial and final vectors.

#### Management Opportunities

Opportunities for management of water in the Bear River basin are widely varied and range from a change in cropping patterns to water storage and export. Actual implementation of a management scheme will depend on benefits gained as compared to the costs of implementation. The simulation model developed under this study does not make comparisons of benefits and costs, but does predict changes in the system output associated with given management alternatives. The management schemes tested in this study do not begin to cover the possible combinations, but do demonstrate the capability of



Table 5.2. Computer printout showing summary of calibration process.

PR	NP	PH	PL	XIN	OD
1	3	.900	.600	.900	.100
2	5	.500	.300	.380	.040
3	1	1.000	1.000	1.000	.000
4	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
5	5	.700	.200	.700	.100
6	5	.070	.020	.030	.010
7	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
8	4	33.000	31.000	32.000	.500
9	6	26.000	23.000	24.000	.500
10	1	10.000	10.000	10.000	.700
11	6	7.000	1.000	7.000	1.000
12	4	12.000	8.000	11.000	1.000
13	4	.400	.000	.200	.100
14	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
15	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
16	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
17	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
18	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
19	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
20	1	2.500	2.500	2.500	.700
21	4	4.000	2.000	2.500	.500

#### XIN

I	XIN
1	.900
2	.380
3	1.000
4	.000
5	.700
6	.030
7	.000
8	32.000
9	24.000
10	10.000
11	7.000
12	11.000
13	.200
14	.000
15	.000
16	.000
17	.000
18	.000
19	.000
20	2.500
21	2.500

the model to rapidly test many possible schemes. It is again emphasized that a simulation model does not of itself produce an optimum solution in terms of management objectives. The technique does, however, facilitate a rapid evaluation of many possible alternatives. An analytical optimizing procedure, used in conjunction with a simulation model, could produce system optimization in terms of a specific objective function.

The ability of the model to predict outflow characteristics under various management conditions is demonstrated for the Evanston subbasin. The predicted total annual outflows under actual conditions for 1954, 1955, and 1956 are given in Appendix C as being 72,183; 92,544; and 150,918 acre-feet, respectively. The computed outflow hydrograph on a mean monthly basis is shown by Figure 5.1. Studies were then conducted to investigate the changes induced in this hydrograph by three entirely different sets of assumed conditions within the subbasin.

#### Case 1

Conditions were changed in the model to represent the removal of all phreatophytes from the subbasin. In addition, it was assumed that sufficient irrigation water was applied to support potential evapotranspiration rates and to maintain available soil moisture levels at no less than 2.5 inches. Precipitation, temperature, and stream inflow data for the years 1954, 1955, and 1956 were input to the model. The computed outflow hydrograph under these conditions for this three-year period is shown by Figure 5.10. The corresponding predicted total annual outflows from the subbasin are 93,341; 113,227; and 163,983 acre-feet, respectively, as shown in Appendix D, Evanston 1-1. The negative surface outflow quantities in this case indicate diversions of more irrigation water than was available in the river, and are, therefore, an indication of the storage required to satisfy the water requirements during the irrigation season. In the restricted case where irrigation diversions are limited to the water available in the stream, the computed total annual outflows are 111,313; 125,508; and 181,826 acre-feet for 1954, 1955, and 1956, respectively (Appendix D, Evanston 1-2). Corresponding mean monthly discharge values during this three-year period are shown by Figure 5.10. It is interesting to note that total outflow quantities under the

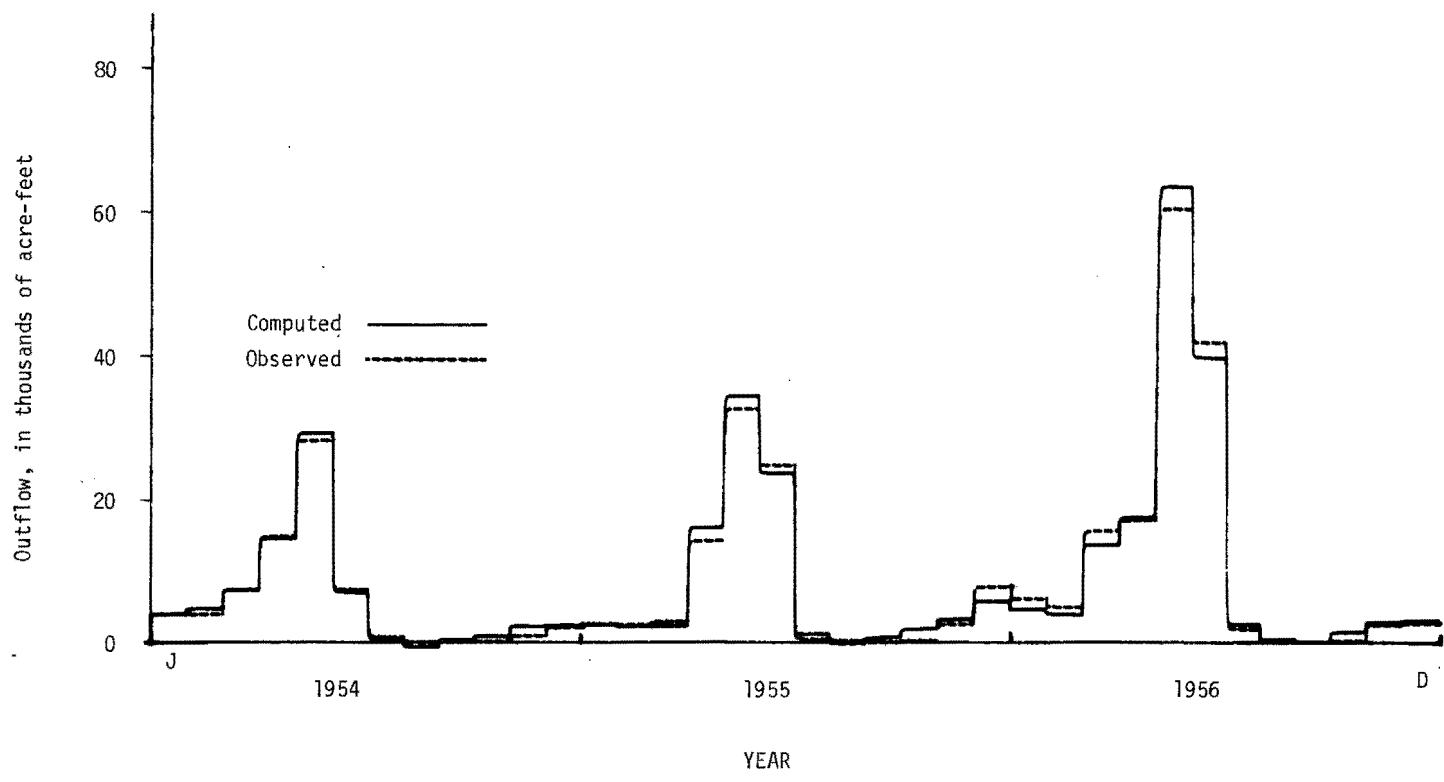


Figure 5.1. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Evanston subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

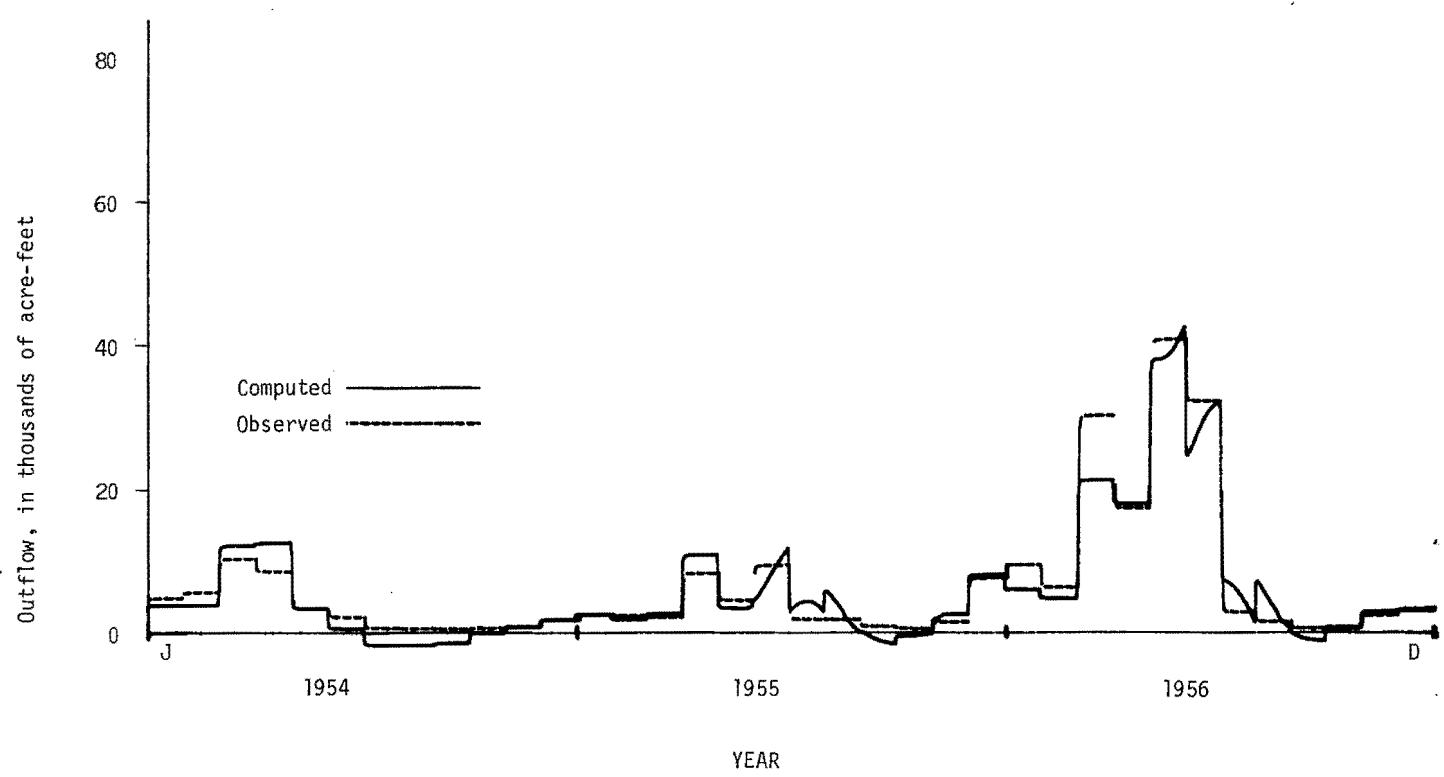


Figure 5.2. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Randolph subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

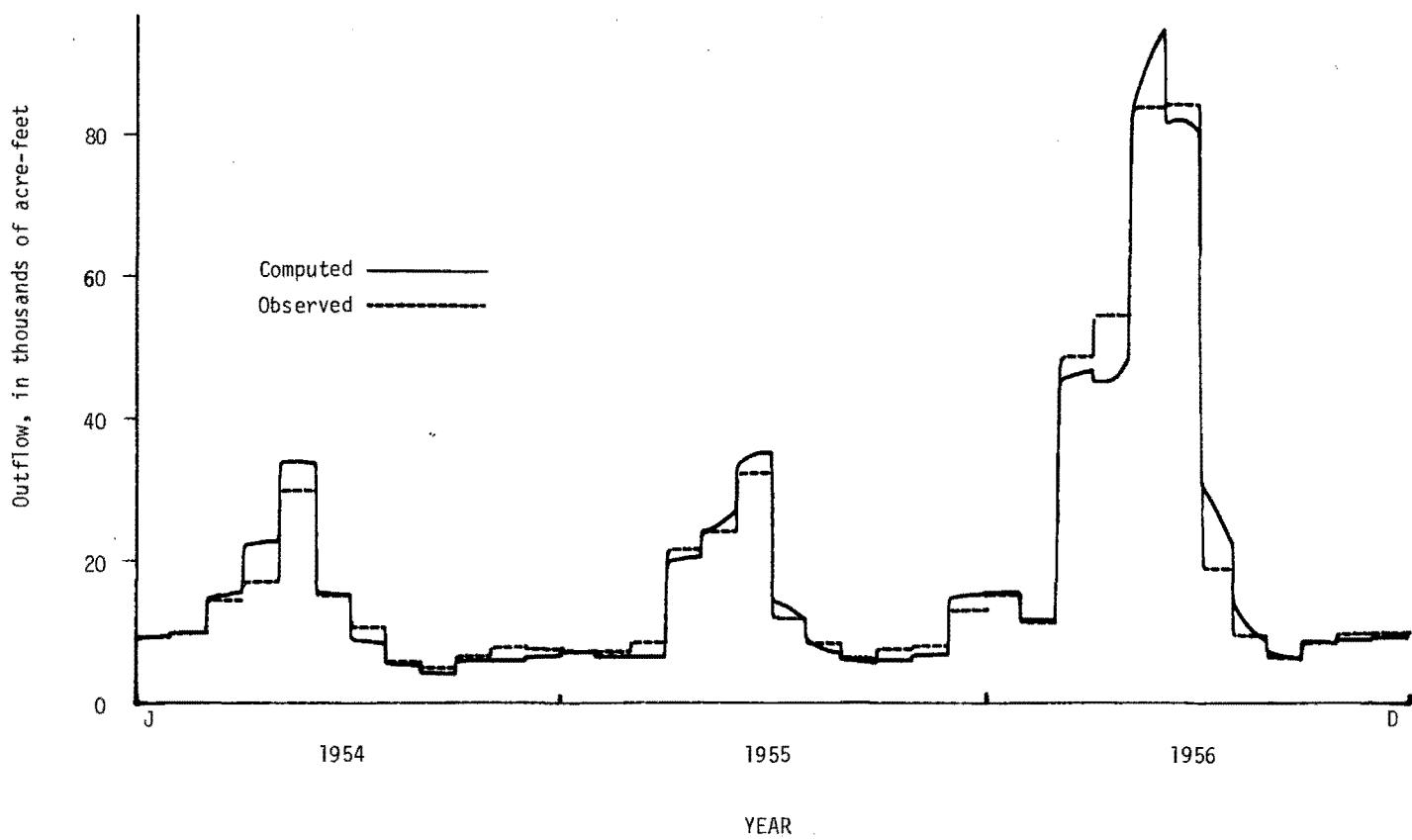


Figure 5.3. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Cokeville subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

