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# River model calibration for the Victoria catchment

A technical report from the CSIRO Victoria River Water Resource  
Assessment for the National Water Grid

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Aspects of the Assessment have been undertaken in conjunction with the NT Government.

The Assessment was guided by two committees:

- i. The Assessment's Governance Committee: CRC for Northern Australia/James Cook University; CSIRO; National Water Grid (Department of Climate Change, Energy, the Environment and Water); Northern Land Council; NT Department of Environment, Parks and Water Security; NT Department of Industry, Tourism and Trade; Office of Northern Australia; Queensland Department of Agriculture and Fisheries; Queensland Department of Regional Development, Manufacturing and Water
- ii. The Assessment's joint Roper and Victoria River catchments Steering Committee: Amateur Fishermen's Association of the NT; Austrade; Centrefarm; CSIRO; National Water Grid (Department of Climate Change, Energy, the Environment and Water); Northern Land Council; NT Cattlemen's Association; NT Department of Environment, Parks and Water Security; NT Department of Industry, Tourism and Trade; NT Farmers; NT Seafood Council; Office of Northern Australia; Parks Australia; Regional Development Australia; Roper Gulf Regional Council Shire; Watertrust

Responsibility for the Assessment's content lies with CSIRO. The Assessment's committees did not have an opportunity to review the Assessment results or outputs prior to their release.

This report was reviewed by Assoc. Professor Barry Croke, Integrated Catchment Assessment and Management Centre (iCAM) and Institute for Water Futures, The Fenner School of Environment and Society and Mathematical Sciences Institute, ANU College of Science

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#### Acknowledgement of Country

CSIRO acknowledges the Traditional Owners of the lands, seas and waters, of the area that we live and work on across Australia. We acknowledge their continuing connection to their culture and pay our respects to their elders past and present.

#### Photo

Jasper Creek. Source: CSIRO

## Director's foreword

Sustainable development and regional economic prosperity are priorities for the Australian and Northern Territory (NT) governments. However, more comprehensive information on land and water resources across northern Australia is required to complement local information held by Indigenous Peoples and other landholders.

Knowledge of the scale, nature, location and distribution of likely environmental, social, cultural and economic opportunities and the risks of any proposed developments is critical to sustainable development. Especially where resource use is contested, this knowledge informs the consultation and planning that underpin the resource security required to unlock investment, while at the same time protecting the environment and cultural values.

In 2021, the Australian Government commissioned CSIRO to complete the Victoria River Water Resource Assessment. In response, CSIRO accessed expertise and collaborations from across Australia to generate data and provide insight to support consideration of the use of land and water resources in the Victoria catchment. The Assessment focuses mainly on the potential for agricultural development, and the opportunities and constraints that development could experience. It also considers climate change impacts and a range of future development pathways without being prescriptive of what they might be. The detailed information provided on land and water resources, their potential uses and the consequences of those uses are carefully designed to be relevant to a wide range of regional-scale planning considerations by Indigenous Peoples, landholders, citizens, investors, local government, and the Australian and NT governments. By fostering shared understanding of the opportunities and the risks among this wide array of stakeholders and decision makers, better informed conversations about future options will be possible.

Importantly, the Assessment does not recommend one development over another, nor assume any particular development pathway, nor even assume that water resource development will occur. It provides a range of possibilities and the information required to interpret them (including risks that may attend any opportunities), consistent with regional values and aspirations.

All data and reports produced by the Assessment will be publicly available.



Chris Chilcott

Project Director

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Note: Assessment team as at September, 2024. All contributors are affiliated with CSIRO unless indicated otherwise. Activity Leaders are underlined. For the Indigenous water values, rights, interests and development goals activity, Marcus Barber was Activity Leader for the project duration except August 2022 – July 2023 when Kirsty Wissing (a CSIRO employee at the time) undertook this role.

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## Shortened forms

SHORT FORM	FULL FORM
AWRA-L	Australian Water Resources Assessment – Land
AWRA-R	Australian Water Resources Assessment – River (a river model)
AWRC	Australian Water Resources Council
DEPaWS	Department of Environment, Parks and Water Security (NT)
DS	downstream
EPD	error probability difference
ET	evapotranspiration
ETo	Morton’s wet area potential ET
FAO56	Food and Agriculture Organization – Irrigation paper 56
FGARA	Flinders and Gilbert Agricultural Resource Assessment
GR4J	modèle du Génie Rural à 4 paramètres Journalier (RR model)
GR7J	RR model related to GR4J
GR7JFM	RR model – an adaption of GR7J for drier climates
HRU	hydrological response unit
IAHS	International Association of Hydrological Sciences
IQQM	Integrated Quantity and Quality model
MCMC	Markov chain Monte Carlo
Mwet	Morton’s wet area potential ET
NASY	Northern Australia Sustainable Yields
NAWRA	Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment
netCDF	Network Common Data Form (a file format for storing multidimensional data)
NN	nearest neighbour
NSE	Nash–Sutcliffe Efficiency
NT	Northern Territory
P	precipitation
Q	runoff
RR	rainfall-runoff
RORB	(a runoff and routing software package)
SILO	Scientific Information for Land Owners (climate data product)
TOPOG	(a physically and terrain-based hydrological modelling package)
VRD	Victoria River Downs
WAVES	Water And Vegetation Energy Solute – an energy balance model

# Units

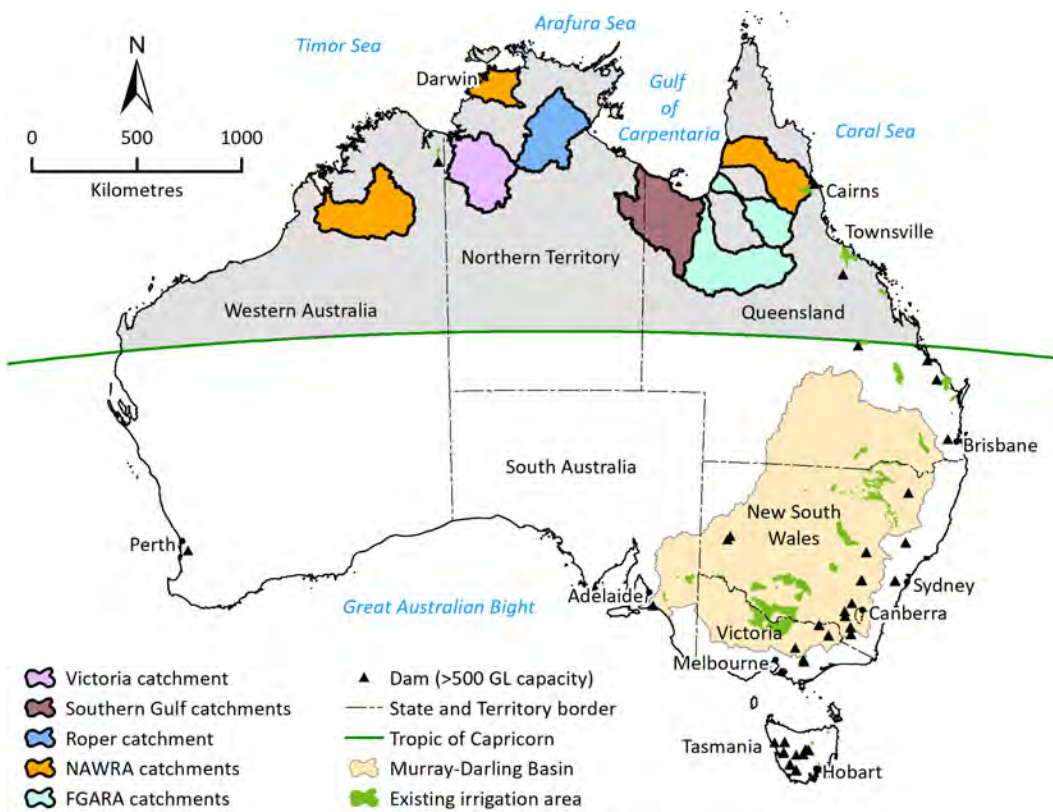
UNIT	DESCRIPTION
DOI	Digital Object Identifier
GL	gigalitre
ha	hectare
km	kilometre
L	litre
m	metre
mAHD	metres above Australian Height Datum
ML	megalitre
mm	millimetre
y	year

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# Preface

Sustainable development and regional economic prosperity are priorities for the Australian and NT governments and science can play its role. Acknowledging the need for continued research, the NT Government (2023) announced a Territory Water Plan priority action to accelerate the existing water science program ‘to support best practice water resource management and sustainable development.’

Governments are actively seeking to diversify regional economies, considering a range of factors. For very remote areas like the Victoria catchment (Preface Figure 1-1), the land, water and other environmental resources or assets will be key in determining how sustainable regional development might occur. Primary questions in any consideration of sustainable regional development relate to the nature and the scale of opportunities, and their risks.



**Preface Figure 1-1 Map of Australia showing Assessment area (Victoria catchment and other recent CSIRO Assessments)**

FGARA = Flinders and Gilbert Agricultural Resource Assessment; NAWRA = Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment.

How people perceive those risks is critical, especially in the context of areas such as the Victoria catchment, where approximately 75% of the population is Indigenous (compared to 3.2% for Australia as a whole) and where many Indigenous Peoples still live on the same lands they have inhabited for tens of thousands of years. About 31% of the Victoria catchment is owned by Indigenous Peoples as inalienable freehold.

Access to reliable information about resources enables informed discussion and good decision making. Such information includes the amount and type of a resource or asset, where it is found (including in relation to complementary resources), what commercial uses it might have, how the resource changes within a year and across years, the underlying socio-economic context and the possible impacts of development.

Most of northern Australia's land and water resources have not been mapped in sufficient detail to provide the level of information required for reliable resource allocation, to mitigate investment or environmental risks, or to build policy settings that can support good judgments. The Victoria River Water Resource Assessment aims to partly address this gap by providing data to better inform decisions on private investment and government expenditure, to account for intersections between existing and potential resource users, and to ensure that net development benefits are maximised.

The Assessment differs somewhat from many resource assessments in that it considers a wide range of resources or assets, rather than being a single mapping exercise of, say, soils. It provides a lot of contextual information about the socio-economic profile of the catchment, and the economic possibilities and environmental impacts of development. Further, it considers many of the different resource and asset types in an integrated way, rather than separately. The Assessment has agricultural developments as its primary focus, but it also considers opportunities for and intersections between other types of water-dependent development.

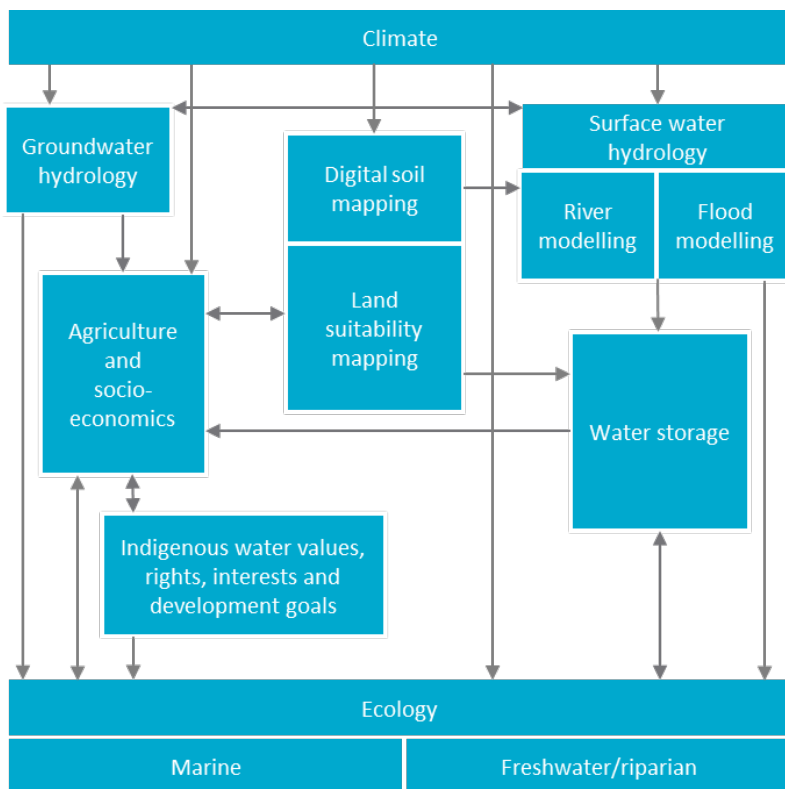
The Assessment was designed to inform consideration of development, not to enable any particular development to occur. The outcome of no change in land use or water resource development is also valid. As such, the Assessment informs – but does not seek to replace – existing planning, regulatory or approval processes. Importantly, the Assessment does not assume a given policy or regulatory environment. Policy and regulations can change, so this flexibility enables the results to be applied to the widest range of uses for the longest possible time frame.

It was not the intention of – and nor was it possible for – the Assessment to generate new information on all topics related to water and irrigation development in northern Australia. Topics not directly examined in the Assessment are discussed with reference to and in the context of the existing literature.

CSIRO has strong organisational commitments to reconciliation with Australia's Indigenous Peoples and to conducting ethical research with the free, prior and informed consent of human participants. The Assessment consulted with Indigenous representative organisations and Traditional Owner groups from the catchment to aid their understanding and potential engagement with its fieldwork requirements. The Assessment conducted significant fieldwork in the catchment, including with Traditional Owners through the activity focused on Indigenous values, rights, interests and development goals. CSIRO created new scientific knowledge about the catchment through direct fieldwork, by synthesising new material from existing information, and by remotely sensed data and numerical modelling.

Functionally, the Assessment adopted an activities-based approach (reflected in the content and structure of the outputs and products), comprising activity groups, each contributing its part to create a cohesive picture of regional development opportunities, costs and benefits, but also risks. Preface Figure 1-2 illustrates the high-level links between the activities and the general flow of information in the Assessment.





**Preface Figure 1-2 Schematic of the high-level linkages between the eight activity groups and the general flow of information in the Assessment**

### *Assessment reporting structure*

Development opportunities and their impacts are frequently highly interdependent and, consequently, so is the research undertaken through this Assessment. While each report may be read as a stand-alone document, the suite of reports for each Assessment most reliably informs discussion and decisions concerning regional development when read as a whole.

The Assessment has produced a series of cascading reports and information products:

- Technical reports present scientific work with sufficient detail for technical and scientific experts to reproduce the work. Each of the activities (Preface Figure 1-2) has one or more corresponding technical reports.
- A catchment report, which synthesises key material from the technical reports, providing well-informed (but not necessarily scientifically trained) users with the information required to inform decisions about the opportunities, costs and benefits, but also risks associated with irrigated agriculture and other development options.
- A summary report provides a shorter summary and narrative for a general public audience in plain English.
- A summary fact sheet provides key findings for a general public audience in the shortest possible format.

The Assessment has also developed online information products to enable users to better access information that is not readily available in print format. All of these reports, information tools and data products are available online at <https://www.csiro.au/victoriariver>. The webpages give users access to a communications suite including fact sheets, multimedia content, FAQs, reports and links to related sites, particularly about other research in northern Australia.

## Executive summary

At present, surface water allocations within the catchment of the Victoria River are low (0.7 GL) when compared to the median annual streamflow (<0.1%). The development of the surface water resources of this highly seasonal catchment to enable regional economic development, as has occurred in the south of Australia, would in many instances require rivers to be regulated and water stored/diverted. However, an understanding of the size and nature of surface water resources and risks that may attend any development needs to precede any development. This report presents information regarding the construction and calibration of the Victoria River model.

No river model development has been previously undertaken in the Victoria catchment. Hydrological prediction is difficult in northern Australia, and in this instance a lack of data, particularly, but not limited to streamflow observations, contributed to the challenges of model construction and calibration. The lack of data, including a poor spatial coverage of suitable streamflow data, particularly during the dry season, increased model uncertainty and new calibration techniques were used to provide some constraint on model parameters and outputs.

The construction and calibration of the Victoria River model built upon previous model calibration methods used for the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment and the Roper River Water Resource Assessment. This Assessment used similar techniques as the previous studies, but also included constraints on runoff using a generalised relationship of runoff with climate and regolith depth based on observations from gauged catchments from across northern Australia.

A total of 17 stream gauge sites/stations, have operated or are still operating within the catchment at the time of writing. Of these, nine stream gauges were used within the catchment for calibration. Calibration used a “shingle” approach, which effectively split the catchment into three sections. All parameters within each shingle were calibrated simultaneously for optimal use of limited observational data, and to reduce the chance of over-fitting. Such an approach has advantages when assigning parameter values to ungauged subcatchments. The shingle approach weights long duration, higher flow observations more highly, although their user can modify weightings if needed.

Quality of local streamflow observations were considered generally poor, necessitating a new calibration approach that utilised a further 99, high-quality, long duration, stream gauge datasets from across northern Australia. Mean duration for these sites was 55 years, with mean missing daily observations being less than 5 %. From these data, an empirical relationship predicting runoff coefficient from climate data (specifically mean catchment aridity) and mean catchment regolith depth was derived. These data were used within the calibration algorithm to further constrain streamflow estimates for more robust prediction. Furthermore, two alternate climate inputs with decreased and increased rainfall were used within calibration with the empirical runoff coefficient relationship to constrain model performance in drier and wetter climates. These measures ensured that, for mean streamflow at the least, predictions were in accordance with historical streamflow observations from across northern Australia.

Model goodness of fit was generally good, with, for example, Nash–Sutcliffe Efficiencies ranging from 0.4 to 0.88. The goodness of fit was best at long duration/high-flow sites such as gauges 8110007, 8110113 and 8110006, and parameters based on these sites were used for the majority of ungauged subcatchments. Of the 41 model subcatchments, 32 were ungauged locations. Simulated subcatchment mean runoff coefficient was a close fit to those predicted from the northern Australia empirical relationship for historical, dry and wet climate inputs. This ensures more robust historical prediction, but more notably, future climate estimates of streamflow are more reliable than traditional calibration approaches and constitutes a new innovation in river model calibration.

The mean annual end-of-system flow for the Victoria River at node 81100000 for the reporting period (1890–2021) was estimated to be 6994 GL, while the median annual flow was 5734 GL. Predictive uncertainty was estimated using 1291 other feasible parameter sets identified during the calibration process. Uncertainty analyses suggest a standard deviation of 10% for mean annual streamflow values. Additionally, water harvest yield was tested at a single node as a part of the uncertainty analyses, where standard deviation was 20% of mean annual diversion. This indicates that care should be taken when using diversion estimates. However, it should also be noted that various other sources of uncertainty, such as rainfall and streamflow observation uncertainty or parameter transfer protocol, was not or could not be estimated.

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# Part I Main report



# 1 Introduction

The regulation of surface water resources in southern Australia meets about 70% of Australia's 25,000 GL mean annual water use (CSIRO, 2011). With the overallocation of water in southern states, the millennium drought and projections of a drier future climate in southern Australia, there is interest in developing the water resources of northern Australia. However, the extraction of water from rivers, particularly for high water-using industries such as irrigation, can result in large perturbations to streamflow, which can affect existing industries and users and result in ecological change.

To quantify the water resources of a catchment and examine the trade-offs associated with water regulation and extraction, a variety of event-based and continuous hydrological modelling frameworks exist. However, different hydrological modelling frameworks have been developed for different purposes and they have different data requirements and different levels of complexity.

At their simplest, hydrological models can be simple statistical relationships, typically with few input data requirements, but can also have a low predictive capacity. At the more complex end are fully distributed physically based models, for which every parameter has physical meaning and can be assigned by measurement. These include soil–vegetation–atmosphere transfer models such as WAVES (Zhang and Dawes, 1988) and TOPOG (O'Loughlin, 1986) and some landscape models. These models can simulate a wide variety of processes and are useful for exploring scenarios that have not been previously observed in the historical record. However, a key challenge in using physically based models is that they have large data requirements, without which many parameters potentially need to be calibrated, which makes them difficult to apply with confidence, particularly across large areas. In between these two extremes are a wide variety of models of intermediate complexity, including those described in this report:

- lumped conceptual rainfall-runoff (RR) models (e.g. Sacramento, GR4J, RORB), which are particularly adept at modelling runoff
- river system models (e.g. Source, IQQM, AWRA-R), a genre of hydrological model well suited to modelling regulated systems and exploring trade-offs in water use, operation and management rules.

In selecting an appropriate model or suite of models, it is important to understand the modelling objectives and select a model that is commensurate with the level of data available and then to be cognisant of its predictive capacity and model limitations.

## 1.1 Surface water activity objectives

The Victoria River Water Resource Assessment surface water activity seeks to address the following questions:

- How do runoff and key water balance terms vary spatially and temporally across the Assessment area?
- How much water is in the river at different locations and times under current and future climates?
- How much water can be extracted in different reaches and with what degree of reliability, and what is the timing of potential extractions?



- How may water regulation and extraction perturb downstream flow?

This report describes the development of models to assess these items. Simulation based on historical data with historical levels of development are denoted “Scenario A”.

## 1.2 Previous surface water modelling studies in the Victoria catchment

In 1976 the Australian Water Resources Council (AWRC) oversaw an assessment of Australia’s water resources. In that study, each jurisdiction across Australia provided estimates of mean annual flow and the percentage of mean annual flow that could be diverted in each AWRC river basin in Australia. No other information was provided, and the methods used to make these estimates varied from one jurisdiction to another and were not documented.

Thirty years after the AWRC continental assessment of Australia’s water resources the Australian Government commissioned CSIRO to undertake the Northern Australia Sustainable Yields (NASY) project, which was the first hydrological modelling study to examine the water resources of northern Australia (Timor Sea, Gulf of Carpentaria and northern north-east coast drainage divisions), including the assessments of the three study areas, using a consistent set of methods and models (CSIRO, 2009a,b). As part of the NASY project, lumped conceptual RR models were calibrated to streamflow data from 125 gauged catchments in northern Australia and then model parameters were transposed to another 500 ungauged catchments using the nearest neighbour (NN) regionalisation method, extensively informed by expert knowledge (Petheram et al., 2009). The lumped conceptual RR models were calibrated to available observed data up to 31 August 2007. Due to time constraints, no new river system models were developed as part of NASY and at the time of the project only four river system models (IQQM models) existed in the northern-draining drainage divisions. Within the Victoria catchment, RR models were calibrated to a single, reliable stream gauge. This model was then used to estimate streamflow within the Victoria River and simulate streamflow under historical and projected future climates.

Subsequent to the NASY study, CSIRO was commissioned to assess the opportunities for water resource development and associated risks in the Flinders and Gilbert (Queensland) catchments between 2012 and 2013 (Petheram et al., 2013a,b) in an assessment known as the Flinders and Gilbert Agricultural Resource Assessment (FGARA), and then in the Fitzroy (WA), Darwin (NT) and Mitchell (Queensland) catchments in 2016–2018 in an assessment known as the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment (NAWRA). These Assessments employed river models, landscape models and hydrodynamic models to estimate the effects of development scenarios on water resources. Specific information with regard to river and landscape modelling in FGARA is detailed by Lerat et al. (2013) and in the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment it is detailed in Hughes et al. (2017) and Hughes et al. (2018). Subsequent to the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment, CSIRO was commissioned to expand water resource assessment to the Roper catchment in the NT (Hughes et al., 2023). The river model and methods used in this Assessment are largely an evolution of the methods used in the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment and the Roper River Water Resource Assessment. It should also be noted that there is no jurisdictional or legacy Victoria River model that can be referred to for this Assessment.

## 2 Site characteristics

The physical characteristics of the Victoria catchment are given in detail in Chapter 2 of *Water resource assessment for the Victoria catchment* (Taylor et al., 2024 in Petheram et al. (eds), 2024). To assist the reader, an overview of the site characteristics is included here.

The Victoria catchment has a hot and arid climate. The catchment has a highly seasonal climate with an extended dry season. It receives a mean of 681 mm of rain per year, 95% of which falls during the wet season. Mean daily temperatures and potential evaporation are high relative to other parts of Australia. On average, potential evaporation is approximately 1900 mm/year.

There is a distinct north to south rainfall gradient across the catchment with mean annual rainfall near the coast being 1000 mm near the coast, but less than 500 mm in the far south of the catchment. The area has experienced relatively higher rainfall since about 1970 (Figure 2-1).

The variation in rainfall from one year to the next is moderate compared to elsewhere in northern Australia yet is high compared to other parts of the world with similar mean annual rainfall. The length of consecutive dry years is not unusual in the Victoria catchment and the intensity of the dry years is similar to many centres in the Murray–Darling Basin and east coast of Australia. Since 1969–1970, the Victoria catchment experienced one tropical cyclone in 21% of cyclone seasons and two tropical cyclones in 6% of seasons.

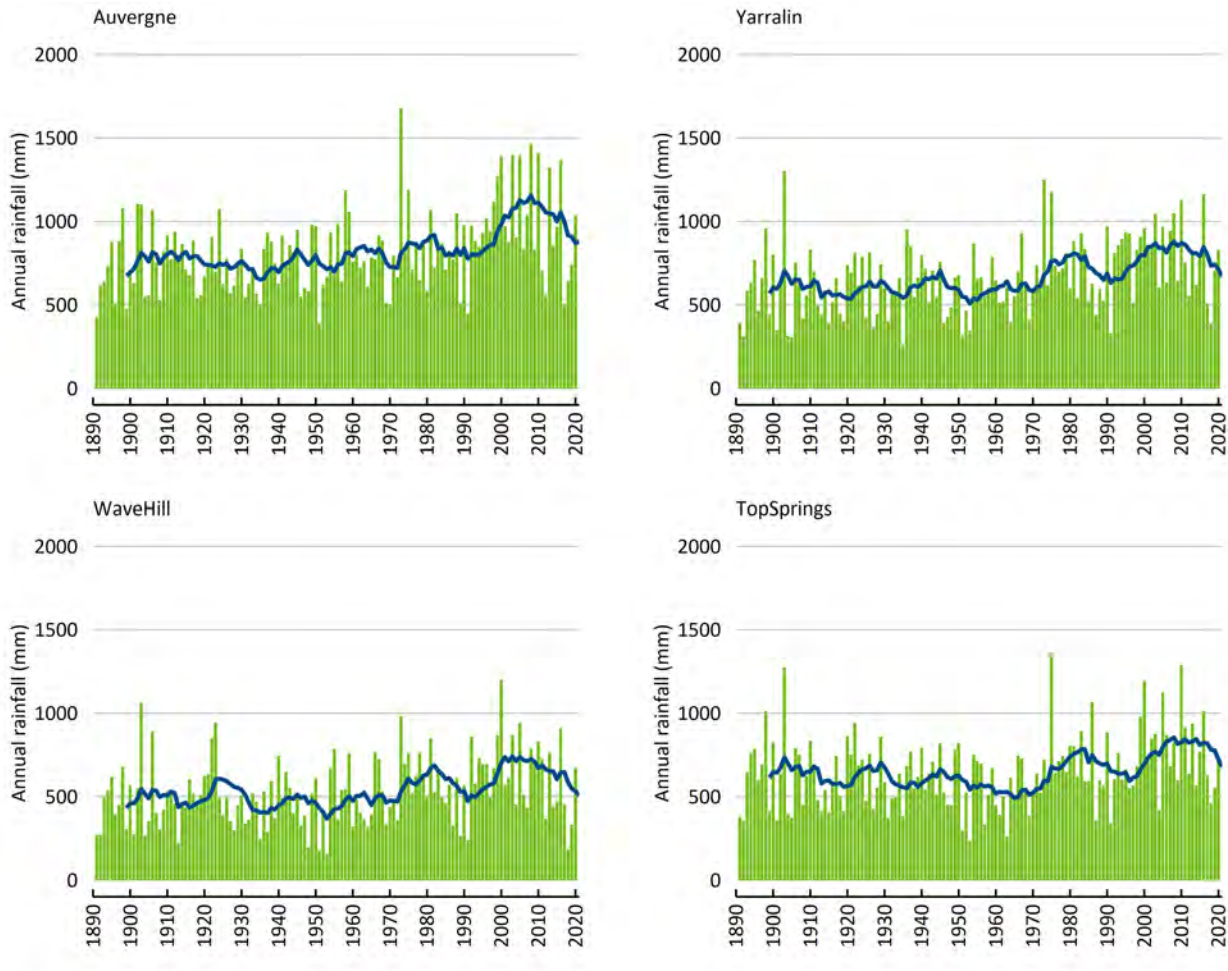
The Victoria River and its tributaries, the most substantial of which being the Baines, the Wickham, the Armstrong, the Camfield and the Angalarri rivers, define a catchment area of 82,400 km<sup>2</sup> (Figure 2-2). The Victoria River itself spans approximately 500 km from Entrance Island at its mouth to Kalkarindji in the far south of the catchment. Tidal variation at the mouth of the Victoria River is up to 8 m, and these tides propagate upstream to approximately 5 km downstream of Timber Creek (Power and Water Authority Directorate, 1987). The catchment is relatively flat with maximum elevations around 450 mAHD in the far south-west. The mean annual flow at the catchment outlet is estimated to be around 7000 GL/year.

At the time of writing, there were surface water licences in the river model domain totalling 730 ML/year. There are no substantial structures within the streams themselves across the catchment. The most obvious is the river ford at Dashwood Crossing on the Victoria River which is considered minor.

The northern portion of the catchment area is dominated by escarpments, hills and ridges of sedimentary geology (Figure 2-3). Within this lies a north-east to south-west band of alluvial plain associated with the Baines and Angalarri rivers. Extensive areas of deep cracking clay soils are found on the broad alluvial plains of the major rivers, particularly along the Victoria and Baines rivers. Deep cracking clay soils are also found scattered throughout the eastern, southern and western parts of the upper catchment and are also subject to seasonal wetness. Areas of very friable loams are found along the Victoria and Wickham rivers mainly on narrow levees with broader areas scattered throughout the catchment. These soils are also susceptible to severe sheet and gully erosion and wind erosion. Tertiary level plains and plateaux in the southern catchment contain deep loamy soils that are suitable for a diverse range of irrigated horticulture

and spray-irrigated grain, pulse and forage crops, timber crops, sugarcane and cotton. In the southern parts of the catchment where these more versatile soils are located, surface water is relatively less available (Figure 2-4).

Nearly 60% of the catchment is dissected hills, outcrop, plateaux and scarps with rocky and/or shallow soils of little agricultural potential. These higher relief areas give way to lower relief, lower sloping land and alluvial plains. The coastal marine plains are seasonally or permanently wet saline soils with potential acid sulfate risks. These poorly drained soils are unsuitable for cropping but are prospective for aquaculture.



