

1 **HESS Opinions: Beyond the Long-term Water Balance: Evolving Budyko's**
2 **Supply-Demand Framework for the Anthropocene towards a Global**
3 **Synthesis of Land-surface Fluxes under Natural and Human-altered**
4 **Watersheds**

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6 **A. Sankarasubramanian¹, Dingbao Wang², Stacey Archfield³, Meredith Reitz³,**
7 **Richard M. Vogel⁴, Amirhossein Mazrooei¹ and Sudarshana Mukhopadhyay¹**
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9 ¹Department of Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, North Carolina State
10 University, Raleigh, NC 27695.

11 ²Department of Civil, Environmental, and Construction Engineering, University of Central
12 Florida, Orlando, FL 32816.

13 ³ U.S. Geological Survey, Water Mission Area, Reston, VA 20192.

14 ⁴Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Tufts University, Medford, MA 02155.

15
16 **Abstract**

17 Global hydroclimatic conditions have been substantially altered over the past century by
18 anthropogenic influences that arise from the warming global climate and from local/regional
19 anthropogenic disturbances. Traditionally, studies have used coupling of multiple models to
20 understand how land-surface water fluxes vary due to changes in global climatic patterns and
21 local land-use changes. We argue that because the basis of the Budyko framework relies on the
22 supply and demand concept, the framework could be effectively adapted and extended to
23 quantify the role of drivers – both changing climate and local human disturbances – in altering

24 the land-surface response across the globe. We review the Budyko framework, along with these
25 potential extensions, with the intent of furthering the applicability of the framework to emerging
26 hydrologic questions. Challenges in extending the Budyko framework over various spatio-
27 temporal scales and the use of global datasets to evaluate the water balance at these various
28 scales are also discussed.

29

30 **The historical evolution of the Budyko framework in hydroclimatology**

31 The traditional Budyko formulation provides the long-term water balance as a simple but
32 effective partitioning of precipitation into runoff and evapotranspiration; and it has been verified
33 over numerous natural watersheds around the globe (Sankarasubramanian and Vogel, 2003;
34 Zhang et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2007; Li et al., 2013; Padrón et al., 2017). Besides the aridity
35 index, which is defined as the ratio of the mean annual potential evapotranspiration to the mean
36 annual precipitation, Milly et al. (1994) and Sankarasubramanian and Vogel (2002) proposed
37 additional controls on the long-term water balance including seasonality and soil moisture
38 holding capacity. These additional controls enhance the ability of the Budyko framework to
39 explain the spatial variability in mean annual runoff at the continental scale. Studies have also
40 extended the Budyko framework for capturing the interannual variability in runoff (Koster and
41 Suarez, 1999; Sankarasubramanian and Vogel, 2002, 2003). More recently, the Budyko
42 framework has been extended for explaining the seasonal hydroclimatology of basins (Petersen
43 et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013; Petersen et al., 2018). Similarly, the Budyko framework has been
44 extended for quantifying the non-dimensional sensitivity (also termed elasticity) of land-surface
45 response to changes in climatic controls under different hydroclimatic regimes (Dooge, 1992;
46 Dooge et al., 1999; Sankarasubramanian et al., 2001).

47 Perhaps the most unique aspect of the Budyko framework lies in its Darwinian approach,
48 which enables us to view the entire hydroclimatic system without focusing on each physical
49 process in isolation (Harman and Troch, 2014; Wang and Tang, 2014). The Darwinian approach
50 seeks to document patterns of variation in populations of hydrologic systems and develop
51 theories that explain these observed patterns in terms of the mechanisms and conditions that
52 determine their historical development (Harman and Troch, 2014). Even though most studies
53 which employed the Budyko framework have focused on natural basins, the original monograph
54 (Budyko, 1974), *Climate and Life*, considered the role of human influence on climate, including
55 effects of reservoir storage and irrigation on evapotranspiration. As hydroclimatic regimes
56 evolve, it is critical to understand how land-surface fluxes change due to changes in local
57 watershed conditions and global climate change. Given the Budyko framework’s ability to
58 capture the fundamental dimensions of land-surface fluxes, its emphasis on describing patterns
59 of variation across differing hydrogeologic and hydroclimatic regimes, and, by extension, its
60 emphasis on an integrative, Darwinian approach, a global synthesis addressing the variability in
61 these fluxes across natural and human-altered watersheds should provide insights on the
62 sensitivity of the critical hydroclimatic processes to local and global changes in the
63 Anthropocene.

64

65 **Budyko Framework for the Anthropocene**

66 We are at a critical time in which the hydroclimate, particularly land-surface fluxes, have
67 been substantially altered over the past century by anthropogenic disturbances (Entekhabi et al.,
68 1999; Vogel et al., 2015). For instance, both annual precipitation and streamflow have increased
69 during the period of 1948–1997 across the eastern United States, and those trends appear to arise

70 primarily from increases in autumn precipitation (Small et al., 2006; Rice et al., 2015). Similarly,
71 the frequency of floods is increasing in many regions, while magnitudes of flooding appear only
72 to be systematically increasing in certain spatially cohesive regions (Hirsch and Archfield, 2015;
73 Malikpour and Villarini, 2015; Archfield et al., 2016) particularly in urban areas (Vogel et al.,
74 2011; Barros et al., 2014; Prosdocimi et al., 2015). Irrigation in the U.S. High Plains leads to
75 increases in summer rainfall and streamflow in the Midwest due to land-surface and atmosphere
76 feedback (Kustu et al., 2011). Based on hydroclimatic observations from 100 large basins
77 globally, Jaramillo and Destouni (2015) found consistent and dominant effects of increasing
78 relative evapotranspiration (evapotranspiration relative to precipitation) from flow regulation and
79 irrigation and decreasing temporal runoff variability from flow regulation. Development of
80 irrigation networks and man-made reservoirs is also associated with increased surface water and
81 groundwater withdrawals and land-use change (Dieter et al., 2018; Sankarasubramanian et al.,
82 2017; Das et al., 2018). Similarly, construction of large dams has substantially altered the
83 downstream flow variations affecting downstream ecology (Gao et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017).
84 Changes in land use and land cover also affect the local energy balance, creating urban heat
85 islands (Memon et al., 2008), affecting recharge and baseflow (Price, 2011), which in turn affect
86 a very broad range of streamflows (Allaire et al., 2015) with particularly significant increases in
87 high flows (Vogel et al., 2011; Barros et al., 2014; Prosdocimi et al., 2015). Thus, anthropogenic
88 influences arising from global climate change and local to regional disturbances can substantially
89 affect the land-surface response from the watershed. Anthropogenic influences including
90 changes in climate, land use, and water use exhibit complex interactions that warrant
91 consideration jointly to understand their effect on hydrologic flow alteration (Allaire et al.,
92 2015). Performing a synthesis on how the spatio-temporal variability of land-surface fluxes –

