



1 **Transboundary water sharing policies conditioned on hydrologic variability to**
2 **inform reservoir operations**

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4 **Abstract** Water resources infrastructure is critical for energy and food security, however, the development
5 of large-scale infrastructure, such as hydropower dams, may significantly alter downstream flows,
6 potentially leading to water resources management conflicts and disputes, especially in transboundary
7 river basins. Mutually agreed upon water sharing policies for the operation of existing or new reservoirs
8 is one of the most effective strategies to mitigate conflict, yet this is a complex task involving the
9 estimation of available water, identification of users and demands, procedures for water sharing, etc. We
10 propose a water-sharing policy framework that incorporates reservoir operating rules optimization based
11 on conflicting uses and natural hydrologic variability, specifically tailored to drought conditions. We first
12 establish the trade-off between downstream and upstream water availability utilizing multi-objective
13 optimization of reservoir operating rules. Next, we simulate reservoir operation with the candidate
14 (optimal) rules, evaluate their performance, and select the most suitable rules for balancing water uses.
15 Subsequently, we build a relationship between the reservoir operations simulated from the selected rules
16 and drought-specific conditions to derive water-sharing policies. Finally, we re-optimize the reservoir

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17 operating rules to evaluate the effectiveness of the drought-specific water sharing policies. We apply the
18 framework to reservoir operation of the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) on the Blue Nile
19 River. We find that the derived water sharing policy can balance GERD power generation and downstream
20 releases, especially in dry conditions, effectively sharing the hydrologic risk in inflow variability among
21 riparian countries. The proposed framework offers a robust approach to inform water sharing policies for
22 sustainable management of transboundary water resources.

23 **Keywords:** Reservoir operation; Water sharing policy; Drought mitigation; Multi-objective optimization;
24 Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam.

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Rapid population growth and socio-economic development exacerbate stress on the management of
27 water resources globally (Vörösmarty et al., 2000; WWAP, 2019). Surface-water reservoirs and their
28 effective management is one of the most efficient means to reduce this stress by reallocating water
29 resources spatially and temporally (Gaudard et al., 2014). Thus in recent decades, many models and
30 strategies have been investigated to inform and improve reservoir operation decision-making (Lerma et
31 al., 2015; Chaves and Chang, 2008; Cancelliere et al., 2002; Giuliani et al., 2015a; Herman and Giuliani,
32 2018; Karamouz and Houck, 1982; Consoli et al., 2008; Giuliani et al., 2014; Oliveira and Loucks, 1997).
33 In general, reservoir decisions (e.g., water releases and power generation) are determined using reservoir
34 operating rules with available input variables including reservoir state (e.g., reservoir water level) and
35 hydrological conditions (e.g., reservoir inflow) (Oliveira and Loucks, 1997).

36 Reservoir operating rules are typically derived using fitting-based and simulation-optimization-based
37 approaches. In fitting-based rules derivation, reservoir operation decisions are optimized and subsequently



38 fitted with input variables using linear regression (Bhaskar and Whitlatch Jr, 1980), artificial neural
39 networks (Cancelliere et al., 2002), fuzzy inference (Chang and Chang, 2001), and decision trees (Wei
40 and Hsu, 2008). For example, Karamouz and Houck (1982) developed annual and monthly reservoir
41 operating rules by regressing reservoir releases optimized from deterministic dynamic programming onto
42 reservoir decision-making state variables. Cancelliere et al. (2002) derived the operating rules of an
43 irrigation supply reservoir by using neural networks techniques and found that the rules can improve
44 reservoir operation performance during drought conditions. Goyal et al. (2013) compared the performance
45 of artificial neural networks, fuzzy logic, and decision tree algorithms for deriving the operating rules of
46 an irrigation and power supply reservoir in northern India. In simulation-optimization methods, the
47 parameters of reservoir operating rules are optimized with an iterative simulation-based search algorithm
48 in which the performance is evaluated directly from reservoir operation simulations (Le Ngo et al.,
49 2007; Rani and Moreira, 2010). For example, Giuliani et al. (2015a) approximated reservoir operating
50 rules by using artificial neural networks and radial basis functions (RBFs) and optimized the rules for
51 multi-purpose water reservoirs with an evolutionary algorithm.

52 Most of these approaches are implemented in water resources systems contained within a basin or
53 jurisdiction in which the benefits (e.g. power generation, water supply, and ecosystem function
54 maintenance) can be quantified and evaluated (Reddy and Nagesh Kumar, 2007; Feng et al., 2018; Yang
55 et al., 2016). Reservoir operations in transboundary river basins are necessarily more complex given a
56 wide variety of social, political, economic, cultural, and physiographic conditions (Zeitoun and Mirumachi,
57 2008). Disputes and conflicts are not uncommon between riparian states in transboundary river basins
58 when water sharing agreements are non-existent or non-enforceable and claims may be defined based on
59 historical use. For example, the Nile River serves eleven countries, 250 million people (Nile Basin
60 Initiative, 2017), and is vital to agriculture, industry, and hydropower, (Paisley and Henshaw, 2013), yet



61 no mutually agreed upon water sharing policies exist. (The 1959 agreement (Guariso and Whittington,
62 1987) has been repudiated by upstream riparian states.) Acknowledging significantly divergent interests
63 and a history of conflict and distrust, quantifying the impact of reservoir operation on downstream benefits
64 is challenging, hindering development of water sharing strategies (Link et al., 2016).

65 According to the Transboundary Freshwater Dispute Database (McCracken and Wolf, 2019), the
66 existing 310 international river basins across the world are shared by 150 countries and disputed areas,
67 cover 45% of the Earth's land surface, and contribute to 60% of the world's freshwater resources. As
68 suggested by Sadoff and Grey (2002), it is critical to understand and account for the range of inter-related
69 benefits resulting from the development of international rivers in a cooperative way. Such cooperation of
70 water resources development in international river basins has been widely investigated in recent years (Li
71 et al., 2019; Luchner et al., 2019; Anghileri et al., 2013; Uitto and Duda, 2002; Dombrowsky, 2009; Tilmant
72 and Kinzelbach, 2012; Arjoon et al., 2016; Wu and Whittington, 2006; Wheeler et al., 2018; Goor et al.,
73 2010; Degefu et al., 2016). For example, Arjoon et al. (2016) proposed a benefit-sharing method based on
74 the optimization results from a hydro-economic model and evaluated the value of cooperative water
75 management in the Eastern Nile River basin; Li et al. (2019) analyzed the water benefits of stakeholders
76 from transboundary cooperation under different reservoir operation scenarios by using cooperative game
77 theory methods; Luchner et al. (2019) simulated reservoir operations and water allocation in an
78 international river basin in Central Asia and found that international cooperation in the power sector can
79 ease the conflict between upstream hydropower production and downstream irrigated agriculture.

