

Hierarchical Temporal Scale Data-driven Reservoir Operation Modeling

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Key Points:

- A hierarchical temporal scale framework is developed for data-driven reservoir operation modeling and tested across CONUS.
- The hierarchical temporal scale framework better captures reservoir release decisions under different operation targets and interactions of decisions across time scales than a single-scale model.
- The effects of decision variables on reservoir operations changes across time scales.

14 **Abstract**

15 Reservoirs are the key hydraulic infrastructure that regulates natural streamflow
16 variability to fulfill various operation targets, including flood control, water supply,
17 hydroelectricity generation and sustaining environmental flow. As an important anthropogenic
18 interference on the hydrologic cycle, reservoir operation behavior remains challenging to be
19 properly represented in hydrologic models, thus limiting the capability of predicting streamflow
20 under the interactions between hydrologic variability and operational preferences. Data-driven
21 models that utilize machine learning techniques provide a promising approach to represent
22 reservoir operation rules by capturing relationships embedded in historical records. Similar to
23 hydrologic processes vary across temporal scales, reservoir operation behaviors manifest
24 themselves at different timescales, prioritizing different operation targets to mitigate streamflow
25 variability at a given time scale. To capture the interaction of reservoir operation across time
26 scales, we proposed a hierarchical temporal scale framework to investigate the behaviors of over
27 300 major reservoirs across the Contiguous United States with a wide range of streamflow
28 conditions. Machine learning models were constructed to simulate reservoir operation at
29 monthly, weekly, and daily scales, where decisions at short-term scales interact with long-term
30 decisions. We found that the hierarchical temporal scale configuration better captures reservoir
31 releases than models constructed at a single time scale, especially for reservoirs with multiple
32 operation targets. Model-based sensitivity analysis shows that for more than one third of the
33 studied reservoirs, the release schemes, as a function of decision variables, vary at different time
34 scales, suggesting that operators are commonly faced with complicated trade-offs to serve
35 multiple designed purposes. The proposed hierarchical temporal scale approach is flexible to
36 incorporate various data-driven models and decision variables to derive reservoir operation rule,
37 providing a robust framework to understand the feedbacks between natural streamflow
38 variability and human interferences across time scales.

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Anthropogenic activities, such as reservoir operation (Haddeland et al., 2006; Döll et al.,
41 2009; Biemans et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2021; Singh and Basu, 2022; Zeng and Ren, 2022),
42 urbanization (Oudin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020) and large-scale irrigation (Siebert et al., 2010;
43 Ferguson et al., 2011; Condon et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2022), have become increasingly
44 important or even dominant driving forces of hydrologic processes in many watersheds over the
45 world. In these watersheds, the streamflow observed at gauging stations represents the
46 interaction between hydrologic and anthropogenic driving forces, rather than the “natural” or
47 “unregulated” flows simulated in hydrologic models (Clark et al., 2015; Blair and Buytaert,
48 2016). Reservoirs are one of the key water infrastructures that directly regulate the streamflow
49 timing and variability to fulfill various purposes including flood control, water supply,
50 hydroelectricity generation, navigation and fluvial ecosystem services (Simonovic et al., 1992;
51 Lehner et al., 2011; Ehsani et al., 2017; Moran et al., 2018; Boulange et al., 2021; Forsberg et al.,
52 2017; Ortiz-Partida, Lane, and Sandoval-Solis, 2016; Patterson and Doyle, 2018). In the US, the
53 National Inventory of Dams reports that there are more than 90,000 reservoirs (defined as equal
54 or exceed 25 feet in height and exceed 15 acre-feet in storage, or exceed 6 feet in height and
55 equal or exceed 50 acre-feet storage) regulating the streamflow (DeNeale et al., 2019). These
56 reservoirs altogether store freshwater resources equivalent to one year’s average natural runoff
57 (Graf, 1999), generates about 6.3% of total electricity and 31.3% of renewable energy production
58 (EIA, 2022), and protect hundreds of millions of populations from flooding. Meanwhile, the

59 current reservoir operation policies are challenged by shifting flow conditions under climate
60 change (Boulangé et al., 2021), elevated risks due to aging infrastructure (Lane, 2007),
61 increasing demand for water supply reliability, and needs for aquatic habitat restoration (Tonkin
62 et al., 2018; Palmer et al., 2019). Understanding how reservoirs are operated and their
63 interaction with hydrologic cycle is vitally important for assessing reliability and risks of
64 reservoir functioning (Brekke et al., 2009), designing adaptation strategies for future climate (Ho
65 et al., 2017), and mitigating the tradeoffs among conflicting operation targets (Suen et al., 2006;
66 Chen et al., 2017; Giuliani et al., 2021) to achieve sustainable water resources management.

67 Reservoirs are decision hubs that integrate the complex feedbacks between hydrologic
68 variability and operational targets under various constraints, such as reservoir inflow, water
69 storage capacity, hydroelectricity generation requirement and competitions among different
70 operation purposes. Challenges remain for modelling the reservoir release decisions, which
71 often involve on complex and undocumented decision processes. Often, reservoir operation
72 guidelines are based on predefined rule curves (Klipsch et al., 2007; Yates et al., 2005), which
73 determine release decision based on water availability, which in turn, depends on inflow and
74 storage (Chen et al., 2022). However, many reservoirs are actively managed, where the flow
75 releases are determined by reservoir managers to account for the complex tradeoffs among
76 different operation targets. This complicated decision-making process often cannot be described
77 with simple operation rules. In addition, observations on reservoir operation (e.g., reservoir
78 water level and release) are very limited due the complex ownership and regulations.

79 As a result, reservoirs, as coupled natural-human systems (Liu et al., 2007), are not
80 adequately represented in current hydrologic or hydraulic models. Compared to natural
81 hydrologic processes that can be expressed by physical relationships, it remains unclear how
82 reservoirs are operated to regulate streamflow, as observations on reservoir operation (e.g.,
83 reservoir water level and release) are very limited due the complex ownership and regulations.
84 For example, the National Water Model is able to predict streamflow for over two million
85 reaches in US, while a limited number of reservoirs are simulated by a simple level pool routing
86 scheme (Gochis et al., 2018; Khazaei et al., 2021) where reservoir releases are passively
87 determined by reservoir water level and spillway characteristics based on hydraulic laws (e.g.,
88 weir flow equations). However, for the actively managed reservoirs, which are a key
89 infrastructure that involves various stakeholders and has significant impact on downstream flow,
90 the releases are regulated by gates and determined by reservoir managers depending on various
91 real-world constraints and tradeoffs.

92 Traditionally, studies have used optimization to derive reservoir operation rules.
93 Specifically, optimal releases are determined to achieve predefined operation objective(s) (e.g.,
94 minimize flood risk, maximize water supply reliability, increase hydroelectricity generation)
95 under various constraints (e.g., reservoir storage capacity and allowable downstream release).
96 However, actual reservoir release usually deviates from the optimized prescription due to several
97 limitations. First, the theoretical optimal reservoir releases are obtained under a small set of
98 predefined objectives and constraints, which often do not capture the full spectrum of real-world
99 operation conditions (Giuliani et al., 2021). Second, reservoir characteristics (storage capacity vs
100 water level relationship) or streamflow regime may be different from the conditions when
101 optimal operation rule was derived. Third, optimization models assume that perfect streamflow
102 predictions or a known streamflow prediction uncertainty, but it is not necessarily the case that
103 streamflow prediction is available for operational purposes and whether reservoir managers

104 utilize the streamflow prediction during the decision-making processes (Zhao et al., 2011).
105 Therefore, with these deviations from assumptions, optimization model-derived reservoir
106 operation rules may provide valuable normative solutions for the large-scale hydrologic and
107 water resource model, but often fail to yield satisfactory results for predicting streamflow
108 downstream of reservoirs.