93 runoff, evapotranspiration, net radiation, and hydrologic flow alteration – differ globally in
94 natural and human-altered watersheds is a critical need to enable a complete understanding of
95 global hydroclimate during the Anthropocene. The Budyko framework provides an ideal
96 approach for such inquiry, because it has been used to decompose changes in observed land-
97 surface fluxes due to both natural variability and human influence (e.g., Roderick and Farquhar,
98 2011; Wang and Hejazi, 2011; Yang et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2015).

99 **Budyko Framework Adaptation in Watershed Modeling**

100 Figure 1 provides the general setup of the Budyko framework for explaining the spatio-
101 temporal variability of land-surface fluxes in natural watersheds and human-altered landscapes.
102 The framework relies on conservation of mass and energy to model and predict the “actual”
103 hydroclimatic variable of interest based on the available “demand” and “supply” of mass and
104 energy (Figure 1). The term “demand” is defined as the upper bound of the “actual” variable if
105 the “supply” variable is unlimited. The rationale for using the Budyko framework for
106 understanding the spatial variability in land-surface fluxes over natural/human-altered
107 watersheds lies in its ability to capture the hydroclimatic dimensions of “supply” and “demand”,
108 thereby providing a low-dimensional parsimonious approach (Figure 1) to understand the spatial
109 variability in the “actual” hydroclimatic variable of interest . Even though Budyko’s framework
110 is commonly used to understand the long-term water balance, the supply-demand framework
111 could be used for understanding the spatial variability of different land-surface fluxes. This
112 study evaluates and extends the Budyko supply-demand framework for understanding the spatio-
113 temporal variability of two hydrologic fluxes namely global evapotranspiration and water
114 balance (Figure 2), infiltration (Figure 3) and three human-altered fluxes namely reservoir
115 releases using linear hedging (Figure 4) and environmental flow alteration (Figure 5).

116 *Long-term Water Balance*

117 The most commonly used framework for modeling the long-term water balance is to
118 estimate the mean annual evapotranspiration (“actual”) based on the ratio of mean annual
119 potential evapotranspiration (“demand”) to the mean annual precipitation (“supply”). Thus, the
120 upper limit for mean annual evapotranspiration is potential evapotranspiration (precipitation) in a
121 humid (arid) region. The family of Budyko curves estimates the evapotranspiration ratio
122 (“actual”/ “supply”) based on the aridity index (“demand”/“supply”). For additional details, see
123 Sankarasubramanian and Vogel (2001). Most studies have focused on evaluating the long-term
124 water balance at regional and continental scale (see Wang et al., 2016 for a detailed review).
125 Studies have also focused on the effect of land cover and climate on long-term water yield using
126 global data (Li et al., 2013; Wang and Tang, 2014). Here, we evaluate the Budyko framework to
127 the global scale using the data from the Global Land-Surface Data Assimilation System, version
128 2 (GLDAS2) (Rodell et al., 2004). Data points of mean annual evapotranspiration and aridity
129 index are obtained using the Penman-Monteith method from the Noah Land Surface Model in
130 the GLDAS2 dataset with a spatial resolution of 0.25 ° for the period 1948-2010 (Rui, 2011).
131 Figure 2 shows the performance of the Budyko curve in estimating the mean annual
132 evapotranspiration based on aridity index data between -60° S to 60° N. The Budyko curve
133 provides a first-order approximation of the spatial variability in the evapotranspiration ratio
134 (Figure 2); however, the scatter around the curve is quite considerable. The evapotranspiration
135 ratio plotted in Figure 2 have bias as they are based on Noah land surface model estimates from
136 GLDAS-2 model. For large basins, estimating evapotranspiration as the difference between
137 precipitation and streamflow is more accurate as the ET ratio and aridity index are purely based
138 on observed information (Sankarasubramanian and Vogel, 2003). Studies have shown that

139 seasonality in moisture and energy and their co-availability (i.e., phase difference between
140 moisture and energy availability within the year) and soil moisture holding capacity partially
141 control the scatter around the Budyko curves (Milly et al., 1994, Sankarasubramanian and Vogel,
142 2003). Another question of interest is to understand the lower bound on the evapotranspiration
143 ratio, which is typically limited by the moisture availability in a region (Wang and Tang, 2014).
144 Numerous studies on long-term balance have employed fitting the observed long-term water
145 balance by parameterizing the Budyko curves (see the review paper of Wang et al., 2016).
146 However, little to no effort has been undertaken on how this cloud of the long-term water
147 balance is expected to change under potential climate change, and how this interplay between
148 moisture and energy is expected to affect the long-term water balance in different types of
149 watersheds (Creed et al., 2014). Similarly, recent studies have extended Budyko’s steady-state
150 supply-to-demand framework for modeling land-surface fluxes over fine (daily and monthly)
151 time scales (Zhang et al., 2008). Validating these emerging frameworks with global hydrologic
152 data will provide an understanding of the critical process controls in estimating land-surface
153 fluxes. This validation effort will also help in understanding the advantages and limitations of
154 such a parsimonious modeling approach towards estimating evapotranspiration and streamflow
155 at various spatio-temporal scales.

