# **OKANOGAN WATERSHED PLAN Lutz Water Balance**



## The Water Balance of the Okanogan River Watershed

### Basin analysis

#### Abstract

2009

I calculated the water balance for each sub‐basin in the US portion of the Okanogan River watershed using a Thornthwaite‐type model. I used average temperature and precipitation for Okanogan County from 1971 to 2000 obtained from the PRISM climate mapping project and soil water holding capacity from the NRCS soil database. I summarized annual potential evapotranspiration, annual actual evapotranspiration, annual climatic water deficit, and annual water surplus. I also provided monthly summaries of these data in Excel spreadsheets suitable for import to a geographic information system.

Prepared for The Okanogan Conservation District 1251 South Second Avenue Okanogan, WA 98840

> James A Lutz, PhD 5/24/2009



### **The Water Balance of the Okanogan River Watershed in the United States**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The annual water balance of a site – the flows of water throughout the year – determines vegetation type and abundance, indicates conditions favourable and unfavourable to trees and other vegetation, and can serve as a proxy for irrigation demand. Water availability to plants at a site represents a non-linear combination of water supply, soil water storage, and water demand. The amount of precipitation, the proportion falling as snow, and the timing of the snow melt determine water supply at a site (Figure 1). The prolonged summer dry season in the Okanogan River watershed decreases the availability of water when plants need it for photosynthesis.



**Figure 1.** Diagram of the water balance for a site. Precipitation falls as either rain or snow. Rain enters the soil immediately, and snow is stored in the snowpack until it melts, when it also enters the soil. Vegetation extracts water from the soil, and when water supply exceeds evapotranspiration the surplus makes its way to streams through surface or sub-surface flow. When soil contains the maximum possible amount of water, vegetation can extract that water easily and transpire it; this rate of water use is defined as potential evapotranspiration. As soil becomes drier, it becomes progressively more difficult for vegetation to extract that water and the actual amount of water that vegetation uses declines; this is defined as actual evapotranspiration. The difference between potential evapotranspiration and actual evapotranspiration is the climatic water deficit. Values are customarily expressed per unit area.

 Water balance models based on temperature and precipitation were first developed in the 1940s by Thornthwaite. Since then, models have been continually refined to include wind speed, short-wave and long-wave radiation, and cloudiness. However, unless very detailed meteorological information is available (and this is rarely the case over large areas of complex terrain), the simple Thornthwaite-type methods still give the best results (Vörösmarty et al. 1998). Following Thornthwaite and Mather (1955) and Stephenson (1990, 1998), the definitions of the constituents of the water balance are:

**Potential evapotranspiration (PET):** PET is the evaporative water loss from a site covered by a hypothetical standard crop, when the soil is fully recharged with water. In this definition, PET includes evaporation from the soil surface and transpiration by plants. The "standard crop" was originally taken to be corn, but the relationship is robust across vegetation types from herbaceous cover to forests. PET increases exponentially with increasing mean daily temperature and linearly with increasing day length.

**Actual evapotranspiration (AET):** AET is the evaporative water loss from a site covered by a hypothetical standard crop, constrained by the current water availability. AET can be considered a proxy for site net primary productivity because AET represents the simultaneous availability of biologically-useable energy and water.

**Climatic water deficit (Deficit):** Deficit is the difference between PET and AET. It is the unmet water demand at a site, and can be considered a metric for drought. Deficit as defined here is positively correlated with vapour pressure deficit and negatively correlated with pre-dawn water potential. Each plant has a level of Deficit above which it cannot survive. Deficit is a property of a site and does not reflect the differing water demand that is associated with different levels of vegetation. Plant species can be considered as falling on sites within a given range of annual productivity (AET) and a given range of drought (Deficit). These two variables can be used to predict vegetation presence and growth rates.

**Soil water extraction:** The amount of water removed from the soil either by direct evaporation or by plants. Soil water extraction increases with PET, but decreases based on the proportion of water already extracted from the soil – it is easier for plants to extract water from soil that is near maximum water capacity (field capacity) than when soils are dry.

**Surplus:** The difference between the liquid water available at a site and the amount that plants use or that goes to soil water recharge. Soil water recharge is assumed to be complete (no time delays), and surplus is assumed to all flow immediately into streams with no further use. It includes both surface and sub-surface flow.

