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1 **HyGage: Solving the Hysteresis Puzzle with a New Streamflow  
2 Monitoring Method**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The questionable reliability of discharges obtained using the traditional stage-discharge  
13 method under gradually varied flow conditions continues to motivate the search for  
14 improved monitoring approaches that support water resources management, streamflow  
15 forecasting, and multipurpose scientific investigations related to the water cycle. This  
16 paper introduces HyGage, a new physically based monitoring method grounded in the  
17 governing equations of spatiotemporal, gradually varied, shallow open channel flow. The  
18 methodology integrates measurement elements commonly employed in the index velocity  
19 and slope area methods within a unified analytical framework, enabling real time discharge  
20 estimation in both steady and gradually varied flows without relying on the semi empirical  
21 techniques of the past. The performance of HyGage is evaluated by comparing its discharge  
22 estimates with those obtained from established methods. Unlike conventional approaches,  
23 HyGage is not built around any specific instrument; instead, it can flexibly incorporate  
24 combinations of immersed, close range, and remote sensing measurements through  
25 seamless integration.

26 **Keywords:** gradually-varied flows, streamflow monitoring, stage-discharge rating, index-  
27 velocity method, slope-area method, hybrid gaging method (HyGage)

28 **Introduction**

29 The automated monitoring of flow rates in rivers is the result of more than a century-long  
30 development with the goal of supporting observations and investigations on the water  
31 cycle for a myriad of practical and scientific uses. The oldest streamflow monitoring  
32 method is the stage-discharge rating curve (labeled herein HQRC) which continues to be  
33 widely used worldwide because it is easier to install and operate compared to other

34 approaches. The major HQRC limitation is the time-wise, quasi-steady flow assumption  
35 applied uniformly for observing flows using a single hydraulic variable, the flow depth. The  
36 flow depth is typically derived from the measurement of water surface level (a.k.a. stage)  
37 from a local gage datum. The HQRC performance is totally acceptable for quasi steady and  
38 uniform flows, conditions that are attained between precipitation events when the river is  
39 at its base flow. The base flow persistence in perennial rivers is directly related to the  
40 climatic and hydrological settings of the monitoring site. Most of the monitoring sites  
41 located in temperate and continental climates are exposed to slow evolving, sporadic  
42 spatial changes of river morphology and shorter and more frequent temporal changes in  
43 the flow regimes triggered by precipitation events passing through the station.

44 The large-scale (stream-reach) morphological changes are produced by processes that  
45 mainly affect the longitudinal river profile (e.g., migration, avulsion, vegetation growth).  
46 There are also local (cross-sectional) morphological changes that occur in the vicinity of a  
47 river gaging site (e.g., erosion, deposition, bank failure). The natural morphological changes  
48 are often compounded with those produced by man-made hydraulic structures installed in  
49 the stream (e.g., locks, dams, bridge abutments). The presence of morphological changes  
50 downstream the station leads to steady and non-uniform flows, resulting in flow storage in  
51 the stream reach. The stream-reach and cross-sectional morphological changes can act  
52 simultaneously making their detection complex and costly due to the need for recursive  
53 gaging site inspections (Darienzo et al., 2021). Morphological changes at any scale can  
54 modify or even shift the hydraulic regimes at the station (e.g., changing the flow control  
55 from channel to local) and/or create areas of backwater that affect the validity of the  
56 originally constructed ratings (Herschy, 2009). Temporal changes in the flow regimes at a  
57 station are produced by runoff entering the stream or changes in the operation regimes at  
58 upstream installed hydraulic structures. These flow transitions produce unsteady and non-  
59 uniform flows over the whole duration of the transition (a.k.a. fluvial wave period).

60 For the present context, we label the spatial-temporal changes occurring at a gaging station  
61 by the term of Spatial-Temporal Gradually Varied Flow (ST-GVF). This broader definition  
62 includes unsteady, non-uniform open channel flows that gradually modify the water  
63 surface profile in the vicinity of the gaging station. These flows are not directly accounted  
64 for by the current conventional monitoring protocols based on stage, index-velocity, or free  
65 slope measurements because these methods assume the perpetuity of the time-wise, quasi-  
66 steady flow. This assumption does not distinguish between the different flow mechanisms  
67 on the rising and falling limbs of the hydrographs during ST-GVFs and those acting during  
68 steady flows (Muste et al., 2025b).

69 Propagation of ST-GVFs through gaging stations often involves both flow storage and flow  
70 unsteadiness in the vicinity of the measurement site (Rantz et al., 1982; Dykstra &  
71 Dzwonkowski, 2020). These flow variations give rise to hysteretic behavior in the stream.  
72 Hysteresis is a nonlinear process in which the state of the system depends not only on its  
73 current input but also on the sequence of prior conditions that led to that state (Prowse,  
74 1984). In open-channel flows, hysteresis driven by spatiotemporal variability is pervasive,  
75 frequent, and persistent. Backwater effects can influence the full range of discharges, while  
76 unsteady flows in temperate-climate inland rivers often account for more than 50% of

77 annual flow conditions (Muste et al., 2025a). Hysteresis also appears in other fields—such  
78 as magnetism, electrical systems, and mechanical systems—and can be characterized  
79 mathematically for deterministic signals (Ikhouane, 2013) or analytically when the  
80 governing physical laws are known.

81 The simple HQRC method is the least sensitive method to ST-GVF-induced hysteresis as it  
82 traces the flows through a one-to one stage-discharge relationship. The intrinsic mechanics  
83 of ST-GVFs leads to non-unique, hysteretic relationships between any pair of hydraulic  
84 variables, especially when high magnitude and flashy hydrologic events occur in low-land  
85 rivers (Dottori et al., 2009; Muste et al., 2020; Muste et al., 2025a). Continuing to overlook  
86 the hysteretic behavior of hydraulic variables during unsteady flows epitomizes a  
87 departure from our knowledge of the physical processes underlining open-channel  
88 hydraulics resulting in epistemic uncertainties (Schmidt, 2002; Beven, 2016). Epistemic  
89 uncertainties compound other sources of streamflow-monitoring error (Baldassarre &  
90 Montanari, 2009; Westerberg & Karlsen, 2024), rendering data unreliable, especially  
91 during extreme flows (Dottori et al., 2018; Kreibich et al., 2022) when the accuracy of data  
92 is of outmost importance (McMilan et al., 2017).

93 Streamflow monitoring agencies are aware of the limitations of the HQRC data acquired in  
94 real time and have tackled ST-GVF regime changes by developing correction methods  
95 based on additional ratings, analytical corrections, or making recourse to numerical  
96 simulations. The first HQRC corrections methods for ST-GVF presence were developed for  
97 unsteady flows by Jones (Jones, 1915) with subsequent refinements brought, among  
98 others, by Boyer (1937); Henderson (1966), Fenton & Keller (2001), Petersen-Øverleir  
99 (2006), and Schmidt & Yen (2009). Customized HQRC correction methods were developed  
100 to tackle steady, non-uniform flows produced by local gage controls (e.g., Arico et al., 2008;  
101 Dottori et al., 2009). HQRC correction methods have been also developed to adapt ratings  
102 to the morphological changes occurring in the station vicinity (Schmidt & Garcia, 2003;  
103 Mansanarez et al, 2019). The above-mentioned HQRC corrections are only rarely and non-  
104 uniformly applied in real time due to the additional costs they incur and because of the lack  
105 of convincing cost-benefit analysis documenting the improvements brought by corrections.  
106 Consequently, most HQRC gaging stations in the US refer to the real time data as  
107 “provisional” until they are verified for shifts ratings caused by morphological changes and  
108 corrections for unsteadiness and backwater effects (USGS, 2010). After periodic reviews  
109 (typically at 6-month interval) the data are labeled as “final” and considered that have  
110 accounted for the mix of all overlooked processes in real-time reporting.

111 The limited availability of systematic experimental evidence on the severity of hysteretic  
112 effects in natural streams, coupled with the substantial cost and effort required to  
113 document these effects comprehensively, has resulted in a status quo in which HQRC in  
114 ST-GVFs often remains unaddressed. This inaction can markedly degrade data accuracy,  
115 especially when real-time data is needed at sub-daily sampling intervals (Beven, 2006;  
116 Holmes, 2016). Recognizing these limitations, monitoring agencies have sought to improve  
117 the reliability of discharge estimation by testing and implementing alternative approaches,  
118 such as the index-velocity method (IVRC) and the continuous slope-area method (CSA). The  
119 development and adoption of these methods have been facilitated by advances in

120 measurement technologies since the 1980s—particularly the emergence of acoustic  
121 sensing instruments (Laenen, 1985; ISO 1070:1992 - superseded by ISO 1071:2018).  
122 Nevertheless, comprehensive evaluations of HQRC-based corrections, IVRC, and CSA  
123 methods remain ongoing, as their comparative performance continues to be critically  
124 examined (e.g., Muste et al., 2025b).

125 Motivated by the current challenges in streamflow monitoring, especially during flash  
126 floods, and the increased availability of new measurement technologies such as acoustic,  
127 radar, image velocimetry (Tsubaki et al., 2025; Sermet and Demir, 2023), we assembled a  
128 new hybrid monitoring method labeled HyGage (Muste et al., 2023) protected by a patent  
129 application (USPTO, 2026). The method is grounded in Saint-Venant equations (SVE)  
130 applied with strict observation on its assumptions (Saint-Venant, 1871; Chow, 1959).  
131 Coincidentally, the SVE assumptions are fulfilled if the gaging site location is selected using  
132 the best practice guidance (Rantz et al., 1982). The SVE have proven their reliability to  
133 accurately capture ST-GVFs even for situations where slight morphological channel  
134 changes occur (Litrico & Fromion, 2009; Yu et al., 2020). The HyGage theoretical  
135 background is applied in conjunction with directly measured hydraulic variables and  
136 spatiotemporal gradients acquired with combinations of contemporary instruments tested  
137 in conjunction with the IVRC and CSA methods without making recourse to ratings.

138 The paper first presents an overview of the IVRC and CSA method components integrated  
139 into the HyGage approach, with reference to the instrumentation deployed at the  
140 benchmark gaging station located in Grenoble on the Isère River (France). It then describes  
141 the conceptual foundation of HyGage method and, for the first time, demonstrates its  
142 implementation using a customized instrumentation layout installed at the Clear Creek  
143 gaging station in Oxford, Iowa (USA). Finally, we show how HyGage reduces key conceptual  
144 uncertainties inherent in conventional monitoring practices and highlight the new  
145 opportunities enabled by its adoption.

## 146 **METHODS**

### 147 ***General Considerations***

148 This section emphasizes the conceptual foundations of the HyGage approach and its first  
149 implementation for monitoring ST-GVFs at an operational gaging site. The HyGage concept  
150 draws inspiration from and integrates in an innovative manner, measurement components  
151 of the IVRC and CSA methods. HyGage development was motivated by a growing body of  
152 observational evidence from IVRC and CSA stations, as these data sets showed that  
153 augmenting traditional stage measurements—which describe the geometric state of  
154 channel flow—with additional hydraulic variables such as index velocity or free-surface  
155 slope provides a more realistic representation of flow dynamics compared with the steady  
156 HQRC method. This enriched description has been shown to improve the accuracy of  
157 monitored discharge and enhance the predictive capability for ST-GVF forecasting (Muste  
158 et al., 2019; 2022a; 2022b).

