

"DETERMINATION OF RAINFALL/RUNOFF
MODEL PARAMETERS"

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
Master of Engineering Degree at the New South Wales Insti-
tute of Technology.

December 1981

CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

I hereby declare that the content of this thesis does not comprise any work or material which I have previously submitted for a Degree or other similar award from any other Institute of Technology or University.

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ABSTRACT

"DETERMINATION OF RAINFALL/RUNOFF MODEL PARAMETERS"

KEY WORDS: Stochastic-Deterministic, Rainfall/Runoff Models. Joint Probability, Antecedence, Parameters-Field Measurements.

ABSTRACT: Runoff estimates both peaks and volumes are called for in design analysis for the sizing of a wide range of engineering structures. In many instances runoff records are very short or not available and it is necessary to use synthetic rainfall data and apply a rainfall/runoff model to estimate appropriate design hydrographs. This thesis addresses the particular portion of the rainfall/runoff process conversion dealing with the development of excess hyetographs prior to catchment routing and the estimation of the parameters affecting such development. Details are given on field based parameter estimating procedures as well as further model development to better reflect measurable input parameters. A joint probability model linking moisture deficiency criteria prior to an event, rainfall data and measured catchment parameters is developed and applied on Canberra data.

REFERENCE: GOYEN, A.G. (1981). Determination of Rainfall/Runoff Model Parameters. Thesis M.Eng., N.S.W. Institute of Technology, December (unpublished).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The assistance of the National Capital Development Commission in providing funds for field measurements and computer use is greatly acknowledged as this thesis would not have been possible without such financial assistance. The Department of Housing & Construction is also acknowledged for providing basic rainfall and runoff data, for the Giralang, Gungahlin and Mawson study catchments, used extensively in this thesis.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

A	Subcatchment area in km ² .
A	Transition Probabilities Matrix.
A	Infiltration parameter (cm/min ¹).
Ac	Cross-Sectional area of core (cm ²).
AO, A1	Redistribution Parameters.
API5	Five day antecedent prec. index.
B	Subarea coefficient.
B	Infiltration parameter (cm/min ^{3/2}).
b _{jik}	Conditional probability of Q _{o j} given R _i and M _k .
CAPIMP	Impervious store capacity.(mm).
CWI	Catchment Wetness Index.
C	Rational Method Runoff Coefficient.
DS	Pervious Depression storage.(mm).
DSC	Depression store capacity.(mm).
D	Diameter of soil core.(mm).
D(wet)	Wet density.(g/mm ³) and (g/cm ³).
D(dry)	Dry density.(g/mm ³) and (g/cm ³).
ER	Proportion of transpiration from US.
ECOR	Ratio of Pot. Evap. to A class pan.
f	Dimension of vector Q _o .
FIMP	Proportion of catchment that is impervious.
GN	Variable rate groundwater recession factor.
GS	Groundwater storage.(mm).
H	Hydraulic head - dist. from base of core to pondage surface.(cm).
i	Cumulative infiltration.(cm).
ISC	Interception store capacity.(mm).
IAR	Proportion of rainfall intercepted by vegetation.
IDS	Impervious depression storage.(mm).
IS	Interception storage.(mm).
I	Rainfall intensity in mm/hr for a return period f _y and duration T _a .
I	Infiltration rate.(mm/hr).
KG	Constant rate groundwater recession factor.
K	Subarea storage delay time in hours.
Ko	Saturated hydraulic conductivity.(cm/min).
L	Length of soil core.(cm).
LSC	Lower soil store capacity.(mm).
LH	Maxrate of water uptake from roots from lower soil store.(mm/day),
LDF	Lower soil drainage factor.
LS	Lower soil storage.(mm).
l	Dimension of vector R.
M _k	Particular value of parameter.
m _k	Probability of M _k .

m Parameter value.
 P(Q) Peak flow prob. of exceedence.
 P(Q, T_i, R_j, I_k) Conditional probability of Q being exceeded given that T_i, r_j and I_k occur.
 p(T_i) Probability of T_i occurring.
 p(V_j) Probability of V_j occurring.
 p(I_k) Probability of I_k occurring.
 Q Instantaneous rate of runoff in m³/s.
 Q_w Volume of water discharged in time t. (cm³).
 Q_o Vector representing probability distribution of output.
 q_o^j Probability of Q_o^j.
 Q_o^j Particular value of output.
 q_o^j Output variable.
 Q(fy) Peak runoff for return period fy years. (m³/s).
 R Vector representing probability distribution of input.
 r_i probability of R_i.
 r_i input variable.
 R_i Particular value of input.
 S_i Main channel slope i_g %.
 S Sorptivity (cm/min^{1/2}).
 S₀ Sorptivity at zero moisture level.
 SMD Soil moisture deficiency.
 t Time (min).
 T Time of concentration.
 T_a Rainfall intensity averaging time.
 (1+U) Urbanisation factor - equals fraction urbanised.
 US Initial moisture content in upper soil store (mm).
 UH Maxrate of water uptake from roots from upper soil store.
 USC Upper soil store capacity. (mm).
 V_t Total volume of soil sample. (mm³).
 V Basin storage constant for an assumed linear reservoir.
 W_w Weight of water in soil sample (g).
 W_s Weight of dry soil in soil sample (g).
 W_t Total weight of soil sample (g).
 W(Vol) Moisture content by volume. (%).
 W(Wt) Moisture content by weight. (%).
 X) values related to time in infiltration equ.
 Y).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis covers the particular area of the rainfall/runoff modelling process dealing with urban and rural runoff estimates used for engineering design purposes.

Rainfall/runoff models have been used extensively in Australia for the estimating of flow peaks and volumes to size hydraulic structures such as bridges, culverts, channels and piped stormwater systems. Methods employed have included simple empirical equations (such as the Rational Formula) , Unit Hydrograph procedures, regression analysis based on regional data and more recently runoff routing techniques based on conceptual catchment storages. The thesis has looked at the latter method and in particular the estimation of design or frequency based runoff magnitudes.

Based on extensive development and use of runoff routing models in a design environment over recent years, it had become apparent that the main inputs needed to correctly develop runoff estimates were the combination of parameters affecting the development of excess rainfall and in turn its appropriate routing through the catchment. Initial catchment wetness or antecedent wetness in urban design procedures had received little documented attention and the combined effects of design rainfall bursts and catchment wetness even less. The definition of appropriate design pre event catchment wetness for urban catchments incorporating different land types and covers as well as artificial watering, has formulated one of the main terms of reference for this thesis.

Although there were a large number of factors and parameters that could affect the runoff response from a given rainfall event, the current work was mainly centred around those affecting the volume of surface runoff and its initial distribution before catchment routing.

In recent years synthetic design storms based on dimensionless temporal patterns for a particular region have been used extensively for the estimation of design hydrographs using rainfall/runoff models. To improve the understanding and implications of this approach this thesis sought to test their general application.

Due to the increasing number of drainage works that have now incorporated artificial storages to promote peak attenuation, runoff volumes have taken on an even more important role requiring a greater emphasis on the proper estimation of those volumes.

The concentration on appropriate design rainfall excesses for use in urban drainage designs was thought to be more applicable in Canberra than some other areas of Australia, for example closer to the coast, due to its lower rainfall regime and higher summer temperatures. The Canberra region can be classed as semi-arid and often has potential for high infiltration rates due to extended dry periods. Inadequate data on appropriate rainfall losses to be applied to a particular frequency runoff event, could very easily lead to significant errors in estimated peak flow rates and volumes.

To extend practical interpretation of input parameters to analytical modelling, a field based data collection and analysis program was included. Several urban catchments were selected in Canberra to act as control and test areas. Long term soil moisture fluctuations and infiltration properties were monitored on a number of these catchments and over different land types and covers. Interfacing studies were carried out to merge the measured data with existing and proposed modelling algorithms.

The following chapters describe the collection of appropriate field data to supplement existing catchment data, and the development of a proposed frequency based excess rainfall model applicable to both urban and rural catchments. Application of the model is presented in a typical design environment.

In particular Chapter 2 discusses the background to this thesis and provides the basis for the terms of reference for the following chapters.

Chapter 3 details the results of field based data generation and discusses the practical application and difficulties associated with this work.

Chapter 4 describes the mechanics of proposed new modelling algorithms with respect to runoff supply and design peaks in urban areas and as well discusses a number of existing methodologies. Details of typical model applications are provided.

Chapter 5 summarises the general findings of the thesis and gives conclusions and recommendations in respect to those findings.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND AND SCOPE OF THESIS

Over the last eight years the author with others (Goyen & Aitken(1976), Henkel & Goyen(1980)) has been responsible for the development and use, in practise, of a number of computer based urban stormwater drainage models. These have been applied in varied hydrologic and hydraulic projects throughout Australia and Papua New Guinea.

The evolutionary process involved in model development has necessitated constant inclusion of new algorithms to meet increased complexities in both analysis and design requirements.

One such rainfall/runoff model co-developed by the author entitled the Regional Stormwater Drainage Model (RSWM) has been used extensively, since its inception in 1974, in both the analysis and design of both urban and rural drainage systems. The RSWM has gained widespread use by a number of private consultants and government organisations in Eastern Australia on both minor and major drainage and flood mitigation projects and has now been developed into an efficient and versatile watershed model appropriate for both design and analysis of urbanised and rural drainage systems.

Through continued use of the RSWM several application shortcomings had come to the author's attention that could not be solved without indepth research and development. A major item related to the specifications of appropriate loss rates for design analyses, particularly when synthetic storms were to be applied. The RSWM in its present form, as with other rainfall/runoff models, requires rainfall losses to be input as raw data. These are entered as either initial and continuing loss rates or decay type loss functions based on input antecedent conditions. Because little data have been available on appropriate losses to be applied in varied design situations, this section of any runoff analysis, under certain circumstances, has placed the accuracy of some runoff estimates in serious jeopardy.

The scope of this thesis was therefore aimed at developing methods whereby appropriate losses could be estimated for particular design runoff events and the incorporation of these methods into models similar to the RSWM.

A brief synopsis of the RSWM as used prior to this thesis has been included below to further clarify the starting position of this thesis.

2.1 Description of RSWM. To design complex stormwater drainage systems, especially those which include flood storage, it is desirable to carry out the calculation by means of a rainfall/runoff model programmed for solution on a digital computer. This approach eliminates much of the repetitive calculations and allows the detailed investigation of many alternatives. The RSWM rainfall/runoff model described in this thesis was originally developed in 1974 to analyse catchments in a proposed new urban growth area near Darwin covering some 85 km² and was intended for use in the design and analysis of the trunk stormwater drainage systems. Since that time however the model has undergone extensive development and is now suitable for the analysis and design of urban and rural drainage systems with catchments varying upwards from 25 ha.

Details of the model have been presented by Goyen and Aitken (1976). Figure 2-1 shows a diagrammatic representation of the RSWM which consists of four modules:

(i) A library module which controls the overall operation of the program including most of the data input and the sequencing of calls to the other three modules. Given sufficient computer storage space, any conceivable arrangement of catchment areas, channels and stormwater retarding basins can be modelled.

(ii) A catchment hydrograph module which estimates the runoff hydrograph from a catchment, using Laurenson's non-linear runoff routing model (Laurenson, 1964). The module operates on a rainfall excess hyetograph which is derived from either an actual rainfall or a synthetic design storm hyetograph and losses calculated using initial and continuing units or Philip's (Philip, 1957) infiltration equation. The catchment storage delay parameter for Laurenson's equation may be calculated from the catchment area, catchment slope and degree of urbanisation using a regression equation derived by Aitken (1975).

(iii) A channel routing module which routes estimated runoff hydrographs along the channels using the Muskingum-Cunge procedure (Price, 1973) or, alternatively, simple lagging of the peak flow by translating the hydrograph in time. Lateral inflow to the channel is included in the procedure.

(iv) A reservoir routing module which routes an inflow hydrograph through a retarding basin or ornamental storage using a level pool routing procedure. The stage/discharge relationship may be calculated within the program by hydraulic equations for a circular pipe outlet and a high level spillway. The stage/storage relationship may be approximated by an exponential equation. Alternatively, either or both of these relationships may be input as a set of known points on a curve.

The hydrograph module of the RSWM utilises the following equations to estimate the storage delay time in the non-linear model:

$$K = BQ^{-0.285} \quad (2-1)$$

$$B = 0.285A^{0.520}(1.0+U)^{-1.972}S^{-0.499} \quad (2-2)$$

K = sub-area storage delay time in hours

Q = instantaneous rate of runoff in cubic metres per second at the headwater

B = the sub-area coefficient

A = subcatchment area in square kilometres

S = main channel slope in percent

(1.0+U) = an urbanisation factor.

The urbanisation factor "U" varies from zero for a rural catchment to unity for a fully urban catchment.

The output from the RSWM includes, for each subcatchment:

- (i) A summary of subcatchment and rainfall data.
- (ii) A summary of flow peaks, storage volumes and water levels.
- (iii) The complete details of the outflow hydrographs and water levels in a retarding basin.
- (iv) A graphical plot of all computed hydrographs.

Of the several modules making up the RSWM the most significant one likely to effect the outcome of a watershed analysis is the one controlling hydrograph generation.

As described above the hydrograph generation module of the RSWM uses Laurenson's runoff routing algorithms (Laurenson, 1964) with additional regression coefficients to allow for catchment urbanisation developed by Aitken (1975).

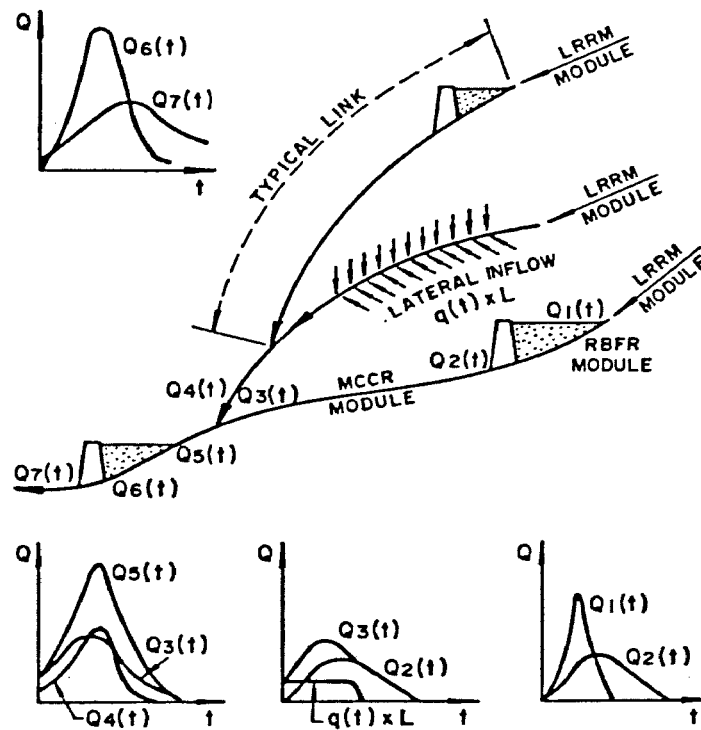


FIGURE 2-1. Diagrammatic Sketch of RSWM

Whether the RSWM is being used to analyse an historic event by simulation or to produce a design hydrograph using a synthetic storm, it first calls for the separation of excess rainfall from the total storm input. When analysing an historic event this can often be achieved by abstracting volume data from gauged rainfall and runoff charts. In a design mode, however, it is necessary to estimate appropriate loss rates for the type of storm under consideration and the particular catchment under study.

Unfortunately this often designated "simple" first step in the hydrograph generation process is far from simple. Depending on antecedent conditions and spatially averaged infiltration parameters, as well as the frequency of the storm, a poor estimate can very often influence the final peak and volume of the resulting hydrograph far more than any other subsequent step.

The continued development of this module particularly relating to catchment data for the development of rainfall excess is described in subsequent chapters of this thesis.

The Regional Stormwater Model (RSWM) is structured similarly to the Stanford Watershed Model described by Crawford and Lindsay (1966) and Larson (1965) in as much as it includes both land and channel phases. Figure 2-2 indicates a typical watershed breakup for analysis by the RSWM.

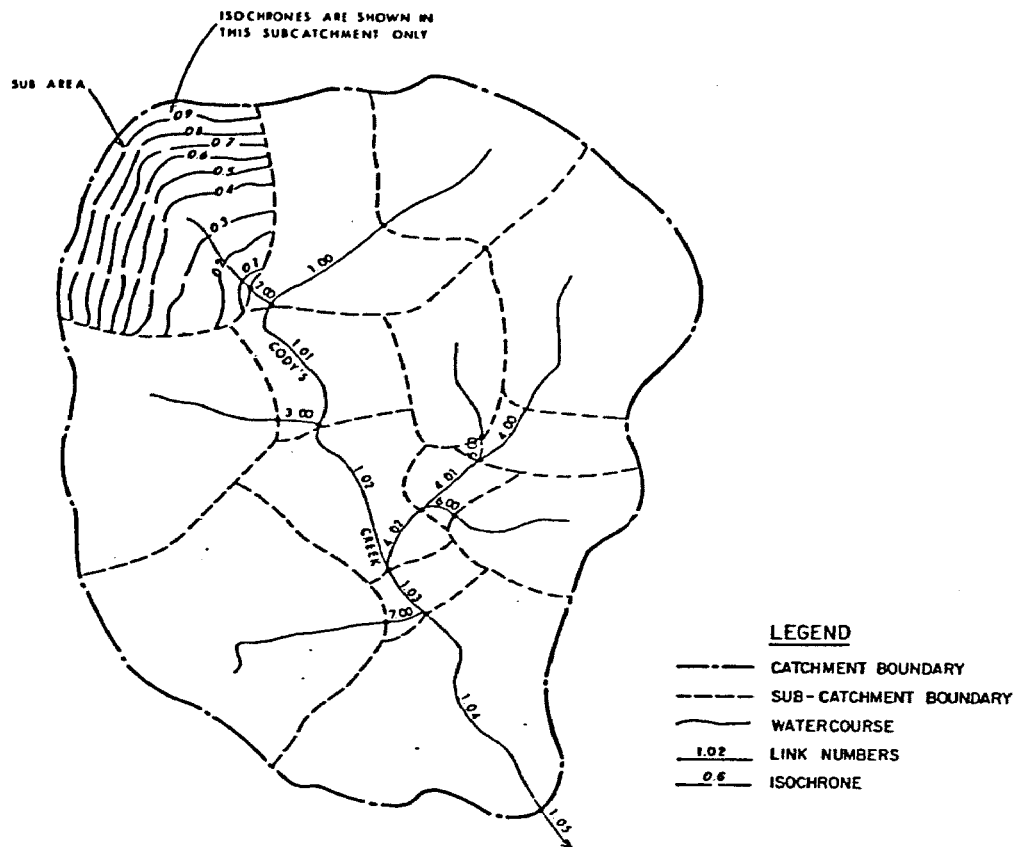


FIGURE 2-2. Typical Watershed Breakup for Analysis by RSWM

In principle the total study area is divided into subcatchments so that outlet nodes are located at points where flow estimates are required. Each subcatchment is then considered and analysed in isolation with outlet hydrographs transposed between nodes via appropriate main channel routing.

Subcatchment analysis, being the nucleus of the model, is approached as a two phase system. Firstly a land phase is included whereby rainfall excess or runoff supply is estimated then secondly a channel phase is applied for routing of rainfall excess through ten conceptual storages made up from isochronal areas to achieve a total runoff hydrograph at the outlet of the subcatchment.

The subcatchment channel phase therefore includes both overland flow and minor channel and pipe contributions. The total watershed analysis, considering the interconnection of the individual subcatchments, requires a second or major channel phase based on defined channel hydraulics.

It was proposed in this thesis to concentrate on the land phase of the RSWM in an urban environment principally

at the subcatchment level.

It is well documented (Wittenburg, H.(1975)) that urban stormwater systems and rural runoff respond very differently to a similar storm event. In most modern day urban drainage systems there would appear to be broadly two separate runoff segments, ie. from the impervious areas and pervious areas respectively. These become fused together to provide the total runoff hydrograph at particular points in the system.

To take the analysis one step further however, it was also proposed to divide the land and minor channel phases into their pervious and impervious component parts, analyse separate hydrographs then superimpose these prior to any major channel phase to test the appropriateness of such actions.

The latter work was included to test the applicability or otherwise of using lumped models, usually associated with rural catchments, in an urban environment. Also it was necessary to ascertain the representative influences of both the impervious and pervious components of urban flows throughout the frequency range and urban land types.

The current edition of "Australian Rainfall and Runoff Flood Analysis and Design" (ARR, 1977), Chapter 8 contains a discussion on 'Initial and Continuing Losses'. In this, some discussion is provided on the selection of design values, however, apart from stating the various factors influencing them, it gives only general values for typical design situations. Initial losses are described as 'extremely variable, having a range from around zero to more than 50 mm'.

In urban stormwater drainage designs the normal range of storm events usually considered do not exceed two hours in duration. In Canberra, a total of 50 mm of rainfall corresponds to a once in 500+ year for a 15 minute storm or a once in 200+ year for a 30 minute storm or a once in 100 year for a 1 hour storm. As can be appreciated all of the stated storm bursts as well as variations in between fall beyond the normal range used in urban design analyses. With the vast extremes suggested for initial losses, without even considering continuing losses, it is not surprising that the generation of significant pervious runoff under a number of circumstances could be questioned. Conversely, a range of other meteorological and catchment circumstances could cause significant pervious runoff.

Added to the above discussion there was a very real problem of assigning appropriate losses to design storm bursts rather than total storms. Design storm bursts (design storms) are derived on a statistical basis from a long period of pluviograph record representative of a study area. Significant bursts of varying durations are accumulated from the record and mean dimensionless temporal

patterns deduced. Such bursts can consist of the total storm or be imbedded within the event.

Assigning loss rates to design storms took on the added problem of assigning appropriate pre-storm burst wetness or average catchment antecedent wetness immediately prior to the start of the design burst. Chapter 3 in ARR 1977 gives typical temporal patterns of rainfall bursts for various locations in Australia based on long term continuous rainfall data. The use of such data has gained widespread acceptance in drainage design work and as such the question of appropriate losses needed urgent resolution.

Some Australian work has been carried out on this aspect notably by Laurenson & Pilgrim (1963), Pilgrim (1966), Cordery & Webb (1974) and Cordery (1970). Cordery studied 42 years and 32 years of rainfall records at Sydney and Griffith, N.S.W. respectively. He showed that antecedent wetness was an important factor in assigning initial losses to design storms particularly in areas where the mean annual rainfall was significantly less than 1200 mm.

Cordery developed a procedure to estimate a median antecedent precipitation index (API) prior to a design storm burst by relating the difference in catchment wetness occurring between the 9 a.m. estimate via normal API calculations using 24 hour rainfall data and the start of the design burst.

The API was then related to potential initial loss by an expression based on observed rainfall and runoff data for 14 rural catchments in eastern New South Wales.

The current thesis has carried on in a similar vein to Cordery's work making use of 45 years of continuous pluviograph record at Canberra in conjunction with a variable time water balance model to develop statistical antecedent relationships for several types of urban land domains.

To cover the significant factors that affect loss rate estimates on urban catchments the current thesis proposed to examine existing analytical estimating techniques with the view to adopting or developing suitable methods for use in urban design procedures. It was also proposed to review, adopt and devise suitable field data collection techniques to collect additional data for this thesis as well as provide data collecting guidelines for similar studies in other regions and land domains.

It was anticipated that relatively simple and rapid field data collection methods may be developed for adoption into regular stormwater drainage design exercises.

The following Chapter details the results of field based data generation and discusses the practical application and difficulties associated with this work.

CHAPTER 3

FIELD DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

3.1 Introduction

The original scope of the data collection and analysis program was not constrained by any predetermined ideas but ultimately because of funding and time constraints was limited to a number of specific experiments aimed at providing fundamental input data for loss rate determination on the catchments studied.

The major elements of the program in summary form included work;

(i) to measure long term variations in soil moisture occurring specifically in the top 300 mm profile in different Canberra urban land domains;

(ii) to define infiltration parameters for the land domains being studied;

(iii) to determine the make up of typical urban watersheds and the interaction of the various domains including the relative significance of impervious and pervious areas as the major subgroups of a catchment.

Canberra has several well gauged urban and rural catchments. Instrumentation includes pluviographs, stage recorders to monitor runoff, ancillary daily rainfall recorders and on one urban catchment water quality recorders.

The present gauging network was funded by the National Capital Development Commission and is maintained and operated by the Department of Housing & Construction and as such provides high quality data collected by skilled and dedicated hydrographers.

The catchments addressed in this thesis are at Girralang and Gungahlin in the town of Belconnen in the northwest sector of Canberra, at Mawson in the Woden Valley immediately south of Canberra City and the northern slopes of Black Mountain immediately adjacent to Canberra city.

The locations of these catchments are shown on Figure 3-1.



FIGURE 3-1. Location of Canberra Study Catchments.

Both the Giralang and Mawson catchments are for all practical purposes fully built up and represent typical Canberra type urban catchments. They have fully sealed roads with kerb and gutter, are fully sewered and have roof drainage directly connected to the piped drainage system. Planning and development in both areas occurred in close sympathy with the natural drainage lines and both a pipe drainage system to take flows up to about the once in 5 year level, together with an overland flow path over public land to protect private property from rarer flooding was provided.

Figures 3-2 and 3-3 indicate the two urban catchments. A description of the type of drainage systems (both minor and major) used and the general drainage policies adopted in Canberra have been given by Higgins & Mills (1975) and Henkel & Goyen (1980).

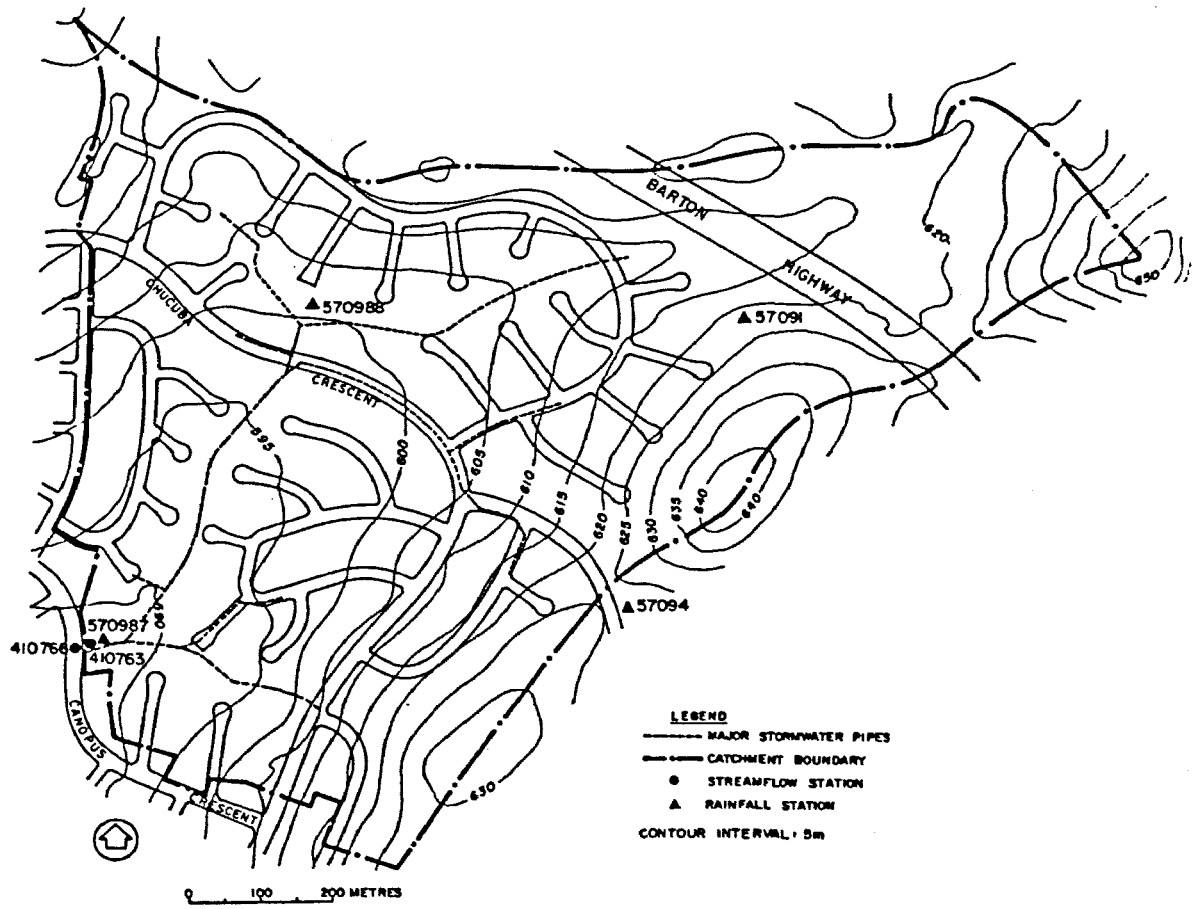


FIGURE 3-2. Giralang Urban Catchment.

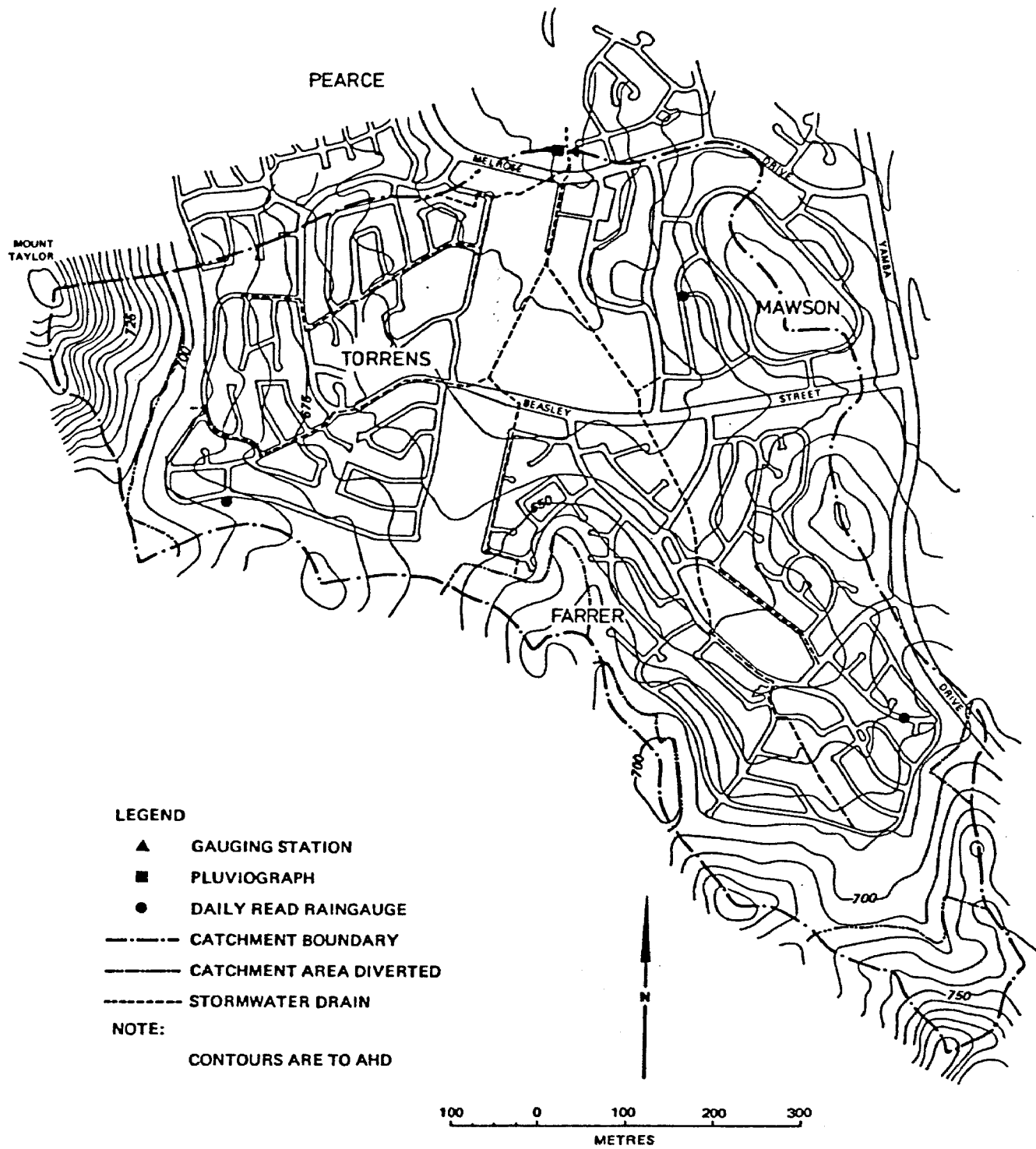


FIGURE 3-3. Mawson Urban Catchment.

