

The WDPM User's Guide

Version 2.0

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1 Introduction

1.1 What is the WDPM?

The Wetland DEM Ponding Model (WDPM) was developed by the Centre for Hydrology at the University of Saskatchewan to model the distribution of runoff water on the Canadian Prairies. The program was originally written in Fortran 95 by Kevin Shook in 2008. Because the program requires many thousands of iterations to converge, it was adapted to CPU parallel processing in 2010 using the OpenMP API (<http://openmp.org/>). This version was used operationally by the LIRA project, as described in Section 4 on page 31.

In version 1.0, the program was made faster and easier to use. The WDPM code was ported from Fortran to C, and a graphical user interface was added by Oluwaseun Sharomi and Ray Spiteri of the Department of Computer Science at the University of Saskatchewan. At the same time, the parallel processing was changed to OpenCL (<http://www.khronos.org/opencl/>), which has been found to be faster, and which supports the use of Graphical Processing Units (GPUs). Funding for the recoding of the WDPM was provided by Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (AAFC).

In version 2.0, the GUI code was converted from Python 2 to Python 3 by Tongue Liu, and Ray Spiteri of the Department of Computer Science at the University of Saskatchewan. Many bugs were fixed, and the program execution speed was improved by adding a user-selectable water zero threshold depth, as described in section 1.11.

1.2 Licence

The WDPM is distributed under the GPL version 3. The licence is listed in full in Section 5 on page 39.

THERE IS NO WARRANTY FOR THE PROGRAM, TO THE EXTENT PERMITTED BY APPLICABLE LAW. EXCEPT WHEN OTHERWISE STATED IN WRITING THE COPYRIGHT HOLDERS AND/OR OTHER PARTIES PROVIDE THE PROGRAM "AS IS" WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED, INCLUDING, BUT NOT LIMITED TO, THE IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. THE ENTIRE RISK AS TO THE QUALITY AND PERFORMANCE OF THE PROGRAM IS WITH YOU. SHOULD THE PROGRAM PROVE DEFECTIVE, YOU ASSUME THE COST OF ALL NECESSARY SERVICING, REPAIR OR CORRECTION.

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1.3 What does the WDPM do?

The purpose of the WDPM is to model the spatial distribution of runoff water on the Canadian Prairies. Because of its recent post-glacial history, the Canadian Prairies do not have a conventional drainage system. When excess water runs off the landscape, generally due to snow melt in the spring, it may be trapped in surface depressions ranging in size from puddles to permanent wetlands, and may cause local flooding. If the depressions are full of water, they may connect.

The WDPM was developed to model the spatial distribution of water over a Prairie landscape, as represented by a Digital Elevation Model (DEM). Originally, the purpose of the program was to determine the fractions of Prairie basins contributing flows to streams, as these change dynamically with the storage of water in the depressions (Shook and Pomeroy, 2011; Shook et al., 2013). However, the model has also been used to demonstrate the extent of flooding on Prairie landscapes, which may be useful for operational purposes.

1.4 Program support

No support is provided for the use of this program. If you discover bugs, please contact the authors through the GitHub repository described on page 19.

1.5 Citing the WDPM

A paper describing the WDPM is currently being submitted to the Journal of Open Source Software. Until this paper is published, please cite Shook et al. (2013) to refer to use of the WDPM in any publications.

1.6 Program limitations

The WDPM is NOT a hydrological model. It does NOT determine the depths of water applied to or removed from the DEM. The Centre for Hydrology at the University of Saskatchewan has developed the Cold Regions Hydrological modelling (CRHM) platform (Pomeroy et al., 2007) which is capable of modelling the unique hydrological processes of the Canadian Prairies. It is possible to use CRHM's modeled runoff and evaporation fluxes as inputs to the WDPM.

The WDPM is NOT a hydraulic model. It CANNOT be used to model the rate of flow in any type of channel. It does not have a time step. FLUXOS-OVERFLOW is a 2-D hydrodynamic model capable of modelling overland flow rates in the Canadian Prairies (Costa et al., 2020) but is much slower than WDPM to execute and requires more forcing data.

The WDPM requires a DEM to execute, and all DEMs are imperfect representations of reality. Some of the problems with using common DEMs with the WDPM in the Prairies are discussed in Section 1.12 on page 13. It is very important to note that the WDPM only operates at elevations *above* the elevations of the water present when the DEM was constructed.

In the Canadian Prairies, the road network prevents the WDPM from accurately distributing runoff. To allow the water to be distributed properly, it is necessary to breach the roads in the DEM where there are culverts and bridges (Lindsay, J.B., 2016).

1.7 Model inputs and outputs

All the DEM and water data file inputs and outputs are ArcGIS ASCII (.asc) files. It is assumed that the user has access to a geographical information system (GIS) program. For more information, see Section 3.5.3 on page 30. The files used as inputs and/or outputs are listed in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Files used as inputs and outputs for the WDPM.

Name	Description	Input/Output	Mandatory?
DEM	Surface elevations	Input	Yes
Water	Water depths	Input	No
Output	Water depths	Output	Yes
Scratch	Water depths	Output	No
<code>temp.asc</code>	Water depths	Both	No
<code>report.txt</code>	Program messages	Output	No
<code>.png</code> file	Water image	Output	No
<code>colormap_black.txt</code>	Color map	Input	No

The Water file is specified to change an existing set of water elevations, i.e. to add

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more water, remove water, or to drain the water. If the DEM initially contains no water, then the file name is set to NULL. Note that the water file name MUST be specified for the Subtract or Drain modules to be used.

The Output file contains the depths of water after the execution of the program. Once the file has been created, it can be used in another run, by specifying it as the Water file.

The Scratch file is similar to the output file, except that it is output every 1000 iterations, and it overwrites the previous version. The purpose of the Scratch file is to allow you to stop the program and to re-start it again. In this case, you would specify the previous Scratch file as the Water file in the new run. If the Scratch file is not used, the file name is set to NULL.

The file `temp.asc` is created automatically, and is used to improve performance. The file is only created after the first 1000 iterations. It is automatically deleted after the end of the run.

In addition to the .asc files, all model messages that are written to the screen are also logged to the file `report.txt`. The model is also capable of reading the run parameters from a text file as described in Section 3.2.4 on page 25.

The WDPM can create a simple image of the water output, using the open-source program `gdaldem`, which is part of the GDAL suite of programs (GDAL/OGR contributors, 2020). This is not intended to be a substitute for a GIS program, but does provide the ability to create an image of the water surface as a .png file. The program requires a file called `colormap_black.txt` which must be in the same directory as the WDPM executable file. The structure of the colour map file is explained in Section 3.5.3 on page 30.

1.8 Modules

The WDPM applies simulated water to a digital elevation model of a Prairie basin using three modules: Add, Subtract and Drain.

1.8.1 Add

This module adds a specified depth of water to the basin. If the DEM is dry prior to the addition of water, a file created containing the water depths for each cell of the DEM. If there is an existing water file, then the specified depth of water is added to the existing water, and the total is redistributed. This module is intended to (roughly) simulate the addition of excess water to depressional storage by runoff from snowmelt or intense precipitation.

The addition of water can be slow, particularly if a very fine tolerance is used. If the basin is to be drained, then it is not necessary to use a fine tolerance, as the water will be redistributed while being drained.

If a stream exists in the DEM, then the Add module will route water to the stream channel. However, because of the way that the algorithm works, the edges of the

DEM acts as dams, preventing any the water from leaving the DEM. This causes the modeled stream to 'back up' over the landscape as shown in Figure 1.1.

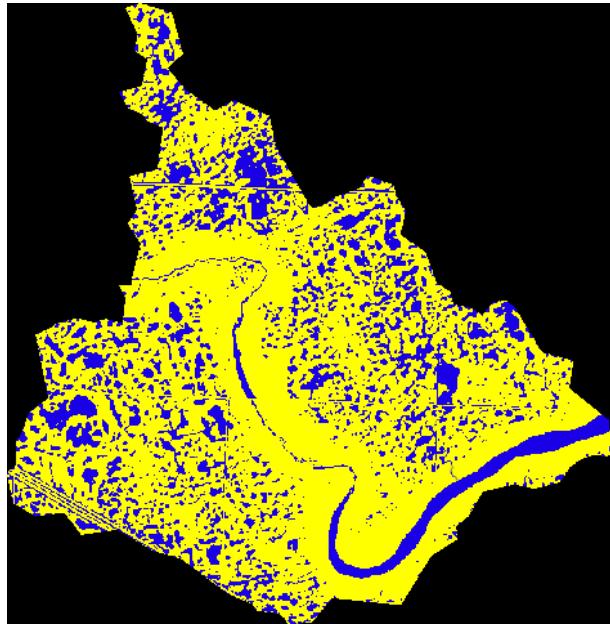


Figure 1.1: 100mm of water added.

To simulate the effects of infiltration of precipitation/snowmelt to soil, the addition of water allows the use of a runoff fraction (0-1) on the water that is applied to directly to land. The runoff fraction is not used on the water applied to existing water.

1.8.2 Subtract

This module subtracts a specified depth of water from each DEM cell to represent evaporation. No spatial variability is in the evaporation is currently allowed. This module generally executes very quickly as very little spatial redistribution of water is usually required. Figure 1.2 shows the removal of 50 mm of water from the water file created from the addition of 100 mm.

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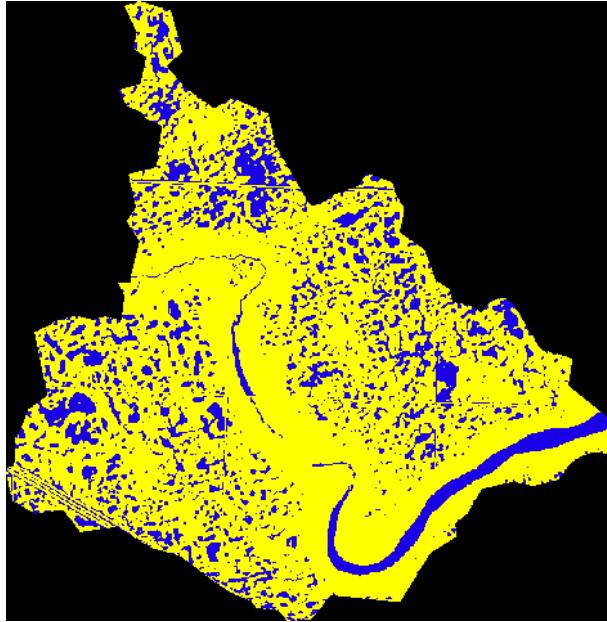


Figure 1.2: 100mm of water added, 50mm removed.

