



1 **Opinion paper: Linking Darcy's equation to the linear reservoir.**

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6 **Abstract**

7 In groundwater hydrology, two simple linear equations exist describing the relation
8 between groundwater flow and the gradient driving it: Darcy's equation and the linear
9 reservoir. Both equations are empirical and straightforward, but work at different
10 scales: Darcy's equation at the laboratory scale and the linear reservoir at the
11 watershed scale. Although at first sight they appear similar, it is not trivial to upscale
12 Darcy's equation to the watershed scale without detailed knowledge of the structure or
13 shape of the underlying aquifers. This paper shows that these two equations,
14 combined by the water balance, are indeed identical provided there is equal resistance
15 in space for water entering the subsurface network. This implies that groundwater
16 systems make use of an efficient drainage network, a mostly invisible pattern that has
17 evolved over geological time scales. This drainage network provides equally
18 distributed resistance for water to exit the system, connecting the active groundwater
19 body to the stream, much like a leaf is organized to provide all stomata access to
20 moisture at equal resistance. As a result, the "residence time" of the linear reservoir
21 appears to be inversely proportional to Darcy's "conductance", the proportionality
22 being the product of the porosity and the resistance to entering the drainage network.
23 The main question remaining is which physical law lies behind pattern formation in
24 groundwater systems, evolving in a way that resistance to drainage is constant in
25 space. But that is a physical question that is equally relevant for understanding the
26 hydraulic properties of leaf veins in plants or of blood veins in animals.

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28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 One of the more fundamental questions in hydrology is how to explain system
31 behaviour manifest at catchment scale from fundamental processes observed at
32 laboratory scale. Although scaling issues occur in virtually all earth sciences, what
33 distinguishes hydrology from related disciplines, such as hydraulics and atmospheric
34 science, is that hydrology seeks to describe water flowing through a landscape that
35 has unknown or difficult-to-observe structural characteristics. Unlike in river
36 hydraulics or atmospheric circulation, where answers can be found in finer grid 3-D
37 integration of equations describing fluid mechanics, in hydrology this cannot be done
38 without knowing the properties of the medium through which the water flows. The
39 subsurface is not only heterogeneous, it is also virtually impossible to observe. We
40 may be able to observe its behaviour and maybe its properties, but not its exact
41 structure. Groundwater is not a continuous homogeneous fluid flowing between well-
42 defined boundaries (as in open channel hydraulics), but rather a fluid flowing through
43 a medium with largely unknown properties. In other words, the boundary conditions
44 of the flow are uncertain or unknown. As a result, hydrological models need to rely on
45 effective, often scale-dependent, parameters, which in most cases require calibration
46 to facilitate an adequate representation of the catchment. These calibration efforts
47 typically lead to considerable model uncertainty and, hence, to unreliable predictions.

48

49 But fortunately, there is good news as well. The structure of the medium through
50 which the water flows is not random or arbitrary; it has predictable properties that



51 have emerged by the interaction between the fluid and the substrate. This structure
52 manifests itself in the veins of vegetation, in infiltration patterns in the soil, and in
53 drainage networks in river basins, emerging at a wide variety of temporal scales.
54 Patterns in vegetation and preferential infiltration in a soil can appear at relatively
55 short, i.e. human, time scales, but surface and subsurface drainage patterns,
56 particularly groundwater drainage patterns, evolve at geological time scales.

57
58 There is a debate on which physical law lies behind pattern formation. Scientist agree
59 that it has something to do with the second law of thermodynamics, but what it
60 exactly is, is still debated. Terms in use are: maximum entropy production, maximum
61 power and minimum energy production (e.g. Rodriguez-Iturbe et al., 1992, 2011;
62 Kleidon et al., 2013; Zehe et al., 2013; Westhoff et al., 2016) and the existence of a
63 "constructal law" (Bejan, 2015). However, this paper is not about the process that
64 creates patterns, but rather on using the fact that such patterns exist in groundwater
65 drainage as the means of connecting laboratory to catchment scale.

