A GEOMORPHOLOGIC APPROACH FOR DETERMINING FLOOD - FREQUENCIES IN THE SOUTHERN YUKON

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A GEOMORPHOLOGIC APPROACH FOR DETERMINING FLOOD FREQUENCIES IN THE SOUTHERN YUKON

BY

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

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For Tony and Hellen

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the fluvial geomorphology of the southern Yukon with the intent of deriving a flood model which can be used to predict floods in this sub-arctic region. Thirty-six watersheds were chosen for investigation. Initially, a large variable set describing watershed geomorphology and climate was compiled. The selection of these variables was based on intuition and their success in other flood studies. In addition, flood-frequency analyses of the streams' historic streamflow records yielded values of their mean annual floods and their two, five, ten and twenty year floods. With the aid of a statistical multiple regression technique, a set of equations was derived that related flood discharges for different return periods to the variables describing watershed climate and geomorphology. These equations are:

0.85 0.76 1.38 0.26 = 0.0044 TCHL PRECIP NASP HYPI QMA 0.12 4.75 TCHL PRECIP 020/ QMA 0.08 PRECIP 3.86 TCHL Q10/ QMA 0.04 PRECIP 2.32 TCHL Q5 / QMA 0.06 -0.01PRECIP 0.78 TCHL Q2 / QMA =QMA = Mean Annual Flood Where: Q20 = Twenty Year Flood Q10 = Ten Year Flood Q5 = Five Year Flood Q2 = Two Year Flood TCHL = Total Channel Length PRECIP = Mean Annual Precipitation NASP = Normalized Aspect

The above equations form a simple flood model which can be easily applied to ungauged streams in southern Yukon.

HYPI = Hypsometric Integral

The significance of the variables total channel length, mean annual precipitation, normalized aspect and

the hypsometric integral to the hydrology of southern Yukon are discussed. The reasons advanced for the importance of these variables to northern hydrology are: total channel length measures watershed size and the rapidity of streamflow response to water inputs; mean annual precipitation measures the amount of water input available for runoff; normalized aspect measures the north-south orientation of a watershed and is accounting for local differences in precipitation and snowmelt in mountainous terrain; and hypsometric integral measures the potential energy available to a watershed's runoff response processes.

The overall framework of the flood model is conceptually acceptable and its successfull application to a test watershed (Dale Creek) augurs well for its operational use in the southern Yukon.

1 INTRODUCTION

If resource development in Yukon Territory is to proceed in concert with optimum conservation of the natural environment, then the potential impact which specific ventures (e.g. placer mining), will have on their immediate surroundings must be studied. If not, unforeseen consequences of development could result in ecological disasters, which would be magnified by the fragile nature of the northern environment. An integral part of any such impact study is the assessment of the region's waters in terms of both quality and quantity. Where high streamflows are concerned, a long history of recorded flows is the primary requirement necessary to ensure adequate protection of life and environment. In the North a history of recorded

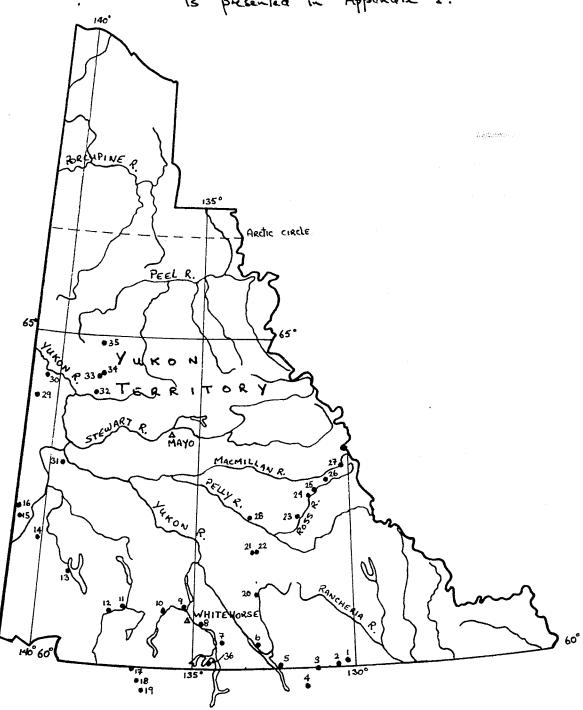
flows is rarely available and, therefore, some other means of evaluating flood potential must be found. This thesis investigates the fluvial geomorphology of the southern Yukon with the intent of deriving a flood model which can be simply, and easily applied to the streams of this sub-arctic region.

The region chosen for study is the entire drainage area of the Yukon River, upstream of its crossing at the Alaska - Yukon border. Also included are the following headwater drainages of the Mackenzie River system viz.: Big Creek, Spencer Creek and Freer Creek which are tributaries of the Rancheria River in southeastern Yukon; Unnamed Creek a tributary of the Peel River in west-central Yukon; and Dale Creek a tributary of the Tsichu River in west-central N.W.T.. A rough description of this region is that part of Yukon Territory lying south of the sixty-fifth parallel, herein refered to as the southern Yukon, and encompassing an area of aproximately 200,000 square kilometers (Fig.1.1).

In all, a total of thirty-six streams, with catchment areas ranging in size from 10 to 250 square kilometers, were included in this study. The selection of the streams for the study was based on two criteria: (1) that each stream havea minimum of four years of recorded streamflows; and (2) topographic map coverage at the 1:50,000 scale. The 1:50,000 scale was deemed necessary to

Fig. 1.1 Map of Study AREA: SOUTHERN YUKON

A numbered listing of the study steering is presented in Appendix 1.



accurately measure the relevant parameters describing watershed morphometry.

Chapter 2 presents a brief review of the methods used to predict floods on ungauged streams, concentrating on the methods predominating in northern hydrologic investigations. The choice of the morphometric and climatic indices used to characterize a watershed in this study, their methods of measurement, and their relative importance based on other flood studies are described in Chapter 3. In Section 3.4, a correlation analysis is used to investigate for redundancy among the morphometric indices. In Chapter 4, flood frequency analysis of the study streams provide estimates of their mean annual flood and the largest floods expected in two, five, ten and twenty years. In Chapter 5, the significant physiographic and climatic variables are related to the flood levels by a stepwise regression technique in an effort to derive predictive equations which can be applied to remote streams.

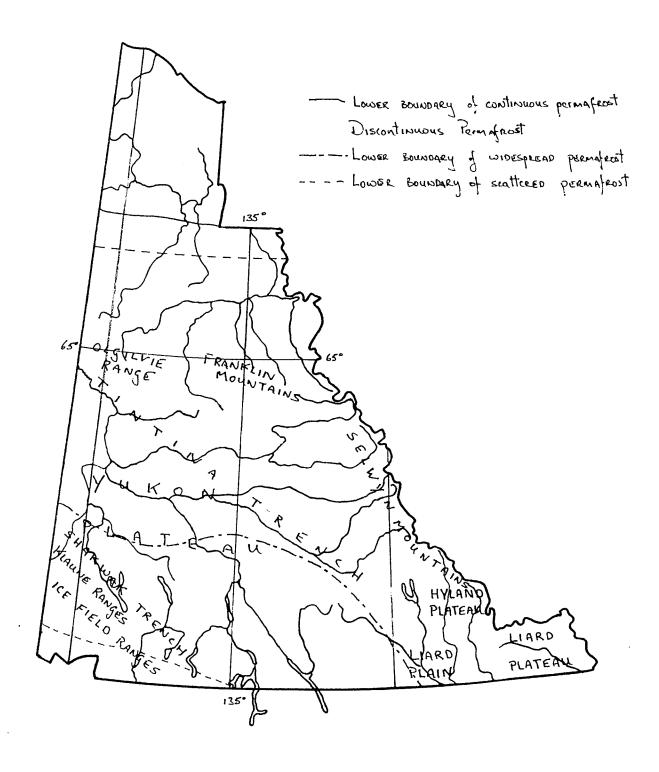
1.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA; SOUTHERN YUKON

Southern Yukon Territory has a diverse physiography. The Yukon Plateau, a physiographic unit of the Cordillera described by Bostock (1948,& 1970) comprises most of the study area. This plateau has a varied topography — generally less than 1,800 meters elevation —

interrupted by individual mountains, plus large persistent valleys. The most impressive of these are the Tintina and Shakwak Trenches which trend northwest for distances of over 500 kilometers, and whose widths range from 1 to 25 kilometers, with floors of uniform elevation. The plateau is bounded on the north and east by the Ogilvie, Wernecke and Selwyn Mountains, and on the southwest by the St. Elias Mountains and the Kluane and Boundary Ranges (Fig 1.1).

The effects of glaciation, both continental and alpine, can be seen in the physiography and surficial geology of much of the southern Yukon. The limits of glaciation during the Pleistocene are shown in Figure 1.2. There is a definite contrast in surface features and sediments between the areas covered by glacial ice and the unglaciated areas in the northwest of the study region. Bostock (1970, p.22) succinctly describes both of these areas:

"Large unglaciated areas cover most of northwestern Yukon and give an indication of the character of the plateaux of the Cordillera before Pleistocene glaciation. There the topography is sculptured by the normal processes of sub-aerial erosion at northern latitudes. The classic area is that around Klondike River in Yukon Plateau where relief is 2,000 to 3,000 feet, and the metamorphic rocks are much the same as in the adjoining glaciated areas. The unglaciated plateau area is composed of long ridges spreading from a central divide, separated by closely spaced small creeks that merge into larger streams, the valleys gradually widening. The gradients are even and uninterrupted by rapids and lakes. The valleys are V-shaped with sides flaring upwards and diminishing in steepness until the broad, rounded ridges of the uplands are reached. These may be broken in places by



castle-like outcrops on or near their summits. The general drainage is dendritic among smaller streams, but a few larger streams are straight, following some linear structural feature. Persistent bedrock terraces along many of the larger valleys are mantled by variable thicknesses of gravel, sand, and soil, and follow more gentle gradients than the present streams. In places stream reversal and capture are apparent. Lakes are generally lacking; a few ponds occur due to ice pushing on the valley flats, to damming of the rivers by lava flows; oxbow lakes occur along the larger rivers.

"Glacial ice covered the Cordillera with the exception of the area referred to above and some minor areas. In many ranges only the highest peaks projected above the ice, which left its imprint on the topography as both erosional and depositional features. Conspicuous in the mountains are cirques, aretes, and horns, and along the valley sides ice-margin channels have been cut in bedrock, kame terraces, and moraines. On the valley floors are a host of features mainly formed of surficial materials: pitted till, outwash plains and terraces, drumlin fields, simple and compound eskers, lake terraces and all manner of fluvial-glacial features.

"Great U-shaped valleys furrow the country, most impressive where filled with lakes A belt of long lakes stretches along the western or dry side of the Interior System from Kluane Lake in Yukon Territory to Taseko Lakes in British Columbia. Another zone lies on the eastern side, on the relatively wet western slopes of the mountains from Mayo Lake in the north to Shuswap and Kootenay Lakes in the south."

The climate of the southern Yukon can be described as continental sub-arctic, that is, marked variability day to day and year to year both in temperature and precipitation. Winters are long and cold, and summers are short and cool (Table 1.1). Summer days are long with daylight periods lasting up to 22 hours and temperatures reaching the mid twenties. Table 1.1 presents mean monthly temperatures, and mean monthly precipitation and snowfall for Mayo and Whitehorse.

Table 1.1 Mean monthly temperatures, amounts of precipitation and snowfall and prevailing wind directions for Mayo and Whitehorse.

OYAM

/ :						
	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE
Temperature	-29.0	-19.9	-11.7	-0.4	7.5	13.4
Precipitation	17.5	16.4	10.3	8.6	19.5	35.3
Snowfall	18.7	17.9	10.8	7.5	2.1	O
	JULY	AUG	SEPT	OCT	NOV	DEC
Temperature	15.2	12.6	6.5	-2.3	-15.2	-24.5
Precipitation	51.7	41.5	30.3	28.3	24.4	22.5
Snowfall	O	0.1	2.7	20.7	25.5	24.5

WHITEHORSE

Temperature Precipitation Snowfall	JAN -20.7 17.7 21.3	FEB -13.2 13.3 15.2	MAR -8.2 13.5 16.4	APR 0.3 9.5 10.5	MAY 6.7 12.9 2.9	JUNE 12.0 30.7 0.9
	JULY	AUG	SEPT	OCT	NOV	DEC
Temperature	14.1	12.5	7.5	0.6	-8.8	-16.6
Precipitation	33.9	37.9	30.3	21.5	19.8	20.2
Snowfall	0	0.8	4.5	16.1	23.8	24.2

Š.

Mayo, about 300 kilometers north of Whitehorse, experiences slightly colder winters and warmer summers.

Mayo is wetter, although Whitehorse receives slightly more snowfall in the spring.

Southern Yukon Territory lies within the discontinuous permafrost zone (Fig. 1.2). Many factors, other than climate, affect the distribution of permafrost within the discontinuous zone (e.g., elevation, aspect, vegetation cover, physical properties of sediments, winter snow cover, surface water and groundwater). Along the southern border of Yukon Territory permafrost consists of small isolated patches a few meters to tens of meters thick, but becomes more widespread and thicker northwards as mean annual temperature decreases (Brown, 1974; and Hughes, 1974). Perennially frozen ground has a variety of effects on the region's streams. These include: increasing the propostion of surface flow to total runoff; retarding bank erosion in the spring, a period of high streamflows; and adding to the relative importance of block slumping as a channel forming process.

Treeline generally extends to 1200 metres elevation throughout the region, although this can vary markedly depending on local climate, steepness of slopes, aspect, etc.. The vegetation is similar in type to that in the interior of British Columbia. Summarizing a study of the vegetation and soil complexes along reaches of the

Pelly, Ross, Teslin, and Liard Rivers, Lavkulich (1973,p.108) reported that:

"Throughout each of the river reaches it can be seen that the dominant vegetation on the unstable portions of the river consists mainly of willow, balsam poplar, and whitespruce, whereas more stable areas contain black spruce, aspen, and lodgepole pine. Also on the more stable sections of the river reach, the major soil developed is a Brunisol or Podzol depending on type of material, whereas on the unstable sections a Regosol tends to be dominant."

The flow regime of the streams is characterized by an annual spring flood induced by snowmelt, followed by progressively declining summer streamflows which are punctuated by occasional rain-storm floods. Although the latter floods may be very severe, the spring freshet is generally the major hydrological event of the year. By late autumn streamflow has declined to a very low level and on most small streams has ceased entirely. Groundwater flow continues in many locations throughout the winter forming icings where the water surfaces. Along the streams, in regions that sustain a deep winter snowpack, icings are ecologically significant. They support the overwintering of wildlife by providing relatively snowfree corridors which facilitates foraging on the riparian vegetation (Gill and Kershaw, 1979). Another aspect of the hydrology of these streams is the marked diurnal fluctuations in streamflows during the spring and early summer, due to diurnal fluctations in the rate of snowmelt.

2 REVIEW OF TECHNIQUES OF FLOOD PREDICTION

Preparatory to this investigation, a brief review of the methods of flood prediction is presented. This review, where possible, will concentrate by way of examples on those methods used in northern Canada and Alaska. Most flood prediction techniques are controversial simply because they attempt to anticipate nature. This controversy is magnified when these techniques are applied to remote regions, where the adequate base line data needed for model verification are rarely available. Under this circumstance it is best to apply all reasonable methods to the problem on hand given the economic constraints of the situation. Although this may not decrease the uncertainty of a

decision, it would certainly provide a greater insight into the range of floods that may be expected.

2.1 EARLY FLOOD FORMULAE

The first formulae proposed for the prediction of floods were of necessity both simple and general in nature, because of a lack of flood data. The equation, $Q = C A^{n}$, is a good example of these early formulae where: Q is flood discharge; A is drainage basin area; C is a runoff coefficient; and n a constant. The values of the constants C, and n, being based on a regional judgement. This type of formula was easily derived by plotting the maximum floods on record for the streams of a region against their drainage areas on logarithm paper. A line was then drawn that averages, or envelops, the plotted points, this line having the above general equation where n is the slope and C an intercept. However, the exact significance of the flood event predicted remained in doubt, since there was not a return period or frequency factor associated with it. Examples of the above formulae can be found in most highway and railroad design manuals.

2.2 PHYSICALLY BASED MODELS

Some of the earlier empirical formulae included parameters that measured precipitation and perhaps the most successful of these was the rational formula:

 $Q = C i A \qquad \dots (2.1)$

where, Q = flood discharge.

i = rainfall intensity.

A = drainage area.

C = runoff coefficient.

The rational formula was based on the premise that if a uniform rainfall of intensity i fell on an impervious watershed of size A, then flood discharge (Q) would increase until all portions of the drainage basin were contributing to runoff, whereupon, streamflow would become constant. A point of note here, is the definition for the time of concentration of a drainage basin, i.e. the time required for discharge to become constant, or for runoff from the most distant part of the watershed to reach the outlet.

Actual runoff is far more complicated than the rational formula indicates. Rainfall intensity is seldom the same over an area of appreciable size or for any substantial period of time during the same storm. If a uniform intensity of rainfall, having a duration equal to the time of concentration were to occur on all parts of the basin, the rate of runoff would vary in any case because of differences in physiography, surficial geology and antecedent moisture conditions. These limitations have resulted in a consensus of opinion among hydrologists that the rational formula should be restricted to use on small basins less than one square kilometer in size (Dalrymple, 1964).

Church (1971), in a study of the streams along the route of the Mackenzie Valley Pipeline, attempted to overcome this restriction to the use of the rational formula by weighting the coefficient C, according to basin area:

$$C = 2(7.413 - \log A)$$
(2.2)

However, Church cautioned that the procedure overestimated floods for basins of moderate size and underestimated them... for some large basins, but at most by a factor of two.

The Water Resources Division, Indian and Northern Affairs, Whitehorse, currently employs a computer model based on the rational formula but modified by kinematic wave theory. Developed by Eagleson (1970) and applied to the Yukon by Howard and Associates (1974), essentially what this flood model does is derive a solution for the modified rational equation:

$$Q = 645 A Ar i$$
(2.3)

An explanation of the calculus of the kinematic wave model is given in Appendix A.

Implicit in the solution of the kinematic wave model are the assumptions that: storm duration equals or exceeds a basin's time of concentration and that storm

duration and rainfall intensity are independent of each other. Both of these assumptions are contrary to hydrologic theory and practise. Many large floods are caused by short high intensity rain storms. Considering the causes of precipitation (frontal and non-frontal cyclonic cooling, prographic cooling, and convective cooling) there is definitely a correlation between rainfall intensity and duration. For example, Eagleson (1970) states:

"Nonfrontal cyclonic precipitation of extratropical origin produces rains (or snows) of moderate intensities but of fairly long duration....(p. 160)

"Cyclonic cooling of the frontal variety.....When the front is a warm front,...the lifting and cooling of the air is gradual thus producing moderate rainfall rates, often of quite long duration....(p. 160).
"If the front is a cold front....the resulting weather may be tumultuous, with short-duration pelting rains and high winds (p. 161).

When moist winds blow upslope, the air will expand and cool at the lower presure corresponding to the higher elevations.....Of particular interest is what is known as the 'rain shadow' or deficiency in rainfall which may occur on the lee side of the slope because of a removal of most of the moisture by high mountains (p.161).

"Convective precipitation is of very short duration, seldom more than 1 hr, but the intensities are so high that total precipitation may amount to 3 to 4 in."(p. 161).

Aside from these criticisms, the kinematic wave model still cannot escape the limitations of the rational formula and therefore, predictions from this model should be treated with the utmost of caution.

2.2 STATISTICALLY BASED MODELS

Perhaps the most promising methods of assessing the flood potential on a remote stream are those utilizing statistics. Not only does statistics provide a means of reducing a mass of data to a few meaningful parameters, but it also offers versatility in the approach chosen for analysis. Given an array of floods, the mean or some other measure of central tendency, such as the median or mode can be found. The dispersion of the floods around the mean, the variance, can also be measured. Futhermore, statistics such as the skewness, kurtosis and serial correlation which describe other aspects of the array can be measured . Apart from these individual statistics the distribution of the floods can be modelled by a density function that defines the relative frequency of occurrence of the individual floods. This function can be modified to a cumulative distribution function which yields the probability or the return period for a flood.

The oldest, and still a widely prevalent, statistical technique is the index flood method which analyzes the historic flood record for all the streams of a homogenous region. Statistical tests, which test for an expected range in flood ratios (i.e., the ten year return period flood divided by the mean annual flood), are used to determine the homogeneity of a hydrologic region. Usually

this analysis involves annual maximum floods. For each stream in a region the annual floods are ranked in terms of magnitude, and return periods assigned from one of the many formulae which are available. These data are then plotted on suitable graph paper from which representative floods are extracted - commonly the mean annual flood, and the five, ten, twenty, fifty, and one hundred year return period floods. These representative floods are then standardized by division by a standard measure, either the basin's mean annual flood or drainage area. The regional mean for each stadardized return period flood is calculated, which when plotted on logarithm paper yields the regional flood frequency curve. All that is then needed for the application of the curve to a remote watershed is the value of the standard measure. This method is somewhat rigid in application, in that it does not allow for local variations which may occur because of differences in climate, physiography and geology. Today, sets of regional flood frequency curves can be found for many regions of the world; e.g., Berwick, Childers and Kuentzel (1964); and Dalrymple (1960).

A statistical regression analysis offers a more powerful approach than the index flood method, in that it can account for local differences in hydrologic regime. By relating a dependent variable to one or more independent variables, a regression analysis explains the variation in

the dependent variable in terms of the other variables and permits predictions of the dependent variable when the independent variables are known (Benson, 1962a). Generally, there are two forms of the regression method employed in hydrology, the difference lying in the choice of the independent variables. The first method utilizes variables describing climate and stream channel dimensions, while the second uses climate coupled with drainage basin characteristics. Each of these methods usually derives a series of equations relating specific flood levels to the independent variables.

Initiated by the early work of Leopold and Maddock (1953), a number of investigators have proposed sets of regression equations to estimate floods at ungauged drainage basins from channel geometry measurements. Hedman (1970) and Fields (1975) used measurements based on channel depositional features such as longitudinal and point bars. Scott and Kunckler (1976) and Hedman and Kastner (1977) used measurements at the active channel level, while Emmett (1972 & 1975), Riggs (1974), Lowham (1976), Riggs and Harenburg (1972) and Harenburg (1980) used measurements of channel geometry at the bankfull stage. In a recent study Osterkamp and Hedman (1982) classified streams in the Missouri River Basin on the basis of their channel sediments, and related flood levels for the streams in each class to their active channel width and slope in the

following way:

For channels with gravel beds Q2 = 1.9 W^{1.15}

For channels with cobble bed $Q2 = 0.14 \text{ W}^{1.39} \text{ G}^{-0.34}$

where, Q2 = two year flood.

W = active-channel width.

G = channel gradient.

One major drawback of this method of flood modelling is the accurate field determination of the streamflow level from which channel geometry measurements are to be taken. This applies to measurements taken at the active channel level or the bankfull or dominant discharge stage. For Yukon streams it is often difficult to delimit precisely bankfull stage as it is not at all apparent from bank line or vegetation evidence.

Another problem with the channel geometry method concerns the assignment of a return period to floods at the bankfull stage. Questions that are often asked include the following: Do bankfull stage floods have a common return period for the streams within a region? If bankfull floods do not have a common return period, then what factors do control a stream channel's hydraulic geometry? Can these

factors be readily assessed and applied to the measurement of channel geometry for the streams within a region? These questions must be answered if the channel geometry method of flood modelling is to be applied.

Wolman and Leopold (1957) suggested a common return period for bankfull stage discharges of from 1 - 2 years and this was supported by Dury (1973), who showed that for U.S. rivers bankfull stage could be equated with a return period of 1.58 years. Similarly, other researchers have indicated that bankfull floods tend to a common return period (McGilchrist and Woodyer, 1968; Nixon, 1959; Riggs, 1974; and Woodyer, 1968).

On the other hand, Hey (1975) presents data showing that at upstream sites on the River Wye bankfull discharge occurs more frequently than at downstream sites. Kilpatrick and Barnes (1964) also note that variations occur in the frequency of bankfull discharge from stream to stream and suggest that channel slope is the cause for this variation. The greater entrenchment of steep sloped streams as compared with mild sloped streams results in a greater channel capacity for the steep sloped streams and thus bankfull discharges occur less frequently. Kennedy (1972) and Williams (1978) have also noted the variation of return periods for bankfull discharge.

The above debate is well illlustrated by Alberta's rivers.

"The fact that return periods for bankfull flow in Albertan rivers appear to be considerably longer than in most other rivers for which data have been reported is indisputable." (Kellerhals and Church, 1980, p.1131).

However, the cause of this phenomenon has prompted considerable debate between researchers. Smith (1979) reasons that ice-scour activity during spring flooding is the cause of the oversized channels, while Kellerhals and Church suggest that relatively recent entrenchment of some large Albertan rivers may be the cause. They also note that flood stages due to ice jams and over bottom-fast ice are ignored in flood frequency calculations, but if they were included, these high stages would lower the return period of the bankfull stage.

For Yukon streams it would be an oversimplification to assume a constant return period for bankfull flows. Considering the importance of other processes which affect a stream channel's hydraulic geometry in the North (e.g. freeze up activity, snowmelt flooding and the presence of permafrost.), it is doubtful whether the return period assigned to bankfull discharges in more temperate regions is applicable here. Certainly, the mean return period for bankfull discharge on Yukon streams may approximate two years. However, when applying the channel geometry method of flood-frequency estimation to Yukon streams the range, or variation, of bankfull returns around the mean bankfull return period must also be

known. Otherwise the unilateral application of a mean bankfull discharge return period could result in the overestimation, or underestimation of an ungauged stream's flood-frequency relationship. Not only is this because of the diverse physiography and climate of the region, but it is also because of the many variations in channel hydraulic geometry which occur along a stream.

A similar, but flexible method of flood prediction uses watershed morphologic and climatic characteristics, measured from base maps, in a regression analysis. Benson (1962a) suggested that this method had a great potential for application to remote areas. Since an early study by Benson (1962b), numerous studies have adopted this technique and the following is a brief, but by no meams complete, account of these flood studies. Instead of presenting the complete equation sets for each study, only the equations derived for the mean annual or two year flood are shown.

Benson (1962b) in a study of New England watersheds derived the following equation:

$$Q_{ma} = 3.4 A^{1.0} S^{0.35} St^{-0.28} T^{0.35}$$

$$0^{0.85} \dots (2.11)$$

where, Qma = mean annual flood.
 A = drainage area.
 S = stream slope.
 St = a storage index.
 T = mean number of degrees below zero.
 O = an orographic factor.

The Natural Environmental Research Council (1975) in the most extensive flood studies to date, encompassing earlier work by Cole (1966), Nash and Shaw (1966), and Rodda (1967), derived the following regression equations for the British Isles:

 $Q_{\text{ma}} = C \text{ AREA}^{0.95} \text{ STMFRQ}^{0.27} \text{ S1085}^{0.16} \text{ S0IL}^{1.23}$ $\text{RSMD}^{1.03} \text{ (1+LAKE)}^{-0.85} \qquad \dots \text{ (2.12)}$

The constant C depending on the region. For:

0.0186
0.0153
0.0234
0.0315
0.0213
0.0172

and for the Thames, Lee, and Essex areas the appropriate equation is:

Qma = 0.302 AREA
$$^{0.70}$$
 STMFRQ $^{0.52}$ (1+URBAN) $^{2.5}$ (2.13)

where, Qma = mean annual flood.
 AREA = drainage area.
 STMFRQ = stream frequency.
 S1085 = slope.
 SOIL = a soil index.
 RSMD = rainfall minus soil moisture deficit.
 LAKE = percentage area of lakes.
 URBAN = percentage of urban areas.

The Inland Waters Directorate (1978) for the rivers of southern Yukon Territory derived the following equation:

Qma = 0.28
$$A^{0.82}$$
 ELEV3.13 $ALS^{-0.18}$ $AGL^{0.25}$
BHNW^{0.82} SENW^{-1.87} SEW^{-0.50}(2.14)

where, Qma = mean annual flood.

A = drainage area.

ELEV = elevation of the watershed.

ALSW = percentage area of lakes and swamps.

AGL = percentage area of glaciers.

BHNW = barrier height northwest.

SENW = shield effect to the northwest.

SEW = shield effect to the west.

Lamke (1979) in a flood study of Alaskan streams south of the Yukon River derived sets of equations for two distinct hydrologic regions. The equation for Region 1, is:

 $Q2 = 11.76 \text{ A}^{0.80} \text{ p}^{0.52} \text{ (T+1)}^{0.19}$

 $(St+1)^{-0.26}$

....(2.15)

where, Q2 = the flood with a two year return period.

A = drainage area.

P = mean annual precipitation.

T = mean minimum January temperature.

St = pecentage area of lakes and swamps.

Leith (1976) in a study of British Columbia watersheds derived the following equation:

 $Q_{ma}/A = 10.4 + 0.32 \text{ NPOSI} - 0.0017 \text{ ELEV} - 0.0013 DSNW$

- 0.06 RAFOR + 0.91 RASWP + 0.000076 SEW ..(2.16)

where, Qma = mean annual flood.

NPOSI = the grid coordinate, similar to longitude.

ELEV = elevation.

DSNW = distance to the sea in the northwest.

RAFOR = percentage of forest.

RASWP = percentage of swamp.

SEW = shield effect to the east.

Thackur and Lindeijer (1973, & 1974) derived two equations for Mackenzie River tributary basins. For watersheds with drainage areas less than ten thousand square miles:

 $Q_{\text{ma}} = 0.00007 \text{ DA} + 0.00026 \text{ MEE} -0.94 \text{ RL} + 2.04(2.17)$ and for watersheds greater than ten thouasand square miles:

 $Q_{ma} = 0.00048 \text{ MEE} + 1.37 \text{ RL} -0.054 \text{ HYI} +4.78....(2.18)$

where, Qma = mean annual flood.

DA = drainage area.

MEE = mean elevation.

RL = length ratio.

HYI = hypsometric integral.

The above investigations and the many more published studies not included here, emphasize the potential ascribed to this type of modeling technique for the prediction of flood levels on ungauged streams. The variety of independent variables used in the regression models are also of note — their choice being governed by individual intuition and availability of source material. The selection of the independent variables for this investigation is the topic of the next chapter.

APPENDIX A

THE KINEMATIC WAVE MODEL

The Water Resources Division, Indian and Northern Affairs, Whitehorse, currently employs a computer model based on the rational formula but modified by kinematic wave theory. Developed by Eagleson (1970) and applied to the Yukon by Howard and Associates (1974), essentially what this flood model does is derive a solution for the modified rational equation:

Q = 645 A Ar i(2.3)

Where the mathematics become rigorous is in the assignment of a return period to the computed flow. This is achieved by the use of a probability function P(Q) i.e. the product of two exponential distributions describing storm duration and rainfall intensity. It is assumed that duration and intensity are independent events.

The probability density function for intensity f(i), is given by:

$$f(i) = be^{-bi}$$
(2.4)

where, b = 1/average storm intensity.

The probability density function for duration f(t), is given by

$$f(t) = 1e^{-1t}$$
(2.5)

where, l = 1/average storm duration.

The integral of the product of these two functions yields the probability of events of duration greater than t, and intensity greater than i:

$$P(Q) = 1 b \int_{i}^{\infty} \int_{t}^{\infty} e^{-1t - bi} dt di$$
(2.6)

The lower limits of integration indicate the conditions of minimum duration and intensity. The condition for minimum intensity is the peak flood discharge divided by contributing area. The time of concentration (tw) for the watershed is the condition for minimum storm duration. Substituting these lower limits into equation 2.7 yields:

$$P(Q) = 1 b \int_{Q/645 \, \text{Ar}}^{\infty} \int_{t_{\omega}}^{\infty} e^{-1t - bi} dt di \qquad \dots (2.7)$$

From kinematic wave theory the time of concentration for the watershed tw, can be expressed as the sum of the time of concentration for the catchment tc, and the time of concentration for the stream ts, these two components having the following solutions:

$$0.5$$
 0.33
 $tw = tc + ts = (a/i) + (b/i)$ (2.8)

where a is the catchment coefficient:

 $a = \{0.919 \text{ Nc Ar Ac}\}/\{\text{Sc}^{0.5} \text{ L}\};$

and b is the stream coefficient:

 $b = \{0.130 \text{ P Ns}^2\} / \{\text{Ss Ar Ac}\}.$

where, Nc = the Manning's n for the catchment.

Ns = the Manning's n for the stream.

L = the length of the stream.

Sc = the slope of the catchment.

Ss = the slope of the stream.

and 0.914 and 0.130 are conversion factors.

Thus the double integral reduces to:

$$P(Q) = 1 b \begin{cases} \infty & 0.5 & 0.33 \\ e^{[-1]((a/i))} + (b/i) & 3-bildi ...(2.9) \end{cases}$$

$$\sqrt{645} A_{i}$$

which can be solved empirically.

Knowing the number of storms per year, St, and the runoff coefficients, Ra and Re, which account for antecedent moisture conditions and losses to evapotranspiration respectively, the return period T, in years can be calculated from:

$$T = 1/\{P(Q) \text{ St Ra Re}\}$$
(2.10)

3 WATERSHED CHARACTERISTICS

Many variables describing significant elements of watershed morphometry have been proposed in fluvial geomorphologic studies. A variety of purposes, scales and environments of individual investigations have governed the choice of a particular morphologic variable set (e.g. Benson, 1962b; Carlston, 1963; I.W.D., 1978; Lambke, 1978; Leith, 1976; Nash and Shaw, 1966; N.E.R.C., 1975; Rodda, 1969; Thomas and Benson, 1970; and Thaker and Lindeijer, 1973). These studies have shown that clear relationships exist between watershed morphometry and streamflow. However, the exact significance of individual measures remains in some doubt. One reason for this may be the disproportionate effect a morphometric variable has under

various flow conditions i.e. a variable may exercise an influence over high flows but not over mean or low flows.

Gray (1965) distinguishes five general factors which have been successfully applied in statistical streamflow studies: Size and shape of the drainage basin; density and distribution of the channel network; general land slope; size, slope and condition of the stream channels; and surface storage. These categories acted as a guideline in the selection of the morphometric variables for this study. The choice of a variable was based both on theory and on its success as a flood predictor in previous studies. Another reason for the inclusion of a morphometric variable was its ease of measurement from widely available reference material.

3.1 MORPHOMETRY

The morphometric data were derived from 1:50,000 scale National Topographic System mapsheets; this scale being the largest scale available with coverage of the instrumented drainage basins. The perimeter of each basin was outlined and the latitude and longitude of the basin mouth recorded. The mouth of the drainage basin was defined by the location of the gauging station. The following is a listing of the morphometric variables which were selected for analysis. The description of an individual variable includes: the variable's name and abbreviation; the unit of

measure; where it was used previously; and the method of measurement or derivation.