156 ***Extension of Budyko’s “supply and demand” concept for infiltration***

157 The upper bounds on the Budyko framework arise from the conservation of mass and
158 energy. Hence, in principle, it could be applied to other hydrological processes. Zhang et al.
159 (2008) applied the Budyko monthly supply and demand attributes to estimate the catchment
160 retention and the overland runoff from the soil moisture zone. Wang (2018) developed the
161 infiltration equation for saturation excess in the Budyko supply and demand framework, i.e.,

162 modelling the ratio of infiltration to rainfall depth as a function of the ratio between storage
163 (infiltration) capacity and rainfall depth (Figure 3). The cumulative infiltration depth during a
164 rainfall event is defined as the “actual” variable of interest, and the cumulative rainfall depth
165 during an event is defined as the “supply”. The effective soil water storage capacity for the event
166 is defined as the “demand”, which is dependent on the initial soil moisture condition. Alternate
167 definitions of storage capacity based on soil hydraulic equilibrium storage could also be
168 considered (Zehe et al., 2019).

169 Figure 3 represents the initial soil moisture condition by the degree of saturation, ψ ,
170 which is defined as the ratio of initial soil water storage and storage capacity (Wang, 2018). For
171 a dry soil with low ψ , infiltration is expected to be higher with lower surface runoff potential.
172 The upper bounds of these curves (Figure 3) are similar to the Budyko’s asymptotes
173 corresponding to infiltration capacity-limited and rainfall depth-limited conditions. In this
174 illustration, the Budyko framework is extended to estimate the temporal variability of infiltration
175 into the soil based on soil water storage capacity and antecedent conditions (ψ). Thus, the
176 parsimonious framework derived from the Budyko’s supply and demand concept is used to
177 develop the asymptotes, and then those asymptotes are used to identify and explain various
178 critical process controls (e.g., infiltration in Figure 3).

179 Although the above extensions of the Budyko framework demonstrate the potential for
180 developing a low-dimensional parsimonious modeling strategy, data-based validation efforts
181 have focused primarily on the long-term hydroclimatic attributes (i.e., mean, variance and
182 elasticity) of observed land-surface fluxes in natural basins (Figure 2) (Sankarasubramanian and
183 Vogel, 2002; Abatzoglou and Ficklin, 2017). Representing a hydroclimatic variable of interest
184 (i.e., “actual”) as a ratio to the “supply” and explaining its spatio-temporal variability based on

185 the demand/supply ratio and other variables (e.g., soil moisture holding capacity for long-term
186 water balance) provides a simple, non-dimensional form for understanding the process controls.
187 For instance, in the long-term water balance context, defining the demand/supply relationship
188 explains the predominant controls on the spatio-temporal variability of mean annual runoff and
189 mean annual evapotranspiration based on the basin aridity, seasonality of demand and supply
190 attributes (i.e., in-phase or out-of-phase between moisture and energy), and soil moisture holding
191 capacity (Milly, 1994). Synthesizing relevant process controls and representing them within the
192 Budyko low-dimensional framework will also help us in catchment classification and in
193 understanding how different hydroclimatic processes of interest vary across wider regimes and
194 landscapes.

195

196 **Extending Budyko Framework for Human-altered Watersheds and Landscapes**

197 Figures 4 and 5 extend the Budyko framework to explain the spatio-temporal variability
198 in land-surface fluxes in human-altered watersheds and landscapes. A synthesis that extends and
199 evaluates the Budyko framework for estimating land-surface fluxes in human-altered watersheds
200 will help us understand the role of key anthropogenic disturbances (e.g., reservoir storage, land-
201 use and land-cover changes) in altering land-surface fluxes at various spatio-temporal scales.

202

203 ***Extension of Budyko’s “supply and demand” Framework for Reservoir Operation and***

204 ***Hedging***

205 We extend the Budyko framework for reservoir operation to meet the target demand
206 based on the standard operating policy (SOP) and linear hedging policy (Draper and Lund,
207 2004). A hedging policy in reservoir operation aims to conserve water for future use by

208 curtailing the current demand (Draper and Lund, 2004). Given an initial storage (S_{t-1}), inflow
 209 (I_t), demand (D_t) and evaporation (E_t) over a given time step (t), one could obtain the actual
 210 release (R_t), and ending storage (S_t) along with spill (SP_t) using a mass balance (equation 1).

$$211 \quad S_t = S_{t-1} + I_t - E_t - R_t - SP_t \quad \dots (1)$$

212 By defining available water, $AW_t = S_{t-1} + I_t - E_t$, we obtain release (as “actual”) under a given
 213 hedging fraction ($0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$) for three reservoir storage conditions using equation 2. The SOP of a
 214 reservoir simply corresponds to $\alpha=1$ by supplying available water or demand at a given time.

$$215 \quad \begin{aligned} S_t &= S_{\max}, R_t = D_t, SP_t = AW_t - D_t - S_{\max} && \text{if } AW_t - D_t \geq S_{\max} \\ S_t &= AW_t - R_t, R_t = \alpha D_t, SP_t = 0 && \text{if } S_{\min} < AW_t - D_t < S_{\max} \\ S_t &= S_{\min}, R_t = AW_t, SP_t = 0 && \text{if } S_{\min} \geq AW_t - D_t \end{aligned} \quad \dots(2)$$

