

Streamflow Hysteresis Analysis through a Deep Dive Budget of the St Venant Momentum Terms

Emma House^a, Ehab Meselhe^a, Marian Muste^b, and Ibrahim Demir^a

^a Tulane University: 6823 St Charles Ave, New Orleans, LA 70118, U.S.A., ehouse@tulane.edu, emeselhe@tulane.edu, idemir@tulane.edu.

^b University of Iowa: IIHR-Hydroscience & Engineering, C. Maxwell Stanley Hydraulics Laboratory, Iowa City, IA 52245, U.S.A., kyeongdong-kim@uiowa.edu, marian-muste@uiowa.edu.

Corresponding Author: Emma House ehouse@tulane.edu

This manuscript is an EarthArXiv preprint which has been submitted for publication in WATER RESOURCES RESEARCH. Please note that, despite having undergone peer-review, the manuscript has yet to be formally accepted for publication. Subsequent versions of this manuscript may have slightly different content. If accepted, the final version of this manuscript will be available via the 'Peer-reviewed Publication DOI' link on the right-hand side of this webpage. Please feel free to contact the corresponding author; we welcome feedback.

16 **Abstract**

17 Hysteretic conditions entail non-unique time-independent relationships in flow variables
18 and are prevalent in the unsteady flow regime of most rivers worldwide. Estimation errors
19 associated with the inability of current monitoring techniques to resolve hysteresis effects could
20 have profound implications when the recorded data is used for water resources management and
21 flood forecasting. A deep analysis of streamflow hysteresis is performed by tracking the St
22 Venant momentum equation terms for storm events propagating at several locations along the
23 Illinois River, USA, using a combined 1D/2D hydraulic model. We correlate flow characteristics
24 with magnitude and timing patterns in these terms to determine their relevance to the presence
25 and absence of hysteretic conditions. The dynamic equation analysis confirms that the hysteretic
26 behavior is related to certain defining characteristics in momentum terms. The local acceleration
27 term only temporally advances the flood wave and is not an indication of hysteretic behavior.
28 Non-hysteretic streamflow has large and balanced gravity and friction forces, equating it to
29 kinematic wave conditions. Meanwhile, hysteretic streamflow has a clear disparity between
30 gravity and friction forces, balanced by active diffusive and convective acceleration forces. In
31 such hysteretic conditions, the diffusive, convective acceleration, and friction slope terms exhibit
32 non-unique relationships and a peak-phasing phenomenon much like the hysteresis signature of
33 the hydraulic variables used to estimate streamflow. For non-hysteretic conditions, the
34 relationships are purely unique and linear, with synchronized variable peaks. The revealed flow
35 characteristics provide information on the important drivers of streamflow hysteresis and create
36 opportunities for improving streamflow monitoring and forecasting.

37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 Streamflow hysteresis occurs during flood events in mildly sloped rivers and results in
39 flows during the build-up of the event being larger than those during the flood recession for a
40 given water level. This presents a complexity not captured by the simplistic assumptions of
41 current streamflow monitoring protocols and prompts further research into the drivers of
42 streamflow hysteresis. Using numerical model simulations with various hysteretic signals, we
43 examine various terms of the governing equations for 1D flow. Through this, we identify
44 differences in the underlying flow regime of streamflow for a range of streamflow conditions. It
45 is seen that non-hysteretic streamflow behaves as kinematic flow while hysteretic streamflow has
46 active diffusive and dynamic terms. We also see a peak-phasing in the momentum terms in
47 hysteretic streamflow. The uncovered flow characteristics in hysteretic streamflow may be
48 utilized for improved streamflow estimation and forecasting.

49 **1 Introduction**

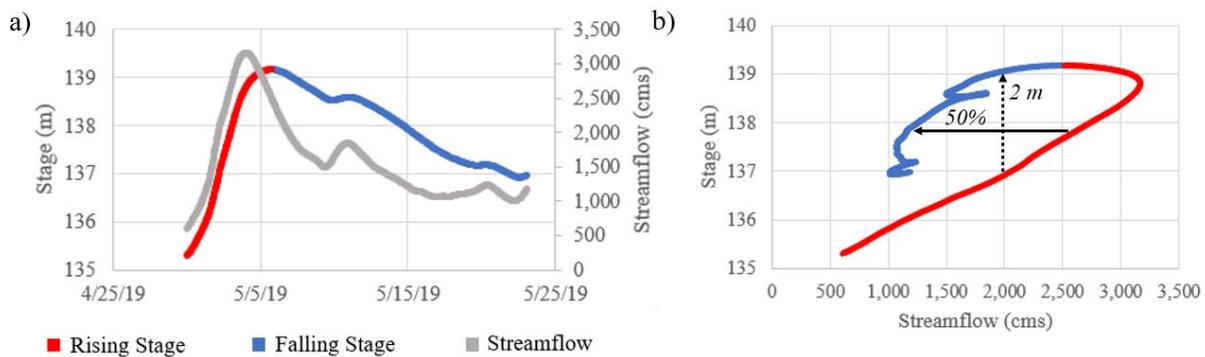
50 In riverine monitoring and flood prediction, a critical challenge persists in the need for
51 accurate streamflow data and timely forecasts (Demir et al., 2022). Streamflow data is used for
52 flood forecasting (Krajewski et al., 2021; Sit et al., 2021), inundation mapping (Li & Demir,
53 2022), water quality constituents (Jones et al., 2018), sediment studies (Xu et al., 2019), reservoir
54 management, and more. The USGS introduced continuous streamflow monitoring to the United
55 States in the early 1800s (Follansbee, 1944). In the past 200 years, there have been incremental
56 developments in the measurement protocols used for continuously collecting streamflow data.
57 Most methods are based on relationships constructed with steady flow assumption that are not
58 valid during unsteady flows. These semi-empirical relationships (a.k.a. rating curves) relate

59 continuously measured hydraulic variables such as stage, index velocity, or free-surface slope
 60 with streamflow (Rantz, 1982; Levesque and Oberg, 2012; Holmes, 2016; Muste et al., 2019).

61 The most used streamflow monitoring method is the century-old stage-discharge rating,
 62 which is based on underlying physics that has hardly received scientific justification. This has
 63 resulted in widely recognized problems in developing and applying ratings in unsteady flows,
 64 hence requiring a variety of empirical adjustments that are applied after the data is collected
 65 (Schmidt & Garcia, 2013). The only source of accurate data on unsteady flow is obtained by
 66 directly measuring the discharge with instruments such as Acoustic Doppler Current Profilers
 67 (ADCP). Given that streamflow data acquired with ADCP, or any other instruments, are too
 68 costly and time-intensive to feasibly use for continuous in-situ measurements, the rating-based
 69 methods continue to be used for monitoring steady and unsteady flows. Currently, there are no
 70 systematic studies to detect the presence of hysteresis during flood wave propagation nor
 71 rigorous investigations to identify the physical reasons for documented shortcomings in ratings.
 72 This study aims to investigate the natural dynamics of unsteady streamflow to support
 73 developments of monitoring methods that open the door to more accurate estimations and
 74 forecasts.

75 1.1 Streamflow Hysteresis

76 Hysteresis in river streamflow occurs during unsteady flow conditions when the water
 77 surface slope changes due to rapidly rising or falling water levels in a channel. Most pronounced
 78 in mild sloped streams exposed to large flood waves, hysteresis introduces a non-unique
 79 relationship among flow variables during the phases of flood wave propagation. This peak-phase
 80 effect and “loop rating curve” (Figure 1), reflects a larger streamflow (for the same stage) during
 81 the rising limb than the falling limb of the hydrograph (Henderson, 1966; Dottori et al., 2009,
 82 Muste et al., 2020). Additionally, for the same discharge, the river stage is higher during the
 83 falling limb than the rising limb. This noted complexity presents a variation from the steady-state
 84 assumptions used in the current protocols for estimating streamflow.



85 **Figure 1.** Model-simulated hysteretic streamflow data for the Illinois River at Henry, IL for a
 86 summer 2015 storm event, a) hydrographs of stage and streamflow, and b) stage-discharge rating
 87 curve. The rising and falling limbs of the stage hydrograph are distinguished using color in both
 88 plots to show the approximately 50% decrease in flow for a given stage (plain arrow), and 2-
 89 meter increase in stage for a given flow (dotted arrow), between the rising and recession limbs.
 90

91 Overlooking hysteretic channel flow dynamics causes estimation errors that are
 92 inadequately considered epistemic uncertainties and being most often larger than the <5%
 93 typically accepted in the current monitoring protocols (Schmidt, 2002). Hysteretic conditions are

94 present in the unsteady streamflow regime of 67% of rivers gaged with the stage-discharge
95 method by the USGS (Holmes, 2016). Hysteresis effects due to flood waves can lead to as much
96 as 65% error in measurements with conventional methods (Muste et al., 2022a). Furthermore,
97 unsteady flows can last for up to 50% of the annual streamflow cycle in low-gradient rivers
98 (Muste et al., 2024). Since hysteresis is so prevalent in natural channels, errors of this magnitude
99 have profound implications on flood forecasting and water resources management.

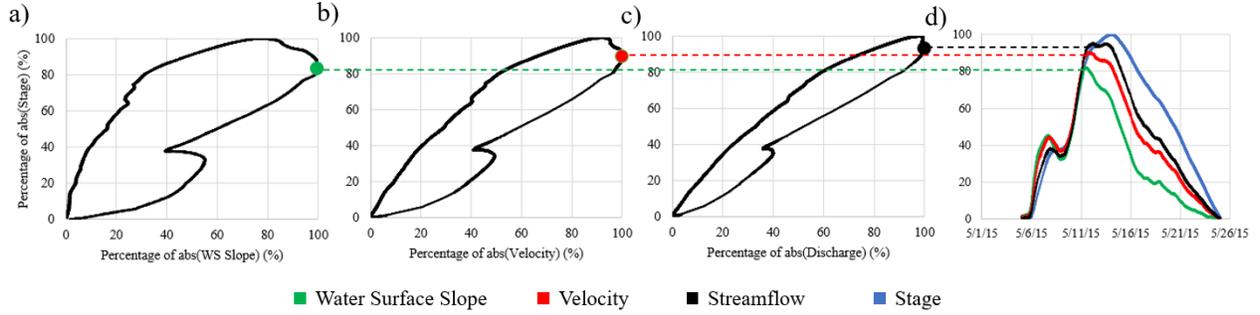
100 **1.2 Conventional Rating Curve Methods**

101 While the stage-discharge rating curve HQRC method is accurate for steady flows, the
102 actual flows can depart considerably from the estimates with HQRC in unsteady flows
103 (Kennedy, 1984; Fenton, 2001). Monitoring agencies are aware of the limitations of the HQRC
104 performance when monitoring unsteady flows and/or in the presence of backwater (Rantz et al.,
105 1982). Consequently, new methods are tested and implemented for monitoring these more
106 complex flows (Holmes, 2016). Currently, there are several conventional and emerging
107 monitoring methods including the widely used stage-discharge (HQRC) approach and the index-
108 velocity (IVRC) method which, as of 2011, is used to estimate streamflow for 470 USGS
109 stations (Levesque and Oberg, 2012; Holmes, 2016). Due to its inclusion of index velocity, a
110 dynamic flow characteristic, IVRC is better suited than HQRC for estimating unsteady
111 streamflow (Cheng et al., 2019). The Continuous Slope Area (CSA) method utilizing continuous
112 water surface slope measurements to estimate streamflow has been tested by Smith et al. (2010)
113 and subsequently validated with field conditions and numerical simulations by Lee et al. (2017)
114 and Muste et al. (2019).

