

**A multi-objective approach to select hydrological models
and constrain structural uncertainties for climate impact
assessments**

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A multi-objective approach to select hydrological models and constrain structural uncertainties for climate impact assessments

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Abstract

The assessment of climate change impacts on water resources and flood risk is typically underpinned by hydrological models calibrated and selected based on observed streamflow records. Yet, changes in climate are rarely accounted for when selecting hydrological models, which compromises their ability to robustly represent future changes in catchment hydrology. In this paper, we test a simple framework for selecting an ensemble of calibrated hydrological model structures in catchments where changing climatic conditions have been observed. We start by considering 78 model structures produced using the FUSE modular modelling framework and rely on a Pareto scheme to select model structures maximizing model efficiency in both wet and dry periods. The application of this approach in three case study basins in Peru enables the identification of structures with good robustness, but also good performance according to hydrological signatures not used for model selection. We also highlight that some model structures that perform well according to traditional efficiency metrics have low performance in contrasting climates or suspicious internal states and fluxes. Importantly, the model selection approach followed here helps to reduce the spread in precipitation elasticities and temperature sensitivities, providing a clearer picture of future hydrological changes. Overall, this work demonstrates the potential of using contrasting climatic conditions in a multi-objective framework to produce robust and credible simulations, and to constrain structural uncertainties in hydrological projections.

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3 34 **Keywords:** Hydrologic change; model structure uncertainty; modular modelling framework;
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5 35 Pareto scheme; signatures; hydrological consistency.
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8 37 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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12 39 Climate change is greatly affecting the economy and quality of life of populations around the
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14 40 world, causing an increase in the frequency and intensity of extreme hydrological events such
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16 41 as droughts and floods (Gavrilović et al., 2012; Correa et al., 2017; Shiru et al., 2019; Haile et
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18 42 al., 2019; Son et al., 2020; Bhardwaj et al., 2020; Alvarez-Garreton et al., 2021), challenging
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20 43 thus water resources management and flood risk. The hydrological community is tackling this
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22 44 challenge and, in a collaborative effort, continuous improvements are being developed in the
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24 45 methodologies used in the assessment of climate change impacts.
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26 47 The assessment of climate change impacts on water resources commonly involves several
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28 48 methodological choices, which include the selection of emission scenarios, global climate
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30 49 models (GCM), initial conditions, downscaling method, hydrologic model structure and
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32 50 parameter values (e.g., Wilby & Harris, 2006; Chen et al., 2011; Addor et al., 2014;
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34 51 Chegwidden et al., 2019). The above decisions lead to uncertainties, whose relative
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36 52 importance may differ depending on specific hydroclimatic conditions and basin
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38 53 characteristics (Clark et al., 2016). In particular, many authors have found that the choice of
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40 54 the hydrologic model structure (i.e., choice of processes explicitly represented, model
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42 55 parameterizations, architecture and connectivity) and the choice of parameters (i.e., the
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44 56 coefficients in model equations, either free or observable) may have large effects on the
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46 57 characterization of climate change impacts (e.g., Miller et al., 2012; Seiller et al., 2012; Vano
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48 58 et al., 2012; Brigode et al., 2013; Mendoza et al., 2015, 2016; Fowler et al., 2018a; Melsen et
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50 59 al., 2018).
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52 60
53 61 The sole effects of hydrologic model choice – commonly based on legacy, rather than
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55 62 adequacy (Addor & Melsen, 2019) – have been widely explored in the context of climate
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57 63 change impacts. A large body of work has relied on the selection of a small ensemble of
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59 64 hydrological models (e.g., Jiang et al., 2007; Bae et al., 2011; Mendoza et al., 2015;
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61 65 Mizukami et al., 2016), while a few authors have proposed explicit changes in model
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63 66 structures to address this issue (Westra et al., 2014; Grigg & Hughes, 2018). The assessment

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3 67 of structural uncertainties is now facilitated by the emergence of modular modelling
4 frameworks (MMFs; e.g., Pomeroy et al., 2007; Clark et al., 2008, 2015; Kavetski & Fenicia,
5 68 2011; Niu et al., 2011; Coxon et al., 2019; Knoben et al., 2019; Craig et al., 2020), which
6 69 allow to design controlled experiments to test hypotheses about catchment functioning (Clark
7 70 et al., 2011). Of course, the large number of modelling options available in MMFs raises the
8 71 challenge to sample model space in order to efficiently capture structural uncertainty
9 72 (Remmers et al., 2020), especially under scenarios of changing climatic conditions.
10 73 During decades, the hydrology community adopted differential split-sample tests (DSST;
11 74 Klemes 1986) as a standard practice to assess the temporal stability of model performance.
12 75 However, many authors have reported decreased skill when a model is applied in very
13 76 different climatic conditions compared to those used to infer the parameter values (e.g., Vaze
14 77 et al., 2010; Merz et al., 2011; Seiller et al., 2012; Brigode et al., 2013; Motavita et al., 2019;
15 78 Pan et al., 2019). For example, Coron et al. (2012) examined the extrapolation capacity of
16 79 three hydrological models for different climatic conditions in 216 basins in Australia,
17 80 proposing a generalized split-sample test (GSST) based on the DSST methodology. Their
18 81 results demonstrated that the transfer of model parameters in time can introduce errors in
19 82 simulations, and therefore lack of robustness when the models are used in a changing climate.
20 83 Stephens et al. (2019) developed three experiments to test the potential of (1) transferring
21 84 model parameters in time, (2) improve simulations under future climate scenarios, and (3)
22 85 varying model parameters according to climate conditions for improved simulations.
23 86 Stephens et al. (2019) used the GR4J (Perrin et al., 2003) conceptual model to conduct three
24 87 experiments over 164 Australian basins, obtaining mixed results in their experiments to
25 88 improve model performance under contrasting climatic conditions. More recently,
26 89 Duethmann et al. (2020) analysed the causes of the low performance of a semi-distributed
27 90 hydrological model under changing climate conditions over a large number of basins in
28 91 Australia, where they mainly focused on: (1) data problems, (2) problems related to the
29 92 model calibration and (3) model structure deficiencies. Duethmann et al. (2020) found that
30 93 poor model performance is mainly because most model structures ignore changes in
31 94 vegetation dynamics, and due to temporal inhomogeneities in precipitation data.
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34 97 Fowler et al. (2016) revisited the problem of temporal instability in model performance
35 98 through the application of a Pareto framework – aimed to find parameter sets that
36 99 simultaneously maximize model efficiency in a wet and a dry period – in 85 catchments
37 100 located in Australia, using five conceptual hydrological models. They found that temporal

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3 101 instabilities reported in previous studies may be attributed to poor parameter estimation
4 102 strategies, rather than model structural inadequacies. Fowler et al. (2018a) assessed
5 103 hydrological model performance in historical multi-year droughts, finding that they often
6 104 have poor performance that could be attributed to errors in the data, model structure or
7 105 parameter values. It should be noted that their Pareto scheme was used to discriminate
8 106 parameter sets given a fixed model structure, rather than screening competing models with
9 107 the same application purpose.
10 108

11 109 Hydrologic sensitivities to climate perturbations are attractive due to their simple
12 110 formulation, and because they allow quick estimates of runoff production under different
13 111 climate scenarios (Vano & Lettenmaier, 2014; Vano et al., 2015; Milly et al., 2018; Lehner et
14 112 al., 2019). Vano et al. (2012) examined the effects of hydrologic model choice on the
15 113 estimation of precipitation elasticities and temperature sensitivities in the Colorado River
16 114 basin, finding large differences attributed to structural discrepancies and model biases, since
17 115 the models were not configured to simulate streamflow. Mendoza et al. (2015) compared
18 116 inter-model differences in projected hydrologic changes before and after conducting
19 117 parameter estimation, concluding that large differences remain between calibrated models.
20 118 Nevertheless, the subjective choice of models in these studies, the lack of further model
21 119 evaluation in contrasting climatic periods, and the body of work previously referred to
22 120 reinforces the urgency to (1) improve parameter estimation and model selection strategies,
23 121 and (2) conduct plausibility checks in model structures to obtain coherent results under
24 122 changing climatic conditions. In this paper, we combine elements from recent studies to
25 123 address the following questions:
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- 27 125
- 28 126 ■ Can the hydrological consistency of simulations in contrasting climatic periods be
29 127 improved by sampling the model space with a simple Pareto framework?
 - 30 128 ■ Can links be drawn between the components of the models selected by this
31 129 procedure?
 - 32 130 ■ Can this model selection procedure reduce uncertainties in precipitation elasticities
33 131 and temperature sensitivities?