Additionally at Giralang a rural catchment adjacent to the urban catchment is gauged to provide additional data. A full description of the paired catchment gauging network is given in NCDC's Technical Report 29.(1980) This catchment is shown on figure 3-4.

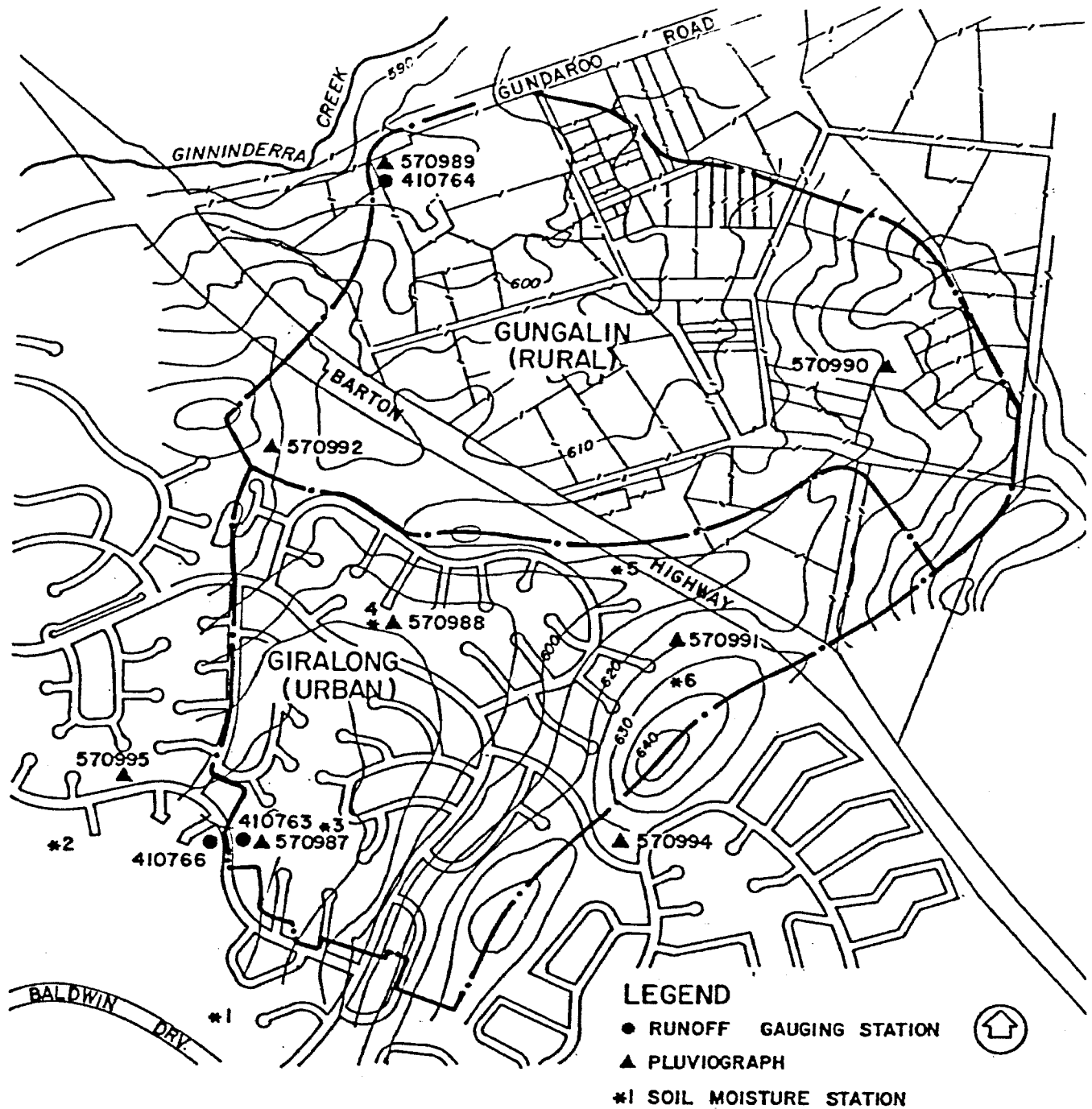


FIGURE 3-4. Giralang and Gungahlin Paired Catchments.

The main objective of the field work program was not only to provide input data to the current research but also to test the validity of expending additional funds on field measurements on other study catchments prior to hydrologic

analyses or designs.

Specifically, the Giralang urban catchment was used as the base catchment where most field measurements were carried out. The Mawson catchment was used as a comparative test catchment on which to test the transferrability of data from the Giralang catchment to other typical urban catchments in the region.

Limited field data was also collected from the Black Mountain Reserve area to gather information on native forested areas which are fairly common on the surrounds of urban watersheds within the region.

The following briefly summarises the hydrologic data made available during the course of the thesis:

- . Pluviograph data from the Yarralumla Forestry Research Station is shown on Figure 3-1 for the complete years 1933 through 1961 and 1966 through 1970.
- . Pluviograph data at the outlet of the Giralang urban study catchment for years 1976 through 1979.
- . Pluviograph data at the outlet of the Gungahlin rural study catchment for years 1976 through 1979.
- . Pluviograph data at the city gauge adjacent to the Black Mountain soil moisture stations 7 and 8 for the years 1979 through 1980.
- . Pluviograph data at the outlet of the Mawson creek catchment for the years 1972 through 1980. (Data not fully processed at the time of this Thesis.)
- . Continuous runoff data at the Gungahlin rural catchment outlet for the complete years 1976 through 1979.
- . Continuous runoff data at the outlet of the Mawson urban catchment for the complete years 1972 through 1980. (All data had not been processed at the time of this Thesis.)

3.2 Study Catchments

3.2.1 Giralang and Gungahlin. The Giralang urban catchment indicated on Figures 3-2 and 3-4 formed the main study catchment used in this thesis. It has a total area of 94 hectares including 24 hectares of impervious surfaces and 32 hectares of predominantly indigenous soil unirrigated

grassland. The residue 38 hectares consists of urban residential pervious areas made up of lawns and gardens with, predominantly, imported topsoils.

Indigenous areas have native grass cover similar to the sister Gungahlin rural catchment with some imported species, predominantly chewings fescue and ryes sown in the areas adjacent to residential lots.

Grasses common on residential lots are chewings fescue, couch, kentucky blue and various species of clover. Root depths are usually limited to less than 50 mm.

Native soil types consist basically of red podzolic on the upper slopes and yellow podzolics on the lower slopes of the catchment.

The 'A' horizon native topsoils or root zone consists mainly of sandy clay to clayey-sand of low plasticity which varies in thickness from virtually zero on some of the upper slopes where the weathered rock is exposed, to 400 mm at the bottom of the catchment close to ephemeral water courses.

Imported topsoils vary considerably in nature, from light sandy-clays to puggy organic clays depending on the area of procurement. Included in the appendix are engineering logs taken at six locations in the catchment as indicated on Figure 3-4. A detailed description of the Giralang gauging network is given in Technical Paper No. 29 published by the National Capital Development Commission, 1980.

Instrumentation, as described in the above document, consists of a runoff recording station at the outlet of the catchment consisting of a sloping crest crump weir to measure flows in the pipe system and an additional cut throat flume incorporated in a walkway underpass to measure excess overland flows up to at least the once in 100 year flow. Also included are five rainfall stations either in or just outside the catchment area consisting of various types of pluviographs capable of monitoring variations in storm patterns across the catchment. Additionally two rainfall stations are located within the adjacent rural Gungahlin catchment no more than 600 metres north of the Giralang catchment border. The location of all gauges are shown on Figure 3-4.

Urbanisation of the Giralang catchment was commenced in 1974 and was completed by late 1976. Tree planting was progressively implemented from early 1976 and was virtually complete by late 1977.

Rainfall and runoff data was made available for the years 1976, 1977, 1978 and 1979 on both the Gungahlin rural and Giralang urban catchments for use in this thesis.

The sister Gungahlin rural catchment as shown on Figure 3-4 has a total area of 112 hectares and is part of the CSIRO's experimental farm. As such its paddocks are better maintained than on the average grazing property in the region, hence the catchment probably relates to the dry grass areas in the adjacent urban area more than typical rural areas.

The Gungahlin rural catchment was used principally to help isolate pervious and impervious runoff in the adjoining urban catchment and to help calibrate the water balance model parameters through rainfall/runoff simulation described in Chapter 4.

3.2.2 Mawson. The Mawson urban catchment indicated on Figure 3-3 formed the proving catchment in this thesis. It has an area of 445 hectares including 115 hectares of impervious surfaces, 320 hectares of dry grass and residential lawn area and 10 hectares of irrigated non-residential area.

The catchment's average slope is 2.5% and the general soils and grass covers appear to be reasonably similar to the Giralang catchment with the geology of the area from the Upper Silurian period made up of the Deakin volcanics.

Instrumentation on this catchment started in 1971, and entails a runoff recording station at the outlet of the catchment consisting of a stage level recorder situated in a lined open channel, a rainfall recording station also at the outlet and several daily rainfall gauges situated within the catchment.

Urbanisation of the Mawson catchment commenced in the early 1960s and was predominantly completed by 1970. Some isolated infill areas have been developed on a progressive basis up to the present, however these would account for less than 5% of the total catchment area.

3.2.3 Black Mountain Reserve. Black Mountain is situated immediately adjacent and to the west of Canberra city, see Figure 3-1, and contains approximately 500 hectares of natural forest, predominantly eucalypts. The total area has been retained as a nature reserve and is typical of a number of the higher areas covering the upper portions of catchments with highly urbanised areas on the lower slopes.

The geology of the mountain is mainly from the middle to the Upper Ordovician and is classified as the Pittmen formation Action shale member.

This generally consists of shale, mudstone, sandstone, siltstone, radiolarian cherts and some areas of black siliceous graptolitic slate.

Topsoils over the mountain are virtually non existent with mainly decomposed and broken rock combined with silty, sandy gravels mixed in the root zone for some 100 to 300 mm over more solid rock.

A thin layer of litter covers most of the surface, mainly twigs and leaves in various stages of decomposition and generally the top layers appear to be highly permeable.

3.3 Scope of Data Collection Program

From the apparent lack of published information on the general use of field based data as input to urban stormwater drainage models as well as procedural techniques it appeared that there was considerable scope to develop both measurement techniques and integration methods whereby additional field data would be used to improve runoff estimates.

Data was required in the form of spatial and temporal variations in soil moisture both short and long term; wetting front movement parameters including infiltration rates and upper soil storage capacities; depression storage; interception parameters by urban trees, shrubs, gardens and grasses; the significance of different land domains, their maintenance and connection with the overall drainage system (in particular the relationship between impervious and pervious areas) and the retardence factors affecting flow routing in typical urban catchments within the different domains.

The above lists a wide range of items requiring data acquisition, it is by no means complete, however it would represent the main parameters that could potentially affect the magnitude of runoff peaks and volumes occurring from a given rainfall event within an urban or rural area.

Due to the limited resources available, data collection in this thesis mainly concentrated on changes in soil moisture and infiltration parameters affecting pervious runoff. Additionally the effects of catchment structure and the relative importance of various land domains occurring was considered.

A number of primary data measurement stations were selected including six (6) at Giralang and two (2) on Black Mountain to provide permanently located data collection sites representative of different urban and non-urban land types.

The selection of individual sites took into consideration the soil type and its depth and structure, type of cover (dry grass, irrigated grass, gardens, residential lawns, etc), its elevation in catchment, site slope, proximity to watercourses and drainage pipes, depressions, humps and trees.

Six of the eight (8) primary stations are located as shown on Figure 3-4. At each of the stations full engineering investigations were carried out including logging and density profiling. The other two (2) station locations are shown on Figure 3-1.

Additionally, by adopting a random selection technique (dividing the total Giralang watershed into 1000 half allotment parcels), secondary temporary stations were selected to describe moisture changes within residential allotments. Twenty (20) individual allotment measurements, based on random number generation selection, were taken in any one recording session to represent an average catchment wide wetness.

Additionally, using the same random selection techniques, limited representative infiltration and soil storage data was obtained for a number of the land domains within the catchment. These were carried out employing insitu infiltrometer rings to derive soil conductivity and sorptivity values using methods described by Talsma (1969). Samples were also collected to obtain soil/water storage capacities.

Soil moisture/density readings were made using several methods including neutron scatter and gamma ray absorption techniques, conventional sampling techniques combined with oven drying methods and the installation and monitoring of thermocouples using a psychrometer.

Measurements were taken regularly over a period of approximately 10 months between July 1979 and April 1980, roughly at monthly intervals, with additional readings taken on an event basis.

Two additional runoff gauging stations were installed in the form of maximum stage boards to monitor peak pervious runoff from discrete land domains. These were located immediately upstream of Antares Crescent and at the underpass under Chuculba Crescent in Giralang. The additional stations were used to measure the significance of pervious runoff from these areas in small to moderate events.

3.4 Description of Sampling Stations

Station No 1. This station is situated just outside the Giralang study catchment adjacent to Ginninderra Creek as shown on Figure 3-4. Station 1 was chosen to reflect changes in soil moisture in a typical dry grass area with a good grass cover close to an ephemeral stream to monitor possible interflow affects in the lower portion of the catchment. See photos 3-1 and 3-2.



Photo 3-1. Giralang-Station No 1. General View.



Photo 3-2. Giralang-Station No 1. Strata Details.

Station No 2. Indicated on Figure 3-4, is situated on the edge of a formalised playing field immediately to the west of the Giralang catchment in an area encompassed by an automatic irrigation system. The site contains mainly natural soils which are considerably denser and more clayey

than the imported topsoils immediately adjacent and covering the fields themselves. See photos 3-3 and 3-4.



Photo 3-3. Giralang. Station No 2. General View.



Photo 3-4. Giralang. Station No 2. Strata Details.

This station was chosen to test the effects of irrigation on an otherwise dry grass area.

Random sampling on the adjacent playing fields was also carried out over the course of the monitoring period to compare moisture changes.

Stations Nos 3 and 4. Both stations are situated in dry grass areas in the middle portions of the catchment as shown on Figure 3-4 with Station 3 being somewhat lower than Station 4. See photos 3-5 and 3-6.



Photo 3-5. Giralang. Station No 3. General View.



Photo 3-6. Giralang. Station No 3. Strata Details.

Both station areas contain poor to fair (but typical) grass cover with significant bare areas visible at most times of the year.

Stations Nos 5 and 6. Stations 5 and 6 are typical of the top portion of the study catchment above the urban areas (see Figure 3-4) where, although some minor modifica-

tion to the land surface has occurred, it has been predominantly left in its rural form. Cover consists mainly of native grasses which in wetter weather can grow to a height in excess of 400 mm. Infrequent mowing is carried out on this portion of the catchment to minimise grass fires and vermen. See photos 3-7 , 3-8 , 3-9 and 3-10



Photo 3-7 Giralang Station No 5. General View.



Photo 3-8 Giralang Station No 5. Showing Initial Nuclear Gauging.



Photo 3-9 Giralang Station No 6. General View.



Photo 3-10 Giralang Station No 6. General View.

Station 5 is approximately on the floor of the main valley of the catchment. Considerable depths of topsoil exceeding 300 mm were common around the site.

Station 6, which is close to the top of the northeast boundary of the catchment, contains only a thin layer of topsoil with rock outcrops occurring either at or just below the surface in a number of locations adjacent to the site.

Stations Nos 7 and 8.— Stations 7 and 8 are located on the north face of Black Mountain about midway up the slope from Barry Drive and situated approximately 500 metres apart. Both represent similar, typical areas on the mountain and are included together to check for consistency in their response characteristics. Apart from a thin layer of decomposed as well as fresh litter the areas generally have poor topsoils. Because of the decomposed nature of the shallow rock however and the significant amounts of tree roots the area would appear to be quite permeable and contain significant storage capacity. The sites were chosen so as not to be adversely affected by tree canopy, yet not too exposed to reflect a non-typical area. See photos 3-11 and 3-12.



Photo 3-11 Black Mountain. Station No 8. General View.



Photo 3-12 Black Mountain. Station No 8
Detailed Surface View.

Random Sampling Stations. To expand the monitoring network to include residential lawn readings and as mentioned in the section on Station No 2, additional irrigated grass readings, it was necessary to use a random selection technique to provide representative area sampling to take into account spatial variability.

To this end the total number of residential allotments were sequentially numbered to provide nearly 1,000 half allotments for testing.

Using a random number generator, up to 20 areas were selected for any one monitoring session. At each selected area a sample was taken from or a reading made at a point as close as possible to the centre of the area described.

The playing field was similarly divided into areas from which a number of sampling points were randomly selected.

The samples from the random stations for any one land domain were accumulated and the mean value was derived by dividing by the total number of samples or readings taken.

3.5 Sampling Methods

3.5.1 Soil Moisture Profiles. The measurement of soil moisture profiles was carried out by two methods, namely by taking cores and weighing before and after oven drying and

by making direct measurements using nuclear scatter methods.

As the depth of influence, corresponding to shorter duration storms adopted in urban drainage design, is usually limited to significantly less than 300 mm it was decided to limit moisture profile measurements to this level. This decision was also based on the measurement techniques proposed and described below. It was realised that monitoring of a deeper profile could assist in overall water balance analysis as described in Section 3.6.1.

Additionally, special interest was taken to accurately define the profile over the top 100 mm as in most cases this depth would be expected to control storm infiltration response.

The pervious land domains for which soil moisture measurements were undertaken consisted of residential lawns, reconstituted dry grass areas, natural dry grass areas, irrigated grass areas and natural forest.

A brief description of the measurement techniques adopted is given below to familiarise the reader with the equipment used.

(i) Conventional Oven Drying - Soil Moisture Measurements.

Using a spoon tube soil sampler with a 15.0 mm internal diameter, soil cores were extracted and divided into the following sectional lengths: surface to 25 mm, 25 to 50 mm, 50 to 100 mm and where appropriate 100 to 200 mm.

The sectioned core samples were directly placed into separately labelled containers with screw top lids. When a sufficient number of samples had been collected to provide a representative sample set, the containers were weighed. Conventional oven drying and reweighing of the samples in the containers was then carried out and the following information calculated:

		Units	
Moisture Content	$Wwt = Ww/Ws \times 100$	%	(3-1)
Wet Density	$Dwet = Wt/Vt$	g/mm^3	(3-2)
Dry Density	$Ddry = Ws/Vt$	g/mm^3	(3-3)
Equiv. Water Level	$= (Wwx4000)/(LxD^2 \times N)$	mm	(3-4)

where:

All weights in grams (g)
 All volumes in millimetres cubed (mm^3)

(ii) Nuclear Soil Moisture and Density Measurements. Soil moisture profiles were obtained using nuclear techniques with a Troxler Model 3411B Surface Moisture/Density Meter. Initially nuclear measurements were, where possible, sup-

plemented by conventional moisture measurements via oven drying of collected samples. Additionally, sand replacement densities were taken to help verify gamma ray wet density readings.

The instrument in operation is shown in Photograph 3-7 and diagrammatically in Figure 3-5.

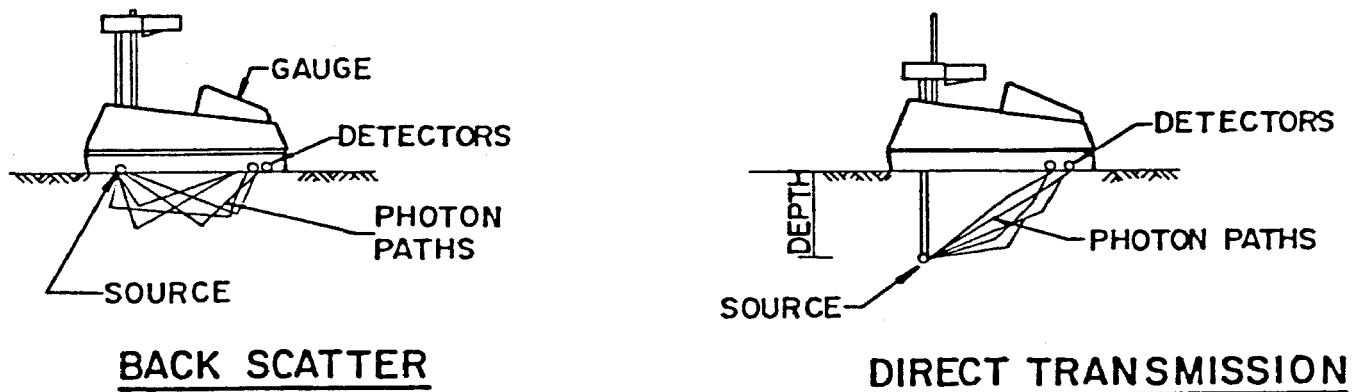


Figure 3-5 Troxler Surface Moisture/Density Meter

As indicated above the instrument can be used in both backscatter or direct transmission mode. In the latter mode, density readings only were possible.

The instrument contains both a gamma and neutron source to measure density and moisture content respectively.

The position of the sources is shown above with the gamma source at the lower extremity of the probe and the neutron sources at the base of the main body of the instrument.

(a) Neutron Approach. Soil moisture content could, unfortunately, only be measured in the backscatter mode as the instrument is only calibrated to the source/detector geometry in that position. In the direct transmission mode (with the probe lowered to a set depth) moisture readings although displayed referred to repeated backscatter scans only.

Soil moisture content is deduced by counting the number of thermal or slow neutrons detected after fast neutrons collide with hydrogen atoms in the material. This number is then compared with a reference number in the instrument's memory deduced from a calibration block supplied with the instrument which has a known moisture

content and density.

The moisture content displayed is expressed as a percentage representing the average water content over the depth of influence. Unfortunately this depth is variable and dependent on the moisture content itself. The following relationship is cited in the manual for the instrument operating in the backscatter mode:

$$\text{Depth of influence}^* \text{ (cm)} = 28-27 \text{ Dwet} \quad (3-5)$$

* source Troxler operating manual.

where:

$$\text{Dwet} = \text{Moisture content (g/cm}^3\text{)}$$

Depth refers to depth over which reading averaged

When trying to relate changes in the near surface moisture profile, specifically between 0 and 300 mm, this situation was far from satisfactory as variations in the profile were undetectable. It would appear at this stage that for the purposes of this thesis a better profile definition measuring technique employing the instrument was needed if it was to be used to gather meaningful data.

The backscatter reading however could be useful as a rapid index measurement. Unfortunately this possibility has not been developed in this thesis mainly through lack of time. It may have been possible, through regression analysis, to link this index with the overall moisture/runoff response based on the sensitivity of results obtained in the analysis section of this thesis described in Chapter 4. It would appear that there is considerable scope to develop this form of rapid surface measuring technique because of its inherent repeatability characteristics over conventional extraction techniques.

(b) Gamma Ray Approach. An alternative method was developed using the same instrument to obtain soil moisture content over incremental depths up to 300 mm adopting the direct transmission mode to indirectly deduce soil moisture via density measurements. On the assumption that dry density was relatively constant within the increment it was only necessary to either measure soil moisture once by conventional means to obtain by deduction a dry density profile for the site or take readings over extended dry periods to obtain dry density when moisture content was near zero. Subsequent moisture readings were then taken by measuring wet density and relating this to the station dry density profile. Within the measuring period there were significant dry periods where soil moisture was very low. hence in the majority of cases it was possible to deduce from these dry density profiles.

Alternatively, conventional samples were extracted using a soil core sampler with an external diameter equal

to the solid drill supplied with the Troxler. The collected core was divided into 50 mm increments between 0 and 300 mm and conventional oven dried moisture content obtained. The tube sampler had the added advantage of minimising density effects within the area surrounding the probe hole. The same hole was subsequently used to take the nuclear meter's gamma source probe.

From the readings taken the following results were deduced:

	Units	
Wet Density - direct reading	g/cm^3	(3-6)
Dry Density - direct reading	g/cm^3	(3-7)
Moisture Content - $\text{Wvol} = \frac{(\text{Dwet} - \text{Ddry})}{\text{Ddry}} \times 100$	%	(3-8)

As can be seen from the above list, nuclear based moisture content measurements are given in volumetric units, whereas oven dry values are expressed as a percent of dry weight.

The different modes of expressing moisture content adopted by the two methods presented some difficulties when comparisons were required however, provided wet density was obtainable the following expression allowed one to be converted to the other:

$$\text{Wvol} = (\text{Wwt}\% \times \text{Dwet}) / (\text{Wwt}\% + 100) \quad (3-9)$$

A number of comparison runs, using the nuclear techniques described above were carried out to test the applicability of the method, against conventional oven dried moisture measurements, as a suitable rapid non destructive method for determining moisture data. The results from a series of comparative readings using conventional and nuclear methods are shown on Figure 3-6.

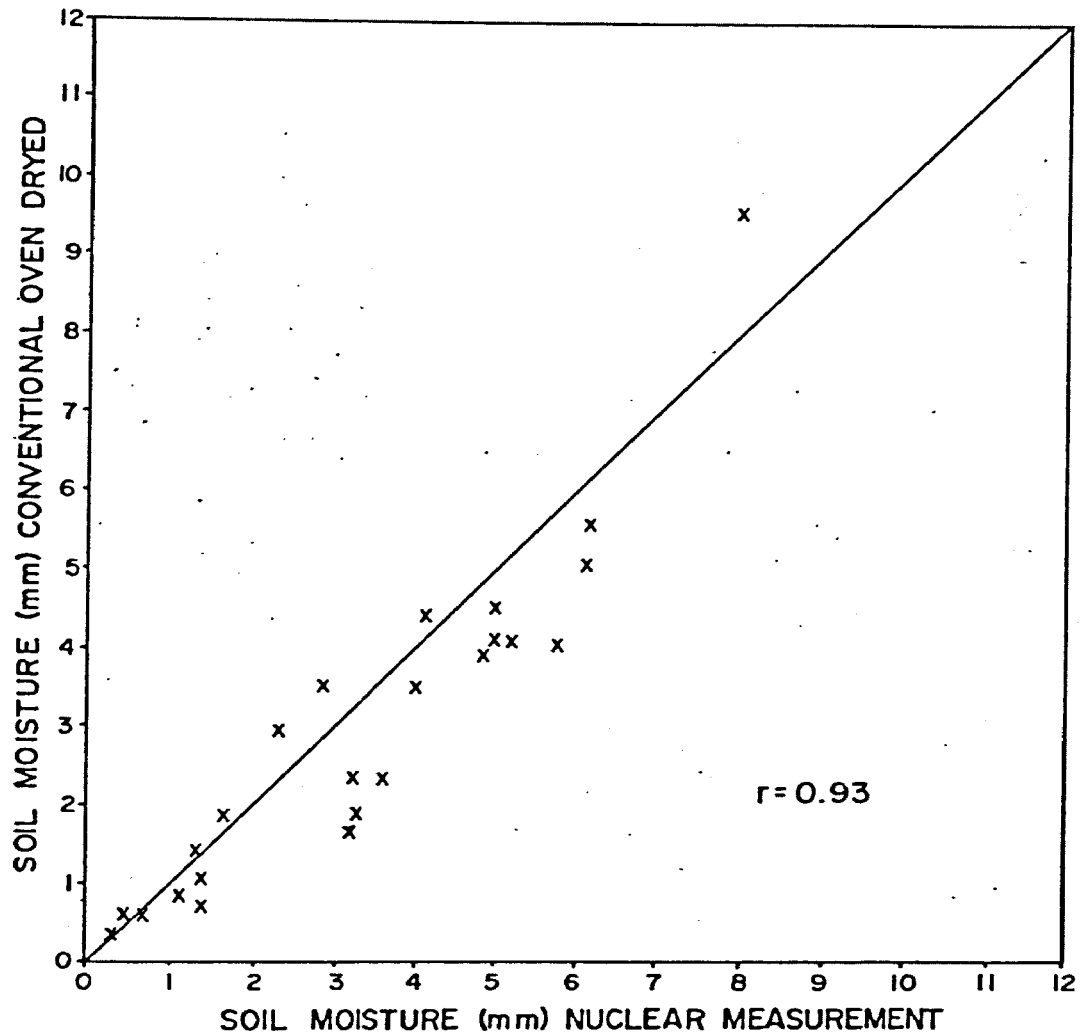


FIGURE 3-6 Scatter Diagram Comparing Nuclear and Conventional Soil Moisture Readings

(iii) Psychrometer - Thermocouples Moisture Measurements.

As an additional method to measure long term fluctuations in moisture content over shallow soil profiles, thermocouples were installed at defined incremental depths at each of the six permanent stations at Giralang. These were to be monitored using a portable psychrometer.

It was intended that this technique would also monitor any hysteresis effects in long term wetting and drying cycles of the soils as well as soil moisture changes deeper than 300 mm.

It was also intended to assess and comment on the general suitability of this type of apparatus.

Two thermocouples were placed at each of Stations 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 at depths of 150 and 300 mm and five at Station 2 at depths ranging down to 500 mm.

Typical installation of these units is shown on Photographs 3-13 and 3-14 at Station No. 1.



Photo 3-13 Installation of Thermocouples - Station No 1



Photo 3-14 Completed Installation of Thermocouples
Station No 1

Core samples were taken from as close as possible to the thermocouples and taken to the laboratory to obtain reference soil moisture/soil suction (pF) relationships for

both wetting and drying cycles. pF readings from the psychrometer field measurements were then to be related to laboratory reference graphs to obtain representative soil moisture values.

3.5.2 Infiltration Parameters.

(a) Sorptivity. In this thesis the main theoretical infiltration algorithms adopted in Chapter 4 were based on the work carried out by Philip (1957) when he showed that cumulative absorption or desorption into or out of a horizontal column of soil of uniform properties and initial moisture content was proportional to the square root of time. Philip also showed that for shorter times of (t), vertical one - dimensional infiltration could be described by a rapidly converging power series in $t^{1/2}$. The coefficient of the leading term of the series (bracketed below) was termed sorptivity. Talsma (1969) proposed methods of measuring sorptivity in the field on undisturbed soil, for subsequent use in analytical applications.

$$i = (S)t^{1/2} + At + Bt^{3/2} \dots \quad (3-10)$$

where:

i = cumulative infiltration (cm)

t = time (min)

S = sorptivity ($\text{cm}/\text{min}^{1/2}$)

A, B, are parameters of the second and third terms ($\text{cm}/\text{min}^1, \text{cm}/\text{min}^{3/2}$).

Philip (1957) and again Talsma (1969) pointed out that sorptivity depended on initial moisture content and on the depth of water over the soil. Talsma varied these parameters in a series of field based experiments to test their effect on sorptivity values. Measurements of sorptivity were made by Talsma on large samples enclosed with 300 mm diameter, 150 mm high, infiltrometer rings pushed 100 mm into the soil.

Water was rapidly ponded in the rings to a depth of about 30 mm and the subsequent drop in water level was noted at regular time increments of 10 to 15 seconds after ponding.

Sorptivities were calculated from the linear portions of initial inflow against the square root of time. Samples of soil for initial and final moisture content were taken close to and inside the rings.

Based on the work by Talsma (1969) the method relied on the reasonable assumptions (a) that during the short time of measurement (1-2 minutes) water flow would remain vertical within the ring infiltrometer, and (b) that the first term of the infiltration equation (Philip, 1957) accounted for nearly all of the flow.

The first condition was found, within the accuracies of experimental technique, to be easily verified, however the second depended on the magnitude of A_s relative to S . Talsma found that plots of i against $t^{1/2}$ remained essentially linear at least to 1 minute and showed that for the wide range of different textured and structured soils studied the drop in head during the measuring process was not significant. He concluded that the accuracy of the ring infiltrometer method of measuring S insitu was quite acceptable even in soils with high saturated hydraulic conductivity relative to sorptivity. He also concluded that neither the diameter nor shape of the ring affected the results.

In the work carried out on the Giralang catchment perspex rings were used where possible in preference to steel ones to provide a visual check on the wall/soil interface as well as allowing direct head drop measurements through the wall.

Sorptivities were measured at a number of random sites over the Giralang catchment to add data to the work of Talsma in the Canberra region.

(b) Hydraulic Conductivity. Hydraulic conductivity, a measurement of the ability of a section of soil profile to conduct water, is reflected in the second term in the infiltration equation by Philip (1957) $i = St^{1/2} + At \dots$

Talsma (1969) showed that for a wide range of soils, A could be expressed as follows:

$$A = K_0/2.8 \quad (3-11)$$

where K_0 equaled the saturated hydraulic conductivity.

K_0 therefore is the ability of a soil profile to transmit water when the soil is fully saturated. K_0 is therefore only a special case of general hydraulic conductivity.

To apply Philip's infiltration equation it was therefore necessary to obtain measurements of K_0 as well as sorptivity for each of the land domains.

Subsequent to reviewing the above equations 3-10 and 3-11, a modified equation eliminating the need for equation 3-11 was cited in a paper by Chong and Green (1979).