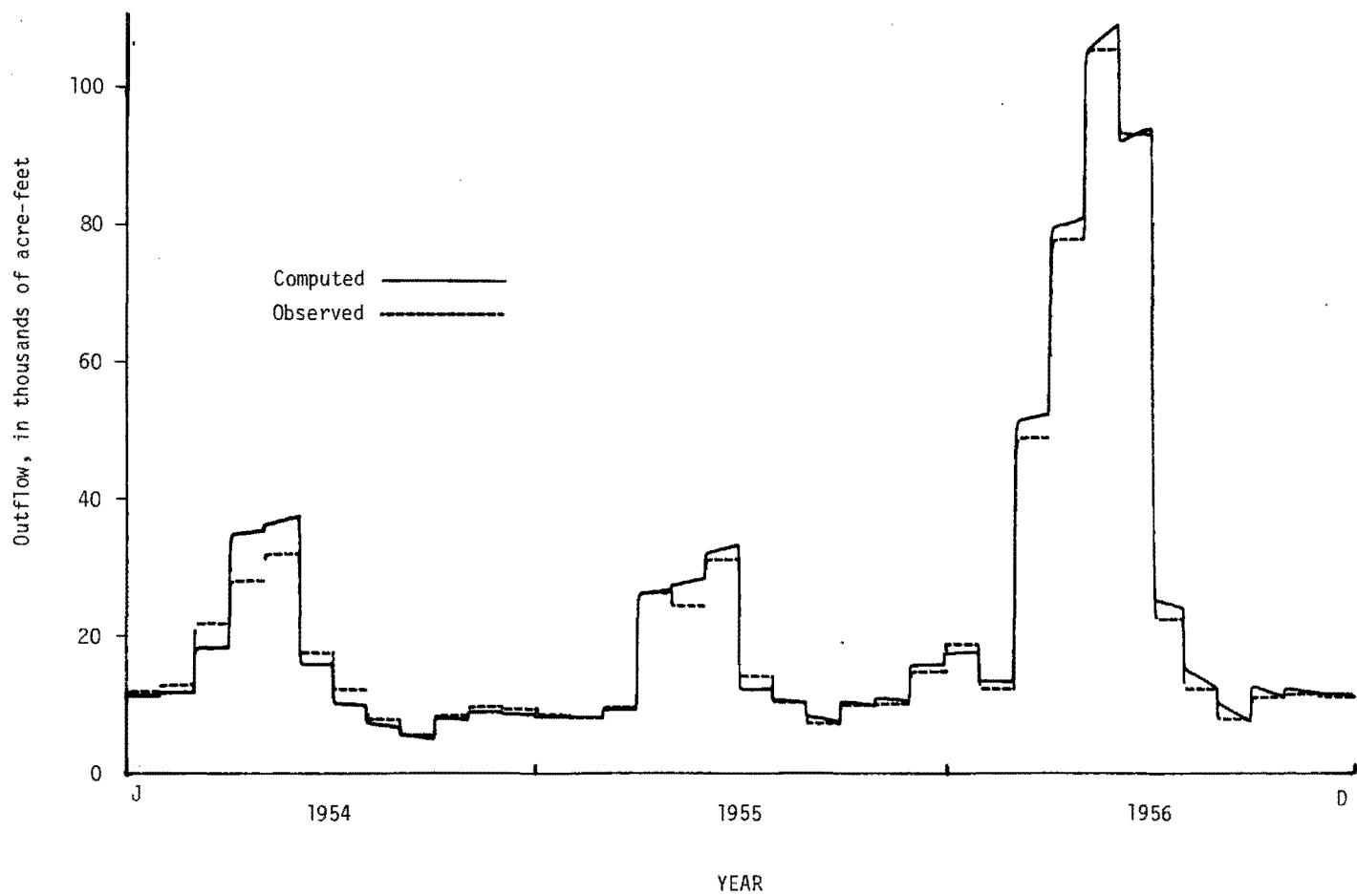


Figure 5.4. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Thomas Fork subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

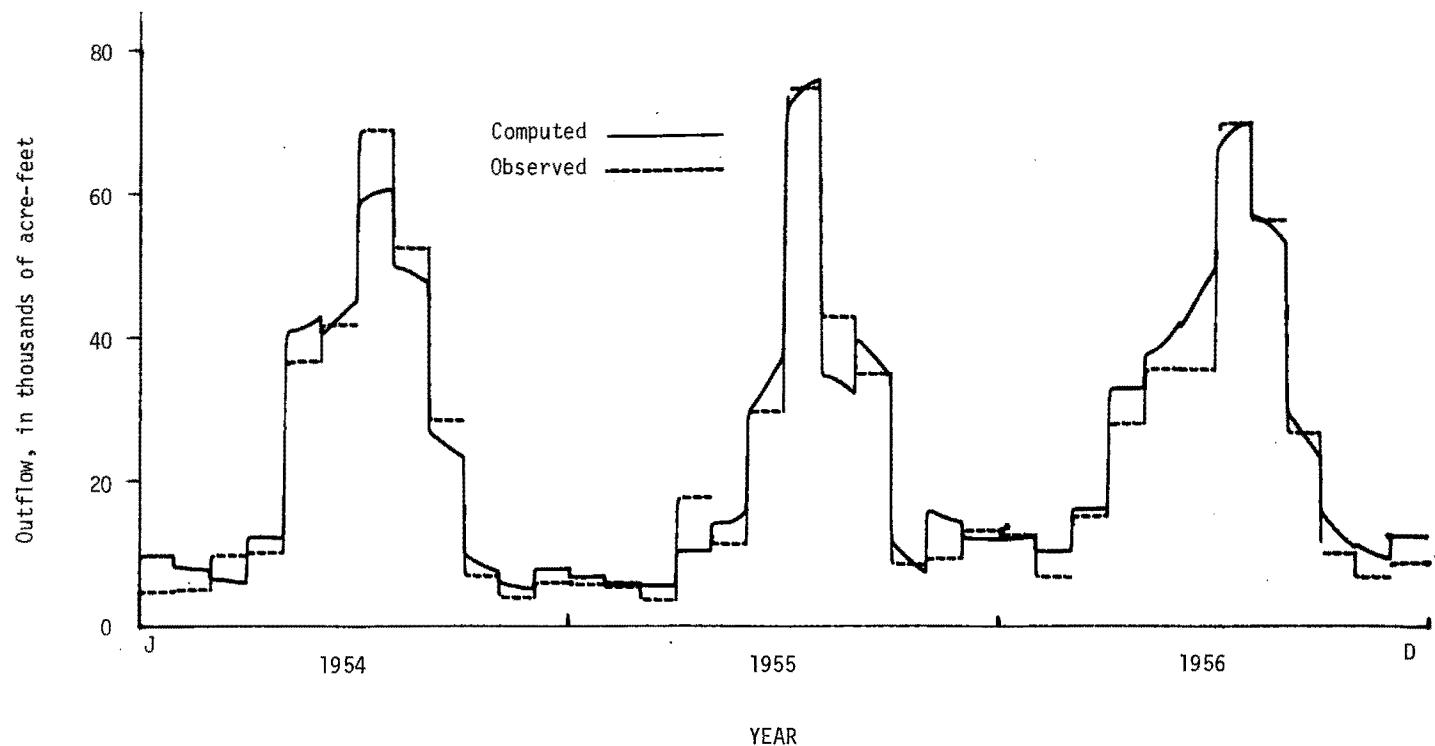


Figure 5.5. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Bear Lake subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

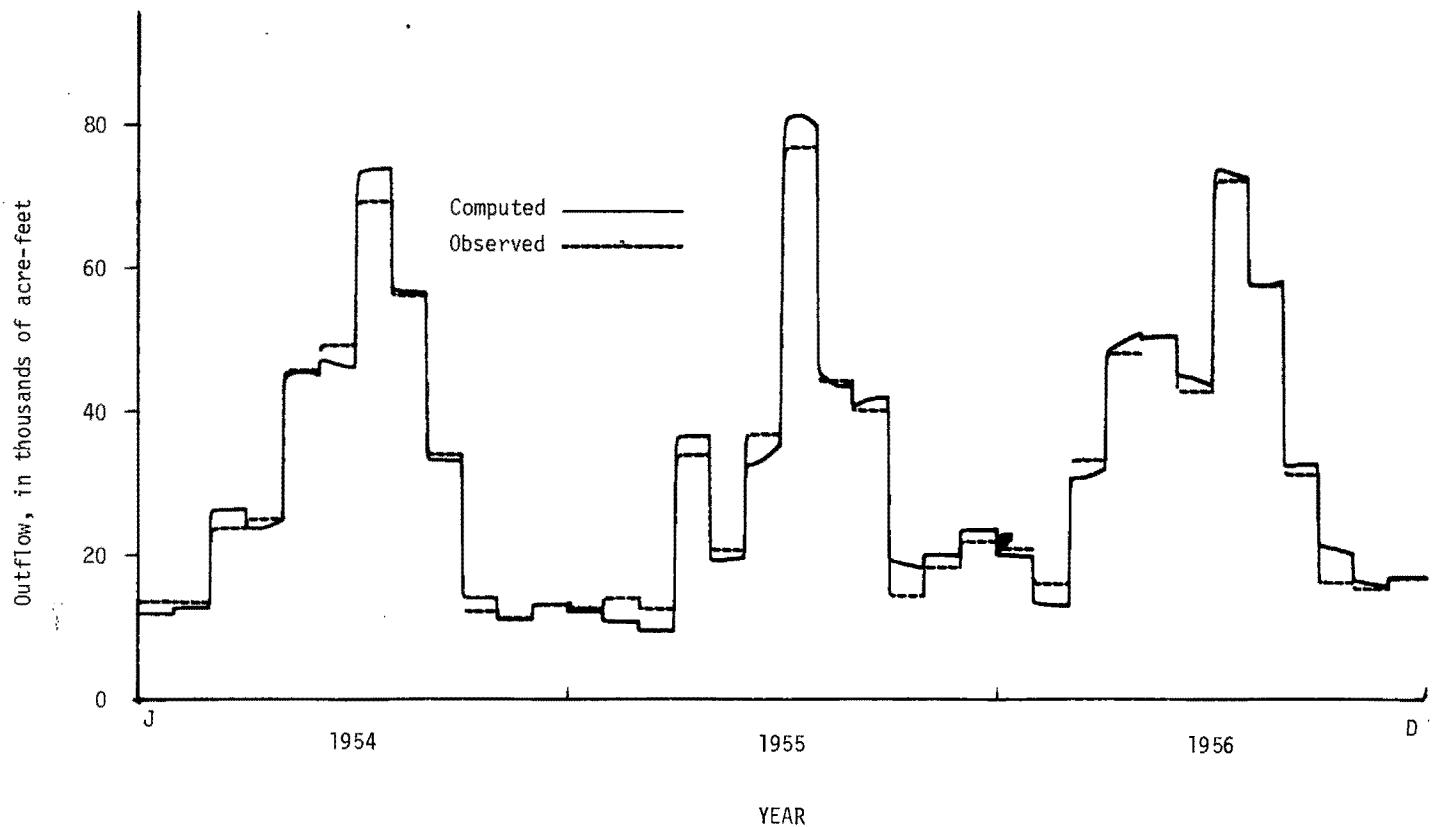


Figure 5.6. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Soda subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

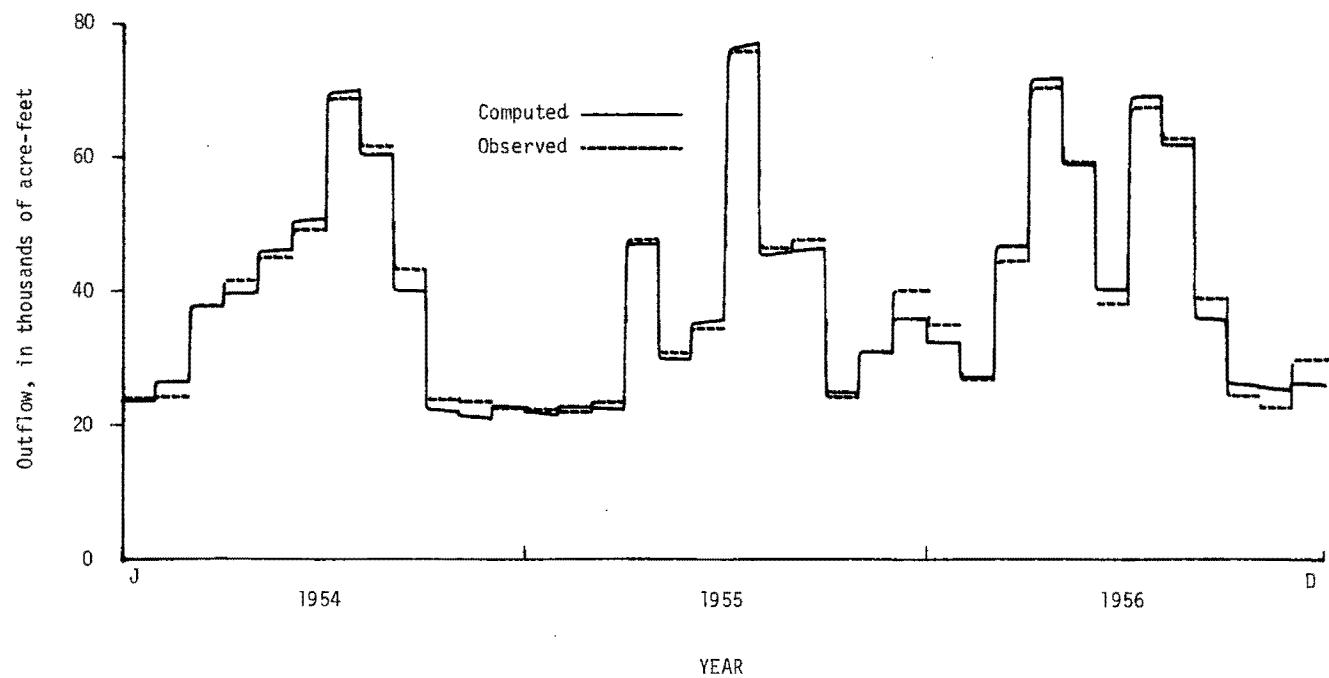


Figure 5.7. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Oneida subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

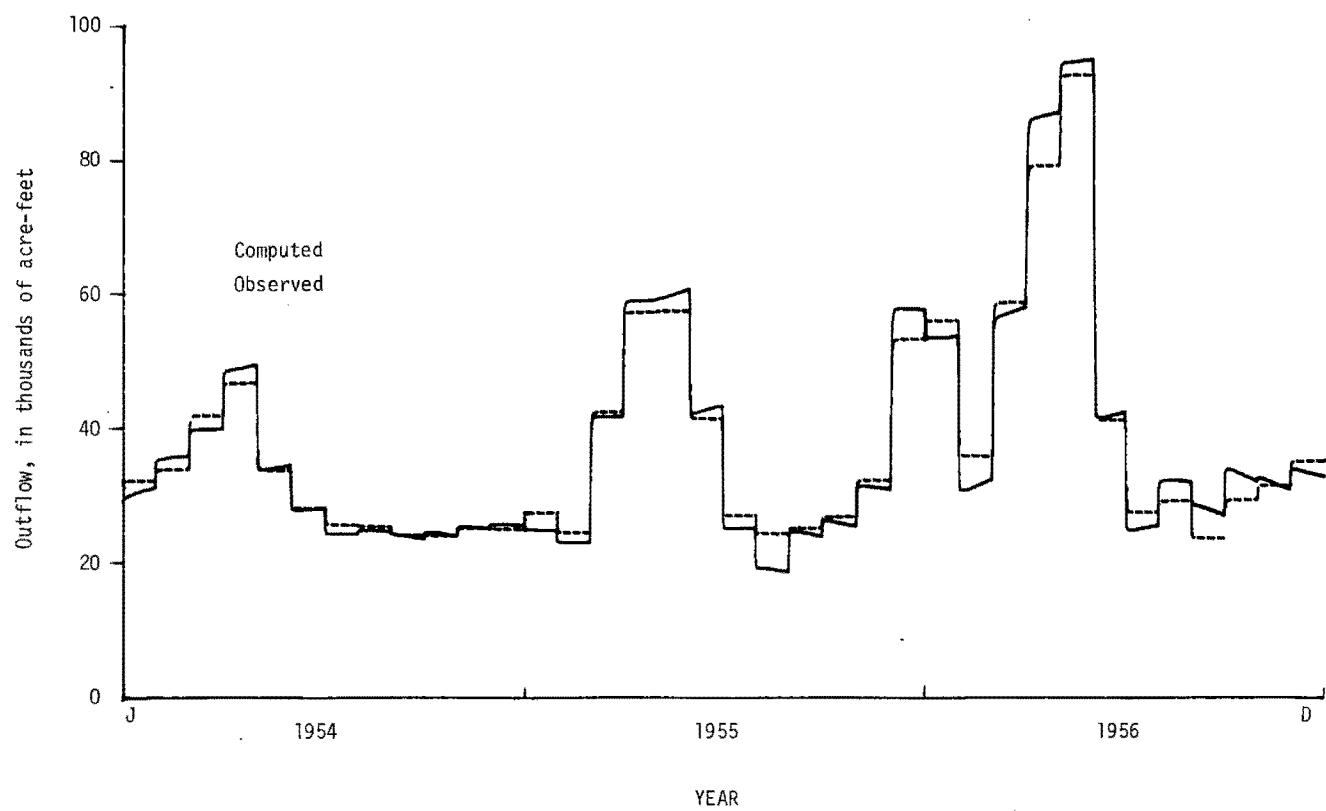


Figure 5.8. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Cache Valley subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

