ORKUST DENUN MALASAEN 4421

SPECIAL FUND PROJECT JCELAND

HVÍTÁ and THJÓRSÁ RIVER SYSTEMS
SOUTHERN JCELAND

ANALYSIS and CONSIDERATION

of the

ICE CONDITIONS

Final Report

by

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0510, Oct. 1965

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#### PREFACE

Our studies were carried out in accordance with our task, which was formulated by The United Nations Special Fund, Project Iceland, in several paragraphs, of which we quote this passage: "Assist the Government in getting a practical solution to the problems resulting from the formation and transport of ice in the rivers with particular reference to hydroelectric developments".

During our studies in office and in the field we had the most valuable cooperation and assistance by the Director General of The State Electricity Authority, Mr. Jakob Gislason, and his staff, among whom in particullar Mr. Jakob Bjørnsson and Mr. Sigurjön Rist have spent many busy hours and days in order to realize our proposals.

Our special collaborator, Sivil Engineer Mr. Sigmundur Freysteinsson has taken part in our work in Iceland. For all this assistance we want to express our appreciation and thanks.

#### Field studies.

Field reconnaissance was made of the Hvitå and Thjörså river basins during the months of April, May and August 1964. Investigation of ice conditions was divided into two periods: Studies of ice formation and ice accumulation were made during the months November and December 1964. Studies of ice production, compression and solidification of sludge ice, ice bridges, step bursts, influence of dynamic ice production on water level and discharge, and many other studies were made in March and April 1965.

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Various other studies were also undertaken to acquire better knowledge of the general ice conditions, especially those of importance for power development. For the same purpose numerous photographs were taken at various places and under varying ice conditions. The collection represents and archive of lasting value.

Office studies which form the basis for the preparation of this report were carried out i Norway. During this work we arrived at rather precise conclusions and recommendations. These are related to the practical ice problems which will encounter any Power Plant Project in the turbulent Thjorså and Tungnaå rivers, and we hope that our contribution will be of use.

Oslo, October 1965.

Olaf Devik

Edvigs V. Kanavin

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Chapter A. SHORT OUTLINE of the HVÍTÁ and THJÓRSÁ RIVER SYSTEMS

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1. General description of the drainage systems, the bedrock formations and river types

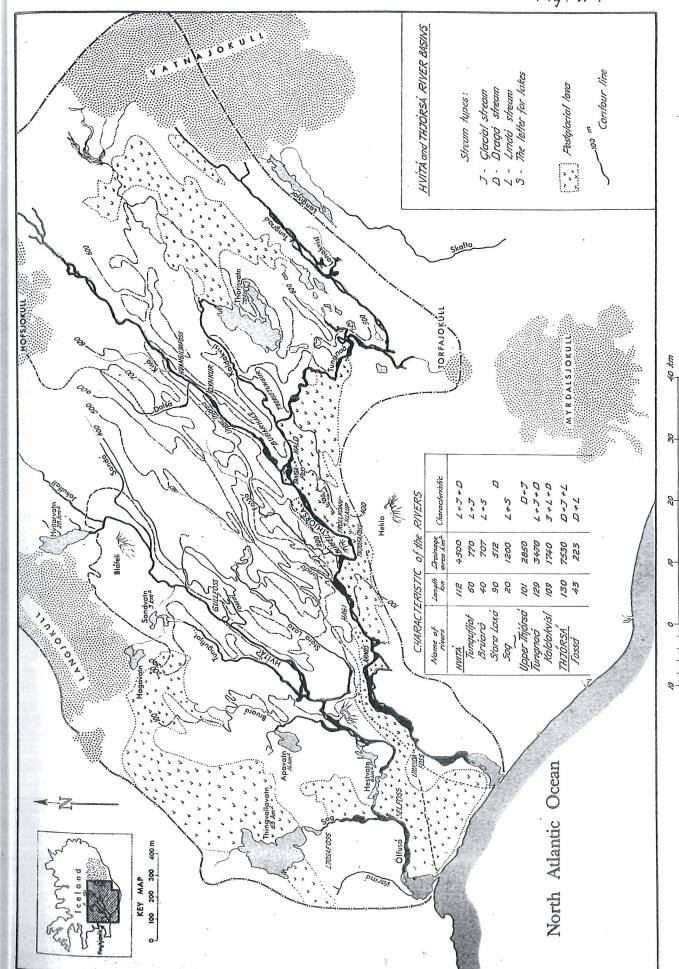
The Thjórsá and Hvítá-Ölfusá river basins are located in the southern part of Iceland, see Fig. A-1<sup>1</sup>. Their drainage systems issue from a broad gathering ground encircled by the three ice caps, Langjökull, Hofsjökull and Vatnajökull in the central highlands of the country. Their flow is in nearly parallel courses with a southwesterly direction, discharging into the North Atlantic Ocean about 60 km east of the capital city, Reykjavik.

These two rivers are next to the largest one in Iceland as far as drainage area is concerned, and they comprise a drainage area of nearly 13.700 km<sup>2</sup> (Thjórsá 7530 and Ölfusá 6100 km<sup>2</sup>). From the standpoint of power production, the Thjórsá and Hvitá are the most important rivers of the country.

The hydrology of the icelandic rivers is strongly influenced by the geological character of the drainage area. Our short description of the relevant features of the geology of the two river basins is based upon our excursions in the field, discussions with the State Electricity Authority and the use of specific publications. The bedrock formations will in the following be classified in accordance with the report of Gudmundur Kjartansson<sup>x)</sup>.

Gudmundur Kjartansson: Geologiske betingelser for islandske flodtyper,
Reykjavik 1964.

Fig. A-11



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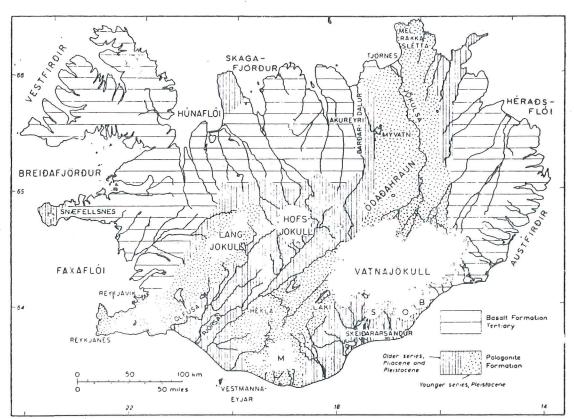
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The bedrock of Iceland may be divided into four groups: Basalt formation, Hreppar (Icel. blágrýtismyndinun), Old Grey Basalt (Icel. eldri grágrýtismyndinun), Moberg formation (Palagonite Formation) and Young Grey Basalt (Icel. yngra grágrýtid), see Fig. A-1<sup>2</sup>.

Fig. A-12



The bedrock formations of Iceland. Palagonite Formation = Móberg Formation. Older series = Old Grey Basalts. Younger series = Móberg Mountains and Young Grey Basalts.

The Basins of the Hvitá and the Upper Thjórsá are mainly resting upon a sequence of basalt flows and interbedded sediments, the Grey Basalt and Hreppar Formations. The topography of both valleys is streamlined in the southwesterly direction by glacial erosion and deposition.

The lower courses of the Tungnaá, the Thjórsá, and the Hvitá are in most places located along the borders of the Thjórsá lavas.

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The Icelandic streams have been divided into two types, glacier streams and bergvatns at ns a streams (from Icelandic bergvatn, "rock water" i.e. water issuing from rock fissures, and a = river). These two types have quite different flow characteristics, depending principally on the source and nature of the water supply. The types of rivers in Iceland have been discussed by Sigurjon Rist in the SEA reports.

Glacial streams, marked by "J" in this paper (from Icelandic Jökull = Glacier), rise from the permanent ice fields of the large glaciers. These rivers carry large amount of sediments which give the water a brown colour which results from the mud becoming lighter further downstream to attain a milky colour when it is mixed with water from other streams.

The Bergvatnsá streams have been divided by Sigurjón Rist into Dragá and Lindá streams, according to the geological conditions.

Dragá rivers, marked by "D", receive the water from normal surface run-off. These rivers are found in areas of the Hreppar and Grey Basalt formation and the more watertight areas of the Palagonite rocks. Their discharge is very much dependent upon the precipitation, and the water temperature varies with the air temperature. The great floods of the dragá rivers carry great volumes of sediments, but at other times the water is clear. Formation areas are for the most part made up by accumulation of small brooks from ravines ("drag" in Icelandic).

Lindá (spring-fed) rivers, marked with "L", are found in the permeable rock formations. The water is clear, since very little sediment is carried, and has a nearly constant temperature of 3°C to 5°C. The flow is very even all the year round.

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For the most part the basins of Hvitá and Thjórsá are undeveloped and uninhabited, only at the lower altitudes of the plains there are scattered farms and villages connected with a network of gravel roads. The countryside is generally barren, without trees, but with grasslands near the coastal section.

The Hvitá river is bridged at three places: Selfoss, Skalholt ( Ida bridge) and Tungufell (Bruarhlöd bridge), about 15 km, respectively 60 km and 85 km, from the river mouth.

The Thjórsá has only one bridge, near Urridafoss (Thjorsár bridge), about 20 km from the ocean. Tungnaá has one bridge near Hald, about 100 km from the ocean.

The glacial rivers in the area carry large quantities of sediment load, consisting mainly of material eroded from the beds of the rivers and the glaciers. The amount transported is small during low discharges but increases rapidly with the flow. The dragá rivers may also carry a substantial volume of sediments resulting from erosion by the river itself and by the surfase run-off. The variations and the quantities of their bedload may be proportionately somewhat less than for the glacial streams, the variation of sediment with discharge, however, has a similar relationship. The springfed (lindá) rivers usually carry very little sediment, only small amounts of windblown sand and pumice.

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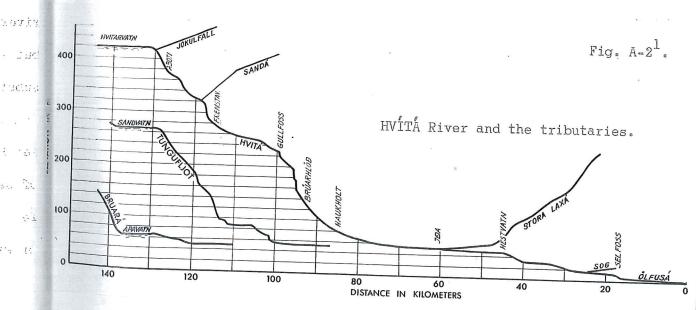
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### Hvitá - Ölfusá

The H v i t å river comes from the lake H v i t å r v a t n , located in a depression east of the Langjökull ice cap, and flows for 185 km in a southwesterly direction until it reaches the ocean at Eyrarbakki. The section downstream of the confluence with the tributary  $\, \text{S} \,\,\text{og}$  , about 25 km  $\,$ from the ocean, is called the Ölfuså river. In the following the Hvitá - Ölfusá will be referred to as the Hvitá river only.

In Fig.  $A-1^1$  and  $A-2^1$  are given the size of drainage areas and longitudinal sections of Hvitá and tributaries. Table Fig. A-22 shows characteristies of the river system.



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### CHARACTERISTICS of the HVITA RIVER SYSTEM

Name of rivers and lakes	Location	Length km	Altitude m	Drainage area km²	Characteristic
Lake Hvitarvatn (28 km²)			421	822	S
Svartá	Hvitarvatn	36	421	133	D
hvitá	Hvitar brido	e l	420	843	S+J
Jökulfall	Confluence	58	419	380	J+D
HVÍTÁ	Aboti	6		1230	D+J+S
Sandá	Confluence	17	249	327	D
Stangará	"	15		44	D
Budará	11	15		65	D
-vítá	Gullfoss -	. 40	189	2000	D+J+S+L
Dalsá	Confluence	14		31	D
Fossá	n	16		30	D
vítá	B <b>rúá</b> rhlöd	48	85	2075	D+J+S+L
19	Hvitardalur	53		2090	D+J+S+L
Tungufljöt	Confluence	60	53	770	L+J-2 S
Stóra Laxá	77	90	53	512	D '
Litla Laxá	11	37		105	D+L
·VÍTÁ	Ida	91	52	3540	D+L+J
Brúará	Confluence	40	50	707	L+S
Lake Apavatn (14 km²)			59		S
Lake Hestvatn (6 km²)		49			S
īvítá	(onfl.with So	g <b>)</b> 110	15	4500	L+J+D
Sog	Confluence		15	1200	L+S
Lake Thungvallavatn	(82,6 km²)	103	C	a 1000	, S
DLFUSA	Selfoss	117	12	5760	L+J+S+D
II	Mouth	135	0	6100	L+J+S+D

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Lake H v i t å r v a t n of 29,6 km² area is located at the SE border of the Langjökull. Max depth is appr. 84 m, average depth 27,6 m. The drainage area of the Hvitarvatn is about 820 km² (appr. 330 km² is covered by glacier). The main tributaries to the lake are F û l a k v i s l and S v a r t å.

The main tributaries of the Hvitá river are from the right

Tungufljöt, Brúará and Sog, and from the left Jökul
fall, Sandá and Stóra-Laxá.

Jökul fall river is a glacial river (J) coming from the Hofsjökull Ice cap and is entering Hvitá a short distance below lake Hvitarvatn. The drainage area of the Jökulfall river is about 380 km² (appr. 90 km² is covered by glacier).

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Sandá with Grjötá are dragá streams (D) coming from Kerlingarfjöll. Total drainage area about 417 km².

Stőra-Laxá is also a direct run-off river (D) but spring-fed to some extent from Litla-Laxá. The drainage area below Geldinga-fell is  $133 \text{ km}^2$  and at confluence with Hvitá  $512 \text{ km}^2$ . (Litla-Laxá  $105 \text{ km}^2$ ).

Tungulfljöt comes from the Sandvatn (area ca. 3 km). The drainage area just after Sandvatn is 566 km² (about 270 km² is covered by glacier), at Faxi 720 km², and the total area is about 770 km². The flow is to a great deal spring-fed (lindå stream (L) and the variations are to some extent evened by lakes. The river contains a tiny amount of glacial melt-water.

Brűará arising from the permeable rock formations south of Langjökull (Lambahraun and Haukadalur) is likewise a spring-fed flow (L). The drainage area is: below Bruarskord 115 km², below Hruta 215 km², at Dynjandi 670 km² and at confluence with Hvitá 707 km². The tributary Hagaos is coming from lake Apavatn, area 14 km², drainage area about 280 km².

Hestlækur river is flowing out from lake Hestvatn, area  $6~\mathrm{km}^2$ , drainage area about 150  $\mathrm{km}^2$ .

1

The largest tributary to the Hvitá is Sog river, a lindá flow (L) originating in lake Thingvallavatn, the largest lake in Iceland, area 84 km², max. depth 114 m, average depth 34,1 m.

From this upper lake, the Sog river flows southerly into a lower lake, U l f l j ő t s v a t n , area about 3 km². The drainage area is: below Thingvallavatn about 1000 km², at Ljósafoss 1050 km² and at confluence with Hvitá about 1200 km².

Below Ulfljötsvatn the Sog river has three separate waterfalls, Ljosafoss, Irafoss and Kistufoss.

On the Sog river are built three hydroelectric power plants, the Upper Sog Plant (27 MW), the Ljósafoss Plant (6,4 MW) and the Irafoss Plant (45 MW).

The length of H v i t a from lake Hvitarvatn to the confluence with Sog is appr. 160 km. The drainage area at the confluence with Sog is about 4500 km. About 690 km or 16 % of this area is covered by glaciers. The flow is to a great deal spring-fed from linda streams (Tungufljot, Bruara and Sog), a considerable deal of glacial melt-water (from Upper Hvita) and a little deal from direct run-off and lakes (L+J+D+S).

Below lake Hvitarvatn there are numerous small falls and rapids where the river drops 155 m over a distance of 18 km.

The highest waterfall in Hvitá river is Gullfoss, appr. 30 m.

In the Gullfoss reach the river drops 100 m over a distance of 8 km.

In the lower parts of Hvitá river the greatest fall is in the reach from above lake Hestvatn to below the Selfoss, appr. 45 m over a distance of 28 km.

Of special importance for the ice production is the area of the river surface which is exposed to heat exchange with the atmosphere. Table Fig. A-2<sup>3</sup> shows the length, elevation, slope and area of the various river sections when the whole river is open.

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Table Fig. A-2<sup>3</sup>.

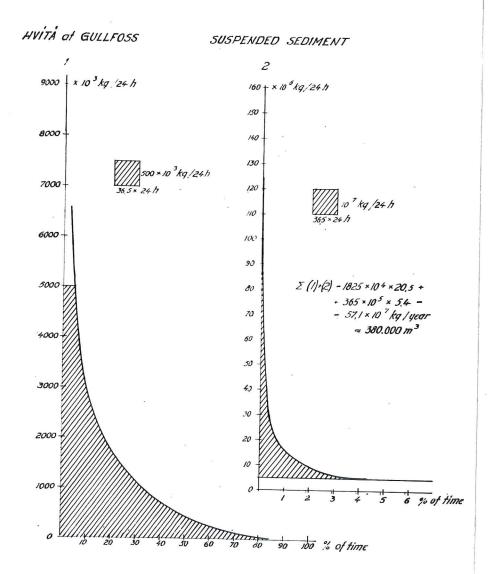
Length, elevation, slopes and areas of Hvitá river sections

	Dist. from mouth km	Ele- vation m a.s.l.	Length of sect. km	Diff. in elev. m	Average slope m/km	Area of section km²	Average width of river section m
At Hvitarvatn Lake	134,0	421					
At Fremstaver	113,2	264	20,8	157	7,5	1,8	87
Approx. 8 km upstream	,		10,0	19	1,9	1,4	140
from Gullfoss  Approx. 8 km down-	103,2	245	17,4	163	9,4	1,6	92
stream from Gullfoss	85,8	82					
Above Kopsvatnseyrar	76,0	60	9,8	22	2,2	0,9	92
At Hestvatn Lake	46,5	48	29,5	12	0,4	14,4	488
Below Selfoss	16,5	3	30,0	45	1,5	12,0	400
At mouth	0	0 <u>+</u>	16,5	3 <u>+</u>	0,2+ 3	30 appr.	1820

The SEA has carried out measurements of suspended sediment load in the Hvitá river. Fig. A-2<sup>4</sup> shows a sediment duration curve, based on the flow duration curve plus a relationship between discharge and suspended sediment, established by analysis of 43 samples from the river at different flow.

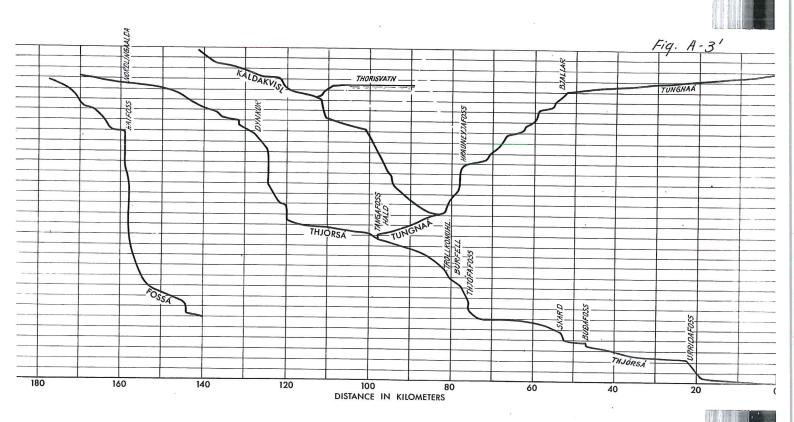
According to the figure, the average annual suspended sediment load at Gullfoss is ca 380.000  $\mbox{m}^3$ .

Stora Laxá (D) carries a great substantial volume of sediments resulting from erosion by the river itself and by the surface run-off.



## 3. The Tungnaa and Thjorsa river system

The Thjorsa river system may suitably be divided into three main sections: Upper Thjórsá, above the confluence with the Tungnaa river, Tungnaá river with main tributary Kaldakvisl, and Lower Thjórsá, below the confluence with Tungnaá.



In Fig. A-1 $^{\rm l}$  and A-3 $^{\rm l}$  are given the size of drainage areas and the longitudinal sections of Thjórsá, Tungnaá and their tributaries.

The subdivision of the drainage areas between the main tributary rivers, as well as the size of drainage areas and characteristics of the flow is shown in table Fig.  $A-3^2$ .

Fig.  $A-3^2$ .

## CHARACTERISTICS of the THJÓRSÁ and TUNGNAÁ RIVER SYSTEM

Name of rivers and la	kes Location	Length km	Altitude m	Drainage area km	Characteris- tics
Upper THJÓRSÁ Fjordungskvisl Bjergvatnskvisl Hnitá Svartá	Soleyjarhöfdi Confluence ""	28 32 11 20	580 ·690 690	1740 260 227 100 95	J+D J+D D J+D D
Upper THJÓRSÁ Kisá Miklilækur Dalsá	Nordlingaalda Confluence "	17 14 36	510 500	2060 147 40 253	D+J D D D+S
Upper THJÓRSÁ	Dynkur Tungna <b>á</b>		280	2615 2850	D+J D+J
Vatnak.+ Snjoöldukv.	Confl.w.Tungnaá	*		270	L+S
TUNGNAA Utkvist+Blautakv.	Bjallavad Confluence			1400 93	L+J+D L
TUNGNAÁ	Tungnarkrok			1555	L+J+D
Kaldakvisl	Hrauneyjafoss Confl.w.Tungnaá	109	395 318	1625 1740	L+J+D J+D+L+S
TUNGNAÁ	Hald	122		3470	L+J+D
" Thjorså	Confl.w.Thjorså	129.	280	3480	L+J+D
IN OKSA	Tangafoss	0	280	6320	D+J+L
se .	Klofaey	9		6360	D+J+L
Fossá Sandá	Tröllkonuhlaup Confluence "	72		6380 223	D+J+L D+L D+L
THJORSÁ	Stori-Nupur	42	120	6880	D+J+L
Kalfa	Budafoss Confluence	49 25	74 61	6930 85	D+J+L D
THJÓRSÁ " "	Krokur Urridafoss Egilsstadir Mouth	72 77 85 97	47 21 8 0	7180 7200 7220 7530	D+J+L D+J+L D+J+L D+J+L

Upper Thjörså has a length of about 90 km. The river comes from the sources on the high plateau between Hofsjökull and Vatnajökull. The river has a total fall of about 300 m over a length of 60 km. Appr. 160 m of this fall is concentrated in the 10 km long Thjörså Gorge, near the center of the Upper Thjörså, by two great waterfalls, and in its associated rapids. Gentle grades prevail in the remainder of the river except for a drop of 15 m at a waterfall.

Waterfalls and rapids of considerable importance are: Hvanngiljafoss falling 14,2 m on a 600 m course, Dynkurr falling 63 m on a 800 m course and Gljúfurleitarfoss - 28,5 m in concentrated fall.

A section of the river, beginning about 2 km above the confluence with Blautakvisl and stretching about 11 km upwards, is very wide and shallow.

The main tributary rivers are: Bergvatns - and Fjordungskvisl and Svartå from the left, Kiså and Dalså from the rigth.

The flow is substantially a direct run-off (draga stream), with a considerable deal of glacial melt-water (D+J).

Tungnaå comes from Vatnajökull and is considerably larger than Upper Thjórsá. The length is about 130 km and the total drainage area about 3470 km².

The profile of the Tungnaa river may be divided into three reaches based upon position and relative gradient. The uppermost reach 80 km lang, from near Vatnajökull to the Bjallar waterfall, has a drop of about 140 m of a nearly uniform gradient. The following reach from Bjallar to near the mouth of the Kaldakvish has a drop of about 240 m as the Tungnaa flows for 30 km along the border of the Thjórsa laves. This high degree of slope is characterized by falls and rapids concentrated at Bjallar (18 mm), Tungnaarkrokur (10 m), Skeggjafoss (12 m) and Hrauneyjafoss (96 m including rapids in 5 km course), each separated from the other by short stretches where the

flow has a moderate gradient. The comparatively flat lower section extends from the Kaldakvisl mouth, (321 m, m.a.s.) for 16 km to the Thjórsá (273 m, m.a.s.) having a drop of 48 m with a nearly uniform gradient.

At several places Tungnaá is divided in many shallow branches spreading linto a lava field. To mention is a section about 5 km long, just above Hrauneyjafoss, and a section about 6 km long just before Tungnaá joins Thjorsá.

An important tributary river to Tungnaá is Kaldakvisl, which also originates in Vatnajökull. Lake Thorisos vatn drains via the 6 km long Thorisos os river to the Kaldakvisl. Upstream of the Thorisos confluence, the Kaldakvisl has a moderate and nearly uniform gradient. The flow is to a great deal a draga stream and carries glacial melt-water (D+J+S).

Lake Thorisvatn, 70 km² in area, presents a major seasonal potential storage. It is situated at an altitude of 575 m and has a considerable depth (max. depth about 110 m, average depth 40,7 m).

Total drainage area of Tungnaá is about 3470 km². The flow is to a great deal spring-fed (lindá stream), evened by lakes and to a less deal fed by a direct run-off and glacial melt-water (L+D+J+S).

The Tungnaá carries in winter very little sediment, only small amounts of wind-blown sand and pumice.

Lower Thjörså is a broad and powerfull river. From the place of confluence with Tungnaa it is running for the most part in lava fields, respectively along the boundary of lava fields. Running on a lava field the river is generally wide and shallow such as from Tröllkonuhlaup 14 km upwards, where the width is up to 500 m, while the depth is only 0,5 - 1 m at mean discharge. The lower part of the river has long sections which are nearly 2 km wide.

The profile of the Lower Thjórsá may be divided into three reaches based on position and relative gradient. The section 20 km long between Tangafoss and Tröllkonuhlaup has a drop of about 60 m with a nearly uniform gradient. The second reach from Tröllkonuhlaup to the southerly end of Burfell has a major doncentrated drop in a series of rapids and waterfalls. The fall totals nearly 90 m over a distance of 7 km. The Thjórsá resumes a relatively gentle gradient about 1 km upstream from the mouth of the Fossá to the head of the Urridafoss. The river profile consists of long low - sloping reaches separated by short swift - current reaches with falls and rapids. The total fall of this 50 km long section is 75 m, including 15 m at the Skard rapids and 7 m at the waterfall Budafoss, both near the center of the reach. The last major concentrated drop on the Thjórsá amounts to 35 meters as the river passes through the 4 km long Urridafoss gorge. Below Urridafoss the fall amounts to only 11 m in the remaining 18 km to the ocean.

