



1 **Comparison of Generalized Non-Data-Driven Reservoir Routing**  
2 **Models for Global-Scale Hydrologic Modeling**

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10 Abstract: Large-scale hydrologic simulations should account for attenuation through lakes  
11 and reservoirs when flow regulation is present. Generalized methods for approximating  
12 outflow are required since reservoir operation is complex and specific real-time release  
13 information is typically unavailable at global scales. There is currently no consensus on the  
14 best approach for approximating reservoir release rates in large spatial scale hydrologic  
15 forecasting. This research compares two parsimonious reservoir routing methods  
16 previously implemented in large-scale hydrologic modeling applications, requiring  
17 minimal data so as not to limit their usage. The methods considered are those proposed by  
18 Döll et al. (2003) and Hanasaki et al. (2006). This paper compares the two methodologies  
19 across 60 reservoirs operated from 2006-2012 by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. The  
20 authors vary empirical coefficients for both reservoir routing methods as part of a  
21 sensitivity analysis. The Döll method generally outperformed the Hanasaki method at a  
22 daily time step, improving model skill in most cases beyond run-of-the-river conditions.  
23 The temporal resolution of the model influences performance. The optimal model  
24 coefficients varied across the reservoirs in this study and model performance fluctuates  
25 between wet years and dry years, and for different configurations such as dams in series.  
26 Overall, the Döll and Hanasaki Methods could enhance large scale hydrologic forecasting,  
27 but can be subject to instability under certain conditions.



28

## 1. Introduction

### 29 1.1. Importance of Dams in Hydrologic Simulations

30 Improvements in numerical weather prediction, the increasing abundance of  
31 computational power, and greater precision of remotely sensed observations make global  
32 hydrologic forecasting and flood warning systems increasingly feasible (Alfieri et al.,  
33 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Emerton et al., 2016; Salas et al., 2017). Lack of information  
34 concerning anthropogenic influences on runoff is a major deficiency of large-scale flood  
35 forecasting systems (Emerton et al., 2016). Reservoir operations tend to distort natural flow  
36 patterns, effectively redistributing surface water spatially and temporally (Zhou et al.,  
37 2016). Impoundments significantly influence the downstream flow regime at small and  
38 large spatial scales (Batalla et al., 2004; Magilligan and Nislow, 2005). Over half of the  
39 world's large river systems are now substantially altered by dams (Nilsson et al., 2005)  
40 resulting in a seven-fold increase in water storage within the global river system  
41 (Vörösmarty et al. 1997). Furthermore, the cumulative alterations from global reservoir  
42 impoundments are so significant that it has been suggested that they could buffer global  
43 sea-level rise (Chao et al., 2008).

44 Dams primarily impact the hydrologic cycle by changing the magnitude and timing  
45 of the discharges downstream (Haddeland et al., 2006; Döll et al., 2009; Biemans et al.,  
46 2011; Wu et al., 2014; Zajac et al., 2017), often with the specific intent to mitigate  
47 hydrologic extremes (i.e., floods and droughts) (Zajac et al., 2017). Dams reduce peak  
48 discharges by roughly a third on average while dampening the daily variation by a similar  
49 amount (Graf, 2006). In hydrologic forecasting, accuracy of the timing and magnitude of  
50 hydrologic extremes is fundamentally important to the usefulness of the forecasts.



51 Therefore, the significant impacts from dams make inclusion of reservoir operations, or  
52 reservoir routing, critical.

53 At continental scales, no current forecasting operations systematically account for  
54 dam and reservoir influences (Emerton et al., 2016). Integrating dam operations within  
55 large-scale hydrologic models is shown to improve model performance downstream of  
56 reservoir locations (Snow et al., 2016; Tavakoly et al., 2017; Salas et al., 2017; Zajac et al.,  
57 2017). This is often not feasible at large-scales since there may be multiple entities  
58 responsible for regulating flow, particularly with respect to transboundary waters. Among  
59 other things, operational knowledge, site-specific rule curves, reservoir uses, and local  
60 decision-making practices at each individual project dictate dam releases. Thus, dam  
61 operations are typically non-linear, complex processes, driven by anthropogenic and  
62 environmental influences. This makes generalizing reservoir operations difficult,  
63 particularly in the context of predicting dam-induced hydrologic responses. Heuristically  
64 accounting for dams within existing routing schemes should improve forecast results when  
65 scheduled releases are not readily known.

66 Reservoir routing methodologies are generally divided into the two basic  
67 categories: data-driven and non-data-driven. Machine-learning, artificial intelligence  
68 (Coerver et al., 2017; Macian-Sorribes and Pulido-Velazquez, 2017; Ehsani et al., 2016;  
69 Mohan and Ramsundram, 2016; Ticlavilca and McKee, 2011; Chaves and Chang, 2008;  
70 Khalil et al., 2005), and remote sensing (Bonnema et al., 2016; Yoon and Beighley, 2015)  
71 are examples of data-driven approaches. Such data-driven methodologies can be  
72 effectively applied to dynamic non-linear systems, particularly when the governing  
73 influence on the system does not follow any particular deterministic model. These types of



74 approaches require training data or specific knowledge of a particular reservoir to  
75 effectively parameterize and apply them. This is often an insurmountable limitation for  
76 data-driven approaches. For that reason, the focus of this paper is on non-data-driven  
77 reservoir routing methodologies as an incremental improvement over schemes that  
78 effectively neglect dams when information is scarce.

## 79 1.2. Non-Data-Driven Reservoir Storage and Outflow Simulation

80 Non-data-driven approaches to reservoir routing rely on conceptualizing reservoir  
81 responses without explicitly observing the actual reservoir operations. The optimal method  
82 for a given application depends on a balance between complexity and available information  
83 (De Vos, 2015). Therefore, this manuscript focuses on selecting for parsimony.

84 Existing non-data-driven reservoir models range from simple approaches to  
85 sophisticated methods. Solander et al. (2016) showed that temperature-based schema best  
86 fits the modeling of discharge,  $Q_{out,t}$ . The Solander et al. (2016) rule is driven by  
87 temperature shifts at each model time step above and below the mean temperature. The  
88 Solander et al. (2016) method indicates that temperature is the main proxy governing  
89 reservoir release, due to the assumption that seasonality drives agricultural production and  
90 reservoir operation. However, the Solander et al. (2016) study focuses on long-term  
91 climatic forecasting. Diurnal temperature variations will not likely describe day-to-day  
92 reservoir operations. Zhao et al., (2016) developed a reservoir routing scheme based on  
93 reservoir stage and storage rules. However, real-time insights related to current reservoir  
94 stages throughout a region can involve considerable remotely sensed information. The  
95 stage information must then be related somehow to storage volume making this a much  
96 more a data-driven process. Burek et al. (2013) also developed a non-data-driven approach



97 to reservoir routing which was implemented by Zajac et al. (2017). This approach is built  
98 into the LISFLOOD model. The Burek et al. (2013) model requires a number of  
99 assumptions about storage capacity limits and naturalized streamflow thresholds. For  
100 example, the minimum, normal, and maximum storage are assumed to be 0.1, 0.3, and  
101 0.97, respectively. To maintain the objective of investigating parsimonious models, the  
102 approach by Burek et al. (2013) was not included in this evaluation. Döll et al. (2003) and  
103 Wisser et al. (2010) were presented non-data-driven methods to simulate reservoirs  
104 operation that can be considered as simple approaches.

105 The Wisser et al. (2010) method follows a simple, rule-based approach to define  
106 the reservoir outflow at each time step ( $Q_{out,t}$ ). The rule that Wisser et al. (2010) enact is  
107 that when the inflow at each model time step moves above and below long-term average  
108 inflow, the behavior of the reservoir release changes. De Vos (2015) suggested that this  
109 model is too simple to effectively model reservoir outflow. Döll et al. (2003) derived a  
110 natural lake reservoir routing scheme. Hence, this methodology is applicable to man-made  
111 reservoirs and natural water bodies. The Döll et al. (2003) methodology found genesis in  
112 the reservoir outflow model proposed by Meigh et al. (1999). Meigh et al. (1999) proposed  
113 a simple reservoir release methodology, which intended to mimic outflow at reservoirs  
114 from a theoretical rectangular weir. A more substantive version of the Meigh et al. (1999)  
115 method is formulated by Döll et al. (2003). Despite its simplicity, the Döll method  
116 demonstrated good performance compared to several other methods previously mentioned  
117 (De Vos, 2015). Compared to the aforementioned methods, Hanasaki et al. (2006) derived  
118 a demand driven approach to reservoir routing, which can be considered as complicated  
119 non-data-driven reservoir routing model. They distinguished between irrigation and non-



120 irrigation reservoirs and offered two distinct algorithms for each. Water demands for  
121 irrigation, domestic, and industrial uses are considered in the irrigation reservoirs, whereas  
122 the releases from non-irrigation reservoirs are simply a ratio of inflow.

