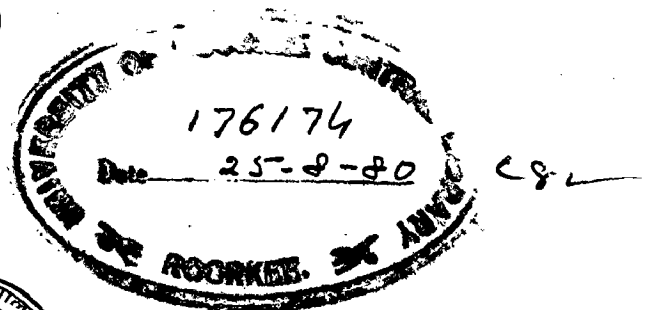


# ANALYSIS FOR SNOWMELT RUNOFF DURING PREMONSOON MONTHS IN BEAS BASIN USING SATELLITE IMAGERIES

A DISSERTATION  
*submitted in partial fulfilment of*  
*the requirements for the award of the degree*  
*of*  
MASTER IN HYDROLOGY

By  
K. B. THAPA  
( Nepal )



UNESCO SPONSORED  
INTERNATIONAL HYDROLOGY COURSE  
UNIVERSITY OF ROORKEE  
ROORKEE (INDIA)

April, 1980

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled  
'ANALYSIS FOR OXYGENE RADIOPY SURVIVAL PROMOTION MORTALS IN  
SEAS BARKEN USINE GASTELER'S RESEARCHERS' being submitted by  
Carl E. D. Thaga in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for award of the degree of Master in Hydrology of the  
University of Toronto, is a record of the candidate's own  
work carried out by him under our supervision and guidance.  
The material embodied in this dissertation has not been  
submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma.

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## CONCLUSIONS

The increase in demand for water coupled with the construction of multipurpose reservoirs to control and regulate annual runoff, requires accurate stream flow forecasts. Forecasts are needed to determine allowable releases from reservoirs for power, irrigation, municipal use, recreation, pollution abatement, flood control, etc.

Information on the amount of snow accumulation during the winter months is necessary for making accurate prediction of spring runoff. An important index of runoff during the snowmelt season is the snow water equivalent, which is obtained with the remote sensing techniques. The conventional methods for obtaining such data from remote areas are not only time consuming and expensive but by the time the results could be compiled, they would certainly be out-dated. Thus the application of phototelemetry is gaining popularity in the hydrological studies.

The water of Beas river is being utilized for operation of different water reservoirs projects amongst which the Beas - Sutlej Link Project is the most important. The water supply during the pre-monsoon period for the Beas river comes from the snowmelt. The gradual melting of the snow accumulated over the catchment during the winter months is responsible for the perennial character of the Beas river.

Photo-hydrological investigation of the Jena catchment, upstream of Berlin, and the estimation of the snowmelt runoff during the present period have been studied. An attempt has been made to study the relationship between the snow cover, acquired with the help of the satellite imageries, and the cumulative discharges of the months of March, April and May of the years 1973, 1975, 1976 and 1977. An exponential trend has been observed in plotting. The snow covered areas in Band 5 and Band 7 of the LANDSAT imageries on the same day have been compared. A linear trend has been observed in plotting. An attempt has also been made to identify and delineate the vegetal cover and land use features using visual interpretation techniques.

Due to the availability of the limited meteorological and hydrological data the study for the estimation of snowmelt runoff has been confined to the sub-basin upstream of Berlin. The sub-basin has been divided into permanent and temporary snow covered zones, provided that it is completely covered by snow. The degree-day method and the melt due to rainfall on snow have been used to estimate the snowmelt runoff. The calculated snowmelt runoff and the gauged discharges give a reasonable agreement. With several trials the degree-day factor of  $0.0025 \text{ cm}^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$  for March and April and  $0.00329 \text{ cm}^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$  for May have been employed for the years 1977, 1975 and 1979. The routing of snowmelt after accounting for losses as well as the excess rainfall runoff from the permanent & temporary snow covered area has been done with the recession coefficient of 0.90 and the excess rain from the non snow covered area has been ~~assumed~~ directly contributing for runoff on that same day as the time of concentration.

Lastly, the runoff coefficients of 0.599 for the rainfall on the snow covered area and 0.270 for rainfall on the non snow covered area have been calculated. Since the time of concentration in the catchment is less than a day, the runoff due to rainfall on the non snow covered area is superimposed on the same day on the calculated hydrograph obtained from the melt and the runoff from the rain falling on the snow covered area. There is an improvement in the result.

More hydro-meteorological data, regular satellite imagery, and snow survey for determining the Degree-day factor, the water equivalent, snow depth etc. are essential for a better estimation of annual runoff.

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## CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

## 2.2 General:

Water is one of the most essential requirements for the sustenance of all living beings. The total quantity of water available in the earth does not vary, but it merely goes through a dynamic hydrologic cycle of conversion into gaseous state by evaporation and reaching the earth again as precipitation. The hydrologic cycle comprises of four basic phases of interest. They are precipitation, evaporation and transpiration, runoff, and exchange of ground water.

Runoff is an important part of the hydrologic cycle. Accurate estimation of the volume of water stored in the snow cover peak and the release of that water are essential to predict the flow during the lean period. For a national demand yield information on snow cover depth and water equivalent is a pre-requisite besides the energy transfer to the cryosphere. The hydrologists faces many intricate problems especially in the mountainous watershed, since very limited information relating to the meteorological and physical systems affecting the runoff is available. In contrast to rainfall, snowfall is not generally measured quantitatively but must be estimated indirectly from meteorological parameters and information about the terrain, vegetative cover etc. An important index of runoff during the snowfall season is the areal extent of the snow cover.



Aerobic ponding has proved an efficient and easy methodology to assess snow cover in areas which are practically inaccessible and hazardous.

The snow catchment upstream of Longji has been collected for the study, since it has a moderate slope and above 50 per cent of the catchment is covered by snow before the melting period. Snow is the dominant source of water during the low period.

The present study can be broken down into two components

- a) the analysis of LAURENT imagery for the snow catchment
- and b) the estimation of current runoff in the sub-basin of LAURENT during the pre-monsoon period.

The photogrammetric section teaches the general criteria for evaluating the different physiographic parameters of the sub-basin of the snow catchment upstream of Longji. Perhaps the most critical of the snow cover is the most reliable easily measurable parameter than the others like the snowpack density and snow depth in the remote areas. The snow cover coverage is measured here in with the help of LAURENT (SPOT) imagery. The relationship between the snow cover and the cumulative discharge of the melting season has been studied. The snow covered areas from the imagery in Band 9 and Band 7 taken on the same day have been studied also.

Due to the limited data a small sub-catchment upstream of Hmali has been selected for estimating the snowmelt runoff during the pre-monsoon period. This section deals with the assessment of runoff due to snowmelt in Beas river originating from the Himalaya. The hydrological condition of the Himalayan catchments is very complex since they are partly snow covered at higher altitudes and rainfall at the lower altitudes. The year in Beas catchment is divided into the accumulation season, the snowmelt season, the monsoon season and the groundwater season.

The objective of the runoff from snowmelt computation is <sup>to</sup> forecast seasonal water yield and the ratio of runoff forecasting. Both of these objectives may require snowmelt computation in partly snow covered catchment either for the operation of existing projects or for the use of designing future projects.

## CHAPTER II

### SNOW AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO STREAM FLOW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION :

In many areas snow is the dominant source of stream flow. Goodell (1966) has indicated that about 90 per cent of the yearly water supply in the high elevations of the Colorado Rockies is derived from snowmelt. The generation of snowmelt and sequential stream flow from the snowpack that accumulates in winter, forms one of the most important phases of the hydrologic cycle in the northern region of India. In India and many other countries snowmelt runoff estimations are vitally important in

- a) forecasting seasonal water yields for a diversity of water supply purposes.
- b) implementing flood control programmes.
- c) regulating rivers and storage works.
- and d) selecting design floods for particular watersheds.

Therefore, any programme for the effective control, conservation, and optimum development of water resources in these northern regions must take into account the vital contribution of snowmelt to the spring season runoff, or its potential for storage and subsequent utilisation.

Despite the importance of snow hydrology, it is only in the last decades that intensive research has led to the formation of theory which yields a partly satisfactory understanding of the complex hydrodynamic processes producing

snowmelt and subsequent stream flow. The new techniques are being widely used for predicting design estimates and seasonal yield. However, for short range forecasting of peak flow rates, the agreement between prediction and actual observations has been found to be uncertain, and leaves room for much improvement.

## 2.2 ROLE OF SNOW AND ICE IN THE GLOBAL WATER BALANCE :

The quantitative assessment of the world water balance is still in the process of revision and refinement. Even so, reasonable estimates can be attempted in order to illustrate the relative importance of the different components.

The total volume of water present in the whole hydrosphere amounts, according to Lvovitch (1970), to approximately  $1.45 \times 10^9 \text{ km}^3$ . Ice and snow represent about  $28 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^3$  of water (Moinkes 1967). Other estimates put these values rather lower but, at any rate, ice and snow constitutes 2 per cent of the water in all its forms. Of course, the seas and oceans contain about 97.4 per cent of the world water, but if this saline water is discarded ice and snow become the major component (Volker 1970).

## 2.3 PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF SNOW AND ICE :

Snow is defined as falling or deposited ice particles formed mainly by sublimation (UNESCO / IASH / WMO 1970). It can also be described as the solid form of water which

grow while floating, rising or falling in the free air of the atmosphere (Carruthers 1934), or simply as a porous, permeable aggregate of ice grains (Bolin 1952). Snow is formed when crystals nucleated grow, and begin their descent to earth. While falling through atmospheric layers of varying temperature and humidity, the crystals can change in form and also. The windy conditions prevail, snow crystals are carried along while held in suspension so that further modification by a thermodynamic and mechanical processes is possible, especially near the ground.

The density of the newly fallen snow is very frequently around 0.1. The density of 0.2 is very seldom exceeded even by wet old snow. Snow can eventually reach a density at which air permeability drops to zero, either by refreezing of pore water or by compaction during progressive burial. By convention the material is then considered to have made the transition from 'snow to ice'. Snow density is 100 mass per unit volume given in grams (g) per cm<sup>3</sup> or kg m<sup>-3</sup>. Since porosity is the volume ratio of voids to snow it is related to density as follows:

$$\eta = \frac{\rho_s - \rho}{\rho_s} = 1 - \frac{\rho}{\rho_s} = 1 - 0.099$$

where  $\eta$  is the porosity or dimensional ratio

$\rho$  is the snow density in g cm<sup>-3</sup>

$\rho_s$  is the density of ice in g cm<sup>-3</sup>.

Snow behaves in a very complicated manner near the melting point temperature. It is also a very highly variable material, with some properties that change by several orders of magnitude as bulk density varies over a typical range for deposited snow. However, the general properties of snow are fairly known and the only problem lies in recording the relevant data.

#### 2.4 THE SNOWLINE :

The snowline, the lower limit of the permanent snow, is an irregular line located along the ground surface where the accumulation of the snowfall equals ablation (melting and evaporation).

This line varies greatly in altitude and depends on several factors. On windward slopes and those facing the northern sun, the snowline may be as much as a kilometer higher than on opposite slopes. Over larger areas summer temperatures and amount of snowfall determine the position of the snowline. The snowline near the poles are lower than that near the equator. In moist seasonal areas with much snowfall the snowline is lower than in the areas of dry continental climates because of differential ablation. The snowline in dry high latitude is higher than at the equator where there is more snowfall for the same reason. The average altitudes of snowline taken over large areas can be used to derive a climatic snowline. This snowline falls in altitude in

response to world wide climatic change. During the glacial periods, the climatic conditions was from 600 to 2200 meters lower than at present.

## 2.5 SNOW SURVEY :

A great variety of methods and instruments has been developed for snow surveys in order to meet different demands and conditions. The snow data of primary importance for hydrological purposes are

- 1) snow depth
- 2) density and water equivalent
- and 3) snow extent.

All measurements related to snow accumulation and ablation depend greatly on the characteristics of the site, and in particular on the exposure to wind and sun and on the frequency and velocity of the wind. Unless there is some particular motive in choosing a special exposure, a site for measuring snow should be

- 1) horizontal
- 2) open to snowfall and insolation
- 3) sheltered against strong wind and drifting snow
- 4) distant from any objects which could cause obstructive snow deposits.

These conditions partly contradict each other, and in most cases a compromise has to be found.

## (1) Snow depth :

Snow depth is the vertical distance from the snow surface to the ground. It is measured by fixed graduated stakes which are part of the standard equipment of snow gauging stations.

If the time average snow depth over a large area with locally variable snow conditions is to be obtained, a great many observations must be taken. A network of observation sites is so called snow course is established.

There are three kinds of arrangements :

- 1) a number of sites are chosen each of which is representative for certain climatic conditions. On each site several measuring points are selected in rectangular paths.
- 2) a large number of single measuring points are installed along the path which can be easily followed.
- 3) The single measuring points are disposed along paths in a dense rectangular grid.

## (2) Snow density and water equivalent :

Snow density is the mass per unit volume given in  $g\ cm^{-3}$  or  $kg\ m^{-3}$ . It can also be considered as a dimensionless ratio called specific gravity, which is the snow density relative to density of water at  $4\ ^\circ C$ .

Water equivalent of snow cover is that the product of snow depth and density. It is the vertical depth of water layer which would be obtained by melting the snow cover over



a given area (HELMIG / TAMM / WED 1970).

Conventional measuring instruments are based on weighing snow samples which are taken by tubes of different lengths and diameters. The variability of snow depth is generally greater than that of snow density.

Considerable variations of densities in different layers may be encountered, especially in cold climates. The average density of a snow cover may also become more variable in localities with different slopes and exposures. Daily falls of new snow, in terms of water equivalent, are measured by rain gauges. In fact, most rain gauges make use of snow gauges. Losses of catch do not matter for snow than rain. Comparative studies (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1955) have shown that for an average wind speed of 20 mph there was a catch deficit of 20 per cent for rain and 35 per cent for snow. Generally, rain gauges with heated collectors are also affected by this error, although there is a reduction in the blowing out of snow caught in the funnel. Better values are obtained by measuring the depth of daily snowfall on a snow board and determining its water equivalent. The use of weighing gauges to record the intensity of snowfall is not entirely satisfactory.

### (5) The areal extent of snow

An areal extent is especially important in regions with a seasonal snow cover, since it can change from a 200 per cent coverage of a basin to none in a relatively short time.

It is evident that the water production from a melting snow cover depends directly on its surface area and yet, systematic measurements of seasonal changes of the snow cover have been limited, until recently, to experimental areas. In the basin the snow cover is gradually decreasing from the start of the snowfall season. As the summer progresses the snowline recedes just from the lower altitude till it reaches the permanent snowline (S). Loof (1937) fitted the snow cover depletion curve to the equation

$$A = \frac{100}{1 + e^{-\lambda t}}$$

where  $A$  is the percentage of area without snow  
 $t$  is the time measured from an arbitrary origin  
 $b$  is a constant  
 $e$  is the base of natural logarithms which can be rearranged as

$$b = \frac{100}{1 + e^{-\lambda(t_{50}-t)}}$$

where  $S$  is the percentage of snow cover  
 $t_{50}$  is the time at which  $S = 50$ .

#### 2.6 WATER AND ENERGY BALANCE AS A POINT :

The generation of energy at a point recorded in a snowpack is essentially a thermodynamic process, the amount of melt produced being dependent on the net heat exchange

between the snowpack and its environment. The travel of melt water to another point in the pack and its time distribution at that point depend on physiographic (gradient, depth, etc.) and hydrodynamic (porosity) structure, storage etc.) properties of the snowpack[23].

The various sources and processes influencing heat transfer to or from a snowpack shown in figure (2.1) are listed below:

1. Absorbed shortwave (solar) radiation,  $R_s$  .
2. Net longwave (terrestrial and atmospheric) radiation ,  $R_b$  .
3. Condensation (or vaporization) from the air,  $R_o$  .
4. Convective heat transfer (by wind)  $R_h$  .
5. Heat content of rain water,  $H_r$  .
6. Conduction of heat from ground,  $H_g$  .

The melt water produced by the net transfer of heat from all sources to the snowpack may be obtained from

$$M = \frac{\sum H}{203 B} \quad (1)$$

where  $M$  = water equivalent of snowmelt (in.)

$H$  = algebraic sum of all heat contributions  
(cal./cm<sup>2</sup>) , and

$B$  = thermal quality of the snowpack, defined as the ratio of heat required to melt a unit weight of snow to that of ice at 0°C [ averages from 0.95 to 0.97, for 3 to 5 per cent liquid water).

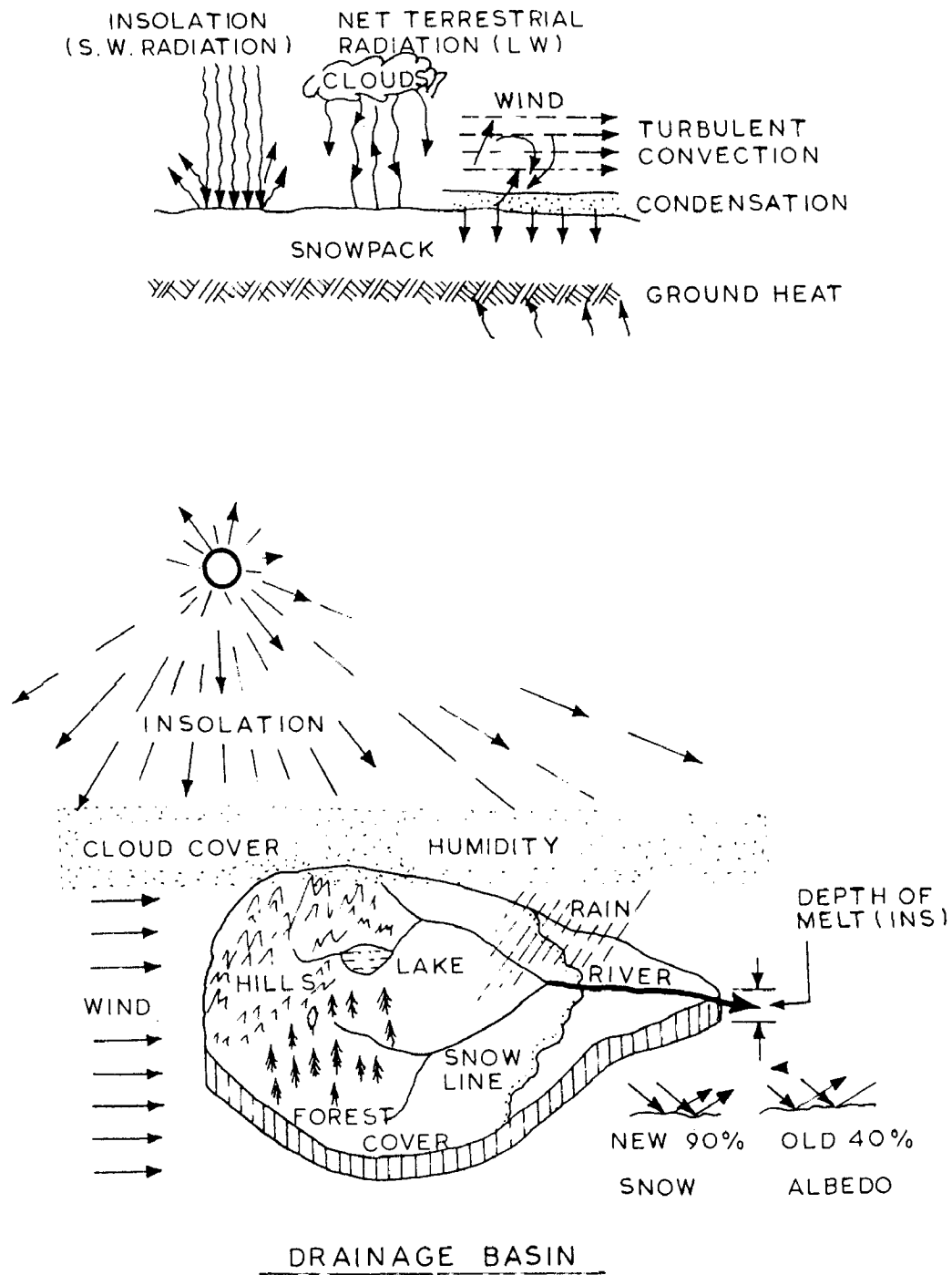


FIG. 2.1 SOURCES OF HEAT THAT GENERATE SNOWMELT

The constant 205 is the heat input in cal/cm<sup>2</sup> required to produce one inch of water vapor at 0 °C. It has the dimensions (cal/cm<sup>2</sup>/in).

### 2. Absorbed shortwave (solar) radiation :

Increasing solar (shortwave) radiation greatly influences the environmental relationships above a canopy; the amount absorbed by the canopy forms an important component of total energy. The net amount of heat absorbed by the canopy depends on latitude, orientation and slope, season, time of day, atmospheric conditions (clouds, fog, rain), forest cover, and reflectivity of the snow (albedo).

The intensity of insolation or shortwave solar radiation is normally expressed in langyrs (cal/cm<sup>2</sup>) per unit of time (min., hr., or day). The most simple and accurate measurement of net insolation is by calorimeters or pyranometers. These instruments are calibrated to give the shortwave radiation intensity in ly/hr or ly/day.

In those locations where net solar radiation measurements are not available, either of the two approaches may be employed. The net insolation is estimated by allowing for transmission efficiency of the atmosphere (cloud cover), forest cover, slope, orientation, and most important, the albedo of the canopy. Of these, cloud cover and albedo are of major significance, and need careful evaluation. The cloud is considered to be the most significant for open areas, and

when snow is included in melt computations. The albedo is generally taken as 60 per cent for fresh snow and assumed to decrease exponentially to about 40 per cent remaining into ocean snow. The melt component produced by shortwave radiation can be expressed as

$$H_{20} = \frac{(2-a) H_{21}}{209 D} = 0.0050 H_{21} (2-a) \ln/ky$$

where 'a' is the albedo written as a decimal fraction,  $H_{21}$  is the effective solar radiation in  $ky/ky$  and D is assumed to be 0.97 for a melting snowpack.

A second much simpler approach assumes a correlation between effective insolation and machine operation, and substitutes daily hours of machine in use with suitably modified coefficients to compute the melt. A recent study in New Brunswick by Pyndyus (1966) has demonstrated this approach to be only slightly less accurate than using measured net insolation in  $ky/ky$ .

## 2. Net longwave (terrestrial and atmospheric) radiation

Snow is considered to be a near perfect black body with respect to longwave radiation and longwave radiation emitted by snow can be estimated by Stefan's law. However, computation of net longwave radiation involves estimation of direct radiation from the atmosphere under clear or cloudy skies, and from under forest cover; these evaluations are difficult and their use avoided in practical snow hydrology.

Further the USFS Manual (1959) suggests the following simplified expressions using environmental temperatures :

Clear skies & open :

$$\Pi_{23} = 0.0232 (T_0 - 32) = 0.04 \quad (2)$$

where  $\Pi_{23}$  = the daily amount in inches

and  $T_0$  = the air temperature over snow surface

Under forest canopy :

$$\Pi_{23} = 0.029 (T_0 - 32)$$

Complete cloud cover :

$$\Pi_{23} = 0.029 (T_0 - 32)$$

where  $T_0$  is the temperature of cloud base in  $^{\circ}F$ .

When measured temperatures are available, the information can be used directly in these equations ; otherwise suitable correlations with temperature measurements taken at a nearby meteorological station need to be established.

### 3. Condensation and Convection Heat :

When water vapour from the atmosphere condenses on a snow surface, the heat of condensation of water is absorbed by snowpack. The vapour pressure gradient and wind speed are considered to be the principal parameters influencing this process.

The snowmelt produced by condensation may be estimated from the experimentally derived relation (USOE experiments as given in their Manual Runoff from Snowmelt)

$$M_s = 0.054 (z_a z_b)^{-1/5} (e_a - e_0) u_b \quad (1)$$

where  $M_s$  = snowmelt in in/day

$z_a$  and  $z_b$  = the heights of measurement (ft) of the air vapour pressure and wind speed above the snow surface.

$e_a$  = the air vapour pressure in mb

$e_0$  = the snow surface vapour pressure in mb  
(6.11 mb at a melting snow surface).

and  $u_b$  = the wind speed in mph.

Melt produced by convection results mainly from heat transferred from warm air advected over the snow surface. The theory of turbulent transfer in the atmosphere is very complex, but experiments have indicated that simple approximation can be useful. The simplified expression considers chiefly the temperature gradient of the air above the snow surface, the wind speed, and the air density (taken as the function of the air pressure).

Convection melt may be estimated from the experimental equation

$$M_s = 0.00629 (p/p_0) (z_a z_b)^{-1/5} (T_a - T_0) u_b \quad (2)$$

where  $M_s$  = snowmelt in ins/day



- $p$  and  $p_0$  = air pressure at the site and sea level, respectively
- $z_a$  and  $z_b$  = heights (ft) above the snow surface of air temperature and wind speed respectively
- $T_a$  and  $T_0$  = air and snow surface temperatures in  $^{\circ}F$ , the snow surface temperature being normally taken as  $32^{\circ}F$ .

The contribution from convection is usually small relative to other factors. The equation for condensation and convection can be conveniently combined into a single equation to give

$$M_{ce} = 0.00629 (z_a z_b)^{-1/5} [(T_a - 32)p/p_0 + 0.59(e_a - 6.11)] \text{ in}$$

the total condensation - convection melt in ins/day. For practical applications in hydrology this equation can be further simplified. The ratio  $p/p_0$  varies from 1.0 at sea level to 0.7 at an elevation of 10,000 ft. For areas with moderate topographic changes it may be assumed to have a constant value of approximately 0.8. Also the vapour pressure can be assumed to be adequately represented by dew point temperatures. By fixing the heights of measurement of  $T_a$  and  $T_d$  in  $^{\circ}F$  at 10 ft. and that of wind speed at 50 ft. the preceding equation can be simplified to

$$M_{ce} = 0.0084 [0.22 (T_a - 32) + 0.78 (T_d - 32)] \text{ in}$$

where  $T_a$  and  $T_d$  = the mean air and dew point temperature respectively at the 10 ft. height

and  $u_b$  = the mean wind speed in mph at the 50 ft. height.

In some regions a linear regression relation between  $T_a$  and  $T_d$  gives a high degree of correlation, permitting further simplification.

#### 4. Melt Content of Rain :

Rain falling on the snow surface at temperature above  $32^\circ F$  transfers heat to the snow thus producing melt. This can be stated directly by the equation

$$M_p = 0.007 P(T_a - 32)$$

where  $M_p$  = the snowmelt in ins/day due to rain

$P$  = the mean rainfall in ins/day

and  $T_a$  = the mean free air temperature in  $^\circ F$ .

Ray K. Linsley Jr. [7] in his paper in June 1943 had also suggested this relation.

#### 5. Heat conduction at ground :

Melt produced by heat conduction at the ground ( $M_g$ ) is generally considered insignificant, unless there is a large underground source. A nominal value of 0.02 in/day is recommended

for inclusion in design estimates.

In this subsection a semi-empirical theory developed mainly by the U.S. Corps of Engineers, has been given in outline; it is valid for very small plots of homogeneous character. Its chief purpose has been to provide an insight into the snowmelt process as influenced by various meteorological parameters, and to quantitate the effectiveness of each of these parameters in causing snowmelt.

The total snowmelt produced at a point location by the various factors will be

$$M = M_{rs} + M_{sl} + M_{ce} + M_p + M_g$$

## 2.7 SNOWMELT RUNOFF DETERMINATION

The manner in which runoff from either rainfall or snowmelt is affected by conditions prevalent within the snow pack is of primary interest to the hydrologist. Various views on storage characteristics of a snow pack have been suggested. These range from the concept that a snowpack can retain large amounts of liquid water to the hypothesis that snow pack storage is negligible. There is no universally applicable relationship, and it is important to base any runoff consideration on a knowledge of the character of a snowpack at the time of study. Winter runoff is related to snowpack condition whereas in the spring, once active melt begins, little or no delay in the transport of melt or rainfall through the snowpack occurs.

For drainage basins in mountainous area, snowpack storage effects may be approximated by subdividing the watershed into relatively uniform areas. Normally, this will be accomplished by using elevation zones. Snowpack at the lowest levels may be conditioned readily transmit rain or meltwater, whereas in higher elevations a liquid water deficit may prevail. At upper most elevations, the snowpack may be very dry and cold and thus in a condition for the optimum storage of water. The storage potential of the watershed zones must be based on representative measurements of the snow depth, density, temperature, water equivalent, moisture content, and snowpack character. The snowpack character relates to the physical structure of the pack. Unfortunately, adequate measure of all these factors are not always available or easily obtained. Estimates of changes between sampling periods are usually indexed to readily observed meteorologic variables.

The formulation of snowpack storage and time delay characteristics can be fashioned by assuming a homogeneous pack. In this case storage is related directly to the liquid water deficit and cold content of the pack. Time delay is a function of inflow rate. It is considered that the snowpack storage potential must be entirely satisfied before runoff begins. This is not so in reality, but the assumption permits an analysis to be made. As melt proceeds, the storage potential of any snowpack diminishes.

Storage of a crop with below zero temperatures is considered to be the sum of the equivalent water requirement to raise the temperature of the crop to 0 °C (cold content W) and the liquid water holding capacity of the crop. If the water needed to bring a crop temperature to 0 °C, it may be represented by

$$V_0 = \frac{V_0 \Sigma}{360}$$

where  $\Sigma$  = the mean crop temperature below zero.

$V_0$  = the initial water equivalent of the crop in inches for an assumed specific heat of the soil of 0.5.

The time  $t_0$  in hours needed to raise the crop temperature to zero is then given by

$$t_0 = \frac{V_0 \Sigma}{360(I+n)}$$

where  $I$  = the solar intensity (in/hr)

and  $n$  = rate of melt (in/hr)

Storage required to meet the liquid water deficit of the crop is given by

$$S_f = \frac{R_p}{360} (V_0 + V_0)$$

where  $S_f$  = the amount of water stored (in)

$R_p$  = the per cent efficiency in liquid water of the crop.

The time in hours  $t_f$  needed to fill the storage  $S_f$  is given by

$$t_f = \frac{I_p (W_o + W_c)}{100 (i + m)}$$

It has been specified that the total storage potential  $S_p$  to be met prior to the runoff is given as

$$S_p = W_o + S_f$$

This is also known as 'permanent' storage since it is not available to the runoff until the snowpack has finally melted. An additional storage component transitory storage  $S_t$  is that water stored in the snowpack while moving through it to become runoff till initiation of runoff, the transitory storage in inches can be expressed as

$$S_t = \frac{D (i + m)}{V}$$

where  $D$  = the depth of the snowpack (ft)

$V$  = the rate of transmission through the snowpack (ft/hr)

The delay time of water in passing through the snowpack  $t_d$  is thus

$$t_d = D/V$$

for  $t_d$  in hours.

Assuming that  $W_c$  is very small compared to  $W_o$ , the depth of the snowpack is given by

$$D = \frac{V_0}{P_s}$$

with  $P_s$  the density of the snowpack.

$$\text{then } t_0 = V_0 / (P_s V)$$

Before the runoff commences, the total water  $S$  stored in the snowpack, in inches, is given by

$$S = V_0 + S_f + S_t$$

which can also be written as

$$S = V_0 \left( \frac{F_s}{160} + \frac{F_t}{100} + \frac{(1+m)}{P_s V} \right)$$

The total time in hours which passes before runoff is produced is thus

$$t = t_0 + t_f + t_t$$

or

$$t = V_0 \frac{F_s}{160(1+m)} + \frac{F_t}{100(1+m)} + \frac{1}{P_s V}$$

After establishing the active runoff from the snowpack, the only significant term in equation  $t = t_0 + t_f + t_t$  is  $t_t$ , and this is usually small compared with the overall basin lag and can be neglected. With increased snowmelt and runoff, additional increments of water previously withheld by snow blockage to drainage outlets and other factors are released. Adequate quantification of this cannot be accomplished at

present. A deep compact snow 19 in having a mean temperature of  $-9^{\circ}\text{C}$ , could store about 4 in. of liquid water before the onset of runoff [2].

### 2.7.1 Hydrograph Recession :

Recession curves have the general form

$$Q = Q_0 e^{-kt}$$

where  $Q$  = the discharge at time  $t$

$Q_0$  = the initial rate of flow

$k$  = a recession constant.

Studies of daily stream flow by hydrograph point out evaluating the amount of runoff derived from runoff [2]. The technique is essentially one of separation of the daily hydrographs. Fig. (2.2) illustrates the procedure. Assume that the first, second and succeeding peaks, respectively, are extended backward in time, at a point A, the recession curve for runoff days. If the ultimate recession curve is given by hydrograph 2 will intersect it. The area between recession from hydrograph 1 and hydrograph 2 (shown cross-hatched) is the runoff attributed to day 1. In like manner, a series of ultimate hydrographs can be studied to determine their individual runoff components. By observing such hydrograph features as the height to peak I, the height to trough Y, and the form of the recession volume and rate records of runoff runoff can be made. A more comprehensive treatment of this subject can be found in [3].



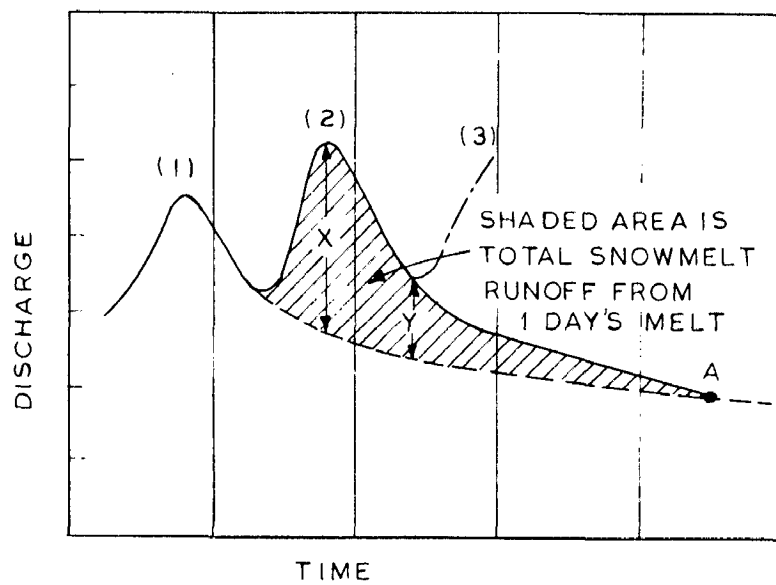


FIG.2·2 SEPARATION OF A SNOWMELT  
HYDROGRAPH.

## 2.7.2 THE DEGREE - DAY METHOD :

This method was first suggested by W.2. Wilson [6]. As used in the U.S. a degree day in its broadest sense, is a unit expressing the amount of heat in terms of the persistence of a temperature for a 24 hr period of one degree - Fahrenheit departure from a reference temperature. As often applied in snowmelt studies, the degree day is computed by subtracting the average of the daily maximum and daily minimum temperature from 32°F. For example, if the daily mean thus computed were 32°F, there would be zero degree day. A daily mean of 37 °F would yield 5 degree-days. Degree days above 32 °F and degree days above reference temperature have been used in point-snowmelt and in runoff-snowmelt computation. Accordingly, Garstka, Love, Goodell, and Bertle [4] used the commonly available maximum and minimum temperatures to estimate the degree days in a detailed interpretive study. The ratio of the water equivalent of the snowmelt away in 24 hrs to the number of degree days in the same period is called degree-day factor [5]. The relation reads

$$M = a T_d \quad (1)$$

where  $M$  = the daily snowmelt depth (cm)

$a$  = the degree-day factor (cm °C<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>)

$T_d$  = the number of degree-days (°Cd)

Degree days ratios given in inches and degree days Fahrenheit can be converted to values in cm. and deg. celsius by a

coefficient of 4.57. It is pertinent at this point to deal with the degree day factor. Numerous determinations of the dry bulb degree day factor (watered constant) have been made.

Ray E. Lindley, Jr. has determined values of the watered constant by dividing the total runoff from the basin for a short period by circumference unit melt, (the term, unit melt is defined as the depth of runoff in inches over the entire drainage basin if 0.01 inch of runoff occurs in the melting run for each degree day above 32 °F. It is determined simply by dividing average degree days over the basin by 100). He said that the observed runoff should be corrected for runoff from rainfall. This may be done by the means of a rainfall runoff relation for the basin, but because of the possible error in such a procedure, it is usually best determined, the watered constant from periods when little or no rain occurred. Correction of the observed runoff for baseflow will undoubtedly improve the results.

Waldo [10] found the watered constant for Goodhue Creek, Utah, was about 0.09 in. per degree day. He also exposed new samples in a laboratory and found the value of constant as 0.09 in/degree-day, he expressed that the difference probably represents heat supplied to the snow in the basin from radiation and from the soil which is not reflected in the air temperature.

Studies by U.S. Weather Bureau and others indicate that the dry bulb degree day factor varies between 0.05 and 0.25 in/degree day.

Studies have shown that the apparent degree day factor computed from low winds to increase with time after a freezing spell. This effect is probably largely due to the reduction of early melt water in the snow and soil. In studies of basins in Western Pennsylvania, Jordan [13] found the degree day factor to be slightly lower on heavily forested basins with values ranging from 0.09 on basins with thin cover to 0.05 where cover was heavy.

The U. S. Soil Conservation Service [12] found certain values of degree day factor (intercept constant) for different conditions and noted that the intercept constant value includes the infiltration rate of watered area.

