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# Impact of climate change on surface runoff for Myponga River catchment in South Australia, Australia

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## ABSTRACT

**Aims:** This paper is aimed to assess the future impact of climate change on some selected climatic variables and on surface runoff from Myponga catchment, South Australia.

**Methodology:** The six global climate models recommended for South Australia were compared among each other based on their performance to simulate observed climates in the study area. The monthly average statistically downscaled evapotranspiration and rainfall data for the period 2000-2005 were compared with respective observed climate data, graphically and statistically. On the other hand, four hydrological models in Australian rainfall-runoff library (RRL) were evaluated and compared among each other based on their performance in simulating surface runoff in the study area. Then, two GCMS, CanESM2 and MIROC5, and one hydrological model, AWBM, were selected for their better performance and used for climate projections and for runoff simulation for both base period (1990-2005) and future period (2026-2035) under two emission scenarios (RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5), respectively. Finally, the impacts of climate change were estimated by comparing the long year's average values of the climate projections and simulated runoff in the base and the future periods for different percentile values (10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup>) under the two emission scenarios.

**Results:** The result showed that compared to the base period (1990-2005), by 2030s (2026-2035), for both climate models, two emission scenarios, and all the percentiles, the average annual evapotranspiration would generally increase, but the average annual rainfall would decrease. The average annual runoff showed different patterns across the climate model and emission scenarios. But, on average, percentage changes across climate models show a rise in average annual runoff in the range from 3.72 to 5.47 % across percentiles for the intermediate scenario and decline in the range from 17.13 to 20.15 % across percentiles for the high emission scenario.

**Conclusion:** It is expected that by 2030 there would be no significant problem with respect to water availability, drought, and flooding at an annual time scale under the intermediate emission scenario but there would be drier conditions in the catchment relative to the base period under the high emission scenario.

**Recommendation:** Therefore, adaptation and mitigation measures should be identified and applied at national and state levels to minimize possible negative impacts in the Myponga reservoir catchment.

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*Keywords: Climate change, Impacts, GCM, Statistically downscaled, Australian rainfall-runoff library (RRL), Myponga*

## 12 1. INTRODUCTION

13 Global warming due to the rise in greenhouse gases has caused the climate to change  
14 which in turn subsequently alters hydrological processes. The changes observed in the last  
15 several decades have constantly altered components of hydrological processes such as  
16 precipitation amount and pattern, surface runoff, soil water content, ice and snow coverage,  
17 and evaporation from land and water surfaces. Such alterations in hydrological processes  
18 are owing to the fact that hydrological systems are highly linked to the climate systems. In  
19 the future, further climate change is inevitable at least owing to already committed warming  
20 or past emissions [1]. Clearly, the changes would continue and inevitably would have  
21 impacts on the hydrological processes.

22 South Australia is already the driest state in the driest continent. Additionally, climate change  
23 is becoming one of the most important challenges in the effort to ensure a sustainable water  
24 supply to the state. Several climate impact studies for several catchments in South Australia  
25 show different levels of changes in climate variables and runoff in South Australia. For  
26 instance, research on three sub-catchments of Onkaparinga shows that around 14%  
27 reduction in mean annual runoff may be experienced between 2016 and 2045. The study  
28 further notes that South Australia would more likely face a considerably drier flow regime in  
29 the future [2]. CSIRO [3] also reported that the southern Australia region would more likely  
30 experience a decline in rainfall and runoff due to climate change in the future. Recently  
31 Goyder Institute for Water Research [4] warned that a significant reduction in inflow to  
32 reservoirs in South Australia may be experienced. In fact, climate change is expected to be  
33 the main source of pressure on water resources in South Australia [5]. To improve  
34 understanding of climate impact on water availability, studies of climate impact are crucial.  
35 However, climate impact studies on runoff have not been conducted in Myponga catchment  
36 in recent times. Thus, this study was conducted over Myponga reservoir catchment to  
37 provide information for proper planning of adaption measures so as to cope with climate  
38 change impacts and ensure sustainable water supply. The study can ultimately contribute to  
39 a better understanding of the climate impact on the water resources of the state.

40 The impacts of climate change on water resources can be investigated in various ways and  
41 at different levels. However, the most widely used approach involves two major processes.  
42 The first important process is projecting values of climate variables. This can be done in  
43 different ways. The use of different climate scenarios obtained from model outputs is  
44 the most commonly used way.

45 This involves the use of climate models, such as general circulation models (GCMs) and  
46 their derivatives, to project climate variables in a study area for a base or a future period [6].  
47 GCMs are the most effective and widely used in global and regional impact assessment  
48 studies. There are different GCMs available around the world. The performance of each  
49 model varies across geographic locations. For instance, among the 12 GCMs selected for  
50 Australia (available in online archive developed by the South Australian government), six of  
51 these models are identified as suitable for the different regions in the state [7]. The Second  
52 important process in impact studies is assessing the hydrological impact of projected climate  
53 variables. The assessments can be done either by employing the concept of elasticity of  
54 runoff to historical climate or through hydrological modeling [6]. The choice of impact  
55 assessment method varies with data availability, type of analysis required, and catchment  
56 size [1]. Yet, hydrological modeling is widely used to study the impact of climate change on  
57 runoff owing to the capability of hydrological models to simulate daily or monthly runoff and  
58 other hydrological parameters directly from projected climate scenarios or in combinations  
59 with other drivers [6].

