Multi-Scale Flood Simulations Under Climate Change Scenarios

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Abstract

The present study focuses on quantifying the impact of the choice of spatio-temporal resolution and hydrology models on the projection of extreme flow and their link to the catchment size. We use two process-based distributed hydrology models forced with a large-ensemble regional climate model (50-member ClimEx dataset) over the 1990-2100 period at different spatiotemporal scales. The extreme summer-fall flow corresponding with each spatio-temporal resolution was extracted by pooling the members together and computing the empirical cumulative distribution function. The results show that by refining the time-step from daily to sub-daily, the summer-fall extreme flow projected over the future period exceeds that of the reference period for the small but not large catchments. By increasing the catchment size, the hydrology model's contribution to the variability of extreme flow increases. Moreover, the choice of spatial resolution affects the extreme flow's trend in terms of magnitude, significance, and direction. But no pattern regarding the catchment size and spatial discretization variations exists.







Multi-Scale Flood Simulations Under Climate Change 1 **Scenarios** 2

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Key Points:

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7	• Refining the time-step of the modeling results in higher summer-fall flood mag-
8	nitudes in the future for the small but not large catchments.
9	• Variation of spatial resolution changes the trend's magnitude, and/or direction and/or
10	significance.
11	• By increasing the catchment size, the contribution of the hydrology model in the
12	variability of flood projection increases.

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13 Abstract

The present study focuses on quantifying the impact of the choice of spatio-temporal res-14 olution and hydrology models on the projection of extreme flow and their link to the catch-15 ment size. We use two process-based distributed hydrology models forced with a large-16 ensemble regional climate model (50-member ClimEx dataset) over the 1990-2100 pe-17 riod at different spatio-temporal scales. The extreme summer-fall flow corresponding with 18 each spatio-temporal resolution was extracted by pooling the members together and com-19 puting the empirical cumulative distribution function. The results show that by refin-20 ing the time-step from daily to sub-daily, the summer-fall extreme flow projected over 21 the future period exceeds that of the reference period for the small but not large catch-22 ments. By increasing the catchment size, the hydrology model's contribution to the vari-23 ability of extreme flow increases. Moreover, the choice of spatial resolution affects the 24 extreme flow's trend in terms of magnitude, significance, and direction. But no pattern 25 regarding the catchment size and spatial discretization variations exists. 26

27 **1 Introduction**

Flood hazard continues to threaten human life and inflict costs on infrastructures 28 and urban areas, as multiple devastating events have been reported in recent years around 29 the world (Merz et al., 2021). Accurate flood estimation remains a critical issue and the 30 traditional stationary assumption employed by flood estimation methods, whether em-31 pirical or process-based, fails to account for changing climate signal, leading to inaccu-32 rate estimations of exceeding probability of peak flow (Blöschl et al., 2013; François et 33 al., 2019; Montanari & Koutsoviannis, 2014). Moreover, a lack of knowledge regarding 34 flood-generating processes at different scales with complex and non-linear catchment re-35 sponses in space and time complicates the estimation of flood return period using process-36 based hydrology models (K. Beven, 2019; Blöschl, 2022b). The present research aims to 37 investigate how the discrete representation of catchments in process-based distributed 38 hydrology models can affect flood projection under climate change scenarios. The study 39 is conducted for snow-dominated Nordic catchments located in Canada. 40

Global warming is expected to increase the magnitude and frequency of extreme 41 precipitation across different parts of the world (Min et al., 2011; Westra et al., 2013; 42 Alexander et al., 2006; M. Donat et al., 2013; Field et al., 2012; Masson-Delmotte et al., 43 2021; Fowler et al., 2021; Martel et al., 2021). This projected increase can be attributed 44 to the increase of water holding capacity of the atmosphere: Based on Clausius-Clapeyron 45 rate, the water holding capacity of atmosphere increases by 7% per 1° increase of tem-46 perature (Molnar et al., 2015; Westra et al., 2014). This however cannot directly be trans-47 lated into precipitation, as the amount of available humidity required for precipitation 48 complicates the relationship (Lochbihler et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2018). Depending on mois-49 ture availability, warming can cause intensification of convective storms with daily or sub-50 daily scales (Westra et al., 2014). 51

Considering that precipitation is an essential driver of flood events, different reac-52 tions from small and large-scale catchments should be expected: for small catchments, 53 the response time is short and the maximum flow peak can be deduced from a storm with 54 a duration equal to the longest flow path in the catchment (Blöschl, 2022a). Given that 55 the short period of convective rainfall matches the residence time of small catchments, 56 these catchments are the most vulnerable to flooding from convective rainfall, which is 57 expected to increase due to climate change (Viglione & Blöschl, 2009; Viglione et al., 2016; 58 Breinl et al., 2021). Regarding large catchments of more than a thousand square kilo-59 meters, it is unlikely that a convective storm leads to a flooding event considering the 60 larger storage capacity and longer travel time (Contractor et al., 2021). For Nordic snow-61 dominated catchments, since global warming will likely reduce the amount of snow that 62 accumulates, the magnitude of the spring freshet is expected to diminish. However, even 63

⁶⁴ for those catchments, it is anticipated that the frequency and magnitude of convection-

driven summer-fall floods, to which small catchments are sensitive, will increase (M. G. Donat et al., 2016).

