



A mathematical model for surge flow border irrigation
by Toraj Ghofrani

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in
Agricultural Engineering
Montana State University
© Copyright by Toraj Ghofrani (1987)

Abstract:

The purpose of this study was to review the theory of available models and select an appropriate model for surge flow border irrigation. Field data taken from surge flow border irrigation was used to evaluate the performance of the selected model. A FORTRAN model named BRDRFLW was selected for evaluation because it was commercially available, affordable and it could simulate the complete process of irrigation. BRDRFLW was designed for conventional continuous flow border irrigation. The model had three options to generate the solution parameters, the zero-inertia option, the kinematic-wave option, and the hybrid of the two. The data from Merriam et al. (1978) was used to calibrate the model. The zero-inertia option of the BRDRFLW model produced the best results. The zero-inertia option was then tested for surge flow border irrigation. The result of this study indicated that the BRDRFLW model can be used to predict the process of surge flow border irrigation. However, this study has been done based on limited field data. More field data are required in addition to some modifications of the model's software before the BRDRFLW model can be reliably used to predict the performance of the surge flow border irrigation.

A MATHEMATICAL MODEL FOR
SURGE FLOW BORDER IRRIGATION

by

Toraj Ghofrani

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

Master of Science

in

Agricultural Engineering

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY
Bozeman, Montana

June 1987

MAIN LIB.
N378
G346
Cop. 2

ii

APPROVAL

of a thesis submitted by

Toraj Ghofrani

This thesis has been read by each member of the thesis committee and has been found to be satisfactory regarding content, English usage, format, citations, bibliographic style and consistency, and is ready for submission to the College of Graduate Studies.

5/21/87
Date

J. L. Westesen
Chairperson, Graduate Committee

Approved for the Major Department

21 May 87
Date

Theresa F. Lay
Head, Major Department

Approved for the College of Graduate Studies

5-24-87
Date

MB Malen
Graduate Dean

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO USE

In presenting this thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a master's degree at Montana State University, I agree that the Library shall make it available to borrowers under rules of the Library. Brief quotations from this thesis are allowable without special permission, provided that accurate acknowledgment of source is made.

Permission for extensive quotation from or reproduction of this thesis may be granted by my major professor, or in his absence, by the Director of Libraries when, in the opinion of either, the proposed use of the material is for scholarly purposes. Any copying or use of the material for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature _____



Date _____

5/21/87

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to gratefully acknowledge the assistance and guidance provided by my thesis committee composed of Dr. G.L. Westesen, chairman, Dr. W.E. Larsen, and Dr. R.L. Brustkern. In memory of my father (Mohammad Ghofrani), I would like to express my gratitude for his devoted efforts which made this work possible. Finally, I would like to recognize the youth of my country who have lost their lives in an unwanted war.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION.....	6
Border Irrigation Theory.....	6
Border Irrigation Hydraulics.....	7
The Surge Flow Concept.....	12
Surge Flow Irrigation.....	17
Advantages and Disadvantages of Surge Flow.....	19
3. MATHEMATICAL MODEL FOR BORDER IRRIGATION.....	22
The Concept of Mathematical Modeling.....	22
The Theory of Available Models.....	24
Selecting an Appropriate Model.....	32
Calibration of the Model.....	33
Testing of the Model.....	37
4. FIELD TESTING.....	46
Analysis of Field Data.....	53
5. MODEL APPLICATION TO SURGE FLOW TEST RESULTS.....	55
Data Preparation.....	55
Analysis of Results.....	58
Suggested Modifications.....	66
6. CONCLUSIONS.....	68
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	69
APPENDICES.....	74
Appendix A: Field Data.....	75
Appendix B: A Complete Output Generated by the Model.....	79
Appendix C: Field Data Prepared by Merriam et al., 1978.....	86
Appendix D: The Computation of Soil Infiltration Characteristics.....	89

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Border irrigation variables.....	7
2. Advance phase effects.....	11
3. Exogenous data for calibration of the model.....	34
4. The exogenous variables generated by the model.....	35
5. Exogenous data from Merriam et al. (1978).....	37
6. Soil infiltration characteristics describing sandy loam by different sources.....	42
7. Exogenous variables provided for the model to produce Figure 19 (Chapter 4).....	56
8. Advance and recession time for border no. 1.....	76
9. Advance and recession time for border no. 2.....	77
10. Advance and recession time for border no. 3.....	78
11. Infiltration profile for border nos. 1 and 2.....	78
12. Physical characteristics for border irrigation.....	87
13. Advance and recession data.....	87
14. Adjusted infiltration information.....	87
15. Depth infiltrated.....	88

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Schematic description of border irrigation phases.....	11
2. Soil surface before rainfall (Duley et al., 1939).....	13
3. Soil surface after rainfall (Duley et al., 1939).....	14
4. Clay and silt particles before (left) and after (right) surface sealing.....	16
5. Definition sketch of Saint-Venant equation for a flow element.....	25
6. A single water cell with moving faces.....	28
7. Computation network in the x-t plane.....	29
8. Equilibrium of forces on surface-water cell.....	30
9. The advance and recession curves produced by the model.....	36
10. The ultimate distribution of applied water produced by the model.....	36
11. Model's sensitivity variation in the coefficient of roughness using the zero-inertia option.....	39
12. Model's sensitivity variation in the coefficient of roughness using the kinematic-wave option.....	40
13. Model's sensitivity to soil infiltration characteristics.....	41
14. The comparison of the advance and recession curves produced by the model to actual data.....	42
15. Best results produced by the BRDRFLW model.....	43
16. The infiltration profile created by the model compared to the actual field data.....	44
17. Advance and recession curves for surge flow on border no. 1.....	49

LIST OF FIGURES--continued

Figure	Page
18. Advance and recession curves for surge flow on border no. 2.....	50
19. Advance and recession curves for conventional flow on border no. 3.....	50
20. Advance and recession curves generated by the model compared to conventional continuous flow data.....	57
21. Infiltration profile generated by the model compared to measured field data.....	58
22. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the first surge compared to the field data (Table 8, Appendix A).....	59
23. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the first surge compared to the field data (Table 9, Appendix A).....	60
24. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the second surge using the characteristics of the highest percent clay soil.....	61
25. The best advance and recession curve generated by the model for the second surge as compared to the field data.....	62
26. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the third surge as compared to the field data.....	64
27. Model's output for surge flow border irrigation.....	65
28. Infiltration profile comparing the field data and the model's output.....	65
29. Computer output.....	80

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to review the theory of available models and select an appropriate model for surge flow border irrigation. Field data taken from surge flow border irrigation was used to evaluate the performance of the selected model. A FORTRAN model named BRDRFLW was selected for evaluation because it was commercially available, affordable and it could simulate the complete process of irrigation. BRDRFLW was designed for conventional continuous flow border irrigation. The model had three options to generate the solution parameters, the zero-inertia option, the kinematic-wave option, and the hybrid of the two. The data from Merriam et al. (1978) was used to calibrate the model. The zero-inertia option of the BRDRFLW model produced the best results. The zero-inertia option was then tested for surge flow border irrigation. The result of this study indicated that the BRDRFLW model can be used to predict the process of surge flow border irrigation. However, this study has been done based on limited field data. More field data are required in addition to some modifications of the model's software before the BRDRFLW model can be reliably used to predict the performance of the surge flow border irrigation.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Irrigation, an age-old art, is the artificial application of water to soil for crop production to meet the food and fibre needs. Irrigation is essential when the amount and timing of rainfall is inadequate to satisfy the crops' moisture demand. The exponential growth of the world's population has had three major impacts on irrigation. One impact is the increase in food and fibre demand for a rapidly growing population. The second impact is that the agricultural land area is shrinking every year by approximately half a million hectares to make way for industrial expansion, highways, parks, residential areas, and other nonfood producing uses (Pair et al., 1983). The third impact is that the groundwater aquifers, one of the major sources of irrigation water, are being depleted due to increasing water demands. Because of this rapid population growth, better management and use of irrigation water is vital for the future.

Surface, sub-surface, sprinkler, and drip are the four common methods of irrigation. In the surface methods water flows by gravity from a channel at the upper end of the

field. In sub-surface irrigation, water is injected below the soil surface to create an artificial water table in the root zone area. With sprinkler irrigation, water is sprayed into the air to fall on the soil. In drip irrigation, water is delivered to the soil surface near the base of the plants using small diameter plastic pipes and emitters. Each method of irrigation has its own advantages and disadvantages which must be judged according to a particular situation.

Surface irrigation is the most popular irrigation method practiced in the world, probably because of the smaller initial investment required as compared to other types of irrigation systems. Of the total land area cultivated in the world, only 20% is irrigated. Out of this irrigated land, 95% is irrigated using the traditional surface irrigation methods (Melvyn, 1986).

Surface irrigation is often regarded as being inefficient and sometimes wasteful. High runoff and deep percolation losses are two contributives to inefficiency. Sub-surface, sprinkler, and drip irrigation have been used increasingly in the last two decades mainly because of their ability to reduce runoff and deep percolation losses as well as their ability to reduce the intensive labor required to irrigate. The energy crises of the 1970's caused a re-evaluation of the economics of irrigation method that involves large energy inputs to the system. Rifkin (1980)

points out that United States agriculture, the most mechanized in the world, uses 10 calories of energy for each calorie which it produces; therefore, the energy cost for irrigation is surpassing the energy produced by irrigation. Because of its low energy consumption, surface irrigation will remain popular for the foreseeable future. It is not surprising that irrigation designers in recent decades have expended tremendous effort to improve surface irrigation.

Check basins, furrows, and borders are the three main surface irrigation methods. Check basins are the most common and simplest method of surface irrigation. The field is divided into small areas with nearly level surfaces. In each area basins are formed by constructing ridges around the small areas so that water can be retained and allowed to infiltrate gradually into the soil. The furrow method of surface irrigation utilizes small channels between the crop rows through which water can flow, and from which water can infiltrate, and move laterally to irrigate the area between furrows. The border method of irrigation uses parallel ridges to guide a sheet of water down slope to the lower end of the field. The water supply should normally be shut off before the advance front of the flowing sheet of water reaches the lower end of the border to minimize runoff and deep percolation losses. To adequately irrigate the lower end of the border, some runoff or ponding of water may be

required. The border strip should have little or no transverse slope. Border irrigation can be the most efficient irrigation method and require the least amount of labor if the border system is properly designed.

In a well managed and designed systems, the water is advanced to the lower end of the border as quickly as possible in an effort to minimize the differences in intake opportunity time along the border strips. In traditional border irrigation, a continuous delivery of water using a large stream size is used to advance the water to the end of the border. The continuous delivery system is often inefficient due to excessive runoff which causes drainage problems at the lower end of the borders.

Stringham et al. (1979) introduced surge flow irrigation as a new operational practice which can improve traditional surface irrigation by minimizing runoff and deep percolation losses. The surge flow technique utilizes on-off cycles to create a series of short pulses of water during "on" periods and shut off water during "off" periods (Bishop et al., 1981). The soil is believed to seal during the "off" periods, thereby transporting the next surge quickly towards the lower end of the field and reducing deep percolation losses at the upper end of the field. At the same time, through using on-off cycles, runoff can be better controlled by simply applying less water. Stringham (1979) indicates that surge flow should be economically feasible on

nearly 9 million hectares of irrigated land in the United States. This is approximately one third of all irrigated land in the United States.

Most early surge flow research has been devoted to furrow irrigation. The first testing of surge flow on borders was done in Montana in 1983 (Westesen et al., 1985).

In the last decade a number of mathematical models have been developed to describe the border irrigation process. All of the contemporary models are for traditional continuous flow border irrigation. The objective of this study is to evaluate the adaptability of existing models for surge flow border irrigation. The following steps are necessary to accomplish this objective:

- 1- Study the theory of available models.
- 2- Select an appropriate model.
- 3- Calibrate the selected model.
- 4- Test the selected model for surge flow border irrigation.
- 5- Suggest possible modifications necessary to adapt the selected model to surge flow border irrigation.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Border Irrigation Theory

Parallel ridges are used in the border method of irrigation to guide a sheet of flowing water down the slope using gravitational force. Borders are long parallel strips separated by low ridges with a uniform smooth slope in the direction of the water flow. Borders have little or no transverse slope. In operation, a stream of water spreads and flows down the strip and is guided by the border ridges. The stream size must be large enough to spread evenly over the entire border width without over-topping the border ridges. To avoid runoff, water is shut off before the advancing front of the sheet of water reaches the lower end of the border. The lower end of the border is then irrigated by water temporarily stored on the upper end of the border. Michael (1978) described the advantages of the border method of irrigation as follows: (1) border ridges can be constructed economically with simple farm implements, (2) labor requirements can be greatly reduced, (3) uniform distribution and high water application efficiencies can be achieved if the system is properly designed, (4) a larger

stream size can be used, and (5) adequate surface drainage can be provided if outlets are available.

Border Irrigation Hydraulics

An understanding of border irrigation hydraulics, is necessary to evaluate the mechanism of border operation. All variables in border irrigation hydraulics can be divided into two categories, exogenous, and endogenous. Exogenous variables are independent constants whose values are known prior to analysis. Endogenous variables are dependent variables whose values are not known, but are determined as part of the solution information. The exogenous and endogenous variables for border irrigation hydraulics are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Border irrigation variables.

Variables	Endogenous	Exogenous
Velocity of Advance	*	
Velocity of Recession	*	
Time of Advance	*	
Time of Recession	*	
Velocity of Surface Flow	*	
Depth of Surface Flow	*	
Depth of Infiltration	*	
Volume of Surface Runoff	*	
Volume of Deep Percolation	*	
Recession Lag Time	*	
Total Irrigation Time	*	
Inflow Rate		*
Slope		*
Surface Roughness		*
Infiltration Characteristics		*

The exogenous variables must be considered carefully in order to obtain a correct solution for the border irrigation problem. Inflow rate, land slope, surface roughness, and a discussion of infiltration follows.

Inflow Rate

In border irrigation the inflow rate is normally expressed as a constant flow rate per unit width of border (L^3/TxL where L is the units of length and T is the units of time). This represents a flow of water which is the same for all unit widths of the border.

The classification of the state of flow is very complicated once the inflow at the upper end of the border begins. The state of flow at the upper end of the border is neither the same as shallow, low velocity flow that occurs during recession, nor the same as deep, low velocity flow that occurs when water is ponded on the surface (Jensen, 1983). This aberration in the state of flow is due to the gradually varied and unsteady infiltration rate of the soil. The constant flow considered in most studies is assumed to represent a typical flow during irrigation.

The flow can be reliably described as unsteady varied flow at a sub-critical state since the Froude numbers are less than unity. The state of flow can be changed to transitional or turbulent at the upper end of the border even if the Reynolds number remains below 1000. Inflow is an important variable since the results can be greatly

affected by inflow changes.

Land Slope

Land Slope is fixed during a particular irrigation. The slope can be changed to provide better irrigation management, but this requires land grading. A downward slope is considered to be positive and is expressed in a dimensionless form of L/L .

Surface Roughness

Surface roughness is a variable which changes from one border to another as well as one soil to another. Surface roughness, therefore, is very difficult to estimate. Many empirical equations have been developed in an effort to estimate the value of surface roughness for various soils under different conditions. Manning "n" is widely used as a roughness parameter and is defined by the Soil Conservation Service (SCS) as well as other sources describing open channels. Jensen (1983) mentioned in his study that the results are less sensitive to surface roughness than the other exogenous variables.

Infiltration

Infiltration is the movement of surface water into the soil. The infiltration characteristics are perhaps the most important variables when deciding which method of irrigation to use. The velocity at which water can percolate through the soil is called the infiltration rate. Melvyn (1986) indicates that soils with low to medium infiltration rates

(0-30 mm/h) are suitable for surface irrigation. Soils with high infiltration rates (greater than 30 mm/h) are suitable for sprinkler or trickle irrigation.

Infiltration is affected by soil properties as well as moisture content. The infiltration rate is much higher at the beginning of an irrigation than it is several hours later. This higher rate occurs because the moisture tension is lower near the wetted surface and higher below the surface of the soil. The moisture gradient causes a downward pulling of the water into unsaturated soil. Once the soil is saturated, the moisture gradient is minimized and gravity becomes the dominant force causing infiltration to continue (Hansen et al., 1980). The precise measurement of the infiltration rate is not yet possible because of the microscopic, heterogeneous, and anisotropic structure of the soil particles. As early as 1911, researchers attempted to express an empirical equation describing the accumulated infiltration and elapsed time for design purposes. The most widely used infiltration rate equation today is defined by the USDA, Soil Conservation Service (1974), by classifying all soils into intake families. The general equation has the form of:

$$z = Kt^A + C \quad (2.1)$$

z , and t = accumulated intake, and intake opportunity time.
 K , A , and C = constants representing soil intake family.

All endogenous variables can be summarized schematically in Figure 1 (Jensen,1983).

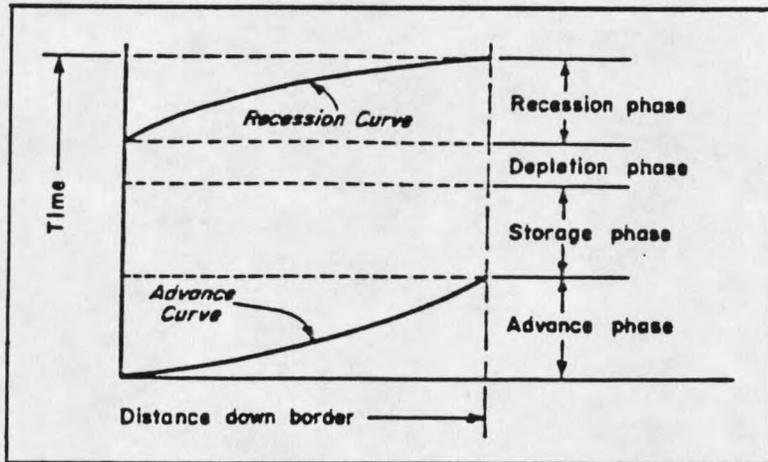


Figure 1. Schematic description of border irrigation phases.

Advance Phase

The advance phase is the total irrigation time during which water advances in the border from the upper to the lower end. Unit flow, slope, surface roughness, and infiltration are four major factors affecting the advance phase. These effects are summarized in the table 2.

Table 2. Advance phase effects.

Cause	Type of perturbation	Effect on advance Time (min.)
Inflow Rate	increased	would be decreased
	decreased	would be increased
Slope	steepened	would be decreased
	flattened	would be increased
Surface Roughness	increased	would be increased
	decreased	would be decreased
Infiltration Rate	increased	would be increased
	decreased	would be decreased

Jensen (1983) defines the remaining phases as follows.

