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## 2 **Ratio Limits of Water Storage and Outflow in Rainfall-runoff Process**

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20



21 **Abstract**

22 Through the numerical simulations of the hydrodynamic model, the water storage and discharge are found to  
23 be limited to envelope lines and the discharge/water depth process lines during water rising and falling  
24 showed a grid-shaped distribution. Furthermore, if a catchment is regarded as a semi-open water storage  
25 system, there is a nonlinear relationship between the inside average water depth and the outlet water depth,  
26 namely the water storage ratio curve, which resembles the shape of a “plume”. In the case of an open channel  
27 without considering spatial variability, the water storage ratio curve is limited to three values (i.e., the upper,  
28 the steady, and the lower limit), which are found to be independent of meteorological (rainfall intensity),  
29 vegetation (Manning’s coefficient), and terrain (slope gradient) conditions. Meteorological, vegetation, and  
30 terrain conditions only affect the size of the “plume” without changing its shape. Rainfall, especially weak  
31 rain (rainfall intensity is less than 5.0 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) significantly affects the fluctuations of water storage ratio,  
32 which can be divided into three modes, that is Mode I during rainfall beginning stage, Mode II during rainfall  
33 duration stage, and Mode III during rainfall end stage. Results indicate that the determination of the  
34 nonlinear relationship of the water storage ratio curve under different geographical scenarios will provide  
35 new ideas for simulation and early warning of floods.

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Flood disaster is a significant global health and economic threat. Disastrous floods have caused millions  
38 of fatalities in the twentieth century and billions of dollars direct economic loss each year (Merkuryeva, et al.,  
39 2015; Merz, et al., 2021; Ruidas, et al., 2022). Weather prediction-based distributed hydrological/hydraulic  
40 models are considered to be an effective strategy for flood forecasting (Ming, et al., 2020). According to  
41 statistics (Lee, et al., 2020), from 2001 to 2018, over 2,900 floods caused over 93,000 deaths and over 490  
42 billion USD in economic damages worldwide. Based on the daily satellite imagery at 250-metre resolution of  
43 the 913 large flood events in the same period, a total inundation area of 2.23 million km<sup>2</sup>, with 255-290



44 million people were estimated directly affected by floods (Tellman, et al., 2021). With the influence of  
45 climate change and extreme El Niño events (Ward, et al., 2014; Cai, et al., 2014), flood events caused by  
46 extreme precipitation are occurring frequently in many regions around the world (Kirezci, et al., 2020; Najibi  
47 and Devineni, 2018; Almazroui, 2020). From 2020 to 2023, catastrophic floods caused by several extreme  
48 rainfall events were reported in Germany (Tradowsky, et al., 2023), China (Hsu, et al., 2021), Italy (Valente,  
49 et al., 2023), Japan (Kobayashi, et al., 2023), Pakistan (Nanditha, et al., 2023) and other developed or  
50 developing countries and regions, even in some desert areas (e.g., Taklimakan Desert (Li and Yao, 2023) and  
51 Atacama Desert (Cabr e, et al., 2023)). Research shows that under a high emissions scenario, in latitudes  
52 above 40° north, compound flooding could become more than 2.5 times as frequent by 2100 compared to  
53 present (Bevacqua, et al., 2020). It means that in future, the fraction of the global population at risk of floods  
54 will be growing.

55 Flood simulation provides an effective means of flood forecasting to reduce property and life losses in  
56 flood-threatened areas around the world. A large number of scholars are committed to shortening the  
57 simulation time of floods. Accordingly, they have developed many forms of hydrological models (e.g.,  
58 Stanford Watershed Model IV (SWM) (Crawford and Linsley, 1966), SHE/MIKESHE model (Abbott, et al.,  
59 1986), Tank model (Sugawara, 1995), Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (Arnold and Williams, 1987),  
60 TOPMODEL (Beven and Kirkby, 1979), etc.), hydrodynamic models (the one-dimension(1D) Saint-Venant  
61 equation (K hne, et al., 2011), the two-dimensions (2D) shallow water equations (SWEs) (Camassa, et al.,  
62 1994), and the three-dimensions (3D) integrated equations of runoff and seepage (Mori, et al., 2015)), or  
63 coupling models of the two (Kim, et al., 2012; Liu, et al., 2019; Hoch, et al., 2019). Particularly, SWEs are  
64 the main governing equations for simulating flood. However, flood simulation based on SWEs is a  
65 time-consuming process due to its governing equations are a hyperbolic system of first-order nonlinear  
66 partial differential equations (PDEs) (Li and Fan, 2017). Therefore, many scholars attempted to improve the



