

LINKING THE EFFECTS OF LAND USE CHANGE WITH
WATER QUALITY AND DISCHARGE: AN INTEGRATED APPROACH

by


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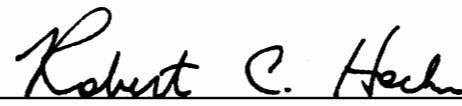
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Committee Chairman: Daniel L. Gallagher
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(ABSTRACT)

Hydrologic and water-quality equilibria are greatly affected by changing land use. This study presents a methodology that integrates the use of remote sensing, geographical information systems (GIS) and water-quality modeling.

Archived aerial photography proved to be a valuable source of historical land use data. GIS technology was used to compile and analyze spatial data. A comprehensive watershed model was used to link the effects of land use change to water quality.

The Cub Run watershed study area, located in northern Virginia experienced significant land use change between 1979 and 1988. Two aspects of development, impervious surface area and construction activity, that impact discharge and water quality were quantified. Developed land increased 11 percent between 1979 and 1988. Seven percent of the 11 percent increase occurred between 1984 and 1988 with medium-density residential housing and commercial areas

accounting for most of the change. As a result of development, the impervious component of the watershed increased 6 percent. Agricultural areas were affected the most by development, decreasing by 13 percent over the 1979 - 1988 time period.

Watershed discharge did not increase as expected with increasing impermeable watershed surface area, indicating that either stormwater control efforts are working and/or the 6 percent increase in impermeable surface area has not affected discharge.

Soil exposed by construction activity increased 5 percent from approximately 1 percent of total surface area in 1979 to 6 percent total surface area in 1988. Significant increases in suspended sediment loads were recorded between 1982 and 1988 when compared to the 1979-1982 time period. Construction activity is the probable cause of this increase.

A watershed-scale comprehensive water-quality model was successfully calibrated and verified to watershed discharge and, to a lesser degree, suspended solids output. Simulation of suspended solids became less reliable with increased construction activity within the watershed.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The effect of human activities on a natural system is dramatic. Modification of the land surface to satisfy resource and development needs impacts a variety of biological, physical and chemical equilibria that constitute a natural system. Hydrology and water quality are two aspects of a natural system that are greatly affected by changing land use.

Impervious surface area, which is a result of intense development, has a great impact on hydrology. Modifying land surface characteristics also affects the quality of water discharged from a watershed. Water quality is degraded by pollutants that accumulate on pervious and impervious surfaces during dry periods. These pollutants are later flushed into streams, rivers, lakes or reservoirs during rain events or thaws.

Water quality is also affected by intermediate periods of construction. In many cases, trees and vegetation are completely stripped from the land surface during the site development and construction phase of urbanization. Soil laid bare and compacted without the protection of vegetation is subjected to the erosive power of rain and runoff, resulting in increased suspended solids concentrations (inorganic and organic) during storm events and high levels

of sedimentation in streams and ponds.

Concern over water quality and discharge has prompted the development of watershed monitoring programs and the use of comprehensive, water-quality models. Watershed databases compiled from monitoring programs provide an excellent source of information on watershed response to precipitation events. Comprehensive, water-quality models represent one method by which monitored data can be applied to the study of land use change. These types of models have specific spatial data needs, which may include the amount and location of land use characteristics, slope, length and location of drainage channels and soils. Topographic maps and soil surveys are used to obtain some of these data; however, land use characteristics are dynamic and are seldom recorded or mapped at regular intervals over the history of watershed development. Thus, a method is needed by which a watershed database, modeling techniques and historical land use characteristics can be linked.

1.1 Objectives

This study presents an integrated methodology used to examine the effects of land use change on water quality and discharge within a watershed. The objectives of this study were to:

- Identify a suitable source of historical land use data that represent watershed land use at a specific point in time.
- Examine the suitability of geographic information system (GIS) technology to store, manipulate and present spatial data for watershed model applications.
- Demonstrate model application using GIS derived data by calibrating a comprehensive water-quality model to both discharge and suspended solids output.
- Evaluate the integration of multi disciplinary tools as a methodology to study the effects of land use change on watershed discharge and water quality.

1.2 Study Organization

The study was divided into three phases: Land use analysis, GIS application, and hydrologic model application. Historical land use data were obtained from archived aerial photography. GIS technology was used to compile, analyze and summarize these data for application to a watershed-scale, nonpoint source pollution model that linked the land use changes with the hydrologic impacts. Thus, the dynamic effects of land use change on water quality and discharge could be examined.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

The following review is focused on certain aspects of nonpoint source pollution, historical land use analysis, Geographical Information Systems and water-quality modeling, as they relate to this study.

2.1 Nonpoint Source Pollution

Nonpoint, or distributed-source, pollution was not recognized as a serious problem until the late 1960's. Point-source pollution from industries and municipal sewage treatment facilities was recognized as the primary source of water-quality degradation prior to this time. Nonpoint source pollution originates from man-induced or natural sources that are carried in the air or found on land surfaces and are transported by stormwater, runoff or groundwater. Fifty percent or more of current water-quality problems can be attributed to nonpoint source pollution (Novotny and Chesters, 1981).