109 Data-driven models (DDMs) offer a promising alternative to derive reservoir operation
110 rules from historical records of hydrologic and reservoir data (Lin et al., 2006; Wei and Hsu,
111 2008; Hipni et al., 2013; Aboutalebi et al, 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Zhang et al. 2018; Zhao and
112 Cai, 2020; Turner et al., 2020a, b; Chen et al. 2022). The rationale is straightforward: if a
113 manager determines the reservoir releases based on some principles (either empirical or optimal)
114 depending on hydroclimatic variation, data-driven techniques can recover the patterns of
115 operation from the reservoir records and other hydroclimatic variables. In addition, compared to
116 optimization models DDMs are computationally efficient and readily coupled with hydrologic
117 and hydraulic models. Recent studies (Mateo et al. 2014; Coerver, Rutten, and Van De Giesen,
118 2018; Yassin et al. 2019) have demonstrated the capability of various machine learning
119 techniques in capturing reservoirs release decision.

120 In this study, we hypothesize that reservoirs operation patterns vary across time scales,
121 thus requiring a hierarchical temporal scale configuration of DDMs. First, reservoirs usually
122 have multiple operation purposes that require decisions made at different time scales. For
123 example, daily or hourly release decisions are made for hydroelectricity generation based on the
124 demand from power grids, while the reservoir storage for agricultural water supply exhibits
125 slow-varying seasonal pattern. Even for reservoirs with one primary operation purpose,
126 hydroclimatic variabilities at different time scales may lead to different operation decisions. A
127 reservoir designed for flood control may be actively operated only during wet seasons to mitigate
128 floods, and the storage may remain relatively stable during dry seasons. Second, release
129 decisions for different operational purposes are made based on different information that changes
130 with time scales. For example, flood control decisions may depend on current reservoir water
131 level and streamflow forecast with leading time up to several days, while water supply reservoirs
132 may ignore the short-term streamflow variability and focus on hydrologic seasonal dynamics
133 such as snowpack. Third, operation decisions made at different scales interact with each other.
134 The flood control hourly operations during a high flow event may be constrained water level set
135 by seasonal water supply targets; flood control operations, in return, determine initial water level
136 for water supply release for next decision period. Based on these observations, capturing the
137 reservoir operation decisions across time scales is essential to accurately represent the
138 anthropogenic regulation on streamflow variability.

139 However, current reservoir operations derived from DDMs are typically based on a single
140 time scale. Zhang et al., (2018) assessed the performances of various DDMs with different time
141 resolution (e.g., hourly, daily, and monthly) for Gezhouba Dam, while neglecting the interactions
142 of decision-making processes across time scales. Yang et al. (2021) provided a comprehensive
143 comparison of different DDMs to simulate the daily reservoir outflow over the Upper Colorado
144 Region using the daily inflow, storage, and calendar time as model inputs, which do not include
145 decision variables at monthly scales. Turner et al., (2020b) built a daily scale DDM for
146 reservoirs in the Columbia River basins with seasonally varying relations that specify water
147 release as a function of prevailing storage levels and forecasted future inflow. However, this
148 approach is based on pre-assumed linear piecewise relations to represent the seasonality, which

149 still needs to be specified based on modeler's assumption. A more flexible generic framework is
150 needed to capture the tradeoffs among multiple reservoir operation targets and interactions
151 between hydroclimatic conditions and anthropogenic decisions using information across time
152 scales.

153 To fill this gap, this study develops a hierarchical temporal scale framework to model
154 reservoir operation decisions across various time scales. The framework has the flexibility to (1)
155 use time scale-specific inputs for DDMs to learn reservoir operation behaviors pertinent to each
156 time scale, and (2) enable decisions at different time scales to interact with each other. We
157 demonstrate the framework with a two-layer configuration, at monthly/weekly and daily scales,
158 respectively. The framework is validated using the daily operational records of 327 major
159 reservoirs in the United States regulated by the United States Army Corps of Engineers
160 (USACE) and the United States Bureau of Reclamation (USBR). These reservoirs cover a wide
161 spectrum of hydroclimatic conditions, reservoir characteristics and operation purposes, therefore
162 can examine the robustness of the proposed hierarchical temporal scale framework. The
163 monthly- or weekly-scale data-driven model learns reservoir decisions not affected by short-term
164 variability and provides constraints for the daily scale model which captures the event-scale
165 operation rule that deviates from the monthly/weekly average. This framework is flexible to
166 incorporate additional temporal layers (such as at hourly or seasonal scales). We further evaluate
167 which variables are dominant for reservoir operations across various time scales and investigate
168 the tradeoff between training variables and modeling temporal resolution in representing
169 reservoir decisions.

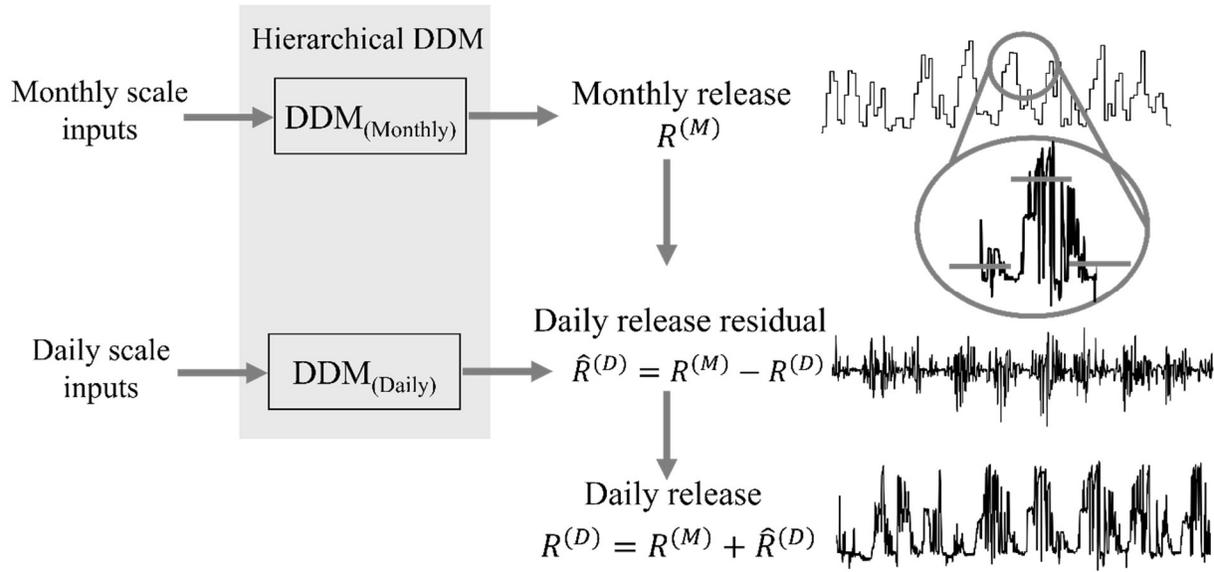
170 **2 Methods**

171 2.1 Hierarchical temporal scale configuration of DDMs

172 The hierarchical temporal scale framework (shown in Figure 1) consists of multiple
173 layers, where each layer has a DDM to learn the reservoir operation rules at the corresponding
174 time scale (e.g., monthly, weekly, and daily). The configuration starts from the upper layer
175 corresponding to a coarse time scale (i.e., monthly/weekly in this study) to capture the reservoir
176 operation behaviors under slow-varying targets (e.g., storing water for growing season irrigation
177 supply). Historical hydroclimate and reservoir records are aggregated to monthly/weekly time
178 series to train a DDM. The lower layer refines the model to a fine time scale (i.e., daily scale in
179 this study), and a second DDM is trained to simulate the "residual", defined as the difference
180 between the fine scale release and release simulated by the coarse time scale DDM. The residual
181 characterizes short-term deviations from release determined under long-term operation targets
182 and may be caused by gaps between planned and actual situations and complicated tradeoffs
183 between various purposes served in different periods.