115 The HQRC monitoring method can be corrected for hysteresis through post-processing
116 algorithms that involve additional in-situ measurements (Rantz et al., 1982; Schmidt & Garcia,
117 2003). However, due to the correction costs, they are currently only applied to rivers in major
118 flood-prone areas where the gaging stations support streamflow forecasting (Muste et al.,
119 2022b). Due to the limitations of current methods, novel approaches for accurately estimating
120 streamflow will continue to be developed. Improvements in instrumentation technology within
121 the last few decades can help to narrow the gap between our current knowledge of cyclical flow
122 dynamics and the protocols for continuous monitoring and forecasting streamflow. This study
123 makes an effort along this line by analyzing fine details of the unsteady flow dynamics that
124 inform on the strategy to be adopted for accurate streamflow monitoring with considerations of
125 the local conditions at the measurement sites.

126 **1.3 Essentials of Hysteresis Behavior**

127 To characterize streamflow properly, it is critical to reveal the hysteretic behavior of flow
128 variables. Hysteresis is currently identified by two well-documented phenomena: 1) the non-
129 unique relationships between flow variables for the rising and falling stages of flood wave
130 propagation (Figure 1), and 2) the sequential peak-phasing of the flow variables: water surface
131 slope, velocity, discharge, and stage (Figure 2, Graf and Qu, 2004; Muste et al., 2022a). The later
132 hysteretic feature is observed in simulations with hydraulic models using unsteady flow engines
133 but is rarely captured with field measurements due to the complexity of such an undertaking.



134

135 **Figure 2.** Model-simulated hysteretic streamflow data for the Illinois River at Henry, IL a) stage
 136 vs. water surface slope, b) stage vs. average cross-sectional velocity, c) stage vs. discharge, and
 137 d) sequential peak-phasing for an event in 2015 (after Muste et al., 2022).

138 Hydrographs of these variables in hysteretic streamflow are both unique and sequential in
 139 time: characteristics that can be utilized in both streamflow estimation and forecasting (Muste et
 140 al., 2022b). For example, the dynamic terms, water surface slope, and velocity peaking early in
 141 hysteretic reaches can be great predictors for machine learning streamflow forecasting
 142 algorithms. There may be further defining and useful features of hysteresis that may be
 143 uncovered using numerical models. Diving deeper into the flow physics, there may be a link
 144 between the relative magnitude of the full-dynamic equation momentum terms and the formation
 145 of hysteretic behavior.

146

1.4 Momentum Terms

147

148 The continuity (Eq. 1) and momentum (Eq. 2) equations are relevant in streamflow
 149 estimation, as together they represent the governing De Saint Venant equations for 1D flow
 150 which conserve mass and momentum or energy, depending on the formulation used (de St
 151 Venant, 1871; Knight, 2005; Muste et al., 2020; Meselhe et al, 1997). Friction and gravity forces
 152 make up the kinematic term of the equation while the acceleration and pressure gradient,
 153 representing the dynamic and diffusive terms, respectively, account for unsteadiness in the
 154 streamflow stage and velocity in the streamwise direction. Several studies have focused on the
 155 separation of these forces within the exploration of wave types and flow routing to identify the
 156 applicability of various forms of the St Venant equations (Ferrick et al., 1985; Meselhe et al.,
 2021).

157

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (1)$$

158

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{Q^2}{A} \right) + gA \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} + gA(S_0 - S_f) = 0 \quad (2)$$

159

160 where Q is discharge, A is cross-sectional area, x is distance along the channel, t is time, y is
 161 depth, g is the gravity constant, S_0 is bed slope, and S_f is friction slope. In (2), local acceleration
 162 $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial t}$ and convective acceleration $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{Q^2}{A} \right)$ make up the dynamic momentum term, $gA \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ is the
 163 pressure gradient or diffusive term, and $gA(S_0 - S_f)$ is the balance of gravity and friction forces
 164 which makes up the kinematic term. The contributions of these terms to the overall budget in the
 165 momentum equation applied to various sites and event intensities define the type of fluvial wave
 passing through the site at various instances, i.e., kinematic, diffusive or dynamic.

166 There is further work to be done on the parameterization of flow variable relationships
167 contributing to hysteresis, so this study uses process-based numerical models to reproduce the
168 hydraulic dynamics in unsteady flows to better understand the phenomenon. By providing more
169 detail and robustness than is attainable with direct measurements, essential evidence-based
170 support is provided to inform flood monitoring and management decisions.

171 To achieve reliable results from a modeling-based study, it is important to ensure that
172 models are performing according to physics and observed data. We hypothesize that streamflow
173 hysteresis can be represented with numerical simulations if the proper form of the governing
174 equations, timestep, channel geometry, and boundary conditions allow for this.

175 The validated physics-based model output will provide valuable insights toward
176 answering the question of whether there is a discernable difference between the significance of
177 individual momentum terms between hysteretic and non-hysteretic streamflow. We hypothesize
178 that there is a direct link between the relative magnitudes of the momentum terms and the
179 presence or absence of hysteretic behavior. Just as the non-kinematic St Venant terms are
180 negligible in steady-uniform flow, some terms may have defining characteristics in hysteretic
181 streamflow.

182 **2 Materials and Methods**

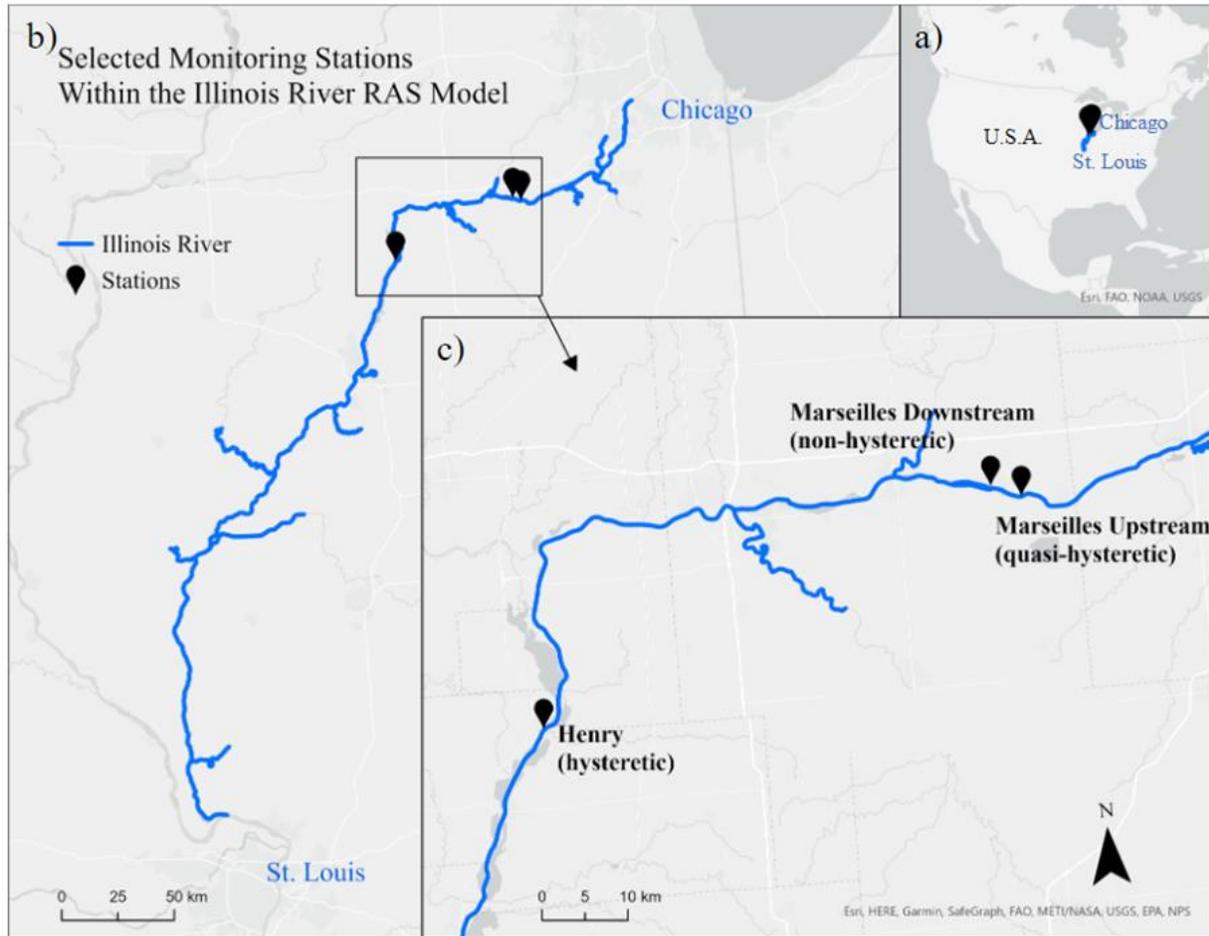
183 In a process-based modeling approach, several numerical models are combined to
184 produce the output that constitutes this study. A large hydraulic model and accompanying set of
185 reduced complexity models simulate streamflow of varying hysteretic intensity.

186 **2.1 Illinois River Hydraulic Model**

187 The primary study area for this analysis is the Illinois River, which has a variable slope
188 and many interactions with lakes, pools, channels, and backwater conditions. The complexity of
189 the riverine system makes hysteresis dynamics present and variable, which is why the vast extent
190 of the Upper Mississippi River (UMR) system is a suitable study area.

191 The primary model used as a basis for this study is set up as a 1D/2D Hydrologic
192 Engineering Center River Analysis System (HEC-RAS) model developed by the US Army Corps
193 of Engineers (USACE), as the Phase III portion of the UMR Flood Risk Management hydraulic
194 model system (USACE, 2022). Its intended purpose is to inform risk management decisions for
195 the UMR Watershed Plan. The model extends from Lockport Lock and dam at Lockport, IL to
196 the Illinois River's confluence with the Mississippi River at Grafton, MS (Figure 3). The
197 simulations perform unsteady computations by using the 1D unsteady finite difference numerical
198 solution and the 2D unsteady diffusion wave equation.

