

# Dependence of model-based extreme flood estimation on the calibration period: the case study of the Kamp River (Austria)

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Pierre Brigode, Emmanuel Paquet, Pietro Bernardara, Joël Gailhard, Federico Garavaglia, et al.. Dependence of model-based extreme flood estimation on the calibration period: the case study of the Kamp River (Austria). Hydrological Sciences Journal, 2015, Special issue: Modelling Temporally-variable Catchments, 60 (7-8), pp.1-14. 10.1080/02626667.2015.1006632 . hal-01164840

## HAL Id: hal-01164840 https://hal.science/hal-01164840

Submitted on 17 Jun2015

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# 5 Dependence of model-based extreme flood estimation on the 6 calibration period: the case study of the Kamp River 7 (Austria)

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18 Received 20 January 2014; accepted 25 November 2014

19 Accepted author version posted online: 13 Jan 2015. Published online: 16 Jun 2015.

20 Editor Z.W. Kundzewicz; Associate editor A. Viglione.

Abstract The Kamp River is a particularly interesting case study for testing flood frequency estimation methods, since it experienced a major flood in August 2002. Here, this catchment is studied in order to quantify the influence of such a remarkable flood event on the calibration of a rainfall-runoff model, in particular when it is used in a stochastic simulation method for flood estimation, by performing numerous rainfall-runoff model calibrations (based on split-sample and bootstrap tests). The results confirmed the usefulness of the multi-period and bootstrap testing schemes to identify the dependence of model performance and flood estimates on the information contained in the calibration period. The August 2002 event appears to play a dominating role for the Kamp River, since the presence or absence of the event within the calibration sub-periods strongly influences the rainfall-runoff model calibration and the extreme flood estimations that are based on the calibrated model.

Key words: Non stationarity; IAHS workshop; model calibration and evaluation; SCHADEX, extreme
 floods, bootstrap.

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# 34 Dépendance des estimations de crues extrêmes (basées sur un modèle pluie35 débit) à la période de calage: étude de cas de la rivière Kamp (Autriche)

36 37 Résumé La rivière Kamp est un cas d'étude particulièrement intéressant pour le test de méthodes de 38 prédétermination des crues, puisqu'elle a vu une crue exceptionnelle se produire en août 2002. Dans cet 39 article, nous étudions ce bassin versant pour quantifier l'influence de ce type de crue remarquable sur le 40 calage d'un modèle pluie-débit, en particulier lorsqu'il est utilisé dans une méthode de simulation 41 stochastique pour la prédétermination des crues. Pour cela, nous réalisons de nombreux calages du 42 modèle pluie-débit (en nous basant sur des tests de bootstrap et sur des périodes indépendantes). Les 43 résultats obtenus confirment l'utilité des procédures de calages multi-périodes et de « calages 44 bootstrap » pour identifier la dépendance des performances des modèles hydrologiques et des 45 estimations de crues extrêmes aux informations contenues dans les périodes de calage. L'événement de 46 2002 apparait jouer un rôle dominant pour la rivière Kamp, puisque la présence de l'événement au sein 47 des périodes de calage influence fortement le calage du modèle pluie-débit et l'estimation des crues 48 extrêmes reposant sur le modèle calé. L'ensemble des jeux de paramètres obtenus avec des périodes de 49 calages ne contenant pas l'épisode de 2002 produit des estimations de crues extrêmes 50 systématiquement plus fortes que celles obtenues avec les autres jeux de paramètres.

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52 **Mots clé** : Non stationnarité ; Atelier AISH ; calage de modèle et évaluation ; SCHADEX ; crues 53 extrêmes ; bootstrap.

#### 54 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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#### 1.1. The challenge of hydrological variability

58 The calibration of rainfall-runoff models in the context of a changing climate is 59 currently the subject of an intense discussion in the hydrological modelling 60 community (e.g. by Peel & Blöschl, 2011; Muñoz et al., 2013; Montanari et al., 2013; Hrachowitz et al., 2013 and Thirel et al., 2014). Indeed, observed hydro-61 62 meteorological series (precipitation or streamflow for example) used for model 63 calibration are subject to significant variability over time (Milly et al., 2008). This 64 variability could be induced by sudden physiographic changes in the catchment (e.g. forest fire, dam building), climatic condition changes (e.g. air temperature rising) 65 and/or long-term fluctuations being barely detectable by statistical 66 tests 67 (Koutsoyiannis, 2006; Montanari, 2012).

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69 Hydrological variability challenges the usual calibration approach - traditionally 70 assuming stationary or at least representative hydro-climatological conditions - which 71 consists in using the entire record period for identifying one or several optimal 72 parameter sets. Several studies, based on the split-sample test proposed by Klemeš 73 (1986), investigated the sensitivity of rainfall-runoff simulations to the characteristics 74 of the calibration period (e.g. Donnelly-Makowecki & Moore, 1999; Seibert, 2003; 75 Vaze et al., 2010; Merz et al., 2011; Coron et al., 2012; Brigode et al., 2013a). 76 Gharari et al. (2013) recently suggested estimating calibration performance over different sub-periods, in order to identify parameter sets with time-consistent 77 78 performance, thereby reducing the over-calibration problem (Andréassian et al., 79 2012). Time-varying sensitivity analysis such as the DYNamic Identifiability 80 Analysis (DYNIA, Wagener et al. (2003)) have also been proposed to identify 81 "informative regions with respect to model parameters" (Wagener & Kollat, 2007) 82 and to link particular hydro-climatic conditions with time-varying dominant rainfall-83 runoff model parameters (Herman et al., 2013).

