

1 **mizuRoute version 1: a river network routing tool for a**
2 **continental domain water resources applications**

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5 Naoki Mizukami¹, Martyn P. Clark¹, Kevin Sampson¹, Bart Nijssen², Yixin Mao²,
6 Hilary McMillan^{3,8}, Roland J. Viger⁴, Steve L. Markstrom⁴, Lauren E. Hay^{4,8}, Ross
7 Woods⁵, Jeffrey R. Arnold⁶, Levi D. Brekke⁷

8

9 ¹National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder CO

10 ²University of Washington, Seattle WA

11 ³National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research, Christchurch NZ

12 ⁴United States Geological Survey, Denver CO

13 ⁵University of Bristol, Bristol UK

14 ⁶U.S. Army of Corps of Engineers, Seattle WA

15 ⁷Bureau of Reclamation, Denver, CO

16 ⁸San Diego State University, San Diego, CA

17

18 Corresponding to: N. Mizukami (mizukami@ucar.edu)

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20 **Abstract**

21 This paper describes the first version of a stand-alone runoff routing tool, mizuRoute. The
22 mizuRoute tool post-processes runoff outputs from any distributed hydrologic model or land surface
23 model to produce spatially distributed streamflow at various spatial scales from headwater basins to
24 continental-wide river systems. The tool can utilize both traditional grid-based river network and
25 vector-based river network data. Both types of river network include river segment lines and the
26 associated drainage basin polygons, but the vector-based river network can represent finer scale
27 river lines than the grid-based network. Streamflow estimates at any desired location in the river
28 network can be easily extracted from the output of mizuRoute. The routing process is simulated as
29 two separate steps. First, hillslope routing is performed with a gamma distribution based unit-
30 hydrograph to transport runoff from a hillslope to a catchment outlet. The second step is river
31 channel routing, which is performed with one of two routing scheme options: 1) a kinematic wave
32 tracking (KWT) routing procedure; and 2) an impulse response function - unit hydrograph (IRF-
33 UH) routing procedure. The mizuRoute tool also includes scripts (python, NetCDF operators) to
34 pre-process spatial river network data. This paper demonstrates mizuRoute's capabilities to produce
35 spatially distributed streamflow simulations based on river networks from the United States
36 Geological Survey (USGS) Geospatial Fabric (GF) dataset in which over 54000 river segments and
37 their contributing areas are mapped across the contiguous United States (CONUS). A brief analysis
38 of model parameter sensitivity is also provided. The mizuRoute tool can assist model-based water
39 resources assessments including studies of the impacts of climate change on streamflow.

40

41 **1 Introduction**

42 The routing tool described in this paper post-processes runoff outputs from macro-scale
43 hydrologic models or land surface models (hereafter we use “hydrologic model” to refer to both
44 types of model) to estimate spatially distributed streamflow along the river network. The river
45 routing tool is named mizuRoute (“*mizu*” means “*water*” in Japanese). The motivation for the
46 development of mizuRoute was to enable continental domain evaluations of hydrologic simulations
47 for water resources assessments, such as studies of the impacts of climate change on streamflow.
48 The mizuRoute tool is suitable for processing ensembles of multi-decadal runoff outputs because
49 the tool is standalone and easily applied in a parallel mode. The mizuRoute tool is also designed to
50 output streamflow estimates at all river segments in the river network across the domain of interest
51 at each time step, facilitating further spatial and temporal analysis of the estimated streamflow. As
52 opposed to other routing models, our goal in developing mizuRoute is to provide flexibility in
53 making routing model decisions (i.e., river network definition and routing scheme).

54 The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews existing river routing models. Section 3
55 describes how the mizuRoute tool provides flexibility of routing modeling decisions and details the
56 hillslope and river routing schemes used in mizuRoute. Section 4 provides an overview of the
57 workflow of mizuRoute from preprocessing hydrologic model output to simulating streamflow in
58 the river network. Section 5 demonstrates streamflow simulations in river systems over the
59 contiguous United States. Finally, a summary and future work are discussed in Section 6.

60 **2 Existing river routing models**

61 The water resources and earth system modeling communities have developed a wide spectrum
62 of river routing schemes of varying complexity (Clark et al. 2015). For example, the U.S. Army
63 Corps of Engineers (USACE) has developed a stand-alone river modeling system called Hydrologic
64 Engineering Center-River Analysis System (HEC-RAS; Brunner 2001). HEC-RAS offers various
65 hydraulic routing schemes, ranging from simple uniform flow to one-dimensional (1D) Saint-
66 Venant equations for unsteady flow. HEC-RAS has been popular among civil engineers for river

67 channel design and floodplain analysis where surveyed river geometry and physical channel
68 properties are available. At the continental to global scale, unit-hydrograph approaches have been
69 used (e.g., Nijssen et al. 1997; Lohmann et al. 1998; Goteti et al. 2008; Zaitchik et al. 2010; Xia et
70 al. 2012), though more recent, large-scale river models use fully dynamic flow equations (e.g.,
71 Miguez-Macho and Fan 2012; Paiva et al. 2013; Clark et al. 2015), simplified Saint-Venant
72 equations such as the kinematic wave or diffusive wave equation (e.g., Arora and Boer 1999;
73 Lucas-Picher et al. 2003; Koren et al. 2004; Yamazaki et al. 2011; Li et al. 2013; Yamazaki et al.
74 2013; Gochis 2015; Yucel et al. 2015) or non-dynamical hydrologic routing methods such as
75 Muskingum routing (e.g., David et al. 2011). Despite their computational cost, dynamic or diffusive
76 wave models are attractive for relatively flat floodplain regions such as along the Amazon River
77 where backwater effects on the flood wave are significant (Paiva et al. 2011; Yamazaki et al. 2011;
78 Miguez-Macho and Fan 2012). At the other end of the spectrum, simpler, non-dynamic routing
79 schemes, such as the unit hydrograph approach, estimate the flood wave delay and attenuation, but
80 do not simulate other streamflow variables such as flow velocity and flow depth.

81 One of the key issues for large scale river routing, besides the choice of the routing scheme, is
82 the degree of abstraction in the representation of the river network ([Figure 1](#)). A vector-based
83 representation of the river network refers to a collection of Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs or
84 spatially discretized areas defined in the model) that are delineated based on topography or
85 catchment boundary. River segments in the vector-based river network, represented by lines,
86 meander through HRUs and connect upstream with downstream HRUs. On the other hand, in the
87 grid-based river network, the HRU is defined by a grid box and river segments connect neighboring
88 grid boxes based on the flow directions. Vector-based river networks are better than coarser
89 resolution (e.g. > 1km) gridded river networks at preserving fine-scale features of the river system
90 such as tortuosity and drainage area, therefore representing more accurate sub-catchment areas and
91 river segment lengths.

92 For large scale applications, many studies have developed and evaluated methods to upscale
93 fine resolution flow direction grids (~1km or less) to a coarser resolution (~ 10km or more) to
94 match hydrologic model resolution and/or reduce the cost of routing computations (e.g., O'Donnell
95 et al. 1999; Fekete et al. 2001; Olivera et al. 2002; Reed 2003; Davies and Bell 2009; Wu et al.
96 2011; Wu et al. 2012). Earlier work (e.g., O'Donnell et al. 1999; Fekete et al. 2001; Olivera et al.
97 2002) focused on preserving the accuracy of the flow direction at the coarser resolution and
98 therefore on an accurate representation of the drainage area. Newer upscaling methods are designed
99 to also preserve fine-scale flow path length (e.g., Yamazaki et al. 2009; Wu et al. 2011). More
100 recent river routing models have also begun to employ vector-based river networks (Goteti et al.
101 2008; David et al. 2011; Paiva et al. 2011; Lehner and Grill 2013; Paiva et al. 2013; Yamazaki et al.
102 2013).

103 **3 Runoff routing in mizuRoute**

104 The runoff routing in mizuRoute provides more flexibility in continental domain routing
105 applications. The mizuRoute tool enables model flexibility in two ways: First, mizuRoute can be
106 used to simulate streamflow for both grid- and vector-based river networks. Given either type of
107 river network data, mizuRoute offers an option to route flow along all the river segments in the river
108 network data or route runoff at an outlet segment specified by a user. With the latter option, routing
109 computations are performed only upstream of the specified outlet, which reduces the computational
110 cost. Second, the modular structure of the mizuRoute tool offers the flexibility to configure multiple
111 routing schemes. The current version of mizuRoute includes two different river routing schemes: 1)
112 kinematic wave tracking (KWT) routing and 2) impulse response function - unit hydrograph (IRF-
113 UH) routing, mimicking the Lohmann et al. (1996) model. This flexibility offers new capabilities
114 not present in existing routing models. One capability is to provide an opportunity to explore
115 routing model uncertainties originating from the representation of the river system and routing
116 scheme differences (equations and parameters) separately.

117 The mizuRoute tool uses a two-step process to route basin runoff. First, basin runoff is routed
118 from each hillslope to the river channel using a gamma-distribution-based unit-hydrograph. This
119 allows the representation of ephemeral channels or channels too small to be included in the river
120 network. Second, using one of the two channel routing schemes, the delayed flow from each HRU
121 is routed to downstream river segments along the river network. The routing time step is the same
122 as that of the runoff output from the hydrologic model, typically an hourly or daily time step. The
123 following sub-sections provide descriptions of the two routing steps.

124 3.1 Hillslope routing

125 Hillslope routing accounts for the time of concentration (T_c) of a HRU to estimate temporally
126 delayed runoff (or discharge) at the outlet of the HRU from runoff computed by a hydrologic
127 model.

128 For hillslope routing mizuRoute uses a simple two-parameter Gamma distribution as a unit-
129 hydrograph to route instantaneous runoff from a hydrologic model to an outlet of HRU. The
130 Gamma distribution is expressed as:

$$\gamma(t; a, \theta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)\theta^a} t^{a-1} e^{-\frac{t}{\theta}} \quad (1)$$

131 where t is time [T], a is a shape parameter [-] ($a > 0$), and θ is a time-scale parameter [T]. Both the
132 shape and time scale parameters affect the peak time (mode of the distribution: $(a-1)\theta$) and
133 flashiness (variance of the distribution: $a\theta^2$) of the unit-hydrograph and depend on the physical
134 HRU characteristics. Convolution of the gamma distribution with the runoff depth series is used to
135 compute the fraction of runoff at the current time which is discharged to its corresponding river
136 segment at each future time as follows:

$$q(t) = \int_0^{tmax} \gamma(s; a, \theta) \cdot R(t - s) ds \quad (2)$$

137 where q is delayed runoff or discharge [L^3T^{-1}] at time step t [T], R is HRU total runoff depth [L^3T^{-1}]
138 from the hydrologic model, and $tmax$ is the maximum time length for the gamma distribution [T].