Storage Phase

The storage phase is "the total irrigation time between the end of advance and inflow shut-off." If shut-off occurs first, this phase would be equal to zero.

Depletion Phase

The depletion phase is "the total irrigation time between inflow shut-off and the beginning of recession at the upper end of the border". This phase is also referred to as lag time.

Recession Phase

The recession phase is "the total irrigation time between the beginning of the recession at the upper end of the border and the disappearance of the last water from the field surface."

The irrigation water infiltrated into the soil is related to the intake opportunity time (the time between the advance and recession curves in Figure 1). The more constant the intake opportunity time over the border length, the better the irrigation.

The Surge Flow Concept

The word surge was referred to by Chow (1959) to describe a rapid varied unsteady flow (moving hydraulic jump) due to abrupt decrease or increase in flow. Surge was later used in conjunction with flow to describe a new operational practice in irrigation called surge flow

irrigation. On-off cycles were used to create a series of surges during the "on" periods and cutback water during "off" periods. The soil surface appears to become partially sealed during "off" periods. Surface sealing is undoubtedly the most important feature of surge flow irrigation. The next section will pursue the concept of surface sealing from an historical perspective.

Surface Sealing

Ellison et al. (1945) referred to Wollny who in 1877 as perhaps the first researcher to recognize the reduction in soil permeability caused by rainfall. Duley et al. (1939) photographed the changes in the soil surface and concluded that the breaking down of aggregates (Figure 2 and 3) was a key factor in reducing infiltration.

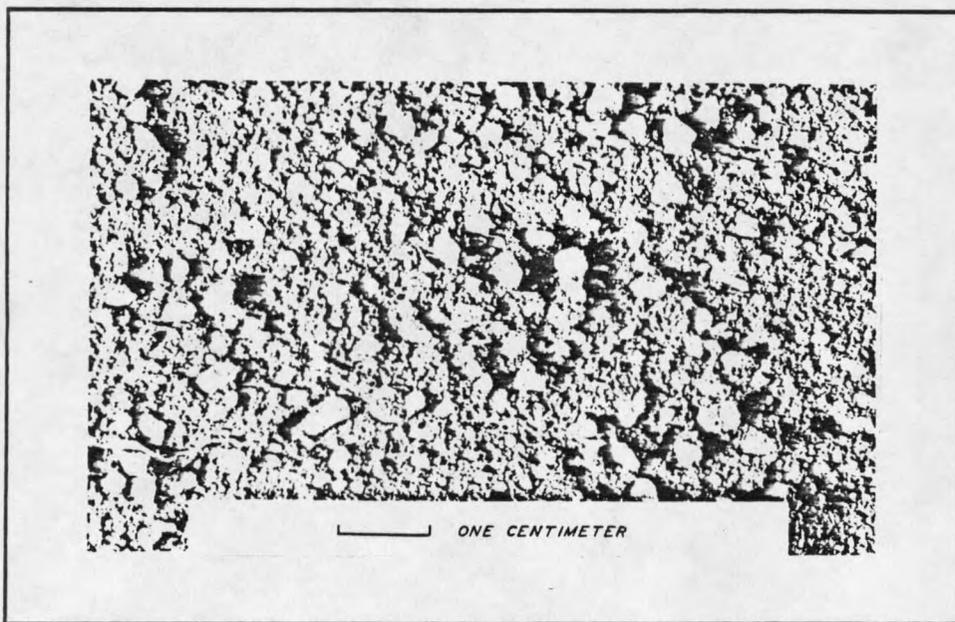


Figure 2. Soil surface before rainfall (Duley et al., 1939)

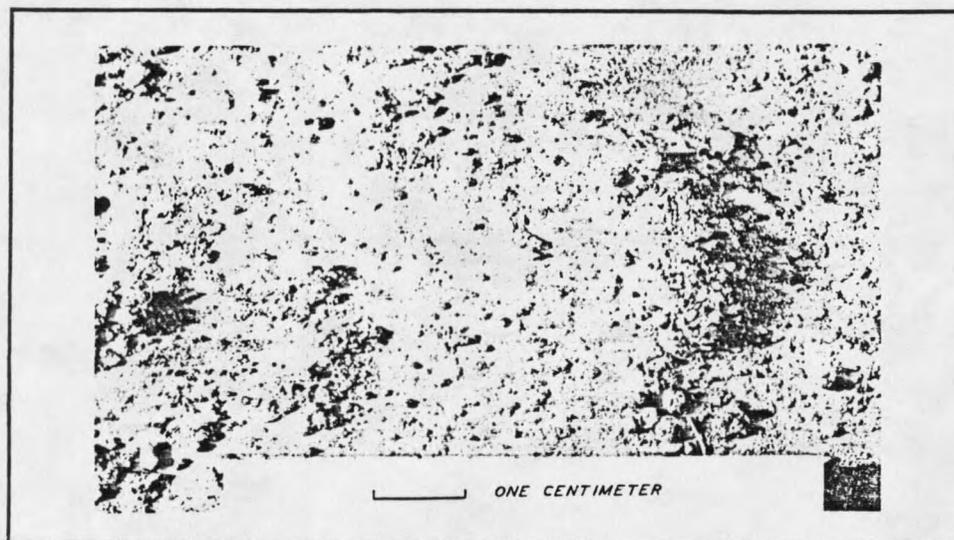


Figure 3. Soil surface after rainfall (Duley et al., 1939)

Ellison (1945), in a different study, explained the mechanism behind surface sealing caused by rainfall. He stated that the first raindrops striking the soil surface break down aggregates and release the fine particles of silt and clay. The splashing water carries some of the silt and clay particles as they land on the soil surface. As this mixture of water, silt, and clay particles percolates through the soil, the silt and clay particles are filtrated out immediately below the soil surface. These deposited particles of silt and clay were believed to contribute to the surface sealing. He also named puddling and compaction of the soil under rainfall as additional factors tending to reduce the infiltration capacity of the soil.

McIntyre (1958) measured the permeability of the soil crusts affected by surface sealing under rainfall impact. He

distinguished two different layers in the soil crust: first, a thin compacted sealed skin of about 0.1 mm followed by a second layer a few centimeters thick that he called the "washed-in" layer. The permeability of these two layers was measured to be, respectively, 5×10^{-7} cm/sec and 5×10^{-6} cm/sec as compared to a permeability of 10^{-3} cm/sec for underlying soil which is not effected by surface sealing. These measurements showed that the compacted sealed skin had a permeability 2000 times less than underlying soil. The "washed-in" layer, however, had a permeability 200 times less than the underlying soil. Both of them cause a remarkable reduction in the soil's permeability.

Tacket et al. (1965) recognized that, under raindrop impact, different soils have different susceptibilities to crust formation. They made an attempt to define the soil properties which govern the crust characteristics by testing soils of different structure and composition. It was finally concluded that clay particles are the dominant factor obstructing the penetration of water and reducing permeability.

Edwards et al. (1969) used a numerical solution for a water-flow equation to estimate infiltration into a homogeneous soil which was sealed by raindrop impact. A fifty percent reduction in infiltration by surface sealing was reported in a 2-hour period. Walker et al. (1982) summarized a decade of research on the surge flow concept.

The theory of surface sealing under rainfall impact was confirmed for irrigation, except that in irrigation the impact forces were absent.

Coolidge et al. (1982) confirmed the theory of surface sealing that "as water infiltrates after the first pulse, the lubricated particles in the surface soil may be reoriented horizontally and in a plate fashion that would greatly reduce infiltration in the wetted section of furrow." This concept is presented schematically in the figure below.

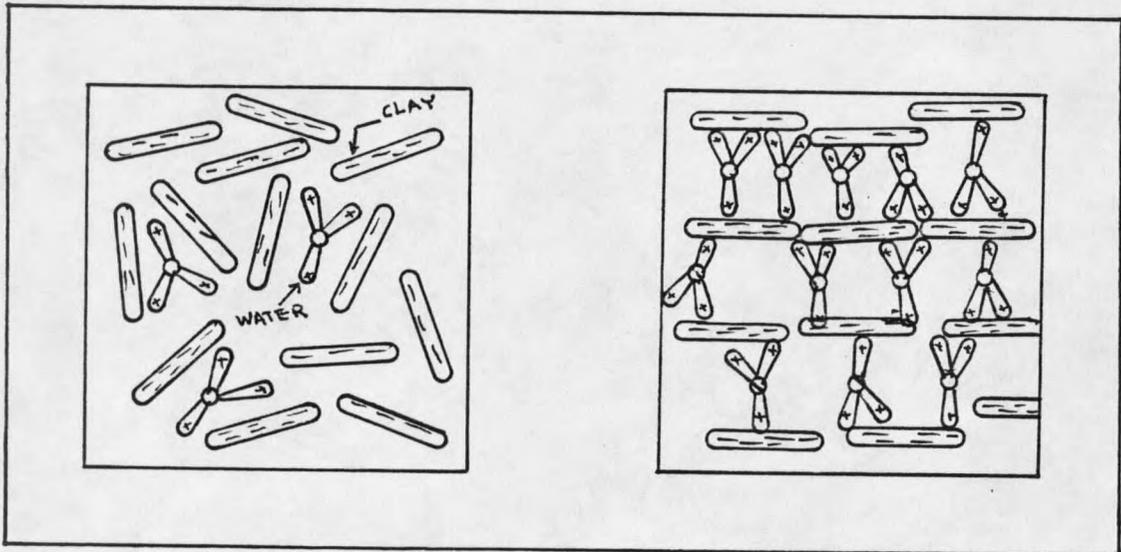


Figure 4. Clay and silt particles before (left) and after (right) surface sealing.

Although there is still some ambiguity regarding the surface sealing mechanism, the fact that the soil's permeability will be decreased during "off" periods of surge flow irrigation is now universally accepted.

Surge Flow Irrigation

Since the mid 70's researchers have accepted the concept of surface sealing as being a positive factor for irrigation purposes. Karmeli et al. (1974) utilized surge flow irrigation or "pulse irrigation", as it was then called, to obtain a low application rate. The researchers defined the term pulse irrigation as a series of irrigation cycles in which each cycle included two phases: (1) the operational phase, and (2) the resting phase. Later, these phases were called the on-off cycle. The determination of the number of cycles and the time of each cycle was also introduced as a main factor in pulse irrigation design.

Zur (1976) applied pulse irrigation principles for trickle irrigation to obtain low application rates. A time-averaged hourly water application rate was used in laboratory tests to define the pulse water application regime. It was reported that "the volumetric soil water content distribution and the rate of advance of the wetting front in the soil columns behaved as if time-averaged water application rate was being applied continuously." He suggested that the pulsed water application method be used to control the wetting front of the soil during infiltration.

Levin et al. (1979) tested pulse (intermittent) irrigation and continuously applied trickle irrigation for horizontal and vertical distribution of water beneath the

soil. They reported a 26% loss below the root zone for continuously applied trickle irrigation but only 12% loss for the pulse method of irrigation. While pulse irrigation showed a clear advantage in reducing water loss below the root zone, the horizontal and vertical distribution was affected insignificantly.

Stringham et al. (1979) first employed the concept of surge flow for furrow irrigation. An automatic gated pipe with a microprocessor control unit was used to control the cut-back by changing the time cycle instead of the instantaneous flow rate. The researchers stated that when the valves were opened and closed half of the time the same average stream size would be achieved as if half of the flow ran all the time.

Lillevik (1980) studied the economical advantage of using automated surge flow irrigation. He found the use of microcomputer-controlled furrow irrigation would be promising on 75% of the labor intensive irrigated land in the United States. He argued that microcomputer-controlled furrow irrigation can benefit farmers by reducing labor requirements, improving the irrigation efficiency, and lowering the energy cost.

Bishop et al. (1982) conducted several tests to examine the advance and runoff from furrows under surge flow irrigation as compared to continuous flow irrigation. The advance time was reported to be longer for the continuous

flow treatment and it was concluded that surge flow irrigation accelerated the furrow advance per unit of water applied.

Podmore et al. (1982) tested the surge flow concept in furrow irrigated corn. The consumption of water was reported to be reduced by as much as 50% using the surge flow treatment. By reducing infiltration when using surge flow, more runoff was reported which led to lower efficiency for surge flow as compared to continuous flow. The yield was the same for the surge flow and continuous flow methods.

Podmore et al. (1983) tested different cycle times as well as cut-back after advance to obtain higher efficiency for surge flow furrow irrigation. For higher efficiency, they suggested that surge flow should be started with shorter cycle times at the beginning of irrigation and longer cycle times later.

Westesen et al. (1986) tested surge flow and conventional continuous flow for graded border irrigation. An application efficiency (average depth stored in root zone divided by average depth applied) of 83% was reported when using surge flow as compared to 48% for conventional continuous flow.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Surge Flow

Bishop et al. (1981) summarized the major advantages of the surge flow irrigation method over traditional surface irrigation as follows: (1) more efficient irrigation, (2)

more uniform water distribution, (3) more uniform advance across the field for the entire season, (4) longer runs without increasing inlet streams, (5) more uniform intake opportunity time, and (6) a capability for automation.

The major disadvantages of the surge flow method is its management which is much more complicated than traditional surface irrigation management. Surge flow requires the manager to determine inflow rate, time of application, cycle time and a cut-back strategy.

The amount of water needed to satisfy the soil moisture deficiency in the root zone is the controlling factor for cycle time. The more water required, the longer the cycle time. For the best flow sequence, the first cycle should be short while later cycles should be longer as water advances further down the field. By increasing the cycle time, the water advance over dry soil with each new cycle would be about the same. When water reaches the end of the field, the cycle time should be decreased to prevent runoff.

Cut-back strategy is also very important in surge flow management. Cut-back strategy is controlled by cycle time: the longer the cycle time, the longer the valves would be open causing more runoff at the end of the field. The cut-back system is a function of the soil type, infiltration rate, and variation in the speed of the surge and therefore very difficult to predict. Reddle (1981) used a radio-controlled water advance sensor, a radio receiver, and a

microcomputer to evaluate the infiltration rate and adjust the cycle time in an effort to control the cut-back system.

CHAPTER 3

MATHEMATICAL MODEL FOR BORDER IRRIGATION

The Concept of Mathematical Modeling

Mathematical modeling has been a controversial issue in modern science. Many field practitioners regard mathematical modeling as being useless because of its inability to reproduce the precise "reality". On the other hand, many scientists overestimate the ability of mathematical modeling and draw conclusions which the model was not intended to predict. Modeling is a very natural thing for human beings to do. Rivett (1972) called human beings model-building animals and traced the art of modeling in human history and confirmed the fact that models were commonly used thousands of years ago by Babylonians to predict the cycle of stars.

When experience in the real world is not possible or too expensive, models can be used to conveniently predict the future. A model is a way of simulating reality and can be used as a substitute for a system or an object. Models, however, should not be expected to be identical to that of a system or an object. Forrester (1968) stated that models cannot be proven to represent "reality" because "reality"

itself is subjected to imperfect information. Models, he said, are to be judged on a relative scale that approves or succeeds in clarifying our knowledge or insight into a system or an object. Weinberg (1975) defined a model as the "expression of one thing we think we hope to understand in terms of another that we think we do understand."

Understanding the world of modeling is essential before using the model to predict the future of a system or an object. Bender (1978) suggests that a model is a summary of a world which consists of three things: (1) "things whose effects are neglected, (2) things that affect the model but whose behavior the model is not designed to study, and (3) things the model is designed to study the behavior of." Once a physical law is understood by human beings, attempts will be made to formulate that law into some mathematical expressions. Mathematical modeling, or abstract modeling, is a model that uses mathematical expressions as a shorthand, or a language, to describe a system or an object. In Bender's words "mathematical modeling is neither science nor math but how to put them together."

Mathematical modeling for border irrigation started as early as the 1960's. The early models were intended to deal with only a portion of the irrigation process so that the validity of certain equations or solution techniques could be tested. For instance, Shih (1966) proposed a model which was used to explain the advance portion of the irrigation

process. Subsequent models were built to describe the complete irrigation process (Fangmeter et al., 1979). These recent models can quickly, reliably, and economically evaluate the performance of the border irrigation system. These models can also be used to elucidate the mechanism of border irrigation hydraulics. The theory of available models are discussed in the following sections.

The Theory of Available Models

The full hydrodynamic, zero-inertia, and kinematic-wave models are the three available mathematical models which have been developed for surface irrigation. Zero-inertia, and kinematic-wave models have been specifically used for border irrigation application. All mathematical models for surface irrigation use a volume balance or the continuity equation and they can differ from one another in the choice of the motion equation (Jensen, 1983).

Full Hydrodynamic Model

The full hydrodynamic model is perhaps the oldest model developed for border irrigation. This model utilizes the laws of conservation of mass in addition to Newton's second law (conservation of momentum) to characterize the gradually varied unsteady flow in border irrigation.

The Saint-Venant equations (Figure 5) are the laws of conservation of mass and momentum expressed in partial differential equations to describe the nonuniform surface water flow in border irrigation (Chow, 1959; Henderson,

1966; and Strelkoff. 1969).

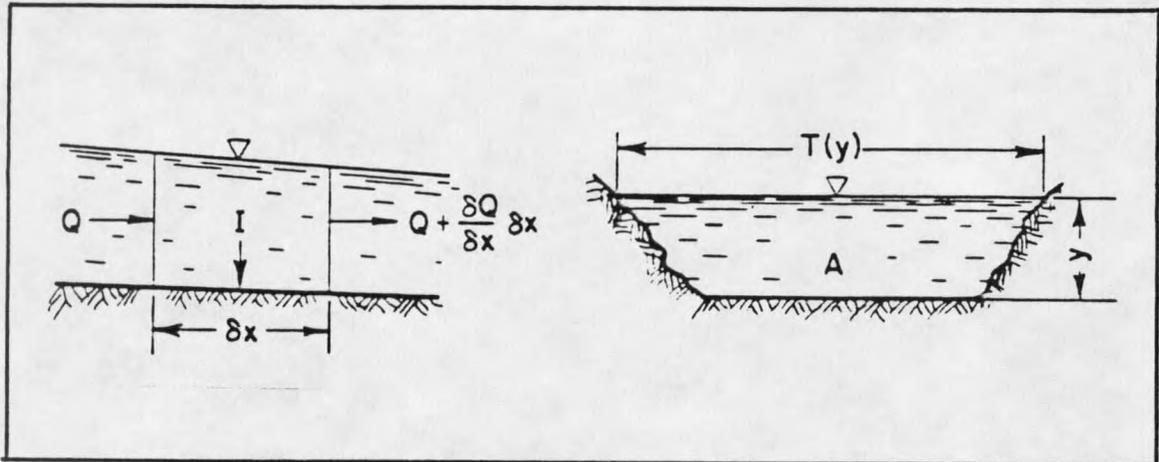


Figure 5. Definition sketch of Saint-Venant equations for a flow element.

