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# River flow modelling in two large river basins: the Paraná (South America) and the Niger (West Africa)

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## Abstract:

A conceptual water balance model is applied in a distributed manner to model monthly river flow in tributaries of two very large river systems, the Paraná river in South America and the River Niger in West Africa. The approach utilises global data sets of rainfall and potential evaporation (PE) time series and soil available water capacity at 0.5 degree latitude and longitude resolution. River flow data for tributaries ranging in size from 631 to 71 510 km<sup>2</sup> for the period 1931–1990 (Paraná) and 1950–1989 (Niger) are used to calibrate and validate the model. The results show varying degrees of model performance during both the calibration and validation procedure. The analysis highlights some interesting issues pertaining to the development and application of water balance models such as sensitivity of model performance and parameter values to input data sets, particularly the method chosen to estimate PE. The paper ends with an analysis of prolonged fluctuation in flow characteristics exhibited by both rivers after the early 1970s, associated with fluctuation in rainfall regime and possibly change in land use or land cover. Between 1931–1971 and 1972–1990 Paraná river flows increased by ~28% (rainfall increase ~5%) and between 1950–1969 and 1970–1989 Niger river flows decreased by ~34% (rainfall decrease ~14%). Copyright © 2009 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

KEY WORDS South America; West Africa; modelling; river basin; rainfall variability; land cover change

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## INTRODUCTION

Water balance models of varying degrees of complexity have been widely used in a number of hydrological applications (Alley, 1984; Xu and Singh, 1998). Here, we apply a simple conceptual water balance first developed by Thornthwaite and Mather (1955) in a distributed manner to model monthly river flow in tributaries of two very large river systems, the Paraná river in South America and the Niger river in West Africa. This approach utilises a monthly water balance with gridded inputs of rainfall and potential evaporation (PE) along the lines of Vörösmarty *et al.* (1989) on the Amazon and Conway (1997) on the Blue Nile. The paper presents preliminary river flow modelling results from two separate research projects, one investigating the implications of climate variability and change for water resources in the Rio de la Plata (Conway *et al.*, 1999) and a longer term research programme investigating climate and water resource dynamics in West Africa. The paper uses a consistent modelling procedure and standard spatial data sets for both river basins to examine model performance and the effects of employing different input PE data sets in two contrasting large river basins. The paper ends with an examination and discussion of fluctuations in the rainfall and river flow regimes of both basins that occurred during the early 1970s.

The Paraná river comprises a major part of the Rio de la Plata basin, draining parts of Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, the southern states of Brazil, and Argentina, with a total area of 3 100 000 km<sup>2</sup>. This paper deals with the Paraná upstream of the river gauge at Posadas, an area of 933 360 km<sup>2</sup> with mean annual discharge of 12 329 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The area drained is largely within south-eastern Brazil, a highland area (300–1200 m) with heavy seasonal rains (1000–2400 mm), and high temperatures. Soils derive from heavily weathered parent materials which have formed erodible yellowish or reddish-yellow latosols with low fertility rich in iron and aluminium oxides and kaolinitic clays (Bonetto *et al.*, 1987). The Paraná basin encompasses major urban areas including São Paulo and Brasilia, many of the tributaries are heavily developed for hydropower with numerous dams providing up to 18 715.2 MW year<sup>-1</sup> (over 50% of Brazil's total) and the river serves an important navigation function.

The Niger upstream of the gauge at Koulikoro drains parts of Guinea and Mali with a total area of 120 000 km<sup>2</sup> and mean annual discharge of 1390 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The upper basin of the River Niger at Siguiri (67 600 km<sup>2</sup>) gathers runoff from four tributaries inside Guinea, the Tinkisso, the Niger itself, the Niandan and the Milo. Rainfall ranges from 1300 mm in the north to 2200 mm in the humid and mountainous areas (up to 1700 m) in the south and south-west, at the border with Sierra-Leone and Liberia. The other neighbouring countries are Ivory Coast and Senegal. The geology is mainly of granites and gneisses

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1 of the old African Infracambrian, with moderate capacity  
 2 for groundwater reserves. These rivers are perennial,  
 3 have tropical regimes and supply flood water to the  
 4 Niger Inland Delta that expands from about 4000 to 20-  
 5 30 000 km<sup>2</sup> in the flood season providing opportunities  
 6 for flood-related cropping, fishing and seasonal grazing.