199 Study locations for this analysis are highlighted in Figure 3. Located on straight reaches,
200 these locations are represented by 1D channel geometry in the model so that the St Venant
201 equations are applicable to capture the full flow dynamics. These locations also have varying
202 channel and flow characteristics. For example, the flow at Marseilles, IL downstream of the
203 Marseilles lock and dam (Mars_DS) can generally be characterized by a steady stage-discharge
204 rating curve, while the station at Henry, IL is observed to have a large loop rating curve with
205 rising streamflow larger than falling streamflow for a given stage. These two stations will
206 represent the non-hysteretic and hysteretic streamflow for the analysis, respectively.



207

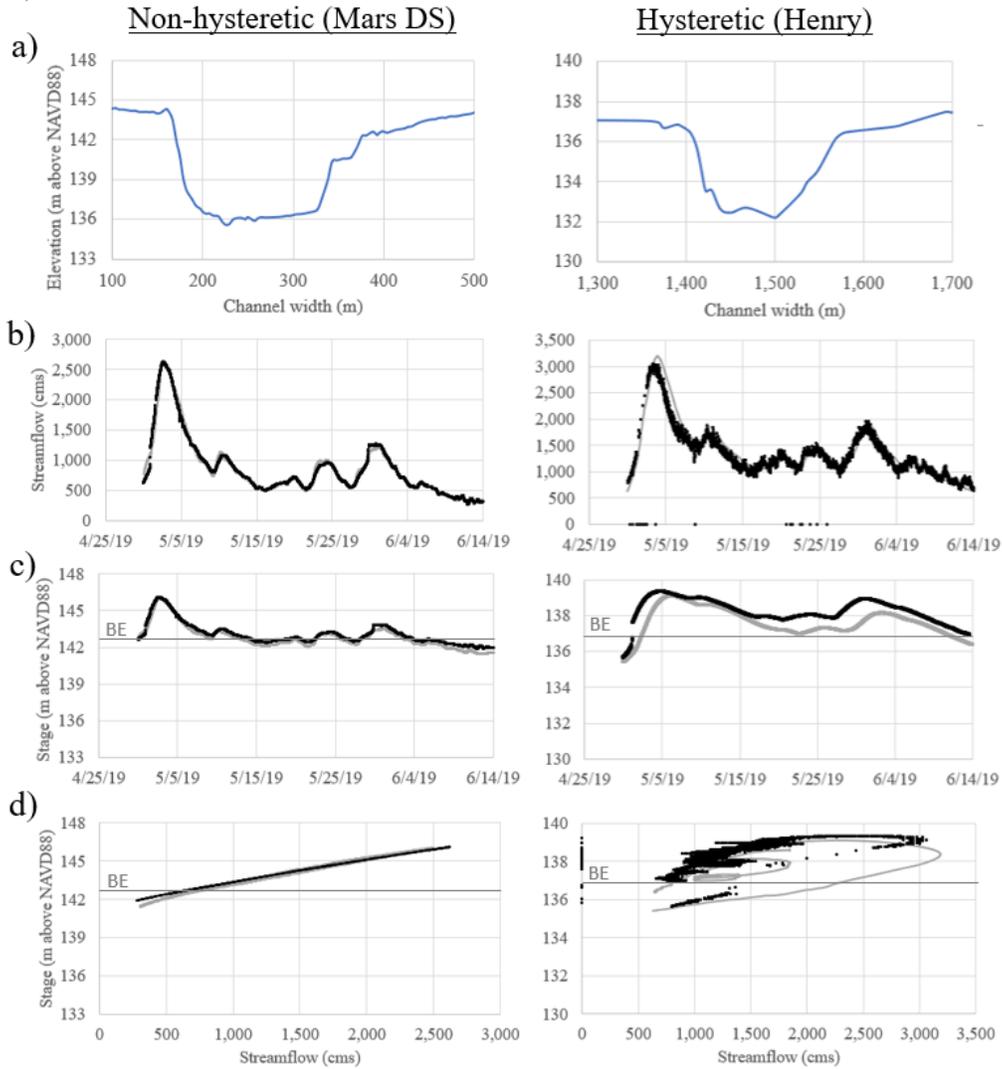
208 **Figure 3.** An overview map of a) the United States, b) the Illinois River RAS model extent with
 209 monitoring station case study locations, and c) case study locations and their preliminary
 210 hysteresis classification highlighted.

211 The Illinois River RAS model has input data from a wide range of sources. Light
 212 Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) data with horizontal resolution of 1-m resampled to 2-m was
 213 used to create the topographic-bathymetric layer (USACE, 2022). Manning's roughness
 214 coefficients vary spatially for 1D and 2D model elements, determined using the National Land
 215 Cover Database (NLCD). Bridges, ineffective flow areas, levees, and dams are accounted for
 216 using lateral structures and 2D flow areas. Hydrologic inflow data at the mainstem boundaries
 217 and major tributaries are sources from the USGS and USACE monitoring sites on the river.
 218 Finally, a North Central River Forecast Center conceptual model estimates inflows for
 219 approximately 20% of the area which has no measured observations. This setup results in a well-
 220 performing model that is useful for both practical applications and scientific studies.

221 2.2 Flood Events

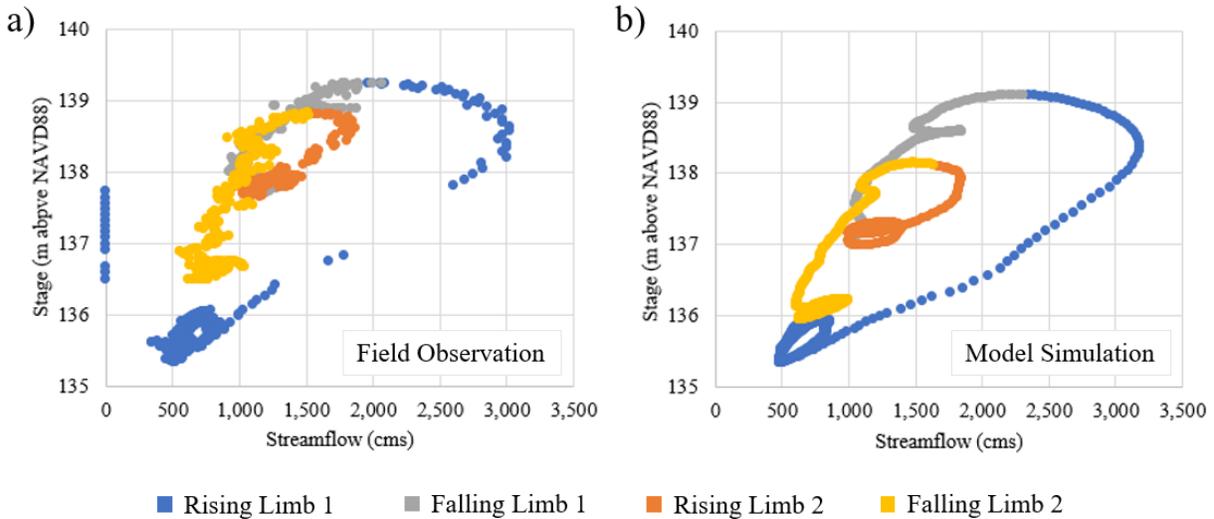
222 The two flood events of focus for this study were moderate to major events for the
 223 Illinois River. The larger event in summer 2019 reached its peak streamflow at approximately
 224 3,000 cms at Henry, IL, and the water level exceeded bankfull elevation (BE) at all locations
 225 studied here. The smaller event in summer 2015 had a peak streamflow of approximately 900
 226 cms and did not exceed bankfull elevation at any of the locations studied. The validation plots in

227 Figures 4 and 5 demonstrate that the Illinois River RAS model matches the observed (IVRC for
 228 estimating streamflow) time series for the 2019 event at two of the study locations (Muste and
 229 Kim, 2021).



230

231 **Figure 4.** Model validation plots showing field (USGS) observations (black) and model
 232 simulations (gray) for locations exhibiting non-hysteretic and hysteretic behavior on the Illinois
 233 River: a) cross section plots, b) streamflow time series, c) stage time series, and d) the stage-
 234 discharge rating curves for the 2019 event. Bankfull elevation (BE) as defined in the Illinois
 235 River RAS model is indicated on the stage axes.



236

237 **Figure 5.** Model validation plots showing stage-discharge rating curves from a) field (USGS)
 238 observations, and b) model simulations for a location exhibiting hysteretic behavior on the
 239 Illinois River (Henry, IL) for the multi-pulse 2019 event with the rising and falling limbs for the
 240 two peaks differentiated in color.

241

2.3 Reduced Complexity Models

242

243 Using numerical models, it is possible to explore changes in flow regime during the
 244 hysteretic cycle throughout the length of a modeled reach. Variation in streamflow hysteresis in
 245 the Illinois River is a great case study to guide hysteresis parameterization. However, the
 246 USACE Illinois River RAS model is computationally heavy with many features that complicate
 this detailed of an examination.

247

248 To gain more control over the analysis, reduced complexity models are created for each
 249 area of interest along the Illinois River. Two benefits of these models are 1) the interpretation of
 250 the result is clearer, and 2) using these representative models increases the capacity for more
 251 detailed simulations with short run times. Using a simple rectangular cross-section and a long
 252 (10km), straight channel, characteristics such as bed slope, channel width, roughness, and
 253 smoothed boundary condition time series are transferred from the Illinois River RAS model to
 254 reduced complexity models that represent a single reach. Three reaches are selected for
 255 comparison here based on their wide range of hysteretic signals. A reach at Marseilles, IL
 256 downstream of the lock and dam generally exhibits non-hysteretic streamflow and is represented
 257 by a steep bed slope of 0.002, width of 250 m, and Manning's n roughness of 0.04. Marseilles,
 258 IL upstream of the dam has a quasi-hysteretic streamflow, mild bed slope of 0.00022, width of
 259 350 m, and $n = 0.025$. Finally, Henry, IL exhibits a strong hysteresis signal, with a mild bed
 260 slope of 0.00027, width of 450 m, and $n = 0.025$. It is important to note that these models use the
 full St Venant equations.

261

262 To study flow dynamics throughout the streamflow hysteresis cycle, the individual terms
 263 of the momentum equation (Eq. 2) are calculated using outputs from the reduced complexity
 264 models at a high temporal frequency. With the output time series (flow, velocity, cross-sectional
 265 area, water surface and friction slopes, etc.) of an unsteady simulation, the individual terms (local
 acceleration, convective acceleration, pressure gradient, friction forces, and gravity forces) can

266 be examined. Drawing correlations between channel characteristics, boundary conditions, and
 267 the relative magnitudes of the momentum terms forms the results of this study.