66 67 **How to connect laboratory scale to system scale?**

68 Dooge (1986) was one of the first to emphasize that hydrology behaves as a complex
69 system with some form of organisation. Hydrologists have been surprised that in very
70 heterogeneous and complex landscapes a relatively simple empirical law, such as the
71 linear reservoir, can manifest itself. Why is there simplicity in a highly complex and
72 heterogeneous system such as a catchment?

73
74 The analogy with veins in leaves, or in the human body, immediately comes to mind.
75 Watersheds and catchments look like leaves. In a leaf, due to some organising
76 principle, the stomata, which take CO₂ from the air and combine it with water to
77 produce hydrocarbons, require access to a supply network of water and access to a
78 drainage network that transports the hydrocarbons to the plant. Such networks are
79 similar to the arteries and veins in our body where oxygen-rich blood enters the cells,
80 and oxygen-poor blood is returned. The property of veins and arteries is 'obviously'
81 that all stomata in the leaf, and cells in our body, have 'equal' access to water or
82 oxygen-rich blood and can evacuate the products and residuals, respectively. Having
83 equal access to a source or to a drain implies experiencing the same resistance to the
84 hydraulic gradient. If a human cell has too high a resistance to the pressure exercised
85 by the heart, then it is likely to die off. Likewise, too low resistance could lead to cell
86 failure/erosion. As a result, the network evolves to an optimal distribution of
87 resistance to the hydraulic gradient.

88
89 In a similar way, drainage networks have developed on the land surface of the Earth.
90 Images from space show a wide variety of networks, looking like fractals. Rodriguez-
91 Iturbe and Rinaldo (2001) connected these patterns to minimum energy expenditure,
92 while Kleidon and Renner (2013) showed that such patterns are components of larger
93 Earth system functioning at maximum power, whereby the drainage system indeed
94 functions at minimum energy expenditure.

95
96 In general, we see that patterns emerge wherever a liquid flows through a medium,
97 provided there is sufficient gradient to build or erode such patterns. Similar patterns
98 must also be present in the substrate through which groundwater flows, which are
99 generally not considered in groundwater hydrology. If such patterns were absent, then

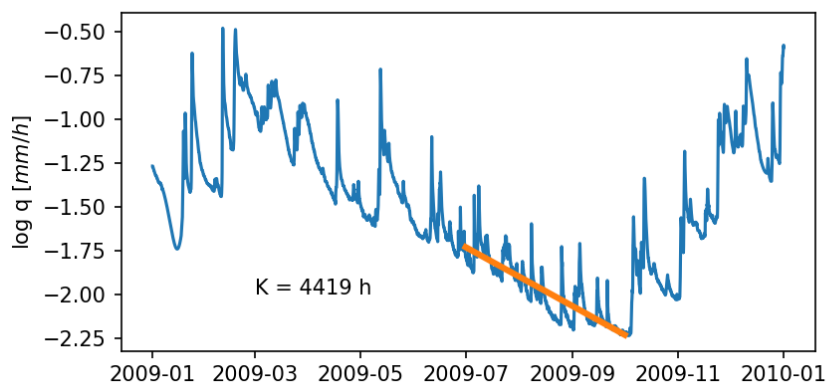


100 the groundwater system would be the only natural body without patterns, which is not
101 very likely.

102
103 This paper is an opinion paper. The author does not provide proof of concept. It is
104 purely meant to open up a debate on how the linear drainage of groundwater from a
105 hillslope can be connected to Darcy's law.

107 2. The linear reservoir

108 At catchment scale, the emergent behaviour of the groundwater system is the linear
109 reservoir. Figure 1 shows a hydrograph of the Ourthe Occidentale in the Ardennes,
110 which on a semi-log paper shows clear linear recession behaviour, overlain by short
111 and fast rainfall responses by rapid subsurface flow, infiltration excess overland flow,
112 or saturation overland flow. This behaviour is very common in first order streams, and
113 even in higher order streams. In water resources management it is well know that
114 recession curves of stream hydrographs can be described by exponential functions,
115 which is congruent with the linear reservoir of groundwater depletion. It follows from
116 the combination of the water balance with the linear reservoir concept. During the
117 recession period there appears to be a disconnect between the root zone system that
118 interacts with the atmosphere and the groundwater that drains towards the stream
119 network. These two separate "water worlds" are well described by Brooks et al.
120 (2009) and by McDonnell (2014) and are substantiated by different isotopic
121 signatures. As a result, we see that during recession only the groundwater reservoir is
122 active.



