# Flood Characteristics of Urban Watersheds in the United States



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Prepared in Cooperation with U.S. Department of Transportation Federal Highway Administration



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By V. B. SAUER, W. 0. THOMAS, JR. V. A. STRICKER, and K. V. WILSON

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#### **GLOSSARY**



RH The ratio of a specified recurrence-interval flood to the 2-year recurrence-interval flood. (Harley, 1978).

- Rl100 Rainfall intensity, in inches, for the 2-hour 100-year occurrence. Determined from Weather Bureau (1961) or Miller and others (1973).
- RI2 Rainfall intensity, in inches, for the 2-hour 2-year occurrence. Determined from Weather Bureau (1961) or Miller and others (1973).
- RQx The peak discharge, in cubic feet per second ( $ft<sup>3</sup>/s$ ), for an equivalent rural drainage basin in the same hydrologic area as the urban basin, and for recurrence interval x. For this study equivalent rural discharges were computed from applicable Geological Survey regional floodfrequency reports, as indicated in table 1.
	- The logarithmic standard deviation of annual peak discharges for a gaging station.

s

- **SCSS** An index of potential infiltration, in inches, computed by the equation  $SCSS = (1,000/CN) - 10$ (Soil Conservation Service, 1975).
- SL The main channel slope, in feet per mile (ft/mi), measured between points which are 10 percent and 85 percent of the main channel length upstream from the study site. For sites where SL is greater than 70 ft/mi, 70 ft/mi is used in the equations.
- ST Basin storage, the percentage of the drainage basin occupied by lakes, reservoirs, swamps, and wetlands. In-channel storage of a temporary nature, resulting from detention ponds or roadway embankments, is not included in the computation of ST.
- UQx X The peak discharge, in cubic feet per second ( $ft<sup>3</sup>/s$ ), for the urban watershed for recurrence interval x. That is,  $UQ2 = 2$ -year urban peak discharge,  $UQ5 = 5$ -year urban peak discharge, and so forth.
	- The logarithmic mean of annual peak discharges for a gaging station.

## Flood Characteristics of Urban Watersheds in the United States

### *By* V. B. Sauer, W. 0. Thomas, Jr., V. A. Stricker, *and* K. V. Wilson

#### Abstract

A nationwide study of flood magnitude and frequency in urban areas was made for the purpose of reviewing available literature, compiling an urban flood data base, and developing methods of estimating urban floodflow characteristics in ungaged areas. The literature review contains synopses of 128 recent publications related to urban floodflow. A data base of 269 gaged basins in 56 cities and 31 States, including Hawaii, contains a wide variety of topographic and climatic characteristics, land-use variables, indices of urbanization, and floodfrequency estimates.

Three sets of regression equations were developed to estimate flood discharges for ungaged sites for recurrence intervals of 2, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, and 500 years. Two sets of regression equations are based on seven independent parameters and the third is based on three independent parameters. The only difference in the two sets of seven-parameter equations is the use of basih lag time in one and lake and reservoir storage in the other. Of primary importance in these equations is an independent estimate of the equivalent rural discharge for the ungaged basin. The equations adjust the equivalent rural discharge to an urban condition. The primary adjustment factor, or index of urbanization, is the basin development factor, a measure of the extent of development of the drainage system in the basin. This measure includes evaluations of storm drains (sewers), channel improvements, and curb-andgutter streets.

The basin development factor is statistically very significant and offers a simple and effective way of accounting for drainage development and runoff response in urban areas. Percentage of impervious area is also included in the sevenparameter equations as an additional measure of urbanization and apparently accounts for increased runoff volumes. This factor is not highly significant for large floods, which supports the generally held concept that imperviousness is not a dominant factor when soils become more saturated during large storms. Other parameters in the seven-parameter equations include drainage area size, channel slope, rainfall intensity, lake and reservoir storage, and basin lag time. These factors are all statistically significant and provide logical indices of basin conditions. The three-parameter equations include only the three most significant parameters: rural discharge, basindevelopment factor, and drainage area size.

All three sets of regression equations provide unbiased estimates of urban flood frequency. The seven-parameter regression equations without basin lag time have average standard errors of regression varying from  $\pm$  37 percent for the 5-year flood to  $\pm$  44 percent for the 100-year flood and  $\pm$  49 percent for the 500-year flood. The other two sets of regression equations have similar accuracy. Several tests for bias, sensitivity, and hydrologic consistency are included which support the conclusion that the equations are useful throughout the United States. All estimating equations were developed from data collected on drainage basins where temporary in-channel storage, due to highway embankments, was not significant. Consequently, estimates made with these equations do not account for the reducing effect of this temporary detention storage.

#### INTRODUCTION

The U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with State, local, and other Federal agencies, conducts programs to collect and analyze flood-runoff data in numerous cities throughout the United States to provide hydraulic and hydrologic data needed for zoning, planning, and designing. Most of these urban programs were started during the past 10 or *IS* years, but some data are available for longer periods. Analyses of the data have been made mostly for individual cities and metropolitan areas and have provided those areas with valuable planning and design information.

With urban growth and development, there is an ever-increasing need for flood information and estimating techniques in areas where little or no data exist. In 1978 the Federal Highway Administration, Department of Transportation (FHWA), contracted with the Geological Survey to make a nationwide study of urban flood frequency. The purposes of the study were (l) to review the literature of urban flood studies; (2) to compile a nationwide data base of flood-frequency characteristics; topographic, physical, and climatic characteristics; and land-use variables for as many urbanized watersheds as possible; and (3) to define estimating techniques that could be used in ungaged urban areas. This report describes the results of that study.

The authors wish to acknowledge the Federal Highway Administration, which provided financial support, and Dr. Roy Trent, FHWA, who provided the leadership and guidance to initiate the project. Special assistance from Dr. Walter J. Rawls, Department of Agriculture, Science and Education Administration, is also acknowledged. Dr. Rawls acquired and provided to the Geological Survey a large part of the data used in the study, specifically data on land use and soils. He also collaborated with the Geological Survey to compile and publish the literature review. Finally, special acknowledgment is given to the many Geological Survey personnel in district offices throughout the nation who assisted in compiling the gaging-station data used in this study.

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The first phase of the study was a major search of the literature to compile a bibliography of reports that describe urban runoff, primarily those concerning the magnitude and frequency of peak discharge. Shortly after the project began, it was learned that a similar literature review was being made by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Science and Education Administration (SEA); thereafter, the USGS and SEA worked together and published their reviews jointly (Rawls and others, 1980). That report contains synopses of 128 recent publications on urban floodflow frequency that describe procedures ranging from simple statistical methods for estimating peak discharge and recurrence intervals, to procedures for estimating flood hydrographs, to sophisticated modeling procedures for estimating complete storm hydrographs. In the literature review, the following information is presented for each reference:

- 1. Bibliographic citation.
- 2. Abstract, or synopsis, including a brief description of the procedure and data requirements for calibrating and applying it.
- 3. General classification of the type of procedure.
- 4. Geographical location for which the procedure appears applicable.

In this review it was observed that many urban equations and models were derived for use in a specific geographical area. Although most of the models designed for flood-hydrograph and continuous-record synthesis could be applied regionally or nationally, statistical techniques for estimating the magnitude and frequency of instantaneous peak discharges are much more limited areally and generally cannot be transferred outside the specific area for which they were developed. Some of the widely applicable techniques described in the literature review are highlighted in the following discussion.

Leopold (1968) defined the ratio of the urban to equivalent rural mean annual flood for several metropolitan areas and graphically related this ratio to the percentage of the basin served by storm sewers and the percent of the basin covered by impervious surfaces. Sauer (1974) used the Leopold curves for mean annual floods, combined with a method suggested by Anderson (1970) to estimate peaks of any magnitude up to a 100 year event for urban sites in Oklahoma. Using local rainfall intensity data to define the slope of floodfrequency curves, Sauer estimated flood magnitude based on the mean annual flood for rural conditions adjusted by the Leopold ratio. A characteristic of the Sauer method is that the urban flood-frequency curve will always be greater than the rural curve for watersheds which do not have significant in-channel or detention storage.

Espey and Winslow (1974) derived regression

equations from data obtained for 60 urban watersheds located in cities along the East Coast and in Texas, Mississippi, Michigan, and Illinois. These regression equations relate flood peaks of various frequencies to drainage-area size, percent impervious area, channel slope, rainfall for 6-hour duration, and an index numerically describing the channel condition and the storm-sewer network.

Harley (1978) proposed methods to evaluate the effects of urbanization on flood peaks. He concluded that with certain modifications, a combination of procedures described by Anderson (1970) and Carter (1961) offers a simplified and accurate approach to developing a nationally applicable technique. He proposed a regression equation that included factors accounting for local runoff, imperviousness, drainage-area size, lagtime, and surface storage. Alternate procedures using modifications of the proposed equation were employed to estimate either the ratio of urban to rural discharge or the difference between them. Harley tested his proposed methods on a small number of sites in a few cities and reported encouraging results. Among his recommendations was the compilation of a large data base for use in testing and refining the proposed methods.

The literature review supported the generally held concept that urbanizing a natural drainage basin usually causes runoff volume to increase and basin response time to decrease; it also found that peak discharges generally increase for those watersheds which do not have significant in-channel or detention storage. These increases are usually most dramatic for low-order floods which occur frequently; they become less pronounced as flood magnitude increases.

In a recent report not included in the literature review, Malcolm (1980) presents the results of modeling several basins in Charlotte, North Carolina. This report shows that temporary in-channel and detention storage can be highly effective in reducing peak discharges, and that much of this storage can be the result of unintentional in-channel storage behind undersized roadway culverts and bridges. The effect of such structures is sharply reduced at points further downstream, however, and when stream crossings are improved (enlarged), peak discharges increase. Malcolm's report nonetheless shows that because of in-channel and detention storage, urban peak discharges can be less than equivalent rural peaks in spite of other urbanization effects.