184 The hierarchical configuration of the framework is flexible to add layers as needed to
185 represent operation decisions at coarser (e.g., seasonal) or finer time scales (e.g., flood control
186 release or hydroelectricity generation under power grid demand) if reservoir operation record is
187 available. In addition, the hierarchical framework allows models at each time scale to take
188 different training variables since difference operations decisions may depend on different
189 information. For example, the operation for irrigation water supply may mainly depend on the
190 crop water demand during the growing season, while operation for flood control may depend on
191 current reservoir water level and upstream flow predictions for the next a few days. By learning

192 the residuals between water release at fine time scale and the coarse time scale average, the
 193 DDM can capture the interactions of operation rule at different time scale and represent the
 194 tradeoffs between various operation targets. For example, the release for flood control may be
 195 depended on current reservoir water level, which is affected by storage target for water supply
 196 determined one month ago. The reservoir water level after flood control release may further
 197 affect water supply decision in future time steps. Therefore, the residual between two layers
 198 (i.e., two time scales) represents the tradeoffs between various operation targets.
 199



200
 201 **Figure 1.** The hierarchical temporal scale framework with two layers shown for illustration. The
 202 top layer uses a monthly DDM to simulate monthly averaged release ($R^{(M)}$), and the subsequent
 203 bottom layer uses a daily DDM to simulate residual $\hat{R}^{(D)}$, or the difference between daily
 204 $R^{(D)}$ and monthly averaged $R^{(M)}$ releases.

205 2.2 Hydroclimatic and Reservoir Data

206 We apply the proposed framework to 248 reservoirs operated by the United States Army
 207 Corps of Engineers (USACE) and 79 reservoirs operated by the United States Bureau of
 208 Reclamation (USBR) across the Contiguous United States (CONUS). These reservoirs are
 209 generally actively managed reservoirs with multiple designed purposes. The standardized
 210 database for historical daily reservoir levels and operations of USACE reservoirs is developed by
 211 (Patterson and Doyle, 2018), while that of USBR reservoirs is accessed via Reclamation
 212 Information Sharing Environment (RISE). These observed records include daily reservoir water
 213 elevation (feet, ft), storage volume (acre-feet, af), inflow (cubic feet per second, cfs) and release
 214 (cubic feet per second, cfs) for each reservoir, with different record lengths and intermittent gaps
 215 in the middle of the record due to data collection issues. All reservoirs with continuous records
 216 are included in this study. For some reservoirs with missing data during only a short period of
 217 time (less than five days), the nearest neighbor interpolation method is applied to fill in these
 218 gaps to obtain a continuous record. Overall, the continuous records have the average length of
 219 30 years.

220 The reservoir release data is used as target (response variable) to train and test the DDMs,
221 and water storage volume, reservoir inflow records are used as inputs of the DDMs, along with
222 hydroclimatic data. Specifically, the daily-scale meteorological forcing, including total
223 precipitation rate (P , mm/day) and potential evapotranspiration (PET , mm/day) are obtained
224 from the North American Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS-2) forcing (Xia et al. 2012).
225 The hydroclimatic data are aggregated over the catchment area upstream of the reservoir to
226 encapsulate the local weather information relevant for reservoir operation. Specifically, the PET
227 represents atmospheric demand for reservoir evaporative loss, which is substantial for reservoirs
228 in the arid and semi-arid regions (Friedrich et al., 2018). The P may reflect the local runoff
229 contribution to reservoir, while the reservoir inflow represents the runoff from the larger
230 upstream contributing area. The difference between P and PET captures the crop irrigation
231 water demand (Le Page et al., 2020), which may provide important information for reservoirs
232 with irrigation water supply purpose. Depending on the specifics of a given reservoir, other
233 information (e.g., hydroelectricity generation) can also be fed into DDMs as inputs.

234 2.3 Experimental Setup

235 Three groups of experiments are carried out to assess the performances of data-driven
236 reservoir operation models with (1) under different time scale configurations and (2) different
237 combinations of input variables (Table 1). The experimental setup is summarized in Table 1.
238 The first group of experiments simulate reservoir release solely on a single daily scale (i.e., daily
239 inputs are employed to model the daily release). This strategy is commonly implemented in
240 existing machine-learning based reservoir models. The other two groups of experiments adopt a
241 two-level hierarchical time scale framework. The second group of experiments receives weekly-
242 average input variables in the first layer to generate weekly average release, and then use daily
243 inputs to model the residual (difference between daily release and weekly average) in the second
244 layer, herein referred to as “Weekly-Daily (WD)”. Similarly, the third group of experiments
245 simulate monthly scale reservoir release in the first layer and refines reservoir release on daily
246 scale in the second layer, referred to as “Monthly-Daily (MD)”. On the daily scale, we use the 7
247 days in the past and 7 days in the future of input variables to determine release on a given day.
248 For the WD and MD models, the coarse-resolution input variables of the past 8 steps (weeks or
249 months) and the future 4 steps are used to derive the release at the current time step, and the daily
250 scale residuals are simulated with daily input variables of the past 7 days and the future 7 days.
251 It has been proven that inflow forecasts could strongly influence the seasonal reservoir
252 operations particularly for the high-elevation reservoirs fed by snowmelt in the western United
253 States (Turner et al., 2020a). In this study, similar to Turner et al., (2020a), the observed records
254 in the future time steps (i.e., perfect foresight) are used as a proxy for forecasted information are
255 deployed to explore whether operators consider the streamflow forecasts during the decision-
256 making processes, since it is difficult to acquire the actual forecasts available to operators at
257 CONUS scale.

258 To explore the importance of each input variable for predicting reservoir operation at
259 various time scales, the three experiment groups is further developed into six experiments with
260 various combinations of input variables (Table 1). In Experiment 1, daily observed reservoir
261 inflow (I), water storage (S), P and PET are all utilized to derive the release scheme. While other
262 gain and loss terms in reservoir water budget (e.g., water diversion, seepage and evaporative
263 loss) are unavailable for most reservoirs, the training variables may contain information related

264 to these factors. For example, reservoir evaporative loss is related to *PET* and reservoir storage,
 265 which in turn correlates with water surface area. In Experiment 2, left out from the inputs to
 266 examine the importance of storage for estimating release. Similarly, in Experiment 3, reservoir
 267 inflow is not utilized. Meteorological information is hidden in Experiment 4, based on the
 268 assumption that the meteorological forcing may have no great impact on the reservoir release
 269 given storage and inflow. Experiment 5 derives the release scheme only from the observed
 270 inflow records. Experiment 6 explores whether the actual storage alone is able to capture
 271 reservoir release decisions. It is noted that based on the specified subset of inputs, DDMs will
 272 further infer the importance of these variables on predicting reservoir releases via the training
 273 process. Results of these experiments will be used to guide further sensitivity analysis based on
 274 models.

275

276 **Table 1.** Experiments using DDMs with different time scale configurations and subsets of input
 277 variables, including inflow (*I*), storage (*S*), precipitation (*P*) and potential evaporation (*PET*).
 278

Time Scale	Experiment	Training variables
Daily (D)	D-1	<i>I, S, P, PET</i>
	D-2	<i>I, P, PET</i>
	D-3	<i>S, P, PET</i>
	D-4	<i>I, S</i>
	D-5	<i>I</i>
	D-6	<i>S</i>
Weekly-Daily (WD)	WD-1	<i>I, S, P, PET</i>
	WD-2	<i>I, P, PET</i>
	WD-3	<i>S, P, PET</i>
	WD-4	<i>I, S</i>
	WD-5	<i>I</i>
	WD-6	<i>S</i>
Monthly-Daily (MD)	MD-1	<i>I, S, P, PET</i>
	MD-2	<i>I, P, PET</i>
	MD-3	<i>S, P, PET</i>
	MD-4	<i>I, S</i>
	MD-5	<i>I</i>
	MD-6	<i>S</i>

279

280 In all the experiments, we use the Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM, Hochreiter and
 281 Schmidhuber, 1997), as the DDM in each layer. LSTM networks can learn temporal
 282 dependencies in both long and short terms and has a wide range of applications in hydrology and
 283 water resource management (Kratzert et al. 2018, 2019; Shen, 2018; Zhang et al. 2018; Feng et
 284 al., 2020; Sit et al., 2020; Xu and Liang, 2021; Yang et al. 2021). The configuration of the
 285 LSTM model in this study is summarized in Supplementary Material Text S1. For the single-
 286 layer models (D1, ..., D6), the LSTM model is trained by minimizing the mean square error of
 287 daily release. For hierarchical time scale models (WD, MD), the two LSTMs are trained together
 288 by minimizing the mean square errors of reservoir release at both time scales,

289

$$\min_{\theta} \sum (R - \hat{R})^2 + \sum (r - \hat{r})^2$$

290 where R and \hat{R} are the observed and simulated release at the monthly/weekly scales, r and \hat{r} are
 291 the observed and simulated release residuals at the daily scale, θ represents the neural network
 292 weights. The Adam optimizer (Kingma et al., 2020) is applied for training. The Nash-Sutcliffe
 293 Efficiency (NSE) (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) of daily reservoir release is used for assessing
 294 model performance in all experiments. To reduce random effects arising during training, we
 295 initialize and train the models for 5 times, each time using a different random seed, and calculate
 296 the average performance metrics across 5 trials. The number of training epochs, the optimal
 297 number of layers and number of hidden units are found through trial-and-error. 60% of time
 298 series data are used during the training process, 10% of them for validation, and the rest for
 299 testing. It is noted that the multi-layer configuration is flexible to use other machine learning
 300 algorithms.