The equation of mass-conservation in Figure 5 can be expressed in terms of the continuity equation as follows.

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial X} + I = 0 \quad (3.1)$$

where

A = cross-sectional area at the middle of the flow element, L^2 .

Q = discharge, L^3/T .

I = volumetric rate of infiltration per unit length of channel, $L^3/T \times L$.

x = distance from the upper end of the channel, L .

t = time, T .

The equation of momentum-conservation in Figure 5 can be expressed in terms of the equation of motion (Newton's

second law) as follows.

$$\frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{V}{g} \frac{\partial V}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial X} = S_o - S_f + \frac{IV}{2Ag} \quad (3.2)$$

where

g = acceleration of gravity, L/T^2 .

V = Q/A or mean velocity parallel to the channel, L/T .

y = flow depth normal to channel bottom, L .

S_o = channel bottom slope, L/L .

S_f = energy gradient or channel friction slope, L/L .

The following assumptions must be made in order to derive equations (3.1) and (3.2).

- 1) Water density is constant. This means that the equation (3.1) can be treated as volume-conservation.
- 2) Flow is one dimensional in direction of slope.
- 3) Momentum coefficient is unity. That is, the pressure distribution normal to the channel bottom is hydrostatic and the flow is parallel to the channel bottom.
- 4) Energy coefficient is unity. That is, the velocity distribution at each cross section is uniform but drops to zero at the channel walls.
- 5) Channel's bottom slope is small so that the flow depth in the vertical direction is approximately equal to the depth normal to the channel bottom.
- 6) Resistance forces to flow created by the soil surface and vegetation are a function of flow depth and velocity as if the flow were steady and uniform.

Strelkoff (1970) stated that the inaccuracy in the estimation of flow caused by the above assumptions would be much less than those caused by imprecise specification of

infiltration and/or hydraulic roughness.

The equations (3.1) and (3.2) constitute a pair of first order partial differential equations with independent variables x and t , and dependent variables Y and V . Crandall (1959) has shown that equations (3.1) and (3.2) can be classified as hyperbolic equations. Although hyperbolic equations can be solved numerically using finite-difference methods, they are normally dealt with by using the method of characteristics. The method of characteristics first finds special curves in the x - t plane (characteristic curves) along which the solution of the partial differential equations is reduced to the integration of ordinary differential equations. The ordinary differential equation then is integrated using numerical methods (Smith, 1978).

Bassett et al. (1976) and Katopodes et al. (1977) presented full hydrodynamic models using the method of characteristics to solve equations (3.1) and (3.2). The results of these models made it possible to regard them as standards against which the recent models can be compared.

Zero-Inertia Model

The first zero-inertia model for a complete border irrigation process was presented by Strelkoff et al. (1977). The zero-inertia model is a simplified version of the full hydrodynamic model with good accuracy and a much lower computational cost.

The theory behind the zero-inertia model is that since the change in depths and velocities are very small for border irrigation, all inertial (acceleration) terms in equation (3.2) can be neglected. The equation (3.2) then becomes:

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = S_o - S_f \quad (3.3)$$

Strelkoff et al. (1977) supported the fact that for low velocities, or Froud numbers below 0.3, the forces acting on the surface stream are in balance independent of the acceleration terms in equation (3.2). The surface stream flow can be analyzed by dividing the stream length into a number of cells. A single water cell is shown in Figure 6.

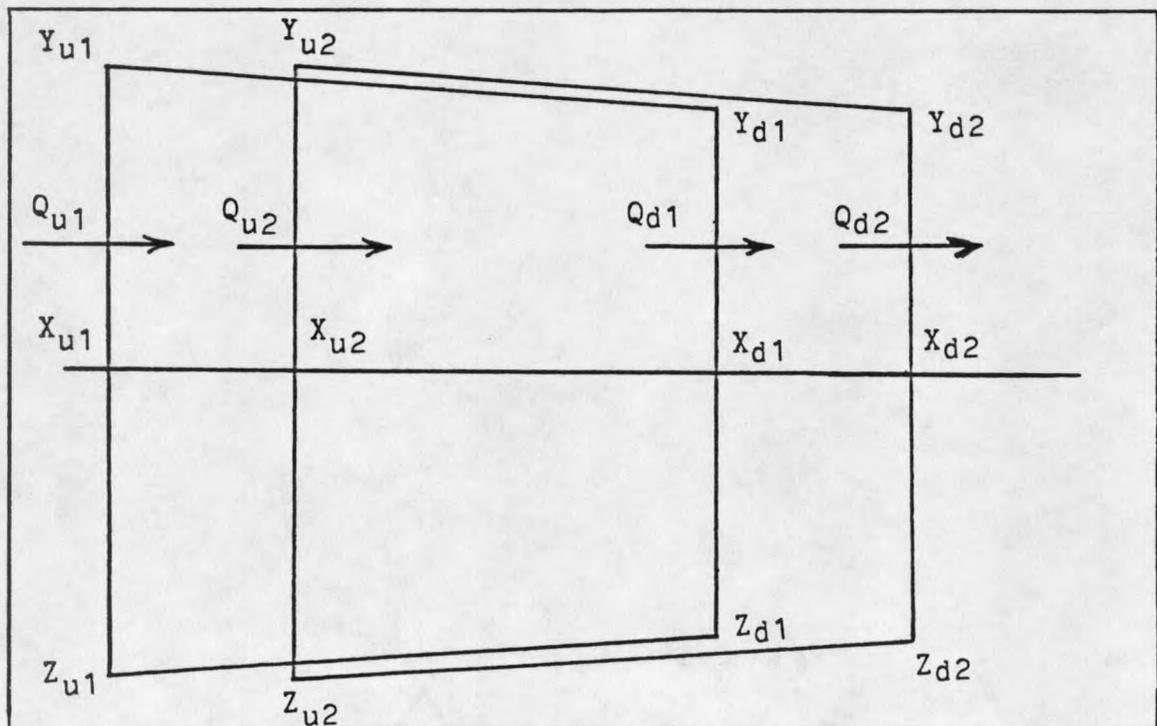


Figure 6. A single water cell with moving faces.

where

X_{u1}, X_{d1} , = are the location of the upstream and downstream surfaces the cell at the beginning and the end of the time step Δt .

Y_{u1}, Y_{d1} , = are the depth of the surface water at the upstream and downstream surfaces of the cell at the beginning and the end of the time step Δt .

Z_{u1}, Z_{d1} , = are the depth of the infiltrated water at the upstream and downstream surfaces of the cell at the beginning and the end of the time step Δt .

Q_{u1}, Q_{d1} , = are the flow in and flow out of the cell at the beginning and the end of the time step Δt .

The cells must be selected so that variation of depth and discharge over the length of a cell can be assumed to be linear. As the water cell moves for a time period Δt , the computation network in the $x-t$ plane can be presented as in Figure 7.

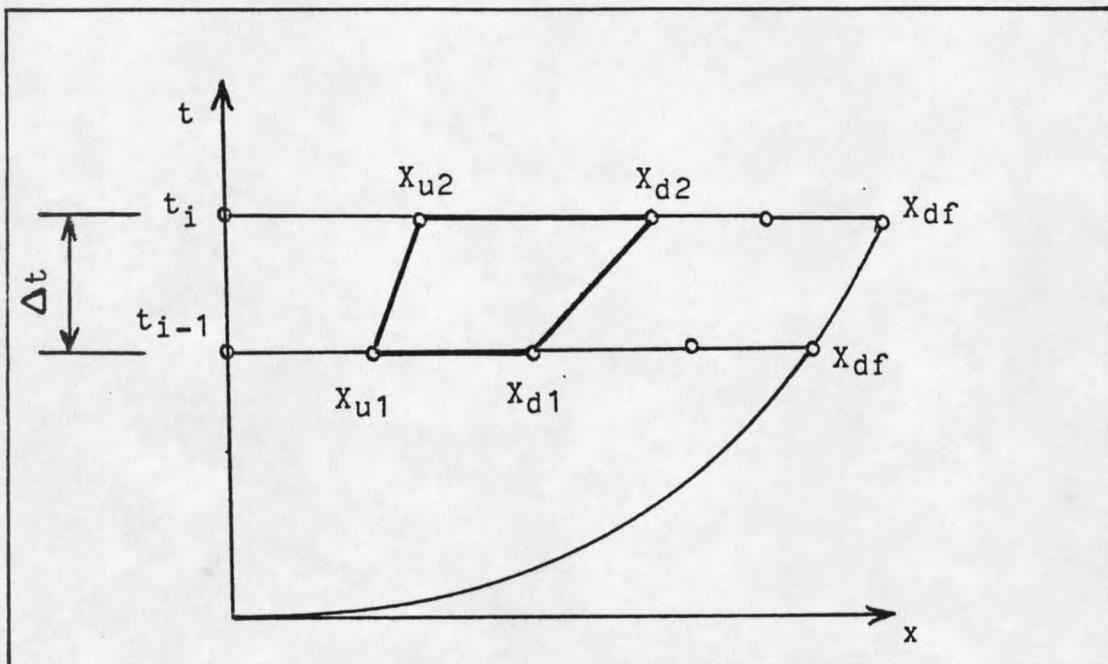


Figure 7. Computation network in the $x-t$ plane.

The advance curve can be drawn by connecting the X_{df} points in Figure 7 (final locations of the downstream faces of the cell for the last time period Δt).

The equilibrium of the forces on surface-water can be shown as in Figure 8.

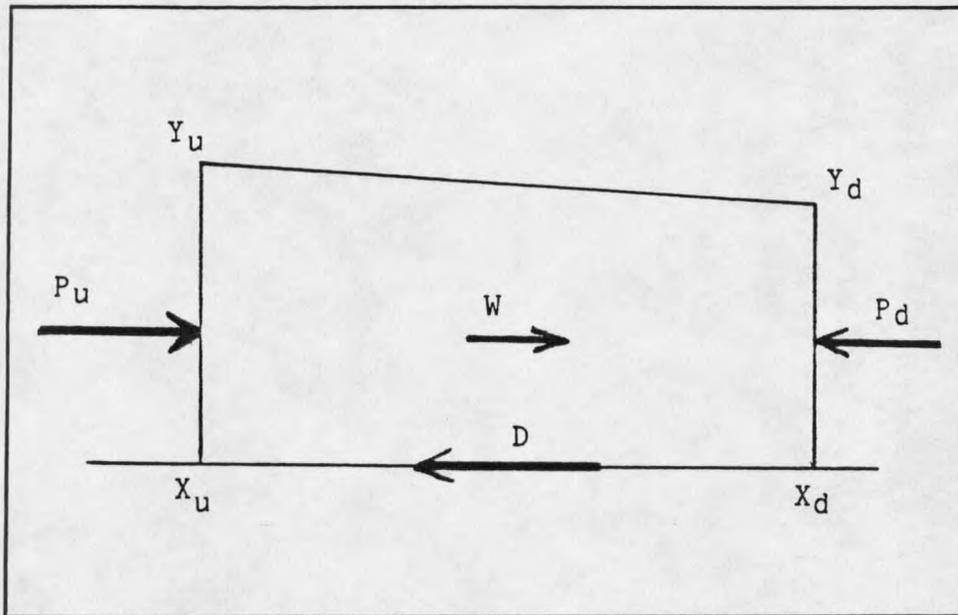


Figure 8. Equilibrium of forces on surface-water cell.

where

$P_u - P_d$ = are the hydrostatic pressures extended by water in the neighboring cells upstream and downstream from the given cell.

W = is the downstream component of the weight.

D = is the drag force caused by vegetation as well as the soil surface.

In equation (3.3), the net result of the hydrostatic pressure ($P_u - P_d$) is represented by $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ while W and D are represented by S_f and S_b respectively.

The zero-inertia model uses a numerical solution for equations (3.1) and (3.3) using the method of characteristics. This model is commonly used today because of its low computational cost and its adaptability to digital computers.

Kinematic-Wave Model

Kinematic-wave theory was first studied for border irrigation by Smith (1972). In this model the bottom slope is assumed to be relatively large causing uniform flow with normal depth at every point along the stream. That is, in Figure 8, the downstream component of the weight (W) and the drag force (D) are much larger than the net result of the hydrostatic pressure ($P_u - P_d$). The net result of the hydrostatic pressure can, therefore, be neglected. The equation (3.3) then becomes:

$$S_o - S_f = 0 \quad (3.4)$$

or

$$S_o = S_f \quad (3.5)$$

The kinematic-wave model reduces equations (3.1) and (3.5) to a pair of ordinary differential equations and then solves them numerically using the method of characteristics.

It should be noted that the kinematic-wave model fails where the horizontal bottom slope is encountered. Equation (3.5) is also not satisfied for the regions where depth

gradient is large such as the front edge of the advancing stream.

Selecting an Appropriate Model

The "BRDRFLW: A Mathematical Model of Border Irrigation" by Strelkoff (1985) has been selected to test for surge flow border irrigation. The BRDRFLW is a software program written in Fortran. The model predicts the behavior of the flowing surface water in border irrigation. The Strelkoff's BRDRFLW model has been selected for the following reasons:

- 1) The model is the latest available model in the market which could describe the complete process of border irrigation.
- 2) The running version of the model is available economically in a floppy disc which could be used with almost any computer.
- 3) The model uses both zero-inertia and kinematic-wave options and therefore was flexible to suit any particular condition in border irrigation.
- 4) The model is far less complicated than the full hydrodynamic models.

The model assumes infiltration to be only a function of time. The equation for infiltration which is presented in BRDRFLW is as follows.

$$Z = Kt^A + Bt + C \quad (3.6)$$

where

Z = accumulated intake.

t = intake opportunity time.

K, A, B, and C = constants to classify a particular soil.

The input information (exogenous variables) for the model were two kinds, the physical characteristics of the border being irrigated and management parameters. The physical characteristics input are:

- 1) border length
- 2) slope
- 3) roughness
- 4) downstream boundary condition, is the streamfree to drain out of the border or blocked by an end check
- 5) soil infiltration characteristics

The management parameters are:

- 1) required depth of application
- 2) inflow rate
- 3) cutoff time

The exogenous variables for the model can be expressed in metric, English, or dimensionless units.

Once the exogenous variables are entered in the model. the computer program can select either the zero-inertia or kinematic-wave options to solve output variables (endogenous variables). The endogenous variables are:

- 1) advance as a function of time
- 2) recession as a function of time
- 3) percent runoff (applied volume/runoff volume)
- 4) ultimate distribution of applied water
- 5) distribution and application efficiency

All endogenous variables then would be printed out by the BRDRFLW model in metric, English. and dimensionless units.

Calibration of the Model

An irrigational problem was idealized in an effort to calibrate the Strelkoff's BRDRFLW model. The crop was assumed to be alfalfa with a roughness coefficient of 0.15 as suggested by the U.S. SCS (1974). The soil was assumed to

be silty loam with K, A, B, and C to be 4.68, 0.547, 0.0, and 0.0 respectively (Merriam et al., 1985). The border length was selected as 100 m with a slope of 0.3% (Melvyn, 1986). The boundary condition at the end of the border was assumed to be open to runoff. Melvyn (1986) suggests an inflow of 7 l/s.m for silty loam soils with a corresponding 10 cm soil moisture deficiency. The cutoff time was approximated as 15 minutes. A summary of all exogenous variables explained above is presented in the Table 3.

Table 3. Exogenous data for calibration of the model.

Exogenous Variables	Physical Characteristics	Management Parameters
Roughness	0.15	
Soil Infiltration Characteristics, K	4.68	
A	0.547	
B	0.0	
C	0.0	
Border Length	100 m	
Slope	0.3%	
Downstream Boundary Condition	Open for Runoff	
Required Depth of Application		10 cm
Inflow Rate		7 l/s.m
Cutoff Time		15 min.

Once the exogenous data were provided for the BRDRFLW model, the model was calibrated for endogenous variables using the zero-inertia and the kinematic-wave options. Table 4 shows three of the endogenous variables, the distribution efficiency, the application efficiency, and the percent runoff generated by the zero-inertia and the kinematic-wave options.

Table 4. The endogenous variables generated by the model.

Endogenous Variables	Zero-Inertia Model	Kinematic-Wave Model
Distribution Efficiency	37.64%	33.30%
Application Efficiency	59.75%	52.86%
Percent Runoff	39.75%	47.54%

The advance and recession curves generated by the zero-inertia and kinematic-wave options are plotted in Figure 9. In Figure 9 it can be seen that for the same input information the zero-inertia and the kinematic-wave options generated similar advance curves but different recession curves. The recession curve generated by the kinematic-wave option used the cutoff time as a starting point for recession to occur and didn't include the lag time. The zero-inertia option, on the other hand, used the lag time but created a recession curve which wasn't as smooth as the curve created by the kinematic-wave option. Figure 10 shows

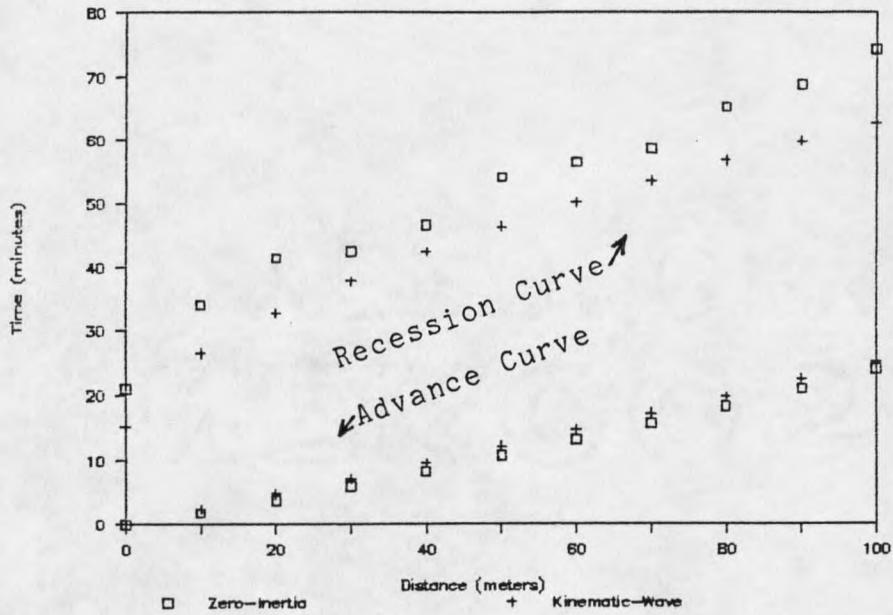


Figure 9. The advance and recession curves produced by the model.

