

1 **Machine Learning Assisted Reservoir Operation Model for**
2 **Long-Term Water Management Simulation**

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RESEARCH IMPACT STATEMENT

45 Hybrid rule-based and data-driven models for reservoir operations are more
46 accurate than either class of models alone, and can maintain physical consistency in long-
47 term water management simulations.

48

ABSTRACT

49 This study explores strategies for long-term reservoir simulations by combining
50 generic rule-based reservoir management model (RMM) and machine learning (ML)
51 models for two major multipurpose reservoirs – Allatoona Lake and Lake Sidney Lanier
52 in the southeastern US. First, a standalone RMM is developed to simulate daily release and
53 storage during Water Year 1981–2015. Next, using Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) as
54 the ML technique, a standalone LSTM model is trained based on reservoir inflow and
55 meteorological observations to simulate reservoir release and estimate reservoir storage
56 through water balance calculation. Three hybrid modeling strategies are developed, one
57 using RMM output as an additional LSTM input (H1), another using LSTM as the initial
58 release estimate in RMM (H2), and the third combining the first two strategies (H3). The
59 Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) for release (NSE-r), storage (NSE-s) and their mean
60 (NSE-avg) are used for model evaluation. Overall, H1 improves NSE-r to 0.65 and 0.54
61 for Allatoona and Lanier respectively, compared to standalone RMM (0.44 and 0.21);
62 however its storage trajectory did not produce a physically feasible solution, similar to
63 LSTM. H2 and especially H3 show that they can retain the best features from RMM and
64 LSTM, with H3 NSE-avg being 0.695 and 0.55 for Allatoona and Lanier outperforming
65 RMM (0.615 and 0.29). The findings suggest a robust simulation capacity for large-scale
66 water management in future studies.

67 **Keywords:** Reservoir operation, Machine learning, LSTM, Hybrid modeling, Long-term
68 water management.

INTRODUCTION

69

70 Reservoirs are an important surface water management infrastructure that regulate
71 natural hydrologic variabilities to support a variety of human activities (Ehsani et al. 2017;
72 Yang et al. 2016). Globally, there are around 60,000 large dams (i.e., >15 m height or >3
73 million m³ storage) providing a combined storage that can hold around one-fifth of total
74 annual natural runoff (ICOLD 2020; Wisser et al. 2013). Given their significant influence
75 on streamflow variabilities, the accurate representation of reservoirs is vital to studies
76 across multiple scales, such as reservoir-specific operational forecasting, basin-scale water
77 resources planning, and national-scale hydroclimate projections. However, due to
78 insufficient data and process representation, the characterization of human alterations to
79 hydrologic systems through large-scale reservoir operation remains a major challenge
80 (Yassin et al. 2019) in the Earth and water resources modeling communities.

81 Reservoir operations are conventionally represented by rule-based reservoir
82 management models (RMMs) that mimic reservoir management decisions following a
83 series of operational rules and water balance calculation. A decision to release or store the
84 water is governed by pre-determined operational rule curves (e.g., targeted reservoir
85 elevation at each month), or by other flood control, environmental or legal compliance
86 constraints. Detailed RMMs such as HEC-ResSim and RiverWare (Klipsch and Hurst
87 2013; Zagona et al. 2001) have been used to support operational decisions, but can only be
88 set up when the “full” reservoir information (i.e., elevation-storage relationships,
89 withdrawals, constraints, and operation rules) are available. Since many reservoir-related
90 information are either safety- or business-sensitive, the full reservoir information is usually
91 unavailable which makes the applications of detailed RMMs challenging. Simplified

92 RMMs which rely on generic schemes can be utilized as an alternative in large-scale
93 applications (Dang et al. 2020; Shin et al. 2019; Yassin et al. 2019), but may not reach the
94 same accuracy required for long-term water resources planning. Additionally, the
95 multipurpose reservoirs are often operated by experienced operators with their own
96 professional judgments to account for some specific local constraints that cannot be
97 precisely captured by the operation targets (Yang et al. 2019).

98 Alternatively, data-driven approaches can be used to represent reservoir operations.
99 For instance, machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) techniques have gained
100 attraction (Yang et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2019) due to their ability to capture non-linear
101 relationships and detect patterns in the historic reservoir operation and release information.
102 The ML-based techniques may also be used to derive operational rule curves which can
103 then be used as inputs within RMMs (Coerver et al. 2018). ML techniques such as artificial
104 neural network (ANN; (Brêda et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2018)), recurrent neural network
105 (RNN; (Yang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019)), long short term memory (LSTM; (Zhang et
106 al. 2018)), support vector machine, and classification and regression tree (Yang et al. 2016)
107 have been utilized in several reservoir operation applications, mostly focusing on the
108 prediction of reservoir release. However, while ML-based models may yield good
109 performance in real-time or short-term release forecasting (Yang et al. 2019), given their
110 purely data driven nature, it is unclear if they can also be used to simulate other reservoir
111 functions (e.g., storage) to support long-term water resource planning. In particular, the
112 lack of process representations may result in physically infeasible outputs, especially when
113 inputs are outside the range of training data. These effects may even be more pronounced

114 when ML-based models are used for multi-decadal projections, in which large changes of
115 hydroclimate conditions can be expected.

116 At the intersection lies the hybrid modeling approach that can leverage the
117 individual strengths of both process-based and ML-based models. The hybrid modeling
118 approach has shown promises in various fields in hydrology such as streamflow simulation
119 (Konapala et al. 2020; Lu et al. 2021) and lake water temperature modeling (Jia et al. 2021;
120 Read et al. 2019). The hybrid models can be developed through different strategies, such
121 as using ML to improve the raw predictions made by process-based models (Konapala et
122 al. 2020), predict model residuals (Wan et al. 2018), or by incorporating a physics-based
123 loss function during regularization (Khandelwal et al. 2020). In some instances, the ML-
124 based models may be used to replace certain physical processes for a better and more
125 efficient process representation. For instance, Ehsani et al. (2015) developed a general
126 reservoir operation scheme using ANN coupled with a water balance model and
127 demonstrated its applicability for climate change application in a follow-up study (Ehsani
128 et al. 2017). However, even though the hybrid modeling approach has emerged in
129 hydrologic studies, their potentials in simulating reservoir functions have not been fully
130 explored. For long-term water resources planning, it is of interest to understand if the
131 hybrid approach may provide a feasible and efficient solution at expanded temporal and
132 spatial scales.