301 **3 Results**

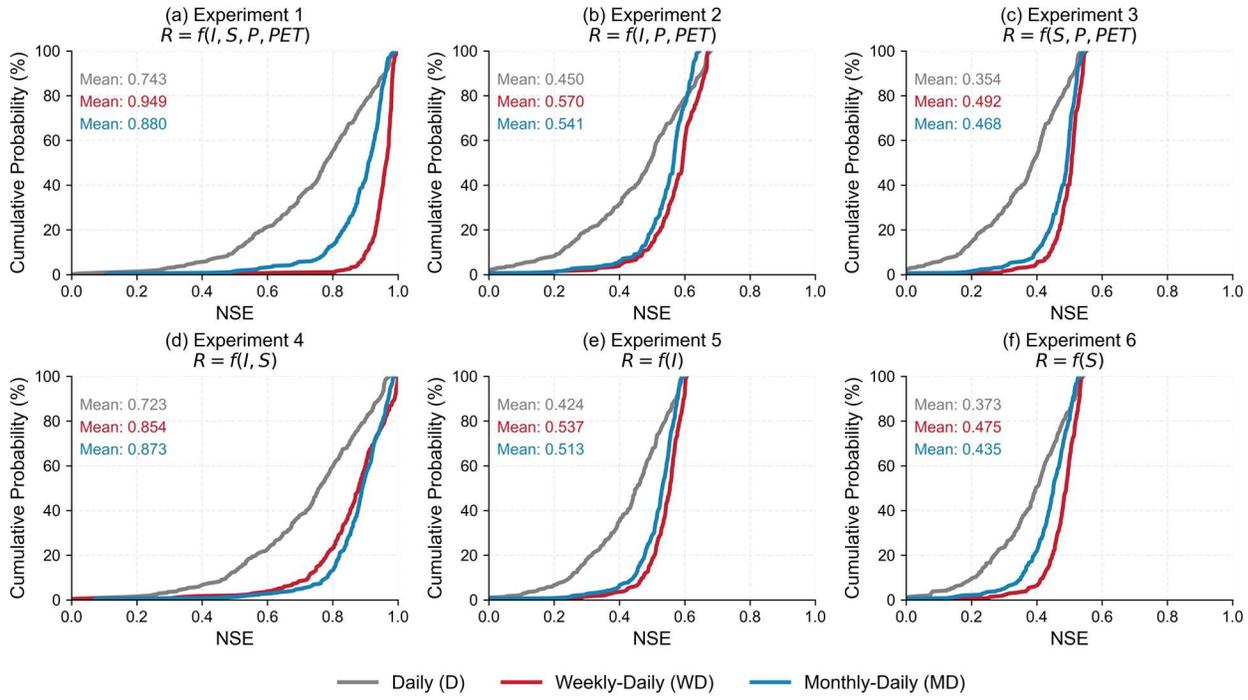
302 3.1 Performance of DDMs with various time scale configurations and input variable 303 combinations

304 Results from the three groups of experiments revealed noticeable differences in reservoir
 305 release simulation accuracy when the models use various time scale configuration and
 306 combinations of input variables (Figure 2). For experiments using the same training variables,
 307 the two-layer hierarchical model (WD and MD) consistently yields higher accuracy than the
 308 daily model (D), as shown by the probability of exceedance of NSE for all reservoirs (Figure 2).
 309 For example, in Experiment 1 with most comprehensive input dataset, the mean NSE for all
 310 reservoirs is 0.949, 0.880 and 0.743 for WD, MD and daily configuration, respectively. The WD
 311 configuration achieves NSE higher than 0.9 in more than 92% reservoirs, compared to 54% and
 312 18% for the MD and D configurations, respectively. In most experiments, the WD configuration
 313 yields slightly better performance than the MD configuration. For the same length of records,
 314 the weekly scale data is four times more than the monthly scale data, thus providing more
 315 training samples to the DDMs. In addition, the finer resolution of weekly scale may better
 316 capture the release decision than the coarse monthly scale.

317 For all time scale configurations, reservoir inflow and storage are two dominant variables
 318 for modelling release behavior in most reservoirs, as shown by the small performance gap
 319 between Experiments 1 and 4. With only reservoir inflow as input data in Experiment 5 (Figure
 320 2e), the average NSE reaches 0.452, 0.561 and 0.535 for daily, WD and MD temporal
 321 configuration, respectively. The inflow provides most predictive power in reservoirs with
 322 relatively small storage and/or navigation purpose. Although the inflow-only models in
 323 Experiment 5 does not explicitly consider reservoir states, the LSTM architecture is able to use
 324 the cell “memory” to store accumulated inflow as a proxy for reservoir storage trend and use this
 325 information to simulate reservoir releases. However, due to other reservoir water budget terms
 326 such as water diversion, seepage and evaporative loss, the accumulated inflow cannot fully
 327 replace reservoir storage. Therefore, it is not ideal for a DDM to simulate the state of reservoir
 328 system without storage as an important constraint, especially for reservoirs in the west
 329 mountainous regions usually designed for water supply and hydropower generation. Because
 330 reservoir storage is closely related to the operational purposes, and its seasonal variations

331 typically reflect the consequences of the human interventions on the natural system, storage
 332 volume (or water level) is strongly recommended as an independent variable input into the
 333 reservoir operation model.

334



335

336

Figure 2. Probability of exceedance of NSE for all reservoirs resulting from single and hierarchical time scale models with different decision variables (Table 1)

337

338

339 The DDMs with storage alone as input in Experiment 6 have slightly lower predictive
 340 power compared to inflow-only models in Experiment 5 (Figure 2f) and produce average NSE of
 341 0.373, 0.475 and 0.435 for Daily, WD and MD configuration, respectively. Using storage as the
 342 input captures operation of reservoirs with relatively large storage capacity and/or reservoir with
 343 water supply purpose where the release largely depends on the reservoir water level. In addition,
 344 reservoir storage serves as a proxy for reservoir water level and water surface area (both can be
 345 retrieved from the reservoir characteristic curve). The reservoir storage together with *PET* may
 346 implicitly contain information regarding reservoir evaporative loss, which is important in arid
 347 and semi-arid regions. Although storage-release rule curves are commonly used by reservoir
 348 operators (Yang et al. 2016), the seasonal patterns of reservoir operation and the interannual
 349 variability of inflow are missing in such curves. At monthly or seasonal scale, water control
 350 plans designed for specific purposes or hydroclimatic conditions that influence the upstream flow
 351 rate may exhibit low year to year variation within decades. At daily or sub-daily scale, however,
 352 reservoir inflow can vary a lot due to emergency events or weather fluctuations, especially for
 353 those reservoirs with complicated operational conflicts between multiple objectives or climate-
 354 sensitive reservoirs (such as reservoirs in the New England regions faced with potentially
 355 increasing flooding risks under the context of global warming). Although actual rule curves
 356 implemented by reservoir operators could provide substantial information to understand the
 357 decision-making process of water resource management, it does not adequately to represent the