216 Rewriting AW_t as “supply”, D_t as “demand” and R_t (“actual”), we develop the Budyko
 217 framework for the reservoir operation under SOP and hedging policy (Figure 4). The SOP
 218 simply provides the asymptotes, the upper bounds, for the R_t / AW_t (“actual”/ “supply”) ratio.
 219 Figure 4 also demonstrates the developed framework for a hypothetical system for estimating the
 220 monthly releases (see supporting information (SI) Tables 1-2 for data and details). Increased
 221 hedging reduces the release and increases the storage and spill from the system. For
 222 demonstration, a linear hedging policy is applied. But the real-world system operation will have
 223 a complex non-linear release policy, still the data points are expected to lie within the bounds.
 224 For systems with a small storage-to-demand ratio, the spill portion on the left asymptote is
 225 expected to be much longer than a system with large storage-to-demand ratio. Similarly, for
 226 systems with large (small) storage-to-demand ratio, most data points are expected to lie below
 227 (on) the asymptotes portion of the framework. Given that this framework in Figure 4 is non-
 228 dimensional, we could analyze release to demand characteristics for reservoirs with competing

229 purposes (e.g., hydroelectric vs flood control) and synthesize how release patterns vary based on
230 the demand-to-available water ratio across different type of systems. Similarly, one can also
231 formulate the functional forms for a non-linear hedging policy as Budyko equations, because the
232 upper bounds are specified by the “supply and demand” relationship.

233

234 ***Representing Human Demand and Environmental Flows in from Reservoir Operation***

235 Reservoir storages reduce runoff variability to meet the human demand, thereby resulting
236 in substantial flow alterations (Wang et al., 2017). By adding a dedicated term, environmental
237 flow, EF_t , we rewrite the reservoir mass balance in equation (3).

$$238 \quad S_t = AW_t - R_t - EF_t - SP_t \quad \dots (3)$$

239 Given our variable of interest here is EF_t (“actual”), we represent the “demand” as $R_t + EF_t$ and
240 available water, AW_t , as “supply”, which gives us a simple framework to visualize the ratio,
241 environmental flow allocation EF_t / AW_t , has the upper bound AW_t , which is specified by the
242 1:1 line. The term, $1 - EF_t / AW_t$, simply represents the alteration ratio at a given time step. The
243 lower bound specifies only allocation ($R_t / EF_t = 0$) for human demand and a slope of 0.5
244 indicates equal allocation for human need and ecological demand. For instance, if R_t / EF_t falls
245 below the slope of 0.5, it indicates significant flow alteration to meet human demand.

246 In the case of Falls Lake (Figure 5), a major water supply reservoir in the triangle area in
247 North Carolina (see SI Table 3 for data and additional details), it is evident that flow alteration is
248 significant due to increased allocation for human demand since more data points lie below the
249 equal allocation line. Using the proposed framework in Figure 5, one could synthesize how a
250 reservoir system with a large residence time (commonly known as degree of regulation) could

251 affect flow alteration under arid and humid conditions. The negative linear trend indicates
252 (Figure 5) increased allocation for human use results in decreased environmental flow allocation.
253 For instance, reservoirs in arid (humid) climates are typically larger to reduce the larger (smaller)
254 interannual variability in runoff, hence such systems are expected to have higher (lower) degree
255 of regulation. However, this synthesis of reservoir systems across different climatic regimes
256 needs to be evaluated in the context of withdrawals for human use, their purpose, and the
257 consumptive use associated with them. We argue the proposed framework could be useful for
258 understanding the trade-off between water allocation for human use and downstream ecological
259 requirements.

260 We argue that the Budyko supply and demand framework could also be considered for
261 understanding the role of humans in altering the land-surface fluxes. As the supply and demand
262 framework is based on conservation equations, it could be exploited for understanding and
263 quantifying the spatial variability in land-surface fluxes under natural and human-altered
264 landscapes. It is important to mention that the relationship between “Actual/Supply” to
265 “Demand/Supply” could arise due to spurious correlation as they are shared by a common
266 denominator term “Supply” (Benson, 1965; Bretts; 2014). Hence, the relationship between the
267 “Actual” and the “Demand” should be evaluated carefully by avoiding the spurious correlation.
268 In Figures 4-5, we provide an extension of the Budyko framework for understanding how land-
269 surface fluxes are modified due to human influence. Understanding the key drivers that alter the
270 spatial variability of land-surface fluxes using the modified and extended the Budyko framework
271 should help in identifying the relevant low-dimensional attributes that control the regional
272 hydroclimate of human-altered watersheds and landscapes. For long-term evapotranspiration
273 (ET), the aridity index is the control. For infiltration, it is the ratio of infiltration capacity to

274 rainfall depth. For reservoir operation, it is the ratio of human water demand to available water in
275 reservoir. For environmental flows, it is the competition with human demand and available
276 water. Thus, the low-dimensional attribute varies for each environmental issue. Further,
277 extending the Budyko framework to include anthropogenic causes should enable the explicit
278 decomposition and attribution of changes in land-surface fluxes at various temporal scales
279 resulting from changes in local/regional hydroclimate or watershed-level modification. To refine
280 existing hydroclimatologic models and datasets developed at the regional, continental, and global
281 scale, a synthesis study is needed to understand how the land-surface response varies across
282 natural and human-altered watersheds. Such a synthesis effort could also enable a systematic
283 decomposition of watershed-scale anthropogenic influences and large-scale climate effects in
284 modulating land-surface fluxes at the global scale, providing a tribute to Budyko's legacy.

285 **Opportunities, challenges, and relevance to other hydrologic synthesis studies**

286 Emphasis on understanding the complex interactions and feedback between human and
287 hydrological systems has renewed focus on "Socio-hydrology" (Sivapalan et al., 2012). The
288 effects of water use, land use and land cover and other anthropogenic influences on watershed
289 runoff and associated issues of non-stationarity have been referred to as the study of "Hydro-
290 morphology" (Vogel, 2011). Vogel et al. (2015) argue that "to resolve the complex water
291 problems that the world faces today, nearly every theoretical hydrologic model introduced
292 previously is in need of revision to accommodate how climate, land, vegetation, and
293 socioeconomic factors interact, change, and evolve over time." Study of interactions between
294 humans and the earth system has also received considerable support from various agencies such
295 as the National Science Foundation, the National Institute of Food and Agriculture, and the U.S.
296 Geological Survey, including targeted programs (e.g., NSF Solicitation 13-535, "Water

297 Sustainability and Climate”, NSF Solicitation 18-545, “Coupled Human-Natural Systems and
298 Innovations in Food-Energy-Water Systems”). Thus, evolving the Budyko framework to better
299 understand how land-surface responses vary under natural and human-altered landscapes will
300 also support various ongoing studies on the effect of humans on hydrological systems.