**Figure 2-1 Annual rainfall at four locations in the Victoria catchment under Scenario A: Scenario A is the historical climate (1890 to 2021). The blue line represents the 10-year running mean**

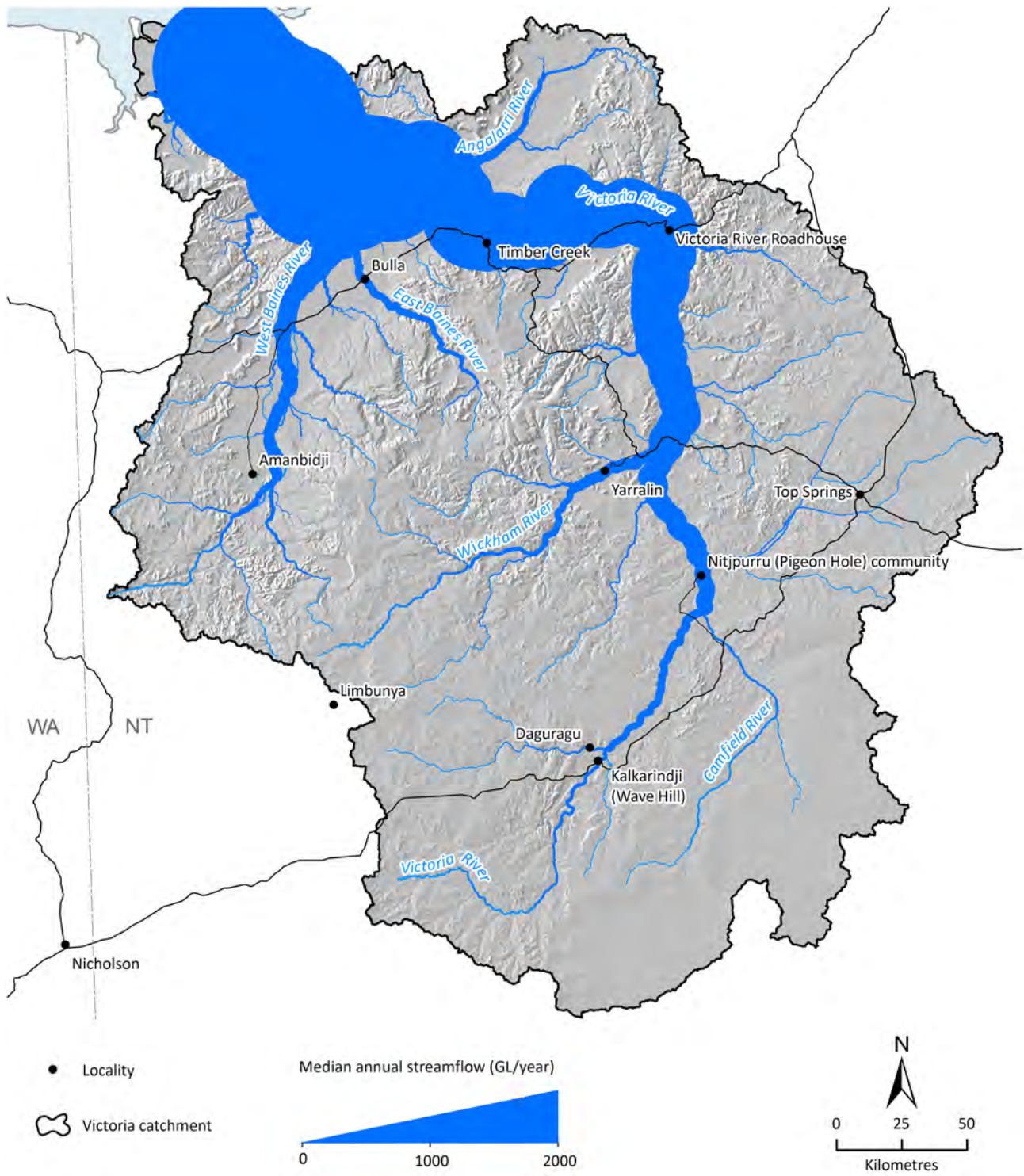
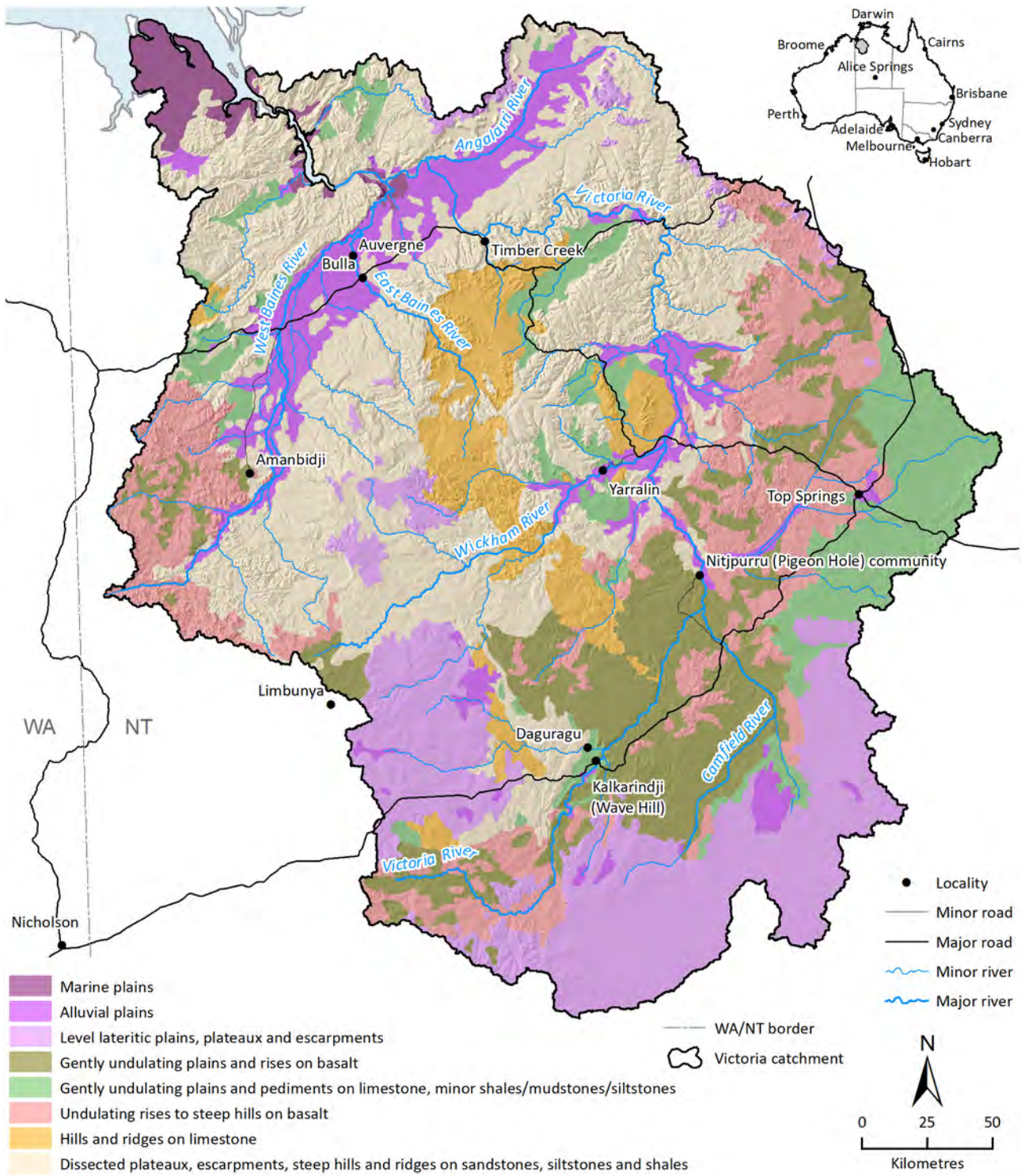


Figure 2-2 Median annual streamflow (50% exceedance) in the Victoria catchment under Scenario A



**Figure 2-3 Victoria River Water Resource Assessment area showing the Victoria River and tributaries, physiographic provinces after CSIRO (1970), significant settlements and roads overlaid on hill-shaded terrain relief**

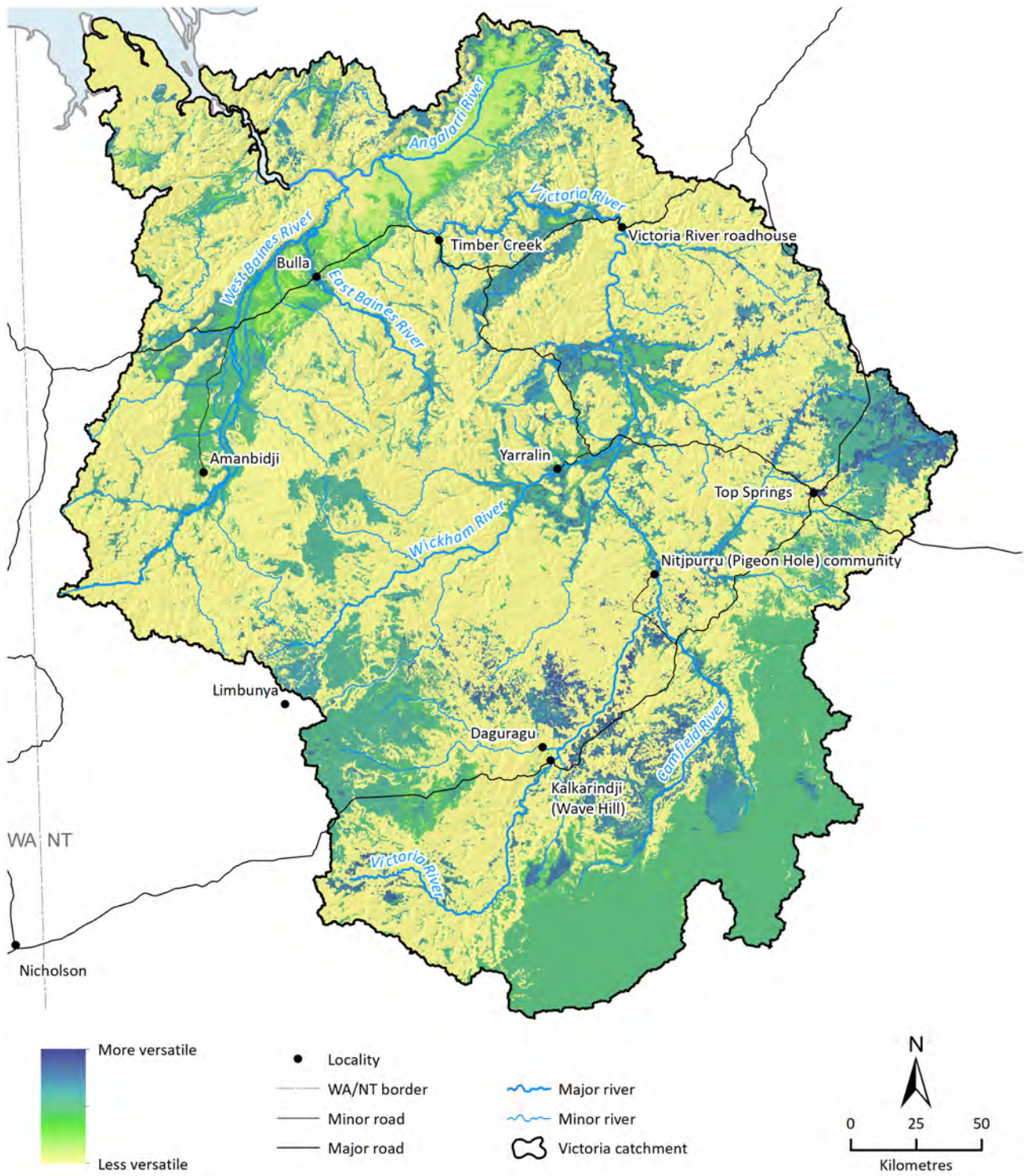


Figure 2-4 Soil versatility in the Victoria catchment

### 3 Available data

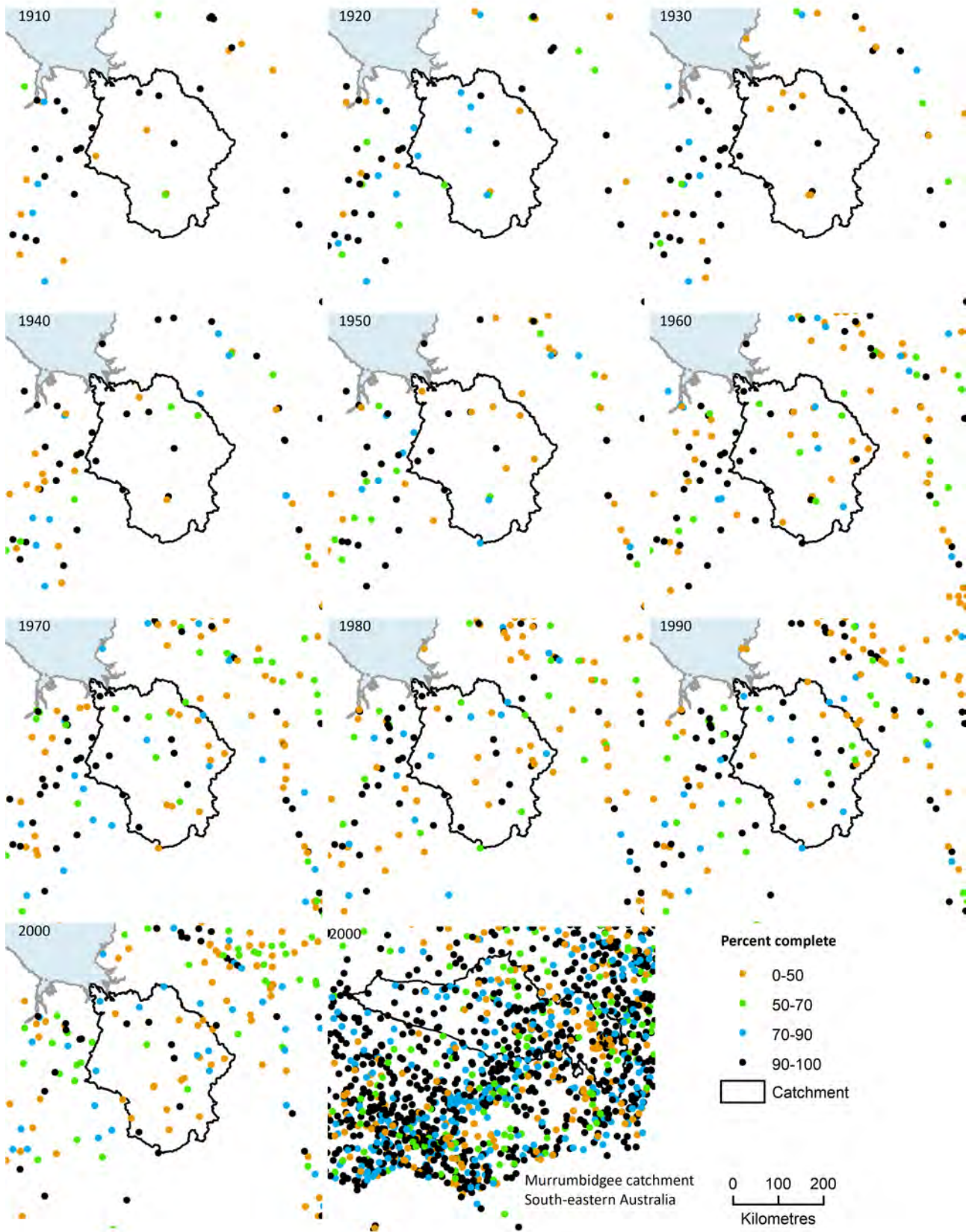
The quality and quantity of the data available to the modeller have a significant influence on the methods used to estimate streamflow, as well as the potential model applications.

The availability of rainfall gauge data was examined for the catchment area on a decadal basis (McJannet et al., 2023). It can be seen from Figure 3-1 that rain gauge density is quite low relative to a catchment in south-eastern Australia. This has some consequences for hydrological modelling. It should be here noted that, for model simulation, 'patched point' or gauge data are not used as model inputs directly, but rather gridded Data Drill climate data (Jeffery et al., 2001). This is an interpolated product that relies upon the same rainfall data as those shown in Figure 2-1. Data Drill data are a daily product supplied at approximately a  $5 \times 5$  km grid resolution. Where rain gauge data are sparse, for example isolated storm rainfall, it may not be picked up or may be severely underestimated in interpolated products (e.g. SILO). This can result in a substantial observed streamflow event at a stream gauge with, according to SILO data, little to no corresponding rainfall in the catchment area. Conversely, an isolated rainfall event may appear more widespread in gridded inputs than it is in reality, due to interpolation. For these reasons it is difficult to achieve satisfactory goodness of fit in such environments, and of more concern, can contribute to model 'over-fitting', leading to poor predictive performance (Srivastava et al., 2014).

Data from January 1889 until July 2023 were used as model input, although the reporting period begins in 1890. This allows model states to 'warm-up' prior to analysis of model outputs. It should also be noted that errors in the rain gauge observations, the availability of gauges at any point in time and the spatial extent of rainfall will all effect the accuracy of interpolated rainfall products.

Data Drill data were bulk downloaded as spatial layers (netCDF format) and aggregated to daily time series for each grid cell. As a part of this process Morton's wet area (Mwet) potential evapotranspiration (ET) was calculated using other Data Drill variables. Mwet is an estimate of potential ET over a large area, assuming an unlimited supply of water. The model assumes upwind effects are negligible and local variations are ignored, so the estimate is an areal mean (Wang et al., 2001). Chiew and McMahon (1991) found Mwet is similar to Food and Agriculture Organization – Irrigation paper 56 (FAO56) (Allen et al., 1998) in a wet climate but lower than FAO56 in a dry climate. Chiew and Leahy (2003) found that Mwet is similar to FAO56 in the coastal areas of south-eastern and eastern Australia. It is possible, therefore, that the wet-season Morton's ET used in this study is similar to FAO56, but potentially somewhat lower during the dry season. Morton's wet area potential ET calculations are detailed in Appendix A. All gridded data were subsequently spatially averaged according to model subcatchment for use as input in the river models.

Stream gauge data were obtained from the NT Department of Environment, Parks and Water Security (DEPaWS). High-frequency data were aggregated to 9 am for comparison to daily rainfall data. Similarly, stream gauging data were also collected and examined.



**Figure 3-1 Decadal analysis of the location and completeness of Bureau of Meteorology stations measuring daily rainfall used in the SILO database**

The decade labelled '1910' is defined from 1 January 1910 to 31 December 1919, and so on. At a station, a decade is 100% complete if there are observations for every day in that decade. The last panel shows the availability of rainfall data in the vicinity of the Murrumbidgee catchment in south-eastern Australia for comparison.

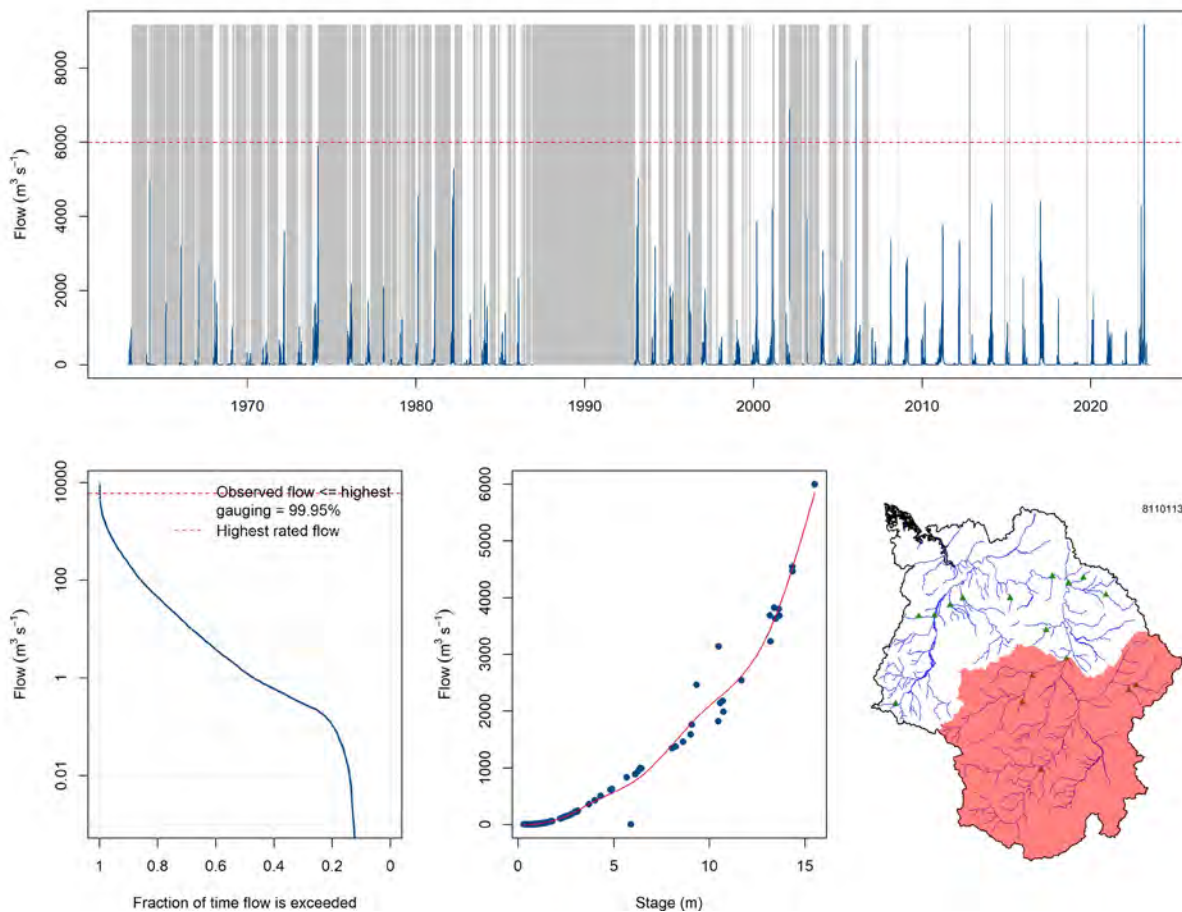


### 3.1 Stream gauge data

All stream data, including gaugings and quality codes, were obtained from DEPaws. These data were examined together to determine the suitability of individual gauges for calibration. Plots illustrating the data are given in Appendix C. An example of these plots is shown in Figure 3-2. These plots assist the hydrologist making judgements of the value of stream gauge data at each site. Gauging period, catchment area and catchment averaged mean annual rainfall are given for Victoria catchment stream gauges in Table 3-1. It should be noted that other gauges, usually of a short duration (typically weeks), or with obvious problems, were not assessed further and not subsequently used for model calibration.

**Table 3-1 Stream gauge observations in the Victoria catchment**

STATION ID	STATION NAME	CATCHMENT AREA (km <sup>2</sup> )	DAYS OF OBSERVATION	OBSERVATION START	OBSERVATION END	MISSING DAYS	DRY-SEASON % OF ALL OBSERVATIONS
8110004	East Baines River - U/S Victoria Hwy	2444	11442	1963-01-08	2023-07-05	10652	35
8110006	West Baines River - Victoria Hwy	8695	12956	1961-11-24	2023-07-05	9548	41
8110007	Victoria River - Coolibah Homestead	52192	13056	1953-01-01	2022-04-18	12254	33
8110012	Timber Crk - U/S Victoria Hwy	164	10699	1968-12-25	2022-05-28	8814	42
8110014	Sullivans Crk - U/S Fig Tree Yard	156	3232	1970-11-27	1993-04-01	4930	24
8110016	Upper Victoria River - Wave Hill Police Station	4584	11636	1973-12-20	2022-06-02	6061	40
8110018	Victoria River - Victoria Hwy	50891	6626	1972-11-09	2022-06-02	11477	41
8110073	Armstrong River - Top Springs	601	1839	1971-11-18	1986-07-03	3503	34
8110074	Montejinnie Crk - Montejinnie Homestead	141	3971	1973-11-10	1986-09-09	716	50
8110101	Dick Crk - Victoria Hwy	507	1046	1968-11-25	1978-04-13	2381	10
8110107	Saddle Crk - Victoria Hwy	221	5759	1968-11-19	2022-06-02	13795	34
8110110	Surprise Crk - VRD Road Xng	350	4654	1959-11-23	2004-06-29	11637	9
8110113	Victoria River - Dashwood Xng	40723	13412	1962-12-22	2023-06-26	8690	42
8110232	Wickham River - Williams Xng	5525	15452	1965-12-31	2022-06-15	5169	45
8110238	Delamere Crk – Delamere Homestead	681	1849	1971-11-27	1987-06-20	3836	16
8110251	West Baines River - Brumby Hill	161	1508	1965-11-03	1986-02-26	5913	12
8110253	Gibble Crk - Wagon Wheel W/Hole	490	1912	1971-11-20	1992-02-29	5495	11



**Figure 3-2 Stream gauge data for site 8110113 (Victoria River at Dashwood Crossing)**

The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel indicates highest gauged flow. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data.

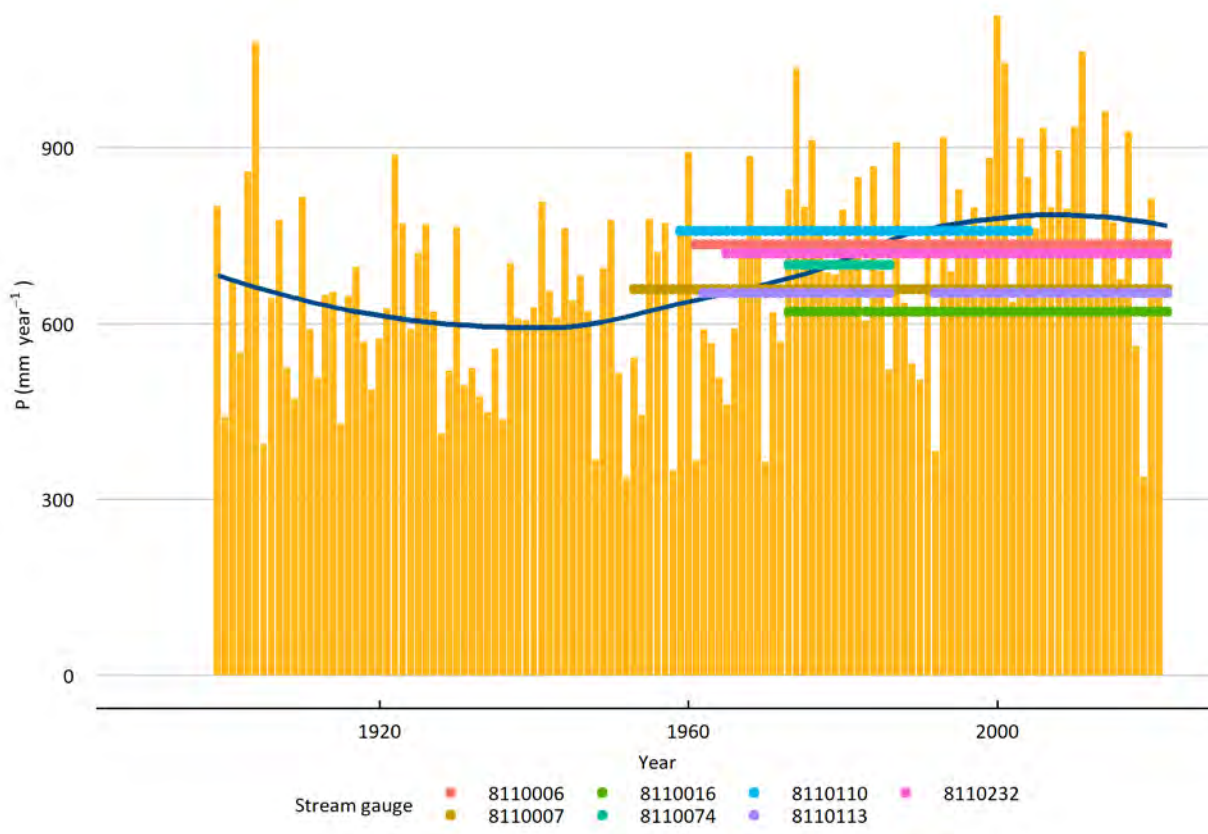
Some aspects of gauge quality are not easily quantified and require more intuition/judgement. For example, a sudden increase in baseflow that is not noted in other gauges at a similar time can increase doubt on the veracity of the observations. Another example is where the peak flows are unusually consistent, or more obviously, where the rating data are poor.

It is worth noting here the case of the gauge at Wave Hill Police Station (8110016). This gauge has a long record and what appears to be reasonable rating data. However, the apparent runoff coefficient for these data is greater than 18% (even after patching mostly dry-season missing data with simulated flow). This is roughly twice what may be expected in such an environment (see Appendix B). Attempts were made to model gridded runoff across the catchment with a single parameter set (regionalisation), and use of this gauge in calibration resulted in higher than observed streamflow at other gauges. Such high runoff in such an arid area is possible, although unlikely, so the decision was made not to use these data jointly with other gauge data in river model calibration, but rather as a stand-alone calibration. With more time the apparent behaviour of this gauge could be investigated further.

Ultimately, stream gauge data are used to derive model parameters and assess the veracity of simulation based on these parameters. Stream gauge data context is an additional consideration here, particularly the climate during observation in relation to the simulation period. These data can be seen in Figure 3-3. The catchment annual rainfall is shown against the climate of the stream gauge contributing area for each gauge during each respective observation period. What is most

obvious is that stream gauge data have been collected in a relatively wet period, and there is no data regarding hydrological response in the pre-1960 period. This situation is further exacerbated for gauges 8110016, 8110113 and 8110074 where stream gauging is of a relatively short duration or bridges a relatively wet period in the 1970s.

The Victoria catchment is relatively remote and is a considerable distance from Darwin where hydrographers servicing the catchment are based. The priority for hydrographic measurement in the catchment is river stage to serve as a source of information for flood warnings. As such, relatively less effort goes into gauging and streamflow estimates.



**Figure 3-3 Victoria catchment annual rainfall (yellow columns) and stream gauge observation period expressed as mean contributing area rainfall in the respective years of observation**  
The blue line is the smoothed catchment annual rainfall data.

### 3.2 Topographic data and catchment delineation

Accurate delineation of contributing area to any point, including the catchment outlet is vital for hydrological applications and can be a source of considerable uncertainty in hydrological prediction (Gan et al., 1990). For the estimation of Victoria River catchment (including model subcatchments), one arc-second Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) data was used (Gallant et al., 2012). Based on these data the Victoria catchment is predicted to extend further south beyond the present AWRC catchment boundary, well into the Wiso basin. The Wiso basin is particularly dry, and examination of aerial imagery indicates that surface water flow is unlikely from the vaguely defined open depressions that cross the southern edge of the of the Victoria AWRC catchment. Accordingly, the catchment boundary was truncated at these points, resulting in a catchment that is similar in size and shape to the present Victoria River AWRC catchment. A

large storm event in March 2023 flooded large parts of the southern Victoria River catchment, resulting in the evacuation of many residents. Surface water extent was evaluated during this event using radar data from the Sentinel 1 satellite to ascertain if any surface flow may have moved across the current AWRC boundary in the south of the catchment.

Sentinel-1 Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) data were used to map floods due to the sensor's ability to penetrate through cloud. Sentinel-1 data, available from the European Space Agency, was downloaded for the Victoria River catchment for the flood dates as well as a dry period. It was processed to an analysis-ready format (through applying a radiometric and geometric terrain correction as well as calibrating the pixel values to normalised radar backscatter). A low threshold value, as well as the difference in backscatter between the dry and flooded images, was used to extract flood water. Small 'clumps' of water pixels, which were incorrectly identified as water due to confusion with other low backscatter landcover as well as data speckle, were removed using a sieve filter. A DEM was also used to remove erroneous pixels classified as water on steep terrain.

These images showed no indication of water movement across the proposed catchment boundary, and there was no evidence of concentrated surface water flow in that region. This increased the confidence that the truncated SRTM derived catchment was fit for purpose.

## 4 Model software and structure

### 4.1 River model

The AWRA-R model has been selected as the river modelling platform for the Assessment. It was selected over 'Source' (a commonly used platform by jurisdictions) largely since it is flexible and has very short run times. AWRA-R is not designed to incorporate complicated operations rules as Source might, although for relatively undeveloped areas such as northern Australia this presents few, if any, simulation difficulties. Rather, the flexibility and short run times allow for extensive sensitivity analyses of development scenarios, automated model optimisation and an ability to make the model available to users via a website where simulations can be run 'live' with development parameters of their choosing and accompanying ecosystem analyses.

The AWRA-R model is based upon a series of connected subcatchments that can receive streamflow from upstream nodes, perform various processes within each subcatchment, and, using a water balance approach, calculate various fluxes including subcatchment outflow, which may be used as an input to a downstream subcatchment. Outflow points for each subcatchment are generally denoted as a 'node'. Model parameters and inputs are required for each subcatchment.

The AWRA-R model framework used for the Victoria River is written in the C language and is used in conjunction with the R language for ease of data processing and access to various functions such as optimisers, goodness-of-fit measures and plotting functions via R packages.

A brief summary is provided here, otherwise the reader is directed to the original references of Dutta et al. (2015) and Dutta et al. (2017). Each node in the model requires a configuration vector, a parameter vector, and a time series array as inputs. The standard model output is a time series of model states, including outflow. Where irrigation sub-models are used, these require additional irrigation parameters and configuration vectors, as well as additional time series inputs (e.g. crop coefficient values).

#### 4.1.1 Routing routine

Routing represents the transport of water down a river reach from upstream to downstream. A river channel has capacity to store water in varying degrees, which induces a time lag from inflow to outflow, as well some attenuation and dampening of the hydrograph peak across the reach. These effects were simulated using a Muskingum procedure (Koussis, 1980):

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = I - O \quad (1)$$

and

$$V = K[x * I - O(1 - x)] \quad (2)$$

where  $V$  is the routing volume ( $L^3$ ),  $I$  and  $O$  are the reach inflow and outflow respectively ( $L^3$ ), and  $x$  and  $K$  are calibrated routing parameters.

