

Department of Sustainability and Environment



Estimating the Impacts of Climate Change on Victoria's Runoff using a Hydrological Sensitivity Model

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Executive Summary

This report provides estimated ranges of changes in mean annual runoff for all major Victorian catchments in 2030 and 2070 as a result of climate change. These changes are very approximate and are best used indicate the direction and magnitude of possible changes to water supply. These estimates should be considered with other major drivers of change which may also impact on supply. Due to the nature of the model used to derive these figures, they are intended for general guidance only. More accurate estimates involving the timing and variability of runoff and streamflow changes accounting for climate, land use and other factors will require a more applied approach.

Estimating the impact of climate change on runoff at the catchment scale has long been a difficult process. It involves taking the output from climate change models, scaling those in some way to estimate local changes, and applying those data to hydrological models. The method illustrated here is intended to provide a simple and quick estimate – a capacity that has previously been unavailable. It provides projections of change for runoff that complement the regional climate change projections for rainfall, temperature and potential evaporation normally provided by CSIRO.

The first part of the report describes the construction of a model representing hydrological sensitivity to climate change. It is a very simple model: percent change in mean annual rainfall and potential evaporation are used to estimate the percent change in mean annual streamflow. The model works best for more small to modest changes: because of non-linear responses of runoff to large changes in climate, results indicating a greater than 50% change from current runoff are not quantified further.

Projected changes in runoff for Victoria

In 2030, the most favourable outcome is a change in mean annual runoff of 0% to -20% occurring in catchments in the east and south of the state (East Gippsland shows a small chance of an increase) and, at worst, the possible change ranges from -5% to -45% in the west of the state. In 2070, increased runoff of 20% in East Gippsland is possible, but the minimum change across most of the state ranges between -5% and -10%. At worst, the model indicates changes that exceed a 50% reduction in all catchments.

Area	2030 Rang	ge of Change	2070 Range of Change		
	Wettest	Driest	Wettest	Driest	
North-East	0%	-20% to -30%	-5%		
North-West	-5%	-35% to -45%	-5% to -10%	Decreases greater	
South- East	+5% to -5%	-20% to -30%	+20% to -5%	than 50%	
South-West	-5%	-30% to -40%	-5% to -10%		

These changes are independent of any variations in runoff due to changes in natural climate variability or to processes such as land-use change.

Introduction

The hydrological sensitivity of a catchment to climate change can be defined as the change in average water yield (surface runoff and baseflow) to a given change in climate. If hydrological sensitivity can be estimated using simple changes in climate and easily obtained catchment characteristics, it should be possible to approximate potential changes in water yield for any catchment without calibrating and running a hydrological model.

Although the hydrological sensitivity across a range of catchments under current climate has been estimated (e.g. Milly and Dunne, 2002; Dooge et al., 1999), most studies assessing sensitivity to climate change are more strictly assessing hydrological model sensitivity (e.g. Singh and Bengtsson, 2004). That is, a range of climate changes have been applied to a model calibrated for a specific catchment. The resulting sensitivity is specific to that model and that catchment. Applying a single model to a range of catchments will produce an estimate of hydrological model sensitivity to climate change: the response of a particular hydrological model to a given catchment can be assessed, it is difficult to take this information and apply it to catchments with different physical characteristics.

To develop a method of assessing the hydrological sensitivity of catchments to climate change (this is largely independent of hydrological model structure), we explored the following two questions:

- 1. Which catchment characteristics are the main components of hydrological sensitivity?
- 2. What influence does model structure have on the sensitivity of the hydrological response to a perturbed climate?

The ultimate aim is to develop a simple method of estimating the hydrological sensitivity to a catchment that is independent of individual rainfall-runoff model structure. This report describes results that go part of the way in doing this.

One way to explore the sensitivity of hydrological models to climate change is to apply a set of climate change scenarios to a selection of models over a range of catchments that represent a variety of land uses and climates. These scenarios can either be artificial or represent plausible climate changes. In this situation, the emphasis is not on the precision of a single scenario or the accuracy of the resulting model output, but is instead on exploring a wide range of climatic and hydrological uncertainty.