139 This two parameter gamma distribution has been widely used in unit-hydrograph-based
140 models for water resources engineering applications (e.g., Bhunya et al. 2007; Nadarajah 2007).
141 Kumar et al. (2007) presented methods to estimate the two parameters in the gamma distribution
142 based on geomorphological information. The gamma distribution offers a parsimonious way to
143 describe a wide range of hillslope-to-channel responses in a computationally efficient manner,
144 which is important for continental-scale domains.

145

146 **3.2 River channel routing**

147 Two different river channel routing schemes are implemented in mizuRoute: 1) KWT routing;
148 and 2) IRF-UH routing. Both schemes are based on the 1D Saint-Venant equations that describe
149 flood wave propagation through a river channel. The one-dimensional conservation equations for
150 continuity (Eq. 3) and momentum (Eq. 4) are

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + g \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} - g(S_0 - S_f) = 0 \quad (4)$$

151 where q is discharge [L^3T^{-1}] at time step t [T] and location x [L] in a river network, A is cross-
152 sectional flow area [L^2], v is velocity [LT^{-1}], y is depth of flow [L], S_0 is channel slope [-], S_f is
153 friction slope [-], and g is gravitational constant [LT^{-2}]. The continuity equation (Eq. 3) assumes that
154 no lateral flow is added to a channel segment. The following sub-sections describe the two routing
155 schemes.

156 **3.2.1 Kinematic wave tracking (KWT)**

157 In contrast with several other kinematic routing models that solve a kinematic wave equation
158 with numerical schemes (e.g., Arora and Boer 1999; Lucas-Picher et al. 2003; Koren et al. 2004),
159 the KWT method computes a wave speed or a celerity for the runoff (or discharge) that enters an
160 individual stream segment from the corresponding HRU at each time step using kinematic
161 approximation (Goring 1994; Clark et al. 2008). The runoff, represented as a particle, is propagated

162 through the river network based on a travel time (the celerity divided by the segment length). Note
163 that the wave celerity differs from the flow velocity, as the wave typically moves faster than water
164 mass (McDonnell and Beven 2014).

165 In the kinematic wave approximation with the assumption that the channel is rectangular and
166 hydraulically wide (channel width $\gg y$), the wave celerity C [LT^{-1}] is a function of channel width w
167 [L], Manning's coefficient n [-], channel slope S_0 [-] and discharge q [L^3T^{-1}]. Further details are
168 provided in Appendix A. Among the four variables, the channel slope S_0 is provided by the river
169 network data and discharge is computed with hillslope routing for the headwater basin, or/and
170 updated via routing from the upstream segment. The other two variables, Manning's coefficient n
171 and river width w , are much more difficult to measure or estimate. The river width is determined
172 with the following width-drainage area relationship (Booker, 2010):

$$w = W_a \cdot A_{ups}^b \quad (6)$$

173 where W_a is a width factor [-], A_{ups} is the total upstream basin area [L^2] and b is an empirical
174 exponent equal to 0.5. The width factor W_a and the Manning's coefficient n are treated as model
175 parameters as shown in Table 1.

176 The KWT routing starts with ordering all the segments in the processing sequence from
177 upstream to downstream. The KWT routing is performed at each segment in the processing order at
178 each time step. The procedures of the KWT routing method are as follows:

- 179 1. Obtain the information on the waves that reside in the segment at a given time step: This
180 includes the waves routed from the upstream segments, the wave that remains in this current
181 segment from the previous time step, and the wave generated from the runoff from local
182 HRUs during the current time step. Three state variables of the waves are kept in the
183 memory: (i) discharge; (ii) the time at which the wave enters the segment; and (iii) the time
184 at which the wave is expected to exit the segment. At the first time step, only the wave from
185 local HRUs exists. [Figure 2](#) a) visualizes the discharge of waves that reside in the 16

186 segments (16 river segments are shown in the inserted map) at the beginning of 5 time steps
187 against the wave locations in the segments.

188 2. Remove waves in order to reduce the memory usage and the processing time for the wave
189 routing (the next step). The number of the waves in the segment is limited to a predefined
190 number (20 by default). In [Figure 2](#), the threshold for the number of waves in each segment
191 is set to 100. To determine which waves can be removed, the difference between the
192 discharge of the wave and the linearly interpolated discharge between its two neighboring
193 waves is computed for all waves, and the wave that produces the least difference (from the
194 interpolated discharge) is removed so that loss of wave mass is minimized. This process is
195 repeated until the number of waves is below the threshold.

196 3. Route waves through a given river segment. In the routing routine, the celerity of each wave
197 in the segment is computed with Eq. (A6) and the time at which each wave is expected to
198 exit the river segment is updated. If the exit time occurs before the end of the time step, the
199 wave is propagated to the downstream segment and flagged as “exited”. The exit time then
200 becomes the time the wave entered the downstream segment. Otherwise, the wave is flagged
201 as “not-exited”, and remains in the current segment. [Figure 2](#) b) shows the discharge of the
202 waves against the exit times of the corresponding waves at segments 4 and 13. As a
203 reference, the end of each time step is shown as a vertical line.

204 The routing routine checks for (and corrects) the special case of a kinematic shock. A
205 kinematic shock is a sudden rise in the flow depth, and thus an increase in the discharge at a
206 fixed location, and occurs when a faster-moving wave successively overtakes multiple
207 slower-waves to build a steep wave front. It occurs in models due to the kinematic
208 approximation; in reality, diffusion would act to reduce the steepness of the wave front. Two
209 neighboring waves are evaluated to check if a slower wave is overtaken by a faster wave
210 before the waves exit the river segment. If this occurs, those two waves are merged into one,
211 and the celerity of the merged wave is updated with the following equation;

$$C_{merge} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta A} = \frac{\Delta q}{w\Delta y} \quad (7)$$

212 where C_{merge} is the merged wave celerity [LT^{-1}], Δq and ΔA are differences in discharge
 213 [L^3T^{-1}] and cross-sectional flow area [L^2T^{-1}], respectively, between slower and faster waves.

214 Note that Eq (7) is the mathematical definition of the wave celerity. Since we assume a
 215 rectangular channel whose width is constant for each segment, the merged celerity C_{merge} is
 216 a function of flow depth y , which is computed with Eq. (A3).

217 4. Finally, the time step averaged discharge (streamflow) is computed by temporal integration
 218 of the discharge of all the waves that exit the segment during the time step. Temporal
 219 integral of wave discharge is visualized in [Figure 2](#) b) as the area enclosed by the discharge
 220 curve formed by all the waves that exit during the time step.

221 3.2.2 Impulse response function - unit hydrograph (IRF-UH)

222 The IRF-UH method mimics the river routing model of Lohmann et al. (1996), which has
 223 been used to route flows from gridded land surface models such as the Variable Infiltration
 224 Capacity model (VIC; Liang et al. 1994). The only difference between the current tool and the
 225 Lohmann routing tool is the way in which the river network is defined. The Lohmann routing model
 226 is designed as a grid-based model as shown in [Figure 1](#) to ease the coupling with grid-based land
 227 surface models. In mizuRoute, the same IRF-UH method can be used either on a vector- or grid-
 228 based river network. The descriptions of IRF-UH are given briefly as follows.

229 The mathematical developments of IRF-UH are based on one-dimensional diffusive wave
 230 equation derived from the 1D Saint-Venant equations (Eqs. 4 and 5):

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} - C \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} \quad (10)$$

231 where parameters C and D are wave celerity [LT^{-1}] and diffusivity [L^2T^{-1}], respectively. The
 232 complete derivation from Eqs. 4 and 5 to Eq. 10 is given in Appendix B.

233 Equation (10) can be solved using convolution integrals

$$q = \int_0^t U(t-s) h(x,s) ds \quad (11)$$

234 where

$$h(x,t) = \frac{x}{2t\sqrt{\pi Dt}} \exp\left(-\frac{(Ct-x)^2}{4Dt}\right) \quad (12)$$

235 and $U(t-s)$ is a unit depth of runoff generated at time $t-s$. This solution is a mathematical
 236 representation of the IRF used in unit-hydrograph theory. Wave celerity C and diffusivity D are
 237 treated as input parameters for this tool (Table 1), and ideally they can be estimated from
 238 observations of discharge and channel geometries at gauge locations.

239 Given a river segment or outlet segment, a set of unique unit-hydrographs is constructed for
 240 all the upstream segments based on the distance between the upstream segment to the outlet
 241 segment (Eq. 12). The unit-hydrograph convolution with delayed flow (i.e., hill-sloped routed flow)
 242 is computed for each upstream segment and then all the routed flows from the upstream segments
 243 are summed to obtain the streamflow at the outlet segment. As opposed to the KWT routing, the
 244 IRF-UH routing does not require the segment sequence for the routing computation. In other words,
 245 the routing can be performed in any order of the segments within a river network and for a given
 246 segment the unit-hydrograph convolution can be also performed in any order of its upstream
 247 segments.

248 **4 mizuRoute workflow**

249 The overall workflow of mizuRoute is illustrated in [Figure 3](#). There are two main, separate
 250 data preprocessing steps that are executed prior to the routing computation. First, if the hydrologic
 251 model simulations are performed with spatial discretization that differs from the HRU used in the
 252 river network data, it is necessary to map the runoff output from the hydrologic models to the river
 253 network HRUs. This process is done by taking the area-weighted runoff of the intersecting
 254 hydrologic model HRUs. We developed the python scripts to identify the intersected hydrologic
 255 model HRUs for each river network HRU and their fractional areas to the river network HRU area
 256 to assist with this process.

257 The second data pre-processing step is augmentation of the river network dataset. Typical
258 topological information in this dataset is the immediate downstream segment for each segment.
259 While a river network can be fully defined based on information about the immediate downstream
260 segment, the river routing schemes in mizuRoute require identification of all the upstream river
261 segments. For this purpose, we have developed a program that identifies all the upstream segments
262 for each segment in the river network data based on the information on immediate downstream
263 segment. This identification of upstream segments only has to be done once for each unique river
264 network dataset. Therefore, the program can be used as a preprocessor, which improves the
265 efficiency of the main routing tool, especially when the routing is performed for multiple
266 hydrologic model outputs for a large river system. In addition to the identification of all upstream
267 segments, the topology program identifies upstream HRUs, upstream areas (cumulative area of all
268 the upstream HRUs), total upstream distance from each segment to all the upstream segments, etc.