123 De Vos (2015) also proposed a within-year/over-year reservoir routing method,  
124 which they considered a non-data-driven approach. Within-year reservoir operations are  
125 driven by yearly fill and release cycles and typically have a small storage capacity relative  
126 to their total annual demand. Thus, water accumulates during wet periods and decreases  
127 during dry periods. Over-year reservoir operation, on the other hand, is based on long-term,  
128 multi-year drawdowns. Over-year reservoirs have storage which is sufficiently large,  
129 relative to inflow, so that yearly cycles of water storage and release are not necessary  
130 (Adeloye and Montaseri, 2000; Vogel et al., 1999). De Vos (2015) compared his  
131 methodology to the Hanasaki et al (2006), Döll et al. (2003), and Neitsch et al. (2011). The  
132 De Vos (2015) over-year simulation assumes knowledge of the mean and standard  
133 deviation of reservoir storage and is still too data-driven for the purposes of this study.

134 The non-data driven reservoir routing methods developed by Döll et al. (2003) and  
135 Hanasaki et al. (2006), which will be referred to as Döll and Hanasaki methods, were  
136 considered in this research for several reasons. Both models require minimal input data to  
137 implement. They consider only reservoir inflow and storage volume, i.e. current, minimum,  
138 and maximum storage volume that can be estimated when detailed reservoir information is  
139 not available. Additionally, both models have been implemented in large-scale hydrologic  
140 models. The Döll method was used in the WaterGAP model and the application of the  
141 Hanasaki method was implemented in the TRIP model by the same authors.



142           The aim of this study is to assess non-data-driven reservoir routing methods for use  
143 in hydrologic forecasting schemes applicable across the global domain. The Döll and  
144 Hanasaki methods were found to be sufficiently parsimonious for wide-scale  
145 implementation. The following research questions are addressed with respect to the two  
146 approaches: (1) How well do the chosen reservoir routing models improve outflow  
147 estimates relative to simulation of naturalized flow (i.e. neglecting dams altogether)? (2)  
148 How do reservoir routing coefficients affect model performance? (3) How does the time  
149 step affect model performance and stability? This is a critical point for the current regional-  
150 to continental-scale forecasting schemes that operate at daily, or sub-daily, time steps. (4)  
151 How sensitive are the reservoir routing schemes to various real-world dam operations and  
152 climate variability?

153           To achieve research objectives of the study, reservoir data including daily inflow  
154 and outflow from 2006-2012, for 60 USACE reservoirs were used to evaluate the reservoir  
155 routing schemes. The data were obtained from nine USACE districts: Pittsburg, Nashville,  
156 St. Paul, Rock Island, Omaha, Tulsa, Sacramento, Los Angeles, and Vicksburg. The  
157 selected dams are representative of a wide range of reservoir sizes, flow regimes, and  
158 climatologic settings. The results of this analysis will benefit readers in determining if the  
159 reservoir routing models implemented within existing large-scale hydrologic models  
160 adequately represent reservoir effects.



## 161 2. Methodology

### 162 2.1. Simulation Specifications

163 The storage ratio (Vogel et al., 1999) or Impoundment Ratio (impoundment ratio)  
164 is an important metric in previous work generalizing reservoir operation by De Vos (2015)  
165 and Hanasaki et al., (2006). The impoundment ratio is described as follows:

$$166 \quad 167 \quad IR = \frac{(S_{max} - S_{min})}{Q_{in} * 86400 * 365} \quad (1)$$

168 where  $S_{max}$  and  $S_{min}$  are the maximum and minimum volumes of the reservoir's active  
169 storage, and  $Q_{in}$  is the mean annual inflow to the reservoir.

171 A higher impoundment ratio indicates that the capacity of the reservoir is large  
172 relative to mean inflows, while the opposite is true of low IR values. De Vos (2015)  
173 considered IR values greater than unity "large" reservoirs, as they are capable of storing  
174 the average yearly volume of water flowing into them. To utilize the Hanasaki method, the  
175 release coefficient ( $k_r$ ) needs to be determined.

$$176 \quad 177 \quad k_r = \frac{S_{begin}}{\alpha S_{max}} \quad (2)$$

178 where  $S_{begin}$  is the storage at the beginning of the each year and  $\alpha$  is a dimensionless  
179 coefficient, which was set to 0.85 in the Hanasaki et al. (2006) study. In the current study,  
180 the  $\alpha$  parameter was varied from 0.45-0.95 by increments of 0.10 and solve  $k_r$  for each  $\alpha$   
181 value.

182 Outflow is the quantity of most interest for hydrologic forecasting. The Hanasaki  
183 Method relates outflow based on the incoming flow. In this study, only the non-irrigation  
184 methodology from the Hanasaki Method was used to simulate reservoir outflow at each  
185 time step ( $Q_{out,t}$ ) since one cannot assume seasonal irrigation demands will be known



186 globally. Further, the primary of selected reservoirs is not irrigation. Hanasaki estimates  
187 outflow as follows:

188

$$189 \quad Q_{out,t} = \begin{cases} k_r Q_{in,t} & (IR = 0.5) \\ \left(\frac{IR}{0.5}\right)^2 Q_{in,t} + Q_{in,t} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{IR}{0.5}\right)^2\right\} & (0 < IR < 0.5) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

190

191 where  $Q_{in,t}$  is the inflow at time  $t$  and  $k_r$  is the release coefficient which is calculated based  
192 on Equation 2. The 0.5 threshold value for IR is an empirical condition derived by Hanasaki  
193 et al. (2006).

194 Unlike Hanasaki method, the Döll method relates outflow ( $Q_{out,t}$ ) to current  
195 available storage capacity of the reservoir:

196

$$197 \quad Q_{out,t} = \frac{k_{rd}}{\Delta t} (S_t - S_{min}) \frac{(S_t - S_{min})^{1.5}}{(S_{max} - S_{min})} \quad (4)$$

198

198 Where Döll empirically derives the release coefficient,  $k_{rd} = 0.01$ ,  $\Delta t$  is the simulation  
199 time step (s), and  $S_t$  is the current volume of storage at time “ $t$ ”. For analysis of the Döll  
200 methodology,  $k_{rd}$  was varied at values of 0.01, 0.02, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10, 0.20, 0.40,  
201 0.50, 0.60, 0.70, 0.80, and 0.90 in this study. The results for the sensitivity analysis are  
202 discussed in the section 3.3.

203 The sensitivity analysis can provide useful information on how coefficients may  
204 vary based on geographical and reservoir characteristics such as the impoundment ratio.  
205 The two methods were evaluated and results compared to actual outflow records provided  
206 by the USACE Districts. Two approaches were used to evaluate model performances:  
207 hydrograph assessment of daily and monthly reservoir outflow and statistical evaluation.  
208 the statistical evaluation was performed for daily and monthly averaged simulated results  
209 vs. observations using the Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE, Gupta et al., 2009), coefficient of



210 determination (R-Squared), and root mean square error (RMSE). The KGE value ranges  
211 from negative infinity to one. Four levels of performance were defined for KGE in this  
212 study (Tavakoly et al., 2017): poor performance ( $KGE < 0$ ), acceptable ( $0 < KGE < 0.4$ ),  
213 good ( $0.4 < KGE < 0.7$ ), and very good ( $0.7 < KGE$ ). Goodness-of-fit values were  
214 evaluated to compare simulated discharge to the actual outflow records provided by the  
215 USACE Districts. These are indicators of how well the models perform. The same  
216 goodness-of-fit values are calculated to compare actual discharge with observed inflow to  
217 assess baseline performance. The baseline condition represents the treatment of reservoir  
218 outflow as naturalized, altogether neglecting reservoir operations. Thus, the baseline  
219 condition is that inflow into the reservoir equals outflow from the reservoir. To be viable,  
220 the reservoir routing scheme should improve results over the baseline condition in virtually  
221 all cases.

## 222 2.2. Study Area

223 The model tests and evaluation were conducted on 60 reservoirs in the United States  
224 maintained by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE). Figure 1 illustrates reservoirs  
225 used in this study. The primary purpose of 43 of the reservoirs are flood control, six are  
226 hydroelectric, four are recreation, three are water supply, two are classified as other, one is  
227 irrigation, and one is a fish and wildlife pond. Table 1 describes pertinent characteristics  
228 of each reservoir in this analysis.