#### 4.1.2 Loss model

Physically, as water moves along a channel it may experience losses due to exchanges with groundwater or soil water. Transmission losses are very difficult to measure directly, so any loss function that is calibrated jointly with other states (against observed flow) will also implicitly account for gauge error, poor system representation, or overestimates in other model states (e.g. unaccounted runoff). Most model estimates of loss are flow-based on:

$$L(t) = f(Q(t)) \quad (3)$$

where  $L$  is the loss and  $f$  is a function describing the flow-based loss. For the Assessment, the loss estimation method developed by Doble et al. (2012) was used. This method is dependent on physical properties of the river bed material, river stage, river length, river width, depth to groundwater and specific water yield of the aquifer. This method is denoted as ‘Doble loss’ subsequently. The river hydraulic conductivity parameter is calibrated jointly with the RR and routing parameters for each reach. Optimal parameter sets are then used for subsequent simulation. The equations for the Doble loss calculations are given below:

$$Q_{gw} = \min(I_{riv}, \Delta S_{riv} + Q_{riv}) * \Lambda \quad (4)$$

$$I_{riv} = K_{S_{riv}} w_{riv} \left( \frac{h_{riv}}{d_c} + 1 \right) \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta S_{riv} = d_{gw} S_y x_w \quad (6)$$

$$Q_{riv} = K_{aq} d_{aq} \frac{2h_{riv}}{x_w} \quad (7)$$

where  $I_{riv}$  is potential infiltration rate from river per unit length of the river ( $m^2/second$ ),  $\Delta S_{riv}$  is total storage per unit length of the reach ( $m^2/second$ ) within the regolith beneath the streambed,  $Q_{riv}$  is maximum volume of water discharging from the aquifer ( $m^2/second$ ),  $\Lambda$  is the reach length (m),  $K_{S_{riv}}$  is river bed hydraulic conductivity (m/second),  $w_{riv}$  is width of the river (m) obtained from flow-area relationship,  $h_{riv}$  is depth of river water (m) obtained from a flow–depth relationship,  $d_{gw}$  is depth to groundwater (m),  $d_c$  is the thickness of the river bed material (m),  $S_y$  is the aquifer-specific water yield (dimensionless),  $x_w$  is the width of the river (m) derived from a flow–width relationship,  $K_{aq}$  is the aquifer hydraulic conductivity (m/second) and  $d_{aq}$  is the aquifer thickness. In all cases, depth to groundwater information was not available at appropriate spatial and temporal resolution. Accordingly, depth to watertable was assumed static at 5.0 m.

The river bed conductivity was calibrated jointly with runoff and routing parameters. Effectively, the  $Q_{gw}$  calculations are simplified to an estimation of  $I_{riv}$  that is at least partly controlled by the calibrated parameter  $K_{S_{riv}}$ , since  $Q_{gw}$  is taken as the minimum of the two terms  $I_{riv}$  and  $\Delta S_{riv} + Q_{riv}$ , and the final two states  $\Delta S_{riv} + Q_{riv}$ , are likely to be higher than  $I_{riv}$  due to depth to groundwater assumptions. This method was favoured partly since it is more physically based than other methods, but also since it requires only one calibrated parameter and can be applied easily

to ungauged locations, requiring an estimate of reach length and assuming the parameters from donor catchments.

### **4.1.3 Rainfall-runoff model**

RR models take a ‘top-down’ approach to estimating runoff, viz., model parameters are adjusted until the model simulation matches streamflow observations to the satisfaction of the hydrologist. This model can then be used to estimate flow at a time outside of the calibration period (assuming inputs, usually daily precipitation and potential ET, are available). In many situations, no streamflow observations are available at a desired location, and parameters have to be estimated or assumed using other methods.

The calculations within the RR models are influenced by observations of hydrological processes, and hence these models are often termed ‘conceptual models’. The ease of use and modest data requirements of these models has seen their widespread application, so much so that these models are applied in a vast array of environments not anticipated (presumably) by the original model authors. Given this, the modeller must take care in their application, especially in environments such as northern Australia. Furthermore, these models are prone to ‘over-fitting’ (i.e. poor predictive performance despite satisfactory representation of observed streamflow during calibration). This is related to the inability of the model to implicitly represent all processes, and fitting to any error in model input and streamflow observations.

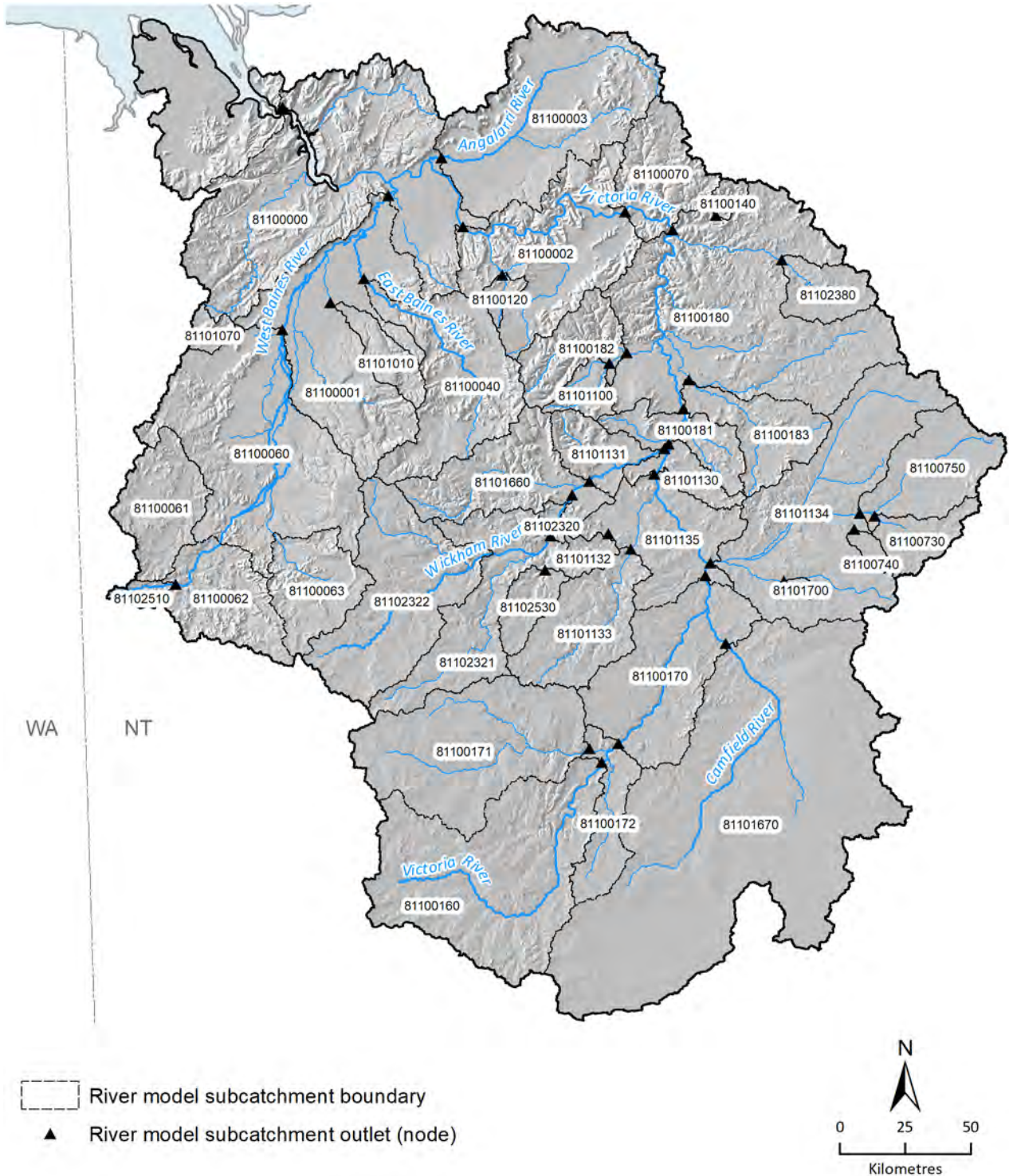
The river model used for the Assessment relies on RR models to generate runoff in each model subcatchment. The Assessment builds upon some previous assessments of RR models in other northern Australian catchments (Petheram et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2017, 2021a, 2023). More information regarding these models and choices for this Assessment can be found in Section 5.

### **4.1.4 Node-link structure**

The number and position of river model nodes across a study area are determined by the study’s modelling objectives. Increasing the number of nodes increases the flexibility of the model in relation to the number and degree of detail possible within model scenarios; however, increasing the number of nodes also increases the computational burden and model run times. For the Assessment, nodes were assigned to:

1. represent stream gauge positions, allowing for model calibration
2. divide the catchment into reasonably evenly distributed subcatchments
3. represent communities such as Yarralin and Pigeon Hole where estimates of water availability may be needed
4. potential dam sites (identified using the DamSite model (Yang et al., 2023)) and areas of soil suitable for irrigated agriculture (identified using land suitability data generated by the companion technical report on land suitability (Thomas et al., 2024))
5. based on the location of ecological assets and where reporting on changes to ecological assets may be desired.

In addition to these influences, nodes were placed in topographic positions that may, at some future time, be suitable for stream gauging, for example, where a stream moves through a narrow gap in a rocky ridge. The final node and subcatchment structure are shown in Figure 4-1 .



**Figure 4-1 River model nodes and subcatchment areas**

Note that calibration gauge sites were used as simulation nodes and simulation node ID is the same as calibration gauge ID with the addition of a '0'.



## 5 River model calibration

This section relates to the calibration of the Victoria River model. Unlike in the Northern Australia Water Resource Assessment, no independent calibration of a landscape model was conducted in the Assessment. Rather, the Sacramento RR model and parameters used in the final river mode version were used to generate gridded runoff data for use in other components of this Assessment.

River system models consist of a series of linked nodes or reaches in which the processes of losses and gains are modelled. These nodes are linked in an upstream to downstream chain, enabling representation of the river-related states in time and space. In this regard, river system models are semi-distributed, with the outputs of upstream nodes acting as inputs to downstream nodes.

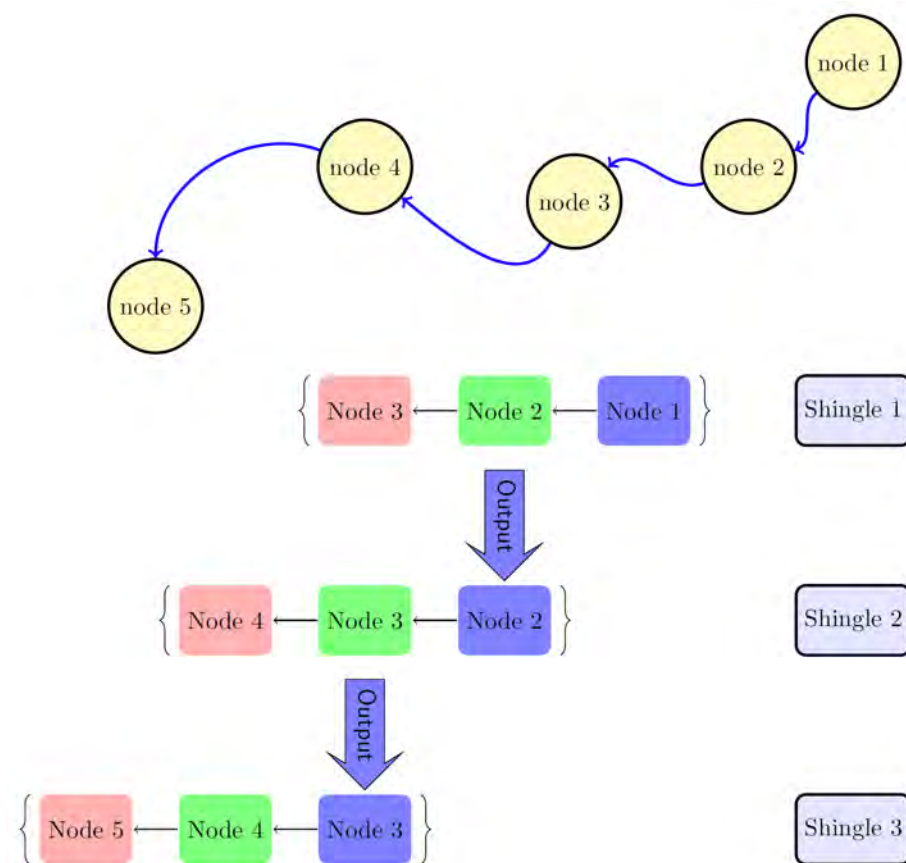
RR models are the primary way of estimating runoff/streamflow generated within each river model subcatchment. They utilise subcatchment mean daily precipitation and potential ET time series as inputs, without the need for inputs other than model parameters. There are many options in terms of RR models and the selection of RR models for this Assessment builds on investigation of RR models used within river models in northern Australia by Hughes et al. (2017). The Hughes et al. (2017) study also tested a range of objective functions, loss models and calibration methods. These investigations were continued in the Roper River Water Resource Assessment (Hughes et al., 2023).

Hughes et al. (2017) tested the GR4J model (Perrin et al., 2003) and compared it to both Sacramento (Burnash, 1995) and AWRA-L (Viney et al., 2015), noting that AWRA-L is not, strictly speaking, a RR model since it is more 'physically based' and has a number of spatially explicit input parameters that are not calibrated. However, AWRA-L can be calibrated to observed streamflow and generate runoff estimates as a RR model might. While results varied with location, they suggested that the Sacramento RR model had better overall performance. This was particularly the case for low-flow representation, and general performance in arid areas. GR4J has only four parameters, which in isolation of performance, makes it attractive for system calibration. Given this, Hughes et al. (2023) included adaptations of the GR4J model intended to improve low-flow performance. The GR7J model (Hughes et al., 2013a; Grigg and Hughes, 2018) is an adaptation to GR4J that was designed to cope with long-term changes in storage and climate change better than the GR4J model. GR7J has also been shown to give better performance in drier climates (Hughes et al., 2021a). However, low-flow performance of this model, while improved somewhat, was still inadequate for many applications, most notably ecological assessment. Ideally a model should be able to represent zero-flow days since this is an important ecological metric. To that end adjustments to the GR7J model formulation were attempted and tested. This model was denoted GR7JFM and while reasonably successful, Sacramento was favoured since its performance was similar and the model well known to most hydrologists.

Typically, river system models are calibrated on a 'reach-by-reach' basis in which each node is calibrated against an observed gauge in isolation from upstream outputs other than inflows and downstream performance is not considered until that reach is calibrated in turn (e.g. Hughes et al., 2014a, 2017). However, this method suffers from problems since the method for calibration, and

simulation for prediction, are quite different (Lerat et al., 2013). An obvious alternative to this is the 'system-calibration' method where all parameters for all reaches are calibrated simultaneously, running the model in the same way in calibration as it would be used for predictive modelling. This has benefits (Hughes et al., 2016), but high dimensionality in optimisation becomes a problem depending upon the number of reaches and types of RR models used. Hughes et al. (2023) used a new method which, mechanistically, lies between reach-by-reach and system-calibration methods.

Shingle calibration divides the catchment, and available stream gauge locations, into overlapping sections or 'shingles'. At its most simple, each shingle consists of three gauges in serial order in which the uppermost gauge has already been calibrated and a time series of simulations are available. The second gauge and third gauge are then calibrated simultaneously (i.e. the goodness of fit for the second and third gauge are both utilised in the optimising function). Once calibration is complete, the time series of the second gauge is saved and is used as an input to the subsequent shingle where it is the first gauge. This process is illustrated in Figure 5-1, where a hypothetical river system of five nodes is represented. Blue nodes in each calibration shingle have been calibrated in a previous shingle, while simulation performance of both the green and red nodes is optimised simultaneously in the current shingle. Parameters estimated for the green node are saved and a time series of simulated flow is used as an input in the following calibration shingle. This is a highly simplified example and, in practice, some modifications to this process are required (e.g. for headwater nodes and final nodes), although the same principles apply. The intention of this process was to constrain parameters in each reach by performance at the calibration gauge (green nodes in Figure 5-1) and its effect on at least one downstream node (red nodes in Figure 5-1). This allows many of the benefits of system calibration to be realised, while reducing problems associated with high dimensionality.



**Figure 5-1 Shingle calibration conceptual diagram for a section of five nodes of a river system model**

Each calibration shingle has a pre-calibrated input time series (blue), a calibration node (green), and an auxiliary calibration node (red) that is jointly calibrated with green nodes.

In most river modelling situations, there will be at least some ungauged nodes (i.e. nodes for which streamflow simulations are required, but there are no available gauge data at that location). In these situations, model parameters must be obtained in another way. Prediction in ungauged areas is an area of ongoing research in hydrology and there have been many publications relating to this situation. Indeed, the International Association of Hydrological Sciences (IAHS) initiated the Prediction in Ungauged Basins program in 2003 (Sivapalan, 2003) to address these needs. During and since this initiative, there have been many publications that aimed to examine various methods of transferring parameters to or estimating parameters for ungauged catchments. This process is termed ‘regionalisation’ and was reviewed by Bloschl et al. (2013).

Regionalisation falls into two broad groups, NN and hydrological response unit (HRU) approaches respectively. The HRU approach aims to use various catchment physical descriptors to classify catchments of similar type. The physical descriptors may be related to catchment climate, topography, vegetation and regolith/geological characteristics. Parameters are transferred to the ungauged catchments either as a set or individually (often ignoring parameter correlation), based on similarity with gauged catchments. The NN approach simply takes parameters from the nearest gauged catchment(s). For more information see the review of Parajka et al. (2013). Examination of the relative success of these methods is inconclusive, although the most relevant study in the context of this Assessment is that of Petheram et al. (2012), who concluded that NN methods were the most successful in northern Australia.

The shingle calibration method was adapted so that parameters could be 'shared' between gauged subcatchments and ungauged subcatchments within a calibration shingle and/or parameters could be 'borrowed' from pre-existing calibrations (usually from preceding shingles). Since all gauges within a shingle are jointly calibrated, and any simulation at a gauged location will be affected by upstream and downstream goodness of fit, as well as its own location, a measure of constraint is applied to shared parameters, at least greater than consideration at a single gauge. It should be noted that the protocol in terms of donor and receiver catchments is a decision made by the hydrologist a priori, rather than any automated procedure, and hence there is scope for various parameter sharing possibilities for any single location. For example, if a conceptual calibration shingle has three gauged nodes and three ungauged nodes, parameters must be assigned to the three ungauged nodes (Figure 5-2). Even if it is assumed that no parameters are 'borrowed' from outside the shingle, and only parameters from within the shingle are used, there are still 27 different parameter combinations that could be used across the three ungauged sites. Considering that there will generally be multiple shingles used for any river model, the possibilities for parameter transfer increase exponentially, and as such, the judgement of the hydrologist is required to eliminate most of these permutations. Despite the NN method of parameter transfer being generally favoured, judgement based on physical factors (i.e. a HRU approach) are sometimes warranted.

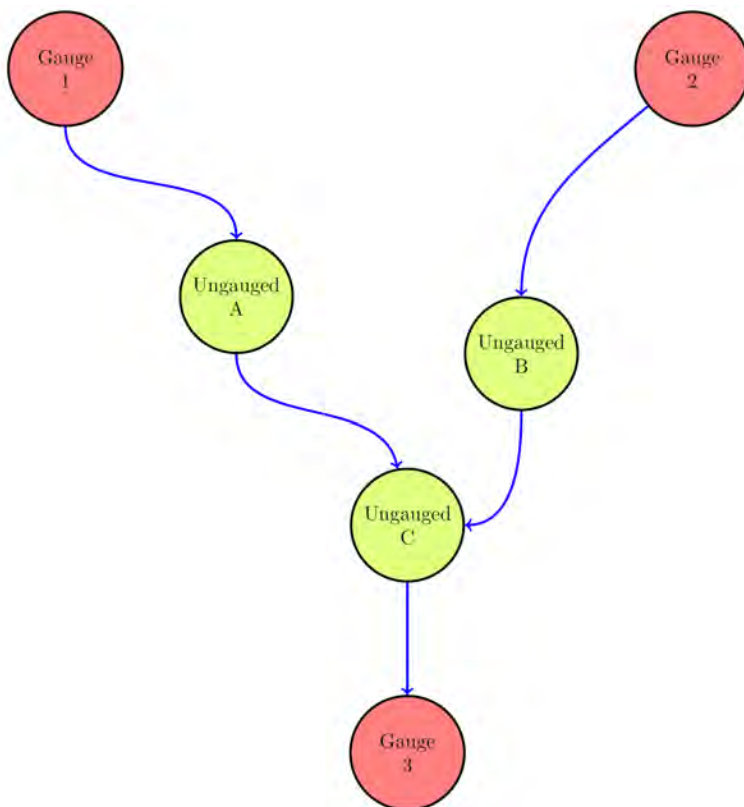


Figure 5-2 Conceptual diagram of a six-node calibration shingle, of which three nodes are ungauged

## 5.1 Constraining ungauged runoff estimates

For this Assessment, the availability of stream gauge observations and the quality of these data required a new approach in which constraints on expected runoff coefficient were used in the calibration process. Similar approaches have been used in other studies using pre-existing empirical relationships (Zhang et al., 2001; Croke and Norton, 2004; Yadav et al., 2007). Where there are no gauge data available, or the gauge data are poor, other estimates of likely rates of runoff or streamflow may be used to help guide the selection of more robust parameters. The approach taken in this Assessment is to use streamflow observations from across northern Australia to act as a guide as to what mean runoff volumes may be expected from various environmental conditions.

Runoff coefficient/actual evaporation has been shown to be influenced by climate in various empirical studies (e.g. Choudhury, 1999; Zhang et al., 2001). A similar approach has been taken here by utilising climate and streamflow records from across northern Australia in a similar way to the quoted studies, but also including catchment regolith depth estimates to generate mean runoff coefficient estimates for any catchments where such data are available. In a similar way, mean runoff coefficient estimates can be derived for future climates given assumptions or estimates of possible future climates.

Details of the method and results for ungauged catchment mean runoff coefficient estimation are given in Appendix B. Briefly, the method uses Bayesian regression to generate ensembles of parameters and estimates of mean runoff coefficient for any location. These can be used to estimate a mean and standard deviation of estimated runoff coefficient in each ungauged (or gauged) subcatchment. Such a facility also allows for estimates of future runoff coefficient in each subcatchment given some assumptions regarding future climates. These can be utilised in the model optimisation process to ensure that, for historical, and both future wet and future dry climates, runoff coefficients are what may be expected (or are acceptably close) given the generalised relationship from Appendix B. Future dry climate was represented by a 15% reduction to historical rainfall. Similarly wet climate was represented by a 15% increase to historical rainfall. These estimates are given in Table 5-1.

**Table 5-1 Estimated mean runoff coefficient and standard deviation for model subcatchments given dry future, historical and wet future climates**

NODE ID	DRY CLIMATE <sup>†</sup>		HISTORICAL CLIMATE		WET CLIMATE <sup>‡</sup>	
	Mean	$\sigma$	Mean	$\sigma$	Mean	$\sigma$
81101670	0.03	0.0104	0.04	0.0128	0.06	0.0150
81100171	0.06	0.0083	0.09	0.0087	0.11	0.0091
81100160	0.06	0.0088	0.09	0.0089	0.11	0.0087
81100172	0.06	0.0079	0.08	0.0083	0.10	0.0085
81101700	0.09	0.0109	0.12	0.0109	0.15	0.0106
81100740	0.08	0.0084	0.10	0.0087	0.12	0.0090
81100730	0.08	0.0083	0.10	0.0085	0.13	0.0088
81100750	0.08	0.0097	0.10	0.0107	0.12	0.0117
81101134	0.09	0.0084	0.12	0.0082	0.14	0.0080

NODE ID	DRY CLIMATE <sup>†</sup>		HISTORICAL CLIMATE		WET CLIMATE <sup>‡</sup>	
81100170	0.08	0.0088	0.10	0.0088	0.12	0.0085
81101133	0.09	0.0112	0.12	0.0112	0.15	0.0110
81101132	0.11	0.0123	0.13	0.0124	0.16	0.0123
81101135	0.09	0.0098	0.12	0.0096	0.15	0.0092
81102322	0.09	0.0083	0.12	0.0081	0.14	0.0080
81102530	0.10	0.0114	0.13	0.0114	0.15	0.0112
81102321	0.09	0.0090	0.12	0.0087	0.15	0.0084
81102320	0.11	0.0108	0.13	0.0106	0.16	0.0103
81101660	0.12	0.0108	0.15	0.0106	0.18	0.0103
81101131	0.11	0.0092	0.14	0.0088	0.17	0.0084
81101130	0.10	0.0091	0.13	0.0088	0.15	0.0085
81100181	0.10	0.0094	0.13	0.0091	0.16	0.0087
81100183	0.10	0.0085	0.12	0.0082	0.15	0.0080
81101100	0.11	0.0084	0.14	0.0081	0.17	0.0079
81100182	0.13	0.0101	0.16	0.0097	0.19	0.0094
81102380	0.11	0.0082	0.14	0.0081	0.16	0.0082
81100140	0.14	0.0123	0.18	0.0121	0.21	0.0120
81100180	0.12	0.0091	0.15	0.0087	0.17	0.0083
81100070	0.15	0.0099	0.18	0.0095	0.21	0.0093
81100120	0.15	0.0114	0.18	0.0112	0.22	0.0110
81100002	0.14	0.0088	0.17	0.0084	0.20	0.0081
81102510	0.11	0.0136	0.14	0.0137	0.17	0.0137
81100062	0.11	0.0132	0.14	0.0134	0.16	0.0134
81100061	0.11	0.0118	0.14	0.0117	0.17	0.0115
81100063	0.10	0.0101	0.13	0.0098	0.16	0.0095
81101070	0.13	0.0088	0.16	0.0084	0.19	0.0081
81100060	0.10	0.0085	0.13	0.0082	0.16	0.0079
81101010	0.13	0.0085	0.16	0.0081	0.19	0.0079
81100040	0.14	0.0107	0.17	0.0104	0.20	0.0101
81100001	0.11	0.0092	0.13	0.0099	0.16	0.0106
81100003	0.13	0.0100	0.16	0.0110	0.19	0.0122
81100000	0.16	0.0084	0.20	0.0081	0.23	0.0082

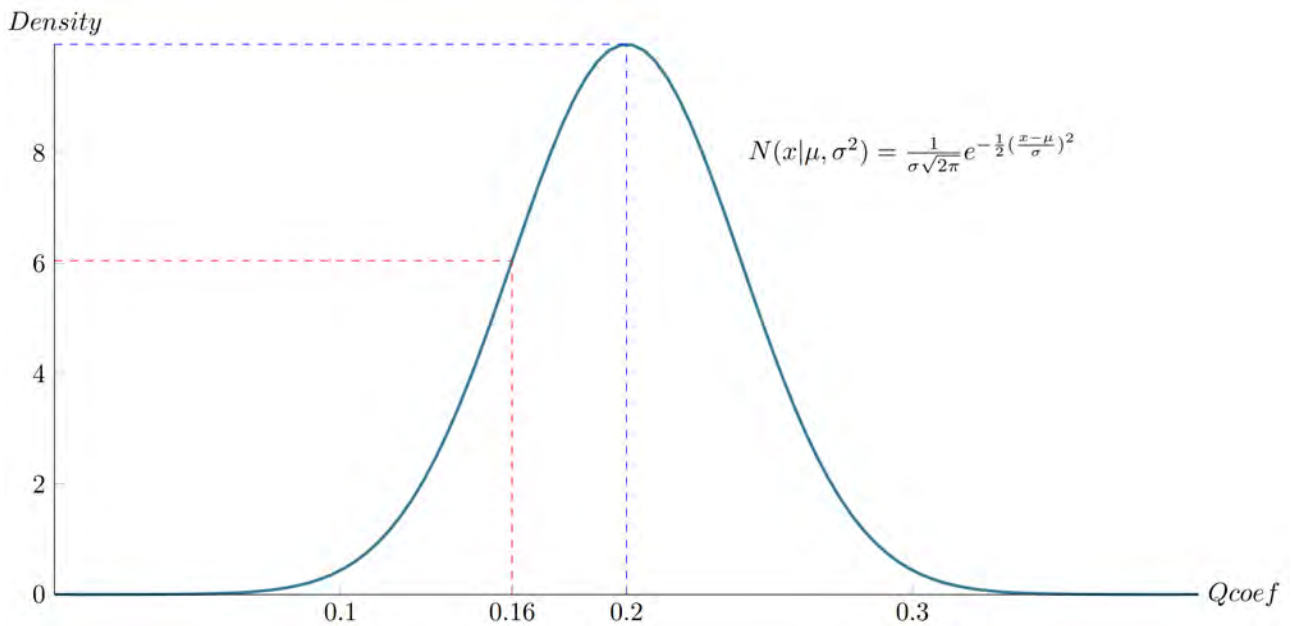
<sup>†</sup>Historical rainfall was decreased by 15%.

<sup>‡</sup>Historical rainfall was increased by 15%

σ Standard deviation

The calibration approach was to combine the ‘shingle’ approach outlined above with consideration also given to how well simulated runoff coefficient matched those expected in all model subcatchments for historical, dry and wet climates. The standard deviation of estimates can be used to calculate the probability that simulated mean runoff coefficient within a subcatchment agrees with those estimated using the generalised relationship.

Consider the following example where, for a hypothetical subcatchment, the generalised relationship predicts mean runoff coefficient to be 0.2, with a standard deviation of 0.04 (Figure 5-3).



**Figure 5-3 An example of a normal probability distribution function with a mean of 0.2 and a standard deviation of 0.04**

The maximum density occurs at the mean value, 0.2. The closer a value is to the mean, the higher the density. For this example, if a simulated value in the subcatchment had a runoff coefficient of 0.16 (shown by the dashed red lines in Figure 5-3), it returns a much lower density. For use in calibration, a ratio or score can be calculated using the simulated (red dashed lines) and maximum density (blue dashed lines). In this example, the maximum density at a runoff coefficient of 0.2 is 9.97, while the density at the simulated value of 0.16 is 6.05. As a proportion of the maximum density, this is 6.05/9.97, which is 0.61. In this way, the ‘goodness of fit’ for any subcatchment can be calculated based on expected and simulated runoff coefficient. Mathematically the density for any normal distribution is given by:

$$N(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad (8)$$

where  $x$  is the value of interest (simulated runoff coefficient for this example),  $\mu$  is the mean of the normal distribution and  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation. The goodness of fit for a single location can be expressed as:

$$\omega_i = \frac{N(x_i|\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)}{N(\mu_i|\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)} \quad (9)$$

where  $x_i$  is the simulated mean runoff coefficient for the node  $i$ , while  $\mu_i$  and  $\sigma_i^2$  are the expected mean and variance of runoff coefficient for the node  $i$ .

The procedure for determining the goodness of fit for simulated runoff coefficient across all model nodes in a calibration shingle is similar, using the mean of all individual node values:

$$\bar{\omega} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i}{n} \quad (10)$$

In a similar way, the suitability of ungauged runoff can be tested in drier or wetter climates. Here a reduction of annual rainfall of 15% and an increase of mean rainfall of 15% were used to test parameter suitability in future climates.

## 5.2 Calibration procedure

In each calibration shingle, the protocol for sharing parameters between gauged and ungauged nodes was pre-determined. It was considered desirable to share parameters within a shingle where possible, since this means that the shared parameter set is subject to performance constraints (i.e. goodness-of-fit measures in ungauged nodes and objective function scores at downstream gauges within the shingle). Occasionally some parameters were borrowed from nodes outside of the calibration shingle and these were read in from saved values. Calibration proceeded in three shingles. These are shown in Table 5-2.

**Table 5-2 Donor parameter and shingle information for all model nodes**

NODE ID	DONOR ID	CALIBRATION SHINGLE
81101670	81101670	†
81100171	81100160	1
81100160	81100160	†
81100172	81100160	1
81101700	81101130	1
81100740	81101130	1
81100730	81101130	1
81100750	81101130	1
81101134	81101130	1
81100170	81101130	1
81101133	81101130	1
81101132	81101130	1
81101135	81101130	1
81102322	81101130	1
81102530	81101130	1
81102321	81101130	1
81102320	81101130	1
81101660	81101130	1
81101131	81101130	1



NODE ID	DONOR ID	CALIBRATION SHINGLE
81101130	81101130	1
81100181	81100180	2
81100183	81100180	2
81101100	81100180	2
81100182	81100180	2
81102380	81100140	2
81100140	81100140	2
81100180	81100180	2
81100070	81100070	2
81100120	81100120	2
81100002	81100070	2
81102510	81100060	3
81100062	81100060	3
81100061	81100060	3
81100063	81100060	3
81101070	81101070	3
81100060	81100060	3
81101010	81100040	3
81100040	81100040	3
81100001	81100060	3
81100003	81100060	3
81100000	81100070	3

<sup>†</sup>These gauges were pre-calibrated individually.

The exceptions here are nodes 81101670 and 81100160 in the far south of the catchment. As stated previously, the gauge at node location 81100160 had a suspiciously high runoff coefficient. Calibration here utilised the predicted runoff coefficient (Table 5-2) as per other node locations, but rather than direct calibration to the gauge data, parameters were selected from a pre-calibrated library of Sacramento RR model parameters. These were calibrated at each of the gauges listed in Appendix B ( $n = 99$ ). Donor parameters were ranked in terms of goodness of fit to expected ungauged runoff and Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970), and low-flow fit at gauge 8110016. Of the ten best performing donor gauges, one was selected after inspection of its hydrographs and flow duration curve. A similar procedure was conducted for gauge 81101670, only in that case, no streamflow data were available at the site, rather, the parameter set was jointly assessed at node 81101130, where a gauge was available (downstream of node 81101670) and using expected runoff coefficient for node 81101670.

