Water Resources of the Upper Colorado River Basin—Technical Report

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY PROFESSIONAL PAPER 441

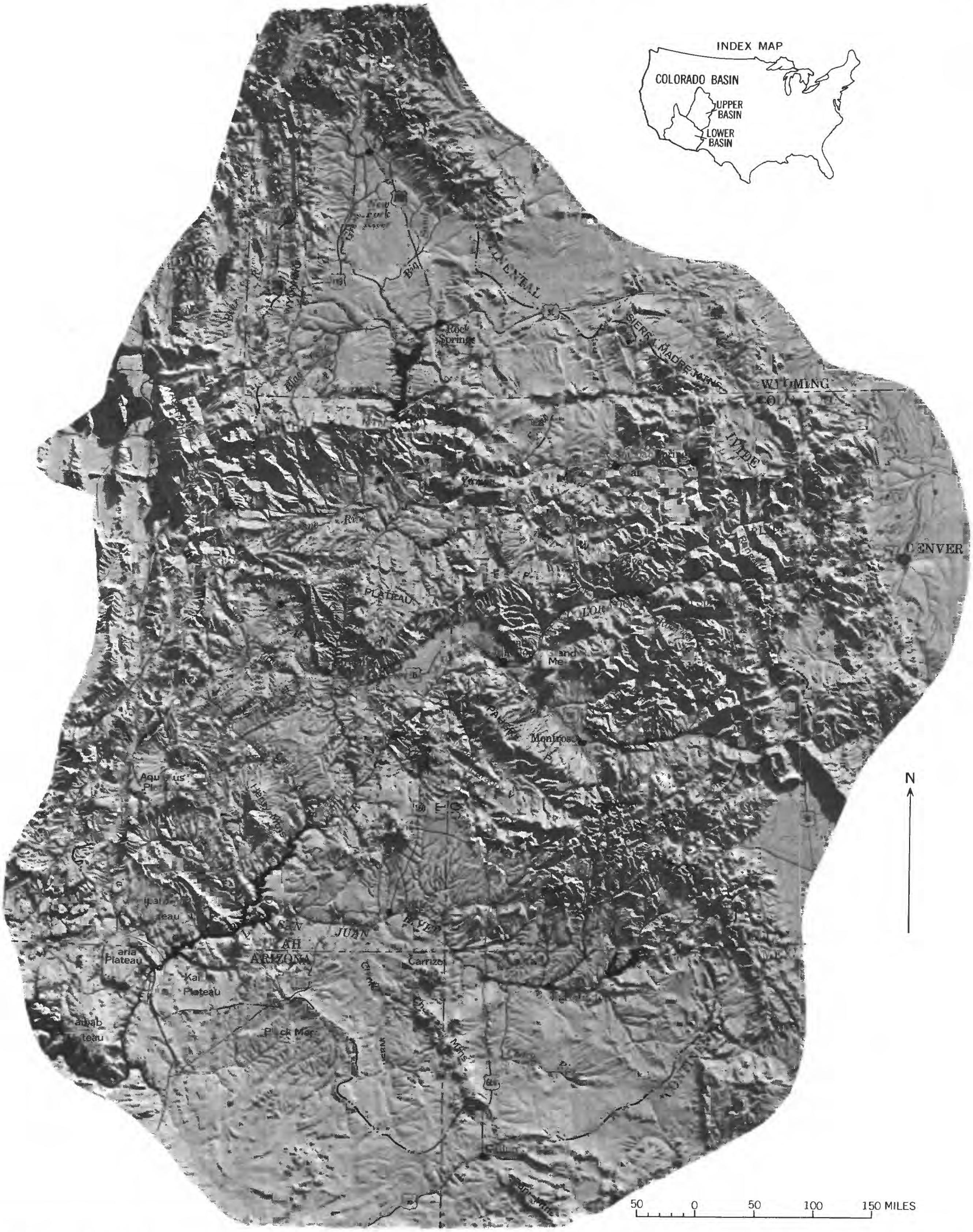

FIGURE 1.—Relief map of area including the Upper Colorado River Basin. Adapted from photograph by I. V. Goslin, Upper Colorado River Compact Commission.

Continental Divide in the southeastern part of the basin and flows westward to its junction with the Colorado about 75 miles west of Bluff, Utah.

The principal tributaries of the Colorado River above the Green River (in earlier years the river above the mouth of the Green River was called Grand River, but in 1921 Grand was changed to Colorado) are the Eagle River, Roaring Fork, Gunnison River, and the Dolores River. The principal tributaries of the Green River are New Fork River, Big Sandy Creek, Blacks Fork, Henrys Fork, and Yampa, White, Duchesne, Price, and San Rafael Rivers. The principal tributaries of the San Juan River are the Navajo, Los Pinos, Animas, and La Plata Rivers. Other tributaries that enter the Colorado River below the Green River are the Dirty Devil, Escalante, and Paria Rivers.

GEOLOGY

The geology in the Upper Colorado River Basin profoundly influences the occurrence, behavior, and chemical quality of the water resources. In the mountains, where most of the water supply originates, there is a close relation between ground water in the consolidated rocks and in the alluvium and water in the streams. In these mountain areas some of the rainfall and snowmelt enters ground-water reservoirs and ultimately reaches the streams through springs, seeps, or through the alluvium along the stream channels. As the streams rise and fall, water alternately moves from the streams into the alluvium along the stream channels and back to the streams. Thus, there is an almost continuous interchange between ground water and surface water. In the process the rocks react with the water and impart distinctive chemical characteristics to the water.

In the interior valleys and basins, ground water in the consolidated rocks has only a minor relation to the discharge and chemical quality of water in the streams, except locally where thermal springs from deep-seated sources discharge to the streams. For the most part, precipitation is insufficient to provide any appreciable ground-water recharge. Aquifers, whose recharge areas are in and along the mountains where precipitation is abundant, are buried beneath great thicknesses of impermeable strata in the interior valleys.

Although the consolidated rocks at or close to the surface in the interior of the basin do not contribute an appreciable amount of ground water to the streams, they do influence the chemical quality of streams. As in the mountains, the rocks react with the surface runoff from infrequent, but intense, rainfall and impart distinctive chemical characteristics to the water. Extensive deposits of river alluvium occur along some of the streams in the interior valleys, and interchange between the water in the streams and the alluvium results in a close relation between the chemical quality of water in the streams and that in the alluvium.

The rocks exposed in the basin range in age from Precambrian to Recent. Generally, the Precambrian rocks, which include the older plutonic and metamorphic rocks, form the basement upon which the sedimentary rocks rest, but in places, mostly in the mountains, the older rocks have been exposed through uplifting, folding, faulting, and erosion. More than 200 formational subdivisions of sedimentary rocks in the basin have been named. Some of these formations are thin and only crop out locally, but others are thousands of feet thick and crop out throughout large areas in the interior of the basin and along the flanks of the mountains. Volcanic rocks, mostly of Tertiary age, are widely distributed, but the area of these rocks, when compared to the total area of the basin, is rather small. The youngest deposits are the surficial debris from the weathering of older rocks. The surficial deposits, which have been transported from place to place by wind, glaciers, and streams, cover the consolidated rocks as a veneer in many places but may be a hundred or more feet thick in other places.

The rocks differ greatly in their lithologic and hydrologic properties. Some are composed of minerals that are resistant to rapid weathering, but others contain readily soluble minerals. Some are relatively permeable, whereas others are relatively impermeable. These properties vary widely, even in the same formation.

The complex assortment of rocks in the Upper Colorado River Basin has been classified into several subdivisions or units by D. A. Phoenix. (See table 1.) Each of the units conforms to the time-rock system of classification which separates the rocks according to generalized hydrologic properties. Some of the units include many formations, and others include only a few. The areal extent of the units is shown in plate 1.

The following summarizes the characteristics of the units and areas of occurrence, as described by Phoenix:

HYDROLOGIC UNIT 8, IGNEOUS AND METAMORPHIC ROCKS

The granitic and related metamorphic rocks of Precambrian age of unit 8 crop out in about 7 percent, or 7,900 square miles, of the basin, mostly in the mountains. The rocks are composed largely of several common rock-forming minerals, most of which are slow to react with water.