229

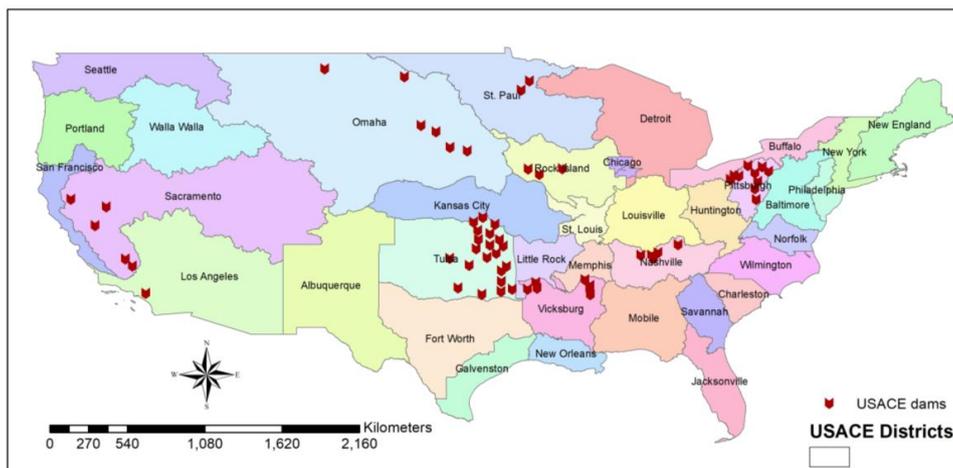
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233



234 Figure 1. USACE districts and location of reservoirs in this study.

235

236

Table 1. Select statistical characteristics of reservoirs analyzed in this study.

Characteristic	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Minimum Storage (MCM)	0	12,377	827	2,553
Maximum Storage (MCM)	25	32,070	2,695	6,184
Annual Inflow (cms)	0.64	780	118	202
Annual Outflow (cms)	0.66	776	113	195
Impoundment Ratio	0.03	15.50	1.96	2.33

237

238

### 3. Results and Discussion

239

#### 3.1. Overall Model Performances

240

The goodness-of-fit metrics were calculated for each reservoir in the study.

241

Observed inflow is compared with observed outflow to establish a benchmark used to show

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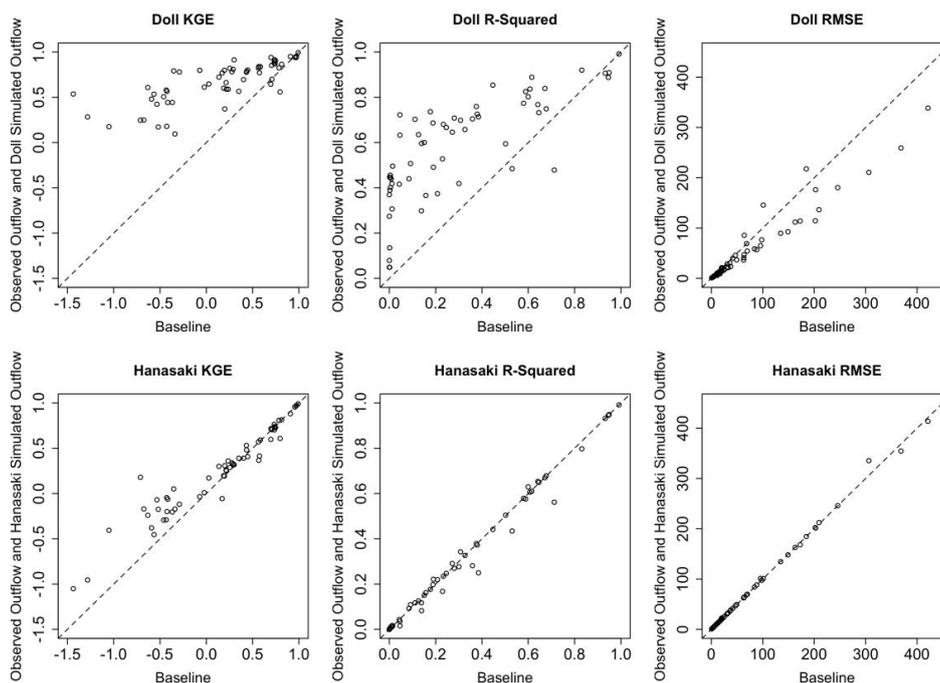
whether implementing the two non-data driven reservoir routing schemes improves



243 estimates for reservoir outflow over simply treating as unregulated flow. Figure 2 illustrates  
244 the comparison of skill metrics between baseline (the use of inflow as an estimate of  
245 outflow) and the use of the Döll and Hanasaki methods to simulate outflow. The KGE, R-  
246 Squared, and RMSE for the Döll and Hanasaki methods in Figure 2 represent the best fit  
247 results from the sensitivity study. Data points in Figure 2 that fall below the dashed line  
248 represent instances where KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE are lower for the reservoir routing  
249 method compared to the baseline. Data points falling above the dashed line indicate  
250 instances where higher KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE were obtained than the baseline for  
251 this study. The Hanasaki Method tends to produce minimal utility over the baseline  
252 scenario. In general, the Hanasaki Method does not appear to make outflow estimates  
253 worse. Estimates that have acceptable KGE values in the baseline scenario tend to produce  
254 acceptable results using the Hanasaki Method. On the other hand, Figure 2 illustrate that  
255 the Döll Method generally tends to increase KGE and R-Squared, and decrease RMSE.  
256 Thus, the general conclusion is that selecting the optimum Döll release coefficient will  
257 ultimately produce an improved estimate of reservoir outflow compared to the baseline.  
258 Generally, the Hanasaki Method will produce an estimated reservoir outflow that performs



259 similarly to the baseline scenario.



260 Figure 2. Scatter plots of skill metrics between the use of daily observed inflow as outflow (Baseline) and simulated outflow. The dashed line indicates the plane separating increased and decreased skill that results from using either reservoir routing method.

261 Figure 3 is a geographic representation of the KGE values from the baseline  
262 scenario as well as the two routing models for each reservoir. In general, the Döll Method  
263 outperforms the baseline and Hanasaki Method, particularly in the Tulsa and Pittsburg  
264 Districts. Furthermore, the Döll Method tends to improve KGE values at nearly all  
265 reservoirs and tends to preserve high KGE values at locations where the baseline is already  
266 good or very good estimator of outflow. Figure 3a illustrates the wide range of reservoir  
267 operating conditions present in the study. The reservoir dataset contains reservoirs in which  
268 the outflow correlates poorly with the inflow regime as others that correlates well. Figure  
269 3a also portrays significant geographic clustering where reservoirs in certain regions tend



270 to be less correlated with inflow and other clusters where observed inflow and observed  
271 outflow correlate strongly. This could indicate that operations at these reservoirs may have  
272 a particularly regional context and may bias towards a particular reservoir routing scheme.  
273 However, it can be seen that correlation between observed inflow and observed outflow  
274 and geographic proximity of the reservoirs do not influence the implementation of either  
275 the Döll or Hanasaki method. Thus, the results of this research indicate no significant  
276 geographic constraints in the context of this study.