The main tributary rivers are: Fosså, Thverå and Kålfå.

The drainage area of Thjórsá at the confluence with Tungnaá is about 6320 km², at Burfell about 6400 km², at Urridafoss 7200 km², and the total area about 7530 km².

Table A-3 $^3$  gives the area of the Thjórsá and Tungnaá river surface which is exposed to heat exchange with the atmosphere.

The flow of Thjörså is substantially a direct run-off stream with glacial melt-water essentially from Upper Thjörså, and springfed water to some extent from Tungnaå and Fosså.(D+J+L).

The Thjorså is a sediment-carrying river. The lower sections are in many places covered with large gravel - and sandbanks.

1	Distance From Mouth	Ele- vation m a.s.l.	Difference in ele- vation m	Average slope m/km	Area of section km²
Upper Thjorsa					
At confluence with Swartá R.	146	557	. 53	3,8	2,45
At Hvanngiljafoss Falls	132	504	196	16,3	2,3
Below Gljúfurleitarfoss Falls	120	308	20		4,9
At Confluence with Blautaky.	102	288		3,5	•
At confluence with Tungnaá R.	. 98	274	14	3,5	0,5
Tungnaá					
At Hofsveð	46 <sup>x</sup> )	558			0.0
Below Sigöldufoss Falls	27	424	134	7,1	2,9
At Hrauneyjafoss Falls	21	416	8	1,3	2,0
At confluence with Kaldakvis	1 16	320	96	19,2	0,4
At Hald	5	292	28	2,5	1,1
At confluence with Thjórsá R	. 0	280 274	12	2,4	2,0 (Blautakvísl) 0,2
Lower Thjórsá  At confluence with Tungnaá R	. 98	274			
Appenx.8 km downstream	8 7		21	2,6	4,1
(Klofaey)	90	253	43	4,8	2,,9
At Tröllkonuhlaup Falls	81	210	31	7,8	0.7
Approx. 4 km downstream	77	179	29	29,0	0,1
At Thjófafoss Falls	76	150		12,0	0,2
Below Thjófafoss Falls	74	126	24		
Approx. 18 km downstream	56	107	19	1,1	6,6
At Buðafoss Falls	47 .	74	33	3,7	3,7
At Heiðartangi	22	45	29 35 -		21,8 5,5 km of andbanks)
Below Urriðafoss Falls	19	10	70	1,5	28
At Skúmseyrar	0	0 (	T.0	£ 6 U	
		1,	x) Distanc	e from cor	afluence with Thjors

The Upper Thjórsá carry large sediment quantities consisting mainly of materials eroded from the beds of the rivers and the glaciers. The amount transported is less during low discharges in wintertime but increases rapidly with the flow.

Also the Upper part of Kaldakvisl and Tungnaa carry a great volum of sediments. The variation of sediment with discharge has a similar relationship.

Within a distance of about 10 km from the ocean the tides are influencing the water level.

## Chapter B. METEOROLOGICAL and HYDROLOGICAL DATA RELEVANT to the ICE CONDITIONS

Iceland is more than other european countries exposed to the passages and oscillations of the Polar Front, i.e. the borderline between cold air currents blowing from the Arctic Ocean, and warmer air currents blowing from the Atlantic Ocean. In winter time cold spells of northerly wind will sweep the country when arctic air comes, and mild southerly wind will after shorter of longer time come instead when atlantic air arrives.

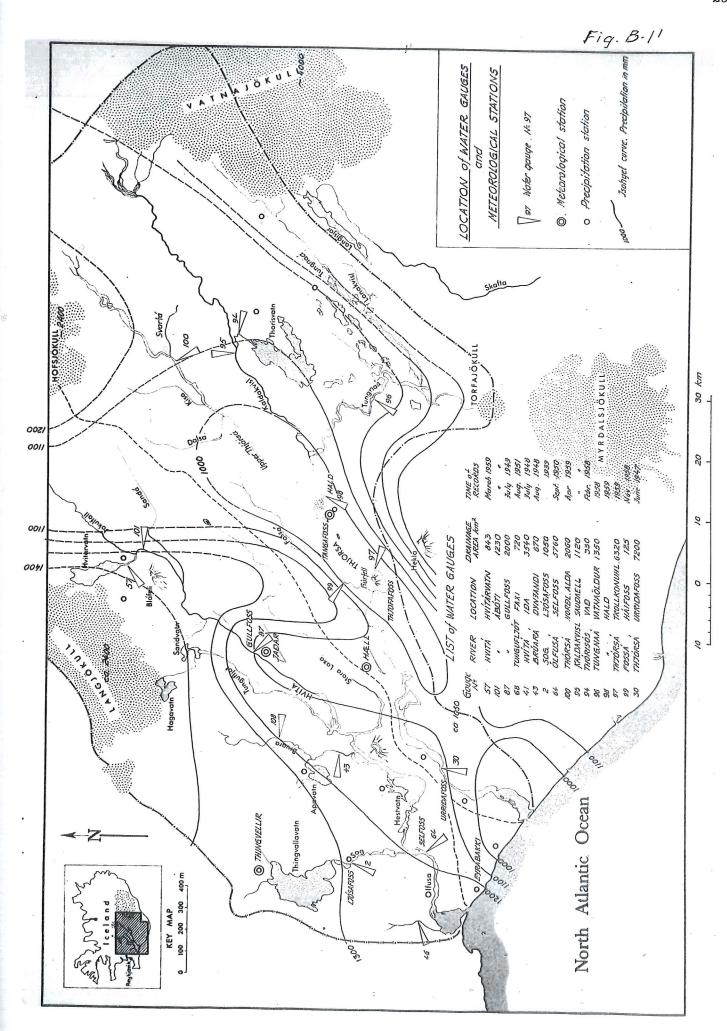
During a cold spell comes in addition the influence of the mountainous snow and ice fields of the interior districts which by clear weather become efficient producers of cold air floating down the valleys.

In the Hvitá and Thjórsá river basins the direction of the valleys is about the same as the direction of the cold air current from the Arctic.

The character of the weather changes and the precipitation will determine the ice conditons in the river systems. Special importance for a detailed study of ice production will be the observations of air temperature, wind and precipitation.

### 1. Meteorological observations of air temperature, wind and precipitation.

Meteorological stations with continuous series of observations can practically only be placed in the inhabited regions of the country. This is the case with the three meteorological stations within the Hvitá and Thjórsá river basins, viz. Hæll, Jadar and Thingvellir, location map Fig. B-1.



From the desolated mountaineous areas and the glaciers only occasional observations of air temperature or short series are available, and chiefly from the summer time.

Precipitation measurements will be treated separately below.

Hæll met.st. is situated in the lower part of the system, at an altitude of about 130 m. From the daily temperature observations at Hæll are calculated two types of averages, viz. monthly means, respectively pentade means for 5 - days intervals. For precipitation monthly sums or pentade sums are calculated. Monthly means or monthly sums will smooth out irregularities which will be disclosed by pentade means respectively pentade sums.

In the table Fig. B-1<sup>2</sup> are given the monthly means of temperature, the number of day-degrees of frost and the total precipitation at Hæll during each month, for the period 1930-60. On the top of the table are given the normal values for two periods, 1901-30 and 1931-60.

Graphic illustrations of pentade means of temperature and pentade sums of precipitation at Hæll are given in Figs.  $B-1^{3-5}$  for the period 1950-65.

More details giving daily maxima and minima of temperature at Hæll during the last 5 winters are represented by the curves, see section B-2.

The <u>Thingvellir</u> met.st. is situated in the lower part of the Hvitá, at the north end of the lake Thingvallavatn, at an altitude of about 105 m.

The <u>Jadar</u> met. st. was established in 1962 and is located near Gullfoss in the Hvita river, at an altitude of about 160 m.

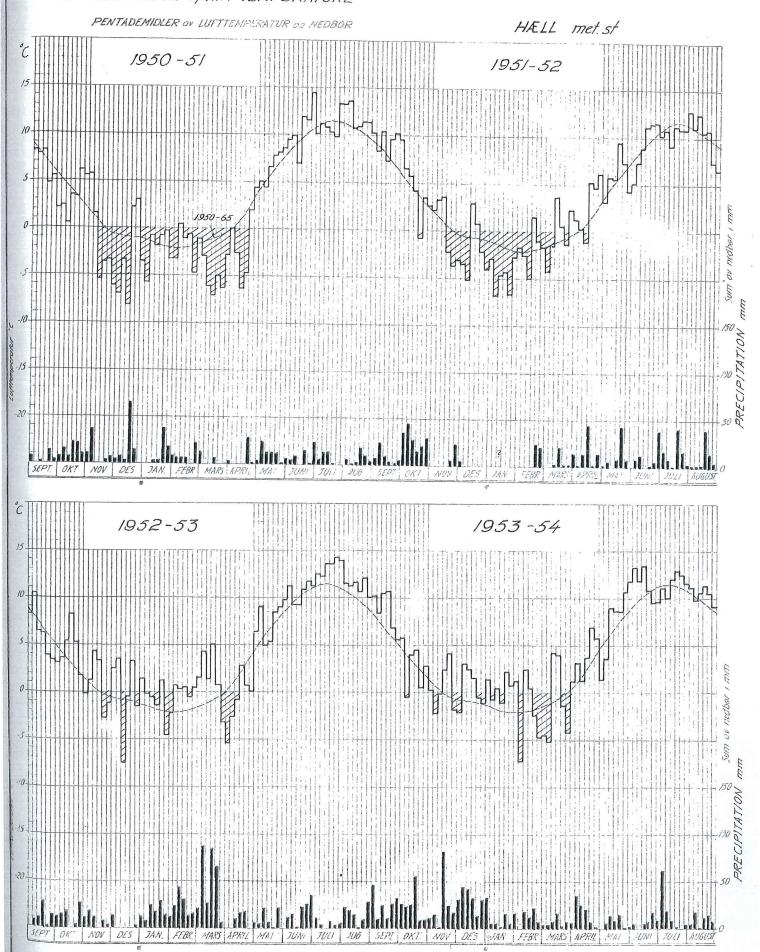
A temporary meteorological station has recently been established near Tangafoss, at the Thjórsá-Tungnaá confluence, at an alittude of about  $290~\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{s}}$ 

Recordings of wind at Tangafoss and Hæll from the winter 1964-65 show that prevailing cold wind comes in most cases from direction N to E, while prevailing warmer wind mainly comes from direction S to SW.

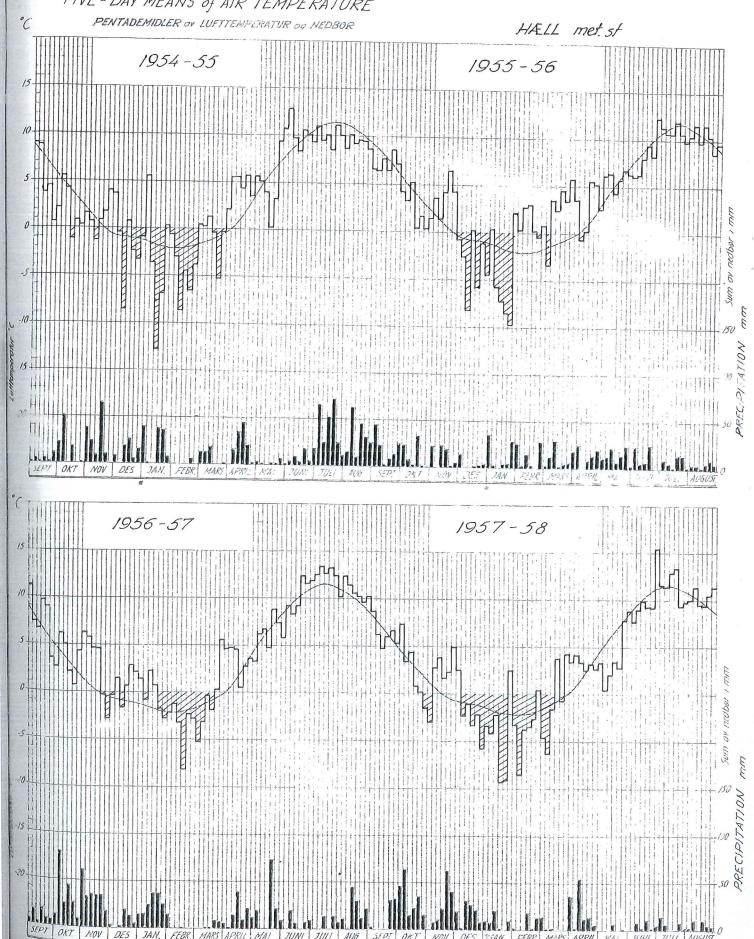
# METEOROGICAL OBSERVATIONS, MONTHLY SUMMARIES HÆLL met. st., 1930 - 60

	NOVE			MBER		ARY		RULPY	374	ECH	APA	RIL			NOI	
Vinter	TEMP of	-CIPIT. mm	J. HWY	PRECIPIT mm	4IR TEMP. °C	PRECIP. mm	TEMP. C	PREUP. mm	Jo dW31	PRECIP. mm	J. JUST	PRECIP. mm	Frust- SUM		PRECIPITATION in mm	
	A1R	786	AIR	PRI	41K	PRE	AIR	PRE	AIR	386	1/16	PRE			PRI	
1901-30 1931-60	0,3	90	-0,9 -0,4	95 95	-1,8	75 92	-1,2	75 84	-0,8		1,4	65 74	4,9		475 5 <b>3</b> 0	7
											<del> </del>	N IN		h		
<i>19</i> 30 - 31 31 - 32	- s. L			-		c			*							Á
32 - 33				ļ	0,0	240	-5.0	48	0,8	70	1,8	30	9	- ;	5 c	3
33 - 34	3.0	148	3.3	205							1	5 <u>1</u>	3,0	!	000	÷
	-0.1			40					1,9			-	5,6		_ 908 _ 615	i
35 - 36	1,5			(41)					-	71			9,3		258	<u>-</u>
36 - 37	0,1	158	4,5	86	-0,3	51	-2,9	62	-4,1	1	4,5		11,8		450	
37 - 38	1,5	95	0,9	90.	-2,1	89	0,0	138	0,6	171	3,2	169	2,1		752	4
38 - 39	-0.1	37	1.0	89	=3,8	26	0,4	1.10	2,5	78	3,8	76	3,9	_	416	
39 -40	-0,1	43.	-0,2	145	0,3	103	0,4	70	-1,2	58	2,4	72	1,5		491	
1940 -41	-0,2	93	1,0	151	-2,3	57	-3,3	43	0,5	56	4,2	35	5,8		435	
41 -42	3,1			150			-0,1	0.44	1,8			1	0,2		560	
42 -43	2,0	129	0,6	65	-1,0	15	-2,5	131	-0,1	108	1,6	95	3,7		543	
43 -44	-0,1	1.04	0,4	160	-3,7	75	-1,4	70	-0,8	96	2,3	73	6,0		578	
44 - 45	-1,0	52.	-1,3	85	-5,2	32	-1,2	42	2,9	167	3,0	100	8,7		478	
45 -46	4,7			. 76						-		113	1,5		576	
	-0,2		1,8	(95)				9				39	7,1	1	319	
	-0,7		0,4	1	-0,3			50 E	2,4			43	1,4		594	
48 - 49				108								50	7,5		546	
49 - 50	1,8	56	-2,7	78	1,7	131.	-2,2	19	-0,1	81	1,2	16	5,0		381	
9 50 - 51	=0,9	65	2,8	98	-2,2	66	-1,6	32	-4,7	34	-1,0	34	12,2		329	
51 - 52	0,5	36-	2,0	(45)	-4,7	74.	-1,2	152	0,1	26	2,9	92	7,9		425	
52 - 53	0,7	76.	0,2	28	-1,0	107	0,1	135	1,4	301	-1,0	45	1,2		692	
53 - 54	0,4	147	0,7	191	0,3	85.	-1,7	77	0,1	4.1	3,8	95	1,7		616	
54 - 55	1,5	148	2,4	72	-3,4	125.	4,2	40	-0,3	65	5,1	123	10,3	,	573	
55 - 56	3,3	76-	-3,8	18	-4,7	73	1,1	69	2,9	59	2,6	80	8,5		375	
56 - 57	3,5	220	0,6	96	-0,2	161.	-3,2	11	-0,6	18	3,6	94	4,0	1	600 _	
<u>57 - 58</u> <u>58 - 59</u>	1,7		1.8	122 41	-4,2	80.	-3,8	68	-1,0	29	3,2	168	10,8		592	
5960	0,3	63-	0.5	86	0,8	91.	-2.8	98	2,8	69	4,0	125	3,3		532	
														i		
Mari	4	600		D.A.F.	0 5	ا ادیم					<b>.</b>			ì		
Max	4,7			205		1	- 6	330			5,1	169		ļ	908	
1 <sup>st</sup> quart	2,0	148	0,7	1.35	0,3	125	0,0	98	1,8	96	3,6	95	8,5	<u>_</u>	594	
Med	0,7	93	-0,2	89=	1,0	80	-1,6	70	0.1	69	2,4	74	5,3	!	544	
	-0 <sub>6</sub> 1	56	1,8	65-	3,8	57	-3,1	43	-1,0	34	1,2	41	2,1		425	
	-1,0	28.	4.5	18-	5,8	1	-5.5	9	-4,7	j	-1.0	16	0,2		258	

### FIVE - DAY MEANS OF AIR TEMPERATURE .



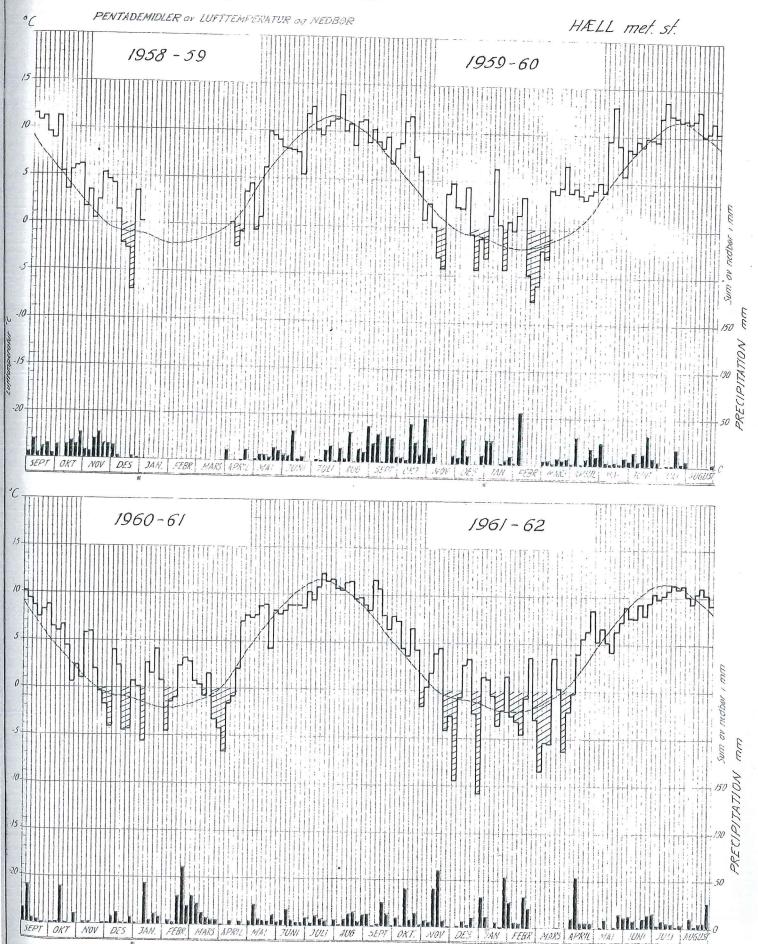




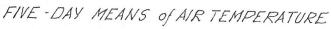
NVE Hydr. avd. Iskontoret

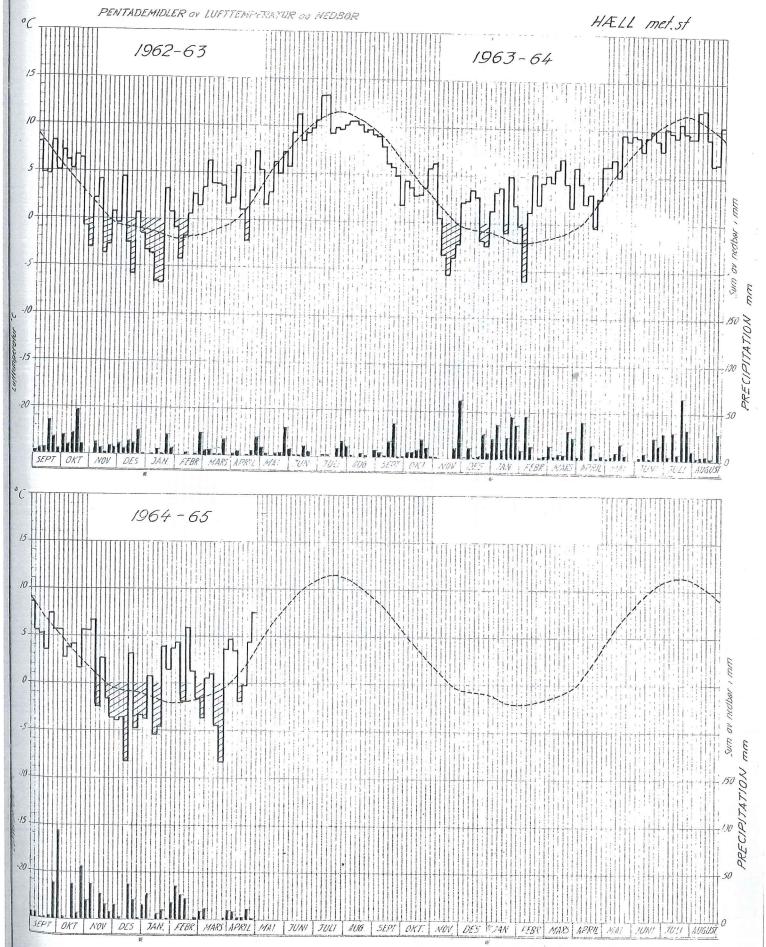
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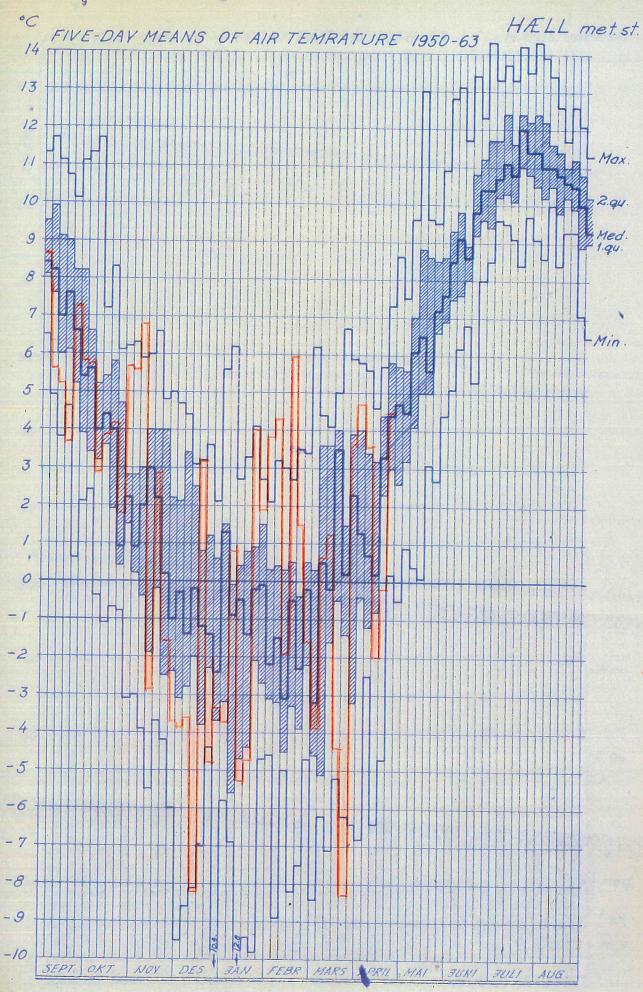
### FIVE - DAY MEANS OF AIR TEMPERATURE



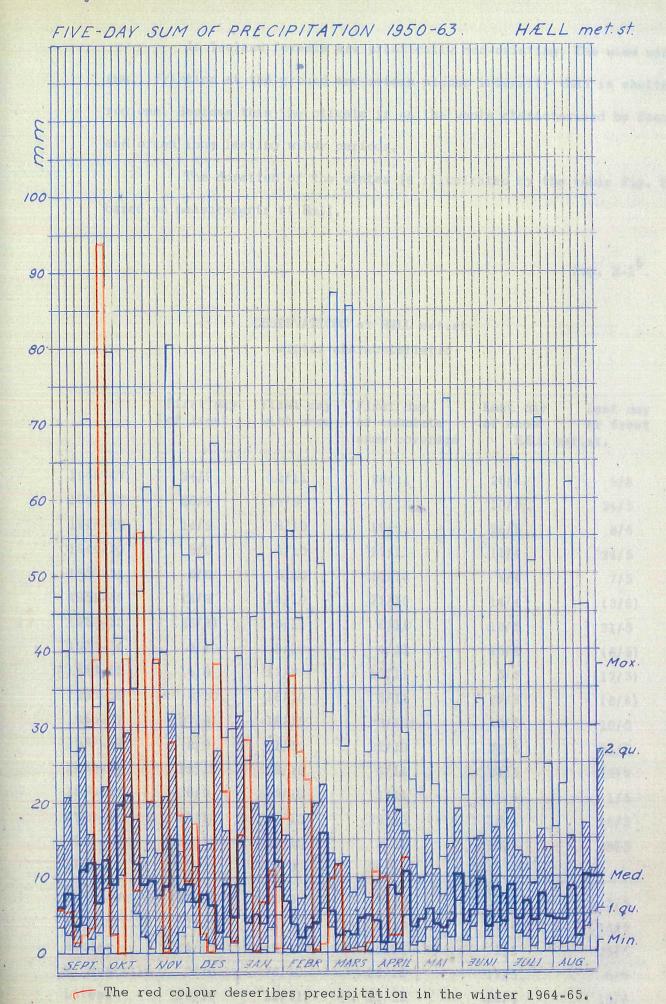
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The red colour describes temperature in the winter 1964-65.