As soil depth and type are often correlated with landscape position, spatially explicit data for air temperature, precipitation, and soil water-holding capacity allow calculation of seasonal soil water balance in a manner that follows topography. Landscapes have heterogeneous terrain, and sites within a few kilometres of each other may have very different water balances because of differing soil conditions, precipitation, or temperature. Increases in Deficit are correlated with increasing tree mortality (and of course higher Deficit increases irrigation demand). Earlier snowmelt could increase Deficit on sites with shallow soils; evapotranspiration would start

earlier in the season, and the evapotranspiration would deplete soil water sooner, thereby decreasing growing periods. Conversely, more summer precipitation could alleviate drought stress considerably.

#### **METHODS**

#### **Climate data**

Climate data were obtained from the PRISM climate mapping project. PRISM uses established meteorological stations to develop relationships between stations that are in turn used to predict the climate variables between stations. I used PRISM grids for monthly precipitation, monthly mean maximum temperature, and monthly mean minimum temperature for the entire area. PRISM considers meteorological phenomena relevant to mountainous terrain (e.g., temperature inversions, topographic barriers, the effects of air flow through terrain, and cold air drainages), and may offer improvements over other models (such as WorldClim and Daymet) that interpolate climate over the conterminous United States (Daly *et al.* 2008).

#### **Soil data**

Recent soil maps and data were obtained from the Natural Resources Conservation Service. NRCS data have different resolutions. Near developed areas, spatial resolution can be as good as 0.4 ha (1 acre), but in remote areas, resolution is no better than 16 ha (40 acres). For each soil polygon, the soil water-holding capacity in the top 150 cm (60 inches) of the soil profile was extracted (NRCS variable: AWS150). Each 800 m  $\times$  800 m PRISM grid was then overlaid on the soil map. The average soil water-holding capacity of that grid cell was determined as an area-weighted average of the soil polygons within that grid cell. Average soil water-holding capacity ranged from 0 mm (on areas of rock, or on areas of permanent standing water where soil is not defined) to 370 mm. Because soil water-holding capacity was determined in this way, grid cells including both land and permanent water will have calculated Deficit higher than the true value, and calculated AET lower than the true value. *Soil water-holding capacity data extraction was provided by Andrew Phay of the Whatcom Conservation District.* 

#### **Data reduction and analysis**

I used a Thornthwaite-type water balance model, as modified by Hamon (1963). Thornthwaitetype methods are most appropriate when data are limited to temperature and precipitation (many references available on request). I used the equations in the appendix for each grid cell in the portion of the Okanogan River watershed lying within the United States, assuming flat topography. Flat topography tends to understate PET on south-facing slopes by about 10% and overstate PET on north-facing slopes. The overestimate of PET on north facing slopes depends on slope, aspect, and cloudiness and ranges from about 10% to 50%. The basins in the Okanogan River watershed are large enough that slope and aspect should not affect the results, because each basin has relatively equivalent distributions of aspect.

 This analysis used snowpack modelled from temperature and precipitation. While the absolute values of snowpack may differ from the snowpack modelling, relative values between basins in the Okanogan River watershed are consistent.

#### **Climate sensitivity**

I used results from the recently concluded Washington State Climate Impacts Assessment to examine increases in Deficit on USDA forest service monitoring plots throughout Eastern Washington. Under the climate change scenarios modelled by the University of Washington Climate Impacts Group, forested areas in the Okanogan watershed appear to have projected increases in climatic water deficit that are among the highest in the state. The executive summary of the Washington State Climate Impacts Assessment is available on-line at http://cses.washington.edu/cig/res/ia/waccia.shtml and the full report is scheduled to be published in June 2009.

#### **RESULTS**

Figures 2 – 6 illustrate the patterns of water balance parameters in Okanogan County (a continuous area including the US portions of the Okanogan River watershed). Table 1 summarizes the annual water balance (in mm) in each sub-basin of the Okanogan River watershed, with totals for the larger hydrological units. Table 2 summarizes the annual water balance in acre-feet (units converted from Table 1). Figure 7 shows the month-by-month constituents of the water balance for the watersheds of Antoine Creek, Bonaparte Creek, Salmon Creek, and the Okanogan Mainstem.



**Okanogan County** Annual Climatic Water Deficit (mm)

**Figure 2**. Modelled annual climatic water deficit for Okanogan County based on temperature and precipitation from PRISM climatological averages (1971 – 2000) and Thornthwaite-type evapotranspiration.

![](_page_6_Figure_0.jpeg)

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**Figure 3**. Modelled precipitation (above) for Okanogan County based on PRISM climatological means (1971 – 2000) and the amount of precipitation that falls as snow (below) based on the Thornthwaite-type model approximations for snow accumulation and melt.