123
124 **Figure 1.** During the recession period, The Ourthe has a time scale of 4419 hours of the groundwater, acting
125 as a linear reservoir.

126 The water balance during the recession period can thus be described by:

$$127 \frac{dS_g}{dt} = -Q_g$$

128 where S_g [L^3] is the active groundwater storage and Q_g [L^3T^{-1}] is the discharge of
129 groundwater to the stream network.

130
131 The linear reservoir concept assumes a direct proportionality between the active (is
132 dynamic) storage of groundwater and the groundwater flowing towards the drainage
133 network:



134
$$Q_g = \frac{S_g}{K}$$

135 where K [T] is the system time scale, or the average residence time in active storage.

136 Combination with the water balance leads to:

137
$$Q_g = Q_0 \exp(-t / K)$$

138 which is the exponential recession with the system time scale K . So the exponential
139 recession, which we observe at the outfall of natural catchments, is congruent with the
140 linear reservoir concept. But how does this relate to Darcy's law, which applies at
141 laboratory scale?

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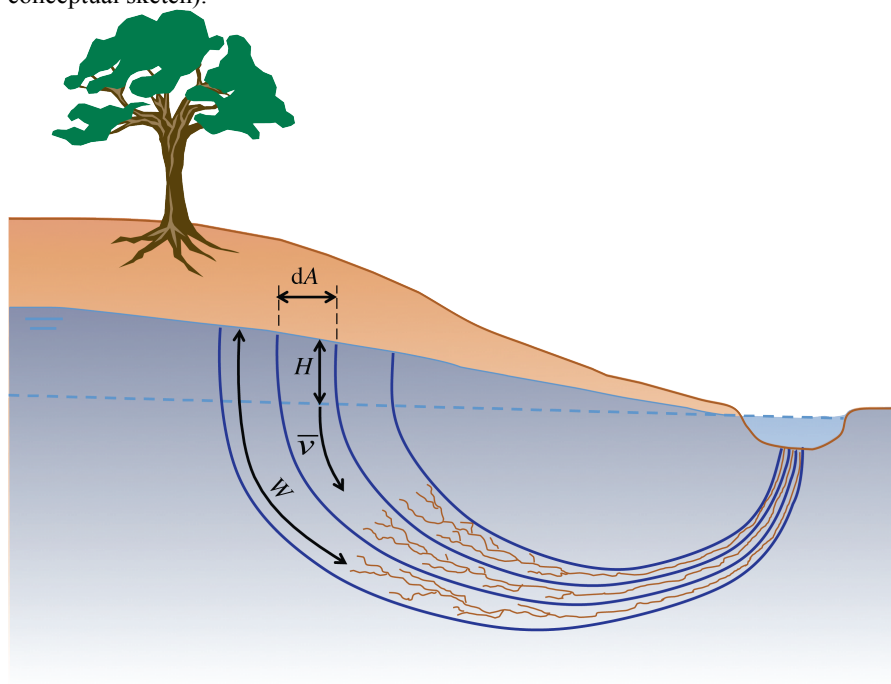
143 3. Upscaling Darcy's law

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145 Darcy's law reads:

146
$$\bar{v} = -k \frac{d\varphi}{dx}$$

147 where \bar{v} is the discharge per unit area or filter velocity [LT^{-1}], k is the conductance
148 [LT^{-1}], φ is the hydraulic head [L] and x [L] is the distance along the stream line. In a
149 drainage network, these streamlines generally form semi-circles, perpendicular to the
150 lines of equipotential, draining almost vertically downward from the point of recharge
151 and subsequently upward when seeping to the open drain (see Figure 2 for a
152 conceptual sketch).