In Iceland forests are practically non-existing. The wind will meet small friction at the ground and attain higher intensity than in sheltered regions. Besides this the climate is on the whole characterised by frequent and often long lasting windy periods.

The duration of the winter is illustrated by the table Fig. B-1  $^6$  based on measurements at Hæll.

Fig. B-1<sup>6</sup>.

OBSERVATIONS at HALL met.st. winter charachteristic

	First day of frost	First day with snow	First day of complete snow coverage	Last day of snow HÆLL me	Last day of frost et.st.
1946-47	24/9	12/11	28/11	26/4	9/6
1947-48	28/9	28/9	8/12	10/5	24/5
1948-49	14/9	6/10	29/11	28/5	8/6
1949-50	9/9	4/10	27/11	15/4	24/5
1950-51	6/9	5/10	10/12	9/4	7/5
1951-52	18/9	18/10	22/10	14/4	(3/6)
1952-53	(28/8)	3/11	6/11	19/5	21/5
1953-54	3/10	8/10	4/11	15/4	(8/5)
1954-55	14/9	27/9	10/11	5/5	(17/5)
1955-56	3/10	18/10	5/12	27/5	(8/6)
1956-57	(27/8)	18/10	(23/10)	5/5	10/5
1957-58	8/·9	11/10	22/10	20/5	24/5
1958-59	12/10	29/10	6/11	24/5	19/6
1959-60	6/9	25/10	1/11	11/4	1/5
1960-61	11/10	29/10	29/10	15/4	26/5
1961-62	12/10	28/10	5/11	15/5	30#5
1962-63	11/9	25/9	26/10		
Earliest	(27/8)	25/9°	22/10	9/4	1/5
l. quartile	7/9	4/10	28/10	15/4	14/5
Median	14/9	18/10	6/11	1/5	24/5
2. Quartile	3/10	28/10	28/10	17/5.	6/6
Latest	12/10	12/11	12/12	28/5	19/6

The observation material from these meteorological stations give a useful description of the character of the weather and the precipitation in the Hvitá. Thjórsá district. The tables and curves for Hæll given above demonstrate how very changeable the weather may be. At any time of the winter may come shorter or longer periods of frost, with ice production and declining discharge, which may be followed by shorter or longer periods of mild weather with rainfall and melting of snow and ice. This will cause increase of the river discharge.

Even in the monthly means of temperature are the fluctuations over a long period of years impressive, as will be seen from the table Fig.  $B\text{-}1^7$  giving the monthly maxima and minima of temperature at Hæll, Thingvellir and Reykjavík.

Fig. B-17.

## MONTHLY MAXIMA and MINIMA of AIR TEMPERATURE 1930-60

	ological st				N.		J.	F.	М.	Α.	Μ.	J.	J.	Α.
max. Hæll min.	:			4,7		2,5		2,9	5,1		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			
					-1,0		-5,8			-1,0				
max. Thingvellir							2,2						•••••••	
min.	min.			••••	-2,7	-4,4	-6,6	<b>-5,</b> 9	-7,9	-2,1				
max. Reykjavik min.	max.	1				4,4	3,6			5,6			12,5	
		(	6,1	2,2	-0,1	-2,6	-3,8	-3,5	-3,0	-0,0	3,9	8,3	10,0	9,3

An illustration of the frequency of cold spells is seen from the curves giving the five-days means of air temperature at Hæll met.st., when we count the number of pentades with means of temperature equal to or lower than e.g. -4°C. This would correspond to about 6,5°C at an altitude of 300 m, i.e. to the place Hald at Tungnaå, see location map. Fig. B-1¹. We then get this table:

Number of pentades with mean temperature equal to or colder than -4 C at Hæll, respectively -6.5 C at Tangfoss.

1950-51	12 pentades	1957-58	7 pentades
51-52	8	58 - 59	- (missing)
52-53	3	59-60	6
53-54	5	60-61	7
54-55	7	61-62	8
55-56	7	62-63	4
56-57	2	63-64	2
		64-65	6

1 pentade = 5 days

Precipitation. In the south-western districts of Iceland has been established a number of precipitation stations which for the last 5 years give a comprehensive report of the precipitation. In the fig. B-1 is shown the distribution of precipitation in the lower districts of Hvitá and Thjorsá. It will be seen that two minima exist, (nearly 1000 mm) one near the coast and one between Thjorsá and Rangá. Maxima between 1500 and 1600 mm lie on the west side of Hvitá and the east side of Thjórsá. Very high precipitation has the region south of Vatnajökull, where the mean precipitation exceeds 3500 mm (according to measurements at Kvisker precipitation station).

From many years observations at Reykjavik are given an analysis of the yearly variations of precipitations, see Fig. B-1<sup>8</sup>. The estimation methods, see supplement table.

As can be seen from the graphic the precipitation shows great variations in the period.

Snow measurements on the glaciers and 7 integrating collectors of precipitation, placed in the southern parts of the highland, give supplementary data of the precipitation.

PRECIPITATION in mm 0961 JCELAND, Reykjovík 0561 0661 1/4=1,22 X-813mm \$ (K-1)-0 030 130 0.00 0.00 040

A fraction of the precipitation fall as snow in the months September-May, the percentage is, however, much influenced by the local topography and the climate, and it is certainly very changing during the winter. It may safely be expected that a rainfall may occur at any month and at any place in the country during winter time.

From the following table Fig. B-1<sup>9</sup> giving monthly means of precipitation for the period 1931-60 is seen that May and June are the drier months at these stations. The highest precipitation is measured in the months October-January.

Fig. B-1<sup>9</sup>.

				•			
Manthles mane	La La colonia de	1 2 4 ( ) .				*	0.7
monthal means	or prec	ipitation	n	mm in	The	period"1931-60"	
		-I		Truck Tite	~~~	berrod rantano	

Station	Sept.		Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Febr.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.
Hæll	113	131	103	95	92	84	82	74	59	63	76	92
Eyrarbakki	127	160	137	139	138	108	109	98	72	72	79	103
Thingvellir	120	157	139	134	134	103	110	90	70	68	72	95
Ljösafoss	162	204	171	144	155	115	140	109	91	92	96	127
Reykjavik	72	97	85	81	90	65	65	53	42	41	48	66

The local variations in the monthly sums of precipitation are also great. At the station Hveradalir at Hvitá has been measured 595 mm in January and 584 mm in September 1933.

The amount of precipitation during 24 hours may occasionally be great. At Fagurholsmyr; st. was for instance measured 121,5 mm on the 4. July 1960. In the following table Fig. B-1<sup>10</sup> are given the highest measured precipitation during 24 hours during the period 1931-60, at the stations Vik, Hæll and Reykjavik.

Fig. B-1 $^{10}$ . Maximum of precipitation through 24 hours in the period 1931-60.

Station			Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Febr.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.
Vik	150	77	139	76	64	78	49	68	78	92	75	93
Hæll	44	54	55	46	36	67	68	38	32	32	59	42
Reykjavik '	49	37	44	55	36	40	57	22	19	30	31	35

The fluctuations of precipitation cause variations of the river discharge. Floods may occur at any time during the winter and the intensity may be increased by melting of a snow cover through rainfall and air temperature above zero.

#### Snow deposits in the central highland.

Winter precipitation above an elevation of 500 m mostly will fall as snow. During the last few years the Hydrological Survey has collected some descriptive informations of snow deposits in these areas. Two snow survey stations were established last autumn in the upper Thjorsá drainage area. The mean snow dept at one of them was 440 cm on the 18. April 1959, average spec. gravity was 0,572 g/cm³, giving a water content of 252 cm. The precipitation as measured by a totalizer for the period 13. Oct. - 18. April was 500 cm.

Max. snow depth (cm) at Jadar met. st.

Winter	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Febr.	March	April
1957-58			19	<b>a</b>	20	4
1958-59	p.	17	5	18	24	13
1959-60	16	6	23	1	12	11
1960-61	0	18	6	25	17	17
1961-62	6	-	18	32		9
1962-63	7	15	•			

#### 2. Hydrological data

There are at present 22 gauging stations in the Hvitá and Thjórsá basin; see location map. B-1. Several of these are equipped with Stevens recorder A-35 or Ott recorder, type X. Direct measurements of discharge have been performed at all these stations to check the readings and the recordings.

In Nov. 1964 a number of benchmarks have been established along the Tungnaa and Thjórsá rivers as refererences for measurement of water level variations caused by ice.

Differences in precipitation and run-off conditions in the Hvitá and Thjórsá and its tributaries result in great variations in the streamflow pattern and characterístics. Especially the discharge of the glacial and draga streams may fluctuate between wide limits and therefore floods are mostly confined to these two river types. Lindá flow may occur only under special circumstances.

A distinction between 5 types of floods have been discussed by Rist and Björnsson in the SEA report  $^{\rm x}$ :

- 1. Spring floods, caused by melting of snow in the highlands.
- 2. Winter floods, caused by mild weather and heavy rainfall coinciding with intense snow melting. These floods break up the ice on rivers.
- 3. Floods caused by heavy rainfall alone. Floods of this type may occur at any time of the year, but they have not reached the same magnitude as the other two flood-types.
- 4. Floods caused by the bursting of an ice barrier in the river.

  Such floods are usually low in the Hvitá and Thjórsá rivers.
- 5. Jökulhlaups, violent outbursts of water from water basins locked up under a glacier.

Thjórsá and Hvitá river systems in Southern Iceland. Some hydrological aspects by Sigurjon Rist and Jakob Björnsson, Reykjavik, June 1959.

The hydrological year in Iceland is counted from 1. September through 31. August the following year. In September the melting of snow in the mountain areas is as a rule very little and snow accumulation starts again. On the main glaciers there are no sharp time boundaries between melting and accumulation. There is always some melting in the middle of summer and usually some snowing in every month of the year.

In the following the results of stream gauging in the Hvitá and Thjórsá basins are summarized. Table Fig. B-2<sup>1-5</sup> show the monthly averages of discharge at various stream gauging stations for the whole period of record.

### Streamflow of the Hvita river and tributaries

In the uppermost reach at Blafell, the Hvita river is primarily a glacial river with a pronounced fluctuation in flow from summer to winter. The estimated monthly average flow at Aboti fall off from 97 m³/s. in July to ca. 58 m³/s. in January. The average discharge of Hvitarvath is estimated to be 53 m³/s.

This characteristic has to some degree been modified on the way to Gullfoss by considerable inflow of surface run-off water. The estimated monthly average discharge at Gullfoss is 131 m/s. in June and 99 m/s. in January. The estimated average annual discharge is 110 m/s. The max. observed floods have occurred in March 1953. Its max. discharge was of the order of 2000 m/s.

The lindá rivers (Tungufljöt, Bruará and Sog) entering the Hvitá downstream of Gullfoss tend to reduce the variations in flow even further.

The following table gives the drainage area and estimated average flow of the main tributaries listed in sequence proceeding downstream.

Magazina and A	Monthly	Avera	ges of	Disch	arge.	Q m	3/5	H	VÍTÁ	at	ÁBO	71	, A = 122	23 km
Water ye	or SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	3UN	JUL	AUG	The year	*
1950-5	51	42	44	53	33	34	30	35	127	77	71	56	55	
51-3	53	71	47	81	26	72	51	64	153	93	101	90	75	
52-5	3 62	59	40	42	52	63	250	74	124	118	104	94	91	
53-5	4 88	92	99	157	118	59	71	92	121	125	107	82	101	
54-5	5 64	55	54	42	47	25	43	146	73	96	131	147	77	
55-5	6 102	62	68	49	71	8/	66	79	86	87	82	58	74	
56-5	7 54	72	127	59	7/	- 55	42	77	98	90	90	84	77	
57-50	57	73	60	73	48	38	34	77	45	97	88	61	63	
58-5	9				The state of the s		*							
59-6	0													
60-6	/	*												
61-62	?		2 7											
62-6.	100	v 2					. *							
63-6	4			h.									Capatra - Palatra	
64.6	5													
			1 34 1	111										
Mox.		92	127	157	118	8/	250	146	153	125	131	147	101	
Min.		42	44	42	26	25	30	35	45	77	7/	56	55	
Av.	66	66	68	70	58	53	73	8/	103	98	97	84.	77	

TCE CONDITIONS

× ,	Monthly	Avera	1905 0,	f Disch	narge	Qm	15	11	VÍTÁ	cit	GULL	F053	6 , A=2000
Vakr year	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	341	AUG	The year
1950-51	79	64	67	82	51	52	46	54	195	119	109	86	84
51-52	81	109	73	124	40	111	78	99	236	143	155	138	116
52-53	95	9/	71	64	80	97	384	114	191	181	160	145	140
53-54	136	141	153	242	181	91	110	142	186	192	165	126	156
54-55	98	85	83	64	73	38	66	224	113	147	202	226	119
55-56	157	95	104	76	109	124	102	122	/33	134	126	90	114
56-57	83	1/1	195	91	110	84	65	118	151	139	138	130	118
57-58	87	113	93	113	74	59	53	118	70	149	136	94	97
58-59	125	112	206	118	112	155	157	95	225	153	151	151	146
59-60	192	185	128	94	101	154	99	101	126	124	139	119	. 130
60-61	114	83	71	70	89	129	105	107	223	106	109	108	*109
61-62	109	91	87	70	70	76	61	214	138	132	120	105	106
62-63	105	127	96	127	98.	81	105	111	106	161	118	108	112
63-64	89	9/	102	84	150	137	125	83	107	106	138	115	111
64-65	7/	109	109	76	66	168	62	75	94				
Manager		105	224					20.					
Max	192	185	206	242	181	168	384	224	236	192	202	226	156
Min	7/	64	67	64	40	38	46	54	70	106	109	86	84
AV.	108	107	109	99	99	103	107	1/8	152	132	131	116	110

ICE CONDITIONS

M	nethlu	Averag	res of	Disch	Arae	Q m	15	T(1)/(	9/1F1.	TOT	of FA	Y/	A = 720 k
	11/11/19				and the same	and with a company		make the specifical section	and the second		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	- Anna Company	The second second
later year	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	FUN	JUL	AUG	The year
1950-51					en o year								
51-52	48	48	38	42	36	44	40	41	38	38	44	51	43
52-53	43	38	37	36	43	45	71	38	41	44	50	53	45
53-54	52	52	49	64	54	46	45	49	46	50	53	56	51
54-55	50	45	49	40	42	36	45	50	41	49	63	67	48
55-56	67	56	50	41	46	45	48	45	48	47	49	48	49
56-57	45	56	63	49	48	41	39	43	44	47	49	51	48
57-58	50	50	46	45	39	38	38	44	37	36	46	46	43
58-59	48	50	60	44	45	52	48	43	47	47	47	53	49
59-60	60	60	44	42	44	52	45	45	46	49	52	57	49
60-61	52	45	41	40	45	53	47	40	49	43	43	47	45
61-62	46	44	42	37	43	39	34	57	40	41	43	42	42
62-63	44	46	44	46	40	36	39	36	38	40	43	43	41
63-64	41	. 38	39	37	52	44	38	36	33	36	42	42	40
64-65	39	43	44	38	37	48	35						· ·
mina municipal	71.2												and the second s
Mox.	67	60	63	64	54	53	7/	57	49	50	63	67	51
Min.	39	38	37	36	36	36	34	36	33	36	42	42	40
Av.	48	47	46	42	43	44	43	43	43	43	48	50	45

ICE CONDITIONS

	A	lonthly	Avera	iges of	Disch	narge	$Qm^3$	15	BRÚ,	ARÁ	10	VNJA	NDI,	A= 670km²
Water	year	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	The year
19.	50 - 51	55	55	58	65	65	56	61	58	70	54	53	50	58
	51-52	50	64	57	67	66	74	70	76	63	57	59	53	63
. ,	52.53	52	54	56	53	57	73	134	68	66	57	58	54	65
	53-54	62	77	88	118	92	79	75	77	04	59	58	55	75
	54-55	55	60	69	59	68	66	61	76	54	54	79	79	65
	55-56	81	74	70	63	80	80	73	67	07	62	55	52	69
	56-57	52	69	92	78	81	68	57	68	67	58	54	54	66
	57-58	52	67	75	72	58	57	58	71	54	51	49	48	59
	59-59	53	65	93	76	77	9/	80	63	64	62	54	59	70
	59-60	77	83	76	70	72	81	70	72	61	60	59	54	70
	60-61	58	56	57	55	66	.89	85	62	8/	56	54	53	64
	61-62					!								
	62-63					-								
	65-64													
	64-65													
St. 81														
	Max	81	83	93	118	92	91	134	77	81	02	79	79	75
	Min	50	54	56	53	57	56	57	58	54	51	49	48	58
	AV	58	65	7/	70	71	74	74	68.	64	57	57	55	65
		r				1		1						<b>.</b>

ICE CONDITIONS

M	onthly	Averag	es of a	Dische	arge	Q m3	15	50	OG c	1/13	ÓSA.	F055	, A= 10	50 km
Water year		OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	FUN .	JUL	AUG	The year	
1950-51	93	94	104	93	90	91	88	84	105	94	89	82	92	
51-52	82	98	91	93	93	94	99	105	109	102	99	91	96	
52-53	86	89	91	85	90	108	127	118	110	107	105	100	101	
53-54	105	114	120	152	146	135	128	138	126	115	111	105	124	
54-55	97	101	109	109	104	96	101	111	100	102	111	118	105	
55-56	118	110	107	103	105	124	126	121	119	114	106	99	113	
56-57	96	108	136	138	133	120	108	122	120	118	104	100	117	
57-58	96	107	108	116	109	102	96	109	103	96	93	85	102	
58-59	89	97	124	120	105	126	131	120	116	165	76	104	115	: !:
59-60	126	139	125	119	122	119	120	125	108	105	104	88	117	
+ 60-61												* 1		
61-62			20				*							
62-63					9									
63-64														ž.
64-65														1
openin i														
Max.	126	139	136	152	146	135	131	138	126	165	111	118	124	
Min	82	89	91	85	90	9/	88	84	100	94	76	82	92	
Av.	98	105	111	1/2	109	1.11	112	115	111	111	99	97	108	i

ICE CONDITIONS

A	Yon/hly	Avera	ges of	Disch	arge	Qm3	<i>ls</i>	ÖLFL	15A	al SE	LFOS	55 ,	A = 5760 L
Vaier year	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	<i>3UN</i>	301	AUG	The year
1950-51	283	292	288	302	302	267	257	267	456	313	315	283	302
51.52	279	379	286	339	463	645	359	396	462	341	358	330	386
52-53	283	291	292	278	288	413	854	368	424	390	386	369	386
53-54	403	479	468	667	530	414	423	471	439	396	382	351	452
54.55	3/2	3/2	370	312	357	341	368	535	344	381	538	581	396
55 - 56	496	400	356	322	514	484	409	437	420	408	352	307	409
56-57	304	437	628	461	451	362	303	449	467	409	360	351	415
57-58	312	396	419	418	288	302	282	424	299	355	346	293	344
58-59	339	382	648	411	411	550	518	372	489	466	346	395	443
59-60	541	506	426	352	412	507	393	412	394	372	382	322	. 418
60-61	355	300	270	266	347	481	443	352	532	328	323	314	358
61-62	336	351	398	301	317	364	291	575	398	365	344	306	362
62.63	334	415	358	467	355	301	376	339	334	394	309	302	357
63-64		342	341	322	507	457	387	334	326	302	376	325	360
64-65		400	425	368	322	505	298	303	287				
					And the second second								
Max	541	506	648	667	530	645	854	575	532	466	538	58/	452
Min	279	291	270	266	288	267	257	267	287	302	309	283	302
AV	344	378	398	372	390	426	397	402	404	372	365	344	384

JCE CONDITIONS

59-00 124												1
	169	101	93	92	89	.1/5	108	148	140	156	115	121
50-51 109	70	69	75	72	146	106	111	182	126	114	115	108
61-62 105	92	78	57	48	54	41	101	106	106	99	37	8/
62-63 70	62	6/	78	53	51	106	93	100	115	120	117	86
63-64 75	83	69	62	1/2	83	132	79	96	88	96	85	88
64 65 63	78	63	6/	65	77	58						
Max 24	169	101	93	112	146	/32	108	182	140	156	1/7	121
Wir 63	62	61	57	48	5/	41	79	96	88	96	86	81
Av. 91	92	73	7/	73	83	93	98	126	114	115	103	96

A	Monthi	iy Averc	1985 0	f Disci	harge	Qm	3/5	KAL	DAKVI.	SL af	SAUDA	FELL.	(95)
warr year	SEP	ICT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB .	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	<i>301</i>	AUG	The year
50 <sup>7</sup> -61	50	37	3/	26	32	37	35	35	66	38	40	42	39
61-62	37	31	24	22	20	18	16	45	53	38	42	42	32
62 63	32	3/	30	33	23	20	47	46	52	. 47	53	39	3,8
63-64	24	20	22	20	25	21	31	22	25	24	29	28	24
64-05													
Max	53	37	3/	33	32	37	47	46	66	47	53	42	39
Min	24	20	22	20	20	18	16	22	25	24	29	28	24
AV	35	29	26	25	25	24	32	37	49	36	41	87	33
	· ·				1								1

ak year	·SEF	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	The year
									Α.,				1
6!-62	2/7	183	153	141	124	145	126	232	230	209	198	178	178
62-63	162	150	124	161	104	105	222	186	186	215	215	210	171
63-64	144	154	124	123	195	160	224	148	197	178	. 197	178	168
64 05	131	154	130	113	13c	153	103	135	178		,		
-													170
HOX	2/7	183	153	161	195	160	224	232	230	215	215	210	178
Min	/3/	150	124	1/3	104	105	103	135	178	178	197	178	168
Av.	154	160	133	135	/38	141	169	/75	198	201	203	189	172

14

Me	onthly	Avera	ges of	Disch	arge	Qm	15	THIO	25A a	TRO	LLKOI	NUHL	AUP
Water year	SEP	OCT	and and accounted	DEC	JAN,	Car and the second second	MAR	APR	MAY	FUN	JUL	AUG	The year
1950-51													All productions of the control of th
51-52				. 4		· ef	gar - ni.						
52-53				عد عور:									
53-54	1	ALC: No.							· .		4.1	1 1 14	
54-55									,	4.77		. 6	
55-56			4 6 5 4 60	PAN.	THE .		42 44.		de La	A PROPERTY.	1		4
56-57									30000	A TANKE	Biddle- I w		
57-58		- 3						,				t F	1
58-59				,							k.		
59-60								7 2 1				4.10	200
60-61	326	202	182	200	240	420	303	305	737	357	365	348	332
61-62	340	284	273	210	/99	224	207	405	453	368	.398	353	310
62-63	228	295	205	238	154	160	310	308	358	472	405	387	299
63-64	244	229	172	164	276	243	345	237	392	349	406	355	285
64-65	240	297	235	180	165	283	161	220	367				
Max.	340	297	273	238	276	420	345	405	737	472	406	387	332
Min.	228	202	172	164	154	160	161	220	358	349	365	348	285
Av.	276	261	213	198	207	266	265	295	461	387	394	360	307

ICE CONDITIONS

Monthly Averages of Discharge Qm3/s THJORSA of URRIDAAFOSS, A = 7200 km2

Water year	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	301	AUG	The year
1950-51	338	268	280	260	207	176	127	106	555	407	410	368	293
51-52	332	367	211	215	163	290	211	274	679	461	455	433	342
52.53	288	283	214	183	180	260	848	230	557	555	498	507	385
55-54	456	388	339	509	382	230	287	3/8	691	548	484	441	. 424
54-55	307	232	241	197	257	2/3	195	533	454	531	630	667	372
. 55-56	432	272	270	178	274	340	290	343	539	497	440	327	351
56-57	305	338	540	342	245	144	169	334	688	485	461	482	378
57-58	317	341	294	310	197.	250	206	347	242	6/2	552	391	338
58-59	490	361	509	306	. 210	443	405	272	746	508	557	595	450
59-60	582	508	286	280	- 265	399	354	383	551	464	537	427	421
60-61	390	240	216	234	273	450	340	324	802	388	403	392	371
61-62	371	317	294	241	223	258	235	493	543	419	429	376	350
62-63	325	373	250	289	200	204	336	350	403	528	416	404	340
63-64-	288	272	230	224	381	349	417	276	440	378	439	368	339
64-65	252	343	293	223	211	37/	187	252	408				
Max	582	508	540	509	382	450	848 .	533	802	612	630	667	450
Min	252	232	211	178	163	144	127	106	242	378	403	327	293
AV	365	327	298	266	245	292	307	322	553	484	479	441	368

ICF CONDITIONS

Streamflow data for Hvitá river tri	i b u	u t	t	a	r	· i	е	S"
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River	Drainage area km²	Average annual flow m³/s
Jökulfall	380	23
Sandá	327	18
Tungufljot	770	45
Stóra - Laxá	512	30
Bruará	707	65
Sog	1200	108

The Hvitá - Ölfusa river is the largest in Iceland on the basis of average flow. The following table Fig.  $B-2^6$  gives the estimated monthly discharge at Selfoss.

Estimated montly discharge  $m^3/s$  at Selfoss 1950 - 65.

• . 7:	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Febr.1	March	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	The year
Max.	541	506	648	667	530	645	753	575	532	466	538	581	452
Min.	279	291	270	266	288	267	257	267	287	302	309	283	302
Av.	344	378	398	372	390	426	397	402	404	372	365	344	384
į													ŧ.

At Ölfuså, Selfoss, the max. observed flood occured in March 1948 (winter flood). Its max. discharge was of the order of 3000 m/s.

Streamflow of the Thjorså river.

The Upper Thjorså begins as a glacier river, but its streamflow becomes modified progressively downstream from Nordlingaalda to the confluence with the Tungnaa, by inflow from the tributaries which are all of the draga type. These two contributions produce a pronounced variation from high summer to low winter flows. The estimated monthly average flow at Nordlingaalda fall off from 200 m/s in July to ca 40 m/s in January. Proceeding downstream the relative proportion in only slightly less.