High temporal resolution time series (hourly) of historical data to evaluate the trend 67 of convective storms and consequent floods are difficult to find. A common practice is 68 therefore to use a climate modeling chain and perform simulations at high spatio-temporal 69 resolutions (e.g., Swain et al., 2020; Do et al., 2020). Regional Climate Models (RCMs) 70 offer such high-resolution time series at a local scale (Mearns et al., 2017; Leduc et al., 71 72 2019). Moreover, the incorporation of convective parameterization has enhanced their capability to capture convective storms (Kendon et al., 2017; Prein et al., 2015; Mooney 73 et al., 2017). More recently, large-ensemble RCM datasets have received attention (Martel, 74 Mailhot, & Brissette, 2020; Sanderson et al., 2018; Aalbers et al., 2018). Large-ensembles 75 are generated by running RCMs several times, each time with slightly different initial 76 conditions (Deser, Knutti, et al., 2012; Deser, Phillips, et al., 2012). Multiple values are 77 calculated per time-step, which eliminates the need to fit a parametric distribution on 78 the dataset to compute extreme flows (Martel, Mailhot, & Brissette, 2020; Faghih et al., 79 2022). 80

Hydrology models are the last component of a hydro-climate modeling chain (Sidle, 81 2021). Proportional to the growth of computational power, process-based hydrology mod-82 els are increasingly used for impact studies (Zhang et al., 2018; Dembélé et al., 2020; Pandey 83 et al., 2019; Duethmann et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2018). These models solve the gov-84 erning equations of hydrological processes (with varying degrees of simplification) per 85 grid cell. Distributed models further use routing algorithms to direct accumulated wa-86 ter towards neighboring cells until the basin outlet (Clark et al., 2015, 2017). The ad-87 vantage of using distributed physics-based hydrology models is to represent the topog-88 raphy, land use, and soil structure in the model, to obtain a detailed distribution of hy-89 drological variables inside the catchment (Refsgaard, 1995). Therefore, these models are 90 useful to study the internal dynamics of state and flux variables (Golden & Knightes, 91 2011; Gebremicael et al., 2019; Sidle et al., 2017). 92

scale issue is the subject of a long ongoing debate in the scientific community (Blöschl 93 & Sivapalan, 1995; Blöschl et al., 2019). Despite numerous types of research to under-94 stand runoff generation processes, there are still unknowns about upscaling from pro-95 file scale (1m) to catchment scale and beyond. For example, while the infiltration excess 96 is the governing process at profile-scale (Horton, 1933), the spatial connectivity of hy-97 drological processes has a central contribution in runoff generation at the hillslope scale (Dunne & Black, 1970; Noguchi et al., 1999; Sidle, 2006). Moreover, the contribution of 99 overland connectivity in flow generation and sediment transport and their feedback loop 100 add to the non-linearity of runoff generation (Gomi et al., 2002; Jencso et al., 2010; López-101 Vicente et al., 2017; Koci et al., 2020). The non-linearity from hillslope- to catchment 102 scale is also significant, as the traditional bottom-up Freeze and Harlan (1969) approach 103 to linearly combine all hillslopes so as to compute catchment response has been challenged. 104 Dooge (1986), for example, suggests that a catchment is an "organized complex system", 105 in the sense that the development of co-evolutionary surface and subsurface patterns con-106 tributes to catchment drainage and runoff generation (Sivapalan & Blöschl, 2015; Savenije 107 108 & Hrachowitz, 2017). Adapting the bottom-up approach to these criticisms, there were efforts to combine the hillslope's responses by considering the spatio-temporal covari-109 ance of hydro-climate variables for flood simulations (Woods & Sivapalan, 1999; Viglione 110 et al., 2010). 111

The spatio-temporal discretization of distributed models can potentially modify landuse and soil structures and result in variations of hydraulic conductivity as well as surface and subsurface hydrological connectivity (K. J. Beven, 2000). This can potentially lead to variations in the peak flow or seasonal flow. Many studies have explored the effect of land-use change on streamflow (Singh et al., 2015; Li et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2019;

Tavangar et al., 2019). Using more than one land use scenario is a common approach 117 to studying land use change impacts (Breuer et al., 2009; Huisman et al., 2009; Viney 118 et al., 2009; Bormann et al., 2009). The results show that land use change can increase/decrease 119 the peak flow, depending on catchment size and/or soil structure. Conversely, paired catch-120 ment studies have demonstrated that land-use changes can modify mean seasonal stream-121 flow but has minor effects on the peak flow (Brown et al., 2005). The effects of spatio-122 temporal discretization using process-based models have rarely been investigated for nat-123 ural catchments. Most previous studies concentrated on urban catchments, with a high 124 degree of impermeability and small size (e.g. Cao et al., 2020; Krebs et al., 2014; Zhou 125 et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2020). In this context, multiple studies have shown that varia-126 tion of spatio-temporal resolution can reorient flow direction and significantly change the 127 flow peak (Zhou et al., 2017; Ichiba et al., 2018; Warsta et al., 2017). 128

Markhali et al. (2022) have shown that the spatio-temporal discretization of a catch-129 ment in a model can affect the representation of surface and subsurface hydrological pro-130 cesses in that model and generate a significant variation in the distribution of hydrolog-131 ical variables including streamflow. Such variations are most important in flat catchments 132 or catchments with considerable human intervention (i.e., agricultural lands). The present 133 study focuses on extreme summer-fall flow using a hydro-climate modeling chain. A range 134 of catchments with different surface areas (from below 200 km^2 to more than 1500 km^2) 135 are selected to facilitate the investigation of the combined impacts of climate change and 136 the spatio-temporal discretization in the hydrological model. More specifically, we in-137 tend to verify the following hypotheses for the catchments at hand: 138

• By refining the time step of projection, the small catchments see a larger increase

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- in the magnitude of summer-fall floods than the large catchments. • The change in the spatio-temporal scale of modeling causes variability in the pro-
- 141 jection of extreme flow. By increasing the catchment size, the contribution of hy-142 drology model and spatial scale in that variability increases, and that of the time-143 scale decreases.