Most of the rocks of this group are granitic types associated with schist and gneiss. In some areas, chiefly in the Uinta Mountains, metamorphic rocks consist of

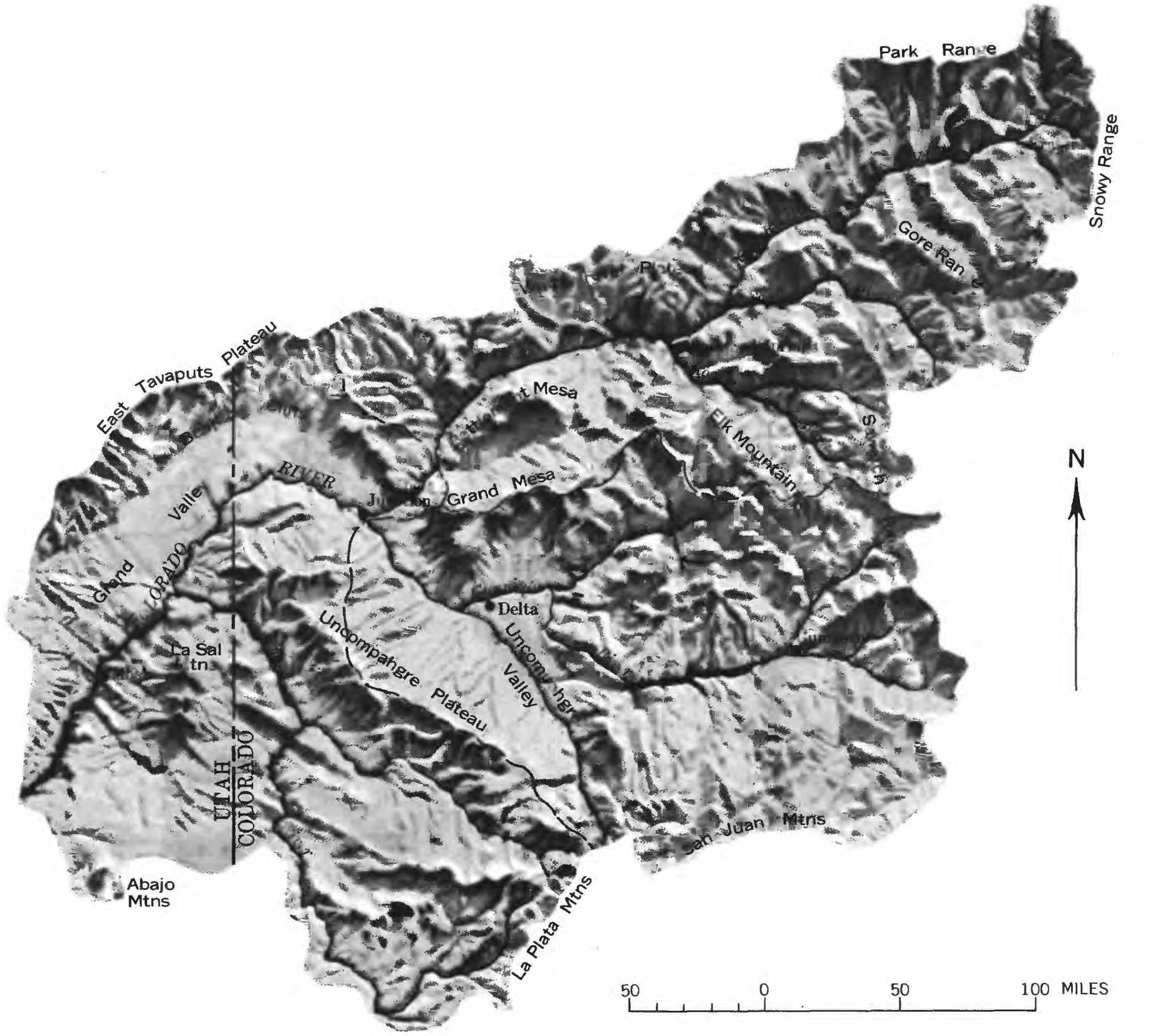

FIGURE 28.—Relief map of the Grand division of the Upper Colorado River Basin. Adapted from photograph by I. V. Goslin, Upper Colorado River Compact Commission.

areas of rock formations in the division, classified into eight units having similar hydrologic properties, are shown in plate 1. The formations and their characteristics are discussed in chapter A.

SOILS

The unconsolidated material mantling the consolidated rocks is principally residuum and river alluvium. Residuum consists of products of rock weathering that have accumulated faster than they can be removed by water and wind. Material of this type mantles hillsides and the tops of mesas and plateaus. It ranges in thickness from a few inches to several tens of feet. As it is near its source, it retains many of the geochemical characteristics of the parent rock. Where the climate is favorable to the growth of vegetation, mature soils have developed on the residuum. In the drier parts of the division, where the climate is not favorable for the growth of vegetation, the mantle for the most part is relatively thin, and the soils are poorly developed. This condition is due in part to the slowness of weathering where precipitation and underground moisture are low and in part to the susceptibility of barren ground to erosion.

River alluvium consists of the products of erosion that have been transported and deposited by streams. It underlies the flood plains and the adjacent terraces along the streams. Generally, it consists of water-worked mixtures of silt, sand, and gravel. Its composition and texture differ from place to place in accordance with (1) the age of the material, (2) the distance and mode of transportation, and (3) the type of rocks from which it was derived. The soils developed on it vary widely in depth and maturity.

In the headwater areas, the river alluvium is derived principally from rocks that are resistant to the solvent action of water. In downstream areas, it is derived principally from shale and siltstone and contains the relatively soluble salts generally associated with these rocks. In the vicinity of Montrose and Grand Junction, the river alluvium consists principally of water-reworked Mancos Shale. It is generally underlain by the Mancos Shale, by the Dakota Sandstone, or by the Morrison Formation, but locally gravel intervenes between the bedrock and the fine sediment.

Most of irrigated lands are on river alluvium, but some are on residuum. Plate 1 shows the areas of river alluvium. As the residuum is closely associated with the parent rocks, its areas of occurrence and type of material are indicated by the outcrop areas in plate 1.

CLIMATE

EFFECT OF TOPOGRAPHY AND ALTITUDE

The high mountain ranges that rim the Grand division on the north, east, and most of the south act as partial barriers to approaching moist airmasses. The west side is lower, and Pacific airmasses enter the area from that direction. The western part of the south side is also relatively low; thus airmasses from the Gulf of Mexico are permitted to enter the western part. The high mountain ranges and mesas trending north to south and east to west take their toll of moisture from the airmasses that move across the area. The effect of the topography on the distribution of precipitation can be seen by comparison of figure 28 and plate 4.

Temperatures and rates of evaporation are also related to altitude. Valley temperatures and evaporation rates generally decrease from west to east as the altitude increases.

PRECIPITATION

Precipitation during the period October through April is more effective in producing runoff than precipitation in the summer months. Precipitation patterns for the two periods are different. During October to April, airmasses from the Pacific Ocean move across the Grand division. Most of the precipitation during this period, particularly in the high mountains, occurs as snow, which sometimes accumulates to a great depth along the high divides.

Precipitation during the summer usually occurs as thundershowers. In the western part, where the mountains along the south boundary are not high enough to block the movement of airmasses from the Gulf of Mexico, summer storms of high intensity occur occasionally and produce flash floods.