3.1a Watershed location

The latitude (LAT) and longitude (LONG) at the mouth of the drainage basin serve to locate the position of the watershed. Both of these variables were measured to the nearest one hundredth of a degree to facilitate computer manipulation. Thakur and Lindeijer (1974, p.355) used longitude and latitude as variables in a flood regression analysis of Mackenzie River tributaries and on the basis of the significance of longitude in the analysis concluded that:

"On an equivalent area basin, the flood magnitudes of east side Mackenzie tributaries appear to be lower than those on the west side, making the eastern side of the Mackenzie a safer route for pipelines."

The elevation (ELEV in meters asl.) at the basin mouth serves to locate the vertical position of the watershed. The elevation at the basin mouth is not the only measure of the vertical location of a drainage basin.

Another variable which describes the distribution of drainage basin area around a basin's mean altitude, the hypsometric coefficient (described later on in this chapter), is also included in this study. When considered together these two variables were thought to adequately describe the vertical position of a watershed.

3.1b Watershed_size

The area of the drainage basin (AREA in sq. kilometers) is perhaps the physiographic characteristic most widely applied in flood studies. A simple relation between area (A) and an index of streamflow (Q) has been employed for the prediction of discharge for a number of years. Such relations have usually been expressed in the form Q = c Ab, where c and b, are constants, the exponent b being generally in the range of 0.5 to 1.0. The drainage area was measured using a polar planimeter. The measurements were repeated four times and the mean computed. Three other watershed surface area measures were also computed relative to drainage area, area above treeline, area of lake and swamp plus area of glacier. These variables are described in section 3.1d.

The rank (RANK) of the main stream at the basin mouth was determined by the Strahler (1952) ordering method. This method of numbering stream segments proceeds from the head-most tributaries termed first order streams. Two first order streams combine to form a second order stream; two second order streams combine to form a third order stream and so on. Rank has been used with limited success in streamflow studies but is included here as a quick measure of watershed magnitude.

The perimeter (PER in kilometers) is the length of

the drainage divide of the watershed measured with an opisometer. It is often difficult to delimit precisely, especially in low lying and marshy areas. Also, subsurface drainage may not necessarily correspond with the surface drainage area. Perimeter has a high correlation with drainage basin area and, therefore, it is not usually found as an individual measure in streamflow studies, but it has been combined with area to form a basin shape index, was discussed later.

The maximum basin length (BAL in kilometers)
measured in a straight line from the basin mouth to the
furthest point on the drainage divide defines the maximum
length of the basin. It was measured with a ruler. Maximum
basin length is another variable that is highly correlated
with basin area and, therefore, it is not usually found as
an individual measure in streamflow studies. It has been,
however, combined with basin area and relief to form
measures of basin shape and gradient, respectively.

3.1c <u>Watershed shape</u>

Basin shape has proved an elusive morphometric characteristic to measure. Since Horton (1932) defined the basin form factor (BSH1), calculated by dividing basin area by the square of maximum basin length (BSH1 = AREA/BAL²), there have been many attempts to quantify basin shape. These have included: a circularity ratio, the

comparison of basin area with the area of a circle of equal perimeter (Miller,1953)); and an elongation ratio, the comparison of the diameter of a circle with the same area as the basin to the basin's length (Schumm 1956). The above measures are arguably unrealistic because the average basin is pear-shaped rather than circular and so a lemniscate ratio has been proposed by Chorley, Malm and Pogorzelski (1957). Many other shape ratios have also been proposed. Another measure of basin shape (BSH2) was included because it simply expresses the square of the perimeter divided by the basin area (BSH2 = PER²/ AREA), a measure of basin circularity (Miller, 1953).

3.1d Watershed surface cover and storage

The area above treeline (ATR) is expressed as a percent of the total basin area. The predominant vegetation cover below treeline on the watersheds studied is forest.

"In the Plynlimon catchment comparison of the peak discharges from the Severn with two thirds forest cover are generally lower than those from the Wye under mountain grassland. In general, if other watershed characteristics are constant the pattern of streamflow from forested areas should show less difference between peak and low flows than is the case for a watershed covered by other forms of vegetation." (Gregory and Walling, 1973, p. 291)

Area above treeline was also used successfully as a predictive variable by Thakur and Lindiejer (1973 & 1974) in their flood study of the Mackenzie River tributary basins.

The area of lake and marsh (ALM) is expressed as a percent of the basin area and is considered to be a non-contributing area of the watershed as far as peak flows are concerned. For this reason, the percentage area of lake and marsh has been included in many flood studies as a measure of watershed storage, e.g. Benson (1962b) and N.E.R.C. (1975).

The area of glacier and perennial snowpack (AGL) is also expressed as a percent of basin area. The glacier cover and perennial snowpack cover are a continuous source of runoff during the summer months. This variable proved to be an important predictor of flood flows for the rivers in the southern Yukon (I.W.D., 1978).

The above three area measures were computed relative to drainage basin area, with the aid of a random dot overlay (density of 4 points per sq. kilometer at the 1:50,000 scale) after a method proposed by Haan and Johnson (1966).

3.1e Stream channel network

The main channel length (STL in kilometers) is measured with an opisometer from the mouth of the basin, along the stream and following the route of highest order tributaries to the stream terminus. Morisawa (1968) related stream length (L) to mean annual flow (Q) for 96 watersheds in six different physiographic areas of the eastern United

States. She found significant relationships for five of the regions having the general form: $Q=a\ L^b$. The exponent b was in the range 1.5 to 2.0.

The total channel length (TCHL in kilometers) is the cumulative length of all streams present in a basin, i.e. the total length of the blue-line network outlined on a 1:50,000 map. The morphometric literature advances three methods for delimiting total channel length from topographic maps viz.: the blue-line network; contour crenulation; and mesh length extension. For hydrologic purposes Goudie (1981) recommends the blue line network be used for delimiting total channel length, while Gregory and Walling (1973, p.48) state:

"Where the network density is to be used in relation to the contemporary processes operating in the basin, the blue line method is most appropriate in Britain, but elsewhere depends upon map convention."

The blue line network, although dependent on map convention, was used as the basis for delimiting channel network in this study. Total channel length was measured with an opisometer. Total channel length is highly correlated with basin area and, in some cases, may replace area as the strongest measure of watershed size (Gregory and Walling, 1973).

The drainage density (DRD in kilometers $^{-1}$) is defined as the total channel length of the drainage net divided by basin area (DRD = TCHL/ AREA). Drainage density,

first proposed by Horton (1932), has been touted as the most valuable single index in relation to streamflow, in that it reflects precipitation intensity modified by local variations in rock type, soil type, and land use. Sokolov (1969,in Gregory and Walling, 1973, p.272) argued that:

"Drainage density is certain to be the most important factor characterizing the conditions of flood flow formation Nature itself creates a drainage network of a density necessary for outflow of water excess from a watershed surface."

The stream frequency (STF in 1/sq. kilometers) is the ratio of total number of stream segments of all orders present in a basin to drainage area (STF = total no. of stream segments/ AREA). Introduced by Horton (1945), stream frequency is a simple index of network extent. Stream frequency is highly correlated with drainage density and, because, it is a simpler measure to calculate, stream frequency is sometimes substituted for drainage density in streamflow studies (e.g. N.E.R.C., 1975).

The bifurcation ratio (BIRA) is the ratio of the number of first order streams to the number of second order streams in a basin. Single measures of the bifurcation ratio are recommended by Gardiner (1975) for stream flow studies, as opposed to other measures such as the weighted mean bifurcation ratio proposed by Schumm (1956).

Considering the small size of the drainage basins in this study BIRA was adopted as the most representative measure of their bifurcation ratio.

3.1f Watershed relief and stream slope

Numerous investigators have noted the importance of relief as a morphometric variable in flood studies.

"With increasing relief, steepness of hillslopes and higher stream gradients, time of concentration of runoff decreases. Thus all other conditions being equal, the greater the relief of a basin the greater the rate of hydrograph rise." (Patton and Baker, 1976, p.942).

Basin relief (REL in meters) is defined as the maximum elevation on the drainage divide minus the elevation at the basin mouth (Strahler, 1952). Two other measures of basin relief were also calculated: (1) The relief ratio (RELRA) defined as the basin relief divided by maximum basin length (RELRA = REL/ BAL); and (2) the ruggedness number (RUGNO) defined as the drainage density times the basin relief divided by one thousand (RUGNO = DRD * REL/ 1000) (Strahler 1958). Patton and Baker (1976) found that ruggedness number was an important morphometric variable in distinguishing between regions prone to flash floods and those with less severe streamflow regimes. However, the utility of the ruggedness number is somewhat restricted by the fact that a single value can represent a variety of conditions i.e. basins with high drainage densities and low relief can have the same ruggedness value as basins with high relief and low network densities.

It has been long recognized that the profile of a stream tends to be concave upwards and this fact has

resulted in many proposed measures for stream slope. Two measures of mainstream slope were used in this study. The first measure is main channel slope (SLOPE) defined by dividing the difference in elevation between the stream terminus and its mouth, by the length of the main channel (Horton, 1932). This measure, although a simple and useful index, can give the same value for a variety of stream profiles.

In order to exclude the highest and lowest gradients, the second measure defines mainstream slope between the ten and eighty-five percentiles of mainstream length. Benson (1959) found that these percentiles gave the best prediction of mean annual flood. N.E.R.C. (1975) also found that these percentiles gave the best measure but, unlike Benson, who defines mainstream length as that along the main channel between the basin mouth and divide, N.E.R.C. defined mainstream length as the length of the main channel depicted by the blue line network on topographic maps. Benson's measure of slope when extended to the divide closely aproximates the measure proposed by Horton above. Therefore, the second measure of channel slope (S1085), used in this study, was defined as the difference in elevation betweeen the ten and eighty-five percentiles of main channel length, as depicted by the blue line network, divided by the main channel length between these two percentiles.

3.1g Watershed aspect

The aspect (ASP) is the direction of the main channel looking downstream from the drainage divide. The aspect of a basin was determined with a protractor, the angle being measured in degrees from True North. Aspect has met with limited success in flood studies but is included here because of the marked differences in geomorphology and climate between north and south facing drainage basins.

"It is a common observation that snow on a south-facing slope melts faster than snow on a north-facing slope, the reason being that the orientation of the slope affects the amount of direct beam solar radiation the area receives." (Male and Gray, 1981, p.365).

In order to account for this phenomenon, two transformations of aspect were tried and resulted in the normalized direction variables NASP and CASP2. The variable NASP is symmetric about a north-south line and is defined as follows:

for 1 < ASPect < 180, NASP = ASP/ 180; and for 180 < ASPect < 359, NASP = (360 - ASP) / 180.

CASP2 is defined as the cosine of aspect plus two (CASP2 = Cos(ASP) + 2). Two is added to the cosine of aspect in order that CASP2 will lie in the range of one to three otherwise, log transformations would be undefined for negative values. Besides the obvious difference of a cosine function there is another more subtle difference between these two variables. NASP does not distinguish between east

facing watersheds and west facing watersheds whereas CASP2 does.

Both of the normalized direction variables were then combined with relief ratio and slope defining the following variables GRADA, GRADB, GRADE, and GRADF, termed gradient vectors for this study.

GRADA = NASP/ RELRA, GRADB = NASP/ SLOPE,

GRADE = CASP2/ RELRA and GRADF = CASP2/ SLOPE.

Since the snowmelt flood is the dominant annual event on Yukon streams, measures of a drainage basin's orientation in three dimensions were thought necessary, because the amount of solar radiation incident on a drainage basin affects the timing and rate of snowmelt. The gradient vectors were therefore derived to express a watershed's aspect and gradient simultaneously.

3.1h Watershed hypsometry

Alternative for expressing overall relief aspects of a watershed. Hypsometry is the basin area—altitude relationship found by measuring the area within specified contour intervals (the 100 m. or 500 ft. contour intervals depending on map convention) and summed to give a cumulative frequency curve. The area between the contour intervals was determined from a random dot overlay (density of four dots per square kilometer at a 1:50,000 map scale)

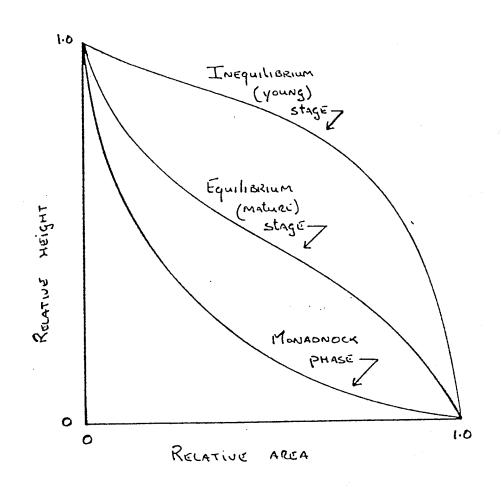
after a method proposed by Haan and Johnson (1966). Two measures of hypsometry are used in this study. The hypsometric integral (HYPI) is the area below the frequency curve expressed in percent. The hypsometric coefficient (HYPC) is the percent of area above the mean altitude of the watershed (Strahler, 1952b).

The hypsometric analysis of a drainage basin was developed in its modern form by Langbein (1947). Strahler (1952b) applied hypsometric analysis to small watersheds and suggested that the shape of the hypsometric curve indicated the stage of geomorphic development of the basin. The typical stages of basin evolution according to Strahler are illustrated in Fig. 3.1

"From the standpoint of hypsometric analysis the development of a drainage basin in a normal fluvial cycle seems to consist of two major parts only. (1) An inequilibrium stage of early development, in which slope transformations are taking place rapidly as the drainage system is expanded and ramified. (2) An equilibrium stage in which a stable hypsometric curve is developed and maintained in a steady state as relief slowly diminishes. The monadnock phase with abnormally low hypsometric integral when it does occur can be regarded as transitory because removal of the monadnock will result in restoration of the curve to the equilibrium form.....The hypsometric curve of the equilibrium stage is an expression of the attainment of a steady state in the processes of erosion and transportation within the fluvial system and its contributing slopes" (Strahler, 1952b, p.1130).

Strahler's classification of hypsometric curves with its emphasis on fluvial activity is regarded by many geomorphologists as unrealistic. In Canada drainage basins have undergone countless episodes of fluvial, glacial and

Fig. 3.1 Characteristic curves of erosion cycle:



periglacial activity. Many of the basins of this study have recently been glaciated, and their overall shape (U-shaped cross-section) and host of surface features (moraines, eskers, kame terraces, kettles, outwash plains) are the result of glacial and periglacial activity. The valley bottoms, for the most part are still covered by till, outwash deposits and lacustrine deposits. This supports the supposition that recent fluvial activity has done little in the way of modifying the overall shape of these basins as expressed by their hypsometric curves. It is more likely then, that a hypsometric curve reflects the combined glacial, periglacial and fluvial history of a watershed.

Also of note are the inherent generic connotations of Strahler's classification of hypsometric curves i.e. equilibrium or mature stage of development, inequilibrium or youthful stage of development, and the monadnock state denoting an abnormal phase of drainage basin development. Contrary to Strahler's inference that a low integral basin reflected an abnormal state, the study basins with low hypsometric integral are fairly typical of small, U-shaped upland valleys which have been recently scoured by alpine glaciers e.g. Dale Creek (Fig. 5.3), and Mule Creek (Appendix 2 Fig.14). For these reasons, 'typical' hypsometric curve shapes for this study are denoted by the terms low, medium and high integral curves.

A broad range of hypsometric curve shapes are

attained by the basins of this study (Appendix 2, Figs. 1 to 36). For example, a high integral curve is exemplified by Benson Creek, a medium integral curve by Bacon Creek, and a low integral curve by Enger Creek.

Hypsometric analysis is not one of the more popular investigative techniques of hydrology although its use has been suggested where precipitation, evaporation or snowcover vary with altitude. In the past a major drawback of a hypsometric analysis has been its tedious and time-consuming nature. However, this has now been remedied by the methods proposed by Haan and Johnson (1966) and Pike and Wilson (1971) for rapidly determining the hypsometric integral. The relevance of hypsometry to northern resource management should not be overlooked. Besides its apparent application to hydrology, hypsometry accurately reflects the activity of a stream within its basin. Its analysis, therefore, provides a good appraisal of the potential long term hazard posed by the erosional activity of a stream. The role of hypsometry with regard to streamflow is examined in the light of this study's findings in Chapter 5.

The values for the morphometric variables for each watershed are presented in Appendix 1.

3.2 <u>CLIMATE</u>

Other flood studies have shown the importance of including indices that describe prevailing climatic conditions e.g. I.W.D. (1978), Lamke (1978), Nash and Shaw (1970), N.E.R.C. (1975) and Thomas and Benson (1972).

Although an individual flood is influenced by the rainfall directly associated with it, the flood of a given return period is probably better related to the prevailing precipitation characteristics (Benson,1962a). Experience with other flood studies has shown that mean annual rainfall (Nash and Shaw, 1970; and N.E.R.C.,1975) and mean annual precipitation have had good success in flood models in areas where snowmelt is prevalent (Lamke, 1978; I.W.D., 1978; and Thomas and Benson, 1970).

Two variables depicting the climate of a basin were selected for this study. They are mean annual precipitation (PRECIP in cms.), and average storm intensity (INTENS in cms./day). The values of the variables for each basin were taken from Isohyet maps prepared by the Water Resources Div., Indian and Northern Affairs, Whitehorse, for the period 1959 to 1973. The values of the climatic variables for each watershed are also presented in Appendix 1.

3.3 CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF THE MORPHOMETRIC AND CLIMATIC VARIABLES

The following average statistics were computed for the basins of this study. The average channel length of the first order streams is 1.4 kilometers, for second order streams it is 2.4 kilometers, and for third order streams it is 4.5 kilometers. The average bifurcation ratio between first and second order streams is 3.9 and between second and third order streams is 4.0. This implies that on the average for every kilometer of third order stream channel in the southern Yukon there are 2.1 kilometers of second order stream channels and 4.9 kilometers of first order stream channels as depicted on 1:50,000 maps (i.e. a 1:2:5 ratio).

A perusal of the pair-wise correlation matrix in Appendix 3 shows that high correlations exist between variables that express similar dimensions of a drainage basin. Variables related to the size of a watershed show the highest intercorrelations (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Correlation matrix

	AREA	PER	STL	BAL	TCHL
Basin AREA	1.00				
Basin <u>PER</u> imeter	0.94	1.00			
Main STream Length		0.87			
BAsin Length			0.91		
Total CHannel Length				0.85	
RANK of main channel	0.70	0.71	0.63	0.71	0.77

The variables measuring basin relief are not as well correlated as one would suppose (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2

Correlation Matrix

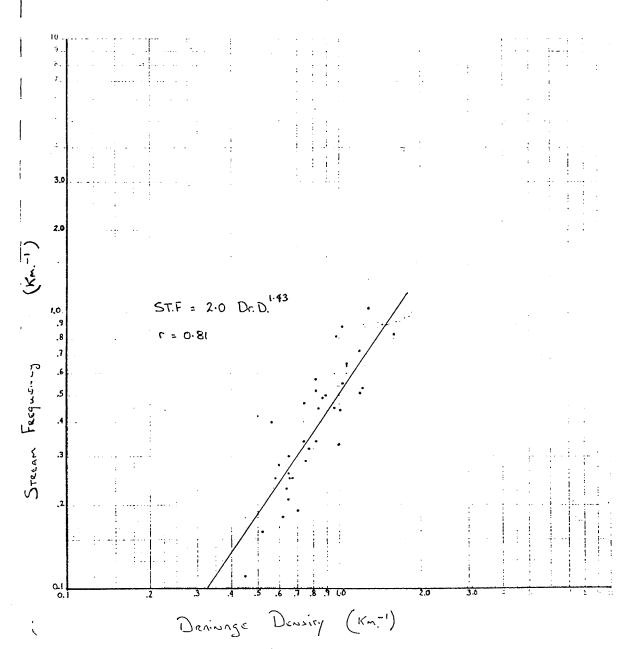
	REL	RELRA	REGNO	SLOPE	S 1085	HYPI
<u>B</u> asin <u>RE</u> Lief	1.00					
<u>REL</u> ief <u>RA</u> tio	0.28	1.00				
<u>RUG</u> gedness <u>NO</u> .	0.65	0.22	1.00			
Channel <u>SLOPE</u>	0.37	0.89	0.27	1.00		
Slope, <u>10</u> & <u>85</u> %	0.33	0.88	0.23	0.96	1.00	
<u>HYP</u> sometric <u>I</u> ntegral	0.20	0.27	0.18	0.44	0.38	1.00
<u>HYP</u> sometric <u>C</u> oef.	0.17	0.32	0.05	0.47	0.41	0.92

Of note are the are the high correlations between the two slope measures and relief ratio, suggesting that only one of these variables need to be incorporated in a regression analysis. Also the two measures of basin hypsometry are poorly correlated with the other relief measures, which emphasizes that a special property of watershed relief is expressed by the hypsometric measures.

An interesting relationship is provided by the relation between stream frequency and drainage density. Although each of these indices measures distinct aspects of a basin's stream network (two basins may have the same drainage density but different stream frequencies or vice versa), Melton (1958) suggested that the range of natural variations in a relation of the two was quite small. A least squares regression analysis determined the following equation (Fig. 3.2.):

STF =
$$2.0 \text{ DRD}^{1.43}$$
 :r = 0.81

Fig. 3.2 Regression of stream Frequency on Dealwage Density.



This implies that as basin morphology becomes increasingly fine-textured in southern Yukon, stream frequency and drainage density to the power of 1.43 increase proportionately, their ratio always approaching the value 2.0. In other words, an increase in the total length of the drainage network is due to a simultaneous increase in the length and number of the channels.

Perhaps the most interesting correlations are those between the climatic and morphometric variables (Table 3.3). Mean annual precipitation shows a fair correlation with elevation, implying an orographic effect. A description of the orographic effect along the Canol Road, which is a north trending traverse through the study area, is given by Wahl (1981):

"In this area, the mountainous terrain also complicates the climate pattern. As a general statement, precipitation increases with increased elevations, and temperatures decrease with increased elevation. In the winter however, the temperature pattern reverses with temperatures generally lower in the valley floors and warmer up the mountain slopes."

Table 3.3 Correlation Matrix

	ELEV	LAT	DRD	STF	PRECIP
Basin <u>ELEV</u> ation	1.00				
<u>LAT</u> itude	-0.05	1.00			
<u>DR</u> ainage <u>D</u> ensity	0.13	0.26	1.00		
STream Frequency	-0.07	0.22	0.83	1.00	
Mean Annual PRECIPitation	0.49	-0.06	0.32	0.32	1.00
Average Storm <u>INTENS</u> ity	0.18	0.47	0.30	0.29	0.46

Average storm intensity's highest correlation is with latitude, where a decrease in storm intensity occurs with increased latitude. This phenomenon is readily verified from the monthly storm intensity maps constructed by Veruschuren and Meheriuk (1973), which show a decrease in storm intensity with increased distance from the ocean.

Both of the climatic variables are very weakly correlated with the other morphometric variables including drainage density and stream frequency. For many of the world's climatic regions drainage density has been shown to be highly correlated with amount of precipitation and rain intensity. The general consensus of opinion is that drainage density reflects precipitation intensity and that local variations can be explained by other basin characteristics such as rock type, soil and land use (Gregory and Walling, 1976). However, the dominance of the winter climate in the study region is responsible for additional channel forming processes (e.g. freeze-up, break-up and snowmelt flooding, and processes related to permafrost such as, block slumping and bottom-fast ice). Since the snowmelt flood is the dominant annual event on Yukon streams, it is not that suprising that mean annual precipitation and average storm intensity are not highly correlated with drainage density and stream frequency.

4 FLOOD-FREQUENCY ANALYSIS

Flood-frequency analysis originated with the consideration of economics in the development of rivers and their floodplains. In its simplest form, the analysis involves the compilation of recorded streamflow statistics, from which the floods of interest are extracted, ranked and fitted to a frequency distribution (Benson, 1962a)..

Although this seems a straight forward procedure, flood frequency analysis since its inception in the 1930's, has been plagued by a considerable amount of controversy, which primarily surrounds two issues of concern: (1) The treatment of the flood data prior to analysis; and (2) the

plotting and fitting of a curve to the flood series.

The questions commonly debated concerning the preparation of the flood data prior to analysis are:

- 1. Should floods be separated into causative categories, i.e. snowmelt events versus rainstorm events?
- 2. Should records be lengthened by correlation analysis and missing floods estimated?
- 3. Is the time period of recorded flood data representative of the future period of concern?
- 4. What importance should be given to the very large floods in a short period of record?

Consistant answers to these questions are lacking and more often than not the hydrologist is advised to use his judgement when questions of this nature occur.

The wide differences of opinion among hydrologists concerning the methodology of flood frequency analysis stems mainly from lack of flood data. This lack of specific data creates doubt as to the true statistical nature of a flood series. Controversy centres around the following questions.

- 1. What is the most suitable method for determining the plotting positions of the floods in a series?
- 2. Is the graphical fitting of a curve to the flood series plotted on a frequency-magnitude graph preferable to the mathematical fitting of a frequency relationship?
- 3. If a mathematical fitting is preferred, then, which mathematical method or statistical distribution should be applied?

The hydrological literature on flood frequency

analysis abounds with arguments both for and against the selection of a particular approach.

This results in difficulties in how best to judge between the various methods. Indeed;

"what we must face up to is the realization that there are a number of methods of fitting flood data that are virtually on a par, even though this may mean they are equally poor....From among these we might as well choose one and use it as a basic method "(Benson, 1972, p.29).

4.1 METHODS OF ANALYSIS

The streamflow data for the thirty-six streams of this study were gleaned from the records of the Water Resources Div., Indian and Northern Affairs, Whitehorse. The data covered the years 1975 to 1982. The subsequent analysis of this data involved preparation of an annual series of maximum floods for each stream, and the fitting of a frequency distribution to the annual series. The following are definitions of the hydrological terms used in the flood-frequency analysis of Yukon streams.

<u>FLOOD</u> is any relatively high streamflow in a year as measured by a gauge or discharge quantity. Its magnitude is measured as the maximum instantaneous discharge associated with the flood event.

<u>RECURRENCE INTERVAL</u> is the average interval of time during which a given magnitude flood will be equalled or exceeded once only.

MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD (QMA) is the flood which has a recurrence interval of 2.33 years. On average once every 2.33 years the highest flood of the year will exceed the mean annual flood.

TWO YEAR FLOOD (Q2) is the flood which will be equalled, or exceeded on average once every two years. Similarly, FIVE YEAR FLOOD (Q5), TEN YEAR FLOOD (Q10) and TWENTY YEAR FLOOD (Q20) are the floods which are equaled or exceeded on average once every five, ten and twenty years respectively.

4.2 PREPARATION OF ANNUAL FLOOD SERIES

An annual series of maximum floods was prepared for each of the thirty-six streams, with each stream having a minimum of four consecutive years of record. historical periods of recorded flows for the streams of this study are listed in Table 4.1. A five year minimum period was the standard used by the Natural Environmental Research Council (1975) in their study of floods in the British Isles. Thakur and Lindeijer (1973, & 1974) used four years of recorded streamflows as a minimum criterion for evaluating the fifty and one hundred year floods for Mackenzie River tributaries. Although the study streams had a minimum of four years of recorded streamflows, it became immediately apparent that the highest annual flood levels for some of the streams were not recorded. There were apparently two reasons for this. Either the annual flood occurred in the early spring and the recorder site was not operational at this time, or the gauge was destroyed by the flood. In many of these cases, a minimum flood level was estimated by the water survey crews upon inspection of the site, and this level was used as a standard for comparison in later analysis.

TABLE 4.1. HISTORICAL STREAM FLOW SUMMARY.

Name of stream	ame of stream Historical stream flow record								
1975,76,77,78,79,80,81,82.									
Spencer Creek Freer Creek Fartridge Creek Logjam Creek Strawberry Creek Deadman Creek Judas Creek Wolf Creek Unnamed Creek Stoney Creek Marshall Creek Bear Creek Burwash Creek Long's Creek Cry Creek Enger Creek Stanley Creek Stonehouse Creek Murphy Creek Groundhog creek Bacon Creek Twin Creek Twin Creek		C	C C C	C RC CCCRCCC	O RO O CORRO OROROCOR				CRROCOCOCOCRECEO OR
Riddel Creek Boulder Creek South MacMillan River #2 Vangorda Creek		c	C C R C	C C C R C	C C R	C C R	C C C R	C C R R	C C R R
Benson Creek Wolf Creek Grizzly Creek Unnamed Creek Big Gold Creek Clinton Creek Thistle Creek Big Thing Creek		cc	C	0 0	C C C R	CCCRRRR	CCCRRRC	CCCRR	C C C R R R

⁽ C) Crest gauge station. (R) Water level recorder station.

A circumstance which must be considered before-hand, however, is the nature of the flood data. There are two types of streamflow recording stations operated by the Water Resoures Div., Indian and Northern Affairs. These are: (1) Stations with continuous water-level recorders; and (2) crest-gauge stations. Out of necessity most of the stations are of the latter type. Each station is visited by Water Resouces Div. personnel every two or three weeks. At this time the stream is metered and the water level recorded. At the crest-gauge stations any intervening high water mark is also noted. The type of stream flow recording station is also listed in Table 4.1. The resulting flow data for the streams with crest-gauges is, therefore, a series of discontinuous flow records. This nature of the recorded stream flows had a bearing on the method chosen for estimating the missing flood data.

Also relevant to the subject of the recorded streamflow data is the definition of the rating curve. There is a paucity of information on the simultaneous measurement of high stream flows and their corresponding water levels, a common occurrence where only a few years of recorded flows are available. As a result the upper tail of the rating curves for the streams are not as well defined as their lower reaches. Therefore, this fact should be kept in mind when converting to discharge from the rating curve.

Egginton (1978) has cautioned that the presence of bottom-fast ice can result in overestimation of the breakup flood, which usually is the highest annual flood event experienced by the study streams. However, my own observations on Dale Creek and 180 Mile Creek have shown that the opposite condition can occur. While metering these streams, a thin veneer of ice was noted which coated the gravel-boulder bed during the high flows of the spring freshet. This ice film reduces the bed roughness thus causing increased flow velocities within the stream channel. Preliminary estimates using the Manning Formula suggest a decrease in the Manning's 'n' for flows within channels experiencing this condition as high as an order of magnitude. Therefore, if the stage-discharge relationship as defined for ice-free conditions is used, underestimation of the breakup flood is also possible.

The simplest method of estimating missing floods begins with the identification of a nearby stream of similar regime with a history of recorded flows that covers the period of missing floods. Correlation of the common period of record provides a relationship from which the missing floods can be estimated. Usually this method involves the correlation of the maximum annual floods. However, the short period of record for the streams of this study dictated the need for correlation of another criterion of streamflow in order to determine the missing

floods. N.E.R.C. (1975) employed a correlation of maximum monthly flows between streams in Britain to obtain estimates of missing flood data. Again, the nature of the recorded flow data for the study streams precluded an analysis of this type. Instead, high flow series consisting of the highest four or five recorded flows in a year, were constructed for the common period of record for the stream with missing data and for a nearby stream considered to have a similar streamflow regime and a good historical flow record (Benson,1962b). The data pairs were then plotted on a graph and visually inspected. If a strong correlation was apparent a least squares regression analysis was employed to define a relationship which could be used to estimate the missing flood data. The high flow series, the scatter diagram, the relationship developed and the estimated flood statistics for the affected creeks are presented in Appendix 4.

4.3 THE FLOOD-FREQUENCY RELATIONSHIP FOR THE STREAMS

The flood-frequency analysis began by arranging the annual maximum floods for each stream, both recorded and estimated, in order of magnitude. The largest flood in a series is assigned the rank of one ,the second largest the rank of two, etc.. A recurrence inteval (T) for the individual floods in a series was calculated by applying the Weibull formula:

where N, is the number of years of record and M, is the rank of the flood.

The ranked floods were then plotted on logarithm-probability paper to conform with present D.I.A.N.A., Y. T. practise. A gently curving line was fitted to the plotted data and extrapolated to the 20 year return period. It is doubtful whether a more rigorous graphical treatment is necessary in view of the short periods of recorded streamflows involved in the study.

The flood-frequency relationships provided estimates of the mean annual flood, the two year flood, the five year flood, the ten year flood and the twenty year flood for each of the study streams (Appendix 5).

5 ESTIMATION OF FLOODS FROM WATERSHED CHARACTERISTICS

Previous flood studies have made use of multiple regression analysis to develop relationships between specific flood levels and characteristics of physiography and climate (I.W.D.,1978, Lamke,1978, N.E.R.C.,1975, Thakur and Lindeijer,1973, and Thomas and Benson,1972). These studies have proposed a relationship having the general form:

$$Y = 10^{60} x_1^{61} x_2^{62} x_3^{53} \dots (5.1)$$

A logarithmic transform of equation 5.1 yields the linear equation:

$$y = 60 + 61 X_1 + 62 X_2 + 63 X_3 + \dots (5.2)$$

Equation 5.2 can be derived by a multiple regression analysis where: Y is the dependent variable – a flood of a specified recurrence inteval; X₁, X₂, X₃,.... are the independent variables – variables describing physiography and climate; b0 is an intercept; and b1, b2, b3,.... are the regression coefficients.

In most studies a set of regression equations are derived for floods of several recurrence intervals. In this study regression equations are computed for the mean annual, two year, five year, ten year and twenty year floods. Herein lies the advantage of a regression type model. A comparison with another flood prediction model, the index flood method, will help to clarify what is meant by this last statement.

The index flood method is perhaps the most commonly used flood assessment technique. This method applies a regional frequency curve, i.e. the average shape of all frequency curves computed for the instrumented basins of a 'homogeneous region' to an ungauged basin. Its position is fixed on a suitable graph by estimating the size of a particular flood for the ungauged stream — this usually being the mean annual flood. This flood estimate is determined from a regional relationship with drainage area. The underlying rigidity of the index flood method implies a uniform dependence between the floods of specific recurrence intervals spanning all watersheds of a region.

"It is probable that different factors may be acting at the separate flood levels or that the same factors may have varying effects at different levels. The multiple correlation method, when used independently at specific flood levels allows complete flexibility and does not require making assumptions about the relation between the floods of different recurrence intervals." (Benson, p.20,1962a).

The diverse physiography and geology of the southern Yukon Territory, coupled with the variations in local climate, which in some cases can be quite marked over short distances, reflect a potential for a variety of flood regimes. A flood prediction model based on a regression analysis offers an approach which is adaptable to the potential local variations in watershed form and process.

5.1 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The BMD step-wise regression program was used for the regression analysis (BMD Package, 1977). This program initially constructs a pair-wise correlation matrix for both independent and dependent variables. The independent variable with the highest correlation with the dependent variable is selected as the initial entrant in the regression. The program then adds, or deletes variables at subsequent steps on the basis of their F ratio statistic. The BMD package also provides for transformation of input data.