67 efficiency and accuracy of flood simulation through computer technology (GPU parallel computing  
68 (Crossley, et al., 2010) or advanced numerical scheme (Sanders, et al., 2010)). For hydrological studies, the  
69 performance of hydrological modeling is usually challenged by model calibration and uncertainty analysis  
70 during modeling exercises (Wu, et al., 2021).

71 Hence, we try to ignore the complex exchange/transfer process of mass and momentum (hydrodynamic  
72 models), and also abandon the empirical relationships (hydrological models) between the input  
73 (precipitation), the transmission (flow rate) and the output (discharge) in the catchment area. A catchment is  
74 regarded as a semi-open water storage system. For the storage system, the complex problem is simplified  
75 into three megascopic variables, i.e., inflow, water storage and outflow. If we can give a physical-based  
76 relationship between the three, flood forecasting will become much simpler.

## 77 2. Methods

78 An arbitrary catchment (Fig. 1b) could be assumed to be a conceptual water tank (Fig. 1a). In this water  
79 tank, according to the law of conservation of mass, the complex confluence process of surface runoff could  
80 be neglected and it can be described only by the relationship between input (average rainfall ( $R$ ) and  
81 exfiltration ( $-I$ )), storage (characterized by the internal average water depth ( $H$ )), and output (average  
82 infiltration ( $I$ ), evaporation ( $E$ ), and discharge ( $Q$ )), which can be expressed as Eq. 1,

$$83 \quad \underbrace{A \times \frac{dH}{dt}}_{\text{storage}} = \underbrace{R \times A}_{\text{rainfall}} \mp \underbrace{I \times A}_{\substack{\text{infiltration} \\ \text{/exfiltration}}} - \underbrace{E \times A}_{\text{evaporation}} - \underbrace{\frac{Q}{A} \times A}_{\text{discharge}} \quad (1)$$

84 In this paper, attentions are focused on the surface flow of runoff, so the runoff-atmosphere moisture  
85 exchange (evaporation) and runoff-soil moisture exchange (infiltration and/or exfiltration) are  
86 non-considered. Zhu et al. (2020) validated the effectiveness of a diffusion wave (DW) approximation of  
87 shallow water equations by numerical simulations for simulating ground surface runoff,

$$88 \quad \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} - \nabla \left( \frac{h^{5/3}}{n_m \sqrt{|S|}} \nabla (h + z) \right) = R \quad (2)$$

89 To improve the computational efficiency of hydrodynamic model, after strict mathematical derivation



90 according to the basic hydrodynamic equation and the law of conservation of mass, Zhu et al. (2022)

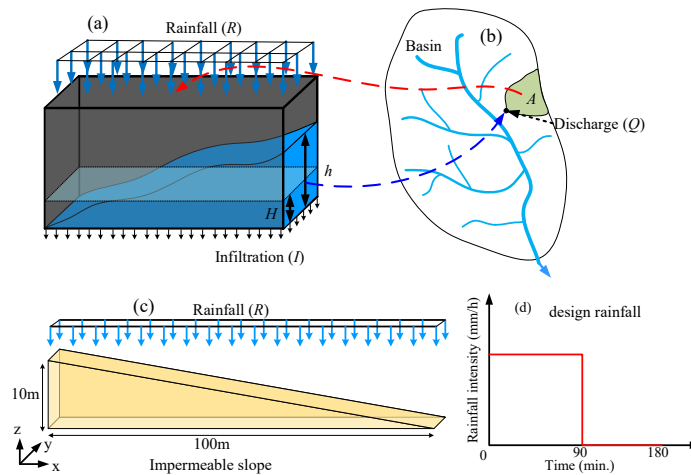
91 proposed a hydrological-hydrodynamic integrated model, i.e., distributed runoff model (DRM) as,

$$92 \quad \begin{cases} \frac{dH}{dt} = R - q \\ H = \eta h = \eta \left( \frac{n_m}{\sqrt{S}} \right)^{0.6} q^{0.6} \left( \frac{A}{B} \right)^{0.6} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

93 where,  $R$  indicates rainfall intensity ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ );  $q$  is conceptual outflow ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ),  $q=Q/A$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ );  $n_m$  is

94 Manning's coefficient ( $\text{s m}^{-1/3}$ );  $S$  is the slope gradient;  $\eta$  is the water storage ratio;  $A$  is catchment area ( $\text{m}^2$ )

95 and  $B$  is the outlet width (m).