## 9 DATA SETS

### 10 *Gridded data sets*

11 The approach utilises global data sets of rainfall,  
 12 potential evaporation and soil available water capacity  
 13 at 0.5 degree latitude and longitude resolution. Monthly  
 14 time series of rainfall from 1901 to 1995 were used  
 15 from New *et al.* (2000). PE time series were constructed  
 16 using the 1901–1995 mean monthly temperature ( $t_{\min}$   
 17 and  $t_{\max}$ ), vapour pressure, and sunshine hour time series  
 18 from New *et al.* (2000) and constant baseline windspeed  
 19 data for the period 1961–1990 from New *et al.* (1999).  
 20 The global rainfall and temperature data sets of New  
 21 *et al.* were augmented with additional station data from  
 22 regional sources and re-gridded to improve the spatial  
 23 coverage over both river basins.

24 A number of PE functions were used for the analysis  
 25 but results with only two are presented here. A version of  
 26 Penman (PE<sub>TO</sub>—Thom and Oliver, 1977) and a reference  
 27 crop potential evaporation (PE<sub>RC</sub>—Shuttleworth, 1993)  
 28 with resistances defined as for clipped grass, 0–12m high.  
 29 There are significant differences between the methods  
 30 within and between regions. The basin average PE is  
 31 much higher with PE<sub>RC</sub> than PE<sub>TO</sub> over the Niger but  
 32 slightly lower with PE<sub>RC</sub> than PE<sub>TO</sub> over the Paraná.  
 33 The widest range in annual values occur with PE<sub>RC</sub>  
 34 over both regions and the maximum values for PE<sub>RC</sub>  
 35 are unrealistically high in both regions, particularly the  
 36 Niger, and are used here for means of comparison  
 37 only. Comparison with locally derived PE estimates for  
 38 parts of the Niger basin using FAO Penman shows  
 39 reasonable agreement with PE<sub>TO</sub> in the dry season and  
 40 slight underestimates (~10%) in the wet season. PE<sub>RC</sub>  
 41 overestimates FAO Penman throughout the year, but to a  
 42 much greater extent in the dry season.

43 The 0.5 degree resolution data set of plant-extractable  
 44 water capacity from Dunne and Willmott (1996) was  
 45 used to provide an estimate of soil water capacity. These  
 46 values are calculated from FAO soil profile data, using  
 47 horizon particle size data and thickness, soil organic  
 48 matter content estimated empirically from climate data  
 49 and plant rooting depth and ground coverage obtained  
 50 from an unpublished vegetation characteristic data set.  
 51 Values of plant-extractable water range from 10 to  
 52 225 mm (Paraná) and 6 to 190 mm (Niger).  
 53

### 54 *Station data*

55 River flow data for tributaries ranging in size from 631  
 56 to 71 510 km<sup>2</sup> for the periods with best data coverage  
 57 1931–1990 (Paraná, six tributaries) and 1950–1989  
 58 (Niger, three tributaries) are used to calibrate and validate  
 59

60 the model. Longer duration series are used from the main  
 61 stem of the Paraná (Posadas, 1901–1992) and the Niger  
 62 (Koulikoro, 1907–2000) to analyse long-term trends in  
 63 river flow. All the river flow series have been quality  
 64 controlled and corrected for the effects of reservoirs in  
 65 the case of the Paraná and its tributaries (Garcia and  
 66 Vargas, 1996). Koulikoro is downstream of a junction  
 67 with a major tributary, the Sankarani River, on which  
 68 there is a small dam, which mainly affects the regime by  
 69 maintaining low flows at roughly 200 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and slightly  
 70 delays the peak flood. The Niger data were collected  
 71 by IRD (ex-ORSTOM) before the 1960s, and by the  
 72 National Services since then. The quality of the data have  
 73 been checked recently during the joint French-Malian  
 74 EQUANIS research program in Mali, aimed at studying  
 75 the changes in the hydrological regime and transport of  
 76 sediment and dissolved solutes by the River Niger.

