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22. Streamflow Changes Associated with Forest Cutting, Species Conversions, and Natural Disturbances

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An original research objective in the establishment of Coweeta was to measure and evaluate the effects of man's use of the forest on the quantity and timing of streamflow. Over the past 50 years at least 40 publications and numerous presentations have addressed this topic. Fifteen individual watershed-scale experiments have been conducted in the basin, involving various intensities of forest cutting and harvest and conversions of hardwood forest to white pine or grass. A description of the treatment is summarized in Chapter 1. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a synthesis of findings on (1) responses in annual and monthly streamflow quantities following cutting, species conversions, and natural disturbance; (2) changes in storm hydrograph characteristics that accompany clearcutting; and (3) the application of results to watershed resources planning on forested watersheds.

Changes in Annual and Monthly Streamflow

Hibbert's (1966) survey of catchment experiments throughout the world indicated that deforestation increased and afforestation decreased streamflow, but the magnitude of response was highly variable and unpredictable. In that analysis he also pointed out a nearly threefold increase in first year responses after clearcutting between north-south-facing watersheds at Coweeta. In an attempt to improve the relationship between first year water yield increases as a function of basal area cut, Douglass and Swank (1972) expanded the data base to 22 forest cutting experiments in the Appalachian Highlands Physiographic Division (Figure 22.1).

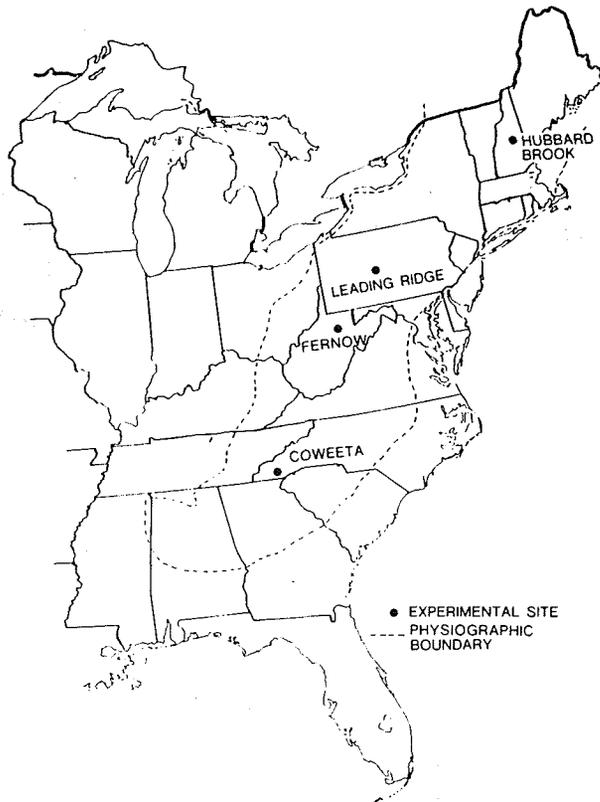


Figure 22.1. Location of the Appalachian Highlands Physiographic Division and experin sites.

Although the relationship between increases and percent basal area reductions improved, there was still a wide scatter of points about the regression; in fact, for cutting (100% reduction in basal area), Coweeta responses bracketed all of experimental results and ranged from 13 cm to 41 cm. An improved version of the year increase model was derived by Douglass and Swank (1975) by adding an error variable (insolation index), which represents energy theoretically received in watersheds of different slopes, aspects, and latitudes (Figure 22.2). The rationale for adding the insolation index as a variable was based on Swift's (1960) findings that radiation theoretically available for evapotranspiration is greater on south- than north-facing slopes in the dormant season, with little difference in the growing season. Additional studies of total and net radiation patterns supported the theory (Swift 1960) and it was hypothesized that streamflow response to cutting was inversely proportional to solar energy input. The curvilinear relationship provides a reasonable representation of the actual response to partial cuttings. The final equation derived for estimating first-year yield increases for hardwoods is:

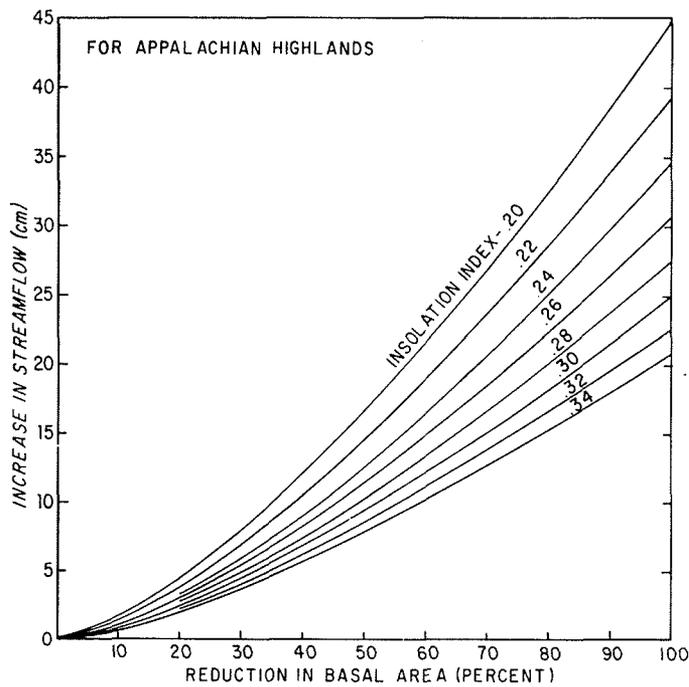


Figure 22.2. First year increases in streamflow after cutting mature, mixed hardwood forest based on the present reduction in stand basal area and watershed insolation index.