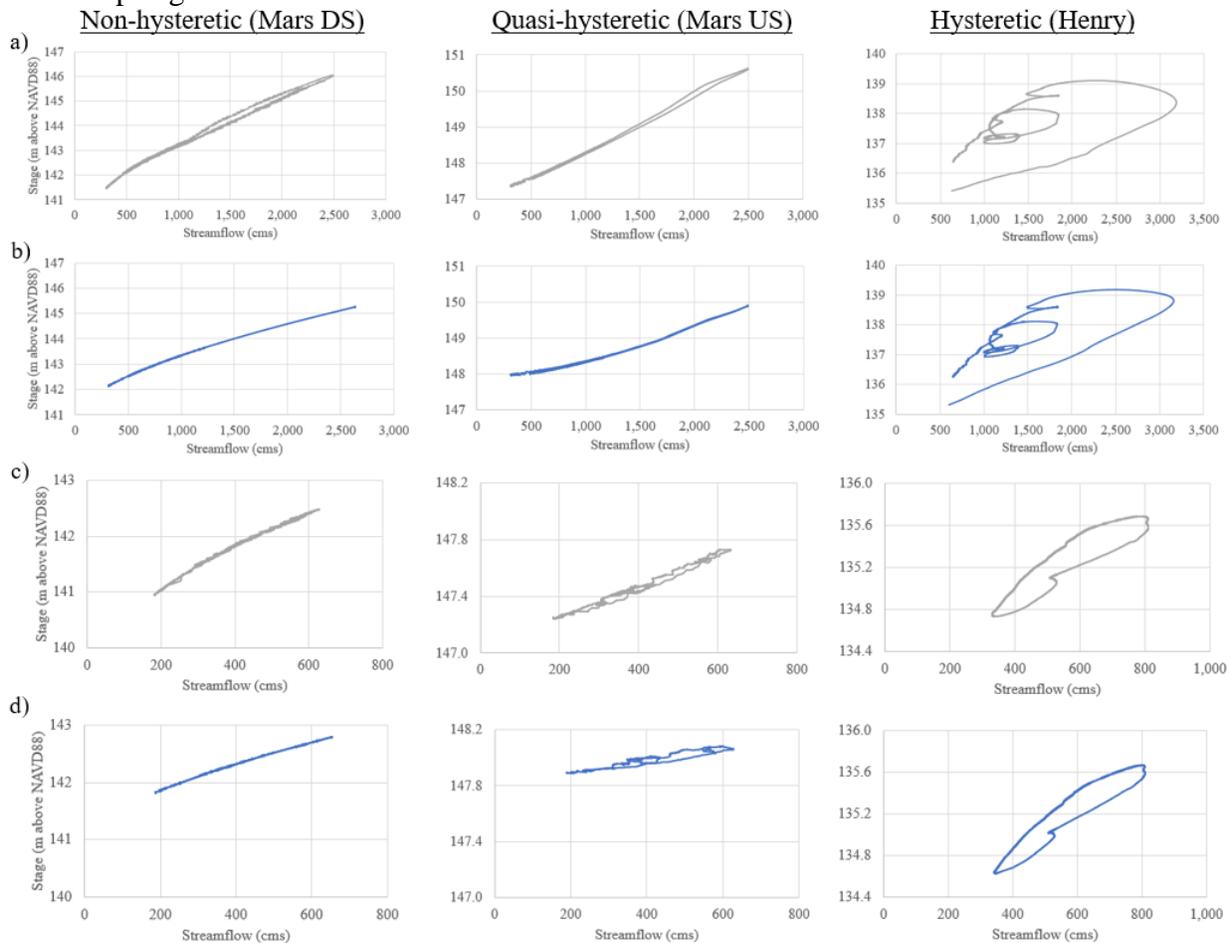
268 **3 Results**

269 The hypotheses are addressed with experimental simulations of the Illinois River RAS
 270 model and reduced complexity numerical models.

271 **3.1 Hysteresis Representation in Models**

272 We check that streamflow hysteresis is accurately represented in these reduced
 273 complexity numerical simulations by 1) looking for the known hysteresis characteristics, looped
 274 relationships and peak variable phasing, and 2) confirming that there is no violation of the laws
 275 of physics.

276 Streamflow hysteresis can be accurately represented in simulations of the full IL River
 277 RAS model, as seen in the distinctly accurate representation of the characteristic loop and
 278 variable phasing in the hysteretic condition (Figures 4-5). Additionally, the reduced complexity
 279 models represent physics without many of the complexities burdening the original model (Figure
 280 6). With this confirmation, we can reliably study the streamflow hysteresis loops intensifying
 281 and collapsing as fluvial flood waves travel down the Illinois River.

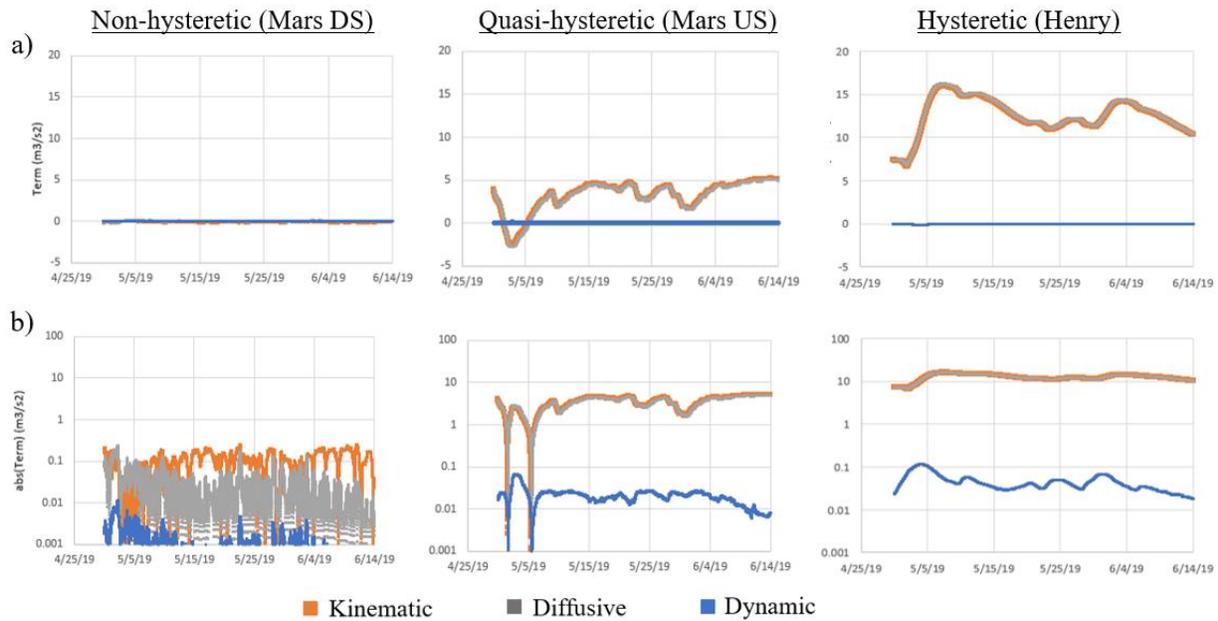


282
 283 **Figure 6.** Preservation of physics plots for the IL River model (gray) and reduced complexity
 284 model (blue) for the a-b) 2019 and c-d) 2015 events.

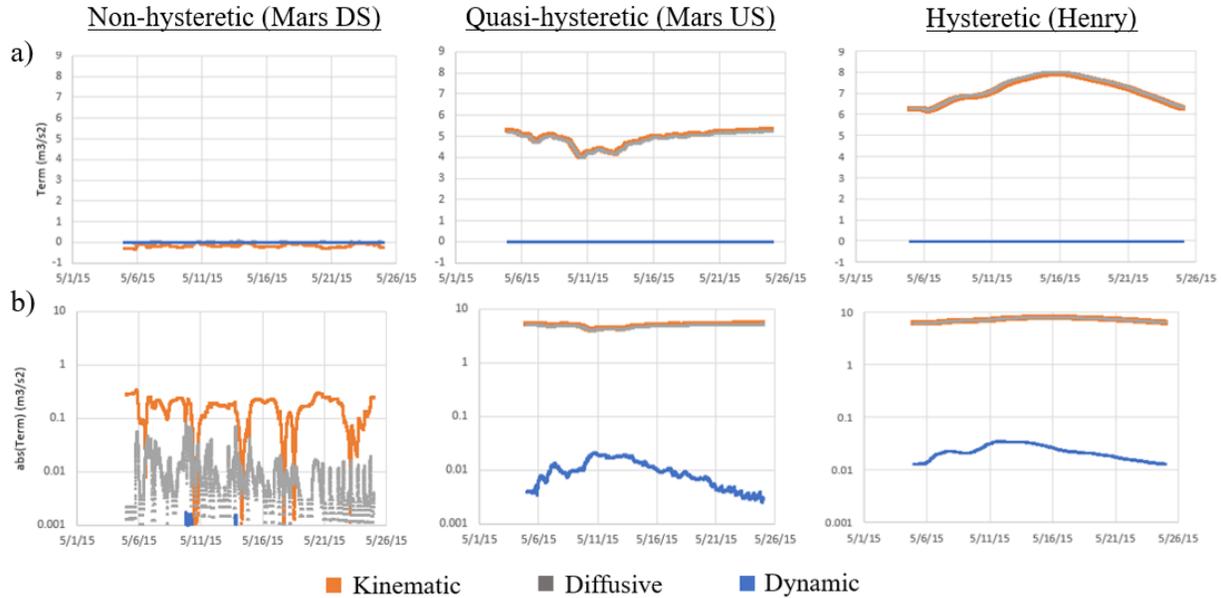
285 The spatial-temporal resolution of the simulations must reliably capture the relevant
 286 dynamics to perform an assessment of the momentum terms during the hysteretic cycle. We
 287 confirm that the conservation of momentum (2) holds true by dividing the absolute value of each
 288 momentum term by the sum of the absolute values of all the terms. For each of the reduced
 289 complexity models, we ensure that the resulting residual error is small ($<1\%$) and that the output
 290 does not change with a further resolved time or space step. The resulting common setup for the
 291 reduced complexity models is a simulation with $dx = 300$ meters and $dt = 1$ minute.

292 **3.2 Kinematic, Diffusive, and Dynamic Momentum Terms**

293 To begin examining momentum terms, we compare output from the reduced complexity
 294 models for the three locations. Figures 7-8 are time series of momentum terms which have
 295 correlations to hysteresis strength.



296
 297 **Figure 7.** Momentum term breakdown showing terms in a) their native values, and b) their
 298 absolute values on a semi-log scale for three locations on the Illinois River for the 2019 event.