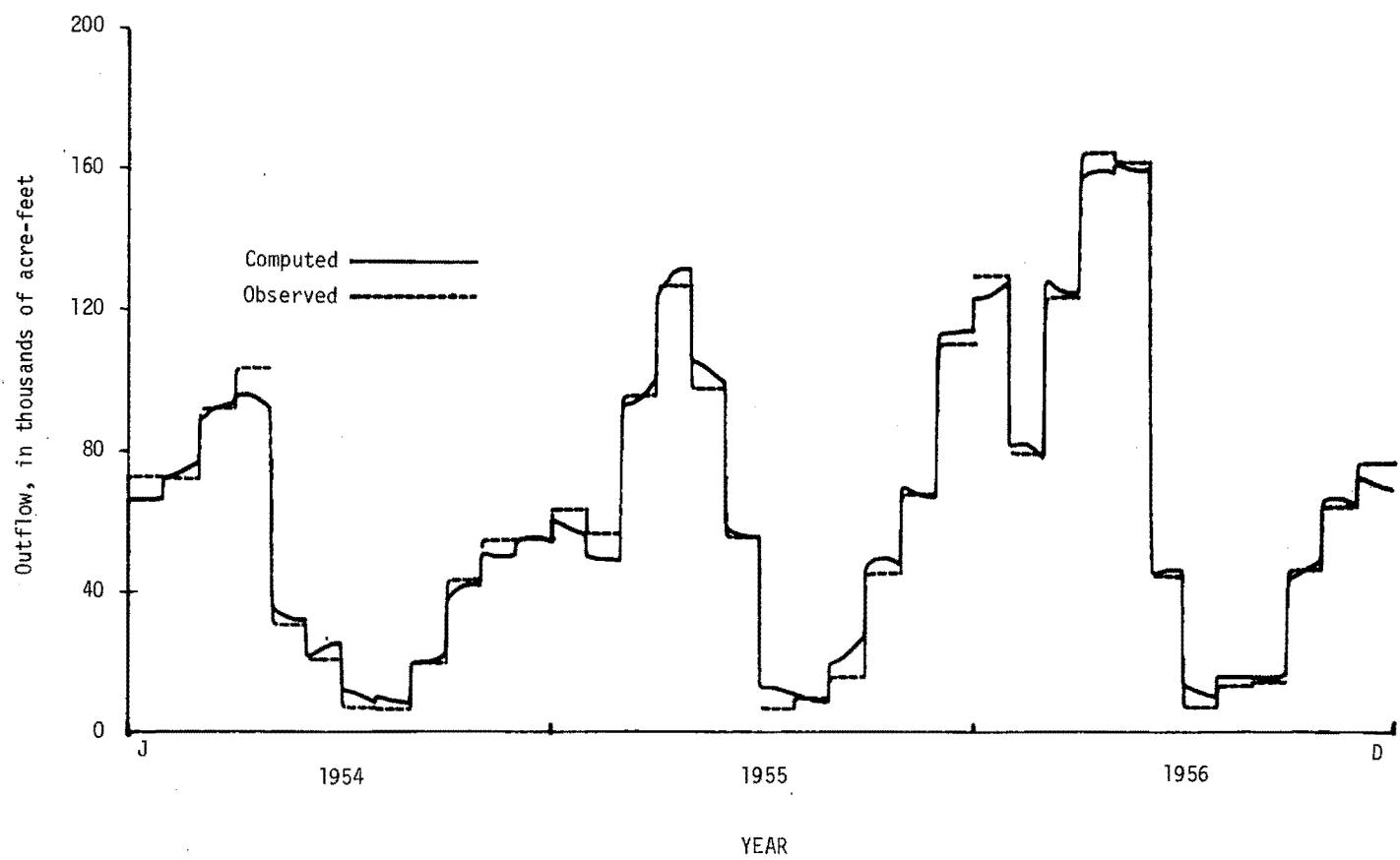


Figure 5.9. Computed and observed monthly outflow from Tremonton subbasin 1954, 1955, and 1956.

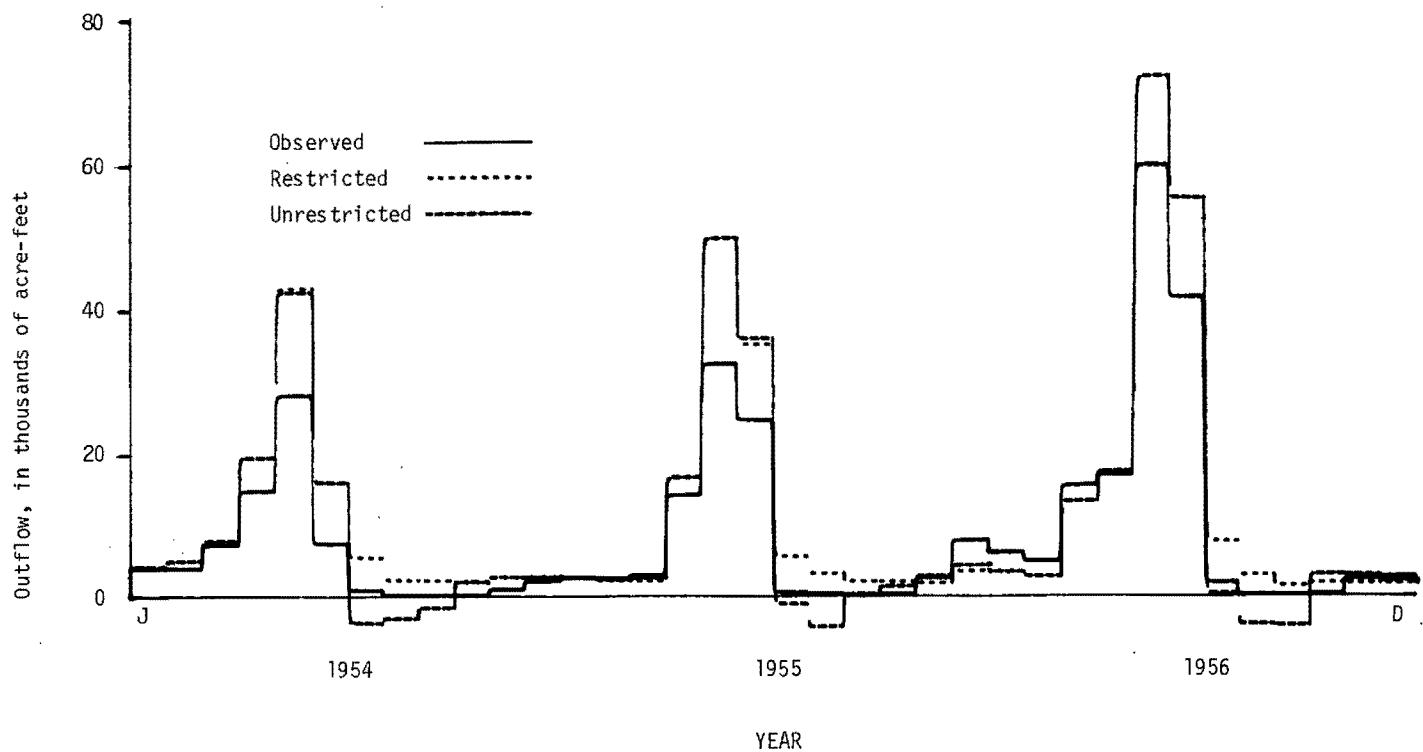


Figure 5.10. Management of Evanston subbasin, Case 1.

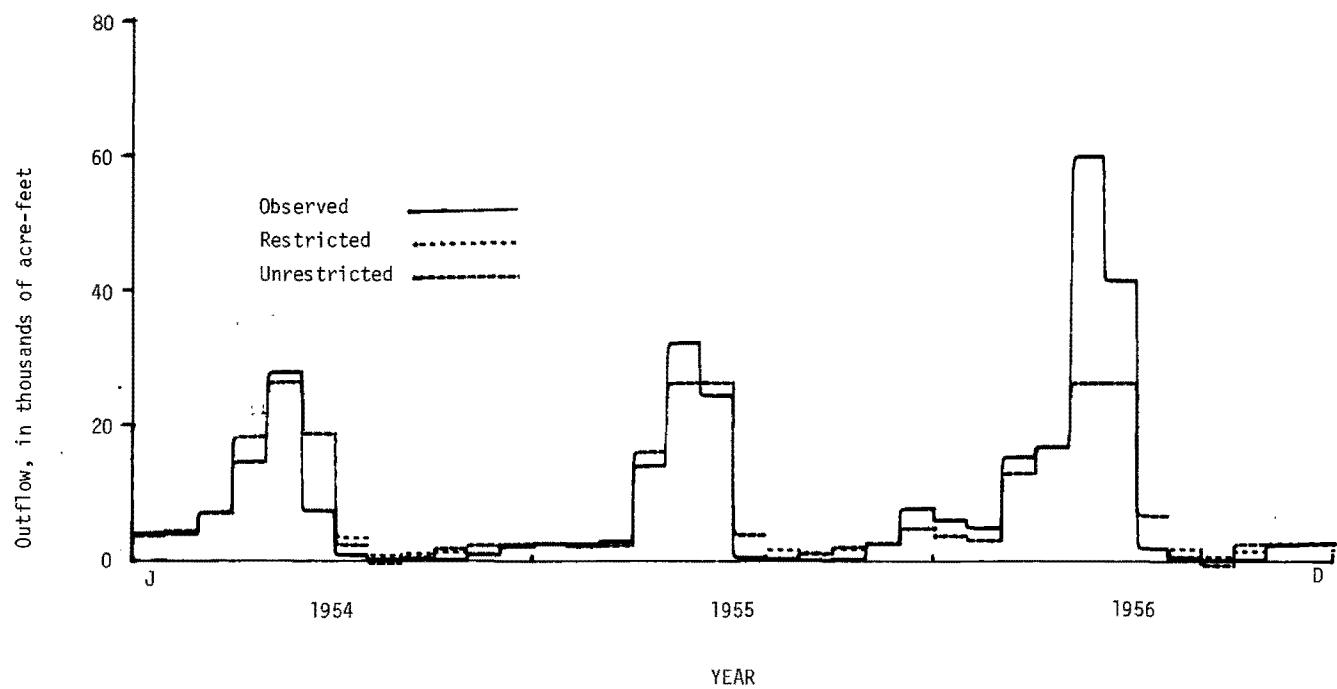


Figure 5.11. Management of Evanston subbasin, Case 2.

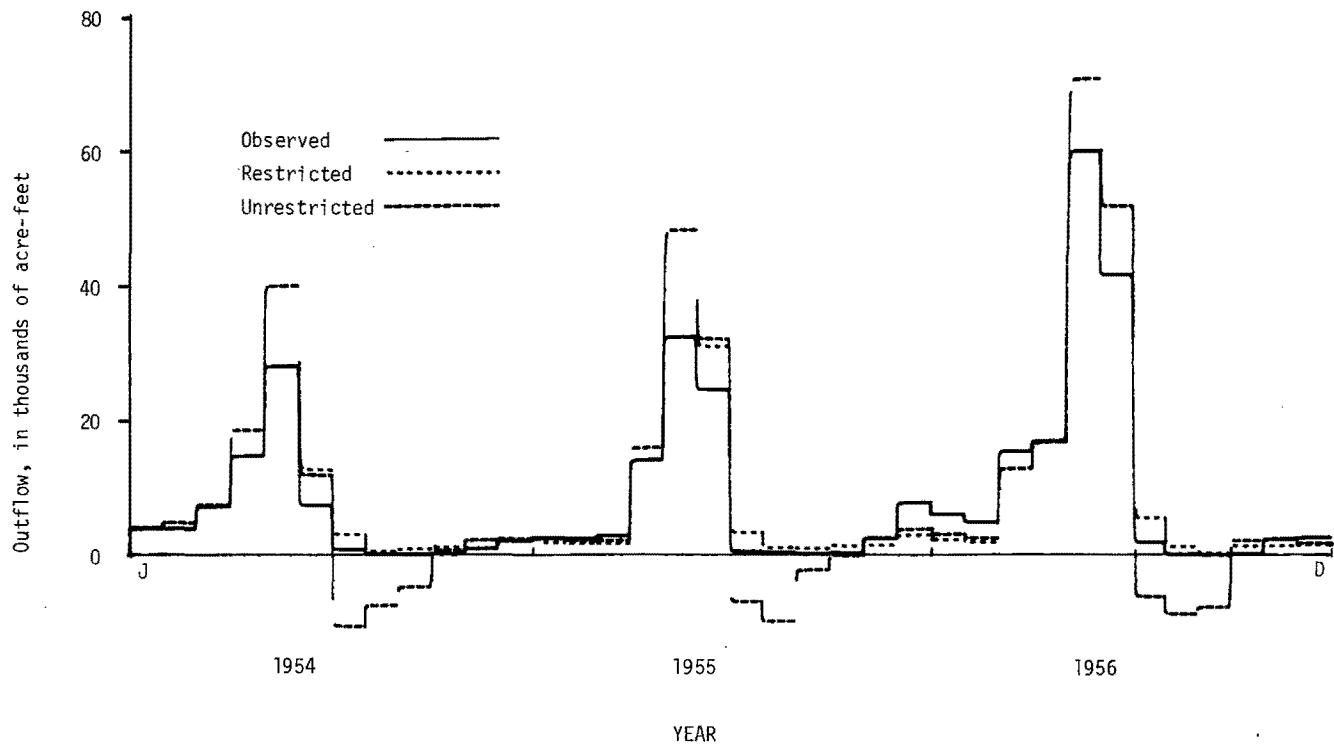


Figure 5.12. Management of Evanston subbasin, Case 3.

restricted water supply case appreciably exceed those of the unrestricted case. Under the conditions of restricted supply, water storage in the plant root zone was considerably reduced, and average evapotranspiration losses were approximately 20 percent below potential.