Objective functions provide an opportunity for the hydrologist to influence the nature of the simulations that the model will produce. Goodness-of-fit metrics commonly used such as bias and NSE, may not be adequate to produce simulations to the satisfaction of the hydrologist. With some knowledge of how the simulations may be used, the hydrologist may require more emphasis

on various components of streamflow. For example, flood studies require more emphasis on accurate peak flow representation, while some ecological studies may require more accurate low-flow representation. It should be noted that in this context the 'objective function' is used in conjunction with goodness-of-fit scores for ungauged runoff to obtain an acceptable parameter set.

In this Assessment, a series of model/objective function/parameter transfer combinations were tested in an iterative process with the aim of exploring and producing a more satisfactory collection of simulations. Broadly, these were all judged on the basis of goodness of fit at gauge locations. This Assessment builds upon the various investigations of objective functions previously used in northern Australian studies (Hughes et al., 2018; Hughes et al., 2023).

The objective function used in this Assessment is as follows:

$$OF = (2 - NSE(\sqrt{Q})) * (2 - NSE(FDC(Q_{hf}))) * (1 + EPD(Q_{q90})) * (1 + EPD(Q_{q98})) * (1 + EPD(Q_{200})) * (1 + |bias|) \quad (11)$$

where EPD or error probability difference of a given flow value  $x$  is defined as:

$$EPD_x = |P_x(Q_{obs} - Q_{sim})| \quad (12)$$

where  $x$  is a user defined flow rate and  $q_{90}$  was the 90% exceedance non-zero flow (based on observed flows),  $q_{98}$  was the 98% exceedance non-zero flow, and  $Q_{200}$  is 200 ML/day (nominally a value below which it may be difficult to extract water via a pump). These terms are intended to place some weighting on low-flow values.

$FDC(Q_{hf})$  compares the quantile values from simulated and observed flows for exceedance values of 0, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.0115 and 0.02%. This is intended to place some calibration weighting on high flows.

The objective function returned value is minimised during optimisation and a perfect fit would have a value of 1.0. However, the final 'score' returned to the optimiser also incorporated the goodness-of-fit metric based upon expected ungauged runoff for each subcatchment for historical, dry and wet climates.

$$Score = OF * (1 + \bar{\omega}_{hist}) * (1 + \bar{\omega}_{dry}) * (1 + \bar{\omega}_{wet}) \quad (13)$$

where  $\bar{\omega}_{hist}$ ,  $\bar{\omega}_{dry}$  and  $\bar{\omega}_{wet}$  are goodness-of-fit scores for ungauged runoff in historical, dry and wet climates respectively. It should be noted that the standard deviation used for calculation of ungauged runoff goodness of fit was increased to 0.03 in all cases, which is higher than the calculated values in Table 5-1. This effectively reduced the weighting of the final optimisation score on ungauged runoff scores, allowing for a better balance of performance at streamflow gauges and expected ungauged runoff.

Optimisation used the differential evolution algorithm (Ardia et al., 2010), within the R platform. The models were run for 300 iterations. The best parameter sets were selected. An additional optimisation was designed to examine parameter uncertainty within the river model. This run combined the entire catchment into a single shingle and was run for 100 iterations. Computationally, this was a costly process due to the model size and total number of parameters.

All model iterations were recorded and all parameter sets within 10% of the final calibration score of the accepted model were saved. It is acknowledged that the parameter uncertainty is only a component of the total uncertainty in streamflow estimation. Uncertainty in model inputs (particularly gridded rainfall inputs), observed streamflow (including rating curve uncertainty), catchment contributing area estimates, parameter sharing protocols, and model structure all contribute to uncertainty and are not quantified here.

## 6 Calibration results

The calibration goodness-of-fit scores at all gauges used are given in Table 6-1. Scores indicate that NSE values are acceptable, and in almost all cases the error probability distance values for low flows are also good. The exception to this is at gauge 81100180, where observations indicate that flow ceases for approximately 40% of all observations. Upstream at gauge 81101130, and just downstream at 81100070, flows are either perennial or near perennial. Simulation bias values are beyond 10% for three gauges, although these are generally where gauge confidence is lower. It must be remembered that expected ungauged runoff values also provide some constraint on simulated mean flow volumes, and in some cases, these differ substantially from apparent runoff coefficients calculated from observed flows (e.g. 81100160). Further goodness-of-fit information is available in Appendix D.

**Table 6-1 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the Victoria River model**

NODE ID	NSE <sup>0.5</sup>	EPD98	EPD90	EPD200	EPD500	BIAS (%)	NSEHF
81100160	0.64	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.00	-35.1	0.65
81101130	0.85	0.00	0.05	0.08	0.05	10.2	0.99
81100140	0.54	0.31	0.28	0.05	0.00	-4.5	0.83
81100180	0.88	0.39	0.35	0.19	0.14	0.6	0.93
81100070	0.87	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.05	-1.1	0.96
81100120	0.40	0.20	0.17	0.02	0.01	-16.3	0.25
81101070	0.45	0.04	0.08	0.01	0.01	-6	0.91
81100060	0.68	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.1	0.91
<b>Suggested good score</b>	>0.7	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	< 10	>0.9

Expected runoff coefficient values were a substantial part of the optimisation process and these values are presented in Figure 6-1. As can be seen, the simulated runoff coefficients were similar to the expected runoff coefficient for all subcatchments and climates. The  $R^2$  of the correlation for these data was 0.88. Historical simulated mean subcatchment runoff values are plotted in Figure 6-2. The data indicate that catchment mean aridity is the major influence on simulated mean runoff coefficient, with the exception of subcatchment 811001670. At this location, expected and simulated runoff coefficient were, when adjusting for climate, lower than other subcatchments. This is because estimated subcatchment mean regolith depth at 27 m is greater than the mean value for all other subcatchments (~8 m). For more information on the calculation of expected runoff coefficient values see Appendix B.

Further to this, mean subcatchment runoff coefficient was plotted to see how consistent the spatial pattern of runoff coefficient was (Figure 6-3). In general, one would expect the spatial variation to be consistent without any abrupt changes across subcatchment boundaries, and that changes are broadly consistent with the spatial distribution of mean annual rainfall.

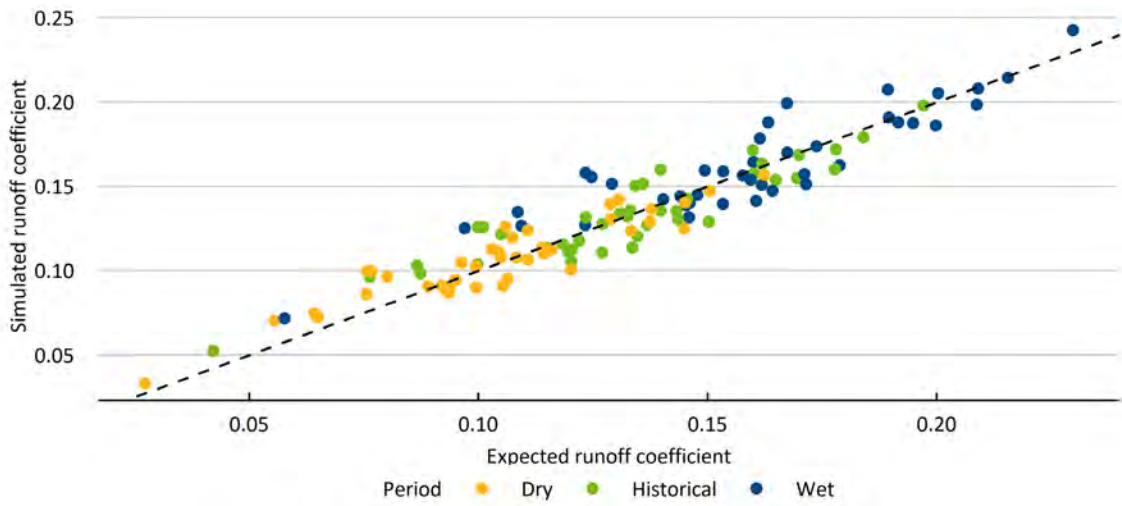


Figure 6-1 Expected and simulated runoff coefficient for all model subcatchments for historical, dry and wet climates

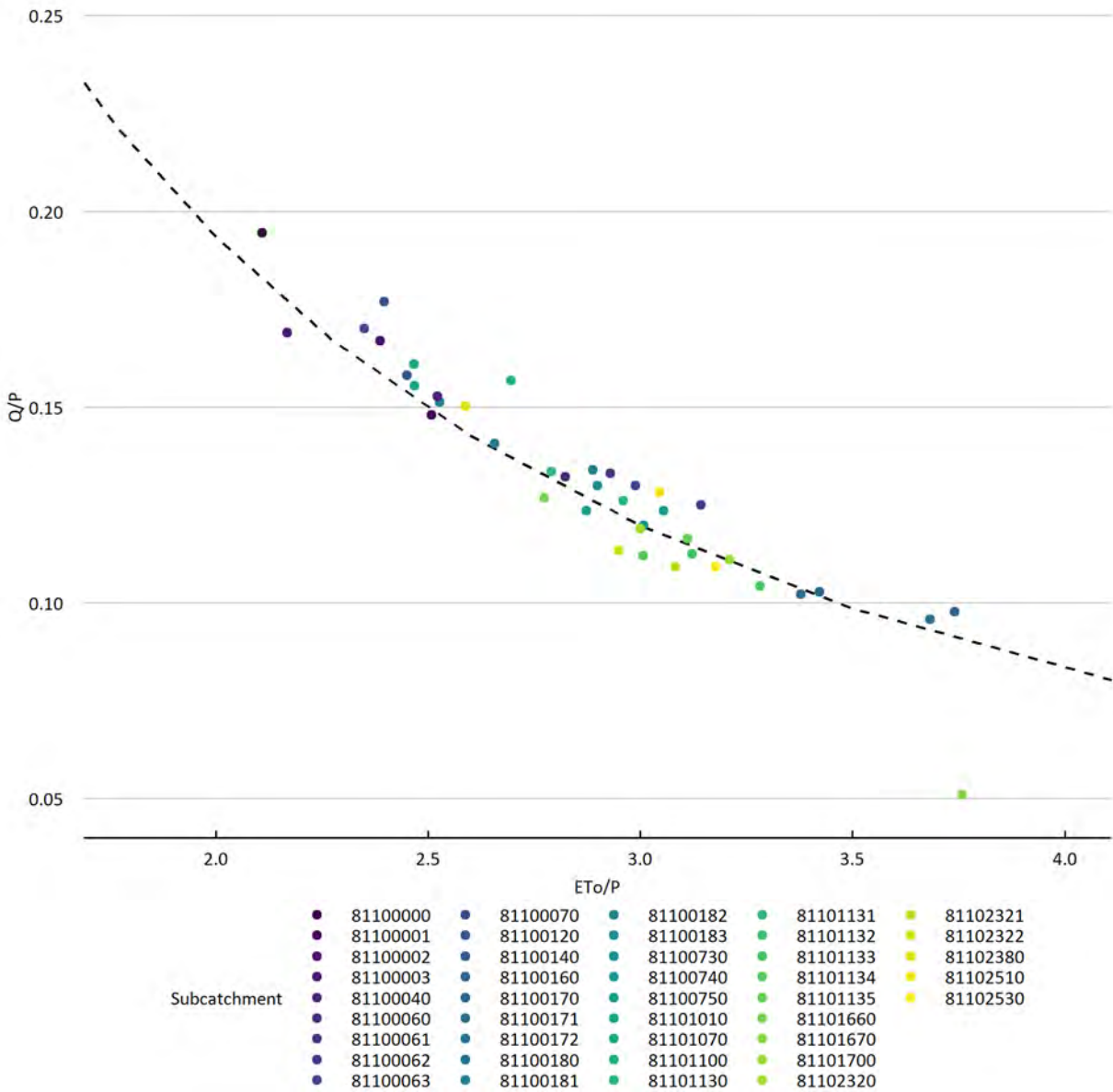
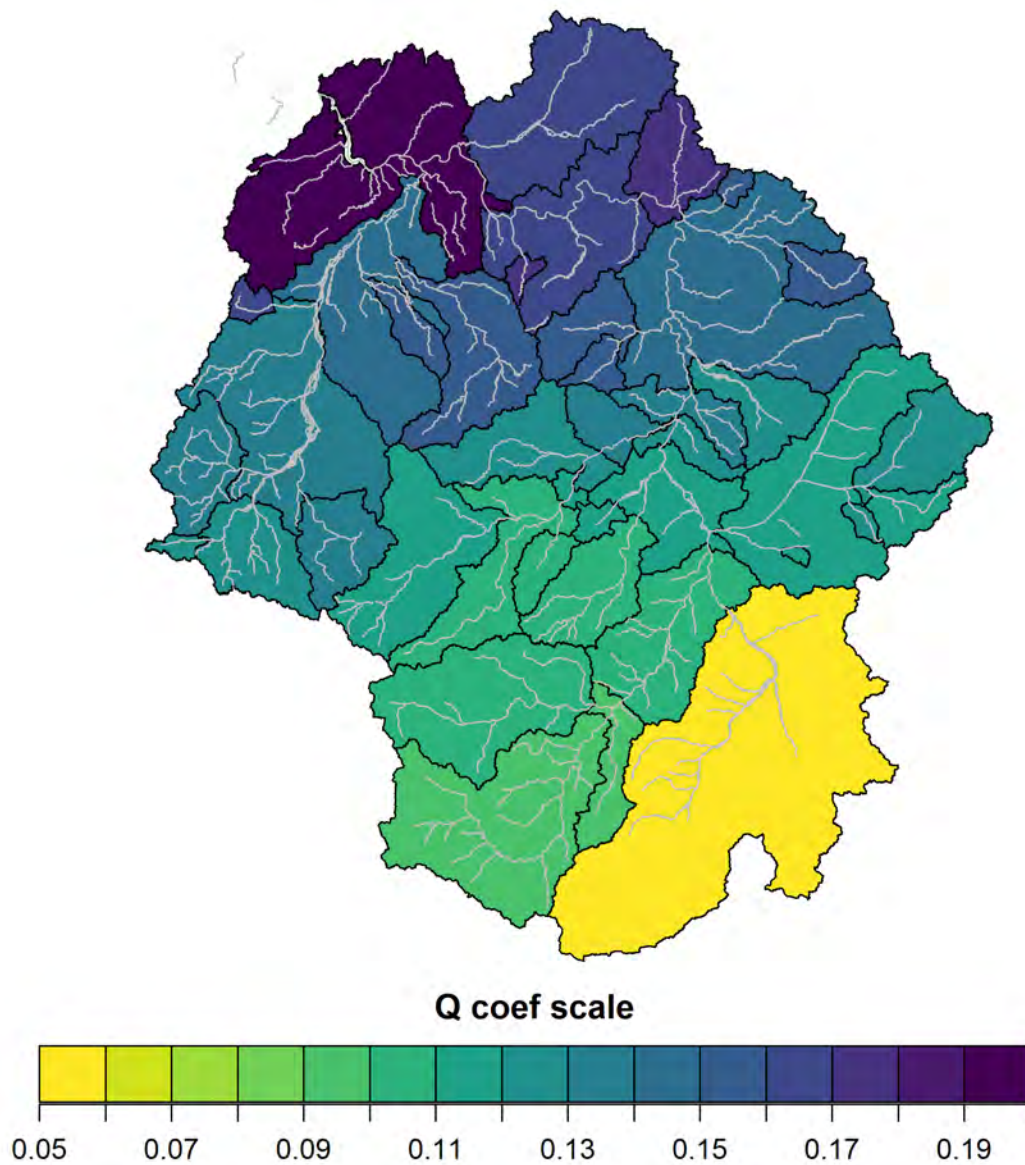
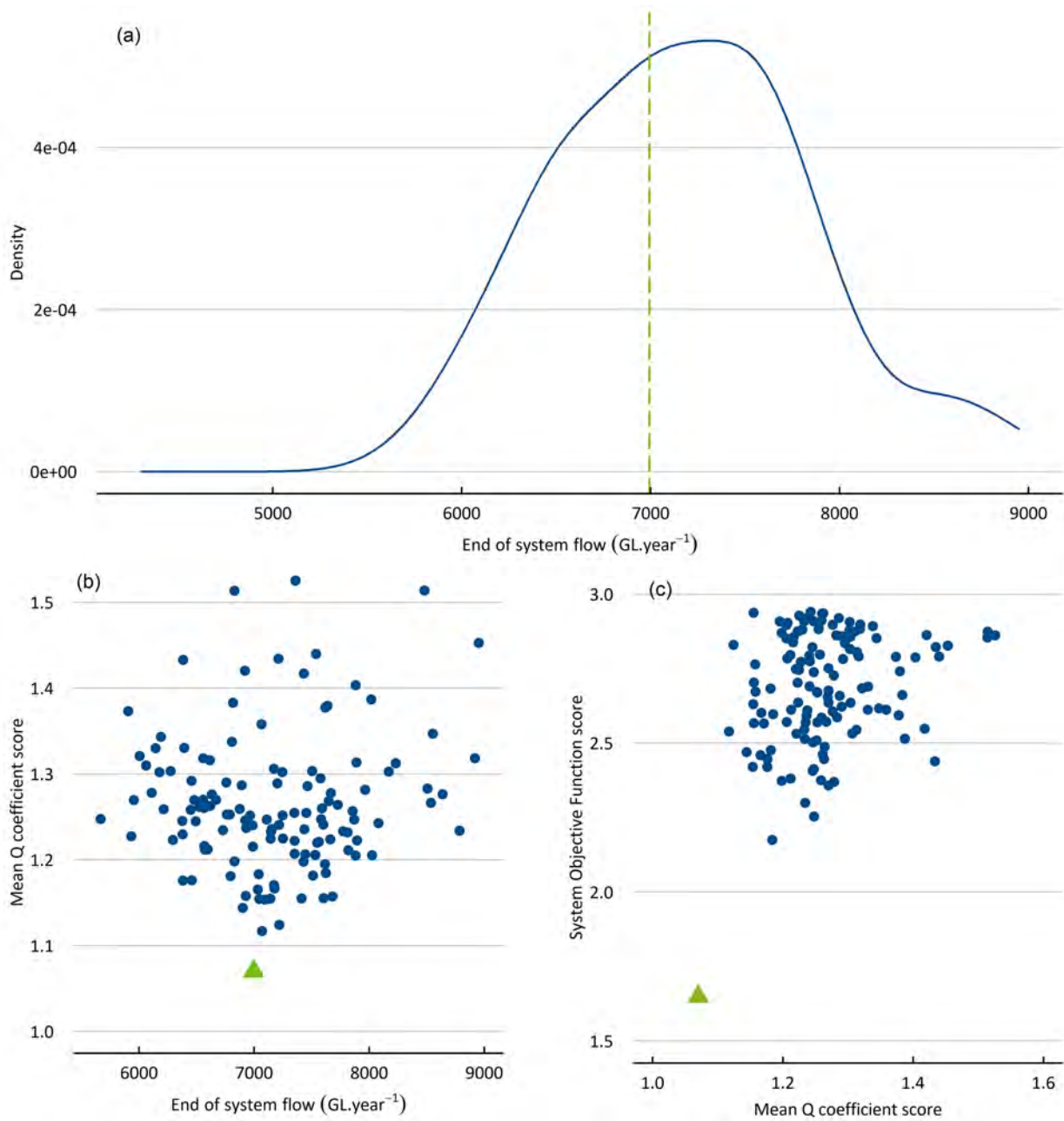


Figure 6-2 Simulated historical mean runoff coefficient by subcatchment



**Figure 6-3 Spatial distribution of simulated mean runoff coefficient by subcatchment**

Mean annual end-of-system flow from the selected calibrated model was 6990 GL. This was very similar to the end-of-system flow estimated by Petheram et al. (2009) at 6710 GL and well within one standard deviation calculated by parameter uncertainty estimates of 680 GL (Figure 6-4). System objective function scores were substantially poorer than the final optimised model score since the computational burden was high and optimisation was terminated before system objective scores could stabilise. However, it does indicate that the end-of-system flows can be reasonably variable and still regarded as 'acceptable'. Additionally, water harvest yield was tested at a single node as a part of the uncertainty analyses (node 81100060). Uncertainty analysis simulations predicted a mean yield of around 80 GL/year at this site using a pump start threshold of 500 ML/day and pump capacity of 1000 ML/day. This is much higher than the value calculated from the final accepted model of 53 GL/year. Standard deviation of the water harvest uncertainty estimates was 16 GL/year.



**Figure 6-4 The impact of parameter uncertainty estimates of (a) mean end-of-system flow, (b) end-of-system flow vs mean runoff coefficient score and (c) mean runoff coefficient score vs system objective function score**

Green lines and points indicate values for the selected river model parameter set.

## 7 Discussion and conclusion

The river model outlined in this report is the first of its kind to be attempted in the Victoria catchment. Previous estimates have been made for streamflow at the catchment outlet (e.g. Petheram et al., 2009), and the mean annual end-of-system flow calculated here of 6990 GL was very similar to the Petheram et al. (2009) study. Parameter uncertainty analyses suggest that alternative 'acceptable' parameter sets will generate end-of-system mean annual flow estimates that vary somewhat from those estimates (having a standard deviation of 680 GL). Internal model states for all parameter sets (flow at other nodes) were not examined, however, water harvest yields at one site were recorded and summarised. These had a coefficient of variation of around 0.3, which is substantially higher than the variation in end-of-system flow (coefficient of variation of around 0.1). This suggests that estimated water harvest yields are relatively sensitive to the magnitude and nature of flows that may be part of an acceptable river system model.

The Victoria River model was structured and calibrated to perform a wide range of water resource scenarios including diversions and future climates and estimate how these may affect the behaviour of the river system for each scenario considered. It is capable of fast simulation allowing for extensive sensitivity analyses. These requirements differ somewhat from typical jurisdictional river models that are generally designed to represent individual water licences and allocations and test water management policies.

Stream gauge data in the Victoria catchment was of limited availability and often of poor quality. This reflects the jurisdictional priority placed on flood warning as opposed to volumetric measurement within the catchment as well as the remoteness/inaccessibility of the area, particularly during the wet season. As a result, a novel technique was required to constrain model parameters. A relationship between climate, regolith depth and runoff coefficient was derived using long duration, high-quality gauged sites from across northern Australia. This was used to estimate the runoff coefficient in model subcatchments for historical and future climates. These estimates were used in the model optimisation process. While this technique was useful, there is no substitute for more and higher quality stream gauge data for more robust predictions.

Gauging data with which to estimate flow rates from stage data already available in the catchment could be collected to obtain better estimates of streamflow across the site. This is a labour intensive, expensive and often dangerous proposition, however, new technologies such as velocimetry from video footage and remotely piloted airborne and waterborne craft with various sensors may help expedite further hydrographic data collection.



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# Part II Appendices



# Appendix A Morton's wet area potential ET calculation

```
static double CalculateETwp(DateTime today, double Elevation, double Latitude, double tmax,
    double tmin, double eact, double radin, out double RH)
{
    double height, lat, tavg, esat, pratio, gammap, pdelta,
        pi, psai, dr, delta, omega, radextra, radinnet, radout, radnet,
        nNratio, _as, bs, albedo, sigma, term1, term2, term3, fz, ediff, stabfac,
        Dpfact, vptc, htc, xesat, xtemp, xdelta, tempinc, radnetx, ETpp, ETppx, ETwp,
        tdiff, esatMax, esatMin, esatMean, ea;

    int julday;

    //psea = 101.3;      //kPa
    pi = 3.1415927;
    _as = 0.25;        // Angstorm formula, regression constant
    bs = 0.50;        // Angstorm formula, regression constant
    albedo = 0.23;
    sigma = 4.903E-9; // Stefan-Boltzmann constant

    height = Elevation;
    lat = Latitude;

    if (tmax <= -99.0 || tmin <= -99.0 || eact <= -99.0 || radin <= -99.0) // || esat <= -99.0 ||
    radin == 0 ) //|| sunhrs <= -99.0)
    {
        ETpp = -99.0;
        ETwp = -99.0;
        ea = -99.0;
        RH = -99.0;
        tavg = -99.0;
    }
    else
    {
        tavg = (tmax + tmin) / 2.0;

        //calculate esat

        //formula 35
        esatMax = 0.6108 * Math.Exp(17.27 * tmax / (tmax + 237.3));
        esatMin = 0.6108 * Math.Exp(17.27 * tmin / (tmin + 237.3));
        esatMean = 0.6108 * Math.Exp(17.27 * tavg / (tavg + 237.3));
    }
}
```



```

//formula 43
ea = 0.25 * esatMax + 0.5 * esatMean + 0.25 * esatMin;
esat = ea;

if (esat <= 0.0) esat = 0.0001;
if (eact <= 0.0) eact = 0.0001;
if (eact > esat) eact = esat;

RH = eact / esat;

// Calculate ratio of atmospheric at the station to that at the sea level (Pstn/Psea)
pratio = Math.Pow((293.0 - 0.0065 * height) / 293.0, 5.26);

// Calculate psychrometric constant (kPa/C)
if (tavg >= 0.0)
    gammap = 0.066 * pratio;
else
    gammap = 0.0574 * pratio;

// Calculate slope of saturation vapour pressure/temperature curve (kPa/C)

if (tavg >= 0.0)
    pdelta = (4098.0 * esat) / Math.Pow((tavg + 237.3), 2);
else
    pdelta = (5809.0 * esat) / Math.Pow((tavg + 265.5), 2);

// Calculate extraterrestrial radiation (Ra=radextra) (MJ/m2/day)

psai = (lat / 180.0) * pi;

julday = today.DayOfYear;
dr = 1.0 + 0.033 * Math.Cos(0.0172 * Convert.ToDouble(julday));
delta = 0.409 * Math.Sin(0.0172 * Convert.ToDouble(julday) - 1.39);
omega = Math.Acos(-1.0 * Math.Tan(psai) * Math.Tan(delta));
radextra = (118.1 / pi) * dr * (omega * Math.Sin(psai) * Math.Sin(delta) + Math.Cos(psai)
* Math.Cos(delta) * Math.Sin(omega));

// Calculate nNratio based on radin

nNratio = (radin / radextra - _as) / bs;

// Calculate NET incoming solar radiation (Rns=radinnet)

radinnet = (1.0 - albedo) * radin;

// Calculate net outgoing Longwave radiation (Rnl=radout)

```

```

term1 = (Math.Pow((tmax + 273.16), 4) + Math.Pow((tmin + 273.16), 4)) / 2.0;
term2 = (0.34 - 0.14 * Math.Sqrt(eact)) * (0.10 + 0.9 * nNratio);
radout = sigma * term1 * term2;
if (radout < 0.0) radout = 0.0;

// Calculate net radiation (Rn) : if negative set it to zero

radnet = radinnet - radout;
if (radnet < 0.0) radnet = 0.0;

// Calculate stability factor(stabfac), vapour pressure transfer
// coefficient(fa=vptc)and heat transfer coefficient(Lamda=htc)

if (tavg >= 0.0)
    fz = 24.19;
else
    fz = 27.82;

ediff = esat - eact;
if (ediff <= 0.0) ediff = 0.0001;
term3=gammap*(1.0/pratio)**0.5*fz*ediff !!!can be wrong because of Jai
stabfac = 1.0 / (0.28 * (1.0 + eact / esat) + pdelta * radnet / term3);
if (stabfac < 1.0) stabfac = 1.0; //!!!!!! MODIFICATION

vptc = (Math.Sqrt(1.0 / pratio)) * fz / stabfac; //vptc=((1.0/pratio)**0.5)*fz/stabfac
htc = gammap + (1.804E-8 * Math.Pow((tavg + 273.0), 3)) / vptc; //htc=gammap+(1.804E-
8*(tavg+273.0)**3)/vptc;

// Carryout iterative procedure to satisfy the energy balance and obtain
// equilibrium quantities

xesat = esat;
xtemp = tavg;
xdelta = pdelta;

do
{
    tempinc = (radnet / vptc + eact + htc * (tavg - xtemp) - xesat) / (xdelta + htc);
    tdiff = Math.Abs(tempinc);
    if (tdiff < 0.01)
        break;
    else
    {
        xtemp = xtemp + tempinc;
        if (xtemp >= 0.0)

```

```

        xesat = 0.6108 * Math.Exp((17.27 * xtemp) / (xtemp + 237.3));
    else
        xesat = 0.6108 * Math.Exp((21.88 * xtemp) / (xtemp + 265.5));

    if (xtemp >= 0.0)
        xdelta = (4098.0 * xesat) / Math.Pow((xtemp + 237.3), 2);
    else
        xdelta = (5809.0 * xesat) / Math.Pow((xtemp + 265.5), 2);
}

} while (true);

ETppx = radnet - htc * vptc * (xtemp - tavg);
ETpp = ETppx * 0.408;
if (ETpp < 0.0) ETpp = 0.0;

// Calculate Morton Wet Environment Areal Potential Evapotranspiration. ETwp

radnetx = ETppx + gammap * vptc * (xtemp - tavg);
Dpfact = xdelta / (gammap + xdelta);
ETwp = 0.408 * (1.2096 + 1.2 * Dpfact * radnetx);
}

return ETwp;
}

```

# Appendix B Constraining ungauged runoff estimates with space for time substitution

## B.1 Introduction

Hydrological prediction relies on the use of models to estimate hydrological response from a given set of inputs (usually climate). The nature of the model used will vary with the model context and the nature of products or information required from it. Regardless, even the simplest models require parameters of some form. For physically based models, parameters may be a measurable, real physical property, whereas for ‘conceptual’ models or empirical models, the parameters themselves will have no physical meaning. Conceptual models require ‘calibration’ (i.e. parameters are adjusted with reference to some observation of interest until the model can reproduce the observed behaviour). The assumption is that the calibrated parameters and the model itself implicitly capture the system behaviour allowing prediction outside of the calibration conditions.

The ability of a model to simulate outputs that are closely matched to observations may be thought to validate the model and its hypothesis of catchment processes. However, it is recognised that this is not the case for both conceptual and physically based models due to problems associated with parameter identifiability (Ibbitt and O’Donnell, 1971; Sorooshian and Gupta, 1983; Hooper et al., 1988; Beven 1889; Jakeman and Hornberger, 1993), viz. many different parameter sets can provide a reasonably good agreement between observations and model simulation. Of the various acceptable parameter sets, model behaviour for an independent period or location can be highly variable.

Improvement in model identifiability generally relies upon the use of new or additional information in the model calibration process (Kuczera and Mroczkowski, 1998), and/or multiple objectives used in calibration (Booij and Krol, 2010). Furthermore, longer calibration time series can improve model predictive performance (Razavi and Tolson, 2013; Yang et al., 2022). While calibration issues related to equifinality have provided difficulties, the parameter selection process for ungauged catchments is more difficult again since the actual hydrological response is unknown. In these instances, parameters must be estimated by other means. The difficulties and strategies related to predicting hydrological response in ungauged catchments triggered the ‘Prediction in Ungauged Basins’ initiative by the IAHS in 2003 (Sivapalan, 2003). Subsequently, there have been numerous studies that have examined methods of estimating parameter values in ungauged catchments (see Blöschl, 2013; Parajka, 2013). The process of parameter estimation in this context is generally termed ‘regionalisation’, and the two most common techniques are:

1. nearest neighbour (NN)
2. hydrological response unit (HRU).

NN relies on a nearby catchment/gauge to derive parameters that are then used in the ungauged catchment, while HRU approaches use various physical descriptors to find ‘similar’ catchments from which parameters are received. Typically, factors such as slope, geology, land use and climate

are used as physical descriptors. While many studies have compared regionalisation methods (Nathan and McMahon, 1990; Oudin et al., 2006; Post, 2009; Petheram et al., 2012), there has been no consistency in the reported results. Context and model requirements will generally heavily influence the suitability of any methods used for parameter estimation. For example, future climate studies may require a hydrological model to predict hydrological response to conditions quite unlike those used for calibration. These will generally result in poor prediction (Vaze et al., 2010). How then can parameters be selected for ungauged areas that can also be used for future climate studies with confidence?

