Funneled flow mechanisms in a sloping layered soil: Laboratory investigation

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Abstract. Artificial capillary barriers are being used to divert water away from sensitive underground regions. Conversely, funneled flow over natural capillary barriers may increase the danger of groundwater contamination by decreasing the travel time and contact area. There have been relatively few experimental studies of capillary barrier flow patterns. In this study, water was applied uniformly across the top surface of a backlit tilting chamber, 1 cm thick, 110 cm high, and 180 cm long, in which a coarse sand layer was imbedded in a fine sand. Bedding slope and water application rates were varied between 0° and 12° and 1 and 3 cm h⁻¹, respectively. After attaining steady state, matric potential was measured along the textural interface, and photos of dye traces were taken in order to visualize streamlines. The funneled flow was characterized by three discrete regions: an initial capillary diversion, a breakthrough region, and a toe diversion. The lateral distance of the capillary diversion was explained well by previously published relationships when the water entry value at the textural interface was replaced by lower, observed matric potential at which breakthrough occurred at the most upslope point. The length of the capillary diversion was overpredicted using the air entry value. Finally, the toe of the coarse layer had significant, observed effects on funneled flow patterns, which have previously received little, if any, attention. The results of this study imply that the slope of the coarse layer and infiltration rate will largely govern the effectiveness of capillary barriers and that capillary barriers are less effective than previously assumed.

1. Introduction

Preferential flow has been implicated in the increased rate of contaminant transport, particularly pesticides, to groundwater [Steenhuis and Parlange, 1991; Flury, 1996]. Preferential flow is defined as the uneven movement of water and solutes through porous media, typically soil, characterized by regions of enhanced flux such that a small fraction of the media participates in most of the flow. There are a number of preferential flow mechanisms: (1) physical conduits such as macropores, structural cracks, and biopores that provide preferential paths through which water may be rapidly transmitted [Bouma, 1981; Beven, 1981; Beven and Germann, 1982]; (2) finger phenomena, in either layered [Hill and Parlange, 1972] or nonlayered soils [Tamai et al., 1987; Selker et al., 1992], that arises from wetting-front instability [Parlange and Hill, 1976; Hillel, 1987; Glass et al., 1989]; and (3) lateral flow, in which the flow of water and solutes is concentrated and moves laterally along an inclined soil-layer interface. Theoretical understanding and subsequent mathematical descriptions of the pertinent hydraulic mechanisms are critical to anticipating and preventing groundwater pollution. This study investigates preferential flow due to lateral flow.

There are two primary mechanical categories of lateral flow. The most familiar category is typically referred to as saturated interflow [Betson et al., 1968], subsurface storm flow [Hurst, 1936], or throughflow [Kirby and Chorley, 1967] and may occur where an upper soil region is underlain by a hydraulically restrictive layer such as bedrock or a fragipan [Hewlett and Hibbert, 1963; Whipkey, 1965; Dunne and Black, 1970; Pilgram et al., 1978; Stagnitti et al., 1986]. Because of the low permeability of the underlying layer, water moving vertically through a soil profile is partially impeded at the interface causing water to accumulate above the restrictive layer and to flow laterally across it (downslope). The second major category, first shown by Gardner [1960], is commonly now referred to as funneled flow [Kang, 1990]. Funneled flow is an unique category of flow phenomena referring to the situation in which a capillary barrier develops above a coarse layer which underlies a relatively fine soil [Miyazaki, 1988; Kang, 1990; Steenhuis et al., 1990]. At low flows, when the matric potential at the textural interface is so low that water cannot enter into the coarse, underlying soil, the capillary barrier effectively restricts vertical water flux, forcing the water to move laterally along the bedding interface. Capillary barriers have received increased attention as an application for isolating buried wastes from hydrologic fluxes
Unsaturated, Fine Soil Layer

Capillary Fringe

Unsaturated, Coarse Soil Layer

Figure 1. Schematic of the funneled flow system divided vertically into three regions and a graphical representation of deflection of streamlines as they pass the boundaries between regions. Here $\phi_k$ is the slope of the coarse layer.

[Morris and Stormont, 1997; Selker, 1997]. Zaslavsky and Sinai [1981], Mualem [1984], and Yeh et al. [1985] studied lateral flow caused by several layers of fine and coarse soil.

