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# Analysis of projected hydrological behavior of catchments based on signature indices

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## Abstract

To precisely map the changes in hydrologic response of catchments (e.g., water balance, reactivity or extremes) we need sensitive and interpretable indicators. In this study we defined nine hydrologically meaningful signature indices: five indices were sampled on the flow duration curve, four indices were closely linked to the distribution of event runoff coefficients. We applied these signature indices to the output from three hydrologic catchment models located in the Nahe basin (Western Germany) to detect differences in runoff behavior resulting from different meteorological input data. The models were driven by measured and simulated (COSMO-CLM) meteorological data. It could be shown that application of signature indices is a very sensitive tool to assess differences in simulated runoff behavior resulting from climatic data sets of different sources. The hydrological model acts as a filter for the meteorological input and is therefore very sensitive to biases in mean and spatio-temporal distribution of precipitation and temperature. The selected signature indices allow assessing changes in water balance, vertical water distribution, reactivity, seasonality and runoff generation. Bias correction of temperature fields and adjustment of bias correction of precipitation fields seemed to be indispensable. For this reason, future work will focus on improving bias correction for CCLM data sets. Signature indices may then act as indirect “efficiency measures” or “similarity measures” for the reference period of the simulation.

## 1 Introduction

The world is presently facing rapid changes to the climate. The understanding and prediction of related hydrologic changes is one main question that hydrologists face today (Blöschl and Montanari, 2010; Schaeffli et al., 2011). It is therefore essential that we precisely map the changes in hydrologic response of catchments (e.g., water balance, reactivity or extremes). In this context, hydrological models are applied to

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detect the impact of a changing climate on the hydrology of catchments (Mahmoud et al., 2009). To achieve this on catchment scale, the output of regional climate models (RCM) is used as forcing data of hydrological models (Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010; Marke et al., 2011).

Precipitation fields from climate model output are defective and introduce errors into hydrological models when used as forcing data (Piani et al., 2010). These errors in the climate model affect the spatial and temporal distribution of rainfall and temperature (Sennikovs et al., 2009). These errors are caused by insufficient representation of precipitation processes, resolution of orography, domain size, length of simulation (Jacob and Podzun, 1997), boundary and initial data (Ebell et al., 2008) and errors from numerics and parameterizations (Gutjahr et al., 2011). Even variation of parameters within reasonable bounds leads to different precipitation performance (Bachner et al., 2008). In this study, a COSMO-CLM (CCLM) run is used as forcing data for a hydrological model. It is well known that CCLM produces too many days with very low precipitation intensities (drizzle) and too few dry days (Bachner et al., 2008). For realistic model output, appropriate bias correction needs to be applied (Piani et al., 2010). Wood et al. (2009) state that “hydrologic simulation is sensitive to biases in the basin mean and spatial distribution and temperature, that nearly all local biases must be removed from climate inputs”.

Assessment of climate induced changes in hydrological response is mostly based on mean annual, monthly or seasonal runoff, and on low flow and high flow quantiles (Arnell, 2011; Xu et al., 2011; Nóbrega et al., 2011; Taye et al., 2011). For long time series, statistical tests are recommended for change detection (Kundzewicz and Robson, 2004).

The flow duration curve (FDC) allows indication and classification of watershed functioning. The FDC summarizes a catchment’s ability to produce discharge values of different magnitudes, and is therefore strongly sensitive to the vertical redistribution of soil moisture within a basin (Yilmaz et al., 2008). Additionally, a steep slope of the FDC indicates flashiness of the stream flow response to precipitation input whereas a

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flatter curve indicates a relatively damped response and a higher storage (Yadav et al., 2007).

Another diagnostic tool is the analysis of event runoff coefficients. Their distribution represents the runoff generation in catchments, particularly if a larger number of events is to be compared (Merz et al., 2006). Event runoff coefficients are useful to understand how different landscapes “filter” rainfall into event based runoff and to explain the observed differences between catchments. They offer information on watershed response including changes from event to event, or from season to season (Blume et al., 2007).