96

97 **Fig. 1. Conceptual schematic of the DRM and numerical model.** (a) conceptual water tank; (b)

98 conceptual catchment; (c) impermeable conceptual slope model; (d) designed rainfall.

### 99 3. Limits and “plume” shape of water storage ratio curve

100 The conceptual hydrological model takes the inside average water depth ( $H$ ) in the catchment area as

101 the independent variable (Eq. 1). However, the hydrodynamic equations take the water depth at any outlet ( $h$ )

102 as an independent variable (Eq. 2). If a relationship between the inside average water depth ( $H$ ) and outlet

103 water depth ( $h$ ) can be established, then this relationship will have both hydrodynamic and hydrological

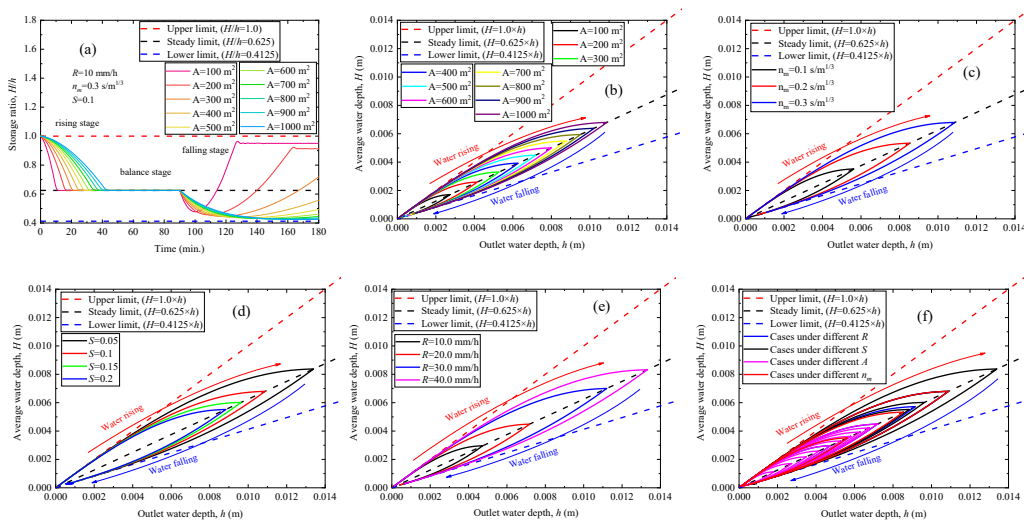
104 characteristics. Therefore, to find the  $H$ - $h$  relationship, an impermeable conceptual slope model was built as

105 shown in Fig. 1c and numerical simulations are performed using diffusion wave (DW) approximation (Eq. 2)



106 of shallow water equations (SWEs). The water storage ratio is defined as the inside average water depth ( $H$ )  
 107 divided by the outlet water depth ( $h$ ). Firstly, the numerical simulations are performed under a designed  
 108 rainfall condition, i.e., rainfall intensity is  $10 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$  and rainfall duration are 90 minutes with the total time  
 109 of 180 minutes as shown in Fig. 1d. From the time-dependent water storage ratio ( $H/h$ ) under different  
 110 catchment area (Fig. 2a), it can be seen that the continuous rainfall will cause the water storage ratio ( $H/h$ ) to  
 111 gradually decrease from the initial value 1.0 (upper limit) to a stable value, which is approximately 0.625  
 112 (steady limit). When the rainfall ends, the value of the water storage ratio ( $H/h$ ) decreases first and then  
 113 increases, showing a U-shaped curve with a lower limit, which is approximately 0.4125. Afterward, the  
 114 water storage ratio curves under ten kinds of catchment area (Fig. 2b), three kinds of Manning's coefficient  
 115 (Fig. 2c), four kinds of slope gradient (Fig. 2d), and four kinds of rainfall intensity (Fig. 2e) conditions are  
 116 obtained from parametric analyses and summarized in Fig. 2f.

