



In search of catchment scale physics- estimating catchment scale groundwater dynamics from recession analysis and mean annual runoff

Thomas Skaugen and Zelalem Mengistu,
Department of Hydrology, NVE

Summary

- A formulation of the dynamics of subsurface storage, free of calibration parameters, is presented.
- The subsurface storage is parametrised using catchment scale information such as recession data (Λ) and mean annual runoff (MAR).
- No loss in precision wrt simulated runoff is found using the new routine.
- Recessions are better simulated, suggesting more realistic groundwater dynamics
- The approach inspires searching for a method for updating the subsurface storage S (and thereby Q_{sim}) from Q_{obs}

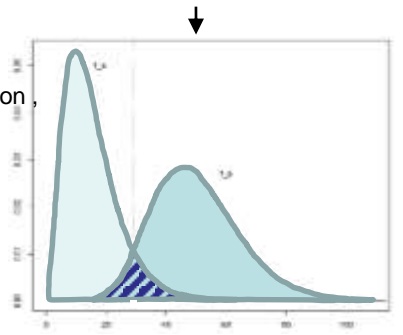
«The important hydrological action takes place underground» (Beven, 2001)

- There is a (quite a) gap between theoretical (Dupuit-Boussinesq, Darcy) and conceptual (operational) formulations of the hydrological subsurface.
- Countless concepts are presented for modelling the subsurface, recognizing that that's where the dynamics of runoff is formed.
- How can we close this gap and what are the «physically based equations for hydrological behaviour at the catchments scale»? (Kirchner, 2006)

DDD model

Input: precipitation and temperature
10 elevation zones.

P, T,..



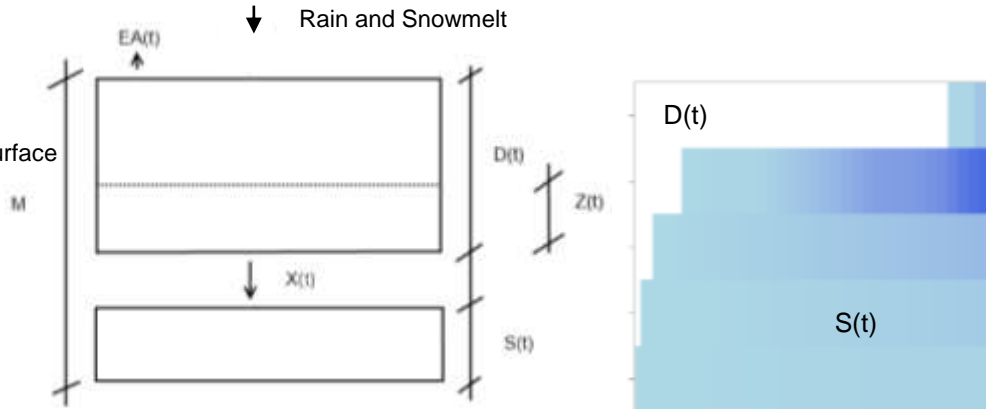
Snow distribution: accumulation, melt and snow-free area .
10 elevation zones.

-a parameter parsimonious rainfall-runoff model (Skaugen and Onof, 2014, Skaugen et al. 2015)

- runoff dynamics are modelled by unit hydrographs arranged in parallel, turned on and off according to level of saturation

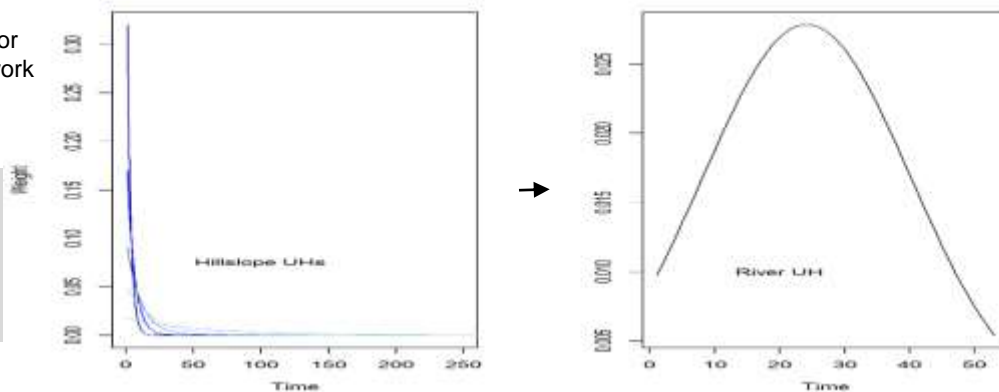
- The parameters of the unit hydrographs are determined from observed data, no calibration

Subsurface: saturated and unsaturated zone.
Right: simulated subsurface moisture distribution in hillslope

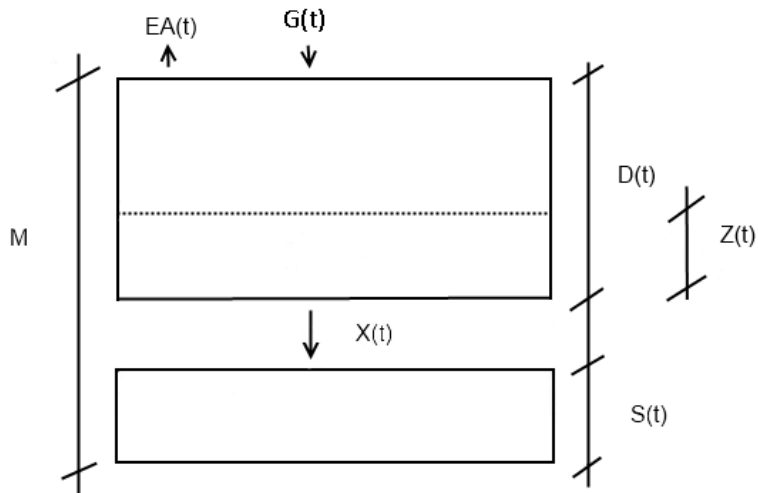


$X(t)$ distributed in time by UHs conditioned on subsurface state, S

Runoff dynamics: UHs for hillslopes and river network



Subsurface in the DDD



EA(t)- evapotranspiration

G(t)- input rain/snowmelt

Z(t)- actual soilmoisture

D(t)- volume unsaturated zone (soilwater)

S(t)- volume saturated zone (groundwater)

X(T)- water released to S(t) and runoff

Excess water: $X(t) = \text{Max} \left\{ \frac{G(t)+Z(t)}{D(t)} - R, 0 \right\} D(t)$.

Groundwater: $\frac{dS}{dt} = X(t) - Q(t)$.

Soil water content: $\frac{dZ}{dt} = G(t) - X(t) - Ea(t)$.