1.8.3 Drain

This module drains the water on the DEM through the lowest point, assuming that this point is in the drainage system. This module can be the slowest to execute (depending on the resolution and the convergence parameters), as it moves large volumes of water long distances. The purpose of the Drain module is to eliminate the 'backing up' of water over the DEM. Figure 1.3 on the next page shows the draining of the water resulting from the addition of 100 mm, as shown in Figure 1.1 on the preceding page. Note that the stream is now essentially dry. If your DEM does not include a stream (as is true of many landscapes on the Canadian Prairies, then you may not need to run the Drain module.

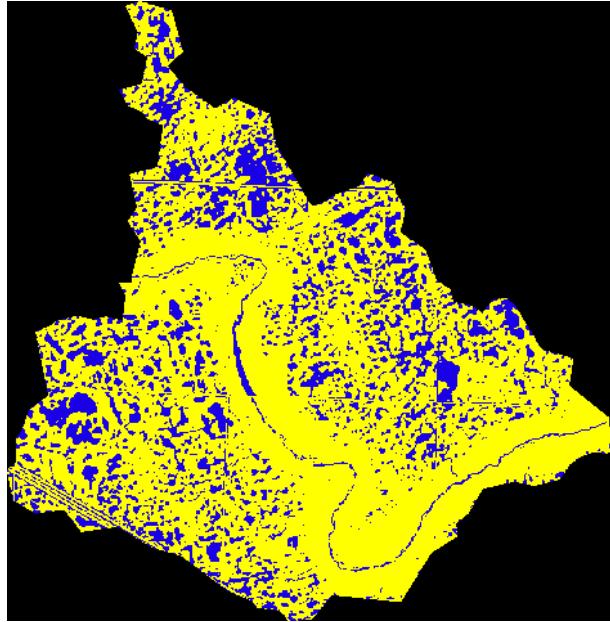


Figure 1.3: 100mm of water applied, then drained

The modules may be executed in varying order. For example, it may be desired to add water, to simulate spring runoff, followed by draining, and then to remove water to simulate evaporation. This could be followed by the addition of water to simulate summer rainfall. As was demonstrated by Shook et al. (2013), the addition and removal of water are non-reversible. Each process affects the spatial distribution of water differently.

1.9 Algorithm

The redistribution algorithm of the WDPM, which is used by all three modules, is taken from Shapiro and Westervelt (1992). The algorithm and its implementation in the WDPM are described in Shook and Pomeroy (2011) and Shook et al. (2013). Unlike the D8 direction of drainage algorithm used by programs such as TOPAZ Garbrecht and Martz (1997), the Shapiro and Westervelt (SW) algorithm allows drainage in more than one direction, as shown in Figure 1.4. Most importantly, the SW algorithm actually moves simulated water over the landscape. When water is added, it runs into surface depressions. When water is removed, the water levels in the depressions are reduced. Therefore, the WDPM does not require the DEM to be processed to remove pits before it is used. It also means that the landscape drainage changes dynamically, as water is added or removed.

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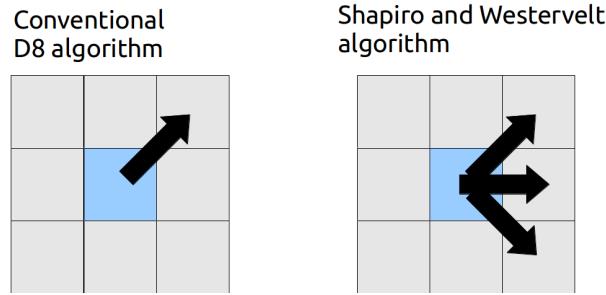


Figure 1.4: D8 and Shapiro and Westervelt algorithms

Unlike D8 drainage, the SW algorithm is iterative. The algorithm is applied to each element in the DEM as shown in the schematic diagram in Figure 1.5. Each is compared separately to its 8 neighbours, looking at the water surface elevation.

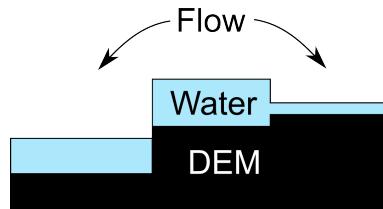


Figure 1.5: Schematic side view of the Shapiro and Westervelt water distribution algorithm.

Each iteration consists of selecting each cell in the DEM, one at a time, and applying Algorithm 1.1 to the selected cell and its neighbours.

Algorithm 1.1 Pseudocode for Shapiro and Westervelt algorithm as implemented by the WDPM.

```

if water surface elevation of selected cell > that of the neighbour cell
    if selected cell DEM elevation > neighbour cell DEM then
        move one eighth of the water in the selected cell to the neighbour cell
    else
        move one eighth of the difference in water elevation to the neighbour cell
    end if
end if

```

At each iteration the algorithm is imperfect as the depth of water transferred may result in an inaccurate representation of the final water surface. However, over many thousands of iterations, the movement of water will result in a realistic water surface, where the local water elevation is constrained by the landscape. The termination of the algorithm occurs when the change in the water surface between successive iterations is smaller than the specified tolerance.

1.10 Parallelization

The WDPM can be run as a conventional serial program, where one instruction at a time is executed, or in parallel. The parallel processing uses the OpenCL API.

The original WDPM Fortran code employed an algorithm that subdivided the water matrix into mutually exclusive sub-matrices, each sub-matrix being assigned to a separate process. The sub-matrices were separated by two columns to avoid concurrent writes. While this algorithm is every effective with OpenMP, it created problems for OpenCL.

Figure 1.6 illustrates the matrix decomposition used in the OpenMP version of the WDPM code. The colors in the figure represent how the data was split among available processors. In this case, all nodes with the same colour will be processed by the same processor in serial (one after the other) but in parallel (run at the same time) with nodes of other colors in the different region but in the same position of the other sub-matrices.

The Fortran 95 code that processes the nodes is given in Algorithm 1.2. The matrix which holds the water depths is called 'bigwater', as it is 1 array cell larger on each edge than the water matrix, to avoid having to check the boundaries. Similarly, the matrix which holds the DEM is called 'bigdem' as it is also 1 array cell larger on each edge than the original DEM. The code first processes the sub-matrices (referred to as 'slices'). When all slices have been finished, the code then processes the regions in-between the 'slices', which are referred to as 'boundaries'.

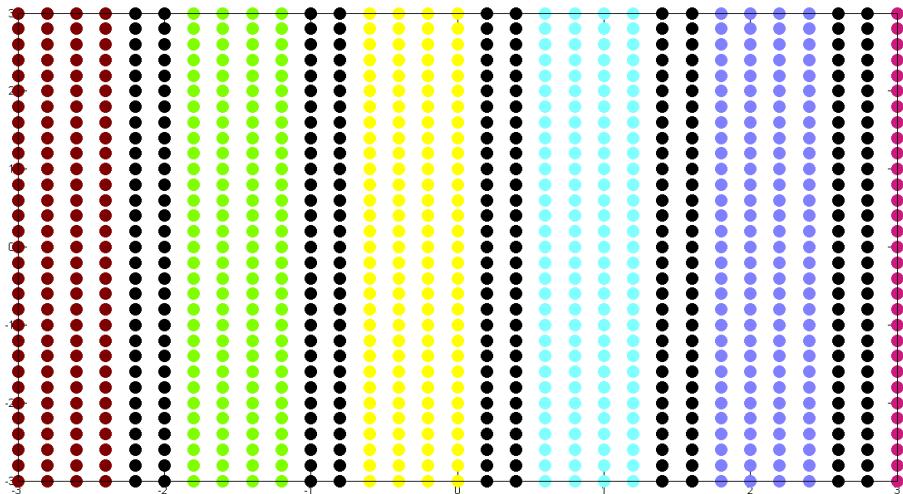


Figure 1.6: Schematic diagram of array decomposition used by OpenMP version of the WDPM.

Algorithm 1.2 Original WDPM Fortran code using OpenMP.

```

! do a set of iterations and then test for convergence
starttime = omp_get_wtime()
do while (.not.(done))
    oldwater = bigwater
    do i = 1,1000
        call omp_set_num_threads(numslices)
        !$OMP PARALLEL
            do row = 2, numrows+1
                do col = startcols(1 + omp_get_thread_num()), endcols(1 +
                    omp_get_thread_num())
                    if (bigwater(row,col) > 0.0 .and. (bigdem(row,col) >
                        missingvalue)) then
                        call runoff(row, col)
                    end if
                end do ! columns
            end do ! rows
        !$OMP END PARALLEL
        !$OMP BARRIER
        ! do spaces between slices
        if (numslices > 1) then
            call omp_set_num_threads(numboundaries)
            !$OMP PARALLEL
                do row = 2, numrows+1
                    do col = boundarystartcols(1 + omp_get_thread_num()),
                        boundaryendcols(1 + omp_get_thread_num())
                ! add check for all cells missing
                    if (bigwater(row,col) > 0.0 .and. (bigdem(row,col) >
                        missingvalue)) then
                        call runoff(row, col)
                    end if
                end do ! columns
            end do ! rows
        !$OMP END PARALLEL
    end if
    end do ! 1000 iterations
    k = k + 1000

```

OpenCL (Open Computing Language) is the first open, free standard for cross-platform, parallel programming of modern processors found in personal computers, servers and handheld/embedded devices. OpenCL greatly improves speed and responsiveness for a wide spectrum of applications in many categories. The problem

caused by the Fortran OpenMP algorithm in OpenCL is that the OpenCL will do more work to get the task done than it is supposed to. The implementation of the Shapiro and Westervelt algorithm was changed by noting that the goal is to process all the nodes without concurrent writing to the same point in the matrix. The entire matrix was divided into 9 slices such that concurrency will not be violated.

Figure 1.7 illustrates the slices used by the OpenCL version of the WDPM, in which every node with the same colour is processed individually by a unique thread. The OpenCl code consists of two pieces, the host and the kernel. The host code sits on the CPU and send instructions to the devices which do the parallel processing. The C code of the Shapiro and Westervelt algorithm host is shown in Algorithm 1.3. The kernel code is executed in parallel by each of the available devices (CPU and/or GPU). The C code of the Shapiro and Westervelt algorithm kernel is shown in 1.4.