The hypotheses will be examined by forcing two process-based distributed models with 145 large-ensemble simulated climate data. To examine the impact of spatio-temporal dis-146 cretization, the simulations will be performed at different spatial (100, 250, 500, 1000 147 m) and temporal scales (3- and 24-hour time-steps). The structure of this research is as 148 follows: Section 2 provides a detailed explanation of the study area, available data, bias 149 correction method, hydrology models, and the experimental plan. Section 3 presents the 150 results of the experiments, which are discussed in Section 4. Section 5 provides conclud-151 ing remarks and a suggestion for future works. 152

2 Method and Data 153

2.1 Study Area 154

The study area includes four catchments located in southern Quebec, Canada (Fig-155 ure 1). These catchments range from less than 200 km^2 to more than 1500 km^2 and were 156 selected from diverse land use and hydrological regions. This helps evaluate catchment 157 responses under climate change based on their size and other characteristics, such as land-158 use and topography. Table 1 briefly describes catchments' characteristics. 159



Figure 1. Location of the catchments used in this study

Table 1. Area and main hydro-climatic characteristics of the catchments used in this study

Number	Name	$\operatorname{Area}(km^2)$	precipitation(mm/yr)	streamflow (m^3/s)	temperature (° C)
050135	Croche	1563	1139.36	30.70	2.74
023427	Chaudière	781	1208.65	16.47	3.72
030424	Aux Brochets	584	1329.34	10.52	6.23
023004	Boyer	191	1396.76	4.45	4.15

2.2 Datasets

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24- and 3-hour observed streamflow series were obtained from the Direction de l'Expertise 161 Hydrique (DEH) of the Ministère de l'Environnement et de la Lutte contre les change-162 ments climatiques (MELCCC) for 2000-2017. Regarding meteorological data, we used 163 the ERA5(ECMWF ReAnalysis5, Hersbach et al., 2020) gridded dataset to calibrate the 164 hydrology models and simulate streamflow for the present-day climate. (Tarek et al., 2020) 165 have shown that ERA5 provides an accurate representation of meteorological conditions 166 for catchments located in North America. We also used the ClimEx large ensemble (Climate 167 change and hydrological Extremes project, Leduc et al., 2019). ClimEx is a 50-member 168 climate dataset, driven by dynamically downscaling the second version of the Canadian 169 Earth System Model large ensemble (CanESM2-LE; Swart et al., 2019), using the 5th 170 generation of the Canadian Regional Climate Model (CRCM5). The simulations are driven 171 by the RCP 8.5 scenario for the period covering 1951-2100, with hourly time steps and 172 an 11° spatial resolution. 173

2.3 Bias Correction

The MBCn (N-dimension multivariate bias correction) (Cannon, 2018) method was selected to bias correct precipitation and temperature time-series extracted from ClimEx. MBCn is an advanced quantile-mapping technique (Meyer et al., 2019; Cannon et al., 2020). The method transfers all characteristics of the distribution of observations to their simulated values according to the climate model. It maintains the trends of projections per quantile, which is essential to accurately assess the impact of climate change (Faghih et al., 2022).

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2.4 Hydrological models

The following section introduces the hydrology models that are used in this study. Both models are distributed, process-based, and computationally intensive. However, they each have their own methods of representing hydrological processes, and their approaches to aggregate the catchment response are also different.

$2.4.1 \quad WaSiM$

WaSiM (Water balance Simulation Model) operates on a raster system (Schulla & 188 Jasper, 2007). The model's structure comprises multiple sub-models (e.g., infiltration, 189 evapotranspiration, snow accumulation and melt, unsaturated zone, etc.) that run on 190 each grid cell and time-step, providing the opportunity to use parallel computing. WaSiM 191 offers two options for calculating the infiltration and percolation: the Topmodel approach. 192 or Richard's equation. The first approach is a modified version of the conceptual model 193 Topmodel, following K. Beven (1997). The second approach is more physically-based and 194 is the one used in this study. All the sub-models that are selected for WaSiM are named 195 in Table 2. 196

2.4.2 Hydrotel

Hydrotel is widely used in Quebec for research and operations (e.g., Martel, Bris-198 sette, & Poulin, 2020; Turcotte et al., 2020; Lucas-Picher et al., 2020). In Hydrotel, the 199 catchment is divided into HRUs (Hydrological Response Units) that have similar soil and 200 land-use characteristics. Sub-catchments are formed by aggregating HRUs. Hydrotel is 201 compatible with GIS and remotely-sensed data (Fortin et al., 2001a). A mixture of physical, conceptual, and empirical relationships are used to represent the hydrological pro-203 cesses, which makes Hydrotel slightly less physics-based than WaSiM. For example, the 204 vertical water balance and the representation of soil water content are computed through 205 a sub-routine called BV3C (Bilan Vertical à 3 Couches), which divides the soil column into 3 layers and controls infiltration, interflow and baseflow, based on a semi-physical 207 moisture accounting equation (Fortin et al., 2001a). Like WaSiM, Hydrotel provides mul-208 tiple options for representing the hydrological processes of a catchment. Table 2 lists the 209 submodels that are used in this study. 210

Table 2. The submodels used to represent the hydrological processes in Hydrotel and WaSiM.

Hydrotel	Wasim
Thiessen polygons	Thiessen polygons
Degree-Day Method	Degree-Day Method
Hydro-Quebec (Fortin et al., 2001b)	Hamon (Hamon, 1961)
BV3C	Richards' Eq.
BV3C	Richards' Eq.
Kinematic Wave Eq.	Kinematic Wave Eq.
	Hydrotel Thiessen polygons Degree-Day Method Hydro-Quebec (Fortin et al., 2001b) BV3C BV3C Kinematic Wave Eq.



Figure 2. Schematic explanation of the experimental plan and methods.

