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$Internal\ Assessment\ Test\ 1-April\ 2023$

Sub:	Hydrology and Irrigation Engineering					SubCode:	18CV63]	Branch:		CV	
Date:	25.4.2023 Duration: 90 mins Max Marks: 50					Sem/Sec:	VI				OBE	
Answer any five questions. Provide neat sketches wherever necessary									MA	MARKS		RB T
	1 Discuss various processes involved in 'Hydrologic Cycle' using Horton's Engineering representation.								s [1	[10]		L1
2	Explain Convective, Orographic and Cyclonic type of precipitation.									[0]	CO1	L2
3	a) The average normal rainfall of five rain gauges in the base stations are: 89,54,45,41 and 55cm. If the error in the estimation of rainfall should not exceed 10%. How many additional rain gauges may be required? b) What are the different forms of precipitation? Explain.								ŧ l	[0]	CO1,	L2,3
4	Explain a) Tipping bucket raingauge b) Natural Syphon raingauge									[0]	CO1	L2
	Briefly explain with neat sketch a) Mass curve b) Double Mass curve c) Rainfall Hyetograph d) Moving Average method							11 [1	[0]	CO2	L1	
6	What is Evapouration? List and Explain the factors affecting it.									[0]	CO2	L1
7	Explain: a) Arithmetic Mean Method b) Isohyetal Method c) Normal Ratio method								[]	[0]	CO1	L2

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Li diagram
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Li muhud of rainfull collection Total = (19 marks

QJ (a) Masscurve (b) Double mass wire Raifall tyeto graph (1) Evaporation Mulu dity Southmetic meen method La formule used I sobyetal method is gomportance used Normal ratio method Li Sommula used

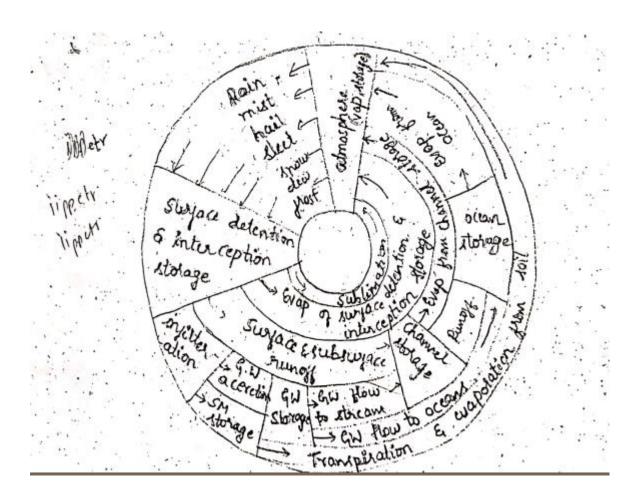
Hydrological Cycle:-

The group of numerous ares which superesents the different paths through which the water in nature circulates & is transformed is what is known as hydrologic cycle.

The hydrologic cycle has no beginning or and as the water in nature is continuously kept in cyclic motion. However, for the purpose of description the cycle may be visualised to commence with the precipitation from the atmosphere Precipitation may takes place in liquid form as rain & also in solid form as

atmosphere Precipitation may takes place in liquid form as rain & also in solid form as hail, snow, dew, prost etc. While ppt is taking place, a pead of it may evaporate & reach back the atmosphere. Some more ppt is intercepted by the trees & vegetation & the rest of it only would reach the ground. The intercepted ppt eventually evaporates into the atmosphere. The ppt reaching the ground surface is

The injettered water may be distributed in different ways. First, it supplies noisture to the vegetation & after utilizing if jor the sustanance of their life, the vegetation sends this moisture back into the atmosphere through the leaves by a process known as transpiration. Secondly, the injettered water may percolate deep & become ground water supply to surjace streams known as ground water supply to surjace streams known as ground water supply to oceans. The ground water runoff, is sometimes regered to as the baseflow or