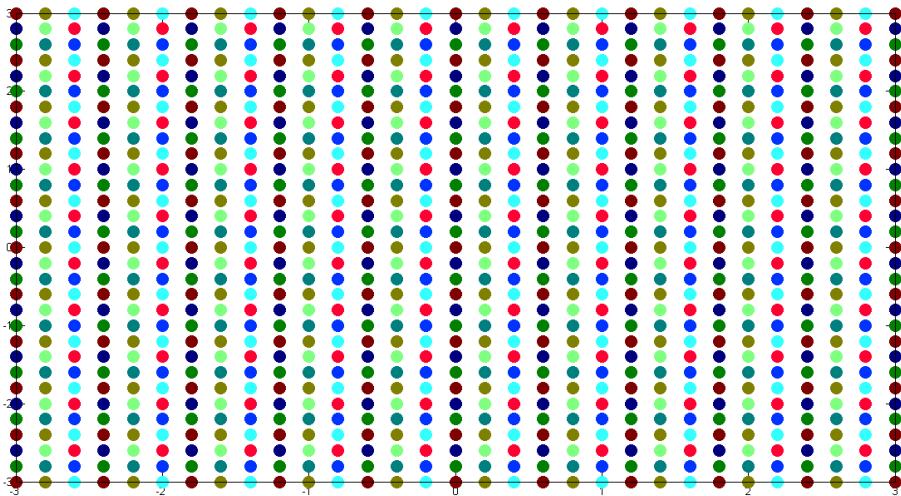


Figure 1.7: Subdivision of the matrix used by the OpenCL version of the WDPM.

Algorithm 1.3 WDPM OpenCL host C code.

```
for (i=0; i<1000; i++){
    for(oi=1; oi<4; oi++){
        for(oj=1; oj<4; oj++){
            err = clSetKernelArg(kernel, 6, sizeof(int), (void *)&oi);

            exitOnFail(err, "set_kernel_argument_oi");
            err = clSetKernelArg(kernel, 7, sizeof(int), (void *)&oj);

            exitOnFail(err, "set_kernel_argument_oj");
            err=clEnqueueNDRangeKernel(queue,kernel,2,NULL,global,NULL
                ,0,NULL,&event);
            exitOnFail(err, "enqueue_kernel");
            // wait for kernel, this forces execution
            err = clWaitForEvents(1, &event);
            exitOnFail(err, "wait_for_enqueue_kernel");
            clReleaseEvent(event);
        }
    }
    err= clEnqueueReadBuffer(queue,d_bigwater,CL_FALSE,0,bytes,
        bbigwater,0,NULL, &event);
    exitOnFail(err, "read_bigwater_from_device");
    err = clWaitForEvents(1, &event);
    exitOnFail(err, "wait_for_read_bigwater_from_device");
    // Reshape Flattened Matrix back to 2D array
    k = k+1000;
}
```

Algorithm 1.4 WDPM OpenCL kernel C code.

```

__kernel void add(__global double *bigwater, __global double *bigdem,
    const double missingvalue, const int numrows, const int numcols,
    const int offset, const int oi, const int oj){
    int row, col;
    int row1 = get_global_id(0);
    int col1 = get_global_id(1);
    int off = offset-1;
    row = (oi-off)+off*row1;
    col = (oj-off)+off*col1;
    if (row>=1 && row<=numrows && col>=1 && col<=numcols &&
        bigwater[row+(numrows+2)*col]>0.0 && bigdem[row+(numrows+2)*
            col]>missingvalue ){
        runoffadd(bigwater,bigdem,row,col,missingvalue,numrows);
    }
}

```

1.11 Zero threshold depth

In the Fortran 95 version of WDPM, shown in 1.2, and in the original C version, the water redistribution is only executed if the depth of water in the centre cell is greater than 0.0. However, this comparison results in many instances of very small depths of water being redistributed. To reduce the run time of the program, a threshold depth has been added to the program as an additional parameter, as described below. Depths of water smaller than the threshold depth are treated as being zero, and are therefore not redistributed. Note that the use of a threshold depth greater than zero will also affect the mean depth of water remaining on the DEM, as calculated by the program, and will also affect the calculated volume of water drained from the DEM. The effects of the zero depth threshold on the execution time and the water distribution

1.12 Potential Issues among DEM datasets for flood hazard mapping

A brief summary of results is provided here for a recent comparison of WDPM runoff maps generated from different digital elevation models (DEMs). The analysis was conducted for two Prairie locations; one located in Saskatchewan and the other in Manitoba. The DEM data sources included products derived from, Light Detection And Ranging (LiDAR), aerial photos, the National Topographic DataBase (NTDB), satellite optical stereo-images, and space-borne radar. The spatial resolution of DEMs obtained for the analysis ranged from 5 m to 30 m.

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One site located at Swift Current, SK is characterized by an agricultural region surrounding a valley containing Swift Current Creek; relief = 80 m. The second area located west of Winnipeg, MB is an agricultural area that contains two narrow drainage channels; relief = 8 m. Several gridded DEMs were obtained at both locations for the comparative analysis which included:

- 5 m LiDAR DEMs (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada)
- 20 m (Manitoba) and 30 m (Saskatchewan) Ortho-DEM used primarily for the purpose of rectifying orthophotos for a Saskatchewan based digital mapping program (source: SGIC group) and also for similar mapping in Manitoba
- 30 m Canadian Digital Elevation Data, CDED DEMs (source: GeoBase)
- 30 m void filled, downscaled DEMs from the Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission. Specifically SRTM V3 (Source: NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory. Currently, these data are no longer available online)
- 30 m ASTER (Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer) Global Digital Elevation Model GDEM and GDEM V2 (Source: NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory)

Table 1.2 gives a summary of technical specifications for the DEMs as well as potential issues encountered when using these types of elevation data for flood hazard mapping across entire landscapes. This includes issues related to project resources, systematic errors in elevation data and land surface representation anomalies. Resource issues can be a general limitation simply based on the cost to acquire DEM data and the technical skills required to process massive and complex datasets; e.g. LiDAR point clouds and DEMs. However, systematic data errors and land surface representation issues are more critical concerns for generating realistic runoff maps with WDPM.

Figures 1.8 and 1.9 show examples of WDPM runoff distribution maps generated for the different DEMs. The maps were derived by applying a uniform water depth of 73 mm to all Swift Current DEMs and 116 mm to the Manitoba DEMs. Strictly for reference purposes, the different depths applied are equivalent to the maximum 24 hour accumulated rainfall totals for the 1:100 year return periods at these locations; which also serves to highlight differences in the local climates. Runoff maps are also included for the same water depths applied to the 5 m LiDAR DEMs for relative comparisons against the “expected” runoff distributions.

Contrasts among the runoff maps observed in both cases suggest differences in DEM technical specifications and terrain representation issues are important concerns for flood hazard mapping. The resulting maps highlight potential issues such as terrace-like incoherent runoff patterns generated on CDED surfaces for both landscapes; which are attributed to the use of integer storage formats. Poorly captured terrain features in past versions of Ortho-DEM based products are also a key concern. This type of problem is partly due to the subjectivity of capturing relevant surface features

1.12 Potential Issues among DEM datasets for flood hazard mapping

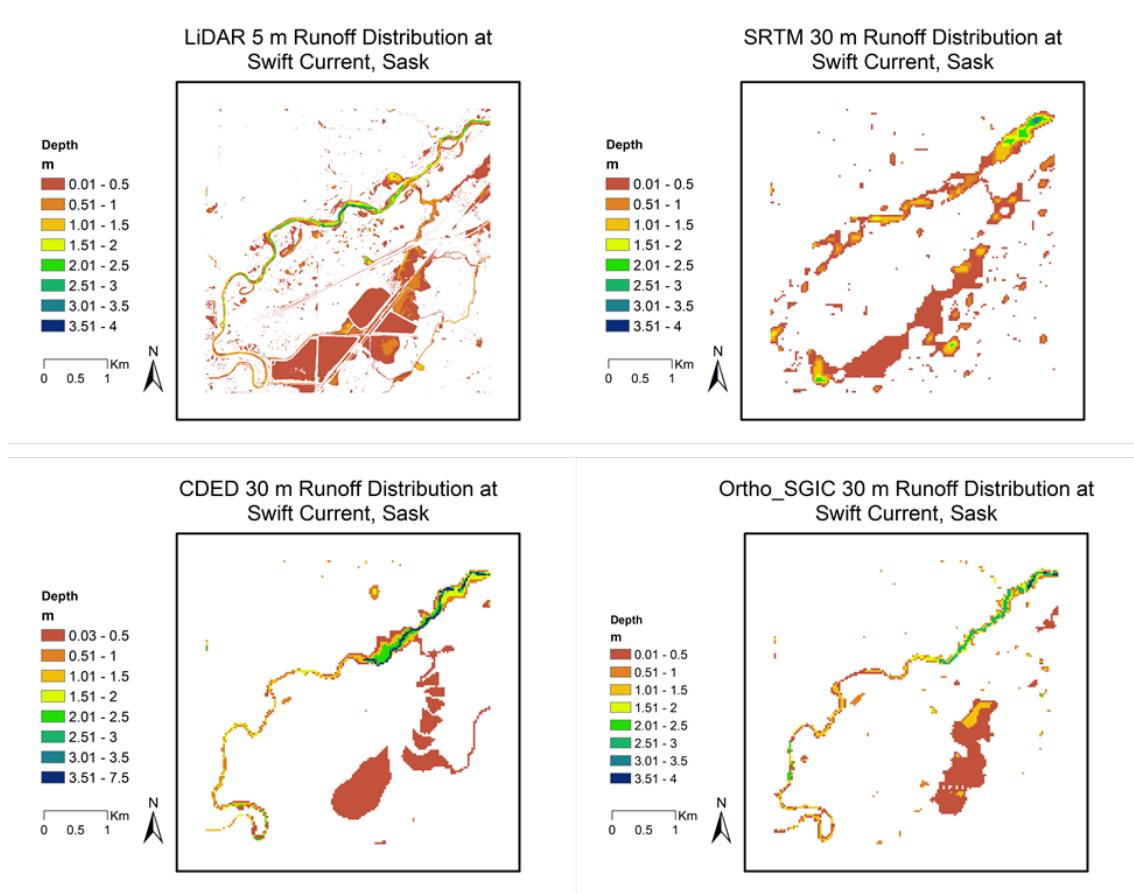


Figure 1.8: Runoff distributions for DEMs near Swift Current SK based on 76 mm of water added.

and systematic issues related to photogrammetric techniques used for developing DEMs, i.e. hardware, software, and data formats.