The Tungnaá river upstream from its confluence with the Kaldakvisl drains an area composed almost entirely of the four permeable rock types refered to above in chapter A. It receives some meltwater from Vatna-jökull and from Torfajökull. The streamflow of this section of the Tungnaá is, accordingly, rather uniform. The estimated monthly average discharge at Vatna-öldur is 115 m/s in June and 73 m/s in January. The estimated average annual discharge is 96 m/s.

The course of the Kaldakvisl river, and that of the Tungnaa downstream, tends to follow the boundary between the impermeable rocks to the northwest and the permeable rocks to the southeast, each with their different run-off characteristics. It receives some meltwater from Vatnajökull.

The following table Fig.  $B-2^7$  gives the drainage area and estimated average flow of the Upper Thjorsá and of the main tributaries of Tungnaá and Thjorsá.

Fig. B-2.

Estimated monthly averages of discharge m/s for Thjors & river tributaries, according to observations within the period 1958 - 64.

River and location	Drain. area km	Sept	.Okt.	Nov	Des.	Jan.	Feb.					July		Year
Upper Thjorsa Nordlingaalda Thjorsargljufu		110 140	60 75	· 60	-, <b>5</b> 0 73	45 73	60 90	60 <b>90</b>	40 <b>5</b> 9	130 210	190 245	200 250	170 213	99 132
Tungnaá Vatnaöldur Hrauneyjafoss Hald	1350 3470	91 110 164	92 110 160	73 90 133	71 85 135	73 80 138	83 90 141	93 105 169	98 115 175	126 140 198	114 170 201	115 140 203	103 130 189	96 110 172
Kaldakvisl Saudafell Thorisos,Vad Kaldakvisl +	1120 330 1450	35 13 48	29 14 43	26 14 40	25 13 38	25 13 38	24 12 36	32 12 44	37 1·3 <b>5</b> 0	49 16 65	36 17 53	41 17 58	37 14 51	33 14 47
Thorisos Fossa Haifoss	125	5	9	7	<b>*</b> 5	4	4	8	12	15	9	7	5	7,5
Thjorså Skard		360	310	280	260	240	253	290	300	530	450	430	400	350

Monthly mean values of discharge may smooth out important changes of short duration. Better representation is given by mean values for intervals of seven-days, a week, or for five-days, a pentade.

In order to obtain a survey of the hydrological conditions over a number of years, 5-day means (pentade means) of the discharge in m³/s have been computed for Hvitá at Gullfoss (gauge No 100), for Ölfusa at Selfoss (gauge No 64) and for Thjórsá at Urridafoss (gauge No 30) for the years 1950-64, see tables and curves Fig. B-2<sup>8</sup> to B-2<sup>16</sup>. Seven-day means of discharge for Thjórsá at Tröllkonuhlaup (gauge No 97) see curves Fig. B-2<sup>17</sup>.

The relevant representation covering the changes is not given as average values, but as usual in statistics. The characteristic data are given as minimum, 1<sup>st</sup> quarter, median, 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter and maximum. The curves Fig.B-2<sup>9</sup>, ll and l<sup>4</sup> give a graphic representation of such data for the discharge delivered in each pentade.

The curves Fig. B-2<sup>12</sup> and 16 give a graphic representation of discharge for the Hvitá at Gullfoss and Selfoss and for the Thjórsá at Tröllkonuhlaup and Urridafoss for the hydrological years 1950-51, 1952-53 and 1953-45. The winter 1950-51 was extremely cold, the winter 1952-53 had a considerable winterflood and the winter 1953-54 had extreme precipitation.

At the present time the streamflow records are of too short duration for planning purposes, especially for the Thjórsá river system. In order to transfer these records were used a direct proportion from the reduced drainage area.

Fig. B-2<sup>18</sup> gives an analysis of the proportional values between discharge for Hvitá recorded at Selfoss and Gullfoss and for Thjórsá recorded at Urridafoss and Tröllkonuhlaup.

According to the graphics, one has to be very cautious in direct transferring of such records.

hg.13-2 Nr 87

PENTADEMIDLER av VASSTÖRINGEN I m/s

FINE-DAY MEANS OF DISCHARGE

- 1-	L'a	200	345	181	181	160	226	207	220	463	256	23/	3//	186	2/3	467	9/0	454	865	173	172	179	362	490	249	777	000	517	370	340	477	1.87	243	197	181	
Particular of Artistics	ि वव	7	102	88	107	102	113	111	127	154	/3/	105	95	97	20	1/3	128	140	153	130	121	701	118	148	172	9//	001	130	777	7.18	187	213	8	3	153	3
Table of the second	1154																																14/			
-1	X TOTION	- X	58	27	63	62	09	62	58	63	00	1/2	1/	76	00	19	10	53	55	23	90	57	65	7/	95	200	30	00/	20	85	16	133	134	10	103	50
distant.	Kara	<u>.</u>	37	35	34	38	32	32	47	43	36	3/	36	14	14	42	42	37	36	35	39	47	34	33	53	11	00	6	58	/9	000	90	103	97	78	Ø
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بشوردن مصدوم ويرده فالحيف	590/	200	58	92	67	62	58	62	127	257	122	23/	150	76	54	92	80	77	44	59	121	11	2/	2/	77	78	86	69	103	85	95	8//	/34	105	18	04
energy in the Constraint of th	790/	100		157	189	144	226	124	83	154	256	144	16	85	80	113	160	140	94	136	137	102	67	7.5	59	11/	95	90	93	80	140	133	103	97	92	20
والمدورة والمالية	1063																																186			
Secure of the second se	1062	706	85	75	72	55	00	76	58	69	69	80	46	25	88	19	28	19	59	55	55	57	362	358	232	222	195	138	143	104	66	153	137	195	140	1/3
e manifes addresses endados e el figur	/ 40/	1061	63	56	151	102	80	86	89	22	. 09	87	311	178	105	163	90	28	86	70	69	99	67	11	156	2/2	256	242	285	251	167	148	144	110	97	000
7-65	1080	200	00	174	107	78	00	1		1		3				1		1	1		1		1-		+ 1	-				4	1		114		1	
1950	1050	200	87	87	44	43	124	207	220	253	133	105	101	97	98	101	128	233	247	163	102	83	77	67	146	106	90	127	326	321	265	226	157	148	153	140
And the state of the state of	0	00		-	+-	+	7	85			1			1	t								1		1 7	103							/38			
1	1057	102	117	66	00	143	11.3	93	16	83	85	80	83	76	69	65	/9	53	58	18	126	113	8//	115	35	141	166	136	130	106	153	215	140	132	122	140
	7501	000	270	80	75	75	72	86	99/	136	172	86	76	88	67	114	143	104	16	100	172	16	75	134	172	88	83	130	141	104	130	661	134	101	145	129
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Cont ..

PENTADEMIDLER av VASSFÖRINGEN I mås Fire-Day means of Discharge m³/s

.Vassdrag: HWITA

Nr. 87

Vm. GUILFOSS.

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Fig. B-29

FIVE-DAY MEANS of DISCHARGE m 3/s HVITA, Gullfoss A = 2000 km2 BE 1100 Discharge 000 900 800 700 600 500 400 300 200 FEBR MARS APRIL

The red colour describes discharge in the winter 1964-65.

VASSFORINGEN

Five - Day means of Discharge m3. PENTA DEMIDLER av

Vassdrag

549 1401 424 530 549 852 433 688 373 627 366 475 615 din. [1. kv. Med. [2. kv. Max data Karakteristiske 303 382 294 368 37.4 Km2 282 270 294 Nedbörfelt 5750 249 276 365 305 372 294 258 340 372 1963 1964 3/7 305 325 56/ 498 300 303 296 3/8 3/6 352 401 355 363 355 363 326 424 396 336 371 303 484 676 405 543 337 468 1951-65 1328 1359 1360 1361 337 273 425 453 671 488 380 428 339 341 333 475 397 571 352 321 373 325 484 432 413 413 446 341 589 338 285 640 284 598 274 502 502 393 380 5/9 472 421 281 284 397 288 274 367 368 293 504 530 305 442 420 349 329 362 627 398 449 301 294 286 420 491 1954 1955 1956 1957 385 399 492 577 405 336 336 415 506 903 535 405 370 285 373 285 319 442 403 449 449 275 275 322 475 444 391 382 382 579 384 347 333 319 262 294 294 306 1952 1953 412 822 3/3 382 651 607 549 620 329 370 273 289 11/4 - 15/4 190 16/4 - 20/4 199 21/4 - 25/4 384 26/4 - 30/4 347 218 232 447 391 329 236 232 257 257 308 414 315 285 285 20/2 - 24/2. 25/2 - 1/3 2/3 - 6/3 7/3 - 1/3 12/5 - 16/3 17/5 - 21/5 22/5 - 3/5 27/5 1. halvar 4/01-4/9 6/5-10/5 10/2-14/2 1-25/ - 20/ DE / Pentade 21/5 11/5 

PENTADEMIDLER av VASSFÖRINGEN i mås Five - Day means of Discharge m3/5

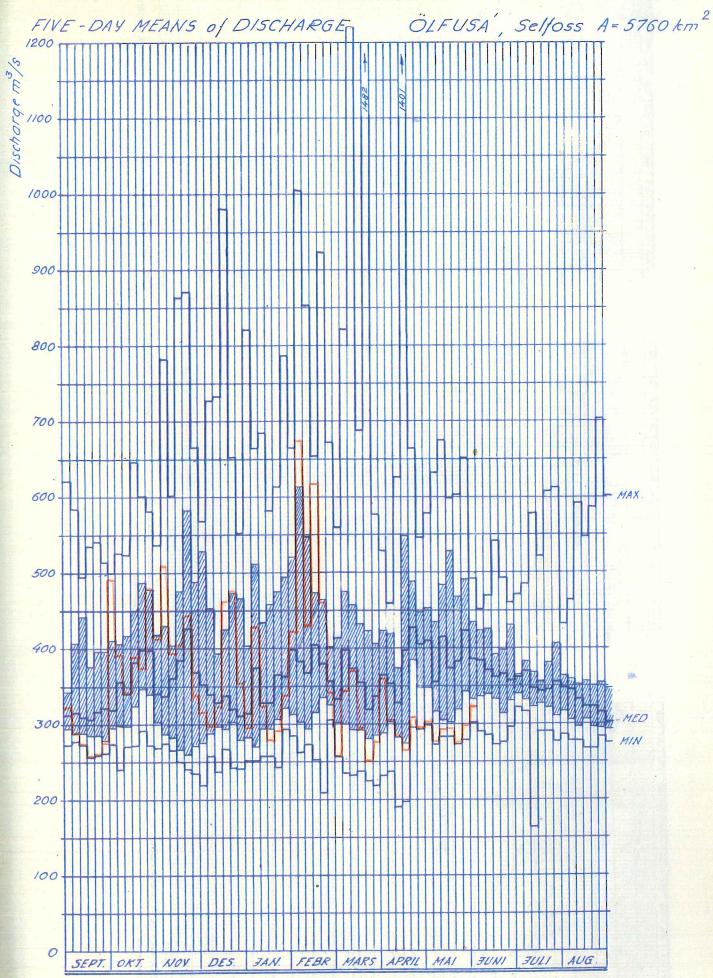
Vassdrag: OLFUSA

Vm. Self055

Nr. O.

Nedborfelt 5760 km² 1951-65 2.halvår

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The red colour describer discharge in the winter 1964-65.

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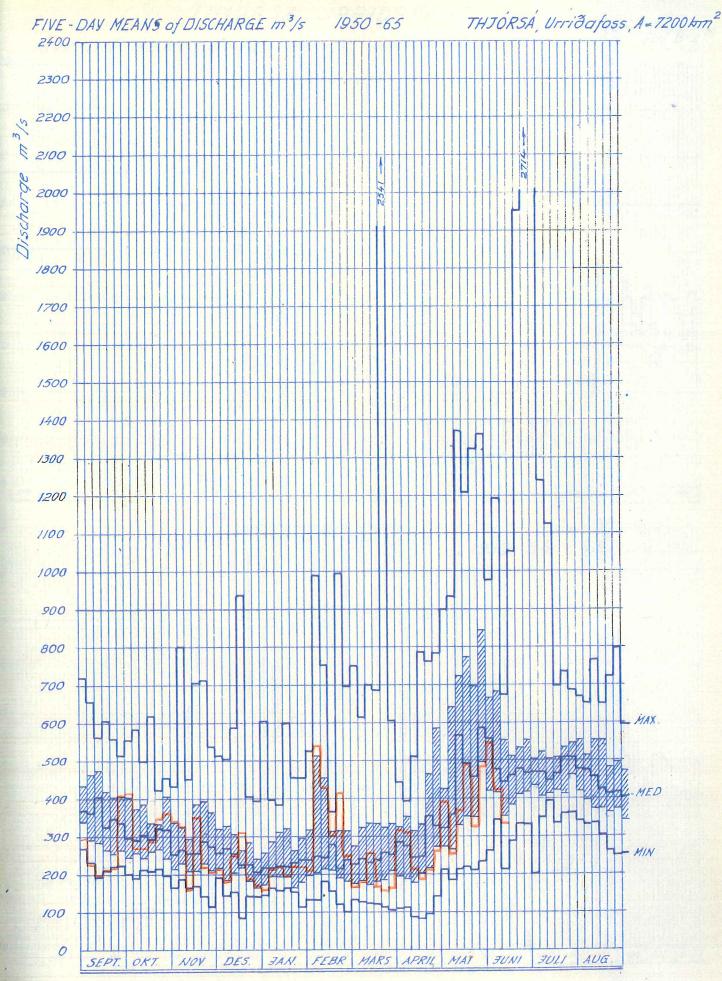
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VENS STORENGEL œ ENTADEMID

Five-Day means of Discharge m³/s

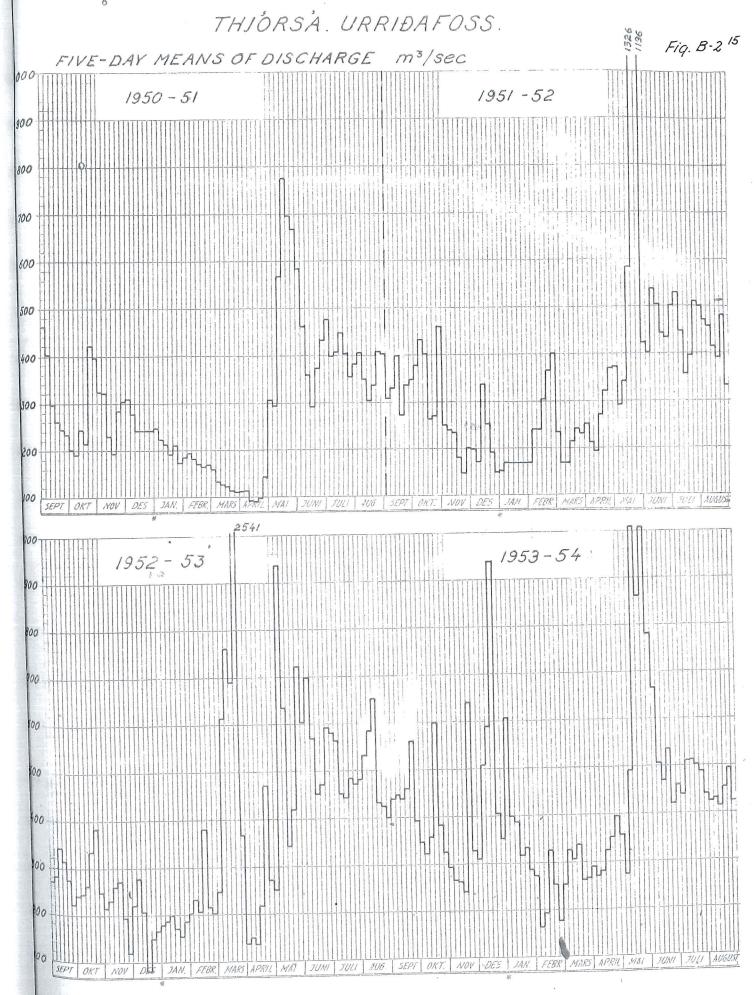
URRIDAFOSS

Cont.



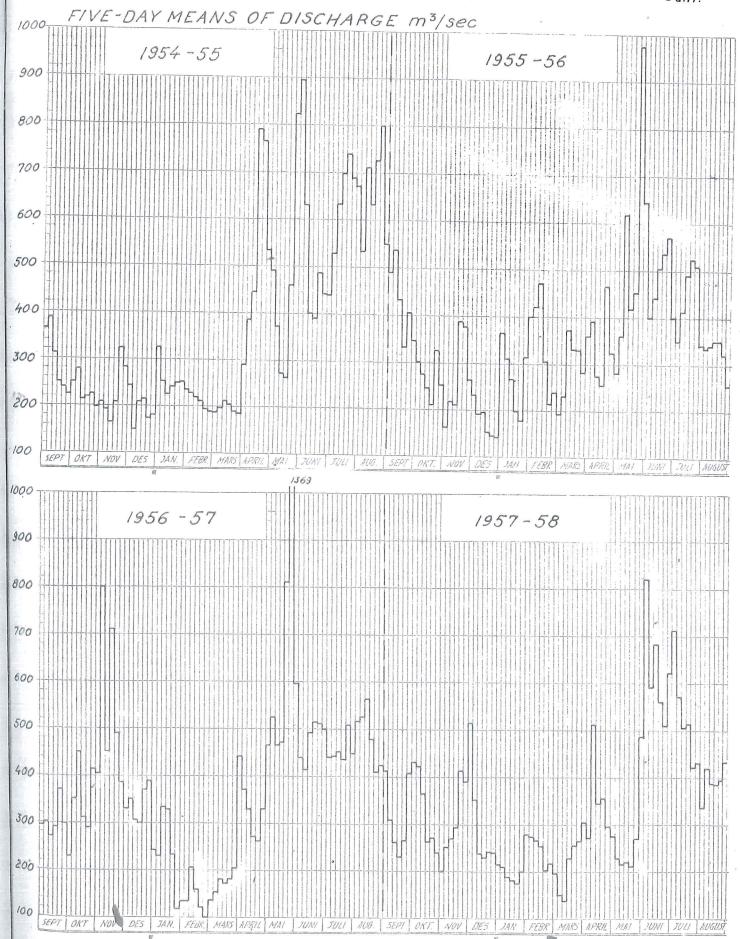
The red colour describes discharge in the winter 1964-65.

NVE Hydr. avd. Iskontoret



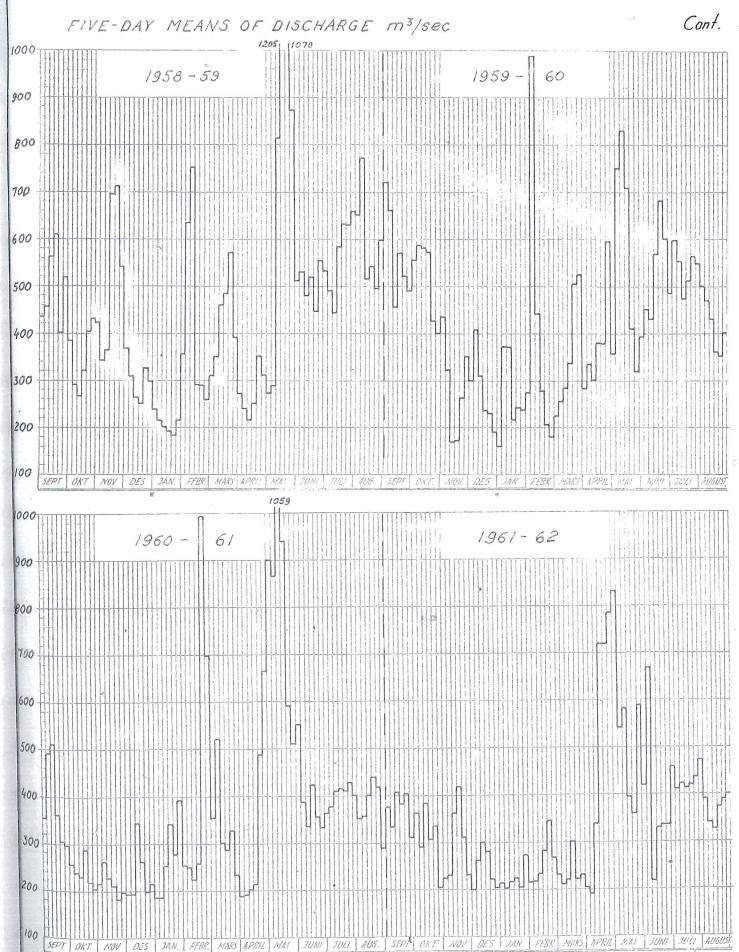
# THIORS'A URRIDAFOSS .

Cant.



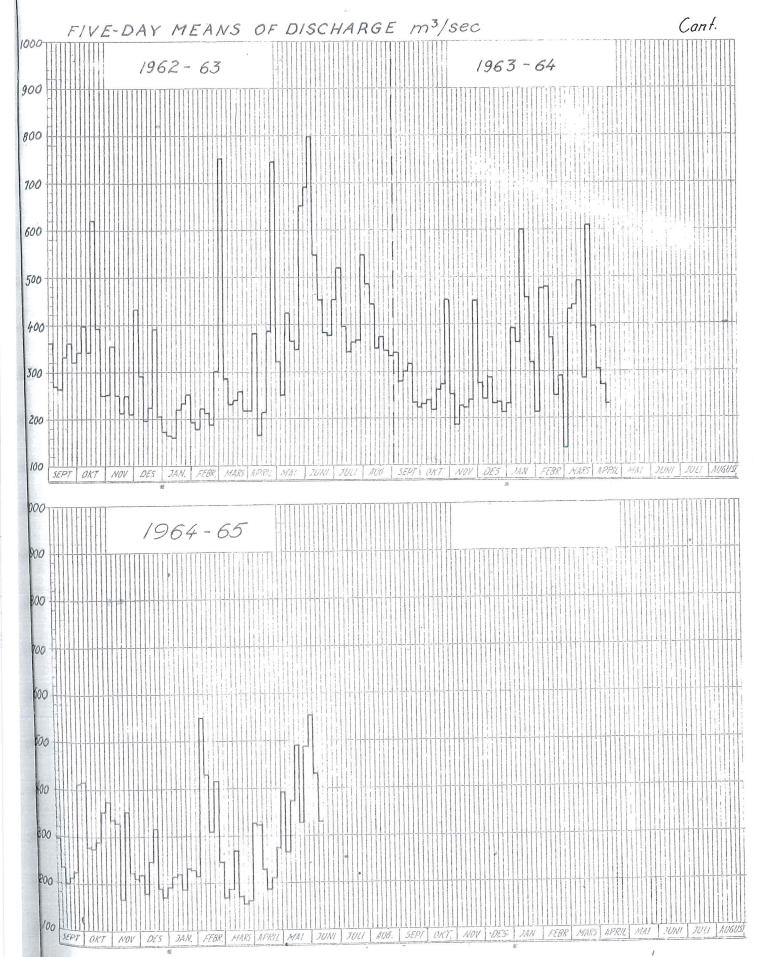
HVE Hydr. avd. Iskontoret

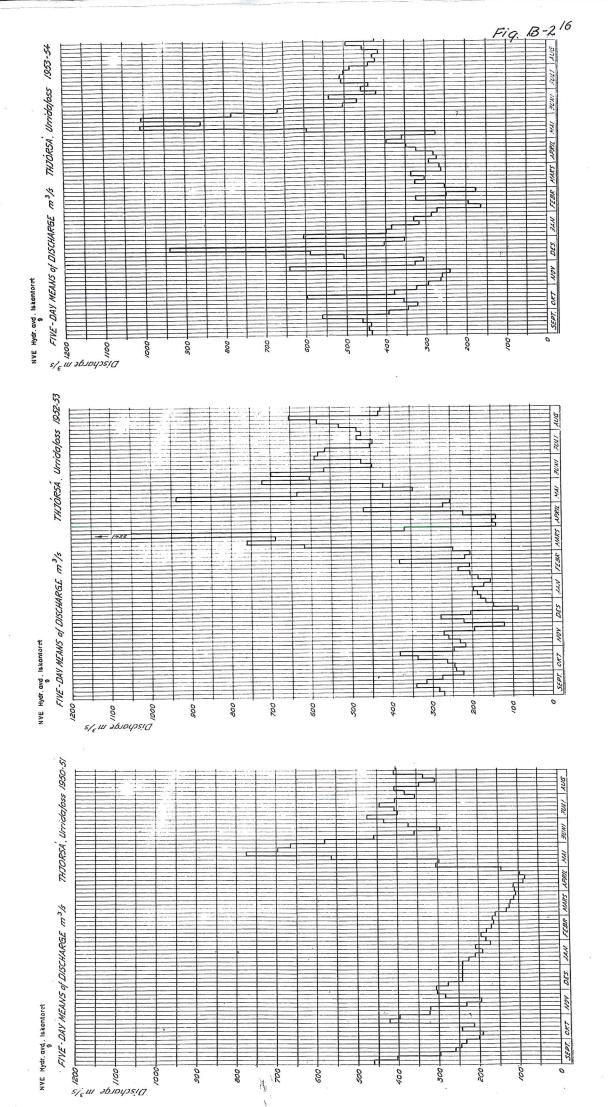
## THIORS'A . URRIDAFOSS .