The monthly distribution of precipitation at representative precipitation stations is shown in figure 29. The distribution of average annual precipitation is shown in plate 4. This map, which is adjusted for topography, exposure to airmass movements, and climatic factors, is based on precipitation data observed during calendar years 1921–50. The average annual precipitation for this period, as planimetered from the map, is 20.39 inches and ranges from less than 8 inches in the western part to more than 50 inches on the high mesas and in the mountains. The following tabulation shows the areal distribution of precipitation over the 26,500 square miles of drainage area:

Precipitation range (inches)	*Area (sq mi)*	*Precipitation range (inches)*	*Area (sq mi)*
50–60	32	16–20	4,971
40–50	606	12–16	5,414
30–40	3,362	10–12	1,983
25–30	3,304	8–12	1,592
20–25	4,178	6–8	1,058

In computing precipitation data applicable to the base period adopted for this study and for other periods, 17 index-precipitation stations in or adjacent to the division were selected (tables 1 and 2; pl. 4). As explained in chapter B (pp. 44–45), precipitation records at the index stations were used to compute average precipitation for various water years and periods of water years. The average annual precipitation for the 44-year base period thus computed was 20.27 inches. On the 26,500 square miles of drainage area, this precipitation would be equivalent to 28,648,300 acre-feet of water per year.

The year of highest precipitation was 1927, when the average precipitation computed by the index-station method was 26.98 inches; the year of lowest precipitation was 1931, when the precipitation was 14.97 inches. The precipitation in these two years was, respectively, about 33 percent more than and 26 percent less than the 44-year annual average. As shown by the annual quantities in table 2, the precipitation was generally greater than average from 1914 to 1929, less than average from 1930 to 1940, greater than average from 1942 to 1949, and less than average from 1950 to 1956.

TEMPERATURE AND EVAPORATION

Figure 29 shows the effect of altitude on average monthly temperatures and length of frost-free season. Between Moab, Utah, and Fraser, Colo., the altitude

type are oaks (chiefly *Quercus gambelli*), mountain-mahogany, serviceberry, snowbrush (*Ceanothus velutinus*), bitterbrush, cliffrose (*Cowania mexicana*), chokecherry (*Prunus virginiana*), snowberry, and rose (*Rosa* spp.). Other plants commonly found in this zone are big sagebrush, bluebunch wheatgrass (*Agropyron spicatum*), needle-and-thread (*Sipta comata*), junegrass (*Koeleria cristata*), and annual bromes (*Bromus* spp.).

Pinyon-juniper

Occurring in low mountain areas, pinyon-juniper types are not usually abundant at altitudes higher than 6,000 feet or lower than 4,000 feet. The most common junipers are Utah juniper (*Juniperus osteospera*), Rocky Mountain juniper (*J. scopulorum*), and one-seed juniper (*J. mono-sperma*). Colorado pinyon (*Pinus edulis*) is the most common pine in this zone. Understory species include bitterbrush, big sagebrush, mountain-mahogany, and cliffrose (*Cowania stansburiana*). Some herbaceous species present are blue grama (*Bouteloua gracilis*), galleta (*Hilaria jamesi*), bluebunch wheatgrass, western wheatgrass (*Agropyron smithi*), Indian-ricegrass (*Oryzopsis hymenoides*), Russian-thistle (*Salsola Kali*), and cheatgrass (*Bromus tectorum*).

Big sagebrush

Occurring in extensive zones, sagebrush is not as restricted by altitude as are the other communities and is found at altitudes of up to 10,000 feet. Sagebrush is found on well-drained, commonly sandy soils that are not usually saline. Many woody and herbaceous species are associated with sagebrush. Some of these shrubs are rabbitbrush (*Chrysothamnus* spp.), horsebrush (*Tetradymia nuttalli* and *T. canescens*), winterfat (*Eurotia lanata*), and snakeweed (*Gutierrezia sarothrae*). Understory grasses are galleta, blue grama, western wheatgrass, bluebunch wheatgrass, and squirreltail (*Sitanion hystrix*).

Shadscale

Limited to soils that are slightly saline and relatively impermeable, shadscale (*Atriplex confertifolia*) grows in some places in nearly pure stands but is commonly mixed with other shrubs such as sagebrush, horsebrush, and spiny hopsage (*Grayia spinosa*). Nuttall saltbrush (Atriplex nuttalli) commonly occurs locally as pure stands within this zone.

Blackbrush

Blackbrush grows in a zone characterized by sandy usually nonalkaline soils at lower altitudes. Plants associated with blackbrush (*Coleogyne ramosissima*) are fourwing saltbush (*Atriplex canescens*), Mormon tea (*Ephedra* spp.), yucca (*Yucca* spp.), snakeweed, and galleta.

Greasewood

Growing on terraces above permanent streams and along intermittent stream channels at lower altitudes greasewood is a phreatophyte which is very salt tolerant and deep rooted and which usually indicates the presence of ground water. It usually grows as nearly pure stands but is in some places associated with shadscale, sagebrush, and rabbitbrush. Herbaceous phreatophytes commonly associated with greasewood are saltgrass (*Distichlis stricta*) and alkali sacaton (*Sporobolus airoides*).

Saltbush (Nuttall)

Saltbush grows in nearly pure stands on soils that have very low infiltration rates and that are usually heavy textured and commonly saline. Greasewood and sagebrush are commonly associated with saltbush in small channel bottoms. Winterfat and black sage (*Artemisia nova*) are also mixed with nuttall saltbush in a few places or form alternate pure stands.

Summer-cypress

Summer-cypress grows in scattered stands at lower altitudes in the northern part of the division on dry, heavy soils that are usually saline. Other plants commonly found growing with summer-cypress (*Kochia americana*) are bud sage (*Artemisia spinescens*), winterfat, and widely scattered plants of sandberg bluegrass (*Poa secunda*), Indian ricegrass, and scarlet globemallow (*Sphaeralcea coccinea*).

Grasslands

Grasslands and grasslands mixed with shrubs cover extensive areas. At the higher altitudes, grasses mixed with shrubs occur as small scattered "islands." The most common grasses are western wheatgrass, bluebunch, wheatgrass, squirreltail, and needlegrass (*Stipa* spp.). In the lower altitudes the most abundant grasses are blue grama and galleta.

All the plant communities occur in the Grand division except saltbush and summer-cypress (pl. 5). Vegetation that is typical of some of the zones in this division is shown in figures 30–32.

COLORADO RIVER BASIN ABOVE THE GUNNISON RIVER

PRESENT UTILIZATION OF SURFACE WATER

STORAGE RESERVOIRS

Sixteen reservoirs that have storage capacities greater than 1,000 acre-feet have been constructed in the Colorado River Basin above the Gunnison River (table 3, pl. 4). The combined usable storage capacity of these reservoirs in 1957 was 659,430 acre-feet. Many small reservoirs and stock ponds are scattered over the subbasin. The Shadow Mountain, Lake Granby, and Willow Creek Reservoirs are a part of the Colorado-Big Thompson project and were constructed primarily for the exportation of water out of the Colorado River Basin. The Williams Fork and Ivanhoe Reservoirs were constructed to store water for use in the Colorado River Basin when transmountain diversions

FIGURE 30.—Alpine meadows and subalpine forest zones in the headwaters of the Blue River. (Photograph by D. A. Phoenix.)

FIGURE 31.—Subalpine forest near Gore Pass, Colo. The vegetation is quaking aspen and mixed conifers, including lodgepole pine, and a small island of grassland in foreground. (Photograph by F. A. Branson.)

reduced downstream flows below irrigation requirements. The Green Mountain Reservoir also serves the same purpose and, in addition, provides storage for hydroelectric-power production. The remaining reservoirs provide storage for irrigation water. All reservoirs store water from the drainage basin in which they are located except Harvey Gap Reservoir, which stores water from East Fork Rifle Creek.

TRANSMOUNTAIN DIVERSIONS

The diversion of water out of the subbasin began in 1880, when the Ewing ditch was constructed to divert water from the headwaters of the Eagle River to the Arkansas River basin for placer mining. As the need for irrigation and municipal water east of the Conti-

FIGURE 32.—Big sagebrush 1 mile northwest of Kremmling, Colo. The low-growing shrub in the background is winterfat. (Photograph by F. A. Branson.)

nental Divide grew, other transmountain diversion ditches and diversion tunnels were constructed. Thirteen transmountain ditches and tunnels were in operation by 1957.