80 Although cooperation in transboundary river basins can result in a win-win situation for both
81 downstream and upstream stakeholders, cooperative water use strategies are obstructed by single-sector
82 interests, especially when long-term commitments are involved (Wu and Whittington, 2006). More



83 specifically, it is often difficult to achieve a mutually agreed-on cooperation strategy given divergent
84 solution preferences by stakeholders. Additionally, there is no standard that regulates how the benefits of
85 water use from various sectors (e.g., drinking, agriculture, industry, recreation, and navigation) are
86 quantified and what mechanism should be used to allocate/share the benefits (Arjoon et al., 2016; Acharya
87 et al., 2020). Thus, most previous studies focus on evaluating the impact of cooperative operation in
88 transboundary river basins and illustrating the importance of a cooperative strategy through water system
89 optimization and simulation (Goor et al., 2010; Anghileri et al., 2013; Uitto and Duda, 2002; Dombrowsky,
90 2009; Tilmant and Kinzelbach, 2012; Luchner et al., 2019). There is less literature, however, addressing
91 strategies for reaching an agreement or consensus on water resources development amongst downstream
92 and upstream riparian countries in transboundary river basins (Wheeler et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Degefu
93 et al., 2016).

94 In this study, we propose a systemic framework to derive operational reservoir water-sharing policies
95 using multi-objective optimization for water use conflict mitigation. Specifically, we (1) optimize
96 reservoir operating rules and establish trade-off between downstream and upstream water availability, (2)
97 simulate reservoir operation with the candidate (optimal) rules, evaluate performance, and select the most
98 suitable rules for balancing benefits, (3) derive water-sharing policies conditioned on reservoir operations
99 and water availability forecasts, and (4) re-optimize reservoir operating rules incorporating derived water-
100 sharing policies to evaluate effectiveness and performance. We select the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance
101 Dam (GERD) in Ethiopia to demonstrate the framework and illustrate how operational water-sharing
102 strategies, reflective of upstream and downstream demands and natural hydrologic variability, can
103 promote water-sharing agreements between upstream and downstream countries.



104 **2. Study Area and Data**

105 **2.1. The Blue Nile Basin and the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam**

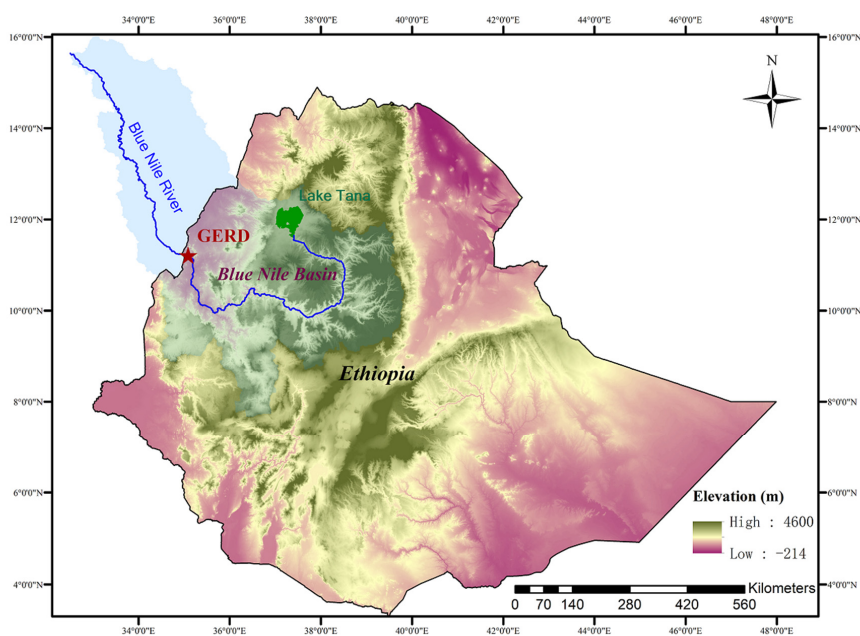
106 The Blue Nile River, the largest tributary of the Nile River, originates at Tana Lake in Ethiopia and
107 merges with the White Nile River in Khartoum, Sudan. Average annual rainfall in the upper part of the
108 basin varies between 1200 and 1800 mm (Conway, 2000), with a dominant rainy season in June–
109 September contributing approximately 70% of mean annual precipitation. During this season, the Blue
110 Nile contributes nearly 80% of the total Nile River streamflow (Swain, 2011) and the average annual
111 runoff of the Blue Nile at Roseries, near the Ethiopia–Sudan border, is approximately 49 km³ (Wheeler et
112 al., 2016), thus it plays a significant role in livelihood and development in Ethiopia, Sudan and Egypt.

113 Ethiopia started constructing the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) across the Blue Nile
114 River in 2011, approximately 15 km upstream of the Sudanese border (Fig. 1). When completed, the
115 GERD will become the largest hydroelectric dam (installed capacity exceeding 5,000MW) in Africa
116 (Government of Ethiopia, 2020) and will have a total reservoir capacity of 74 billion cubic meters. The
117 GERD is expected to produce an average of 15,130 GWh of electricity annually (Tan et al., 2017), which
118 will contribute to Ethiopia’s national energy grid and feed the East African power pool (Nile Basin
119 Initiative, 2012). Although the GERD is primarily designed for hydropower, and thus non-consumptive,
120 operating to maximize power generation may result in a water release schedule significantly different from
121 the natural annual cycle, particularly considering drought periods, with implications to Sudan and Egypt.
122 This is the crux of the current hydro-political confronting the riparian countries.

123 In this study, we develop GERD reservoir operation rules considering power generation and
124 downstream water release simultaneously to mitigate upstream-downstream water use conflicts,
125 particularly tailored to drought periods. The study investigates water-sharing (drought mitigation) policy

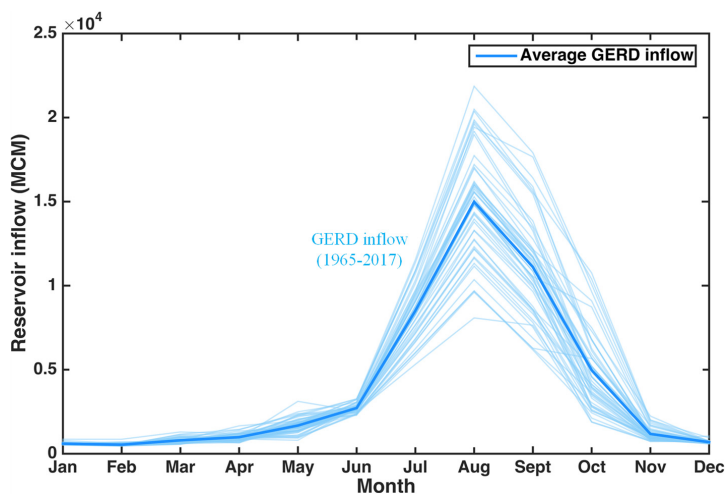


126 derivation procedures (reservoir operation simulation and optimization, power generation and
127 downstream water release analysis, drought mitigation policy extraction and validation) balancing GERD
128 production and downstream flow volumes. Historical monthly inflow at El Diem gauging station (located
129 just downstream of the GERD site) for 1965-2017 (Fig. 2) are applied.