In urbanizing a basin, naturally pervious surfaces are converted to impervious surfaces. Because infiltration is reduced, such areas cause increased runoff; the usually smoother surface allows more rapid drainage; and depression storage usually is reduced. In addition, the drainage system is often altered by enlarging, straightening, and smoothing its channels and by installing storm sewers and curb-and-gutter systems. These alterations usually facilitate rapid runoff with a resultant increase in flood peaks. Urbanization does not always increase floods, however. Some aspects of urbanization can decrease an area's flood potential. For instance, if the lower part of a basin is urbanized and the upper part left in its natural condition, rapid removal of floodwaters from the lower part may occur before the upper part can contribute significant runoff. Some cities reduce flooding by storing the water in designated areas (detention ponds) and releasing it slowly. As discussed above (Malcolm, 1980), culverts, bridges, storm sewers, and roadway embankments may inhibit flooding and cause temporary storage behind them, thus reducing peak-flow rates. Obviously, evaluating the effects of urbanization on flood potential involves many factors. The data accumulated for this study show that for some basins the urban flood-frequency curve is below an equivalent rural curve. Also, there are several instances in which the two floodfrequency curves cross, with low-order floods increased by urbanization and high-order floods decreased.

#### DATA BASE

The second phase of this study was the compilation of a comprehensive data base for drainage basins affected by urbanization. Contact with district offices of the Geological Survey revealed that at least 3 years of runoff data from almost 600 urbanized sites were available nationwide. Data collected by other agencies were also sought, but these data did not meet the following selection criteria established for the study:

- 1. A watershed selected must have at least 15 percent of the drainage area covered with commercial, industrial, or residential development.
- 2. Reliable flood-frequency data must be available for the watershed. These could be based on actual peak flow records if records were available for 10 or more years, or from synthesized data if such data were based on a rainfall-runoff model specifically calibrated from actual flood and rainfall data for that basin.
- 3. The period of actual flood data, or the period of calibration for synthesized data, must have been one of relatively constant urbanization. This was the most difficult criterion to meet, and in some cases only part of a long record could be used. As a general guideline, ''relatively constant urbanization'' was defined as a change in development of less than 50 percent during the period of record. If a basin was 30 percent urbanized at the beginning of the period of record, it could be no more than 45 percent urbanized at the end of the period.

An appraisal of all available sites resulted in a final list of 269 sites that met the selection criteria. These sites represent a broad spectrum of watershed conditions

and metropolitan areas, ranging from the East Coast to the West Coast and Hawaii. A few States, such as Illinois, Texas, and Missouri, have had extensive urban data-collection programs, as reflected by the large number of sites for which records are available in those States. Many other States, however, also are well represented. Gaging sites are included for 31 States and 56 cities or metropolitan areas. Table 1 lists cities or metropolitan areas and the number of sites used in this study. Table 1 also includes a city skew value and the source of equivalent rural discharges, which will be discussed later. Figure 1 illustrates the geographical distribution of sites.

The data compiled for each urban site includes a comprehensive list of topographic and climatic variables, land-use variables, indices of urbanization, and floodfrequency estimates. The main sources of information were as follows:

- I. Department of the Interior, U.S. Geological Survey, Water Resources Division, District Offices
	- a. Peak-discharge data
	- b. Basin characteristics
	- c. Indices of urbanization
- 2. Department of the Interior, U.S. Geological Survey, Topographic Division
	- a. Topographic maps
	- b. Land-use maps
- 3. Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service a. Land-use data
	- b. Soils data
	- c. Basin characteristics
- 4·. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census
	- a. Population data, 1970 census reports

A complete listing of the data base cannot be included in this report because of its size. The complete data base is stored on the Geological Survey computer in a "Statistical Analysis System" (SAS) data set (SAS Institute, Inc., 1979), to which access can be obtained from the Chief, Data Management Section, U.S. Geological Survey, Mail Stop 437, National Center, Reston, Va. 22092. A brief description of all variables, as well as a detailed description of the significant variables, is provided in the following paragraphs and the glossary. Appendix I contains a listing of selected data for all gaging stations used in this study. Data descriptions are subdivided into four groups: (1) topographic and climatic variables, (2) land-use variables, (3) indices of urbanization, and (4) flood-frequency estimates. Some parameters could justifiably fit in more than one of these groups but were assigned to only one group for convenience. Not all data items are available for all gaging sites, mostly because base maps were not universally available.

Most of the basin parameters, or variables, were compiled for the entire drainage basin and represent a



**Table 1.** Metropolitan areas included in nationwide urban flood-frequency study

4 Flood Characteristics of Urban Watersheds



**Table 1.** Metropolitan areas included in nationwide urban flood-frequency study-Continued

total, an average, a percentage, or an index for the total drainage basin. A few of the variables were computed for "thirds" of the basin in an attempt to define some variables further and to provide locations of basin development. For this study, some basins were divided into upper, middle, and lower thirds on a drainage map with the drainage divide delineated. Each third contains approximately one-third of the contributing drainage area and drains the upper, middle, or lower reaches of the basin. Because travel time or flow time was considered in drawing the lines separating the basin thirds distances along main streams and tributaries were marked to help locate the boundaries of the thirds. This drawing of the boundaries means not that all thirds of the basin have equal travel distances but that within each third the travel distances of two or more streams are about equal. Since precise definition of the lines dividing the basin into thirds was not considered necessary for the variables that utilize this concept, the lines can generally be drawn on the drainage map by eye, without precise measurements. Figure 2 shows schematics of three typical basin shapes and their division into thirds. Complex basin shapes and drainage patterns are sometimes encountered; they require more judgment in subdividing.

#### **Topographic and Climatic Variables**

The physical and climatic conditions existing in each basin are described by a selected set of topographic and climatic variables. Parameters of physical characteristics include drainage-area size, channel length, valley length, stream slope, storage, Soil Conservation Service (SCS) soil classification, SCS soil-cover-complex curve number, and SCS index of potential infiltration. Each basin is divided into thirds, as previously described, and dominant soil classifications are given for the upper third, middle third, and lower third of the basin. The percentage of the total basin covered by each soil type is included. The channel and drainage system efficiency is described by a coefficient estimated according to procedures defined by Espey and Winslow (1974). Bankfull discharge at each gaging station is included, and each

basin that has significant in-channel storage is identified. In-channel storage, distinguished from basin storage, is defined as temporary storage created by detention ponds or ponding at roadway embankments. Climatic variables include mean annual precipitation, rainfall intensity of the 2-hour-duration 2-year recurrence interval, and rainfall intensity of the 2-hour-duration 100-year recurrence interval.

#### **Land-Use Variables**

Land use within each drainage basin is described with two sets of land-use variables. Each set is derived from an independent source, and although similar results were obtained for most stations, there are some stations for which the two data sources yielded quite dissimilar results. No attempt was made to resolve the differences nor to indicate which was more nearly correct. Land use was not significant in the final results of this study.

The first set of land-use data was obtained from 1 :250,000 land-use maps compiled by the Geological Survey from recent high-altitude photography. Because maps are not available for all cities, these data are not available for some basins. Classifications of land use follow the standard system for remote sensing described by Anderson and others (1976) and include percentages of the basin occupied by residential areas, commercial areas, industrial areas, transportation facilities, mixed urban areas, cropland, forests, lakes and reservoirs, wetlands, rangelands, and a few other miscellaneous types of land use. Dates of the maps used are given in the data base.

The second set of land-use data was compiled from recent maps and field surveys by the Soil Conservation Service. Again, because of a lack of suitable maps for some cities, these data were not determined for some stations. Categories of land use follow the SCS classification system and include residential areas (percentages of the basin having lot sizes of  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and 1 acre are provided), paved areas, streets, industrial areas, commercial areas, forests, meadows, pasture and rangelands, cultivated lands, and open spaces.



Figure 1. Location of metropolitan areas included in the nationwide urban flood-frequency study.



Figure 2. Schematic of typical drainage basin shapes and subdivision into basin thirds. Note that stream-channel distances within any given third of a basin in the examples are approximately equal, but between basin thirds the distances are not equal, to compensate for relative basin width of the thirds.

#### Indices of Urbanization

Several parameters were evaluated for each basin in an attempt to measure the degree to which a basin had been urbanized. Among these indices are percentage of the basin occupied by impervious surfaces; population and population density determined from Census Bureau data for 1970; and basin response time, or lagtime.

Impervious area, IA, is a significant variable in some of the regression equations, particularly for low recurrence intervals. It is defined as the percentage of the drainage basin occupied by impervious surfaces. The lA variable was computed from the best available maps or aerial photographs showing buildings, streets, parking lots, and other impervious surfaces. Field inspections to supplement the maps were useful. Impervious area for this study was computed by various methods, but primarily by the grid-overlay method.

The most significant index of urbanization that resulted from this study is a basin development factor (BDF), which provides a measure of the efficiency of the drainage system. This parameter, which proved to be highly significant in the regression equations, can be easily determined from drainage maps and field inspections of the drainage basin. The basin is first divided into thirds as described earlier in this report. Then, within each third, four aspects of the drainage system are evaluated and each assigned a code as follows:

- 1. Channel improvements.-If channel improvements such as straightening, enlarging, deepening, and clearing are prevalent for the main drainage channels and principal tributaries (those that drain directly into the main channel), then a code of 1 is assigned. Any or all of these improvements would qualify for a code of 1. To be considered prevalent, at least 50 percent of the main drainage channels and principal :tributaries must be improved to some degree over natural conditions. If channel improvements are not prevalent, then a code of zero is assigned.
- 2. Channel linings.—If more than 50 percent of the length of the main drainage channels and principal tributaries has been lined with an impervious material, such as concrete, then a code of 1 is assigned to this aspect. If less than 50 percent of these channels is lined, then a code of zero is assigned. The presence of channel linings would obviously indicate the presence of channel improvements as well. Therefore, this is an added factor and indicates a more highly developed drainage system.
- 3. Storm drains, or storm sewers.—Storm drains are defined as enclosed drainage structures (usually pipes), frequently used on the secondary tributaries where the drainage is received directly from streets or parking lots. Many of these drains empty into open channels; however, in some basins they empty into channels enclosed as box or pipe culverts. When more than 50 percent of the secondary tributaries within a subarea (third) consists of storm drains, then a code of 1 is assigned to this aspect; if less than 50 percent of the secondary tributaries consists of storm drains, then a code of zero is assigned. It should be noted that if 50 percent or more of the main drainage channels and principal tributaries are enclosed, then the aspects of channel improvements and channel linings would also be assigned a code of 1.
- 4. Curb-and-gutter streets.—If more than 50 percent of a subarea (third) is urbanized (covered by residential, commercial, and/or industrial development), and if more than 50 percent of the streets and highways in the subarea are constructed with curbs and gutters, then a code of 1 would be assigned to this aspect.

Otherwise, it would receive a code of zero. Drainage from curb-and-gutter streets frequently empties into storm drains.