211 2.5 Experimental plan

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2.5.1 Climate Data Processing

Figure 2 shows the experimental plan for this study. The first panel on the top left, 213 bounded by the green dashed line, shows the details regarding climate data processing. 214 The first step is the extraction of the simulated and observed meteorological data (tem-215 perature and precipitation) for the selected catchments. The reference period for the ob-216 served dataset (Ref - Obs) spans from 1991 to 2010. ClimEx simulations are also split 217 into reference (Ref - Sim) and future (Fut - Sim, 2011-2099) periods. In the next 218 step, the 50-member ClimEx (i.e., Ref-Sim and Fut-Sim) are pooled together into 219 one long time series per period. This pooling helps to maintain the internal variability 220 of the simulated climate data after bias correction. This is because individual bias cor-221 rection of each member eliminates the spread of simulations and creates rather similar 222 time series. While addressing internal variability is not among the objectives of this re-223 search, maintaining that helps accurate calculation of extreme flows (Faghih et al., 2022). 224 The Ref-Obs and Ref-Sim datasets, which include precipitation and temperature 225 for both the reference and future periods, are further received by MBCn to obtain cor-226 rection factors based on multi-variate quantile mapping. A single set of correction fac-227 tors was computed per calendar month and applied to the simulated climate data. The 228 pooled bias-corrected datasets are reversed back to the 50-member time series, ready to 229 use as the inputs of the hydrology models. 230

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2.5.2 Hydrological Simulation

The Hydrology models are calibrated with four spatial (100, 250, 500, 1000 m) and 232 two temporal resolutions (3- and 24-hour). The datasets are split into calibration and 233 validation periods with equal duration. The Dynamically Dimensioned Search (DDS; Tol-234 son & Shoemaker, 2007) with a 0.2 perturbation factor was employed to calibrate the 235 models. The DDS technique scales the parameters search space according to a budget 236 specified by the user. Given that both WaSiM and Hydrotel are computationally inten-237 sive, this is an advantage over other search methods. In addition, the efficiency of DDS 238 with global parameter perturbations at the beginning and narrowing down the search 239 space by the end of the process has been confirmed in the literature (e.g., Huot et al., 240 2019). 241

Based on the existing literature and following experts' recommendations as well 242 as the team who develops and maintains WaSiM, 12 parameters were calibrated, includ-243 ing seven parameters that are involved with the unsaturated zone subroutine, two pa-244 rameters linked to potential evapotranspiration, one parameter for snow accumulation 245 and melt, and two parameters for spatial interpolation. The remaining parameters were 246 left to their default values following the WaSiM documentation (Schulla & Jasper, 2007) 247 Regarding Hydrotel, of 28 models' parameters, 11 have been calibrated and the others 248 were left to their default values according to Hydrotel's user manual. Out of the 11 cal-249 ibration parameters, three belong to vertical water balance, six to the snow accumula-250 tion and melt routine, and one to the infiltration and interpolation components (see Huot 251 et al. (2019) for more details about the parameters). 252

The Kling-Gupta Efficiency criterion (KGE; Gupta et al., 2009) is the objective function for the calibration of both WaSim and Hydrotel. Compared to other criteria such as the Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), the KGE is a better choice for snow-dominated catchments. This is because the observed mean is the baseline model for NSE and for the catchments with high seasonal variability, the measure tends to overestimate modeling skill (e.g., snowmelt streamflow)(Gupta et al., 2009). Equation 1 was used to calculate the KGE

$$KGE = \sqrt{(r-1)^2 + (\frac{\sigma_{sim}}{\sigma_{obs}} - 1)^2 + (\frac{\mu_{sim}}{\mu_{obs}} - 1)^2}$$
(1)

where r is the linear correlation between observed and simulated streamflow values, σ_{sim} is the standard deviation of the observations, σ_{obs} is the standard deviation of the simulation, μ_{sim} is the simulation mean, and μ_{obs} is the observation mean.

After obtaining the parameters corresponding with the four spatial resolutions and two temporal resolutions mentioned above, climate simulations from ClimEX were used as inputs to the hydrology models for 1991 to 2100; as mentioned in the top right panel bounded with the red dashed border in Figure 2.

267 2.5.3 Analyses

The panel at the bottom of Figure 2, with a dashed orange border, shows the anal-268 yses and experiments that have been carried out to verify the two hypotheses which are 269 the object of this research. To verify the first hypothesis, extreme summer-fall flows are 270 calculated for different spatio-temporal simulations. The streamflow series were split into 271 historical (1991-2010) and far-future periods (2081-2100) to estimate the change of ex-272 273 treme flow under climate change. A 50-member ensemble of simulated streamflows obtained from forcing hydrology models with CliMeX was pooled together to create a time 274 series comprising 1000 years of data (20 years \times 50 members). This very large ensem-275 ble was created to estimate projected yearly extreme flows without the need to fit a para-276 metric distribution. The annual maximum summer-fall flows (July-November) is extracted 277 from the data and an empirical cumulative distribution function is created for both pe-278 riods (present-day and far future). This allows us to compare the distributions of pro-279 jected extreme flows in the historical and far-future periods for different combinations 280 of spatio-temporal discretizations (we have four spatial and two temporal resolution that 281 amounts to 8 different combinations). The studied extreme flow values are based on the 282 following percentiles: 50, 90, 95 and 99 (representing 2-, 10-, 20- and 100-year retur pe-283 riods). The procedure regarding pooling and extracting the extreme values is the same 284 as in Martel, Brissette, and Poulin (2020). 285

In order to verify the second hypothesis, we use variance decomposition (Montgomery, 2017) to find the contribution of different factors in the total variance of the projected extremes. Variance decomposition is a simple but robust and widely applied method (e.g. Addor et al., 2014; H. K. Meresa & Romanowicz, 2017; Wang et al., 2020; H. Meresa et al., 2022). Equation 2 shows the application of the method in this study,

$$\Delta U_{i,j,k} = H_i + S_j + T_k + H_i * S_j + H_i * T_k + S_i * T_k + \epsilon \tag{2}$$

where ΔU is the total variance of projected extreme flow, H_i , S_j , and T_k are different choices of hydrology model, spatial resolution, and time-step, and ϵ represents a Gaussian white noise.