159 In this paper, we designate the HQRC, IVRC and CSA methods as conventional as they have  
160 been already well defined, proof-tested, and fully documented (Kennedy, 1984 for HQRC:

161 Levesque & Oberg, 2012 for IVRC; and Smith et al., 2010 for CSA). The description in this  
162 section assume the familiarity of the readers with the basic procedure of each of these  
163 methods. As most of the streamflow data is acquired with the century-old HQRC method,  
164 we provide essential features to place it in the paper context. In essence, HQRC  
165 development relies on indirect, semi-empirical procedures in which simultaneous  
166 measurements of discharge and stage are paired using a graphical approach (Kennedy,  
167 1984). The final form of the HQRC—commonly referred to as the rating curve—is then  
168 shaped using statistical techniques, which are in some cases only weakly justified, and  
169 supplemented by expert judgment (Fenton, 2018; Rozos et al., 2022). Once established, the  
170 ratings are used to convert real-time stage data into corresponding discharge estimates.

171 Given that the IVRC, CSA, and HyGage methods can be implemented using diverse sensing  
172 technologies and deployment configurations, this section illustrates their practical  
173 application at two gaging sites: the Grenoble Campus station on the Isère River (Gières,  
174 France) and the Oxford station on Clear Creek (Iowa, USA). Additional details about these  
175 stations are provided in Section 3. Both locations were initially equipped for the traditional  
176 HQRC method, placing them firmly within globally standardized streamflow monitoring  
177 practices. They offer unique experimental value because, to the authors' knowledge, there  
178 are very few—if any—sites worldwide where HQRC, IVRC, and CSA approaches have been  
179 deployed simultaneously. This co-location of monitoring strategies makes the Grenoble  
180 Campus and Oxford sites particularly well suited for testing both individual HyGage  
181 components and the fully integrated HyGage framework. Among the two, the Oxford test  
182 site is especially significant for HyGage presentation: it is the only location that includes  
183 direct measurements of all required hydraulic inputs using best-practice instrumentation  
184 layouts. The site was intentionally designed to support a comprehensive evaluation of the  
185 HyGage concept and its operational elements, as discussed in subsequent sections.

186

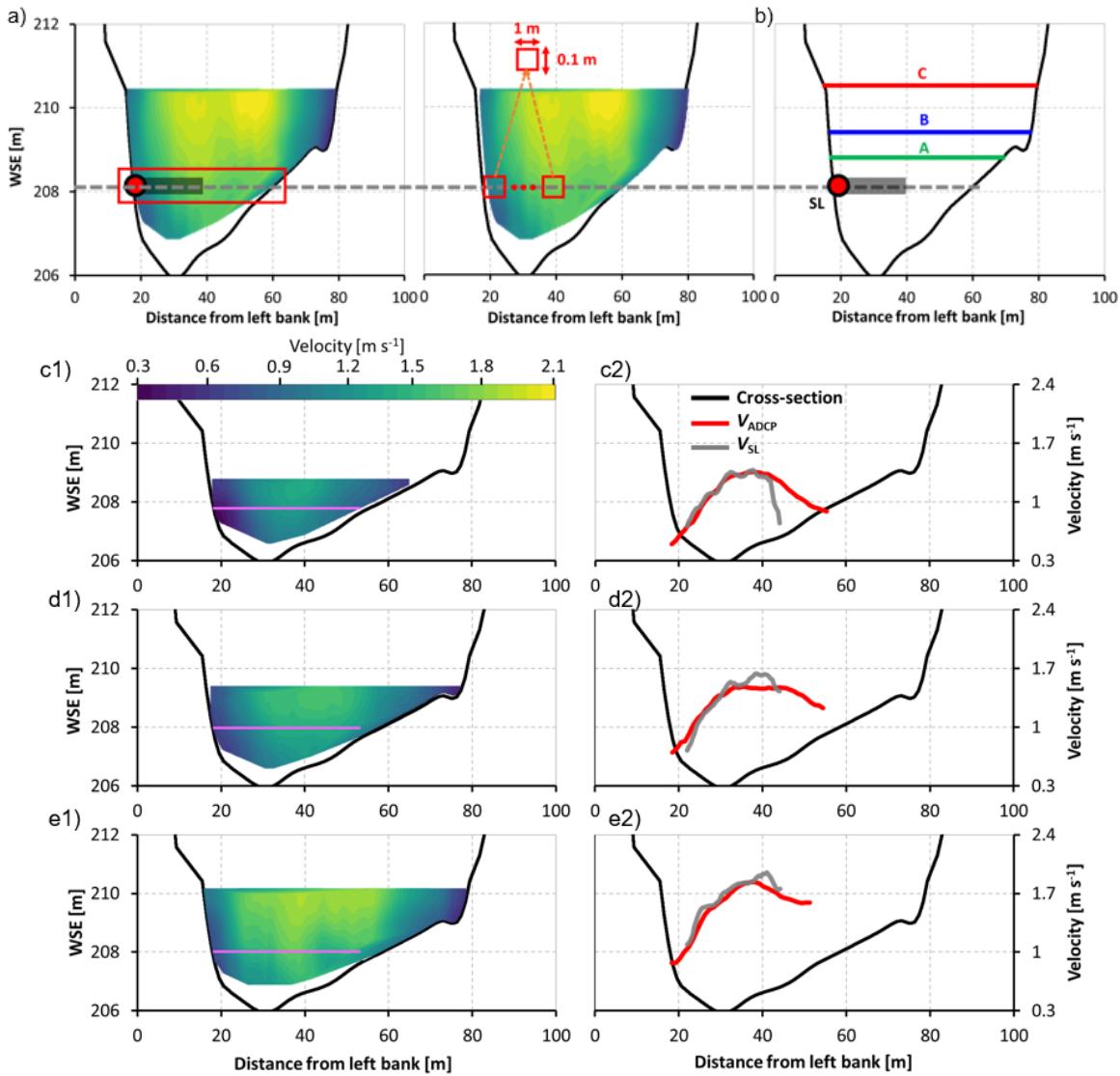
### 187 ***IVRC implementation***

188 The IVRC implementation at Grenoble-Campus and Oxford sites are similar but  
189 accomplished with different set of instruments. For Grenoble-Campus station used here for  
190 exemplification, the IVRC rating is obtained by simultaneous measurements of index-  
191 velocity acquired with a horizontal Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler (H-ADCP) installed  
192 on the riverbank and ADCP transects acquired close to the H-ADCP location. There are  
193 about 130 ADCP measurements available for analysis covering the entire range of flows as  
194 this station. The abundance of ADCP data for this site is related to the station's role in  
195 benchmarking various monitoring alternatives (Rousseau & Barthelemy, 2025).

196 A first step in developing the IVRC rating is to assess the quality of the H-ADCP (a.k.a. Side  
197 Looker or, for brevity, SL) velocities acquired along the instrument acoustic path with  
198 ADCP velocities acquired from transects over the overlapping area, as illustrated in Fig. 1a.  
199 Specifically, SL in-bin measurements acquired over 1m long segments (containing 20 bins)  
200 along the instrument path are compared with in-bin ADCP measurements in 1m x 0.1m  
201 areas along the SL measurement path. The SL raw data was averaged over  $\Delta T_{SL} = 10$  min,  
202 while the ADCP data was averaged for  $\Delta T_{ADCP} = 10$  min. The SL-ADCP data comparison is  
203 made for ADCP transects acquired on the rising limb of the hydrographs at WSE = 208.9 m

204 (A), 209.4 m (B) and WSE = 210.6 m (C) shown in Fig. 1b. These water elevations  
 205 correspond to discharges of  $88.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $144.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $303.2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The cross-  
 206 sectional distributions of the streamwise velocity component measured by ADCP and the  
 207 velocity profiles acquired with SL and ADCP in the overlapping areas for the stages A, B,  
 208 and C are illustrated in Figures 1c1-1c2, 1d1-1d2, and, 1e1-1e2, respectively.

209

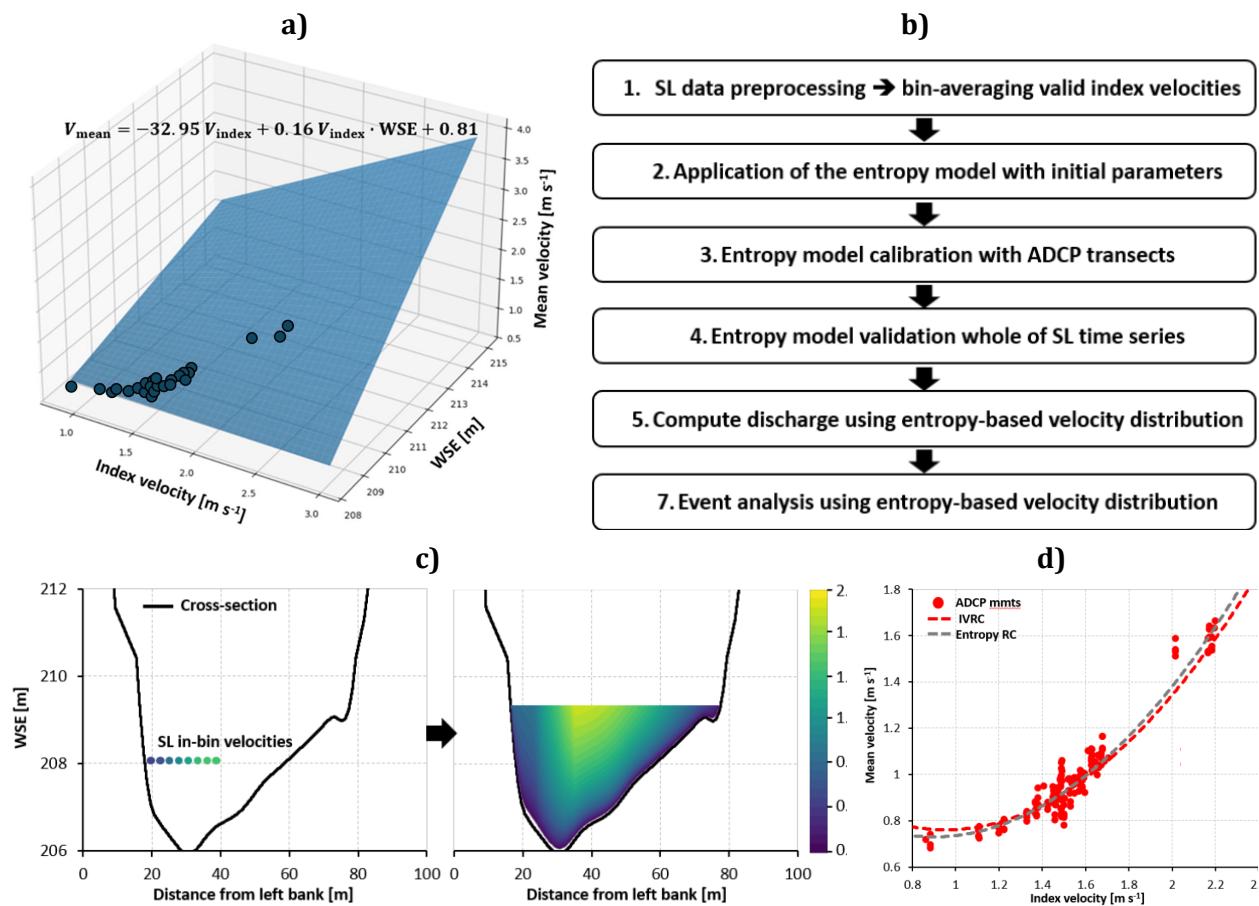


210

211 **Figure 1.** Comparison of simultaneous HADCP (SL) and ADCP measurements: a) layout  
 212 of the overlapping areas; b) stages used for SL - ADCP comparison:  $WSE = 208.9 \text{ m}$  (A),  
 213  $WSE = 209.4 \text{ m}$  (B), and  $WSE = 210.6 \text{ m}$  (C); 1c1, 1c2) comparison of SL-ADCP for stage  
 214 A; 1d1, 1d2 same comparison for a stage B; 1e1, 1e2 same comparison for stage C.