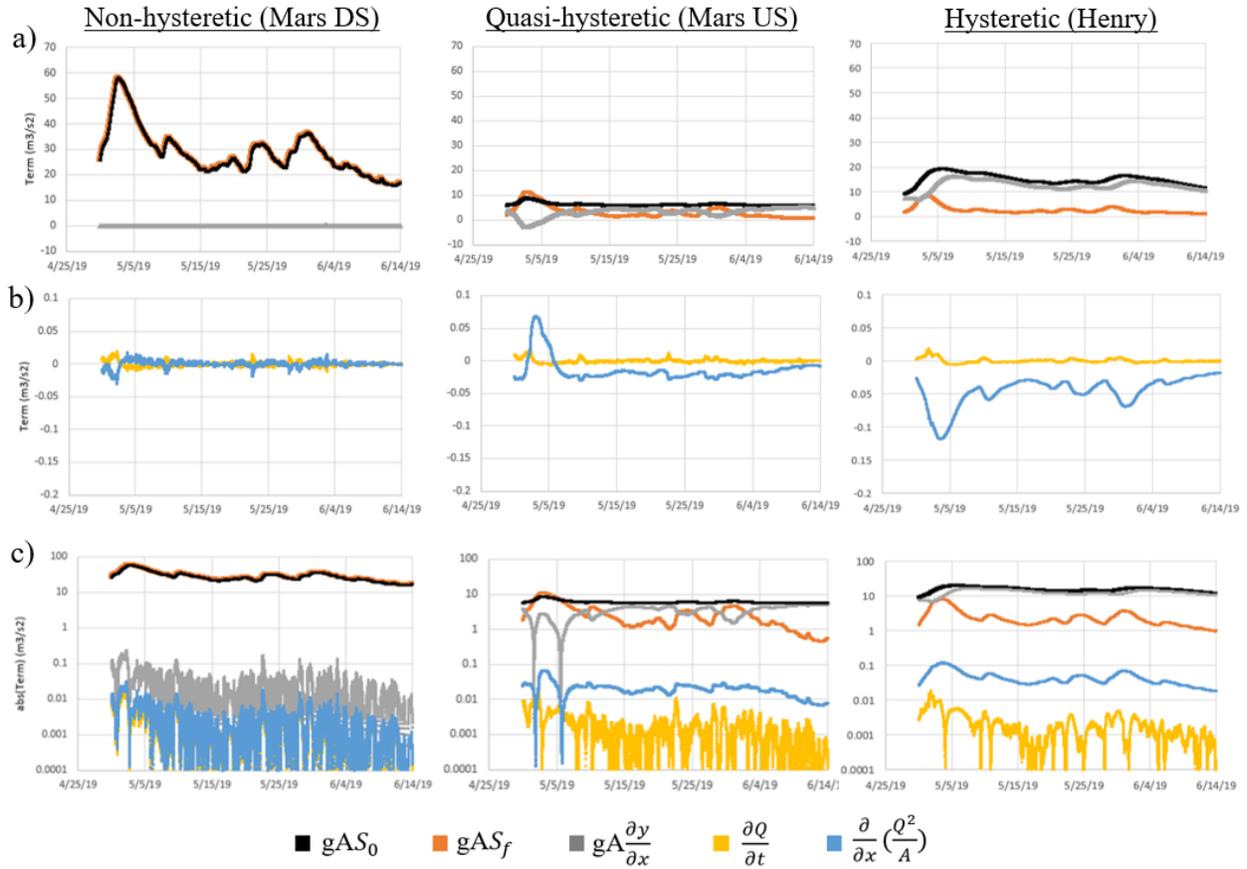
299

300 **Figure 8.** Momentum term breakdown showing terms in a) their native values, and b) their
 301 absolute values on a semi-log scale for three locations on the Illinois River for the 2015 event.

302 When examining the kinematic, diffusive, and dynamic terms as the first level of
 303 breaking down the momentum terms, several observations can be made. The terms are all very
 304 small in the non-hysteretic condition, with a kinematic term near $0.1 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}^2$ and negligible
 305 diffusive and dynamic terms. In the hysteretic condition, kinematic and diffusive (bulk) terms are
 306 comparable and 2-3 orders of magnitude larger, and the dynamic term is active, around 0.01
 307 m^3/s^2 . There is also a sequential peak-phasing observed in the dynamic-bulk terms in the
 308 hysteretic simulation. Although they are significantly out of balance in magnitude, the dynamic
 309 term peaks a few days before the bulk terms in the hysteretic simulation. This phenomenon is
 310 most pronounced in the bottom right plot of Figures 7-8.

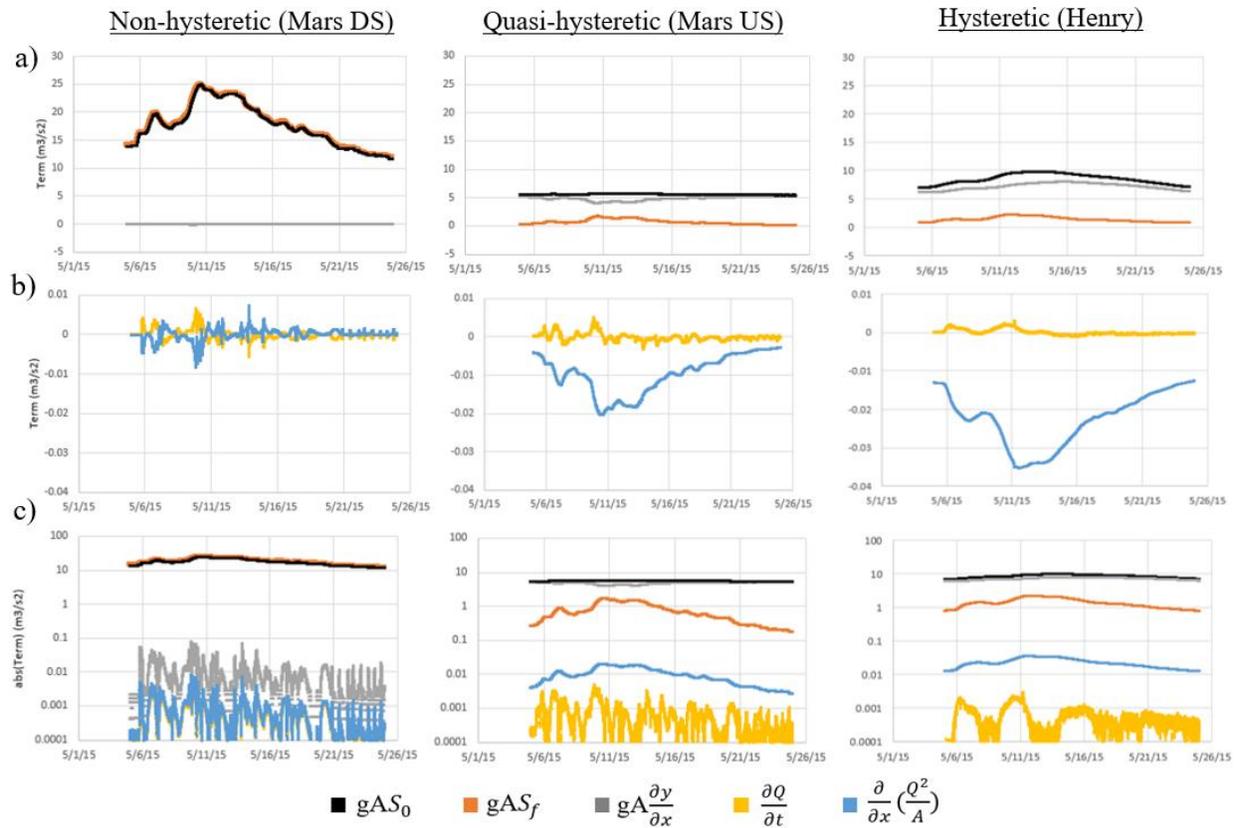
311 3.3 Momentum Term Ingredients

312 To further explore the kinematic, diffusive, and dynamic momentum terms, their
 313 ingredients (namely, local acceleration, convective acceleration, pressure gradient, gravity, and
 314 friction forces) are examined for these three stations and two events. Several key findings are
 315 demonstrated in Figures 9-12 in the time series of momentum term ingredients.



316

317 **Figure 9.** Momentum term ingredients of the a) kinematic and diffusive terms, b) dynamic terms
 318 in their native values, and c) their absolute values on a semi-log scale for three locations on the
 319 Illinois River for the 2019 event.

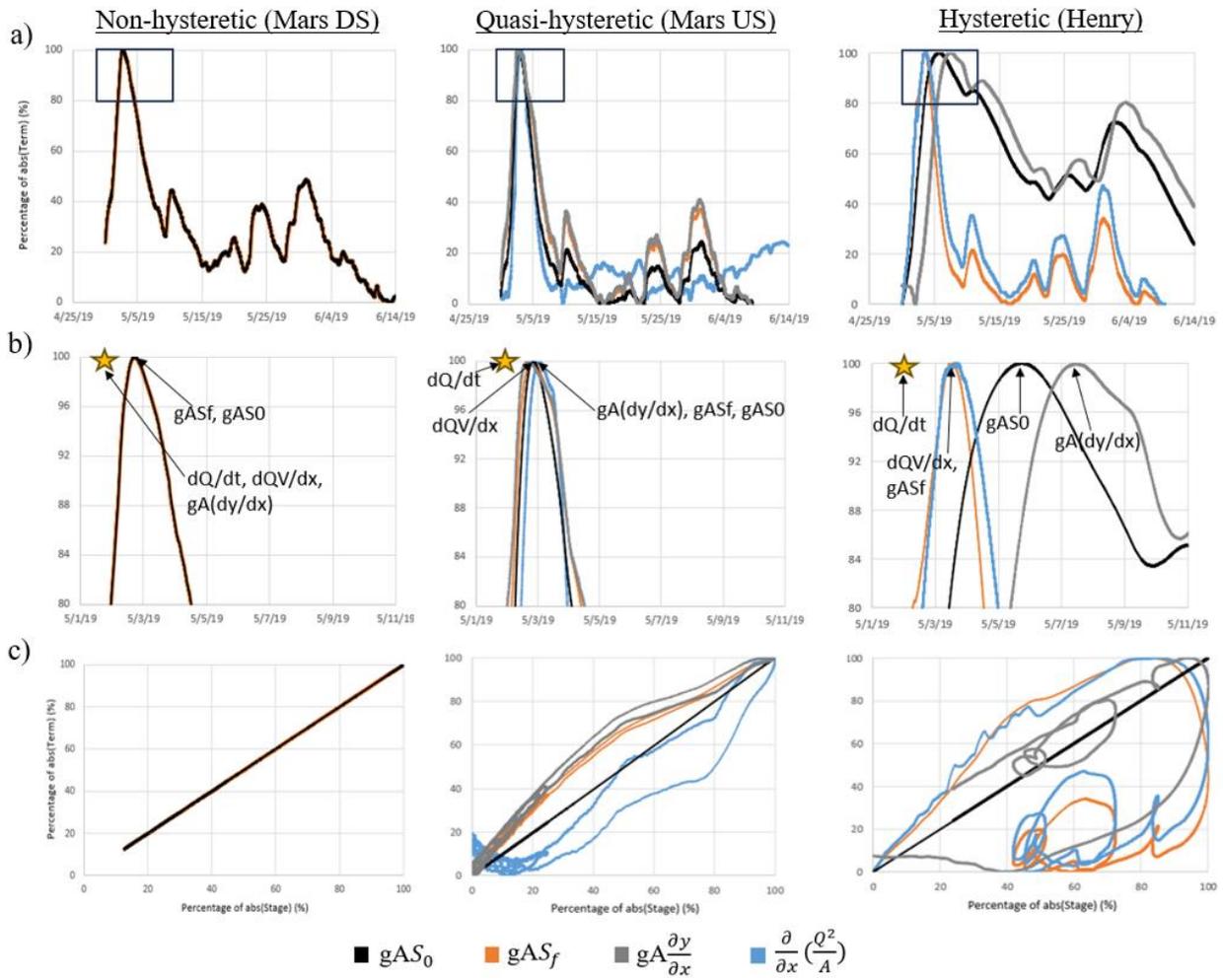


320

321 **Figure 10.** Momentum term ingredients of the a) kinematic and diffusive terms, b) dynamic
 322 terms in their native values, and c) their absolute values on a semi-log scale for three locations on
 323 the Illinois River for the 2015 event.

