



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

4
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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Global hydroclimatic conditions have been significantly altered over the past century by
17 anthropogenic influences that arise from the warming global climate and also from local/regional
18 anthropogenic disturbances. Traditionally, studies have used coupling of multiple models to
19 understand how land-surface fluxes vary due to changes in global climatic patterns and local
20 land-use changes. We argue that Budyko’s framework that relies on the supply and demand
21 concept could be effectively adapted and extended to quantify the role of drivers – both changing
22 climate and local human disturbances – in altering the land-surface response across the globe.
23 We review the Budyko framework along with potential extensions with an intent to further the



24 applicability of the framework to emerging hydrologic questions. Challenges in extending the
25 Budyko framework over various spatio-temporal scales and evaluating the water balance at these
26 various scales with global data sets are also discussed.

27

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

29 The traditional Budyko formulation provides the long-term water balance as a single-
30 stage partitioning of precipitation into runoff and evapotranspiration; and it has been verified
31 over thousands of natural watersheds around the globe (Zhang et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2007;
32 Sivapalan et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2012; Padrón et al., 2017). Besides the aridity index,
33 which is defined as the ratio of the mean annual potential evapotranspiration to the mean annual
34 precipitation, Milly et al. (1994) and Sankarasubramanian and Vogel (2002) proposed additional
35 controls on the long-term water balance including seasonality and soil moisture holding capacity
36 that enhanced the Budyko framework for explaining the spatial variability in mean annual runoff
37 at the continental scale. Studies have also extended the Budyko framework for capturing the
38 interannual variability in runoff (Koster and Suarez, 1999; Sankarasubramanian and Vogel,
39 2002, 2003). More recently, the Budyko framework has been extended for explaining the
40 seasonal hydroclimatology of basins (Petersen et al., 2012; Chen et al. 2013; Petersen et al.
41 2018). Similarly, the Budyko framework has been extended for quantifying the non-dimensional
42 sensitivity (also termed elasticity) of land-surface response to changes in climatic controls under
43 different hydroclimatic regimes (Dooge, 1992; Dooge et al., 1999; Sankarasubramanian et al.,
44 2001).

45 Perhaps the most unique aspect of the Budyko framework lies in its Darwinian approach
46 which enables us to view the entire hydroclimatic system without focusing on each physical



47 process in isolation (Harman and Troch, 2014; Wang and Tang, 2014). Darwinian approach
48 seeks to document patterns of variation in populations of hydrologic systems and develop
49 theories that explain these observed patterns in terms of the mechanisms and conditions that
50 determine their historical development (Harman and Troch, 2014). Even though most studies
51 which employed Budyko's framework have focused on natural basins, the original monograph
52 (Budyko, 1974), *Climate and Life*, considered the role of human influence on climate including
53 impacts of reservoir storage and irrigation on evapotranspiration. As hydroclimatic regimes
54 evolve in the Anthropocene, it is critical to understand how land-surface fluxes change due to
55 changes in local watershed conditions and due to global climate change. Given the Budyko
56 framework's emphasis on a Darwinian approach and its ability to capture the fundamental
57 dimensions of land-surface fluxes, a global synthesis on the variability in these fluxes across
58 natural and human-altered watersheds should provide insights on the sensitivity of the critical
59 hydroclimatic processes to local and global changes in the Anthropocene.

60

61 **Budyko Framework for the Anthropocene**

62 We are at a critical time in which the hydroclimate, particularly land-surface fluxes, has
63 been significantly altered over the past century by anthropogenic disturbances (Entekhabi et al.,
64 1999; Vogel et al., 2015). For instance, both annual precipitation and streamflow have increased
65 during the period of 1948–1997 across the eastern United States, and those trends appear to arise
66 primarily from increases in autumn precipitation (Small et al., 2006; Rice et al., 2015). Similarly,
67 the frequency of floods is increasing in many regions, while magnitudes of flooding appear only
68 to be systematically increasing in certain spatially cohesive regions (Hirsch and Archfield, 2015;
69 Malikpour and Villarini, 2015; Archfield et al., 2016) particularly in urban areas (Vogel et al.,



70 2011; Barros et al., 2014 and Prosdocimi et al., 2015). Irrigation in the U.S. high plains leads to
71 increases in summer rainfall and streamflow in the Midwest due to land-surface and atmosphere
72 feedback (Kustu et al., 2011). Based on hydroclimatic observations from 100 large hydrological
73 basins globally, Jaramillo and Destouni (2015) found consistent and dominant effects of
74 increasing relative evapotranspiration from flow regulation and irrigation and decreasing
75 temporal runoff variability from flow regulation. Development of irrigation networks and man-
76 made reservoirs also increased surface water and groundwater withdrawals and land-use changes
77 (Maupin et al., 2014; Sankarasubramanian et al., 2017; Das et al., 2018). Similarly, construction
78 of large dams has significantly altered the downstream flow variations impacting downstream
79 ecology (Gao et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2017). Changes in land-use and land-cover also impact
80 the local energy balance creating urban heat islands (Memon et al., 2008), affecting recharge and
81 baseflow (Price, 2011), which in turn impacts a very broad range of streamflows (Allaire et al.,
82 2015) with particularly significant increases in high flows (Vogel et al., 2011; Barros et al. 2014;
83 Prosdocimi et al. 2015). Thus, anthropogenic influences arising from global climate change and
84 local to regional disturbances can significantly impact the land-surface response from the
85 watershed. Anthropogenic influences including changes in climate, land use, and water use
86 exhibit complex interactions which must be considered jointly, to understand their impact on
87 hydrologic flow alteration (Allaire et al. 2015). Performing a synthesis on how the spatio-
88 temporal variability of land-surface fluxes – runoff, evapotranspiration, net radiation, and
89 hydrologic flow alteration – differ globally in natural and human-altered watersheds is a critical
90 need to enable a complete understanding of global hydroclimate during the Anthropocene. The
91 Budyko framework provides an ideal approach for such inquiry, because it has been used to
92 decompose changes in long-term land-surface fluxes due to both natural variability and human



93 influence (e.g., Roderick and Farquhar, 2011; Wang and Hejazi, 2011; Yang et al., 2014; Jiang et
94 al., 2015).