130

131 Fig. 1 Blue Nile basin with Ethiopia country borders and the location of the GERD reservoir



132

133 Fig. 2 Monthly inflow into the GERD reservoir during 1965-2017.

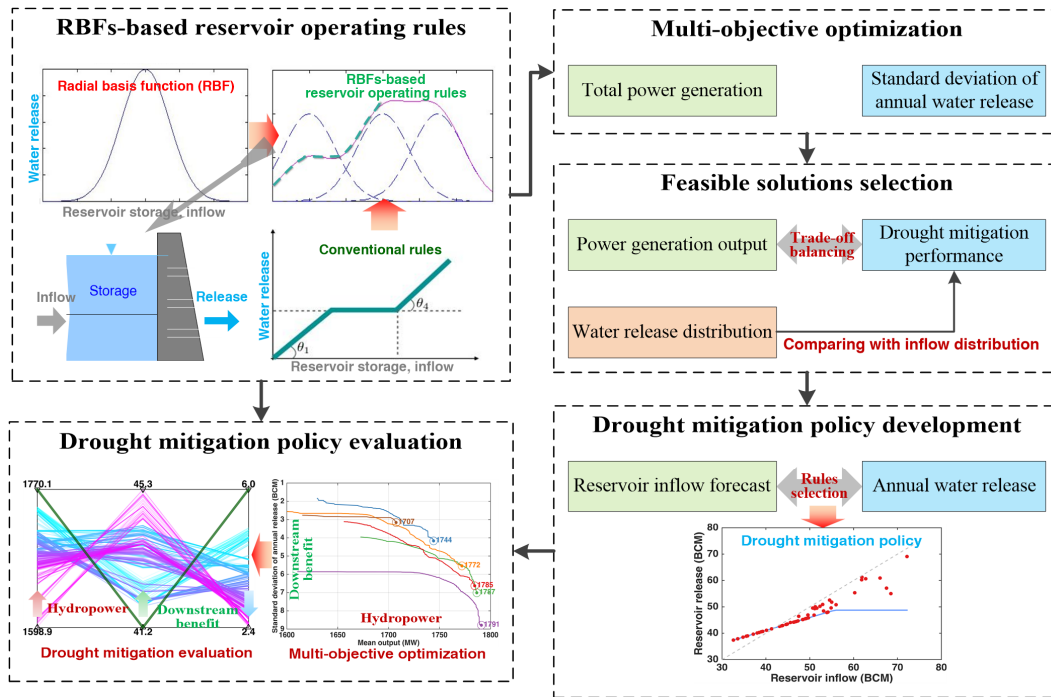
134 3. Models and Methods

135 The procedure for water sharing policy derivation and evaluation for transboundary rivers including
136 large-scale reservoir operations is introduced in this section (Fig. 3). In summary, the process is as follows:

- 137 • First: optimize the reservoir operating rules approximated with Radial Basis Functions (RBFs)
138 and obtain the Pareto front for upstream and downstream benefits trade-off.
- 139 • Second: select feasible solutions on the Pareto front according to the requirements of power
140 generation and drought mitigation; specifically, for a given power generation level, the
141 distribution of annual water release is analyzed with special attention to low flow years.
- 142 • Third: define the relationship between annual reservoir inflow and releases based on the selected
143 feasible solutions; the policy can be further framed as a function of reservoir annual inflow
144 predictions.
- 145 • Fourth: incorporate the policy into general RBFs-based rules to evaluate policy effectiveness and



146 robustness.



147

148 Fig. 3 Procedure of drought mitigation policy derivation and evaluation for reservoir operation in transboundary rivers.

149 **3.1. Reservoir operation model**

150 The primary purpose of the GERD reservoir is hydropower production; this objective function can
 151 be described as follows:

152
$$\text{Max } E = \sum_{t=1}^T P_t \cdot \Delta t, \quad P_t = \eta \cdot g \cdot \rho \cdot Q_t^p \cdot H_t^p / 1000 \quad (1)$$

153 where E is hydroelectricity generation (kW h) during total number of operational periods T ; P_t is the
 154 power generation output (kW) during time period t and Δt is the time (h) of a single period; η , g , and ρ



155 refer to the dimensionless hydropower generation efficiency of the turbines (set as 0.9 in this study),
156 gravitational acceleration (9.8 m/s^2), and water density (1000 kg/m^3), respectively; and Q_t^p and H_t^p are
157 reservoir release for power generation (m^3/s) and average power head (m) in period t , respectively.

158 In lieu of modeling specific water requirements downstream of the GERD, minimizing annual water
159 release variance is applied. This approach favors reliable releases yet also reflects natural hydrologic
160 variability, and can be described as below.

161

$$\text{Min } \text{Std}(Q_y^{\text{out}}) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{y=1}^Y (Q_y^{\text{out}} - \bar{Q}_y^{\text{out}})^2}{Y}} \quad (2)$$

162 where Q_y^{out} is the reservoir water release in year y and \bar{Q}_y^{out} and $\text{Std}(Q_y^{\text{out}})$ are the mean value and standard
163 deviation of reservoir annual water release across all operational years Y , respectively.

164 Physical and operational reservoir constraints are listed as below.

165 (a) Water balance:

166

$$S_{t+1} = S_t + (Q_t^{\text{in}} - Q_t^{\text{out}}) \cdot \Delta t - EP_t \quad (3)$$

167 where S_t and S_{t+1} are reservoir storage (m^3) in period t and $t+1$, respectively, Q_t^{in} represents reservoir
168 inflow (m^3/s) in period t , Q_t^{out} is reservoir release (m^3/s) in period t , and EP_t is the sum of evaporation and
169 seepage from the reservoir (m^3) in period t .

170 (b) Reservoir capacity limits (Jameel, 2014):



171 The reservoir structural and operational constraints can be expressed as:

$$172 \quad S^{\min} \leq S_t \leq S^{\max} \quad (4)$$

173 where S^{\min} and S^{\max} are the minimum and maximum allowable reservoir storage (m^3), respectively.

174 Additionally, S^{begin} and S^{end} represent the initial and final reservoir storage (m^3) for simulations,
175 respectively, and are prescribed as:

$$176 \quad S_t = \begin{cases} S^{\text{begin}} & t = 1 \\ S^{\text{end}} & t = T \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

177 (c) Reservoir release limits:

178 The reservoir release constraints are expressed as:

$$179 \quad QL_t \leq Q_t^{\text{out}} \leq QU_t \quad (6)$$

180 where QL_t and QU_t are the minimum and maximum release (m^3/s) in period t , respectively. The
181 expected guidelines for GERD reservoir water release are not explicitly available, thus releases are set
182 lower than the maximum reservoir inflow during the high-flow season to reduce or eliminate downstream
183 floods.

184 (d) Power generation limits (Tesfa, 2013):

$$185 \quad PL_t \leq P_t \leq PU_t \quad (7)$$

186 where PL_t and PU_t are the minimum and maximum power limits (kW) in period t , respectively.