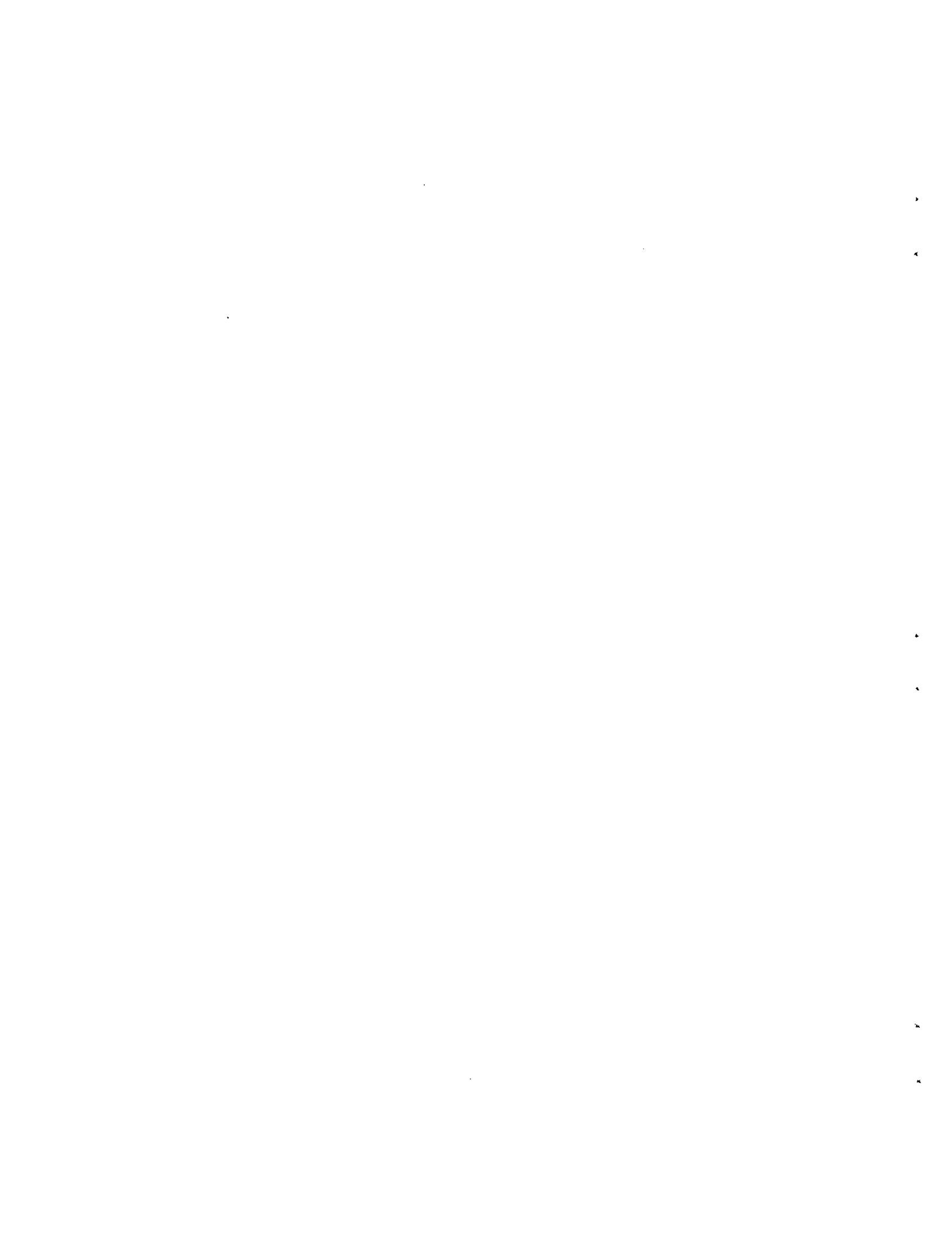
#### Cases 2 and 3

Under Case 2 crop acreages within the subbasin were reduced to 25 percent of the present area and phreatophytes were reduced to 75 percent. For Case 3 the cropland was increased to 125 percent of the present area while phreatophyte acreage was held at the present value. For both of these cases the model was operated under the two assumptions of first an unrestricted and then a restricted irrigation water supply. Model output functions for the four conditions described previously are given by Appendix D and Figures 5.11 and 5.12.

For the conditions of unrestricted irrigation water supply, the sum of the negative flows during

the irrigation period indicate storage requirements either by reservoir or in soil moisture. The operation of the model with 30 or more years of historical streamflow, precipitation, and temperature data would provide a realistic estimate of reservoir storage requirements to meet crop needs within the subbasin. A study of this nature would also facilitate the establishment and testing of suitable operating rules for any proposed reservoir or system of reservoirs within the subbasin. The effects of water export on reservoir operation could also be predicted.

The testing of various possible management alternatives for each subbasin within the Bear River model could be accomplished in the same manner as has been demonstrated for the Evanston subbasin. Using the model, management effects as reflected in the output functions of a particular subbasin may be traced throughout the entire Bear River basin.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Increasing demands upon the available water resources of the nation have produced a need for the efficient utilization of these supplies. Related to good management practices is the evaluation of various alternatives in terms of their likely downstream effects on both water quantity and quality. Quantitative evaluation of these downstream consequences is difficult because of the complex and variable nature of the parameters which describe a hydrologic system. However, the advent of modern high-speed computers has made possible the application of simulation techniques to complex systems of this nature.

In this report, a general hydrologic model is proposed and is synthesized on a hybrid computer. The basis of the model is a fundamental and logical mathematical representation of the various hydrologic processes. Spatial definition is achieved by dividing the modeled area into specific space increments, or subbasins, for which average values of space variable model parameters are applied. Temporal resolution is obtained by selecting a specific time increment over which average values of time varying parameters are used. The ultimate in modeling would utilize continuous time and space definition. However, the practical limitations of this approach are obvious. The complexity of a model designed to represent a hydrologic system largely depends upon the magnitude of the time and spatial increments used in the model. In model development it is, therefore, necessary to select increments which are consistent with time, budget, and computer capability constraints, and at the same time provide sufficient resolution to consider the kinds of questions which might be asked of the model.

Computer simulation of hydrologic systems has many practical applications in the areas of both research and project planning and management. As a research tool the computer is valuable in the process of investigating and improving mathematical relationships. In this respect, the computer is applied not only for its calculating potential, but also for its ability to yield optimum solutions. Simulation is also ideal for investigations of hydrologic sensitivity. Problems range from the influence of a single factor upon a particular process to the effects of an entire process, such as evapotranspiration, upon the system as a whole.

In many ways computer simulation can assist in planning and development work. Models can provide the designer with runoff estimates from the input of recorded precipitation data. In addition, simulated streamflow records from statistically generated input information enable the establishment of synthetic flow frequency distribution patterns.

In the area of water resource management, computer simulation permits the rapid evaluation of the effects of various management alternatives upon the entire system. These alternatives might involve such variables as watershed treatment, including urbanization, the construction of storage reservoirs, and changes in irrigation practices within a basin.

In this study the computer model was applied to the hydrologic system of the Bear River basin of western Wyoming, southern Idaho, and northern Utah. To provide spatial resolution the basin was divided into 10 subareas or subbasins, and each was modeled separately. The submodels then were linked into a single model of the entire basin. The time increment selected for the model was one month,

and time varying quantities, therefore, were expressed in terms of mean monthly values. The model was calibrated for the Bear River hydrologic system by adjusting model parameters until close agreement was achieved between simulated and corresponding gaged outflow hydrographs for each subbasin. Data for one subbasin was inadequate for satisfactory model calibration. The calibration procedure was incorporated into the hybrid computer program of the model so that this process was implemented largely by the computer itself. Differences between observed and computed hydrographs were evaluated on the basis of the sums-of-squares. This technique of model verification is accomplished more quickly and is more objective than was the case with the manual procedure used for previous studies of this nature. The agreement achieved between observed and computed outflow hydrographs from each subbasin in the model is illustrated by Figures 5.1 to 5.9, inclusive.

The utility of the model for predicting the effects of various possible water resource management alternatives within the Bear River basin was demonstrated for the number 1 or Evanston subbasin. For example, on the assumption that all phreatophytes were eliminated from this subbasin the model predicted that the average annual discharge would be approximately 139,500 acre-feet. This figure may then be compared with the average annual discharge of 107,500 acre-feet under present conditions. Similarly, to meet the annual consumptive use demands of the existing crops within the subbasin during the dry year of 1954 would require an estimated 8,660 acre-feet of reservoir storage. These and other management studies are illustrated by Figures 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12.

Because of its fast turn-around and graphical display capabilities and its ability to solve differential equations, the hybrid computer is very efficient for model development and verification. However, for operational studies many models,

once verified, can be readily programmed for solution on the more common all-digital computer. The analog component of the Bear River model developed under this study, for example, now could be reprogrammed for general application of the entire model on a digital computer.

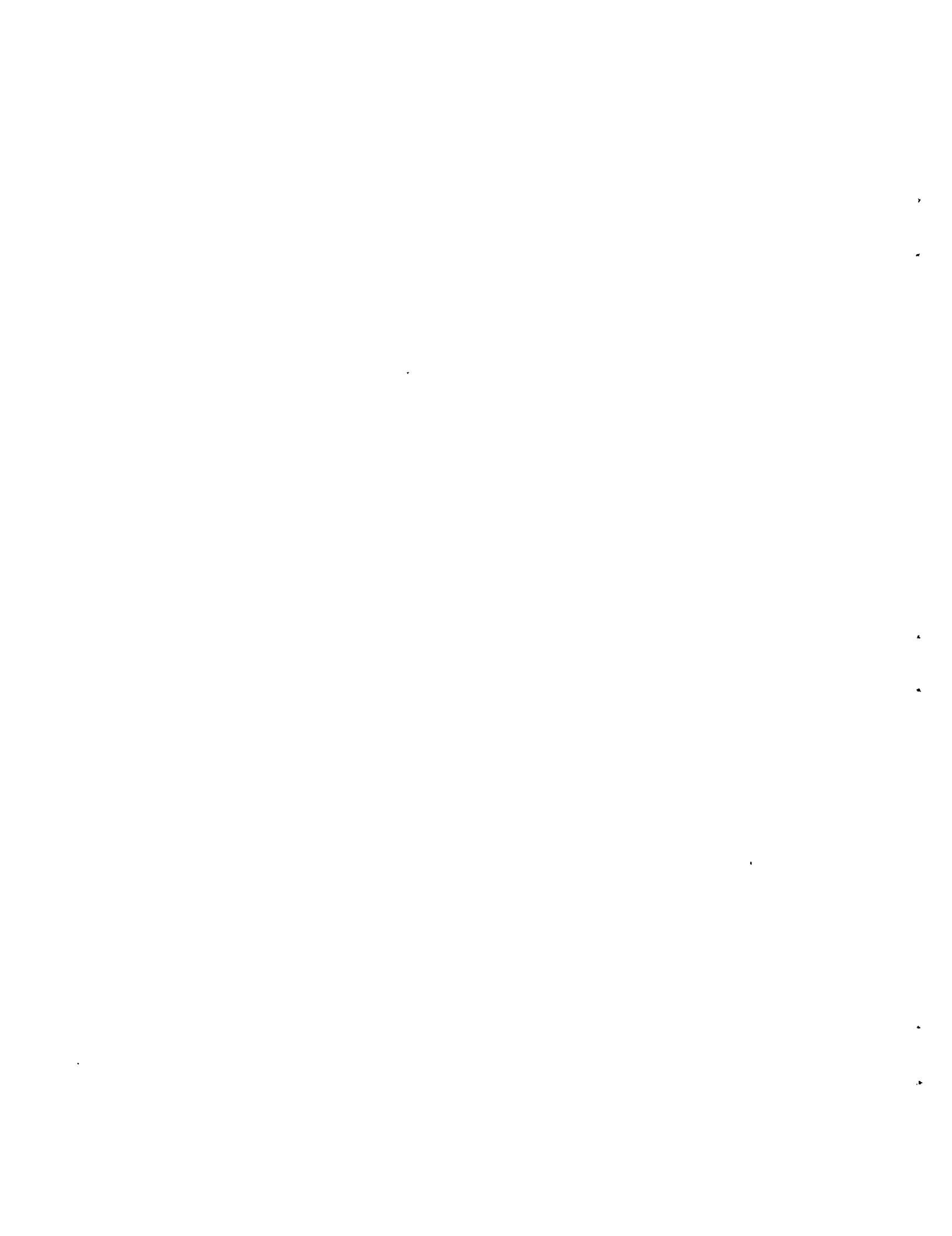
In conclusion, it is again emphasized that a model is limited by the availability of the field data used in the verification process. As further data become available, the model can be improved in terms of both the accuracy with which it defines individual processes and its time and spatial resolution. Modeling is, therefore, a continuous process, with each phase providing further insight and understanding of the system, and thus leading towards additional refinement and improvement of the model.

For each simulation study certain constraints or boundary conditions limit the degree of achievement during any particular phase of the overall program. The most important of these limiting features are the extent to which research information and basic input data are available, the degree of accuracy established by the time and spatial increments adopted for the model, equipment limitations, and the necessary time limit imposed upon the investigation period.

The model presented by this report represents a particular phase in the development of a simulation model of the hydrologic system of the Bear River basin. Further development of the model will continue and other related dimensions, such as water quality and economics, will be added. However, the model is now capable of answering many questions pertaining to the management of the water resources of the basin. The study has demonstrated the soundness and validity of the computer simulation approach to hydrologic problems within the Bear River basin, and has provided a firm basis for extending the model to include additional dimensions encountered in the comprehensive planning and management of water resource systems.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**SUBBASIN INPUT DATA**





TREMONTON 1  
 10 BTRE 7 1 17803 2 13758 3 1158 4 16645 5 6513 6 6612 7 72  
 10 BTRE 7 8 2893 10 587 11 217 13 217  
 10 BTRE 8 1 534 2 3892 3 4525 4 2698 5 9586  
 38 55 108 68 40 11 80 3500 2800 111 2800 200  
 1008 108 688 68 60 2400 1700 63 84 65 250 558  
 2 2 1 1 4 1  
 .5 .5.880177549 1.000177549 1.  
 (10X12F4,1)  
 CORITR54 307 335 388 525 592 624 747 785 523 512 433 291  
 CORITR55 165 222 322 458 589 640 718 735 615 584 311 317  
 CORITR56 316 224 393 588 610 667 748 665 638 510 327 278  
 GARLTR54 265 324 368 498 599 523 756 708 526 488 431 291  
 GARLTR55 146 205 305 422 559 524 723 731 611 499 301 279  
 GARLTR56 312 197 374 481 585 603 743 698 630 586 322 281  
 (14X12F4,2)  
 421731 1954 162 78 201 34 116 78 16 16 225 29 192 113 1253  
 421731 1955 315 144 63 159 145 215 16 126 183 43 194 294 1818  
 421731 1956 338 30 15 158 223 78 57 60 60 127 11 153 1172  
 423122 1954 105 47 173 56 53 129 52 16 172 78 139 188 1120  
 423122 1955 141 185 90 84 128 222 89 229 120 38 77 129 1444  
 423122 1956 241 46 68 82 198 48 13 61 69 69 54 113 673  
 (8X12F5,0)  
 10109054 6830 5760 6800 12530 28280 17430 12140 8800 7090 6640 8000 5460  
 10109055 5320 4510 5890 6040 29680 28500 15800 10220 7760 7370 6400 8660  
 10109056 6300 6200 22630 49230 41860 18920 12560 9620 8870 7840 7130  
 (10X12F5,2)  
 10 1954 4 0 0 0 58 980 900 1010 1810 680 270 120 68  
 10 1955 4 0 0 0 58 780 1000 910 770 330 110 68  
 10 1956 4 0 0 0 58 1040 1050 1040 790 400 180 68  
 (8X12F5,0)  
 BR054 73226 72400 92750104280 31840 21140 7540 6970 20510 44810 55270 55520  
 BR055 63970 58910 96400127700 97970 55870 7280 10360 16490 45820 65370111180  
 BR056130500 79540124500165600162500 44720 7690 14800 15150 46820 64750 76900  
 (8X12F5,0)  
 BEAR54 63030 66500 64070 91320 20330 12890 2800 2130 15890 35020 45200 46950  
 BEAR55 53740 48300 64818115000 88340 48200 2020 4840 13380 38060 59330105400  
 BEAR56111400 70920117300158200152880 32390 4600 6530 9290 39830 58810 67510  
 MLA054 3670 5550 3848 3250 1998 1483 1420 1268 1698 2510 3270  
 MLA055 2990 2980 5760 5980 3690 2480 1230 1420 1320 1670 3410 4720  
 MLA056 4910 3460 7520 3990 2510 1350 1120 1140 1050 1350 2160 3020  
 ECNL54 0 0 0 652 9050 8810 9680 9560 6700 2170 533 2  
 ECNL55 0 0 0 6000 7010 10030 8640 6460 2720 35 8  
 ECNL56 0 0 0 631 5550 9210 9980 9500 6590 2990 424 0  
 WCNL54 1720 1450 28 1780 38270 34550 39030 39240 25910 11030 5268 3188  
 WCNL55 1550 924 452 0 21100 29710 42140 35340 30910 13380 5268 1538  
 WCNL56 1160 978 728 0 27398 40893 40640 40680 31700 16480 4340 3198  
 (10X12F3,2)

\* See Appendix B for an explanation of the variables.