34 132 Hence, we propose an approach based on (1) selecting dry and wet sub-periods, (2)
35 133 calibrating hydrological models in each sub-period, (3) choosing the combinations of
36 134 hydrological model and parameter set that maximize performance in wet and dry years, (4)

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3 135 assessing hydrological consistency and screening models, and (5) quantifying the ensemble
4 136 spread in hydrologic sensitivities resulting from the model subset. We apply this framework
5 137 in three basins located in Peru and rely on model structures produced using the Framework
6 138 for Understanding Structural Errors (FUSE; Clark et al., 2008).
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11 140 **2. STUDY DOMAIN AND DATA**

12 141 The National Water Authority (ANA, by its acronym in Spanish) of Peru has identified three
13 142 main hydrographic regions (ANA 2009) – the Pacific region, the Atlantic or Amazon region
14 143 and Lake Titicaca region – with different geomorphological, climatic and hydrological
15 144 characteristics (see Lavado Casimiro et al., 2012; Heidinger et al., 2018; Rau et al., 2018). To
16 145 represent such diversity, we select three case study basins (Figure 1): two of these are located
17 146 in Peru (Vilcanota and Huancane), and the other is a transboundary catchment located
18 147 between Peru and Ecuador (Puyango-Tumbes). The Vilcanota River basin belongs to the
19 148 Atlantic region, the Huancane River basin belongs to the Lake Titicaca region, and the
20 149 Puyango-Tumbes River basin belongs to the Pacific region. During recent years, these basins
21 150 have seen an increase in flooding during the rainy season, and water shortages during the dry
22 151 season (Sanabria et al. 2009; Lavado Casimiro et al. 2011; Rivas & Rivas, 2013; Andres et al.
23 152 2014; Zulkafli, 2014; Takahashi & Martínez Grimaldo, 2015; Martínez & Céspedes, 2017).
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36 154 [Insert Figure 1]
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40 156 Table 1 summarizes the main physiographic and hydroclimatic characteristics of the three
41 157 basins over the period Sep/1986 – Aug/2016 (note that the water year in Peru starts in
42 158 September and ends in August). Annual runoff ratios (RR) and the mean annual runoff in the
43 159 Puyango-Tumbes and Huancane basins were estimated over shorter periods, due to the lack
44 160 of streamflow records in some years. The Vilcanota and Huancane River basins (located in
45 161 the southeast) have similar mean elevations, while the Puyango-Tumbes River basin (located
46 162 in the northwest, close to the equatorial line) has the lowest mean elevation (Figure 1), and
47 163 higher values of mean annual precipitation, aridity index and runoff ratio (0.98), which
48 164 implies that a large fraction of precipitation contributes to runoff. On the other hand, the
49 165 Huancane River basin has the lowest runoff ratio (0.25), which implies a high evaporative
50 166 fraction. The Puyango-Tumbes River basin has a high aridity index in comparison with the
51 167 other catchments, since the basin has a great potential to evaporate.
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7 171 Many authors have argued that the lack of meteorological observations in the Peruvian Andes
8 172 and the Amazonia is the main limitation for climate change impact studies (Lavado Casimiro
9 173 et al., 2011; Andres et al., 2014; Zulkafli, 2014; Vegas Galdos et al., 2015; Aybar et al., 2019;
10 174 Rau et al., 2018; Llauca et al., 2021). To address this issue, Aybar et al. (2019) and Huerta et
11 175 al. (2018) developed the Peruvian Interpolated data of SENAMHI's Climatological and
12 176 hydrological Observations (PISCO) database, which provides daily time series of
13 177 precipitation, minimum and maximum temperature for the period 1981-2016, with a 0.1°
14 178 horizontal resolution. Precipitation time series in PISCOp (Aybar et al., 2019) were obtained
15 179 using geostatistical and deterministic interpolation methods that include three precipitation
16 180 sources: (1) the quality-controlled and infilled national rain gauge dataset, (2) radar-gauge
17 181 merged precipitation climatologies, and (3) the Climate Hazards Group Infrared Precipitation
18 182 (CHIRP) estimates. Daily time series of maximum and minimum temperature in PISCOt
19 183 (Huerta et al., 2018) were obtained from: (1) observed maximum and minimum temperature
20 184 data, (2) soil temperature product from the MODIS sensor (Moderate Resolution Imaging
21 185 Spectroradiometer), and (3) geographic predictors (e.g., elevation, longitude, latitude and
22 186 Topographic Dissection Index). The reader is referred to Huerta et al. (2018) for full
23 187 descriptions on the development of temperature products. The PISCO product is freely
24 188 available through the IRI Data Library website
25 189 (<http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.SEAMHI/.HSR/.PISCO/>).
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41 191 Daily streamflow time series were obtained from the Peruvian National Meteorological and
42 192 Hydrological Service (Servicio Nacional de Meteorología e Hidrología, SENAMHI). For the
43 193 Vilcanota River basin, the Intihuatana Km-105 station provides streamflow data for the
44 194 period 1985 – 2016; for the Puyango-Tumbes River basin, we collect data from the El Tigre
45 195 station for the period 1981 - 2016, and the Huancane bridge station provides streamflow
46 196 records for the period 1988 - 2016.
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52 198 **3. APPROACH**

53 199 The proposed method to select model structures under changing climatic conditions is
54 200 outlined in Figure 2, and includes the following steps: (1) selection of wet and dry periods,
55 201 (2) calibration of all model structures in each basin, (3) sampling the model space based on
56 202 temporally consistent performance skill, (4) assessment of hydrological consistency and

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3 203 model screening, and (5) quantifying the effects of model sampling on the spread in
4 204 precipitation elasticities and temperature sensitivities. The step (3) builds upon the approach
5 205 proposed by Fowler et al. (2018a), which aims to maximize model performance in both wet
6 206 and dry periods using a Pareto analysis scheme. Hence, the framework involves the selection
7 207 of two 5-year periods with contrasting climates (section 3.1.1), and a one-year period for
8 208 model spin-up. Once these subperiods are defined, we set up a multi-model (MM) ensemble
9 209 that we sequentially refine and transform into a smaller ensemble that provides
10 210 hydrologically consistent simulations through the following steps:

11 211

- 12 212 i. MM0-dry and MM0-wet: full FUSE model ensemble (i.e., 78 model structures)
13 213 calibrated in dry and wet periods by minimizing RMSE (section 3.1.2).
- 14 214 ii. MMP-dry and MMP-wet: a small 5-member ensemble obtained after applying the
15 215 Pareto scheme framework with the evaluation metrics listed in Table 4 (section
16 216 3.1.3).
- 17 217 iii. MMPS-dry and MMPS-wet: Same as 2, but after screening MMP-dry and MMP-wet
18 218 based on the seasonal behaviour of internal states and fluxes (section 3.1.4).

19 219 The details of each step are described in the following sub-sections.

20 220

21 221 **3.1 Selection of analysis periods**

22 222 Based on the differential split-sample test (DSST) procedure formulated by Klemes (1986),
23 223 we select wet and dry analysis periods that include five consecutive years, using runoff and
24 224 mean annual precipitation time series (see Figure 2, box 1). To verify the contrast between
25 225 these periods, we examine annual hydroclimatic characteristics (e.g., mean annual runoff,
26 226 mean annual precipitation, mean annual PET, runoff ratio and aridity index), seasonal
27 227 variations in some fluxes, and the daily flow duration curve. The selected periods are
28 228 displayed in Figure 3. For the Vilcanota River basin (Figure 3, left panels), we consider
29 229 Sep/1988-Aug/1993 as dry period, and Sep/1999 - Aug/2004 as wet period; for the Puyango-
30 230 Tumbes River basin (Figure 3, centre panels), the selected periods are Sep/2002-Aug/2007 as
31 231 dry period, and Sep/2007-Aug/2012 as wet period; and for the Huancane River basin (Figure
32 232 3, right panels), we consider Sep/2006-Aug/2011 as dry period, and Sep/1999-Aug/2004 as
33 233 wet period. The main hydroclimatic characteristics of each period are summarized in Table 2,
34 234 and the contrasting hydroclimates between the selected periods are reflected in mean monthly
35 235 runoff, mean monthly precipitation, average monthly temperature (Figure 3, top panels), and
36 236 the flow duration curves (Figure 3, bottom panels). For example, in the Vilcanota River basin

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3 237 the wet (dry) period has aridity index (AI) and runoff ratio (RR) values of 1.00 (1.18) and
4 238 0.58 (0.49) respectively. Interestingly, AI values in the Puyango-Tumbes River basin are
5 239 higher to those for the other catchments (Table 2), possibly because – along the Pacific coast
6 240 – rainfall is higher in the north and decreases towards the south (Lavado Casimiro et al.,
7 241 2012); additionally, temperature values are higher since the basin is close to the equatorial
8 242 line, and hence there is high potential for evapotranspiration. Moreover, in the Puyango-
9 243 Tumbes River basin, there is more runoff than precipitation between May and September (see
10 244 Figure 3, upper panel), which suggests that the basin also receives groundwater contributions.
11 245 Indeed, Núñez Juárez & Zegarra Loo (2006) identified aquifers located in the alluvial
12 246 deposits of the Tumbes River and in the areas of the main streams, which are constantly
13 247 recharged by the seasonal rains that occur in the upper part of the basin.
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24 249 [Insert Figure 2]

25 250

26 251 [Insert Table 2]

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28 253 [Insert Figure 3]

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30 255 **3.2 Hydrological modelling**

31 256 In this study, we use the Framework for Understanding Structural Error (FUSE; Clark et al.,
32 257 2008), which allows the implementation of an ensemble of hydrologic model structures that
33 258 can be used to characterize structural uncertainty (e.g., Clark et al., 2011). Further, its
34 259 modular functionality allows to diagnose inter-model differences in simulated states and
35 260 fluxes through controlled experiments. FUSE discretizes the soil column along the vertical
36 261 axis into an unsaturated zone (above the water table) and a saturated zone (below the water
37 262 table). The major model-building decisions can be defined by the user, including the
38 263 architecture of the upper and lower soil layers, and the parameterizations for simulating
39 264 evaporation, surface runoff, percolation of water fluxes between soil layers, interflow, and
40 265 baseflow. The multiple options available for each model building decision (Table 3) are
41 266 drawn from four conceptual parent models: PRMS (Leavesley et al., 1984), Sacramento
42 267 (Burnash, 1995), TOMODEL (Beven & Kirkby, 1979), and ARNO/VIC (Zhao, 1977).
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58 268

59 269 It is important to note that FUSE does not perform any surface energy balance calculations,
60 270 and neither does represent the canopy interception or the transpiration and evaporation from

271 intercepted water (Clark et al., 2008). Snow is modelled using a Snow-17-based temperature
 272 index model (Anderson, 2006), which tracks snow water equivalent (SWE) based on
 273 precipitation and melt (see Henn et al., 2015 for further details). Despite all these
 274 simplifications, the models are designed to provide a robust representation of the major
 275 hydrological fluxes in the subsurface (Clark et al., 2008), and their low data requirements
 276 makes them well suited for hydrological simulations in data-scarce regions.