215 Collectively, the SL-ADCP data comparisons for all tested stages display a remarkable good  
 216 agreement for the near-field area of the SL acoustic path and a gradual increase in  
 217 differences in the far-field area (i.e., distances larger than 40 m from the riverbank). The  
 218 reliability of the SL in the far-field is affected by multiple potential causes that have been  
 219 signaled and evaluated in previous studies (Le Coz et al., 2008; Hidayat et al., 2011). The

220 persistence of these findings in various SL deployments and flow situations suggests that  
 221 the quality assessment conducted above is a necessary step before initiating the  
 222 construction of the IVRC rating. For the present study we use only SL readings in SL-ADCP  
 223 agreement area, i.e., from the first valid SL bin to the bin located at 40m.  
 224 The SL data curated as shown above in conjunction with the large dataset of ADCP  
 225 transects available at this gaging station allowed to develop a composite IVRC rating that is  
 226 function not only on the index velocity but also accounting for specific stage ranges, as  
 227 illustrated in Figure 2a. The multi-parameter regression for determining the IVRC rating is  
 228 similar with the approach used by Levesque & Oberg (2012) for constructing the  $V_{index}$  -  
 229  $V_{mean}$  relationship for real-time monitoring.



**Figure 2.** Alternative approaches to relate  $V_{index}$  -  $V_{mean}$  for supporting the IVRC method implementation: a) conventional approach (Levesque & Oberg, 2012); b) entropy model applied to SL datasets; and c) reconstruction of the cross-sectional distribution of the streamwise velocity using the entropy model with SL input; and d) comparison of the two IVRC implementation approaches.

230 Having in mind the fully analytical implementation of HyGage protocol (i.e., without  
 231 requiring constructions of ratings), we developed an alternative approach for determining  
 232 the  $V_{index}$  -  $V_{mean}$  relationship based on the entropy theory. The entropy principle is a generic  
 233 stochastic theory applicable to a wide range of hydrological systems (Singh, 2025). This  
 234 concept was introduced in riverine environment by Chiu (1988; 1989) and subsequently

235 optimized by Moramarco et al. (2004, 2017) to accommodate various approaches for  
236 index-velocity measurement. This alternative approach to conventional construction of the  
237 IVRC rating has been consistently found to reasonably estimate the cross-sectional mean  
238 velocity distribution in normal and upper flow ranges without requiring the extensive  
239 velocity datasets. Regardless of the approach used for IVRC implementation, the cross-  
240 sectional area must be expressed as a function of stage to determine the discharge  
241 (Levesque & Oberg, 2012). Repetition of the cross-section surveys is considered good  
242 practice to observe possible changes in the station morphology (Kennedy, 1984).

243 For this study, we developed a software package in conjunction with SL measurements and  
244 ADCP calibration/validation data acquired at Grenoble-Campus (Kim et al., 2025). The  
245 main software steps for our entropy model are graphed in Fig. 2b. The model was trained  
246 using 6 ADCP measurements in contrast with the 122 ADCP measurements used for  
247 developing the IVRC rating with the conventional approach. The cross-sectional  
248 streamwise velocity distribution derived by our entropy model is illustrated in Fig. 2c. The  
249 IVRC ratings obtained with the two implementation alternatives are shown in Figure 2d.  
250 While differences less than 5% between the ratings are visible for the lowest and highest  
251 flow ranges, there is good overall agreement between the IVRC approaches indicating that  
252 the entropy mode is an efficient procedure for obtaining the  $V_{index}$  -  $V_{mean}$  relationship with  
253 just of fraction of the calibration data.

#### 254 ***CSA Implementation***

255 The detailed description of the slope-area method is provided in Dalrymple & Benson (1967)  
256 and will be not reiterated here. In short, the method implementation requires a cross-section  
257 survey and measurement of free-surface slope at several successive locations along the  
258 stream. The river stages can be measured independently with a variety of instruments (e.g.,  
259 Sauer & Turnipseed, 2010). Notable, currently the CSA method gains increased attention  
260 through the measurement of FSS from remote sensing (Bauer-Gottwein et al., 2024;  
261 Schwatke et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2025) which is particularly relevant for implementation  
262 of the HyGage method.

263 In this paper, the CSA method is applied for both Grenoble-Campus and Oxford sites. Ideally,  
264 the CSA method should be implemented with three or more stage measurements acquired  
265 over a short distance, i.e., less than 500m for a medium size river (House et al., 2025b). The  
266 constraint on the distance is similar with the spatial discretization used in numerical  
267 simulations that fulfils the SVE assumption for avoiding significant discharge changes  
268 through the cross sections defining the computational reach (House et al., 2025). The  
269 shortest available distance for determining FSS at Grenoble-Campus is 1,270 m which  
270 contrasts with the 187m span set for the Oxford station. While the spacing is not an optimal  
271 for Grenoble-Campus site, the approx. 1km distance between the stage measurement points  
272 is one order of magnitude smaller than 10 to 30 km distances typically used for calculation  
273 of the FSS in previous studies (e.g., Dottori et al., 2009). The CSA discharges,  $Q_{CSA}$ , are  
274 determined using protocols tested in previous studies (Muste et al., 2019). The bed slope,  $S_0$ ,  
275 and Manning roughness coefficient,  $n_0$ , estimation for the sites is conducted with protocols  
276 described in Lamoreaux et al. (2025). For this analysis,  $S_0$  and  $n_0$ , were kept constant with  
277 the values reported in Tab.1.

278 **HyGage Monitoring Concept**

279 The HyGage method featured in this paper is a physically-based monitoring approach that  
 280 takes advantage of the progress made over multiple decades in observing streamflow time  
 281 series with various measurement concepts and instruments. The central paradigm shift of  
 282 this method entails the use of the Saint-Venant equations for monitoring both steady  
 283 uniform and ST-GVF flows instead of making recourse to semi-empirical relationships  
 284 based on the quasi-steady uniform flows assumption. An intuitive form of the Saint-Venant  
 285 equations (SVE) for monitoring purposes is its non-conservative version provided by Eq.  
 286 (1) that relates the steady uniform discharge,  $Q_0$ , (obtained herein via Manning equation)  
 287 with the unsteady, non-uniform discharge,  $Q$ , stemming from various ST-GVF regimes (e.g.,  
 288 Henderson, 1966).

$$289 \quad Q = Q_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{S_0} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} - \frac{V}{gS_0} \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{gS_0} \frac{\partial V}{\partial t}} \quad (1)$$

290 [steady uniform  $\rightarrow$ ]

291 [steady non-uniform (gradually varied)  $\dashrightarrow$ ]

292 [unsteady non-uniform (spatial-temporal gradually varied)  $\rightarrow$ ]

293 where variables  $h$  (depth) and  $V$  (cross-sectional velocity), the spatiotemporal gradients  
 294 appearing in the last three terms of the equation along with the Manning's roughness  
 295 coefficient,  $n$ , the bed slope,  $S_0$ , and the geometry of the cross section where the discharge  
 296 is calculated. The number of terms on the right side of SVE is associated with the type of  
 297 fluvial wave propagating through the observation point (Henderson, 1966): kinematic  
 298 (first term), diffusive (first three terms), fully dynamic (all terms). More specifically, the  
 299 kinematic wave accounts only for friction and gravity forces, the diffusive wave appends  
 300 the pressure force, while the fully dynamic wave also includes the local acceleration  
 301 forces. Notable, the SVE implicitly accounts for morphological changes at the station  
 302 through the pressure and convective terms in Eq. (1).

303 The change in signs of the variable derivatives on the rising and falling limbs of the  
 304 hydrograph in Eq. (1) leads to hysteretic (non-unique) relationships between any pair of  
 305 ST-GVF hydraulic variables (i.e., free-surface slope -  $FSS$ , velocity -  $V$ , and Water Surface  
 306 Elevation -  $WSE$ ). The departure of these hysteretic relationships from the unique HQRC  
 307 function for steady and uniform flow ( $Q_0$ ) are visualized as loops in the relationships  
 308 between pairs of hydraulic variables and phase lags between the peaks of the variable  
 309 hydrographs (Muste et al., 2025a). The variable peak phasing progresses strictly in the  
 310 following order:  $FSS$ ,  $V$ ,  $Q$ , and  $WSE$ . The hysteresis severity (indicated by the degree of  
 311 departure of the non-unique relationships from the unique rating curves) is different for  
 312 each site and propagating event. Broadly speaking, while hysteresis is intrinsically present  
 313 in all forms of ST-GVFs, its severity can be mainly related to (Moussa & Bocquillon, 1966;  
 314 Ferrick, 1985; Perumal et al., 2006; Moramarco et al., 2008; Perret et al., 2022):

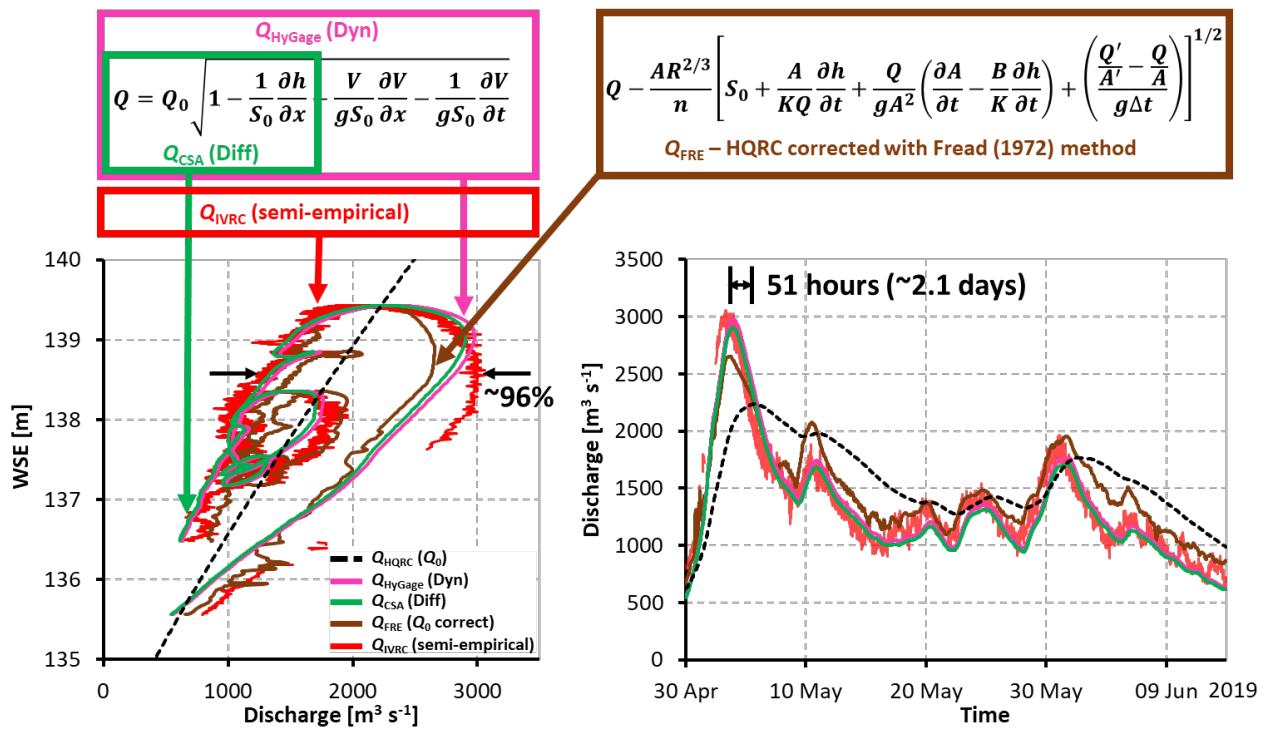
- 315 • Channel bed slope (low slopes are often leading to severe hysteresis)
- 316 • Flow magnitude and flashiness (high, sharp hydrographs produce severe hysteresis).
- 317 • Froude # (for  $Fr \ll 1$  severe hysteresis; for  $Fr < 1$  moderate, and for  $Fr > 1$ , negligible).