In order to combine the strengths of both approaches, we define in this study nine hydrologically meaningful signature indices: five indices are sampled on the FDC (similar to Yilmaz et al., 2008), four indices are closely linked to the distribution of event runoff coefficients (Ley et al., 2011).

We apply the signature index concept to the output from three hydrologic catchment models located in the Nahe basin (Western Germany) to detect differences in runoff behavior resulting from different meteorological data sets: the models are driven by measured and simulated (CCLM) meteorological data. We demonstrate the discriminating power of the selected signature indices by pairwise comparison of data sets. This study is not intended to draw substantial conclusions on hydrological impact of climate change of our study area. For this purpose, an ensemble approach would be necessary (Knutti, 2008; Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010). We only intend to develop a sensitive method for change detection in hydrologic systems.

## 2 Study area

The study area consists of three small gaged catchment areas in the low mountain ranges of the Nahe basin (Fig. 1), Germany: Kronweiler (64 km<sup>2</sup>), Kellenbach (362 km<sup>2</sup>) and Gensingen (197 km<sup>2</sup>). Geology is characterized by Devonian schist, greywacke and quartzite in Kellenbach and most parts of Kronweiler. The south part

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of Kronweiler consists of Permian sedimentary and volcanic rocks. Tertiary clay and Pleistocene loess characterizes the geology of Gensingen. Mean annual precipitation reaches 990 mm in Kronweiler, followed by Kellenbach (730 mm) and Gensingen (570 mm). Mean annual potential evapotranspiration reaches 604 mm in Gensingen and about 540 mm in Kronweiler and Kellenbach. Field capacity in Gensingen is much higher than in Kronweiler and Kellenbach. About 75% of the area of Gensingen is used agriculturally, with 20% vineyards and orchards. In Kellenbach and Kronweiler about half the area is forested. All watersheds are rural with little urbanization with less than 6% of the area. The mean slope gradient of Kronweiler is  $8.6^\circ$ , much higher than for Kellenbach and Gensingen (about  $4.5^\circ$ ).

The runoff response behavior of the three catchments is quite different: Kronweiler shows high discharges, high reactivity and high runoff coefficients the whole year round. In contrast to this, Gensingen has low reactivity, low discharges and low runoff coefficients with a high variability in winter. Runoff behavior of Kellenbach lies between the two other catchments.

### 3 Methods

#### 3.1 Hydrological model and input data

The water balance model LARSIM (Large Area Runoff Simulation Model) allows a continuous process- and area-detailed simulation of the medium-scale mainland water cycle (Ludwig and Bremicker, 2006). In simplistic terms, the watershed is subdivided into 1-D elements linked by a flood routing scheme. The temporal resolution of the water balance calculation is one hour. The model needs as meteorological input spatial fields of precipitation, temperature, air pressure, wind speed, global radiation and relative humidity. This study is based on time series of climatic data from different sources. Each data set used has a length of approx. ten years:

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1. measured meteorological data from 56 DWD-stations, period 1994–2003;
2. CCLM reference data, period 1988–1997 (scenario C20\_1);
3. CCLM projection, period 2015–2024 (scenario A1B\_1).

CCLM data originates from a run of version COSMO4.2-CLM3 on 5 km grid resolution within the LandCaRe 2020 project (Berg et al., 2008; Köstner et al., 2008). A bias correction has been applied only for precipitation. Each data set has been bilinearly interpolated on a 1 km grid. Measured runoff at the three gaging stations Kronweiler, Kallenfels and Gensingen covers the period from 1994 to 2003.

### 3.2 Bias correction – quantile matching

For bias correction of the aggregated CCLM 5 km daily precipitation fields, we chose the quantile matching method (Piani et al., 2010; Michelangeli et al., 2009; Maraun et al., 2010; Sennikovs and Bethers, 2009). The quantile matching is based upon the cumulative distribution function (CDF), defined as:

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x), \quad (1)$$

and the inverse of the CDF, defined as the quantile function:

$$F^{-1}(P) = x(F). \quad (2)$$

The CDF is either a parametric or non-parametric (i.e. empirical) function. Parametric functions for precipitation intensities are usually gamma or exponential functions (Piani et al., 2010). To account for correcting the probabilities for no precipitation (dry day) together with the probabilities of a wet day ( $x > 0$ ), we chose an empirical CDF  $F(x) = i/n$ , with  $i$  the rank and  $n$  the sample size.