NVE Hydr. avd. Iskontoret

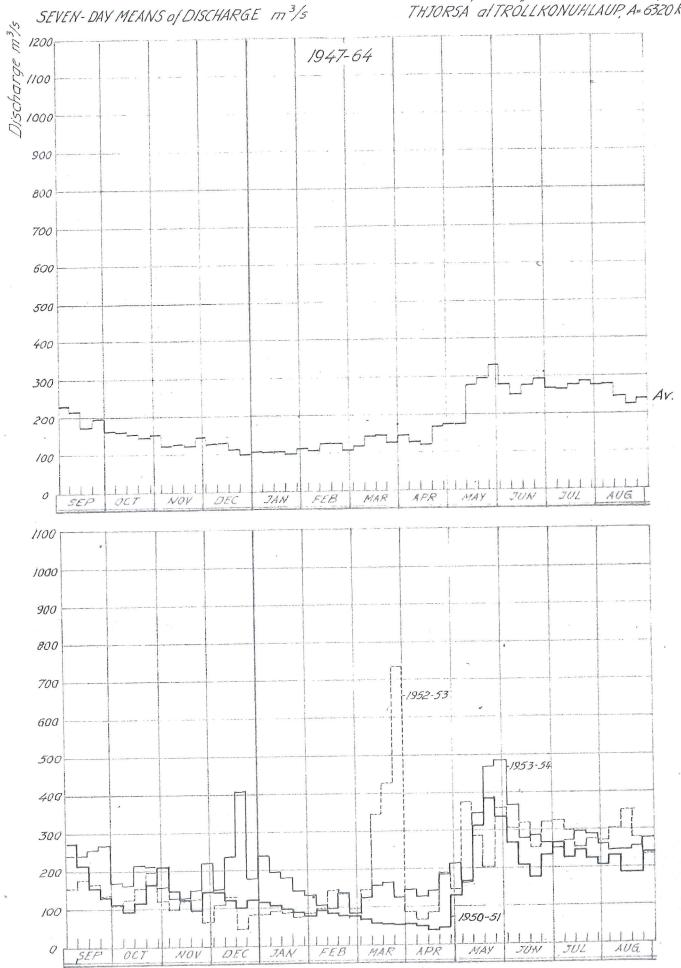
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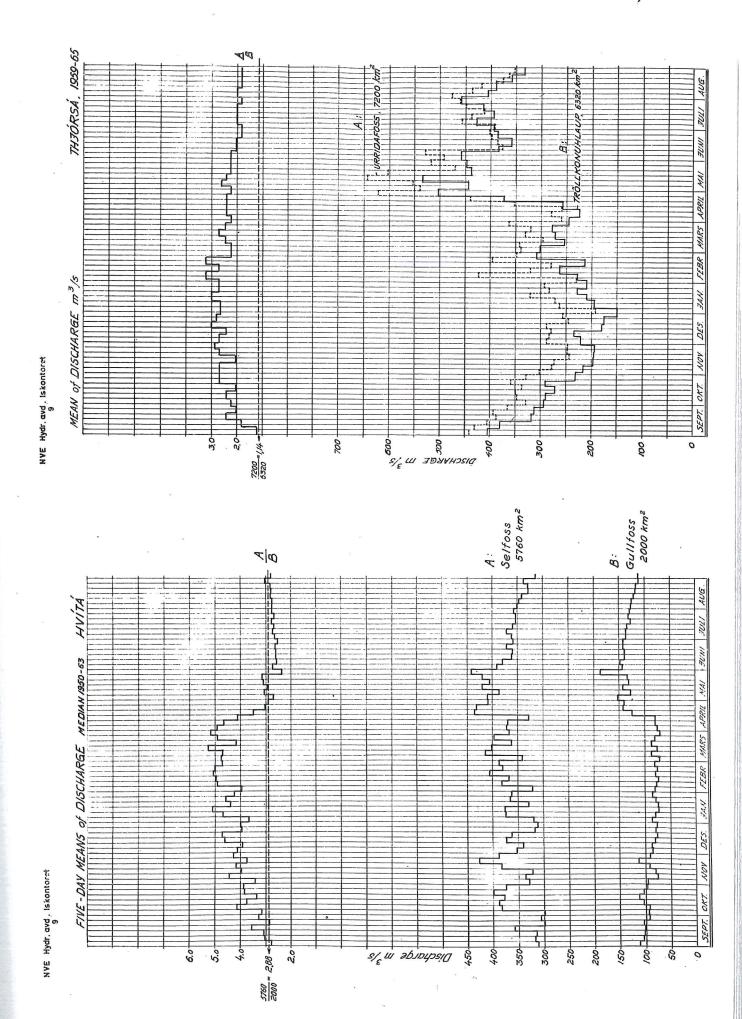




Fiq. B-2/7







The curves of fig. B-2<sup>19</sup> and <sup>20</sup> give a survey of the daily discharge in the Hvitá at Gullfoss and Selfoss, in the Tungnaá at Hald and in the Thjórsá at Tröllkonuhlaup and Urridafoss, respectively, for the period 1959-65.

The observations demonstrate that floods may occur at any time of the winter, sometimes causing serious influence on the discharge, through ice production and ice transport e.g. reported by Rist:

"The discharge in Thjbrså river near Urridafoss on 11 April 1963 dropped from 340 to 20 m³/s in 24 hours. The river was open almost to the glacier when a cold, dry storm from the NE suddenly sat in, causing an extremely high rate of ice formation over nearly the whole river length".

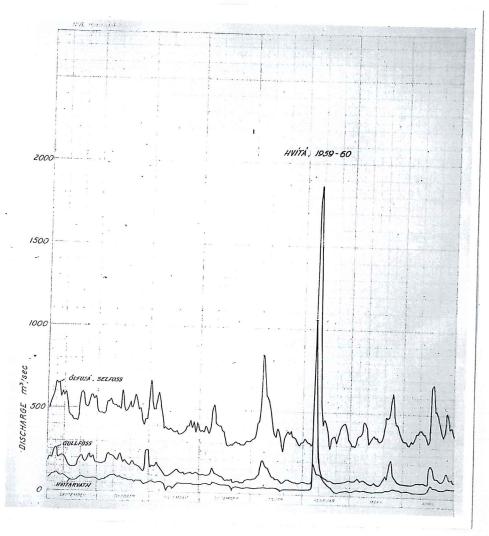
The ice disturbances at the gauges are based solely on a study of the recorder charts and on notes which the observers have made on the charts.

The gauges under consideration are all located in places where the rivers are ice-free most of the winter in practically all years.

It appears that there may be distinguished between three types of ice disturbances at the gauges, namely 1. rise in stage caused by ice obstructions in the river channel (border ice and bottom ice), ice dams, ice jams or ice floes, 2. step bursts (caused by a surge wave due to successive breakening up of individual dams in a series of ice dams or "steps," and 3. freezing in the stilling wells. The characteristics 1 and 2 are treated in chapter C.

The nomogram Fig.  $B-2^{21}$  give ratings for 3 gauges in Tungnaá and Thjórsá rivers.

Fig. B-2 19



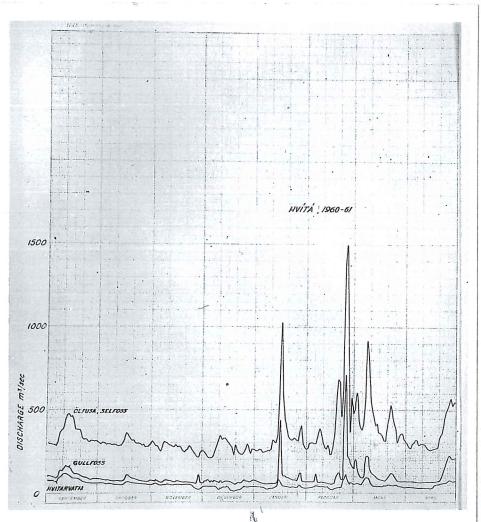
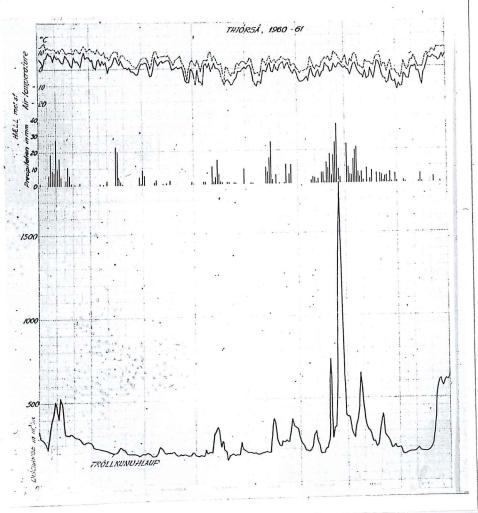
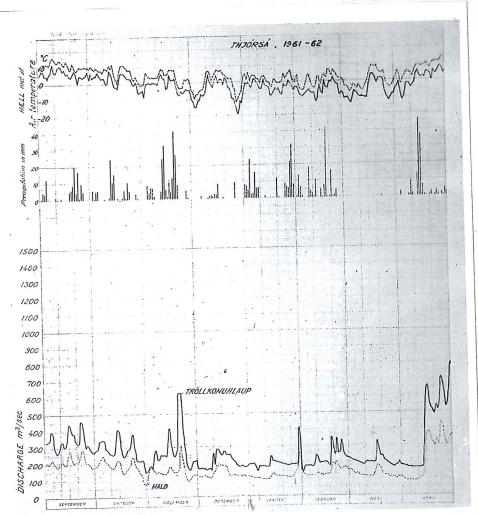
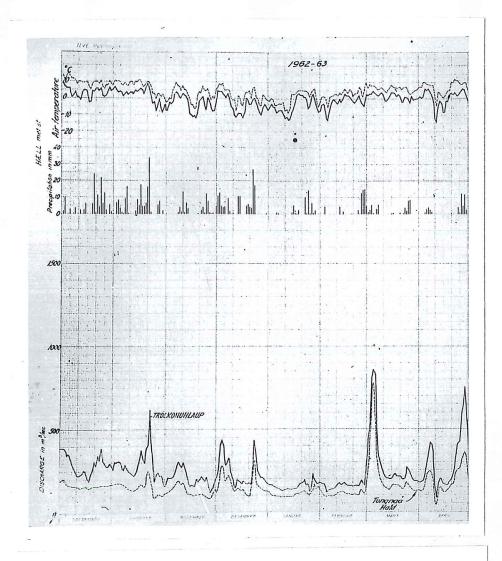


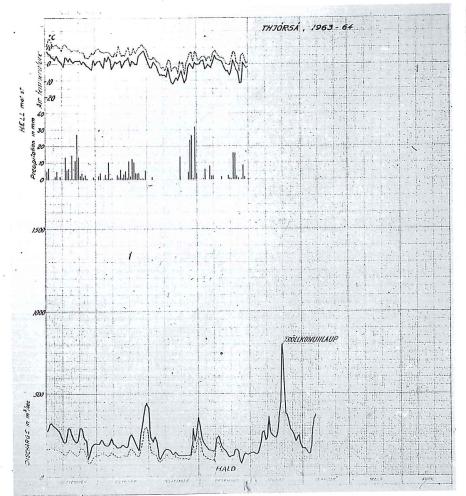
Fig. B-220



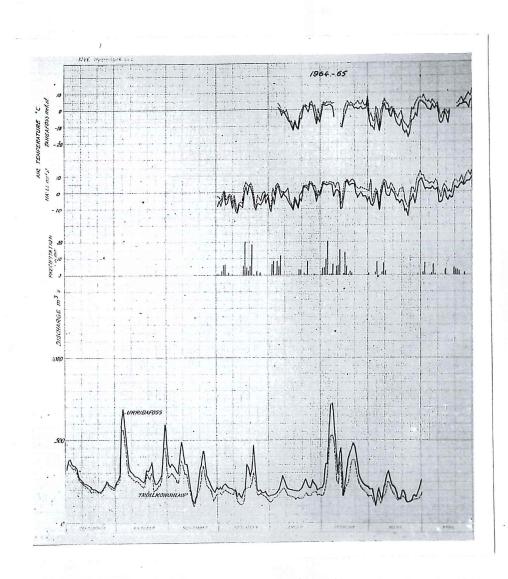


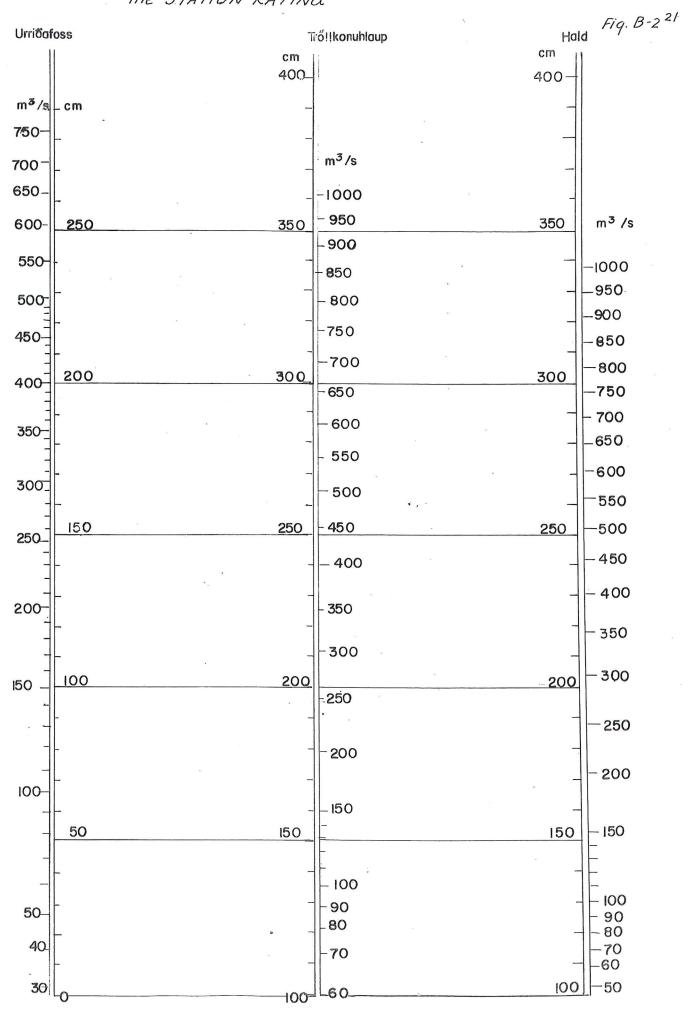






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### Chapter C: ICE CONDITIONS

It is a great difference between the three stream types, viz. the glacial (J), dragå (D) and linda (L) streams. To appreciate this difference is of importance for the understanding of the ice conditions in Icelandic rivers.

The temperature of the glacial melt-water is close to 0°C at the edge of the glacier all the year round. The glacial streams are generally distributed over a large area in wide and shallow branches and consequently the water temperature is easily affected by the changes of air temperature. Porous ice formation will be seen along the banks after one night of freezing. The water level rises on account of the formation of floating frazil ice and underwater-ice at the bottom, and the rivers will freeze in a short time when the winter is setting in.

The discharge of the dragá-streams is very much dependent on the weather. As the river beds are generally broad the water temperature responds quickly to variations in air temperature. Ice is rapidly formed in the water as the air temperature goes below 0°C, and usually some underwater-ice will locally swell up at the bottom before the rivers freezes at the surface. This process will raise the water level but will generally not cause any real flood, partly because the river bed is so large that the ice is seldom lifted above the highest flood level, and partly because the discharge will be decreasing during a frost period.

If the frost is going on, the discharge will continue to decrease, the waterflow will make its way under the ice and the water level sinks under the ice cover which also will be lowered in most places. After a long period of freezing such a draga river may become like a brook.

When the freezing process is interrupted by a thaw, the rivers grow all of a sudden and the flow may burst open the ice cover with great tumult.

The linda-streams have a flow which is very even all the year, and the water temperature is nearly the same both winter and summer in the regions where the springs are located. The temperature of most springs in the Hvitá and Thjórsá rivers ranges from 2°C to 6°C depending on the soil temperature of the drainage area. Lindá-rivers do not freeze near the head spring even in the most severe frost. On the way from the head spring the water will gradually be cooled and ice production will start at the place where the water temperature reaches 0°C. This 0°C frontier will, however, not be stable. As soon as the frost decreases the water temperature rises and ice will be broken up even before the temperature of the air has reached above 0°C. The frontier line of 0°C water temperature thus may move downwards or upwards the river, depending upon the changes of the weather. Under a heavy frost period it happens that anchor ice and frazil ice is produced in great quantities causing reduction of the water velocity and raising of the water level. In such localities the river may flow out of its bed and this may cause damage since the water guickly be raised above the highest flood level.

Fig. C-1 shows typical ice conditions in the river systems prevailing in the middle of the winter. The main rivers in the Hvitá and Thjórsá basins are a mixture of all three types, a fact which entails much more complicated ice conditions than in a river of a single type. The great changeability of the weather in the area has also a great effect in reducing the stability of the ice formations.

Fig. C-1 Pariable tee cover spring water Je bridge and accumulated / Tee covered in most winters usually prevailing in the middle of the winter ice masses 5-Max rise in stage above roomal in m JCE CONDITIONS Open water in mast winters 8 North Atlantic Ocean KEY MAP 100 200 300 400 m

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1. Short survey of the ice production in the various sections of the Hvitá.

In autumn, the Hvitá tributaries in the highlands (e.g. the rivers Jökullfall, Grjótá and Sandá) freeze up just as the air temperature goes below  $0^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ .

The ice formation in the lake Hvitarvatn and in the first section of the Hvita, above the confluence of river Jökullfall, starts later, soonest in November latest in December. At this time the above mentioned tributaries are covered with a solid ice cover and no drifting ice is coming from them,

The river channel of Hvitá is fairly narrow in the section downstream on the eastern and southern sides of Blåfell and the ice production is correspondingly moderate. From Fremstaver to approx. 8 km upstream of Gullfoss a section is characterized by braided flow over wide channels and shallow water depth. This gives a large cooling surface and a quick response of water temperature to changes in air temperature, and thus a possiblity of frazil ice formation. From approx. 8 km upstream from Gullfoss to approx. 9 km downstream the Hvitá has a difference of elevation of ca 163 m (average slope 9,4 m/km). This section has rather deep channels, effectively shielded against the cooling effect of winds and it has relatively large heat gains from conversion of kinetic energy. The max. rise in water level at the water gauge downstream of Gullfoss amounts to 1,5 m, lasting for about a day only.

In periods of frost ice accumulation will take place in the Hvitá upstream of Kopsvatnseyrar. Further downstream very little amount of spring water enters the river until the confluence with river Bruara. Ice cover has not been observed on river Tungufljot in the section upstream of the waterfall Faxi, presumably owing to spring water. In the section between Faxi and the confluence with river Hvitá, an ice cover may be formed during periods when Hvitá is freezing up and its water level is damming up the water of river Tungufljot. When the water level of river Hvitá is lowered again, the river

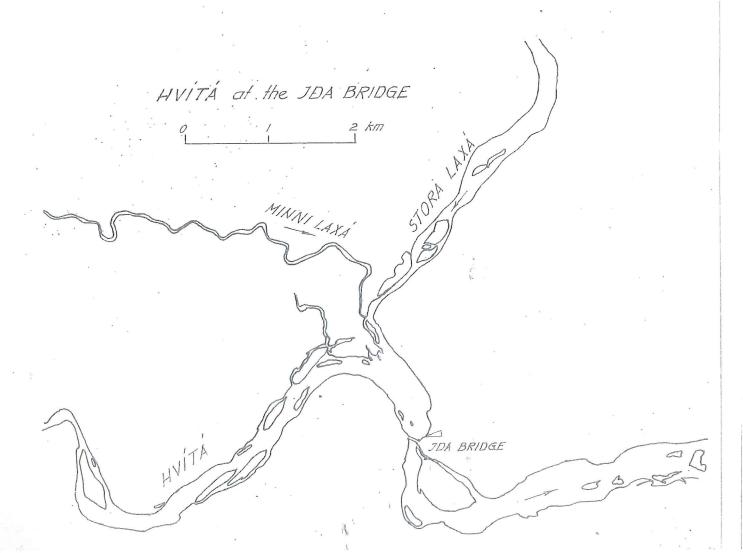
Tungufljót returns to its normal channel and spring water may melt the ice.

The max. water level rise of 6 m has been observed in the Hvitá on the section between Tungufljót and Brúarhlöd. In the section between Tungufljót and Hestvatn a max. rise in water level of 2 m has been observed.

River Brúará is a typical lindá river. In extreme cases the same thing may occur in its lowest section as of river Tungufljót. Ice cover is very rare on the Brúará.

Downstream of the Bruará confluence, river Hvitá has pronounced lindá characteristics, although it happens that an ice cover is formed on the river where it is wide, as near Selfoss for instance, where a rise in water level of about 4 m has been observed.

On the Fig.  ${\hbox{C-l}}^1$  is given the survey of the ice conditions in the Hvitá at Ida bridge.



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2. Short survey of the ice conditions in the various sections of the Thjórsá river system

Ice production will first start on the Upper Thjórsá and on the upper reaches of tributaries e.g. Kaldakvisl, Tungnad in the vicinity of the glaciers, and in the uppermost draga-rivers in the highlands, e.g. Kisa, Dalsá, the upper reaches Fossá and the streams in Sprengisandur. If the frost lasta for some time, an ice cover is formed on those rivers, but before that, a great amount of sludge ice has been carried downstream by the current, reaching sections where the river channel is wide and the loss of heat is great.

The river channel of Upper Thjórsá is fairly narrow in the section between Hvanngiljafoss and Gljufurleitarfoss falls, and the ice production is correspondingly moderate. The next section (ca 20 km long) to approx. 2 km upstream of the confluence with Blautakvisl is characterized by braided flow over wide channels and shallow water depth. This gives a large cooling surface and a solid ice cover may be formed during periods of great heat loss from the water (frost and wind). Sludge ice may be collected under the ice and the rise in water level amounts to 2-5 m.

River Tungnaa is usually uncovered below the ford at the end of the Vatnaöldur ridge, owing to the great amount of spring water flowing into the river from the great lava field on the southwestern river bank. Before an ice cover is formed on the river section lying between Vatnaöldur and the glacier a great amount of sludge ice is carried down the river. Later in the winter, when an ice cover has been formed on the upper part of Tungnaa some sludge ice may be formed in the river section from Vatnaöldur down to the Hrauneyjafoss, and carried downstream by the current. The result is that an ice cover is formed downwards the fall with an open channel in the middle.

The ice formation in the lake Thorisvatn starts later, soonest in October and latest in November. At this time the upper section of Kaldakvisl is covered with ice. During frost periods the main part of the discharge in the Kaldakvisl comes from the Thorisvatn reservoir with temperature above 2°C and an ice cover has not been observed on the river section below the efflux from Thorisvatn.

The section of Tungnaa from Kaldakvisl and downstream to the confluence with Upper Thjorsa is about 15 km long, and has a difference of elevation of ca 40 m (average slope 2,6 m/km). In most places the river channel is wide and there the ice production during frost periods is encrmous. The max. rise in water level at the Hald gauging station amounts to 8 m. The amount of sludge ice in the water may decrease in places where large quantities of springwater enter the river. The result in such places is that an ice cover is formed at each shore, with an open channel in the middle, generally lasting for long periods in the winter.

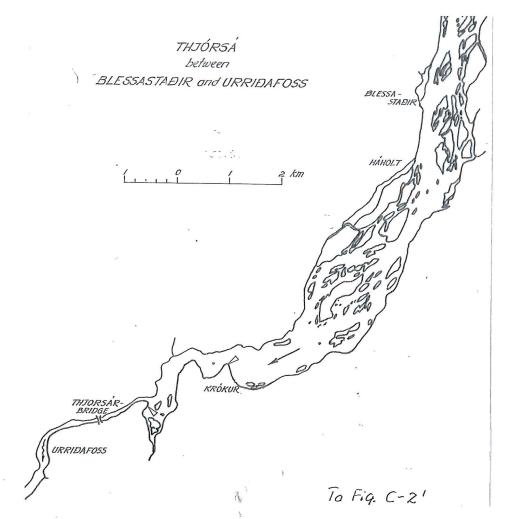
An important section of river Thjörså, from the confluence with Tungnaå to Tröllkonuhlaup, has a length of 17 km, an area about 7-8 km² and the average slope of 3,7 m/km. The river channel is here an inclined plane with nearly the same width (400-450 m) over a distance of say 10 km and with the same shallow depth, say 0,5 m, over this distance. The river flows on top of a lava sheet. The velocity of the main water flow in this part is during the winter within the interval 1-2,5 m/s. and the river is usually uncovered. The heat loss during cold weather and wind produce here sludge ice and bottom ice in great masses.

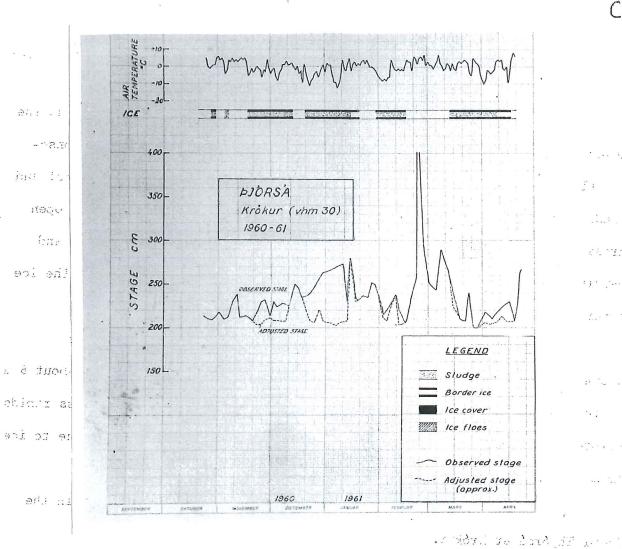
River parts which are getting narrow and deep will facilitate the formation of an ice carpet by compression of floating sludge ice, thus establishing an ice bridge between the river sides. The water stream will usually pass under the floating ice bridge and carry floating ice further downstream. Such places are e.g. below Tangafoss where the formation of large ice-carpet-bridges regulary occur during cold weather.

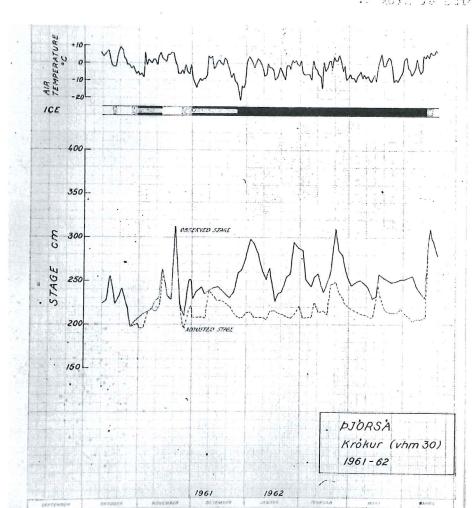
In the part of Lower Thjórsá lying below Burfell and Urridafoss the major ice production takes place where the river usually is open and consequently exposed to great heat loss from the water during periods of frost and wind. An ice cover may be formed and floating sludge ice arriving from open areas upstream may be collected under the ice, creating an ice barrier and causing a rise in the water level. This will facilitate the growth of the ice cover upstream.