Human activity, as characterized by different land uses, creates unique nonpoint source pollution problems. Fertilizers, pesticides and detached sediment caused by tillage practices represent pollutants that originate from agricultural land use. Established and developing urban

environments create a variety of nonpoint source pollutants including: animal fecal material, litter and refuse, lawn clippings, abraded road surfaces, winter road surface treatments, oil and gas drippings from vehicles, and detached solids from construction activity. The negative aspects of nonpoint source pollution have been well documented (Athahyde, 1983; Byron and Goldman, 1989; Loher, 1974; Mancini, 1988; Taylor, 1977).

Nonpoint source pollution can have both a short- and long-term effect on water quality. Short-term effects are caused by high concentrations of pollutants moving through a system over a short period of time. Long-term affects can be caused by the deposition of harmful materials within receiving waters especially those with extended retention times (Thomman and Mueller, 1987; Haan, et al., 1982). Pollutant sources may originate from material that has accumulated on the land surface between rain events or the re-suspension of harmful materials trapped within sediments.

Urbanization of watersheds impacts water quality. Three characteristics of urban runoff events which, affect water quality include, intermittent loadings, variability of runoff qualities between precipitation events and relatively high concentrations of suspended solids (Mancini, 1988).

Urbanization, which increases impervious surface area, has a profound effect on watershed hydrology. Increased

overland flow and decreased infiltration to shallow and deep groundwater systems are the net effects of urban development. One study reports annual watershed discharge increased 51 percent over a 51 year study period within a developing watershed (Owe, 1985). Another study presents seasonal increases in runoff between rural and urban areas as factors ranging from 1.2 for a summer rainstorm, 2.3 for a fall rainstorm and 7.5 for spring snow melt or winter rain/snow combination events (Taylor, 1977). Others relate significant increases in runoff to paved (impervious) surfaces, reporting a 55 percent increase in runoff correlating with a surface area that is 75 percent-100 percent paved (Athahyde, et al., 1983).

Decreased infiltration is another effect of increased impervious surface area, which results in the reduction of evapotranspiration and groundwater recharge. Negative impacts on groundwater recharge reduce base flow within streams (Walseh, 1989). In terms of surface runoff, increased peak discharge is the result of rapid delivery of surface runoff to the drainage system and the reduction of baseflow.

Urbanization increases sediment loads by disrupting the land surface, altering drainage networks and increasing impervious surface area. Particulate matter from urban environments can be more hazardous to the environment than

natural erosion products. Atmospheric deposition from industrial, energy and agricultural production and other materials from vehicles and road surface degradation may contain toxic substances that impact water quality. "Total suspended solids concentration in urban runoff are fairly high in comparison with treatment plant discharges", however, suspended solids from urban sources contain more mineral and man-made particulate matter and less organic particulate (Athayde, et al., 1983). A relationship between watershed development and water-quality degradation was demonstrated in Sierra Nevada watersheds based on NO₃-N, total P, and suspended sediment water-quality parameters (Byron and Goldman, 1989).

In 1978 the Environmental Protection Agency implemented the National Urban Runoff Program to investigate the effects of urban runoff on water quality. The final report which was published in 1983 concluded that heavy metals, coliform bacteria, oxygen demanding substances, and total suspended solids are the most significant contributors to water-quality degradation from urban runoff (Athahyde, et al., 1983).

2.2 Historical Land Use Analysis

Field surveys, county records and remote sensing techniques represent several methods by which land use data are compiled. Field surveys are costly and not practical for large watershed studies. They are best suited for verification of data obtained by other less expensive methods. County records may also provide a source of land use data. However, the data can be difficult to obtain and temporally inconsistent. Remote sensing currently offers one of the best methods of obtaining complete land use coverage at a specific point in time.

Within each watershed basin response to precipitation events is based on the individual physical and cultural characteristics of that basin. These characteristics are greatly altered or influenced by urbanization, where the primary effect is the transformation of watershed surface area from a pervious to an impervious nature. This change is illustrated through historical land use analysis.

Concern over the quality of water entering reservoirs has prompted the establishment of watershed\reservoir monitoring networks. Data compiled by these monitoring programs document changing water quality from the sampling perspective; however, the linkage between water quality and land use is not easily established.

Analysis of aerial photography is one method by which land use data sets are compiled (Loelkes, et al. 1983). Analysis of historical aerial photography documents land use change. Starting in the early 1930's U.S. Government Agencies capitalized on the new aerial photographic technology which provided a unique "bird's eye" perspective of the nation's land surface. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration began a program that photographed farms and ranch lands over vast portions of the country (Reeves, et al., 1975). The Forest Service photographed timber reserves, while many areas of the country were photographed by the Geological Survey in order to produce topographic maps (Reeves, et al., 1975). As a result of these early programs and similar programs to follow, including commercial applications of aerial photography, large portions of the United States have been photographed on a repetitive basis. Historical aerial photography is an invaluable permanent documentation of physical and cultural characteristics of the land surface which can be applied to many areas of watershed and land use research (OWE, 1985; Gluck and McCuen, 1975; Turner, 1990).

The Environmental Protection Agency's Environmental Photographic Interpretation Center (EPIC), a field station of the Environmental Monitoring Systems Laboratory, applies historical and current aerial photography to a variety of

environmental concerns, some of which include: wetlands, hydrogeology, abandoned oil, gas and irrigation well identification, land use, hazardous waste site analysis and waste disposal discovery inventories.

