1. Hydrology is the science which deals with the occurrence, circulation and distribution of water on the earth's surface and its atmosphere. Engineering representation of hydrologic cycle:

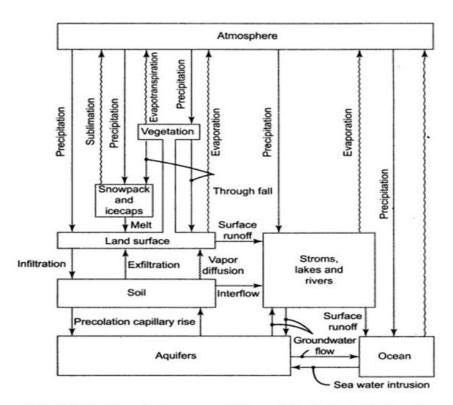


Fig. 1.1 Engineering representation of the hydrological cycle

Types of precipitation.

(1) Convectional Precipitation.

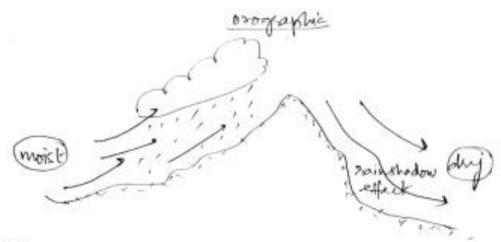
- * In this type, a packet of air which is warmer man the surrounding air due to localised water griscs because of its lesses density. For from cooler surroundings flows to take up toma its place, thus setting up a convective cell.
- * The warm air continues to rise, undergoes cooling & results in precipitation.
- * Vinally the areal extent of such rains is small, being limited to a diameter of



(2) Orographic precipitation

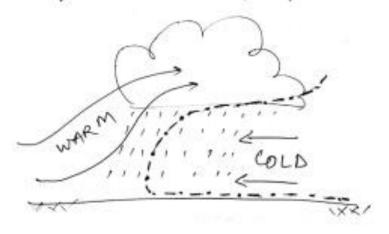
- The moist air masses may get lifted-up to highest allitudes due to the presence of mountain barriers and ensequently undergo cording, condensation of precipitation. Such precipitation is known as olographic precip.
- of the in montain ranges, windward dopes have heavy precipitation and leavers slopes light rainfull

2. Precipitation types:



(3) Frontal precipitation:

- * A front is the interface between two distinct air masses. Hodge
- If Under certain formulable conditions when warm air mass of cold air wass meet, the warmer air mass is lifted over the colder one with formation of a font.
 - * The according warmer air cools adiabatically with reapports to consequent formation of clouds and precipitation.



Natural Syphono type rainguage

- of it is a recording rainguage, also known as "float-type" rainguage.
- I The rainfull collected by a fund-shaped collector is led into a float chamber causing float to rise. As the float rises, a pen attached to the float through a lever system records the elevation of the float on a rotating dum driven by a clock-work mechanism.
- to A supphon' assurgement emphies the float chamber when the float has reached a pre-set max. lead

Scanned by CamScanner

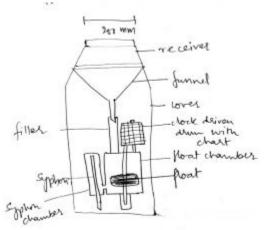
* This type of saingnage is adopted as the standard recording type raingnage in India.

is shown: at most owner. It is developed into a mass curve.



hrs -

Siphon rain guage:



Factors affecting evaporation:
Rate of evaporation is dependent on: Eigroportional to difference by caturation rapour presence at the water temperature, ew and the actual vapour presence in the air, ea. (1) rapour pressure EL = C (en-en) Daton's low of enaporation of the Eraposation continues till en > la. Thereastern (2) Temperature Fr & Temperature of water. or temperature of air. (3) wind * wind aids in removing evaporated water vapores from zone of evaporation, consequently increasing ecope of evaporation. * No further increase in Ex if wind relocity is large enough to remove all vapour. (4) Atmospheric pressure A decrease in barometric pressure, as in high altitudes, increases EL. (5) soluble salts when solute is dissolved vapour pressure of solution is less than pure liquid, Henre reduction in EL. (6) heat storage in water bodies * Deep water bodies have more heat storage that shallow mes. # A deep lake way store more radiation energy seceived in cumus, and release it in winter causing less erappration in summer & more evapolation in whiteh, computed to a shallow lake.

For a given lake, pan evaporation is measured using either Class-A pan, ISI std. pan or collorado sunken pan, by installing it near the lake.

Lake evaporation = pan evaporation ×pan coefficient

3.

4. Measurement of evapotranspiration:

LYSIMETERS

A lysimeter is a special watertight tank containing a block of soil and set in a field of growing plants. The plants grown in the lysimeter are the same as in the surrounding field. Evapotranspiration is estimated in terms of the amount of water required to maintain constant moisture conditions within the tank measured either volumetric ally or gravimetrically through an arrangement made in the lysimeter. Lysimeters should be designed to accurately reproduce the soil conditions, moisture content, type and size of the vegetation of the surrounding area. They should be so buried that the soil is at the same level inside and outside the container. Lysimeter studies are time-consuming and expensive.