TABLE 2-1

<u>Deforestation Condition</u>	<u>Value of Apparent Degree Factor</u>
1. Low runoff potential	0.02
2. Average heavily forested area north facing slopes of open country	0.06 - 0.05
3. Average runoff potential	0.05
4. South-facing slopes of forested area average open country	0.05 - 0.03
5. High runoff potential	0.50

The U.S. 'A Guide for Hydrological Prediction' [25] has given a table containing values of the degree day factor on monthly basis shown below :

TABLE 2.2

Month	Degree Day Factor ( $m^{\circ}C$ )		
	Moderately Severed	Partly Severed	Non- Severed
1. April	2	3	4
2. May	3	4	6
3. June	4	6	7

In the same publication, the value of the degree factor based by a Russian scientist have been given as

TABLE 2.3

Understand condition	Degree-day Factor ( $m^{\circ}C$ )
1. Unsevered area	3
2. Sparse coniferous and average density of hard wood	3 to 4
3. Average density of coniferous woods and dense mixed	2.7 to 2.9
4. Dense coniferous woods	2.4 to 2.5

The conclusions which can be drawn from earlier studies by different persons mentioned above, could be summarized as follows :

- 1) Waterhead constant is increasing the insulation loss at each spot also.
- 2) Waterhead constant is varying for different periods of the melting season.
- 3) <sup>For</sup> The study so far established the waterhead constant value <sup>depends on the</sup> ~~is~~ <sup>?</sup> effect of temperature, on melting process.
- 4) Waterhead constant may be varying if the conditions is not uniform in the pattern.

Since the air is not the only source of heat and in view of the varying conditions in the atmosphere, the degree-day factor cannot be expected to be constant. Values in the range from 0.07 to 0.9 have been reported (Gardner, 1934). Using a nuclear mass gauge it is possible to measure degree day tables in different conditions without disturbing the snow cover (Hartman, 1940). Snow density expected to be a useful parameter to which variations of the degree-day factor could be correlated by the relation

$$\sigma = 1.1 \rho_p \quad (2)$$

where  $\rho_p$  = the snow density relative to water (sp. gravity)

Equation (2) has been derived for average wind conditions.

Substantial deviations may be expected in periods with extremely

high or low wind speeds. However in larger basins, it might be necessary to take into account further possible sources of deviations in calculating wind runoff.

- (1) In forested areas degree day factors are affected by changed radiation balance as compared with open areas.
- (2) The differences in the exposure of slopes are influenced the heat gain from the radiation which is included in the degree-day factor.
- (3) On a slope the atmospheric effects on snowmelt are increased since the exposed area is greater than its horizontal projection (i.e. a snow layer of a given thickness on a slope represents more melt water than a horizontal layer of equal thickness, although mathematically both areas would be equal). 6

In equation (2) the snow density term is representative of other factors affecting the snowmelt: a greater density means in many cases older snow with a low albedo, which promotes the heat gain radiation. Furthermore, high densities are frequently connected with the increased snow water content and the low thermal quality of snow. Independent experimental work has also shown that density is a generally satisfactory index of the thermal properties of snowpack (Haley and co-workers, 1972).

According to a study by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers the daily melting time snowmelt  $M$  in inches may be calculated by the following empirical equation as a function

individual observations or groups of observations to replace  
 watched values in time and space. The efficacy of an index  
 is based on (1) the ability of the index to adequately describe  
 the physical process it represents, (2) the random variability  
 of the observations (3) the degree to which the point observa-  
 tion is typical of actual conditions and (4) the nature of  
 variability between the point measurement and the basin mean.  
 Indices may be equations or simple coefficients, and variable or  
 constant.

The type of data required to make comprehensive  
 thermal budget studies are usually unavailable in whole or  
 part for waterbodies other than those which themselves are  
 experimental areas. As a result, hydrologists must make the  
 best use of information at hand. The most commonly available  
 data are daily maximum and minimum temperature, humidity, and  
 wind velocity. Less prevalent are continuous measurements of  
 these data, and few studies record solar radiation or the  
 duration of the sunshine. Hourly observations can be  
 sometimes obtained from local airport weather stations.

A complete general index for reliably describing  
 annual-thermal relationships for all basins has not been  
 established. Most indices include coefficients valid only  
 for specific topographic, meteorologic, hydrologic, and  
 seasonal conditions and are therefore limited in applicability  
 to other waterbodies. The annual-thermal equation cited in  
 some of the thermal budget indices is



of the mean daily temperature  $T_{mean}$ , the mean daily temperature  $T_{max}$  and the relative percent cover,

1. For open sites

$$I = 0.06 (T_{mean} - 24)$$

$$I = 0.04 (T_{max} - 27)$$

2. For forest sites

$$I = 0.05 (T_{mean} - 32)$$

$$I = 0.04 (T_{max} - 42)$$

These equations are applicable for  $T_{mean}$  in the range of 34 to 60° F and for  $T_{max}$  in the range of 44 to 70° F. The point melt rate in inches per degree-day above 32° F may vary from as little as 0.015 to as much as 0.2 in. per degree-day. For a typical constant period an average of 0.05 in./degree-day may be used but with discussion.

### 2.7.3 INDEXES :

Hydrologic indices are made up of hydrologic or meteorologic variables to describe their functioning. The index variable is more easily measured or handled than element it represents. When more fixed relationships are known to exist between point measurements and watershed values, indices can be used to record both spatial and temporal aspects of basin values. Indices serve to permit (1) readily obtainable observations to depict hydrologic variables or processes which themselves cannot be easily measured, and (2) simplification of computational methods by allowing

individual observations or groups of observations to replace  
 watched values in time and space. The adequacy of an index  
 is based on (1) the ability of the index to adequately describe  
 the physical process it represents, (2) the random variability  
 of the observation (3) the degree to which the point observa-  
 tion is typical of actual conditions and (4) the nature of  
 variability between the point measurement and the basin mean.  
 Indices may be constants or simple coefficients, and variable or  
 constant.

The type of data required to make comprehensive  
 thermal budget studies are normally unavailable in whole or  
 part for watersheds other than ones which themselves are  
 experimental areas. As a result, hydrologist must make the  
 best use of information at hand. The most commonly available  
 data are daily maximum and minimum temperature humidity, and  
 wind velocity. Less prevalent are continuous measurements of  
 these data, and few stations record water evaporation or the  
 duration of the sunshine. Hourly cloudiness data can be  
 sometimes obtained from local airport weather stations.

A complete general index for reliably describing  
 energy-balance relationships for all basins has not been  
 established. Most indices include coefficients valid only  
 for specific topographies, meteorologic, hydrologic, and  
 seasonal conditions and are therefore limited in applicability  
 to other watersheds. The energy balance equation stated in  
 terms of thermal budget indices is

$$Y = a + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i X_i$$

where  $Y$  = the amount sought

$a$  = a regression constant

the  $b_i$ 's = the regression coefficients

the  $X_i$ 's = individual indices.

The table below shows some types of indices that have been successfully used in amount investigations.

TABLE 2-4

Some indices used to describe thermal bridge variables:

Thermal Bridge Component	Index
Absorbed	Direction of sunshine
Absorptive radiation	Diurnal temperature range
Longwave radiation	Air temperature for heavy covered areas  For open areas longwave radiation should be estimated.
Convective heat exchange	$(T_a - T_s) V$ , where $T_a$ is the air temp., $T_s$ the snow surface temp. or base temp., and $V$ wind-velocity.
Heat of condensation	$(p_a - p_s) V$ , where $p_a$ and $p_s$ are vapor pressures of air and snow surface at a base value, and $V$ is the wind speed.

It should be noted that every term in the heat budget equation is not always significant for a particular analysis, and thus the number of  $X_{ij}$  will vary for different basins and conditions. A final heat equation developed by the Corps of Engineers for the partly sheltered Salco River Basin above Tulsa during 1962, was

$$Q = 0.00253 Q + 0.0249 (T_{max} - 77)$$

where

$Q$  = daily net heat budget (Btu) over the area covered area

$Q$  = an estimated value of the daily all-wave radiation exchange in the area (Btu/day)

$T_{max}$  = the daily maximum temperature at Salco ( $^{\circ}F$ )

#### 2.7.4 GENERALIZED BASIC ENERGY EQUATIONS:

Intensive studies by the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers at various laboratories in the West have produced several general equations for net heat during (1) rainless periods and (2) periods of rain.

When rain is falling, heat transfer by convection and conduction is of prime importance. Solar radiation is slight, and long-wave radiation can be readily determined from theoretical considerations. When rainless periods prevail, both solar and terrestrial radiation become significant and may require direct evaluation. Convection and conduction are usually less critical during rainless intervals. The equations are

summarized as follows :

1. Equations for periods with rainfall :

- a) For open (cover below 20 per cent) or partly forested (cover from 20 to 60 per cent) watersheds.

$$H = (0.029 + 0.0004 V + 0.007 E_p) (E_0 + 92) + 0.09$$

- b) For heavily forested areas (over 60 per cent cover).

$$H = (0.074 + 0.007 E_p) (E_0 + 92) + 0.05$$

where  $H$  = the daily runoff (in/24)

$E_p$  = the rainfall intensity (in/24)

$E_0$  = the temperature of the saturated air at 20 ft. level ( $^{\circ}$ F)

$V$  = the average wind velocity at 50 ft. level (mph)

$E$  = the basin constant, which includes forest and topographic effects, and represents average exposure of the area to wind.

Values decrease from 2.0 for open plain areas to about 0.5 for dense forests.

2. Equations for rainless periods :

- a) For heavy forested areas,

$$H = 0.074 (0.99 E_0 + 0.07 E_p)$$

- b) For forested areas (cover of 60 to 90 per cent)

$$H = E (0.0004 V) (0.22 E_0 + 0.78 E_p) + 0.029 E_0$$

a) For partly forested areas,

$$E = E^*(2-a)(0.0240 I_2) (2-a) \\ + E(0.0204 V) (0.22 \Delta_0^* + 0.78 \Delta_1^*) \\ + E(0.029 \Delta_0^*)$$

b) For open areas

$$E = E^*(0.00203 I_2) (2-a) + (2-a)(0.0222 \Delta_0^* - 0.04) \\ + E(0.029 \Delta_0^*) \Delta_1^* + \\ + E(0.0204 V) (0.22 \Delta_0^* + 0.78 \Delta_1^*)$$

where  $E, V,$  and  $K$  = as previously described

$\Delta_0^*$  = the difference between the 10 ft. air and the near surface ( $^{\circ}F$ ) temperatures

$\Delta_1^*$  = the difference between the 10 ft. canopy and the near surface temperature ( $^{\circ}F$ )

$I_2$  = the observed or estimated insolation (Langley)

$a$  = the observed or estimated near near surface albedo.

$E^*$  = the basic absorptive radiation net factor (varies from 0.9 to 1.1) which is related to near exposure of open areas compared to an unshaded horizontal surface

$F$  = the near basin forest canopy cover (decimal fraction)

$\Delta_0^*$  = the difference between the cloud base and near surface temperature ( $^{\circ}F$ ).

$E$  = the estimated cloud cover (decimal fraction).

Note that the use of equations of the type given must be related to the areal extent of the area over if scientific values are to be obtained. Present methods of determining this are not totally adequate.

### 2.7.5 THE WATER BUDGET :

The water budget can be used to estimate the areal runoff from a water shed [2]. Such an approach has particular merit for areas where hydro-meteorological records are short. Difficulty with the method is the usual lack of satisfactory data to properly quantify the various components. A hydrologic budget equation for the earth's surface can be written as

$$R = P - L - \Delta S \quad (1)$$

where  $P$  = the gross precipitation

$R$  = the runoff

$L$  = the losses

$\Delta S$  = the change in storage.

For areal computations this equation is modified somewhat.

Gross precipitation for a given period  $P$  will now be defined as the sum of precipitation in the form of snow  $P_0$  and rain

$P_{rs}$  or

$$P = P_r + P_0 \quad (2)$$

This also may be written as

$$P = P_r + P_0 = P_n + L_A \quad (3)$$

where  $P_a$  = net precipitation

$L_a$  = interception loss

A further refinement yields

$$P = P_{ra} + L_{ra} + P_{ca} + L_{ca} \quad (4)$$

where

$P_{ra}$  and  $P_{ca}$  = net rainfall and snowfall

$L_{ra}$  and  $L_{ca}$  = the rain and snow interceptions

The total loss  $L$  will be

$$L = L_{ca} + L_{ra} + L_0 + \Delta S \quad (5)$$

where

$L_0$  = the evapotranspiration loss

$\Delta S$  = change in available soil moisture. The storage term  $\Delta S$  is then given as

$$\Delta S = (U_2 - U_1) + \Delta S_G \quad (6)$$

where

$U_2$  and  $U_1$  = final and initial water equivalents of the areopack

$\Delta S_G$  = the ground and channel storage.

Inserting values for  $L_0$ ,  $L_a$  and  $\Delta S$  from eqns (4), (5) and (6) in equation (3)

$$\begin{aligned} R &= P_{ra} + L_{ra} + P_{ca} + L_{ca} - L_{ra} - L_{ca} - L_0 \\ &= U_{ca} - (U_2 - U_1) - \Delta S_G \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

and cancelling positive and negative values of  $L_{ra}$  and  $L_{ca}$  produces

$$R = P_{ca} - P_{ra} - (U_2 - U_1) - \Delta S_G - L_0 \quad (8)$$



The expression  $P_{ca} = (U_2 - U_1)$  represents the amount of  
 therefore,

$$H = P_{ca} + H = Q_{ca} = Q_2 = H_0 \quad (9)$$

If reliable estimates of the terms in eqn. (9) can be obtained,  
 the total discharge  $H$  is computable.

## CHAPTER III

## APPLICATION OF REMOTE SENSING TECHNIQUES FOR HYDROLOGICAL ANALYSIS

## 3.0 INTRODUCTION :

The use of aerial photographs for mapping was realized in the late 19th century, while some experiments were made by mapping from balloon photography. The progress of the two world wars accelerated the modern trends of aerial photographic mapping. Aerial photo-mapping and photo-analysis are very useful as they provide the latest, complete and accurate information of the area under investigation as compared to the conventional ground survey mapping and investigation method.

Aerial photographs also aid in preparation of thematic maps of all types of natural resources and in supplying quantitative and qualitative information about the ground conditions. This aspect of aerial photo-analysis has further vastly improved during the last decade or so by the introduction of remote sensing techniques and computer aided photo-interpretation system.

Remote sensing has already an accelerating impact on hydrology and other environmental sciences. Broadly defined, remote sensing technique is any methodology employed to study the physical and other characteristics of objects without coming into physical contact with them. Conventional survey methods are time consuming and cannot be easily updated due to diverse terrain and weather conditions.

As such, updating information at reasonably frequent intervals calls for a strategy involving remote sensing techniques.

5.2 THE SATELLITES, SENSORS AND PLATFORM FOR PHOTO-ANALYSIS:

Artificial earth satellites can be used for research and analysis of hydrological aspects of water resources in the <sup>at</sup> continent:

- (i) as a platform for remote sensing
- and (ii) as a data relay device.

Whether the operations are manned or not, two types of orbits are generally the most useful (i) the sun synchronous, which are relatively low altitude and have near polar inclination, and (ii) earth synchronous, which are relatively high and near equatorial.

The current United States satellites with sun synchronous orbits are from NOAA, SEASAT, Nimbus and DMSP series. For NOAA series satellites the orbit permits the camera from a single satellite to view any particular point on the earth twice each day, once during day light and once at night. Cameras carried on these satellites are generally visible camera and radiometric cameras. Visible camera systems such as on SEASAT and 2, are useful only during the daylight portion of the orbit. These cameras are sensitive to broad bands of electromagnetic spectrum, 0.4  $\mu$ m to 0.7  $\mu$ m. The radiometric picture cameras

transmit their information continuously whereas the advanced video camera system stores its data on magnetic tape, transmitting them upon command to a ground station.

The TIROS earth satellite system observes the earth's surface by automatic picture camera and advanced video camera system, as well as by means of a scanning radiometer. The scanning radiometer data can be stored and transmitted upon command of a ground station's signal. This sensor, which is sensitive to infrared radiation in the  $2.5 - 2.9 \mu$  waves, has night as well as day time capabilities.

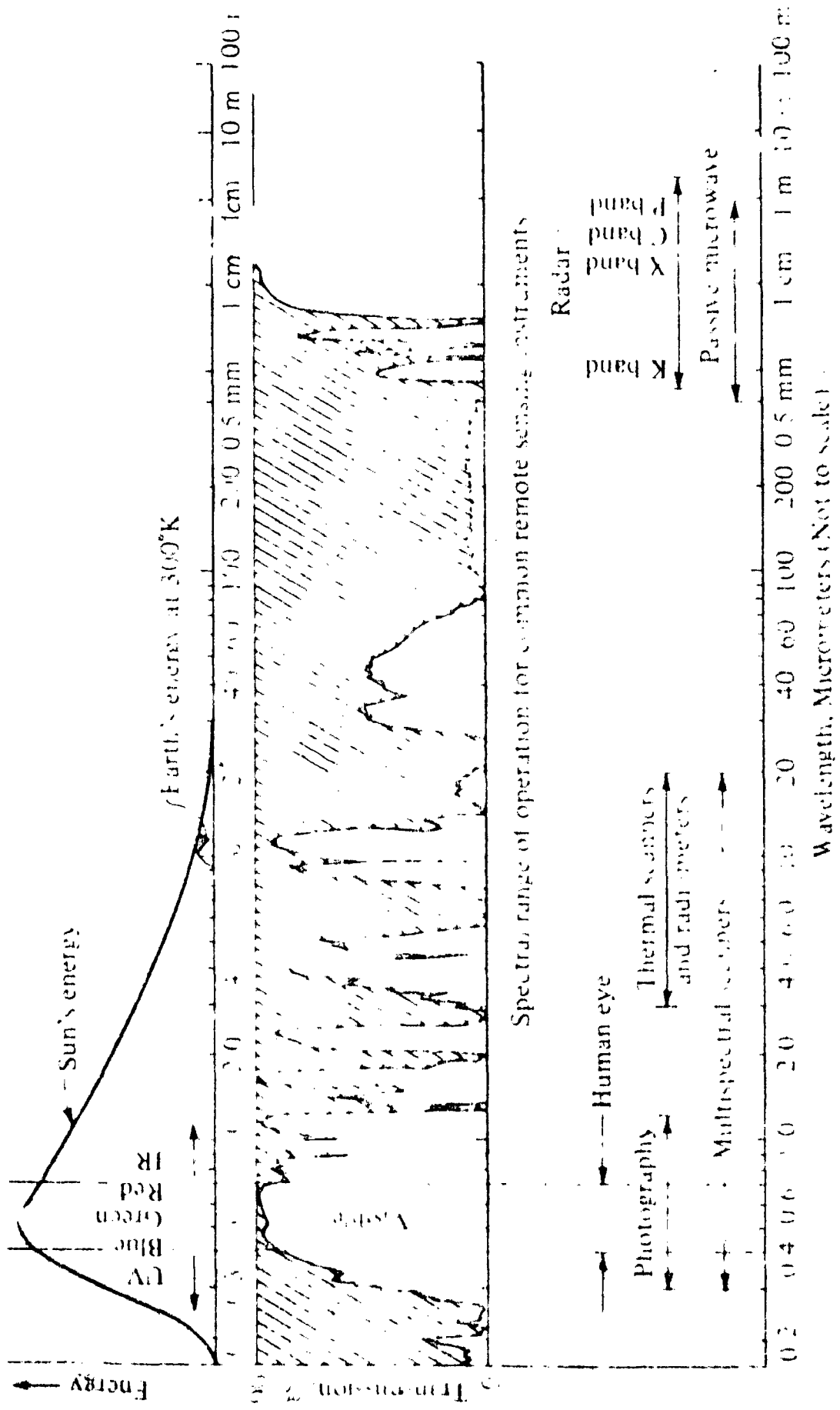
During 1969 a successful testing was made from Nimbus III of a satellite born infrared spectrometer. With one week ahead that atmospheric temperature profiles made from such data was quite comparable with those obtained by standard meteorological instruments. Temperature and water vapour sounders, such as the satellite infrared spectrometer, hold much promise for improvement of quantitative precipitation forecasts.

These improvements will be realized through the increased number soundings for evaluating the mass and motion structure of the atmosphere. Improvement of the quantitative precipitation forecasts would be of great importance, since this should lead directly to improving the forecasts of weather events.

The Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites (GOES) are earth synchronous and have day and night observation capability. Further, such a satellite is able to collect data from a variety of in situ remote platforms and to broadcast specialized products to remote users. Local users can <sup>can</sup> receive and display this information with relatively simple ground stations [14].

It is to be noted that there are relatively clear atmospheric windows in the range 0.9  $\mu$ m to 2.9  $\mu$ m, 3  $\mu$ m to 5  $\mu$ m, and 6  $\mu$ m to 8.9  $\mu$ m where sensors can be used effectively. Band four operating in the range 0.9 to 0.6  $\mu$ m is generally used for the study of sedimentation, turbidity and water quality and for the identification of geological information. Band five operating in the range 0.6 to 0.7  $\mu$ m is usually used for the study of vegetation, rock patterns, land use, snow cover, etc. Band six (0.7 to 0.8  $\mu$ m) and Band seven (0.8 - 2.2  $\mu$ m) are mostly used for the analysis of land use and water resources features. The composite chart showing the sensor energy, atmospheric transmission, and range of operation of various sensors is given in the figure (2.2).

Photo analysis of any given satellite recognition of object and interpretation of imagery as well as making various relevant measurements. The process of identifying objects on the aerial photographs and collecting maximum information therefrom by analysis of the natural and cultural features are known as photo-interpretation. For remote areas this process is comparatively quicker and economical solution to the problem.



**FIGURE 3-1**  
 Composite chart showing source energy, atmospheric transmission, and range of operation of various sensors.

Due to the camera's field view and resolution requirements on HRS orbits the visible areas do not overlap much on successive orbits. Furthermore, successive orbits of an HRS are, in general, only once in eight days and consequently the viewing orbits are a day apart. The HRS data are more useful than the current meteorological satellites because of (a) increased resolution and (b) multi-spectral capability.

Multi-spectral capability is obtained by the use of three sensors - two visible channels, separately, 0.5 - 0.9, 0.5 - 0.6, 0.6 - 0.7  $\mu$ m band widths. HRS's scanning radiometers have the same capability in the visible bands and, in addition, in the near (about 1.6  $\mu$ m) and far (10 - 16  $\mu$ m) infrared.

Earth synchronous orbits are in the equatorial plane at a distance of 35,000 km above the earth's surface. The NASA Applications Technology Satellites (ATS) of hydrological interest observe the earth from such orbits. The disadvantages of this type of orbit are that it takes four satellites to view the entire earth and that the area near the poles is poorly observed. A good attribute of this type of orbit is that it permits the sensors to view about one-fourth of the globe constantly, or to monitor continuously any in situ measurements that are telemeasured from the same portion of the globe. ATS can observe view the earth, from pole to pole, once every twenty minutes at the same scan length and resolution as the polar orbiting meteorological satellites.

## 3.2 SNOW COVER IN REMOTE SENSING :

### 3.2.1 Visible Spectral Bands -

Experiments with multispectral cameras used in LANDSAT has indicated that the contrast between snowcover and vegetation varies to maximum in the 0.6 to 0.7  $\mu$ m band. The spectral band 10.9 to 12.9  $\mu$ m in the infrared window region of the atmosphere is very useful for estimating the ground temperature. Methods have been developed to utilize these data in conjunction with the visible data for the identification of snow covered areas as well as the region of melting snow.

### 3.2.2 Distinguishing between clouds and snow -

Both clouds and snow have high reflectance. Hence mapping snow with cloud patches are very difficult. Aerial observation of snow cover distribution can provide valuable information during periods of cloud cover that preclude satellite microwave observation.

The following procedure is normally adopted for distinguishing snow from cloud [19].

#### a) Recognition of topographical features;

Recognition of topographical features like valleys, forests and non-forested areas etc., positively indicates absence of clouds.

#### b) Pattern recognition :

Snow cover on the mountains follows the same geographical pattern, as the mountain ranges, which is different from the patterns of clouds viewed from space. Snow boundary



is generally well defined.

o) Uniformity of reflectance :

Snow cover in areas that are not stratified have more uniform reflectance than clouds. Even though the reflectance of clouds and snow is nearly same, snow covered areas are generally smooth textured - whereas clouds are often lumpy or rough in appearance.

d) Pattern stability :

Clouds do not retain the same shape for more than a few hours. Thus, stable patterns of high reflectivity viewed by satellite are indicative of snow cover. To use this technique, observations for a day or more period, are required. The possible changes in snow extent due either to melting or additional snowfall must be taken into account.

o) Shadow :

Shadow cast by clouds at low sun angles and on the northern slopes of mountains are to be taken into account while mapping snow cover.

3.2.3 Procedure to Map Snow :

In non-forested areas which are identified to be cloud free, areas with continuous brightness distinctly greater than the dark background should be mapped as snow covered. Such areas represent the limit of snow accumulation of approximately 2 inch or more. Areas with mottled appearance

(alternate gray and black) indicates areas of less than 1 inch.

In mountainous terrain the meridian is mapped at the edge of the brighter tone with regard to brightness variations due to forest and mountain shadows.

For map-making purposes it is essential to superimpose the satellite picture image over the base map. This is usually difficult as the V.M.I. image transmitted by the satellite has a non-uniform projection compared to the standard mercator projection for the base map. An optical device, 'beam transformer' is normally used for achieving proper superimposing of the picture and the base map. The instrument projects the satellite picture on the base map with different enlargement in the X and Y directions and the enlargement can be continuously changed to facilitate exact superimposition of the land-marks. The area boundary is then marked out on the base map and a planimeter can be used to measure the area of area cover. Different methods for calculating perimeter in forested mountainous terrain have been given in reference [29]. Both optical and electronic-infrared-active analysis methods are used in such circumstances.

**LANDSAT Band 5** provides the best separation of area from other materials and is used for many normal methods like (1) area line tracing and measurement with a planimeter. (2) Area meridian altitude determined from any locations. (3) Distances in 2.5 x 2.5 m bands with reference to area line image.

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The machine tracing method is slow in execution and thus appreciably costly, but virtually no expensive equipment is required. The non altitude method is fast and not much equipment is required, thus its cost is low. The 2.2x2.5 km box method, when used to obtain high precision is slow in execution but requires hardly any equipment.

The Stanford Research Institute Electronic Satellite Image Analysis Console (ESIAS), is an interesting instrument that employs television scanning, storage and extraction techniques in a manner intended to bridge the gap between traditional manual photointerpretation and completely objective digital processing. Three operating procedures are available for working with ESIAS, (1) single reference - threshold level method (2) reference threshold setting locally edited by reference to altitude contours and other images and (3) two-band colour-sensitive threshold extraction, locally edited as in method (2). The reference threshold method using ESIAS is fast, but the machine is expensive. Digital reference-threshold techniques need more operator and machine time and are therefore more expensive.

The digital spectral pattern recognition techniques are most convenient to apply when used in conjunction with an electronic console and standard pattern recognition techniques and programs. Bands 6 to 5 versus Band 7 LANDSAT images prove to be most useful to delineate areas, <sup>land</sup> and rock areas, snow and vegetation areas, glaciers etc, water,

Snow can be clearly separated from rock, water, and vegetation but snow and vegetation mixed cannot always be clearly separated from rock.

The digital techniques are slow to average in speed depending on the equipment available for registering the image, of the drainage basin boundary. The cost of the magnetic tapes, the cost of machine and the labour for registering the image, and the computer time required for a four dimensional pattern recognition programme can be appreciable for a single measurement.

The following table 3.3 presents in summary form the qualitative comparison of the various methods for precision, speed, ability to recognize snow in trees, and supplemental data like finding the distribution of snow cover with altitude or in sub-basins, which can be used in energy balance or snowmelt models.

TABLE 3.1

QUALITATIVE COMPARISON OF THE VARIOUS MET. HEADS IN MEASURING SNOW COVER

Legend

Problem	Planimeter	Level	Dist.	Inclined			Actual comparison
				Dist.	Head	Head	
Problems	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter
Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter
Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter
Problems	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter
Problems	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter
Problems	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Head by planimeter

### 3.2.4 Determination of snow depth from satellite :

It was shown by Ho. Chang et al. (1979) that estimation of snow depth is possible by relating the snow depth with its reflectivity as sensed by the satellite born sensors in the visible band.

### 3.2.5 Water equivalent of snow measurement [16] :

Air borne technique, based on the observation by a snow layer of natural polarization emitted from ground, has proved successful to determine the water <sup>equivalent</sup> snow depth. The natural light is made first in absence of snow and then next with snow coverage.

### 3.2.6 Snowpack density :

Ho. Miller and Ho. Chang studied the River basins in U.S.A. for snow density using LANDSAT & imagery in 4 bands and COGS (Computer Compatible Types). One of the difficulties in such studies is the low threshold of saturation. They have found a relation of the type

$$\begin{aligned} \text{snow density} &= 0.0125 I + 1.0226 D + 2.9216 \times 10^{-5} S \\ &= 2.5546 \times 10^{-6} S + 0.559 \end{aligned}$$

where

$I$  = sum of the average daily temperature above freezing  
circumference ( $^{\circ}F$ )

$D$  = solar declination.

$E$  = ground level in m.

$S$  = satellite measured radiance.

There is a strong feeling that water or moisture techniques will enhance the work through for determining snow thickness, water equivalent and density of snow.

2.3 Use of snow cover data for seasonal stream flow forecasts

Snow cover data over the Himalaya has been used by Ranga and Selmesan (1975) for forecast of stream flow in the Indus river. Early spring snow cover area measurements were obtained for the upper Indus river banks above Attock in Pakistan and compared to April-June total streamflow during the years 1957 to 1972. A linear regression equation quantitatively expressing the relationship had a regression coefficient of 0.92. Prediction of April-June 1972 streamflow using the equation as derived produced an estimate that is within 3 per cent of the actual total. Similar work has been done in many catchments of the U.S.A.

Wagman and Gatten (1977) related snowcover and monthly runoff using satellite data in Norway. The relation they obtained is as follows

$$Q = 2.13 ( 0.00004 \Delta - 2 )$$

where Q = subsequent runoff (10<sup>6</sup> m<sup>3</sup>)  
Δ = snow covered area km<sup>2</sup>.

#### 2.4 Uses of aerial photos in hydrological investigations

It is possible to study a vast area in short time with the analysis of aerial photos, which is quite reliable and fast, and gives the latest information. Ground methods of investigations are not only time consuming and expensive but by the time results could be compiled, they could definitely be out-dated.

Photo hydrological investigations are carried out mainly for the following :

- 1) Preliminary evaluation of ground surfaces where no such information is available particularly for reconnaissance studies to indicate potential water resources.
- 2) Making maps for general purpose, economic, planning purposes.
- 3) Inventory of natural resources, e.g. agriculture, forestry, water resources, mineral exploration, soil surveys, etc.
- 4) Delineation of watersheds and their boundaries.
- 5) Topographic mapping for the study of the river basin characteristics, including morphometric features.
- 6) Division of catchment into suitable slope facets for estimation of precipitation.
- 7) Site selection for locating rain gauge stations.
- 8) Preparation of special purpose maps showing geological features, land use, soil characteristics, vegetal cover characteristics, location of river valleys, and its flood plains etc.



- 9) Water balancing of river basins in areas where no stream flow data is collected, qualitative, quantitative information may be obtained from the measurement of lengths, slope, width, and depth of the channels.
- 10) Preparation of hydrological maps.
- 11) Study of ground water conditions.
- 12) Mapping and monitoring the snow field in order to predict runoff in streams, diverting part of their water from the channel.
- 13) Evaluation of intensity and frequency of floods and mapping flood inundated areas.
- 14) Property curves for watershed area for solving sedimentation problem while planning any reservoir.
- 15) Flood control, and hydro-power generation potential.
- 16) Mapping shore lines, erosion and setting of the sea-coasts and river banks.

However, the use of aerial photographs has got certain limitations. One cannot completely do away with the field work but saving in time may be 2-3 times and in cost up to 5 times by resorting to the use of aerial photography. It has been found that monitoring of snow cover by LANDSAT imagery is 6 times faster than the high altitude aerial photograph survey, and the cost of mapping by LANDSAT is about 1/250th times the cost of the simplest mapping from ground surveys.

## 3.9 PRINCIPLES OF PHOTO-ANALYSIS :

### 3.9.1 Procedural steps in photo-hydrological analysis

Photo-hydrologic studies are generally carried out in the following steps.

- 1) After proper selection of a watershed, the topographic map is required to be prepared by making measurements for distances, directions, contours, elevations, etc. of the terrain features.
- 2) Identification of topographic features and other details (geomorphic features) with the aid of image characteristics like shape, size, pattern, shade, tone, texture and etc.
- 3) Correlation of image characteristics of various ground features (physical features of basin) to derive relevant hydro-meteorological, geomorphology, rock-soil type, vegetation, land use etc. of the given area.

### 3.9.2 Preparation of topographic map:

For an accurate investigation, the investigator requires an up-to-date map of the project area. Aerial photographs help to prepare topographic map with more accurate representation of true relief distribution including contours and other drainage details as better than and cheaper cost than that obtained by the ground survey. The topographic map reveals physiographic features like

- a) Drainage basin and channel characteristics, and
- b) Drainage pattern and texture.

### 3.2.2 Characteristics of Basins :

Basin characteristics available from photo-analytic maps

a) Area, size, and shape of the basin including the nature of water divide. b) Slope index. c) Time of concentration in the basin. d) Dissection ratio. e) Circularity ratio. f) Elongation ratio. g) Slope of the water shed. h) Relief condition.

These characteristics are described below:

#### 3.2.2.1 The area, size and shape of the basin:-

A river, or drainage, basin is the entire area drained by a stream or system of connecting streams such that all overflows originating in the area is discharged through a single outlet. In large basins, it is assumed that all groundwater runoff originating from precipitation on the area is ultimately discharged from the basin as overflow with the exception of that moisture which is returned directly to the atmosphere by evapo-transpiration.

The drainage area which is the plan and horizontally projected area enclosed within a divide is determined by planimetry from large scale maps [17].

The shape and size of the basin considering outline form may affect much the stream discharge characteristics.

Horton [4] described the outline of a normal basin (shape) as a pear-shaped void. The quantitative expression of drainage basin outline form was made by him through Form Factor.

### 3.5.3.2 Form Factor, $R_f$ :

Form Factor,  $R_f$  is the dimensionless ratio of the basin area  $A$  to the square of the basin length  $L$ .

$$R_f = \frac{A}{L^2}$$

### 3.5.3.3 Shape Index $S_f$ :

In its inverted form,  $L^2/A$ , this ratio was used in early hydrograph applications by the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers.

$$S_f = \frac{L^2}{A}$$

where  $A$  = area of the watershed

$L$  = basin length along the main stream from the remotest point.

The plot of  $\log L$  vs.  $\log A$  gives linear relationship.

### 3.5.3.4 Circularity Ratio $R_c$ :

Miller defined circularity ratio as the ratio of basin area  $A$  to the area of a circle  $A_c$  having the same perimeter on the basin.

$$R_c = A/A_c$$

### 3.5.3.5 Compactness Coefficient :

The compactness coefficient is given by the formula,

$$C_c = 0.28 P_b / \sqrt{A}$$

where  $P_b$  = Perimeter of the basin or sub basin

$A$  = Area of the basin or sub basin

### 3.5.3.6 Effective slope :

It is given by the formula

$$S_e = 1.49 \frac{Q}{A} \sqrt{N}$$

where  $S_e$  = effective slope of the basin

$Q$  = contour interval

$N$  = the total number of contour lines intersected by the grid line ( when grid is adopted )

### 3.5.3.7 Bifurcation Ratio :

In linear aspect of the channel system the number of stream segments of any given order will be lower than for the next lower order but more numerous than for the next higher order. The ratio of number of segments of a given order  $N_n$  to the number of segments of the higher  $N_{n+1}$  is termed as bifurcation ratio,  $R_n$ .

$$R_n = \frac{N_n}{N_{n+1}}$$

### 3.5.3.8 Stream order :

It is a classification reflecting the degree of branching, or bifurcation, within a basin. Horton assigned order 1 to small, unbranched, single-sty tributaries, order 2 to those which have branches of the first order only, order 3 to streams with branches of 2nd, and lower orders etc. This classification is the inverse of the European system. Based on Horton law of stream number

$$N_n = N_1 (L-1)^{n-1}$$

3.5.9.9 Time of concentration :

Time of concentration,  $T_c$ , as per modified Kirpich formula is given as

$$T_c = \frac{L^{0.75}}{7700 R^{0.53}} \text{ in hours.}$$

where,  $L$  = length in feet along the channel from the remotest point in the area.

3.5.9.10 Slope of the watershed :

It is the change in gradient per unit length.

Sudden changes in gradient of a slope may indicate cut-edges or presence of differential weathering hardness or fault-line escarp. The break of slope is easily identified as a sudden change in the contour clarity.

3.5.4 Drainage Patterns :

The following drainage patterns which give some structural or lithological idea of a basin are easily identified on the aerial photographs.

- i) Dendritic
- ii) Trellis form
- iii) Subangular form
- iv) Radial/annular form
- v) Parallel form
- vi) Meshwork form
- vii) Block form
- viii) Pinnacled form

### 3.9.5 Drainage Texture :

Drainage texture refers to the number and relative spacing of drainage courses per unit area in the drainage basin. The climate, amount and intensity of precipitations, etc. determine the drainage texture. Drainage texture is sometimes separated into

- a) Drainage density
- and b) Drainage frequency.

#### 3.9.5.1 Drainage density :

An important indicator of the linear scale of landscape elements in stream-catchment topography is drainage density,  $D$ , introduced by Horton

$$D = \frac{\sum L_n}{A} \text{ (km miles per sq. meter)}$$

where  $\sum L_n$  = total channel segment lengths summed for all orders within a basin.

$A$  = total area of basin

Generally low drainage density (coarse texture) is favoured in regions of highly resistant or highly permeable sub-surface material under dense vegetative cover and steep slopes. High drainage density (medium fine texture) is favoured in regions of weak or impermeable sub-surface materials, sparse vegetation, and mountainous slopes. All perennial stream channels in their upper reaches are to be carefully inspected while drainage density is determined by photo-analysis.