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#### **1.2.** The information content of extreme events

87 The observed hydro-meteorological variability affects mean values as well as extreme 88 values. For instance, Ward et al. (2014) recently showed that El Niño Southern 89 Oscillations (ENSO) significantly influence the flood intensity of daily annual peak. 90 Interannual variability could also be characterized by the observation of outliers 91 within the record period, i.e. the "outlying observation that appears to deviate 92 markedly from other members of the sample in which it occurs" (Grubbs, 1969). Such 93 outstanding values have to be taken into account, since they provide valuable 94 information about the extreme hydrological behavior of the studied catchments (Laio 95 et al., 2010). In a statistical framework, methods such as resampling techniques (Katz 96 et al., 2002) can be used to quantify the sensitivity of the extreme-quantile estimation 97 to these observed rare events.

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Nevertheless, in the context of rainfall-runoff model calibration, quantifying the
sensitivity of the model's results to such rare events is more challenging. Berthet *et al.*(2010) showed that only a limited number of time steps truly influences the values of
the quadratic calibration criteria usually used for rainfall-runoff model calibration
(like Nash & Sutcliffe (1970) Efficiency or Root-Mean-Square Deviation scores).

Moreover, Perrin et *al.* (2007) and Seibert & Beven (2009) highlighted that a limited number of streamflow values can contain a significant amount of hydrological information, while Beven & Westerberg (2011) suggested that some periods within the observation records could even be *disinformative* for the models. Singh & Bárdossy (2012) and Singh *et al.* (2012) suggested identifying a limited number of events on which the calibration should be performed, using the statistical concept of data depth.

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112 The challenge of rainfall-runoff model calibration in a changing climate has been 113 recently studied in a workshop during the 2013 International Association of 114 Hydrological Sciences (IAHS) General Assembly in Göteborg, Sweden, where 115 hydrological modellers were asked to calibrate their models over several selected catchments (Thirel et al., 2014, this issue). Participants were provided a calibration 116 and evaluation protocol as well as a selection of 14 "changing catchments" showing 117 118 different observed changes such as temperature increases, dam building and land-119 cover modification.

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121 Among these 14 catchments, the Kamp River at Zwettl (622 km<sup>2</sup>) located in northern 122 Austria is a particularly interesting case study, since (i) a significant increase of more 123 than 1°C of the catchment's air temperature has been estimated over the last 30 years 124 (Thirel et al., 2014, this issue) and (ii) it experienced a major flood event in August 125 2002, which has been extensively studied over the last few years (e.g. Komma et al., 2007; Viglione et al., 2010; Viglione et al., 2013). The August 2002 event, which 126 caused major flooding in different regions of central Europe (Blöschl et al., 2013), 127 resulted in an estimated peak flow of 460 m<sup>3</sup>/s, which is three times higher than the 128 second largest flood observed over the 1951-2005 period (Viglione et al., 2013). The 129 influence of this event has already been studied by Viglione et al. (2013) in the 130 131 context of flood frequency analysis, showing that this event strongly influences the 132 extreme flood estimation if no additional information (e.g. historical data) is used. On 133 this catchment. Brigode et al. (2014) also illustrated the strong influence of this event 134 on extreme rainfall estimation and on extreme flood estimation performed with a 135 stochastic flood simulation method.

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#### **1.3.** Scope of the paper

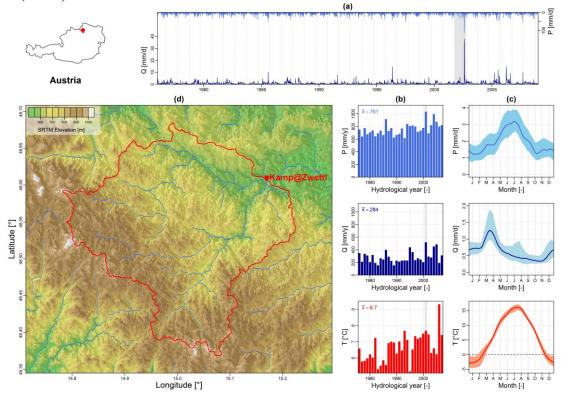
138 This paper aims at (i) applying the calibration protocol proposed by the 2013 139 "hydrology under change" IAHS workshop within the context of extreme flood 140 141 estimation based on a rainfall-runoff model, (ii) comparing the results obtained using 142 the workshop calibration protocol to the one proposed by Brigode et al. (2014) based 143 on bootstrap resampling and (iii) quantifying the influence of the 2002 event on 144 rainfall-runoff model calibration. As in Brigode et al. (2014), the SCHADEX method 145 (Simulation Climato-Hydrologique pour l'Appréciation des Débits EXtrêmes - Hydro-146 climatic simulation for the estimation of extreme flows) detailed by Paquet et al. 147 (2013) has been applied over the Kamp catchment, considering sub-periods for the calibration of the MORDOR rainfall-runoff model. 148

#### 2. CATCHMENT DESCRIPTION

The Kamp catchment at Zwettl is one of the 14 "changing catchments" selected for the IAHS workshop and described in detail by Thirel *et al.* (2014, this issue). Daily precipitation, temperature and streamflow series have been supplied and are available for the 1976-2008 period. Additionally, elevation data have been extracted from the SRTM 90m data set (Jarvis *et al.*, 2008).

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157 Figure 1 illustrates the hydroclimatic context of the Kamp catchment at Zwettl, a 158 622 km<sup>2</sup> catchment located in northern Austria. Catchment elevation ranges from 159 around 500 to 1,000 m a.s.l, with the highest elevation areas located in the southern and western parts of the catchment. The daily streamflow and precipitation series 160 plotted in the upper part of Figure 1 clearly show that the August 2002 flood is not 161 162 comparable to other observed floods, both in terms of observed precipitation amount and flood magnitude. Due to this extreme event, the 2001-2002 hydrological year has 163 164 the largest precipitation and runoff annual mean within the 1976-2008 period. On average, the mean annual precipitation and runoff are around 800 mm and 300 mm, 165 respectively, on the Kamp catchment. Precipitation and runoff have clear seasonal 166 behaviours in this region, with the highest precipitation amount observed during 167 summer (typically from June to August) and the highest streamflow amount observed 168 169 during the March to April month, due to snowmelt. Large floods are usually observed 170 on this catchment during the July to August period, mainly produced by intense 171 rainfall events. Note that snow processes are important on this catchment, since floods 172 are also observed during rain-on-snow or snowmelt events in this region (Viglione et 173 al., 2010).