301 Enhancements to the Budyko framework will also support other ongoing activities that
302 focus on improving the ability to predict the hydrologic behavior of natural and ungauged
303 watersheds. As competition for water increases, there has been increasing attention placed on the
304 need for water availability information at ungauged locations, even in regions where water has
305 not been considered in the past to be a limited resource. For these reasons, the decade from 2003
306 to 2012 was recognized by the International Association of Hydrological Sciences as the
307 Prediction in Ungauged Basins (PUB) Decade (Sivapalan et al., 2003). Blöschl et al. (2013;
308 tables A7-A10) showed that several methods to predict streamflow in ungauged watersheds have
309 been proposed; however, no one method has been universally accepted or demonstrated to work
310 in all hydrologic settings. Other studies have evaluated predictability in ungauged basins at the
311 global scale (Hrachowitz et al., 2013). Because the Budyko framework provides an approach for
312 improving our understanding of ungauged basins, there is potential cross-fertilization in various
313 ongoing studies for evaluating the extended Budyko framework and associated datasets, in order
314 to support a range of global- and continental-scale hydrologic initiatives.

315 Another exciting aspect of the extension of the Budyko framework for considering
316 anthropogenic influences, concerns the development of hydrologic indicators for a wide range of
317 purposes related to human effects. These include watershed classification, environmental
318 permitting and a variety of water management activities. There is a continuing need for new
319 hydrologic indicators, founded in the science of hydrology, for the purpose of watershed

320 classification – as expressed so nicely by Wagener et al. (2007). The development and plotting
321 of nondimensional variables, analogous to the nondimensional variables proposed in Figure 1,
322 has a close association with the development of nondimensional hydroclimatologic indicators for
323 both natural (Weiskel et al. 2014) and human-dominated (Weiskel et al., 2007) hydrologic
324 systems. For example, the aridity and runoff ratios, two commonly used nondimensional
325 hydroclimatic indicators arise naturally from the Budyko framework for natural watersheds. We
326 anticipate that a wide range of new hydrologic indicators, founded on the science of hydrology,
327 yet useful for water management and watershed classification, will arise from the types of
328 studies envisioned here which extend the Budyko framework to accommodate anthropogenic
329 influences.

330 One substantial challenge in evaluating the Budyko framework under human-altered
331 landscapes would be the availability of data on hydroclimate, storages, and human influences,
332 including water withdrawal and land use changes, reservoir storages and releases, at different
333 spatio-temporal scales. For example, the monthly change in total water storage is a critical
334 component of accurate assessments of land-surface fluxes, particularly in regions of high
335 anthropogenic influence where storage is affected by pumping of groundwater resources, or
336 conversion of surface water to evapotranspiration through diversion for irrigation. In addition to
337 the tremendous challenges relating to data availability, there is the open research question of how
338 we can capture the complexity of human-water systems with a low dimensional, parsimonious
339 modeling approach. One approach involves a gradual refinement of model features – a top-down
340 approach – as needed (Zhang et al., 2008; Sivapalan et al., 2003). Another strategy involves
341 development of critical datasets, and the subsequent addition of model features as the spatio-
342 temporal scale of the data permits. Such a global synthesis effort will require global-scale

343 datasets from a variety of sources, including remotely sensed data. The selection of appropriate
344 data at this scale presents challenges in balancing spatial resolution, uncertain data accuracy, and
345 consistency among the considered datasets. Findings from another synthesis study titled, “Water
346 Availability for Ungaged Basins” revealed that, as various hydrologic modeling communities
347 converge towards continental-domain hydrologic models, these communities will encounter
348 similar limitations and challenges (Archfield et al., 2015). It is our hope and contention that the
349 Budyko framework can provide a unifying perspective for bridging gaps in hydrologic data
350 availability and model resolution over a wide range of spatial and temporal scales. As shown in
351 this opinion article, the Budyko framework can also be modified beyond the traditional long-
352 term water balance, to improve basic understanding of how the land-surface response—runoff
353 and evapotranspiration—vary across natural and human-altered landscapes.

