

APPENDIX A
WCS RESULTS

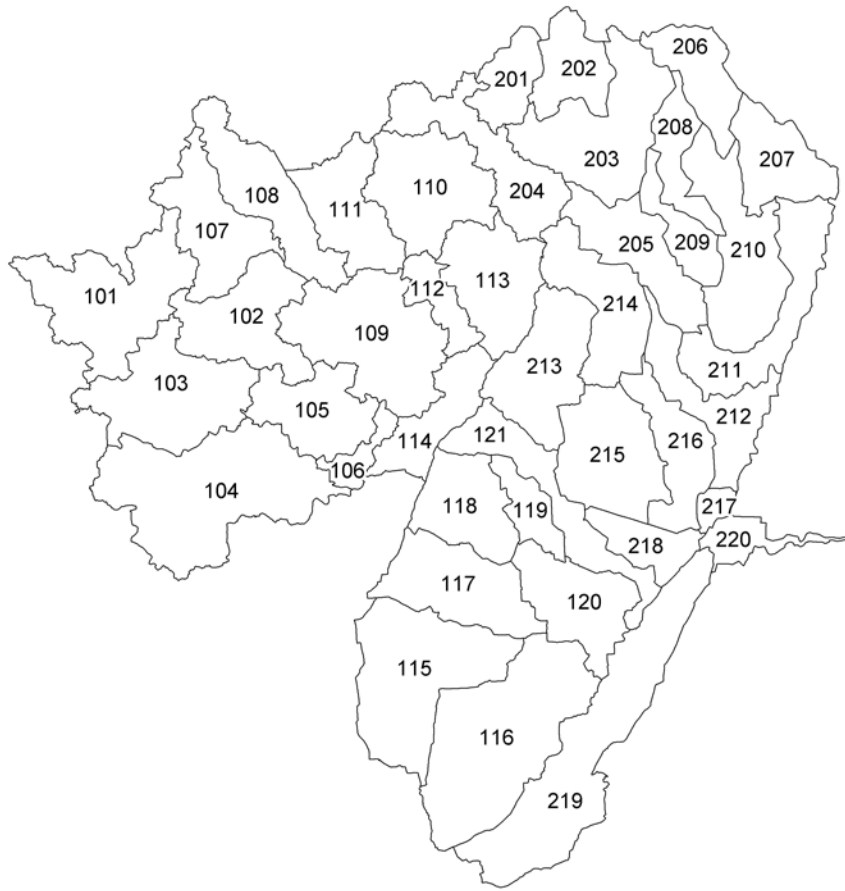


Figure A.1 WCS subbasin numbers.

Table A.1 WCS Sediment Erosion and Delivery Results

SUB ID	HUC14	Area (km ²)	Erosion (t/yr)	Delivery (t/yr)	Unit Erosion (t/km ² /yr)	Yield (t/km ² /yr)
101	4090003010010	77	2048	471	26.5	6.1
102	4090003010020	54	1352	324	24.8	5.9
103	4090003010030	72	1094	386	15.3	5.4
104	4090003010040	116	738	264	6.4	2.3
105	4090003010050	45	1301	185	28.8	4.1
106	4090003010060	12	103	35	8.5	2.9
107	4090003010070	50	1259	373	25.1	7.4
108	4090003010080	53	1245	443	23.4	8.3
109	4090003010090	83	2557	894	30.9	10.8
110	4090003010100	62	1807	386	29.3	6.3
111	4090003010110	46	912	192	19.9	4.2
112	4090003010120	19	479	138	25.3	7.3
113	4090003010130	53	2003	361	38.0	6.8
114	4090003010140	35	763	321	21.7	9.1
115	4090003010150	89	1771	99	20.0	1.1
116	4090003010160	113	1216	112	10.8	1.0
117	4090003010170	56	740	378	13.3	6.8
118	4090003010180	43	621	247	14.5	5.8
119	4090003010190	19	346	125	18.6	6.7
120	4090003010200	48	758	230	15.8	4.8
121	4090003010210	47	953	375	20.4	8.0
201	4090003020010	25	1151	260	46.7	10.6
202	4090003020020	31	1195	419	38.0	13.3
203	4090003020030	73	3162	1044	43.1	14.2
204	4090003020040	54	1991	463	36.9	8.6
205	4090003020050	47	1811	512	38.6	10.9
206	4090003020060	33	1369	456	41.3	13.8
207	4090003020070	39	2156	796	54.8	20.2
208	4090003020080	25	1130	402	46.1	16.4
209	4090003020090	22	843	336	37.6	15.0
210	4090003020100	66	2565	1045	38.7	15.7
211	4090003020110	53	1948	663	36.5	12.4
212	4090003020120	43	1305	533	30.6	12.5
213	4090003020130	56	1876	781	33.2	13.8
214	4090003020140	50	1952	774	38.8	15.4
215	4090003020150	60	1350	763	22.5	12.7
216	4090003020160	39	1427	806	36.7	20.8
217	4090003020170	7	164	60	24.7	9.1
218	4090003020180	23	481	243	20.8	10.5
219	4090003020190	111	1708	260	15.3	2.3
220	4090003020200	16	422	195	26.2	12.1