We will focus in this study on the flow over and through capillary barriers. Three regions are distinguished (Figure 1): an upper unsaturated, fine soil layer region; a lower unsaturated, coarse soil region; and, between these two, a tension-saturated fine layer or capillary fringe. The capillary fringe is wettest near the coarse-fine interface and is drier near the upper edge of the fringe. Because of textural differences between the layers, there can be a sharp boundary between soil moisture contents; that is, though the matric potential is continuous across the soil layer interface, differences in pore size distributions between the layers result in discrete differences in moisture content.

It is commonly assumed that the "water entry" suction value [Hillel and Gardner, 1970; Hillel and Baker, 1988] of the underlying coarse layer is a critical parameter for describing and/or predicting flow through textural interfaces. The water entry value, generally considered a property of the underlying soil, was measured by both Hillel and Gardner [1970] and Hillel and Baker [1988] for horizontal layering as the potential at the interface after the water started to flow across the interface. It will be referred to as the effective interface water entry matric potential.

At the textural interface both the quantity of flow and matric potential increase downslope. Once the potential increases to a high enough value, water will start moving downward into the coarse layer. The vertical movement of water into the coarse layer is referred to as breakthrough. Ross [1990] calculated for steady state conditions the distance to where there is no net downslope lateral flow beyond the point of breakthrough; Pan et al. [1997] simulated transient flow through sloping layers and found that the flow of water is directed partially upslope during heavy rains. Modeling studies by Oldenberg and Pruess [1993] and Webb [1997] suggested a partial breakthrough region along the fine-coarse interface in which, at steady state, the vertical flux is less than the water application rate. There is disagreement in these modeling studies about how the flow changes in the partial breakthrough region.

There have been few detailed laboratory studies where the flow through and along the interface have been measured. The objective of this paper is to give better information on the flow through and along the capillary barriers under well-controlled conditions. Specifically, this study (1) qualitatively characterizes the funnel flow regimes along a fine over coarse layer interface of finite length under constant rainfall intensity; (2) describes, explains, and quantifies the effects of the rainfall rate and slope on these regimes; and (3) defines measured parameters for quantifying funnel flow and breakthrough.

### 2. Materials and Methods

Figure 2 is a schematic of the experimental setup. Experiments were performed in a glass chamber 180 cm long, 110 cm high, and 1 cm thick, backlit with high-intensity fluorescent light to help visualize the streamlines and the distribution of moisture content [Glass et al., 1989]. The chamber was filled with fine sand embedded with a 15 cm thick, 160 cm long layer of coarse sand. Relevant properties of the fine and coarse sand are shown in Table 1. Figure 3 shows the characteristic matric potential versus soil moisture relationships for the two sands. Spatially uniform rainfall was applied over the top of the chamber using a single, chain-driven, oscillating dropper. The slope

**Table 1. Physical Properties of the Soils Used in the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Weight of Particle Size Classes,* %</th>
<th>Bulk Density, g cm⁻³</th>
<th>Saturated Hydraulic Conductivity, cm d⁻¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.25</td>
<td>0.25–0.425</td>
<td>0.425–0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coarse</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Particle diameters are in millimeters.
(\(\phi_h\)) was changed between experiments by tilting the chamber on a centered fulcrum (Figure 2). The matric potential along the interface was measured with nine tensiometers placed at 19 cm increments (Figure 2); one tensiometer is located 3 cm from beyond the end of the toe of the coarse layer. Between experimental runs the chamber was drained until there was no water flowing out of the bottom of the chamber. The drainage period lasted from 24 to 72 hours.

Combinations of four slopes and three rainfall rates provided nine experimental runs (Table 2). Each experimental run was initiated with uniform rainfall until steady state flow was achieved and the flow lines did not change anymore. This typically took about 48 hours for a 120 mm d\(^{-1}\) rainfall rate, 24 hours for rainfall rate of 280 mm d\(^{-1}\), and about 12 hours for rainfall rate of 680 mm d\(^{-1}\).

Once steady state was achieved, the tensiometers were read, and a sequence of three colors (red, yellow, and green) were simultaneously dripped at a slow rate at the surface at 20 cm intervals; each color was applied twice so a total of 120 cm of the soil surface received dye (Figure 2). With the aid of the backlighting and the dye traces it was simple to visualize the dyed streamlines and measure the different zones.

### Table 2. The Observed Characteristic Lengths and the Characteristic Parameters of the Funnel and the Breakthrough Flows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Run</th>
<th>Slope, deg</th>
<th>Flow Rate, mm d(^{-1})</th>
<th>Toe Diversion</th>
<th>Breakthrough Region</th>
<th>Capillary Diversion</th>
<th>Observed (\psi_h), cm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>-9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>-9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>NB</td>
<td>NB</td>
<td>NB</td>
<td>NB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>-9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>no data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB indicates no breakthrough; NA indicates not applicable.