Let  $x_c$  be the daily precipitation intensities of a time series from CCLM and  $x_s$  a time series from a precipitation station, then the quantile matching sets:

$$F_s(x_s) = F_c(x_c). \quad (3)$$

By rearranging Eq. (3) using the quantile function it is possible to calculate a new time series for the CCLM from the quantiles of  $x_s$  with the probabilities  $F_c(x_c)$ :

$$x = F_s^{-1}(F_c(x_c)). \quad (4)$$

On the left side of Eq. (4) stands the new time series and on the right a transfer function:

$$T(x_c) = F_s^{-1}(F_c(x_c)). \quad (5)$$

This quantile matching corrects the whole intensity distribution of the modeled precipitation and therefore preserves all moments (Sennikovs and Bethers, 2009). The gained transfer functions can be applied to the future scenario if assumed that the model error is the same for the control and scenario run (van Roosmalen et al., 2011) and the transfer functions do not change with time (stationarity) (Maraun et al., 2010). Provided that the bias correction is optimal in the control period and the model error is removed from the control run as well from the scenario run, the remaining signal is only due to climate change (van Roosmalen et al., 2011).

Because  $x_c$  is a discrete time series,  $T(x_c)$  has to be interpolated to become a continuous function. This is done with a linear approach (Gutjahr et al., 2011). A spatial interpolation of the three nearest transfer functions is carried out for all grid boxes containing no gaging station by an inverse distance weighting method:

$$\hat{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{d_i^p} T_i(x_c)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{d_i^p}} \quad (6)$$

Finally LARSIM needs hourly input data. Therefore the bias corrected daily precipitation fields from CCLM are disaggregated to hourly fields  $H_{i,k}^{\text{COR}}$  by:

$$H_{i,k}^{\text{COR}} = H_{i,k}^{\text{uncor}} \cdot \frac{D_{i,k}^{\text{COR}}}{D_{i,k}^{\text{uncor}}} \quad (7)$$

with  $H_{i,k}^{\text{uncor}}$  the original CCLM precipitation fields,  $D_{i,k}^{\text{uncor}}$  the original uncorrected aggregated daily CCLM precipitation fields and  $D_{i,k}^{\text{cor}}$  the resulting daily fields after the bias correction. Index  $i$  denotes the hours and index  $k$  denotes the days.

### 3.3 Flow duration curves

The FDC is the complement of the cumulative distribution function of streamflow. In an FDC, discharge is plotted against exceedance probability and shows the percentage of time that a given flow rate is equaled or exceeded and provides a probabilistic description of stream flow at a given location (Fig. 2).

Opposite to common daily, monthly and annual FDCs (e.g., Vogel and Fennessey, 1994; Yadav et al., 2007), we use FDCs based on hourly discharge.

### 3.4 Calculation of runoff coefficients

Event runoff coefficients specify the percentage of precipitation that appears as significant runoff above base flow following directly the corresponding rainfall. This study uses the direct approach of event-based runoff coefficient (Eq. 8) as described by Merz et al. (2006) and Norbiato et al. (2009).

$$\text{ERC} = \frac{\sum Q_d}{A_{\text{eo}} \cdot \sum \text{prec} \cdot 1000} \quad (8)$$

with: ERC = Event Runoff Coefficient,  $Q_d$  = direct event runoff ( $\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$ ),  $A_{\text{eo}}$  = catchment area ( $\text{km}^2$ ) and prec = areal event precipitation ( $\text{mm h}^{-1}$ ).

The semi-automatic method to calculate event-based runoff coefficients was developed for Austria by Merz et al. (2006). We adapted this method for catchments in Rhineland-Palatinate by alteration of program parameters and verification of calculated runoff coefficients with manual calculated runoff coefficients. The same set of adapted criteria is used for all catchments in this study.