Black and white, color, and color infrared photography in 9 x 9 inch format represent the most common aerial photographic products encountered, all of which are applicable to land use analysis. Black and white and color photographic emulsions are sensitive to reflected light within the visible range of the electromagnetic spectrum (EMS). Color infrared images differ from color photography in two ways, blue light is filtered out and the film emulsions are also sensitive to electromagnetic radiation in the infrared portion of the spectrum. The result is a false color image that appears primarily red. Those features such as vegetation that utilize or absorb light in the blue-green range of the EMS, reflect light in the red-infrared range and are represented as red on the image (Smith and Anson, 1968; Reeves, et al., 1975).

Aerial photographic products at appropriate scales ranging in scale from 1:20,000 to 1:80,000 are suitable for the classification used in this study (Modified Anderson level II and III) (Anderson, et al., 1976). The scale 1:60,000 refers to map distance in terms of actual distance represented as a ratio (ie. 1 map inch is equal to 60,000

actual ground inches or 1 map inch is equal to 5000 feet). Large scale aerial photographic products (1:12,000) are also suitable; however the number of frames needed to cover a study area the size of a watershed may be cost prohibitive.

The National Cartographic Information Center (NCIC), U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Virginia, operates a standard reference database for users of aerial photography called the Aerial Photography Summary Record System or ASPRS. Federal agencies including the U. S. Geological Survey, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, the Environmental Protection Agency, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Defense and the Tennessee Valley Authority, some State and Municipal agencies and a variety of private sources contribute coverage records to ASPRS. Information concerning aerial photographs and/or access to historical aerial photographic products and associated support can be obtained through the National Cartographic Information Center.

Aerial photography obtained from the government ranges in cost from \$4 to \$18 per frame for black and white, and \$5 to \$24 per frame for color. The cost of aerial photography from private sources can range from \$7 to \$85 per frame. The final cost of an aerial photographic analysis will be dependent on study area size, shape, the number of years

analyzed and the level of detail needed to meet project objectives. For example, if 1:60,000 scale aerial photography was obtained for a study, one 9x9 inch frame would cover approximately 73 square miles. However, the shape of the study area will also influence the number of frames needed as aerial survey aircraft generally fly straight north-south or east-west lines across surveyed areas.

Comprehensive land use documentation at a specific point in time, availability and cost influenced the selection of historical aerial photography as a data source for this study.

2.3 Geographical Information Systems and Water Resources

Land use, soils, geology, slope, distance to blue line streams, etc., represent a few types of data needed to support various water-quality models. Spatial data exists in a variety of scales and formats from maps to digital tapes. Models may require area (polygon data) or distance (linear data) as part of the data requirements. Manipulation, analysis and representation of spatial data are possible through the use of Geographical Information Systems. Geographical Information Systems (GIS) are

computer-based tools by which spatial data can be collected, stored, and analyzed or manipulated (Burrough, 1986). GIS output can be either in report form (tabular), or map form (cartographic).

The concept of GIS is not new to many fields of study. A GIS consists of layers of spatial data and a means to analyze different combinations of these layers. For example, prior to computerization a forester may be interested in insect damage to a certain species of tree at certain elevations. The forester would locate a suitable topographic map (representing elevation) and create overlays representing 1) insect damage and 2) trees mapped by species. A third overlay representing insect damage to certain species of trees, at certain elevations could be compiled by tracing areas that fit the criteria. The forester is working with a simple form of GIS. He has spatial data stored in the form of maps and overlays. The maps were combined and analyzed and a final map based on certain criteria was produced. Computer technology combines the process into one system, GIS.

The use of GIS continues to expand as researchers discover new applications for this technology. The spatial nature of water resource data makes it a prime candidate for GIS application. One such study examined the relationship between watershed disturbance and water-quality degradation

from nonpoint source pollution in Sierra Nevada watersheds. A geographic database constructed of computerized overlays of parcel maps, zoning designations and Soil Conservation Service soil surveys was used to provide analysis on the extent of various land capability classes, stream environment zones and high slope areas, development and land type (Byron and Goldman, 1989).

In another study, GIS technology combined with archived imagery was applied to a historical land use analysis. Earth Resources Data Analysis System (ERDAS), historical Landsat images and GIS technology were used to conduct historical land use studies for assessing nonpoint source pollution potentials (DelRegno and Atkinson, 1988). The digital format of satellite imagery is well suited for GIS, however, historical applications are limited due to the availability and costs of historical satellite data. As previously mentioned, aerial photographic archives extend over a longer period of time.

Historical aerial photography, over an approximate 50 year period, was used to conduct a landscape change study. Results from the study confirm that linking of remote sensing and GIS technologies with landscape ecological research can prove to be a useful tool for assessing broad scale changes in rural landscapes (Turner, 1990).

GIS technology has also been applied to water-quality

modeling. A demonstration of an integrated approach combining AGNPS and GIS to assess agricultural nonpoint source runoff concluded that computer based studies are cost effective means of conducting AGNPS simulations/analyses (Evans and Miller, 1988).