In more extreme cases, representative land surfaces may even appear nonsensical. Figure 1.9 shows an example based on the SRTM runoff map at the Manitoba location. This critical issue can be attributed to the difficulties of capturing elevation information using space-borne radar or optical techniques over areas of very low relief or dense vegetation canopies, and where limited ground control points exist. This is also a severe problem for ASTER DEMs versions 1 and 2, both of which have been observed to contain large pits in the order of 30 – 50 m deep and “mole-run” artifacts that appear as positive curvilinear surface features (not shown here). Such anomalies can be partly attributed to insufficient scene stacks over a particular region. In such cases, DEMs for these areas have no practical value for overland runoff simulations.

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Table 1.2: Technical specifications of DEMs.

DEM Dataset	Cell Resolution (m)	Standard Format	Vertical Accuracy (m)	General Issues
LiDAR	5	real	$\pm 0.3 - 0.5$	Cost, data volume and correcting drainage connectivity (e.g. for culvert locations)
Ortho - DEM models	5 – 30	Integer or real	± 1.5	Autocorrelation / interpolation issues; Subjectivity of ancillary data collection; Adequate capture of road networks
CDED	30	Integer	Varies by source data and location	Contour artifacts and integer values result in terraced-like landscapes
SRTM	30 and 90	Real or Integer	$\pm 12 - 16$	Winter survey, backscatter (e.g. low relief, dense vegetation) and coarseness
ASTER	30	Integer	± 20	“Mole runs” and 30-50 m deep pits

1.12 Potential Issues among DEM datasets for flood hazard mapping

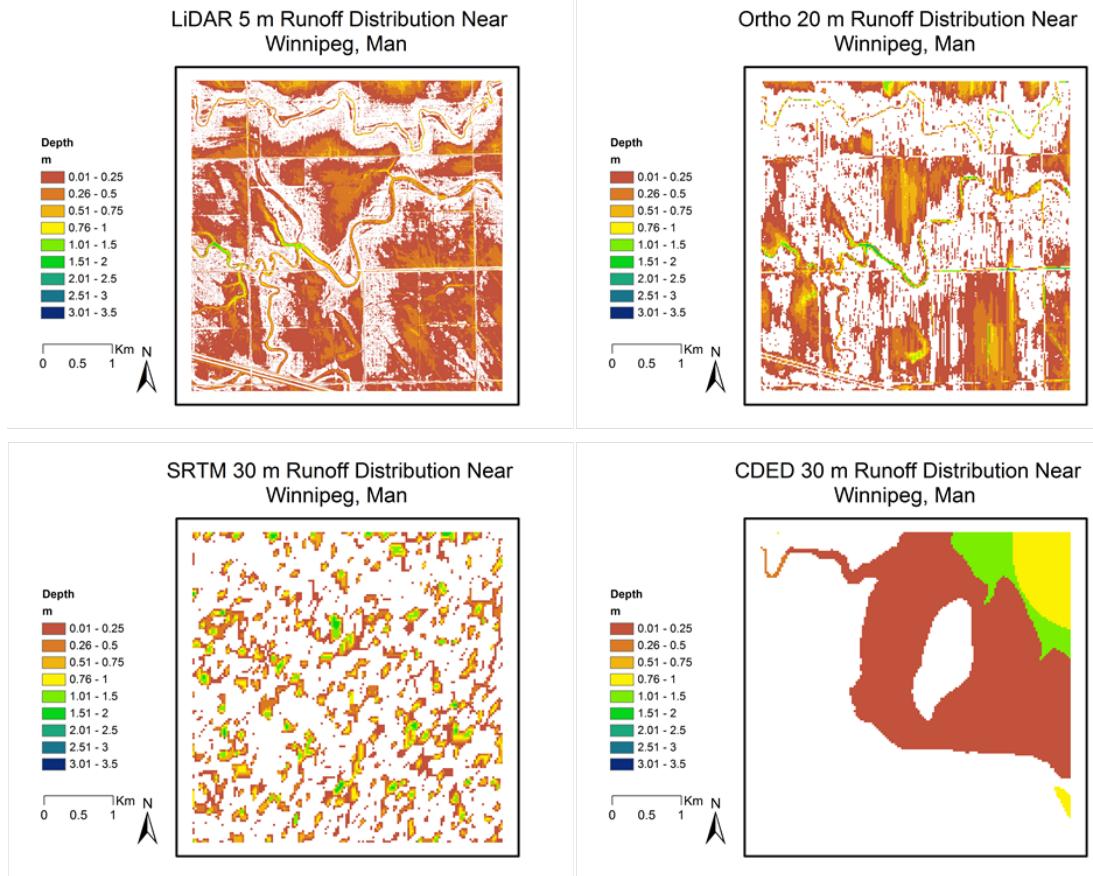


Figure 1.9: Runoff distributions for DEMs near Winnipeg MB based on 116 mm of water added.

2 Installing the WDPM

The source code for the WDPM is available from the GitHub repository at <https://github.com/CentreForHydrology/WDPM>. Additional documentation and the compiled version of the WDPM for Windows, may be downloaded from the website of the Centre for Hydrology at <https://research-groups.usask.ca/hydrology/modelling/wdpm.php>.

2.1 Program requirements

Although the program does not require other programs to be installed, it works much better with them. Because these programs change frequently, and to avoid over-writing existing versions with older versions, these programs are not supplied with the WDPM. You must install these programs, preferably before installing the WDPM.

The memory required by the program will depend on the size of the DEM processed. As is described in section 3.4, the primary limitation of the program is its processing requirements.

2.1.1 OpenCL drivers

As described above, the WDPM uses OpenCL to provide parallel processing, which requires the appropriate drivers to be installed. However, the WDPM can also run in serial mode, if you are unable to find appropriate drivers. The selection of the processing mode is shown on page 24. The drivers installed will depend on your operating system (Linux, MacOS, Windows) as well as your CPU (Intel/AMD) and your GPU (NVIDIA/AMD). Note that OpenCL has been deprecated on MacOS, so there is no guarantee that it will continue to function in the future.

Some of the drivers sources are listed in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: OpenCl CPU and GPU drivers

Type	Manufacturer	Link
CPU	Intel	https://software.seek.intel.com/intel-opencl
	AMD	https://www.amd.com/en/support
GPU	NVIDIA	https://www.nvidia.com/download/index.aspx?lang=en-us
	AMD	https://www.amd.com/en/support

2.1.2 Python 3

The WDPM can be run directly from the command line, but the GUI requires **Python 3** to be installed. On a Linux system, you can install **Python 3** using your package manager. On Windows, you can install **Python 3** from <https://www.python.org/downloads/windows/>. On MacOS, you can install **Python 3** from <https://www.python.org/downloads/mac-osx/> or from <https://brew.sh/>.

The GUI also requires the library `wxPython` to be installed. You can do this from the `pip` package manager, which can be obtained for Windows or MacOS at <https://pypi.org/project/pip/>. Linux users can install pip from the package manager, typically by installing the package `python3-pip`.

Pip can then install `wxPython` the using the command

```
pip install -U wxPython
```

or

```
pip3 install -U wxPython
```

depending on your system.

Unfortunately, there is an issue with `wxPython` on Ubuntu 20.04 (and distributions based on it), as it uses `libpng-dev` version 1.6, while `wxPython` requires version 1.2. You can find instructions on how to install the older versions of `libpng-dev` at www.pixelstech.net/article/1599647177-Problem-and-Solution-for-Installing-wxPython-on-Ubuntu-20-04.

2.1.3 GDAL

As described above, the WDPM GUI can use the program `gdaldem` to create simple maps of water from the WDPM outputs. If you are using Linux, you can install the **GDAL** suite from your package manager. If you are using Windows or MacOS, you can install **GDAL** from <https://gdal.org/download.html>. Execution of `gdaldem` is done by a shell script, `cmap.bat` (Windows) or `cmap_black.sh` (Linux/MacOS), which must be in the same directory as the WDPM executable and GUI. The script file can be modified if necessary to specify the path to `gdaldem` or any other desired parameters. The file `colormap_black.txt`, which sets the colours used, must also be in the same directory.

2.2 Binary distribution

The WDPM is available as a pre-compiled (binary) version for Windows. The binary distribution of the WDPM was only compiled for Intel processors, and will not work on computers with AMD processors. The steps required to install the program are

1. Install the **OpenCL** drivers **Python 3** and **GDAL** as described above.

2. Copy the file `WDPM2_WIN.zip` to your hard drive and double-click to extract it here. The files will be extracted to a directory called `WDPM`.
3. To run the program, double-click on the file `WDPM.bat`.

2.3 Installing WDPM from the source code

The most recent version of the WDPM source code may be obtained from GitHub at <https://github.com/CentreForHydrology/WDPM>. The source code is in the folder `/src`.

2.3.1 Installation of the OpenCL libraries

Compiling the source code requires installation of the OpenCL libraries, as described above.

2.3.2 Building WDPM

The WDPM program code can be built using `gcc`, which is a standard part of all Linux distributions, and can be downloaded for Windows or OSX at <http://gcc.gnu.org/>. If you are building on Windows, you should install **MinGW**, which is a minimalist installation of the GNU tools for Windows, which includes all of the required tools. To install **MinGW**, follow the following steps:

1. You can get **MinGW** from <http://www.mingw.org/>
2. Download and run the installation program `mingw-get-Setup.exe`.
3. The `gcc` and `g++` compilers will be installed by default. You will also have to select the `make` package as well, by adding all of the `ming32-make` files.
4. After installation of the packages, you must add the path to **MinGW** to the environment path.
5. You can test the installation using the command:

```
gcc -v
```

If the installation is successful, you will see the version information.

2.3.2.1 Building with cmake

The most reliable way to build the WDPM is using the program `cmake`, which is included with Linux (install with your package manager) and **MinGW**. The source code consists of one file, `WDPMCL.c`. The file `CMakeLists.txt` needs to be in the same

2 Installing the WDPM

directory as `WDPMCL.c`, and contains the instructions to produce the file `Makefile`, which is used to build the WDPM.

Building the program takes 2 steps: 1) creating the `Makefile` with `cmake`, and 2) running `make` to build the program.