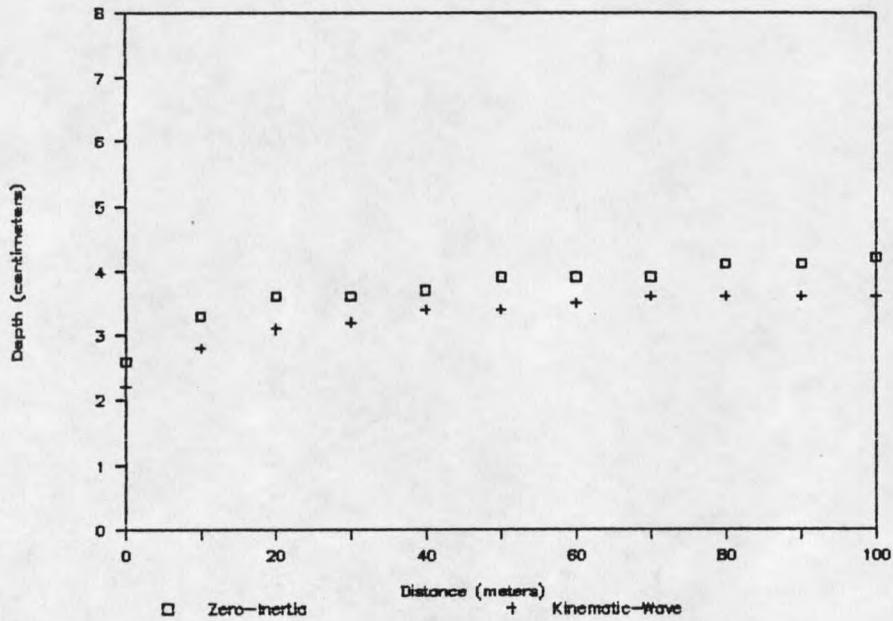


Figure 10. The ultimate distribution of applied water produced by the model.

the ultimate distribution of applied water which was produced by the zero-inertia and kinematic-wave options. Figure 10 shows that, under the same input information, the zero-inertia options allows more infiltration than the kinematic-wave option. Since the input information was selected arbitrarily, no conclusion could be drawn as to which option was more reliable.

The calibration of the BRDRFLW model was conducted with no complications except that the model required a computer running time of 45 minutes before any output could be generated. A Mathcoprocessor in the computer's main library, would have allowed the model to run much faster. Samples of the complete information generated by the BRDRFLW model are presented in Appendix B (Figure 29).

Testing of the Model

Actual field data presented by Merriam et al. (1978) were used to test the BRDRFLW model(Appendix C). Table 5 shows a summary of all exogenous variables needed for running the BRDRFLW model.

Table 5. Exogenous data from Merriam et al. (1978).

Exogenous Variables	Physical Characteristics	Management Parameters
Crop	Alfalfa	
Soil	Sandy Loam	
Border Length	259 m	

Table 5. Continued.

Exogenous Variables	Physical Characteristics	Management Parameters
Slope	0.5%	
Downstream Boundary Condition	Open for runoff	
Required Depth of Application		7.4 cm
Inflow Rate		5.3 l/s.m
Cutoff Time		88 min.

Roughness and soil infiltration characteristics are the two variables which can't be measured as precisely as other exogenous variables, and therefore must be estimated. The roughness is a function of crop and soil resistance to flow. Knowing the crop to be alfalfa and the soil to be sandy loam, the U.S. SCS (1974) suggests a roughness value ranging from 0.15 to 0.25. A value of 0.25 for roughness represents a condition where dense alfalfa is seeded across the border with a rough soil surface. The soil infiltration characteristics can be either computed using an adjusted infiltration evaluation (Appendix D) or they can be estimated using U.S. SCS (1974) or Merriam et al. (1985) sources.

In order to check the model's sensitivity against roughness or soil infiltration characteristics, two kinds of tests were conducted using the zero-inertia option of the

BRDRFLW model. For each series of tests, if any erratic perturbation in advance and recession curves were observed, the model would have been believed to be sensitive.

In the first series of tests, all exogenous variables were held constant except the roughness coefficient which was assigned values of 0.1, 0.15, 0.2 and 0.25 (Figure 11).

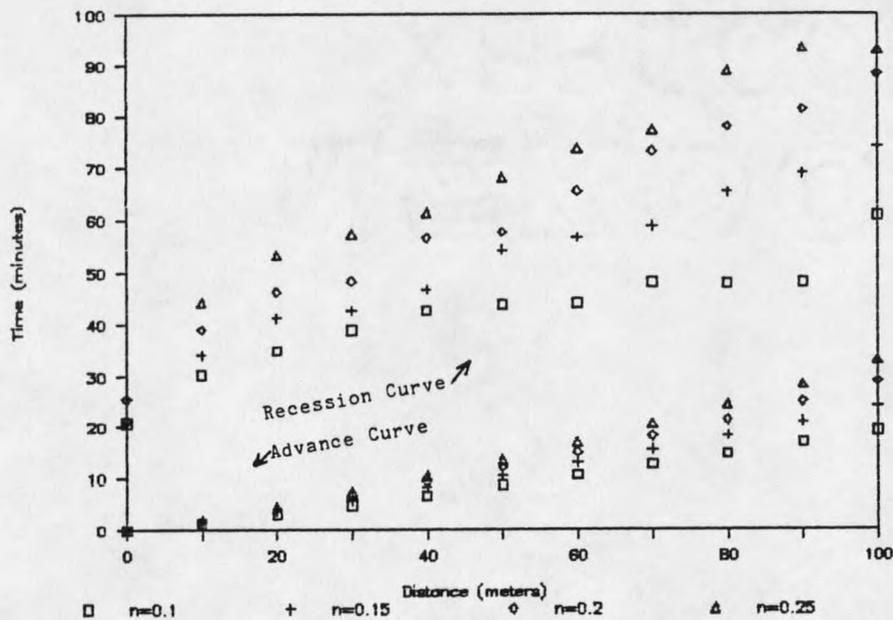


Figure 11. Model's sensitivity variation in the coefficient of roughness using the zero-inertia option.

Figure 11 shows that the advance curve is less sensitive to the change in roughness than the recession curve. Because of an abrupt perturbation in the recession curve due to a slight variation in roughness values, the model was believed to be sensitive to the changing roughness values. The kinematic-wave option confirms that the BRDRFLW model is

sensitive to changing roughness values because of an abrupt perturbation in recession curves (Figure 12).

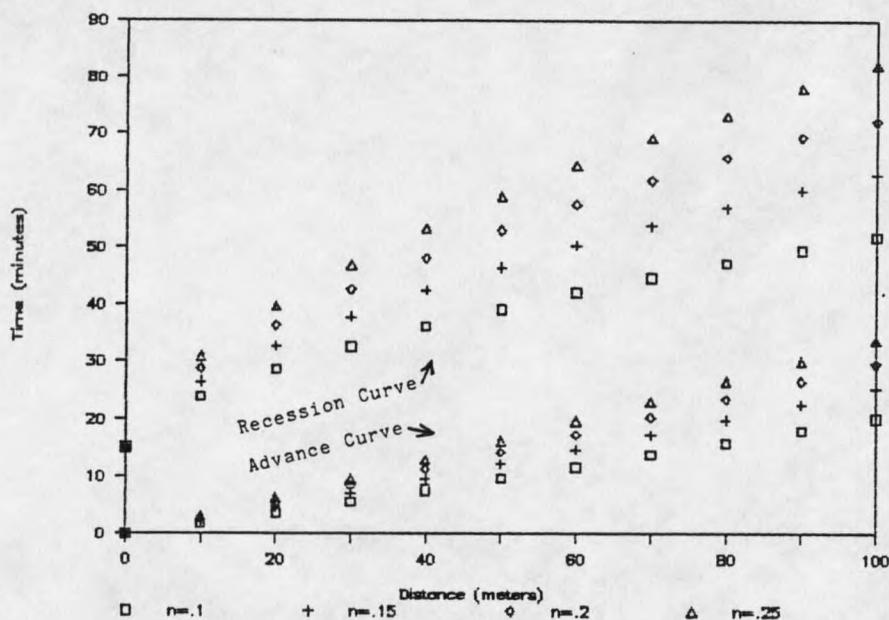


Figure 12. Model's sensitivity variation in the coefficient of roughness using the kinematic-wave option.

Since the kinematic-wave option introduces the same effect as the zero-inertia option, the remaining tests were conducted using only the zero-inertia option.

In the second series of tests, all variables were held constant except soil infiltration characteristics. The values assigned to soil infiltration characteristics were all selected from the same source and varied only within a range representing sandy loam. This range was identified in Figure 13 as being low, medium, and high. Figure 13 indicates that the model is also sensitive to soil infiltration characteristics since the recession curve

changed abruptly with changes in infiltration.

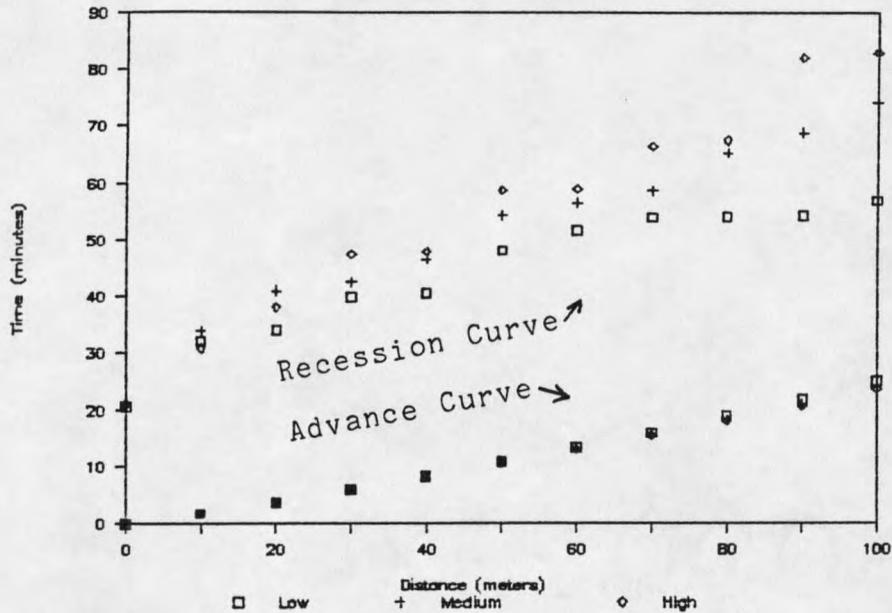


Figure 13. Model's sensitivity to soil infiltration characteristics.

Due to the sensitivity of the model, the roughness and soil infiltration characteristics must be selected carefully.

The next step was an examination of the reliability of information sources for soil infiltration characteristics. These were the computational method, the U.S. SCS (1974), and Merriam et al. (1978). Table 6 shows that each source describes a sandy loam soil differently. Three tests were conducted using the zero-inertia option of the BRDRFLW model. Each test used a different source of information as presented in Table 6 to generate advance and recession curves.

Table 6. Soil infiltration characteristics describing sandy loam by different sources.

Sources	Soil Infiltration Characteristics	K	A	B	C
U.S. SCS (1974)		0.108	0.808	0.0	0.275
Merriam et al. (1985)		8.28	0.643	0.0	0.0
Computational Method		0.447	0.664	0.0	0.232

The results generated by the computations were compared to the actual data prepared by Merriam et al. (1978) as depicted in Figure 14.

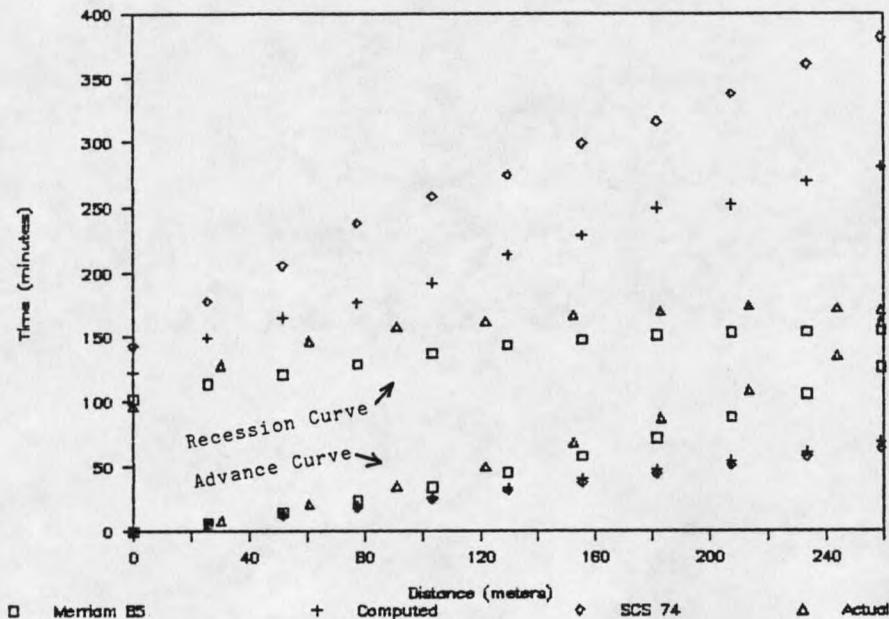


Figure 14. The comparison of the advance and recession curves produced by the model to actual data.

From Figure 14 it can be seen that the Merriam et al. (1978) data is close to the actual condition for describing

the soil infiltration characteristics. The model produced advance and recession curves similar to the actual field data. Clemmens (1981) studied different methods for evaluating the infiltration measurements and concluded that U.S. SCS (1974) data was inadequate and did not correspond the actual infiltration characteristics for most soils. The sealing effect in the ring infiltrometer, used by the U.S. SCS (1974) and the computational method, was determined to be the main source of error. Merriam et al. (1985) then developed a new family of intake curves based on how long the water must be on the field to infiltrate 100 mm.

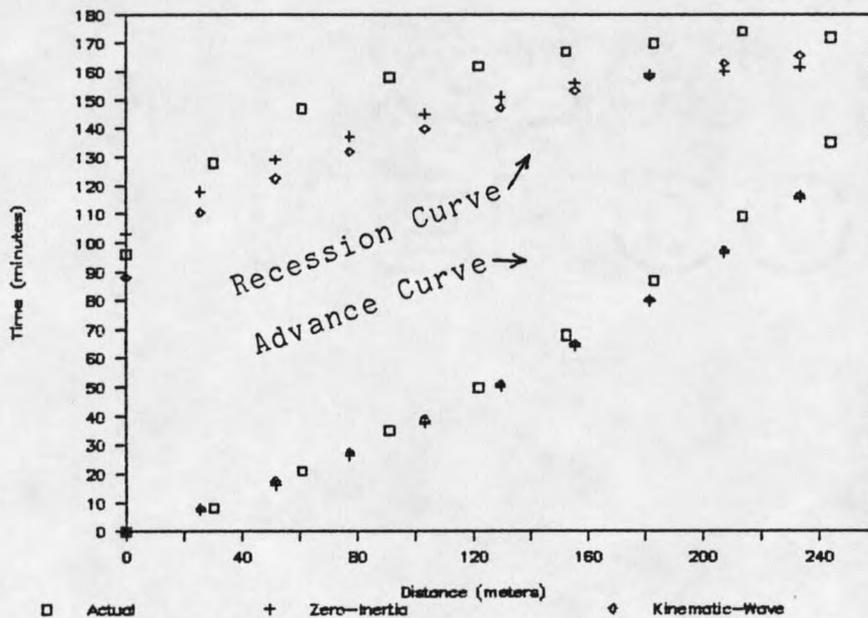


Figure 15. Best results produced by the BRDRFLW model.

Figure 15 was the next attempt to reproduce the actual field data in Appendix C by assigning different values to

roughness and soil infiltration characteristics. A roughness of 0.25, K of 3.31. and A of 0.643 produced the closest advance and recession curve to that of the actual field data. Figure 15 also shows that the zero-inertia option produces better results than the kinematic-wave option. A roughness of 0.25 was the highest value suggested by U.S. SCS (1974).

Figure 16 is provided to compare the actual infiltration profile through the soil (Table 15, Appendix C) with the infiltration profiles created by the model.

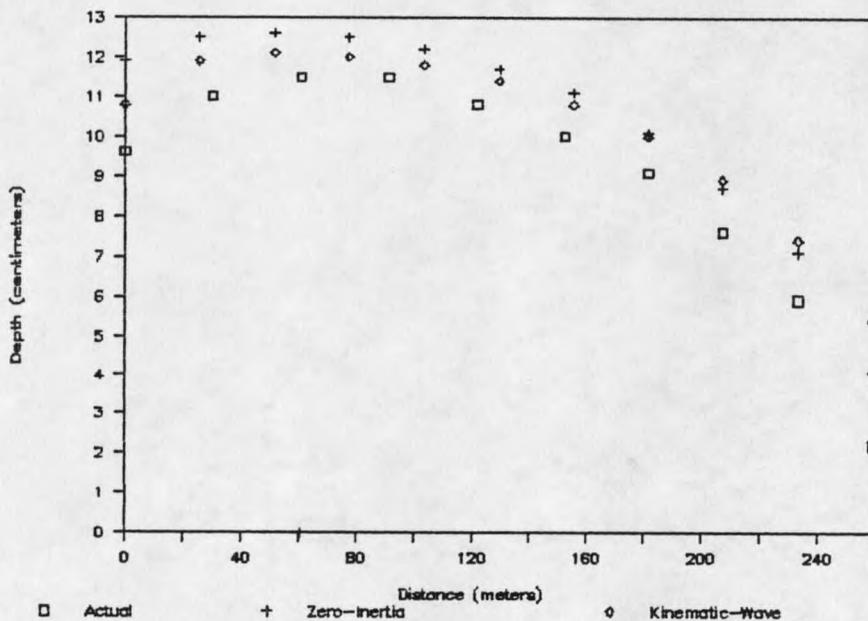


Figure 16. The infiltration profile created by the model compared to the actual field data.

From Figure 16 it can be seen that both the zero-inertia and kinematic-wave options allowed deeper infiltration than the

actual field data. The zero-inertia option is probably more reliable for design purposes to avoid any area of under-irrigation.

It should be mentioned here that the BRDRFLW model contained an option called the "hybrid" option which utilized the zero-inertia option to produce an advance curve and the kinematic-wave option to produce the recession curve. This option, however, could not be used because of the error messages which could not be explained.