117



118

119 **Fig. 2. Water storage ratio curves.** (a) Time-dependent water storage ratio under different catchment  
 120 area with  $10 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ . Water storage ratio curves under different (b) catchment area ( $A$ ); (c) Manning's  
 121 coefficient ( $n_m$ ); (d) slope gradient ( $S$ ); and (e) rainfall intensity rainfall intensity ( $R$ ). (f) Three limit lines  
 122 envelop all water storage ratio curves, i.e., Upper limit ( $H/h=1.0$ ), Steady limit( $H/h=0.625$ ), and Lower



123  $\text{limit}(H/h=0.4125)$ .

124 Finally, it is found that water storage ratio curves resemble a shape of “plume”. Higher water storage  
125 ratio ( $H/h$ ) for the water-rising limb than for the water-falling limb at the same outlet water depth.

126 Furthermore, in the case of an open channel without considering spatial variability, there are three limits (the  
127 upper, the steady, and the lower limit) of the water storage ratio curves, which are found to be independent of  
128 meteorological (rainfall intensity), vegetation (Manning’s coefficient), and terrain (slope gradient) conditions.  
129 Meteorological, vegetation, and terrain conditions only affect the size of the “plume” without changing its  
130 shape that is anchored by three limits. This means that the three limits and the water storage ratio curves  
131 provide a key to establish a relationship between the hydrodynamic models and the hydrological models.

#### 132 **4. Grid-shaped cross distribution of discharge/water depth process lines during water rising and** 133 **falling**

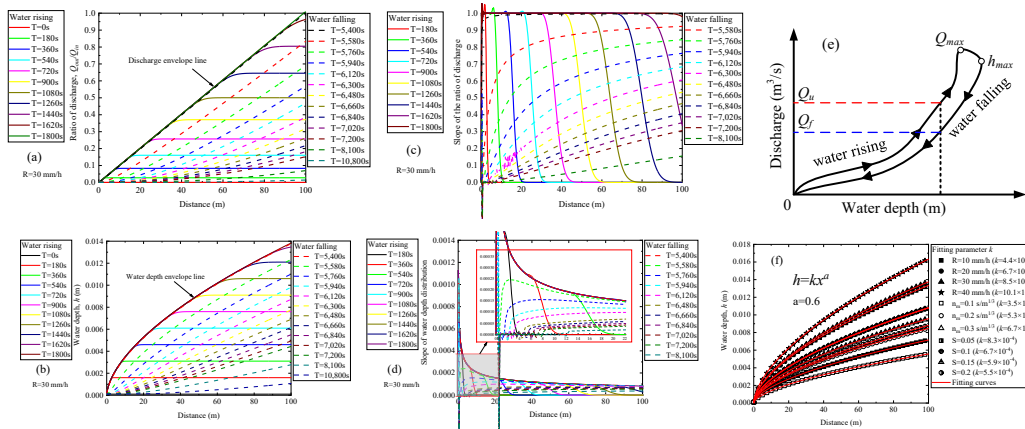
134 To obtain further insights into the causes for the formation of the water-rising limb and the water-falling  
135 limb of the water storage ratio curve. The ratio of discharge (i.e., the ratio of the total outflows ( $Q_{out}$ ) to the  
136 total inflows ( $Q_{in}$ ), and the water depth ( $h$ ) along the slope are discussed in Fig. 3a and Fig. 3b, respectively.  
137 Results indicate that there is an envelope line that controls the distribution of the discharge and water depth  
138 along the slope, respectively. The discharge envelope line is a straight line with a slope of 1.0 (Fig. 3a), while  
139 the water depth envelope line is a nonlinear curve controlled by power function ( $h=kx^n$ ) (Fig. 3b). It means  
140 that if the duration of rainfall with a constant intensity is long enough, the catchment system will eventually  
141 reach an equilibrium state between inflow and outflow.