The average annual diversion for the four water years 1954–57 was 353,000 acre-feet. The annual transmountain diversions from the subbasin during the 1914–57 period are listed in table 4. Water diverted through the East and West Hoosier ditches, which were operated in water years 1935–40 and then abandoned, has been included in the data for Hoosier Pass tunnel. Diversion through the Fremont Pass ditch was discontinued after 1943.

Figure 33 shows the rate of increase of transmountain diversions and the annual variations through the years. In years of both high and low runoff some of the diversions are less than average, owing to lack of need and to a deficiency in supply, respectively.

IRRIGATION

The major use of water is for the irrigation of crops. In the Colorado River Basin above the Gunnison River in 1949 the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1953) reported 192,500 acres of irrigated land, which was about the same amount irrigated in 1957. The amount and distribution of irrigated land in the tributary basins along river reaches and above gaging stations are shown in table 5 and plate 5.

Irrigated lands above Glenwood Springs are mostly on narrow valley bottoms along the streams at altitudes ranging from 6,500 feet near Dotsero to 8,500 feet near Fraser. Because of the short growing season and low temperature, the principal crop is native grasses for livestock feed. Water is generally plentiful during most of the irrigation season and is applied at rates

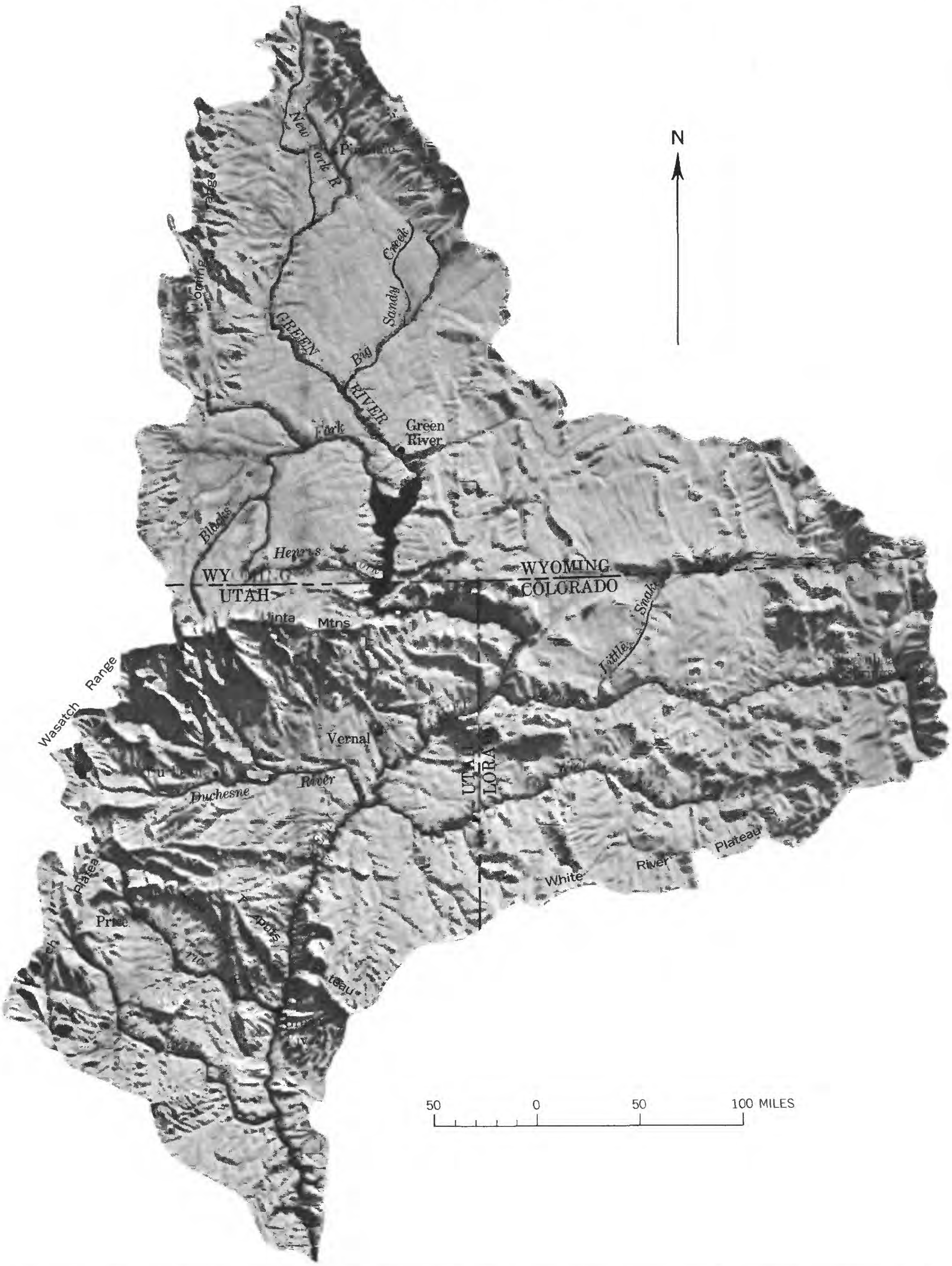

FIGURE 80.—Relief map of the Green division of the Upper Colorado River Basin. Adapted from photograph by I. V. Goslin, Upper Colorado River Commission.

(chap. A, table 1, pl. 2). The hydrologic units and their characteristics are discussed in chapter A.

The stream patterns and the influence of the rocks and structural features on these patterns have been the subject of discussion and speculation by many writers. Some of the earliest work on this problem was done by Powell and Davis (Hunt, 1956, p. 65). More recently, Bradley (1936, p. 168–189) and Hunt (1956, p. 65–71) have discussed the work of Powell and Davis and have given additional explanations for some of the anomalies of the drainage system.

The seeming disregard by the rivers of uplifted areas, Powell thought, was due either to antecedence or to the rivers being able to maintain their course across an uplift by downcutting during the period of uplift. Davis thought the streams were superimposed from a drainage pattern established on an overlying strata. Hunt (1956, p. 65) did not believe that these explanations were completely adequate and postulated that the present stream courses are the result of a combination of the two concepts and coined the word "anteposition" to apply to the sometimes concurrent processes of antecedence and superimposition. The routes of the Green and Yampa Rivers across the uplifted Uinta Mountains and associated structural features are classic examples of anteposition. (See fig. 80.)

The headwaters of the Green River are a network of streams originating in the Wind River and Wyoming Ranges (see fig. 80, pl. 6). The river flows southward in Wyoming across a desert plateau to near the eastern end of the Uinta Mountains. Here it is deflected eastward by the Uinta Mountains, from where it flows southwestward and then generally southward to its junction with the Colorado River. Big Sandy Creek and Blacks and Henrys Forks are the principal streams that enter the Green River in the desert plateau area of Wyoming. The Yampa and White Rivers, whose headwaters are on the western slope of the Rocky Mountains in Colorado, are the principal tributaries from the east. The Duchesne River, which drains most of the south slope of the Uinta Mountains, and the Price and San Rafael Rivers, which head on the eastern slope of the Wasatch Plateau, enter the river from the west in Utah.

SOILS

The unconsolidated material mantling the consolidated rocks, except in small areas of glacial deposits and alluvium along the streams, is principally residuum developed from the underlying or nearby parent rocks. In the mountains where moisture and temperature are favorable, moderately mature soils have developed in the upper part of the residuum. Where the parent rocks are mainly crystalline rocks of igneous, metamorphic, or volcanic origin, the residuum is relatively permeable and contains minerals that are relatively insoluble. In some of the mountainous areas, such as the Wasatch Plateau and Wyoming Range, sedimentary rocks predominate and the residuum contains large quantities of the soluble minerals that are present in the parent rock.

The broad valleys of the interior basin are predominately underlain by rocks of marine and continental origin of Cretaceous and Tertiary ages. Residuum developed from these rocks is generally high in soluble minerals. The interior has an arid climate, and the soils which have developed are shallow and immature.

The river alluvium in the headwater areas is principally derived from resistant rocks, is generally permeable, and for the most part contains minerals that are relatively insoluble. Downstream from the headwater areas, the river alluvium is a complex mixture derived from weathering of rocks from nearby and upstream sources. Where the underlying and nearby rocks are Mancos Shale and the Green River and Uinta Formations, the river alluvium generally contains an abundance of soluble minerals.