A GIS has been developed for use with the Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) and a delivery ratio to estimate potential sediment loadings to streams from agricultural lands. This program concluded that an integrated approach is cost effective when compared to manual approach and that once the database is established, there is a high potential for reuse and expansion (Hession and Shanholtz, 1988). GIS derived land use data and the USLE were also used to estimate sedimentation and nutrient flux (DelRegno and Atkinson, 1988). GIS technology and U. S. Soil Conservation techniques were used to predict storm water runoff as a demonstration of another integrated use (Berry and Sailor, 1987). It is apparent that research involving the analysis and manipulation of spatial data will benefit from the use of this relatively new computer-based technology.

2.4 Water Quality Model Application:

Water-quality modeling is one method by which the effects of land use change can be studied. Such models are

divided into two groups, lumped parameter and distributed parameter models. Distributed parameter models divide the watershed into smaller units. Each unit is modeled separately and is homogeneous, with respect to parameters that describe unit response to precipitation events and input from neighboring units. Total watershed output is obtained from summing the unit outputs.

A watershed is treated as a single unit in lumped parameter models resulting in one output value for the entire watershed area. System parameters such as land use are often characterized through the use of empirical equations. Coefficients and variables used to describe the behavior of system parameters within an equation are determined through calibration studies. Final calibrated and verified lumped parameter models are used to evaluate effects of varied hydrologic and meteorologic conditions on watershed output (Novotny and Chesters, 1981).

The model selected for application in this study was a lumped parameter, comprehensive water-quality model called the Hydrologic Simulation Program-Fortran (HSPF). This program is a modification of the Stanford Watershed Model IV. The model was designed to simulate: temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, organic matter, pesticides, nutrients, salts, bacteria, sediment and plankton through a reach and reservoir system. It also includes a component to simulate

loss and gain from groundwater systems. The overall objective of the HSPF model is to support the evaluation of land use change, point and nonpoint pollution, treatment and best management practices, and fate and transport of pollutants through a reach/reservoir system (Decoursey, 1985, Donigan, 1984).

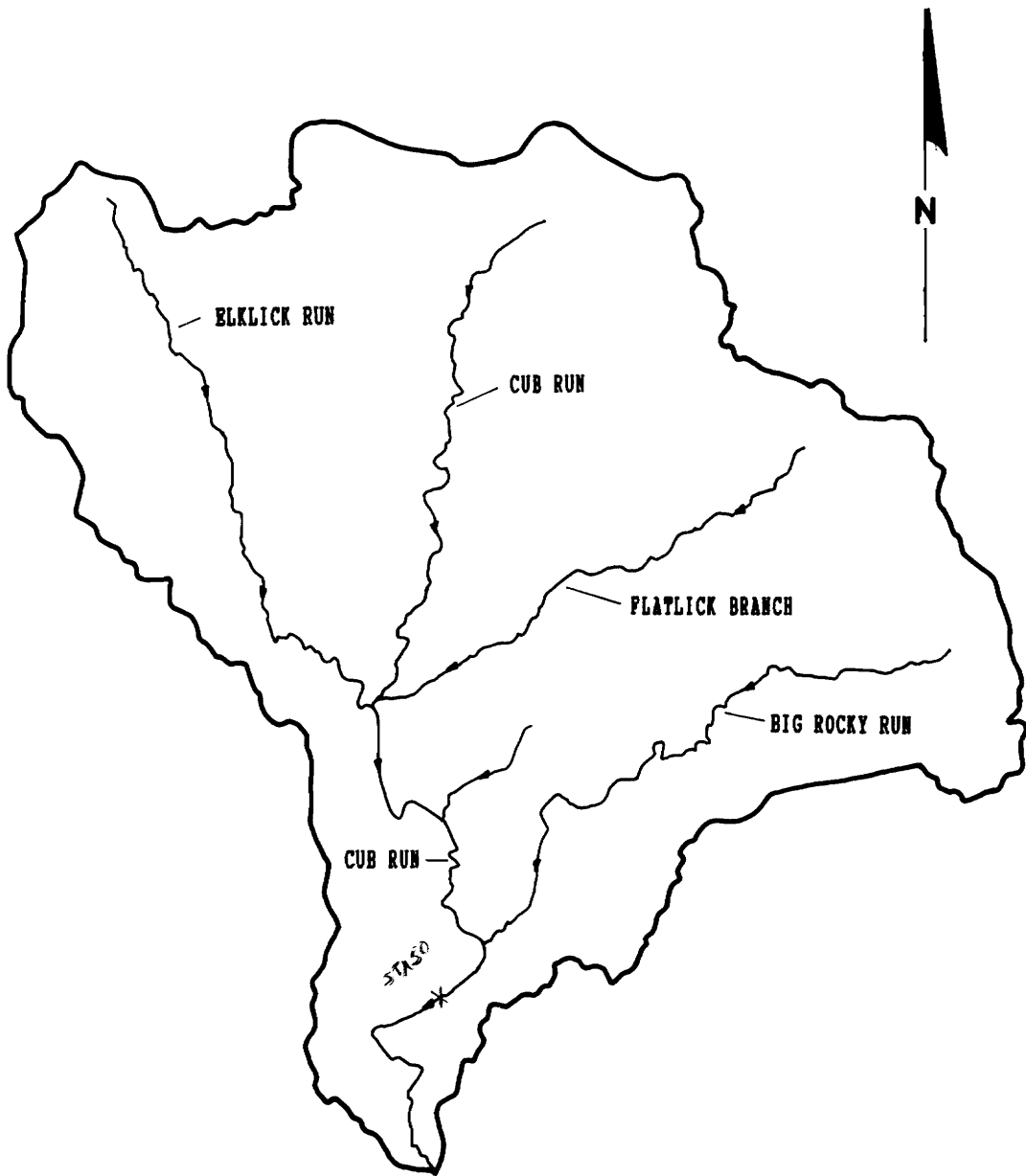
The hydrologic and sediment simulation components of the HSPF model were used to demonstrate model application. One of the major drawbacks of HSPF is the need to estimate many of the hydrologic parameters that are empirically based (Decoursey, 1985). Data used to support parameter value selection may not readily exist, especially in the area of sediment erosion. HSPF simulation of sediment erosion from a watershed is less certain than the hydrologic simulation component because of a smaller knowledge base concerning sediment erosion in different geographic areas of the country (Donigan, et al., 1984). Many of the initial values for these parameters and variables were estimated based on examples presented in the Application Guide for HSPF (Donigian, et al., 1984), basic soil property descriptions obtained from county soil surveys (Porter, et al., 1963; Porter, et al., 1960), and other literature (Donigian, et al., 1977; Donigian, et al., 1976; Novotny and Chesters, 1981; Novotny, 1982; Johanson, et al., 1984; Kibler, 1982).