$$\Delta Q = 0.00569 (BA/PI)^{1.4462}$$

where ΔQ is the first year increase in centimeters for hardwoods, BA is the percent basal area cut, and PI is the annual potential insolation in langley $\times 10^{-6}$ calculated by methods given by Swift (1976). Total variation explained by the two variables was 89%.

As the forest regrows and the evaporating surface area (hence Et) increases, streamflow increases decline as a function of the logarithm of time (see examples, this chapter). This relation provides a model for predicting the yield for any year after harvest if the duration of measurable increases is known. An estimate of mean duration derived by Douglass and Swank (1972) as 0.62/year for each cm of first-year increase. The declining log equation for flow increase in any year (ΔQ_y) is

$$\Delta Q_y = \Delta Q - b \log y$$

where y is the number of years after harvest and the coefficient b is derived by solving Eq. 2 at the point when $\Delta Q_y = 0.0$:

$$b = \Delta Q / \log (0.62 \Delta Q)$$

The limitations on the use of these equations have been given by Douglass (1976). An application of the equations to the most recent clearcut at Coweeta is given

Table 22.1. Comparison of Annual Predicted vs. Observed Increase in Water Yield Following Clearcutting on Coweeta WS 7

Year After Clearcutting	Predicted Increase by Model (cm)	Observed Increase ^a (cm)
1	25	26
2	17	20
3	12	17
4	8	12
5	6	4
6	3	4
Total	71	83

^a Observed increase based on annual calibration regression.

Table 22.1 for Watershed 7 (WS 7), a 59 ha south-facing catchment. In the first year after cutting, streamflow increased about 25 cm and the model predicted 25 cm. In ensuing 2 years, observed increases were substantially above values predicted from equations, and these years coincided with the wettest and second driest years in past 50 years. Fourth and fifth year predictions were in closer agreement with observed values, and the total change predicted for the entire 6-year period was 71 cm compared to 85 cm observed. We would expect the most reasonable performance of the equation over several years rather than for individual years. Large deviations for individual years could be expected for exceptionally wet or dry years and, of course, both observed and predicted values have an error term. Actual use of these equations for forest management planning in the East has been documented (Douglass 1983). Later in this chapter we will provide another example of potential application.

The effects of clearcutting on mean monthly flows are illustrated by results on WS 7 during the 7 years when regrowth was cut annually (Figure 22.3). The timing of monthly increases are representative of other clearcutting experiments in the basin. Clearcutting has little effect on flow during later winter and early spring when moisture beneath undisturbed forests is fully recharged. With the onset of the growing season, increased flow from reduced E_t begins to appear and increases in magnitude as the growing season advances. In the lowest flow months of September, October, and November, average monthly streamflow is about 100% greater from the clearcut than uncut forest. This is the period when water demands are greatest and flow from undisturbed forests is lowest. Large increases continue into December and then begin tapering off as storage differences between cut and uncut forests diminish. On catchments with less soil water storage, recharge occurs more rapidly and increases are delayed as late into the winter.

Streamflow Responses to Regrowth

Long-term effects of clearcutting on water yield are important in both water resource planning and evaluation of nutrient export from forest ecosystems. Four experiments

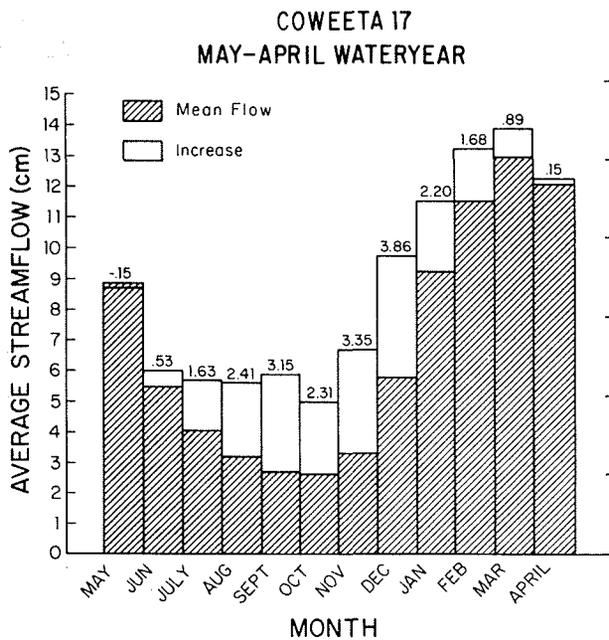


Figure 22.3. Mean monthly flow on Coweeta WS 17 during preclearcutting years and monthly increases during a 7-year period of annual recutting.