60 In this research, impact of global warming on climate variables and runoff in Myponga  
61 reservoir catchment were assessed based on data from statistically downscaled climate  
62 projections. The climate projections from the system with six GCMs recommended for South  
63 Australia were further evaluated against observed past climate data, and two models were  
64 selected to represent a range of uncertainties. For runoff simulation, four hydrological  
65 models -SIMHYD, Sacramento, SMAR, and AWBM in rainfall-runoff library (RRL) package  
66 were evaluated and the best one was selected based on efficiency and used for simulation  
67 of runoff for impact assessment. This study was aimed at investigating impact of global  
68 warming on some climate variables and runoff by the year 2030's (between 2026 and 2035)  
69 relative to the base period (1986 to 2005).

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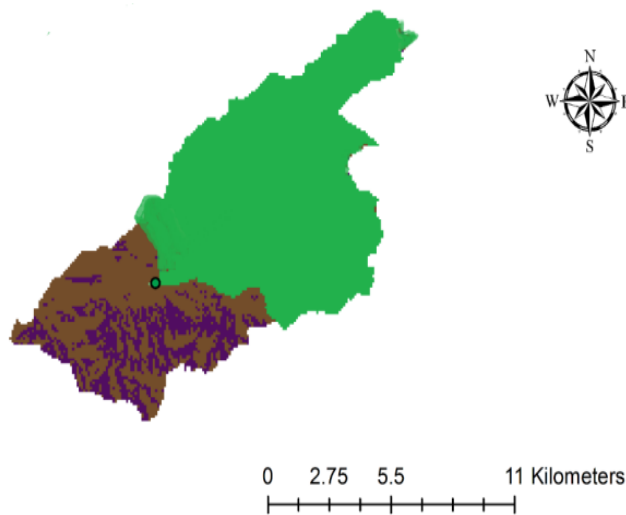
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75 **2. METHODOLOGY**

76 **2.1 Description of the study area**

77 Myponga reservoir catchment is located in Adelaide and Mount Lofty ranges and cover an  
78 area of 121.23 km<sup>2</sup>. The area upstream of Myponga Reservoir is 77.7 km<sup>2</sup> (Figure 1). The  
79 major channel of the Myponga River is located near the intersection of Pages Flat Road and  
80 the Adelaide to Victor Harbor Road. This channel has a low grade (approximately 0.6%)  
81 while the altitude within the River catchment ranges from 0 to 400 above sea level, the peak  
82 at Myponga Hill ([8].The river discharges into the Myponga Reservoir and out flowing  
83 downstream of the reservoir in a westerly direction to enter Gulf St Vincent [8].



84

85 Fig. 1. Myponga catchment and its part upstream of the gauge station (Green)

86 **2.2 Description of the climate data sources**

87 The data from global climate models (GCMs) available by government of South Australia  
88 (<https://data.environment.sa.gov.au>) were used in this study. Even though there are 12  
89 GCM–CMIP 5 version available, six of these models (shown in **Table 1**) are identified as  
90 suitable models for climate projection in South Australia [7].

91

92

93 Table 1: Six GCMs identified suitable for South Australia [7]

Model	Institutions
CanESM2	Canadian Centre for Climate Modelling and Analysis, Canada (CCCMA)
CNRM-CM5	Centre National de Recherches Meteorologiques, France (CNRM CERFACS)
GFDL-ESM2M	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA
IPSL-CM5B-LR	Institute of Pierre-Simon Laplace, France (IPSL)
MIROC5	Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine Earth Science and Technology, Japan (MIROC)
MRI-CGCM3	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan (MRI)

94 In the online system, CMIP5 versions of GCMs can be run for three scenarios referred as  
 95 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs). RCPs is a term equivalent to the term  
 96 “emissions scenarios” of IPCC. The three RCPs are: RCP4.5, an intermediate concentration  
 97 pathway similar to the B1 emissions scenario from IPCC Assessment Report 4 (AR4), and  
 98 RCP8.5, a high-concentration pathway similar to the A1FI emissions scenario in IPCC AR4,  
 99 and historic (base line emission). The online system employs inbuilt statistical downscaling  
 100 approaches- Nonhomogeneous Hidden Markov Modeling (NHMM) for rainfall downscaling  
 101 and **weather generator** for downscaling non-rainfall variables. These downscaling tools  
 102 have already been successfully used in several hydrological impact studies[9]–[11]. The  
 103 NHMM simulates rainfall at daily basis for one or multiple stations in a catchment. Thus,  
 104 downscaled daily rainfall projections can be obtained for a station or multiple stations. While  
 105 the **weather generator** provides downscaled daily projections for non-rainfall climate  
 106 variables for single or multiple stations [7]. Downscaled daily projections from global climate  
 107 model (GCM) can be downloaded for 6 climate variables: namely, rainfall, maximum and  
 108 minimum temperature, areal potential evapotranspiration, solar radiation, and vapor  
 109 pressure deficit. The system provides 100 possible realizations for each combination of  
 110 climate model (GCM) and emission scenarios (RCPs) at selected **stations**. The realizations  
 111 are domain of possible daily weather projections in the base or future periods [7].