To quantify the change in the streamflow when the hydrology model's spatial res-294 olution varies, annual maximum summer-fall flows were extracted per grid and the lin-295 ear trends corresponding to those grids were computed for the entire 1991-2100 period. 296 The linear trend analysis has frequently been used for quantifying the change in the cli-297 mate variables (Barnes & Barnes, 2015; Zhuan et al., 2018; Ding & Steig, 2013). Note 298 that the non-linear quadratic and cubic polynomials produced poor results for this case 299 study. The widely used non-parametric Mann-Kendall trend test (Ali et al., 2019) was 300 also applied to identify the trend at a 0.05 significance level. In this test, the null hy-301 pothesis (H_0) assumes no trend and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) assumes the exis-302 tence of a trend at a 0.05 significance level. 303

304 **3 Results**

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3.1 Annual Hydrographs

Figures 3 and 4 show the annual simulated hydrographs for the reference and future periods at 3- and 24-hour time-steps using WaSiM and Hydrotel for the Boyer and Croche catchments. These catchments are the smallest and largest, respectively. In these figures, the ensemble of streamflow simulations is based on the ClimEx dataset, for the 1990-2100 period with various spatial resolutions for both hydrology models (100, 250, 500, and 1000*m*). The median of each ensemble is displayed as a solid line and the observed data is the dashed black line.

Figure 3, a) to d) show the WaSiM simulations with 3- and 24-hour time-steps for 313 the Boyer catchment. The observed data is located inside the spread of simulations and 314 the timing of the peaks is approximately the same for both the simulation and the ob-315 servations (panels a and c). However, the simulation underestimates the magnitude of 316 the median peak flow. We also want to assess how changing the spatial resolution would 317 affect the simulation of low and high flows. According to Figure 3, a) to d), the simu-318 lation of low flows is more sensitive to variations in spatial scale than that of high flow. 319 Moreover, this sensitivity also increases by refining the time-step from 24- to 3-hour. Fig-320 ure 3 e) to f) shows Hydrotel simulations. As for WaSim, the observed value is located 321 inside the ensemble's spread (panels e and g). Moreover, the ensemble's median is closer 322 to the observation than that of WaSiM simulations. With Hydrotel, the simulation of 323 high flows is more sensitive than the simulation of low flows to changes in spatial res-324 olution, which is the opposite behavior of WaSim. Again, this sensitivity to the change 325 of spatial resolution is higher for the 3-hour time-step than for the 24-hour time-step. 326 Comparing future (panels a, c, e, g) and reference (panels b, d, f, h) periods, a back-327 ward shift of the spring freshet from mid-April to mid-May with significantly lower am-328 plitude can be seen, regardless of the time-step and spatial resolution, for both Hydro-329 tel and WaSim. Overall, WaSiM shows higher sensitivity to changes in spatial resolu-330 tion than Hydrotel, which is expected as the model is fully distributed and more phys-331 ically representative in terms of the vertical water budget in the soil. 332

Figure 4 shows the result of the same exercise, but for the Croche catchment. Panels a) to d) show WaSiM simulations with 3- and 24-hour time steps. Compared to Figure 3 for the Boyer catchment, WaSiM (panels a and c) shows more skill, as the medians of all the simulations follow the observations closely. In general, varying the spatial resolution of the hydrology model has only minor effects on these simulations, except for the simulations with a 3-hour time-step. Hydrotel's simulations (panels e to h) show an



Figure 3. Ensemble of annual hydrographs forced by ClimEx dataset per resolution and compared with observed streamflow (dashed black line) for the Boyer catchment. R and the following number represents the spatial resolution in m and MR with the following number represents the median of the ensemble.

underestimation of peak streamflow when the ensemble median is compared to the ob-339 servations. This underestimation is larger for the simulations with a 24-hour time-step 340 than for the 3-hour time-step. In terms of spatial resolution, both WaSim and Hydro-341 tel are more sensitive to changing the spatial resolution when the time-step of the sim-342 ulations is finer. Comparing the future and reference periods, a significant attenuation 343 in the magnitude of the spring freshet and a backward shift in the timing of the peak 344 can be observed for both models. There is also a considerable increase in streamflow in 345 the fall and winter months (November to March) when comparing the present and fu-346 ture periods. 347



Figure 4. Ensemble of annual hydrographs forced by ClimEx dataset per resolution and compared with observed streamflow (dashed black line) for the Croche catchment. R and the following number represents the spatial resolution of simulations in m and MR with the following number represents the median of that ensemble.

Overall, it is not clear from Figures 3 and 4, whether there exists a pattern regarding the interaction between catchment size and the choice of hydrology model and spatiotemporal resolution. However, each of these elements can distinctly alter the catchment responses.

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3.2 Spatial distribution of the hydrological variables

Figure 5 shows the spatial distribution of actual evapotranspiration (AET) and snow depth (SD) for the Croche catchment. The figure shows that by the end of the century (period 2081-2100), AET will increase by 5 to 10 % according to Hydrotel simulations (panels a to d) and 15 to 30% according to WaSiM simulations (panels e to h). A significant negative change in snow depth is observable, as by the end of the century, the



Figure 5. Percentage change of actual evapotranspiration (AET) and snow depth (SD) from reference (1991-2010) to far-future (2081-2100) periods for the Croche catchment. R and the following number represent the spatial resolution of simulations in m.

average amount of snow on the ground decreases by around 40% to 50% according to
WaSiM (panels m to p) and Hydrotel (panels i to l) simulations. The considerable reduction of spring freshet between 2081-2100, as seen in Figure 4, is a result of that reduction in snow depth. Since the amount of snow depth reduction in simulations with
Hydrotel is higher than in WaSiM (comparing the third and fourth rows in Figure 5),
the hydrographs produced by Hydrotel (Figure 4: panels f and h) are more flattened
than those produce by WaSiM (Figure 4: panels b and d).

Changing spatial resolution affects the magnitude of change in the simulation of AET. According to panels a to d and e to f (Figure 5), decreasing spatial resolution corresponds with around a 5 to 15% (depending on the hydrological model) increase of change in the AET. For snow depth, changing spatial resolution has no considerable effect on



Figure 6. Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF) of extreme summer-fall flow for reference (ref-solid lines) and future (fut-dashed lines). R and the following number represent the spatial resolution in *m*. W and H are simulations with WaSiM and Hydrotel respectively and their following numbers represent the temporal resolution in an hour

the final results. No significant spatial pattern has been detected for the distribution of AET across the catchment. For snow depth, both models agree on projecting lower values for the southern part with lower altitude illustrating that low-altitude regions are more sensitive to the effect of climate change than high-altitude regions.