95 **Budyko Framework Adaptation in Watershed Modeling**

96 Figure 1 provides the general setup of the Budyko framework to explain the spatio-
97 temporal variability of land-surface fluxes in natural watersheds and human-altered landscapes.
98 The framework relies on conservation of mass and energy to model and predict the “actual”
99 hydroclimatic variable of interest based on the available “demand” and “supply” of mass and
100 energy (Figure 1). The rationale for using the Budyko framework for understanding the spatial
101 variability in land-surface fluxes over natural/human-altered watersheds lies in its ability to
102 capture the hydroclimatic dimensions of supply and demand, thereby providing a low-
103 dimensional parsimonious approach (Figure 1) to this multidimensional problem. Here, we
104 evaluate and extend the Budyko framework for understanding the spatio-temporal variability of
105 different land-surface fluxes.

106 ***Long-term Water Balance***

107 The most commonly used framework for modeling long-term water balance is to estimate
108 the mean annual evapotranspiration (“actual”) based on the ratio of mean annual potential
109 evapotranspiration (“demand”) to the mean annual precipitation (“supply”). Thus, the upper limit
110 for mean annual evapotranspiration is potential evapotranspiration (precipitation) in a humid
111 (arid) region. The family of Budyko curves estimates the evapotranspiration ratio (“actual”/
112 “supply”) based on the aridity index (“demand”/“supply”). For additional details, see
113 Sankarasubramanian and Vogel (2001). Most studies have focused on evaluating the long-term
114 water balance at regional and continental scale (see Wang et al., 2016 for a detailed review).
115 Studies have also focused on the impact of land cover and climate on long-term water yield using



116 global data (Zhou et al., 2015). Here, we evaluate the Budyko framework to the global scale
117 using the data from the Global Land-Surface Data Assimilation System, version 2 (GLDAS2)
118 (Rodell et al., 2004). Data points of mean annual evapotranspiration and aridity index are
119 obtained from the GLDAS2 dataset with a spatial resolution of 0.25° for the period 1948-2010.
120 Figure 2 shows the performance of the Budyko curve in estimating the mean annual
121 evapotranspiration based on the aridity index data between 60° S to 60° N. Even though the
122 Budyko curve provides a first-order approximation of the spatial variability in the
123 evapotranspiration ratio (Figure 2), the scatter around the curve is quite considerable. Studies
124 have shown that seasonality in moisture and energy and their co-availability (i.e., phase
125 difference between moisture and energy availability within the year) and soil moisture holding
126 capacity partially control the scatter around the Budyko curves (Milly et al., 1994,
127 Sankarasubramanian and Vogel, 2003). Another question of interest is to understand the lower
128 bound on the evapotranspiration ratio, which is typically limited by the moisture availability in a
129 region (Wang and Tang, 2014). Numerous studies on long-term balance have employed fitting
130 the observed long-term water balance by parameterizing the Budyko curves (see Wang et al.,
131 2016 review paper). However, limited/no effort has been undertaken on how this data cloud of
132 long-term water balance cloud is expected to change under potential climate change and how this
133 interplay between moisture and energy is expected to affect the long-term water balance under
134 different type of watersheds (Creed et al., 2014). Similarly, recent studies have extended
135 Budyko's steady-state supply-to-demand framework for modeling land-surface fluxes over fine
136 (daily and monthly) time scales (Zhang et al., 2008). Validating these emerging frameworks with
137 global hydrologic data will provide an understanding of the critical process controls in estimating
138 land-surface fluxes. This validation effort will also help in understanding the advantages and



139 limitations of such parsimonious modeling approach towards estimating evapotranspiration and
140 streamflow at various spatio-temporal scales.

141 ***Extension of Budyko's "supply and demand" concept for infiltration***

142 The upper bounds on the Budyko framework arise from the conservation of mass and
143 energy. Hence, in principle, it could be applied to other hydrological processes. Zhang et al.
144 (2008) applied the Budyko's monthly supply and demand attributes to estimate the catchment
145 retention and the overland runoff from the soil moisture zone. Wang (2018) developed the
146 infiltration equation for saturation excess in the Budyko's supply and demand framework, i.e.,
147 modelling the ratio of infiltration to rainfall depth as a function of the ratio between infiltration
148 capacity and rainfall depth (Figure 3). The cumulative infiltration depth during a rainfall event is
149 defined as the "actual" variable of interest, and the cumulative rainfall depth during an event is
150 defined as the "supply". The effective soil water storage capacity for the event is defined as the
151 "demand", which is dependent on the initial soil moisture condition. In Figure 3, the initial soil
152 moisture condition is represented by the degree of saturation, ψ , which is defined as the ratio of
153 initial soil water storage and storage capacity (Wang, 2018). For a dry soil with low ψ ,
154 infiltration is expected to be higher with lower surface runoff potential. The upper bounds of
155 these curves (Figure 3) are similar to the Budyko's asymptotes corresponding to infiltration
156 capacity-limited and rainfall depth-limited conditions. In this illustration, the Budyko framework
157 is extended to estimate the temporal variability of infiltration into the soil based on soil water
158 storage capacity and antecedent conditions (ψ). Thus, the parsimonious framework stems from
159 the Budyko's supply and demand concept to develop the asymptotes and then use those
160 asymptotes to identify and explain various critical process controls (e.g., infiltration in Figure 3).