on three experimental catchments totaling 304 ha of land, almost 200 years of stream flow records, an equivalent number of precipitation records, and detailed vegetation measurements, provide a unique documentation of flow recovery and major variables that affect responses. These experiments were previously summarized by Swift & Swank (1981) and most details will be omitted here. The longest record available is WS 13, which has been clearcut twice, first in 1940 and again in 1963 without removal of forest products and with natural regrowth allowed. Changes in flow as estimated from differences between measured flow and flow predicted from the control catchment are shown in Figure 22.4 for both cuttings along with trend lines fitted to the changes. Thirteen years after the first cutting, Kovner (1956) proposed the following trend model: flow increase = $a + b(\log \text{ of years since cutting})$ and the trend line was still valid when the stand was 23 years old. The initial response of the second cutting was nearly identical to that of the first cut, but the shape of trend curves of the two differ substantially in the early years. The estimated termination of yield increase based on data in Figure 22.4 is about 18 years earlier for the second cutting.

Swank and Helvey (1970) partially attributed the more rapid decline in water yield of the second cutting to a more rapid recovery of stand density and perhaps leaf area (Table 22.2), and, hence, evapotranspiration after the second cutting. Seven years after cutting, stem density was 2000 stems ha^{-1} greater after the second treatment. This higher stem density was attributed to greater sprouting potential of the even-aged stand with numerous small stems that were present prior to the second cutting. Leaf biomass

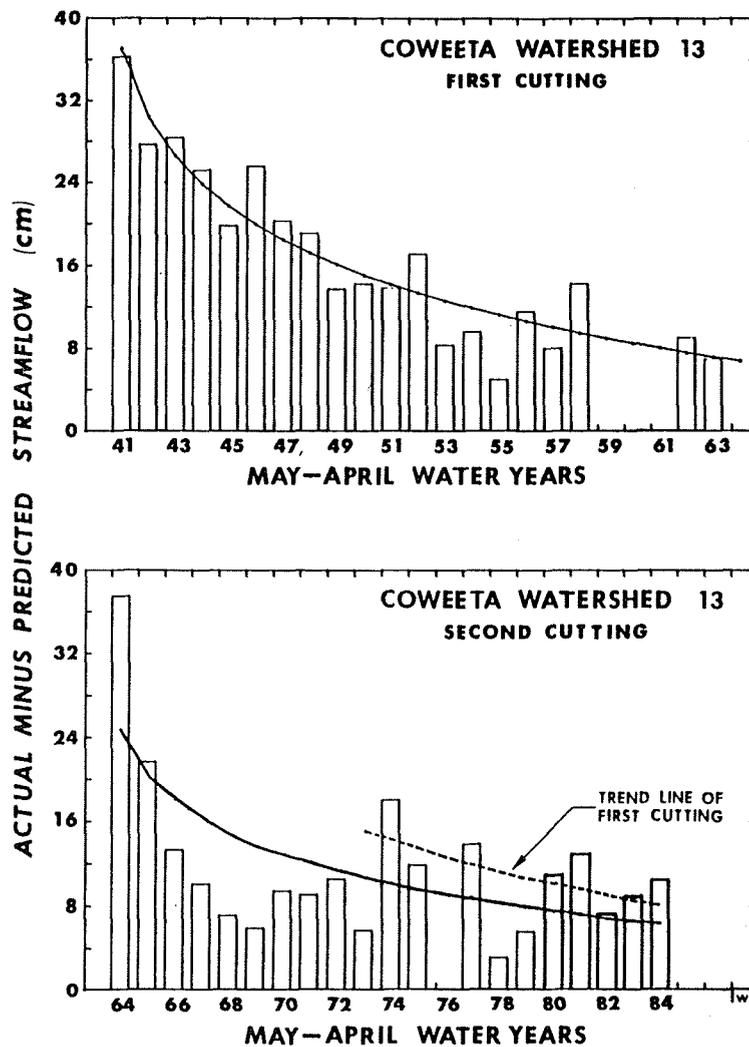


Figure 22.4. Streamflow increases following two clearcutting experiments on the mixed wood covered Coweeta WS 13. Streamflow was not measured in water years 1959, 1960, and 1976.

and surface area also recovered rapidly during the first 7 years after the second cutting (Table 22.2). At age 7, leaf biomass was nearly equal to leaf production at age 14 after the first cutting, and leaf area index (LAI) was similar to values expected for mature forests. In the next 2 years, leaf surface area and biomass declined sharply due to mortality from competition in the dense stand, and this was associated with the streamflow increases during the same period. Fifteen years after the second cutting, LAI was 6.0 and streamflow was near pretreatment levels. These long-term experiments illustrate the strong relationship between the temporal variations of the qu

Table 22.2. Characteristics of Forest Vegetation at Different Stand Ages for Coweeta WS