133 In this study, we explore the potential of hybrid RMM-LSTM in representing
134 reservoir dynamics (i.e., both reservoir storage and release) for long-term water
135 management simulation and its usefulness for multi-decadal projections. The main
136 objectives are to (1) explore the suitability and challenges of RMM- and LSTM-only

137 models in representing dynamics of complex multipurpose reservoirs, and (2) explore if
138 the hybrid modeling approach can improve the reservoir representation for applications in
139 integrated modeling systems over multi-decadal timescales. We utilized an existing RMM
140 from Gangrade (2019) adopted to two major multipurpose reservoirs in the southeastern
141 United States, Allatoona Lake and Lake Sidney Lanier serving the greater Atlanta
142 metropolitan area. The standalone RMM was developed to simulate daily release and
143 storage during Water Year (WY) 1980–2015 using long-term reservoir inflow observations
144 and reservoir pertinent information (physical attributes of dam). We developed a
145 standalone LSTM based on reservoir inflow and meteorological observations to simulate
146 reservoir release, and then used water balance calculation to estimate the corresponding
147 reservoir storage. We then considered three hybrid models by combining RMM and LSTM,
148 one using RMM output as an additional LSTM input, another using LSTM as the initial
149 release estimate in RMM, and the third combining the two strategies. We evaluate and
150 compare the performance of these different modeling approaches to understand their
151 strengths and limitations for further expanded applications.

152

153 **STUDY AREA AND DATA**

154 We focus on two multipurpose reservoirs in the southeast United States, Allatoona
155 Lake and Dam (Allatoona) and Lake Lanier and Buford Dam (Lanier) within Alabama
156 Coosa Tallapoosa (ACT) and Apalachicola-Chattahoochee-Flint (ACF) River Basin,
157 respectively (Figure 1). The reservoirs are owned and operated by US Army Corps of
158 Engineers (USACE). The upstream drainage area of both reservoirs is similar (i.e., ~2850
159 km² for Allatoona and ~2,700 km² for Lanier). The conservation pool capacity for Lanier

160 is ~1,283 million m³ (1,040,400 acre-ft), which is roughly three times larger than
161 Allatoona. Jointly, Allatoona and Lanier provide multiple benefits such as flood risk
162 management, hydropower generation, navigation, water supply, water quality, fish and
163 wildlife conservation, and recreation to the community. These reservoirs also provide
164 municipal and industrial water supply to the Atlanta metropolitan and surrounding urban
165 areas (USACE 2015; USACE 2017). Given their importance in the region and the ongoing
166 water allocation conflict between the states of Alabama, Georgia, and Florida, they make
167 a suitable and an interesting test case for this study.

168 [Figure 1]

169 The reservoir pertinent information is available through the master water control
170 manuals for both ACT and ACF river basins (USACE 2015; USACE 2017). The long-term
171 inflow, release and storage observations are obtained from Duke University's USACE
172 Database (<https://nicholasinstitute.duke.edu/reservoir-data/>) where peer-reviewed daily
173 observation is available until September 2015. For further information, readers are referred
174 to (Patterson and Doyle 2018). The meteorological observations including daily
175 precipitation and temperature are obtained from Daymet (<https://daymet.ornl.gov/>;
176 (Thornton et al. 2021)), which is a widely used gridded meteorological data product from
177 1980 to present for the entire North America at 1 km horizontal resolution. An area-
178 weighted average timeseries for the upstream catchments of both reservoirs was derived
179 for WY 1981–2015 using the latest Daymet V4 data which provides several enhancements
180 such as reduced bias in timing among others.

181

METHODOLOGY

182

Rule-based Management Model

183

184 The RMM used in the study is a simplified and decoupled version of an
185 intermediate complexity multipurpose reservoir module from DHSVM-Res (Zhao et al.
186 2016). It employs a storage-release scheme by dividing the total reservoir storage into
187 several management pools. The reservoir release volume (Q_t) at any given time (t) is
188 determined based on the current reservoir storage (S_t) with respect to different management
189 pool volumes. Similar practice is also adopted by USACE for Allatoona and Lanier,
190 making this a suitable approach. During the setup of RMM, we only use top of the
191 conservation pool as the operational target, while in reality Allatoona and Lanier are
192 operated on more complex set of rules. Although this model is relatively simple compared
193 to USACE's operational model, it is set up with publicly available information and has
194 showed reasonable performance reported by Zhao et al. (2016) and Gangrade (2019).
195 Further details and equation are provided in Supplementary Information (SI).