1. Creating `Makefile`. Assuming that `CMakeLists.txt` is properly configured, the command on Linux or MacOS is simply

```
cmake .
```

On Windows, the command is

```
cmake -G "Unix Makefiles"
```

2. Building the program. Assuming that `cmake` executed correctly, the `make` command is simply

```
make
```

Once `make` has finished, the executable program `WDPMCL` (Linux/MacOS) or `WDPMCL.EXE` (Windows) will be created.

2.3.2.2 Kernel file

The file `runoff.cl` must be present inside the same directory as the compiled WDPM executable. It contains the code which redistributes the water. It is this code which is run in parallel by all cores on the CPU or GPU.

2.3.3 Other files

Use of the GUI requires the file `WDPM-GUI.py` to be installed in the same directory as the compiled executable file, and for Python 3 to be installed. Use of `gdal-dem` to create water maps requires the files `cmap.bat` (Windows) or `cmap_black.sh` (Linux/MacOS) in the same directory as the WDPM executable and GUI. The file `colormap_black.txt`, which sets the colours used, must also be in the same directory. The file `test.txt` is a sample parameter text file. The file `basin5.asc` is a sample DEM.

3 How to run the WDPM

The WDPM can be run either from the graphic user interface (GUI) or from the command line. Most users will prefer the GUI, but the command line version is useful to run the WDPM in scripts. Note that if you are running the WDPM under Linux or MacOS, all three executable files `WDPMCL`, `runoff.cl` and `WDPM.py` must have their permissions set to allow execution.

3.1 GUI

The GUI for the WDPM is written in **Python 3**, and can be executed using the command

```
python WDPM-GUI.py
```

or

```
python3 WDPM-GUI.py
```

depending on your computer, in the directory containing `WDPM-GUI.py`. If you have installed the Windows binary version of WDPM, then you can execute the program by double-clicking on the file `WDPM.bat`.

The GUI will look slightly different depending on which operating system you are running. The image in Figure 3.1 shows the GUI under Windows. The **File** menu only displays the information about the program, or quits.

Running the program requires the following steps:

1. Click on Browse to set the working directory. The scratch file (if used) and `reports.txt` will be written to this directory.
2. Select the method: Add, Subtract, Drain or TextFile. Once you have selected the method, the appropriate module components will be activated. If you select TextFile, steps 3 - 9 may be ignored, once the text file has been selected using the Browse button near the bottom of the screen.
3. Set the DEM file name. The DEM must be an ArcGIS ASCII file (.asc).
4. Set the Water (input) file, if it is required. If it is not used, the file name is set to NULL.
5. If a scratch file is defined, the model results will be written to it every 1000 iterations. This is useful if the process might be canceled, as can happen on a

3 How to run the WDPM

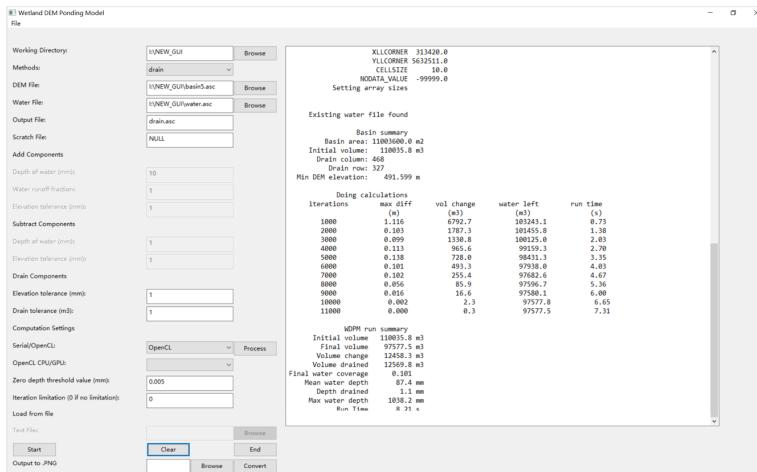


Figure 3.1: The WDPM GUI (Windows version).

shared cluster, or if there is a crash. It also allows you to save the results if you manually terminate the program. However, writing to a scratch file will slow the program. The default file name is NULL, which prevents a scratch file from being used.

6. Now set the parameters for the module that you have selected, as described below.
7. Click on Process to set the calculation method and select either Serial or OpenCL processing.
8. If you selected OpenCL, select either CPU or GPU for the parallel processing.
9. Set the Zero depth threshold. This should normally be a very small value like 0.005 mm.
10. Set the Iteration limit. If you don't want to limit the number of iterations, set this value to zero.
11. Click on the Start button to begin execution.
12. When the program has completed execution, you can create a simple image from the output .asc file. Click on the Browse button to choose the file, and then the Convert button.

When the program runs, it outputs to the right-hand side of the screen. The run information includes statistics about the DEM, and the water file (if used). Each 1000 iterations, the model also outputs the change in the water, which allows you to see how quickly it is converging. All of these outputs are stored in the file **report.txt** in the current directory. You can abort the run at any time by clicking on the End button. The Clear button clears the previous run information from the screen.

3.2 Module parameters

In addition to the basic parameters described above, each module has its own set of run parameters.

3.2.1 Add parameters

1. Depth of water (mm). This is the depth of water added to the entire DEM. There is no spatial variability.
2. Water runoff fraction (0-1). Setting the runoff fraction allows some of the water applied to dry ground to infiltrate the soil, while not affecting any of the water applied to existing water (if you are using a water file).
3. Elevation tolerance (mm). If the maximum change in the water depth, at any location in the DEM, is smaller than this value, then the run will terminate.

3.2.2 Subtract parameters

1. Depth of water (mm). This is the depth of water subtracted from the entire DEM. There is no spatial variability, but where the existing water depth is smaller than this value, the resulting depth is set to zero.
2. Elevation tolerance (mm). If the maximum change in the water depth in 1000 iterations, at any location in the DEM, is smaller than this value, then the run will terminate.

3.2.3 Drain parameters

1. Elevation tolerance (mm). If the maximum change in the water depth in 1000 iterations, at any location in the DEM, is smaller than this value, then the run will terminate.
2. Drain tolerance (m^3). If the volume of water draining in 1000 iterations is smaller than this value, then the run will terminate.

Either condition will terminate the run.

3.2.4 Parameter text files

The parameters can also be stored in simple text files. A sample file, `test.txt`, used for the Add module is shown below. The comments must NOT be included. Note that parameters and their order are the same as shown in Section 3.3.

3 How to run the WDPM

Line	Meaning
add	Module to be used
basin5.asc	DEM file
NULL	Input water file
water.asc	Output file
NULL	Scratch file
10.0	Add 10 mm
1.0	Runoff fraction
1.0	Elevation tolerance = 1mm
1	Use OpenCL
0	Use CPU
0.005	Zero depth threshold (mm)
0	Max number of iterations (0 to omit)

3.3 Command line

Version 2.0 of WDPM can be executed directly from the command line, or from within a scripting language. The command-line arguments are the same for all operating systems. The required arguments are output to the file `report.txt` if the program is run without the correct arguments as shown here:

```
Add module specified
DEM file name (string)
Water file name (string) - Optional, Use NULL to omit Output file name (string)
Scratch file name (string) - Optional, use NULL to omit
Depth of water to add (mm) (real) Water runoff fraction (real)
Elevation tolerance (mm) (real)
Specify 0 for serial CPU and 1 for opencl
Specify 0 for OpenCL CPU and 1 for opencl GPU
Zero depth threshold (mm) (real)
Maximum number of iterations (integer) - Optional, Use 0 to omit

Subtract module specified
DEM file name (string)
Water file name (string) - Optional, Use NULL to omit
Output file name (string)
Scratch file name (string) - Optional, use NULL to omit
Depth of water to remove (mm) (real)
Elevation tolerance (mm) (real)
Specify 0 for serial CPU and 1 for opencl
Specify 0 for OpenCL CPU and 1 for opencl GPU
Zero depth threshold (mm) (real)
Maximum number of iterations (integer) - Optional, Use 0 to omit
```

```

Program arguments in order of specification
Subtract module specified
DEM file name (string)
Water file name (string) - Optional, Use NULL to omit
Output file name (string)
Scratch file name (string) - Optional, use NULL to omit
Depth of water to remove (mm) (real)
Elevation tolerance (mm) (real)
Specify 0 for serial CPU and 1 for opencl
Specify 0 for OpenCL CPU and 1 for opencl GPU
Zero depth threshold (mm) (real)
Maximum number of iterations (integer) - Optional, Use 0 to omit

```

When the program is executed correctly, then the output is passed to the console, and the output is also written to the file `report.txt`.

Example - adding 10 mm of water, without a preexisting water file, or using a scratch file, with a runoff fraction of 1.0, a tolerance of 1 mm, using OpenCl with the CPU, a zero depth threshold of 0.005 mm, and no restriction on the number of iterations on Linux or MacOS:

```
WDPMCL add basin5.asc NULL water.asc NULL 10.0 1.0 1.0 1 0 0.005 0
```

On Windows, the command would be

```
WDPMCL.exe add basin5.asc NULL water.asc NULL 10.0 1.0 1.0 1 0 0.005 0
```

3.4 Model execution time

The WDPM was run on a variety of computers to test its execution time using the same small (471 x 482 elements) DEM, which was used to produce Figures 1.1-1.3. The execution times for all of the modules for all computers are listed in Table 3.1. All of the Add and Subtract runs used a tolerance of 1 mm, with the Drain runs also using a volume tolerance of 10 m³. In all cases, the zero depth threshold was set to 0.005 mm. No limit was set on the number of iterations. The very poor OpenCL performance of the NVIDIA Quadro K420 GPU is believed to be due to WDPM using double values, which are handled very slowly by this card.

Table 3.2:

Table 3.1: Execution time of the WDPM (seconds).

CPU	GPU	OS	Module	Serial	OpenCL CPU	OpenCL GPU
i7-6700, 3.4 GHz, 8 cores	NVIDIA Quadro K420	Linux Mint 20	Add 10 mm	59.15	18.08	70.81
			Drain	14.69	5.7	19.45
			Subtract 10mm	2.51	1.14	4.15
Xeon W, 3 GHz, 10 cores	AMD Radeon Pro Vega 56	MacOS	Add 10 mm	57.09	33.56	27.9
			Drain	14.73	10.06	10.33
			Subtract 10mm	2.64	1.83	1.85
i7-9750, 2.60 GHz, 6 cores	NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1650	Windows 10	Add 10 mm	57.35	22.65	19.81
			Subtract 10mm	14.80	7.51	7.31
			Subtract 10mm	2.63	1.36	2.00

3.4.1 Effect of zero depth threshold on execution time

The effects of the zero depth threshold were tested by running the program repeatedly on the system with the i7-6700 CPU (3.4 GHz x 8 cores). As can be seen from the execution times listed in Table 3.3, the use of a zero depth threshold greatly reduced the CPU time required to add and drain water, while having small effects on the final volumes of water on the DEM. Using a depth threshold of 1 mm further reduced the execution time, and the number of iterations, but at the cost of reducing the final volume of water on the DEM. It is recommended that a zero depth threshold value of 0.005 mm be used in most cases, particularly for studies where the contributing fraction of a basin is estimated by the volume of water remaining after drainage. If the general arrangement of water is the only interest, then a coarser threshold may be justified.