Soil water zone: $\frac{dD}{dt} = -\frac{dS}{dt}$

M- subsurface capacity is **calibrated!**

Q(t)- runoff

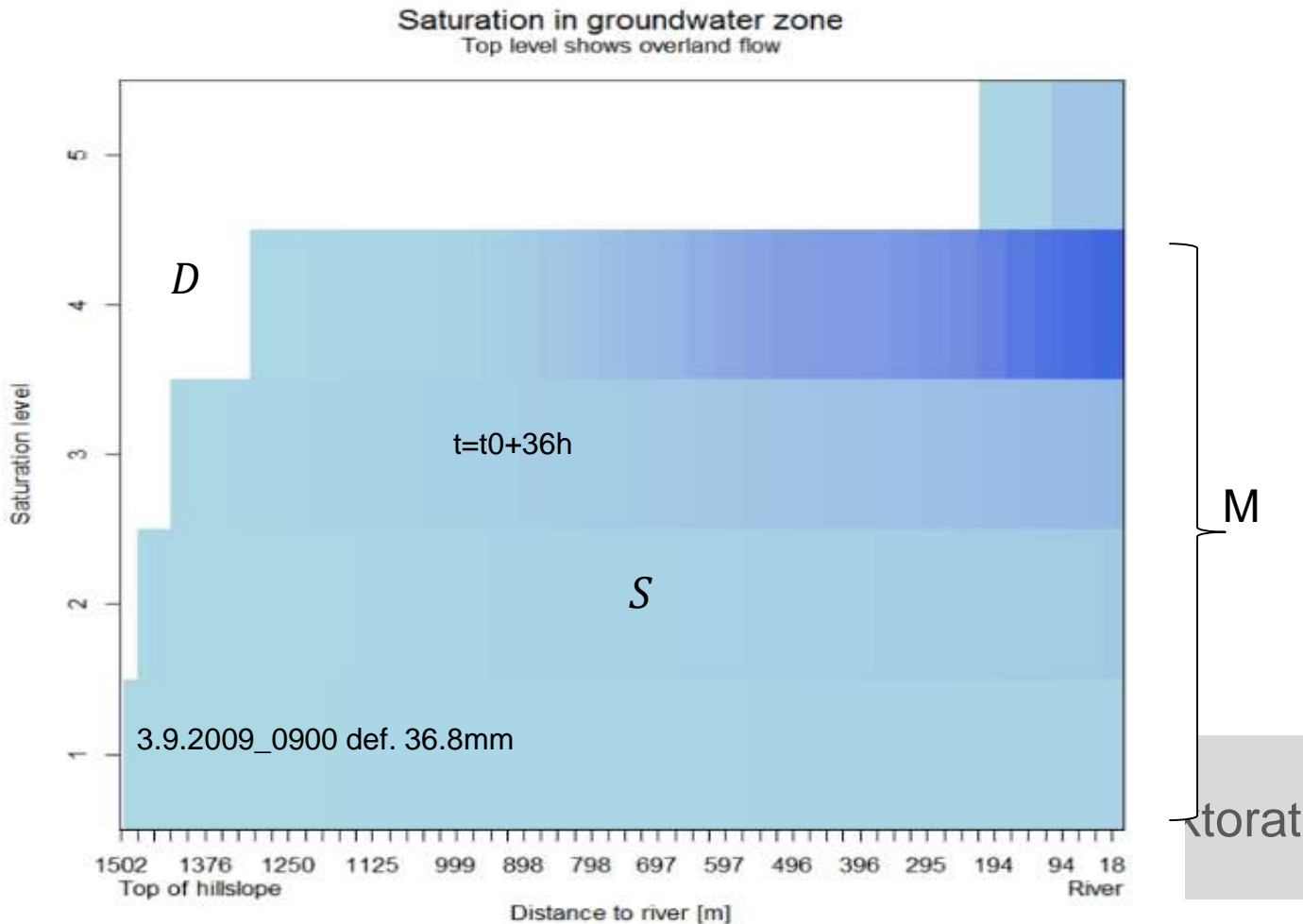
R - (field capacity: 30% of D)

Subsurface in DDD

2-D representation:

x: length of hillslope (entire catchment is represented as a hillslope)

z: moisture varying with (relative) depth



Problems of current subsurface formulation

- 1) M is an extreme value (hard to estimate)
- 2) M is a calibration parameter
- 3) The fluctuations of S are uniformly distributed, each level of storage is equally probable. Is that a probable model??

New formulation:

- 1) As in previous formulation, subsurface storage and runoff have a strong link (recession analysis)
- 2) We estimate the mean of the distribution of $S(t)$, m_S , less uncertainty compared to an extreme value (M).
- 3) We estimate m_S from data; no calibration

7

Recession analysis; a classic, but still underexplored source of information.

- In DDD recession, sampled from:

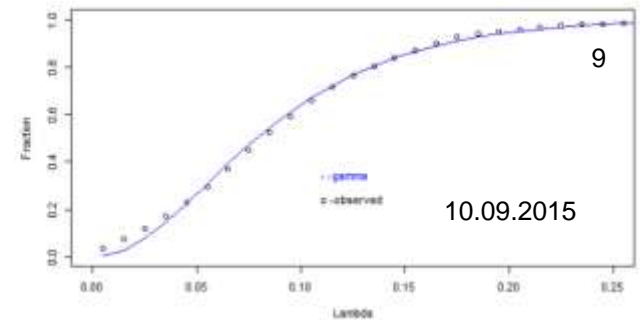
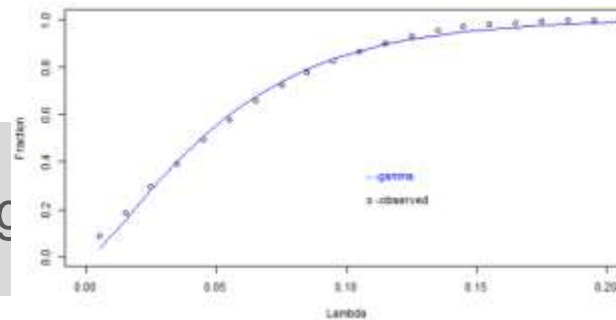
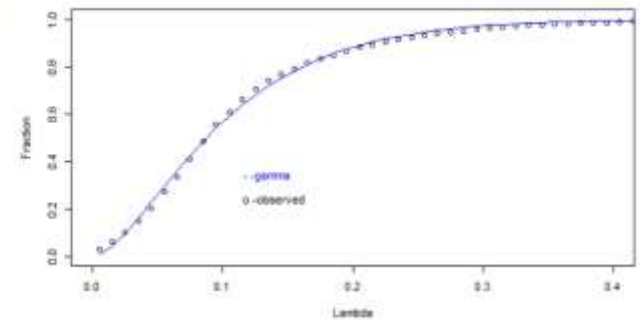
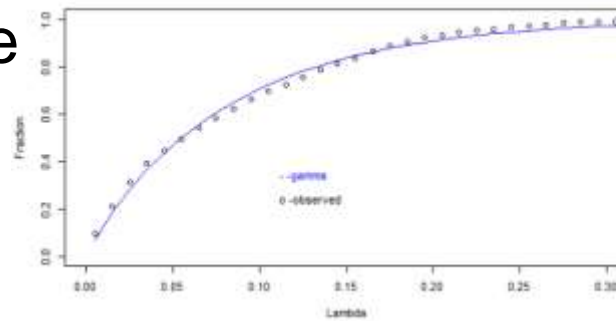
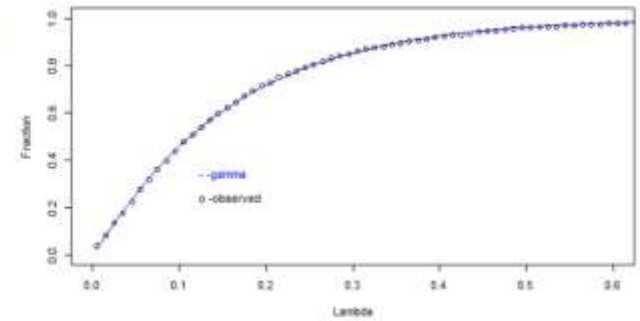
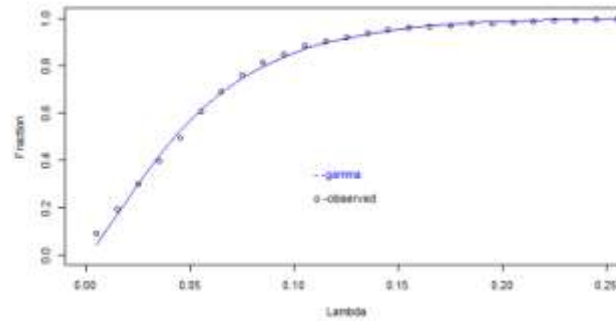
$$\Lambda = \log(Q(t)) - \log(Q(t + \Delta t))$$

is used to determine:

1. subsurface wave velocities, i.e assigning scale to the UHs for different levels of saturation
2. the frequency distribution of subsurface storage

A gamma distribution models the distribution of Λ

- Λ appears to be a quite robust recession characteristic. Its distribution is quite insensitive to whether we allow precipitation on day $t + \Delta t$ or not



Assumption: the distribution of S is a scaled version to that of the recession characteristic Λ

The distribution of $\Lambda = \log(Q(t)) - \log(Q(t + \Delta t))$ is modeled by a two parameter gamma distribution (shape and scale).

$$f(\Lambda) = \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \Lambda^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\Lambda/\beta)$$

$$f(S) = \frac{1}{\eta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} S^{\alpha-1} \exp(-S/\eta)$$