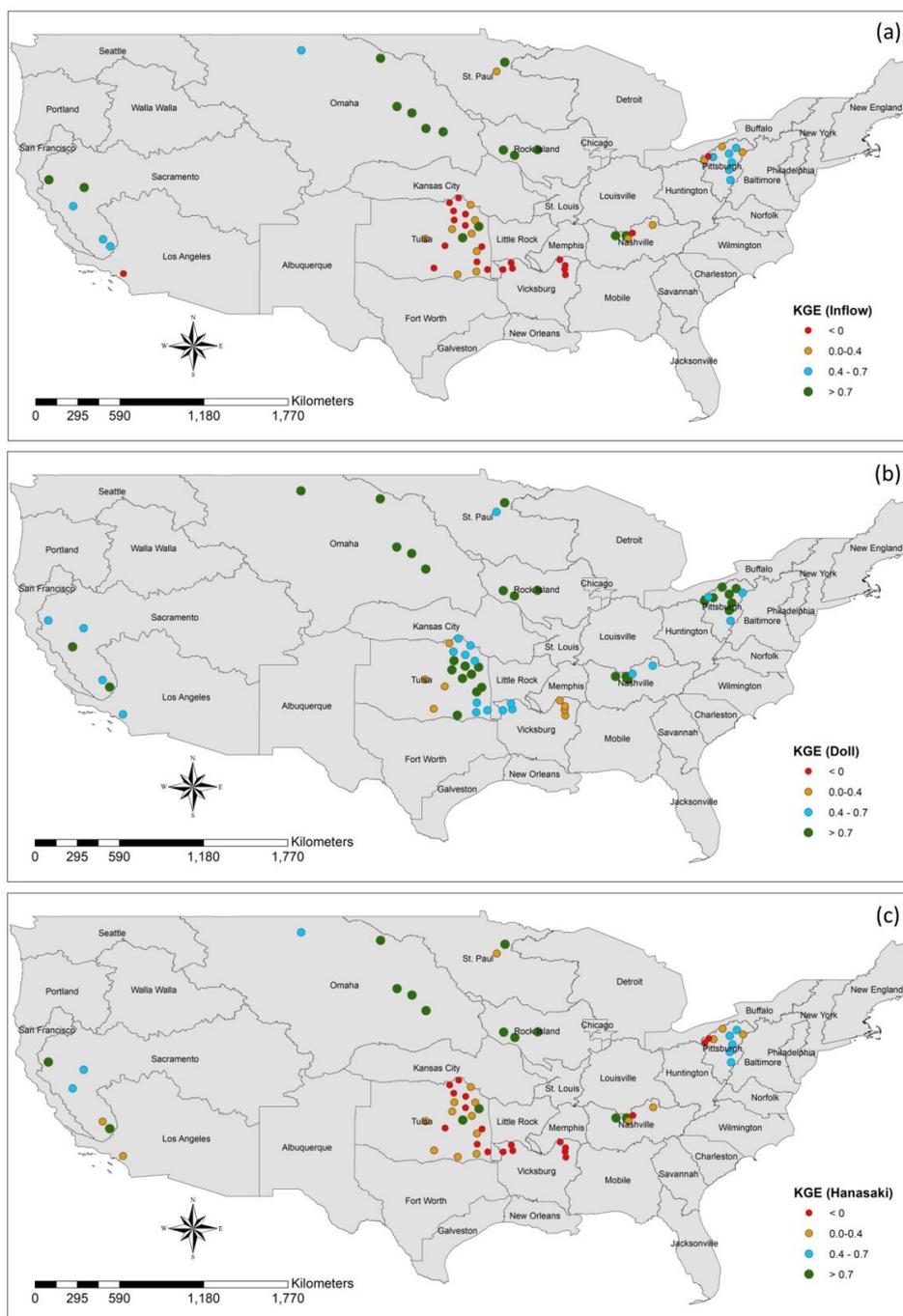
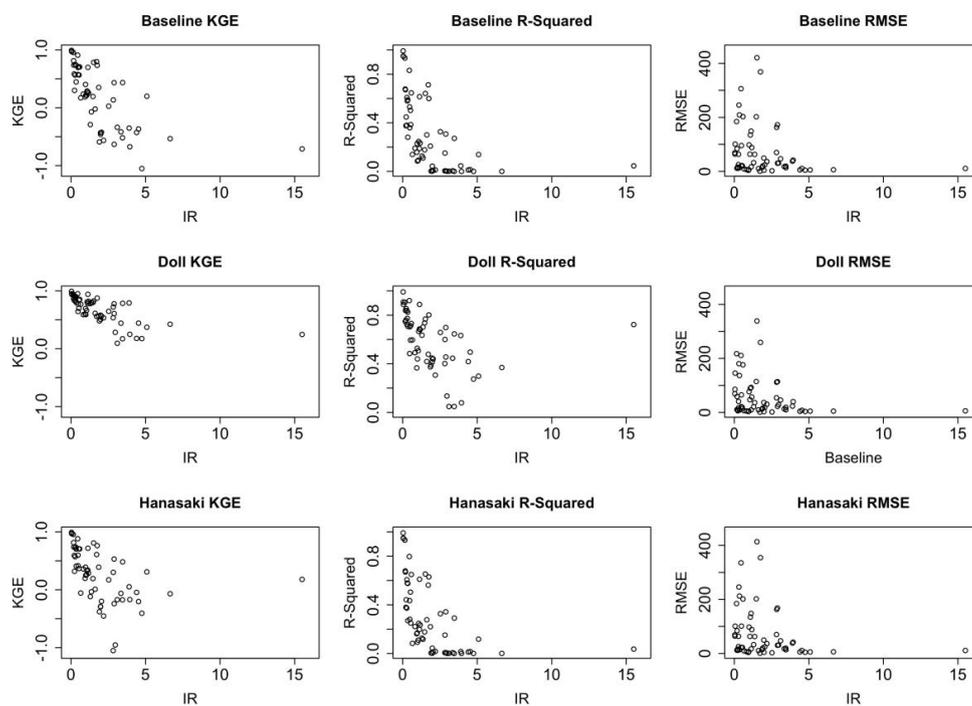


Figure 3. Spatial distribution of KGE comparing observed daily outflow to the each estimate of outflow: a) observed inflow b) Döll Method simulated outflow, c) Hanasaki Method simulated outflow for all reservoirs in this study. KGE values for the Döll Method and the Hanasaki Method are the maximum KGE from all coefficient treatments.



278 From multivariate comparison, a substantial negative relationship between two of the best  
279 fit results (KGE and R-Squared) and reservoir IR was found. Figure 4 illustrates this  
280 comparison between IR and each goodness of fit metric for the baseline, Döll, and  
281 Hanasaki methods. Based upon Figure 4, KGE in particular appears to non-linearly  
282 correlated to IR. A similar, yet less significant, negative relationship was found between  
283 IR and R-Squared. Little statistical correlation appears to occur between IR and RMSE.  
284 However, KGE and R-Squared values in Figure 4 indicate that the ability to predict outflow  
285 using the reservoir routing techniques applied in this study decreases with reservoir with  
286 high IR values. Proceeding sections investigate some of the possible reasons for this  
287 relationship between reservoir routing model performance and IR.



288

289 Figure 4. Comparison of IR and KGE from goodness of fit metrics.

290



291 3.2. Sensitivity Analysis of Models

292 Because the Döll method consistently outperforms the Hanasaki method at daily  
293 time steps, the Döll Method was selected for the sensitivity analysis at daily time steps.  
294 The value of  $k_{rd}$  coefficient was introduced as 0.01 in the Döll et al. (2003) study. In this  
295 study,  $k_{rd}$  values were varied to obtain maximum KGE and R-Squared and minimum  
296 RMSE. Figure 5 demonstrates the dispersion of  $k_{rd}$  values which maximum the model  
297 skill to simulate reservoir routing for all selected reservoirs in this study. For all model skill  
298 metrics,  $k_{rd}=0.90$  tends to be the most prevalent  $k_{rd}$  value that maximizes model skill. In  
299 only two of the 60 reservoirs (Sardis Dam and Enid Dam)  $k_{rd} = 0.01$  maximizes R-  
300 Squared and minimizes RMSE for the range of  $k_{rd}$  coefficients. This research suggests

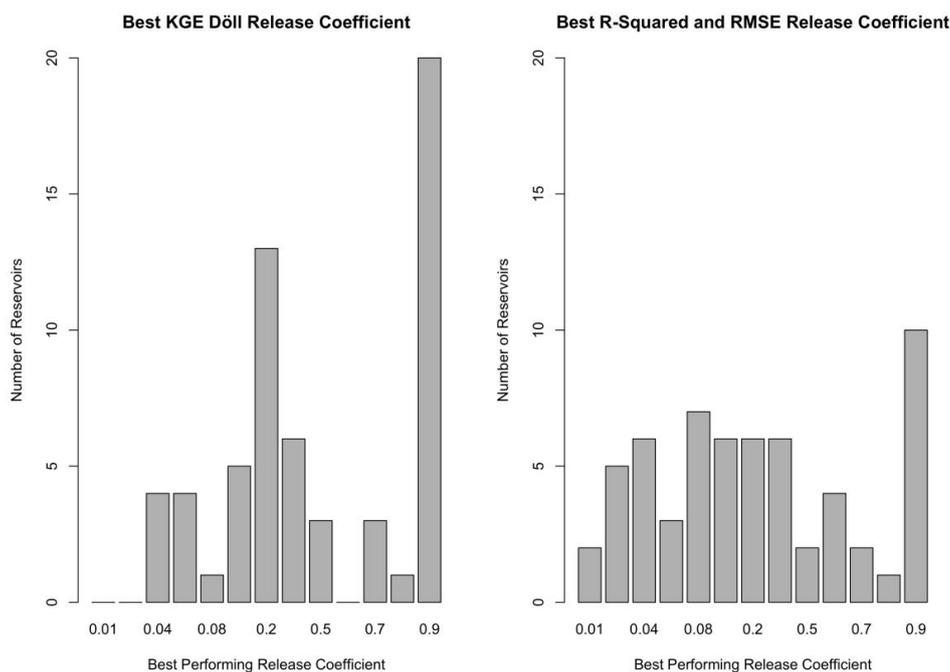


Figure 5. Bar charts of  $k_{rd}$  values that maximize KGE and correlation and minimize nRMSE.



301 that the  $k_{rd} = 0.01$  is not necessarily the optimum coefficient to maximize model  
302 performance.