Below the Thjofafoss fall the rise in water level due to ice accumulation amounts to 5-12 m. A similar rise in the water level is about 8 m at the Budafoss fall, and the rise amounts to 15-18 m at the Urridafoss rapids before the river is frozen up. This is the max. rise in water level due to ice damming and accumulation observed in any river in Iceland.

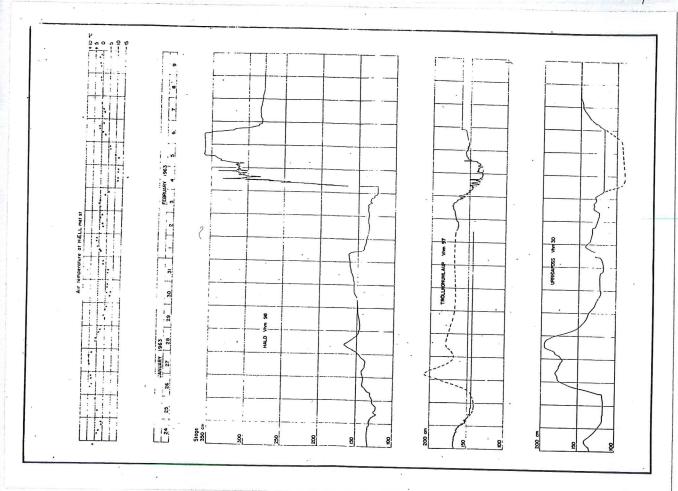
On the Fig. C-1 $^2$  is given the survey of the ice conditions in the Lower Thj $\delta$ rs $\acute{a}$  at Kr $\acute{b}$ kur.

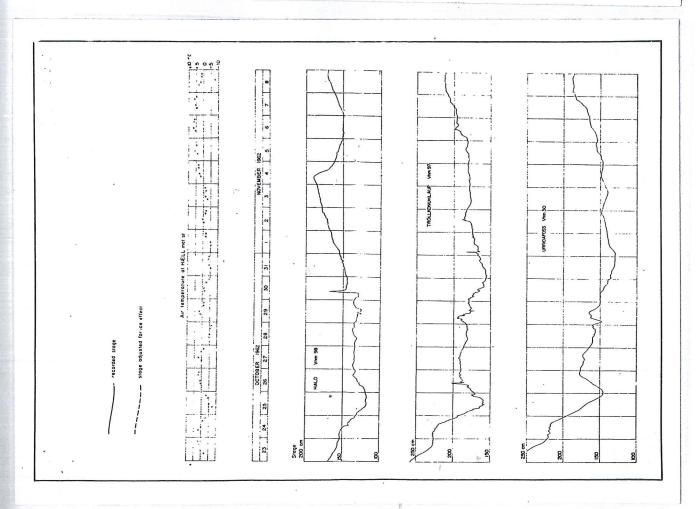




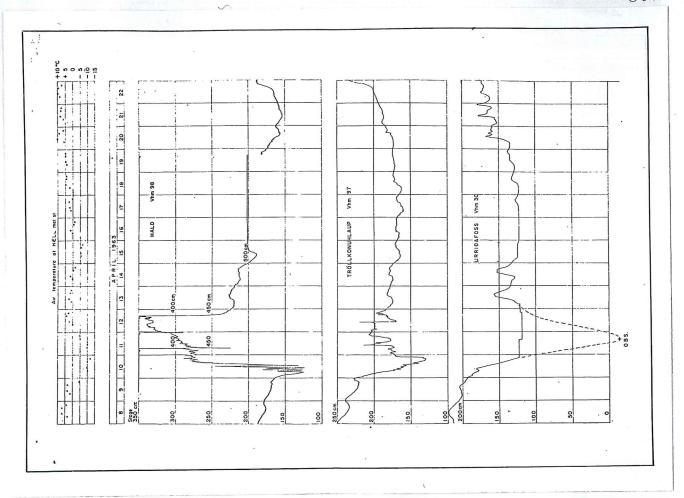


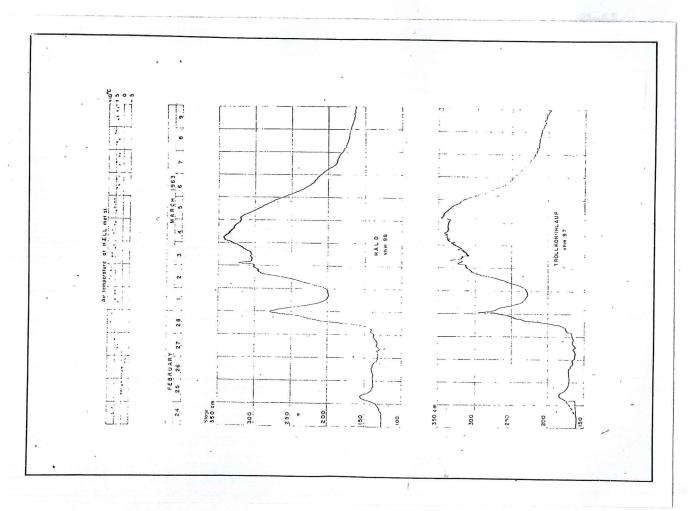
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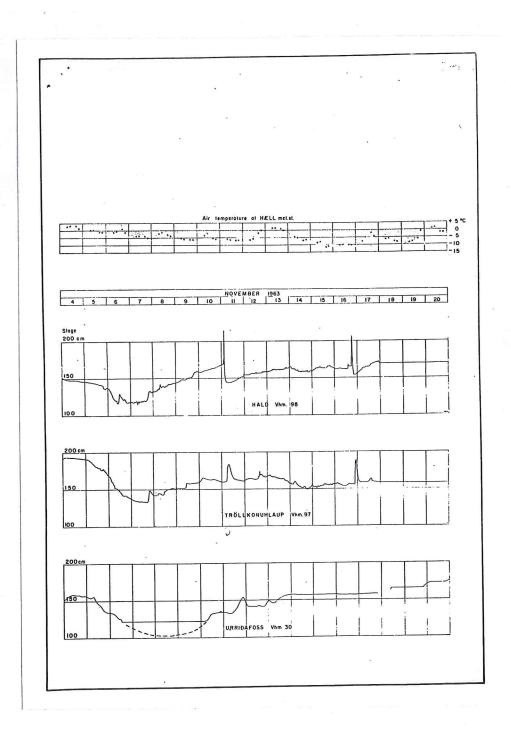




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The ice masses in Tungnaá and Thjórsá may be loosened and set into motion by a "step burst" or by a winter flood. Such weather changes with ice jams moving downstream may occur several times during a single winter.

Interesting material is presented in the typed report "Studies of Ice Disturbances at water gauges No 30, 97 and 98 on the Thjórsá and Tungnaá rivers 1960-64.

On Fig. C-1<sup>3</sup> is given a short survey of ice disturbances at the 3 gauges in Tungnaa and Thjórsá rivers the winter 1962-63.

The daily observations of water level and discharge demonstrate how the discharges varies with the ice production, ice transport and ice accumulation.

## 3. Ice Conditions during the winter 1964-65.

During the winter 1964-65 the following programme has been accomplished:

Daily weekly inspection trips, each lasting 3-4 days, were undertaken to the

Tungnaá and Thjórsá rivers, and likewise weekly trips to the Hvitá river.

During these trips water level variations and water temperature were measured

to obtain better knowlege of the general ice conditions, especially those of

importance for water power utilization.

Observations were made of local formation and accumulation of sludge ice and of floes carried by the water. Ice quantities were measured and the properties of frazil ice and bottom ice were studied.

Observations were made of the typical formation of ice bridges at certain places, caused by dynamic compression and accumulation of sludge ice. The course of step-bursts and similar ice surges, and likewise the melting and breaking up of the ice were studied.

On all the trips mentioned, numerous photographs were taken at various places and under varying ice conditions.

On the 14 Dec. 1964, 23 Febr. 1965 and 27 March 1965 we had the oppoutunity of participating in a photogrammetric air survey, at which a continous series of stereoscopic photographs was taken of the main rivers Hvitá, Thjórsá and Tungnaá. In April 1965, round tours were arranged by helicopter to the upper parts of these rivers in order to observe the local ice conditions. During all these tours a number of ordinary photographs were also taken.

## Weather conditions and precipitation

During the winter 1964-65 several periods of quite cold weather occurred, although the winter generally was a little milder than usual. A short period of cold weather came as early as in October 1964. Enduring wintry weather sat in from the middle of November and lasted until ca 20 January, interrupted only by three short periods of thaw weather, namely 18 - 22 November, 17 - 21 December and 5 - 7 January. From 20 January to 20 February there was a strong thaw. During this time the observations at Hæll met.st. show 6 five-day means of temperature from 1,5°C to 6°C, and Tangafoss met.st. had 20 days with air temperature until 5°C. March was relatively cold and in the middle of April there were 10 days with frost.

This winter were 6 pentades with mean temperature colder than  $-4\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$  observed at Hæll met.st.

In Fig. B-1<sup>3</sup> are given the five-day means of air temperature and five-days sums of precipitation observed at Hæll met.st. during the winter.

The lowland along Hvitá and Thjórsá had little of snow this winter.

## Run-off conditions

A survey of the run-off conditions during the winter 1964-65 at the head gauge stations in Hvitá and Thjórsá is shown in Fig. B-2. On the diagrams are the recorded five-day means of discharge at Gullfoss, Selfoss and Urridafoss recording gauges drawn with red colour.

On Fig. B- $2^{20}$  is given a graphic of daily discharge this winter in Thj $\delta$ rs $\acute{a}$  at Tr $\acute{o}$ lkonuhlaup and Urridafoss recording gauges.

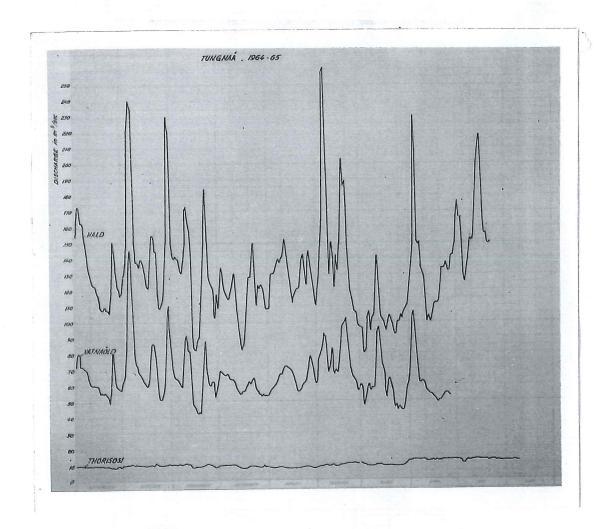
The observations show that the winter run-off has been variable both in Hvitá and Thjórsá. Through long periods the winter run-off was considerably below the normal. During periods of thaw a number of flood waves of shorter duration occurred. Greater increase of discharge was observed in February. As can be seen from the daily observations, the discharge increased in Thjórsá at Urridafoss on the 6.th and 7.th of February until 720 m/s, respectively 530 m/s at Tröllkonuhlaup.

Sub-normal low water discharge in Thjórsá was observed during the period of cold weather in the middle of October, at Tröllkonuhlaup with ca 100 m³/sec., and at Urridafoss with ca 120 m³/sec. For several days in the middle of December and in the beginning of March, the discharge was also considerably below the normal.

A survey of the run-off conditions is given graphically for Tungnaá and for the lower part of Thjórsá in Fig.  $\mathbb{E}_{-3}^1$  and  $B-2^{20}$ .

In order to give a better view of water stage variations in Thjorsa during strong periods of cold weather extracts of recorded water stage are given for certain characteristic periods, in Tungnaa at Hald and for Thjorsa at Tröllkonuhlaup and Urridafoss, see Fig. 6.3.

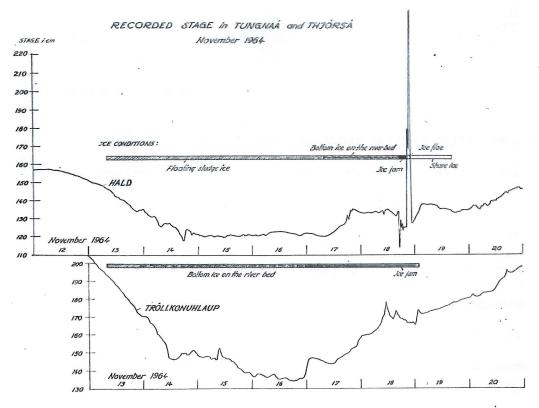
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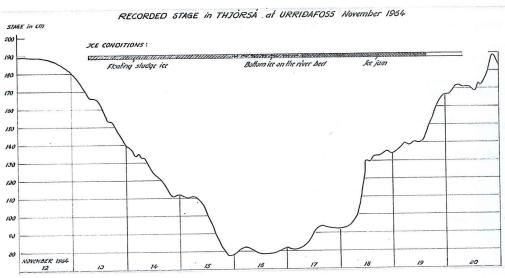


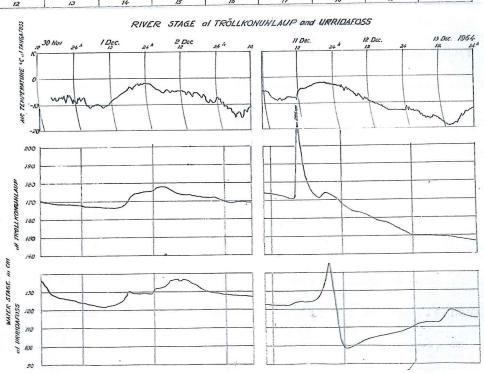
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#### Ice conditions

In Tungnaá and Thjórsá and in the upper part of Hvitá the ice-formation began during a shorter period of cold weather between 21 and 25 October 1964. Lasting freezing began 12 November and in the middle of the month a very strong ice production was observed, especially in Tungnaá and Thjórsá. On the 15 November already Thjórsá was for the most part covered with ice (with local sludge ice accumulation) on the section from Hvassitangi and downwards to Thjórsárholt, at the Arnes and below Urridafoss. Tungnaá and Upper Thjórsá carried downstream great quantities of sludge ice and the sludge accumulation downwards Thjofafoss and Urridafoss increased quickly.

Sludge ice accumulation was also observed in the lower part of Upper Thjórsá, especially on the long shallow river part at Fidjaskogar. In Tungnaá ice accumulations were formed on shorter parts with ice bridge in places where the river bed is extremely narrow. The ice bridge formation did only partly stop the ice flow. The greater part of floating frazil ice was diving under the ice bridges and was carried further down the river.

In Hvitá river an accumation of sludge ice was observed on the section from the Ida bridge and upwards past Hvitarholt.

On the 17 November a change of weather (thaw) came and in a few days the ice conditions were changed quickly. On the 20 November the lower part of Hvitá and Thjórsá was open and through the mighty pack-ice masses below Thjofa-foss and Urridafoss were narrow open channels formed, running between vertical ice walls. Breaking up of the ice and ice floes were observed in Tungnaá near Hald and in Hvitá from Hvitarholt and downwards.

From 22 November a strong, long period of cold weather came, and the production of ice on the open parts of the rivers started again. In the middle of December both Upper Thjórsá and the upper part of Tungnaá were covered with ice. The lower part of Tungnaá and the central part of Thjórsá (especially the ca 15 km long section from Tröllkonuhlaup upwards) were, however, open and

there was an enormous ice production. Great masses of sludge were carried downwards to Thjofafoss and Urridafoss. These waterfalls were dammed down and covered with pack ice. Smaller ice floes were also observed in Tungnaá, in Thjórsá tributaries, Fossá, Sandá and Kálfa, and in the central part of Hvitá og its tributaries Fossá and Stóra Laxá.

The production of ice in Thjorsa on the lava section upstream of Tröllkonuhlaup in the period from 10 - 14 December 1964 has been calculated to be up to 25 tonns of ice per km², sec. In Thjorsa below Tangafoss was measured a discharge of water filled with sludge ice until 25 m³/sek and in the central part of Thjorsa, just above Thjorsarholt was measured until 40 m³/sec, i.e. until 3,5 mill. m³ sludge per 24 hours. The ratio between sludge ice and water volume in the upper water flow was estimated to be 0,3 - 0,4.

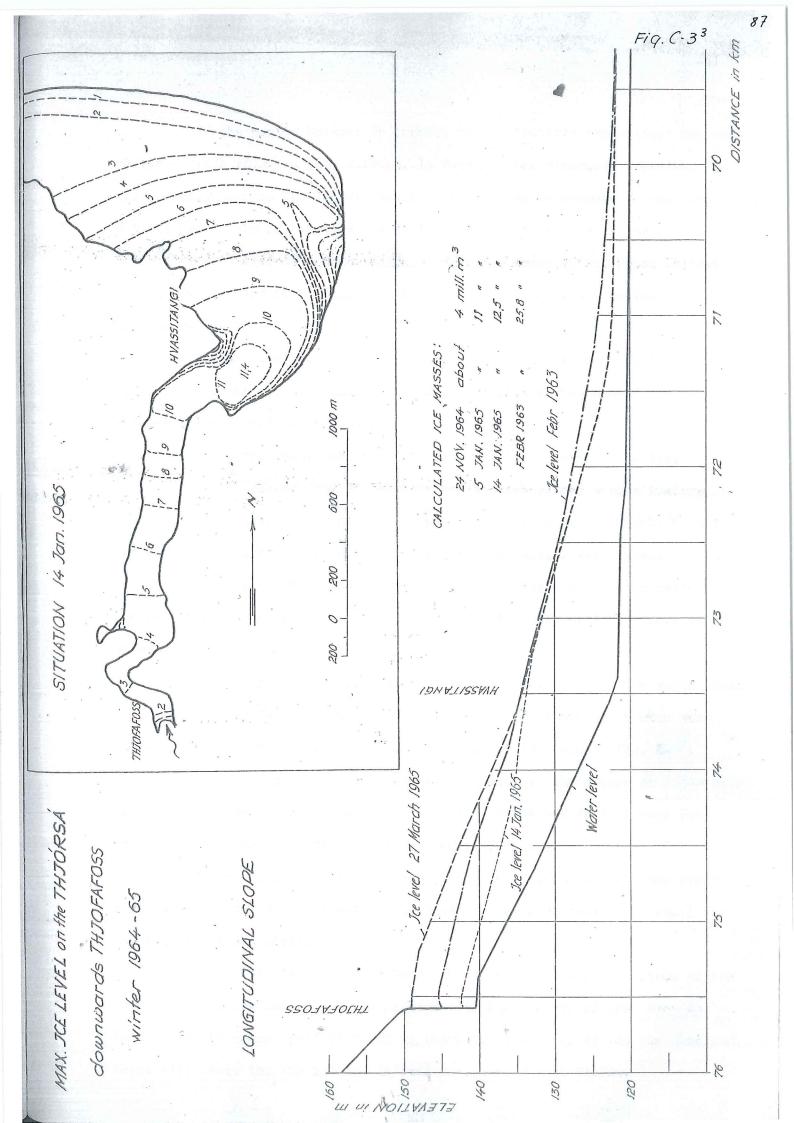
Floating sludge ice taken cautiously out of the water had a density of about 0,6.

In order to achieve a better survey of the open and icecovered parts of Thjórsá and Hvitá a reconnaissance tour by plane was arranged on 14 December and a number of photographs were taken.

From 17 - 22 December there was a period of thaw, which quickly again brought changes in the ice conditions.

A third longer period of ice production began on 22 December, lasting until 20 January, interrupted only by 2 days with slight thaw. During this period Thjórsá below Burfell was for the most part ice covered, and production of sludge ice and bottom ice on this parts had decreased considerably. Upper Thjórsá was also mostly ice covered and the production of ice was restricted. The greatest quantities of floating sludge and bottom ice were produced in Tungnaá downstream Hrauneyafoss and in Thjórsá on the lava section upstream from Burfell.

The ice accumulation below Thjofafoss was measured and it was found about 12-15 mill. m³ ice, see Fig. E-33: Max. ice level on the Thjórsá downwards Thjofafoss 14 January 1965.



In the period between 20 January and 20 February the weather was very variable, with rain and snow melting. In February the discharge increased considerably both in Thjórsá and Hvitá quickly bringing changes in the ice conditions. On the 20 February the following rivers were mostly ice free: Tungnaá from Fjallafoss and downwards, a distance about 40 km. Upper Thjórsá between Dynkurr and Fitjaskogar (12 km), whole Thjórsá from Tangafoss to Urridafoss (80 km).

Through the ice jam below Thjofafoss on a distance of ca 5 km, and downwards Urridafoss on a distance of ca 20 km, Thjórsá had opened a wide channel between vertical ice walls.

The whole lower part of Hvitá from Gullfoss was also ice free.

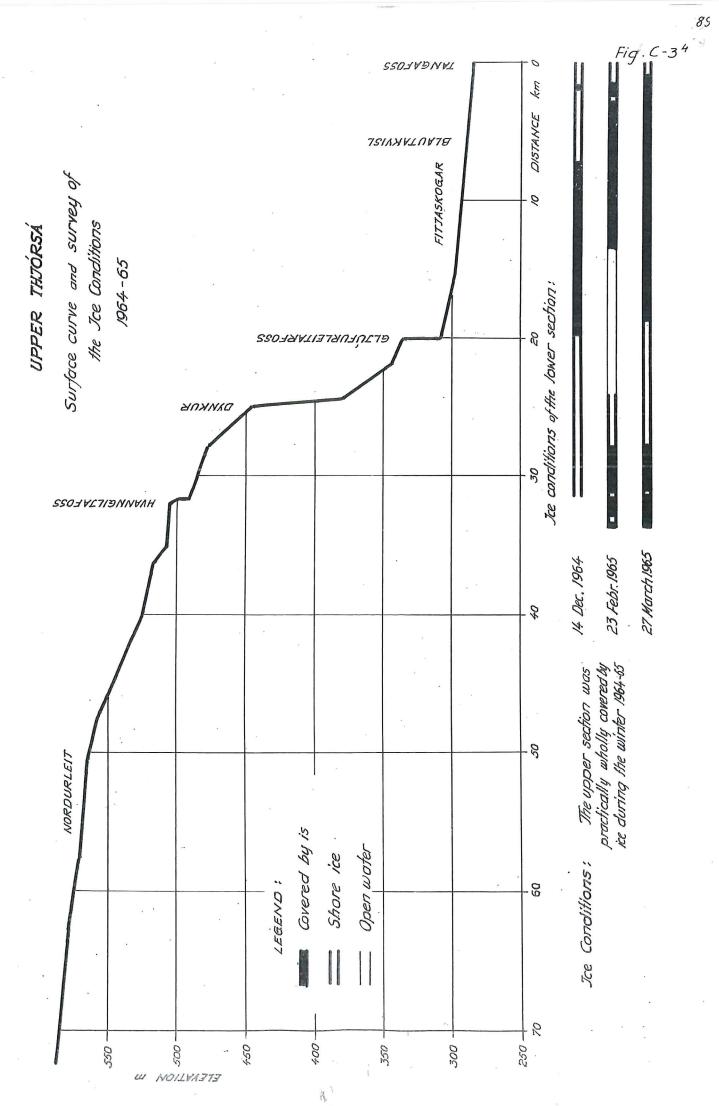
In the period from 20 February to 29 March strong winter weather again occured, interrupted only by 3 days of thaw, from 8 - 11 March. On all the open river parts the production of ice started again. Very intensive sludge - or bottom ice production was observed on 3 and 6 March and in the period between 22 and 25 March. From 20 - 27 March Hvita and Thjörsa were more or less covered as they had been in the middle of January.

On 27.March a reconnaissance of the ice-conditions on the whole areas of Thjórsá and Hvitá was undertaken by plane and continuous air photos were taken. A short survey of ice conditions of Thjórsá is given on Fig. 15-34.

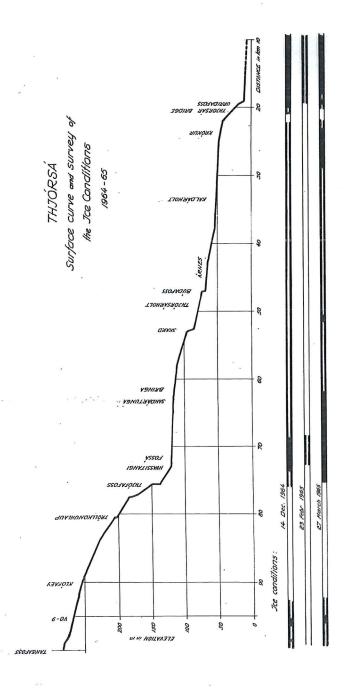
Ice melting took place unusually quickly. In the course of a few days in the end of March and the beginning of April, Hvitá and Thjórsá were ice free almost as they had been after the flood in February.

In the middle of April a 10 days period of cold weather came and on the open river parts in Tungnaa and Thjórsa downwards Burfell some frazil ice and bottom ice was observed.

During the last winter 1964-65 there were altogether 9 periods of ice formations and the same number of periods with breaking up of ice. Even as late as in the second part of March an enormous production of ice was observed, especially where the Tungnaá and Thjórsá are passing lava fields.



Cont.



On Fig. C-3<sup>5</sup> is given a summary about quantitative studies of the production of ice in Thjórsá downwards Burfell.

A survey of ice periods in lower part of Thjórsá by regular observations is given graphically on Fig.  $C-3^6$ .

The ice conditions in Hvitá and Thjórsá may generally be characterised in the following way:

- 1. Both rivers have many sections which have very broad and shallow river beds, with gradients which will produce rather high water velocity and turbulent water flow. This facilitates the formation of great open water areas which will be exposed to maximum heat loss to the air and cause great ice production during cold periods.
- 2. During the winter both rivers have a discharge which is considerable and great enough to keep filled the major part of the river areas which did remain open during the beginning of the winter.
- 3. In the next sections we are going to treat how the heat budget and the ice production can be calculated from meteorological and hydrological observations. The size of calculated ice production during a cold period has been found to be in fairly good accordance with observed ice masses. The ice masses produced during cold weather are very much greater than those occurring in Scandinavian rivers, which are very different from the icelandic rivers as far as topography and winter discharge are concerned. Comparable quantities are probably rare in other northern countries as well.
- 4. During mild weather periods the heat transfer from the air to the great open river areas is correspondingly great, thereby increasing the water temperature, which will strongly influence the ice conditions by breaking up and melting ice masses. The great variations of the winter climate and the lack of sheltering woods make on the whole the ice regime of the icelandic rivers extremely variable.