APPENDIX B  
COMPUTER PROGRAM

## APPENDIX B

### USER INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE HYDROLOGIC SIMULATION PROGRAM, OPVER

The computer program titled OPVER is a main driving program for linking the various subroutines required for simulating the hydrology of a river basin. In addition, a pattern search algorithm is incorporated within it. A flow chart of OPVER is shown in Figure B.1.

The operating instructions for OPVER are summarized as follows:

1. Load OPVER with the core image loader. Upon loading, the teletype should type MAIN 1 and the computer should be in PAUSE mode.
2. Ready the card reader, line printer, and analog computer. Insure that the proper patch panels are in place on the analog computer, and that a properly set-up card deck is in the read hopper.
3. Place the analog computer in SP and DIG MODE and set logic mode to R and time selector to 10'. Insure that counter 0 is set to 1 for FAST operation (line printer output only) or 10 for SLOW operation (x-y plotter output).
4. Push RUN-SINGLE-RUN (RSR) buttons whereupon card reader should start and option selected will be performed. For options 1 and 2, go to step 5. For option 3, go to step 7. For option 4 go to step 9, and for option 5 go to step 11.
5. Teletype will type HYDSM 1 and computer PAUSES.
6. Insure proper data for option specified is in card reader and RSR. For option 1 and 2, BASIC data (Group 2 cards) should be read by the card reader.
7. Teletype will type CARDS (I) for options 1 and 3 and MAIN 1 for option 2, and then PAUSE. Insure that data for subbasin I (Group 3 cards) are in hopper and RSR to continue for option 1 and 3. For option 2, return to step 2.
8. Teletype will type RESET DB. Set SSW D if desire reruns each year, SSW B if desire reruns each subbasin, and SSW C if desire acre-feet table.
9. Push RSR and analog computer will operate for specified time after which teletype will print MAIN 1, CARDS (I+1), or RESET DB and computer will PAUSE. For MAIN 1, CARDS (I+1), and RESET DB return to steps 2, 7, and 8, respectively. Set or reset SSW D, B, and C as specified in step 8 and set SSW E if desire to use recorded inflow for QRIV and QGLI rather than upstream subbasin simulated outflow for these inflow values. (When using SSW E option, all inflow data must be acre-feet.)
10. Analog computer will operate for specified time and teletype will respond as in step 8. Follow appropriate option outlined in step 8 to continue.
11. Card reader should have input the information necessary for the pattern search operation of the program (Group 4 cards) and upon completing all phases specified teletype will print MAIN 1. Return to step 2 to continue further operation.

The operating procedure is shown schematically in Figure B.2. The input data necessary for a run may be classified as:

1. Control cards for OPVER specifying the desired option.
2. Basic data consisting of labels for row and column headings for printed output and other data that is common to all subbasins that may subsequently be run.
3. Subbasin data needed to define the specific simulation desired.
4. Boundary conditions and options necessary to control the pattern search.

The deck set up for a typical pattern search run is shown in Figure B.3. Detailed instructions for preparing the cards for each of the four groups of data are given in Tables B.1, B.2, B.3, and B.4 respectively. Notation used in the program is given in Table B.5. A list of input data for a sample problem is shown in Figure B.4. Input data for each subbasin is listed in Appendix A. Representative output may be observed in Appendix C. The program for the analog portion of the model is shown as Figure B.5 and a listing of OPVER and all of its subroutines is given in Figure B.6. Flow charts for the major subroutines HYDSM, BASIC, SUBDAT and RESRV are also included in Figures B.7, B.8, B.9, and B.10 respectively.

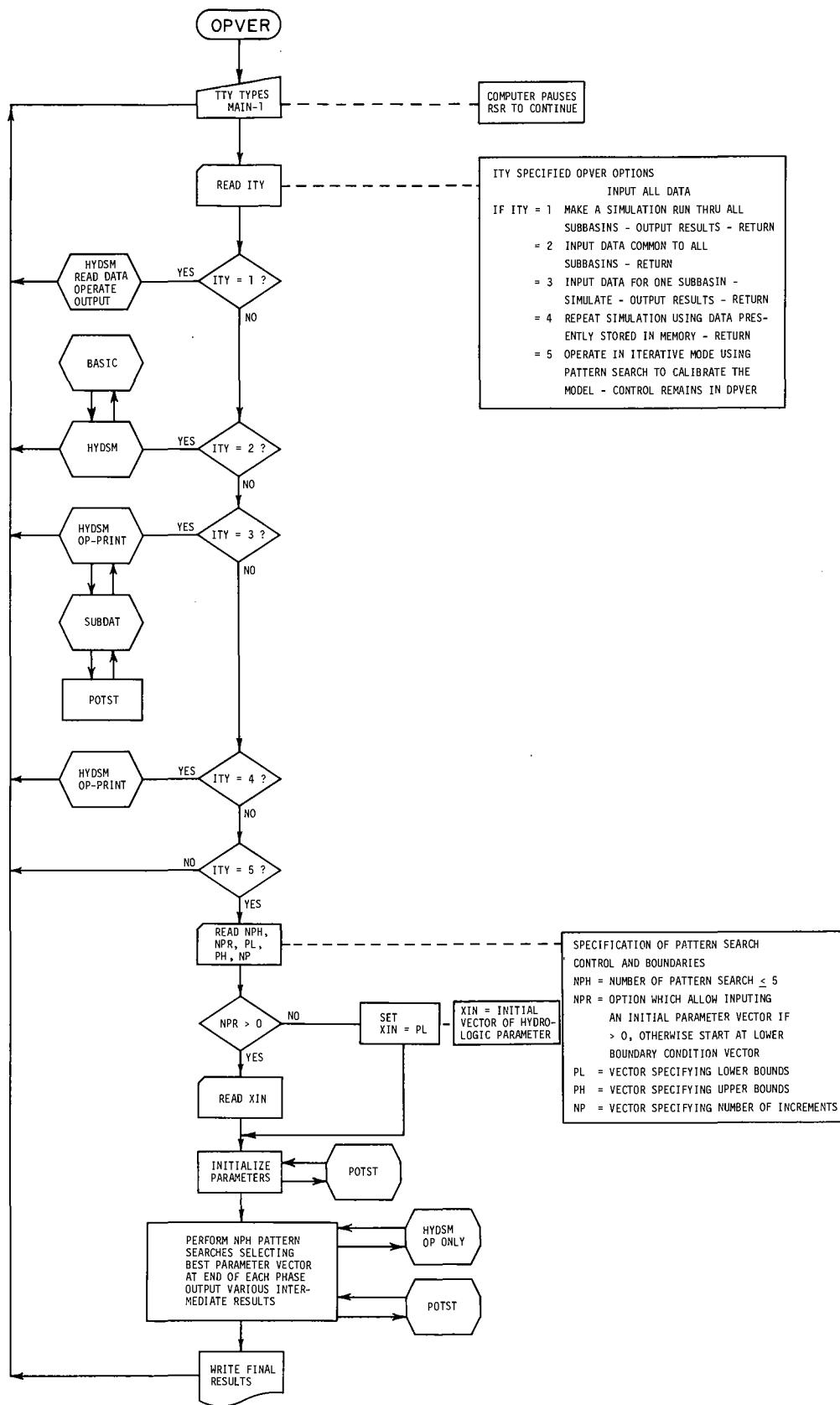


Figure B.1. Flow chart of hydrologic simulation program OPVER.

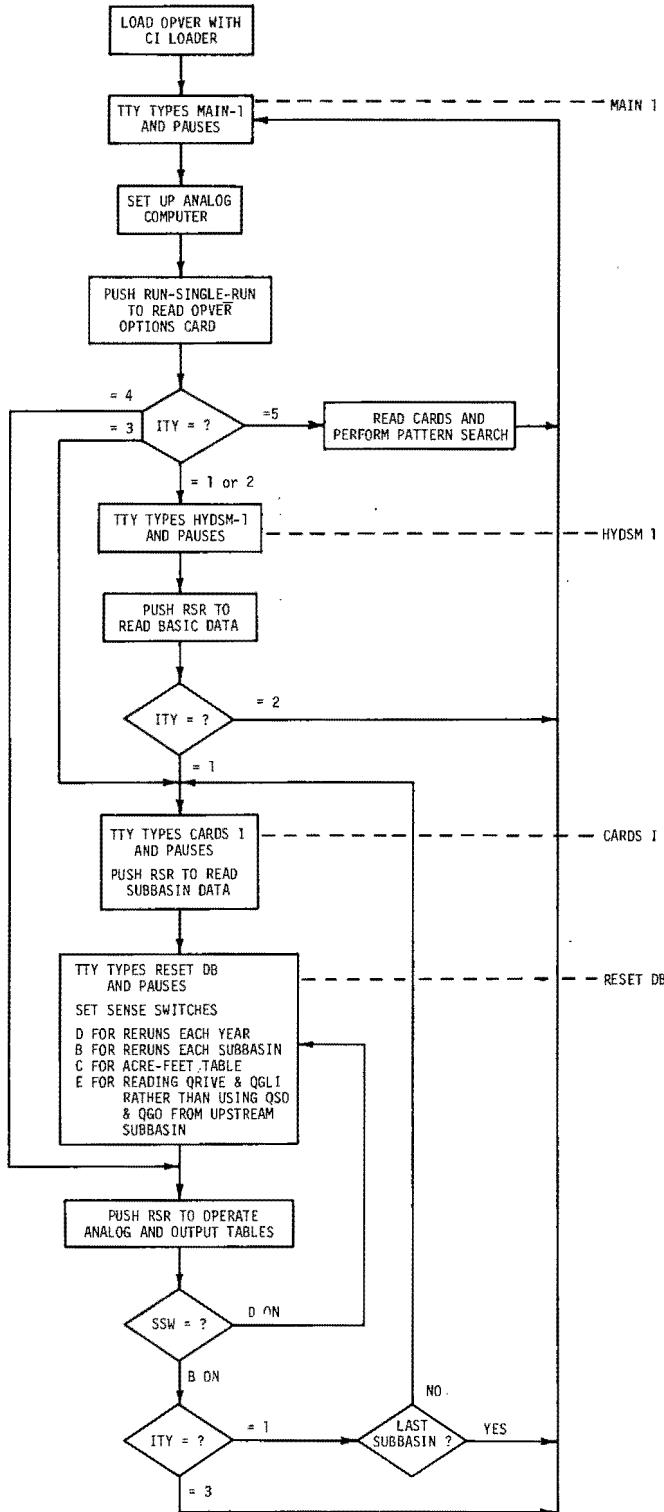


Figure B.2. Schematic diagram of operating procedures for OPVER.

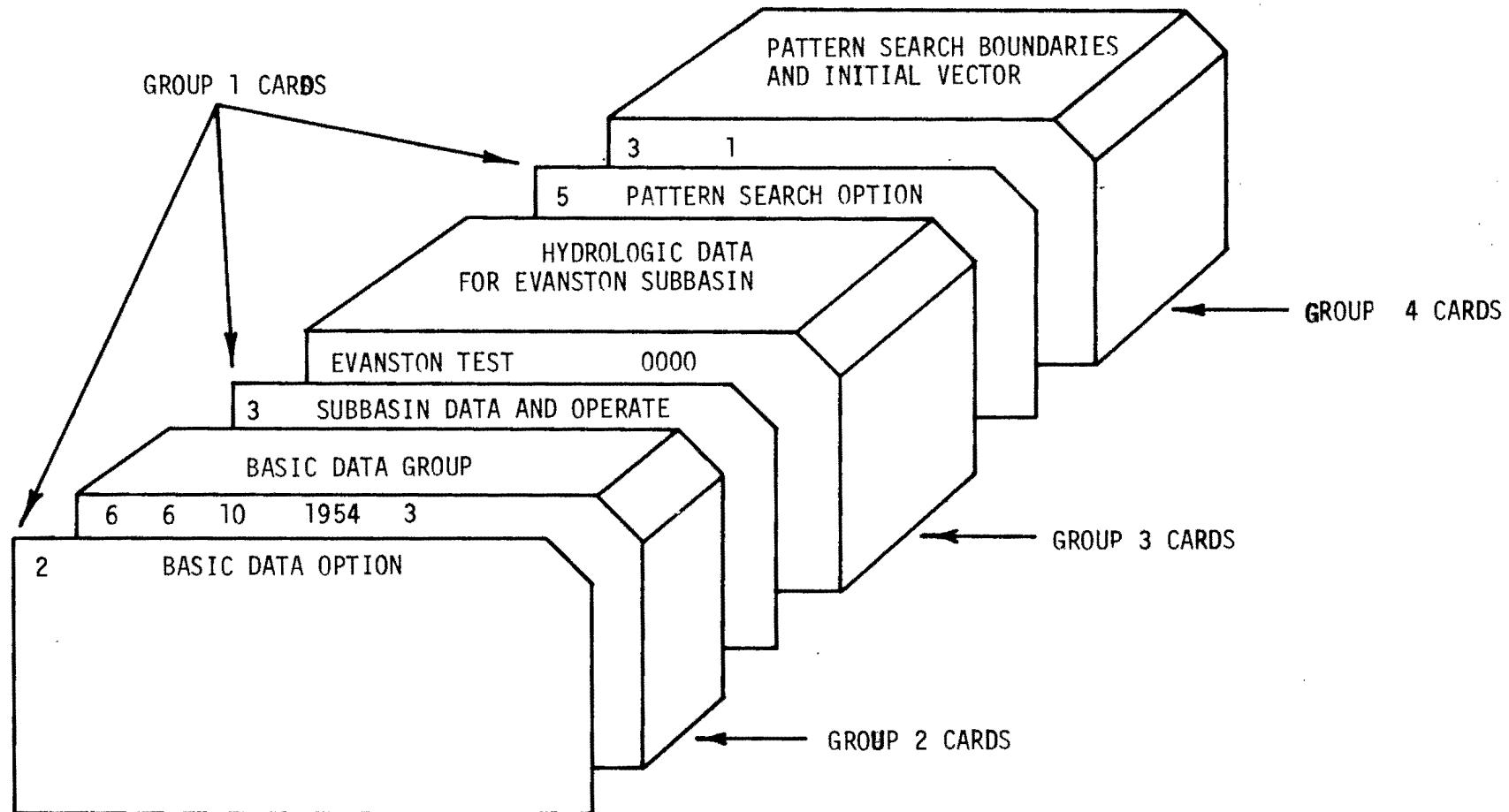


Figure B.3. Deck setup for typical OPVER run.

Table B.1. Preparation instructions for OPVER option control cards - group 1 cards.

<u>Column</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1-5	I5	ITY	OPVER option specification: if ITY = 1 simulation = 2 read basic data only = 3 read subbasin data and operate for specified period = 4 rerun last subbasin = 5 perform pattern search

Table B.2. Preparation instructions for BASIC data - group 2 cards.

<u>Card</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	(5I5)	INP IOUT	Input device number for subbasin data Output device number for simulation output
		NSB	Number of subbasins
		LYRO	First year of simulation
		NYR	Number of years of simulation
2	(13(1XA3))	V <sub>k</sub>	13 element vector of column headings for output tables; i.e. JAN., FEB., ANN
3	(20A4)	VARLB <sub>i</sub>	20 element vector of row titles for output tables. Must correspond to elements as shown in sample output shown in Figure
4	(12F5.3)	PDL <sub>k</sub>	Vector of proportion of daylight hours for months in the same order as vector V
5 <sub>1-5</sub> <sub>14</sub>	(10X12F5.2)	WKC <sub>jk</sub>	Array of consumptive use coefficient for crops for modified Blaney- Ciddle equation. Fourteen cards required, one for each crop. j is crop, k is month
6 <sub>1-6</sub> <sub>7</sub>	(10X12F5.2)	PKC <sub>jk</sub>	Array of consumptive use coefficient for phreatophytes. Seven cards required, one for each phreatophyte. j is phreatophyte, k is month

Table B.3. Preparation of subbasin data cards - group 3 cards.