Jones et al. (submitted) used this approach for 22 catchments across Australia, undertaking sensitivity analyses using three relatively simple hydrological models: two lumped parameter conceptual daily rainfall-runoff models [SIMHYD (Chiew et al., 2002), AWBM (Boughton and Chiew, 2003; Boughton, 2004) and one top-down 2 parameter model (Zhang et al., 2001)]. They described how this information may be used to develop a rule-of-thumb model that can be applied to make rapid estimates of potential changes in runoff under climate change.

Here, we have used the results from that work to create a model for assessing hydrological sensitivity that uses changes in mean annual rainfall (P) and wet environment evapotranspiration (Etw). This simple model is applied to all the major catchments in Victoria

to estimate possible ranges of change in mean annual water supply in 2030 and 2070 consistent with the projected changes in climate reported for Victoria by Whetton et al. (2002) and Suppiah et al. (2004).

The next few pages describe the technical aspects of the model, firstly summarising the approach used by Jones et al. (submitted), then describing how the simple model estimating catchment runoff in Victoria was constructed, before presenting the results along with caveats describing their appropriate use.

Approach

Most rainfall-runoff models utilise inputs of mean annual rainfall (P) and potential evapotranspiration (Ep) to estimate changes in runoff. Hydrological model sensitivity to climate change is considered here as the change in mean annual runoff (δQ) resulting from changes in mean annual precipitation (P) and potential evapotranspiration (Ep) produced by a specific hydrological model. The resultant changes in Q can be expressed as:

 $\delta Q = f(\delta P, \delta E p)$

Equation 1

where δQ is change in mean annual runoff, δP is change in mean annual precipitation, δEp is change in mean annual potential evapotranspiration. Recent work shows that the response in Q is fairly consistent across a number of rainfall-runoff models where the P/Ep ratio ranges between about 0.5 and 2 (Jones and Page, 2001; Chiew et al., 2005).

For example, Jones and Page (2001) coupled a climate change scenario generator to a catchment-scale hydrological model for the Macquarie River in eastern Australia, applying over 50 scenarios. They found that Equation 1 could be expressed as:

$$\delta Q = A \delta P + B \delta E p$$

Equation 2

where a and b are constants. This linear relationship performed well over most of the range of potential change for 2030 and 2070 except for exceptionally large decreases in rainfall where the relationship became non-linear. This simple relationship estimated percent change to mean annual flow with a standard error of $\pm 2\%$ mean annual flow for the Macquarie catchment (Jones and Page, 2001).

Factor A is a measure of the sensitivity of the model to change in P and factor B to change in Ep, both variables measured as percent change to the annual total. The use of potential evaporation rather than temperature to measure hydrological sensitivity is preferred because it is a more direct measure of moisture demand from the catchment surface.

The next step involved an assessment of how the A and B factors vary across different catchments (Jones et al., submitted). They used two rainfall-runoff models in this analysis: SIMHYD (Chiew et al., 2002) and AWBM (Boughton and Chiew, 2003). A third model, a simple conceptual model constructed by Zhang et al. (2001), was investigated by Jones et al. (submitted) but is not used here because its simplicity did not adequately account for the biophysical variations between catchments. Both SIMHYD and AWBM have been used widely in Australia.

The hydrological models

SIMHYD is a seven-parameter simple lumped conceptual daily rainfall-runoff model. In SIMHYD, daily rainfall first fills the interception store, which is emptied each day by evaporation. The excess rainfall is then subjected to an infiltration function that determines the infiltration capacity. The excess rainfall that exceeds the infiltration capacity becomes infiltration excess runoff. Moisture that infiltrates is subjected to a soil moisture function that diverts the water to the stream (interflow), groundwater store (recharge) and soil moisture store. Interflow is first estimated as a linear function of the soil wetness (soil moisture level divided by soil moisture capacity). The equation used to simulate interflow therefore attempts to mimic both the interflow and saturation excess processes (with the soil wetness used to reflect parts of the catchment that are saturated from which saturation excess runoff can occur). Groundwater recharge is then estimated, also as a linear function of the soil wetness. The remaining moisture flows into the soil moisture store.



Figure 1: Model structure of SIMHYD

Evapotranspiration from the soil moisture store is estimated as a linear function of the soil wetness, but cannot exceed the atmospherically controlled rate of areal potential evapotranspiration. The soil moisture store has a finite capacity and overflows into the groundwater store. Baseflow from the groundwater store is simulated as a linear recession from the store. The successful calibration (and verification) of SIMHYD on the 22 catchments selected for this study and many other Australian catchments are described in Peel et al. (2000) and Chiew et al. (2002).