In this publication work was described by Talsma and Parlange (1972) and Parlange (1971,1975,1977) where the following equations were developed:

$$X = Y - 1 + \exp(-X) \quad (3-12)$$

where X and Y were related to time, t , and accumulative infiltration, i , by the series expansion of equation 3-10 and

the substitution of equation 3-13 and 3-14 in the result, with rearrangement and truncation after the $t^{3/2}$ term.

where:

$$X = 2 \times K_o^2 \times t/S^2 \quad (3-13)$$

and:

$$Y = 2 \times K_o \times I/S^2 \quad (3-14)$$

The new equation termed the "Talsma-Parlange Equation" was therefore shown as follows:

$$i = St^{1/2} + (1/3 \times K_o) + (1/9 \times K_o^2/S \times t^{3/2}) \quad (3-15)$$

in which i was the cumulative infiltration, S the sorptivity at a specified antecedent soil moisture content, and K_o the hydraulic conductivity at water saturation.

Equation 3-15 was subsequently adopted in place of equations 3-10 and 3-11.

The method of measurement adopted for K_o followed a similar procedure to measuring sorptivity, only on this occasion the undisturbed core sample held by the infiltrometer ring was removed from the surrounding soil and placed on a wire grid raised above ground level. A 100 cm length of core was adopted for all K_o and S measurements.

In this way zero moisture potential at the base of the core was assured. Water was then ponded on top of the soil until a steady outflow was observed. This flow was then measured at constant head and the saturated hydraulic conductivity calculated as follows:

$$K_o = Q_w \times L / (H \times A_c \times t) \quad (3-16)$$

where:

- K_o = Saturated hydraulic conductivity (cm/min)
- Q_w = volume of water discharged in time t (cm^3)
- t = time (min)
- L = length of soil core (cm)
- H = hydraulic head
- = dist. from base of core to pondage surface (cm)
- A_c = cross-sectional area of core (cm^2)

(c) Storage Capacity. The same samples used for the determination of saturated hydraulic conductivity were used to measure water storage capacity in the depth of sample.

To achieve this the sample was first weighed then oven dried and reweighed to deduce moisture content.

In both the hydraulic conductivity and storage capacity sampling procedure two rings were used, one to obtain the sample and an additional ring containing an imported sample to reinstate the sampling area.

Upper Soil Storage Capacity (USC), defined below, was an important parameter in the infiltration process using the Australian Representative Basins Model (ARBM) described in Chapter 4 to relate sorptivities of varying initial moisture contents. The following relationship was given by Black and Aitken (1977):

$$S = S_0 \times (1 - US(\text{init})/USC) \quad (3-17)$$

where:

S = sorptivity
S₀ = sorptivity at zero moisture content
US(init) = initial moist. content in upper soil store (mm)
USC = maximum moist. content of upper soil store (mm)

3.6 Results from Gauging Program

3.6.1 Long Term Soil Moisture Fluctuations. Soil moisture monitoring via both nuclear and conventional means on an event basis was carried out at the stations shown on Figure 3-4 on the Giralang catchment as well as Black Mountain.

Figure 3-7 shows in graphical form a summary of the results from this work.

It would appear that the Troxler neutron-gamma probe was a particularly suitable device for carrying out the type of rapid repeat measurements necessary for this type of analysis.

The measurement tolerances of the Troxler were specified by the manufacturers at ± 2 to 4 percent of absolute values.

In carrying out repetitive measurements at the same location with the probe left in position between measurements, both moisture and wet density readings remained fairly constant with a typical standard deviation from the mean, expressed as a coefficient of variation of .20.

As for the absolute accuracy of soil moisture readings, Figure 3-6 shows the scatter of conventional oven dried samples compared with the values deduced from the Troxler probe. As can be seen from the figure the correlation is fair with a correlation coefficient $r = 0.93$. There appeared to be a general tendency for the Troxler to predict values on the high side of those deduced using conventional oven drying methods.

Based on an upper soil moisture saturation level of 12.5 mm, being roughly the top 25 mm of the soil profile, up to a 2 mm error in soil moisture at the start of a storm event would not unduly effect the resulting runoff peak using the procedures described in Chapter 4. Based on computer runs this difference would account for less than a 5% change in peak.

As a 2 mm error in reading would account for a 16% tolerance in field estimation it is contended that the Troxler would be most valuable in providing long term data for model calibration. From Figure 3-7 it is shown that the differences in soil moisture between stations of similar description presents a far more challenging problem to contend with.

Serious problems were encountered with the thermocouple-psychrometer techniques and as a consequence no reliable readings were forthcoming during the period of this thesis.

The main problems tended to be with the thermocouples themselves including their fragility and problems involved in obtaining a satisfactory contact between the soil and the porous thermocouple. Unfortunately the resources available for this thesis precluded detailed study into improving the thermocouple technique. Considerable scope does however exist for continued work in this field as the use of these instruments in conjunction with soil moisture readings was seen to offer definite advantages in estimating the distribution of soil moisture going to evapotranspiration and groundwater respectively.

Vachaud et al (1973) and Kovacs (1979 and 1981), proposed to simultaneously measure, over the soil profile, both soil tension and soil moisture (see Figure 3-8).

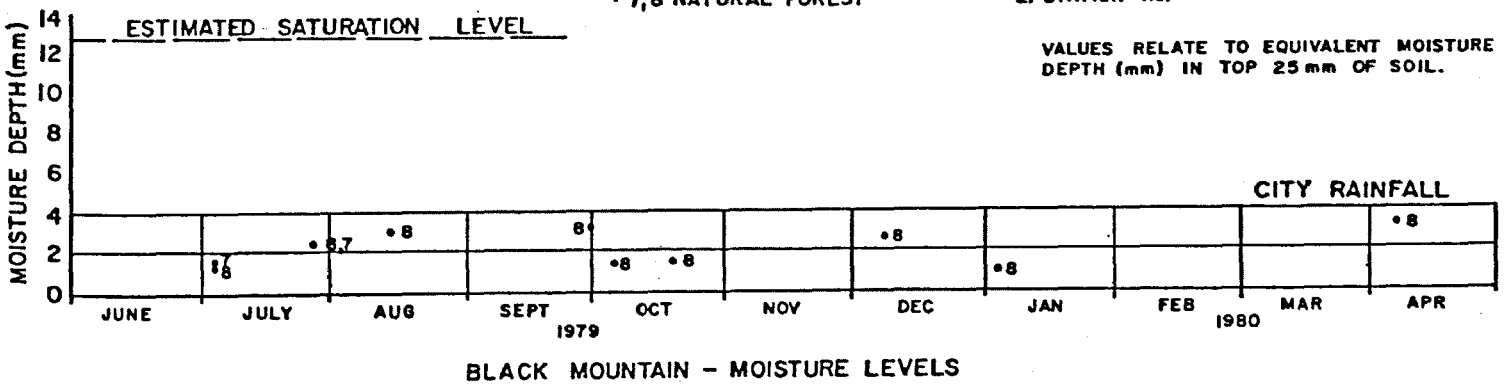
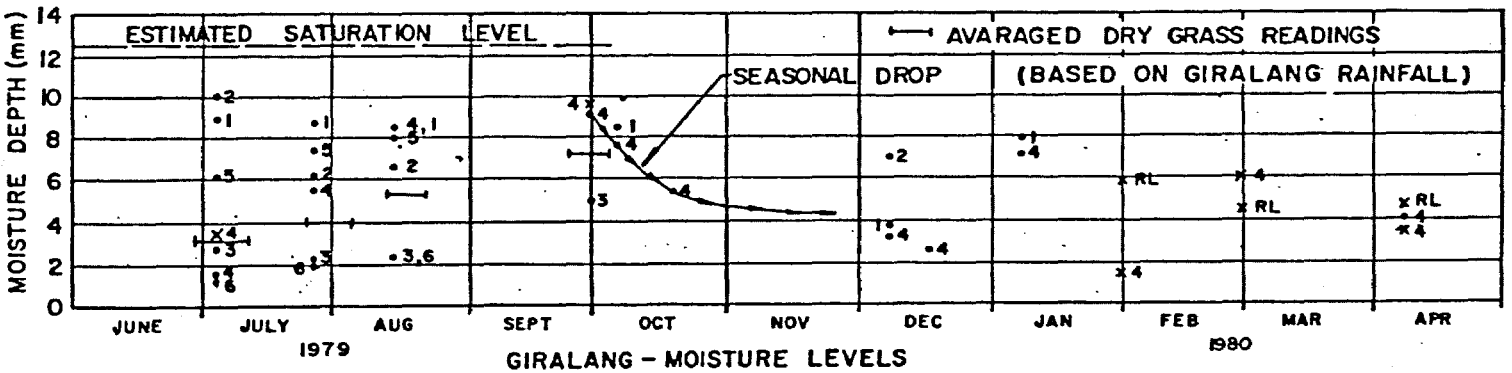
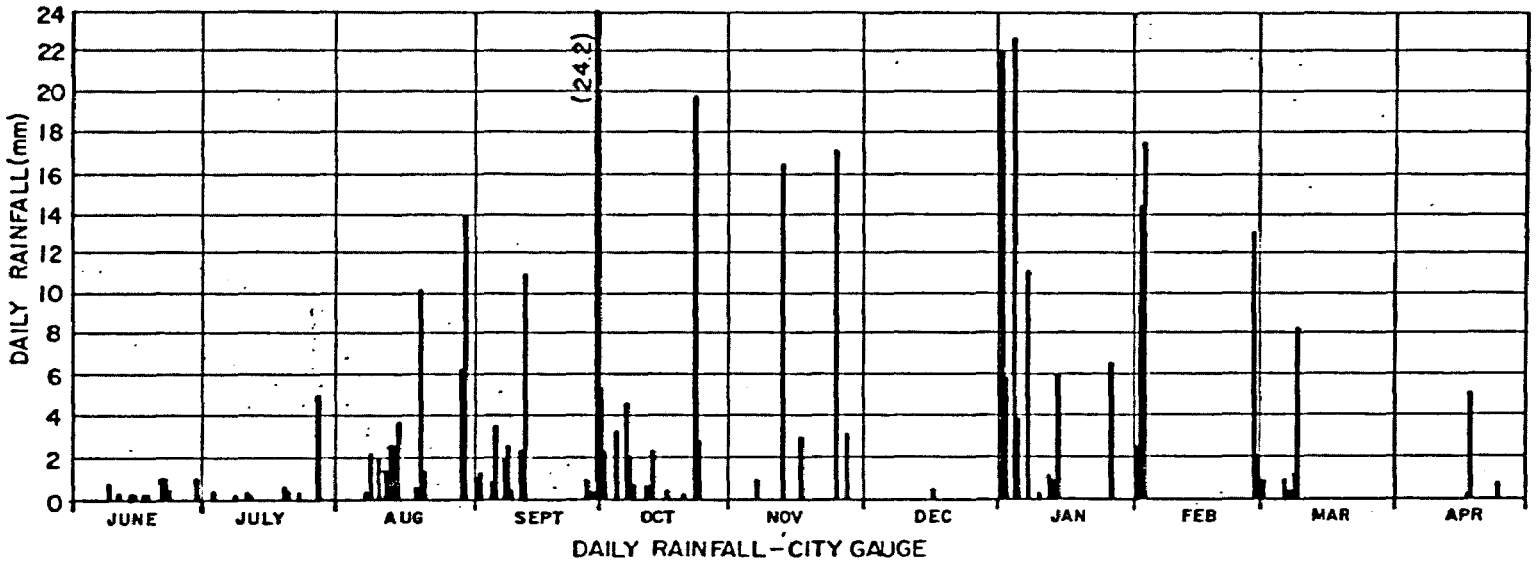
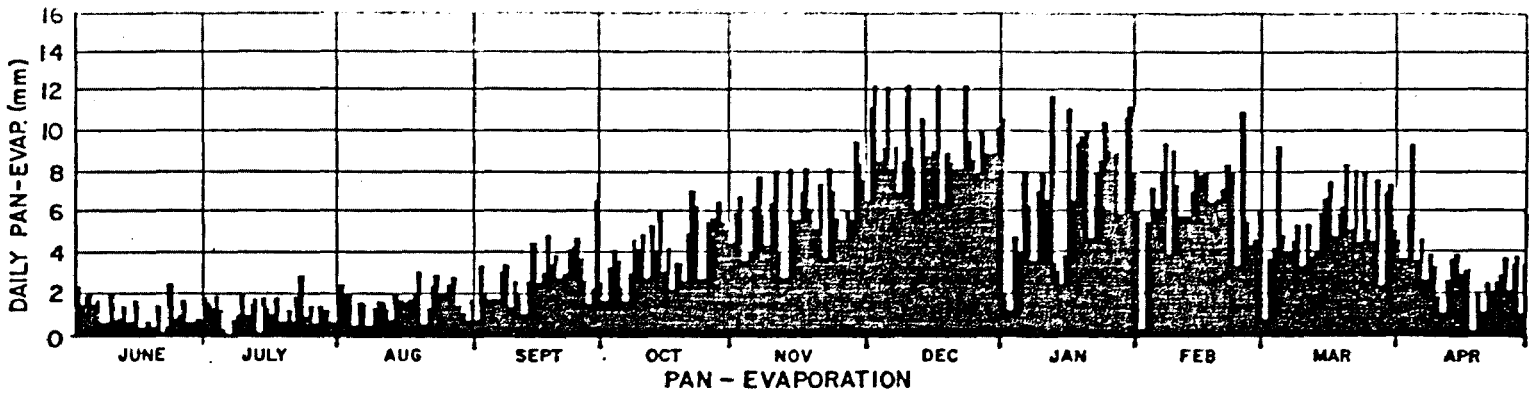
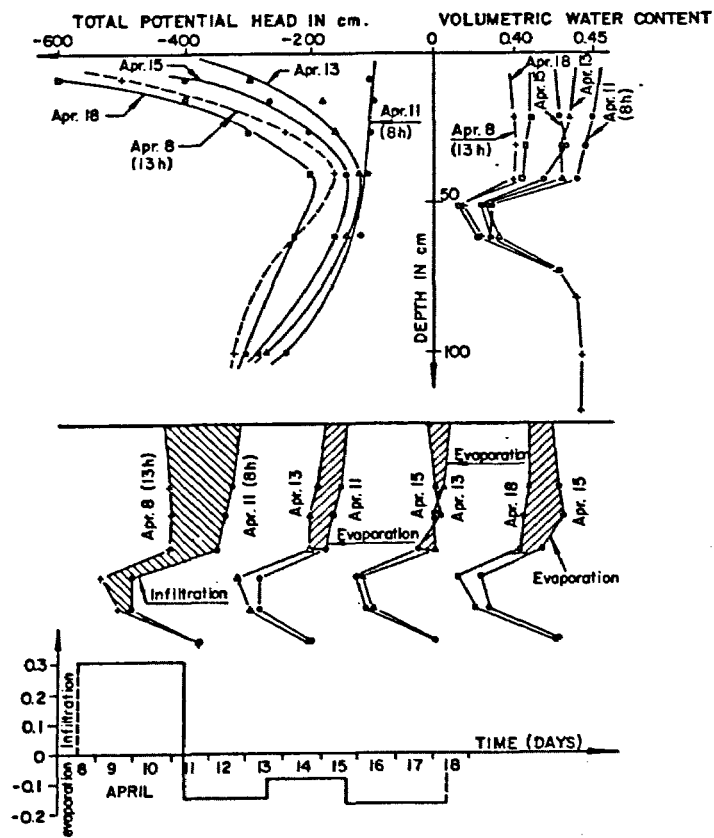
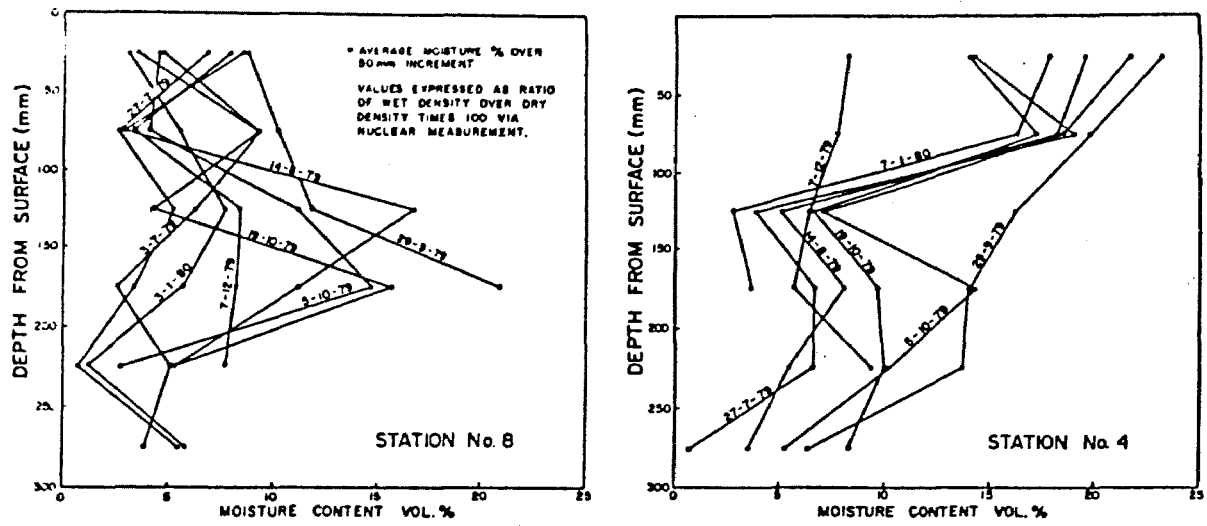


FIGURE 3-7 Shallow Soil Moisture Readings During the 1979,80 Period



CALCULATION OF EVAPOTRANSPIRATION BY COMBINING THE MEASURED VALUES OF TENSION AND WATER CONTENT. (SOURCE, VACHAUD ET AL 1973)

FIGURE 3-8 Profile Summaries

The installation of the thermocouples at Giralang was aimed at establishing such a procedure, however, because of the lack of reliable readings this has not been possible.

Kovacs (1981) described how, by recording the tension values along a profile, the vertical distribution of total potential could be easily constructed (see Figure 3-8). The potential versus the depth curve has a maximum point, (the vertical gradient is zero); ie, flow does not develop through this horizontal section. As the gradient is directed upwards above this depth one can measure the water drained by evapotranspiration.

The profile below this critical depth allows the estimation of the water transported into the gravitational groundwater space.

Provided the thermocouple techniques could be made to work satisfactorily the above method of interpreting soil moisture movement between successive readings could help in further narrowing the gap between physical measurements and the various conceptual components of typical rainfall/runoff models.

Results from the nuclear gauging plus the conventional monitoring, however did give some results that could help in assessing profile - depth development for use in assigning upper soil, lower soil and groundwater moisture movements. See Figure 3-8.

A brief review of the soil moisture readings taken and general observation during storm events at Giralang and Black Mountain indicated some interesting (if not unexpected) results:

- . Over the period between June 1979 and April 1980 no significant runoff from the pervious area was observed.
- . Large variations in upper soil water content, over extended periods, were observed between the stations being monitored pointing to the need for characterising the different land domains being monitored in respect to potential infiltration magnitudes. The differences, between Black Mountain stations(7, 8) and the unirrigated stations (3, 4, 5, 6) at Giralang, as well as the irrigated playing field station (2) and residential lawns (RL) are clearly shown on Figure 3-7.
- . The majority of observed rainfall events produced moisture penetration, into the unirrigated areas, of only a few centimetres.
- . The recession of soil moisture, after a rainfall event, in the upper 300 mm was fairly rapid even

during the winter period.

This fact can be seen in Figure 3-7 (Station 4) taking for example the 35 mm rainfall event in late September 1979. An apparent seasonal moisture equilibrium was reached in only 20 days after that event, even with intervening lesser rainfalls in that period. In that period the rapid increase in evapotranspiration typical of the commencement of Spring/Summer had an overriding effect on the upper soil store.

- . There was a very rapid decrease in dry grass soil moisture over the top 30 cm after November 1979 in line with the higher temperatures and stronger winds.
- . Figure 3-7, showing the results from the ten months monitoring program, indicates the typical variations in soil moisture at a point in time at the different locations measured. The measurements are representative of approximately the top 25 mm of the soil profile and as such are very sensitive to the amount of grass cover and drainage available.

Throughout this thesis the upper soil store has been considered as the thin band of the soil profile forming the root zone. For the type of grass found in Canberra this is limited to approximately the first 25 to 50 mm. The typical clay soils found in Canberra have soil saturation capacities of approximately 50% by volume. Based on the aim of this thesis to be able to estimate flood peaks resulting from short storm durations, it was decided at this stage to fix the upper soil storage at 12.5 mm. In this manner a relatively fixed 25 mm band was adopted as the physical upper soil profile. This was further based on the observed shallow penetration of short burst storm water as stated above.

As can be seen the dry grass readings (Station Nos 3, 4, 5 and 6), particularly in the Winter months, vary significantly.

The irrigated playing field (Station No. 2) was predominantly wetter than the dry grass stations although on two occasions at least one of the dry grass stations was wetter. Station No. 1 adjacent to the Giralang Creek was consistently wetter than all the other dry grass stations.

The random residential lawn samples were consistently above the representative dry grass Station No. 4 although the difference was not as great as would have been expected based on observation of individual lawns.

Station Nos 7 and 8 representing the forest area on Black Mountain consistently showed very low soil moisture readings.

The differences in moisture levels between, in particular, the dry grass stations appeared to be at least partly due to the difference in grass cover at the various locations. This did not however account for all the differences and these require a lot more work to further quantify the differences.

The results from the short measurement program carried out confirmed the need for assessing factors such as land type, cover and surface maintenance on the production of runoff from pervious portions of urban catchments. Chapter 4 studies the absolute effects of various domain changes and consequential differences in soil moisture, by modelling the effects of the changes on the flood peak and volume results.

- . The difference in soil moisture profiles at any one time, between individual land units was most marked between Black Mountain readings and irrigated grassed areas as would be expected. The difference between residential lawn areas and dry grass areas was significant, however this was not as much as expected when the random selection of residential sites was considered. Individual variations in residential lawn areas caused by lawn watering was greatly offset by the overall averaged affect caused by the significant number of poorly watered sites within the catchment as a whole.
- . Because of the lack of apparent runoff from pervious areas in Canberra, it is considered that the measurements described in this chapter are particularly relevant in obtaining additional rainfall/runoff response data over and above total catchment outlet rainfall/runoff data. Gauged catchment outlet flow data provide the accumulated flows from both pervious and impervious areas. In most cases in semi-arid areas, such as Canberra, this only includes impervious runoff. Any model parameter calibration using only total catchment rainfall/runoff data could be in serious error when analyses are extrapolated to more significant events where pervious runoff may be significant. The problems of non-homogeneity of urban runoff, because of pervious and impervious areas, is dealt with in Chapter 4. It would appear that the majority of present catchment outlet gauged data in urban areas gives little, if any, information on the mechanisms and responses from pervious areas. The paired catchment at Giralang and Gungahlin respectively representing similar urban and rural catchments seemed to partially overcome this prob-

lem by allowing correlation between the adjoining pervious areas.

3.6.2 Sorptivity and Hydraulic Conductivity. Table 3-1 lists averaged sorptivity and saturated hydraulic conductivity values for the typical land domains studied. The values relate approximately to the top 100 mm of soil profile. Because of lack of time and resources it was not possible to carry out extensive measurements on all the domains. Some measurements, however, were taken on residential lawns and dry grass areas. Other data was abstracted from Talsma's results. This was deemed appropriate as those measurements were representative of the region under study.

Table 3-1
Average Sorptivity and Hydraulic Conductivities

Land Domain	Hydraulic Conductivity K _o (cm/min)	Moist Cont (by wt)		Sorptivity (cm/min ^{1/2})
		Initial %/100	Final %/100	
Residential Lawns, Giralang	0.140(.40)[10]	0.22	0.37	1.4(.50)[10] ^{**} ^{***}
Urban Dry Grass Area Medium Grass Cover, Giralang	0.200(.30)[12]	0.15	0.40	.45(.40)[12]
Pialligo Sand*				
Dry	0.424(.13)	0.04	0.40	3.08(.12)
Moist		0.11	0.40	2.16(.9)
Wet		0.20	0.40	1.04(.28)
Ginnindera Silty Clay Loam*	0.184(.29)	0.11	0.46	0.90(.28)
Ginnindera Clay Loam*	0.120(.55)	0.04	0.38	0.45(.18)

* Values taken from Table 1, Talsma (1969).

** Figures in brackets are standard deviations from the means expressed as coefficients of variation.

*** Number of samples shown in square brackets.

3.7 Discussion on Results

Substantial differences were found in the results obtained from the relatively simple data collection program over the Giralang study catchment as well as limited work in the forested area on Black Mountain.

The differences in long term fluctuations in soil moisture occurring in the upper soil profile for the different land domains indicated in a quantitative way one of the most significant factors affecting the production of runoff, that was point variations in moisture content at any point in time.

The combined effects of variations in prevailing moisture content shown in Figure 3-7 and the variations in infiltration parameters indicated in Table 3-1 indicate the probable reasons for the experienced differences in runoff produced from different pervious urban land domains.

The effects of residential lawn planting, watering and topsoil development can significantly increase sorptivity and possibly hydraulic conductivity values to a smaller degree over and above average dry grass areas (See Table 3-1). The results for sorptivity measured on the residential lawns compared with the dry grass areas indicated a statistical difference at the 0.01% level. Saturated hydraulic conductivity values between the two domains were not found to be statistically different at the 0.10% of level. Additionally, persistent soil moisture can be higher than for dry grass areas. Similarly irrigated areas have high persistent moisture profiles combined with high sorptivity and hydraulic conductivity. The actual magnitude of potential infiltration is dependent on the total effects of the three parameters measured (Moisture Content, Sorptivity, Hydraulic Conductivity). The sensitivity of the individual parameters is treated in Chapter 4.

The gauging program described in this Chapter must be described as a feasibility program rather than a rigidly controlled field data collection program.

Over the limited time that the program was carried out it was only possible to carry out preliminary assessments on the various measurement techniques described to indicate if, individually, they showed promise to be included in future analysis and design situations.

The general results from the program were most encouraging and provided valuable model calibration aids for the methods described in Chapter 4. There is, however, considerable work still to be carried out in the further development of the methods described as well as additional techniques still to be found.

The following Chapter considers how the data collected as part of this Chapter can be best utilized in rainfall/runoff modelling techniques. Existing models are discussed and new modelling techniques developed.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL RAINFALL/RUNOFF MODEL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Discussion on Current Techniques

The general objective of this chapter was to establish improved analytical methods for deterministic rainfall/runoff modelling in a design environment.

To date methods employed to estimate design runoff events have largely been dependent on empirical parameters for which physical correlation has often been difficult. Probably the best known and widely used analytical design tool for estimating runoff peaks in Australia has been the Rational Formula. This method first attributed to Mulvaney in 1850 is a very simplistic model requiring the estimation of only two parameters. These are a runoff coefficient "C" and a time of concentration.

The "C" value has been very difficult to define with any degree of certainty. Unfortunately embedded in the parameter "C" are all the factors determining the ratio between rainfall and runoff rates. These include catchment wetness, infiltration parameters, the effects of non-uniform rainfall and catchment routing characteristics to name a few.

Over a number of years the Rational Method, as a deterministic model, has come under heavy criticism by many researchers and users, most notably French et al (1974), Watkins (1962), Aitken (1975) and Schaake et al (1967), for its poor general performance.

Despite the present uncertainties in parameter estimates the Rational Method still attracts widespread use and is by far the predominant method used by Australian practising engineers to estimate both urban and rural flow peaks for the sizing of drainage structures. Its general acceptance is further encouraged by the fact that the method is currently recommended in the Institution of Engineers publication 'Australian Rainfall and Runoff - Flood Analysis and Design' (ARR 1977)² for the sizing of structures with catchments up to 25 km².

The main difference however between the Rational Method recommended (ARR 1977) over the deterministic form discussed above is that it is expressed in its statistical form. Design runoff peaks of a defined frequency are calculated from the same frequency rainfall intensity appropriate to a storm duration equal to the catchment time of concentration. Intensities are usually selected from

intensity duration frequency curves derived for a particular region.

There are strong grounds for the use of the rational formula for day to day urban drainage design work as its simplicity and ease of application allows very rapid estimates of design runoff peaks of designated return periods provided appropriate times of concentration and coefficient of runoff can be estimated.

Urban drainage design work is usually split into two levels; the first relating to the design of minor systems usually pipelines and smaller channels while the second usually refers to larger systems where catchment storage, both natural and artificial, needs to be taken into account as well as the need to assess separate subarea contributions resulting from significantly different subcatchment make up and size.

The latter type usually demands the estimation and manipulation of runoff hydrographs throughout the watershed.

One of the objectives of this thesis was to develop methods whereby both levels of drainage analyses could be improved.

Aitken (1975) described in detail a procedure to estimate runoff coefficients for the rational formula using rainfall and runoff frequency distributions for a particular catchment. In Schaake's et al (1967) work on urban catchments they used similar frequency analysis of rainfall and runoff records to estimate "C" values. They then related "C" values using regression analysis with the impervious area and catchment slope as the independent variables.

Aitken (1975), when applying Schaake's regression equation on several catchments in Melbourne, found that the values, when compared to those from a frequency analysis were considerably higher. Aitken observed that Schaake's formula did not contain either a rainfall intensity or a soil type variable, and stated that in his opinion it would be unwise to use it in areas where pervious runoff frequently occurred.

Aitken concluded that the problem of obtaining reasonable lengths of runoff records to base runoff coefficient estimation could be overcome by the application of catchment simulation models of the rainfall/runoff process. He stated that the model would need to be verified over a short period of record, say 2 to 3 years, then a longer period could be synthetically produced using available rainfall and evaporation data as input to the model. This longer period could then be used as the basis for frequency studies.

The procedures described above have been taken up in this thesis to deduce rational formula runoff coefficients for use in the more minor flow peak analysis based on the development of frequency curves described later in this chapter.

In recent years a number of more complex deterministic design orientated rainfall/runoff models have been developed in an attempt to better quantify the imbedded factors included in the rational formula runoff coefficient.

Two models widely applied in Australia are 'RORB' developed by Laurenson & Mein (1978) and the 'RSWM' - 'Regional Stormwater Drainage Model' - developed by Goyen & Aitken (1976) briefly described in Chapter 2. Both models employ catchment routing techniques, channel routing and allow for variations in rainfall loss rates, catchment storage parameters and storm patterns over the catchment to allow complete watershed analysis.

A non linear catchment storage runoff routing model (LRRM) developed by Laureson (1964) has been adopted in both the RSWM and RORB. The LRRM was developed for use on rural catchments and as such was modified by Aitken (1975) to include its application on urban and urbanising catchments. In Aitken's work the storage delay coefficient operating within different catchments was related to catchment characteristics including area, main channel, slope and urbanisation content using regression analysis.

Since the inception of the RSWM in late 1974 significant work has been carried out and is continuing to further refine appropriate storage delay coefficients appropriate for the LRRM based on measurable or estimated catchment parameters. Although this development phase of the total catchment modelling process is far from exhausted it has been the aim of this current thesis to concentrate predominantly on the estimation of excess rainfall and with particular reference to design events rather than catchment routing.

The estimation of excess rainfall is made difficult because of the fact that in most day to day design exercises using deterministic models a design storm approach is employed rather than historical events. Appropriate design losses in this instance have to be compatible on a statistical basis with that of the design rainfall. This necessarily has to take into account the factors affecting the chance of certain rainfall events occurring with varying loss rates to produce catchment runoff. One of the main factors affecting this is the uncertainty of catchment wetness prior to a design event due to the short as well as longer term time-dependent fluctuations in catchment wetness.

It was at the relationships between catchment wetness, design rainfalls and the deterministic processes involved

in loss rate estimation that the model development described in Chapter 4.2 was directed.

4.2 Development of a Combined Stochastic-Deterministic Rainfall/Runoff Model

4.2.1 General. In the development of suitable analytical tools capable of responding to the parameters affecting the conversion of rainfall to runoff it was first necessary to define the scope of the processes occurring and the parameters likely to be significant.

The current work was aimed at design procedures for both rural and urban catchments and consequently analytical tools would need to respond to the various land domains and their corresponding parameters existing in an urban as well as rural environment. Such domains would necessarily include residential lawns, dry grass areas, irrigated grassed areas, natural forested fringe areas and impervious areas as well as adjacent rural catchments.

The following is a brief description of the methods used at present to estimate excess rainfall with deterministic rainfall/runoff models, based on the RSWM as a typical model.

The RSWM accepts either an estimated initial plus continuing loss rate or infiltration parameters and an estimated prestorm catchment wetness in conjunction with Philip's Infiltration Equation, Philip (1957). The losses to infiltration are then subtracted from the total design storm to deduce an excess rainfall hyetograph.

In the majority of day to day cases the initial loss-continuing loss estimates have been used in preference to the more complex infiltration equations as the calculation or estimation of an appropriate prestorm catchment wetness or moisture deficiency has not been possible or practical.