3.0 METHODOLOGY

The discussion of methodology is formatted into four sections pertaining to each phase of this study. The first describes the watershed chosen for the study. Application of aerial photography, land use classification, land use delineation, and land use transfer are discussed under the land use analysis section. Geographical Information Systems procedures and analytical methods are presented in the GIS applications section. Model application is discussed under five sub-sections representing various aspects of the HSPF model.

3.1 Cub Run Watershed

The Cub Run study area is an approximate 33,600 acre (13,594 hectare) sub-watershed of the Occoquan Reservoir drainage basin, located west of Washington, D.C., in the counties of Fairfax and Loudoun, Virginia (see Figure 1). The study area was selected based on availability of water quality and discharge data and the recent development activity. Primary land uses within the study area include agricultural, forested, urban/suburban, and commercial classifications.



Approximate Scale 1:112,000



FIGURE 1: Cub Run Watershed Study Area.

The watershed is characterized by the undulating and rolling topography of the Piedmont Lowlands (Triassic Basin). Sedimentary rocks including sandstones, shales, conglomerate, and igneous rocks consisting of diabase, syenite and metadiorite represent the primary underlying geology. A minor portion of the study area, located along the eastern boundary, is underlain by the crystalline rocks of the Piedmont Upland. Piedmont Lowland soils range from coarse-textured near the Piedmont Upland boundary to fine-textured soils found along the western edge of the study area in Loudoun County. Drainage patterns are dendritic in both the Piedmont Lowlands and Piedmont Uplands; however, the drainage pattern is less developed in the lowland section (Porter, et al., 1960; Porter, et al., 1963).

3.2 Land use analysis

A variety of water-quality and discharge data has been compiled regarding the Occoquan Reservoir and associated watershed since 1973 by the Occoquan Watershed Monitoring Laboratory (OWML) through the Occoquan Watershed Monitoring Program (OWMP). The Occoquan Reservoir database provided an excellent source of information on watershed discharge quantity and quality. However, pertinent information on land use characteristics that influence water quality and

discharge were not assembled or even readily available. The land use-analysis phase of this study entailed the compilation of historical land use data from archived aerial photography. Three years of historical aerial photography covering the period of time from 1979 - 1988 were used to obtain historical land use data.

3.3 Application of aerial photography

Historical land use data were obtained through the analysis of aerial photography. Aerial photographic coverage of the study area for the years 1979, 1984 and 1988 was analyzed and compiled onto USGS 7.5 minute quadrangles. Two types of aerial photography were used for land use analyses: 9 X 9 inch color positive imagery (color transparencies) and 4.5 X 37.5 inch optical bar, color infrared imagery (color infrared transparencies). The 1979 coverage was represented by 9 X 9 inch color aerial photography at an approximate 1:27,500 scale consisting of 27 frames over 6 flight lines. The scale and format was excellent for mapping land use at a level of detail suitable for this study. The 1984 and 1988 coverage was represented by color infrared optical bar imagery at a scale of 1:32,500 at nadir (center of the frame). The optical bar imagery provided a good source of information at a suitable scale

for land use analysis. However, due to the nature of optical bar imagery, image distortion increases with distance from the center of the frame. Since optical bar imagery is not ideal for mapping purposes, it was used to update a baseline map produced from the 1979 land use analysis. The 1984 optical bar imagery consisted of 10 frames in one flight line. The 1988 optical bar imagery consisted of 11 frames in one flight line. The study area was located near the center of the frames, therefore reducing the amount of optical distortion.

Aerial photography used for this project was selected based on accessibility, suitable resolution and scale. Aerial photography of similar scale and format (9x9 inch) would be ideal for this type of project. Aerial photography ranging in scale from 1:24,000 to 1:60,000 would provide enough detail to accomplish land use analysis for the described classification system.