The above guidelines for determining the various drainage-system codes are not intended to be precise measurements. A certain amount of subjectivity will necessarily be involved. Field checking should be performed to obtain the best estimate. The basin development factor (BDF) is the sum of the assigned codes; therefore, with three subareas (thirds) per basin, and four drainage aspects to which codes are assigned in each subarea, the maximum value for a fully developed drainage system would be 12. Conversely, if the drainage system were totally undeveloped, then a BDF of zero would result. Such a condition does not necessarily mean that the basin is unaffected by urbanization. In fact, a basin could be partially urbanized, have some impervious area, have some improvement of secondary tributaries, and still have an assigned BDF of zero. As is discussed later in this report, such a condition still frequently causes peak discharges to increase.

The BDF is a fairly easy index to estimate for an existing urban basin. The 50-percent guideline will usually not be difficult to evaluate because many urban areas tend to use the same design criteria, and therefore have similar drainage aspects, throughout. Also, the BDF is convenient for projecting future development. Obviously, full development and maximum urban effects on peaks would occur when  $BDF = 12$ . Projections of full development or intermediate stages of development can usually be obtained from city engineers.

A basin development factor was evaluated for each of the 269 sites used in this study. Approximately 30 people were involved in making these evaluations, using guidelines similar to the ones described in the preceding paragraphs but somewhat less explicit. Tests have not been made to see how consistently two or more people can estimate the BDF for a basin. However, this study indicates that fairly consistent estimates can be made by different people. A relatively large group of individuals made the estimates for this study and the parameter was statistically very significant in the regression equations. If the results obtained by various individuals had not been consistent, it is doubtful that the statistical results would be so significant.

#### Flood-Frequency Estimates

Two primary sets of flood-frequency estimates (see appendix 1) for selected recurrence intervals were defined, in cubic feet per second, for each station. One set represents an estimated flood-frequency relationship for the urbanized basin during a period of constant urbanization; another represents the estimated relationship for an equivalent rural basin. For each station, peak discharge was estimated for the 2-, 5-, 10-, 25-, 50-, 100-, and 500-year recurrence intervals.

For the urbanized basin the flood-frequency estimates were derived either from actual peak discharge data or from synthesized data using a calibrated rainfallrunoff model. When both types of data were available, a weighted estimate was computed. Log-Pearson Type III procedures, as recommended by the Water Resources Council (1977), were used to fit each frequency curve to the data.

Estimation of the skew coefficient of the annual peak data for urban basins was given considerable attention because there are no recommended or generally accepted procedures available for estimating skew coefficients for urban areas. The regional skew map provided by the Water Resources Council (1977) was developed from rural data and does not necessarily represent urban conditions. Therefore, this map was not used directly for estimates of skew in the urban basins. Skew is possibly related to basin characteristics, including urban factors which probably affect the magnitude of the skew coefficient. With these considerations in mind, attempts were made to relate station skew values to various basin and urban parameters. Many parameters were tried, and the only one that showed a relation to skew was a soils index, SCSS. SCSS is computed from equation 1:

$$
SCSS = \frac{1000}{CN} - 10
$$
 (1)

where CN is the soil-cover-complex curve number as described by the Soil Conservation Service (1975). This parameter is an index of potential infiltration that could be related to the skew coefficient. The relationship defined by regression was:

$$
Gs = 0.15(SCSS) - 0.45
$$
 (2)

where Gs is the skew coefficient computed from the urban peak flow data. Even though the equation is statistically significant, the standard error of regression is approximately equal to the standard deviation of the skew values, so the equation offers little practical improvement over the use of a mean skew and consequently the relationship was not used in this study. Stations with synthesized data were also studied, and it was found that the skew coefficient computed from these data related to an infiltration index defined from the calibrated model parameters. Again, the relationship was poor and was not used to estimate the skew coefficients for this study.

To provide regional skew estimates for this study it was decided that the most practical approach would be to define an average skew value for each city or metropolitan area. For cities having three or more gaging sites, skew coefficients computed from the gaged flood records were averaged and then compared for consistency to  $(1)$  the mean skews from nearby cities,  $(2)$  the regional skew given by the Water Resources Council (1977), and (3) the mean skew defined by synthesized data if available. A skew coefficient was assigned to each metropolitan area on the basis of the computed mean and the above comparisons. These assigned city skew coefficients (see table 1) were weighted with skew coefficients computed from actual flood-peak records according to the Water Resources Council (1977). For those stations having long-term (50- to 100-year) synthetic peaks based on rainfall-runoff modeling, the skew coefficients used were computed directly from the synthesized data because these data were considered more reliable than the city average skew values.

Flood-frequency data for equivalent rural conditions at each study basin were estimated from the applicable Geological Survey flood-frequency reports. The specific report used for each city is referenced in table 1 by the author's name and date of the publication. Complete bibliographic references are given in the "References" section of this report.

Appendix II provides a listing of the most recent (1981) flood-frequency reports for all 50 States. These reports can be used to estimate the equivalent rural discharge at most sites in the United States. As future reports become available they should be used in place of the reports in this list.

In addition to the two sets of flood-frequency data thus far described, the data base also includes floodfrequency estimates based on skew computed from the actual peak record, and flood-frequency estimates computed from model-synthesized data. Related information includes log-Pearson Type III mean and standard deviation, periods of record, Water Resources Council (1977) regional skew, average city skew, and weighted station skews.

#### **ESTIMATING PROCEDURES FOR UNGAGED URBAN SITES**

The third phase of this project was to relate urban flood magnitude and frequency to watershed characteristics so that flood magnitude and frequency could be estimated for ungaged watersheds. Many attempts to derive a practical, easy-to-use method were made, most of which involved linear multiple regression of several dependent and many independent variables. This section of the report describes the more significant results. The three sets of estimating equations will be referred to as the seven-parameter equations, the three-parameter equations, and the seven-parameter alternate equations. A description of some of the models and variables that were partially successful, and even unsuccessful, is included to document the analytical efforts more fully. These models included the ratio method, the difference method, the log-Pearson Type III parameter method (method of moments), and a method described by Harley (1978).

The suitability and accuracy of each method were assessed for the purpose of recommending a practical and accurate method. Suitability was evaluated on the basis of the relative ease of application and the logic of independent variables. Accuracy was judged primarily on the basis of computed standard error of estimates. Bias, linearity, and sensitivity were tested in various ways, as described in subsequent paragraphs.

#### Selection of Data

Previous parts of this report described the data base compiled for this study, which comprises 269 urban sites. For purposes of analysis, sites were selected from the data base according to certain assumptions and the availability of specific variables. When a variable selected for a specific analysis was unavailable for a site, that site was omitted from the analysis. No attempts were made to estimate missing variables. Because of missing data, fewer than 269 sites were used for most analyses.

It was assumed that measures, or indexes, of temporary in-channel storage, or temporary detention storage, could not easily be quantified for inclusion in a statistical model of the type planned for this study. Storage of this type will be referred to in this report as detention storage, and is defined as that occurring in planned or unplanned detention areas, intentionally behind such structures as detention dams and unintentionally behind highway or railroad embankments. The peak outflow rate from these detention areas is usually less than the peak inflow rate because of the effects of storage. The distinction between detention storage and other storage, ST, in the basin is that ST is storage in the permanent lakes, reservoirs, swamps, and wetlands depicted on topographic maps.

Even though detention storage could not be easily quantified, sites were identified where such storage was believed or known to occur, and where this storage significantly reduced all or some peak discharges. A significant reduction was assumed to be about 15 percent or more. Subjective determinations were made by examining available high-water profile data, maps, bridge and highway plans, and surveys, and by making field inspections. Of the 269 sites, 204 sites were identified as not having significant detention storage, 55 as having detention storage, and the remaining 10 as unknown. All analyses were based on sites without detention storage

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to provide estimating procedures that would yield results unaffected by detention storage. More discussion regarding detention storage is given in a subsequent section of the report.

#### Seven-Parameter Estimating Equations

Peak discharges for the 2-, 5-, 10-, 25-, 50-, 100-, and 500-year urban floods were related to seven independent variables by linear multiple-regression techniques. The significant variables account for the effect of basin size, A; channel slope, SL; basin rainfall, RI2; basin storage, ST; manmade changes to the drainage system, BDF; and impervious surfaces, lA. Regional runoff variations are accounted for in the equations through the use of the equivalent rural peak discharge, RQ. A detailed description of these variables is given in the Glossary and Data Base sections of this report. The equations, which follow, can be used to estimate the magnitude of urban peak discharges at ungaged sites within the accuracy and limitations discussed in subsequent parts of this report.



The accuracy of the above equations can be expressed by two standard statistical measures, the coefficient of determination, R<sup>2</sup>, and the standard error of regression. The coefficient of determination,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , indicates the proportion of the total variation of the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables. For instance, an  $\mathbb{R}^2$  of 0.93 would indicate that 93 percent of the variation is accounted for by the independent variables. The standard error of regression is, by definition, one standard deviation on each side of the regression equation and contains about two-thirds of the data within this range. Conversely, about one-third of the data will fall outside of the standard error of regression. For example, a standard error of regression of 0.1630 log units would indicate that about two-thirds of the dependent variables used for a given regression analysis were within 0.1630 log units of the regression estimate. Converted to a percentage, this would indicate that about two-thirds of the dependent variables are within 45 percent and  $-31$  percent, or an average of  $\pm 38$  percent, of the regression estimate. The following table

shows the coefficients of determination,  $R<sup>2</sup>$ , and the standard errors of regression for equations 3-9.

Statistic	Flood characteristic							
	UQ <sub>2</sub>	UQ5		UQ10 UQ25	<b>UQ50</b>	UQ100 UQ500		
Coefficient of determination, R <sup>2</sup>	.93	.93	.93	.93	.92	.92	.90	
Standard error of regression:								
Log units	.1630	.1584	.1618	.1705	.1774	.1860	.2071	
Average percent	±38	± 37	± 38	± 40	$+42$	$+44$	±49	

Because of their suitability and accuracy, these equations provide a good method of estimating the effects of urbanization on magnitude and frequency of peak discharge. From the 269 sites available for analysis, *55* were omitted because of known detention storage, 10 were omitted because detention storage effects were uncertain, and *5* were omitted because of missing data. Therefore, the equations are derived from 199 sites. Figures 3, 4, and *5* compare the 2-year, 10-year, and 100year observed peak discharges to the respective peaks estimated from equations 3, 5, and 8.