277

278 [Insert Table 3]

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280 In this work, we configure 78 model structures for each basin, using 100-m elevation bands
 281 in the snow model to account for topographic effects. Model simulations are conducted at a
 282 daily time step, requiring precipitation, temperature and potential evapotranspiration (PET) –
 283 computed with the formulation proposed by Oudin et al. (2005) – as meteorological forcings.
 284 All model structures are calibrated with the Shuffled Complex Evolution (SCE-UA; Duan et
 285 al. 1992) optimization algorithm, with a maximum of 10,000 iterations, to minimize the root
 286 mean squared error (RMSE) of simulated daily streamflow:

$$287 \quad \text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Q_s^i - Q_o^i)^2} \quad (1)$$

288

289 where Q_s^i and Q_o^i correspond to simulated and observed runoff, respectively, and N is the
 290 number of days in the calibration period. It should be noted that the choice of objective
 291 function is justified by the particular interest to configure models that are capable to simulate
 292 floods (i.e., peak flows) under contrasting climate scenarios. For each hydrologic model
 293 structure and each basin, two separate calibrations are conducted (i.e., one for the dry and one
 294 for the wet period). The resulting combinations of model structures and parameters –
 295 obtained for dry (MM0-dry) and wet (MM0-wet) periods – serve as the basis for the model
 296 sampling framework described below.

297

298 3.3 Selection of calibrated model structures

299 To sample the model space, we adopt the Pareto approach proposed by Fowler et al. (2018a)
 300 to obtain temporally stable parameter sets for a given model structure, using performance
 301 acceptance thresholds in wet and dry hydroclimatic periods. Our study differs in that we
 302 focus on the temporal transferability of model structures under a common calibration

60

framework, rather than model parameter sets for a fixed model structure. Therefore, we apply the Pareto framework on MM0-dry and MM0-wet using five commonly used objective functions (Table 4), and considering 0.7 as the performance acceptance threshold. A small ensemble of six models is subsequently selected from the original 78-member ensembles (MM0-dry and MM0-wet) based on the following criteria:

1. Model structure and parameter set with the best performance in terms of RMSE in the calibration period (lowest RMSE Cal).
2. Model structure and parameter set with the highest NSE (or, equivalently, smallest RMSE) in both calibration and evaluation periods (highest NSE Cal-Eval).
3. Model structure and parameter set with the highest KGE in both calibration and evaluation period (highest KGE Cal-Eval).
4. Model structure and parameter set with the highest split-KGE in both calibration and evaluation periods (highest splitKGE Cal-Eval).
5. Model structure and parameter set with the highest NSE-log in both calibration and evaluation periods (highest NSElog Cal-Eval).
6. Model structure and parameter set with the highest Aggregate Objective Function (AOF; Fowler et al. 2016) in both calibration and evaluation periods (highest AOF Cal-Eval).

For criteria 2-6, we select the model structure and parameter set that meet the following requirements:

- i. Efficiency indices equal or higher than 0.7 in both calibration and evaluation periods (light blue region in Figure 2).
- ii. Yield the shortest Euclidean Distance (ED) with respect to the yellow point in Figure 2 (panel 3), defined as:

$$ED = \sqrt{(1 - E_{cal})^2 + (1 - E_{eval})^2} \quad (2)$$

where E_{cal} and E_{eval} are the performance metrics in calibration and evaluation periods, respectively.

In cases where condition (i) is not met by any combination of model and parameter set, we select the model structure that satisfies requirement (ii).

It should be noted that, when starting with MM0-dry (MM0-wet), the calibration period is the selected dry (wet) period. Additionally, alternative 1 does not rely on a split sample

339 evaluation and is still common practice in hydrology. Conversely, alternatives 2-6 consider
 340 performance during both calibration and evaluation periods, and do not involve any re-
 341 calibration of model structures, but a model sampling based on evaluations with parameter
 342 values obtained from the calibration process (section 3.1.2). For example, the dry period
 343 calibration KGE (alternative 3) is the Kling-Gupta efficiency obtained with the parameters
 344 that result from model calibration conducted in the dry period, minimizing RMSE; similarly,
 345 the wet period evaluation KGE is the Kling-Gupta efficiency obtained with the same
 346 parameter set, applied in the wet period. The result of this process (i.e., application of criteria
 347 2-6) are small (5-member) multi-model ensembles for a dry (MMP-dry) and a wet (MMP-
 348 wet) period, which provide combinations of flood-oriented models/parameters for (1)
 349 hydrologically consistent simulations, regardless of the climatic conditions, and (2) reducing
 350 the structural uncertainty in hydrologic sensitivities to climate change.

351

352 [Insert Table 4]

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354 **3.4 Hydrological consistency and inter-model agreement**

355 We use six signature measures of hydrologic behaviour (Yilmaz et al. 2008; Pokhrel et al.
 356 2012; Mendoza et al. 2015) to assess the model capability to reproduce the water balance,
 357 runoff seasonality and hydrological signatures from the daily flow duration curve (FDC) (see
 358 details in Appendix A). Further, we evaluate the capability of the model sampling approach
 359 to select model structures that produce hydrologically coherent simulations through the
 360 examination of monthly states and fluxes (i.e. streamflow, ET, soil moisture, snow water
 361 equivalent – SWE –, baseflow and surface runoff). Inter-model agreement in the simulation
 362 of seasonal cycles is quantified with the average standard deviation of simulated monthly
 363 variables:

364

$$365 \quad Sd = \frac{1}{12} \sum_{m=1}^{12} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{m,i} - \overline{x_m})^2} \quad (3)$$

366

367 Where n is the number of sample elements (i.e., number of model structures), $x_{m,i}$ is the mean
 368 monthly value of variable x obtained from model i and month m , and $\overline{x_m}$ is the result of
 369 averaging $x_{m,i}$ across all models.

370

371 Once the behaviour of internal model states and fluxes in MMP-dry and MMP-wet is
 372 analysed, we conduct a final screening procedure to discard potentially problematic model
 373 structures, obtaining final multi-model ensembles MMPS-dry and MMPS-wet from dry and
 374 wet calibration periods, respectively.

375

376 **3.5 Hydrologic sensitivities of runoff**

377 We compute hydrologic sensitivities for the period Sep/1986 – Aug/2016 to include both dry
 378 and wet periods. Following Vano et al. (2012), we create modified climates by using
 379 multiplicative perturbations in precipitation (70%, 80%, 90%, 100% and 110%), which are
 380 used to compute precipitation elasticities (ϵ), and additive perturbations in temperature (0°,
 381 1°, 2°, 3°C) that are used for temperature sensitivities (S). Hydrologic sensitivities are
 382 estimated using 1% and 0.1°C incremental changes in precipitation and temperature,
 383 respectively, relative to each reference climate. We select these increments to be as small as
 384 possible to approximate the tangent (versus the secant), and reduce computational artifacts.
 385 We estimate ϵ as the fractional change in average annual runoff (Q) divided by the fractional
 386 change imposed on precipitation:

387

$$388 \quad \epsilon = \frac{Q_{\text{ref} + \Delta\%} - Q_{\text{ref}}}{Q_{\text{ref}}} \Delta\% \quad (4)$$

389

390 where $\Delta=1\%$. Temperature sensitivities are estimated by perturbing air temperature instead of
 391 PET, since the former variable is the most widely used in climate change impact assessments.
 392 We estimate S as the percent change in average annual runoff due to temperature changes as:

393

$$394 \quad S = \frac{Q_{\text{ref} + \Delta} - Q_{\text{ref}}}{Q_{\text{ref}}} \Delta \quad (5)$$

395

396 where $\Delta=1^\circ\text{C}$.

397

398 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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400 **4.1 Choice of hydrological model structure**

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3 401 Figure 4 shows the coverage results from all calibrated hydrological models. In general, we
4 402 observe that the Vilcanota River basin yields the best performance in contrasting climates,
5 403 compared to the Huancane and Puyango-Tumbes River basins, where only a few model
6 404 structures meet the acceptable performance limits. Indeed, most model structures in the
7 405 Vilcanota River basin (Figure 4, left panels) are in the blue-shaded area, except when the
8 406 Pareto scheme is applied with the NSE-log. For this criterion, only a few models meet the
9 407 acceptance thresholds in both dry and wet periods, since the calibration objective function
10 408 (RMSE) is focused on high flows; notably, all the model structures selected in the two
11 409 calibration periods (coloured dots) are in the shaded area, except one structure in the NSE-log
12 410 diagram for the wet calibration period (orange dot, split-KGE). In the Puyango-Tumbes River
13 411 basin (Figure 4, centre panels) only a few model structures fall within the shaded area, with
14 412 the lowest performances obtained when the Pareto scheme is applied with the NSE-log and
15 413 AOF. However, most of the selected models (coloured dots) are in the shaded area.
16 414
17 415 Interestingly, the Huancane River basin (Figure 4, right panels) emerges as a challenging case
18 416 study, since very few model structures fall within the shaded area, with the lowest
19 417 performances obtained for NSE-log. In the diagrams for the dry calibration period, the model
20 418 selected with NSE provides the most consistent results in contrasting climates. However,
21 419 when the calibration is conducted during a wet period, few models fall within the shaded
22 420 area, with evaluation metrics for which no model structures meet the acceptance thresholds
23 421 (i.e., NSE, KGE). Overall, the temporal transferability of model performance in the Huancane
24 422 River basin is quite poor, regardless of the evaluation criteria, since most model structures
25 423 have good performance in the calibration period, but behave poorly in the evaluation period.
26 424 In other words, the parameter sets found from the optimization of RMSE provide acceptable
27 425 performance in terms of other evaluation metrics within the calibration period (especially if
28 426 this is wet), but not necessarily for the evaluation period. This can be explained by the
29 427 simplifications adopted for some process representations (e.g., canopy interception,
30 428 transpiration and others), and possibly by the level of spatial disaggregation of the model
31 429 structures considered here.

430

431 [Insert Figure 4]

432

433 **4.2 Hydrological consistency and inter-model differences**

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3 434 Figures 5 and 6 illustrate the performance of all model structures, for each basin and
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5 435 calibration period, in terms of signature measures of hydrologic behaviour and flow duration
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7 436 curve, respectively. In general, the model sampling approach provides an ensemble of
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9 437 structures with good performance, improving inter-model agreement in comparison to the
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11 438 original ensemble (grey symbols in Figure 5, and gray lines in Figure 6). Further, it is
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13 439 observed that model performance depends considerably on the calibration period (i.e., dry or
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15 440 wet).