187 3.2. Reservoir operating rules

188 In this study, reservoir water releases are conditioned on radial basis functions (RBFs), a non-linear
189 function approximating method (Deisenroth et al., 2013; Buşoniu et al., 2011; Giuliani et al., 2015b) which
190 can provide universal approximation (Tikk et al., 2003) and ensure a flexible reservoir operating rules
191 structure. For more applications of RBF models in reservoir operation see Giuliani et al. (2015a). The
192 reservoir operating rules are defined as below.

$$193 \quad Q_t^{out} = \sum_{u=1}^U \omega_u \varphi_u(X_t) \quad t=1, \dots, T \quad 0 \leq \omega_u \leq 1 \quad (8)$$

$$194 \quad \varphi_u(X_t) = \exp \left[- \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{((X_t)_j - c_{j,u})^2}{b_u^2} \right] \quad c_{j,u} \in [-1, 1], b_u \in (0, 1] \quad (9)$$

195 where U is the number of RBFs, $\varphi(\cdot)$ and ω_u are the weights of the u^{th} RBF, M is the number of input
196 variables X_t , and c_u and b_u are the M -dimensional center and radius vectors of the u^{th} RBF, respectively.

197 Because water release generally depends on the reservoir state (Revelle et al., 1969) and inflow, with
198 intra- and inter-annual variability, we select reservoir storage S_t , inflow Q_t^{in} , and seasonal information τ_t
199 (where τ_t refers to the position of the current period (month) t within a water year) as input variables and

$$200 \quad X_t = (S_t, Q_t^{in}, \tau_t).$$

201 In this study, the number of RBFs is set to four (as in Giuliani et al. (2015b)), thus $U=4$ and $M=3$ (three
202 input variables) in equation (8)-(9) resulting in 20 parameters in the RBFs-based rules. The parameters in
203 RBFs-based rules are optimized with a simulation-optimization model (Rani and Moreira, 2010), using



204 the Pareto-Archived Dynamically Dimensioned Search (PA-DDS) evolutionary algorithm which has been
205 successfully applied to reservoir operating rules optimization (Yang et al., 2020). The procedure of the
206 PA-DDS algorithm has been described in detail by Asadzadeh and Tolson (2013).

207 3.3. Drought-focused water sharing policy

208 To ensure downstream water supply, the GERD reservoir will need to be operated under minimum annual
209 water release constraints. Apart from the RBFs-based rules determining the reservoir water release in each
210 time step (months), a drought mitigation policy is also adopted to address dry periods. The policy is based
211 on annual time steps and represented as a linear regression between annual reservoir inflow and water
212 release. More specifically, the minimum annual reservoir water release can be determined by the following
213 equation:

$$214 \quad R_y^{\min} = \alpha \cdot Q_y^{\text{in}} + \beta + z \cdot \sigma_d \quad (10)$$

215 where Q_y^{in} and R_y^{\min} refer to reservoir inflow and minimum reservoir water release during year y ,
216 respectively; α and β are regression parameters estimated from simulations containing reservoir inflow
217 values below the historical average (approximately 49 BCM). An exceedance parameter z is multiplied
218 by the standard deviation of the regression residuals σ_d to vary how conservative the drought mitigation
219 policy is (see Fig. 4 for a visualization of exceedance parameters). This policy design favors downstream
220 releases under drought conditions by supplementing what would occur under natural flow conditions,
221 however as a trade-off, the minimum reservoir release in any year will not exceed the historical average
222 reservoir inflow (see the horizontal line in Fig. 4).



223 In this study, the drought mitigation policy is designed with annual streamflow data, however reservoir
 224 operating rules are derived for monthly operation. With reservoir storage in current month S_m , reservoir
 225 inflow in current month Q_m^{in} , and the predicted reservoir inflow during the rest of the year $Q_{m+1}^{in}, \dots, Q_{12}^{in}$,
 226 the reservoir water release in current month Q_m^{out} and the rest of year $Q_{m+1}^{out}, \dots, Q_{12}^{out}$ can be obtained from
 227 equations (8) and (9), thus the annual reservoir inflow and water release can be estimated as below.

$$228 \quad Q_y^{in} = \sum_1^m Q_m^{in} + \sum_{m+1}^{12} Q_m^{in} \quad (11)$$

$$229 \quad Q_y^{out} = \sum_1^m Q_m^{out} + \sum_{m+1}^{12} Q_m^{out} \quad (12)$$

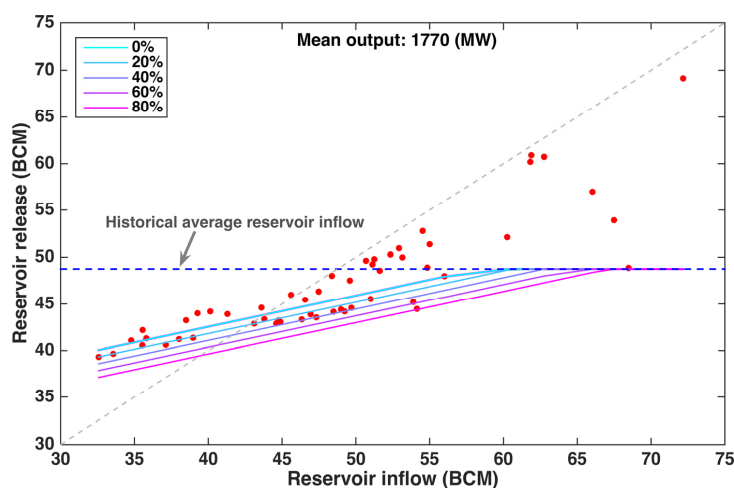
230 The minimum reservoir water release in year y can be estimated from equation (10) as R_y^{\min} . To ensure
 231 the minimum annual water release obligation is met, if the estimated annual reservoir water release Q_y^{out}
 232 is lower than R_y^{\min} , the release in current month Q_m^{out} will be corrected according to the following:

$$233 \quad Q_m^{out} = Q_m^{out} + (R_y^{\min} - Q_y^{out}) \times \frac{Q_m^{in}}{\sum_m^{12} Q_m^{in}} \quad (13)$$

234 The estimated variables R_y^{\min} , Q_y^{out} , and $\sum_m^{12} Q_m^{in}$ are updated in each time step. In the last month of each
 235 year, the annual reservoir inflow estimation Q_y^{in} and minimum annual water release estimation R_y^{\min} will
 236 be equal to $\sum_1^{12} Q_m^{in}$ and R_y^{\min} , respectively. If $Q_y^{out} < R_y^{\min}$, the reservoir water release in the last month Q_{12}^{out}
 237 will be corrected as $Q_{12}^{out} + (R_y^{\min} - Q_y^{out})$ and the Q_y^{out} will be equal to R_y^{\min} . Thus annual reservoir inflow
 238 Q_y^{out} will be always greater than or equal to the specified minimum reservoir water release R_y^{\min} . In this



239 study, both a climatology inflow forecast (Q_t^{in} set as the long-term average streamflow for that month)
240 and a perfect inflow forecast (Q_t^{in} set to observed reservoir inflow Q_t^{in}) are used to evaluate the
241 performance of the drought mitigation policy.