Long Short-Term Memory Network

196

197 LSTM network is a subset of RNN and has shown promise in hydrological/
198 reservoir operation forecasting due to its ability to learn long-term non-linear relationship
199 in the temporal data. The LSTM architecture includes an additional cell state compared to
200 RNN, and three gates including forget, input and output gates to control the flow of
201 information between cell states and hidden states (Kratzert et al. 2018). Further details and
202 equation are provided in Supplementary Information (SI). In this study we utilize a single-
203 layer LSTM model to learn the N-to-1 relationship, i.e., using inputs from previous N
204 timesteps to predict output at the next time step. The details about the input variables are

205 described later. We conducted a grid-based search to identify the following
206 hyperparameters: (1) length of previous N time steps (i.e., lookback window size) from the
207 input timeseries [values used: 90-, 180-, and 365-day], (2) hidden size: number of hidden
208 units of the recurrent layer [values used: 5, 10, 20, and 40], and (3) learning rate: [values
209 used: 0.01, 0.001, 0.005, and 0.0005]. A constant dropout rate of 0.1 was utilized to avoid
210 overfitting in the network training. The calibration period used by RMM (WY 1981-1998)
211 is split into 90/10 ratio as training and validation data for LSTM network training and
212 hyperparameter tuning. The following network architecture and learning rate perform best
213 for the validation data: 365-day lookback window, 40 hidden states, and a learning rate of
214 0.005 (for Allatoona) and 0.01 (for Lanier). These hyperparameter values were then kept
215 unchanged to provide a fair evaluation among different hybrid experiments as described in
216 later sections. During the experiments the LSTM networks are trained on full calibration
217 period (WY1981-1998) to minimize the loss value (mean squared error) between the
218 observed and predicted release until no further improvement is seen for loss function in
219 validation period (WY 1999-2015) for consistency with RMM experiments. All LSTM
220 experiments are conducted using PyTorch library. The LSTM code was adapted from
221 publicly available LSTM implementation for rainfall-runoff modeling from Kratzert et al.
222 (2018).

223 *Experimental Setup*

224 We present an overview of different approaches to simulate reservoir dynamics
225 (i.e., both release and storage) through following simulations. The experimental setup is
226 also presented as a schematic in Figure 2.

227 [Figure 2]

228 **Simulation 1 – Standalone RMM.** We setup a standalone RMM model using historical
229 timeseries of inflow, outflow, storage, operational target for both Allatoona and Lanier at
230 daily time step. We simulate timeseries of both reservoir release and storage which are
231 compared against the observations. Using the available input data (such as inflow, release,
232 storage, operational target, and other physical attributes of reservoir.) from WY 1981–
233 2015, the model is setup to simulate release and storage. As the records of water-demand
234 are not available, an average net flux volume (F_t) is determined based on the difference
235 between historical inflow and release for both reservoirs. We also specify the initial
236 reservoir storage looked up from historical observations. The first half of data (WY 1981–
237 1998) is used for model calibration, while the second half (WY 1999–2015) is used for
238 model validation. During calibration, the daily Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) is
239 maximized for release and storage simultaneously using shuffled complex evolution
240 algorithm (SCE; (Duan et al. 1994)), by adjusting selected parameters as suggested by Zhao
241 et al. (2016).

242 **Simulation 2 – Standalone LSTM.** We develop a standalone LSTM model to predict
243 reservoir release using daily timeseries of reservoir inflow, daily precipitation,
244 temperature, and weekday vs. weekend as inputs. The same calibration and validation
245 periods (with standalone RMM) are used to train and test the LSTM network. Since the
246 LSTM network here does not calculate reservoir storage explicitly, a storage trajectory is
247 calculated by using the LSTM simulated reservoir release as Q_t in the water balance
248 equation (SI; Eq. 1).

249 **Simulation 3 – Hybrid 1 (H1).** Here we test first hybrid approach, which uses process-
250 based RMM model outputs to train a LSTM network. In particular, we train LSTM network

251 to predict daily release using daily timeseries of reservoir inflow, daily precipitation,
252 temperature, weekday vs. weekend, and RMM simulated release and storage as inputs.
253 Similar to Simulation 2, the final reservoir storage is calculated using the water balance
254 equation (SI; Eq. 1).

255 **Simulation 4 – Hybrid 2 (H2).** Next, we test another way to leverage the benefits of both
256 LSTM and RMM. Here the RMM release scheme is modified to accept the predicted
257 release ($Q_{pred,t}$) from the standalone LSTM from Simulation 2 as an initial estimate of
258 release. A water balance check is then performed to ensure that the reservoir storage can
259 remain physically feasible with the predicted release. If the storage will be largely below
260 the conversion pool target ($S_t < OT_t$), the final release is reduced by $Q_t = r2 * Q_{pred,t}$.
261 Otherwise, if the storage will be largely above the flood control pool target, the final release
262 is enlarged by $Q_t = r3 * Q_{pred,t}$. Here $r2$ and $r3$ are empirical factors to impose water
263 balance constrain specific to a reservoir and can be further calibrated. Such correction is
264 helpful to maintain reasonable water balance over time. The RMM with modified release
265 scheme is referred as RMM*.

266 **Simulation 5 – Hybrid 3 (H3).** Lastly, we test a slight variation that combine both H1 and
267 H2. Starting from H1, we first use the process-based RMM model outputs as an additional
268 input in the LSTM training to generate the initial estimate of release ($Q_{pred,t}$). The water
269 balance check in H2 is then performed to revise Q_t based the projected reservoir storage.

270 *Model Evaluation Statistics*

271 To evaluate the performance of these five different approaches, we use the
272 following measures: relative root mean squared error (RRMSE), RMSE-observation
273 standard deviation ratio (RSR), percent bias (PBIAS) and NSE. Further, we also use

274 percent bias for reservoir release during high flow volume (FHV defined as top 2 percent
275 of release) and low flow volume (HLV defined as bottom 30% of release) (Ouyang et al.
276 2021) to evaluate model performance during peak and low release regimes. Further details
277 and equation are provided in Supplementary Information (SI).

278 For all simulations, after calibration/validation of RMM or training/testing of
279 LSTM, the simulations are conducted for the entire time period (WY 1981–2015). The
280 model evaluation statistics are then reported for WY 1982–2015, by dropping the first year
281 for model spin up.