## 78 THE MODEL

79 The model is fully described in Conway (1997) and uses a  
 80 soil moisture accounting procedure where rainfall excess  
 81 over PE is used to fill a soil moisture reservoir, taken as  
 82 the soil water capacity. When the soil reservoir is full, any  
 83 remaining excess is added to a linear storage reservoir  
 84 where a proportion ( $\beta$ ) becomes runoff in the current  
 85 timestep and the remainder is held over into the following  
 86 timestep. Where rainfall is less than PE, the soil moisture  
 87 is depleted with an exponential drying function from  
 88 Vörösmarty *et al.* (1998). A small proportion of rainfall  
 89 ( $\alpha$ ) is partitioned directly into the storage reservoir to  
 90 allow for river flow in those months where PE is greater  
 91 than rainfall. In its simplest form, the model has just the  
 92 two parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , however, for the highly seasonal  
 93 rainfall regime in the Niger, three different values of  $\alpha$   
 94 and  $\beta$  were introduced for three conditions of PE and  
 95 rainfall ( $\alpha_1$  and  $\beta_1$  where  $P < PE$ ;  $\alpha_2$  and  $\beta_2$  where  $P >$   
 96  $PE$  and  $P < 1.7 PE$ ; and  $\alpha_3$  and  $\beta_3$  where  $P > 1.7 PE$ ).  
 97 The extra parameter values were introduced to improve  
 98 the simulation of the seasonal cycle of Niger river flow by  
 99 the model which tended to underestimate (overestimate)  
 100 in the dry (wet) season. Runoff and storage are calculated  
 101 for all contributing whole or partial 0.5 degree grid  
 102 cells within each catchment. Runoff is then summed to  
 103 produce an estimate of overall monthly river flow.  
 104

## 105 RESULTS

### 106 *Model results*

107 Calibrations were performed over the period 1961–  
 108 1990 (Paraná) and 1950–1969 (Niger) using perfor-  
 109 mance criteria listed in Tables I and II: the coefficient  
 110 of efficiency (CE—Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970), greatest  
 111 weight was given to this in the calibration; percent error  
 112 between the mean annual observed and modelled river  
 113 flow (%AN); and correlation between annual observed  
 114 and modelled river flow ( $r_a$ ). Modelling results are shown  
 115

Table I. Paraná, optimised parameter values for calibration period (1961–1990) and performance statistics (see text for explanation of acronyms) during calibration and validation (1931–1960)

	$\alpha$	$\beta$	Cal CE	Cal %AN	Cal $r_a$	Val CE	Val %AN	Val $r_a$
Grande	0.15	0.25	0.76	-19	0.86	0.59	-20	0.63
	<i>0.20</i>	<i>0.40</i>	<i>0.48</i>	<i>-44</i>	<i>0.79</i>	<i>0.39</i>	<i>-41</i>	<i>0.64</i>
Pardo	0.16	0.25	0.79	-10	0.90	0.64	-9	0.72
	<i>0.24</i>	<i>0.35</i>	<i>0.55</i>	<i>-33</i>	<i>0.86</i>	<i>0.40</i>	<i>-32</i>	<i>0.75</i>
Araguari	0.12	0.20	0.82	-7	0.85	0.51	+6	0.28
	<i>0.15</i>	<i>0.30</i>	<i>0.57</i>	<i>-38</i>	<i>0.84</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>-29</i>	<i>0.32</i>
Jordao	0.18	0.65	0.72	-24	0.97	0.42	0	0.70
	<i>0.30</i>	<i>0.75</i>	<i>0.51</i>	<i>-37</i>	<i>0.96</i>	<i>0.43</i>	<i>-20</i>	<i>0.74</i>
Iguazú	0.11	0.50	0.69	-16	0.96	0.73	-14	0.96
	<i>0.30</i>	<i>0.75</i>	<i>0.44</i>	<i>-31</i>	<i>0.93</i>	<i>0.49</i>	<i>-24</i>	<i>0.91</i>
Jacui	0.25	0.20	0.68	-9	0.90	0.48	-20	0.71
	<i>0.30</i>	<i>0.15</i>	<i>0.50</i>	<i>-22</i>	<i>0.88</i>	<i>0.42</i>	<i>-26</i>	<i>0.73</i>

Results with PE<sub>TO</sub> on first line and PE<sub>RC</sub> on second line (italics).