APPENDIX B
PROCESS CHARACTERIZATION
IN THE SWAT MODEL

1 Land Phase Of The Hydrologic Cycle

The hydrologic cycle as simulated by SWAT is based on the water balance equation:

$$SW_t = SW_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t (R_{day} - Q_{surf} - E_a - w_{seep} - Q_{gw})$$

where SW_t is the final soil water content (mm H₂O), SW_0 is the initial soil water content on day i (mm H₂O), t is the time (days), R_{day} is the amount of precipitation on day i (mm H₂O), Q_{surf} is the amount of surface runoff on day i (mm H₂O), E_a is the amount of evapotranspiration on day i (mm H₂O), w_{seep} is the amount of water entering the vadose zone from the soil profile on day i (mm H₂O), and Q_{gw} is the amount of return flow on day i (mm H₂O).

The subdivision of the watershed enables the model to reflect differences in evapotranspiration for various crops and soils. Runoff is predicted separately for each HRU and routed to obtain the total runoff for the watershed. This increases accuracy and gives a much better physical description of the water balance.

1.1 Climate

The climate of a watershed provides the moisture and energy inputs that control the water balance and determine the relative importance of the different components of the hydrologic cycle. The climatic variables required by SWAT consist of daily precipitation, maximum/minimum air temperature, solar radiation, wind speed and relative humidity. The model allows values for daily precipitation, maximum/minimum air temperatures, solar radiation, wind speed and relative humidity to be input from records of observed data or generated during the simulation.

1.2 Weather Generator

Daily values for weather are generated from average monthly values. The model generates a set of weather data for each subbasin. The values for any one subbasin will be generated independently and there will be no spatial correlation of generated values between the different subbasins.

GENERATED PRECIPITATION. SWAT uses a model developed by Nicks (1974) to generate daily precipitation for simulations, which do not read in measured data. This precipitation model is also used to fill in missing data in the measured records. The precipitation generator uses a first-order Markov chain model to define a day as wet or

dry by comparing a random number (0.0-1.0) generated by the model to monthly wet-dry probabilities input by the user. If the day is classified as wet, the amount of precipitation is generated from a skewed distribution or a modified exponential distribution.

GENERATED AIR TEMPERATURE AND SOLAR RADIATION. Maximum and minimum air temperatures and solar radiation are generated from a normal distribution. A continuity equation is incorporated into the generator to account for temperature and radiation variations caused by dry vs. rainy conditions. Maximum air temperature and solar radiation are adjusted downward when simulating rainy conditions and upwards when simulating dry conditions. The adjustments are made so that the long-term generated values for the average monthly maximum temperature and monthly solar radiation agree with the input averages.

GENERATED WIND SPEED. A modified exponential equation is used to generate daily mean wind speed given the mean monthly wind speed. **GENERATED RELATIVE HUMIDITY.** The relative humidity model uses a triangular distribution to simulate the daily average relative humidity from the monthly average. As with temperature and radiation, the mean daily relative humidity is adjusted to account for wet- and dry-day effects.