### 3. Results

Plate 1 shows photographs of the dyed streamlines from representative experimental runs. The coarse layer appears white in the photographs. Plate 1 shows the coarse layer sloping downhill from right to left, except of course for the three horizontal cases. For all the sloped experimental runs the dye traces were obviously diverted downslope (referred to as capillary diversion) and, in most cases, penetrated the coarse layer at some point (breakthrough). Only for the run sloped at 7.1\(^{\circ}\) with a flow rate of 120 mm d\(^{-1}\), a breakthrough zone did not develop (Plate 1). In most of the experiments a clear lateral flow region without water flowing through the coarse layer formed near the toe of the coarse layer; this will be referred to as the toe diversion in the subsequent discussion.

Table 2 shows the lengths of the three observed flow regimes for all the experiments, namely, the capillary diversion length occurring upslope on the fine-coarse interface, the breakthrough region length, and the toe diversion which occurs downslope on the fine-coarse interface. The length of capillary diversion was measured from the inflection point of the dye trace closest to the upslope end of the chamber to the point where the dye first penetrates into the coarse layer. This length is approximately the same as from the top of the layer to the beginning of the breakthrough region taking into account the "rain shadow" at the uppermost end. The breakthrough region was measured as the total length along the interface through which breakthrough was observed. Toe diversion was measured as the distance between the downslope end of the breakthrough region and the toe of the coarse layer. Because the location of the inflection point, near the fine-coarse interface, of the most uphill dye trace was shifted from experiment to experiment, the total length of the three zones varied.

A streamline analysis was also performed to better quantify the degree of breakthrough along the interface. The distances between the vertical streamlines in the fine soil \(L_f\) and between the breakthrough streamlines in the coarse layer \(L_c\) were mea-
sured, as shown in Figure 4. Using continuity and basic flow net
theory, the ratio of the average leakage penetrating into the
coarse layer $p$ to the rainfall or infiltration rate $i$ can be implied
by the ratio of lengths between vertical streamlines in the fine
and coarse layers:

$$\frac{p}{i} = \frac{L_c}{L_l} \quad (1)$$

where $p$ is the average flux penetrating the coarse layer be-
tween the dyed streamlines, $L_c$ is the distance between stream-
lines in the fine layer, and $L_f$ is the distance between stream-
lines penetrating the coarse layer (Figure 4). When $p/i = 1.0,$
the average leakage, or breakthrough flow, is equal to the
rainfall rate; this is referred to as complete breakthrough.

Figure 5 shows the $p/i$ ratio along the slope for the three
experiments for which enough streamline data could be ob-
tained for this analysis. Each $p/i$ ratio is plotted at the midpoint
between the two breakthrough streamlines. As can be seen in
Figure 5a, there were insufficient data to calculate $p/i$ for some

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flow Slope</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.7°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0°</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slope 120 mm day$^{-1}$</th>
<th>280 mm day$^{-1}$</th>
<th>680 mm day$^{-1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.7°</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1°</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5°</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0°</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plate 1. Photographs of experimental runs with dye tracers.
runs; in one run, there was no breakthrough flow, and in others there was only one or part of one streamline in the breakthrough. According to these results, of the three analyzed sloped experiments only the 7.1°, 680 mm d⁻¹ run reached complete breakthrough; the others apparently attained only partial breakthrough; that is, the magnitude to the breakthrough flow was less than the water application rate. For the 0° slope the ratio of flow through the layer was approximately 1 (Figure 5b). The average integral of \( p/i \) across the breakthrough regions of the horizontal experiments was 0.99, which is very close to 1.00, indicating full breakthrough in the entire breakthrough layer.

The measured matric potential along the fine-coarse interface for the 11.7° sloped, 7.1° sloped, and horizontal (0°) experiments as well as the breakthrough regions in each run (patterned areas) are shown in Figure 6. The right-hand sides of the graphs in Figure 6 correspond to the upslope end of the chamber which matches the photographs in Plate 1. The position of the coarse layer toe is indicated by the vertical, dashed lines in Figure 6. The patterned areas in Figure 6 show the extent of the breakthrough for each infiltration rate; the lightest area corresponds to the 680 mm d⁻¹ experiments, the intermediate area corresponds with the 280 mm d⁻¹, and the most dense pattern corresponds with the 120 mm d⁻¹. In all cases, as expected, the highest curve (least negative matric potential) corresponds to the highest flow rate, and the lowest curve corresponds to the lowest flow rate. Also, as expected, matric potential increases in the downslope direction as diverted water induces moisture accumulation (Figure 6).