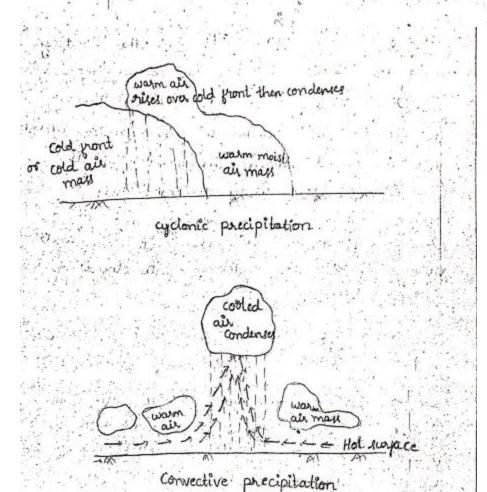
Types of precipitation:

i) Cyclonic or frontal precipitation:

When the moist air or warm airmass meets cool air mais. The molecules in the cold air are more tightly packed logether (more dense) & their the cold air is heavier than warm air, the warmer air mass is forced up over the cool air. As it rises, the warm air cools, the water vapour in the air condenenses & forms the douds & results in ppt.

Convective ppt: - It results from the heating up of the earth's surface. The warm ground heats the air over it. As the air warm, the air molecules begin to more further apart with increased distance molecules, it the molecules are less densly packed. Thus the air becomes lighter & rikes napidly into the atmosphere. As the air sizes, it wools, water vapour in the air condenses into clouds & precipitation occurs.

Orographic ppb: It results when warm moist are moving seems across the ocean is forced to rise by large mountains. As the air rises it cools. Cold air comot hold as much a moisture as warm air of seis cools, the water vapour in the air condenses & water droplets joins.



Sol: The mean rainfall is obtained as:

$$P_{\rm m} = \frac{89 + 54 + 45 + 41 + 55}{5} = 56.8 \text{ m}$$

Now

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{(89 - 56.8)^2 + (54 - 56.8)^2 + (45 - 56.8)^2 + (41 - 56.8)^2 + (55 - 56.8)^2}{5 - 1}$$

or

$$\sigma = 359.2$$
 $\sigma = 19.95$

The coefficient of variation is calculated as:

$$C_V = \frac{19.95}{56.8} = 0.33367$$

$$N = \left(\frac{C_V}{0.10}\right)^{10} = \left(\frac{0.33367}{0.1}\right)^2 = 11.13$$

Thus additional no. required = (12 - 5) = 7.

В

Forms of precipitation:

Drizzle: It is fine sprinkle of vory small &.

nather uniform water drops with diameters

blu 0.1 & 0.5 mm. The drops are so small

that they seem to float in air. To qualify
as drizzle (also called mist) the drops must

not only be small but they must also be

very numerous. The intentity of drizzle

rasely exceeds 1 mm/hr.

Pain: It is ppt of liquid water in which the drops are generally larger than 0.5 mm in

glaze: The ice coating formed when Irain or driezle preezes as it comes in contact with cold objects at the ground is called glaze.

Sleet: When rain drops are prozen while falling thowugh a larger of subpreezing are (below o'c) near the earth's surface or repreezing of lengty melted ice crystals occur,

transparent globular grains of ice known of or ice pellets are formed. The pellets are generally blu Imm & 4 mm in diameter.

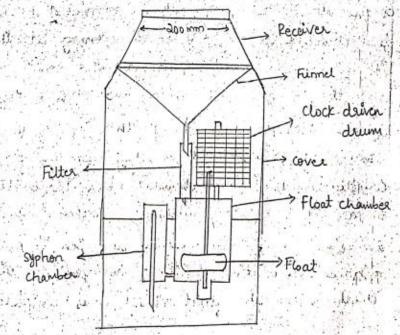
Show: - PPt in the form of ice crystals is called

snow When ice crystals juse together, it is called -snow plake.

Hail: - PPt in the form of balls of or irregular lumps of ice over 5mm in dia is called hail. It occurs almost oxclusively in violent or prolonged thunderstroms.

Dow: Dew forms directly by condensation on the ground mainly during the night when the surpase has been cooled by the outgoing radiation. Syphon gauge:

Here the sighton mechanism is used to empty. It is rainwater collected in the float chamber.



Pain water entering the gauge at the top is led into the float chamber through er furner & filter. The purpose of the filter is to prevent dust & other particles from entering other float chamber which may hinder the siphon mechanism.

