

**ASSESSMENT OF VARIABILITY IN FRESH WATER
RESOURCES UNDER CHANGING CLIMATE
SCENARIOS: A CASE STUDY OF SOAN RIVER BASIN,
POTOWAR REGION, PAKISTAN**



By

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**Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences
Bahria University, Islamabad**

2019

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Sciences

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the variations in freshwater resources of the semi-arid Soan River Basin (SRB) under changing climate scenarios till mid of the twenty first century. In the present study, state of the art, conceptual, semi-distributed, lumped hydrological model, Hydrologiska Byråns Vattenbalansavdelning (HBV) light, a modified version of the HBV model was implemented to simulate projected flows of two sub-catchments of the SRB namely, the Sihala sub-catchment (SSC) and the Kani sub-catchment (KSC). HBV-light is calibrated for the time period (1984–2008) and validated for (2009–2017) for both the sub-catchments of the SRB. HBV-light exhibited good performance both during calibration and validation for both the sub-catchments of the SRB. After calibration and validation, the hydrological model was induced with future climate projections data of the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute Rossby Centre Regional Atmospheric Model (SMHI RCA4), forced with the two Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs), i.e. the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 to simulate projected flows of the (SRB) for the time period (2018–2047). Climate changes in the future suggest warming under both the RCPs and a significant increase in precipitation amount (yearly and seasonal basis, while decrease and increase could be seen for monthly basis), and an increase in evapotranspiration (but the magnitude of change in precipitation outweigh the change in evapotranspiration). Mean annual flows of the SSC showed an increase of 467% (593%) and an increase of 270% (316%) for KSC under the RCPs 4.5 (8.5). A decrease of up to 39% and 29% is projected under RCP 4.5 for spring transitioning months for both sub-catchments and a decrease of up to 41% for winter months under RCP 8.5 for the SSC. Highest increase amongst all the seasons is projected for the summer season in the SSC under both the emission scenarios. However the winter flows seems to decrease under the RCP 8.5. Overall an increasing pattern could be observed for the rest of the seasons. This study would be beneficial for multiple stakeholders and sectors including water resource managers, agriculture, hydropower generation, and socioeconomic development.

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ABBREVIATIONS

UNFCC	United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change
US	United States
IPCC	Inter-Governmental Panel on Climate Change
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization-
IHP	International Hydrological Programme
SCS	Soil Conservation Services
SWAT	Soil and Water Assessment Tool
HBV	Hydrologiska Byråns Vattenbalansavdelning
TOPMODEL	Topography based hydrological model
NWSRFS	National Weather Service River Forecast System
HSPF	Hydrological Simulation Program - Fortran
VELMA	Visualizing Ecosystem Land Management Assessments
VIC	Variable Infiltration Capacity
MIKE SHE	European Hydrological System Model
PIHM	Penn State Integrated Hydrologic Model
KINEROS	Kinematic Runoff and Erosion Model
GCM	General Circulation Model
RCM	Regional Climate Model
AR5	Assessment Report (Fifth)
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UBCWM	University of British Columbia Watershed Model
UIB	Upper Indus Basin

RCP	Representative Concentration Pathways
SRM	Snowmelt Runoff Model
HEC-HMS	Hydrological Modeling System
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GHG	Greenhouse Gas
CO ₂	Carbon Dioxide
PD	Peak and Decline
IIASA	International Institute for Applied System Analysis
NIES	National Institute for Environmental Studies
PNNL	Pacific Northwest National Laboratory
PBL	Planbureau voor de Leefomgeving
SRB	Soan River Basin
ECMWF	European center for medium range weather forecast
DEM	Digital Elevation Model
SRTM	Shuttle Radar Topography Mission
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
MCD12Q1	MODIS Land Cover Type product
MYD13Q1	MODIS NDVI data product
MODW44	MODIS NDWI data product
NDVI	Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
NDWI	Normalized Difference Water Index
SMHI	Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute
RCA4	Rosby Centre Regional Atmospheric Model
CORDEX-SA	Framework of Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment - South Asia

MAM	March-April-May (Spring)
JJA	June-July-August (Summer)
SON	September-October-November (Autumn)
DJF	December- January-February (Winter)
UTC	Coordinated Universal Time
hPa	Hectopascal
mm	Millimeter
NetCDF	Network Common Data Form
M	Meter
K	Kelvin
J/m^2	Joule per square meter
SMHI	Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	Degree Celsius
ET_0	Reference Evapotranspiration
R_s	Solar Radiation
IGBP	International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme
T_{mean}	Average Temperature
PTQ	Precipitation Temperature Discharge
EVAP	Evapotranspiration
km^2	Square Kilometer
P	Precipitation
E	Evaporation
Q	Discharge
SP	Snowpack

SM	Soil moisture
UZ	Upper groundwater zone
LZ	Lower groundwater zone
PCALT	Change of precipitation with elevation
TCALT	Change of temperature with elevation
TT	Threshold Temperature
SFCF	Snowfall correction factor
CFMAX	Degree- Δt factor
FC	Maximum soil moisture storage
AET	Actual Evapotranspiration
PET	Potential Evapotranspiration
LP	Soil moisture value above which AET reaches PET
BETA	Parameter that determines the relative contribution to runoff from rain or snowmelt
PERC	Threshold parameter
K0	Storage (or recession) coefficient 0
K1	Storage (or recession) coefficient 1
K2	Storage (or recession) coefficient 2
MAXBAS	Length of triangular weighting function
CET	Potential evaporation correction factor
SP	Seasonal variability in degree- Δt factor
CFR	Refreezing coefficient
CWH	Water holding capacity
CFSLOPE	Slope correction factor
GAP	Genetic Algorithm

R	Random
Qsim	Simulated Discharge
Qobs	Observed Discharge
NSE	Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency
R ²	Co-efficient of Determination
Q0	Surface flow
Q1	Intermediate flow
Q2	Base flow
WAPDA	Water and Power Development Authority

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 CLIMATE CHANGE

A variation in the state of climate (variation in average or its properties) that can be statistically identified is referred to as climate change, and it persists typically for decades or longer. Warming of the climate system in recent decades is well defined, and is now obvious from observations of up surge in air and ocean temperatures, rampant melting of snow and ice, and elevating global sea level. Natural internal processes or external forcings like volcanic eruptions, and constant human induced changes in the composition of the atmosphere or in land use may lead to climate change. In the article 1 of the United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), climate change is defined as “a change of climate which is contributed directly or indirectly to human activity that changes the composition of the global atmosphere and is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods”.

A warming of 0.65 °C to 1.06 °C, for the period 1880-2012 has been observed from land and ocean surface temperature data. Variations exist regionally in the global trend, but as a whole the globe has warmed during the period 1901-2012. Heavy precipitation events have been amplified on many land areas, but total and extreme precipitation showed certain trends as well. Theoretical and climate model studies propose that, in a globally warm climate that is due to increasing greenhouse gases, extreme precipitation is likely to show a greater increase, as compared to the mean precipitation, but regional variations in precipitation are also expected (Bott, 2014; IPCC, 2007; IPCC, 2014; Bates et al., 2008; Gebre, 2015).

1.2 FRESHWATER RESOURCES

Water is an essential component of the natural environment, and all the living species relies on water. Fresh water is a limited and susceptible resource, crucial to existence of life, and other aspects of natural systems. Due to tenacious increase in competing demands of fresh water resources, they are increasingly becoming more

scarce (NWP, 2018). About eighty percent of the world's population is vulnerable to water security. The occurrence and transmission of water across all biological systems is the key component of life. Water is a vital resource for the livelihood of people and sustained development of any economy. Sustainable management of freshwater resources has attained importance regionally and globally. (WMO, 2009; Ali et al., 2017; Ky, 2014; Hoff, 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018)

1.3 INTERRELATION BETWEEN CLIMATE CHANGE AND ASSESSMENT OF FRESHWATER RESOURCES

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Commission for hydrology demonstrates emphasis on hydrology and water resources assessment. Globally, number of initiatives aim at generating water resources assessments and water balances, like the activities of the International Hydrological Program (IHP) of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (EC, 2015).

The water resources assessment has the vital role in sound and empirical management of the water resources of the world (WMO, 2009). A rising disparity amongst water supply and water demand, potentially caused by changes in climate during the last few decades, water availability and water scarcity has appeared as a major issue in water policy making and implementation (EC, 2015). Water resources are intricately connected with climate and the imminent climate change scenarios have threatening ramification for water resources of Pakistan. The assessment of the climate change impacts is among the major policy objective of the National Water Policy of Pakistan (NWP, 2018).

Renewable water resources are projected to decrease in some regions (in most of the mid-latitude and the regions considered as dry subtropical) and increase in others (mostly concentrated in regions of high latitudes and regions regarded as humid mid-latitude regions), albeit with large uncertainty in many places according to climate models. Despite of general projected increases (in stream flows), short-lived deficiencies could occur due to more variable stream flow (because of higher precipitation variability) and seasonal depletion of water supply due to curtailment of snow and ice storage (IPCC, 2007). As per Islam, (2013), it is a nationally prioritized

agenda to assess the hydrological implications of climate change.

1.4 BASIN SCALE HYDROLOGICAL MODELING AND WATER RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

The buildout of frameworks assessing the water quantity directing on balances of water (that implements hydrological information), is recognized as a valuable mechanism for steering water policy and management at numerous decision making scales. Which is particularly related to the management and well planned allotment of water resources (EC, 2015).

Significant information about the hydrological processes in the catchment is being provided by the applications of hydrological modeling (Nepal, 2016). Surface runoff modeling has been used for the purpose of understanding catchment produce and reactions, estimation of availability of water, identification of variations that existed over the period of time, and prognosticating (Sitterson et al., 2017). Hydrologic models are immensely employed as a decision-making tool at the catchment scale. In order to identify probable issues of water resource and making planning and decisions comprehensive, the quantitative estimation of the hydrological impacts of climate change is very essential (Ky, 2014), and according to Didovets et al., (2017) the climate change impacts on river discharge are also vitally important for planning adaptation measures.

A river basin is determined as the proper unit of analysis for emphasizing the challenges of management of water resources with soaring competition for water use across regional and sectoral levels (Islam, 2013). Usually the river basin is regarded as natural unit of management. It is quite comprehensive to manage the water resources in a river basin and in a synchronize and harmonized manner, because the water is often utilized most of the times from the headwaters to the river mouth. The predicted impacts in a catchment relies on the susceptibility of the catchment to variations in characteristics of climatic and on the predicted alterations in the intensity and seasonal distribution of precipitation (which is a main driver of variability in discharge) along with, temperature, evapotranspiration etc. The sensitivity of the Catchment is by large a function of the ratio of runoff to precipitation, small ratio tends to produce, the higher sensitivity. Proportional changes that exists between

average runoff (annual basis) are generally one and three times as large as proportional changes in average precipitation on annual basin (WMO, 2009; McCabe and Wolock, 2014; IPCC, 2007).

1.4.1 CLASSIFICATIONS OF HYDROLOGICAL MODELS

Based on the model structure, there are three types of hydrological models, as given in Table 1.1. Another classification system, that is based on the spatial description of the watershed processes (structure of catchment processes based on spatial characteristics in hydrological models), divides the hydrological models into three further categories Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Classification of hydrological models based on model structures and spatial description of watershed processes (Sitterson et al., 2017; Islam, 2013; Jajarmizadeh et al., 2012).

Hydrological models based on model structure				
	Empirical (Black box)	Conceptual (Grey box)	Physical (White box).	
Examples	Soil and Water Analysis Tool (SWAT)	Hydrologiska Byrans Vattenavdelning (HBV)	Visualizing Ecosystem Land Management Assessments (VELMA)	
	Artificial and Deep Neural Networks	Topography Based Hydrological Model (TOPMODEL)	Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC)	
		National Weather Service River Forecast System (NWSRFS)	European Hydrological System model (MIKE SHE)	
		Hydrological Simulation Program - Fortran (HSPF)	Penn State Integrated Hydrologic Model (PIHM)	
			Kinematic Runoff And Erosion Model (KINEROS)	
	Hydrological models based on spatial description of the watershed processes			
		Lumped	Semi distributed	Fully distributed

Non-linear statistical relationship is employed amid inputs and outputs in the empirical models, also called as data-driven models. Most empirical models are black box models, in which a minute detail is known about the internal processes that controls the determination of runoff results (Sitterson et al., 2017). Some of the

examples of empirical models are given in Table 1.1.

Simplified components are associated in the overall hydrological process to interpret runoff processes in conceptual models. For idealizing conceptually the processes of a catchment relies on reservoir storages and equations of the physical process that are less complex. Water balance equation is represented in conceptual models in which the transformation of precipitation to discharge, evapotranspiration, and groundwater happens. Models are used to simulate the reciprocity in water amongst the atmosphere, hydrological components, and storage reservoirs, as follows (eq 1),

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = P - ET - Q_s \pm GW \quad (1) \quad (\text{Sitterson et al., 2017}).$$

Where dS/dt is variation in reservoir storage, P is precipitation, ET is evapotranspiration, Q_s depicts the runoff and GW represents the groundwater.

Some of the examples of conceptual models are given in Table 1.1.

Physical models, also known as process-based or mechanistic models, relies on the apprehension of the physics related to the hydrological processes (Sitterson et al., 2017). In these models the comprehensive physical processes can be illustrated in a rational way by depictions of energy conservation, mass and momentum (Islam, 2013). Some of the examples of physical models are given in (Table 1.1).

The processes that are spatially based in hydrological models give a mean of demonstrating the catchment for the purpose of modeling. They rely on input data and how discharge is produced and routed throughout the catchment. In lumped models the variability that is spatially based on watershed characteristics is not considered, however in distributed models the changes of vegetation, soil, topography, etc are considered and are processed by the cells of grid. While semi distributed models reflect some variability that is spatially based, they even take this variability into account at small scales than the other models, but they don't determine discharge at every cell of grid (Islam, 2013; Sitterson et al., 2017).

1.4.2 THE HYDROLOGISKA BYRÅNS VATTENBALANSAVDELNING

(HBV) MODEL

The Hydrologiska Byråns Vattenbalansavdelning (HBV) light model termed as a semi distributed conceptual model. This model relies on conceptual illustrations of the physical processes of the water flow lumped over the entire catchment area. It can reproduce historical daily discharge with an acceptable accuracy (Abebe and Kebede, 2017).

It depends on the daily rainfall, mean daily air temperature, long term mean monthly potential evapotranspiration, and daily discharge that is used as input data. This is also considered as its advantage over other physically based hydrological models which are used to simulate the daily discharge at a outlet of a river basin (Al-Safi and Sarukkalige, 2017; Vormoor et al., 2017; Zhao, 2015; Dicom and Szolgay, 2010).

The HBV model was developed at the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI), where its initial development began in the seventies. It is named after the Water Balance Department (which is Hydrologiska Byrans Vattenavdelning in Swedish language) of the SMHI, and is abbreviated as HBV). The original purpose of this hydrological model was to forecast the inflow to hydropower stations, but over the years it has been implemented for various applications due to its development, such as, for impacts on hydrology of projected changes in climate, flood forecasting (Lawrence et al., 2009). During the last 20 years the model is immensely being used for discharge simulations in Sweden as well as 30 other countries and regions in modified versions.

The HBV light (which is being implemented in the present study) was developed at the Uppsala University in 1993. The HBV light is programmed in visual basic, and in 2009/10 the code was re-written for the migration from visual basic 6 to visual basic .NET by Marc Vis. A latest version (4.0.0.22) of the HBV light that is used in this study was developed at the University of Zurich, Department of Geography, Switzerland.

The primary equations are in concordance with the SMHI-version HBV 6, two main variations in light version are the inclusion of warming up period and the elimination of restriction for MAXBAS (which is parameter of the HBV-light that describes the length of triangular weighting function values) which were only integers

in HBV-6. The conceptual models, are extensively used for hydrological studies of catchment and can attribute to an improved apprehension of hydrological variables and interactions among them quantitatively (Eregnu, 2019; Seibert and Vis, 2012; Seibert, 2005; Report, 1999).

The philosophy behind the relative simplicity of the HBV model relies mostly on the ideas lined out by Nash and Sutcliffe among others, who saw the risk that increasing computer capacities may result in too complex model formulations, unless the significance of model components is carefully checked (Bergström, 1992).

1.4.3 GENERAL CIRCULATION MODELS AND REGIONAL CLIMATE MODELS

A Global Climate Model or General Circulation Model (GCM) is termed as a mathematical model that is based on the general circulation of the earth's atmosphere or oceans. The GCMs are used for variety of applications, for example, climate change projections, weather prognosticating and research which provide assistance towards the improved understanding of the atmosphere and oceans behaviors (Rosanna and David, 2014). For similar emissions scenario, GCMs generate contrasting trends of geographical change, primarily related to precipitation, that is considered as the major driver of the resources of fresh water (IPCC, 2007).

A Regional Climate Model (RCM) operates over a narrow part of the surface of earth by utilizing the GCM data at the lateral boundaries as input. Because the RCM operates at finer resolutions than the GCM, it could characterize the projected climate changes more accurately than global models for localized areas (Rosanna and David, 2014).

For assessing regionally, the hydrological implications of climate change, the GCM output is used as well (Breach et al., 2016). In most of the hydrological projection studies, downscaled precipitation and temperature from the GCMs have been utilized to operate the hydrological models as described by the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) Xu and Luo, (2015).

1.5 REPRESENTATIVE CONCENTRATION PATHWAYS (RCPs) AND CLIMATE SCENARIOS

The Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) are the state-of-the-art produce of the GHGs emission scenarios which give input to climate models. In climate research, use of emission scenarios is to figure out anthropogenic attributions to future climate changes due to ambiguities in different sectors, like the population upsurge, economic innovations, and institution of new technologies. The scenarios are not utilized in predicting future, rather to investigate the scientific and actual world consequences of various possible futures. Scientists insert the GHG concentrations, land cover and land use changes, and the pollution changes, to climate models to calculate effect of human activities on the climate system (Bjørnæs, 2013).

A climate projection typically tells about the probability that anything will occur in the several decades in the future if specific dominant conditions exists. Scenarios on the other hand, are neither projections nor predictions, but representation of different, possible ways in which the future could reveal. The additional energy that the earth system takes due to the enhanced greenhouse effect is the radiative forcing, expressed as w/m^2 . The other way around, it is the difference in the energy balance which penetrates the atmosphere and the amount that goes back to space in contrast to the conditions that prevailed before the industrialization began. The cumulative radiative forcing is composed by positive forcing from greenhouse gases and negative forcing from aerosols. The prominent influence by large is that of carbon dioxide (CO_2). The global temperature rises as the radiative forcing increases. However, accurate relationship among these elements is not fully incorporated (Bjørnæs, 2013).

Rate of climate change is characterized by the four RCPs (Arnell and Lloyd-Hughes, 2014), the RCP 2.6, the RCP 4.5, the RCP 6.0 and the RCP 8.5, the first is also known as RCP3/PD. The number implies forcings and PD to Peak and Decline. For every type of emissions, an RCP holds a bunch of initial values and the approximated emissions up to the end of the twenty first century (Wayne, 2013). The four RCPs are explained below:

1. RCP 8.5 – High or extreme emissions, this RCP is consistent with a future with no policy changes to reduce emissions. It was developed by the International Institute for Applied System Analysis (IIASA) in Austria.

2. RCP 6.0 – Intermediate or average emissions, this RCP is developed by the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) in Japan.
3. RCP 4.5 – Intermediate or average emissions, this RCP is developed by the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory (PNNL) in the United States (US).
4. RCP 2.6 – Low emissions, this RCP is developed by Planbureau voor de Leefomgeving (PBL) Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (Bjørnæs, 2013).

1.6 GLOBAL HYDROLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGES

Changes in climate and related changes in hydrological systems owe their existence to emission of the Greenhouse Gases (GHGs). Climate change inevitably causes variations in the water cycle, and causes to alter the temporal and spatial dispersal of water resources. Change in climate may have the marked influence on volume of water and can alter the availability of water resources. An enormous challenge to water management has emerged over last few decades, owing to varying climate and its effects on hydrological systems.

More consideration may be given to the impacts of climate change in dispersal of precipitation, and discharge, besides the wide exposure to connections among soaring temperatures and GHG caused warming. Along with the changes in temperature and precipitation, evapotranspiration has also been decreased since 1960. Climate change has a strong impact on freshwater resources, which are vulnerable already, and likely variations in streamflow, seasonality and volume of flow of water from rivers are significant consequences of warming.

A wide variety of trends in stream-flows have been detected and attributed, for example, South and East Europe, U.S. Pacific Northwest, regions of Southern Atlantic Gulf, and the Yellow river in China have observed decreased in streamflow, while Northern Europe, Mississippi basin in North America, and Yangtze river in China has shown an increase in the stream-flows. Out of 200 top rivers of the World, 45 showed decreased streamflow and 19 showed an increased trend. The detected stream-flows are consistent with precipitation and temperature changes since 1950. Seven percent of the worldwide inhabitants expects susceptibility to decreased water resources for

each degree of global warming. Semiarid and arid regions are significantly vulnerable to these threats.

These effects of climate change are related to average states and variabilities. Temperature upsurge and sea level rising, local variations of precipitation, and alterations in the variability of these elements are major cause of perceived and projected implications of changing climate on freshwater systems and their management (Jones, 2011; IPCC, 2001; IPCC, 2010; Gunasekara et al., 2014; Dingding et al., 2012; WMO, 2009; Aguilera and Murillo, 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018; IPCC, 2007; Hoff, 2009).

1.7 REGIONAL HYDROLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGES

Fourteen international rivers watersheds (at-least) of prime importance exist in Asia, temporal and spatial distribution of water is anticipated to be remarkably vulnerable due to anticipated changes in climate. Across different regions of Asia, availability of water varies widely, from seventy seven thousand cubic meter per year per capita to less than 1,000 cubic meter per year. Water availability is expected to rise in some areas of Asia, and reduction is projected for other areas.

Higher runoff is projected over Asia because of accentuated hydrological cycle and an up lift in area-averaged annual precipitation. A comprehensive ambiguity in the intensity and direction of projected precipitation, especially in south Asia. Over 2 billion people living in different countries are currently experiencing high water stress. One hundred and eighty five to nine hundred and eighty one million people are expected to suffer from increased water stress by the mid of the 21st century in Asia (IPCC, 2007; Harasawa et al., 2007; United Nations, 2019).

1.7.1 WATER RESOURCES SITUATION IN PAKISTAN

An increase in annual and seasonal precipitation in the past thirty to fifty years has been observed in Pakistan, although large differences between regions and seasons exist. Population of the Pakistan will be 309 million by mid of 21st century and it could lead to reduced water availability, and the country stands

amongst the most water stressed globally and could be regarded as “water scarce” in the upcoming decades (UNDP, 2017). The primary cause for declining water resources is upsurge in temperature and reduction in rainfall (Jia et al., 2017). The availability of water has reduced from 5,260 cubic meters per year in 1951 to around 1,000 cubic meters in 2016. This will probably drop down to about 860 cubic meters by 2025. This scenarios calls for active development and management of the country’s water resources (NWP, 2018).

The water resources will continue to vary under climate change, urbanization, over population, industrialization, economic growth. Potential changes in agricultural practices and water requirements are expected to increase by 2050 (Ali et al., 2017; UNDP, 2017). Water utilization in urban and rural regions of Pakistan, says 45 and 120 liter per capita per day. Over 90 % of total annual water available in the country is used for agriculture (Ali et al., 2017). A 15 % increase in agriculture water requirement is expected by 2050 (UNDP, 2017).

The susceptibility of water resources of the country to climate change is critical. Identification of gaps and recommendations for action, is a research project of the Ministry of Climate Change and the United Nation Development Program that addresses the need of climate change implications on water resources studies. A primary component of this project is, to find possibility of change in water flow levels in the Indus river basin (Soan is its tributary) in the future (UNDP, 2017).

Few studies have assessed future changes in water flow of the mighty Indus Basin, both in short and longer term. The current density in the Upper Indus Basin represents one measuring gauge for precipitation measurement per 5000 km², which falls short of the one gauge per 250 km² recommended by the World Meteorological Organization (UNDP, 2017).

According to UNDP, (2017), national climate change policy of Pakistan also acknowledges that Pakistan does not have an inclusive evaluation of whether changing climatic conditions have or could have adversely affected its critical water resources.

Within the context of this situation discussed above, assessing the climate change impacts on water resources is inevitable over the whole country, from the future projections of discharge it would be made clear that whether water abundant or

water stressed, or no change conditions are anticipated in future under changing climate scenarios. That could be helpful (in either case, water abundance, water stressed or no change) in the development and implementation of policies regarding management of freshwater resources.

1.7.2 CURRENT HYDRO-CLIMATIC STATE OF SOAN RIVER BASIN (SRB)

Discharge in the Sihala sub-catchment (SSC) varied from 69 mm up to 450 mm a year, while lower discharge could be seen in the Kani sub-catchment (KSC) varying between 38 mm and 285 mm a year as depicted in Fig. 1.1. Yearly precipitation in the SSC ranged between 268 mm to 815 mm a year. However, the annual precipitation ranged between 246 mm to 579 mm a year in the KSC as shown in Fig. 1.2. Evapotranspiration along-with the precipitation, plays a key role in non-glacierized catchments because the runoff is strongly influenced by these two climatic variables.

Evapotranspiration in the SSC was found out to be in the range of 21 mm to 107 mm a year, while in the KSC evapotranspiration lied between 59 mm to 110 mm a year Table 1.2. It makes it obvious that the evapotranspiration is much more significant in the KSC as compared to the SSC, and it may attribute to the low flows of the KSC. When it comes to temperatures, as seen in the figure 1.2, the SSC has annual temperatures in the range of 8 °C and 12 °C, while higher temperatures are seen in the KSC ranging between 11 °C to 14 °C.