161 Although the above extensions of the Budyko framework demonstrate the potential for
162 developing a low-dimensional parsimonious modeling strategy, data-based validation efforts
163 have focused primarily on the long-term hydroclimatic attributes (i.e., mean, variance and
164 elasticity) of observed land-surface fluxes in natural basins (Figure 2) (Sankarasubramanian and
165 Vogel, 2001; Abatzoglou and Ficklin, 2017). Representing a hydroclimatic variable of interest
166 (i.e., “actual”) as a ratio to the “supply” and explaining its spatio-temporal variability based on
167 the demand/supply ratio and other variables (e.g., soil moisture holding capacity for long-term
168 water balance) provides a simplistic, non-dimensional form for understanding the process
169 controls. For instance, in the long-term water balance context, defining the demand/supply
170 relationship explains the predominant controls on the spatio-temporal variability of mean annual
171 runoff and mean annual evapotranspiration based on the basin aridity, seasonality of demand and
172 supply (i.e., in-phase or out-of-phase between moisture and energy) attributes and soil moisture
173 holding capacity (Milly, 1991). Synthesizing relevant process controls and representing them
174 within the Budyko low-dimensional framework will also help us in the catchment classification
175 and in understanding how different hydroclimatic processes of interest vary across wider regimes
176 and landscapes.

177

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

179 Figures 4-6 extend the Budyko framework to explain the spatio-temporal variability in
180 land-surface fluxes in human-altered watersheds and landscapes. A synthesis involving extension
181 and evaluation of the Budyko framework for estimating land-surface fluxes in human-altered
182 watersheds will help us understand the role of key drivers and anthropogenic disturbances (e.g.,



183 reservoir storage, land use and land cover changes) in altering the land-surface fluxes at various
 184 spatio-temporal scales.

185

186 ***Extension of Budyko’s “supply and demand” Framework for Reservoir Operation and***
 187 ***Hedging***

188 We extend the Budyko framework for reservoir operation to meet the target demand
 189 based on the standard operating policy (SOP) and linear hedging policy (Draper and Lund,
 190 2004). A hedging policy in reservoir operation aims to conserve water for future use by
 191 curtaining the current demand (Draper and Lund, 2004). Given an initial storage (S_{t-1}), inflow
 192 (I_t), demand (D_t) and evaporation (E_t) over a given time step (t), one could obtain the actual
 193 release (R_t), and ending storage (S_t) along with spill (SP_t) using a simple mass balance (equation
 194 1).

195
$$S_t = S_{t-1} + I_t - E_t - R_t - SP_t \quad \dots (1)$$

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

199
$$\begin{aligned} S_t = S_{\max}, R_t = D_t, SP_t = AW_t - D_t - S_{\max} & \text{ if } AW_t - D_t \geq S_{\max} \\ S_t = AW_t - R_t, R_t = \alpha D_t, SP_t = 0 & \text{ if } S_{\min} < AW_t - D_t < S_{\max} \\ S_t = S_{\min}, R_t = AW_t, SP_t = 0 & \text{ if } S_{\min} \leq AW_t - D_t \end{aligned} \quad \dots (2)$$

200 Rewriting AW_t as “supply”, D_t as “demand” and R_t (“actual”), we develop the Budyko
 201 framework for the reservoir operation under SOP and hedging policy (Figure 4). The SOP
 202 simply provides the asymptotes, the upper bounds, for the R_t / AW_t (“actual”/ “supply”) ratio.
 203 Figure 4 also demonstrates the developed framework for a hypothetical system for estimating the



204 monthly releases (see supporting information (SI) Tables 1-2 for data and details). Increased
205 hedging reduces the release and increases the storage and spill from the system. For
206 demonstration, a linear hedging policy is applied. But the real-world system operation will have
207 a complex non-linear release policy, still the data points are expected to lie within the bounds.
208 For systems with a small storage-to-demand ratio, the spill portion on the left asymptote is
209 expected to be much longer than a system with large storage-to-demand ratio. Similarly, for
210 systems with large (small) storage-to-demand ratio, most data points are expected to lie below
211 (on) the asymptotes portion of the framework. Given that this framework in Figure 4 is non-
212 dimensional, we could analyze release to demand characteristics for reservoirs with competing
213 purposes (e.g., hydroelectric vs flood control) and synthesize how release patterns vary based on
214 the demand-to-available water ratio across different type of systems. Similarly, one can also
215 formulate the functional forms for non-linear hedging policy like Budyko equations as the upper
216 bounds are specified by the “supply and demand” relationship.

217

218 ***Representing Human Demand and Environmental Flows from Reservoir Operation***

219 Reservoir storages reduce the runoff variability to meet the human demand, thereby
220 resulting in significant flow alterations (Wang et al., 2014). By adding a dedicated term,
221 environmental flow, EF_t , we rewrite the reservoir mass balance in equation (3).

$$222 \quad S_t = AW_t - R_t - EF_t - SP_t \quad \dots (3)$$

223 Given our variable of interest here is EF_t (“actual”), we represent the “demand” as $R_t + EF_t$ and
224 available water, AW_t , as “supply”, which gives us a simple framework to visualize the ratio,
225 environmental flow allocation EF_t / AW_t , has the upper bound AW_t , which is specified by the