174Longitude [°]Hydrological year [·]Month [·]175Fig. 1 Hydroclimatic context of the Kamp River at Zwettl catchment: (a) observed daily streamflow176and precipitation time series, (b) streamflow, precipitation and temperature mean annual series, (c)177streamflow, precipitation and temperature monthly regimes, and (d) SRTM elevation data (Jarvis et al.1782008).

#### 179 **3. METHOD**

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3.1. The SCHADEX flood simulation method

183 The SCHADEX method (Paquet *et al.*, 2013) is a stochastic flood simulation method 184 developed and applied by Électricité de France (EDF) for the design of dam 185 spillways. It has been applied to more than 80 catchments over France and elsewhere, 186 for example in Austria, Canada and Norway (Lawrence *et al.*, 2014; Brigode *et al.*, 187 2014).

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SCHADEX is a semi-continuous stochastic flood simulation method that generates,
for a given catchment, a large number of floods, which result from the combination of
two hazards: (i) the rainfall hazard and (ii) the catchment saturation hazard:

- i. Rainfall events are randomly drawn using a rainfall probabilistic model, the Multi-Exponential Weather Pattern distribution (Garavaglia *et al.*, 2010). This rainfall probabilistic model is based on a seasonal and weather pattern subsampling of observed rainfall series. The five weather pattern classification proposed for Austria by Brigode *et al.* (2013b) is used for the Kamp catchment.
- ii. Catchment saturation conditions are not explicitly described as a random variable but are instead generated by a continuous rainfall-runoff simulation over a long record period and thus implicitly represented by the internal variables of the rainfall-runoff model.
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The MORDOR rainfall-runoff model (Garçon, 1999; Andréassian *et al.*, 2006) is used to perform the continuous rainfall-runoff simulation used for the description of the catchment saturation conditions and also to transform a given rainfall event falling over a given catchment into a flood event.

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For each studied catchment, the SCHADEX simulation process generates around two millions of simulated floods, resulting from the combinations of different rainfall events with different catchment saturation conditions. A distribution of simulated flood events is built to provide estimates of extreme flood quantiles, such as the 1,000-year return period flood (noted  $Q_{1000}$ ).

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In this study, only the MORDOR parameter set will change according to the calibration periods. The entire record period will be considered for the estimation of the rainfall probabilistic model parameters and for the computation of a modelled distribution of catchment saturation conditions.

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### **3.2. The MORDOR rainfall-runoff model**

221 MORDOR is a conceptual rainfall-runoff model developed and intensively used by 222 EDF for operational hydrology in different contexts such as flood forecasting (e.g. 223 Zalachori et al., 2012), low-flow forecasting (e.g. Mathevet et al., 2010; Nicolle et al., 224 2014) and flood frequency estimation (e.g. Paquet et al., 2013). The different 225 components of the hydrological cycle are represented through four reservoirs within 226 MORDOR: (i) a rainfall excess/soil moisture accounting store (noted U) contributing 227 to actual evaporation and to direct runoff, (ii) an evaporating store (noted Z) filled by 228 part of the indirect runoff component and contributing to actual evaporation, (iii) an 229 intermediate store (noted L) determining the partitioning between direct runoff, 230 indirect runoff and percolation to a deep storage reservoir and (iv) a deep storage 231 reservoir (noted N) determining baseflow. Last, a unit hydrograph is used for routing 232 the total simulated runoff.

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234 Required inputs of the MORDOR model are air temperature and precipitation series. 235 With the snow component, MORDOR has 22 free parameters, while it has 11 236 parameters without the snow component. In this study, the snow component 237 parameters were fixed after a first MORDOR calibration over the entire record period, 238 with an objective function combining classical Nash & Sutcliffe (1970) efficiency 239 (NSE) with a criterion minimizing the difference between observed and simulated 240 mean annual streamflow. This objective function aims at having snow component parameters inducing good day-to-day performance of the rainfall-runoff model and 241 242 also good model performance in terms of simulated streamflow volume over the 243 entire record period. The volume difference and NSE score obtained with this 244 MORDOR parameter set over the 1977-2008 period are -0.1% and 0.85 respectively. Table 1 summarizes the name, role and unit of the 11 free parameters calibrated in 245 246 this study and each parameter's prior ranges. These parameters are estimated using an 247 automatic optimization scheme developed by EDF and based on a genetic algorithm, a strategy commonly used in hydrological modelling since the 1990s (e.g. Wang, 248 249 1991; Franchini, 1996; Wang, 1997). It has been shown to perform as well as other 250 algorithms such as the SCE-UA (Duan et al., 1992) over numerous catchments by

- Mathevet (2005).
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253 254 Table 1 Description of the 11 free parameters of the MORDOR model to be calibrated over the Kamp River at Zwettl catchment

Name	Description (and unit)	Range			
fe1	Parameter linked to potential evapotranspiration [-]	$0.0005 \le X \le 0.1$			
fe3	Parameter linked to potential evapotranspiration [-]	$-7 \le X \le 0$			
kl1	Percolation coefficient 1 of the L reservoir [-]	$0.1 \le X \le 0.9$			
kl2	Percolation coefficient 2 of the L reservoir [-]	$0.1 \le X \le 0.9$			
dn	Percolation coefficient of the N reservoir [-]	$1 \le X \le 999$			
exn	Exponent of the recession limb of the N reservoir [-]	$1 \le X \le 8$			
ftr1	Parameter linked to the routing function [-]	$0.5 \le X \le 10$			
ftr2	Parameter linked to the routing function [-]	$0.5 \le X \le 6$			
$U_{MAX}$	Maximum capacity of the U reservoir [mm]	$30 \le X \le 200$			
L <sub>MAX</sub>	Maximum capacity of the L reservoir [mm]	$30 \le X \le 200$			
Z <sub>MAX</sub>	Maximum capacity of the Z reservoir [mm]	$30 \le X \le 200$			