## 112 **2.3 Description of hydrological model**

113 For hydrological modelling, four rainfall-runoff models available in software package called  
114 Rainfall-Runoff **Library** (RRL) were used. The software package is developed by public  
115 **institution** called *eWater* in Australia. The *eWater* is established to develop software tools for  
116 hydrological modelling and implement national hydrological modelling strategy (NHMS). The  
117 RRL version 1.0.5 comprises of five models, AWBM, *Sacramento*, *SIMHYD*, SMAR, and  
118 Tank model. However, four of most widely used in catchment modelling are AWBM,  
119 *Sacramento*, *SIMHYD*, and SMAR. For these models, inputs data need to be on daily basis.  
120 For calibration and validation, **catchment** size, rainfall, evaporation, and stream flow data are  
121 required. While, for simulation, catchment size, rainfall, and potential evapotranspiration data  
122 together with calibration model parameters are required [12].

## 123 **2.4 Data collected**

124 GIS shape files, DEM data file, and coordinates of the flow station were obtained from  
125 different sources to delineate catchment (<https://data.sa.gov.au>, GIS on line, and  
126 <http://www.bom.gov.au/sa/>).

127 Daily rainfall observation data for 10 years (2000-2010) for 6 rainfall stations across the  
128 Myponga catchment were downloaded from <http://www.bom.gov.au/sa/>. These rainfall  
129 stations were selected because **their rainfall data is expected to influence** areal rainfall for  
130 the catchment based on constructed Thiessen polygons.

131 Daily Pan- Evaporation data for 11 years (2000-2010) were obtained from Australian Bureau  
132 of Metrology (BOM). Downscaled daily projections from global climate model (GCM) were  
133 downloaded from <https://data.environment.sa.gov.au> for two climate variables: namely, daily  
134 rainfall and potential evapotranspiration corresponding to the weather station. The daily  
135 mean flow data (ML/day) for 11 years (2000-2010) corresponding to the gauge station -  
136 A5020502 were downloaded from <http://www.bom.gov.au/sa/>. This flow data represents  
137 runoff from Myponga catchment upstream of the gauge station.

## 138 **2.5 Procedure for model selection and impact analysis**

139 In this study, two major tasks were carried out. First, climate and hydrological models were  
140 evaluated and selected. The climate and hydrological models were evaluated for **their**  
141 performance in the study area to simulate the observed climate and runoff, respectively.  
142 Secondly, impact **assessment was carried out.**

143 Two best performing GCMs among the six GCMs recommended for South Australia and one  
144 best performing hydrological model in the four hydrological models with in the Rainfall Runoff  
145 Library (RRL) was used for climate projection and runoff simulation, respectively. Then, the  
146 percentage changes in projected climate and runoff for selected future periods relative to  
147 base period (2000 to 2005) were estimated. The details of the methods used are described  
148 below.

#### 149 **2.5.1 Evaluation of Climate model**

150 As already explained the Goyder Institute for Water Research [7] has selected six climate  
151 model for South Australia. In this study the six climate models were further evaluated in  
152 order to select two best performing models. Two climate models were considered sufficient  
153 to represent reasonable range of uncertainties over the study area. To select two climate  
154 models, the six climate models (GCMs) recommended for South Australia were evaluated  
155 and compared. For this purpose, base period climate projections were downloaded for each  
156 of the six GCM- CMIP5 models for period from 2000 to 2005 and for selected single weather  
157 station. A set realisation data corresponding to median annual rainfall for each GCM was  
158 identified. Therefore, for six models and single weather station, data from 600 realisation  
159 files were analysed. On the other hand, observed climate data for the same period was  
160 collected and analysed to obtain monthly average daily rainfall and evapotranspiration. To  
161 obtain observed monthly average daily evapotranspiration, monthly average daily pan-  
162 evaporation was multiplied by pan-coefficients determined. The pan coefficient was  
163 determined based on estimated reference evapotranspiration from Penman–Monteith  
164 equation (CROPWAT 8 software) and pan evaporation data from the weather station. Then,  
165 the observed and projected rainfall and evapotranspiration were compared based on how  
166 well they simulate the observed climate data. This approach of comparisons based on  
167 ‘Historic accuracy’ is widely used in a number of studies [13], [14]. It is based on the  
168 assumption that a model that performs better in simulating the observed climate in the past  
169 would perform better in future as well. In this study, projected and observed climate were  
170 compared graphically and statistically. Graphical comparison was done to visualize how well  
171 the models simulate the observed data. Statistically, the calculated sum of the square of  
172 errors for projected evapotranspiration and rainfall against observed values were compared  
173 for each GCMs. These approaches of graphical and statistical comparisons were adopted  
174 from similar studies [13], [14].