226 1:1 line. The term, $1 - EF_t / AW_t$, simply represents the alteration ratio at a given time step. The
227 lower bound specifies only allocation ($R_t / EF_t = 0$) for human demand and a slope of 0.5
228 indicates equal allocation for human need and ecological demand. For instance, if R_t / EF_t falls
229 below the slope of 0.5, it indicates significant flow alteration to meet human demand. In the case
230 of Falls Lake (Figure 5), a major water supply reservoir in the triangle area in NC (see SI Table 3
231 for data and additional details), it is evident that flow alteration is significant due to increased
232 allocation for human demand since more data points lie below the equal allocation line. Using
233 the proposed framework in Figure 5, one could synthesize how reservoir systems with large
234 residence times, which is otherwise known as degree of regulation, impact flow alteration under
235 arid and humid conditions. The negative linear trend indicates (Figure 5) increased allocation
236 human use results in decreased environmental flow allocation. For instance, reservoirs in arid
237 (humid) climates are typically larger to reduce the larger (smaller) interannual variability in
238 runoff, hence such systems are expected to have higher (lower) degree of regulation. However,
239 this synthesis of reservoir systems across different climatic regimes needs to be evaluated in the
240 context of withdrawal for human use and their purpose and the consumptive use associated with
241 it. We argue the proposed framework could be useful for understanding the trade-off between
242 water allocation for human use and downstream ecological requirements.

243

244 ***Interaction between Evapotranspiration and Sensible Heat***

245 Land use and land cover changes due to urbanization modify the evapotranspiration due
246 to limited water availability resulting in increased differences between urban and rural
247 temperature during the nighttime, which creates an urban heat island. Expressing the net
248 radiation, R_n , as the “supply” of energy available at the surface, the latent heat flux (LE) as the



249 “demand”, and the sensible heat flux, H , as the “actual” variable of interest, we developed the
250 bounds (Figure 6) between the latent heat flux ratio (LE/R_n) and the sensible heat flux ratio
251 (H/R_n). The basis for considering the latent heat flux as the “demand” stems from the view that
252 net radiation is effectively utilized for evapotranspiration in regions with increased water
253 availability with the residual energy being converted to net sensible heat flux. For the hourly
254 data presented in Figure 6, latent heat flux indirectly quantifies the available soil water. The
255 proposed framework in Figure 6 could also be obtained by representing the evapotranspiration
256 ratio (Figure 1) as latent heat ratio with latent heat as “actual”, net radiation as “supply” and
257 potential evapotranspiration as latent heat capacity (i.e., “demand”). Given Figure 6, one could
258 use this framework to evaluate the differences in sensible heat flux between urban and rural
259 settings by comparing across regions with abundant and limited water availability. Figure 6
260 evaluates the proposed framework by plotting the hourly (7 AM- 5 PM) climatology of latent
261 heat flux ratio and sensible heat flux ratio in August from two FLUXNET towers
262 (<https://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/>), one from the urban setting and another from the rural setting, near
263 Minneapolis, MN. The hourly climatology of H , LE and R_n , show the urban tower experience
264 more sensible heat than the rural tower during the daytime (Figure SI-1). However, the primary
265 challenge in using the FLUXNET data for evaluating the framework is due to the non-
266 availability of FLUXNET towers in urban settings. Identifying pairs of FLUXNET stations in
267 urban and rural settings and synthesizing the differences in urban and rural temperature under
268 different climatic regimes would provide us a pathway to understand the urban heat island effect.
269 Information available on the infrastructure characteristics and the type of pavement could also be
270 useful in explaining the spatial variability in the difference between urban and rural temperature.
271 Understanding how the sensible heat flux varies between urban and rural regimes across



272 different hydroclimatic regimes (i.e., arid vs humid) as the water availability in the urban
273 landscapes control the sensible heat.

274

275 We argue Budyko's supply and demand framework should not be considered just for
276 long-term water balance. As the supply and demand framework is based on conservation
277 equations, it could be exploited for understanding and quantifying the spatial variability in land-
278 surface fluxes under natural and human-altered landscapes. Figures 4-6 provide an extension of
279 the Budyko framework for understanding how land-surface fluxes are modified due to human
280 influence. Understanding the key drivers that alter the spatial variability of land-surface fluxes
281 using the modified and extended Budyko's framework should help in identifying the relevant
282 low-dimensional attributes that control the regional hydroclimate of human-altered
283 watersheds/landscapes. For long-term ET, it is the aridity index. For infiltration, it is the ratio of
284 infiltration capacity to rainfall depth. For reservoir operation, it is the ratio of human water
285 demand to available water in reservoir. For environmental flows, it is the competition with
286 human demand and available water. For the urban heat island, it is the water availability that
287 suppresses the sensible heat due to evaporative cooling. Thus, the low-dimensional attribute
288 varies for each environmental issue. Further, extending Budyko's framework for such
289 anthropogenic causes should enable the explicit decomposition and attribution of changes in
290 land-surface fluxes at various temporal scales resulting from changes in local/regional
291 hydroclimate or watershed-level modification. To refine existing hydroclimatologic models and
292 datasets developed at the regional, continental, global scale, a synthesis study is needed to
293 understand how the land-surface response varies across natural and human-altered watersheds.
294 Such a synthesis effort is also expected to enable a systematic decomposition of watershed-scale



295 anthropogenic influences and large-scale climate impacts in modulating land-surface fluxes at a
296 global scale, providing a tribute to Budyko's legacy.

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

298 Emphasis on understanding the complex interactions and feedback between human and
299 hydrological systems has renewed focus on "Socio-hydrology" (Sivapalan et al., 2012). The
300 impact of water use, land use and land cover and other anthropogenic influences on watershed
301 runoff and the associated non-stationary issues have been referred to as the study of "Hydro-
302 morphology" (Vogel, 2011). Vogel et al. (2015) argue that "to resolve the complex water
303 problems that the world faces today, nearly every theoretical hydrologic model introduced
304 previously is in need of revision to accommodate how climate, land, vegetation, and
305 socioeconomic factors interact, change, and evolve over time." Study of the interaction between
306 humans and the earth system has also received considerable support from various agencies such
307 as the National Science Foundation, the National Institute of Food and Agriculture and the U.S.
308 Geological Survey with targeted programs (e.g., Water Sustainability and Climate, Coupled
309 Human-Natural Systems and Innovations in Food-Energy-Water Systems, NAQWA). Thus,
310 evolving the Budyko framework to understand how land-surface responses vary under natural
311 and human-altered landscapes will also support various ongoing studies on the impact of human
312 influence on hydrological systems.