Initial and continuing loss rates generally applied with design storms up to date have been taken from the literature where appropriate design values dependent on various catchment parameters or soil types have been recommended. As indicated in Chapter 2 however the values stated have often been misleading or vague and therefore could lead to significant errors when improperly interpreted.

Table 4-1 summarises some of the typical values quoted and applied to Australian urban and rural stormwater analyses.

TABLE 4-1
 Summary of Typically Recommended Initial
 and Continuing Loss Rates for
 Australian Conditions

Type of Catchment Surface	Initial Loss (mm)	Continuing Loss (mm/hr)
<u>Impervious areas</u>		
Roofs of houses, factories and commercial buildings, road surfaces etc.	1.5	0.0
<u>Pervious areas</u>		
(i) Sandy, open structured soils	5.0-20*	10-25*
(ii) Loam soils	5.0-20*	3.0-10*
(iii) Clays, dense Structured soils	5.0-20*	0.5-3.0*
(iv) Clays subject to high shrinkage and in a cracked state at the start of rain	25-35*	4.0-6.0*
(v) ARR (1977)	0-50	-

* Values taken from an unpublished report by Aitken (1974) based on various textbook values.

As stated above the problem of loss estimation is complicated by the fact that the design storm approach in urban drainage design infers the use of rainfall bursts rather than complete storm events. Consequently design storm loss rates need to reflect the possibilities of pre-burst catchment wetting. Depending on historical sequences of storms and the statistical interpretation of catchment parameters, the design storm loss rates could vary greatly from those associated with complete storm analyses. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Cordery (1970) carried out work on two New South Wales catchments in Sydney and Griffith res-

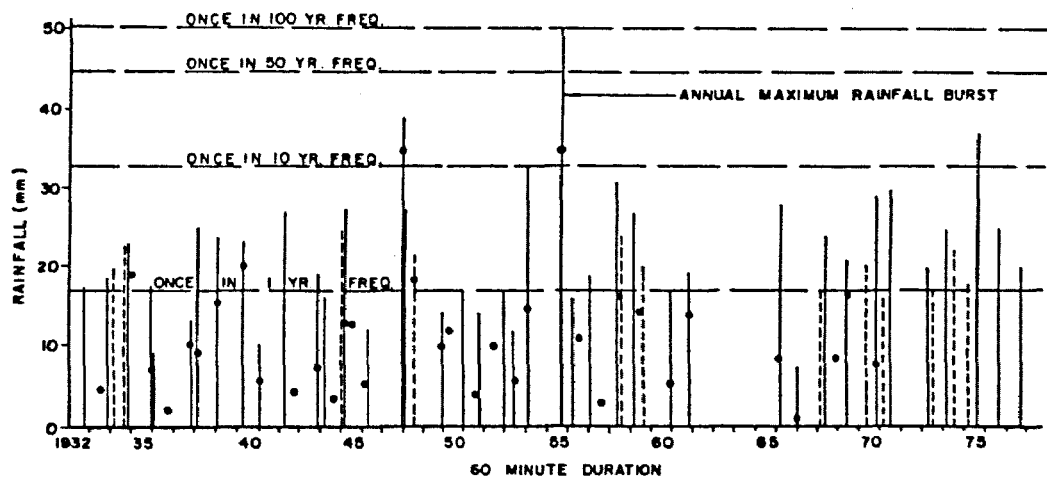
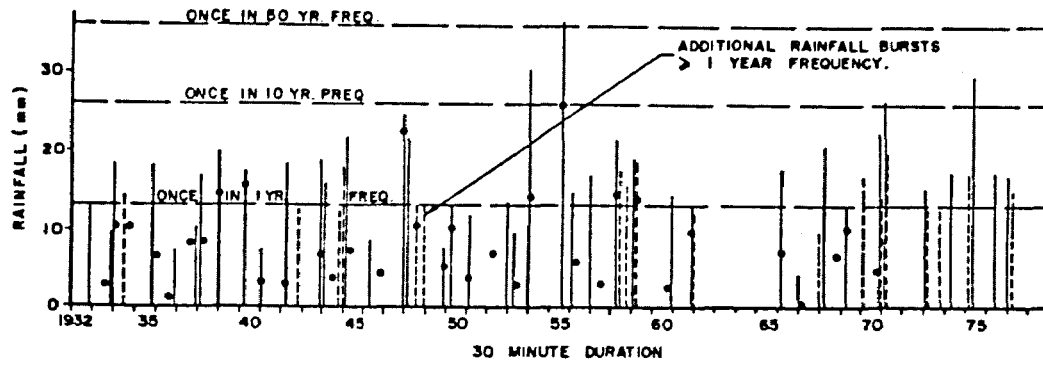
pectively to test the effects of the problems described.

The values given in Table 4-1 and in the majority of the literature would unfortunately appear to be directed towards complete storms and therefore could be quite inapplicable for urban design modelling based on design storm bursts.

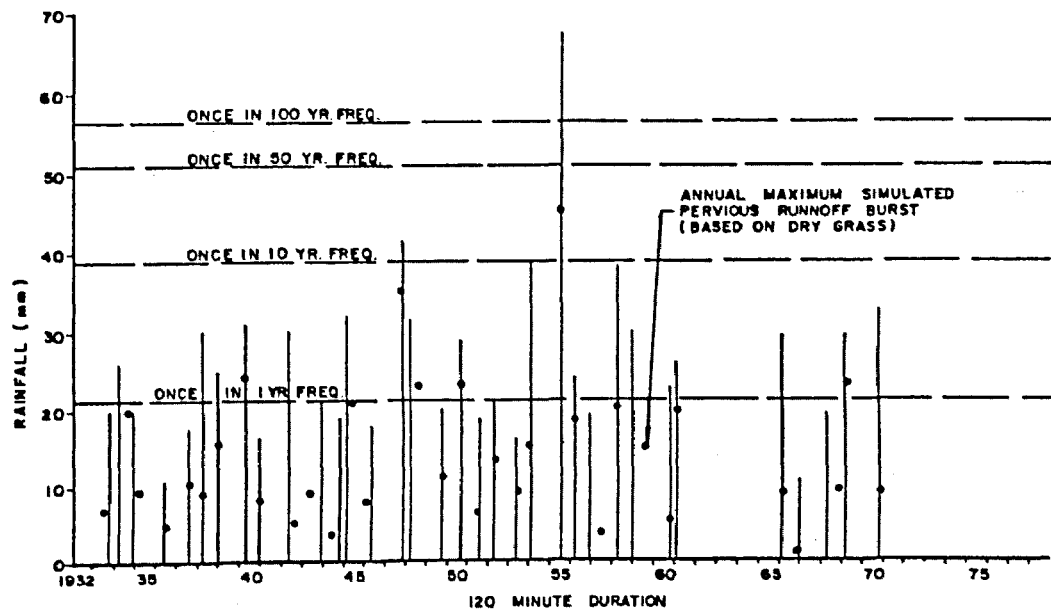
Based on the historical rainfall record in the Canberra region, it would appear that the average values quoted may well be low taking into account the semi-arid nature of the region and the long term timing of events.

Figures 4-1 to 4-3 reinforce this opinion by the predominance of short duration historical events occurring in the high evaporation summer periods and then in the latter part of the day after potentially high catchment drying. To take this hypothesis a step further it was necessary for a detailed assessment of the time sequence of all rainfall events be made to ascertain, in real time, fluctuations in runoff producing catchment parameters. To achieve this aim a long term continuous water balance model was employed to simulate the catchment response over the period of rainfall record available. The development and application of the water balance model selected is described below.

In particular the analysis was intended to include the definition of moisture deficiencies, over extended periods, on different urban land types and the role of these in producing runoff of varying magnitudes.



NOTE: RAINFALL DATA TAKEN
 FROM YARRALUMLA
 FOREST RESEARCH STATION.



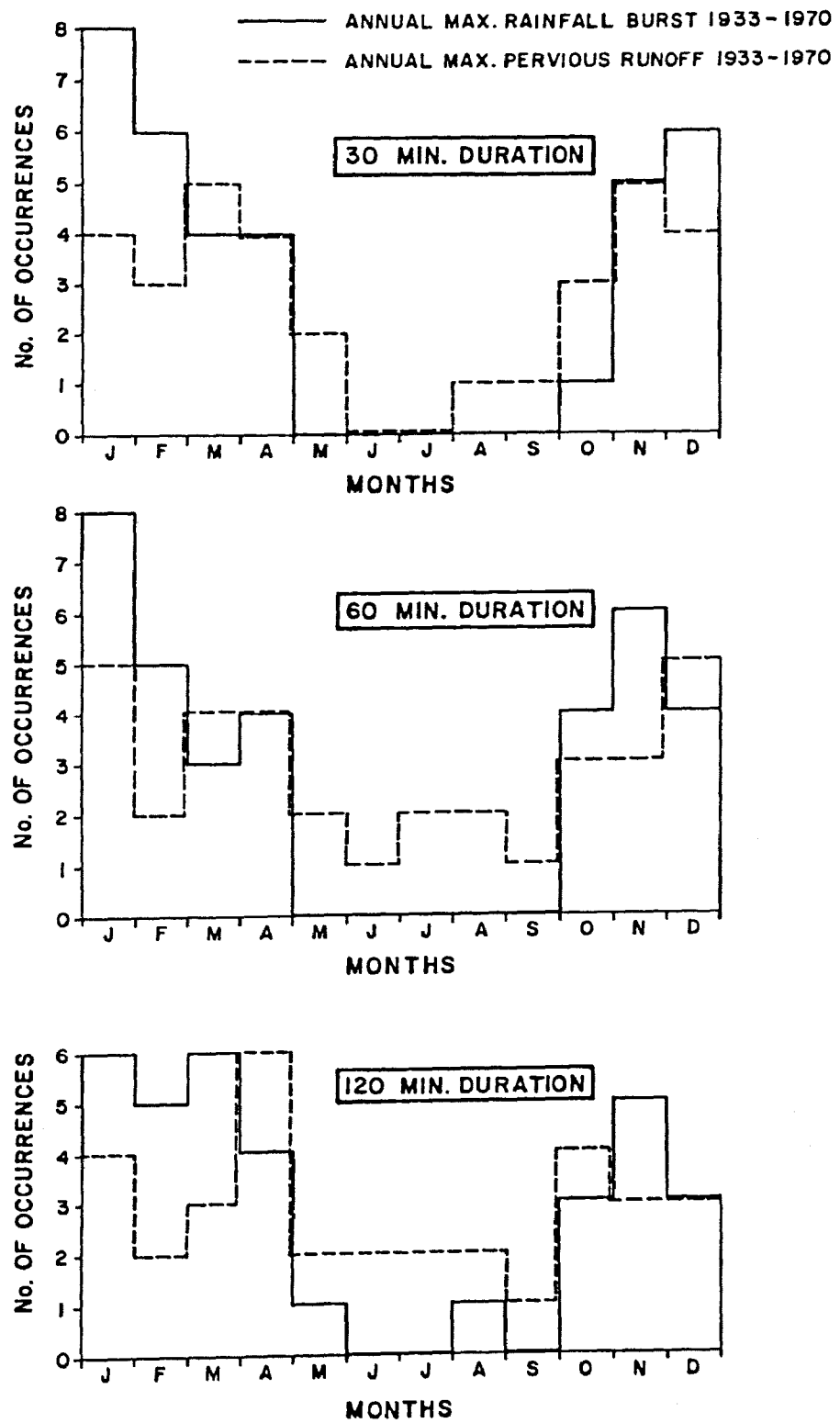


FIGURE 4-2 Seasonal Distribution of Annual Maximum 30, 60 and 120 Minute Rainfall Bursts

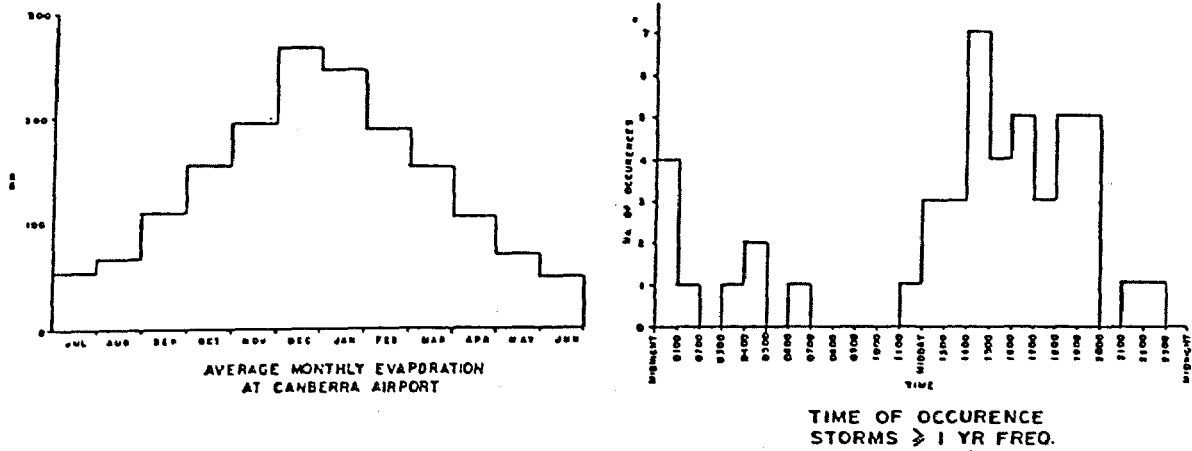
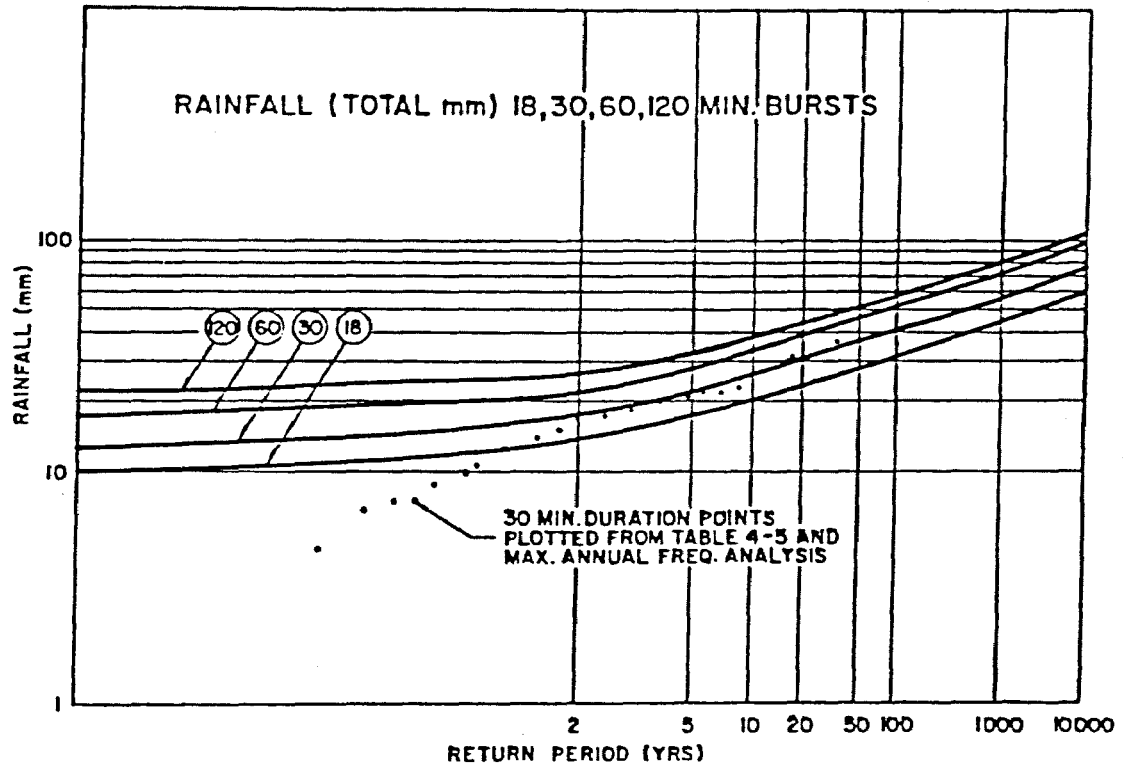


FIGURE 4-3 Canberra Intensity-Frequency Duration, Pan Evaporation and Daily Rainfall Distribution

4.2.2 Continuous Water Balance Model Development.

After careful consideration of the models available for continuous rainfall/runoff simulation, the Australian Representative Basins Model (ARBM) originally developed by Chapman (1968,1970) and further modified by Black & Aitken (1977) was chosen for the following reasons:

(1) The model structure provided for detailed sensitivity analysis of a large number of catchment parameters.

(2) The model allowed infinitely variable time steps thus allowing direct input from existing Australian Water Resources Council standard format digitised pluviograph and runoff records.

(3) The combination of both pervious and impervious areas were allowed for.

(4) In its simplest form the model provided an economical tool capable of analysing very long records within a limited budget.

(5) As the model is currently being examined and used in a research environment by several organisations throughout Australia, further research into the operation of the ARBM and required modifications could only help to strengthen the basis for the model's use in Australian conditions.

Other similar models such as the Hydrocomp Simulation Model (Stanford Model) developed in the USA were considered but rejected on the basis of their unnecessary complexity and consequent cost to run. The basis for this assessment was further detailed by Black & Aitken (1977). Figure 4-4 gives a diagrammatic representation of the ARBM as described by Black & Aitken (1977).

The basic structure of the ARBM, described by Black & Aitken, was retained in this thesis. Some changes were made to data input, output provisions, allowances for the acceptance of variable time step computations and the way time steps were interpreted and modelling algorithms applied.

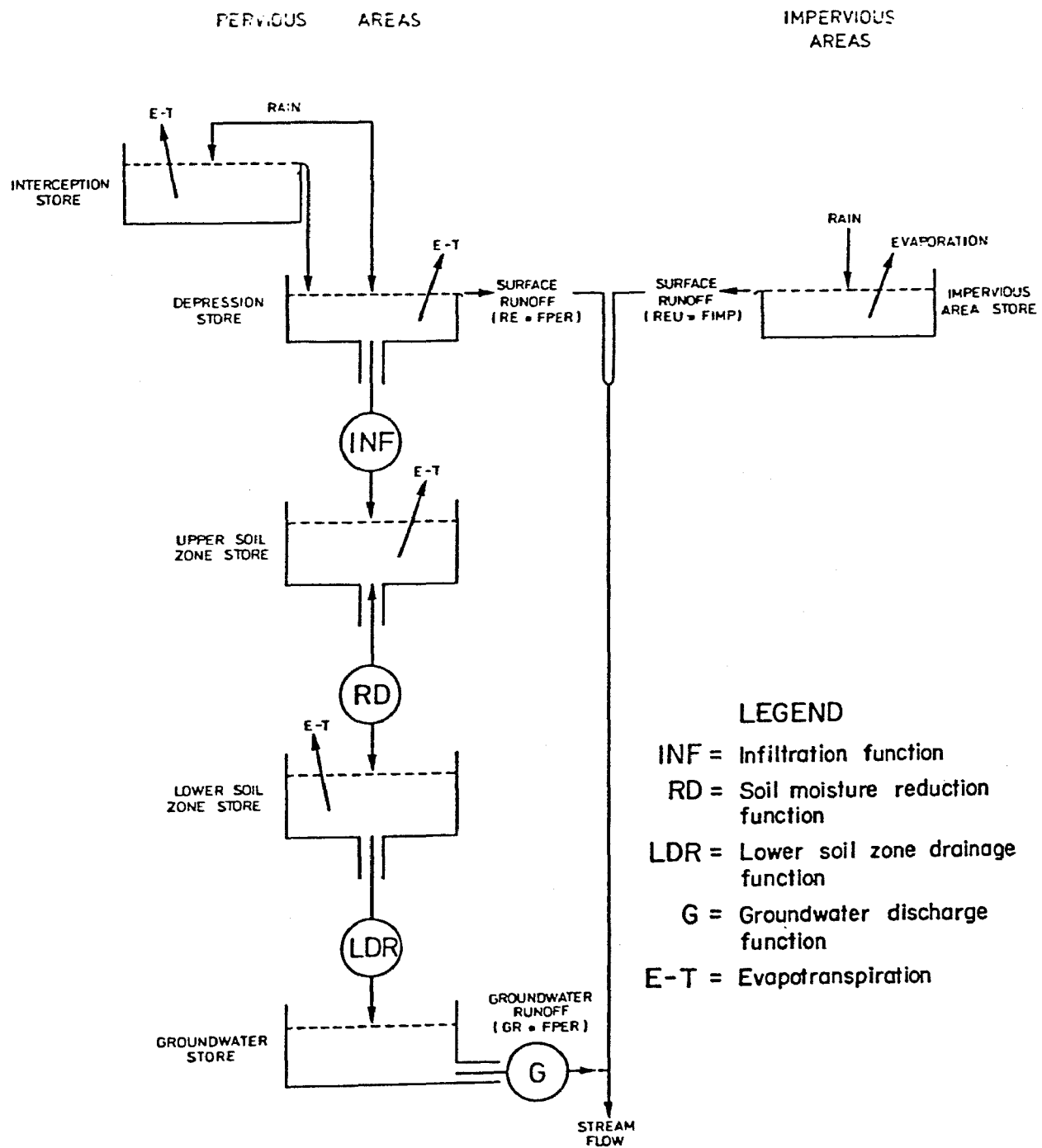


FIGURE 4-4 Diagrammatic Sketch of the ARBM source (Black and Aitken 1977)

In the form described by Black & Aitken the model operated in predetermined time increments depending on prevailing weather conditions.

If the day was dry and the depression storage empty, then the time interval used was one day. If there was rain during the day, or the depression storage was not empty at the beginning of any day, then an hourly time step was used. If there was rain during any given hour then a shorter time step was used during that hour. Six minutes was usually recommended for smaller urban catchments.

Unfortunately the use of the model in the above format required the search, backtrack and interpretation of intermediate data from the pluviograph record resulting in high running costs.

The model was modified to receive data directly from the digitised pluviograph record. Intermediate time step data was interpreted, only as required, to maintain stable model operation.

As a first step, catchment parameters needed to execute the ARBM were taken directly from data suggested by Black & Aitken (1977) appropriate for the Giralang urban catchment described in Chapter 3. The initial parameter set in fact closely resembled the data set for Yarralumla Creek catchment described by Black & Aitken.

Table 4-2 lists this initial set of parameters designated the reference set. The variables were adopted as the 'standard textbook set' from which all variations were compared in the subsequent proving and sensitivity analysis.

The term 'standard textbook set' was used to indicate the typical model parameters one might obtain from readily available reference material (eg, Black & Aitken (1977), Chapman (1970), Eagleson (1970), Talsma (1969)) without, apart from rudimentary catchment examination necessary to assess literature data, going to detailed rainfall/runoff simulation runs or the inclusion of field measured values.

Model Calibration

The major objective of this thesis was clearly to establish if additional simple field measurements could be included in the course of hydrologic studies to allow more relevant input to the mathematical models now used to predict runoff events, and in particular, urban events of short duration.

Over the last decade much has been published (Mein & Brown (1978), Johnstone & Pilgrim (1973), Fleming & Black (1974)) in regard to the complex calibration processes available for continuous water balance models such as the

ARBM.

As stated in the work by Johnstone & Pilgrim (1973) "A true optimum set of values was not found in over two years of full-time work". This was based on the study of a single study catchment with well documented rainfall runoff and soil moisture data. The above declaration indicated the inappropriateness of such complex machine optimisation processes for day to day design exercises for all but the largest projects.

As this thesis was aimed at everyday trunk drainage systems of small to medium scale it was decided to test the appropriateness of the much simpler process put forward by the Australian Water Resources Council's Technical Report No. 26 (Black & Aitken, 1977).

This document proposed that a set of parameters based on a number of published works be selected. Additionally where data could be measured it be so included in place of the more generalised published data.

To test the accuracy of such a procedure, in lieu of the more tedious optimisation methods, the results (ie, runoff peaks) would need to be compared with gauged data. This point is taken up in Chapter 4 using Mawson data.

TABLE 4-2
ARBM PARAMETERS
REFERENCE SET

Parameter	Description	Value	Unit
CAPIMP	Impervious store capacity	.5	mm
ISC	Interception store capacity	1.0	mm
DSC	Depression store capacity	5.0	mm
USC	Upper soil store capacity	12.5	mm
LSC	Lower soil store capacity	200.0	mm
UH	(Maxrate of water uptake from roots	10.0	mm/day
LH	(for upper and lower soil stores	10.0	mm/day
ER	Proportion of transpiration from US	.7	-
FIMP	Proportion of catchment that is impervious	.25	-
GN	Variable rate groundwater recession factor	1.0	-
KG	Constant rate groundwater recession factor	.94	-
SO	Sorptivity	7.0	mm/min ^{1/2}
A	Function of soil conductivity	.5	mm/min
AO	(Redistribution	57.0	-
A1	(Parameters	.063	-
LDF	Lower soil drainage factor	.05	-
ECOR	Ratio of Potential Evaporation to A class pan	.7	-
IAR	Proportion of rainfall intercepted by vegetation	.7	-

Output variables defining the status of the various storage components of the ARBM at the end of any time increment were as follows:

- (1) IDS - Impervious depression storage (mm)
- (2) IS - Interception storage (mm)
- (3) DS - Pervious depression storage (mm)
- (4) US - Upper soil storage (mm)
- (5) LS - Lower soil storage (mm)
- (6) GS - Groundwater storage (mm).

A sensitivity analysis was carried out on the 1977 set of rainfall data to test model output responses to changes in individual and combinations of the more sensitive input parameters defined in Table 4-2.

Figure 4-5 summarises the sensitivity of the maximum value of US for 1977 to changes in individual parameters from the reference set.

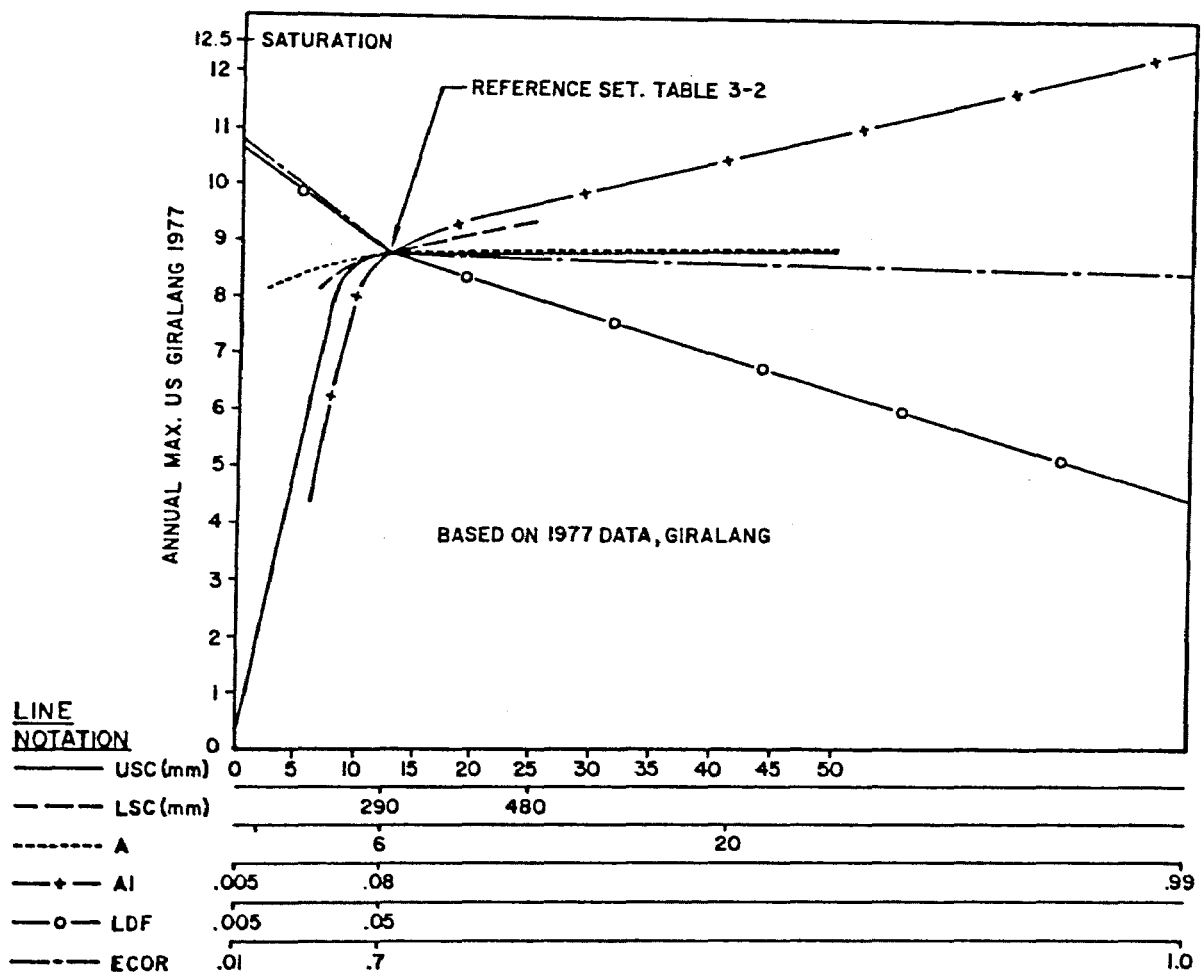


FIGURE 4-5 Sensitivity of ARBM Model Parameters

As indicated on Figure 4-5, the sensitivity of the maximum annual upper soil storage content (US) to moderate changes in the more sensitive input parameters was significant. As this output variable was potentially one of the most important in the prediction of infiltration, it showed that the most accurate definition of the more sensitive parameters was essential if accurate simulation was to be achieved.

Similarly it was found that changes to model parameters significantly affected upper soil moisture responses both in short term fluctuations and base magnitudes over extended periods.

The parameters directly affecting runoff volumes of short term storm events were sorptivity (S), hydraulic conductivity parameter (A) and the redistribution parameters (A0,A1). Sorptivity however is directly related to the prestorm burst soil moisture and most significantly the upper soil storage content (US).

As the percentage of moisture residing in the upper store at any time related not only to infiltration into it but also redistribution between it and the lower storage, the parameters affecting this later soil movement, including redistribution parameters and the defined upper and lower soil moisture capacities, were equally important.

The following provides a brief synopsis of a number of important aspects of ARBM operations borne out during initial use and testing.

- . In Canberra, based on rainfall and evaporation data between 1933 and 1942, the total amount of pervious runoff simulated using the reference set was insignificant. As a percentage of the total rainfall this amounted to only .002% with flows occurring in only two of the 10 years simulated.
- . Based on recorded rainfall/runoff data accrued at the outlet of the Giralang urban catchment for the years 1976, 1977 and 1978 it was impossible to separate the contributions of pervious, impervious and artificial baseflow from the total gauged flow. It was found that during the three years examined that the total annual baseflows were of the same order as the total impervious flow and that it was not possible to assess the pervious flow at all.
- . In consequence to the above findings it was shown that significant changes to the majority of input parameters relating to pervious areas, ie, S0, Ko, USC, LSC, A0, A1, LDF, and ECOR had little or no effect on predicted runoff amounts. Total catchment runoff monitoring on urban catchments with pervious areas would therefore not appear to be appropriate for the calibrating of the above parameters unless the separate contribution from the pervious and impervious components could be resolved.
- . The most sensitive input parameters and variables affecting the production of pervious runoff from a given rainfall event were S0, Ko, US, USC and LSC with US being the most critical after the field establishment of S0 and Ko and model calibration runs

to fit USC and LSC.

- . Particularly during dry spells , the accuracy of the potential evaporation input was insensitive with respect to model output ; as the maximum water uptake parameter from plant roots nearly always controlled the transpiration rate.
- . During marginal runoff events the infiltration routine, employing Philip's equation, could give false results due to the trigger mechanism in setting new sorptivity values at the beginning of a storm burst based on the criteria of the depression storage being empty.
- . During initial model runs using data directly from the record it was found that runoff from pervious areas was predicted from long duration time steps with low rainfall. This was primarily caused by rainfall exceeding the upper soil store within the time step before it could be dissipated to the lower stores.

The ARBM model is a one dimensional water balance model working in discrete time steps. It describes water volumes in terms of depth in all designated stores at the end of each time period.

As shown on Figure 4-4 the main soil stores are represented by the upper zone, lower zone and groundwater sections. These must necessarily define the status of the complete soil moisture profile at any point in time.

As can be well appreciated this is very simplistic and in some cases can cause significant soil moisture profile distribution errors.

To model profile development it was necessary to take account of all redistribution movements between the upper and lower soil stores as well as infiltration and evapotranspiration movements into and out of the soil strata. The mechanisms for this in the ARBM , as reported , are fairly limited , particularly in respect to probable hysteresis effects throughout the wetting and drying cycles of the profile.

The ARBM model provided for runoff only when the upper store was full and overtopping occurred. This, in some cases, led to false runoff simulation when the additional constraint of rainfall rate exceeding infiltration rate was not met. Even when the ground surface was completely saturated, water still infiltrated at a rate equal to the saturated hydraulic conductivity level provided no barrier below the upper soil zone existed to cause backwater effects.