242

243 Fig. 4 Sample drought mitigation policy with varying exceedance levels ($z=0\%$, 20%, 40%, 60%, and 80%)

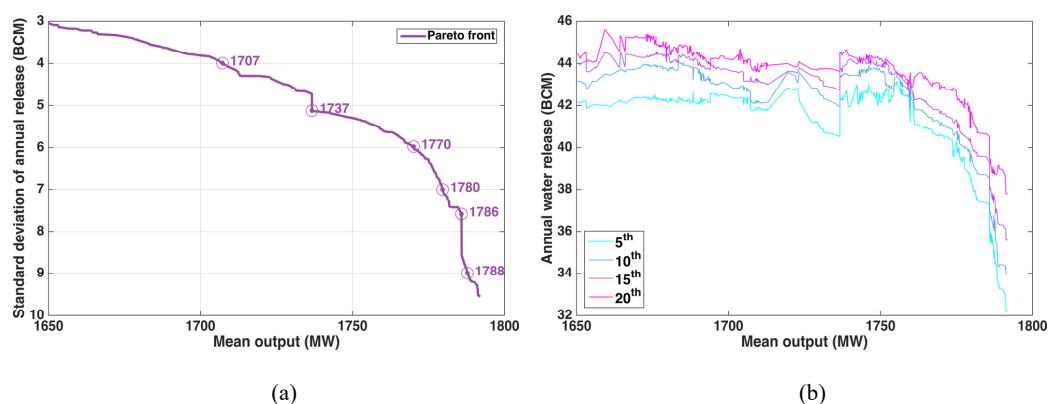
244 4. Results and Discussion

245 4.1. Multi-objective reservoir operation with no drought policy

246 Multi-objective optimization of GERD reservoir operating rules illustrates that there is a trade-off between
247 reservoir power generation and deviation in reservoir annual water releases (Fig. 5 (a)). More specifically,
248 GERD monthly mean power generation output is estimated at 1788, 1708, 1737, and 1707 MW for annual
249 release standard deviations of 9, 7, 6, 5, and 4 BCM, respectively. Although the reservoir operating rules
250 are not optimized for maximum annual water release, less $Std(Q_y^{out})$ typically leads to relatively more
251 releases in dry conditions (e.g., 5th, 10th, 15th, and 20th percentiles), especially when the mean output is
252 greater than 1750 MW (Fig. 5 (b)). Thus downstream countries may benefit more from reservoir operating



253 rules favoring smaller $Std(Q_y^{out})$ in drought conditions; this trade-off between power generation and
254 $Std(Q_y^{out})$ can be used to balance GERD power generation and downstream water use benefits.



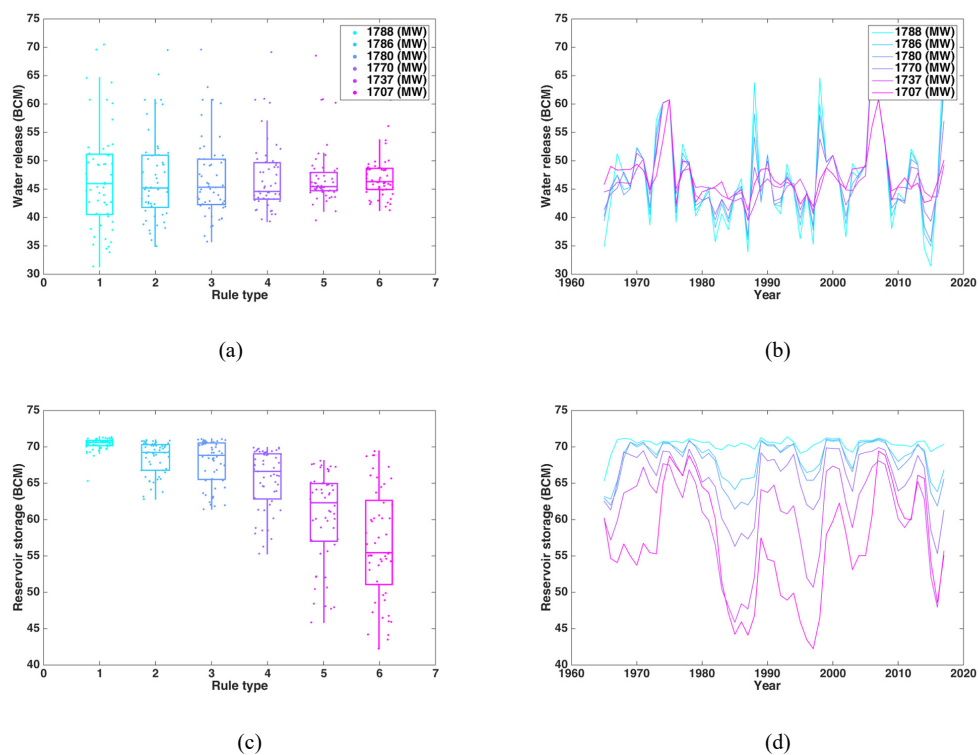
255 Fig. 5 Multi-objective optimization results of reservoir operating rules in terms of (a) Pareto front and (b) the
256 relationship between power generation and 5th, 10th, 15th, and 20th percentile of annual water release.

257

258 The reservoir operating rules simulation results under various mean output levels illustrates that the
259 variance of annual water release shrinks and reservoir storage declines as power output decreases (Fig. 6).
260 Although the median values of annual water release for all six output levels are approximately the same
261 (around 45 BCM), the reservoir operating rules with more output generally have lower minimum water
262 releases (Fig. 6 (a) and (b)), especially in dry periods. In general, greater reservoir storage leads to more
263 power generation (see equation (1)) and vice versa, thus the reservoir operating rules generating 1788 MW
264 of mean output produces the highest water level, and 1707 MW the lowest (Fig. 6 (d)). Also, there is a
265 clear trade-off between the variance of reservoir storage and water release (Fig. 6 (a) and (c)); smaller
266 reservoir storage variance ensures higher reservoir levels, greater water release variance, and lower



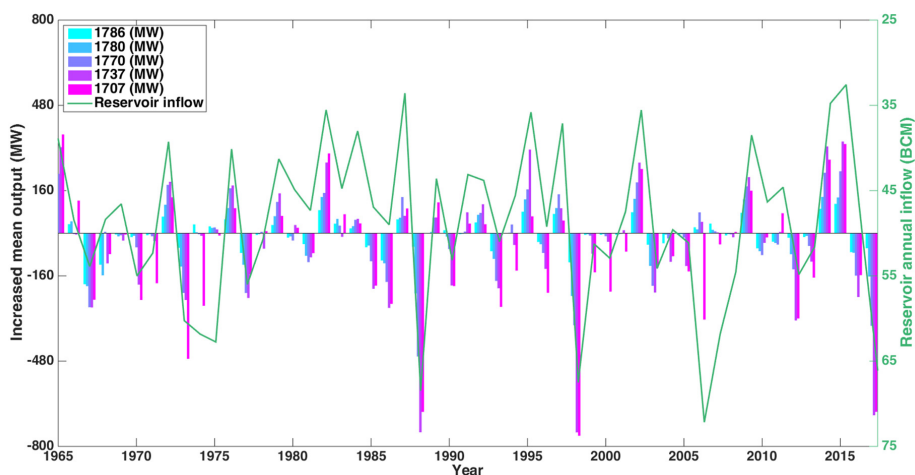
267 minimum water releases. It is worth noting that the 75th and 90th percentiles of reservoir storage are much
268 more sensitive to power output than those of water release. More specifically, the 90th percentile of water
269 release for rule types 5 and 6 are almost the same, however, the corresponding percentile of reservoir
270 storage (as well as power output) are notably different (Fig. 6 (a) and (c)). This indicates that rule type 6
271 may be inferior to rule type 5 despite of the trade-off in Fig. 5 (a). Thus, it is necessary to analyze the
272 operation results (including water release and power generation) before selecting the reservoir operating
273 rules based on the Pareto front in Fig. 5 (a).