All independent variables in equations 3-9 are statistically significant at the !-percent level with the following exceptions. The percent of impervious area, lA, was statistically significant at the !-percent level in equation 3 and at the 2-percent level in equation 4, but was not significant at the 5-percent level for equations 5-9. The change in significance of the variable lA suggests that impervious area in a basin will effectively increase runoff (primarily volumes) for low-order floods, but will rapidly become less effective during large floods when soils become saturated and approach a runoff conditipn similar to that produced by impervious surfaces. Even though lA is not highly significant for equations 5-9, it was retained to provide continuity with equations 3 and 4. Storage, ST, and slope, SL, for equations 8 and 9 were significant at the 2-percent level.

The most significant variable in each of the equations is the equivalent rural discharge, RQ, because it is closely related to the urban peak discharge. Rural discharge is the key for explaining geographical variations in runoff in different parts of the country. Consequently, the equations are suitable for use in urban areas throughout the United States, with no expected geographical bias. The tests made to substantiate this conclusion are



Figure 3. Comparison of observed 2-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 3.



Figure 4. Comparison of observed 10-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 5.

described in the section "Verification and testing of regression equations.''

The second most significant variable is the basin development factor, BDF. This variable is somewhat subjective, but seems very effective in explaining variations in urban peak discharges. BDF is derived from a matrix of codes which not only define the degree of drainage development for the entire basin on a scale of 0 to 12, but also provide a location of development. The present study did not yield any usable results which would show the effects of location of development, because possibly these effects may be small compared to other uncertainties and lack of precision in the data. BDF is used on a reverse scale  $(13 - BDF)$  in the equations because it was found that by doing so the linearity of the equation was greatly improved and the standard error was reduced.

Contributing drainage area, A, was highly significant and was the third most significant variable in all equations. The high degree of significance of A implies that a given amount of urbanization will affect small basins differently from large basins. The other variablesslope (SL), rainfall intensity (RI2), storage (ST), and impervious area (IA)—were all much less significant than RQ, BDF, and A, but in total offered enough improvement to warrant inclusion in the equations. The constants added to RI2 and ST are logarithmic scale adjustments which were determined by trial and error procedures. These constants improve linearity of the regression equations and minimize the standard error of estimate. In the case of storage, ST, the addition of the 8-percent constant may suggest that the storage variable is inadequate for expressing the total storage effect in a basin. The method of measuring ST does not account for such factors as depression storage or small ponds. The average value of these unmeasured quantities may be indirectly expressed in the 8-percent constant. In addition, the 8-percent constant has the advantage of reducing sensitivity in the lower range of storage, where a small change in storage may produce unrealistic changes in discharge. The same applies to other variables where constants are added. Slope, SL, is limited to an upper value of 70 feet per mile (ft/mi). For channels having a slope greater than 70 ft/mi, the value of 70 ft/mi was used. This limitation was found to be effective in reducing the standard error of regression, and is logical in that very steep slopes may not cause significant increases in peak discharge.



Figure 5. Comparison of observed 100-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 8.

#### Three-Parameter Estimating Equations

$$
UQ500 = 7.47A^{-16}(13 - BDF)^{-30}RQ500^{-82}
$$
 (16)

Equations 3-9 contain seven independent variables which offered a good method of estimating magnitude and frequency of floods on ungaged urban basins. Droping the less significant variables from these equations increases the standard error of regression, but also greatly reduces the amount of data and effort required for application. The following three-parameter equations, which include only the independent variables RQ, BDF, and A, can be used to estimate urban peak discharges for ungaged sites.

$$
UQ2 = 13.2A^{-21}(13 - BDF)^{-0.43}RQ2^{-73}
$$
 (10)

$$
UQ5 = 10.6A^{-17}(13 - BDF)^{-39}RQ5^{-78}
$$
 (11)

$$
UQ10 = 9.51A^{-16}(13 - BDF)^{-.36}RQ10^{-79}
$$
 (12)

$$
UQ25 = 8.68A^{-15}(13 - BDF)^{-34}RQ25^{80}
$$
 (13)

$$
UQ50 = 8.04A^{-15}(13 - BDF)^{-32}RQ50^{-81}
$$
 (14)

$$
UQ100 = 7.70A^{-15}(13 - BDF)^{-32}RQ100^{-82}
$$
 (15)

Coefficient of determination,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and standard errors of regression follow.



The three-parameter equations, 10-16, were based on the same 199 sites used to develop equations 3-9. Although the standard error of regression is more than for equations 3-9, equations 10-16 are easier to apply, and it will be shown in a subsequent section of this report

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that the standard errors of prediction for the two sets of equations are comparable. Figures 6, 7, and 8 graphically compare the observed 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year peak discharges, respectively, to the peak discharges estimated from equations 10, 12, and 15.

#### **Seven-Parameter Alternate Estimating Equations**

A third set of estimating equations, the sevenparameter alternate equations, was developed by including lagtime  $(LT)$  as an independent variable. This variable is available for 170 sites where in-channel or detention storage is insignificant. Six sites had missing data; therefore, the equations are based on 164 sites, fewer than the number used for equations 3-16.

- $UQS = 0.80A^{-4}SL^{-12}(RI2 + 3)^{1.79}(LT + 2)^{-22}(13 BDF)^{-24}[A^{-18}RQ2^{-52}]$  (17)
- $UQS = 1.12A^{.42}SL^{12}(RI2 + 3)^{1.75}(LT + 2)^{-.27}(13-BDF)^{-.22}IA^{.14}RQS^{.53}$  (18)
- $UQ10 = 1.42A^{41}SL^{32}(RI2 + 3)^{1.66}(LT + 2)^{-30}(13 BDF)^{-31}IA^{31}RQ10^{35}$  (19)
- $UQ25 = 1.59A^{40}SL^{13}(RI2 + 3)^{1.62}(LT + 2)^{-32}(13 BDF)^{-20}IA^{09}RQ25^{36}$  (20)
- 

 $UQ500 = 2.58A^{39}SL^{12}(RI2+3)^{1.37}(LT+2)^{-36}(13-BDF)^{-20}[A^{04}RQ500^{-61} (23)$ 

Coefficient of determination,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and standard errors of regression follow.



The standard errors of regression for equations 17-23 are lower than for the seven-parameter equations  $UQ50 = 1.89A^{39}SL^{13}(RI2 + 3)^{1.5}(LT + 2)^{-31}(13 - BDF)^{-30}IA^{30}RQ50^{39}$  (21) 3-9. The lower standard error of regression is attributed



OBSERVED DISCHARGE, IN CUBIC FEET PER SECOND

Figure 6. Comparison of observed 2-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 10.

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Figure 7. Comparison of observed 10-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 12.

partly to the deletion of shorter record crest-stage stations from the data set. By using the same 164 sites to recalibrate the seven-parameter equations 3-9, it was found that the standard error of regression was almost identical to that for equations 17-23. Based on this comparison it can be assumed that the seven-parameter alternate equations 17-23 and the seven-parameter equations 3-9 are about equal in accuracy of prediction. Figures 9, 10, and 11 graphically compare the observed 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year peak discharges, respectively, to the peak discharges estimated from equations 17, 19, and 22.

Equations 17-23 are more difficult to apply than equations 3-9. Most of the variables are the same in both sets of equations and the basic discussion described in the section for the seven-parameter equations applies. The variable LT, however, is not easily determined and requires access to both rainfall and runoff hydrograph data applicable to the basin. A reliable determination of LT should be based on at least 4 to  $6$  storms of varying magnitude. The calculations are tedious if done manually. It is recommended that actual rainfall and runoff data be used to estimate LT; if these data are not available, equations 17-23 should not be used. The section of

this report on "Estimating Basin Lagtime" discusses the relationship of lagtime to basin characteristics. These relationships could be used to derive an estimate of LT for use in equations  $17-23$ , but such an estimate is not recommended because the error introduced by estimated LT negates any advantage gained from using equations 17-23.

The introduction of lagtime in the regression analysis resulted in storage, ST, becoming statistically insignificant. Slope, SL, was significant at the 5-percent level for the low-order floods (2-year through 10-year) and became insignificant at higher levels, but was retained in the equations for continuity. All other variables were significant at the 1-percent level, with the three most important variables being RQ, BDF, and A, in that order.

#### Correlation ·of Significant Variables

Regression analysis assumes that variables in the regression equation which explain the variation of another variable are independent of one another, hence the term "independent" variable. The variable being explained is termed the "dependent" variable. When



Figure 8. Comparison of observed 100-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 15.

independent variables are not fully independent, that is, when they are intercorrelated, tests for significance in the regression analysis may not be accurate, and in some instances the resulting equations may not be valid. For instance, if two independent variables are high correlated, the regression analysis will divide their effect on the dependent variable, thus reducing the significance of each. The danger of this effect is that one or both of the variables may seem, erroneously, to be statistically insignificant. Table 2 is a correlation matrix of significant variables used in this study. In this table, a correlation coefficient of zero would indicate complete independence of two variables, whereas a coefficient of 1.00 represents total dependence. Negative values indicate inverse correlations. Some of the independent variables in table 2 show relatively high intercorrelations (0.5 to 0.7). Separate analyses were made to remove the intercorrelation of such selected variables as X and RQ. The resulting regression equations were unchanged, and the tests for significance showed either the same or slightly higher significance. It was concluded, therefore, that the regression equations are valid, and that all independent variables are significant for explaining the variation of the dependent variables.

## Limitations of Significant Variables

For use in estimating equations described in this report, the effective usable range of basin and climatic variables is as follows. If values outside these ranges are used, the standard error may be considerably higher than for sites where all variables are within the specified range.



•Maximum value of slope for use in equations is 70 ft/mi, although numerous watersheds used in this study had SL values up to SOO ft/mi.



Figure 9. Comparison of observed 2-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 17.

$\mathsf{A}$	<b>SL</b>	$R12 + 3$	$ST + 8$	LT.	IA	$13 - BDF$	L	RQ5	RQ100	UQ5	<b>UQ100</b>
$A$ 1.00	$-.62$	.38	.23	.76	$-.40$	.23	.96	.71	.67	.74	.69
	SL 1.00	$-.42$	$-.34$	$-.53$	.36	$-.11$	$-.58$	$-.30$	$-.22$	$-.34$	$-.27$
	$RI2 + 3$ 1.00		.00	.12	$-.16$	.08	$-.35$	.65	.62	.63	.61
		$ST + 8$ 1.00		.52	$-.16$	.18	.25	$-.15$	$-.17$	$-.15$	$-.17$
				1.00 LT	$-.50$	.42	.75	.30	.27	.31	.28
					IA 1.00	$-.49$	$-.37$	$-.11$	$-.06$	$-.06$	$-.04$
					$13 - BDF$	1.00	.23	.14	.11	$-.02$	$-.02$
							1.00 L	.66	.63	.68	.64
							RQ5	1.00	.98	.94	.93
								<b>RQ100</b>	1.00	.93	.94
									UQ5	1.00	.98
										<b>UQ100</b>	1.00

Table 2. Correlation matrix for significant variables

[All variables are in log units]

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Figure 10. Comparison of observed 10-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 19.