### 3.5.5.2 Drainage Frequency :

As per Horton, D.E., stream frequency or channel frequency,  $F$  is the number of stream segments per unit area of

$$F = N/A .$$

### 3.5.6 Geomorphology :

Geomorphology analysis involves a systematic study of the relief and of drainage system. This is the landform study including the main feature of relief, local relief, fluvial forms, forms of mass transport, reaction to lithology and structure, glacial forms, coastal forms, arid forms etc.

### 3.5.7 Soil Study :

The rock-soil type, permeable or nonpermeable, porous or nonporous, fractured or nonfractured, and moist or dry can be easily recognised on the air aerial photographs from their tonal and textural variations. Certain species of trees also give good indication of soil type. The rocksoil type and the vegetative cover have direct effect on the infiltration capacity which itself, in turn has a bearing on the amount of runoff from the watershed.

### 3.5.8 Vegetation :

Photoanalysis is extensively used in delineating the areas having different natural vegetal cover densities, by correlating the tonal and texture variations these can be transferred on to the base map. The knowledge of the extent and type of vegetation, some important information regarding



while dealing with imagery in the near IR (0.7-1.2 $\mu$ ) band from Figure 3. Some variations at times would indicate no snow in the  $\lambda$  band, while the visible band data, which was collected simultaneously, showed a considerable amount of snow. This phenomenon occurred during the melting conditions in spring. It is caused by a considerable decrease in the reflected near - IR radiation which in turn is apparently the result of a thin film of water on or near the surface of the snow which tends to change the radiation in that band.

Investigations show that for a given area there appears to be a seasonal pattern of snow disappearance. The most significant finding of these studies was the establishment of a close relationship between snowmelt depletion and accumulated snow flow.

Despite some indications that the reflectance of snow may, under certain circumstances, be related to the snow thickness, there is at present no viable method for determining snow thickness, or water equivalent, or density of snow.

land use, precipitation, surface runoff, evapotranspiration and ground water can be calculated.

### 3.9.9 Land Use :

Land use mainly consists of forests, cultivation, agriculture, urbanization and urbanization which can be easily identified on the aerial photographs by their specific image characteristics. All these features have a certain influence on the base flow which increases with the expanding land use.

### 3.9.10 Photometric of the area covered snow :

For the hydrologists the most frequent water levels, snow probably represents the most complicated and most difficult - to - measure hydrological variable. Snow cover, distribution, water equivalent, water content, age, thickness and density all play a large part in the assessment of the snowpack's contribution to runoff.

The choice of instrumentation relating to contemporary extent and depth of snowcover is a common problem. Remote sensing has been looked upon by many as a promising means of solving the snowpack problem.

Colour and infra-red techniques are currently being used for remote distinguishing types of snow pack and the presence of the melting water. A potentially useful discovery in remote sensing was made by Brown and co-workers (1972)

while dealing with imagery in the near IR (0.7-1.2  $\mu$ ) band from Nimbus II. Some variations of time would indicate no snow in the  $\lambda$  band, while the visible band data, which was collected simultaneously, showed a considerable amount of snow. This phenomenon occurred during the melting conditions in spring. It is caused by a considerable decrease in the reflected near-IR radiation which in turn is apparently the result of a thin film of water on or near the surface of the snow which tends to absorb the radiation in that band.

Investigations show that for a given area there appears to be a normal pattern of snow disappearance. The most significant finding of these studies was the establishment of a close relationship between microwave depletion and accumulated stream flow.

Despite some indications that the reflectance of snow may, under certain circumstances, be related to the snow thickness, there is at present no viable method for determining snow thickness, or water equivalent, or density of snow.

## CHAPTER - IV

### ANALYSIS OF BEAS CATCHMENT FOR SNOW COVER AND SNOWMELT

#### 4.1. THE BEAS CATCHMENT.

The source of Beas river is said to be Beas Kund a small spring near Rohtang pass. Unlike other major rivers of North India it is not fed by natural lakes. The catchment lies between longitude  $76^{\circ} 56'$  E to  $77^{\circ} 52'$  E and latitude  $31^{\circ} 30'$  N to  $32^{\circ} 25'$  and occupies the area of about  $4694 \text{ km}^2$ , out of which about  $1400 \text{ km}^2$  is permanently covered by snow. River Beas is the principal tributary of river Sutlej in the Indus river basin. Most of the catchment area comprises of precipitous slopes and the peaks are mainly bare. The river is mainly fed by snow and glacial melt besides the rainfall. The orographic pattern of the catchment is such that there are high mountains in the east as well as the north of the river valley. There is a high ridge on the West and a number of low hills ranging from 950 m to 1220 m in height. The river originating from Beas Kund takes a south-westerly direction upto Kulu and then takes a south-easterly direction upto its confluence with Tirthan and Saing rivers. It again flows in south-westerly direction, upto Poonch, down stream of Larji.

The bed slope of river Beas in upper reaches is very steep, and the average value of the bed slope from Rotang pass to Manali is about 78 m/km; from Manali to Kulu, about 15.6 m/km and from Kulu to Larji, about 8 m/km.

The principal tributaries of Beas river upto Larji site are Allun Nallah near Manali, Sarvaci Khand, near Kulu, Parvati river near Bhuntar, Thirthan and Sainj rivers near Larji (Appendix I). All these tributaries have got perennial flow which varies considerably during different months of the year. The catchment area at a scale of 1 inch to <sup>miles</sup> 6 inches (1: 253440), with contours at 2000 ft (611 m. approximately) interval is shown in the Appendix II.

#### 4.2. COMPUTATION OF MORPHOMETRIC AND RELIEF FEATURES

##### 4.2.1 MEASUREMENT OF BASIN AREA.

Area of Larji <sup>Basin</sup> and its subbasins were measured with the help of a planimeter and the average values are given in the table number (4.1).

##### 4.2.2. NUMBER OF STREAMS

All the streams according to their order in each sub-catchment were counted and the total number is tabulated in the table number (4.1).

##### 4.2.3. TOTAL LENGTH OF STREAMS

As arranged in orders, the respective lengths

Geometrical parameters and solid characteristics of Lofj. catenoid

Sl.No.	Description	Symbols	Units	Values of the parameters						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Area (main area)	$A$	$m^2$	339.41	699.42	795.8	1791.0	3791.0	0.00	
2.	Circle Circumfer	$P_c$	$2\pi r$	73.02	146.04	153.26	217.54	359.02		
3.	Area of circle of main portion	$A_c = \pi r^2$	$m^2$	459.09	1713.50	1492.79	3784.00	9105.03		
4.	Diameter of circle of main Area	$D_c$	$m$	21.63	29.04	15.01	63.00	70.92		
5.	Maximum Base Length	$L$	$m$	20.27	48.01	31.02	67.59	75.50		
6.	Shape factor (Main area)	$S_f = L^2/A$	-	1.11	3.42	2.99	3.04	1.20		
7.	Form factor	$F_f = A/L^2$	-	0.90	0.29	0.340	0.33	0.99		
8.	Coefficient of circulation	$C_c = 0.28 \frac{P_c}{A}$	-	1.11	1.55	1.340	1.03	1.36		
9.	Circularity	$C_c = A/A_c$	-	0.60	0.01	0.950	0.03	0.50		
10.	Integration factor	$I_f = P_c / L$	-	3.67	0.01	0.66	0.09	1.00		
11.	Total number of circles	$n$	-	50	105	114	194	720		
12.	Total length of circles	$L_0$	$m$	144.03	257.10	205.20	307.01	1670.00		
13.	Total Area	$A$	$m^2$	4834.97	2370.00	4507.99	5503.00	5070.00		

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Watershed slope	$S_B = H/L$	-	-	0.204	0.055	0.099	0.082	0.074
15. Time of concentration	$T_C = L^{1.15}$	-	-	2.24	6.19	6.42	10.79	11.56
16. Maximum number of order of streams	$U$	$7700H^{0.385}$ hr.	-	3	5	5	5	6
17. Bifurcation ratio	$R_B = H_u / N_{u+1}$	-	-	4.30	3.23	3.21	4.78	3.76
18. Stream frequency	$F = H/A$	-	-	0.16	0.15	0.13	0.11	0.15
19. Stream density	$D = H/S/A$	-	-	0.39	0.37	0.26	0.21	0.30

of the streams were measured and these are given in table No. (4.1).

#### 4.2.4. THE LOCAL RELIEF

It is generally found by selecting representative smaller sub-basins, finding the number of contours cut by a line and dividing it by the number of facets. Here the relief (H) is calculated by taking the elevation difference between basin mouth and the highest point on the basin perimeter. The values are given in table ( 4.1).

#### 4.2.5. OTHER TYPICAL MORPHOMETRIC COMPUTATIONS

The other parameters like the stream density, stream frequency etc., have been calculated as according to the definition given in article ( 3.5.3) and tabulated in the table ( 4.1)

#### 4.3. VEGETAL COVER AND LAND USE FEATURES

An attempt has been made to identify and delineate the vegetal cover and land use features using visual interpretation techniques, from 1:250,000 blow up of LANDSAT imagery dated 2nd December, 1972. Five distinct tonal variations could be recognized in the paper print. The interpretation includes the features like the snow covered area, Alpine pasture,



thin forest, thick forest and bare-and- cultivated land which are shown in the appendix III. The areal coverage of the features are given below in table No. (4.2). The hydrologic behaviour of forest and range lands and relationship of land use to water yield and stream flow has been studied quite extensively. These studies have gradually lead to an understanding of some of the basic relationships between land use and run-off, debris deposition, the schooling of stream channels, silting of reservoirs, storm flows, and other phenomena that have followed excessive logging, cultivating, burning, and grazing of forest lands and range lands.

TABLE 4.2.

VEGETAL COVER AND LAND USE FEATURE IN LARJI CATCHMENT

Sl.No.	VEGETAL COVER & LAND USE FEATURES	AREA Km <sup>2</sup>	PERCENTAGE OF CATCHMENT(%)
1	Snow cover	1451	29.66
2	Alpine pasture	552	11.29
3	Thin Forest	523	10.69
4	Thick Forest	1359	27.78
5	Bare and Cultivated land	1006	20.57

4.4 SNOW COVERAGE IN LARJI CATCHMENT USING THE LAND SAT IMAGERIES.

#### 6.4. SNOW COVERAGE IN LARJI CATCHMENT USING THE LAND-SAT IMAGERIES.

##### 6.4.1. THE LANDSAT IMAGERIES

The Beas catchment upstream of Larji was studied with the help of the multi spectral LANDSAT imageries from Space Application Centre, Ahmedabad of the following dates on 22, Sept., 1972, 3 December, 1972, 3 March, 1973, 21 March, 1973, 2nd March, 1975, 1 April, 1976 and 27 March, 1977. These imageries were in Band 5 and 7 and at a scale of 1: 1000 000. These are shown in figures ( 4.1, 4.2, 4.3).

##### 6.4.2. STUDY OF SNOW-COVERED REGIONS ON LANDSAT IMAGERIES

LANDSAT imageries as above of the Beas catchment up stream of Larji were analysed. The over lays were traced from the imageries and areal extent of the snow cover in each sub basin was measured. These are shown in figures ( 4.1, 4.2, 4.3).

The results are tabulated in table number ( ~~4.2~~<sup>4.3</sup> )

From the LANDSAT imageries it is clearly discernible that the extent of snow cover gradually increases from the month of September to March. This can be observed from the data in the table No.(4.3). Snow coverage is maximum in the month of March after which it depletes due to melting. From similar observation it has also been found that the Gulej and Beas catchments

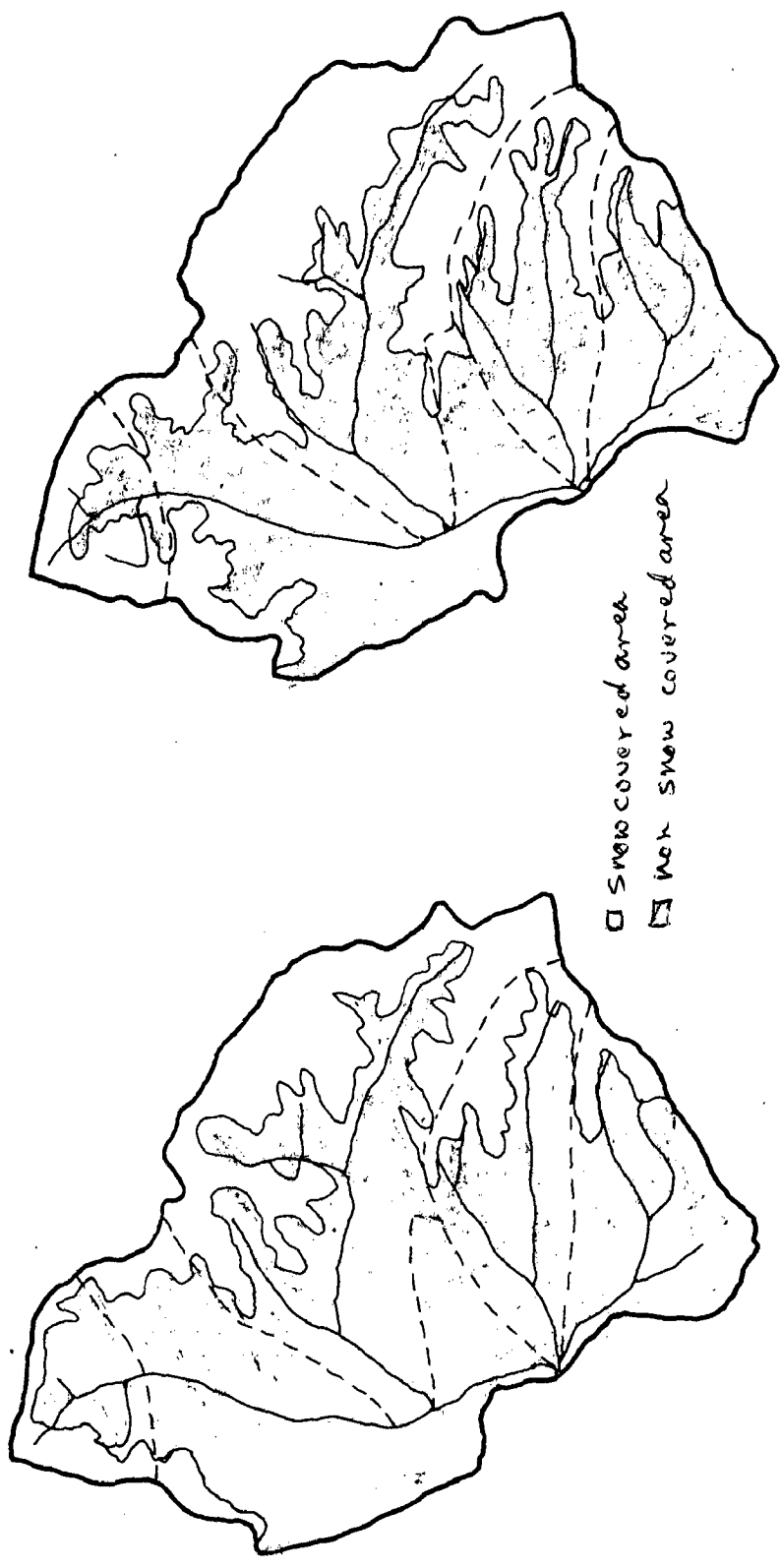


FIG. (i) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 22 SEP. 1972      FIG.(ii) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 3 DEC. 1972

MSS 7

MSS 7

SCALE :- 1:1000 000

FIG. 4.1 LANDSAT IMAGERIES OF BEAS CATCHMENT UP STREAM OF LARJI

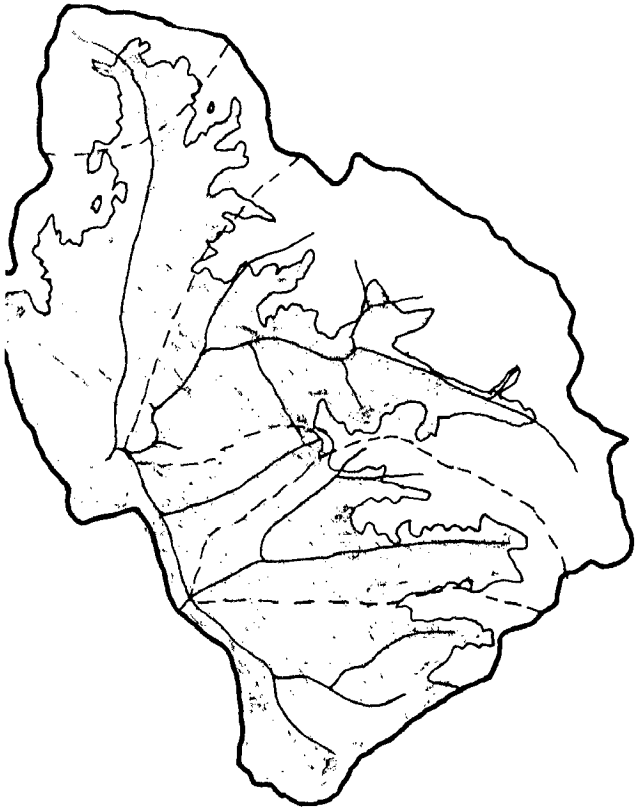


FIG. (iii) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 22 SEP  
1972 MSS 5

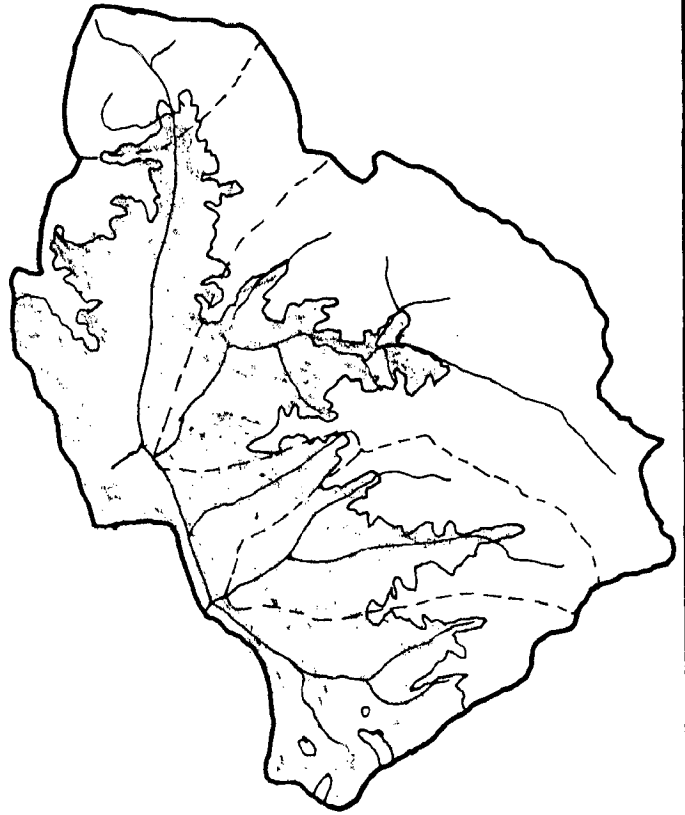


FIG. (iv) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 3 DEC  
1972 MSS 5

SCALE — 1:1000000

□ snow covered area  
■ non-snow covered area

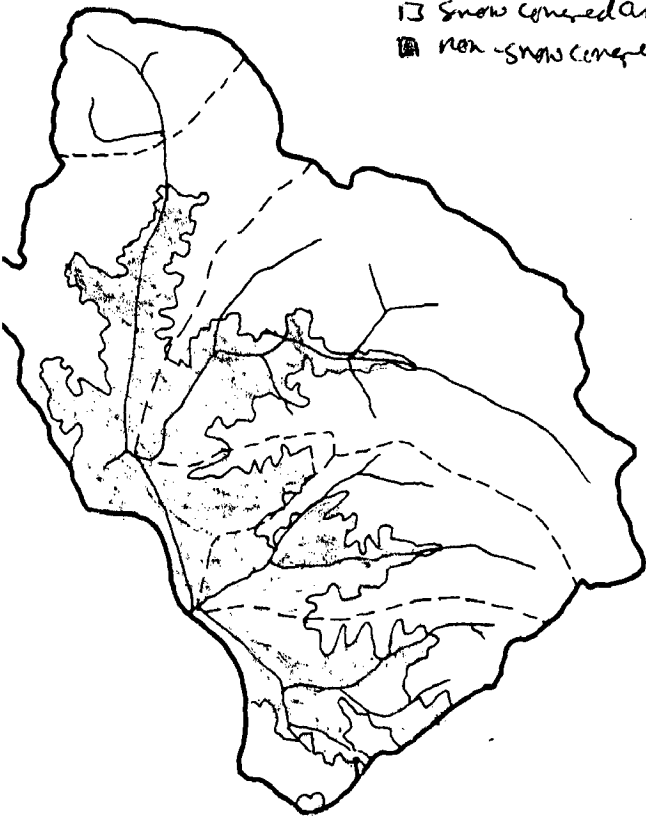


FIG. (v) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 3 MAR  
1973 MSS 5

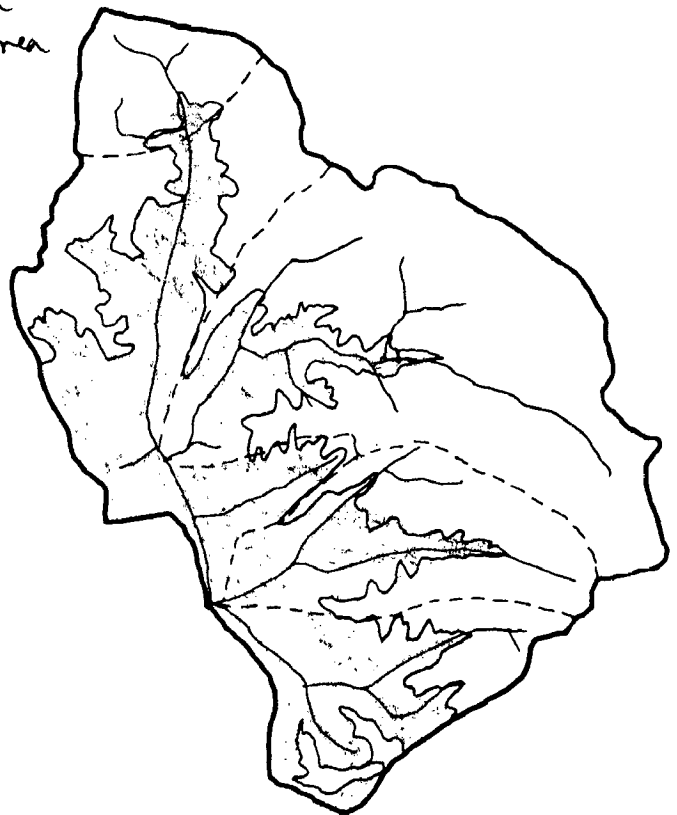


FIG. (vi) LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 21 MAR  
1973 MSS 7

FIG. 4.2 LANDSAT IMAGERIES OF BEAS CATCHMENT UP STREAM  
OF LARJI

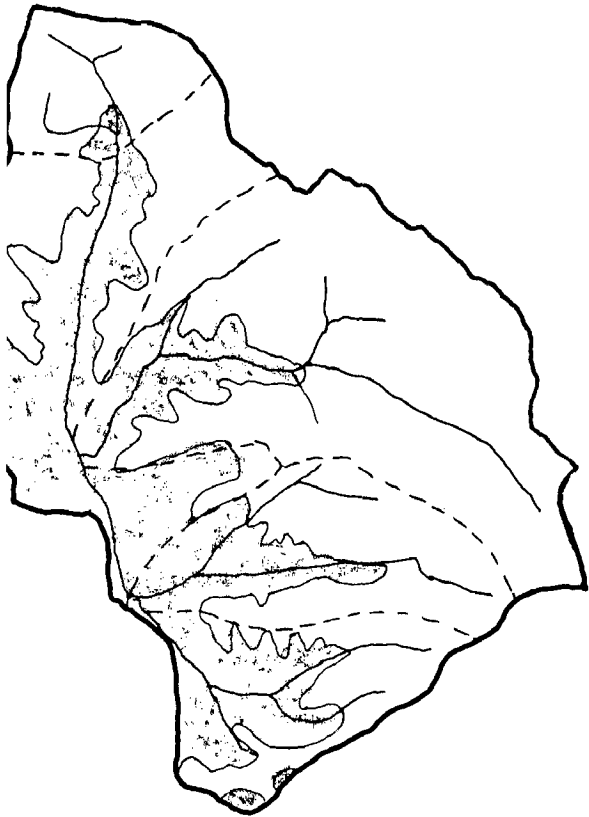


FIG. (Vii) LANDSAT IMAGE  
DATE 21 MAR. 1973 MSS 5

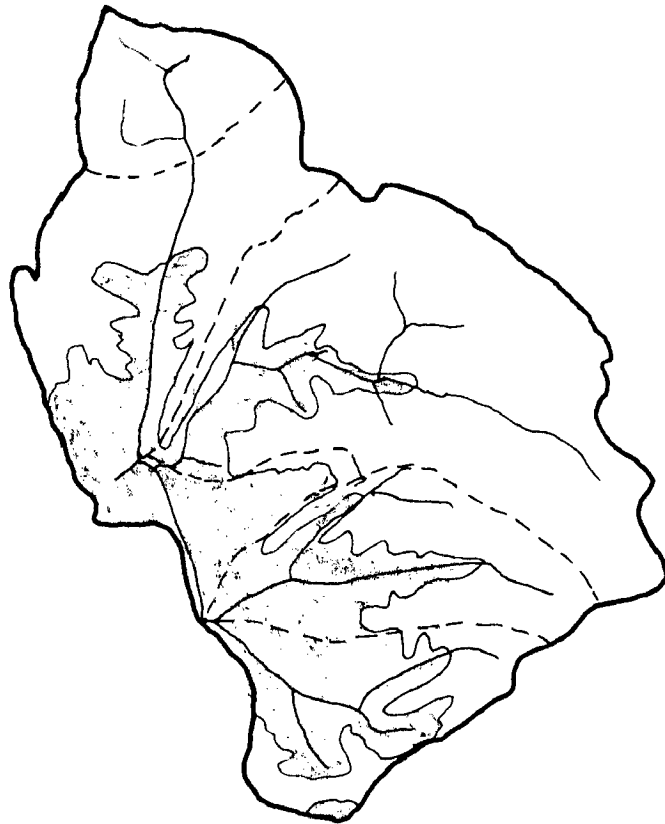


FIG. (Viii) LANDSAT IMAGE  
DATE 2 MAR. 1975 MSS 7

SCALE :- 1: 1000,000

□ snow covered area  
■ non snow covered area

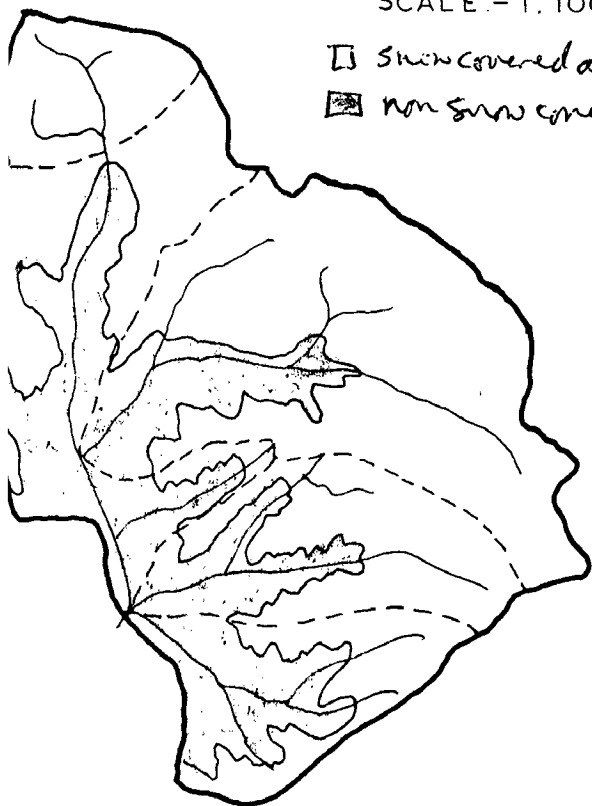


FIG. (ix) LANDSAT IMAGE  
DATE 1 APR. 1976 MSS 5

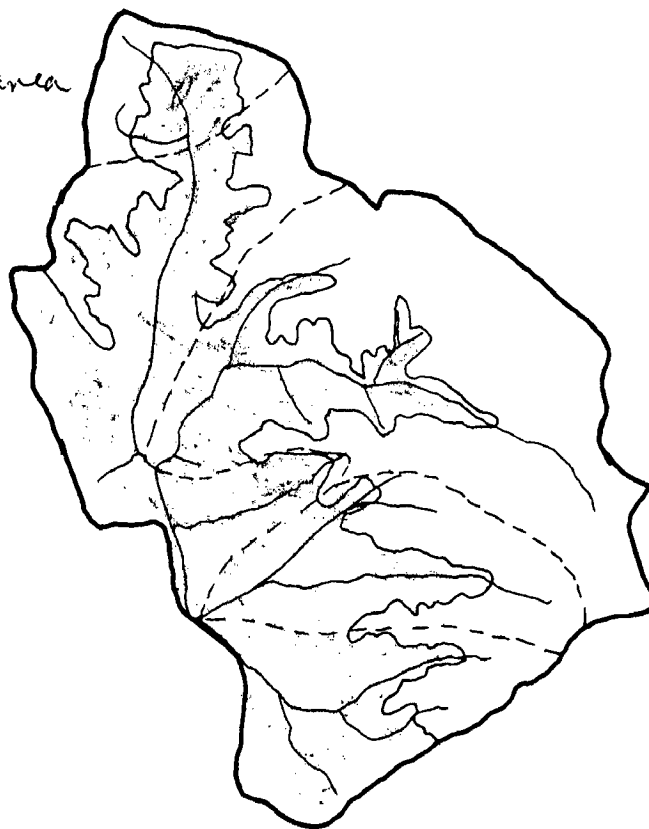


FIG. (X) LANDSAT IMAGE  
DATE 27 MAR 1977 MSS 5

G. 4.3 LANDSAT IMAGERIES OF BEAS CATCHMENT UP STREAM  
OF LARJI

**Areal Extent of snow-cover from LANDSAT Imageries**

S.N.	Catchment	Area of catchment in km <sup>2</sup>	Date: 22 Sept. 1972		Date: 3 Dec. 1972		Date: 3 Mar. 1973 (BAID MSS)					
			(BAID MSS 5) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAID MSS 7) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAID MSS 5) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAID MSS 7) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAID MSS 5) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAID MSS 7) snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>				
1.	Hanali	369.41	207	56.04	116	31.40	359	97.18	212	57.39	360	97.45
2.	Parvati	1731.60	1100	63.53	724	41.81	1362	78.66	1080	62.37	1424	82.24
3.	Gainj	795.80	234	29.40	169	20.99	340	42.72	208	26.14	336	42.22
4.	Tirthan	699.40	89	12.73	71	10.15	119	17.01	95	13.88	265	37.89
5.	Larji	4894	1855	37.90	1216	24.85	2489	50.86	1832	37.43	3025	61.81

TABLE 3.2. CONTINUED

S.N.	Catchment Area of catchment in km <sup>2</sup>	Date: 21 March 1973		Date: 2 March 1975		Date: 1 April 1976		Date: 27 Mar. 1976				
		(BAND MSS 5) / (BAND MSS 3)	Snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAND MSS 7)	Snow covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAND MSS 5)	Snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>	(BAND MSS 5)	Snow-covered area in km <sup>2</sup>			
		km <sup>2</sup>	%	km <sup>2</sup>	%	km <sup>2</sup>	%	km <sup>2</sup>	%			
1.	Mansli	369.41	34.8	94.20	25.9	78.23	36.6	97.45	36.0	97.45	163	44.12
2.	Parvati	1731.60	1553	89.69	1450	83.74	2513	67.30	1430	62.58	1306	75.42
3.	Sainj	797.80	490	61.57	365	45.87	462	58.05	475	59.69	336	41.97
4.	Tirthan	699.40	273	39.03	219	31.31	191	27.31	310	44.32	174	24.88
5.	Berji	4894	3173	64.83	2512	59.50	3057	62.46	3050	62.32	2194	44.83

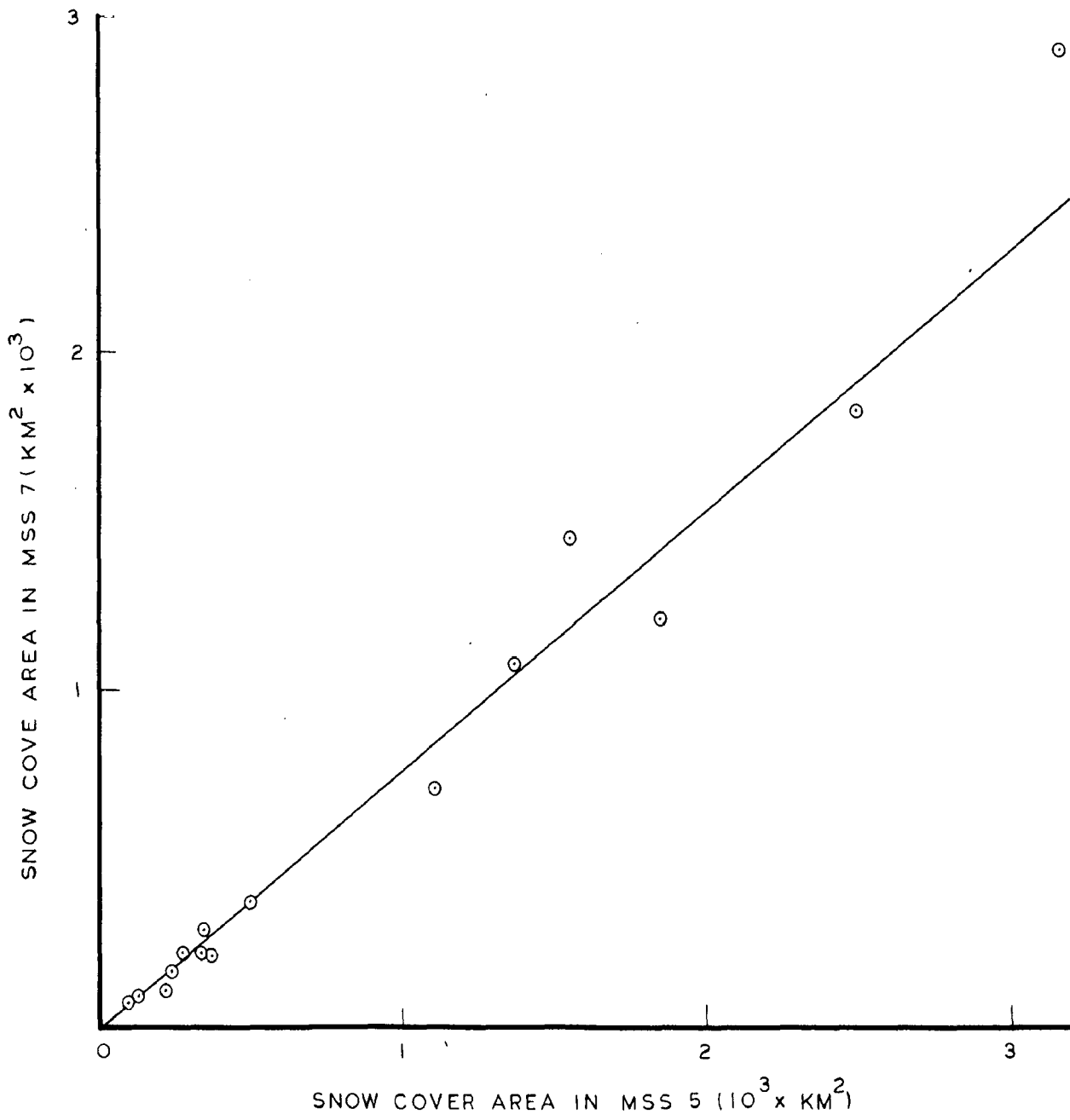


FIG. 4.4 SNOW COVER IN MSS 5 VS MSS 7 IN LARJI CATCHMENT



have maximum snow coverage in the months of February and March. <sup>(15)</sup> It is also interesting to note that the snow coverage in the imageries taken on the same day in Band 5 and Band 7 are not the same. These can be observed from the figures 4.1(i), 4.1(ii), 4.2(iii), 4.2(iv), 4.2(vi) and 4.3(vii).

These imageries in the infra-red Band 7 indicates less snow than in those of the visible Band 5. These values of areal extent of snowcover as measured on Band 5 and Band 7 LANDSAT imageries at 1:100,000 scale have been tabulated in table No. (4.3) and also plotted as a graph in figure (4.4). A linear trend inclined at an angle of  $37^{\circ}$  from the X-axis of the MSS 5 has been observed from the graph.