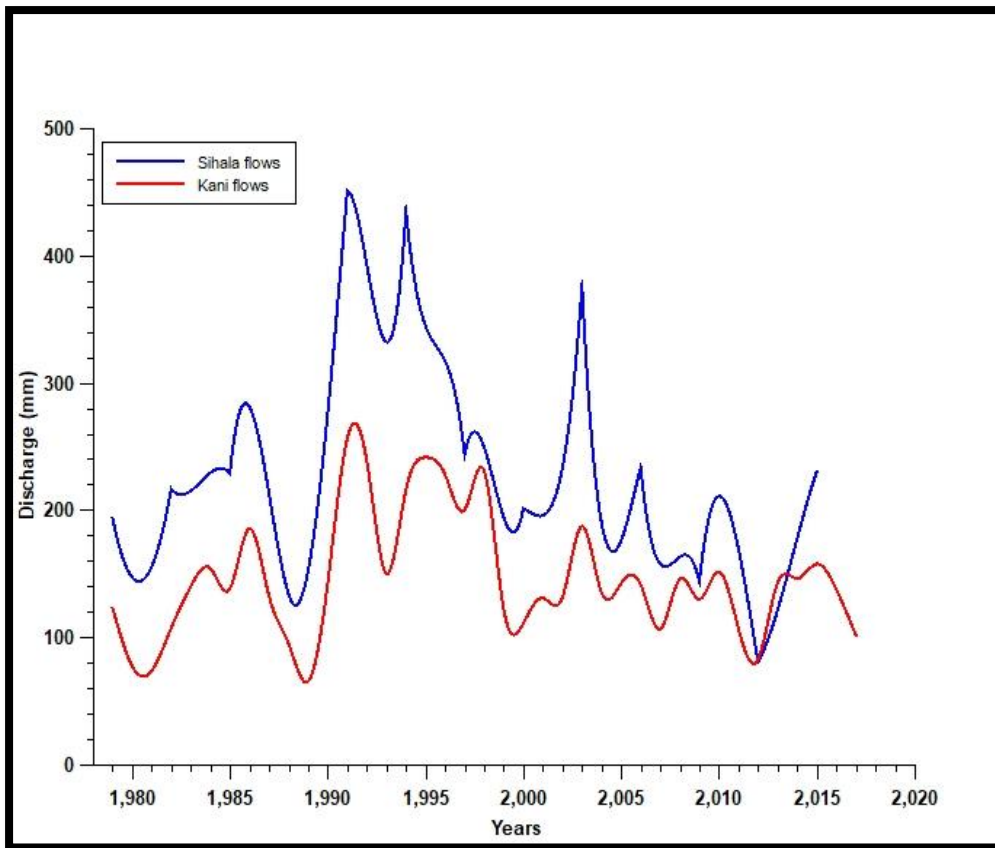


Figure 1.1. Yearly discharge of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

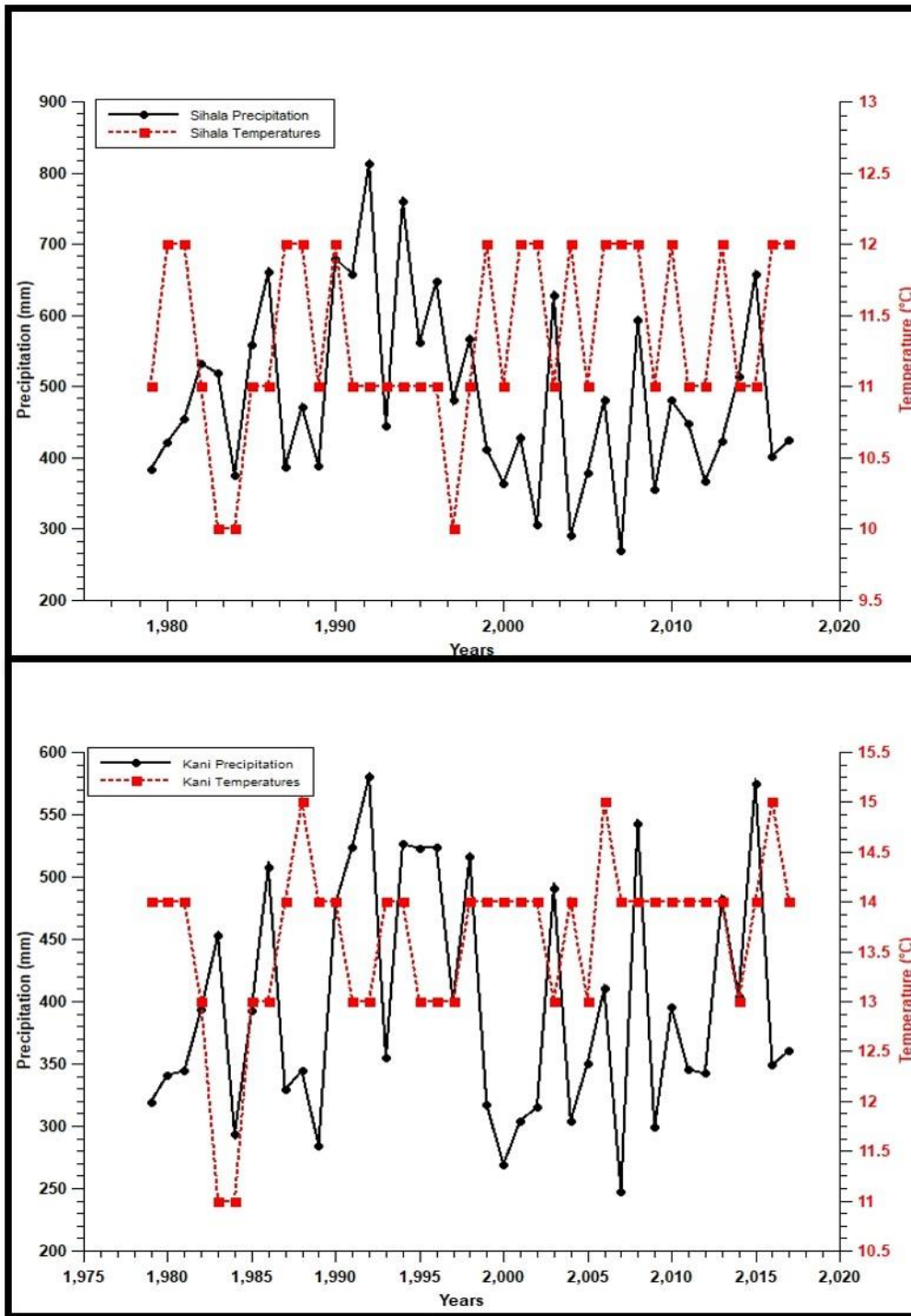


Figure 1.2. Yearly Precipitation and Temperature of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Table 1.2 Yearly evapotranspiration of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Yearly Evapotranspiration (mm)		
Years	Sihala Sub-catchment	Kani Sub-catchment
1979	90	103
1980	95	106
1981	94	107
1982	90	102
1983	84	59
1984	82	73
1985	80	97
1986	88	100
1987	93	105
1988	99	110
1989	91	103
1990	95	108
1991	91	103
1992	91	103
1993	91	104
1994	94	105
1995	89	102
1996	88	101
1997	82	98
1998	90	103
1999	107	107
2000	90	103
2001	92	104
2002	94	106
2003	90	103
2004	95	108
2005	90	101
2006	98	109
2007	93	105
2008	93	104
2009	94	105
2010	93	105
2011	92	105
2012	91	103
2013	92	104
2014	88	101
2015	94	106
2016	97	110
2017	99	110

As seen in figure 1.3, months with high flows and low flows are crucial for water balance estimation, and as it could be seen in the figure that high discharge occurs in March, April, August and September in the SSC while March, August and September are high flow months in the KSC. Low flows occurs in January, June, November, December in the SSC while January, May, June, November, December in the KSC.

Maximum precipitation in the SSC and the KSC could be seen in July with an average of 87 mm and 70 mm respectively as depicted in figure 1.4, making July the wettest month, consequently producing highest flows in the upcoming month of August with an average of 44 mm and 31 mm as shown in Fig. 1.3. The highest evapotranspiration is also observed in the month of July with an average of 11.8 mm and 12.26 mm for the SSC and the KSC, respectively, However the magnitude of increase in precipitation outweighs the increase in evapotranspiration, hence resulting in high flows. Minimum mean precipitation of 13 mm occurs in October making it the driest month in the SSC, while in the KSC the lowest rainfall is seen in May and November with a mean of 13 mm as illustrated in figure 1.4, resulting in the low flows of 8 mm in the same month as presented in Fig. 1.3.

Mean monthly evapotranspiration valued 7 mm a month with lowest of 1.29 mm in January in the SSC, while mean monthly evapotranspiration valued 8.6 mm a month with lowest of 2.8 mm in January in the KSC. The coldest month is of January in both sub-catchments with a mean temperature of 1.12 °C in the SSC and 2.52 °C in the KSC, and July is the warmest with a mean temperature of 21.3 °C and 23.6 °C in the SSC and the KSC respectively as shown in Fig. 1.4.

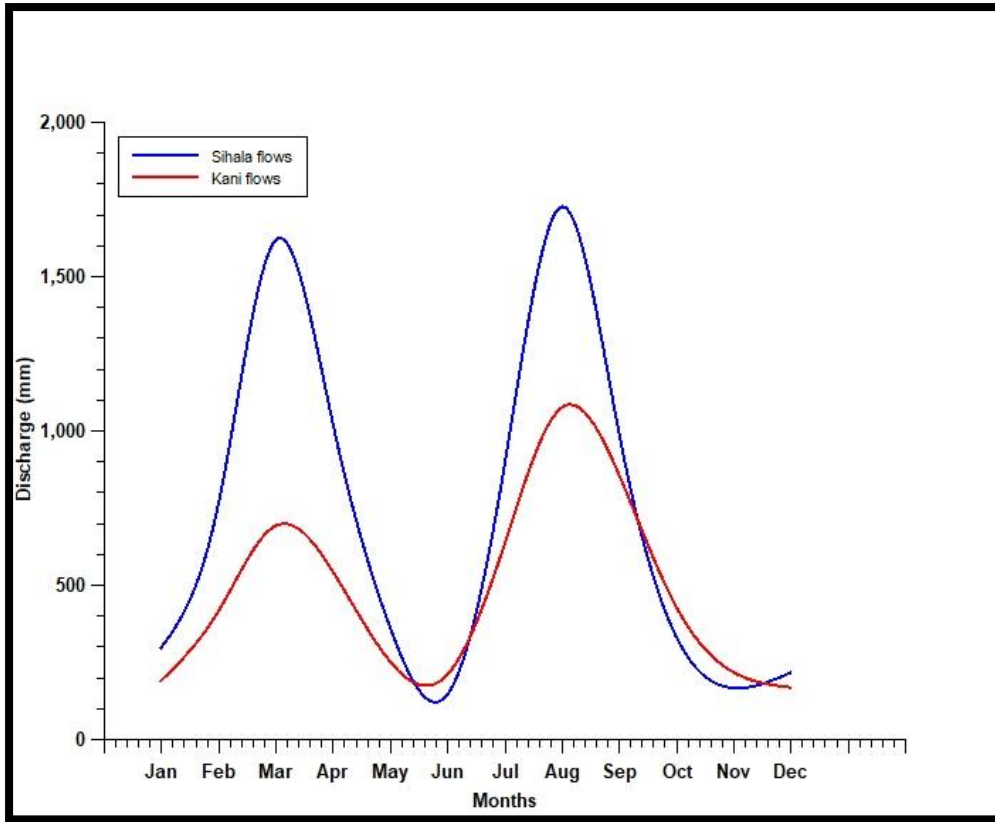


Figure 1.3. Monthly discharge of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

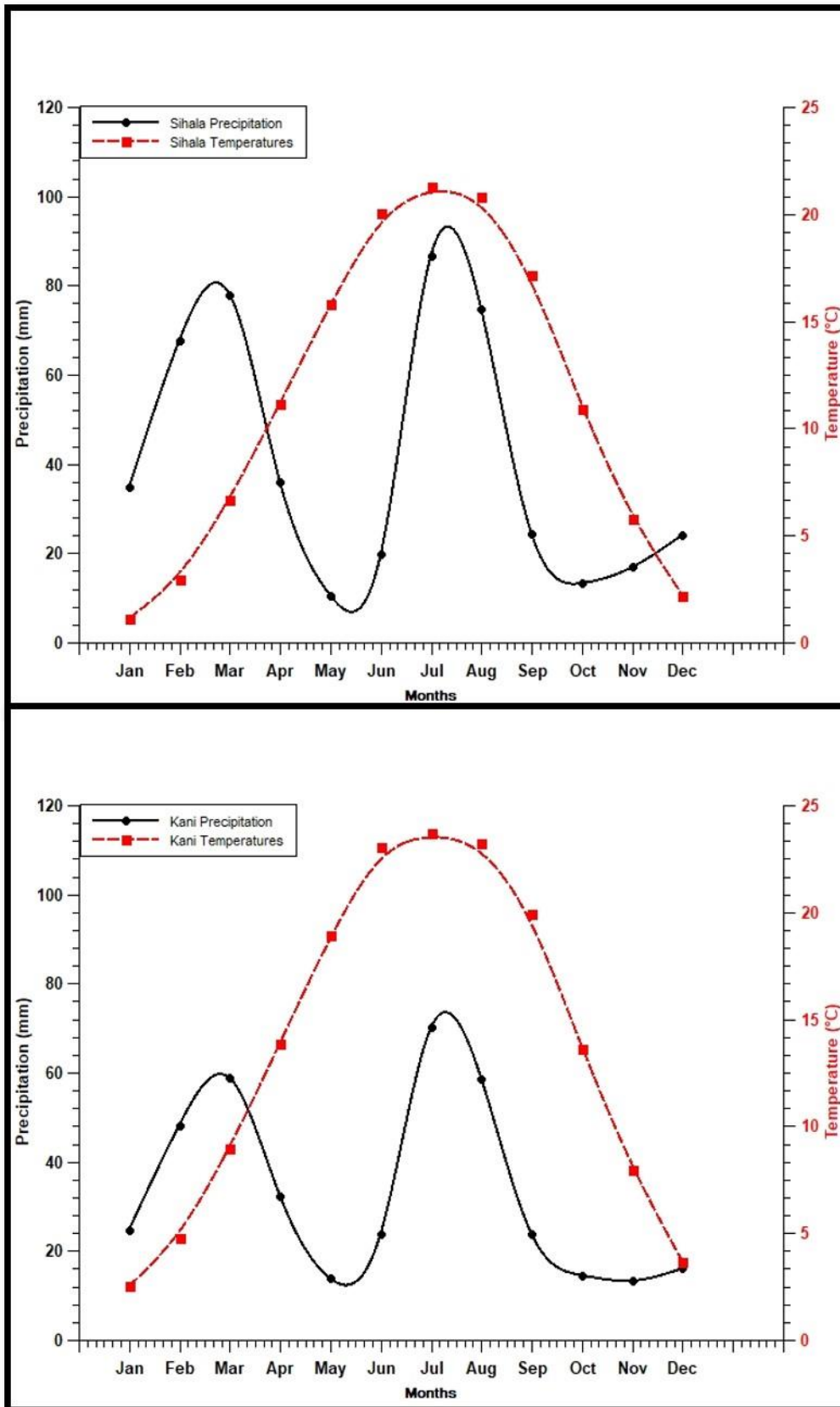


Figure 1.4. Monthly precipitation and temperatures of Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Table 1.3 Monthly evapotranspiration of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Evapotranspiration (mm)		
Months	Sihala Sub-catchment	Kani sub-catchment
Jan	1.29	2.8
Feb	3.18	4.75
Mar	6.13	7.46
Apr	8.92	9.65
May	10.30	11.26
Jun	11.6	12.29
Jul	11.8	12.35
Aug	11.71	12.23
Sep	10.68	11.41
Oct	8.23	9.3
Nov	5.51	6.84
Dec	2.47	3.83

As depicted in figure 1.5 highest flows could be seen in Spring (MAM i.e. March-April-May) season with an average of 77 mm, however highest flows in the KSC are seen in the Summers with an average of 16 mm. Low flows could be seen in the winter season with an average of 32 mm and 6.19 mm in the SSC and the KSC, respectively.

Wettest season is summer (JJA i.e. June-July-August) with a mean precipitation of 181 mm in the SSC and 50 mm in the KSC and Autumn (SON i.e. September-October-November) is the driest season with a mean precipitation of 54 mm and 17 mm in the SSC and the KSC, respectively as shown in Fig. 1.6. Summer has the highest average temperature of about 20.73 °C in the SSC and 23.3 °C in the KSC. Winters (DJF i.e. December-January-February) has the lowest temperature of about 2 °C and 3.6 °C in the SSC and the KSC, respectively as illustrated in Fig. 1.7. In summers, maximum evapotranspiration occurs with an average of 11.7 mm and 12.29 mm, while minimum evapotranspiration occurs in winters averaging 2.31 mm and 3.76 mm in the SSC and the KSC respectively Table 1.4.

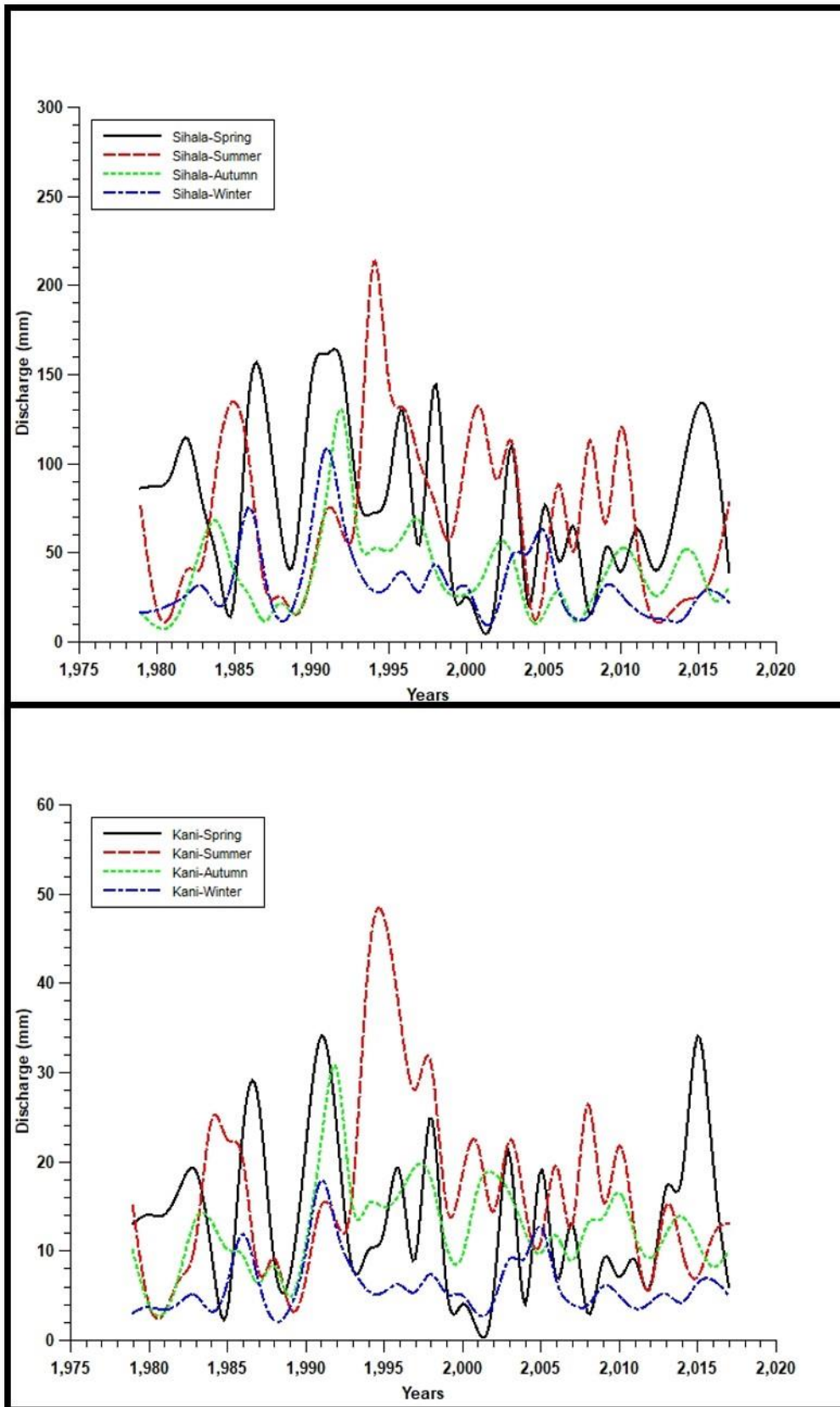


Figure 1.5. Seasonal discharge of Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

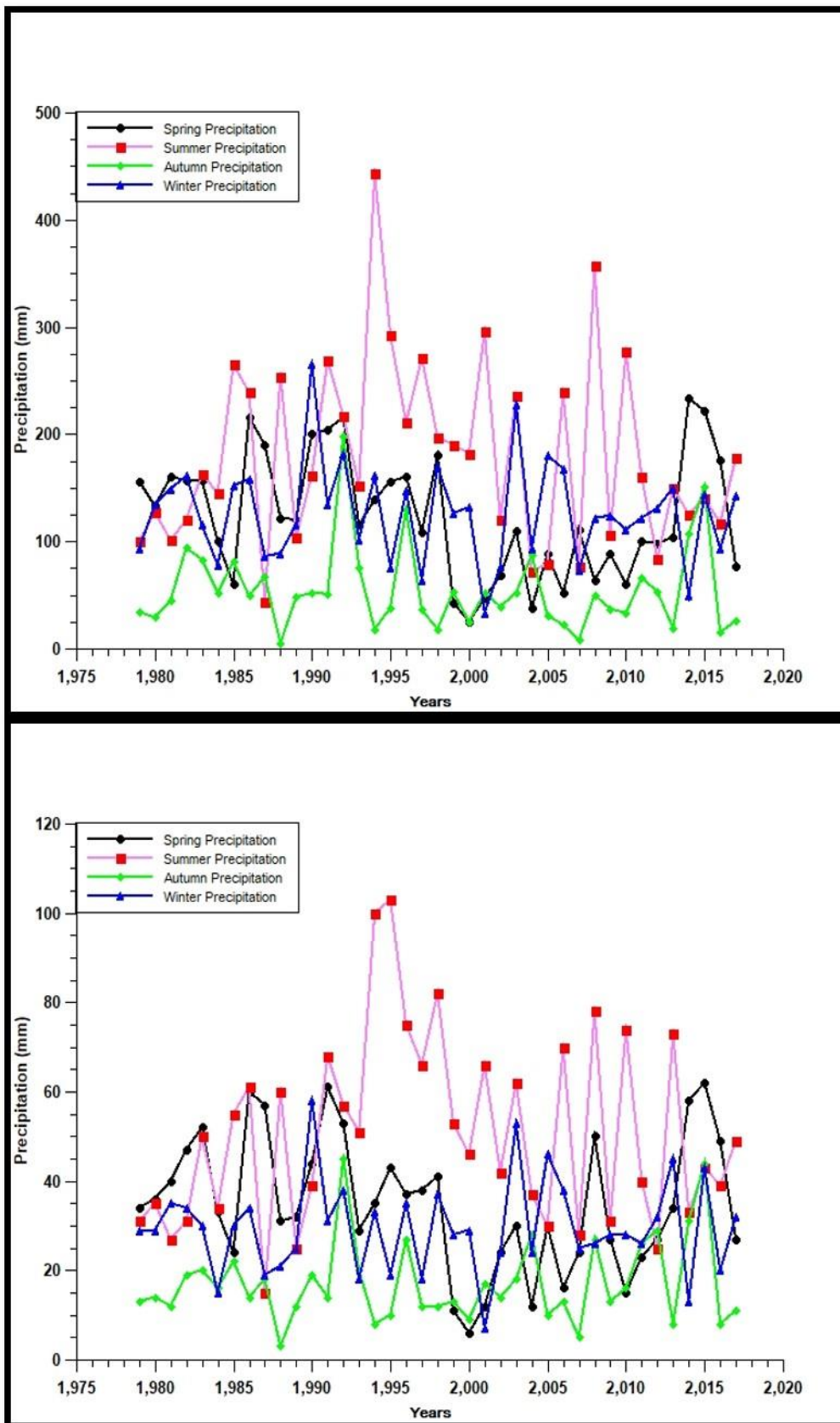


Figure 1.6. Seasonal Precipitation of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

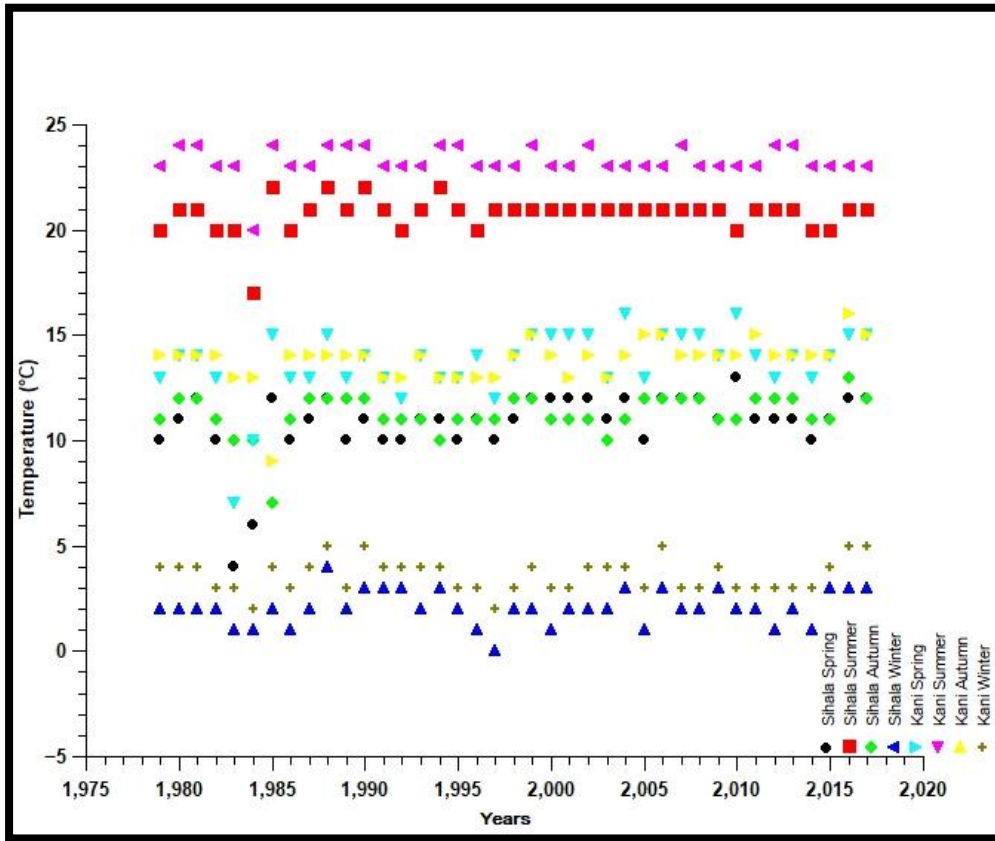


Figure 1.7. Seasonal temperatures of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Table 1.4 Seasonal evapotranspiration of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments for the observed time period (1979-2017): Data source (ECMWF)

Seasonal Evapotranspiration (mm)								
Years	Sihala Sub-catchment				Kani Sub-catchment			
	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
1979	24	35	25	6	27	37	28	11
1980	25	36	26	8	28	37	29	12
1981	26	35	25	8	29	37	28	13
1982	24	35	25	7	27	37	28	11
1983	22	35	23	5	26	36	27	10
1984	26	30	23	3	28	33	27	8
1985	27	36	12	6	30	38	18	12
1986	23	35	25	4	27	37	28	9
1987	25	35	26	7	28	37	28	12
1988	26	36	25	12	30	37	28	15
1989	24	35	25	7	27	37	28	11
1990	24	36	25	11	28	38	28	14
1991	24	35	23	9	27	37	27	12
1992	24	35	24	9	27	37	27	13
1993	25	35	25	7	28	37	28	12
1994	25	36	24	9	28	37	27	13
1995	24	36	24	5	27	37	27	10
1996	26	35	23	4	29	37	27	9
1997	24	35	24	0	27	37	27	7
1998	24	35	24	6	28	37	27	11
1999	39	36	26	7	30	37	29	12
2000	25	35	25	5	29	37	28	10
2001	26	35	24	6	30	37	27	10
2002	26	35	25	8	30	37	28	12
2003	25	35	23	7	28	37	27	12
2004	27	35	24	9	30	37	28	13
2005	24	35	26	5	27	37	28	9
2006	26	35	26	11	29	37	29	14
2007	25	36	26	6	29	37	28	11
2008	27	35	25	6	30	37	28	10
2009	25	35	24	10	28	37	28	13
2010	28	35	24	6	31	37	28	11
2011	25	35	26	6	29	37	30	11
2012	25	36	25	5	28	37	28	9
2013	25	36	25	7	28	37	28	11
2014	24	35	24	5	27	37	28	10
2015	25	35	25	9	28	37	28	13
2016	26	35	27	9	29	37	30	14
2017	27	35	26	11	29	37	29	15

1.7.3 RANKED ANNUAL FLOW OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB-CATCHMENTS

The ranked annual flow of both the sub-catchments of the SRB is illustrated in (Table 1.5). It could be seen from the Table 1.5 that the year 1991 has the highest flows for the SSC and the KSC among all thirty nine years of observed period, while 2004 stood the year with least flows in the SSC, and 1989 was the year of lowest flows in the KSC. Mean annual flow was 218 mm per year in the SSC and 146 mm per year in the KSC.