#### Other Independent Variables

The regression analyses and other techniques which will be described later in this report, utilize various basin and climatic variables which proved logical and statistically significant. During this study, many other independent variables were tried and found to offer little or nothing toward improvement of the estimating equations. In some cases the variables were highly correlated to each other and a choice of one was made, usually of the one more easily determined or readily available. The following discussion is intended to describe briefly some of the independent variables which were tried but found to be statistically insignificant; however, these variables are potentially significant and should be considered in future studies.

Two independent sets of land-use data were available for many sites, one set from maps compiled from USGS high-altitude photography and the other from SCS maps and field surveys. No consistently significant parameters were derived from either of these sets of data. Those investigated included percentage of the basin occupied by various land uses such as residential, commercial, industrial, water bodies, and total urbanized. Impervious area was estimated from land-use data by using various distributions of imperviousness, but these did not prove as useful as the variable lA.

Soil data were available for most sites, and in a few instances some of the variables, such as percentage of soil type A and soil typeD, and the potential infiltration, SCSS, were significant. For the most part, however, the use of hydrologic soil classifications, soil-covercomplex-curve numbers, and potential infiltration indexes did not significantly reduce standard errors.

Population data were used to compute population density of the whole or parts of each basin. These were not highly significant. Harley ( 1978) and Stankowski (1974) proposed equations for estimating impervious area from population data. These were tried and not found highly significant. In addition, population data are difficult to determine and therefore less practical than others that accomplish the same results.

It is probable that some of the land use, soils, and topographic variables are significant and do explain some of the hydrologic variations. Methods of estimating these parameters are sometimes crude, or are based on



Figure 11. Comparison of observed 100-year urban peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 22.

poor maps or other data. Parameter estimation most likely will improve as new sources of information, such as digitized satellite imagery and digitized maps, become available. Future studies should explore the use of such information.

#### Other Methods and Models

This part of the report is included to show the applicability or inapplicability of four other methods, or models, used by other investigators. Although these methods do not work as well on a nationwide basis as the equations previously described, one should not infer from this discussion that the methods are not valid. If the methods are calibrated on a local basis, they may provide very reliable results. However, on a nationwide basis, the previously described equations are preferable.

#### Ratio Method

The concept of the ratio method is that basin and urban parameters are correlated with the ratio of the urban peak discharge to the equivalent rural peak dis-

charge. The equivalent rural peak discharge is defined in a previous section of this report. The ratio method has been used or proposed by several investigators (see section "Literature review") and has proved quite useful for estimating the effects of urbanization on peak discharges. Numerous attempts to relate the urban/rural ratio to various parameters on a nationwide basis were tried and at best were only partially successful. Direct regression methods resulted in a relation in which only BDF and lA were statistically significant, and lA had an inappropriate negative regression coefficient. Furthermore, the standard error for this relation was greater than that for the seven-parameter and three-parameter equations. However, an indirect approach was used to develop a relationship similar to the graphic curves described by Leopold (1968). The analysis uses the sevenparameter equations, 3-9, as the basic underlying relation. In these equations, if BDF is set to zero, and lA to 1 percent, rural conditions are approximated and the computed value of UQ is an estimate of RQ. This estimate will be designated as RQ2e, RQlOe, and so forth. For example, performing this operation on equations 3, *5,* and 8 results in the following equations for values of RQ2e, RQlOe, and RQlOOe:

 $RO2e = 1.034A^{-41}SL^{-17}(RI2 + 3)^{2.04}(ST + 8)^{-.65}RO2^{-47}$  $(24)$ 

 $RQ10e = 1.384A^{32}SL^{15}(R12+3)^{1.75}(ST+8)^{-.57}RQ10^{38}$  $(25)$ 

 $RQ100e = 1.220A^{-29}SL^{-15}(R12+3)^{1.76}(ST+8)^{-52}RQ100^{-63}$  (26)

This assumption was tested by applying equations 24, 25, and 26 to all 199 sites used in the regression analysis. Individual sites show variations between the estimated rural peaks computed from equations 24, 25, and 26 and the equivalent rural peaks, but the variations are not large, and on the average the assumption appears valid. Figures 12, 13, and 14 graphically compare the estimated rural peaks to the equivalent rural peaks for the 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year recurrence intervals. This assumption should not be used, however, to justify using equations 24-26 to estimate rural peak discharges. The equations require an independent estimate of RO which is preferable to the one computed from equations 24-26. The assumption was made only for the purpose of developing a UQ/RQ ratio. The ratio for the 2-year recurrence interval is computed by dividing equation 3 by equation 24 as follows:

<sup>1</sup>SL<sup>17</sup>(RI2+3)<sup>2.04</sup>(ST+8)<sup>-.65</sup>(13 - BDF)<sup>-.32</sup>IA<sup>15</sup>RQ2<sup>-47</sup><br>1.034A<sup>-41</sup>SL<sup>17</sup>(RI2+3)<sup>2.04</sup>(ST+8)<sup>-.65</sup>RQ2<sup>-47</sup>  $U<sub>O</sub>2$  $2.53A$  $\overline{RO2e}$ 

This equation simplifies to:

$$
\frac{UQ2}{RQ2e} = 2.27(13 - BDF)^{-.32}(IA)^{-15}
$$
 (27)

Similar derivations can be made for the other recurrence intervals. For this report only the 2-year. 10-year, and 100-year equations are discussed. The 10-year and 100-year equations are as follows:

$$
\frac{UQ10}{UQ10e} = 2.16(13 - BDF)^{-.30} (IA)^{-09}
$$
 (28)

$$
\frac{UQ100}{RO100e} = 2.05(13 - BDF)^{-.28} (IA)^{.06}
$$
 (29)

The ratios computed from equations 27-29 were compared to actual ratios derived from the base data,





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Figure 13. Comparison of equivalent 10-year rural peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 25.

and each equation was found to have an average standard error of estimate of about  $\pm 50$  percent. This error is somewhat higher than the errors of the seven-parameter and three-parameter equations; however, equations 27-29 can be used for approximating the ratio of urban to equivalent rural peak discharges.

Equations 27-29 are readily adaptable to graphical presentation similar to that given by Leopold (1968). Impervious area is one of the same variables used by Leopold, and BDF is analgous to his "storm sewers" parameter. Figures 15-17 illustrate the graphical results of equations 27-29, respectively.

By converting the ordinate scale in figure 15 to percentage (assuming a BDF of 12 equals 100 percent), a crude comparison to Leopold's curves can be made. This is shown in figure 18 for the 2-year recurrence interval. It is obvious that a similarity exists, but whereas Leopold gave nearly equal weight to the two independent variables, the present analysis gives much less weight to impervious area (lA).

The curves given by Leopold approach a maximum (full-development) urban/rural ratio of about 7. The curves developed from equation 27, as shown in figure 18, approach a full-development ratio of about 4.5. It should be pointed out that the curves in figure 18 are average conditions. Through the use of the sevenparameter equations, 3-9, full-development urban/rural ratios can be computed and these ratios will have considerable variation. The urban/rural ratio is influenced by several of the independent basin parameters. For some basins the seven-parameter equations will show full-development ratios greater than 7, while others will show ratios less than 4.5. To illustrate these relationships, full-development urban/rural ratios were computed for 199 stations used in this study by dividing the estimated full-development 2-year urban peak, UQ2, by the 2-year equivalent rural discharge, RQ2. The estimated full-development 2-year urban peak was computed from equation 3 by assuming  $BDF = 12$  and  $IA = 100$ percent for each of the 199 stations.

Figure 19 relates the full-development urban/rural ratio to drainage-area size, A. The plot indicates little or no trend, presumably implying that the ratio does not vary with drainage area size. This may not be a realistic



Figure 14. Comparison of equivalent 100-year rural peak discharge to peak discharge estimated from equation 26.

conclusion because of the assumption of 100-percent imperviousness. It is not likely that the large basins would ever approach this condition.

Figure 20 relates the full-development urban/rural ratio to channel slope, SL. This plot seems to show that the ratio decreases as slope increases, indicating that urbanization in steeply sloped basins will have less effect on peak discharges than in flatter basins. Intuitively, this seems logical. That three stations have ratios greater than 10 would seem to refute this conclusion; however, other factors may be exerting a greater influence on these stations.

Figure 21 relates the full-development urban/rural ratio to rainfall intensity, RI2. A first glance at this plot suggests a definite trend, indicating that the ratio decreases in areas where rainfall intensity is the greatest. However, this first interpretation is greatly influenced by the three points having ratios greater than 10. If these three points were removed, the indicated trend would be much less, and one might even conclude no trend exists. Intuitively it would seem logical that urbanization would have a greater effect on peak discharges in regions of low rainfall intensity.

Figure 22 relates the full-development urban/rural ratio to basin storage, ST. The trend is slight, but indicates that ratios logically decrease in basins where storage is the greatest.

Figure 23 relates the full-development urban/rural ratio to the equivalent rural discharge, RQ2. This plot indicates that the urban/rural ratio decreases as the rural discharge increases. Urbanization in basins where equivalent rural discharge is relatively small will have more effect than in basins where the equivalent rural discharge is relatively large.

The plots in figures 19-23 can only be used to show general relationships and are not intended to be used to estimate peak discharges in urban areas. There obviously exist more complex interrelationships which cannot be shown with plots of this type.

Although equations 27-29 could be used as estimating techniques, the user should be aware that several assumptions are involved, and that accuracy is not as good as in the previously described regression equations. The ratio method is logical and easy to use, and could be used for planning and for approximating an increase in rural peak discharge.



Figure. 15. Relation of urban/rural 2-year peak-flow ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to basin development factor and impervious area.

#### Difference Method

The concept of the difference method is that the difference between  $UQ$  and  $RQ$  ( $UQ - RQ$ ) can be related to basin and urban variables. The main problem encountered in trying to develop a technique based on this concept was that many of the sites showed negative differences. After numerous unsuccessful calibration attempts and no significant results, the method was deemed impractical.