#### 4.4.3. THE SNOW COVER AND RUNOFF RELATION.

The imageries of the months of March indicate the extent of snow coverage in the basin before the melting season. Therefore, it is possible to get a relationship between the snow coverage of the basin before the melting season and the subsequent seasonal melt runoff. From the figures (4.3(vii), (viii), (ix) and (x) ) the snow-covered areas of the sub-basins have been measured and the values tabulated in table No. (4.3). The cumulative sum of daily discharges in the months March-April-May as shown in table (4.4) and the snow coverage have been

TABLE No. 424

Cumulative volume of daily discharges for the months March-April-May  
Sada

Year	Month	Monthly sum of daily discharges (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Total monthly Base flow ( m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Monthly sum of daily discharge excluding baseflow ( m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Monthly sum of the volume daily discharge (m <sup>3</sup> )	Cumulative monthly discharge vol. (m <sup>3</sup> )
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1973	March	655.24	308.45	346.79	928842330	928842330
	April	1192.63	290.5	854.13	2213934900	3142747230
	May	1732.09	303.95	1423.16	3611738100	6954485330
1975	March	597.80	370.14	227.76	609978810	609978810
	April	747.18	359.20	388.98	1008236100	1618214910
	May	1215.26	370.14	845.12	2363569600	3661784310
1976	March	503.61	362.08	141.53	379073950	379073950
	April	858.39	350.40	507.99	1316710000	1695783950
	May	1223.08	362.88	861.04	2306129100	4001913050
1977	March	374.6	354.95	19.45	52094880	52094880
	April	447.7	343.50	92.75	246408000	292502880
	May	711.88	354.95	356.93	956001310	1248504190

**March**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1973	March	827.82	8290.76	535.54	1437335.500	1437336.500
	April	1137.82	291.40	856.43	2219264.500	2657203000
	May	972.33	292.76	681.55	1823463.900	5482666.500
1975	March	656.75	221.03	435.72	1167032470	2167032400
	April	909.13	213.9	695.23	1802036100	2362068500
	May	872.60	221.03	651.57	1749165000	4716233500
1976	March	579.92	300.39	279.53	768393150	748893150
	April	1012.20	200.70	721.50	1870120000	2618621150
	May	619.15	380.39	548.76	1469798700	4086519850
1977	March	304.57	280.88	103.69	277723290	277723290
	April	356.67	194.40	172.27	406523840	724247130
	May	509.97	280.88	309.19	825456090	1549703220
			<b>REVENUE</b>			
1973	March	899.42	719.51	179.91	461870940	461870940
	April	1468.31	696.9	772.01	2003049000	2482920840
	May	3256.15	719.51	2536.64	6794136500	9277057340

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1975	March	1189.96	644.8	545.16	1460156500	1460156500
	April	1635.94	624	1011.94	2622948400	4083104900
	May	2533.94	644.3	1989.14	5059872500	1942977400
1976	March	1121.66	699.36	422.3	1131088300	1131088300
	April	1701.61	676.8	1024.81	2656307500	3787395800
	May	2626.57	699.36	1927.21	5161839200	8949235000
1977	March	789.41	699.36	90.05	241189920	241189920
	April	946.81	676.8	270.01	699865920	941055840
	May	3811.48	699.36	3112.12	8335502200	9276558040
1975	March	3712.72	1497.61	2215.11	5932950600	5932950600
	April	6241.7	1449.3	4792.4	12421960000	18354850600
	May	10139.18	1497.61	8641.57	23145591088	41500441688

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1976	March	4591.08	1470.33	3120.75	8358616800	8358616800
	April	7124.57	1422.90	5901.67	15297128000	23655744800
	May	8931.34	1470.33	7461.01	19983569184	43639313984
1977	March	2202.7	1645.79	556.91	1491627700	1691627700
	April	2772.97	1592.70	1180.27	3059259800	4550887500
	May	5977.41	1645.79	4331.7	11602025280	16152912780
1978	March	623.88	284.58	339.3	908781120	908781120
	April	1549.03	275.40	1273.63	3301248900	4210030020
	May	2549.03	284.58	2264.45	6065102800	10275132820
1977	March	506.31	217.31	289.00	774057600	774057600
	April	734.6	210.3	524.30	1358985600	2133043200
	May	999.88	217.31	782.57	2096035400	4229078600

March 1

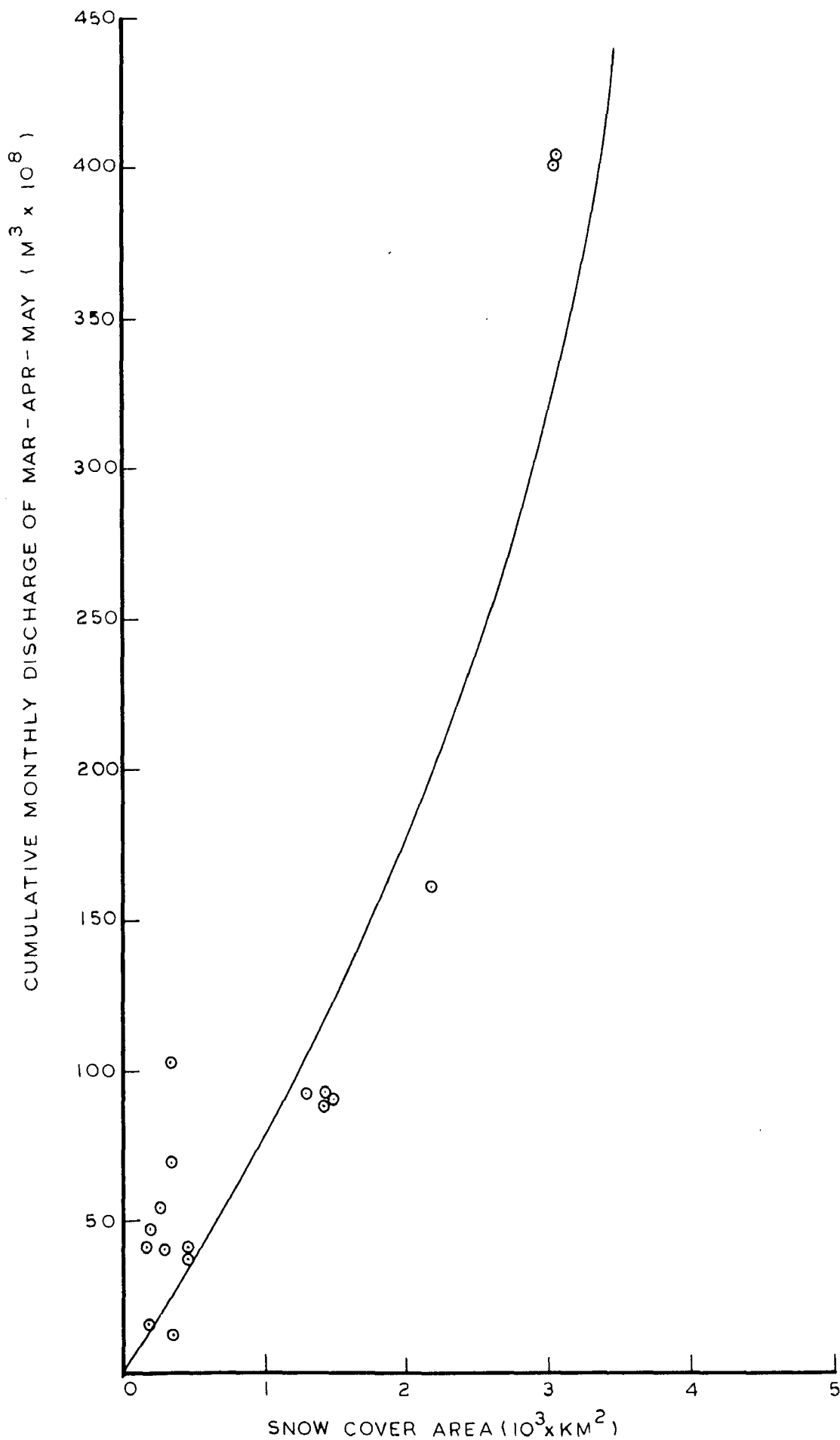


FIG. 4.5 RELATION BETWEEN THE SNOW COVERAGE AND CUMULATIVE MONTHLY DISCHARGE OF MONTHS MARCH-APRIL-MAY, IN LARGI CATCHMENT

plotted as shown in figure ( 4.5). An exponential <sup>Curve</sup> can be fitted to these limited plotted points. Here discharge data of 1973, 1975, 1976 and 1977 have been used. A better relationship can be got by using more number of years of data.

The snow covered areas in the basins and the cumulative sum of average discharges obtained from the maximum and minimum discharges of the months March-April and May as shown in table no. (4.5) have been also used in getting a similar relationship. Here an exponential curve also can be fitted.

As shown in figure ( 4.6). It is giving a better fit than in the former case. From these curves it is evidently concluded that with more snow coverage more seasonal runoff can be expected.

No consideration of the change in the geological and geohydrological feature have been taken into account, where as this could change locally and affect the discharge.

#### 6.5. METHODOLOGY FOR SNOWMELT RUNOFF COMPUTATION DURING MELT SEASON ( MARCH TO MAY ),

The basic phenomena involved in the snowmelt process has been of major interest to hydrologists and others involved in stream flow forecasting. It is

**TABLE-4.5**

Cumulative volume of monthly average discharge for the months March-April-May.

Sub Catchment Sainj

Year	Month	Minimum daily discharge (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Maximum daily discharge in cumecs	Average daily discharge in cumecs	Baseflow cumec	Average daily discharge excluding baseflow in (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Discharge volume for the month (m <sup>3</sup> )	Cumulative average discharge volume (m <sup>3</sup> )
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1973	March	10.10	29.87	23.99	9.95	14.04	37604734	37604736
	April	21.82	73.69	47.76	9.95	37.81	98003520	135608296
	May	32.72	79.04	55.88	9.45	45.93	123018910	258627166
1975	March	15.72	22.08	18.90	11.94	6.96	18641664	18641664
	April	21.66	29.24	25.45	"	13.51	35017920	53659584
	May	29.13	71.73	50.43	"	36.49	103091610	156751194
1976	March	11.06	29.24	20.15	11.68	8.47	22486048	22486048
	April	19.33	40.24	29.79	"	18.11	46941120	69527168
	May	31.20	60.05	45.63	"	33.95	9093680	160558848
1977	March	10.63	14.97	12.8	11.45	1.35	3615840	3615840
	April	13.64	20.32	16.98	"	5.53	14333760	17949600
	May	16.03	43.48	29.75	"	18.30	49014720	66964320



Sub catchment - TIRTHAR

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1973	March	14.80	55.58	35.18	9.33	25.00	69102720	69102720
	April	32.14	45.59	38.08		29.49	76412160	145514890
	May	25.47	45.81	34.64		25.26	67656384	213171264
1975	March	11.90	29.33	21.62	7.13	14.49	39810016	38810016
	April	25.18	42.03	33.02		26.49	62662080	107472076
	May	20.85	34.39	27.63		20.50	54907200	162379298
1976	March	12.90	34.39	23.65	9.69	13.06	37390464	37390464
	April	18.16	42.74	30.48		20.77	52539840	89930304
	May	21.20	31.97	26.59		36.90	45264960	135195284
1977	March	7.7	11.64	10.67	6.48	4.19	11222496	11222496
	April	11.25	21.46	16.36		9.88	25308960	36831456
	May	13.5	23.13	18.32		11.84	31712256	68943712

Sub catchment - PARVATI

1973	March	32.45	59.02	45.74	21.21	22.53	60344352	60344352
	April	44.98	149.20	97.09		73.88	191488960	251841312
	May	105.154	181.88	143.52		120.31	322239300	574079612

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1975	March	48.28	62.66	55.47	20.80	34.67	92860128	92860128	
	April	174.18 184.88	136.42 188.08	155.30 155.00		134.50 130.89	34862400 30000000	441484128 441484	
	May	85.26	233.06	159.15		138.35	370556680	812706768	
1976	March	25.14	82.41	54.28	22.56	31.70	85119552	85119552	
	April	36.37	76.73	36.55		34.05	88257600	173377152	
	May	65.11	142.10	103.61		81.21	217245020	390622172	
1977	March	22.65	31.74	27.20	22.56	4.64	12427776	12427776	
	April	22.96	51.32	37.14		14.58	37791360	50219136	
	May	31.23	82.41	36.82		34.26	91761984	141981120	
<u>Sub Catchments - LARJI</u>									
1975	March	76.22	173.08	124.65	48.31	76.34	204459050	204459050	
	April	147.10	266.55	266.63		150.52	410883840	615352890	
	May	174.19	508.23	381.24		332.93	691719710	1507072600	
1976	March	86.43	241.57	164	47.43	116.57	312221080	312221080	
	April	176.20	316.01	245.11		197.68	512386560	824807640	
	May	229.97	363.78	296.875		249.45	668126860	1492734520	
1977	March	60.39	85.15	72.77	53.09	19.68	52710912	52710912	
	April	74.03	224.43	149.23		96.14	249194880	301905792	
	May	94.81	480.58	287.70		234.61	628372420	930285212	

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1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1070	PLAT	23.28	22.09	11.00	7.01	0.20	22177152	22177152	22177152
	TRUCK	01.50	10.64	39.31		21.51	5720770	73237072	151133500
	PLAT	65.99	20.10	55.20		20.01	55242704	55242704	55242704
	TRUCK	45.07	15.20	20.00	0.10	21.23	105552710	105552710	151091900
1071	PLAT	41.50	27.51	60.72		60.59	203105000	203105000	203105000
	TRUCK	107.00	62.72	03.70		43.00			

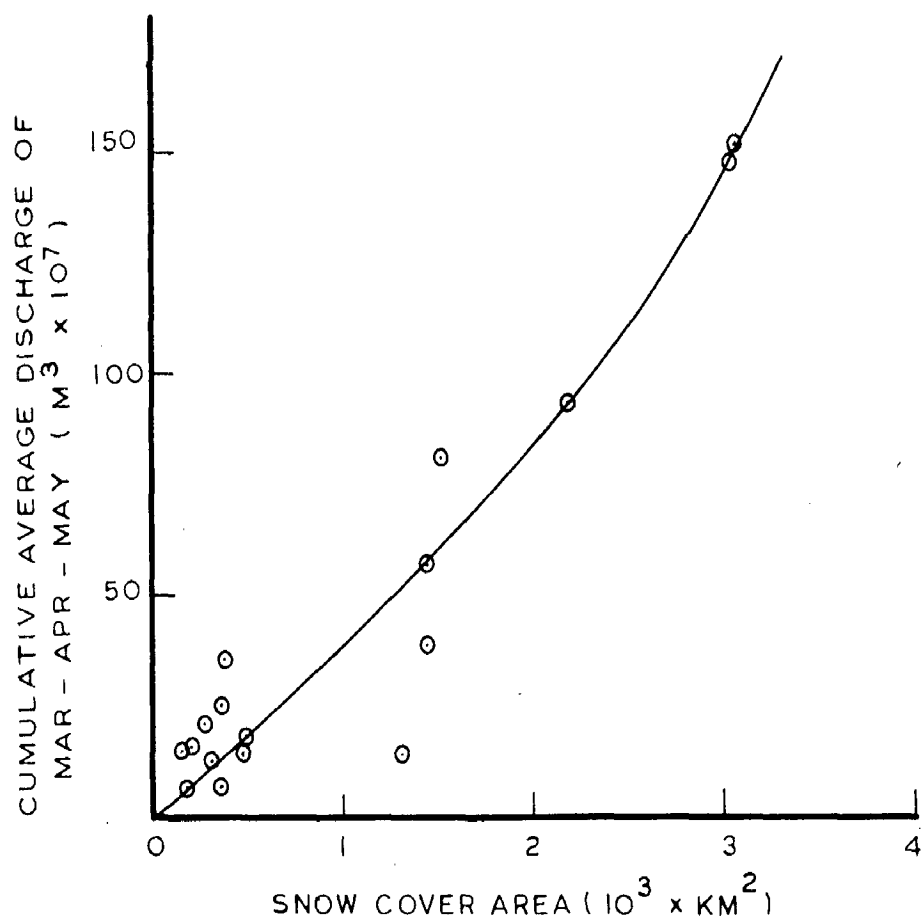


FIG. 4.6 RELATION BETWEEN THE SNOW COVERAGE AND CUMULATIVE AVERAGE DISCHARGE OF MONTHS MARCH-APRIL - MAY, IN LARGI CATCHMENT.

important that the hydrologist understand the nature and distribution of snowfall and mechanism involved in the snowmelt process if he is to make adequate estimates of the stream flow derived from this source.

Usually limited data is available in mountainous basins and generally temperature and precipitation are the only available ones.

In each basins the snow accumulation season (December to February) and the snowmelt season (March to May) are considered for the forecasting of the snowmelt runoff. During these seasons the basins can have permanent snow-covered area, temporary snow-covered area, and the non-snow-covered area.

The aerial photography can provide the extent of snow coverages in such remote and inaccessible basins.

Due to the great elevation range, differences in temperature and precipitation have to be taken into consideration.

#### 6.5.1. ASSUMPTIONS IN THE METHODOLOGY.

1. The catchment is divided into altitudinal bands to take into account the orographic effect on the precipitation and the temperature.

2. The contribution to snowmelt comes from both the temporary and permanent snow-covered areas.
3. The accumulation season is considered to extend from November to around Mid-March and the snow-melt season from around mid-March to May. This is to be judged by considering the meteorological conditions prevailing in the catchment.
4. The precipitation, rain as well as snow, received by the different altitudinal bands are substantially affected by the orographic effect. Therefore, each band gets different amount of precipitation increasing with the altitude.
5. During the accumulation season the snowmelt is negligible. The storage of snow in the various altitudinal band starts depleting during the melt season only.
6. The losses accounted from the snowmelt as well as the rain falling on the snow-covered area will include those due to evaporation and infiltration.
7. The predominant factors affecting snow-melt rate are the air temperature and rainfall. The other processes influencing heat transfer to the snow pack are relatively less important and are not taken into consideration.

8. During the accumulation season the base station can occasionally record rainfall and snow fall on the same day. During such time since the temperature is near freezing point, the rain falling on the accumulated snow pack is considered to be frozen through contact with the colder underlying snow. However, the higher altitudes can get snowfall instead due to the orographic effect.

#### 4.5.2. THE DIVISION OF THE BASIN

The basin is divided into the temporary snow-covered zone, the permanent snow-covered zone, and the nonsnow-covered zone, provided that the basin is not completely covered by snow. These divisions can be made with the help of regular satellite or aerial photographs.

#### 4.5.3. THE TEMPERATURE IN THE ELEVATION ZONES

The base station is used to provide input temperature data to the various elevation zones. The basin with a certain contour interval is divided into a number of elevation zones, the median heights of which are considered to be representative of the zone. The number of zones will depend on the size of the catchment and the availability of the contour maps.

By use of the lapse-rate approach, the

daily temperatures for each zone are computed by extending data from the base station.

$$\theta_i = \theta_b - \gamma (h_i - h_b) \quad (4.1)$$

Where  $\theta$  is the daily mean temperature ( in °C )

$h$  is the elevation ( in m )

$i$  and  $b$  are subscripts, referring to elevation zone  $i$  and the base station respectively

$\gamma$  is an empirically derived coefficient which represents the lapse rate.

#### 4.5.4. THE PRECIPITATION IN THE ZONES

The precipitation both rain as well as snow in the mountainous basin increases with height due to orographic effect. Instead of using a single value of the precipitation recorded at the base station, some reasonable incremental values of precipitation for the different elevation zones are assigned for taking into account the orographic effect. The precipitation received by a given zone will be given by the equation,

$$H_i = H_b + H_c \quad (4.2)$$

where  $H_i$  is the daily precipitation received by the zone  $i$  in mm.

$H_b$  is the daily precipitation recorded at the base station in mm.



$\Delta P$  is the incremental values of the precipitation with elevation in mm per ~~mm~~<sup>10m</sup>

#### 4.5.5. THE ACCUMULATION OF SNOW IN THE ELEVATION ZONES

Snowfall occurring from November to around mid-March can be taken into account as the stored water in the form of snow, keeping in view that negligible amount of snowmelt occur during this period as temperature generally remains near freezing point. Different amounts of snow is stored in various elevation zones due to the orographic effect on the snowfall.

#### 4.5.6. COMPUTATION OF SNOWMELT

Since there is scanty rain during the snowmelt season, the flow in the streams are mainly contributed from the snowmelt.

##### (A) The degree-day method

The daily snowmelt depth in centimeter using the degree day method is given by

$$M = a \cdot T_d$$

where 'M' is the daily snowmelt in cm

'a' is the degree day factor in  $\text{cm } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$

' $T_d$ ' is the number of degree days in  $^\circ\text{C}$ .

(B) Snowmelt due to rain

D The depth of water melted by rain in centimeter is given by

$$D = H \frac{T_r}{80} \quad (4.4)$$

Where D is the depth of water melted by rain in cm.

H is the rainfall depth in cm.

$T_r$  is the temperature of rain in °C, which can be represented by the wet bulb temperature

80 is the ratio of heat of fusion of ice to the specific heat of water (dimension : °C)

Now taking into consideration an elevation zone A, the daily snowmelt in ( $m^3/s$ ) is with the degree day method <sup>is</sup> given by,

$$Q_A = a_A \cdot T_{dA} \frac{A_A}{86400(S)} \quad (4.5)$$

Where  $Q_A$  is the daily snowmelt in  $m^3/s$

$a_A$  is the degree day factor in  $m^3 C^{-1} d^{-1}$

$T_{dA}$  is the number of degree days in deg-cd

$A_A$  is the <sup>snow covered</sup> area of zone A in  $m^2$

86,400(S) is the number of seconds per day, which converts the daily snow melt volume into daily discharge.

The snowmelt due to the rain in the elevation zone A is given by

$$Q_{RA} = H_A \cdot \frac{T_{RA}}{80} \frac{A_A}{86400(s)} \quad (4.6)$$

Where  $Q_{RA}$  is the snowmelt due to rain in zone A in  $m^3/s$

$H_A$  is the rainfall depth in m.

$T_{RA}$  is the temperature of the rain in zone A in  $^{\circ}C$

$A_A$  is the <sup>Snow covered</sup> area of the zone A in  $m^2$

86400 (s) is the number of seconds per day

80 is the ratio of the heat of fusion of ice to the specific heat of water (dimension :  $^{\circ}C$ )

Therefore, the total daily snowmelt discharge in  $m^3/s$  for the combined effect is given by

$$A_{A,RA} = Q_A + Q_{RA} \quad (4.7)$$

The term  $Q_{RA}$  exists only if rain is there on the particular day.

The snowmelt continues till all the snow has completely depleted out of the zone. Therefore, it is

important to keep in account the daily balance of the equivalent water stored in the temporary zone.

#### 4.5.7. TRANSFORMATION OF SNOWMELT TO RUNOFF

In most cases, snowmelt calculations must be simplified owing to lack of detailed data on the energy balance. However, in accuracies which might result can be overshadowed by complications involved in extrapolating snowmelt relations from one point to the whole basin in order to determine the runoff. Apart from necessity of extrapolating meteorological data to the various parts of the basin, the retention of the meltwater on its way, to the outlet must be considered in a broad variety of conditions.

In snow-lysimeter studies, the melt water is only delayed by percolation through the snow. Consequently the daily runoff ~~must must~~ coincides with the daily snowmelt. <sup>0</sup> Owing to the larger area of a basin and owing to the subsurface runoff, only a part of melt water appears in the outflow within the next 24 hours. If no further snowmelt were to take place, the remaining melt water would follow on subsequent days as recession flow according to the equation,

$$Q = Q_0 k^t \quad (4.8)$$

where  $Q_0$  is the initial discharge of the snowmelt recession curve

$k$  is the recession coefficient

$t$  is the time as dimensionless number of time increments.

If  $k$  refers  $Q_t$  for example, to discharge on two consecutive days,  $1/k$  is the number of days.

Runoff  $R$  is obtained by integrating the hydrograph.

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \int_0^t Q dt = \int_0^t Q_0 k^t dt \\ &= Q_0 \left[ \frac{k^t}{\ln k} \right]_0^t = Q_0 \frac{k^t - 1}{\ln k} \quad (4.9) \end{aligned}$$

With  $Q$  in units of  $m^3/s$ ,  $R$  in  $m^3$  and  $k$  referring to 1-day interval, the runoff  $R_1$  in the first 24 hours starting with  $Q_0$  and ending with  $Q_c$  is

$$R_1 = Q_0 \frac{k-1}{\ln k} \times 86400 (S) \quad (4.10)$$

The total run of  $R_c$  for  $k < 1$ ,  $t = \infty$  is

$$R_c = Q_0 \frac{-1}{\ln k} \times 86400 (S) \quad (4.11)$$

Substituting  $Q_0 = -\ln k \cdot R_c$  into equation (4.10)

$$R_1 = R_c (1-k) \quad (4.12)$$

Recalling the initial assumption that no further snowmelt takes place,  $R_c$  equals the first days snowmelt

(disregarding runoff losses). Thus the recession coefficient  $k$  determines (according to equation (4.12)) which part of the meltwater flows off in the first 24 hours.

If the successive daily runoff volumes are regarded as geometric series, equation (4.12) is simply derived as follows:

$$R_t = R_1 \frac{k^t - 1}{k - 1} = R_1 \frac{1 - k^t}{1 - k} \quad (4.13)$$

$$R_1 = R_t \frac{k - 1}{1 - k^t} = R_t (1 - k) = M_1(1 - k)$$

Where  $M_1$  is the daily snowmelt. Considering now that further snowmelt will take place on the second day, the total daily runoff is calculated as

$$R_2 = M_2(1 - k) + R_1 k \quad (4.14)$$

The practical computation values of  $k$  must be derived from the discharge data of the watershed. Thus taking into account the retention of melt water, the daily snowmelt runoff comprises of two components:

$$R_n = M_n (1 - k) + k R_{n-1} \quad (4.15)$$

Where  $R_n$  is the runoff on the  $n^{\text{th}}$  day in  $m^3$

$M_n$  is the snow melt on the  $n^{\text{th}}$  day in  $m^3$

$n$  is an index indicating the sequence of days  
 $k$  is the recession coefficient in the melting period and is given by the relation,

$$k = \frac{R_n}{R_{n-1}}$$

#### 6.5.8. THE DAILY DISCHARGE FROM ALL THE VARIOUS ZONES

A particular zone A is first considered. Dividing the equation (4.15) throughout by 86400 seconds to get the discharge and snowmelt in  $m^3/s$  and including the snowmelt due to rainfall, the following equation is arrived at as given below.

$$(Q_s)_n = (Q_{A,RA})_n (1-k) + k (Q_s)_{n-1} \quad (4.16)$$

Where  $Q_s$  is the daily snowmelt discharge in  $m^3/s$

$k$  is the recession coefficient with 1 day interval.

$Q_{A,RA}$  is the total daily snowmelt discharge ( $m^3/s$ ) obtained by the degree-day method and due to the rain as given in equation (4.7)

Taking into account the losses and the retention of the snowmelt, the daily snowmelt discharge contributed by all the snow-covered zones, is given by the equation below

$$(Q_s)_n = C (Q_{A,RA} + Q_{B,RB} + Q_{C,RC} + Q_{D,RD}) (1-k) + (Q_s)_{n-1} k \quad (4.17)$$

Where  $Q_n$  is the daily snowmelt discharge in ( $m^3/s$ )

$Q_{A,rA}$ ,  $Q_{B,rB}$ ,  $Q_{C,rC}$ , and  $Q_{D,rD}$  are the total daily snow-melt discharge in  $m^3/s$  obtained due to rain and by the degree day method in four respective zones A, B, C, and D that have been assumed. <sup>Temporary & permanent snow covered</sup>

$Q_{p,rD}$  is the melt due to rain & temp. effect in the permanent snow covered area.  
 $k$  is the recession coefficient for 1 day interval.

$n$  is an index expressing the sequence of day

$C$  is an  $k$  coefficient accounting for the losses.

The rainfall during the snowmelt season is usually scanty and thus most of the flow in the river is contributed by the snowmelt. Therefore, with the degree day method snowmelt can be calculated with various different values of the degree-day factor so that the snowmelt hydrograph obtained from the daily computed discharges by the equation (4.17) match the observed direct runoff hydrograph (i.e. excluding the base flow). A typical year with scanty rain in the melt season is to be analysed first. With many trials the most suitable values of the degree-day factor for the month of March and April and that for the month of May are to be arrived at. The month of May having higher temperatures <sup>for longer day hours.</sup> gets the higher value of the degree-day factor. These values of degree-day factors can be applied for computing the daily snowmelt discharge for others YEARS provided that no large deviation in the meteorological conditions prevail from one year to other.



#### 4.5.9. COMPUTATION OF THE RUNOFF COEFFICIENTS FOR THE TEMPORARY SNOW-COVERED AREA AND THE NONSNOW-COVERED AREA.

The cumulative sum of daily discharges due to snowmelt  $\leq Q$  ( in  $m^3/s$ ) and the cumulative sums of gauged discharges excluding the base flow  $\leq Q_0$  ( in  $m^3/s$ ) during the melt <sup>season</sup> can be calculated.

The difference between these values will give the amount of discharge  $\leq Q_R$  ( in  $m^3/s$ ) contributed from the <sup>excess</sup> rainfall during the melt season.

$$\leq Q_R = \leq Q_0 - \leq Q_m \quad (4.18)$$

Generally during the melt season  $\leq Q_R$  will be a small quantity in comparison to  $\leq Q_m$ .

This amount contributed by the rainfall must equal to two components as given below:

$$Q_R = C_1 \frac{(\leq H_1)}{86400} A_1 + C_2 \frac{(\leq H_2)}{86400} A_2 \quad (4.19)$$

Where  $\leq Q_R$  is the total discharge contributed from the rainfall in  $m^3/s$  during the melt season.

$C_1$  is the runoff coefficient which takes into account loss due to evaporation from the temporary snow-covered area  $A_1$  in  $m^2$ .

$C_2$  is the runoff coefficient to consider the loss due to evaporation and infiltration from the non-snow-covered area  $A_2$  in  $m^2$ .

$\sum H_1$  and  $\sum H_2$  are the total of the daily rainfall depths (m) in the temporary snow covered area and the non-snow covered area respectively during the melt season.

86400 is the number of seconds in a day which converts the volume of rainfall ( $m^3$ ) into discharge ( $m^3/d$ )

Working with different years similar equations like that of equation (4.19) are obtained. The solution to such linear equations can be done by an algebraic method as outlined in the subsequent paragraph.

#### 4.5.10. THE ALGEBRAIC METHOD TO SOLVE A SET OF LINEAR EQUATIONS.

In the mathematical discussion of the results of observations, it is required to derive from the data the best or plausible results which they are capable of affording.

When the quantities which are observed directly are junction of several unknown quantities which are to be determined, the problem can be generally reduced to a formulation such as the following.

The immediate problem is to find values for a set of unknown quantities  $X, Y$  in such a way that a set of given equation.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_1 X + Y &= n_1 \\ a_2 X + Y &= n_2 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.20)$$

$$a_n X + Y = n_n$$

Called the equation of conditions may be satisfied as nearly as possible, when the number of equations is greater than the number of unknowns  $X, Y$  and the equations are not strictly compatible with each other.

The solution to such linear equation  $n$  may be done in the following steps.

1. Multiply each linear equation by its own constants  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  and then add them to get a single equation i.e.

$$a_1^2 X + a_1 Y = a_1 n_1$$

$$a_2^2 X + a_2 Y = a_2 n_2$$

$$a_n^2 X + a_n Y = a_n n_n$$

$$\begin{aligned} (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2) X + (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n) Y & \quad (4.21) \\ & = (a_1 n_1 + a_2 n_2 + \dots + a_n n_n) \end{aligned}$$

2. All the linear equations may be added as such to obtain a single equation as

$$(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n) X + Y = (n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_n) \quad (4.22)$$

Now equation (4.21) and (4.32) can be solved simultaneously to get the values of  $X$  and  $Y$

#### 4.5.11. SNOWMELT DISCHARGE INCLUDING THE RAINFALL RUNOFF

Part of the rainfall on the temporary snowcovered area also flows along with the melt water. With this consideration the daily discharge can be expressed as

$$(Q_{sx})_n = (Q_s + Q_x) (1-k) + (Q_{sx})_{n-1} k \quad (4.23)$$

Where  $Q_{sx}$  is the daily discharge in  $m^3/s$  due to the melting of snow and the daily discharge in  $m^3/s$  contributed by the rain, if any, on the temporary snow-covered area.

$$Q_x = \frac{C_1 H_1 A_1}{86400} \quad (4.24)$$

Where  $Q_x$  is the discharge contributed by the rainfall on the temporary snowcovered area

$C_1$  is the runoff coefficient accounting the loss in the temporary snow covered area  $A_1$  in  $m^2$

$H_1$  is the rainfall in m in the temporary snow covered area.

86400 is the number of seconds in a day.

Using the equation (4.23) hydrograph can be plotted.

The daily discharge ( $m^3/s$ ) due to the rainfall, if any, falling on the nonsnow-covered area is given by

$$Q_y = \frac{C_2 H_2 A_2}{86400} \quad (4.25)$$

Where  $Q_y$  is the discharge contributed by the rainfall on the non snowcovered area.

$C_2$  is the run off coefficient in the non-snow-covered area  $A_2$  in  $m^2$

$H_2$  is the rainfall in  $m$  in the non-snow-covered zone.

86400 is the no. of seconds in the day.

This discharge  $Q_y$  can be superimposed on the same day on the hydrograph obtained by equation (4.23), if the time of the concentration of catchment, provided small and having appreciable gradient, is less than a day. Hence the ~~the~~ total daily discharge thus obtained is

$$Q^{(total)}_n = (Q_{ex})_n + (Q_y)_n \quad (4.26)$$

The hydrograph thus obtained by using the equation (4.26) should lead to a better agreement with the observed hydrograph excluding the base flow.

This methodology can be used in small remote catchments where data are limited. Usually a valley station considered as the base station provides the input data to the computation of the daily snowmelt discharge. This methodology has been extended to be used in the Hanali catchment.

#### 4.6 ANALYSIS OF BASIN CATCHMENT FOR SNOWMELT RUNOFF:

The hydrological condition of the Himalayan catchments is a complex one, since most of them are partly covered with snow at the higher elevation, and rain fed, at lower elevation.

The weather system that generally causes precipitation in the Himalayan regions are the Monsoon and the western disturbances. The year in the Basin catchment may be <sup>divided</sup> ~~classified~~ into the following four seasons.

##### a) The snow accumulation period.

This period refers to the months from December to mid March. Precipitation in the form of snow and sleet, which generally occurs in the catchment is associated with the movement of the Western Disturbances across the region. The flow in the Basin catchment is mainly due to the groundwater supplemented by some rain and snowmelt in the lower hilly region.

##### b) The snowmelt period.

This period refers to the months from around mid March to Mid June. The freezing level is mostly maintained in the catchment upto <sup>mid</sup> ~~late~~ March, and the subsequent ~~the~~ lifting of the freezing level in this period due to above normal heating causes heavy snowmelt. Therefore, high inflows into the river are observed.

c) The monsoon period.

This period spans from mid June to mid September. Beas catchment receives bulk of its annual rain during this period.

d) The groundwater period.

This period spans from October to mid February. During this period, virtually, all the precipitation is in the form of snow, and consequently river flow is entirely dependent on ground water discharge.

4.6.1 THE HYDROLOGIC AND METEOROLOGIC DATA AVAILABLE FOR THE STUDY.

4.6.1.1 THE TEMPERATURE DATA.

*for Manali Station.*

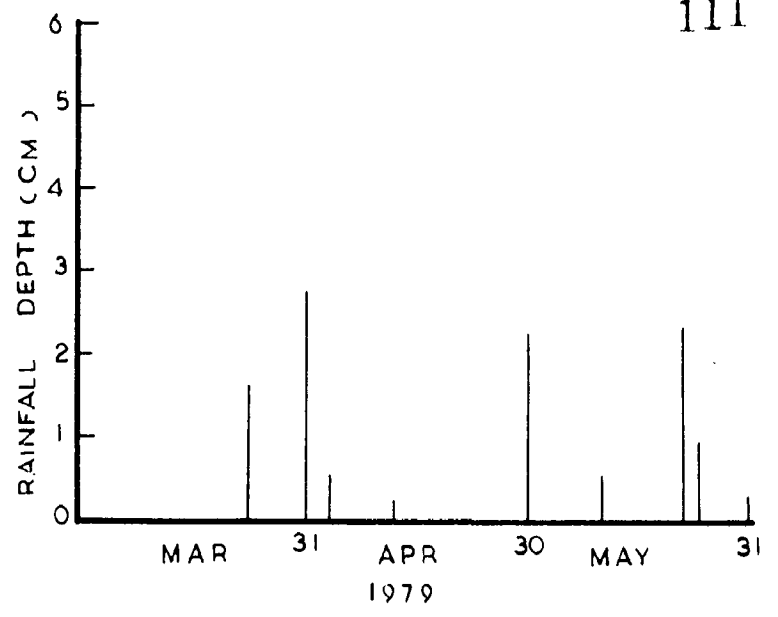
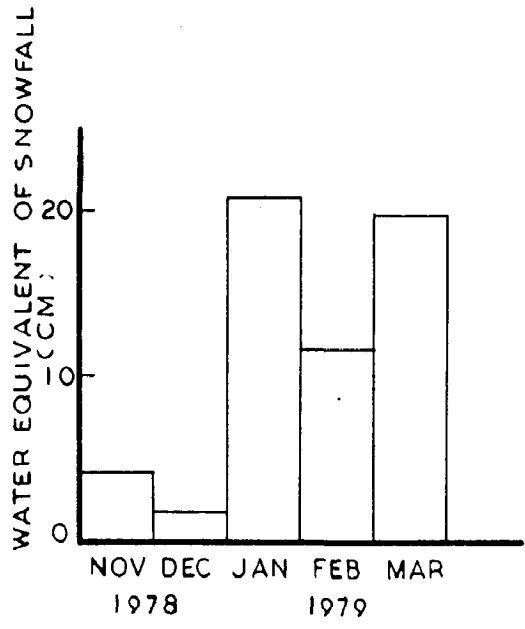
The daily maximum, and minimum data has been collected for the years 1976, 1977, 1978 and 1979 from the Beas suture link project, Reservoir sub Division, Pandoh (H.P.).

The daily mean temperature for the melting period considered in this study is tabulated in Appendix (IV a, IV b, IV c) and plotted in figures 4.7(a), 4.7(b), 4.7(c) .

4.6.1.2 THE DISCHARGE DATA.

The daily discharge data collected for Parvati river, Sainj river, and Tirthan river from 1973 to 1979 has been obtained from the Director of Plant Design, Sunder nagar (H.P.).