The float chamber consists of a float with a vertical stem protouding outside, to the top of which a pen is mounted. This pen sests on a chart secured around the clock driven drum. The drum may be made to sevolve once a day, once a week or once in any other drived period.

There is a small compositment by the side of the float chamber which is connected to the float chamber through a small opening at the bottom. This is called riphon chamber which houses a small vie pipe with bottom end open & the top end almost see touching the top of the chamber [During the storm the rain water collected in the float chamber rises the water surjace in it & along with the water surjace true float also rises enabling the pen to make a trace cumulative depth of rainfall on the chart. When the float chamber is completely

filled with water, the pen reaches the top of the chart. At this instant the siphoning occurs automatically through the pipe in the siphon chamber, the float chamber is emptied & the pen is brought to zero on the chart again. The complete siphoning should be over in less than 15 sec of time. This gauge cannot record ppt in the form of other than rain. The float may be damaged if the rainfall catch freezes.

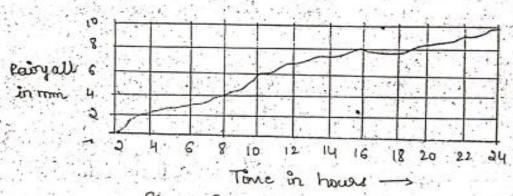
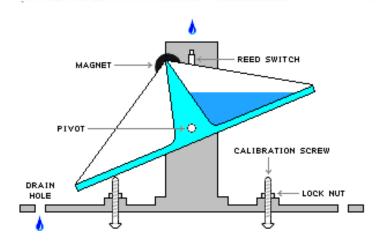


Fig: - Painyall chart from float type PG.

Tipping-Bucket Type

The catch from the funnel falls onto one of a pair of small buckets. These buckets are so balanced that when 0.25 mm of rainfall collects in one bucket, it tips and brings the other one in position. The tipping actuates an electrically driven pen to trace a record on clockwork-driven chart. The record from tipping bucket gives data on the intensity of rainfall. The main advantage of this type of instrument is that it gives an electronic pulse output that can be recorded at a distance from the raingauge.



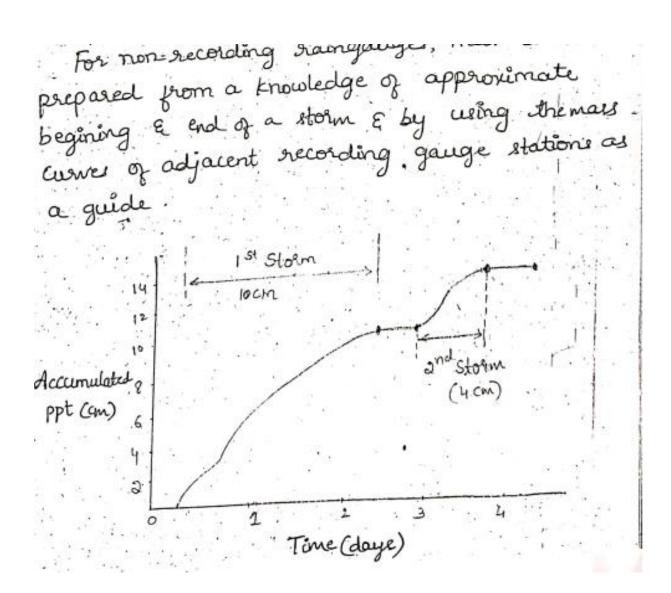
Ans 5 a)

b)

Male aure of rainfall: -

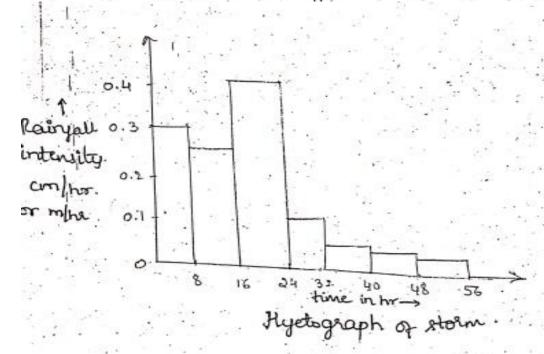
It is plot of the accumulated ppt against time, plotted in chronological order fecords of float type & weighing bucket type gauges are of this join.