282

283 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

284 *Performance of RMM and LSTM*

285 **RMM Performance.** The RMM simulated reservoir release and storage for both
286 reservoirs are illustrated in Figure 3 & 4 (panels a and b). While the NSE of daily release
287 (NSE-r) is lower as 0.44 and 0.21, the NSE of daily storage (NSE-s) is higher as 0.79 and
288 0.37 (Figure 3b, 4b, and Table 1). Both reservoirs show an underestimation in release under
289 high flow conditions, and an overestimation in release under low flow conditions, as
290 evident by PBIAS for FHV and FLV (Table 2). Overall, RMM performs better for
291 Allatoona than Lanier, which may be explained by their different historic operations
292 (Figure 3b and 4b). While the historic reservoir storage of Allatoona was kept close to the
293 top of conservation pool, the storage of Lanier involved larger variability. In terms of
294 reservoir storage, it can be attributed to the fact that the conservation pool of Lanier is
295 roughly three times of Allatoona, and therefore Lanier has greater operational flexibility
296 than Allatoona, making it more difficult to be represented through RMM.

297 In terms of release, while the selected RMM can provide good performance at
298 weekly and monthly scales (not showed), the performance at daily scale is much weaker.
299 Upon further evaluation, it was found that the release can be quite different during weekday
300 versus weekend, possibly due to the generation of hydropower. The current release scheme
301 employed in RMM also tends to preserve water by allowing a release at a minimum rate
302 and therefore contribute to the lower performance of Lanier release. Nevertheless, the
303 current NSE-r and NSE-s are acceptable and comparable to other generic rule-based
304 RMMs as reported in the literature (Ouyang et al. 2021; Shin et al. 2019; Voisin et al. 2013;
305 Yassin et al. 2019). It demonstrates while a low-to-medium complexity release scheme (as
306 employed here by DHSVM-Res) can capture the reservoir regulation effects on release and
307 storage sufficiently, they may be inadequate to represent day-to-day operation. We note
308 that Lake Allatoona and Lanier are operated on a much more complex set of rules.
309 Capturing the full reservoir operation requires highly customizable software and detailed
310 operational information that are not fully available for open scientific research.

311 **LSTM Performance.** The LSTM simulated release (Figure 3c and 4c) and associated
312 performance statistics indicate a significant improvement in modeling daily release. The
313 NSE-r values are raised to 0.62 and 0.58 for Allatoona and Lanier, respectively. The results
314 also suggest roughly 19-27% improvement in RMSE for both reservoirs. Further, the
315 percent bias in FHV and FLV are significantly improved as reported in Table 2. This shows
316 that LSTM is able to learn and mimic the daily release patterns based on the inputs of
317 reservoir inflow, precipitation, temperature, and weekday vs. weekend. A sensitivity test
318 was conducted to understand the importance of using weekday vs. weekend as an input for
319 LSTM training (SI Table S1). The results indicated that such a differentiation may boost

320 daily NSE-r values from 0.49 to 0.62 for Allatoona and 0.46 to 0.58 for Lanier, highlighting
321 its importance in predicting reservoir release potentially due to hydropower generation
322 patterns. On a closer look at the release patterns, we also identify certain instances of
323 negative release values, which can be considered physically inconsistent in the current
324 reference.

325 We intentionally did not train on reservoir storage because that information is often
326 not available and one of our goals was to explore methods that are able to learn reservoir
327 release patterns based on widely available information. Moreover, we did not include
328 historical observations of outflow as input variables in our LSTM-predicted releases.
329 Although inclusion of observed outflow and storage may significantly improve the
330 accuracy of predicted release in short-term forecasts (Yang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019),
331 our aim is to eventually use this model for multidecadal hydroclimate studies where that
332 information is not available. For that reason, we limited our input variables to quantities
333 that are provided by hydroclimatic projections (i.e., atmospheric forcing and reservoir
334 inflows). Further, a comparison of storage trajectory indicates that LSTM predicted storage
335 did not provide physically feasible solutions in the long term, as the errors continued to
336 accumulate (Figure 3d and 4d). This is a common limitation of ML-based techniques also
337 reported by other studies (Yang et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2016).

338 [Figure 3]

339 [Figure 4]

340 *Performance of Hybrid Models*

341 **H1 Performance.** The first hybrid strategy is motivated by the approach where ML models
342 are trained using additional outputs from a process-based model (Konapala et al., 2020).

343 We test this approach through the H1 experiment. In terms of release, H1 simulated release
344 (Figure 3e and 4e) and statistics show a good performance with NSE-r of 0.65 and 0.54 for
345 Allatoona and Lanier. While it showed a large improvement when comparing to the
346 standalone RMM, there was no clear improvement when comparing to the standalone
347 LSTM (or even lower performance in Lanier). This indicates that RMM outputs for Lanier
348 are not providing meaningful information for LSTM. While it is considered that “more data
349 is usually better” for ML models, including additional input vectors may hinder the
350 efficient training of LSTM. The role and importance of input sequences requires for time-
351 series prediction application and especially for long input sequences requires further
352 exploration, which is also highlighted by Qin et al. (2017).

353 In terms of storage, while H1 showed a strong improvement than the standalone
354 LSTM (Figure 3f and 4f), the same issue remains. i.e., the errors in predicated release still
355 accumulate through time and yield unreasonable long-term storage prediction. This
356 physically inconsistent storage values can be due to the lack of mechanisms to regulate the
357 flow conditions and/or enforce physical constraints in the overall reservoir storage.

358 **H2 and H3 Performance.** The second hybrid strategy (which entails both H2 and H3
359 experiments) aims at using ML to provide an initial estimate of release. Such an estimate
360 is then revised considering the overall storage, similar to how ML may be used by an
361 operator to support decision making. In other words, both H2 and H3 releases were
362 empirically adjusted to ensure physical consistency. As a result, the performance of storage
363 prediction has been largely improved (Figures 3 & 4, Table 1). Based on the performance
364 of release (NSE-r), we also observed that H2 and H3 can retain the improvements made by
365 the standalone LSTM (Table 1 and 2, Figure 5). Evaluation of Allatoona for both release

366 and storage (i.e., daily mean NSE ($\text{NSE-avg} = (\text{NSE-r} + \text{NSE-s})/2$) suggest that compared
367 to the standalone RMM, H3 ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.695$) outperform RMM ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.615$)
368 while H2 ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.575$) may show some deterioration mainly due to storage
369 trajectory. In case of Lanier, H2 ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.52$) and H3 ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.55$) both show an
370 improvement over RMM only simulation ($\text{NSE-avg} = 0.29$).