318 Directly determining discharge with Eq. (1) requires continuous direct measurements of  
319 the primitive hydraulic variables  $h$  and  $V$  and of the spatial-temporal gradients appearing in  
320 the last three terms of the equation. The flow depth,  $h$ , is usually derived from the  
321 measurement of stage (WSE). The  $H$  value is not necessarily zero when the effective flow  
322 depth is zero. The derivative ( $\partial h / \partial x$ ) is the free-surface slope (FSS) estimated over a  
323 distance commensurate with the wavelength of the propagating fluvial wave (House et al.,  
324 2025a). Selecting longer river reach lengths departs from the scales of the SVE  
325 discretization that are strictly valid for elementary flow volumes. We deem that, similar to  
326 Petersen-Øverleir (2006) finding, the HyGage monitoring concept is applicable for  
327 situations where changes in channel geometry and resistance are relatively small during  
328 ST-GVFs, i.e., of the same order of magnitude as the discharge measurement uncertainty. If  
329 this is not the case, further segmentation is needed over time-periods and space-intervals  
330 when the flow control can be considered closer to stable (House et al., 2025a).

331 One of the most difficult tasks in applying Eq. (1) in practice is to determine FSS over short  
332 distances in the vicinity of the station because its estimation depends on instrument  
333 resolution and accuracy, as well as on the bed slope and event magnitude (e.g., WSDOT,  
334 2025). However, studies showed that modern instruments are capable to capture free-  
335 surface slopes over distances of tenth of meters (Smith et al. 2010; Muste et al. 2025b).  
336 Another difficult task is to analytically convert the index velocity ( $V_{index}$ ) into bulk flow  
337 velocity ( $V$ ) instead of using empirical ratings as currently done for IVRC method. This task  
338 is still under research, with some successful attempts demonstrated in prior works (Le Coz  
339 et al., 2008; Nihei & Kimizu, 2008; Hoitink et al. 2018; Johnson & Cohen, 2017; and Fenton,  
340 2025). In this paper we tackle the  $V_{index}$  to  $V$  conversion with the entropy concept, discussed  
341 in the previous section. Overcoming the above-mentioned difficulties allows for application  
342 of Eq. (1) fully analytically without additional restrictive assumptions.

343 In order to demonstrate the impact of directly measuring all or only some of the terms in  
344 the SVE to capture the actual ST-GVF features, we made recourse to numerical simulations  
345 carried out with 1-D unsteady HEC-RAS applied to a hysteretic site investigated through  
346 several prior studies (Muste et al., 2022a, 2022b; House et al., 2025a, 2025b; Muste et al,  
347 2025a). Fig. 3 replicates hysteretic features simulated for a large flood wave propagating  
348 through a 300m-long reach downstream from the USGS station # 0555830 at Henry on  
349 Illinois River (IL, USA). The event simulation allows to readily represent the discharge  
350 time series, labeled  $Q_{HyGage}$  (Dyn), accounting for all the SVE terms in Eq. (1) - similar to  
351 what HyGage would measure - as well as discharges provided by a hypothetical CSA  
352 monitoring,  $Q_{CSA}$  (Diff), obtained by retaining only the  $\partial h / \partial x$  term in the summation. The  
353 plots in Fig. 3 also contain datasets provided by the IVRC method,  $Q_{IVRC}$  (semi-empirical),  
354 as reported by USGS who maintains and operates and IVRC at this site. The switch from a  
355 prior HQRC, labeled  $Q_{HQRC}$  ( $Q_0$ ), to IVRC for this site was triggered by repeated instances  
356 when flow measurements with the HQRC method were deemed inaccurate. Finally, Fig. 3  
357 includes the HQRC data corrected with the Fread (1975) algorithm,  $Q_{FRE}$  ( $Q_0$ ) for  
358 illustrating the performance of one of the correction methods applied to HQRC (see Muste  
359 et al., 2025b for the analysis of the performance of more HQRC correction methods).

360 Given that there are no direct discharge measurements for this 1.5-month event (a  
 361 daunting task itself), we cannot conclude on the most reliable of the five methods  
 362 illustrated in Fig. 3. However, relatively speaking, it is apparent that the hysteretic loops  
 363 and the time series offered by the simulated HyGage and CSA methods are in close  
 364 agreement while the HQRC datasets corrected with the Fread method and the IVRC  
 365 datasets are slightly off. It is quite apparent that the simple stage-discharge (HQRC) method  
 366 completely overlooks the dynamics of the flow propagation. Numerical simulations  
 367 replicating this event illustrate that the uncertainty in the HQRC discharge can reach  
 368 significant differences from the actual flows in the area of the maximum loop size for same  
 369 stages on the rising and falling limbs of the hydrograph. Also notable is that discharge  
 370 hydrographs for the HyGage, CSA, IVRC and Fread methods plotted in Fig. 3 are peaking at  
 371 higher values and occur prior to the timing of the discharge peak of the HQRC. The  
 372 hysteretic features illustrated in Fig. 3 are akin to those found through multiple prior  
 373 studies at a variety of sites conducted by these authors (Muste et al., 2025a; 2025b).



374

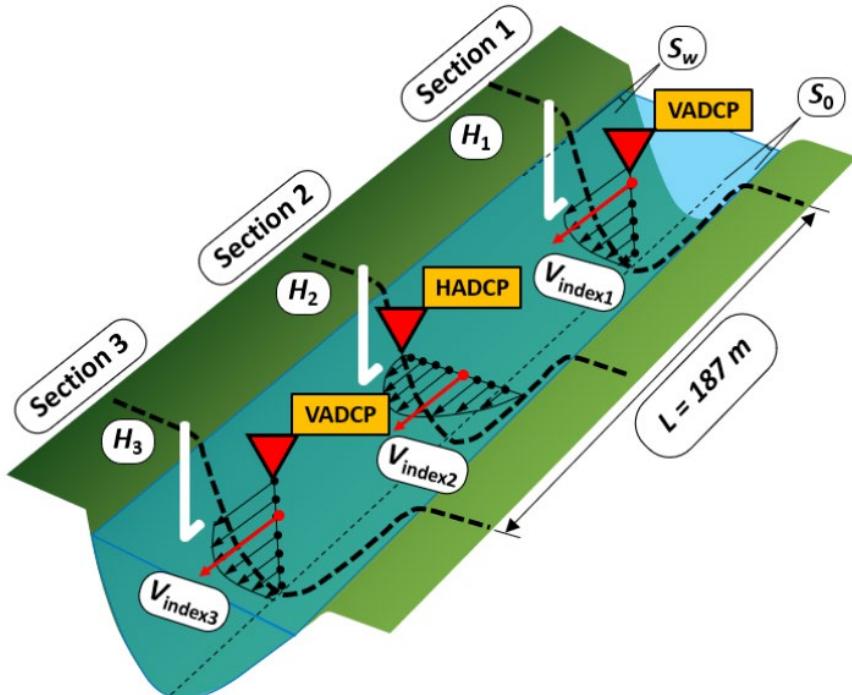
375 **Figure 3.** Comparison of the tracing of hysteretic features provided by various streamflow  
 376 monitoring approaches.

377 **HyGage Implementation**

378 Ensuing from the above section, the HyGage monitoring concept combines measurement  
 379 elements pertaining to IVRC (i.e., cross-section area and an index velocity) and CSA (i.e.,  
 380 cross-sectional areas and FSS) methods. Specifically, the HyGage relies on experimental  
 381 procedures that provide the mean flow velocity (via  $V_{index}$  acquired in a point, over a line or  
 382 surface in the water body) and the free-surface slope (FSS). There is a myriad of  
 383 instruments available for acquiring these variables in real time including in-situ submersed

384 or close- and remote-sensing technologies (Tsubaki et al., 2025). In this paper, we present  
385 the first published account of implementing the HyGage method at a full-scale, operational  
386 gaging station

387 For the Oxford HyGage test site, we deployed a horizontal Acoustic-Doppler Current  
388 Profiler (HADCP) and two Vertical ADCPs (VADCP) as schematically illustrated in Figure 4.  
389 The HADCP measures velocities across a line in the channel, while VADCPs measure  
390 velocities in verticals centered on the instruments. The free-surface elevations were  
391 measured with pressure sensors embedded in the ADCP units and with an independent  
392 bubbler in the central section of the test reach. The Oxford site has been intentionally over-  
393 instrumented to enable various redundant measurements for supporting the testing and  
394 validation of the HyGage protocols targeted through Muste et al. (2023) study. Notable, two  
395 HADCPs deployed in Sections 1 and 3 suffice to ensure that the hydraulic variable and their  
396 gradients are readily available for HyGage implementation.



397  
398 **Figure 4.** HyGage instrument layout at Oxford test site  
399

## 400 **EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

### 401 **Test sites**

402 Essential specifications for the Grenoble-Campus and Oxford test sites are shown in Tab. 1.  
403 The selection of these sites followed a careful evaluation of their ability to satisfactorily  
404 meet the constraints inherent in the Saint-Venant equations. In particular, both gaging  
405 locations exhibit quasi-prismatic and relatively straight channel geometry in the vicinity of  
406 the station, a cross-section that remains stable over time, well-defined channel control at  
407 the measurement site, and minimal to no backwater influence. These characteristics

408 collectively ensure that the underlying hydraulic assumptions of the governing equations  
 409 are reasonably satisfied, thereby supporting reliable application of the monitoring methods  
 410 under investigation. Prior studies revealed the stability and repeatability of the  
 411 measurements with various methods applied to the two sites (Rousseau & Barthelemy,  
 412 2025 for Grenoble-Campus site and Lee et al., 2017 for Oxford site).