The model as described unfortunately did not account for this occurrence. It was necessary therefore to alter the modelling algorithms in this area to allow additional infiltration, provided redistribution to the lower store was sufficient to offset the increase to the upper store due to the rainfall infiltration in the incremental time period. This philosophy was further expanded to provide for the changing status of the upper store (US) during the time step caused by inflows and outflows due to transpiration, evaporation and redistribution between the depression storage and the ground storage. It was assumed that flow rates would act as a linear function over the time increment. In this fashion the model was in pseudo fashion changed from an incremental model to a continuous one.

The rate of moisture movement through the upper and lower soil stores was modelled for a number of historic runoff producing events by varying the lower soil storage capacity and redistribution parameters with a fixed upper storage capacity until gauged and simulated runoff volumes agreed. To isolate pervious and impervious runoff, gauged data was used from the rural Gungahlin catchment immediately adjacent to the Giralang urban catchment. The calibrated parameter set for the Gungahlin catchment was then used to compare with the reference set and to provide a base for additional sensitivity analysis.

The complexities of soil moisture profiles, particularly over a catchment with wide variations in soil characteristics, made it necessary to test the limitations of a lumped model such as the ARBM in providing acceptable runoff simulation. This facet of the thesis is taken up later in this chapter.

Using 33 years of pluviograph record between 1933 and 1970 from the Yarralumla Forest Research Station, Canberra, and the ARBM modified as described, long term soil profile movements and runoff simulation were carried out to examine fluctuation patterns and possible trends.

Following is a condensed listing of the ARBM as adopted in analysis work for this thesis together with the input data for the single year 1977 on the Giralang urban catchment and a part of the output and the summarised annual statistical data.

Table with multiple columns containing numerical data, likely representing a large dataset or simulation output. The columns are not explicitly labeled but appear to contain values for various parameters or time steps.

RESULTS

Hydrological simulation results table. Includes headers: 1975 GENERAL RURAL CALIBRATION, CATCHMENT PARAMETER SET, ARTIFICIAL WATERING, GAUGED BASIN ADJUSTED TO 0.99, DATA STORAGE AND EXCESS RAINFALL SUMMARY, INDEX RUN DAY INC MNC BALS POSVAR INTER S DEP S SPEN S LOWER S GAND S STP INF EPYR GNDP RUMYF PER NOV I FLOWYF. The table contains a detailed grid of numerical data for each day of the simulation.

↓
DETAILED
WATER/
BALANCE
OUTPUT

MONTHLY
VOL. SUMMARY

Table with columns: TOY, DATE, TOY, POS, EV, GAUCED, FLM, STIMUL, IMP, STIMUL, PER, STIMUL, TOT. Rows include dates from MAR 4 to APR 28. Includes a sub-table 'STORM SUMMARY - BOOK 14 TO BOOK 17'.

Table with columns: TOY, DATE, TOY, POS, EV, GAUCED, FLM, STIMUL, IMP, STIMUL, PER, STIMUL, TOT. Rows include dates from APR 29 to MAY 27. Includes a sub-table 'STORM SUMMARY - BOOK 18 TO BOOK 21'.

Table with columns: TOY, DATE, TOY, POS, EV, GAUCED, FLM, STIMUL, IMP, STIMUL, PER, STIMUL, TOT. Rows include dates from MAY 28 to JUN 28. Includes a sub-table 'STORM SUMMARY - BOOK 22 TO BOOK 25'.

Table with columns: TOY, DATE, TOY, POS, EV, GAUCED, FLM, STIMUL, IMP, STIMUL, PER, STIMUL, TOT. Rows include dates from JUN 29 to JUL 28. Includes a sub-table 'STORM SUMMARY - BOOK 26 TO BOOK 29'.

Table with columns: TOY, DATE, TOY, POS, EV, GAUCED, FLM, STIMUL, IMP, STIMUL, PER, STIMUL, TOT. Rows include dates from JUL 29 to AUG 28. Includes a sub-table 'STORM SUMMARY - BOOK 30 TO BOOK 33'.

ANNUAL MAXIMUM 30.0 MIN BURST STATISTICS														
MAX WEIGHTED RUNOFF - IMP FRACT = .01														
DATE	CLOCK	DATA	ACCUM	ACCUM	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	PERV	IMPERV	
TIME (HRS)	INDEX	TIME	RAIN	0	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	RUNOFF	RUNOFF	
DAT-30	0.266	0		54.310	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-3	0.266	37		21.892	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-12	0.266	81		11.504	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-3	0.266	81		12.870	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-12	0.266	81		4.800	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR-15	0.266	81		2.870	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	00	0.00		0.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	01	0.20		0.330	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	02	10.22		4.250	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	03	30.15		0.500	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	04	10.00		0.370	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
												1.00	1.00	1.00
ANNUAL MAXIMUM 40.0 MIN BURST STATISTICS														
MAX WEIGHTED RUNOFF - IMP FRACT = .01														
DATE	CLOCK	DATA	ACCUM	ACCUM	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	PERV	IMPERV	
TIME (HRS)	INDEX	TIME	RAIN	0	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	RUNOFF	RUNOFF	
DAT-30	0.266	0		52.060	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-3	0.266	37		20.530	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-12	0.266	81		10.380	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-3	0.266	81		10.380	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-12	0.266	81		3.500	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR-15	0.266	81		1.930	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	00	0.00		0.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	01	0.20		0.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	02	10.22		2.790	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	03	30.15		0.310	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	04	10.00		0.380	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	05	00.00		11.150	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	06	00.00		12.210	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	06	00.00		12.900	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
												1.00	1.00	1.00
ANNUAL MAXIMUM 150.0 MIN BURST STATISTICS														
MAX WEIGHTED RUNOFF - IMP FRACT = .01														
DATE	CLOCK	DATA	ACCUM	ACCUM	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	PERV	IMPERV	
TIME (HRS)	INDEX	TIME	RAIN	0	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	(MM)	RUNOFF	RUNOFF	
DAT-30	0.120	0		45.400	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-3	0.120	37		22.880	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
DAT-12	0.120	81		12.460	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-3	0.120	81		12.460	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
HRS-12	0.120	81		2.170	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
MAR-15	0.120	81		1.810	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
MAR 15	00	0.00		0.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	01	0.20		0.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	02	10.22		2.410	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	03	30.15		3.470	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	04	10.22		4.910	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	05	00.00		4.540	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	06	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	07	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	08	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	09	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	10	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	11	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	12	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	13	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	14	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	15	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	16	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	17	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	18	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	19	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	20	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	21	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	22	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	23	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	24	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	25	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	26	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	27	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	28	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	29	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
MAR 15	30	00.00		8.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	
												1.00	1.00	1.00

SAME AS ABOVE
EXCEPT
MAX WEIGHTED
RUNOFF
75% PERV. D.G. MASS
25% IMPERV.

The following briefly summarises the main components of the ARBM output:

- . At the end of each time increment, the duration of the increment, the incremental rainfall and pan evaporation are given together with the water depth in each of the stores including interception, depression, upper, lower and groundwater. Additionally, runoff depths are given for the groundwater and the pervious and impervious surface components. Where gauged peak flow data are available, they are input and subsequently shown as output to allow volume checks between simulated and gauged data.
- . At the end of the detailed output described above, which is optional, a summary output is provided detailing a number of run statistics abstracted from the full run results. These include; an Accumulated Gauged and Simulated Runoff table in cubic metres to compare overall simulation; a Maximum Storage Depth summary - Winter and Summer; a table detailing the percentage time of moisture levels in the upper store being at certain levels; and a series of Maximum Event Burst statistics for up to four defined durations. The details of these last tables are given in the sample output shown earlier in the Chapter. In brief, for each event duration, data is summarised up to one month before each event with accumulated rainfall and resident moisture store values being given 30 days, 5 days, 1 day, 12 hours, 1 hour and 30 minutes prior to the start of the abstracted maximum event under consideration. Three scans are carried out for each selected duration to find, in the total period, the maximum pervious, impervious and weighted runoff depths.

4.2.2.1 Urban Land Domains. For a model to predict total urban runoff behaviour it needs to be capable of discerning between different land types. These have been classified here as urban land domains.

In Canberra these can be broadly split into the following groups:

(1) Residential lawns (incorporating areas of imported topsoil with sown grasses irregularly watered from domestic sources).

(2) Dry grass areas (generally associated with public open spaces adjacent to residential allotments. Usually natural topsoils and native grasses with little or no artificial watering).

(3) Irrigated playing fields (incorporating areas of imported sandy topsoils with sown grasses irrigated on a regular basis from domestic sources).

(4) Native and planted forest areas (urban fringe areas including parks and undeveloped areas such as Black Mountain nature reserve).

Soil moisture measurements were taken during 1979 and 1980 on the Canberra urban catchments described in Chapter 3. The effects of lawn watering on residential allotments on a catchment wide basis was found to be marginal. Combined, types (1) and (2) generally make up to 75% of the pervious area in any particular urban catchment and as such greater emphasis has been placed on these rather than types (3) and (4) in this thesis. Domains (3) and (4) have however been considered as in some areas they can be significant and it was necessary to assess, in particular, the effects of heavy watering of playing fields on runoff production.

The ARBM was subsequently used to simulate excess rainfall using Canberra pluviograph data recorded between 1933 and 1970 for domain types (1), (2), (3) and (4). The output from this analysis was used to assess the long term trigger mechanisms for runoff generation from these domains.

As indicated, the reference parameter set was taken from values suggested by Black & Aitken and closely resembled their published set for the Yarralumla Creek Urban Catchment in South Canberra. As described above using this set little, if any, pervious runoff was predicted.

Gauged rainfall/runoff data was obtained for the Gungahlin rural catchment for the years 1977, 1978 and 1979.

From that record it was very apparent that significant runoff was generated in each of the three years, none of which was abnormal.

Based on these records it was evident that there would be contributing runoff from similar pervious areas in the adjoining Giralang urban catchment.

From examination of the soil characteristics and grass cover within the Gungahlin catchment it was concluded that they closely resembled the typical dry grass and poor residential lawn areas within the Giralang urban catchment.

Based on this premise it was possible using the three years of record available on Gungahlin to calibrate the ARBM for that catchment. The resulting parameter set which has been designated 'Dry Grass' is shown in Table 4-3.

As can be seen, it differs significantly from the reference set (Table 4-2) and reflects the greatly reduced

infiltration potential required to match simulated and gauged runoff data. The reference set in fact predicted no runoff at all over the same three years.

TABLE 4-3
DRY GRASS PARAMETER SET

Parameter	Description	Value	Unit
CAPIMP	Impervious store capacity	.5	mm
ISC	Interception store capacity	1.0	mm
DSC	Depression store capacity	1.0	mm
USC	Upper soil store capacity	12.5	mm
LSC	Lower soil store capacity	12.5	mm
UH	(Maxrate of water uptake from roots	10.0	mm/day
LH	(for upper and lower soil stores	10.0	mm/day
ER	Proportion of transpiration from US	.7	-
FIMP	Proportion of catchment that is impervious	.25	-
GN	Variable rate groundwater recession factor	1.0	-
KG	Constant rate groundwater recession factor	.94	-
SO	Sorptivity	4.5	mm/min ^{1/2}
A	Function of soil conductivity	.15	mm/min
A0	(Redistribution	17.28	-
A1	(parameters	1.0	-
LDF	Lower soil drainage factor	.05	-
ECOR	Ratio of Potential Evaporation to A class pan	.7	-
IAR	Proportion of rainfall intercepted by vegetation	.7	-

4.2.2.2 ARBM Model Results. Figure 4-6 shows scatter diagrams for respective simulated and recorded flows on a monthly, yearly and significant storm basis for the Gungahlin catchment using the 'Dry Grass' parameter set based on data for 1977,78,79.

An objective function based on the Σ square of the difference between the estimated and observed runoff, similar to that adopted by Black & Aitken (1977), was used to calibrate the remaining sensitive parameters LSC, A1, LDF, DSC, ISC after the direct adoption of average measured values

for S_0 , A or K_0 , to achieve a minimum value.

Calibration was carried out in an ordered fashion firstly obtaining the best fit for monthly totals then individual significant storm events and then, finally checking annual totals.

As can be seen from the diagrams shown on Figure 4-6, the scatter was still significant after considerable parameter adjustment. It is believed that finer matching would require structural changes to the program and/or variable parameters in place of the present constant values to better reflect seasonal effects.

The adopted parameter set for dry grass was used to simulate moisture changes during the period July 1979 through December 1979 as shown on Figure 4-7. Because of the scatter between individual dry grass station moisture levels above and below the simulated values, it was not possible to quantify if the fit was as close as could be expected. It was decided to leave the parameter set as it was and to test the overall tolerance of the estimate by testing its effect on model output in respect to changes in runoff volumes and runoff peaks. This is described later in Chapter 4.

Additionally during the observed period 1979 through 1981, there was considerable apparent interflow from the relatively small Gungahlin catchment occurring some hours after the cessation of rainfalls that could not be adequately modelled using the ARBM.

Another problem would appear to be in the accuracy of the gauged runoff itself particularly at low flows. The gauging weir and instrumentation was not specifically designed to measure small flows below $.01 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ but rather to measure significant storm runoff. It was the accumulation of the low flows that made up the majority of the runoff and consequently calibration based on monthly or annual accumulated flows was not necessarily the most appropriate and convincing method.

Based on appropriate parameter changes related to measurable catchment characteristics such as S_0 and K_0 , parameter sets were developed to represent residential lawns, irrigated playing fields and natural forested areas (Black Mountain).

As it was not possible to obtain individual gauged runoff data from these individual areas, use was made of the soil moisture gauging program described in Chapter 3 to help calibration in particular the natural forested area.

Residential lawns and irrigated playing field parameter sets were derived in a relative sense by varying S_0 and K_0 parameters in line with measured values.

LSC, for irrigated playing fields and residential lawns, was arbitrarily adjusted to reflect the increased drainage capacity of the prepared topsoils. A1 was adjusted in line with the algorithms given by Black & Aitken, 1977.

Additionally, artificial watering in line with water use policy for irrigated playing fields and a nominal watering for residential lawns was input as defined in Table 4-4.

A summary of these results is shown on Figure 4-7.

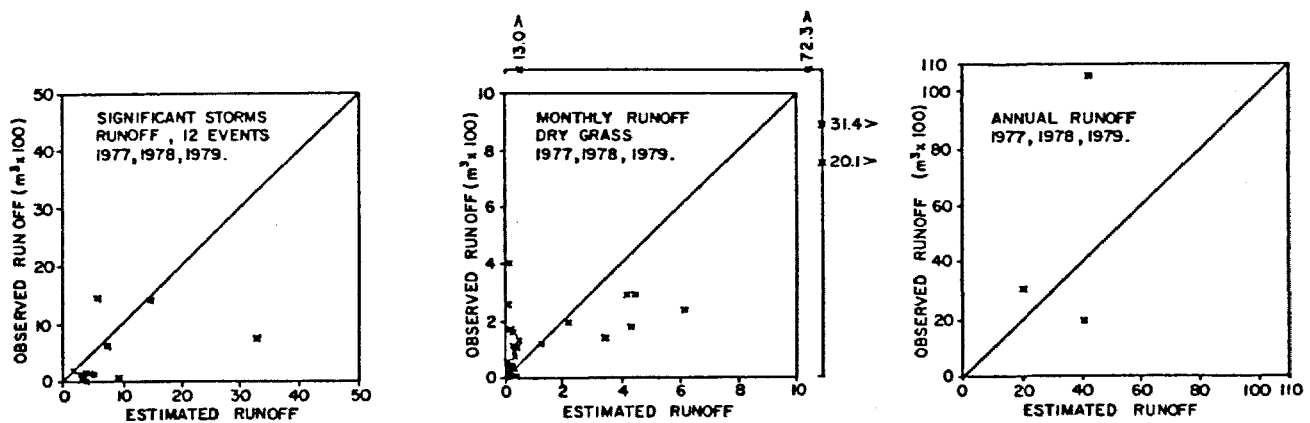
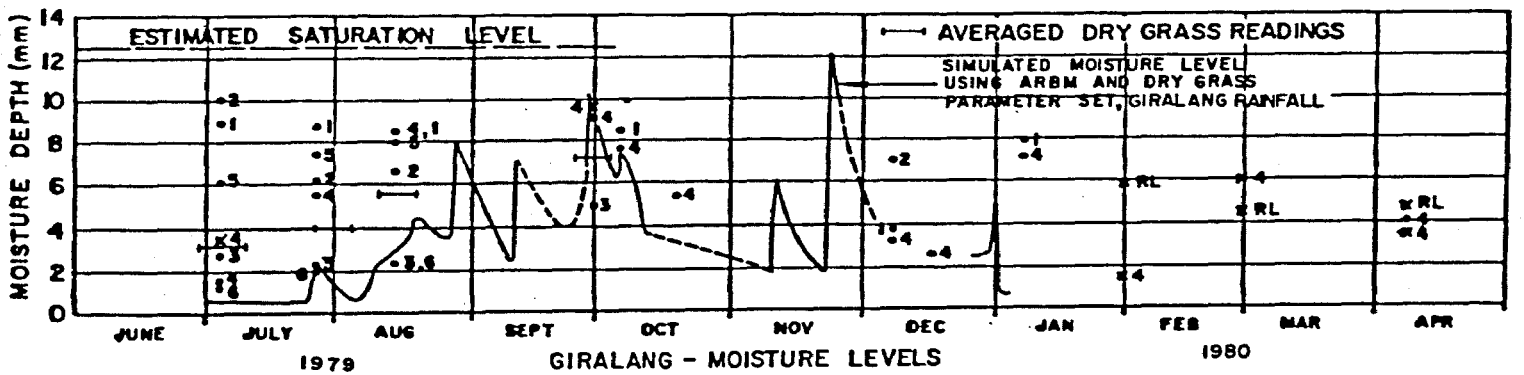
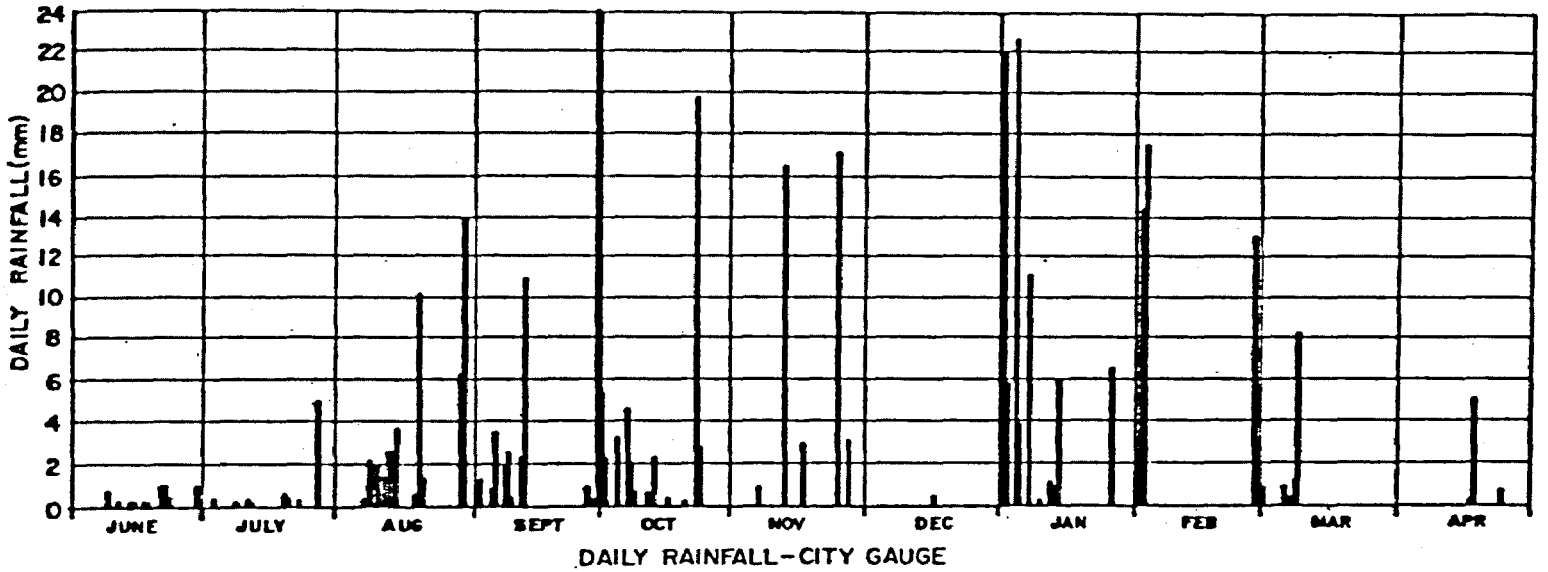
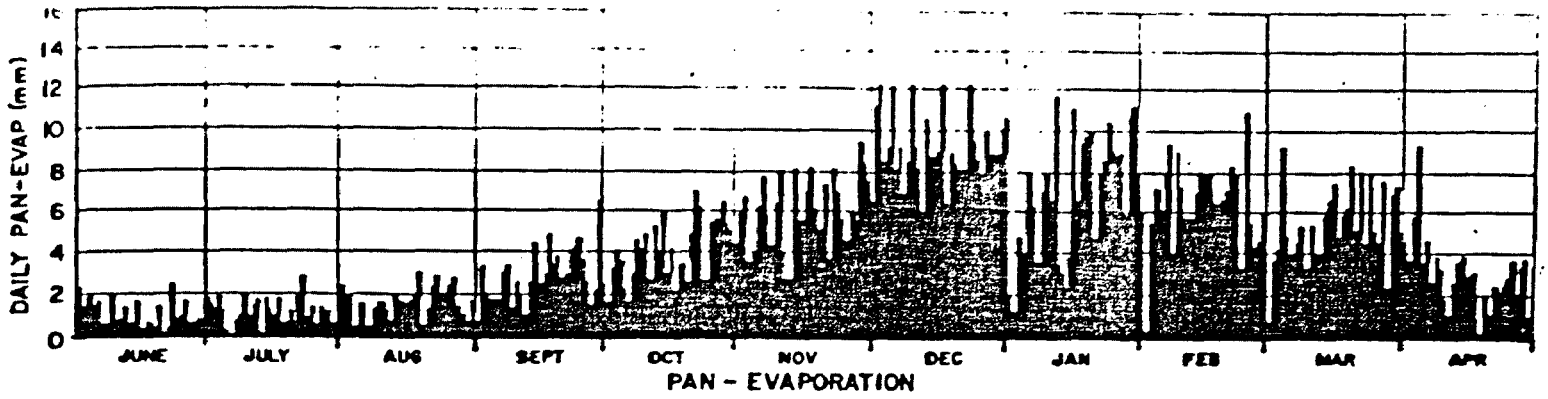
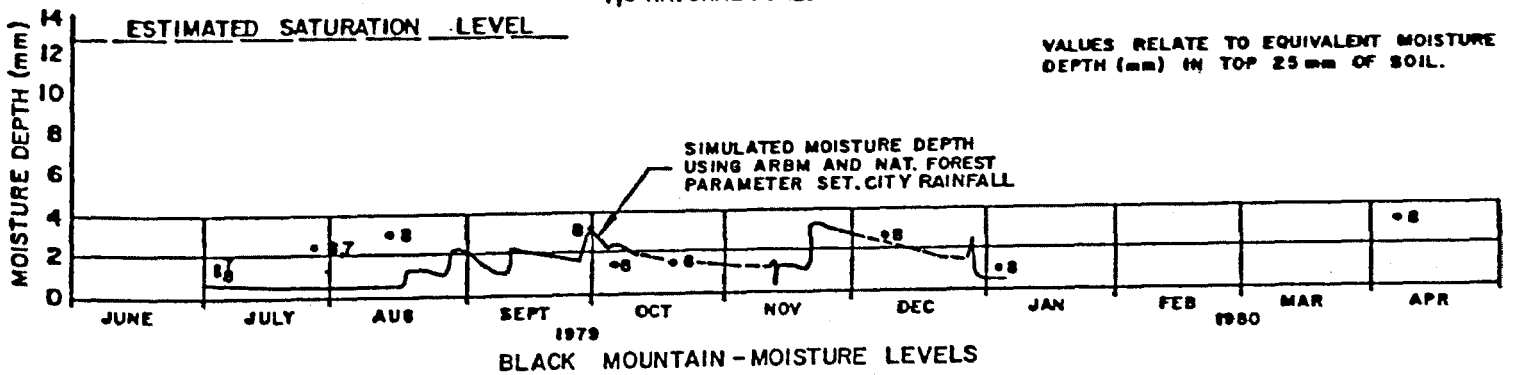


FIGURE 4-6 Gungahlin Scatter Diagrams



- 1 STATION ADJACENT TO CREEK
- 2 IRRIGATED PLAYING FIELD
- 3,4,5,6 DRY GRASS
- 7,8 NATURAL FOREST

- x OVEN DRIED SAMPLES
- o NUCLEAR SAMPLES BASED ON DENSITY
- RL RES. LAWN RANDOM SAMPLE
- 2. STATION No.



VALUES RELATE TO EQUIVALENT MOISTURE DEPTH (mm) IN TOP 25 mm OF SOIL.

FIGURE 4-7 Long Term (US) Soil Moisture Simulation

Table 4-4 shows the parameter sets developed for the four land domains studied plus the reference set for comparison. It may be noted that the reference set in fact most closely resembles the final set assigned to natural forest rather than the averaged dry grass/residential lawns that are present in the Yarralumla Creek catchment.

TABLE 4-4 Adopted Domain Based Parameter Sets

Parameter	Ref Set	Dry Grass	Resid* Lawns	Irrig.** Playing Field	Natural Forest
CAPIMP	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
ISC	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
DSC	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
USC	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
LSC	200.0	12.5	25.0	25.0	100.0
UH	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
LH	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
ER	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
FIMP	-	-	-	-	-
GN	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
KG	0.94	0.94	0.94	0.94	0.94
SO	7.0	4.5	10.0	10.0	10.0
A	0.5	0.15	0.3	0.42	0.15
A0	57.0	17.28	17.28	17.28	17.28
A1	0.063	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.125
LDF	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
ECOR	0.7	0.70	0.7	0.7	0.70
IAR	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7

* Additionally, .05 mm/hr domestic lawn watering was applied over the summer months.

** Similarly, .23 mm/hr domestic irrigation water was applied over the summer months plus .115 mm/hr over the winter period.

As it was the aim of the long term continuous modelling exercise to find a pattern to express, in particular, pre-storm burst antecedence, several sets of statistics were derived and included in the output. As model runs were carried out on an annual basis, purely for data size and computer storage reasons, the summarised statistical data was also expressed in annual terms where appropriate.

Table 4-5 summarises for 'Dry Grass' abstracted output data relating to 30, 60 and 120 min burst events between 1933 and 1970 excluding 1962-1965 inclusive, when data was unavailable due to instrument malfunction. The ARBM model

was run in annual data segments with each end of year store status transferred as input to the following year. As stated above the parameter set chosen was the dry grass one shown in Table 4-4 and the rainfall was taken from the Yarralumla Station. Table 4-5 therefore represents a semi-continuous simulated run over 33 years using Yarralumla rainfall and evaporation transposed over the pertinent section of the Giralang catchment.

TABLE 4-5 Annual Maximum Rainfall (Yarralumla) and Annual Maximum Simulated Pervious* Excess Statistics

YEAR	30 MIN BURST		60 MIN BURST		120 MIN BURST	
	Date Rain	Date Excess *	Date Rain	Date Excess *	Date Rain	Date Excess *
1933	Nov 18 9.74	Sep 1 2.83	Nov 18 18.05	Sep 1 4.69	Nov 18 19.92	Sep 1 7.09
1934	Jan 29 17.62	Oct 25 10.23	Oct 25 22.78	Oct 25 19.10	Mar 17 26.37	Oct 25 20.13
1935	Nov 13 17.16	Dec 3 6.80	Nov 13 17.65	Dec 3 6.90	Jan 12 20.36	Apr 14 9.57
1936	Dec 2 6.90	Aug 3 1.21	Jan 4 8.23	Aug 3 2.43	Aug 3 10.57	Aug 3 4.86
1937	Dec 27 10.37	Oct 16 8.43	Oct 16 13.08	Oct 16 10.03	Oct 16 16.95	Oct 16 10.21
1938	Feb 22 16.83	Feb 22 8.49	Feb 22 25.08	Feb 22 9.20	Feb 22 29.93	Feb 22 9.20
1939	Jan 20 19.46	Jan 20 14.42	Jan 20 22.84	Jan 20 15.51	Jan 20 25.11	Jan 20 15.51
1940	Apr 12 17.26	Apr 12 15.71	Apr 12 23.18	Apr 12 19.97	Apr 7 31.32	Apr 12 24.06
1941	Jan 16 7.56	Jan 3 3.32	Jan 1 10.26	Jan 3 5.49	Jan 16 15.84	Jan 3 7.98
1942	Mar 9 18.13	Mar 9 3.31	Mar 9 27.00	Jun 19 4.44	Mar 9 30.22	Jun 19 5.33
1943	Dec 18 18.72	Dec 18 6.94	Dec 18 18.86	Dec 18 7.63	Dec 18 20.90	Apr 13 9.15
1944	Jan 1 15.71	Jul 4 3.53	Jan 1 15.69	Jul 4 3.53	Nov 24 18.76	Jul 4 3.53
1945	Feb 19 21.95	Apr 9 7.75	Feb 19 27.47	Apr 9 13.07	Feb 19 32.38	Apr 9 20.88
1946	Apr 22 8.65	Nov 19 4.82	Apr 22 12.18	Jan 18 5.45	Apr 22 17.45	Jan 18 7.97
1947	Dec 15 24.59	Dec 15 22.97	Dec 15 38.92	Dec 15 35.37	Dec 15 41.35	Dec 15 35.37
1948	Jan 27 21.66	May 3 10.42	Jan 27 27.00	May 3 18.42	Feb 15 31.28	May 3 22.59
1949	Nov 21 7.54	Nov 21 5.81	Nov 21 13.82	Nov 21 10.05	Nov 21 20.03	Nov 21 10.82
1950	Mar 22 13.33	Mar 22 10.38	Nov 9 17.15	Mar 22 12.29	Nov 9 30.08	Nov 9 23.04
1951	Feb 23 11.74	Feb 23 3.97	Oct 3 13.91	Aug 3 4.28	Oct 3 18.56	Aug 3 6.26
1952	Dec 28 13.53	Mar 20 7.58	Dec 28 16.84	Mar 20 10.46	Mar 21 21.04	Mar 21 13.28
1953	Apr 13 9.47	May 4 3.13	Apr 13 12.12	May 5 5.69	May 5 15.64	May 5 8.66

TABLE 4-5 (Continued)

YEAR	30 MIN BURST		60 MIN BURST		120 MIN BURST	
	Date Rain	Date Excess *	Date Rain	Date Excess *	Date Rain	Date Excess *
1954	Jan 19 30.23	Jan 19 14.81	Jan 19 32.48	Jan 19 14.81	Jan 19 33.02	Jan 19 14.81
1955	Oct 21 36.50	Oct 21 25.63	Oct 21 49.47	Oct 21 34.91	Oct 21 67.31	Oct 21 45.37
1956	Feb 14 14.82	Mar 12 6.26	Feb 14 16.30	Mar 12 11.20	Mar 12 24.09	Mar 12 18.08
1957	Jan 22 16.99	Jul 10 3.20	Jan 22 19.02	Jul 10 3.23	Jan 22 19.05	Jul 10 3.44
1958	Mar 8 20.99	Apr 16 14.38	Mar 8 30.69	Apr 16 16.53	Apr 16 38.04	Apr 16 19.59
1959	Feb 11 18.44	Mar 2 14.04	Feb 11 26.93	Mar 2 14.29	Feb 11 29.63	Oct 20 15.21
1960	Dec 15 13.98	Nov 18 3.10	Dec 15 17.22	Dec 2 5.10	Dec 15 22.60	Dec 2 5.26
1961	Nov 19 12.61	Nov 19 10.05	Nov 19 18.63	Nov 19 13.93	Mar 1 25.67	Mar 1 19.73
Missing Record 1962-1965						
1966	Feb 16 17.84	Feb 16 7.47	Feb 16 27.51	Feb 16 8.83	Feb 16 28.98	Feb 16 8.83
1967	Jan 29 4.59	Jan 26 0.20	Jan 29 7.13	Jan 26 0.40	Jan 29 10.49	Jan 26 0.81
1968	Mar 24 21.11	Dec 25 7.03	Mar 24 23.67	Dec 25 8.46	Mar 24 23.87	Dec 25 8.99
1969	Apr 5 12.77	Apr 15 10.74	Apr 15 20.64	Apr 15 16.99	Apr 15 28.99	Apr 15 22.48
1970	Nov 7 22.70	Nov 7 5.80	Nov 7 28.58	Nov 11 8.11	Nov 7 32.18	Nov 11 9.11

All results in mm.