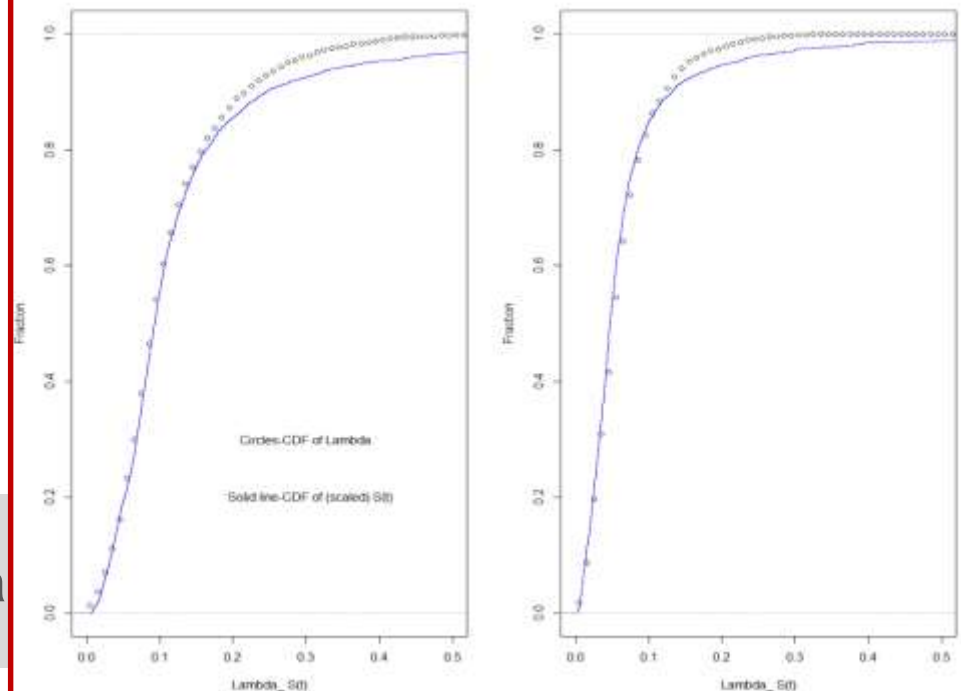
Scale parameter: $\eta = \beta/c$
and $c = \bar{\Lambda}/m_s$

Shape parameters are equal: α

All we need is an estimate of m_s !

Storage, $S(t)$, sampled by assuming that $\Lambda(t)$ is the parameter of a linear reservoir.

$$S(t) = \frac{Q(t)}{1 - e^{-\Lambda(t)}}$$



The average recession $\bar{\Lambda}$, represents a subsurface state of mean storage (m_S)

- Unit hydrograph in a state of mean storage:

$$u_{\bar{\Lambda}}(t) = \bar{\Lambda} e^{-\bar{\Lambda}(t-t_0)}$$

- Weights distributing impulse in a state of mean storage:

$$\mu(\bar{\Lambda})_j = \int_{(j-1)\Delta t}^{(j)\Delta t} u_{\bar{\Lambda}}(t) dt \quad j = 1..J, \quad \sum \mu(\bar{\Lambda})_j = 1$$

- J is the temporal scale of $u_{\bar{\Lambda}}(t)$

Steady-state mean annual runoff represents mean storage (m_s)

Excess water input X necessary to maintain mean annual runoff (MAR)

$$X[\text{mm/day}] = (1000 * MAR[\text{m}^3/\text{s}] * 86400[\text{s}]) / A[\text{m}^2]$$

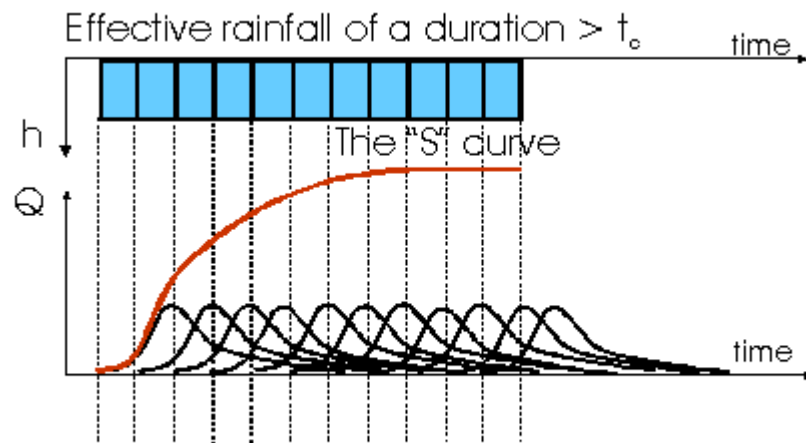


Figure 4.4. The construction of the "S" curve



What is left in the soils (S_S) at steady-state?

- The S curve is obtained after J days of input X . Balancing the volumes gives us : $J \cdot X = S_S + Q_S$

where:

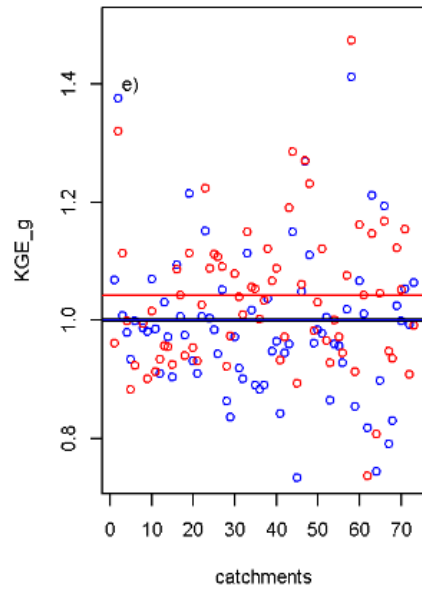
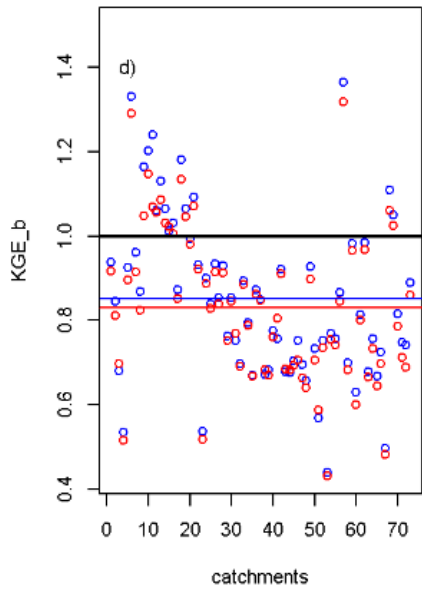
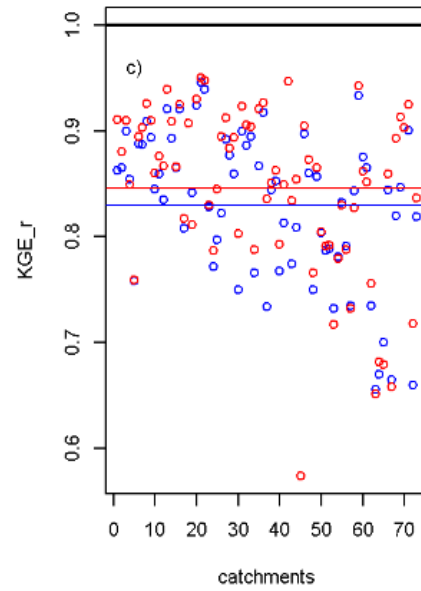
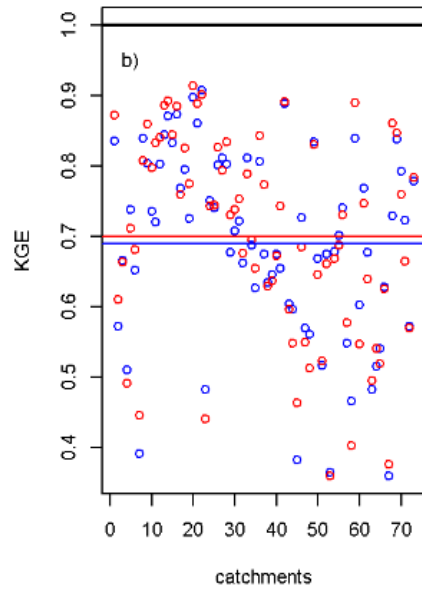
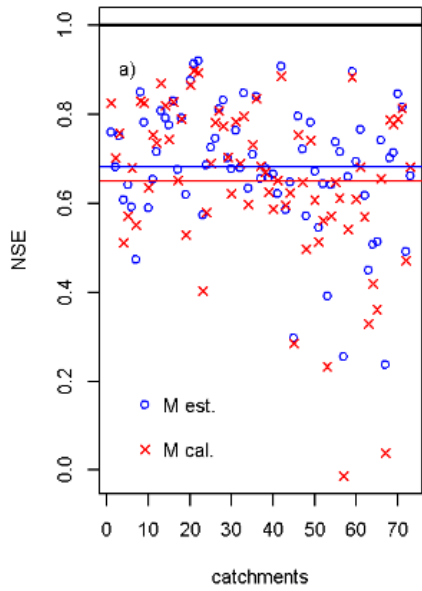
$$Q_S = \sum_{k=1}^J \sum_{j=1}^k X \cdot \mu(\bar{\Lambda})_j \quad (\text{runoff}) \text{ and}$$