303 Investigating the linkage between dam characteristics and the best performing  $k_{rd}$   
304 yields no clear relationship. Evaluation of correlation between impoundment ratio,  
305 coefficient of variation of inflow, ratio of average inflow to average outflow, and  
306 geographic location shows low correlation between each variable and best performing  $k_{rd}$   
307 value. However, the range of best performing  $k_{rd}$  within this analysis and as demonstrated  
308 in Figure 5 suggests that the value is not constant across all reservoirs. Thus, as one  
309 implements the Döll Method within their hydrologic modeling framework,  $k_{rd}$  may be  
310 adjusted when comparing streamflow estimates to gage observations, like those curated by  
311 the Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC, 2017).

### 312 3.3. Dam Systems and Reservoir Routing

313 Reservoirs in the Vicksburg and Omaha districts were selected to evaluate  
314 performance of the Döll Method in complex drainage systems. Although these reservoirs  
315 are not directly connected, the reservoir operators coordinate in order to minimize flooding  
316 in the Louisiana Delta regions near the mouth of the Mississippi River. The operation of  
317 these reservoirs presents an interesting case in which the non-date driven models in this  
318 study do not characterize the nature of the dam releases well. The modeled results at four  
319 Vicksburg District dams yield only minimal improvement over unregulated (i.e.  
320 naturalized) flow at these reservoirs. The decrease in reservoir routing performance can be  
321 attributed to the large impoundment ratios at these dams indicating the reservoir storage is  
322 large relative to annual volume of inflow.

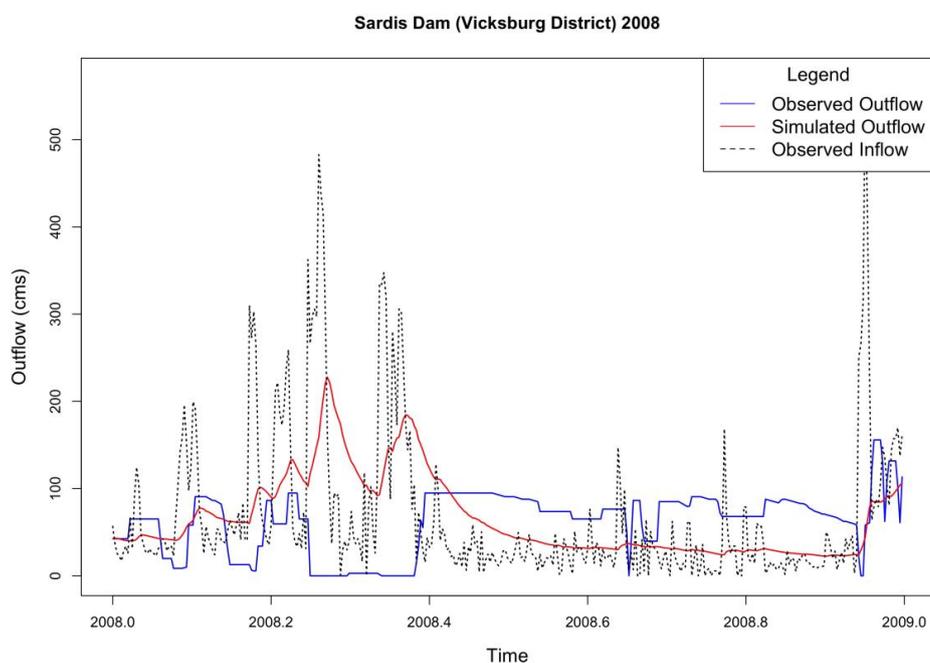


323           The reservoirs of interest in the Vicksburg District include Arkabutla, Sardis, Enid,  
324 and Grenada. These dams function in parallel on tributaries of the lower Mississippi River,  
325 namely the Coldwater River, Little Tallahatchie River, Yocona River, and Yalobusha  
326 River, respectively. Together, these dams control flooding in northern Mississippi as part  
327 of the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project (USACE, 2017; USACE, 1987). The Yazoo Basin  
328 reservoirs discharge directly into the heavily regulated Mississippi River (Meade and  
329 Moody, 2010). The reservoirs operate to ensure high releases are not concurrent with large  
330 flows upstream on the Mississippi to avoid devastating flooding to the low-lying Louisiana  
331 delta regions. This requires a high level of coordination throughout the Yazoo Basin  
332 Headwater Project and with regulation upstream on the Mississippi. Additionally, each of  
333 the Yazoo Basin reservoirs have a substantial impoundment ratio, ranging from 2.96-3.95.  
334 In other words, the reservoirs are capable of containing large volumes of water to mitigate  
335 downstream impacts. Thus, current pool levels and forecasted inflow at these four  
336 reservoirs do not substantially influence release decisions. The reservoirs also have the  
337 capacity to absorb large flood events. As a result, they do not seem follow the same  
338 functional form as other dams in this study.

339           Figure 6 from Sardis Dam in the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project demonstrates the  
340 hydrograph comparing observed inflow and outflow and the modeled outflow that provides  
341 the highest KGE (Döll method,  $k_{rd}=0.90$ ) for the year 2008. Figure 6 demonstrates that  
342 peak outflows do not tend to correspond to the time at which peak inflow occurs. In fact,  
343 release rates at Sardis Dam are at a minimum during the peak inflow time period. This  
344 pattern repeats at each of the reservoirs in the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project indicating  
345 that inflow and consumed storage are not substantial predictors of outflow timing at these



346 reservoirs. This exemplifies the lack of correlation between observed inflow and observed  
347 outflow at reservoirs within the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project.



KGE comparing Observed Inflow and Outflow = -0.34 KGE comparing Simulated Outflow and Observed Outflow = -0.47  
Figure 6. Hydrographs of observed inflow and outflow versus simulated outflow with the highest KGE  
value at Sardis Dam (Döll method  $k_r=0.90$ ). KGE comparing observed Inflow and outflow = - 0.34;  
KGE comparing simulated and observed outflows= 0.095

348  
349 Dams operating in series represent a specific case where compounding model error  
350 is a particular concern. USACE operates several large dams in series on the Missouri River.  
351 These include Fort Peck, Garrison, Oahe, Big Bend, Fort Randall, and Gavins Point within  
352 in the Omaha District (Lund and Ferreira, 1996). For this cascading system on the Missouri  
353 River, inflow appears to be a progressively stronger predictor of outflow from upstream to  
354 down. At the upstream end inflow yielded a KGE=0.43 at Fork Peck with a KGE=0.99  
355 downstream at Gavins Point Dam. Figure 7 provides a comparison of observed inflow and  
356 outflow along with simulated outflow for Gavins Point Dam. The Döll method tends to



357 provide a slightly better estimate of outflow compared with inflow, except in the instance  
358 of Big Bend Dam. At Big Bend Dam, the Hanasaki method produces an estimate of outflow  
359 more consistent with observed outflow than either the Döll method or inflow alone.  
360 However, the differences are almost trivial considering how well inflow alone performed  
361 in this case. The Döll method is particularly accurate during peak inflow conditions, for  
362 example the large hydrologic event in mid-2011 at Gavins Point Dam in Figure 7. The  
363 performance of non-data driven approaches in this instance is promising since  
364 compounding errors are a large concern in this type of system. Other instances involving  
365 dams in series should be evaluated to find out if these findings hold more generally.

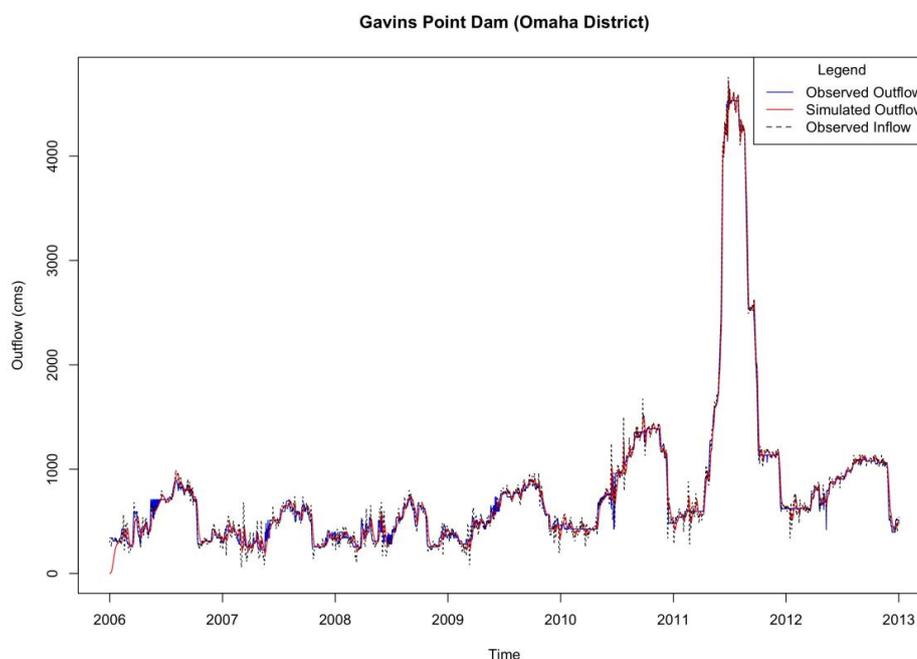


Figure 7. Hydrographs of observed inflow and outflow versus simulated outflow with the highest KGE value at Gavins Point Dam (Döll method  $k_r=0.04$ ). KGE comparing observed Inflow and outflow = 0.99; KGE comparing simulated and observed outflows = 0.99.