The daily discharge data for the Manali and Larji gauging stations for the period 1976 to 1979 and 1973 to 1979 respectively has been collected from the Beas suture link project, Reservoir sub Division, Pandoh (H.P.). The discharge data at Larji for the months



WATER EQUIVALENT OF THE SNOWFALL IN MANALI

DAILY RAINFALL DEPTH RECORDED MANALI

FIG. 4 8 (a)

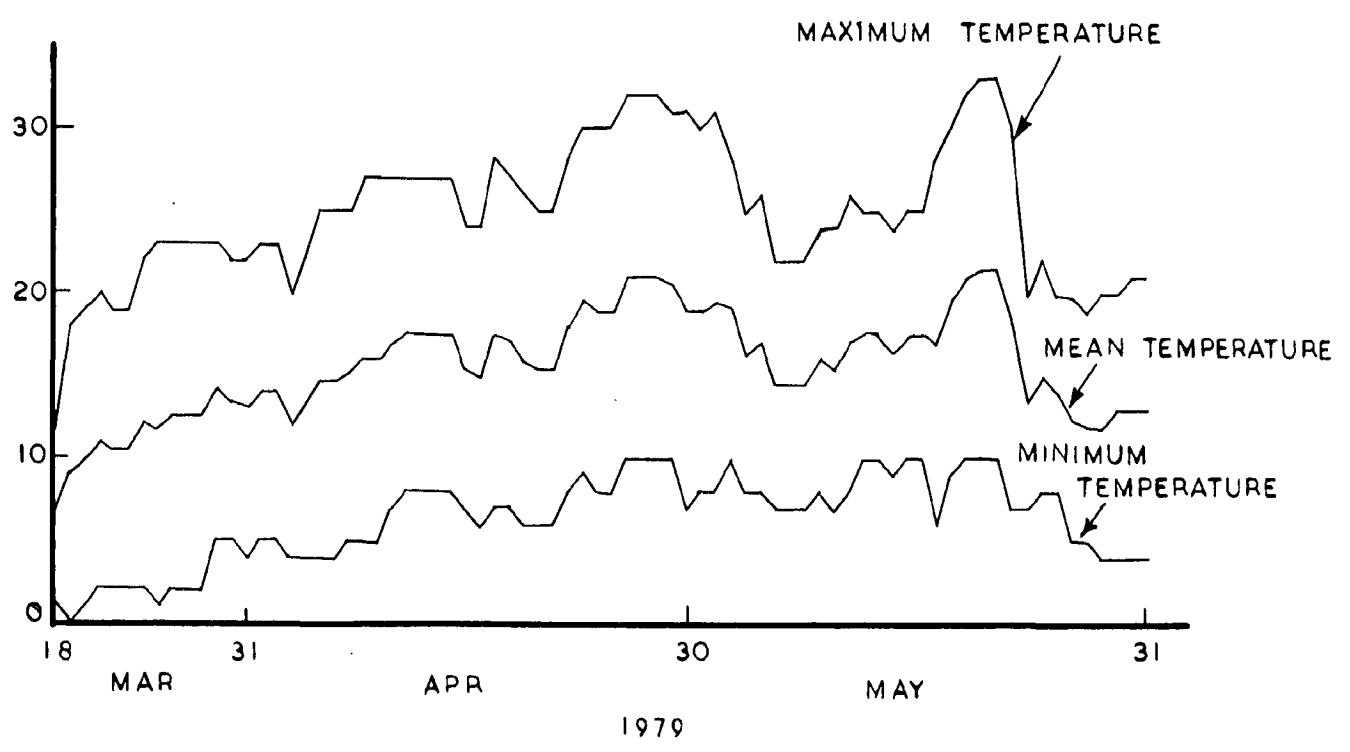
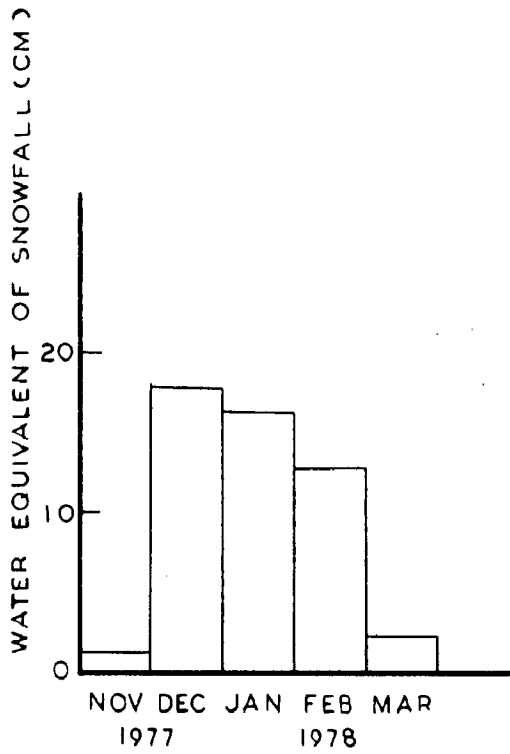
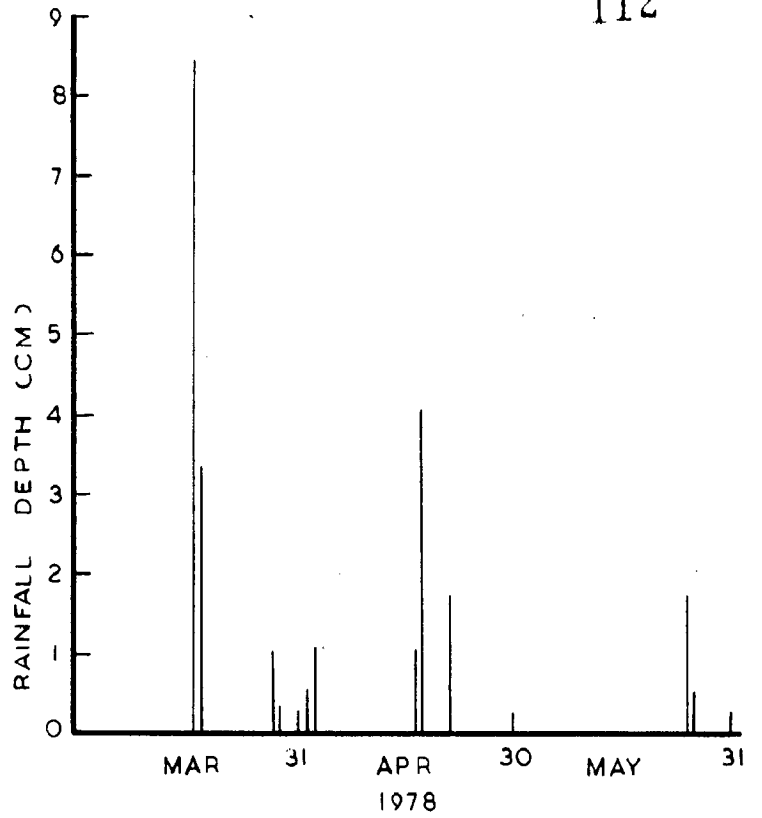


FIG.4.7(a) DAILY MAXIMUM, AVERAGE, AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURE RECORDED IN MANALI





WATER EQUIVALENT OF THE SNOWFALL IN MANALI



DAILY RAINFALL DEPTH RECORDED IN MANALI

FIG. 4.8 (b)

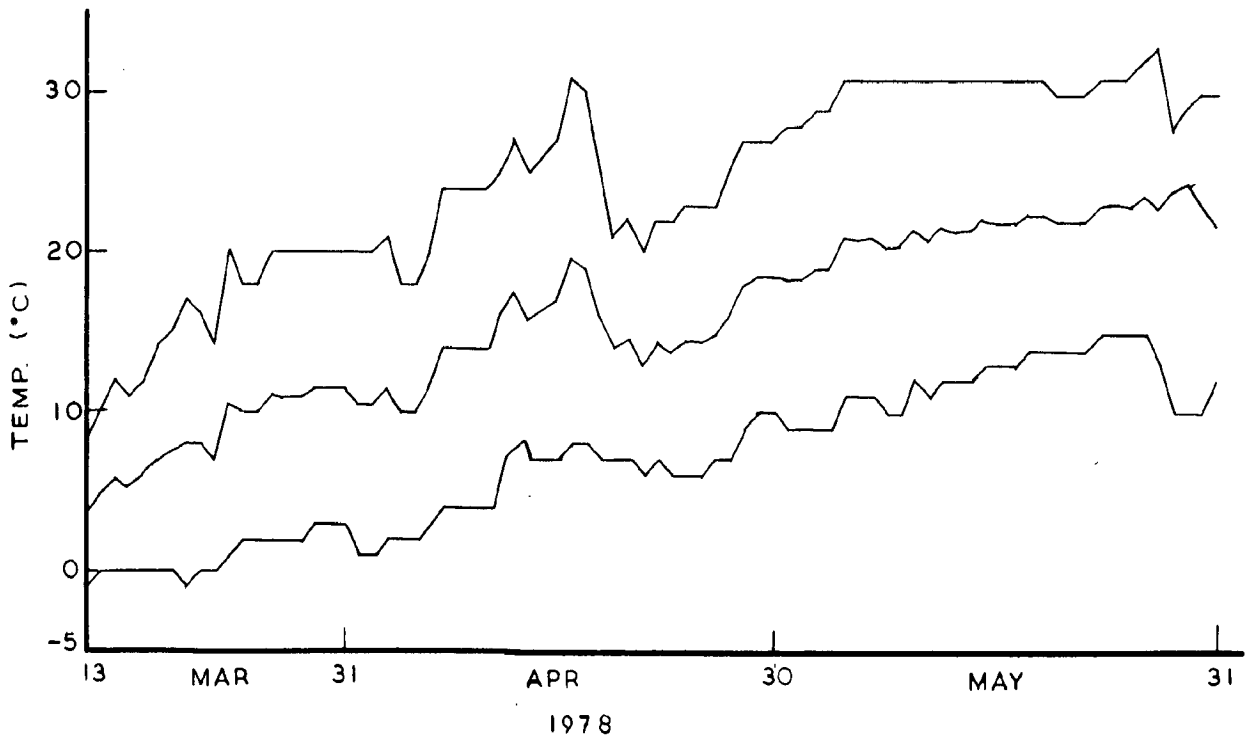


FIG. 4.7(b) DAILY MAXIMUM, AVERAGE, AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURE RECORDED IN MANALI

of April and May is missing for the year 1973. The daily discharge of Beas river at Manali gauging station excluding the base flow for the years 1977, 1978 and 1979 during the melting period considered in the study is tabulated in Appendix ( XI a, XI b, XI c ).

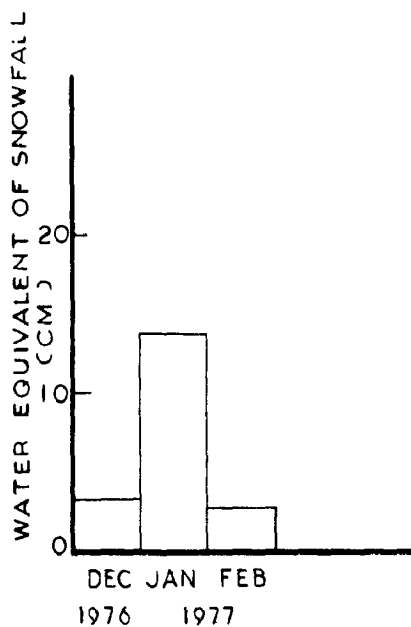
#### 4.6.1.3 THE RAINFALL AND SNOWFALL DATA,

The rainfall and snowfall data for the Manali station for the years 1976 to 1979 was obtained through the office of S.E., Planning and Design <sup>hang</sup> (c)- II, H.P.S.E.S., Sunder Nagar (H.P.).

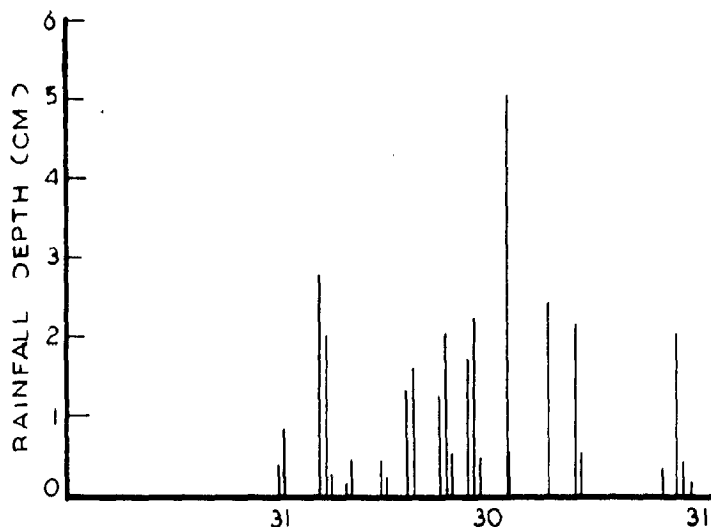
The data are tabulated in Appendix ( V a, V b, V c, and VI a, VI b, VI c). The rainfall data and the water equivalent of the snowfall are plotted in the figures ( 4.8(a), 4.8(b), 4.8(c).

#### 4.6.1.4 TEMPERATURE IN DIFFERENT ELEVATION ZONE,

The Manali catchment has been divided into five elevation zones at the contour interval of 2000 ft (610 m) as indicated in the table no. (4.6) below.



WATER EQUIVALENT OF THE SNOWFALL IN MANALI



DAILY RAINFALL DEPTH RECORDED MANALI

FIG. 4.8(c)

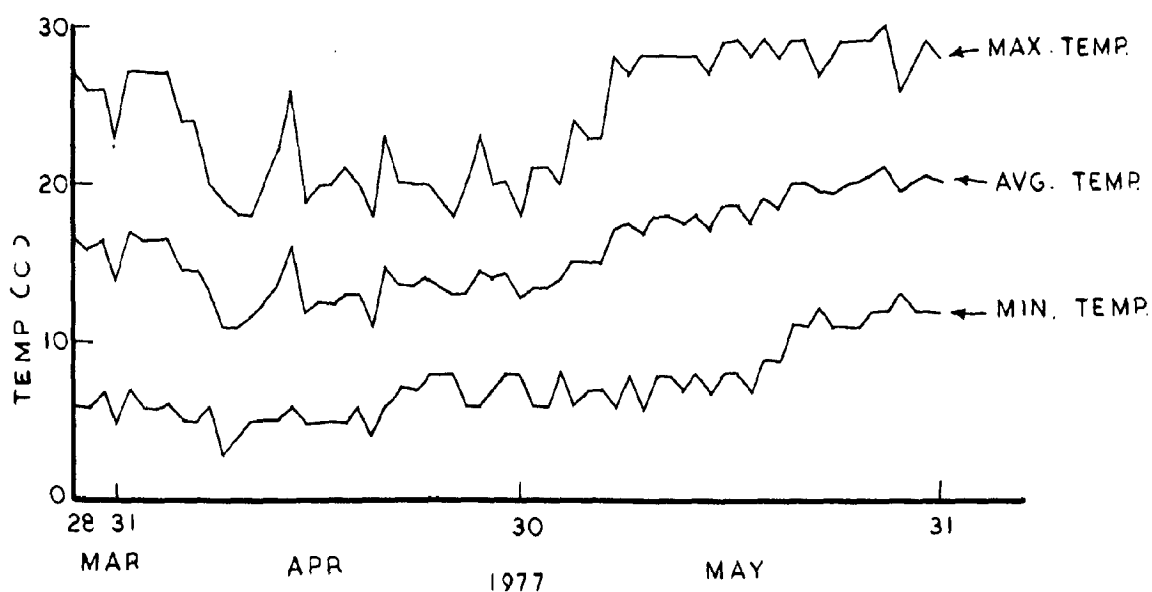


FIG.4.7(c) DAILY MAXIMUM , AVERAGE , AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURE RECORDED IN MANALI

of April and May is missing for the year 1973. The daily discharge of Beas river at Manali gauging station excluding the base flow for the years 1977, 1978 and 1979 during the melting period considered in the study is tabulated in Appendix ( XI a, XI b, XI c ).

#### 4.6.1.3 THE RAINFALL AND SNOWFALL DATA.

The rainfall and snowfall data for the Manali station for the years 1976 to 1979 was obtained through the office of S.E., Planning and Designing <sup>hang</sup> (c)- II, H.P.S.E.S., Sunder Nagar (H.P.).

The data are tabulated in Appendix ( V a, V b, V c, and VI a, VI b, VI c ). The rainfall data and the water equivalent of the snowfall are plotted in the figures ( 4.8(a), 4.8(b), 4.8(c) ).

#### 4.6.1.4 TEMPERATURE IN DIFFERENT ELEVATION ZONE.

The Manali catchment has been divided into five elevation zones at the contour interval of 2000 ft (610 m) as indicated in the table no. (4.6) below.

Table no. (4<sup>th</sup>) Area between elevation zones.

S.No.	elevation zone ft	Area of the zones (km <sup>2</sup> )
1	6000 - 8000	23.53
2	8000 - 10000	49.69
3	10000 - 12000	104.61
4	12000 - 14000	109.85
5	14000 and above	81.73
Total		369.41

The medium <sup>an</sup> height is considered to be representative of each elevation zone. Using the lapse rate for every 1000 ft as 1.53<sup>(ref 22)</sup>°C, the daily temperature for each zone is calculated by the equation (4.1) with respect to the temperature recorded at Manali station, which is considered to be the base station at a height of 5984.02 ft. Similar values of lapse rate as 1.53<sup>o</sup>C per 1000 ft (305 m) have been observed in the catchment by using temperature data of Manali and Bhuntar. Bhuntar has an elevation of 3555.25 ft (1084.4m) and is located further down stream of Manali (1830 m) the position's temperatures obtained in the different zones by this lapse rate are tabulated in the degree - day column in the Appendix (Xa, Xb, Xc).

#### 4.6.1.5 THE SNOW COVERED AREA FROM THE SATELLITE IMAGERY.

The only satellite imagery available for the year 1977 (fig.4.9) has been incorporated in this study (19). The satellite imagery of scale 1:250,000 is shown in the figure (4.9).

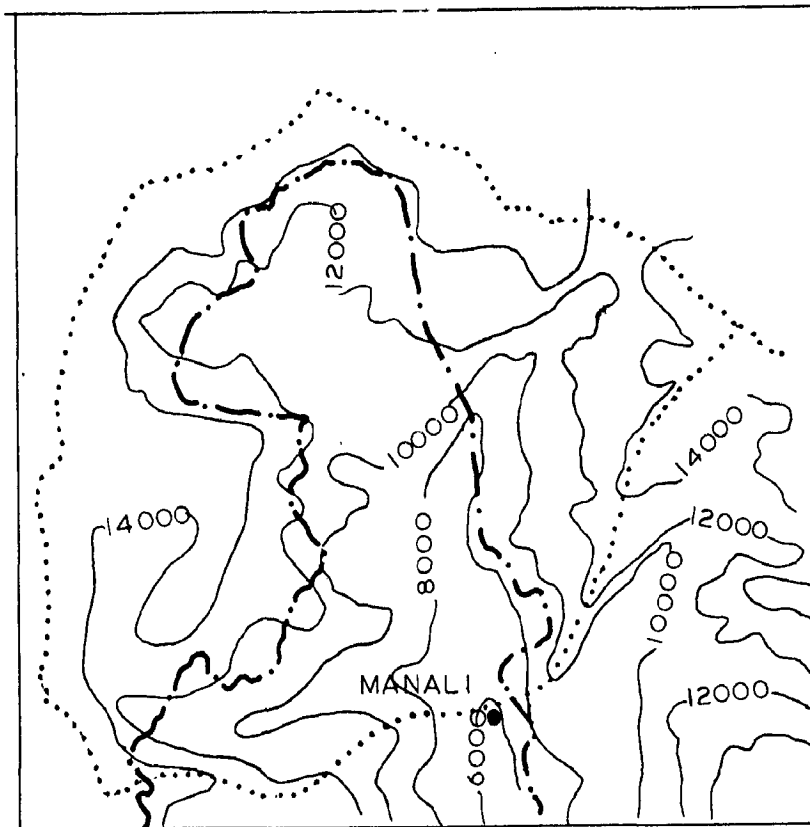
Since the other satellite imageries of 1973, 1975 and 1976 indicate that Manali catchment is <sup>generally can be</sup> completely snow covered and since the snowfall of 1978 and 1979 is 2.5 to 3 times that of 1977, it is concluded that the Manali catchment is completely covered by snow before the melting period of 1978 and 1979.

(In '77 about 59% of the catchment is covered by snow.)

#### 4.6.1.6 THE PRECIPITATION IN THE DIFFERENT ZONES.

a) It is found that the precipitation, snow as well as rain, in the mountainous regions increase with altitude due to orographic effect. The incremental values for the rainfall and snowfall for each 2000 ft rise in altitude have been adopted from the similar studies conducted in British Columbia (9), since no Indian data was available for estimating the same. The incremental values for the rainfall and snowfall are given in Appendix (VII a, VII b). The snowfall and rainfall depths for different elevation zones using these incremental values are given in Appendix (Va, Vb, Vc and VI a, VI b, VI c).

b) It is observed that Manali catchment generally receives the snowfall from November to around mid March. The snowfall occurring from November to around mid March has been considered to be accumulated as the stored water in the form of snow, keeping in view that negligible melt occurs during this season as



LEGEND  
SNOW LINE                 - · - · - · -  
MANALI CATCHMENT       · · · · ·  
CONTOUR LINE            ~ ~ ~

FIG. 4.9   SNOW COVER MAP OF MANALI CATCHMENT  
          LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 27 MAR. 1977 MSS 7

SCALE - 1 : 250,000

CONTOUR VALUES IN FEET

the temperature remains near freezing for elevations above 6000 ft. The water equivalent of the snowfall data during the accumulation period in Manali station has been worked out assuming a water equivalent value of 10%. This has been plotted in the figures ( 4.8(a), 4.8(b), 4.8(c) )

The volume of water stored in the form of snow in each elevation zone is calculated with equation,

$$V_s = d \cdot H_s \cdot A. \quad (4.6.1)$$

Where  $V_s$  is the volume of water stored in the accumulated snow ( $m^3$ ) in an elevation zone,  $d$  is the water equivalent,  $H_s$  is the computed depth of snowfall ( $m$ ) for the considered zone &  $A$  is the area of the zone under consideration ( $m^2$ ).

It is generally observed from the satellite images that the snowline remain near the altitude of 14000 ft. Hence we consider the permanent snow covered area to be above 14000 ft. For each elevation zone up to 14000 ft. the volume of water stored in the form of snow during the accumulation season is calculated with the equation (4.6.1). The volume of water stored in the form of snow during the accumulation period for different zones in different years are given in Appendix (VIII a, VIII b, VIII c)

#### 4.6.1.7 THE RECESSSION FACTOR

The daily recession discharge in Manali are plotted against the daily discharge on the previous day for the years 1977 to 1979 during the melting seasons as shown in figure (4.10)



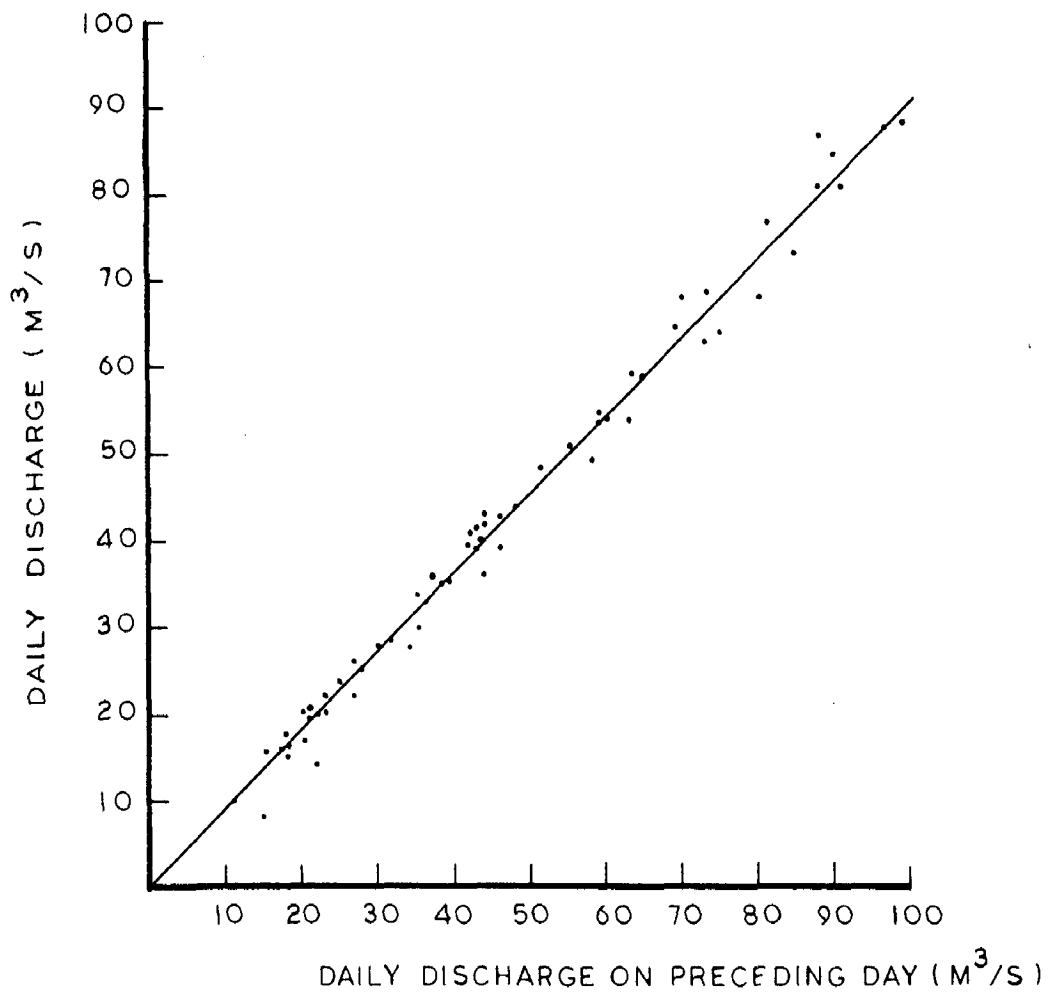


FIG. 4.10 DAILY RECESSON ANALYSIS FOR MANALI DURING SNOW MELT PERIOD 1976,1977,1978 AND 1979

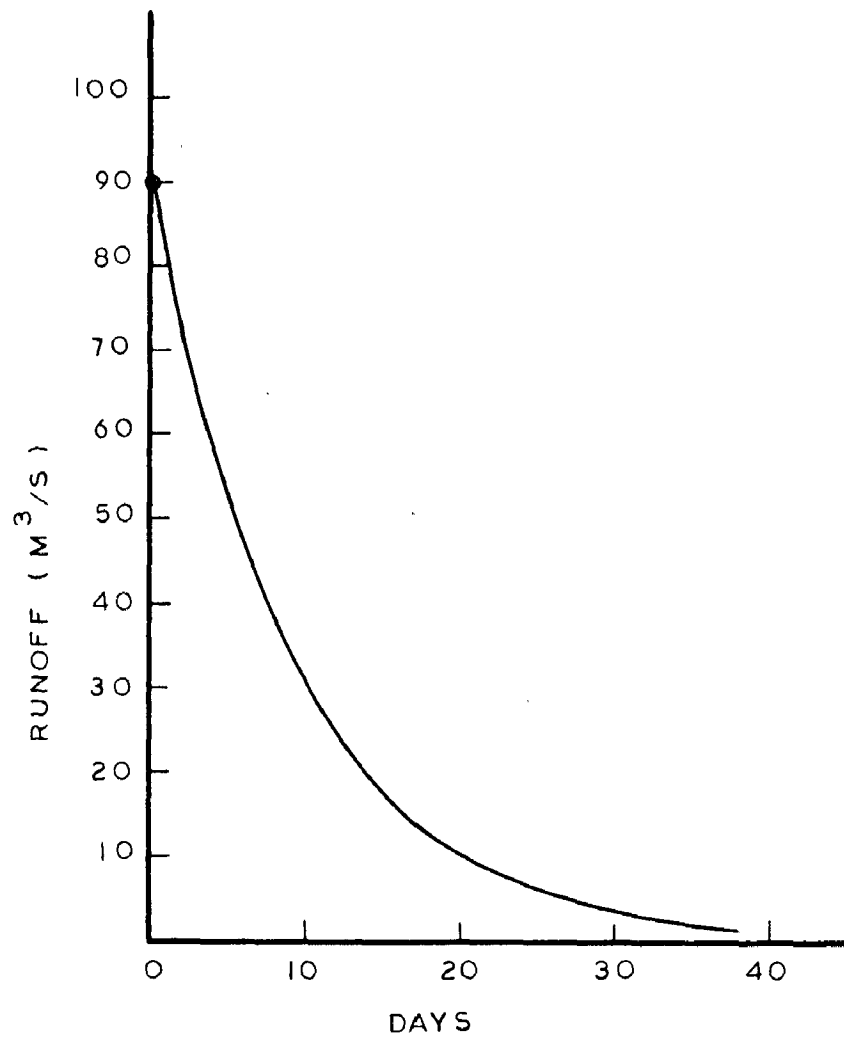


FIG. 4.11 SNOW MELT - RUNOFF RECESSION CURVE FOR MANALI

The recession factor  $k$  is derived from the slope of the straight line fitted to the plotted points as 0.90. Similar values also have been obtained in recession analysis carried out in Ste Louis creek near Fraser, Colorado (4). The snowmelt runoff recession curve for Manali is shown in the figure (4.11).

#### 4.6.1.8 THE BASE FLOW

The base flow for the considered year has been taken to be the minimum discharge in the groundwater period. During this period virtually, all the precipitation is in the form of snow and consequently river flow is entirely dependent on the ground water discharge. The base flows for the years 1977, 1978 and 1979 are observed to be  $8.27 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ,  $11.79 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and  $14.27 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  respectively.

#### 4.6.1.9 COMPUTATION OF SNOWMELT DISCHARGE

*for both temporary & permanent zones*  
 With the degree day method equation (4.5) snowmelt is computed with different values of the degree day factor so that the hydrograph plotted with these computed daily snowmelt discharge is reasonable matching the observed direct runoff hydrograph. The year 1979 has been tested first because it has less rainfall as compared to 1978 and 1979 during the melting season. The suitable values for degree day factor for the months of March and April is working out to be  $0.0018 \text{ cm}^\circ\text{C}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and that for the

month of May as  $0.00315 \text{ cm } ^\circ\text{C d}^{-1}$ . These values are coming around the average value of the snowmelt as  $0.0027 \text{ cm } ^\circ\text{C d}^{-1}$  given in reference (23). *degree day factor*

The month of May gets the higher value of the degree day factor since more snowmelt is to be observed as the temperatures in this month is relatively higher and persists for more hours of the day than the other two months. The degree day factor is also related to the snow density as has been discussed in chapter 2 from reference (8). The snow density in May due to heavy melting can have higher values than those of March and April. The melt due to the rainfall as computed by equation (4.6) is also included snow. The melting of snow due to the rainfall in each zone is calculated and tabulated in Appendix (IX a). With the equation (4.7) the melt in all the zones are calculated and summed up. These are tabulated in the last column, under the elevation zone above 14000 ft. table, in Appendix (IXa). Now taking into account the retention effect and the losses due to infiltration and evaporation equation (4.17) is used to get the daily snowmelt discharge considering the melt from all the elevation zones. The losses in equation (4.17) is given a value of 10%. Hence the coefficient "C" in the equation (4.17) gets a value of 0.90. Such a value has been found and used in a similar study in *DISCHMA* discharge water shed in Switzerland (9). These computed daily discharge are plotted against the observed direct runoff hydrograph

*The degree day factor depend on the density of snow. Old snow means higher density. Hence old snow has less albedo. Thus more radiation penetrates into the snow mantle to produce more melt. Thus the Month of May gets higher value of the degree day factor as compared to Mar - April*

as shown in figure (4.12 a) A reasonable agreement is observed. The daily calculated snowmelt discharge for the year 1977 and 1978 are also calculated. These are tabulated in the last column, under the elevation zone above 14000 ft table, in Appendix (X b and X c). The melt due to the rainfall effect in each zone for these years are calculated and tabulated in Appendix (IX b; IX c). The computed daily discharge are plotted against the observed direct runoff hydrograph as shown in figure (4.12.b, 4.12.c). The daily snowmelt discharge is calculated by the equation (4.17) and the values are tabulated in the 2nd column of Appendix (XI a, XI b, XI c)

4.6.1/D COMPUTATION OF THE RUNOFF COEFFICIENTS FOR RAIN ON THE SNOW - COVERED AREA AND THE NON SNOW-COVERED AREA.

Taking into account the water budget for the concerned covered melting period the difference between the cumulative sum of the daily observed discharges  $\sum Q_o$  excluding the base flow and the cumulative sum of the daily snowmelt discharge  $\sum Q_m$  is equal to the total discharge contributed due to the rainfall  $\sum Q_R$  as given by the equation (4.18) i.e.

$$\sum Q_R = \sum Q_o - \sum Q_m$$

The total discharge  $\sum Q_R$  can be written as

$$\sum Q_R = \frac{C_1 (\sum H_1) A_1}{86400} + \frac{C_2 (\sum H_2) A_2}{86400}$$