$$S_S = \sum_{k=1}^{J-1} \sum_{j=k+1}^J X \cdot \mu(\bar{\Lambda})_j = m_S \quad (\text{storage})$$

Recall information needed: $\bar{\Lambda}$ and MAR

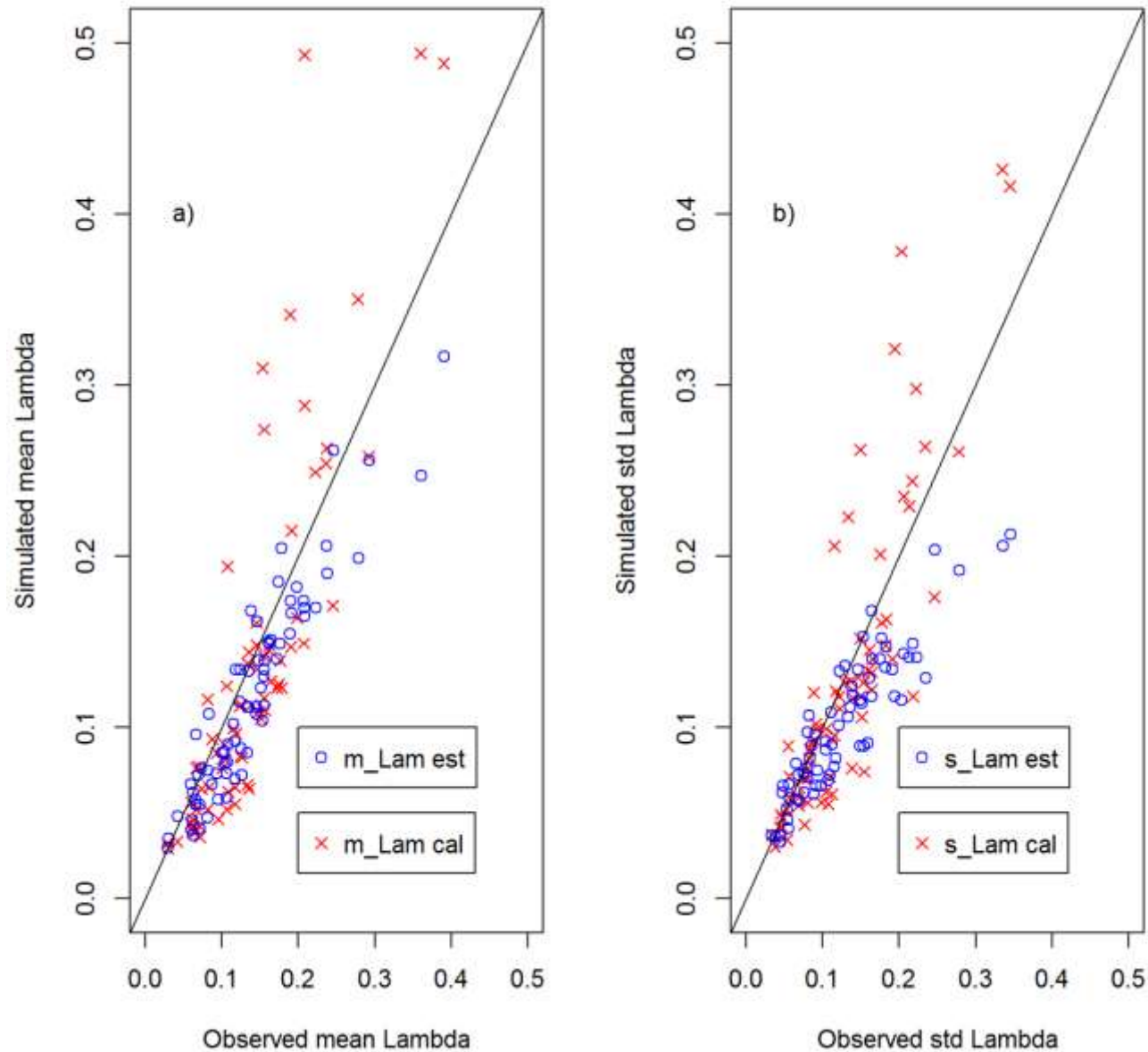
Results: New groundwater dynamics

- Comparing performances of DDD with θ_M (calibrated) and m_S (estimated)
- Tested for 73 catchments, with no corrections of meteorology



	NSE	KGE	KGE_r	KGE_b	KGE_g
DDD_ <i>m_S</i>	0.68	0.69	0.83	0.85	1.0
DDD_ <i>θ_M</i>	0.66	0.70	0.85	0.83	1.04

Mean and standard deviation of $\Lambda = \log(Q(t)) - \log(Q(t + \Delta t))$



	RMSE mean Λ	RMSE std Λ
DDD_ m_S	0.275	0.389
DDD_ θ_M	0.511	0.392

Summary

- A formulation of the dynamics of subsurface storage, free of calibration parameters, is presented.
- The subsurface storage is parametrised using catchment scale information such as recession data (Λ) and mean annual runoff (MAR).
- No loss in precision wrt simulated runoff is found using the new routine.
- Recessions are better simulated, suggesting more realistic groundwater dynamics
- The approach inspires searching for a method for updating the subsurface storage S (and thereby Q_{sim}) from Q_{obs}

17

Thank you for your attention!

References

HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES
Hydrol. Process. **28**, 4529–4542 (2014)
Published online 2 August 2013 in Wiley Online Library
(wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI: 10.1002/hyp.9968

A rainfall-runoff model parameterized from GIS and runoff data

Thomas Skaugen^{1*} and Christian Onof²

¹ *Hydrology Department, NVE, Oslo, Norway*

² *Imperial College, London, UK*

HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES
Hydrol. Process. (2014)
Published online in Wiley Online Library
(wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI: 10.1002/hyp.10315

Use of a parsimonious rainfall–run-off model for predicting hydrological response in ungauged basins

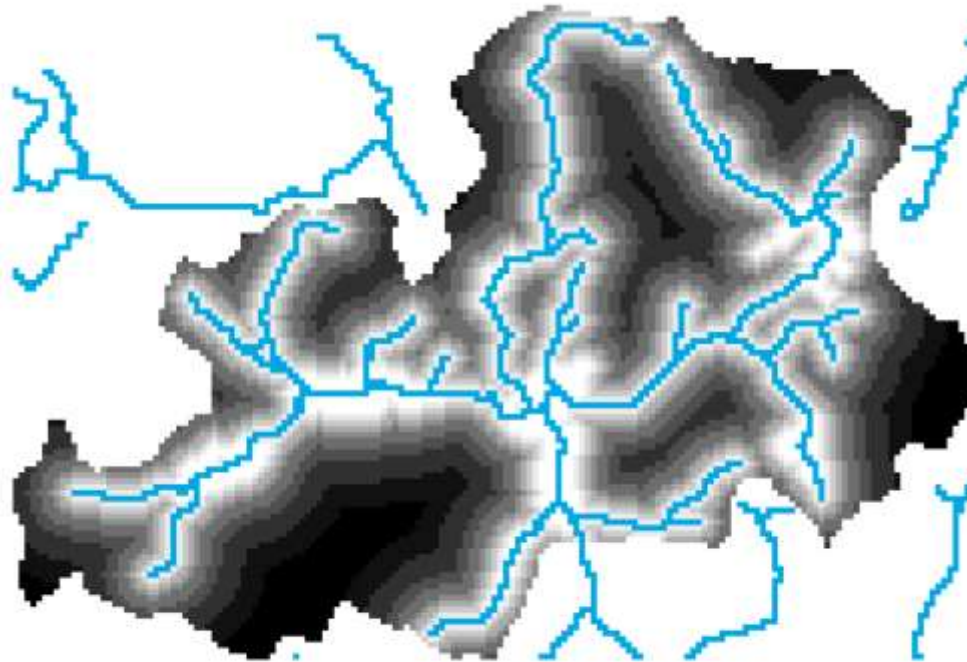
Thomas Skaugen,^{1*} Ivar Olaf Peerebom¹ and Anna Nilsson²

