

Dear Dr. Wanders:

Below are Reviewer #4's comments. In bold, you should find our response to those comments.

Please let my coauthors and I know if you need any additional clarification.

Thank you,
Joseph Gutenson

Gutenson et al., performs a comparison of two parsimonious non-data driven reservoirs operation models. The statistical comparison across the models and baseline is appropriate and in general the paper is well written and clearly structured. Compared to the previous version of the manuscript I believe that the authors have addressed most of the concerns raised by the reviewers, although I was not among them. Yet, I have some remaining concerns that I consider should be addressed before accepting the paper for publication.

1) I understand that the authors have qualitatively addressed the choice of the two models D03 and H06 in the introduction due to their parsimony, but I feel that the comparison remains weak as it is. I think the conclusions of the study would be even stronger if the authors included also less parsimonious models, e.g., the Burek et al., 2013 or Zhao et al., 2016 (if data allows to apply them at the daily time step). This has the dual added value to inform the GHM community on potential tradeoffs between model complexity and performance, and shows in which cases a more complex reservoir operation model might be more appropriate.

Response: The authors assert that a comparison between D03, H06, and more complex models is best suited for an additional manuscript. We agree that potential tradeoffs should be better understood. The function of the current article is to determine if a simple, parsimonious approach has utility in large-scale diurnal hydrologic forecasting at reservoirs. We have provided a qualitative description of why D03 and H06 have been chosen. We have improved our qualitative decision by creating Table 1 which describes various non-data-driven models and their associated inputs. In future work, the authors will determine how these parsimonious approaches compare with more complex models. We have noted these limitations in the Limitations section of the manuscript and have listed this future comparison in the Future Work section.

2) I think that a breakdown of the results (especially Figure 2 and 4) based on dam purpose would be very valuable. If most of the dams are multipurpose and include hydropower, then plotting the residuals against the dam's installed capacity might give insights on the potential dependence of the model performance on hydropower potential operation (rather relevant at the daily time step).

Response: While nearly all dams in this study are multipurpose, 45/60 are primarily used for flood control, leaving statistically insignificant sample sizes of the remaining dams with differing primary purposes. We do not analyze the effect of the dam's primary purpose because of the limitations of our current sample of dams. An investigation of the effect of dam purpose on reservoir routing performance should be pursued with a more diverse sample of dams. The authors have noted this within the Future Work section. However, the current limitations of this sample preclude such analysis from providing fruitful results, analysis, and discussion in this work.

3) The limitations section should address the sample bias and related implications. Might very well be that the D03 outperforms the H06 in temperate regions but everywhere else the H06 might be a better choice. For similar reasons I recommend to not implement solely the D03 in RAPID but also the H06 model to extend the performance testing in regions outside the US in future studies.

Response: A discussion of sample bias and related implications has been added to the Limitations section of the manuscript.

Minor remarks:

L. 163-164 abbreviations D03 and H06 are introduced but are already present in the text prior to this point. Should be corrected.

Response: This issue was resolved in the manuscript.

1 **Comparison of Generalized Non-Data-Driven Lake and Reservoir**
2 **Routing Models for Global-Scale Hydrologic Forecasting of Reservoir**
3 **Outflow at Diurnal Time Steps**

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11 Abstract: Large-scale hydrologic forecasts should account for attenuation through lakes
12 and reservoirs when flow regulation is present. Globally generalized methods for
13 approximating outflow are required but must contend with operational complexity and a
14 dearth of information on dam characteristics at global spatial scales. There is currently no
15 consensus on the best approach for approximating reservoir release rates in large spatial
16 scale hydrologic forecasting, particularly at diurnal time steps. This research compares two
17 parsimonious reservoir routing methods at daily steps; Döll et al. (2003) and Hanasaki et
18 al. (2006). These reservoir routing methods have been previously implemented in large-
19 scale hydrologic modeling applications and have been typically evaluated seasonally.
20 These routing methods are compared across 60 reservoirs operated by the U.S. Army Corps
21 of Engineers. The authors vary empirical coefficients for both reservoir routing methods
22 as part of a sensitivity analysis. The method proposed by Döll et al. (2003) outperformed
23 that presented by Hanasaki et al. (2006) at a daily time step and improved model skill over
24 most run-of-the-river conditions. The temporal resolution of the model influences models
25 performances. The optimal model coefficients varied across the reservoirs in this study and
26 model performance fluctuates between wet years and dry years, and for different
27 configurations such as dams in series. Overall, the method proposed by Döll et al. (2003)
28 could enhance large scale hydrologic forecasting, but can be subject to instability under
29 certain conditions.

30

1. Introduction

31 1.1. Importance of Dams in Hydrologic Simulations

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

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

53 Therefore, the significant impacts from dams make inclusion of reservoir operations, or
54 reservoir routing, critical in large scale hydrologic flood forecasting.

55 Integrating dam operations within large-scale river routing and flood forecasting
56 improves model performance downstream of reservoir locations (Snow et al., 2016;
57 Tavakoly et al., 2017; Salas et al., 2017; Zajac et al., 2017). This is often not feasible at
58 large-scales since there may be multiple entities responsible for regulating flow,
59 particularly with respect to transboundary waters. Among other things, operational
60 knowledge, site-specific rule curves, reservoir uses, and local decision-making practices at
61 each individual project dictate dam releases. Thus, dam operations are typically non-linear,
62 complex processes, driven by anthropogenic and environmental influences. This makes
63 generalizing reservoir operations difficult, particularly in the context of predicting dam-
64 induced hydrologic responses at diurnal or sub-diurnal time step. Heuristically accounting
65 for dams within existing routing schemes should improve flood forecast results when
66 scheduled releases are not readily known.

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

76 them. This is often an insurmountable limitation for data-driven approaches. For that
77 reason, the focus of this paper is on non-data-driven reservoir routing methodologies as an
78 incremental improvement over schemes that effectively neglect dams when information is
79 scarce.

80 1.2. Non-Data-Driven Reservoir Storage and Outflow Simulation

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

85 Existing non-data-driven reservoir models range from simple approaches to
86 sophisticated methods. Solander et al. (2016) showed that temperature-based schema best
87 fits the modeling of discharge, $Q_{out,t}$. The Solander et al. (2016) rule is driven by
88 temperature shifts at each model time step above and below the mean temperature. The
89 Solander et al. (2016) method indicates that temperature is the main proxy governing
90 reservoir release, due to the assumption that seasonality drives agricultural production and
91 reservoir operation. However, the Solander et al. (2016) study focuses on long-term
92 climatic forecasting. Diurnal temperature variations will not likely describe day-to-day
93 reservoir operations. Zhao et al., (2016) developed a reservoir routing scheme based on
94 reservoir stage and storage rules. However, real-time insights related to current reservoir
95 stages throughout a region can involve considerable remotely sensed information. The
96 stage information must then be related somehow to storage volume making this a much
97 more data-driven process. Burek et al. (2013) also developed a non-data-driven approach
98 to reservoir routing which was implemented by Zajac et al. (2017). This approach is built

99 into the LISFLOOD model. The Burek et al. (2013) model requires a number of
100 assumptions about storage capacity limits and naturalized streamflow thresholds. For
101 example, the minimum, normal, and maximum storage are assumed to be 0.1, 0.3, and
102 0.97, respectively. To maintain the objective of investigating parsimonious models, the
103 approach by Burek et al. (2013) was not included in this evaluation.

104 Döll et al. (2003), Wada et al. (2014), and Wisser et al. (2010) presented non-data-
105 driven methods to simulate reservoirs operation that can be considered as simple
106 approaches. The Wisser et al. (2010) method follows a simple, rule-based approach to
107 define the reservoir outflow at each time step ($Q_{out,t}$). The rule that Wisser et al. (2010)
108 enacts is that when the inflow at each model time step moves above or below the long-term
109 average inflow, the behavior of the reservoir release changes. De Vos (2015) suggested
110 that this model is too simple to effectively model reservoir outflow. In a similar vein, Wada
111 et al. (2014) introduced a daily estimate of reservoir outflow that is simply the product of
112 the proportion of available reservoir storage and daily inflow, which can be too simplistic
113 to estimate reservoir outflow since no coefficient is introduced into the simulation to
114 account for reservoir heterogeneity.

115 Döll et al. (2003) derived reservoir routing scheme that can be applied to man-made
116 reservoirs and natural water bodies. The Döll et al. (2003) methodology found genesis in
117 the reservoir outflow model proposed by Meigh et al. (1999). Meigh et al. (1999) proposed
118 a simple reservoir release methodology, which intended to mimic outflow at reservoirs
119 from a theoretical rectangular weir. A more substantive version of the Meigh et al. (1999)
120 method is formulated by Döll et al. (2003). Despite its simplicity, the Döll et al. (2003)
121 method demonstrated good performance compared to several other routing methods (De

122 Vos, 2015). The form of the Döll et al. (2003) equation is similar to that proposed by Wada
123 et al. (2014). However, the Döll et al. (2003) methodology incorporates a coefficient that
124 can incorporate a portion of reservoir heterogeneity.

125 Compared to the aforementioned methods, Hanasaki et al. (2006) derived a demand
126 driven approach to reservoir routing, which can be considered a complicated non-data-
127 driven reservoir routing model. They distinguished between irrigation and non-irrigation
128 reservoirs and offered two distinct algorithms for each. Water demands for irrigation,
129 domestic, and industrial uses are considered in the irrigation reservoirs, whereas the
130 releases from non-irrigation reservoirs are simply a proportion of inflow.