16 441
17 442 Figure 5 shows that high performance in RR, CTR y FHV signatures and low performance in
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19 443 FMS, FLV, and FMM signatures is obtained in all basins, suggesting that many of the
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21 444 structures are unable to represent low and medium flows, which is also reflected in the flow
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23 445 duration curve (Figure 6). It should be noted that, according to the flow duration curve graphs
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25 446 (Figure 6), there is an underestimation of observed low flows while, according to the
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27 447 hydrological signatures (Figure 5), there is an overestimation. Such discrepancy can be
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29 448 explained by the logarithmic transformation performed on flow values to compute some
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31 449 metrics (FMS, FLV and FMM; see Appendix A). Further, the poor performance of FMS,
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33 450 FLV and FMM signatures can be explained by the choice of RMSE as the objective
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35 451 calibration function and to the selected calibration period (i.e., dry or wet period). For
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37 452 example, in the Vilcanota River basin (Figure 5, left column) there is more bias in FLV with
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39 453 EVAL W-> D than in EVAL D-> W (Figure 6). This relative performance in wet and dry
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41 454 periods is also observed in the Huancane River basin (Figure 5, right column). However, in
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43 455 the Puyango-Tumbes River basin (Figure 5, center panels), there is more bias with EVAL D-
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45 456 > W, in comparison with EVAL W-> D (Figure 6).

46 457
47 458 [Insert Figure 5]

48 459
49 460 [Insert Figure 6]

50 461
51 462 Figure 7 displays climatological averages (Sep/1986-Aug/2016) of monthly state variables
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53 463 and fluxes for each basin and calibration period. One can note that the largest inter-model
54
55 464 differences are obtained for soil moisture, SWE, baseflow and surface runoff, even if there is
56
57 465 good agreement in streamflow seasonality among the model structures of the full ensemble
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59 466 (e.g., Vilcanota and Puyango-Tumbes River basins). The largest dispersion of simulated
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467 states and fluxes is obtained during spring and summer – where most precipitation events

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3 468 occur –, and the smallest dispersion occurs during fall and winter, except for ET in the
4 469 Huancane River basin. Further, inter-model agreement improves among the selected model
5 470 structures in comparison to the full 78-member ensemble provided by FUSE. For example,
6 471 the multi-model selection scheme in the Vilcanota River basin for the dry period enables a
7 472 considerable reduction in the standard deviation of soil moisture from 291 mm to 187 mm
8 473 (35.7%) with respect to the full model ensemble (gray lines); yet, such reduction is not
9 474 achieved when the model structures are calibrated in a wet period, since here the selected
10 475 model structures show an increase in the standard deviation of soil moisture from 200 mm to
11 476 298 mm (49%), with respect to all model structures. In the Huancane River basin, the
12 477 opposite behaviour is observed: the small multi-model reduces the original spread in
13 478 simulated soil moisture when the calibration period is dry, but slightly increases the standard
14 479 deviation if the models are calibrated in a wet period.

20 480
21 481 [Insert Figure 7]
22 482

23 483 The above analyses not only illustrate the potential of the model selection framework to
24 484 reduce structural uncertainty in internal fluxes and states, but also highlight the need to
25 485 examine simulated internal fluxes and states to discard problematic model structures. Hence,
26 486 we screen the selected models based on acceptance performance thresholds, and poor or
27 487 abnormal behaviour of internal states and fluxes (Figure 7). The results obtained after this
28 488 model screening procedure are shown in Tables 5, 6 and 7. Note that the model structures are
29 489 named differently than in other papers (i.e., FUSE 1,2,3,...,78).

30 490
31 491 In the Vilcanota River basin, we dismiss FUSE 25 and FUSE 17 from the dry calibration
32 492 period (MMP-dry) and FUSE 44, FUSE 21, FUSE 01 y FUSE 61 from the wet calibration
33 493 period (MMP-wet), both due to an increasing trend in the SWE daily time series (not shown
34 494 here) that produced the abnormal behaviour of monthly SWE (Figure 7, left panels). In the
35 495 Puyango-Tumbes River basin, we dismiss FUSE 44, FUSE 56, FUSE 59 and FUSE 62 from
36 496 MMP-wet, because they do not meet the minimum performance threshold (Figure 4, center
37 497 panels). For the Huancane River basin, we dismiss FUSE 03, FUSE 23, FUSE 16, FUSE 45
38 498 and FUSE 23 from MMP-dry because they do not meet the minimum performance threshold
39 499 criteria. For the same basin, we discard FUSE 43, FUSE 69, FUSE 44 and FUSE 23 from
40 500 MMP-wet, because they do not meet the minimum performance threshold. In the three
41 501 basins, we found that none model structures from MMP-wet have been able to meet the

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3 502 requirements of the screening procedure to discard models (MMPS-wet). In contrast, in the
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5 503 model structures from MMP-dry, we found that at least one model structure has passed the
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7 504 screening procedure (MMPS-dry, Vilcanota and Huancane River basins). This result shows
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9 505 that it is possible to obtain consistent simulations of states and fluxes when the model
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11 506 structures are calibrated in dry periods. For example, in the Huancane River basin, only the
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13 507 model structure (FUSE 77) from the dry calibration period was able to pass the screening
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15 508 procedure. In the same basin, we discard the model structure selected with the criterion of
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17 509 minimizing RMSE in MMP-dry and MMP-wet, suggesting that RMSE would not be a good
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19 510 calibration function here.

511

20 512 Interestingly, we found that some model components selected before the discarding process
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22 513 depend on both calibration period and climatic characteristics (Tables 5, 6 and 7). For
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24 514 example, the Percolation (PE) component during the dry calibration period in the Vilcanota
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26 515 River basin is mainly represented by the PRMS equation, but when the calibration period is
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28 516 wet, the main modelling choice for PE (ARNO/VIC or PRMS) depends on the evaluation
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30 517 metric selected to apply the Pareto scheme. In the Puyango-Tumbes River basin (with high
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32 518 temperatures and low mean elevation, Table 1), we show that the upper layer (U) and
33
34 519 percolation (PE) components are fully represented by ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL and
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36 520 ARNO/VIC equations, respectively, regardless of the calibration period or the performance
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38 521 evaluation metric used when applying the Pareto scheme. For the remaining components, it is
39
40 522 observed that these depend on the calibration period and the performance metric used when
41
42 523 applying the Pareto scheme: for example, the TOPMODEL equation is preferred for the
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44 524 Surface Runoff components (SR) when the calibration period is dry, and the ARNO/VIC and
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46 525 TOPMODEL equation is preferred when the calibration period is wet. Finally, we do not find
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48 526 a preferred modelling choice for any component across MMP-dry and MMP-wet in this
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50 527 catchment, with the exception of the upper layer component, which is mostly represented by
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52 528 ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL.

529

530 [Insert Table 5]

531

532 [Insert Table 6]

533

534 [Insert Table 7]

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4.3 Hydrologic sensitivities.

Figure 8 illustrates the effects of changing precipitation and temperature on monthly streamflow values simulated by MM0-dry (gray lines) and MMP-dry (colored lines) in the Vilcanota River basin. Precipitation increments lead to increases in Q and ET under the assumption that temperature remains unchanged, and these variations are more noticeable during spring and summer, when the highest values occur. Assuming that precipitation does not change, temperature increments lead to a slight increase in ET and decrease in Q. Similar sensitivities are observed in the other basins, regardless of the calibration period (not shown).

[Insert Figure 8]

[Insert Figure 9]

We assess the spread in precipitation elasticities (ϵ) and temperature sensitivities (S) arising from model structure in each basin, calibration period and reference climate (Figure 9). In agreement with the results reported by Vano et al. (2012), precipitation elasticities from all model structures (Figure 9, top row) are non-linear and depend on the reference climate, with higher elasticities for drier conditions (i.e., -10%, -20% and -30%). Figure 9 (middle row) shows that lower (higher) values of mean annual streamflow are related to larger (smaller) precipitation elasticities, and higher values of annual average streamflow are related to lower values of elasticity. The simulated temperature sensitivities (S, Figure 9, bottom row) are largely negative, with the exception of some model structures in the Vilcanota River basin, since as T increases, ET increases and Q decreases in agreement with the results reported by Vano et al. (2012) for the Colorado River Basin, USA. Moreover, we observe large inter-model differences in temperature sensitivities, and no clear relationships (i.e., trends) between S values and temperature perturbations.

Figure 9 shows that, among the three catchments, the Huancane River basin provides the highest ϵ and S values, which in turn leads to a larger spread arising from model structures. On the other hand, the lowest ϵ and S values are obtained at the Puyango-Tumbes River basin, which can be explained by its geographic location (very close to the equatorial line), where higher temperatures (see monthly averages in Figure 3) and mean annual precipitation (Table 1) are observed; in this area, small temperature (0.1°C) or precipitation (1%) perturbations do not have much impact on streamflow in comparison to the other basins.

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5 571 In general, we observe that the large dispersion in precipitation elasticities and temperature
6 572 sensitivities arising from the original FUSE multi-model ensemble (MM0) decrease when a
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8 573 Pareto scheme is applied (MMP), for all basins and calibration periods. Further, a greater
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10 574 reduction in structural uncertainty is obtained after conducting a model screening step based
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12 575 on the examination of hydrological signatures and model states and fluxes (MMPS). For
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14 576 example, the ensemble spread in ϵ and S decreases by 100% (i.e., 0.2 to 0) and 0% (i.e., 0.3
15 577 to 0.3), respectively, in the Puyango-Tumbes basin for a dry calibration period. Larger
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17 578 reductions are obtained in the Vilcanota and Huancane River basins in the dry calibration
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19 579 period (MMPS-dry), where only one model structure remains. Finally, the uncertainty in
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21 580 hydrologic sensitivities is greatly reduced by applying this Pareto scheme (MMP) in the three
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23 581 selected basins of the three hydrographic regions, highlighting the potential of the proposed
24 582 approach.