371 [Figure 5]

372 *Implications*

373 We test different hybrid models (H1, H2 and H3) to capture reservoir dynamics
374 with a focus on long-term water management applications. Our results show encouraging
375 performance (H2 and H3) for two selected major multipurpose reservoirs under different
376 historic operations. Although the findings are based a one selected RMM (DHSVM-Res),
377 the approach is general and can also be applied to other alternative models (e.g., We et al.
378 [2020] and Gutenson et al. [2020]). The extension of these techniques to other multipurpose
379 reservoirs with diverse priorities (e.g., irrigation, hydropower, flood control, water supply,
380 etc.) in various geographical regions will be required in the future studies. Also, we tested
381 these approaches for the two selected reservoirs where historical observations of release
382 and storage were available. Extension to reservoirs with even less data will remain a major
383 challenge. Applications for cascading reservoir system or coordinated reservoirs will also
384 require further consideration and evaluation. Although we show that hybrid strategy may
385 perform satisfactorily for long-term water management simulations, the suitability of these
386 approaches in non-stationary climate conditions or in reservoirs with changing operation
387 rules, is yet to be explored.

388 The data-driven LSTM model is powerful in feature extraction and input-output
389 relationship learning. Additionally, it considers the influence of temporal dependence of
390 input sequence on the output prediction. As LSTM model is data hungry; additional,
391 relevant, good-quality data usually can help in the learning process and allow more
392 accurate and meaningful predictions. For instance, in this work, we can see that considering
393 RMM simulation data as another set of LSTM inputs, improves the prediction
394 performance. However, for reservoir operations, even with the most detailed operation
395 rules, the operators can still exercise expert judgement and make adjustments depending
396 on local conditions and prior experience that cannot be fully captured by rule-based
397 models. Therefore, LSTM has the advantage to identify and mimic those site- and personal-
398 specific features to improve the accuracy of the predictions based on the data.

399 Regarding the LSTM implementation, while we utilized a commonly used, off-the-
400 shelf LSTM implementation in this study, other more sophisticated LSTM models may
401 also be designed for the purpose of reservoir operation simulation. For instance, novel
402 architectures such as Mass-Conserving LSTM (MC-LSTM; (Hoedt et al. 2021)) which
403 allow the incorporation of physical constraints within the LSTM architecture may be
404 suitable to simulate reservoir operation. Alternatively, other LSTM architectures utilizing
405 robust physics guided loss functions and other physical mechanism to autoregulate the
406 solution may also be leveraged to further constrain the solution. Lastly, we explored the
407 application of LSTM as our ML technique in this study, however, applicability of other
408 ML techniques such as reinforcement learning in lieu of LSTM may also be evaluated.

409 All-in-all, given the rapid development of ML methods in the recent decade, it is
410 possible that a new ML model tailored for long-term water management simulation can be

411 designed. Nevertheless, given the need of process-based understandings (especially for
412 hydroclimate studies), our future ML models should also be explainable, which has been
413 one biggest limitation of data-driven ML approaches. We believe that the hybrid modeling
414 approach, effectively integrate physical modeling and ML, entails the strength of both
415 standalone models remain one most efficient and credible modeling choice.

416

417

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

418 RMMs can reasonably represent long-term reservoir dynamics (release and
419 storage) in a hydrologic system, but their application is limited due to challenges associated
420 with limited reservoir pertinent data availability and expertise necessary to accurately
421 incorporate human decisions. Alternatively, ML techniques can efficiently learn reservoir
422 operation patterns from historical data and perform reasonably well in the short-term
423 forecasting. However, the pure ML-based technique may result in physically inconsistent
424 outputs especially in the long-term hydroclimate simulations where errors may continue to
425 accumulate due to lack of physical mechanisms. To overcome the individual challenges of
426 both techniques, hybrid strategies may be suitable to leverage the best of both. Using both
427 RMM and LSTM, this study evaluates three RMM-LSTM hybrid models against their
428 standalone counterparts to simulate reservoir storage and release for the purpose of long-
429 term water management simulations. For the two selected multipurpose reservoirs with
430 different operations, we found that the hybrid approach can efficiently leverage the benefits
431 of both RMM and LSTM and can robustly reproduce both release and storage at the
432 multidecadal timescales.

433 While the applicability to other types of reservoirs in different geographical regions
434 is to be tested, given ML’s impressive capabilities in identifying hidden patterns from
435 available historic observations, the broader applications can be expected. Since many
436 reservoir-related information may never be openly released to the public, the ML-enabled
437 modeling approach may be our best choice to simulate large-scale, regulated streamflow
438 under the influence of multiple reservoir systems for the purpose of continental-scale
439 streamflow forecasting, water resource planning, and hydroclimate projections.

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449 published form of this manuscript, or allow others to do so, for US Government purposes.