Plate 7 shows the irrigated lands, and by comparing this plate with plate 1, the type of rocks underlying the irrigated lands can be determined.

CLIMATE

EFFECT OF TOPOGRAPHY AND ALTITUDE

Climate in the Green division is markedly affected by altitude. The climate ranges from extremes of high precipitation and cold temperature in the mountains to scant precipitation and high summer temperature in the interior basins. The 5-degree change in latitude from the southern to the northern part also has an effect on temperature.

The mountains along the western side act as partial barriers to the movement of Pacific airmasses that cross the division and the Uinta Mountains act as a barrier to north-south movement of airmasses. Cold, polar airmasses at times cover the area north of the Uinta Mountains. The area south of these mountains is at times affected by warm, moist airmasses from the Gulf of Mexico and by Pacific airmasses originating off the coasts of Southern California and Baja California.

PRECIPITATION

The precipitation during the period October to April is more effective in producing runoff than precipitation in the summer months. Most of the precipitation from October to April, particularly in the high mountains, occurs as snow. North of the Uinta Mountains, the average seasonal precipitation patterns for the summer and winter periods are generally similar, as Pacific airmasses predominate. The area south of the Uinta Mountains is more exposed to the moist airmasses from

FIGURE 82.—Shadscale 22 miles south of La Barge, Wyo. Other shrubs present are nuttall horsebrush, big sagebrush, and rabbitbrush. Photograph by F. A. Branson.

FIGURE 84.—Pinyon-juniper about 10 miles north of Vernal, Utah. The trees are nearly all Utah juniper and have a very sparse understory of sand dropseed and Russian-thistle. Photograph by F. A. Branson.

FIGURE 83.—Greasewood along the Little Snake River 15 miles northwest of Maybell, Colo. This extensive pure stand is similar to that found on many square miles of the Upper Colorado River Basin. Photograph by F. A. Branson.

In addition to the reservoirs listed in table 3, numerous small lakes occur in the mountain areas and stock ponds are scattered throughout the subbasin. Most of the subbasin is at altitudes of more than 6,000 feet; and most lakes and reservoirs are at altitudes of more than 7,000 feet, where evaporation rates are relatively low.

TRANSMOUNTAIN DIVERSIONS

There are no known imports, and only one small export, of water from this subbasin. The Continental Divide ditch diverts water from the headwaters of Little Sandy Creek to Lander Creek in the North Platte River basin. The appropriation permit is for 13.8 cfs (cubic feet per second) to irrigate 964 acres, but no record of annual diversions is available.

IRRIGATION

The major use of water in the subbasin is for irrigation. The U.S. Bureau of the Census (1953) reported 255,500 acres of irrigated land in 1949. Between 1949 and 1957, the acreage was increased to about 258,400 acres through irrigation of new lands in the Eden project (table 4, and pl. 7). Of the irrigated lands, about 9,800 acres is in Utah, 500 acres in Colorado, and 248,100 acres in Wyoming. Except for a small increase in the later years, there was little change in the total irrigated acreage during the 1914–57 period. La Rue (1916, p. 133) estimated, on the basis of adjudicated water rights, that 248,000 acres were irrigated in the Wyoming part of this subbasin in 1913.

As most irrigated lands are at altitudes of more than 6,000 feet, the growing season is short and only the hardier forage crops are grown. Alfalfa, where grown, usually does not produce two full crops a year. Except on the Eden project near Farson, Wyo., irrigation consists chiefly of diverting snowmelt runoff onto the valley grasslands for several weeks while streamflow rates are high. This diversion is usually sufficient for the production of one cutting of wild hay.

The Upper Colorado River Basin Compact Commission (1948) estimated that the 1914–57 average annual consumptive use of water in the subbasin by irrigation was about 218,000 acre-feet. The Commission estimated that about 226,300 acres was irrigated and that about

25,700 acres of land received water incidental to irrigation practices.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL USES

The 1960 population of the subbasin was only about 33,800, which averages about two persons per square mile. The largest communities and their population are: Rock Springs, 10,371; Green River, 3,497; Kemmerer, 2,028; Mountainview, 1,721; and Pinedale, 965. Principal means of livelihood are farming and ranching, mining, oil recovery, supplying these activities, and the tourist trade.

Rock Springs and Green River receive their water supply from the Green River. All other communities receive their supply from springs, wells, or mountain streams. Rock Springs treats its sewage waste before discharging the effluent into Bitter Creek, an intermittent stream. Inhabitants of a few small communities that are not along stream channels have septic tanks, but for the most part domestic wastes are discharged to the nearest stream channel.

Bituminous coal is mined in the vicinity of Kemmerer and Rock Springs, Wyo. Oil and gas fields have been partially developed, and large reserves have been explored in the vicinity of Big Piney. Extensive deposits of trona (sodium bicarbonate) are in the early stage of development. Only small amounts of water are used in the development of these deposits, and the waste products from the trona mines are ponded in isolated areas away from the streams.

One hydroelectric powerplant with an installed capacity of 180 kilowatts is on Pine Creek near Pinedale, Wyo.

STREAMFLOW

VARIABILITY OF SEASONAL RUNOFF

Melting of snow that accumulates in the mountains provides most of the water supply. As temperatures rise in the late spring and early summer, the snow melts and causes the streams to rise. The streams then subside as the stored supply of snow is exhausted. Usually by late July, streams have subsided to near a base flow, which prevails until the cycle is repeated again the following spring. Relatively little runoff comes from much of the interior of the subbasin.

The seasonal patterns of the rise and fall of the streams are dependent on temperature and are similar, but the timing of peak flows and subsidence to base flows are somewhat staggered (fig. 85). Generally, the order of snowmelt runoff by streams is as follows: West-side streams, east-side streams, and streams draining the north slopes of the Uinta Mountains.

FLOW-DURATION CURVES

Historical flow-duration curves were developed for streams at 30 stations. For 22 of these stations, curves representative of the 44-year base period adjusted to 1957 conditions were prepared. The historical and adjusted curves reduced to tabular form are given in table 5.

The usefulness of these curves in hydrologic studies, their characteristics, and the methods used to adjust flow-duration curves for short periods of record to the 44-year base period are explained in chapter B (pp. 45–48).

No streamflow record in the subbasin is complete for the 44-year period 1914–57, although records for some stations are complete except for a few years. Because little change in water developments occurred during the 44-year period, no adjustments for upstream developments were required to make the flow-duration curves representative of 1957 conditions; however, some minor changes occurred in irrigation and in storage on Big Sandy Creek and Blacks Fork. No adjustments for any effect that these changes had on the flow-duration curves for downstream stations were made because of lack of data; however, any error introduced in the flow-duration curves for downstream stations by this omission is negligible. For extending the record of Green River at Green River, Wyo., the records for the two stations operated "at" and "near" Green River were combined. For all practical purposes the discharge at the two sites is equivalent.

Table 6 outlines the methods used in adjusting the historical flow-duration curves to the 44-year base period and gives the author's rating of accuracy of the resultant long-term curves. Computations and data necessary to show the details of the adjustments are too voluminous for inclusion in this report.

Typical flow-duration curves at four streamflow gaging stations are shown in figure 86. These curves show duration of water discharge for the Green River near its headwaters and downstream, and for tributary streams from the east and west sides of the basin.

The variability indices (Lane and Lei, 1950) and percentages of ground-water contribution to the stream systems (see chap. B, pp. 48–53) for the streams whose flow-duration curves are shown in figure 86 and for other selected streams are given in table 7. Figure 87 shows the relation between the two parameters.