FIELD PLOTS

In special plots all the elements of the water budget in a known interval of time are measured and the evapotranspiration determined as

Evapotranspiration = [precipitation + irrigation input - runoff - increase in soil storage groundwater loss]

Measurements are usually confined to precipitation, irrigation input, surface runoff and soil moisture. Groundwater loss due to deep percolation is difficult to measure and can be minimised by keeping the moisture condition of the plot at the field capacity. This method provides fairly reliable results.

Difference between AET and PET:

- If sufficient moisture is always available to completely meet the needs of vegetation fully covering the area, the resulting evapotranspiration is called potential evapotranspiration or PET.
- PET doesn't critically depend on soil and plant factors but depends essentially on meteorological conditions.
- The real evapotranspiration occurring in a specific situation is called actual evapotranspiration. It depends on soil, plant and other factors alongwith the meteorological factors.
- 5. Existing no. of rain-guages = 5

Optimum no. of rain-guages= $N = (C_v/E)^2$

Additional no. of rain gauges = Optimum no. – existing no. of rain gauges

$$C_v = (\sigma/\mu) \times 100$$

 μ =mean= 56.8, n= no. of observations

$$\sigma = V(\Sigma(x_i - \mu)^2/n - 1) = 18.95$$

 $C_v = (\sigma/\mu) \times 100 = (18.95/56.8) \times 100 = 33.37$

N= $(C_v/E)^2$ =(33.37/10)²=11.13 or 12 stations

Additional no. = 12-5=7

6. 10% of NX= 75.7

Nx-Na=69

Nx-Nb=139

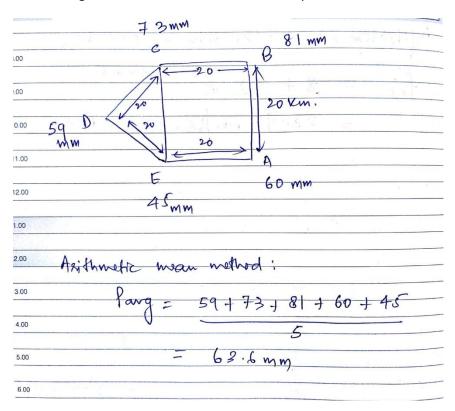
Nx-Nc=275

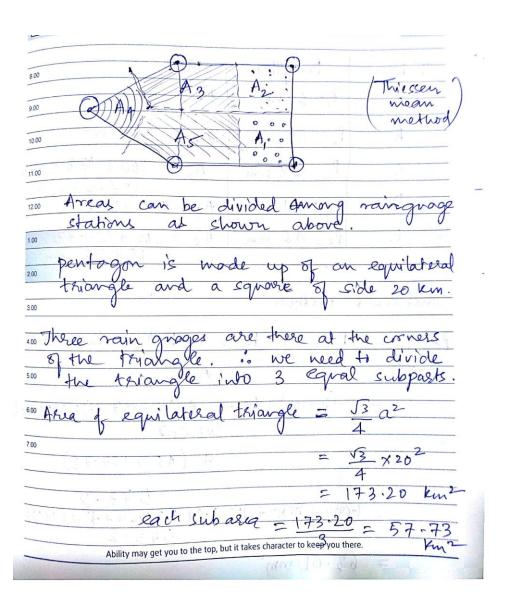
Since the majority of differences between normal rainfalls of station X and other stations don't lie within 10% of Nx, we will use normal ratio method.

$$Px/Nx = (1/m)((Pa/Na)+(Pb/Nb)+(Pc/Nc))$$
 where m=3

Thus, Px=71.198 mm

7. The diagram of the catchment can be developed as under:





8.0Stations.	Precipitation	area .
9.00 A	P1= 60 mm	A1 = 100 km²
10.00	P2= 81 mm	A2 = 100 Km2
11.00 C	P3 = 73 mm	A3 = 160 + 673 57
12.00	P4 = 59 mm	44 = 57.73 Km
1.00 €	Ps= 45 mm	As = 150 + 57.73 = 157.73 Km ²
2.00	W. Joseph D	= 157.73 km²
Parg =	P, A, + P2 A	A P3 A3 + P4 A4 + P3
6.00	(60×150)+(81.	×150) + (73 × 157 73)+(59*
7.00	V	50-802
4000		+ (45 × 157.73)
200		
4 J. Co.	,	573.9
	000 + 8100 + 115	
	000 + 8100 + 115	573·2 514·29+3406·07+7097 573·2

EXAMPLE 3.9 The infiltration capacity of soil in a small watershed was found to be 6 cm/h before a rainfall event. It was found to be 1.2 cm/h at the end of 8 hours of storm. If the total infiltration during the 8 hours period of storm was 15 cm, estimate the value of the decay coefficient K_h in Horton's infiltration capacity equation.

SOLUTION: Horton's equation is
$$f_p = f_c + (f_0 - f_c) e^{-K_h t}$$

$$F_p = \int_0^t f_p(t) dt = f_c t + (f_0 - f_c) \int_0^t e^{-K_h t} dt$$

As
$$t \to \infty$$
, $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-K_h t} dt \to \frac{1}{K_h}$. Hence for large t values

$$F_p = f_c t + \frac{(f_0 - f_c)}{K_h}$$

Here
$$F_p = 15.0$$
 cm, $f_0 = 6.0$ cm, $f_c = 1.2$ cm and $t = 8$ hours.

$$15.0 = (1.2 \times 8) + (6.0 - 1.2)/K_h$$

$$K_h = 4.8/5.4 = 0.888 \text{ h}^{-1}$$

8.