<u>Card</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	(10A4, 4I5)	BASID IRES MANG JRES JCONV	40 column page heading >0 specifies reservoir operation option of HYDSM >0 specifies management option of HYDSM >0 specifies reservoir operation on canal diversions - not presently implemented >0 specifies conversion factors to be read from card for converting input data to inches
2*	(10X10F7.0)	RES <sub>1</sub>	10 element vector of reservoir operating parameters. Needed only if IRES > 0. See Table B.5-C for detailed element breakdown.
3*	(10X3F7.0)	CTM CMS BAREA	Temperature for management of canal diversions Management parameter for soil moisture storage Base area for which the model parameters were developed. Needed only if MANG > 0
4*	(10X10F7.0)	RESC <sub>1</sub>	10 element vector of canal reservoir parameters. Needed only if JRES > 0. Not implemented at present
5	(10X7(I3, F10.0))I <sub>1j</sub> , DCA <sub>j</sub>		Vectors of crop number and area in acres for j <sup>th</sup> crop corresponding to WKC <sub>jk</sub> . Exactly 2 cards are required. If DCA <sub>j</sub> = 0, neither I <sub>1j</sub> nor DCA <sub>j</sub> need be punched
6	(10X7(I3, F10.0))I <sub>1j</sub> , DCA <sub>j</sub>		Vector of phreatophyte no and area in acres for phreatophyte j corresponding to j <sup>th</sup> phreatophyte in PKC <sub>jk</sub> . One card required

\* These cards are required only if an option parameter for them is greater than zero.

Table B.3. Continued.

<u>Card</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
7	(12F6.2)	DIG <sub>1</sub>	10 element vector of digital model parameters. See Table B.5-A for detailed element breakdown.
		SKAL	Scale factor for soil moisture phase of analog simulation
		SKF	Scale factor for channel phase of analog simulation. If SKF is read as 0, it is set to 2.0 by the program
8	(12F6.2)	PH <sub>1</sub>	12 element vector of analog model parameters. See Table B.4-B for detailed breakdown
9	(8I5)	N <sub>1</sub>	Vector of the number of stations with NYR years of data of type 1 which are to be read in and used by the program. Data types correspondence is as follows: 1 = 1 temperature stations = 2 precipitation stations = 3 stream correlation station = 4 canal diversion stations = 5 gage outflow stations = 6 gage river inflow stations = 7 subsurface inflow stations = 8 minimum monthly outflow stations (used only if IRES > 0)
10*	(8F10.2)	CVR <sub>j</sub>	Vector of conversion factors to convert input data to inches. Needed only if JCON > 0. If JCON = 0, program assumes that all input flow data is in acre-feet
I <sub>1</sub> *-I <sub>8</sub> * (10A4)		FMT <sub>1</sub>	40 character format specification card followed by (NYR* N <sub>1</sub> ) cards of input data for type 1 above. A set of these cards for a particular type data are included only if N <sub>1</sub> > 0

Table B.4. Preparation instructions for pattern search specification cards - group 4 cards.

<u>Card</u>	<u>Format</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	(3I5)	NPH	Number of phases to be run during pattern search. $1 \leq NPH \leq 5$
		NPR	Option specifying initial search vector If $NPR = 0$ start at lower boundary $> 0$ Input initial vector from cards
		NWC	Option specifying monthly weighting coefficients for calculating $OBJ = \sum W_R (DIFF_R)^2$ If $NWC = 0$ use $W_R = 1.0$ $> 0$ Input $W_R$ from cards
2	(12F6.2)	$W_R$	Vector of monthly weighting coefficients for calculating $OBJ$ Needed only if $NWC > 0$
3	(9F6.2)	$PL_1$	Vector of lower bounds for the digital parameters. See Table B.5-A for a detailed description $l = 1$ to 9
4	(9F6.2)	$PH_1$	Vector of upper bounds for the digital parameters. $l = 1$ to 9
5	(9I5)	$NP_1$	Number of steps for each digital parameter. $l = 1$ to 9
6	(12F6.2)	$PH_1$	Vector of lower bounds for the analog parameters. See Table B.5-B for a detailed description. $l = 10$ to 21
7	(12F6.2)	$P PH_1$	Vector of upper bounds for the analog parameters $l = 10$ to 21
8	(12I5)	$NP_1$	Number of steps for each of the analog parameters $l = 10$ to 21
9*	(9F6.2)	$XIN_1$	Vector of initial digital parameter $l = 1$ to 9 needed only if $NPR > 0$
10*	(12F6.2)	$XIN_1$	Vector of initial analog parameters $l = 10$ to 21 Needed only if $NPR > 0$

Table B.5. Notation for OPVER and its subroutines.

A. Digital parameters, DIG(I). Input by SUBDAT.

<u>I</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	KS	Snowmelt rate exponent
2	CIR	Irrigation efficiency (decimal)
3	CKC	Consumptive use coefficient ( $=1.00$ )
4	C1	Precipitation ungaged inflow coefficient
5	C2	Snowmelt ungaged inflow coefficient
6	COR	Surface stream ungaged inflow coefficient
7	PTH	Precipitation threshold for runoff (inches)
8	TS	Snowfall temperature ( $^{\circ}$ F)
9	TSM	Snowmelt temperature ( $^{\circ}$ F)
10	SNW	Initial snow water content (inches)

B. Analog parameters, PH(I). Input by SUBDAT.

<u>I</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
10	KG	Smoothing coefficient for groundwater inflow ( $\leq 1.0$ )
11	DTA	Cropland groundwater return flow delay time (months)
12	MCS	Soil moisture capacity (inches)
13	QGTIC	Initial cropland groundwater return flow (inches)
14	QG2IC	Initial groundwater inflow (inches)
15	QH	Threshold separating high and medium Groundwater outflow ranges
16	QM	Threshold separating medium and low groundwater outflow ranges
17	CGH	Fraction groundwater outflow, high range
18	CGM	Fraction groundwater outflow, medium range
19	CGS	Fraction groundwater outflow, low range
20	MES	Critical soil moisture level (inches)
21	MIC	Initial soil moisture storage (inches)

\* These cards are required only if an option parameter is greater than zero

Table B.5. Continued.

C. Reservoir operation parameters, RES(I). Input by SUBDAT when IRES > 0.

<u>I</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>RES(I) Description</u>
1	STI	Initial storage volume in reservoir (acre-feet) at time 0
2	STMN	Minimum usable storage (acre-feet)
3	STMX	Maximum storage (acre-feet)
4	ER	Desired accuracy level for successive area computation
5	CA	Reservoir area at STMN = 0, (acres)
6	C1	Constant in area equation one
7	C2	Exponent in area equation one
8	STB	Break point storage between area equation one and two (acre-feet)
9	C3	Constant in area equation two
10	C4	Exponent in area equation two

D. Subbasin hydrologic input data, DUM(J, K, L). Input by SUBDAT. J is the year, K is the month, and L is the data type.

<u>L</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	TEMP	Subbasin monthly temperature data ( $^{\circ}$ F)
2	PPT	Subbasin monthly precipitation data (inches)
3	QCOR	Surface streamflow data for correlating to obtain monthly ungaged surface inflow (acre-feet)
4	QCNL	Subbasin monthly canal diversions (acre-feet)
5	QGAG	Subbasin monthly gaged surface outflow to be used for verification with OPVER (acre-feet)
6	QRIV	Subbasin measured monthly surface inflows (acre-feet)
7	QGLI	Subbasin measured or estimated monthly groundwater inflows (acre-feet)
8	QR	Minimum monthly outflow values for the reservoir when IRES > 0 (acre-feet)

Table B.5. Continued.

E. Labels on tables of printed output, OUT(K, L). K is the month and L is the data type.

<u>L</u>	<u>Mnemonic</u>	<u>Description</u>
1	TEMP	Monthly temperatures ( $^{\circ}$ F)
2	F	Blaney-Criddle F
3	PPT	Monthly precipitation (inches)
4	QRIV	Measured monthly surface inflow
5	QUNG	Monthly unmeasured surface inflow
6	QCNL	Monthly canal diversions
7	QSIT	Surface water available for transfer through the basin
8	QIGS	Surface water applied to soil moisture storage of the agricultural area
9	QGLI	Monthly measured or estimated groundwater inflow
10	SNW	Snow storage at end of month
11	SNMT	Monthly snowmelt
12	ETPH	Evapotranspiration from the phreatophyte area
13	ETP	Potential evapotranspiration from the crop area
14	ET	Actual evapotranspiration from the crop area
15	MS	Soil moisture storage at end of month
16	DP	Monthly deep percolation after delay
17	QTO	Total monthly outflow from basin
18	QGO	Groundwater outflow from basin
19	QSO	Surface outflow from basin
20	QGAG	Gaged surface outflow from basin
21	DIFF	Difference between QSO and QGAG
	OBJ	Sum of squared differences (DIFF) <sup>2</sup>
	OBA	Algebraic sum of annual differences



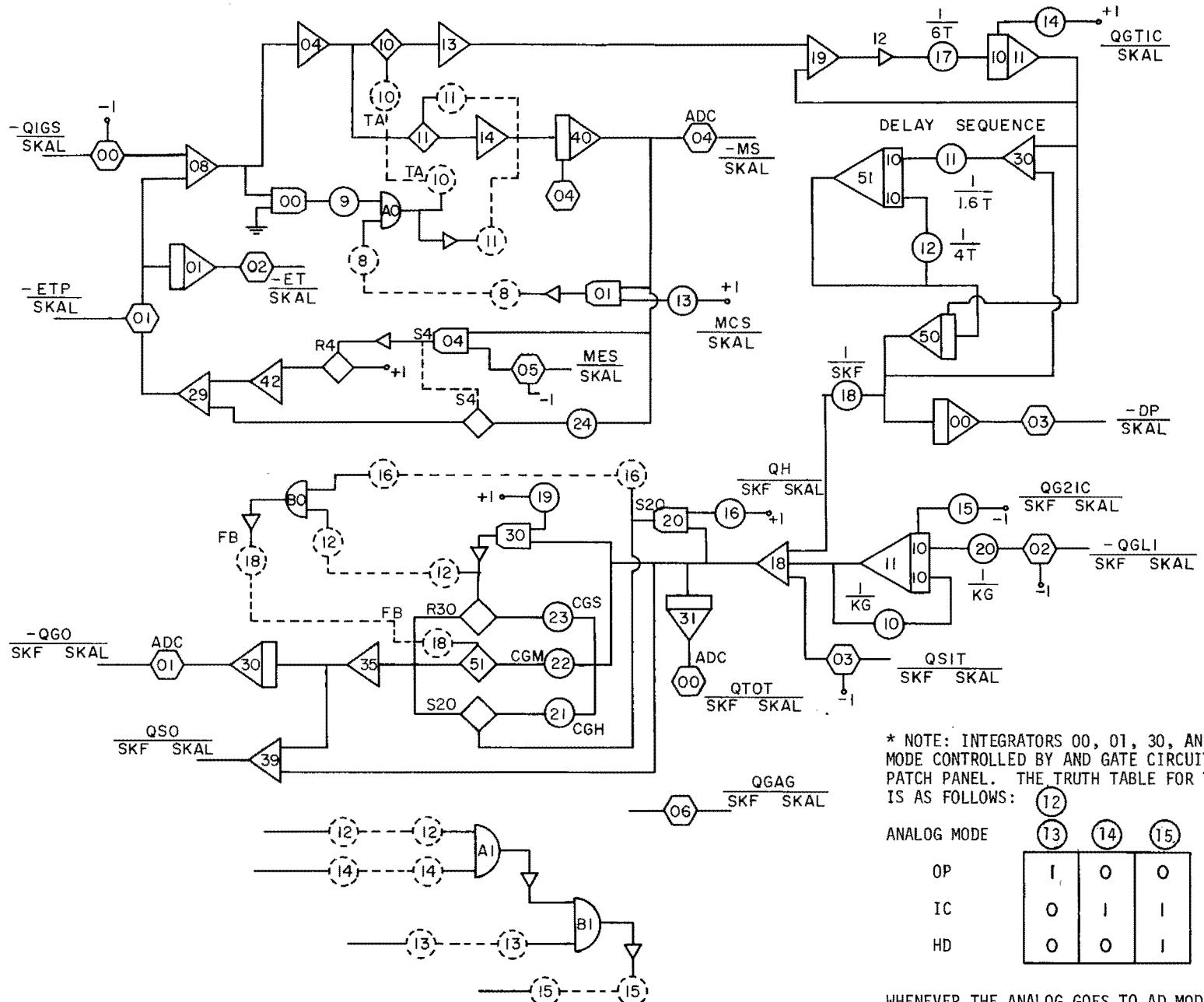


Figure B.5. Analog computer program for use with OPVER.



```

C      HYDROLOGIC SIMULATION MODEL = SUBROUTINE HYDSM
C      SUBROUTINE HYOSM(IENT,IRET,OBJ,OBM)
REAL MIC,MES,KS,KG,M5,MCS,NETPM
COMMON HKCC(14,12),WK(12),POL(12),N(8),DD(12),FHT(18),CVR(8),
1V(13),(18),BASID(10),PV(9),DUH(3,12,8),PKC(7,12),SKKC(12),
2SPKC(12),II(14),DCA(14),CAC(14),PAC(7),PPA(7),DUT(13,21)
3,DIG(18),RES(18),RESC(18),ROUT4,13,2),XIM(21)
4,MIC,M5,EN52,SKAL,SKAL2,XIN(6,21),PH(21),PL(21),DR(21),NP(21)
COMMON INP,IOU,N5B,LYR,NYR,IRE5,MANG,JRE5,CYH,CONV1,CONPV
1,MES,SKAL1,SKAL2,SKAL3,SPAC,SCAC,NYB,W(12),CM5,BAREA
DIMENSION P(15),VARLB(21)
DATA P(1),P(2),P(3),P(4),P(5),P(6),P(7),P(8),P(9),P(10),P(11),
1P(12),P(13),P(14),P(15),VARLB(21)/4HP010,4HP011,4HP012,4HP013,
24HP014,4HP015,4HP016,4HP017,4HP018,4HP019,4HP020,4HP021,4HP022,
34HP023,4HP024,4HDIFF/
C      OPT VER EXTRACT
NLL=21
GOTO(7,8,15),IENT
7 TYPE 510
510 FDRHAT(7HYDSM+1)
DCT 25000
DO 2 I1,10
2 A(I)=0.
CALL QNBDAR(A,0,8,IERR)
CALL GSTDA.
CALL ORBADR(A,0,10,IERR)
C      INP IS INPUT DEVICE, IOU IS OUTPUT DEVICE, NSB IS NO OF SUB-
C      BASINS LYR0 IS THE BEGINNING YEAR OF SIMULATION AND NYR IS THE NO
C      OF YEARS
CSR CALL BASIC(VARLB)
CSR
WRITE(6,207)
IF(IRET,EO,1)RETURN
C      INITIALIZE DRIV AND QGLI
OPT VER EXTRACT
8 DO 3 J1,1,NYR
DO 1 K1,1,12
DUH(J,K,6)=0.
1 DUH(J,K,7)=0.
3 CONTINUE
C      REPEAT PROCEDURES FOR EACH SUB-BASIN
DO 30 I=1,NSB
CSR
24 CALL SUBOAT(P,VARLB,I)
CSR
WRITE(IOU,207)
2P7 FORMAT(1H1)
C      IF SSW B ON DO ALL NYR YEARS BEFORE PARAMETER CHANGES
C      BYPASS SSW A, D, AND E
C      IF SSW D ON PAUSE EVERY YEAR TO ALLOW SETTING SSW A FOR RERUNS
SNW2=0IG(10)
ENS2=MIC
14 TYPE 245
245 FORMAT(6HRESET DB)
OCT 25000
C      ENTRY POINT FOR OPT VER
15 PNIC=MIC*SKAL1
PHE5=ME5*SKAL1
CALL QNJDAR(PNIC,04,IERR)
CALL QNJDAR(PHE5,05,IERR)
C      INITIALIZE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION
DBJ=0.
DBA=2.0
C      SET ANALOG TO INITIAL MODE
CALL OSICCIERR)
C      REPEAT PROCEDURES FOR EACH YEAR
DO 125 J=Nyb,NYR
IFP=1
SNW1=0IG(10)
ENS1=M5
C      IF SSW D ON PAUSE EVERY YEAR TO ALLOW SETTING SSW A, C, AND E
C      IF SSW B ON IGNORE SSW D
OCT 023500
OCT 023420
J = 165
166 FORMAT(5HSET A)
TYPE 1B6
OCT 023420
166 JJ=LYR+J-1
C      INITIALIZE ANNUAL VALUES
DO 23 L=1,21
23 OUT(13,L)=0.
STORMH=0.0
C      REPEAT CALCULATIONS FOR EACH MONTH
DO 20 K=1,12
TEHP=DUH(L,K,1)
PPT=DUM(L,K,2)
QCR=DUH(L,K,3)
QAG=DUH(L,K,5)
QRI=DUH(L,K,6)
QGLI=DUH(L,K,7)
DUT(K,1)=DUT(K,1)+DU(1,K)
EKT=(K/175)*TEHP,SIA
IF(EKT,LT.,3) EKT=.3
ETF=EKT*DUT(K,2)+0IG(3)
ETP=SPKC(K)*ETF
ETP=SPKC(K)*ETF
NETPH=ETPH*(SPAC/SCAC)
RPMTH=0.
RSHPPT
SNMTH=0.
IF(TEMP,GT,DIG(8))GOT010
0IG(10)=0IG(10)+PPT
RPSHM=0.
9 IF(TEMP,LT,DIG(9))GOT010
SNMTH=DIG(10)*(1,-EXP(-DIG(1)*(TEMP-DIG(9))))
IF(DIG(10),LT,SNMTH)SNMTH=DIG(10)
DIG(10)=DIG(10)-SNMTH
10 RPSHM=RPSHM+SNMTH