269 **5 CONUS-wide mizuRoute simulations**

270 The purpose of this section is to demonstrate the capabilities of mizuRoute to route multi-
271 decadal runoff outputs from hydrologic model simulations over the continental domain. We use the
272 United States Geological Survey (USGS) Geospatial Fabric (GF) vector-based river network (Viger
273 2014; http://wwwbrr.cr.usgs.gov/projects/SW_MoWS/GeospatialFabric.html) over the contiguous
274 United States (CONUS). We routed the daily runoff simulations archived by Reclamation (2014) as
275 part of their project “Downscaled CMIP3 and CMIP5 Climate and Hydrology Projections”
276 (http://gdo-dcp.ucllnl.org/downscaled_cmip_projections/dcpInterface.html). In that project, the VIC
277 model was forced by the spatially downscaled temperature and precipitation outputs at $1/8^\circ$ (~12km)
278 resolution from 97 global climate model outputs from 1950 through 2099. The details of the
279 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) are described by Taylor et al. (2011).
280 Additionally, historical runoff simulations were produced at $1/8^\circ$ resolution by the VIC model
281 forced by meteorological forcings from Maurer et al. (2002) from 1950 through 1999 (Maurer

282 meteorological data and the simulated runoff with Maurer data is referred to as M02 and VIC-M02
283 runoff, respectively).

284 The river routing scheme uses both KWT and IRF-UH. The routing parameters for each
285 scheme (see Table 1) need to be predetermined. The channel parameters included in the KWT
286 routing method (Manning's coefficient, n , and river width, w) can be determined by a survey of
287 river channel geometry and river bed condition if the spatial scale of the model domain is very
288 small, but this is usually infeasible for large spatial domains such as the entire CONUS used here.
289 For the IRF-UH method, the determination of celerity and diffusivity with Eq. (B8) requires
290 information on flow and channel geometry, so for simplicity we follow Lohmann et al. (1996) and
291 treat celerity and diffusivity as parameters. For both schemes, parameter estimation methods need to
292 be developed to determine appropriate values for large-scale applications. For this simulation, the
293 parameter values are set somewhat arbitrarily to reasonable values, with the objective to
294 demonstrate the capabilities of mizuRoute to produce spatially distributed streamflow, not to attain
295 the most accurate simulation.

296 In addition, sensitivity of the streamflow estimates to the river routing parameters is examined
297 at selected locations. Different routing model choices (routing scheme and parameters) will
298 differently affect the attenuation of runoff (i.e., the magnitude of peak and rate of rising and
299 recession limbs) and the timing of the peak flow. We also discuss effect of different river networks
300 (grid-based and vector-based networks) on the results of the runoff routing.

301 Note that the accuracy of the routed flow is not discussed because it depends largely on the
302 performance of the hydrologic model that produces the distributed runoff fields and hydrologic
303 model outputs are input to the routing model. The hydrologic simulations can have large errors,
304 which makes a direct comparison with observations less meaningful. For this reason, we focus on
305 an inter-comparison between the two channel routing schemes or two river network definition. The
306 performance of the IRF-UH approach in routing flows compared to observed flows has been
307 discussed by Lohmann et al. (1996).

308 **5.1 The Geospatial Fabric network topology**

309 The GF dataset was developed primarily to facilitate CONUS-wide hydrologic modeling with
310 the USGS Precipitation Runoff Modeling System (PRMS; Leavesley and Stannard 1995). To
311 reduce the computational burden of the hydrologic simulations, the GF dataset is generated by
312 aggregating fine-scale river segments and corresponding HRUs from the first version of National
313 Hydrography Dataset Plus (NHDPlus v1; HorizonSystemsCorporation 2010), while still
314 representing small catchments (equivalent in area to 12 digit Hydrologic Unit Code ~ 100 km² or
315 smaller basin). The GF dataset includes line and polygon geometries representing river segments
316 and their HRUs, respectively, along with their attribute information including the connectivity
317 between segments (topological information) and their physical attributes such as channel length and
318 area of the HRU. Table 2 lists the river network vector information necessary for mizuRoute. The
319 GF dataset (both geometry and attribute information) is stored in Environmental System Research
320 Institute (ESRI) Geodatabase Feature Classes and the topological and physical data (Table 2) in the
321 attribute table is converted to NetCDF format to start with the augmentation of river network
322 topology ([Figure 3](#)). The GF dataset include 54,929 river segments and 106,973 HRUs (including
323 the right and left bank of each segment). [Figure 4](#) displays distribution of river segments in the GF
324 vector data with color coded by the total upstream HRU area of each river segment. To use the GF
325 vector-based river network, the 1/8° gridded runoff outputs from VIC forced by CMIP-5 data were
326 mapped to each GF HRU by taking the areal weighted average of the intersecting area between grid
327 boxes and the GF HRUs. Although this paper illustrates runoff routing using GF, the mizuRoute
328 tool can work with any other river network data as long as it includes information about the
329 correspondence between HRUs and river segments as well as segment-to-segment topology.

330 **5.2 Spatially distributed streamflow in the river network**

331 The first example demonstrates mizuRoute's capability to produce spatially distributed
332 streamflow estimates over the continental domain. [Figure 5](#) shows daily mean streamflow
333 distribution estimated with KWT and IFR-UH routing methods for June 15 1986 as an example. As

334 shown in [Figure 5](#), both routing schemes produce qualitatively the same spatial pattern of the daily
335 streamflow.

336 The mizuRoute tool outputs the time series of the streamflow estimates at all the river
337 segments in the river network in the NetCDF output file, and modeled streamflow for the point of
338 interest (e.g., streamflow gauge location) can be extracted from the NetCDF based on the ID of the
339 river segment (i.e., `seg_id`) where the point of interest is located. [Figure 6](#) shows daily streamflow
340 from Jan 1, 1995 to Dec. 31, 1999 extracted at three locations from the NetCDF output: A) Snake
341 River below Ice Harbor Dam, B) Colorado River at Lees Ferry, C) Apalachicola River
342 Blountstown. Temporal patterns of flow simulations with the two river routing schemes are very
343 similar, but the day-to-day differences in estimated streamflow due to the different routing choices
344 become visible.

345 The next demonstration of mizuRoute's capability is to produce an ensemble of projected
346 streamflow estimates from the runoff simulations using CMIP5 data. [Figure 7](#) shows the monthly
347 mean of 28 projected streamflow estimates (using CMIP5 RCP 8.5 scenario) extracted at the three
348 locations over three periods: P1) from 2010 to 2039, P2) from 2040 to 2069, and P3) from 2070 to
349 2099. In this example, the results from the KWT scheme are shown in [Figure 7](#).

350 **5.3 Sensitivity of streamflow estimates to river routing parameters**

351 Analysis of the sensitivity of simulated hydrographs to channel routing parameters (Table 1)
352 is performed to examine the effect of parameter values on the streamflow simulations. In this paper,
353 qualitative was performed using VIC simulated runoff with M02 data and using different river
354 routing parameter values (two parameters for each scheme). We carried out the parameter
355 sensitivity analysis at the three locations in Figure 6, but found the characteristics of the parameter
356 sensitivity are the same at all three. Therefore, we present the results for the Colorado River at Lees
357 Ferry, where a single, distinct snowmelt runoff peak illustrates the impact of the routing parameter
358 values on the peak timing. [Figure 8](#) shows the effect of the width factor W_a in Eq. (12) (top panels)
359 and the Manning coefficient n (bottom panels) for the KWT scheme. As expected, wider channels

360 (larger W_a value) delay the hydrograph, because the larger flow area results in slower velocities.
361 This effect is enhanced with larger Manning coefficient n , because more friction slows the water
362 flow. A similar effect is seen in the sensitivity experiments for Manning's n (bottom panel of [Figure](#)
363 [8](#)).

364 [Figure 9](#) shows the sensitivity of a simulated hydrograph from Oct 1, 1990 to Sep 30, 1991 to
365 the two IRF-UH parameters at Colorado River at Lees Ferry (top panel for sensitivity to celerity C
366 and bottom panel for sensitivity to diffusivity D). Interestingly, the effect of diffusivity D is small
367 while celerity C affects the timing of the hydrograph peak. This is because celerity C directly
368 changes peak timing without attenuation of IRF, while diffusivity D has little influence on peak
369 timing of IRF although it changes the degree of flashiness (Eq.12). Due to the low sensitivity of the
370 hydrograph to diffusivity D , the degree of hydrograph sensitivity to celerity C is consistent across
371 different diffusivity values (bottom panel of Figure 8).

372 **5.4 Comparison between grid-based and vector-based river network**

373 This section illustrates the effect of river network definitions (grid- or vector-based network)
374 on simulated streamflow using the upper Colorado River basin (outlet: Colorado River at Lees
375 Ferry) and two sub-basins (outlets: Colorado River near Cameo and East River near Almont; See
376 Figure 10). The daily simulated streamflow from March to August 1999 is shown in Figure 11. The
377 IRF-UH routing scheme in mizuRoute was used to route the VIC-M02 runoff through both GF river
378 network and $1/8^\circ$ grid-based river network.

379 The simulated streamflow time series at the two sub-basins were extracted from the routing
380 results over the entire upper Colorado River basin. Model elements can have only one downstream
381 outlet, Colorado River at Lees Ferry for this simulation. As a result, fractional areas of model grid
382 cells on internal basin boundaries cannot be accounted for. In other words, internal basin boundaries
383 for sub-basins follow grid box edges and a grid cell is either inside or outside a sub-basin (Figure 10
384 panel B). This leads to discrepancies of basin areas for sub-basins and total runoff volume that is
385 routed to the gauge as indicated in Figure 11. Even though the basin areas and therefore flow

386 amounts are similar at Lees Ferry for both networks, they differ for the two sub-basins. For
387 example, the simulated streamflow at Colorado River near Cameo is larger for the vector-based
388 network than for the grid-based network (middle panel in Figure 11) because of a mismatch in
389 drainage area (Figure 10). The vector-based river network preserves a more accurate drainage shape
390 or area for sub-basins than the $1/8^\circ$ grid-based network.