1.3 Snow

SWAT classifies precipitation as rain or freezing rain/snow using the average daily temperature.

SNOW COVER. The snow cover component of SWAT has been updated from a simple, uniform snow cover model to a more complex model, which allows non-uniform cover due to shading, drifting, topography and land cover. The user defines a threshold snow depth above which snow coverage will always extend over 100% of the area. As the snow depth in a subbasin decreases below this value, the snow coverage is allowed to decline non-linearly based on an areal depletion curve.

SNOW MELT. Snowmelt is controlled by the air and snow pack temperature, the melting rate, and the areal coverage of snow. If snow is present, it is melted on days when the maximum temperature exceeds 0°C using a linear function of the difference between the average snow pack maximum air temperature and the base or threshold temperature for snow melt. Melted snow is treated the same as rainfall for estimating runoff and percolation. For snowmelt, rainfall energy is set to zero and the peak runoff rate is estimated assuming uniformly melted snow for a 24-hour duration.

ELEVATION BANDS. The model allows the subbasin to be split into a maximum of ten elevation bands. Snow cover and snowmelt are simulated separately for each elevation band. By dividing the subbasin into elevation bands, the model is able to assess the

differences in snow cover and snow melt caused by orographic variation in precipitation and temperature.

1.4 Soil Temperature

Soil temperature impacts water movement and the decay rate of residue in the soil. Daily average soil temperature is calculated at the soil surface and the center of each soil layer. The temperature of the soil surface is a function of snow cover, plant cover and residue cover, the bare soil surface temperature, and the previous day's soil surface temperature. The temperature of a soil layer is a function of the surface temperature, mean annual air temperature, and the depth in the soil at which variation in temperature due to changes in climatic conditions no longer occurs. This depth, referred to as the damping depth, is dependent upon the bulk density and the soil water content.

2 Hydrology

As precipitation descends, it may be intercepted and held in the vegetation canopy or fall to the soil surface. Water on the soil surface will infiltrate into the soil profile or flow overland as runoff. Runoff moves relatively quickly toward a stream channel and contributes to short-term stream response. Infiltrated water may be held in the soil and later evapotranspired or it may slowly make its way to the surface-water system via underground paths.

2.1 Canopy Storage

Canopy storage is the water intercepted by vegetative surfaces (the canopy) where it is held and made available for evaporation. When using the curve number method to compute surface runoff, canopy storage is taken into account in the surface runoff calculations. However, if methods such as Green & Ampt are used to model infiltration and runoff, canopy storage must be modeled separately. SWAT allows the user to input the maximum amount of water that can be stored in the canopy at the maximum leaf area index for the land cover. This value and the leaf area index are used by the model to compute the maximum storage at any time in the growth cycle of the land cover/crop. When evaporation is computed, water is first removed from canopy storage.

2.2 Infiltration

Infiltration refers to the entry of water into a soil profile from the soil surface. As infiltration continues, the soil becomes increasingly wet, causing the rate of infiltration to decrease with time until it reaches a steady value. The initial rate of infiltration depends on the moisture content of the soil prior to the introduction of water at the soil surface.

The final rate of infiltration is equivalent to the saturated hydraulic conductivity of the soil. Because the curve number method used to calculate surface runoff operates on a daily time-step, it is unable to directly model infiltration. The amount of water entering the soil profile is calculated as the difference between the amount of rainfall and the amount of surface runoff. The Green & Ampt infiltration method does directly model infiltration, but it requires precipitation data in smaller time increments.

2.3 Redistribution

Redistribution refers to the continued movement of water through a soil profile after input of water (via precipitation or irrigation) has ceased at the soil surface. Redistribution is caused by differences in water content in the profile. Once the water content throughout the entire profile is uniform, redistribution will cease. The redistribution component of SWAT uses a storage routing technique to predict flow through each soil layer in the root zone.

Downward flow, or percolation, occurs when field capacity of a soil layer is exceeded and the layer below is not saturated. The flow rate is governed by the saturated conductivity of the soil layer. Redistribution is affected by soil temperature. If the temperature in a particular layer is 0°C or below, no redistribution is allowed from that layer.