313 Enhancements to the Budyko framework will also support other ongoing activities that
314 focus on improving the ability to predict the hydrologic behavior of natural and ungauged
315 watersheds. As competition for water has increased, there has been increasing attention placed
316 on the need for water availability information at ungauged locations, even in regions where water
317 has not been considered in the past to be a limited resource. For these reasons, the decade from



318 2003 to 2012 was recognized by the International Association of Hydrological Sciences as the
319 Prediction in Ungauged Basins (PUB) Decade (Sivapalan et al., 2003). Blöschl et al. (2013;
320 tables A7-A10) showed that several methods to predict streamflow in ungauged watersheds have
321 been proposed; however, no one method has been universally accepted or demonstrated to work
322 in all hydrologic settings. Other studies have evaluated predictability in ungauged basins at the
323 global scale (Hrachowitz et al., 2013). Since the Budyko framework provides an approach for
324 improving our understanding of ungauged basins, there is potential cross-fertilization in various
325 ongoing studies for evaluating the extended Budyko framework and datasets for supporting
326 various global- and continental-scale hydrologic initiatives.

327 Another exciting aspect of the extension of the Budyko framework for considering
328 anthropogenic influences, involves the development of hydrologic indicators for a wide range of
329 purposes ranging from watershed classification, environmental permitting and a variety of water
330 management activities. There is a continuing need to develop hydrologic indicators which are
331 founded in the science of hydrology, for the purpose of watershed classification as expressed so
332 nicely by Wagener et al. (2007). The idea of plotting nondimensional variables, analogous to the
333 nondimensional variables proposed in Figure 1, has a very close association with the
334 development of nondimensional hydroclimatologic indicators for both natural (Weiskel et al.
335 2014) and human dominated (Weiskel et al., 2007) watershed systems. For example, the aridity
336 and runoff ratios, two commonly used nondimensional hydroclimatic indicators arise naturally
337 from the Budyko framework for natural watersheds. We anticipate that a wide range of new
338 hydrologic indicators, founded on the science of hydrology, yet useful for water management
339 and watershed classification, will arise from the types of studies envisioned here which extend
340 the Budyko framework to accommodate anthropogenic influences.



341 One significant challenge in evaluating the Budyko framework under human-altered
342 landscapes would be the availability of data on hydroclimate, storages, and human influences -
343 water withdrawal and land use changes, reservoir storages and releases - at different spatio-
344 temporal scales. The monthly change in total water storage is a critical component of accurate
345 assessments of land-surface fluxes particularly in regions of high anthropogenic influence where
346 storage is impacted by pumping of groundwater resources, or conversion of surface water to
347 evapotranspiration through diversion for irrigation. In addition to the tremendous challenges
348 relating to data availability, there is the open research question of how we can capture the
349 complexity of human-water systems with a low dimensional parsimonious modeling approach.
350 One approach involves a gradual refinement of model features – a top-down approach – as
351 needed (Zhang et al., 2008; Sivapalan et al., 2003). Another strategy involves development of
352 critical data sets and then addition of model features as the spatio-temporal scale of the data
353 permits. Such a global synthesis effort will require sources of several global-scale data sets from
354 a variety of sources, including remotely sensed data. The selection of appropriate data at this
355 scale presents challenges in balancing spatial resolution and uncertain accuracy and consistency
356 among the considered data sets. Findings from another synthesis study titled, “Water
357 Availability for Ungaged Basins” revealed that, as various hydrologic modeling communities
358 converge towards continental-domain hydrologic models, these communities will encounter
359 similar limitations and challenges (Archfield et al., 2015). It is our hope and contention that the
360 Budyko framework can provide a unifying perspective for bridging gaps in hydrologic data
361 availability and model resolution over a wide range of spatial and temporal scales. As shown in
362 this opinion article, the framework can also be modified beyond the traditional long-term balance



363 for understanding how the land-surface responses, runoff and evapotranspiration, vary across
364 natural and human-altered landscapes.