* Pervious excess rainfall results based on dry grass parameter set.

Figure 4-8 shows in graphical form the relationship between pre-burst rainfall as found over the period of record.

As can be seen the correlation between previous 30 day, 5 day and even 1 day rainfalls and following storm bursts and runoff magnitudes is very low. It would appear that the use of such indexes as previously proposed would not bare out in these instances. This is thought to be due to the shortness of the events being investigated.

Table 4-6 shows predicted annual upper soil storage values for the dry grass parameter set, as well as the reference one.

Annual maximum upper storage moisture levels (US) were extracted for both the summer and winter periods to test seasonal sensitivity. Table 4-6 shows a general tendency for lower summer values than winter although the differences are not great. This was generally in agreement with observed data. Rainfall intensity parameters followed the opposite trend with higher summer than winter values. See Pierrehumbert (1974).

As can be also seen from Table 4-6 upper store saturation using the reference set was the exception rather than the rule. This was due mainly to the infiltration capacity attributed by the reference parameter set. Table 4-3 lists the parameter set derived from three years of simulation on the Gungahlin rural catchment. Based on this latter parameter set catchment saturation levels were observed in the simulated run on much more frequent occasions, certainly more frequent than annually.

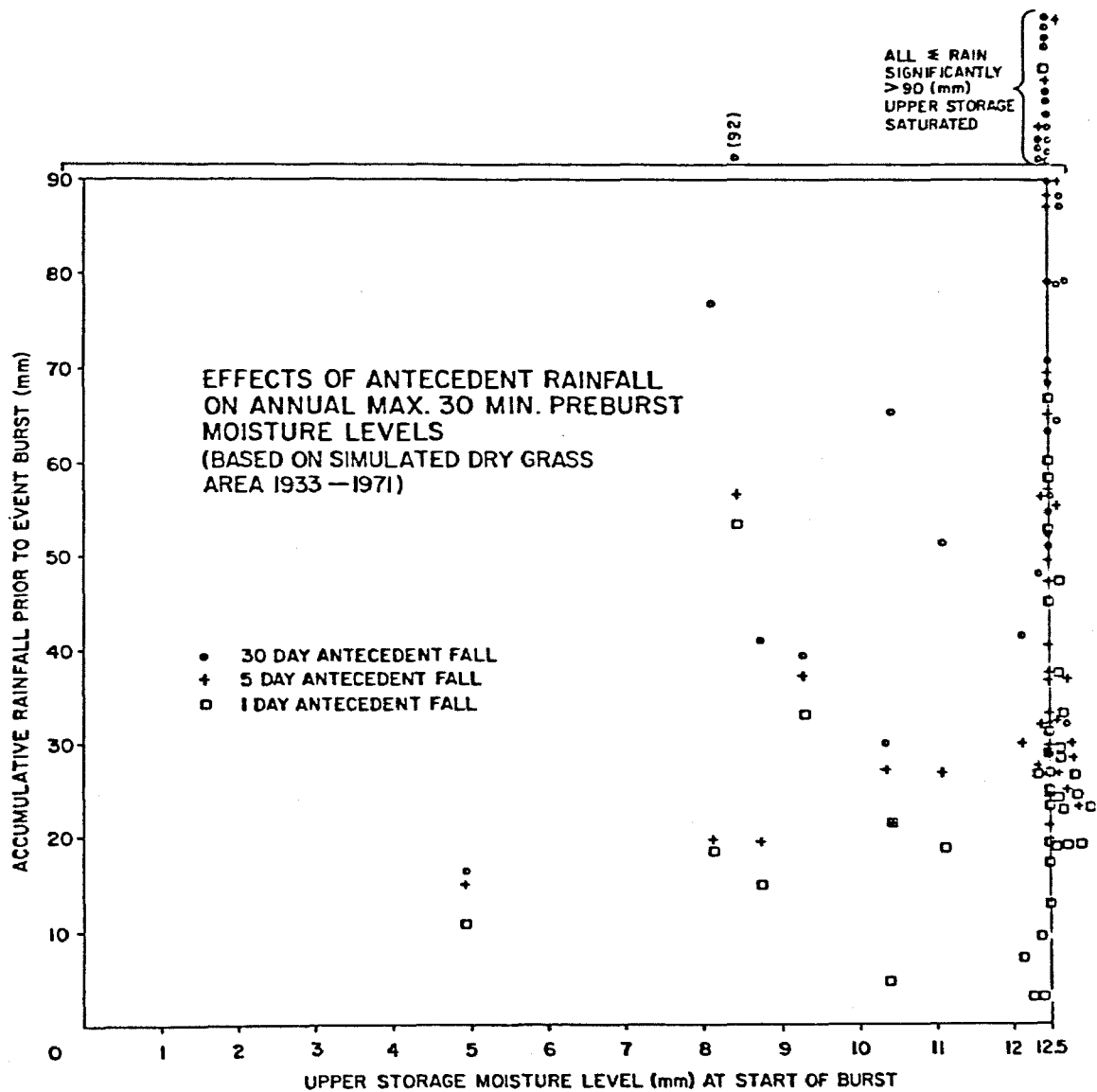


FIGURE 4-8 Antecedent Rainfall - Pre Burst Moisture Scatter Diagram for Simulated Max. Annual Pervious Runoff Events.

TABLE 4-6
Maximum Annual Upper Soil Storage Levels 1933-1969

Year	REF SET		DRY GRASS		FORESTED AREA	
	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter
1933	4.35	7.30	12.49999	12.49999	5.05	10.02
1944	5.83	10.52	12.49999	12.49999	9.96	12.49999
1935	6.47	7.40	12.49999	12.49999	7.87	10.29
1936	5.38	7.20	12.49999	12.49999	7.85	9.75
1937	3.08	6.22	12.49999	12.49999	7.76	8.06
1938	4.88	5.05	12.49999	12.49999	6.15	6.31
1939	5.93	6.91	12.49999	12.49999	9.04	7.47
1940	10.11	6.66	12.49999	12.49999	12.49999	7.64
1941	7.08	3.00	12.49991	12.11	12.48	3.66
1942	2.61	7.56	12.49999	12.49999	5.19	9.71
1943	5.39	6.08	12.49999	12.49999		
1944	3.36	3.85	12.49999	12.49999		
1945	7.54	4.61	12.49999	12.49999		
1946	4.67	6.28	12.49999	12.49999		
1947	10.11	6.87	12.49999	12.49999	N	N
1948	11.22	12.37	12.49999	12.49999	O	O
1949	4.33	6.67	12.49999	12.49999	T	T
1950	12.49999*	12.49999	12.49999	12.49999		
1951	3.29	5.97	12.49999	12.49999	R	R
1952	8.53	9.30	12.49999	12.49999	U	U
1953	2.77	8.66	12.49999	12.49999	N	N
1954	4.63	4.57	12.49999	12.49999		
1955	4.75	8.16	12.49999	12.49999		
1956	8.59	12.42	12.49999	12.49999		
1957	3.75	4.12	12.49999	12.49999		
1958	8.35	8.11	12.49999	12.49999		
1959	8.20	12.11	12.49999	12.49999		
1960	6.22	6.52	12.49999	12.49999		
1961	9.22	11.22	12.49999	12.49999		
1966	5.92	5.87	12.49999	12.49999		
1967	3.26	4.30	12.49999	12.49999		
1968	6.08	9.76	12.49999	12.49999		
1969	9.04	9.81	12.49999	12.49999		

* 12.49999 = Effective Saturation

The ARBM modelling algorithms in fact do not allow the upper soil store to become fully saturated. The model operating in discrete time steps and the moisture storage being calculated at the end of the increment means that the last operation is an infiltration and redistribution movement from the upper store to the lower store thus preventing full saturation.

Rather than simply simulating excess runoff over an extended rainfall period and then carrying out a frequency analysis on the output, it was the objective of this thesis to gain from long term simulation an index or indexes suitable for a particular pervious catchment type that could be transposed between similar catchments. Although it was hoped that gauged catchments could be used to help calibrate modelling parameter sets it was also hoped that the normal non-transportability constraints of mixed pervious-impervious urban catchments frequency analyses could be overcome by isolating the separate major pervious and impervious inputs for use on other similar catchments with different area proportions. This would also allow subsequent analyses or designs to be made on an event basis rather than the more tedious and expensive continuous modelling basis.

It was plainly obvious that the traditional antecedent index based on previous rainfall over a defined period and a catchment parameter was unsatisfactory for urban runoff design analyses. Therefore it was proposed to define an antecedent moisture index based on the sequence of historical events to use in a design context.

4.2.2.3 Development of an Antecedent Moisture Index. An improved index would necessarily need to relate to the catchment parameters affecting the soil moisture profile both on a short as well as long term basis and would secondly need to describe in a statistical sense a relationship with the long term historical rainfall/runoff sequence.

Two antecedent Moisture indexes were proposed at this stage. The first was based on annual maximum upper soil store values. An annual series frequency analysis was carried out on this data to define appropriate frequency curves. Figure 4-9 shows the results of this analysis for the reference set plus the dry grass and forested parameter sets.

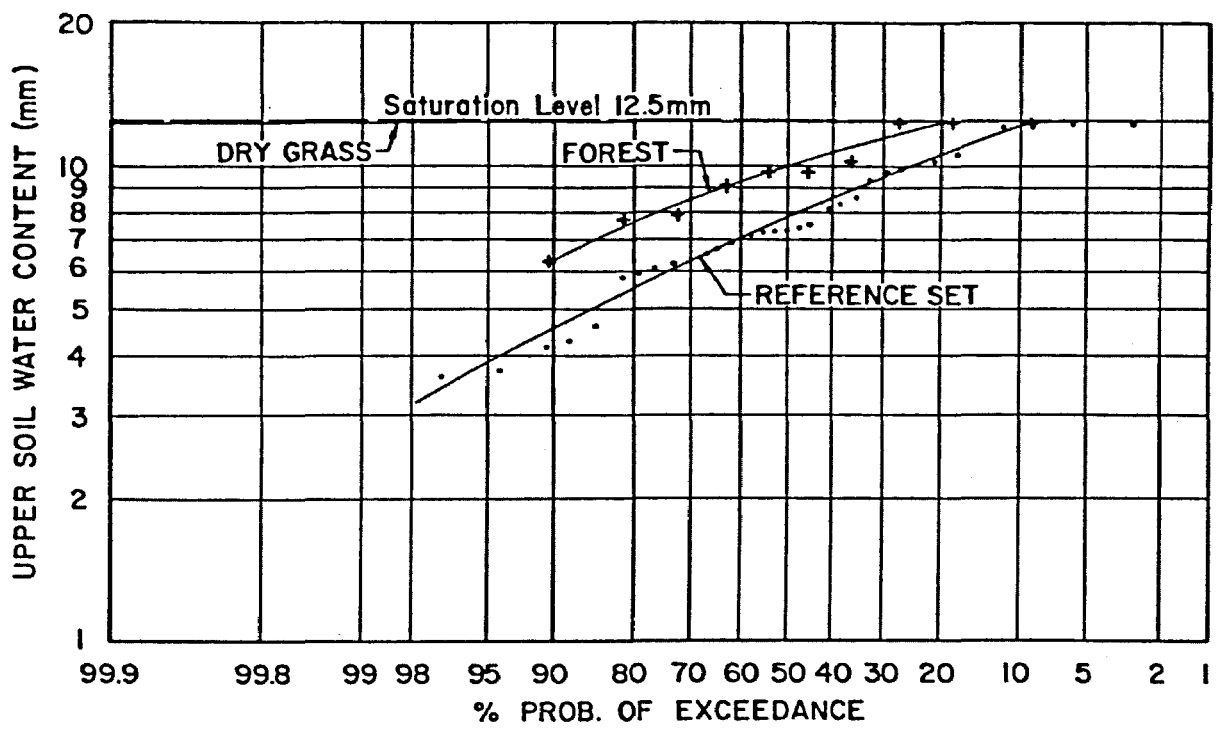


FIGURE 4-9 Probability Curves for Index Type I

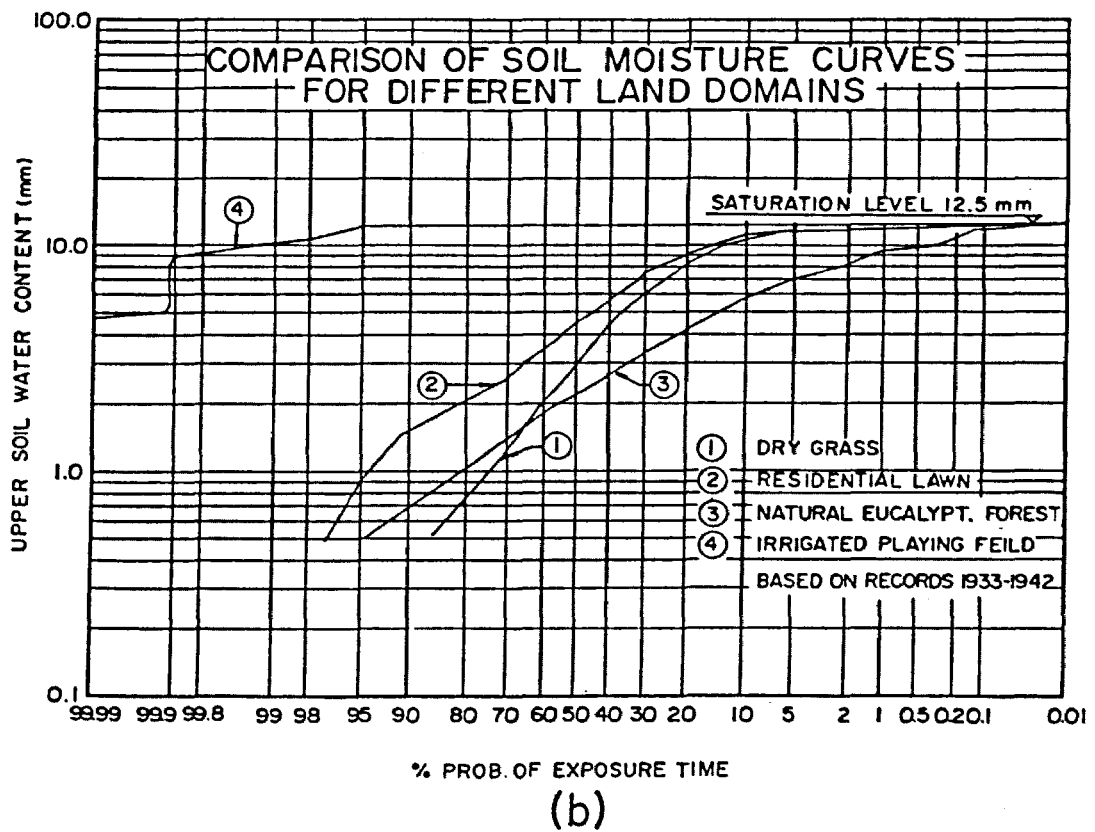
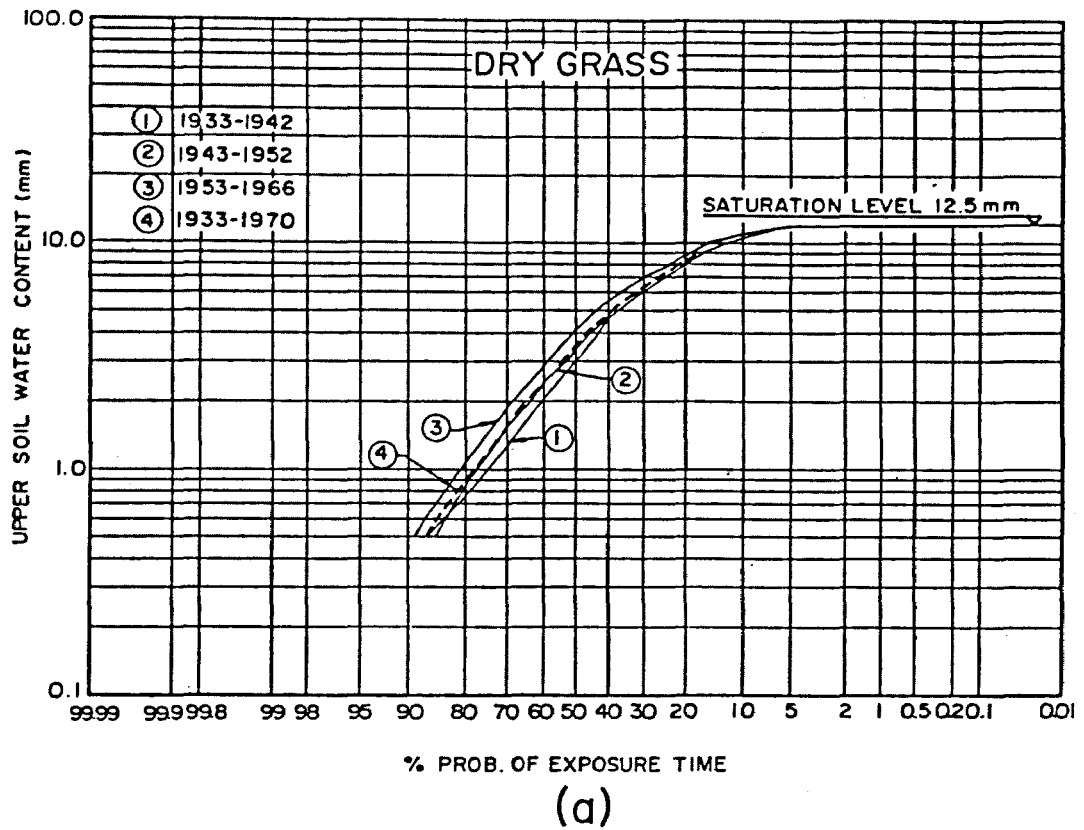


FIGURE 4-10 Probability Curves for Index Type II

The success of this index depended on the infrequent occurrence of near saturated upper soil storage contents. For bare clay soils or soils with grass cover with poor infiltration capacity this condition could often not be met. As a consequence this type of index was not proceeded with as its application could, being optimistic, only reflect highly pervious areas.

A second index was therefore proposed that would overcome this constraint. This was an index based on the total time of exposure of different magnitudes of upper soil moisture between dry and saturated in the historic/ simulated record. The upper soil moisture capacity was divided into discrete increments and the accumulated exposure time for each increment over the period of record calculated. A frequency analysis was carried out on this data to produce a similar frequency curve as for the first index that would however meet the constraint of sub-annual saturation. The resulting frequency curve for the 'dry grass' set is shown on Figure 4-10a.

The period of record was split into 10 year sequential periods to test the divergence in computed curves using shorter data periods. As can be seen on Figure 4-10a the divergence was only slight indicating that a period of record equal to 10 years was adequate to deduce a stable frequency curve index.

Figure 4-10b shows similar curves computed from 10 years of record 1933-1942 for the four land domains considered.

The sample output from the ARBM shown earlier in this chapter showed a typical curve analysis based on an annual set of results. The longer period curve was deduced by simply accumulating the values in the second column and calculating a total frequency distribution.

The second index defined the probability, at any time, of a certain class interval of moisture being present in the upper soil store based on an extended record period.

The next section of this chapter describes the development of model algorithms to make use of the index described.

4.2.3 Review of Existing Stochastic Deterministic Models.

As catchment wetness in addition to sorptivity, hydraulic conductivity and rainfall rate were found to be the most important parameters in the prediction of runoff supply, it was decided to attempt to collectively use the statistical nature of catchment wetness (expressed in terms of upper soil store moisture content) and rainfall rate with the deterministic infiltration process to develop an event based runoff model.

In this manner it was proposed to present a method whereby after an initial long term water balance analysis was carried out for the region, frequency based estimates would be possible, taking into account the combined effects of antecedent moisture and rainfall for design or analysis.

The basic principle behind this phase of the work was to incorporate joint probability theory to link rainfall and catchment wetness.

It was proposed to apply, if possible, a simplified joint probability technique combined with a deterministic element describing infiltration based on similar methods to those described by Laurenson (1974) for water resources systems and confluence studies.

The effects of catchment wetness on the estimation of excess rainfall for design events have been discussed by others, including Cordery (1970) described earlier, Larson (1965) and Beran (1973). Beran (1973) investigated the uncertainty of preserving the nominal rainfall return period in the design flood. He considered the sensitivity of flood magnitude to variations in return period, storm duration, temporal pattern, infiltration loss rate, base flow and unit hydrograph shape. The sensitivity analysis allowed for an estimate to be made of any quantity of the distribution of flood magnitude based on sampling across all significant rainfall events resulting in runoff and antecedent conditions.

A Catchment Wetness Index (CWI) was computed by Beran using the procedure described by the British Meteorological Office and a five day antecedent precipitation index (API5) using a daily decay constant of 0.5. The formula was:

$$\text{CWI} = 125 - \text{SMD} + \text{API5} \quad (4-1)$$

where SMD = soil moisture deficiency

Beran in a previous study (Beran & Sutcliffe, 1972) observed that wet day rainfall and SMD were statistically independent. He also noted that small changes in the CWI had a marked effect on the resulting flood.

Beran also used joint probability theory to carry out the analytical phase of his study.

Most of the work carried out by Beran as well as Cordery related to rural catchments and did not include the additional complications of urban systems.

Russel et al (1979) presented a similar joint probability approach to the estimation of design flows for an urban drainage study in Surrey, Canada. They presented the following equation to estimate flow peaks:

$$P(Q) = \sum_{i,j,k} P(Q, T_i, V_j, I_k) p(T_i) p(V_j) p(I_k) \quad (4-2)$$

where $P(Q, T_i, V_j, I_k)$ = conditional probability of Q being exceeded given that T_i , V_j , and I_k occur; and $p(T_i)$, $p(V_j)$, $p(I_k)$ = probabilities of T_i , V_j , and I_k occurring. The probabilities were assumed to be independent of one another. T = time of concentration, I = infiltration rate (mm/hr) and V = basin storage constant for an assumed linear reservoir.

In general, Russel et al used a simple rainfall/runoff model (Clarke, 1943) to analyse sixty major storms in the fifteen years of rainfall record. These storms were run through the model using a standard basin time/area curve for each of 120 different combinations of the parameters T , I and V . The resulting peak flows per unit area for each combination were then plotted on Gumbel probability paper (one plotted line for each combination). From there probabilities of exceedance of fifty (50) specified flows were measured. The exceedance probabilities were stored in matrix form with fifty (50) rows - one for each of the specified peak flows and 120 columns - one for each combination of T , I and V .

From the stored data, probabilities of exceedance of the stored flows in any particular drainage basin could be computed if probability distributions of the parameters T , I and V were provided using the above equation.

The method was arranged to accept either probable high and low estimates, or single values of each parameter. It appeared therefore that it was necessary for the designer to supply estimates of T , I , and V , all of which in the form described are somewhat difficult to estimate and even more difficult to physically measure.

The methods proposed by Russel et al showed the necessity to consider the statistical components of the major parameters in the rainfall/runoff process where accurate design estimates were to be made. The method as described, although referring to an urban catchment, considered a watershed as a lumped unit rather than the accumulation of individual land domains proposed in this thesis.

4.2.4 Development of SDRRM Model

This chapter draws on a number of the aspects from the preceding author's work to combine the stochastic components of soil moisture and rainfall intensities (based on local measured and simulated data) with the deterministic infiltration component currently used in the Regional Stormwater Drainage Model, RSWM, to obtain excess rainfall and flood frequency distributions. The methods were to incorporate the different land domains described earlier and be capable of assessing imbedded storm bursts. The model was called a Stochastic/Deterministic Rainfall/Runoff Model (SDRRM).

The model development generally followed the techniques described by Laurenson (1974) involving the use of joint probabilities and the formulation of appropriate transformation matrices to link the probabilities of occurrence of the various input parameters together.

The approach recognised the roles of both the stochastic and deterministic components in the analysis. The deterministic component in this thesis consisted of Philip's infiltration algorithms and the combined moisture storages defined in the ARBM.

In summary the modelling system proposed, shown diagrammatically on Figure 4-11, had as input (Rainfall "R") and output (Excess Rainfall or Peak Runoff "Qo"). The input was transformed to the output by a transformation function representing the deterministic components of the system. In this case the transformation depended also upon the value of an additional input defined here as a "parameter" (Antecedent Moisture "M"). Input, output and the parameter were the stochastic elements of the system and had probability distributions.

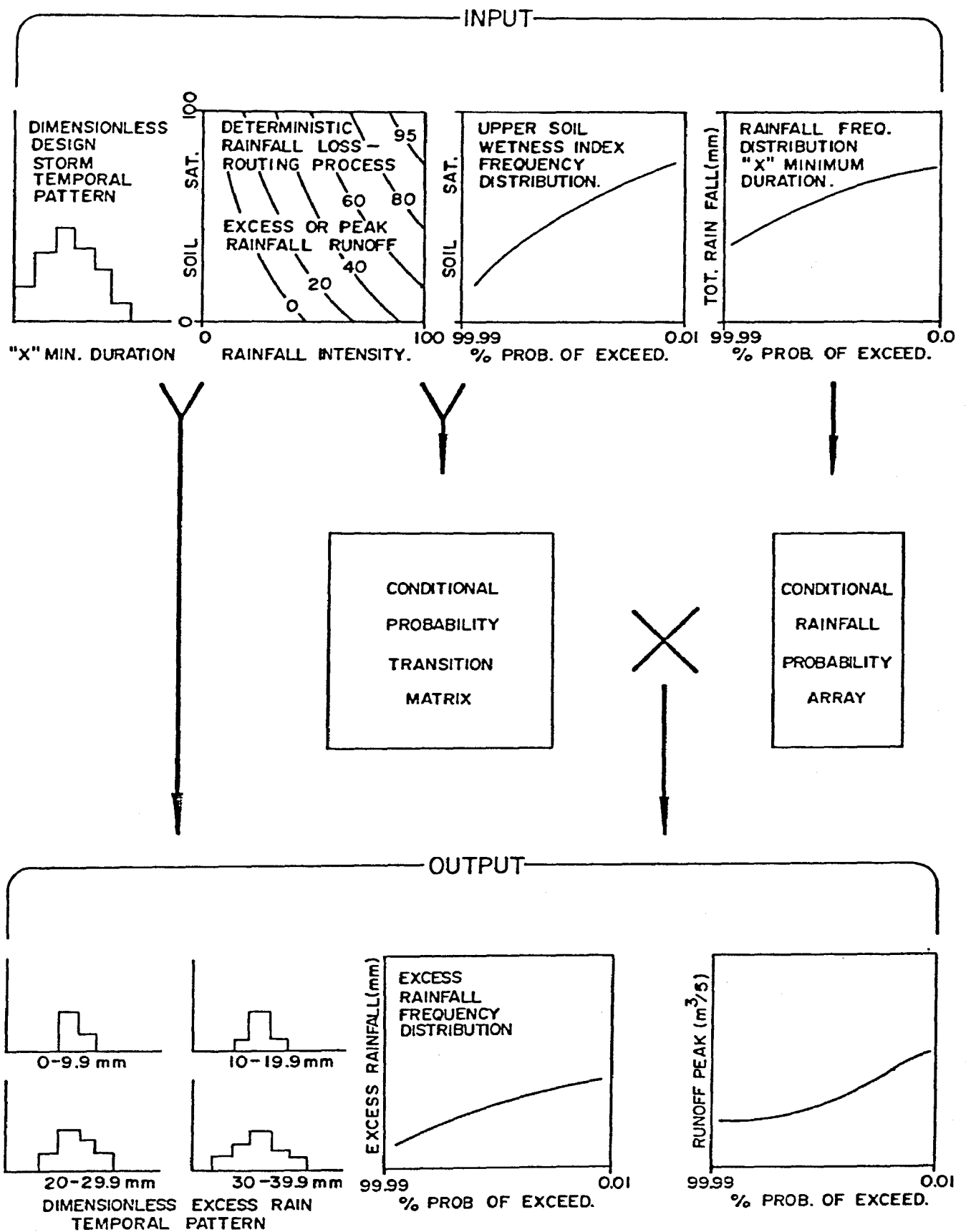


FIGURE 4-11 Digrammatic Representation of the SDRRM Model

Using Laurenson's definition, the system here was a concentrative determinate process with one independent parameter.

The probability distribution R and M was determined by frequency analysis based on recorded and/or simulated data described earlier where M equalled the antecedent moisture Index.

The deterministic transformation was derived from a matrix of rainfall vs excess rainfall and peak runoff for a range of antecedent conditions from dry to saturated based on the ARBM infiltration algorithms and the RSWM.

Based on the above matrix, conditional probabilities of the parameter M for a range of (excess rainfall or peak runoff) total rainfall amounts could be deduced.

The objects of the model as proposed were to determine the probability distribution of flood peaks and/or runoff volume (q_{0j}) from a known probability distribution of rainfall of duration D and a known probability distribution of soil moisture representing catchment antecedent moisture (m_k) and a known deterministic transformation to relate rainfall to excess rainfall or peak runoff.

Model output (Q_0) was achieved by the matrix multiplication of an input probability distribution $R = (r_j)$ with a matrix of transition probabilities $A = [a_{ji}]$ defined by the estimation of conditional probabilities for a range of excess rainfalls or runoff peaks and a range of antecedent conditions, ie:

$$Q_0 = A \times R \quad (4-3)$$

or $(q_{0j})_m = [a_{ji}]_m \times (r_j)_f \quad (4-4)$

where m and f are the dimensions of the vectors representing the probability distributions of output and input respectively.

The matrix A reflects the deterministic component of the system. Based on the work carried out by Beran and Sutcliffe, (1972) it was assumed that antecedent moisture content (M) and the following rainfall distributions were independent events.

As defined, the output Q equaled the multiplication of the input with a matrix of transition probabilities A, the latter being defined as follows:

$$A = a_{ji} = Pr (q_0 = Q_{0j} / r = R_j) \quad (4-5)$$

Any particular value of the antecedent moisture parameter m gave a one to one transformation of r to q. The conditional distribution of q given $r = R_j$ consisted of unity and a set of zeroes, ie, a concentrative process.

There was a conditional distribution of q_0 not only for each possible value of r but also for each possible value of m . Each possible value of m , say M_k had a certain probability m_k . Therefore the probabilities a_{ji} became:

$$a_{ji} = \sum_k b_{jik} \times m_k \quad (4-6)$$

where b_{jik} is the conditional probability of an output Q_0j given input R_i and a parameter value M_k , ie:

$$b_{jik} = P_r (q_0 = Q_0j/r = R_i, m = M_k) \quad (4-7)$$

Figures 4-12(a), (b), (c), (d), (e) and (f) describe the typical process.

Figures 4-3 and 4-10 show typical exceedance probability distributions for rainfall (R) and an antecedent moisture index (M). The rainfall distributions are in respect to the Canberra region and of 18,30,60 and 120 minute durations respectively.

A typical output from the SDRRM is given below for a 30 minute duration event on an urban catchment with 75% dry grass and 25% impervious content in Canberra, together with a program listing and input data stream.

Figure 4-12(a) shows matrices indicating the relationship between rainfall and excess rainfall.

Figure 4-12(b) represents the transition matrix A with individual elements calculated using equation 4-6 and Figure 4-10 by equating r and q to give M_k . m_k was then deduced from Figure 4-10 with $m = M_k$.

Conditional probabilities were then deduced from the above exceedance probabilities to form the a_{ji} elements of the transition matrix.

Figure 4-12(c) shows the transition matrix A together with the rainfall conditional probabilities corresponding to the values of R_i shown. The matrix multiplication of $A \times R$ provided the required output Q_0 , the excess rainfall or peak runoff conditional probability array.