131 De Vos (2015) also proposed a within-year/over-year reservoir routing method
132 comprised of two systems of equations, which was considered a non-data-driven approach.
133 Within-year reservoir operations are driven by yearly fill and release cycles and typically
134 have a small storage capacity relative to their total annual demand. Thus, water
135 accumulates during wet periods and decreases during dry periods. Over-year reservoir
136 operation, on the other hand, is based on long-term, multi-year drawdowns. Over-year
137 reservoirs have storage which is sufficiently large, relative to inflow, so that yearly cycles
138 of water storage and release are not necessary (Adeloye and Montaseri, 2000; Vogel et al.,
139 1999). De Vos (2015) compared his methodology to the Hanasaki et al (2006), Döll et al.
140 (2003), and Neitsch et al. (2011). The De Vos (2015) over-year simulation assumes
141 knowledge of the mean and standard deviation of reservoir storage and is still too data-
142 driven for the purposes of this study. [Table 1 summarizes each of the inputs required by](#)
143 [each non-data-driven approach described above.](#)

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Table 1. Input requirements for the various reservoir routing methods.

	<u>Burek et al. (2013)</u>	<u>Zhao et al. (2016)</u>	<u>De Vos (2015)</u>	<u>Solander et al. (2016)</u>	<u>Döll et al. (2003)</u>	<u>Hanasaki et al. (2006) Non-irrigation Method</u>	<u>Wisser et al. (2010)</u>	<u>Wada et al. (2014)</u>
<u>Reservoir Inflow at time step</u>	X	X		X	X	X	X	X
<u>Empirical Coefficients</u>		X		X	X	X	X	
<u>Minimum Storage/Inactive Storage Limit</u>	X	X	X		X	X		X
<u>Maximum Storage/Flood Storage Limit</u>	X	X	X		X	X		X
<u>Average Storage</u>			X					
<u>Standard Deviation of Storage</u>			X					
<u>Water Stored at model time step</u>	X	X		X	X			
<u>Average Inflow</u>	X		X			X	X	
<u>Flood Inflow</u>		X						
<u>Air Temperature</u>				X				
<u>Conservation Storage Limit</u>		X						
<u>Normal Storage Limit</u>	X							
<u>Normal Outflow</u>	X							
<u>Non-Damaging Outflow</u>	X							
<u>Precipitation on the Reservoir</u>	X							
<u>Evaporation From the Reservoir</u>	X							
<u>Fill Fraction</u>	X							
<u>Average Total Winter Inflow</u>				X				
<u>Pool Elev. at model time step</u>		X						
<u>Pool Elev. at top of inactive storage</u>		X						
<u>Pool Elev. at the top of conservation storage</u>		X						
<u>Pool Elev. at the top of flood storage</u>		X						
<u>Flood Seasonality</u>			X					
<u>Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index</u>			X					

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The Döll et al. (2003) and Hanasaki et al. (2006) require minimal input data to implement: reservoir inflow, average inflow, and storage volume characteristics. Each of

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150 these variables are available in existing datasets, such as the Global Reservoir and Dam
151 (GRanD) database (Lehner et al., 2011) or can be generated using climate reanalysis data
152 (Snow et al., 2016). Other non-data-driven methods require data inputs that are not globally
153 available or produced within the hydrologic simulation (De Vos, 2015; Zhao et al., 2016;
154 Burek et al., 2013; Zajac et al., 2017). For example, the Global Flood Awareness System
155 (GloFAS) is the only existing, operational flood forecasting system that accounts for
156 reservoirs at continental to global spatial extents. However, the reservoir routing
157 component of GloFAS requires operational assumptions be made because of a lack of
158 global reservoir operational records (Zajac et al., 2017). [Döll et al. \(2003\) \(hereafter](#)
159 [referred to as D03](#)) and [Hanasaki et al. \(2006\) \(hereafter referred to as H06\)](#) do not
160 require that these assumptions be made because of the minimal inputs which they require.
161 Thus, D03 and H06 meet the requirements of being ~~both~~ parsimonious with respect to
162 available reservoir information.

163 The Döll et al. (2003) and Hanasaki et al. (2006) methods also provide enough
164 complexity to account for a portion of the model complexity inherent in reservoir
165 operations. De Vos (2015) does not employ the reservoir routing approach of Wisser et al.
166 (2010) because De Vos (2015) ~~and neither does this research, contends that this method is~~
167 ~~overly simplistic as it does not account for the status of the reservoir at each simulation~~
168 ~~time step.~~ The approach taken by Wada et al. (2014) is similar to D03 but represents
169 reservoirs with similar inflow and storage characteristics homogeneously.

170 Furthermore, ~~Döll et al. (2003) (hereafter referred to as D03)~~ and ~~Hanasaki et al.~~
171 ~~(2006) (hereafter referred to as H06)~~ methods have been implemented in large-scale
172 hydrologic models. D03 was used in the WaterGAP model and the application of H06 was

173 implemented in the TRIP model by the same authors. The main difference in this
174 evaluation and previous evaluations (i.e., Hanasaki et al., 2006; Masaki et al., 2017) of
175 these reservoir routing schemes is that this research evaluates model performance at a
176 diurnal time step.

177 The aim of this study is to assess non-data-driven reservoir routing methods that
178 are parsimonious and align with available information for use in hydrologic forecasting
179 schemes applicable across the global domain at diurnal time steps. Considering these
180 research aims, the non-data driven reservoir routing methods developed by Döll et al.
181 (2003) and Hanasaki et al. (2006) were considered.

182 The following research questions are addressed with respect to the D03 and H06
183 approaches: (1) How well do the selected reservoir routing models improve outflow
184 estimates relative to simulation of naturalized flow (i.e. neglecting dams altogether)? (2)
185 How do reservoir routing coefficients affect model performance? (3) How does the time
186 step affect model performance and stability? This is a critical point for the current regional-
187 to continental-scale forecasting schemes that operate at daily or sub-daily time steps. (4)
188 How sensitive are the reservoir routing schemes to various real-world dam operations and
189 climate variability?

190 To achieve the research objectives of the study, reservoir data including daily
191 inflow and outflow from 2006-2012, for 60 U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE)
192 reservoirs were used to evaluate the reservoir routing schemes. The data were obtained
193 from nine USACE districts: Pittsburg, Nashville, St. Paul, Rock Island, Omaha, Tulsa,
194 Sacramento, Los Angeles, and Vicksburg. The selected dams are representative of a wide
195 range of reservoir sizes, flow regimes, and climatologic settings but are predominately

196 managed for flood control. The results of this analysis will benefit readers in determining
197 if the reservoir routing models implemented within existing, large-scale hydrologic
198 forecasts adequately represent reservoir effects.

199 2. Methodology

200 2.1. Simulation Specifications

201 The storage ratio (Vogel et al., 1999) or Impoundment Ratio is an important metric
202 in previous works examining generalizing reservoir operation (-De Vos, 2015; Hanasaki et
203 al., 2006). The impoundment ratio is described as follows:

$$204 \quad 205 \quad IR = \frac{(S_{max}-S_{min})}{Q_{in}*86400*365} \quad (1)$$

206 where S_{max} and S_{min} are the maximum and minimum volumes of the reservoir's active
207 storage [m³], and Q_{in} is the mean annual inflow to the reservoir [m³s⁻¹].

209 A higher impoundment ratio indicates that the capacity of the reservoir is large
210 relative to mean inflows, while the opposite is true of low IR values. De Vos (2015)
211 considered IR values greater than unity “large” reservoirs, as they are capable of storing
212 the average yearly volume of water flowing into them. To utilize H06, the release
213 coefficient (k_r) needs to be determined.

$$214 \quad 215 \quad k_r = \frac{S_{begin}}{\alpha S_{max}} \quad (2)$$

216 where S_{begin} is the storage [m³] at the beginning of each year and α is a dimensionless
217 coefficient, which was set to 0.85 in the Hanasaki et al. (2006) study. In the current study,
218 the α parameter was varied from 0.45-0.95 by increments of 0.10 and solve k_r for each α
219 value.