East Fork near Big Sandy, Wyo., has the highest variability index (0.72), and La Barge Creek near Viola, Wyo., has the lowest (0.28). The difference in slope of the flow-duration curves for the two stations is apparently caused by geologic and topographic factors. The East Fork drainage basin is underlain by relatively impermeable granitic rock, much of which is exposed. The drainage basin also has steep slopes. These factors would contribute to high variability-index

SURFACE-WATER RESOURCES OF THE SAN JUAN DIVISION

By W. V. Iorns, C. H. Hembree, and G. L. Oakland

ABSTRACT

This chapter presents the results of an appraisal of the surface-water resources of the San Juan division, which includes the 38,300 square miles of drainage area of the Colorado River and its tributaries below the Green River and above "Lee Ferry," Ariz., a point 1 mile downstream from the mouth of the Paria River. Water uses existing in 1957 are reported, and interpretations are made of stream behavior, chemical quality of water, and sediment yield on the basis of the average that would have occurred if the 1957 level of upstream development had existed throughout water years 1914–57. The appraisal will be useful in planning additional development of surface-water supplies and in evaluating changes in streamflow, chemical quality of water, and sediment yield that may result from water-development projects constructed after 1957.

Annual precipitation in the division averaged 25,880,600 acre-feet in the water years 1914–57. Had the developments in 1957 existed throughout the 44-year period, the average annual consumption of water would have been about 301,100 acre-feet for irrigation and about 7,100 acre-feet for domestic and industrial uses. Annually, about 2,800 acre-feet would have been diverted out of the division, about 102,600 acre-feet would have been imported into the division, and about 2,539,000 acre-feet from the division would have been contributed to the Colorado River. Evapotranspiration probably accounted for the remaining 23,133,200 acre-feet of water, on the assumption that there was no ground-water outflow from the division. Annually, transmountain diversions export about 300 tons of dissolved solids and import about 17,700 tons. The annual contribution of dissolved solids to the stream system in the division is computed to average about 1,543,600 tons for the water years 1914–57 adjusted to 1957 conditions. Of this amount, about 351,800 tons is attributed to the activities of man, principally irrigation.

Suspended sediment contributed to the Colorado River in the division is estimated to average about 55,585,000 tons annually.

In the headwaters of the division most of the surface water in the streams is suitable for domestic and industrial use. The concentrations of dissolved solids in most streams increase downstream, and some exceed the standards for domestic use. The waters in the lower reaches of some of the tributary streams are not suitable for agricultural use during periods of low flow.

INTRODUCTION

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

This chapter of the report presents in detail the appraisal of the surface-water resources of the San Juan division. In the appraisal the following items were considered: The present utilization of the surface-water supplies, the flow characteristics of the streams and the effects of environmental factors on streamflow, the chemical-quality characteristics of the streams and the influence of environmental factors on the quality of water, and the sediment yield of the streams. The appraisal and the data presented will be useful in planning additional water-development projects and in managing water resources of the area.

The basic data, hydrologic techniques, and criteria used in the appraisal of the surface-water resources are discussed and explained in chapter B, which also contains a glossary of technical terms used.

LOCATION AND SUBBASINS

The San Juan division of the Upper Colorado River Basin has a drainage area of 38,300 square miles. It is those parts of Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, and Arizona drained by the Colorado River and its tributaries below the Green River and above "Lee Ferry"—an unmapped arbitrary point defined by the Colorado River Compact as "a point 1 mile downstream from the mouth of the Paria River." In this report this division is divided into two subbasins (chap. A, fig. 2).

The San Juan River basin is the drainage area of the San Juan River (24,900 sq mi). The gaging station on San Juan River near Bluff, Utah, records the outflow from 23,000 square miles of the basin.

The Colorado River Basin below the Green and San Juan Rivers and above "Lee Ferry" (13,400 sq mi) is the area drained by the Colorado River between the Green River and "Lee Ferry," Ariz., excluding the San Juan River basin. The gaging stations on Colorado and Paria Rivers at Lees Ferry, Ariz., record the outflow from the Upper Colorado River Basin. Lees Ferry is a small community above the mouth of the Paria River.

HYDROLOGIC ENVIRONMENT

PHYSIOGRAPHY AND STREAM NET

The San Juan division extends from the junction of the Green and Colorado Rivers to 1 mile below the mouth of the Paria River (fig. 125). Included in the division are the drainage basins of the Dirty Devil, Escalante, San Juan, and Paria Rivers. Principal high-

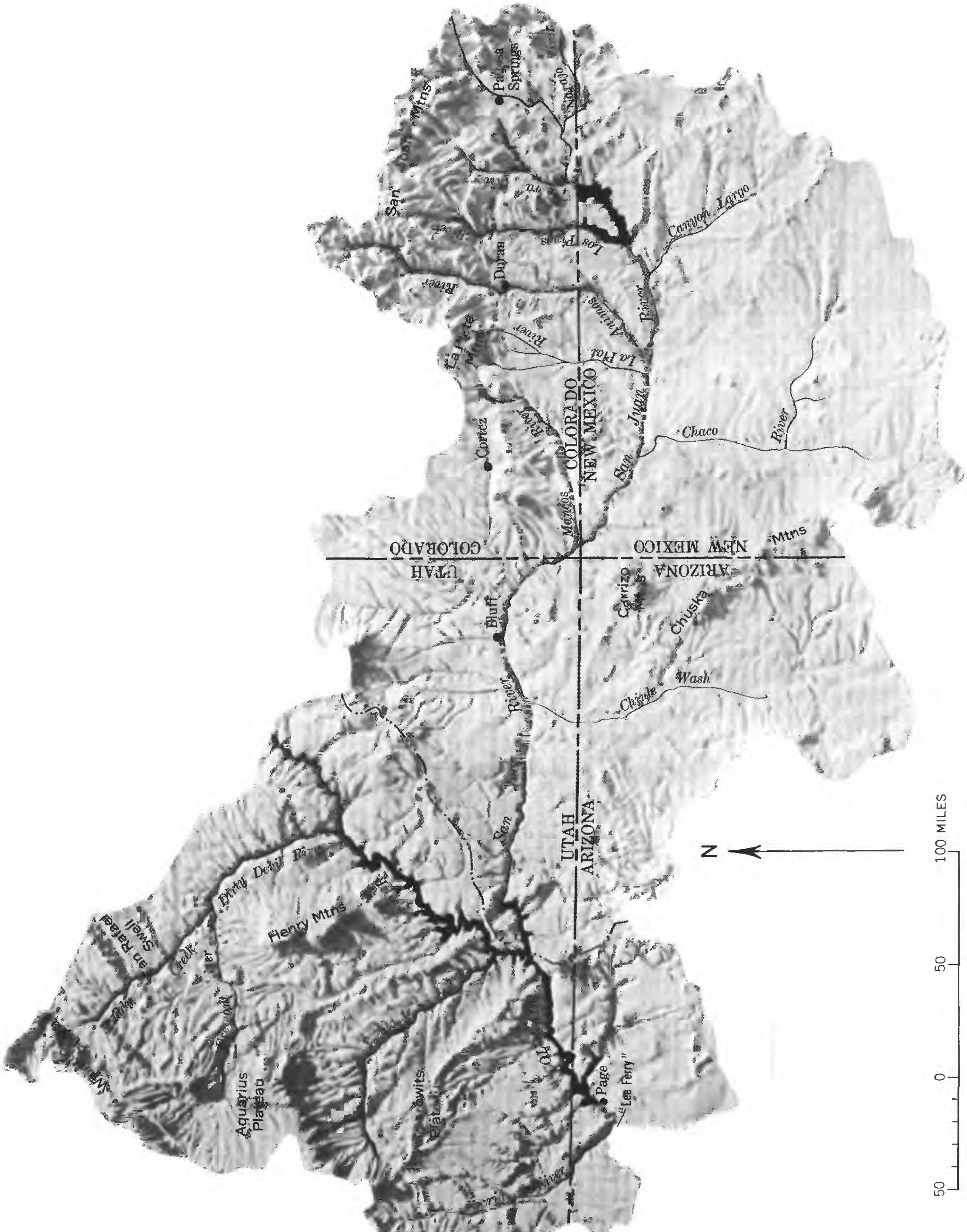

FIGURE 125.—Relief map of the San Juan division of the Upper Colorado River Basin. Adapted from photograph by I. V. Goslin, Upper Colorado River Compact Commission.