Water Year and Phase of Treatment	Stand Age (Years)	Stand Density (Stems ha ⁻¹)	Leaf Biomass (g m ⁻²)	Leaf Area Index (m ² m ⁻²)
1934	Mature, uneven-aged	2596	N/A	N/A
1940, First clearcut	Cut	0	N/A	N/A
Regrowth years	8	7630	N/A	N/A
Regrowth years	12	5322	N/A	N/A
Regrowth years	14	N/A	316	N/A
1962	22, even-aged	4196	N/A	N/A
1963, Second clearcut	Cut	0	N/A	N/A
Regrowth years	7	9659	268	5.2
Regrowth years	8	N/A	192	3.7
Regrowth years	9	N/A	191	3.8
Regrowth years	15	7338	309	6.0

N/A, not available.

of evaporating surface, evapotranspiration, and water yield. However, Swift & Swank (1981) found that the addition of a rainfall variable improved the fit of the tree line in the second cutting.

Logarithmic trend lines were fitted to two additional cutting and regrowth experiments (Figure 22.5). Streamflow increases on WS 37 temporarily returned to pretreatment levels during the fourth and sixth years after cutting. During the next 5 years there was a general streamflow increase and then a second return to baseline response pattern similar to WS 13. Detailed discussion of the temporal trends in streamflow and regrowth characteristics of WS 13 compared to WS 37 is given by Swift & Swank (1981). On WS 28, the multiple-use demonstration experiment, 51% of basin was clearcut, 22% was thinned, and 27% was left uncut. The recovery trend curve is not different in either slope or level from that of WS 37, but the level of flow increases for both experiments is different (less) than WS 13. Both watersheds are higher in elevation, with steeper slopes, generally shallower soils, and shorter growing seasons than WS 13. Hence, we postulate that E_t is less and changes in flow due to cutting are lower on these watersheds.

Effects of Cutting on Storm Hydrograph Characteristics

Of the cutting experiments conducted at Coweeta, only three have received a thorough analysis of changes in storm hydrograph characteristics. Differences in extent and type of watershed disturbance, the period of record included in post-treatment assessment, inherent watershed hydrologic response factors, and the magnitude and frequency of storms following treatment complicate summary evaluation of storm hydrograph responses. Nevertheless, the percent increases in four important storm hydrograph parameters calculated for the mean storm over the period of analysis are summarized in Table 22.3. Increases in quickflow volumes for cutting experiments with minimal disturbance to the forest floor (WS 7 and 37) are similar during the f

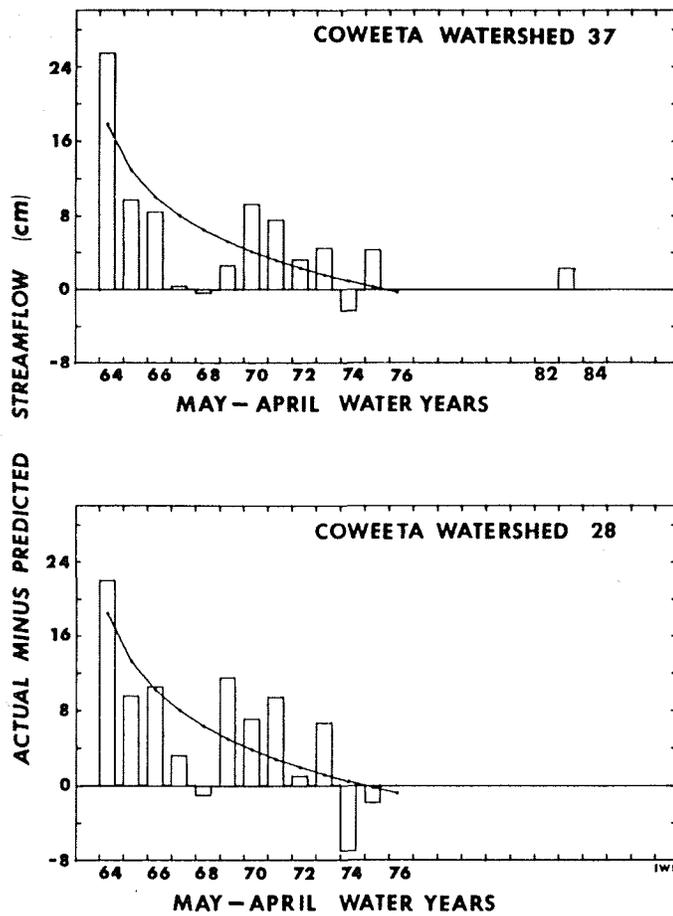


Figure 22.5. Changes in streamflow following cutting the mixed hardwood forest of Coweeta watersheds. Streamflow measurements were discontinued in 1975.

3 to 4 years after treatment, with a mean increase of about 10%. Commercial clearing with cable logging and some road construction (WS 7) produced peak flow about double (15% vs. 7%) the mean increases from clearfelling alone (WS 37). Flow rates and recession time were also increased 10 to 14% on WS 7. The largest changes occurred on WS 28, where commercial logging involved tractor skidding, a high road density. Quickflow increases averaged over the 9-year post-treatment period increased 17%; mean peak flow rates increased 30% the first 2 years after treatment and declined in subsequent years. It appears that the absence, or low density, of carefully constructed roads, combined with little disturbance to the forest floor during harvest, produced the smallest changes in stormflow responses. More specific detailed interpretations have been reported by Swank et al. (1982) for WS 7, Dou and Swank (1976) for WS 28, and Hewlett and Helvey (1970) for WS 37.