Mass curves of rainfall are very useful in extracting the information on the duration & magnitude of a storm Also, intersities at various time intervals in a storm can be obtained by the slope of the curve



Hyetograph:

of rainfall against the time interval. It is derived from the mass curve & is usually superesented as a bar chart. It is very convenient way of representing the characteristics of a storm & is particularly imp in the development



Double Mass curve:

This technique is used to test the consistency of rainfall record at any rainfall station which is suspected to contain certain discrepancies.

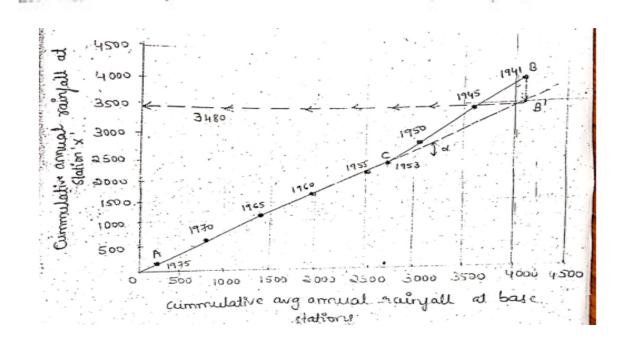
The inconsistances in the rainfull data of a station may be various reasons.

- The trainguige might have been installed at different sites in the past is though there is a long & continuous rainful record, this entire data is not homogeneous with

respect to the present location of gauge.

- have undergone a significant change due to the growth of trees or the construction of tall buildings in the proximity of gauge site.
- There may have been a change in the instrument, say from 125 mm to 200 nm raingauge
- The traingauge may have been faulty for a part of period of record or the method & accuracy of measurement may have been suspected:

A graph is platted blue the cummulative rainfull of the base stations as abscilla & " " of station x as ordinated. The resulting plot is called double mass curve.

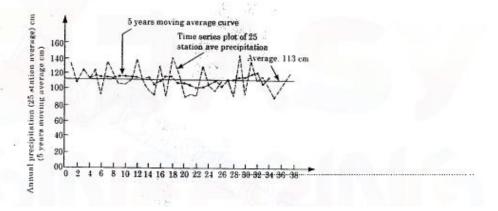


Moving Average

If we plot point rainfall (rainfall collected at raingauge station) with time in chronological order the fluctuations will be large in the time series of rainfall. From this it will be difficult to determine the trend of the rainfall. Thus a moving average plot is made which smoothens out the fluctations in time series and help in determining the trend of rainfall.

To find out moving average, for say 3 yrs., average of rainfall of 1st, 2nd and 3rd yrs is plotted against 2nd yrs. average of 2nd, 3rd and 4th yr is plotted against 3rd yr. and so on.

Similarly for 5 yr moving average, av. of rainfall of 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th yr is plotted against 3rd yr, av. of 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th yr is plotted against 4th yr and so on.



Ans 6

Evaporation

- The process of transformation of liquid water into gaseous form is called evaporation.
- The rate of evaporation is dependent on (i) the vapour pressures at the water surface and air above, (ii) air
 and water temperatures, (iii) wind speed, (iv) atmospheric pressure. (v) quality of water, (vi) depth of water
 body and (vii) shape and size of water body.

Factors affecting evaporation:

Vapour Pressure

The rate of evaporation is proportional to the difference between the saturation vapour pressure (e_{ii}) at the existing water temperature, and the existing actual vapour pressure in the air, e_{ii} .

The relationship is given by:

$$E_L = C(e_w - e_a)$$
 Dalton's law

where. E_L = rate of evaporation (mm/day), C = a constant; and e_u and e_q are in mm of mercury. Evaporation continues till $e_{uc} = e_{u}$; and if $e_{uc} < e_{u}$, condensation takes place.

Temperature

The other factor remaining same, the rate of evaporation increases with an increase in the water temperature.

Wind

 Wind aids in removing the evaporated water vapour from the zone of evaporation hence increase in wind speed increases the scope of evaporation.