220 Outflow is the quantity of most interest for hydrologic flood forecasting because
 221 these forecasts generally occur over a relatively short 0-10 day lead time. H06 relates
 222 outflow based on the incoming flow. In this study, only the non-irrigation methodology
 223 from H06 was used to simulate reservoir outflow at each time step ($Q_{out,t}$) since one cannot
 224 assume seasonal irrigation demands will be known globally. Further, the primary purpose
 225 of reservoirs selected in this study is not irrigation. the H06 method estimates outflow as
 226 follows:

$$227 \quad Q_{out,t} = \begin{cases} k_r Q_{in,t} & (IR = 0.5) \\ \left(\frac{IR}{0.5}\right)^2 Q_{in,t} + Q_{in,t} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{IR}{0.5}\right)^2\right\} & (0 < IR < 0.5) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

229 where $Q_{in,t}$ is the inflow [m^3s^{-1}] at time t and k_r is the release coefficient which is
 230 calculated based on Equation 2. The 0.5 threshold value for IR is an empirical condition
 231 derived by Hanasaki et al. (2006).
 232

233 Unlike H06, D03 relates outflow ($Q_{out,t}$) to current available storage capacity of
 234 the reservoir:

$$235 \quad Q_{out,t} = \frac{k_{rd}}{\Delta t} (S_t - S_{min}) \frac{(S_t - S_{min})^{1.5}}{(S_{max} - S_{min})} \quad (4)$$

236 Where Döll empirically derives the release coefficient, $k_{rd} = 0.01$, Δt is the simulation
 237 time step (s), and S_t is the current volume of storage [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] at time t. For this study the
 238 D03, k_{rd} was varied using values of 0.01, 0.02, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08, 0.10, 0.20, 0.40, 0.50, 0.60,
 239 0.70, 0.80, and 0.90.
 240

241 The sensitivity analysis of k_r and k_{rd} can provide useful information on how
 242 coefficients may vary based on geographical and reservoir characteristics such as the
 243 impoundment ratio. The two methods were evaluated and results compared to actual

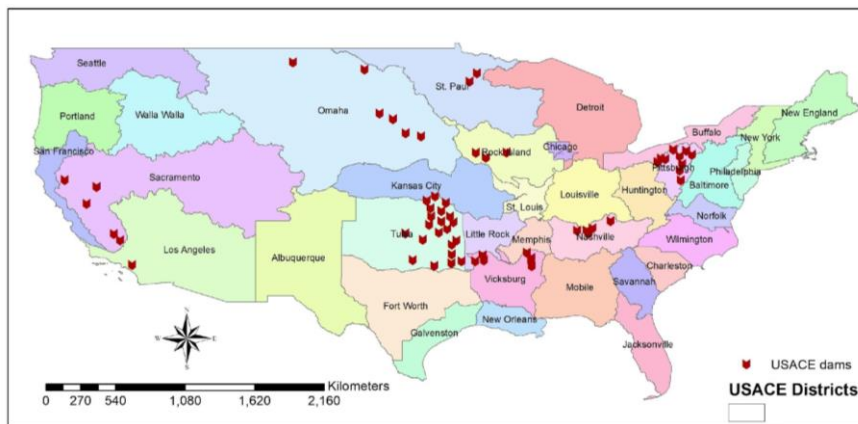
244 outflow records provided by the USACE Districts. Two approaches were used to evaluate
245 model performance: hydrograph assessment of daily and monthly reservoir outflow and
246 statistical evaluation. The statistical evaluation was performed for daily and monthly
247 averaged simulated results vs. observations using the Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE, Gupta
248 et al., 2009), coefficient of determination (R-Squared), and root mean square error
249 (RMSE). The KGE value ranges from negative infinity to one. Four levels of performance
250 were defined for KGE in this study (Tavakoly et al., 2017): poor performance ($KGE < 0$),
251 acceptable ($0 < KGE < 0.4$), good ($0.4 < KGE < 0.7$), and very good ($0.7 < KGE$).
252 Goodness-of-fit values were evaluated to compare simulated discharge to the actual
253 outflow records provided by the USACE Districts. These are indicators of how well the
254 models perform. The same goodness-of-fit values are calculated to compare actual
255 discharge with inflow to assess baseline performance. The baseline condition represents
256 the treatment of reservoir outflow as naturalized, altogether neglecting reservoir
257 operations. Thus, the baseline condition is that inflow into the reservoir equals outflow
258 from the reservoir. To be viable, the reservoir routing scheme should improve results over
259 the baseline condition in virtually all cases.

260 A true directly measured daily inflow is not available for most reservoirs, including
261 those maintained by the USACE. There are two ways that one can acquire a daily reservoir
262 inflow; estimated using a streamflow model (as in Masaki et al., 2017; Zajac et al., 2017)
263 or estimated using a back calculated inflow based on the known discharge and observed
264 changes in reservoir storage (as in De Vos, 2015). The authors have chosen to utilize a
265 back calculated inflow because this methodology inherently accounts for all other
266 withdraws from the reservoir, such as irrigation, evapotranspiration, seepage, etc. This

267 allows the study to focus exclusively on the reservoir routing methodology. In fact, that
268 would double count withdrawals from the reservoir.

269 2.2. Study Area

270 The model evaluations were conducted on 60 reservoirs in the United States
271 maintained by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE). Figure 1 illustrates reservoirs
272 used in this study. The primary purpose of 43 of the reservoirs are flood control, six are
273 hydroelectric, four are recreation, three are water supply, two are classified as other, one is
274 irrigation, and one is a fish and wildlife pond. Despite most reservoirs in the sample being
275 primarily purposed as flood control reservoirs, only three of these reservoirs are exclusively
276 purposed for flood control. Table 1 describes pertinent characteristics of each reservoir in
277 this analysis.



278 Figure 1. USACE districts and location of reservoirs in this study.
279

280

Table 21. Select statistical characteristics of reservoirs analyzed in this study.

Characteristic	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Minimum Storage ($m^3 \cdot 10^6$)	0 - 12,377	827	2,553
Maximum Storage ($m^3 \cdot 10^6$)	25 - 32,070	2,695	6,184
Annual Inflow ($m^3/s \cdot 10^6$)	0.64 - 780	118	202
Annual Outflow (m^3/s)	0.66 - 776	113	195
Impoundment Ratio	0.03 - 15.50	1.96	2.33

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3. Results and Discussion

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This section describes the overall results of the study. There is significant

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improvement in skill over the baseline (the use of inflow as an estimate of outflow) when

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the optimal D03 coefficient is chosen. D03 tends to outperform the baseline. H06

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generally mirrors the results of the baseline. For this reason the discussion largely focuses

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on D03. The authors examine the distribution of best fitting k_{rd} values. We discuss how

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dam systems, annual variability, and simulation time step can influence the ability of D03

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to estimate reservoir outflow. The authors also discuss the potential for numeric

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instability in D03 simulations and offer an initial solution to this instability. We also

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provide an overview of the limitations of this study and suggested future work.

292

3.1. Overall Model Performances

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

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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

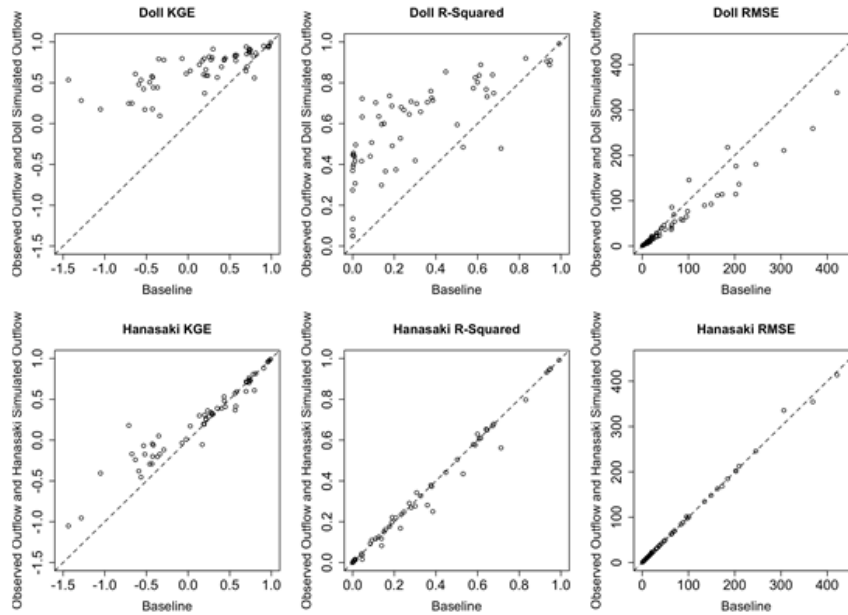
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estimates for reservoir outflow over the use of unregulated flow as the reservoir outflow

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estimate. Figure 2 illustrates the comparison of skill metrics between baseline and the use

298 of D03 and H06 to simulate outflow. The KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE for D03 and H06
299 in Figure 2 represent the best fit results from the sensitivity study. Data points in Figure 2
300 that fall below the dashed line represent instances where KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE are
301 lower for the reservoir routing method compared to the baseline. Data points falling above
302 the dashed line indicate instances where higher KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE were obtained
303 than the baseline for this study. H06 tends to show minimal utility over the baseline
304 scenario. In general, H06 does not appear to make outflow estimates worse. Estimates that
305 have acceptable KGE values in the baseline scenario tend to produce acceptable results
306 using H06. On the other hand, Figure 2 illustrates that D03 generally tends to increase KGE
307 and R-Squared, and with this increase in goodness-of-fit, decrease RMSE. Thus, the
308 general conclusion is that selecting the optimum D03 release coefficient will ultimately
309 produce an improved estimate of reservoir outflow compared to the baseline. Generally,
310 H06 will produce an estimated reservoir outflow that performs similarly to the baseline
311 scenario.