2.4 Evapotranspiration

Evapotranspiration is a collective term for all processes by which water in the liquid or solid phase at or near the earth's surface becomes atmospheric water vapor. Evapotranspiration includes evaporation from rivers and lakes, bare soil, and vegetative surfaces; evaporation from within the leaves of plants (transpiration); and sublimation from ice and snow surfaces. The model computes evaporation from soils and plants separately as described by Ritchie (1972). Potential soil water evaporation is estimated as a function of potential evapotranspiration and leaf area index (area of plant leaves relative to the area of the HRU). Actual soil water evaporation is estimated by using exponential functions of soil depth and water content. Plant transpiration is simulated as a linear function of potential evapotranspiration and leaf area index.

POTENTIAL EVAPOTRANSPIRATION. Potential evapotranspiration is the rate at which evapotranspiration would occur from a large area completely and uniformly covered with growing vegetation which has access to an unlimited supply of soil water. This rate is assumed to be unaffected by micro-climatic processes such as advection or heat-storage effects. The model offers three options for estimating potential evapotranspiration: Hargreaves (Hargreaves et al., 1985), Priestley-Taylor (Priestley and Taylor, 1972), and Penman-Monteith (Monteith, 1965).

2.5 Lateral Subsurface Flow

Lateral subsurface flow, or interflow, is streamflow contribution that originates below the surface but above the zone where rocks are saturated with water. Lateral subsurface flow in the soil profile (0-2m) is calculated simultaneously with redistribution. A kinematic storage model is used to predict lateral flow in each soil layer. The model accounts for variation in conductivity, slope and soil water content.

2.6 Surface Runoff

Surface runoff, or overland flow, is flow that occurs along a sloping surface. Using daily or sub-daily rainfall amounts, SWAT simulates surface runoff volumes and peak runoff rates for each HRU. SURFACE RUNOFF VOLUME is computed using a modification of the SCS curve number method (USDA Soil Conservation Service, 1972) or the Green & Ampt infiltration method (Green and Ampt, 1911). In the curve number method, the curve number varies non-linearly with the moisture content of the soil. The curve number drops as the soil approaches the wilting point and increases to near 100 as the soil approaches saturation. The Green & Ampt method requires sub-daily precipitation data and calculates infiltration as a function of the wetting front matric potential and effective hydraulic conductivity. Water that does not infiltrate becomes surface runoff. SWAT includes a provision for estimating runoff from frozen soil where a soil is defined as frozen if the temperature in the first soil layer is less than 0°C. The model increases runoff for frozen soils but still allows significant infiltration when the frozen soils are dry.

PEAK RUNOFF RATE predictions are made with a modification of the rational method. In brief, the rational method is based on the idea that if a rainfall of intensity i begins instantaneously and continues indefinitely, the rate of runoff will increase until the time of concentration, t_c , when all of the subbasin is contributing to flow at the outlet. In the modified Rational Formula, the peak runoff rate is a function of the proportion of daily precipitation that falls during the subbasin t_c , the daily surface runoff volume, and the subbasin time of concentration. The proportion of rainfall occurring during the subbasin t_c is estimated as a function of total daily rainfall using a stochastic technique. The subbasin time of concentration is estimated using Manning's Formula considering both overland and channel flow.

2.7 Ponds

Ponds are water storage structures located within a subbasin that intercept surface runoff. The catchment area of a pond is defined as a fraction of the total area of the subbasin. Ponds are assumed to be located off the main channel in a subbasin and will never receive water from upstream subbasins. Pond water storage is a function of pond capacity, daily inflows and outflows, seepage and evaporation. Required inputs are the storage capacity and surface area of the pond when filled to capacity. Surface area below capacity is estimated as a nonlinear function of storage.

2.8 Tributary Channels

Two types of channels are defined within a subbasin: the main channel and tributary channels. Tributary channels are minor or lower order channels branching off the main channel within the subbasin. Each tributary channel within a subbasin drains only a portion of the subbasin and does not receive groundwater contribution to its flow. All flow in the tributary channels is released and routed through the main channel of the subbasin. SWAT uses the attributes of tributary channels to determine the time of concentration for the subbasin.