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#### 3.3. MORDOR rainfall-runoff model calibration strategies

258 The objective function used for the calibration of the MORDOR rainfall-runoff model 259 (noted OBJ<sub>EDF</sub> and given in Equation 1) is a combination of two NSE scores: (i) the 260 NSE score computed with observed and simulated streamflow time series and (ii) the 261 NSE score computed with observed and simulated cumulative distribution functions of streamflow series (noted NSE<sub>CDF</sub>). This combination allows a good trade-off 262 263 between the day-to-day performance of the rainfall-runoff model and the model 264 performance regarding the highest observed streamflow values (Paquet et al., 2013). It has been recommended within the context of continuous flood simulation (Lamb, 265 1999). This objective function is commonly used for the calibration of the MORDOR 266 267 rainfall-runoff model within the SCHADEX method applications (e.g. Paquet et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2014; Brigode et al., 2014). For each MORDOR calibration, 268

only the optimal parameter set in terms of the  $OBJ_{EDF}$  objective is considered further. Note that a perfect streamflow simulation has an  $OBJ_{EDF}$  value of 0.

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$$OBJ_{EDF} = (1 - NSE)^2 + 2 * (1 - NSE_{CDF})$$
(1)

273 Three different calibration options were considered, as illustrated in Figure 2:

- i. The MORDOR model was calibrated over the entire record period, leading to
  a parameter set considered as the reference set (noted CP for complete period
  in the following).
- ii. MORDOR was calibrated over the five 6-year sub-periods selected in the
  workshop test protocol (Thirel *et al.*, 2014, this issue). These five parameter
  sets are noted P1 to P5 parameter sets in the following. The August 2002 flood
  event is included in the P5 sub-period.
- One hundred independent calibrations (noted BST1, BST2, ..., BST100) were 281 iii. 282 made over 25-year sub-periods, identified through a block-bootstrap method 283 described by Brigode et al. (2014). For each of the 100 calibrations, 25 284 hydrological years are identified among the total hydrological years available 285 on the studied catchment (here 31 hydrological years, starting from 1976 and ending in 2008). Note that the number of 25-year combinations from a given 286 287 set of 31 elements is 736,281 and thus that the 100 combinations tested here 288 are only a sub-set of all the possible combinations. Unlike the P1 to P5 sub-289 periods, the bootstrapped sub-periods are not independent and are quite 290 similar: they have a majority of the 31 hydrological years observed in common 291 and only differ by the absence/presence of a few years. The rainfall-runoff 292 model is continuously run over the entire record period, but only the selected 293 hydrological years are considered for the computation of the objective 294 function. Note that bootstrap techniques have already been used for the 295 estimation of hydrological parameter uncertainty (Ebtehaj et al., 2010; Selle & 296 Hannah, 2010).
- iv. To highlight the influence of the August 2002 flood on the rainfall-runoff
  model calibration, the same bootstrap scheme has been repeated but the
  August 2002 data were systematically excluded from the computation of the
  objective function. Thus, even if the 2002 hydrological year is selected, the
  August 2002 month will not be considered for the calibration of the rainfallrunoff model. These parameter sets will be noted BSM1, BSM2, ..., BSM100.
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- 304 After each calibration, the MORDOR model was run on the whole period to enable 305 efficiency calculations on all test sub-periods.
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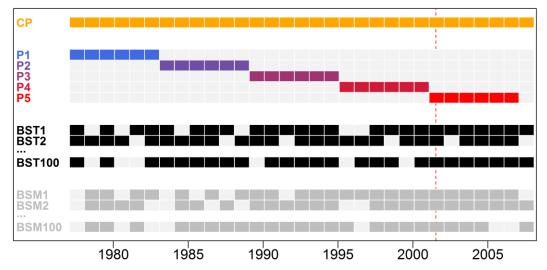


Fig. 2 Illustration of the different calibration strategies used for the calibration of the MORDOR rainfall-runoff model: calibration over the entire record period (CP), calibrations over the five 6-year sub-periods (P1–P5), calibration over 100 25-year sub-periods generated through a block-bootstrap technique (BST1 to BST100) and calibration over 100 25-year sub-periods excluding the August 2002 observations, generated through a block-bootstrap technique (BSM1 to BSM100). The vertical dotted line indicates the 2002 flood event.

#### **4. RESULTS**

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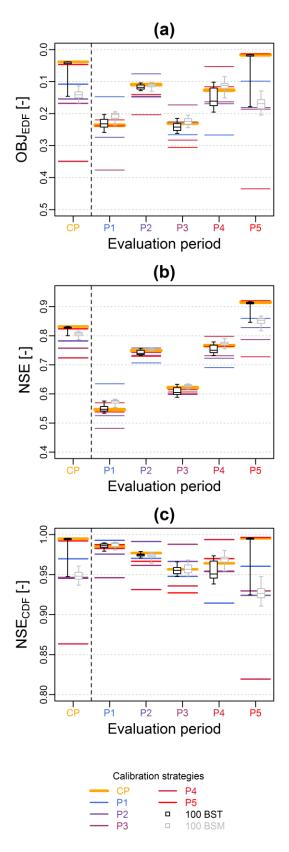
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#### 4.1. Performance of the MORDOR rainfall-runoff model

Figure 3 presents a summary of the MORDOR performance obtained over the complete record period and over the five 6-year sub-periods, P1 to P5, both in terms of  $OBJ_{EDF}$  (the calibration criterion, top panel), NSE (middle panel) and  $NSE_{CDF}$ (bottom panel), and considering the different calibration options described above. MORDOR performance is generally good over the complete period, with the NSE score greater than 0.7. However, there is also a substantial variability of NSE scores over the different 6-year sub-periods, with several NSE scores below 0.6.