¹ *Department of Hydrology, Norwegian Water Resources and Energy Directorate, Oslo, Norway*

² *Centre for Ecological and Evolutionary Synthesis, Department of Biology, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway*

Distance distributions and runoff dynamics

- Creating equidistant buffers around the river network (blue) is a way to determine the distribution of distances from a point in the catchment to its nearest river reach.



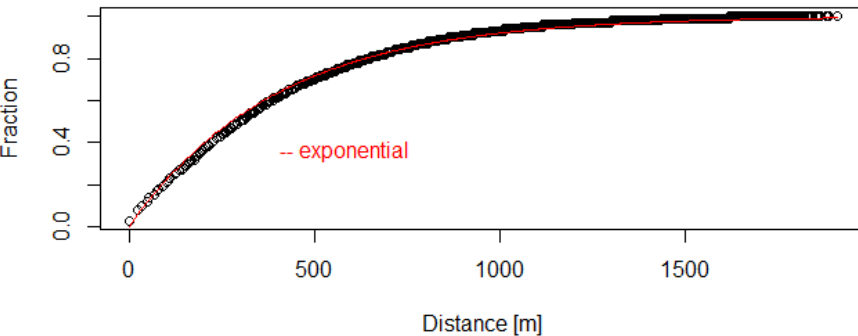
The distance distribution is exponential!

- For more than 120 catchments in Norway, the empirical DD is well approximated by an exponential distribution

$$f(d) = \gamma e^{-\gamma d}, \quad \gamma = 1/\bar{d}$$

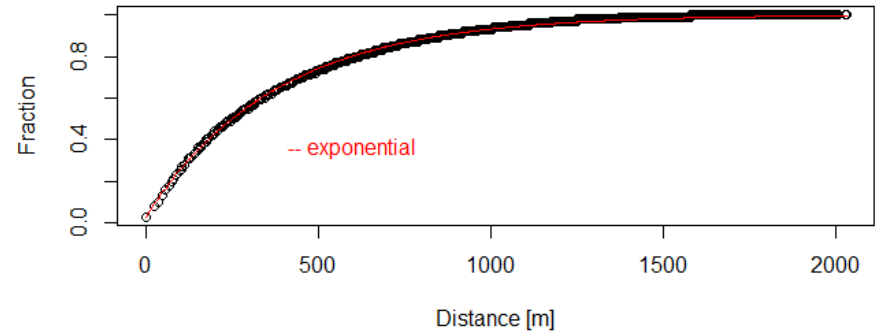
Area distribution for catchment 168_2 Area[km2]= 31.23 d_max[m]= 1908

d_m=(1/Exp_par)= 396.22 ResSE_exp= 0.0139



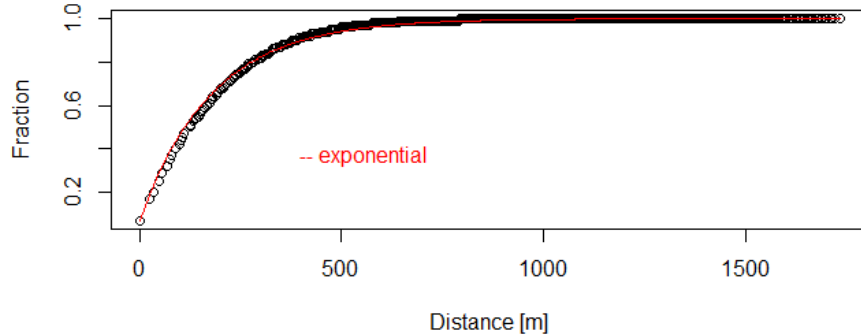
Area dist. for soil 2_11 Area[km2]= 105.15 d_max[m]= 2030

d_m=(1/Exp_par)= 377.86 ResSE_exp= 0.0085 Soil-zero dist= 3



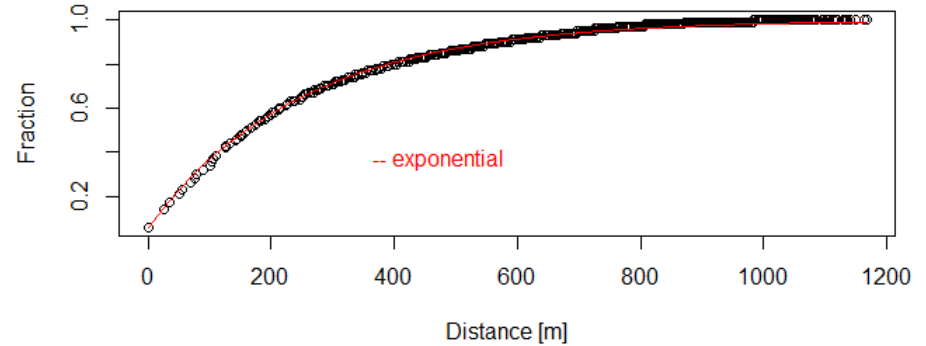
Area dist. for soil 122_9 Area[km2]= 2638.07 d_max[m]= 1733

d_m=(1/Exp_par)= 180.45 ResSE_exp= 0.0089 Soil-zero dist= 7



Area dist. for soil 165_6 Area[km2]= 21.16 d_max[m]= 1167

d_m=(1/Exp_par)= 252.37 ResSE_exp= 0.0113 Soil-zero dist= 6

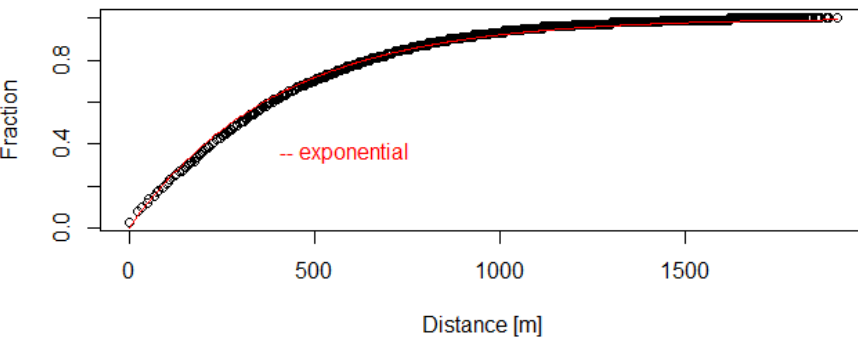


The distance distribution is exponential!