365

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371

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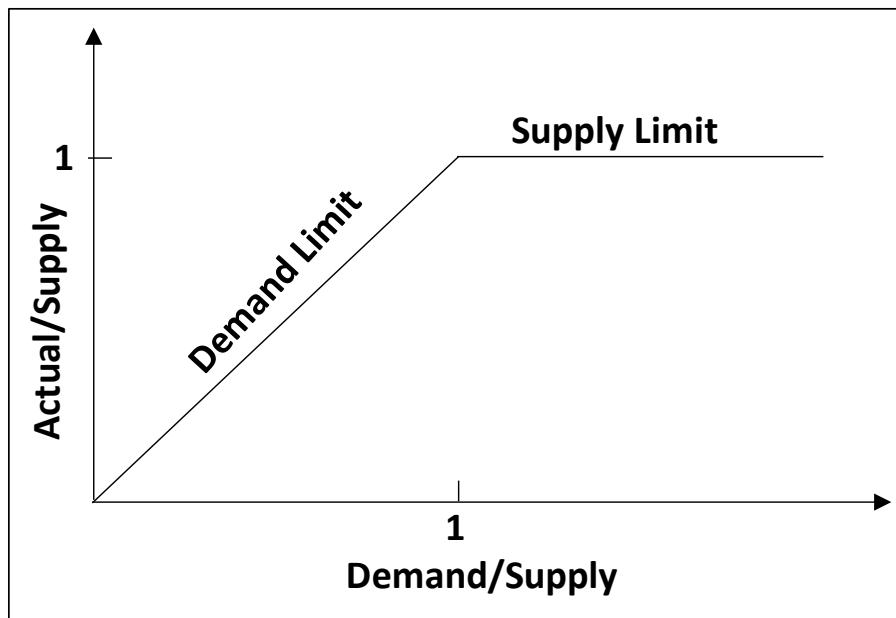
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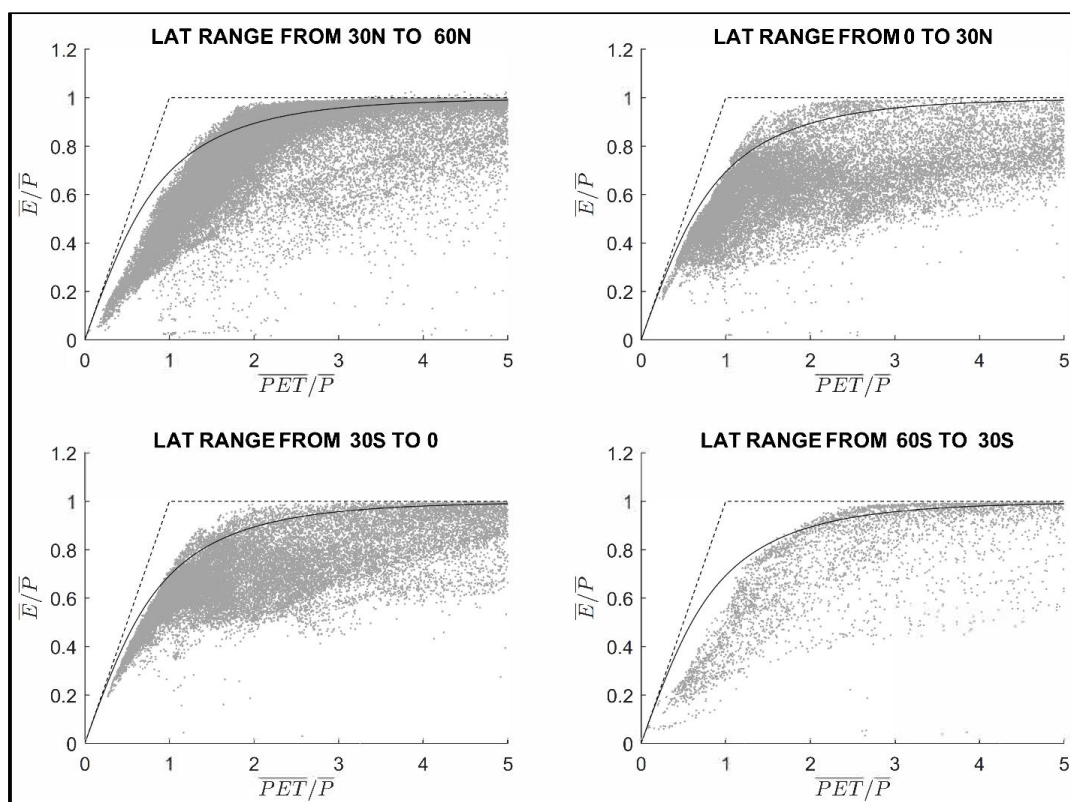
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543 Figure 1: An overview of the Budyko supply and demand framework for understanding the land-
544 surface flux response (actual) over natural and human-altered watersheds. The “limits” concept
545 as suggested by Budyko (1958) quantifies the actual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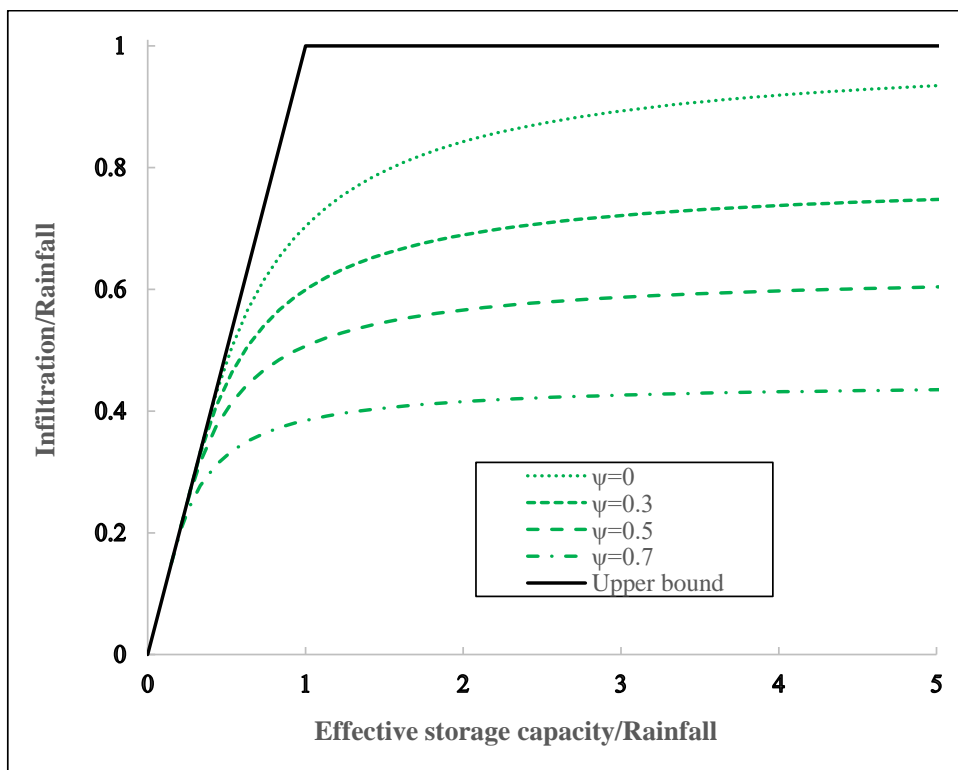