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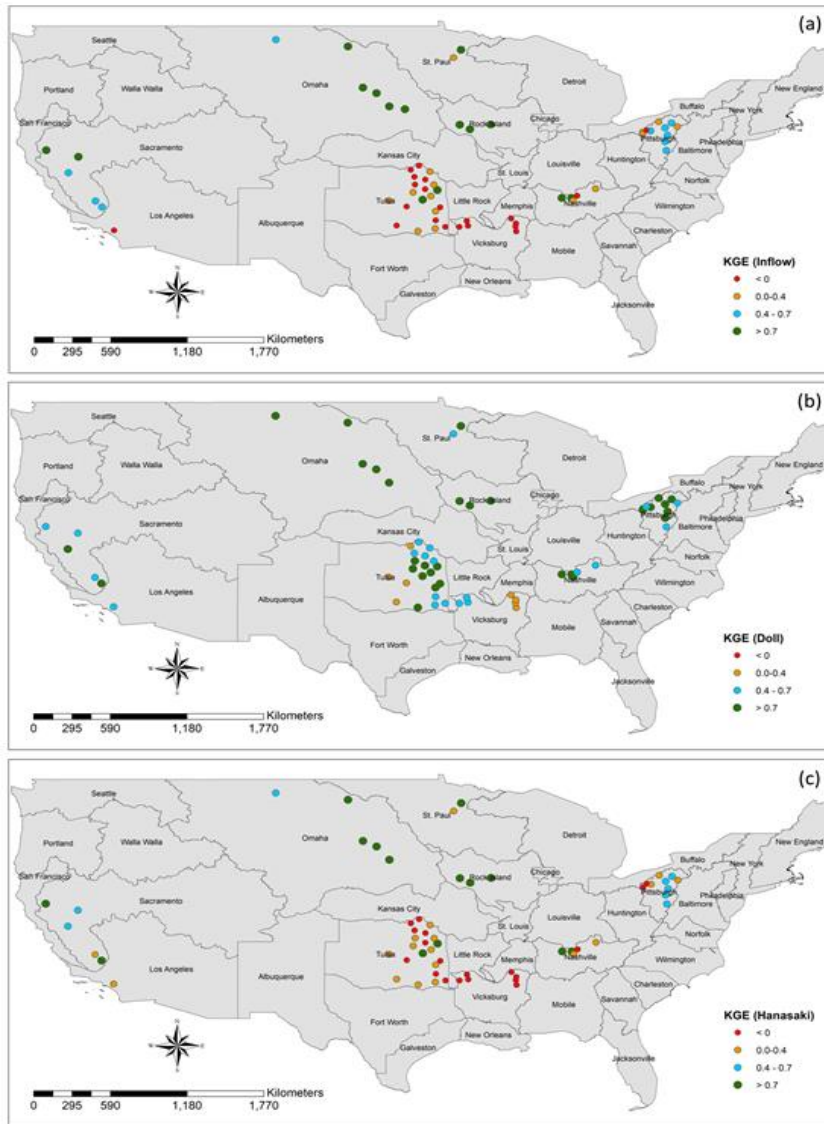
313 Figure 2. Scatter plots of skill metrics between the use of daily observed inflow as outflow (Baseline) and
 314 simulated outflow from best performing D03 and H06 simulations. The dashed line indicates the plane
 315 separating increased and decreased skill that results from using either reservoir routing method.

316 Figure 3 is a geographic representation of the KGE values from the baseline
 317 scenario as well as the best performing implementation of the two routing models for each
 318 reservoir. In general, D03 outperforms the baseline and H06, particularly in the Tulsa and
 319 Pittsburg Districts. H06 tends to provide, at best, minimal improvement in accuracy over
 320 the baseline.

321 D03 tends to improve KGE values at nearly all reservoirs and tends to preserve
 322 high KGE values at locations where the baseline is already a good or very good estimator
 323 of outflow. Only one of the 60 reservoirs in this study demonstrates a significant reduction
 324 in accuracy when D03 is applied. This reservoir, Martis Creek Dam in the Sacramento
 325 District, appears to be an outlier in the reservoir sample. Reservoirs with a similar IR and
 326 average inflow to Martis Creek Dam and in the same USACE district tended to experience

327 improvement in model skill with D03. Overall, when the appropriate k_{rd} value is applied,
328 D03 improves simulation results over the baseline.

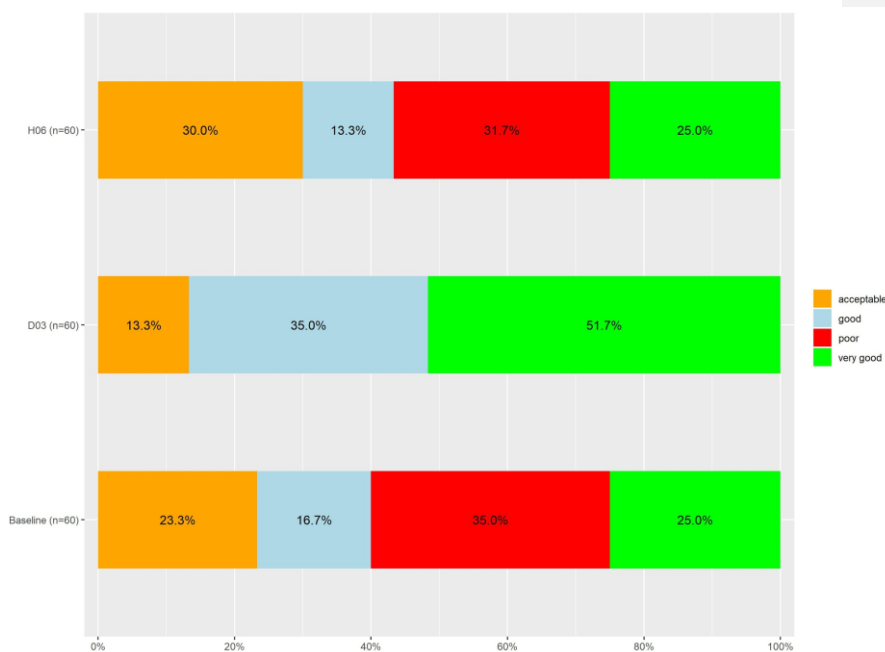
329 Figure 3a illustrates the wide range of reservoir operating conditions present in the
330 study. The reservoir dataset contains reservoirs in which the outflow correlates poorly with
331 the inflow regime as others that correlates well. Figure 3a also portrays significant
332 geographic clustering where reservoirs in certain regions tend to be less correlated with
333 inflow and other clusters where observed inflow and observed outflow correlate strongly.
334 This could indicate that operations at these reservoirs may have a particularly regional
335 context and may bias towards a particular reservoir routing scheme. However, correlation
336 between observed inflow and observed outflow and geographic proximity of the reservoirs
337 does not influence the implementation of either D03 or H06. Thus, the results of this
338 research indicate no significant geographic constraints in the context of this study.



339

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

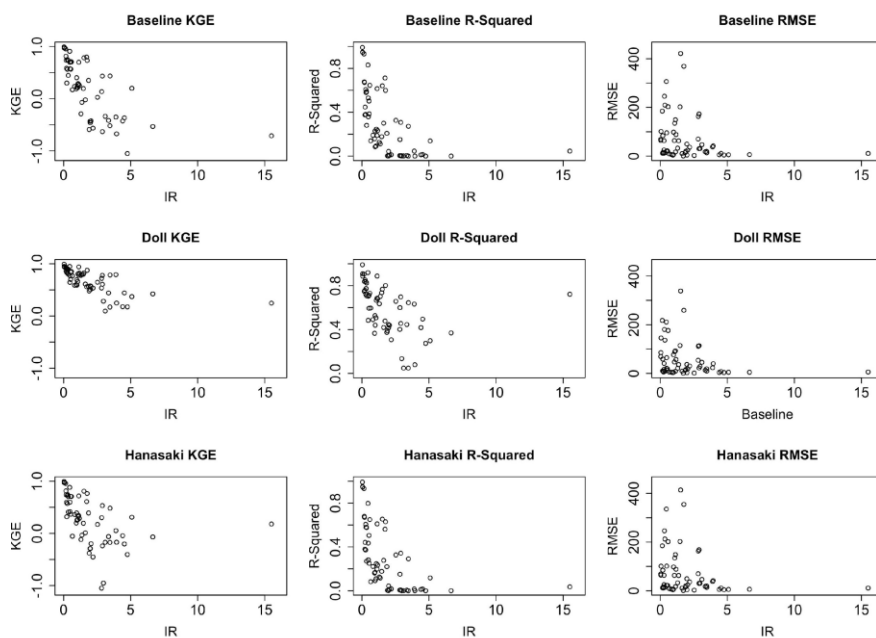
344 Figure 4 presents a proportional bar chart comparing baseline KGE and the highest
 345 KGE value for the range D03 and H06 coefficients. This plot categorizes KGE
 346 performance using the same bins as Figure 3. Figure 4 indicates that the best performing
 347 H06 simulation provides only marginal improvement over the baseline condition.
 348 However, the best performing instance of D03 eliminates all poor performing baseline
 349 conditions. Nearly 87% of all best performing D03 simulations are considered to be good
 350 or very good at accurately capturing reservoir outflows, a 22% increase above the baseline
 351 simulation.



352
 353 Figure 4. Proportional bar chart comparing the baseline outflow estimation and the best KGE results for D03
 354 and H06.

355 From multivariate comparison, a negative relationship between two of the best fit
 356 results (KGE and R-Squared) and reservoir IR was found. Figure 5 illustrates this
 357 comparison between IR and each goodness of fit metric for the baseline, D03, and H06.

358 KGE in particular appears non-linearly correlated to IR. A similar, yet less significant,
 359 negative relationship was found between IR and R-Squared. Little statistical correlation
 360 appears to occur between IR and RMSE. However, KGE and R-Squared values in Figure
 361 5 indicate that the ability to predict outflow using the reservoir routing techniques applied
 362 in this study decreases with reservoir with high IR values.