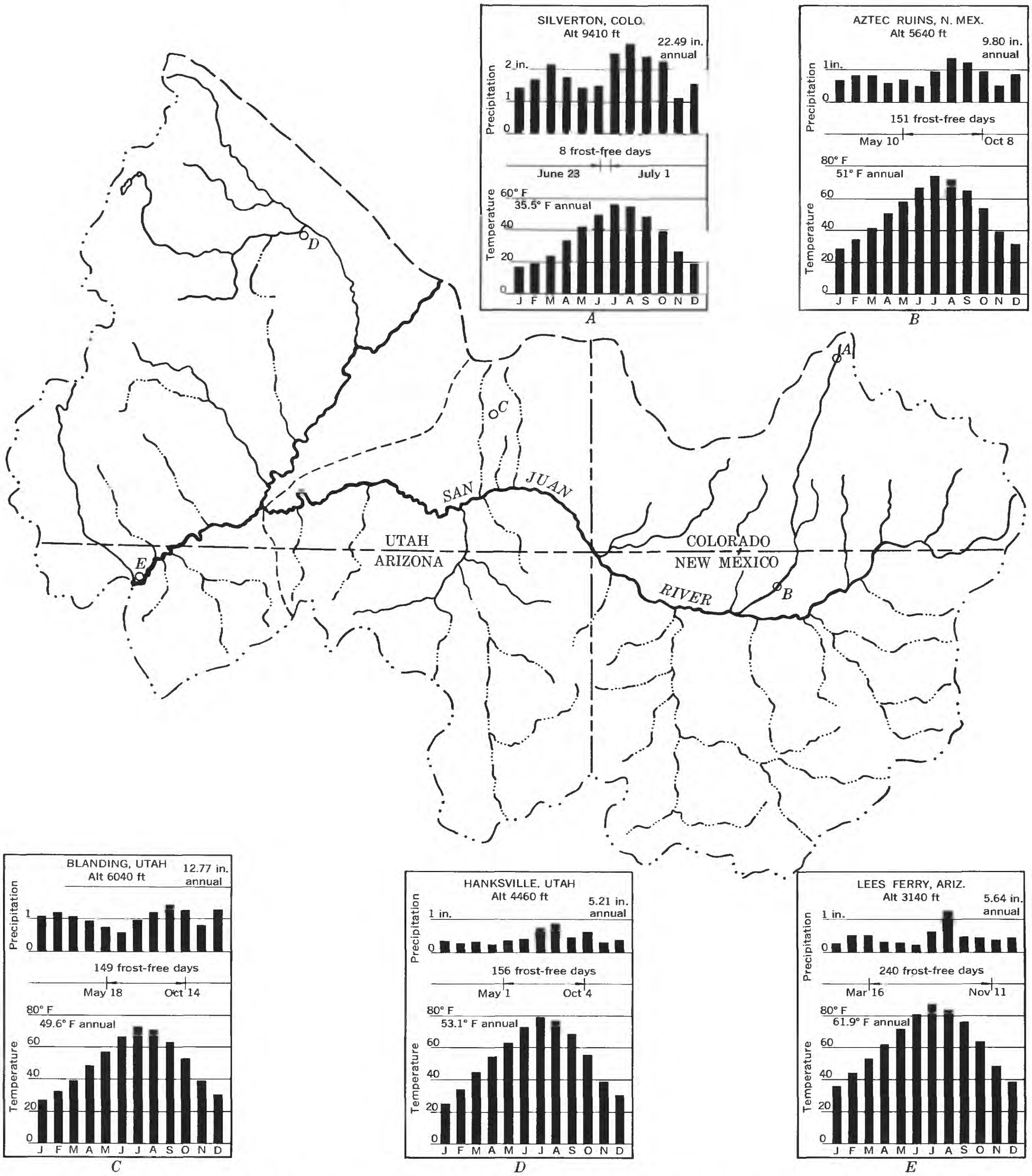

Figure 126.—Normal precipitation and temperature and frost-free seasons at representative stations in the San Juan division. Data from U.S. Weather Bureau normals (average for calendar years 1921–50).

For computing precipitation data applicable to the base period adopted for this study and for other periods, 13 index stations in or adjacent to the division were selected (tables 1 and 2, pl. 8). As explained in chapter B (pp. 44–45), precipitation records at the index stations were used to compute the average annual precipitation over the division, which for the 44-year base period was 12.67 inches, for a total of 25,880,600 acre-feet.

The greatest precipitation was 20.78 inches in 1941 and the least was 6.91 inches in 1956. These were about 64 percent above and 46 percent below the 44-year annual average, respectively. As indicated by the annual quantities, the precipitation over the division was generally above average from 1914 to 1929, below average from 1930 to 1940, above average from 1942 to 1949, and considerably below average from 1950 to 1956.

Table 2 is subdivided to include index stations applicable to the San Juan River basin and to the remainder of the division. Index stations for the San Juan River basin are applicable to the drainage area above the gaging station on San Juan River near Bluff, Utah. The average annual precipitation for the drainage area above this gaging station (23,000 sq mi) adjusted to water years 1914–57 is 13.75 inches, or 16,866,700 acre-feet.

TEMPERATURE AND EVAPORATION

The average monthly temperatures and length of frost-free season at five locations in the division are shown in figure 126. Comparison of the annual precipitation, temperature, and frost-free season at Lees Ferry, Ariz., with those at Silverton, Colo., shows the wide range of climate.

Isopleths of average annual evaporation, from a map by Kohler and others (1959, pl. 2), are shown in plate 8. The isopleths are generalized and do not take into account large variations in topography and exposure which may considerably influence evaporation at specific locations.

The average annual evaporation from water surfaces in the San Juan division, estimated by Meyers (1962, p. 71–100), is given in the following tabulation:

	Annual evaporation (acre-ft)
Principal reservoirs and regulated lakes	3, 000
Other lakes over 500 acres	11, 000
Principal streams and canals	68, 000
Small ponds and reservoirs	24, 000
Small streams	19, 000
Total	125, 000

FIGURE 127.—The blackbrush type of native vegetation, 7 miles north of Bluff, Utah. Photograph by F. A. Branson.

VEGETATION

The native species of vegetation in the San Juan division are about the same as those that existed before settlement. In mountainous areas where the climatic environment is favorable, the vegetative growth is lush. The net hydrologic effect of native vegetative cover in these areas has probably changed little in the last hundred years. In the semiarid and arid parts of the division the vegetation is sparse, and there are large areas of barren rock.

Much of the vegetative cover in the arid areas is in a precarious state of existence even at its best, and overgrazing may have resulted in some changes in the hydrologic effect of native vegetation in local areas. However, runoff data from the arid parts of the division are not sufficient to identify any resulting hydrologic change in water years 1914–57.

The most important plant communities in the area are the alpine meadow, subalpine forest, montane forest, mountain brush, pinyon-juniper, shadscale, black-

FIGURE 128.—Grasslands with mixed shrubs near the headwaters of the Chaco River. Photograph by D. A. Phoenix.

FIGURE 129.—The sparse vegetation and barren character of large areas in the western part of the San Juan division is illustrated by this view of the Bullfrog Creek valley at Eggnog, Utah, with Mount Hilliers in the background. Photograph by D. A. Phoenix.

brush, greasewood, grassland, and big sagebrush communities. The general zones of occurence of these communities are shown in plate 9, and the plant species in the communities are described in chapter C, pages 80–81. Vegetation that is typical of some of the zones is shown in figures 127–129.

SAN JUAN RIVER BASIN

PRESENT UTILIZATION OF SURFACE WATER

STORAGE RESERVOIRS

Twelve reservoirs that have usable storage capacities greater than 1,000 acre-feet have been constructed (1957) in the San Juan River basin (table 3, and pl. 8). Of these, 11 are for irrigation and 1 is for the generation of hydroelectric power. All receive their water supply from the drainage basin in which they are located except the Summit and Narraguinnep Reservoirs, for which the water supply is diverted from the Dolores River and Lost Canyon Creek in the Grand division.