TRANSMISSION LOSSES. Transmission losses are losses of surface flow via leaching through the streambed. This type of loss occurs in ephemeral or intermittent streams where groundwater contribution occurs only at certain times of the year, or not at all. SWAT uses Lane's method described in Chapter 19 of the SCS Hydrology Handbook (USDA Soil Conservation Service, 1983) to estimate transmission losses. Water losses from the channel are a function of channel width and length and flow duration. Both runoff volume and peak rate are adjusted when transmission losses occur in tributary channels.

2.9 Return Flow

Return flow, or base flow, is the volume of streamflow originating from groundwater. SWAT partitions groundwater into two aquifer systems: a shallow, unconfined aquifer which contributes return flow to streams within the watershed and a deep, confined aquifer which contributes return flow to streams outside the watershed (Arnold et al., 1993). Water percolating past the bottom of the root zone is partitioned into two fractions—each fraction becomes recharge for one of the aquifers. In addition to return flow, water stored in the shallow aquifer may replenish moisture in the soil profile in very dry conditions or be directly removed by plants. Water in the shallow or deep aquifer may be removed by pumping.

3 Land Cover/Plant Growth

SWAT utilizes a single plant growth model to simulate all types of land covers. The model is able to differentiate between annual and perennial plants. Annual plants grow from the planting date to the harvest date or until the accumulated heat units equal the potential heat units for the plant. Perennial plants maintain their root systems throughout the year, becoming dormant in the winter months. They resume growth when the average daily air temperature exceeds the minimum, or base, temperature required. The plant growth model is used to assess removal of water and nutrients from the root zone, transpiration, and biomass/yield production.

3.1 Potential Growth

The potential increase in plant biomass on a given day is defined as the increase in biomass under ideal growing conditions. The potential increase in biomass for a day is a function of intercepted energy and the plant's efficiency in converting energy to biomass. Energy interception is estimated as a function of solar radiation and the plant's leaf area index.

3.2 Potential And Actual Transpiration

The process used to calculate potential plant transpiration is described in the section on evapotranspiration. Actual transpiration is a function of potential transpiration and soil water availability.

3.3 Nutrient Uptake

Plant use of nitrogen and phosphorus are estimated with a supply and demand approach where the daily plant nitrogen and phosphorus demands are calculated as the difference between the actual concentration of the element in the plant and the optimal concentration. The optimal concentration of the elements varies with growth stage as described by Jones (1983).

3.4 Growth Constraints

Potential plant growth and yield are usually not achieved due to constraints imposed by the environment. The model estimates stresses caused by water, nutrients and temperature.

4 Erosion

Erosion and sediment yield are estimated for each HRU with the Modified Universal Soil Loss Equation (MUSLE) (Williams, 1975). While the USLE uses rainfall as an indicator of erosive energy, MUSLE uses the amount of runoff to simulate erosion and sediment yield. The substitution results in a number of benefits: the prediction accuracy of the model is increased, the need for a delivery ratio is eliminated, and single storm estimates of sediment yields can be calculated. The hydrology model supplies estimates of runoff volume and peak runoff rate, which, with the subbasin area, are used to calculate the runoff erosive energy variable. The crop management factor is recalculated every day that runoff occurs. It is a function of aboveground biomass, residue on the soil surface, and the minimum C factor for the plant. Other factors of the erosion equation are evaluated as described by Wischmeier and Smith (1978).

5 Nutrients

SWAT tracks the movement and transformation of several forms of nitrogen and phosphorus in the watershed. In the soil, transformation of nitrogen from one form to another is governed by the nitrogen cycle as depicted in Figure 1.6. The transformation of phosphorus in the soil is controlled by the phosphorus cycle shown in Figure 1.7. Nutrients may be introduced to the main channel and transported downstream through surface runoff and lateral subsurface flow.