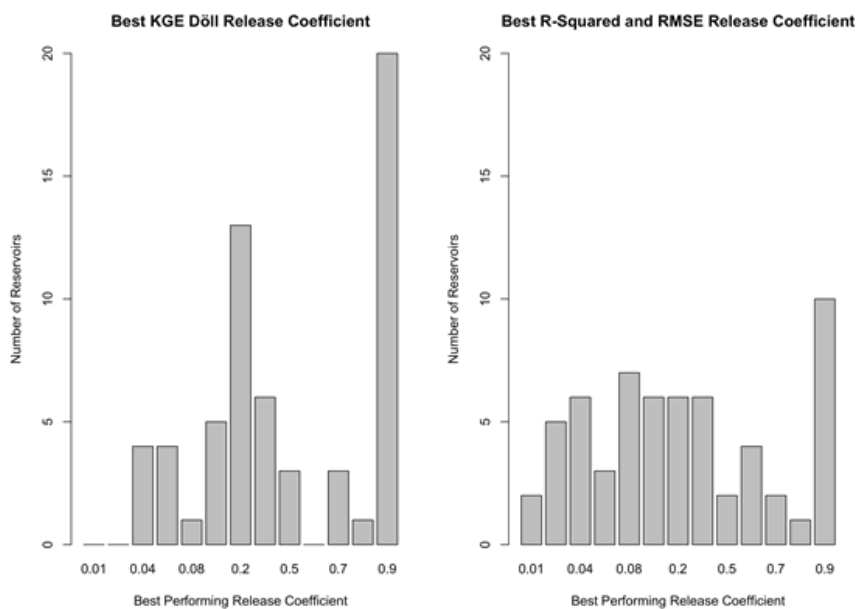
363

364 Figure 5. Comparison of IR and best KGE, R-Squared, and RMSE from goodness of fit metrics for baseline,
 365 D03, and H06.

366 3.2. Sensitivity Analysis of Models

367 Because D03 consistently outperforms H06 at daily time steps, D03 was selected
 368 for the sensitivity analysis at daily time steps. The value of k_{rd} coefficient was introduced
 369 as 0.01 in the Döll et al. (2003) study. In this study, k_{rd} values were varied to obtain
 370 maximum KGE and R-Squared and minimum RMSE. Figure 6 demonstrates the

371 dispersion of k_{rd} values which maximize the model skill for all reservoirs in this study.
 372 For all model skill metrics, $k_{rd}=0.90$ tends to be the most prevalent k_{rd} value that
 373 maximizes model skill. In only two of the 60 reservoirs (Sardis Dam and Enid Dam) $k_{rd} =$
 374 0.01 maximizes R-Squared and minimizes RMSE for the range of k_{rd} coefficients. This
 375 research suggests that the $k_{rd} = 0.01$ is not necessarily the optimum coefficient to
 376 maximize model performance using a daily simulation time step.



377

378 Figure 6. Bar charts of k_{rd} values that maximize KGE and correlation and minimize RMSE.

379 Investigating the linkage between dam characteristics and the best performing k_{rd}
 380 yields no clear relationship. Evaluation of correlation between IR, coefficient of variation
 381 of inflow, ratio of average inflow to average outflow, and geographic location shows low
 382 correlation between each variable and best performing k_{rd} value. However, the range of

383 best performing k_{rd} within this analysis and as demonstrated in Figure 6 suggests that the
384 value is not constant across all reservoirs. Thus, as one implements D03 within their
385 hydrologic forecasting framework, k_{rd} may be adjusted to optimize streamflow estimates
386 to gage observations, like those curated by the Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC, 2018),
387 when available.

388 3.3. Dam Systems and Reservoir Routing

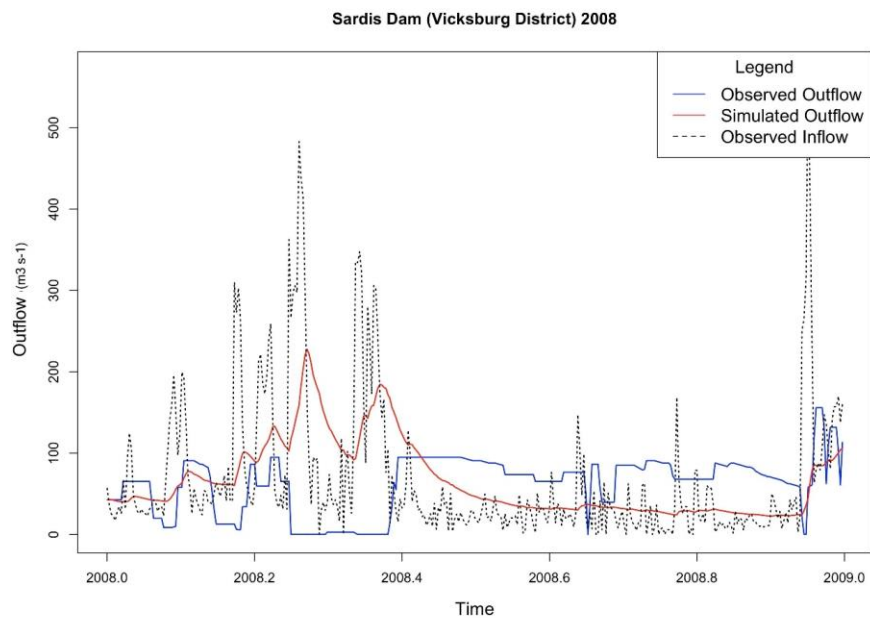
389 Reservoirs in the Vicksburg and Omaha districts were selected to evaluate
390 performance of D03 in environments where reservoirs operate in a coordinated fashion.
391 We broadly refer to these as dam systems. The case of the Vicksburg and Omaha district
392 reservoirs highlights two distinct types of dam systems; one where the dams do not
393 contribute inflow into one another but still coordinate their releases (in parallel) and another
394 where upstream releases flow into downstream reservoirs (in series).

395 A subset of the reservoirs in the Vicksburg District comprise the Yazoo Basin
396 Headwaters Project. Although the reservoirs in the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project are
397 not directly connected, the reservoir operators coordinate operations in order to minimize
398 flooding in Mississippi's Delta region (Arkabutla Lake History, 2017; USACE, 1987). The
399 operation of these reservoirs presents an interesting case in which the non-date driven
400 models in this study do not characterize the nature of the dam releases well. The modeled
401 results at four Vicksburg District dams yield only minimal improvement over unregulated
402 (i.e. naturalized) flow at these reservoirs. The decrease in reservoir routing performance
403 can be attributed to the large impoundment ratios at these dams indicating the reservoir
404 storage is large relative to annual volume of inflow.

405 The reservoirs of interest in the Vicksburg District include Arkabutla, Sardis, Enid,
406 and Grenada. These dams function in parallel on tributaries of the lower Mississippi River,
407 namely the Coldwater River, Little Tallahatchie River, Yocona River, and Yalobusha
408 River, respectively. Together, these dams control flooding in northern Mississippi as part
409 of the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project (Arkabutla Lake History, 2017; USACE, 1987).
410 The Yazoo Basin reservoirs discharge directly into the heavily regulated Mississippi River
411 (Meade and Moody, 2010). The reservoirs operate to ensure high releases are not
412 concurrent with large flows upstream on the Mississippi to avoid devastating flooding to
413 the low-lying Louisiana delta regions. This requires a high level of coordination throughout
414 the Yazoo Basin Headwater Project and with regulation upstream on the Mississippi.
415 Additionally, each of the Yazoo Basin reservoirs have a substantial impoundment ratio,
416 ranging from 2.96-3.95. In other words, the reservoirs are capable of containing large
417 volumes of water to mitigate downstream impacts. Thus, current pool levels and forecasted
418 inflow at these four reservoirs do not substantially influence release decisions. The
419 reservoirs also have the capacity to absorb large flood events. As a result, they do not seem
420 to follow the same functional form as the majority of dams in this study.

421 Figure 7 from Sardis Dam in the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project demonstrates the
422 hydrograph comparing observed inflow and outflow and the modeled outflow that provides
423 the highest KGE (D03, $k_{rd}=0.90$) for the year 2008. Figure 7 demonstrates that peak
424 outflows do not tend to correspond to the time at which peak inflow occurs. In fact, release
425 rates at Sardis Dam are at a minimum during the peak inflow time period. This pattern
426 repeats at each of the reservoirs in the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project indicating that
427 inflow and consumed storage are not substantial predictors of outflow timing at these

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

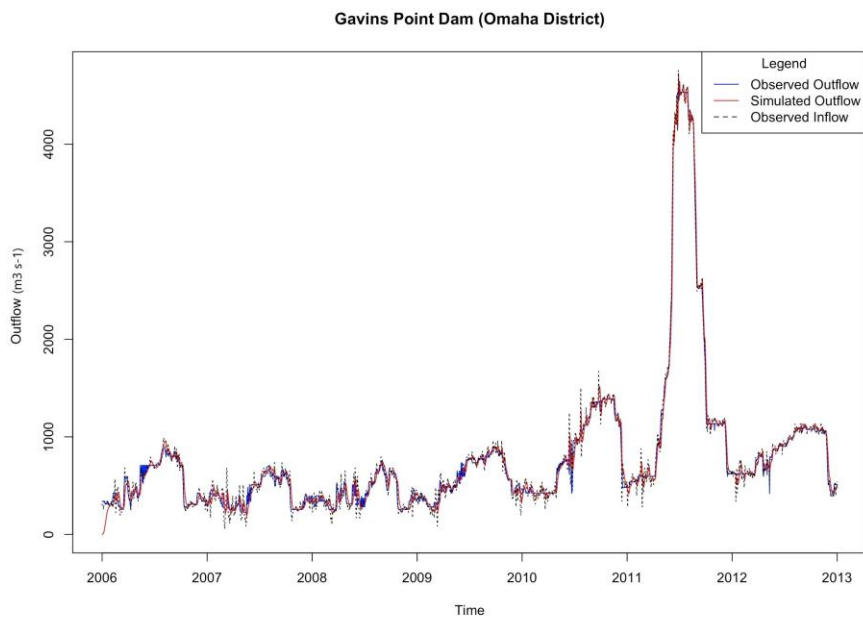


430

431 Figure 7. Hydrographs of observed inflow and outflow versus simulated outflow with the highest KGE value
432 at Sardis Dam (Döll method $k_{rd}=0.90$). KGE comparing observed Inflow and outflow = - 0.34; KGE
433 comparing simulated and observed outflows= 0.095