366

367 The reservoir management is unique in both the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project  
368 and the Missouri River. The operators of dams within the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project



369 tend to regulate outflow in a manner that is more in line with downstream conditions. The  
370 attention to downstream conditions is due mainly to the impact that downstream floods will  
371 have on the low-lying communities within the Louisiana Delta. The dams in the Yazoo  
372 Basin Headwaters Project have among the highest impoundment ratios, which inherently  
373 reduces the influence of upstream conditions in discharge decisions. The non-data driven  
374 approaches evaluated here do not account for downstream conditions and thus do not  
375 perform well in this instance, particularly where large impoundment ratios allow operators  
376 considerable leeway.

377 On the other hand, the non-data driven approaches tend to perform well when  
378 inflow conditions dictate discharge decisions as we see on the Missouri River system.  
379 Reservoirs with smaller impoundment ratios are naturally more responsive to inflow  
380 requiring greater consideration for upstream conditions. The Döll Method showed  
381 relatively small improvement of outflow estimates compared to inflow as a predictor of  
382 outflow in the Yazoo Basin Reservoirs, while the method provided reasonable estimates in  
383 dam systems like the Missouri River system. Therefore, it can be inferred that the Döll  
384 method is more applicable for dam systems where reservoir management focuses on  
385 upstream hydrologic conditions, while large impoundment ratios may be indicative of  
386 reservoirs where downstream conditions are more likely to prevail. This would likely apply  
387 for the Hanasaki Method as well since that method links outflow more directly.

#### 388 3.4. Wet and Dry Year Comparison

389 Figure 8 shows results for wet and dry years at two reservoirs considered to be  
390 representative of this study. The Döll Method provides a relatively good estimate of  
391 outflow at Union City Dam (Pittsburg District) in Figure 8a and Figure 8c. It performs



392 relatively poorly at Arcadia Lake (Tulsa District) in Figure 8b and Figure 8d. In the case  
393 of Union City Dam, the Döll Method tends to produce a noticeable improvement in model  
394 skill during both a relatively wet year and a relatively dry year. The performance (Figure  
395 8a and Figure 8c) seems to be independent of wet or dry conditions, at least on an annual  
396 basis. This does not hold for Arcadia Lake. The model shows modest skill at Arcadia Lake  
397 during the wet year (Figure 8b), but almost none during the dry year.

398         There appears to be a difference in the timing discharges between at the two  
399 locations in Figure 8. The Döll Method appears to estimate the right amount of volume  
400 released during the wet year at Arcadia Lake (Figure 8b). However, the actual release is  
401 delayed from the estimate given by the model. The lag could indicate that water is being  
402 retained, possibly for use in irrigation or domestic supply. In this instance, Arcadia Lake  
403 supplies water to the city of Edmond, Oklahoma which may influence release decisions  
404 (Arcadia Lake Park Office, 2018),

405         The Döll Method performs much more poorly during the 2006 dry year at Arcadia  
406 Lake (Figure 8d). The model does not predict the sporadic releases throughout the year.  
407 The inflow events in that year are not substantial enough to affect storage meaningfully,  
408 thus we see almost no response in the modeled output. Observed outflows demonstrate that  
409 beyond two relatively high-volume reservoir releases during 2006, the reservoir releases  
410 are restricted to practically no outflow the rest of the year. The Döll Method does not  
411 anticipate the two large releases, as the reservoir storage does not dramatically shift in  
412 either instance. Arcadia Dam appears to be operating in a conservation mode for nearly the  
413 entire year. The Döll Method does not account for this. Instead, it estimates a near constant  
414 discharge over the entire year with almost no storage change.



415           Results for wet years and dry years appear to be fairly mixed. Indications are that  
416   the performance of the Döll Method could be somewhat site specific. However, reservoirs  
417   that tend to be less responsive to storage fluctuations are not represented well in the Döll  
418   Method since storage fluctuations drive the model. Arcadia Lake has an IR of about 4.75  
419   which is relatively high. Union City Dam has an IR of about 0.24, which is relatively low.  
420   IR is a good indicator of reservoir responsiveness to storage fluctuations. A lack of  
421   reservoir responsiveness to storage fluctuations could result in two different types of error  
422   when the Döll Method is implemented within a large-spatial-scale hydrologic model. First,  
423   forecasted outflow could easily mistime a hydrologic event, particularly during wet years,  
424   as Figure 8b demonstrates. Second, the authors anticipate that if the storage does not  
425   dramatically fluctuate during a dry year the estimated reservoir release likely will not  
426   anticipate sporadic releases for irrigation and other purposeful discharges. Unaccounted  
427   for, these large but short duration releases may lead to a consistent overestimation of  
428   reservoir outflow for the entire dry year period.

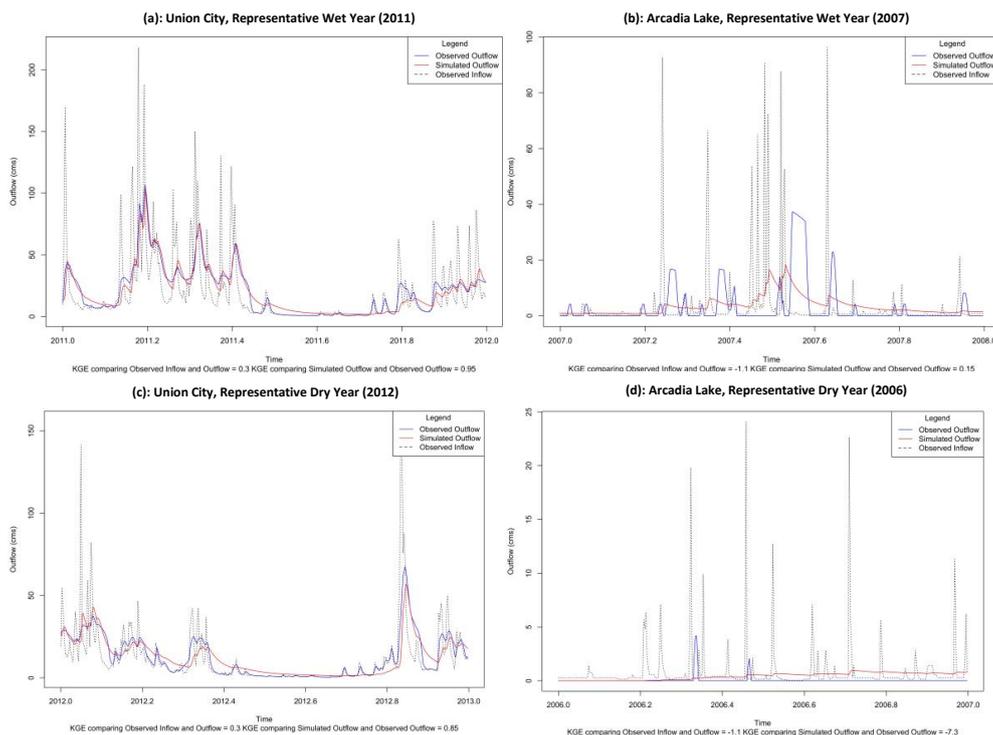


Figure 8. Two reservoirs where the Döll Method tends to perform very good and poor: outflow: a) wet year Union City Dam 2011; b) wet year Arcadia Lake 2007; c) dry year Union City Dam 2012; and d) dry year Arcadia Lake 2006.

429

### 430 3.5. Effects of Time Step on Model Performance

431 Model comparisons are conducted for daily and monthly time steps. Table 2  
432 illustrates the results at Fort Peck, Garrison Dam, Oahe Dam, and Fort Randall Dam, each  
433 of which appears in the Hanasaki et al. (2006) study and this research. Table 2 also contains  
434 Sardis Dam, Mosquito Creek Dam, and Prado Dam, which are not included in Hanasaki et  
435 al. (2006). Results illustrate that the time scale can influence simulation results. The  
436 monthly comparison amongst Fort Peck, Garrison, Oahe, and Fort Randall is in agreement  
437 with the conclusions of Hanasaki et al. (2006). However, when the simulation time step  
438 changes to a daily time step, the skill of Hanasaki Method and the Döll method reverse and  
439 the Döll method tends to outperform the Hanasaki Method. In additional reservoirs (Sardis



440 and Prado), the results indicate that the Döll method outperformed the Hanasaki Method at  
441 both daily and monthly time steps, based upon KGE. However, the results at Mosquito  
442 Creek reservoir tend to follow the original Hanasaki et al. (2006) results.