Table 3.3: Execution time of the WDPM for varying zero thresholds.

Module	Zero depth threshold (mm)	Time (s)	Iterations	Final volume (m ³)
Add 50 mm	0.0	5,760.47	385,000	550,1762
	0.005	857.40	385,000	550,1752
	1.0	787.61	378,000	548,3608
Drain	0.0	1,142.87	367,000	380,6052
	0.005	779.85	367,000	380,6051
	1.0	566.82	307,000	380,0840

3.5 Tips and tricks

3.5.1 Estimation of spring flooded areas

As described previously, the WDPM is not a hydrological model. However, it is possible to use the WDPM to estimate the areas of flooding due to spring runoff. The steps are:

1. Obtain an air photo of the region taken in the previous fall or late summer.
2. Establish the initial water distribution. Run the WDPM repeatedly, adding and removing water by trial and error, until the water distribution agrees (more or less) with the air photo.
3. Estimate the total snow accumulation over the winter. Because of sublimation and relocation due to blowing snow, this will invariably be different from the total snowfall. Obviously, this is best estimated by a snow survey. In the absence of a survey, the best method for estimating the snow accumulation is to run the Cold Regions Hydrological Modelling (CRHM) platform, which is available from the Centre for Hydrology. You should be advised that CRHM is not like other hydrological models, and takes some time to learn.
4. The fraction of the snow melt water that infiltrates to the soil is best estimated using CRHM however it can also be estimated using the procedures described in Granger et al. (1984), which can be downloaded from the Centre for Hydrology website at <http://www.usask.ca/hydrology>ListPubs.php>.
5. Apply the total water equivalent depth of the accumulated snowcover using the WDPM Add module. Set the runoff fraction equal to (1 - the infiltration fraction). The output of the WDPM, (when drained, if necessary) will be an estimate of the spring water distribution.

3.5.2 Contributing fraction

The fraction of the basin contributing flow can be estimated by adding a small depth of water to an existing water file, followed by draining. The contributing fraction is then calculated from the change in volume, which can be obtained from the file `report.txt`. The process is described in Shook and Pomeroy (2011); Shook et al. (2013).

3.5.3 Visualizing the output

The WDPM is intended to be used with a Geographical Information System (GIS) program, as operational use often requires the program output to be overlaid on top of the DEM, and/or infrastructure. GIS programs are also useful for creating the DEM file. There are several Free Open Source Software (FOSS) GIS programs available, such as **QGIS** (www.qgis.org), **SAGA** (<http://www.saga-gis.org/en/index.html>), and **WhiteBox** (<http://www.uoguelph.ca/~hydrogeo/Whitebox/>).

The WDPM can also produce a very simple water map from the output file, using the Geospatial Data Abstraction Library (GDAL), which is a free set of command-line GIS tools (GDAL/OGR contributors, 2020). The GDAL program **gdaldem** was used to create the water maps seen in Figures 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3. The use of **gdaldem** requires a color map, which is a text file containing the colors assigned to each depth of water in the output file. The WDPM color map file is `colormap_black.txt`, which must be stored in the same directory as the WDPM executable. The default values in the file are:

```
3,25,0,230  
0.001,25,0,230  
0,yellow  
-9999, black
```

This file will set depths between 0.001 m and 3 m to be blue, zero depths to be yellow, and missing values to be black. The specified depths and/or colors can be changed by simply editing the file.

4 Case Study: Adaptation for the Land and Infrastructure Resiliency Assessment (LIRA)

The Land and Infrastructure Resiliency Assessment (LIRA) project is a sub-component of the recently concluded Climate Adaptation for Resilience in Agriculture (CARA) project funded by Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (AAFC). The impetus for the LIRA project was based on observed flood damages to vital infrastructure and access to essential services in Honduras in 1998 due to Hurricane Mitch. Although destruction of a similar nature and magnitude is unlikely in most regions of Canada, concerns have increased across the Prairies in recent years due to excess moisture conditions, rising water tables, and severe localized flooding and damage in some locations.

The key goal of LIRA is to assist decision-makers in identifying locations across their landscape that may be vulnerable to extreme overland flood events and potential cost-effective mitigation and adaptation strategies. LIRA is designed to integrate local knowledge, science (e.g. hydrology and climate), GIS technology and economics into a cost-benefit analysis framework. Numerous inputs are required for the economic analysis, just one of which is a flood hazard map. A critical question asked by the LIRA process is whether any economic assets or essential transportation and emergency services routes are located in flood hazard zones; or may be impacted by flood damages incurred elsewhere.

4.1 Flood hazard mapping for LIRA applications

The basic goal of flood hazard mapping is to identify the spatial extents within a landscape that may be covered by flood waters, or potential hot spots where flood damages may be a concern. Flood hazard maps have typically been developed using flood frequency analysis and hydraulic modelling techniques and so have only been possible along primary waterways. Essentially, such products identify flood hazard zones where any developments should be protected, restricted, or not permitted at all. Unfortunately, existing maps such as those developed through the Federal Disaster Reduction Program from the 1980's have fallen into disuse. Effective use of these mapping products would require updates for the recent climate conditions.

More advanced modelling techniques exist today, which can be used to generate flood-risk based hazard maps. Unfortunately, the standard approaches used to develop such maps are incapable of identifying hazards in outlying areas not directly

connected to the main drainage channels. The WDPM was introduced to LIRA specifically because of the model's capacity to generate spatially explicit distributed runoff maps across entire landscapes even where no streams exist. A limitation of the current modelling strategy is that the WDPM does not directly model hydrology or hydrodynamics. In the short term, however, application of WDPM has helped to circumvent key difficulties that restrict standard approaches from flood hazard mapping within most Prairie basins.

In recent LIRA pilot studies, the application of WDPM has allowed for diagnostic assessments of runoff accumulation zones and hydrographic connectivity. This has included backwater ponding hazards upstream of road intersections and other potential impoundments which bisect water flow paths. A benefit of this ad hoc approach for LIRA stakeholders has been that diagnostic flood hazard maps for entire landscapes have been provided to decision-makers for the first time. A general distinction between flood hazard zones identified using standard hydraulic methods and those from WDPM is currently defined by the probabilistic analysis of individual flood events and estimates of the resulting water volumes.

4.2 WDPM flood hazard mapping case study results for Redberry Lake Planning Region

Community stakeholder involvement is a crucial resource for LIRA projects. As part of the Redberry Lake pilot study, a LiDAR survey was conducted in the fall of 2011 for the Radisson / Borden region in Saskatchewan to address community concerns over flood vulnerabilities. A validation opportunity for the WDPM flood hazard maps subsequently arose during the spring melt period of 2013 when flood emergencies were declared by both communities. The flooding was attributed to saturated conditions and snow-melt runoff over frozen soils which filled numerous depressions to their storage capacities. Once exceeded, the spilling water activated key flow connections between the depressions, inundating large areas within the communities.

The flooding events were captured by ground and aerial photos taken by federal (AAFC) and provincial agencies (special thanks to Frank Fox; now retired from Water Security Agency). Flood hazard maps generated previously with WDPM, made available to the communities, were compared to the flood event photos. The runoff maps shown here were generated by applying a water depth of 100 mm to the 5 m LiDAR DEMs and are displayed with a GIS overlay of the cadastral fabric for the townships. Figures 4.1 through 4.5 demonstrate the validity of flood hazard mapping using the WDPM based on comparisons of flood extents for large ponded areas and along primary flow paths as seen in the images. These areas are linked by numbered location in the maps and photos.

Figure 4.1 shows results for the Radisson Lake area where water flows along a circuitous course from location 1 to location 4. Figure 4.2 shows results of hazard mapping for the town of Radisson. In this case, an extensive area was flooded just

4.2 WDPM flood hazard mapping case study results for Redberry Lake Planning Region

northwest of the town. To partly mitigate flooding, water was pumped from location 1 to 2, and water flowed into the town from the west. The water flowed directly through town along a natural drainage path captured by the LiDAR data (Figure 4.3) and was confined by inflatable barriers which potentially stopped more extensive flooding; as depicted by the hazard map. In Figure 4.3, the water can be seen exiting the town to the southeast from two pathways at locations 1 and 5 and inundating field-sized areas toward the south; a flood path contributing flow toward the southeast was also captured along location 7.

Results for the village of Borden are shown in Figure 4.5. Borden receives excess overland flows from the Radisson area. Water enters Borden from the southwest along location 1 and flows directly through town along location 3 (and to the east toward location 2) to the north where a large ponding area can be seen at location 4. Water then flows southeast through the town along locations 5 – 7 and turns sharply to the east passing under a secondary road (location 8) close to the main highway. Despite the simplicity of the WDPM simulations, the results are surprisingly detailed and the flood hazard map depicts much of the observed flooding in the photo accurately. When a greater depth of water was applied to the DEM, the gap between locations 1 and 2 was filled in more accurately.

The relative accuracy of spatially distributed runoff information for other pilot studies has also been verified against runoff masks classified from remote sensing imagery and, most importantly, the past experiences of community stakeholders. The general accuracy and encouraging feedback from the towns of Radisson and Borden have served to validate the usefulness of a simple diagnostic tool for providing spatially distributed runoff information that has not been previous available. It may be possible to improve upon the methods further by driving the WDPM runoff simulations with estimates generated through a physically-based modelling framework that considers Prairie cold region hydrological process directly.