25 583

27 584 5. CONCLUSIONS

29 585 In this paper, we tested the capability of a simple framework to sample hydrological model
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31 586 structures in order to (1) provide hydrologically consistent simulations under contrasting
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33 587 climatic conditions, and (2) reduce the uncertainty arising from hydrologic model choice in
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35 588 precipitation elasticities and temperature sensitivities. The analyses were conducted in three
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37 589 case study basins in Peru, representative of different hydroclimatic regimes and susceptible to
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39 590 flood occurrence. We configured and calibrated 78 FUSE models in dry and wet periods,
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41 591 obtained a sample of model structures using a Pareto scheme, refined the selection based on
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43 592 model diagnostics, assessed hydrological consistency and quantified hydrologic sensitivities.
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45 593 Further, we examined possible similarities between the selected model structures. The main
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47 594 conclusions are as follows:

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- 48 596 - The proposed approach enables the identification of structures that robustly simulate
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50 597 catchment-scale hydrology under different climatic conditions. These models
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52 598 provide coherent characterizations of seasonal water balances, and perform well for
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54 599 various efficiency metrics and hydrological signatures that were not used in the
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56 600 model selection process.
- 57 601 - Some model components from the selected structures can be related to the climate
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59 602 during the calibration period and hydroclimatic characteristics of the basin. Yet,

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3 603 these links are lacking for other model components, in particular in the Huancane
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5 604 River basin.
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7 605 - The model selection procedure led to a significant reduction in the spread in
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9 606 precipitation elasticities and temperature sensitivities when compared to the full, 78-
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11 607 member model ensemble. Further, by discarding the model structures that do not
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13 608 meet the minimum performance thresholds and/or lead to incoherent states and
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15 609 fluxes, we obtained an even larger reduction in the spread of precipitation elasticities
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17 610 and temperature sensitivities.
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19 611 - For the basins analysed here, using dry periods for model calibration and selection
20
21 612 enhanced the robustness of simulated states and fluxes, compared to calibrations
22
23 613 performed under wet conditions.
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25 614

26 615 The results presented here reinforce the idea that inter-model agreement in climate impact
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28 616 metrics does not necessarily improve if traditional objective functions are used for parameter
29
30 617 estimation and model selection (Mendoza et al., 2015). We illustrate that model evaluation
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32 618 under contrasting climatic conditions, together with assessments of hydrological consistency,
33
34 619 can inform the selection of hydrological models for climate impact studies. Further, our
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36 620 results highlight the challenge of designing model sampling strategies that provide a coherent
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38 621 model ensemble in terms of process representations, especially in catchments that are
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40 622 ‘problematic’ (e.g., Huancane River basin). Future studies could address this problem by
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42 623 using additional sources of information (Nijzink et al., 2018; Nemri & Kinnard, 2020; Slezziak
43
44 624 et al., 2020; Széles et al., 2020) that can be incorporated in the Pareto scheme to find
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46 625 behavioural combinations of model structures and parameters
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48 626

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51
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53
54 630 11200142.
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57 632 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

58 633 Daily streamflow data used in this study can be obtained from SENAMHI website
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60 634 <https://www.senamhi.gob.pe/?p=estaciones>, and the PISCO product is freely available from

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3 636 the IRI Data Library website
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5 637 <http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.SENAMHI/.HSR/.PISCO/>
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For Peer Review

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3 939 **APPENDICES**
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6
7 941 The signature measures used here are based on formulations presented in previous climate
8 942 impact studies (e.g., Mendoza et al. 2015; Yilmaz et al. 2008; Pokhrel et al. 2012). The
9 943 diagnostic signature measure for water balance is the percent bias in the overall runoff ratio:
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$$\% \text{ Bias RR} = \frac{RR^s - RR^o}{RR^o} \times 100 \quad (6)$$

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18 947 Where RR^o and RR^s are observed and simulated mean annual runoff ratio, respectively.
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21 949 The ability to reproduce runoff seasonality is quantified by the percent bias in the centroid of
22 the daily hydrograph for an average water year:
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$$\% \text{ Bias CTR} = \frac{(\sum_{j=1}^N t_j Q_j^s / \sum_{j=1}^N Q_j^s) - (\sum_{j=1}^N t_j Q_j^o / \sum_{j=1}^N Q_j^o)}{(\sum_{j=1}^N t_j Q_j^o / \sum_{j=1}^N Q_j^o)} \times 100 \quad (7)$$

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32 954 where Q_j^o and Q_j^s are observed and simulated streamflow, respectively, at $t = t_j$, and N is the
33 955 total number of days in the water year. Since the water year in Peru begins on September 1, t_j
34 956 = 1 for that day.
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39 958 The diagnostic signature measures for vertical redistribution are the percent bias in FDC mis-
40 959 segment slope (% Bias FMS) and the percent bias in FDC high-segment volume (%Bias
41 960 FHV). The first metric is computed as:
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$$\% \text{ Bias FMS} = \frac{[\log(Q_{m1}^s) - \log(Q_{m2}^s)] - [\log(Q_{m1}^o) - \log(Q_{m2}^o)]}{[\log(Q_{m1}^o) - \log(Q_{m2}^o)]} \times 100 \quad (8)$$

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52 964 Where $m1 = 0.2$ and $m2 = 0.7$, while Q_{m1} and Q_{m2} are flows with probability of exceedance
53 965 of 0.2 and 0.7, respectively. A steep slope indicates a greater flashiness in the streamflow
54 966 response, while a flatter curve indicates a relatively damped response and greater storage.

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56 967 The percent bias in FDC high-segment volume is computed as:
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$$\% \text{ Bias FHV} = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^H (Q_h^s - Q_h^o)}{\sum_{h=1}^H Q_h^o} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

Where $h=1,2,\dots,H$ are the flow indices in the flow matrix with probability of exceedance less than 0.02. FHV is a measure of the basin response to high precipitation and snowmelt events.

The diagnostic signature measure for long-term baseflow is the percent bias in FDC low-segment volume (%Bias FLV):

$$\% \text{ Bias FLV} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^L [\log(Q_l^s) - \log(Q_l^o)] - \sum_{l=1}^L [\log(Q_l^i) - \log(Q_l^o)]}{\sum_{l=1}^L [\log(Q_l^i) - \log(Q_l^o)]} \times 100 \quad (10)$$

Where $l=1,2,\dots,L$ is the index within the set of values located in the FDC low flow segment (probability of exceedance between 0.7 and 1.0), and L is the index for the minimum flow.

The signature measure %Bias FMM was computed using the median value of the observed (Q_{med}^o) and simulated (Q_{med}^s) flows:

$$\% \text{ Bias FMM} = \frac{\log(Q_{med}^s) - \log(Q_{med}^o)}{\log(Q_{med}^o)} \times 100 \quad (11)$$

We select the median as a measure of midrange flows, because it is less sensitive to a biased distribution than the mean of the streamflow time series.

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1000 **TABLES**

1001

1002 Table 1: Characteristics of the three case study watersheds. Hydroclimatic indices were
 1003 computed with data from the period Sep/1986 – Aug/2016. For the Puyango-Tumbes and
 1004 Huancane River basins, a shorter period was used due to the lack of streamflow records in some
 1005 years.

Basin	Area [km ²]	Mean basin elevation and range [m a.s.l.]	Mean annual runoff [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual precipitation [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual PET [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual runoff ratio Q/P	Mean annual aridity index PET/P
Vilcanota	9586	4279 (2291-6255)	398	742	813	0.54	1.10
Puyango-Tumbes*	4694	1941 (39-3847)	718	732	1594	0.98	2.18
Huancane**	3545	4396 (3815-4976)	171	674	694	0.25	1.03

1006 Note: PET is potential evapotranspiration; AI is the aridity index.

1007 **Period considered: 25 years.

1008 ***Period considered: 21 years.

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Table 2: Characteristics of the dry and wet periods for the three case study basins.

Basin	Period	Mean annual runoff [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual precipitation [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual PET [mm yr ⁻¹]	Mean annual RR [Q/P]	Mean annual AI [PET/P]
Vilcanota	Dry	328	666	788	0.49	1.18
	Wet	468	806	807	0.58	1.00
Puyango-Tumbes	Dry	487	528	1593	0.92	3.02
	Wet	915	992	1592	0.92	1.61
Huancane	Dry	114	60	706	0.19	1.17
	Wet	227	750	690	0.30	0.92

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1015 Table 3: FUSE model decision options (modified from Clark et al. 2008; Staudinger et al.
 1016 2011).

Model structure	Model option	Existing model
Upper layer architecture "U"	Upper layer divided into tension and free storage	Sacramento
	Free storage plus tension storage sub-divided into recharge and excess	PRMS
	Upper layer defined by a single state variable	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL
Lower layer architecture and subsurface flow "L"	Tension storage combined with two parallel tanks	Sacramento
	Storage of unlimited size combined with linear fraction rate	PRMS
	Storage of unlimited size combined with power recession	TOPMODEL
	Storage of fixed size with non-linear storage function	ARNO/VIC
Surface runoff "SR"	ARNO/Xzang/VIC parametrization	ARNO/VIC
	PRMS variant; fraction of upper tension storage	PRMS
	TOPMODEL parametrization	TOPMODEL
Percolation "PE"	Water from field capacity to saturation available for percolation	PRMS
	Water from wilting point to saturation available for percolation	ARNO/VIC
	Percolation defined by moisture content in lower layer architecture	Sacramento

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1020 Table 4: Performance metrics used to sample the model space produced with FUSE.