413 **Table 1.** Hydraulic specifications for the test stations analyzed in this study

Site (River)	Grenoble – Campus (Isère River)	Oxford (Clear Creek)
<b>Site map</b>		
<b>Station equipment</b>		
<i>S<sub>0</sub></i>	0.0004	0.00039
<b>Base <i>n</i></b>	0.03	0.025
<b>B [m]</b>	68	10
<b>B/h</b>	27	15
<b>Q<sub>min-max</sub> [m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>]</b>	≈ 43 – 1045	≈ 0.1 – 6
<b>Q<sub>annual mean</sub> [m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>]</b>	175	0.7
<b>Fr</b>	0.19 – 0.30	0.16 – 0.24
<b>Drainage area [km<sup>2</sup>]</b>	5570 (70% at altitude > 1000 m)	151

414

### 415 *Grenoble-Campus Site Dataset*

416 The datasets available at the Grenoble-Campus station are almost fully compliant with  
 417 HyGage needs, missing only the convective acceleration term in Eq. (1). The purpose of  
 418 including the Grenoble-Campus datasets in the analysis is two-fold. First, it demonstrates  
 419 the performance of the CSA and IVRC methods working independently in capturing  
 420 hysteretic features of interest. Secondly, it substantiates the CSA and IVRC contribution to  
 421 the newly developed HyGage protocol that essentially is a hybrid of the two methods. The  
 422 Grenoble-Campus site has been permanently equipped with a HQRC station since 1992 and  
 423 is temporarily complemented by a variety of additional instruments deployed for  
 424 hydrometric research and training conducted by the Institute of Environmental  
 425 Geosciences (IGE), Electricity of France (EDF-DTG) and the National Research Institute for  
 426 Agriculture, Food and the Environment (INRAE). Among the deployments, an IVRC station  
 427 was operated for a short period. Taking advantage of the Isère - PDT stage gage installed in  
 428 2019 and located 1,270 m upstream from Grenoble-Campus, the CSA method is applied  
 429 using the FSS measured between the two stations (see Tab. 1).

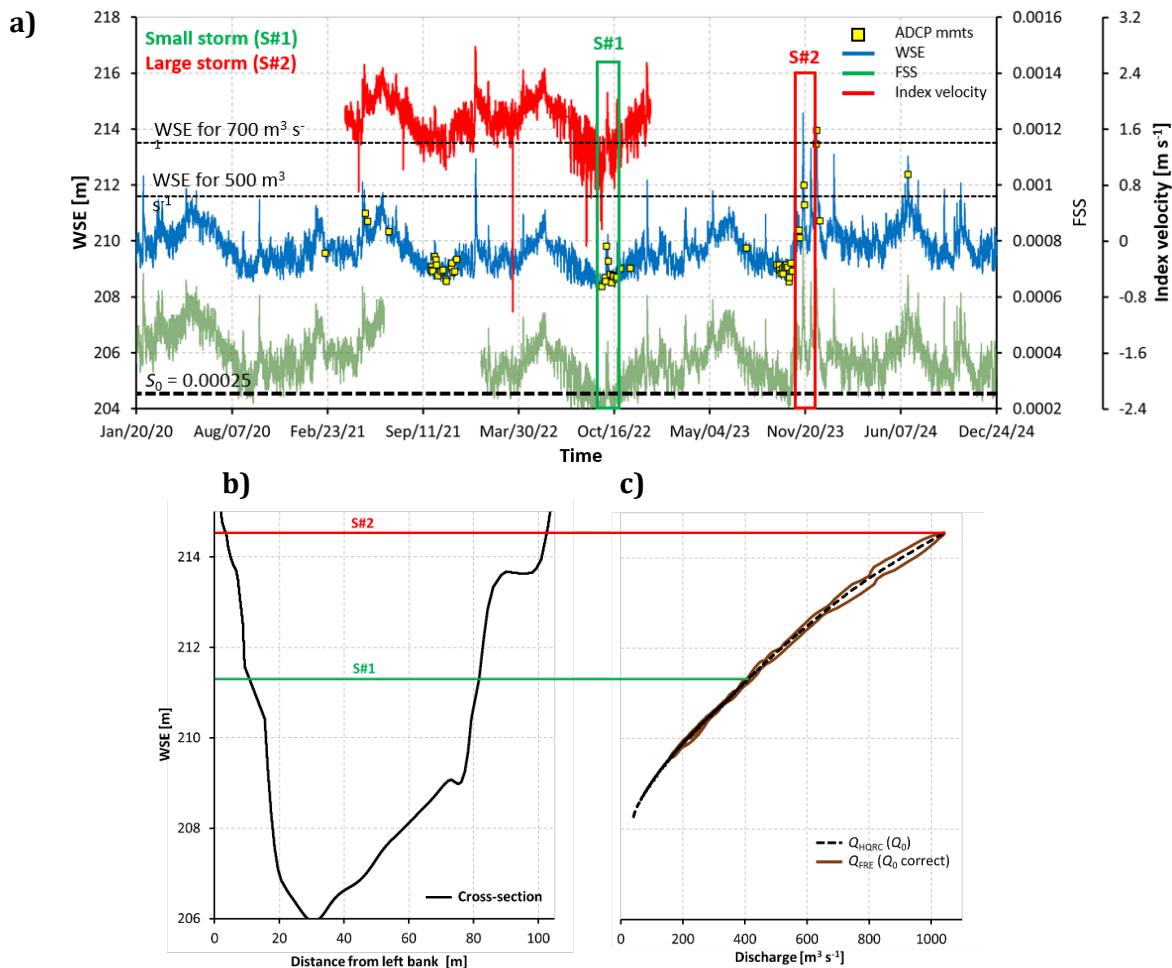
430 The flows at Grenoble-Campus station are controlled by a hydropower plant located 36.5  
 431 Km upstream at Le Cheylas and slightly influenced by a downstream dam at St. Egrève.  
 432 Daily flow fluctuations are produced by turning on-off the hydropower turbines to

433 accommodate grid energy needs. The sub-daily flow fluctuations are visualized by small-  
434 amplitude changes of the time series in Figure 5a. Discharge time series under  $500 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$   
435 ( $WSE = 211.86 \text{ m}$ ) at the Grenoble-Campus site reveal frequent flow pulses associated with  
436 the daily changes in the number of turbines operating at the upstream dam. The flow  
437 transitions produced by opening and closing the turbines under the  $500 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$  discharge  
438 threshold trigger ST-GVFs of low magnitude. We include them in the present analysis,  
439 despite that they are developing only weak hysteresis. The flows above  $750 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$  are akin  
440 to a naturally controlled channel flow when the effect of the hydropower dam operations is  
441 not apparent at the gaging station.

442 The datasets analyzed at Grenoble-Campus for testing HyGage components are limited to  
443 only a short time interval because the instrumentation at this site is frequently changed to  
444 accommodate the needs for various hydrometric benchmarking and validation tests  
445 conducted at this experimental station. Through screening of the data in last five years, we  
446 found the April 1, 2021-December 31, 2022 time window to contain the most relevant  
447 input for testing the HyGage components (see Fig. 5a). The maximum flow in the last 30  
448 years was recorded on November 15, 2023 ( $H = 6.71 \text{ m}$ ,  $Q = 1047 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ ). This extreme event  
449 was still confined within the Isère River banks because of the levees constructed for  
450 protecting the area against floods. Given the extraordinary magnitude of the November 15,  
451 2023, storm, we include it in the analysis despite that the IVRC datasets are not available.

452 The Isère gaging sites comprise the following instruments: Isère -PDT station (one OTT RLS  
453 radar level sensor - [www.ott.com](http://www.ott.com)), Grenoble-Campus [one OTT PLS and one OTT PLS-C  
454 pressure level sensors and a temporarily deployed Horizontal Acoustic Doppler Current  
455 Profiler (ADCP) for index-velocity (Sontek-SL 1500 - [www.xylem.com](http://www.xylem.com)). The stage sensors  
456 of the two stations are connected to two Campbell Scientific CR1000 dataloggers  
457 ([www.campbellsci.com](http://www.campbellsci.com)). Instruments were sampled at different rates with synchronized  
458 timing (Thollet et al., 2021; Marggraf, 2024). Because the downstream stages are recorded  
459 at 30 minutes, the analysis is made with this time step. Illustrated in Figure 5b is the  
460 station's cross section along with the maximum stages for the two events selected for  
461 analysis. Figure 5c plots the HQRC rating used at the Grenoble-Campus station along with  
462 the traces of the flow for November 15, 2023, event determined with the Fread correction  
463 method,  $Q_{FRE}$ , applied to the operational HQRC. A cursory review of the flow traces  
464 indicates that, while they are different from the HQRC rating, their departure from the  
465 rating is small on both the rising and falling limbs of the hydrograph, indicating a mildly  
466 hysteretic site as subsequently discussed.

467



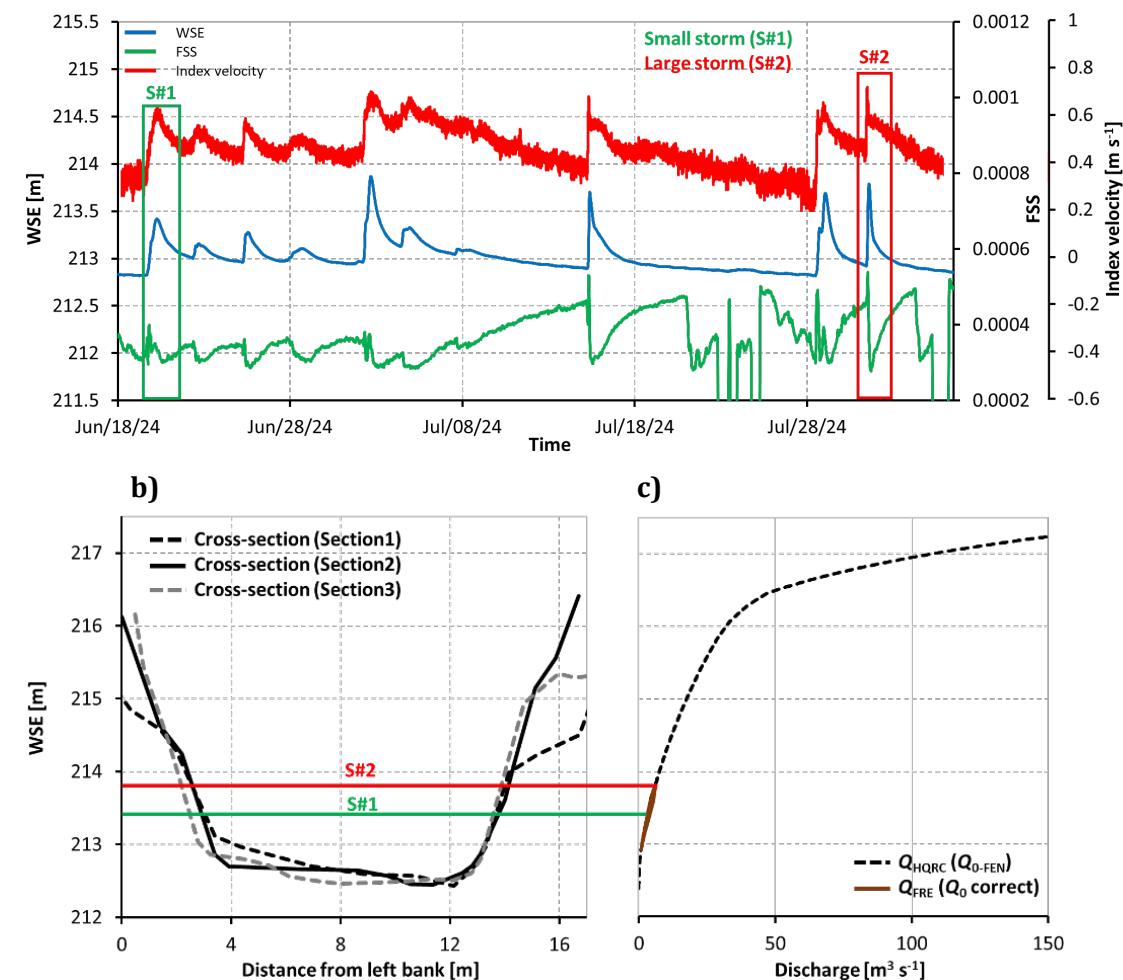
**Figure 5.** Analysis considerations for the Grenoble-Campus station: a) time series for the analyzed hydraulic variables; b) cross-section along with traces of the maximum stages for the two analyzed storm events; and c) the HQRC rating for the station ( $Q_0$ ) along with the stage-discharge relationship estimated by  $Q_{FRE}$  correction method for the largest event.