AWBM has a similar structure to SIMHYD. It divides the catchment into three partial areas (A1, A2, A3), each with its own storage capacities (C1, C2, C3). Each area is treated separately. Daily rainfall fills the stores, with the spills becoming rainfall excess. A portion of the rainfall excess (baseflow index times rainfall excess) flows to the groundwater store, and the remainder becomes surface runoff. Baseflow from the groundwater store is simulated as a linear recession from the store. Evapotranspiration from all three stores proceeds at the potential rate. The total runoff is the sum of surface runoff and baseflow.

A simplified and robust version of AWBM (UGAWBM3 – see Boughton and Chiew, 2003) was used by Jones et al. (submitted). It has three parameters: average surface store capacity (C_{ave}); baseflow index (BFI) and baseflow recession constant (K_b). The three partial areas are set to default values and the storage capacities are determined from the average surface store capacity (see Figure 2).

In UGAWBM3, the parameter C_{ave} is determined from a set of daily rainfall and runoff data, such that the total modelled runoff is the same as the total recorded runoff. The remaining two parameters, BFI and K_b, are then optimised to provide the best match between the modelled and recorded daily runoffs. The catchments produce Coefficient of Efficiency measurements of between 0.65 and 0.95 with an average of 0.86.



Figure 2: Structure of the AWBM model.

Model sensitivity analysis

The sensitivity analysis was carried out for 22 catchments that produce some of the best model calibration results (Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency; Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) of 331 largely natural or "unimpaired" catchments across Australia (Peel et al., 2000). They were selected for an efficiency rating for monthly runoff prediction of greater than 0.8, a calibration against at least 15 years of streamflow data and to provide a good representation of different climates across Australia. Cross correlation between parameters was not addressed, as the emphasis was on the best reproduction of streamflow possible.

The sensitivity analysis involved the application of regular increments of change in annual P and Ep to inputs of daily data. The results are expressed as changes in mean annual runoff. Rainfall increments of -15%, -10%, 0 and +10% were used and Ep increments of 0, +5% and +10% for a total of 12 samples for each model run in each catchment. The constant factors, A and B, were determined by method of least squares regression, by minimising the sum of squares of the difference between δQ determined from the AWBM and SIMHYD modelling results and δQ estimated by equation (1). In most cases, the resulting R² statistic ranged between 0.97–0.999 and standard error was <2% of mean annual flow.

Figure 3 shows the relationship between the derived A and B factors for the SIMHYD and AWBM models across the 22 catchments.



A Factor (Rainfall)

Figure 3. Relationship between A and B factors for the SIMHYD and AWBM models across the 22 catchments.

Both models show that runoff is more sensitive to changes in rainfall than to changes in Ep. The sensitivity of runoff to rainfall is similar in the SIMHYD and AWBM models (Average A factor of 2.5 and 2.4 respectively). The runoff sensitivity to Ep is greater in AWBM

(Average B factor = -0.8) than SIMHYD (Average B factor = -0.5). The B factors have negative values showing that increases in potential evaporation reduce runoff. Therefore, the overall sensitivity of the SIMHYD and AWBM models to climate change across a range of catchments (measured as the standard deviation of values for the 22 catchments) is similar, with AWBM being slightly more sensitive to rainfall decreases and SIMHYD to rainfall increases (Jones et al., submitted). The values of the A and B factors from the two models were also highly correlated across the 22 catchments, being 0.83 for the A factor and 0.66 for the B factor. The A and B factors were also correlated with a wide range of both hydroclimatic and physical catchment characteristics (Table 1).

	Latitude	Longitude	Area (km²)	Annual rainfall	Annual runoff	Runoff coefficient	Annual Ep	Annual Ep/P	Baseflow Index
				(mm)	(mm)	(%)	(mm)	(ratio)	BFI
SIMHYD (A Factor)	0.05	-0.10	0.50	-0.47	-0.72	-0.83	-0.10	0.20	-0.10
SIMHYD (B Factor)	-0.31	-0.15	-0.17	-0.10	0.13	0.22	0.24	0.50	-0.34
AWBM (A Factor)	-0.05	-0.36	0.35	-0.53	-0.75	-0.87	-0.05	0.43	0.03
AWBM (B Factor)	0.08	0.09	-0.45	0.15	0.33	0.45	-0.07	-0.11	-0.18

Table 1. Correlation between major catchment characteristics and A and B factors for each of the SIMHYD and AWBM models.