Performance metric	Equation	Range	Emphasis	References
Nash – Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE)	$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Q_i^s - Q_i^o)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (Q_i^o - \bar{Q}^o)^2}$	$-\infty - 1$	High flows and dynamic discharge.	Nash & Sutcliffe (1970)
Kling – Gupta Efficiency (KGE)	$KGE = 1 - ED;$ $ED = \sqrt{(r - 1)^2 + (\alpha - 1)^2 + (\beta - 1)^2};$ $\alpha = \frac{\sigma_s}{\sigma_o}; \beta = \frac{\mu_s}{\mu_o};$ $r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Q_i^o - \bar{Q}^o)(Q_i^s - \bar{Q}^s)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (Q_i^o - \bar{Q}^o)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (Q_i^s - \bar{Q}^s)^2}}$	$-\infty - 1$	Timing, streamflow variability and water balance	Gupta et al. (2009)
Split KGE	$\text{Split KGE} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T KGE_t$	$-\infty - 1$	Same as KGE, but no year can have more influence than any other year	Fowler et al. (2018b)
Nash – Sutcliffe Efficiency with logarithmic transf. (NSE-log)	$NSE_{log} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (\log(Q_i^s) - \log(Q_i^o))^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (\log(Q_i^o) - \log(\bar{Q}^o))^2}$	$-\infty - 1$	Low flows.	Nash & Sutcliffe (1970) Santos et al. (2018)
Aggregate objective function (AOF)	$AOF = \frac{AOF_{sig} + AOF_{gof}}{2}$ $AOF_{sig} = 1 - \sum_{q=1}^8 \frac{Y_{q,o} - Y_{q,s}}{8 \sigma_q}$ $AOF_{gof} = \frac{2B + r + r_{log}}{4}$	$-\infty - 1$	-	Beck et al. (2016)

1021 Note: Q_i^o is the observed daily runoff; Q_i^s is the simulated daily runoff; \bar{Q}^o is the mean of the
1022 observed daily runoff values; \bar{Q}^s is the mean of the simulated daily runoff values. N and T
1023 represent the total number of days and water years, respectively, used to compute efficiency
1024 metrics. B and r represent the bias and Pearson correlation coefficient, respectively, computed
1025 between simulated and observed daily runoff; and r_{log} is the Pearson correlation coefficient
1026 computed between natural-log transformed simulated and observed runoff.

1031 Table 5: Components of the hydrological model structures obtained from the application of the
 1032 Pareto scheme in the Vilcanota River basin, for both dry (MMP-dry), and wet (MMP-wet)
 1033 calibration periods. The reference model structure that provides the lowest RMSE during the
 1034 calibration period is included for comparison purposes, and the model structures discarded due
 1035 to abnormal behavior of states and/or fluxes are in italics and bold.

Calibration Period	Selection Criteria	Model structure name	Model structure components			
			U	L	SR	PE
Dry period	smallest RMSE Cal	FUSE 01	Sacramento	Sacramento	ARNO/VIC	PRMS
	<i>higher NSE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 25</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher KGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 25</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher splitKGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 25</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	higher NSElog Cal-Eval	FUSE 43	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	Sacramento	ARNO/VIC	PRMS
	<i>higher AOF Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 17</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
Wet period	<i>smallest RMSE Cal</i>	<i>FUSE 44</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher NSE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 44</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher KGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 44</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher splitKGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 21</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher NSElog Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 01</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher AOF Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 61</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>

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Table 6: Same as Table 5, but for the Puyango-Tumbes River basin.

Calibration Period	Selection Criteria	Model structure name	Model structure components			
			U	L	SR	PE
Dry period	smallest RMSE Cal	FUSE 50	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	Sacramento	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC
	higher NSE Cal-Eval	FUSE 59	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	PRMS	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC
	higher KGE Cal-Eval	FUSE 59	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	PRMS	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC
	higher splitKGE Cal-Eval	FUSE 59	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	PRMS	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC
	higher NSElog Cal-Eval	FUSE 62	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC	ARNO/VIC
	higher AOF Cal-Eval	FUSE 65	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	TOPMODEL	PRMS	ARNO/VIC
Wet period	<i>smallest RMSE Cal</i>	<i>FUSE 44</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher NSE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 56</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher KGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 59</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher splitKGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 59</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher NSElog Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 62</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher AOF Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 62</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>

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Table 7: Same as Table 5, but for the Huancane River basin.

Calibration Period	Selection Criteria	Model structure name	Model structure components			
			U	L	SR	PE
Dry period	<i>smallest RMSE Cal</i>	<i>FUSE 03</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	higher NSE Cal-Eval	FUSE 77	ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC	TOPMODEL	ARNO/VIC
	<i>higher KGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 23</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher splitKGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 16</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>
	<i>higher NSElog Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 45</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>
	<i>higher AOF Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 23</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
Wet period	<i>smallest RMSE Cal</i>	<i>FUSE 43</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>PRMS</i>
	<i>higher NSE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 69</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>
	<i>higher KGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 69</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>
	<i>higher splitKGE Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 69</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>
	<i>higher NSElog Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 44</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC - TOPMODEL</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>
	<i>higher AOF Cal-Eval</i>	<i>FUSE 23</i>	<i>Sacramento</i>	<i>ARNO/VIC</i>	<i>TOPMODEL</i>	<i>PRMS</i>

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3 1060 **FIGURE LEGENDS**
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5 1061
6 1062 Figure 1: Location and elevation of the three case study basins
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8 1063 Figure 2: Flowchart illustrating the methodology.
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10 1064 Figure 3: Catchment-averaged mean monthly values of runoff, precipitation and air
11 1065 temperature (top panels), and flow duration curves (bottom panels) for the selected dry (red
12 1066 lines) and wet (blue lines) periods. The results for each basin are displayed in different
13 1067 columns.

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15 1068 Figure 4: Coverage results from all calibrated model structures, for each basin and each
16 1069 calibration period (displayed along different columns). The horizontal and vertical dashed
17 1070 lines indicate performance acceptance thresholds, and the light blue region represents the
18 1071 region where temporally consistent performance is obtained. The red triangle represents the
19 1072 combination of model structure and parameter set that minimizes RMSE during the
20 1073 calibration period (i.e., the common practice); the colored dots represent the models that were
21 1074 selected using the criteria defined in section 3.1.3, and the remaining models are displayed as
22 1075 gray dots.
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25 1077 Figure 5: Percent biases in signature measures of hydrologic behavior (rows) for each basin
26 1078 and each calibration period (columns), where EVAL W->D (D->W) indicates model
27 1079 performance in a dry (wet) period with parameters calibrated in a wet (dry) period.
28 1079
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30 1080 Figure 6: Flow duration curves for each basin and each calibration period. The black line
31 1081 represents observations, gray lines represent the full multi-model ensemble, and the model
32 1082 structures selected with different performance evaluation criteria are displayed in colored
33 1083 lines.
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35 1084 Figure 7: Monthly average fluxes and states for each basin and each calibration period,
36 1085 considering a 30-year period (September/1986 – August/2016). Inter-model agreement is
37 1086 quantified with an ensemble spread metric (equation 2), displayed at the top of each panel for
38 1087 the full ensemble (left) and the five model structures – represented by colored lines – selected
39 1088 with the Pareto scheme (right). The reference model structure that provides the lowest RMSE
40 1089 during the calibration period is displayed in dashed red, for comparison purposes. The
41 1090 observed average monthly streamflow values (black line, upper panel) are only shown as a
42 1091 reference and not for evaluation purposes, since there is not enough information available for
43 1092 30 years in the Puyango-Tumbes and Huanacáné river basins.
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46 1093 Figure 8: Climatological monthly averages (September/1986 – August/2016) of runoff and
47 1094 ET obtained with model parameters calibrated in a dry period. Results are displayed for (top)
48 1095 precipitation perturbations of 70%, 80%, 90% and 110%, and (bottom) temperature increases
49 1096 of 1°, 2° and 3°C. The gray lines show the results with the full ensemble (MM0-dry), and the
50 1097 colored lines show the results obtained with the multi-model ensemble obtained from the
51 1098 application of the Pareto scheme (MMP). The model structures discarded during the
52 1099 screening procedure are plotted with x, and the accepted model structures (MMS) are plotted
53 1100 with circles.
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56 1101 Figure 9: Precipitation elasticity (ϵ) and temperature sensitivities (S) for each basin and
57 1102 calibration period, computed for the 30-year period (September/1986 – August/2016). In the
58 1103 top panels, the x-axis represents the percent changes in precipitation from the reference
59 1104 climates; in the middle panels, the x-axis represents the changes in mean annual runoff from
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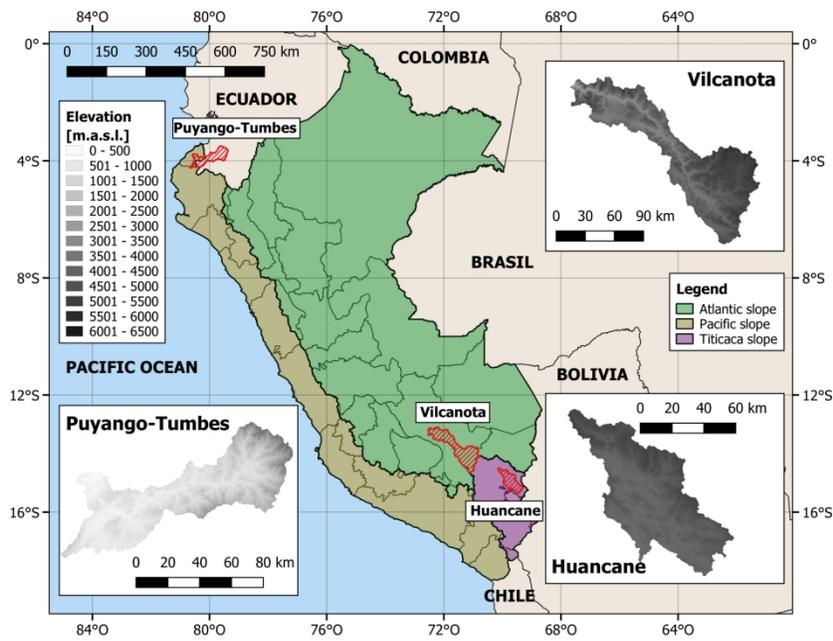
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3 1105 the reference climates, and in the bottom panels the x-axis represents the additive temperature
4 1106 changes from the reference climates. The average monthly standard deviations obtained from
5 1107 the full ensemble (MM0) and the final multi-model ensemble (MMPS) are displayed at the
6 1108 top of each panel. Discarded model structures are represented with x, and accepted model
7 1109 structures are plotted with circles. The vertical dashed line is the observed mean annual
8 1110 streamflow, which is only shown as a reference and not for evaluation purposes, since there is
9 1111 not enough information available for 30 years in the Puyango-Tumbes and Huancané river
10 1112 basins.