Table 22.3. Summary of Storm Hydrograph Responses to Clearcutting

Watershed Number	Size (ha)	Response Factor Mean Stormflow Volume ÷ Mean Precipitation	Treatment	Inclusive Years After Treatment	Mean Storm Increases for Selected Hydrograph Parameters			
					Total Quickflow Volume (%)	Peak Flow Rate (%)	Initial Flow Rate (%)	Recession Time (%)
7	58.7	0.04	Clearcutting, cable logging, product removal and minimal road density	3	10	15	14	10
28	144.1	0.09	77 ha clearcut, 39 ha thinned, 28 ha no cutting; products removed; high road density	9, 2 ^a	17	30	N/A	N/A
37	43.7	0.19	Clearcut, no products removed	4	11	7	NS	NS

N/A, not available; NS, not significant.

^aInclusive years after treatment used for total quickflow and peak flow rates, respectively.

Natural Disturbance

The partial defoliation on WS 27 by fall cankerworms from 1969 to 1977 was of sufficient magnitude and duration to detect effects on streamflow during part of each year. Using WS 36 as a control for WS 27, preinfestation calibration regressions were derived for annual, monthly, and a variety of combined monthly periods. No significant changes in flow were detected in annual flow, individual monthly yields, or combined monthly analyses. However, significant (0.05 level) flow reductions from November through January period were observed in most years of infestation (Table 22.4). Reductions varied from 5 to 15 cm or 7 to 18% below expected flow level in 1978, which coincided with the decline of cankerworm populations. These responses are attributed to stimulation of leaf production by defoliation. In Coweeta forests, leaf litter production of about 230 g m⁻² and a leaf area index (LAI) of 3.1 typical for elevation Coweeta forests, leaf production during most years of infestation exceeded 425 g m⁻² with a LAI of at least 6.0. The elevated LAI apparently produced increased evapotranspiration during the summer months, but streamflow reductions were observed at the weir until the winter period. This lag in timing between evapotranspiration changes within the watershed and measured effects at the weir agree with experimental results at Coweeta. Anticipated increases in flow during the summer months were not detectable, possibly because of the brief period of defoliation time of relatively low evaporative demand. To our knowledge, this is the first documented evidence where an insect infestation has been shown to increase leaf area and reduce streamflow.

Species Conversions

Two major long-term studies of the effects on water yield of converting mixed hardwoods to different vegetative covers have been conducted at Coweeta. One was the replacement of hardwoods with white pine, and the second a conversion to grass.

Table 22.4. Reductions in Flow During the November-January Period by Year Due to Hardwood Defoliation by Fall Cankerworm

Year	Change in Flow (November-January)	
	cm	%
1969	-6	11
1970	-9*	14
1971	-7	9
1972	-9*	11
1973	-15*	16
1974	-8*	15
1975	-5*	7
1976	-8*	18
1977	-15*	16
1978	+2	4

*Significant at 0.05 level.

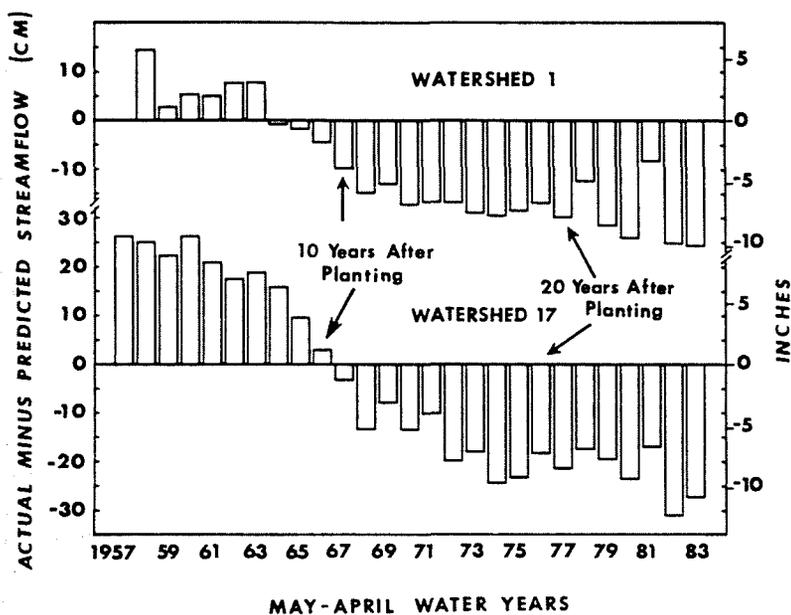


Figure 22.6. Annual changes in flow on two Coweeta watersheds following conversion from mixed hardwood to white pine.

lowed by succession. Both of these conversions have produced dramatic changes in streamflow, which are of importance to forest managers, hydrologists, and ecologists.