Table II. Niger, optimised parameter values for calibration (1951–1970) and performance statistics (see text for explanation of acronyms) during calibration and validation (1971–1989)

	$\alpha_1$	$\alpha_2$	$\alpha_3$	$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$	$\beta_3$	Cal CE	Cal %AN	Cal $r_a$	Val CE	Val %AN	Val $r_a$
Siguiiri	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.23	0.33	0.30	0.78	+43	0.75	0.43	+92	0.59
	<i>0.03</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.53</i>	<i>0.60</i>	<i>0.41</i>	<i>0.94</i>	<i>+4</i>	<i>0.77</i>	<i>0.97</i>	<i>+32</i>	<i>0.52</i>
Baro	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.23	0.34	0.32	0.79	+35	0.73	0.52	+68	0.81
	<i>0.06</i>	<i>0.07</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>0.52</i>	<i>0.52</i>	<i>0.41</i>	<i>0.89</i>	<i>-2</i>	<i>0.70</i>	<i>0.82</i>	<i>+16</i>	<i>0.74</i>
Kankan	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.18	0.29	0.29	0.58	+59	0.69	0.51	+78	0.84
	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.03</i>	<i>0.31</i>	<i>0.44</i>	<i>0.37</i>	<i>0.84</i>	<i>+16</i>	<i>0.70</i>	<i>0.86</i>	<i>+24</i>	<i>0.83</i>

Results with PE<sub>TO</sub> on first line and PE<sub>RC</sub> on second line (italics).

1 in Tables I and II for six (Paraná) and three (Niger) tribu-  
 2 taries, respectively, for the calibration and validation peri-  
 3 ods (validation: Paraná 1931–1960; Niger 1970–1989).

4 The results show differences in model performance  
 5 between and within the two river systems, with choice  
 6 of PE function, and across the calibration and validation  
 7 periods. PE<sub>TO</sub> results in better performance than PE<sub>RC</sub> in  
 8 all six Paraná tributaries, with CEs all above 0.68 and  
 9 good simulation of interannual variability. Errors in the  
 10 annual water balance are rather large in nearly all cases,  
 11 with both PE functions producing runoff underestimates  
 12 and PE<sub>RC</sub> producing very large underestimates. For the  
 13 validation period, model performance is reduced in all  
 14 cases except for slight improvements in the Iguazú. The  
 15 tendency to underestimate the annual water balance also  
 16 occurs, but to a slightly lesser extent, in the validation  
 17 period. Large errors occur with both PE functions in the  
 18 Jordao (overestimated) and the Jacui (underestimated).  
 19 Optimised parameter values vary widely between the  
 20 tributaries primarily due to differences in seasonal rainfall  
 21 and PE regimes (not shown). Storage parameter  $\beta$  is  
 22 low (indicative of higher storage in the model) in the  
 23 Grande, Pardo, Araguari and Jacui, where rainfall is  
 24 highly seasonal. Parameter  $\beta$  is higher (low storage) in the  
 25 Iguazú and Jordao, where rainfall is much less seasonal.

26 Preliminary results for the Niger contrast markedly  
 27 with those for the Paraná. With PE<sub>TO</sub>, there are very  
 28 large overestimates of river flow in all three tributaries,

even with the reasonable CE and correlation between 29  
 observed and simulated annual runoff. Better agreement 30  
 is achieved with PE<sub>RC</sub> because the unrealistically high 31  
 values offset the runoff overestimates to produce a closer 32  
 catchment water balance. Over the validation period 33  
 (1970–1989), there is a decrease in the CE with PE<sub>TO</sub> 34  
 (little change with PE<sub>RC</sub>) and slight improvement in 35  
 annual correlation in two out of three tributaries. There 36  
 are marked increases in the runoff overestimates in all 37  
 cases which are likely to be related to the fluctuation 38  
 in rainfall and river flow regimes, discussed below, that 39  
 occurred between the periods used for calibration and 40  
 validation. 41

#### 42 Fluctuation in river flow regimes 43

44 Figure 1 shows annual river flow, rainfall and runoff 45  
 coefficient of the Paraná at Posadas (1901–1990) and 46  
 the Niger at Koulikoro (1907–2000). A notable shift 47  
 occurred in the rainfall and discharge regimes of both 48  
 rivers around the beginning of the 1970s. The fluctuation 49  
 in rainfall and runoff regimes over the upper basins 50  
 and tributaries is highlighted in Table III by comparing 51  
 the periods 1931–1971 with 1972–1990 for the Paraná 52  
 (1950–1969 with 1970–1989 for the Niger). River flow 53  
 increased by approximately 28% in the Paraná and 54  
 decreased by 34% in the Niger between their respective 55  
 periods. Rainfall fluctuation over the Paraná basin is 56