The ranked annual flow of both sub-catchments of the SRB provides us with the fact that the number of years in which the flow was below the annual average was twenty four years, while fifteen years were those where the flows were greater than the annual average for the SSC. The annual water resources situation of the SSC shows the 62 % flows have been below the annual average, while 38 % flows have surpassed the annual average. This gives an indication that in the observed period the flows have been more on the minimal side rather than being on the higher sides most of the time.

Similarly, in the KSC, twenty three years showed flows less than the annual average and sixteen years suggested flows to be higher than annual average. The situation of the river flows in the KSC is not different from the SSC, as the ranked annual flows indicates that 59 % of the years have shown flows to be less than the annual average, while 41 % have shown that the flows have been more than the annual average.

Table 1.5. Ranked annual flow of Sihala and Kani sub catchments

Discharge (mm)			
Years	Sihala Sub-catchment	Years	Kani Sub-catchment
1991	451	1991	286
1992	449	1998	283
1994	435	1992	261
1986	378	1995	243
1996	376	1996	238
2003	376	1994	238
1998	320	2003	228
2010	286	1986	221
1995	277	2010	175
1990	269	2008	172
1984	246	1997	170
1997	243	1984	168
2006	233	2015	168
2015	230	2013	166
1985	229	2006	155
1982	217	2005	148
2008	211	2001	143
2000	201	1983	140
1983	197	2016	139
2001	194	2014	136
1993	194	1990	132
1979	194	1979	123
2016	193	1987	117
2014	186	1985	110
1987	181	2000	109
2005	174	1982	109
2011	172	2004	109
2017	169	2009	108
2002	160	2002	104
2009	144	1988	103
1988	134	2011	102
1981	130	2017	102
1999	122	1993	100
1980	119	1999	85
2013	107	2007	78
1989	82	1980	69
2007	81	1981	66
2012	81	2012	57
2004	70	1989	39

1.8 CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS ON WATER RESOURCES STUDIES IN PAKISTAN

Hydrological modelling and estimation of future flow projections in different river basins of Pakistan has been carried out, especially in the Upper Indus Basin (UIB). Different hydrological models have been implemented in these studies for example, the University of British Columbia Watershed Model (UBCWM) has been applied in the Hunza, the Astore, the Siran, the Jhelum and the Kabul river basins by Saeed et al. (2009). Future projections of the study that was conducted in the Mangla basin (that is in northeastern Pakistan) by Babur et al. (2016), suggests an increase in mean annual flow under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios, while on seasonal basis the study projects a noticeable increase in winter and spring, while a decrease in flows has been projected for the summer and autumn seasons.

Similarly, the HBV has been employed by Akhtar, (2008) in the UIB, and according to the study, a reduction of 8 % in mean discharge of the UIB by 2030 is projected. However in another study by Hasson, (2016) progressing towards the end of 21st century, a steady increase is projected in the UIB. Another hydrological model that has been used extensively in the estimation and projections of flows in the mountainous catchments, the Snowmelt Runoff Model (SRM) has been implemented by Tahir, (2011) in Tarbela dam (a reservoir in the UIB), and summer flows have been projected to be twice as they are now by 2075.

The Hydrological Modeling System (HEC-HMS) along with the RCP emission scenarios was employed by Javed, (2018) over the Soan river basin and the flows were projected to increase in the 21st century. Another study that was conducted by Koike et al, (2015) over the Soan river basin used the Water and Energy Budget Distributed Hydrological Model (WEB-DHM) along with A1B emission scenario proposed in the Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES), and the upsurge in flows of the Soan river basin was also projected.

The (HEC-HMS) has also been implemented in the Jhelum river basin by Mahmood and Jia, (2016), and the average annual discharge has been anticipated to increase by 10 – 15 % towards the end of century. On seasonal basis, Summer flows have shown a decrease, while autumn, spring, and winter flows have projected an increase in the flows. Moreover low and median flows were projected to increase, but a decline in high flow was detected in the future.

1.9 RATIONALE FOR STUDY

All these studies mentioned in the above section have been conducted mostly in the UIB, different hydrological modelling approaches have been adopted, along with different future climate scenarios and the projections of different climate models. However, the results have not shown a strict consistency towards one direction (either decreasing or increasing) and also the magnitude of change is not unidirectional throughout the UIB, rather different river basins (catchments) have shown unique hydrological behaviors under changing climate. Therefore, more hydrological modelling of the hydrological characteristics and water resources of different catchments is necessary to increase the knowledge of future freshwater resources under changing climate scenarios in Pakistan. In the Soan river basin, this study will aim to assess the changes in its water resources using the high resolution reanalysis hydro-meteorological datasets, high resolution statistically downscaled future climate projections and the semi distributed, conceptual hydrological model HBV-Light.

1.10 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The current research aims:

1. to perform the sensitivity analysis of parameters of the HBV light.
2. to perform calibration and validation of hydrological model and to perform the hydrological modeling of the Soan River Basin (SRB) by using the HBV-light hydrological model.
3. to assess possible changes in freshwater resources of the two sub-catchments of the SRB i.e. (Sihala and Kani) on the basis of climate projections under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 emission scenarios for the time period 2018-2047.

CHAPTER 2

MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 STUDY AREA DESCRIPTION

Pakistan lies in the subtropical arid zone and most of the country is subjected to a semi-arid climate. The geography of Pakistan is a profound blend of landscapes varying from plains to deserts, forests, hills and plateaus and ranging from coastal areas of the Arabian Sea in the south to the mountains of the Karakoram range in the north (FAO, 2012).

The Soan river is located in Potowar region of Pakistan, between 71°45' and 73°35' east longitude and 32°45' to 33°55' north latitude. It is considered as the major hydrological unit of potowar. Soan river is the tributary of the mighty Indus river and is a perennial river. Soan river has multiple tributaries namely Ling, Korang, Lai Nullah, and Ghabir river etc. Soan river basin comprised of Rawalpindi division (Rawalpindi, Attock, Chakwal), and Islamabad. Two major reservoirs to meet the domestic need of water for millions of citizens of Islamabad and Rawalpindi are the Simly and Rawal dams, constructed on Soan river and its tributary Korang river, respectively. Potowar is a semi-arid region, except Murree, which is in humid zone. Climatic condition of the SRB is considered as the Subtropical Triple Season Moderate Climate Zone (FAO, 2012; FAO, 2011; Nazeer et al., 2016; Adnan et al., 2009; Shahid et al., 2017; Ashfaq et al., 2014; WAPDA, 2001).

The headwaters of the Soan river lies in Patriata (Murree) and confluence of the Soan river with the Indus river could be seen near Mianwali, not far from the proposed site of Kalabagh dam. The SRB has been divided into two sub catchments for this study namely the Sihala sub-catchment (SSC) and the Kani sub-catchment (KSC) as shown in Fig 2.1. Both sub-catchments of the SRB are non-glacierized and precipitation is the major inflow to the basin. The total area of SRB is 11253 km². The SSC has an area of 882 km² and the KSC has an area of 10371 km².

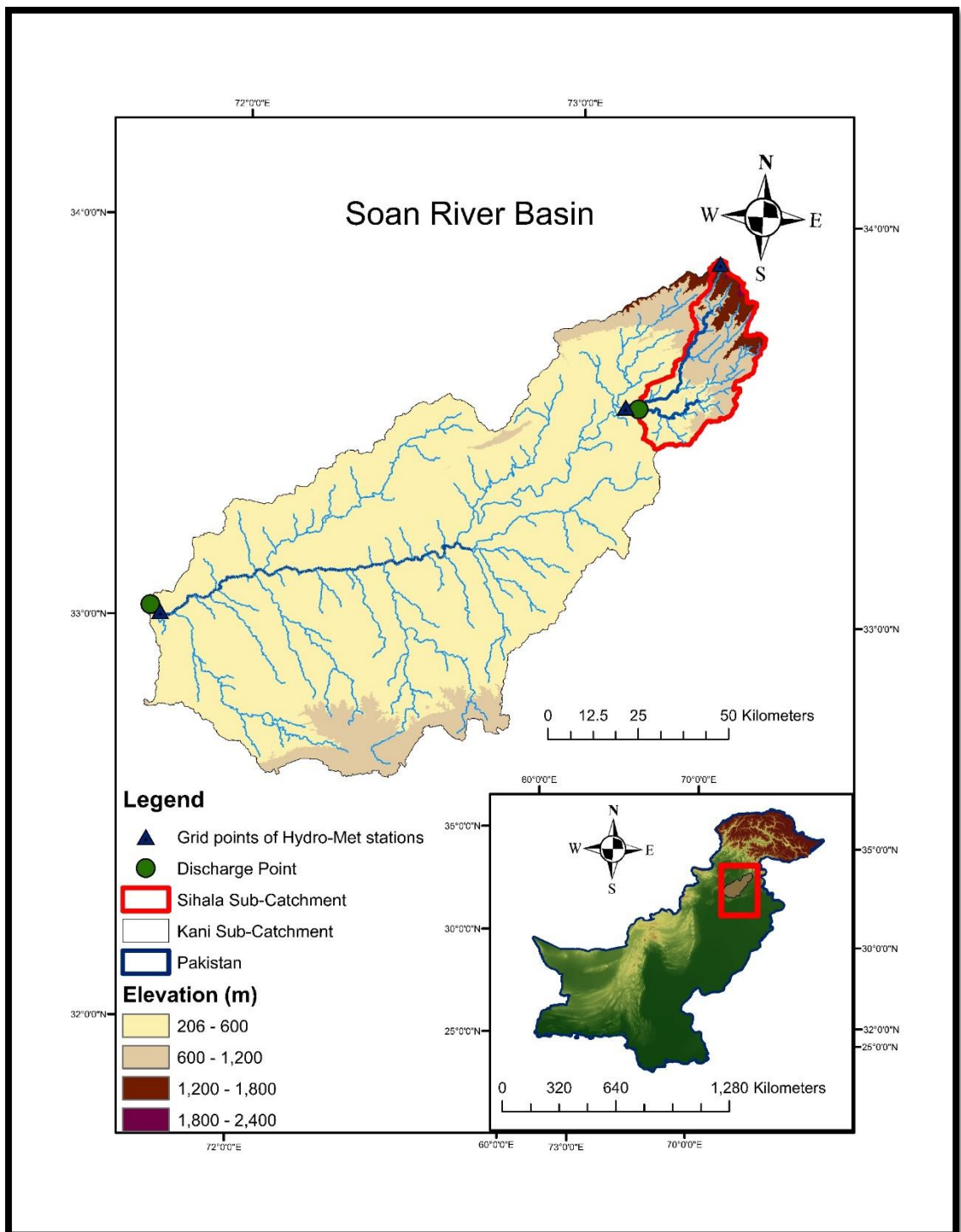


Figure 2.1. Map of the Soan river basin

2.2 TOPOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SOAN RIVER BASIN

Land cover map of the SRB is illustrated in Fig 2.2. Topography of (Sub-watershed 1) i.e. the SSC is relatively different from the topography of (Sub-watershed 2) i.e. the KSC. The SSC starts from 442 m and extends up to 2261 m, while the KSC has an elevation range of 206-2261 m. In the KSC not much of the variations in altitudes could be seen, it is primarily a flat terrain area. Sihala sub-catchment on the other hand has diverse topography, as it ranges from the high mountains on the northern side and a relatively flat surface towards the southern side. None of the sub-catchments are glacier dominant. The vegetation ranges from Shrubs in the southern part to the coniferous forests in the Northern part.

The land cover ranges from evergreen needleleaf forests, evergreen broadleaf forests to croplands, grasslands, and savannas, as well as, the urban and built up units in the Sihala sub-catchment. Due to the diversity of topographical features, the meteorological characteristics of the SSC are also more diverse than KSC. The KSC is dominated by grasslands, croplands, while open shrub-lands dominates the sub-catchment in the south.

The slope and aspect map of the SSC and the KSC could be seen in appendix I.

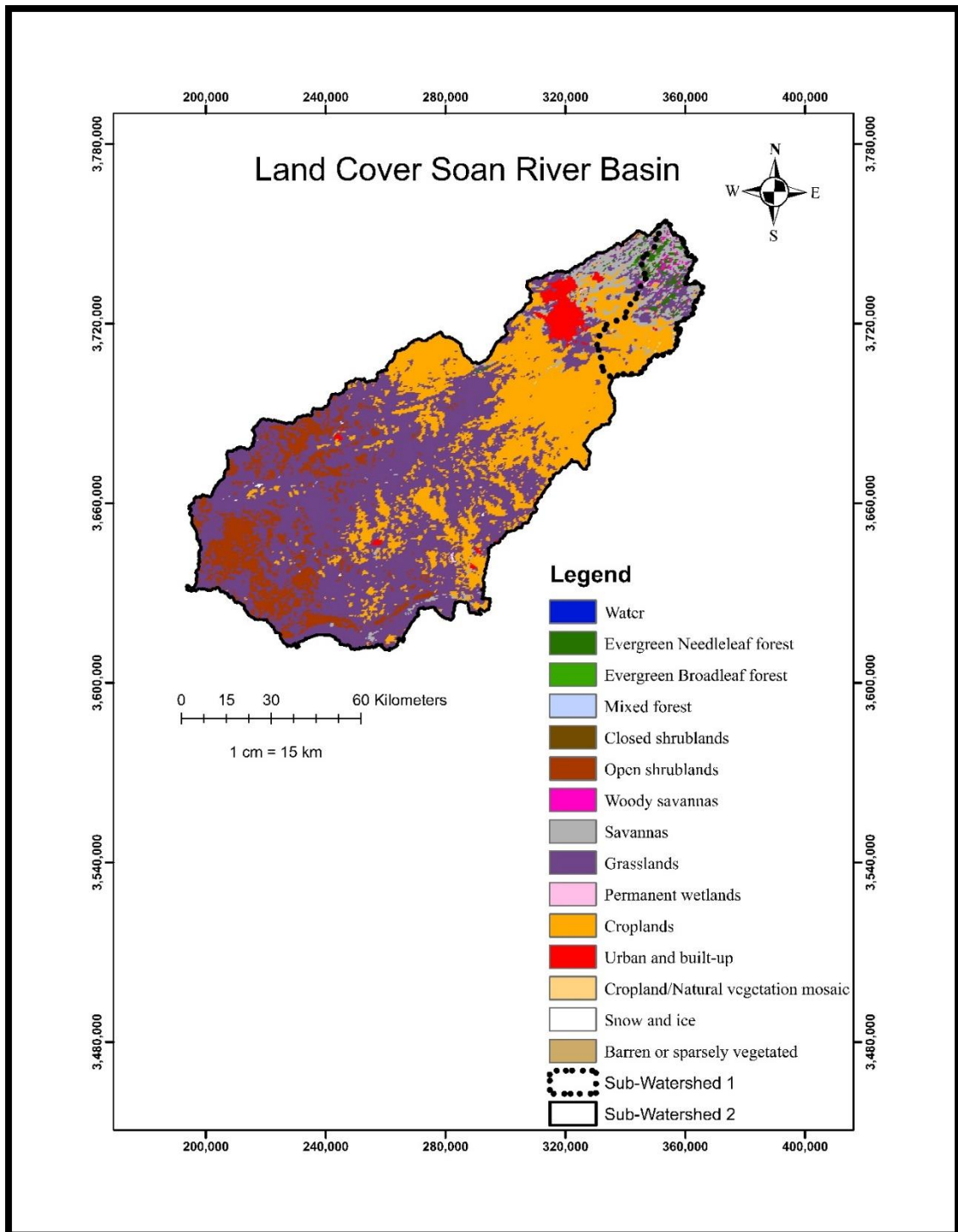


Figure 2.2. Land cover map of Soan river Basin

2.3 DATA COLLECTION AND DESCRIPTION

The observed hydrological and climatological data and the projected climatic data for future is explained in the following section.

2.3.1 CLIMATE REANALYSIS DATASET

A climate reanalysis expresses a numerical illustration of the recent climate, generated by connecting models with observations. It has approximated values of atmospheric parameters, like air temperature, pressure and wind at number of varying altitudes, and surface parameters such as rainfall, soil moisture content, and sea-surface temperature. The estimates are generated for whole earth, and the temporal range is exhaustive as well (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/research/climate-reanalysis>).

2.3.2 HYDRO-CLIMATOLOGICAL DATA

Climatological and hydrological data have been acquired from ERA-Interim archive at ECMWF (European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecast). “Era-Interim is the latest global atmospheric reanalysis, produced by ECMWF” (Dee et al., 2011). At first ERA-Interim ran from 1989-2017, later in 2011 it was extended for the period of 1979-1989. The spatial resolution of the data set is approximately 79 km on 60 vertical levels from the surface up to 0.1 hectopascal (hPa) at the top. The analysis at 12 Universal Time Coordinated (UTC) involves observations between 03 UTC and 15 UTC. The monthly averages produced for each of the four main synoptic hours (00, 06, 12, and 18 UTC) are referred to as synoptic monthly means (Berrisford and Dee, 2011). Various studies have used Era-Interim datasets (Gevorgyan and Melkonyan, 2015; Kotsias and Lolis, 2018; Wu et al., 2018;).

Daily precipitation (total precipitation), daily surface air temperature (2 meter), and synoptic monthly means of incoming solar radiation (j/m^2) are acquired for the time period 1979-2017. Description of observed hydrological and climatological data can be found in Table 2.1. While high resolution projections of the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute Rossby Centre Regional Atmospheric Model (SMHI RCA4) under the framework of Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment–South Asia (CORDEX–SA), statistically downscaled at approximately 13 km resolution forced with the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios for the time period 2018-2047 have been used. The description of future projected data can be seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2.1 Description of observed Hydrological and climatological data. (Data source: ECMWF)

Hydro-Climatic parameters	Units	Source	Temporal resolution	Time domain	Grid size	Grid point location	Lat/Lon
Precipitation	m	ECMWF	Daily	1979-2017	0.125° * 0.125°	Murree	33.87/73.45
Temperature	K					Sihala	33.64/73.28
Incoming solar radiation	(j/m ²)		Kani			33.02/71.72	
Evapotranspiration	mm		Monthly				
Surface runoff	m		Daily				

Table 2.2 Description of Projected (future) data. (Data source: SMHI RCA4)

Climatological Parameters	Units	Source	Temporal resolution	Time domain	Grid size	Grid point location	Lat/Lon
Precipitation	mm	SMHI RCA4	Daily	2018-2047	0.13°	Murree	33.87/73.45
Temperature (min, max)	°C					Sihala	33.64/73.28
						Kani	33.02/71.72

2.3.3 TOPOGRAPHY AND LAND COVER DATA

The DEM (Digital Elevation Model) of 90 m resolution from Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) is acquired and the Soan river basin along with its sub-basins is delineated using this DEM in ArcMap (ArcGIS). Hydrology tool that can be found under the Spatial analyst tools has been used to extract the River Basin.

The MODIS Land Cover Type product (MCD12Q1) provides with the land cover suites with a spatial resolution of 500 m. Out of five different classification schemes, Land Cover Type 1, that is International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) global vegetation classification scheme (MODIS User Guide, 2012; Friedl et

al., 2010) was adopted in this study. MODIS landcover products, are available in public domain and can be downloaded from <https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>.

The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data product MYD13Q1 is used in this study (Didan, 2015). Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) product MODW44 (Carroll et al., 2009) is used in this study to extract water body data (Carroll et al., 2008). These datasets are extracted from the MODIS at 250 m spatial resolution and 16 day temporal resolution.

2.4 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

An overview of the methodology adopted in the present study is presented in (Fig. 2.3). The hydro-meteorological, topographical, and satellite imagery data was acquired, processed and analyzed. After this the input data was prepared and fed into the HBV-light model. Then the calibration and validation of the model was performed manually in conjunction with Genetic Algorithm to optimize the parameters used for calibration and validation. Afterwards, future climate projection data was induced to the HBV-light and the projected flows were simulated. Finally the climate change impacts assessment on the freshwater resources of the SRB was performed. A more detailed description of the methodology is presented in the paragraphs below.

The DEM (Digital Elevation Model) of 90 m resolution from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) was acquired and the SRB along with its two sub-catchments is delineated using this DEM in ArcMap (ArcGIS).

The hydro-climatological characteristics of the SRB were assessed and analyzed from the data acquired from the European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF). Hydrology tool that can be found under the Spatial analyst tools has been used to extract the River Basin and its sub-catchments. The MODIS Land Cover Type product (MCD12Q1) with a spatial resolution of 500m was used for land cover classification of the SRB. Both sub-catchments of the SRB are divided into 4 elevation zones with an interval of 600 m each, with an elevation range of 206 m up to 2261 m for the SSC and 442 m up to 2261 m for the KSC.

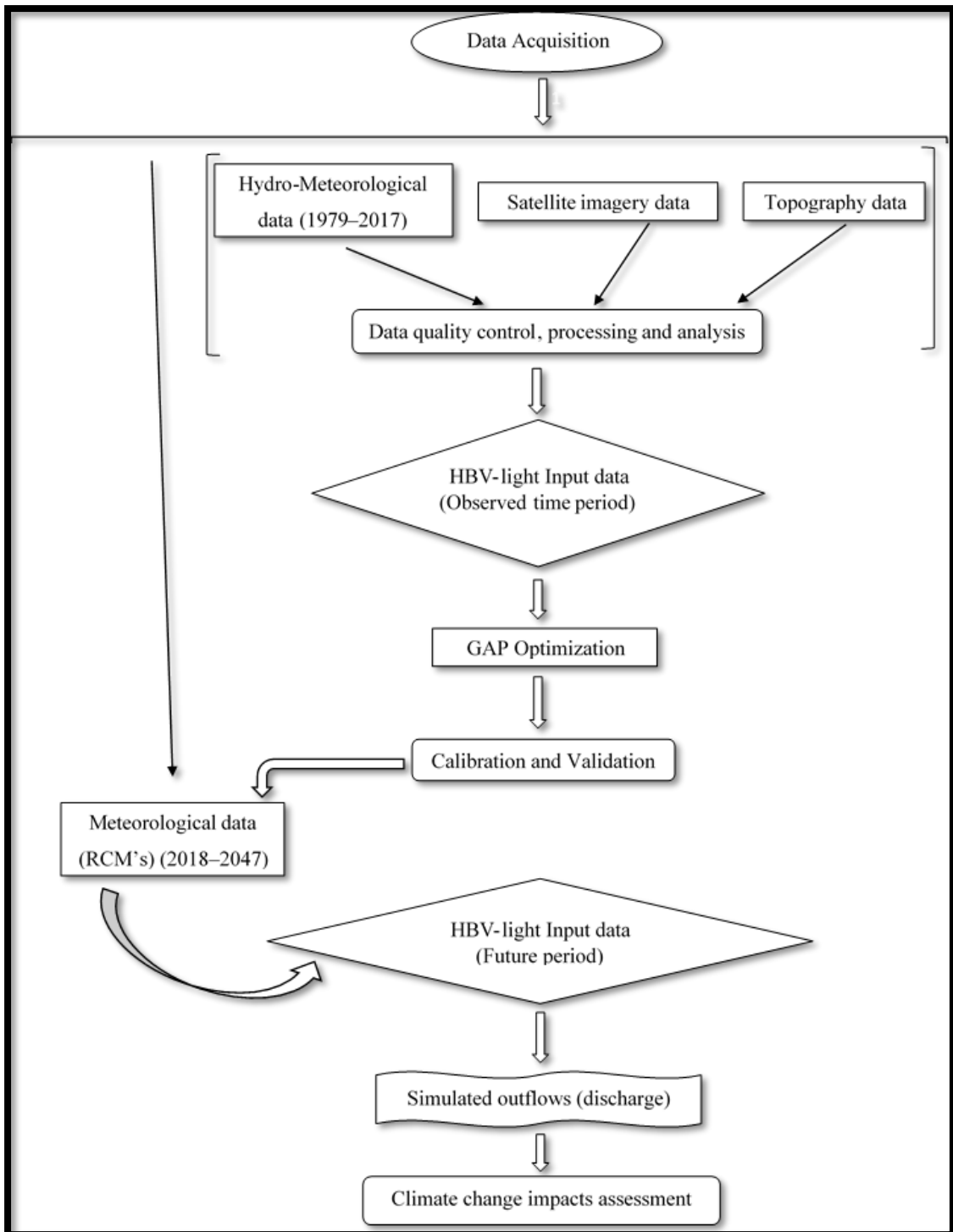


Figure 2.3. An overview of the adopted methodology

Hydrology tool that can be found under the Spatial analyst tools has been used to extract the River Basin and its sub-catchments. The MODIS Land Cover Type product (MCD12Q1) with a spatial resolution of 500 m is used for land cover classification of the SRB. Both sub-catchments of the SRB are divided into 4

elevation zones with an interval of 600 m each, with an elevation range of 206 m up to 2261 m for the SSC and 442 m up to 2261 m for the KSC.

Different fractions of vegetation zones are extracted from NDVI and the fraction of area covered with water was assessed using Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) from MODIS NDWI data product MODW44). Three vegetation zones were defined, densely vegetated zone, sparsely vegetated zone and Barren land zone. As the aspect variant of the HBV-light is being used in this study so the vegetation zones (three) are assigned with the values of the North, south, and east/west fraction of the total area per elevation zone.

Input files for the HBV-light were prepared, potential evapotranspiration was found out using the Turc method. Parameterization and sensitivity analysis were performed and the hydrological model was calibrated and validated. After the calibration and validation the model was induced with the climate projections data of SMHI RCA4 CORDEX-SA and was used to simulate projected flows.

2.5 INPUT DATA FOR HBV-LIGHT

Precipitation, temperature, evapotranspiration, discharge, elevation zones, vegetation zones were used as an input data to drive the hydrological model (HBV-light) is as follows:

Precipitation, Temperature, and Discharge initially have the units meter, Kelvin, and meter respectively. To be used as an input data to the HBV-light model, the units of precipitation, temperature, and discharge have been converted into mm, °C, and mm respectively.