5.1 Nitrogen

The different processes modeled by SWAT in the HRUs and the various pools of nitrogen in the soil are depicted in Figure 1.6. Plant use of nitrogen is estimated using the supply and demand approach described in the section on plant growth. In addition to plant use, nitrate and organic N may be removed from the soil via mass flow of water. Amounts of NO₃-N contained in runoff, lateral flow and percolation are estimated as products of the volume of water and the average concentration of nitrate in the layer. Organic N transport with sediment is calculated with a loading function developed by McElroy et al. (1976) and modified by Williams and Hann (1978) for application to individual runoff events. The loading function estimates the daily organic N runoff loss based on the concentration of organic N in the topsoil layer, the sediment yield and the enrichment ratio. The enrichment ratio is the concentration of organic N in the sediment divided by that in the soil.

5.2 Phosphorus

The different processes modeled by SWAT in the HRUs and the various pools of phosphorus in the soil are depicted in Figure 1.7. Plant use of phosphorus is estimated using the supply and demand approach described in the section on plant growth. In addition to plant use, soluble phosphorus and organic P may be removed from the soil via mass flow of water. Phosphorus is not a mobile nutrient and interaction between surface runoff with solution P in the top 10 mm of soil will not be complete. The amount of soluble P removed in runoff is predicted using solution P concentration in the top 10 mm of soil, the runoff volume and a partitioning factor. Sediment transport of P is simulated with a loading function as described in organic N transport.

6 Pesticides

Although SWAT does not simulate stress on the growth of a plant due to the presence of weeds, damaging insects and other pests, pesticides may be applied to an HRU to study the movement of the chemical in the watershed. SWAT simulates pesticide movement into the stream network via surface runoff (in solution and sorbed to sediment transported by the runoff), and into the soil profile and aquifer by percolation (in solution). The equations used to model the movement of pesticide in the land phase of the hydrologic cycle were adopted from GLEAMS (Leonard et al., 1987). The movement of the pesticide is controlled by its solubility, degradation half-life and soil organic carbon adsorption coefficient. Pesticides on plant foliage and in the soil degrade exponentially according to the appropriate half-life. Pesticide transport by water and sediment is calculated for each runoff event and pesticide leaching is estimated for each soil layer when percolation occurs.

7 Management

SWAT allows the user to define management practices taking place in every HRU. The user may define the beginning and the ending of the growing season; specify timing and amounts of fertilizer, pesticide and irrigation applications; as well as timing of tillage operations. At the end of the growing season, the biomass may be removed from the HRU as yield or placed on the surface as residue.

In addition to these basic management practices, operations such as grazing, automated fertilizer and water applications, and incorporation of most conceivable management options for water use are available. The latest improvement to land management is the incorporation of routines to calculate sediment and nutrient loadings from urban areas.

7.1 Rotations

The dictionary defines a rotation as the growing of different crops in succession in one field, usually in a regular sequence. A rotation in SWAT refers to a change in management practices from one year to the next. There is no limit to the number of years of different management operations specified in a rotation. SWAT also does not limit the number of land cover/crops grown within one year in the HRU. However, only one land cover can be growing at any one time.

7.2 Water Use

The two most typical uses of water are for application to agricultural lands or use as a town's water supply. SWAT allows water to be applied on an HRU from any water source within or outside the watershed. Water may also be transferred between reservoirs, reaches and subbasins as well as exported from the watershed.

8 Routing Phase Of The Hydrologic Cycle

Once SWAT determines the loadings of water, sediment, nutrients and pesticides to the main channel, the loadings are routed through the stream network of the watershed using a command structure similar to that of HYMO (Williams and Hann, 1972). In addition to keeping track of mass flow in the channel, SWAT models the transformation of chemicals in the stream and streambed. Figure 1.9 illustrates the different in-stream processes modeled by SWAT.

8.1 Routing In The Main Channel Or Reach

Routing in the main channel can be divided into four components: water, sediment, nutrients and organic chemicals.

8.2 Flood Routing

As water flows downstream, a portion may be lost due to evaporation and transmission through the bed of the channel. Another potential loss is removal of water from the channel for agricultural or human use. Flow may be supplemented by the fall of rain directly on the channel and/or addition of water from point source discharges. Flow is routed through the channel using a variable storage coefficient method developed by Williams (1969) or the Muskingum routing method.