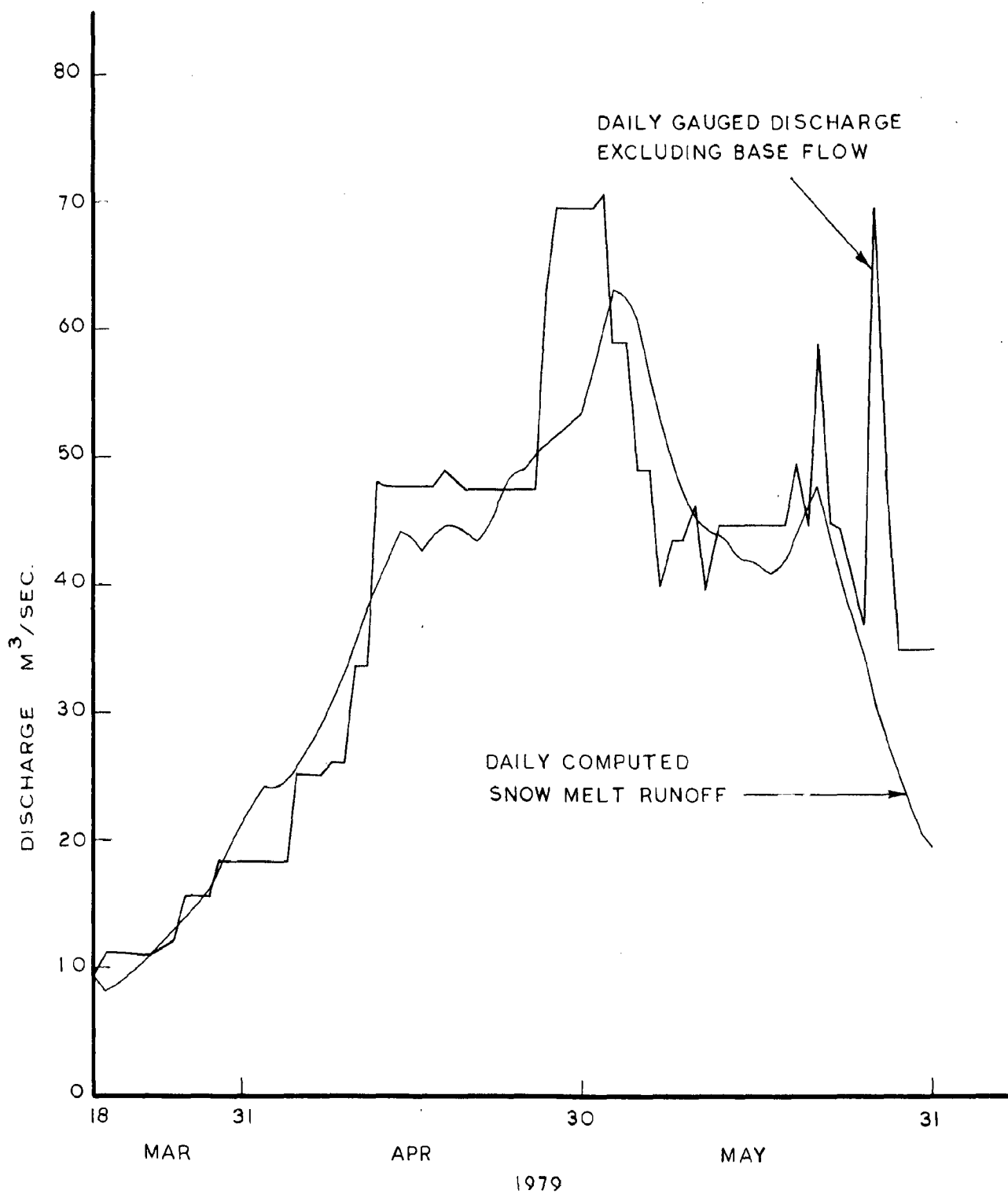


FIG.4.12(a) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI

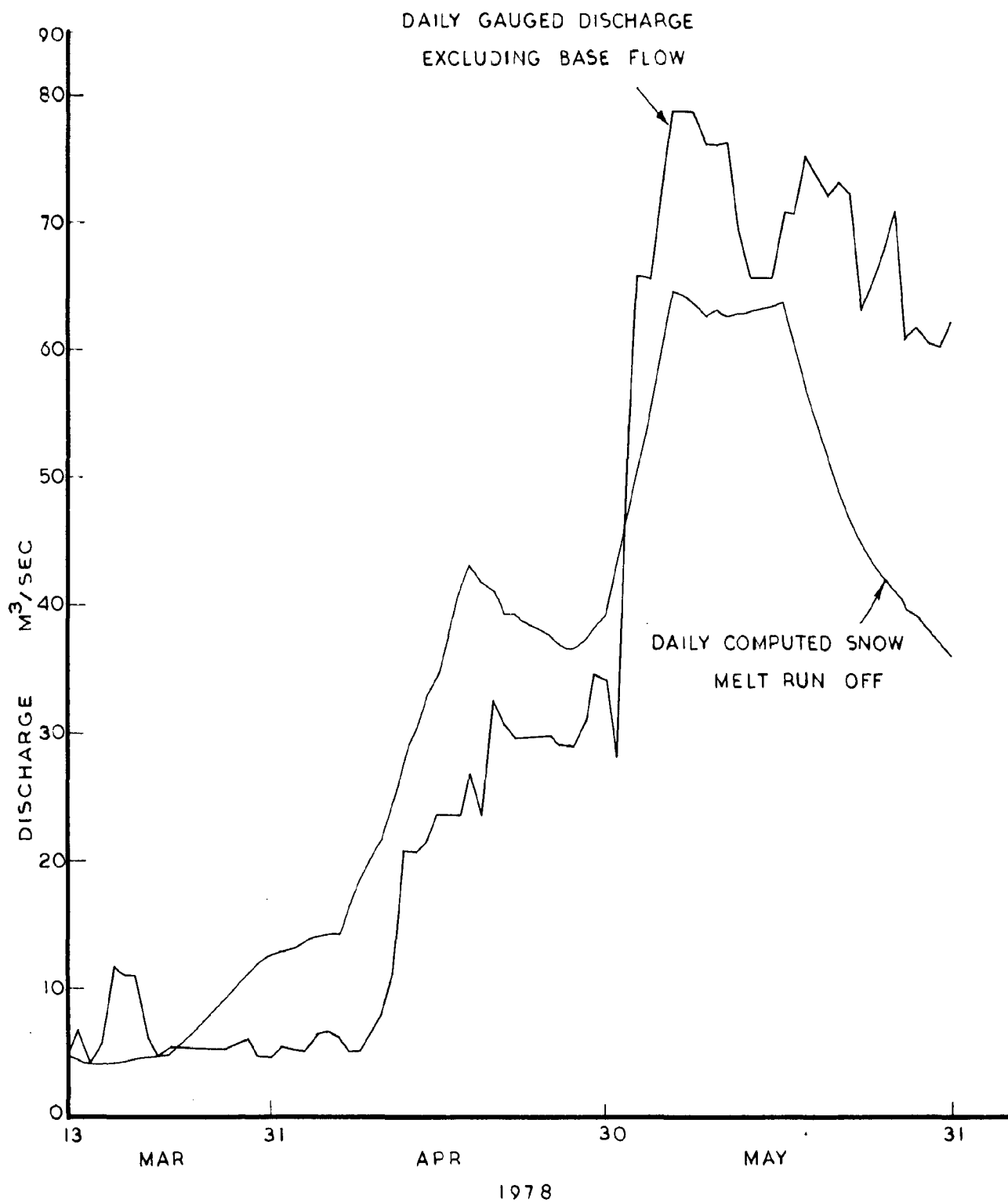


FIG.4.12(b) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI

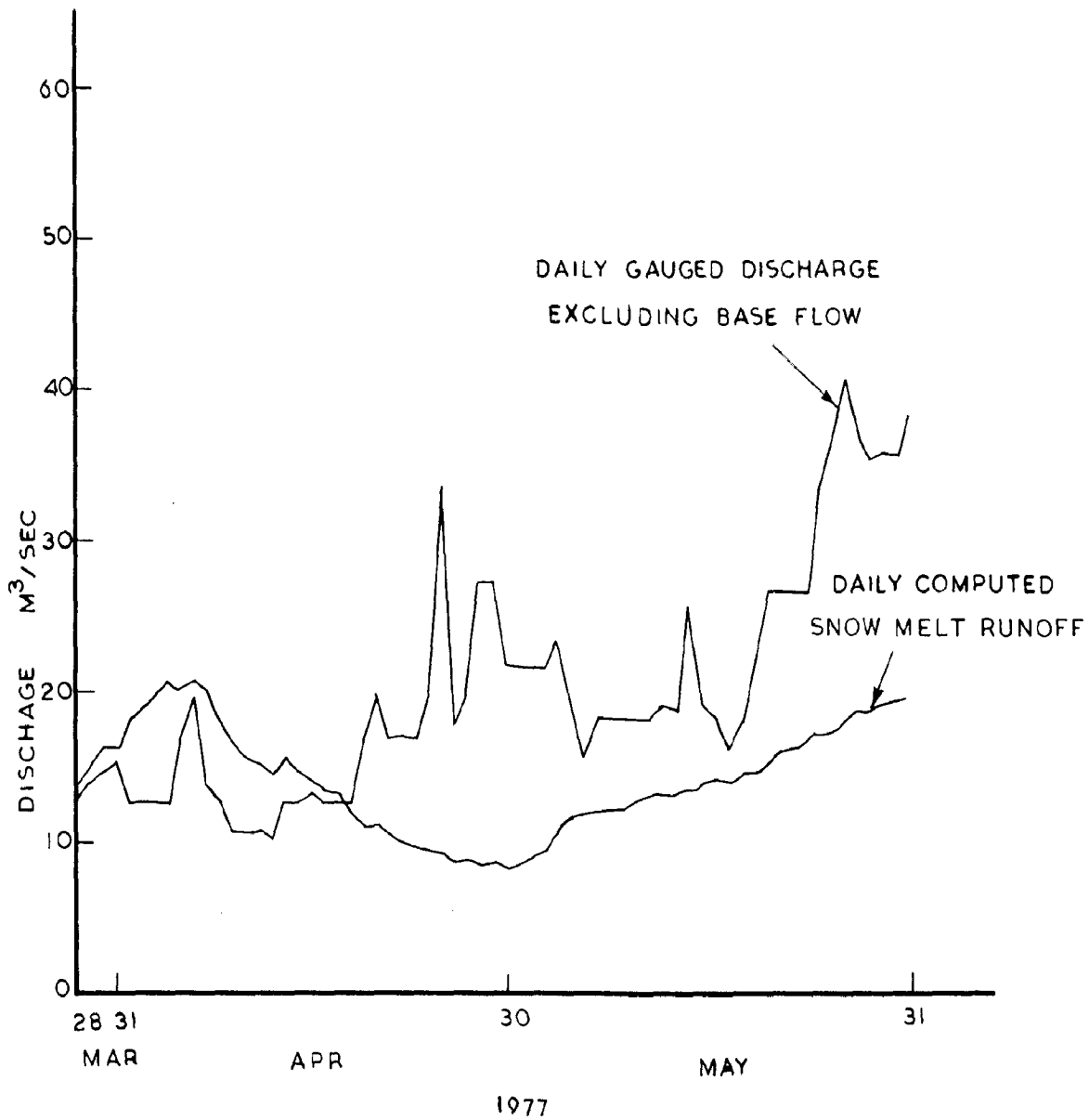


FIG. 4.12(c) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI



where  $\sum Q_R$  is the total discharge contributed by the rainfall in  $m^3/s$  during the melting period.  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are the runoff coefficients for the snow covered area and non snow-covered area respectively.  $\sum H_1$  and  $\sum H_2$  are the total of the daily rainfall depth (m) in the temporary snow covered area  $A_1$  ( $m^2$ ) and the non-snow covered area  $A_2$  ( $m^2$ ). 86400 is the number of seconds in a day. The recession flows prior to and subsequent to the respective melt periods of 1977 to 1979 have been obtained with the help of the snowmelt runoff recession curve in figure (4.11). These have been accounted to get the values of  $\sum Q_o$  and  $\sum Q_m$ .

The values of the  $\sum Q_o$ ,  $\sum Q_m$  and  $\sum Q_R$  are given in the table no (4.3) below.

Table no. (4.3). The cumulative sum of daily observed discharge, the cumulative sum of daily snowmelt discharges, and the total discharge due to the rainfall during the melting period.

Year	Cumulative sum of the daily observed discharge ( $m^3/s$ ) during the melting period ( $\sum Q_o$ ) (excluding base flow)	Cumulative sum of the daily snowmelt discharge ( $m^3/s$ ) during the melting period ( $\sum Q_m$ )	Total discharge due to rainfall ( $m^3/s$ ) during the melting period ( $\sum Q_R$ )
1979	3071.27	2775.06	296.21
1978	3215.79	2858.75	357.04
1977	1462.43	962.78	499.67

The total runoff due to rainfall on snow covered area and non snow covered area during the melting period is given in the table no. (4.8) below.

Table no. (4.8). The total discharge due to rainfall on snow covered area and non snow covered area during the melting period.

Year	Total discharge due to rainfall during melting period on	
	snow covered area	non snow covered area.
	$(\sum H_1 A_1 / 85400) (m^3/s)$	$(\sum H_2 A_2 / 85400) (m^3/s)$
1979	282.23	355.98
1978	532.45	142.41
1977	619.02	648.51

By using the values in table no. (4.7), and (4.8) in equation (4.19), three linear equations are obtained as given below.

$$296.21 = C_1 282.23 + C_2 355.98$$

$$357.04 = C_1 532.45 + C_2 142.41$$

$$449.67 = C_1 619.02 + C_2 648.51$$

The linear equations are solved by using the method given in section (4.5.10). The values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  thus obtained equal 0.595 and 0.278 respectively.

#### 4.6.1.10 SNOWMELT DISCHARGE AT MANALI GAUGE SITE INCLUDING THE RAINFALL RUNOFF.

Part of the rain falling on the snow-covered area flows along with the snowmelt. The daily discharge for the melting period for 1977 to 1979 <sup>ave</sup> was thus calculated by the equation (4.23) and tabulated in the 4th column Appendix (X1a, X1b, X1c). The discharge contributed due to the rainfall on the non-snow-covered area is super imposed on the hydrograph obtained by the equation (4.23) on the very same day since the time of concentration for the catchment is less than a day. The discharge including the runoff due to rainfall on the non-snow covered area is tabulated in the 5th. column Appendix (X1a, X1b, X1c). The hydrographs thus obtained by these computed discharges are shown in Figures ( 4.13a, 4.13b, 4.13c). With this consideration there is an improvement in the result. A reasonable agreement is there between the computed hydrograph and the observed <sup>direct</sup> due-to runoff hydrograph.

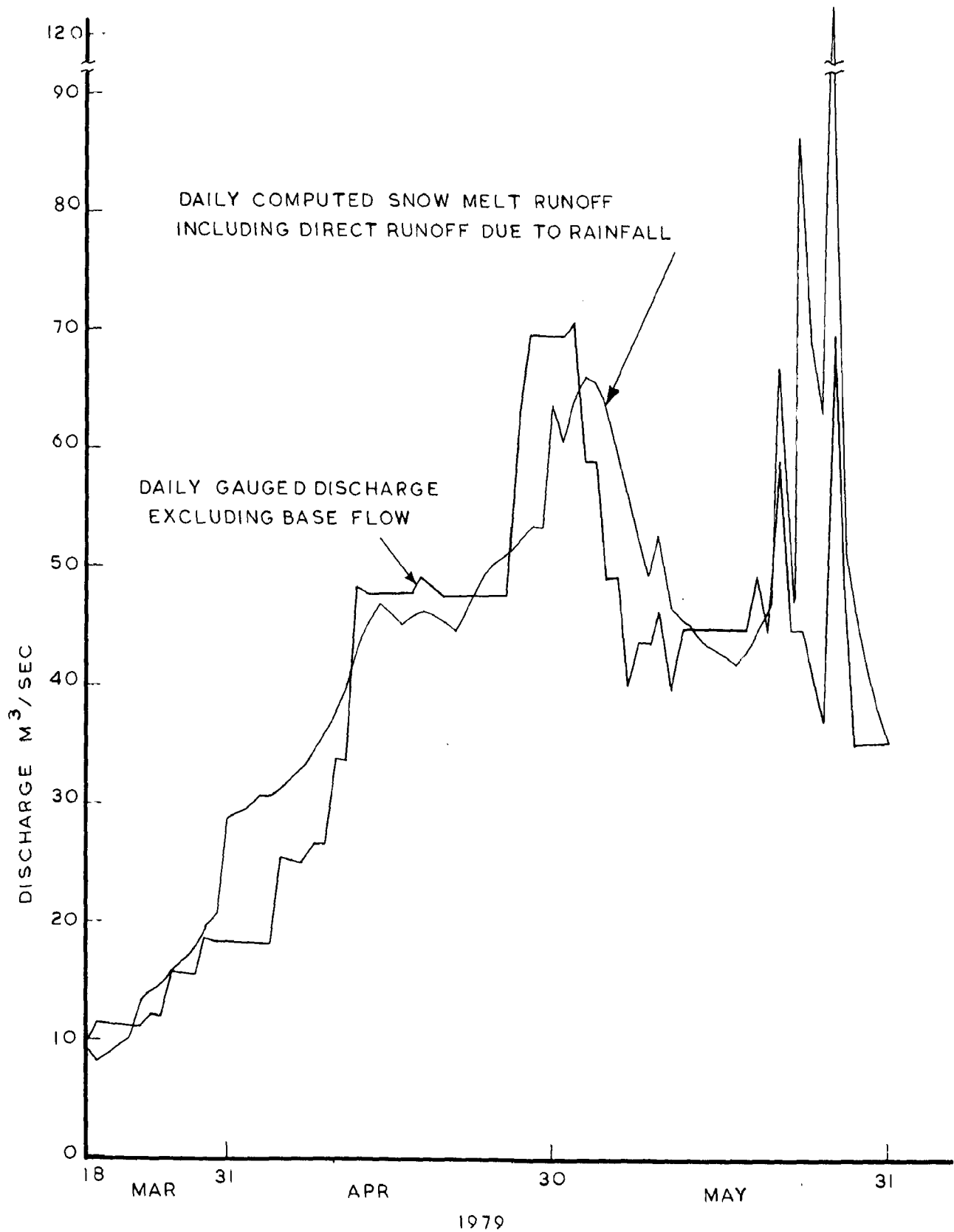
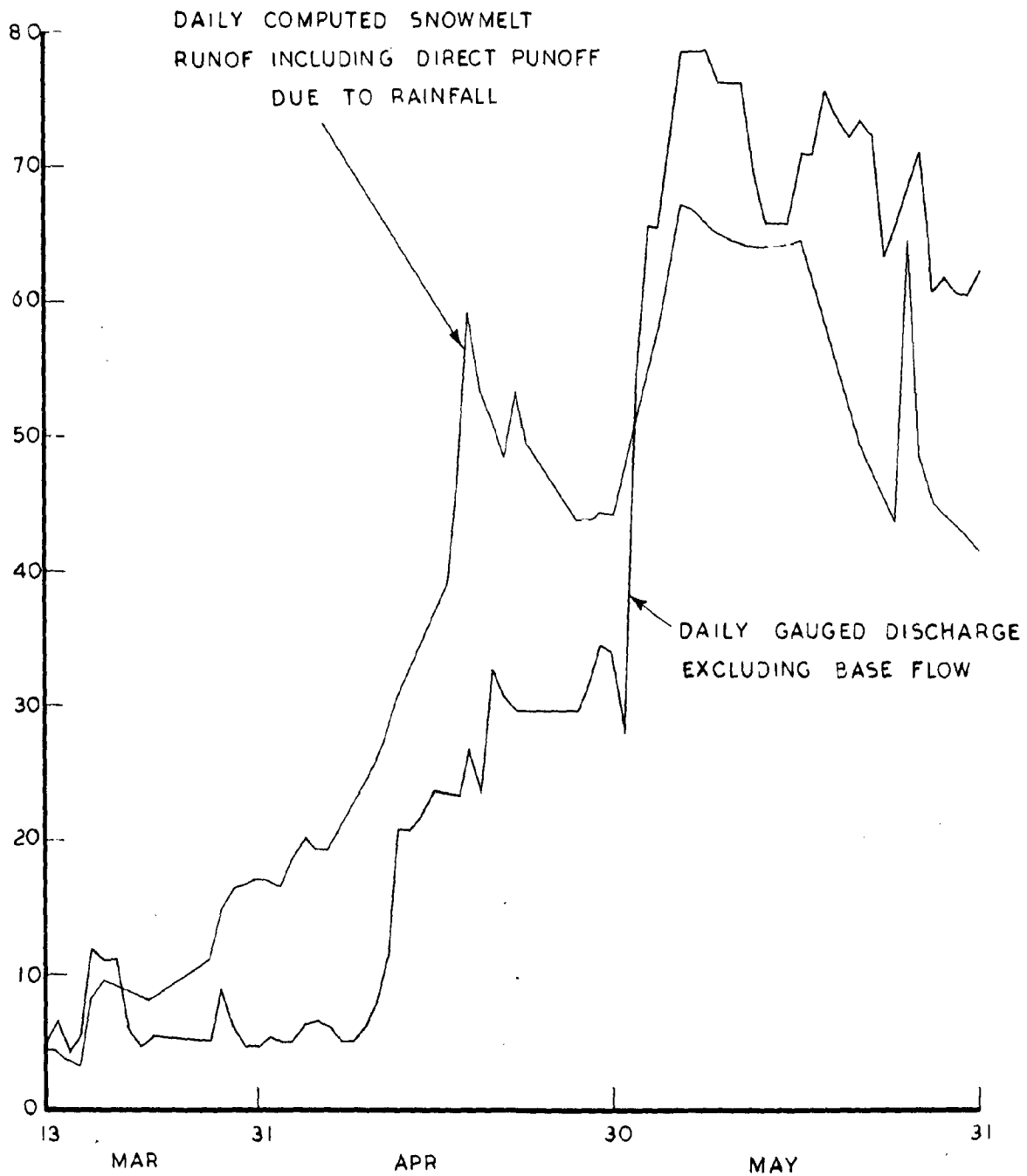


FIG.4-13(a) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF INCLUDING DIRECT RUNOFF DUE TO RAINFALL AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI



1978

FIG.4.13(b) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF INCLUDING DIRECT RUNOFF DUE TO RAINFALL AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI

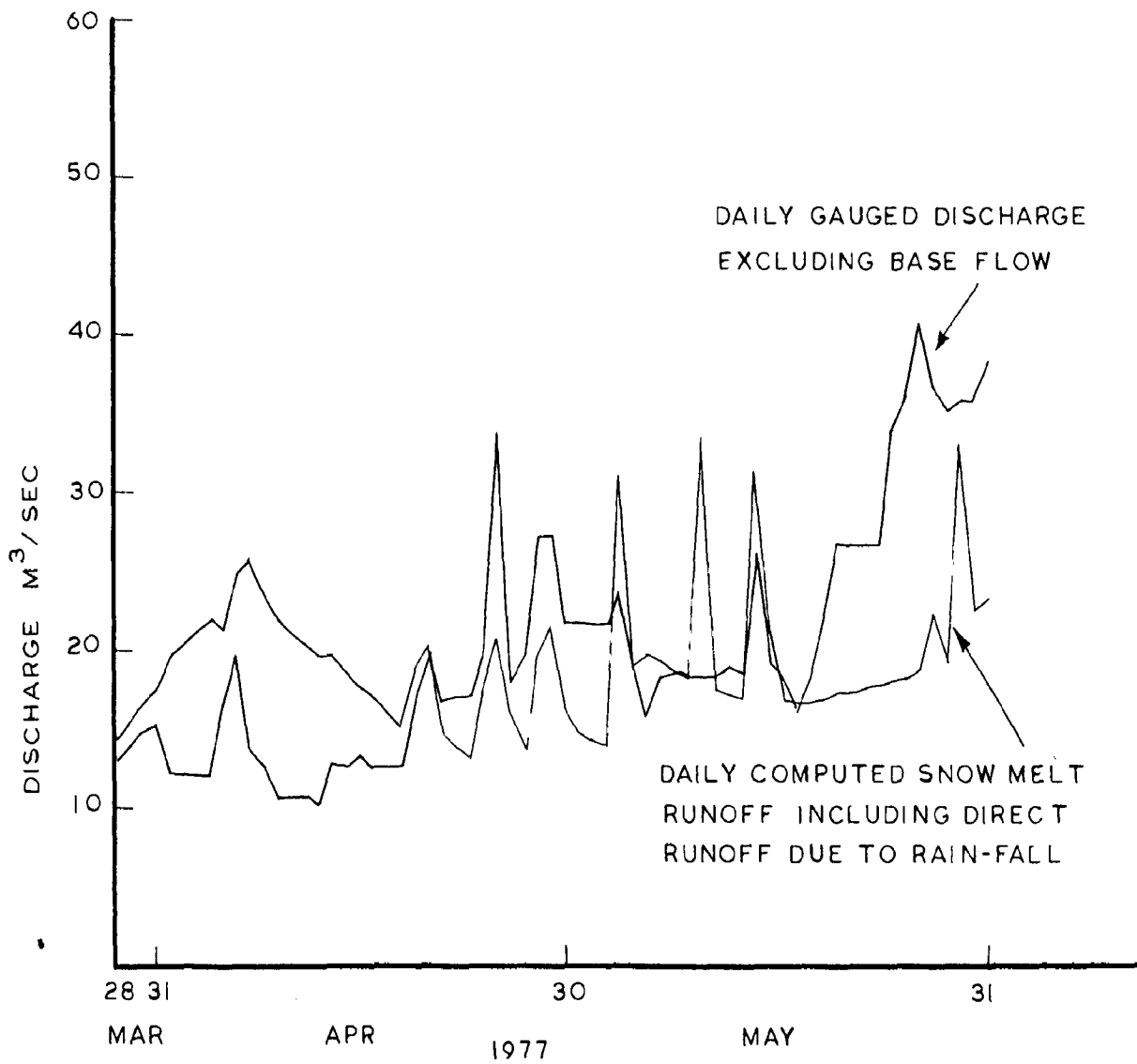


FIG.4.13(c) DAILY COMPUTED SNOWMELT RUNOFF INCLUDING DIRECT RUNOFF DUE TO RAINFALL AND DAILY GAUGED DISCHARGE (EXCLUDING BASE FLOW) IN MANALI

## CHAPTER - V

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SCOPE FOR FURTHER STUDY

#### §.1. DISCUSSION

Remote sensing has proved to be an invaluable aid in monitoring resources in inaccessible regions. Snowland Himalayas from which many rivers originate pose a formidable problem for ground survey or even aerial surveys for the estimation of snow-cover. Orbital remote sensing systems particularly with the advent of LANDSAT series of satellites, has opened up new vistas for monitoring snow and estimating the total quantity of water stored as snow.

Snow melting is a thermodynamic process. Thus the investigation of the processes depends basically on the accurate measurement of the various factors influencing the transmission of heat to the snow mantle. It is found that the heat within the atmosphere is the main factor. The problem is then largely compatible with an adequate snow cover, precipitation in the form of rain on snow area and the relationship of these values to the rate of snow melt.

Considerable differences in altitude, and therefore in climate, soil, and vegetative conditions, are

specific features of mountainous river basin. Therefore, such basins are usually divided into elevation zones for the study. Because of the time difference between the accumulation of seasonal snowpack and its melting, the forecast of seasonal flow may be prepared well in advance. The possibilities for forecasting are most favourable for those areas where rainfalling during the melting period is scarce in comparison to the accumulated winter precipitation in the form of snow and the total heat inflow is sufficient every year for complete melting of the seasonal snow pack (i.e. from the temporary snow covered area).

Conditions for runoff in high land river basins are such that losses of melt water will not vary greatly from year to year. Under such conditions, there should exist a relationship between the accumulated winter precipitation and seasonal runoff. In principle, such a relationship can be established empirically for any basin if observational data are available over a number of years. In practice for Indian catchments, however, the problem of determining such relationship is far from easy particularly because of very limited relevant data being available. In Indian mountain basins the water equivalent data of the snowpack is not available and the measurements of precipitation and snow cover do not make it possible to determine the true amount of accumulated water and may serve only for obtaining some indices of this value.



At least two factors have an influence on runoff and, consequently on the degree of correlation between runoff and the snow accumulation index. These factors are: the amount of precipitation for the melting season and the antecedent water storage in a basin. Both of these factors must be taken into account in the development of seasonal snowmelt runoff relations and in the preparation of forecasts.

In the Manali catchment due to the availability of limited data some assumptions are made keeping in view the physics of melting process so as to arrive at a reasonable estimate of snow melt runoff. The data available for this study comprises of some satellite imageries, daily record of temperature, snowfall, and rainfall at Manali gauging station, which is the outlet of the catchment situated at an elevation of about 6000 ft. ( 1830 m). The elevation in Manali catchment varies from 6000 ft ( 1830 m) to 14000ft.(4270 m) for the area under temporary snow cover and above 14000 ft( 4270 m) for area under permanent snow cover. This information about the temporary and permanent snow cover has been obtained by comparison of a few available satellite imageries. In the present study the area under temporary snow cover from 6000 ft to 14000 ft. has been divided into four elevation zones at an interval of 2000 ft. each. The variation of the precipitation (snowfall as well as rainfall) with elevation (as given Appendix : VII a, VII b) and the lapse rate ( as  $1.53^{\circ}\text{C}$  decrease for every 1000 ft (305 m) rise in elevation ) have

(22)

been assigned from literature survey. These assumptions have been proved to <sup>be</sup> reasonably correct as the total volume as well as the rate of snowmelt runoff at the Manali gauging site has been predicted reasonably well.

The snowmelt has been estimated by considering melt due to the influence of the temperature and due to the influence of the rainfalling on the snow covered area. The water equivalent of snow has been assumed as 0.1. The losses from snowmelt under permanent as well as temporary cover have been taken as 10%. Such a value has been found and used in a similar study in the mountainous watershed of Dischma in Switzerland. The losses of rain falling on temporary snow covered area and rain falling on the non-snow covered area have been accounted for by computing the coefficients  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  respectively. The values of these coefficients,  $C_1$  as 0.595 and  $C_2$  as 0.278, are reasonable, though some further study will require to investigate the physical significance of the values. The routing of snowmelt after accounting for losses as well as excess rainfall from the snowcovered area has been made using equation (4.23) with the recession coefficient for one day  $K$  taken as 0.90 and the excess rain from non-snow covered area has been assumed as directly contributing for the runoff for that day. The direct snowmelt runoff computed using the above procedure for the period March to May of 1977 to 1979 compare quite well with the observed direct runoff for the corresponding periods.

## 5.2. CONCLUSIONS

The results obtained from this study ~~be~~ are quite encouraging particularly in view of limited data having been used. The following conclusions can be drawn on the basis of the results.

(1) The satellite imageries reveal that the snowline starts descending to lower altitudes from September to around the first week of March. Thus this is the accumulation season. After the first or second week of March the snowline starts receding indicating the onset of the melting season. The snow accumulation is the maximum in the year 1975 and minimum in the year 1977. With these imageries one can make reasonable judgement about temporary and permanent snow cover.

(2) The imageries taken in MSS 5 indicate more snow cover than in those taken in MSS 7 on the same day. The imageries of 22 September, 1972, 3 December, 1972 and 21 March, 1973 are studied in this respect. The snow covered areas of the subcatchments in Larji catchment in MSS 5 and MSS 7 are plotted and a straight line has been fitted with an inclination of  $37^\circ$  from the X-axis of the MSS 5. This phenomenon refers to the melting condition near the snowline causing considerable decrease in the reflected near I.R. radiation. MSS 5 is thus found to be more appropriate for snow survey since moisture interacts in MSS 7.

(3) The snow covered areas in various subcatchments have also been plotted against their cumulative discharges for March-April-May. An exponential curve has been fitted. This evidently shows that with larger areal snow coverage more snowmelt discharge can be expected in the melting season. However, the snow extents from the imageries must be considered alongwith other factors very carefully to get a meaningful estimate. Better results can be expected working with enlarged imageries and identifying snow in shadows. However, due to the ruggedness of the terrain the <sup>true</sup> real snow covered area cannot be estimated.

(4) Using the blown up LANDSAT image in MSS 5 of scale 1:250,000 dated Dec. 2, 1972 the vegetal cover and the land use features have been interpreted and delineated as snowcover, Alpine pasture, thin forest, thick forest and bare and cultivated land. The Larji catchment is covered by snow more than the other features, which can also be concluded from table (4.2).

(5) The division of Manali catchment in five zones of 2000 ft. interval in altitude has been adequate.

(6) A lapse rate of  $1.53^{\circ}\text{C}$  per 1000 ft. (305 m) has been assigned from literature survey. Similar values of lapse rate have been observed in the catchment using the temperature data of Manali and Bhuntar which is further down stream of Manali at an elevation of 3555.25 ft (1084.35 m). However, it is better to establish this relationship <sup>or do</sup> if a station at 10,000 ft (3050 m) were available.

(7) Only observed values of the variation of precipitation with elevation were based on literature survey. They have performed reasonably well. However, further study and data is needed to establish this relation.

(8) The snowline before the snowmelt season for the year 1977 was taken with the help of the satellite image. The span of accumulation season was also concluded from the satellite images. However, more satellite images are needed for better result.

(9) The water equivalent of the snow was taken as 0.1 since the actual condition of the snowpack <sup>was</sup> ~~is~~ not known.

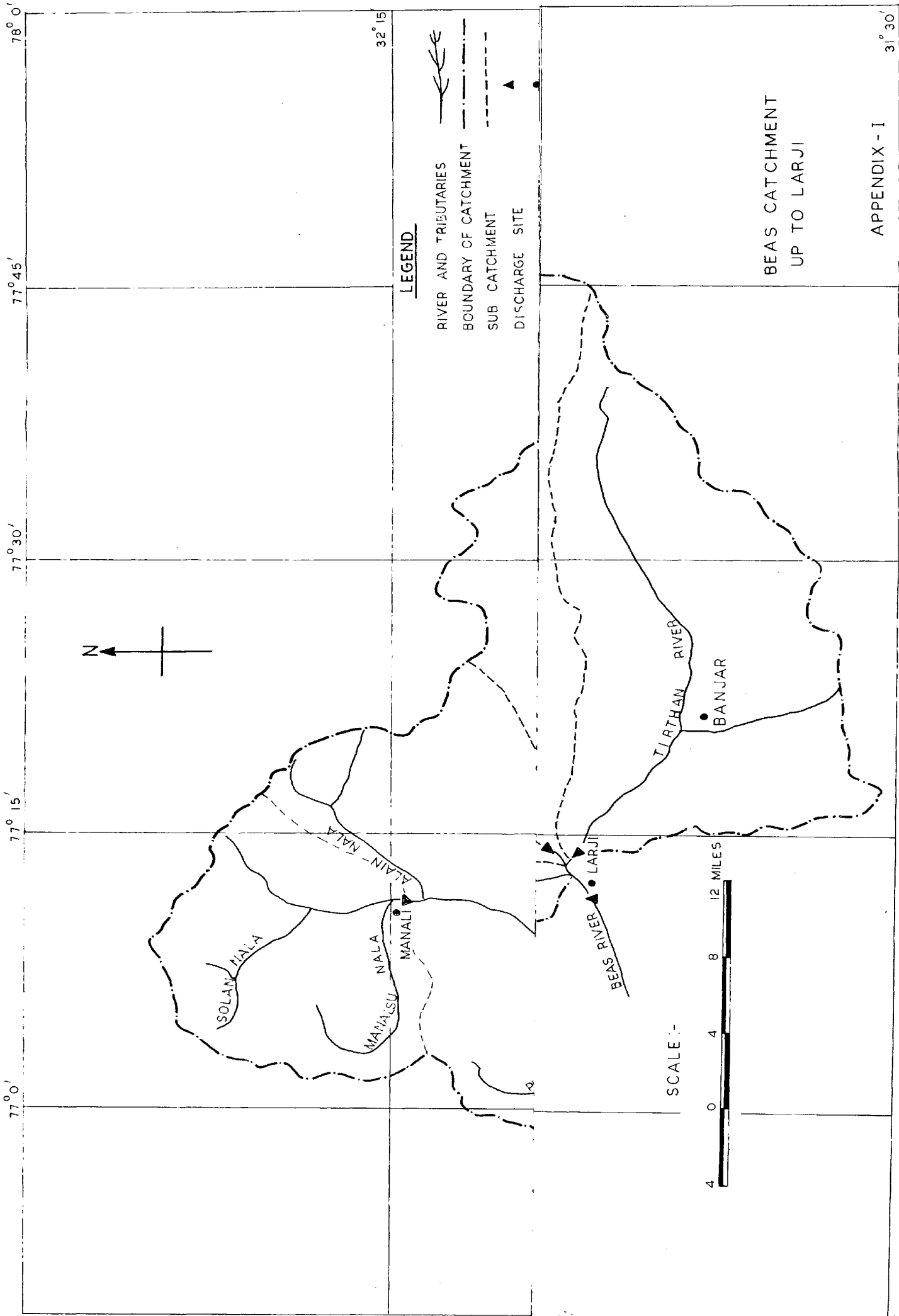
(10) The idea of using temperature as predominant factor in the process of snowmelt has given quite an encouraging result. The degree day factors of  $0.0018 \text{ cm}^\circ\text{C d}^{-1}$  <sup>for Mar-April</sup> and  $0.00315 \text{ cm}^\circ\text{C d}^{-1}$  <sup>for May</sup> have been used. These values are coming around the average value of  $0.0027 \text{ cm}^\circ\text{C d}^{-1}$  given <sup>in</sup> the literature reviewed. Since the rainfalling on the snow-covered area is scanty, no definite conclusion can be arrived by ascribing the suitability of the snowmelt due to rain falling on the snow covered area.

(11) The calculated values of the losses  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  as 0.595 and 0.278 of the rain falling on snow covered area and rainfalling on the non-snow covered area respectively are reasonable though further study is required to investigate the physical significance of these values.

### 5.3. SCOPE FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The observations of snowline, depth, and density of snow, are essential for the proper evaluation of the snowmelt runoff. Study is also needed for estimating the base flow, the losses from the snowmelt, the peak lapse rate, the degree day factor and the runoff coefficient.

The availability of the satellite remote sensed data used in conjunction with conventional methods is likely to improve the accuracy of the snowmelt forecasts. A thorough study should be made to see whether the methods used abroad are to be modified to suit the conditions prevailing in the Himalayan catchments.



77° 0' 77° 15' 77° 30' 77° 45' 78° 0'

32° 15'

31° 30'

LEGEND

- RIVER AND TRIBUTARIES
- BOUNDARY OF CATCHMENT
- SUB CATCHMENT
- DISCHARGE SITE

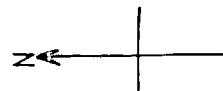
SCALE :-



BEAS CATCHMENT  
UP TO LARJI

APPENDIX - I

77° 0' 77° 15' 77° 30' 77° 45' 142  
78



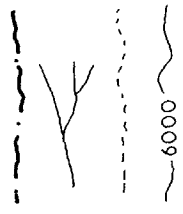
LEGEND

CATCHMENT AREA BOUNDARY

RIVER AND TRIBUTARIES

SNOWLINE

CONTOURS



14353

15192

15050

19450

18056

17419

15727

17027

16743

16057

10412

10140

17511

15595

21165

21148

16132

12000

12000

12000

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CATCHMENT AREA PLAN OF  
RIVER BEAS UP TO LARJI

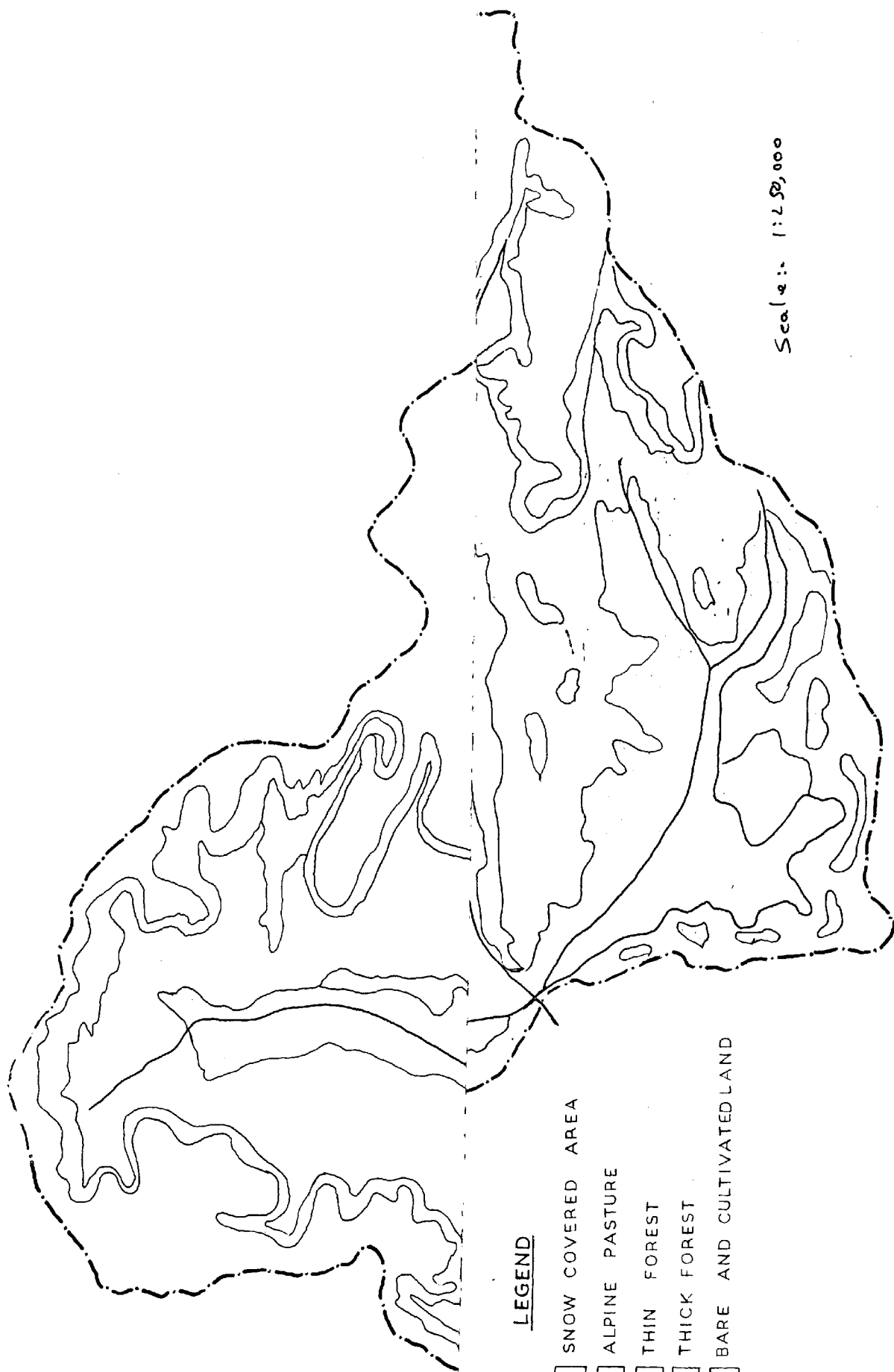
ELEVATIONS IN FEET  
SCALE: 1"=4 MILES

APPENDIX - II

31° 30'

32° 15'





LEGEND

- SNOW COVERED AREA
- ALPINE PASTURE
- THIN FOREST
- THICK FOREST
- BARE AND CULTIVATED LAND

Scale: 1:250,000

VEGETAL COVER AND LAND USE FEATURES LANDSAT IMAGE DATE 2 DEC. 1972

APPENDIX IV (a)

Daily Mean temperature data in Manali year 1977

Date	Daily mean Temp (°c)	Date	Daily mean Temp (°c)	Date	Daily Mean Temp (°c)
<b>March</b>					
18	6.5	12	17.5	7	14.5
19	9	13	17.5	8	14.5
20	10	14	17.5	9	16
21	11	15	15.5	10	15.5
22	10.5	16	15	11	17
23	10.5	17	17.5	12	17.5
24	12	18	17	13	17.5
25	12	19	16	14	16.5
26	12.5	20	15.5	15	17.5
27	12.5	21	15.5	16	17.5
28	12.5	22	16	17	17
29	24	23	19.5	18	19.5
30	13.5	24	19	19	21
31	13	25	19	20	21.5
		26	21	21	21.5
<b>April</b>					
1	14	27	21	22	18.5
2	14	28	21	23	19.5
3	12	29	<del>20.5</del>	24	15
4	13	30	19	25	14
5	14.5			26	17.5
6	14.5	May 1	19	27	12
7	15	2	19.5	28	12
8	16	3	19	29	13
9	16	4	16.5	30	13
10	17	5	17	31	14
11	17.5	6	14.5		

APPENDIX I IV(b)Dail Mean temperature data in Hanali Year: 1978.