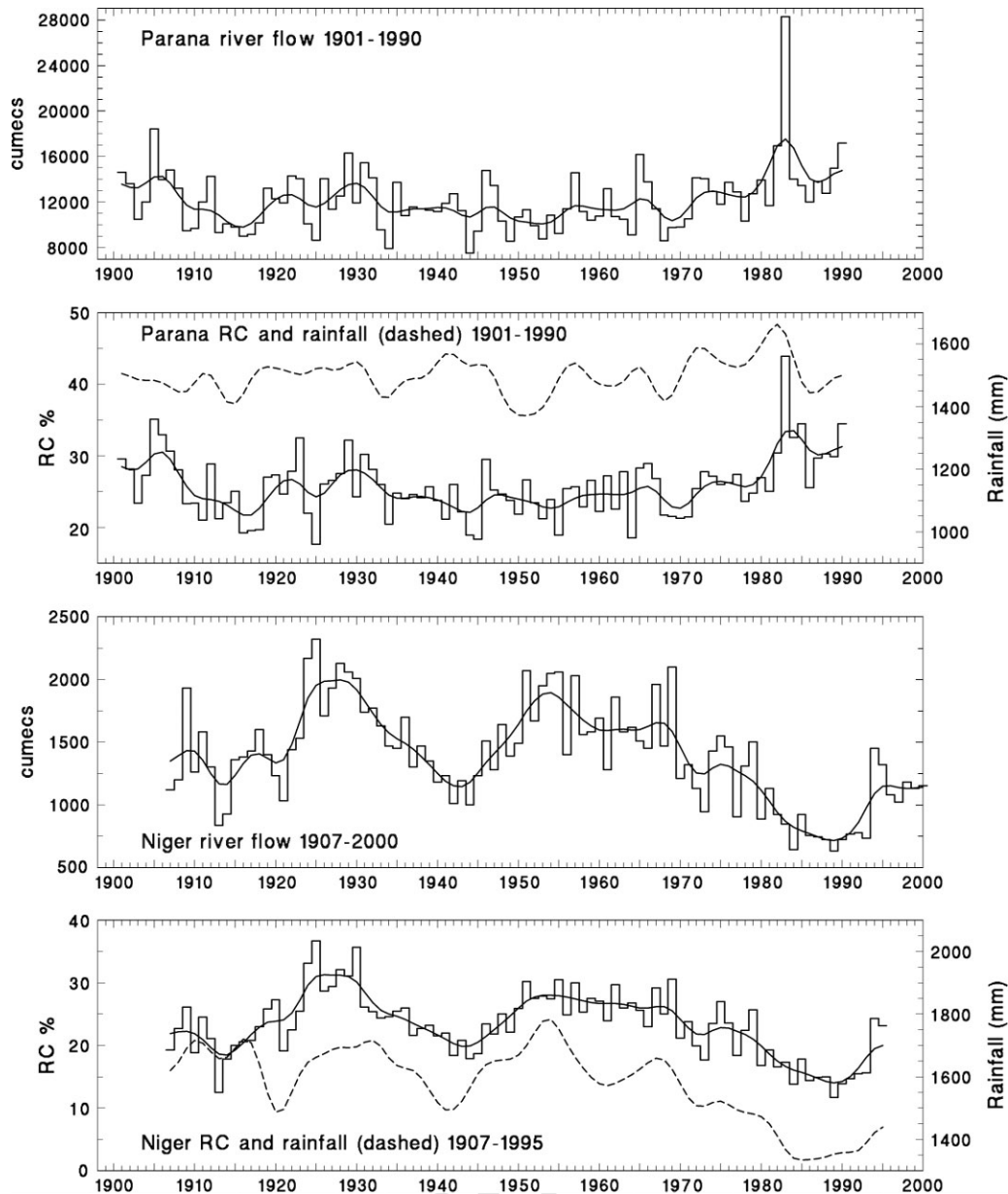


Figure 1. Paraná (at Posadas) and Niger (at Koulikoro): annual and 10-year smoothed river flow (Gaussian filter); 10-year smoothed basin average rainfall (Gaussian filter, dashed line); and annual and 10-year smoothed runoff coefficient (RC in percent)