142 On the other hand, the process lines of discharge and water depth during water rising and falling present  
143 a grid-shaped cross distribution (Fig. 3a and Fig. 3b). Similarly, from the view of the gradient of the  
144 discharge and water depth process lines during water rising and falling, the discharge gradient curves (Fig.  
145 3c) and the water depth gradient curves (Fig. 3d) also present a grid-shaped cross distribution during water



146 rising and falling, which might be the cause of the looped rating curve (Fig. 3e), i.e., higher discharges for  
 147 the rising limb ( $Q_u$ ) than for the recession limb ( $Q_r$ ) at the same stage (Petersen-Øverleir, 2006). After fitting  
 148 the value of parameter  $k$  and  $a$  under different rainfall intensity ( $R$ ), Manning's coefficient ( $n_m$ ), and slope  
 149 gradient ( $S$ ) conditions (Fig. 3f), it is found that the parameter  $a$  is a constant, while the change of parameter  
 150  $k$  is positively correlated with the change of rainfall intensity ( $R$ ) and Manning's coefficient ( $n_m$ ), but  
 151 negatively correlated with the change of slope gradient ( $S$ ).

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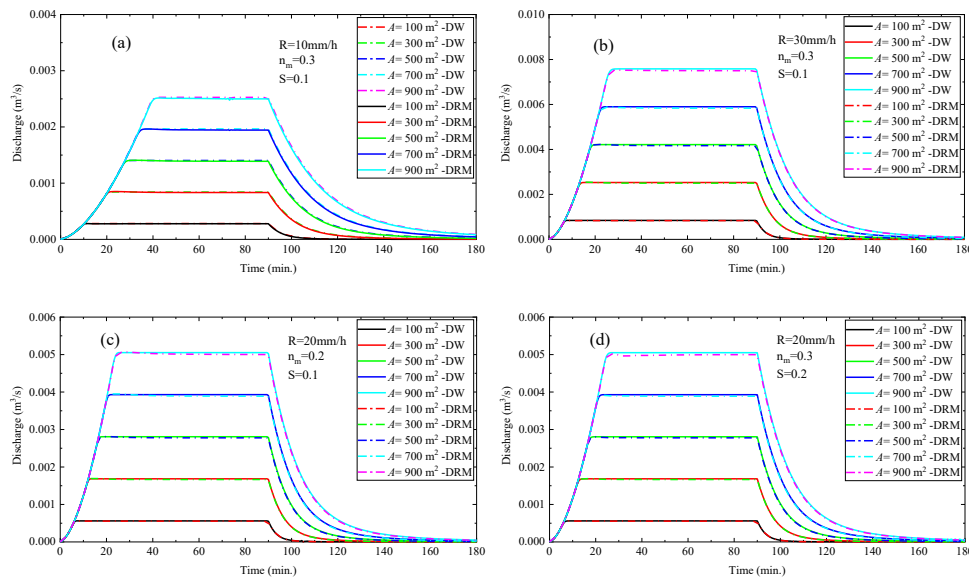
154 **Fig. 3. Discharge/water depth process lines during water rising and falling.** (a) discharge process lines  
 155 during water rising and falling; (b) gradient lines of discharge process line during water rising and falling; (c)  
 156 schematic diagram of looped rating curve; (d) water depth process lines during water rising and falling; (e)  
 157 gradient lines of water depth process lines during water rising and falling; (f) change of water depth envelope  
 158 line under different rainfall intensity ( $R$ ), Manning's coefficient ( $n_m$ ), and slope gradient ( $S$ ).

159 Based on the water storage ratio curve, a hydrological-hydrodynamic integrated model, namely the  
 160 Distributed Runoff Model (DRM), is established with the governing equations in Eq. 3. To check the  
 161 effectiveness and applicability of DRM, the comparative analysis of the numerical results obtained from the  
 162 DRM and the DW model is implemented. We found that the DRM quickly reproduces the calculation results  
 163 of the time-consuming DW model under different rainfall intensity (Fig. 4a and Fig. 4b), different Manning's  
 164 coefficient and different slope gradient (Fig. 4c and Fig. 4d). meaning that the water storage ratio curve will





165 provide new ideas for simulation and early warning of floods. In addition, due to the governing equations of  
166 DRM is ordinary differential equations (ODEs), the computational efficiency of DRM is much higher than  
167 DW model, which governed by nonlinear partial differential equations (PDEs). More attention should be  
168 paid on the determination of the nonlinear relationship of the water storage ratio curve under different  
169 geographical scenarios, which will benefit to propose more efficient flood forecasting methods or early  
170 warning systems.