- For more than 120 monitored catchments in Norway, the empirical DD is well approximated by an exponential distribution, **big** and **small**

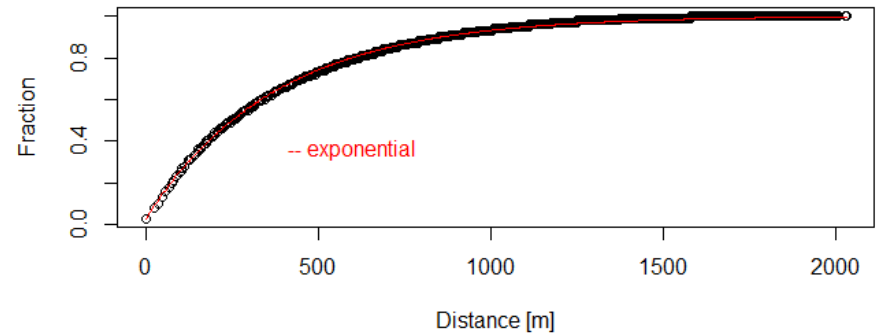
Area distribution for catchment 168_2 Area[km2]= 31.23 d_{max} [m]= 1908

$d_m = (1/Exp_par) = 396.22$ ResSE_exp= 0.0139



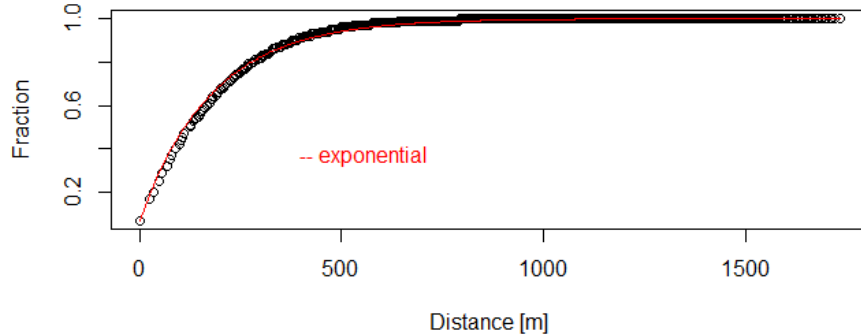
Area dist. for soil 2_1 Area[km2]= 105.15 d_{max} [m]= 2030

$d_m = (1/Exp_par) = 377.86$ ResSE_exp= 0.0085 Soil-zero dist= 3



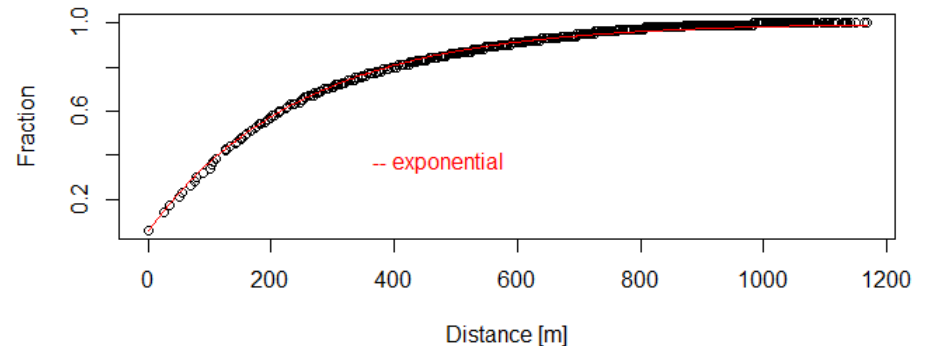
Area dist. for soil 122_9 Area[km2]= 2638.0 d_{max} [m]= 1733

$d_m = (1/Exp_par) = 180.45$ ResSE_exp= 0.0089 Soil-zero dist= 7



Area dist. for soil 165_6 Area[km2]= 21.16 d_{max} [m]= 1167

$d_m = (1/Exp_par) = 252.37$ ResSE_exp= 0.0113 Soil-zero dist= 6

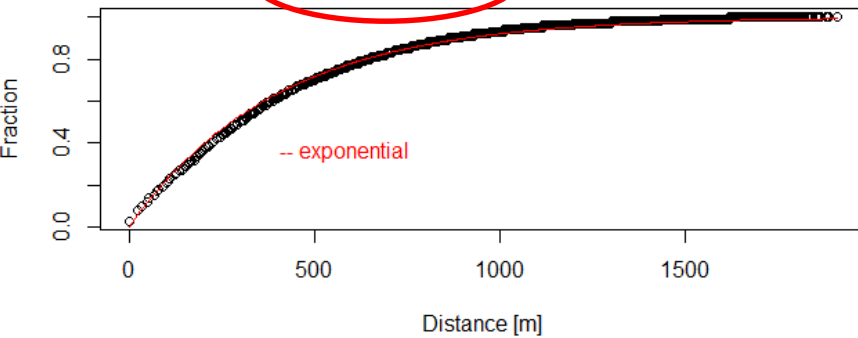


The distance distribution is exponential!

- For more than 120 monitored catchments in Norway, the empirical DD is well approximated by an exponential distribution, **but the parameter varies**

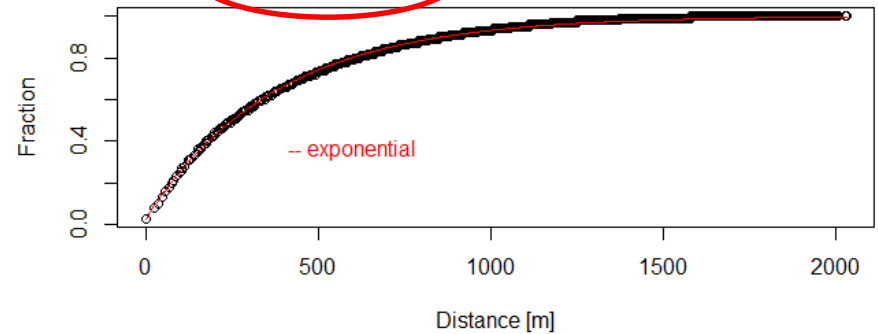
Area distribution for catchment 168_2 Area[km2]= 31.23 d_max[m]= 1908

$$d_m = (1/\text{Exp_par}) = 396.22 \text{ ResSE_exp} = 0.0139$$



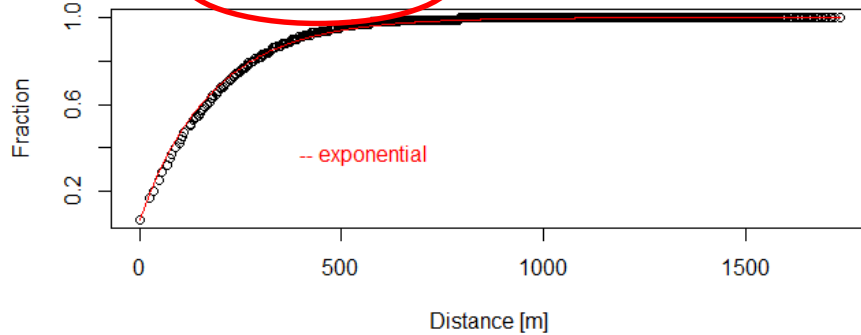
Area dist. for soil 2_11 Area[km2]= 105.15 d_max[m]= 2030

$$d_m = (1/\text{Exp_par}) = 377.86 \text{ ResSE_exp} = 0.0085 \text{ Soil-zero dist} = 3$$



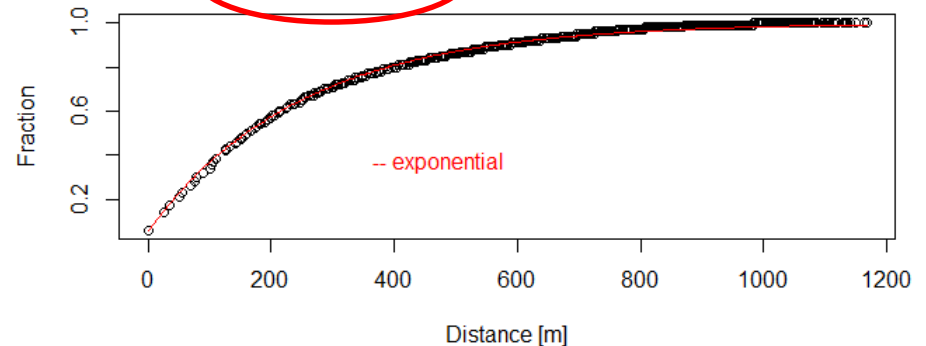
Area dist. for soil 122_9 Area[km2]= 2638.07 d_max[m]= 1733

$$d_m = (1/\text{Exp_par}) = 180.45 \text{ ResSE_exp} = 0.0089 \text{ Soil-zero dist} = 7$$



Area dist. for soil 165_6 Area[km2]= 21.16 d_max[m]= 1167

$$d_m = (1/\text{Exp_par}) = 252.37 \text{ ResSE_exp} = 0.0113 \text{ Soil-zero dist} = 6$$