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- rcCV: coefficient of variation, describes the variability of runoff coefficients.
- rcMeanSu: mean runoff coefficient in summer (May to October).
- rcMeanWi: mean runoff coefficient in winter (November to April).

In order to compare two data sets, we calculate differences between the corresponding values of indices and name them as signature indices 6.  $\Delta$ rcMean, 7.  $\Delta$ rcCV, 8.  $\Delta$ rcMeanSu and 9.  $\Delta$ rcMeanWi.

## 4 Results

To demonstrate the discriminating power of the nine signature indices, we apply the methodology for four different cases: (1) assessment of model error, (2) assessment of CCLM reference run, (3) assessment of bias correction and (4) detection of climate change signal in the CCLM data set.

### 4.1 Assessment of model error

To assess the error of the hydrological model, deviations between simulated runoff and measured runoff are calculated (Fig. 4). For the catchments Kronweiler and Kellenbach the deviations are reasonable low. In contrast, simulated runoff for Gensingen is much higher than the measured one. The large bias can only be explained by incorrect model calibration based on incorrect runoff data for the gaging station Gensingen.

### 4.2 Assessment of CCLM reference run (bias corrected)

Deviation between bias corrected CCLM reference run and the measured climatic input is clearly visible (Fig. 5). For Kronweiler a small decrease in overall runoff (BiasRR), reactivity (BiasFDCmidslope) and peak flows (BiasFHV) can be detected. This can be explained by the lower yearly mean precipitation in this catchment (Table 1). In contrast,

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a much higher mean event runoff coefficient in summer ( $rcMeanSu$ ) can be observed. The other two gaging stations show a clear increase for all signature indices, though there is no difference in yearly mean precipitation between the two datasets (Table 1). These discrepancies can be explained by the lower mean annual temperatures in the CCLM reference run. A bias of approx.  $1.5^{\circ}C$  (Table 2) causes lower evaporation rates resulting in higher mean event runoff coefficients.

### 4.3 Assessment of bias correction

Bias correction mostly affects the hydrological behavior of the catchment Gensingen, where the simulated runoff decreases by 66% compared to the uncorrected dataset (Fig. 6). For the other two catchments, bias correction of precipitation only causes moderate changes in hydrologic response. Nevertheless, we have to keep in mind that bias correction for the Kronweiler catchment seems to be too low as we can conclude from the reference run (Table 1).

### 4.4 Detection of climate change signal in CCLM data

A climate change signal can be detected by analyzing the differences between the reference run and the future projection of climate: for the catchments Kellenbach and Gensingen, a small decrease in annual precipitation (Table 1) and a clear increase in temperature (Table 2) cause a decrease in high flows (negative index BiasFHV) and event runoff coefficients. Also the water balance (negative index BiasRR) and the reactivity of the catchment (negative index BiasFDCmidslope) decrease. Partly contrasting, the catchment Kronweiler shows a small increase in annual precipitation which seems to be compensated by the higher evaporation losses, resulting in index values close to zero. Only the high flow periods decrease (negative index BiasFHV). This decrease can only be explained by a different temporal distribution of rainfall, because the indices for the event runoff coefficients remain unchanged compared to the reference run.

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## 5 Discussion/outlook

It could be shown that application of signature indices is a very sensitive tool to assess differences in simulated runoff behavior resulting from climatic data sets of different sources and/or time reference. The hydrological model acts as a filter for the meteorological input and is therefore sensitive to biases in mean and spatial distribution of precipitation and temperature. The selected signature indices allow assessing changes in water balance (BiasRR, BiasMM), vertical water distribution (BiasFHV, BiasFLV), reactivity (BiasFDCmidslope), seasonality (rcMeanSu, rcMeanWi) and runoff generation (rcMean, rcCV).

Probably, the selection of mean (rcMean, rcMeanSu, rcMeanWi) from the empirical distributions of event runoff coefficients does not take sufficiently into account the shape of the distribution itself (Fig. 3). To avoid this, signature indices may be based on slope of a particular segment of the distribution function (Ley et al., 2011).