Figure 4-12(d) shows the output of Figure 4-12(c) converted to exceedance probabilities.


```

1 SUBROUTINE LRRN(IH,LLI,LLJ)
2 LADREKSON=UNDEFY 'NOOTIC MODEL'
3 REAL RR,RR2,S
4 COMMON IUB(I),SC(1440,3),ERTP(I),TJ
5 COMMON ACAT,FINP,BI,SP,UI,UP,SLPI,SLPP,IDUB,IRLN,LENGN,RODUB
6 DIMENSION F(1440,10),FD(1440)
7 SPAND EXCEED RAINFALL TEMPORAL PATTERNS
8 RAINFALL=ICHTV7/IRLN
9 DT=IRLN/60.
10 DTV=LENGN/IDUB
11 KZ=DTV/IRLN
12 DO 600 J=1,10
13 KZ1=1
14 RT=J*60.
15 DO 700 I=1,IDUB
16 DO 701 L=KZ1,KZ2
17 F(L,J)=ERTP(I,IRN)/KIDASUB(J)*IRLN/6.0
18 CONTINUE
19 701 RT=RT+60.
20 600 CONTINUE
21 IF(IUB,EO,3) GO TO 301
22 I=ACAT/IRN/100.
23 B=BI
24 SC=SLPP
25 GO TO 602
26 PREVIOUS RUS
27 I=ACAT*(1-FINP)/100.
28 B=SP
29 SC=SLPP
30 I=UP
31 IF(IUB,CT,3) GO TO 303
32 B=2052000.52/(1.0+U)*91.0723/(SC*60.699)
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INPUT DATA

30 MIN STORE DRY BRASS										CATCHMENT PARAMETER SET									
50	1.0	1.0	12.8	12.80	10.	10.	.7	.7		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	.25	0.0	0.0	1.00	12.29	0.	1.0	1.0		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
.8	.15	17.20	1.0	.05	.94	.7	.7			3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2100.	0	02.	01.8	1.5	300	1			4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10			5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
20	20	4	8	18	18	18	18			6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
30	14	.25	.25	.19	.07					7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
40	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.			8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
50	9.	10.	11.	12.8	12.0	12.8	12.8			9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
60	20.	20.	20.	40.	40.	40.	70.			10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
70	100.	110.	120.	130.	140.	150.	150.			11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
80	80.	80.	80.	80.	80.	80.	80.			12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
90										13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
100										14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
101										15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15

Prob. of Exceed.
data - Rainfall
Moisture

CATCHMENT CHARACTERISTICS
AREA
SLOPE
URBANISATION
ROUTING COEF.
ISOCRONAL AREAS

RAINFALL/MOISTURE
MATRIX DIMENSIONS

OUTPUT

30 MM STORM EXCESS RUNOFF SUMMARY													
PERIOD	DUR HRS	TOT RAIN	POT EVAP	EXCESS	DEP S	UPPER S	LOWER S	CRNDW S	RIMP	INF	EXHAIR P	ROIST	EXHAIR W CDR
1	.10	3.00	0.00	3.00	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	.01	15.29	2.56	0.00	1.30 1.3
2	.10	6.25	0.00	6.25	1.00	5.25	0.00	0.00	.01	10.22	4.25	0.00	1.13 1.6
3	.10	8.75	0.00	8.75	1.00	7.75	0.00	0.00	.01	7.46	7.06	.39	1.73 2.6
4	.10	4.75	0.00	4.75	1.00	3.75	0.00	0.00	.01	8.26	3.26	0.00	1.43 2.0
5	.10	2.75	0.00	2.75	1.00	1.75	0.00	0.00	.01	9.37	2.37	0.00	1.29 1.8

Three Selected Storm burst Summaries.

30 MM STORM EXCESS RUNOFF SUMMARY													
PERIOD	DUR HRS	TOT RAIN	POT EVAP	EXCESS	DEP S	UPPER S	LOWER S	CRNDW S	RIMP	INF	EXHAIR P	ROIST	EXHAIR W CDR
1	.10	10.25	0.00	10.25	1.00	9.25	0.00	0.00	.20	.20	.20	0.00	1.0 1.7
2	.10	18.75	0.00	18.75	1.00	17.75	0.00	0.00	.20	.30	.30	0.00	1.0 1.8
3	.10	24.25	0.00	24.25	1.00	23.25	0.00	0.00	.20	.30	.30	0.00	1.0 1.8
4	.10	14.25	0.00	14.25	1.00	13.25	0.00	0.00	.20	.30	.30	0.00	1.0 1.8
5	.10	8.25	0.00	8.25	1.00	7.25	0.00	0.00	.20	.30	.30	0.00	1.0 1.8

Part (i)

Deterministic Excess Rainfall Matrix. (a)

TEMPORAL PARTITIONS EXPRESSED IN FRACTIONS													
RANGE	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS	STD DEVS
RANGE 0.0 TO 9.9 HR	.0712	.0275	.1926	.2430	.0055								
RANGE 10.0 TO 19.9 HR	.0524	.0524	.1812	.0461	.0215	.0537							
RANGE 20.0 TO 29.9 HR	.0524	.0489	.0427	.0155	.0084								
RANGE 30.0 TO 39.9 HR	.0584	.0249	.0197	.0113	.0038								
RANGE 40.0 TO 49.9 HR	.0435	.0211	.0277	.0117	.0029								
RANGE 50.0 TO 59.9 HR	.0719	.0259	.0268	.0274	.0057								
RANGE 60.0 TO 69.9 HR	.0974	.0219	.0248	.0039	.0020								
RANGE 70.0 TO 79.9 HR	.1246	.0275	.0236	.0053	.0050								

Excess Temporal Partitions

0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Conditional Prob. Transition Matrix													
0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Cond. Rainfall Prob. Cond. Runoff Prob.

(c)

FIGURE 4-12 SDRRM Model Output

Table with columns: EXCESS RUNOFF FREQUENCY CURVE, MM, RUNOFF PEAK PROB. Handwritten text: Exceedance, Runoff Peak, Prob, (d)

Table with columns: RESULTS BASED ON THE AUSTRALIAN DEPRECIATION MODEL WITH THE FOLLOWING PARAMETERS AND DATA VARIABLES. Includes handwritten text: Part(ii), Deterministic, Runoff Peak, Matrix, (a)

(b)

Table with multiple columns of numerical data, likely representing a matrix or transition probabilities.

Cond. Rainfall Prob. Cond. Runoffs Peak Prob.

Table with columns: Conditional Prob. Transition Matrix. Includes handwritten text: (c)

Table with columns: EXCESS RUNOFF FREQUENCY CURVE, RUNOFF PEAK PROB, RANGE, MEAN DEPTH. Handwritten text: Exceedance, Flood Freq. Curve.

FIGURE 4-12 (Continued)

The model currently assesses in the first instance excess rainfall in the terms of a frequency distribution together with averaged excess rainfall hyetographs for incremental ranges, then on a second pass computes runoff peaks at the catchment outlet based on a separate pervious/impervious catchment routing using the Laurenson runoff routing module from the RSWM as shown on Figure 4-13 for each of the locations in the matrix.

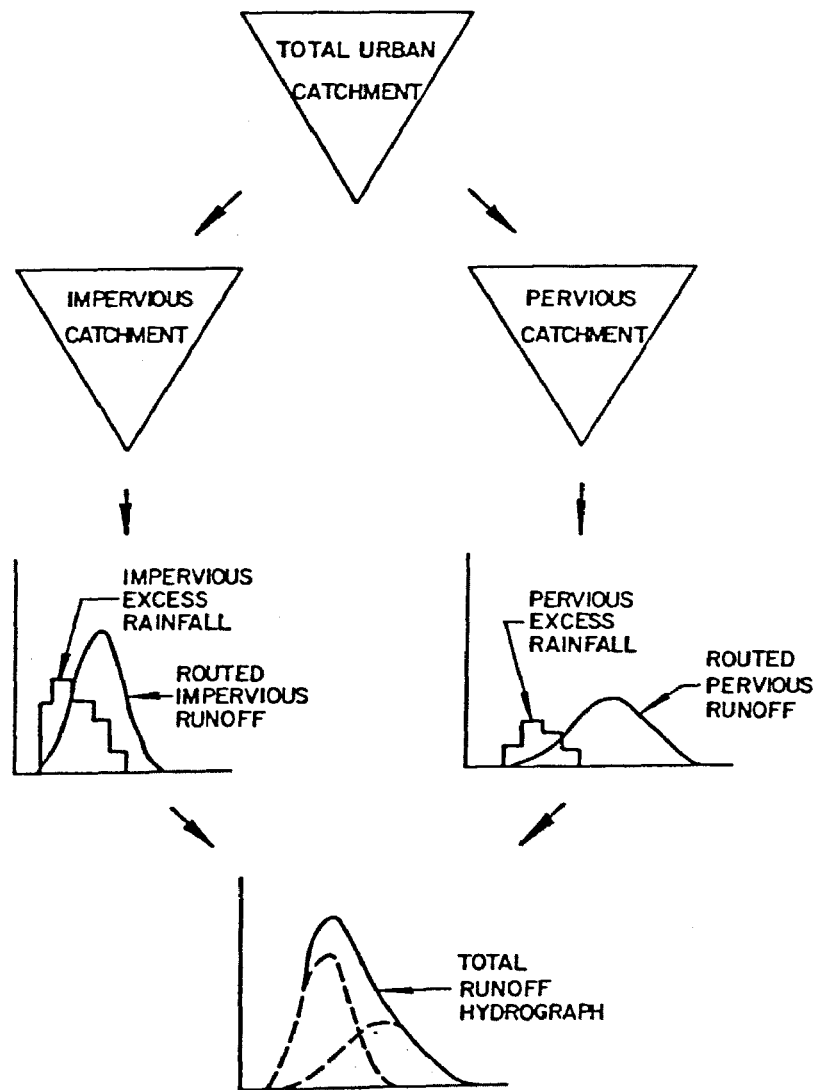


FIGURE 4-13 Flow Diagram of SDRRM Routing Operations

4.2.5 Results from SDRRM.

The combined stochastic/deterministic model described is proposed as a suitable replacement to traditional rainfall loss models being particularly suited to frequency based excess rainfall estimates as well as the estimation of runoff frequency curves for both rural and urban catchments.

Figure 4-11 provides a diagrammatic representation of the proposed model to be used in a design environment. As can be appreciated from the figure, the input consists of four elements, namely a design storm temporal pattern, an antecedent moisture frequency distribution, a rainfall frequency distribution and deterministic matrices relating excess rainfall and hydrographs with total rainfall corresponding to variations in pre-burst antecedent moisture. Output from the model is in two parts (see figure 4-12), firstly an excess rainfall frequency distribution together with a range of excess rain temporal patterns. The range of excess temporal patterns is an extension of the singular rainfall temporal pattern. This comes about by the fact that there are a large number of different variations in temporal patterns able to provide equal magnitudes of total excess rainfall. It has been possible to rank the patterns into ranges of excess rainfall and thereby reduce the total number of possible shapes required in a design estimate.

Excess patterns for a particular range were deduced by averaging all the excess patterns deduced in the transition matrix analysis with totals within the range after reducing the ordinates to dimensionless values.

The proposed procedure differed from conventional loss subtraction methods in so much as after the selection of an appropriate design frequency and event duration one simply abstracted the appropriate excess rainfall volume and corresponding excess rainfall temporal pattern from the model output.

Part(ii) of the output (see figure 4-12) was set out similarly to the first part, however, in this instance it gave a peak runoff frequency distribution rather than an excess rainfall frequency curve.

It must be appreciated that it is not strictly correct to use an individual excess rainfall to compute the same frequency runoff peak by routing as for the excess rainfall curve the peak frequency curve is a statistical distribution and can occur from a number of varying excess rainfall magnitudes and temporal patterns.

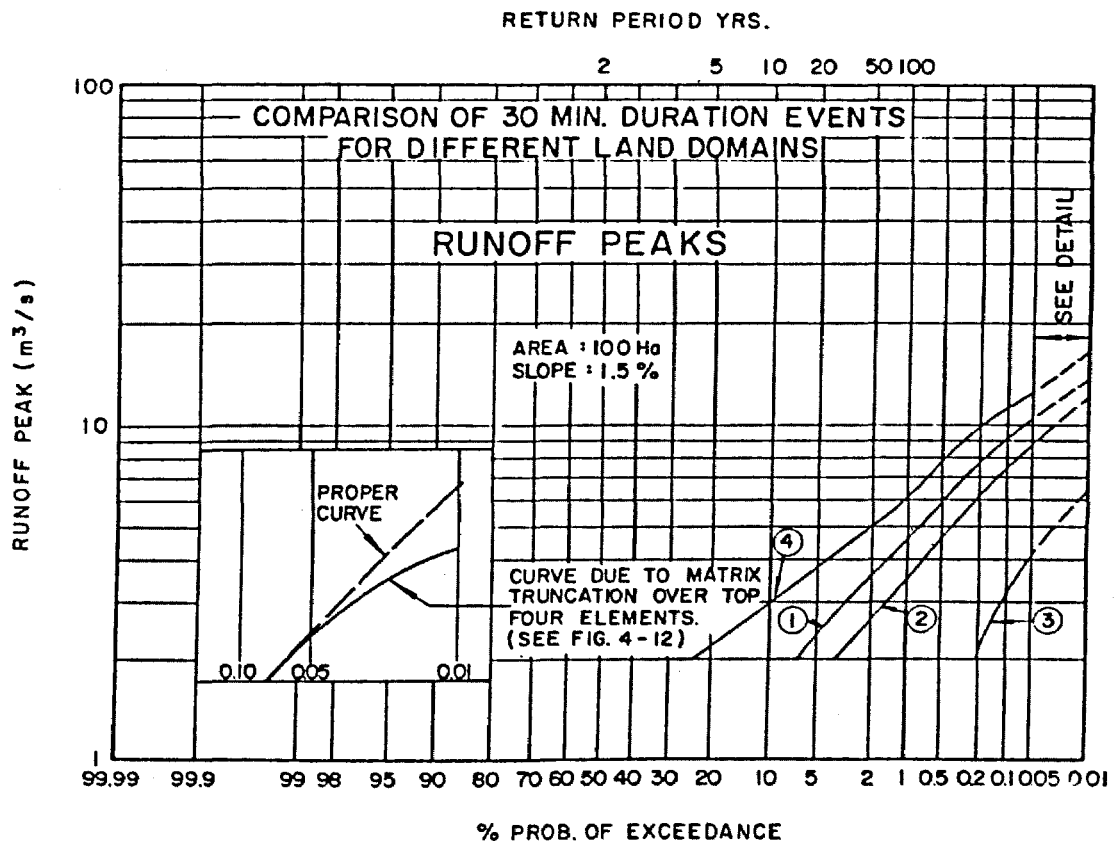
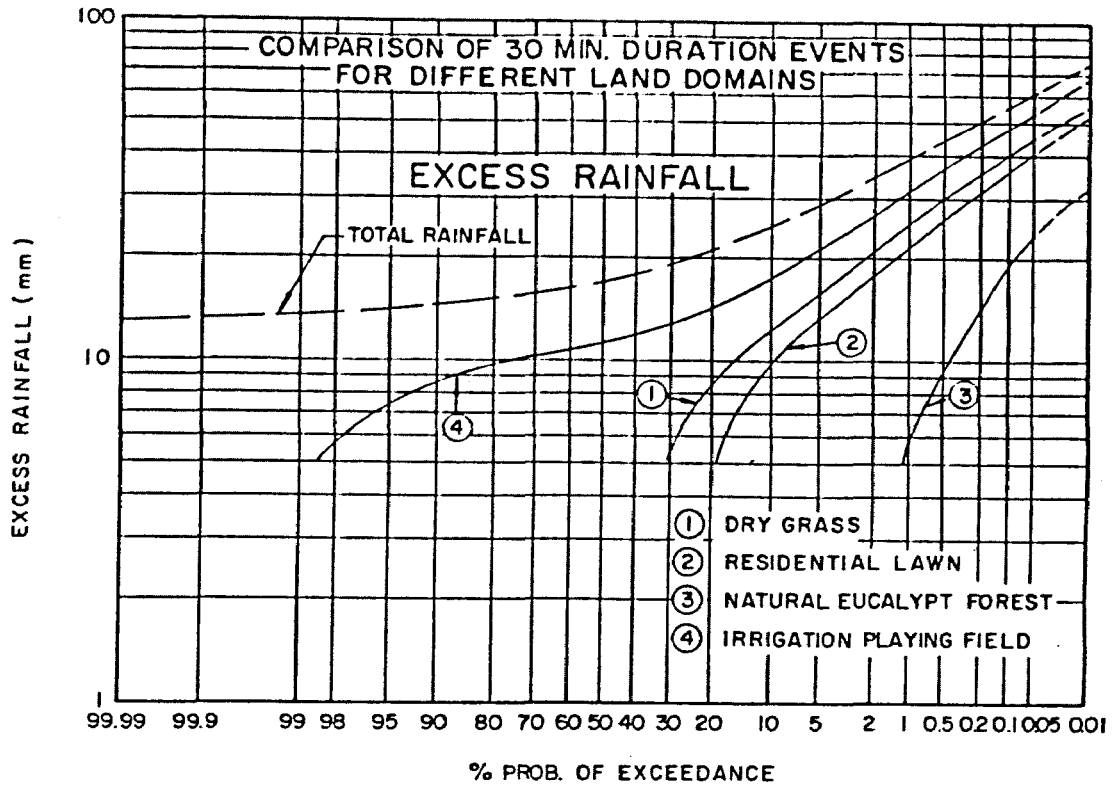


FIGURE 4-14 Simulated Excess Rainfall and Runoff Peaks for Different Land Domains

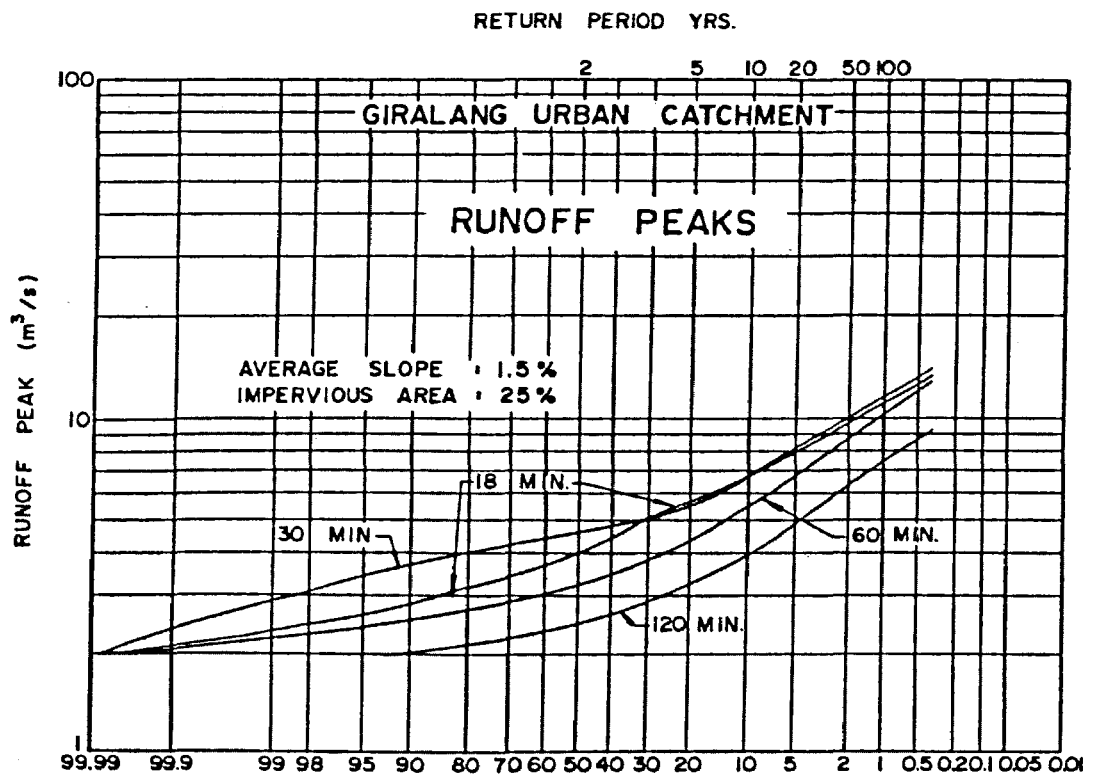
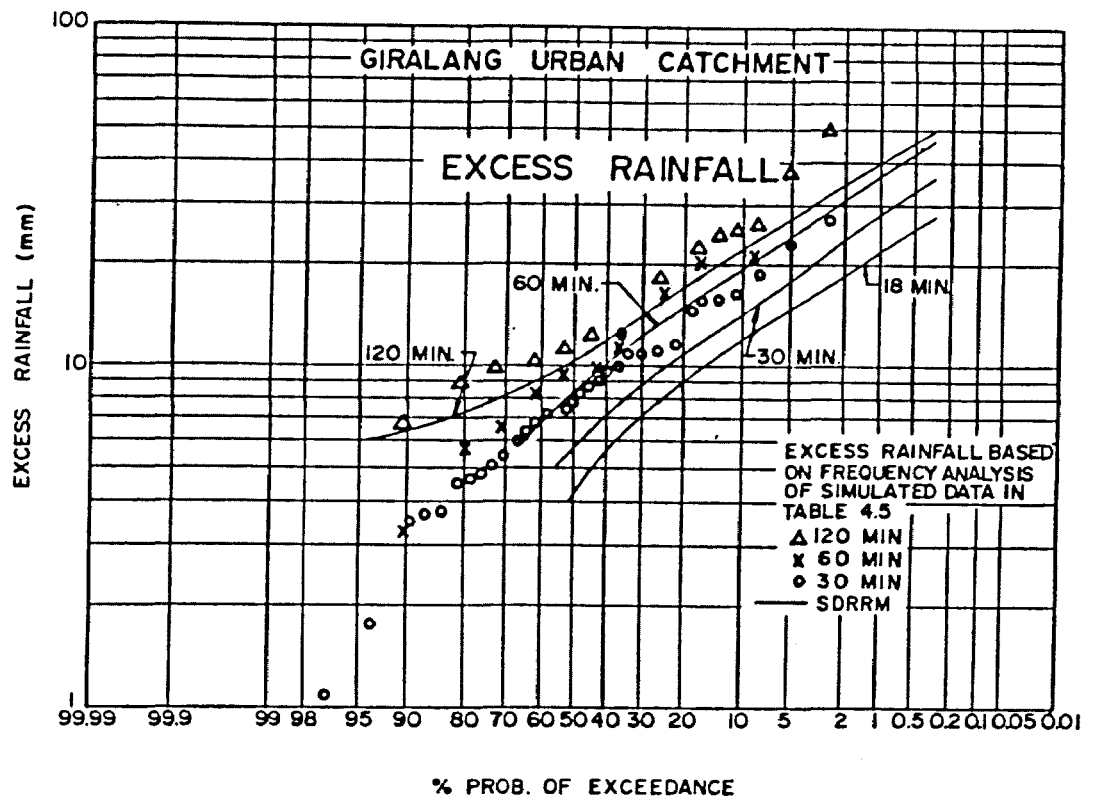


FIGURE 4-15 Simulated Excess Rainfall and Runoff Peaks for Giralang

Figure 4-14 shows the results of the SDRRM model for a typical catchment of 100 hectares and average slope of 1.5% for the four different land domains studied.

The advantages of the SDRRM model, for the determination of excess rainfall, over more conventional initial loss and continuing loss methods was that the indeterminacy of appropriate loss rate was removed from the procedure. Resulting excess rainfall magnitudes and distributions should therefore reflect suitable design events for a required frequency.

Figure 4-15 shows the results for the Giralang urban catchment for events ranging in duration from 18 through 120 minutes. The results were based on the 75% pervious areas being represented by the dry grass parameter set.

Figure 4-15 also shows the results of a frequency analysis based on annual maximum excess rainfalls shown on Table 4-5 to derive excess frequency curves for 30, 60 and 120 minute burst durations.

This was carried out to help test the validity of the alternative SDRRM joint probability model over traditional frequency analysis methods. The resulting annual maximum frequency results tended to be slightly higher than the SDRRM results however with the short period of record some deviation was not unexpected.

The computer output on figure 4-12 shows the computational components of the method including the transition matrices.

The resulting runoff values accruing from the shaded portion of the transition matrix(c) are however subject to errors due to the truncation of matrix elements. The insert on figure 4-14 indicates the type of problem encountered at the high end of the probability scale. To overcome this potential problem however, it is only necessary to select the range of probabilities required with this in mind so as the non-truncated elements are in the area of interest.

4.3 Parameter Assessment for Ungauged and Gauged Urban Catchments.

The main elements necessary to successfully use the SDRRM model are listed as follows:

(a) Catchment Parameters. The complete list of pervious catchment response parameters is shown in Table 4-4. The actual values used depend on the predominant land domain being studied. In contrast to the long term water balance requirements the number of significant parameters for the SDRRM is limited to the parameters affecting catchment response during short term events. These include S_o , K_o , DSC, USC and LSC.

On ungauged catchments, values for Sorptivity (S_o) and hydraulic conductivity (K_o) must be selected from appropriate literature such as that published by Talsma (1969) and also listed in Chapter 3, Table 3-1.

On gauged catchments it may be possible to calibrate appropriate S_o and K_o values by event simulation studies based on measured and estimated runoff volumes and measured rainfall. Additionally, direct assessments of sorptivity and hydraulic conductivity may be made using infiltrometer rings. Chapter 3 addressed the applicability of measuring these parameters, as well as a number of others, in the field.

(b) Rainfall-Intensity-Frequency-Duration Data. This information is usually readily available in most major cities in Australia and appropriately set out in ARR (1977). Similarly, dimensionless temporal patterns for most regions throughout Australia for all normal storm burst durations are published in ARR (1977).

(c) Soil Moisture Antecedence Frequency Data. The derivation of this data has been described in Chapter 4.2. This in brief was based on long term model simulation using the Australian Representative Basins Model (ARBM) and parameters related to particular urban land domains.

On gauged catchments, catchment simulation to optimise parameters can be carried out. This can be supplemented by actual measurement of individual parameters where possible (see Chapter 3). Additionally, it is necessary to have a reasonable period of pluviograph record on which to base the long term water balance analysis. In this thesis approximately 33 years of record was used. A record length of 10 years is thought to be the minimum appropriate for such an analysis.

On ungauged catchments, model parameters need to be estimated from published literature.

4.4 Runoff Generation from Different Land Domains

In Chapter 4.2, soil moisture frequency distributions for a range of urban land domains were given. These related to pervious areas such as residential lawns, dry grass areas, natural forested areas and irrigated playing fields.

Figure 4-14 showed clearly the differences in both excess rainfall magnitudes and runoff peaks for the different land domains used.

Comparing the Figures 4-10 and 4-14 it was evident that, although the antecedent moisture index curves for dry grass was below that of residential lawns, the resulting excess rainfall and peak runoff curves are reversed with dry grass producing the higher magnitude of runoff. This was due to the higher infiltration characteristics of residential lawns more than compensating for the higher initial

moisture index.

Figure 4-10 also showed the antecedent moisture curves for natural forest and dry grass crossing at about the 65% probability of exceedance level. It is not clear why this was so, however as shown on Figure 4-14 even at the higher probable levels the magnitudes at corresponding points for natural forest were significantly less than in dry grass area.

Based on the results shown on Figure 4-14 it was evident that the particular land domain curves have significant effects on the resulting runoff results.

Figure 4-16 shows resulting peak runoff frequency curves based on different parameter sets and input parameters for the Giralang urban catchment. The curves range from irrigated playing fields to natural forest.

Additionally a dry grass - uniform temporal pattern combination was selected to test the significance of the temporal pattern chosen.

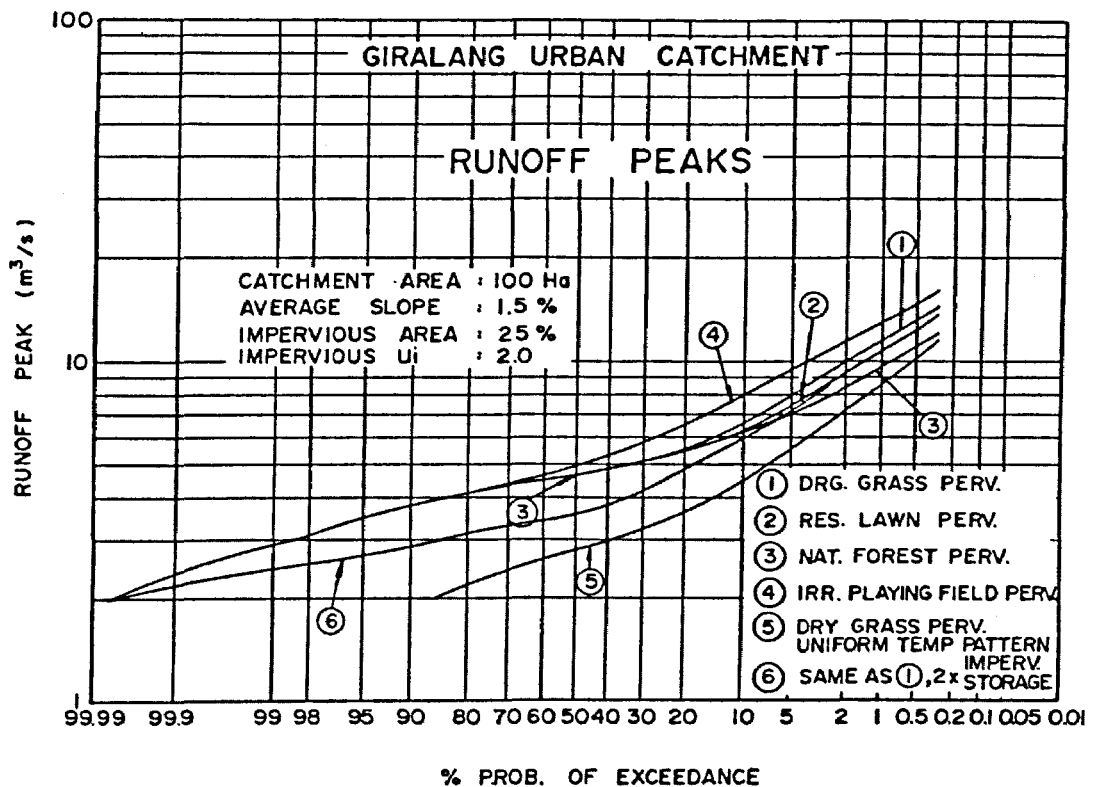


FIGURE 4-16 Sensitivity of Runoff Peaks to Land Domains, Giralang Catchment

4.5 Comparative Analysis Employing the SDRRM and Existing Runoff Estimating Procedures

4.5.1 Introduction

This phase of the thesis reviewed some of the currently applied urban flow frequency analysis techniques for catchment runoff peak and volume estimations and compared them with the methods proposed in this thesis based on the urban Mawson catchment, in the south of Canberra, described in Chapter 3.

The methods reviewed were the rational formula as prescribed in ARR (1977), a locally developed regional frequency method developed in the A.C.T. by Fitzgerald (1975), a frequency analysis of the limited available data for the Mawson catchment, the version of the RSWM described in Chapter 1, the RSWM with proposed stochastic rainfall excess input and finally the SDRRM model direct.

Stochastic and infiltration data necessary for the proposed procedures recommended in this thesis were transposed from the Giralang catchment. No field measurements were carried out on the Mawson catchment. In this way it was proposed to test the transfer of the data from Giralang to other similar constituted catchments within the region and hence the general portability of the proposed model.

4.5.2 Catchment Data

(a) Catchment Features. The Mawson catchment is a fully urbanised catchment as described in Chapter 3 and shown on Figure 3-3. A thin strip of rural land has been left along the southern border of the catchment and this is isolated from the remainder of the catchment by cutoff drains. Catchment slopes range from 1% near its outlet to 15% in the upper reaches.

The existing stormwater collection system consists of underground stormwater pipes which, together with overland flow paths in grass floodways across public land and roadways, provide flood protection to all private property up to and including a once in 100 year storm event.

Entrances to pipes are generally by way of side entry pits plus sag type entry pits at low points in the roadways and depressions.

Pipes sizes range from 150 mm diameter pipes, which collect roof runoff, to multiple 1800 mm diameter pipes at the catchment outlet.

(b) Land Type Breakup. Using the 1:2500 Orthophoto plans plus limited field based assessment, the following list was prepared showing the breakup of the various land types within the catchment:

(1) Impervious area	115 ha
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(2)	Residential lawn	150 ha
(3)	Dry grass area	170 ha
(4)	Irrigated area	10 ha
	TOTAL	445 ha

4.5.3 Rational Formula Method of Analysis

The Rational Formula, following the procedures described in Chapter 12, ARR (1977), was used to evaluate the capacity of the existing pipe system and to determine the flow paths of any overflows resulting from rarer storms.

The estimated flow peaks were determined throughout the catchment for the 1, 2, 5, 10, 20 and 100 year return frequency based on the system existing as at 1979 employing subareas of 5 hectares or less. The adopted tc time for the catchment was 30 minutes.

A frequency curve based on the results of this analysis is shown on Figure 4-17, Curve 1.

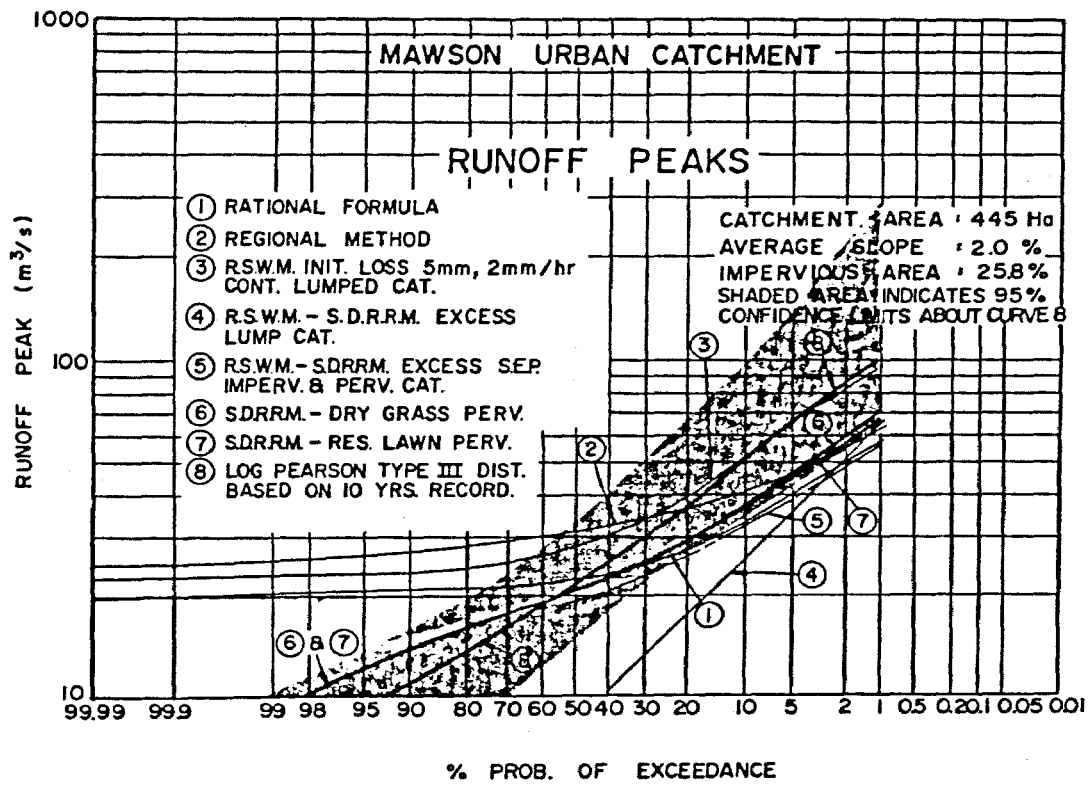


FIGURE 4-17 Comparative Simulations for Mawson

4.5.4 Regional Flood Frequency Technique

A runoff peak frequency curve for Mawson was prepared by Fitzgerald (1980), using his Key Station Regional Method (Fitzgerald, 1975) based on extrapolated frequency analyses of over 30 selected gauged catchments, mainly rural, representing each of the three regional districts defining the A.C.T.

Figure 4-17, Curve 2, shows the frequency curve derived.

4.5.5 Runoff Routing Approach Employing a Design Storm With Initial and Continuing Losses

In this analysis the Mawson catchment was considered in a similar fashion to Fitzgerald's method, as a lumped watershed.

The total catchment area of 415 hectares was split into 10 isochronal areas. The RSWM was employed as described in Chapter 2 with an urbanisation parameter 'U' estimated at 0.80.

Initial and continuing loss rates were set at 8 mm/hr and 5 mm/hr respectively. These were based on generally accepted values widely adopted in the past over the region by both government authorities and private organisations.

Appropriate duration design storms were derived for the region adopting the dimensionless temporal patterns and intensity-frequency-duration curves published in ARR (1977), for a range of storm frequencies between a once in one year and once in 100 year event.

Using the described data the RSWM was applied giving the results summarised as a frequency curve on Figure 4-17, Curve 3.

4.5.6 Runoff Routing Approach Employing a Stochastically Derived Rainfall Excess Lumped Catchment

Using the proposed SDRRM model described earlier in Chapter 4 and the catchment breakdown indicated for Mawson, weighted lumped excess hyetographs were estimated for a range of runoff event frequencies with a duration of 30 minutes.

The excess hyetographs were directly input into the RSWM to produce runoff hydrographs. The resulting frequency curve of runoff peaks is shown on Figure 4-17, Curve 4.

The analysis was based on a lumped runoff volume deduced from the proportions of impervious and pervious areas in the catchment and averaged infiltration and storage delay effects. The objectives of this approach were aimed at establishing the likely error of shortcutting the full SDRRM model by negating the high computer time necessary for the second step of computing the 15 x 15 runoff peak matrix. It did not allow for the separate development of pervious and impervious hydrograph components.

4.5.7 Runoff Routing Approach Employing a Stochastically Derived Rainfall Excess-Separate Pervious-Impervious Considerations

This procedure followed the previous one except the SDRRM model was only used to provide the pervious runoff component. The impervious contribution was derived by appropriate routing via the RSWM of an excess hyetograph made up of the design storm minus an initial depression storage loss of 2 mm.

The results of this method are also shown on Figure 4-17, Curve 5.

4.5.8 Direct Application of the SDRRM

In this case the full SDRRM was applied to the Mawson catchment to obtain directly a flood frequency curve. Two curves 6 and 7 are shown on Figure 4-17 to describe the results based on pervious areas of dry grass and residential lawns respectively. The true value would lie somewhere in between. The rainfall frequency duration data was based on a log-normal distribution of the rainfall data at the Mawson gauge.

4.5.9 Frequency Analysis of Gauged Data

As a final comparison an attempt to validate the SDRRM model and derived moisture data a frequency analysis was carried out on the 11 years of gauged data available for Mawson

Two frequency distributions were selected for this analysis these being the Log-Normal and the Log-Pearson Type III. Table 4-7 shows the annual max. flow peaks for station GS410753 Mawson for the years 1971 through 1981.

TABLE 4-7 Annual Max. Gauged flow Peaks Mawson.

YEAR	DATE	Max Corresp. Hrly Rain(mm) Mawson Stn	Annual Max. Peak (m ³ /s)
1971	26 Jan	100.	110*
1972	13 Feb	25.6	24.6
1973	4 Nov	14.9	18.9
1974	21 Mar	42.1	31.3
1975	11 Feb	9.9	14.7
1976	16 Oct	8.5	9.75
1977	14 Jan	28.8	44.8
1978	20 Mar	32.4	57.8
1979	24 Nov	9.3	12.3
1980	4 Jan	16.0	14.5
1981	6 Jan	23.0	43.0

* Estimated peak prior to Gauging Station being established.

As the period of record was relatively short (11 yrs) it was necessary to look carefully at the individual peaks for possible outliers. The 1971 estimated peak of 110 m³/s resulted from an exceptional event with the time of concentration precipitation being of at least a once in 1000 yr frequency.(Fitzgerald, (1980)).

The period on which the SDRRM model results were based was 1932 - 1970 inclusive. In this period no rainfall event of similar duration exceeded a once in 100 yr frequency.

It was thought prudent therefore to exclude, at this stage, the 1971 annual max. peak from the analysis.

The mean, std. deviation and coefficient of skewness of the logarithms of the Ann. Max. Peaks shown in table 4-7 are 1.3617, .2655 and .1714 respectively. Based on the Chi X² test, the Log-Pearson distribution was a more suitable distribution and therefore it was adopted for comparison purposes.

This resulted in a median runoff peak of 22.65 m³/s. The full plot of the Log-Pearson Type III distribution is plotted as curve 8 on figure 4-17.

4.5.10 Discussion on the Methods and Their Results

The resulting runoff peak frequency curves for Mawson based on the seven methods of computation described are shown on Figure 4-17 .

The variations at any selected frequency are, to say the least, significant with an "order of" difference being apparent between the two extreme curves.

One of the main outcomes was the large disparity between the lumped catchment and separate segment versions of the proposed SDRRM-RSWM model. The results clearly showed the inappropriateness of using total catchment area, weighted rainfall excess and weighted catchment routing effects when considering flow peaks up to say a 10 year return period. The total area of the catchment was in particular a very poor modelling parameter.