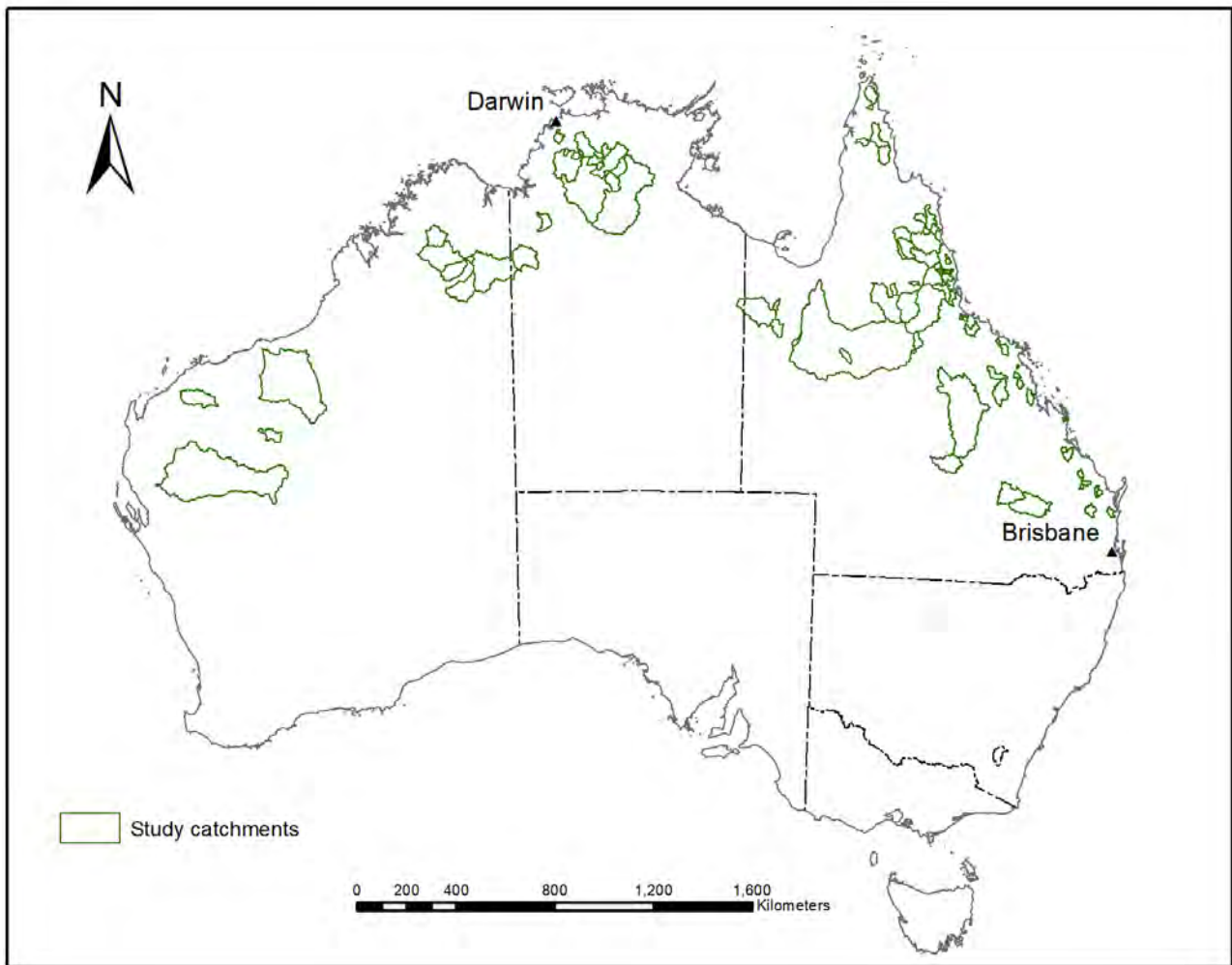
For any predicted future climate, the possibility exists that, for a given location, a similar climate exists in the present at another location. If this is true, then the system behaviour at another location may be a reasonable indicator of the future climate response in the location of interest. This is sometimes called a 'space for time substitute' and is often used in ecological studies where simulation of future climate effects is very difficult (Koltermann, 1992; Blois et al., 2013). Space for time substitution is common in hydrology, and while the phrase is not used in such examples, the concept nonetheless is applied in generalised relationships between climate and either runoff or actual evaporation. These relationships use data from many observations/locations for their derivation (Budyko, 1974; Choudhury, 1999; Zhang et al., 2001), and act as a general guide for the effect of climate on water balance.

The thesis in this Assessment is that where no streamflow data exists or it is of limited duration and quality, a space for time approach based on observations from northern Australia may be able to provide some constraint with regard to parameter selection, viz, parameter sets that substantially deviate from generalised relationships between climate and runoff can be eliminated. Similarly, the same relationships can be used to gauge the veracity of parameter sets for future climates, thereby providing for more robust future climate estimates of hydrological response. An empirical approach based on observed data was used as means for predicting long-term runoff (Q) in areas where no streamflow data exists.

## B.2 Method

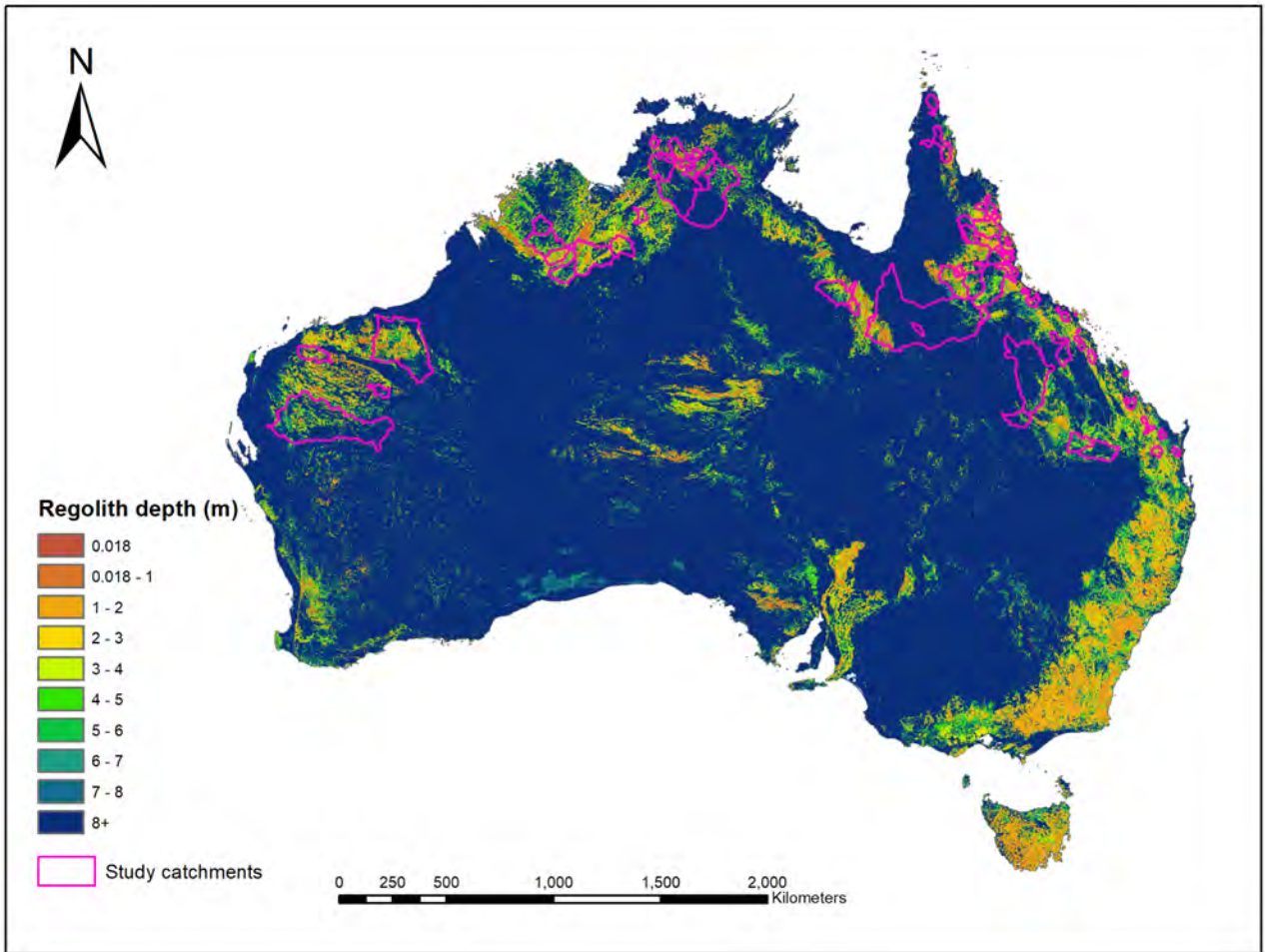
Northern Australia has some unique hydrological properties that make prediction difficult. Intensity, inter-annual and intra-annual variability of rainfall is very high (Petheram et al., 2008, 2012). For these reasons observations from northern Australia were used to construct generalised 'space for time' relationships. Catchments were selected in the region that had long records, had a low proportion of missing data, and were of good quality according to gauging data/rating curves. Sites were selected to cover a range of climates, of which the more arid areas were less numerous (Apx Figure B-1 and Apx Table B-1). Climate data was obtained from SILO (<http://www.longpaddock.qld.gov.au/silo/>; Jeffrey et al., 2001) and mean daily climate variables were calculated for each stream gauge using grids that were coincident with gauge contributing area.

For each SILO grid, for each day, Morton's wet area potential ET (ET<sub>o</sub>) was calculated (Morton, 1983). Mean catchment aridity was calculated by dividing mean catchment ET<sub>o</sub> by mean catchment precipitation (P), while runoff coefficient was calculated by dividing mean catchment runoff (Q) by mean catchment P.



**Apx Figure B-1 Surface water catchments ( $n = 99$ ) used to derive relationships between runoff, climate and regolith depth**

Initial regression testing between climate data and catchment runoff suggested that catchments in ‘rockier’ areas, as judged from aerial images, appeared to have higher runoff than others after accounting for climate. To explore this relationship more thoroughly, we sought to include data for ‘rockiness’ that was able to test these observations. Accordingly, The Soil Landscape Grid of Australia (Grundy et al., 2015) data were used to obtain estimates of regolith depth for each catchment. More specifically, mean estimated regolith depth (Wilford et al., 2015) for each  $30 \times 30$  m grid cell was aggregated to derive a mean catchment regolith depth for further analyses. Regolith depth across the study area is shown in Apx Figure B-2. While study catchments covered a wide range of regolith depths, most catchments were clustered around regions of shallower regolith. This may be partly due to the favourability of rocky, constricted areas for stream gauging. To test the effect of both regolith depth and climate on hydrological response, a linear mixed model was utilised as a means of examining these factors, but also accounting for possible regional differences across northern Australia.



Apx Figure B-2 Mean regolith depth (Soil Landscape Grid of Australia) and study catchments

### B.2.1 Linear mixed model

The generalised form of a linear model with two covariates is as follows:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i \quad (14)$$

where  $\beta_0$  is the population  $y$ -intercept (value of  $y$  when all partial slopes equal zero),  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ , are the partial population slopes of  $Y$  on  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , respectively holding the other  $X$  constant.  $\epsilon_i$  is the random unexplained error or residual component. Re-writing this in matrix notation (for a generalised case):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \quad (15)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n) \quad (16)$$

where  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  is the response vector;  $\mathbf{X}$  is the model matrix (of  $n * p$  dimensions),  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p)$  is the vector of regression coefficients;  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)$  is the vector of errors;  $N_n$  represents the  $n$ -variable multivariate-normal distribution;  $\mathbf{0}$  is an  $(n * 1)$  vector of zeroes; and  $\mathbf{I}_n$  is the order- $n$  identity matrix. The error term in this generalised format is a 'random' effect, in that its value is not a single number (it varies randomly with each value of  $i$ ), unlike those in the coefficient vector, which are fixed. In this way, the coefficients may be thought of as 'fixed' terms.

Mixed models, or ‘mixed effects’ models are similar to the model above, but include additional random effects terms, and are appropriate for representing clustered or dependent data (such as some categorical classification). For example, if some data has three levels of categorical data, rather than expressing a linear model for each of the three categories, these data are combined within the one model with random effects for those categories.

Using matrix notation, a generalised form of a mixed effects model is as follows:

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i\mathbf{b}_i + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i \quad (17)$$

$$\mathbf{b}_i \sim N_q(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}) \quad (18)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i) \quad (19)$$

where,

$\mathbf{y}_i$  is the  $n_i * 1$  response vector for observations in the  $i$ th group

$\mathbf{X}_i$  is the  $n_i * p$  model matrix for the fixed effects for observations in group  $i$

$\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is the  $p * 1$  model matrix for the fixed effects for observations in group  $i$

$\mathbf{Z}_i$  is the  $n_i * q$  model matrix for the random effects for observations in group  $i$

$\mathbf{b}_i$  is the  $q * 1$  vector of random-effect coefficients for group  $i$

$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$  is the  $n_i * 1$  vector of random-effect coefficients for group  $i$

$\boldsymbol{\Psi}$  is the  $q * q$  covariance matrix for the random effects

$\sigma^2\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i$  is the  $n_i * n_i$  covariance matrix for the errors in group  $i$ .

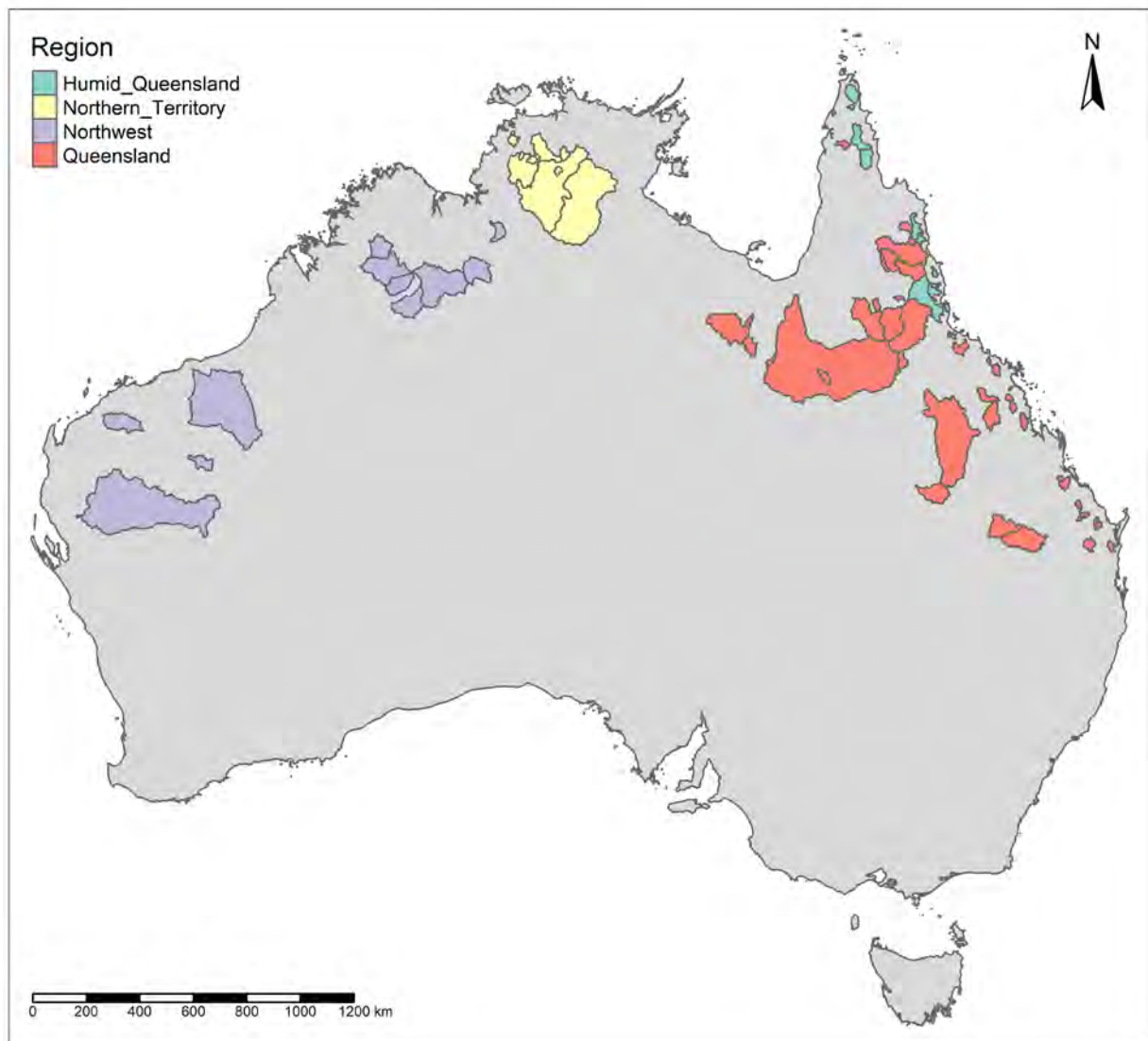
For this Assessment the mean runoff coefficient (Q/P) was calculated for 99 catchments across northern Australia. This was the response vector used for subsequent modelling. In each catchment, for the concurrent period of streamflow observation, mean aridity (ETo/P) was also calculated along with the mean regolith depth as the model matrix (fixed effects). Author defined ‘zones’ were also included as the grouping for random effects (Apx Figure B-3).

These groupings were included since there may be unknown regional influences on catchment hydrological response, including the jurisdiction responsible for collection of stream data. In Australia, state governments are the jurisdictions responsible for stream data collection and the state boundaries can be seen in Apx Figure B-1.

The distribution of data was skewed in most cases, and relationships between dependent and independent data were nonlinear. Accordingly, data were transformed and rescaled prior to model fitting.

Linear mixed models were fitted using R software (R Core Team, 2021) and the ‘lme4’ package (Bates et al., 2015). Noting that transformed and scaled independent variables for aridity and regolith depth were denoted ‘scaleArid’ and ‘scaleRocky’ respectively, while transformed and scaled runoff coefficient was denoted ‘scaleQcoef’. A linear model without any consideration of region (i.e. without random effects) was also considered for comparison. This model was denoted ‘multiple linear regression’, and results are shown for the two model versions in Apx Figure B-4.



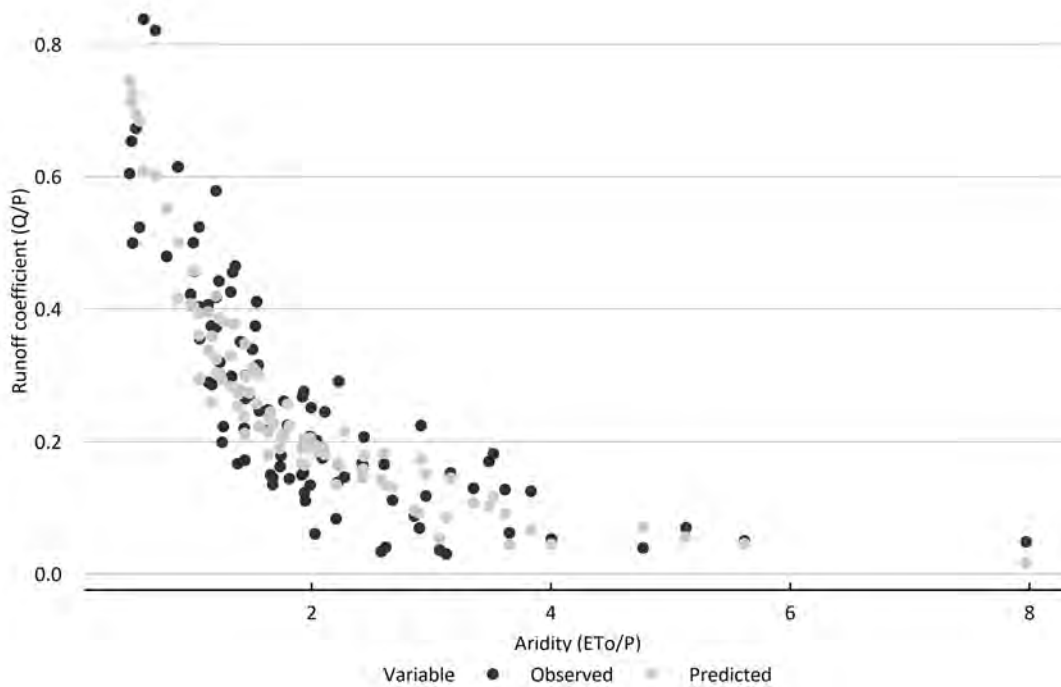


**Apx Figure B-3 Regional classification assigned to study catchments**

Comparison of the two models is not entirely simple since the methods use different measures of performance. Calculation of  $R^2$  for mixed effect predictions, at 0.80, is very similar to those from the multiple linear regression model (0.76). Further, the magnitude of random-effect category 'regions' variance is only 20% of the residual variance and is therefore of marginal benefit. The predicted and observed data from the linear mixed model can be seen in Apx Figure B-5. These data indicate that the general pattern of predicted runoff coefficient is good, although observed variance is obviously higher. An inconvenience of the linear mixed effects predictions is how difficult it is to understand the model uncertainty/confidence interval. For this reason, a Bayesian approach to prediction was also tested. This has the advantage of conveniently generating prediction ensembles that can be used to estimate uncertainty for each prediction.

	Multiple linear regression	Linear mixed model
R code	<code>lm(scaleQcoef ~ scaleArid + scaleRocky, data = ...)</code>	<code>lmer(scaleQcoef ~ scaleArid + scaleRocky + (1 region), data = ...)</code>
Results	<pre> ===== Dependent variable: ----- Runoff coefficient ----- Aridity      -0.810***               (0.053) Regolith depth -0.150***               (0.053) Constant      0.000               (0.049) ----- Observations    99 R2              0.763 Adjusted R2     0.758 Residual Std. Error 0.492 (df = 96) F Statistic    154.302*** (df = 2; 96) ===== Note: *p&lt;0.1; **p&lt;0.05; ***p&lt;0.01 </pre>	<pre> ===== Dependent variable: ----- Runoff coefficient ----- Aridity      -0.742***               (0.068) Regolith depth -0.153***               (0.054) Constant      0.043               (0.124) ----- Observations    99 Log Likelihood -69.760 Akaike Inf. Crit. 149.521 Bayesian Inf. Crit. 162.497 ===== Note: *p&lt;0.1; **p&lt;0.05; ***p&lt;0.01 </pre>

**Apx Figure B-4 A comparison of a multiple linear regression model and a linear mixed effects model of the catchment data**



**Apx Figure B-5 Observed and predicted runoff coefficient for study catchments using a linear mixed effects model**

## B.2.2 Bayesian regression

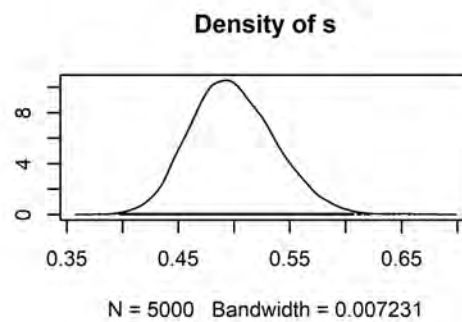
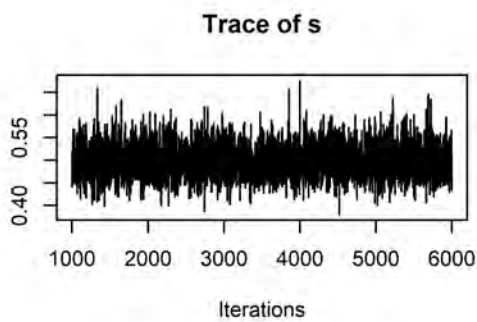
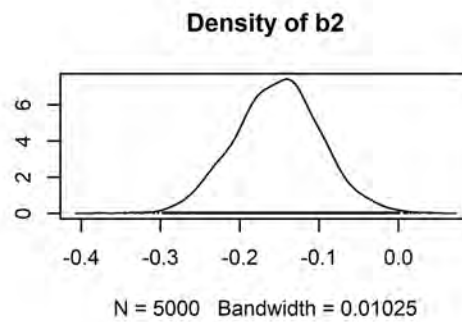
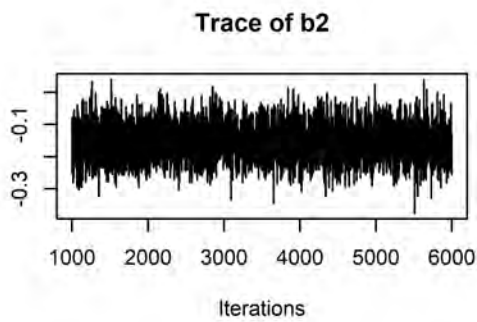
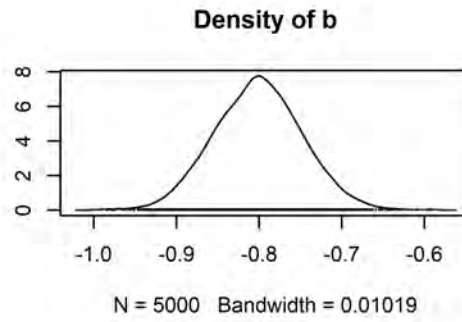
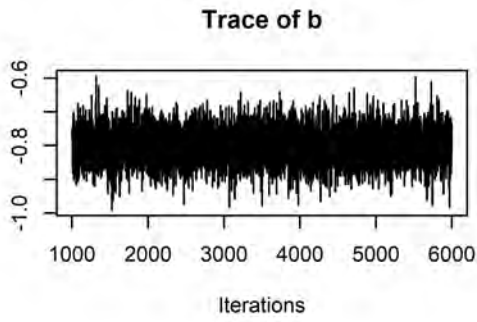
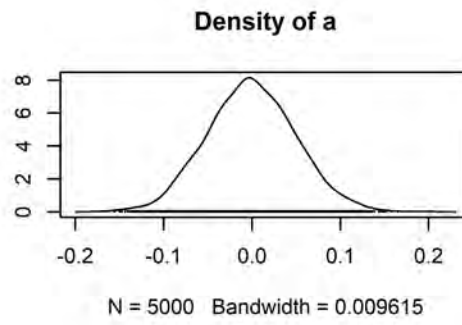
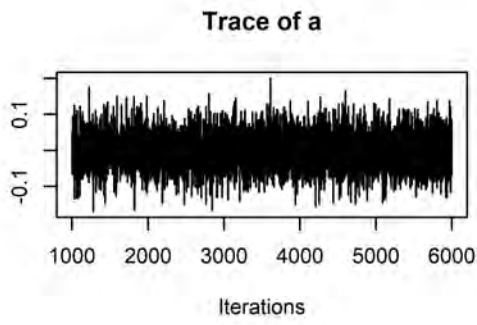
A Bayesian model of runoff coefficient was run and compiled in R software using the 'rjags' package (Plummer, 2022). R code to build the model using rjags format is shown in Apx Figure B-6.

```
multi_model <- "model{
  # Likelihood model for Y[i]
  for(i in 1:length(Y)) {
    Y[i] ~ dnorm(m[i], s^(-2))
    m[i] <- a + b * X[i] + b2 * X2[i]
  }
  # Prior models for a, b, s
  a ~ dnorm(0.0, 1.5^(-2))
  b ~ dnorm(0, 0.5^(-2))
  b2 ~ dnorm(0, 0.5^(-2))
  s ~ dunif(0, 1.2)
}"
```

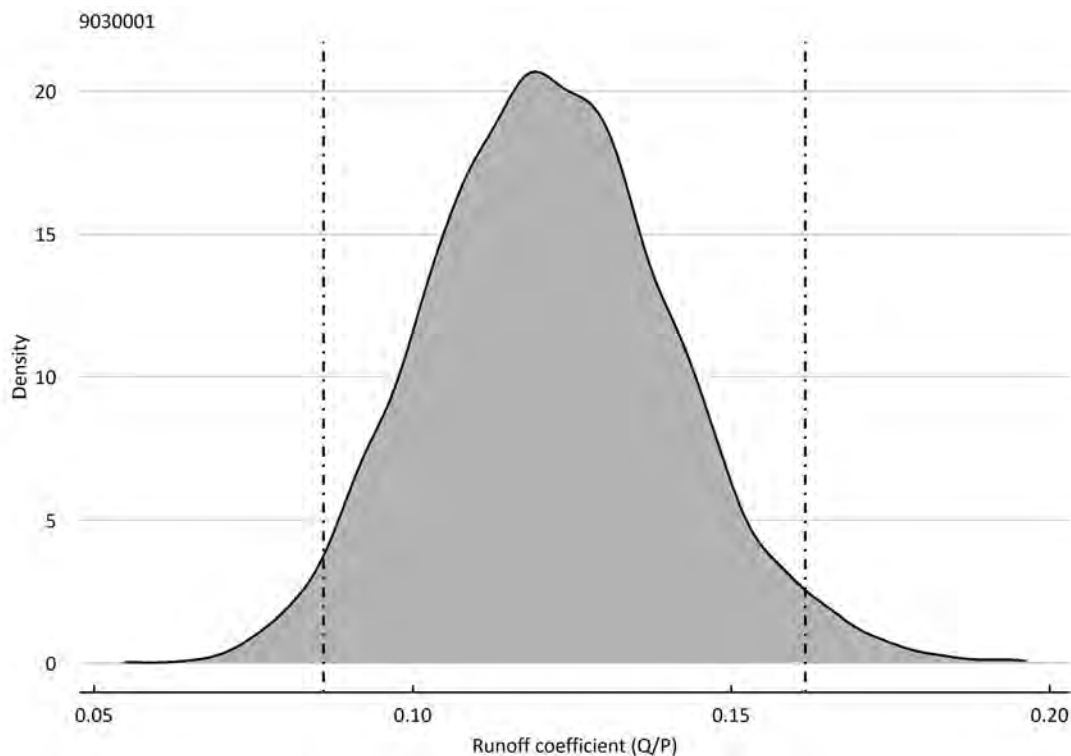
**Apx Figure B-6 R code to build the model using rjags**

This regression uses the same data and model terms as the multiple linear regression, with the exception being that the Bayesian method includes an error estimate for which parameter distributions are estimated. Similarly, distributions are derived for model covariates which enables for posterior prediction estimates, one of the strengths of the method. The rjags method uses a Gibbs sampler to generate the posterior estimates. The Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains were run for 5000 iterations after a burn in of 1000 iterations. These exhibited good mixing properties and posterior parameter values at peak density were similar to the estimates obtained by the linear mixed effects model (Apx Figure C-7). Using the model and ensemble of posterior parameter estimates, an estimate of mean runoff coefficient could be made for any location in northern Australia where climate and regolith depth data were available (Apx Table B-2). An example of this can be seen in Apx Figure B-8.

The method allows predictions of mean runoff coefficient to be made in ungauged locations and can also be used to estimate future climate runoff coefficient (where the future climate is within range of calibration data) and provides uncertainty estimates for each of those predictions.