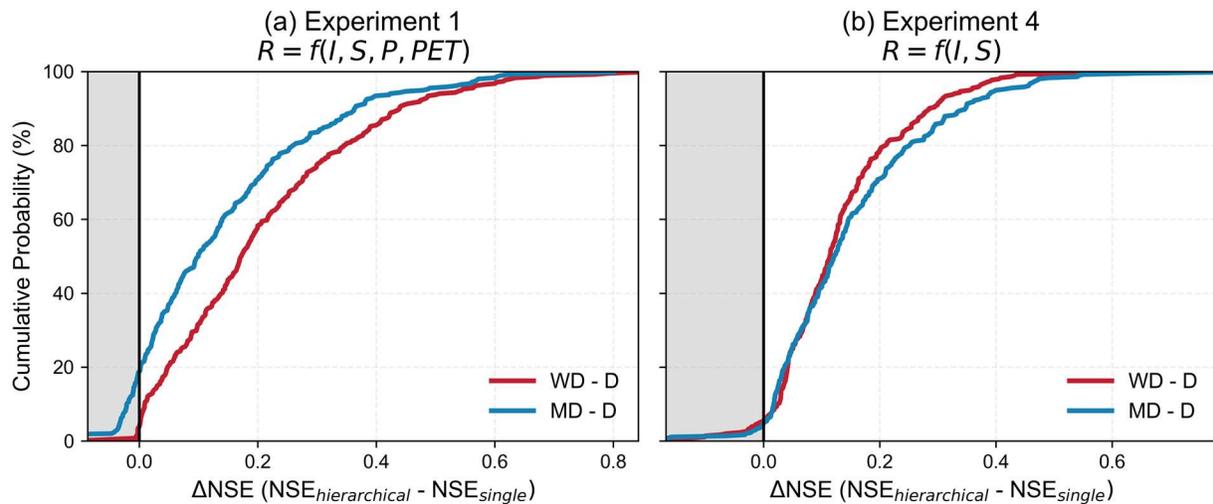
358 operation tradeoffs under various inflow conditions. Reservoir inflow should be considered as a
 359 paramount input while building data-driven operation models. Combining the inflow and
 360 storage in Experiment 4, the average NSE improves to 0.723, 0.854 and 0.873 for daily, WD and
 361 MD temporal configuration, respectively.

362 The performance improvement from including hydroclimatic variables (e.g., P and PET)
 363 is investigated by comparing accuracies of DDMs in Experiment 1 vs. 4, Experiment 2 vs. 5, and
 364 Experiment 3 vs. 6. For DDMs with only inflow (Experiment 2 vs. 5) or storage (Experiment 3
 365 vs. 6), the improvement from additional hydroclimatic forcing is negligible (mean NSEs increase
 366 less than 0.04). For daily scale DDMs in Experiments 2 and 3, the overall performance even
 367 slightly downgrades when adding P and PET . When both inflow and storage are used
 368 (Experiment 1 vs. 4), adding P and PET enhances mean NSE from 0.723 to 0.743, from 0.873 to
 369 0.880 and from 0.854 to 0.949 for daily, MD and WD configurations, respectively. It is noted
 370 that the NSE improvement is larger in the fine time scale WD configuration than the coarse time
 371 scale MD configuration, as the former can better represent the short-term variability in P and
 372 PET .

373 3.2 Effect of DDMs hierarchical temporal configuration on capturing reservoir operation 374 behavior

375 After feeding the DDMs with dominant explanatory variables (e.g., inflow and storage), a
 376 better organization (i.e., hierarchical temporal configuration) of the explanatory variables further
 377 enhances the performance. For example, in Experiment 4, re-arranging the training data in
 378 hierarchical configuration (WD and MD) improves the NSE by more than 20% compared to the
 379 single daily scale configuration, although the DDMs in this experiment contain the same amount
 380 of information. This highlights the benefits of incorporating the multi-temporal scale of
 381 reservoir behaviors into the configuration of DDM to capture the reservoir operation under
 382 various targets.

383



384

385 **Figure 3.** Improvement of NSE by hierarchical time scale framework ($NSE_{\text{hierarchical}} -$
 386 NSE_{single}). $NSE_{\text{hierarchical}}$ represents the performances of hierarchical time scale models (WD,
 387 MD), while the NSE_{single} is the performance of a single time scale model (D). The difference

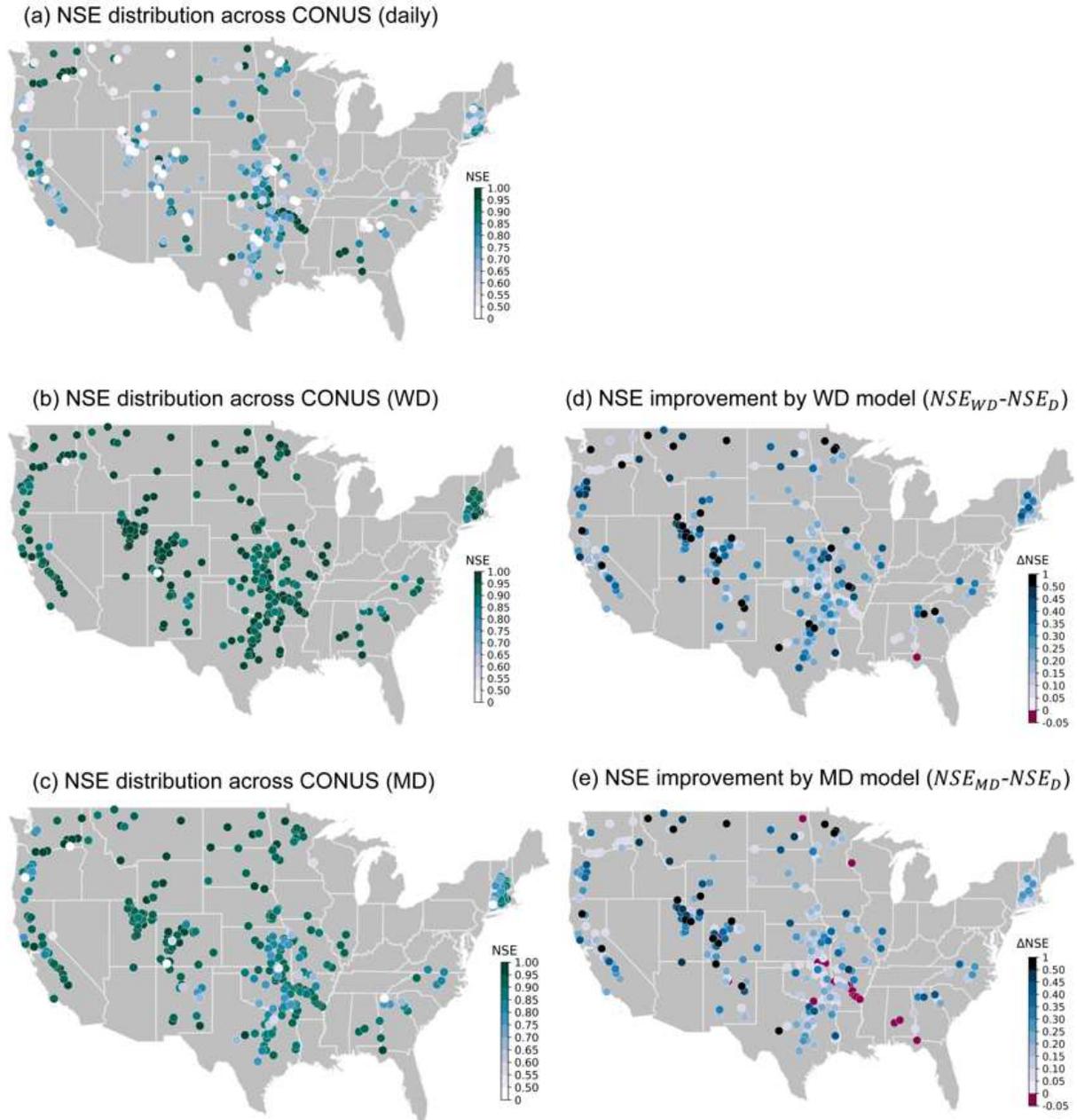
388 between Experiments 1 and 4 is, hydroclimatic forcing is employed in the former but is not in the
389 latter.
390