175

176 **2.5.2 Evaluation of hydrological models**

177 In order to select best model for simulation of runoff for the base and the future periods,  
178 firstly, the four hydrological models within the Rainfall Runoff Library (RRL) (SIMHYD,  
179 Sacramento, SMAR, and AWBM) were calibrated and validated. To this end, daily rainfall  
180 and evapotranspiration data from six weather stations were used. To adjust the pan –  
181 evaporation data, monthly pan- coefficients were estimated and used for data scaling in the  
182 RRL software during calibration and validation processes. The calibration and validation  
183 were performed repeatedly using different combinations of calibration, warm up, and  
184 verification periods until the best possible performance are achieved. The performance of  
185 the four models were compared based on model efficiency. The efficiency of models in RRL  
186 Packages are expressed by Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), Coefficient of Efficiency for  
187 Calibration (Ec), and Coefficient of Efficiency for validation (Ev) which are automatically  
188 calculated for each of the calibration and validation runs. The NSE is a standardized  
189 measure of the relative proportion of observed data variance to total residual variance. Thus,  
190 it measures how well the modeled flow is related to observed daily runoff [15]. Similarly,  
191 coefficients of efficiency of calibration and validations indicate how closely the respective  
192 calibration and validation observation data sets are related to calculated runoff. Secondly,  
193 the most suitable model was selected based on correlation coefficient of calibration and  
194 validation. The weighted average rainfall for the watershed was calculated based on  
195 constructed Thiessen polygons for selected six rainfall stations.

196 **2.5.3 Assessment of climate impact**

197 After the climate and hydrological models were evaluated and selected, the impact  
198 assessment was performed. In the process, firstly, the selected climate models were used to  
199 download climate projections at three emission scenarios (Historic, RCP 4.5, and RCP 8.5)  
200 for 5 weather stations. The projection files were analyzed and GCM realizations at 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>,  
201 and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of rainfall were identified, for 16 years base period (1990 - 2005), and 10  
202 years (2026-2035) for RCP 4.5, and RCP 8.5. The 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of rainfall  
203 represent low, median, and highest annual flows, respectively. Secondly, runoff was  
204 simulated using best performing hydrological model. To simulate runoff over the watershed,  
205 projected daily time series of rainfall and evapotranspiration data for 6 grid points from two  
206 selected GCMS were used as input in to the calibrated and validated hydrological model.  
207 The simulations were run for three percentiles of flow (10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup>) and three  
208 emission scenarios (Historic, RCP 4.5, and RCP 8.5). Finally, the changes in climate  
209 variables and runoff due to climate change were estimated.

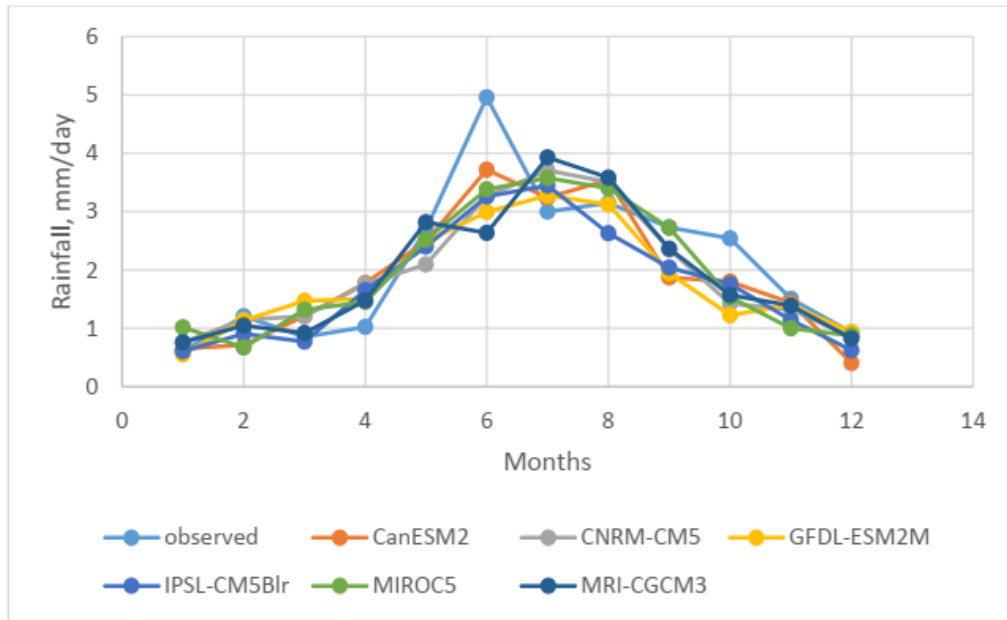
210 The percentage changes from annual simulated runoff for base period (1990- 2005) and  
211 future period (2026 - 2035) were computed for each of the climate models, emission  
212 scenario, and flow percentiles.