**Apx Figure B-7 Parameter MCMC trace and posterior parameter estimates for runoff coefficient regression model**



**ApX Figure B-8** An example of posterior runoff coefficient estimates for a catchment independent of the training dataset. Vertical dashed lines bound the 95% prediction interval

### B.3 References

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**Apx Table B-1 Gauge data properties**

ID	NAME	LATITUDE	LONGITUDE	START DATE	END DATE	LENGTH (YEARS)	TOTAL DAYS AVAILABLE	TOTAL MISSING DAYS	TOTAL MISSING (%)
3303	Barcoo_R Blackall	-24.4268	145.4583	1969-09-01	2020-08-31	52	18622	6	0.03
105101	Battle Camp	-15.2816	144.8387	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18909	84	0.44
105102	Laura_R Coal Seam Ck	-15.6137	144.4848	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18773	220	1.17
108002	Daintree_R Bairds	-16.1796	145.2819	1969-09-01	2020-08-31	52	18202	426	2.34
111005	The Fisheries	-17.1832	145.7248	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19277	82	0.43
111007	Mulgrave_R Peets Br	-17.1334	145.7646	1972-09-01	2020-08-31	49	17528	4	0.02
112002	Fisher_Ck Nerada	-17.5653	145.9062	1929-09-01	2020-08-31	92	33227	11	0.03
112101	US Central Mill	-17.6089	145.9791	1975-09-01	2020-08-31	46	16360	77	0.47
112102	Upper Japoonvale	-17.7147	145.9057	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	18256	7	0.04
113004	Powerline	-17.7396	145.6301	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19162	197	1.03
113006	Tully_R Euramo	-17.9921	145.9425	1972-09-01	2020-08-31	49	17332	200	1.15
114001	Murray_R Up Murray	-18.1069	145.8054	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	18256	7	0.04
116001	Herbert_R Ingham	-18.6372	146.1411	1915-09-01	2020-08-31	106	38335	17	0.04
116004	Herbert_R Cashmere	-18.1368	145.3395	1922-09-01	2020-08-31	99	35789	6	0.02
116006	Abergowrie College	-18.4900	145.8936	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18609	384	2.06
116010	Blencoe_Ck Falls	-18.2042	145.5371	1961-09-01	2020-08-31	60	21369	181	0.85
116011	Millstream Ravenshoe	-17.6046	145.4770	1960-09-01	2020-08-31	61	21558	357	1.66
116013	Millstream Archer Ck	-17.6523	145.3409	1962-09-01	2020-08-31	59	21172	13	0.06
116014	Wild_R Silver Valley	-17.6266	145.2959	1962-09-01	2020-08-31	59	21184	1	0.00
116015	Blunder_Ck Wooroora	-17.7371	145.4363	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19359	0	0.00
117002	Black_R Bruce Hwy	-19.2377	146.6329	1973-09-01	2020-08-31	48	17165	2	0.01
117003	Bluewater	-19.1833	146.5469	1974-09-01	2020-08-31	47	14331	2471	17.24
118106	Alligator Allendale	-19.3866	146.9579	1975-09-01	2020-08-31	46	16437	0	0.00
119003	Houghton_R Powerline	-19.6331	147.1103	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	18263	0	0.00
120102	Keelbottom	-19.3714	146.3612	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19279	80	0.41



ID	NAME	LATITUDE	LONGITUDE	START DATE	END DATE	LENGTH (YEARS)	TOTAL DAYS AVAILABLE	TOTAL MISSING DAYS	TOTAL MISSING (%)
120110	Mt Fullstop	-19.2073	145.4950	1965-09-01	2020-08-31	56	20085	4	0.02
120301	Mt. Douglas	-21.5192	146.8685	1949-09-01	2020-08-31	72	23366	2567	10.99
120304	Suttor_R Eaglefield	-21.4504	147.7143	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19294	65	0.34
121002	Elliot_R Guthalunga	-19.9333	147.8407	1973-09-01	2020-08-31	48	17167	0	0.00
121003	Don_R Reeves	-20.1493	148.1555	1984-09-01	2020-08-31	37	13149	0	0.00
122004	Lower Gregory	-20.3004	148.5484	1973-09-01	2020-08-31	48	17157	10	0.06
124002	St.Helens_Ck Calen	-20.9058	148.7597	1973-09-01	2020-08-31	48	17166	1	0.01
125005	Blacks_Ck Whitefords	-21.3228	148.8351	1974-09-01	2020-08-31	47	16802	0	0.00
126003	Carmila_Ck Carmila	-21.9157	149.3986	1974-09-01	2020-08-31	47	16798	4	0.02
129001	Waterpark_Ck Byfield	-22.8350	150.6659	1952-09-01	2020-08-31	69	23995	842	3.51
130004	Raglan_Ck Old Stn	-23.8191	150.8206	1964-09-01	2020-08-31	57	20452	2	0.01
130302	Dawson_RTaroom	-25.6377	149.7896	1911-09-01	2020-08-31	110	39808	5	0.01
130324	Dawson_R Utopia Dns	-25.7447	149.3299	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19721	3	0.02
130403	Connors Mt Bridget	-22.0357	149.1315	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19711	13	0.07
130410	Isaac_R_Deverill	-22.1708	148.3842	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18931	62	0.33
130413	Denison_Ck_Braeside	-21.7694	148.7866	1972-09-01	2020-08-31	49	17532	0	0.00
132001	Calliope Castlehope	-23.9850	151.0976	1939-09-01	2020-08-31	82	29584	2	0.01
135002	Kolan_R Springfield	-24.7533	151.5872	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19724	0	0.00
135004	Gin Gin_Ck Brushy Ck	-24.9686	151.8919	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19723	1	0.01
136006	Reid_C Mungy	-25.2731	151.5173	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19719	5	0.03
136208	Boonara_Ck Ettiewyn	-25.9028	151.8438	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18993	0	0.00
137101	Gregory River	-25.0862	152.2405	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19235	489	2.54
137201	Isis River Bruce Hwy	-25.2666	152.3684	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	19723	1	0.01
138903	Tinana_C Bauple East	-25.8203	152.7222	1981-09-01	2020-08-31	40	14245	0	0.00
704193	Fishy Pool	-24.9438	114.6404	1964-09-01	2020-08-31	57	20454	0	0.00
707002	Yarraloola	-21.6162	115.9225	1972-09-01	2020-08-31	49	17532	0	0.00

ID	NAME	LATITUDE	LONGITUDE	START DATE	END DATE	LENGTH (YEARS)	TOTAL DAYS AVAILABLE	TOTAL MISSING DAYS	TOTAL MISSING (%)
708011	Newman	-23.4014	119.7943	1980-09-01	2020-08-31	41	14608	2	0.01
710003	Coolenar Pool	-20.3114	119.2490	1975-09-01	2020-08-31	46	15360	1077	7.01
802137	Dimond Gorge	-17.6722	126.0278	1963-09-01	2020-08-31	58	20531	289	1.41
802198	Me No Savvy	-18.4497	126.5935	1966-09-01	2020-08-31	55	18874	850	4.50
802202	Mt Winifred	-18.0152	126.3106	1965-09-01	2020-08-31	56	17819	2270	12.74
802213	Phillips Range	-16.8715	126.0511	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19021	338	1.78
809310	Bedford Downs	-17.4259	127.6001	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	17893	1100	6.15
809315	Homestead	-17.1768	129.0924	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	17966	297	1.65
809316	Old Ord Homestead	-17.3726	128.8546	1971-09-01	2020-08-31	50	17062	836	4.90
912105	Riversleigh	-18.9694	138.8041	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18030	963	5.34
913006	Gunpowder	-19.6878	139.3607	1971-09-01	2020-08-31	50	17714	184	1.04
913010	16 Mile Waterhole	-18.8769	139.3605	1973-09-01	2019-08-31	47	16297	504	3.09
915003	Walkers Bend	-18.1617	140.8582	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	17758	505	2.84
915013	Flinders_R Glendower	-20.7105	144.5268	1973-09-01	2012-08-31	40	13514	731	5.41
915206	Dugald_R Rail Xing	-20.2008	140.2247	1970-09-01	2020-08-31	51	17202	1061	6.17
915208	Julia_Ck	-20.6561	141.7611	1971-09-01	2020-08-31	50	16986	912	5.37
917001	Forest Home	-18.2538	143.0838	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	18259	1100	6.02
917104	Etheridge_R Roseglen	-18.3064	143.5790	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	18148	1211	6.67
917106	Einasleigh	-18.5002	144.0959	1967-09-01	2020-08-31	54	19040	319	1.68
917107	Mt Surprise	-18.1336	144.3065	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18103	890	4.92
919003	Mitchell_R OK Br	-16.4708	144.2894	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18192	801	4.40
919011	Mitchell_R Gamboola	-16.5345	143.6772	1972-09-01	2020-08-31	49	17095	437	2.56
919201	Palmer_R Goldfields	-16.1076	144.7777	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	17967	1026	5.71
919309	Walsh_R Trimbles	-16.5469	143.7828	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18429	564	3.06
919310	Walsh_R Rookwood	-16.9823	144.2887	1968-09-01	2020-08-31	53	18872	121	0.64
922001	Archer_R Tele Xing	-13.4176	142.9207	1969-09-01	2020-08-31	52	18235	393	2.16

ID	NAME	LATITUDE	LONGITUDE	START DATE	END DATE	LENGTH (YEARS)	TOTAL DAYS AVAILABLE	TOTAL MISSING DAYS	TOTAL MISSING (%)
923001	Watson_R Jackin Ck	-13.1280	142.0526	1973-09-01	2020-08-31	48	15266	1901	12.45
925001	Wenlock_R Moreton	-12.4540	142.6392	1958-09-01	2020-08-31	63	21481	1165	5.42
926002	Dulhunty_R Dougs Pad	-11.8327	142.4220	1971-09-01	2020-08-31	50	17547	351	2.00
927001	Jardine_R Tele Line	-11.1518	142.3549	1969-09-01	2020-08-31	52	18235	393	2.16
8110004	East Baines US Hwy	-15.7651	130.0313	1963-09-01	2019-08-31	57	19039	1415	7.43
8140001	Kath Railway Bg	-14.4623	132.2570	1957-09-01	2019-08-31	63	20503	2142	10.45
8140008	Fergusson R	-14.0709	131.9774	1957-09-01	2019-08-31	63	20257	2388	11.79
8140040	Daly R Mt Nancar	-13.8297	130.7352	1967-09-01	2019-08-31	53	17862	1131	6.33
8140063	Douglas DS Hst	-13.7971	131.3400	1958-09-01	2019-08-31	62	21755	525	2.41
8140067	Daly US Dorisvale X	-14.3654	131.5740	1957-09-01	2020-08-31	64	20549	2462	11.98
8140159	Waterfall View	-14.2835	132.3994	1963-09-01	2019-08-31	57	19272	1182	6.13
8140161	Green Ant C Tip	-13.7381	131.1023	1966-09-01	2019-08-31	54	16778	2580	15.38
8150098	Blackmore R	-12.7736	130.9450	1959-09-01	2019-08-31	61	19485	2430	12.47
8150180	Gitchams Xng	-12.9695	130.7624	1961-09-01	2019-08-31	59	20414	770	3.77
8170066	Coomalie C	-13.0136	131.1229	1958-09-01	2019-08-31	62	20110	2170	10.79
8180026	El Sherana Rd Xng	-13.6012	132.2201	1961-09-01	2010-08-31	50	16752	1145	6.84
8180035	Mary R / Mt Bunday	-12.9061	131.6466	1957-09-01	2013-08-31	57	19648	806	4.10
8180069	Burrundie Mckinlay R	-13.5319	131.7179	1958-09-01	2009-08-31	52	17545	1083	6.17
8200045	South Gator River 2	-13.5253	132.5218	1958-09-01	2009-08-31	52	17577	1051	5.98
9030089	Waterhouse R Rd Bg	-14.5628	133.1059	1973-09-01	2019-08-31	47	14453	2348	16.25
9030176	Roper R DS Mataranka	-14.9434	133.2075	1961-09-01	2019-08-31	59	19684	1500	7.62
9030250	Roper R /Red Rock	-14.6968	134.4216	1966-09-01	2019-08-31	54	16775	2583	15.40

**Apx Table B-2 Catchment mean aridity, regolith depth, regional group, observed runoff coefficient and mean predicted runoff coefficient with standard deviation calculated from Bayesian posterior estimates**

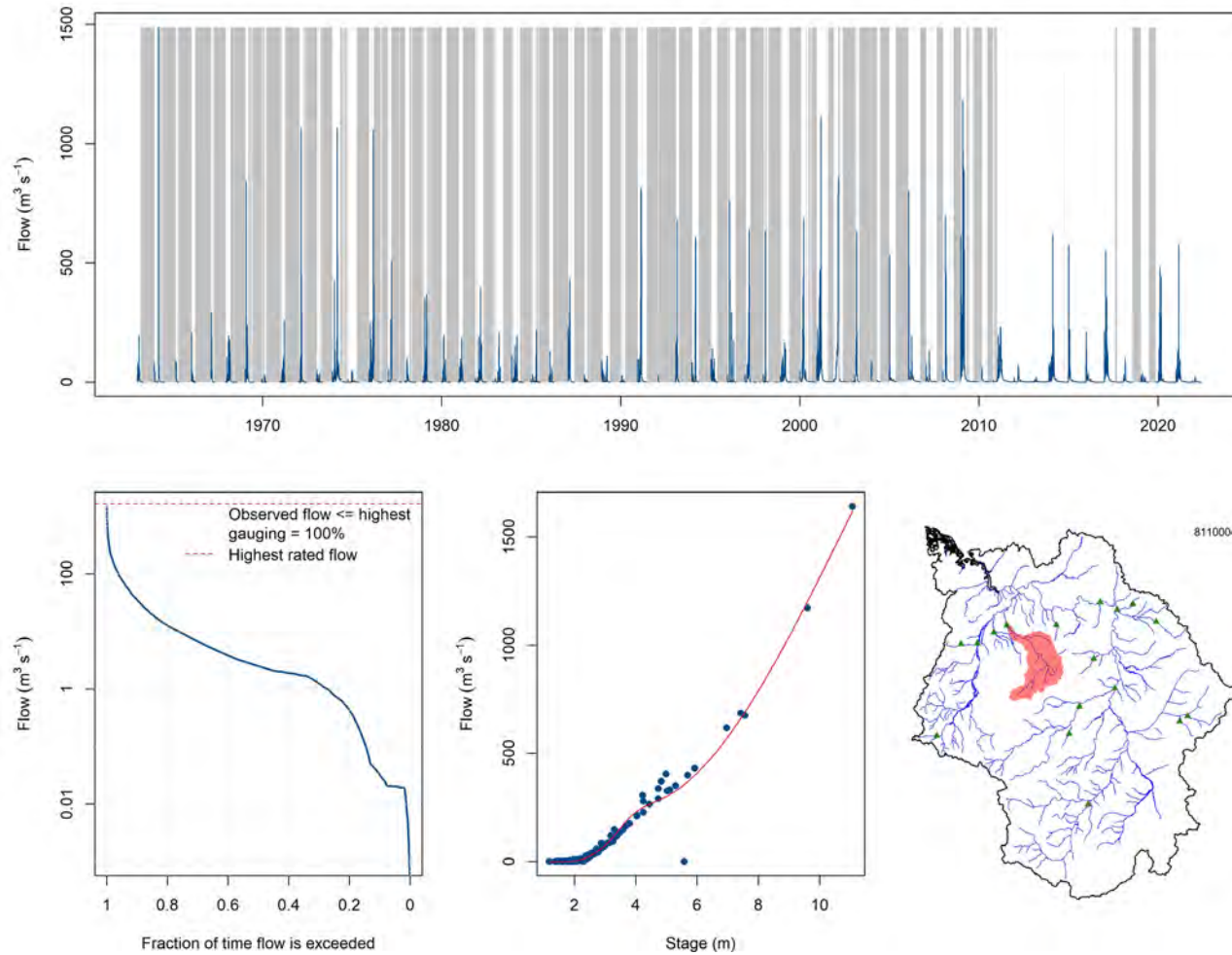
ID	ARIDITY	REGOLITH DEPTH (m)	REGION	OBSERVED QCOEF	MEAN PREDICTED QCOEF	PREDICTED STANDARD DEVIATION
3303	3.13	14.40	qld	0.030	0.096	0.0087
105101	1.26	6.04	hqld	0.223	0.335	0.0118
105102	1.77	7.27	qld	0.262	0.238	0.0087
108002	0.79	3.00	hqld	0.479	0.508	0.0228
111005	0.50	1.92	hqld	0.500	0.690	0.0360
111007	0.56	1.94	hqld	0.523	0.647	0.0328
112002	0.49	4.66	hqld	0.654	0.679	0.0353
112101	0.53	2.97	hqld	0.673	0.660	0.0336
112102	0.48	2.36	hqld	0.605	0.710	0.0375
113004	0.69	1.99	hqld	0.821	0.561	0.0268
113006	0.59	8.67	hqld	0.838	0.572	0.0296
114001	0.88	4.51	hqld	0.615	0.457	0.0189
116001	1.53	9.83	hqld	0.374	0.262	0.0092
116004	1.80	11.76	hqld	0.225	0.213	0.0090
116006	1.55	10.01	hqld	0.315	0.257	0.0091
116010	1.22	6.60	hqld	0.442	0.341	0.0119
116011	0.99	13.38	hqld	0.422	0.366	0.0198
116013	1.13	8.80	hqld	0.406	0.351	0.0130
116014	1.44	5.22	hqld	0.265	0.301	0.0113
116015	1.02	4.22	hqld	0.456	0.412	0.0165
117002	1.51	9.68	hqld	0.339	0.267	0.0093
117003	1.20	2.12	hqld	0.579	0.373	0.0169
118106	1.36	2.96	hqld	0.465	0.330	0.0146
119003	1.92	8.24	qld	0.268	0.213	0.0081
120102	1.34	3.79	hqld	0.456	0.330	0.0135
120110	2.43	8.16	qld	0.156	0.162	0.0084
120301	3.07	27.27	qld	0.036	0.064	0.0157
120304	2.86	15.05	qld	0.088	0.108	0.0093
121002	2.22	7.50	qld	0.291	0.183	0.0086
121003	2.00	6.16	qld	0.196	0.213	0.0095
122004	1.06	3.22	qld	0.524	0.406	0.0170
124002	0.88	3.02	qld	0.615	0.470	0.0204
125005	1.14	3.71	qld	0.290	0.380	0.0153
126003	1.20	3.34	qld	0.373	0.365	0.0152
129001	1.06	14.76	qld	0.355	0.336	0.0199
130004	1.95	5.97	qld	0.111	0.220	0.0096
130302	2.62	7.68	qld	0.040	0.149	0.0089
130324	2.58	6.29	qld	0.034	0.157	0.0098
130403	1.54	4.04	qld	0.411	0.289	0.0123
130410	2.90	15.54	qld	0.070	0.104	0.0095
130413	1.64	5.31	qld	0.245	0.266	0.0105

ID	ARIDITY	REGOLITH DEPTH (m)	REGION	OBSERVED QCOEF	MEAN PREDICTED QCOEF	PREDICTED STANDARD DEVIATION
132001	1.93	7.22	qld	0.153	0.217	0.0086
135002	1.66	3.23	qld	0.150	0.274	0.0132
135004	1.81	3.26	qld	0.144	0.250	0.0129
136006	1.99	3.16	qld	0.135	0.228	0.0130
136208	2.03	4.61	qld	0.061	0.217	0.0111
137101	1.67	6.73	qld	0.136	0.254	0.0092
137201	1.67	6.13	qld	0.146	0.257	0.0097
138903	1.25	6.94	qld	0.200	0.332	0.0114
704193	7.97	14.20	nw	0.049	0.006	0.0039
707002	4.77	10.77	nw	0.040	0.049	0.0080
708011	5.62	13.50	nw	0.050	0.028	0.0068
710003	5.13	13.14	nw	0.070	0.036	0.0073
802137	2.44	10.84	nw	0.207	0.151	0.0079
802198	3.52	9.39	nw	0.182	0.092	0.0087
802202	2.91	3.51	nw	0.225	0.144	0.0127
802213	2.09	14.86	nw	0.176	0.167	0.0106
809310	2.60	6.50	nw	0.166	0.155	0.0097
809315	2.95	8.29	nw	0.118	0.125	0.0089
809316	3.16	6.98	nw	0.153	0.117	0.0098
912105	3.83	11.51	qld	0.125	0.074	0.0082
913006	3.61	5.44	qld	0.128	0.100	0.0110
913010	3.35	3.67	qld	0.130	0.118	0.0126
915003	3.65	23.38	qld	0.062	0.052	0.0115
915013	2.67	7.42	qld	0.112	0.146	0.0091
915206	3.48	3.18	qld	0.170	0.113	0.0130
915208	4.00	18.95	qld	0.053	0.051	0.0091
917001	2.43	4.73	qld	0.164	0.176	0.0112
917104	2.11	5.83	qld	0.245	0.202	0.0098
917106	2.42	7.31	qld	0.168	0.166	0.0089
917107	2.22	6.81	qld	0.139	0.187	0.0091
919003	1.93	4.36	qld	0.276	0.230	0.0114
919011	1.98	7.13	qld	0.208	0.211	0.0087
919201	1.48	2.87	qld	0.269	0.307	0.0142
919309	2.04	6.49	qld	0.202	0.207	0.0092
919310	1.99	4.15	qld	0.252	0.223	0.0117
922001	1.32	12.53	hqld	0.426	0.286	0.0131
923001	1.16	17.38	qld	0.374	0.298	0.0217
925001	1.17	13.61	hqld	0.286	0.316	0.0166
926002	1.06	12.32	hqld	0.403	0.351	0.0170
927001	1.01	12.92	hqld	0.500	0.362	0.0187
8110004	2.27	5.55	nw	0.146	0.187	0.0102
8140001	1.63	13.39	nt	0.248	0.228	0.0113
8140008	1.56	13.56	nt	0.247	0.239	0.0120

ID	ARIDITY	REGOLITH DEPTH (m)	REGION	OBSERVED QCOEF	MEAN PREDICTED QCOEF	PREDICTED STANDARD DEVIATION
8140040	1.73	15.99	nt	0.163	0.203	0.0134
8140063	1.44	14.39	nt	0.220	0.256	0.0140
8140067	1.92	16.70	nt	0.150	0.178	0.0131
8140159	1.63	21.23	nt	0.217	0.194	0.0205
8140161	1.38	12.96	nt	0.167	0.273	0.0129
8150098	1.20	10.02	nt	0.417	0.327	0.0125
8150180	1.23	8.98	nt	0.319	0.325	0.0116
8170066	1.33	8.97	nt	0.298	0.304	0.0105
8180026	1.44	19.87	nt	0.172	0.229	0.0209
8180035	1.39	8.97	nt	0.273	0.292	0.0100
8180069	1.44	2.14	nt	0.299	0.317	0.0154
8200045	1.40	7.23	nt	0.351	0.298	0.0100
9030089	1.74	12.30	nt	0.179	0.218	0.0097
9030176	1.94	16.71	nt	0.123	0.175	0.0130
9030250	2.20	18.53	nt	0.084	0.143	0.0135

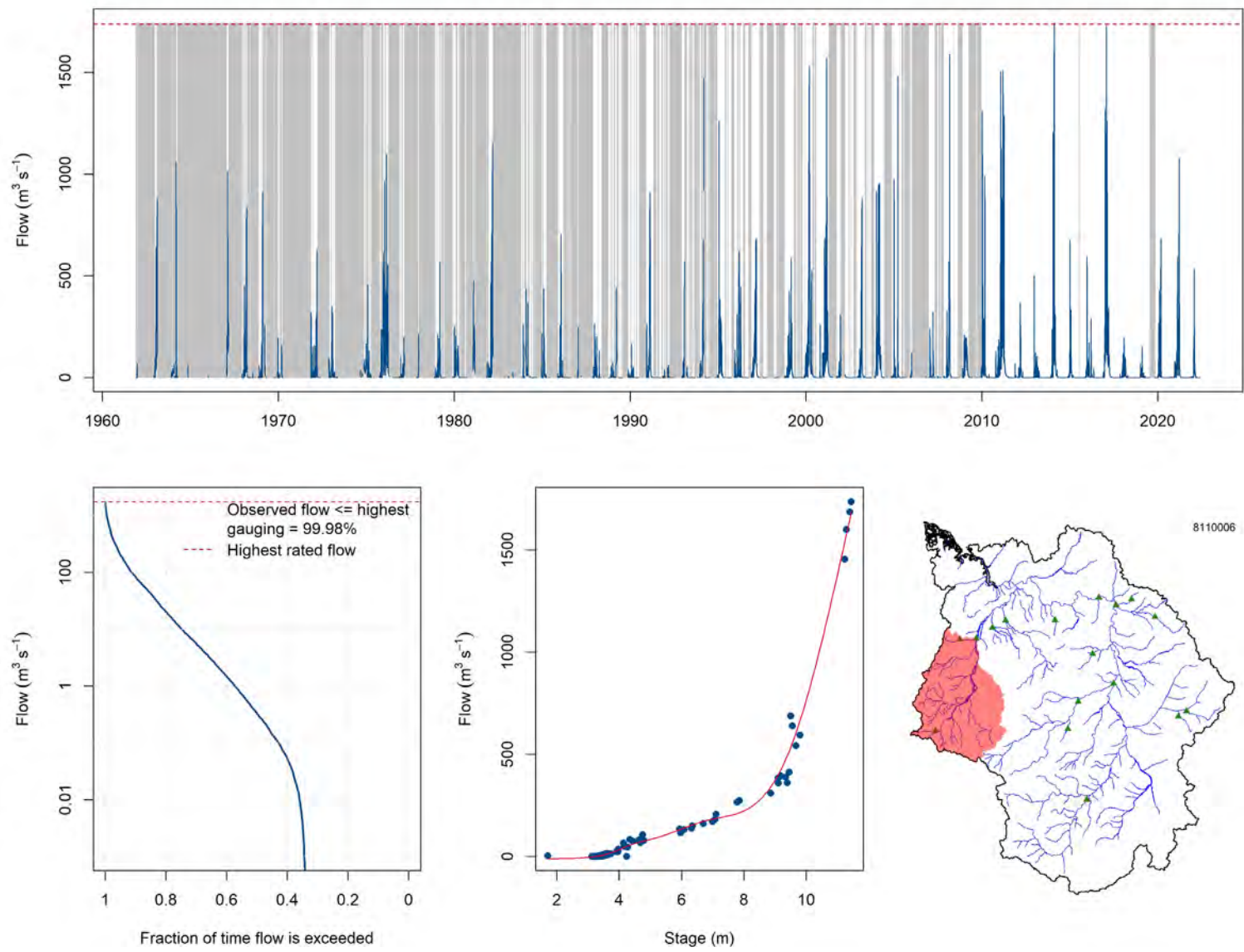
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## Appendix C Stream gauge data plots

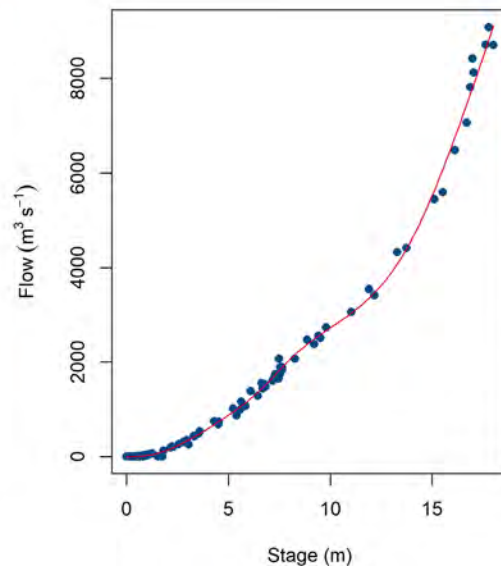
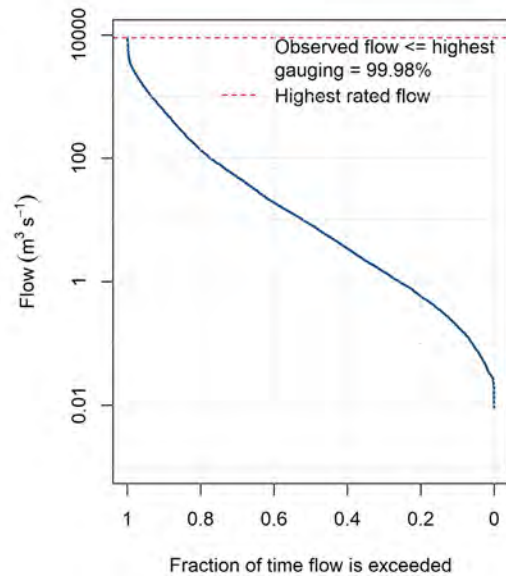
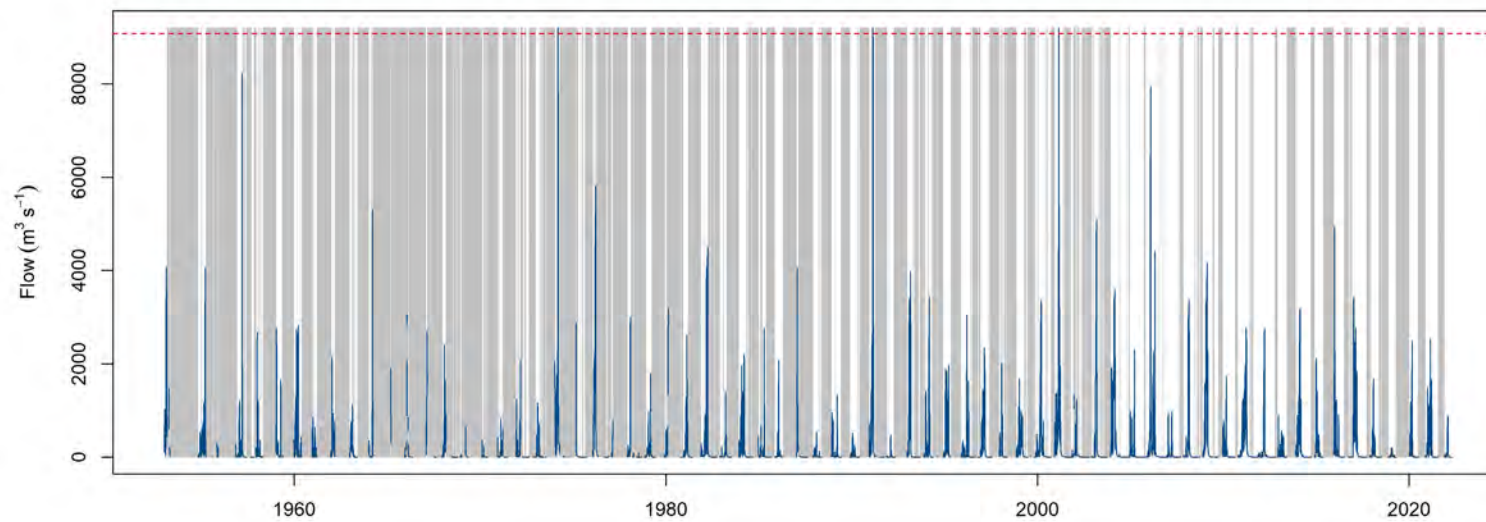


**Apx Figure C-1 Stream gauge data for site 8110004 (East Baines River at Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**

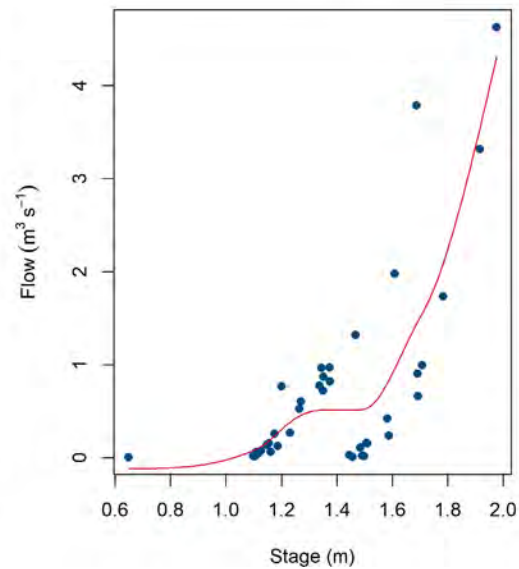
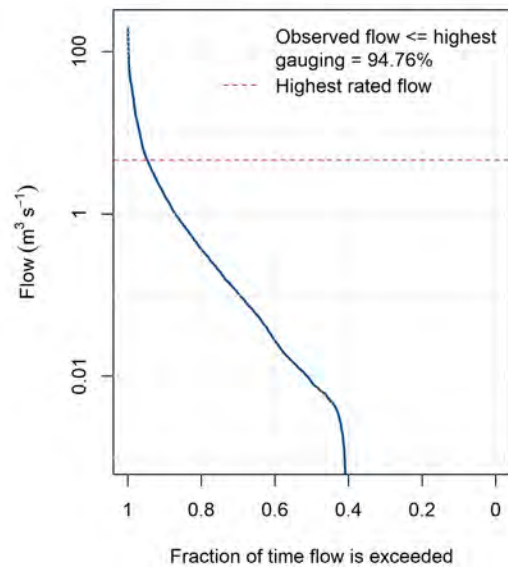
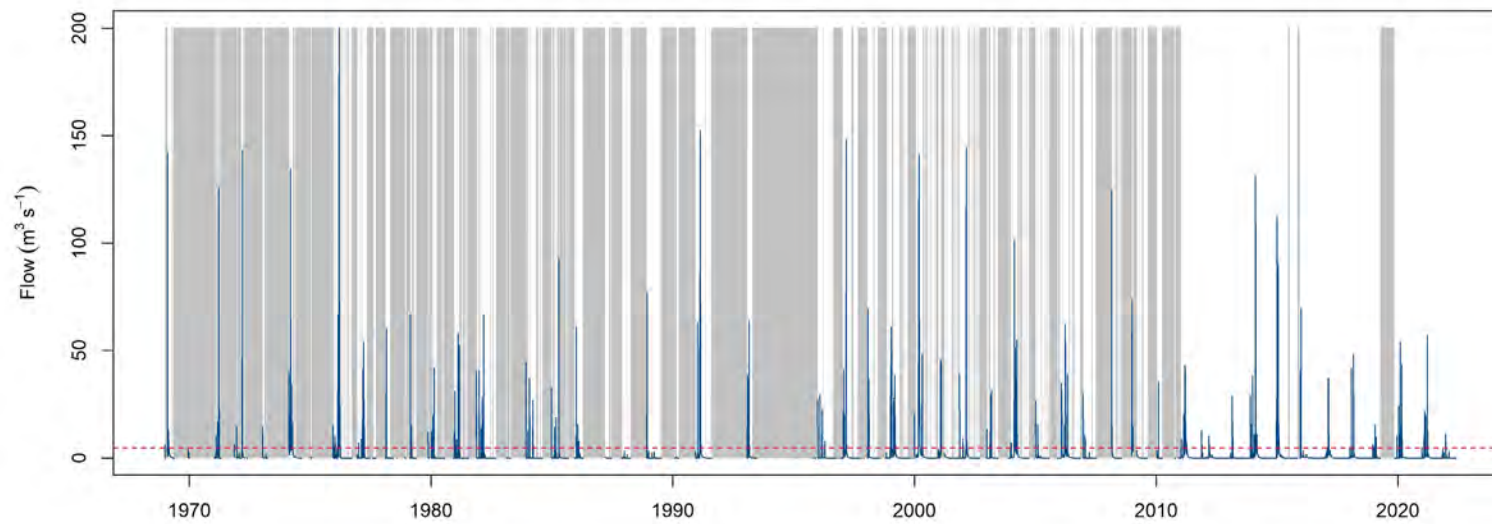