The white pine experiments were conducted on both north-facing and south-facing watersheds. For about 6 years after planting of white pine, streamflow increased and remained relatively constant and near those expected for clearcut hardwoods (Fig. 22.6). Thereafter, as the pine stands developed and hardwood competition was reduced, streamflow increases declined at a rate of 2 to 5 cm per year until about 1977. About 10 years after planting, streamflow was below levels expected from mature hardwoods and, by age 15, water yield reductions were about 20 cm (20%) less than expected for a hardwood cover. In the ensuing 9 years, annual reductions in flow fluctuated between 10 and 20 cm, depending upon annual precipitation. For example, during an exceptionally wet year such as 1980, pine evapotranspiration was much higher than hardwoods, but in the following year (1981), precipitation was quite low and small streamflow reductions were observed. Flow decreases during the more normal rainy years of 1982 and 1983 exceeded 25 cm on both watersheds.

Reasons for greater evaporative losses from young pine than from mature hardwoods have been given in several papers (Swank and Miner 1968; Swank and Douglass 1975; Swift et al. 1975). Interception and subsequent evaporation of rainfall is greater from young pine than hardwoods, particularly during the dormant season. Interception loss varies with LAI, and in the dormant season, LAI for hardwoods is less than 1 compared to 2 for white pine. Thus, less precipitation reaches the soil under closed pine stands and the result is lower streamflow. Simulation of evaporation for pine and hardwoods using the PROSPER model (Swift et al. 1975) shows greater dormant season transpiration

Table 22.5. Simulated Interception and Transpiration Totals for Oak-Hickory and White Pine Forests During the Growing and Dormant Seasons

Year and Vegetation Type	Interception (cm)			Transpiration (cm)	
	May-October	November-April	Total	May-October	November-April
1972-1973					
Oak-hickory	13.83	9.01	22.84	56.05	9.98
White pine	18.28	13.64	31.92	54.68	21.84

After Swift et al. Water Resour. Res. 11:667-673, 1975. Copyright by the American Geophysical

losses from pine (Table 22.5). On an annual basis, simulations indicate that interception and transpiration are equally important from a quantitative viewpoint.

The influence of precipitation quantities on annual responses can be normalized by expressing reductions in flow for any given year as a percent of flow expected if the watershed had not been treated (Figure 22.7). Flow reductions appear to culminate about age 12 and tend to remain rather constant until ages 25 and 26, when declines are 35 to 45% below hardwood levels. The original hypothesis in 1968 was that the rapid streamflow reduction resulting from hardwood to pine conversion would tend to level off when LAI culminated and thereafter gradually decline as the total planar surface area (including stem and branch area) slowly increased with stand age. This hypothesis appeared plausible, because surface area is a structural characteristic closely related to the major evaporative processes of interception and transpiration. The culmination of LAI development shown in the lower part of Figure 22.7 does, in fact, correspond to the leveling off of streamflow reductions and the total surface area index has continued to increase.

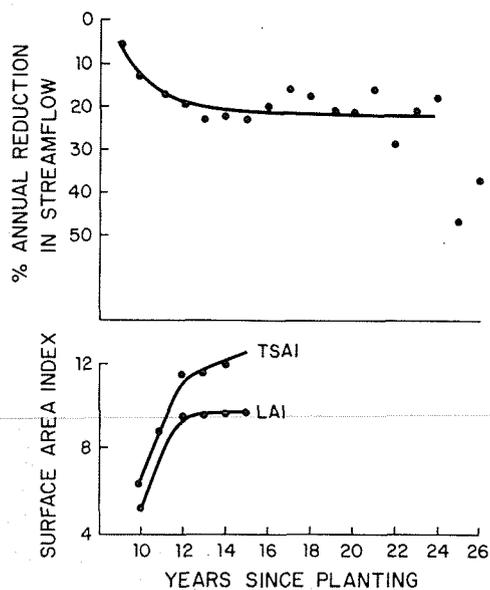
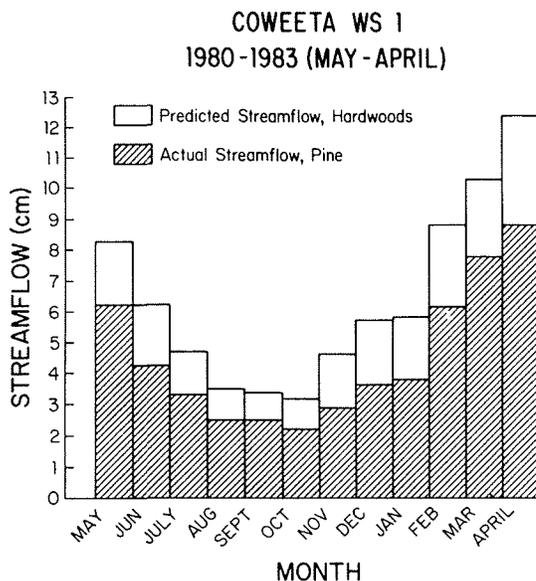


Figure 22.7. Percent reduction in streamflow after the planting of white pine in Coweeta WS 1 in relation to the development of plantation leaf area index (LAI) and total surface area index (TSAI) including foliage, branches, and boles.