274 Fig. 6 Boxplots and values of annual reservoir (a)(b) water release and (c)(d) storage for various reservoir operating
275 rules.



276 Comparing across rule types, rules with high mean output generate more hydropower mainly in wet years
277 (Fig. 7). In particular, rule type 1 (1788 MW) can generate approximately 670, 760, and 670 MW more
278 than rule 6 (1707 MW) in years 1988, 1998, and 2017, respectively. In these years, the annual reservoir
279 inflow is greater than 65 BCM (Fig. 7). It is worth noting that the annual reservoir inflow in the previous
280 one or two years (i.e., year 1987, 1997, and 2015) is less than 38 BCM (Fig. 7) and the corresponding
281 reservoir storage is much higher than in rule types (Fig. 6 (d)). Thus, it can be inferred that rule types with
282 larger power generation can increase the mean output by releasing less water during dry years to maintain
283 relatively higher reservoir water levels. In this way, more water will be available and higher head (H_i^p
284 in equation (1)) can be achieved for future wet years, leading to much more power generation.



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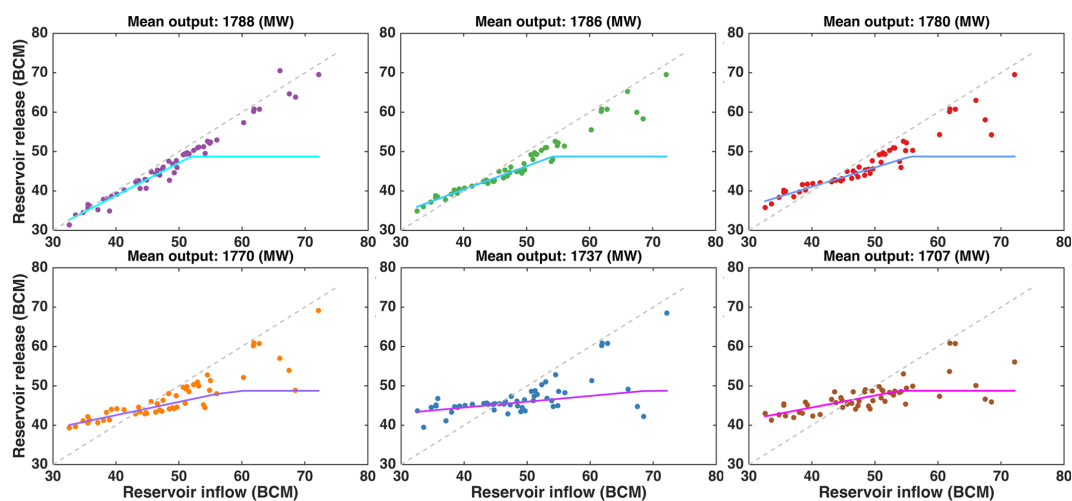
286 Fig. 7 Net power generation output of various reservoir operating rules compared with rules producing a mean
287 output of 1788 MW.

288

289 However, releasing less water in dry years is not a strategy preferred by downstream countries, which
290 could further aggravate drought conditions. According to the relationship between annual reservoir inflow



291 and water release simulated from rule type 1, water release is less than reservoir inflow in most cases (Fig.
292 8). In comparison, rule type 3 (1780 MW) releases more water than reservoir inflow in dry years. As
293 power generation decreases further the number of years with reservoir water releases exceeding inflow
294 increases. Applying a linear regression between annual reservoir inflow and water release (see the lines
295 in Fig. 8), a drought mitigation policy (equation (10)) can be extracted to constraint annual water release
296 in reservoir operation. Rule types favoring more power generation generally produce a steeper gradient in
297 the drought mitigation policy.



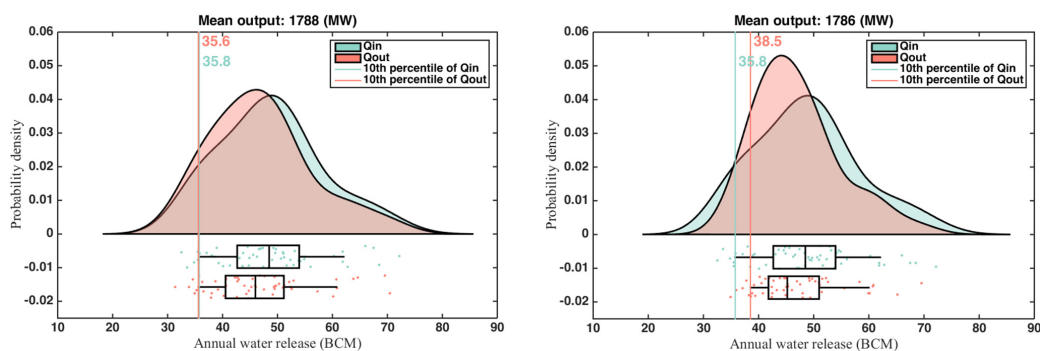
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299 Fig. 8 Relationship between annual reservoir inflow and water release (points) and the corresponding drought
300 mitigation policy (lines) for various power generation levels.

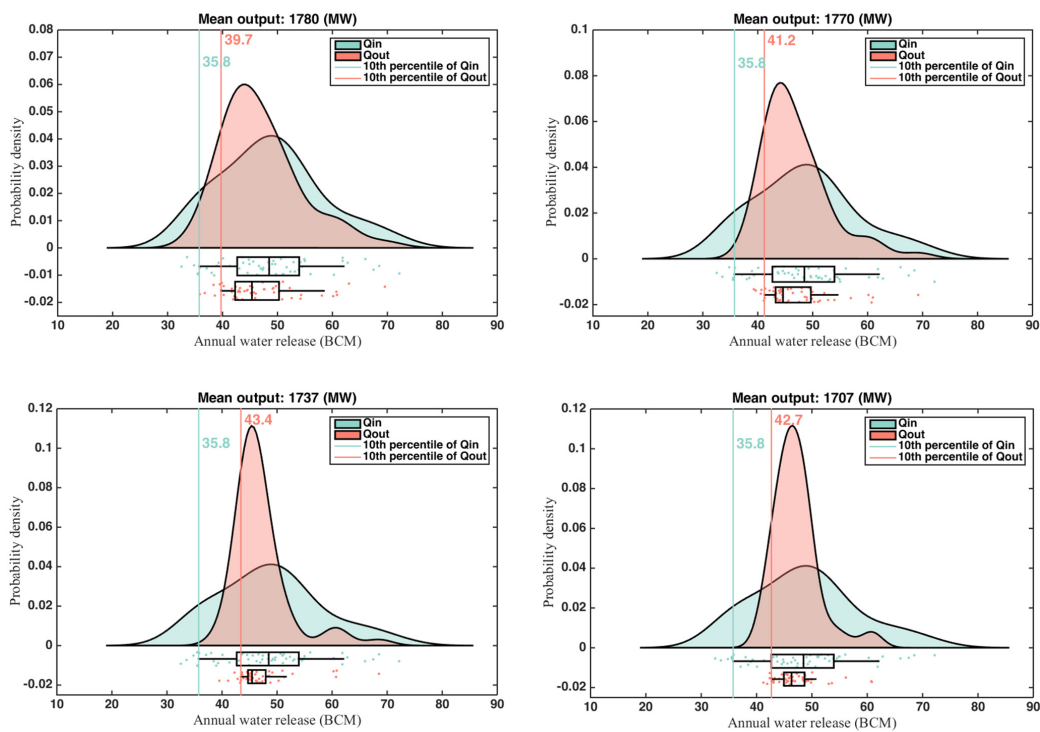
301 4.2. Drought policy selection and analysis