354

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364

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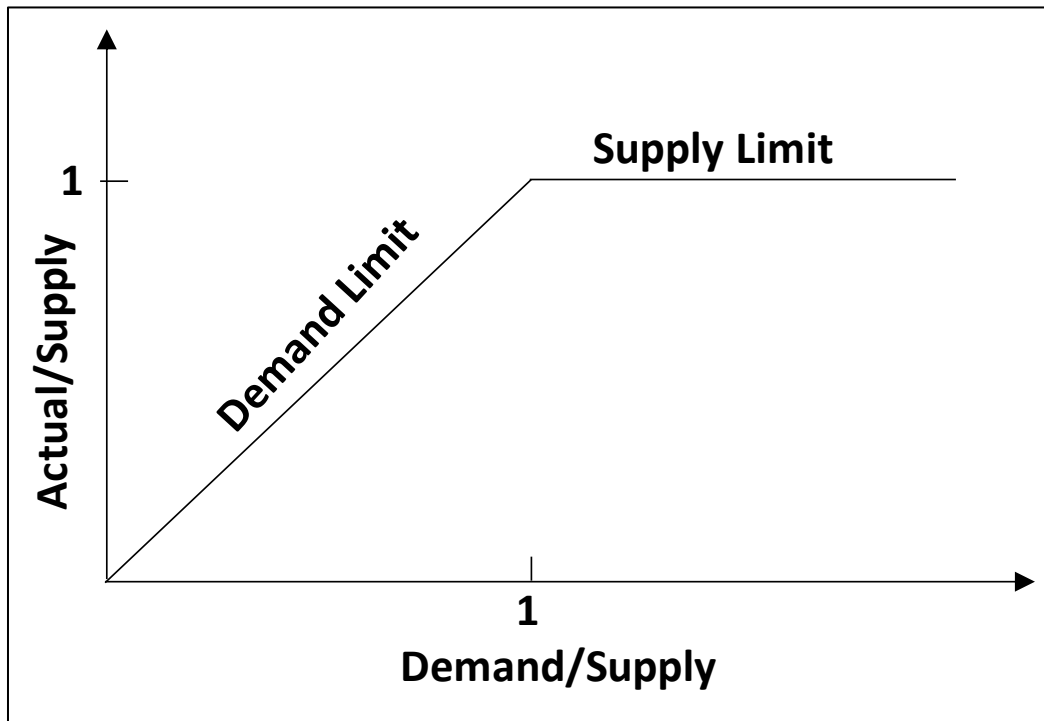
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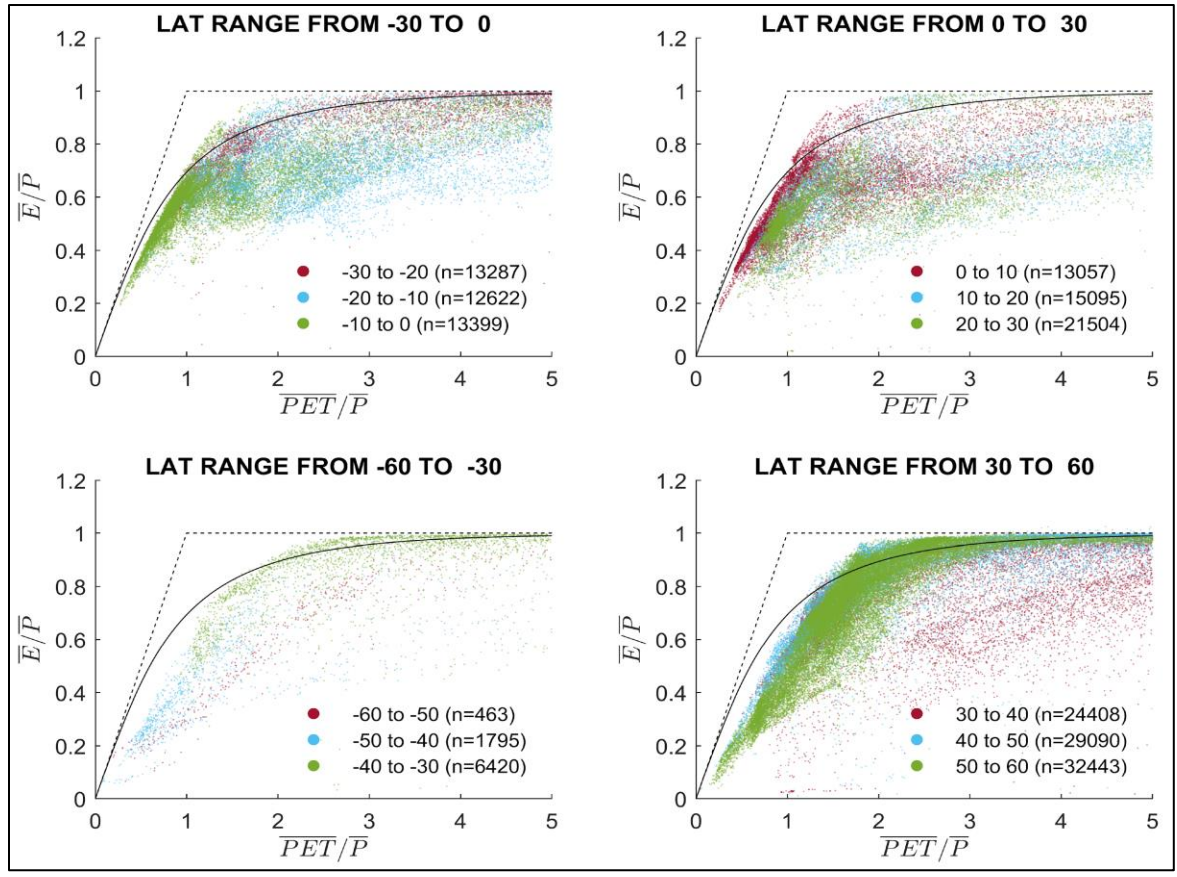
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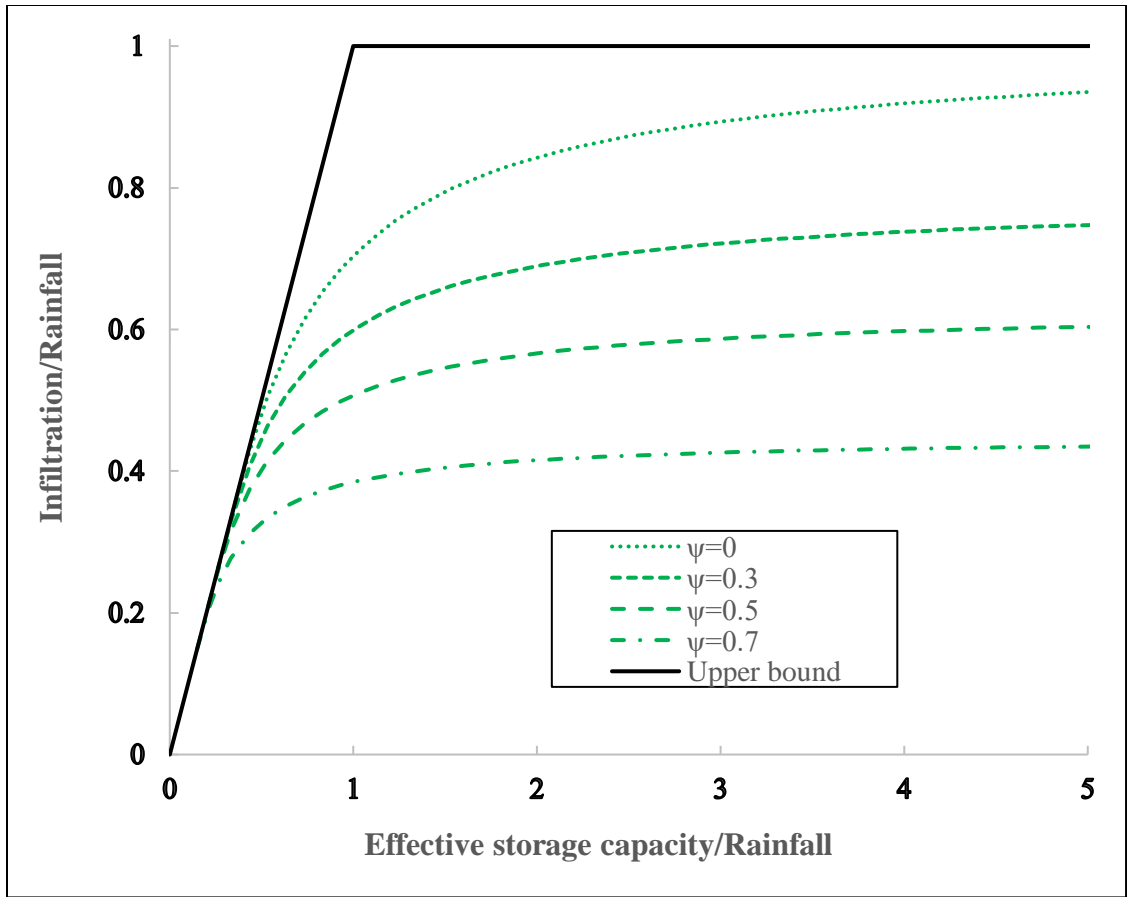