434 Dams operating in series represent a specific case where compounding model error
435 is a particular concern. USACE operates several large dams in series on the Missouri River.
436 These include Fort Peck, Garrison, Oahe, Big Bend, Fort Randall, and Gavins Point within
437 in the Omaha District (Lund and Ferreira, 1996). For this cascading system on the Missouri
438 River, inflow appears to be a progressively stronger predictor of outflow from upstream to
439 downstream. At the upstream end the baseline yielded a KGE=0.43 at Fork Peck with a
440 KGE=0.99 downstream at Gavins Point Dam. Figure 8 provides a comparison of observed

441 inflow and outflow along with simulated outflow for Gavins Point Dam. D03 tends to
442 provide a slightly better estimate of outflow compared with inflow, except in the instance
443 of Big Bend Dam. At Big Bend Dam, H06 produces an estimate of outflow more consistent
444 with observed outflow than either D03 or inflow alone. However, the differences are almost
445 trivial considering how well inflow alone performed in this case. D03 is particularly
446 accurate during peak inflow conditions, for example the large hydrologic event in mid-
447 2011 at Gavins Point Dam in Figure 8. The performance of non-data driven approaches in
448 this instance is promising since compounding errors are a large concern in this type of
449 system. Other instances involving dams in series should be evaluated to determine out if
450 these findings hold more generally.



451

452 Figure 8. Hydrographs of observed inflow and outflow versus simulated outflow with the highest KGE value
453 at Gavins Point Dam (Döll method $k_{rd}=0.04$). KGE comparing observed Inflow and outflow = 0.99; KGE
454 comparing simulated and observed outflows= 0.99.

455 Reservoir management is unique in both the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project and
456 the Missouri River. The operators of dams within the Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project tend
457 to regulate outflow in a manner that is more in line with downstream conditions. The
458 attention to downstream conditions is due mainly to the impact that downstream floods will
459 have on the low-lying communities within the Louisiana Delta. The dams in the Yazoo
460 Basin Headwaters Project have among the highest impoundment ratios, which inherently
461 reduces the influence of upstream conditions in discharge decisions. The non-data driven
462 approaches evaluated here do not account for downstream conditions and thus do not
463 perform well in this instance, particularly where large impoundment ratios allow operators
464 considerable leeway.

465 On the other hand, the non-data driven approaches tend to perform well when
466 inflow conditions dictate discharge decisions as we see on the Missouri River system.
467 Reservoirs with smaller impoundment ratios are naturally more responsive to inflow
468 requiring greater consideration for upstream conditions. D03 showed relatively small
469 improvement of outflow estimates compared to inflow as a predictor of outflow in the
470 Yazoo Basin Reservoirs, while the method provided reasonable estimates in dam systems
471 like the Missouri River system. Therefore, it can be inferred that D03 is more applicable
472 for dam systems where reservoir management focuses on upstream hydrologic conditions,
473 while large impoundment ratios may be indicative of reservoirs where downstream
474 conditions are more likely to prevail. This would likely apply for H06 as well since that
475 method links outflow to inflow more directly.

476 3.4. Wet and Dry Year Comparison

477 Figure 8 shows results for wet and dry years at two reservoirs considered to be
478 representative of this study. D03 provides a relatively good estimate of outflow at Union
479 City Dam (Pittsburg District) in Figure 9a and Figure 9c. D03 performs relatively poorly
480 at Arcadia Lake (Tulsa District) in Figure 9b and Figure 9d. In the case of Union City Dam,
481 D03 tends to produce a noticeable improvement in model skill during both a relatively wet
482 year and a relatively dry year. The performance (Figure 9a and Figure 9c) seems to be
483 independent of wet or dry conditions, at least on an annual basis. This does not hold for
484 Arcadia Lake. The model shows modest skill at Arcadia Lake during the wet year (Figure
485 9b), but almost none during the dry year.

486 There appears to be a difference in the timing discharges between at the two
487 locations in Figure 9. D03 appears to estimate the right amount of volume released during
488 the wet year at Arcadia Lake (Figure 9b). However, the timing of the observed release is
489 delayed until a relatively dry period begins. The lag could indicate that water is being
490 retained, possibly for use in irrigation or domestic supply. In this instance, Arcadia Lake
491 supplies water to the city of Edmond, Oklahoma which may influence release decisions
492 (Arcadia Lake, 2020).

493 D03 performs much more poorly during the 2006 dry year at Arcadia Lake (Figure
494 9d). The model does not predict the sporadic releases throughout the year. The inflow
495 events in that year are not substantial enough to affect storage meaningfully, thus we see
496 almost no response in the modeled output. Observed outflows demonstrate that beyond two
497 relatively high-volume reservoir releases during 2006, the reservoir releases are restricted
498 to practically no outflow the rest of the year. D03 does not anticipate the two large releases,

499 as the reservoir storage does not dramatically shift in either instance. D03 estimates a near
500 constant discharge over the entire year with almost no storage change.

501 Results for wet years and dry years appear to be fairly mixed. Indications are that
502 the performance of D03 could be somewhat site specific. However, reservoirs that tend to
503 be less responsive to storage fluctuations are not represented well in D03 since storage
504 fluctuations drive the model. Arcadia Lake has an IR of about 4.75 which is relatively high.
505 Union City Dam has an IR of about 0.24, which is relatively low. IR is a good indicator of
506 reservoir responsiveness to storage fluctuations. A lack of reservoir responsiveness to
507 storage fluctuations could result in two different types of error when D03 is implemented
508 within a large-spatial-scale hydrologic model. First, forecasted outflow could easily
509 mistime a hydrologic event, particularly during wet years, as Figure 9b demonstrates.
510 Second, the authors anticipate that if the storage does not dramatically fluctuate during a
511 dry year the estimated reservoir release will not anticipate sporadic releases for irrigation
512 and other purposeful discharges. Unaccounted for, these large but short duration releases
513 may lead to a consistent overestimation of reservoir outflow for the entire dry year period.

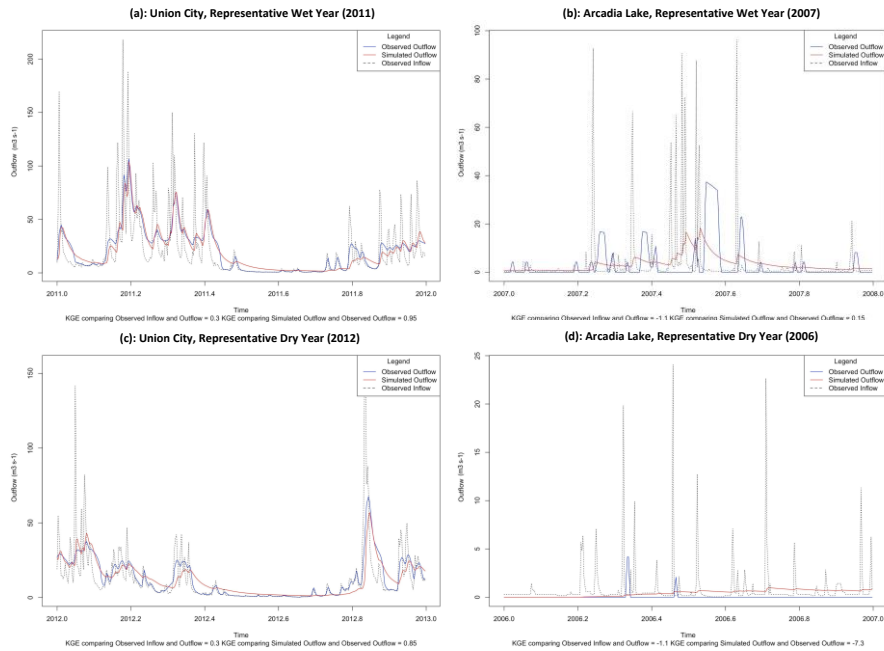


Figure 9. Two reservoirs where D03 tends to perform very good and poor: outflow: a) wet year Union City Dam 2011; b) wet year Arcadia Lake 2007; c) dry year Union City Dam 2012; and d) dry year Arcadia Lake 2006.