The knowledge which has been extracted from testing the BRDRFLW model can be summarized as follows.

- 1) The model is sensitive to both roughness and soil infiltration characteristics, especially the recession curves. The values to be assigned to these variables must be selected meticulously.
- 2) Merriam et al. (1978) is the most reliable source to represent soil infiltration characteristics.
- 3) The BRDRFLW's zero-inertia option produces more reliable results by allowing deeper infiltration and considering the lag time before recession.
- 4) The roughness values used for the model tend to be higher than those suggested by U.S. SCS (1974).

CHAPTER 4

FIELD TESTING

The time for water advance and recession for three border strips was evaluated at the Fort Keogh Livestock and Range Research Station located at Miles City, Montana. Three side by side border strips were selected so that water could be conveniently guided from one border to another. Two of the border strips were for surge flow irrigation and one was for conventional continuous flow irrigation. The SCS Irrigation Guide of the State of Montana defined the soil's composition as clayey loam with very slow permeability and moderate available water holding capacity. The expected surface runoff was medium and the erosion hazard moderate. The crop was sixth year alfalfa, and it was being irrigated for the second time. The alfalfa was short enough that the water advance and recession could easily be observed.

The borders were all 15 m in wide and 427 m long. The border's transverse slope was zero and the slope in the direction of irrigation had been graded to 0.2% for the first 244 m, 0.3% for the next 122 m, and 0.5% for the last 91 m. These changes in the slope along the border had been made to attenuate the deep percolation at the middle of the

border strip.

The general procedure for advance and recession evaluation described by Merriam et al. (1978) was closely followed. The following materials were used to perform the advance and recession analysis for surge flow and conventional continuous flow border irrigation:

lath	digital watch
fluorescent flagging	soil bags
measuring tape	soil auger
soil probe	field notebook and pen
hatchet	calculator

The length of the border strip was measured and a lath was installed every 30 m to indicate a single station. These stations were selected so that one set of laths along the strip could be used for all three borders. Every fifth station was designated by fluorescent flagging to aid in field readings.

Soil samples were taken and soil textures were examined to determine the uniformity of the soil along the border. The soil texture was found to be fairly uniform throughout the borders. In a few small areas the growing alfalfa was immature compared to surrounding areas in the borders. The immaturity of alfalfa was believed to be caused by the clayey soil with extremely low permeability which accumulated salt during six years of irrigation.

The next step was to measure the soil moisture deficiency to determine how much water should be applied. Merriam (1960) approximated the relationship between field

capacity and wilting point as a function of the soil moisture and provided a chart to indicate the soil moisture deficiency by describing the soil texture. The soil in the borders was found to be quite dark and easily slicked and a thick ribbon could be easily formed indicating a soil moisture deficiency of approximately 140 mm in the root zone.

The water flow rates were measured with a flow meter installed on the main pipe outlet. The flow rate for conventional continuous flow and the two surge flow border was 57 l/s. This flow rate was constant throughout the irrigation period.

After preliminary work was completed, the surge flow irrigation was begun by opening the headgate to start the first surge in the first border. The starting time was recorded and as water advanced down the first border, the arrival time at each station was registered. Judging the advance front was difficult since it was not uniform transversely across the border. The flow was changed to an adjacent border once the predetermined surge time had elapsed. This time was recorded separately.

The recession time was then recorded for each station on the first border. At the same time, the advance time was being registered for the first surge on the second border. The flow of water was changed to the first border strip to start the second surge once the predetermined surge time had

elapsed. The recession time was recorded for each station on the second border strip. This procedure was iterated for three surge cycles until the irrigation was complete. The advance and recession data are presented in Appendix A (Tables 8 and 9). Figure 17 shows the advance and recession curves for surge flow on the first border.

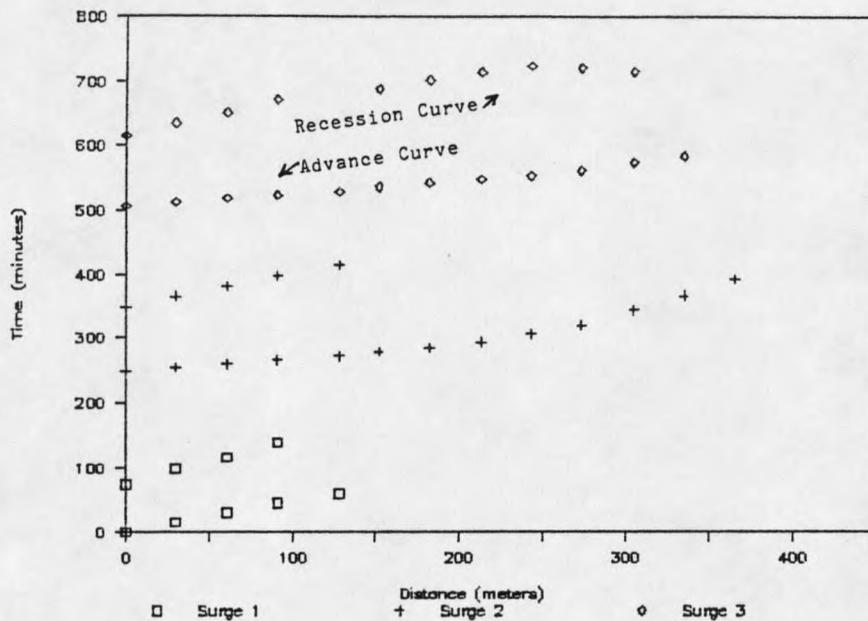


Figure 17. Advance and Recession curves for surge flow on border no. 1.

The water was shut off for the surge flow irrigation when the advance front reached approximately three-fourths of the border length. This practice minimized runoff from these borders. The same practice was used to run the surge flow on the second border (Figure 18).

Figure 19 shows the advance and recession curve for conventional border irrigation.

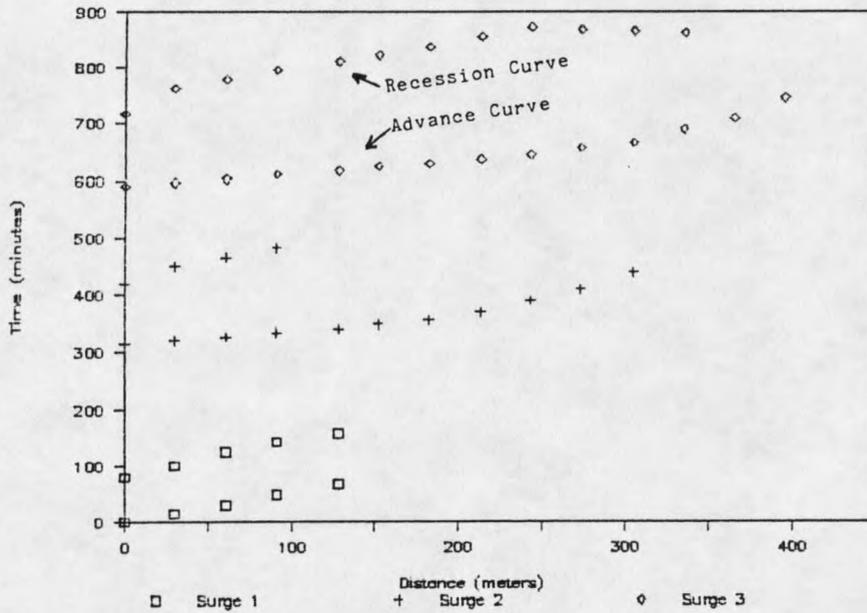


Figure 18. Advance and recession curves for surge flow on border no. 2.

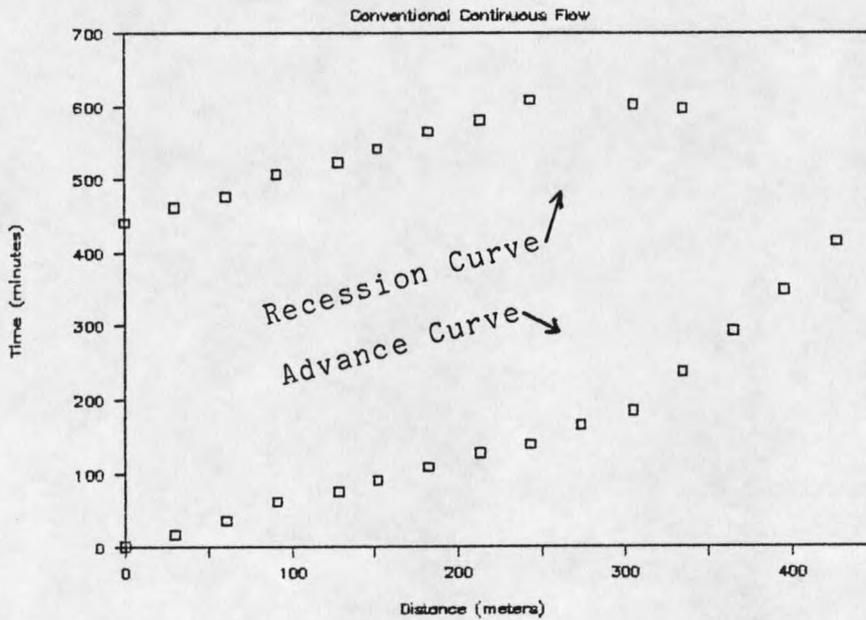


Figure 19. Advance and recession curve for conventional flow on border no. 3.

The complete advance and recession data for conventional continuous flow are presented in Appendix A (Table 10).

The depth of the infiltration was measured using a soil probe at alternate stations 24 hours before and after the irrigation. The differences between the depth of infiltration before and after irrigation were recorded and the results presented in Appendix A (Table 11). The soil probe indicated an average infiltration depth of 140 mm for conventional continuous flow and 154 mm for surge flow.

Difficulties in Field Observation

Several difficulties were encountered during the field observation. A description of these problems and the strategies used to ameliorate them are as follows.

The borders at the Fort Keogh Livestock and Range Research Station were six years old and the border ridges had deteriorated. A tremendous time and effort was needed to reconstruct the deteriorated sections of the border ridges before irrigation to insure that no water leaked from one border to another. During irrigation more leaks developed which were caused by animal tunnels. These tunnels could not be filled. Shoveling the soil around these tunnels prevented water leakage but caused an aberration in the water advance front. A bad leak was noticed during the conventional border irrigation. This leak occurred at about three-fourths of the border length (Appendix A, Table 10, at station 3+35). Although the leakage was controlled, the

advance data for the remaining four stations were unreliable. To adequately irrigate the last four stations the inflow was not shut off until the advance front approached the end of the border strip. This practice caused some runoff.

A precise determination of the advance front was difficult due to the broad width of the border. The advance front did not follow a well-defined straight line across the border for a particular station. For some stations, one side of the advance front lagged behind the other side by as much as 30 m. If three-fourths of the advance front crossed a particular station, the time was recorded as the advance time for that station. The same kind of judgment was made for all stations.

The clay soil with extremely low permeability made the recession measurements nebulous. At the same station, water remained impounded in some areas and infiltrated completely in others. Again, a personal judgment was made. If approximately three-fourths of the water infiltrated across a particular station, recession was considered to have occurred. Before water completely disappeared from the soil surface, the recession occurred both upstream and downstream simultaneously. Since there was only one person available to record the advance or recession data, a complete set of data for all stations were not possible and many data as a result are missing.

ANALYSIS OF FIELD DATA

The advance and recession curves for the two surge flow borders and the conventional flow border are shown in Figures 17, 18, and 19. With surge flow, three surges were required to finish the irrigation. A time of one hour was selected for the first cycle. This time was extended to an hour and half for the last two cycles. Since the lag time was long, due to the soil's slow permeability, the additional half hour was necessary to provide an opportunity for the water to recede.

As shown in Figures 17 and 18, the advance curves for each subsequent surge flattened. Westesen et al. (1986) interpreted this flattening as an augmentation of the velocity of the advance front for the second and third surges of water.

Faster advance with surge flow resulted in less deep percolation at the upper end of the border. This is verified by probe measurements of the average infiltration depth of 182 mm for the conventional method and 154 mm for surge method (Appendix A, Table 11).

The total time of application for the conventional method was 6 hours and 40 minutes. This time was only 4 hours for surged borders. This time difference indicates that with surge flow irrigation about 2/3 as much water was needed for water to advance to the end of the border as compared to conventional continuous flow irrigation.

The application efficiency for each method of irrigation could be determined by comparing the soil moisture deficiency to the average depth of application. The average depths of application, were 182 mm for conventional continuous flow and 154 mm for surge flow. With a soil moisture deficiency of 140 mm, the application efficiencies were 77% for conventional continuous flow but 91% for surge flow. It should be noticed, however, that the efficiencies reported above take into consideration the deep percolation losses and neglect the runoff losses. Adding the runoff losses to the deep percolation losses, the efficiencies reported above would be lower. But since the efficiencies are compared under the same circumstances, it can be said that the surface irrigation, under at least some conditions, can be substantially improved using surge flow irrigation.

CHAPTER 5

MODEL APPLICATION TO SURGE FLOW TEST RESULTS

Data Preparation

The roughness coefficient and soil infiltration characteristics had to be estimated in order to run the BRDRFLW model for the surge flow border irrigation tests. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the roughness values tended to be higher than those suggested by U.S. SCS (1974). Since the crop was alfalfa and the borders were old and deteriorated, it was reasonable to assume a roughness value of 0.25. The model was run for the tested conventional continuous flow irrigation (Table 10, Appendix A) in an effort to estimate the infiltration characteristics of the soil. If the model could produce the same advance and recession curve as those tested in the field using the conventional continuous flow, the soil infiltration characteristics would account for the behavior of the soil. The method proposed by Merriam et al. (1985) was used to define the infiltration characteristics of the clay soil tested in the field. The zero-inertia option of the BRDRFLW model was used for several values defining the clay soil. The model could not accept the three different slopes which were designed into

the border. The model generated error messages that error could not be explained. An average value of 0.3% therefore had to be used. This average slope caused no problem, and the model generated an advance and recession curve similar to the field data. Table 7 shows the exogenous variables supplied to the model to generate a similar advance and recession curve to that shown in Figure 19 (Chapter 4).

Table 7. Exogenous variables provided for the model to reproduce Figure 19 (Chapter 4).

Exogenous Variables	Physical Characteristics	Management Parameters
Roughness	0.25	
Soil Infiltration Characteristics,		
K	5.61	
A	0.58	
B	0.0	
C	0.0	
Border Length	427 m	
Slope	0.3%	
Downstream Boundary Condition	Open for Runoff	
Required Depth of Application		140 cm
Inflow Rate		4.2 l/s.m
Cutoff Time		400 min.

Figure 20 compares the advance and recession curves generated by the model, Table 7, to the curves measured in the field data (Table 10, Appendix A).

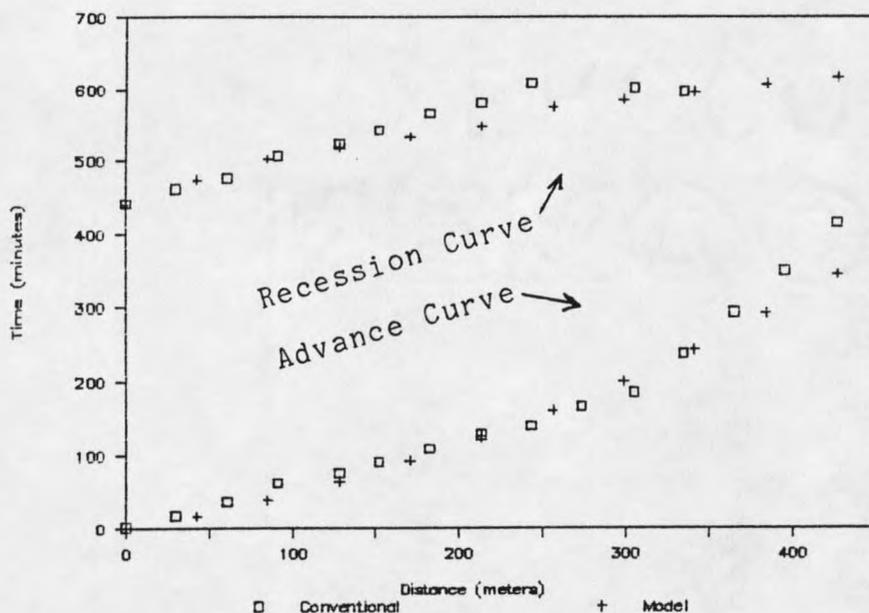


Figure 20. Advance and recession curves generated by the model compared to conventional continuous flow data.

As can be seen from Figure 20, the results are very similar and therefore the values of K equal to 5.61 and A equal to 0.58 appear to define the infiltration characteristics of the soil.

Figure 21 shown to compare the infiltration profiles generated by the model to those measured in the field for conventional continuous flow (Table 11, Appendix A). Figure 21 indicates that the measured infiltrated depth was slightly higher than the infiltrated depth generated by the model. These differences were small and can be neglected without jeopardizing the accuracy of the model.

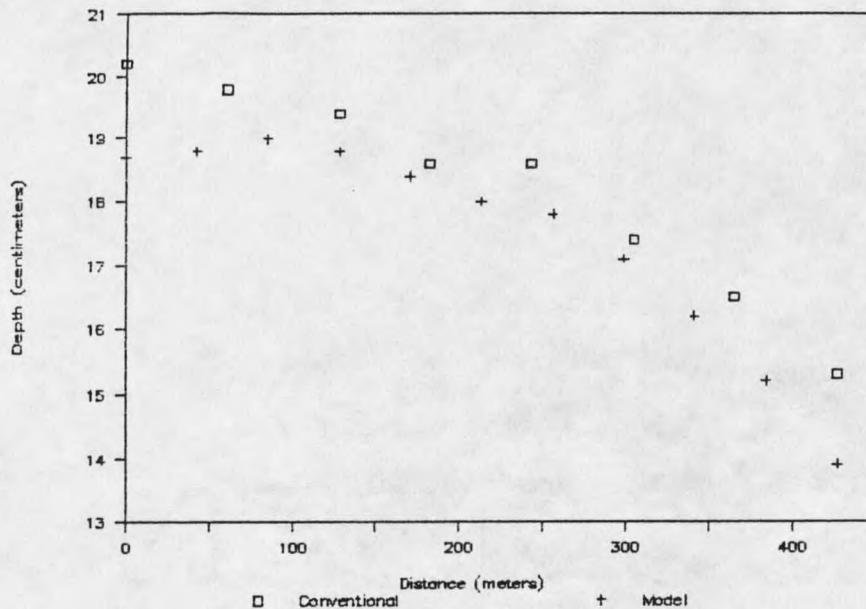


Figure 21. Infiltration profile generated by the model compared to measured field data.