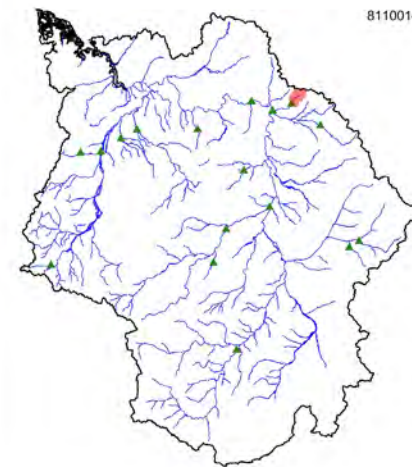
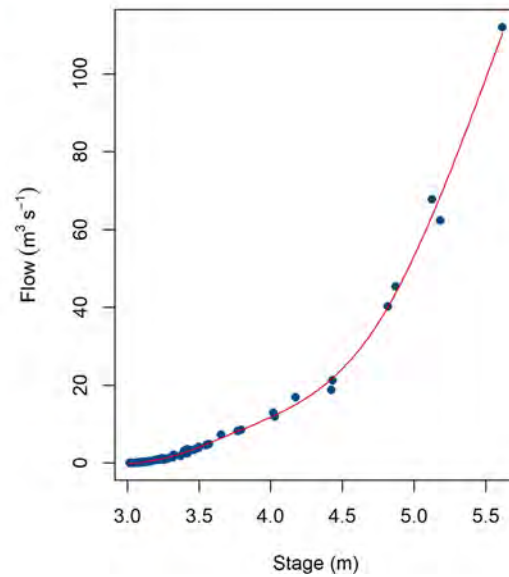
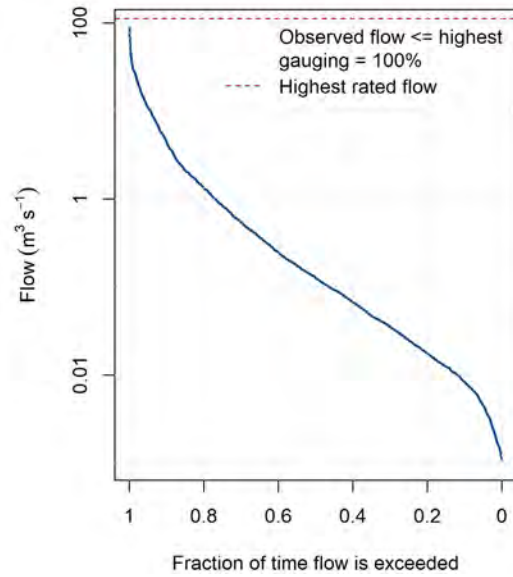
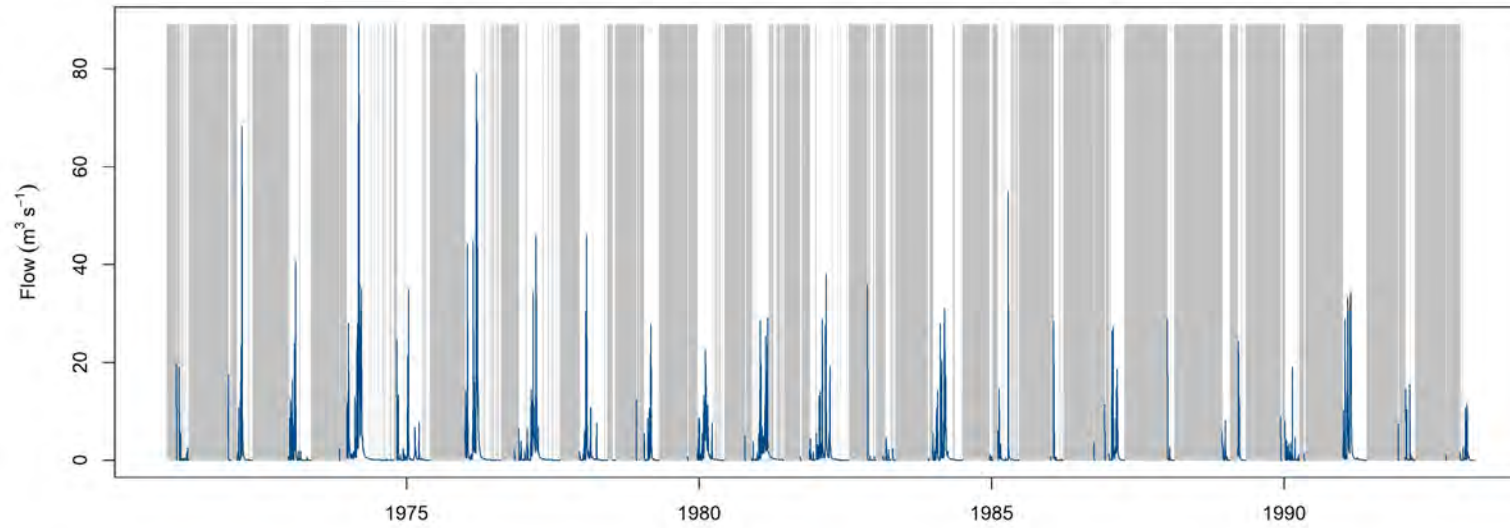
Apx Figure C-2 Stream gauge data for site 8110006 (West Baines River at Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



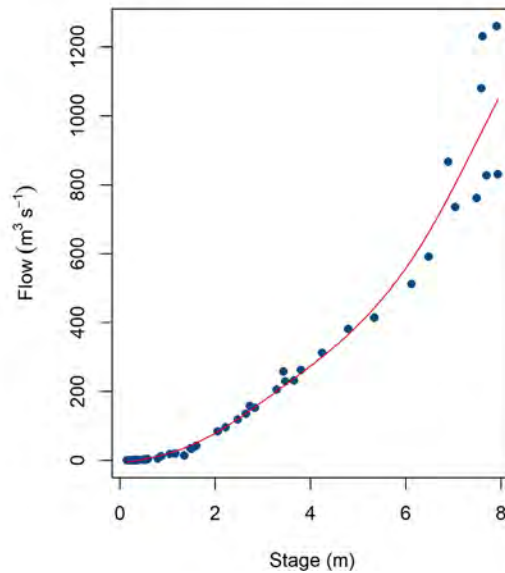
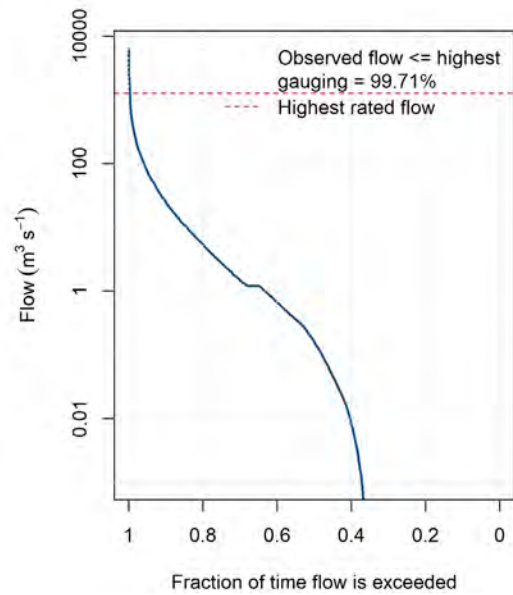
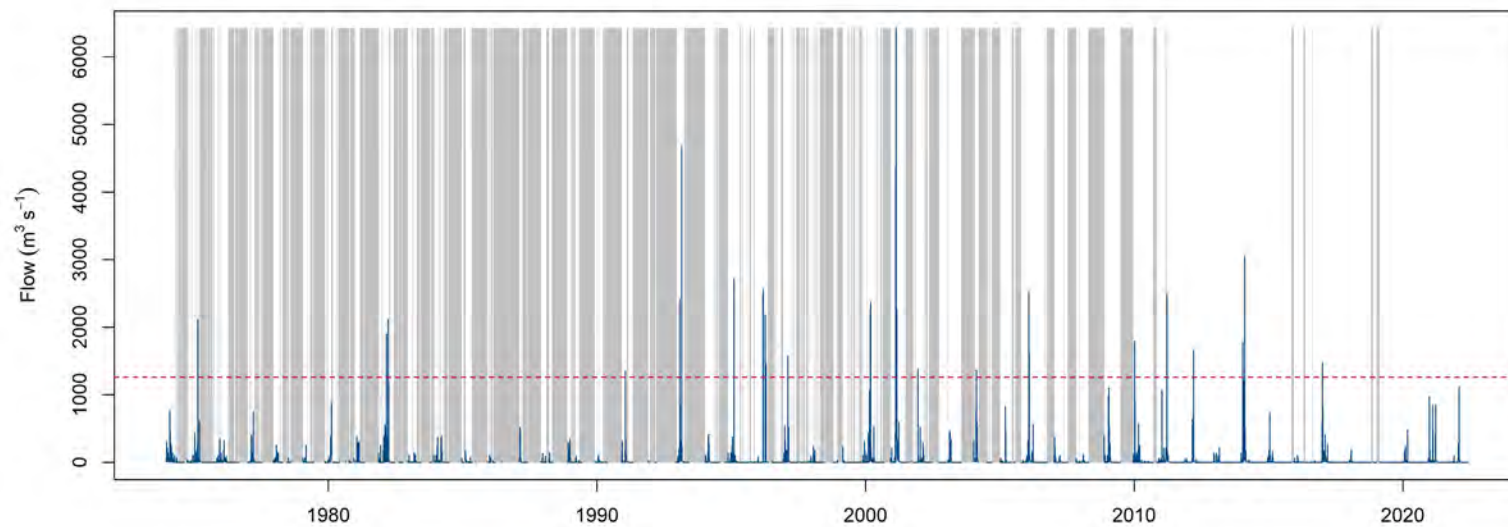
**Apx Figure C-3 Stream gauge data for site 8110007 (Victoria River at Coolibah Homestead). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**



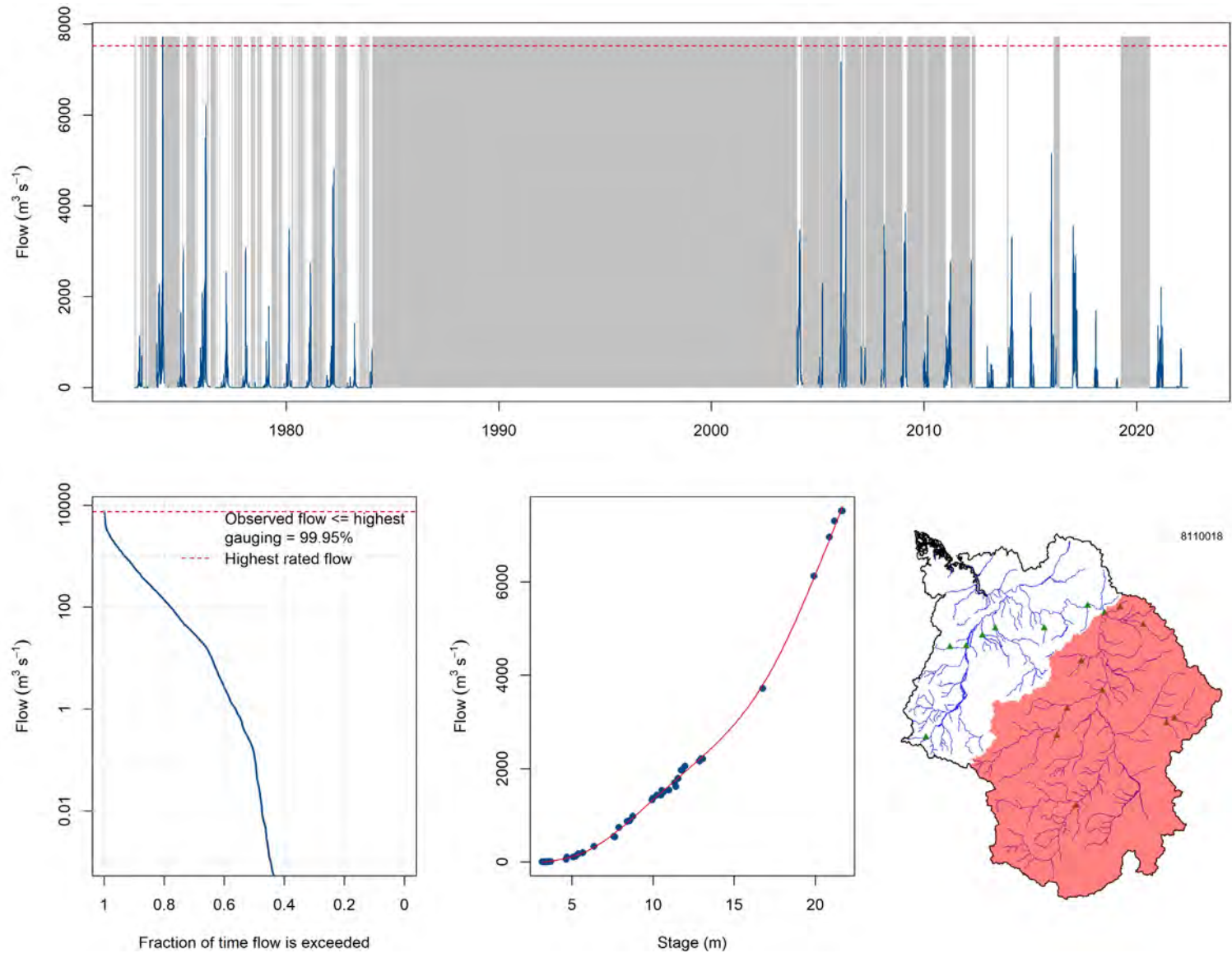
Apx Figure C-4 Stream gauge data for site 8110012 (Timber Creek upstream of Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



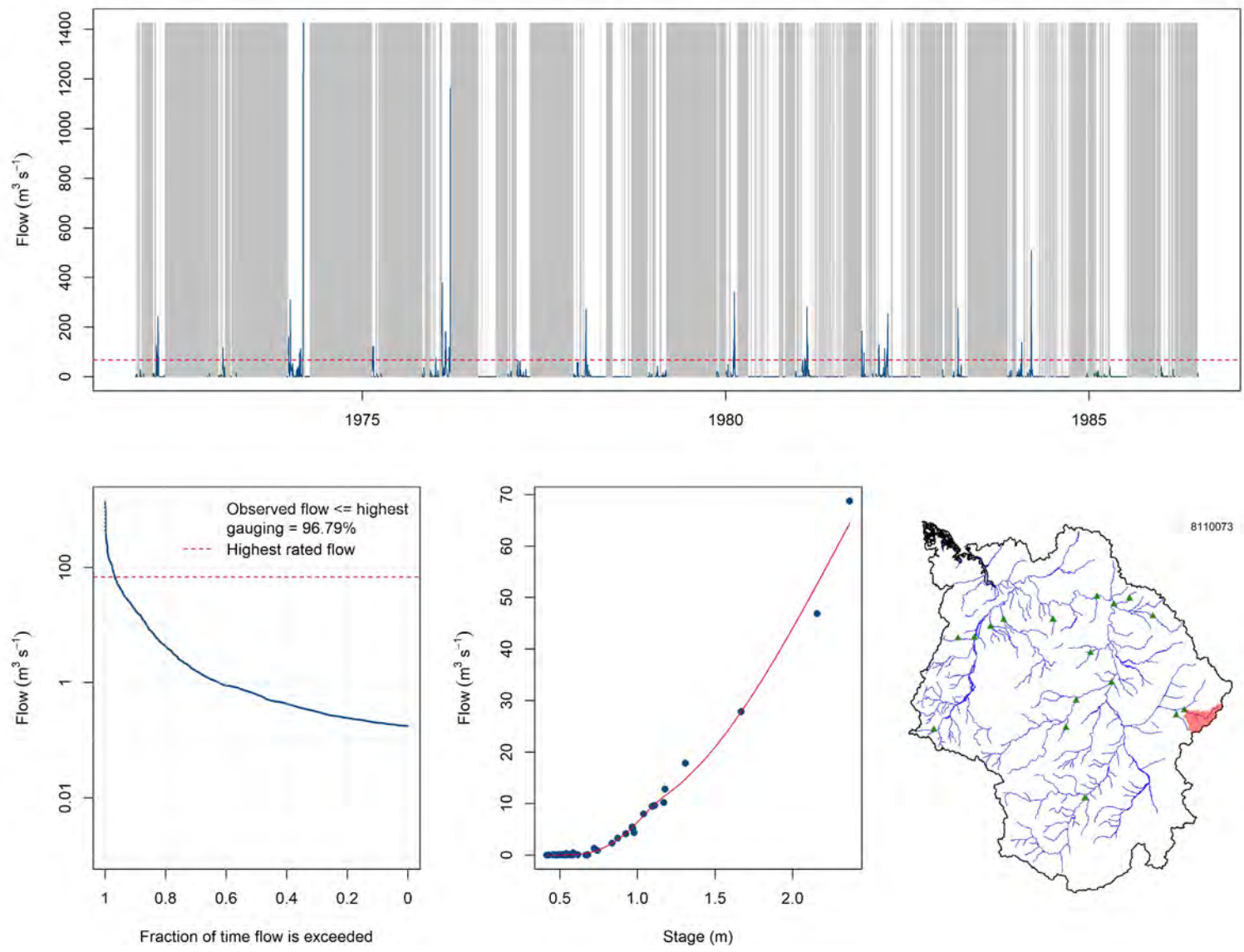
**Apx Figure C-5 Stream gauge data for site 8110014 (Sullivans Creek upstream of Fig Tree Yard). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**



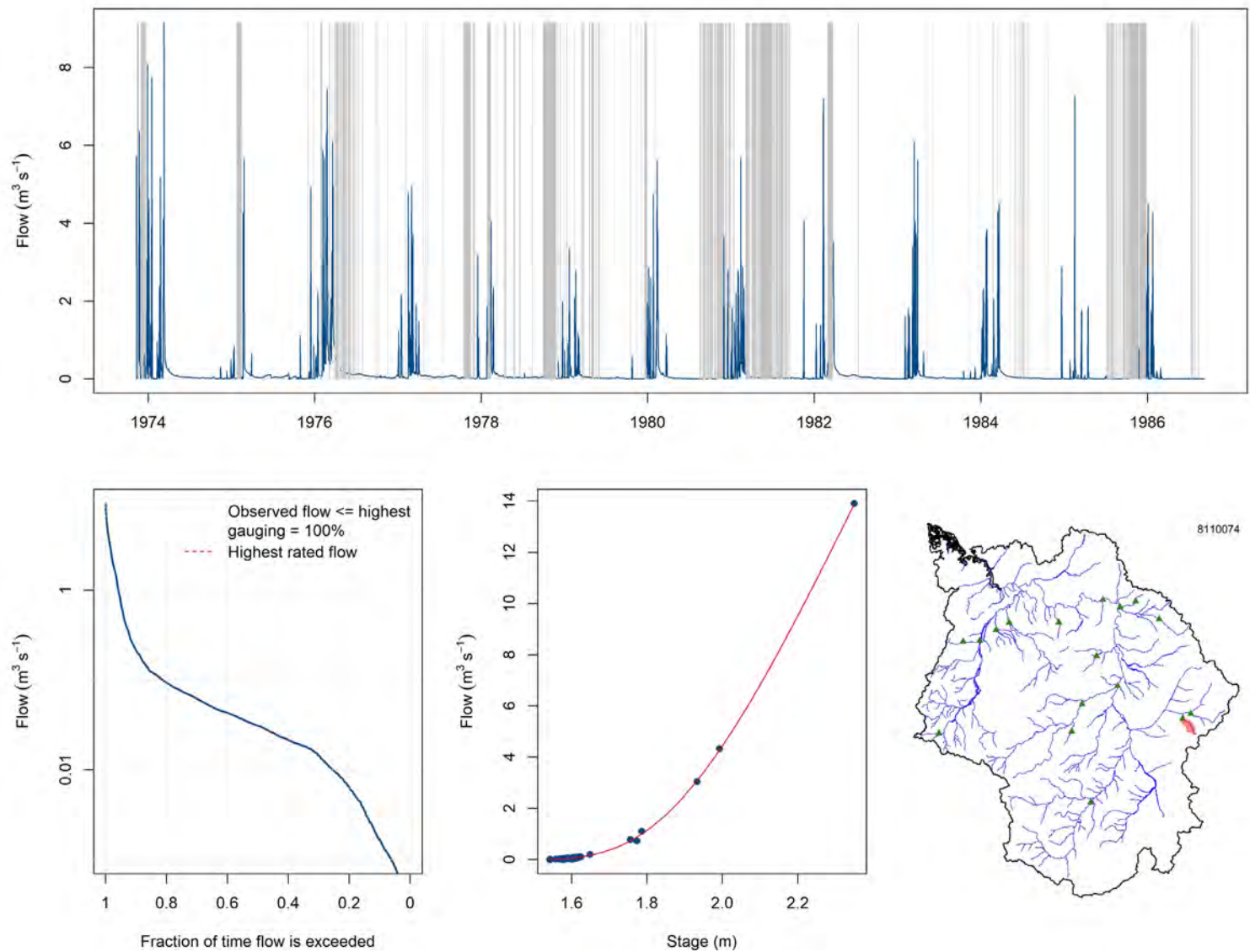
Apx Figure C-6 Stream gauge data for site 8110016 (Victoria River at Wave Hill Police Station). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



**Apx Figure C-7 Stream gauge data for site 8110018 (Victoria River at Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**

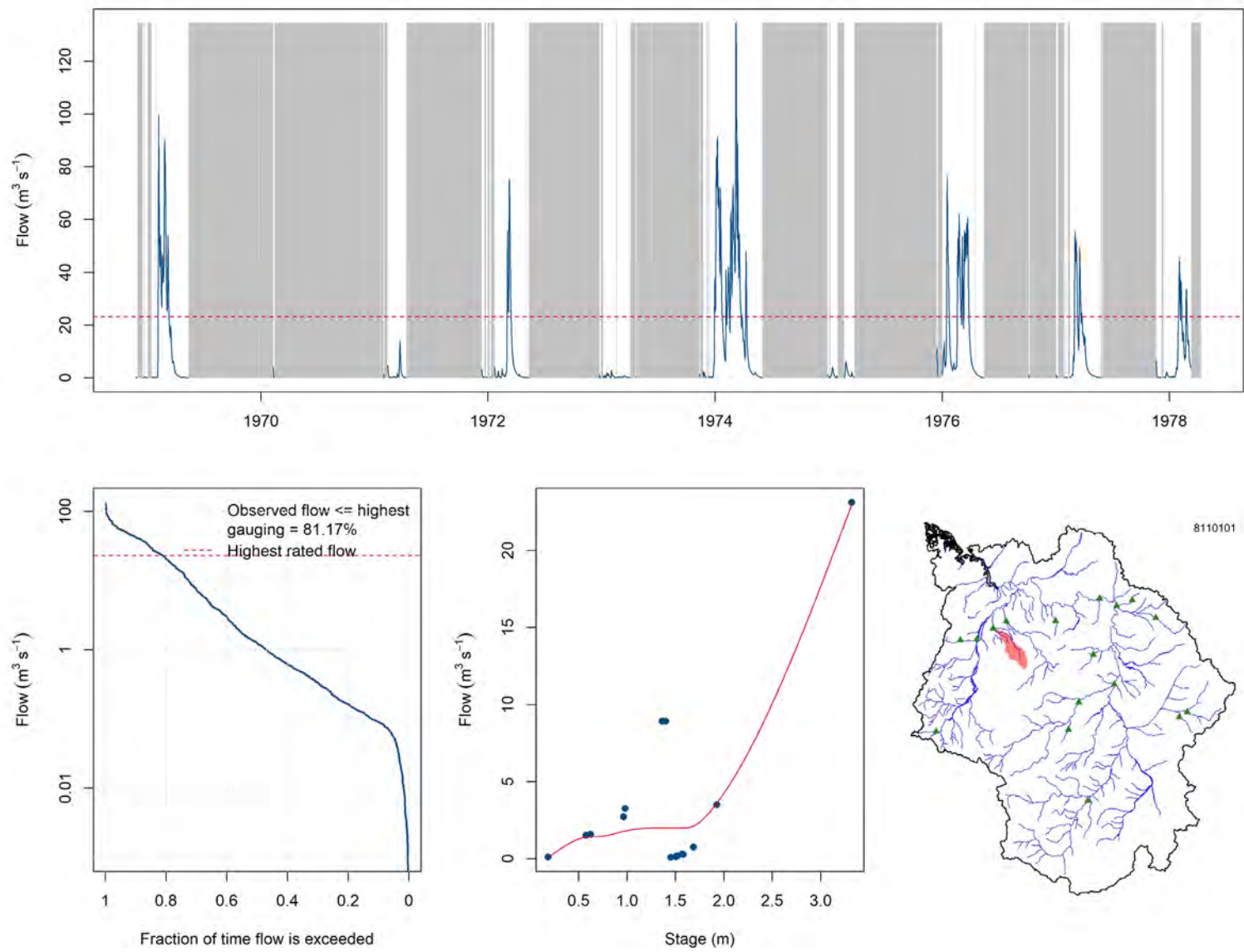


Apx Figure C-8 Stream gauge data for site 8110073 (Armstrong River near Top Springs). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data

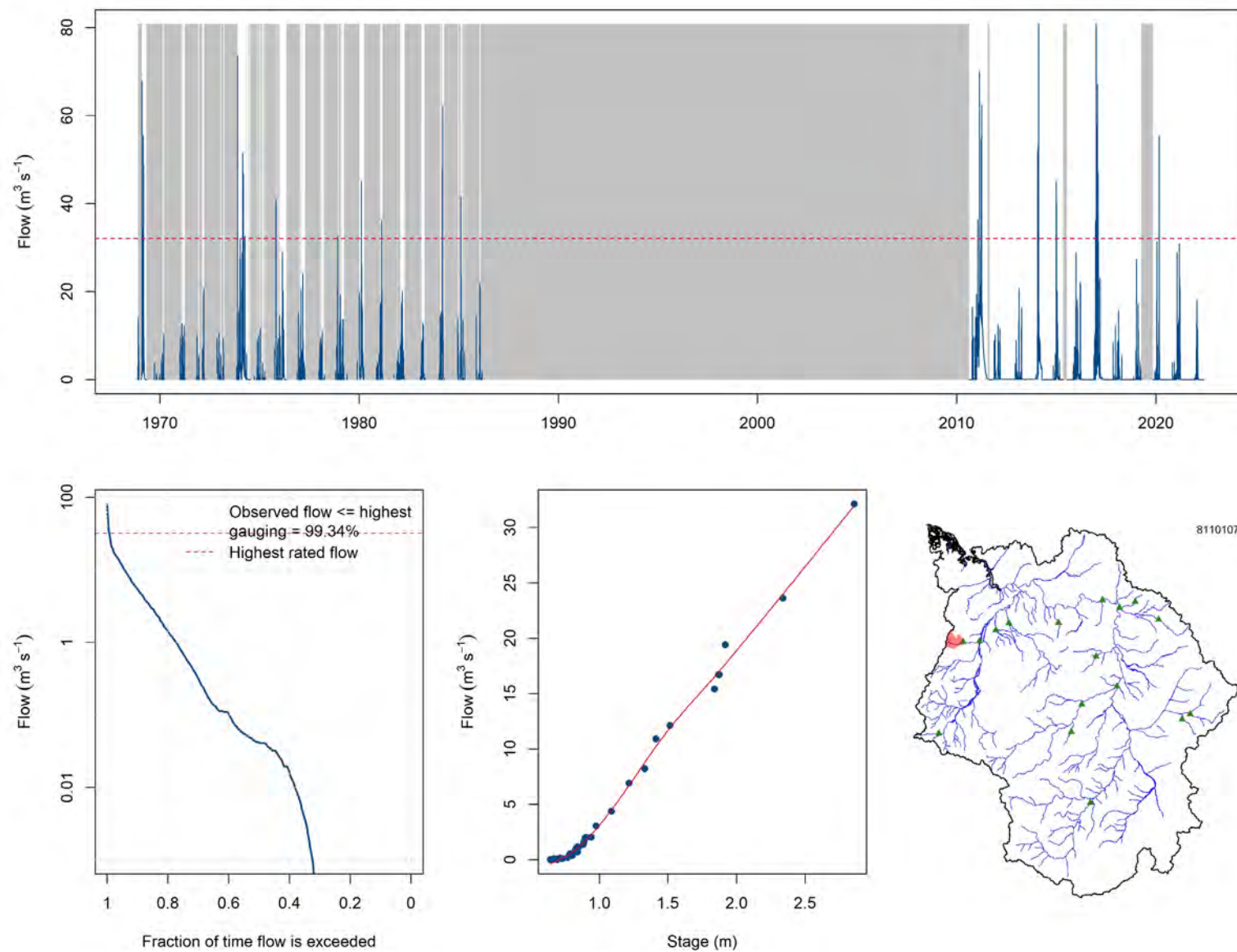


Apx Figure C-9 Stream gauge data for site 8110074 (Montejinnie Creek at Montejinni Homestead). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data