Figure 4 shows large discrepancies between model behavior and measured discharge. We recommend the use of signature indices for multi-criteria model calibration leading to more behavioral model parameterizations (Herbst et al., 2009a, 2009b). This becomes particularly relevant when we do not expect time stability of model parameters (Merz et al., 2011).

In our case, we showed that the deviations for the reference period (Fig. 5) were much higher than the impact of projected climate change on hydrology of catchments (Fig. 7). Bias correction of temperature fields and adjustment of bias correction of precipitation fields in the mountain region seems to be indispensable. For this reason, future work will focus on improving bias correction for CCLM data sets. Especially the assumptions for the bias correction method used here are stationarity of the transfer functions with time and that all possible extreme values occurred in the reference period, since there is no extrapolation for future extremes implemented. Thus, future extreme values of the CCLM higher than the observed extremes are reset to the highest observed value. This is a restriction but Maraun et al. (2010) and Boé et al. (2007)

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argue that a simple linear or constant correction is not valid for the extreme tail of the distribution. Shifting the distribution to an extreme value distribution at the tail with a dynamic mixture model could be a feasible solution (Frigessi et al., 2003; Vrac and Naveau, 2007). This is only possible in case the bias correction was carried out with fitting a parametric distribution (like a gamma distribution). As far as we know there is no method for combining a non-parametric distribution for the core of the precipitation intensities and a parametric extreme value distribution at the tail. The assumption of stationarity is a critical part of bias correction methods affecting the whole distribution. This distribution is a mixture of diverse other distributions depending on the weather conditions (Maraun et al., 2010). If the relative frequencies of weather conditions change in a future climate, the distribution will change too and the transfer functions from the quantile matching are maybe not valid any more (Maraun et al., 2010). This issue occurs mainly when there are no physical processes considered by the bias correction method. Another shortcoming affects the physical consistency if one variable of the climate model is corrected with no respect to any covariance with other variables. This causes internal inconsistency if corrected variables are used together with uncorrected variables (Knutti, 2008). Yang et al. (2010) show an improvement for simulation of river discharge in spring by considering the covariance of precipitation and temperature. Also there can be an improvement if the bias correction is carried out seasonally (Piani et al., 2010). Signature indices could help to evaluate the different approaches for bias correction of precipitation and temperature extending the concept of Johnson and Sharma (2009). This is especially true when calculated for representative sub-catchments in a larger basin area, where only a sparse network of observation points is available for bias correction. In this case, signature indices may act as indirect “efficiency measures” or “similarity measures” for the reference period of the simulation. Therefore, application of signature indices for the reference period will also facilitate the decision on the suitability of the bias corrected data for hydrologic impact studies.

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This study is not intended to draw conclusions on hydrological impact of climate change in our study area. For this purpose an ensemble approach would have been necessary (Knutti, 2008; Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010) as well as an improved bias correction method which considers the extreme value problem (Boé et al., 2007). Actually, on the selected scale of 5 km<sup>2</sup>, ensemble runs of nested CCLM models are not yet available.

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**Table 2.** Statistics of temperature fields: mean annual temperature in °C.

			Kronweiler	Kellenbach	Gensingen	Nahe
1994–2003	measured	mean	8.63	8.86	10.06	9.35
		std	0.74	0.80	0.67	0.76
Reference	CCLM	mean	7.04	7.32	8.81	7.87
		std	0.65	0.69	0.67	0.67
2015–2024	CCLM	mean	7.74	7.97	9.48	8.63
		std	0.63	0.61	0.61	0.62