```

$EKT = (K/175) * TEHP, SIA$   
 $EKT = EKT * DUT(K,2) + 0IG(3)$   
 $ETP = SPKC(K) * ETF$   
 $ETP = SPKC(K) * ETP$   
 $NETPH = ETPH * (SPAC / SCAC)$   
 $RPMTH = 0.$   
 $RSHPPT$   
 $SNMTH = 0.$   
 $IF(TEMP > DIG(8)) GOT010$   
 $0IG(10) = 0IG(10) + PPT$   
 $RPSHM = 0.$   
 $9 IF(TEMP < DIG(9)) GOT010$   
 $SNMTH = DIG(10) * (1 - EXP(-DIG(1) * (TEMP - DIG(9))))$   
 $IF(DIG(10) < SNMTH) SNMTH = DIG(10)$   
 $DIG(10) = DIG(10) - SNMTH$   
 $10 RPSHM = RPSHM + SNMTH$

Figure B.6. (cont'd)

```

        OUT(13,15)=OUT(12,15)
        OUT(13,21)=OUT(13,19)=OUT(13,20)
        OBA=OBA+OUT(13,21)
        SKIP PRINTING IF OPT VER
        IF(IRET,EQ,3)GOTO75
        LL=1
    75 WRITE(6,286)(BASIC(L),L=1,10),JJ
    286 FORMAT(1X10A4,B15)
    225 FORMAT(1H8,7X3HVAR,7(7XA3))
        WRITE(OUT,225)(VK),K=1,6
    168 DO 89 L=1,NLL
    226 FORMAT(7XA4,7F10.2)
    89 WRITE(OUT,226)VARLB(L),(OUT(K,L),K=1,6)
        WRITE(OUT,225)(V(K),K=7,13)
        DO 85 L=1,NLL
    85 WRITE(OUT,226)VARLB(L),(OUT(K,L),K=7,13)
        IF(HANG,GT,83 GO TO 86
        WRITE(6,289)OBA
    289 FORMAT(1H//1H8,10X,4HOBJ#,F20.3/1H ,10X,4HOBAM,F20.3)
    88 WRITE(OUT,207)
    IF#2
        CAL RESRV(J,K,OBA,ETF,IFF)
    IFF#
    IF(LL)75,75,77
    IF SSW C ON OUTPUT ACRE=FT TABLE
    77 OCT 0234AB
        J ,75
        LL=0
        DO 78 K=3,NLL
        DO 78 K=1,12
        IF(L=12)82,81,82
    81 OUT(K,L)=CONPV+OUT(K,L)
        J ,78
    82 OUT(K,L)=CONVV+OUT(K,L)
    78 CONTINUE
        J ,78
    C   IF SSW A ON ENTER PARAMETER VALUE CHANGES ON TTY
    C   IF SSW B ON AND J LT NYR SKIP CHANGES
    75 CONTINUE
        IF(J,EG,NYR)GOTO79
        J ,125
    79 NYR=1
        HIC#EM52
        MS#EM52
        DIG(1)=SNW2
    C   RETURN POINT FOR OPT VER
    206 IF(IRET,GT,1)RETURN
    125 CONTINUE
    30 CONTINUE
    RETURN
    END

C   HYDROLOGIC SIMULATION OUTPUT ARRAY ALLOCATOR
    SUBROUTINE DOUT(OUT,K,L,0XX)
    DIMENSION OUT(13,21)
    OUT(K,L)=0XX
    OUT(13,L)=OUT(13,L)+0XX
    RETURN
    END

C   BASIC DATA FOR B-C EVAPOTRANSPIRATION = SUBROUTINE BASIC
    SUBROUTINE VARLB(OUT)
    REAL HIC,MS,MES
    COMMON WKC(14,12),WK(12),PDL(12),N(8),DD(12),FMT(10),CVR(8),
    1V(13),A(18),BASID(18),PV(15),DUMC(3,12,8),PKC(7,12),SMKC(12),
    2SPKC(12),II(14),DCA(14),CAC(14),PCA(14),PAC(7),PPA(7),OUT(13,21)
    3,DIG(18),RES(18),RESC(18),ROUT(4,13,2),XIM(21)
    4,HIC,MS,EM52,SKAL,SKF,XIN(6,21),PM(21),PL(21),DR(21),NP(21)
    COMMON INP,IOUT,NSB,LYRD,NVR,IRES,HANG,JRES,CTH,CONV,CONV1,CONPV
    1,HE5,SKAL1,SKAL2,SKAL3,SPAC,SCAC,NVB,(12),CMS,BAREA
    DIMENSION VARLB(21)

CSR
    1 READ(5,190)INP,IOUT,NSB,LYRD,NVR
    100 FORMAT(1H15)
    110 FORMAT(13(1X,A3))
    111 FORMAT(28A4)
    112 READ(5,111)(VARLB(I),I=1,13)
    102 FORMAT(12F5.3)
    READ(5,102)(PDL(K),K=1,12)
    READ USE COEFFICIENTS
    DO 52 I=1,14
    52 READ(6,226)(WKC(I,J),J=1,12)
    220 FORMAT(1H8,12F5.2)
    DO 53 J=1,7
    53 READ(6,228)(PKC(I,J),J=1,12)
        WRITE INITIAL DATA
        WRITE(6,208)
        WRITE(6,110)(V(I),I=1,13)
        WRITE(6,111)(VARLB(I),I=1,13)
        WRITE(6,102)(PDL(K),K=1,12)
        DO 500 I=1,14
    500 WRITE(6,226)(WKC(I,J),J=1,12)
        DO 501 I=1,7
    501 WRITE(6,226)(PKC(I,J),J=1,12)
    206 FORMAT(1X10A4,B15)
    RETURN
    END

```

Figure B. 6. (cont'd)



```

OCT 027410
DO 8 L=1,4
ROUT(L,13,1)=8.0
8 ROUT(L,13,1)=8.0
C SET UP INITIAL MONTHLY VALUES
9 QIN=QSO*CONV
QD=QUM(J,K,8)
SI=STI
IS=0
EVAP=ETP*PKC(I,J,K)
QCS=DUN(J,K,2)-EVAP
C OPERATE RESERVOIR ITERATION
10 IC=IC+1
CALL AREA(SI,AR,RES)
11 DT3=QIN-QR*DQS*AR/12.0
ST=SI+DT3
C CHECK FOR ST AGAINST STHMAX AND STHMIN
IF(ST.GT.RES(3))GOTO13
IF(ST.LT.RES(2))GOTO14
QR=QR
J .20
13 QR=QR-ST-RES(3)
ST=RES(3)
J .20
14 QDM=RES(2)-ST
QDM=QR-QDM
IF(QDM.LT.0.0)GOTO15
QR=QDM
ST=RES(2)
J .20
15 QR=0.0
ST=RES(2)+QDM
IF(RES(5).LE.0.0)ST=0.0
COMPUTE AVERAGE STORAGE FOR MONTH
20 SA=(STI+ST)/2.0
COMPUTE AVE AREA FOR MONTH
CALL AREA(SA,AT,RES)
C CHECK AGAINST GUESSED AVERAGE
ER=RES(4)
AC=(AT-AR)/AR
AK=AB8(AC)
AC=ER-AK
LA AC
SKP
J .21
J .25
C CHECK ITERATIONS
21 ICC=IC-30
LA ICC
SKN
J .23
SI=SA
J .10
23 WRITE(6,100)SI,SA,ST
IC EXCEEDS 30
100 FORMAT(12H EXCESS ITER,3F20.3)
C SET UP FOR NEXT MONTH
25 QR=QR
QSO=QR/CONV
C COMPUTE OUTPUT ARRAY
DA=ST/12.0
CALL RSOUT(1,K,1,ST,DA,ROUT)
DM=ST-STI
CALL RSOUT(2,K,1,DM,DM,ROUT)
DM=EVAP*AR/12.0
CALL RSOUT(3,K,1,DM,DM,ROUT)
DM=DUM(J,K,2)*AR/12.0
CALL RSOUT(4,K,1,DM,DM,ROUT)
CALL RSOUT(1,K,2,QIN,QIN,ROUT)
CALL RSOUT(2,K,2,QR,QR,ROUT)
CALL RSOUT(3,K,2,EVAP,EVAP,ROUT)
C INITIALIZE NEXT MONTHS ST
STI=ST
C CHECK EXTREMES
EMX=ST-SHMAX
LA EMX
SKP
J .30
SHMAX=ST
JMX=LYR0+J-1
KMX=K
J .33
30 ENMSMIN=ST
LA EMN
SKP
J .33
SHIN=ST
JHN=LYR0+J-1
KHN=K
33 RETURN

C      IFFF=2 PRINT RES DATA
70 JR=LYR0+J-1
WRITE(6,102)(BA8ID(L),L=1,10),JR
102 FORMAT(1X,0A4,I5//18,22HRESERVOIR DATA (AC-FT))
103 FORMAT(4X,5MONTH,7(7X,A))
104 FORMAT(8(ROUT(I,K,1)),K=1,8)
105 FORMAT(8(ROUT(2,K,1)),K=1,8)
106 FORMAT(8(ROUT(3,K,1)),K=1,8)
107 FORMAT(8(ROUT(4,K,1)),K=1,8)
108 FORMAT(8(ROUT(1,K,2)),K=1,8)
109 FORMAT(8(ROUT(2,K,2)),K=1,8)
110 FORMAT(8(ROUT(3,K,2)),K=1,8)
111 FORMAT(8(ROUT(4,K,2)),K=1,8)
112 FORMAT(8(L),L=7,13)
113 FORMAT(8(ROUT(I,K,1)),K=7,13)
114 FORMAT(8(ROUT(2,K,1)),K=7,13)
115 FORMAT(8(ROUT(3,K,1)),K=7,13)
116 FORMAT(8(ROUT(4,K,1)),K=7,13)
117 FORMAT(8(ROUT(1,K,2)),K=7,13)
118 FORMAT(8(ROUT(2,K,2)),K=7,13)
119 FORMAT(8(ROUT(3,K,2)),K=7,13)
120 FORMAT(8(ROUT(4,K,2)),K=7,13)
121 FORMAT(//18I5HMAX STORAGE FOR,I3,7H YEARS=,F10.0,5MAC=FT,2XA3,I5)
122 FORMAT(//18I5HMIN STORAGE FOR,I3,7H YEARS=,F10.0,5MAC=FT,2XA3,I5)
75 LA JRES
A /0
OCT 027410
J .75
WRITE(6,120)J,SHMAX,V(KMX),JMX
WRITE(6,121)J,SHMIN,V(KHN),JHN
123 FORMAT(12H MAXIMUM VOLUME,7F10.0)
124 FORMAT(12H MINIMUM VOLUME,7F10.0)
125 FORMAT(12H HEVAP ,7F10.2)
126 FORMAT(12H HOUTFLOW ,7F10.0)
127 FORMAT(12H INCHES),7F10.2/
C      JNVR WRITE EXTREMES
JE=NVR-J
LA JE
A /0
OCT 027410
J .99
WRITE(6,125)
128 FORMAT(1M1)
99 RETURN
END

C      RESERVOIR OPERATION OUTPUT ARRAY ALLOCATOR
SUBROUTINE RSOUT(L,K,N,DM,DA,ROUT)
DIMENSION ROUT(4,13,2)
ROUT(L,K,N)=ROUT(L,13,N)*DA
RETURN
END

C      RESERVOIR SURFACE AREA ALGORITHM = SUBROUTINE AREA
SUBROUTINE AREA(ST,AR,RES)
DIMENSION RES(10)
IF(ST.LT.0.0)GOTO10
IF(ST.LT.RES(8))GOTO11
C2=RES(10)
AR=RES(9)*SI+C2
J .12
1 C2=RES(7)
AR=RES(6)*SI+C2*RES(5)
J .12
10 AR=RES(5)
12 RETURN
END

```

Figure B. 6. (cont'd)

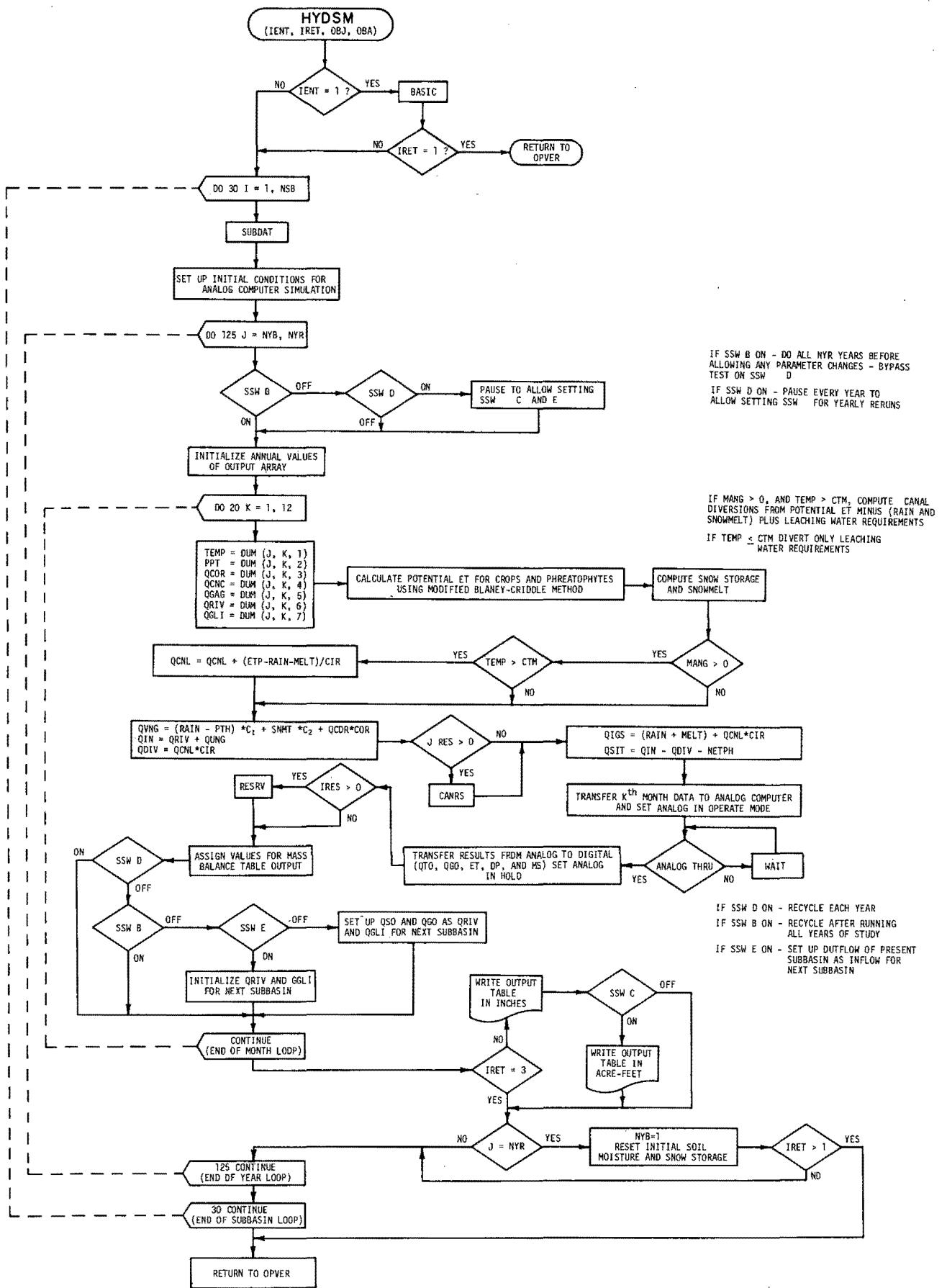


Figure B.7. Flow chart of subroutine HYDSYM.