514

515 3.5. Effects of Time Step on Model Performance

516 Model comparisons are conducted for daily and monthly time steps. Table 2
 517 illustrates the results at Fort Peck, Garrison Dam, Oahe Dam, and Fort Randall Dam, each
 518 of which appears in the Hanasaki et al. (2006) study and this research. Table 2 also contains
 519 Sardis Dam, Mosquito Creek Dam, and Prado Dam, which are not included in Hanasaki et
 520 al. (2006). Results illustrate that the time scale at which comparisons are conducted can
 521 influence simulation results. The monthly comparison amongst Fort Peck, Garrison, Oahe,
 522 and Fort Randall is in agreement with the conclusions of Hanasaki et al. (2006). However,
 523 when the simulation time step changes to a daily time step, the skill of H06 and D03 reverse
 524 and D03 tends to outperform H06. In additional reservoirs (Sardis and Prado), the results

525 indicate that D03 outperformed H06 at both daily and monthly time steps, based upon
526 KGE. However, the results at Mosquito Creek reservoir tend to follow the original
527 Hanasaki et al. (2006) results.

528 The time-scale effect upon model performance may relate to how well observed
529 inflow correlates with observed outflow. Examining Table 2, H06 outperforms D03 when
530 observed inflow and observed outflow are relatively well correlated. The effect is nullified
531 when the inverse is true. H06 estimates outflow as a ratio of inflow, which may be a better
532 estimate of outflow at the monthly time scale, particularly when discharge tracks closely
533 with inflow. However, H06 will fluctuate at the smaller time steps due to inherent
534 variations in inflow. D03 tends to vary less at a daily time step and may be a better estimate
535 of outflow at sub-monthly time steps.

536 The hydrographs from Fort Randall Dam further illustrate the relationships between
537 time step and model skill, particularly during high flow events. Daily and monthly
538 comparisons between observation and simulations for Fort Randall Dam are shown in
539 Figure 10. Figure 10 compares the daily and monthly simulations with observations. Figure
540 10a shows that the H06 simulations perform better than D03 for monthly time steps,
541 particularly during the high inflow periods in 2011. D03 tends to overestimate reservoir
542 outflow, while H06 correlates well with inflow and better matches the peak flow of 2011.
543 At a diurnal time step (Figure 10b), H06 tends to be hypersensitive to inflow variations and
544 overestimates outflow, whereas D03 provides a better approximation of outflow during the
545 2011 high flow event at a daily time step.

546

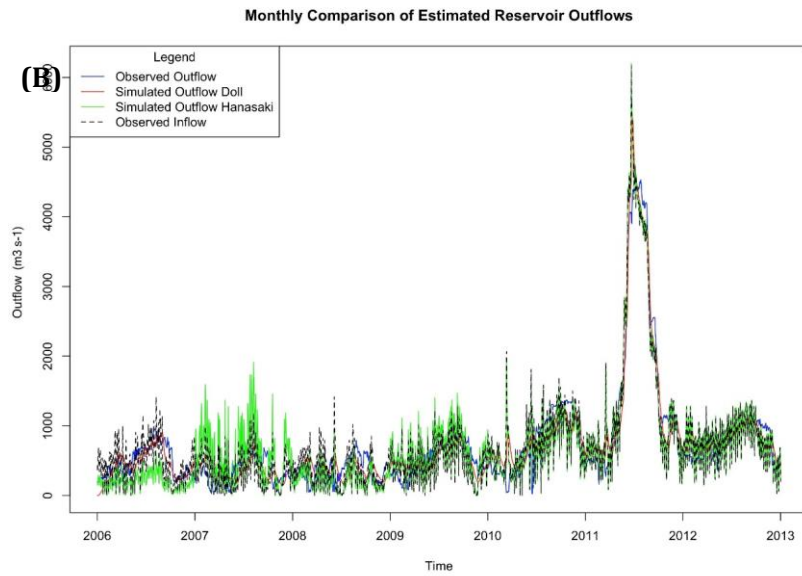
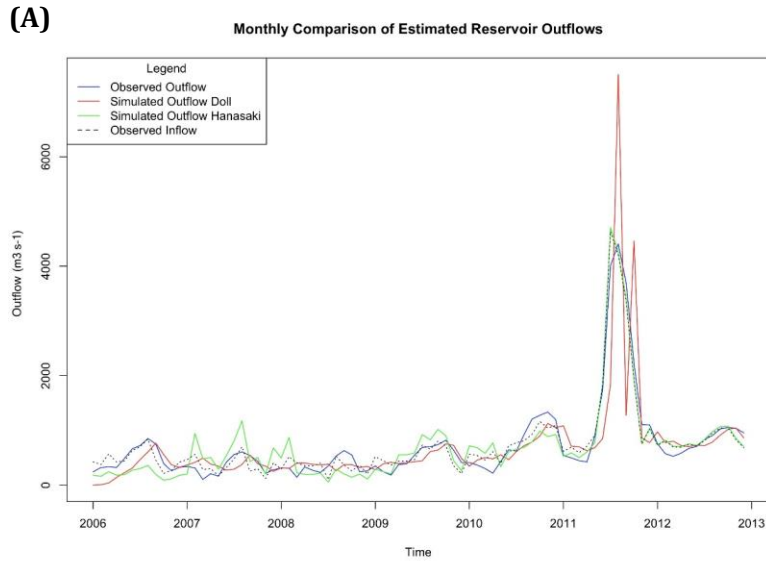
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548 Table 43. Comparison of daily and monthly KGE values at selected reservoirs. The α and k_{rd} values
 549 represent the highest KGE values for Hanasaki and Döll methods respectively.

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

550
551

552 It is possible that the conclusions of Hanasaki et al. (2006) suggesting better performance
 553 of H06 at the monthly-scale depend on how closely discharge from the dam tracks inflow.
 554 D03 may be a better candidate for integration into daily flow forecasting models.



555

556 Figure 10. Comparison of simulated outflow for the Fort Randall Dam with Hanasaki and Doll methods for
 557 (a) monthly and (b) daily time steps.

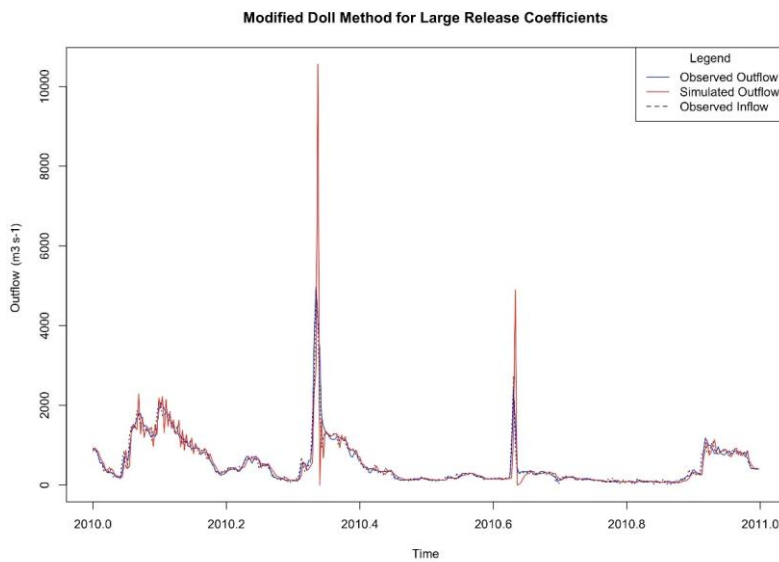
558 3.6. Model Stability

559 Although D03 outperformed H06 when using a daily time step, D03 demonstrated
560 some instability for high k_{rd} values. This instability occurs at three reservoirs in this study.
561 The cause of the instability is a combination of a reservoir having a low IR and a sharp
562 change in the inflow to a reservoir. For instance, inflow into Old Hickory Dam in the
563 Nashville District (IR = 0.04) increased by roughly two orders of magnitude in a matter of
564 a few days in May 2010. During this event, the available storage filled up, necessitating a
565 substantial increase in release flow to prevent overtopping. This occurred within a single
566 time step in the model (D03) and the outflow responded in kind in the next subsequent time
567 step which then drained the reservoir below the specified minimum storage resulting in a
568 non-computable imaginary number as the next solution.

569 Several solutions are posited to address D03 instability. One solution could be to
570 varying k_{rd} values dynamically to mimic reservoir behavior. During large hydrologic
571 events the value of k_{rd} could reduce the peak of the outflow hydrograph, and then increase
572 during normal events. Another solution is the inclusion of rules and an expanded system
573 of equations that govern the solution. Because the intention of D03 is to approximate flow
574 at a free-flowing weir, coupling operational rules with the simulation may better
575 approximate reality. The rules may be as simple as switching behavior or the algorithm
576 when storage approaches either minimum or maximum reservoir storage. A simple
577 condition was tested for when storage drops below the minimum storage during the daily
578 time step:

579
$$\text{if } S_t \leq S_{\min} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} S_t = S_{\min} \\ Q_{out} = Q_{in} + \frac{S_t - S_{\min}}{\Delta t} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

580 This condition prevents the reservoir from falling below the minimum storage. Outflow
581 from Old Hickory Dam was re-simulated with $k_{rd} = 0.9$ and the new minimum storage
582 condition (Equation 5). The proposed modification resulted in simulated outflow shown in
583 Figure 11. Outflow is substantially overestimated for one-time step and drops to zero at the
584 next time step. While an oversimplification of actual operations, this condition is similar
585 to an emergency spillway discharge to prevent overtopping. The dam releases tremendous
586 flow for a brief period, when the maximum storage is nearly exceeded and then inhibits the
587 discharge when the storage is at the minimum capacity. The benefit of this modification is
588 that additional reservoir information is not required. However, further testing and
589 evaluation should be performed to validate this refinement.
590



591

592 Figure 11. Outflow simulation for the Old Hickory Dam using the proposed modification of the Doll method
593 for $k_{rd}=0.4$.