All the variables were transformed prior to analysis by taking their common logarithms. Area above

treeline, area of lake and marsh and area of glacier often have values of zero, therefore, for these variables the logarithm of one plus the variable was used. Also, two was added to the cosine of aspect in order that the variable CASP2 would have a range between one and three (as explained before).

5.2 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSES

The results of the multiple regression analysis for the mean annual, two year, five year, ten year, and twenty year floods are presented in Tables 5.1 to 5.5. The derived equations are:

QMA	=	-15.8 10 TCH	0.67 PRECI	1.35 P NAS	0.25 F HYP	0.81 I LA	7.6 Г(5.3)
Q2	=	-16.5 10 TCH	0.66 L PRECI	1.40 P NAS	0.25 P HYP	0.82 I LA	7.75 T(5.4)
Q 5	=	-13.9 10 TCH	o.72 ∟ PRECI	1.17 P NAS	0.25 P HYP	0.79 I LA	6.73 r(5.5)
Q10	=	-1.77 10 TCH	o.84 L PRECI	1.09 P NAS	0.25 P HYP	0.83 I	(5.6)
Q2 0	=	-1.68 10 TCH	o.88 L PRECI	1.04 P NAS	0.25 P HYP	0.83 I	(5.7)

TABLE 5.1 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD

STEP	VAR. NAME	COEF.	F RATIO	F TO REMOVE	R	R ² S	EE C	CONST. -0.53
1	TCHL	0.75	22.06	22.06	0.63	0.39	0.31	
2	TCHL PRECIP		24.01	35.07 16.14	0.73	0.59	0.26	-2.66 10
3	PRECIP		20.97	32.40 20.21 6.65	o.81	0.66	0.24	-2.51 10
4	PRECIP NASP			42.08 26.45 7.66 6.99	0.85	0.72	0.22	-2.36 10
5	TCHL PRECIP NASP HYPI LAT	0.67 1.35 0.25 0.81 7.60		33.50 28.58 8.41 7.33 5.27	0.88	0.77	0.20	-15.8 10

COEFF. is the regression coefficient. F RATIO is the F statistic for the regression equation. F TO REMOVE is the F statistic of the independent variables entered. R is the multiple correlation coefficient. ${\bf R}^2$ is the coefficient of determination. SEE is the standard error of estimate. CONST. is the intercept.

The regression variables are:

TCHL = Total channel length.

PRECIP = Mean annual precipitation.

NASP = Normalized aspect.

HYPI = Hypsometric integral.

LAT = Latitude.

TABLE 5.2 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:

TWO YEAR FLOOD

STEP		COEF.	F RATIO		Ŕ	R ² SI	EE C	ONST. -0.6
1	TCHL	0.74	20.48	20.48	0.61	0.38	0.32	
2		0.77 1.32	23.82	33.54 17.32	0.77	0.59	0.26	-2.8 10
3		1.36	20.74	30.81 21.59 6.56	0.81	0.66	0.24	-2.6 10
4	TCHL PRECIP NASP HYPI	0.26	20.26	40.22 28.21 7.56 7.06	0.85	0.72	0.22	-2.5 10
5	PRECIP NASP HYPI	0.25		31.85 30.63 8.33 7.43 5.40	0.87	0.77	0.21	-16.5 10

COEFF. is the regression coefficient. F RATIO is the F statistic for the regression equation. F TO REMOVE is the F statistic of the independent variables entered. R is the multiple correlation coefficient. \mathbf{R}^2 is the coefficient of determination. SEE is the standard error of estimate. CONST. is the intercept.

The regression variables are:

TCHL = Total channel length.

PRECIP = Mean annual precipitation.

NASP = Normalized aspect.

HYPI = Hypsometric integral.

LAT = Latitude.

TABLE 5.3 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:
FIVE YEAR FLOOD

STEP	VAR. NAME _	COEF.	F RATIO	F TO REMOVE	R	R ² SI	ΞE	CONST. -0.45
1	TCHL	0.80	27.89	27.89	0.67	0.45	0.29	
2			24.73	40.10 12.30	0.77	0.60	0.25	-2.27 10
3		1.13	21.45	15.53	0.82	0.67	0.23	-2.13 10
4		1.20 0.25			0.85	0.73	0.22	-2.00 10
5	PRECIP NASP	1.17 0.25 0.79		38.44 21.33 7.99 6.88 4.09	0.87	0.76	0.21	-13.87 10

COEFF. is the regression coefficient. F RATIO is the F statistic for the regression equation. F TO REMOVE is the F statistic of the independent variables entered. R is the multiple correlation coefficient. \mathbb{R}^2 is the coefficient of determination. SEE is the standard error of estimate. CONST. is the intercept.

The regression variables are:

TCHL = Total channel length.

PRECIF = Mean annual precipitation.

NASP = Normalized aspect.

HYPI = Hypsometric integral.

LAT = Latitude.

TABLE 5.4 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:

TEN YEAR FLOOD

STEP	VAR. NAME	COEF.	F RATIO	F TO REMOVE	R	R ² SI	EE C	ONST. -0.42
1	TCHL	0.84	32.23	32.23	0.70	0.49	0.29	
2	TCHL PRECIP		25.30	43.41 9.91	0.78	0.61	0.26	-2.06 10
3	PRECIP		21.80	40.79 12.58 6.48	0.82	0.67	0.24	-1.91 10
4	PRECIP NASP			52.14 16.83 7.40 6.84	0.85	0.73	0.22	-1.77 10

COEFF. is the regression coefficient. F RATIO is the F statistic for the regression equation. F TO REMOVE is the F statistic of the independent variables entered. R is the multiple correlation coefficient. R^2 is the coefficient of determination. SEE is the standard error of estimate. CONST. is the intercept.

The regression variables are:

TCHL = Total channel length.

PRECIP = Mean annual precipitation.

NASP = Normalized aspect.

HYPI = Hypsometric integral.

TABLE 5.5 RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:
TWENTY YEAR FLOOD

STEP	VAR. NAME	COEF.	F RATIO	F TO REMOVE	R	R ² SE	EE CO	NST. -0.40
1	TCHL	0.88	36.00	36.00	0.72	0.51	0.28	
2	TCHL PRECIP			47.03 8.89	0.79	0.62	0.26	-1.96 10
3	PRECIP		22.47	44.21 11.19 6.03	0.82	0.68	0.24	-1.82 10
4	TCHL PRECIP NASP HYPI	0.88 1.04 0.25 0.83	21.51	56.03 15.00 6.88 6.68	0.86	0.74	0.22	-1.68 10

COEFF. is the regression coefficient. F RATIO is the F statistic for the regression equation. F TO REMOVE is the F statistic of the independent variables entered. R is the multiple correlation coefficient. R^2 is the coefficient of determination. SEE is the standard error of estimate. CONST. is the intercept.

The regression variables are:

TCHL = Total channel length.

PRECIF = Mean annual precipitation.

NASP = Normalized aspect.

HYPI = Hypsometric integral.

There are many similarities between the equations. In all cases total channel length (TCHL) is the first variable entered into the regression equations, followed in order, by mean annual precipitation (PRECIP), normalized aspect (NASP) and hypsometric integral (HYPI). The correlation cofficient and the standard error of estimate increase and decrease, respectively, at aproximately the same rate in each step of equation derivation. Latitude enters as the fifth variable in all cases. However, in equations 5.6 and 5.7 the F TO ENTER statistic for latitude is less than four and, therefore, is not entered into these equations.

Although the multiple correlation coefficients for equations 5.3 to 5.7 are significant (R = 0.86 approx.), their standard errors of estimate are 0.21 on average. This implies that, in about two thirds of the predictions from this set of equations, the actual value will be in the range of -38% to +62%. The 95% confidence limits for a prediction are -63% to +168%. Consequently, predictions from these equations are fairly rough estimates of the true flood regime. However, judgement as to the effectiveness of the equations depends on their utilization and the availability of other flood estimation methods.

5.3 THE FLOOD MODEL

Since latitude was the fifth variable selected by the step-wise regression procedure it deserves consideration in the analysis. Latitude, as noted earlier, showed a fair negative correlation with average storm rainfall intensity. In addition, increased latitude results in decreases of mean monthly winter temperatures as well as increases in permafrost distribution. For these reasons latitude should not be overlooked as an important variable in subsequent flood investigations in the Yukon. It may even provide a basis for subdivision of the territory into hydrologic regions in the future, if the stream gauging network is expanded. In this study latitude proved to be the last variable entered successfully into the regression equations. It is interesting to note the sensitivity of latitude in terms of its exponent relative to the other variables of equations 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5. Indeed, the slight improvement to the predictions attributed to the inclusion of latitude does not merit this amount of sensitivity. For this reason latitude was deleted from further analysis. The exclusion of latitude results in the following set of equations having only four independent variables.

0.76 1.38 0.26 0.85 QMA = 0.0044 TCHL PRECIP NASP HYPI ...(5.8)

1.44 0.26 PRECIP NASP HYPI Q2 = 0.0034 TCHL0.80 1.20 0.25 PRECIP NASP = 0.0102 TCHLHYPI .. (5.10) Q5 1.09 0.25Q10 = 0.0170 TCHLPRECIP NASP HYPI 1.03 0.250.88 020 = 0.0209 TCHLPRECIP NASP HYPI ...(5.7)

The above set of equations prove very interesting from the point of view of their exponents (i.e. regression coefficients). As the flood levels increase, the exponent for total channel length increases and that of mean annual precipitation decreases. Meanwhile, not unexpectededly, the exponents for normalized aspect and hypsometric integral remain relatively unchanged. Given the unvarying nature of the two parameters NASP and HYPI, in order to present simpler formulae and calculations, methods of flood-ratioing are attempted. For example, the flood ratio of the twenty year flood relative to the mean annual flood (QMA) is:

Assuming that the differences in NASP and HYPI reflected by their exponents are sufficiently small it follows that:

$$0.12$$
 -0.35
 $0.20 = 4.75$ TCHL PRECIP ;(5.12)

and likewise it follows that:

$$\frac{0.08}{0.04} = 3.86 \text{ TCHL} \quad PRECIP ;(5.13)$$

$$\frac{0.04}{0.04} = 0.18$$

$$\frac{0.04}{0.04} = 0.18 ;(5.14)$$

$$\frac{0.04}{0.04} = 0.01 \quad 0.06$$

$$\frac{0.02}{0.04} = 0.78 \text{ TCHL} \quad PRECIP ;(5.15)$$

The flood ratio equations (5.12 to 5.15) with equation 5.8 now form a simpler flood model. A later section of this chapter will outline the application of the model to a test watershed. Before discussing the significance of total channel length, mean annual precipitation, normalized aspect and the hypsometric integral to northern hydrology, caution should be advised when inferences are made concerning the role of variables in regression equations. It is possible that a variable included in a regression analysis may not be related causally to the dependent variable, but instead, may be associated with a variable not even considered in the analysis.

5.4 THE ROLE OF THE INDEPENDENT REGRESSION VARIABLES IN THE FLOOD MODEL

The flood ratio equations imply that there are considerable differences in the roles of the independent variables as far as flooding is concerned in the southern Yukon. The overall flood regime of a stream is a function of the four variables; total channel length (TCHL); mean annual precipitation (PRECIP); normalized aspect (NASP); and the hypsometric integral (HYPI). However, the differences in severity between floods of specific recurrence intervals are attributable to changes in total channel length and mean annual precipitation only. In other words, TCHL and PRECIP express the dynamic nature of a watershed, while NASP and HYPI express the relative fixed geomorphologic state of the watershed.

The response of northern drainage basins to water inputs must be understood if the significance of the variables, total channel length, mean annual precipitation, normalized aspect and hypsometric integral are to be ascertained. A brief discussion of the evolution of drainage basin response models to precipitation inputs is presented by Gregory and Walling (1973) and is recapitulated in the following account.

Horton (1945) provided an important conceptual view of the drainage basin known as the overland flow

channel network are visualized by this model — overland flow and base flow. Rain falling on the drainage basin would initially infiltrate the soil and gradually reach the the ground water table. Below this, water is stored and released forming the base flow component of stream flow. The maximum rate at which water can infiltrate the soil is the soil's infiltration capacity. If rainfall intensity exceeded infiltration capacity water would at first be retained on the surface and would fill hollows and small depressions, after which it would begin to flow overland as sheetflow until it reached the channel network which provides the surface runoff component of streamflow.

The overland flow model became the basis for streamflow estimation techniques such as the rational formula and unit hydrograph theory. These in turn, envisaged that all of a basin's drainage area would contribute to stream runoff. However, problems were encountered in separating flood hydrographs into the two components of base flow and overland flow. Field work reveals that overland flow is not often experienced except in arid and arctic regions. Even for arid regions, it may be typical but its temporal frequency is low. Also field observations reveal that precipitation intensity seldom exceeds infiltration capacity; and water flow can not only occur below the surface, but also above the ground water

table. This evidence led to the postulation of the throughflow model. Several types of throughflow have since been distinguished:

"Some authorities have referred to throughflow as the flow that occurs in the soil horizons, especially above relatively impermeable layers such as the junction of the A and B horizons; and to interflow as the lateral flow that occurs in the aeration zone above the level of permanent saturation but below the A and B soil horizons. Others (for example, Jamieson and Amerman, 1969) referred to quick return flow in the soil layers, delayed return flow in the aeration zone, and prolonged return flow from the saturation zone. Necessarily, the location and extent of subsurface flow will reflect local conditions and particularly the presence of impeding layers in the profile below the surface. In practise a distinction between several types is a convenient simplification of the complex continuum which exists in reality." (Gregory and Walling, 1973, p.29).

The throughflow model has been recently modified by the realization of the dynamic nature of the drainage basin and its stream network. Thus concepts of Unit Source Areas and Partial and Variable Source Areas have been proposed. These methods recognise that the simultaneous generation of surface runoff over an entire drainage basin is improbable during most rainfall events. Instead, they suggest that surface runoff is generated from a small proportion of the total drainage basin area. Recent studies in temperate regions have shown that a major portion of storm runoff is produced by surface flow and 'return flow' (upslope throughflow emerging at the surface), from quickly saturated zones proximate to stream channels and at the foot of slopes (Anderson and Burt, 1978; Dunne and Black,

1970; Carson and Sutton, 1971; and Hewlett and Hibbert, 1967). With continued rainfall the saturated areas expand. Also, depending on antecedent soil moisture conditions, the areas that contribute to runoff may vary from one rainfall event to another. Thus the partial areas contributing to surface runoff are dynamic.

Snowmelt is of paramount importance to the runoff regime of northern watersheds. To reiterate, the predominant annual event in the Yukon watersheds is the spring snowmelt flood. Therefore, concepts which attempt to describe the runoff regime in these drainage basins must account for the snowmelt process. This involves successfully describing such processes as: the state, ripening and ablation of the winter snow pack; the movement of melt water (and incident rainfall) in and through the snowpack; and the effect of permafrost and seasonal frost combined with antecedent soil moisture conditions.

The 'ripening' and subsequent ablation of a snowpack are complex processes and are best described by considering the sources of energy for these processes. The term 'ripening' refers to the process whereby a snowpack approaches a saturated condition and a temperature of O°C.. The amount of energy absorbed by a snowpack depends on many factors, but of prime concern are the albedo (reflectivity of the snow surface), and the density of the pack. Since snowmelt is a thermodynamic process it can be

described by the following equation:

 $Q_{\rm S}=Q_{\rm r}+Q_{\rm a}+Q_{\rm wv}+Q_{\rm S}+Q_{\rm p}$ (5.16)

The energy available for snowmelt $Q_{\rm S}$, being derived from: (1) the net all-wave radiation flux, $Q_{\rm r}$; (2) conduction and convective transfer of sensible heat from the overlying air, $Q_{\rm a}$; (3) condensation of water vapour from the overlying air, $Q_{\rm wv}$; (4) conduction from the underlying soil, $Q_{\rm S}$; and (5) heat supplied by incident rainfall, $Q_{\rm r}$.

While evaluation of the individual components of equation 5.16 can calculate snowmelt at a point, the energy-equation technique is generally far too complex to apply over an entire watershed (Gray and Male, 1981). This is because the effect of variations in elevation, slope, aspect and vegetation cover on the melt factors (e.g. net radiation flux, air temperature, wind and humidity), are hard to adequately assess over the whole basin. However, other indicators of the energy available for snowmelt have been proposed and by far the most successfully applied of these is air temperature, there being two main reasons for this. First, air temperature data is widely available; and second, estimates of snowmelt from air temperature indices agree well with results obtained from detailed analysis of the terms in the energy equation over an entire watershed (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1956).

Usually, the ripening of the winter snow pack is a relatively rapid process. In the Yukon watersheds the snow pack generally attains its maximum water equivalent in early to mid May, with snowmelt ensuing in late May and early June and lasting from two to four weeks (D.I.A.N.A. snow course records, unpub.).

The movement of snowmelt runoff (and incident rainfall), from a snowpack to a stream involves the continuous interaction of many different types of flow. These include: the slow downward percolation of melt water from the snow surface to the ground; flow along the ground surface, either in a 'slush' layer or in drainage channels; and flow through the ground (Male and Gray, 1981). Generally, until a snowpack becomes isothermal at O^OC. any water introduced to the pack will refreeze, thereby accelerating the ripening process. However, when the temperature of the pack does reach O^OC. snowmelt commences and melt water slowly percolates downwards from the snow surface. Surface melt water can also flow down

through the pack in isolated channels of coarse-grained snow which act as drains or preferred paths for meltwater, although the formation of these channels is often associated with rain on snow (Gerdel, 1954; in Male and Gray, 1981). The presence of relatively impermeable, high density layers within the pack also affects the downward movement of melt water. Water may accumulate above these layers, forming a saturated layer within the snowpack. If these layers are sloped, lateral flow may occur along them for short distances until a drain or percolation zone is reached (Gerdel, 1948; and Langham, 1974).

A 'slush' (saturated) zone may occur at the snow-ground surface with the accumulation of sufficient melt water (Colbeck 1974, and 1978)). Colbeck (1974) developed the basic theory for flow in this zone and suggests that it is relatively rapid when compared to the downward percolation of water through the pack. The rate of lateral fow in the slush layer depends on the rate of inflow, the permeability and structure of the snow in the slush layer, and the ground surface slope and roughness. In summary, a melting snowpack can be simply conceived as consisting of two distinct zones; a slush layer at the snow-ground surface which is fed by an overlying, unsaturated melting snow cover.

Another factor which influences the lateral movement of melt water on the ground surface is the

combination of frozen ground and the moisture content of the soil. During the snowmelt period Yukon watersheds are invariably underlain by frozen ground. Whether frozen ground is impermeable to melt water very much depends on its structure, temperature and moisture content before it was frozen. A variety of ground infiltration conditions have been noted in the literature (Male and Gray, 1981). These range from the impermeable surface presented by a well moistened frozen soil to the initial, relatively permeable condition of a dry frozen soil.

As seasonal frost thaws during the summer, a Yukon watersheds response to precipitation can be expected to gradually approach the dynamic Partial and Varying area models. However:

"the presence of permafrost at shallow depth inhibits the deep infitration of water, and encourages immediate runoff of a high proportion of input water once the active layer becomes wet." (Church, 1974 p.11).

The active layer refers to the thermally active layer that blankets permanently frozen ground — the zone of seasonal freeze and thaw activity. Permafrost, nevertheless, should not be considered as impermeable to water flow. Williams and Van Eggerton (1973) have proposed that permafrost areas have a low but finite permeability which is confirmed by the many:

"instances of developed water supplies, springs, and artesian aquifiers in permafrost basins." (Newbury, 1974, p.32).

5.4a TOTAL CHANNEL LENGTH (TCHL)

The importance of total channel length lies in the fact that the more extensive the channel network, the more rapid and larger will be the basin's flood response to water input. Recent studies, in more temperate regions than this study, have shown that a major part of storm runoff is produced by overland flow and return flow from quickly saturated areas bordering the stream channels. Therefore, the amount of water which can rapidly reach the stream should intrinsically, reflect the size of the channel Other flood studies have shown that watershed network. area was the most important independent variable. However, considering that a large part of a watershed's area does not contribute directly to surface runoff, it may be that total channel length is a better measure of the runoff contributing areas of a watershed.

Gregory and Walling (1968) have shown that, for two small watersheds in southeast Devon, stream discharge was related to the square of total channel length. Weyman (1970) surmised that if only the surface runoff component of streamflow is considered, then discharge may be directly proportional to total channel length. This is an interesting conjecture especially when applied to northern watersheds underlain by seasonal frost and permafrost. The presence of frozen ground may effectively restrict the

downward movement of water through the soil and promote surface flow (plus return flow in the active layer during the summer). Many researchers (e.g. Ambler (1974), Anderson (1974), Marsh and Woo (1981), and Newbury (1974)) have reported high rates of surface runoff from both snowmelt and rainfall on arctic and sub-arctic watersheds. If surface runoff is the major mechanism of water supply to northern streams, stream discharge should then be directly proportional to total channel length. This assertion is favourably supported by the flood equations (5.8, 5.12, 5.13, 5.14, & 5.15) derived by the regression analysis. The exponents for total channel length in the equations are less than unity, but the overall trend of the exponent approaches unity with increased flood levels thus implying that as surface flow becomes more dominant, the more severe is the flood. In terms of the overall framework of the flood equations, the fact that TCHL is the dominant variable is encouraging since a stream channel network is a naturally adjusting system which reflects prevailing climatic conditions modified to a certain extent by underlying geologic structure.

5.4b MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION (PRECIP)

Obviously, the amount of water available will also affect the flood response of a stream and an average measure of this amount is provided by mean annual

precipitation. As flood levels increase the exponent for mean annual precipitation gradually decreases approaching unity for the twenty year flood (equations 5.6 to 5.10). This may suggest that mean annual precipitation is more closely related to floods of the mean annual range than to larger ones. This may be due to the increasing significance of other factors that affect the magnitude of the larger floods such as the rate of snowmelt and antecedent soil moisture conditions.

5.4c NORMALIZED ASPECT (NASP)

aspect is probably best approached from the standpoint of how it affects the mean annual flood in equation 5.8.

Normalized aspect measures the north—south orientation of a basin. It does not however, distinguish between east facing and west facing basins. In addition, it should be pointed out that the value of normalized aspect cannot equal zero. Therefore, a watershed's aspect cannot be true north, it can, however, be very close — one degree east or west of north being the limit. If the other independent variables in equation 5.8 are held constant and normalized aspect is allowed to vary, then the effect of normalized aspect on the mean annual flood can be assessed. This is easily accomplished with the aid of Figure 5.1.

Fig. 5.1 THE EFFECT OF MASP ON MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD.

THE MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD IS DETERMINED FROM QMA = 0.0044 TCHL 3.76 PRECIP NASP HYPI IF TCHL, PRECIP, AND HYPI REMAIN CONSTAUT AS THE WATERSHED ROTATES FROM SOUTH TO NORTH 10 3a° 0.17 0006 THEN QMA = C (NASP 0.25) 0.26 0-63 300° FOR A WATERSHED FACING SOUTH 0-33 QMA 2 C (10) 0.75 90° FOR A WATERSHED FACING W.S.W. ASP 0.50 NASP = 0.50 NASP = 0.83 QMA - C (0.90) 0.83 = 10% LESS THAN QMA FOR A SOUTH 240 FACING WATERSHED. 0.67 FOR A WATERSHED FACING N. U.E 0.90 QMA = C (0.63) 150° 180 0.83 1.00 = 37/ LESS THAN PMA FOR A SOUTH FACING 0.95. 1.00 watermero.

THEREFORE THE EFFECT OF NASP IS TO REDUCE THE POTENTIAL LEVEL OF THE QMA FOR WATERSHEDS WITH NORTHERLY ASPECTS

Examination of this diagram illustrates the effect that the variable has on mean annual flood. The more southerly a watershed's aspect, the greater the flood hazard associated with its stream.

9

A possible interpretation for the role of normalized aspect in the flood model might lie with the low sun angle experienced in the sub-arctic during the snowmelt period, i.e. south facing watersheds receive more hours of direct sunlight and present a greater angle of incidence to incoming solar radiation than do their shadowed northern counterparts. Therefore, southern facing basins should sustain relatively warmer climates and more rapid snowmelt activity.

Another plausible explanation for the role of normalized aspect unfolds when the northwest to southeast trend of the mountain ranges of the southern Yukon

Territory are considered. The southern slopes of these ranges generally experience wetter conditions because of greater orographic precipitation from incursions of moist Pacific air masses, as compared with the more sheltered northern facing slopes and leeward regions of the interior. The northwestward variation in the average number of storms per day and the average amount of precipitation per storm from the Gulf of Alaska to Norman Wells are shown by monthly isohyet maps constructed by Veruschuren and Meheriuk (1973). These isohyets closely conform to the

topography of the coast and mountain ranges. Therefore these maps support this conjecture that normalized aspect reflects an important phenomenon of the hydrology of the southern Yukon.

5.4d HYPSOMETRIC INTEGRAL (HYPI)

The role of hypsometric integral is very similar to that of the variable normalized aspect in equation 5.8. Once again, by holding the other independent variables of equation 5.8 constant and by varying the hypsometric integral the effect on mean annual flood can be determined. The hypsometric integral for a basin can realistically be assumed to range between 0.15 and 0.65. Thus, HYPI^{0.85} will range between 0.20 and 0.70. The effect that hypsometric integral has on the magnitude of the mean annual flood is clear. The larger a basin's hypsometric integral the greater, or more severe, are the floods. This is noteworthy from the point of view of the erosional capacity of a stream network. A basin with high hypsometric integral (i.e. a high integral basin) has considerably more work to do in terms of erosion and transportation of material than a low integral basin. However, this disparity is somewhat compensated for by the greater flood potential that exists on high integral basins as expressed by the flood model.

The importance of hypsometric integral as a

hydrologic variable has remained vague. MacDonald and Lewis (1973, p.12) suggest that:

"hypsometry can play an important role in determining the form of a rivers hydrograph when snowmelt is a major component of total runoff. A 'mature' basin can be expected to have a flatter hydrograph than the 'monadnock' or 'youthfull' types. In these last two types a large proportion of the total area lies within a narrow elevation range and, assuming no interference from other factors, maximum rates of snowmelt will occur at the same time over most of the basin."

This same premise could reasonably be applied to rainfall activity, changes in soil mantle and vegetation cover with altitude, their effect, however, on hydrograph shape may be different. The general consensus of opinion is that hypsometry reflects a number of processes that vary with altitude (McDonald and Lewis, 1973).

Although these are valid conjectures concerning the influence which hypsometry has on streamflow, they do not account for the precise nature of the relationship between the hypsometric integral and floods, as expressed by the flood model. Why does a basin with a high hypsometric integral experience a greater or more severe flood regime than a basin with a low hypsometric integral? It is hypothesized that the hypsometric integral is a measure of the relative potential energy available to a watershed's runoff response processes to water imput in the same way that stream slope is a measure of the energy available for flow within the stream channel. In order to explain this hypothesis it is necessary to distinguish

physically between a drainage basin with a high hypsometric integral and a basin with a low hypsometric integral. On a high integral basin the majority of the drainage area is concentrated in the upper reaches of the basin, whereas most of the drainage area of a low integral basin lies within its lower altitudes. During the snowmelt period on a high integral basin a perched or hanging water table may gradually form in the saturated layer of the snowpack on the valley side slopes. The large head available to flow in this slush layer may then feed and promote the rapid expansion of down-slope saturated zones within the snowpack proximate to the stream channels. Thus the surface flow (and shallow return flow, if the active layer is thawing), from these zones would be tremendously enhanced. This same premise may also apply to the infrequent high intensity rain storm event. Perched saturated zones forming in the active layer on the valley side slopes thus promoting the rapid growth of downslope saturated zones near the stream channels from which surface flow is derived. Therefore, a high integral basin would realize a rapid response to snowmelt and rainfall resulting in high flood levels.

Alternatively, a basin with most of its drainage area concentrated in its lower reaches would have a vastly diminished potential head available for the charging of saturated zones in the valley bottoms. Further-more, a low integral basin has a greater potential for wetlands than

does a high integral basin. The correlation coefficient between hypsometric integral and area of lake and marsh is -0.58. Therefore, a low integral basin has a greater storage capacity and thus a muting effect on its flood waters. The above is a hypothesized account of why the hypsometric integral is an important hydrological variable in the flood model.

The purely conjectural nature of this discussion concerning the importance of the variables: total channel length; mean annual precipitation; normalized aspect; and hypsometric integral to northern hydrology must be stressed. The reasons elucidated for their importance in the regression equations, although plausible, are still unsubstantiated. The opinions expressed are subject to the need for further research, without which this theorizing will remain speculative. My own observations and deductions are sufficiently encouraging for me to form the firm opinion that such additional research is warranted.

5.5 DALE CREEK: A TEST OF THE FLOOD MODEL

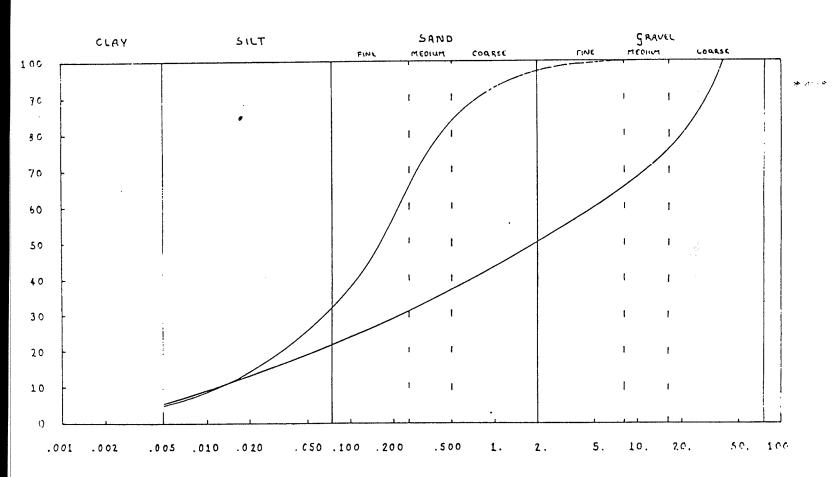
A suggested procedure for using the proposed flood model to estimate flood discharges is afforded by its application to Dale Creek. Since Dale Creek was not included in the regression analyses and has one of the longest records of streamflow (albeit only six years), the results from the regression model can be compared to its

historical annual maximum floods series.

Dale Creek is a tributary of the Tsichu River, located in the Selwyn Mountains at the Yukon - Northwest Territories border (Long. 130° 05′, Lat. 63° 16′). The streamflow recording station on Dale Creek at aproximately 1460 m.asl defines a watershed of some 13.1 sq.km. with a relief of 860 m..The stream flows to the east through a broad U-shaped valley which opens onto the MacKenzie Barrens - a high and vast sub-arctic tundra plateau. A lush alpine meadow, dotted with a few ponds and wetlands occupies the floor and lower slopes of Dale Valley grading upwards to high talus slopes. Thirteen rock glaciers ribboning the south-facing valley side wall have been identified by Kershaw (1978).

Flowing between well defined overhanging banks,
Dale Creek in its lower course, exhibits typical pool and
riffle development, interspersed by relatively steeper,
straight reaches of deep and rapid flow. The banks of Dale
Creek are stable even though there is a high percentage of
sand and silt in the bank material (Fig. 5.2,). This
stability is attributable to the presence of permafrost
that affords protection along the bank face. The bed
material ranges in size from coarse sand to boulders and is
comprised mainly of mudstones, greywackes and fine grained
felsites, the felsite being weathered to a striking orange
sheen. Some crumbly marblized limestone breccia is also
present in the bed material.

Fig. 5.2 DALE CREEK SIZE-DISTRIBUTION CHAVES FOR TWO SAMPLES OF BANK MATERIAL.



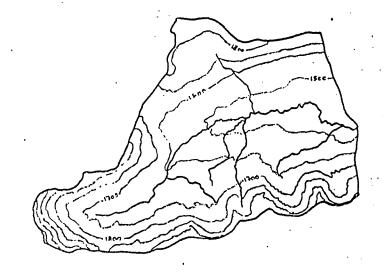
A meteorology station, operative since 1974 lies some 8 km. to the east of Dale Creek at the Tsichu River airstrip. Preliminary estimates of the climate by Kershaw and Gill (1979) show a mean January temperature of -19.4°c. and a mean June temperature of 6.7°c.. A mean annual precipitation greater than 76 cm. occurs, of which the snowfall is greater than 343 cm..

6

To recapitulate the proposed flood model is:

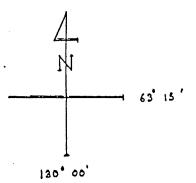
In order to evaluate the model as it applies to Dale Creek the values of the three independent variables, total channel length, normalized aspect and the hypsometric integral were measured from the 1:50,000 N.T.S. map sheets (Fig. 5.3a and b). These values are:

Fig. 5.3a.



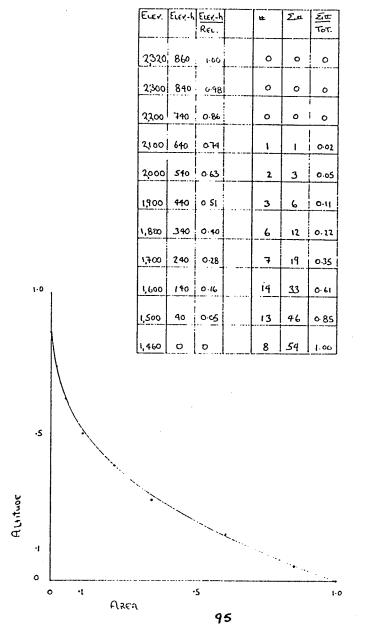
Metres 1000 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 Matters

Yords 1000 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 Yerges



DALE CREEK.

Fig. 5.36. Dale Creek; CALCULATION OF HYPSOMETRIC INTEGRAL



Hypsometric Turigrac = 0.25

HYPI = 0.25 ; (Fig 5.3)

The value for mean annual precipitation was derived from recorded precipitation data at Tsichu River from 1974 to 1982.

PRECIP = 80 cm.

The values for total channel length, annual precipation, normalized aspect, and hypsometric integral can now be substituted into the equations of the flood model and the flood levels computed.

0.76 1.38 0.26 0.85 QMA = 0.0044 (13.0) (80.0) (0.39) (0.25) = 3.15 cumecs.

The flood ratios yield:

C

0.12 -0.35

Q20/QMA = 4.75 (13.0) (80.0)

= 1.39

therefore, Q20 = 1.39(QMA)

= 4.40 cumecs.;

0.08 -0.29

Q10/QMA = 3.85 (13.0) (80.0)

= 1.32(QMA)

therefore, Q10 = 4.2 cumecs.;

0.04 -0.18

Q5/QMA = 2.32 (13.0) (80.0)

= 1.17(QMA)

therefore, Q5 = 3.7 cumecs.; and

-0.01 0.06

Q2/QMA = 0.78 (13.0) (80.0)

= 0.99(QMA)

therefore, Q2 = 3.1 cumecs

The computed discharges are plotted on log-probability paper (Fig. 5.4). Also included are the recorded annual floods.