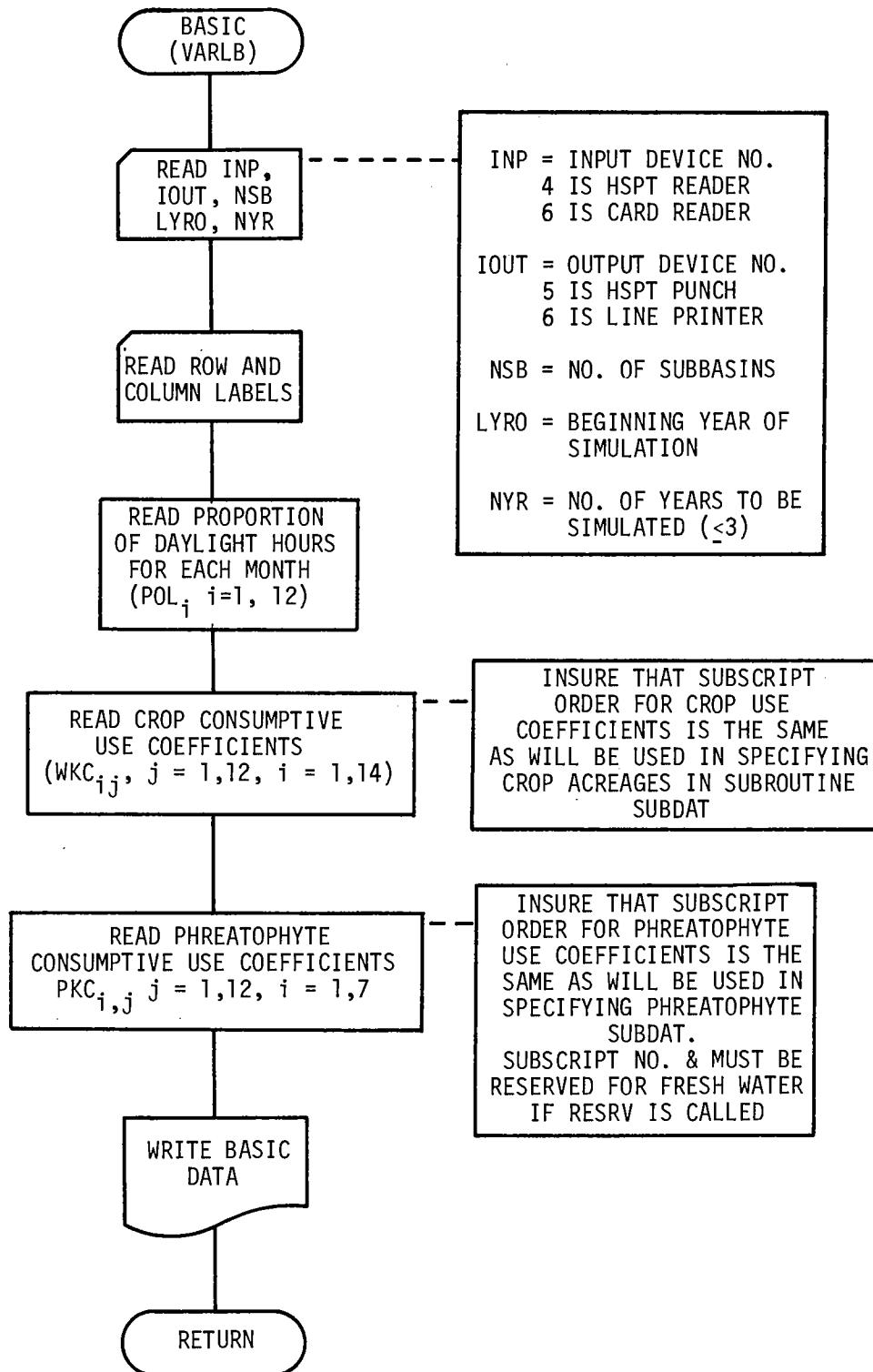


Figure B. 8. Flow chart of subroutine BASIC.

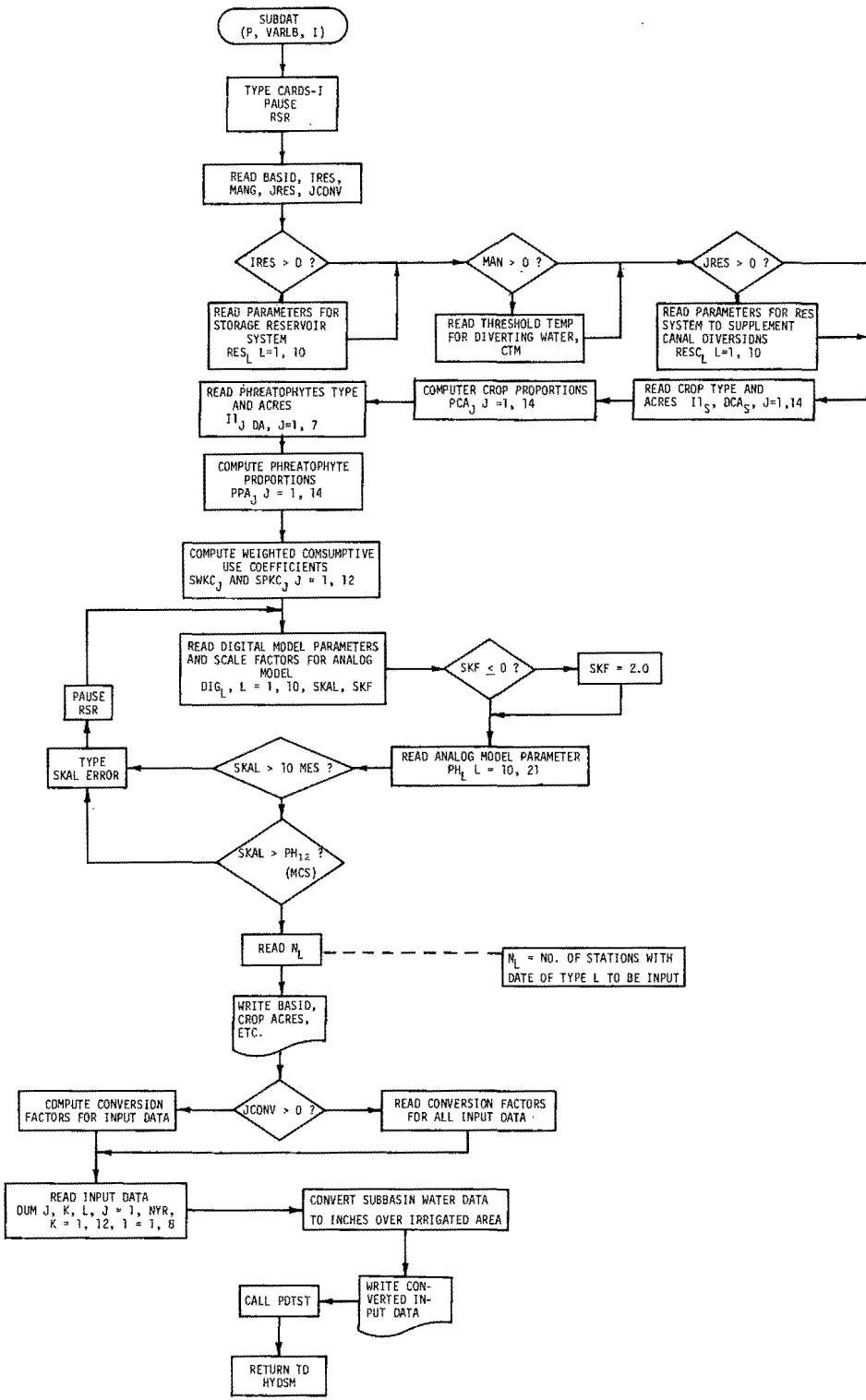


Figure B. 9. Flow chart of subroutine SUBDAT.

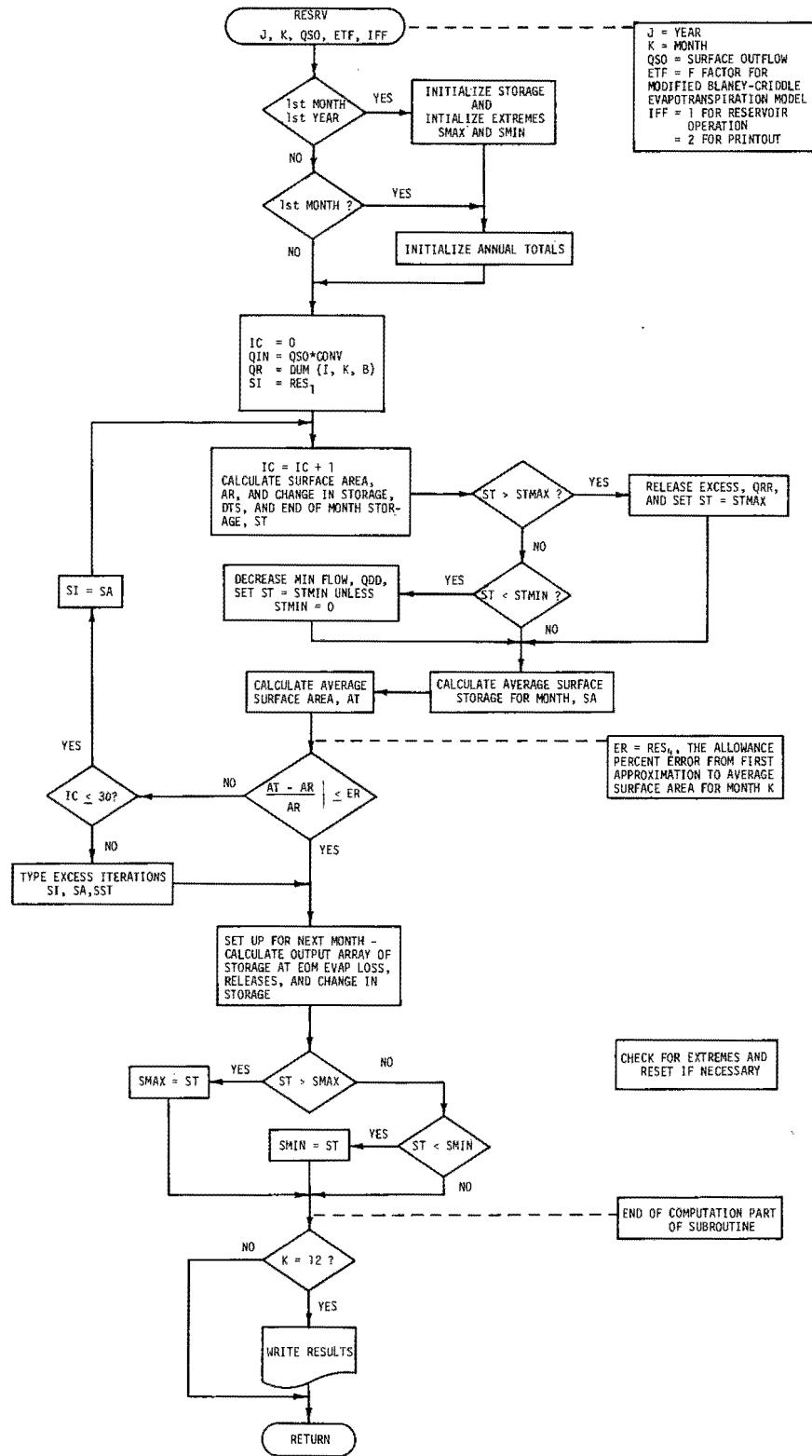


Figure B.10. Flow chart of subroutine RESRV.

## APPENDIX C

MODIFIED INPUT DATA,  
MODEL COEFFICIENTS, AND  
OUTPUT DATA

## APPENDIX C

### MODIFIED INPUT DATA, MODEL COEFFICIENTS, AND OUTPUT DATA

This appendix includes modified input data, model variable values for each subbasin, and model output for each subbasin. The first printout page lists the modified input data and the coefficients for the subbasin. Modified data includes the input data from Appendix A but in a scaled and summed, where necessary, form. The next three printout pages list the subbasin outputs for the three modeled years. Four printout pages are listed on one page of text in this appendix. The modified input data and the output data for one subbasin occupies one page of text.

The modified input data pages list the name of the subbasin on the first line and indicate the use of program options on the second line. The third and fourth lines list the acreages of the crops in the subbasin according to the land use table and the total crop acreage. The fifth and sixth lines give the fraction of the total crop acreage for each crop. The seventh line lists a conversion factor for converting inches over the total crop area to acre-feet. The

eighth line lists acreage for each phreatophyte. The ninth line gives the total phreatophyte acreage. Lines ten and eleven list the fraction of total phreatophyte acreage for each phreatophyte and the conversion factor from inches over the phreatophyte acreage to acre-feet. Lines twelve and thirteen give weighted values for crop and phreatophyte consumptive use coefficients. Lines fourteen and fifteen are the verified values of the model variables. The next twenty-four lines represent the input data for the years of modeling, in this case 1954, 1955, and 1956. The input data beginning with number one are temperature, precipitation, streamflow for correlation purposes, canal diversion, gaged outflow, gaged river inflow, groundwater inflow, and reservoir storage or a dummy variable for any desired data. The last two groups of data are the calculated and actual potentiometer settings. The variables listed on the output data printouts are defined in Appendix B and are given here in units of acre-feet. The variables are given for each month and an annual summary or average.



























**APPENDIX D**  
**MANAGEMENT OPPORTUNITIES**