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326 In terms of OBJ<sub>EDF</sub>, calibration performance is the poorest for the P3 (1989-1995) 327 sub-period. The performance range obtained with bootstrap calibrations is rather 328 narrow and median performance is generally similar to the CP parameter set 329 performance. This is related to the similarity of the 25-year sub-periods as well as the similarity between the CP period and BS sub-periods, only differing by the presence 330 331 and/or absence of several hydrological years. BSM calibrations (grey boxplots) 332 generally perform better than the BST for the P1 to P4 sub-periods while they perform 333 less well for the complete period (CP) and the P5 sub-period (which includes 2002), regarding the three different scores. Interestingly, a similar ranking of model 334 335 performance is obtained for the complete period and the P5 evaluation periods, which 336 are the two periods containing the August 2002 event. For these periods, the CP 337 parameter set is the best parameter set, followed by the P5 parameter set. The P1 to P4 parameter sets perform poorly for P5 compared to the other ones, especially for the 338 339 NSE<sub>CDF</sub> score. Finally, the BST calibrations (black boxplots) generally performed 340 better than the BSM calibrations (excluding the August 2002 month).

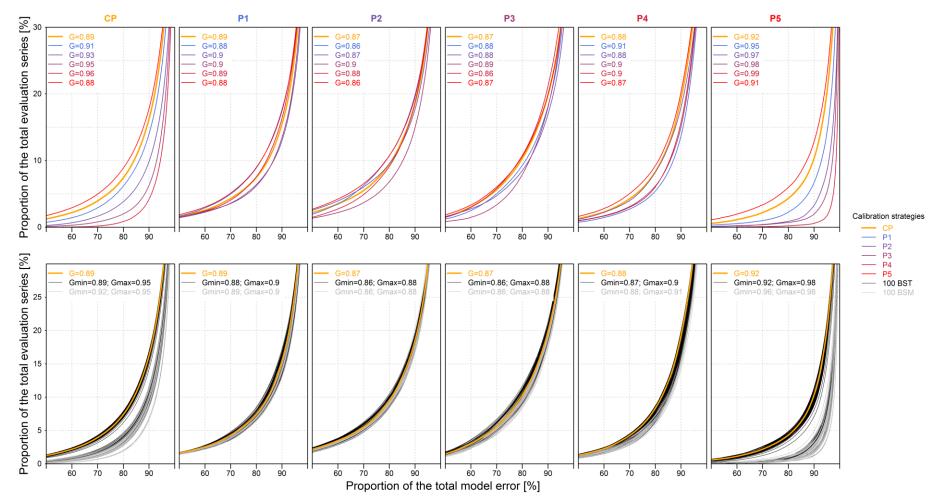


342 343 344 345 346 347 Fig. 3 MORDOR performance over six different evaluation periods: the complete period (1976–2008) and five 6-year subperiods (P1-P5), in terms of OBJ<sub>EDF</sub> (calibration criterion, top panel), NSE (middle panel) and NSE<sub>CDF</sub> (bottom panel), according to different calibration strategies. Boxplots show the 0.10, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75 and 0.90 percentiles of the performance distributions obtained with the BST and BSM (excluding the August 2002 month) bootstrap calibration strategies.

348 Figure 4 shows Lorenz curves computed for each evaluation period and each 349 MORDOR parameter set. The Lorenz curve is classically used in economics; it was 350 introduced to represent the inequality of the wealth distribution, showing which proportion of the population owns which proportion of the total wealth 351 352 (Lorenz, 1905). Here, the plotted Lorenz curves show the proportion of the total 353 evaluation series (time steps) as a function of the total model error (here the sum of 354 the squares of the model error), i.e. the cumulative distribution of ranked relative 355 model errors. For example, considering the CP parameter set and evaluating its error 356 over the CP period (orange line on the top left panel), the Lorenz curve reveals that 357 around 80% of the total MORDOR model error is made on less than 15% of the total 358 calibration period time steps. For the P4 parameter set (purple line), 80% of the total 359 MORDOR model error is made on less than 2.5% of the total calibration period time steps. The complete analysis of the Lorenz curves shows first that P1 to P4 sub-360 361 periods have similar error distributions considering the different calibration strategies. On average, 80% of the total error is made on 5 to 12% of the calibration period time-362 363 steps. For the complete period and the P5 sub-period (both including August 2002 flood), different Lorenz curves are obtained. For P1 to P4 parameter sets and 364 365 bootstrap calibrations not containing the August 2002 flood, a large proportion of the total error is made on a smaller part of the total evaluation time steps, compared to the 366 367 P5 and CP parameter sets.

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369 The shape of each Lorenz curve can be summarized and quantified with the 370 computation of the Gini index (Gini, 1912), which is the area between the line of 371 perfect equality (x=y) and the computed Lorenz curve. The Gini coefficient ranges between 0 and 1: the higher the coefficient, the more uneven the distribution is. Such 372 373 coefficients have been computed for each Lorenz curve and are indicated on each 374 panel in Figure 4. The highest coefficient values are obtained for the CP and P5 375 periods, considering the P1 to P4 parameter sets and bootstrap calibrations not 376 containing the August 2002 flood. This shows that for these sub-periods and parameter sets, a larger proportion of the total MORDOR model error is made on a 377 378 smaller part of the evaluation series.