In the experiment with the 0° slope, there are very small differences in the matric potential along the fine-coarse interface in the breakthrough zone (Figure 6), indicating that there is very little sideways flow, and thus full breakthrough is expected. This conclusion is corroborated by the streamline analysis presented before, adding credence to our experimental and streamline analysis methods.

The matric potentials in the breakthrough zone at which full breakthrough occurs (i.e., breakthrough capacity equals the infiltration capacity of the overlying sand) are nearly constant for each flow rate: \( \phi_e \) equals -7.7 cm for 680 mm d⁻¹; -8.7 cm for 280 mm d⁻¹; -9.5 cm for 120 mm d⁻¹. We refer to these potentials as "the effective interface water entry values" because the flow conditions at full breakthrough are similar to those occurring in column studies by Hillel and Gardner [1970].

The matric potential data in the breakthrough region for the sloped experiments suggest the presence of a partial breakthrough. In the sloped experiments, breakthrough occurs at matric potentials less than \( \phi_e \) (Figure 6); for example, for the
680 mm d⁻¹, horizontal experiment, ψₑ is about ~7.7 cm, yet in the sloped experiments with the same water application rate, breakthrough occurs at a lower matric potential, approximately ~9.5 cm. This value varied slightly from experiment to experiment (Table 2) but was generally about ~9.5 cm (standard deviation of 0.3 cm) and is shown by the horizontal dashed lines in Figure 6. This value will be referred to as the initial interface water entry matric potential ψᵢ, at which the narrowest pores at the interface form a continuous network. Under low flow conditions the effective and initial interface water entry matric potential are equal, and the original definition of Hillel and Gardner [1970] is valid for ψᵢ.

Though the matric potential data for the sloped experiments suggest complete breakthrough for several of the runs (Figure 6), regions of constant matric potential are only observed among two or three tensiometers. A longer chamber would have allowed better verification if the matric potential contours are parallel within the complete breakthrough regions. The observation of breakthrough at matric potentials lower than ψₑ corroborates the existence of a partial breakthrough zone identified in the streamline analysis (Figure 5). Figure 6 shows that the matric potential drops near the downslope edge of the breakthrough region, which suggests that there is a partial breakthrough region on both sides of the complete breakthrough region. Though there were not enough measurements to precisely define the pressure distribution near the toe of the coarse layer, in most experiments a linear interpolation between tensiometers spanning the downslope edge of the breakthrough layer suggests that ψₑ may be the point for which breakthrough ceases (Figure 6).

4. Discussion

The experiments show three funneled flow regimes: capillary diversion, breakthrough, and toe diversion. Figure 7 is a schematic, based on the results of this study, which summarizes the theoretical partition of flow along an inclined coarse layer of finite length embedded in a fine soil. Table 3 summarizes the important characteristics for each of these funneled flow regimes. Depending upon the conditions, this three-regime description can develop fully or partially. Kung's [1990] original "funnel flow" was actually the case where a breakthrough zone does not develop. Each of the three flow regimes will now be discussed separately, starting at the upslope end.
4.1. Capillary Diversion

The results in Table 2 show that the length of capillary diversion is inversely proportional to the rainfall rate and directly proportional to the inclination of the coarse layer; that is, a high infiltration rate results in a relatively rapid accumulation of water along the fine-coarse interface and therefore a relatively steep increase in matric pressure [Warrick et al., 1997]. A rapid increase in matric pressure translates into a short distance along the interface before the matric potential reaches the initial water entry suction. Steenhuis et al. [1991] extended work by Ross [1990] which mathematically describes the maximum length of the capillary diversion \( L_{\text{cap}} \) based on the above principles and an exponential conductivity function:

\[
L_{\text{cap}} \approx \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{K_h}{h_a} \right) + \frac{K_h}{h_a} (h_a - \psi_w^*)
\]