At this point it must be noted that prior to proceeding on any discussion of the comparison between the observed and the predicted flood discharges there is an important factor which must be considered. The highest flow metered on Dale Creek is 3.0 cumecs. whereas the highest recorded stage equates with a flow of 4.6 cumecs., this figure being extrapolated from the stage-discharge curve. However, the good definition of the stage-discharge curve for flows less than 3.0 cumecs. suggests that the error involved in the extrapolation of flows from the higher recorded stages may be small. Definition of the upper tail of the stage-discharge relationship is a common problem experienced in the use of flow data from recently established stream gauging stations (this being previously discussed in Chapter 4, sec.2).

In Fig. 5.4 the predicted flows closely conform to the flood frequency curve derived from the historic flood series. However, this comparison should not be construed as the definitive test of the model. Since the flood model does work in this instance, its application to other streams in the southern Yukon does look promising. As yet it is not possible to apply the model to other streams with a long history of recorded flows for comparison purposes, mainly because there are no others at this present time, except for those streams used to derive the model.

To test the model on streams in other parts of the country is not necessarily a valid option either, because this will not test its effectiveness in the region it was designed to cover. Therefore, time and use will be the ultimate judge of the effectiveness of the model.

5.6 CONCLUSION

A flood model (equations 5.8, 5.12, 5.13, 5.14 and 5.15), which can be easily and quickly applied (in the field if need be), has been derived to estimate flood-frequencies for ungauged streams in the southern Yukon.

The flood model is composed of four variables.

These are: total channel length (TCHL); mean annual precipitation (PRECIP); normalized aspect (NASP); and the hypsometric integral (HYPI). The suggested reasons for why these variables are important to the hydrology of the southern Yukon are summerized in the following statements.

TCHL measures the relative size of a watershed and the quickness of its stream networks response to snowmelt and rainfall activity.

PRECIP measures the amount of water available for streamflow.

NASP measures the north-south aspect of a watershed. It is hypothesized that watersheds facing south experience higher flood regimes because of prevailing

weather patterns and greater snowmelt rates than do their shadowed northern counterparts.

HYPI measures a watersheds area-altitude distribution. It is hypothesized that HYPI is a relative measure of the potential energy available to a watersheds runoff response processes to snowmelt and rainfall activity.

The overall framework of the flood model is conceptually acceptable. The two variables TCHL and PRECIP express the dynamic hydrological aspects of a watershed, while NASP and HYPI measure its relatively stable geomorphologic state. The successful application of the flood model to a test watershed (Dale Creek) augurs well for its operational use in the southern Yukon.

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APPENDIX 1

VARIABLE LISTING

LIST OF PREDICTED VALUES, RESIDUALS, AND VARIABLES

NOTE - NEGATIVE CASE NUMBER DENOTES A CASE WITH MISSING VALUES.

THE NUMBER OF STANDARD DEVIATIONS FROM THE MEAN IS DENOTED BY UP TO 3 ASTERISKS TO THE RIGHT

OF EACH RESIDUAL OR VARIABLE.

MISSING VALUES AND VALUES OUT OF RANGE ARE DENOTED

BY VALUES GREATER THAN OR EQUAL TO

C. 2127E 38 IN ABSOLUTE VALUE.

MISSING VALUES ARE DENOTED BY MORE THAN THREE ASTERISKS.

GE 11 BMDP	YUKON ; RI	0.2291 * 0.1517 0.7829E-01 -0.1459 -0.8742E-01 DNE STANDARD DEV EGRESSION ANALYS	1.000 1.000 1.000 IATION		138. 5 138. 4 138. 3 138. 3 134. 5	64.17 64.37 64.40 64.95 60.07	4.000 3.000 3.000 4.000 3.000	686. 0 868. 0 929. 0 899. 0 671. 0	88.10 67.60 33.30 222.0 35.70
ST OF PREDICT	ED VALUES,	RESIDUALS, AND	VARIABLES (CO	NTINUED)					
CASE BELLER DG 1 SPEER IM 2 FRATAMAN 1 SPEER IM 3 4 LOGAMMAN 5 DEADAS 4 LOGAMMAN 7 JUOLAVEY A 10 STARRAWA 10 STARRAWA 10 STARRAWA 10 STARRAWA 112 BUONY 114 DRYGENEN 115 BUONY 116 STARRAWA 117 MULLER 117 MULLER 118 BUONY 118 BUONY 119 MULLER 1	8 000000000000000000000000000000000000	VAR 1 8 LES 25.0 600 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 0	10 21 0.000	11 TCHL 127.00 40.80 74.00 133.30 142.9 130.00 142.9 130.00 127.20 137.40 137.40 137.43 140.50 80.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 80.50 40.50 80.50		13 ASP 11.000 162.00 162.00 1851.00 1851.00 1851.00 163.00 163.00 153.00 163.00 175.00 163.00 175.00	14	15.85H1 0.34000 0.24000 0.42000 0.34000 0.32000 0.322000 0.322000 0.322000 0.322000 0.322000 0.322000 0.42000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000 0.322000 0.47000	16 B2.8.447.807399282194201494607328249417.504412088230164846073288269209355 B2.8.7.5.1.1.9.38.31.1.64846073288269209355 B2.8.7.5.1.1.9.38.31.1.64846073288269209355 B2.8.7.5.1.1.9.38.31.1.64846073288269209355
AGE 12 BMDP		REGRESSION ANALYS							
IST OF PREDIC	TED VALUES,	RESIDUALS, AND	VARIABLES (CC	INTINUED)					
CASE NO. LABEL I SPENCER	17 DRD 0.8200	VARIABLES 18 STF 0. 5200	19 RELRA 0.5420E-01	20 SLOPE 0,3330E-01	21 BIRA 4.710	22 HYPI 0.4100	23 HYPC 0. 2400	24 GRAD1 -0.1940E-01	25 GRAD2 -0.1190E-01

GRANGER A THE FRENCH A THE F	0. 4400 0. 5400 0. 6700 0. 6700 0. 6700 0. 6000 0. 6000 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6400 1. 040 1. 040 0. 6500 1. 040 0. 6500 1. 040 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6500 0. 6400 0. 6500 0. 6400 0. 6500 0. 6400 0. 6400 0. 6500 0. 7400 0. 7400	0.4500 0.1600 0.2500 0.2500 0.2700 0.2700 0.25000 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.25000 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.2500 0.25000 0.2500	0. 71900E-01 0. 71900E-01 0. 7560E-01 0. 4040E-01 0. 4040E-01 0. 40500E-01 0. 48183 0. 97300E-01 0. 62390E-01 0. 63290E-01 0. 63290E-01 0. 6100E-01 0. 75715 0. 10890E-01 0. 75715 0. 10890E-01 0. 8270E-01 0. 8430E-01 0. 8430E-01 0. 8440E-01 0. 84600E-01 0. 84600E-01 0. 8460E-01 0. 8460E-01 0. 4750E-01 0. 4750E-01 0. 4750E-01 0. 6870E-01 0. 6870E-01	0.2720E-01 0.2490E-01 0.25200E-01 0.1040E-01 0.2150E-01 0.7290E-01 0.7290E-01 0.7290E-01 0.7290E-01 0.2170E-01 0.2330E-01 0.2330E-01 0.2340E-01 0.4400E-01 0.4400E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.5280E-01 0.7110E-01 0.7110E-01 0.7110E-01 0.71468	\$0000000000000000000000000000000000000	0.000000000000000000000000000000000000	0.292000 0.181000 0.49200 0.492	-0. 7760E-01 -0. 2460E-01 -0. 2460E-01 -0. 2460E-01 -0. 2020E-01 -0. 2020E-01 -0. 1180 -0. 9020E-01 -0. 5400E-01 -0. 5400E-01 -0. 550E-01 -0. 5580E-01 -0. 5880E-01 -0. 5880E-01 -0. 7520E-01 -0. 7520E-01 -0. 3700E-01 -0. 3700E-01 -0. 3280E-01 -0. 3280E-01 -0. 3280E-01 -0. 3250E-01 -0. 3250E-01 -0. 3250E-01 -0. 2370E-01 -0. 3250E-01 -0. 2370E-01 -0. 3250E-01 -0. 2370E-01	-0.2570E-01 -0.38100E-02 -0.28100E-01 -0.38100E-01 -0.2000E-01 -0.2006E-01 -0.3100E-01
AGE 13 BMDP				NIT INVIED)					
CASE NO. LABEL 1 SPENCER 2 FREER 2 FREER 3 PARTRIDG 4 LOGJAM 5 STRANBER 6 DEADMAN 7 JUDAS 8 WOLF 9 GRAVELWA 10 STONY 11 BEAR 13 BURWASH 14 LONG'S 15 DRY 16 ENGER 17 STANLEY		SIDUALS; AND V ARIABLES 27 ALM 0.2000E-01 0.2000E-01 0.2000E-01 0.2000E-01 0.3000E-01 0.3000E-01 0.2000E-01	28 AGL 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.	29 PRECIP 68.600 58.400 575.600 575.400 575.400 577.300 577.300 577.300 577.300 577.300	30 INTENS 0.3800 0.3900 0.3900 0.3900 0.3200 0.3100 0.3100 0.3100 0.3100 0.3900 0.4100 0.5400 0.5400 0.5500	31 Q2 11.80 5.200 7.800 5.100 2.500 13.000 0.2600 0.2600 4.500 4.500 3.200 6.500 19.50 6.500 8.800	32 GMA 13.000 5.6000 8.0000 2.8000 15.6000 4.0000 0.2.9000 5.0000 31.5000 20.000 7.7000 9.8000	33 Q5 17,000 7,700 9,000 8,800 4,000 28,50 8,400 6,000 7,300 7,300 5,100 12,50 23,50 14,000 15,70	34 Q10 24.00 9.600 12.50 5.200 43.00 13.00 8.100 0.5800 9.400 9.400 18.00 26.00 22.00 21.50

18 MULE 19 STONEHOU 20 MURPHY 21 GROUNDHO 22 BACO MILE 23 180 MILE 23 180 MILE 24 TWIN 25 ROULDER 27 MAC OF BOLL 28 BIG GOLD 31 THISTON 31 WOLF DEM 34 GRIZZLY 35 UNNAMED D 36 BIG THIN PAGE 14 BMDP	0. 2000E-01 0. 7000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 5000E-01 0. 5000E-01 0. 5000E-01 0. 5000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01 0. 2000E-01		63. 50 68. 60 50. 80 50. 80 52. 10 52. 10 55. 20 635. 40 635. 80 677. 90 645. 40 45. 40 45. 40	0. 4100 0. 4200 0. 3800 0. 3800 0. 3800 0. 5300 0. 5300 0. 53400 0. 4200 0. 4200 0. 3400 0. 3400 0. 3400 0. 33900 0. 4800 0. 4800 0. 33900	2.000 5.5.000 8.2000 8.5000 4.4000 12.000 9.2000 9.3000 9.3000 9.2000 14.4000 12.000 14.4000 12.000	2.300 5.4.500 9.0000 9.1800 9.1800 4.3.720 4.3.720 120.7000 120.7000 125.500 15.000 1.4.9	3.000 6.600 12.70 12.80 12.70 12.80 6.400 23.80 14.50 36.100 14.50 23.50 10.50 23.50 23.50	3.600 7.600 16.000 16.000 11.000 21.000 31.000 31.000 19.000 19.000 19.000 19.000 19.000 19.000 19.000 19.000
PREDICT R DG R D	 ARIABLES 36 S10985 0.21308E-01 0.37508E-01 0.15308E-01 0.2208E-01 0.2208E-01 0.2208E-01 0.2208E-01 0.26708E-01 0.16708E-01 0.16408E-01 0.37508E-01 0.16408E-01 0.37508E-01 0.41708E-01 0.21808E-01 0.21608E-01 0.23708E-01 0.24708E-01 0.27408E-01 0.27108E-01 0.27108E-01 0.27108E-01	37 NASP 0.6167E-01 0.90809 0.6067 0.98899 0.60667 0.36622E-01 0.8778 0.85700 0.2622E-01 0.87506 0.97556 0.944442 0.47556 0.3328978 0.50404 0.975229 0.4222 0.57222 0.488399 0.62229 0.4783390 0.49311	38 1.24999 1.04740 1.05007 1.0	39 115-60 115-60 115-60 113-0165 8.9.650 7.16-	DB DB AD22932205948763333399141117736457613 AD3284147.426.157417.4286.75.3 AD3284147.426.157417.4286.75.3 AD3284147.426.157417.4287.2387.5.3 AD3284147.41114201102387.5.3 AD3284147.4111401112.71102287.5.3	E ADP2225532443070144662296326572017167 RC. 155975532493070144662296326572017167 GO. 8. 3. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2.	F AD06678329625438784407744884087121052 479.15689375538097.84400744884087121052 488.6414477538097.4479.553573347 47326448537.54455553573347 4779.117445324555555555555.	43 RUGN 9553 1.0043 0.8761 0.88761 0.47831 1.0790 0.778307 0.7780322 0.7780322 0.8207 0.8207 0.55174 1.36684 1.3127 0.55174 1.6688 1.8129 0.8129 1.6468 1.

34 GRIZZLY 35 UNNAMED 36 BIG THIN	16,40 43,60 4,600	0.7980E-01 0.6500E-02 0.1371	0.6000 0.2556 0.5444	1.691 2.695 1.861	5. 348 7. 494 3. 229	8. 439 28. 08 3. 709	15.07 79.02 11.04	23. 78 296. 1 12. 68	0.8021 0.6788 1.135
PAGE 15 BMDP	YUKON ; REGRE	ESSION ANALYS	SIS		1				
LIST OF PREDICT			VARIABLES (C	ONTINUED)					
16 ENGER 17 STANLEY 18 MULE 19 STONEHOU 20 MURPHY 21 GROUNDHO 22 BACON 23 180 MILE 24 TWIN 25 RIDDELL 26 BOULDER 27 MAC 2 28 VANGORDA 29 BIG GROUN 31 THISTLE 32 BENSON 33 WOLF DEM 34 GRIZZLY 35 UNNAMED 36 BIG THIN	44 LNASP -012799 -012-00145538 -0145538 -0145538 -017617 -11.57652 -01.76532 E-01 -0.175740 -0.175740 -0.17740 -0.17740 -0.17740 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.179199 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999 -0.1791999	AR LABLES 45. LCASP 2 0.2153 0.4763E-01 0.22604E-03 0.2237 0.4768 0.37814 0.4768 0.3052E-01 0.44738 0.4264 0.16403 0.4776 0.3871 0.4267 0.3871 0.4031 0.36793 0.16407 0.31761 0.36793 0.17969 0.2110 0.24922 0.379128 0.37911 0.4267 0.3128E-02 0.37911 0.4267 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697 0.37911 0.42697	46 L. 7656 -0.1.6569 1.70644 1.709548 0.1.2288637 1.8725473 0.1.524889 -0.79.1157328 0.1.524889 0.1.5732889 0.1.5732889 0.1.5732889 0.1.573768811593 0.1.57768811593 0.1.6168270 0.1.62749 1.1.00685 0.7.8850 0.	47 LGRADB 1.56350 1.56350 1.56321 1.66851 1.668032 1.680326 1.680326 1.680326 1.680326 1.680326 1.680326 1.76803130 1.76803130 1.76803130 1.776803130 1.776803130 1.776803130 1.776803130 1.776803130 1.776803130 1.7768031	48 L 481 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1445 1. 1547 1. 1547 1. 1527 1. 15	49 LG 6932 1. 6584 1.	50 LRUGN -0.1984E-01 -0.1997E-021 -0.5744E-01 -0.5744E-01 -0.57748 -0.1979 -0.1979 -0.1281 -0.1281 -0.1281 -0.1719 -0.32505E-01 -0.38539 -0.85398 -0.85398 -0.95398 -0.1747 -0.28538 -0.97518E-01 -0.1747 -0.28538 -0.97518E-01 -0.15346 -0.37791E-01 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547 -0.1547	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	52 LLAT 1.779 1.779 1.779 1.779 1.779 1.779 1.779 1.7781 1.784 1.784 1.784 1.784 1.799
,			VARIABLES (C	ONTINUED)					
CASE NO LABEL 1 SPENCER 2 FREER 3 PARTRIDG 4 LOGJAM 5 STRANBER		ARIABLES 54 LS1085 -1.672 -1.426 -1.815 -1.492 -1.604	55 LELEV 2.939 2.954 2.954 2.946 2.928 2.864	56 LAREA 2.192 1.659 1.790 1.945 1.799	57 LPER 1.775 1.462 1.629 1.631 1.509	58 LSTL 1, 408 1, 041 1, 247 1, 246 1, 146	59 LBAL 1.332 1.033 1.188 1.161 1.025	60 LTCHL 2.104 1.610 1.661 1.869 1.519	61 LREL 3.066 3.052 3.077 3.018 2.904

6 DEADMAN 7 JUCLE 8 GRAVELWA 10 STONY 11 BEAR 13 BEAR ASH 14 LONG'S 15 DRY 16 ENGER 17 STANLE 19 STONEHY 18 MULE 19 STONEHY 20 GROUNDH 22 BACON 23 180 MILE 24 BACON 23 180 MILE 25 RIDDELL 26 BOULDER 27 MAC C 28 VANGORDA 29 BIG GODD 30 CLINTLE 32 BENSON 31 THISTLE 32 BENSON 33 WOLF DEM 34 GRIZZLY 35 BIG THIN	0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.6021 0.60221	-1.0738 -1.07738 -1.15180 -1.5780 -1.5	735456796659959017099165516984789888888898889999999999999999999999	43823652277607339774413342850263 2631645525377607339774413342850263 263164525327533529774413342850263 263116452253275008776776276339850263	1.845 845 818 878 1.878 244 1.878 1.487 1.487 1.627 1.787 1.560 1.556 1.556 1.5685 1.5686 1.5686 1.5686 1.6880 1.8723 1.8	1. 479 479 479 479 479 479 479 479	1.3757 1.4528 1.4528 1.9111 1.3527 1.23512 1.32529 1.32529 1.1762 1.10634 1.1649 1.1644 1.164	805554142093418882630847788843843 101231462807793418882630847788843843 222112121211111111122112221121	0814777999685442068847518369004122136029676754206884751836900419213609909090909090909090913269091326
PAGE 17 BMDP	•	EGRESSION ANALY	 }	•					•
	ED VALUES,	RESIDUALS, AND	VARIABLES (CONTINUED)					
CASE BELCE R G SE ELSE ELSE ELSE ELSE ELSE ELSE ELSE	42 2.4771 2.4771 2.4771 2.4771 2.4771 2.4771 2.4771 2.4905 2.1907 2.1	VARIABLES . 63 L4685 -0. 4089 -0. 37568 -0. 2518 -0. 4685 -0. 45762 -0. 45762 -0. 3468 -0. 3768 -0. 3768 -0. 3768 -0. 3768 -0. 3768 -0. 3768 -0. 3776	64 LBSH2 1.359 1.266 1.468 1.468 1.317 1.318 1.337 1.3518 1.335 1.493 1.389 1.389 1.389 1.389 1.3989	65 LDRD -0.8619E-01 -0.5061E-01 -0.1308 -0.7572E-01 -0.2840 -0.1871 -0.1739 -0.1249 -0.1249 -0.2366 -0.2366 -0.1805 -0.2938E-01 -0.4948 -0.2518 -0.2518 -0.2518 -0.2738E-01 -0.39468 -0.29488 -0.2518	66 LSTF -0. 2840 -0. 3910 -0. 3279 -0. 3468 -0. 7978 -0. 6021 -0. 5376 -0. 7212 -0. 5686 -0. 6021 -0. 6021 -0. 6021 -0. 6383 -0. 3979 -0. 3979 -0. 2676 -0. 1938 -0. 1938 -0. 7447	67 LRELRA -1.266 -0.9813 -1.143 -1.127 -1.3974 -1.3974 -1.218 -1.218 -1.218 -1.218 -1.199 -1.244 -1.345 -1.124 -0.7657 -0.9662 -1.146	68 LSLOPE -1. 478 -1. 565 -1. 565 -1. 606 -1. 688 -1. 638 -1. 668 -1. 037 -1. 493 -1. 663 -1. 633 -1. 633 -1. 6317 -1. 6317 -1. 357 -1. 387 -1. 3419 -1. 416	69 LBIRA 0. 6730 0. 56118 0. 66325 0. 663210 0. 661492 0. 661492 0. 501197 0. 677984 0. 677984 0. 677984 0. 477732 0. 477732	70 LHYPI -0. 38752 -0. 42002 -0. 388729 -0. 358672 -0. 39968 -0. 34468 -0. 44618 -0. 44688 -0. 47492 -0. 30108 -0. 30988

23 180 MILE 24 TWIN 25 RIDDELL 26 BOULDER 27 MAC 2 28 VANGORDA 29 BIG GOLD 30 CHINTON 31 HISTLE 32 BENSON 33 WOLF DEM 34 WOLF DEM 35 UNNAMED 36 BIG THIN PAGE 18 BMDP		-0.3872 -0.4318 -0.5528 -0.3979 -0.4437 -0.4685 -0.3098 -0.4437 -0.4402 -0.6198 -0.4685 -0.5528 -0.4318 -0.3665		0.0 0.8600E-02 0.7555E-01 0.2068 -0.1773E-01 -0.1135 -0.8774E-02 -0.9152E-01 0.106 0.7918E-01 0.1284E-01 -0.1871 -0.1308	-0. 4815 -0. 3565 -0. 1427 -0. 8092E-01 -0. 3468 -0. 4948 -0. 9152E-01 -0. 2441 -0. 1703E-01 -0. 2596 -0. 5229 -0. 4685 -0. 4685	-1. 074 -1. 140 -1. 062 -1. 332 -1. 306 -1. 180 -1. 406 -1. 190 -1. 407 -0. 9500 -1. 7731	-1.277 -1.455 -1.273 -1.2636 -1.780 -1.391 -1.553 -1.553 -1.557 -1.148 -1.357 -1.957	0.62322 0.44739 0.66099 0.7536 0.5011 0.4926 0.54580 0.7924 0.79241 0.5417 0.420	-0. 4559 -0. 4559 -0. 3372 -0. 33768 -0. 3665 -0. 4202 -0. 3277 -0. 3265 -0. 3265 -0. 2840 -0. 2807
	ED VALUES,	RESIDUALS, AND	VARTABLES (CU	NI INDEDI			77 / 775617	TO LINTONS	70 102
CASE BELCE R DG R D	71 L61368 H79868 H19668 H19	72 LGRAD1 -0. 8508E-01 -0. 8508E-01 -0. 35341E-01 -0. 3241E-01 -0. 3241E-01 -0. 2863E-02 0. 8472E-02 0. 4844E-01 -0. 4105E-01 -0. 241E-01 -0. 2346E-01 -0. 241E-01 -0. 2549E-02 0. 2461E-01 0. 2549E-02 0. 2461E-01 0. 2569E-02 0. 2416E-01 -0. 12346E-01 -0. 12346E-01 -0. 12346E-01 -0. 3149E-01 -0. 1421E-01 -0. 1750E-01 -0. 1750E-01 -0. 1750E-01 -0. 1837E-01 -0. 18389E-01 -0. 18389E-01 -0. 18389E-01 -0. 18389E-01 -0. 18389E-01 -0. 1033	73 LGRAD2 -0. 5199E-02 -0. 199E-01 -0. 1540E-01 -0. 1540E-01 -0. 1540E-01 -0. 1544E-01 -0. 3534E-02 -0. 3794E-01 -0. 3794E-01 -0. 3794E-01 -0. 1019E-01 -0. 1019E-01 -0. 1019E-01 -0. 1019E-02 0. 1019E-002 0. 371 0. 0. 87815E-002 -0. 87919E-002 -0. 1759E-002	74 LATR 0.1271 0.2430 0.8990E - 01 0.1106 0.2531E-01 0.2531E-01 0.2701 0.1523 0.2304 0.1335 0.2119E - 01 0.17030 0.1848E-01 0.17030 0.2810 0.12710 0.2810 0.12700 0.12810 0.12700 0.2810 0.12770 0.286369E-01 0.27907 0.286369E-01 0.27908 0.27970E-01 0.22770E-001	75 LALM 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-021 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.8600E-022 0.7555E-01 0.8600E-022	76 LAGL 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.	TP 1. 84085 P 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	78. L1208997 -0.449485 -0.449485 -0.449485 -0.449485 -0.5509485 -0.5509485 -0.5509485 -0.644988728 -0.6509485 -0.65	79 1.062169321190392122222000.0.7371121100321190392119039115579111552225553519030.0.55812957424068841279532225660.0.558129539351557911.5563935155225660.0.66666666666666666666666666666

PAGE 19 BMDP YUKON ; REGRESSION ANALYSIS

	CA	ASE		VAR I ABLES	
N	10.	LABEL SPENCER	81 LG5 1.279 0.8865	82 LQ10 1.380 0.9823	83 LG20 1.470 1.061
	2345678	FREER PARTRIDG LOGJAM	0. 9542 0. 9445	0. 9823 1. 097	1.009 1.217 0.8325
	5	STRAWBER DEADMAN	0. 6021 1. 455 0. 9243	0.7160 1.633 1.114	0.8325 1.778 1.255
	89	JUDAS WOLF GRAVELWA	0. 7782 -0. 3565	0. 9085 -0. 2366	1.009 -0.1308
	10	STONY MARSHAL	0. 6021 0. 8633	0. 7482 0. 9731	0. 7924 1. 072
	12 13 14	BEAR BURWASH LONG'S	0. 7076 1. 097 1. 371	0.7924 1.255 1.415	0.8573 1.389 1.447
	15 16	DRY ENGER	1.371 1.146 0.5315 1.196	1.342 0.5682	1.519 0.5911
	17 18 19	STANLEY MULE STONEHOU	0.4771 0.8195	1.332 0.5563 0.8808	1.447 0.6335 0.9345
	20	MURPHY GROUNDHO	1.362 1.104	1.462 1.204	0. 9345 1. 544 1. 290 1. 290
	22 23 24	BACON 180 MILE TWIN	1.107 1.000 0.8062	1.204 1.041 0.9031	1.290 1.072 \ 0.9912
	25 26	RIDDELL BOULDER	1. 243 1. 415	1.322 1.491	1.387 1.556
	27 28 29	MAC 2 ·VANGORDA BIG GOLD	1, 477 0, 7634 0, 7853	1.574 0.9031 0.8692	1.663 1.029 0.9395
	30	CLINTON THISTLE	1. 161 1. 556	1. 279 1. 653	1.389 1.740
	32 33 34	BENSON WOLF DEM GRIZZLY	1.613 1.371 1.000	1.732 1.462 1.114	1.826 1.556
	35	UNNAMED BIG THIN	1.371 0.4548	1. 114 1. 512 0. 5798	1. 215 1. 633 0. 6812

NUMBER OF INTEGER WORDS OF STORAGE USED IN PRECEDING PROBLEM 7362 CPU TIME USED 13.808 SECONDS

PAGE 20 BMDP

BMDP2R - STEPWISE REGRESSION

JULY 3, 1984 AT 17:01:40

PROGRAM CONTROL INFORMATION

NO MORE CONTROL LANGUAGE.

PAGE 19 BMDP YUKON ; REGRESSION ANALYSIS

L151 U	F PREDICTED	VALUES,	RESIDUALS,	AND	VARIABLES	(CONTINUED)

CALAPENER A LER DE RENTREMENTE RENTRENTREMENTE RENTREMENTE RENTREMENTE RENTREMENTE RENTREMENTE RENTRE	81 1.895425 0.995425 1.89544215 0.99404285 0.974003767 1.97755223 0.197755223 1.13196 1.14775 1.100024357 1.14734 0.114733 1.16531 1.1	VARIABLES 1 AL 388237 1 AL 1388237 1 AL 1388237 2 AL 1388237 2 AL 1388237 2 AL 1388237 2 AL 103682 2 A	83 1. 0097 1.
32 BENSON 33 WOLF DEM	1. 613	1.732	1.740 1.826 1.556 1.215 1.633 0.6812

NUMBER OF INTEGER WORDS OF STORAGE USED IN PRECEDING PROBLEM 7362 CPU TIME USED 13.808 SECONDS

PAGE 20 BMDP

BMDP2R - STEPWISE REGRESSION

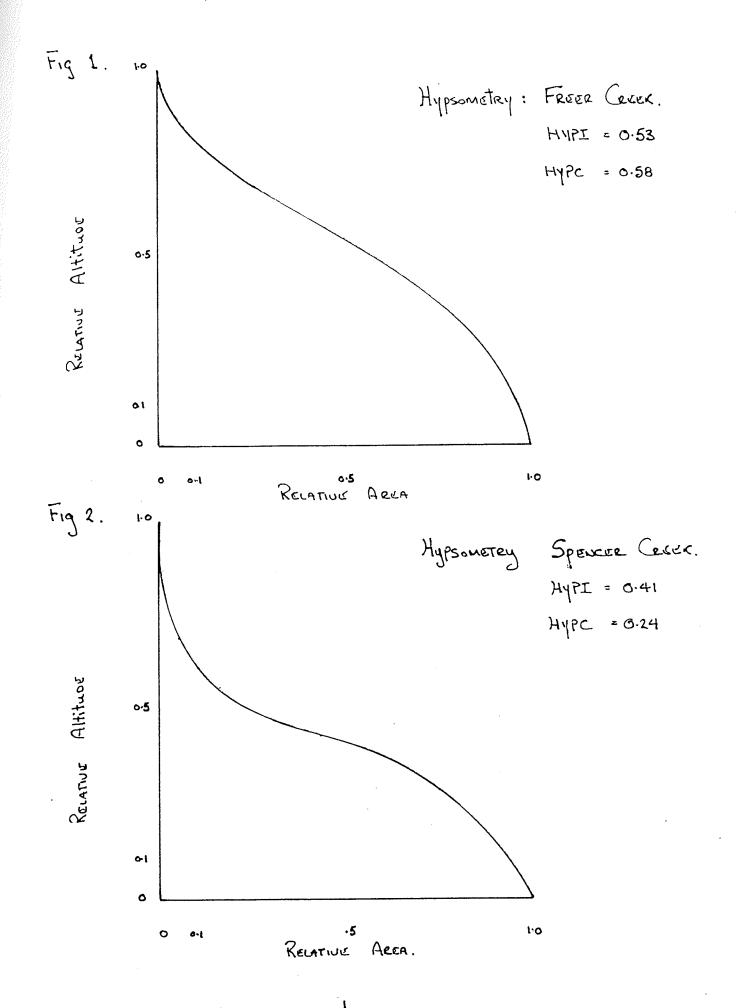
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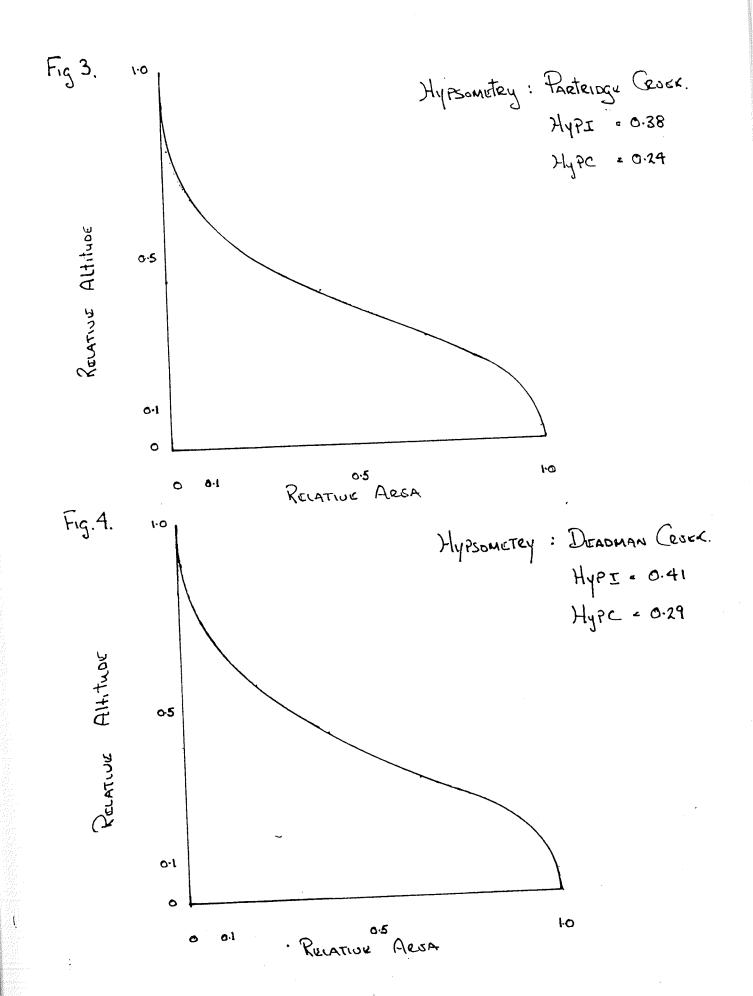
PROGRAM CONTROL INFORMATION