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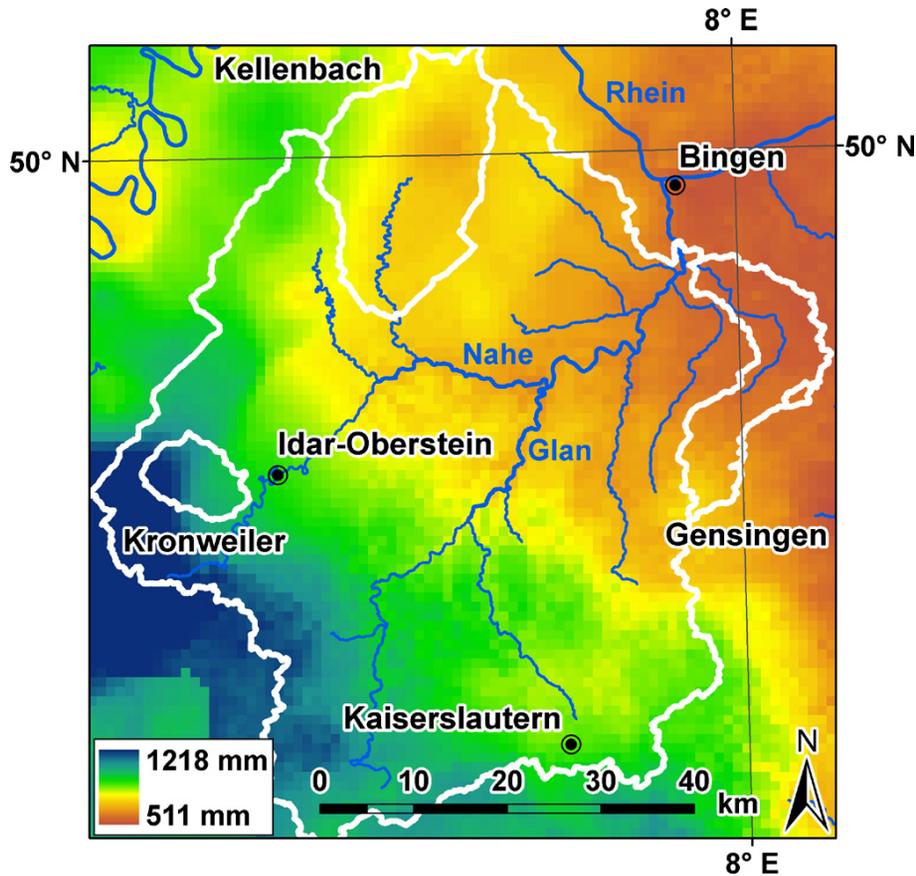
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**Fig. 1.** Areal distribution of annual precipitation and the outlines of the catchments.