391 **6 Summary and Discussion**

392 This paper presents mizuRoute (version 1.0), a river network routing tool that post-processes
393 runoff outputs from any hydrologic or land surface model. We demonstrated the capability of
394 mizuRoute to produce multi-decadal, spatially-distributed streamflow on a vector-based river
395 network using the USGS GF river network over the CONUS. The streamflow time series are easily
396 extracted at any locations in the network, facilitating hydrologic modeling evaluation, and other
397 hydrologic assessments. The tool is independent of the hydrologic simulations, making it possible
398 to produce ensembles of streamflow estimations from multiple hydrologic models. As an example
399 of a practical application of mizuRoute, an ensemble of streamflow projections was produced at
400 USGS gauge points on the river systems across the CONUS from 97 runoff simulations from
401 Downscaled CMIP5 Climate and Hydrology Projections (Reclamation 2014). Section 5.3 shows
402 some of the streamflow simulations based on the runoff generated with VIC forced by CMIP5 data.

403 Based on the simulations presented in the Section 5.4, the routing parameters can affect the
404 simulated hydrograph especially for the KWT method. Though more detailed investigations of
405 those effects need to be performed to fully understand the routing model behaviors, the parameter
406 sensitivity is substantial. More sophisticated methods to estimate routing model parameters need to
407 be developed. River physical parameters are difficult to obtain in a consistent way at the continental
408 scale, but recent developments of the retrieval algorithms for river physical properties (channel
409 width, slope etc.) with remote sensing data are promising (e.g., Pavelsky and Smith 2008; Fisher et
410 al. 2013; Allen and Pavelsky 2015), and we expect to see advances in capabilities to estimate the
411 hydraulic geometry of rivers over the coming years (Clark et al. 2015).

412 One limitation of mizuRoute is that the channel routing schemes – KWT and IRF-UH – are
413 both 1-Dimensional (1-D) approaches that do not explicitly track physical parcels of water. The 1-D
414 approach does not allow for explicit modeling of inundation extent, which can occur during flood
415 events. Also, the wave particles that are used in the KWT approach travel at the speed of the wave
416 (celerity) rather than the mean velocity of the fluid. Therefore, direct use of KWT for water quality
417 modelling such as stream temperature is not recommended. Extension of mizuRoute to simulate
418 stream temperature and water quality can be done in one of two ways: Adaptation of the existing
419 routing methods or inclusion of an additional routing scheme that is more directly suitable for
420 tracking water masses and their constituents.

421 Toward future enhancements of mizuRoute performance, both routing schemes lend
422 themselves well for parallelization. Computing speed can be improved by implementing parallel
423 processing directive (e.g., open MP) for routing routines. While kinematic wave routing has to be
424 done sequentially from upstream to downstream, the processing can be parallelized through
425 appropriate choices of the domain decomposition. For example, sub-basins that contribute to flow
426 along a mainstream segment can be processed in parallel because the basins are independent. On a
427 CONUS-wide river network, individual river basins (e.g. the Colorado River and Mississippi River
428 basins) can be processed simultaneously. For IRF-UH routing, the routing computation is
429 performed for individual river segments independently (see section 3.2.2), therefore the
430 parallelization for river segment loops can be made possible. Lastly, routing of an ensemble of
431 runoff outputs such as the CMIP5 projected runoff is easily parallelized.

432

433 **7 Code Availability**

434 The source codes for the river network topology program and the hillslope and river routing
435 along with test data are available along with the user manual on GitHub
436 (<https://github.com/NCAR/mizuRoute>). Those codes are developed in Fortran90 and require
437 installation of a NetCDF 4 library (<http://www.unidata.ucar.edu/downloads/netcdf/index.jsp>). In

438 addition, there are several pre-processing python scripts to map runoff outputs from hydrologic
439 models to other type of HRUs. These pre-processing scripts are also available in GitHub. Those
440 python scripts process ESRI Shapefiles and NetCDF data and require GDAL, SHAPELY, NetCDF4
441 packages.

442 ***Acknowledgements***

443 This work was financially supported by the U.S Army Corps of Engineers.

444

445 **Appendix A. Derivation of wave celerity equation used in KWT**

446 The kinematic wave approximation to the full Saint-Venant equations (Eqs. 3 and 4) uses the
447 continuity equation combined with a simplified momentum equation. The simplified momentum
448 equation is based on the assumption that the friction slope is equal to the channel slope and that
449 flow is steady and uniform. Under this assumption, Eq. 4 is reduced to $S_0 = S_f$. In other words, the
450 gravitational force that moves water downstream is balanced with the frictional force acting on the
451 riverbed. With this assumption, the discharge q can be expressed using a uniform flow formula such
452 as Manning's equation:

$$q = A \frac{k}{n} R_h^\alpha S_0^{1/2} \quad (\text{A1})$$

453 where k is a scalar whose value is 1 for SI units and 1.49 for Imperial units, n is the Manning
454 coefficient, R_h is hydraulic radius [L], which is defined as the cross sectional flow area A [L²]
455 divided by the wetted perimeter P [L], and α is a constant coefficient ($\alpha=2/3$).

456 We assume the channel shape is rectangular and the geometry is constant throughout one
457 river segment, with width w , $A = wy$ and $P = w + 2y$. Assuming the channel is wide compared to
458 flow depth (i.e., $w \gg y$), the hydraulic radius R_h is expressed as

$$R_h = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{wy}{w + 2y} \cong y \quad (\text{A2})$$

459 By substituting Eq. (A2) into Eq. (A1), the Manning equation is re-written as

$$q = w \frac{k}{n} y^{\alpha+1} S_0^{1/2} \quad (\text{A3})$$

460 For each stream segment within which the channel width w is constant, the wave celerity C is given
461 by

$$C = \frac{dq}{dA} = \frac{dq}{d(wy)} \cong \frac{dq}{wdy} \quad (\text{A4})$$

462 By substituting Manning's equation (Eq. A3) into Eq. A4, the wave celerity C can be given by

$$C = (\alpha + 1) \cdot \frac{k}{n} \sqrt{S_0} \cdot y^\alpha \quad (\text{A5})$$

463 or expressed as a function of discharge q as

$$C = (\alpha + 1) \cdot (w)^{\frac{-\alpha}{\alpha+1}} \cdot \left(\frac{k}{n} \sqrt{S_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha+1}} \cdot q^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+1}} \quad (\text{A6})$$

464

465 **Appendix B. Derivation of 1-D diffusive equation**

466 We describe in detail the derivation of diffusive wave equations from Saint-Venant equations
 467 (Strum 2001) that are the basis of the IRF-UH method. The development of the IRF-UH method
 468 starts with the derivation of the diffusive wave equation from the 1D Saint Venant equations (Eqs. 3
 469 and 4) by neglecting inertia terms (the second term in Eq. 4) and assuming steady flow (eliminating
 470 the first term in Eq. 4). The momentum equation (Eq. 4) can therefore be reduced to:

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = S_0 - S_f \quad (\text{B1})$$

471 Now, Manning's equation can be expressed in terms of channel conveyance, K_c (carrying capacity
 472 of river channel),

$$q = K_c \cdot \sqrt{S_f} \quad (\text{B2})$$

473 where $K_c = k/n \cdot A \cdot R_h^\alpha$. Substituting S_f from Eq. (B2) into Eq. (B1) and differentiating with
 474 respect to time, the momentum equation (Eq. A1) becomes

$$\frac{2q}{K_c^2} \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} - \frac{2q^2}{K_c^3} \frac{\partial K_c}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x \partial t} \quad (\text{B3})$$

475 Also, the continuity equation (Eq. 3) can be re-written by differentiating both sides of the
 476 equation with respect to distance x as,

$$\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} + w \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x \partial t} = 0 \quad (\text{B4})$$

477 Combining Eq. (B3) and Eq. (B4) results in

$$\frac{2q}{K_c^2} \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} - \frac{2q^2}{K_c^3} \frac{\partial K_c}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{w} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} \quad (\text{B5})$$

478 Because the channel conveyance, K_c , is a function of flow depth, y , or flow area, A , the
 479 differentiation part of the second term of Eq. (B5) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial K_c}{\partial t} = \frac{dK_c}{dA} \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = - \frac{dK_c}{dA} \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} \quad (\text{B6})$$

480 Finally, inserting Eq. (B6) into Eq.(B5), results in the one-dimensional diffusive wave equation

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} - C \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} \quad (\text{B7})$$

481 where

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \frac{q}{K_c} \frac{dK_c}{dA} = \frac{dq}{dA} \\ D &= \frac{K_c^2}{2qw} = \frac{q}{2wS_0} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B8})$$

482 where parameters C and D are wave celerity [LT^{-1}] and diffusivity [L^2T^{-1}], respectively. Here, we

483 assume the flow is uniform (i.e., $S_f = S_0$).

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640 Table 1. Routing model parameters.