8.3 Sediment Routing

The transport of sediment in the channel is controlled by the simultaneous operation of two processes, deposition and degradation. Previous versions of SWAT used stream power to estimate deposition/degradation in the channels (Arnold et al, 1995). Bagnold (1977) defined stream power as the product of water density, flow rate and water surface slope. Williams (1980) used Bagnold's definition of stream power to develop a method for determining degradation as a function of channel slope and velocity. In this version of SWAT, the equations have been simplified and the maximum amount of sediment that can be transported from a reach segment is a function of the peak channel velocity. Available stream power is used to reentrain loose and deposited material until all of the material is removed. Excess stream power causes bed degradation. Bed degradation is adjusted for streambed erodibility and over.

8.4 Nutrient Routing

Nutrient transformations in the stream are controlled by the in-stream water quality component of the model. The instream kinetics used in SWAT for nutrient routing are adapted from QUAL2E (Brown and Barnwell, 1987). The model tracks nutrients dissolved in the stream and nutrients adsorbed to the sediment. Dissolved nutrients are transported with the water while those sorbed to sediments are allowed to be deposited with the sediment on the bed of the channel.

8.5 Channel Pesticide Routing

While an unlimited number of pesticides may be applied to the HRUs, only one pesticide may be routed through the channel network of the watershed due to the complexity of the processes simulated. As with the nutrients, the total pesticide load in the channel is partitioned into dissolved and sediment-attached components. While the dissolved pesticide is transported with water, the pesticide attached to sediment is affected by sediment transport and deposition processes. Pesticide transformations in the dissolved and sorbed phases are governed by first-order decay relationships. The major in-stream processes simulated by the model are settling, burial, resuspension, volatilization, diffusion and transformation.

9 Routing In The Reservoir

The water balance for reservoirs includes inflow, outflow, rainfall on the surface, evaporation, seepage from the reservoir bottom and diversions.

9.1 Reservoir Outflow

The model offers three alternatives for estimating outflow from the reservoir. The first option allows the user to input measured outflow. The second option, designed for small, uncontrolled reservoirs, requires the users to specify a water release rate. When the reservoir volume exceeds the principle storage, the extra water is released at the specified rate. Volume exceeding the emergency spillway is released within one day. The third option, designed for larger, managed reservoirs, has the user specify monthly target volumes for the reservoir.

9.2 Sediment Routing

Sediment inflow may originate from transport through the upstream reaches or from surface runoff within the subbasin. The concentration of sediment in the reservoir is estimated using a simple continuity equation based on volume and concentration of inflow, outflow and water retained in the reservoir. Settling of sediment in the reservoir is governed by an equilibrium sediment concentration and the median sediment particle size. The amount of sediment in the reservoir outflow is the product of the volume of water flowing out of the reservoir and the suspended sediment concentration in the reservoir at the time of release.

9.3 Reservoir Nutrients

A simple model for nitrogen and phosphorus mass balance was taken from Chapra (1997). The model assumes: 1) the lake is completely mixed; 2) phosphorus is the limiting nutrient; and, 3) total phosphorus is a measure of the lake trophic status. The first assumption ignores lake stratification and intensification of phytoplankton in the epilimnion. The second assumption is generally valid when non-point sources dominate and the third assumption implies that a relationship exists between total phosphorus and biomass. The phosphorus mass balance equation includes the concentration in the lake, inflow, outflow and overall loss rate.

9.4 Reservoir Pesticides

The lake pesticide balance model is taken from Chapra (1997) and assumes well-mixed conditions. The system is partitioned into a well-mixed surface water layer underlain by a well-mixed sediment layer. The pesticide is partitioned into dissolved and particulate phases in both the water and sediment layers. The major processes simulated by the model are loading, outflow, transformation, volatilization, settling, diffusion, resuspension and burial.

APPENDIX C

(See enclosed CD)

**"Visualization of GSSHA Results Using
Spatial Data Analyzer (SDA)"**