Once the model's results were shown to compared reasonably to the actual data for conventional continuous irrigation, all exogenous variables in Table 7 were prepared to be tested for surge flow border irrigation.

Analysis of Results

The soil infiltration characteristics had to be determined as the first step before the model could be used for surge flow border irrigation. The soil infiltration characteristics for the first surge were the same as for conventional continuous flow since no surface sealing had yet occurred. Once the cutoff time changed to 60 minutes, the same exogenous variables in Table 1 were used to run the model for the first surge. Figures 22 and 23 are provided to

illustrate the advance and recession curve generated by the model for the first surge compared to the actual field data (Tables 8 and 9, Appendix A).

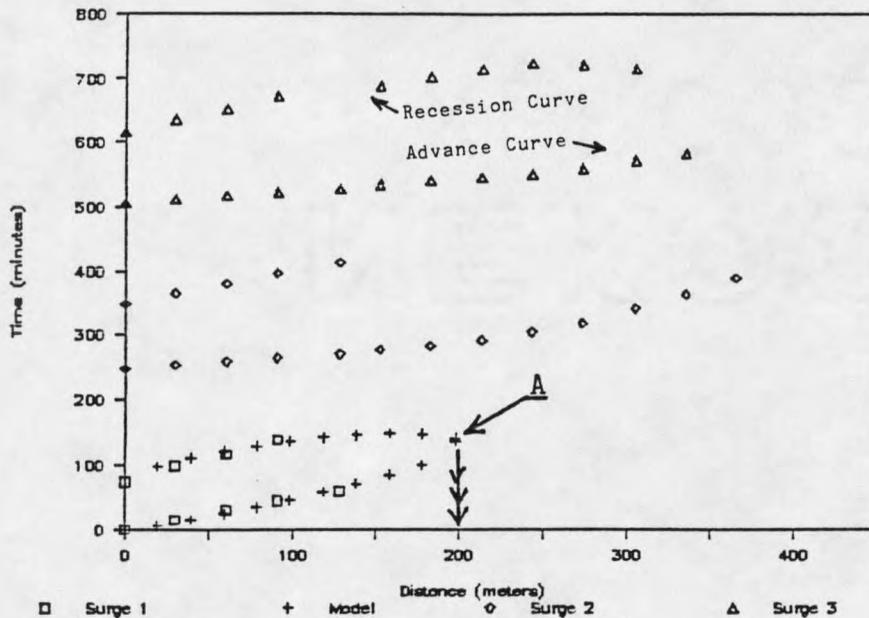


Figure 22. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the first surge compared to the field data (Table 8, Appendix A).

As shown in Figures 22 and 23, the model produces an advance and recession curve similar to the actual field data. One advantage of using the model was that it completed the missing data which could not be obtained in field situations. Point A in Figure 22 and point B in Figure 23 are the results of complete information provided by the model which indicated that the first surge of water wetted the soil surface up to 200 m along the border. The soil within this 200 m of the border then was sealed, but the

remaining 227 m of the border contained soil which was dry and not sealed yet.

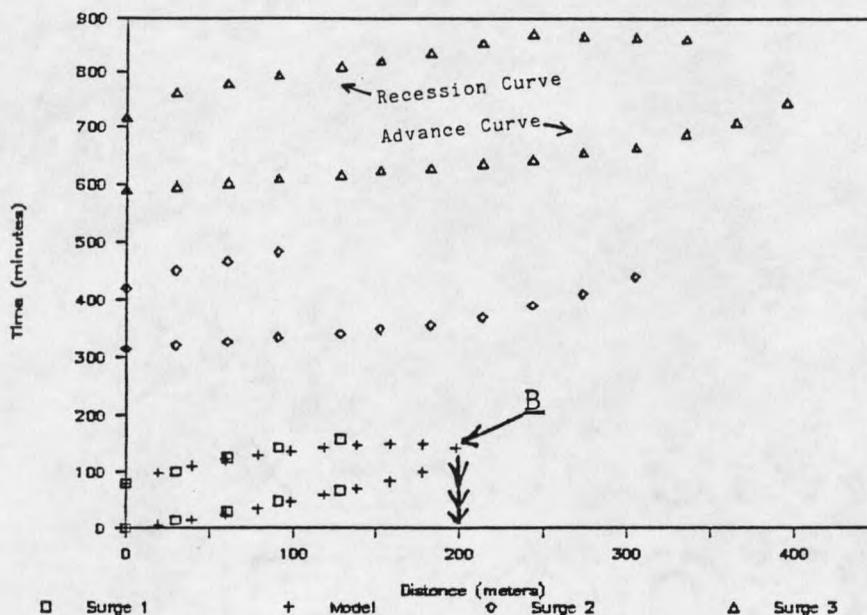


Figure 23. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the first surge compared to the field data (Table 9, Appendix A).

Once the model's results for the first surge were determined to be satisfactory, the second step was to check the reaction of the model for the second surge. In the second surge on the same border, there were two kinds of soil to deal with, the sealed soil and dry soil. The soil infiltration characteristics in Table 7 were the same as for the dry soil. However, a new infiltration characteristic had to be developed for the first 200 m of the border to account for the characteristics of the sealed soil. The most natural choice to define the sealing effects on the soil was

to select higher percent clay soil (soils with slower infiltration rates). Work by Merriam et al. (1985) was used to define the soils' lower infiltration rates. The model then was used to generate the second advance and recession curve for the first 200 m of the border where soil was sealed. Even with the highest percent clay soil as defined by Merriam et al. (1985), the changes in the advance and recession curve were not enough to compensate for the sealing effect (Figure 24).

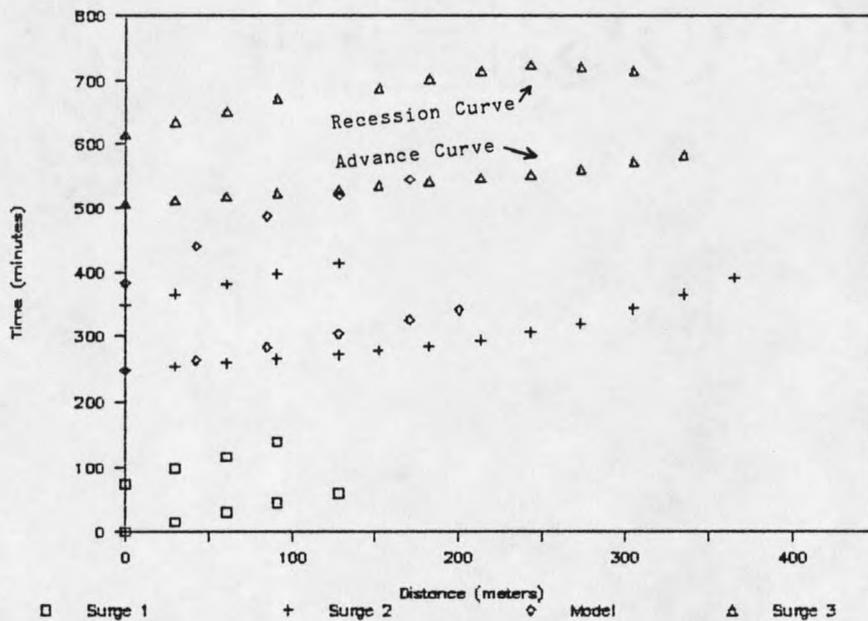


Figure 24. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the second surge using the characteristics of the highest percent clay soil.

The roughness value in addition to the soil infiltration rates was changed to compensate for the surface sealing effects. A roughness value of 0.05, K of 1.25, and A

of 0.419 were used for the model to produce the closest fit of the advance and recession curves to that of the actual field data (Section P in Figure 25).

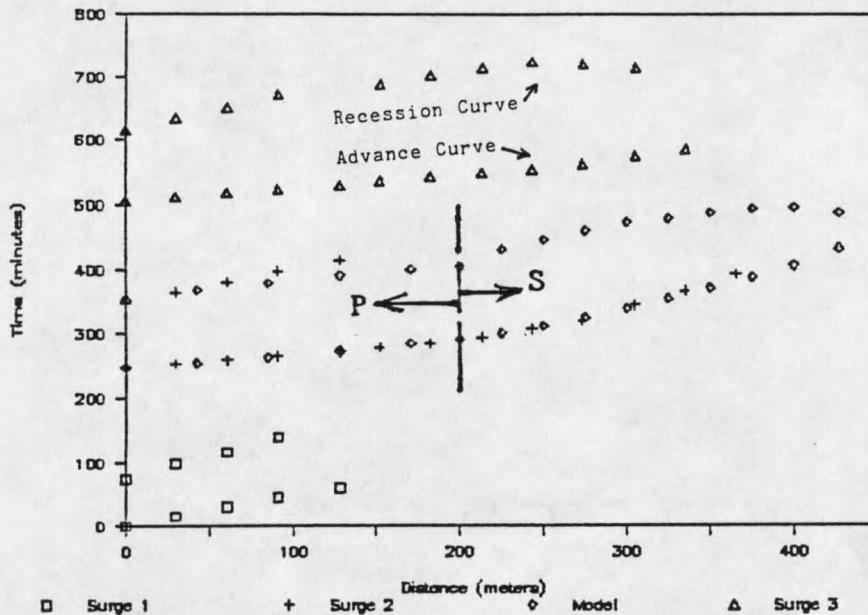


Figure 25. The best advance and recession curve generated by the model for the second surge as compared to the field data.

In Figure 25, data from Table 7 (conventional irrigation) was used for the remaining 227 m where the soil surface was dry and not yet sealed (Section S). Figure 25 shows that the roughness value should be reduced in addition to reduction in the soil infiltration rate in order to compensate for the changes in the soil surface due to the sealing effect. The fact that the roughness value had to be reduced to explain the surface sealing of the soil, was an important result extracted from the model. Most of the

previous studies in surface sealing focused on the reduction of the soil infiltration rate as the major factor to explain the sealing effect. However, more data were needed to confirm the model's suggestion that roughness also had to be changed to compensate for the surface sealing effects. Finally, it can be seen from Figure 25 that the second surge of the water arrived at the end of the border and wetted the entire soil surface along the border.

At this point there were no guidelines as to how much the roughness value or soil infiltration characteristics must be changed to compensate for the sealing effects. Complete field data can be taken for surge flow border irrigation using the typical soils as defined by Merriam et al. (1985). Using these data, the BRDRFLW model can be run to study the sealing effects on the soil surface. The results of such a study can be summarized as a rule of thumb that can be used for design purposes.

Once the model was adjusted to produce satisfactory results, the last step was to check the model for the third surge to see if a similar advance and recession curve could be generated and compared to field data (Table 8, Appendix A). Since the second surge delivered the water to the end of the border, the soil along the entire border was sealed.

A new roughness value and soil infiltration characteristics had to be developed for the third surge. The soil was even more sealed for the third surge. A roughness

value of 0.03, K of 1.17, and A of 0.335 produced results closest to that of the actual field data (Figure 26).

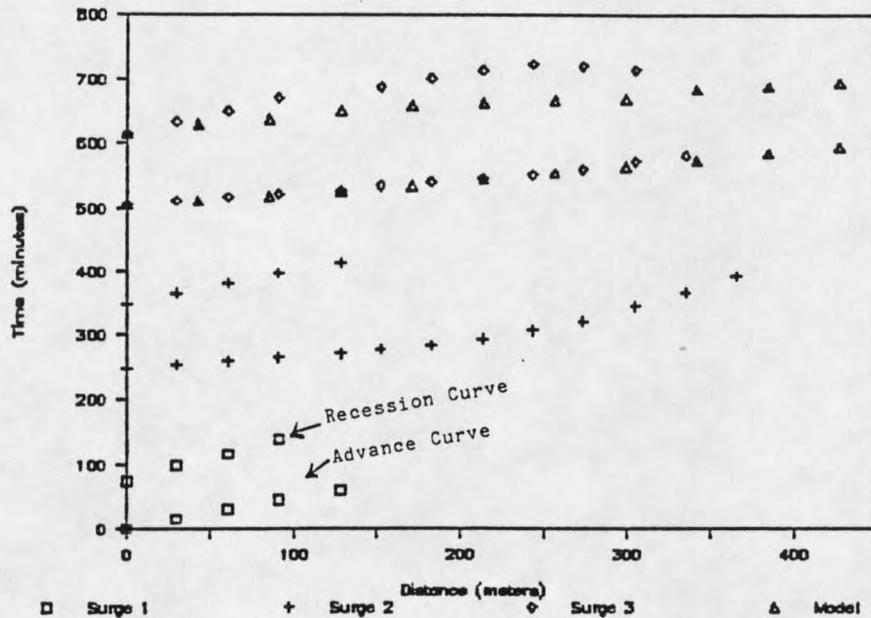


Figure 26. Advance and recession curve generated by the model for the third surge as compared to the field data.

Figure 26 shows a similar advance and recession curve generated by the model and compared to the actual data for the third surge. Figure 27 shows all three surges produced by the model while Figure 28 compares the infiltration profile produced by the model to the field data (Table 11, Appendix A). In Figure 28 there are a few centimeters of discrepancy between the model's output and that of the actual data, but this discrepancy is small enough for the model to remain adequate.

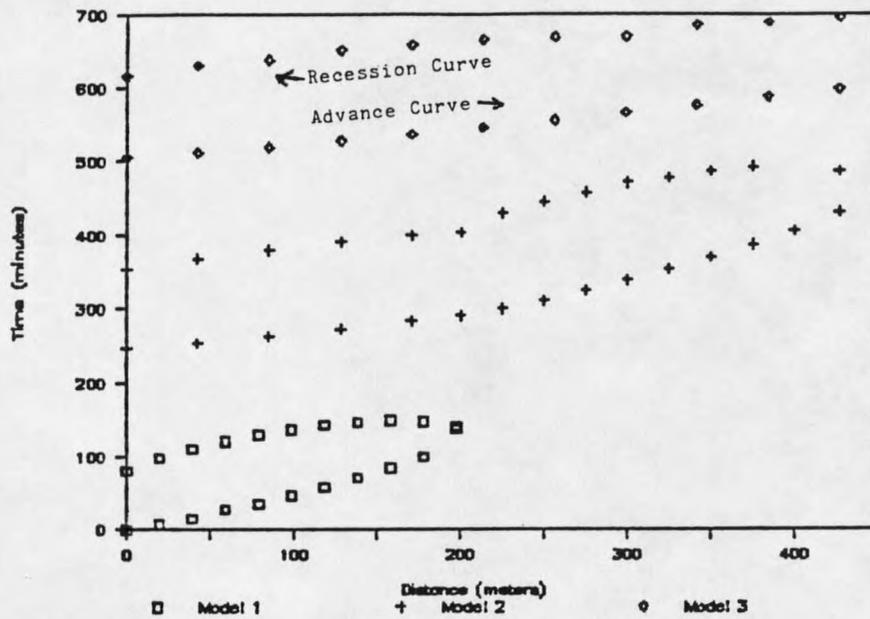


Figure 27. Model's output for surge flow border irrigation.

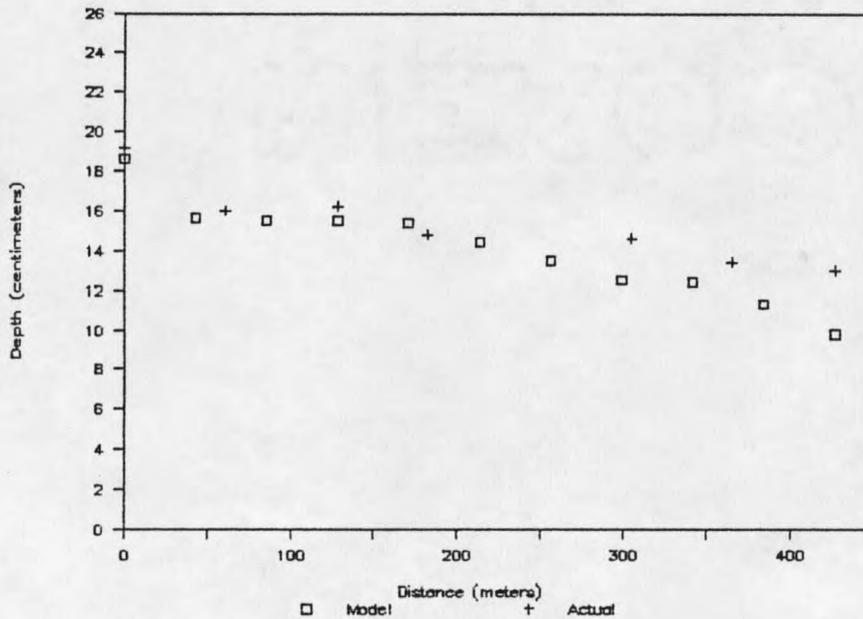


Figure 28. Infiltration profile comparing the field data and the model's output.

The following steps summarize the BRDRFLW model's approach for designing surge flow border irrigation once the exogenous variables are prepared for the model:

- 1) The U.S. SCS (1974) can be used for choosing a roughness value while Merriam et al. (1985) can be used to define the soil infiltration characteristics.
- 2) The first surge can be run by the model using the information prepared in step 1. From this step it can be discerned how much of the soil is sealed along the border and how much of the soil remains dry.
- 3) The second surge can be determined by running the model twice: First, running the model for the soil infiltration characteristics and roughness value for the wetted areas: Second, running the model for the dry areas using the same information in step 1.
- 4) From step 3 the model can predict whether the water is advanced to the end of the border or not. If water is not advanced to the end of the border, the third surge would be necessary, otherwise, the second surge might be sufficient for irrigation.
- 5) The last step is to check the infiltration profile to see if adequate water has infiltrated. More surges of water or longer time cycles can be used if infiltration depth is decided to be inadequate.

Once the above five steps were taken, the different combinations of number of surges and/or cycle time can be studied to provide the highest efficiency for surge flow border irrigation.

Suggested Modifications

The BRDRFLW model was designed for conventional continuous application of border irrigation. It is possible, however, to use the BRDRFLW model for surge flow border irrigation design but this involves a bookkeeping process to determine the changes in flow characteristics and is,

therefore, time consuming. In order to modify the BRDRFLW model for surge flow application, the following changes in the model's software are necessary:

- 1) The BRDRFLW program should allow more than one soil infiltration characteristic and roughness value so that different soil types can be identified at different sections along the border strip.
- 2) The BRDRFLW program should allow for several runs at once, each run representing a single surge.
- 3) The BRDRFLW program should allow a single output representing the complete surge flow border irrigation process by adding the results of each surge into one accumulated result.