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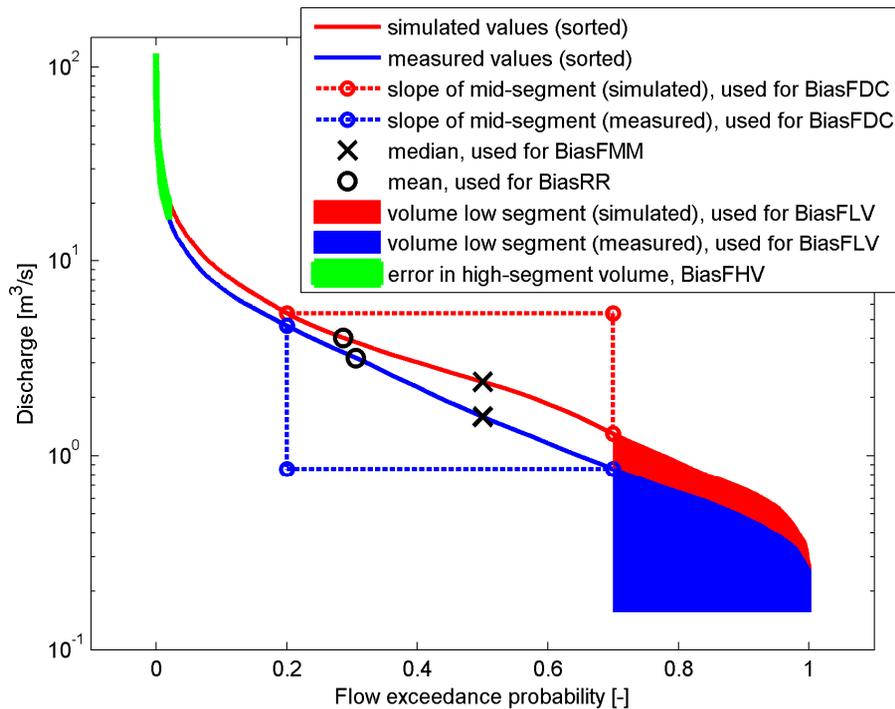
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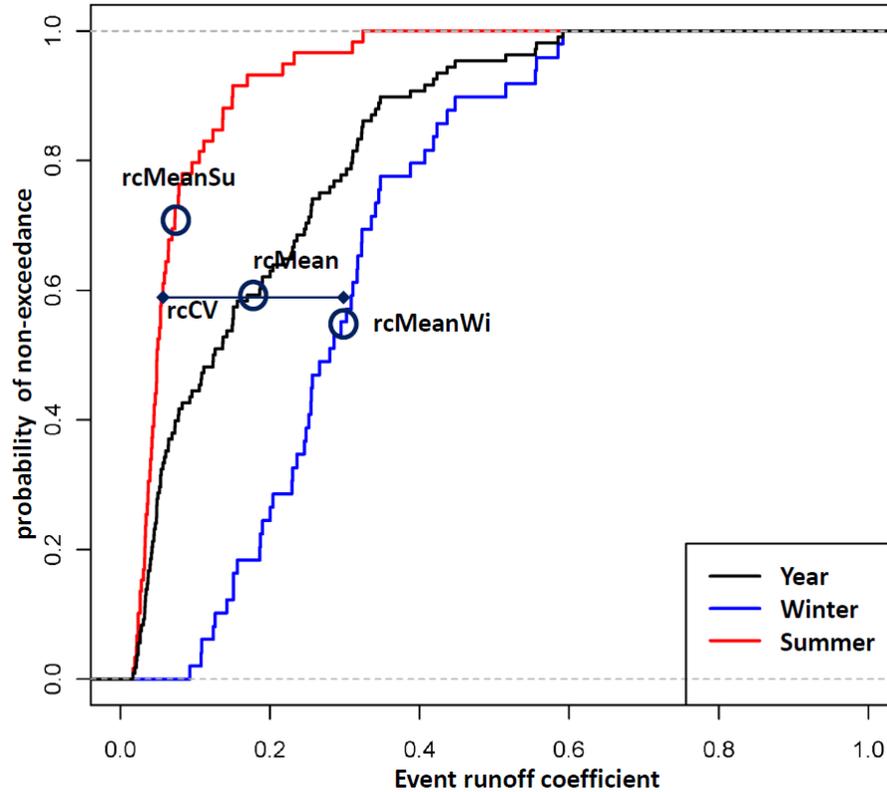
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**Fig. 2.** Two different flow duration curves with highlighted features that are used to determine signature indices.

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**Fig. 3.** Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function of runoff coefficients (rc) for catchment Kel-lenbach and derived signature indices.

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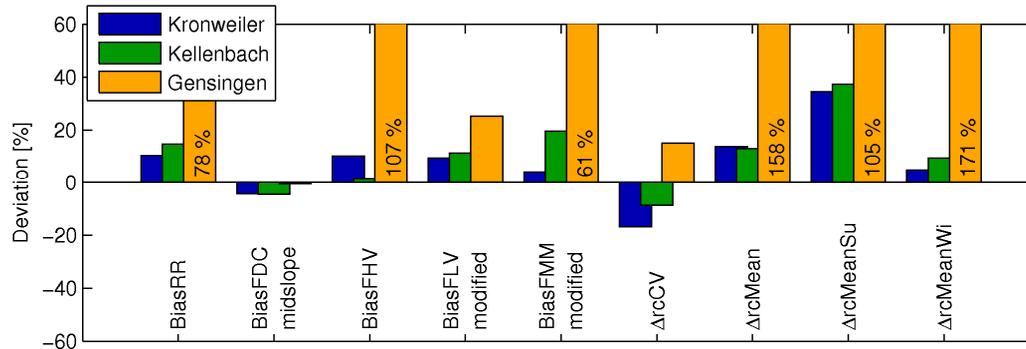
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**Fig. 4.** Signature indices resulting from comparison of (1) the measured discharge time series and (2) the simulated discharge time series using measured meteorological input data, 1994–2003.