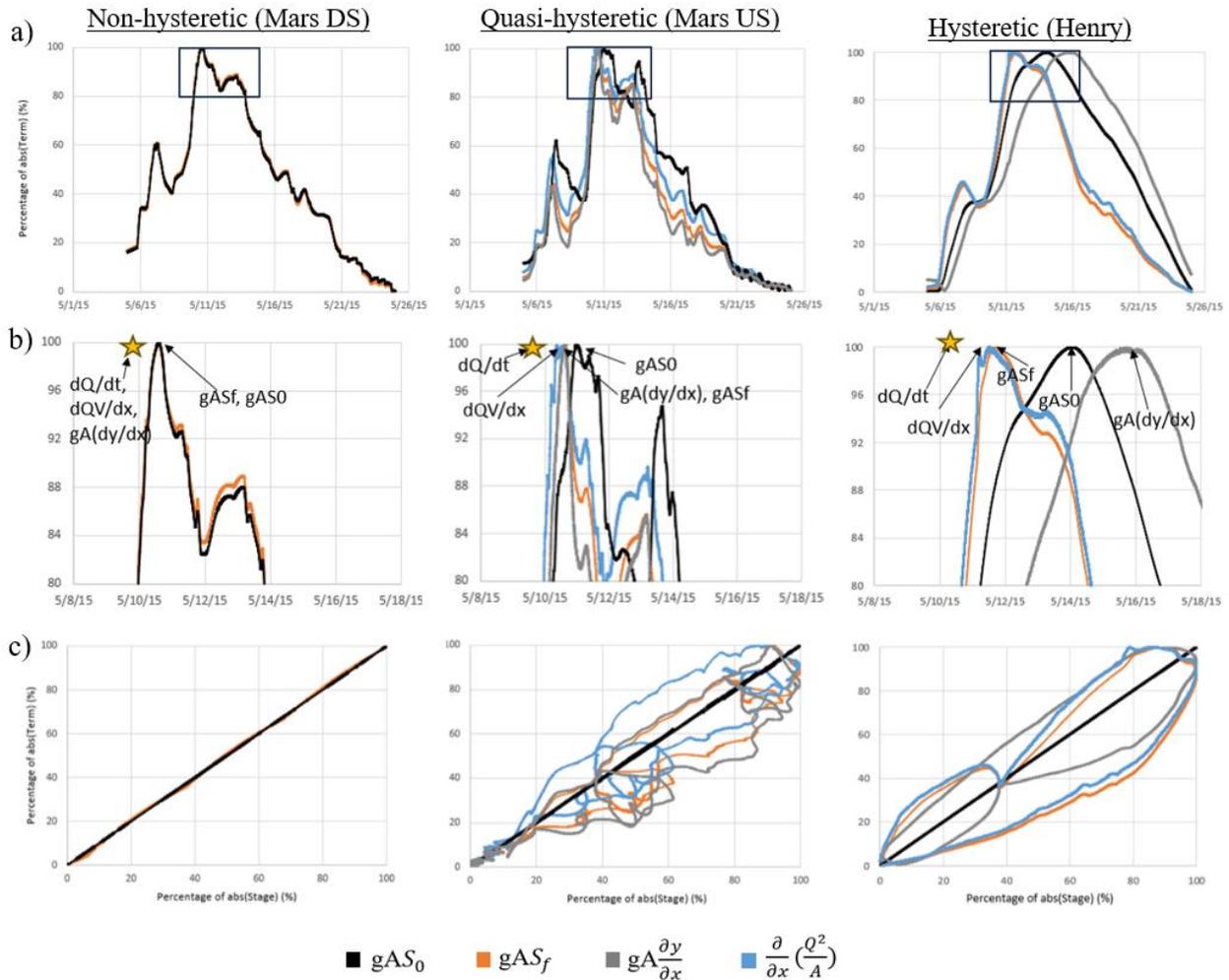
324 The kinematic term exhibits an interesting behavior. In the hysteretic condition, the
 325 kinematic term, in totality, is much larger than in the non-hysteretic condition (Figures 7-8).
 326 However, when diving deeper into the active forces, the individual kinematic ingredients
 327 themselves are essentially large and balanced in the non-hysteretic reach, leading to the
 328 misleadingly small total kinematic term (Figures 9-10, left). Meanwhile, the kinematic wave
 329 ingredients are smaller and out of balance in hysteretic conditions, with friction forces one order
 330 of magnitude smaller than gravity forces (Figures 9-10, middle and right). When hysteresis is
 331 present, the diffusive term is comparable in magnitude and the convective acceleration term is
 332 significant enough to even out the imbalance of the overall dynamic equation. Resultingly, the
 333 diffusive and dynamic terms are significant in hysteretic streamflow while they are negligible in
 334 non-hysteretic streamflow.

335 In hysteretic streamflow, it has been observed that there is a sequential peak phasing
 336 observed in the streamflow variables (Figure 2) and now the dynamic-bulk terms (Figures 7-8).
 337 Through this analysis we see that there is also a clear phasing in the ingredients of the
 338 momentum equation terms (Figures 11-12).



339

340 **Figure 11.** Peak phasing for a) the whole event, b) the 10-day period around the hydrograph
 341 peaks, and c) loop relationships of the momentum term ingredients for three locations on the
 342 Illinois River for the 2019 event.



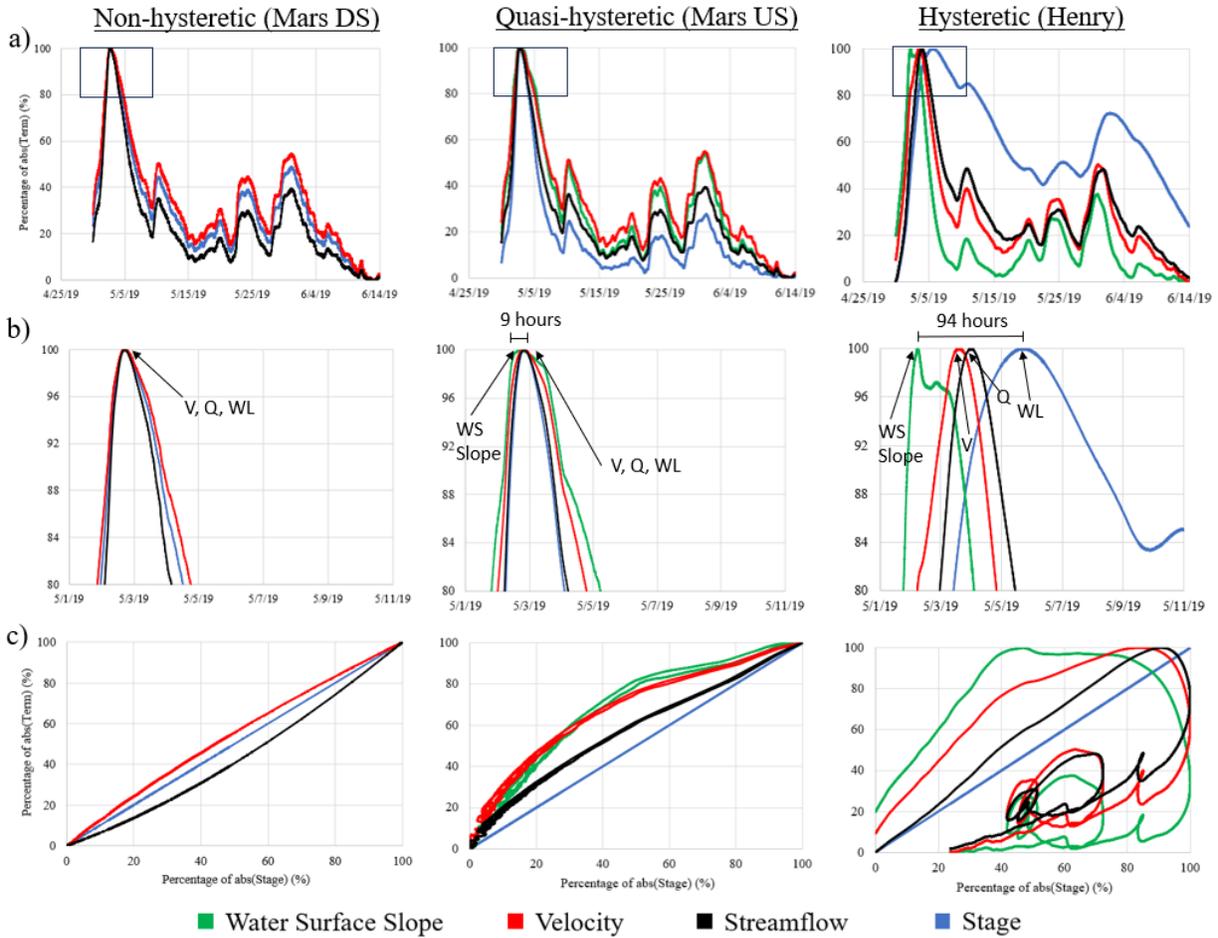
343

344 **Figure 12.** Peak phasing for a) the whole event, b) the 10-day period around the hydrograph
 345 peaks, and c) loop relationships of the momentum term ingredients for three locations on the
 346 Illinois River for the 2015 event.

347 In non-hysteretic streamflow, the active momentum term ingredients peak concurrently.
 348 With strengthening hysteretic intensity, the time between peaks increases. In all cases, the
 349 dynamic term ingredients peak first, followed by friction then the gravity forces. The pressure
 350 gradient is seen to peak later with increasing hysteretic intensity, with a lead time of about 5 days
 351 from the first momentum ingredient peaks in the hysteretic condition for both events shown.