These changes in the BRDRFLW model's software were not included in this study but the three suggested modifications are recommended for future work. These changes are needed to use the BRDRFLW model for surge flow border irrigation.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The BRDRFLW model shows promise in terms of its ability to predict a complete process of the surge flow border irrigation. The zero-inertia option of the BRDRFLW model generated better results than the kinematic-wave option because it included the lag time for the recession curve. The third option of the model which was a hybrid of zero-inertia and kinematic-wave could not be used since the model produced error messages that could not be solved. However, the results of this study should be interpreted carefully since the tested model's calibration was based on limited field data. More field data is required to summarize the results of the model into the guidelines that could confidently be used for design purposes.

The model's software had to be modified for the surge flow border irrigation. Some suggestions have been made as to how the model could be modified for surge flow border irrigation. Once these modifications are made, the BRDRFLW model can be used effectively as a design tool to predict the best combination of cycle time and the number of surges for the most efficient surge flow border irrigation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bassett, D. L., and D. W. Fitzsimmons, 1976. Simulating Overland Flow in Border Irrigation. Trans., ASAE, 19(4): 666-671.
- Bender, E. A., 1978. An Introduction to Mathematical Modeling. John Wiley and Sons, NY. 256 p.
- Bishop, A. A., W. R. Walker, N. L. Allen, and G. J. Poole. 1981. Furrow Advance Rates under Surge Flow Systems. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE, 107(IR3): 257-264.
- Bishop, A. A., and W. R. Walker, 1981. Surge Flow Update. Utah Sci. 41, No.4, 127-129.
- Chow, V. T., 1959. Open Channel Hydraulics. McGraw-Hill Book Company, NY. 680 p.
- Clemmens, A. J., 1981. Evaluation of Infiltration Measurements for Border Irrigation. Agric. Water Manage., 3: 251-267.
- Collidge, P. S., W. R. Walker, and A. A. Bishop, 1982. Advance and Runoff-Surge Flow Furrow Irrigation. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE, 108(IR3): 35-42.
- Crandall, S. H., 1959. Engineering Analysis. McGraw-Hill Book Company, NY. 428 p.
- Davis, D. S., 1943. Empirical Equations and Nomography. McGraw-Hill Book Company, NY. 200 p.
- Duley, F. L., and Kelly, L. L., 1939. Effect of Soil Type, Slope, Surface Conditions, and Intake of Water. Nebr. Agr. Exp. Sta. Res. Bul. 112, 16 p.
- Edwards, W. M., and W. E. Larson, 1969. Infiltration of Water into Soil as Influenced by Surface Seal Development. Trans., ASAE. 12(4): 463-465, 470.
- Ellison, W. D., and C. S. Siater, 1945. Factors That Affect Surface Sealing and Infiltration of Exposed Soil Surface. Agr. Eng., 26: 156-157, 126.

- Ellison, W. D., 1945. Some Effects of Raindrops and Surface-Flow on Soil Erosion and Infiltration. Trans. Am. Geophys. Union, 26: 415-429.
- Fangmeier, D. D., and T. Strelkoff, 1979. Mathematical Models and Border Irrigation Design. Trans., ASAE, 22(1): 93-99.
- Forrester, J. W., 1968. Principles of Systems. Wright-Allen Press., Massachusetts, W10-19 p.
- Hansen, V. E., O. W. Israelsen, and G. E. Stringham, 1980. Irrigation Principles and Practices. John Wiley and Sons, NY. 417 p.
- Henderson, F. M., 1966. Open Channel Flow. Macmillan, NY. 522p.
- Ismail, S. M., G. L. Westesen, and W. E. Larsen, 1985. Surge Flow Border Irrigation using an Automatic Drop Gate. Trans., ASAE, 28(2): 532-536.
- Jensen, M. E., 1983. Design and Operation of Farm Irrigation System. ASAE Monograph, Michigan, 829 p.
- Karmeli, D., and G. Peri, 1974. Basic Principles of Pulse Irrigation. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE, 100(IR3): 309-319.
- Katopodes, N. D., and T. Strelkoff, 1977. Hydrodynamics of Border Irrigation-Complete Model. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE, 103(IR3): 309-324.
- Levin, P. C., V. Rooyen, and F. C. V. Rooyen, 1979. The Effect of Discharge Rate and Intermittent Water Application by Point Source Irrigation on Soil Moisture Distribution Pattern. Soil Sci. Soc. of Am. Jor. 43, No. 1, 8-16.
- Lillevik, S. S., 1980. Automation of Furrow Irrigation With Microcomputers. ASAE. Paper 80-5025.
- McIntyre, D. S., 1958. Permeability Measurements of Soil Crusts Formed by Raindrop Impact. Soil Sci., 85: 185-189.
- Melvyn, K., 1986. Surface Irrigation Systems and Practice. Cranfield Press, England, UK. 142 p.
- Merriam, J. L., 1960. Field Method of Approximating Soil Moisture for Irrigation. Trans., ASAE, 3(1): 31-32.

- Merriam, J. L., and J. Keller, 1978. Farm Irrigation System Evaluation: A Guide for Management. 3rd ed., Utah State Univ., UT. 285 p.
- Merriam, J. L., and A. J. Clemmens, 1985. Time Rated Infiltrated Depth Families. Proc. Irrig. and Drain. Specialty Conference, ASCE. San Antonio, TX. 67-74.
- Michael, A. M., 1978. Irrigation Theory and Practice. Vikas Publishing House PVT LTD. 801 p.
- Pair, C. H., W. W. Hinz, C. Reid, and K. R. Frost. 1983. Irrigation. The Irrigation Association, MD. 686 p.
- Podmore, T. H., H. R. Duke, and F. T. Izuno, 1983. Implementation of Surge Irrigation. ASAE Summer Meeting, Bozeman, MT, Paper 83-2018.
- Rifkin, J., 1980. Entropy: a New World View. The Viking Press, NY. 305 p.
- Rivett, P., 1972. Principles of Model Building. John Wiley and Sons, NY. 141 p.
- Shih, C. C. C., 1966. The Infiltration of Intake Function on the Mathematic Model of the Water Advance Function for Surface Irrigation. M.S. thesis, Utah State University, Logan. UT. 53 p.
- Smith, R. E., 1972. Border Irrigation Advance and Ephemeral Flood Waves. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE. 98(IR2) : 289-307.
- Smith, G. D., 1978. Numerical Solution of Partial Differential Equations. Oxford Univ. Press, NY. 304 p.
- Stringham, G. E., and J. Keller, 1979. Surge Flow for Automatic Irrigation. Proc. Irrig. and Drain. Specialty Conference, ASCE. Albuquerque, NM. 132-142.
- Strelkoff, T., 1969. One Dimensional Equation of Open Channel Flow. J. Hydr. Div., ASCE, 95(HY3): 861-876.
- Strelkoff, T., 1970. Numerical Solution of the Saint-Venant Equations. J. Hydr. Div., ASCE, 96(HY1): 223-252.
- Strelkoff, T., and N. D. Katopodes, 1977. Border Irrigation Hydraulics With Zero Inertia. J. Irrig. and Drain. Div., ASCE, 103(IR3) : 325-342.
- Strelkoff, T., 1985. BRDRFLW: A Mathematical Model of Border Irrigation. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural

- Research Service, ARS29, Illus. 100 p.
- Tacket, J. L., and R. W. Pearson, 1965. Some Characteristics of Soil Crusts Formed by Simulated Rainfall. Soil Sci. 99, 407-413.
- U. S. Soil Conservation Service, 1974. Border Irrigation. Chp. 4., Sect. 15, Nat. Eng. Handbook.
- Walker, W. R., H. Malano, and J. A. Replogle. 1982. Reduction in Infiltration Rates Due to Intermittent Wetting. ASAE, Paper 82-2029.
- Weinberg, G. M.. 1975. An Introduction to General System Thinking. Wiley Interscience, MD. 279 p.
- Westesen, G. L., and D. K. Biglen, 1986. Surge Flow Border Irrigation Trails. ASAE, Paper 86-2082.
- Zur, B., 1976. The Pulsed Irrigation Principal for Controlled Soil Wetting. Soil Sci., 112: 282-291.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Field Data

Table 8. Advance and recession time for border no. 1.

Station (meters)	Advance Time (min.)			Recession Time (min.)		
	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.
0+00	6:46	1	1	7:59	14	74
0+30	7:00	14	15	8:23	24	98
0+61	7:16	16	31	8:41	18	116
0+91	7:30	14	45	9:03	22	138
1+28	7:44	14	59			
Surge #1	On 6:45		Off 7:45			
0+00	9:19	1	247	11:00	25	348
0+30	9:25	6	253	11:17	17	365
0+61	9:31	6	259	11:33	16	381
0+91	9:37	6	265	11:49	16	397
1+28	9:43	6	271	12:08	17	414
1+52	9:50	7	278			
1+82	9:56	6	284			
2+13	10:05	9	293			
2+43	10:18	13	306			
2+73	10:32	14	320			
3+05	10:55	23	343			
3+35	11:17	22	365			
3+65	11:48	26	391			
Surge #2	On 9:18		Off 10:48			
0+00	12:20	1	506	14:09	20	615
0+30	12:26	6	512	14:28	19	634
0+61	12:32	6	518	14:45	17	651
0+91	12:37	5	523	15:05	20	671
1+28	12:43	6	529			
1+52	12:50	7	536	15:22	17	688
1+82	12:56	6	542	15:36	14	702
2+13	13:01	5	547	15:48	12	714
2+43	13:07	6	553	15:58	10	724
2+73	13:15	8	561	15:55	-3	721
3+05	13:27	12	573	15:49	-6	715
3+35	13:37	10	583			
3+65						
3+96						
4+27						
Surge #3	On 12:19		Off 13:49			

Table 9. Advance and recession time for border no. 2.

Station (meters)	Advance Time (min.)			Recession Time (min.)		
	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.
0+00	7:46	1	1	9:05	20	80
0+30	8:00	14	15	9:25	20	100
0+61	8:15	15	30	9:39	14	124
0+91	8:33	18	48	9:57	18	142
1+28	8:51	18	66	10:11	14	156
Surge #1	On 7:45		Off 8:45			
0+00	10:48	1	315	12:36	28	420
0+30	10:56	6	321	13:07	31	451
0+61	11:02	6	327	13:22	15	466
0+91	11:09	7	334	13:39	17	483
1+28	11:16	7	341			
1+52	11:24	8	349			
1+82	11:32	7	356			
2+13	11:46	14	370			
2+43	12:05	19	389			
2+73	12:25	20	409			
3+05	12:55	30	439			
Surge #2	On 10:47		Off 12:17			
0+00	13:52	1	590	16:01	28	717
0+30	13:58	6	596	16:18	17	764
0+61	14:05	7	603	16:34	16	780
0+91	14:13	8	611	16:50	16	796
1+28	14:19	6	617	16:59	15	811
1+52	14:27	8	625	17:05	12	823
1+82	14:32	5	630	17:17	15	838
2+13	14:39	7	637	17:50	18	856
2+43	14:47	8	645	18:07	17	873
2+73	14:59	12	657	18:02	-5	868
3+05	15:09	10	667	18:00	-2	866
3+35	15:33	24	691	17:57	-3	863
3+65	15:55	20	711			
3+95	16:31	36	747			
4+27						
Surge #3	On 13:51		Off 15:21			

Table 10. Advance and recession time for border no. 3.

Station (meters)	Advance Time (min.)			Recession Time (min.)		
	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.	Watch	Diff.	Cumu.
0+00	7:53	1	1	15:24	27	441
0+30	8:10	17	18	15:45	21	462
0+61	8:29	19	37	16:09	14	476
0+91	8:44	25	62	16:40	31	507
1+28	8:57	13	75	16:56	16	523
1+52	9:13	16	91	17:15	19	542
1+82	9:30	17	108	17:38	23	565
2+13	9:49	19	127	17:53	15	580
2+43	10:01	12	139	18:21	28	608
2+73	10:27	26	165			
3+05	10:47	20	185	18:15	-6	602
3+35	11:39	52	237	18:10	-5	597
3+65	12:35	56	293			
3+96	13:30	55	348			
4+27	14:36	66	414			
Conventional Countinuous Flow				On 7:53	Off 14:57	

Table 11. Infiltration profile for border nos. 1 and 2.

Station (meters)	Infiltrated Depth (mm)	
	Border no. 1 and 2	Border no. 3
0+00	191	202
0+30		
0+61	160	198
0+91		
1+28	162	194
1+52		
1+82	162	186
2+13		
2+43	148	186
2+73		
3+05	146	174
3+35		
3+65	134	165
3+96		
4+27	130	153

APPENDIX B

A Complete Output Generated by the BRDRFLW Model

```

*****BORDER-IRRIGATION-FLOW PROGRAM*****
*****

INTERACTIVE USERS -- POSITION PAPER FOR PROMPTS THEN ENTER (LINE 1)
  1 FOR A FRESH START ---
  2 TO CHANGE DESIGN PARAMETERS -- ZREQ,QIN,TCO ---
  3 TO CHANGE SOLUTION MODES -- SOLMOD,LINMOD,DTMOD,ISUPZA,ZADMOD ---
  4 TO CHANGE SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- NSTD,RDI,DTSTD,THAX,JHAX ---
  5 TO CHANGE LEVEL OF DIAGNOSTICS AND/OR PLOTTING FLAGS ---
  0 TO STOP ---

1

1
(LINE 2)..... IDENTIFY THIS RUN .....
calibration of the model
calibration of the model
ENTER (LINE 3) -- INPHOD DMLMOD ---
1,1

1 1
ENTER (LINE 4) SOIL AND CROP HYDRAULIC PROPERTIES --
RUFMOD RUF AN INFMOD K A B C ---
2,.15,0.1,4.68,.547,0,0
2 1.500000E-001 .0000000 1 4.6800000
5.470000E-001 .0000000 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 5) FIELD GEOMETRY -- L DBC SOMOD ---

2 1.500000E-001 .0000000 1 4.6800000
5.470000E-001 .0000000 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 5) FIELD GEOMETRY -- L DBC SOMOD ---
100,1,1
100.0000000 1 1
ENTER (LINE 6) AVERAGE BOTTOM SLOPE -- SOAVG ---
.003
3.000000E-003
ENTER (LINE 7) MANAGEMENT PARAMETERS -- ZREQ Q TCO ---
10,7,15
10.0000000 7.0000000 15.0000000
ENTER (LINE 9) SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- SOLMOD LINMOD DTMOD ISUPZA ZADMOD ---
2,2,0,0,0
2 2 0 0 0
ENTER (LINE 10) NUMERICAL SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- N(STD) RDI DT(STD) THAX JHAX -
20,1,10,0,0
20 1.0000000 10.0000000 .0000000
0
ENTER (LINE 11) DIAGNOSTIC PARAMETERS -- IDIAG IDCH ID2 IPRZA FLGPVE ---
0,0,0,0,0
0 0 0 0 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 12) PLOTTING PARAMETERS -- IPLOTV IPLOTY IPLOTH IPLDTC IPWAIT ---
0,0,0,0,0

***** BORDER IRRIGATION FLOW *****

calibration of the model

HYDRAULIC PROPERTIES OF CROP AND SOIL
DIMENSIONED DIMENSIONLESS

ROUGHNESS ---
MANNING N (COEFFICIENT) = .1500 FT**(1/6) = .1500 M**(1/6) EXPONENT = .0000E+00
DIMENSIONLESS DRAG COEFFICIENT D* = .9999E+00

INTAKE CHARACTERISTICS --- IN INFILTRATION FORMULA Z = K*T**A + B*T + C ---
K = 1.8425 IN/HR**A = 4.6800 CM/HR**A
= .1962E+00 IN/HI**A = .4984E+01 MM/HI**A
= .1742E-02 FT/SEC**A = .5308E-03 M/SEC**A
X* = .1538E+00
A = .5470 = .5470 A = .5470
B = .0000 IN/HR = .0000 CM/HR B* = .0000E+00
C = .0000 IN = .0000 CM C* = .0000E+00

```

Figure 29. Computer output.

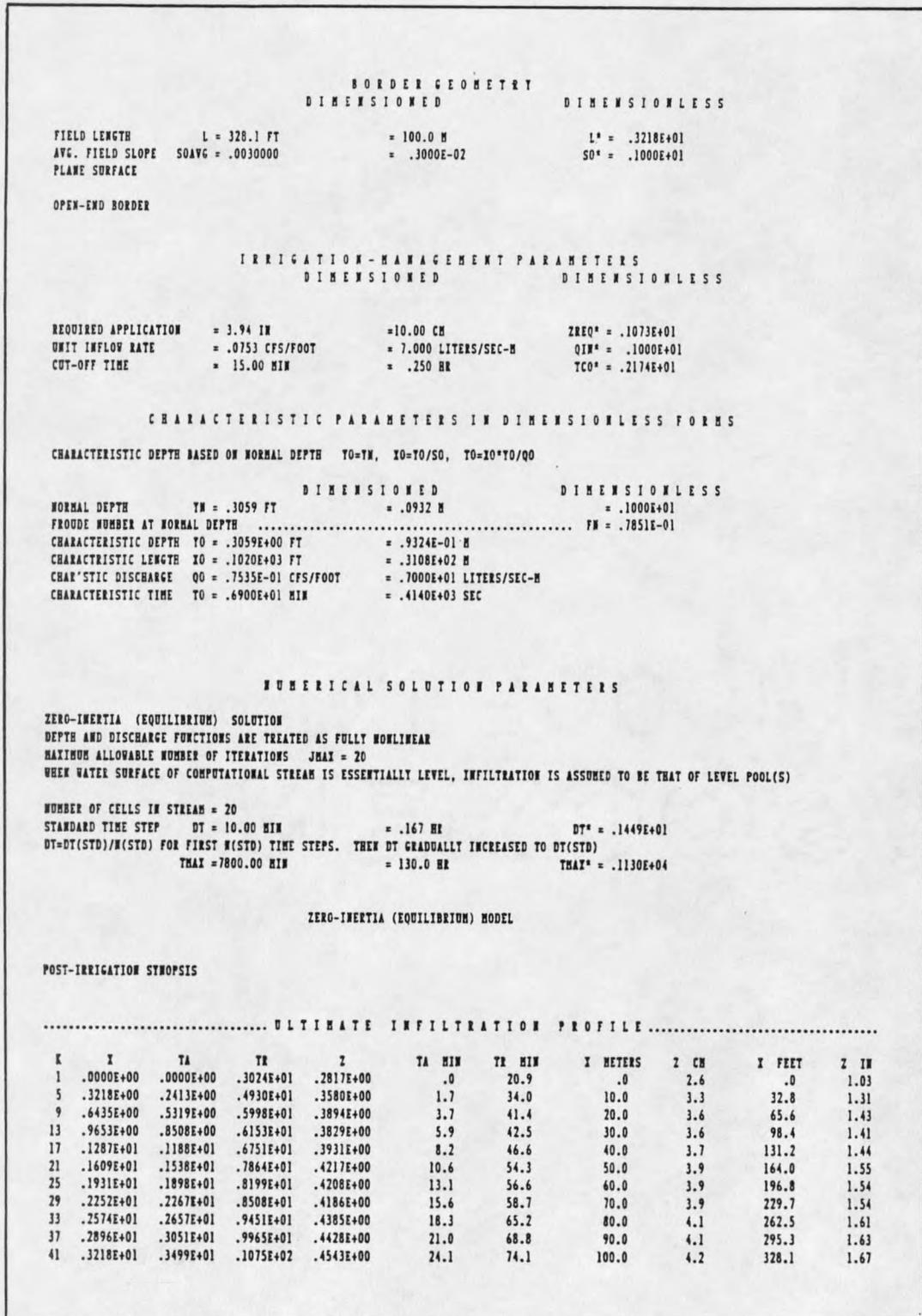


Figure 29. Continued.