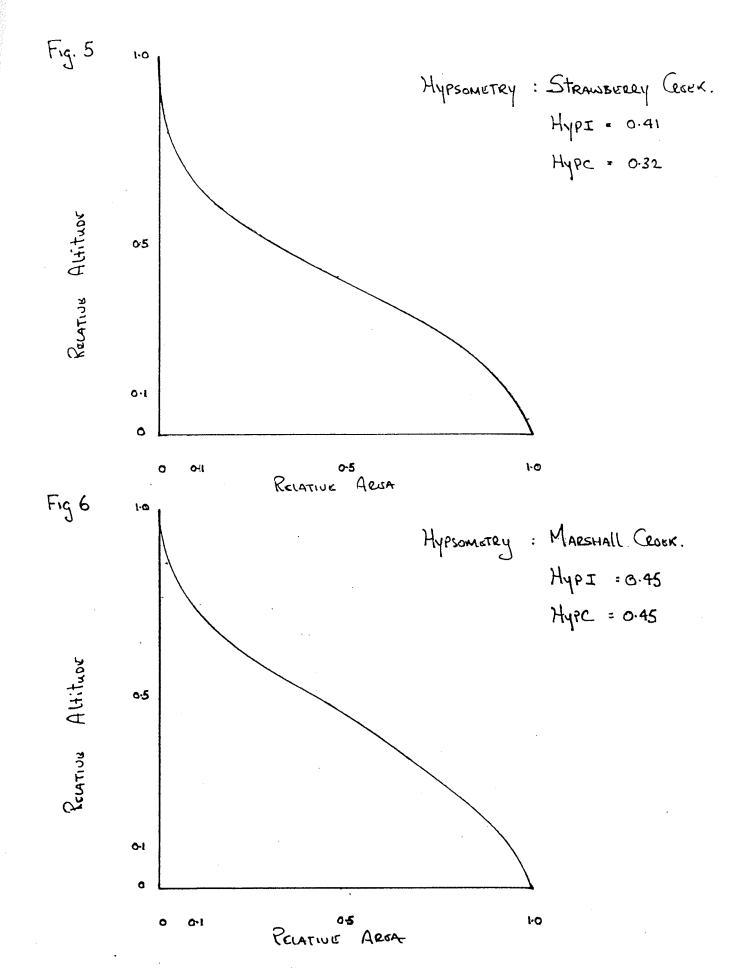
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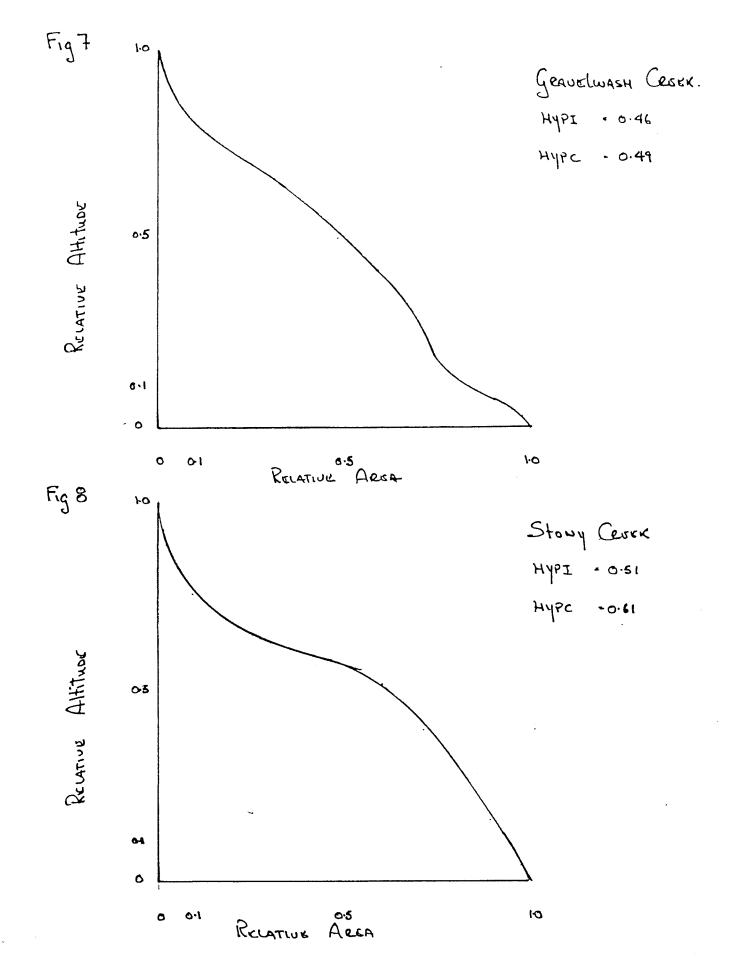
APPENDIX 2

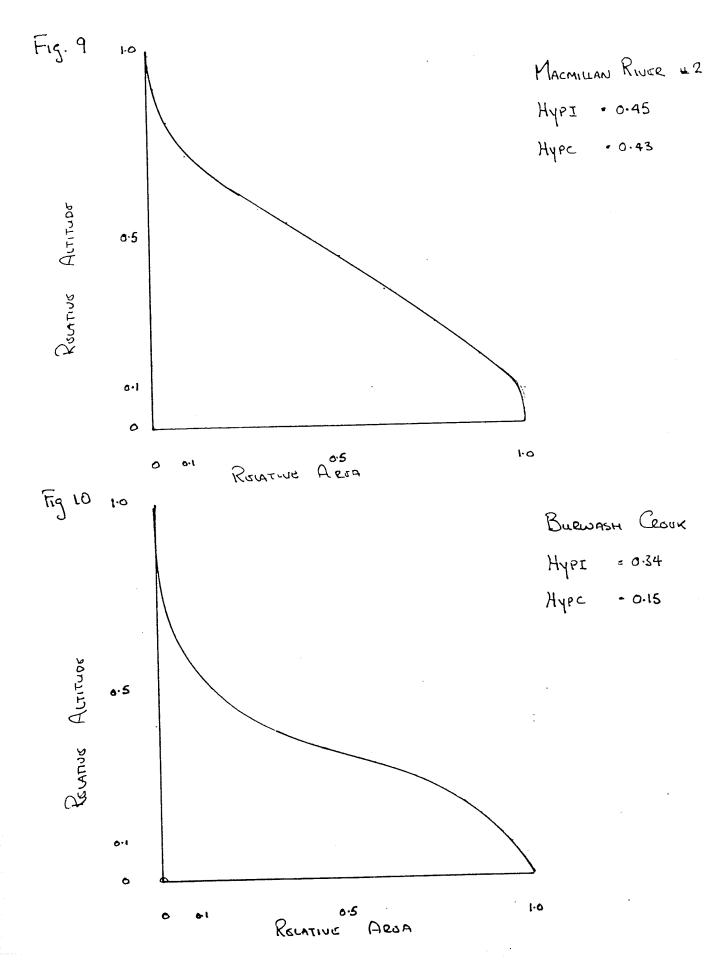
HYPSOMETRY

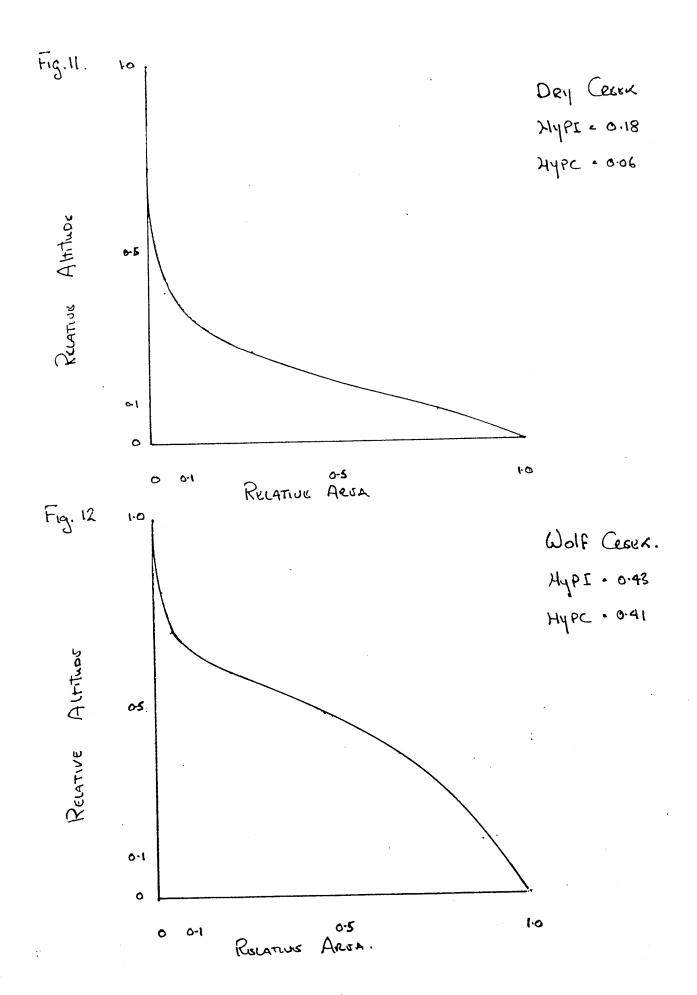


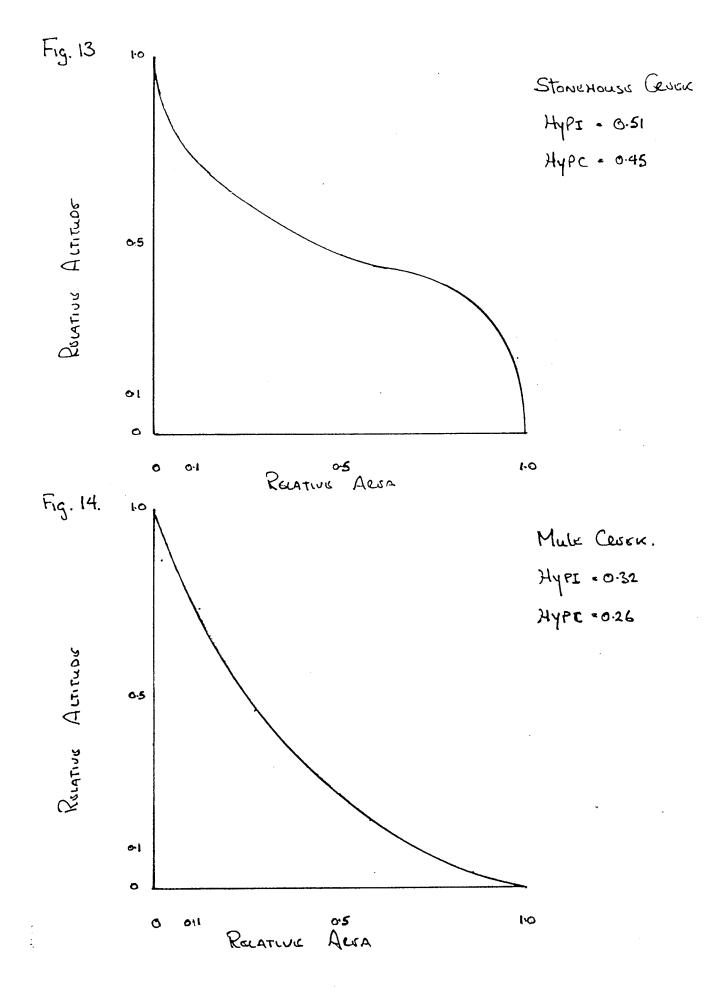


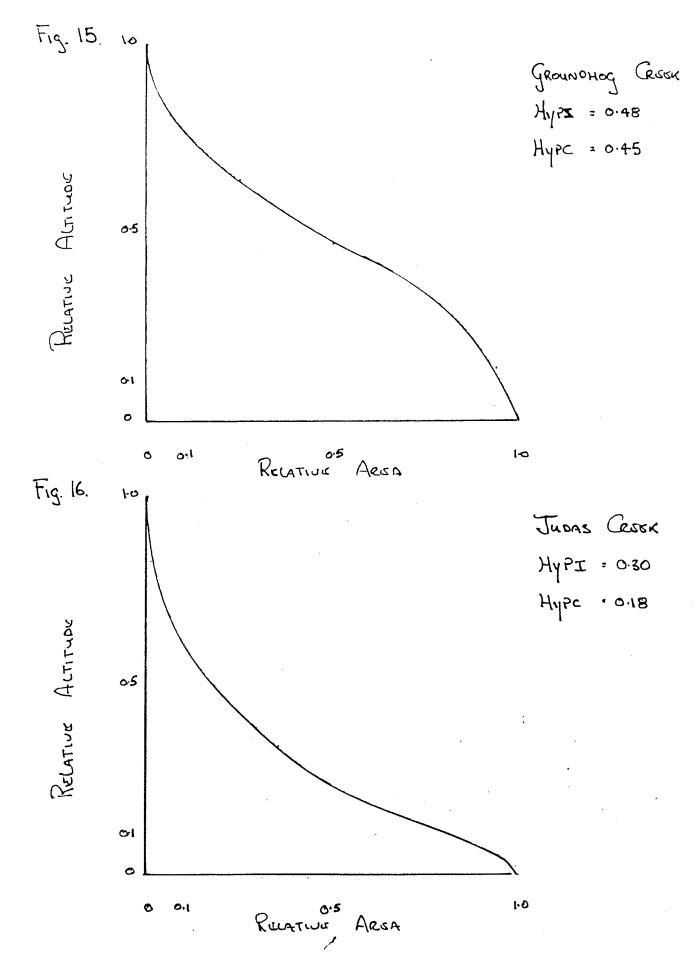


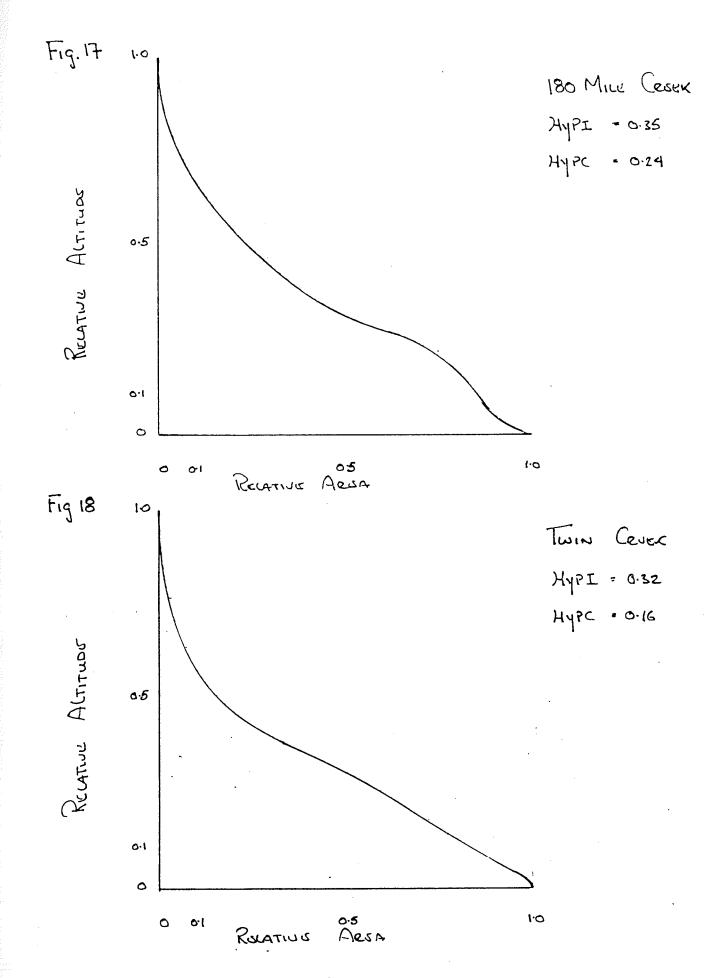


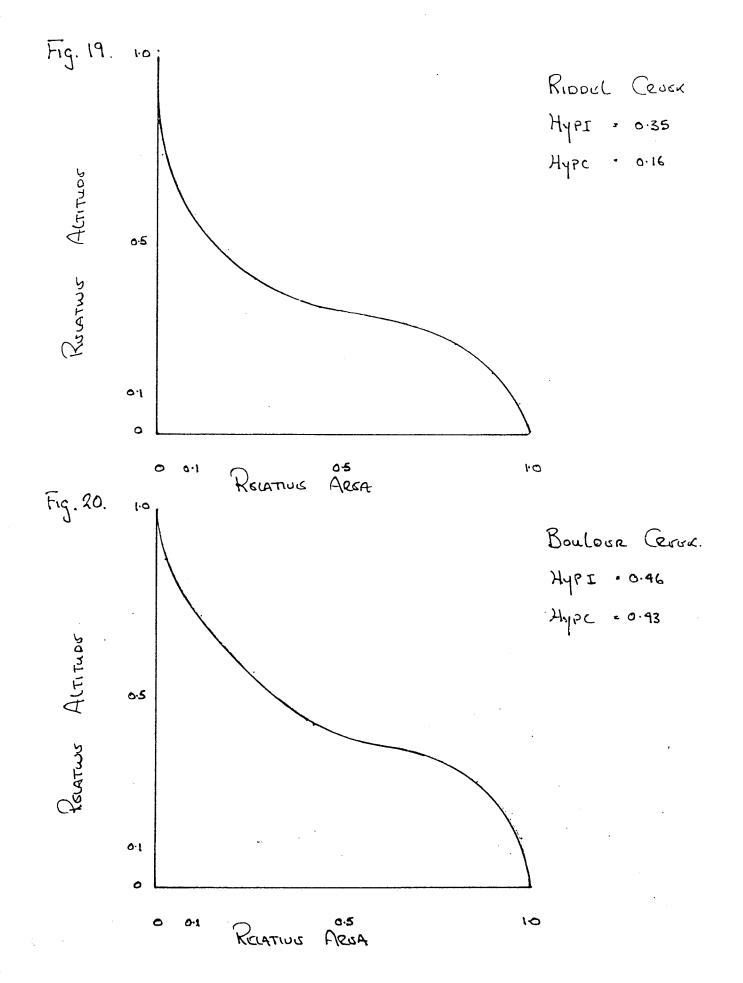


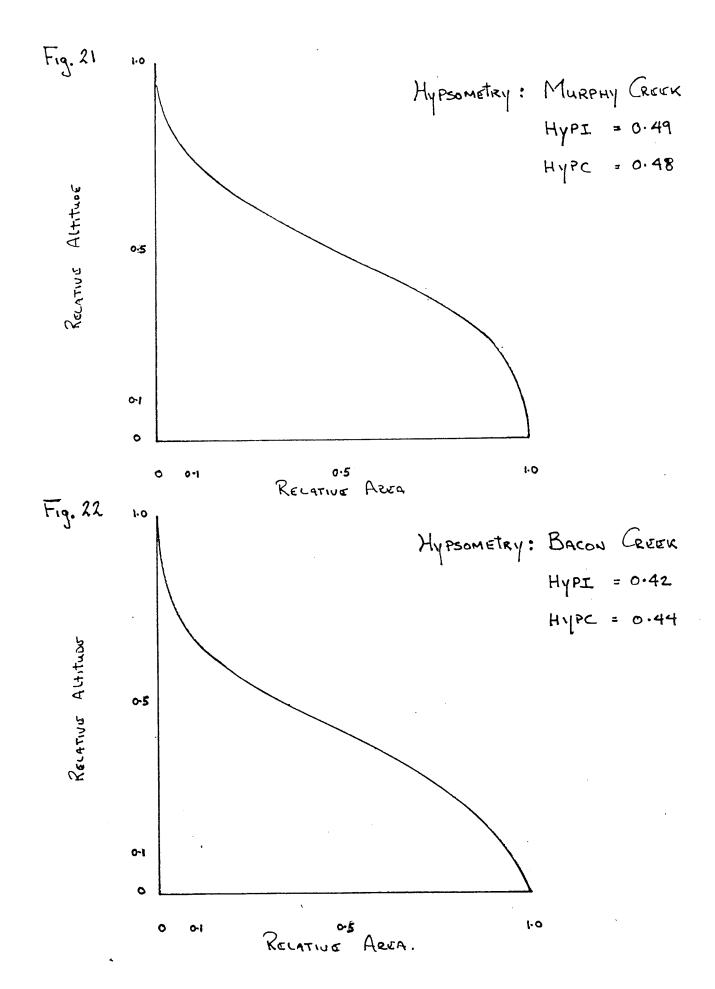


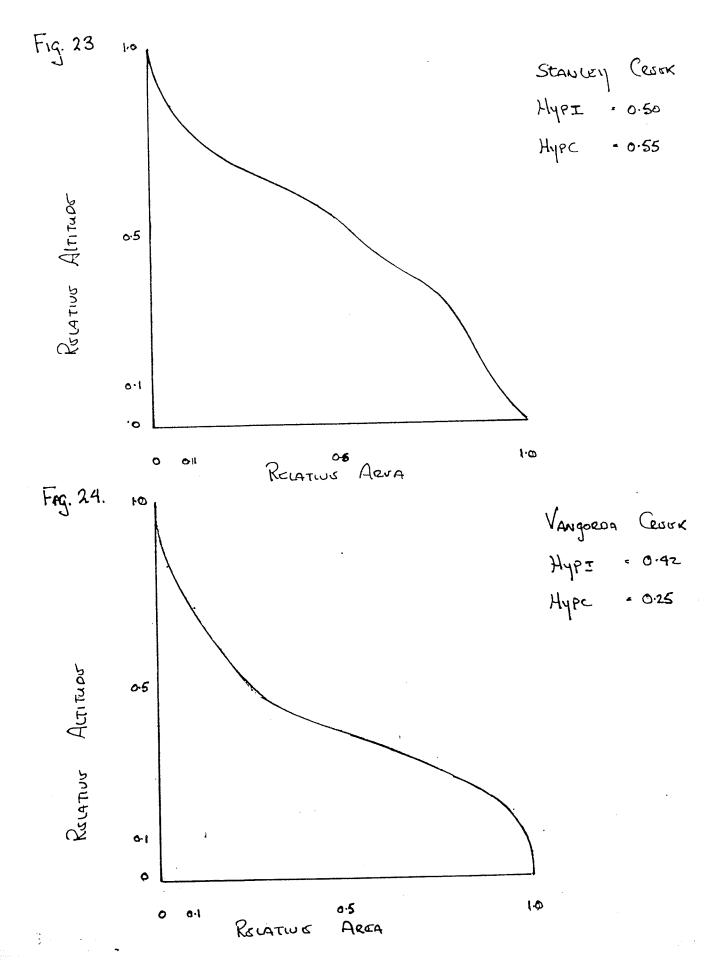


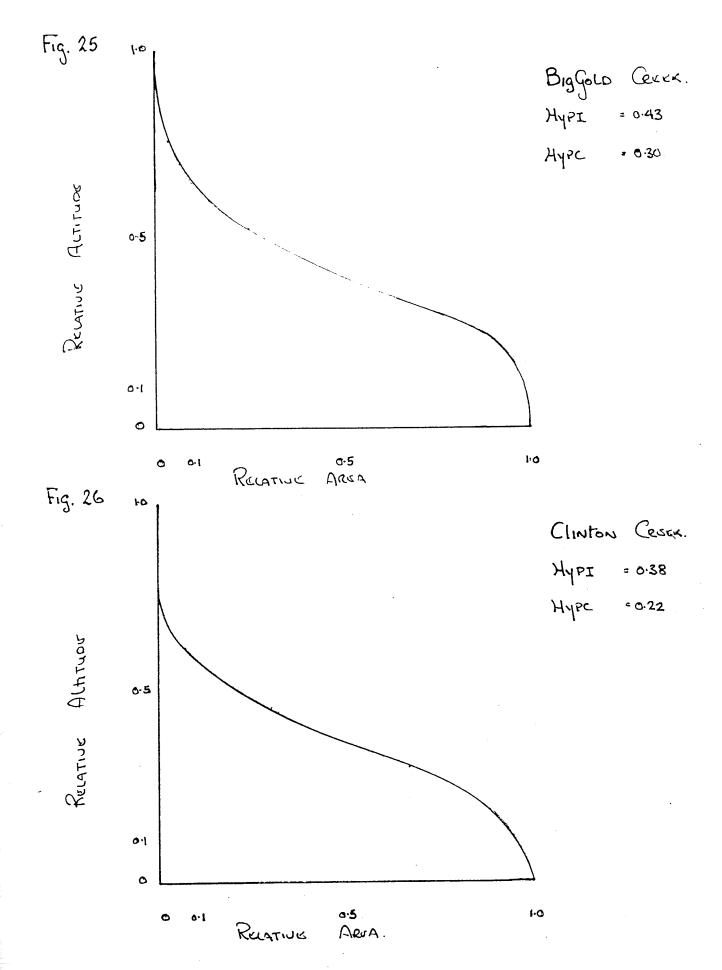


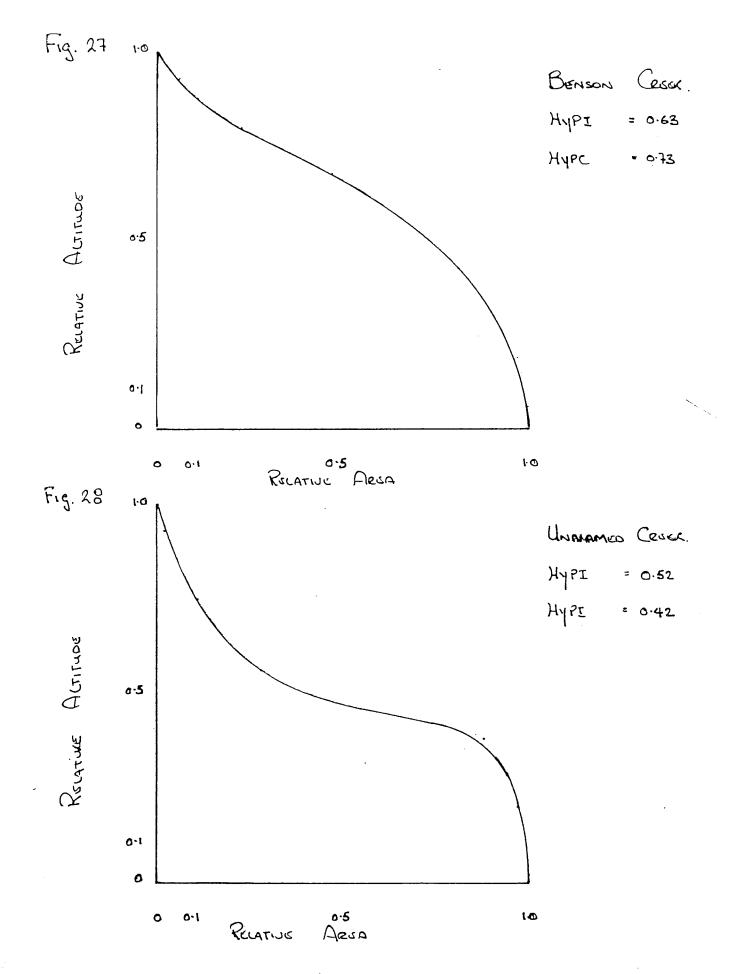


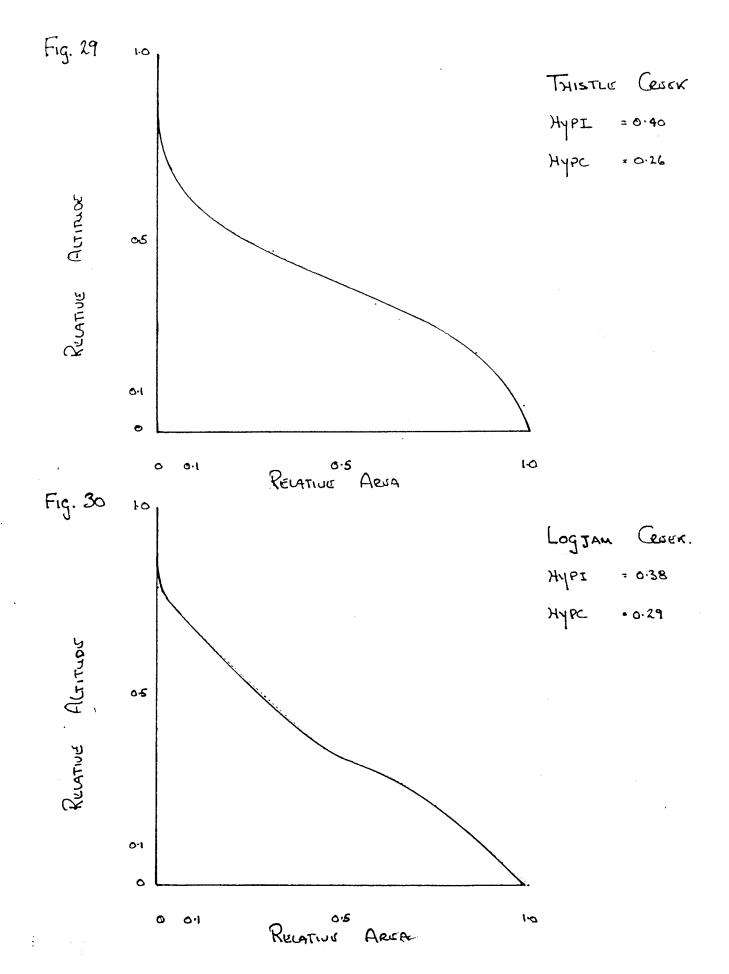


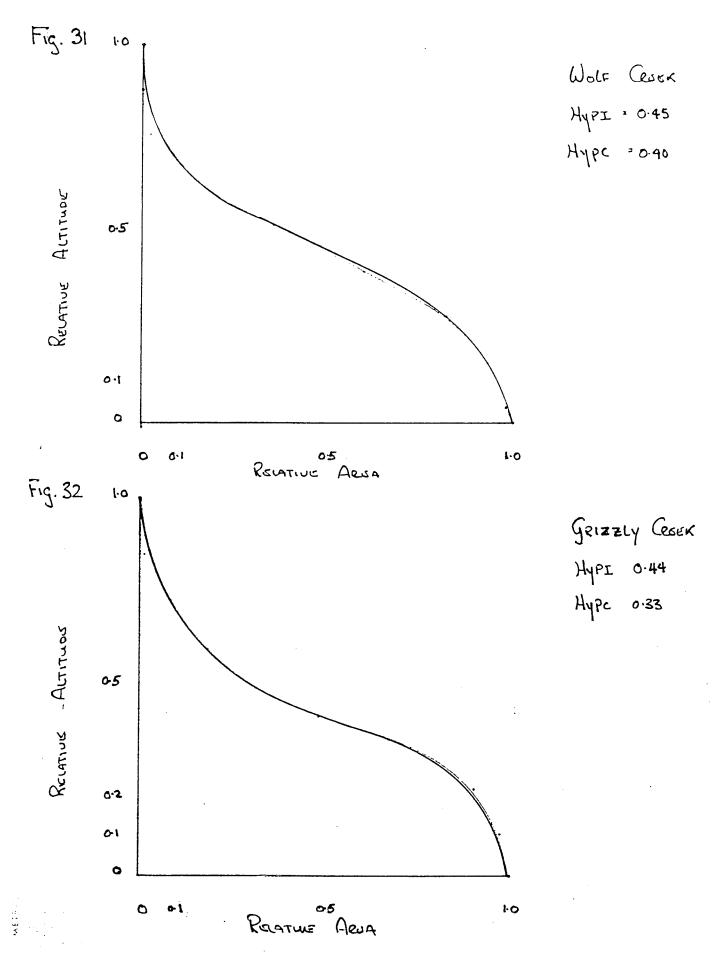


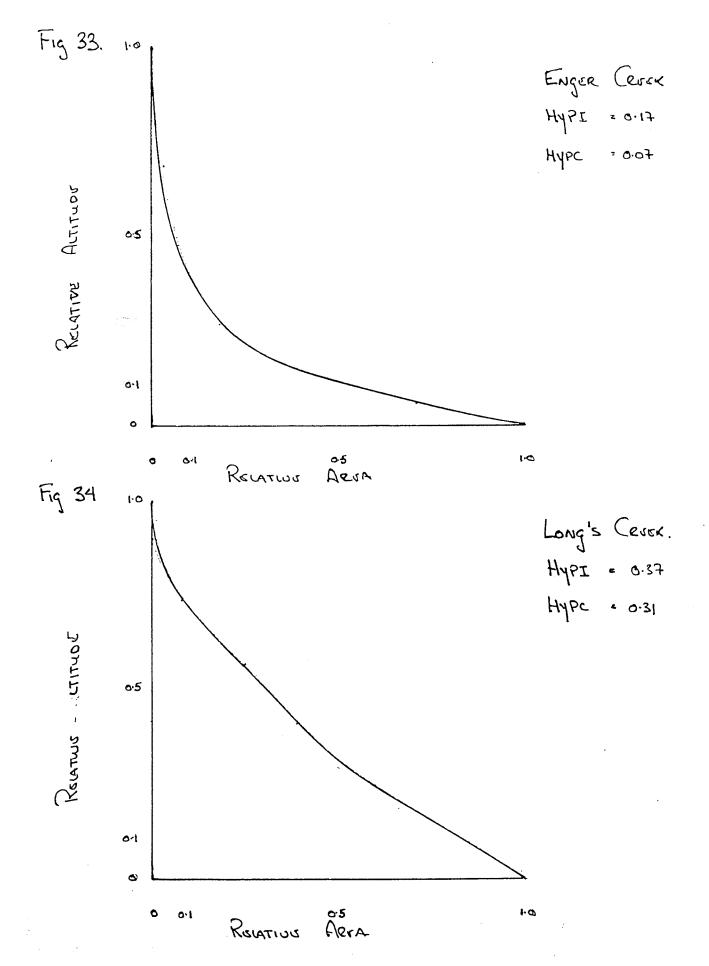


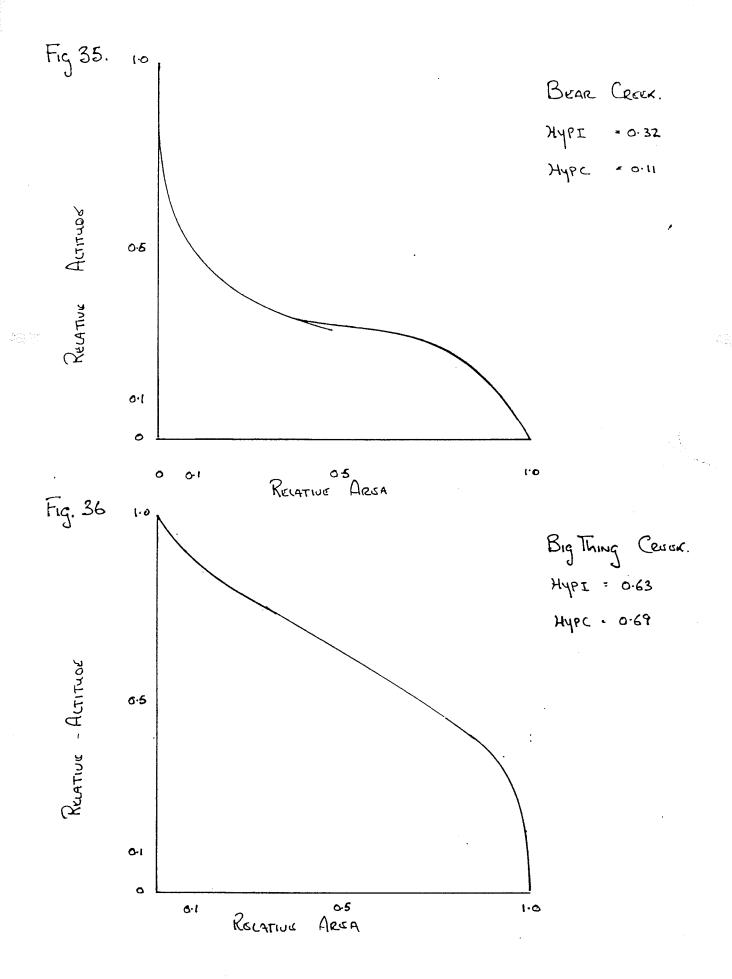












APPENDIX 3

CORRELATION MATRIX

PAGE 3 BINDE	TORUN TREA	SKEDDION MAKE	.,515
VARIABLE NO. NAME 3 LONG 4 LAT 5 RANK	MEAN 135.3199 61.7043 3.5278	STANDARD DEVIATION 3.5249 1.6001 0.6540	COEFFI OF VARI 0.02 0.02 0.18