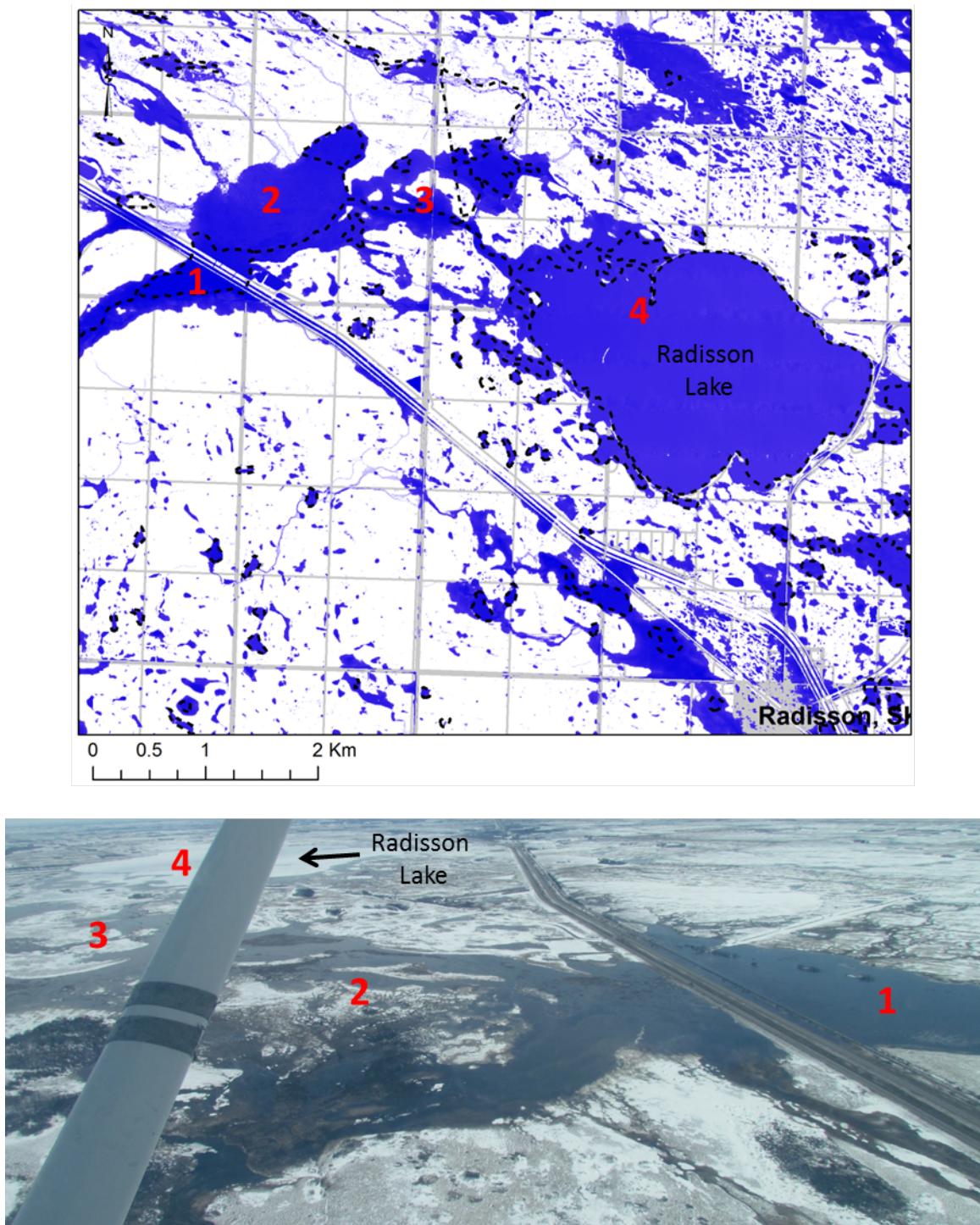


Figure 4.1: Radisson Lake. WDPM output (above) and air photo (below).

4.2 WDPM flood hazard mapping case study results for Redberry Lake Planning Region

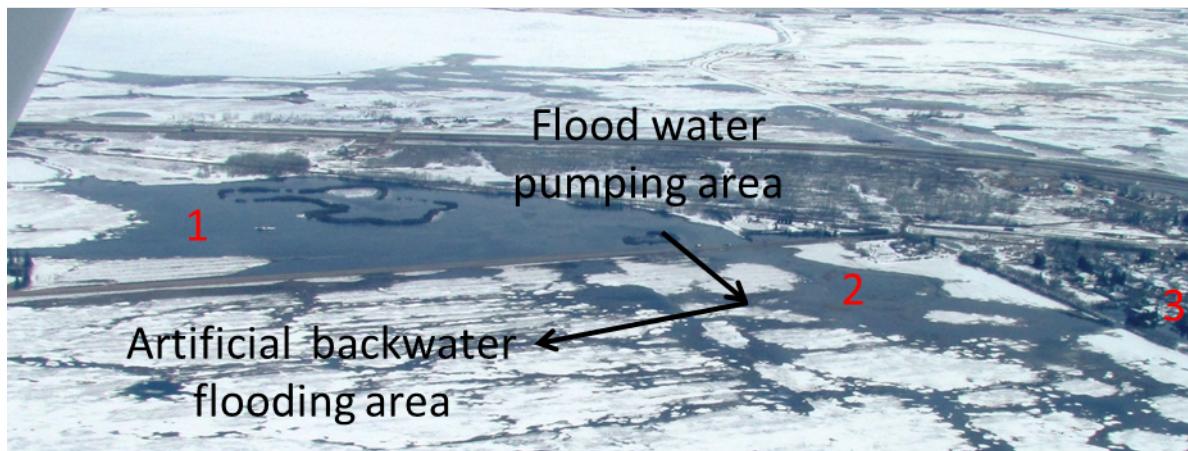
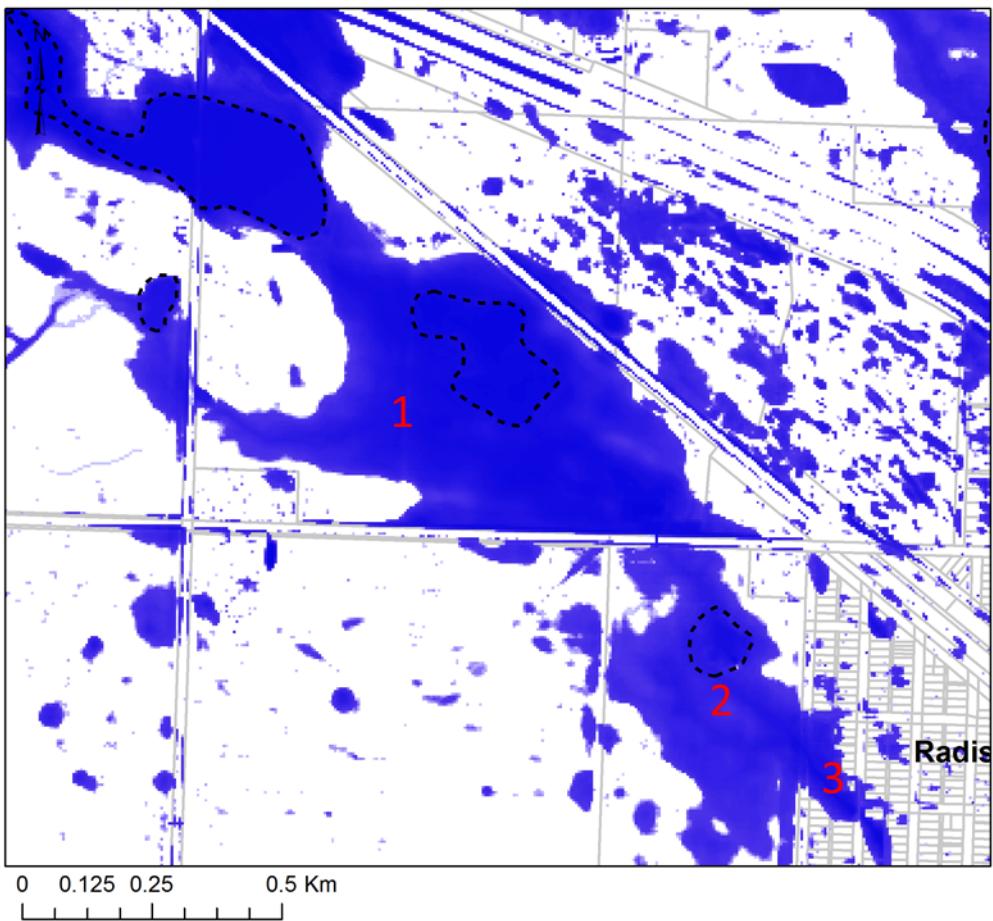


Figure 4.2: Town of Radisson. WDPM output (above) and air photo (below).