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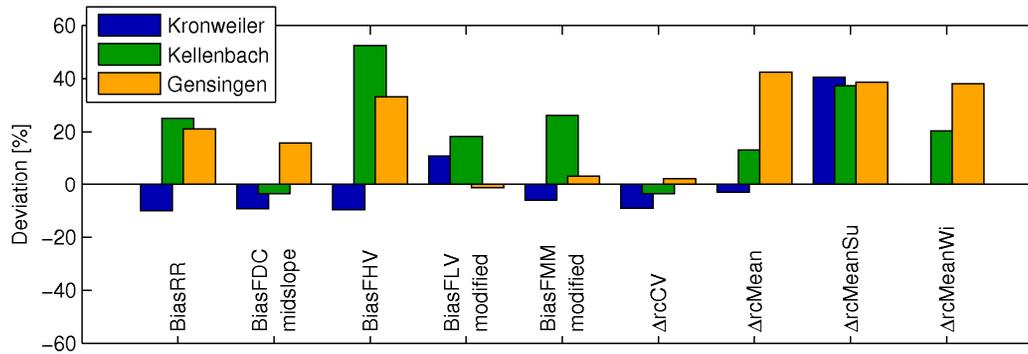
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**Fig. 5.** Signature indices resulting from comparison of simulated discharge time series using (1) measured meteorological input data and (2) bias corrected CCLM-data, reference period.

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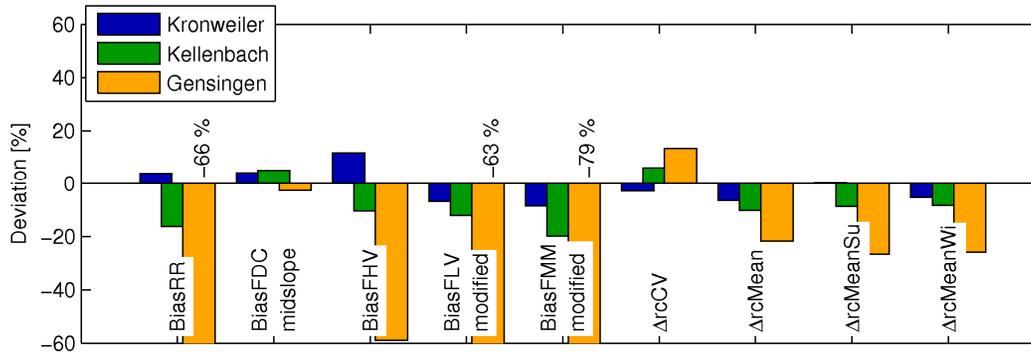
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**Fig. 6.** Signature indices resulting from comparison of simulated discharge time series using (1) original CCLM-data and (2) bias corrected CCLM-data, 2015–2024.

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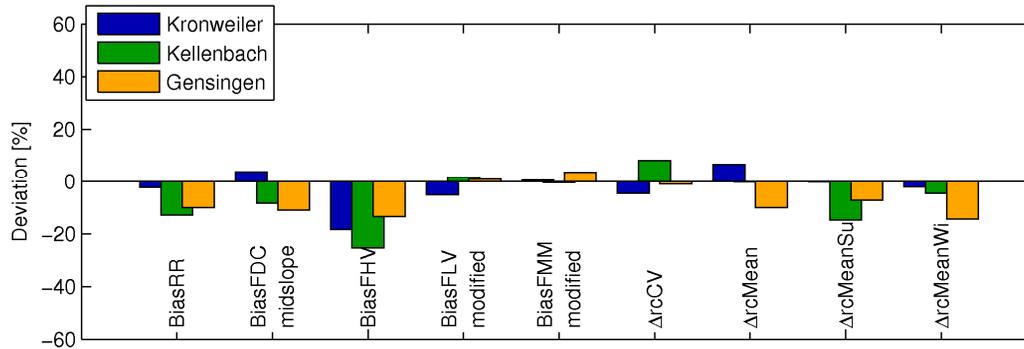
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**Fig. 7.** Signature indices resulting from comparison of simulated discharge time series using bias corrected CCLM-data, 1 km resolution of (1) reference period and (2) 2015–2024.

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