In addition to the reservoirs listed in table 3, many small lakes, reservoirs, and stock ponds are scattered throughout the basin.

TRANSMOUNTAIN DIVERSIONS

Five small ditches divert water from headwaters of the San Juan River to the Rio Grande basin (table 4). The Treasure Pass ditch began diverting water in 1923, the Fuchs and Raber-Lohr ditches in 1937, the Squaw Pass ditch in 1938, and the Piedra Pass ditch in 1939. The average annual diversion by these ditches for water years 1948–57 was 2,754 acre-feet. For the purpose of the report, this average is assumed to be representative of the water supply for water years 1914–57 and of developments existing in 1957.

Water is imported into the McElmo Creek drainage basin from the Dolores River basin for the irrigation of about 37,000 acres. No records are available on the amount of water imported, but it has been estimated to average about 100,000 acre-feet annually (U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1947, p. 128). These diversions were in operation before 1914.

IRRIGATION

Table 5 gives the approximate irrigated acreage in various drainage basins and reaches of the stream system in the San Juan River basin. Location of the irrigated lands is shown in plate 9. Generally, the streams draining the San Juan and La Plata Mountains furnish an adequate water supply for the irrigated lands dependent upon them. Supplies are deficient for much of the irrigated lands south of the San Juan River and lands along Montezuma and Recapture Creeks.

The Upper Colorado River Basin Compact Commission (1948) estimated that the 1914–45 average annual consumptive use of water in the subbasin due to irrigation was 256,617 acre-feet. The Commission estimated that 189,900 acres was irrigated and that 24,962 acres received water incidental to irrigation practices.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL USES

The San Juan River basin has a drainage area of about 24,900 square miles and had a population of about 100,000 in 1960. The two largest communities and their populations are Farmington, N. Mex., 23,786, and Durango, Colo., 10,530. Farming, stockraising, petroleum production, and tourist trade are the principal occupations.

The major industrial use of water in the basin is for the production of hydroelectirc power at the following sites:

Location of powerplant	*Installed capacity (kw)*
San Juan River at Pagosa Springs, Colo	150
Animas River near Tacoma, Colo	4, 500
Animas River at Aztec, N. Mex	80
Animas River at Farmington, N. Mex	200
	4, 930

Small amounts of water are used by uranium mills at Durango, Colo., Shiprock, N. Mex., and Mexican Hat, Utah, in their milling processes and by other small industrial plants. The estimated consumptive use of water for domestic and industrial purposes is about 6,700 acre-feet annually.

STREAMFLOW

VARIABILITY OF SEASONAL RUNOFF

In the San Juan River basin precipitation during the summer and fall produces a substantial part of the annual runoff. In marked contrast, summer and fall precipitation are of little consequence in producing runoff in the Grand and Green divisions and the other sub-

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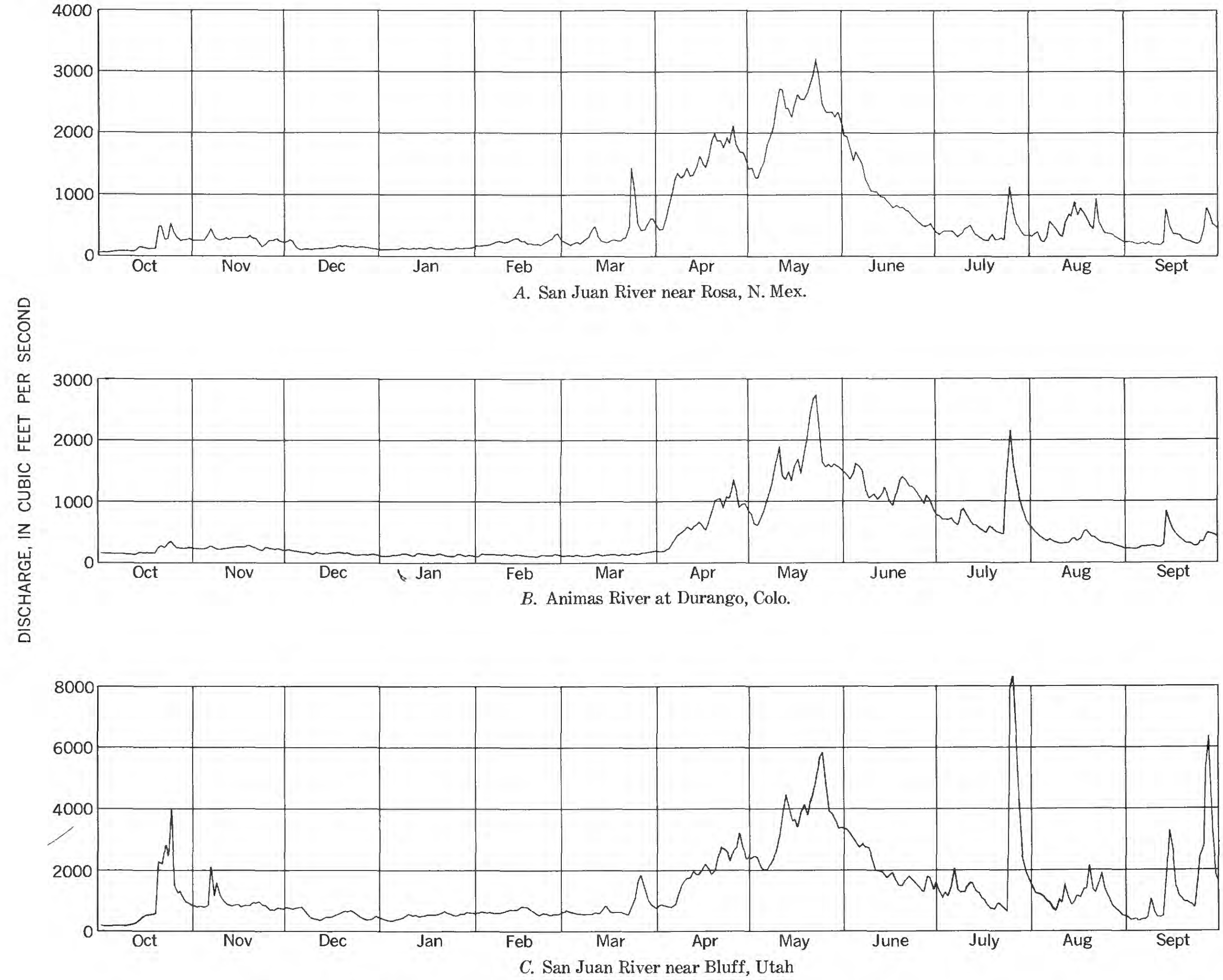

FIGURE 130.—Seasonal pattern of runoff of streams in the San Juan River basin, 1954 water year.

basin of this division. The hydrographs for three gaging stations (fig. 130) illustrate the relative effect of the summer and fall storms on the annual pattern of runoff. Although most of the runoff occurs in April, May, and June from the melting of winter snow in the mountains, the effect of summer and fall storms is very pronounced. These storms are usually of high intensity and, although some cover only small areas, others are of large areal extent. Their occurrence over the large area of sedimentary rocks at the lower altitudes produces much of the sediment carried by the subbasin's streams.

FLOW-DURATION CURVES

Historical flow-duration curves were developed for streams at 22 sites in the subbasin. The usefulness of these curves in hydrologic studies, their characteristics, and the methods used to adjust them for short periods of record to the 44-year base period are explained in chapter B (pp. 46–48). By use of these methods, flow-duration curves for all the streams except McElmo Creek near Colorado-Utah State line were adjusted to the 44-year base period and for developments existing in 1957. Only the curves for stations downstream from the Vallecitos Reservoir required adjustment to be representative of 1957 conditions of upstream development. The data for historical and adjusted flow-duration curves are given in table 6.

In table 7, the methods used in adjusting the historical flow-duration curves to the 44-year base period and for developments existing in 1957 are outlined. The authors' rating of accuracy of the resultant long-term curves is also given.

Flow-duration curves of streams at four sites are shown in figure 131. The curves for San Juan River at Rosa, N. Mex., and Animas River at Durango, Colo., are generally representative of streams draining the