391 Figure 3 further illustrates the improvement of the hierarchical framework for reservoir
392 operation modeling and the nuances of such improvement with/without hydroclimatic
393 information at different time scales. Most hierarchical temporal scale models under the same
394 experiment settings perform better than the models constructed on the single time scale.
395 Specifically, in Experiment 1 (Figure 3a) with the reservoir inflow, storage, P and PET as model
396 inputs, performances of about 80% of reservoirs have been improved by hierarchical framework
397 (MD), and it is more prominent for WD where the first layer simulates the reservoir release on
398 the week scale. For 50% of reservoirs, MD with hydroclimatic forcing improves the NSEs by
399 more than 0.1, and WD does by increasing more than 0.2 in model performances. In Experiment
400 4 (Figure 3b) without containing hydroclimatic forcing as model inputs, over 90% of the
401 reservoir operation model gains a higher accuracy from the hierarchical architecture compared to
402 the single daily scale model. In addition, there is negligible performance gain differences
403 between hierarchical temporal configurations (e.g., WD and MD) if hydroclimatic forcing is not
404 included (Figure 3b). While in Figure 3a with additional hydroclimatic forcing, the WD
405 consistently improve NSEs by 0.1 for most reservoirs than the MD configuration. It indicates
406 that hydroclimatic forcing (which shows significant short-term variability) contribute to the
407 prediction for models with relatively fine temporal resolution (such as weekly).

408 3.3 Spatial pattern of DDM reservoir operation under various temporal configurations

409 Figure 4a, b and c show the spatial distribution of NSE for Daily, WD and MD
410 configuration, respectively. The Daily scale model performance well (NSE higher than 0.95) for
411 reservoirs along the Arkansas River (with navigation as primary purpose) and Columbia River
412 (with hydroelectricity as primary purpose). These reservoirs are operated with single target
413 based in the inflow (Figure 4a), which can be captured by a single daily scale model. Additional
414 coarser weekly or monthly scale layer does not improvement the DDM performance (Figure 4d
415 and e). The operation behavior in reservoirs in the Rocky Mountains cannot be captured by the
416 Daily scale DDM, since these reservoirs are primarily operated for water supply and have slow-
417 varying water storage. For other reservoirs, the Daily scale DDM produces NSE less than 0.7.

418 The MD scale DDM improves NSE over Daily scale in most reservoirs as shown in
419 Figure 4e. The improvement is achieved as monthly scale release decision depends on different
420 variables than the daily scale decision (Figure 4d). Reservoirs in the Rocky Mountains and
421 California have the largest improvement, highlighting the signature of seasonal cycle of water
422 supply operation in these reservoirs. Reservoirs on the High Plains (e.g., Texas, Oklahoma,
423 Kansas) and in the Northeast do not have significant improvement with additional monthly layer.
424 These reservoirs generally have both water supply and flood control purpose at the same time,
425 suggesting that the monthly scale is too coarse to capture the tradeoff between flood control and
426 water supply. For navigation reservoirs well represented by Daily scale DDM along the
427 Arkansas River, adding a monthly scale (i.e., the MD model) even deteriorates the performance,
428 as indicated by the negative NSE gain. This highlights the importance of identifying the
429 appropriate modeling resolution to match the time scale at which reservoir release decisions are
430 made.



431
 432 **Figure 4.** Spatial distribution of NSE of DDMs in Experiment 1 for a) Daily b) WD and c) MD
 433 configurations, and NSE improvement from Daily scale to d) WD and e) MD configuration.
 434

435 In addition to similar improvement gained by MD scale DDM, the finer resolution WD
 436 scale configuration further improve the NSE for reservoirs on the High Plains (e.g., Texas,
 437 Oklahoma, Kansas) and in the Northeast (Figure 4d). The residual between daily release and
 438 weekly average release in the WD configuration is able to capture the coincided tradeoffs
 439 between water supply and flood control preferences.

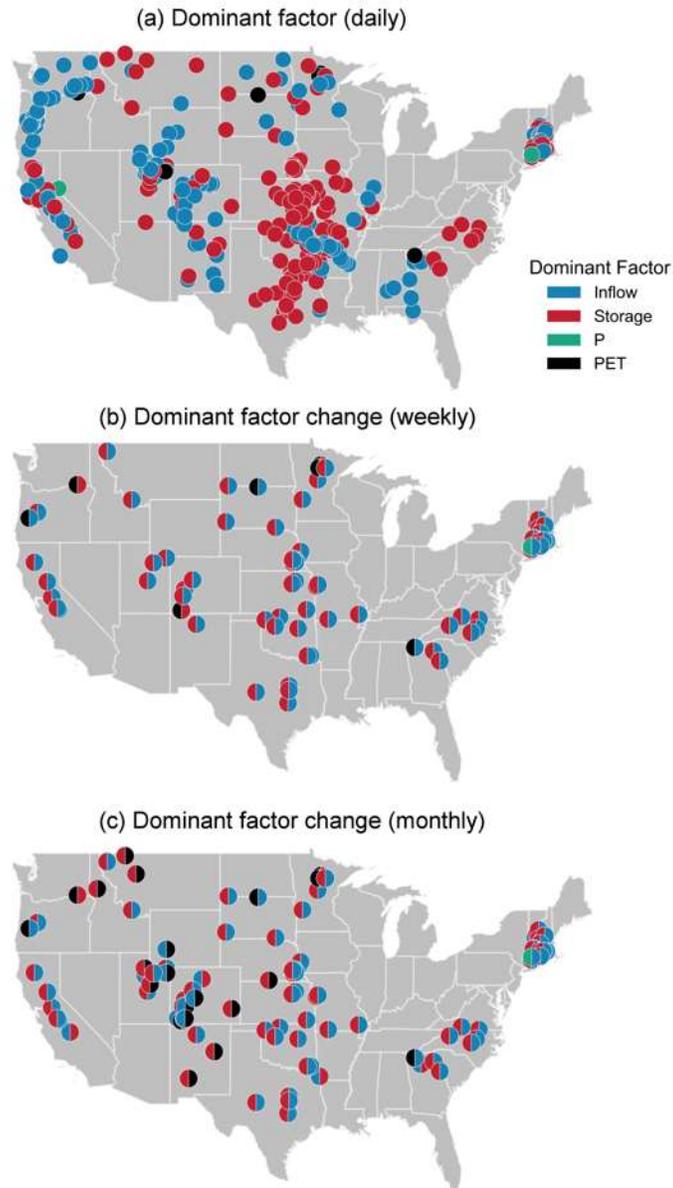
460 **Figure 5.** Dominant variable for reservoir operation at different time scales. The bar plot on the
 461 lower right corner shows the number of reservoirs with major reliance of reservoir release on the
 462 inflow, storage, P and PET across monthly, weekly and daily scales.
 463

464 Figure 5 displays the most important variable for each reservoir across CONUS on the
 465 different time scales (daily, weekly and monthly). For most reservoirs (221 out of 327), the
 466 same variable has critical influences on the release on all time scales, likely implying the
 467 consistency of their operating strategies and trade-offs on various time scales, and there may be a
 468 primary purpose that dominates the operation process throughout the year. For 129 of these
 469 reservoirs, inflow play a decisive role in reservoir release at all time scales, while storage volume
 470 is the most instructive variable for 89 of these. It is worth mentioning that for two reservoirs
 471 located in Utah, the Huntington North Reservoir and the Steinaker Reservoir, PET has a major
 472 effect on reservoir release at the daily, weekly, and monthly scales, which could involve
 473 considerable reservoir evaporation and water use for agricultural irrigation in the arid, semi-arid
 474 western mountains. Only three reservoirs have P as the most predictive variable. These
 475 reservoirs are in headwater watershed with small contributing area. Therefore, the P is a good
 476 proxy for reservoir inflow. These results of model-based sensitivity analysis further validate the
 477 findings given by the comparison of Experiments 1 and 4. That is, reservoir inflow or storage
 478 volume has a paramount influence on the release decision rather than hydroclimatic forcing.
 479 Only for very few reservoirs, hydroclimatic forcing directly dominates the reservoir release.