VIBLON

· DECDERSION ANALYSIS

SMALLEST VALUE 130. 2000 SMALLEST STD SCORE LARGEST STD SCORE LARGEST CIENT ATION KURTOSIS VALUE SKEWNESS -1. 4525 -1. 3776 -2. 3359 -2. 4508 -1. 3769 -1. 8284 1. 5547 2. 0284 2. 2510 3. 3799 140. 8000 64. 9500 -1.443326048 0.1000 -1. 0624 -0. 3246 2. 5998 59. 5000 2. 0000 320. 0000 5932 0. 4437 -0. 3970 5. 0000 35400 1480.0000 222.0000 75.5000 198. 9479 65. 2968 17. 3940 807. 5811 0. 246350 0. 647733 0. 5664 ELEV 2. 3748 -1. 0260 -1. 1965 -0. 3255 -0. 9963 0. 4174 0. 8917 -0. 7395 -1. 3090 10. 9000 1.8560 100. 8082 46. 8027 19. 6360 0. 6366 0. 1382 0. 7311 AREA 1.6498 0. 371645 PER -1. 5027 -1. 7844 -1. 2209 42. 6000 28. 3000 268. 0000 1890. 0000 2. 4412 2. 1252 0. 479062 0. 358139 0. 705980 0. 236163 9. 4069 5. 7551 5, 5000 STL 5. 8000 11. 7000 625. 0000 3. 0000 -0. 9999 0. 2200 0. 2283 0. 9795 16.0694 84.7249 1090.5535 150.1665 10 BAL 3. 0641 3. 1041 2. 1683 1. 7148 59. 8141 257. 5488 TCHL 11 -1.80760. 4903 REL 0. 236163 0. 592221 -4. 291791 0. 224617 0. 222166 0. 296227 0. 510440 68. 9317 0. 6739 0. 3993 0. 2006 0. 3327 -1. 6548 -1. 2508 -1. 7666 343, 0000 13 -0. 1570 0. 3647 24. 2126 0. 9986 CASP 2. 3837 2. 7192 3. 0058 2. 6980 3. 0382 3. 9521 -0.1772 -0.2733 0.3500 -0.0470 0. 5600 0.081915 BSH1 -1. 5992 -1. 5921 -1. 4665 -1. 3335 -1. 2682 5. 3792 0. 2523 0. 2233 0. 5883 0. 7997 0. 7983 15. 6100 0. 4500 0. 1100 38.8400 BSH2 16 1.6100 17 0.8517 DRD 1.0400 0. 4375 STF 18 0.0760 0. 0314 0. 0269 0. 413489 0. 662242 1.3667 1.8868 1. 9634 0.0341 0.1715 19 RELRA 4. 6591 -0. 0822 0.0065 1.7300 0.1468 2012345 SLOPE 0.0406 2. 3314 2. 1767 2. 3000 2. 4139 3. 2339 1. 7620 -2. 0864 -2. 5168 -1. 7084 0. 862242 0. 271098 0. 235221 0. 483719 -6. 398036 -9. 154758 0. 777307 0. 3027 -0. 2578 0. 3645 0. 5487 3. 9828 0. 4167 6. 5000 1.0797 BIRA 0. 0980 0. 1672 0. 0523 0. 0292 0. 3284 0. 0376 0. 6272 -0. 5577 -0. 4971 0. 6300 0. 7300 0. 1700 HYP I 0.0600 HYPC 0.3456 -1. 7084 -1. 5694 -2. 2043 -1. 2223 -0. 7160 -0. 2320 -1. 4996 -0.0082 -0.0032 0.4214 0.1180 GRAD1 0. 8355 0. 3766 2. 5679 5. 0608 1.7347 0.0913 -0.0676GRAD2 0. 0200 1.0000 58 57 59 ATR 1. 018590 4. 309862 0. 304429 0. 217833 0. 1900 0. 1200 ALM 0,0100 0.0369 6. 4865 0.0047 44.3443 0.4194 25. 6125 -1. 0465 -0. 4266 0.0204 0.0 24. 1000 0. 3100 0. 2600 0. 2900 68. 6000 0. 6400 13. 4997 0.0977 PRECIP INTENS 29 1. 7968 2. 4139 2. 6803 2. 6790 2. 7268 2. 7610 2. 6957 3. 7405 -1. 1978 0.0914 0.8311 -1. 1978 -1. 2881 -1. 3056 -1. 2617 -1. 2617 -1. 0831 -1. 9215 -1. 2507 -1. 3389 -1. 0690 8. 5822 9. 4497 6. 4984 7. 1111 0. 757191 0. 752520 26, 0000 0. 9872 0.0191 32334 02 ŏ. 9790 ŏ. ŏ168 28. 5000 GMA 13. 5719 17. 5105 10.0585 0.741127 0.9443 0.0160 0.4400 41.0000 Q5 0. 5800 0. 7400 0. 0065 0. 9765 0. 1511 0. 1638 54.0000 13. 1211 0. 749330 Q10 67. 0000 ŏ. 9884 16.7432 0.765756 0.755770 žś. 020 21.8649 3. 6373 0.0358 0.5713 1,8159 0. 1371 36 51085 505252 -0. 1389 0. 2006 0. 2024 1. 0371 -1.0107 -1.3090 0.0167 0. 2886 ŏ. 1.0000 37 NASP 0. 6739 5. 2500 14. 4564 2. 9986 19. 6464 1.8430 8.7396 19.5989 šė CASP2 0. 365656 2. 0775 3. 0785 3. 2978 0. 1596 0. 2429 11. 0257 0.600720 -1.0988 39 GRADA 0. 7181 1. 5840 64. 1026 79. 0234 0. 737613 40 GRADE 15. 5715 0.5627241.3842 GRADE

4.0673 1.7968

1.4852 1.7149

NOTE - KURTOSIS VALUES GREATER THAN ZERO INDICATE A DISTRIBUTION WITH HEAVIER TAILS THAN NORMAL DISTRIBUTION.

PAGE 4 BMDP YUKON : REGRESSION ANALYSIS

CORRELATION MATRIX

		LONG 3	LAT 4	RANK 5	ELEV 6	AREA 7	PER 8	STL	9	BAL 10	TCHL 11	REL	12
LONG LAT RANK ELEV	34 5 გ	1.0000 0.4045 0.2335 -0.5255	1.0000 0.3051 -0.0491	1.0000 -0.3674	1. 0000								

LSTF 66 0. 1824 0. 2347 0. 3893 -0. 0108 -0. 0197 -0. 0143 -0. 0495 0. 0013 0. 3372 -0. 0505	AE 10 PS S NABEL PLODDON SWYA LILLLILLLILLLALLLALLLALLLALLLALLALLALLAL		0.135342 13534 135342 135342 135342 135342 135342 135342 135342 135342 135342 1	0.000.000.000.000.000.000.000.000.000.	0.000010148903377449007311234733447149908611663 6713061301427188900000000000000000000000000000000000	-0.00.010794290479797089908 -0.00.01070524290404897789880274461191040464897785887294797089789213731242848941300048176444113491149468100021078921588315005475979797979797979797979797979797979797	1.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.000000	00014697772920333487058033662593313371896016119266907770263485524121000000000000000000000000000000000	0062579936826658266956266477099537630887933500600.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.0	017754960 071754960 071754960 071754960 0717549760 0717549760 08103396150 08103396150 0810396150 08	06040449680777377371141668168199924445554993653990174749683528399017449683552881495539901747493352770777777777777777777777777777777777	1.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00
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		93 33	34	920 35	51085 36	NASP 37	CASP2 38	GRADA 39	GRADB 40	GRADE 41	GRADF 42
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NPPABEF NPPADBEF NPPADBEF NPPADBEF NPPADBEF NBPA	5 A	CRUCKT APAIL
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1.0000 0.0088 0.1262 -0.0452 -0.1669 -0.9725 -0.9725 -0.0007 0.1215 0.2805 0.31943 -0.1637 0.1572 0.0811 0.3681 0.3693	RUGN . 43	0.17930 0.17930 0.17930 0.147539 0.04773313300 0.1475331230 0.15115430250 0.15115430250 0.15115332494 0.111932494311 0.1111234943119 0.1111234943119 0.1111234943119 0.1111234943119 0.111423543949
1. 0000 -0. 7789 0. 9404 0. 8449 -0. 4119 -0. 3337 0. 0353 0. 0353 0. 0925 0. 3309 -0. 1005 -0. 2571 0. 2571 0. 21572 0. 2924 0. 2224 0. 7339	LNASP 44	0. 1918 0. 3294 0. 0646 0. 45147 -0. 11447 -0. 55130 0. 56530 0. 56530 0. 221661 -0. 1217 0. 121661 -0. 1221661 -0. 1221661 -0. 12317 0. 12317
1. 0000 -0. 7237 -0. 6321 0. 6651 0. 5075 0. 0650 0. 0927 0. 0584 -0. 2105 0. 0380 -0. 1520 -0. 1520 -0. 1831 -0. 1831 -0. 0801 -0. 4727	LCASP2 45	0.76 0.76 0.76 0.76 0.76 0.76 0.76 0.76
1. 0000 0. 9484 -0. 1523 -0. 0354 0. 25182 -0. 155322 -0. 1553228 0. 553228 0. 554477 0. 7615	LGRADA 46	-0.6604 -0.1604 -0.160718 -0.5674715 -0.56744750 -0.56744750 -0.661698 -0.661698 -0.758900078 -0.7589000078 -0.7589000078 -0.7589000078 -0.7589000078 -0.7589000000000000000000000000000000000000
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1. 0000 -0. 2141 0. 2103 0. 3250 -0. 7945 -0. 4508 0. 4420 0. 3766 0. 41877 -0. 0760	LGRADF 49	-0. 1030 -0. 1247 0. 03124 0. 44751 0. 4774 -0. 42751 0. 558673 0. 55967 0. 47640 -0. 04753 -0. 12276 -0. 12276 -0. 12276 -0. 12276 -0. 12276 -0. 12276 -0. 12277 -0. 0474297
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LDSH2 LDSH2 LDRD LSTF AE LRELOPE LBIRA LBIPPI LHYPAD1 LLGRADD LALM LAGL LAFRET LAGL LAGL LOFE LOGO LOGO LOGO LOGO LDSH2	845478901234547890123	-0.2527 0.2244 0.71161 0.5995 0.3244 0.071161 0.00741 0.005125 0.0801 0.205152 -0.2055 -0.2055 0.0453 0.22688 0.22689 0.22689	-0.1646 0.3528 -0.0701 -0.0333 -0.08567 -0.0957 -0.0957 -0.86475 -0.1833 -0.1445 -0.0758 -0.3657 0.3657 0.3864 0.3883	0 1334 -0 2709 0 14887 0 1364 0 17829 -0 05202 0 9373 0 28373 0 28373 0 18851 0 1349 -0 1589 -0 1589 -0 1453	-0. 1737 -0. 4108 -0. 06142 -0. 5277 -0. 36715 -0. 0911 -0. 1854 -0. 18147 -0. 33646 -0. 1768 -0. 1768 -0. 1861 -0. 5236 -0. 5335 -0. 5335	-0. 1099 -0. 4109 -0. 1351 -0. 6177 -0. 60333 -0. 2569 -0. 7427 -0. 1049 -0. 11629 -0. 14948 -0. 48025 -0. 4963	0.0356 0.0184 0.0759 0.1203 -0.64490 -0.62083 -0.2285 -0.1982 0.4758 -0.13481 -0.1358 0.02666 0.22591 0.22591 0.22770 0.3119 0.3292	0.1044 0.0653 -0.044336 -0.0454336 -0.45236 -0.43354 -0.33544 -0.17549 -0.1065 -0.1065 -0.21769 -0.21769 -0.21769	-0. 3124 0. 7444 0. 7449 0. 61850 0. 3811 0. 0678 0. 01567 0. 01567 0. 02839 0. 3009 0. 2839 0. 2890 0. 2897 0. 3011 0. 3011	-0.0091 -0.0138 -0.01381 -0.1781 -0.1422 -0.1876 -0.2467 -0.2467 -0.0939 0.0102 0.0121 0.2256 0.0863 -0.3069 -0.0337 -0.0337 -0.0308 -0.0081	-0.0772 0.2561 0.25218 -0.23218 -0.00792 -0.00792 -0.09935 -0.09239 -0.0227199 0.4363 0.44363 0.44285 0.4457
		LRANK 53	LS1085 54	LELEV 55	LAREA 56	LPER 57	LSTL 58	LBAL 59	LTCHL 60	LREL 61	LASP 62
KOBYA	555555566666666777777777788888	1.0000 -0.9671 -0.775814 -0.775881 -0.7758881 -0.775881	1. 0000 0. 0777 -0. 6339 -0. 6149 -0. 6071 -0. 53169 -0. 32200 -0. 173200 -0. 173364 -0. 173353 -0. 23744 0. 82483 -0. 23749 -0. 12851 -0. 12851 -0. 12851 -0. 12851 -0. 12851 -0. 12851 -0. 12409 -0. 4020 -0. 4171 -0. 4010	1.0000 -0.34529 -0.23459 -0.23359 -0.07886 -0.07	1.9695 0.9695 0.98523 0.9955717 0.095258813 0.095200 0.03095200 0.03095200 0.0159444 0.01594423 0.015944423 0.02404944 0.02404944 0.02404944 0.05577694 0.055576643 0.06663 0.	1. 0000 0. 9744 0. 9744 0. 93911 -0. 19216 -0. 03158 -0. 03158 -0. 03158 -0. 12167380 -0. 12167380 -0. 27787 -0. 2889030 -0. 21896 -0. 21896 -0. 554719 -0. 554719 -0. 665 -0. 66548	1. 0000 0. 0025 0. 0025 0. 0025 0. 0025 0. 0027 0. 002	1.0000 0.97302 0.2517 -0.497322 -0.07222 -0.177222 -0.177222 -0.17722 -0.17	1.0000 0.2122 0.2701 -0.0549 0.2833 0.2752 -0.78311 -0.5391 -0.13172 -0.1846 -0.1645 -0.2804 -0.0007 -0.06431 0.66713 0.6772	1. 0000 -0. 1552 -0. 3814 0. 3786 -0. 1002 0. 4013 -0. 02168 -0. 11887 -0. 21680 -0. 11887 -0. 23739 -0. 23739 -0. 3160 -0. 32337 0. 04869 0. 1143	1.0000 0.0539 0.1086 0.0856 -0.3752 -0.0174 -0.2195 -0.6181 -0.6181 -0.6734 0.1246 -0.0374 0.1246 -0.0374 0.3755 0.3655 0.3495
		LBSH1	LB2H5	LDRD	LSTF	LRELRA	LSLOPE	LBIRA	LHYPI	LHYPC	LGRAD1

 $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

		63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	
LBSH1 LBSH2 LDRD LSTF AE LSLURA LSLURA LSLURA LHYPAD1 LHYPAD1 LGRAA LAGRAT LAGRAT LAGRAT LAGRAT LAGRAT LOGMA LOGIO LOGIO	645478901234547890123	1 0000 -0 6585 -0 07936 -0 079386 -0 04955 -0 1317 -0 1317 -0 23988 -0 26889 -0 1745 -0 11527 -0 11727 -0 11727 -0 1777 -0 1777	1. 00468 004648 -0. 204911 -0. 204911 -0. 32441 -0. 313445 -0. 137938 -0. 137938 -0. 227947 0. 3258	1.000 0.097 0.097432 0.14354 0.143535 0.143535 0.1600444 0.1133999 0.13393333333333333333333333333333333333	1.0000 -0.0412 0.1993 -0.0428 -0.0428 0.00528 0.11887 0.3128 0.3330818 0.225 0.228	1.0000 0.8420 -0.1447 0.24842 0.1250 0.24283 -0.2574 0.3478 -0.55259 -0.55259 -0.555747 -0.55	1.0000 -0.1584 0.4718 0.0453 0.1192 -0.3798 -0.403793 -0.33433 -0.33433 -0.33510 -0.33493	1. 0000 -0. 1599 -0. 1107 0. 1592 0. 1699 0. 1447 -0. 1845 0. 23445 0. 22746 0. 27746 0. 2559 0. 2419	1.0000 0.9384 -0.0541 -0.01684 -0.6925 -0.1935 -0.4902 0.1217 0.1250 0.1263 0.1214	1.0000 0.0414 0.05769 -0.6269 -0.6480 -0.0365 -0.4192 0.0530 0.0470 0.0460 0.0377	1.0000 0.9363 0.2979 0.1616 0.3621 0.0466 -0.2414 -0.2453 -0.2465	
		LGRAD2 73	LATR 74	LALM 75	LAGL 76	LPRECIP 77	LINTENS 78	LQ2 79	LGMA 80	LQ5 81	LQ10 82	
LGRAD2 LATR LALM LAGL LPRECIP LINTENS LG2 LOMA LG5 LG10 LG20	73475677890123	1. 0000 0. 2748 0. 0786 0. 2580 0. 1627 0. 0151 -0. 2543 -0. 2742 -0. 2764 -0. 2590	1. 0000 -0. 3638 0. 3082 0. 1735 -0. 1704 0. 0103 0. 0124 0. 0200 0. 0240 0. 0236	1.0000 -0.0982 0.0876 0.4104 -0.0987 -0.0805 -0.0774 -0.0758	1. 0000 0. 2318 0. 0456 -0. 156 -0. 1680 -0. 1819 -0. 1870 -0. 1837	1. 0000 0. 5 326 0. 4181 0. 3797 0. 3369 0. 2732 0. 2685	1.0000 0.3981 0.3879 0.3411 0.3071 0.2853	1. 0000 0. 9791 0. 9843 0. 9626 0. 9403	1.0000 0.9903 0.9718 0.9514	1.0000 0.9948 0.9836	1. 0000 0. 9964	
		. raso										
LG20	83 10118	1.0000	REGRESSION A	DISV IAMA								
PAGE 5	ON TT	TIF		HINC 1919								
YUKON TR	ĒGREŠ	STON ANALYS										
DEPENDEN MINIMUM MAXIMUM	NUMBER T VAR ACCEP	R OF STEPS . IABLE TABLE F TO !	ENTER	BLES	4. 000, 3. 900,	9MA 4.000 3.900 53 55	56 57	58 59 6C) 61 62	63 64	65 66	67

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APPENDIX 4

ESTIMATES OF MISSING FLOODS

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR FROM CRUCK

REGRESSION ANALYSIS FREER RANK PRETELOGIS CRUCK CROSK 8-33 1 8-36	Discharge	uso In		SCATTSE DAGRAM
FREER ROME FORTELOGIE CRUCK CROSK	_REGROSSI	ion bhacilit	10	
CRUKK CROSK	FREER	RANK PARTELOGE		
\sim 1		CROOK		
5-09 2 7·28 3 3·98 2 7·20 8 3·56 4 4·47 8			<u>~</u>	
3.98 2 720 8 3.56 4 4.47 8			.3,	•
3.56 4 4.47			<u> </u>	
			8	
2-86 5 4-20 3			3	
2-21 6 360			21(4=-0354.812
217 7 2.40				
			~ 5	/
199 9 2.88 9			30,	
2-02 8 2-15 X 5 199 9 2-88 X 1-14 10 2-83		:	્રલ	
			_	
1-28 12 1-37		ı	3	
1-28 12 1-37	1-13	12	Ta	/·
		1 ;		/
				/ ·
				• /
· _ /			•	
				5 10
Parterogy Cerus Dischnegy (cms)			0	Parterogy Cerux Dischargy (cms)

ESTIMATICO	MAZIMUM INSTANTANCE	us Dunnegr for France Cerux.
Year	Est. Max Inst Disch. FRINCE CRISUK C.M.S	MAX INST DISCH. PARTRIDGE COLUK C.MS.
१९२८	5-90	7.67

Discharge	[Perriad]	ש סיט	SCATTUR DIAGRAM
PACROLLINA	A ANAC	yeir	(0)
Susanara of	RANK	Cogjan	N T
Carec.		Gener	
407	1	9.16	Dischargy (CHS)
2.08	2	4.31	4
1.80	3	3.08	,
1.72	4	2 9 2	Ä
1.70	5	2-19	
124	6	2.76	
1-18	7	268	
1.05	8	1.82	§ 5
695	9	1-7-2	J. J
0.87	10		y=.32+041x
6.85	11	1.02	15 L = 0.48
0.62	12.	0.96	N=12
002	144	0.16	3
			4
		·	
-			0
			6 1 2 Logjan Cesar Dscharge (cms)
			maller and

ESTIMATUD	Mazimum Instantanias	Dixmegr Strawburry Ceren
YEAR	Est. MAX INST DEN Strawberrey Criek. CM. S.	Max Inst Disch Loggan Crusur CM.S
1878	1.90	3.75
19 8 o	2.40	4.92
1981	<i>3-5</i> 0	1.8
1982	2-0	4-01

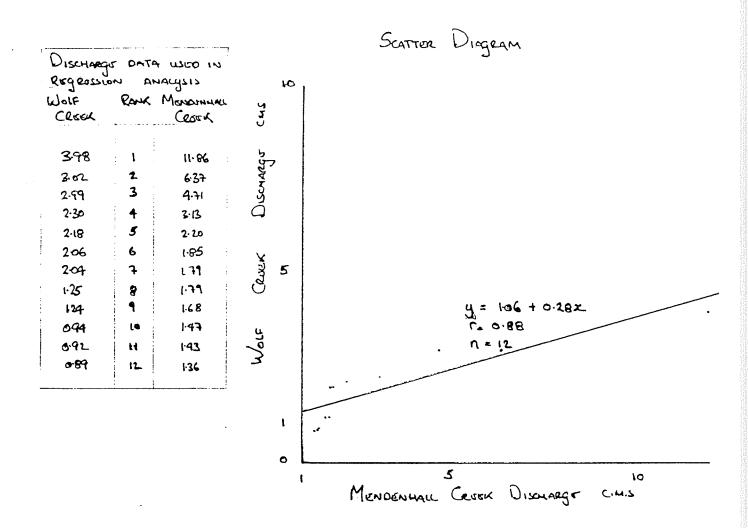
ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR DIGADMAN CROCK.

			28	
DISCHARGE RESCRISSION DEACMAN CRICK 28-56 8-92 7-97 7-80 6-53 5-15 4-68 4-67 4-26 3-56 3-19 3-06 2-91 2-59 2-34 1-71	on ANA	cysis	DEAUMAN CRECK, DISCHARGE (CALE,)	y = -38 + 338x r = 0.98 n = 16
				0 1 Logian CREEK. Discunege (c.w.s)
E	STIMAT	_		INSTAUTANGOUS DISCHARGY FOR DEADMAN GROWN.
•	Year	Do	MAX INS ADMAN (2 N.S	
,	1978	8	.7	3 . ₹5
	1980	12	.6	4.92
;	1981	22	-2	4·80

SCATTER DIAGRAM Deschapen ours mustin 10 RANK MONDHUNKE Tuogs Cesox CEUTER Dischaggy (CMS) 11 86 **4.**77 479 7-8t 637 250 7 2-35 4 6.31 4.71 5 2.02 6 2-13 1.63 7 220 145 Post 8 1.85 1-01 9 1.79 0.71 F-092 057 1.49 Junas 168 056 u 1.47 0.54 12 ı ٥ 12 5 CRUCK Disahrede (cm?) MENDUNHALL

ESTIMATED	MAZIMUM INSTAUTANGOUS	DIMMARGE FOR JURAS CRICK.
lear .	EST. MAX INST. DISCH. JUDAS CRUCK CMS.	MAX INST DISCH MONDUNHAL GENER CALS.
1976	7.5	16.4
1937	9.6	21.2
३ ६१।	2-4	5.6

Estimated Missing Flow DATA FOR WOLF CRUSK.



YEAR	EST. MAX. INST. DISCH WOLE CRECK CMS	Max Just. DiscH MENDENHALL CEDEK. CMS
H18	2-6	5.57
0891	3.8	9.79
1981	2-8	6.31
1977	70	21.3
1976	5. 7	IC-5

Estimated Missing How DATA for BUAR GRUGE.

Regeonsie		Manamerica			
CRECK		Course	\sim		
2-46	t	579	Discunger (ms)		
1.87	2	417	ל	7	
1.44	3	2.96	iA _R i		
va	4	2.20	Ŕ		
F0-1	5	2.09	Ó		
0.96	6	1.95	(•		
0.75	7	1.94		5	
064	•	1-85			
0.65	1 9	1.79	Casek.		y= -067 + 0.45x
060	lo	1-78	, જી		4 * 0.93
0.58	યા	1.69	\cup		N = 12
0.67	12	1-68			
	. !		BCAR		
				ı	.:/

Yuae	EST MAX INST DISCH BEAR CROEK CM.S	MAX INST DISCH MONDONHALL CENUX C.M.S
1978	2-4	5.57
1979	5.3	11.86
1980	44	9.79
1981	2.79	6.31

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR GRAVELWASH COURK.

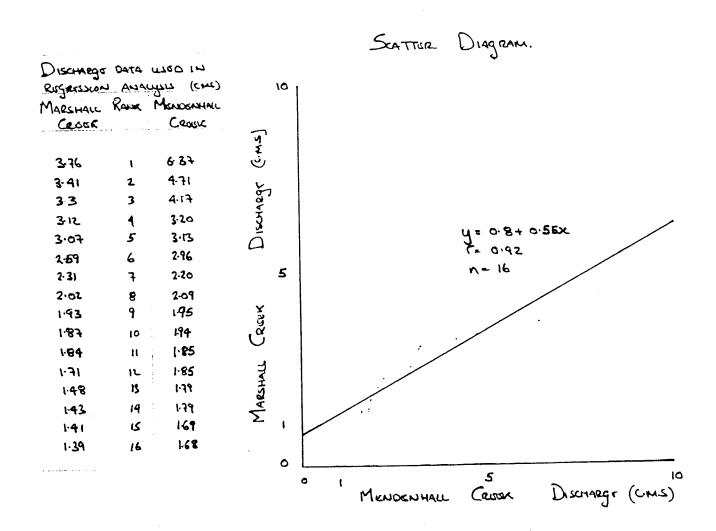
	SCATTO	se Dingram
Dischage Data used in	0.5	
GENERALL RULK STONY	(3.2)	
6:34 1 2:98 6:22 2 1:91 6:19 3 1:21 6:17 4 6:39 6:16 5 6:30 6:19 6 0:29 6:14 7 0:28 6:13 8 6:27 6:11 16 6:17 6:09 11 6:16 6:09 12 6:15	GRAURLMASH CEGER DECHAGGY (CM.S)	y=011+007x 1=0.95 n=12
:	0 1.0 Stown	2.5 5.0 CRUGK DISCHREGE (CM3)
Your	Estimated Max Inst. Dieu. GRANCHMAN GROOT CM.S	Max Inst. Disch Stowy Cesser. Cm.s.
1978	o·2 <i>5</i>	1-90
1981	s·42	4.22

0-14

1982

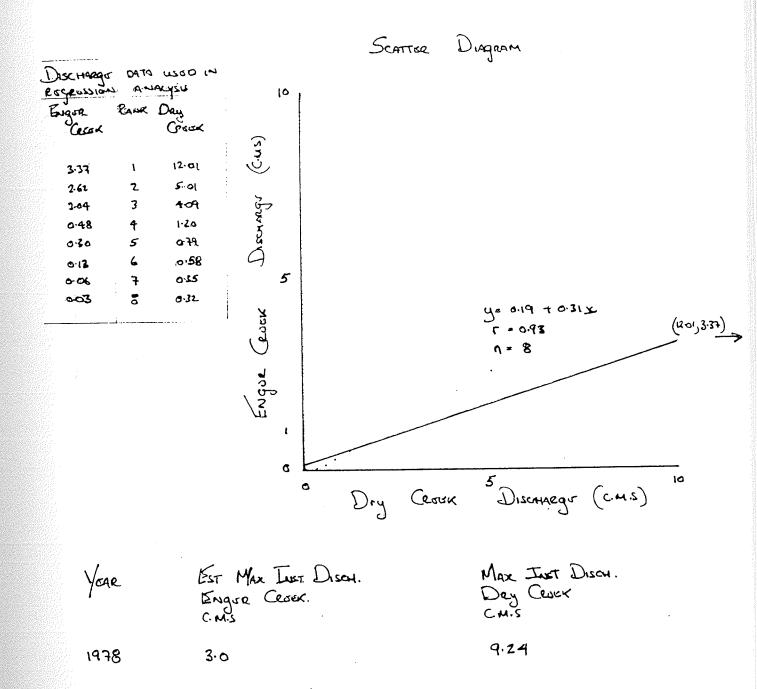
0.41

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR MARSHAU CREEK



YEAR	EST. Max. Inst. Discu Marshau Crown cms.	MAZ JOUT DIXM MODOVAHAL CENOX (CM.S)
8 FP1	2- 86	557
1979	732	11-86
1980	6.18	9.79
1984	a.2 3	6-31

ESTIMATED MISSING Sow DATA for ENGUR CACER.



ESTIMATED MISSING HOW DATA FOR Stanley CENSK.

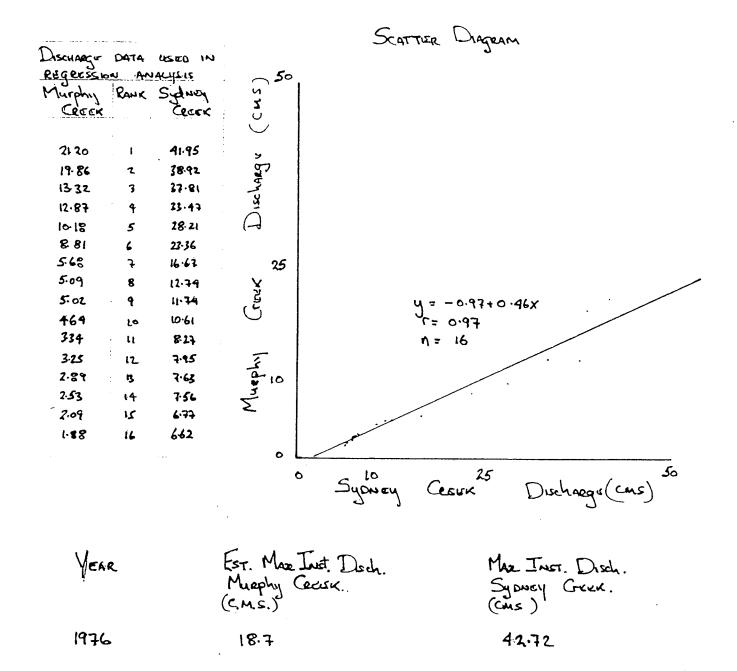
Decharge	مديمه س	ديهاده	(5)	10	/
Stanley	KANK	Stanomour Cluck	نُ	10	
8.79	1	3.95	Dschangs	•	. /
7.92	2. 1	2-71	3		
6.47	3	2.66	٦		y= 0.94 + 2.01x
5.66	•	2-60	L		./ 6.0.96
513	5 .	2.27			/ N= 12
4.56	6.	7-(8			/.
4.20	3.	1.88	¥,	5	<i>/</i> ·
3-60	8	1-06	(S)		/.
2.86	9 .	1-01	G		/ ·
2.38	10	0.83			./
2-10	ų i	0.53	رُو		
2.13	12	0.52	2 A		<i>f.</i>
		MEMORIAL ALV. C. C.	STANCEY		/
			-,		
				ı	
				0	

CAR	EST MAX. INST. DISCH Stanley CENEX CMS	MAZ INST DISCH. Stonemouse Cross.
1978	2 .9	3.9 <i>5</i>
1980	14.2-	6.59
1981	8.9	3.96

ESTIMATED MISSING Flow DATA for Mule CROCK.

SCATTER DIAGRAM. Discharge DATA GUO IU BANK Somemones Muco Cercia. Cenera. 316 6.59 395 270 3.95 224 DISCHARGE 2.71 2.05 2.66 201 2.60 1.60 y2 0.76 + 0.392c 2.27 138 ř= 0.95 1:36 2.18 N = 12 1.88 1.30 Mule Cerren 128 10 106 Ħ 1.73 1.01 0.83 1.06 12_ ٥ Ø STONEHOUSE CROKK Dischaege (cms) EST. Mare Inst DiscH Max. INST. DISCH. YEAR Mule Cever Stouchouse Creek. (CMS CM.S 396 1981 2.3

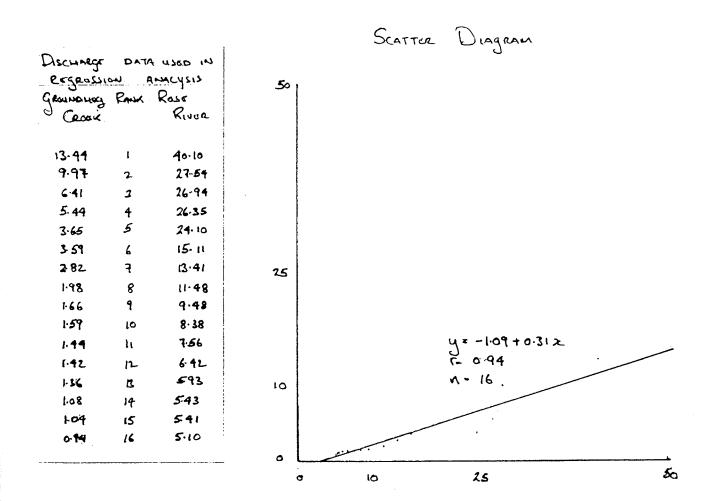
Estimated Missing Flow DATA for Murphy CREEK.



cgecssio	N A	MACYSIS	10	
acon Decen	!KAW€	GEOGRAPHOS PARTIZE		
			<u>ત્ર</u>	
4·13 3·83	i -	331	(รหว)	
	2	3.65		110 017 1100
3.33	3	3.59	Dischaege	4 - 0.04 x
263	4	2.82	و الم	H = 0.98
2.19	5	198	Ť	n = 16
1.99	۷	1.66	<u>\$</u>	
1:31	7	1-61	4 5	. /
161	8	1.59		
F45	9	1.44	¥	•/
+12	lo	1.42	Geer	
105	Ŋ	136	O	/ ·
091	12	1-04	2	/-
089	13	0.84	9)	. •/
18.0	ıq	0.15	BAcou	<i>'</i>
860	15	1F.6	1	/:
069	14	0-69		
			٥	

Year	EST. Max Inst. Disch. BACON CREEK CMS.	MAX INST DUCH GEOUNDHOG CEGER CMS.
1976	7.0	6.8
1457	6.6	6.41
1978	14-0	1344
1939	5.6	5.46
1980	l3	9.97

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR GROUNDING CRUEK



YEAR	EST. MAX INST. DISCH. GROUNDHOG CRUGK CM.S	MAX INST DISCH ROST RUUR CM.S
1976	6.8	25.20

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR TWIN CRUCK

	SCATTUR	Diagram.
DISCHARGY DATA WIGO IN RIGRISSION ANALYSIS TWIN RANK RIDOGL CROSK CRUSK 6.38 13.60 3.97 2 12.18 2.85 3 9.68 2-10 4 3.91 1.77 5 206 1.76 6 2.82 1.28 7 1.90 1.05 8 1.79 0.96 9 1.57 0.84 10 1.49 0.78 11 1.44 0.63 12 1.27	Discurege (cms)	2.1035×
	6 2 Riobel Cese	ex Dischaegy (cims) 20
JOAR	EST. MAR INST. DISCH.	Mae Just Discy 13.00
,५२१ ।४८।	5-01 4.16	10.59

ETIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR BIS Gold CEVER.