3.4 Land use classification

A land use classification scheme was adapted for this study from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Professional Paper 964; A Land Use and Land Cover Classification System for Use with Remote-Sensor Data (Anderson, et al., 1976). The USGS classification scheme is

organized as a multilevel outline with a numerical code in which detail or land use resolution increases with each level. For example, Level I agricultural classification is represented by the number 2, encompassing croplands and pasture, orchards, nurseries, horticulture, confined feeding operations/feedlots/holding areas, etc.. Cropland and pasture is a level II classification represented as number 21, where the 2 indicates agriculture and the 1 indicates cropland/pasture. The classification scheme proceeds in a similar manner through Level III in which an idle field is represented as 213 (Anderson, et al., 1976).

The classification scheme used in this study was a modified Anderson Level II, which included some Level III classification. Level I of the adapted scheme included the following categories: Urban or Built-up Land (developed land), Agricultural, Forestland, and Barren Lands. These categories represent primary land use within the study area. The minimum mapping unit applied to the interpretation of land use was approximately 7 acres.

One of the main objectives of this study was to examine a method by which relationships between land use change and water quality in developing areas can be studied. The classification scheme was focused, therefore, on delineation of certain areas heavily influenced by the pervious or impervious nature of the land surface. Land use

classification adapted for this study was biased toward land use groups with similar responses to precipitation events.

3.4.1 Land Use Classification Scheme

The following section presents the Anderson classification scheme (Anderson, et al., 1976) as modified to meet study objectives and discusses each classification and its relationship to increasing percentages of impervious surface area.

1 Urban or Built-up Land

11 Residential: Various degrees of impervious area are seen in residential land use. The lowest degree of imperviousness is seen in the low-density residential classification. Higher degrees of impervious area noted in high-density residential classifications. Actual land use delineations were interpreted to include only those areas affected by housing, roads, sidewalks and minor open or forested interstitial areas, such as yards. In the case of a housing subdivision, an effort was made to exclude tracts of open land or forested areas from residential delineation. The analysis was performed to insure consistency in the percentage of impervious area determined for each residential land use. The actual percentage of impervious area per contributing land use classification was determined from the aerial photography: This procedure is discussed in the model application section of the paper.

111 Low-density Residential (LDR): Single family dwellings characterized by large lots and no subdivision (Figure 2). Impervious area as measured from aerial



Figure 2: Low Density Residential Housing (LDR).



Figure 3: Medium Density Residential Housing (MDR).

Since industrial land cover was minimal, the areas were included with land use classification 12.

- 14 Transportation: Four lane highways and portions of an airport (runways) were included under this classification. These areas represent a high degree of imperviousness. The attempt was made to account for major road networks; however, an extensive network of minor roads representing 100 percent impervious surface area, exists throughout the study area. Some of this impervious surface area is accounted for under other classification categories such as urban or built-up land; however, minor roads found within the agricultural and forested areas were not represented as impervious surface area.
- 141 Major highways and interstates (HWY).
Impervious area as measured from aerial photography was 66 percent.
- 144 Runways and intervening open land (AIR).
Impervious area as measured from aerial photography was 34 percent.
- 15 Utilities (UTL): This classification is focused on treatment, transportation and delivery of water, gas, oil and electricity. The utilities classification outlined major power-line and pipeline right-of-ways. This classification was considered 100 percent pervious.

2 Agriculture

- 21 Cropland, pasture and open fields (AGO): This classification delineates those areas that are pervious, encompassing crop producing areas, pastures, idle fields, plowed fields and farmsteads. Agricultural areas were classified 100 percent pervious.

- 3 Rangelands: This classification refers to herbaceous and shrub-brush rangelands. The classification was not represented in the study area and is only included to maintain continuity of the modified USGS classification scheme.
- 4 Forestland
 - 41 Primarily deciduous forest (FOR): However, mixed evergreen forests were combined in this classification. This classification includes both mature and immature stands of trees. Areas intermediate between open fields and immature/mature stands of trees were grouped based on dominate cover type. For example, if tree crown cover exceeded open field cover (approximately greater than 50 percent), the area was designated as 41 forestland. Forestlands were considered 100 percent pervious.
- 5 Water: The water classification includes waterways, streams, canals, natural and man-made reservoirs and impoundments.

The study area contained several small impoundments/ponds most of which fell below the minimum mapping unit of approximately 7 acres. Small stream size also restricted the inclusion of stream surface area in the land use mapping process. Therefore, this classification was not represented in the study.
- 6 Wetlands: Forested and Non-Forested Wetlands were not identified for this land use study.
- 7 Barren Lands
 - 75 One rock quarry was included under this classification (EXT). Rock quarries display a high degree of imperviousness and a high source of sediments transferable through runoff mechanisms. The rock quarry was considered 100 percent impervious.
 - 76 Construction areas were included under this classification (CON). These areas are characterized by exposed and compacted soils. Sediment source and transport is high. Construction areas were treated as 100 percent impervious land surfaces.

3.4.2 Land use delineation

Aerial photography consists of a series of frames with a certain percentage of overlap between each frame. Overlap allows the image to be viewed in three dimensions with the aid of stereoscopes. Three dimensional viewing adds height and depth to photographic signatures. Aerial photographic signatures are a compilation of a variety of aspects of the viewed image that allow analysts to identify the feature, object, activity, etc. recorded on the imagery. Pattern, texture, tone, height, depth, spatial relationships, color, and intensity represent some of the components used to develop photographic signatures. Examples of photographic signatures have already been illustrated as Figures 2-4 in the previous land use classification discussion.