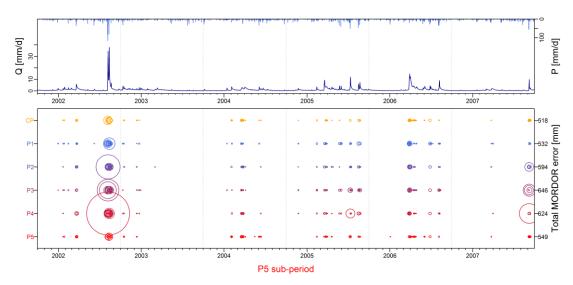




**Fig. 4** Lorenz curves showing the proportion of the total evaluation series as a function of the total MORDOR model error, computed over six different evaluation periods: the complete period (CP) and five 6-year sub-periods (P1–P5) and for different calibration strategies. Top row: (calibration on CP and P1–P5; and bottom row: calibration on

382 BST (black ines) and BSM (grey lines).

383 In order to confirm the substantial influence of the August 2002 flood presence within 384 the MORDOR calibration and evaluation period, a time series of MORDOR model's error is plotted in Figure 5, for the P5 sub-period (2001-2007) and for the CP, P1 to 385 386 P5 parameter sets. In this figure, the time steps representing 80% of the model cumulated total error are plotted with a circle, whose size is proportional to the model 387 388 error made. Note that for the CP and the P5 parameter sets (orange and red circles, 389 respectively), error is made in calibration while for the other parameter sets, it is an 390 error in validation. Again, errors made with the CP and the P5 parameter sets are 391 more evenly distributed than errors made by the P1 to P4 parameter sets, and the 392 proportion of the 2002 event in the total error appears smaller in the CP and P5 sets. 393 For the P1 to P4 parameter sets, the main errors are mainly concentrated on the 394 August 2002 flood event. The P1 parameter error distribution appears to be slightly 395 different from the P2 to P4 sets, with large errors made on the August 2002 flood 396 event for the P1 parameter set, while the P2 to P4 parameter sets induce huge errors 397 made on the August 2002 flood event and also a large error made on the September 398 2008 flood event. 399



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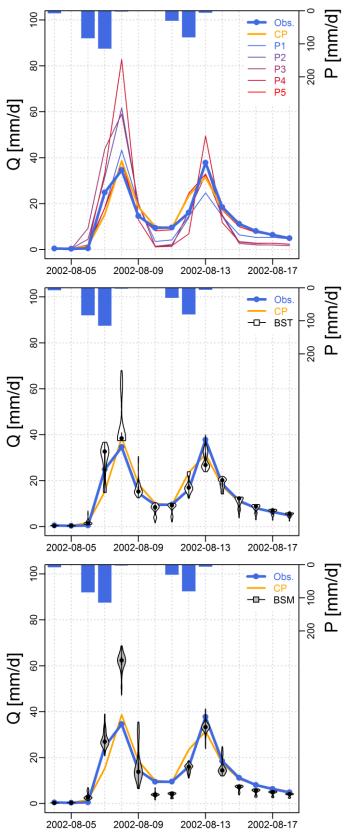
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Fig. 5 (top) Time series of observed precipitation and streamflow Kamp catchment series for the P5 sub-period (2001–2007). (bottom) Time series of MORDOR model error on sub-period P5 for the CP and P1–P5 parameter sets: time steps where MORDOR error >1 mm/d is plotted with a circle of size proportional to the error.

406 Figure 6 zooms in on the MORDOR streamflow simulations of August 2002, using 407 the different parameter sets obtained with the different calibration options. 408 Remarkably, this event is well simulated by the CP and P5 parameter sets. 409 Conversely, it is poorly represented when using the P1 to P4 parameter sets (top panel), with a particularly strong overestimation of the first flood peak (8<sup>th</sup> of August) 410 for the P2 to P4 parameter sets. In general, the P2 to P4 parameter sets induce an 411 412 excessively responsive rainfall-runoff relationship by the MORDOR model. When 413 considering bootstrap calibrations, two different MORDOR model behaviours seem to 414 be obtained, depending on the presence of the August 2002 month within the 415 calibration sub-periods. Rather logically, the August 2002 event is well simulated when it belongs to the calibration sub-period considered (centre panel), while it is 416 417 poorly simulated with the parameter sets obtained with calibration sub-periods 418 systematically excluding this event (bottom panel). Note that the few BST calibrations 419 (centre panel) highly overestimating the first flood peak have all been obtained with420 calibration sub-periods not containing the 2002 year.

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422 An investigation of MORDOR internal state dynamics (not shown here) revealed that 423 the responsive rainfall-runoff relationships simulated by several parameter sets are 424 induced, for this catchment, by the value of one particular MORDOR parameter, 425  $L_{MAX}$ . This parameter is the maximum capacity of the L reservoir, which determines 426 the partitioning between a direct runoff, an indirect runoff and a deep percolation. 427 Thus, in the MORDOR model, when a large amount of water reaches this reservoir 428 (which is the case for the August 2002 event) a low L<sub>MAX</sub> value implies that a large 429 proportion of this water is considered as direct runoff, while a higher  $L_{MAX}$  value yields a larger proportion of indirect runoff. Interestingly, all MORDOR calibrations 430 that exclude the August 2002 period are characterized by small L<sub>MAX</sub> values, while all 431 MORDOR calibration that include this event are characterized by high L<sub>MAX</sub> values. 432 433 It clearly shows the weight of the August 2002 event's on the MORDOR calibration 434 and the event uniqueness according to the MORDOR model: the incoming rainfall for this event is so large - relative to the observed streamflow - that the MORDOR model 435 needs to have a high L<sub>MAX</sub> value for considering a large proportion of this incoming 436 437 water as indirect runoff and then not have a significant difference between observed 438 and simulated streamflow values. In validation on this event, the parameter sets 439 characterized by low L<sub>MAX</sub> values (P1 to P4, BSM and 22 BST calibrations) produce 440 overly responsive rainfall-runoff relationships, with a substantial overestimation of 441 the first flood peak (8 August) and an underestimation of the flood recession (e.g. 10 442 and 11 August).