Table 1 shows that correlations between A factor and rainfall were moderately negative (-0.47 to -0.53), higher for runoff (-0.72 to -0.75) and highly negative for runoff coefficient (runoff as a percentage of rainfall: -0.83 to -0.87). Therefore, catchment sensitivity to rainfall change (measured as percentage change from the baseline) increases as catchments become drier.

Correlations with the A factor were also negative for leaf area index, the proportion of woody vegetation and plant water-holding capacity (not shown). These negative correlations imply that hydrological sensitivity decreases with higher amounts of land cover and soil moisture. However, both factors increase with catchment rainfall and so also show proportional increase with the runoff co-efficient. Further tests, which involved manipulating these factors within a hydrological model, indicated that increasing soil depth and vegetation cover will make a catchment more sensitive to a given quantum of climate change.

The B factor was less sensitive to catchment characteristics, being most highly correlated with annual mean rainfall, percent runoff and vegetation characteristics. Ep sensitivity is also partially model dependent because of the different ways in which it is treated in different models. SIMHYD evaporates at a reduced level at low soil moisture whereas AWBM evaporates at the areal potential rate between field capacity and wilting point, so is slightly more sensitive to changes in potential evapotranspiration.

In summary, these tests show that for these two hydrological models, the simulated climate change response of runoff to δP and δEp is highly correlated between catchments, that δQ is two to three times more sensitive to δP than δEp , that these sensitivities increase with decreasing runoff co-efficients (i.e. with catchment aridity). Correlations between leaf area index, soil depth and catchment sensitivity are not independent of rainfall, so negative correlations between these factors across different catchments can largely be explained through rainfall variation. However, rainfall-runoff model simulations show that if two catchments in the same climate have a shallow and deep soil respectively, the catchment with the deeper soil will be more sensitive to climate change. This is partly due to the greater role

of Ep in catchments with deeper soils, but the role of different catchment characteristics in hydrological sensitivity needs to be examined further.

Sensitivities of both the A and B factors as a function of the runoff coefficient (runoff as a percentage of rainfall) are shown in Figure 4.



Figure 4. Sensitivity of A and B factors for the SIMHYD and AWBM models plotted against runoff as a percentage of mean annual rainfall over 22 catchments.

A simple model for hydrological sensitivity

This section describes how the information on hydrological sensitivity has been developed into a simple model estimating how mean annual flow may change given data on changes in mean annual P and Ep.

In the current study, for Ep we have used wet environment (or areal) evapotranspiration (Etw; see Morton, 1983; BoM, 2001). Etw is a more realistic measure of potential evaporation for hydrological modelling than either A Class pan evaporation or equivalent measures of point potential evapotranspiration (Etp). The difference between potential evapotranspiration at a point and over a larger area is that Ep from a point is too small to modify the overpassing airmass, whereas areal Ep measures the total potential evapotranspiration coming from a surface in equilibrium with the overpassing airmass, and where water is unlimited. It follows that areal potential evaporation is less than evaporation at a point. The application of a pan factor to A Class pan evaporation has often been used to estimate Etw, but differences in changes between Etp and Etw under climate change means that it is best not to use this approach to estimate hydrological impacts.

The highest joint correlations between the A and B factors and the range of catchment variables explored in the previous section was for the runoff coefficient measured as a percentage of rainfall. Therefore, the following simple model was constructed:

$$\delta \mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{c} \times \delta \mathbf{P}) + (\mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{c} \times \delta \mathbf{E}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{w})$$

Equation 3

where Qc is the runoff coefficient measured as runoff a percentage of rainfall and C and D are constants.

The values for C and D were constructed by the least squares regression method by regressing the A and B factors from Equation 2 against Qc using all of the SIMHYD and AWBM results, so the resulting outcome has a hydrological sensitivity midway between the two models. The results are shown in Table 2. Therefore $C \times Qc = A$, and $D \times Qc = B$ in Equation 2.