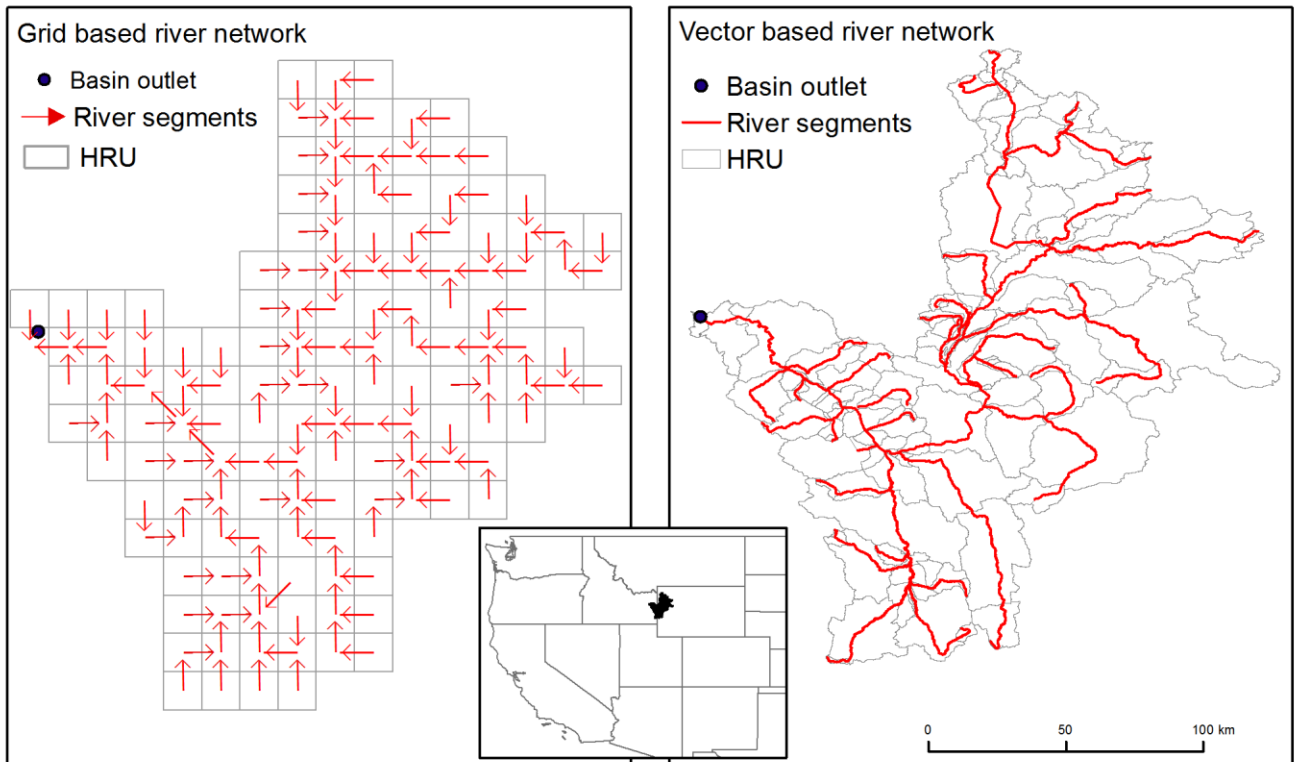
Parameters	Routing methods	Descriptions	Values used in Sect. 5
<i>a</i>	Hillslope	Shape factor [-]	2.5[-]
<i>θ</i>	Hillslope	Time scale factor [T]	86400 [s]
<i>n</i>	KWT	Manning coefficient [-]	0.01[-]
<i>W</i>	KWT	River width scale factor [-]	0.001[-]
<i>C</i>	IRF-UH	Wave velocity [LT ⁻¹]	1.5 [ms ⁻¹]
<i>D</i>	IRF-UH	Diffusivity [L ² T ⁻¹]	800 [m ² s ⁻¹]

641

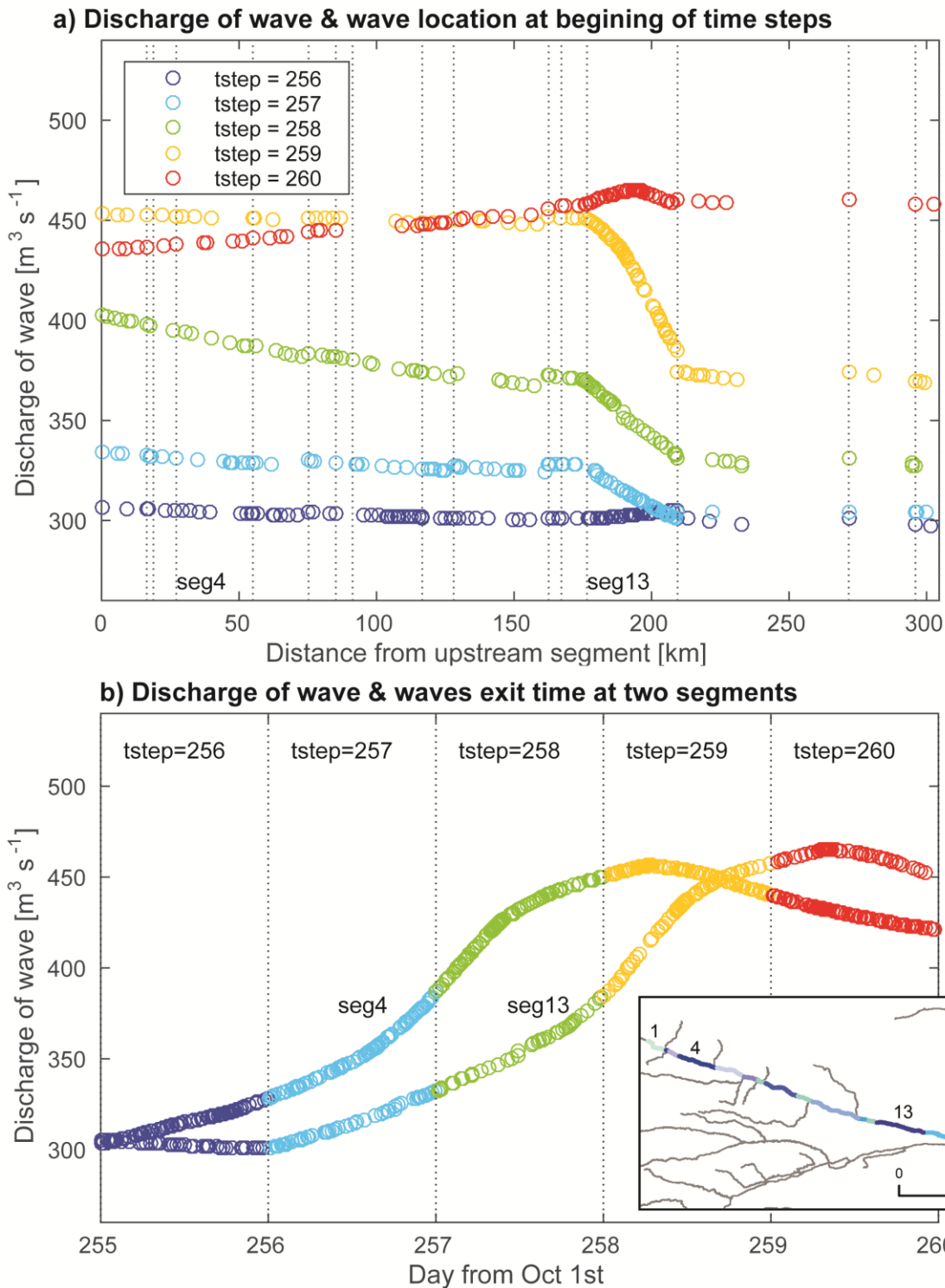
642 Table 2. River network information required in mizuRoute

Variables	Vector data type	Descriptions
seg_id	River segment line	ID of segment
tosegment	River segment line	ID of immediate downstream segment
Length	River segment line	length of segment [m]
Slope	River segment line	Slope of segment [m/m]
hru_id	HRU polygon	ID of HRU
Seg_hru_segment	HRU polygon	ID of segment to which the HRU discharge
hru_area	HRU polygon	Area of HRU [m ²]

643

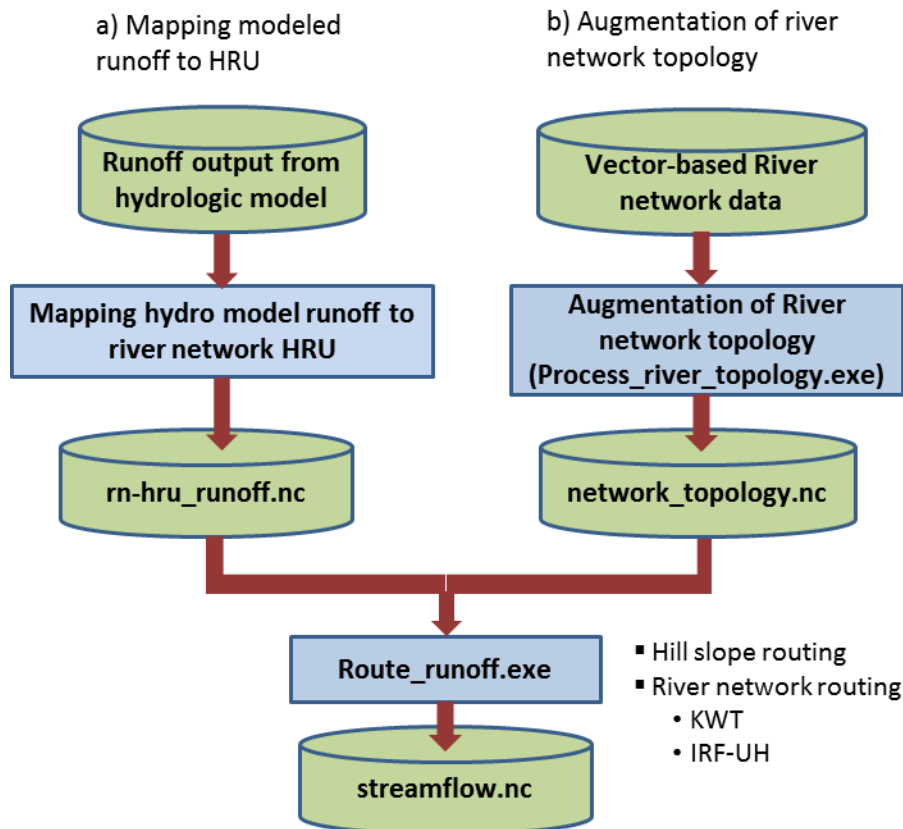


644
 645 [Figure 1](#). Comparison of $1/8^\circ$ (~12km) gridded river network and vector river network from United
 646 States Geological Survey (USGS) Geospatial Fabric for the upper part of Snake River basin (Viger
 647 2014).
 648