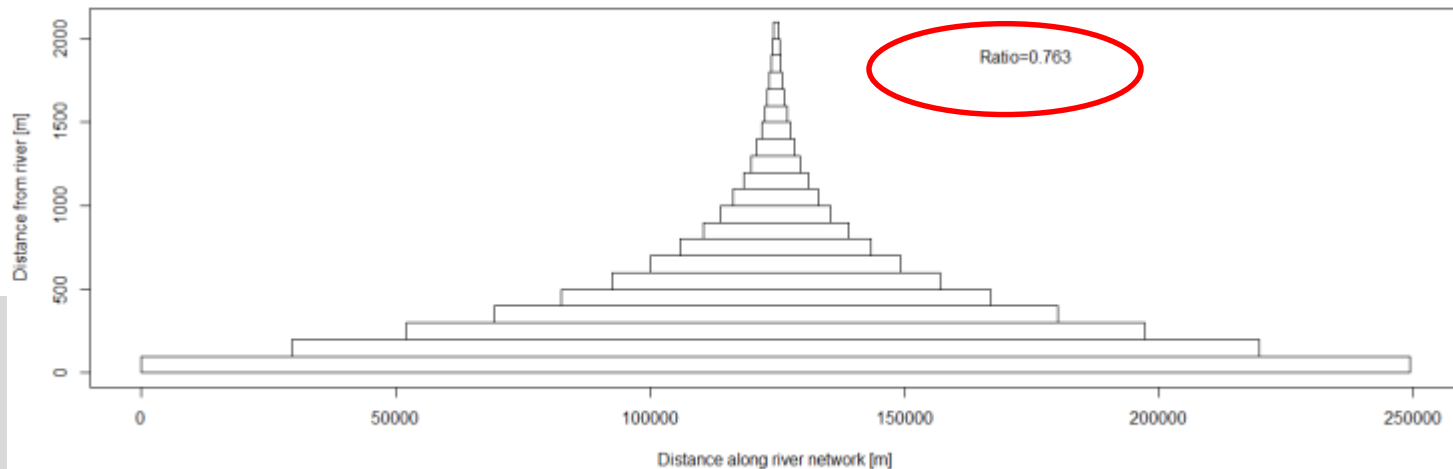
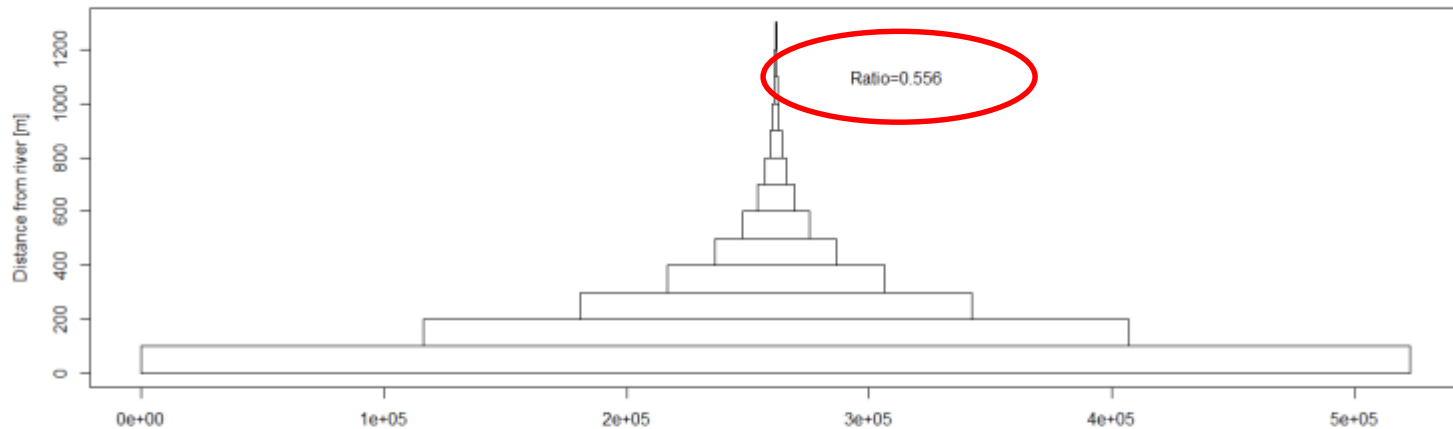


Another way to visualize the distance distribution..

- The consecutive areas for each Δd in the DD are plotted.

- The ratio κ between consecutive areas is constant (feature of the exponential distribution)

- Is this the shape of the aquifer?



From Distance Distributions to Unit Hydrographs-assigning velocities

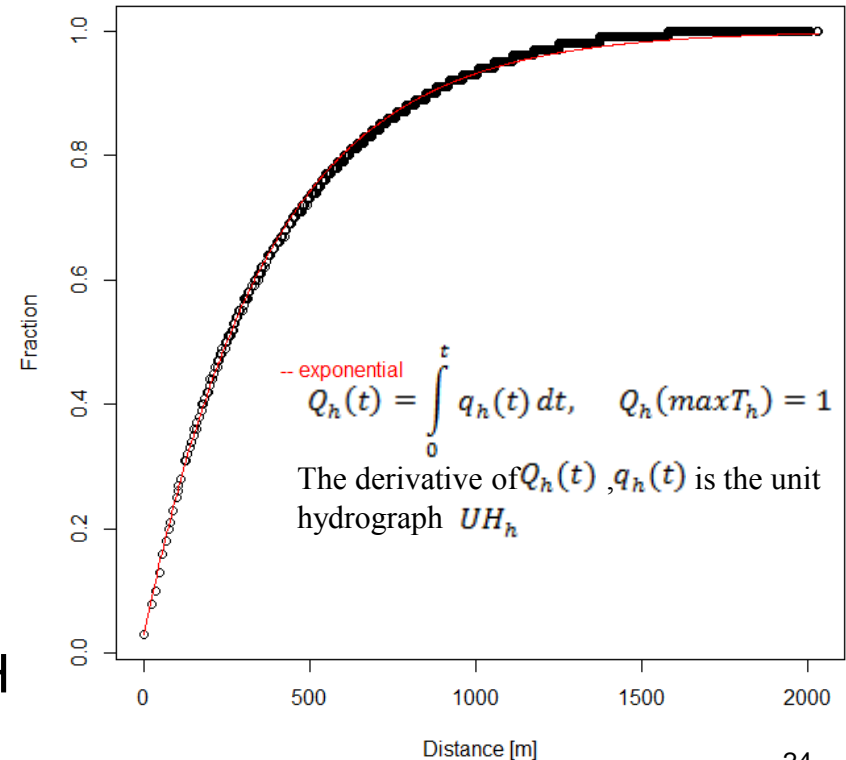
- If waves of water travel with a constant wave velocity v , (celerity), the exponential distribution of distances becomes an exponential distribution of travel times, i.e. the variable d is replaced with d/v with parameter