Table 2 shows that the variation in the C factor will have the greatest bearing on δQ . The strategy in choosing the runoff co-efficient was to maximise the predictability of the A abd B factors as in Equations 2. Because δP is the driving variable (it is up to 3.5 times more sensitive than δEtw) the low R² variable for the D factor is of low concern given the much high R² for the C factor.

Table 2. Regression factors for C and D factors in Equation 2. The factor y ₀ is the origin for
the relationship, the A factor is multiplied with Qc to obtain C and D respectively.

Factor	Y0	Α	\mathbf{R}^2	Standard Error
С	3.5172	-0.0440	0.71	0.25
D	-0.8079	0.0074	0.07	0.24

The simple model in Equation 3 was applied in the following manner:

1. Average annual runoff for the major catchments was calculated from figures in the National Land and Water Resources Atlas database and converted to a runoff co-efficient by catchment area.

- Patterns of change per degree of global warming for δP and δEtw from a range of global climate models were scaled by low, median and high estimates of mean global warming from IPCC (2001) for 2030 (0.54°C, 0.85°C, 1.24°C) and 2070 (1.17°C, 2.??, 3.77°C).
- 3. Equation 3 (using the runoff coefficient calculated in Step 1) was applied to each catchment to calculate the A and B factors.
- 4. Equation 2 was applied to calculate change in average annual change runoff for each catchment for 2030 and 2070.

The global climate models from which δP and δEtw were produced for Step 2 were the CSIRO Cubic Conformal, Mark 2 and Mark 3 models; the Canadian CGCM2, CGCM2 A2 SRES and CGCM2 B2 SRES models; the German ECHAM4/OPYC3 model; and the UK HadCM3, HadCM3 A2 SRES and HadCM3 B2 SRES models. The low, high and mid-range estimates of δP and δEtw in 2030 and 2070 were used to assess the range of possible change in δQ for 29 Victorian catchments,

Results

The output from ten climate models applied to three scenarios of global warming produces thirty projections of change in mean annual runoff each for 2030 and 2070. The results are summarised as the ranges of change throughout state in Table 3, and for each catchment in Table 4, rounded to the closest 5%. Values above 50% are not shown specifically because of the non-linear response of runoff to large changes in climate, which makes the results of this linear model unreliable. The results are also shown in Figure xx.

Table 3. Ranges of change in mean annual runoff for 2030 and 2070 summarised throughout Victoria.

Area	2030 Ran	ge of Change	2070 Range of Change		
	Wettest	Driest	Wettest	Driest	
North-East	0%	-20% to -30%	-5%		
North-West	-5%	-35% to -45%	-5% to -10%	Decreases greater	
South- East	+5% to -5%	-20% to -30%	+20% to -5%	than50%	
South-West	-5%	-30% to -40%	-5% to -10%		

Overall, the potential decreases in runoff tend to be smaller in the north-east and south-east and somewhat higher in the north-west and south-west. There is even a potential for an increase in runoff in East Gippsland.

In 2030, the most favourable outcomes are generally 0% in the north-east and south-east (East Gippsland shows a small chance of an increase) and -5% in the north-west and south-west. The driest outcomes range from -20% to -30% in the north-east and south-east, to -30% and -40% in the southwest and up to -45% in the north-west.

In 2070, increased runoff in East Gippsland is possible, but the minimum change across most of the State is between -5% and -10%. The largest potential changes in runoff indicated by the model exceed 50% in all Surface Water Management Areas (SWMAs).

Figure 5 shows the changes in runoff in 2030 for each catchment, illustrating the total range and the range obtained using the median global warming from IPCC (2001). The central coloured bar within the upright lines shows the range of changes in runoff obtained using the median global warming (0.85°C) for each catchment. The short tail between the wettest outcome and the wettest outcome under median warming, and the long tail between the two at the dry end shows that the outcomes are skewed towards lesser changes. Very dry outcomes are possible, but less likely. A similar pattern would be expected to occur in 2070, where a change occurring in the wetter two-thirds of the range is more likely than a drier outcome.