551 Figure 1: An overview of the Budyko supply and demand framework for understanding the land-
552 surface flux response (actual) over natural and human-altered watersheds. The “limits” concept
553 as suggested by Budyko (1958) quantifies the actual response (Y-axis) based on the physical
554 demand-to-supply ratio of energy/moisture over the control volume or the watershed.
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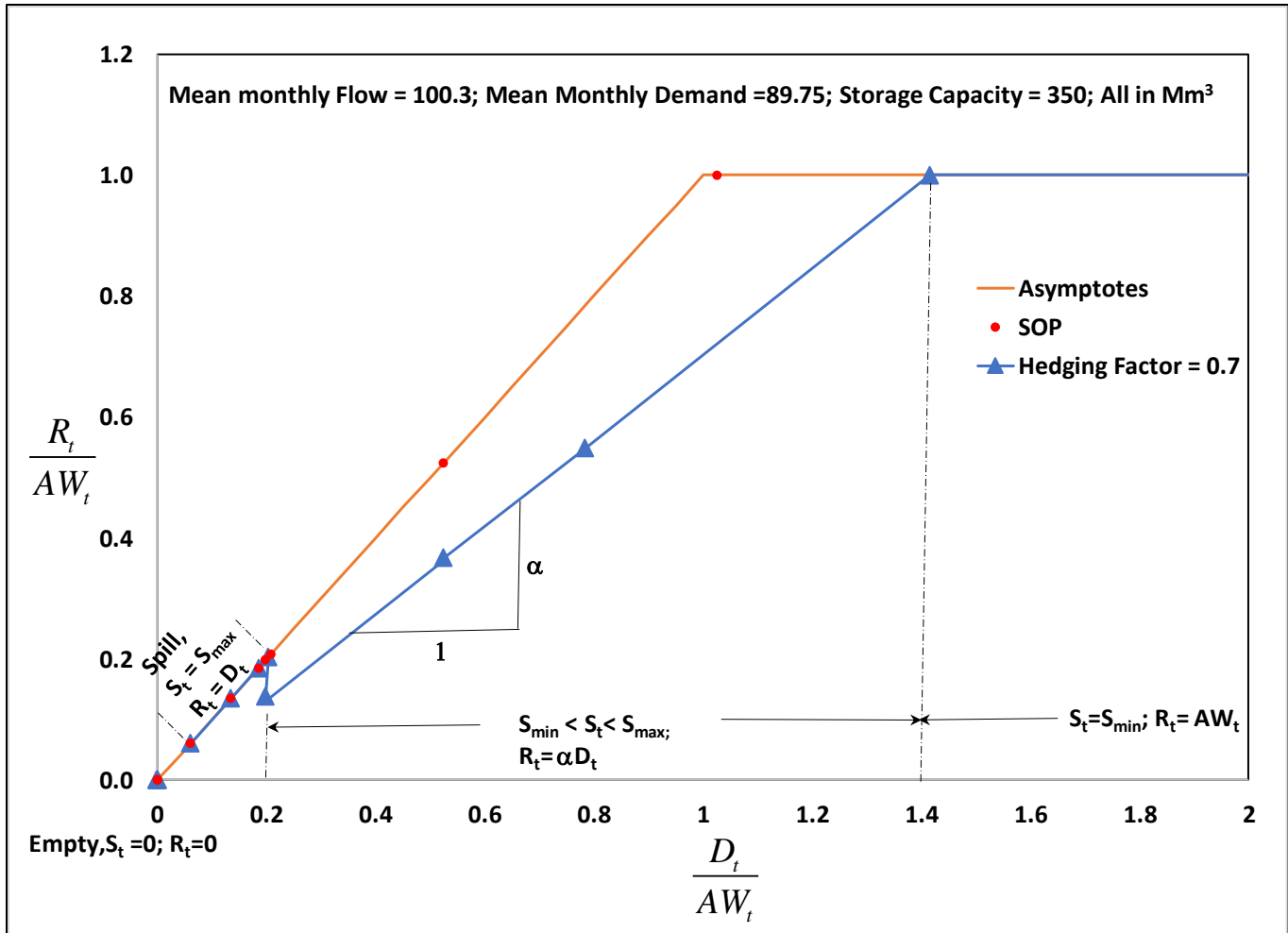