Figure 22.8. Mean monthly flows predicted for a mature hardwood forest on Coweeta WS 1 and actual flows measured from a white pine plantation on the watershed during a 4 year period (1980-1983).



to increase. The surface area graph is incomplete; the population has been sample for both biomass and surface area in subsequent years, but estimates are unavailat at this time. Some very large and sudden increases in pine evapotranspiration are indicated by reduced flow in both 1982 and 1983; the stand will be resampled aga to identify current changes in structural characteristics.

The average monthly flows for pine compared to hardwoods on WS 1 for 1980- are shown in Figure 22.8. Significant reductions occur in every month. Large reductions of 2 to 3 cm occur in March, April, and May when flows are highest, and at a time before and during hardwood leafout when evaporative demands can high. In the low flow months of August, September, and October, reductions average about 1 cm or 40% below levels expected for hardwoods.

The conversion from hardwood to grass, followed by deadening with herbicides and then succession, also significantly altered annual streamflow (Figure 22.9). Merchantable timber was harvested and a seedbed was prepared for planting Kentucky 31 fescue grass. At the time of seeding, lime and fertilizer were applied. In the first year after conversion, grass production was very high, with 7.85 t ha⁻¹ of dry matter (3.5 ton acre⁻¹), and there was no significant change in streamflow. In the ensuing years, water yield increased and at the end of the fifth year was about 14 cm above the flow expected for the original hardwood forest. During the same period, grass production declined to 4.04 t ha⁻¹ (1.8 ton acre⁻¹). To further test th inverse relation between change in streamflow and grass productivity, the grass w: again fertilized in 1965; productivity increased to 7.85 t ha⁻¹ (3.5 ton acre⁻¹) and streamflow again dropped to the level expected for hardwoods. A more detailed analysis of the early phases of this experiment is described by Hibbert (1969). The results further demonstrate that both type and amount of vegetation have a major influence on *Et* and streamflow.

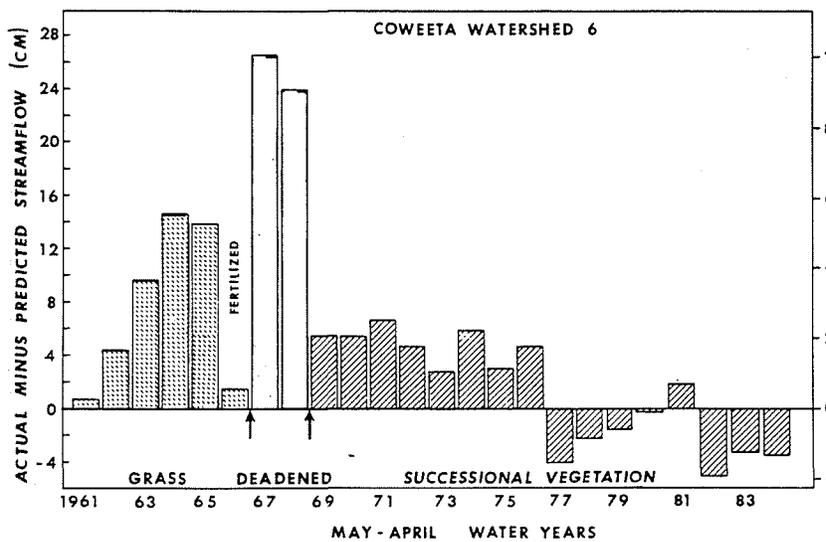


Figure 22.9. Annual changes in streamflow on Coweeta WS 6 during a 6 year period after conversion from hardwood to grass, followed by 2 years of herbicide applications to deaden the grass and the ensuing 16 years of succession.

In 1967 and 1968, the grass was herbicided and flow increased about 25 cm, a response similar to that expected from clearcutting (Figure 22.9). During the first 6 years of succession, the watershed was dominated by a thick, lush cover of herbaceous species, and streamflow increases rapidly declined to only about 6 cm above hardwood levels. This level of increase continued for the next 7 years and then returned to the level expected for hardwoods. Thus, the watershed returned to a mixture of young hardwoods dominated by black locust in association with blackberries, herbaceous species, and some grass, which is equivalent to a mature mixed hardwood forest.

Special Case Application

The hydrologic principles derived from Coweeta studies of water yield and timing have been utilized in a variety of ways by resource managers, administrators, and scientists. A simple example will serve to further illustrate how results can be utilized to evaluate alternative silvicultural prescriptions in the real world (Figure 22.10). In this illustration, we demonstrate the effects of hardwood even-aged management vs. white oak plantation management on long-term water yield. The prescription conditions were taken from current guidelines for the Nantahala National Forest management plan in North Carolina.