Caveats

To interpret these results appropriately, the following factors need to be taken in account:

- The baseline data on runoff is taken from the 1997–2001 National Land and Water Resources Atlas, which is based on data supplied by the Victorian Government and water authorities. Changes are expressed as percentage change from those figures (see http://audit.ea.gov.au/ANRA/water/docs/state_technical/VIC_tecpage.html for a description of the method for deriving mean annual runoff). A more rigorous approach would see a standard length of record used, as was the case for baseline climate (e.g. 1961–1990).
- Both runoff and runoff changes are assessed at the catchment scale. If the changes were area-weighted or contained the spatial detail to represent the higher runoff areas in each catchment more explicitly, the results would be more conservative. For example, most of the runoff within Victoria's catchments is in upland areas, so that climate changes in those places will have the greatest effect on runoff rather than changes averaged across the whole catchment. However, the climate models do not offer that spatial detail in terms of projected climate change because of their large grid sizes (with the exception of the CSIRO Cubic Conformal model), nor do we have access to runoff data at this scale. However, the exploration of a higher resolution approach is planned.
- If changes in decadal mean rainfall occur due to factors other than the greenhouse effect (e.g. long-term variations in natural climate) they will be additional to changes estimated here. This may be a factor if the current run of dry years dating from 1994 continues and climate changes due to the enhanced greenhouse effect also intensify. Alternatively, if wetter, flood-dominated periods similar to the period 1948–1976 occur in the future, the impact of long-term rainfall reductions due to greenhouse will be less severe.
- The figures provided in this report are meant to provide a broad indication of the likely range of mean changes in runoff in Victorian catchments due to the enhanced greenhouse effect. Both the CSIRO researchers and experts within the Victorian Department of Sustainability and Environment, strongly advise that any detailed strategic planning regarding the future allocation and management of water resources should be based on more rigorous scientific assessments and also include an evaluation of other potential impacts on water resources as well as climate change.
- More research is also being planned on how the impacts of the enhanced greenhouse effect and ongoing natural climate variability may combine. This will take place under CSIRO's Healthy Country Flagship Program and the South-eastern Australian Climate Project. Further research will also investigate the impact of using a more spatially explicit approach for estimating hydrological sensitivity to climate change as anticipated by some of the above limitations.

Climate change impacts on Victoria's runoff in 2030 and 2070

Table 4. Ranges of change in runoff (percentage change of annual average runoff) for 2030 and 2070 across Victoria's major surface water management areas (see Figure 6). The wettest and driest changes delimit measure the total range of change (rounded to the nearest 5%) from all ten climate models in 2030 and 2070. Runoff, developed yield and development category are from the NLWRA database.

Murray-Darling Drainage Division	Area (km²)	Runoff (ML)	Developed Yield (ML)	Development Category*	2030 wettest	2030 driest	2070 wettest	2070 driest
Upper Murray River ¹	10150	2803000	837950	High Development	0.0	-20.0	-5.0	>-50
Kiewa River	1913	679000	9000	High Development	0.0	-20.0	-5.0	>-50
Ovens River	7985	1692000	26000	High Development	0.0	-25.0	-5.0	>-50
Broken River	7100	326000	32000	High Development	0.0	-35.0	-5.0	>-50
Goulburn River	16858	3366000	1943000	High Development	0.0	-35.0	-5.0	>-50
Campaspe River	4048	305000	121000	High Development	-5.0	-35.0	-5.0	>-50
Loddon River	15658	415000	109000	High Development	-5.0	-35.0	-5.0	>-50
Avoca River	14211	136200	3380	High Development	-5.0	-40.0	-5.0	>-50
Mallee	21595	0	0	High Development	-5.0	-45.0	-5.0	>-50
Wimmera-Avon Rivers	30409	316400	94250	Over Development	-5.0	-40.0	-10.0	>-50
South-east Drainage Division								
East Gippsland	4521	655000	1230	Low Development	5.0	-30.0	20.0	>-50
Snowy River	6856	863000	5400	Medium Development	0.0	-30.0	0.0	>-50
Tambo River	4212	329000	6880	Medium Development	0.0	-30.0	0.0	>-50
Mitchell River	4873	1100000	18900	Medium Development	0.0	-25.0	-5.0	>-50
Thomson-Macalister Rivers ²	6426	1080600	427370	High Development	0.0	-25.0	-5.0	>-50
Latrobe River	4676	887000	261560	Medium Development	0.0	-20.0	-5.0	>-50
South Gippsland	6789	851000	21870	Low Development	-5.0	-25.0	-5.0	>-50
Bunyip River	4078	354000	46280	Low Development	-5.0	-30.0	-5.0	>-50
Yarra River	4110	1200000	466300	High Development	0.0	-20.0	-5.0	>-50
Maribyrnong River	1453	125400	9980	Low Development	-5.0	-30.0	-5.0	>-50
Werribee River	1978	147000	35900	High Development	-5.0	-30.0	-5.0	>-50
Moorabool River	2225	91400	45270	Medium Development	-5.0	-35.0	-10.0	>-50
Barwon River	3809	250800	45700	Medium Development	-5.0	-30.0	-10.0	>-50
Lake Corangamite	4081	120500	750	High Development	-5.0	-40.0	-10.0	>-50
Otway Coast	3876	750000	26100	Low Development	-5.0	-30.0	-10.0	>-50
Hopkins River	10096	405600	10440	Medium Development	-5.0	-35.0	-10.0	>-50
Portland Coast	3963	231000	1100	Low Development	-5.0	-40.0	-10.0	>-50
Glenelg River	11998	704400	72770	High Development	-5.0	-35.0	-10.0	>-50
Millicent Coast	7426	4000	210	High Development	-5.0	-35.0	-10.0	>-50