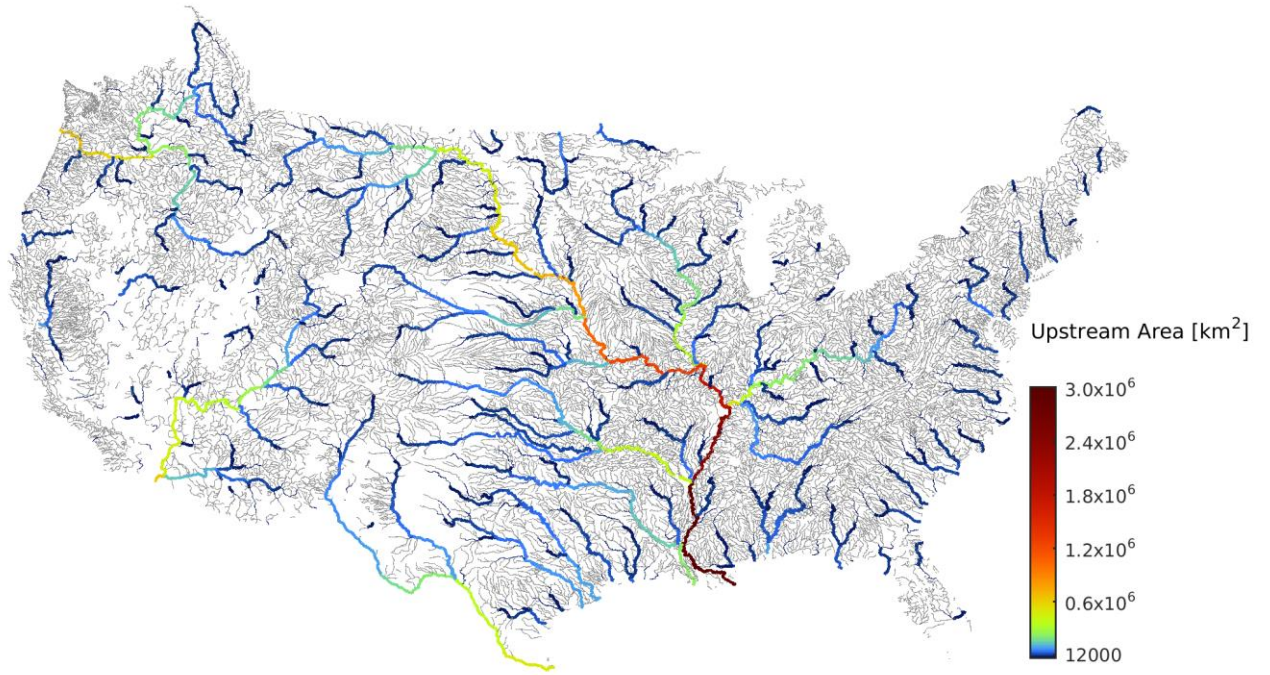
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Figure 2. Visualization of waves. The top panel a) plots a discharge of the wave [m^3s^{-1}] against its location (distance [km] from the beginning of the 1st segment) at the beginning of 5 consecutive daily time steps. A vertical line indicates the river segment boundary. The bottom panel b) plots a discharge of the wave [m^3s^{-1}] against its exit time [day from October 1st] for the 4th and 13th segments. A vertical line indicates the boundary of routing time step. The inserted map shows the 16 river segments used for the plots.



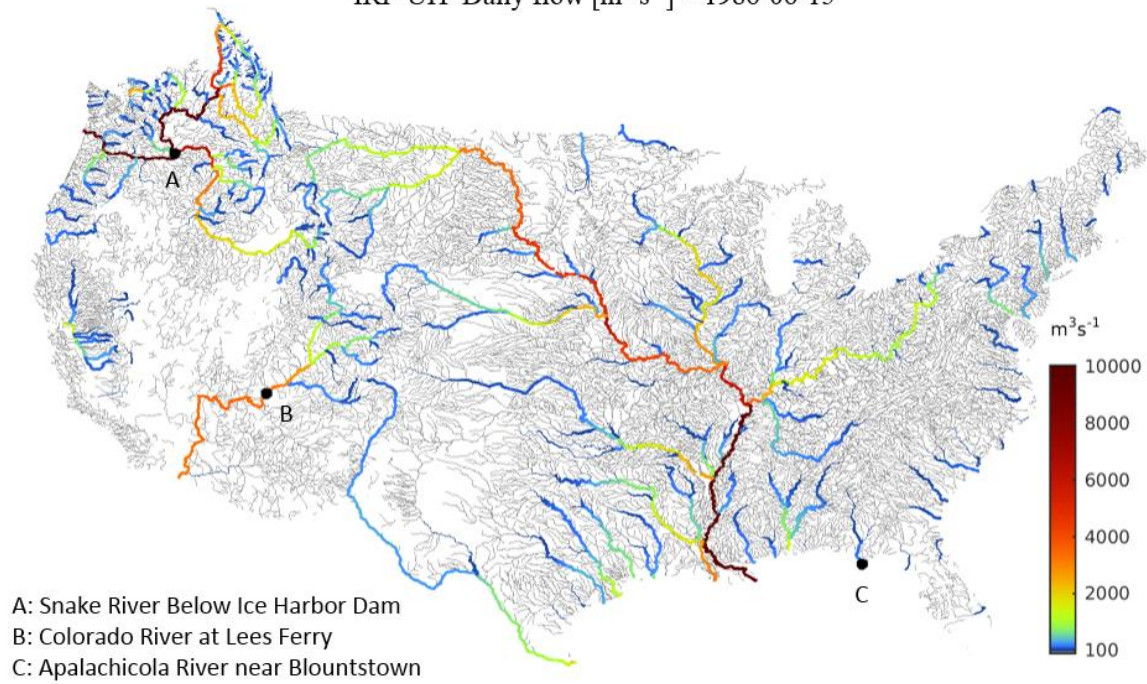
657
 658 [Figure 3](#). Overview of streamflow simulation with mizuRoute. The green cylinder and blue box
 659 denote data and computational process, respectively.
 660

GF River Network

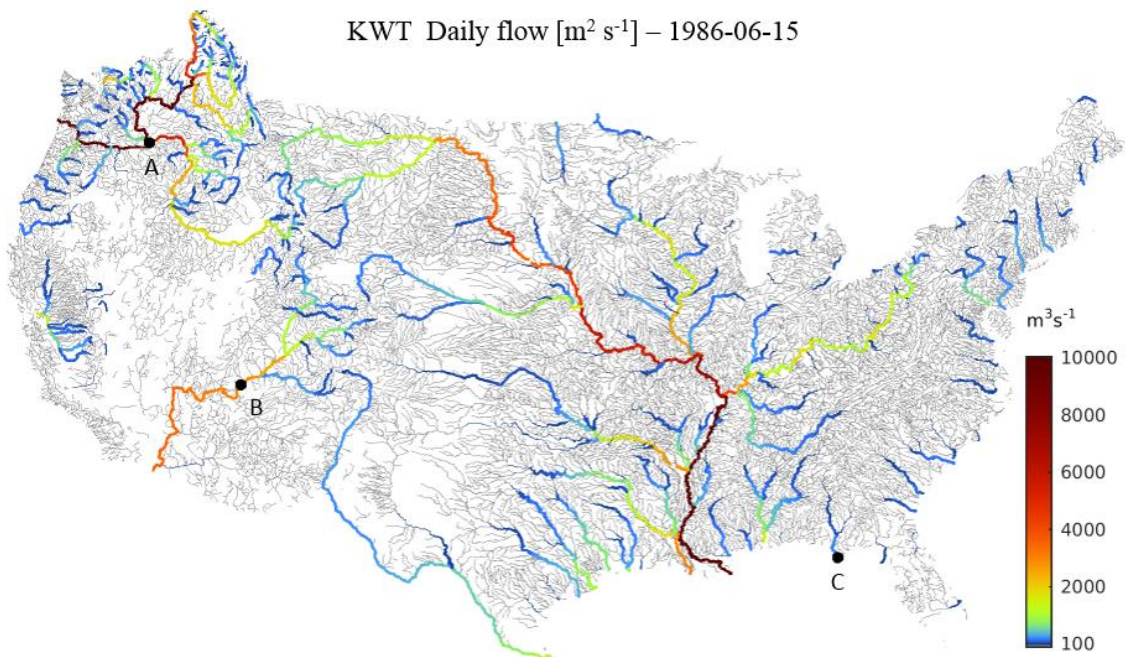


661
662 [Figure 4](#). GF river network color coded by upstream drainage areas. Gray lines indicate the total
663 upstream drainage areas less than 12000 km².
664

IRF-UH Daily flow [$\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$] – 1986-06-15



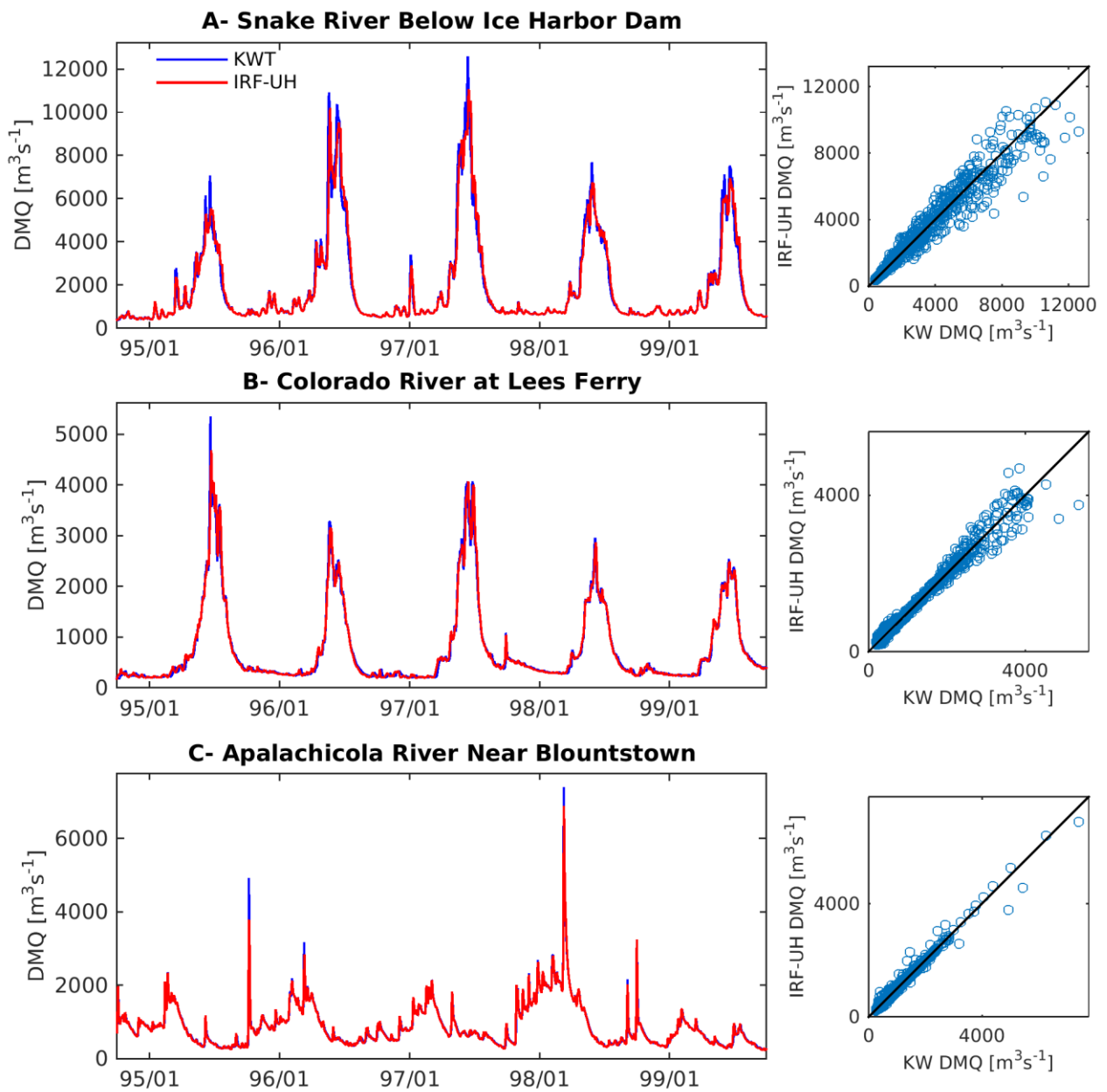
KWT Daily flow [$\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$] – 1986-06-15



665

666 [Figure 5](#). Spatially distributed daily streamflow on July 15, 1986 in the GF river network simulated
667 with mizuRoute. Gray lines indicate flow less than $100 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$. The streamflow time series shown in
668 Figure 6 are extracted at three USGS gauges (A-C).