Date	Daily Mean temp. ( c )	Date	Daily Mean Temp ( c )	Date	Daily Mean Temp ( c )
<b>March</b>					
13	3.5	4	10	27	16
14	5	5	10	28	18
15	6	6	11.5	29	18.5
16	5.5	7	14	30	18.5
17	6	8	14	<b>May</b>	
18	7	9	14	1	18.5
19	7.5	10	14	2	18.5
20	8	11	16	3	19
21	8	12	17.5	4	19
22	7	13	16	5	21
23	10.5	14	16.5	6	21
24	10	15	17	7	21
25	10	16	19.5	8	20.8
26	10	17	19	9	20.5
27	11	18	16	10	21.5
28	11	19	14	11	21
29	11.5	20	14.5	12	21.5
30	11.5	21	13	13	21.5
31	11.5	22	14.5	14	21.5
<b>April</b>					
		23	14	15	22
1	10.5	24	14.5	16	22
2	10.5	25	14.5	17	22
3	11.5	26	15	18	22.5

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Date	Daily Mean Temp ( c )
19	22.5
20	22
21	22
22	23
24	23
25	23
26	23.5
27	23
28	24
29	24.5
30	23
31	22

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Daily Mean Temperatures in Ranchi, Year - 1977

Date	Daily Mean Temp. (°C)	Date	Daily Mean Temp. (°C)	Date	Daily Mean Temp. (°C)
1	2	3	4	5	6
March 20	13.5	24	12.5	28	23
21	23	25	13	29	20
22	23.5	26	13	30	20.5
23	14	27	14.5	31	19.5
April 1	17	28	13.5	32	20
2	13.5	29	14	33	20
3	13.5	30	13	34	20.5
4	13.5			35	21
5	14.5	1	13.5	36	20.5
6	14.5	2	13.5	37	20
7	13.5	3	13	38	20.5
8	11	4	13	39	20
9	11	5	13		
10	11.5	6	13		
11	12.5	7	17		
12	12.5	8	17.5		
13	12	9	17		
14	12.5	10	18		
15	12.5	11	18		
16	12.5	12	17.5		
17	13	13	18		
18	13	14	17		
19	11	15	18.5		
20	14.5	16	18.5		
21	13.5	17	17.5		
22	13.5	18	18		
23	14	19	20.5		

APPENDIX V (a)

Estimated daily rainfall in different zones in Manali  
catchment

Year 1979

Date	Daily rainfall depth recorded at Manali (cm)	Computed daily rainfall depth for different elevation zones. (cm)				
		6000 to 8000 ft	8000 to 10000 ft	10000 to 12000 ft	12000 to 14000 ft	above 14000ft
23.3.79	1.420	1.745	1.995	2. <sup>24</sup> 005	2.495	2.745
31.3.79	2.720	2.845	3.095	3.345	3.595	3.845
3.4.79	0.52	0.57	0.67	0.77	0.87	0.97
12.6.79	0.22	0.27	0.37	0.47	0.57	0.67
30.4.79	2.22	2.345	2.595	2.845	3.095	3.345
10.5.79	0.52	0.57	0.67	0.77	0.87	0.97
21.5.79	2.32	2.445	2.695	2.945	3.195	3.445
23.5.79	0.94	0.99	1.09	1.19	1.29	1.39
26.5.79	5.98	6.18	6.58	6.98	7.38	7.78
<b>Total</b>	<b>17.06</b>	<b>17.96</b>	<b>19.76</b>	<b>21.56</b>	<b>23.36</b>	<b>25.16</b>

APPENDIX V(b)Estimated daily rainfall in the different zones in Manali catchment

Year 1978.

Date	Daily rainfall depths recorded at Manali (cm)	Computed daily rainfall depths for different elevation zones. (cm)				
		6000ft to 8000ft	8000ft to 10000ft	10000ft to 12000ft	12000ft to 14000ft	Above 14000ft
17.3.78	8.48	8.68	9.08	9.48	9.89	10.28
18.3.78	<del>8.88</del> 3.37	<del>9.485</del> 3.495	3.745	3.995	4.245	4.495
28.3.78	1.02	1.145	1.395	1.645	1.895	2.145
29.3.78	0.34	0.39	0.49	0.59	0.69	0.79
3.4.78	0.88	0.63	0.73	0.83	0.93	1.03
4.4.78	1.12	1.245	1.495	1.745	1.995	2.245
17.4.78	1.22	1.345	1.595	1.845	2.095	2.345
18.4.78	4.08	4.28	4.68	5.08	5.48	5.88
22.4.78	1.72	1.845	2.095	2.345	2.595	2.845
25.5.78	1.76	1.885	2.135	2.385	2.635	2.885
26.5.78	0.54	0.59	0.69	0.79	0.89	0.99
31.5.78	0.22	0.27	0.37	0.47	0.57	0.67
<b>Total</b>	<b>24.45</b>	<b>25.80</b>	<b>28.50</b>	<b>31.20</b>	<b>33.90</b>	<b>36.60</b>

APPENDIX V (c)

Estimated daily rainfall in different zones in Manali catchment, year 1977.

Date	Daily rainfall depth recorded in Manali (cm)	Computed daily rainfall depths for different elevation zones (cm)				
		6000 ft to 8000 ft	8000 ft to 10000 ft	10000 ft to 12000 ft	12000ft to 14000ft	above 14000ft
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.3.77	0.40	0.45	0.55	0.65	0.75	0.85
1.4.77	0.84	0.89	0.99	1.09	1.19	1.44
6.4.77	2.82	2.945	3.195	3.445	3.695	3.945
7.4.77	2.06	2.185	2.435	2.685	2.935	3.185
8.4.77	0.22	0.27	0.37	0.47	0.57	0.67
10.4.77	0.12	0.17	0.27	0.37	0.47	0.57
11.4.77	0.44	0.49	0.59	0.69	0.79	0.89
18.4.77	0.44	0.49	0.59	0.69	0.79	0.89
15.4.77	0.22	0.27	0.37	0.47	0.57	0.67
19.4.77	1.38	1.505	1.755	2.005	2.255	2.505
20.4.77	1.62	1.745	1.995	2.245	2.495	2.745
24.4.77	1.24	1.365	1.615	1.865	2.115	2.365
25.4.77	2.04	2.165	2.415	2.665	2.915	3.165
26.4.77	0.52	0.57	0.67	0.77	0.87	0.97
28.4.77	1.72	1.845	2.095	2.345	2.595	2.845
29.4.77	2.26	2.305	2.635	2.885	2.35	3.355
30.4.77	0.42	0.47	0.57	0.67	0.77	0.87
4.5.77	5.08	5.28	5.68	6.08	6.48	6.88

Contd....



<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>10.5.77</b>	<b>2.42</b>	<b>2.545</b>	<b>2.795</b>	<b>3.045</b>	<b>3.295</b>	<b>3.545</b>
<b>14.5.77</b>	<b>2.16</b>	<b>2.285</b>	<b>2.535</b>	<b>2.785</b>	<b>3.035</b>	<b>3.285</b>
<b>15.5.77</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.67</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.87</b>	<b>0.97</b>
<b>27.5.77</b>	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.37</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.67</b>	<b>0.77</b>
<b>29.5.77</b>	<b>2.08</b>	<b>2.205</b>	<b>2.455</b>	<b>2.705</b>	<b>2.955</b>	<b>3.205</b>
<b>30.5.77</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.67</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.87</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>31.76</b>	<b>33.935</b>	<b>38.285</b>	<b>42.635</b>	<b>46.985</b>	<b>51.335</b>

APPENDIX VI (a)

Estimated daily snow fall in different zones in Manali  
Catchment.

Year 1978-1979

Date	Daily snow depths rec- orded at Manali (cm)	Computed daily snowfall depths for different elevation zones (cm)			
		6000 to 8000ft	8000 to 10000 ft	10000 to 12000 ft	12000 to 14000 ft.
1	2	3	4	5	6
25.11.78	10.00	12.05	14.55	17.05	19.55
26.11.78	17.20	15.45	17.95	20.45	22.95
27.11.78	15.20	17.75	19.95	22.45	24.95
2.12.78	16.20	17.45	19.95	22.45	24.95
14.1.79	22.20	23.45	25.95	28.45	30.95
15.1.79	49.20	51.20	55.20	59.20	63.20
16.1.79	16.40	17.65	20.15	22.65	25.15
17.1.79	8.20	8.70	9.70	10.70	11.70
20.1.79	8.20	8.70	9.70	10.20	11.70
21.1.79	25.20	26.45	28.95	31.45	33.95
26.1.79	47.20	49.20	53.20	51.20	61.20
29.1.79	6.20	8.70	7.70	8.70	9.70
30.1.79	18.00	19.25	21.75	24.25	26.75
2.2.79	16.20	17.45	19.95	22.45	24.95
16.2.79	3.20	3.70	4.70	5.70	6.70

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5	6
17.2.79	4.20	4.70	5.70	6.70	7.70
19.2.79	14.20	15.45	17.95	20.45	22.95
20.2.79	49.20	51.20	55.20	59.20	68.20
21.2.79	9.00	9.50	10.50	11.50	12.50
23.2.79	14.80	16.05	18.55	21.05	23.55
26.2.79	4.20	4.70	5.70	6.70	7.70
2.3.79	16.20	17.45	19.95	22.45	24.95
3.3.79	45.20	47.20	51.20	55.20	59.20
4.3.79	17.40	18.65	21.15	23.65	26.15
5.3.79	22.40	23.65	26.15	28.65	31.15
6.3.79	26.40	27.85	30.35	32.85	35.35
7.3.79	30.40	31.65	34.15	36.65	39.15
8.3.79	14.20	15.45	17.95	20.45	22.95
9.3.79	9.20	10.45	12.95	15.45	17.95
17.3.79	14.20	17.45	19.95	22.45	24.45
<b>Total</b>	<b>571.00</b>	<b>605.25</b>	<b>676.75</b>	<b>747.25</b>	<b>817.75</b>

## APPENDIX : VI(b)

Estimated daily snow fall in different zones in Manali catchment.Year : 1977 - 78

Date	Daily snow depths recorded at Manali Manali	Computed daily snow fall depths for different elevation zones (cm)			
		6000 ft to 8000 ft	8000ft to 10000ft	10000 ft to 12000 ft	12000 ft to 14000 ft
1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11.77	4.80	5.30	6.30	7.3	8.30
6.11.77	7.40	7.90	8.90	9.9	10.90
30.11.77	10.00	10.50	11.50	12.50	13.50
1.12.77	46.40	48.40	52.40	56.40	60.40
10.12.77	4.60	5.10	6.10	7.10	8.10
17.12.77	16.20	17.45	19.95	22.45	24.95
20.12.77	42.60	44.60	48.60	52.60	56.60
26.12.77	44.20 <sup>14-20</sup>	15.45	17.95	20.45	22.95
26.12.77	39.20	40.45	53.95	45.45	47.95
29.12.77	12.00	13.25	15.75	18.25	20.75
28.12.77	2.00	2.50	3.50	4.50	5.50
29.12.77	2.00	3.50	3.50	4.50	5.50
13.1.78	14.60	18.85	18.35	20.85	23.35
14.1.78	19.20	20.45	22.95	25.45	27.95
23.1.78	9.00	9.50 <sup>50</sup>	10.50	11.50	12.50
26.1.78	45.40	47.40	51.40	55.40	59.40
28.1.78	36.80	38.05	40.55	43.05	45.55
29.1.78	38.00	39.25 <sup>25</sup>	41.75 <sup>41.75</sup>	44.25	46.75
5.2.78	3.20	3.70	4.70	5.70	6.70
6.2.78	4.00	4.50	5.50	6.50	7.50
7.2.78	21.60	22.85	25.35	27.85	30.35

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>
8.2.78	5.00	5.50	6.50	7.50	8.50
11.2.78	13.00	14.25	16.75	19.25	21.75
13.2.78	12.20	13.45	15.95	18.45	20.95
15.2.78	4.20	4.70	5.70	6.70	7.70
16.2.78	21.20	22.45	24.95	27.45	29.95
17.2.78	26.60	<sup>27</sup> 27.85	<sup>30</sup> 30.85	32.85	35.35
18.2.78	17.80	19.05	21.55	24.05	26.55
3.3.78	2.00	2.50	3.50	4.50	5.50
11.3.78	12.00	13.25	15.75	18.25	20.75
12.3.78	10.00	10.50	11.50	12.50	13.50
<b>Total</b>	<b>517.20</b>	<b>548.45</b>	<b>610.95</b>	<b>673.45</b>	<b>735.95</b>

APPENDIX: VI (c)

Estimated daily snowfall in different zones in Manali catchment. year 1976 - 1977

Date	Daily snow depths recorded at Manali (cm)	Computed daily snowfall depths for different elevation zones (cm)			
		6000 ft to 8000ft	8000 ft to 10000 ft	10000 ft to 12000 ft	12000 ft to 14000 ft.
1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12.76	5.80	6.30	7.30	8.30	9.30
26.12.76	19.20	20.45	22.95	25.45	27.95
29.12.76	6.00	6.50	7.50	8.50	9.70
12.1.77	6.20	6.70	7.7	8.70	8.70
20.1.77	20.00	21.25	23.75	26.25	28.75
24.1.77	27.70	28.65	31.15	33.65	36.15
25.1.77	35.20	37.45	39.95	42.45	44.95
26.1.77	40.00	41.25	43.75	46.25	48.75
27.1.77	6.00	6.50	7.50	8.50	9.50
28.1.77	2.00	2.50	3.50	4.50	5.50
5.2.77	6.00	6.50	7.50	8.50	9.50
21.2.77	3.20	3.70	4.20	5.70	6.70
27.2.77	17.20	18.45	20.95	23.45	25.95
27.2.77	17.20	18.45	20.95	23.45	25.95
<b>Total</b>	<b>195.2</b>	<b>206.2</b>	<b>228.2</b>	<b>250.2</b>	<b>272.2</b>

APPENDIX VII (a)

Values adopted for the increment of snowfall due to orographic effect.

Snowfall at base station (in cm)	Incremental values of snowfall with elevation cm per 2000 ft (610m)
0 - 10	1
10- 40	2.5
above 40	40

APPENDIX VII (b)

Values adopted for the increment of rainfall due to the orographic effect.

Rainfall at the base station ( in cm)	Incremental values of rainfall with elevation cm per 2000 ft. ( 610 m )
0 - 1	0.1
1 - 4	0.25
above 4	0.40

APPENDIX-VXXX (a)

Estimated equivalent water stored in the snow during the accumulation season for different elevation zones in Hawaii catchment.

accumulation season: 1970 Nov. to 1979 Nov.

Sl. No.	Elevation zone	Volume of equivalent water stored in deposited snow under temperature near-saturated condition
1	2	3
1.	0000-5000	14033409
2.	5000-10000	33452041
3.	10000-12000	77919303
4.	12000-14000	69773449

APPENDIX-VXXX (b)

accumulation season: 1977 Nov. to 1978 Nov.

1	2	3
1.	0000-5000	12005023
2.	5000-10000	34950109
3.	10000-12000	76449306
4.	12000-14000	60046107

APPENDIX-VXXX (c)

accumulation season: 1973 Nov. to 1977 Nov.

1	2	3
1.	0000-5000	2600000 <sup>0</sup>
2.	5000-10000	2000000
3.	10000-12000	1451100
4.	12000-14000	23109200



APPENDIX IX (a)

Calculated snowmelt due to rain and calculated rainfall runoff in different elevation zones.

Year 1979

Elevation zone 6000 ft to 8000 ft.

Date	Rainfall (in)	Degree days (°cd)	Snowmelt volume (in <sup>3</sup> )	Snowmelt in <sup>3</sup> /5	Runoff (in in <sup>3</sup> /5) from rainfall when the zone is	
					snow covered	non-snow covered
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>March</b>						
23	0.01745	9.95	46303.10	0.54	2.85	-
31	0.02845	11.45	96578.40	3.12	4.61	-
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0057	10.45	17559.70	0.20	0.92	-
12	0.0027	15.95	12767.80	0.15	0.44	-
30	0.02345	( no snow-cover in the zone)			-	1.77
<b>May</b>						
10	0.0057				-	0.43
21	0.02445				-	1.85
23	0.0099				-	0.75
26	0.0518				-	4.67

## Elevation zone 8000 ft to 10000 ft.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>March</b>						
23	0.01995	5.89	73569.40	0.85	6.83	-
31	0.03095	8.39	162578.10	1.88	10.59	-
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0067	7.39	30999.70	0.35	2.29	-
12	0.0037	12.89	29860.3	0.35	1.25	-
30	0.02595	(no snow-cover in the zone)			-	4.14
<b>May</b>						
10	0.0067				-	1.07
21	0.02595				-	4.31
23	0.0189				-	1.74
26	0.0658				-	10.52

## Elevation zone 10000 ft. to 12000 ft.

<b>March</b>						
23	0.02245	2.83	82977.80	0.95	16.17	-
31	0.03345	5.33	234999.5	2.72	24.09	-
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0077	4.33	43946.30	0.51	5.54	-
12	0.0047	9.83	60896.80	0.70	3.38	-
30	0.02845	11.33	424869.80	4.92	20.49	-
<b>May</b>						
10	0.0077	(no snow-cover in the zone)			-	2.59
21	0.02945				-	9.90
23	0.0119				-	4.00
26	0.0698				-	23.49

Contd.....

Elevation zone 12000 ft to 14000 ft.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>March</b>						
23	0.02495	-	-	-	-	-
31	0.03595	2.27	112952.30	1.31	27.19	-
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0087	1.27	15293.00	0.18	6.58	-
12	0.0057	6.77	53411.40	0.62	4.31	-
30	0.03095	8.27	354271.90	4.10	23.41	-
<b>May</b>						
10	0.0087	4.77	57439.10	0.66	6.58	
21	0.03195	10.77	476274.30	5.51	24.60	
23	0.0124	(no snow cover in the zone)			-	4.38
26	0.0738					26.08

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

<b>March</b>						
23	0.02745	-	-	0.339		
31	0.03845	0.74	-	0.339		
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0097	-	-	-		
12	0.0057	5.24	-	0.42		
30	0.03345	6.74	-	2.69		
<b>May</b>						
10	0.0097	3.24	-	0.37		
21	0.03445	9.24	-	3.80		
23	0.0139	0.24	-	0.04		
26	0.0778	0.24	-	0.219		

APPENDIX : IX (b)Calculated snowmelt due to rain and calculated rainfall runoff in different elevation zones.

( Year 1978 )

Elevation zone 6000 ft. to 8000 ft.

Date	Rainfall (m)	Degree days ( c d )	Snowmelt volume ( m <sup>3</sup> )	Snow melt ( m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Run off (in m <sup>3</sup> /s) From rainfall when the zone is	
					SNOW covered	NO snow covered
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
March						
17	0.0868	4.46	114774.9	1.33	14.06	-
18	0.03495	5.45	56472.3	0.65	5.66	
28	0.01145	9.45	032079.6	0.37	1.85	
29	0.0039	9.45	10926.6	0.13	0.63	
April						
3	0.0063	(No snowcover in the zone)			1.02	
4	0.01245				2.02	
27	0.01345					1.02
18	0.0428					1.24
22	0.01045					1.39
May						
25	0.01085					1.42
26	0.0059					0.446
31	0.0027					0.204

## Elevation zone 8000 ft to 10000 ft

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>March</b>						
17	0.0908	1.39	79020.5	0.91	31.07	-
18	0.03749	2.39	56039.5	0.65	12.81	-
28	0.01395	6.39	55910.3	0.65	4.77	-
29	0.0049	6.89	21137.9	0.24	1.67	-
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0073	6.89	31490.6	0.36	2.49	-
4	0.01495	5.39	50450.9	0.98	5.11	-
17	0.01595	14.39	143701.4	1.66	5.45	-
18	0.0468	14.45	423402.3	4.90	16.01	-
22	0.02095	9.89	129723.8	1.90	7.17	-
<b>March</b>						
25	0.02135	( no snow cover in the zone)				3.41
26	0.0069				-	1.103
31	0.0039 <sup>?</sup>					0.59

## Elevation zone 10000 ft to 12000 ft.

<b>March</b>						
17	0.0948	-				
18	0.03995	-				
28	0.01645	3.33	72202.7	0.83	11.8	-
29	0.0059	3.83	29786.7	0.34	4.2	-

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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## April

3	0.0083	3.83	41900.6	0.48	3.9	-
4	0.01745	2.33	93591.3	0.61	12.57	
17	0.01845	11.33	272894.5	3.12	13.29	-
18	0.0508	8.33	557766.5	6.45	36.59	-
22	0.02345	6.83	211109.2	2.44	16.89	

## May

25	0.02385	(no snow cover in the zone)		-		8.02
26	0.0079				-	2.65
31	0.0047				-	1.58

Elevation zone 12000 ft to 14000 ft.

## March

17	0.0988	-	-	-	-	-
18	0.04245	-	-	-	-	-
28	0.01895	0.27	7081.79	0.08	14.33	-
29	0.0069	0.77	7353.77	0.09	5.22	-

## April

3	0.0093	0.77	9911.61	0.11	7.03	
4	0.01995	-	-	-	15.09	
17	0.02095	8.27	239806	2.77	15.89	-
18	0.0548	5.27	399725.1	4.62	41.46	-
22	0.02595	3.77	135409.5	1.56	19.63	-

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>May</b>						
25	0.02635	12.27	447502.8	5.17	-	9.31
26	0.0089	(no snow cover in the zone)			-	3.14
31	0.0057	-	-	-	-	2.01
Elevation zone above 14000ft.						
<b>March</b>						
17	0.1028					
18	0.04495					
28	0.02145					
29	0.0079					
<b>April</b>						
3	0.0103					
4	0.02245					
17	0.02345	6.74			1.87	
18	0.0588	3.74			2.62	
22	0.02845	2.24			0.76	
<b>May</b>						
25	0.02885	10.74			3.69	
26	0.0099	11.24			1.33	
31	0.0067	9.74			0.78	

Calculated snowmelt due to rain and calculated rainfall runoff in different elevation zones. Year - 1977

Elevation zone 8000 ft. to 10,000 ft.

Date	Rainfall (mm)	Degree days ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	Snowmelt volume ( $\text{m}^3$ )	Snowmelt $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$	Runoff (in $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ) from rainfall when the zone	
					Snow-covered	Non snow-covered
	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mar 31	0.0035	9.39	5855.65	0.07	0.34	-
Apr 1	0.0099	12.39	13909.7	0.16	0.61	-
6	0.03195	9.89	35832.7	0.42	1.98	-
7	0.02635	8.39	23167.1	0.3	1.51	-
8	0.0037	6.39	26812.11	0.03		0.11
10	0.0059	7.89	5278.88	0.05		0.17
11	0.0059					0.17
15	0.0059					0.17
16	0.0037					0.11
19	0.01755					0.51
20	0.01995					0.58
24	0.01615					0.47
25	0.02415					0.70
26	0.0067					0.19
28	0.02095					0.61
29	0.02635					0.76
30	0.0057					0.16
Apr 4	0.02568					0.74
10	0.02795					0.81
14	0.02535					0.73
15	0.0067					0.194
27	0.0047					0.14
29	0.02455					0.71
30	0.0057					0.16



Elevation above 10000 ft. to 12000 ft.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
March 31	0.065	6.33	30076.9	0.35	2.21	-
April 1	0.0109	9.33	24340.5	0.85	3.70	-
6	0.03445	6.83	171999.5	1.99	11.69	-
7	0.02885	5.33	104613.7	1.21	9.11	-
8	0.0047	3.33	11440.8	0.13	1.59	-
10	0.0037	3.83	1035.9	0.12	1.26	-
11	0.0069	4.83	2435.2	0.277	2.34	-
15	0.0069	4.83	2435.2	0.28	2.34	-
16	0.0047	4.83	16593.7	0.19	1.59	-
19	0.02005	3.33	48800	0.56		3.74
20	0.02245					4.19
24	0.01555					3.48
25	0.02655					4.97
26	0.0077					1.44
28	0.02345					4.38
29	0.02885					5.34
30	0.0062					1.25
May 4	0.0508					11.35
10	0.03045					5.68
14	0.02785					5.19
15	0.0077					1.44
27	0.0057					1.06
29	0.02705					5.05
30	0.0067					1.25

Elevation zone 12000 ft. to 14000 ft.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
March 31	0.007	3.27	25585.1	0.31	4.64	
April 1	0.0119	6.27	80880.4	0.93	7.05	
6	0.03695	3.77	151002.8	1.74	21.88	
7	0.02935	2.27	71809.5	0.83	17.38	
8	0.0057	0.27	1668.27	0.02	3.38	
10	0.0077	0.77	3121.99	0.04	2.78	
11	0.0079	1.77	15124.3	0.18	4.68	
15	0.0079	1.77	15124.3	0.18	4.68	
16	0.0057	1.77	10935.4	0.12	3.38	
19	0.02235	0.27	6599.39	0.08	13.38	
20	0.02495	3.77	10196.1	1.18	14.78	
24	0.02115	2.77	635066	0.73	12.52	
25	0.02915	2.27	71728.8	0.81	17.16	
26	0.0087	2.27	21407.9	0.23	5.15	
28	0.02595	2.27	77919.5	0.69	15.37	
29	0.03135	3.27	111125.7	1.27	18.97	
30	0.0077	1.27	18947.2	0.19	4.56	
May 4	0.0648	4.27	299938.4	3.65	38.38	
10	0.03295	(no snow cover in the zone)			9.12	
14	0.03035				8.39	
15	0.0087				2.41	
27	0.0057				1.85	
29	0.02935				8.17	
30	0.0077				2.13	

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

Date	Degree day ( $^{\circ}$ cd)	Daily snowmelt $m^3/s$	Sum of daily snowmelt for all the zones $m^3/s$
1	2	3	4
Mar. 31	0.0085	1.74	0.1752
April 1	0.0144	4.74	0.8130
6	0.03945	2.24	1.052
7	0.03185	0.74	0.2891
8	0.0067	-	-
10	0.0057	-	-
11	0.0087	0.24	0.0247
15	0.0089	0.24	0.02548
16	0.0067	0.24	0.01916
19	0.02505	-	-
20	0.02745	2.24	0.7329
24	0.02385	1.24	
25	0.03165	0.74	0.27
26	0.0097	0.74	0.080
28	0.02845	1.24	0.42
29	0.03305	1.74	0.69
30	0.0077	0.74	0.08
May 4	0.0088	2.74	2.25
10	0.03545	5.74	2.24
14	0.03885	4.74	1.86
15	0.0097	6.24	0.72
27	0.0077	8.74	0.8
29	0.03205	7.74	2.96
30	0.0087	8.24	0.85

APPENDIX X (a)

Computed daily snowmelt in different elevation zones  
in Mansali catchment

Year 1979

ELEVATION ZONE: 6000 ft to 8000 ft

Date	Degree-Day (°C d)	Dail snow melt volume (m <sup>3</sup> )	Daily snow melt (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Equivalent volume of water remaining in the form of snow (m <sup>3</sup> )
1	2	3	4	5
<b>March</b>				
18	4.95	209652.3	2.43	13845756
19	7.45	315537.3	3.65	13530219
20	8.45	357891.3	4.14	13172328
21	9.45	400245.3	4.63	12772082
22	8.95	379068.3	4.39	12393013
23	8.95	379068.3	4.39	11967642**
24	10.45	442599.3	5.14	11525042
25	10.45	442599.3	5.14	11082443
26	10.95	463776.3	5.37	10618667
27	10.95	463776.3	5.37	10154890
28	10.95	463776.3	5.37	9691113.7
29	12.45	527307.3	6.10	9163806.4
30	11.95	506130.3	5.86	8657676.1
31	11.45	484953.3	5.61	8076144.4**
<b>April</b>				
1	12.45	527307.3	6.10	7548837.1
2	12.45	527307.3	6.10	7021529.8

1	2	3	4	5
3	10.45	442599.3	5.12	6561270.8**
4	11.45	484953.3	5.61	607631.5
5	12.95	548484.3	6.34	5527833.2
6	12.95	548484.3	6.34	4979348.9
7	13.45	569661.3	6.59	4409687.5
8	14.45	612015.3	7.08	3797672.2
9	14.45	612015.3	7.08	3185658.9
10	15.45	654359.3	7.57	2531287.6
11	15.95	675548.3	7.82	1855741.3

Elevation zone 8000 ft. to 10000 ft.

18	1.89	169045.3	1.98	3328961.5
19	4.39	392850.3	4.54	32893965
20	5.39	482092.3	5.58	32414873
21	5.39	571534.3	6.61	31843338
22	5.89	528813.3	6.10	31316525
23	5.89	528813.3	6.10	30716142**
24	7.39	660976.3	7.65	30055166
25	7.39	660976.3	7.65	29394190
26	7.89	703697.3	8.17	28682492
27	7.89	703697.3	8.17	27982795
28	7.89	703697.3	8.17	27982725

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5
29	9.39	839860.3	9.72	26608284
30	8.89	795739.3	9.20	25811144
31	8.39	750418.3	8.69	24898148**
<b>April</b>				
1	9.39	839860.3	9.72	24058288
2	9.39	839860.3	9.72	23218427
3	7.39	660976.3	7.65	22526451**
4	8.39	750418.3	8.65	21778033
5	9.89	884581.3	10.29	20891452
6	9.89	884581.3	10.24	2000667
7	10.39	929302.3	10.76	1907756
8	11.39	1018744.3	11.79	18058824
9	11.39	1018744.3	11.79	17040079
10	12.39	1108186.3	12.83	15931893
11	12.89	1152907.3	13.34	14778985

Elevation Zone 10000 ft to 12000 ft.

**March**

18	-	-	-	77919385
19	1.33	250436.3	2.89	7766948
20	2.33	436734.3	5.08	77230214
21	3.33	627032.3	7.26	76603182
22	2.83	532883.3	6.17	76070298

Contd. ....

1	2	3	4	5
23	2.83	532883.3	6.17	75454437 **
24	4.33	815330.3	8.44	74639107
25	4.33	815330.3	9.44	73823777
26	4.83	909479.3	10.53	72914297
27	4.83	909479.3	10.53	72004841
28	4.83	909479.3	10.53	71095339
29	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	69803412
30	5.83	1097777.3	12.71	68805635
31	5.33	1003828.3	11.62	67767007**
April				
1	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	66575081
2	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	65383155
3	4.33	815330.3	9.44	64523878**
4	5.33	1003828.3	11.62	63520250
5	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	62234175
6	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	60948099
7	7.33	1380224.3	15.97	59567875
8	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	57999353
9	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	56481287
10	9.33	1756620.3	20.33	54724446
11	9.83	1850969.3	21.42	52873477
Elevation zone 12000 ft. to 14000 ft.				
12	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	-

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
20	-	-	-	89776489
21	0.27	53387.1	0.62	89723061
22	-	-	-	
23	-	-	-	
24	1.27	25117.1	2.91	89471944
25	1.27	25117.1	2.91	89220827
26	1.77	349982.1	4.05	88870845
27	1.77	349982.1	4.05	88520863
28	1.77	349982.1	4.05	88170881
29	3.27	646577.1	7.48	87524304
30	2.77	547712.1	6.34	86976592
31	2.27	448847.1	5.19	86414792**
April				
1	3.27	646577.1	7.48	85768215
2	3.27	646577.1	7.48	85121638
3	1.27	25117.1	2.91	84855228**
4	2.27	448847.1	5.19	84406381
5	3.77	745442.1	8.63	83860939
6	3.77	745442.1	8.63	82915497
7	4.27	844307.1	9.77	82071189
8	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	81029152
9	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	79987115
10	6.27	1239767.1	14.35	78747348
11	6.27	1338632.1	15.69	777462104



## Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

Date	Degree days ( $^{\circ}\text{d}$ )	Snow daily snow melt ( $\text{g m}^3/\text{s}$ )	Sum of daily snow melt from all the zones ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ )
1	2	3	4
<b>March</b>			
18	-	-	4.39
19	-	-	11.08
20	-	-	14.88
21	-	-	18.99
22	-	-	16.66
23	-	-	19.01*
24	-	-	25.14
15	-	-	25.14
26	0.24	0.41	28.53
27	0.24	0.41	28.53
28	0.24	0.41	28.53
29	1.74	2.96	40.06
30	1.24	2.11	35.22
31	0.74	1.26	39.74*
<b>April</b>			
1	1.74	2.96	40.06
2	1.74	2.96	40.06
3	-	-	<sup>27</sup> 20.00 *
4	0.74	1.26	32.37
5	2.24	3.81	43.90

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5
6	2.24	3.81	43.90	
7	2.74	4.66	47.75	
8	3.74	6.37	55.45	
9	3.74	6.37	55.45	
10	4.74	8.07	63.15	
11	5.24	8.92	66.99	

Elevation zone 6000 ft to 8000 ft.

April

12	15.95	675546.3	7.82	1377082.2**
13	15.95	675546.3	7.82	701535.9
14	15.95	675546.3	7.82	25969.6
15	13.95	25969.6	0.30	0

Elevation zone 8000 ft to 10000 ft.

April

12	12.89	1152907.3	13.34	13596217**
13	12.89	1152907.3	13.34	12443310
14	12.89	1152907.3	13.34	11290403
15	10.89	974023.3	11.27	10316379
16	9.39	839850.3	9.72	9476519.5
17	12.89	1152907.3	13.39	8323612.2
18	12.39	1108186.3	12.83	7215425.9

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
19	11.39	1018744.3	11.79	6196681.6
20	10.89	974023.3	11.27	4248535
21	10.89	974023.3	11.27	4248535
22	13.39	1197628.3	13.86	3051806.7
23	14.89	1331791.3	15.41	1719215.4
24	14.39	1287070.3	14.90	432145.1
25	14.39	432145.1	5.00	0

Elevation zone 10000 ft to 12000 ft.

April

12	9.83	1850969.3	21.42	50961610**
13	9.83	1850969.3	21.42	49110640
14	9.83	1850969.3	21.42	47259672
15	7.83	1474373.3	17.06	45765299
16	7.33	1380224.3	15.97	44403056
17	9.83	1850969.3	21.42	42552086
18	9.33	1756820.3	20.33	40795266
19	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	39236744
20	7.83	1474373.3	17.06	3775237
21	7.83	1474373.3	17.06	36277906
22	10.33	1945118.3	22.51	34332878
23	11.83	2227565.3	25.78	32105313
24	11.33	2133416.3	24.69	29971896
25	11.33	2133416.3	24.69	27838480
26	13.33	2510012.3	29.05	25328468

Contd....

1	2	3	4	5
27	13.33	2510012.3	29.05	22810455
28	13.33	2510012.3	29.05	20308443
29	12.83	2415853.3	27.96	17892580
30	11.33	2133416.3	24.69	15334294**
<b>May</b>				
1	11.33	3733478.5	43.21	11600815
2	11.83	3898239.3	45.12	7702576.2
3	11.33	3733478.5	43.21	3969097.7
4	8.83	2909674.8	33.68	1059422.9
5	9.33	1059422.9	12.26	0

Elevation runs 12000 ft. to 14000 ft.

**April**

12	6.77	13386321	15.49	7607006**
13	6.77	13386321	15.49	74731427
14	6.77	13386321	15.49	73392795
15	4.77	9431721	10.91	72449622
16	4.27	8443071	9.77	71605315
17	6.77	13386321	15.49	70286683
18	6.27	12397671	14.34	69026916
19	5.27	10420371	12.05	67984879
20	4.77	9431721	10.91	67041707
21	4.77	9431721	10.91	66098535
22	7.27	14374971	16.64	62926945

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
24	8.27	16352271	18.92	61291718
25	8.27	16352271	18.92	59635491
26	10.27	20306871	23.50	57625804
27	10.27	20306871	23.50	55595117
28	10.27	20306871	23.50	5356443
29	9.77	19318221	22.35	51632608
30	8.27	16352271	18.92	49643109**
<b>May</b>				
1	8.27	28616474	33.10	46701461
2	8.77	30346611	35.12	437468
3	8.27	28616474	33.10	40885153
4	5.77	199965786	23.11	38888574
5	6.27	21695924	25.11	36718982
6	3.77	13045236	15.10	35414458
7	3.77	13045236	15.10	34109934
8	3.77	13045236	15.10	32805411
9	5.27	18235649	21.10	30981846
10	4.77	10505511	19.10	28671295**

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

**April**

12	5.24	8.92	69.23*
13	5.24	8.92	66.99
14	5.24	8.92	66.99
15	3.24	5.52	45.08

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
16	1.74	2.96	38.42	
17	5.24	8.92	59.17	
18	4.74	8.07	55.57	
19	3.74	6.37	49.37	
20	3.24	5.52	44.76	
21	3.24	5.52	44.76	
22	5.74	9.77	62.78	
23	7.24	12.33	73.59	
24	6.74	11.46	69.99	
25	6.74	11.48	60.09	
26	8.74	14.88	67.43	
27	8.74	14.88	67.43	
28	8.74	14.88	67.43	
29	8.24	14.03	64.34	
30	6.74	11.48	66.80*	
<b>May</b>				
1	6.74	20.08	96.39	
2	7.24	21.57	101.81	
3	6.74	20.08	96.39	
4	4.24	12.63	69.42	
5	4.74	14.12	51.49	
6	2.24	6.67	21.77	
7	2.24	6.67	21.77	
8	2.24	6.67	21.77	
9	3.74	11.14	32.24	
10	3.24	9.65	29.78*	

Contd.....