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550 Figure 2: The traditional Budyko framework for long-term water balance along with the
551 asymptotes and the Budyko curve ($\overline{ET} / \overline{P} = \left[(1 - \exp(-\overline{PET} / \overline{P})) * \overline{PET} / \overline{P} * \tanh(\overline{PET} / \overline{P})^{-1} \right]^{0.5}$). The ratio
552 of mean annual potential evapotranspiration (\overline{PET} , demand) to mean annual precipitation (\overline{P} ,
553 supply) explains the ratio of mean annual evapotranspiration (\overline{ET} , actual) and \overline{P} , and the data
554 points are from GLDAS-2 estimates at the pixel level (0.25°) for the period 1948-2010 over the
555 northern (top row, 0°-30° and 30°-60° latitudes) and southern (bottom row, -30° to 0° and -30° to
556 -60° latitudes) hemispheres.

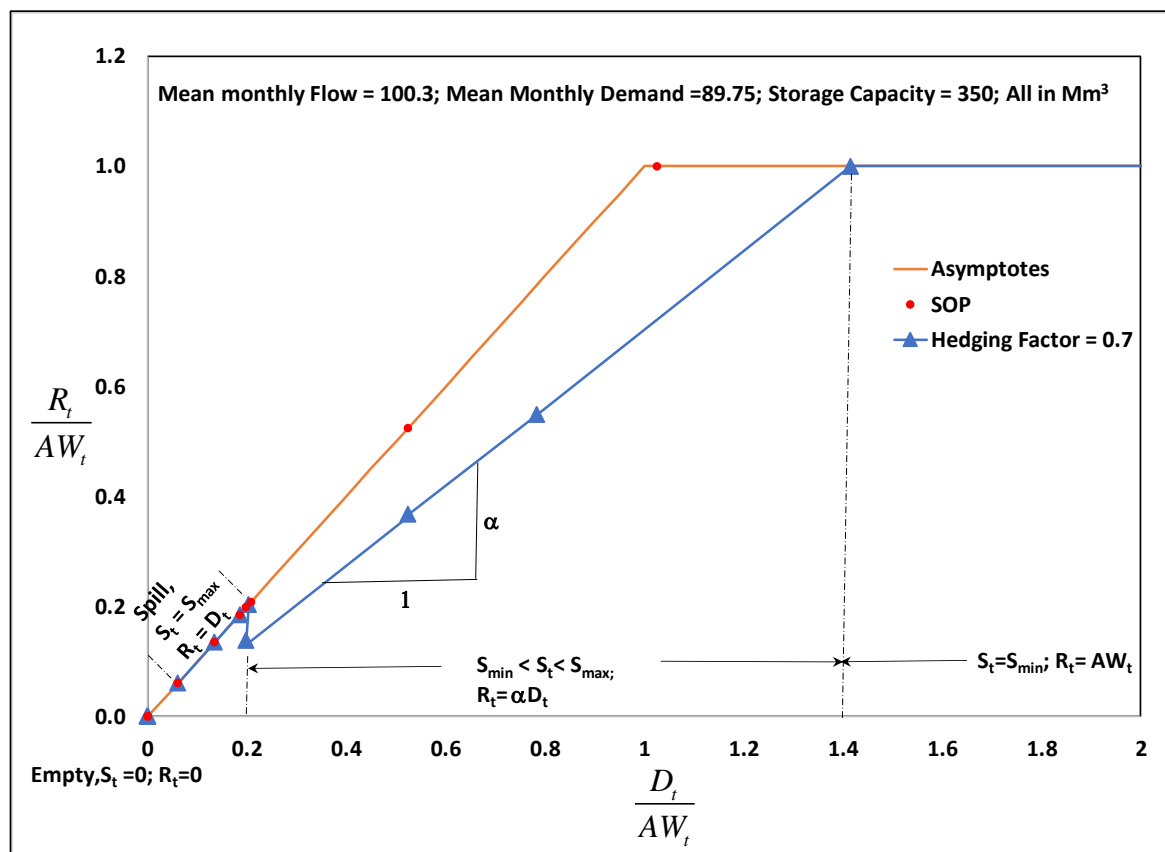
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559 Figure 3: Modeling infiltration in the Budyko's supply and demand framework: the ratio of
560 infiltration (actual) and rainfall depth is a function of infiltration capacity
561 (demand) and rainfall depth (supply) as well as the initial soil moisture condition represented by
562 the degree of saturation (ψ) (Reproduced from Wang (2018)).