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Figure 2: The traditional Budyko framework for long-term water balance along with the asymptotes and the Budyko curve ($\overline{E}/\overline{P} = \left[(1 - \exp(-\overline{PET}/\overline{P})) * \overline{PET}/\overline{P} * \tanh(\overline{PET}/\overline{P})^{-1} \right]^{0.5}$). The ratio of mean annual potential evapotranspiration (\overline{PET} , demand) to mean annual precipitation (\overline{P} , supply) explains the ratio of mean annual evapotranspiration (\overline{E} , actual) and \overline{P} , and the data points are from GLDAS-2 estimates (Rodell et al., 2004) at the pixel level (0.25°) for the period 1948-2010 over the northern (right column, 0°-30° and 30°-60° latitudes) and southern (left column, 0° -30° and -30° to -60° latitudes) hemispheres.



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 568 Figure 3: Modeling infiltration in the Budyko supply and demand framework: the ratio of
 569 infiltration (actual) and rainfall depth is a function of the ratio of infiltration capacity (demand)
 570 and rainfall depth (supply) as well as the initial soil moisture condition represented by the degree
 571 of saturation (ψ) (Reproduced from Wang (2018)).
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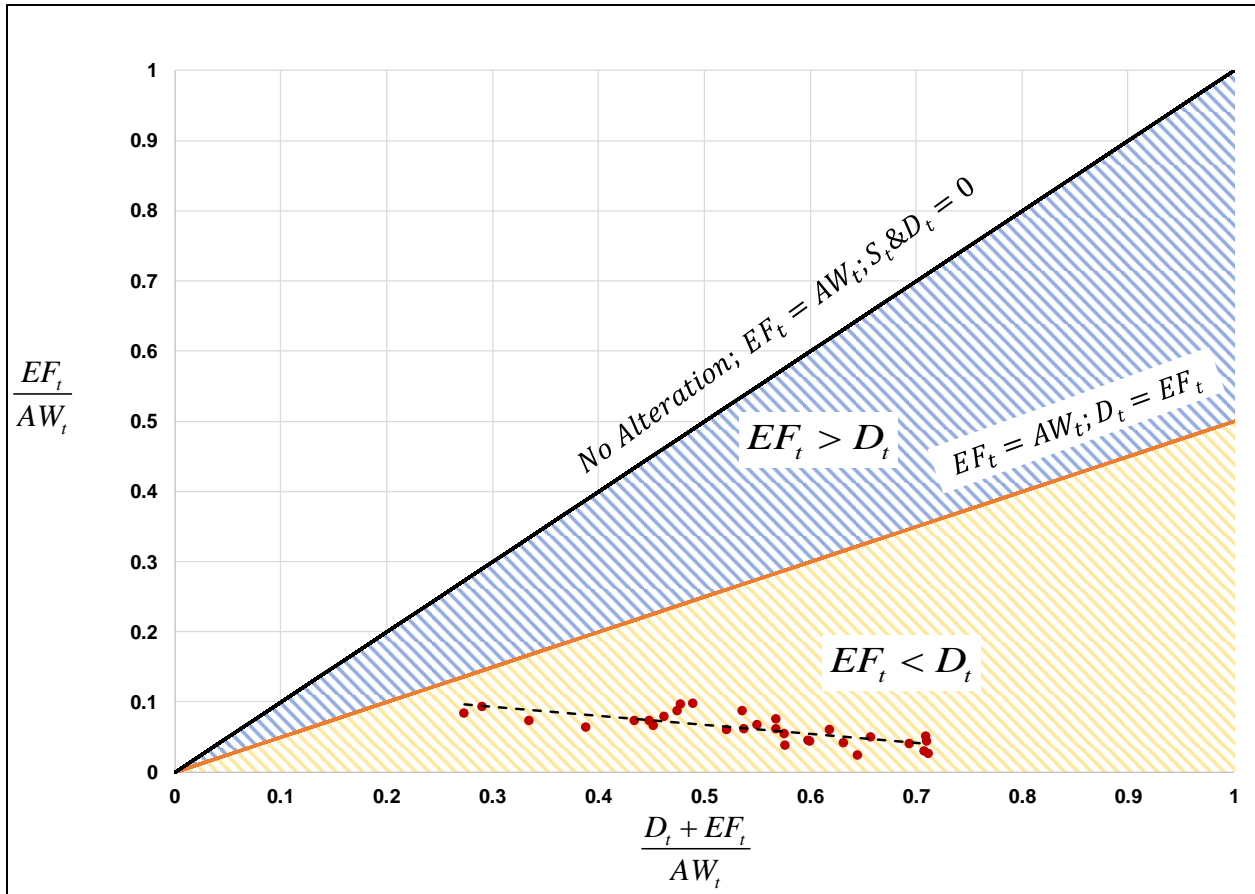


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574 Figure 4: Modeling hedging policy of reservoir operations in the Budyko supply and demand
 575 framework. The standard operating policy (SOP) is corresponding to the asymptotes. For the
 576 hedging rule, delivery or release is “actual”, available water is “supply”, and human use is
 577 “demand”. For demonstration purposes, a linear function is assumed for the hedging rule (i.e.,
 578 $R_t = \alpha D_t$). The storage conditions are indicated for the hedging policy alone.

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Figure 5: Modeling synthesizing flow alteration in the Budyko supply and demand framework: the ratio of environmental flow (“actual”; EF_t) and the available water (AW_t) as a function of the ratio of the total demand for human and environmental flow (“demand”; D_t) and the available water (“supply”). Annual flows from Falls Lake, North Carolina (red dots) show human withdrawal for water supply is more than the downstream environmental flow release.