#### Method of Moments

The log-Pearson Type III frequency distribution is the method recommended by the Water Resources Council (1977) for fitting flood-frequency curves to annual peak-flow data. This method was used to derive basic frequency data used in this project. The log-Pearson Type III equation contains three statistical variables, or "moments"; the mean, X; the standard deviation, S; and the skew coefficient, Gs. If these three variables could be estimated for a basin from the physical and climatological characteristics of that basin, then the log-Pearson Type III equation could be used as an estimating procedure for flood magnitude and frequency. Attempts to relate the skew coefficient to basin characteristics are described in the section "Flood-Frequency Estimates." Since these resolutions were judged to be poor, average skew values were assigned to each city as an alternative, as given in table 1. The mean,  $X$ , can be related to basin characteristics with an equation similar to equation 3, and with similar accuracy. The standard deviation, S, was related to basin characteristics by loglinear multiple regression analysis. Two estimating equations of about equal accuracy are worth reporting:

$$
S = 0.50 \frac{R1100^{96}RQ100^{19}(13 - BDF)^{11}}{R12^{.83}RQ2^{.20}}
$$
 (30)

$$
S = 0.52 \frac{R1100^{1.11} SL^{-04} (13 - BDF)^{08}}{R12^{1.00}}
$$
 (31)

In equation 30, it should be noted that the ratio Rll 00 *96* /RI2 83 is a measure of the slope of the rainfallintensity curve, and that the ratio  $RQ100^{19}/RQ2^{20}$  is a measure of the slope of the rural flood-frequency curve. In equation 31 the slope index, SL, replaces the rural discharges RQ100 and RQ2.

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Figure 16. Relation of urban/rural 10-year peak -flow ratio (UQ10/RQ10) to basin development factor and impervious area.

All of the variables are previously defined. The coefficients of determination,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , of equations 30 and 31 are .35 and .25, respectively, and the standard errors of regression are .0770 and .0823 log units, or an average of  $\pm$  18 and  $\pm$  19 percent, respectively. The independent variables are all statistically significant at the 1-percent level of significance except slope, SL, which is significant at the 3-percent level.

Using the city skew coefficients to estimate Gs; equation 3 to estimate the mean, X; and equation 30 to estimate the standard deviation, S; log-Pearson Type III estimates of the 10- and 100-year flood peaks were made for 199 stations and compared to the observed values. The standard errors of estimate were .184 and .227 log units  $(\pm 44$  percent and  $\pm 55$  percent), respectively. These errors are somewhat higher than those of the seven-parameter, three-parameter, and seven-parameter alternate equations, and the method is not as easily applied.

#### Harley Method

Harley (1978) suggested a set of basin parameters that should logically explain the variations in peak rate

of runoff between different basins and different geographical areas. These parameters are (1) an index of local runoff volume, E, in inches, based on the 2-hour, 25-year rainfall intensity and the SCS soil-cover-complex curve number; (2) an index of impervious area, K, based on a conversion equation suggested by Carter (1961); (3) a ratio (RH, which varies with percentage of imperviousness) of the mean annual flood to other recurrenceinterval floods; (4) the drainage-basin size, A; (5) the drainage-basin response time, LT, defined as lagtime; and (6) an index of storage, ST, defined as the percentage of surface storage in the basin.

Data for 140 sites were available for evaluation of the parameters in Harley's suggested equation. Of the 204 sites known to be free of significant detention storage, 59 could not be used because of missing values for SCS data or lagtime, and *5* were missing other data. Measured values of lagtime and impervious area were used in place of the estimated values suggested by Harley. The index of local runoff, E, was computed using SCS (1975) procedures for estimating runoff depths for storms of specified recurrence intervals. A log-linear multiple-regression analysis was used to calibrate Harley's equation for the 2-year recurrence interval, and the



Figure 17. Relation of urban/rural 100-year peak-flow ratio (UQ100/RQ100) to basin development factor and impervious area.

following equation was derived:

$$
UQ2 = 154E^{.24}K^{1.34}A^{.96}LT^{-.49}ST^{-.18}
$$
 (32)

The coefficient of determination, R*2,* is 0.83 for the above equation, and the standard error of regression is 0.2099 log units, or an average of  $\pm 50$  percent.

According to Harley's procedure, floods for larger recurrence intervals would be estimated by multiplying the 2-year event, UQ2, by the ratio, RH. This procedure was tested and resulted in a standard error of estimate of about  $\pm 62$  percent for the 100-year recurrence interval.

Equation 32 is logical and follows the basic form suggested by Harley; however, some of the exponents are considerably different from those that Harley proposed. These differences resulted from calibration of the equation to provide a least-squares fit and a minimum variance between estimated and observed values of the dependent variable. Direct use of Harley's suggested equation with the 199 sites would result in a larger standard error of estimate than that shown above. The equation is difficult to use because of the computation of the runoff index, E, and lagtime, LT. Statistically better results can be obtained by using the previously described seven-parameter, three-parameter, or seven-parameter alternate equations.

#### Verification and Testing of Regression Equations

Several tests were made to establish the soundness of the seven- and three-parameter regression equations. These tests included split-sample analysis and bias and sensitivity tests. The results of each of these tests are described briefly in the following paragraphs. Because the seven-parameter alternate equations are basically similar to the seven-parameter equations, some of the tests were not made for the former.

#### Split-Sample Analysis

The relative accuracy of the various equations given in this report is judged by the standard error of regression, a measure of how well the regression equations will estimate the dependent variable at the sites used to calibrate them. The standard error of prediction, on the other hand, is a measure of how well the regression equations will estimate the dependent variable at



Figure 18. Comparison of urban/rural 2-year peak-flow ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to Leopold (1968) curves.

other than calibration sites. Standard error of prediction is usually greater than standard error of regression. A split-sample analysis of the 199 data sites was made to estimate the magnitude of the average prediction error, and to determine whether the same basic variables were significant. The sites were divided into two groups of about equal size following a systematic procedure to avoid bias. The sites were listed numerically by station number and were assigned alternately to the first or the second group. Multiple-regression analysis performed separately on each group yielded new regression equations very similar to the seven-parameter equations; however in one group the variables SL, ST, and lA were not statistically significant. By using the new regression equations from the first group to estimate flood peaks in the second group, and vice versa, it was found that for the seven-parameter equations the average prediction error is 6 to 9 percent greater than the regression error. Similar tests performed on the three-parameter equations indicate that the average prediction error for that group

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of equations is 1 to 3 percent greater than the regression error. These tests indicate that in terms of prediction error the three-parameter equations are about as accurate as the seven-parameter equations. Table 3 compares the regression errors and average prediction errors for the 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year recurrence intervals.

Table 3. Comparison of average standard error of regression and average standard error of prediction

Recurrence		Average standard error of regression (percent)	Average standard error of prediction (percent)			
interval (years)	7-parameter equations	3-parameter equations	7-parameter equations	3-parameter equations		
--------	±38	±43	$+44$	$+44$		
10.	±38	±41	±45	± 43		
100.	$+44$	+46	± 53	$+49$		



Figure 19. Relation of full-development urban/rural ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to drainage area size.

**Bias Testing** 

Two tests for bias were performed, one for parameter bias and another for geographical bias. The tests were made at the 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year recurrence intervals for the seven-parameter, the threeparameter, and the seven-parameter alternate equations.

The parameter-bias tests were made by plotting the residuals (the differences between observed and estimated discharges for a specified recurrence interval) against each independent variable for all stations. These plots were inspected visually to determine if overestimation or underestimation was consistently occurring within the range of any of the independent variables. These plots also verified the linearity assumptions of the equations. The equations were found to be free of parameter bias throughout the range of all independent variables.

Geographical bias was tested by plotting estimated against observed discharges by recurrence interval and by city or metropolitan area. The plots were inspected visually to determine if the equations consistently overestimated or underestimated discharges in any of the cities. Where there were fewer than three or four stations in a city, this test might not be conclusive; in such cases the residuals were compared to the standard error of regression. Because these tests indicated no consistent overestimation or underestimation in any of the cities, it can be concluded that little or no geographical bias exists. The inclusion of the equivalent rural discharge as an independent parameter in the equations probably accounts for regional differences in hydrology and therefore significantly reduces or eliminates geographical bias.

#### **Sensitivity Testing**

The basin and climatic parameters in the regression equations must be computed or estimated from maps, observations, and other data. These are all subject to errors in measurement and judgment. To illustrate the effect of such errors, one of the seven-parameter regression equations was tested to determine how much error was introduced into the computed urban peak discharge from specified percentage errors in the independent variables. Such tests are referred to as sensitivity tests. Even though only one regression equation (eq 9) was



Figure 20. Relation of full-development urban/rural ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to channel slope. Slope = 70 ft/mi is maximum value used for computation in equations.

tested for sensitivity, it can be seen that the other equations, including the three-parameter and seven-parameter alternate equations, have relatively the same sensitivity because their regression coefficients are relatively the same.

The sensitivity of the 100-year estimated peak discharge to errors in the independent variables used in equation 9 is illustrated in table 4. Table 4 is derived by assuming all variables are constant except the one being tested for sensitivity. That variable is assumed to contain an error ranging from  $+50$  percent to  $-50$  percent. For example, assume that slope, SL, contains an error of +30 percent. Then the effect on computed urban peak discharge would be  $+4.0$  percent.

For the variables RI2 and ST it is necessary to evaluate the error at different levels because of the constant added to each of these variables. If the true value of each of these two variables is small, then an error of a given percentage will have significantly less effect than if the true value is large. For example, if the true value of RI2 is 0.2 and the value used for RI2 in equation 9 is 50 percent less, or 0.1, then the computed urban peak

28 Flood Characteristics of Urban Watersheds discharge would be in error by  $-5.4$  percent. However, if the same  $-50$  percent error occurs when the true value of RI2 is 2.8, then the computed urban peak discharge will be  $-38.5$  percent in error. The constant of 3 added to RI2 has the advantage of reducing sensitivity in the lower range of RI2, where a small change may produce unrealistic changes in discharge.

The effect of an error in the basin development factor, BDF, is illustrated in table 5. BDF is a discrete (not continuous) number; therefore any error can occur only as an integer. Table 5 shows the effect on the urban peak discharge when BDF is small (BDF = 2) and when BDF is large (BDF = 10). Note that when BDF is large, small errors will have significantly more effect than when it is small. This is also illustrated in figure 24, which shows that the ratio of urban to rural peak discharge changes much more rapidly at high values of BDF. The curves in figure 24 were developed from station data and represent average conditions for the 2-year and 100-year recurrence intervals. These curves should not be used to estimate the urban/rural ratio of specific sites because inherent error is large.