302 To select the most suitable drought mitigation policy, both the corresponding power generation and
303 distribution of annual reservoir water releases need to be evaluated. In general, the distributions of annual
304 reservoir inflow and releases are significantly different when the reservoir operation is tailored to drought

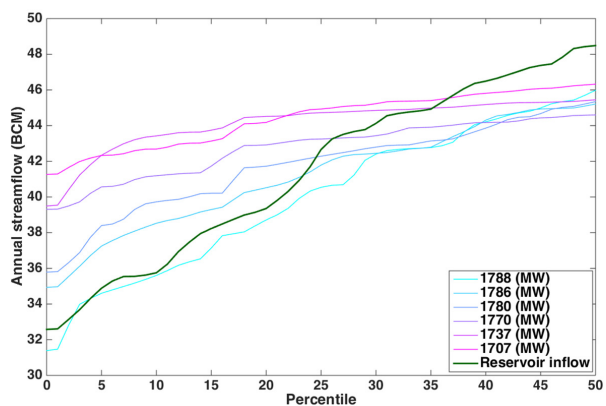


305 mitigation. This difference is more pronounced for lower power generation levels (Fig. 9). Considering
306 low flows, the 10th percentile of water releases increases as hydropower generation decreases, from 35.6
307 BCM for rule type 1 (1788 MW) to 42.7 BCM for rule type 6 (1707 MW). In contrast, the 10th percentile
308 of annual reservoir inflow is constant at 35.8 BCM. Thus, except for rule type 1 with equal inflow and
309 outflow volumes, all other rule types ensure that the 10th percentile of releases is greater than inflows.
310 This equates to supplementing downstream flows to address drought conditions when the 10% exceedance
311 value of annual reservoir inflow is used as the drought threshold. Further, even when reservoir inflow is
312 less than its 20th percentile value, water releases are greater than annual reservoir inflow except for rule
313 type 1 (Fig. 10). However, when the threshold exceeds the 25th percentile, only solutions based on rule
314 type 3-6 contain annual releases surpassing inflow. These distributions (Fig. 9 and Fig. 10) can provide
315 critical insights during riparian negotiations regarding trade-offs between power generation and
316 supplementing downstream flows during drought conditions. Although only six candidate solutions are
317 illustrated here, more representative solutions may be analyzed in practice.





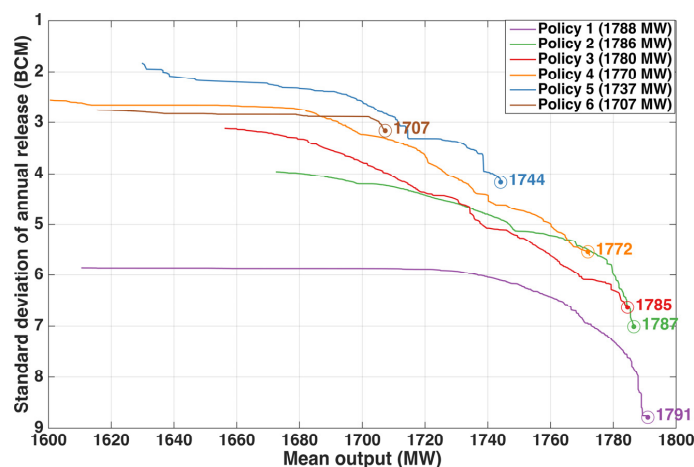
318 Fig. 9 Kernel distribution of annual reservoir inflow (Q_{in}) and water release (Q_{out}) under different power generation
 319 levels (1965-2017). Vertical lines represent the 10% exceedance value.



320
 321 Fig. 10 Percentiles of annual reservoir inflow and water release under various power generation levels.



322 Incorporating these drought policies (Fig. 8), reservoir operating rules are optimized again for maximum
323 power generation and minimum deviation of annual release volumes, illustrating varying trade-offs for
324 drought policies 1-6 (Fig. 11). Drought policies produce similar but not exact hydropower generation as
325 the original operating rules (e.g. policy 1 original = 1788MW, drought = 1791MW); the standard deviation
326 of annual releases also does not change significantly. Comparing drought policies producing a high level
327 of hydropower production (e.g. moving from policy 1 to 2), a small trade-off in production (~4MW) leads
328 to approximately a 2 BCM decrease in the standard deviation of annual releases. For lesser hydropower
329 production policies (e.g. moving from policy 5 to 6), a larger difference of 37MW leads to a smaller (~1
330 BCM) change in the standard deviation of annual releases.



331

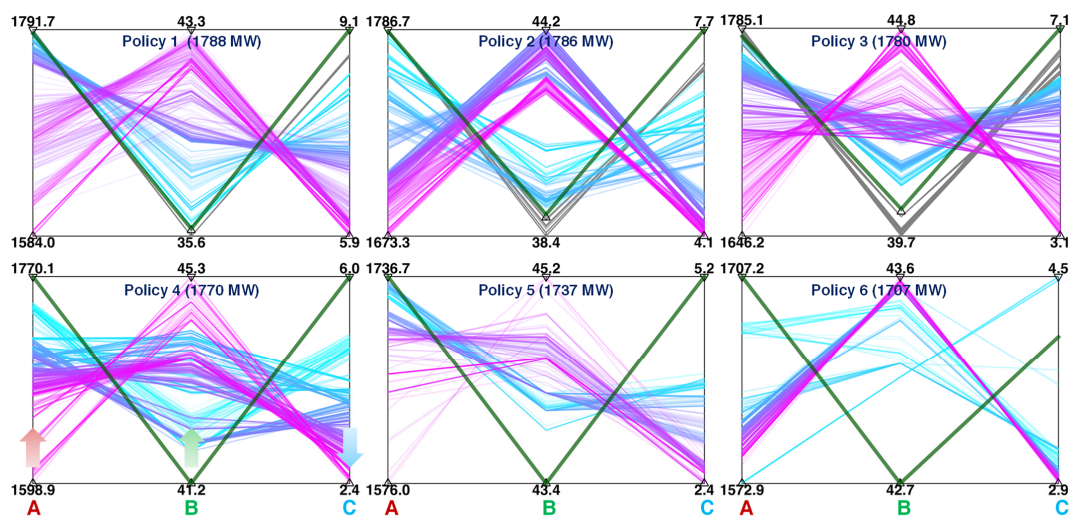
332 Fig. 11 Multi-objective optimization of reservoir operating rules with drought mitigation policies.