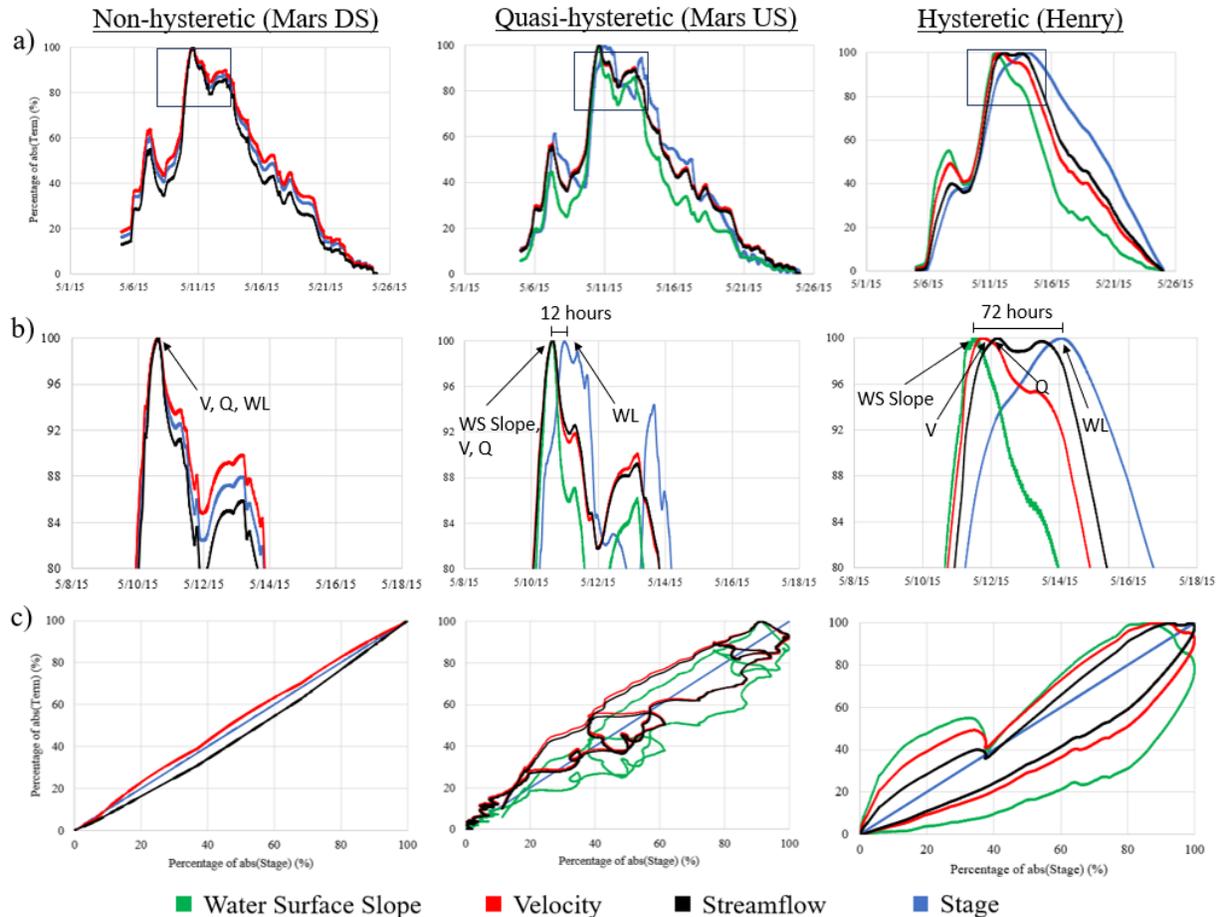
352 3.4 Flow Variables

353 After making several observations on the underlying physics of streamflow hysteresis
 354 through a budget of the momentum terms, it is useful to link these findings to flow
 355 characteristics that are measurable in the field. For the two flood events, water surface slope,
 356 average cross-sectional velocity, streamflow, and stage are seen to peak sequentially in time in
 357 the quasi-hysteretic and hysteretic streamflow conditions (Figures 13-14).



358

359 **Figure 13.** Phasing for a) the whole event, b) the 10-day period around the hydrograph peaks
 360 with the time between the first and last variable peak, and c) loop relationships of the flow
 361 variables for three locations on the Illinois River for the 2019 event.



362

363 **Figure 14.** Phasing for a) the whole event, b) the 10-day period around the hydrograph peaks
 364 with the time between the first and last variable peak, and c) loop relationships of the flow
 365 variables for three locations on the Illinois River for the 2015 event.

366 Confirming the literature, not much peak-phasing seen is in the flow variables for non-
 367 hysteretic streamflow, while increasingly hysteretic streamflow introduces a sequential peak-
 368 phasing phenomenon. In the hysteretic condition, there is up to a 4-day lead time between the
 369 peaks of water surface slope and stage for the flow conditions examined here. These inferences
 370 are informative on the variables that are important in the monitoring methods to account for the
 371 hysteretic behavior.

372 4 Discussion

373 This study takes a deep dive into the momentum terms for streamflow with varying
 374 signals of hysteresis through representation in numerical models, examining the momentum
 375 terms, their ingredients, and flow variables.

376 4.1 Hysteresis Representation in Models

377 The experience here proves that we can use process-based numerical models to study
 378 complex dynamics of streamflow as long as the computational time step and output interval are
 379 sufficiently small to allow for accurate estimation of the temporal and spatial gradients (Figures
 380 4-5). Further, we ensured that transitioning from the full Illinois River model to the reduced

381 complexity model did not alter the physics. As such, we verified that forcing a reduced
 382 complexity model with hydraulic boundary conditions preserved the hysteretic and non-
 383 hysteretic signals (Figure 6).

384 Aspects of the hysteretic streamflow are adequately conserved such as the effects of
 385 overbank flow and multi-peak storm events. The reduced complexity models increase
 386 computational efficiency, thereby opening the door to deep analyses of streamflow variables. It
 387 should be emphasized that we focused on locations of the Illinois River system where the flow
 388 was predominantly one-dimensional so that the St Venant equations fully represent the flow
 389 dynamics.

390 **4.2 Momentum Terms Deep Dive**

391 In looking deeper into the St Venant terms for streamflow of varying hysteretic signals,
 392 several strong patterns are observed. The relative magnitude and timing of the kinematic,
 393 diffusive, and dynamic terms and their ingredients give rise to different hysteretic conditions in
 394 the streamflow commensurate with the site bed slope and event intensity. This finding has
 395 implications for understanding the drivers of streamflow hysteresis and the application of
 396 appropriate monitoring and modeling methods.

397 The kinematic term ingredients, S_o and S_f , representing the balance between gravity and
 398 friction, are strongest in non-hysteretic streamflow where they are in balance and in-sync
 399 temporally (Figures 9-10). Thus, it can be inferred that non-hysteretic streamflow behaves in a
 400 kinematic nature. Meanwhile, hysteretic streamflow has smaller, unbalanced kinetic terms and
 401 active diffusive and dynamic terms (Figures 7-10). It seems that the imbalance in kinematic
 402 terms allows for the more complex terms to become significant in the momentum equation. As
 403 hysteresis strength increases, we have found that the disparity in kinematic terms increases in
 404 magnitude and timing (Figures 9-10). Accordingly, the diffusive and convective acceleration
 405 term seems to be directly related to the strength of the hysteresis loop, as those values increase to
 406 make up for the kinematic imbalance. These findings reveal the patterns within hysteresis and
 407 the underlying drivers: the imbalance of gravity and friction and the increasing dominance of
 408 convective acceleration forces.

409 The temporal phasing of the momentum term ingredients is also important for hysteresis
 410 development. We can identify differences between the phasing for varying strengths of the
 411 hysteresis signal (Figures 11-12). In the non-hysteretic condition, the kinematic term ingredients
 412 that are active are synchronized, while those variables that are out of phase are very small in
 413 magnitude. Thus, non-hysteretic streamflow is considered to involve no phasing of the
 414 momentum terms. Meanwhile, hysteretic streamflow presents a clear peak-phasing phenomenon
 415 in momentum terms. As evident considering the study locations in order of strengthening
 416 hysteresis intensity, the temporal spread between variables increases; the longer lag time
 417 between peaks translates into larger loop thicknesses in variable relationships. In the hysteretic
 418 condition, the local acceleration term invariably peaks first, followed by convective acceleration,
 419 friction, gravity, and finally pressure forces. The early peaking of those more influential dynamic
 420 forces and the later peaking of the diffusive forces is another revealed characteristic driver of
 421 streamflow hysteresis.

422 When put into perspective with the flow variables (recall, they peak in order of WSS , V ,
 423 Q , then WL in hysteretic conditions), the dynamic term peaks near the peaks of V and Q , before
 424 the bulk terms, which are last, even after WL peaks (Figures 13-14). There is not a perfect match

425 with the momentum term variable peak phasing because the hydraulic variables are involved in
426 several terms of the dynamic equation (2). The earlier peaking of dynamic-based variables in
427 hysteretic streamflow has implications for improved monitoring and forecasting of flood waves
428 in most natural riverine systems.

429 **5 Conclusion**

430 With detailed physics-based model-simulated data, this study aims to add to the scientific
431 understanding of streamflow hysteresis development and recommends improved streamflow
432 monitoring and forecasting strategies. In a complementary effort to an exploration of typical flow
433 variables, an analysis of the underlying momentum terms and their ingredients during a storm
434 event provides a deeper understanding of streamflow hysteresis.

435 A detailed exploration of the St Venant terms during a fluvial flood wave cycle reveals
436 the important drivers of streamflow hysteresis. While kinetic terms are dominant and balanced in
437 non-hysteretic streamflow, hysteretic streamflow has an active pressure gradient and convective
438 acceleration forces. We infer that hysteretic behavior may be possible if the wave is non-
439 kinematic, meaning active pressure gradient and inertia terms may be included to solve the
440 momentum equation, and flow is classified as diffusive or dynamic. The hysteresis behavior
441 forms if the pressure gradient term is comparable in magnitude to the kinematic terms, and the
442 convective acceleration term is active and within one or two orders of magnitude of the
443 kinematic and diffusive terms.

444 In non-hysteretic streamflow conditions, kinematic flow is occurring, so it is acceptable
445 to estimate flow using simple unique stage-discharge relationships. However, in hysteretic
446 streamflow conditions, the active pressure gradient and convective acceleration terms must be
447 accounted for to accurately capture the hysteresis loop in streamflow monitoring. It is
448 increasingly feasible to measure these diffusive and dynamic variables with evolving monitoring
449 technology. With improved monitoring protocols and instrumentation deployments that do not
450 require operators in the field, it is even possible to measure those terms in the St Venant equation
451 that are important to hysteretic streamflow, such as the water surface slope and convective
452 acceleration. This analysis is valuable in informing the strategy to be adopted for accurate
453 measurements in unsteady flows and rethinking the practical configurations for the monitoring
454 methods that can capture the hysteretic features within reasonable cost-benefit margins.

455 Improvements in streamflow monitoring provide the opportunity for high-accuracy
456 sediment monitoring, as estimates of sediment load through rivers depend directly on streamflow
457 data. In fact, streamflow estimates are the building blocks for a wide range of applications (water
458 quality constituents, reservoir management, etc.). Errors in flow estimates on the order of over
459 50% can have even greater implications when propagated to sediment and water quality studies.
460 Quantifying the lag time between flow variables and repeating the experiment for a robust
461 selection of locations and flood events results in the parameterization of streamflow hysteresis by
462 a budget of the momentum terms. Further simulations of different events and locations along the
463 Illinois River than those highlighted here confirm the findings.