Figure 21. Relation of full-development urban/rural ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to rainfall intensity.

					Independent variable						
Percent error in independent variable	Percent error in computed urban discharge										
	A	<b>SL</b>	R12 small values	R12 large values	<b>ST</b> small values	ST large values	IA	RQ100			
$50$ --------	12.5	6.3	5.6	46.3	$-2.8$	$-12.0$	2.5	29.1			
$30$ --------	7.9	4.0	3.3	26.9	$-1.7$	$-7.7$	1.6	18.0			
$10$ --------	2.8	1.4	1.1	8.7	$-0.6$	$-2.8$	0.6	6.2			
$-10$ --------	$-3.0$	$-1.6$	$-1.1$	$-8.3$	0.6	3.0	$-0.6$	$-6.4$			
$-30$ --------	$-9.8$	$-5.2$	$-3.3$	$-24.1$	1.8	9.9	$-2.1$	$-20.1$			
$-50$ --------	$-18.2$	$-9.9$	$-5.4$	$-38.5$	3.0	18.4	$-4.1$	$-35.4$			

Table 4. Sensitivity of 100-year computed urban peak discharge to errors in independent variables

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Figure 22. Relation of full-development urban/rural ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to storage.



Table 5. Sensitivity of 100-year computed urban peak discharge to errors in the basin development factor, BDF

It should be noted that quite often the interrelationship of some variables will alter the results of table 4. For instance, an error in one independent variable may cause a corresponding error in another one. The most obvious case is the relation between A and RQ. The rural discharge, RO, is usually estimated from a relation containing A as an independent variable. If A contains an error, then RQ would likewise contain an error. A common relation between A and RQ is one in which  $RQ = f(A<sup>a</sup>)$ , and the exponent *a* is commonly in the range of 0.6 to 0.8. To illustrate the compound error

that might occur, assume that  $RQ = f(A^{0.7})$ . Introducing errors in A will cause a compounded error effect on the computed urban peak discharge. Table 6 illustrates these errors. For example, if an error of  $+10$  percent exists in A, the corresponding error in RQ100 will be  $+6.9$  percent, and the compound error in the computed urban peak discharge will be  $+7.2$  percent. Other interrelationships of the independent variables will result in additional compounding of errors, and in some cases in compensating errors.

Table 6. Compound error resulting from interrelation of drainage area size and 100-year rural peak discharge

Percent error in drainage-area size	Percent error in RQ100 if $RQ100 - f(A^{0.7})$	Compound error in 100-year urban peak discharge
$50$ ------------	32.8	34.5
$30$ ------------	20.2	21.1
10 ------------	6.9	7.2
- 10 ------------	$-7.1$	$-7.4$
- 30 ------------	$-22.1$	$-23.0$
- 50 ------------	$-38.4$	$-39.8$



Figure 23. Relation of full-development urban/rural ratio (UQ2/RQ2) to equivalent rural discharge.



Figure 24. Average relations of urban/rural ratios to basin development factor, BDF, for 2-year and 100-year floods.

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#### Urban Peaks Less Than Equivalent Rural Peaks

It is apparent from the data base that all or part of the observed urban flood-frequency curve for some sites is below the equivalent rural flood-frequency curve. As might be expected, this situation occurs more frequently at high recurrence intervals. Of the 269 sites in this study, 22 percent of the urban observed-frequency curves are below the equivalent rural frequency curve at the 100-year level, and 12 percent are below at the 2-year level. This condition is sometimes caused by timesampling errors in the data and (or) modeling errors in the flood-frequency estimates; however, it occurs frequently enough to suggest that it may not always be the result of these errors. Some of the effects of urbanization were described in the Literature Review section of this report, where it is suggested that factors such as detention storage and location of urbanization, can reduce peak discharges. These and other unidentified urban effects can explain the reduction of flood peaks for some sites. The percentages just mentioned include sites identified as having detention storage.

Tests of the seven-parameter and three-parameter equations were made to determine if the equations ever estimated urban peaks as less than the equivalent rural peaks. Estimation of urban peaks for selected recurrence intervals at the 199 sites used in the initial calibration showed that at 7-8 percent of the sites, the estimated urban peaks were slightly lower than the equivalent rural peaks. In almost all of these cases, however, the differences were insignificant. Figures 25-27 graphically compare the urban peak discharges estimated by the seven-parameter equation to the equivalent rural peak discharges for the 2-year, 10-year, and 100-year recurrence intervals, respectively. Similar comparisons were observed for the three-parameter equations.

#### Effects of Detention Storage

Temporary in-channel, or detention, storage tends to reduce peak discharges. For this reason, and because a quantitative measure of detention storage was not defined, it was decided to omit from the regression analysis all *55* stations identified as having significant detention storage. The estimating equations described in previous sections were calibrated without the data from these *55* stations, and therefore represent conditions relatively free of the effects of detention storage. These



Figure 25. Comparison of estimated 2-year urban peak discharge to 2-year equivalent rural peak discharge.



Figure 26. Comparison of estimated 10-year urban peak discharge to 10-year equivalent rural peak discharge.

equations were used to estimate urban frequency curves at 52 of the 55 sites (3 could not be used because some basin indexes were not available). Comparing the observed frequency curve to the regression-equation estimates approximated the effect of detention storage. (See figure 28.)

Figure 28 shows an average relation between the peak discharge estimated by the seven-parameter equations and that observed at sites where detention storage is believed to be significant. Average curves are shown for the 2-year and for the 10-year-and-greater recurrence intervals. These curves are for average storage effects as defined by the available data in this study, and are not intended to be used for making detention-storage adjustments. Individual sites will vary in extent of detention storage, and the net effect could be considerably more or less than indicated by these curves. The recommended way to determine the effect of detention storage at a specific site is to use reservoir- and channel-routing techniques, which are beyond the scope of this report.

#### **Estimating Basin Lagtime**

Many investigators have studied the response

time, or lagtime, of storm runoff. Lagtime, LT, is generally defined as the time from center-of-mass of rainfall excess to center-of-mass shown on the resultant runoff hydrograph. When basins are modifed by impervious cover and channel changes, LT usually becomes shorter. Most investigators have related LT to basin length, L, and main channel slope, SL, with the independent variable taking the form  $L/\sqrt{SL}$ . Separate curves of relation are usually defined for different degrees of basin development, such as fully developed, partially developed, or undeveloped. The difficulty with using that kind of relation is that the degree of development is fairly subjective and open to diverse interpretations.

For this study, a log-linear multiple-regression analysis of 170 stations with measured LT was used to define the following equation for lagtime:

 $LT = .0030L^{-71}(13 - BDF)^{-34}(ST + 10)^{2.53}RI2^{-.44}IA^{-.20}SL^{-.14}$  (33)

The standard error of regression is .2523 log units, or an average of  $\pm 61$  percent, and the coefficient of determination,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , is .75. The equation has two measures of basin development, IA and BDF, and other factors which logically relate to LT. An attempt to develop

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Figure 27. Comparison of estimated 100-year urban peak discharge to 100-year equivalent rural peak discharge.

more simplified relations along the lines explored by previous investigators resulted in the following equation:

$$
LT = 0.85(L/\sqrt{SL})^{.62}(13 - BDF)^{.47}
$$
 (34)

This equation compares favorably with those of previous investigators and has the advantage of containing a more definitive measure of basin development. However, the standard error of regression is .3054 log units, or an average of  $\pm 76$  percent, significantly greater than equation 33.

The seven-parameter alternate equations, 17 through 23, for estimating urban peak discharges require the use of LT as an independent variable. Presumably an estimate of LT could be made from equation 33 or 34 for use in equations 17 through 23. This is not recommended because of the high standard error of estimating LT. Statistically better estimates of urban peak discharges can be made by using the seven-parameter or three-parameter equations.

#### ESTIMATING PROCEDURES FOR GAGED SITES

Estimates of flood magnitude and flood frequency at gaged sites can sometimes be improved by combining independent estimates. A flood-frequency estimate derived from station data, or from a calibrated basin model, would be considered independent of an estimate from one of the regression equations described in this report. These independent estimates can be averaged by using the weighting procedure described by the Water Resources Council (1977).

#### SUMMARY

This research project investigated the effects of urbanization on peak discharges having recurrence intervals varying from 2 to 500 years. The first stage of the project was to review the literature dealing with the effects of urbanization on storm runoff. The resultant

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Figure 28. Average relations between urban peak discharges estimated by seven-parameter equations and observed urban peak discharges affected by temporary detention storage.

report, by Rawls and others (1980), reviews 128 publications which describe various methods for estimating the effects of urbanization. The approaches were found to range from simple statistical methods to very complex models, and it was observed that most of the statistical methods are applicable only to specific geographical areas. The ultimate objective of this project was to develop a statistical method which could be used on a nationwide basis.

A data base was established, consisting of topographic, climatic, land-use, urbanization, and floodfrequency parameters, for 269 watersheds in 56 cities or metropolitan areas located in 31 States from the East Coast to the West Coast and Hawaii. This data base was used to develop statistical relationships between urban peak discharge and basin parameters.

Multiple-regression analysis was used to define a three-parameter set, a seven-parameter set, and a sevenparameter alternate set of equations that would relate

the urban peak discharge to an equivalent rural peak discharge and basin, urban, and climatic parameters. Each set of equations essentially adjusted the equivalent rural peak discharge to an urban condition. The basin development factor, BDF, which is an index of the drainage improvements, storm drains, and curb-andgutter streets within the urban basin, was found to be the most important adjustment factor. Impervious area, although significant, played a much lesser role. Other parameters defined the effects of drainage area size, rainfall intensity, permanent basin storage, lagtime, and channel slope. Tests indicated that the equations are not geographically biased. Standard errors of regression for the seven-parameter equations vary from  $\pm 37$  percent at the 5-year level to  $\pm 44$  percent at the 100-year level.

Estimates of magnitude and frequency of urban peak discharges at ungaged sites throughout the United States can be made by using the seven-parameter or the three-parameter regression equations. Standard errors of prediction for either set of equations will vary from about  $\pm$  44 percent at small recurrence intervals to about  $\pm$  50 percent at the 100-year recurrence interval. If sufficient rainfall and hydrograph data are available to estimate lagtime, then the seven-parameter alternate regression equations can be used with an accuracy about equivalent to that of the seven-parameter and threeparameter equations.