Elevation zone 12000 ft to 14000 ft.

1	2	3	4	5
May				
11	6.27	2169592.4	25.10	26501702
12	6.77	2342606.1	27.11	24159096
13	6.77	2342606.1	27.11	2181649
14	5.77	1996578.6	23.11	19819911
15	6.77	2342606.1	27.11	17477308
16	6.77	2342606.1	27.11	15134699
17	6.27	2169592.4	25.10	12965107
18	8.77	3034861.1	35.12	99304461
19	10.27	3553702.4	41.13	63767437
20	10.77	3726716.1	43.13	26500276
21	10.77	2650027.6	36.103	0

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

May				
11	4.74	14.12	39.22	
12	5.24	15.61	42.72	
13	5.24	15.61	42.72	
14	4.24	12.63	35.74	
15	5.24	15.61	42.72	
16	5.24	15.61	42.72	
17	4.74	17.12	39.22	
18	7.24	21.57	56.69	

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
19	8.79	26.04	67.17	
20	9.24	27.53	70.66	
21	9.24	27.53	73.02*	
22	6.24	18.59	18.59	
23	1.24	3.69	3.73*	
24	4.27	12.72	12.72	
25	3.27	9.74	9.74	
26	0.24	0.72	0.939*	
27	-	-	-	
28	-	-	-	
29	0.74	2.20	2.20	
30	0.74	2.20	2.20	
31	3.27	9.74	9.74	

\*\* the volume of snowmelt due to rainfall is also considered.

\* the snowmelt due to rainfall is also included.



APPENDIX : X(b)Computed daily snowmelt in different elevation zones in ManaliCatchment

Year : 1978

Elevation zone 6000 - 8000 ft.

(1) Date	Degree Days (deg.cd)	Daily Melt Vol ( m <sup>3</sup> )x	Daily snow melt ( m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Equivalent vol. of water remaining in the form of snow ( m <sup>3</sup> )x
1	2	3	4	5
March				
13	1.95	825903	0.96	12079125
14	3.45	146121.3	1.69	11933003
15	4.46	188898.8	2.19	11744104
16	3.95	167298.3	1.94	11576806
17	4.46	188898.8	2.19	11273132**
18	5.45	230829.3	2.67	10985831**
19	5.95	252006.3	2.92	10733825
20	6.45	273183.3	3.16	102160641
21	6.45	273183.3	3.16	10187458
22	5.45	230829.3	2.67	9956629.1
23	8.95	379068.3	4.39	9577560.8
24	8.45	357891.3	4.14	9219669.5
25	8.45	357891.3	4.14	8861778.2
26	9.45	400245.3	4.63	8461532.9
27	9.45	400245.3	4.63	8061287.6
28	9.45	400245.3	4.63	7628962.7**
29	9.95	421422.3	4.88	7196613.0**
30	9.95	421422.3	4.88	6775191.5
31	9.95	421422.3	4.88	6353769.2

1	2	3	4	5
<b>April</b>				
1	8.95	379068.3	4.39	5974700.9
2	8.95	379068.3	4.39	5595632.6
3	9.95	421422.3	4.88	5132309.7**
4	8.45	357891.3	4.14	4720827.1
5	8.45	357891.3	4.14	4362935.8
6	9.95	421422.3	4.88	3941513.5
7	12.45	527307.3	6.10	3414206.2
<i>ELEVATION ZONE 8000 - 10000 ft</i>				
<i>Mar 13</i>	-	-	-	30358105
14	0.39	34882.3	0.40	30323222
15	1.39	124324.3	1.44	30198898
16	0.89	79603.3	0.92	30112295
17	1.39	124324.3	1.44	29915950**
18	2.39	213766.3	2.47	29646145**
19	2.89	258487.3	2.99	29387657
20	3.29	303208.3	3.51	29084449
21	3.39	303208.3	3.51	28781241
22	2.39	213766.3	2.47	28567475
23	5.89	526813.3	6.10	28040661
24	5.39	482092.3	5.58	27558569
25	5.39	482092.3	5.58	27076477
26	6.39	571534.3	6.60	26504942
27	6.39	571434.3	6.60	25933408 <del>259080822</del>
28	6.39	571534.3	6.60	25306063**
29	6.89	616255.3	7.13	24668671**
30	6.89	616255.3	7.13	24052415
31	6.89	616255.3	7.13	23436160

Contd...

	1	2	3	4	5
<b>April</b>					
	1	5.09	526813.3	6.10	22909347
	2	5.09	526813.3	6.10	22382533
	3	6.09	616255.3	7.13	21734782**
	4	5.39	482092.3	5.58	21202243**
	5	5.39	482092.3	5.58	20720151
	6	6.09	616255.3	7.13	20103896
	7	9.39	819860.3	9.72	19264036
		Elevation zone 10000 - 12000 ft			
May	13	-	-	-	-
	14	-	-	-	-
	15	-	-	-	-
	16	-	-	-	-
	17	-	-	-	-
	18	-	-	-	-
	19	-	-	-	70449604
	20	0.33	62138.3	0.72	70381465
	21	0.33	62138.3	0.72	70325327
	22	0	0	-	*
	23	2.83	53238.3	6.07	69792444
	24	2.33	438734. <sup>3</sup>	5.08	69353709
	25	2.33	438734.3	5.08	68914975
	26	3.33	627032.3	7.26	68287943
	27	3.33	627032.3	7.26	67660910
	28	3.33	627032.3	7.26	66961675**
	29	3.83	721181.3	8.35	66210709**
	30	3.83	721181	8.35	65489526
	31	3.83	721181	8.35	64768343

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Apr</i> 1	2.82	531000.3	6.15	64238243
2	2.12	531000.3	62.15	63706343
3	3.83	721183	8.35	62943259**
4	2.33	438734.3	5.08	62450934**
5	2.33	438734.3	5.08	62012199
6	2.83	438734.3	5.08	61573465
7	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	60381539
<i>Nov</i> 13		Elevation zones 12000 ft-14000ft		
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				
25				80844107
26	0.27	53387.1	0.62	80790719
27	0.27	53387.1	0.62	80737332
28	0.27	53387.1	0.62	80676864**
29	0.77	152252.1	1.76	80654285**
30	0.77	152252.1	1.76	80502033
31	0.77	152252.1	1.76	80349780

Contd.....

1	2	3	4	5
April				
1	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-
3	0.77	152252.1	1.76	80187617*
4	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-
6	0.77	152252.1	1.76	80035365
7	3.27	646577.1	7.48	79388788

Elevation zone above 1400 ft.

Date	Degree days (.cd)	Daily snow melt ( $m^3/s$ )	Sum of daily snowmelt from all the zones ( $m^3/s$ )
1	2	4	6
May 13	-	-	0.96
14	-	-	3.13
15	-	-	3.11
16	-	-	2.86
17	-	-	3.87
18	-	-	6.44
19	-	-	5.91
20	-	-	7.39
21	-	-	7.39
22	-	-	5.16
23	-	-	16.41
24	-	-	14.80
25	-	-	14.00
26	-	-	19.11
27	-	-	19.11
28	-	-	21.09

1	2	4	6	
29			22.92*	
30			22.12	
31			22.12	
April 1			16.64	
2			16.64	
3			23.55*	
4			16.60*	
5			15.54	
6	0.24	0.41	19.26	
7	1.74	2.96	40.06	
	Elevation	6000-8000		
April 8	<sup>2</sup> 12.45	<sup>3</sup> 527307.3	<sup>4</sup> 6.10	<sup>5</sup> 2886898.9
9	12.45	527307.3	6.10	2399591.6
10	12.45	527307.3	6.10	1832284.3
11	14.45	612015.3	7.08	1220269
12	15.95	675540.3	7.82	544722.7
13	14.45	544722.7	6.30	0
	Elevation	8000-10000 ft		
April 8	9.39	839860.3	9.72	184241.75
9	9.39	839860.3	9.72	17554314
10	9.39	839860.3	9.72	1674445.4
11	11.39	1018744.3	11.79	15662580
12	12.89	1152907.3	13.34	141335070
13	11.39	1018744.3	11.79	13114762
14	11.89	1063965.3	13.31	12051297

Contd....

	1	2	3	4	5
ril 15		12.39	1108186.3	12.82	10943111
16		14.89	1331791.3	15.39	9611319.8
17		14.39	1287070.3	14.90	8180548.3**
18		14.45	1292436.9	14.93	6464709.1**
19		9.39	839860.3	9.72	5624848.8
20		9.89	884581.3	10.24	4740267.5
21		9.39	750418.3	8.68	3989849.2
22		9.87	884581.3	10.23	2975544.1
23		9.39	839860.3	9.72	2135683.8
24		9.89	884581.3	10.23	1251102.5
25		9.89	884581.3	10.23	366521.2
26		14.45	366521.2	4.24	0
27		-	-	-	-
28		-	-	-	-
29		-	-	-	-
30		-	-	-	-
May					
1		-	-	-	-
2		-	-	-	-
3		-	-	-	-
4		-	-	-	-
5		-	-	-	-
6		-	-	-	-
			Elevation Zone	10000 - 12000 ft	
y 8		6.33	1191926.3	13.80	59189612
9		6.33	1191926.3	13.80	57997686

Contd...

	1	2	3	4	5
<i>April</i> 11	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	55237237	
12	9.83	1850969.3	21.41	53886268	
13	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	51837746	
14	8.83	1662671.3	19.24	50155074	
15	9.33	1756820.3	20.33	48398257	
16	11.83	2227565.3	25.78	46170689	
17	11.33	2133416.3	24.69	43764378**	
18	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	41638089**	
19	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	40446163	
20	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	39160088	
21	5.33	1003628.3	11.62	38136459	
22	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	36659275**	
23	6.33	1191926.3	13.80	35467349	
24	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	34181273	
25	6.83	1286075.3	14.88	32895198	
26	7.33	1380224.3	15.97	31514974	
27	8.33	1568522.3	18.15	29946451	
28	10.33	1945118.3	22.51	28001333	
29	10.83	2039267.3	23.60	25961066	
30	10.83	2039267.3	23.60	23922798	
<i>May</i> 1	10.83	3568717.8	41.30	20031282	
2	10.83	3568717.8	41.30	16462564	
3	11.33	3733478.5	43.17	12729085	
4	11.33	3733478.5	43.17	8995407.4	
5	13.33	4391521.5	50.84	4603085.9	
6	13.33	4392521.5	50.84	210564.4	

Con td...



1	2	3	4	5
	Elevation zone 12000 ft -14000 ft.			
April 8.	3.27	646577.1	7.48	78742210
9.	3.27	646577.1	7.48	78795633
10.	3.27	646577.1	7.48	77449056
11.	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	76407019
12.	6.77	1338633.1	15.49	75068397
13.	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	74026350
14.	5.77	1140902.1	13.20	72885448
15.	6.27	1239767.1	14.35	71645681
16.	8.77	1734092.1	20.07	69911589
17.	8.27	1635227.1	18.92	68936556**
18.	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	66594793**
19.	3.27	646577.1	7.48	65948213
20.	3.77	745442.1	8.63	65302774
21.	2.27	448847.1	5.19	64753927
22.	3.77	745442.1	8.63	64618517**
23.	3.27	646577.1	7.48	63971940
24.	3.71	745442.1	8.63	63226498
25.	3.77	745442.1	8.63	62481056
26.	4.27	844307.1	9.77	616336749
28.	5.27	1042037.1	12.06	60594712
28.	7.72	1427497.1	16.64	50157215
29.	7.77	1536362.1	17.78	57620853
30.	7.77	1536362.1	17.73	56084490
May				
1	7.77	2688629.5	31.11	53395860
2	7.77	2688629.7	31.11	50707230

Contd...

1	2	3	4	5
3	8.27	286164312	33.12	47845587
4	10.27	3553697.2	41.13	44291890
5	10.27	3553697.2	41.13	40738193
6	10.27	3553697.2	41.13	37184495

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

Date (1)	Degree days ( cd ) (2)	Daily snow melt ( m <sup>3</sup> /s ) (4)	Sum of daily snow melt from all the zones (m <sup>3</sup> /s ) (6)
8	1.74	2.96	40.06
9	1.74	2.96	40.06
10	1.74	2.96	40.06
11	3.74	6.37	55.45
12	5.24	8.92	66.98
13	3.74	6.37	55.45
14	4.24	7.23	59.31
15	4.74	8.07	55.45
16	7.24	12.33	73.57
17.	6.74	11.48	79.41*
18.	3.74	6.37	70.10*
19.	1.74	2.96	33.96
20.	2.24	3.81	37.56
21	0.74	1026	26.75
22.	2.24	3.81	43.81*
23	1.74	2.96	33.96
24	2.24	3.81	37.55
25	2.24	3.81	37.55

1	2	4	6	8
26.	2.74	4.67	34.45	
27.	3.74	6.37	36.58	
28	5.74	9.77	48.92	
29	6.24	10.62	52.00	
30	6.24	10.62	52.00	

May

1	6.24	18.59	91.00
2	6.24	18.59	91.00
3	6.74	20.08	96.37
4	6.74	20.08	96.37
5	8.74	26.04	118.01
6	8.74	26.04	118.01

2 ~~xxxxx~~

Elevation 10000 ft - 12000

1	2	3	4	5
May 7	13.33	210544.4	2.44	0
8	12.83	-	-	-
9	12.83	-	-	-

Elevation 12000 ft 14000 ft

1	2	3	4	5
May 7	10.27	3553697.2	41.13	33630790
8	9.77	3380693.7	39.12	30250114
9	9.77	3380693.7	39.12	26869431
10	10.77	3726710.7	43.12	23142730
11	10.27	3553697.2	41.12	19589023
12	10.77	3726710.7	43.12	15862312
13	10.77	3726710.7	43.12	12135601
14	10.77	3726710.7	43.12	8408890.3
15	11.27	3899724.2	45.14	4509166.1

## ELEVATION ZONE ABOVE - 14000-ft-

1	2	3	6
Mar 29			22.92
30			22.12
31			22.12
1			16.64
2			16.64
3			23.55*
4			16.60*
5			15.54
6	.24	0.41	19.26
7	1.74	2.96	40.06
8	1.77	2.96	40.06
9	1.74	2.96	40.06
10	1.74	2.96	40.06
11	3.74	6.37	55.45
12	5.24	8.92	66.98
13	3.74	6.37	55.45
14	4.24	7.23	59.31
15	4.74	8.07	55.45
16	7.24	12.33	73.57
17	6.74	11.48	79.41*
18	3.74	6.37	70.10*
19	1.74	2.96	33.96
20	2.24	3.81	37.56
21	0.74	1.26	26.75
22	2.24	3.81	43.81*

## ELEVATION ZONE ABOVE 14000ft-

1	2	3	6
23	1.74	2.96	33.96
24	2.24	3.81	37.55
25	2.24	3.81	37.55
26	2.74	4.67	34.65
27	3.74	6.37	36.58
28	5.74	9.77	48.92
29	6.24	10.61	52.00
30	6.24	10.62	52.00
May			
1	6.24	18.59	91.00
2	6.24	18.59	91.00
3	6.74	20.08	96.37
4	6.74	20.08	96.37
5	8.74	26.04	118.01
6	8.74	26.04	118.01

## elevation zone 12000 to 14000ft

1	2	3	4	5
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16	11.27	3899726.2	45.14	609441.9
17	11.27	609441.9	7.05	0

## ELEVATION ZONE ABOVE 14000ft

1	2	4	6
May 7	8.74	26.04	69.61
8	8.28	24.55	63.67
9	8.24	24.55	63.67
10	9.24	27.53	70.65
11	8.74	26.04	67.16
12	9.24	27.53	70.65
13	9.24	27.53	70.65
14	9.24	27.53	70.65
15	9.74	29.02	74.16
16	9.74	29.02	74.16
17	9.74	29.02	36.52
18	10.24	30.51	30.51
19	10.24	30.51	30.51
20	9.74	29.02	29.02
21	9.74	29.02	29.02
22	9.74	29.02	29.02
23	10.74	32.00	32.00
24	10.74	32.00	32.00
25	10.74	32.00	35.69*
26	11.24	33.49	34.82*
27	10.74	32.00	32.00
28	11.74	34.98	34.98
29	12.24	36.47	36.47

---

1	2	4	6	5
30	10.74	32.00	32.00	
31	9.74	29.02	29.80*	

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\* the snowmelt due to rainfall is also included.

\*\* the volume of snowmelt due to rainfall is also included.

APPENDIX: X (c)

Computed daily snowmelt in different elevation zones  
in Manali catchment year 1977

ELEVATION ZONE 8000 ~ 10000 ft.

Date	Degree day day (°C)	daily vol. of snowmelt (m <sup>3</sup> )	daily snowmelt (m <sup>3</sup> )	equivalent vol. of water namely in the (m <sup>3</sup> )
1	2	3	4	5
<b>March</b>				
28	11.89	192618	2.23	1861182
29	11.39	184518	2.14	1676664
30	11.69	191970	2.23	1484694
31	9.39	152118	1.76	1326719.4 *4
Apr. 1	12.39	<del>205718</del> 205718	<del>2.32</del> 2.32	1112091.7 *4
2	11.89	192618	2.23	919463.7
3	11.89	192618	2.23	726835.7
4	11.89	192618	2.23	534217.7
5	9.89	160218	1.85	373979.7
6	9.89	160218	1.85	177949 *4
7	8.39	135918	1.57	18863.9 *4
8		18863.9	0.22	0
<u>ELEVATION Zone 1000 - 12000 ft.</u>				
28	8.83	821852	10.66	13589748
29	8.83	869652	10.06	12720096
30	8.83	921852	10.66	11798244
31	6.33	660852	7.65	11107315 *4

Contd....



	1	2	3	4	5
<i>April</i>	1	9.33	974052	11.27	10058922 *†
	2	8.83	921852	10.67	9137070.6
	3	8.83	921852	10.67	8215218.6
	4	8.83	921852	10.67	7293366.6
	6	6.83	713052	8.25	5695263.1 *†
	7	5.33	558652	6.44	5034197.4 *†
	8	3.33	347652	4.02	475104.6 *†
	9	3.33	347652	4.02	4327452.6
	10	3.83	399852	4.63	3917241.6 *†
	11	4.83	504252	5.84	3388637.6 *†
	12	5.03	608552	7.04	2779985.6
	13	8.33	869652	10.86	1910433.6
	14	4.33	452052	5.23	1458381.6
	15	4.83	504252	5.84	929767.6 *†
	16	4.83	504252	5.84	408921.9 *†
	17	5.33	408921.9	4.75	0
	<u>Elevation zone 12000 - 14000 ft.</u>				
<i>Mar</i>	28	5.77	893196	10.34	22516004
	29	5.27	815796	9.44	21700208
	30	5.77	893196	10.34	20807612
	31	3.27	506196	5.85	20274230 *†

Contd.....

	1	2	3	4	5
brj) 1	6.27	970596	11.23	19222754 * *	
2	5.77	893196	10.34	13329558	
3	5.77	893196	10.34	17436363	
4	5.77	893196	10.34	16543165	
5	3.77	583596	6.75	15959570	
6	3.77	<sup>583596</sup> <del>583596</del>	6.75	15214971 * *	
7	2.27	351396	4.07	14801766 * *	
8	0.27	41796	0.48	14758302 * *	
9	0.27	41796	0.48	14716506	
10	0.77	119196	1.38	14593387 * *	
11	1.77	273996	3.17	14304236 * *	
12	2.77	428796	4.96	13675440	
13	5.27	815796	9.44	13059844	
14	1.27	196596	2.28	12863048	
15	1.77	273996	2.28	12573898 * *	
16	1.77	273996	2.28	12286966 * *	
17	2.27	35139.6	4.07	11937570	
18	2.27	351396	4.07	11586174	
19	0.27	41796	0.480	11537808 * *	
20	3.77	583596	6.75	10944016 * *	
21	2.77	428796	4.93	10515220	
22	2.77	428796	4.93	10086424	
23	3.27	508196	5.86	95802287	
24	2.77	428796	4.93	9122316.8 * *	
25	2.27	351396	4.065	714997 * *	

## Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

Date	Degree & day	Daily snow-melt.	Sum of daily snowmelt from all the zones ( $n^3/s$ )
1	2	3	6
<i>Mar</i> 28	4.24	7.21	30.44
29	3.74	6.34	28.01
30	4.24	7.21	30.44
31	1.74	2.95	19.13 *
<i>Apr</i> 1	4.74	8.01	35.09 *
2	4.24	7.22	30.46
3	4.24	7.22	30.46
4	4.24	7.22	30.46
5	2.24	3.81	20.69
6	2.24	3.81	25.85 *
7	0.74	1.26	15.98
8			4.87
9			4.50
10			6.17
11	0.24	0.41	9.98 *
12	1.24	2.11	14.11
13	3.74	6.37	25.87
14	-	-	7.51
15	0.24	0.41	9.24 *

Contd.....

1	2	4	6
16	0.24	0.41	8.94 *
17	0.74	1.26	10.08
18	0.74	1.26	5.33
19	-	-	0.56
20	2.24	3.81	11.97 <sup>1/2</sup>
21	1.24	2.11	7.04
22	1.24	2.11	7.04
23	1.74	2.95	8.81
24	1.24	2.11	8.12 *
25	0.74	1.26	6.41 *

Elevation 12000 - 14000 ft.

	1	2	3	4	5
<i>April</i> 26	2.27	0.351396	4.07	8.3969085 **	
27	3.77	0.583596	6.75	7.7633125	
28	3.77	0.428796	4.95	7.2565886 **	
29	3.27	0.506196	1.27	6.7509026 **	
30	2.27	0.351396	4.07	6.2930023 **	
<i>May</i> 1	2.27	0.614943	8.68	5.6780593	
2	2.27	0.614943	8.68	5.0631163	
3	3.27	0.885843	10.25	4.1772733	
4	4.27	1.156743	13.2	3.0205303 **	
5	4.27	1.156743	13.39	1.8537873	
6	4.27	1.156743	13.39	0.7070443	
7	6.27	0.7070443	<del>18.28</del> 8.18	<del>0.7070443</del> 0	

Elevation zone above 14000 ft.

Date	Degree Days (cd)	Daily Snowmelt in / s	Sum of daily snowmelt from all the zones in / s
1	2	3	4
<i>Nov</i> 26	0.74	0.08	5.59 *
27	3.24	3.81	10.85
28	1.24	2.11	8.37 *
29	1.74	2.95	10.77 *
30	0.74	1.28	5.8 *
<i>Apr</i> 1.	1.24	3.69	12.37
2	1.24	3.69	12.37
3	1.74	5.18	15.43
4	2.74	8.16	27.16 *
5	3.74	8.16	21.55
6	2.74	8.16	16.34
7	4.74	14.12	14.12
8	5.24	15.61	15.61
9	4.74	14.12	14.12
10	5.74	17.10	19.52 *
11	5.74	17.10	17.10
12	0.24	15.61	15.61
13	5.74	17.10	17.10
14	4.74	14.12	15.98 *
15	6.24	18.59 <del>18.59</del>	19.31 *
16	6.24	18.59	18.59
17	5.24	15.61	15.61
18	6.74	20.08	20.08
19	6.24	18.59	18.59

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1	2	4	6
21	7.74	23.06	23.06
22	7.24	21.57	21.57
23	7.24	21.57	21.57
24	7.74	23.06	23.06
25	7.74	23.06	23.06
26	8.24	24.55	24.55
27	8.74	26.84	27.64*
28	7.24	21.57	21.57
29	7.74	23.06	26.02*
30	8.24	24.55	24.55*
31	7.74	23.06	23.91*

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\* the snowmelt due to rainfall is also included.

\*\* the volume of snowmelt due to rainfall is also included.

APPENDIX XI (a)

Daily gauging discharge (excluding base flow) and computed daily snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area and on non snow covered area.

Year 1979

Date	Daily gauged discharge (excluding base flow) ( $m^3/s$ )	computed snowmelt discharge ( $m^3/s$ )	computed snow melt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area ( $m^3/s$ )	computed snow melt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area and non snow-covered area. ( $m^3/s$ )
1	2	3	4	5
<b>March</b>				
18	9.69	9.11	9.11	9.11
19	11.42	8.30	8.30	8.30
20	11.34	8.80	8.80	8.80
21	11.34	9.59	9.59	9.59
22	11.34	10.13	10.13	10.13
23	11.34	10.83	13.13	13.13
24	12.08	12.01	14.08	14.08
25	12.08	13.05	14.93	14.93
26	15.80	14.33	16.00	16.00
27	15.74	15.47	16.96	16.96
28	15.74	16.49	17.82	17.82
29	18.50	18.45	19.64	19.64
30	18.44	19.86	20.93	20.93
31	18.44	21.46	28.40	28.40

Contd...

	1	2	3	4	5
<b>April</b>					
1	18.44		22.92	29.16	29.16
2	18.44		24.24	29.84	29.84
3	18.44		24.25	30.67	30.67
4	18.44		24.73	30.51	30.51
5	25.36		26.21	31.41	31.41
6	25.12		27.86	32.22	32.22
7	25.12		29.08	33.29	33.29
8	26.57		31.17	34.95	34.95
9	26.57		33.04	36.44	36.44
10	33.87		35.42	38.48	38.48
11	33.85		37.90	40.66	40.66
12	46.08		40.36	43.66	43.66
13	47.91		42.34	45.32	45.32
14	47.91		44.13	46.82	46.82
15	47.91		43.78	46.18	46.18
16	47.91		42.86	45.00	46.18
17	47.91		43.91	45.85	45.85
18	49.02		44.52	46.26	46.26
19	46.37		44.41	45.98	45.98
20	47.54		44.00	45.92	45.42
21	47.57		43.63	44.91	44.91
22	47.57		44.92	46.05	46.05
23	47.57		47.05	48.07	48.07
24	47.54		48.64 <del>48.88</del>	49.55 <del>49.88</del>	49.55 <del>49.88</del>
25	47.54		49.19	50.08	50.08

Contd....



1	2	3	4	5
26	47.54	50.34	51.13	51.13
27	63.37	51.38	52.08	52.08
28	69.74	52.31	52.94	52.94
29	69.71	52.87	53.34	53.34
30	69.71	53.59	57.97	63.88
<b>April</b>				
1	69.71	56.91	60.84	60.84
2	70.76	60.38	63.92	63.92
3	59.20	63.02	66.19	66.19
4	59.14	62.97	65.82	65.82
5	49.62	61.30	63.86	63.86
6	49.45	57.13	59.42	59.42
7	40.24	53.38	55.44	55.42
8	43.76	50.00	51.84	51.84
9	43.79	47.90	49.56	49.56
10	46.76	45.79	47.87	51.96
11	39.95	44.74	46.60	46.60
12	44.96	44.11	45.78	45.78
13	44.99	43.54	45.06	45.07
14	44.99	42.40	43.76	43.76
15	44.99	42.00	43.22	43.22
16	44.99	41.64	42.74	42.74
17	44.99	41.01	41.99	41.99

Contd....

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>18</b>	<b>44.99</b>	<b>42.01</b>	<b>42.89</b>	<b>42.89</b>
<b>19</b>	<b>49.45</b>	<b>43.85</b>	<b>44.64</b>	<b>44.64</b>
<b>20</b>	<b>44.99</b>	<b>45.03</b>	<b>46.54</b>	<b>46.54</b>
<b>21</b>	<b>59.14</b>	<b>47.82</b>	<b>50.62</b>	<b>66.68</b>
<b>22</b>	<b>44.99</b>	<b>44.70</b>	<b>47.23</b>	<b>47.23</b>
<b>23</b>	<b>44.64</b>	<b>40.57</b>	<b>75.51</b>	<b>86.38</b>
<b>24</b>	<b>40.98</b>	<b>37.46</b>	<b>69.10</b>	<b>69.10</b>
<b>25</b>	<b>37.37</b>	<b>34.77</b>	<b>63.05</b>	<b>63.05</b>
<b>26</b>	<b>69.71</b>	<b>31.37</b>	<b>57.59</b>	<b>122.35</b>
<b>27</b>	<b>49.45</b>	<b>28.24</b>	<b>51.83</b>	<b>51.83</b>
<b>28</b>	<b>35.07</b>	<b>25.41</b>	<b>46.64</b>	<b>46.64</b>
<b>29</b>	<b>35.04</b>	<b>23.07</b>	<b>42.18</b>	<b>42.48</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>35.04</b>	<b>20.96</b>	<b>38.16</b>	<b>38.16</b>
<b>31</b>	<b>35.04</b>	<b>19.75</b>	<b>35.21</b>	<b>35.21</b>

1	2	3	4	5
April 1	9.12	19.04	20.93	10.03
2	9.60	19.34	20.73	10.73
3	9.09	19.03	20.09	10.09
4	6.37	24.12	20.09	20.09
5	6.6	24.11	19.48	10.48
6	6.03	24.42	19.21	10.21
7	5.09	18.59	20.09	20.09
8	9.10	20.54	22.54	22.54
9	6.91	20.30	23.04	23.04
10	8.33	22.08	23.10	23.10
11	11.2	24.68	27.03	27.03
12	20.65	20.26	30.03	30.03
13	20.64	30.01	32.02	32.02
14	21.04	32.71	34.02	34.02
15	23.59	34.03	33.33	33.33
16	23.50	37.00	39.37	39.37
17	25.39	40.05	45.09	45.71
18	23.81	43.26	55.09	59.13
19	25.55	41.04	59.33	59.33
20	22.08	41.33	51.40	52.40
21	30.7	39.03	40.07	40.07
22	29.95	39.02	51.09	52.07
23	29.50	30.54	49.53	49.53
24	29.50	29.07	40.01	40.01
25	29.7	37.04	40.53	40.53
26	29.00	25.09	45.05	45.05
27	29.02	31.59	43.03	43.03

APPENDIX VI (N)

Daily gauging discharge (including baseflow) and computed daily snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow covered area and non snow covered area. Year-1970

Date	Daily gauged discharge excluding baseflow (m <sup>3</sup> /d)	Computed snowmelt discharge (m <sup>3</sup> /d)	Computed snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area (m <sup>3</sup> /d)	Computed snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow covered area and non snow-covered area (m <sup>3</sup> /d)
1	2	3	4	5
Mar. 13	4.92	4.52	4.52	4.52
14	6.51	4.35	4.35	4.35
15	4.04	4.19	4.19	4.19
16	5.95	4.03	4.03	4.03
17	11.77	4.23	4.21	4.21
18	11.03	4.22	4.44	4.44
19	11.00	4.42	4.20	4.20
20	6.48	4.05	4.05	4.05
21	4.95	4.05	4.73	4.73
22	5.13	4.03	4.31	4.31
23	5.23	5.33	5.53	5.23
24	5.20	6.57	4.40	5.40
25	5.20	7.25	4.78	4.78
26	5.20	8.24	10.59	10.53
27	3.20	9.14	11.19	11.19
28	4.90	10.11	14.92	14.92
29	6.00	11.13	16.54	16.54
30	4.95	12.04	16.00	16.00
31	4.05	12.02	17.10	17.10

1	2	3	4	5
April 1	9.12	19.04	20.93	20.93
2	9.60	19.24	20.73	20.73
3	5.09	14.03	10.09	10.09
4	6.37	24.12	20.09	20.09
5	6.6	24.11	19.48	19.48
6	6.03	14.42	19.21	19.21
7	5.09	10.59	20.09	20.09
8	9.10	20.54	22.94	22.94
9	6.91	20.20	23.04	23.04
10	6.33	22.08	23.10	23.10
11	11.2	24.68	27.03	27.03
12	20.65	20.26	30.03	30.03
13	20.84	30.41	32.02	32.02
14	21.04	32.71	34.03	34.03
15	23.59	34.43	35.33	35.33
16	22.50	37.00	39.37	39.37
17	23.59	40.06	45.09	45.71
18	23.81	43.20	53.80	59.13
19	23.55	41.04	53.30	53.33
20	32.08	41.23	01.00	52.40
21	30.7	39.43	40.07	43.07
22	29.95	39.42	01.00	53.07
23	29.50	30.54	40.53	49.50
24	29.50	33.07	40.01	40.02
25	29.7	37.04	40.50	40.53
26	29.03	23.09	45.05	45.03
27	29.02	31.59	43.03	43.03

1	2	3	4	5
April 28	31.1	37.33	43.85	43.85
29	34.5	38.28	44.15	44.15
30	34.22	39.13	44.41	44.41
May 1	28.22	43.41	48.16	48.16
2	54.05	47.26	51.53	51.53
3	65.51	51.20	55.05	55.05
4	65.51	54.75	58.21	58.21
5	72.03	59.89	63.01	63.01
6	78.5	64.53	67.33	67.33
7	78.5	64.34	66.85	66.85
8	78.5	63.63	65.90	65.90
9	76.40	62.99	65.04	65.04
10	76.20	63.05	67.89	64.89
11	76.37	62.79	64.45	64.45
12	69.58	62.87	64.35	64.35
13	65.85	62.95	64.29	64.29
14	65.85	63.01	64.23	64.22
15	65.85	63.38	64.47	64.47
16	70.9	63.71	64.69	64.69
17	70.9	60.63	63.51	61.51
18	73.14	57.32	58.11	58.11
19	73.79	54.34	55.05	55.05
20	72.37	51.51	52.15	52.15
21	73.37	48.97	49.54	49.54
22	72.37	46.68	47.20	47.20
23	63.48	44.89	45.35	45.35
24	65.16	43.20	43.71	43.71

1	2	3	4	5
<b>25</b>				
May 25	60.27	42.17	42.55	64.71
26	70.97	41.00	41.42	70.76
27	60.97	39.05	40.15	40.15
28	61.98	39.02	39.30	39.30
29	60.63	39.39	38.65	38.65
30	60.49	37.44	37.63	37.66
31	62.36	35.37	35.55	60.96

APPENDIX-XI (c)

Daily gauging discharge (excluding baseflow) and computed daily snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow covered area and non snow covered area. YEAR - 1977

Date	Daily gauged discharge excluding baseflow (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Computed snowmelt discharge (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Computed snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	Computed snowmelt discharge including runoff due to rainfall on the snow-covered area and non snow-covered area (m <sup>3</sup> /s)
1	2	3	4	5
Mar. 28	12.62	14.097	14.097	14.097
29	13.96	15.21	15.206	15.206
30	14.59	16.43	16.42	16.42
a 31	15.06	16.50	17.13	17.13
April 1	12.62	18.01	19.59	19.59
2	12.62	18.95	20.37	20.37
3	12.62	19.80	21.07	21.07
4	12.62	20.50	21.71	21.71
5	16.80	20.36	21.40	21.40
6	19.55	20.66	24.79	24.79
7	13.93	20.03	25.59	25.59
8	12.62	18.47	23.89	24
9	10.54	17.03	21.91	21.91
10	10.54	15.89	20.91	21.06
11	10.54	15.20	20.33	20.5
12	10.37	14.95	19.57	19.57
13	12.62	15.78	19.62	18.62
14	12.62	14.89	18.62	18.62
15	13.22	14.23	17.56	17.77



1	2	3	4	5	
	16	12.62	13.60	17.08	17.17
	17	12.62	13.13	16.28	16.28
	18	12.62	12.32	15.11	15.11
	19	16.94	11.14	14.85	19.1
	20	19.90	11.10	16.76	20.53
	21	16.97	10.62	14.92	14.82
	22	17	10.19	13.97	13.97
	23	17	9.95	13.35	13.35
	24	19.78	9.69	13.89	17.84
	25	33.71	9.30	14.56	20.33
	26	17.76	8.87	14.16	15.79
	27	19.67	8.94	13.69	13.69
	28	27.31	8.79	14.47	19.46
	29	27.22	8.88	15.66	21.80
	30	21.62	8.49	15.01	16.42
May	1	21.54	8.76	14.61	14.61
	2	21.54	8.99	14.62	14.62
	3	21.54	9.48	14.23	14.23
	4	23.56	10.98	18.71	30.8
	5	18.98	11.62	19.29	19.29
	6	18.06	12.11	19.81	19.81
	7	18.10	12.17	19.19	19.19
	8	18.19	12.35	18.67	18.67
	9	18.19	22.39	18.08	18.08
	10	18.19	22.91	18.01	23.53
	11	18.19	23.16	17.76	17.76
	12	18.92	23.24	17.38	17.38

1	2	3	4	5
May 13	18.75	13.46	17.18	17.18
14	25.81	13.55	16.90	31.21
15	19.04	13.94	16.95	20.995
16	18.19	14.21	16.92	16.92
17	16.31	14.19	16.63	16.63
18	18.19	14.58	16.77	16.77
19	22.45	14.79	16.69	16.69
20	26.62	15.39	17.09	17.09
21	26.60	15.93	17.46	17.46
22	26.60	16.28	17.65	17.65
23	26.60	16.59	17.83	17.83
24	33.56	17.01	18.14	18.14
25	36.46	17.39	18.43	18.43
26	40.75	17.86	18.89	18.89
27	36.52	18.57	19.34	22.79
28	35.30	18.65	19.34	19.34
29	35.52	19.13	19.51	33.44
30	35.52	19.42	19.77	19.77
31	38.28	19.63	19.67	23.41

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