Evapotranspiration that was used as an input to the model was the potential or Reference evapotranspiration. Estimated reference evapotranspiration was found out using Turc method (Shreedhar et al., 2016), this method has different variations (Trajkovic and Stojnic, 2008). “The Turc equation is one of the most accurate empirical equations used to estimate evapotranspiration” (Trajkovic and Kolakovic, 2009). The measurements of mean air temperatures along-with solar radiation (solar radiation was initially in joule per square meter (j/m^2), and was converted to mega

joule per square meter (Mj/m²) are used in the following equation to estimate monthly evapotranspiration, which is as follows eq (2),

$$ET_o = 0.40 \left(\frac{T_{mean}}{T_{mean} + 15} \right) (R_s + 50) \quad (2) \quad (\text{Shreedhar et al., 2016})$$

Where

ET_o = Reference Evapotranspiration (mm/month), R_s = Solar radiation MJ/m², and T_{mean} = Average temperature

2.5.1 ELEVATION AND VEGETATION ZONES

Both sub basins (Sihala and Kani), are divided into four elevation zones and three vegetation zones. The area and elevations ranges, of elevation zones, and vegetation zones can be seen in appendix ii. Different vegetation zones were found using NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) and the fraction of area covered with water was assessed using NDWI (Normalized Difference Water Index). Three vegetation zones were defined, densely vegetated zone, sparsely vegetated zone and Barren land zone. Vegetation zones of the SSC and the KSC are presented in appendix ii.

In this study NDVI values less than 0.2 were considered barren land, water, rocks, 0.2–0.4 moderate vegetation and 0.4–0.8 dense vegetation, these threshold values differ slightly for example Daham et al. (2018) proposed NDVI values of 0 or less for snow, water, clouds, 0.1 or less for barren areas, and 0.3–0.6 for dense vegetation. In another study by Usman et al. (2015) NDVI values for barren areas, rocks, sands, 0.1–0.2 for soils, moderate vegetation 0.2–0.5, and for dense vegetation (forests) values of 0.6–0.9. Values below 0.2 were considered as bare soil and pixels with value above 0.5 were considered fully vegetated by Tang et al. (2015).

Following is a list of input files, and other settings of HBV light model to run the model along with the description.

2.5.2 PTQ FILE

PTQ file contains a daily time series of (precipitation (mm), temperature (°C), and discharge (mm) (Seibert, 2005) for the SSC and the KSC. The values of Sihala sub basin are considered as sub-catchment 1 and the Kani sub basin is the considered as the sub-catchment 2 (outlet sub-catchment).

2.5.3 EVAP FILE

EVAP file contains long term monthly mean values of reference evapotranspiration for both sub basins that have been calculated using Turc method.

2.5.4 TMEAN FILE

TMEAN file contains the long term monthly mean values of the whole basin, this file is optional though

2.5.5 CATCHMENT PROPERTIES

PCALT and TCALT are precipitation and temperature gradients. PCALT is change of precipitation with elevation and is given as %/100m, and it generally has values of 10, and TCALT is given in °C/100m with a general values 0.6. Elev of P and elev of T is also given the one value which is the mean value. Mean elevation of lake and area (fraction of the total area of the respective catchment), TT and SFCF which are threshold temperature and snow fall correction factor are assigned with the values for both the sub-catchments separately, and the absolute areas of sub-catchments (two in this study) is also assigned in km².

The four elevation zones are assigned with the mean elevation of individual zone. As the aspect variant of model is being used in this study so the vegetation zones (three) have been assigned the values of the North, south, and east/west fraction of the total area per elevation zone, details of which can be seen in appendix ix and x for the SSC and the KSC respectively. The sum area of each sub-catchment should be equal to 1 otherwise further proceeding into running the model will not occur, and number of decimal places while giving the fractional area of each aspect of each vegetation zone should be less so that no error occurs in equating the area to one.

2.6 HBV-LIGHT'S STRUCTURE AND PARAMETERS

The model simulates daily discharge using daily rainfall, temperature and potential evaporation as input. Physical and Process Parameters are two types of parameters, former represents the characteristics of watershed like the area of watershed etc., and later shows the characteristics that are not measurable directly like the depth of surface soil moisture storage, the effective lateral interflow rate, and so on. Parameters of HBV light are shown in Table. 2.3. Schematics of the HBV light

are presented in figure. 2.4, which includes the glacier routine of model as well, which is not employed in the present study, but a part of the HBV light. Precipitation is simulated to be either snow or rain depending on whether the temperature is above or below a threshold temperature, (TT). All precipitation simulated to be snow, i.e. falling when the temperature is bellow TT, is multiplied by a snowfall correction factor, SFCF. Snowmelt is calculated with the degree-day method. Meltwater and rainfall are retained within the snowpack until they exceeds certain fraction, water holding capacity (CWH), of the water equivalent of the snow. Liquid water within the snowpack refreezes. Rainfall and snowmelt (P) are divided into water filling the soil box and groundwater recharge depending on the relation between water content of the soil box (SM (mm)) and its largest value maximum soil moisture storage (FC (mm)).

Actual evaporation from the soil box equals the potential evaporation if SM/FC is above soil moisture value above which Actual Evapotranspiration (AET) reaches Potential Evapotranspiration (PET) which is (LP) while a linear reduction is used when SM/FC is below LP. Groundwater recharge is added to the upper groundwater box (SUZ (mm)). PERC (mm /day) defines the maximum percolation rate from the upper to the lower groundwater box (SLZ (mm)). Runoff from the groundwater boxes is computed as the sum of two or three linear outflow equations depending on whether SUZ is above a threshold value, UZL (mm), or not.

This runoff is finally transformed by a triangular weighting function defined by the parameter length of triangular weighting function (MAXBAS) to give the simulated runoff (mm /day). If different elevation zones are used, precipitation and temperature changes with elevation are calculated using the two parameters change of precipitation with elevation (PCALT) and change of temperature with elevation (TCALT) (Jan Seibert, 2005).

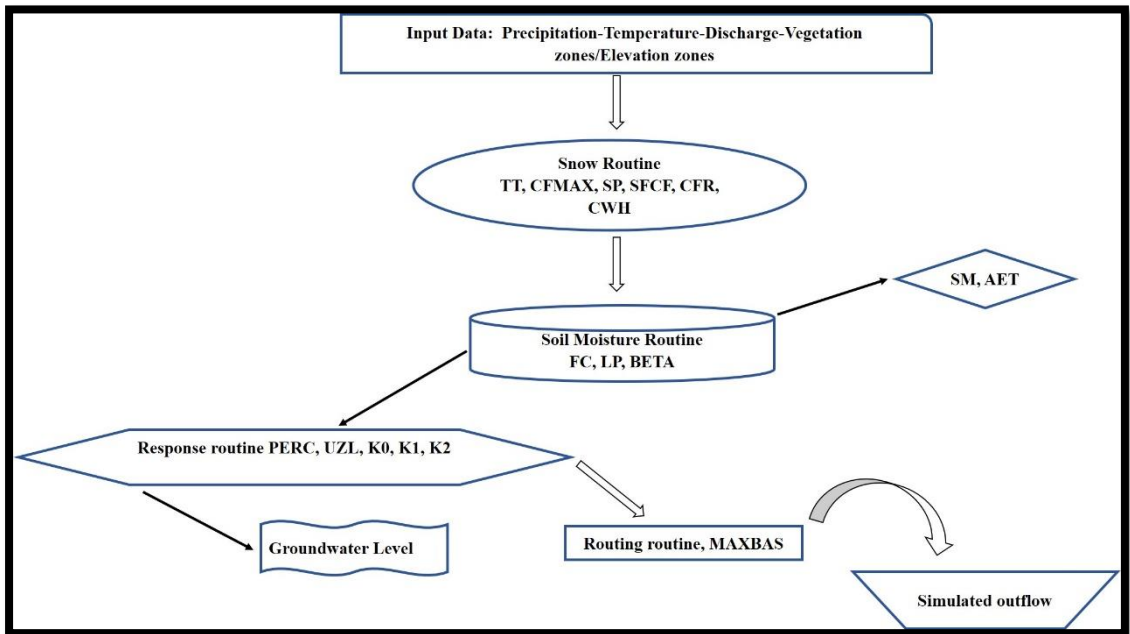


Figure. 2.4. Schematics of the HBV-light with different model routines

Table 2.3. HBV light's model setting and parameters of all the four model routines (used in this study) along-with their units and ranges.

Model settings and Routines	Model Parameters with units	Ranges	
		Used Range	Valid Range
Catchment Properties	TT (°C)	-2 – 12	-Infinity – Infinity
	SFCF (-)	0 – 10	0 – Infinity
	PCALT (%/100 m)	5 – 20	-Infinity – Infinity)
	TCALT (%/100 m)	0.4 – 0.8	Infinity – Infinity
	Elevation of P (m)	500	-Infinity – Infinity
	Elevation of T (m)	500	-Infinity – Infinity
Snow Routine	TT (°C)	-2 – 12	- Infinity – Infinity
	CFMAX (mm/day°C)	0 – 2	0 – Infinity
	SP (-)	0 – 5	0 – 1
	SFCF (-)	0 – 2	0 – Infinity
	CFR (-)	0 – 5	0 – Infinity
	CWH (-)	0 – 0.5	0 – Infinity
	CFSlope (-)	0 – 1	0 – Infinity
Soil Moisture Routine	FC (mm)	50 – 600	0 – Infinity
	LP (-)	0 – 1	0 – 1
	BETA (-)	0.1 – 10	0 – Infinity
Response Routine	PERC (mm/d)	0 – 4	0 – Infinity
	UZL (mm)	10 – 75	0 – Infinity
	K0 (1/d)	0 – 0.8	0 – 1
	K1 (1/d)	0 – 0.6	0 – 1
	K2 (1/d)	0.01 – 0.3	0 – 1
Routing Routine	MAXBAS (d)	5 – 20	1– 100
Other	Cet (1/°C)	0 – 0.3	0 – 1

2.7 PARAMETERIZATION AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

The determination of contributions of individual inputs to the uncertainty of the model output is referred to as the sensitivity analysis, and execution of sensitivity

analysis is precious tool for identification of optimum model parameters (Song et al., 2012; Khatun et al., 2018; Bahremand and Smedt, 2008)

Identification of the parameters that are sensitive to simulated outflow is a vital step before the calibration and validation of a hydrological model (Wijngaard, 2014). HBV light has number of parameters which are adjusted accordingly to reach the maximum objective function which is also the co-efficient of determination; some parameters show more sensitivity than others upon variation. The sensitivity of all the parameters is checked using manual and automated methods (Khatun et al., 2018; Bahremand and Smedt, 2008).

With manual parameterization, over parameterization or unrealistic parameterization could occur. This is the case where the perfect goodness of fit measure could be achieved but some or most of the interpretation of parameter values is beyond justification. So, to cope with this uncertainty manual calibration should be done along with the automatic calibration. In this study manual method of hit and trial has been used in conjunction with the automatic calibration (explained below in section 2.8.1). Parameters of Snow routine (TT, CFMAX, SFCF.), Soil moisture routine (FC, LP, BETA), response routine (PERC, UZL, K0, K1, K2) and routing routine (MAXBAS, CET), along with gradient parameters (PCALT and TCALT) of Sihala sub-catchment were selected for sensitivity analysis. Remaining parameters (SP, CFR, CWH, and CFSLOPE) were found out to be relatively insensitive to the model output.

2.8 CALIBRATION AND VALIDATION OF HBV-LIGHT

Calibration is the estimation of the model parameters that enables the model to closely match the behavior of the real system. Calibration is an inescapable stage of any model before its application. It is the mechanism of approximating model parameter values to enable a hydrologic model to closely match observations like discharge. Conventionally manual trial and error method had been used to calibrate the rainfall-runoff models, such as the HBV, where parameterization is done to attain an adequate fit between observed and simulated time series (Dicam and Szolgay, 2010).

The calibration can be performed by two different alternatives: the manual calibration and automatic calibration.. The technique used for assigning parameter values, which must precede so any practical application, is called parameters (or models) calibration, model parameterization, parameters (or model) optimization. Usually, the calibration is carried out by searching the parameter values that maximize the reliability of the simulation made by the model. Monte-Carlo random sampling is time and resource consuming. (Kumarasamy and Belmont, 2018; Lawrence et al., 2009; Dicam and Szolgay, 2010).

The record of daily discharge data that inhibit various hydrological characteristics is essential for calibration and validation of the HBV model with better accuracy. In hydrological models, to simulate larger future datasets longer calibration periods are advantageous. (Al-Safi and Sarukkalige, 2017).

The time period 1984-2008 is selected as the time period for calibration for both the SSC and the KSC, while the time period 2009-2017 is designated for validation. Five years from 1979-1983 have been used for warming up period. Automatic calibration of the model can be performed by the following ways;

2.8.1 AUTOMATIC CALIBRATION

Automatic calibration can be done in various ways, but the following are adopted most of the times.

a) MONTE CARLO RUNS

In the Monte Carlo simulation if there are more than one sub catchment (as in this case there are two sub catchments) the weightage for different objective functions for different sub catchments could be used. Objective function is the goodness of fit measure and if there is only sub catchment then only one objective function (e.g. Reff) could be used with its weight as 1 or multiple objective functions could be used but sum of the weights of all the objective functions should have to be 1.

If there are multiple sub catchments but one doesn't want to split the weight of the objective function (whether one or multiple are selected) into all the sub catchments then the objective function of the outlet could be used.

If the objective function of the outlet is used the results that Monte Carlo simulation will generate will be stored in the Results folder of as Multi.txt (in case, there is only one sub catchment) or Multi_SubCatchment_i.txt (in case there are more sub catchments, with i the index of the sub catchment). The parameters generated in this file will be effective for calibrating multiple sub catchments, but if the weight of the objective function has been divided into multiple sub catchments like the weight 1 is given to sub catchment 1 and 0 to other sub catchment then the resulted parameters would only be effective for calibration of sub catchment 1, they won't give the same model efficiency for other sub catchments as for the sub catchment 1.

If multiple vegetation zones are selected, parameter value for each zone must be chosen, whether it should compute by random only (R) or whether its value should be equal for all zones (=), increase from zone 1 to 3 (<), or decrease (>) (Seibert, 2005).

b) GAP OPTIMIZATION

With the genetic calibration algorithm, optimized parameter sets are found by an evolution of parameter sets using selection and recombination. No of population is especially important for this type of automatic calibration. The more the no of populations are selected the more combination sets of different parameters are considered by the model while running, hence increasing the probability of higher goodness of fit measures and the fitness of each set is evaluated against an objective function.

In the population settings along with the no of population there is another option of parameter sets that is equally important in reaching the goal of perfect goodness of fit. So if the parameter set is set to 50 and no of population is 2 and the no of model runs elected is 1000, so for each population the model will run 50 parameter sets and try to determine the perfect goodness of fit measure. So in this case no of model runs will be 2000 (50 for each population until it reaches 1000).

2.9 MODEL EVALUATION CRITERIA

Different criteria can be used to assess the fit of simulated runoff to observed runoff:

- a) Visual inspection of plots with Q_{sim} and Q_{obs}
- b) Accumulated difference
- c) Statistical criteria

Lumped metrics such as Nash Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE), is used to evaluate the model performance (efficiency) and in the HBV-light model, the NSE is also refers to as R_{eff} (Model efficiency), and is described by the following eq (3),

$$1 - \frac{\sum(Q_{obs} - Q_{sim})^2}{\sum(Q_{obs} - \overline{Q_{obs}})^2} \quad (3) \quad (\text{Seibert, 2005})$$

Another objective function that is used to measure the efficiency of the HBV-light is the coefficient of determination (R^2), which is represented by following eq (4),

$$\frac{(\sum(Q_{obs} - \overline{Q_{obs}})(Q_{sim} - \overline{Q_{sim}}))^2}{\sum(Q_{obs} - \overline{Q_{obs}})^2 \sum(Q_{sim} - \overline{Q_{sim}})^2} \quad (4) \quad (\text{Seibert, 2005})$$

Mean difference is another way of determining the model efficiency, it tells the difference in mm/year between the observed flow and the simulated flows. It is described by following eq (5),

$$\frac{\sum(Q_{obs} - Q_{sim})}{n} \quad 365 \quad (5) \quad (\text{Seibert, 2005})$$

Alongside the above mentioned criterion, another criteria that stands out in evaluation the efficiency of model is the Volume error is described in eq (6) as,

$$1 - \frac{|\sum(Q_{obs} - Q_{sim})|}{\sum Q_{obs}} \quad (6) \quad (\text{Seibert, 2005})$$

Where Q_{obs} is the observed flow and Q_{sim} is the simulated flow.

These metrics provide an averaged measure of error and are intentionally biased towards large magnitude flows. (NSE) is slightly better than (R^2) for many model applications as it is sensitive to the observed and model simulated means and variances (Kumarasamy and Belmont, 2018). HBV light has other goodness of fit measures as well beside (NSE) and (R^2), like mean difference and volume error and the weightage for other goodness of fit measures is also incorporated.

2.10 WATER BALANCE COMPONENTS

Water balance components determine the inflow to the basin, processes occurring within the basin e.g. (evaporation), and finally the outflow of the river basin. The precipitation, evaporation, and discharge are the major water balance components, and the detailed water balance equation is as follows eq (7),

$$P - E - Q = \frac{d}{dt} [SP + SM + UZ + LZ + lakes] \quad (7) \quad (\text{Hirshfeld, 2010; WMO, 2009})$$

Where P is Precipitation, E is Evaporation, Q is Discharge, SP is Snowpack, SM is Soil moisture, UZ is upper groundwater zone, LZ is lower groundwater zone, $lakes$ is lake volume

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 PARAMETERIZATION AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Results for sensitivity and parameterization analysis are presented in this section. Two types of parameters; Catchment parameters (which include the response routine parameters, routing routine parameters and gradient parameters) and vegetation zone parameters (which includes snow routine parameters and soil moisture routine parameters) are there, and the results are described in the following sequence;

- a) Catchment parameters
- b) Vegetation zone parameters

3.2 CATCHMENT PARAMETERS

Results of sensitivity analysis of the routines and parameters of catchment properties of the HBV-light are described in section below.

3.2.1 RUNOFF RESPONSE ROUTINE PARAMETERS

Lower PERC values consequently produce higher flow. The reason being with lower values of percolation, the high precipitation that occurs in spring and summer season converts into surface runoff. As a result contribution from the upper groundwater box to the lower groundwater storage is not significant, and the high values of discharge could be observed. Similarly, high PERC values tend to contribute more towards groundwater storage and less discharge is observed as seen in Fig. 3.1.

In figure 3.1, it could be observed that the lower values of UZL showed high discharge values, while high values of UZL has produced low flows. It means that when UZL which is a threshold parameter, has low values, insignificant contribution to the lower groundwater zone from the upper zone is observed, which produce high

flows. Similarly, the high UZL value has produced low flows, because higher UZL flows result in high amounts of groundwater storage.

As seen in figure 3.1, high values of recession co-efficient (K0) produced highly flows and lower values of K0 resulted in low flows, this happened because the with high K0 values the groundwater zone has low potential of water storage, hence upper zone has more amount, resulting in high flows. Low values on K0, on the other hand tend to make lower groundwater zone to have more water and low values of model output flows could be observed. The recession co-efficient K1 also shows the same behaviour in figure 3.1, but the higher values of K1 has yielded higher amounts of flows than in the case of K0, the behaviour of recession co-efficient (K2) also falls in line with the trend of K0, and K1, but in the case of large values of K2, the highly simulated flows are lower than K0 and K1. Another thing in the case of K2 could be seen in figure 3.1, is that, upon smaller values the water in the groundwater box is a bit higher than K0 and K1.

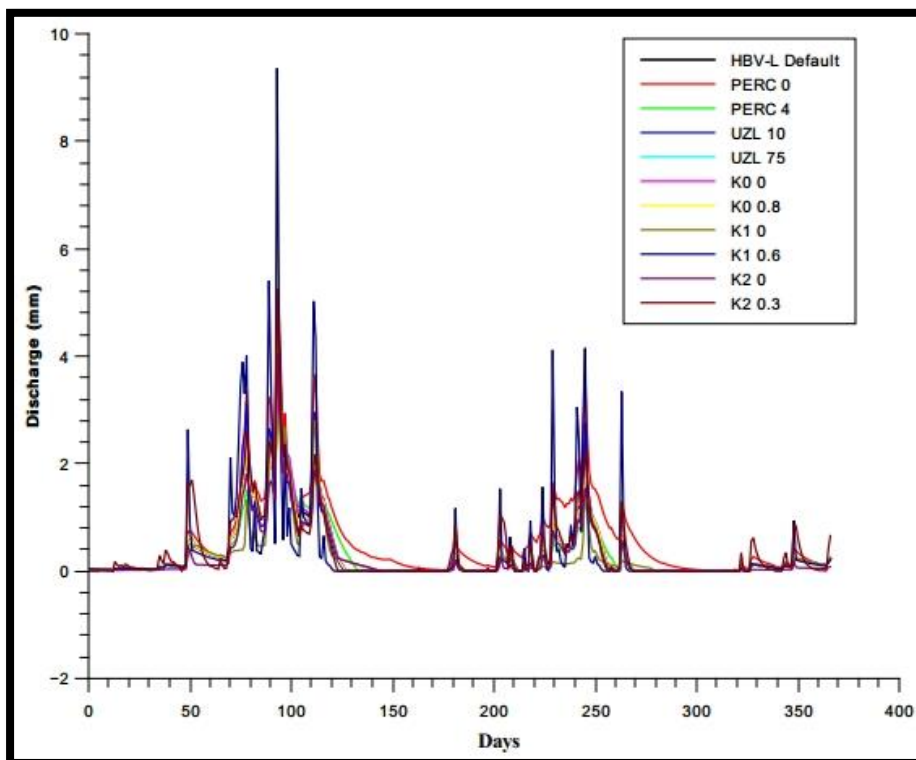


Figure 3.1. Sensitivity analysis of the parameters of response routine of HBV- light model.

3.2.2 ROUTING ROUTINE PARAMETERS

With the lower values of MAXBAS, as illustrated in figure 3.2, it could be seen that the peaks have occurred earlier and are considerably high. With high values of MAXBAS, triangulated flow has been given more time and peaks have become gentle and their occurrence has shifted forward. As long as CET is concerned, it could be seen in the figure 3.2, that the large values of CET have produced high flows in the early spring season and small values of CET have produced the high flows, but these high flows are smaller than the one produced with large CET values.

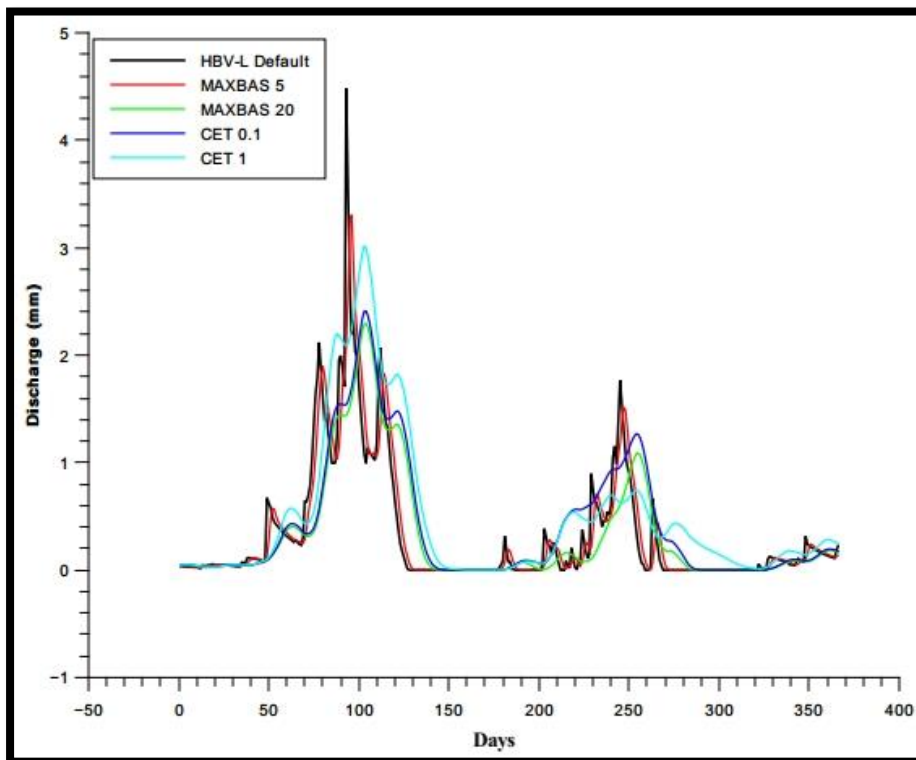


Figure 3.2. Sensitivity analysis of the parameters of routing routine of HBV- light model.

3.2.3 GRADIENT PARAMETERS

Larger values of PCALT as indicated in figure 3.3, have shown a significant increase in the amount of simulated discharge in the spring and summer season, which means with increasing PCALT the precipitation is increasing and hence producing high flows, while the smaller values of PCALT tends to refer to decrease precipitation and have shown the lower flows consequently.

Sensitivity analysis of TCALT has been shown in Fig. 3.3. Although throughout the year, larger and smaller values of TCALT have resulted in an increase in the discharge in the spring season and a slight increase in late summer season as well. Both small and large values of TCALT have somehow resulted in the similar simulated discharge with an exception, which is the large values of TCALT have shown a slightly increased simulated discharge in the late spring season, while the lower values of TCALT have shown negligible discharge in the same time period.

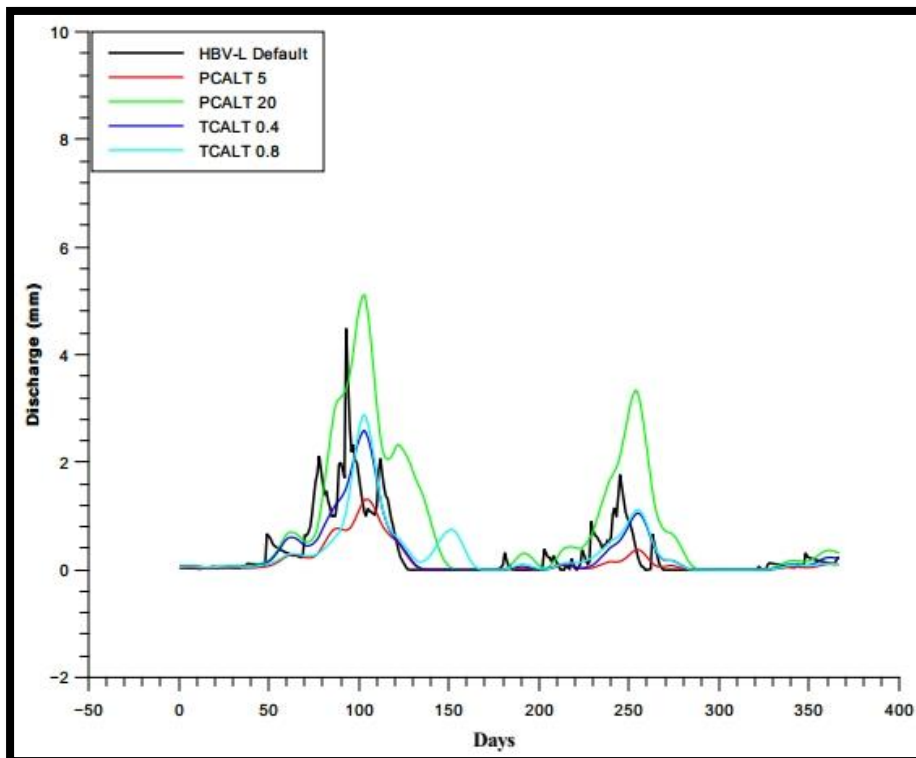


Figure 3.3. Sensitivity analysis of the gradient parameters of HBV- light model.