The report presents average effects of temporary detention storage for some sites defined in this study. The results indicate that detention storage will reduce peak discharges, with the largest reductions for 10-year or greater floods. Reservoir-routing procedures, which are beyond the scope of this report, are probably the best method of estimating the effect of detention storage. Future studies should attempt to develop more simplified methods of quantifying temporary detention storage.

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Stations are listed by city.

Most data items are explained in the glossary. Additional explanation is as follows:

N YEARS =Number of years of data  $TYPE = Type of data$ O=observed  $S =$ synthesized  $O, S = both of above$ DTS =Detention storage  $N = no$  $Y = yes$  $U = unknown$ . =Data not determined or not available













Appendix I-Stations Used in Nationwide Urban Flood-Frequency Study 45











 $\sim$   $\times$   $^{-1}$ 







 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 

#### APPENDIX 1. SELECTED DATA FOR STATIONS USED IN NATIONWIDE URBAN FLOOD-FREQUENCY STUDY (CONTINUED). GAGING STATION NUMBER AND NAME R<u>Q5</u><br>UQ5 RQ25<br>UQ25  $RQ2$ **RQ10**  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  sum  $\overline{R12}$  $\overline{\mathsf{s}\mathsf{T}}$  $\frac{L}{\sqrt{M}}$  $\overline{A}$  $\overline{I}$ A  $LT$  $\overline{u}$  $\frac{1}{10010}$



**RQ50** 

 $UQ50$ 

**RQ100** 

UQ100

**RQ500** 

 $\overline{u}$ asoo

 $\sim$ 







 $\sim$ 





#### **APPENDIX II. LIST OF REPORTS FOR ESTIMATING EQUIVALENT RURAL DISCHARGES FOR URBAN WATERSHEDS**

Alabama:

- Hains, C. F., 1973, Floods in Alabama, magnitude and frequency: Alabama Highway Department, 174 p.
- Olin, D. A., and Bingham, **R.** H., 1977, Flood frequency of small streams in Alabama: Alabama Highway Department HPR Report No. 83, Research Project 930-087.

Alaska:

Lamke, **R.** D., 1978, Flood characteristics of Alaskan streams: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 78-129.

Arizona:

Roeske, **R.** H., 1978, Methods for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in Arizona: Arizona Department of Transportation RS-15(121), 82 p.

Arkansas:

Patterson, J. L., 1971, Floods in Arkansas, magnitude and frequency characteristics through 1968: Arkansas Geological Commission, Water Resources Summary No. 11.

Waananen, A. 0., and Crippen, J. **R.,** 1977, Magnitude and frequency of floods in California: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 77-21 (PB-272 510/AS).

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- Livingston, **R.** K., 1980, Rainfall-runoff modeling and preliminary regional flood characteristics of small rural watersheds in the Arkansas River Basin in Colorado: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 80-112.
- McCain, J. R., and Jarrett, R. D., 1976, manual for estimating flood characteristics of natural-flow streams in Colorado: Colorado Water Conservation Board, Technical Manual no. 1.

Connecticut:

Weiss, L. A., 1975, Floodflow formulas for urbanized and non-urbanized areas of Connecticut: in Proceedings of Watershed Management Symposium, American Society of Civil Engineers, Irrigation and Drainage Division, p. 658-675, August 11-13, 1975.

Delaware:

Simmons, R. H., and Carpenter, D. H., 1978, Technique for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in Delaware: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 78-93, 69 p.

Florida:

- Seijo, M.A., Giovannelli, **R.** F., and Turner, J. F., Jr., 1979, Regional flood-frequency relations for westcentral Florida: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 79-1293.
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Georgia:

Price, McGlone, 1979, Floods in Georgia, magnitude and frequency: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 78-137 (PB-80 146 244).

Hawaii:

Nakahara, **R.** H., 1980, An analysis of the magnitude and frequency of floods on Oahu, Hawaii: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigation 80-45 (PB-81 109 902).

Idaho:

- Harenberg, W. A., 1980, Using channel geometry to estimate flood flows at ungaged sites in Idaho: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 80-32 (PB-81 153 736).
- Kjelstrom, L. C., and Moffatt, **R.** L., 1981, Method of estimating flood-frequency parameters for streams in Idaho: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 81-909.

Thomas, C. A., Harenburg, W. A., and Anderson, J. M., 1973, Magnitude and frequency of floods in small drainage basins in Idaho: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 7-73 (PB-222 409).

Illinois:

- Allen, H. E., Jr., and Bejcek, **R.** M., 1979, Effects of urbanization on the magnitude and frequency of floods in northeastern Illinois: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 79-36 (PB-299 065/AS).
- Curtis, G. W., 1977, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Illinois: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 77-117 (PB-277 255/ AS).

Indiana:

- Davis, L. G., 1974, Floods in Indiana: Technical manual for estimating their magnitude and frequency: U.S. Geological Survey Circular 710.
- Gold, **R.** L., 1980, Flood magnitude and frequency of streams in Indiana-Preliminary estimating equations: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 80-759.

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Lara, 0. G., 1973, Floods in iowa: Technical manual for estimating their magnitude and frequency: Iowa Natural Resources Council Bulletin no. 11.

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Hannum, C. H., 1976, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Kentucky: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 76-62 (PB-263 762/AS).

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Lowe, A. S., 1979, Magnitude and frequency of floods

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- Morrill, R. A., 1975, A technique for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in Maine: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.
- Carpenter, D. H., 1980, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Maryland: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 80-1016.
- Massachusetts:
	- Wandie, S. W., 1981, Estimating peak discharges of small rural streams in Massachusetts: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 80-676.
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	- Bent, P. C., 1970, A proposed streamflow data program for Michigan: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.

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Guetzkow, L. C., 1977, Techniques for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Minnesota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 77-31 (PB-272 509/AS).

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Colson, B. E., and Hudson, J. W., 1976, Flood frequency of Mississippi streams: Mississippi State Highway Department.

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- Hauth, L. D., 1974, A technique for estimating the magnitude and frequency of Missouri floods: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.
- Spencer, D. W., and Alexander, T. W., 1978, Technique for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in St. Louis County, Missouri: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 78-139 (PB-298 *2451* AS).
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	- Parrett, Charles, and Omang, R. J., 1981, Revised techniques for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Montana: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 81-917.

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- Moore, D. 0., 1974, Estimating flood discharges in Nevada using channel-geometry measurements: Nevada State Highway Department Hydrologic Report no. 1.
- \_\_\_\_ , 1976, Estimating peak discharges from small drainages in Nevada according to basin areas within elevation zones: Nevada State Highway Department Hydrologic Report no. 3.

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LeBlanc, D. R., 1978, Progress report on hydrologic

investigations of small drainage areas in New Hampshire-Preliminary relations for estimating peak discharges on rural, unregulated streams: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 78-47 (PB-284 127/AS).

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Stankowski, S. J., 1974, Magnitude and frequency of floods in New Jersey with effects of urbanization: New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection Special Report 38.

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Scott, A. G., 1971, Preliminary flood-frequency relations and summary of maximum discharges in New Mexico--A progress report: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.

Scott, A. G., and Kunkler, J. L., 1976, Flood discharges of streams in New Mexico as related to channel geometry: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.

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Zembrzuski, T. J., and Dunn, Bernard, 1979, Techniques for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods on rural unregulated streams in New York excluding Long Island: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 79-83 (PB-80 201 148).

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Jackson, N. M., Jr., 1976, Magnitude and frequency of floods in North Carolina: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 76-17 (PB-254 411/AS).

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Crosby, 0. A., 1975, Magnitude and frequency of floods in small drainage basins in North Dakota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 19-75 (PB-248 480/ AS).

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- Laenen, Antonius, 1980, Storm runoff as related to urbanization in the Portland, Oregon-Vancouver, Washington, area: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 80-689.

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Flippo, H. N., Jr., 1977, Floods in Pennsylvania: A manual for estimation of their magnitude and frequency: Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Resources Bulletin no. 13, 59 p.

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Floods in Puerto Rico, magnitude and frequency: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 78-141 (PB-300 855/AS).

#### Rhode Island:

Johnson, C. G., and Laraway, G. A., 1976, Flood magnitude and frequency of small Rhode Island streams-Preliminary estimating relations: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.

South Carolina:

Whetstone, B. H., 1982, Floods in South Carolina-Techniques for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods with compilation of flood data: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 82-1 [78 pages].

- Becker, L. D., 1974, A method for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in South Dakota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 35-74 (PB-239 831/AS).
- \_\_\_ , 1980, Techniques for estimating flood peaks, volumes, and hydrographs on small streams in South Dakota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 80-80 (PB-81 136 145).

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Randolph, W. J., and Gamble, C. R., 1976, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Tennessee: Tennessee Department of Transportation.

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- Dempster, G. R., Jr., 1974, Effects of urbanization on floods in the Dallas Texas, metropolitan area: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 60-73 (PB-230 188/AS).
- Liscum, Fred, and Massey, B. C., 1980, Technique for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in the Houston, Texas, metropolitan area: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 80-17 (ADA-089 495).

Schroeder, E. E., and Massey, B. C., 1977, Techniques for estimating the magnitude and frequency of floods in Texas: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 77-110.

#### Utah:

Butler, Elmer, and Cruff, R. W., 1971, Floods of Utah, magnitude and frequency characteristics through 1969: U.S. Geological Survey open-file report.

Vermont:

Johnson, C. G., and Tasker, G. D., 1974, Flood magnitude and frequency of Vermont streams: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 74-130.

Virginia:

Miller, E. M., 1978, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in Virginia: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 78-5.

Washington:

Cummans, J. E., Collings, M. R., and Nassar, E. G., 1975, Magnitude and frequency of floods in Washington: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 74-336.

West Virginia:

Runner, G. S., 1980, Technique for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods in West Virginia: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 80-1218.

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Conger, D. H., 1980, Techniques for estimating magnitude and frequency of floods for Wisconsin streams: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Open-File Report 80-1214.

Wyoming:

Lowham, H. W., 1976, Techniques for estimating flow characteristics of Wyoming streams: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations 76-112 (PB-264 224/ AS).

South Dakota:

#### **Factors for Converting Inch-Pound Units to International System** (SI) **Units**



The following factors may be used to convert the inch-pound units published herein to the International System of Units (SI):