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173 **Fig. 4. Comparative analyses of discharge calculated by DW and DRM under designed rainfall. (a)**

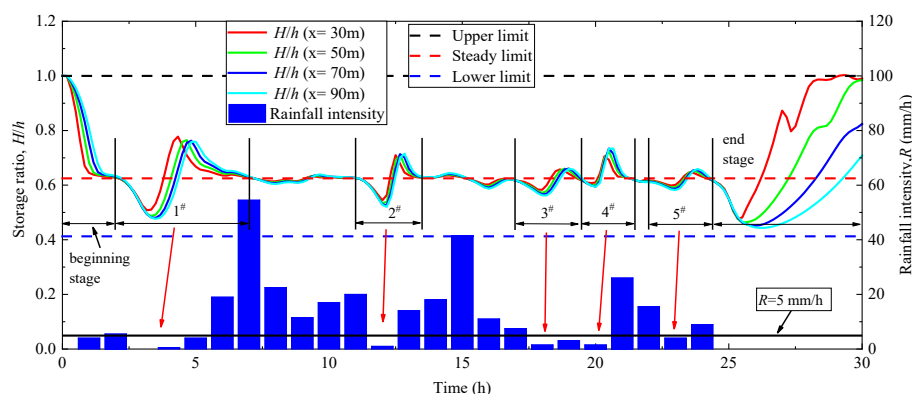
174 controlled group; (b) compared with (a), only the rainfall intensity is changed; (c) compared with (a), rainfall  
175 intensity and Manning coefficient are changed; (d) compared with (a), rainfall intensity and slope gradient  
176 are changed.

### 177 5. Fluctuation of water storage ratio under natural rainfall conditions

178 After implementing a real rainfall event in the impermeable conceptual slope model (Fig. 1c), the  
179 change of the water storage ratio is calculated as shown in Fig. 5. Rainfall data was recorded from 09 August  
180 2022 00:00 - 10 August 2022 00:00 in Aomori Prefecture, Japan (<https://www.data.jma.go.jp>). The total



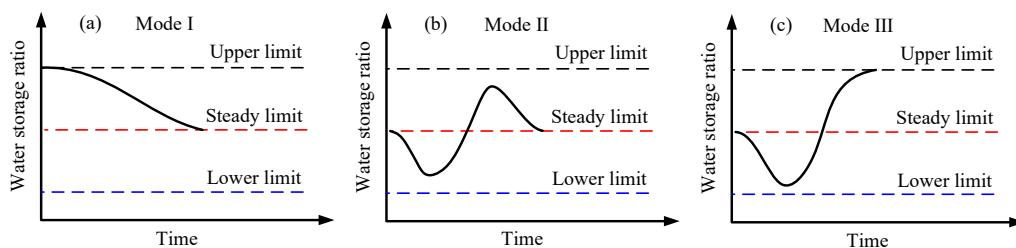
181 simulation time is 30 hours. Results show that in addition to the fluctuations of water storage ratio in the  
 182 beginning and end stages of rainfall, there are mainly five fluctuation periods of water storage ratio during  
 183 the rainfall duration stage, i.e., 1<sup>#</sup>, 2<sup>#</sup>, 3<sup>#</sup>, 4<sup>#</sup>, and 5<sup>#</sup> fluctuation (Fig. 5). The fluctuations are found to be  
 184 mainly caused by weak rainfall ( $R < 5.0 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ ) as pointed by the red arrows in Fig. 5.



185

186 **Fig. 5. The fluctuation of water storage ratio and the effectiveness of DRM in natural rainfall events.**

187 Besides, the fluctuations of water storage ratio can be divided into three modes, that is Mode I during  
 188 rainfall beginning stage (Fig. 6a), Mode II during rainfall duration stage (Fig. 6b), and Mode III during  
 189 rainfall end stage (Fig. 6c). This means that the certainty of the fluctuation modes will provide the possibility  
 190 for quantitative analysis of the fluctuation of the water storage ratio induced by the change of the rainfall  
 191 intensity.