$$\xi = -\log(\kappa)/\Delta t$$

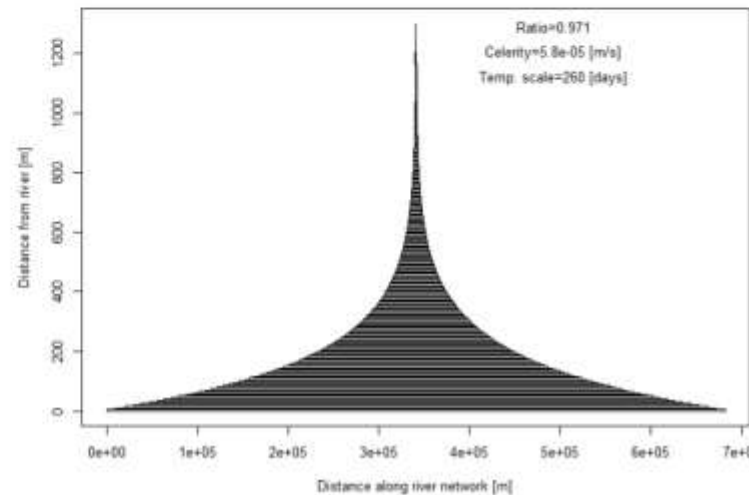
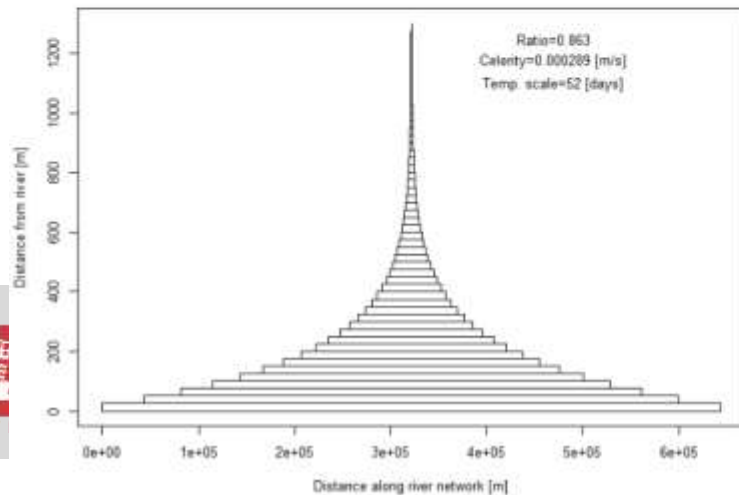
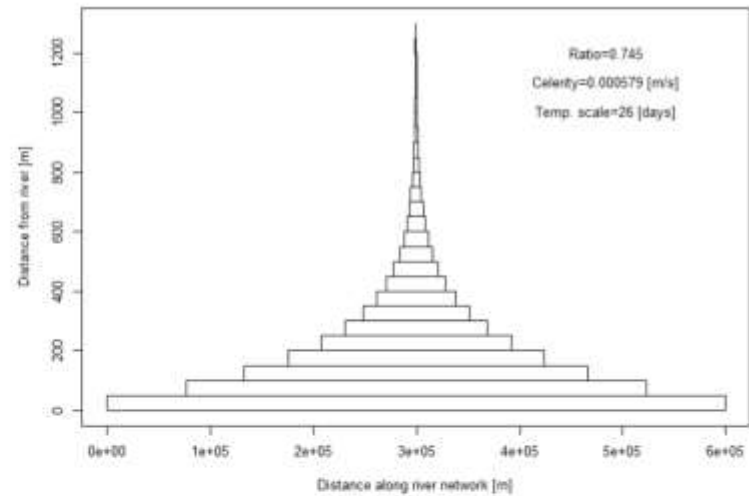
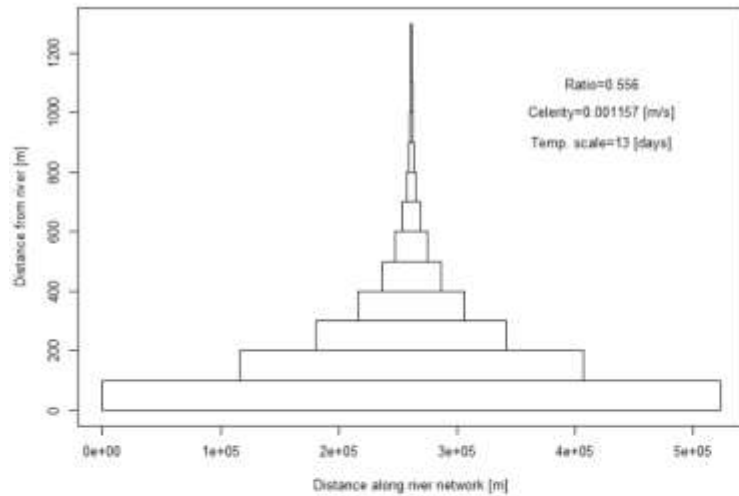
- A travel time distribution constitutes a Unit Hydrograph (UH).
- The UH distributes the input (rain/snowmelt) in time to the outlet where we observe it as runoff. (The UH is basically a set of weights)

Area dist. for soil 2_11 Area[km2]= 105.15 d_max[m]= 2030

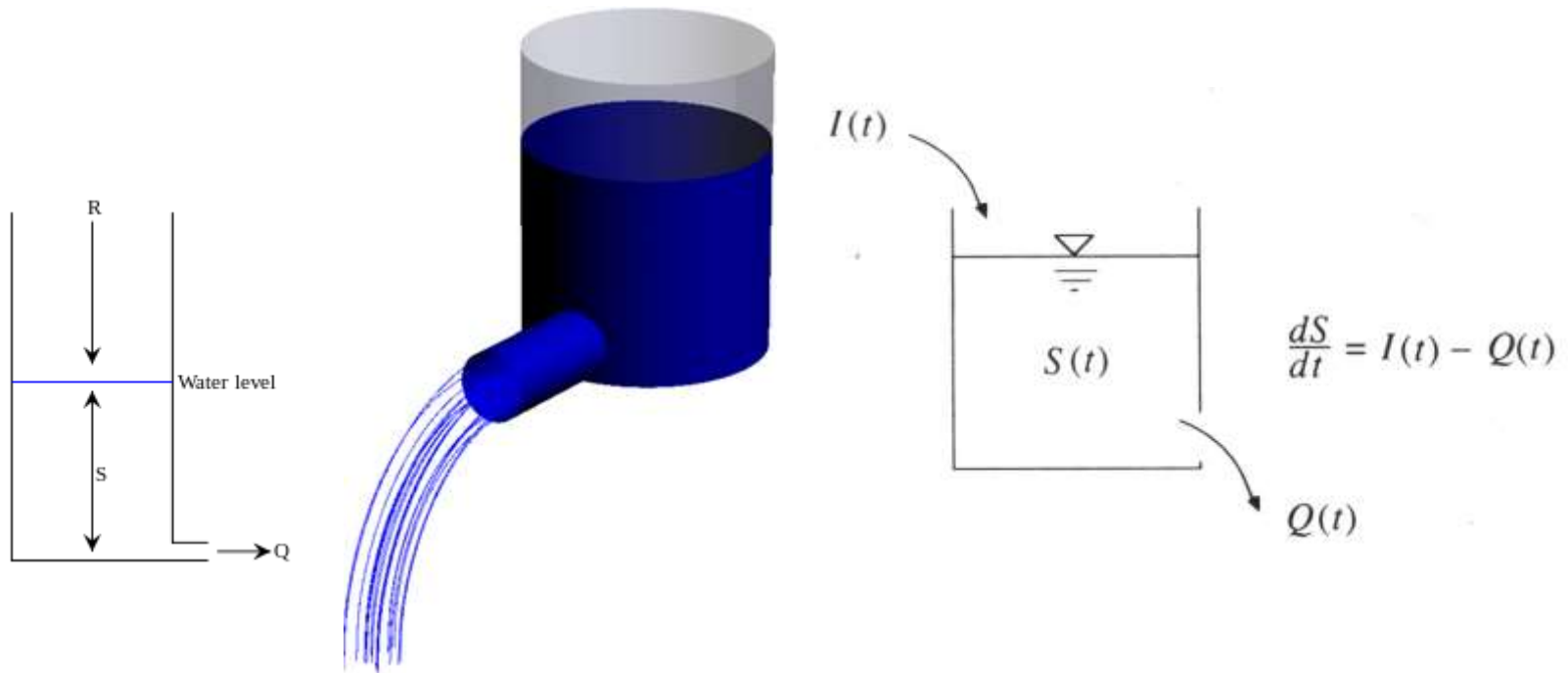
d_m =(1/Exp_par)= 377.86 ResSE_exp= 0.0085 Soil-zero dist= 3



For one catchment: different celerities gives different temporal scales to the unit hydrographs, but the shape remains the same and unique to that catchment



How is a linear reservoir perceived?



Linear reservoirs and distance distributions

- The constancy (κ) of the ratio between consecutive areas (distance distribution) also holds for consecutive runoff volumes (travel time distribution) because of its exponential shape.
- The constancy is also feature of the (super famous) linear reservoir
- Hence, a linear reservoir with runoff coefficient φ ;

$Q(t) = \varphi S(t)$, where $S(t)$ is the reservoir (storage) can also be expressed as

$Q(t) = (1 - \kappa)S(t)$ where κ can be expressed in terms of the parameter of the exponential travel time distribution

$$\xi = -\log(\kappa)/\Delta t$$

- **The linear reservoir model is a result of exponential distance distributions**

27