### 213 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 214 3.1 Performance of global climate models

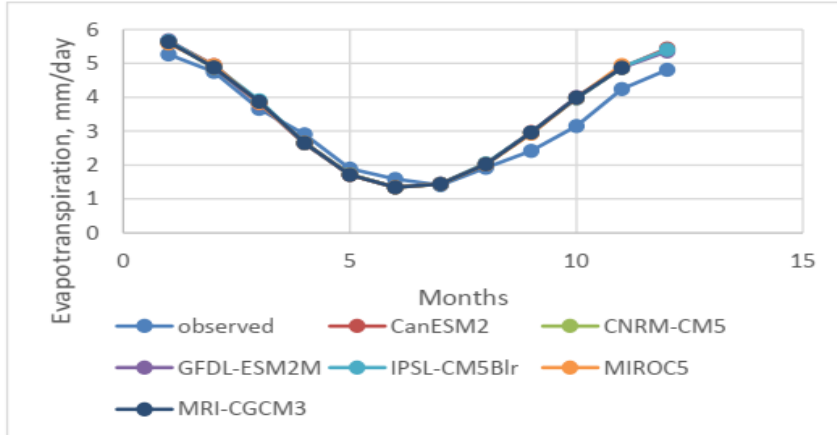
215 Even though the six climate models are already identified as suitable for South Australia,  
216 these models were evaluated based on how well they simulate observed rainfall and  
217 evapotranspiration for Myponga catchment. For this purpose, five years average (2000-  
218 2005) monthly observed and projected rainfall and evapotranspiration of Myponga reservoir  
219 station were compared graphically as shown in Figure 2 and 3 and statistically as shown in  
220 Table 2. As it can be seen in Figures 2 and 3, the curves are superimposing and it is difficult  
221 to identify visually how each model performs. Yet, it is clear that the curves generally show  
222 similar trend over months for both rainfall and evapotranspiration.

223



224

225 **Figure 2. Comparison** of projected and observed rainfall (2000-2005)



226

227 **Figure 3.** Comparison of projected and observed evapotranspiration (2000-2005)

228 To identify precisely how each model performs, the statistical comparisons employing the  
 229 concept of sum of square error were used to compare the monthly average observed and  
 230 projected rainfall and evapotranspiration for each climate model. The sum of square errors  
 231 for respective climate model is summarized in Table 2. The result indicates that sum of  
 232 square error (SSE) for rainfall is lowest for CanESM2 and highest for MRI-CGCM3 whereas  
 233 sum of square error (SSE) for evapotranspiration is the highest for CanESM2 while CNNRM-  
 234 CM5, MRI-CGCM3, and MIROC5 have shown nearly the same SSE. These indicate that  
 235 rainfall projected by CanESM2 and evapotranspiration projected by CNNRM-CM5, CNNRM-  
 236 CM5, MRI-CGCM3, and MIROC5 are relatively accurate to simulate the observed median  
 237 climate values for the period 2000-2005. It can be noticed that the differences in SSE across  
 238 the models for evapotranspiration are not large. Similarly, the differences in SSE across the  
 239 models for rainfall are not significant except for CanESM2 and MRI-CGCM3. Additionally,  
 240 the SSE values in Table 2 also show that rainfall is generally less reliably projected by the  
 241 models than evapotranspiration indicated by higher SSE for rainfall projections. Suppiah *et*  
 242 *al.* [14] also found large variations in rainfall projections by different climate models.

243 Table 2: Statistical comparison by sum of square error (SSE)

Climate models	Sum of square error (SSE)- mm/day	
	Rainfall	Evapotranspiration
CanESM2	4.30	2.18
CNNRM-CM5	5.96	2.04
GFDL-ESM2M	6.95	2.10
IOSL-CM5B1r	5.26	2.15
MIROC5	5.03	2.09
MRI-CGCM3	7.82	2.06

244 **3.2 Performance of hydrological models**

245 After several **attempts** of calibration and validation, the best possible combination of  
 246 NashSutcliffe efficiency (NSE), Coefficient of Efficiency for Calibration (Ec), and Coefficient  
 247 of Efficiency Validation (Ev) for respective model were identified as shown in Table 3.