#### 468 **Oxford Site Dataset**

469 Given that the Oxford station was instrumented with the HyGage method testing in mind,  
 470 the site comprises direct measurements of all the hydraulic variables and gradients  
 471 appearing in Eq. (1) acquired with the best deployment and sampling practices. The  
 472 maximum stage for the events propagating through the station at this station during 2020 –  
 473 2024 was reached at 215.4 m. The return period for the two events selected for analysis  
 474 (S#1 and S#2 in Figure 6a) is less than 15 years, highlighting the prolonged drought at the  
 475 experimental site during 2024 when the site was instrumented for tests. The stages for  
 476 both events are below bankful elevation. Figure 6c illustrates the rating curve developed  
 477 for this site using the Fenton (2018) method ( $Q_{0-FEN}$ ) applied to all the direct measurements  
 478 available at the station and the trace of the larger event reconstructed Fread method ( $Q_{FRE}$ ).

479 The Oxford site is closely located with an HQRC operational station (USGS #05454220)  
 480 installed 214 m upstream from the center of the HyGage test section (see Tab. 1). During

481 the 2024 deployments, the station was equipped with two Vertical ADCPs (Sontek-IQ Plus)  
 482 and a horizontal ADCP (Sontek-SL 1500), as illustrated in Figure 4. The VADCPs were  
 483 located at the end of the test section and the HADCP was installed in the central cross  
 484 section. The station's instruments were synchronized on the data logger clock to acquire  
 485 data every 10 minutes. For this analysis, we used a 15-min step synchronized with the  
 486 timing of the USGS data collection system. The flows at Oxford site and in the drainage area  
 487 leading to the station are free of man-made hydraulic structures. It is worth noting that the  
 488 flow traces for the two storms shown in Figure 6c do not exhibit readily visible hysteretic  
 489 behavior. However, when the same events are examined using magnified axes in the  
 490 subsequent analysis, the expected hysteresis patterns become unmistakably apparent,  
 491 despite the relatively small magnitude of the 2024 storm events.

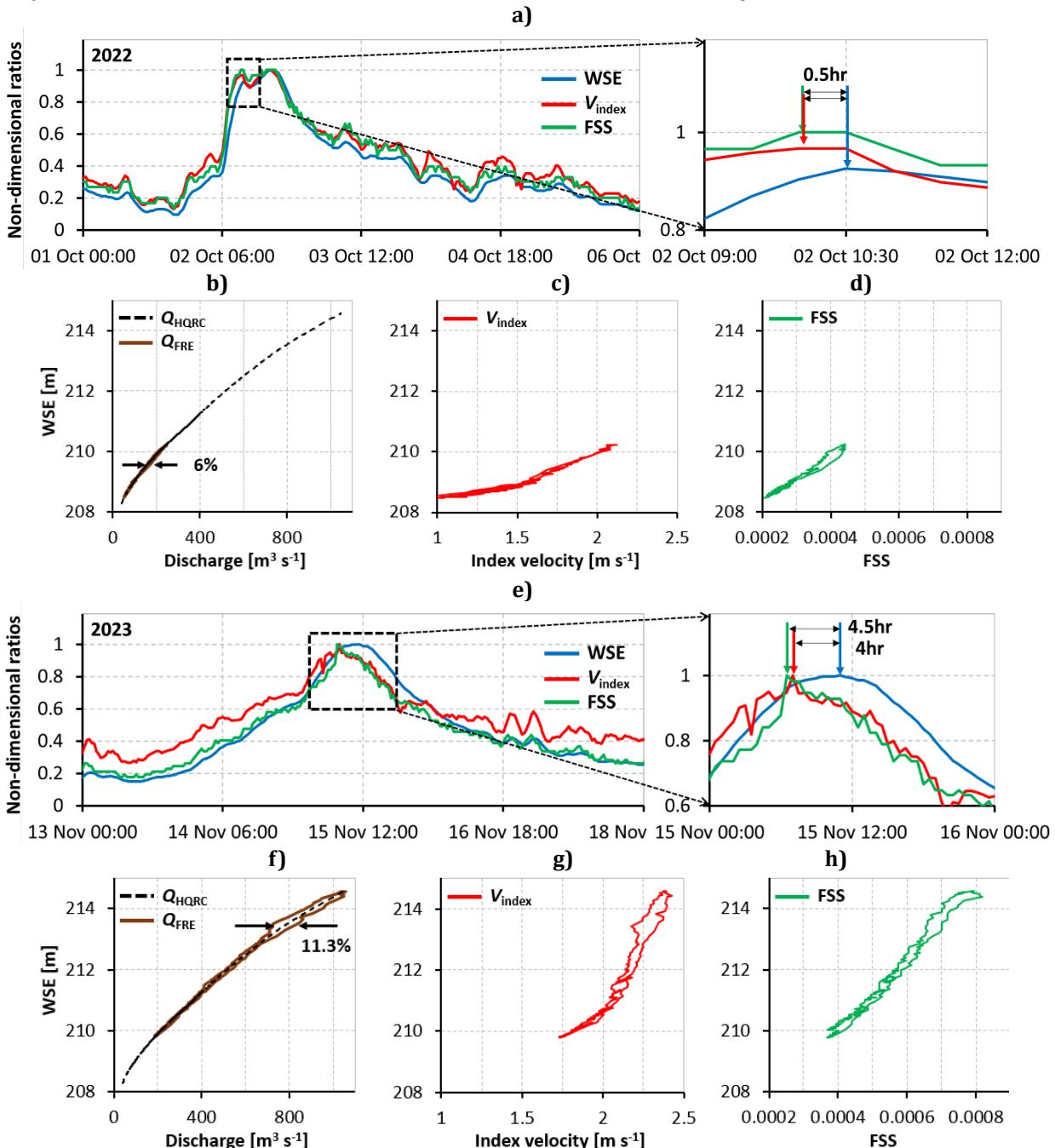


**Figure 6.** Analysis considerations for the Oxford station: a) time series for the analyzed hydraulic variables; b) cross-section along with traces of the maximum stages for the two analyzed storm events; and c) the reference HQRC for the site ( $Q_0$ - $FEN$ ) and the trace of the largest storms estimated with Fread method ( $Q_{FRE}$ ).

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### Data Analysis at the Grenoble-Campus Site

Results are herein analyzed for S#1 and S#2 recorded at this station (see Fig. 5a). Given that the convective and local acceleration terms of the equation were not available for this site, the HyGage method cannot be applied in full. Figure 7 shows time-dependent and time-independent relationships among the primitive variables in Eq.1 (i.e.,  $WSE$ ,  $V_{index}$ , and  $FSS$ ) measured at the station for the two storms selected for analysis.



**Figure 7.** Hysteretic relationships for variables measured at Grenoble-Campus for storms S#1, S#2: a) time series for S#1; b), c), d) loops among variables for S#1; e) time series for S#2; f), g), h) loops among variables for S#2.

500 The time-dependent plots in Figs. 7a and 7c are represented in non-dimensional coordinates  
501 (normalization with the maximum value for the event) to offer a slightly different  
502 perspective on the hysteretic relationships between the hydraulic variables. Inspection of  
503 the plots in Figure 7 reveals that both storm events propagating through the station display  
504 hysteretic features that amplify with the magnitude of the flood waves. The frequent flow  
505 fluctuations produced at the hydropower upstream the Grenoble-Campus station are also  
506 evident especially at lower flows (see the tail of the hydrographs in Fig.7a). It is apparent that  
507 the hysteretic features at this site are relatively weak even for storm S#2, the largest one  
508 recorded at this site. The 11.3% loop size and 4.5hrs delay between the first and last  
509 hydrograph peaks for storm S#2 are just fractions of loop and lag magnitude shown in Fig.1  
510 for Henry site, the most severe hysteretic site analyzed by the authors in prior analyses  
511 (House et al., 2025a; Muste et al, 2025a).

### 512 **Oxford Site**

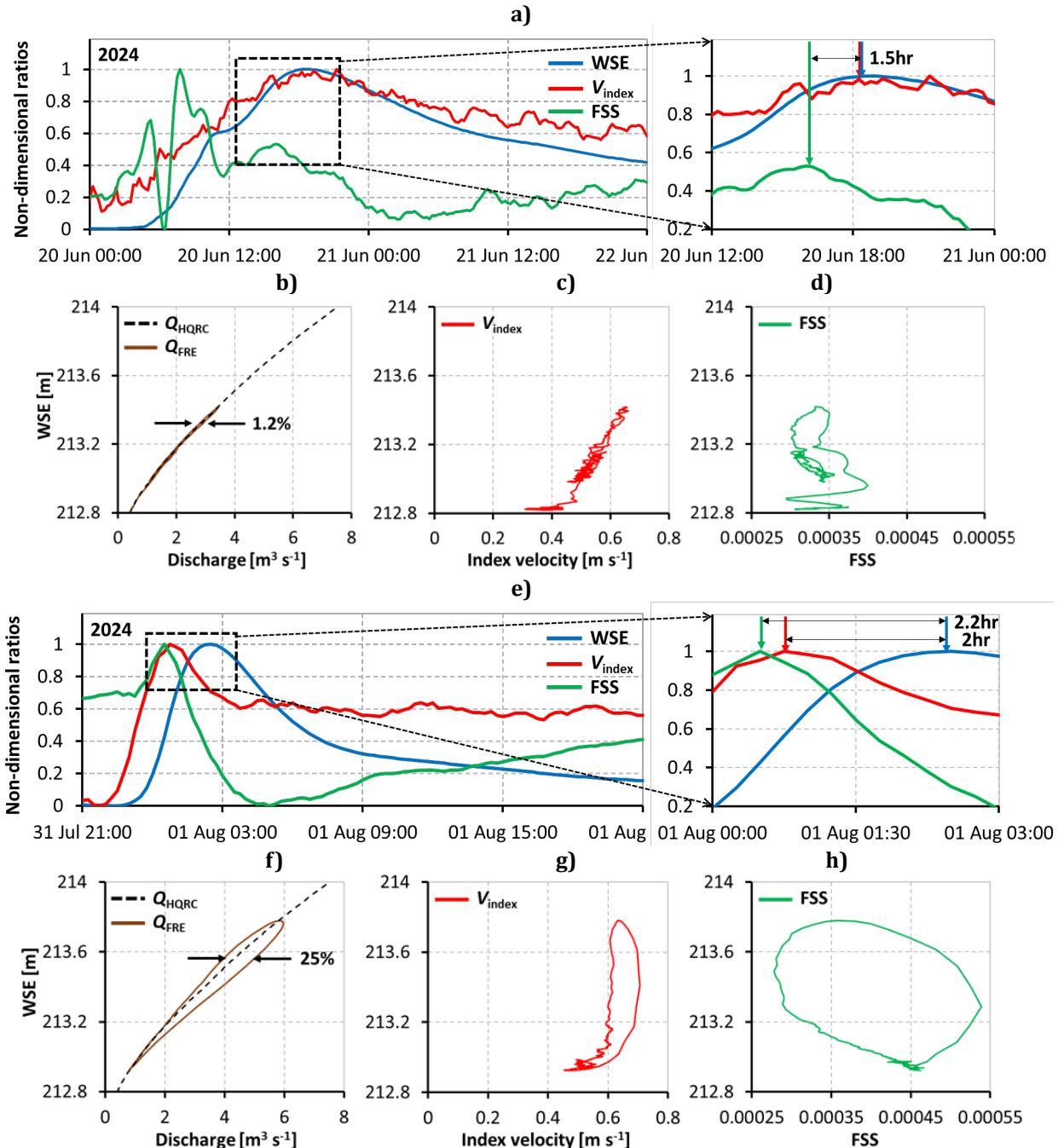
513 Results are herein analyzed for S#1 and S#2 recorded at this station during the 2024 field  
514 campaign (see Fig. 6a). The primitive variables acquired to implement the full-fledged  
515 HyGage methodology at this site are shown in Fig. 8. Despite the small size of the river (i.e.,  
516 a wadable stream), familiar hysteretic signatures are apparent in the data traces of 2024  
517 storms #1 and #2. It is worth mentioning that this site was repeatedly tested over the years  
518 yielding ranges for the loop sizes and lags between variable peaks consistent with those  
519 captured during the 2024 storms (e.g., Lee et al., 2017; Muste et al., 2019).