480 It is interesting to notice that more than one third of (106 out of 327) reservoirs vary in
 481 their dependency on decision variables at different time scales, suggesting that reservoir
 482 operators consider different information at different time scales to fulfill multiple designed
 483 purposes. At the monthly scale, operations of 208 reservoirs primarily depend on the reservoir
 484 inflow, and 98 reservoirs rely more on storage volume. At the daily scale, the number of
 485 reservoirs with major dependency on inflow decreases to 143 and that of reservoirs relying more
 486 on storage volume increases to 172. From the coarse scale to the fine scale, more than 20%
 487 reservoirs (73 out of 327) shift their primary dependence from inflow to storage volume.

488 Figure 6 shows the spatial distribution of dominant factors across daily, weekly and
 489 monthly scale. Daily models with good performance (e.g., along the Arkansas River and
 490 Columbia River) generally identify inflow as the primary variable, as inflow exhibits high short-
 491 term variability and can effectively inform the daily release decision. The MD configuration
 492 captures the dependence of reservoirs (mostly located in the Rocky Mountains) monthly release
 493 decision on PET (Figure 4c), as reservoir are mainly operated for agricultural water supply.

494 The daily models identify storage as the primary variable in most reservoirs over the
 495 High Plains (Figure 4a) and capture the release's dependence on water level based on weir
 496 discharge equation. However, these reservoirs are also actively managed for flood control
 497 purpose, which is dependent on inflow condition. The failure to capture the flood control
 498 operation in the Daily model is corrected in the hierarchical temporal scale WD and MD, where
 499 some reservoirs' decision dependence changes from storage to inflow (Figure 4b, c).



500 **Figure 6.** Spatial distribution of dominant factors across a) daily, b) weekly and c) monthly
 501 scale. The left half circle in b) and c) displays the major factor at the daily scale while the right
 502 half shows that at weekly or monthly scale, different from the daily dominated decision variable.
 503

504 4 Discussion

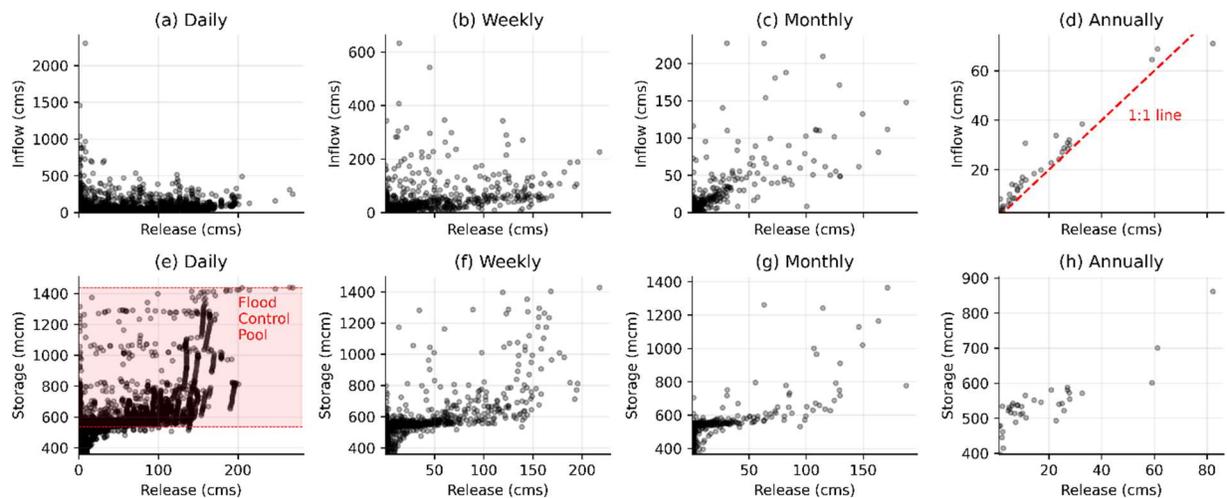
505 4.1 Reservoir release behaviors across time scales

506 Compare to attempts to capture reservoir operation at a fixed time scale, the hierarchical
 507 temporal configuration in this study achieves better performance with the same input
 508 information. In addition, the sensitivity analysis suggests that operation in many reservoirs
 509 depends on different information at different time scales. In the following paragraphs, we picked
 510 the multi-purpose Belton Lake reservoir to elaborate how various operation targets manifest their
 511 signatures at different time scales, thus requiring hierarchical temporal configuration to fully

512 capture the tradeoffs among multiple operation targets. The results of other reservoirs can be
 513 found at uploaded data.

514 The Belton Lake (TX00002) is located on Leon River in Texas with 536.8 million cubic
 515 meter (or 435,500 acre-feet) conservation capacity (Texas Water Development Board, 2015) and
 516 the maximum storage volume of around 1440 million cubic meters. The 192-foot high dam
 517 maintains the water level at elevation between the conservation pool elevation of 594 feet and
 518 the crest elevation of 631 feet, with flood control, water supply and irrigation as listed operation
 519 targets under the management of U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. The annual mean inflow
 520 volume is 641.5 million cubic meters. The Belton Lake provides an example with large storage
 521 capacity in humid subtropical climate. The DDM in Experiment 1 (with the most comprehensive
 522 training dataset) has NSE of 0.843, 0.971, 0.945 for Daily, WD and MD configuration,
 523 respectively. The DDM identifies reservoir storage as dominant variable on release at Daily,
 524 WD, and MD scales, respectively.

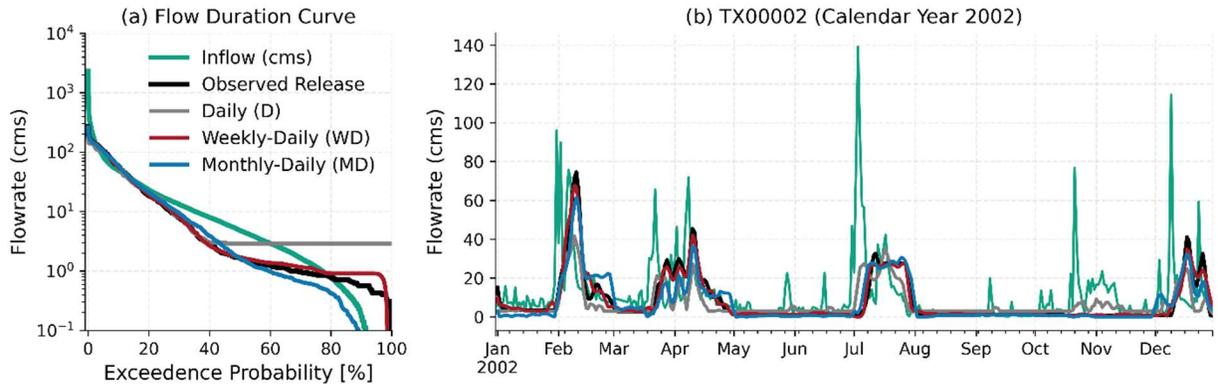
525 Figure 7 shows the scatter plots of release vs. inflow and storage vs. inflow at various
 526 time scales. At the annual time scale (Figure 7d), the outflow is highly correlated with inflow,
 527 suggesting the reservoir has seasonal flow regulating capacity. The slightly lower annual release
 528 than the inflow (Figure 7d) indicates water balance is roughly hold on annual time average. The
 529 randomness between monthly inflow and release (Figure 7c) shows a wide range during different
 530 seasons indicating the seasonal buffering capacity of the reservoir storage. The storage vs.
 531 release scatter plot shows reconcilable patterns starting from monthly scale. It is interesting to
 532 find several lines in the storage vs. release scatter plot at daily scale (Figure 7e), showing
 533 different number spillway gates are open during release events.
 534