333 To further evaluate the effectiveness of these drought policies, the mean power output, 10th percentile of
334 annual water releases, and standard deviation of annual water releases obtained from each policy
335 (corresponding to the Pareto fronts in Fig. 11) are analyzed (Fig. 12). In Fig. 12, each line presents a set
336 of reservoir operation results corresponding to a solution from each of the six Pareto fronts in Fig. 11,
337 based on an expectation of (long-term) monthly average inflow conditions (i.e. not perfect information.)



338 Predominantly, rules including the drought mitigation policy have higher 10th percentile of annual water
 339 release values than original rules. For policies 1 and 2, in addition to notably more 10th percentile annual
 340 release values, mean power output does not appreciably drop, thus simultaneously supplementing
 341 downstream flows during drought without significant power output losses. Although policies 3-6 provide
 342 more 10th percentile of annual releases than the original rules, power output drops; however the standard
 343 deviation of annual water releases is significantly less, which indicates that all policies (derived from all
 344 power generation levels) can effectively address downstream drought.

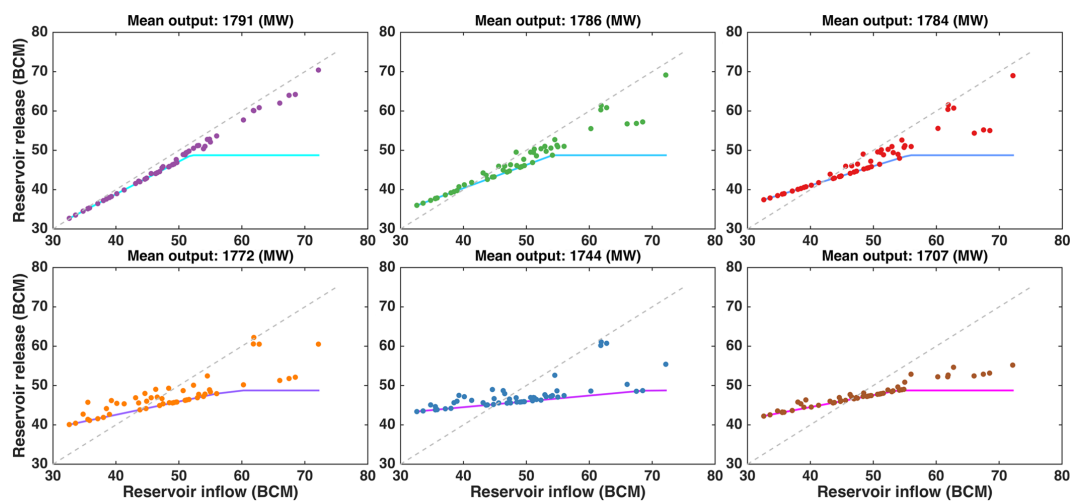
345 Since these drought policies are effective even using climatological forecast information, it can be inferred
 346 that the effectiveness of drought mitigation policies for the GERD case does not rely on accurate forecast
 347 information. This bodes well for other cases lacking accurate hydrological forecasts.



348 Fig. 12 Parallel plots of multiple objectives (A: mean output (MW), B: 10th percentile of annual water release (BCM), C:
 349 standard deviation of annual water release (BCM)). The bold green line refers to the reservoir operation without the
 350 drought policy.
 351

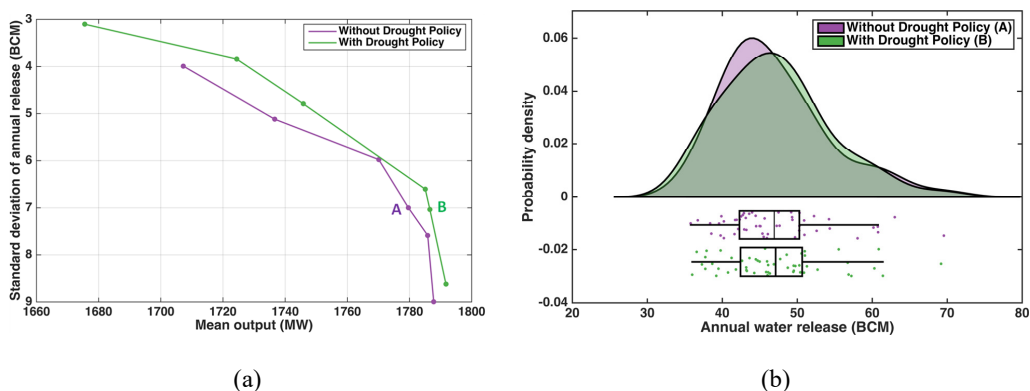


352 After re-optimization with the drought policy information included, greater power generation and smaller
353 values of the standard deviation of annual water releases are produced. More importantly, the re-optimized
354 rules can fully ensure minimum annual releases under different reservoir inflow levels (Fig. 13).



355
356 Fig. 13 Relationship between annual reservoir inflow and releases using re-optimized reservoir operating rules;
357 drought policies represented by lines.

358 These rules produce slightly more power than the original rules for equivalent standard deviation of annual
359 release values (Fig. 14(a)) even though they are re-optimized constrained on annual water releases for
360 drought conditions). Performance of the re-optimized rules, however, mainly depends on the exceedance
361 parameter z in equation (10); more conservative drought mitigation policies (with larger z values) can
362 generate more power. Because the trade-off between power generation and the standard deviation of
363 annual releases is similar between the original rules and drought policy rules (Fig. 14(b)), it is feasible to
364 base negotiations on the original rules in this case, as the expected drought policy outcomes are superior.



365 Fig. 14 (a) Pareto fronts of reservoir operation with and without drought policy; (b) boxplot of reservoir storage for
366 solution A and B in the Pareto fronts and kernel distribution of annual reservoir water releases with and without the
367 drought policies.

368 5. Conclusions

369 Reservoir operations in transboundary river basins are often complex given diverse and potentially
370 conflicting objectives between upstream and downstream countries. Applying the water-sharing policy
371 framework proposed here for the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam on the Blue Nile River, we establish
372 a relationship between downstream and upstream water availability, derive water-sharing policies from
373 multi-objective optimization results of reservoir operating rules, and analyze the effectiveness of these
374 policies during drought periods. We demonstrate that a framework incorporating RBF-based rules and a
375 drought-focused water sharing policy can lead to robust reservoir decision-making. There is a clear trade-
376 off between power generation and the standard deviation of reservoir releases; however, effective policies
377 are available to balance this trade-off, even considering drought periods.

378 This framework here is based on annual flows, however seasonal and monthly scale operations could be
379 of primary importance in smaller basins or for smaller-capacity reservoirs. Also, many other objectives



380 and constraints including firm power output, agricultural water supply reliability, and ecosystem functions
381 could be considered. Future research could explore drought-focused water sharing policies guiding
382 reservoir operations across multiple time scales simultaneously and the application of seasonal-to-sub-
383 seasonal inflow forecasts.

384 **Code and Data Availability Statement**

385 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
386 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

387 **Author contribution**

388 Guang Yang developed the model code and performed the simulations, visualizations, and original
389 draft preparation. Paul Block conceptualized the idea and performed data curation and writing- reviewing
390 and editing.

391 **Competing interests**

392 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest in this work.

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