A far more appropriate parameter would be an effective contributing area. In events less than say a once in 10 year occurrence this would more closely relate to an effective impervious area.

Curve 5 on figure 4-17 was arrived at by routing the excess pervious hyetograph derived by the SDRRM Model and adding this to an impervious hydrograph separately derived from an appropriately routed excess impervious hyetograph. The result is very close to curve 6 which is based on the full SDRRM analysis. This fact is most encouraging as the amount of computer time required to produce curve 5 is very much less than curve 6, as catchment routing is not required for each element in the deterministic matrix.

Although the logic, as detailed earlier, is not entirely correct further work on this line of analysis is proposed to allow use of the model on smaller computing systems.

It can be seen on Figure 4-17 that the difference between the gauged data (curve 8) and the SDRRM model results (curve 6) is still significant. The SDRRM however is the only method that remains within the 95% confidence band over the complete range shown.

Without a greater length of gauged record it is not possible to make any definitive judgement on the correctness of either of the curves particularly in the less frequent range.

Obviously further testing and refining is necessary and this will be carried out as and when further gauged data becomes available.

4.6 APPLICATION OF PROPOSED PARAMETER ESTIMATING AND MODELLING TECHNIQUES

4.6.1 Major Drainage Analysis and Design

For major drainage analyses and significant design orientated runoff estimates it is recommended that the full SDRRM model be applied.

In this way it is possible to assess the full implications of catchment makeup and the interactions of the various individual components. It is also possible to assess the probability of exceedance of not only runoff peaks but also runoff volumes.

Figure 4-18 shows total storm losses based on the results using the SDRRM. They were derived by subtracting excess rainfalls from total rainfalls of similar probability of exceedance levels.

These may be used to quickly indicate the probable losses to be expected from different land domains within the catchment.

Details are given earlier for the detailed application of the SDRRM. This includes a program listing with sample input and output.

4.6.2 Minor Drainage Design

The preceding discussion relates almost solely to the analysis of regional drainage systems requiring the need for full hydrograph generation and/or catchment storage assessment.

In most minor drainage analyses the need for this indepth assessment is not required, rather a simple runoff peak value corresponding to a design frequency is all that is required.

This reasoning has assured that such simple methods as the rational formula will remain with the engineering profession for many years to come.

This phase of the thesis has been aimed at making use of the detailed output results from the developed model described to assess more accurate runoff coefficients for use with the rational formula.

The following describes the proposed methods for achieving this aim.

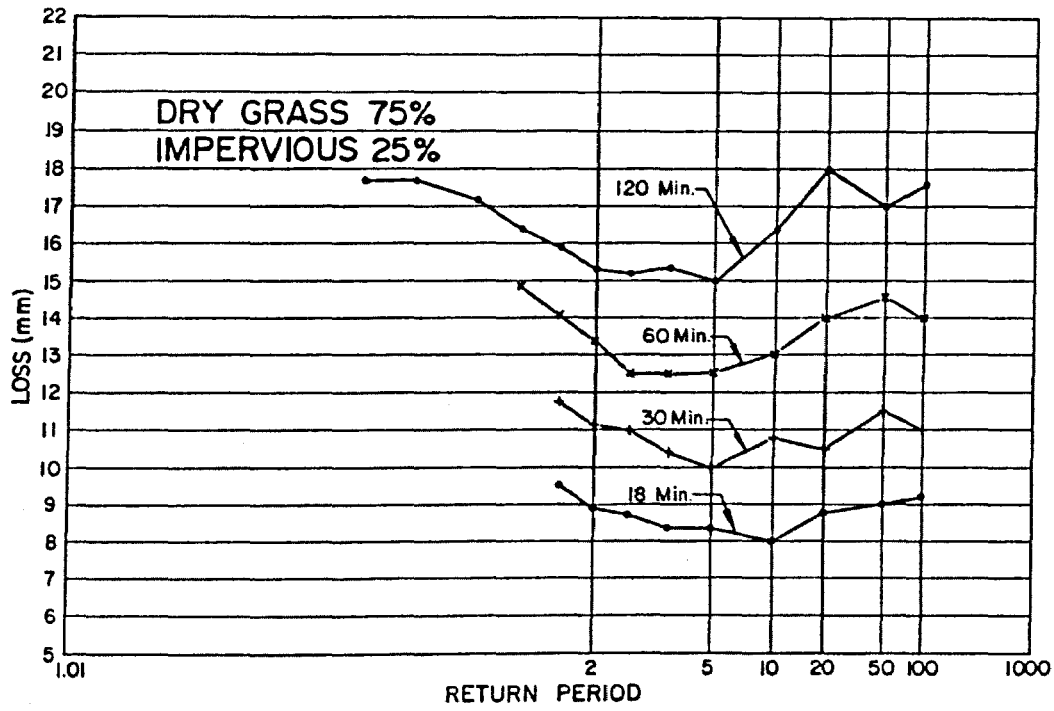
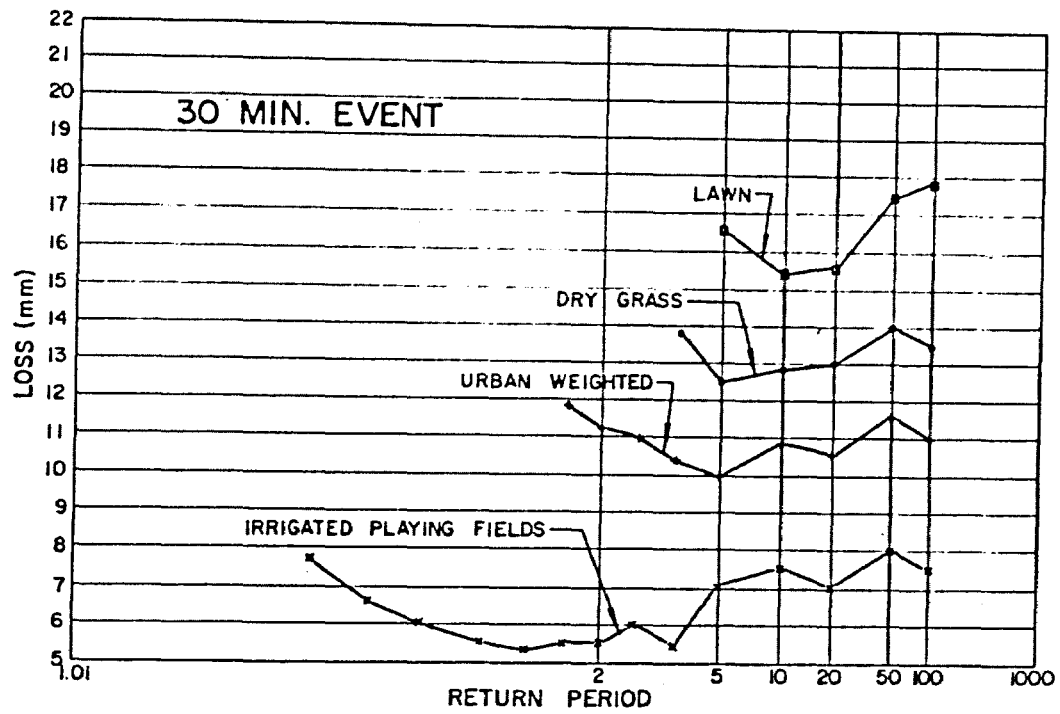


FIGURE 4-18 Simulated Total Storm Losses

Using the approach broadly described in Chapter 2 and the model results generated by SDRRM, rational formula runoff coefficients on a statistical basis have been derived for typical urban catchments in Canberra.

The rational formula expressed in its statistical form was defined as follows:

$$Q(fy) = 1/3.60 \times CIA(Ta, fy) \quad (4-8)$$

where:

$Q(fy)$ = peak runoff rate per unit area for a frequency fy

fy = frequency

Ta = rainfall intensity averaging time

I = rainfall intensity in mm/hr for a return period fy and duration Ta

C = Runoff Coefficient

A = catchment area in km^2 .

Aitken (1975) presented Eq. 4-8 in the following manner:

$$INPUT = 1/3.60 \times I(T, A) \quad (4-9)$$

where:

T = time of concentration

and

$INPUT$ = rainfall input to catchment (m^3/s)

hence

$$C = Q(fy)/INPUT \quad (4-10)$$

where:

$Q(fy)$ = peak runoff for frequency fy years in m^3/s .

Based on the Giralang and Mawson catchments in Canberra, described in Chapters 3 and 4, both typical urban watersheds of 94 and 415 hectares respectively and both with a time of concentration of approximately 30 minutes the results of the SDRRM were applied to equation 4-10 to derive rational formula runoff coefficients representative of the total catchment.

Figure 4-19 shows the results of this analysis in graphical form.

Using the same analysis technique runoff coefficients were derived based on a typical 100 hectare catchment with an average slope of 1.5% and T of 30 minutes for the four pervious land domains studied in this thesis. The results from this work are also shown graphically on Figure 4-19.

Within the Canberra region it is recommended that these curves be used in preference to the general curves described in ARR (1977) as they are based on local data and should therefore better reflect the complex inputs that affect their development.

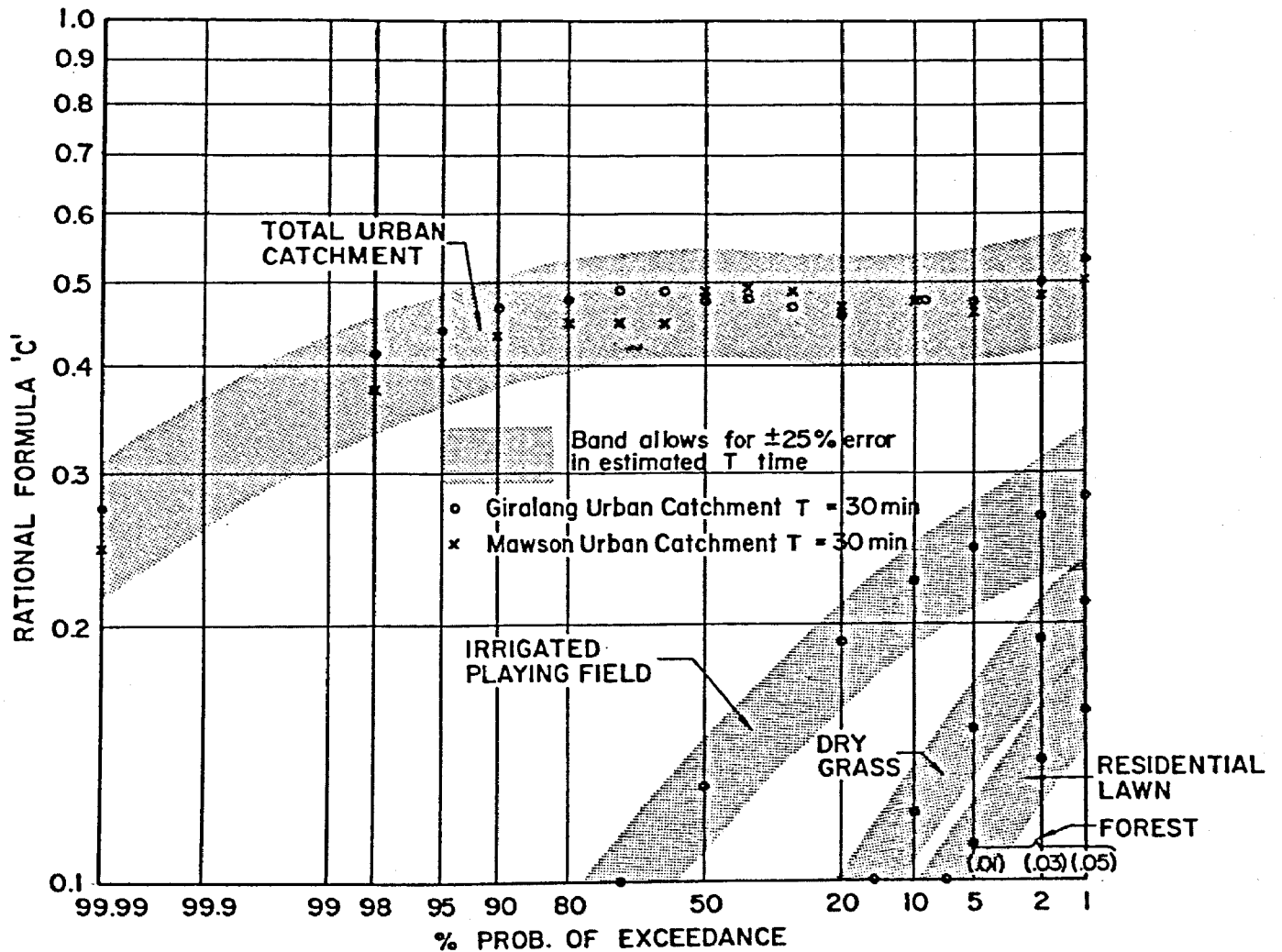


FIGURE 4-19 Simulated Rational Method, Canberra Runoff Coefficients

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction.

The magnitude and frequency of occurrence of hydrologic events is of necessity important to all those whose responsibility it is to design and maintain urban hydraulic structures.

Over recent years the advancement in hydrologic techniques has allowed the designer to capitalise on the basic information that has been collected during a greater part of this century.

In the field of urban stormwater drainage design with its inherent diversities of character the present techniques have, however, fallen short of the data available or able to be measured.

Based on studies carried out by the author over recent years, it had become evident that a large amount of basic information on such things as soil characteristics, catchment breakup and qualitative antecedent moisture indexes etc, have not been included in design analyses except in very vague qualitative ways.

The hydrologic techniques to date, including such methods as the rational formula and even more advanced runoff routing procedures, have, in their present form, failed to cater for this additional input data.

This thesis was based on the premise that there was a need to increase the capability of present modelling techniques and to make use of as much basic data as possible to increase the accuracy of design decisions.

The estimation of flow peaks and volumes in a design context is complicated by the combined stochastic-deterministic nature of the problem.

The two major stochastic elements of the process are rainfall and catchment wetness. The deterministic phase involves the transfer of rainfall to runoff.

In urban drainage analysis to date the effects of catchment wetness on flow estimates has only received nominal attention. Methods have been proposed to include this parameter in current runoff routing techniques.

5.2 Combined Stochastic-Deterministic Urban Drainage Model.

Various land domains have been isolated that broadly describe typical urban catchments in Canberra. These include dry grass areas, residential lawns, irrigated areas, native forest and impervious areas.

Based on long term water balance simulation using Canberra pluviograph records and appropriate catchment parameters, various upper soil moisture indexes were estimated. From these, exceedance probability distributions were derived for each of the above domains to represent pre-burst antecedent moisture indexes.

Excess rainfall and peak runoff exceedance probabilities were then able to be derived by combining the stochastic nature of both rainfall and catchment wetness with a deterministic infiltration process (in this case using methods described by Philip (1957) employing methods similar to those proposed by Laurenson (1974) and described in detail in Chapter 4.

5.3 Summary.

The following points summarise the main results of the research carried out during the course of this thesis. Where deemed necessary recommendations are given for future research where the present work has highlighted inadequacies.

(a) In the calibration of rainfall/runoff models within an urban environment it is not possible to optimise pervious component parameters with catchment outlet gauging only.

It is essential to separate the pervious and impervious contributions by way of subcatchment monitoring or at least using a paired catchment technique as described in Chapter 3.

This is mainly due to the predominant influence of impervious areas, within an urban area, in the development of runoff peaks and volumes. Up to 95% of total annual flow in an average year was made up of the impervious component.

Additionally base flows caused by artificial watering can also make up a significant part of the total annual flow and are usually of the same order or larger than the total pervious flow.

As it is difficult to separate flow contributions not only between impervious and pervious components the additional complexity of artificial watering due to lawn watering and the like make the task of pervious model calibration all that much harder.

In brief the measurement of total runoff is not necessarily a good indicator in the assessment of pervious parameters.

(b) In the short response urban environment there was a need to modify the Australian representative basin model from a purely incremental water balance model to a pseudo continuous model to reflect soil water movements within a particular increment of time.

(c) To simulate peak flows from an urban catchment it was found necessary to model separately the pervious and impervious components of the system due to the non-homogenous nature of the two contributing systems.

(d) It was found that different pervious land domains responded very differently to a similar storm event. Between dry grass and natural forested areas there was a threefold difference in runoff volumes produced at the 100 year frequency level and a fivefold difference in runoff peak.

(e) The effects of lawn watering on runoff production from urban residential lawns was not found to be significant as the increase in potential antecedent moisture was more than offset by the increased infiltration capacity caused by better root development and upper strata structure.

(f) An assessment was made of the implications of possible errors in parameter estimates as well as the sensitivity of point to areal conversion of individual parameters. Figure 4-16 summarises the magnitude of computed peak flow variations based on a range of parameter sets.

It was shown that although the parameter changes were significant the variation in peak flows over the normal frequency range, between the highest and lowest parameter set, was limited to less than 40%.

It was therefore contended that for design estimating purposes, detailed definition of variations in catchment parameters across similar pervious areas was not required or justified.

(g) Based on results of the proposed model, runoff volume frequency distributions appeared to be highly correlated with runoff peak frequency distributions.

This did not however mean that a deterministic routing of say a once in 50 year excess runoff volume would directly give a once in 50 year runoff peak as both were statistical values based on the contributions of a number of combinations of events resulting in similar output magnitudes.

(h) Over the normal frequency range it was shown (see figure 4-18) that total storm losses on a statistical sense were fairly constant although of different magnitudes for each of the land domains studied.

5.4 Conclusions.

In conclusion the methodology put forward in this thesis sought to define, in greater detail, the relative importance of the various factors in an urban or rural catchment, in the production of runoff volumes and peaks.

There is considerable scope for improving the proposed model based on continued research into the structure of the water balance model selected and the catchment routing response of the separate land domain inputs, however the present model is believed to be, even at this stage of development, a responsive one able to reflect in far greater detail than other existing procedures, the contributions of the various components of a catchment. A great deal of further testing and development is still required, however this is believed to be justified in line with the continued research necessary to obtain better runoff frequency estimates for engineering design purposes.

One further avenue of development would appear to be in the definition of seasonal soil moisture probability curves ie, Summer and Winter. These combined with similar seasonally defined rainfall probability curves may give further insight into the rainfall/runoff frequency relationship.

There is also scope to improve catchment monitoring techniques to provide more accurate data input to the model. It was the aim of this thesis to assess some of the problems and practical implications and possibilities for future research.

It is contended that there is considerable merit in the further development of techniques to carry out and apply soil moisture monitoring in an urban environment using both nuclear and psychrometer-thermocouple methods.

Further work is recommended to extend the analysis described to other areas in Australia to test variations in parameter response in those locations.

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APPENDIX A

ENGINEERING LOGS

engineering log - excavation

pit no: *TP1*
sheet *1 of 1*

office and job no: *Canberra C2031*

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Giralang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 1*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 k hand penetrometer	200 g penetrometer	300 g penetrometer	400 g penetrometer	structure and additional observations
<i>UD</i>				<i>D</i>	<i>0.18</i>			<i>Sandy CLAY; dark brown low plasticity sand fine to coarse</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>MD</i>					<i>Root Zone.</i>
				<i>UD</i>	<i>0.25</i>			<i>layer gravelly SAND; sandy gravelly CLAY; brown with yellow to grey, brown mottling low to medium plasticity sand fine to coarse, gravel to 20mm</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>					
				<i>UD</i>	<i>0.46</i>										
				<i>UD</i>	<i>0.5</i>										

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 1 2 3 no resistance ranging to refusal water 10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency/relative density VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VSst - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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engineering log - excavation

pit no *TP2*
sheet *1 of 1*

office and job no: *Canberra C2031*

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Girilang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 2*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 k hand penetrometer	300 g penetrometer	400 g penetrometer	structure and additional observations
				A S A S A A	0.25			<i>Sandy Gravelly CLAY. red brown, low plasticity, sand fine to coarse, gravel to 30mm</i>	D-m	F				Root Zone
					0.85			<i>Sandy CLAY. red brown medium plasticity, sand fine to coarse</i>	M	St				

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 1 2 3 no resistance ranging to refusal water 10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency/relative densi-ty VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VSt - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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engineering log - excavation

pit no. TP3
sheet 1 of 1

office and job no: Canberra C2031

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Giralang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 3*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 g hand penetrometer	300 g penetrometer	400 g penetrometer	structure and additional observations
				D				<i>gravelly clayey SAND, brown, low plasticity sand fine to coarse, gravel to 40mm</i>	D	L				<i>Root Zone</i>
				UD	0.35									<i>Fresh Shale</i>
				D	0.6			<i>sandy CLAY, yellow brown low plasticity, sand fine to coarse</i>	D	D				

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 1 2 3 no resistance ranging to refusal water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system	consistency/relative density VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VS _t - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
			moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	

engineering log - excavation





pit no. *TP4*
sheet *1 of 1*

office and job no: *Canberra C2031*

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Giralang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 4*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration 123	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100g hand 200g penetro- 300g 400 meter	structure and additional observations
					0.32		<i>Sandy CLAY, grey, low plasticity, sand fine to coarse</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>MD</i>		<i>Root Zone</i>
					0.6		<i>CLAY, yellow brown, medium plasticity, some fine sand</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>St</i>		

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 123 no resistance  ranging to refusal water  10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown  water inflow  water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency/relative dens. VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VSt - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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engineering log - excavation

plan TFS
sheet 1 of 1

office and job no: Canberra C2031

project: Assessment of Drainage Pattern Girilang Valley
 pit location: Station 5
 pit commenced: 4-7-79
 pit completed: 4-7-79
 supervised by: GC
 log checked by: C.L.T.

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 g hand 200 g penetro- 300 g meter 400	structure and additional observations
	123				0.2			Sandy CLAY; dark brown low plasticity, sand fine to coarse	m	MD		Root Zone
				UD				Sandy CLAY; grey brown low plasticity sand fine to coarse, trace of gravel to 5mm		D		
				D								
				UD	0.4							

key	support	notes	classification symbols	consistency/relative dens.
method	T timbering	- samples and tests	and soil description	VS - very soft
N natural exposure	penetration	U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter	based on unified classification system	S - soft
E existing excavation	123 no resistance ranging to refusal	D - disturbed sample	moisture	F - firm
BH backhoe bucket	water	N - standard penetration test: figure = result	D - dry	St - stiff
B bulldozer blade	10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown	N* - SPT + sample	M - moist	VSt - very stiff
R ripper	water inflow water outflow	Nc - cone penetrometer	W - wet	H - hard
				Fc - friable
				VL - very loose
				L - loose
				MD - moderately dense
				D - dense
				VD - very dense

engineering log - excavation

pit no: TP 6
sheet 1 of 1

office and job no: Canberra C2031

project: Assessment of Drainage Pattern Girālang Valley
 pit location: Station 6
 pit commenced: 4-7-79
 pit completed: 4-7-79
 supervised by: GC
 log checked by: C.L.T.

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 g hand penetrometer	300 g meter	400 meter	structure and additional observations
	123							Layer sandy gravel, grey brown; low plasticity, sand fine to coarse, gravel to 25 mm	D	L				Root Zone
					0.28			Sandy CLAY, red brown low plasticity, sand fine to coarse, trace of fine gravel	D	F				
								Rock						

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 123 no resistance ranging to refusal water 10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency/relative density VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VSt - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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engineering log - excavation

pit no. TP7
sheet 1 of 1

office and job no: Canberra C2031

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Girilang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 7*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model: _____ R.L. surface: _____ m
 excavation dimensions: _____ m long, _____ m wide datum: _____

method	penetration	support	water	notes samples, tests, etc.	depth R.L. metres	graphic log	classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	hand penetrometer	structure and additional observations
1 2 3											100 K 200 P 300 e 400 meter	
				<i>D</i>	<i>0.15</i>			<i>Silty Sandy GRAVEL; grey brown, sand fine to coarse, gravel to 150mm</i> <i>Silty Sandy Gravel; light brown, sand fine to coarse, gravel to 150mm</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>VL</i>		<i>Root Zone</i> <i>Tree Roots</i>

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 1 2 3 no resistance ranging to refusal water 10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency/relative densit. VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VS1 - very stiff H - hard Fb - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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engineering log - excavation

... 728
sheet 1 of 1

office and job no: Canberra C2031

project: *Assessment of Drainage Pattern Giralang Valley*
 pit location: *Station 8*
 pit commenced: *4-7-79*
 pit completed: *4-7-79*
 supervised by: *GC*
 log checked by: *C.L.T.*

equipment type and model:
 excavation dimensions: m long, m wide
 R.L. surface: m
 datum:

method 123	penetration support water	notes samples, tests, etc.	R.L. depth metres	graphic log classification symbol	material soil type: plasticity or particle characteristics, colour, secondary and minor components.	moisture condition	consistency, rel. density	100 g hand 200 g penetro- 300 g 400 meter	structure and additional observations
			0.15		<i>Silty sandy GRAVEL; dark brown, sand fine to coarse, gravel to 150mm</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>VL</i>		<i>Rot Zone</i>
		<i>D</i>	0.38		<i>Silty sandy GRAVEL; dark brown light brown, sand fine to coarse gravel to 150mm</i>				

key method N natural exposure E existing excavation BH backhoe bucket B bulldozer blade R ripper	support T timbering penetration 123 no resistance ranging to refusal water 10 Oct, 73 water level on date shown water inflow water outflow	notes - samples and tests U50 - undisturbed sample 50 mm diameter D - disturbed sample N - standard penetration test: figure = result N* - SPT + sample Nc - cone penetrometer	classification symbols and soil description based on unified classification system moisture D - dry M - moist W - wet	consistency, relative densit. VS - very soft S - soft F - firm St - stiff VSt - very stiff H - hard Fo - friable VL - very loose L - loose MD - moderately dense D - dense VD - very dense
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