We begin by clearcutting a mature mixed hardwood forest with a solar insolation index of 0.27, mean annual precipitation of 180 cm, and a mean annual flow of 9

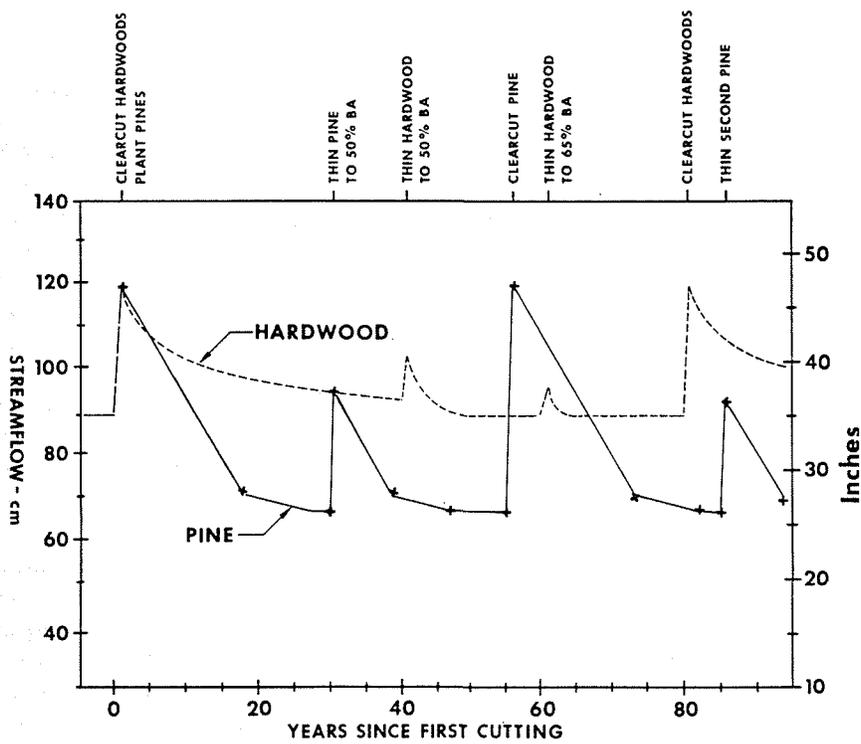


Figure 22.10. Estimates of long-term streamflow responses to hardwood even-aged management and white pine plantation management based on experimental results for Coweeta clim conditions.

In one case, hardwoods regenerated from sprouts and seeds, and in the other case white pine were planted. During the rotation, commercial thinning of hardwood applied at ages 40 and 60 years with removal of 50% and 35% of the basal area, respectively. The stand is then again clearcut at age 80 years. The prescription for pine commercial thinning at age 30 years with 50% of the basal area removed and a final harvest by clearcutting at age 55, and replanting with white pine followed again by thinning at age 30 (Figure 22.10). For the 80 year period depicted, the average annual streamflow under hardwood even-aged management is 95 cm, and for pine the average flow is 81 cm. The cumulative difference in flow between the two prescriptions is 1120 (441 inches). If we assume the treated watershed is 10 ha (25 acres), the total difference is $1.12 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$ (919 acre-feet) of water in 80 years.

This illustration shows that alternative silvicultural prescriptions can have a substantial and very real effect on water yield. Although a variety of prescription scenarios could be selected, the point is that functional relationships are available to make decisions about silviculture and water yield.

Conclusions

Long-term streamflow records for control and experimental forested watersheds in the Coweeta National Forest provide a solid foundation for evaluating hydrologic responses to vegetation management. Results from these experiments and those elsewhere in the Appalachian Highlands provide equations for predicting changes in annual water yield following cutting and regrowth of hardwood forests. Only two parameters, proportion of stand basal area cut and potential insolation of the watershed are needed to solve the equations. Increases are produced in most months, with about a 100% increase during the low flow months when water demands are usually high. The recovery of streamflow to preharvest levels associated with hardwood regrowth shows the interactions between E_t , stand dynamics, and watershed physical characteristics. Experiments indicate that commercial clearcutting, with carefully located and designed roads, produce small and acceptable (about 15%) increases in mean stormflow volumes and peak rates. Natural alteration of vegetation such as insect defoliation can also influence water yield by stimulating leaf production and increasing evapotranspiration, reducing winter streamflow by 7 to 18%.

Other long-term experiments show the striking dependence of streamflow volume on type of vegetative cover. Within 25 years, hardwood to white pine conversion reduces annual flow by 25 cm and produces significant reductions in every month of the year. The greater E_t for pine is due to a higher LAI for pine compared to hardwoods, hence greater interception and transpiration by pine. Hardwood to grass conversion alters streamflow depending upon grass productivity. There is no significant change in streamflow with a vigorous grass cover, but as grass productivity declines streamflow increases. Evapotranspiration from a luxuriant herbaceous cover is slightly lower in mature hardwoods, but later in succession with a mixture of hardwoods, grasses, and herbs, E_t is equivalent to hardwoods. In conclusion, forest managers should recognize that silvicultural prescriptions influence evapotranspiration, and hence streamflow, and that hydrologic changes are either a cost of doing business or an added benefit of management decisions.