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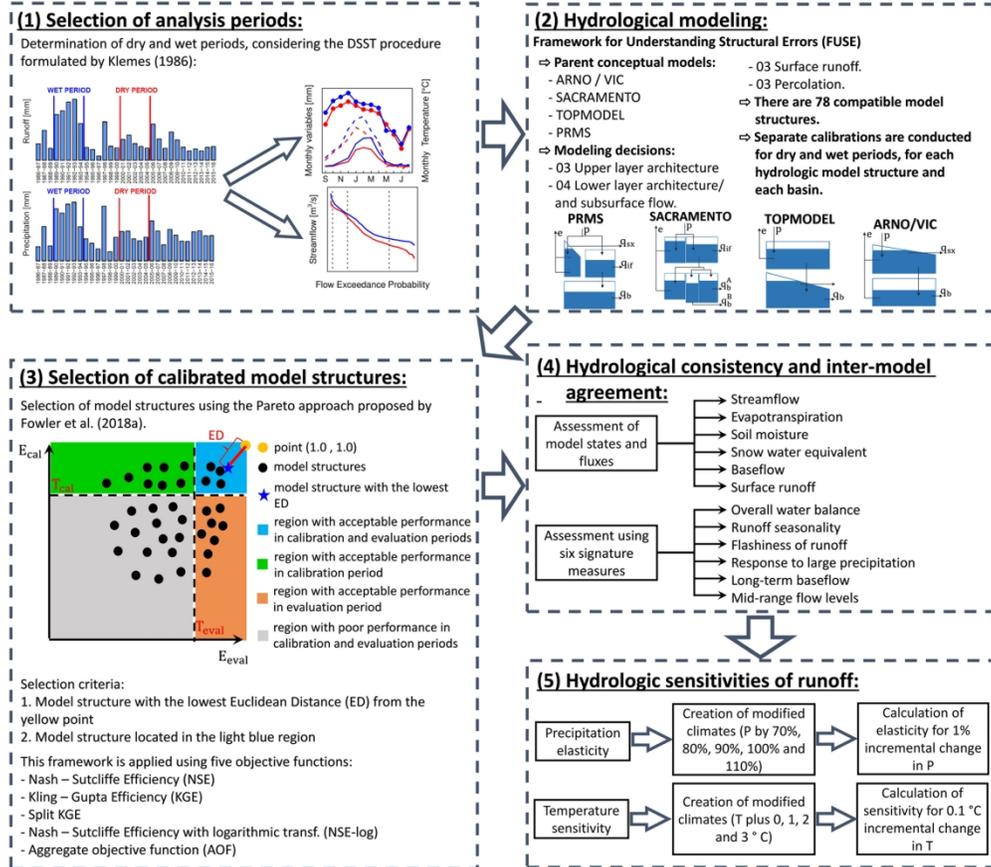
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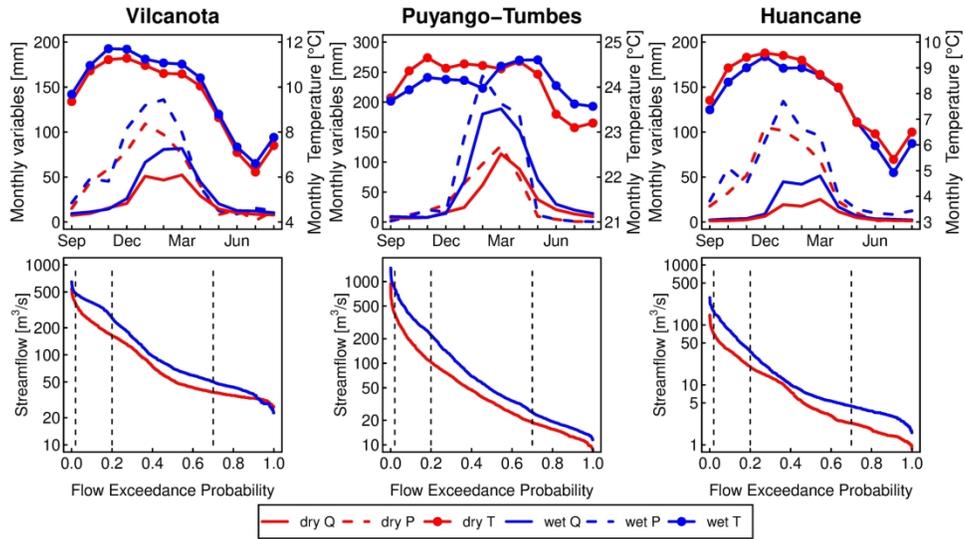
Location and elevation of the three case study basins.

825x583mm (72 x 72 DPI)



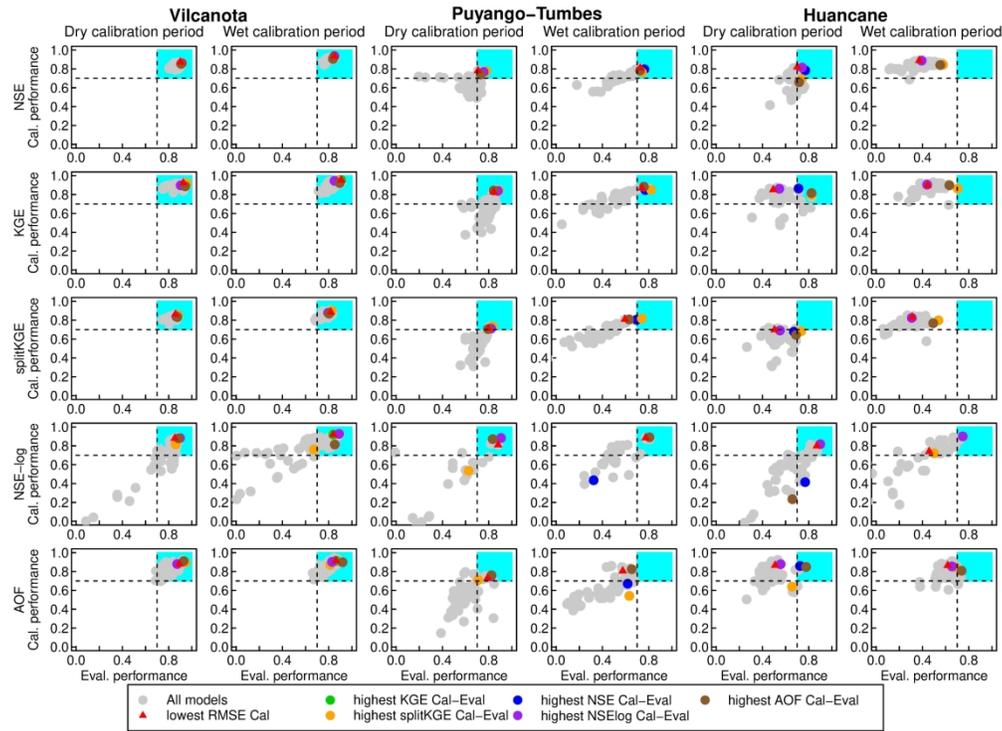
Flowchart illustrating the methodology.

1311x1155mm (72 x 72 DPI)



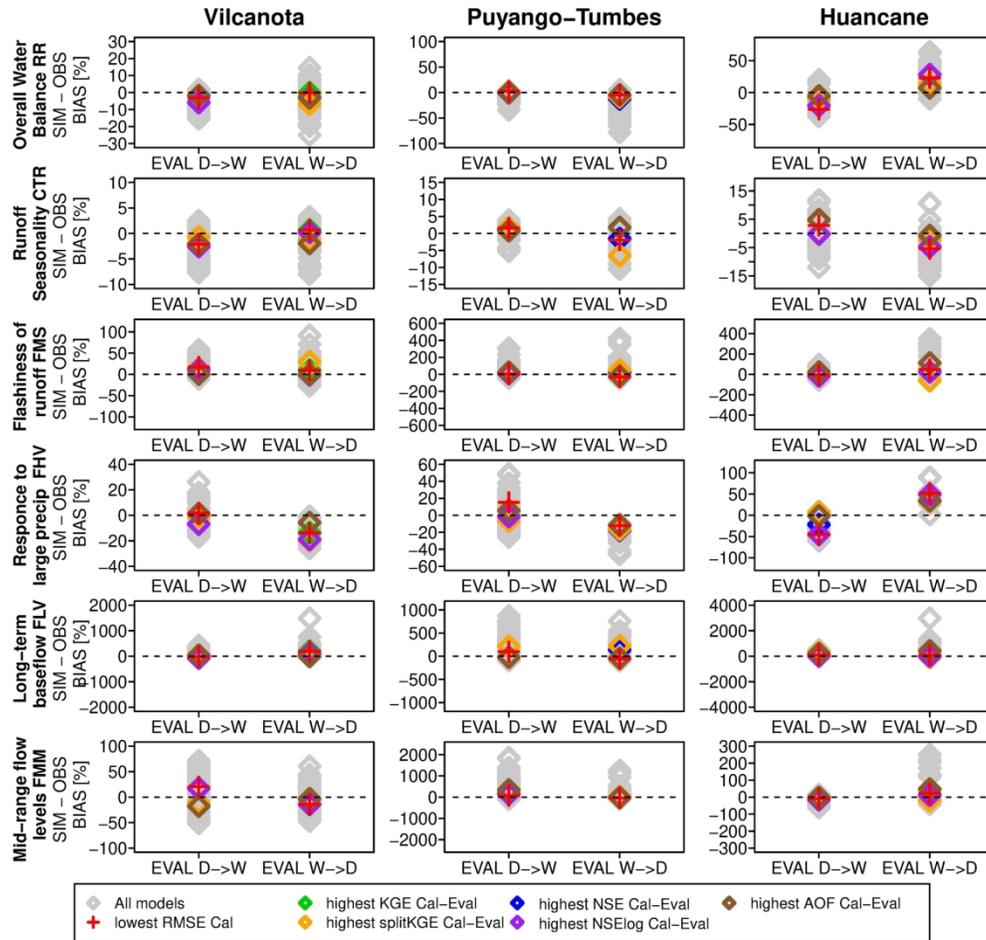
Catchment-averaged mean monthly values of runoff, precipitation and air temperature (top panels), and flow duration curves (bottom panels) for the selected dry (red lines) and wet (blue lines) periods. The results for each basin are displayed in different columns.