464 There is also great utility in the revealed characteristics of hysteresis for advancements in
465 streamflow forecasting capabilities, as the momentum term budget has direct implications to
466 channel flow routing. Notably, the in-depth parameterization of streamflow hysteresis may open
467 the door to more physics-based strategies for real-time data assimilation in forecasting modeling

468 which captures the relevant flow dynamics. For example, the dynamic terms, water surface
469 slope, and velocity peaking early in hysteretic conditions can be great predictors for machine
470 learning streamflow forecasting algorithms. In improving our understanding of streamflow
471 hysteresis, new opportunities are available for more comprehensive and physics-informed
472 streamflow monitoring and forecasting protocol.

473

474 **Acknowledgments**

- 475 • This paper is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under
476 Grant No. 2139663.
- 477 • Special thanks to Nazmul Beg for his dedicated guidance and foundational work put in
478 during the initiation of this study.

479 **Open Research**

480 Availability Statement for underlying data and code:

- 481 • The data used for input to RAS models for all boundary conditions are from publicly
482 sourced databases:
 - 483 ○ The United States Geological Survey (USGS) Water Data for the Nation via
484 <http://dx.doi.org/10.5066/F7P55KJN>, <http://waterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/> with public
485 access conditions.
 - 486 ○ The United States Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) RiverGages.com via
487 <https://rivergages.mvr.usace.army.mil/WaterControl/new/layout.cfm> with public
488 access conditions.
 - 489 ○ The National Weather Service (NWS) North Central River Forecast Center
490 (NCRFC) via <https://www.weather.gov/ncrfc/> with access conditions by request.

491 Availability Statement for the software and other research products:

- 492 • The HEC-RAS model (software v6.1) used as the foundation of this study representing
493 the complex IL River is preserved at USACE UMR Hydraulic Model Update webpage
494 [https://www.mvr.usace.army.mil/Missions/Flood-Risk-Management/UMRS-Hydraulic-
495 Model-Update/](https://www.mvr.usace.army.mil/Missions/Flood-Risk-Management/UMRS-Hydraulic-Model-Update/), available upon request to Federal, state, local agencies, and NGOs along
496 with their engineering consultants (USACE, 2022).
- 497 • Version 6.2 of the publicly available HEC-RAS software used for developing the reduced
498 complexity models is preserved at [https://www.hec.usace.army.mil/software/hec-
499 ras/download.aspx](https://www.hec.usace.army.mil/software/hec-ras/download.aspx), available via public access conditions.

500

501

502 **References**

503 Cheng, Z., Lee, K., Kim, D., Muste, M., Vidmar, P., & Hulme, J. (2019). Experimental evidence
504 on the performance of rating curves for continuous discharge estimation in complex flow
505 situations. *Journal of Hydrology*, 568, 959-971. doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.11.021

506 De St Venant, B. (1871). Theorie du mouvement non-permanent des eaux avec application aux
507 crues des rivières et à l'introduction des Mares dans leur lit. *Academic de Sci. Comptes Rendus*,
508 73(99), 148-154.

509 Demir, I., Xiang, Z., Demiray, B., & Sit, M. (2022). WaterBench-Iowa: a large-scale benchmark
510 dataset for data-driven streamflow forecasting. *Earth system science data*, 14(12), 5605-5616.

511 Dottori, F., Martina, M. L. V., and Todini, E.: A dynamic rating curve approach to indirect
512 discharge measurement, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 13, 847–863. doi:10.5194/hess-13-847-2009,
513 2009.

- 514 Fenton, J. D. (2001). Rating curves: Part 1 - Correction for surface slope, in Proc. Conf. on
515 Hydraulics in Civil Engng, 28-30 Nov., Inst. Engrs, Aust., Hobart, pp. 309-317.
- 516 Ferrick, M. G. (1985). Analysis of river wave types. *Water Resources Research*, 21(2), 209-220.
517 doi:10.1029/WR021i002p00209
- 518 Follansbee, R., 1994. A history of the Water Resources Branch, U.S. Geological Survey; Volume
519 I, from predecessor surveys to June 30, 1919.
- 520 Fread, D. L. (1975). Computation of Stage-Discharge Relationships Affected by Unsteady Flow.
521 *Journal of the American Water Resources Association*, 11(2), 213-228. doi:10.1111/j.1752-
522 1688.1975.tb00674.x
- 523 Graf, W. H., & Qu, Z. (2004, March). Flood hydrographs in open channels. In Proceedings of the
524 institution of civil engineers-*Water management* (Vol. 157, No. 1, pp. 45-52). Thomas Telford
525 Ltd. doi:10.1680/wama.2004.157.1.45
- 526 Green, J. (2005). Comparison of blockage factors in modelling the resistance of channels
527 containing submerged macrophytes. *Rivers Research and Applications*, 21, 671–686.
528 doi:10.1002/rra.854
- 529 Henderson, F.M. (1966). Open Channel Flow. Macmillan Series in Civil Engineering;
530 Macmillan Company: New York, NY, USA, p. 522.
- 531 Holmes R (2016) River rating complexity. *River Flow* 2016, :679–686.
532 doi:10.1201/9781315644479-107
- 533 Jones, C.S., Davis, C.A., Drake, C.W., Schilling, K.E., Debionne, S.H., Gilles, D.W., Demir, I.
534 and Weber, L.J., (2018). Iowa statewide stream nitrate load calculated using in situ sensor
535 network. *JAWRA Journal of the American Water Resources Association*, 54(2), pp.471-486.

536 Kennedy, E. (1984). Discharge ratings at gaging stations: US Geological Survey Techniques of
537 Water-Resources Investigations, book 3, chap. A10, 59.

538 Knight, D.W. (2005). River flood hydraulics: validation issues in one-dimensional flood routing
539 models.

540 Krajewski, W. F., Ghimire, G. R., Demir, I., & Mantilla, R. (2021). Real-time streamflow
541 forecasting: AI vs. Hydrologic insights. *Journal of Hydrology X*, 13, 100110.

542 Lee, K., Firoozfar, A. R., and Muste, M (2017) Technical Note: Monitoring of unsteady open
543 channel flows using the continuous slope-area method, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 21, 1863–1874.
544 doi:10.5194/hess-21-1863-2017

545 Levesque, V. A., & Oberg, K. A. (2012). Computing discharge using the index velocity method
546 (pp. 3-A23). US Department of the Interior, US Geological Survey.

547 Li, Z., & Demir, I. (2022). A comprehensive web-based system for flood inundation map
548 generation and comparative analysis based on height above nearest drainage. *Science of The*
549 *Total Environment*, 828, 154420.

550 Meselhe, E.A. and Holly, F.M. Jr. (1997) “Invalidity of the Preissmann Scheme for Transcritical
551 Flow,” *Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*, ASCE, vol. 123(7). doi:10.1061/(ASCE)0733-
552 9429(1997)123:7(652)

553 Meselhe, E., Lamjiri, M. A., Flint, K., Matus, S., White, E. D., & Mandli, K. (2021). Continental
554 scale heterogeneous channel flow routing strategy for operational forecasting models. *Journal of*
555 *the American Water Resources Association*, 57(2), 209-221. doi:10.1111/1752-1688.12847

556 Muste, M., Bacotiu, C., & Thomas, D. (2019). Evaluation of the slope-area method for
557 continuous streamflow monitoring. In *Proceedings of the 38th IAHR World Congress* (pp. 121-
558 130). doi:10.3850/38WC092019-1860

559 Muste, M., & Kim, D. (2020). Augmenting the Operational Capabilities of SonTek/YSI
560 Streamflow Measurement Probes. Sontek/YSI-IIHR Collaborative Research Report.

561 Muste, M. and Kim, D. (2021). Augmenting the Operational Capabilities of SonTek/YSI
562 Streamflow Measurement Probes. Sontek/YSIIHR Collaborative Research Report. 2020.
563 Available online: [https://info.xylem.com/rs/240-UTB-46/images/augmentingcapabilities-](https://info.xylem.com/rs/240-UTB-46/images/augmentingcapabilities-sontek-probe.pdf)
564 [sontek-probe.pdf](https://info.xylem.com/rs/240-UTB-46/images/augmentingcapabilities-sontek-probe.pdf).

565 Muste, M., Kim, D., & Kim, K. (2022a). Insights into flood wave propagation in natural streams
566 as captured with Acoustic Profilers at an index-velocity gaging station. *Water*, 14(9), 1380.
567 doi:10.3390/w14091380

568 Muste, M., Kim, D., & Kim, K. (2022b). A flood-crest forecast prototype for river floods using
569 only in-stream measurements. *Communications Earth & Environment*, 3(1), 78.
570 doi:10.1038/s43247-022-00402-z

571 Muste, M., Kim, K., Kim, D. and Fleit G. (2024). Decoding the hysteretic behavior of hydraulic
572 variables in lowland rivers with multivariate monitoring approaches, Submitted to Hydrological
573 Processes, Special Issue on “Hydrological processes in lowlands and plains”.

574 Muste, M., Lee, K., Kim, D., Bacotiu, C., Rojas Oliveros, M., Cheng, Z. & Quintero, F. (2020)
575 Revisiting hysteresis of flow variables in monitoring unsteady streamflows. *Journal of Hydraulic*
576 *Research*, 58:6, 867-887. doi:10.1080/00221686.2020.1786742

577 Rantz, S. E. (1982). Measurement and computation of streamflow (Vol. 2175). US Department
578 of the Interior, Geological Survey

579 Schmidt, A.R. (2002). Analysis of stage-discharge relations for open channel flows and their
580 associated uncertainties. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Champaign,
581 IL, USA, 2002.

582 Schmidt, A. R. and Garcia, M. H. (2003). Theoretical Examination of Historical Shifts and
583 Adjustments to Stage-Discharge Rating Curves. In P. Bizier, & P. DeBarry (Eds.), *World Water*
584 *and Environmental Resources Congress* (pp. 1089-1098). (World Water and Environmental
585 Resources Congress), DOI:10.1061/40685(2003)233

586 Sit, M., Demiray, B., & Demir, I. (2021). Short-term hourly streamflow prediction with graph
587 convolutional gru networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.07039.

588 Smith, C. F., Cordova, J. T. and Wiele, S. M. (2010). The continuous slope-area method for
589 computing event hydrographs, U. S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2010-
590 5241, 37 p.

591 USACE, 2022. Upper Mississippi River Phase III Flood Risk Management Existing Conditions
592 Hydraulic Model Documentation Report. [https://www.mvr.usace.army.mil/Portals/
593 48/docs/FRM/UMR%20Hydraulic%20Model%20Phase%20III%20-%20Report.pdf](https://www.mvr.usace.army.mil/Portals/48/docs/FRM/UMR%20Hydraulic%20Model%20Phase%20III%20-%20Report.pdf)

594 Xu, H., Muste, M., & Demir, I. (2019). Web-based geospatial platform for the analysis and
595 forecasting of sedimentation at culverts. *Journal of Hydroinformatics*, 21(6), 1064-1081.