520 The raw values for the variables and the spatiotemporal gradients necessary for HyGage  
521 implementation were acquired as follows (see also Fig. 4 for instrumentation  
522 arrangement):  $V_{index}$  was measured with the HADCP located in the center of the test reach;  
523 FSS time series were determined using the stages recorded by the pressure sensors  
524 embedded in the two VADCP located 187-m apart in the terminal sections of the test reach  
525 Sections 1 and 3 (see Figure 4). Stream stages ( $WSE$ ) were measured with the pressure  
526 sensor located in the HADCP unit. An additional independent pressure sensor collocated  
527 with the HADCP was used for backing up data in equipment failure situations.

528 The conversion of  $V_{index}$  to  $V_{mean}$  required in Eq. 1 is accomplished with the entropy model  
529 described in the IVRC implementation section. The model uses as input HADCP velocities,  
530 and the cross section surveyed at the probe location. The model calibration and validation  
531 are executed with VADCP data collected in the same test reach. The choice for selecting the  
532 input and calibration/validation data could have been reversed but we preferred the first  
533 alternative as the HADCP was positioned at a low elevation where the velocity variation  
534 across the channel was relatively small. Velocities sampled in verticals by VADCPs enabled  
535 a more reliable verification of the entropy model. The discharges obtained with entropy  
536 model are labeled as  $Q_{Entropy}$  in Figs. 9a and 9b. The  $Q_{IVRC}$  discharges in the same figures  
537 were obtained with the conventional index-velocity approach by pairing HADCP 15-min  
538 data with discharges estimated with the  $Q_{FRE}$  method. The  $Q_{Entropy}$  vs.  $Q_{IVRC}$  comparison for  
539 the storm #2 (the largest of the 2024 field campaign) shows a good agreement between the  
540 two IVRC alternatives.

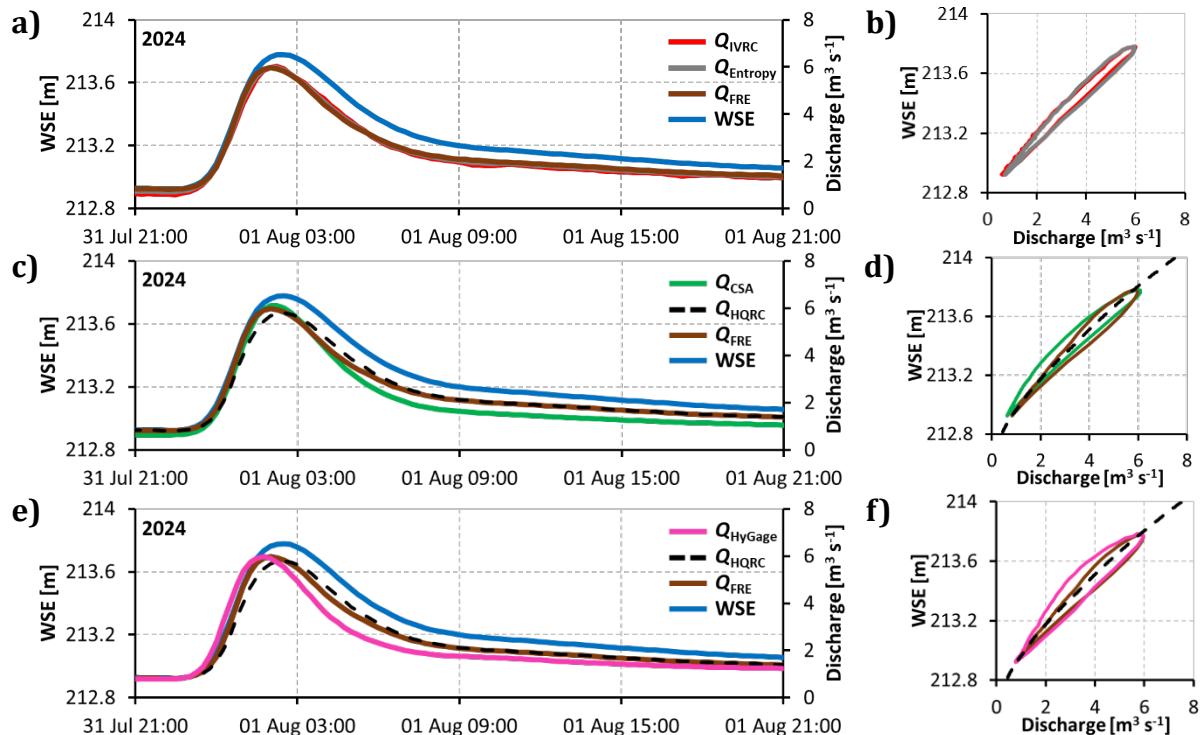
541 Figures 9c to 9f show discharges obtained with various monitoring methods along with  
542 stages in time-dependent and time-independent coordinates for the same storm. The

543 simple HQRC rating for the test reach was determined using the station periodic  
 544 measurements collected with Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter by USGS via the polynomial  
 545 regression method of Fenton (2025). The plots in these figures include  $Q_{FRE}$  that aims to  
 546 recover the dynamic part of the flow by analytically modifying the HQRC with the terms  
 547 describing the propagation of a fully dynamic fluvial wave through the station.



**Figure 8.** Hysteretic relationships for variables measured at Oxford for storms S#1 and S#2: a) time series for S#1; b), c), d) loops among variables for S#1; e) time series for S#2; f), g), h) loops among variables for S#2.

548 Figures 9c and 9d compare the discharges determined with the CSA method that  
 549 demonstrated their efficiency in replicating actual unsteady flows due to the addition of the  
 550 FSS to the stage measurements (Smith et al., 2010; Muste et al., 2019). Figures 9e and 9f  
 551 highlight the performance of the HyGage method compared with the  $Q_{FRE}$  surrogate for  
 552 tracing the actual flow for the 2024 storm #2. The series of plots illustrated in Figure 9  
 553 demonstrate the failure of the simple HQRC method to track unsteady flows contrasting  
 554 unequivocally with the datasets delivered by the conventional IVRC and CSA methods as  
 555 well as by those offered by the HyGage method.



**Figure 9.** HyGage implementation at Oxford test site: a), b) validation of the entropy model for IVRC implementation; c), d) conventional “dynamic” monitoring approaches for discharge determination; e), f) HyGage performance in tracing actual unsteady flows

## DISCUSSION

556 The analyses presented in the previous section show that the test sites examined in this  
 557 study exhibit relatively weak hysteresis. It should be noted that these sites were selected  
 558 for the availability of key data needed to evaluate HyGage capabilities, rather than for the  
 559 severity of hysteresis during ST-GVFs. Additionally, the periods with usable data for testing  
 560 HyGage components at Grenoble-Campus site and the full-fledged HyGage at Oxford site  
 561 did not include GVF events suitable for assessing sensitivity to hysteresis magnitude.  
 562 Neither site has independent, direct discharge measurements collected during ST-GVFs,  
 563 which limits the availability of ground truth for evaluating the methods tested here. Such  
 564 benchmark datasets with adequate temporal resolution are rarely available (e.g., Faye &  
 565 Cherry, 1980) due to the high logistical and financial demands involved.

567 Despite these logistical limitations, the time-dependent and time-independent  
568 relationships among the primary hydraulic variables—water-surface elevation (*WSE*),  
569 index velocity ( $V_{index}$ ), and free-surface slope (*FSS*)—displayed in Figures 7 and 8 show the  
570 expected hysteresis signatures. In particular, the link between hydrograph peak separation  
571 and the extent of the looped variable relationships, clearly reflect hysteretic behavior, even  
572 if the ST-GVFs are comparatively mild.

573 Another notable feature of the multi-variable relationships in Figure 7 and 8 is that the  
574 IVRC, CSA, and HyGage monitoring methods depart from the simple HQRC one-to-one  
575 relationship during the event propagation demonstrating that these methods recover the  
576 dynamic flow features missed by HQRC. Furthermore, it is also apparent that the sensitivity  
577 of the *FSS* loops is stronger compared with the stage vs. discharge and stage vs. index-  
578 velocity ones. This finding implies that hysteresis primarily affects the *WSE-FSS*  
579 relationship, underscoring the need to include this hydraulic variable when monitoring  
580 hysteresis-prone sites. The above-mentioned features have been apparent in prior studies  
581 conducted by the authors at multiple gaging sites (Muste et al. 2025a, 2025b).

582 The datasets analyzed herein substantiate some useful practical aspects of the HyGage  
583 implementation. The first considerations are referring to the conventional IVRC method  
584 that is the most mature monitoring method besides HQRC (at least in the US). A subject of  
585 clarification for future studies is the reliability and validity of the index-velocities measured  
586 with HADCPs that acquire velocities along a path length that is often a fraction of the river  
587 width, even for low stages. In this regard, Hoitink (2018), states that the side-installed  
588 HADCP should reach beyond the distance from the riverbank where the depth-averaged  
589 velocity exceeds the cross-section averaged velocity, a requirement quite difficult to  
590 achieve in rivers with pronounced cross-section variability. Moreover, the physical  
591 relevance of sampling velocity profiles along horizontal lines of sight is questionable in  
592 comparison with sampling vertical velocity distributions in the deep portion of the cross  
593 section. Problems such as temporary changes in the flow field structure due to secondary  
594 currents can be more detrimental in reconstructing the 2-D cross-sectional velocity  
595 distribution from limited horizontal sampling compared with the measurement acquiring  
596 of the velocity profile in one relevant vertical and extrapolating this distribution profile  
597 over the river width (Le Coz et al., 2008). Finally, the persistence of the HADCP failure to  
598 measure velocity in the far-field area of the acoustic path requires first to identify the  
599 source of the problem (e.g., loss in the signal return) and subsequently finding robust  
600 corrections that require a limited number of additional in-situ verification measurements.