443 The time-scale effect upon model performance may relate to how well observed  
444 inflow correlates with observed outflow. Examining Table 2, Hanasaki Method  
445 outperforms the Döll Method when observed inflow and observed outflow are relatively  
446 well correlated. The effect is nullified when the inverse is true. The Hanasaki Method  
447 estimates outflow as a ratio of inflow, which may be a better estimate of outflow at the  
448 monthly time scale, particularly when discharge tracks closely with inflow. However, the  
449 Hanasaki Method will fluctuate at the smaller time steps due to inherent variations in  
450 inflow. The Döll Method tends to vary less at a daily time step and may be a better estimate  
451 of outflow at sub-monthly time steps.

452 The hydrographs from Fort Randall Dam further illustrate the relationships between  
453 time step and model skill, particularly during high flow events. Daily and monthly  
454 comparisons between observation and simulations for Fort Randall Dam are shown in  
455 Figure 9. This figure compares the daily and monthly simulations with observations. Figure  
456 9a shows that the Hanasaki simulations perform better than the Döll Method for monthly  
457 time steps, particularly during the high inflow events in 2011. The Döll method tends to  
458 overestimate reservoir outflow, while the Hanasaki Method correlates well with inflow and  
459 better matches the peak flow of 2011. At a diurnal time step (Figure 9b), the Hanasaki  
460 Method tends to be hypersensitive to inflow variations and overestimates outflow, whereas  
461 the Döll method provides a better approximation of outflow during the 2011 high flow  
462 event.



Table 2. Comparison of daily and monthly KGE values at selected reservoirs. The  $\alpha$  and  $k_{rd}$  values represent the highest KGE values for Hanasaki and Döll methods respectively.

Reservoir	Daily KGE			Monthly KGE		
	Inflow	Hanasaki	Döll	Inflow	Hanasaki	Döll
<b>Fort Peck</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.04$	0.43	0.53	0.78	0.54	0.62	0.51
<b>Garrison Dam</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.06$	0.73	0.76	0.88	0.78	0.80	0.59
<b>Oahe Dam</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.20$	0.78	0.81	0.83	0.84	0.86	0.76
<b>Fort Randall Dam</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.20$	0.91	0.88	0.95	0.96	0.93	0.67
<b>Sardis Dam</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.90$	-0.34	-0.17	0.09	0.06	-0.03	0.16
<b>Mosquito Creek Dam</b> $\alpha=0.45$ $k_{rd}=0.70$	-0.46	-0.29	0.51	0.49	0.60	0.39
<b>Prado Dam</b> $\alpha=0.95$ $k_{rd}=0.50$	-0.02	0.01	0.61	0.32	0.61	0.71

463

464 It is possible that the conclusions of Hanasaki et al. (2006) suggesting better  
 465 performance of the Hanasaki Method at the monthly-scale depend on how closely  
 466 discharge from the dam tracks inflow. The Döll method may be a better candidate for  
 467 integration into daily flow forecasting models.

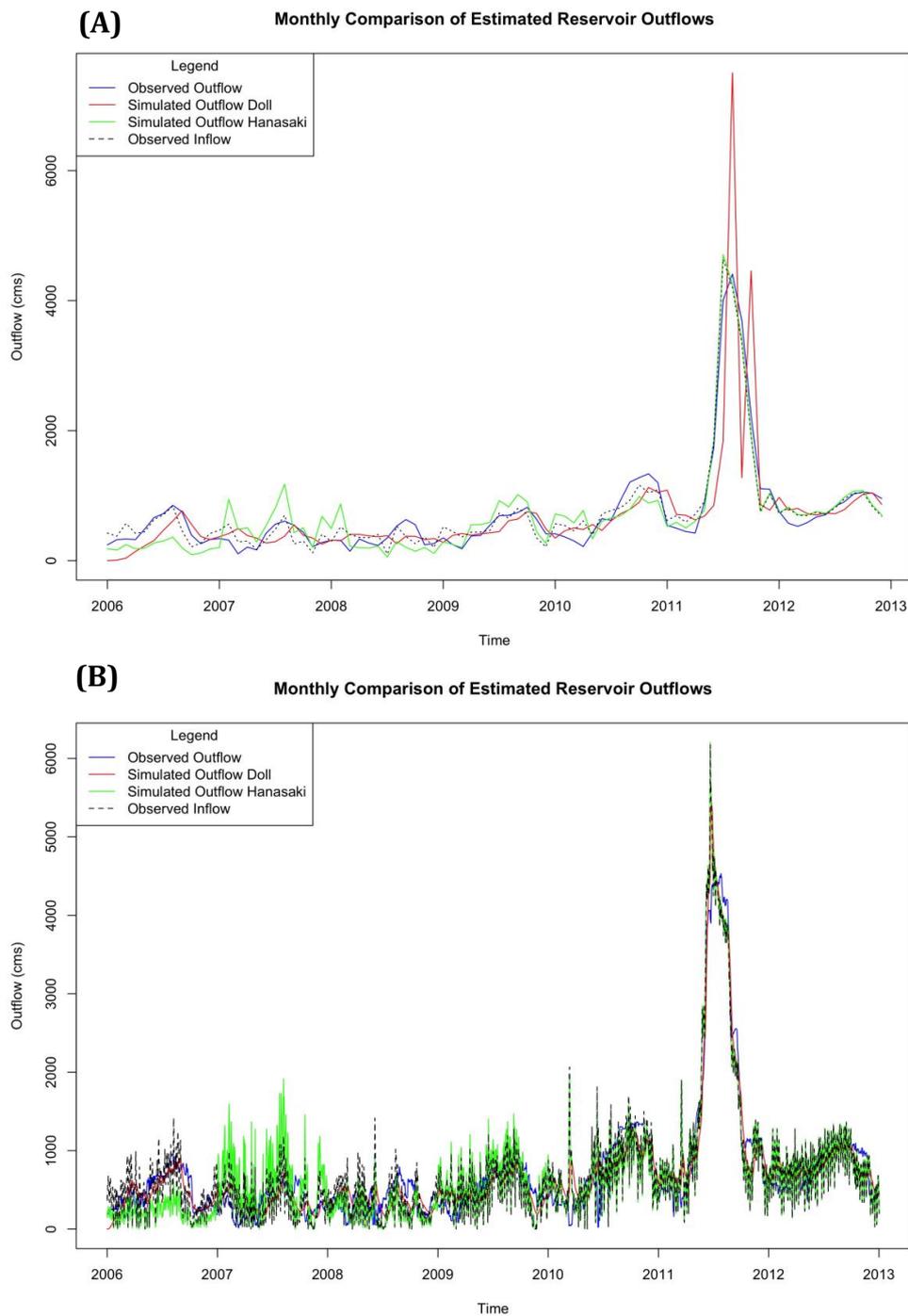


Figure 9. Comparison of simulated outflow for the Fort Randall Dam with Hanasaki and Döll methods for (a) monthly and (b) daily time steps



### 469 3.6. Model Stability

470           Although the Döll Method outperformed the Hanasaki Method when using a daily  
471 time step, the Döll Method demonstrated some instability for high  $k_{rd}$  values. This  
472 instability occurs at three reservoirs in this study. The cause of the instability is a  
473 combination of a reservoir having a low impoundment ratio and a sharp change in the  
474 inflow to a reservoir. For instance, inflow into Old Hickory Dam in the Nashville District  
475 (IR = 0.04) increased by roughly two orders of magnitude in a matter of a few days in May  
476 2010. During this event, the available storage filled up, necessitating a substantial increase  
477 in release flow to prevent overtopping. This occurred within a single time step in the model  
478 (Döll Method) and the outflow responded in kind in the next subsequent time step which  
479 then drained the reservoir below the specified minimum storage resulting in a non-  
480 computable imaginary number as the next solution.

481           Several solutions are posited to address Döll Method instability. One solution could  
482 be to varying  $k_{rd}$  values dynamically to mimic reservoir behavior. During large hydrologic  
483 events the value of  $k_{rd}$  could reduce the peak of the outflow hydrograph, and then increase  
484 during normal events. Another solution is the inclusion of rules and an expanded system  
485 of equations that govern the solution. Because the intention of the Döll Method is to  
486 approximate flow at a free-flowing weir, coupling operational rules with the simulation  
487 may better approximate reality. The rules may be as simple as switching behavior or the  
488 algorithm when storage approaches either minimum or maximum reservoir storage. A  
489 simple condition was tested for when storage drops below the minimum storage during the  
490 daily time step:



$$491 \quad \text{if } S_t \leq S_{\min} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} S_t = S_{\min} \\ Q_{out} = Q_{in} + \frac{S_t - S_{\min}}{\Delta t} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

492 This condition prevents the reservoir from falling below the minimum storage. Outflow  
493 from Old Hickory Dam was re-simulated with  $k_{rd} = 0.9$  and the new minimum storage  
494 condition (Equation 5). The proposed modification resulted in simulated outflow shown in  
495 Figure 10. Outflow is substantially overestimated for one-time step and drops to zero at the  
496 next time step. While an oversimplification of actual operations, this condition is similar  
497 to an emergency spillway discharge to prevent overtopping. The dam releases tremendous  
498 flow for a brief period, when the maximum storage is nearly exceeded and then inhibits the  
499 discharge when the storage is at the minimum capacity. The benefit of this modification is  
500 that additional reservoir information is not required. However, further testing and  
501 evaluation should be performed to validate this refinement.