198x108mm (300 x 300 DPI)



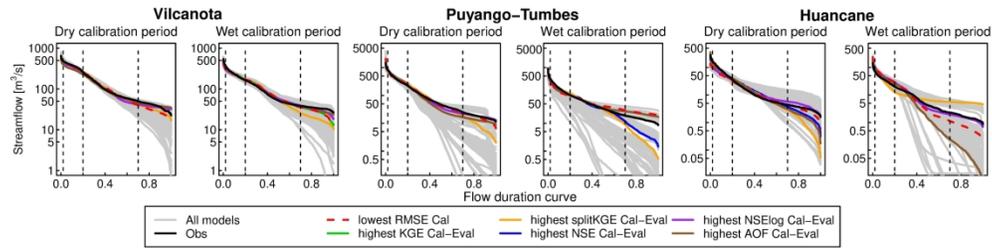
Coverage results from all calibrated model structures, for each basin and each calibration period (displayed along different columns). The horizontal and vertical dashed lines indicate performance acceptance thresholds, and the light blue region represents the region where temporally consistent performance is obtained. The red triangle represents the combination of model structure and parameter set that minimizes RMSE during the calibration period (i.e., the common practice); the colored dots represent the models that were selected using the criteria defined in section 3.1.3, and the remaining models are displayed as gray dots.

238x174mm (300 x 300 DPI)



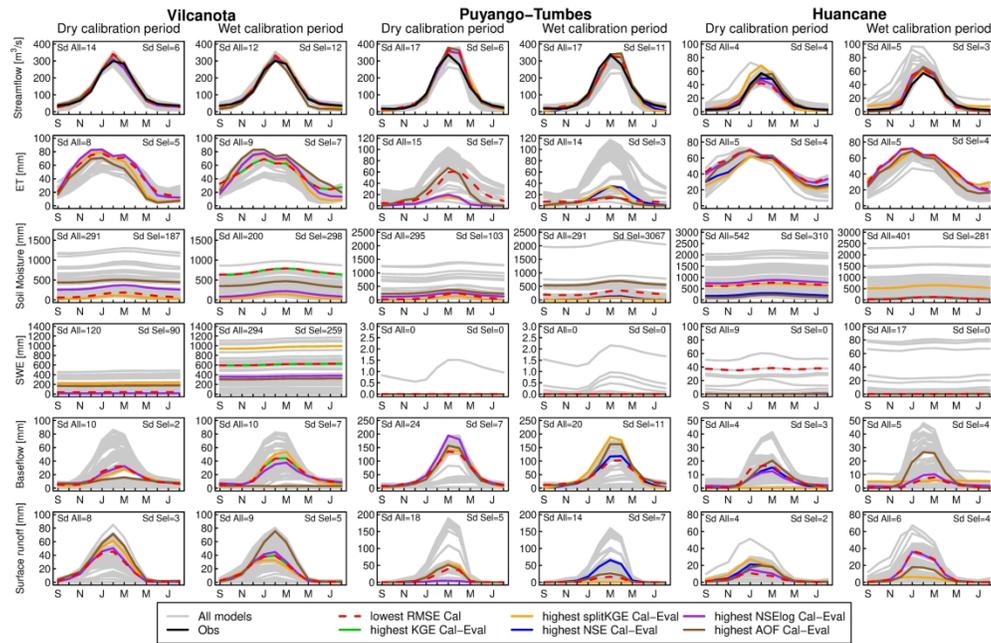
Percent biases in signature measures of hydrologic behavior (rows) for each basin and each calibration period (columns), where EVAL W->D (D->W) indicates model performance in a dry (wet) period with parameters calibrated in a wet (dry) period.

184x174mm (300 x 300 DPI)



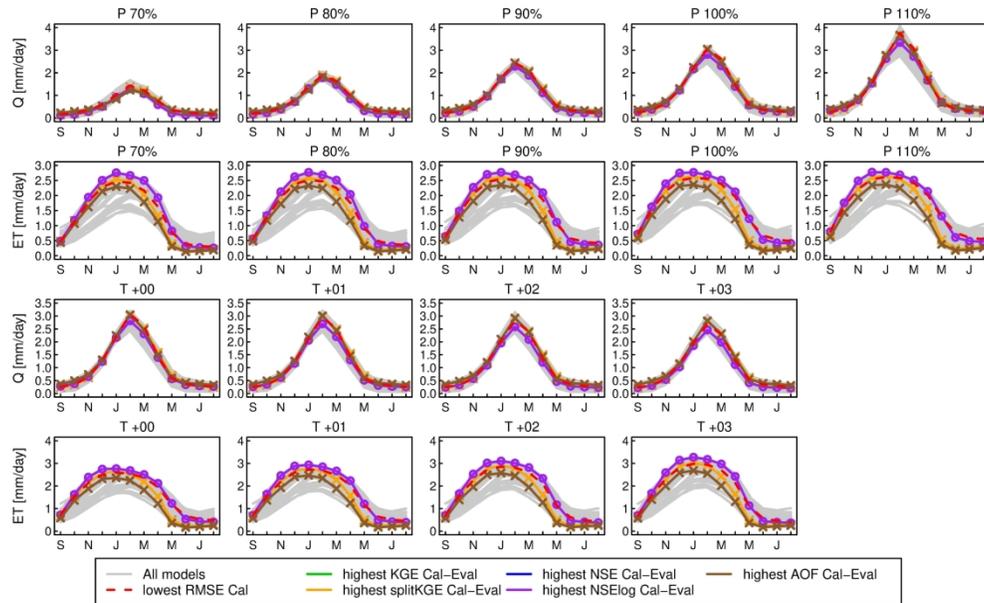
Flow duration curves for each basin and each calibration period. The black line represents observations, gray lines represent the full multi-model ensemble, and the model structures selected with different performance evaluation criteria are displayed in colored lines.

269x66mm (300 x 300 DPI)



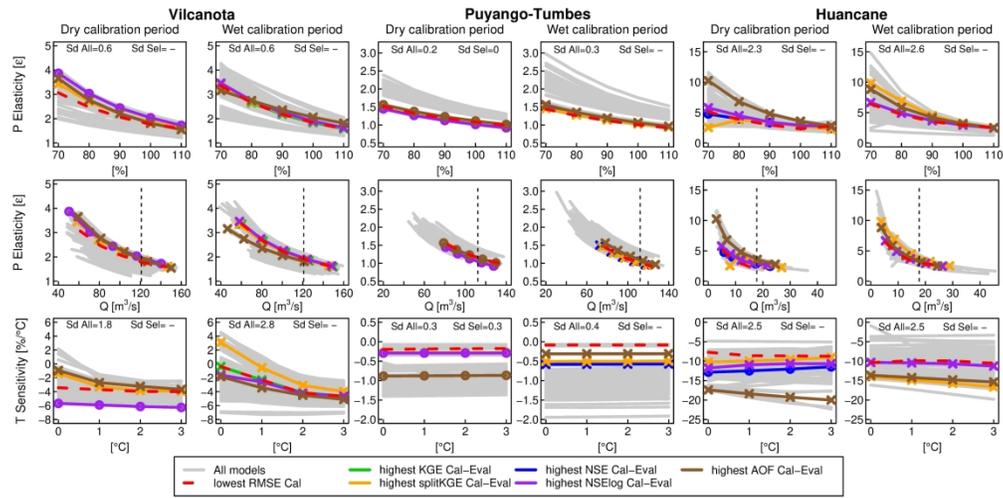
Monthly average fluxes and states for each basin and each calibration period, considering a 30-year period (September/1986 – August/2016). Inter-model agreement is quantified with an ensemble spread metric (equation 2), displayed at the top of each panel for the full ensemble (left) and the five model structures – represented by colored lines – selected with the Pareto scheme (right). The reference model structure that provides the lowest RMSE during the calibration period is displayed in dashed red, for comparison purposes. The observed average monthly streamflow values (black line, upper panel) are only shown as a reference and not for evaluation purposes, since there is not enough information available for 30 years in the Puyango-Tumbes and Huancané river basins.

269x174mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Climatological monthly averages (September/1986 – August/2016) of runoff and ET obtained with model parameters calibrated in a dry period. Results are displayed for (top) precipitation perturbations of 70%, 80%, 90% and 110%, and (bottom) temperature increases of 1°, 2° and 3°C. The gray lines show the results with the full ensemble (MM0-dry), and the colored lines show the results obtained with the multi-model ensemble obtained from the application of the Pareto scheme (MMP). The model structures discarded during the screening procedure are plotted with x, and the accepted model structures (MMS) are plotted with circles.

232x145mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Precipitation elasticity (ϵ) and temperature sensitivities (S) for each basin and calibration period, computed for the 30-year period (September/1986 – August/2016). In the top panels, the x-axis represents the percent changes in precipitation from the reference climates; in the middle panels, the x-axis represents the changes in mean annual runoff from the reference climates, and in the bottom panels the x-axis represents the additive temperature changes from the reference climates. The average monthly standard deviations obtained from the full ensemble (MMO) and the final multi-model ensemble (MMPS) are displayed at the top of each panel. Discarded model structures are represented with x, and accepted model structures are plotted with circles. The vertical dashed line is the observed mean annual streamflow, which is only shown as a reference and not for evaluation purposes, since there is not enough information available for 30 years in the Puyango-Tumbes and Huancané river basins.

280x138mm (300 x 300 DPI)