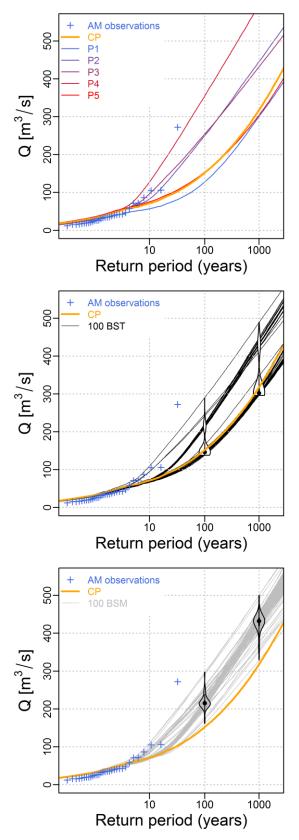
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Fig. 6 August 2002 observed rainfall and streamflow series (solid and dotted lines) and MORDOR streamflow simulations considering different calibration strategies: (top) calibration over the five 6-year subperiods (P1–P5); (centre) calibration over 100 25-year sub-periods (BST); and (bottom) calibration over 100 25-year sub-periods excluding the month August 2002 (BSM).

#### 4.2. SCHADEX flood estimations

Figure 7 presents the SCHADEX flood estimations calculated with the different 451 452 MORDOR parameter sets, compared to the annual maximum series of daily 453 streamflow of the Kamp catchment. When considering the CP parameter set for the 454 MORDOR rainfall-runoff model, the  $Q_{1000}$  value estimated by the SCHADEX method 455 is 318 m<sup>3</sup>/s. The flood estimations computed with the P1 to P5 MORDOR parameter 456 sets are presented on the first panel. The estimations computed using the P5 parameter 457 set are very similar to the reference estimation, unlike estimations made using the P1 458 parameter set (with lower Q<sub>10</sub> to Q<sub>1000</sub> values) and estimations made using the P2 to 459 P4 parameter sets (with substantially higher  $Q_{1000}$  values). A comparable range of 460 flood estimations is obtained when considering the bootstrap calibrations. Two types 461 of flood distributions are revealed, depending on the presence of the August 2002 462 within the calibration sub-periods: the flood estimations obtained with a calibration 463 sub-period excluding the August 2002 event are higher than the other estimations, 464 with median  $Q_{1000}$  values close to 430 m<sup>3</sup>/s (median value of the 100 estimations presented in the bottom panel, in grey) and 300 m<sup>3</sup>/s (median value of the 100 465 estimations presented in the centre panel, in black), respectively. 466

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468 This counterintuitive result is finally highlighted in Figure 8, where the left panel 469 groups all the Q<sub>1000</sub> SCHADEX estimations obtained with the MORDOR parameter 470 sets containing the August 2002 month within the calibration period, while the right 471 panel groups all the Q<sub>1000</sub> SCHADEX estimations obtained with the MORDOR 472 parameter sets excluding the August 2002 month. This figure clearly shows that 473 having the largest observed flood on the Kamp catchment within the MORDOR 474 rainfall-runoff model calibration period produces lower SCHADEX flood estimations. 475 In Figure 8, each  $Q_{1000}$  estimation has been plotted against its corresponding MORDOR L<sub>MAX</sub> parameter value, identified as responsible for the excessively 476 477 responsive August 2002 simulations (cf. Figure 6). Interestingly, the highest  $Q_{1000}$ 478 estimations are obtained with the lowest  $L_{MAX}$  values. The presence of the August 479 2002 event within the MORDOR calibration period thus induces a high  $L_{MAX}$ 480 parameter value and consequently a low  $Q_{1000}$  estimation. In this case, the L reservoir 481 is able to transform large amounts of incoming rainfall into indirect runoff.



482 483 484 Fig. 7 Annual maximum (AM) of daily streamflow observations (+) compared to the SCHADEX reference flood estimation (large solid lines) and flood estimations performed considering different 485 MORDOR calibration strategies: (top) calibration over the five 6-year sub-periods (P1-P5); (centre) 486 487 488 calibration over 100 25-year sub-periods (BST); and (bottom) calibration over 100 25-year subperiods discarding the month August 2002. Violin plots represent the distribution of bootstrap flood estimations for the 100- and 1000-year return periods.

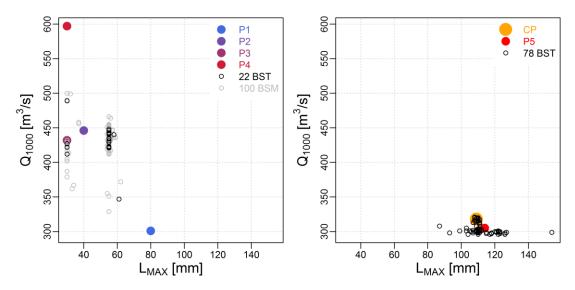


Fig. 8 SCHADEX Q<sub>1000</sub> flood estimations plotted against the corresponding values of MORDOR parameter, LMAX, both obtained with the MORDOR calibration including August 2002 (left) and excluding August 2002 (right).

#### 493 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

producing different SCHADEX flood estimations.

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495 The Kamp at Zwettl is an interesting case study for all hydrologists specializing in the art of flood frequency estimation, since it experienced a remarkable flood in August 496 497 2002, reaching a value three times higher than the second largest observed flood in 498 terms of peak value over the 55 years of available observations (Viglione et al., 499 2013). This case study provides a rare opportunity to investigate the impact of such a 500 remarkable event on flood frequency estimation. Here, numerous extreme flood 501 estimations were made on this catchment with the SCHADEX stochastic method, 502 which is based on a conceptual rainfall-runoff model. Following the calibration 503 protocol of the 2013 "Hydrology under change" IAHS workshop proposed by Thirel 504 et al. (2014, this issue), the rainfall-runoff model was calibrated over five 6-year sub-505 periods. Additionally, bootstrap calibrations were performed, following the methodology proposed by Brigode et al. (2014). In total, 206 calibrations of the 506 507 MORDOR rainfall-runoff model were performed in this study, each of them used for