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3.3 Summer-fall extreme flow

Figure 6, shows the empirical cumulative distribution function of maximum summer-374 fall flow simulated by WaSiM and Hydrotel for the reference and future periods per catch-375 ment and resolution. The catchments are ordered in terms of size: the first row shows 376 the results for the smallest catchment and the last row shows the results for the largest. 377 Each spatial resolution is identified by a different color and the future and reference pe-378 riods are shown in dashed and solid lines respectively. The letters W and H represent 379 WaSiM and Hydrotel respectively, with subscript numbers that indicate the time-step 380 of the simulation (e.g., W_{24} is the WaSiM simulation with a 24-hour time-step.) 381

A pattern regarding the effect of catchment size and the choice of temporal resolution on the change of extreme flow between the reference and future periods is observable. For small catchments (Boyer and Aux Brochets), by refining the time-step of simulation, there are flow quantiles from which the future extreme flow exceeds that of the reference. This is more clear for WaSiM simulations in panels c) and g). For example,

in panel c), when the spatial resolution is 100 m, future flows larger than a flood with 387 a 2-year return period (i.e. non-exceedance probability of 0.5) is larger than that of the 388 reference. A similar pattern is also observable for Hydrotel simulations of those catch-389 ments (i.e. d and h), even though not as clear as WaSiM simulations. By increasing the 390 catchment size (Chaudière and Croche), the graphs show decreasing magnitude of ex-391 treme summer-fall flow between the reference and future periods with the same return 392 periods, regardless of temporal resolution. These observations are in accordance with the 393 first hypothesis of this research. Note that the case of Boyer catchments is complicated 394 for very large return periods (100-year), as even when the time-step of simulations is 395 24 hours, the magnitude of a future flood with the same return period exceeds that of 396 the reference period (panels a and b). 397

For smaller catchments, by changing spatial resolution, the intersection point of 308 future and reference graphs significantly varies. For example, in panel g), with 1000 m399 spatial resolution, the intersection point is equivalent to a flood with the magnitude of 400 a 3-year return period, but when the spatial resolution is 100 m, the intersection point 401 is equivalent to a flood with the magnitude of the 10-year return period. The difference 402 between simulations caused by the change of spatial resolution can also be seen in pan-403 els c, k, and o even though the differences between those graphs are smaller. In all cases, 404 whether the time-step of simulation is 3- or 24-hour, simulations by WaSiM have a higher 405 sensitivity to the choice of spatial resolution compared to Hydrotel. These differences illustrate the importance of the choice of spatial resolution and hydrology model. How-407 ever, no pattern regarding the catchment size and those choices is observable (therefore 408 the second hypothesis cannot be validated from these results). 409

410 To further investigate the observations made regarding Figure 6, the relative change of extreme flow for specific quantiles (i.e. flood with 2, 10, 20, and 100-year return pe-411 riods) is driven and presented in Figure 7. The results are again ordered according to 412 catchment size. As can be observed, the relative change increases when catchment size 413 decreases. Comparing panels b) and d) with panels)a and c) shows that the magnitude 414 of such increase is higher for the 3-hour time-step than for the 24-hour time-step (in ac-415 cordance with Hypothesis 1). Moreover, for simulations with a 3-hour time-step, the num-416 ber of pixels with a positive ratio is noticeably higher than with a 24-hour time-step. This 417 demonstrates that the simulated magnitude of flood events with lower return periods in 418 the future increase if a fine temporal resolution is used. 419

There is no clear pattern regarding the role of spatial resolution in determining the 420 magnitude and direction of change. However, the choice of resolution is not trivial: for 421 example, QT95 in Boyer-R100 (panel a) and QT50 in Boyer-R100 (panel b) undergo a 422 positive change for 100 m resolution but a negative change for all other resolutions. The 423 choice of model has also important implications as the patterns for Hydrotel and WaSiM. 424 particularly for 24-hour simulations, are different. Comparing panels a) and c), Hydro-425 tel produces more simulations with positive relative change than WaSiM. However, WaSiM 426 simulations with positive relative change have a larger magnitude than for Hydrotel. Again 427 these observations confirm the importance of the choice of spatial resolution and hydrol-428 ogy models, but cannot validate the second hypotheses. 429

430 **3.4 Spatial trend**

Figures 8 (Boyer) and 9 (Croche) show the spatial distribution of the trend for the maximum annual summer-fall flow simulated by WaSiM, calculated as explained in section 2.5.3, and presented as the percentage of mean annual summer-fall streamflow. This covers the entire simulation period (1991-2100). In this figure, R represents the spatial resolution in m, which is followed by the simulation time-step. The hatched area covers the location where the trend is statistically significant at a 5% level (p - value <5%).



Figure 7. Relative change of summer-fall extreme flows (QT50,QT95,...) ordered according to catchment size and spatial resolution.



Figure 8. The projected change in the annual maximum summer-fall flows (SFF) for the Boyer catchment from 1991 to 2100 (all simulated by WaSiM and expressed by percentage of mean SFF in the reference period). R and the following number represent spatial resolution in m. The hatched area covers the area for which the trend is significant at the 5% level according to the Mann-Kendall test.



Figure 9. The projected change in the annual maximum summer-fall flows (SFF) for the Croche catchment from 1991 to 2100 (all simulated by WaSiM and expressed by percentage of mean SFF in the reference period). R and the following number represent spatial resolution in m. The hatched area covers the area for which the trend is significant at the 5% level according to the Mann-Kendall test.