3.3 VEGETATION ZONE PARAMETERS

3.3.1 SNOW ROUTINE PARAMETERS

TT is one of the most important parameters, variation in the values of TT could have a drastic effect of model output (simulated discharge). In this case, the higher values of TT have led to an increased amount of simulated discharge, as observed in Fig 3.4. It could be seen that, in the later spring season, and the summer seasons the discharge is comprehensively high, as compared with the lower values of TT in the same time of year. In the later summer and early autumn seasons, high

flows associated with large values of TT could be observed, an interesting thing that happened is that, even the low values of TT have produced a reasonable flow in this time of the year, although when higher TT values shows higher flows in late spring and mid-summer, the flows simulated with lower TT value were negligible. In the late winter and early spring seasons, higher flows associated with lower values of TT could be observed, while higher TT values have yield negligible flows.

As shown in figure 3.4, lower CFMAX values showed higher discharge in early spring, and mid to late summer, while the high values of CFMAX showed an increase in the simulated discharge in the said period, but these increased flows are not even near to those which were produced as a result of low CFMAX values, generally high CFMAX values have produced low flows and lower CFMAX values have shown high flows.

Generally, lower SFCF values have produced negligible amount of simulated discharge, as depicted in figure 3.4, large values of SFCF have led to an increase simulated discharge in the early to mid spring season, and throughout the rest of the time flows have been negligible as well with the large values of SFCF.

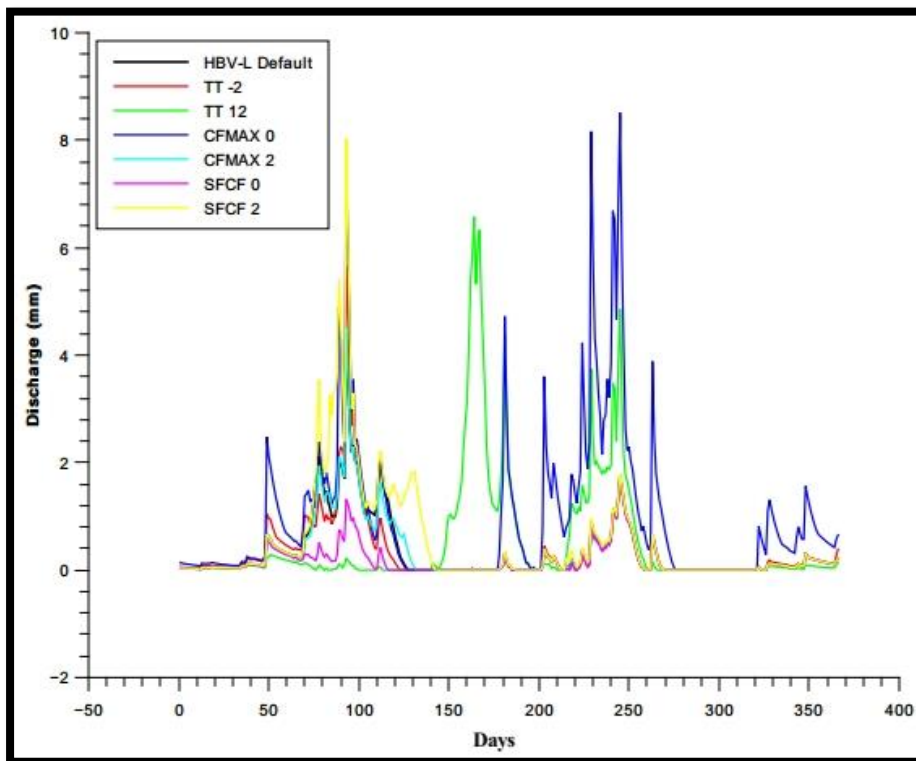


Figure 3.4. Sensitivity analysis of the parameters of snow routine of HBV- light model.

3.3.2 SOIL MOISTURE ROUTINE PARAMETERES

Smaller FC values are associated with the high flows, as it could be seen in the figure 3.5, the reason being the less FC means the water stored in the soil water zone is not much, hence not a significant amount of evapotranspiration could take place, consequently producing high flows. Peaks of simulated discharge could be observed in the early spring time with lower FC values, while for the same period of time the large values of FC have also shown an increased discharge, but this discharge is not as much as the one produced with smaller FC values. Generally, higher FC values have shown a very reduced amount of simulated discharge throughout the year.

Large values of LP have resulted in the enhanced simulated discharge in the early spring season, which is not very evident for the rest of the year. As illustrated in figure 3.5, small values of LP on the other hand have shown the same behaviour, except the high flows produced with smaller LP values were not as high as produced with the larger values of LP.

It could be observed in figure 3.5, the smaller BETA values have shown an increased amount of simulated discharge in the early spring, and mid to late summer, meanwhile the higher values of BETA have produced negligible amount of simulated discharge in the said period and generally throughout the year as well.

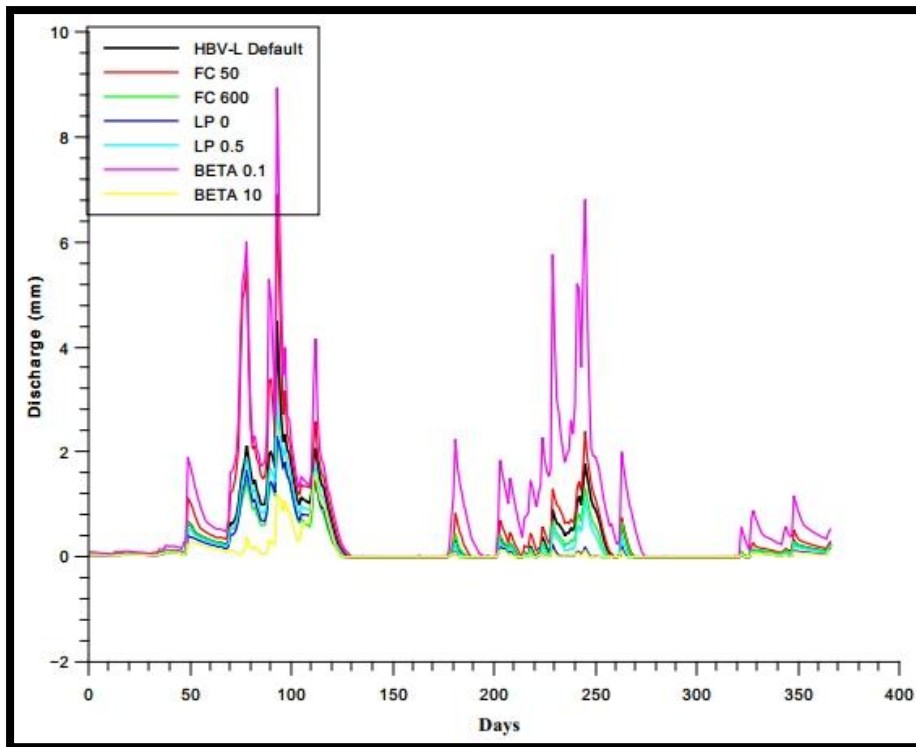


Figure 3.5. Sensitivity analysis of the parameters of soil moisture routine of HBV- light model.

3.4 PARAMETERIZATION, CALIBRATION AND VALIDATION

Results obtained during parameterization process, and use for calibration and validation of the HBV-light are presented in the following section.

3.4.1 OPTIMUM PARAMETERS FOR CALIBRATION

The optimum parameters of three different vegetation zones, lake properties and four model routines that were found out during parameterization, and used for the calibration and validation of HBV-light model for the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments are shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Optimum parameters selected to calibrate the model

1* = Dense vegetation zone, 2* = Moderate vegetation zone, and 3* = barren land, water, rocks zone
Elevation of P* and Elevation of T* is taken as the elevation value of grid point of data, for the respective sub-catchment

Lake Properties						
TT	7			1		
SFCF	2.8			4		
PCALT	9			15		
TCALT	0.58			0.61		
Elevation of P*	530			500		
Elevation of T*	530			500		
Sihala Sub-catchment Vegetation zone				Kani Sub-catchment Vegetation zone		
	1*	2*	3*	1*	2*	3*
Snow Routine						
TT	5	8	1	11.3	0	1
CFMAX	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
SP	0.01	0.01	0.01	1	1	1
SFCF	1E-05	1E-05	1E-05	1E-07	2E-06	6E-05
CFR	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
CWH	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
CFSlope		1	1	1	1	1
Soil Moisture Routine						
FC	180	140	100	300	260	200
LP	1	1	1	1	1	1
BETA	0.73	0.25	0.01	0.46	0.25	0.05
Response Routine						
PERC	0.02			0.03		
UZL	57			45		
K0	0.58			0.52		
K1	0.065			0.038		
K2	0.05			0.037		
Routing Routine						
MAXBAS	3.4			2.8		
Other						
Cet	0.13			0.15		

3.4.2 WATER BALANCE COMPONENTS RESULTING FROM CALIBRATION AND VALIDATION OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB-CATCHMENT

Different water balance components like, sum of simulated discharge, observed discharge, precipitation, Actual evapotranspiration, Potential evapotranspiration, and contribution of Q0 (Surface flow), Q1 (inter flow), and Q2 (base flow), that have emerged as a result of Calibration and validation for Sihala and Kani sub-catchments are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Water balance of the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments as a result of Calibration and validation

Sihala sub-catchment	Calibration	Validation
Water Balance	mm/year	mm/year
Sum Qsim	230	192
Sum Qobs	244	178
Sum Precipitation	508	462
Sum AET	310	301
Sum PET	2345	2372
Contribution of Q0	0.053	0.009
Contribution of Q1	0.78	0.825
Contribution of Q2	0.17	0.166
Kani sub-catchment	Calibration	Validation
Water Balance	mm/year	mm/year
Sum Qsim	170	162
Sum Qobs	160	131
Sum Precipitation	408	406
Sum AET	182	185
Sum PET	3767	3828
Contribution of Q0	0.054	0.013
Contribution of Q1	0.889	0.930
Contribution of Q2	0.058	0.057

Where, Qsim = model simulated flow, Qobs = observed flow, AET = actual evapotranspiration, PET = potential evapotranspiration, Q0 = Surface flow, Q1 = Inter flow, and Q2 = Base flow.

3.4.3 CALIBRATION AND VALIDATION RESULTS OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB-CATCHMENT

Observed and simulated discharge resulted from calibration and validation of the SSC and the KSC is presented in Fig. 3.6. The HBV-light has found out to be efficient both during calibration and validation of the two sub-catchments of the SRB.

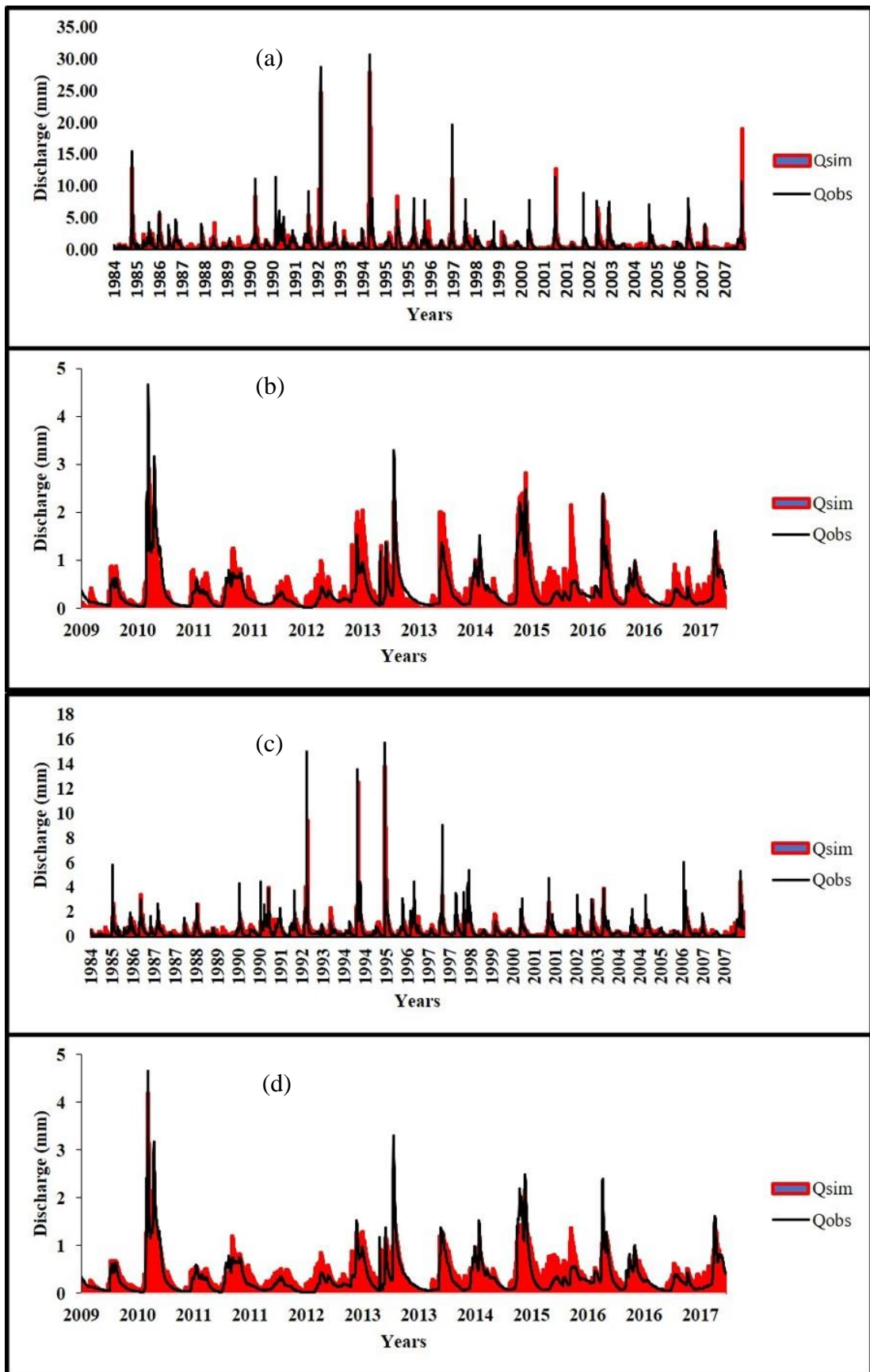


Figure 3.6. Calibration and Validation results for Sihala and Kani Sub-catchment (a) Calibration of Sihala sub-catchment (b) Validation of Sihala sub-catchment (c) Calibration of kani sub-catchment (d) Validation of Kani sub-catchment

3.4.4 CALIBRATION PERIODS WITH DIFFERENT GOODNESS OF FIT MEASURE VALUES

The Nash Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) is a measure of goodness-of-fit and is independent of the flow magnitude. It ranges from - infinity to 1 and one being the perfect fit (Zhang et al., 2013; Mostafaie et al., 2018), the NSE tends to accentuate the high discharges (Huo and Liu, 2018). The NSE also measures the capability of the model to predict variables that differs from the mean and provides the proportion of the initial variance accounted for by the model (Javan et al., 2015).

NSE for calibration of sihala sub-catchment scored a value of NSE = 0.75, while kani sub-catchment scored values of NSE = 0.72, which are considered as good and very good. Asl-Rousta and Mousavi. (2019), Pluntke et al. (2014), and Asl-Rousta et al. (2018) suggests NS > 0.65 as good and NS> 0.75 as very good. NS> 0.7 have been considered good by Lawrence et al., 2009. The values of volume error have a perfect fit that equals 1.

Different objective functions with their relative values for calibration and validation for Sihala sub-catchment and kani sub-catchment are illustrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Goodness of fit measures for Calibration and validation of the Sihala and the Kani sub-catchments

		NSE	R²	Mean Difference (mm)	Volume Error (%)
Sihala sub-catchment	Calibration	0.75	0.75	13.36	0.95
	Validation	0.72	0.72	-14.39	0.92
Kani sub-catchment	Calibration	0.72	0.73	-10.27	0.94
	Validation	0.72	0.76	-31.46	0.76

3.5 PROJECTED CHANGES IN YEARLY DISCHARGE OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Projected changes in the discharge of the SSC and the KSC under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 on the yearly basis are shown in the Fig 3.7. The discharge of the

SSC and the KSC is projected to show the positive change of direction (increase) and the magnitude of positive change is more significant under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario than the RCP 4.5 emission scenario. On yearly basis the increase in discharge may be attributed to the increased projected precipitation, evapotranspiration and the temperatures. The increase in precipitation tends to outweigh the increase in evapotranspiration, hence attributing towards the high flow projections. Another noticeable difference is that the magnitude of increase is stronger in the SSC than the KSC, that may be attributed to different physical, geographical and topographical characteristics of the two respective sub-catchments. An average yearly increase of 467% and 593% is projected for the SSC under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios. While a mean yearly increase of 270% and 316% is projected under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios for the KSC.

For the SSC, discharge under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario is seen to be between 1000 and 2000 mm for 12 years, 200-1000 mm for 18 years. While 19 years showed the discharge to be between 1000 and 3300 mm a year, and less than 1000 mm for the rest of the 11 years, under RCP 8.5 emission scenario. Discharge in the baseline period of the SSC was like this, 16 years showed the discharge to be between 200-450 mm, while 23 years showed that the flows remained between 60-250 mm a year.

For the KSC the discharge is projected to be between 100 and 400 mm for 13 years, and 400-820 mm for 17 years under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario, however 19 years showed the discharge to be between 400 to 1500 mm a year, and less than 400 mm for rest of the 11 years, under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario. To have a better view of how the projected changes differ from the observed period, it is important to give here the values of discharge for the observed period as well. So, out of 39 years in the baseline period, 31 years showed the discharge to be between 30-180 mm, while 8 years showed that the flows remained between 220-280 mm a year

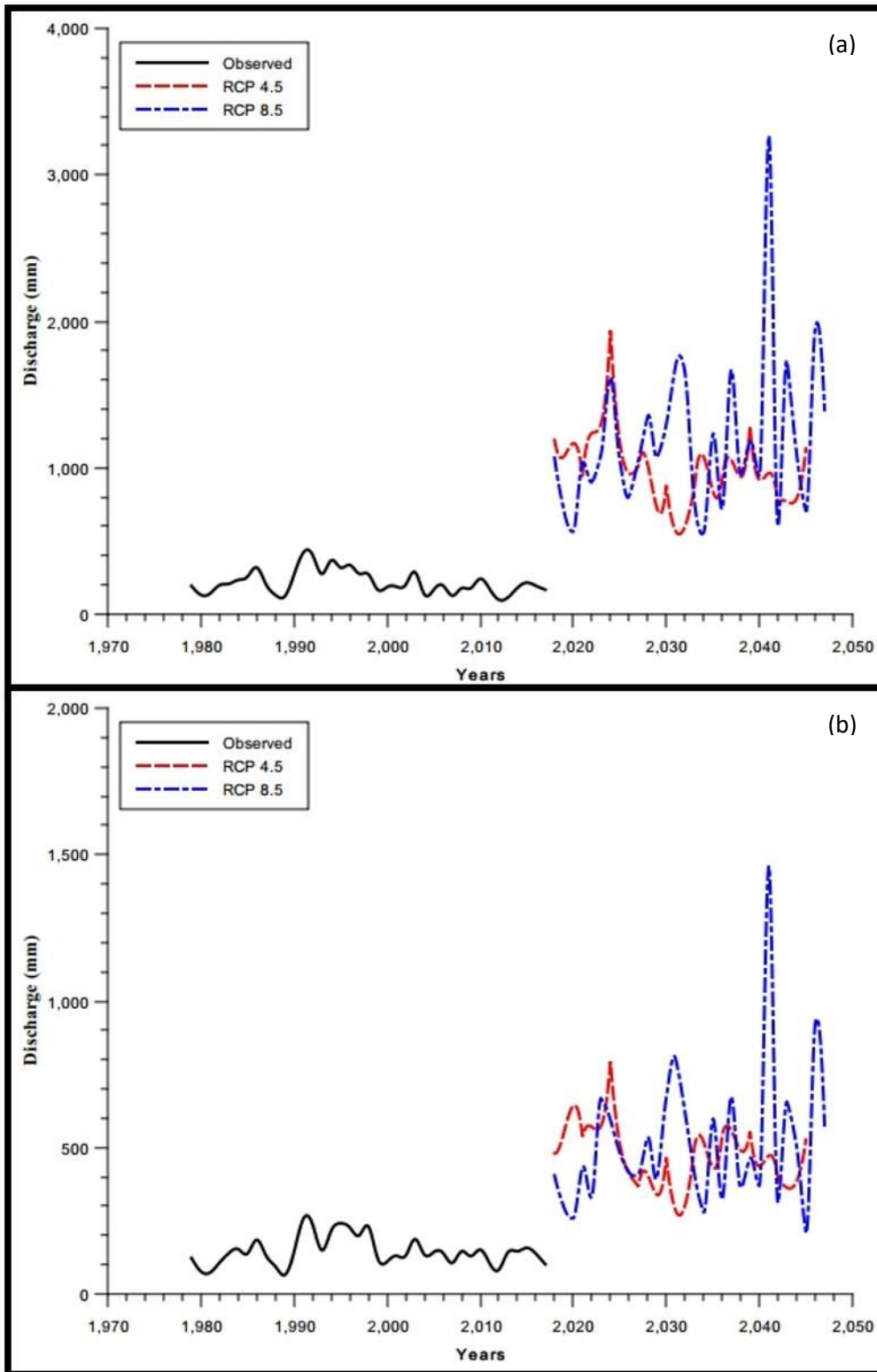


Figure 3.7. Projected changes in yearly discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.6 PROJECTED CHANGES IN YEARLY PRECIPITATION OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Precipitation tends to show an increase under both emission scenarios the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the SSC and the KSC, as illustrated in figure 3.8. An average yearly increase of 206 % and 241 % is projected under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenario for the SSC, respectively. However the projected increase in the KSC is not as strong in magnitude as the SSC has exhibited, with an average yearly increase of 108 % and 126 % under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios, respectively.

Under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario 23 years out of 30 years projects that the precipitation is projected to vary between (1100-2300 mm), 7 years showed less 1000 mm a year. While under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario 27 years showed that the precipitation seems to vary between (1000-3000 mm), and 3 years showed the precipitation to be less than 1000 mm, so the highest increase is projected under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario.

The yearly precipitation of the KSC is projected to increase under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 emission scenarios except with a decrease in precipitation under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario in the year 2033. Six years out of projected 30 years, under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario showed that the precipitation seem to vary between (1000-1300 mm), and 24 years showed that the precipitation seem to be less than 1000 mm. Under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario precipitation in 22 years is projected to be less than 1000 mm and for 8 years it seems to be between 1000-2000 mm.

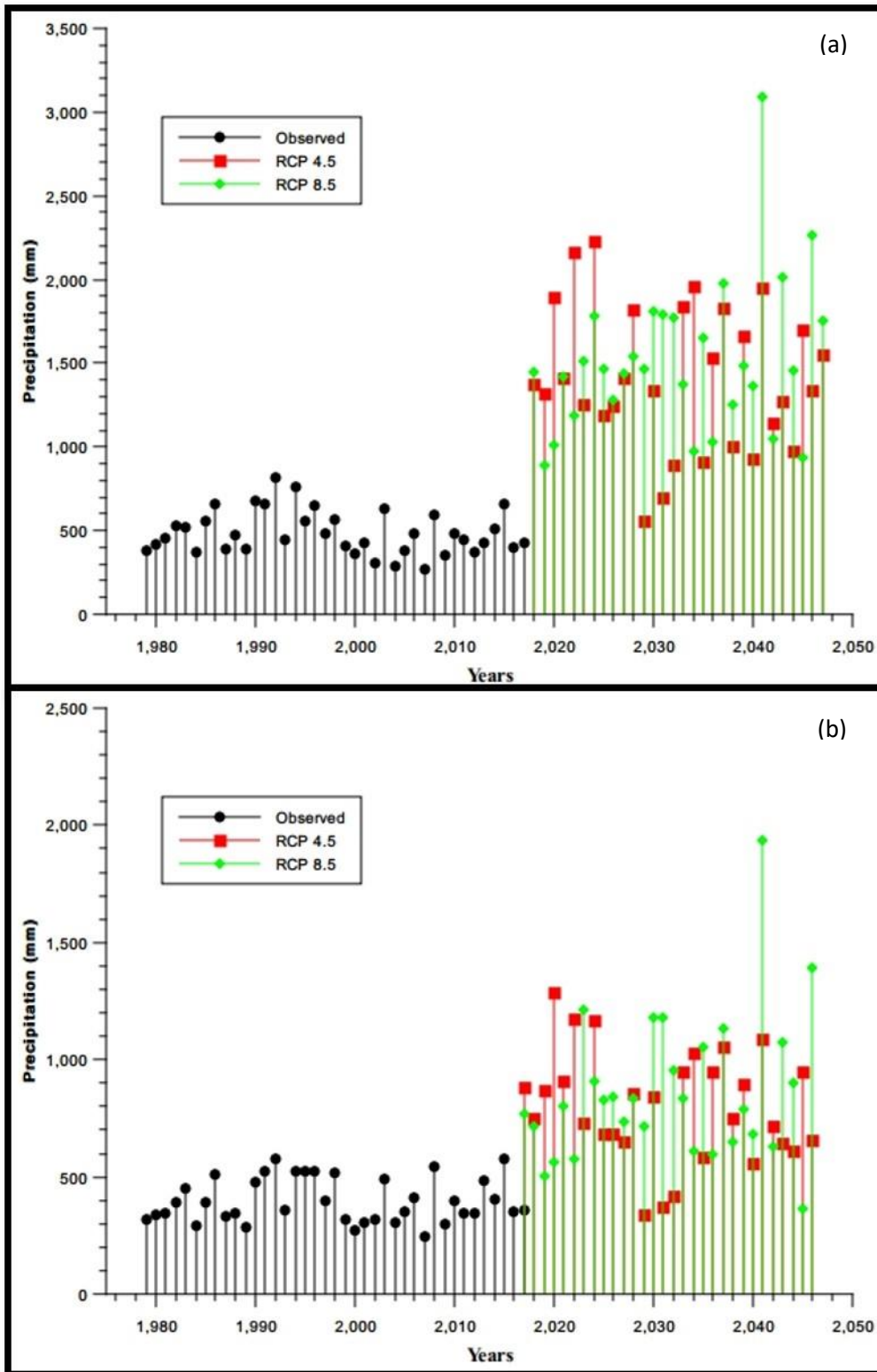


Figure 3.8. Projected changes in yearly precipitation of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.7 PROJECTED CHANGES IN YEARLY EVAPOTRANSPIRATION OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Evapotranspiration is seen to increasing as well under both the emission scenarios for both the sub-catchments of the SRB. The magnitude of change in evapotranspiration of the KSC is stronger than the SSC under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios.

In the SSC, evapotranspiration is projected to be 121 mm/year and 129 mm/year, which is an increase of around 31 % and 31.5 % on average under the RCP 4.5, and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios, respectively Fig. 3.9

Projected changes in yearly evapotranspiration of the KSC suggests that evapotranspiration seems to be 139 mm per year under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios, respectively, as compared to baseline period values of 107 mm per year.