1 generally much lower in percentage terms than the  
 2 decreases over the Niger. The slight decrease in rainfall  
 3 and substantial increase in runoff over the Jordao  
 4 is surprising but may be related to errors in the rainfall  
 5 data set and deserves further study. The tributaries  
 6 record differences in runoff between the two periods  
 7 ranging from  $-39$  to  $+28\%$ , which are much larger in  
 8 percentage terms than the fluctuations in rainfall, which  
 9 range from  $-16$  to  $+10\%$ . This reflects the nonlinear  
 10 nature of rainfall–runoff processes due to variability  
 11 in rainfall intensities and catchment surface and sub-  
 12 surface characteristics, variations in PE and antecedent  
 13 moisture conditions. Figure 1 and Table III show the  
 14 fluctuations in rainfall and runoff regime are accompanied  
 15 by fluctuations in the runoff coefficients of some of the  
 16 tributaries. The regime changes have been documented  
 17 and analysed in a number of studies and in the case of the

Paraná hypothesised to also be associated with changes  
 in land use, namely a large-scale move from perennial  
 to annual cultivation in parts of the basin (Tucci and  
 Clarke, 1998). Given the size and duration of rainfall  
 fluctuation over both basins, particularly the Niger, there  
 is also the possibility that climatically induced changes in  
 land cover may have altered established rainfall–runoff  
 relationships.

Figure 2a and b shows the rainfall–runoff relationship  
 for three separate periods; the recent wet/dry periods  
 in the Paraná/Niger, the preceding years dating back to  
 the beginning of the model calibration period, and the  
 available record prior to the start date used for model  
 calibration. For the Paraná, there is much overlap between  
 all three periods and wide scatter evidenced by low  
 regression results. The extreme rainfall and flow year  
 of 1983 has been removed because of its strong outlier

Table III. Mean annual rainfall ( $P$ , mm), river flow ( $Q$ ,  $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and runoff coefficient (RC, %) and percentage change between two periods, 1931–1971 and 1972–1990 for the Paraná and 1950–1969 and 1970–1989 for the Niger

Area	$P$	$Q$	RC	$P$	$Q$	RC	$P$	$Q$	RC	
Paraná		1931–1971			1972–1990				% Change	
Paraná <sup>a</sup>	993 360	1478	11 200	25.5	1554	14 289	30.8	+5.1	+27.6	+20.8
Grande	6280	1427	132	46.5	1508	144	48.0	+5.7	+8.7	+3.2
Pardo	2566	1662	55	40.7	1727	60	42.7	+3.9	+9.6	+4.9
Araguari	15 300	1471	280	39.3	1549	309	41.1	+5.3	+10.3	+4.6
Jordao	4480	1737	108	43.8	1730	138	56.2	−0.4	+27.2	+28.3
Iguazú	29 900	1464	592	42.7	1605	718	47.2	+9.6	+21.3	+10.5
Jacui	631	1457	11	37.8	1596	12	37.6	+9.5	+9.6	−0.5
Niger		1950–1969			1970–1989				% Change	
Niger <sup>b</sup>	120 000	1663	1719	27.2	1436	1048	19.0	−13.7	−39.0	−30.2
Siguiri	67 600	1735	1236	33.3	1464	755	24.1	−15.6	−38.8	−27.6
Baro	12 770	1974	271	33.9	1740	189	26.8	−11.9	−30.3	−20.9
Kankan	9260	1974	211	35.1	1762	160	29.8	−10.7	−24.1	−15.1

<sup>a</sup> The whole upper Paraná from the gauge at Posadas.

<sup>b</sup> the whole upper Niger from the gauge at Koulikoro.

effects which reduces the regression  $R^2$  from 0.57 to 0.27 (Figure 2a), and more than halves the regression line gradient ( $y = 15.6x - 9968$ ). The main difference between the wet and preceding periods in the Paraná is the higher runoff during the wet period, averaging around 2000 cumecs more for a given rainfall. For the Niger, there is much less overlap between the dry and the preceding periods, the regression gradient is slightly steeper in the dry period and runoff averages about 200 cumecs higher during the preceding period for a given rainfall. For both rivers, the earliest periods have the weakest relationships, possibly as a result of the reduced number of rain gauges contributing to the basin rainfall series, something which is difficult to check using gridded data products. Thirty-year running correlations between rainfall and runoff (not shown) clearly indicate improving correlation over time from around  $r = 0.50$  (Paraná) and 0.40 (Niger) in the 1920s, reaching a plateau value in the early 1960s of 0.70 (Paraná) and 0.90 (Niger).