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Chapter D. SHORT SURVEY of the ICE PRODUCTION in RAPID RIVERS

l. Heat loss from water surfaces.

Numerical calculation

By daylight the water of a river will receive heat from direct and diffuse sun radiation (global radiation). The loss of heat is caused by outgoing long wave heat radiation from the water surface, by evaporation and by convection with the cooler air. Accordingly the greatest loss will occur during night hours. During the winter months, however, heat gain by the global radiation in the daytime will be negligible.

Additional heat may also be contributed by tributaries supplied with temperate water from thermal sources. A complete heat budjet would also contain the dynamic heating which is caused by the friction in rapids and waterfalls. When water passes a height difference of 427 m the temperature of the water would be increased by 1°C if no other heat exchange was taking place. This contribution is, however, small in comparison with the heat losses from open water during a cold period.

Some heat will also be supplied by conduction from the material of the river bed. It is a small factor which may influence the growth and the release of bottom ice (see next section).

To calculate the heat loss from a water surface it is necessary to evaluate the different processes which contribute to the transfer of heat from the water surface to the air above the surface.

Heat loss by radiation. From a very thin film of the water surface is incessantly radiated a long wave radiation which depends upon the temperature of the water surface. From the atmosphere above is a heat radiation coming which will be absorbed in the same thin water film. This incoming heat radiation

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will depend upon the conditions of the atmosphere, especially upon air temperature and cloudiness. The difference between the outgoing and the incoming radiation is the heat loss by radiation, here denoted by  $s_1$  and measured in kcal/daa, sec. = Mcal/km² sec.

In a paper published i 1930  $^{\rm x)}$  <u>Devik</u> developed a formula giving an approximate calculation of the heat loss  ${\rm s}_1$ , and similar formulae have also been published and discussed by many other authors. Taking these considerations into account, a slightly revised formula will be used here in the form

$$s_1 = 23,5 (1 - 0,78 n^2) + 1,05 (t_w - t_a)$$

measured in kcal/daa, sec. = Mcal/km², sec. Here n is the cloudiness, scale 0 - 1,  $t_{\rm w}$  the temperature of the water surface and  $t_{\rm a}$  the air temperature.

Heat loss by evaporation. Evaporation from the surface film of the water will cause a heat loss which will a) depend upon the difference between the vapour pressure  $e_{\underline{w}}$  at the surface itself and the vapour pressure  $e_{\underline{a}}$  of the air, measured (as relative humidity) at normal height, and b) depend upon the wind velocity  $\underline{v}$ . The influence of wind has been much discussed. Devik found that the heat loss was proportional to  $(0,3+v)^{0,5}$ , partly based upon observations made by moderate wind. For evaporation by stronger wind a higher exponent than 0,5 seemed to give a better representation, according to experiments made by other scientists. To check this question special measurements were planned and performed at Tangafoss, the new observation station which is equipped with registering instruments and calorimeters of special construction for heat measurements of this type. The same question is also valid for the heat loss by convection (see p. 3 below). The measurements were analysed and the calculations performed by Mr. Sigmundur Freysteinsson.

x) Olaf Devik, Thermische und dynamische Bedingungen der Eisbildung in Wasserläufen, Geof.Publ. IX, No. I, 1930.

We have adoped the following revised formula for the heat loss  $\mathbf{s}_2$  due to evaporation:

$$^{s}2 = 2,25. v_{2}^{0,845} (e_{w} - e_{a})$$

measured in kcal/daa, sec. = Mcal/km², sec. Here  $e_{\rm W}$  and  $e_{\rm a}$  are measured in mb and  $v_{\rm 2}$  gives the wind velocity in m/sec measured in 2 m height.

Heat loss by convection. The heat loss from the surface film caused by heat conduction, convection and turbulence will depend upon the temperature difference between air and water surface and the wind velocity. The influence of the wind velocity will be of the same kind as for the evaporation. The revised formula for the heat loss due to convection will be

$$s_3 = 1.4 v_2^{0.845} (t_w - t_a)$$

measured in kcal/daa, sec. = Mcal/km², sec.

Heat supply by global radiation. Of the direct radiation from the sun and the diffuse light from the sky a certain fraction  $\underline{a}$  -- called albedo -- is reflected from the water surface, and the rest will be absorbed in the water layers. This heat supply  $s_4$  will thus be given by

$$s_4 = G (1 - a)$$

where G denotes the global radiation from sun and sky calculated as evenly distributed over 24 hours and measured in kcal/daa, sec. =  $Mcal/km^3$ , sec.

If direct measurements are not available the global radiation may be calculated when date, latitude and cloudiness are given. During the winter months November - February the heat supplied by global radiation is practically negligible compared with heat loss which cause ice problems in the rivers.

In the course of March the global radiation is increasing and from April onwards it becomes an important factor. The observations of global radiation

at Reykjavik were used to estimate the global radiation at Tangafoss, assuming an albedo a = 0,8 for the water surface.

The total heat loss S from the water surface will thus be given by

$$S = s_1 + s_2 + s_3 - s_4$$

measured in kcal/daa, sec. = Mcal/km², sec.

Of special interest for the calculation of ice production in rivers is the total heat loss  $S_0$  from a water surface of  $0^{\circ}C$ . Then  $t_W = 0$  and we assume for practical use that the relative humidity of the air is 75 %. In the first part A of the following table is given the heat loss by clear sky (n = 0), for different values of air temperature and wind velocity. In the second part B is given the correction for the cloudiness n (which will influence the outgoing heat radiation).

# Heat loss S from a water surface of 0°C.

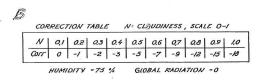
Measured in kcal/daa, sec = Mcal/km³, sec. Relative humidity 75 %.

 $A_n$  By clear sky, n = 0.

v <sub>2</sub> t <sub>a</sub>	= 0	-1	<b>-</b> 5	-10	<b>-1</b> 5	-20	-25°C
1	27	30	43	57	70	82	94
5	37	46	83	124	162	197	232
10	47	64	125	195	260	321	381
15	57	79	164	261	350	434	516
20	66	95	202	324	436	543	647
25	75	110	238	383	518	645	769
30	83	125	272	431	597	745	889

t air temperature, °C.

 $\mathbf{v}_2$  wind velocity,  $\mathbf{m}/\sec$  , in 2  $\mathbf{m}$  height.



A convenient graphical representation of the table A. is given in Fig. D-1.

1

HEAT LOSS in kcal/daa, sec from an OPEN WATER SURFACE at 0°C Cloudiness N = 0 Wind velocity V m/sec in 2m height 300 200 1 kcal/doa, sec - 1 Mcal/km, sec I gare - 4047 m2 = 4,047 dag AIR TEMPERATURE B CORRECTION TABLE N: CLAUDINESS , SCALE O-1 N | 0,1 0,2 0,5 0,6 0,7 0,8 0,9 1,0 Corr 0 -1 -2 -3 -5 -7 -9 -12 -15 -10 HUMIDITY -75 % GLOBAL RADIATION -0

1

In the following section will be treated the types of ice which will be produced by the heat loss  $S_0$ , mainly frazile ice, sludge ice and bottom ice. The total amount of ice  $Q_1$  produced by the heat loss  $S_0$  (measured in Mcal/km² sec) over an open water area A (measured in km²) will be

 $Q_i = 0.0125 S_o A tons ice/sec$ 

Through 24 hours it will make 1080 S<sub>o</sub>. A tons ice/24 hours. These relations will be frequently used in the following sections. The transformation of water to ice will also represent a corresponding reduction of water volume. If the ice is floating in the water as loose masses, sludge ice, the reduction of the "useful" water volume will be even greater than the meltwater of the ice.

2. Supercooling in open waters. Formation of frazil ice, sludge ice and bottom ice in turbulent rivers

The first measurements of supercooling were performed in the river Neva by Altberg about 50 years ago. By using heat radiation and registering thermopile Devik has measured supercooling to -1,4°C in still water<sup>X)</sup>. In calm weather the freezing of an ice cover on a lake will start with a supercooling of a thin surface film where ice crystals will grow from nuclei suspended in the water. When the first coherent ice cover has been produced, the supercooling has ended, and the growth of the ice sheet on the lake will be a slow, continuous procedure, which might be called static ice production.

II.

X) Olaf Devik, Supercooling and Ice Formation in Open Waters, Geof. Publ. XIII, No. 8, 1942.

In turbulent rivers the ice production is a much more complicated dynamic ice production. When the turbulent water stream has been cooled down to 0°C the heat loss from a free water surface will cause a supercooling of a very thin water film which incessantly is being renewed through the turbulent motion of the water masses. A supercooled element of the surface film will move in an irregular way through the water and may just as often sweep the bottom as be moving along the surface. On the way down the supercooling of the element will decrease and a slight supercooling of the surrounding water will result.

An individual crystal will have to start at a solid nucleus and can only grow in surrounding water when the liberated heat of crystallization can pass from the crystal wall of 0°C to adjacent water of lower temperature i.e. supercooled water. It ought to be emphasized that as long as the heat loss continues from the water surface there will be a stationary stability in the exchange of heat between the growing individual crystals and the surrounding supercooled water stream. An open turbulent stream carrying ice crystals with it will not attain exactly 0°C through the whole water mass till the heat loss from the surface has ceased.

The growth of an ice crystal will take place at the highest rate where the motion of the supercooled water is greatest, because there the actual gradient of temperature will have extreme values. The consequence is that every peak of ice structure will have tendency to grow, so that the irregularities will not be smoothed out, but on the contrary, exaggerated. Such aggregation may just as well happen to floating ice causing floating sludge, as to the formation of bottom ice which has a loose structure. This type of ice is called <u>frazil ice</u>.

Through the intermixing of the supercooled surface sheet with the turbulent water masses the water may be slightly supercooled from surface to bottom. By taking the precaution to keep lukewarm the bulb of a mercury

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thermometer (divided in 1/100°C) before inserting it in the water, supercooling of some hundredths of a degree may be measured, before the bulb gets covered by a thin ice film raising the temperature to the freezing point. The measurement of the temperature of the surface film itself can only be performed by measuring the outgoing long vave radiation.

Frazil ice may not only be floating in the surface stream. In turbulent water frazil ice may be carried with the water stream in any depth of the river. This combination of frazil ice floating in slightly supercooled water with incessantly new formed supercooled water film elements whirling down and gradually "dying" represents a most potent factor in the ice formation in rapid rivers. It may be called "active frazil ice", in contrast to frazil ice floating in water which is not supercooled and might be classified as "passive frazil ice".

A special problem is how long path a supercooled surface element may move till it has lost its supercooling. Observations of bottom ice at depths of about 20 metres and similar facts indicate that the "life path" of a supercooled surface element probably is of the order of magnitude of 20-30 metres, depending upon the intensity of the frost and the water content of potential nuclei for the formation of ice crystals.

Evidently the chance of a crystal growth will be the greatest in the surface film, and the smallest at the bottom, where the chance will depend upon the time which the moving water film element will use on its way from surface film to bottom, i.e. upon the water velocity and the depth. The formation of bottom ice will thus be more frequent at shallow sections than at deep ones.

The number of nuclei suspended in the water may be so great (sedimentation, sand storm, snow storm) that practically all crystallization will take place in the upper layers of the water. In such cases the growth of bottom ice will become reduced or cease.

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The small supply of heat from the river bed and the heat produced by turbulence in the rapids will limit the growth of bottom ice at a given locality because the bottom ice consists of crystals which are exposed to buoyancy. If the heat loss from the surface decreases, the growth of bottom ice will also decrease and finally be balanced by the heat supply mentioned. By further decrease some bottom ice will be released and float up to the surface, often with inclusions of gravel and sand from the river bed. It is a well known experience that bottom ice may float up before the air temperature has risen to 0°C.

Ice crystals have a tendency to form clusters. The buoyancy will be sufficient to keep the clusters floating if the velocity of the water current is lower than a certain critical value, which will depend upon the size of the clusters.

In the uppermost strata of the water stream the floating clusters will reduce the turbulence, but the clusters will long remain as a very loose structure, sludge ice, growing gradually downwards in much the same manner as bottom ice is growing upwards. This demonstrates that there is some circulation of supercooled water through the interstices of the structure. The structure has very small cohesion when floating freely in the water. Measurement of the weight of ice per unit volume is difficult to perform with accuracy, but provisional measurements have given values between 0,3 and 0,4 kg/l for floating sludge ice in Thjórsá.

In the open surface areas between the clusters turbulent motion will still be effective, producing a supercooled waterfilm, elements of which will be moving through the water as mentioned above. At river sections, however, where the clusters cover practically the whole surface, a supercooling of the water stream under the floating cover will be very small. In that case a layer of bottom ice produced formerly would cease to grow, and when the heat balance in the bottom layer were reversed, parts of the bottom ice might float up.

When the water transport is illustrated by stream lines the following consequences will appear for the relation between surface areas covered by clusters of sludge ice and open areas between:

a. Where stream lines are <u>diverging</u>, open surface areas will be increased. In such places the supercooling will produce conditions for bottom ice production e.g. where the river is expanding. This is easily observed where the beach line is curved.

Another important case is the water surface just in front of an obstacle placed in the stream, e.g. a stone or a pillar, and similarly for the water surface just behind the obstacle. The shallow sections of Thjórsá abundantly show how blocks of stone are growing points for bottom ice which gradually may develop a comparatively strong structure around the original obstacle, and finally produce growing islets of ice (see next section).

b. Where streamlines are converging, for instance near an obstacle, the open areas will be reduced. As long as the velocity of the water is below the critical value mentioned above the chance for bottom ice production will also be reduced. When the convergence should increase the velocity above the critical value, however, the sludge ice would be immersed in the water, leaving the surface open to the production of a supercooled water film, the elements of which would follow the converging water stream which would be sweeping along the obstacle on its way. This case is of importance when the obstacle is a pillar placed in the stream.

3. Influence of dynamic ice production on water level and discharge

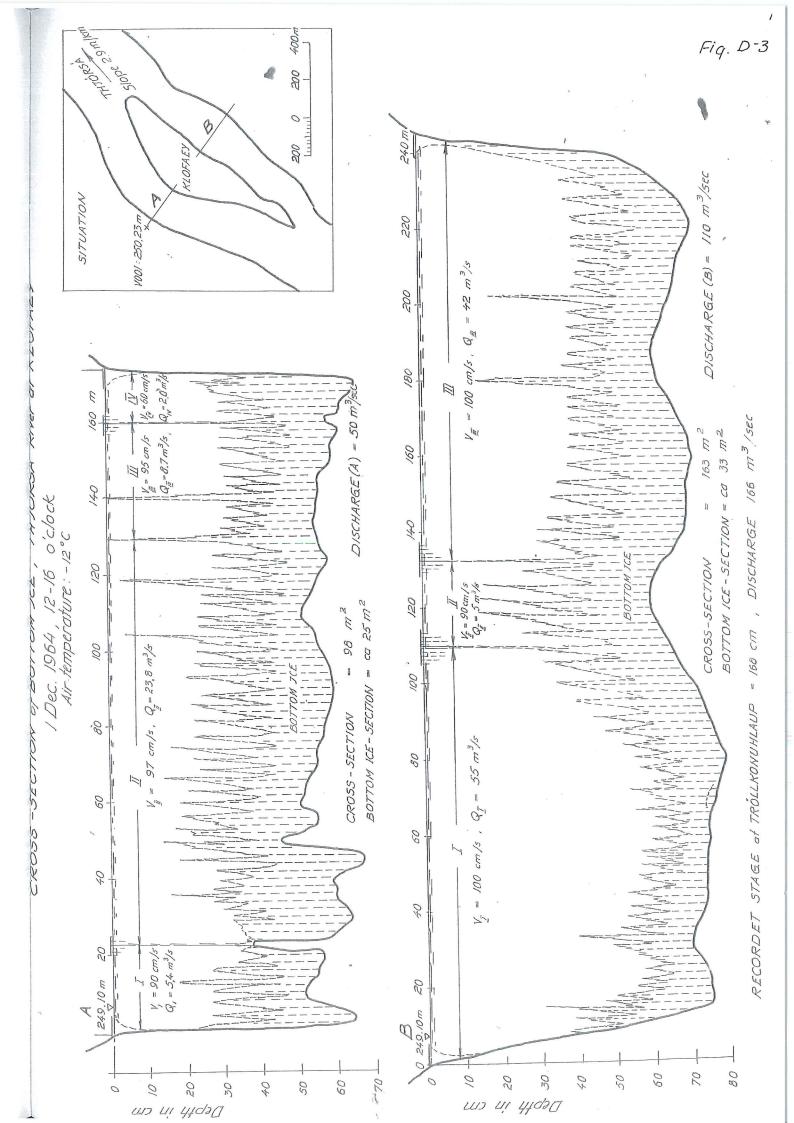
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From what has been said in the preceding section it will appear that measurements of ice production in early winter will present good opportunity for studying the simultaneous production of frazile ice, bottom ice and sludge ice. Om. 1.12. 1964 comprehensive measurements were made in a section of the

Thjórsá, crossing both branches at Klofaey, where the river bed is even and broad with the slope 2,9 m/km. The width of the eastern branch is 170 m and that of the western 240 m. At the time of the measurement the mean depth of the two branches were 0,56 m and 0,69 m, respectively. The air temperature was -10°C to -12°C and the use of current meters was handicapped by the formation of ice an the propeller after a few seconds of immersion. Sufficient current measurements were however, made in the eastern branch. In the western branch there were fewer measurements and additional observations of the surface velocity was made by using floating objects. In both branches the depth profile and the thickness of the bottom ice layer was measured.

In the Fig. D-3<sup>1</sup> has been reproduced the original diagram describing the ice condition within the cross section of each branch and containing data from the observations and calculation of the discharge. There are a great number of "tops" on the bottom ice layer and some of the tops even reach the surface, where isles of ice are growing. From the beach is also shore ice and bottom ice growing out in the river. (It ought to be remembered that the vertical scale unit is 100 times the horisontal scale unit.)

From the diagram of the eastern branch we find that the average depth was 0,56 m, of which the bottom ice layer occupied about 0,15 m. The water layer of thickness about 0,41 m contained immersed frazil: ice and floating sludge ice which will increase the turbulent friction and cause some reduction of the water velocity ("soup is flowing slower than clean water"). It is therefore probable that the average velocity of 0,93 m/sec in the upper layer (I to IV in the diagram) is slightly lower than the velocity which ice-free water would have had by the same discharge, 55 m/sec. If we assume that the average velocity by ice-free water would be 0,93 m/sec or somewhat more, the average depth would be equal to or less than 0,35 m. The difference from the observed depth would be 0,21 m or somewhat more. The important conclusion will thus be:



The ice observed in the water and at the river bottom has raised the water level at least 0,21 m higher than it would have been when the river was free of ice and carried 55 m/sek. Of this rise of water level in the eastern branch 70-75 % is caused by the bottom ice layer, and 25-30 % by immersed frazil ice and floating sludge ice.

A rise of the water level of this order of sice will establish temporary magazines of water, and the consequences will best be demonstrated by the following example.

The Thjórsá with Tungnaá has above Thjofafoss open areas which at the beginning of the winter will be about 17 km² and after the first cold periods reduced to about 9 km². If the rise of level 0,21 m at Klofaey on the 1.12. 1964 was representative for open areas of 9 km² a water volume of about 1,9 mill. m³ would temperarily be accumulated as a magazine, which would be emptied when the air temperature was rising and became positive.

During the accumulation period the discharge at Thjofafoss will be correspondingly lower than it would have been without the accumulation. In our case we do not have sufficient observations for a calculation, but the most intensive accumulation period will probably be only a part of the cold period. If we estimate 2 days, it would mean an everage accumulation of 25 m/sec during this time. The discharge would suffer the same reduction during the same time. It is obvious that the rise of level which has been discussed here, is of special importance for the short variations of the usable discharge.

4. Compression and solidification of sludge ice. Ice bridges and ice accumulation (pack-ice). Shear strength of accumulated packice. Step bursts

Sludge ice clusters floating downstream in the surface layer has a very loose structure as mentioned in the preceding section. However, when we fetch a portion of such sludge ice we can easily squeeze it to an ice ball which is quite similar to a snowball, such as we make from newly fallen and wettish snow.

Even a slight dynamic force may strengthen a loose structure of ice floating in a river. If for instance a coarse net or a series of parallel and vertical bars are placed across a shallow stream carrying frazil ice and producing supercooled water, the pressure gradient caused by the obstacle will tend to produce a more tight structure than of floating sludge ice. Immersed ice particles arriving to the structure may be caught, whereby a supercooling of the surrounding water will play an important part, and this will contribute effectively to the narrowing of the openings. The result may be that packed frazil ice may practically close the openings.

In a similar way stones on the bottom of a turbulent river will present growing points for an ice dam, the production of which is a combined effect of supercooling, crystal growth, frazil ice drift, dynamic compression and regelation. The result may be an ice dam of remarkable stability, and such a dam can in certain places raise the level considerably, for a time store great volumes of water, and thus facilitate the formation of a coherent ice cover, which will stop the supercooling as long as the ice cover is intact. This is the way in which nature itself counteracts the heat loss by reducing the open areas.

The collection of photos from Thjórsá and Tungnaá show many examples of ice dams which have been produced in the way just mentioned.

Even more impressive, however, are the photos which present the formation of ice bridges and the huge accumulation of compressed sludge ice and pack-is in certain places. The waterfalls act as giant mixmasters, producing a soup of turbulent water, a suspension of sludge and disintegrated blocks, some of them coming from shore ice and some from accumulated masses of compressed sludge ice.

The section from Thjofafoss and about 3 km further downwards to Hvassitangi present during strong cold a dramatic illustration of how the ice content of this soup can build bridges of compressed sludge ice and accumulate huge masses of ice, the density of which will be about 0,6 -0,7 kg/l in the uppermost layer and increasing downwards to nearly 0,9 kg/l in the lowest layer.

The ice bridge which closes the water pool just at the foot of the Thjofafoss waterfall is in such a case continously rebuilt on the upper side and broken up on the lower side. Suddenly a long crack may appear between which vertical ice walls may be a couple of meters high, thus demonstrating that the solidification within the ice bridge produces a substance with a tensile strength which is by no way negligible.

Bottom ice formation is not observed at the foot of the waterfall. The heat production through turbulence and friction will be concentrated just there, and will compensate the heat loss from the open water surface passing the waterfall. The formation of bottom ice is always due to the presence of supercooled water and is not limited by any "critical value" of water velocity. Great water velocity may on the other hand by erosion effect remove ice crystals over a certain size.

The major part of the mixture of ice and water which is leaving the Thjofafoss will pass under the ice bridge which is produced below the waterfall. The mixture will on its way downstream cause en accumulation of sludge ice and pack ice on the broad river section between Thjofafoss and Hvassitangi. This accumulation of ice will cause the water level to rise, and the accumulation process is on the whole a variable and intensive formation and

deformation of ice dams and ice bridges within the changing pattern of water streams in the broad accumulation area.

When the cold recedes and the ice production period is followed by a thaw, the water level on the accumulation site will go down and the greater part of the ice masses will be resting on the broad river bed, while the pack-ice will be broken up over the main river stream and carried away. The river will then pass through the accumulation area in a channel between vertical ice walls, which in this area may have reached a height of about 10 m during the cold period. The photos from the last winter illustrate this. The amount of ice which may be accumulated in this area has been treated in section C-3.

In the gorge of Urridafoss the accumulation of pack-ice may in many winters reach a height of 15 m and ice walls of a similar height may then occur later.

From the observations and photos mentioned above the following facts may be summarized in this way:

- 1) The dynamic compression of floating sludge ice which is taking place by the formation of an ice bridge gives as a result a type of ice which according to observations can exhibit vertical walls of 2-3 m height.
- 2) The formation of ice bridges and accumulation of pack-ice, which is taking place during a cold period of several days at such places as Thjofafoss-Hvassitangi and in the gorge of Urridafoss, may produce pack-ice layers with a thickness of 10 15 m. Vertical walls of a corresponding height will occur when the water level goes down after the cold period is over.

### Shear strength of compressed sludge ice (pack-ice).

When an ice layer has a free vertical side (height H) this fact demonstrates that the acting forces, weight and actual stress, are in a stable equilibrium in the ice volume adjacent to the side wall.

The stability is characterised by the shear stress (s) in the plane along which a rupture will take place when the critical breaking stress ( $s_b$ ) is reached. As long as the safety factor ( $F = s_b/s$ ) is greater than 1, the ice wall will be stable. The shear stress (s) which will correspond to a given height (H) and a given density (d) of the ice layer may be calculated by applying the classical theory for earth pressure against a vertical wall with the simplification that the horisontal component in this case is zero. The stress will be

s = 0,5 F d H

The safety factor F will be greater than 1 for a stable wall and accordingly the shear strength will be greater than 0,5 d H. In an ice layer with mean density  $d=0.8 \text{ ton/m}^3$  the shear strength will then be greater than 0,4 H (measured in ton/m).

We thus find that the observed ice layers producing ice walls of a height from 2 m to 15 m will have a shear strength exceeding 0,8 ton/m², respectively 6 ton/m². Of the same order of size is the shear strength of such materials as ordinary clay (1.c. p.78).

From our observations and analysis the conclusion will be:

The formation of ice bridges and pack-ice produces a type of ice which has a shear strength comparable to that of a substance like clay.

Publication Nr. 16, Oslo 1964, from The Norwegian Geotechnical Institute, by N. Janbu, L. Bjerrum and B. Kjærnsli. Formula (5-1) p. 51.

The importance of this conclusion will be evident when we for instance consider the situation that a <u>step burst</u> of accumulated ice and water in the region of Hald is sweeping downstream Tungnaá and Thjórsá during a cold period. Should it happen that the floating ice masses were producing ice bridge and pack-ice filling up a shallow intake magazine, it would be extremely difficult to remove the accumulated pack-ice having a shear strength as mentioned above.

The frequency and the character of step bursts in the river sections above Tröllkonuhlaup cannot be found from daily, weekly or pentade means of descharge. It can only be found by studying the original recordings at the gauging stations Hald, Tröllkonuhlaup and, eventually, Urridafoss. Due to ice disturbances during cold periods some recordings are incomplete, but in spite of this the material demonstrates the general character of a step burst passing the river sections upside Burfell. Examples have been given in this report, see section C-3. In the observation programme for the coming winter it will be desirable to include a more detailed study of the step bursts, based upon continuous recordings at a few places and upon daily observations of water level and inspections of ice conditions at chosen river sections.