![](_page_7_Figure_0.jpeg)

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**Figure 4**. Modelled snowpack for Okanogan County for March (above) and April (below) based on temperature and precipitation from PRISM climatological means (1971 – 2000) and the Thornthwaite-type model approximations for snow accumulation and melt.

![](_page_8_Figure_0.jpeg)

![](_page_8_Figure_1.jpeg)

evapotranspiration (below) for Okanogan County based on temperature and precipitation from PRISM climatological means  $(1971 - 2000)$  and the Thornthwaite-type model for vegetative evapotranspiration. Not differing color scales.

![](_page_9_Figure_0.jpeg)

**Figure 6**. Modelled mean July maximum temperature for Okanogan County (above) based on PRISM climatological means (1971 – 2000), and annual surplus water (below). Water that is surplus to evaporative demand is transported by surface runoff or by sub-surface flow.

**Table 1.** Annual water balance summary for basins within the Okanogan River watershed (US portion only). Basins are modelled as means of an overlay of 800 m  $\times$  800 m (approximately  $\frac{1}{2}$ mile  $\times$  1/2 mile) PRISM grid cells. Precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, actual evapotranspiration, climatic water deficit, and surplus (surface and sub-surface runoff) are given in units of inches for each unit area within the basin.

![](_page_10_Picture_211.jpeg)

![](_page_11_Picture_137.jpeg)

**Table 2.** Annual water balance summary for basins within the Okanogan River watershed (US portion only). Basins are modelled as means of an overlay of 800 m  $\times$  800 m m (approximately  $\frac{1}{2}$  mile  $\times$  1/<sub>2</sub> mile) PRISM grid cells. Precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, actual evapotranspiration, climatic water deficit, and surplus (surface and sub-surface runoff) are given in units of acre-feet totalled for each basin.

![](_page_12_Picture_211.jpeg)

![](_page_13_Picture_121.jpeg)

**Table 3.** Annual water balance summary for basins within the Okanogan River watershed (US portion only). Basins are modelled as means of an overlay of 800 m  $\times$  800 m PRISM grid cells. Precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, actual evapotranspiration, climatic water deficit, and surplus (surface and sub-surface runoff) are given in units of mm for each unit area within the basin.

![](_page_14_Picture_208.jpeg)

![](_page_15_Picture_136.jpeg)

![](_page_16_Figure_0.jpeg)

**Figure 7.** Water balance derived from PRISM climatological means (1971 – 2000) over the course of a year for Antoine Creek, Bonaparte Creek, Salmon Creek, and the Okanogan Mainstem basins (US portions only). Each panel shows temperature and precipitation above and the resulting water balance below. All four basins are shown with the same scale for temperature, precipitation, and water balance. Values reflect averages of all 800 m  $\times$  800 m PRISM grid cells in the basin.

#### **DISCUSSION**

These calculations are based on the simplest, complete water balance model. This water balance model has been used in all parts of the United States (and elsewhere) for over 50 years to examine watershed hydrological cycles. The method is simple because it is parameterized on temperature and precipitation only, assuming average values for other parameters. Other methods include explicit consideration of incoming and outgoing radiation, cloudiness, wind speed and direction, the daily profile of temperature, and the depth profile of soil water-holding capacity. These other methods require accurate input data that are rarely available over large landscapes. While these other models offer the potential for more accurate calculation, they are more likely to suffer from false precision. These results are therefore best used in a relative sense. Total basin water parameters are unlikely to be absolutely accurate (calibration of this model to specific conditions in the Okanogan would require considerable field research time). But relative values are likely to be very accurate. Soil and atmospheric conditions are similar over the OCD, and therefore, a difference in 10% between watersheds is likely to be a very accurate assessment of relative conditions. This model could be improved with field calibration of results and analysis of irrigation diversions. This model is most sensitive to changes in summer temperature. However, PRISM projects temperature well.

Landscape-scale water balance calculations are best used as relative indicators. Caveats to this analysis follow:

- This model does not consider evaporation from standing bodies of water such as lakes, reservoirs, streams and rivers.
- This model does not consider the effects of irrigation neither the diversion of water to storage nor the evapotranspiration of irrigation water from crops.
- This model does not account for increased evaporation due to high wind. Accordingly, the model will understate evaporation in areas that are continually windy (i.e., near the Columbia River) compared to areas with similar temperature, precipitation, and soil water-holding capacity that are less windy. Consideration of wind requires more information than is available for such a large study area.
- The model does not consider the effects of differing levels of vegetation. The model assumes continuous coverage by some sort of vegetation. Areas that are too dry to support continuous vegetation will have lower evapotranspiration than the model predicts.
- The grid cell size is 800 m. There is considerable heterogeneity within each grid cell. In areas where grid cells are covered by a considerable portion of water (such as those grid cells adjacent to the Columbia and Okanogan Rivers and lakes, modelled evapotranspiration will be underestimated.
- Aspect and slope considered as flat. South and southwest exposures have higher evaporative demand than north and northeast exposures.
- Water that is surplus is considered to leave the system. The model does not account for re-absorption further downstream. Water percolation below 150 cm is also not considered.
- The model is based on climatological averages between 1970 and 2000. Extreme events in any one month tend to affect the averages. PRISM calculates spatial variation in temperature and precipitation using all the high quality meteorological stations in the US (Figure 8). PRISM grid cell values for areas containing meteorological stations may vary somewhat from the meteorological station values because meteorological values are regressed to elevation. I checked the precipitation values for Omak 2 NW, Moses Mountain Snowtel, Salmon Meadow Snowtel, and Conconully, and the PRISM grid cell values are close to (but not exactly) the station values.

![](_page_18_Figure_2.jpeg)

Figure 1. Locations of (a) surface precipitation stations and (b) surface temperature stations used in the interpolation.

**Figure 8**. Meteorological stations used by PRISM. PRISM uses essentially all meteorological station data and snow course information in the United State to generate interpolation equations. The PRISM interpolations account for orographic factors better than other models and so are probably the best approximations available for areas with varied topography. The PRISM model handles local rain shadows, cool air drainage, and local effects of bodies of water. However, any model represents and approximation of climate, and areas with a low density of meterological stations to guide the equations may be modelled poorly (Figure from Daly *et al.* 2008).

#### **Climate sensitivity of the Okanogan River watershed**

The University of Washington Climate Impacts Group modelled how global climate change would be reflected in the Pacific Northwest. Twenty global circulation models of future climate were downscaled for the Pacific Northwest (see details on-line at http://cses.washington.edu/cig/res/ia/waccia.shtml ). Because PNW climate projections are for warming and moderately increased annual precipitation, the effect on vegetation and water supply is not immediately apparent. Using the climate projections for the Pacific Northwest, I calculated Deficit for forested plots in Eastern Washington. Under the modelled climate scenarios, Deficit is projected to increase throughout Eastern Washington, but within Washington State, the impacts in the Okanogan River watershed could be among the highest (Figure 10).

![](_page_19_Figure_2.jpeg)

Figure 3. Simulated temperature change (top panel) and percent precipitation change (bottom panel) for the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> century global climate model simulations. The black curve for each panel is the weighted average<sup>9</sup> of all models during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The colored curves are the weighted average of all models in that emissions scenario ("low" or B1, and "medium" or A1B) for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The colored areas indicate the range  $(5<sup>th</sup>$  to  $95<sup>th</sup>$  percentile) for each year in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. All changes are relative to 1970-1999 averages.

**Figure 9.** Modelled climate change for the Pacific Northwest in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Graphs represent the ensemble of the 20 IPCC global circulation models downscaled to finer resolution by the University of Washington Climate Impacts Group. The A1B emissions scenario represents a "medium" emission scenario reflecting business as usual with a balanced mixture of energy sources. The B1 emissions scenario represents a rapid conversion to a service-oriented economy with extensive use of non-fossil fuel energy sources (Figure from Littell *et al.* 2009).

![](_page_20_Figure_0.jpeg)

**Figure 10**. The modelled temperature and precipitation for the B1 (low-emission) and A1B (medium-emission) scenarios were examined for USDA Forest Service monitoring plots containing ponderosa pine and lodgepole pine. Model results for all plots containing ponderosa pine and lodgepole pine indicated higher climatic water deficit in 2020, 2040, and 2080. Climatic water deficit for plots in the Okanogan National Forest and the Colville National Forest rose the greatest percentage. By 2080, assuming the B1 emission scenario, many forest plots are projected to have an increase in Deficit greater than 15% of the current annual precipitation (left). By 2080, assuming the A1B emission scenario, more than half of the forest plots are projected to have an increase in Deficit greater than 15% of current annual precipitation (right). Models project that Deficit will increase for all plots, and AET will decrease for almost all forest plots now containing ponderosa pine or lodgepole pine. It is unlikely that forest structure and composition of these plots will remain unchanged.