594 3.7. Limitations

595 ~~The available sample of dams chosen for this study has a number of some inherent~~
596 ~~limitations. First, Because the~~The vast majority of reservoirs in the sample ~~we considered~~
597 are primarily purposed as flood control reservoirs with various secondary purposes. They
598 are all commonly ~~and~~ operated by USACE. And the dams function within a predominately
599 temperate climate across the ~~the~~ United States. ~~W~~We are unable to ~~These~~ limitations
600 preclude ~~make an~~ assertions about ~~regarding~~ the effect the operating objective, dam
601 ownership, or country of operation has on reservoir routing performance. This
602 hypothesis ~~Confirmation of this requires further research~~ investigation, which is
603 suggested ~~as noted in the future work~~ next section. Second, t

604 The abbreviated length of the historical records presents another limitation. The
605 evaluation period is limited to a six-year window ~~that~~ which may not account for the total
606 range of operational environments for each dam. Thus, this evaluation ~~may~~ likely does not
607 capture and evaluate D03 and H06 under absolute extreme circumstances.

608 All inflow utilized in this study is back calculated from observed changes in storage
609 and known discharges. This indirect method can lead to negative inflow values when losses
610 due to seepage, evapotranspiration, or other types of withdrawals are underestimated. De
611 Vos (2015) also noted that they used back-calculated inflow in their study. It is unclear
612 whether Hanasaki et al. (2006) made use of direct observations, but it is worth noting that
613 direct observations of total reservoir inflow are not readily available in most cases.

614 This study is limited to models that only require inputs related to reservoir inflow
615 and storage, primarily to provide insight into the reliability of these measures as indicators
616 of reservoir outflow. Because this study utilizes a back calculated reservoir inflow,

617 inclusion of reservoir withdrawal would also lead to an overestimation of water
618 withdrawals from the reservoir. Both D03 and H06 can account for withdrawals but
619 because of the focus of this study and the data utilized, the authors do not pursue an
620 estimation of reservoir withdrawal in this study. ~~—Thus, we have not included more~~
621 ~~sophisticated approaches, such as Burek et al. (2013) or Zhao et al. (2016) within this study.~~

622 3.8. Future Work

623 D03 consistently improved simulated, daily streamflow estimates over naturalized
624 flow conditions ~~in the selected reservoirs of this study~~, suggesting that D03 can potentially
625 improve global streamflow forecasting that do not already account for lakes and reservoirs.

626 D03 performed particularly well at daily time steps commensurate with many large-scale
627 stream routing models. The incorporation of ~~Both D03 and H06 will can be incorporated~~
628 ~~considered as modules in large-scale river routing models such as Routing Application for~~
629 ~~Parallel computaIon of Discharge (RAPID, David et al., 2011). The into to within the~~
630 ~~RAPID, __ code, RAPID model is~~ a ~~river routing model that can simultanusey compute~~
631 ~~large-scale river routing model for simulating streamflow in river networks with thousands~~
632 ~~of river reaches throughout distributed stream networks over large spatial extents (David~~
633 ~~et al., 2011), is under development.~~ This will enable widespread testing and evaluation over
634 large hydrologically diverse areas.

635 ~~The research presented in this article should guide a number of follow-up~~
636 ~~evaluations that will broaden the scope of this evaluation.~~

- 637 • ~~We determined that k_{rd} can be varied to improve performance but we have~~
638 ~~not discovered no guidance on how to relate k_{rd} to a given reservoir. Future~~
639 ~~studies should determine how to assign release coefficients to reservoirs.~~

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- We have chosen parsimonious approaches that minimize assumptions. We have not compared D03 or H06 to more complex models such as Burek et al. (2013) or Zhao et al. (2016) which require these assumptions. Future work will examine tradeoffs between model complexity and performance.
 - Development of ~~Insertion of reservoir~~D03 ~~-routing models studied in this work~~ ~~with the goal of providing a more robust and data-driven approach to routing~~ ~~results influence overall hydrologic performance, particularly at locations downstream of reservoirs.~~
 - 75% ~~Three quarters of the sampled are dams that have a their primary purpose for flood control. Efforts to fill the existing dataset with reservoirs that are primarily irrigation, water supply, hydroelectric, recreation, and fish and wildlife habitat and analyze the impacts of use on model performance should be undertaken.~~
- ~~4.~~ The non-data-driven methods ~~we considered~~ are conceptualizations of reservoir operations that can be adapted to utilize remotely sensed information, much like the data-driven methods previously mentioned. Non-data-driven methods can be linked to statistical fitting techniques, but they are capable of being employed independent of such pairings. However, the non-data-driven reservoir routing schemes could be enhanced by assimilating remotely sensed data, e.g. near real-time changes in storage resolved from satellite altimetry, and eventually the planned NASA Surface Water and Ocean Topography (SWOT) Mission. This information could

662 constrain reservoir simulations to improve global streamflow forecasts
663 (Yoon and Beighley, 2015).

664 ~~1.~~ Because D03 skill tends to decline with increases in IR, an over-year
665 simulation capability similar to that proposed by De Vos (2015) may allow
666 for a better means of simulating diurnal reservoirs from reservoirs with large
667 IR. Over-year reservoirs have high IRs and yearly cycles of water storage
668 and release are not necessary (Adeloye and Montaseri, 2000; Vogel et al.,
669 1999).

670 ~~5.4.~~ Conclusions

671 This research compares two parsimonious reservoir routing methods (D03 and H06)
672 with the intent to determine if these methods can be effective at estimating diurnal reservoir
673 outflow in diurnal, medium-range streamflow forecasting. These methods were compared
674 across 60 USACE operated reservoirs at a daily time step. Results show that D03 tends to
675 outperform H06 at a daily time step. An in depth examination of these results yields the
676 following conclusions.

677 ~~••~~ The complexity and data requirements of both D03 and H06 are low and thus
678 computationally inexpensive. Both can be feasibly implemented at large spatial
679 scales at a daily or sub-daily time step.

680 ~~••~~ When the best performing k_{rd} is implemented within D03 we find a substantial
681 improvement in the model skill over the baseline for nearly all reservoirs at a
682 daily time step. H06 offers only a minimal improvement over the baseline when
683 the best k_{rd} is implemented for a daily time step. For the categories of KGE
684 specified (Tavakoly et al., 2017), the best performing D03 eliminates all poor

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685 performing baseline conditions and increases the proportion of good or very
686 good performing sites by 22%.

687 **••** There is a statistical relationship between reservoir IR and two of the skill
688 metrics applied (KGE and R-Squared). Given that reservoirs with high IR
689 typically are less responsive to short-term fluctuations in inflow and storage,
690 the correlation between these variables is plausible. Further investigation of
691 dam characteristics, such as if the dams operate in series or in parallel and wet
692 and dry year considerations are further evidence of the correlation between the
693 IR and D03 and H06 skill.

694 **••** Simulation time step appears to be an important component in reservoir routing
695 skill. The comparison of the two methods by Hanasaki et al. (2006) are based
696 on monthly reservoir outflows and conclusions may not hold within diurnal
697 forecasting schemes. At overlapping locations, this study replicates the results
698 reported by Hanasaki et al. for monthly time steps. However, the Hamasaki et
699 al. findings do not hold for a daily time step evaluation.

700 **••** The best value for the empirical Döll coefficient, k_{rd} , can vary. Optimal values
701 were typically greater than the $k_{rd}=0.01$ value which Döll et al. (2003) derived.
702 This suggests that k_{rd} could be a potential calibration parameter within a large-
703 scale hydrologic modeling framework much like a weir coefficient, which is
704 specific to a particular type of weir.

705 **••** The Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project (Arkabutla Lake History, 2017; USACE,
706 1987) is an interesting case study in how reservoir system complexity can be
707 difficult to model. The Yazoo Basin Headwaters Project considers downstream

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708 flow conditions as the dominant criteria in dam operation. Thus, the inflow and
709 available storage volume are poor predictors for determining reservoir
710 discharge in this type of management scheme. D03 appeared to scale flow
711 correctly at these reservoirs and improve reservoir overall skill, but timing of
712 the releases is not well represented and thus skill improvement is only minimal.

713 **••** Dam discharges in the Missouri River Reservoir System (Lund and Ferreira,
714 1996) are more correlated with storage volume and inflow conditions, which
715 lends itself to the two non-data-driven approaches evaluated here. D03 is
716 particularly capable of accurately modeling daily reservoir outflows in reservoir
717 systems that correlate well with storage and inflow fluctuations. Concerns
718 related to model error being compounded through a series dams may be
719 mitigated somewhat by the fact that inflow appears to be a progressively
720 stronger predictor of outflow further downstream in these types of systems.

721 **••** Numerical stability of D03 is a concern, particularly with higher k_{rd} values.
722 These stability concerns originate at reservoirs with small active storage
723 capacity during high inflow events. Additional model refinement can overcome
724 these stability concerns.

725 **••** D03 showed minimal bias during relatively wet and dry years. Timing of
726 releases can be influenced by wet years and the magnitude appears to be
727 affected during dry years. D03 appears to be most applicable for dam systems
728 where reservoir management focuses on upstream hydrologic conditions. Large
729 IRs could indicate reservoirs where downstream conditions are more likely to
730 influence release decisions at the reservoir.

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