 Present experience on ice problems connected with the utilization of water power in Norway

The geological structure of the mountainous country of Norway is very different from that of Iceland, where the underground water represents an important storage of the precipitation. Norway has a great number of lakes which under natural conditions represent a considerable storage during the seasons when the precipitation is falling as rain. During the winter season, however, the precipitation over the mountainous country will predominantly be snow, and as a consequence the specific discharge will generally show a great decrease during the winter till the snow melting begins.

The use of natural lakes or artifical storage reservoirs will therefore be an essential part of a development scheme for water power plants in Norway, in order to secure a stable power production during the winter season.

The improved methods of tunnelling has made it possibly in many cases to assemble the discharge from great mountain areas into a single or a few storage reservoirs ("roof-gutter projects") for the power plants. In Norway the rock material is generally suitable for a wide use of tunnels.

The regulation of rivers and lakes and the building of reservoirs will in most cases not only change the natural conditions of the water courses, but also create different winter-problems for the power plants themselves. It will also have to be taken into account that the winter climate of Norway is variable. Eastern Norway generally has a rather continental winter climate with occasional advances of maritime and mild air. Western Norway, and even more Northern Norway, however, lie open to the frequent successions of warm and cold fronts bringing precipitation and changes of temperature with them.

In the appendix to this report is enclosed a reprint of a paper published in 1964<sup>x)</sup> dealing with Norwegian experience which is reviewed on the basis of our present knowledge of the factors which are desisive for the ice production in lakes and rivers. The text and the illustrations demonstrate an application of the same physical analysis which has been treated in this report, chapter D, on the production of ice in rivers with a turbulent flow.

The crucial point is the supercooling of a thin water film of an open water surface which is exposed to heat loss to the air during cold weather. There will always be a sufficient number of solid nuclei which become growing points for ice crystals, some of them floating in the stream as frazil ice, and others growing on the river bed as bottom ice, in certain localities producing ice dams by the combined action of supercooled water, frazil ice and bottom ice. Where the slope is steep and irregular, the river bed may be nearly full up with frazil ice and pack-ice, some times moving slowly a little way and then stopping again.

Based upon the observations of supercooling and the formation of frazil ice and bottom ice, it was assumed that the "life path" of a supercooled surface element may be of the order of 20-30 metres. If that is so, there will exist a critical area of say 30-40 metres width in front of any solid construction which is placed in a turbulent river. It may be considered as an empirical fact that ice troubles at the intake and at the trash racks of a power plant are above all caused by the mixture of supercooled water and immersed frazil ice, a combination which might be labelled "active frazil ice".

Here may be mentioned a case from early december 1959, when a great number of power plants in Norway suffered from ice troubles at the intakes, caused by strong cold and strong wind lasting for several days. The plant

x) Olaf Devik, Present experience on ice problems connected with the utilization of water power in Norway, Journal of hydraulic research, vol. 2, no.1, 1964.

Rössaaga (180 Mw) had electric heating of the racks in use, nevertheless, however, the racks were completely clogged by bottom ice and frazil ice. On that occasion the broad and shallow intake reservoir was still open and exposed to low air temperature and to a persistent strong wind blowing in the direction of the intake channel, against the intake itself.

To prevent a repitition of such a situation the following precautions were established in accordance with proposals made by the authors of this report.

The inlet channel has been covered over with a big roof (900 m) to prevent cooling of the water surface by outgoing radiation, and in addition the water surface can be heated indirectly by long-wave radiation from a great number of electric heat elements. The heat loss by convection and evaporation might thus be compensated by directing the radiation to the surface film where the heat would be absorbed. The electric heating of the racks would be available as an additional reserve. To prevent the accumulation of floating ice a floating screen with coarse wooden bars has been installed at the entrance to the roofed-in section. Later on the shelter has been extended to protect both the racks and the rest of the open intake. During the recent winters (which have not had abnormally cold periods) the water surface under the roof has been free of ice.

For a new plant such measures may be avoided if the dimensions of the intake channel are adjusted to a water velocity not exceeding 0,6 m/sec. In this case the formation of an ice cover may be achieved within a short time, eventually by using a floating boom in front of the intake to obtain a skimming of the frazil ice. The aim will be to exclude a persistent production of supercooled water within the critical area in front of the intake, and also to prevent floating sludge ice and pack-ice from reaching the adjacent parts of the intake reservoir.

The same

It is a common experience at many Norwegian power plants that the worst ice troubles will disappear as soon as the intake reservoir has been covered by ice.

In some cases it has been necessary to place a dam across a rapid, thus obtaining only a small intake reservoir, which soon would be filled when sludge ice and pack-ice were produced in great quantities on the river section upstream the intake dam. The dam has in such cases been constructed in a way which should make it possible to pass the floating ice masses over the weir. However, during strong cold the inevitable production of active frazil ice altered the water flow, produced bottom ice on the trash racks, the arriving ice masses blocked the movable weir constructions, and as a result the power production of the plant was reduced.

To prevent this, the remedy might be to reduce the production of ice in the river section upstream the intake dam by erecting a number of permanent threshold dams on the river section. Such dams would be able to withhold considerable quantities of floating frazil ice and ice floes, and the reduction of the water velocity would facilitate the production of an ice cover growing upstream. Experiments which are being performed in a norwegian river indicate that such threshold dams may be of a simple and permeable construction which can act as the reinforcement of an ice dam which grows up during cold weather by the production of bottom ice and frazil ice. Such a construction might be a sort of framework or a barricade of stones or concrete blocks. During cold periods the ice dams would grow up, and during thaw periods the ice content in the dam structure would melt on the spot, without being broken up and carried downstream. The experiments mentioned are promising.

The regulation of lakes and rivers in Norway will generally increase the winter flow which may be comparable with the summer flow. The discharge from a power plant will in several cases have to pass river sections which

are exposed to rather intensive ice production. In such cases the ice production on the river section has been increased compared with the ice conditions under natural conditions. More important, however, is the great influence on the ice conditions which is caused by the daily and weekly variations of the discharge, due to the variations of the power production. On some river sections special ice-patrols must regularly inspect the production of ice dams and pack-ice accumulation and if necessary blow up ice dams, in order to avoid flooding of the adjacent ground.

With reference to icelandic rivers with rather great winter flow, the facts just mentioned indicate that similar natural variations (of comparatively short duration) in the water flow will make the ice conditions considerably worse.

# 2. Experiences from other countries.

During the preparation of this report one of us (Devik) had the opportunity of taking part in the XIth Congress of The International Association for Hydraulic Research, in Leningrad 5-11 September 1965. In one of the Seminars ice problems were discussed, which proved to be of central interest to scientists and hydraulic experts from USSR and from Canada. We know from a great number of Russian publications (which Kanavin has studied) that Siberian rivers in general present similar ice problems to the power plants as we know from Norwegian rivers, although as a rule on a bigger scale. However, some of the plants are on a moderate scale, where the technical solutions are of special interest to us. In the Seminar and during the excursions to research institutes Devik met leading Russian experts and could state that the Russian approach to the practical solution of ice problems was in full accordance with the analysis which has been demonstrated in this report.

It is a guiding claim to plants exposed to frazil ice and sludge ice coming from rivers sections upstream that supercooled water and active frazil ice must not enter the intake. Precautions are therefore taken in order to facilitate the production of an ice cover on those parts of the intake surface which can not otherwise be sheltered, e.g. by making the constructions spacious enough to keep the water velocity below the critical value, respectively by using floating beams to accelerate the ice cover formation.

In Leningrad is also a refrigeration laboratory where supercooling and the production of frazil ice and pack-ice at low air temperature has been studied experimentally during many years, and these studies have now attracted renewed interest. In the Seminar a report on similar studies in Norway was given by H. Berge (River and Harbour Research Laboratory, Trondheim).

Canadian scientists (B.Michel a.o.) presented in the Seminar studies of the forces exerted on constructions by accumulated ice. From Lasalle Hydraulic Laboratory, Quebec, was presented (by film) model studies of ice accumulation (E.Pariset and A.Gagnon). To simulate floating ice granulated plast was used. The same material is used at the model studies which are being made, relating to the Burfell project, at the River and Harbour Research Laboratory, Trondheim (H.Berge).

Such model studies with a passive material as granulated plast may give valuable information of the type of accumulation which is the combined result of buoyance and water velocity. The resemblance between accumulated carpets of granulated plast and the ice bridges which are observed in rivers is apparent. The drawback is, however, that a carpet of floating plast grains has no shear strength. Such experiments with granulated plast cannot fully simulate the effect of supercooled water combined with sludge ice, nor fully demonstrate the compression of sludge ice which produces ice bridges with a considerable shear strength (see Chapter D-4).

Another interesting contribution was made by a canadian expert (B.G. Bryce) who described a floating beam across the broad and deep river upside the weir above the Niagara falls. Logs were carried by strong steel cables which were anchored at a series of points across the river. The experiment was performed last winter and although the water velocity was too great to allow the formation of an ice cover under ordinary conditions, the beam caused the formation of a pack-ice cover, starting from the beam and growing upstream. In this way the supercooling was eliminated on the covered area, and the water flow under the ice transported passive drifting ice downstream. From our point of view the success of this experiment was due to the shear strength of the ice carpet which was produced from the beam upwards, by dynamic compression and accumulation of sludge ice and pack-ice floating in the river. The experience from this experiment may evidently have a useful application in Icelands rivers as well.

3. Practical ice problems connected with the water resources development of the Thjbrså and Hvitå rivers.

#### Evaluation of the actual discharge.

For the development scheme a thorough knowledge of the usable discharge at a given place will be necessary, and the relevant observation material from previous years will have to be used in order to prognosticate the discharge variations which are probable for the years to come.

We consider first the Thiorsa material, which consist of direct water level observations, water level recordings and direct measurements by current meter observations. The measurements will during the winter be influenced by the local ice conditions, and the relevant correction ("ice correction") must be applied to find the "reduced discharge" which generally is supposed to correspond to the rating curve, giving the discharge at different water level under ice-free conditions. The order of size of such ice corrections will be different at different observation: places, and as an example we will here consider the recording station at Tröllkonuhlaup. The river is here about 100 m wide, and the so-called "determining profile" is a cross section downwards at a similar distance, where the river is flowing over an underwater threshold, which is near the surface in the middle of the river. Bottom ice may be formed on this part of the threshold and grow up to an isle of ice (see photos). The water level which is then recorded would correspond to a discharge too high, if the rating curve were used directly. The correction might be found by direct measurements of the discharge at a suitable place without bottom ice. A similar correction would be caused by shore ice between the station and the determining profile, and even more if some part of the river here should be covered by ice. It is, however, fortunate that the

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corrections mentioned above are generally rather small at this station and they may in most cases be estimated with sufficient accuracy. The basis for such estimation will be the study of the recordings under varying conditions, with due consideration of the control measurements of discharge. Ice corrections at Tröllkonuhlaup will generally be less than 5 cm. A correction of 5 cm would according to the rating curve mean a reduction which at 150 m³/s nominal discharge would give a reduced discharge of 140 m³/s.

It should here be noticed that when the river carries much frazil ice, this will increase the internal friction of the water flow and cause some increase of the water level. This influence will be included by using the estimation method mentioned above, in other cases, however, a "frazil ice correction" would have to be considered.

In a paper published in 1938<sup>x)</sup> this effect has been studied and formulae have been deduced allowing a calculation of water level when frazil ice is present. It would be desirable to investigate this effect experimentally at a suitable place in an Icelandic river.

Occasionally the recordings at Tröllkonuhlaup show the passage of a step burst which may raise the water level to an extraordinary height for a short time. The water volume and the ice masses passing the station by a step burst may be estimated by means of the recorded curve.

The release of such step bursts will mainly take place in Tungnaa in the region where the Hald recording station is situated. The recording material here demonstrate great variations of water level due to the formation of ice bridges and pack-ice accumulation. During the winter 1964-65 supplementary observations are available from the Tangafoss observation station.

X) Olaf Devik. Über Wasserstandsänderung eines Flusses bei Eisbildung, auf Götaälv angewandt. VI Baltische Hydrologische Konferenz, Berlin 1938.

The examination of the present material from Hald and Tröllkonuhlaup has demonstrated that it undoubtedly will be rational to give the eliminitation of such step bursts a high priority within the development scheme.

It has to be mentioned that the recordings at distant stations have occasionally suffered from disruptions caused by ice formation, e.g. in the well. Improvements have been made and will be continued. The recordings now available from the stations at Urridafoss and Tröllkonuhlaup may at any rate be used primarily to study the actual variations of the discharge and secondly to study the dependence on the changes of air temperature.

#### Correspondence of air temperature at Hæll and Tangafoss.

From the winter 1964-65 temperature recordings exist at Hæll continuously from 8.10.64 and at Tangafoss in the period from 26.11.64 to 16.5.65. A study (by Sigmundur Freysteinsson) of the recordings for the period 26.11.64 - 30.4.65 showed that there is a good accordance between the daily mean temperature at Hæll,  $t_{\rm H}$ , and that of Tangafoss,  $t_{\rm T}$ , for temperatures below 3°C:

$$t_{T} = -2,32 + 1,035 t_{H}$$

For temperatures at Hæll between zero and -10°C the corresponding temperature at Tangafoss will be found by using a correction of -2,5°C. It is a greater difference than the "normal" temperature gradient would give, and this fact is evidently caused by the production of cold air floating down the valleys from the snow-covered mountains, as mentioned in Chapter B.

The temperature recordings from the two stations show that the two curves are practically like. At strong cold and strong wind the temperature at Tangafoss may be somewhat lower than it should be expected and in this case the difference is of special interest for a detailed study. However, the comparison of the records show that it will be quite possible to use the temperature observations at Hæll in previous years to represent with good approximation the corresponding temperature at Tangafoss by applying the following table:

The meteorological observations at Tangafoss may be considered as fairly representative for a great part of the Thjórsá and the Tungnaa districts upside Burfell, and likewise the observations at Hæll may be considered as fairly representative for the Thjórsá district between Burfell and Urridafoss. We know the correspondence between the air temperatures at the two stations. On the other side, however, the correspondence between the wind observations and the wind recordings at Hæll and Tangafoss from the winter 1964-65 have not yet been studied statistically. The wind recordings during the coming winter will present a good material for such a study.

#### Air temperature variations compared with the variations of discharge.

It is a well known fact that the discharge in Thjorsá goes down when a period of frost comes, and that the discharge goes up again when the frost period is over. To examine this correspondence we have compared the temperature curves for Tangafoss with the water level recordings at Tröllkonuhlaup. Placing the corresponding diagrams above each other, we can follow the two curves day by day and observe how very close the correspondence is between frost periods and periods of discharge reduction, and how the following increase of air temperature is related to the increase of discharge. In many cases it will be possible to estimate how much the water level has been reduced during the reduction period which corresponds to the frost period, and accordingly to find the corresponding reduction of the discharge. From this we calculate the volume of water which has been stored temporarily on the river sections

in Thjórsá (and Tungnaá)above Tröllkonuhlaup, partly as ice and partly as water, which may be released during a following thaw. In such a case that the release is taking place simultaneously with a rainfall it may be difficult to separate the two components of the discharge increase.

As an illustration two examples are given here, 22 - 25 October 1964 and 14 - 18 November 1964.

From the frost period 22 - 25 October 1964 we have temperature recordings at Hæll which by a correction ( $-2,5^{\circ}$ C) also represent the temperature curve at Tangafoss. From the area of the curve under the zero line is found the total of negative degree-hours, which during the frost period (78 hours) was - 350 degree-hours. The mean temperature during this period was accordingly -  $350/78 = -4,5^{\circ}$ C.

From the Tröllkonuhlaup diagram is estimated that the discharge was reduced from ca 230 m/s to ca 205 m/s through a reduction period of ca 70 hours, whereby a water volume of about 6,2 mill. m had been withheld temporarily on the river sections above Tröllkonuhlaup.

We consider next the frost period 14 - 18 November 1964 and compare the temperature curve recorded at Tangafoss with the water level recordings at Tröllkonuhlaup. During 118 hours the amount of negative degree-hours were about - 930 degree-hours, corresponding to mean temperature of -9,3°C. At Tröllkonuhlaup the reduction period was also about 118 hours, and the discharge went down from about 176 m²/s to a minimum of about 180 m²/s, whereby a water volume of ca 18 mill. m³ was temporarily withheld in the river sections above Tröllkonuhlaup.

For simplification we here assume that the total heat loss is approximately proportional to the total of negative degree-hours and to the total size of the open areas. If we further assume that the open area of the river is the same during the two frost periods here considered, the ratio 350/930 = 0.38 will represent the relation between the total heat losses.

The relation between the amounts of withheld water is in our two cases  $6.2 \, 10^6 / \, 18.10^6 = 0.34$ , i.e. practically the same relation, which means that we may use the temperature curves to estimate fairly well the amounts of withheld water in the two periods we have treated here. For later periods the total heat losses must be corrected for the reduction of the open areas.

The study of the temperature recordings at Tangafoss and the water level recordings at Tröllkonuhlaup lead to important conclusions:

- 1. The reduction •f discharge during periods of frost is mainly due to ice production and to loss of water which is being withheld temporarily in sections above Tröllkonuhlaup. Reduction of the open areas of the river reduces this effect proportionately.
- 2. Knowledge of the reduced discharge during frost periods is necessary to the planning of the power production. It appears to be rational to single out the frost periods and study the connection with the corresponding recordings of water level. Such analysis might be used on the recordings at Urridafoss and Tröllkonuhlaup, compared with representative temperature data deduced from the observations at Hæll.

Conclusions.

The rivers Tungnaå and Thjorså are extremely sensible to the variations of the heat exchange between river surface and the air, especially to the influence of air temperature and wind.

The discharge is affected during periods of thaw through precipitation falling as rain in the drainage area. During frost periods the intensive ice production and the formation of local ice dams will cause temporary local increase of the water level. Thereby considerable water masses can be withheld and cause a corresponding reduction of the discharge further down in the river, lasting during the frost period. The only positive precaution to reduce this effect will be to reduce the open areas, which are the sources of ice production.

The nature of the ice production has been treated in detail in this report, and numerous photos illustrate the direct influence on the water flow. The fundamental importance of the supercooling associated with the formation of frazil ice and bottom ice, has emphasized the necessity of avoiding supercooled water and active frazil ice near the constructions of a plant. Formation of an ice cover on an intake reservoir must be promoted. The formation of ice bridges, associated with the accumulation of pack-ice masses produces a type of ice having a shear strength which may cause much greater practical difficulties than previously assumed. To avoid such complications the amount of drifting frazil ice and sludge ice must be reduced. The remedy will be to reduce the open areas and to establish reservoirs where floating ice may be strained out. Such reservoirs will be necessary in order to prevent the passage of step bursts.

The analysis of the different ice problems given in our report is pointing to the possibilities which exist when we want to establish a control of the ice production. The possibilities are:

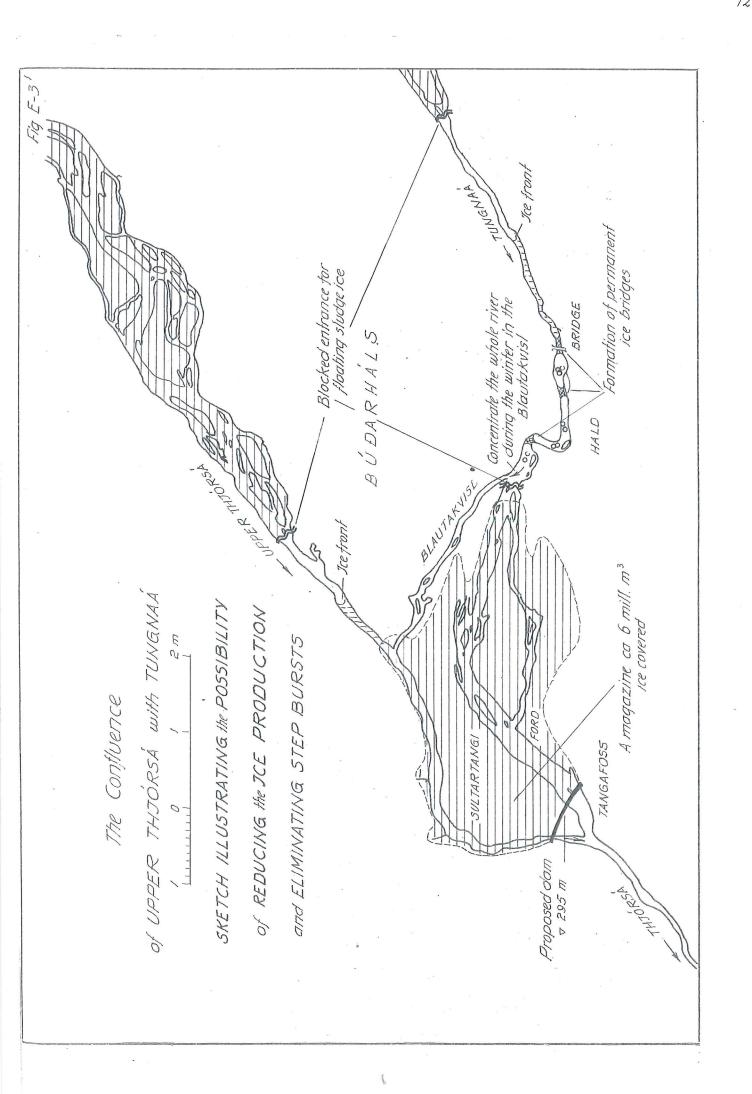
to reduce effectively the open areas,
to establish reservoirs which can
store floating ice, prevent step
bursts and prevent the formation of
ice bridges at critical places,
to secure slow water flow and promote
the formation of an ice cover at the
intake of a power plant.

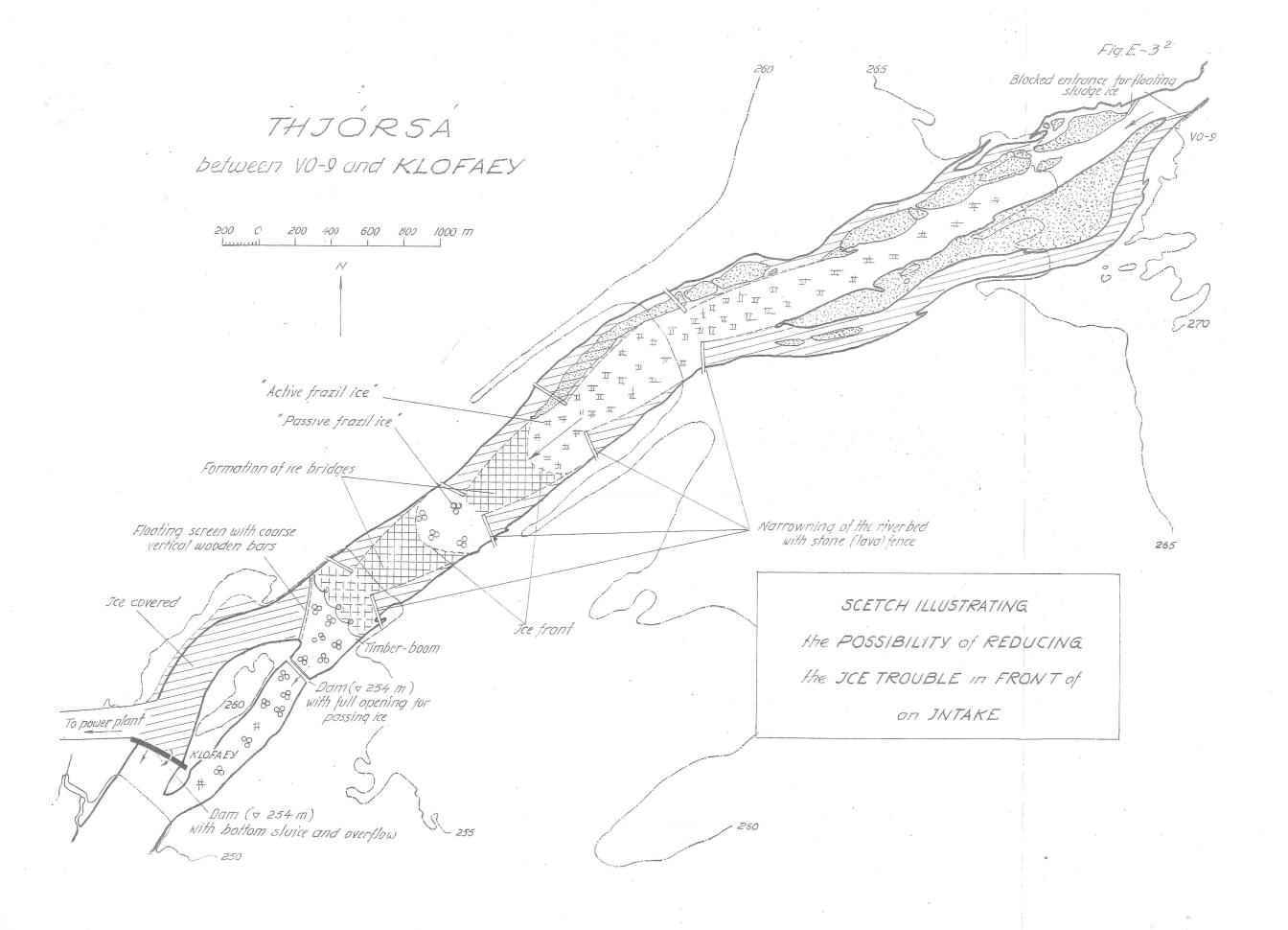
To illustrate the application in Tungnaå and Thjörså of such points of view will here be presented two sketches, which contain the necessary labels describing how the ice conditions will be controlled by the constructions which are indicated.

One sketch Fig. E-3 illustrating the possibility of reducing the ice production and eliminating step bursts in the near region above the confluence of Tungnaå and Thjorså. The second sketch Fig. E-3 is illustrating the possibility of reducing the ice trouble in front of an intake which is chosen at Klofaey.

Hvitå.

In the Hvitå river the sections above Gullfoss present similar ice problems as those which have been treated for Thjorså and Tungnaå in this report, and similar precautions may be taken in order to obtain the necessary control of the ice production. The lower part of Hvitå has different hydrological conditions and a separate survey will be needed before conclusions are made, as far as ice problems are concerned.





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