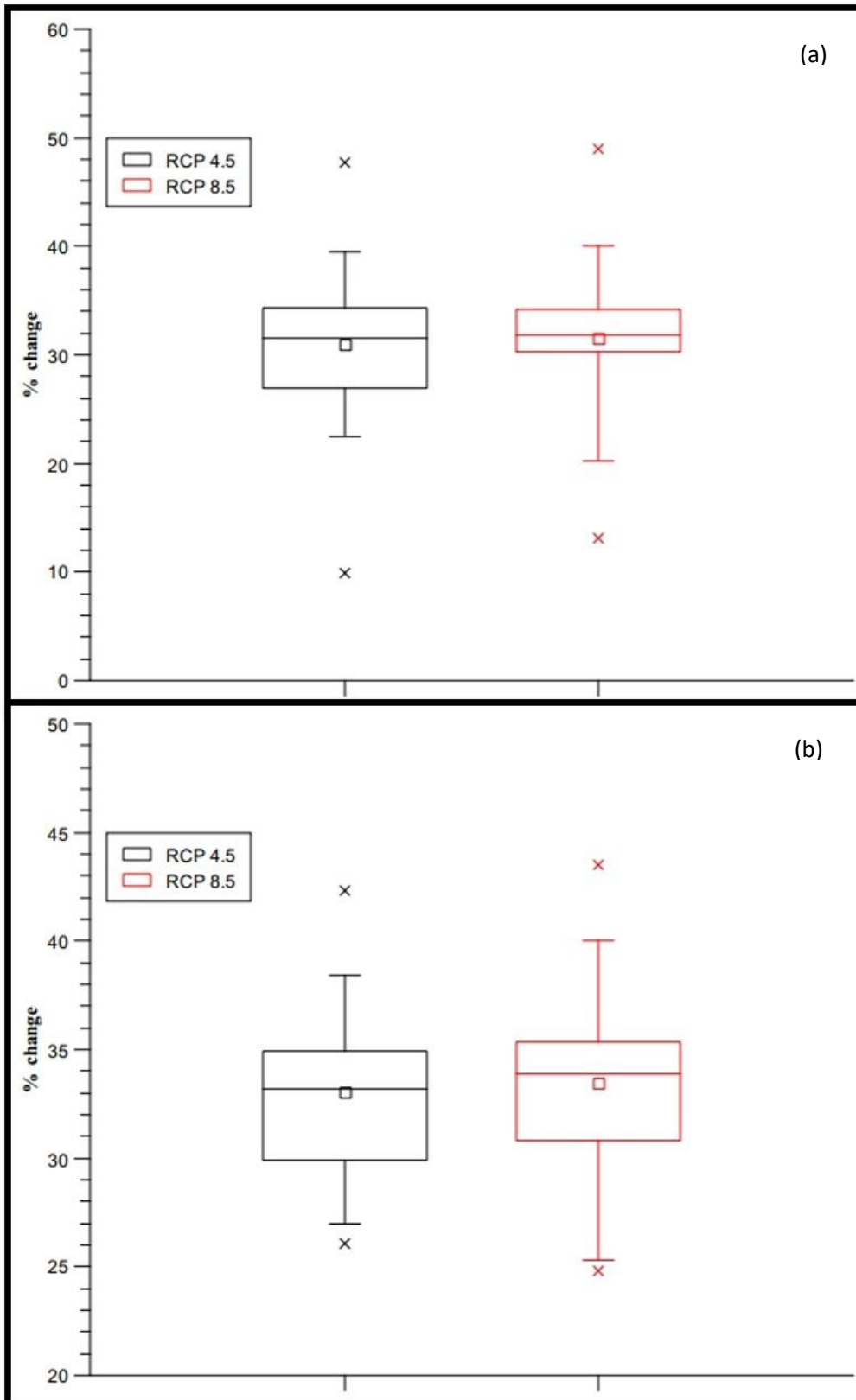


Figure 3.9. Percent changes in yearly evapotranspiration of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.8 PROJECTED CHANGES IN YEARLY TEMPERATURES OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Temperatures also tends to increase under both the emission scenarios for both the sub-catchments of the SRB. In the SSC, temperatures are projected to be 20 °C and 22 °C, under the RCP 4.5, and the RCP 8.5 emission scenarios, respectively, as compared to 17 °C in observed period, as illustrated in Fig. 3.10. Higher temperatures could also be observed in the future time period of the KSC. Mean annual temperatures seems to have same value under both the RCPs. In the observed time period, mean annual temperature was 13 °C and is projected to be 22 °C under the RCP 4.5, RCP 8.5 emission scenario respectively.

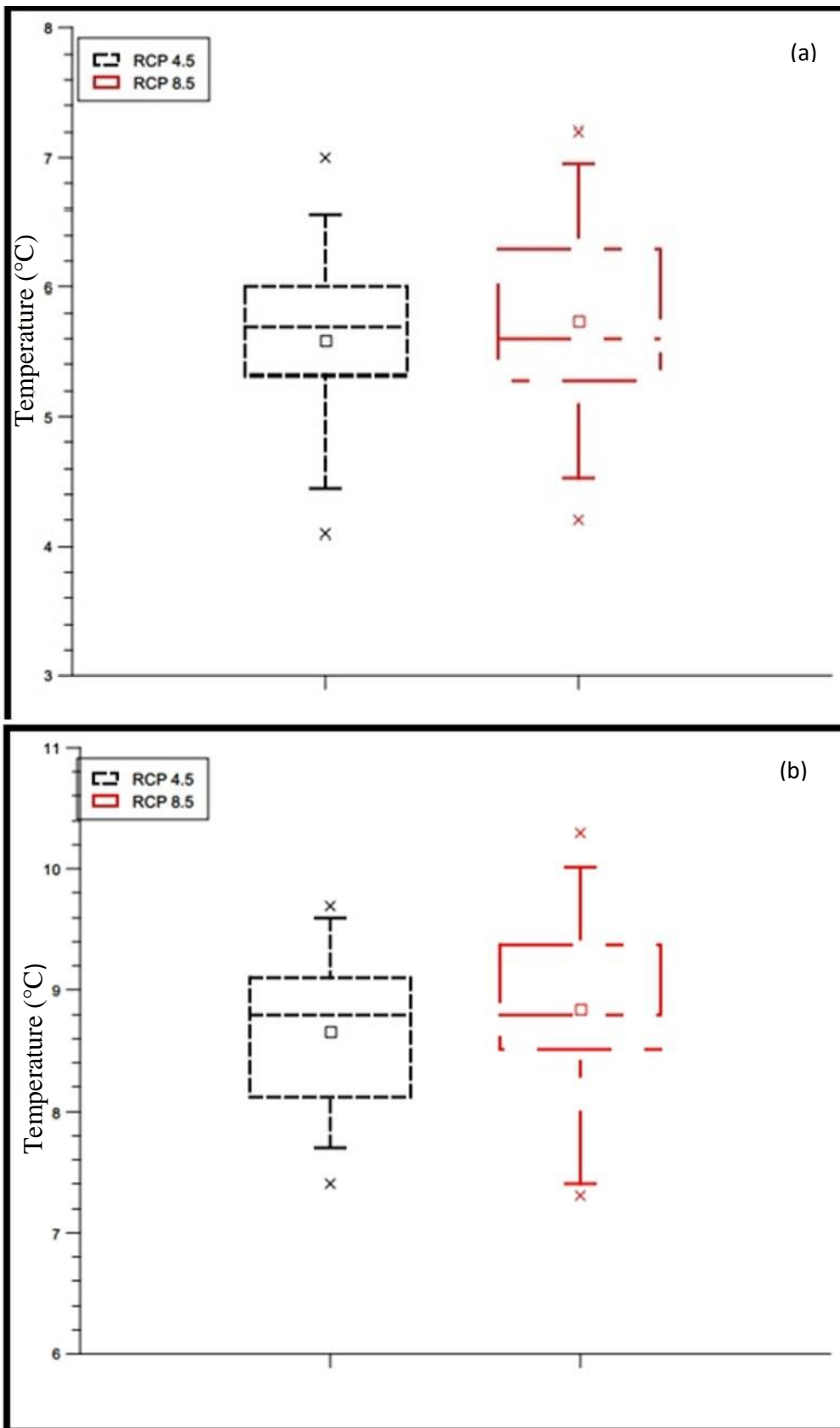


Figure 3.10. Projected changes in yearly temperature of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.9 PROJECTED CHANGES IN MONTHLY DISCHARGE OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

The discharge, whether it is going to increase or decrease depends on the variations in the other water balance components e.g. precipitation, evapotranspiration, temperature. At higher temperatures water holding capacity in the atmosphere increase, hence increase in rainfall may occur, and with the high rainfall amounts an increase in the discharges is expected (as precipitation is the sole inflow source to the study catchments, the major driver of changes in discharge is precipitation). Projected increase in the future precipitation overweighs the increase in evapotranspiration, so despite of increasing evapotranspiration the projected discharge is still increasing. Precipitation tends to increase on the monthly basis under both scenarios RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, with a few exceptions, and the increase is not uniform in terms of magnitude over all the months.

Mean monthly discharge in the SSC seems to increase under both changing climate scenarios, as shown in Fig. 3.11. Discharge in March is projected to decrease under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario and seems to remain stable under the RCP 8.5. Increase is seen in January flows under the RCP 4.5 emission scenario and decrease is projected under the RCP 8.5 emission scenario, while in February both future emission scenarios showed a decrease in the volume of discharge. Projected increase in the discharge of all the remaining months could be seen.

In the KSC, according to the model discharge seems to decrease in the month of February under RCP 4.5 and increase under RCP 8.5. hile in March it is projected to decrease under the RCP 4.5 and increase under the RCP 8.5. All the other months showed a projected increase in discharge till mid of the 21st century, as shown in Fig. 3.11.

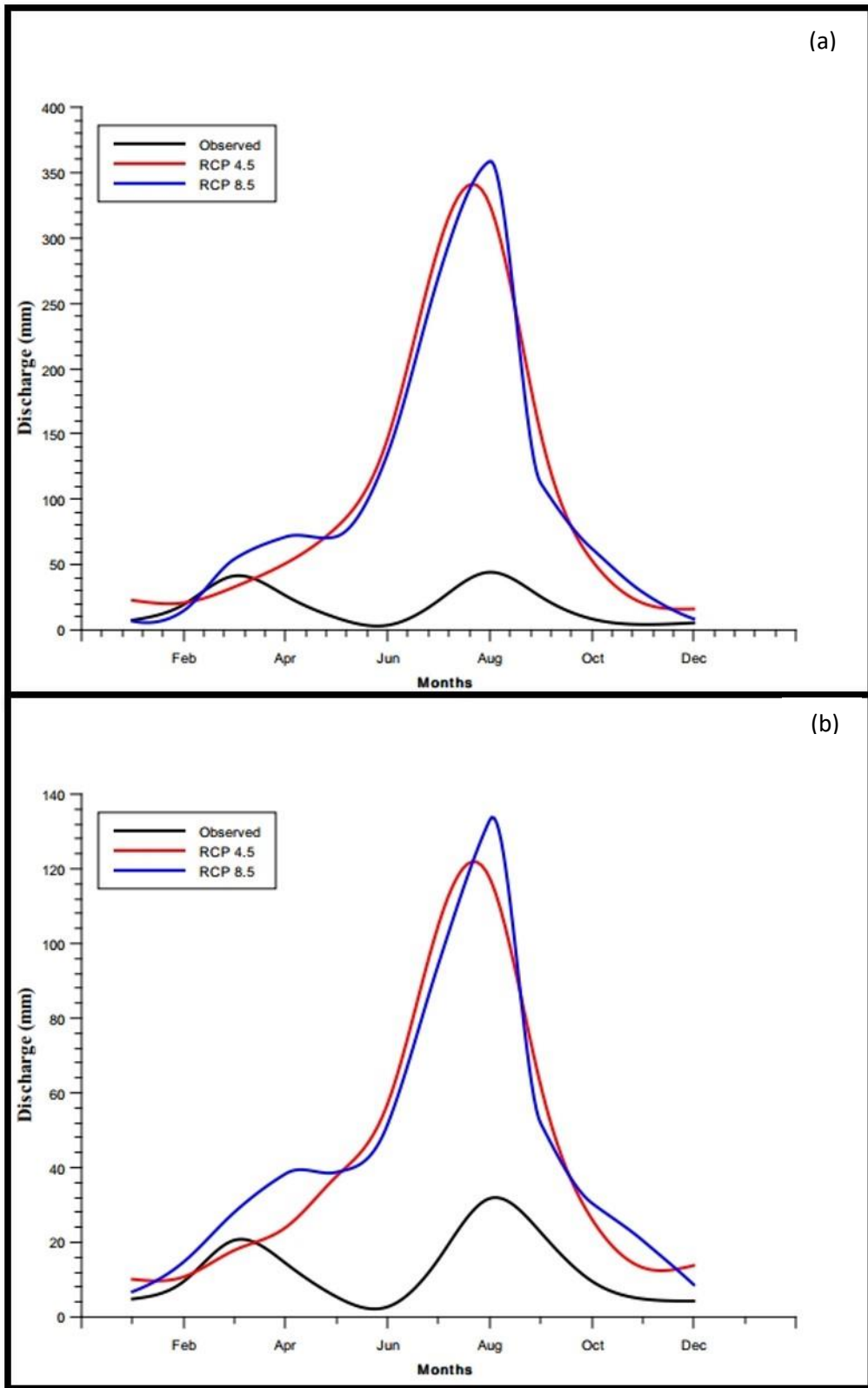


Figure 3.11. Projected monthly change in discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.10 PROJECTED CHANGES IN MONTHLY PRECIPITATION OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

The change in projected increase of precipitation in the months that received higher amounts of rainfall in the baseline period is less than the change that occurred in the months of low precipitation in the baseline period in the future time slice near the mid of the 21st century. As shown in table 3.4, in the SSC, February was the only month that showed a decrease in the projected amount of precipitation, under RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5, and March was the only month to receive projected lower amounts in the future under the RCP 4.5 and higher amounts of precipitation under the RCP 8.5. All other months tend to show an increase in the precipitation under both scenarios.

Projected changes in monthly precipitation of the KSC under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 are shown in table 3.4. Months of January and February showed a decrease in the projected amount of precipitation, under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, while in March, precipitation is projected to decrease under the RCP 4.5 and seems to increase under the RCP 8.5. Increase in projected changes of precipitation in the rest months could be seen, and the change is pretty much consistent under both climate change scenarios, the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5.

Table 3.4. Projected changed in Precipitation of the Sihala and Kani Sub-catchments for the time period (2018-2047). Data source (SMHI RCA4)

Months	Precipitation (%)			
	Sihala Sub-catchment		Kani Sub-catchment	
	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
Jan	1.45	7.27	-20.8	-19.9
Feb	-34.87	-11.04	-45.1	-14.2
Mar	-22.87	33.55	-23.7	23.1
Apr	117.86	211.20	76.4	169.2
May	799.30	849.59	442.2	425.1
Jun	678.09	885.25	244.4	301.9
Jul	311.47	274.95	157.9	123.8
Aug	373.37	339.93	198.3	182.1
Sep	397.30	334.64	203.0	158.2
Oct	209.90	543.06	88.0	278.1
Nov	37.08	128.66	14.2	122.6
Dec	135.12	1.00	90.4	-11.8

3.11 PROJECTED CHANGES IN MONTHLY EVAPOTRANSPIRATION OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

From table 3.5, it could be observed that the mean monthly evapotranspiration, under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is projected to be 11 mm as compared to 8 mm in the observed time period, in the SSC. While projected changes in monthly evapotranspiration of the KSC under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 have been illustrated in table 3.5. Mean monthly evapotranspiration, under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 seems to be 11 mm as compared to the baseline of 8 mm.

Table 3.5. Projected changed in Evapotranspiration of the Sihala and Kani Sub-catchments for the time period (2018-2047). Data source (SMHI RCA4)

Months	Evapotranspiration (%)			
	Sihala Sub-catchment		Kani Sub-catchment	
	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
Jan	340.8	368.9	190.9	199.4
Feb	127.9	131.9	99.0	100.3
Mar	155.6	156.1	88.6	89.3
Apr	24.7	22.3	29.1	27.9
May	18.2	19.4	18.4	19.2
Jun	10.9	11.1	13.1	13.3
Jul	9.5	9.9	12.9	13.3
Aug	7.0	7.9	11.5	12.2
Sep	12.9	13.6	15.7	16.1
Oct	29.2	29.5	28.7	29.2
Nov	53.7	50.7	48.8	47.1
Dec	159.9	159.1	122.3	121.4

3.12 PROJECTED CHANGES IN MONTHLY TEMPERATURES OF SIHALA AND KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Projected changes in the temperature of the Sihala and the Kani sub-catchments are given in table 3.6. An increase of up to 7.5 °C is projected for the SSC under the RCP 4.5, while a rise of up to 7.7 °C is projected under the RCP 8.5. Overall a mean monthly increase is projected for the Sihala sub-catchment, as suggested by the SMHI RCA4. More warming is projected for the KSC under both the average and the extreme emission scenarios. An outstanding increase of up to 10.3

°C and 10.5 °C is projected under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5 as per the SMHI RCA4 for the Kani sub-catchment.

Table 3.6. Projected changed in evapotranspiration of the Sihala and Kani Sub-catchments for the time period (2018-2047). Data source (SMHI RCA4)

Months	Temperature (°C)			
	Sihala Sub-catchment		Kani Sub-catchment	
	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
Jan	4.9	5.4	7.5	8.0
Feb	5.7	5.9	8.4	8.6
Mar	7.2	7.2	9.9	10.1
Apr	7.5	6.7	10.3	9.7
May	7.1	7.7	10.0	10.5
Jun	5.9	6.1	9.4	9.7
Jul	5.3	5.5	9.6	9.9
Aug	3.9	4.5	8.3	8.9
Sep	5.5	5.9	9.0	9.3
Oct	6.2	6.3	8.8	9.0
Nov	5.3	5.0	7.6	7.3
Dec	4.9	4.9	7.5	7.4

3.13 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SEASONAL DISCHARGE OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB CATCHMENTS

Seasonal discharges in both sub-catchments of the Soan river basin are of particular peculiarity and diversity. The discharge of the Spring, Summer, Autumn, and the Winter for the Sihala and Kani sub-catchments are presented in the following section.

3.13.1 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SPRING DISCHARGE

Figure. 3.12 illustrates the spring discharge in the SSC. Discharge is projected to increase from an average of 73 mm in observed period to 157 mm and 197 mm under both changing climate scenarios, i.e. the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively. While the discharge in the KSC in spring seems to increase from an average of 12 mm in observed period to 79 mm and 105 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, as illustrated in Fig. 3.12.

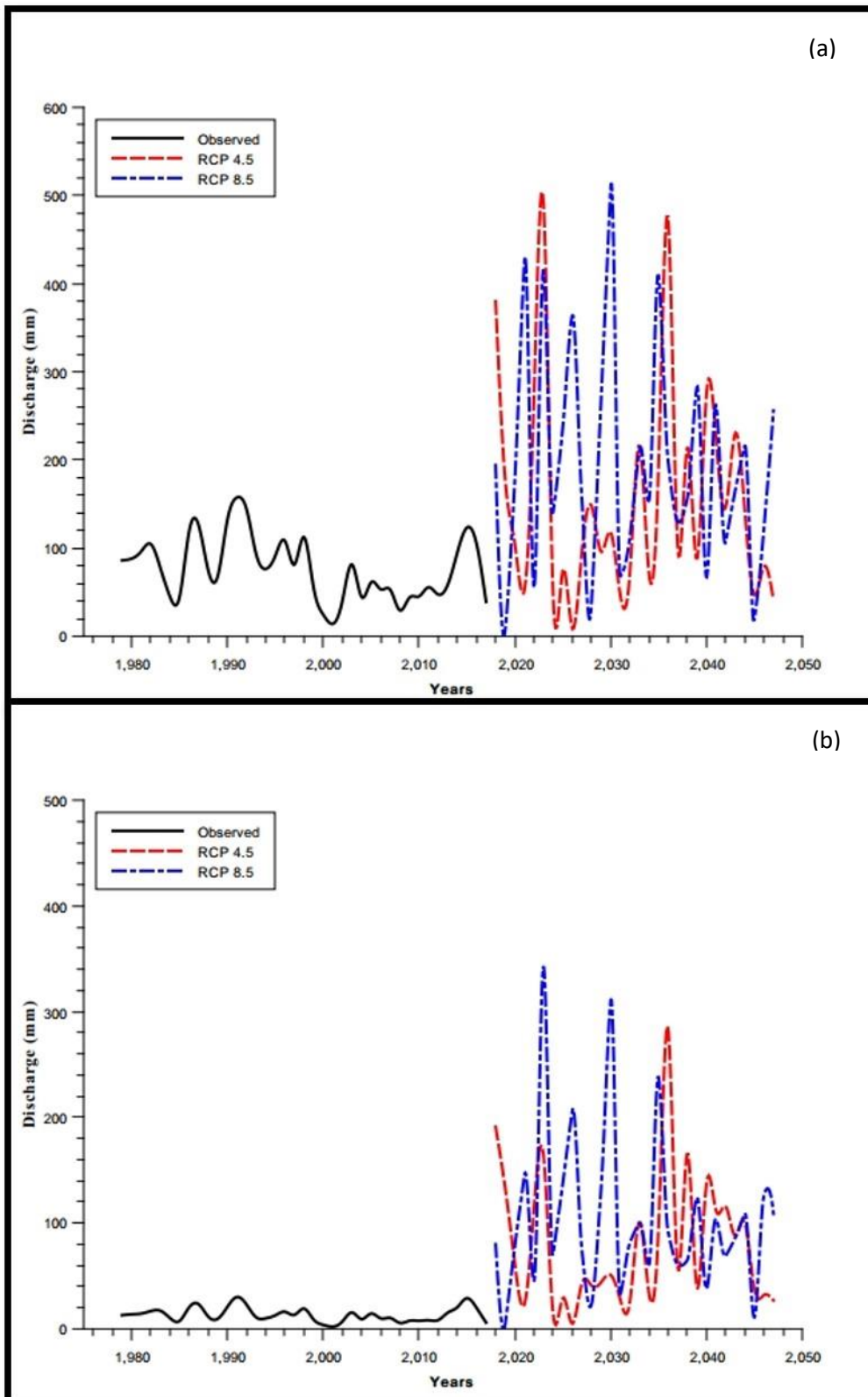


Figure 3.12. Projected changes in spring discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.13.2 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SUMMER DISCHARGE

In the SSC, average summer discharge is projected to increase from average of 73 mm in observed period to 816 mm and 764 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, as illustrated in (Fig. 3.13). This is the highest change (increase) as compared to all the seasons. Projected changes in summer discharge of the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 are shown in (Fig. 3.13). Discharge in summer might increase under the RCP 4.5 and the RCP 8.5. However, the magnitude of change is more concentrated under the RCP 4.5 than the RCO 8.5. In the observed period mean flow in the winter was 17 mm, while it seems to be 294 mm for average greenhouse gas emission scenario and 279 mm with extreme emission scenario.

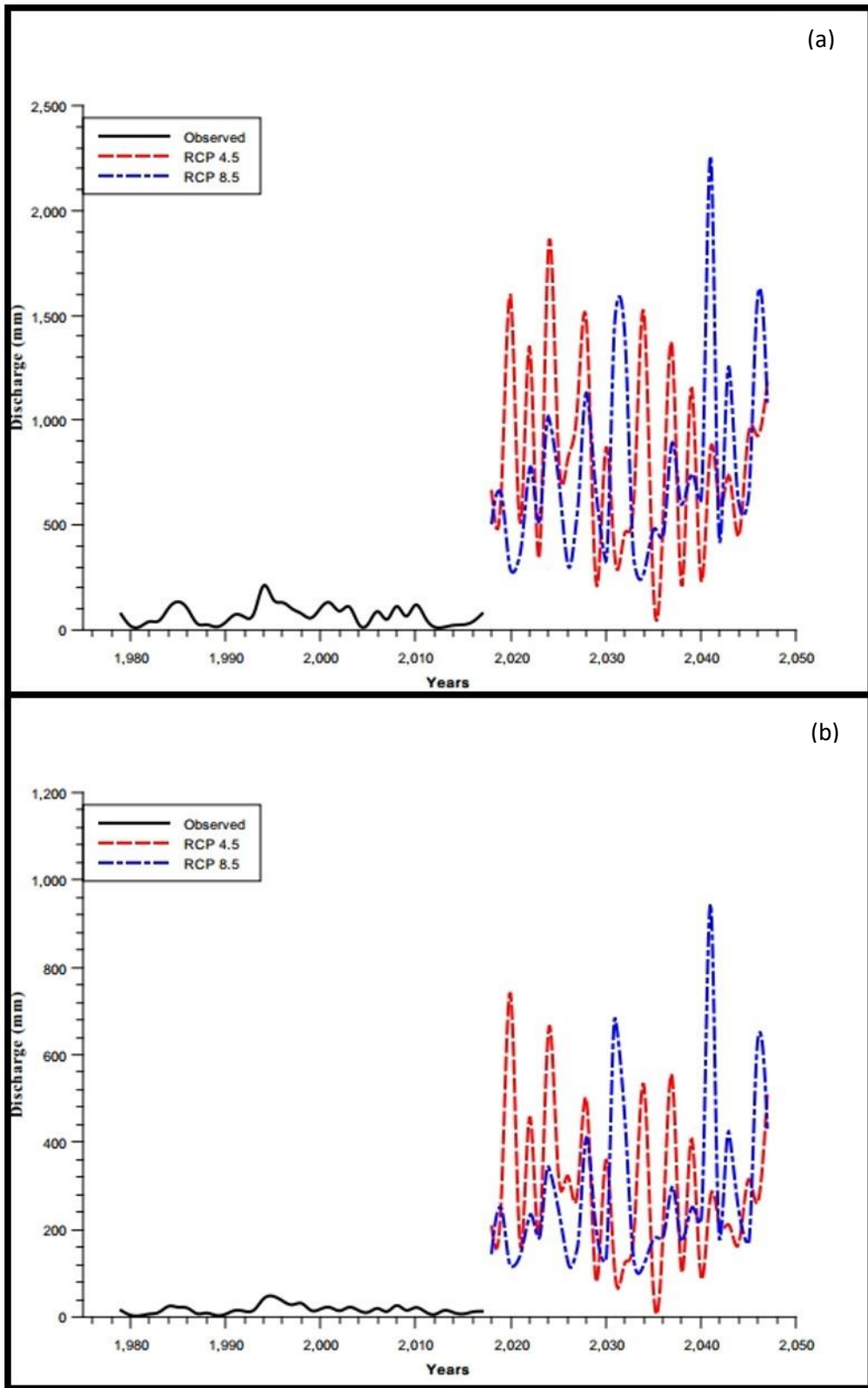


Figure 3.13. Projected changes in summer discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.13.3 PROJECTED CHANGES IN AUTUMN DISCHARGE

In the SSC, It could be observed in the figure 3.14, that, discharge in autumn is projected to increase from an average of 41 mm in observed period to 180 mm and 203 mm under both changing climate scenarios, i.e. RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively. In the KSC Discharge is seen to increase from an average of 13 mm in observed period to 87 mm and 102 mm under both changing climate scenarios, i.e. RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, as given in Fig. 3.14.