¹ The Upper Murray River contains both the Victorian portion of the Upper Murray River catchment and the Mitta Mitta River catchment. ² The Thomson-Macalister includes the Thomson, Macalister and Avon catchments.



Figure 5. Range of possible change in runoff for 2030 across Victoria's major surface water management areas. The vertical lines measure the total range of change from ten climate models with a range of global warming of 0.54-1.24°C. The central boxes project the range of change at a 0.85°C (median) global warming. These show that the results are biased towards smaller decreases. Note that the Mallee has no effective runoff.



Figure 4. Victoria's 29 major surface water management areas with changes in mean annual runoff from Figure 3. Note that decreases run from right to left.

Individual Areas

Interpretation of changes

The following pages contain a catchment-by-catchment description of major biophysical characteristics, water resources and water use, together with a graphical representation of the results of the simple model for 2030. The catchment descriptions are sourced from the online National Land and Water Resources 1997–2001 Atlas.

An example is shown in Figure 5. The shaded bar shows the range of change as produced by the hydrological sensitivity model. Within that bar are thirty points representing the product of the output from ten climate models multiplied by three values of global warming. Those values are 0.54°C, 0.85°C and 1.24°C, which are the low, median and high outcomes from the IPCC (2001) projections of global warming based on the SRES emission scenarios (see CSIRO, 2001).





The scatter of these outcomes will indicate whether modest or severe reductions in runoff are projected. In most cases, the models tend to cluster towards the wetter two-thirds or half of the possible range. This can be taken as a guide to where the most likely outcome for the impact of greenhouse-induced climate change on mean annual runoff for each catchment lies. Note that the caveats in the previous section caution that natural climate variability can also affect such outcomes.

How likely is it that the eventual change in mean runoff will occur within the stated range for each catchment? The answer to this question is unknown – currently, there is no objective method of determining the likelihood of runoff reductions falling outside the ranges specified here. It is possible that climate change will affect rainfall and potential evaporation in such a way that has not been captured by any of the models. However, model results point strongly to runoff decreases across the entire state. Although increases in runoff are possible, apart from the East Gippsland SWMA, we have no cases where model output producec estimates of increased runoff at the catchment scale anywhere in Victoria. The most likely places where runoff may increase are along the east and the south coast.

We also have little idea of how decadal scale and longer aspects of natural climate variability may develop, but they could produce changes in rainfall of as much as $\pm 20\%$ from the long-term mean. In addition to the impacts of climate change on mean annual rainfall and evaporation, other associated factors such as the potential for more intense rainfall and changes in fire risk and land use in response to climate change will also be expected to result in some changes in catchment water balances. However, according to current science, these factors are not expected to have as large an impact on catchment water balances as changes in the basic climate parameters (i.e. rainfall and evaporation).



















Climate change impacts on Victoria's runoff in 2030 and 2070



Mitchell River	

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^{*} Rounded to the nearest 5%