Z HAI	(MAXIMUM DEPTH OF SURFACE STREAM ATTAINED AT ANY POINT)30 FOOT	9.19 CM	.9856E+00		
Z THAI	(LOCATION OF POINT OF MAXIMUM DEPTH)00 FOOT	.00 M	.0000E+00		
Z MIN	(MINIMUM DEPTH OF INFILTRATION)	1.02 INCH	2.59 CM	.2783E+00	41.2 %	
Z MAX	(MAXIMUM DEPTH OF INFILTRATION)	1.67 INCH	4.24 CM	.4543E+00	67.2 %	
Z LQ	(AVERAGE LOW-QUARTER DEPTH OF INFILTRATION)	1.29 INCH	3.28 CM	.3522E+00	52.1 %	
Z REQ	(REQUIRED DEPTH OF INFILTRATION)	3.94 INCH	10.00 CM	.1073E+01	158.7 %	
Z Q	(AVERAGE APPLIED DEPTH	VQ/L)	2.48 INCH	6.30 CM	.6757E+00	100.0 %
Z AVG	(AVERAGE INFILTRATED DEPTH	VZ/L)	1.48 INCH	3.76 CM	.4037E+00	59.7 %
Z RO	(AVERAGE DEPTH OF RUNOFF	VRO/L)99 INCH	2.50 CM	.2686E+00	39.7 %
Z DP ZREQ	(AVERAGE DEPTH OF DEEP-PERCOLATION VOLUME BASED ON GIVEN REQUIRED DEPTH)00 INCH	.00 CM	.0000E+00	.0 %	
Z DP ZMIN	(AVERAGE DEPTH OF DEEP-PERCOLATION VOLUME BASED ON ZREQ = ZMIN)46 INCH	1.17 CM	.1255E+00	18.6 %	
Z DP ZLQ	(AVERAGE DEPTH OF DEEP-PERCOLATION VOLUME BASED ON ZREQ = ZLQ)20 INCH	.51 CM	.5510E-01	8.2 %	
Z U ZREQ	(AVERAGE OF INFILTRATED DEPTHS LESS THAN OR EQUAL TO REQUIRED DEPTH)	1.48 INCH	3.76 CM	.4037E+00	59.7 %	
Z U ZMIN	(AVERAGE OF INFILTRATED DEPTHS LESS THAN OR EQUAL TO ZMIN)	1.02 INCH	2.59 CM	.2783E+00	41.2 %	
Z U ZLQ	(AVERAGE OF INFILTRATED DEPTHS LESS THAN OR EQUAL TO ZLQ)	1.28 INCH	3.25 CM	.3486E+00	51.6 %	
UC C	(CHRISTIANSEN UNIFORMITY COEFFICIENT)924		
UC R	(HSPA UNIFORMITY COEFFICIENT)923		
DU	(DISTRIBUTION UNIFORMITY	ZMIN/ZAVG)689		
DU LQ	(LOW-QUARTER DISTRIBUTION UNIFORMITY	ZLQ/ZAVG)872		
RP	(RUNOFF FRACTION IN PERCENT	VRO/VQ)		39.75%		
			BASED ON	BASED ON	BASED ON		
			GIVEN ZREQ	ZREQ=ZMIN	ZREQ=ZLQ		
IE	(IRRIGATION EFFICIENCY	ZU/ZQ)	59.75%	41.18%	51.59%	
UZ	(USEFUL FRACTION OF INFILTRATED VOLUME	ZU/ZAVG)	1.000	.689	.864	
SE	(STORAGE EFFICIENCY	ZU/ZREQ)	37.64%	100.00%	98.99%	
AAP	(PERCENT OF TOTAL AREA ADEQUATELY IRRIGATED)00%	100.00%	91.19%	
DE	(DEFICIENCY RATIO, AVERAGE DEFICIT IN UNDERIRRIGATED AREA, PERCENT OF ZREQ)	62.36%			11.52%	
..... MEASURES OF MERIT OF COMPUTATION							
COMPUTATIONAL VOLUME BALANCE VQ= .2174E+01 VZ= .1299E+01 VRO= .8641E+00 RELATIVE VOLUME ERROR = .5035E-02							
MAXIMUM SIZE OF SAW TEETH IN PROFILES -- ITH= 4 KTH= 2 T0OTHB= .306E+00 IRTH= 37 KRTH= 5 RT0OTH= .178E+01							
..... SYNOPSIS OF RESULTS OF IRRIGATION							
			HOURS	MINUTES	DIMENSIONLESS		
T CO	(TIME OF CUT OFF)25	15.00	.2174E+01		
T L	(DURATION OF ADVANCE)40	24.14	.3499E+01		
T R	(TIME RECESSON STARTS AT UPSTREAM END)35	20.86	.3024E+01		
T FR	(TIME RECESSON STARTS AT DOWNSTREAM END)	1.24	74.15	.1075E+02		
T E	(TIME ALL SURFACE WATER DISAPPEARS)	1.24	74.15	.1075E+02		
			ENGLISH	METRIC	DIMENSIONLESS		
			FT**3/FT	M**3/M			
V Q	(APPLIED VOLUME)	67.811	6.300	.2174E+01		
V Z	(INFILTRATED VOLUME)	40.517	3.764	.1299E+01		
V RO	(RUNOFF VOLUME)	26.953	2.504	.8641E+00		
			ENGLISH	METRIC	DIMENSIONLESS		
					% OF APPLIED DEPTH		
Z HAI U	(MAXIMUM DEPTH OF SURFACE STREAM ATTAINED AT UPPER END)30 FOOT	9.19 CM	.9856E+00		

Figure 29. Continued

```

*****BORDER-IRRIGATION-FLOW PROGRAM*****
*****

INTERACTIVE USERS -- POSITION PAPER FOR PROMPTS THEN ENTER (LINE 1)
1 FOR A FRESH START ---
2 TO CHANGE DESIGN PARAMETERS -- ZREQ,QIN,TCO ---
3 TO CHANGE SOLUTION MODES -- SOLMOD,LINMOD,DTMOD,ISUPZA,ZADMOD ---
4 TO CHANGE SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- NSTD,RDI,DTSTD,THAX,JMAX ---
5 TO CHANGE LEVEL OF DIAGNOSTICS AND/OR PLOTTING FLAGS ---
0 TO STOP ---

1
1
(LINE 2)..... IDENTIFY THIS RUN .....
calibration of model kinematic-wave
calibration of model kinematic-wave
ENTER (LINE 3) -- INPHOD DMLMOD ---
1,1
1 1
ENTER (LINE 4) SOIL AND CROP HYDRAULIC PROPERTIES --
RUFMOD RUF AN INFMOD K A B C ---
2..15,0,1,4.68,.547,0,0
2 1.500000E-001 .0000000 1 4.6800000
5.470000E-001 .0000000 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 5) FIELD GEOMETRY -- L DBC SONOD ---

RUFMOD RUF AN INFMOD K A B C ---
2..15,0,1,4.68,.547,0,0
2 1.500000E-001 .0000000 1 4.6800000
5.470000E-001 .0000000 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 5) FIELD GEOMETRY -- L DBC SONOD ---
100,1,1
100.0000000 1 1
ENTER (LINE 6) AVERAGE BOTTOM SLOPE -- SOAVG ---
.003
3.000000E-003
ENTER (LINE 7) MANAGEMENT PARAMETERS -- ZREQ Q TCO ---
10,7,15
10.0000000 7.0000000 15.0000000
ENTER (LINE 9) SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- SOLMOD LINMOD DTMOD ISUPZA ZADMOD ---
3,2,0,0,0
3 2 0 0 0
ENTER (LINE 10) NUMERICAL SOLUTION PARAMETERS -- N(STD) ---
10,1,10,0,0
10
ENTER (LINE 11) DIAGNOSTIC PARAMETERS -- IDIAG IDCH ID2 IPRZA FLGPVE ---
0,0,0,0,0
0 0 0 0 .0000000
ENTER (LINE 12) PLOTTING PARAMETERS -- IPLOTW IPLOTY IPLOTH IPLOTZ IPWAIT ---
0,0,0,0,0
***** BORDER IRRIGATION FLOW *****

calibration of model kinematic-wave

HYDRAULIC PROPERTIES OF CROP AND SOIL
DIMENSIONED DIMENSIONLESS

ROUGHNESS ---
MANNING N (COEFFICIENT) = .1500 FT**(1/6) = .1500 M**(1/6) EXPONENT = .0000E+00
DIMENSIONLESS DRAG COEFFICIENT D* = .9999E+00

INTAKE CHARACTERISTICS --- IN INFILTRATION FORMULA Z = K*T**A + B*T - C ---
K = 1.8425 IN/HR**A = 4.6800 CM/HR**A K* = .1538E+00
= .1962E+00 IN/MIN**A = .4984E+01 MM/MIN**A A = .5470
= .1742E-02 FT/SEC**A = .5308E-03 M/SEC**A B* = .0000E+00
A = .5470 = .5470 A = .5470
B = .0000 IN/HR = .0000 CM/HR B* = .0000E+00
C = .0000 IN = .0000 CM C* = .0000E+00

```

Figure 29. Continued.

BORDER GEOMETRY											
DIMENSIONED		DIMENSIONLESS									
FIELD LENGTH	L = 328.1 FT	= 100.0 M	L* = .3218E+01								
AVG. FIELD SLOPE	SOAVG = .0030000	= .3000E-02	SO* = .1000E+01								
PLANE SURFACE											
OPEN-END BORDER											
IRRIGATION-MANAGEMENT PARAMETERS											
DIMENSIONED		DIMENSIONLESS									
REQUIRED APPLICATION	= 3.94 IN	= 10.00 CM	ZREQ* = .1073E+01								
UNIT INFLOW RATE	= .0753 CFS/FOOT	= 7.000 LITERS/SEC-M	QIN* = .1000E+01								
CUT-OFF TIME	= 15.00 MIN	= .250 HR	TCO* = .2174E+01								
CHARACTERISTIC PARAMETERS IN DIMENSIONLESS FORMS											
CHARACTERISTIC DEPTH BASED ON NORMAL DEPTH YO=YM, XO=YO/SO, TO=XO*YO/QO											
DIMENSIONED		DIMENSIONLESS									
NORMAL DEPTH	YM = .3059 FT	= .0932 M	= .1000E+01								
FROUDE NUMBER AT NORMAL DEPTH	FN = .7851E-01								
CHARACTERISTIC DEPTH	YO = .3059E+00 FT	= .9324E-01 M									
CHARACTERISTIC LENGTH	XO = .1020E+03 FT	= .3108E+02 M									
CHAR'ISTIC DISCHARGE	QO = .7535E-01 CFS/FOOT	= .7000E+01 LITERS/SEC-M									
CHARACTERISTIC TIME	TO = .6900E+01 MIN	= .4140E+03 SEC									
NUMERICAL SOLUTION PARAMETERS											
NORMAL-DEPTH KINEMATIC-WAVE SOLUTION											
DEPTH AND DISCHARGE FUNCTIONS ARE TREATED AS FULLY NONLINEAR											
MAXIMUM ALLOWABLE NUMBER OF ITERATIONS JMAX = 20											
NSTO= 10											
KINEMATIC-WAVE MODEL											
IN KINEMATIC-WAVE SOLUTION, CHARACTERISTICS ENANATING FROM X=0 ARE SEPARATED BY DT= .1287E+00 = .8880E+00 MIN											
POST-IRRIGATION SYNOPSIS											
..... ULTIMATE INFILTRATION PROFILE											
K	X	TA	TR	Z	TA MIN	TR MIN	X METERS	Z CM	X FEET	Z IN	
1	.0000E+00	.0000E+00	.2174E+01	.2351E+00	.0	15.0	.0	2.2	.0	.86	
5	.3218E+00	.3304E+00	.3839E+01	.3055E+00	2.3	26.5	10.0	2.8	32.8	1.12	
9	.6435E+00	.6741E+00	.4736E+01	.3310E+00	4.7	32.7	20.0	3.1	65.6	1.21	
13	.9653E+00	.1025E+01	.5486E+01	.3484E+00	7.1	37.8	30.0	3.2	98.4	1.28	
17	.1287E+01	.1383E+01	.6144E+01	.3610E+00	9.5	42.4	40.0	3.4	131.2	1.33	
21	.1609E+01	.1748E+01	.6723E+01	.3698E+00	12.1	46.4	50.0	3.4	164.0	1.36	
25	.1931E+01	.2117E+01	.7276E+01	.3772E+00	14.6	50.2	60.0	3.5	196.8	1.38	
29	.2252E+01	.2493E+01	.7770E+01	.3819E+00	17.2	53.6	70.0	3.6	229.7	1.40	
33	.2574E+01	.2874E+01	.8249E+01	.3858E+00	19.8	56.9	80.0	3.6	262.5	1.42	
37	.2896E+01	.3259E+01	.8678E+01	.3875E+00	22.5	59.9	90.0	3.6	295.3	1.42	
41	.3218E+01	.3650E+01	.9108E+01	.3890E+00	25.2	62.8	100.0	3.6	328.1	1.43	
..... MEASURES OF MERIT OF COMPUTATION											
COMPUTATIONAL VOLUME BALANCE	QV= .2174E+01	VZ= .1149E+01	VRO= .1034E+01	RELATIVE VOLUME ERROR = -.4054E-02						

Figure 29. Continued.

APPENDIX C

Field Data Prepared by Merriam et al. (1978)

Table 12. Physical characteristics for border irrigation.

Variables	Description
Crop	Alfalfa
Root Zone Depth	183 cm
Soil	Sandy Loam
Required Application	7.4 cm
Border Width	6.4 m
Border Length	259 m
Slope	0.5%
Flow	34 l/s

Table 13. Advance and recession data.

Station (meters)	Advance Time (min.)			Recession Time (min.)		
	Watch	Diff.	Cum.	Watch	Diff.	Cum.
0+00	10:51			12:27	8	96
0+30	10:59	8	8	12:59	32	128
0+60	11:12	13	21	13:18	19	147
0+90	11:26	14	35	13:29	11	158
1+22	11:41	15	50	13:33	4	162
1+52	11:59	18	68	13:38	5	167
1+83	12:18	19	87	13:41	3	170
2+13	12:40	22	109	13:45	4	174
2+44	13:06	26	135	13:43	-2	172
2+59	13:32	26	161	13:42	-1	171

Cutoff Time= 88 min.

Table 14. Adjusted infiltration information.

Time (min.)	Accumulated Infiltration Depth (cm)
4	1.3
10	2.4
30	4.5
60	6.1
100	10.4
200	16.5

Table 15. Depth infiltrated.

Station (meters)	Depth (cm)
0+00	9.6
0+30	11.0
0+60	11.5
0+90	11.5
1+22	10.8
1+52	10.0
1+83	9.1
2+13	7.6
2+44	5.9
2+59	2.2

APPENDIX D

The Computation of Soil Infiltration Characteristics

In order to compute the soil infiltration characteristics, a mathematical procedure developed by Davis (1943) was followed to solve for the constants K, A, and C in equation (2.1; Chapter 2). The equation (2.1) can be rewritten in logarithmic form as follows.

$$\text{Log}(z - C) = \text{Log}K + A \text{Log}t \quad (\text{D.1})$$

To solve the equation (D.1), two points must have been selected from Table 14 (Appendix C). Davis (1943) suggested the highest and the lowest point to be selected so that:

$$\text{For } t_1 = 4 \text{ min, } z_1 = 1.3 \text{ cm}$$

$$\text{For } t_2 = 200 \text{ min. } z_2 = 16.5 \text{ cm}$$

Equation (D.2) then was used to solve for t_3 ,

$$t_3 = (t_1 \cdot t_2)^{0.5} \quad (\text{D.2})$$

$$t_3 = (4 \times 200)^{0.5}$$

$$t_3 = 28 \text{ min.}$$

Table 14 (Appendix C) was utilized to interpolate a value of 4.4 cm for z_3 corresponds to t_3 equal to 28 minutes. The constant C then was computed using the equation (D.3):

$$C = \frac{z_1 \cdot z_2 - (z_3)^2}{z_1 + z_2 - 2z_3} \quad (\text{D.3})$$

$$C = \frac{[(1.3)(16.5) - (4.4)^2]}{[1.3 + 16.5 - 2(4.4)]} = 0.2322$$

Substituting the C and the data presented in Table 14 (Appendix C) into equation (D.1) yields the following six equations:

$$0.0285 = \text{LogK} + 0.6021A$$

$$0.3360 = \text{LogK} + 1.0000A$$

$$0.6302 = \text{LogK} + 1.4771A$$

$$0.7685 = \text{LogK} + 1.7782A$$

$$1.0072 = \text{LogK} + 2.0000A$$

$$1.2113 = \text{LogK} + 2.3010A$$

Adding the first three and the last three equations,

$$0.9947 = 3\text{LogK} + 3.0792 \quad (\text{D.4})$$

$$2.9870 = 3\text{LogK} + 6.0792 \quad (\text{D.5})$$

Dividing equations (D.4) and (D.5) by 3,

$$0.3316 = \text{LogK} + 1.0264A \quad (\text{D.6})$$

$$0.9957 = \text{LogK} + 2.0264A \quad (\text{D.7})$$

Substituting equation (D.7) from equation (D.6) yields,

$$A = 0.6641$$

Substituting for A in equation (D.6) and solving for K,

$$0.3316 = \text{LogK} + (1.0264)(0.6641)$$

$$K = 0.4467$$

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES



3 1762 10024280 7