450 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

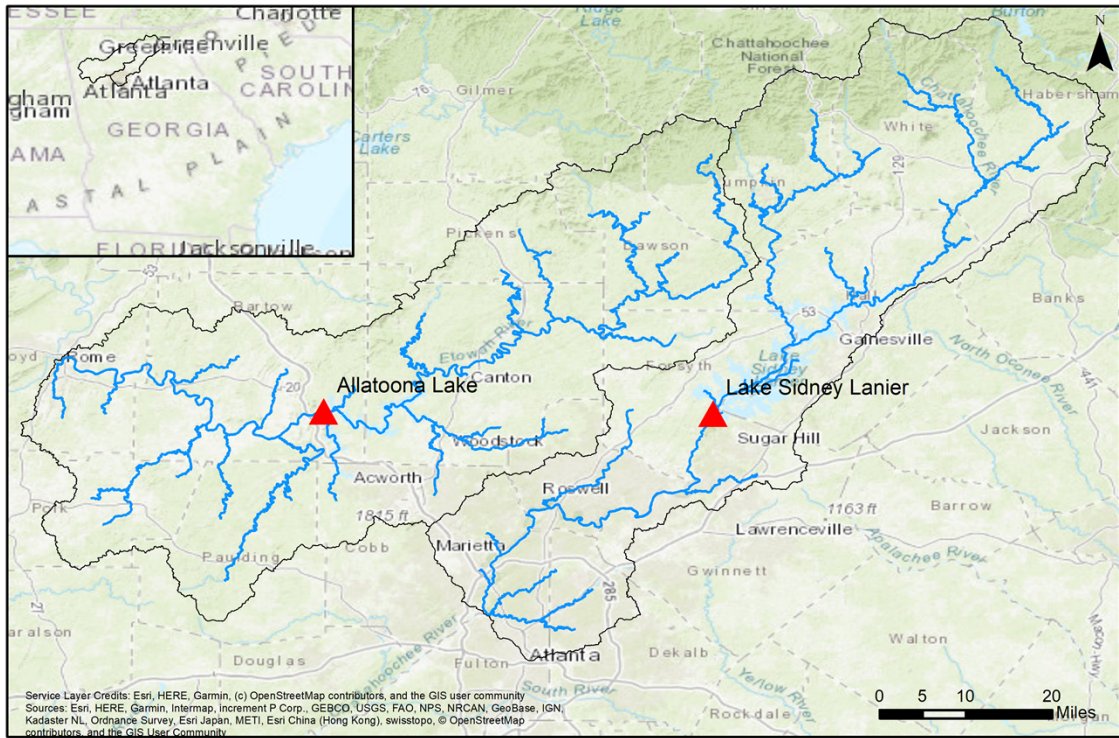
451
452 The meteorological data used in the study is open access and can be obtained from
453 Daymet website (<https://daymet.ornl.gov/>). The reservoir related information is also in
454 public domain gathered from USACE website and Duke University’s Database
455 (<https://nicholasinstitute.duke.edu/reservoir-data/>). The LSTM code is adapted from

456 Kratzert et al. (2018). The RMM is adapted from DHSVM-RES reservoir module which
457 can be obtained from contacting the authors Zhao et al. (2016). The SCE optimization
458 algorithm was used from public MATLAB repository ([https://www.mathworks.com/
459 matlabcentral/fileexchange/7671-shuffled-complex-evolution-sce-ua-method](https://www.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/7671-shuffled-complex-evolution-sce-ua-method)) from Duan
460 (2021).