153

154 **Figure 2. Conceptual sketch of an unconfined freatic groundwater body draining towards a surface drain.**
155 **H is the head of the freatic water table with respect to the nearest open water.**

156 Darcy's law appears to work fine in regions with modest slopes, where one can
157 assume layers to exist with conductivities representative for the sediment properties of
158 the layer. In such relatively flat areas, upscaling from the laboratory scale to a region



159 with well-defined layer structure appears to work rather well. This is clear from the
160 many groundwater models, such as MODFLOW, that do well at representing
161 hydraulic heads. However, such regional groundwater models are generally calibrated
162 solely on water levels (hydraulic head) and seldom on flow velocities or flows,
163 leading to equifinality in the determination of spatially variable k values.
164

165 In more strongly sloping areas, however, the subsurface is organised and cannot be
166 assumed to consist of layers with relatively homogeneous properties. Under the
167 influence of a stronger hydraulic gradient, drainage patterns occur in the substrate
168 more or less following the hydraulic gradient along the streamlines. This happens
169 everywhere in nature where water flows through an erodible or soluble material. An
170 initial disturbance leads to the evolution of a drainage network that facilitates the
171 transport of water through the erodible material. The erosion can be physical
172 (breaking up and transporting particles) but can also be chemical (minerals going into
173 solution). The latter is the dominant process in groundwater flow. The precipitation
174 that enters the groundwater system through preferential infiltration (Brooks et al.
175 2009; McDonnell, 2014) is low in mineral composition and hence aggressive to the
176 substrate. The minerals that we find in the stream during low flow (when the river is
177 fed by groundwater) are the erosion products of the drainage network being
178 developed. In the mineral composition of the stream we can see pattern formation at
179 work and derive the rate at which this happens.
180

181 In contrast to the physical drainage structures that we can see on the surface (e.g. river
182 networks, seepage zones on beaches, etc.), sub-surface drainage structures are hard to
183 observe. But they are there. On hillslopes, individual preferential sub-surface flow
184 channels have been observed in trenches, but complete networks are hard to observe
185 without destroying the entire network.
186

187 The hypothesis is that under the ground a drainage system evolves that facilitates the
188 transport of water to the surface drainage network in the most efficient manner. As
189 was demonstrated by Kleidon et al. (2013) an optimal drainage network maximizes
190 the power of the sediment flux, which involves maximum dissipation in the part of the
191 catchment where erosion takes place and minimum energy expenditure in the
192 drainage network. This finding is in line with the findings of Rodriguez-Iturbe and
193 Rinaldo (1997, p.253), who found that minimum energy expenditure defines the
194 structure of surface drainage. Although a surface drainage network has 2-D
195 characteristics on a planar view, the groundwater system has a clear 3-D drainage
196 structure. So we can build on the analogy with a fractal-like 2-D structure of a leaf or
197 a river drainage network, but it is not the same.
198

199 Fractal networks can be described by width functions that determine the average
200 distance of a point to the network. Let's call this distance W . Let's now picture a
201 cross-section over a catchment with an unconfined freatic groundwater body draining
202 towards an open water drain (see Figure 2 for a conceptual sketch). At a certain
203 infinitesimal area dA of the catchment, the drainage distance to the sub-surface
204 network is W . The head difference to the open drain is H . Darcy's equation then
205 becomes:

$$\bar{v} = k \frac{H}{W} = \frac{H}{r_g}$$

206



207 where r_g [T] is the resistance against drainage. This way of expressing the resistance
 208 is similar to the aerodynamic resistance and the stomatal resistance of the Penman-
 209 Monteith equation. It is the resistance of the flux to a difference in head. So, instead
 210 of assuming a constant width to the drainage network, we assume a constant
 211 resistance to flow. This is in fact the purpose of veins in systems like leaves or body
 212 tissues, such as lungs or brains or muscles. The veins make sure that the resistance of
 213 liquids to reach stomata in the leaf, or cells in living tissue, is optimal and equal
 214 throughout the organ. But also in innate material, where gravity and erosive powers
 215 have been at work for millenia, the system is evolving towards an equally distributed
 216 resistance to drainage, much in line with the minimum expenditure theory of
 217 Rodriguez-Iturbe and Rinaldo (1997).