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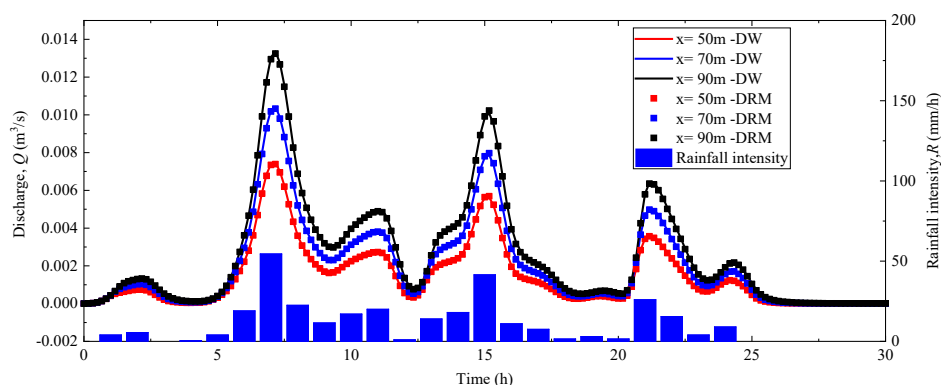
193 **Fig. 6. Three kinds of water storage ratio fluctuation mode in natural rainfall events. (a) water storage**

194 ratio fluctuation Mode I during rainfall beginning stage; (b) water storage ratio fluctuation Mode II during

195 rainfall duration stage; (c) water storage ratio fluctuation Mode III during rainfall end stage.



196 Figure 7 shows the simulation results of discharge at different locations calculated by DRM and DW  
197 model. Results suggest that after the determination of the water storage ratio fluctuations, the calculation  
198 results of DRM are in good agreement with those of DW model, meaning that DRM provides a new and  
199 more effective theoretical scheme for flood prediction.



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**Fig. 7. Time-dependent discharge calculated by DRM and DW model.**

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## 6. Discussions and Conclusions

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Through the numerical simulations of the hydrodynamic model, we find that in the rainfall-runoff process, three limits (upper, steady, and lower limit) control the water storage in a catchment, which are independent of meteorological (rainfall intensity), vegetation (Manning's coefficient), and terrain (slope gradient) conditions. The value of the three limits is approximately 1.0, 0.625, and 0.4125, respectively. Under the control of these three limits, a "plume" shaped nonlinear relationship exists between the inside average water depth and the outlet water depth in a catchment, namely the water storage ratio. Meteorological, vegetation, and terrain conditions only affect the size of the "plume" without changing its shape.

In addition, the water storage and discharge are limited to envelope lines and the discharge/water depth process lines during water rising and falling showed a grid-shaped distribution, which might be the cause of the looped rating curve, i.e., higher discharges for the rising limb than for the recession limb at the same



214 stage. Rainfall, especially weak rain (rainfall intensity is less than  $5.0 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ ) significantly affects the  
215 fluctuations of water storage ratio, which can be divided into three modes, that is Mode I during rainfall  
216 beginning stage, Mode II during rainfall duration stage, and Mode III during rainfall end stage.

217 The findings in this study provide a key to establish a simpler prediction model for floods. Afterward,  
218 we constructed a hydrological-hydrodynamic integrated model, namely the Distributed Runoff Model  
219 (DRM). Based on a real rainfall event, numerical results indicate that DRM quickly reproduces the  
220 calculation results of the time-consuming hydrodynamic model, meaning that the determination of the  
221 nonlinear relationship of the water storage ratio curve under different geographical scenarios will provide  
222 new ideas for simulation and early warning of floods.

223

#### 224 **Authors' contributions**

225 **Yulong Zhu:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Data  
226 Curation, Writing-Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing.

227 **Yang Zhou:** Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Resources, Data Curation.

228 **Xiaorong Xu:** Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation.

229 **Changqing Meng:** Validation, Investigation, Data Curation.

230 **Yuankun Wang:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing-Original draft, Writing - Review & Editing,  
231 Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

232

#### 233 **Availability of data and materials**

234 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on  
235 reasonable request.

236



237 **Competing interests**

238 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

239

240 **Acknowledgments**

241 This study was supported by National Natural Science Fund of China (52279064) and the Fundamental  
242 Research Funds for the Central Universities of China (2021MS043).

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