461

462

FIGURES AND TABLES

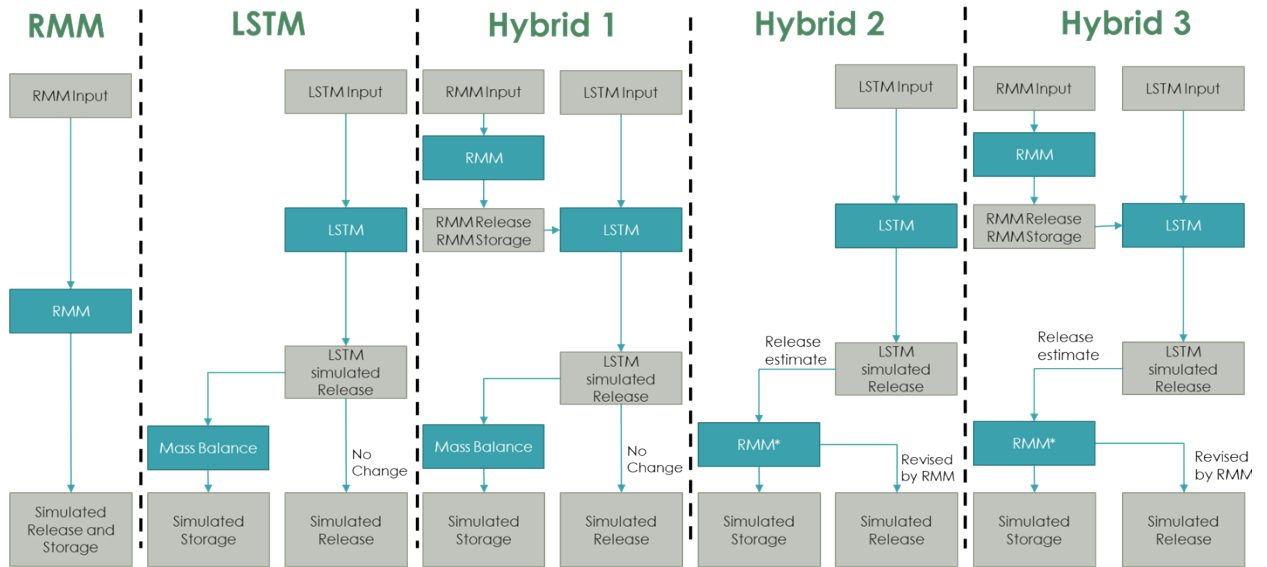


464

465 Figure 1. Lakes Allatoona and Lanier near Atlanta metropolitan area in the southeast

466 United States.

467

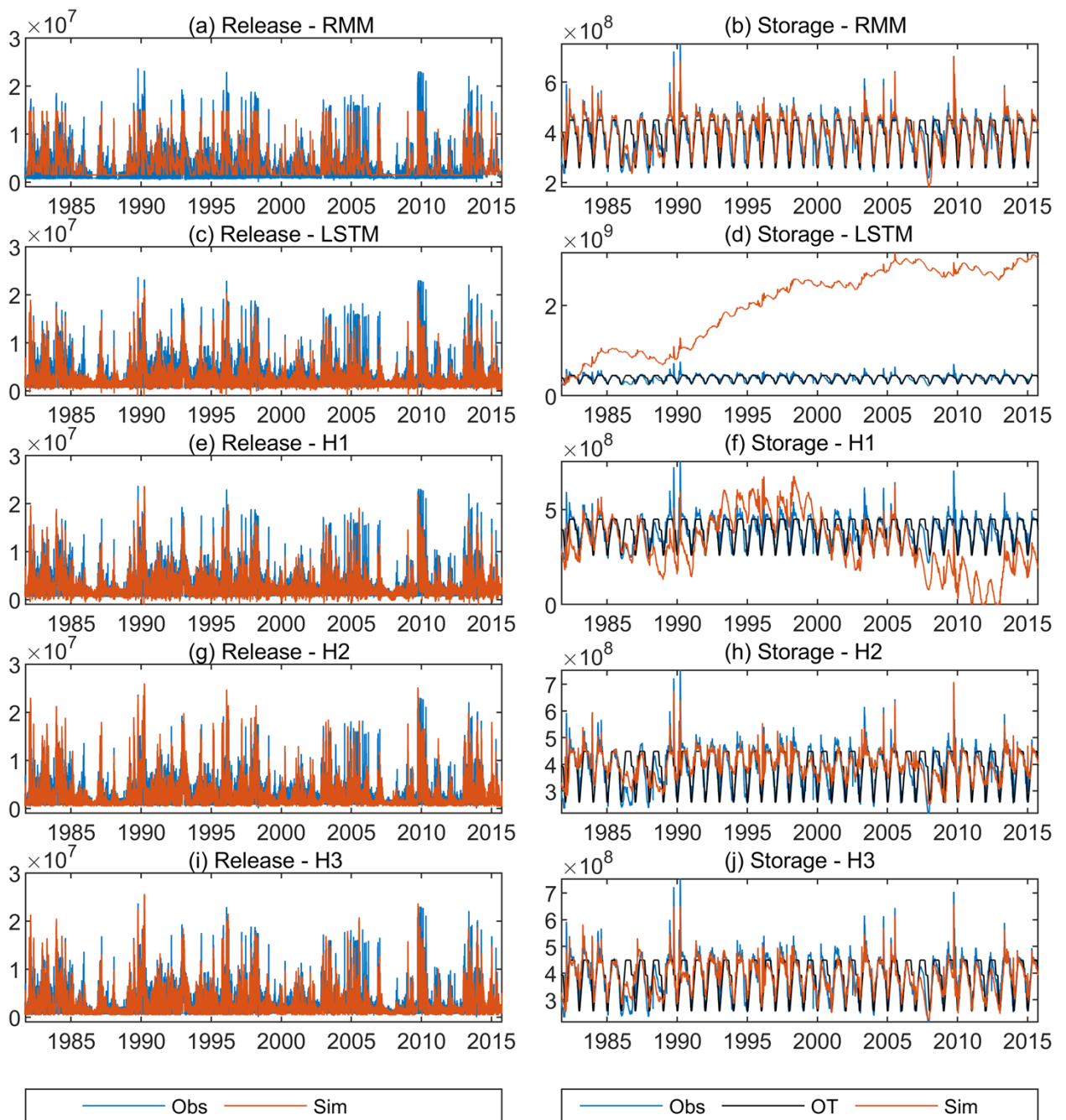


- RMMInput - Reservoir Inflow, Seasonal Operational Storage and Release Targets, Reservoir physical characteristics
- LSTMInput - Reservoir Inflow, Precipitation, Temperature, Week of the day
- RMM* - modified release scheme of RMM to accept LSTM simulated release as an initial estimate

468
469

Figure 2. Schematic of five experimental setup.