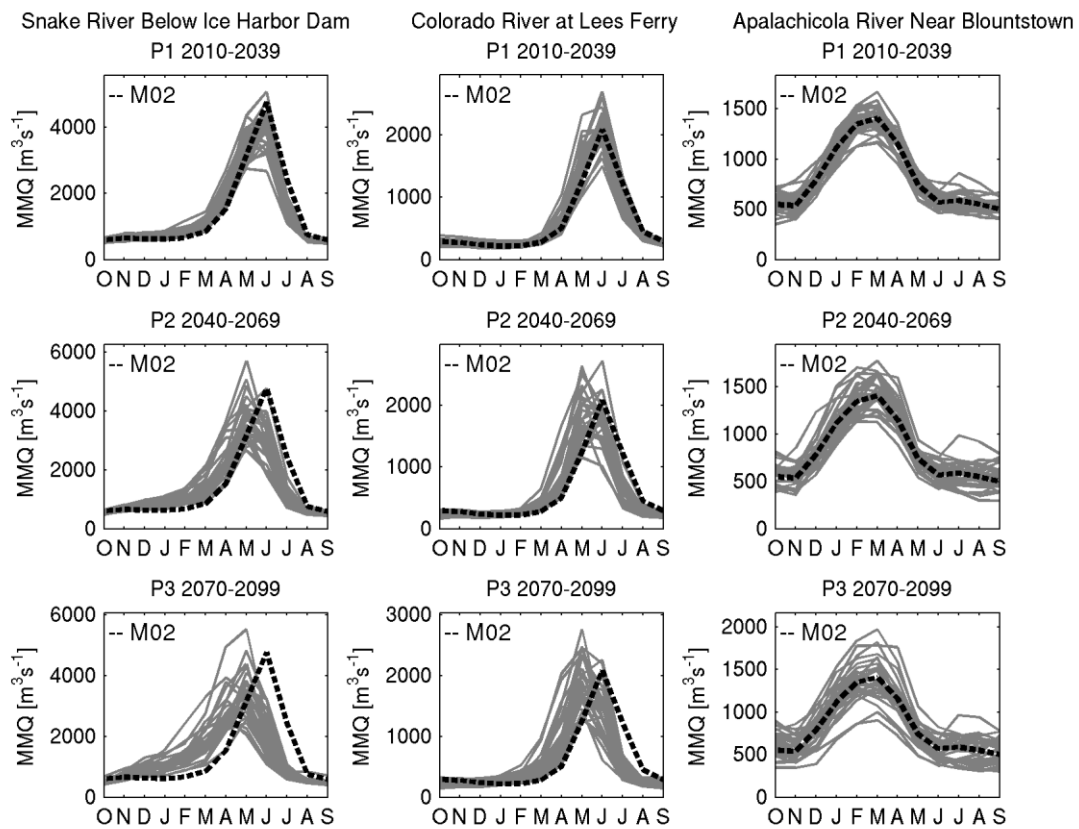
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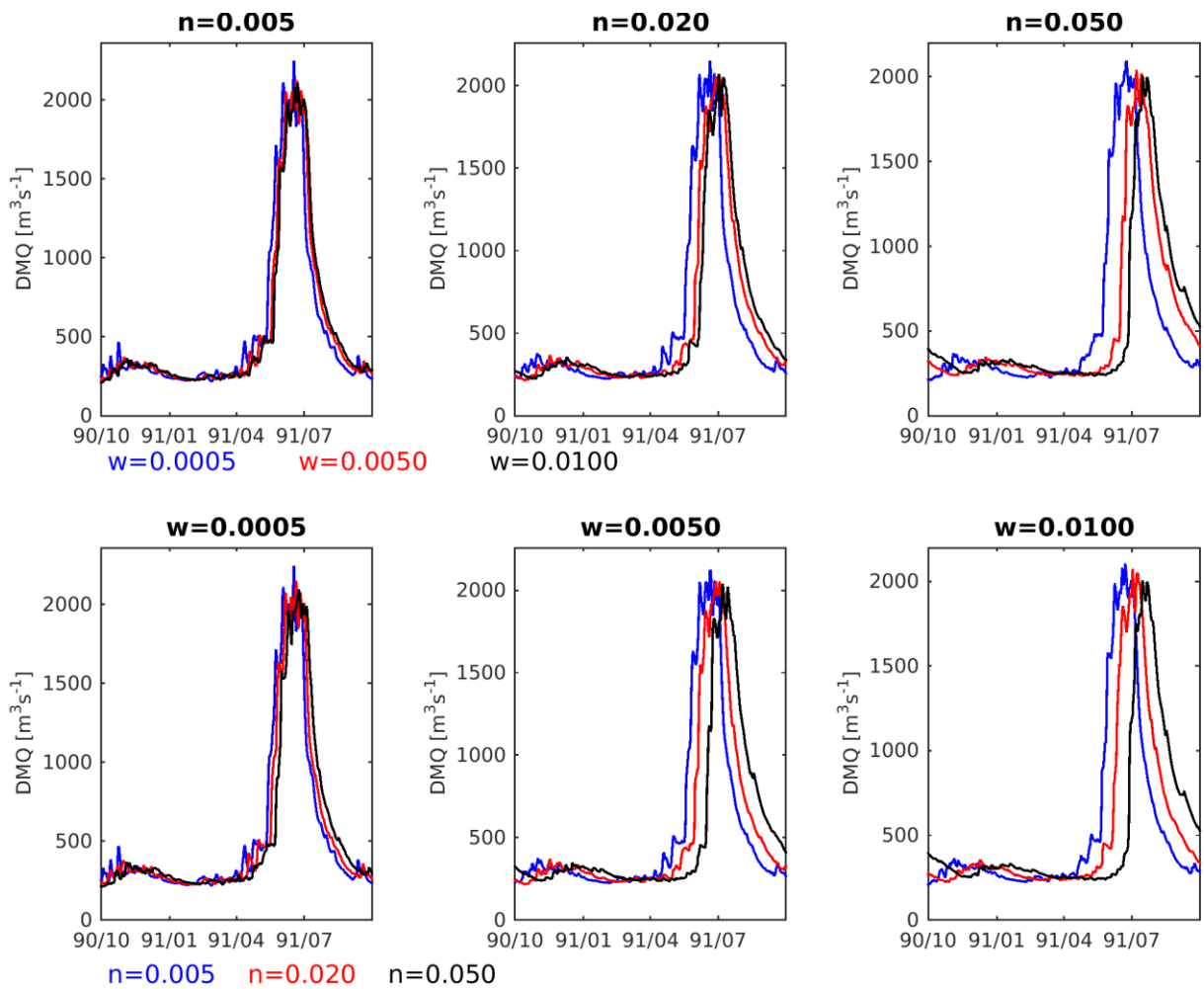
671 [Figure 6](#). Daily mean streamflow (DMQ) at the three selected gauges in the GF river network. See
 672 [Figure 5](#) for the locations of the three gauges.