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Both model performance and parameter values are sensitive to the characteristics of input data sets, particularly the method used to estimate PE. These differences have an impact on the simulated water balance in the tributaries and, to a certain extent, can be accounted for in the model calibration process. There is an interesting contrast in the results for both river basins. Using a similar modelling approach and consistent data sets, runoff in the Paraná tributaries is substantially underestimated and runoff in the Niger tributaries overestimated. Although the best model results for the Niger were obtained with a standard reference crop Penman function, this formula produces unrealistically high values in both river basins (particularly over the Niger) and is used here only to highlight an extreme case. The more realistic  $PE_{TO}$  function produces the best results in all six Paraná tributaries. As it has been found in the United States choice of PE function

to close catchment water balances is not clear-cut and affects the results of hydrological models (Vörösmarty *et al.*, 1998).

The large overestimate of runoff in the Niger tributaries may be due to failure to represent additional sources of water loss in the catchments. These may include percolation to deep aquifers, evaporation losses from surface water and an overall underestimate of soil moisture storage. Future work will concentrate on this final possibility by comparing the soil data set used here with other global data sets and locally available information on soils (Mahé *et al.*, 2004). Vörösmarty *et al.* (1991) also needed to adjust PE estimates to compensate for a systematic overestimate of mean annual runoff by almost 200% in the Zambezi river basin. For the FAO's water balance model of Africa (FAO, 2001), correction factors for soil moisture and PE were applied to humid areas to reduce model runoff and applied to dry areas to increase model runoff. They suggest that the need for correction factors in humid areas could be explained by the fact that no vegetation factors were applied to the PE estimates leading to underestimates of actual PE by dense vegetation with high interception and transpiration capacities. Such factors may also apply in the source areas of the upper Niger modelled here.

The observed fluctuations in rainfall and river flow regimes raise a number of interesting questions relating to data quality, split sample approaches to model calibration and validation, the role of land use change and the challenge of modelling future climate change impacts. For rainfall and PE data quality, the period 1961–1990 is likely to be the most accurate (New *et al.*, 2000), however, moving back in time the number of gauges contributing to catchment series will decline substantially and is likely to be very low during the early decades of the century. For many of the tributaries of both rivers, the correlations between observed and simulated annual river flow are quite high, particularly for the tributaries of the Paraná, which suggests the rainfall estimates used here are good in terms of capturing interannual variability, if