Dumsegr Bogsossia Bog Golo Cevik	DATA N F Rank	Conex	20	Scatter Diagram
6.6 4.61 4.97 2.58 1.25 1.03 0.67 0.58 0.57 0.47	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1525 11.80 327 3.17 2.48 2.30 124 1.04 1.03 0.82	Big golo Cerrer (Cus)	7=0.44+0.46x r=6.96 n=10
			•	2 CLINTON CEUEN (CMS)

YEAR	Est. Mar Inst. DiscH. By Sold Cerux C.M.S	Max Tout Discu. Chinton Cenux cm.s
1978	4.1	9.36
0871	2.5	5- 15
1982	4.4	10.0

ESTIMATED MISSING flow DATA for THISTLE CRUCK

			:		SCATTUR DIAGRAM	
Bischarge Regension		ardria in		20,	(28.9,118)	
Thistle Cases		Canal Canal				
28.86 18.20 10.27 2.46 1.27 1.21 099 0.95 6.49	1 2 3 9 5 6 7 8 9 10	11-89 5-16 4-84 3-89 2-17 1-03 0-82 0-82 0-66	THISTIC CESEK DUCHARGE (CMS)	lo	V = -1.73 + 2.62 x T = 0.95 N - 10	
			1	2		
				Ġ:	O & CLINTON CEUTER DISCHARGE (CMS)	20

VEAR EST. MAX. INST. DISCH MAR INST. DISCH.
THISTIG CREEK
CM.S

1978

22.8

1979

38.2

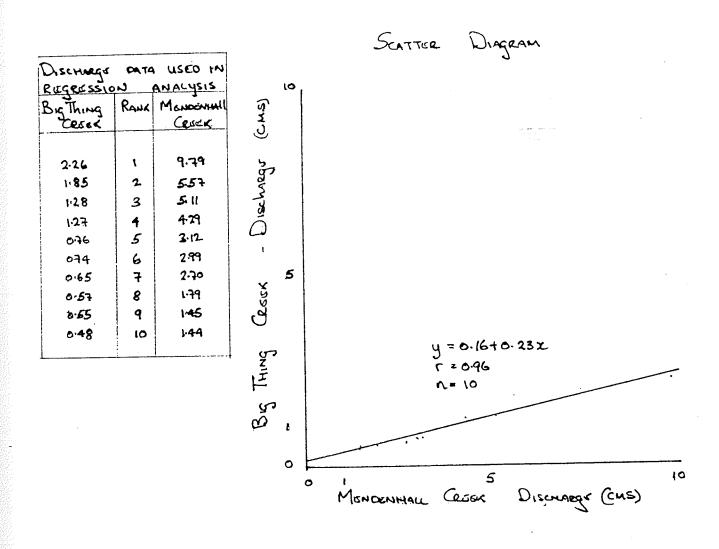
15.25

ETIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA FOR BONSON CRUK

Dischaege	DATA	, נאון מטעטיי		Scatt	ise I	Jagean	
RUSCHENO	N A	ACHELL	50	,		,	
Benson	Raws	Walt					
Cesson		Cénak					
.33-6	ı	16-1	2		/	/	
223	2	14.6					
13.9	3	9-1	<u></u>	,			
6.1	4	6.0	760				
4-(5	3.8	姜		/		
2:5	6	3-5) sayaegr	/	/		
2-4	7	1.9		/	u	2.20+191x	
1.7	8	1.6	25	/		- 0.97	
1.2	9	1.3	ž	/ ·		- 10	
0.4	10	6.6	Certifix	/			
5 4			Ü	/			
			7	<i> </i>			
			Š				
			Benson				
				/.			
			5	<i> </i> ;	,		
			0	/			
				o E		25	& 0
				Wolf Cea	sek 1	Discharge (cm	s)
						,)	

GAR	ET. MAX JUST DICH. BENDON CREK CMS	MAR INST DISCH. WOLF CRIEK COMS.
1977	26.6	15-1
177.B	26-6	15. [
1979	40.6	22.4
1180	12-4	7.6
1881	A8.9 18	26.8

ESTIMATED MISSING FLOW DATA for BIG THING CRUCK



YEAR	By Thing Crock CMS	MUNDUMHALL CRUCK CMS.:
1979	2.89	41- B C
18 91	. l61	6.31

APPENDIX 5

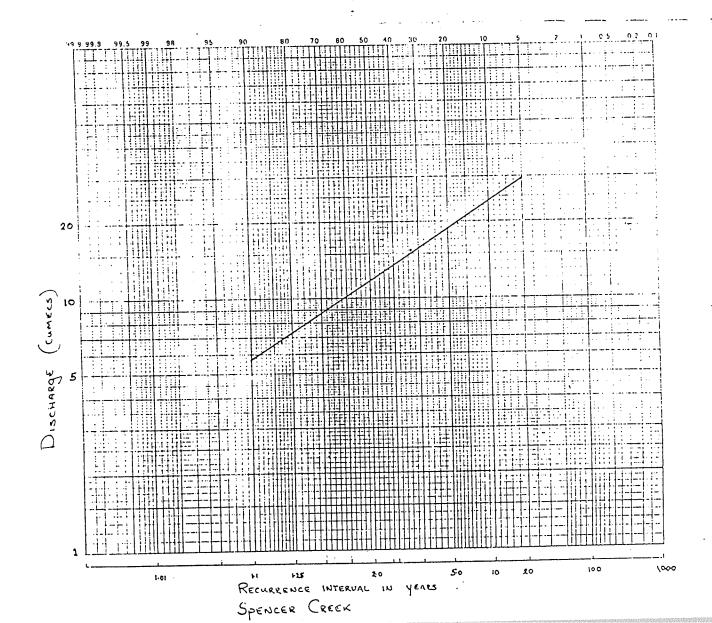
FLOOD-FREQUENCY CURVES

MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: SpENCER CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH. C.M.S.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1979	19.6	6
2	1981	15.5	3
3	1982	10-9	2
4	1980	10.0	. 1.5
5	1978	6.7	1.2

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.ms.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	11. 8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	13.0
5 year FLOOD.	19.0
10 year FL000.	24.0
20 year FLOOD.	29.5

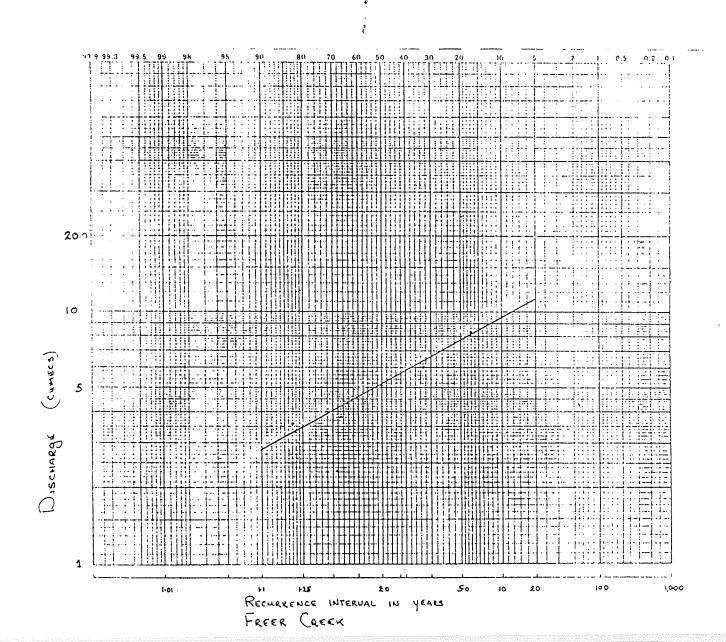


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: FREUR CROOK.

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1980	8.3	6:0
2.	1978	6.0	3.0
3	1979	5.1	2.0
4	1982	3.8	1.5
5	1881	3-6	1.2
			·

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	5. 2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	5-6
5 YEAR FLOOD,	7-7
10 year F1000.	9-6
20 year FLOOD.	11.5

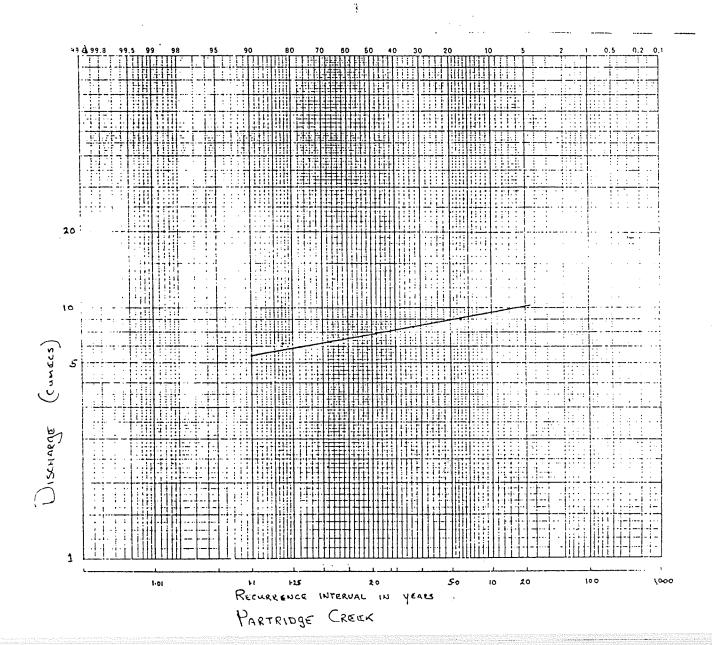


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: PARTRIDGE CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEAKS.
\	M82	9.0	6.0
2	1979	8-4	3 ·v
3	1978	7-7	2.0
4	1981	7-3	. 1.5
5	19.80	3.52 <u>.</u> 7.2	1-2

^{*}ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	7.8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	8.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	4.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	9.6
20 YEAR FLOOD.	10-2

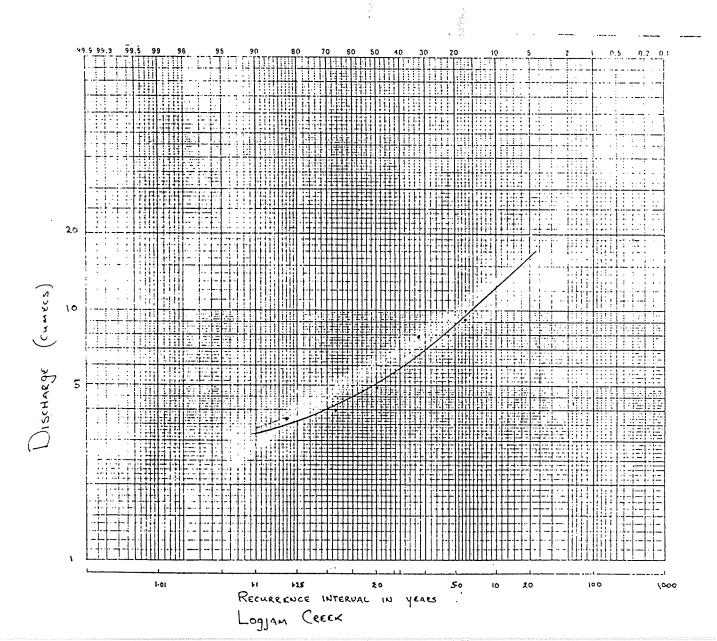


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: LOGIAM (ROCK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
١	1979	9.2	60
2	1981	7.8	3.0
3	1980	4.9	2.0
4	1982	4-0	. 1.5
5	1981	3,7	1.2

^{*} Estimated.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	5-1
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	5.6
5 YEAR FLOOD,	8.8
10 year Floop	12.5
20 YEAR FLOOD.	16.5

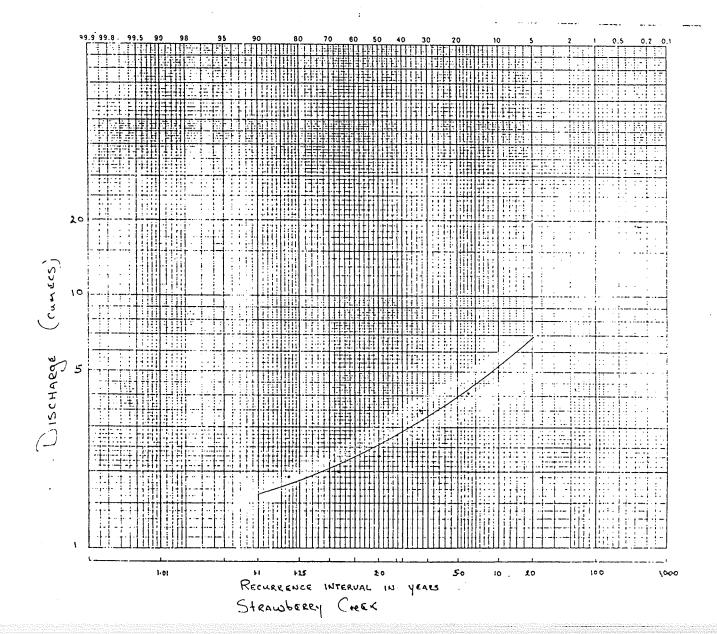


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: STRAWBERRY CROOK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disky. c.m.s.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEAKS.
١	1979	4.1	6.0
2	1981	3 ·5	3.0
3	1980	2-3	2.0
4	1982	20	1.5
5	1978,	119 *	1.2
·		,	

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	2.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	2.8
5 year FLOOD,	4.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	5.2
20 year FLOOD.	6.8

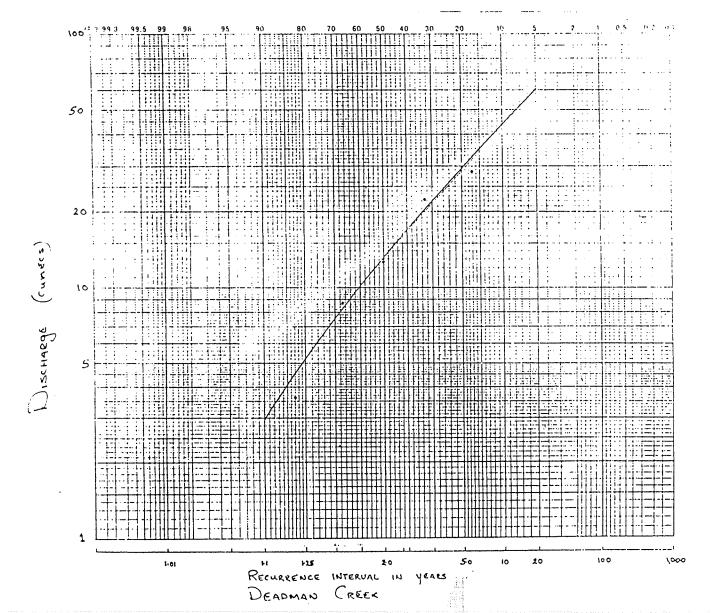


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: DEADMAN CRUTK

RANK.	YÉAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEAKS.
١	1979	286	6.0
2	. 1981	22· Z	3 .0
3	1980	12-6	2.0
4	1978	8· f	. 1.5
5	1982	3.6	1-2

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	13-0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	15.5
5 YEAR FLOOD.	2 § -5
10 YEAR FLOOD	43.0
20 YEAR FLOOD.	60.0

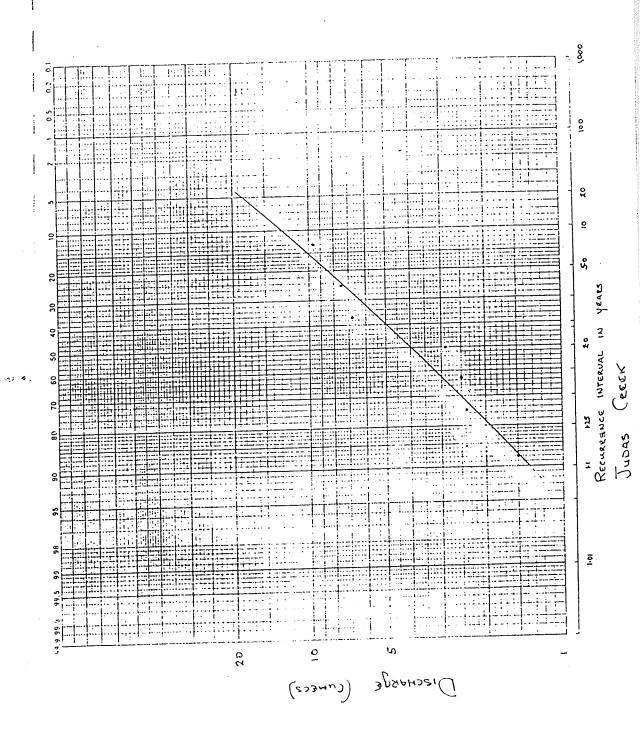


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: JUDAS CROOK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YGAKS.
	1977	9.6	8
2	1976	7.5	4.0
3	1981	6.8	2.67
4	1979	2. 8	2.0
<i>5</i> €	1980	2 -5	1.6
6	1978	2-4	1.33
7	1982	1.5	1-14

*ESTIMATEO.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	4-0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	4.6
5 YEAR FLOOD.	8.4
10 year flood	113-0
20 year FLOOD.	18-0

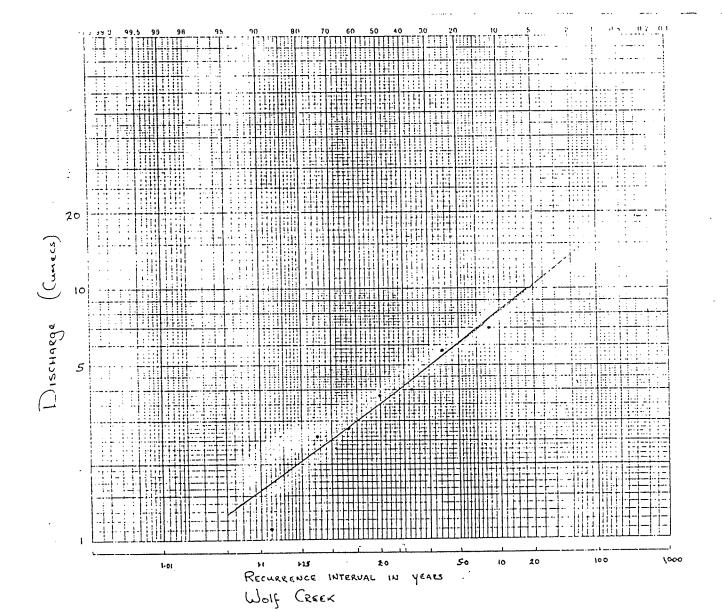


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: WOLF CRUEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEAKS.
1	1977	7.0	8.0
2	1976	5-7	4.0
3	1979	4-0	2-67
4	1480	3.8	2.0
5	1981	2-8	1.6
6	1978	2-6	1.33
7	1982	1-1	1.14

^{*}ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	3.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	4-0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	6.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	8.1
20 year FLOOD.	10.2

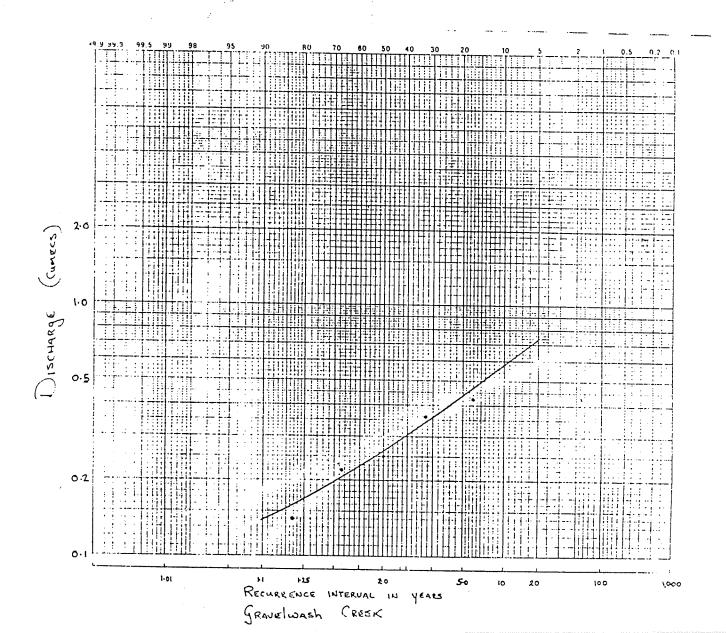


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: GRAUELWASH CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disky. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1981	0.42	6.0
2	1980	0.36,	3.0
3	1978	0·25	2.0
A	1939	0-22	. 1.5
5	1982	0-14	1.2

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	0.26
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	0-29
5 YEAR FLOOD,	0:44
10 year Flood	o 5 8
20 year FLOOD.	c-74

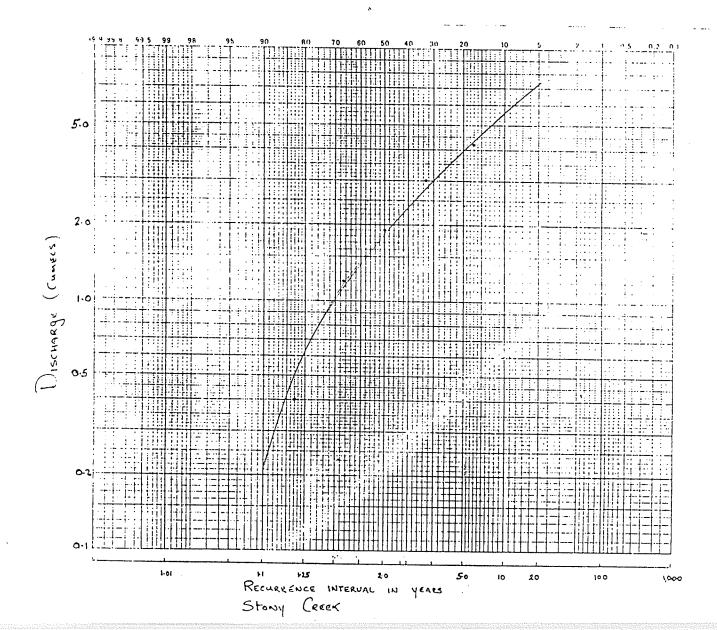


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: Story LIRCOR

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEAKS.
	1981	4.2	6
2	1979	3.0	3
3	197.8	1-9	2
4	1980	1-2	. 1.5
5	1982	0.4	1-2
·			

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	1-8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	2.2
5 YEAR FLOOD,	4.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	5.6
20 year FLOOD.	6-2

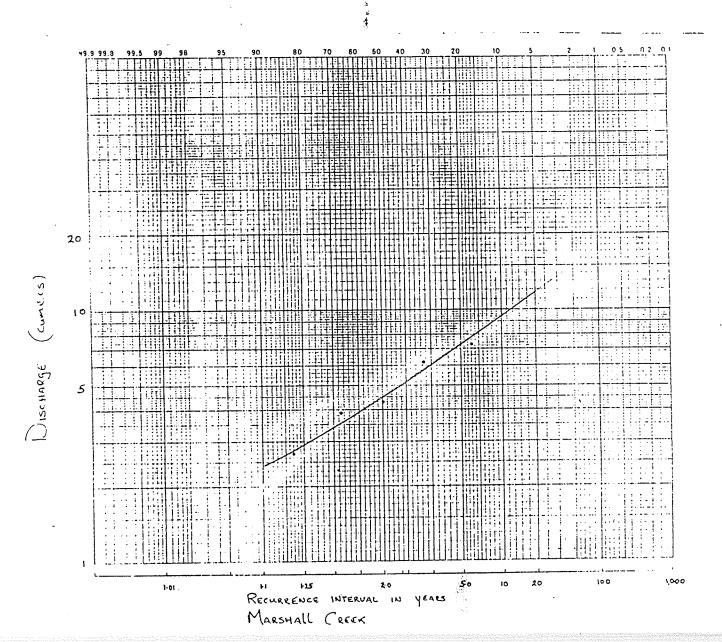


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: MARSHALL GREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch, c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YGAKS.
ı	1979	7.3 ×	6
2	c8 <i>P</i> 1	6.2	3
3	1981	4.3	2
4	1978	3.9	1.5
5	1982	2.7	J.2.
·			

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	4.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	5.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	7.3
10 YEAR FLOOD.	9.4
20 year FLOOD.	11-8

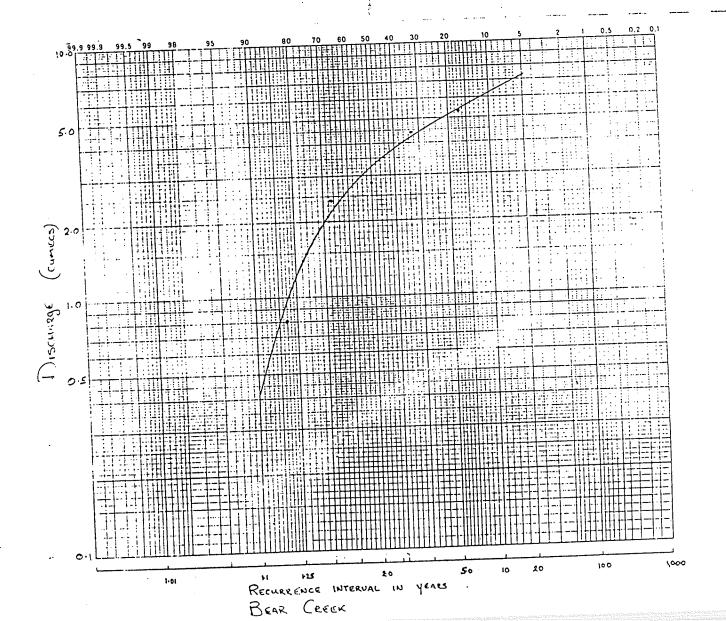


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BEAR (RELA

	RANK.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH. C.M.S.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	١	1979	<i>5</i> -3	6.0
	2	1985	4.4	3.0
	3	1981	2.8	2.0
	4	1978	2.4	. 1.5
Ì	5	1982	0.8	1.2

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	3.2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	36
5 YEAR FLOOD.	5.1
•	6.2
10 year FLOOD.	7.2
20 1016 1000.	

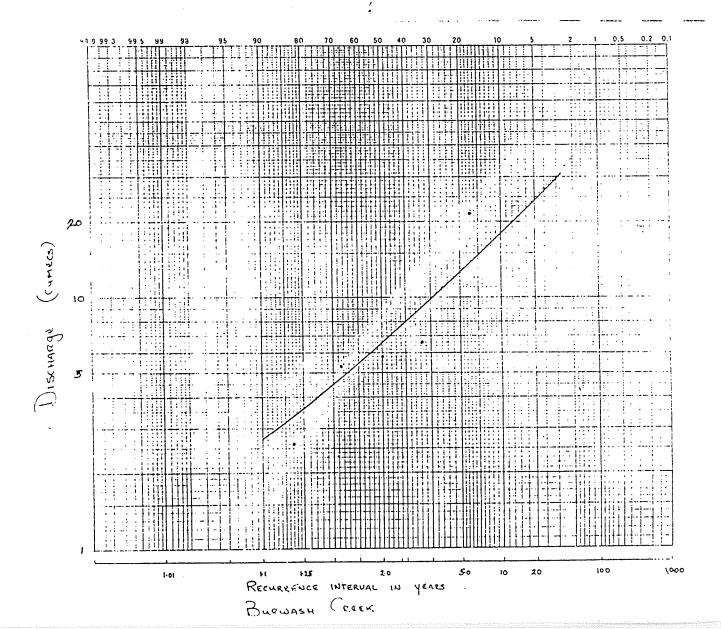


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BWILWASH CROCK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1978	21.5	6.0
2.	1981	6-6	3.0
3	1979	5-8	2.0
4.	1980	<i>5</i> .3	. 1.5
5	1982	2.6	1.2

^{*} Estimated.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	6:5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	7.5
5 YEAR FLOOD,	12.5
10 YEAR FLOOD.	18-0
20 year FLOOD.	24-5

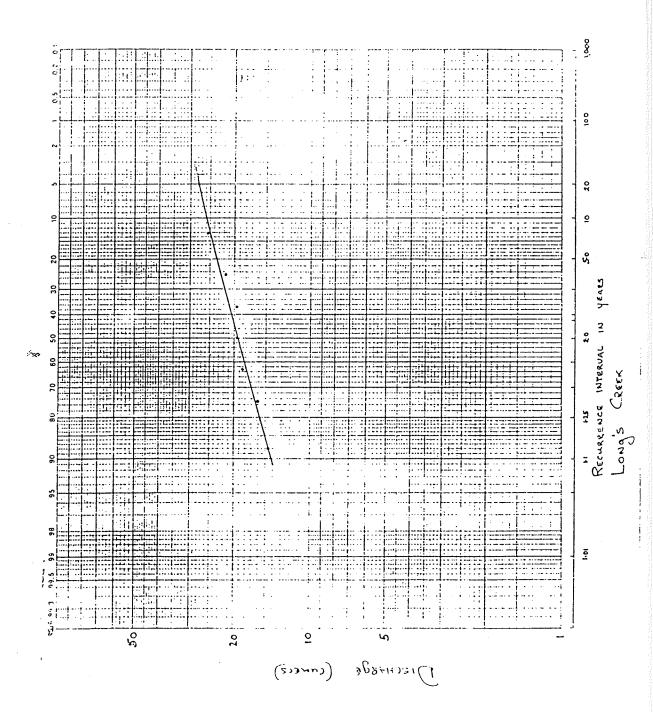


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: LONG'S (ROCK.

			1
RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1976	25.5	8-0
2	1982	21.7	4.0
3	1977	19.7	2.67
4	1978	19.7	2-0
5	1979	18.5	1.6
6	1981	16.0	1.33
7	1980	15.8	1.14

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	19.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	20.0
5 year FLOOD,	23.5
10 YEAR FLOOD	26.0
20 year FLOOD.	28.0

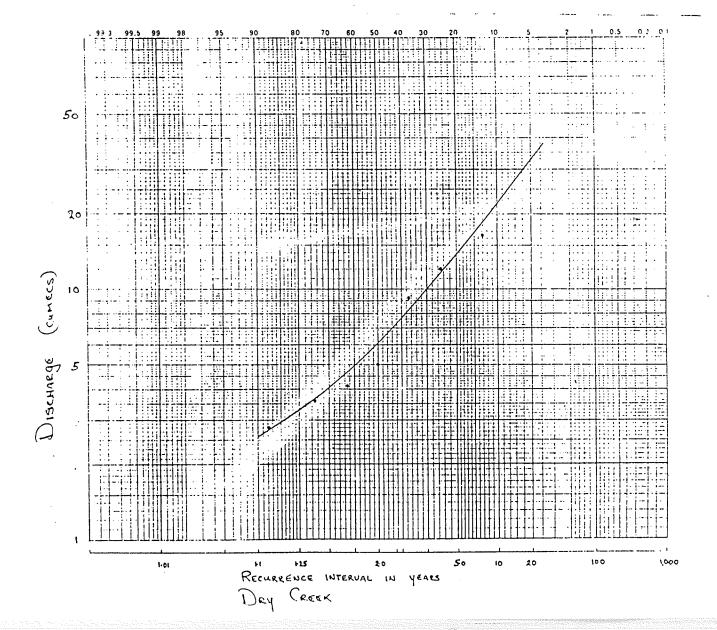


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: DRY (ROEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
١	1977	16-4	&
2_	1979	12-0	4
3	1978	9.2	2.67
4	1980	50	. 2.0
5 .	1981	4.1	1.6
6	1982	3-6	l- 3 3
7	1976	2-8	1-14

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	6-1
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	7 ·2
5 YEAR FLOOD,	14.0
10 year Floco	22-0
20 year FLOOD.	33.0

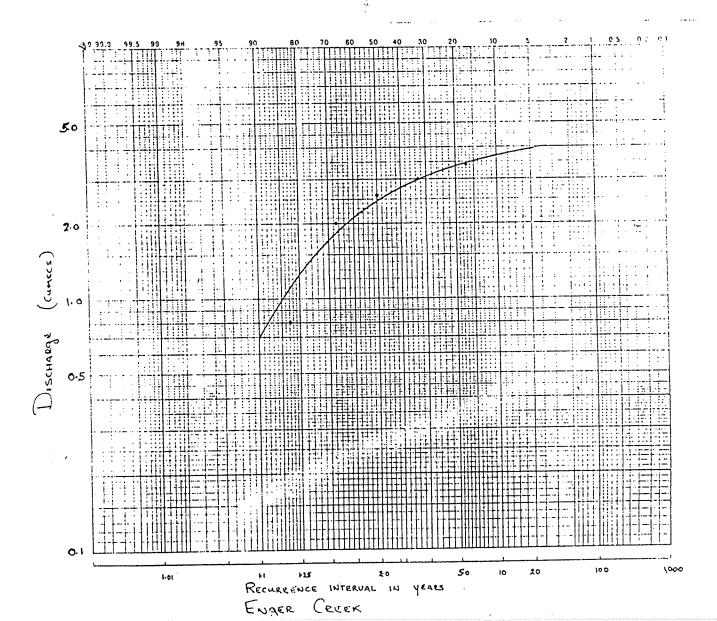


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: ENGUR (KICK

Rank.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD.
1	1979	3. 4	6.0
2	1978	3·0 °	30
3	1981	2.6	% -0
4	1980	2-0	1.5
5	1982	0.4	1.2
			·

^{*}ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	2.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	27
5 YEAR FLOOD,	3-4
10 year F1000	3-7
20 year FLOOD.	3.9

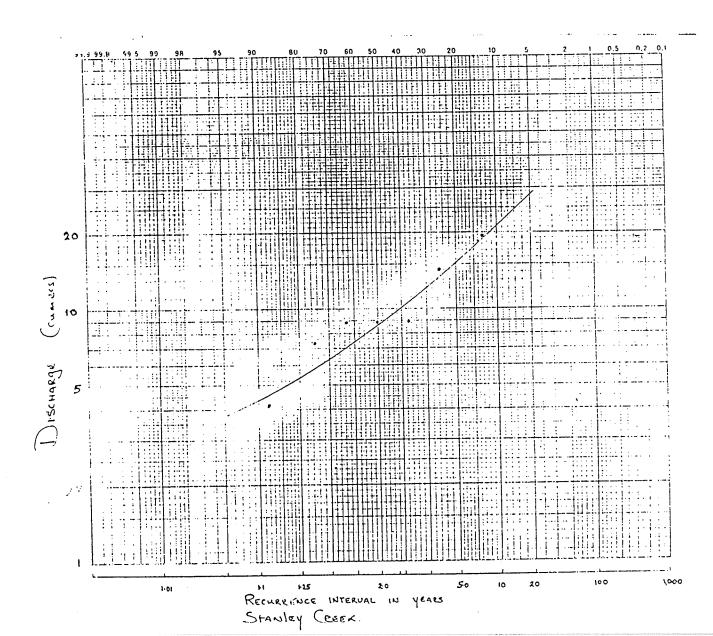


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: STAIDLEY CRUCK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD.
1	1937	19.2	ଷ୍ଟି-୦
2	1980	14.2	4.0
3	1981	ģ.q	2-67
4	1978	8.9	2.0
5.	1979	8.8	į. 6
6	1976	7.3	1.33
7	1982	4-1	1.14

^{*} ESTIMATED.