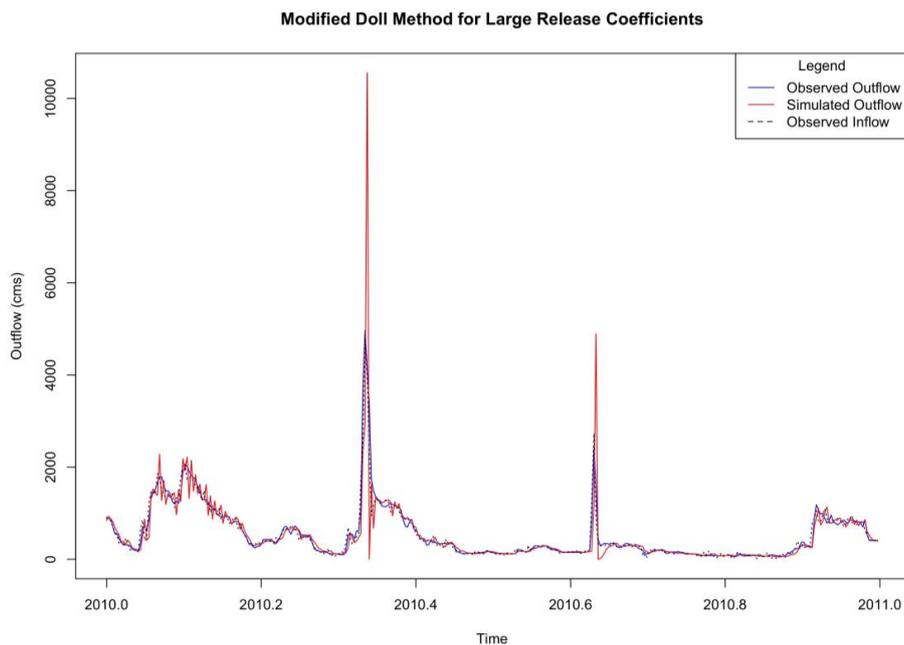


Figure 10. Outflow simulation for the Old Hickory Dam using the proposed modification of the Doll method for  $k_{rd}=0.4$ .

502

### 503 3.7. Limitations

504 This study is limited to models that require only reservoir inflow and storage,  
505 primarily to provide insight into the reliability of these measures as indicators of reservoir  
506 outflow. The inclusion of additional demand and evapotranspiration parameters could  
507 improve the results, but could also add considerable uncertainty. Of the two models, only  
508 Hanasaki et al. (2006) currently includes an estimate for withdrawals of any nature.

509 Another limitation of this study is the inflow that drives the simulations. All inflow  
510 utilized in this study, except for the Nashville district, is back-calculated from observed  
511 changes in storage and known discharges. This indirect method can lead to negative inflow  
512 values when losses due to seepage, evapotranspiration, or other types of withdrawals are



513 underestimated. De Vos (2015) also noted that they used back-calculated inflow in their  
514 study. It is unclear whether Hanasaki et al. (2006) made use of direct observations, but it  
515 is worth noting that direct observations of total reservoir inflow are difficult to acquire.

### 516 3.8. Future Work

517 The non-data driven approaches evaluated consistently improved simulated  
518 streamflow estimates over naturalized flow conditions suggesting these approaches can  
519 potentially improve global streamflow forecasting. The Döll Method performed  
520 particularly well at daily time steps commensurate with many large-scale stream routing  
521 models. The incorporation of the Döll Method into to the RAPID code, a large-scale river  
522 routing model for simulating streamflow throughout distributed stream networks over large  
523 spatial extents (David et al., 2011), is under development. This will enable widespread  
524 testing and evaluation over large hydrologically diverse areas.

525 Reservoir routing schemes could be enhanced by assimilating remotely sensed data,  
526 e.g. near real-time changes in storage resolved from satellite altimetry, and eventually the  
527 planned NASA Surface Water and Ocean Topography (SWOT) Mission. This information  
528 could constrain reservoir simulations to improve global streamflow forecasts (Yoon and  
529 Beighley, 2015). These simulations could provide the training data necessary for more data  
530 intensive reservoir routing approaches, e.g. applying Artificial Intelligence and Machine  
531 Learning techniques to infer reservoir rule curves. Eventually, global streamflow  
532 forecasting models should leverage all available data to account for anthropogenic  
533 influence, utilizing techniques that range from simple to extremely complex.



534

#### 4. Conclusions

535 This research compares two parsimonious reservoir routing methods that have  
536 previously been implemented in large-scale hydrologic modeling applications, namely the  
537 Döll and Hanasaki Methods. These methods were compared across 60 USACE operated  
538 reservoirs at a daily time step. Results show that the Döll Method tends to outperform the  
539 Hanasaki Method at a daily time step. An in depth examination of these results yields the  
540 following conclusions.

- 541 • The complexity and data requirements of both Döll and Hanasaki Methods are low  
542 and thus computationally inexpensive. Both can be feasibly implemented at large  
543 spatial scales at a daily or sub-daily time step.
- 544 • There is a significant relationship between reservoir IR and two of the skill metrics  
545 applied (KGE and R-Squared). Given that reservoirs with high IR typically are less  
546 responsive to short-term fluctuations in inflow and storage, the correlation between  
547 these variables is plausible. Further investigation of dam characteristics, such as if  
548 the dams operate in series or in parallel and wet and dry year considerations are  
549 further evidence of the correlation between the IR and Döll and Hanasaki Methods.
- 550 • Simulation time step plays an important part in reservoir routing skill. The  
551 comparison of the two methods by Hanasaki et al. (2006) are based on monthly  
552 reservoir outflows and conclusions may not hold within diurnal forecasting  
553 schemes. At overlapping locations, this study replicates the results reported by  
554 Hanasaki et al. for monthly time steps. However, the Hamasaki et al. findings do  
555 not hold for a daily time step.



- 556       • The best value for the empirical Döll coefficient,  $k_{rd}$ , can vary. Optimal values  
557       were typically greater than the  $k_{rd}=0.01$  value which Döll et al. (2003) derived. This  
558       suggests that  $k_{rd}$  could be a potential calibration parameter within a large-scale  
559       hydrologic modeling framework much like a weir coefficient, which is specific to  
560       a particular type of weir.
- 561       • The Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project (USACE, 2017; USACE, 1987) is an  
562       interesting case study in how reservoir system complexity can be difficult to model.  
563       The Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project considers downstream flow conditions as the  
564       dominant criteria in dam operation. Thus, the inflow and available storage volume  
565       are poor predictors for determining reservoir discharge in this type of management  
566       scheme. The Döll Method appeared to scale flow correctly at these reservoirs and  
567       improve reservoir overall skill, but timing of the releases well represented and thus  
568       skill improvement is only minimal.
- 569       • Dam discharges in the Missouri River Reservoir System (Lund and Ferreira, 1996)  
570       are more correlated with storage volume and inflow conditions, which lends itself  
571       to the two non-data-driven approaches evaluated here. The Döll Method is  
572       particularly capable of accurately modeling reservoir outflows in reservoir systems  
573       that correlate well with storage and inflow fluctuations. Concerns related to model  
574       error being compounded through a series dams may be mitigated somewhat by the  
575       fact that inflow appears to be a progressively stronger predictor of outflow further  
576       downstream in these types of systems.
- 577       • Numerical stability of the Döll Method is a concern, particularly with higher  $k_{rd}$   
578       values. These stability concerns originate at reservoirs with small active storage



579 capacity during high inflow events. Additional model refinement can overcome  
580 these stability concerns.

- 581 • The Döll Method showed minimal bias during relatively wet and dry years. Timing  
582 of releases can be influenced by wet years and the magnitude appears to be affected  
583 during dry years. The Döll Method appears to be most applicable for dam systems  
584 where reservoir management focuses on upstream hydrologic conditions. Large  
585 impoundment ratios could indicate reservoirs where downstream conditions are  
586 more likely to influence release decisions at the reservoir.

587



588

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602



603

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