Land use delineation, based on aerial photographic signatures, was performed in the following manner: Every other frame was selected from each year of coverage to avoid redundancy from overlap. Each selected frame was overlaid with clear drafting film and backlit on a light table. Some overlap remained between each frame and each flight line. Overlap areas were carefully marked on each frame such that boundaries containing the active analysis portion of the frame matched, frame to frame and flight line to flight line. Each identified land use was traced onto the overlay

and assigned the appropriate classification number with a fine point technical pen. Land use delineations were then transferred to a map base.

3.4.3 Land use transfer

A Bausch & Lomb (model ZT 4-H) zoom transfer scope (ZTS) was used to transfer historical land use data from the aerial photography to six individual USGS 7.5 minute topographic maps. The ZTS allows analysts to optically adjust scales of photography, maps or overlays to match the scale of a target base map or photograph. The ZTS also allows analysts to optically adjust for image distortion. When scales are matched and distortion adjustments are made, the data are traced onto each map overlay.

The ZTS process for the 1979 imagery was a standard transfer from overlaid 9 X 9 inch color positive imagery to the map base. Due to the configuration of the ZTS equipment and the size and shape of the optical bar imagery (4.5 X 37.5 inch), the ZTS process required an intermediate step. Roads and other features common to both USGS maps and the optical bar imagery were also traced onto overlays. The overlays were then removed and used to complete the ZTS transfer.

Upon completion of the ZTS process, the USGS topographic maps and the associated 1979 map overlays were joined to represent the complete study area. The 1984 and 1988 individual map overlays were then compared to the 1979 base map. Major changes in land use during each year were updated and compiled onto clean study area overlays which represent the 1984 and 1988 land use data. The final overlays representing land uses for 1979, 1984 and 1988 were then ready for the data analysis and manipulation phase of the project.

3.5 GIS application

The Cub Run historical land use data and other associated spatial data were digitized and entered into a Geographical Information System (GIS) for analysis. The GIS used for this study was ARC/INFO versions 4.2 and 5.0 installed on micro VAX computers. The digitizing procedure involved the creation of one template file that contained the study area boundary and tic marks that correspond to latitude and longitude measurements selected from the 1:24,000 scale topographic base maps. The template file was copied to six separate files representing 1979, 1984 and 1988 land use coverage; reach sub-watershed boundaries, perennial blue line streams (as drainage) and topography.

The 1979, 1984 and 1988 land use coverage data layers were used to evaluate historical land use. The topography, reach sub-watershed boundaries and drainage data layers were used to obtain specific watershed data e.g., land use within the lowland headwaters region of the watershed or the length of reach within the lowland headwaters region. The watershed study area was divided into eight areas that relate to stream reach segments. The sub-division was required as part of the watershed modeling effort and is further explained in the model application section of the methodology.

The digitizing process involved taping an overlay/map to the digitizing table and initializing control points or tic marks. Line work was entered in a digitizing mode, and a distinction was made between polygon data layers (ex. land use) and arc data layers (ex. drainage network). The software constructs polygon or arc topologies from the digitized line work. For example, when the program creates an arc topology (ex. drainage), it recognizes the intersections of lines or arcs and creates a node at that point. In the case of a drainage network, a stream channel is represented by an arc and a confluence would be represented by a node. The final drainage network is represented by a series of arcs and nodes each assigned internal identification numbers. These numbers are compiled

into a specific table called the arc attribute table or AAT which contains a listing of internal identification numbers and length of each arc in terms of a specified unit of length (meters). It is this process by which the program can distinguish different line segments.

In the case of a land use coverage, the program recognizes enclosed areas as polygons and creates an internal identification number for each polygon. As with the arc topology, a table called the polygon attribute table (PAT) is created. The PAT contains the internal identification number for each polygon and the associated area in terms of a specified unit of area. Historical land use and reach sub-watershed overlays were represented by polygon topology. Drainage and topography were represented by arc topology.

At this point in the GIS process, the spatial data layers that have been compiled represent polygons (land use) or arcs (drainage) that can only be identified by specific internal identification numbers. The next step is to assign attributes (low-density residential or Reach 5) to each polygon or arc. Label points and a second set of identification numbers were assigned to the polygons and arcs within each attribute table. Individual plots representing the polygon data layers and arc data layers at the original base scale or 1:24,000 were generated. These

plots also included the new label points and corresponding identification numbers. The plots were overlaid onto the original land use, reach sub-watershed, drainage and topography maps and lists were generated containing attributes for each corresponding identification number. The PAT and AAT files were modified to contain appropriate attribute columns (ex. land use, reach numbers) and the associated data were entered into the tables. A second set of plots showing polygons or arcs and attributes was generated and compared to the original maps for the purpose of editing. A final plot was generated.

One ARC/INFO GIS capability is to combine two layers of information or coverages creating a third data layer that represents both. Each historical land use coverage was combined with the sub-watershed reach coverage. Combining coverages creates a PAT representing land uses and sub-watershed reach areas. This combined coverage can answer questions such as what is the area of each classified land use within Reach 7 sub-watershed in 1979? or How much land in the Reach 5 sub-watershed was under construction in 1984? These questions illustrate the types of spatial data input needed for a variety of surface water models. ARC/INFO output can be generated as data sets or graphic representation, such as maps. Examples of both are seen in the Results section.