248 Table 3: Performance of hydrological models

Models	Calibration		Validations	
	NSE	EC	NSE	EV
AWBM	0.75	0.87	0.64	0.84
Sacramento	0.83	0.92	0.44	0.75
SIMHYD	-0.04	0.59	0.009	0.46
SMAR	-0.04	0.59	0.009	0.46

249 As it can be seen in the Table 3, the hydrological models SIMHYD and SMAR **performed**  
 250 poorly while AWBM and Sacramento **showed** comparable performance. The correlation  
 251 efficiency and NSE value of Sacramento for calibration are higher than that of AWBM, but for  
 252 both, correlation efficiency lies between  $0.8 \leq E \leq 0.93$ . However, the performance of  
 253 Sacramento for validation is significantly lower than that of AWBM. For validation, the  
 254 Correlation efficiency for AWBM lies between  $0.8 \leq E \leq 0.93$  while for Sacramento the  
 255 correlation efficiency lies between  $0.6 \leq E_v \leq 0.8$ . This means, AWBM has better consistency  
 256 for different set of data than Sacramento.

257 Table 4: Hydrological model performance classes [16]

Classification	Coefficient of efficiency (EC) for calibration	Coefficient of efficiency (Ev) for validation
Excellent	$E_c \geq 0.93$	$E_v \geq 0.93$
Good	$0.8 \leq E_c < 0.93$	$0.8 \leq E_v < 0.93$
satisfactory	$0.7 \leq E_c < 0.8$	$0.6 \leq E_c < 0.8$
Passable	$0.6 \leq E_c < 0.7$	$0.3 \leq E_c < 0.7$
Poor	$E_c < 0.93$	$E_v < 0.93$

258 Based on criteria by Ladson [16] shown in Table 4, the performance by AWBM is good while  
 259 performance by Sacramento is satisfactory. Therefore, the AWBM and the calibration  
 260 parameters (shown in Table 5) found for the AWBM were used for simulations of runoff for  
 261 base and future periods in the impact assessment. These parameters can be used for other  
 262 studies **for a** reasonable period beyond which catchment characteristics and its response  
 263 would change due to change in land use and cover.

264

265 Table 5: AWBM calibration parameters

Parameters	Description	Calibration Value
A1	partial area of smallest store	0.134
A2	partial area of middle store	0.433
BF1	Base flow index	0.420
C1	Surface storage capacity of smallest store	7.1
C2	Surface storage capacity of middle store	131.8
C3	Surface storage capacity of large store	474.5
KB	Base flow recession constant	1
KS	Surface runoff recession constant	0.51

266 **3.3 Impact of warming on climate variables and runoff**

267 The impacts of warming for evapotranspiration, rainfall, and runoff have been estimated.  
 268 Due to **differences** in the climate and hydrological models, time frame, watershed  
 269 characteristics, and scale of projects in different studies, the estimated percentage changes  
 270 might vary across studies. This makes direct comparisons of the results of this study with  
 271 other studies difficult. However, the results are compared with previous studies in general  
 272 sense.

273 **3.3.1 Impacts on potential evapotranspiration**

274 Based on the projected annual evapotranspiration from the two climate models (CanESM2  
 275 and MRI-CGCM3) for base and future **periods**, the estimated percentage changes in  
 276 potential annual evapotranspiration by 2030s (2026-2035) relative to base period (1990 -  
 277 2005) **are** given in Table 6. As shown in the table, for intermediate emission scenario (RCP  
 278 4.5), the average annual evapotranspiration is expected to change in range of 1.58 to  
 279 2.28 %, 1.56 to 2.52%, and 1.47 to 2.25 % across the climate models for corresponding  
 280 **10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles** of annual values. Whereas for high emissions scenario  
 281 (RCP8.5), the changes for the same period are expected to be in range of 2.63 to 4.27  
 282 %, 1.98 to 4.35 %, and 1.91 to 4.52 % across climate models for corresponding 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>,  
 283 and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of annual rainfall. Projections by both climate models, CanESM2 and  
 284 MRI-CGCM3, in this study show increase in average annual potential evapotranspiration for  
 285 all percentiles and emission scenarios. According to CSIRO and BOM [17], by 2030 annual  
 286 evapotranspiration would change by 0, 3, and 6.5 % for intermediate emission scenario and  
 287 by 0, 3, and 3% for high emission scenarios, for corresponding **10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup>**  
 288 **percentiles** in Adelaide and Mount Lofty range natural resource management region. The  
 289 projections in this study are in agreement with results by CSIRO and BOM [17].

290 Table 6: Percentage changes of average annual potential evapotranspiration

Global climate models	Intermediate emission scenario (RCP4.5)			High emission scenario (RCP8.5)		
	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile
CanESM2	2.28	2.52	2.25	4.27	4.35	4.52
MRI-CGM3	1.58	1.56	1.47	2.63	1.98	1.91
Average	1.9	2.0	1.9	3.5	3.2	3.2

291 To summarize, by 2030s, the average annual potential evapotranspiration is expected to rise  
 292 relative to the base period (1990-2005) under both climate models and emission scenarios.  
 293 **It can be seen in the above tables that the rates of changes for high-emission**  
 294 **scenario are generally higher than for intermediate emission scenario.** Additionally, it can be  
 295 noticed that the percentage changes for CanESM2 are consistently higher than that of MRI-  
 296 CGCM3. Averaged percentage changes across climate models show rise in a range of 1.9  
 297 to 2.0 % and 3.2 to 3.5 % across percentiles for the intermediate and high emission  
 298 scenario, respectively.