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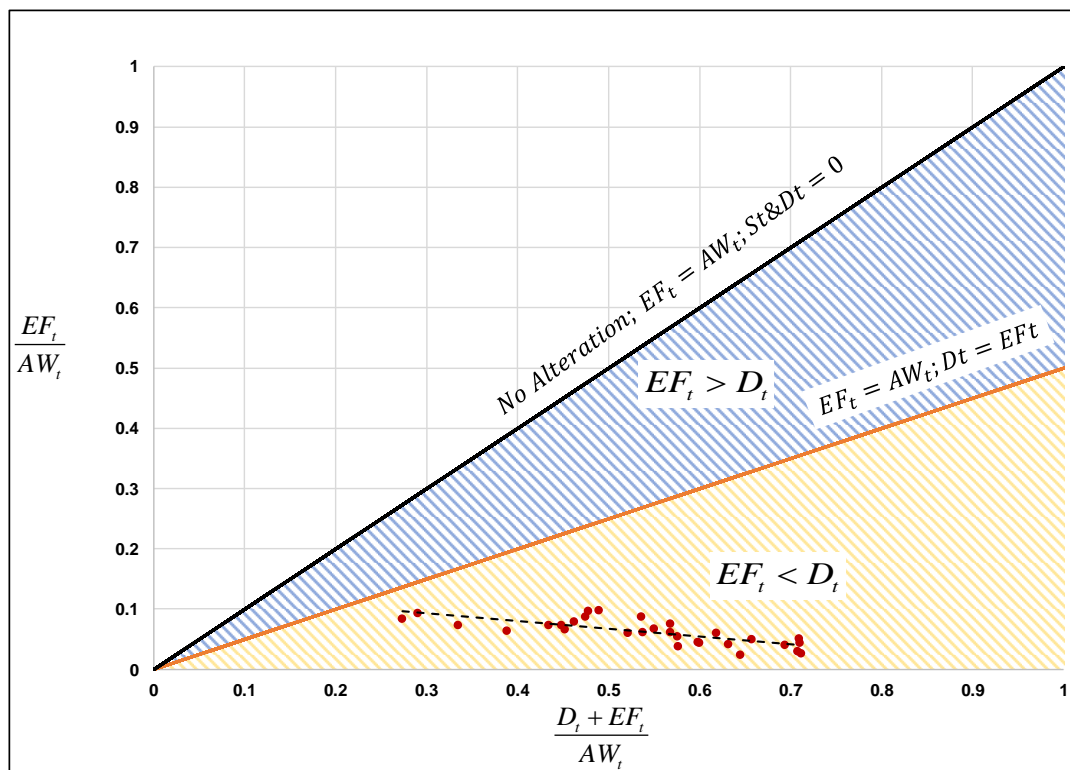
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565 Figure 4: Modeling hedging policy of reservoir operations in the Budyko's supply and demand
 566 framework. The standard operating policy (SOP) is corresponding to the asymptotes. For the
 567 hedging rule, delivery or release is “actual”, available water is “supply”, and human use is
 568 “demand”. For demonstration purpose, a linear function is assumed for the hedging rule (i.e.,
 569 $R_t = \alpha D_t$). The storage conditions are indicated for the hedging policy alone.

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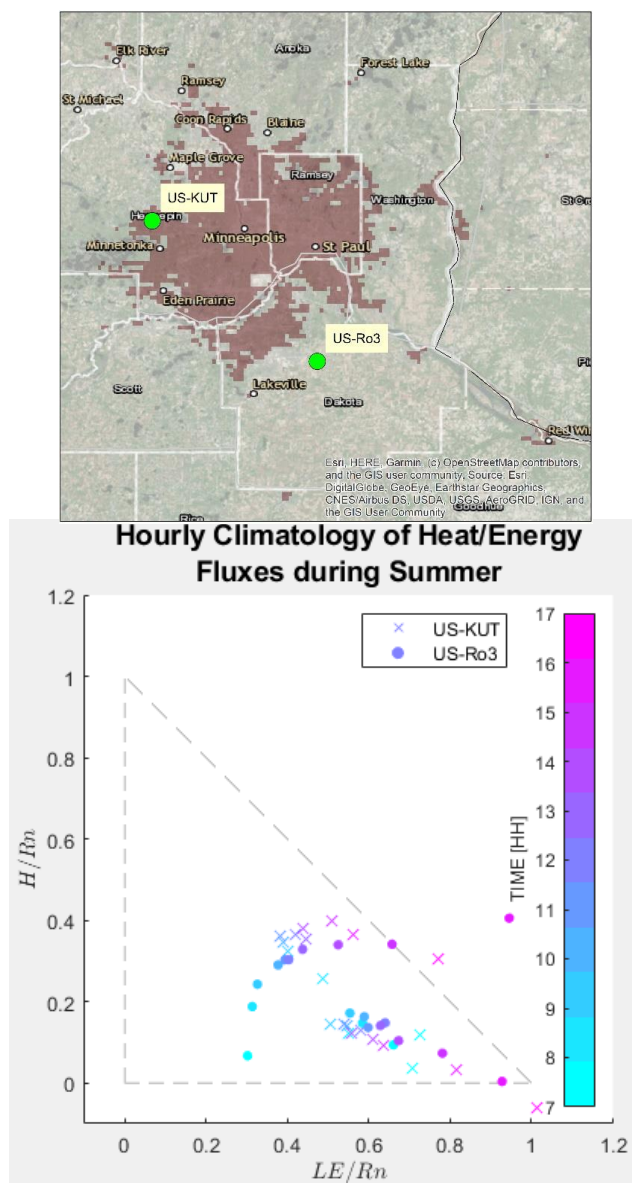
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573 Figure 5: Modeling synthesizing flow alteration in the Budyko's supply and demand framework:
574 the ratio of environmental flow ("actual") and the available water is a function of the ratio the
575 total demand for human and environmental flow ("demand") and the available water ("supply").
576 Annual flows from Falls Lake (red dots) show human withdrawal for water supply is more than
577 the downstream environmental flow release.

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602 Figure 6: Extending the Budyko framework (bottom figure) for quantifying the sensible heat
603 (“actual”) based on available energy (“supply”) and latent heat (“demand”) for two FLUXNET
604 towers (top figure), US-KUT and US-RO3, from an urban area (brown shaded) and rural area
605 (green shaded). The ratio of mean hourly sensible heat to mean hourly net radiation is plotted
606 against the ratio of mean hourly latent heat to the mean hourly net radiation from the two towers.
607 Figure SI-1 compares the average hourly values from 7 AM to 5 PM for August 2006 and 2007.
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