535
 536 **Figure 7.** Relationship between inflow and release at a) daily, b) weekly, c) monthly, d) annual
 537 scale and; relationship between reservoir storage and release at e) daily, f) weekly, g) monthly, h)
 538 annual scale of Belton Lake (TX00002).
 539

540 Figure 8a shows the flow duration curves of Belton Lake inflow and releases simulated
 541 by different DDM configurations. The Daily, WD and MD achieve similar predictability to
 542 capture the regulation during medium to high flow conditions (i.e., flow larger than 20%
 543 exceedance probability). The Daily scale DDM overestimates the low to medium flow range

544 (i.e., flow less than 40% exceedance probability), and the MD scale DDM slightly overestimates
 545 the medium flow (i.e., flow between 25% and 45% exceedance) and underestimates the low flow
 546 range (i.e., flow less than 60% exceedance probability). The WD scale DDM reproduces the
 547 flow duration curve for almost all flow conditions although not perfectly.
 548



549
 550 **Figure 8.** Inflow, observed release, release simulated by Daily (D), Weekly-Daily (WD) and
 551 Monthly-Daily (WD) models of Belton Lake (TX00002) shown in a) Flow Duration Curve
 552 (FDC) and b) hydrograph during the calendar year 2002.
 553

554 The hydrograph of Year 2002 in Figure 8b shows the seasonal pattern and short-term
 555 variation produced by different DDM configurations. The MD DDM trends to have lower
 556 discharge and maintain the release longer after each flood event, as the monthly resolution in the
 557 upper layer is too large to capture the fast response under flood control purpose. The Daily scale
 558 DDM, on the other hand, trends to have faster decay of release after flood events, since the daily
 559 scale model is sensitive to the daily input and lacks the long-term information. The WD scale
 560 configuration works best to capture both seasonal water supply and flood control release at the
 561 Belton Lake.

562 These observations highlight the importance of appropriately organizing training data at
 563 various time scales in order to let machine learning techniques capture the underlying
 564 relationships embedded at each time scale. We also used other machine learning techniques (e.g.,
 565 random forest, support vector machine) to configure the hierarchical DDM and achieved
 566 satisfying results, suggesting the predictability is not limited by the choice of specific machine
 567 learning model. From the perspective of effectively training the machine learning models,
 568 hierarchical temporal configuration not only yields better predictability, but also provides more
 569 meaningful interpretation of the DDM.

570 4.2. Hierarchical nature of anthropogenic decisions

571 DDMs are generally not constrained by the complexity of training dataset and can
 572 achieve better prediction with more training variables. However, the experiments of hierarchical
 573 configuration comparison in Session 3.1 suggests that there exists a tradeoff between the number
 574 of training variables and time scales. Figure 3b shows that finer time scale (i.e., WD)
 575 configuration does not necessarily performance better than coarser configuration (i.e., MD),
 576 when only reservoir inflow and storage are used to train the DDM. After additional
 577 hydroclimatic variables are included in the training dataset, finer time scale configuration (WD)

578 provides better predictability than the coarser configuration (i.e., MD) (Figure 3a). One possible
579 reason is that the hydroclimatic variables contain short-term temporal variability that is necessary
580 to improve the fine scale configuration. Furthermore, it indicates that reservoir operation
581 decisions under different operation targets are associated with different time scales and require
582 different information. Therefore, simply including more variables into the training datasets or
583 increasing the hierarchical layers does not guarantee better predictability. This observation
584 highlights the importance of providing appropriate information that matches the temporal
585 resolution to capture reservoir release behavior under various targets.

586 Although the scaling issue in hydrologic processes has been well recognized by
587 hydrologic community, there are few studies to investigate the scaling of decision making in
588 water resources management. In representing anthropogenic components (by either simulation
589 or optimization approach) in hydrologic models, the decision makings are generally based on one
590 single time scale. For example, farmers' irrigation decision depends on soil moisture condition.
591 The reservoir operation policy is optimized to balance the tradeoff between water supply benefits
592 and flood risk based on daily streamflow. The hierarchical temporal scale configuration of DDM
593 in this study explicitly shows that the single temporal scale model cannot fully capture the
594 reservoir release under various operation targets. Different operation targets are associated with
595 different temporal scale and require corresponding hydroclimatic information. For example, the
596 reservoirs in the Colorado River Basin uses the seasonal snowpack condition to forecast the
597 water supply (Xiao et al., 2018; Bureau of Reclamation, 2022), while the hydroelectric
598 generation is based on hourly demands from power grids.

599 Beside the dependence on cross-scale information, anthropogenic decisions also interact
600 at different scales. Short-term decisions (e.g., operation of water resources infrastructure) are
601 constrained by long-term decisions (e.g., planning of water resources infrastructure), and the
602 objectives of decisions at different scale may require tradeoff. For example, given the same
603 amount of agricultural water supply, farmers can tradeoff between crop type and irrigated area
604 (decisions made before growing season) and the actual irrigation intensity (decisions made
605 during growing season), which results in different water release amount and frequency. The
606 hierarchical temporal configuration of DDM in this study recognizes cross-scale interaction
607 feature and handles this feature by simulating the daily release deviation from the
608 weekly/monthly release. For traditional optimization formulation in water resources
609 management, we believe the hierarchical optimization (Yeo et al., 2007; Karsanina et al., 2018)
610 would be a promising configuration to represent interaction of decisions made across scales.

611 As hydrologic models and observations continue to improve and provide better
612 prediction, the ultimate question is how hydrologic prediction (and what types of prediction) can
613 be effectively utilized to improve the operation of reservoirs. Although we find very limited case
614 where hydrologic forecast is used in operation in the 300 reservoirs, there are efforts to explore
615 the reservoir operation using streamflow prediction (Delaney et al., 2020; Zarei et al., 2021).
616 Hydrologic predictions at different time scales are based on different processes (e.g., seasonal
617 projection based on snow water storage, short-term prediction based on weather forecast) and
618 subject to various level of uncertainty. However, it remains challenging to have a consistent
619 framework to integrate uncertainties from predictions across scales to inform decision makers on
620 the tradeoffs among various reservoir operation targets.

621 **5 Conclusions**

622 In this study, we proposed a hierarchical temporal scale framework to improve the data-
623 driven reservoir operation modeling. With observed inflow, storage, precipitation and potential
624 evapotranspiration as inputs, more than 80% of reservoirs across the CONUS gain the
625 improvement in model performances, while modeling of 90% of them can be more accurate by
626 this framework if there is no hydroclimatic forcing.

627 This hierarchical framework is not model specific and therefore has broad applicability.
628 By further adjusting the primary states simulated on the first coarse scale, which is partially
629 similar to the operating process of reservoir managers in response to the daily inflow
630 corresponding to the predefined water control plans, the hierarchical architecture is conducive to
631 improve both the performances and the interpretability of data-driven models, and can be further
632 adapted to be closely integrated with the decision-making of managers. It also demonstrates the
633 similarity of a natural-human system and hydrologic processes across temporal scales. In future
634 work, deep learning-based reservoir components can be embedded in physics-based models for
635 more accurate hydrological process simulation.

636 Results of different experiment settings reveal that reservoir inflow and storage volume
637 have a paramount influence on the release strategies. Model-based sensitivity analysis proves it,
638 and further illustrates that variable importance can vary in time periods and across multiple time
639 scales. For nearly 1/3 reservoirs across the CONUS, reservoir operations mainly depend on
640 different decision variables at different time scales, and for several reservoirs, such as some in
641 the Upper Colorado and Sacramento districts, hydroclimatic forcing still has major influence on
642 the release, addressing more demands on the assessment and planning of reservoir status and
643 accurate forecasting of hydroclimatic forcing.

644 **Availability Statement**

645 All data used in this research are publicly available. The meteorologic forcing (precipitation and
646 potential evapotranspiration) is available at <https://ldas.gsfc.nasa.gov/nldas/v2/forcing>. The
647 dataset of reservoir operations utilized in this study is available online
648 (<https://www.hydroshare.org/resource/79c262b627fc4ce293379b5e95457146/>).

649 **Acknowledgments**

650 This research was made possible in part by the ASU ENGR-SEBE Startup grant.

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