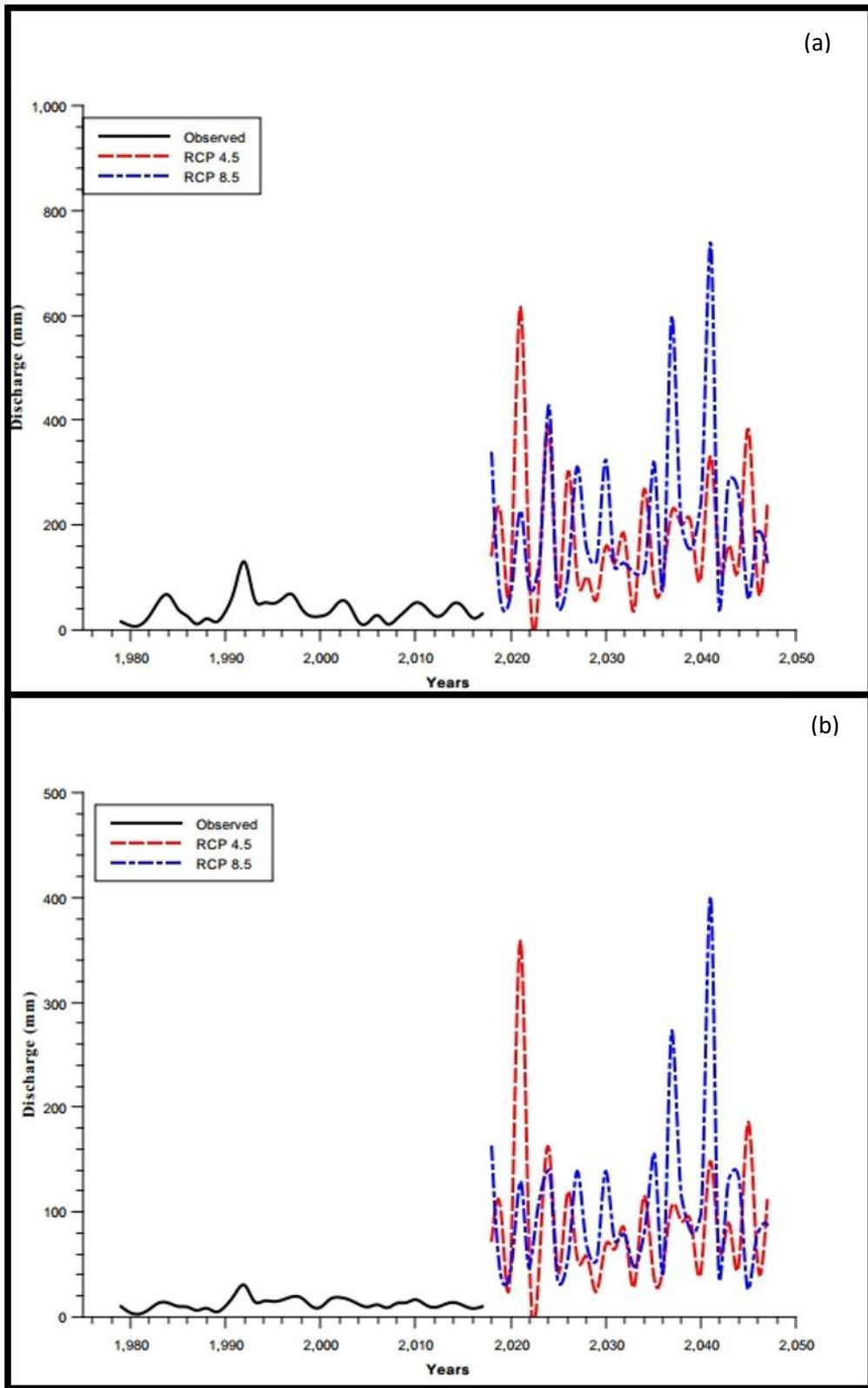


Figure 3.14. Projected changes in autumn discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.13.4 PROJECTED CHANGES IN WINTER DISCHARGE

Discharge in winter showed an interesting result, it is projected to increase under the RCP 4.5 and decrease under the RCP 8.5. As it is depicted in figure 3.15, that, in the observed period mean flow in the winter was 32 mm, while it seems to be 54 mm in average greenhouse gas emission scenario and 30 mm with extreme emission scenario. Positive change is more comprehensive under the RCP 4.5 than the negative change under the RCP 8.5. Projected changes in winter discharge of Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 are shown in (Fig. 3.15). Discharge seems to increase from average of 6 mm in observed period to 34 mm and 30 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively.

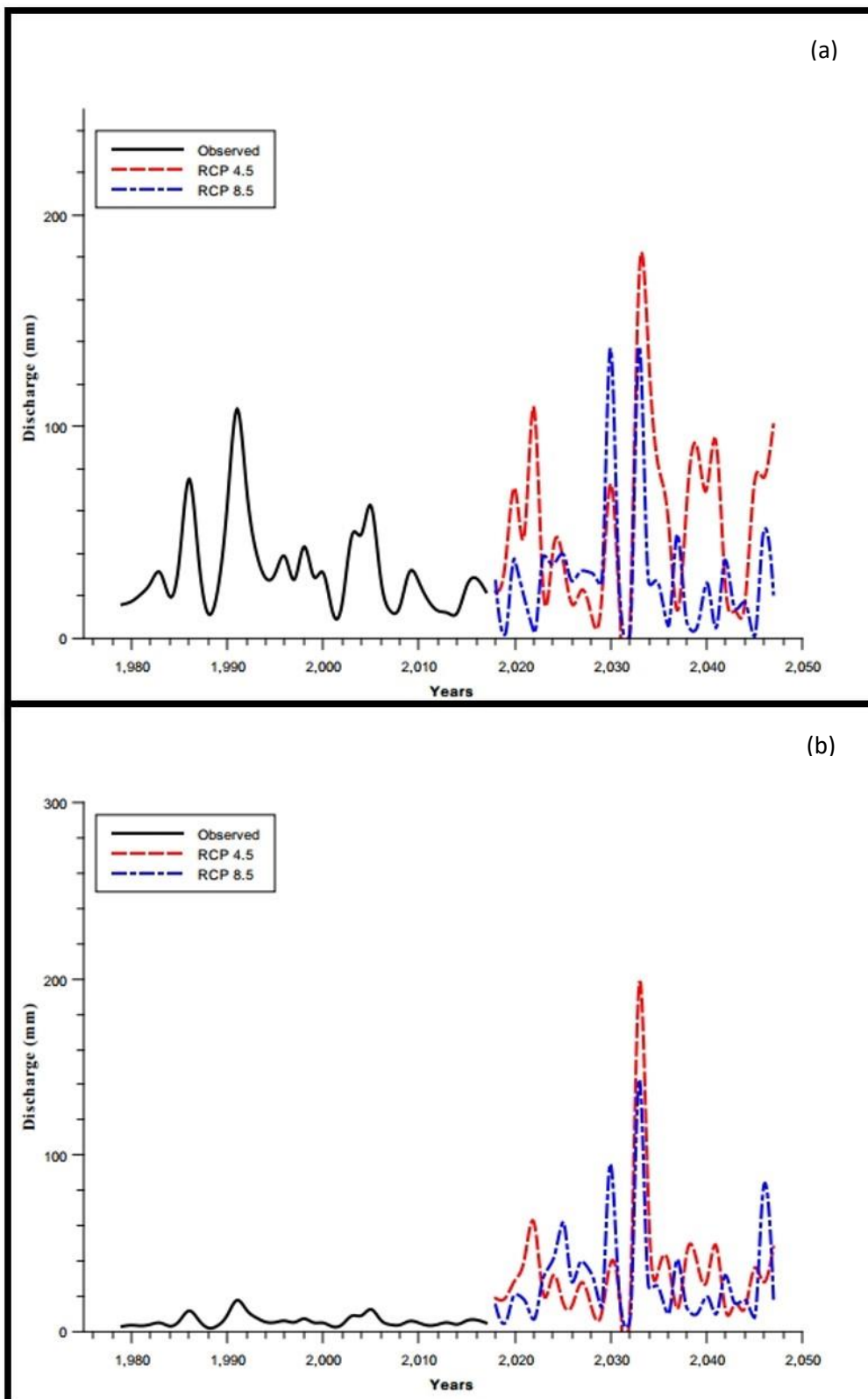


Figure 3.15. Projected changes in winter discharge of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.14 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SEASONAL PRECIPITATION OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB-CATCHMENTS

Projected changes in seasonal precipitation of Sihala sub-catchment, for spring, summer, autumn, and winter have been shown in Fig. 3.16. The changes in spring precipitation are like this; 238 mm to 313 mm of mean seasonal precipitation in spring is projected under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, as compared to 121 mm in the observed period, so under both the climate change scenarios the precipitation tends to show both positive and negative change (increase) in the future, however the positive change outweighs the negative change under both the emission scenarios. Precipitation increase is substantially more under RCP 8.5 than RCP 4.5. In the spring season of observed time period, mean seasonal precipitation was 32 mm, while under the RCP 4.5 it is projected to be 179 mm and 236 mm under the RCP 8.5. An overall increase in spring precipitation is projected for the KSC under both the emission scenarios Fig. 3.16.

Similarly, in summers, mean precipitation in the observed period was 187 mm, and will be 851 and 840 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, as it could be seen in the Fig. 3.16. Mean Precipitation in the summer season showed that under both emission scenarios it will increase, while under the RCP 8.5 the increase is less in magnitude than RCP 4.5, mean precipitation is projected to be 435 mm and 416 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, and was 54 mm in the observed time in the KSC Fig. 3.16.

In the autumn season of observed time period, mean seasonal precipitation was 54 mm, while under RCP 4.5 it will be 185 mm and 231 mm under RCP 8.5, in the SSC as seen in Fig. 3.16. The precipitation is increased more under RCP 8.5 than RCP 4.5 in the SSC. A 110 mm to 144 mm of mean seasonal precipitation in autumn is projected under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, as compared to 17 mm in the observed period for the SSC Fig. 3.16.

As far as winters are concerned, both negative and positive changes are projected in rainfall, but the negative change outweighs the positive change under both the emission scenarios. Mean Precipitation in the winter season showed that under RCP 4.5 it will slightly increase, while under RCP 8.5 it seem to slightly decrease, mean precipitation is projected to be 138 and 121 mm under RCP 4.5 and

RCP 8.5, respectively, and was 125 mm in the observed time, as illustrated in Fig. 3,16. In the KSC, both negative and positive changes are projected in rainfall, but the positive change outweighs the negative change under both the emission scenarios. In winters, mean precipitation in the observed period was 30 mm, and is projected to be 77 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 Fig. 3.16.

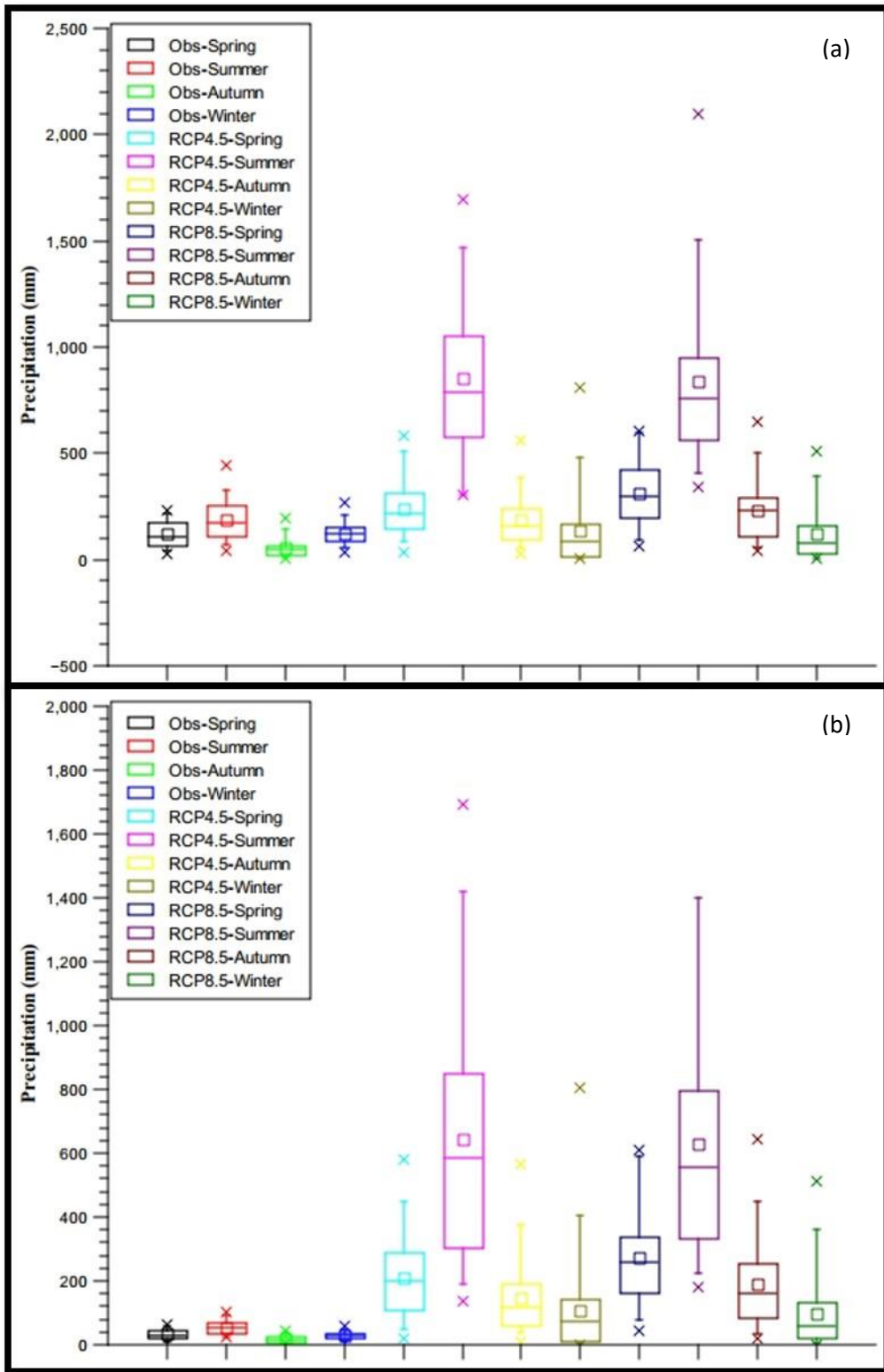


Figure 3.16. Projected changes in seasonal precipitation of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.15 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SEASONAL EVAPOTRANSPIRATION OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB-CATCHMENTS

Projected changes in seasonal evapotranspiration of Sihala sub-catchment, for spring, summer, autumn, and winter are illustrated in Fig. 3.17. Mean seasonal evapotranspiration seems to increase, under both climate change scenarios, for all the seasons, with respect to the observed seasonal evapotranspiration. It is projected to be 32 mm under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, while it was 25 mm in the observed period, in spring. While in the KSC, spring evapotranspiration seems to be increasing, it is projected to be 36 mm under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, and it was 28 mm in the historical time period Fig. 3.17.

As shown in figure 3.17, mean seasonal evapotranspiration, under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is projected to be 38 mm as compared to 35 mm in the observed time period, in the summer of the SSC. Mean summer evapotranspiration showed an increase and seems to be 41 mm under both climate change scenarios, while it was 36 mm in the observed period in the KSC.

While in autumn, evapotranspiration is projected to be 7 mm under both average and extreme climate change scenarios, and it was 2 mm in the historical time period in the SSC, and mean seasonal evapotranspiration in autumn, under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is projected to be 35 mm, while it was 28 mm in the observed period in the KSC.

Mean winter evapotranspiration also showed an increase, and could be 19 mm under both climate change scenarios, while it was 7 mm in the observed period, in the SSC, as illustrated in Fig. 3.17. Mean seasonal evapotranspiration in winter, under RCP 4.5 is seen to be 25 mm and 26 mm under RCP 8.5, as compared to 11 mm in the observed time period for the KSC Fig. 3.17.

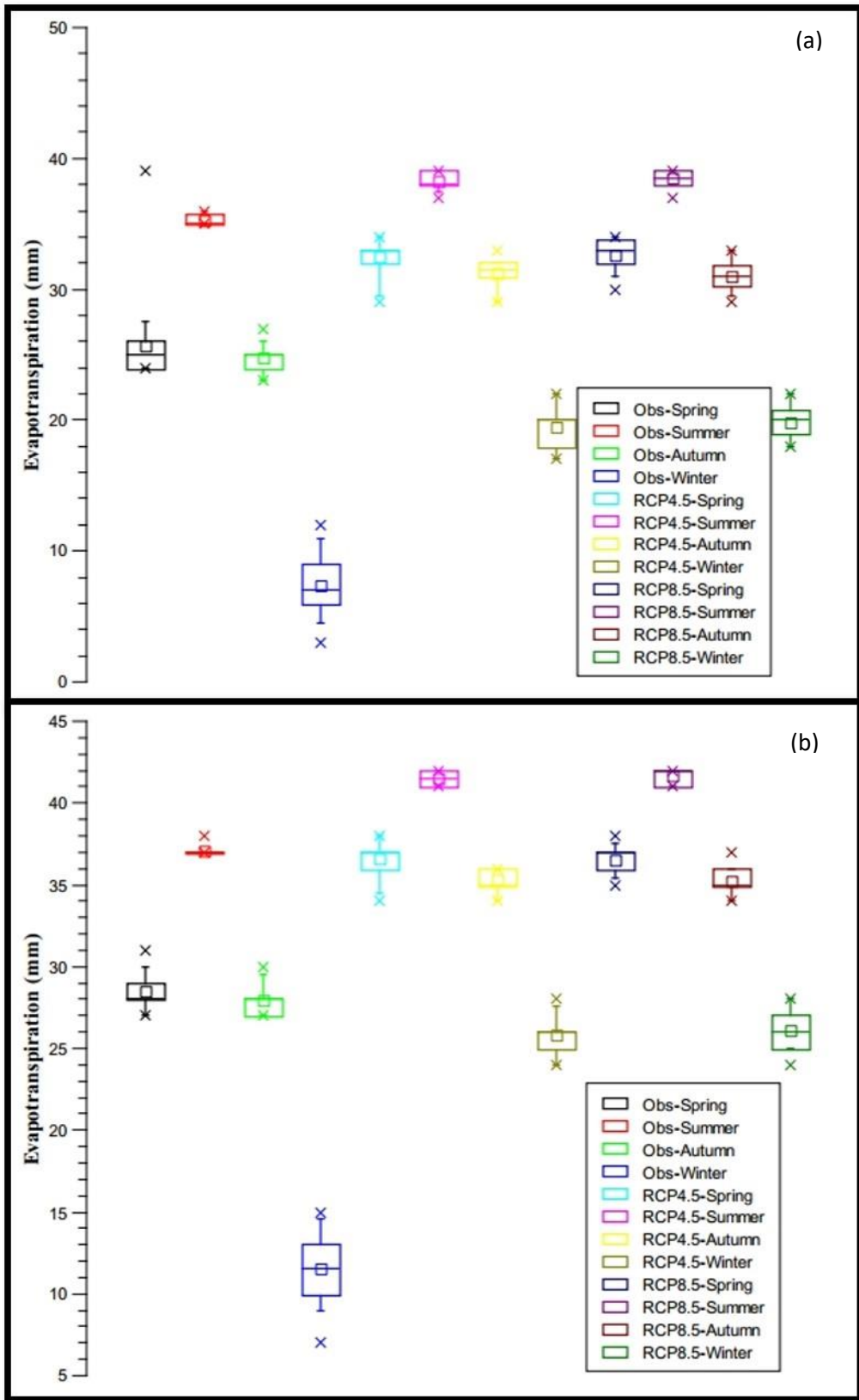


Figure 3.17. Projected changes in seasonal evapotranspiration of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.16 PROJECTED CHANGES IN SEASONAL TEMPERATURES OF THE SIHALA AND THE KANI SUB-CATCHMENTS

Projected changes in temperatures for all the four seasons, namely, spring, summer, Autumn, and winter for the SSC and the KSC are given in Fig. 3.18. Mean temperature under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 seems to be 18 °C as compare to 11 °C in the observed time period, in spring season, in the SSC. However, more warming is projected in the KSC with a projected mean temperature of 23 °C under both climate change scenarios, as compared to 14 °C in the observed timespan in the spring season.

In summers, mean temperature is seen to be 25 °C and 26 °C under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 respectively, relative to 20 °C that was in the observed period in the SSC. Mean temperature under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is projected to be 32 °C as compare to the baseline temperature of 23 °C, in summers, in the KSC.

In the SSC, temperature is projected to be 17 °C under both emission scenarios, as compared to 11 °C in the observed time period, in the autumn season, as seen in Fig. 3.18. However, average temperature under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is seen to be 22 °C as compare to 14 °C in the observed time period, in autumn, in the KSC.

While in the SSC, in winters, average temperature under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 might be 7 °C as compare to the baseline temperature of 2 °C, as shown in Fig. 3.18. Average temperature in winter under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 is projected to be 11 °C, rather than 3 °C that was in the observed period, in the KSC.

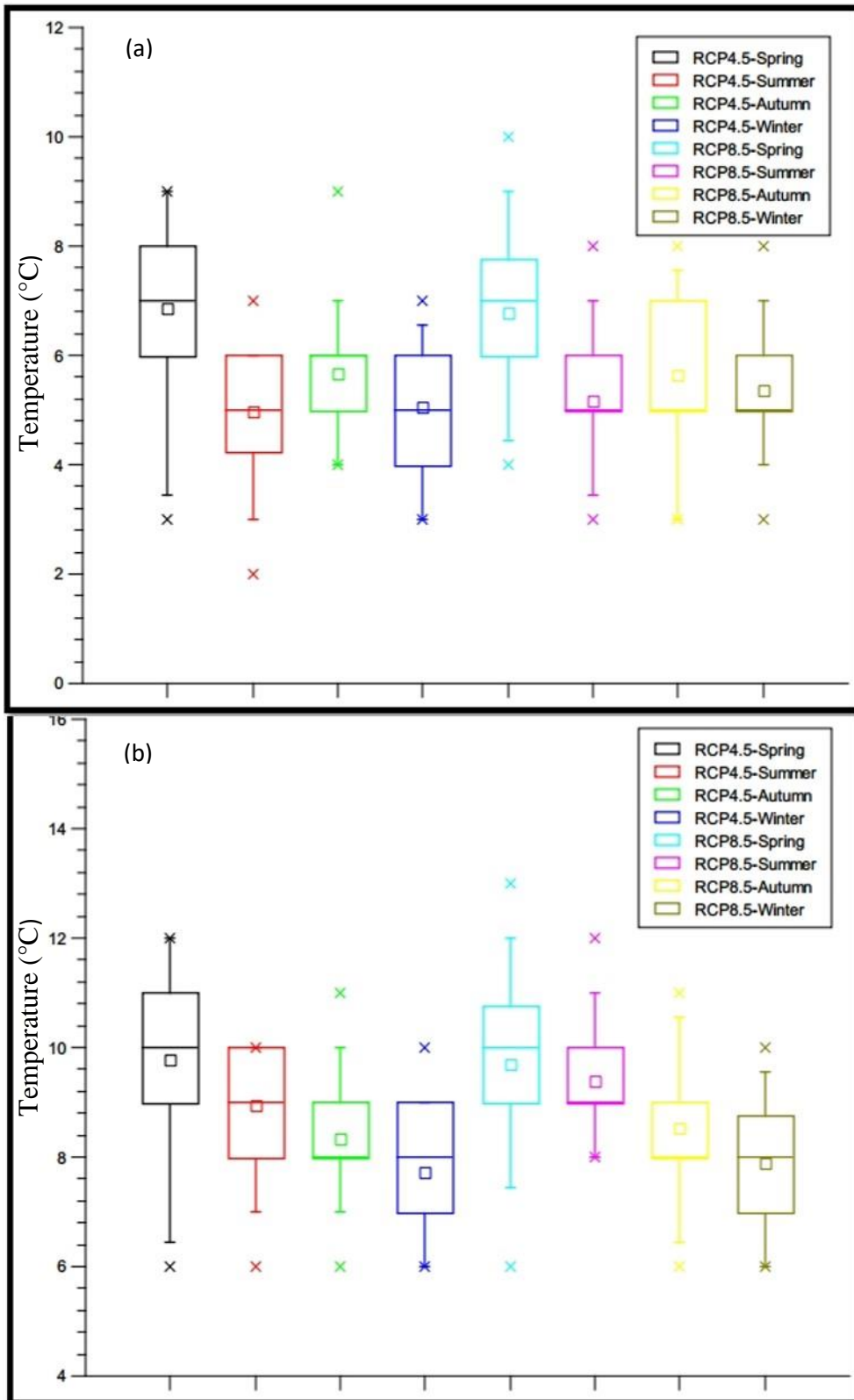


Figure 3.18. Projected changes in seasonal temperatures of (a) the Sihala sub-catchment and (b) the Kani sub-catchment under the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 for the time period (2018-2047), as compared to baseline period (1979-2017). Data source (ECMWF and SMHI RCA4)

3.17 MODEL LIMITATIONS AND UNCERTAINTIES IN HYDROLOGICAL IMPACT ASSESSMENTS

In this study reanalysis dataset from ECMWF was employed to define and analyze the hydrological and climatological characteristics of two sub-catchments of the SRB. A conceptual hydrological model was used to simulate the potential changes in the future flows of basin. Before the calibration and validation of hydrological model HBV-light parameterization was carried out to identify the parameters that are highly sensitive to the model's goodness of fit measure. HBV-light has around 21 parameters for a standard model routine. Not all the parameters are equally sensitive to model's efficiency, some are more and some are less or even none. So to find out which parameters affected the efficiency of model, Parameterization was done.

It was found out that the TT, which is Threshold temperature, CFMAX which is degree- Δt factor, SFCF which is snowfall correction factor, FC maximum soil moisture storage, LP soil moisture value above which AET reaches PET, BETA parameter that determines the relative contribution to runoff from rain or snowmelt, PERC threshold parameter, UZL threshold parameter, K0 storage (or recession) coefficient 0, K1 storage (or recession) coefficient 1, K2 storage (or recession) coefficient 2, MAXBAS length of triangular weighting function, Cet potential evaporation correction factor, PCALT change of precipitation with elevation, TCALT change of temperature with elevation, elevation of precipitation data, elevation of temperature are the most sensitive parameters, that plays a crucial role in the model calibration..

Literature on uncertainty in impacts analyses has focused mainly on the uncertainties in impacts that result from the uncertainties in future climate. Ambiguities in climate change impacts on water resources are primarily because of the unreliability in rainfall inputs and less due to the ambiguities in greenhouse gas emissions. GCM structure is the most important source of uncertainty, next are the emissions scenarios, and finally hydrological modeling (Bott, 2014; IPCC, 2007, Breach et al., 2016; Xu and Luo, 2015).

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions drawn from results of the present study are presented below;

1. Increase in yearly precipitation, evapotranspiration, and temperature was projected for both the sub-catchments and consequently, projected flows showed an increase on yearly basis for both the sub-catchments i.e. Sihala and Kani.

2. Mean monthly precipitation is projected to decrease for the winter to spring transitioning months, and increase for the rest of the months, along with projected increase in evapotranspiration, and the temperature. Projected flows showed both decreasing and increasing trends on monthly basis for both the sub-catchments.