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510 The results confirmed the usefulness of the multi-period and bootstrap testing 511 schemes to identify the dependence of model performance and flood estimates on the 512 information contained in the calibration period and the presence of large flood events. As already pointed out by Viglione et al. (2013), the August 2002 event appears to 513 514 play a key role in the flood frequency estimation on the Kamp River. Here, the 515 presence of the event within the calibration sub-periods strongly influences the 516 rainfall-runoff model calibration, the validation performance and the extreme flood 517 estimations. All the parameter sets obtained with calibration periods that do not 518 contain the August 2002 month perform poorly on the evaluation periods containing 519 this event. Those parameter sets are characterized by an excessively responsive 520 rainfall-runoff transformation, while the other ones simulate smoother hydrographs. 521 An investigation of the MORDOR model's internal states reveals that one parameter  $(L_{MAX})$  is responsible for this particular simulation dynamic, and that the  $L_{MAX}$  value 522 523 obtained after calibration depends on the presence or absence of the August 2002 524 flood within the calibration period. Those "responsive" parameter sets obtained when 525 the August 2002 event is excluded from the calibration period produce higher extreme 526 flood estimations compared to the other parameter sets, confirming the findings of 527 Brigode *et al.* (2014). Thus,  $Q_{1000}$  estimates were much higher when model calibration did not include the large 2002 flood event. Interestingly, this sensitivity to the 528 529 presence of the August 2002 flood is contrary (and thus counterintuitive) to the 530 sensitivity obtained when applying a classical flood frequency analysis method (i.e. 531 statistical estimation of flood quantiles using only streamflow series), highlighted by 532 Viglione et al. (2013, Figure 3a and Figure 3b).

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534 The bootstrap calibration methodology is shown to be a useful tool for an objective 535 quantification of the model's dependence on the calibration period, considering the 536 rainfall-runoff simulations and the extreme flood estimations. Computing a rigorous 537 statistical confidence interval would require more statistical processing, but it 538 nevertheless provides a "first guess" of the uncertainty associated with the calibration 539 period and a range of extreme flood estimations.

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541 Graphical and numerical tools have also been proposed in this study in order to 542 highlight the influence of particular flood events on the calibration of rainfall-runoff 543 models. Lorenz curves and the Gini coefficient provide a simple but efficient way to 544 characterize the distribution of model errors and could be very useful to detect 545 calibration periods where a few time steps cause a large proportion of the model's 546 errors. In this regard, it could be interesting to compare, for different rainfall-runoff 547 models and different catchments, whether the events selected by this kind of analysis 548 as "strongly influencing the model calibration" are the same as the ones selected by 549 other approaches such as DYNIA (Wagener et al., 2003) or ICE (Singh & Bárdossy, 550 2012).

551

552 Given the dominating impact of the August 2002 data, one could wonder whether in 553 practice a hydrologist engineer working on extreme flood estimation on the Kamp 554 catchment should consider discarding the August 2002 data. On one hand, if he is 555 applying a classical flood frequency analysis method, considering both the observed flood series and additional information such as historical floods or regional 556 557 information is necessary to significantly reduce the weight of the August 2002 event 558 and thus the flood estimation uncertainty. On the other hand, if he is applying a flood simulation method based on a rainfall-runoff model (e.g. SCHADEX), it would be in 559 560 principle more appropriate to consider this type of flood events for the rainfall-runoff 561 model calibration, because it enables the model to be trained on exceptional floods 562 and thus to have the opportunity to identify the high flood-prevailing processes, which 563 could differ from current floods (e.g. Rogger et al., 2012). However, the rainfall-564 runoff model robustness issue addressed in this case study (illustrated in Figures 5 and 565 6 for example) could be used as "process-based arguments" for an expert rainfallrunoff modeller who believes more in his model than in the observed data to discard 566 567 particular flood event data.

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569 In both cases, the question of the uncertainty of the rainfall and streamflow 570 measurement of such events needs to be investigated further. For example, Lang et al. 571 (2010) suggested that numerous French gauging streamflow stations are not reliable for floods with a return period higher than 2 years. For the Kamp catchment, Figure 9 572 573 shows pictures of the gauging station (at Zwettl (Bahnbrücke), station ID 207944) and 574 flood tracks left by the August 2002 flood event, illustrating the potentially considerable uncertainty of streamflow measurement for this event. The Kamp River 575 576 was clearly out of its banks and thus out of the usual streamflow rating curve. An 577 interesting perspective would be to quantify the measurement uncertainty of this event 578 and then recalibrate the MORDOR model before performing new SCHADEX flood 579 estimations.

580

### 581 Acknowledgements

582 The assistance of Dr. Guillaume Thirel (Irstea), Prof. Ralf Merz (UFZ) and Prof. Juraj 583 Parajka (Vienna University of Technology) with the Kamp River data set is gratefully 584 acknowledged. The authors thank the anonymous reviewers and the Associate Editor, 585 Dr. Alberto Viglione, for their constructive comments which helped improve the 586 quality of the manuscript. Finally, the authors would like to thank Rémy Garçon 587 (EDF-DTG) for his constrictive comments.

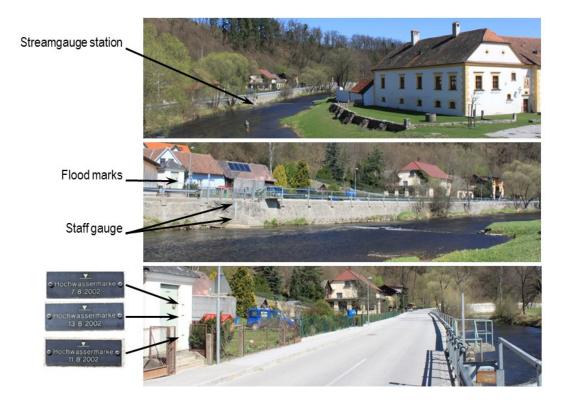


Fig. 9 Zwettl (Bahnbrücke, ID: 207944) streamgauge station and Kamp River. The bottom panel shows
 the August 2002 flood marks. Photos: P. Brigode, April 2011.

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