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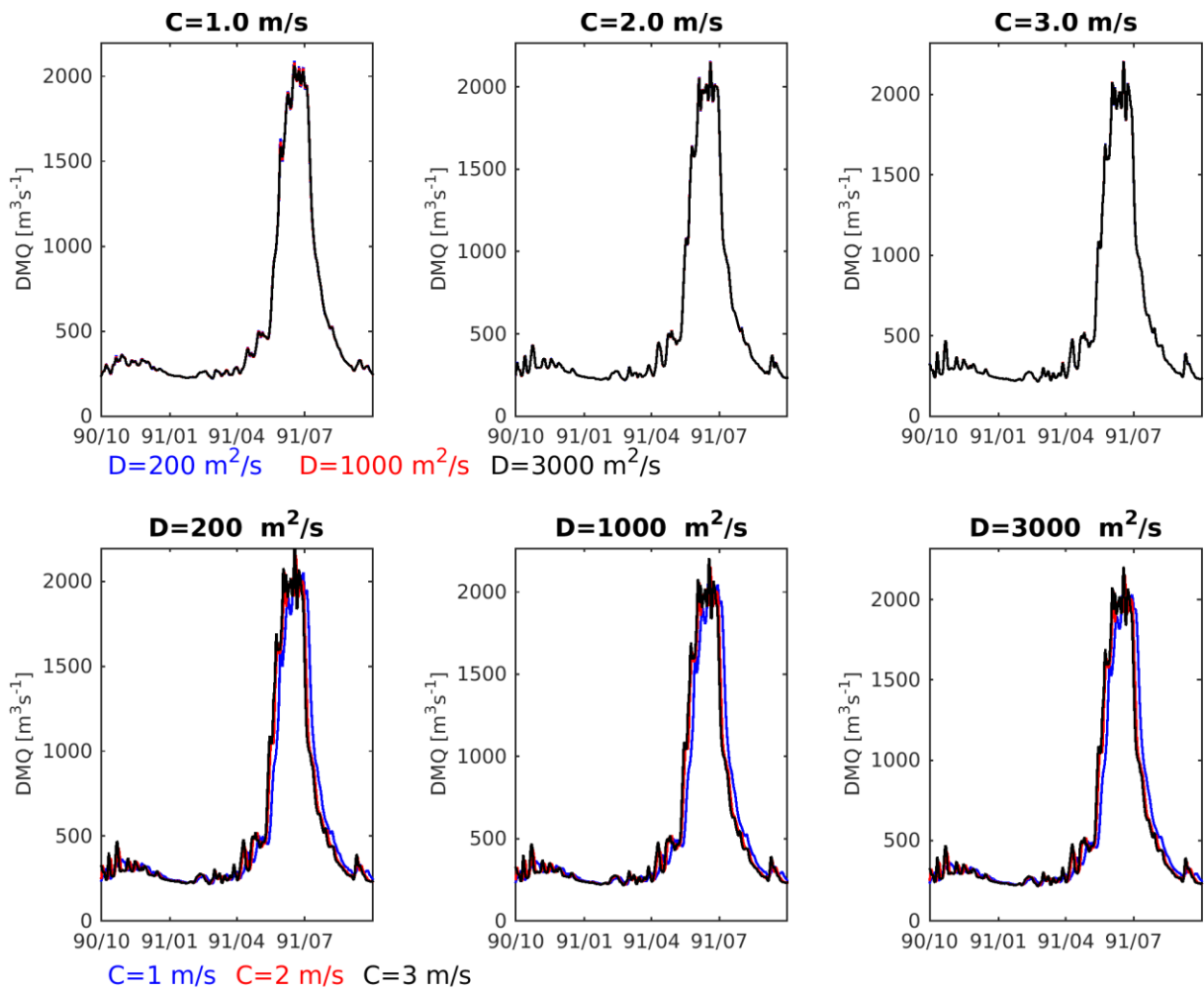
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675 [Figure 7](#). Monthly mean of CMIP5 projected streamflow at three locations indicated in Figure 4.
 676 (left column- Snake River Below Ice Harbor Dam, middle column- Colorado River at Lees Ferry,
 677 and right column- Apalachicola River Near Blountstown). The river routing scheme is KWT.
 678 Monthly mean values are computed over three future periods (Top- P1 2010-2039, Middle- P2
 679 2040-2069 and bottom- P3 2070-2099). The dash line denotes streamflow estimated from runoff
 680 output from VIC forced by M02 historical data while grey lines indicate projected streamflow based
 681 on future runoff outputs from VIC forced by 28 CMIP5 RCP8.5 data



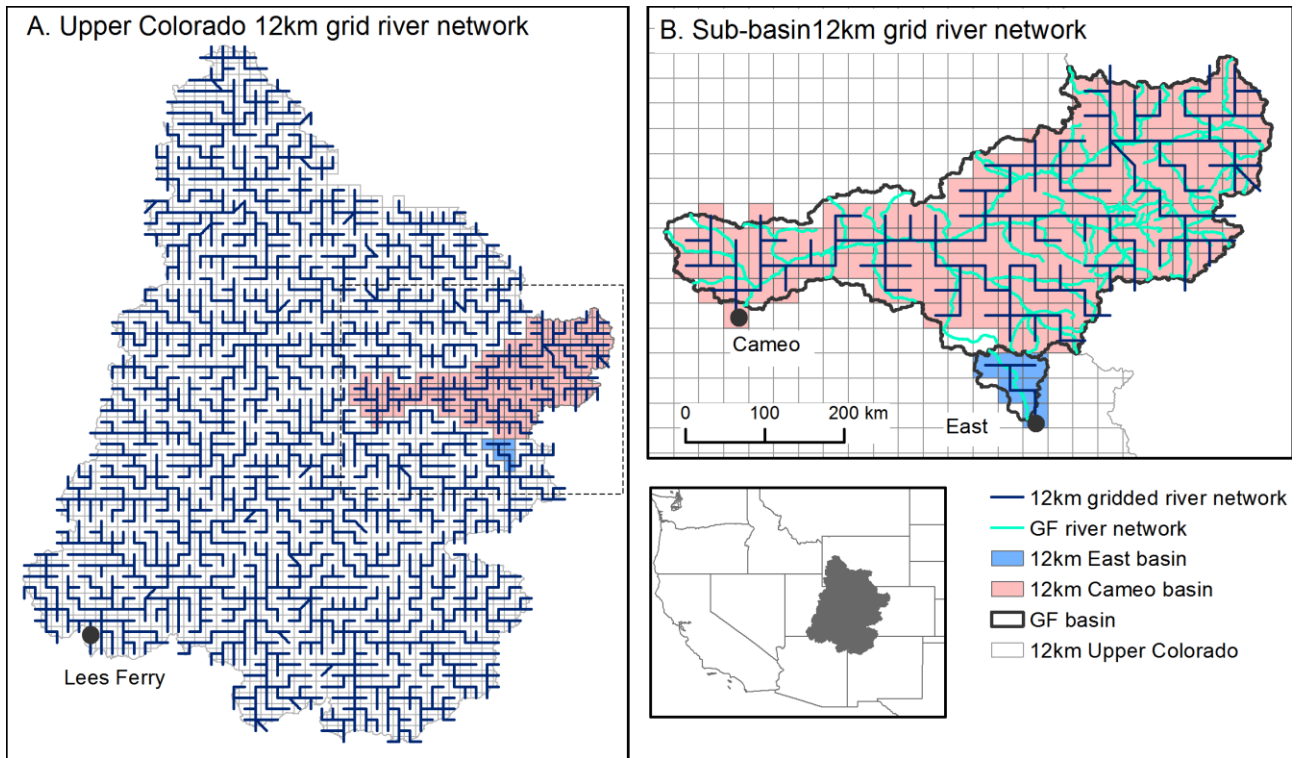
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Figure 8. Sensitivity of simulated runoff at Colorado River at Lees Ferry (Location B in Figure 4) to the two KWT parameters. The top panel shows sensitivity to width factor w with three fixed Manning coefficients n (from left to right: $n = 0.005$, 0.02 , and 0.05). The bottom panel shows sensitivity to Manning coefficient n with three fixed width factor w (from left to right: $W = 0.0005$, 0.0050 , and 0.0100).



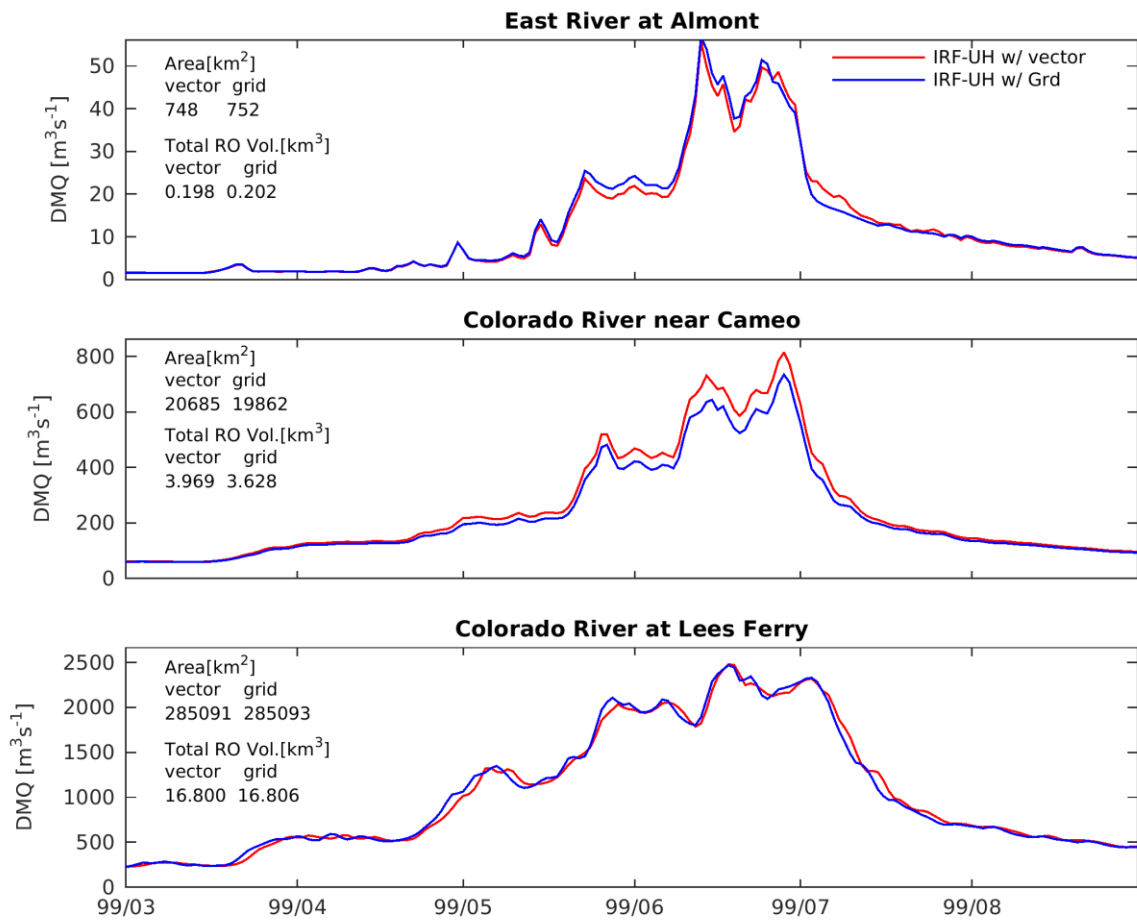
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Figure 9. Sensitivity of simulated runoff at Colorado River at Lees Ferry (Location B in Figure 4) to IRF-UH parameters. The top panels show sensitivity to diffusivity D with three fixed celerity C values (from left to right: $C = 1.0, 2.0,$ and 3.0 ms^{-1}). The bottom panels show sensitivity to celerity C with three fixed diffusivity D values (from left to right: $D = 200, 1000,$ and 3000 ms^{-2}).



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Figure 10. $1/8^\circ$ (~12km) grid-based river network for the upper Colorado River Basin (panel A) and two sub-basins inside the upper Colorado- Colorado River near Cameo and East River at Almont (panel B). HRUs for each GF river segment are not shown for clarity in panel B.



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 701 Figure 11. Comparison of IRF-UH routed flow with two river networks ($1/8^\circ$ grid-based river
 702 network and GF vector-based river network) at three locations in the upper Colorado River basin
 703 (See Figure 10 for river network and basin boundaries).