An AT personal computer linked to the micro VAX computer, and the screen capture capabilities of PROCOM (Datastorm Technologies, Inc.) were used to complete the final task of exporting the attribute tables from ARC\INFO to a PC-database. The attribute tables were exported as text files. Text files were then imported into the REFLEX database (Borland International, Inc.) where summary tables were generated. Graphs were compiled from summary tables using the Quattro Pro spreadsheet (Borland International, Inc.).

The REFLEX and Quattro Pro database and spreadsheet packages were used for analysis and manipulation of water quality and discharge data. Water quality and discharge dBase formatted files were imported into REFLEX and manipulated to select pertinent discharge and total suspended solids data. The selected data were then exported to Quattro Pro files for the purpose of graphic representation. All field measured and model generated data were eventually compiled into Quattro Pro spreadsheet files.

3.6 Model Application

The application of water-quality models require certain spatial data needs; therefore, data analysis and manipulation were tailored to meet these needs. A

watershed-scale model, the Hydrologic Simulation Program - Fortran (HSPF), was selected for model application. This phase of the project was included to demonstrate model application and is not considered an all-inclusive treatment of model capability. Since the movement of nutrients, pesticides, and oxygen demanding substances are closely linked to the movement of water and solids, the discharge and total suspended solids aspects of the HSPF model were calibrated to demonstrate model application.

HSPF is a watershed-scale, lumped-parameter model, designed to allow continuous simulation of a comprehensive range of water-quality and hydrologic processes. The program is modular in structure with a time series manager. The modular concept allows for simulation of processes and the use of utility modules individually or together. The time series manager was designed as one central store of data which can be directly accessed by the individual modules. The time series manager is a critical component of the model due to the amount (spanning years), variety (i.e. precipitation, evaporation, wind) and time step of data (i.e. hourly, daily, monthly measurements) needed to run HSPF simulations.

HSPF consists of three main modules; the first, PERLND simulates the hydrologic and water-quality processes surrounding pervious land surfaces; the second, IMPLND

simulates hydrologic and water-quality processes on impervious land surfaces; and the last RCHRES simulates hydraulic processes within river/stream reaches and reservoirs. All HSPF modules were used; however, the demonstration of model application is focused on discharge and suspended solids and therefore, only certain sections within each module were used.

HSPF simulation of hydrologic response is a function of watershed geometry and observed meteorologic data. The model simulates watershed output for surface runoff generated from impervious areas, pervious areas, interflow from pervious areas, and groundwater outflow. Each simulated contribution can be examined individually or combined to represent total simulated discharge. Since the actual watershed discharge is represented by single measurements taken at the outlet, percent contributions from impervious and pervious surface areas, interflow and groundwater outflow could only be inferred or estimated.

A copy of the HSPF model version 9.1, was obtained from the Center for Exposure and Assessment Modeling, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Research and Development, Environmental Research Laboratory in Athens, Georgia. Manuals were obtained from the National Technical Information Service (NTIS) in Springfield, Virginia. The model was run on MS-DOS based personal computers.

each land use. The percent impervious surface area for each land use was determined in the following manner: Selected areas representing various land uses with impervious components were identified and marked on the 1979 aerial photography. A 35 mm camera with a macrolens was used to isolate each specific area. Two products were produced from 35mm color negatives; 8-inch x 11-inch color photographic enlargements and approximately 7-inch x 10-inch color photocopies. The color photographic enlargements were produced directly from the color negatives. Color 4-inch x 6-inch prints and a Cannon color laser copier were used to produce the color photocopies. Both methods provided an adequate format for determining the percent imperviousness of each land use. Percent impervious and pervious surface area for each land use with an impervious component was accomplished by overlaying each enlargement with mylar drafting film and tracing roads, houses, buildings and other impervious surfaces. The overlays were digitized, impervious vs. pervious surface areas were summed and relative percent imperviousness established.

3.6.3 PERLND Module

The PERLND module simulates hydrologic and water-quality processes within pervious land segments. A land

segment is defined as an area containing similar hydrologic characteristics. The primary sections of the PERLND module simulate snow accumulation, water budget, sediment produced from surface erosion and water-quality constituents by various methods for the pervious land segments within the watershed.

Group PWATER of the PERLND module simulates the water budget for the pervious land segments. It is the key component of the PERLND module. The equations used in the PWATER module were derived from the LANDS subprogram of the Stanford Watershed Model IV (Johanson et al., 1983). Since total runoff values are obtained from this section, PWATER is the only PERLND module group applied to the Cub Run watershed. Snow accumulation (under group SNOW) was not simulated for the study area due to the infrequent occurrence of significant snow events that would greatly impact the monthly average of watershed discharge.

There are three groups of PWATER parameters and one group of state variables. The first parameter group includes: fraction of evergreen forest within the pervious land segment, lower zone nominal storage, a value depicting an index to the infiltration capacity of the soil, the length and slope of the assumed overland flow plane, a factor which affects groundwater recession flow and a groundwater recession rate if the proceeding factor is zero.