Figure 8 shows that a positive trend holds for all simulations with a 3-hour time-438 step (a to d), regardless of the spatial scale. Moreover, except for $R_{250}(3h)$ (panel a), 439 the trend is significant across most of the catchments. A negative trend emerges across 440 the catchment when the time-step increases (panels e to h), except for the highest (finer) 441 spatial resolution (i.e. $e: R_{250}(24h)$) (hypothesis 1). Changing the spatial resolution has 442 important implications here: the average magnitude of the trend across the catchment 443 varies from larger than +5 to more than +20 % for simulations with 3-hour time-step 444 (panels a to d), and from around +3 to less than -10% of that for daily simulations (pan-445 els e to h), illustrating large uncertainties in the projection of high flow (hypothesis 2). 446 There is no distinguishable pattern regarding the relationship between the magnitude 447 and direction of the trend and the spatial resolution. 448

For the Croche catchment, the spatial distribution of the linear trend is negative 449 regardless of the time step and the spatial resolution of the simulations (hypothesis 1). 450 Similar to the Boyer catchment, changing the spatial resolution of the simulations causes 451 large uncertainties: the magnitude of the trend varies from around -5 to -10 % of summer-452 fall streamflow for a 3-hour time-step (panels a to d), and from less than -5 to around 453 -20 % for daily simulations (panels e to h). Note that like the Boyer catchment, no pat-454 tern regarding a relationship between the spatial resolution of simulation and the mag-455 nitude of the trend is distinguishable. It appears that by changing the time-step from 456 3- to 24-hour, larger negative trend values (in terms of magnitude) emerge, showing that 457 the subdaily simulations even influence the trend for the large catchment. The influence, 458 however, is not large enough to change the direction of the trend (hypothesis 1). Note 459 that, unlike the Boyer catchment, the trends calculated for the 3-hour time-step are not 460 significant here. 461

Observations made in this section are in line with the first hypothesis, as refining
the time-step of simulation has mostly influenced the small catchment (i.e., Boyer: Figure 8) rather than the large catchment (i.e., Croche: Figure 9). The second hypothesis
cannot be confirmed or rejected with the information provided here.

3.5 Variance decomposition

466

Figure 10 shows the variance decomposition of the relative change in the extreme 467 summer-fall flow into the contribution of spatial resolution, time-step, hydrology model, 468 and their combinations. Results for smaller catchments are shown on the top side and 469 larger catchments are on the bottom side. The spatial resolution has only a minor con-470 tribution to the changes for the Boyer catchment. However, this contribution becomes 471 significant when changing the resolution is combined with other factors (19% of the vari-472 ance results from changing the spatial resolution and the hydrology model). For the Aux 473 Brochets catchment, the spatial resolution has a larger contribution to the total variance 474 (15%). This is in line with the results from Figure 6, where the change of spatial reso-475 lution created a large difference between simulations. Interestingly, by increasing the catch-476 ment size from 584 km^2 (Aux Brochets) to 781 km^2 (Chaudière) and 1563 km^2 (Croche), 477 the contribution of spatial scale in variability, first significantly drops (< 1%) and then 478 increases back to 14%. This clearly suggests a lack of a clear pattern between catchment 479 size and spatial scale (hypothesis 2 regarding spatial scale cannot be verified). The vari-480 ance obtained from changing the time step is important for all catchments. But simi-481 lar to spatial scale, a clear relationship between catchment size and time-step cannot be 482 found in this context (hypothesis 2 regarding temporal scale cannot be verified). Chang-483 ing the hydrology model impacts the variance for the largest catchment (Croche) the most, 484 and loses its contribution by decreasing catchment size (Hypothesis 2 regarding the hy-485 drology model can be verified). Note that the combined effect of simultaneously chang-486 ing the hydrology model and the temporal or spatial resolution can be an important source 487 of variability, but the combined effect of spatial and temporal scale is not as important. 488

$_{489}$ 4 Discussion

This study continues our previous research (i.e., Markhali et al., 2022) in quanti-490 fying the uncertainty linked to the spatio-temporal representation of catchments in hy-491 drology models. In this research, we did not implement the ensemble method by mix-492 ing and matching the parameters and catchment descriptors with different resolutions, 493 due to the computational costs of simulating a large-ensemble of long-duration time se-494 ries. In the previous study, we learned that the uncertainty linked to the catchment het-495 erogeneity is mostly sensitive to the choice of hydrology model, in the sense that the more 496 sophisticated model in terms of representation of hydrology processes (i.e. WaSiM) cre-497



Figure 10. Variance decomposition for the relative change in summer-fall extreme flows (average of 2, 10, 20, and 100 yr return periods).

ates larger uncertainties linked to the catchment heterogeneity compared to less sophis ticated model (i.e. Hydrotel).

We focused on quantifying that uncertainty in the projection of extreme summer-500 fall streamflow. We separated catchments based on their surface area. This was neces-501 sary because the flood generation mechanism for small and large catchments are differ-502 ent (Blöschl, 2022b). Small catchments are more sensitive to the infiltration excess runoff, 503 while large catchments are sensitive to the saturation excess runoff (Blöschl, 2022a). The 504 results showed that in fact there are relations between the surface area and the choice 505 of time-step and hydrology model in the final response of the catchments: First, using 506 a finer time-step in simulations resulting a statically significant increase in the projec-507 tion of summer-fall flood hazard in the future for the small but not for the large catch-508 ment (Figures 8 and 9). Second, by increasing the catchment area, the contribution of 509 the choice of hydrology model in the uncertainty increased (Figure 10). 510

The individual contribution of spatial scale is smaller than the other two factors (it is between 1 to 15 % of the total uncertainty according to Figure 10). The question is, whether or not variations of spatial scale should be considered in the simulation for flood projection. To answer this question we investigate the response of the Boyer and Aux Brochets catchments to variation of spatial resolution:

Regarding the Boyer catchment, Figure 10 shows that the joint contribution of spa-516 tial resolution and hydrology model in the variation of extreme summer-fall flow reaches 517 up to 19%, which is the highest among all catchments. Also, in Figure 8 e) for WaSim 518 simulations, when the spatial resolution is 100 m, the trend is zero or positive across the 519 catchment. However, by lowering the resolution (panels g, h, i), the trend becomes neg-520 ative. According to Markhali et al. (2022), increasing the spatial resolution causes a non-521 linear decrease in the coefficient of interflow storage in WaSim for this catchment. This 522 means that the saturation level of the soil is significantly higher for simulation with a 523 100 m resolution compared to other choices of spatial resolutions. Because of the high 524 value of soil moisture for the simulations with a 100 m resolution and increasing con-525 vective rainfall in the future, there is a positive trend in the simulation of high flow even 526 if with a daily simulation time-step. By decreasing the resolution, the interflow storage 527 increases, leading to lower antecedent soil moisture and consequently a negative trend 528 for high flow in the 24-hour time step. 529

The Aux Brochets catchment shows the largest sensitivity to the spatio-temporal 530 resolution in flood projection (Figure 6). Coarsening the spatial resolution in WaSiM in-531 duces modifications to the slopes of this catchment in the model, which in turn causes 532 a reorientation of surface and subsurface flows. This results in soil saturation in a por-533 tion of the catchment leading to the outlet (Markhali et al., 2022). High antecedent soil moisture combined with convective storms results in a rapid response of the catchment 535 for simulations with low spatial but high temporal resolutions. The significantly larger 536 magnitude of flood for the simulations with a 3-hour time-step and a spatial resolution 537 of 500 to 1000 m (the red and black lines in Figure 6 b) could be attributed to the mech-538 anism explained above. The decomposition of the variance for this catchment in Figure 539 10 confirms that the contribution of the spatial scale individually or together with the 540 other factors explains 23% of the total variance, which is higher than two other larger 541 catchments. 542

Among all the catchments studied here, the Boyer catchment has the maximum human intervention in terms of deforestation and agriculture (Markhali et al., 2022). Also, Aux Brochets is a flat catchment with uneven areas (hills and valleys). This type of topography is more difficult to represent in hydrology models. Therefore, the hydrology model's structure and the degree to which that model reflects the details of topographic and land-use characteristics are important factors to consider. This study suggests accounting for the variation of spatial resolution for flat catchments or catchments with high agricultural lands if a distributed hydrology model with a high level of sophistication in representing hydrological processes should be used.

The intensive computational demand of the two distributed process-based hydrol-552 ogy models used in this research limits the number of catchments that could be included. 553 There is an opportunity to work towards generalizing the conclusions of this research by 554 involving a higher number of catchments, with different sizes and land uses. Moreover, 555 adding more hydrology models with various structures seems necessary to gain more in-556 depth knowledge about the effect of the choice of process-based hydrology models in flood 557 projection. Furthermore, the recent advances in increasing the spatial and temporal resolution of RCMs are appealing to further investigate the impact of spatio-temporal res-559 olution in climate impact studies. Recent models with a high spatial resolution (i4km) 560 have shown promise in the simulation of convective-driven rainfall (Lucas-Picher et al., 561 2021). The problem with using these models is the large capacity required for their data 562 (Gutowski et al., 2020). Also, coupling them with distributed hydrology models adds to 563 the computational costs of the modeling. Further advancement in computational power 564 and data storage is required for the application of these models in impact studies (Schär 565 et al., 2020). 566

567 5 Conclusion

This study investigated the role of spatio-temporal resolution of simulations, the 568 choice of hydrology model, and the catchment size in determining the change of extreme 569 summer-fall flow in the future under climate change. A large-ensemble regional climate 570 model simulation (ClimEx) was bias corrected by multi-variate bias correction (MBCn) 571 and coupled with two distributed hydrology models (WaSiM and Hydrotel) to simulate 572 streamflow over four catchments with different sizes across Quebec. Simulations have been 573 conducted for different spatial (100, 250, 500, 1000 m) and temporal (24- and 3-hour time-574 steps) resolutions. Multiple experiments have been conducted to reject/validate two main 575 hypotheses: 1) For small catchments, by increasing temporal resolution, the simulated 576 extreme summer-fall flow in the future period becomes larger than that of the reference 577 period. 2) The change in the spatio-temporal scale of modeling causes variability in the 578 projection of extreme flow. By increasing the catchment size, the contribution of the choice 579 of hydrology model and spatial scale in that variability increases, and that of the time-580 scale decreases. 581

- 582 The experiments show that:
- A pattern regarding catchment size and temporal resolution exists: simulations 583 with 3-hour time-steps (Figures 6, 7, 8) predict that extreme summer-fall flow will 584 increase in the far-future for small catchments, regardless of model and spatial res-585 olution. Therefore, the first hypothesis is verified for this case study. Moreover, 586 the choice of a simulation time step is a major determinant in the variability of 587 flood projection for small catchments and by increasing catchment size, its influ-588 ence decreases (Figure 10). As a result, part of the second hypothesis concerning 589 the relationship between temporal resolution and small catchments is also veri-590 fied for this case study. 591
- For large catchments, the choice of spatial resolution has a larger contribution in the simulation of extreme summer-fall flood (Figures 6 and 10). This however does not exceed the contribution of the choice of time-step (Figure 10). Moreover, if the time-step is 24-hour, it is likely that the spatial resolution changes the direction of the trend for small catchments (Figures 8 and 9 and section 4). Therefore, part of the second hypothesis concerning the impact of spatial resolution on large catchments cannot be verified here.
- The choice of a hydrology model can be important for both small and large catchments. It appears that by increasing the catchment's size this choice becomes more

important (e.g., Figure 8 and 10). Therefore, part of the second hypothesis regard ing the impact of the choice of a hydrology model on large catchments can be ver ified here. In all cases, WaSiM shows a higher variance than Hydrotel for stream flow projections (Figure 6).

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Figure 1.



Figure 2.



74°W

72°W Longitude 70°W

Figure 3.



Figure 4.

Figure 5.

- 20**∆AET(%)**
- 10

- -35
- -40
- •45**0(%)**
- -50

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

Figure 8.

Figure 9.

Figure 10.

time-step
hydrology model
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spatial resolution
time-step & hydr
Error

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