3. Mean seasonal precipitation, is projected to increase in all seasons, except winter in the SSC, where the decrease is dominant over the increase, evapotranspiration and temperature are projected to increase. Highest increase in flows amongst all the seasons is projected for the summer season in the SSC under both the emission scenarios. However the winter seems to see the decrease in flows under the RCP 8.5. Overall an increasing pattern of flows could be observed for the rest of the seasons.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this study have significant implications for management of water resources and a better understanding of hydrological impacts of climate change in this semi-arid catchment. It is also helpful to the water managers in designing, identifying or bridging the gaps of suitable allocation schemes. The results might be helpful in identification of areas where the action is needed for example increasing the reservoir storage capacity, and development of flood risk management plans in case of high projected flows, and in case of low flow projections, cooperation should exist in terms of information sharing, among different stakeholders to develop and implement water plans. It will also be beneficial for other sectors and stakeholders including the civil engineers (in terms of infrastructure building), the core funding agencies on national and international level that deals with the mega projects.

This research presents adequate results which are robust enough to extract major trends, however uncertainties lies as well. So, further research could be carried out in the SRB, in order to make improvements. HBV light should be provided with more vegetation zones for more effective assessment of land cover changes. As the basin is scarcely researched, and the fact that uncertainties exists among different hydrological models and climatic projections obtained from different general and reegional climate models, different hydrological models alongwith different outputs from different GCMs and RCMs (individually and in the form of ensembles) along with different emission scenarios should be employed. Hydrological models could be calibrated for the study basin by using both the station based data and the gridded data.

The mid century projections of stream-flows pertaining to model results predict the heavy streamflow and ample availability of water for Ghabir dam (a proposed project of Water and Power Development Authority (WAPDA) under the WAPA vision 2025). It would be a small dam with a potential of irrigated agriculture development of 15000 acres, and hydropower generattion of 150 kw (WAPDA, 2001), and would also help to conserve fresh water to enhance the number of beneficiaries.

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APPENDIX-I

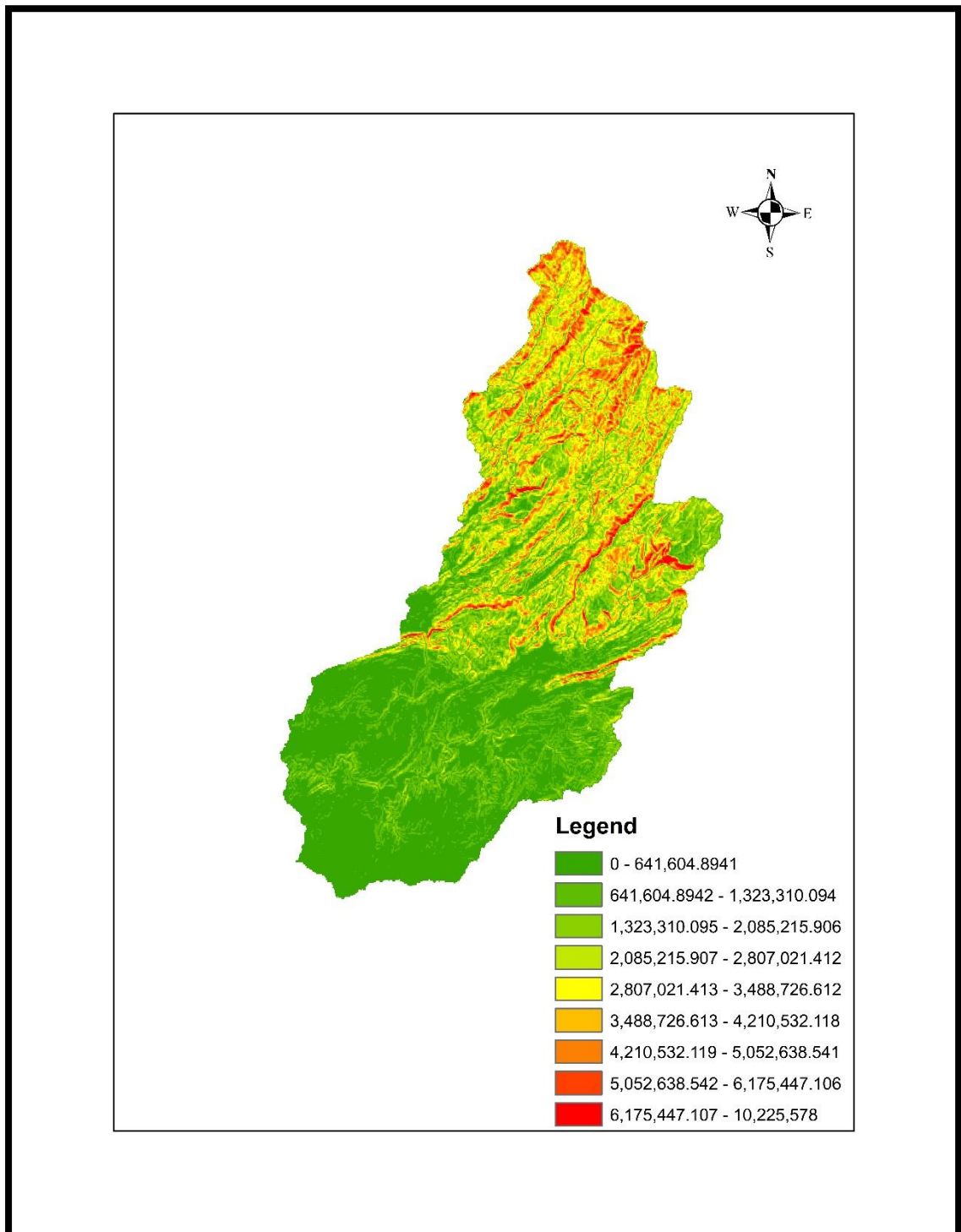


Figure 1. Slope map of Sihala sub-catchment

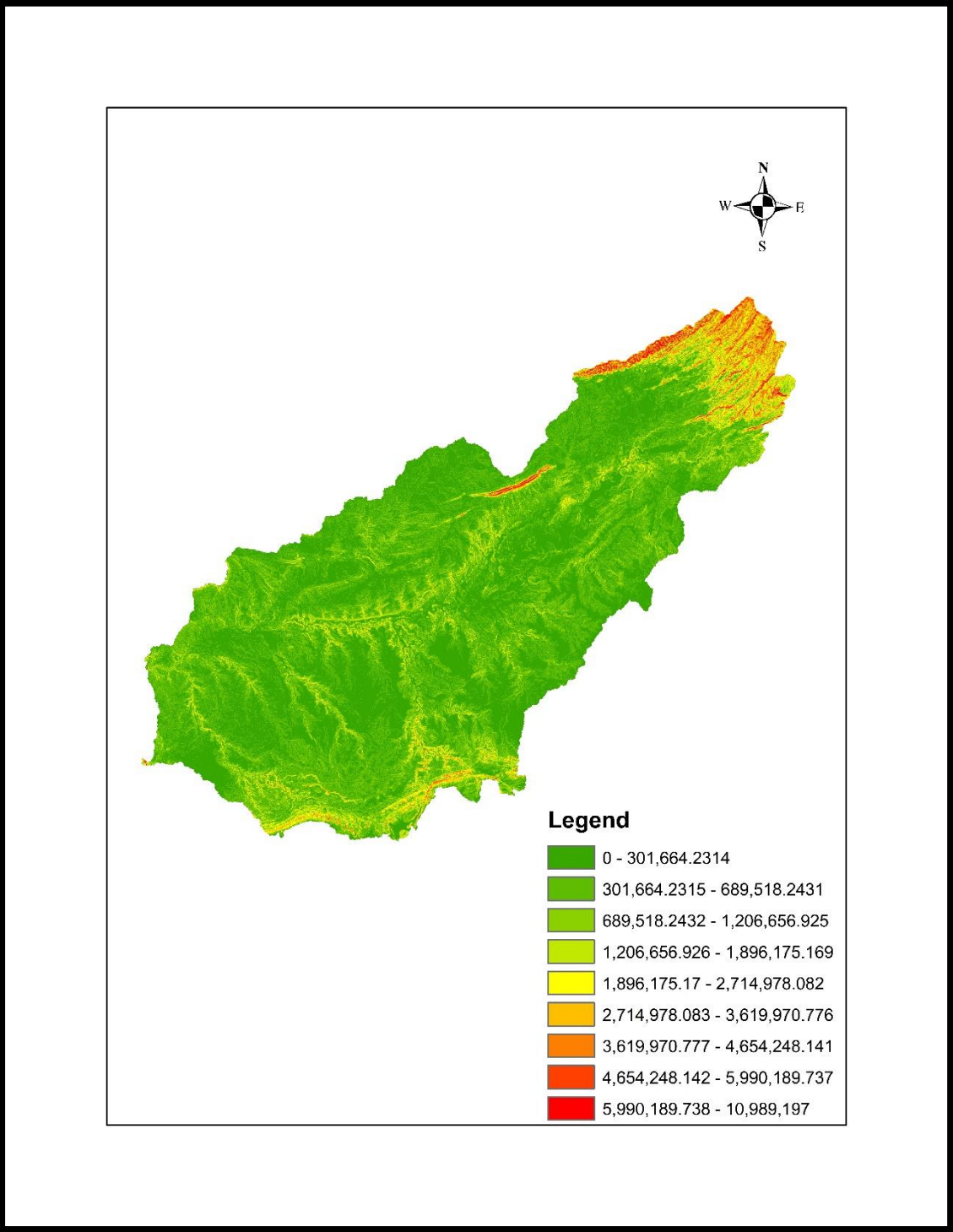


Figure 2. Slope map of Kani sub-catchment

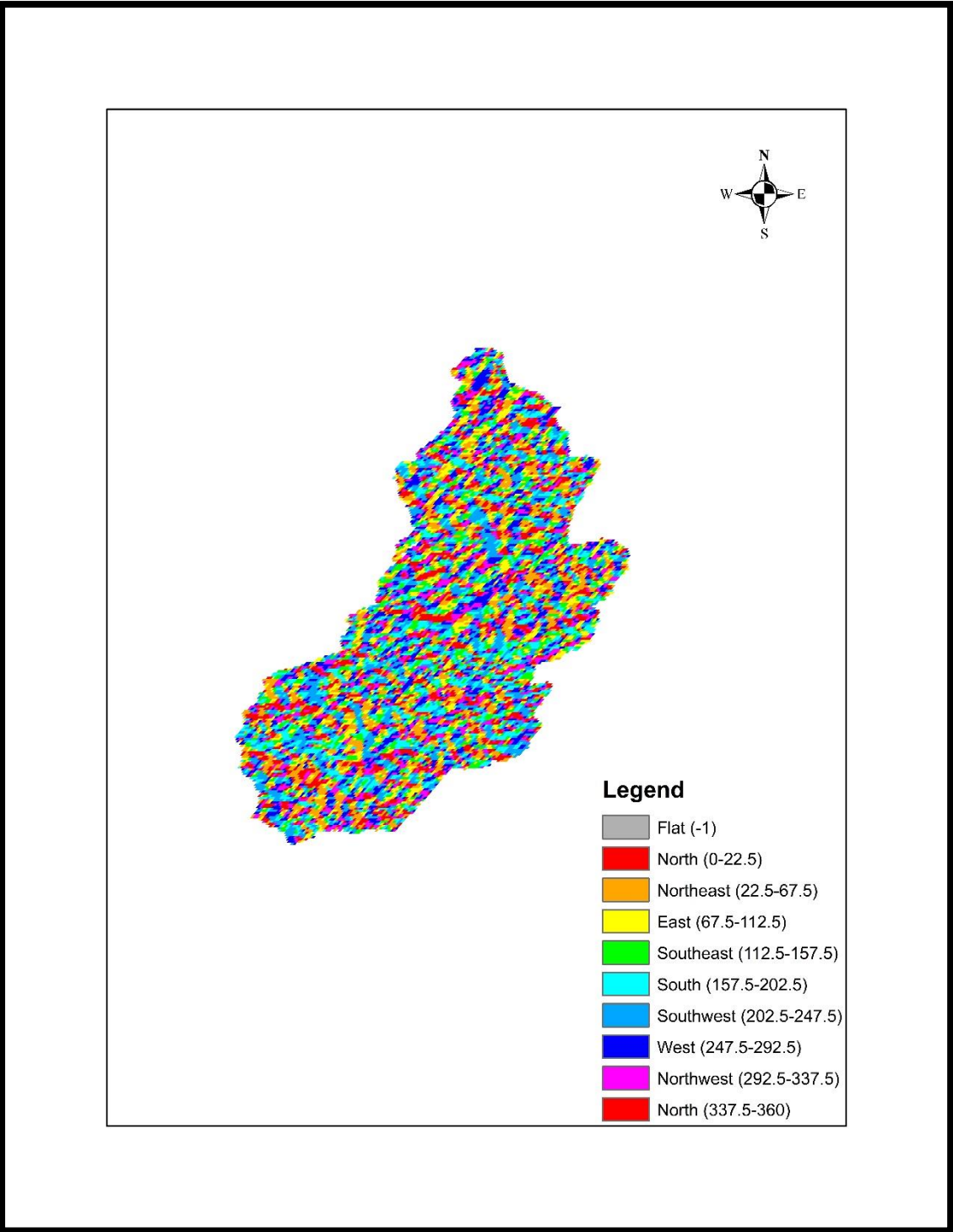


Figure 3. Aspect of Sihala sub-catchment

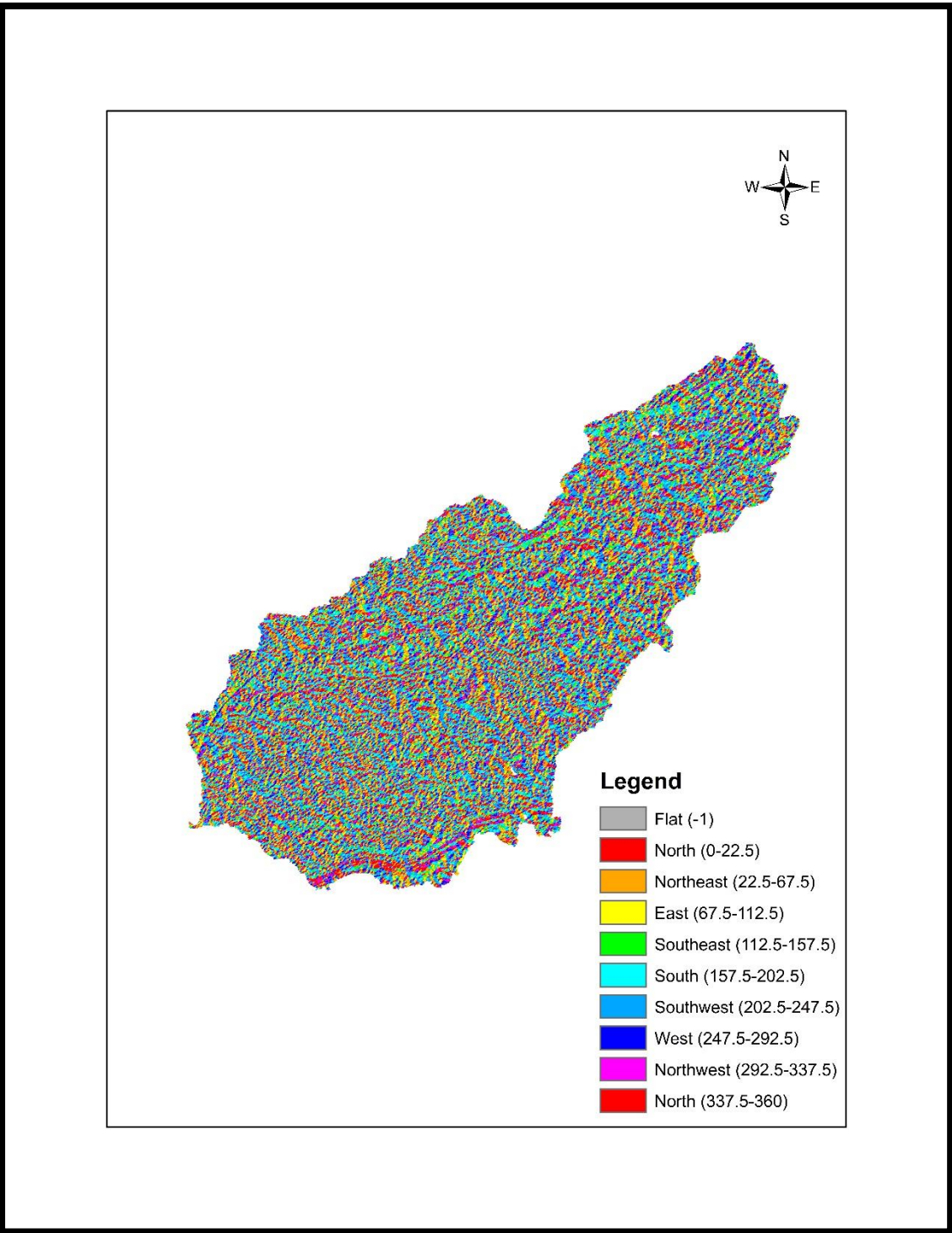


Figure 4. Aspect of Kani sub-catchment

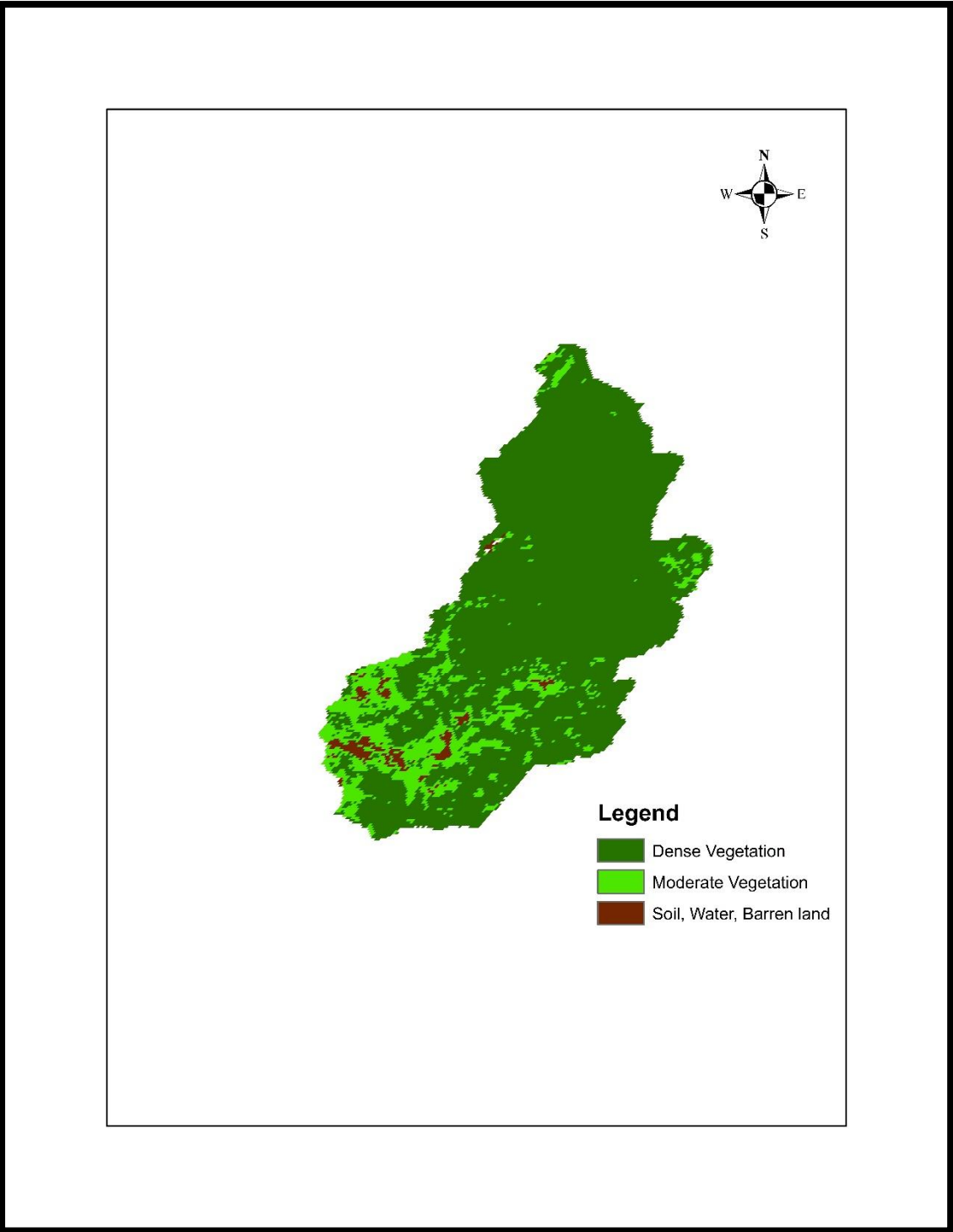


Figure 5. Vegetation zones of Sihala sub-catchment

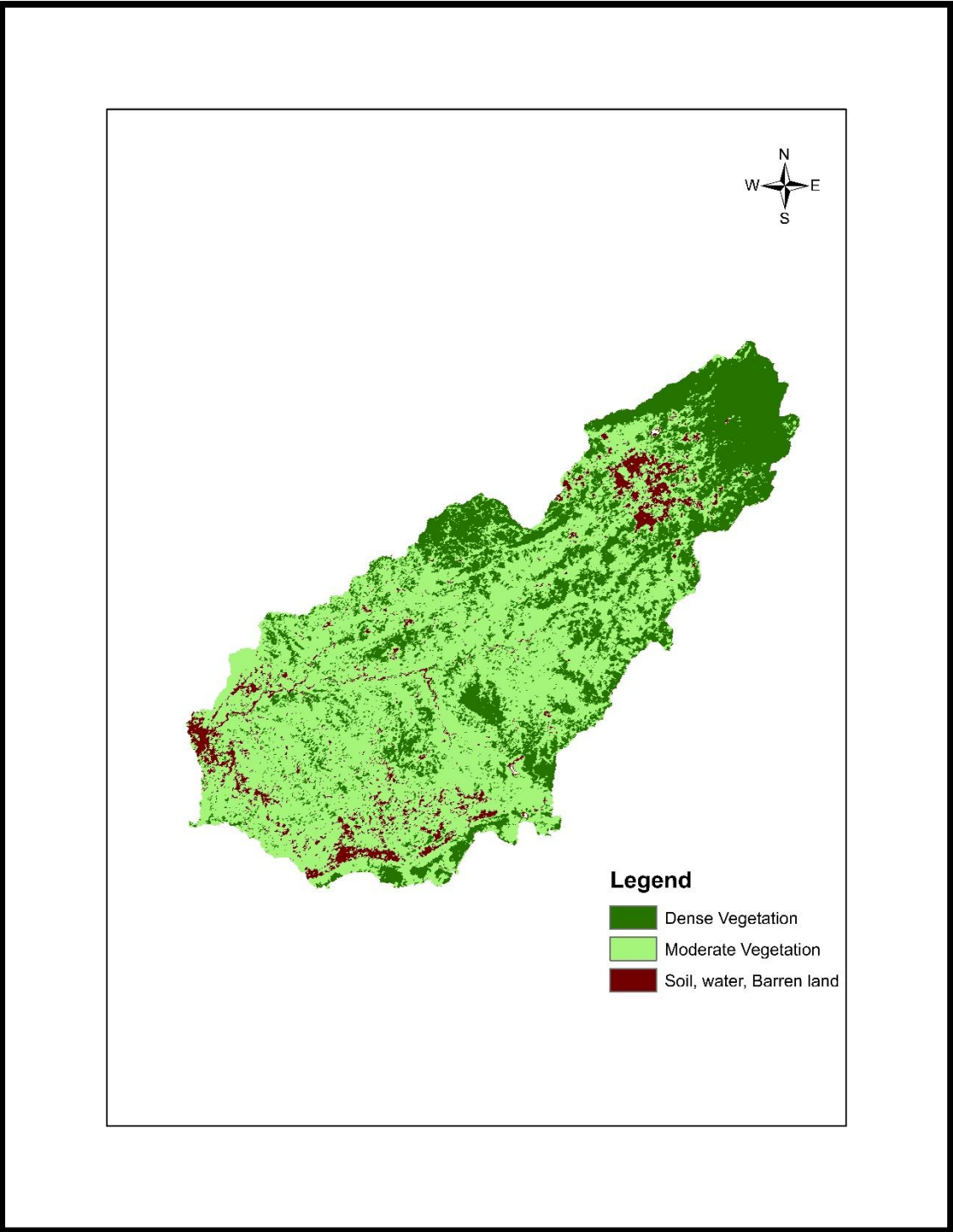


Figure 6. Vegetation zones of Kani sub-catchment

APPENDIX-II

Table 1. Sihala sub-catchment with three vegetation zones, and four elevation zones along with area used as input to HBV-light

	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	Elevation Range (m)	Vegetation zone I (Dense Vegetation km ²)	Vegetation zone II (Moderate Vegetation km ²)	Vegetation zone III (Soil, Water, Barren land km ²)
Sihala Sub-catchment	882	1351.5	442-2261	738	127.15	17.25
Level 1	299	521	442-600	174	109	15.73
Level 2	414	900.5	601-1200	400	12.7	1.32
Level 3	153	1500.5	1201-1800	145.5	7.37	0.073
Level 4	15	2031	1801-2261	14	1.3	0.073

Table 2. Kani sub-catchment with three vegetation zones, and four elevation zones along with area used as input to HBV-light

	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	Elevation Range (m)	Vegetation zone I (Dense Vegetation km ²)	Vegetation zone II (Moderate Vegetation km ²)	Vegetation zone III (Soil, Water, Barren land km ²)
Kani Sub-catchment	10371	1233.5	206-2261	2906	6862	603
Level 1	8806	403	206-600	2046	6312	551.5
Level 2	1336	900.5	601-1200	662	534	52.14
Level 3	198	1500.5	1201-1800	183	15	0
Level 4	17	2031	1801-2261	15.49	1.43	0.0733

Table 3. Sihala sub-catchment with aspects (N-NE-NW,S-SE-SW,E-W)of three vegetation zones, and four elevation zones along with area used as input to HBV-light

Dense Vegetation	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Level 1	174	521	66	64	30
Level 2	400	900.5	139	148	78
Level 3	145.5	1500.5	53	59	32
Level 4	14	2031	3.39	5	3.5
Moderate Vegetation	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Level 1	109	521	37	38.7	17.17
Level 2	12.7	900.5	3.47	4.33	1.7
Level 3	7.37	1500.5	2.47	1.89	2.07
Level 4	1.3	2031	0.53	0.18	0.39
Soil, Water, Barren land	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Level 1	15.73	521	4.88	5.88	2.35
Level 2	1.32	900.5	0.34	0.43	0.28
Level 3	0.073	1500.5	0	0	0
Level 4	0.073	2031	0.073	0	0

Table 4. Kani sub-catchment with aspects (N-NE-NW,S-SE-SW,E-W)of three vegetation zones, and four elevation zones along with area used as input to HBV-light

Dense Vegetation	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Lakes	13.29				
Level 1	2046	403	900	925	220
Level 2	662	900.5	233	282	147
Level 3	183	1500.5	64	62	36
Level 4	15.49	2031	4	5	3
Moderate Vegetation	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Level 1	6312	403	2956	2670	676
Level 2	534	900.5	197	182	81
Level 3	15	1500.5	6	3.26	3.42
Level 4	1.43	2031	0.54	0.3	0.34
Soil, Water, Barren land	Area (km ²)	Mean Elevation (m)	N-NE-NW	S-SE-SW	E-W
Level 1	551.5	403	160	170	42
Level 2	52.14	900.5	16.39	20.23	8.14
Level 3	0	1500.5	0	0	0
Level 4	0.073	2031	0	0	0