218
 219 Building on Darcy's equation, an infinitesimal area dA of a catchment drains:

$$220 \quad dQ_g = \bar{v} dA$$

221 Interestingly, this drainage (recharge to the groundwater) is downward, so that we can
 222 assume that dA lies in the horizontal plane. If we integrate this over the area of the
 223 catchment that drains on the outfall, and assuming a constant resistance, we obtain:

$$224 \quad Q_g = \int_A \bar{v} dA = \frac{1}{r_g} \int_A H dA = \frac{S_g}{r_g n}$$

225 where n [-] is the average porosity of the active groundwater body (which is the
 226 groundwater body above the drainage level). We see that the areal integral of the head
 227 H equals the volume of saturated substrate above the level of the drain. Multiplied by
 228 the porosity, this volume equals the amount of groundwater stored above the drainage
 229 level, which equals the active storage of groundwater S_g . Comparison with the linear
 230 reservoir provides the following connection between the system time scale K , the
 231 resistance r_g and the average porosity n :

$$232 \quad K = \frac{nW}{k} = r_g n$$

233 As a result, we have been able to connect the "residence time" of the linear reservoir
 234 to the key properties of Darcy's equation, being the porosity, the conductance and the
 235 distance to the sub-surface drainage structure, or better, to the porosity and the
 236 resistance to drainage. This resistance to drainage will evolve over time, as the fractal
 237 structure expands. However, at a human time scale, this expansion may be considered
 238 to be so slow that the system can be assumed to be static.

239 240 **4. Discussion and conclusion**

241 In groundwater flow, connecting the laboratory scale to the system scale requires
 242 knowledge on the structure, shape and composition of the medium that connects the
 243 recharge interface to the drain. Here we have assumed that, much like we see in a
 244 homogenous medium, the flow pattern follows streamlines perpendicular to the lines
 245 of equal head, forming semicircle-like streamlines. This implies that recharge is
 246 essentially vertical and that integration of Darcy's law over the cross-section of a
 247 stream tube takes place in the horizontal plane, and not in a plain perpendicular to the
 248 gradient of the hillslope.

249
 250 The second assumption is that, over time, patterns have evolved along these
 251 streamlines by erosion of the substrate. It is then shown that if the resistance to flow
 252 between the recharge interface and the drainage network is constant over the area of
 253 drainage, that the linear reservoir equation follows from integration. This constant



254 resistance to the hydraulic gradient is similar to what we see in leaves or body tissue.
255 The reason why this property evolves over time is still to be investigated, but it is
256 likely that the reason should be sought, in some way or another, in the second law of
257 thermodynamics.

258
259 This paper does not provide an explanation for the fact that in recharge systems
260 groundwater drains as a linear reservoir. In fact, it raises more fundamental questions:
261 What causes the resistance to entering the drainage network to be constant? What is
262 the process of drainage pattern formation? If the sub-surface forms fractal-like
263 structures, then which formation process lies behind it? And, more practically, what
264 does this imply for groundwater modelling?
265

266 We know from common practice that in mildly sloping areas, groundwater models
267 that spatially integrate Darcy's equation are quite well capable of simulating
268 piezometric heads. We also know that predicting the transport of pollutants in such
269 systems is much less straightforward, requiring the assumption of dual porosities
270 (which are in fact patterns). In more strongly sloping areas, such numerical models
271 are much less efficient to describe groundwater flow. This can, of course, be blamed
272 on the heterogeneity of the substrate, but one could also ask oneself the question if
273 Darcy's equation is the right law to be used at this scale. If under the stronger gradient
274 of a hillslope preferential flow patterns have developed, then we should take the
275 properties of these patterns into account. Fortunately, nature is kind and helpful. It has
276 provided us with the linear reservoir that we can use as an alternative for a highly
277 complex numerical model that has difficulty to reflect the dual porosity of patterns
278 that we cannot observe directly, but of which we can see its simple signature: the
279 linear reservoir with exponential recession.

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