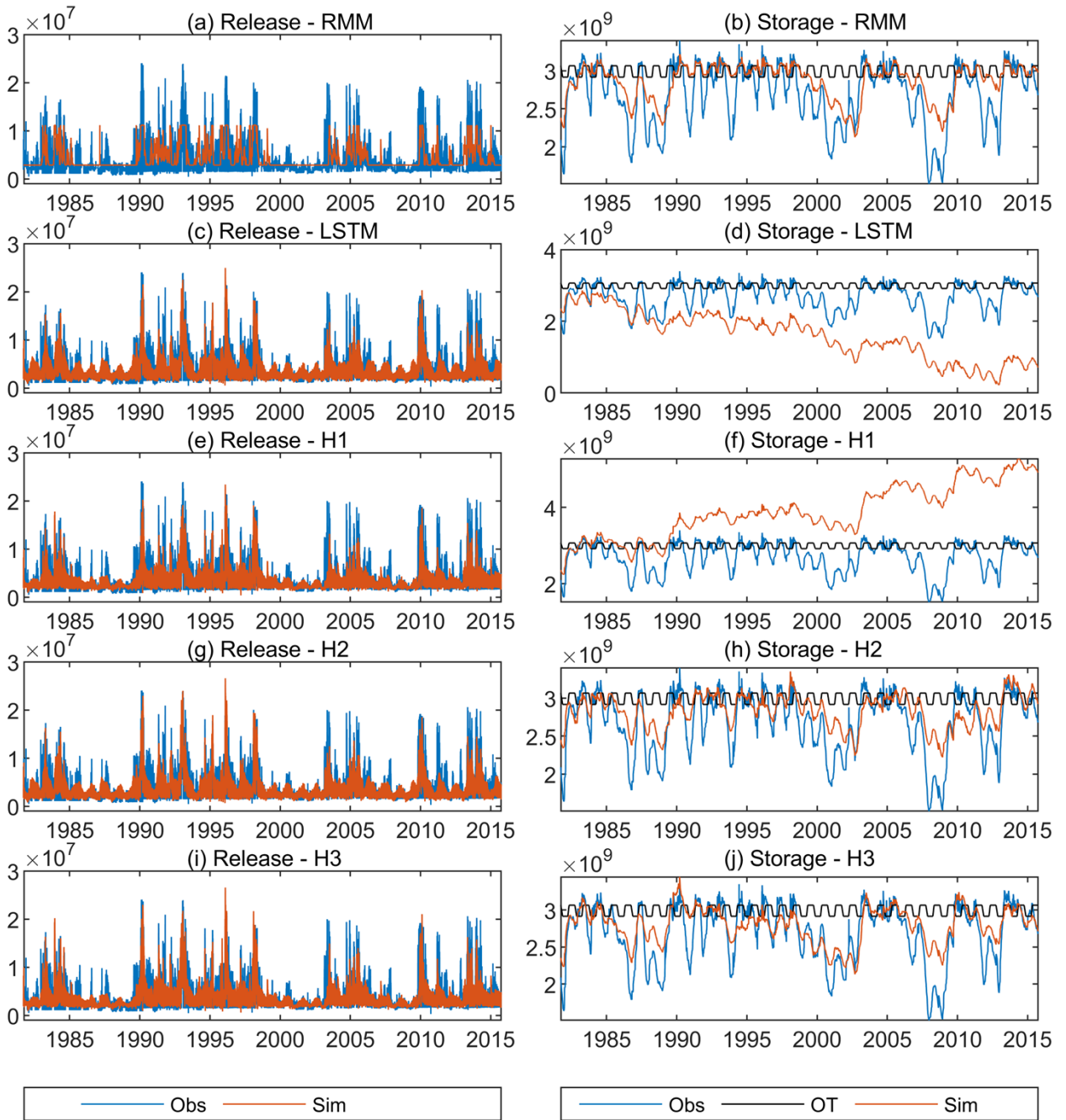
470



471

472 Figure 3. Observed and simulated daily reservoir release volume (m^3) and storage (m^3) for

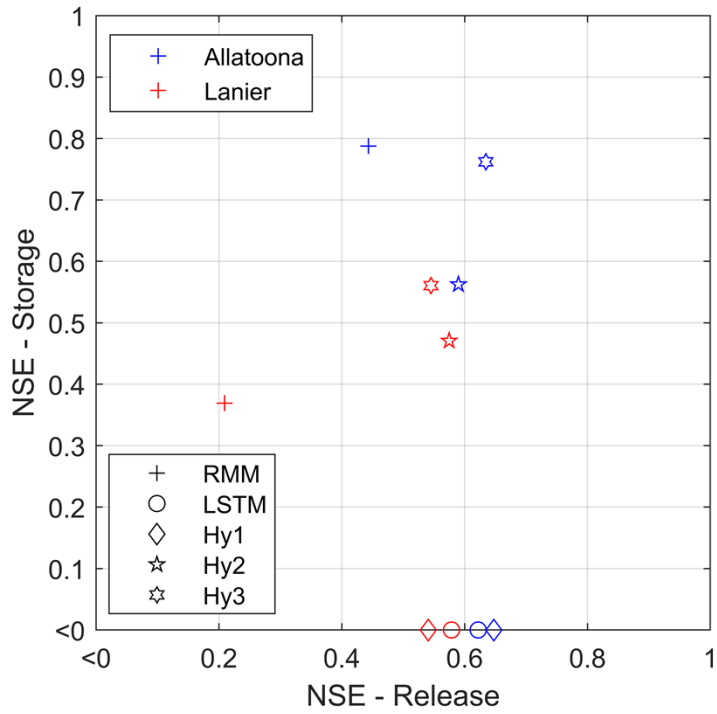
473 WY 1982–2015 for Lake Allatoona.



475

476 Figure 4. Observed and simulated daily reservoir release volume (m³) and storage (m³)

477 for WY 1982-2015 for Lake Lanier.



478

479 Figure 5. Summary of daily NSE for release and storage for Allatoona (blue) and Lanier
 480 (red) from all simulations during WY 1982-2015.

481

482
483

Table 1. Summary Statistics for NSE, PBIAS, RRMSE, and RSR.

Reservoir	Simulation	NSE	PBIAS	RRMSE	RSR
Allatoona – Release	RMM	0.44	0.17	0.75	0.75
	LSTM	0.62	-5.48	0.61	0.61
	H1	0.65	0.40	0.59	0.59
	H2	0.59	0.06	0.64	0.64
	H3	0.63	0.07	0.60	0.60
Allatoona–Storage	RMM	0.79	2.40	0.09	0.46
	LSTM	-619.10	419.55	4.73	24.90
	H1	-3.03	-16.12	0.38	2.01
	H2	0.56	2.12	0.13	0.66
	H3	0.76	-0.74	0.09	0.49
Lanier–Release	RMM	0.21	-0.67	0.75	0.89
	LSTM	0.58	3.50	0.55	0.65
	H1	0.54	-4.34	0.57	0.68
	H2	0.57	-0.43	0.55	0.65
	H3	0.55	-0.23	0.57	0.67
Lanier–Storage	RMM	0.37	6.57	0.12	0.79
	LSTM	-8.87	-39.76	0.47	3.14
	H1	-11.01	44.79	0.52	3.47
	H2	0.47	5.29	0.11	0.73
	H3	0.56	4.03	0.10	0.66

484

485

486

487 **Table 2.** Summary Statistics for FHV and FLV.

Reservoir	Simulation	PBIAS-FHV	PBIAS-FLV
Allatoona - Release	RMM	-29.0	279.9
	LSTM	-25.9	114.3
	H1	-23.7	115.5
	H2	-11.4	109.2
	H3	-17.9	108.7
Lanier -Release	RMM	-45.1	141.0
	LSTM	-24.1	69.3
	H1	-32.2	64.2
	H2	-22.4	60.5
	H3	-24.4	68.2

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