299 **3.3.2 Impacts on annual average rainfall**

300 Based on the projected annual rainfall from two climate models (CanESM2 and MRI-  
 301 CGCM3) for base and future period, the estimated percentage changes in annual rainfall by  
 302 2030s (2026-2035) relative to base period (1986 - 2005) are given in Table 7. As shown in  
 303 the Table 7, for intermediate emission scenario (RCP 4.5), the average annual rainfall is  
 304 expected to change in range of -1.16 to -6.34 %, -1.1 to -8.95 %, and -6.81 to 1.57 % across  
 305 the climate models for corresponding 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of annual rainfall.  
 306 Whereas for high emissions scenario (RCP8.5), the changes for the same period are  
 307 expected to be in range of -9.43 to -7.87 %, -6.82 to -13.44%, and -13.44 to -11.58% for the  
 308 corresponding 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of annual rainfall.

309 Table 7. Percentage change in average annual rainfall

Global climate models	Intermediate emission scenario (RCP4.5)			High emission scenario (RCP8.5)		
	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile
CanESM2	-6.34	-8.95	-6.81	-9.43	-13.44	-11.58
MRI-CGM3	-1.16	-1.10	1.57	-7.87	-6.82	-4.75
Average	-3.75	-5.03	-2.62	-8.65	-10.13	-8.17

310 Projections by CSIRO and BOM [17] for the Adelaide and Mount range natural resource  
311 management region indicate that by 2030, the annual rainfall is expected to change by -  
312 15, -4.5, and 0 % for intermediate emission scenarios and by -15,-4.5, and 0 % for the high  
313 emission scenario, for the corresponding 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles of annual rainfall.  
314 Whereas Charles and Fu [9] projected a decline in annual rainfall by 4.9 % and 5.4% for  
315 intermediate and high emission scenario, respectively. On the other hand, CSIRO projected  
316 a decline ranging 1 to 10% for the region corresponding to the increase in atmospheric  
317 carbon dioxide to 420 – 480 ppm (RCP2.6) [18]. It can be noted that most of the projections  
318 in this study are in agreement with the previous projections in publications mentioned above.

319 To summarize, average annual rainfall is expected to decline by 2030 for all cases  
320 emission scenarios and percentiles except for projection by MRI-CGCM3 at 99<sup>th</sup> percentile  
321 under intermediate emission scenario. It can be seen that, similar to evapotranspiration, the  
322 rates of changes are generally higher for high emission scenario than for intermediate  
323 emission scenario. Additionally, it can be noticed that the percentage changes for CanESM2  
324 are consistently higher than that of MRI-CGCM3 model. The averaged percentage change  
325 across climate models, the decline in average annual rainfall may range 2.62 to 5.03 % and  
326 8.17 to 10.13% across percentiles under intermediate and high emission scenario,  
327 respectively.

### 328 **3.3.3 Impact on annual average streamflow**

329 Based on the simulated runoff for projected daily rainfall and evapotranspiration from  
330 respective climate models for base and future periods, the estimated percentage  
331 changes in annual runoff by 2030s (2026-2035) relative to the base period (1986 - 2005) are  
332 given in Table 8. As shown in the table, for intermediate emission scenario (RCP 4.5), the  
333 average annual runoff from the catchment is expected to change in range of -9.98 to 20.9 %,  
334 -2.26 to 9.7 %, and 1.36 to 8.81 % for the corresponding 10<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile of  
335 annual rainfall.

336 It can be noted that despite decline in annual rainfall and increase in annual  
337 evapotranspiration at higher rate for CanESM2, the annual runoff or response of the  
338 catchment showed rise especially at intermediate emission scenario. A number of studies in  
339 South Australia have projected decline in mean annual runoff for several catchments under  
340 both intermediate and high emission scenarios [2], [4] . Another study projected that runoff in  
341 the Eastern mount Lofty Ranges would decline by 3 to 52% with various climate models by  
342 2030 [19].

343 Thus, the simulated flow for climate projection by MRI-CGCM3 is in agreement with the  
 344 previous findings explained above whereas result for CanESM2 shows contradictions for  
 345 intermediate emission scenario.