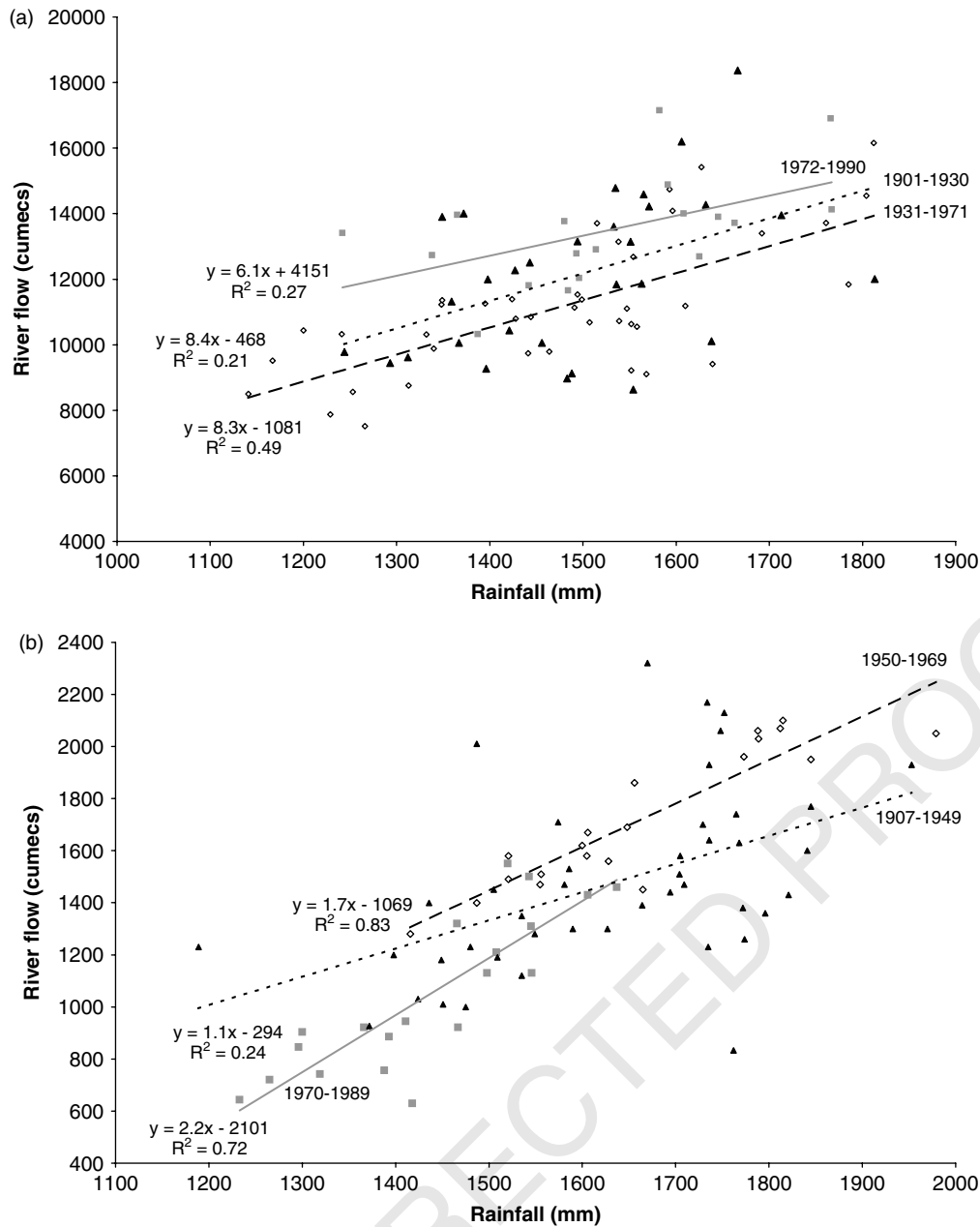


Figure 2. Rainfall–runoff relationships for three separate periods; the recent wet/dry periods in the Paraná/Niger (grey squares), the preceding years dating back to the beginning of the model calibration period (open diamonds), and the available record prior to the start date used for model calibration (filled triangles). (a) Paraná, (b) Niger

1 not true catchment-wide rainfall depths. The reliability  
 2 of flow records used here deserves further scrutiny,  
 3 particularly records for the Paraná and the effects of  
 4 reservoirs. Here, it has not been possible to update  
 5 the Paraná records to establish whether conditions have  
 6 stayed wet or returned to pre-1972 levels. The Niger  
 7 flows and Sahel rainfall during the 1990s have remained  
 8 low relative to pre-1971 conditions (L'Hôte *et al.*, 2002).  
 9 These regime changes have implications for split  
 10 sample model calibration and validation procedures. In  
 11 this example, the validation results are biased because  
 12 the calibration was performed using a mainly wet period  
 13 (Paraná) and before the dry period (Niger). The results  
 14 of this are clearest in the Niger, where simulated runoff  
 15 volumes increase substantially in the validation period,

because the observed change in regime falls very close  
 to the dividing point between the calibration and the  
 validation periods. The impact is less clear for the Paraná  
 because roughly one-third of the calibration period lies  
 before the observed increases in rainfall and runoff  
 (Table III), which are also smaller and less consistent  
 than in the Niger.

The rainfall and river flow fluctuations in the Sahel  
 are well documented elsewhere; however, to date few  
 studies have examined the contribution of land use and  
 land cover change to changes in runoff during this  
 period. Land cover change has been postulated as a  
 contributory factor in the observed increases in Paraná  
 runoff (Tucci and Clarke, 1998). There is not enough  
 evidence here, however, to unequivocally demonstrate

any influence of land cover change on rainfall–runoff relationships in either basin. We emphasize the preliminary nature of this study and further work is necessary to quantify the nature and magnitude of land cover changes, to resolve questions of data reliability and to examine change at a variety of spatial scales (Conway *et al.*, submitted).

The nonlinear sensitivity of runoff to rainfall change supports conceptual, empirical and modelling results (e.g. for the case of climate change; Nemeč and Schaake, 1982). The recent regime fluctuations in both basins provide excellent potential to study the inter-relationships of rainfall variability and land cover change. In terms of future climate change, both basins can give insights into the hydrological impact of relatively large variations in rainfall, the socio-economic and institutional responses to such change. Modelling these high levels of variability represents a stringent test of any hydrological model's performance and one that is a necessary pre-condition for their application to climate impact studies where even greater changes may be expected to occur.

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