4 Case Study: Adaptation for the Land and Infrastructure Resiliency Assessment (LIRA)

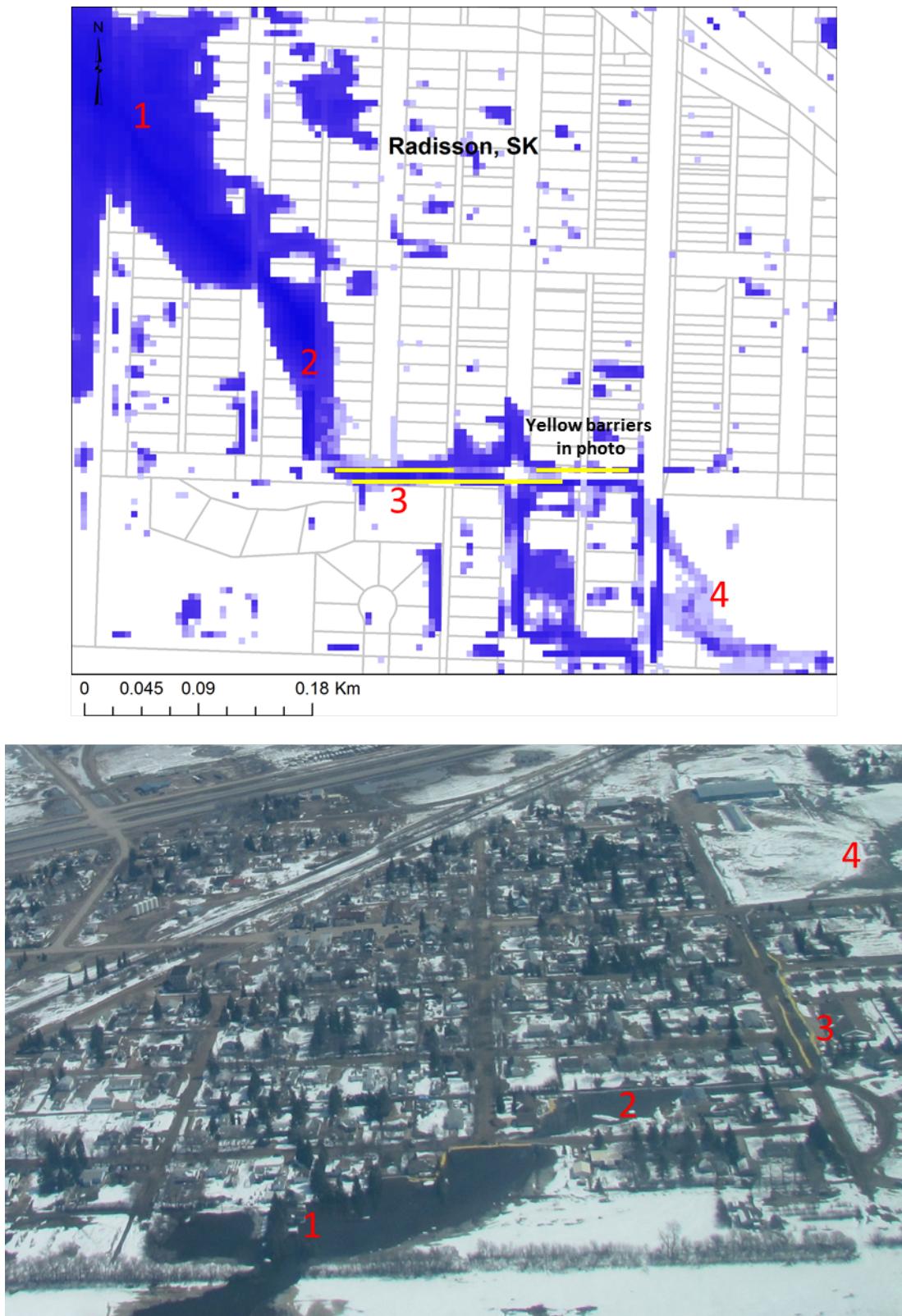


Figure 4.3: Centre of town of Radisson. WDPM output (above) and air photo (below).

4.2 WDPM flood hazard mapping case study results for Redberry Lake Planning Region

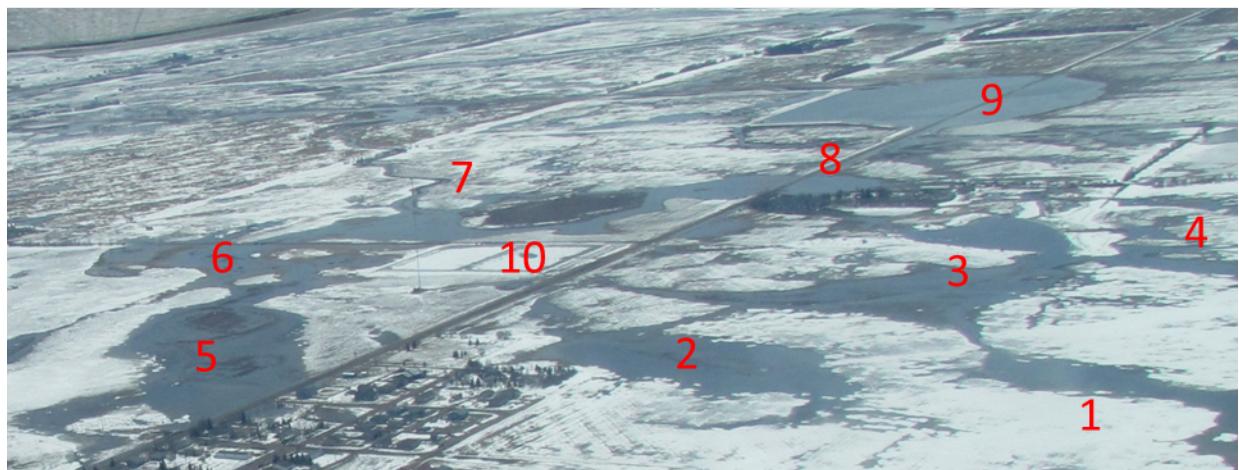
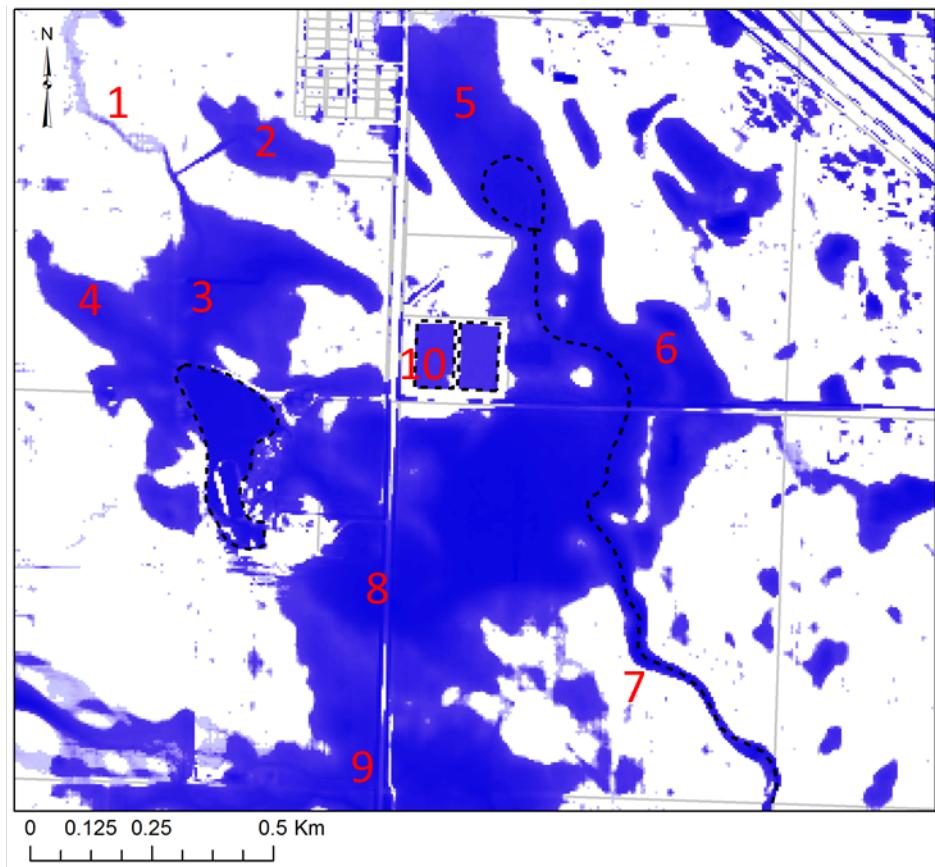


Figure 4.4: South of town of Radisson. WDPM output (above) and air photo (below).

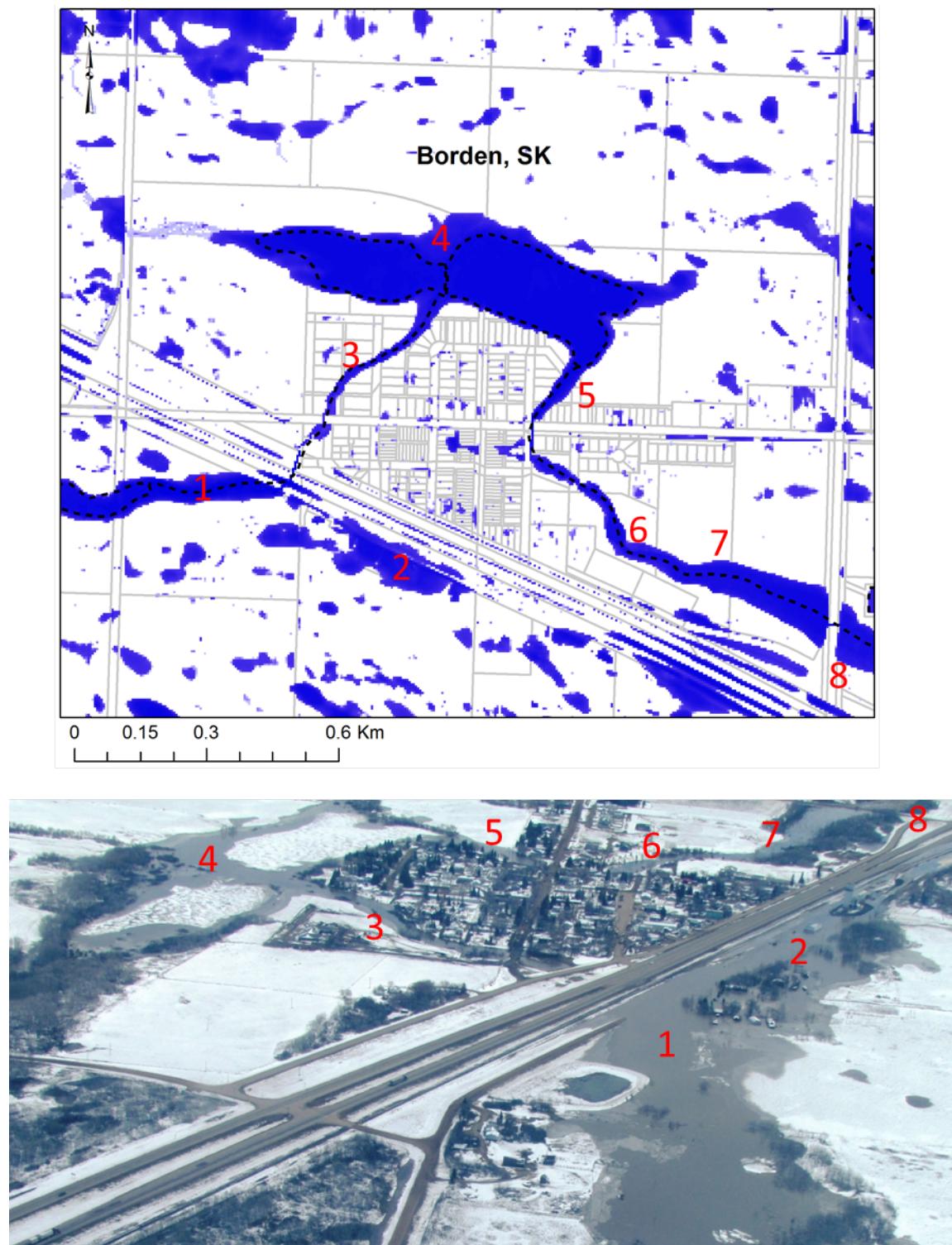


Figure 4.5: Borden region and village.

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