601 An additional consideration regarding the IVRC method is the proven efficiency of the  
602 entropy model to replace the laborious IVRC method. For the present study, index-  
603 velocities ( $V_{index}$ ) were acquired along a horizontal path and converted to cross-sectional  
604 velocity ( $V_{mean}$ ) distribution using a relatively small number of input data and physical  
605 governing laws. The advantages of the entropy model entail flexibility in adopting various  
606 instruments for the index-velocity measurements (i.e., in singular points, over a vertical or  
607 horizontal line of sight or over surfaces in the body of water) and attaining a computational  
608 speed that can be implemented in real time. An additional benefit of the entropy model is  
609 enabling to compute the stream discharge ( $Q$ ) using analytical means rather than making

610 recourse to empirical correlations between in-situ measured variables ( $V_{index}$  and  $Q$ )  
611 supported by statistical analyses that do not always account for the actual flow  
612 mechanisms. Recent studies suggest that the entropy model is increasingly used as an  
613 alternative for conventional IVRC method implemented various index-velocity  
614 measurement approaches (e.g., Moramarco et al., 2019; Bahmanpouri et a., 2022; Kechnit  
615 et al., 2024; Singh, 2025).

616 Other useful practical considerations can be drawn regarding the implementation of the  
617 CSA method, a viable monitoring approach increasingly used for monitoring ST-GVFs. A  
618 closer inspection of the *FSS* time series trends illustrated in Figs. 8a, 8e vs. those in Figs. 9a,  
619 9e substantiate that in the former case the *FSS* hydrograph does not display a depression  
620 following its peak, while in the latter case a *FSS* dip is visible for both storm time series.  
621 This difference in *FSS* pattern is most probably related to a longer than optimal distance  
622 between the location of stage sensors as demonstrated with numerical simulations in  
623 House et al. (2025a). Currently, efforts to obtain *FSS* over large scales using remote sensing  
624 are increasingly tackled using satellite-borne instrumentation (Sichangi, et al., 2018; Bauer-  
625 Gottwein et al., 2024; Dhote et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025).

626 Along with previously analyses of more than 20 gaging sites worldwide (Muste et al.,  
627 2022b; 2025b), this study confirms deviations of actual flows from those estimated with  
628 the routinely used HQRC even if the sites are affected by weak hysteresis. Specifically, the  
629 present study confirms that hysteresis is site- and event-dependent as indicated by the  
630 1.6% to 96% range for the four storms analyzed herein (see Figs. 7b, 7f, 8b and 8f). These  
631 departures can be seen as uncertainty intervals in the data provided by HQRC. Most of the  
632 differences are considerably larger than the customarily 5% tacitly accepted in practice  
633 (Schmidt, 2002). At the present time, there is scarce evidence of the impact of the three  
634 leading causes to produce hysteresis (i.e., the local slope of the channel bed, the flashiness  
635 and the magnitude of the Fr numbers of the propagating waves) acting alone or in different  
636 combinations. Scant and frugal analytical inferences, not fully vetted with experimental  
637 evidence, are broadly hinting that value of the bed slope is a dominant causal factor. For  
638 example, Dottori et al. (2009) indicate that rivers with bed slopes ( $S_0$ ) smaller than  $5 \times 10^{-4}$   
639 are potentially displaying hysteresis while Fread (1975) propose  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  for the same  
640 criterion. Perumal et al. (2006) suggest the  $| (1/S_0) \partial h / \partial x | \leq 0.5$  criterion to distinguish  
641 between kinematic and diffusive waves, hence the presence or absence of hysteresis in  
642 HQRCs due to unsteady flows. More of these types of diagnostic formulas need to be tested  
643 to assess hysteresis presence and its severity to inform on the necessity for alternative  
644 monitoring flow protocols at new or existing monitoring sites.

645 Given that the implementation and operation of the methods for continuous in situ  
646 streamflow monitoring come with sizable expenses, the decision whether a dynamic rating  
647 curve is needed for a specific combination of factors should be based on a rigorous  
648 assessment of the site morphological and hydrological characteristics and faithful cost-  
649 benefit analyses, as described in Muste et al. (2025b). Table 2 lists rough cost estimates  
650 associated with IVRC, CSA, and HyGage implementation (USGS 2024, personal  
651 communication). The actual costs for a specific situation are highly variable depending on

652 the monitoring infrastructure existent at the site (i.e., old or new gage), the instrument  
 653 accuracy and the role of the gaging station (i.e., monitoring, flood hazard forecasting).

654 Table 2. Comparative analysis of the costs for various types of monitoring approaches\*

Method	HQRC	IVRC	CSA	HyGage
Cost referenced to HQRC (%)	reference	+15	+26	+43

655 \*Cost estimations include operation and maintenance and are instrument- and method-dependent

656 In addition to improving the time series accuracy in ST-GVF monitoring and maintaining its  
 657 efficiency in monitoring steady flows, the HyGage measurement capabilities offer  
 658 promising opportunities for further enhancing hydrologic monitoring and modeling and  
 659 fundamental investigations of these complex flows. Previous works identified features of  
 660 the data provided by the dynamic rating methods that are not fully investigated yet  
 661 (Perumal et al., 2006; Dottori et al., 2009). Table 3 lists hydrological/hydraulic  
 662 hydrometric issues that are facilitated by HyGage data usage toward the benefit of various  
 663 aspects of river multi-task monitoring, modeling, and forecasting.

664 **Table 3.** Features of the HyGage measured data that broaden their significance and usage

#	HyGage data features	HyGage data significance & usage
1	Use of Eq. (1) as base for HyGage method accounts for gradual variation of the flow stage in space and time	The method captures accurately discharges during unsteady and backwater flows as well as in various combinations of these flow regimes
2	Use of an analytical relationship between measured variables and their gradients	Elimination of empirical adjustment factors and of statistical tools that are not always physically justifiable. The streamflow monitoring equations are akin to those used in numerical modeling of ST-GVFs.
3	Precise estimation of the peak discharge magnitude and timing (missed by HQRC)	Improvement of data accuracy for calibration/validation of rainfall-runoff and flood routing models and for their assimilation in streamflow forecasting models
4	Precise indication of the magnitude and arrival time for the flood crest	Re-evaluation of the methodology for estimation of peak flow, flow volumes and loads of transported matter (particulate and in suspension) during ST-GVFs
5	Continuous data over the whole duration of ST-GVFs	Reducing the errors introduced by extrapolation of the HQRC ratings at higher flow regimes
6	Capturing the phasing of the peak variable hydrographs	The inherent hydrograph succession (i.e., FSS, velocity, stage) in ST-GVFs can be used to flag the subsequent occurrence of the flood crest timing
7	Inclusion of the directly measured derivative $\partial h / \partial x$	The measured derivative $\partial h / \partial x$ enables calculation of $\partial^2 h / \partial x^2$ during a ST-GVF event. The inflection points in the representation of $\partial^2 h / \partial x^2$ are related to critical control points in the progression of the primitive variable hydrographs.
8	Inclusion of directly measured $\partial V / \partial x$ and $\partial V / \partial t$ gradients	The rate changes are direct reflection of reach- or local spatial changes occurring at the station. Their presence can warn that additional site inspections are needed to verify the validity of the initial gaging site conditions.

665 A promising line of developments for advancing HyGage implementation is offered by  
 666 recent attempts to quantify hydraulic variables in large rivers with remote sensing  
 667 observations acquired from satellites that do not require in-situ infrastructure. Such  
 668 examples are the measurement of river water surface elevation, width, and slope over river  
 669 reaches targeted by the Surface Water and Ocean Topography Mission (Andreadis et al.,

670 2025) and the emerging effort to evaluate free-surface velocity using the Fluvial Video from  
671 Satellite – FluViSat (<https://www.ceh.ac.uk/our-science/projects/Fluvisat>). The  
672 continuous exploration of new hydrometric techniques opens opportunities for equipping  
673 HyGage with more cost-efficient instrument arrangements while also expanding the  
674 coverage area from gaging at one point to simultaneous gaging at multiple sites within  
675 watershed with minimal addition for the infrastructure cost.

## 676 CONCLUSION

677 The HyGage monitoring method described in this study belongs to the family of dynamic  
678 discharge estimation approaches examined through numerical simulations by Dottori et al.  
679 (2009) and applied in situ through the semi empirical protocols of the index velocity  
680 method (Levesque & Oberg, 2012) and the continuous slope area method (Smith et al.,  
681 2010). These approaches have gained prominence among monitoring agencies, particularly  
682 at sites where hysteresis poses challenges to conventional stage–discharge techniques.  
683 HyGage advances this approach by integrating components of both methods within a  
684 unified, physically based framework and by eliminating the dependence on semi empirical  
685 rating curves. A further improvement for HyGage implementation is the incorporation of  
686 the entropy-based conversion of the index velocity to mean cross sectional velocity with  
687 minimum data input.

688 The comparative analysis presented in this paper—featuring the index velocity method, the  
689 continuous slope area method, and the rating independent HyGage formulation—  
690 demonstrates the ability of these approaches to capture hysteretic behavior characteristic  
691 of spatiotemporal gradually varied flow. These features, routinely overlooked by the widely  
692 used height–discharge rating curve method, are resolved by HyGage without sacrificing  
693 applicability under steady flow conditions. Indeed, when the gradients in Eq. (1) become  
694 negligible, the HyGage discharge formulation converges to the conventional stage–  
695 discharge relationship, which has been extensively validated for such regimes.

696 Although the primary objective of this paper is to evaluate the capacity of HyGage to  
697 accurately characterize gradually varied flows, the departures between HyGage derived  
698 discharges and those obtained from traditional stage–discharge relations remain modest at  
699 the analyzed sites due to their mildly hysteretic nature. Nonetheless, the presence of  
700 distinct hysteretic patterns across both rising and falling hydrograph limbs underscores  
701 the value of HyGage for capturing the full dynamics of fluvial wave propagation. The  
702 HyGage capability to distinguish subtle flow mechanisms in ST-GVFs is essential for  
703 improving the efficiency, reliability, and operational utility of hydrometric data, thereby  
704 enabling enhanced situational awareness, more accurate streamflow forecasting, and more  
705 informed decision making across a broad range of riverine environments.

706 Recent advances in sensing technologies—many capable of measuring stage, index velocity,  
707 and free surface slope within a single instrument and deployable across submerged, close  
708 range, and remote sensing platforms—position HyGage as a highly adaptable framework  
709 for quantifying the primitive variables necessary for discharge estimation in real time.

710 Given the HyGage operational flexibility and the hydrometric community's growing shift  
711 toward dynamic, physics-based methods, future studies are expected to build on the  
712 analytical framework presented here to ensure robust operational deployment of HyGage  
713 that aligns with contemporary scientific standards and continuing to expand its capabilities  
714 to new fit-for-purpose applications.

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