In light of these projections for increased climatic water deficit in and near the Okanogan River watershed, decisions based on water availability in the recent past  $(1971 - 2000)$  may become increasingly inaccurate. The calculations in this report were based on climatological averages from 1971 – 2000, and those values may not provide an accurate projection of future conditions. **Appendix**: Equations for calculation of annual actual evapotranspiration (AET) and annual climatic water deficit (Deficit). Annual values in this report refer to the sum of the monthly values calculated from Eq.  $1 - 13$ . See Figure 1 for a depiction of terms.

Monthly precipitation, *Pm*, is divided into a monthly rain fraction (*RAINm*) and a monthly snow fraction (*SNOW<sub>m</sub>*) for each month by the monthly melt factor  $F_m$ :

$$
T_a \le 0^{\circ}\mathrm{C} : F_m = 0 \tag{1}
$$

$$
0^{\circ}\text{C} < T_a < 6^{\circ}\text{C} \colon F_m = 0.167 \times T_a \tag{2}
$$

$$
T_a \ge 6^{\circ}\text{C}: F_m = 1\tag{3}
$$

where  $T_a$  is the mean monthly temperature. Thus,

$$
RAIN_m = F_m \times P_m \tag{4}
$$

$$
SNOW_m = (1 - F_m) \times P_m \tag{5}
$$

The melt factor  $F_m$  is also used to determine the monthly snowmelt,  $MELT_m$ .

$$
MELT_m = F_m \times (SNOW_m + PACK_{m-1})
$$
 [6]

where snow pack for a given month,  $PACK_m$ , is given by:

$$
PACK_m = (1 - F_m)^2 \times P_m + (1 - F_m) \times PACK_{m-l}
$$
 [7]

The monthly water input (or supply) to the system is then:

$$
W_m = R A I N_m + M E L T_m \tag{8}
$$

When water input exceeds potential evapotranspiration ( $W_m - PET_m \ge 0$ ), evapotranspiration proceeds at the potential rate and excess recharges the soil water. If the soil is already at its water-holding capacity, soil moisture remains constant and the excess water is runoff. PET is given by:

$$
PET_m = 29.8 \times Days \times DL \times \frac{e_a(T_a)}{T_a + 273.2}
$$
 [9]

where *Days* is the number of days in the month, *DL* is the average day length for the month, and  $e_a(T_a)$  is the saturation vapour pressure at the mean temperature  $T_a$ . The value of  $e_a(T_a)$  is given by:

$$
e_a = 0.611 \times \exp\left(\frac{17.3 \times T_a}{T_a + 237.3}\right)
$$
 [10]

PET is modelled as an exponentially increasing function of temperature. An increase from 20°C to 22°C increases PET much more than an increase from 10°C to 12°C. At 48.32° latitude in July, the sensitivity to temperature is shown in Figure 11. Temperature sensitivity depends on day length, which in turn depends on time of year and latitude.

![](_page_22_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Figure 11**. Temperature sensitivity of potential evapotranspiration in Thornthwaite-type models.

The length of the day, *DL*, in hours, is taken from Dingman (2002) and is given by:

$$
DL_m = \frac{2 \times \cos^{-1}[-\tan(\delta_m) \times \tan(\Lambda)]}{\omega} \tag{11}
$$

where  $\delta_m$  is the solar declination angle at noon on the 15<sup>th</sup> day of the month, *Λ* is latitude, and  $\omega$ is the angular velocity of the earth's rotation  $(0.2618 \text{ radian hr}^{-1})$ .

Soil water balance is given by:

$$
SOL_{m} = \text{minimum} \{SOL_{max}, [(W_{m} - PET_{m}) + SOL_{m-1}]\}
$$
 [12]

where *SOIL<sub>max</sub>* is the soil water-holding capacity in the top 200 cm of the soil profile.

When PET is greater than water input  $(W_m < PET_m)$ , evapotranspiration equals the water input plus a fraction removed from soil water storage. Soil water extraction becomes more difficult as the soil becomes drier. The fraction removed from soil water storage is given by:

$$
\Delta \text{son} = SOLm_{m-1} - SOLm = SOLm_{m-1} \times \left[ 1 - \exp\left( -\frac{\left( PET_m - W_m\right)}{SOLL_{\text{max}}} \right) \right] \tag{13}
$$

Actual evapotranspiration ( $AET_m$ ) then equals the smaller of  $PET_m$  or ( $\Delta_{SOL}$ + W<sub>m</sub>). Deficit is the difference between  $\text{PET}_{m}$  and  $\text{AET}_{m}$ .

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Selected references only. If further investigation is desired, I would be pleased to provide copies of these references.

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