Atmospheric Pressure

Other factors like heat input remaining same, a decrease in the barometric pressure, as in high altitudes, increases evaporation.

Water Quality

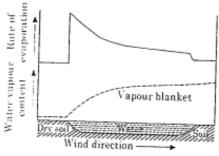
The rate of evaporation from water surfaces exposed to identical climatic conditions may vary according to the quality of water. For example, evaporation decreases by about 1 per cent for every 1 per cent increase in salinity, so that evaporation from sea water with an average salinity of about 3.5 per cent is some 2 to 3 per cent less than evaporation from fresh water at the same temperature.

Depth of Water Body

- For shallow water body seasonal temperature of water matches with that of air above. This means that
 maximum rates of evaporation from a shallow water body will be experienced during the summer months.
 In the case of a large deep water body, however, water temperatures commonly lag behind the temperatures
 of the overlying air.
- During the spring and early summer months considerable depths of water are slowly and gradually warmed
 up by a part of the incoming solar energy which would otherwise be available for evaporation. Subsequently
 the slow release of this stored heat, by the deep water body during the autumn and winter months, means
 that a supply of heat energy in excess of that received directly from the sun is made available for
 evaporation at that time of the year.
- Hence highest rates of evaporation from deep water bodies occurs during the winter. Furthermore, during
 winters, water vapour-laden air will be rapidly lifted away from the underlying water surface as a result
 of convectional activity, encouraged by the temperature gradient, whereas during the summer, the colder
 water will tend to cool and stabilize the air immediately above it and so inhibit the removal of vapour laden

Size and Shape of Water Surface

Air moving across a large lake has a low water vapour content at the upwind edge and evaporation from the lake surface will gradually increase the water vapour content. Thus a vapour blanket is created over the lake, the thickness of which increases in windward direction. There will be decrease in the rate of evaporation as the vapour blanket in contact with water surface increases in thickness. Thus, the larger the lake, the greater will be the total reduction in evaporation.



ii) Normal ratio method:

If the normal annual rainfall at the surrounding gauges diper from the normal annual rainfall of the station in question by more than 10%, the normal ratio method is prejerred in this method the rainfall values at the surrounding station are weighted by the ratio of normal annual rainfall. i.s $P_{z} = \frac{1}{m} \left[\frac{N_{z}}{N_{1}} P_{1} + \frac{N_{z}}{N_{2}} P_{2} + \dots + \frac{N_{x}}{N_{m}} P_{m} \right] (01)$ P= Nx | P1 + P2 + ... + PN | NL

is Arithmetic average method:

4 the normal annual ppl at the adjacent Stations are within 10% of the normal rain-- jall of the station under consideration. Then the missing rainfall data may be utimated as a simple arithemetic average of the rainfully at the adjacent gauges. Thus if the missing Ppt at station x is Px & Pi. P2 Pm are the sainfalls at m son surrounding saingauges Pz = 1 (Pi+Pz+ ... + Pm)

where Nx - Normal armual rainfall at it x

Ni, Ni. Nm are normal " at m surround

- haling gauges resp.

Pi, Pi ... Pm -> storm produced rainfalls.

A minimum of 3 surrounding itations are given

- ally used in this method.

C

iii Irohyetal method:

The most accurate method of computing the and depth of rainfall is the inohyteal method An isohyet may be defined as the line joining points of equal rainfall. In other words all the places along an isohyet experience the same amount of rainfall.

The rainfull amounts recorded by each station are indicated at the station locations. The isohyets are then drawn on the same map.

First the points of a required isohyets are that drawn on the same map. located by linear interpolation blu the adjacent gauges. Then blu the points thus located, the isohyet are jaired by eye to produce smooth curves giving reasonable consideration to the evidence of nearby gauges not involved in the interpolation.

New isohyets have to be made for each rainfall event.

$$P_m = (\Sigma P_{ij} A_{ij})/A$$

 P_m is the average rainfall in the catchment

$$P_{ij} = (P_i + P_j)/2$$

 \boldsymbol{A}_{ij} is the area between two successive isohytes \boldsymbol{P}_i and \boldsymbol{P}_j

A is the total area of the catchment.