346 Table 8 Percentage changes in average annual runoff

Global climate models	Intermediate emission scenario (RCP4.5)			High emission scenario (RCP8.5)		
	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	99 <sup>th</sup> percentile
CanESM2	20.92	9.7	-8.81	-10.62	-16.63	-13.05
MRI-CGM3	-9.98	-2.26	1.36	-23.98	-23.66	-21.21
Average	5.47	3.72	5.08	-17.3	-20.15	-17.13

347 To summarize, percentage change in average annual runoff for 2030 (2026-2035) relative to  
 348 base period (1990- 2005) would possibly increase or decrease for intermediate emission  
 349 scenario while it is expected to decrease consistently for high emission scenario. There is  
 350 wider variability among simulated annual flow across the climate models for intermediate  
 351 emission scenario. Averaged percentage changes across climate models show rise in  
 352 average annual runoff in range from 3.72 to 5.47 % for intermediate scenario and decline in  
 353 range from 17.13 to 20.15 % across percentiles for high emission scenario.

354 The interpretation of the simulated runoff for different percentiles are based on the  
 355 practical impacts associated with each percentiles. According to Westra *et al.* [2],  
 356 mean or median annual flow (50<sup>th</sup> percentile), low annual flow (10<sup>th</sup> percentile flow), and  
 357 maximum annual flow (99 percentile) can be used to explain impacts on water resources  
 358 availability, drought, and flooding conditions, respectively. Accordingly, the annual low flow  
 359 (worst case) show possibilities of drought for projection by MRI-CGCM3 under intermediate  
 360 emission scenario and for both climate models under high emission scenario. Whereas for  
 361 others cases, the low flow would increase. With respect to median flow, it is expected to  
 362 decline for all cases except for projections by CanESM2 under intermediate emission  
 363 scenario. These would have severe implications for water resource availability for competing  
 364 water users. As to maximum annual flow, it would increase under intermediate emission  
 365 scenario where as it is expected to decline under high emission scenarios at indicated rates.  
 366 Thus, there would be higher possibility flooding conditions under intermediate emission  
 367 scenarios than that of high emission scenario.

368

369 **4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**  
370

371 The following conclusions and recommendations are forwarded

372 ➤ The climate model, CanESM2, has shown best performance in simulating monthly  
373 average observed daily rainfall (2000-2005) while CNRM-CM5, MRI-CGCM3, and  
374 MIROC5 have shown similar higher performance in simulating monthly average  
375 observed daily evapotranspiration (2000-2005). None of the models showed consistently  
376 highest performance for both rainfall and evapotranspiration.

377 ➤ Among the four hydrological models in RRL, calibration and validation resulted in 'Good'  
378 performance for AWBM model and 'satisfactory' performance for Sacramento. The other  
379 models, SIMHYD and SMAR, perform very poorly for the catchment and its hydrological  
380 conditions in the period 2000-2010. Therefore, it is recommended to use AWBM and the  
381 corresponding calibration parameters for simulation of runoff for the watershed for  
382 reasonable period of time until significant changes in hydrological and watershed  
383 characteristics happen.

384 ➤ By 2030s, the average annual potential evapotranspiration is expected to rise relative to  
385 the base period (1990-2005) for both climate models (CanESM2 and MRI-CGCM3)  
386 under both emission scenarios. Averaged percentage changes across climate models  
387 show rise in average annual evapotranspiration in range from 1.9 to 2.0 % and from 3.2  
388 to 3.5% across percentiles for intermediate and high emission scenario, respectively.  
389 The average annual rainfall is expected to decline for all emission scenarios and  
390 percentiles except for projection by MRI-CGCM3 at 99<sup>th</sup> percentile for intermediate  
391 emission scenario. Averaged percentage changes across climate models show decline  
392 in average annual rainfall in range from 2.62 to 5.03 % and from 8.17 to 10.13 % across  
393 percentiles for intermediate and high emission scenario, respectively.

394 ➤ Average annual runoff for 2030s (2026-2035) would possibly increase (CanESM2) or  
395 decrease (MRI-CGCM3) relative to base period (1990-2005) for intermediate emission  
396 scenario while it is expected to decrease consistently for high emission scenario for both  
397 climate models. Averaged percentage changes across climate models show rise in  
398 average annual runoff in range from 3.72 to 5.47 % for intermediate scenario and  
399 decline in range from 17.13 to 20.15 % across percentiles for high emission scenario.

400 Thus, on average, annual runoff would slightly rise for intermediate emission scenario for all  
401 percentiles indicating no challenges in water availability, drought, and flooding conditions at  
402 annual time scale. Whereas at high emission scenario, there would be significant decline in  
403 annual runoff, indicating remarkable challenges in water availability, and risk of drought at  
404 annual time scale. Analysis at seasonal time scale might be needed to understand the  
405 pattern of the changes in runoff but for reservoir catchment such as Myponga, the analysis  
406 at annual time scale is sufficient. Thus, appropriate adaptation and mitigation measures  
407 should be identified and applied at national, state, and local administrative level to minimize  
408 possible negative impacts and utilize the possible opportunities.

409

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415

## 416 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

417

418 There is no competing interests exist.

419

## 420 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

421

422 'Solomon Mulugeta Teffera ' designed the study, performed the statistical analysis, wrote the  
423 protocol, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. 'Ali Morad Hassanli' supervised and  
424 guided the research work. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.'

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