·		
	Discharge . c.m.s.	
2 YEAR FLOOD.	·8-8	
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	q- 8	
5 YEAR FLOOD.	15.7	
•	21.5	
10 YEAR FLOOD.	28-0	
20 year FLOOD.		

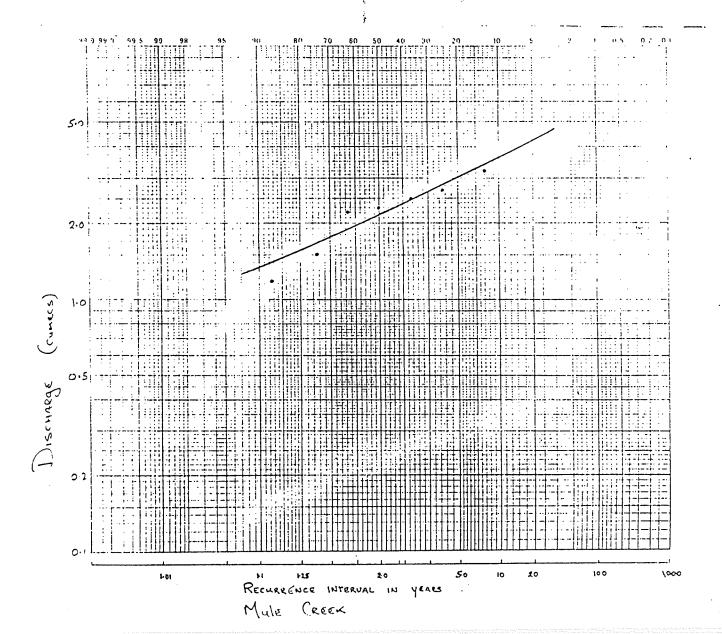


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: MULLI CRUKK.

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1980	3.2	8.0
2	8 F 61	2.7	4.0
3	f f P I	2.5	2.67
4	1881	2-3	2-0
5	1779	2.2	1-6
6	1476	1.5	1.33
7	1982	1.3	1.14
·			

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	2.2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	2-3
5 YEAR FLOOD,	3-0
10 year Flood	3-6
20 YEAR FLOOD.	4.3

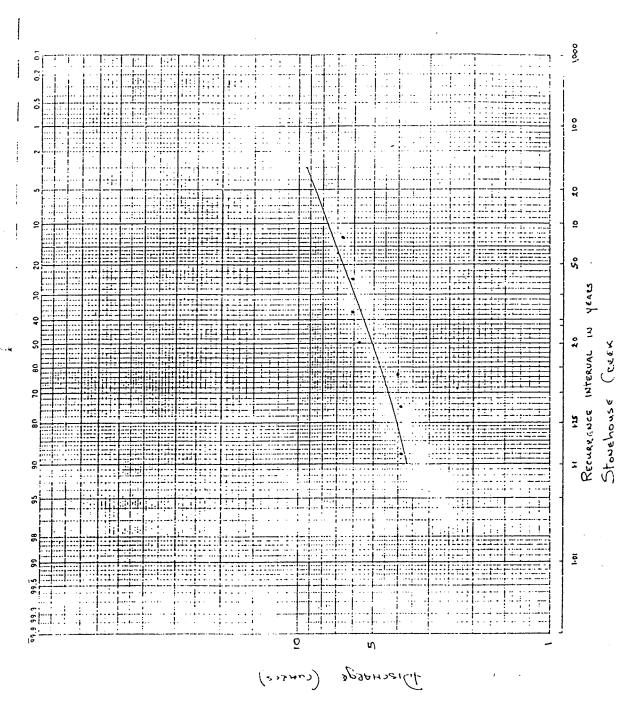


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: STONEHOUSE GRUCK.

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH. C.M.S.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
		,	₹.o
- '/	,		4.0
	. 82	6.1	2.67
4		5.7	2.0
	: 81	4.0	1.6
,	978	3.90	1.33
7	1979	3.90	114

^{*} ESTIMATED.

·	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	5.0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	5.4
5 YEAR FLOOD,	6.6
10 YEAR FLOOD.	7.6
20 year FLOOD.	8.6

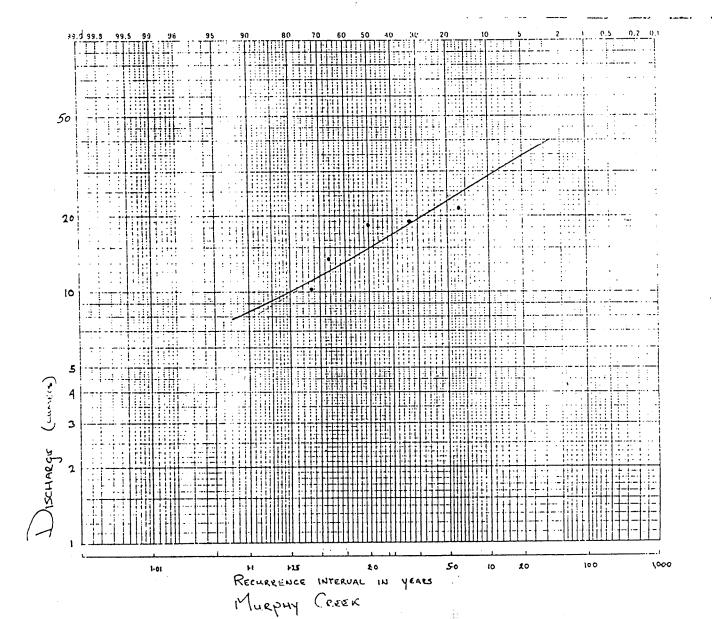


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: Murphy CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1979	21-2	6-0
2	1980	19.9	3.0
3	1976	18.7 *	2.0
4	1978	13.3	. 1.5
5	1977	10.2	1.2

^{*} ESTIMATED.

!	Discharge . c.m.c.
7 4600 51000	15-0
2 YEAR FLOOD. MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	16.5
5 year FLOOD,	23-0
, ·	29.0
10 YEAR FLOOD.	3.5.0
20 year FLOOD.	

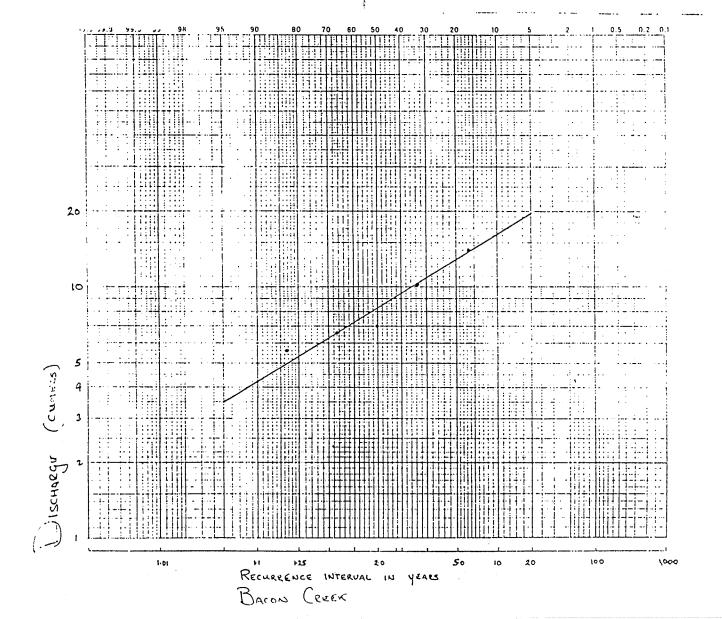


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BACON GREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1978	14-0	6.0
2	1980	10.3	3.0
3	1976	7.0	2:0
4	1977	6.6	1.5
5	1979	5.6	12_

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	8 . 2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	9.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	12-8
10 year FL000.	16.0
20 year FLOOD.	19.5

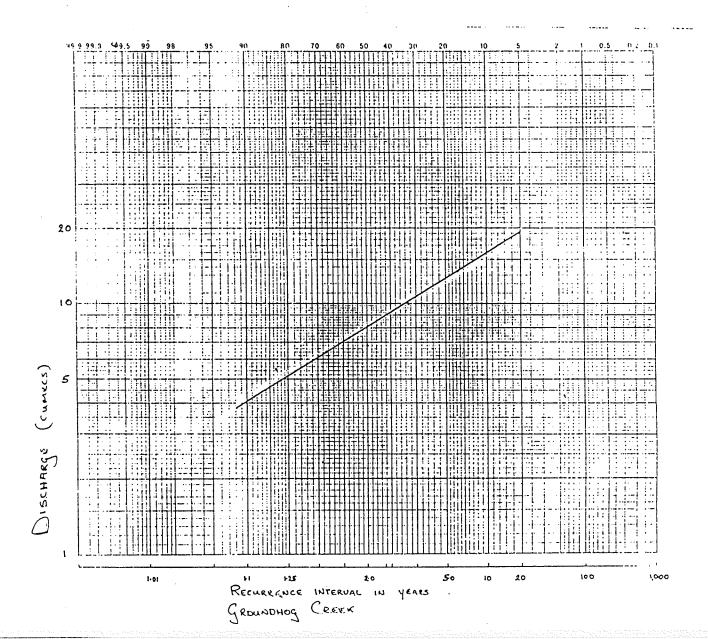


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: GROWNHOG (REECK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Discu. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YGAKS.
1	1978	13.4	6.0
2	1980	10-0	3.0
3	19 76	6.8	20
4	1977	64	1.5
_5	1979	5.5	1.2
·			

^{*} ESTIMATED.

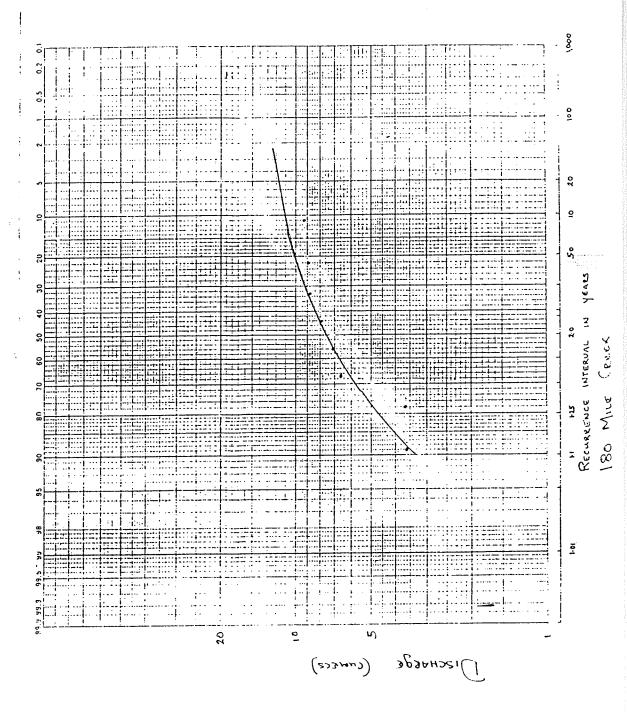
•	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	8. 2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	9.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	12.7
10 year F1000	160
20 year FLOOD.	19.5



MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: 180 MILE CREEK

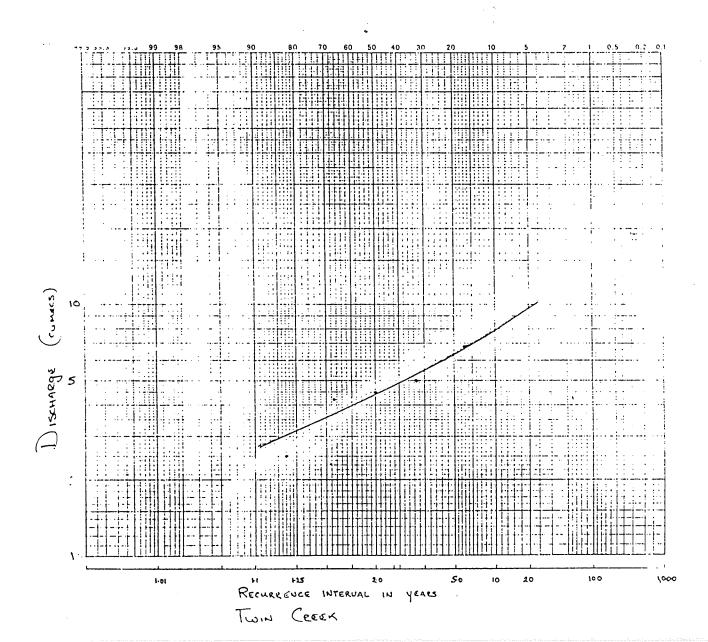
Rank.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1981	9-2	9.0
2	1979	8.9	4.5
3	1977	8.8	3.0
4	1982	. 7-9	. 2.25
5	1976	7-1	1-8
6	:1980	6.6	1.5
7	1975	3:6	1.29
8	1978	3.6	1-13

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	7.5
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	8:1
5 YEAR FLOOD.	10.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	11.0
20 year FLOOD.	11-8



Rank.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disku. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1978	6.8	6.0
2	1977	50	3.0
3	1982	4.5	2:0
4	1981	4.2	1-5
5	1980	2.5	1.2
			·

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	4-4
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	4.8
5 YEAR FLOOD.	6.4
10 YEAR FLOOD.	8-0
20 year FLOOD.	9.8

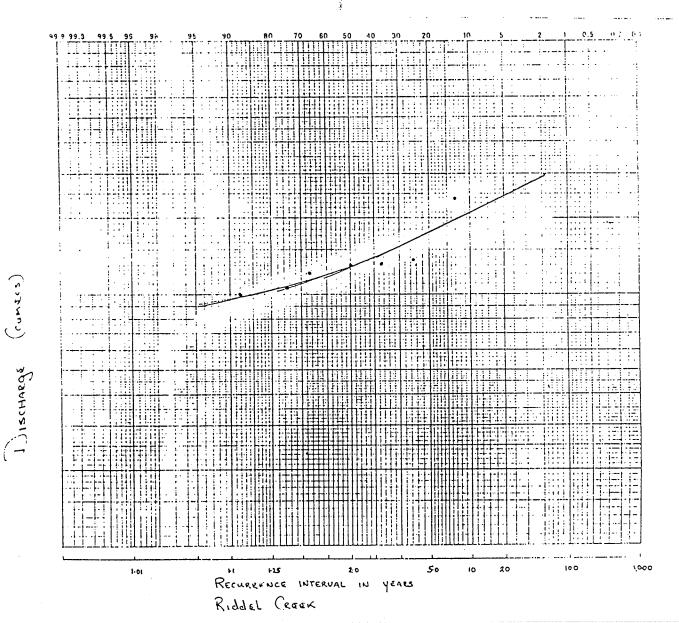


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: RIDDEN (RECK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1977	23-·B	80
2	1978	13.6	4.0
3	1982	13.1	2:67
4	19 79	13.0	2.0
5	19.80	12:2	1.6
6	1981	10:6	1.33
7	1976	100	1.14

^{*}ESTIMATED.

	5
	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	12-8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	13.7
5 YEAR FLOOD,	17:5
•	21:0
10 YEAR FLOOD.	245
20 year FLOOD.	I V

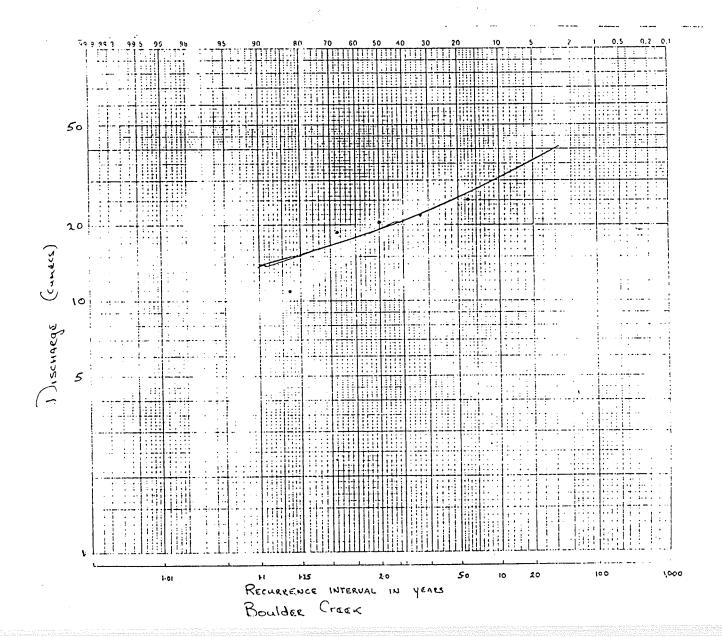


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BOULDER CREIEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1980	25.1	60
2	1979	21-9	3-0
3	1982	20:5	20
4	1978	18.8	1.5
S	1981	10.9	1.2
	·		

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	.19-0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	20.2
5 YEAR FLOOD,	26.0
10 year Flood	31.0
20 year FLOOD.	36:0

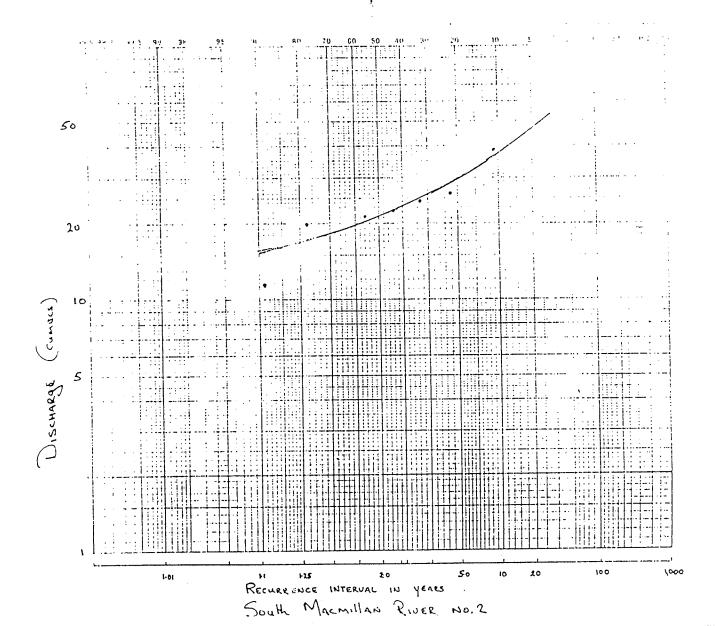


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: SOUTH MC MICLAN RUER:

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Discu. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
	1975	38.5	9.0
2	1978	26-1	4-5
3	1982	24-5	3-0
4	1977	221	2.25
٥.	1979	21.2	1.8
6	1981	20-11	1.5
7	1976	19.9	1.29
8	1980	(1.4	1.13

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	21.0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	22-6
5 year FLOCD.	30.0
10 year Floor	37.5
20 year FLOOD.	47.0

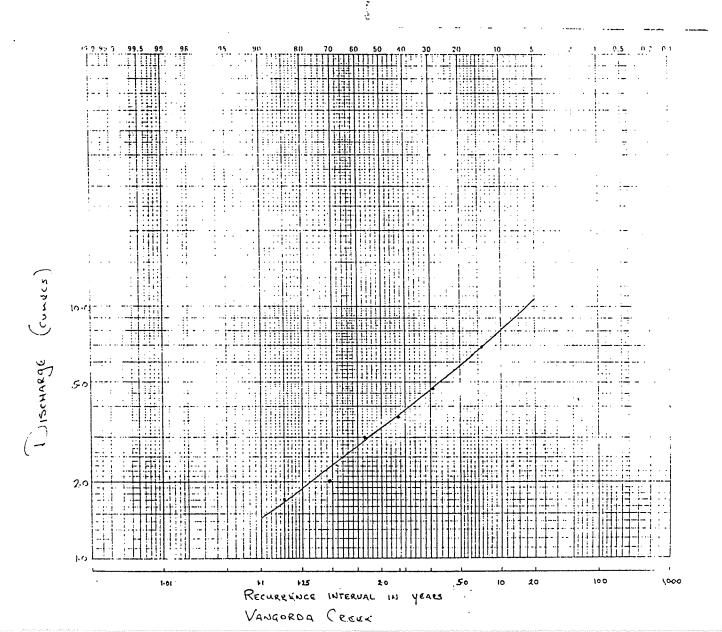


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: VANGORDA (REEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1982	6-90	7
2	1980	4.7	3.5
3	1977	3.6	2.33
4	1979	3.0	. 1.75
5	8F P1	2.0	1.4
6	1891	いず	1.17

^{*} ESTIMATED.

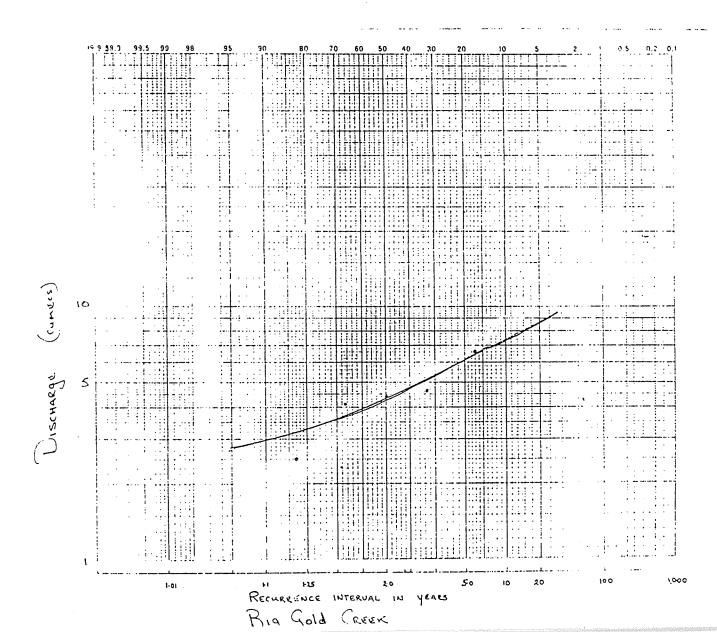
	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	3.2
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	3-7
5 YEAR FLOOD,	5.8
10 YEAR FLOOD	8.0
20 year FLOOD.	10-7



MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BIG GOLD CREEK

Rank.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1981	6.6	6.0
2	1977	A-6	3-0
3	1978	4.4 ¥ (14.7) species	2.0
A	1980	4.1 *	. -5
5	1982	2.5 *	f- 2
·			
		·	
·		·	

· ·	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	4.3
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	4:6
5 YEAR FLOOD,	61
10 YEAR FLOOD	7.4
20 year FLOOD.	8.7



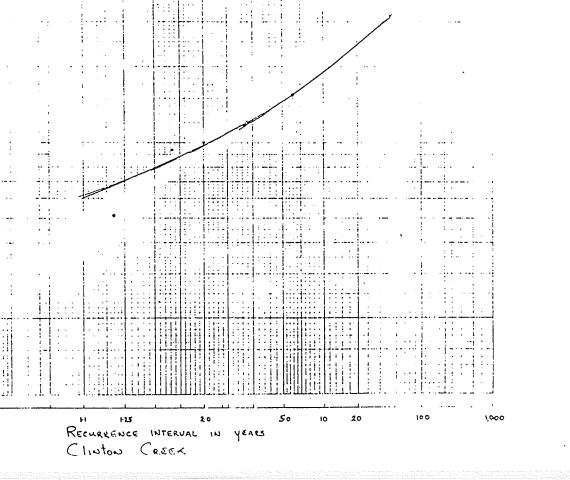
MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: (LINTON CREEK

Rank.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEAKS.
1	1979	15.2	6-0
2	1981	11.8	3-0
3	1982	10-0	20
4-	1978	9.4	N-5
5	1980	5.1	1.2

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	9.8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	10.5
5 year FLOOD,	14.5
	19.0
10 year FLOOD	14.5
20 year FLOCD.	



1-01

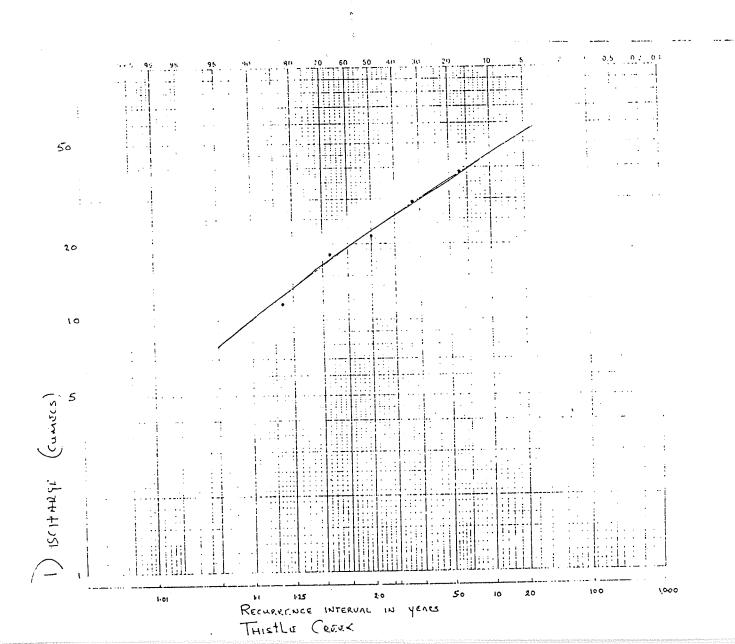


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: THISTLE CREEK

RA	vK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
		1979	38.2	60
1 2		1980	28.9	3-0
3	<u> </u>	1978	29.8	2.0
A		1981	182	. 115
5	· ·	1982	111-5	1.2
				<u> </u>
·				

^{*} ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 51.000	22:5
2 YEAR FLOOD. MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	25.0
	36.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	45.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	55.0
20 year FLOOD.	

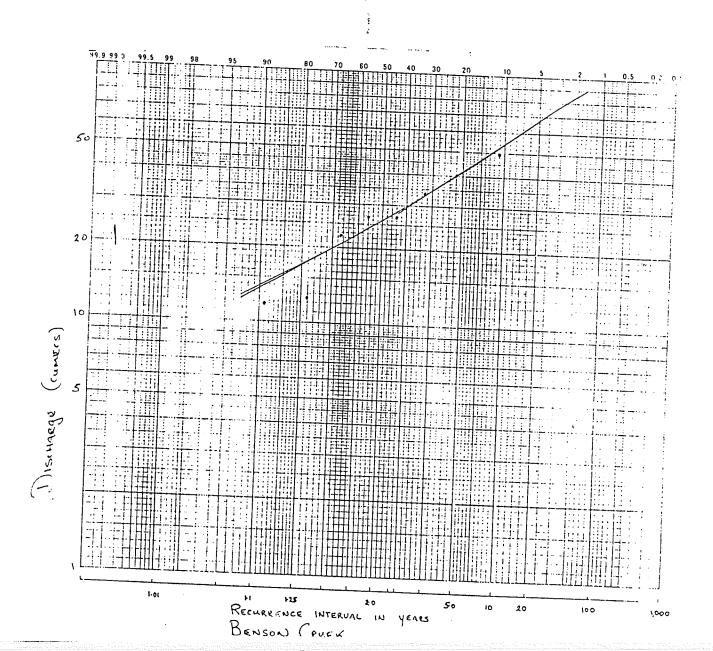


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BeNSON CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH. C.M.S.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
(1981	49.1	9.0
2	1919	40.6	4.5
3	1976	33.6	3.0
4	1977	. 26-6	2 • 25
5	1978.	26%	1.8
Ь	1975	22.3	1.5
7	1980	12-4	1.29
&	1982	17-8	1.13

^{*} ESTIMATED

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	26-0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	28.5
5 YEAR FLOOD,	410
10 YEAR FLOOD	540
20 year FLOOD.	67:0

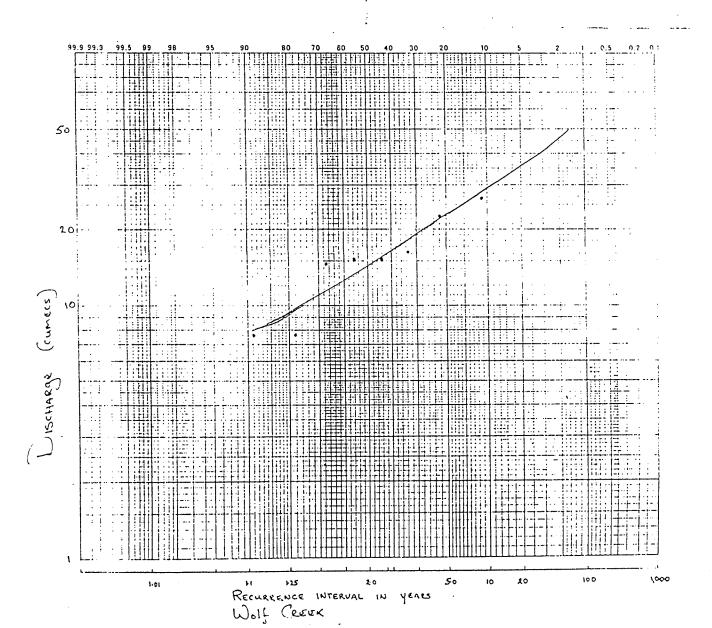


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: WOLF CREEK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
-	1981	26.8	9.0
3	1979	22.4	4.5
3	1975	16-1	3.0
4	1477	. 15.1	. 2.25
5.	1978	15.1	1.8
6	1976	14-6	1.5
7	1980	7.6	1.29
8	1982	73	1:13

^{*} ESTIMATED.

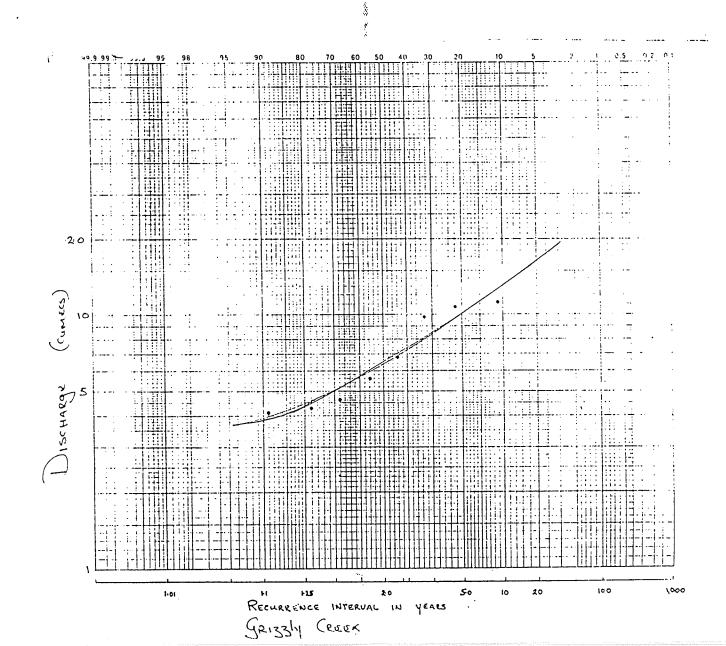
	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	14:0
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	15.5
5 YEAR FLOOD,	23:5
10 year flood	29.0
20 year FLOOD.	. 36-0



MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: GRIZZLY CRECK

RANK.	YEAR.	Max. INST. DISCH. C.M.S.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1980](- [9
2	1981	10.7	4.5
3	1982	9.8	3-0
A	1975	68	. 2.25
3	1976	5.6	1:8
6	1978	A.6	1.5
7	1979	4-3	1-29
8	1977	4.1	(-)1

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	6.4
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	7.0
5 YEAR FLOOD,	10.0
10 YEAR FLOOD	13-0
20 year FLOOD.	16.4

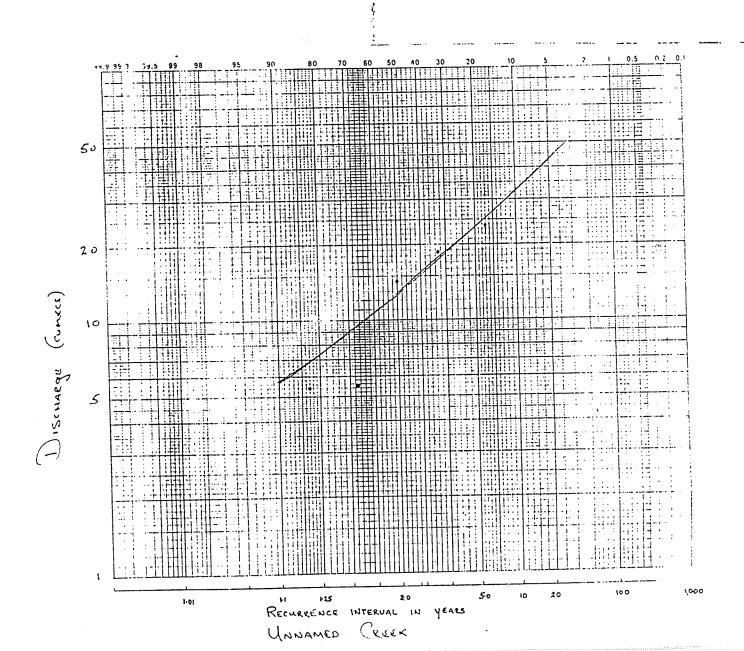


MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: UNNAMED (RETE'S

RANK:	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETURN PERIOD. YEARS.
1	1981	23.8	6:0
2	1979	18.7	7-0
3	1982	14.2	2.0
4	1982	5 . 2	. 1.5
5	1978	5.4	1.2

^{*}ESTIMATED.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	12-6
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	14:8
5 YEAR FLOOD,	23.5
10 YEAR FLOOD.	32.5
20 year FLOOD.	430



MAXIMUM INSTANTANEOUS DISCHARGE DATA: BIG THING CREEK

Rank.	YEAR.	Max. Inst. Disch. c.m.s.	RETUKN PERIOD. YEAKS.
;	1979	2.9	60
2	1980	2.3	3.0
3	1978	1.8	2.0
4	1981	1.6	. 11.5
5	1982	0.9	1.2
·			
		·	

^{*} ESTIMATEO.

	Discharge . c.m.s.
2 YEAR FLOOD.	1.8
MEAN ANNUAL FLOOD	1.9
5 YEAR FLOOD,	2-85
10 year FL000.	3.8
20 year FLOOD.	4.8