(2)

where \( h_a \) is the effective air entry value for the fine soil; \( \psi_w^* \) is the water entry value for the soil water characteristic function of the coarse layer, and \( \alpha \) is the coefficient in the conductivity function of the form \( K = K_h \exp(-\alpha \psi) \) for \( \psi < \psi_w^* \) and \( K = K_h \) for \( \psi = \psi_w^* \). As shown in Figure 3, \( h_a \) is between -9 and -10 cm and \( \psi_w^* = -5 \) cm. The value for \( \alpha \) is 0.58 cm\(^{-1}\). Using these values, (2) predicts capillary diversion lengths which are 3 to 4 times greater than those observed in these experiments. In the derivation of (2) it was assumed that the soil was very dry and that water would enter at the water entry value obtained from the wetting branch of the water characteristic curve of the coarse soil. In our experiment the water entered at an initial interface water entry matric potential \( \psi_i = -9.5 \) cm (<0.3 cm), which is obviously different than the value derived from the wetting curve of the coarse soil. It is likely that these laboratory experiments represent field conditions more realistically than the "very dry" scenario assumed for (2). Even when the coarse layer is very dry, vapor diffusion will eventually "wet up" the coarse layer when the fine layer is wet as shown. DiCarlo et al. [1999] found for a similar sharp boundary in fingered flow that vapor would move across the boundary wetting up the dry soil. Thus the assumption that the coarse soil stays dry might not be reasonable. Using the initial interface water entry matric potential \( \psi_i = -9.5 \) cm, instead of \( \psi_w^* \), capillary lengths predicted with (2) fit the observed lengths with \( R^2 = 0.98 \) and a standard error of 10% (Figure 8). The points lying below the 1:1 line are very close to the line and can be reasonably explained by experimental error. The experimental run with a slope of 7.1° and water application rate of 120 mm d\(^{-1}\) (Table 2) did not have breakthrough, meaning that the capillary diversion was greater than 140 cm. Equation (1) underpredicts the capillary diversion (125 cm), because the toe of the coarse layer began to affect the flow before breakthrough commenced.

**Table 3. Characterization of the Funneled Flow Zones Along the Inclined Fine-Coarse Interface**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location*</th>
<th>Flow Regime</th>
<th>Matric Potential ( \psi )</th>
<th>Downslope Lateral Flow</th>
<th>Leakage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( 0 &lt; x &lt; x_i )</td>
<td>capillary diversion</td>
<td>( \psi &lt; \psi_i )</td>
<td>increasing</td>
<td>no breakthrough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x_i \leq x &lt; x_e )</td>
<td>breakthrough region (partial, upslope)</td>
<td>( \psi_i \leq \psi &lt; \psi_w^* )</td>
<td>decreasing</td>
<td>increasing downslope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x_e \leq x &lt; x_o )</td>
<td>breakthrough region</td>
<td>( \psi = \psi_w^* )</td>
<td>no flow</td>
<td>constant, complete breakthrough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x_o &lt; x &lt; L )</td>
<td>toe diversion</td>
<td>( \psi &lt; \psi_w^* )</td>
<td>increasing</td>
<td>decreasing downslope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*See Figure 7 for graphical details.
The relative similarity of toe diversion was enhanced (55 cm) and (2) steep slope (11.7°) and high rainfall rate (680 mm d⁻¹) in which there was no clearly defined toe diversion. The relative similarity of toe diversion length suggests that matric potential gradients immediately below the toe may be more significant to the toe diversion mechanism than slope or water application rate. In Figure 6 the drop in potential near the toe is relatively constant, corroborating the similarity in toe lengths. The relatively long toe diversion in the horizontal, 120 mm d⁻¹ run may be better described by studying the temporal development of funneled flow; this type of investigation was outside the focus of this study.

5. Conclusions

This study demonstrated funneled flow and breakthrough flow under laboratory conditions. The results agreed well with the theory and provided some new insights into the mechanisms involved. Three zones were experimentally observed and theoretically identified: capillary diversion, breakthrough, and toe diversion.

Of particular interest is the experimental observation of an initial interface water entry matric potential \( \psi _i \), which differs conceptually from other studies. This value appears to influence location of the upslope boundary of the breakthrough region as well as, though not as confidently, the downslope boundary. This is particularly important if previously derived relationships [e.g., Ross, 1990; Steenhuis et al., 1991] are to be used to predict the magnitude of a capillary diversion. Parameterizing such relationships with water entry values obtained from soil characteristic curves may lead to gross overpredictions in the length of capillary diversion. Unlike the effective interface water entry suction \( \psi _e \), the initial water entry suction \( \psi _i \) appears to be independent of the flow regime and is likely equal to the matric potential at which the smallest pores in the two media form a continuous path.

Inasmuch as the type strata described in this study occurs in nature, understanding the mechanisms controlling flow around it will be invaluable to practical applications involving pollutant transport, groundwater recharge, and perhaps subsurface storm flow. It may also help in the design of waste disposal facilities.

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References


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