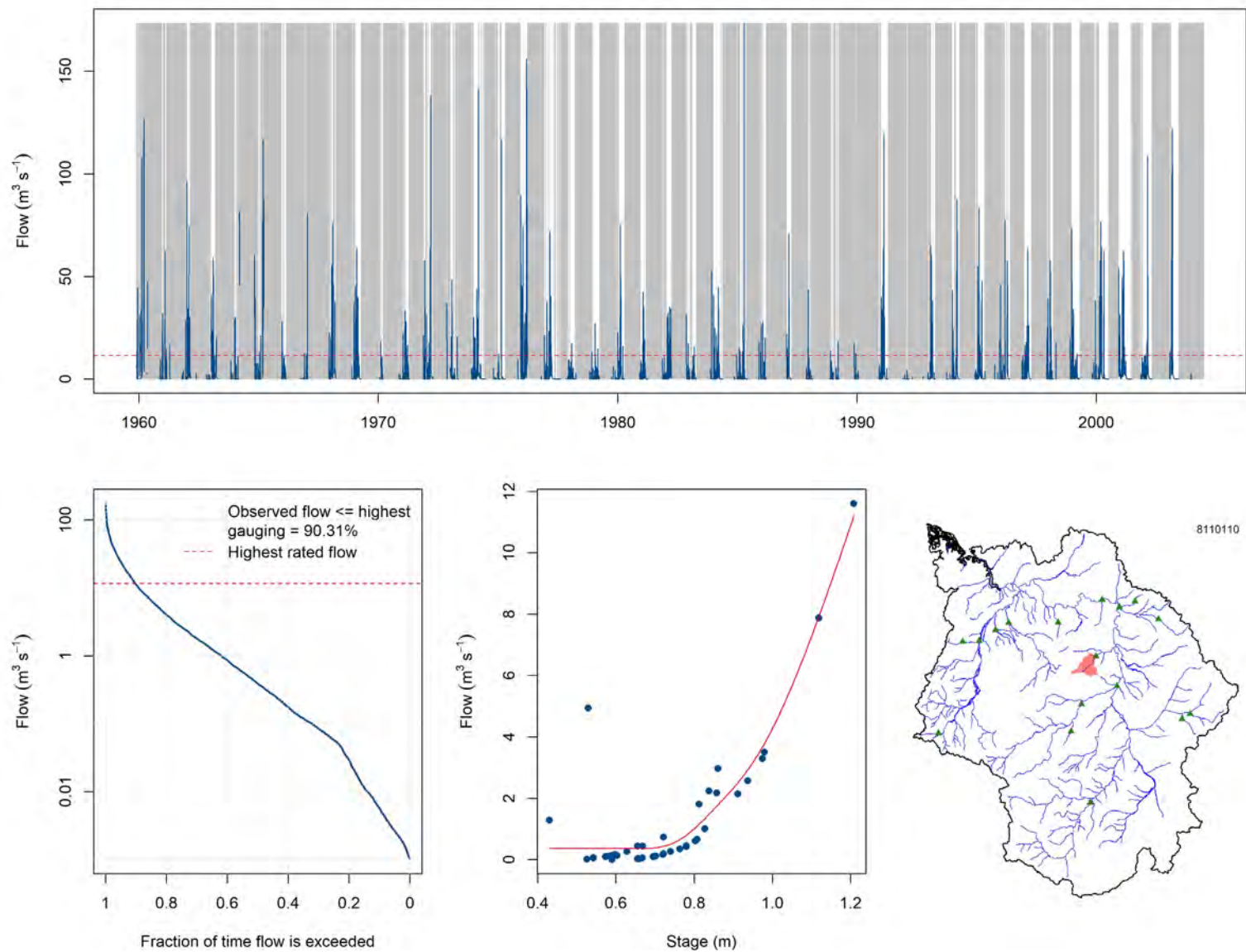




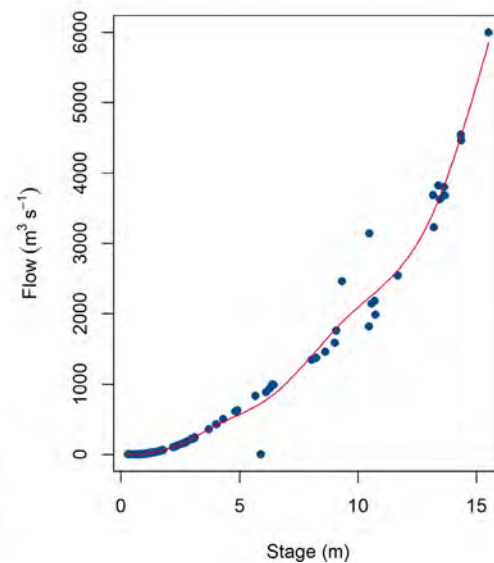
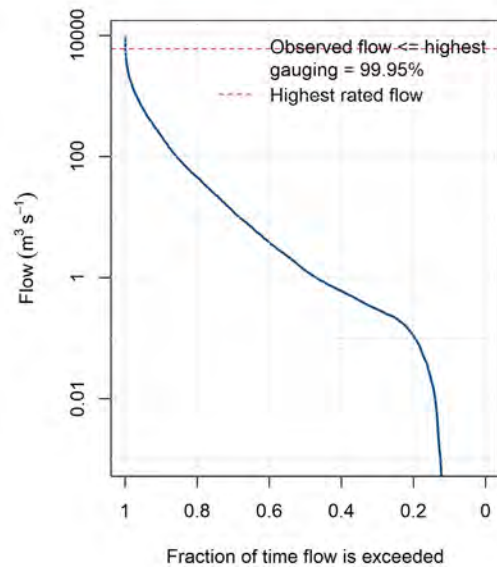
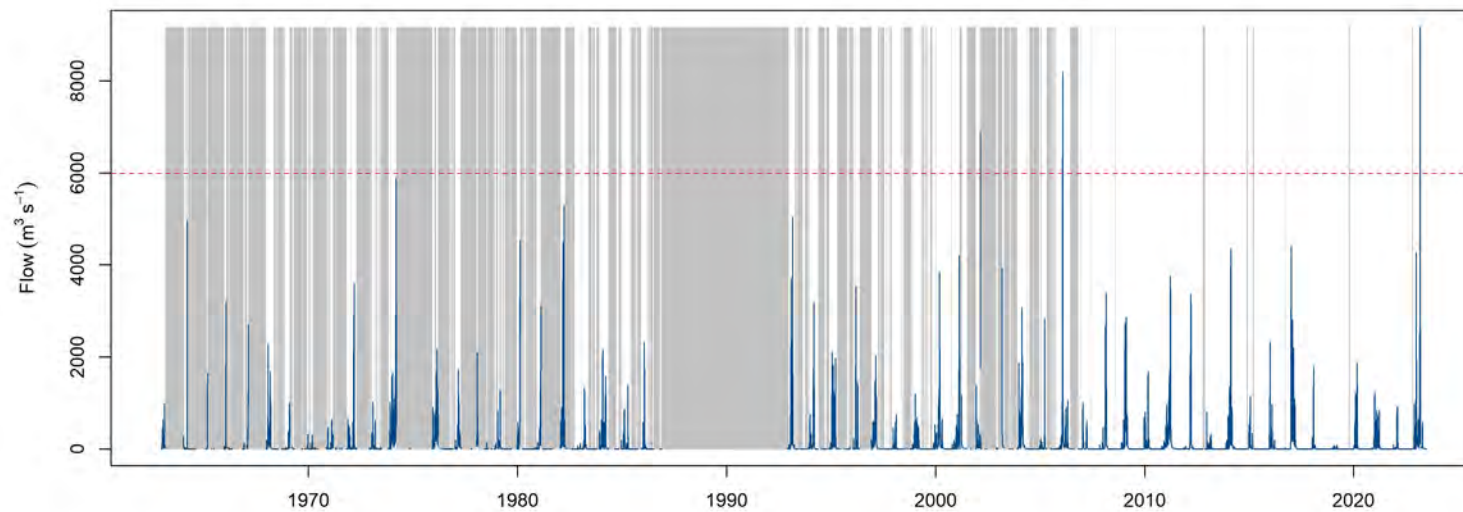
Apx Figure C-10 Stream gauge data for site 8110101 (Dick Creek at Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



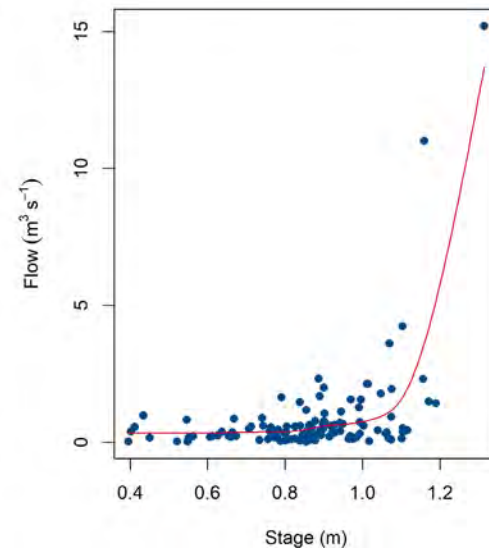
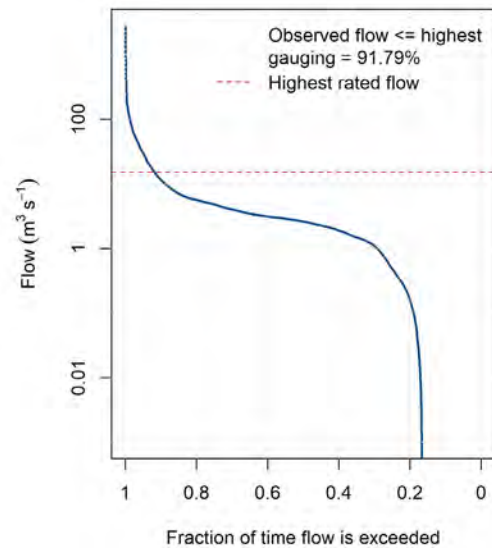
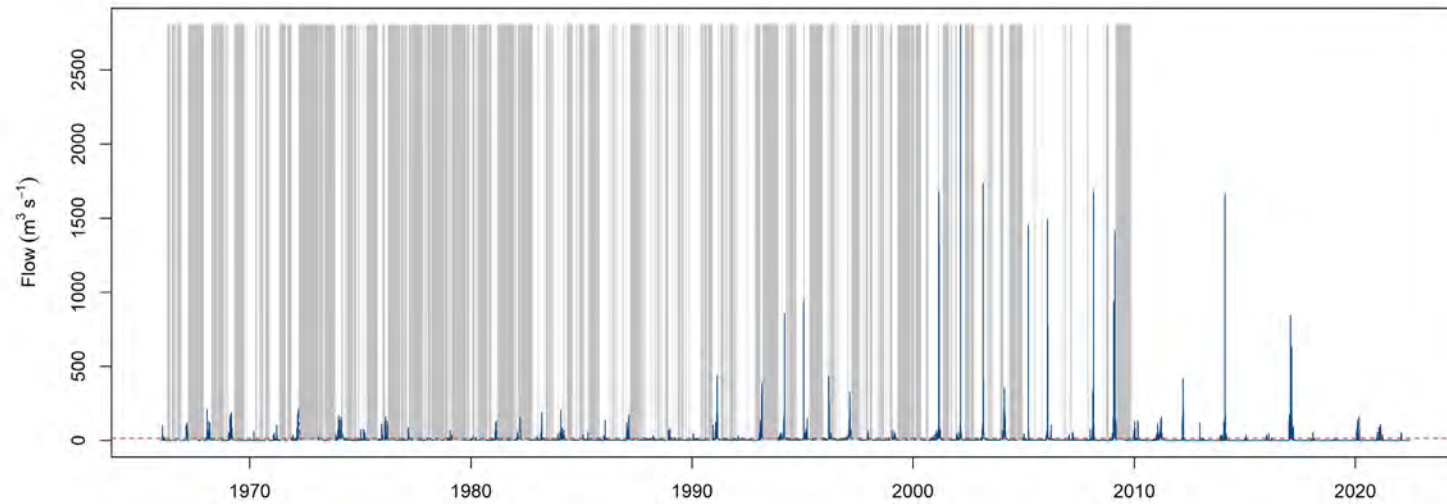
**Apx Figure C-11 Stream gauge data for site 8110107 (Saddle Creek at Victoria Highway). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**



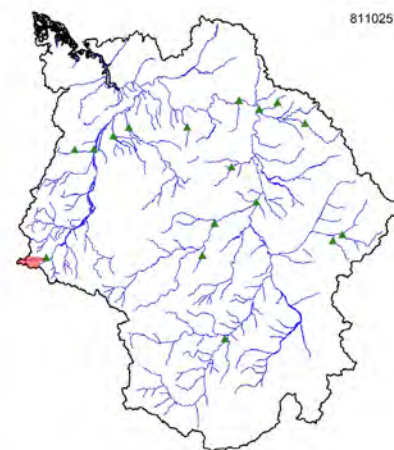
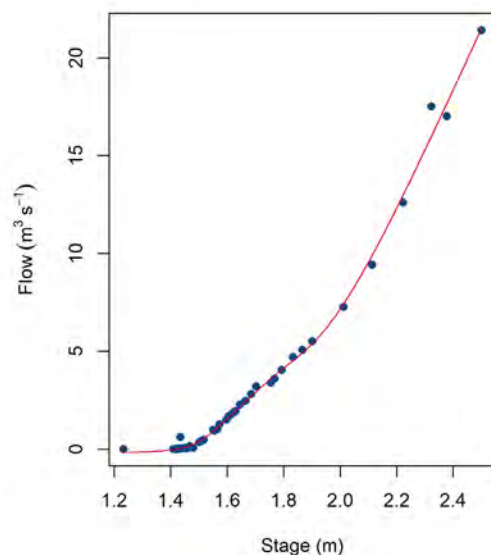
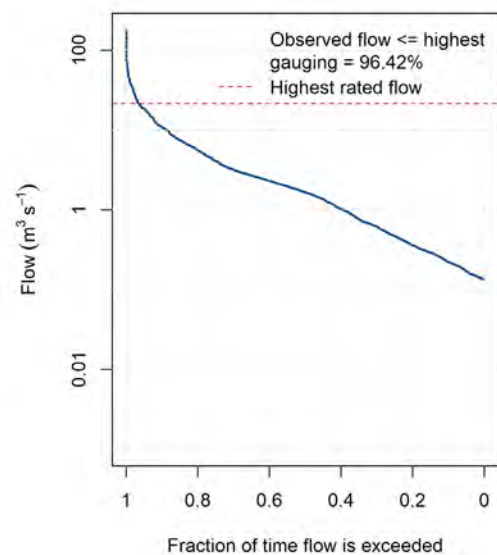
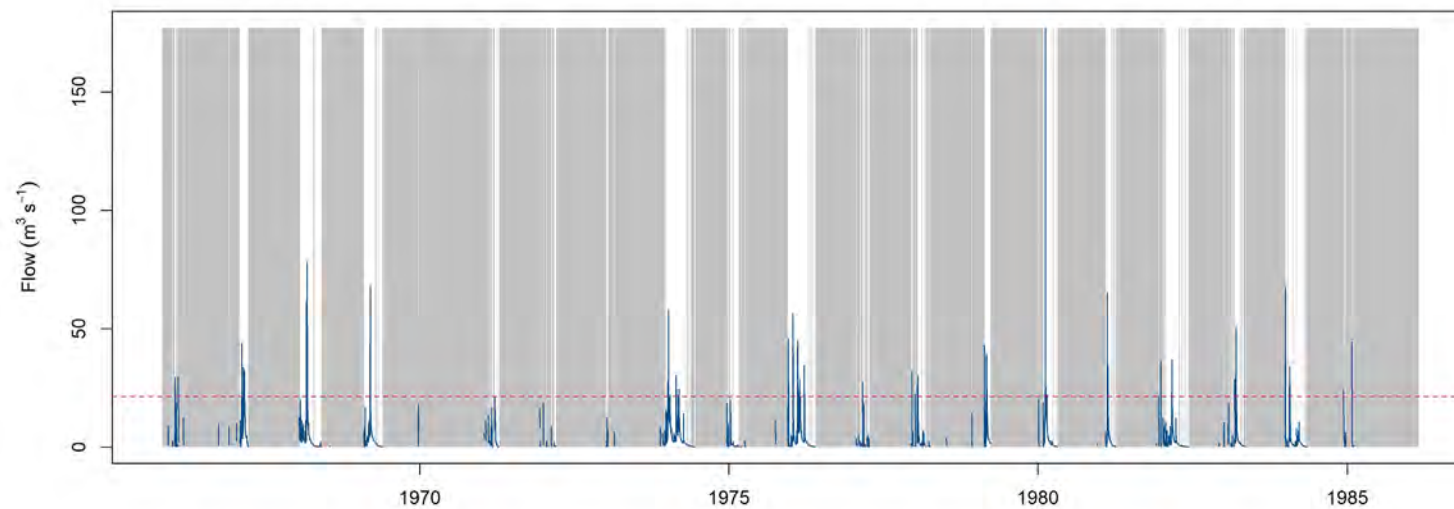
Apx Figure C-12 Stream gauge data for site 8110110 (Surprise Creek at VRD Road crossing). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



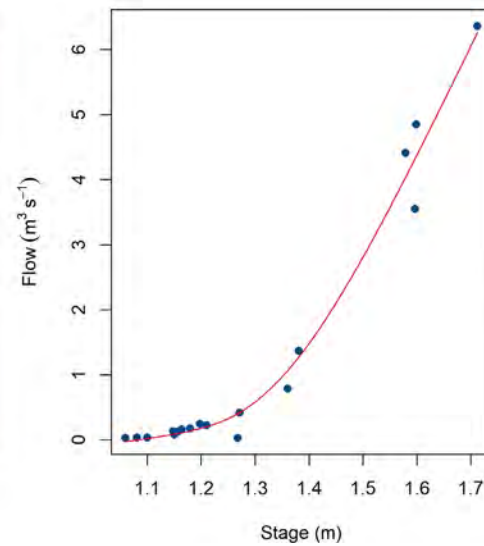
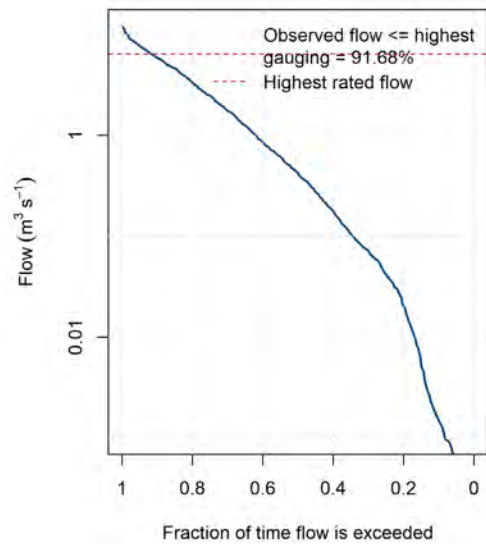
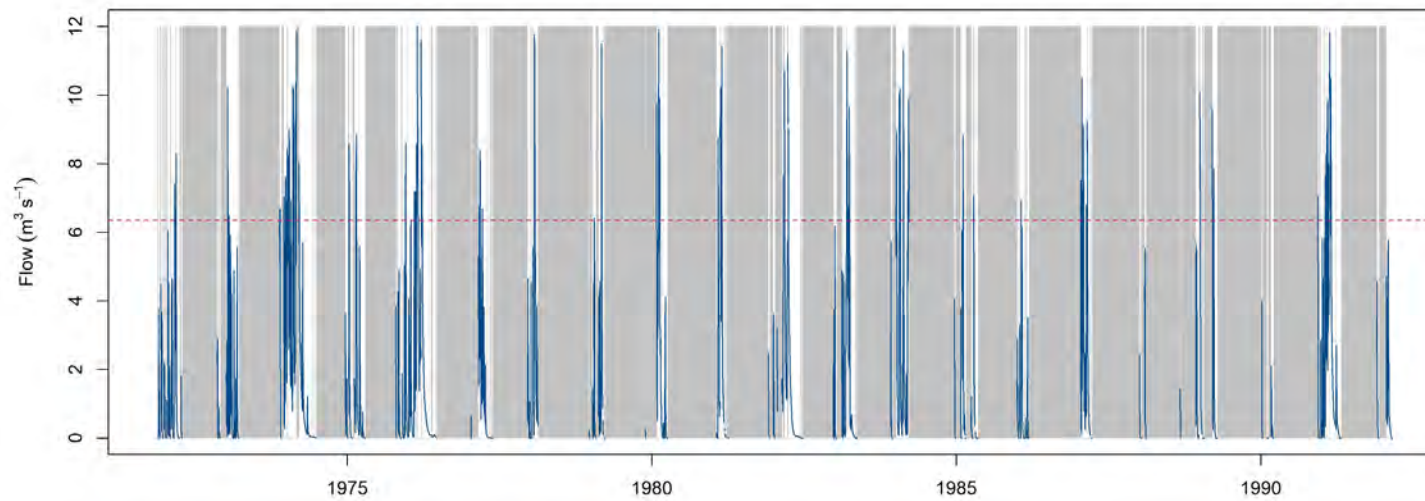
**ApX Figure C-13 Stream gauge data for site 8110013 (Victoria River at Dashwood Crossing). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data**



Apx Figure C-14 Stream gauge data for site 8110232 (Wickham River at Williams Crossing). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data

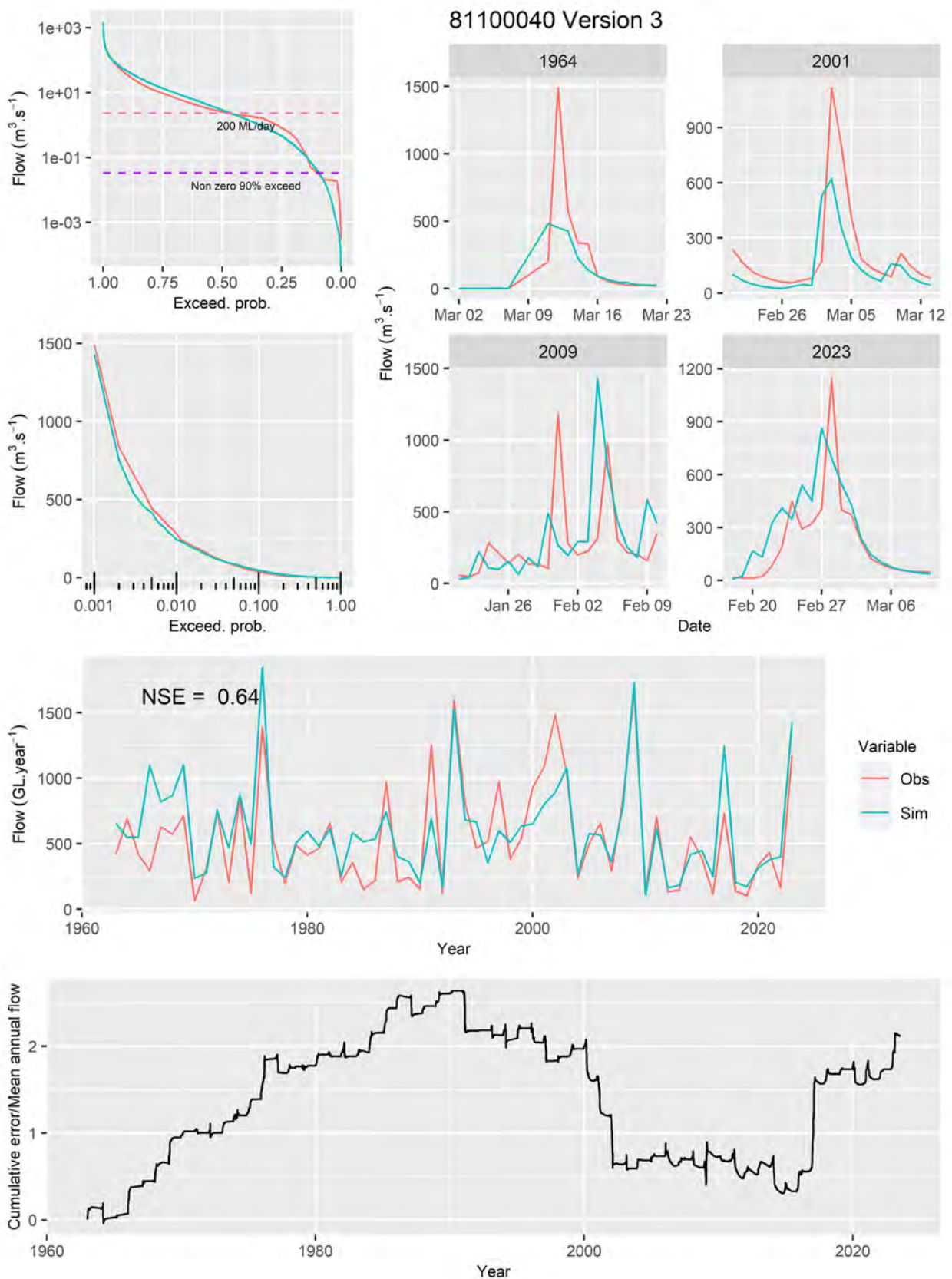


Apx Figure C-15 Stream gauge data for site 8110251 (West Baines River at Brumby Hill). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data



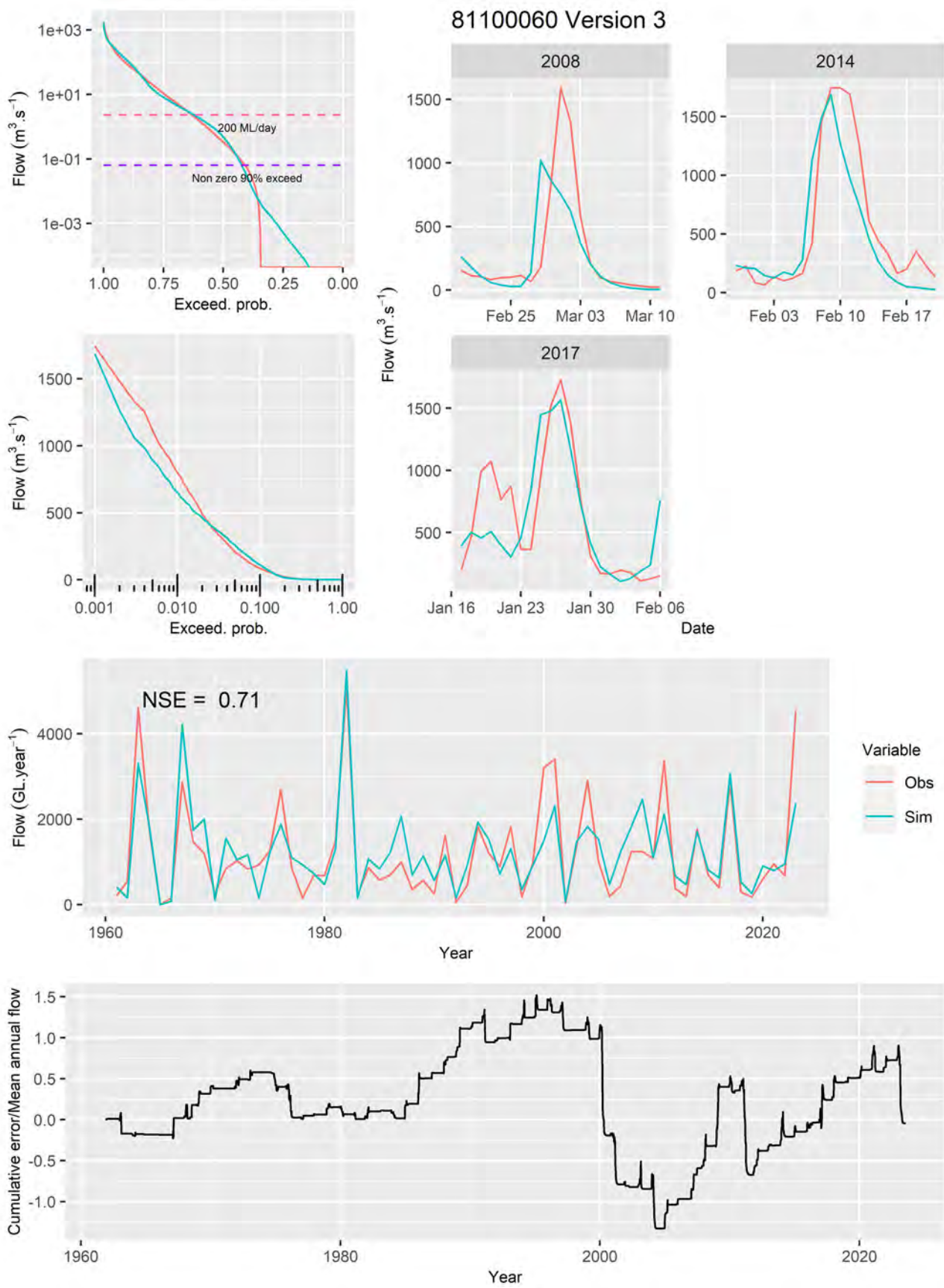
Apx Figure C-16 Stream gauge data for site 8110253 (Gribble Creek at Wagon Wheel Hole). The dashed red line in the top and bottom left panel shows highest gauged point. Grey vertical lines indicate missing data

# Appendix D River model benchmark plots

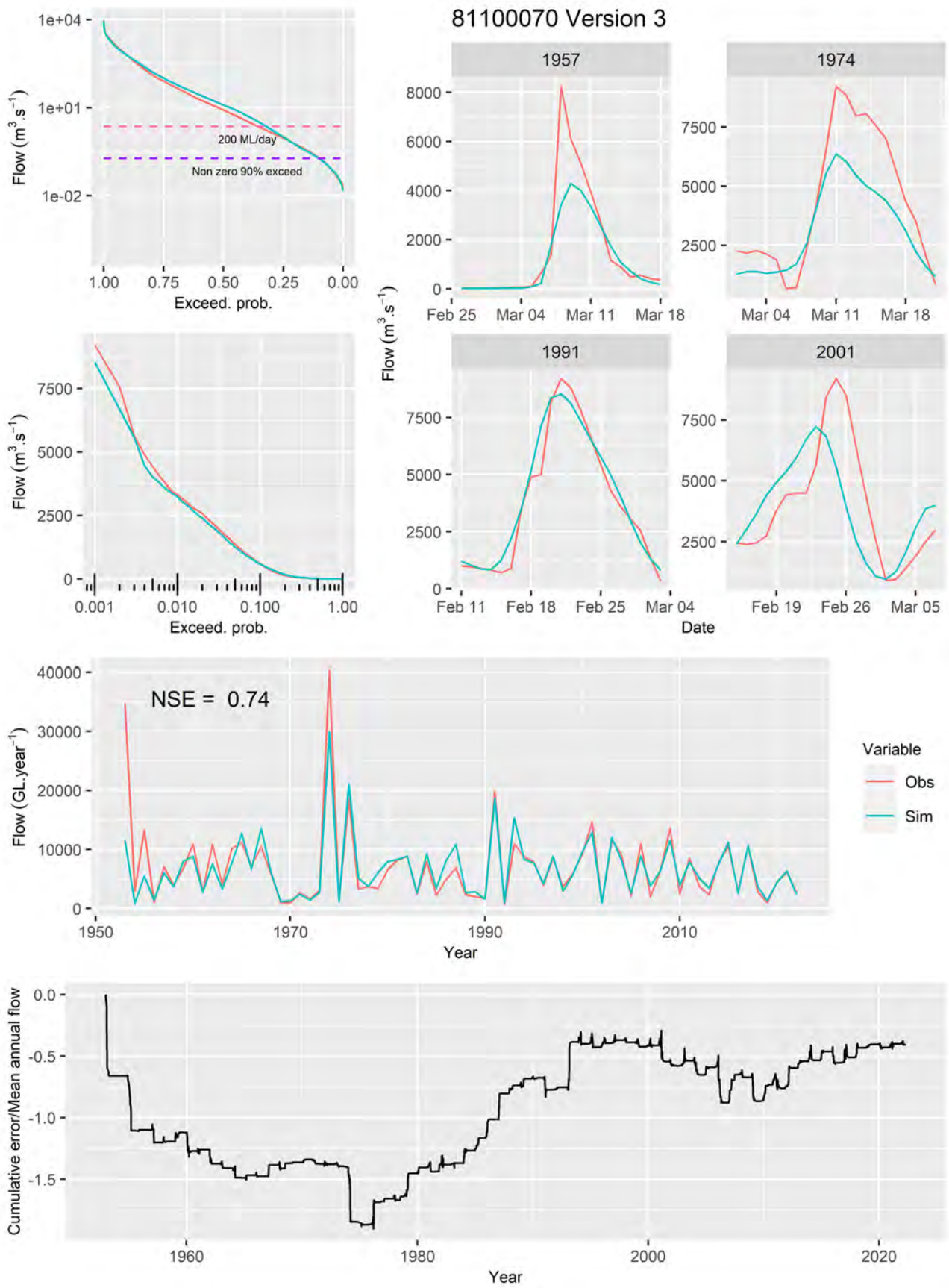


Apx Figure D-1 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100040, model version 3

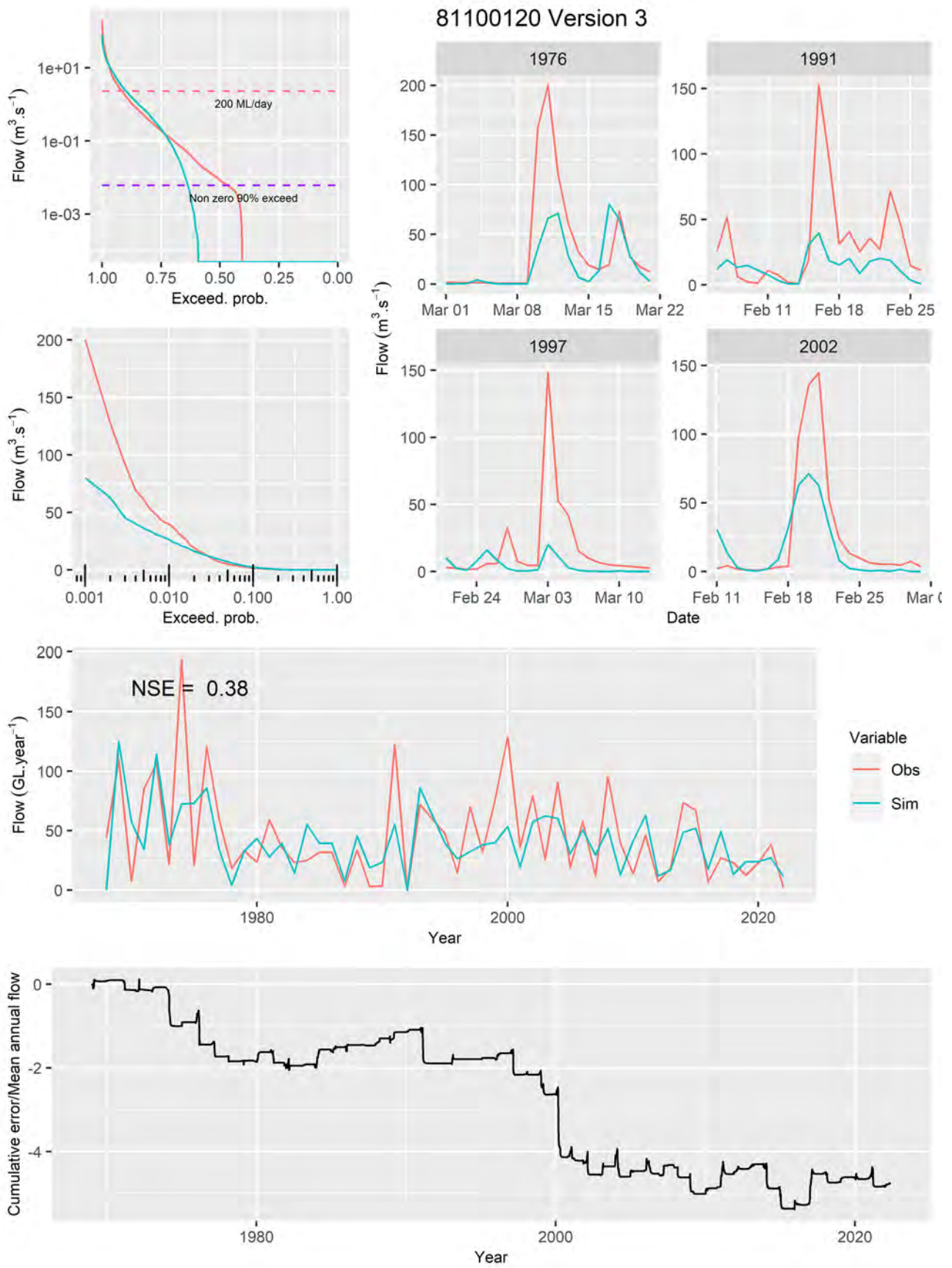




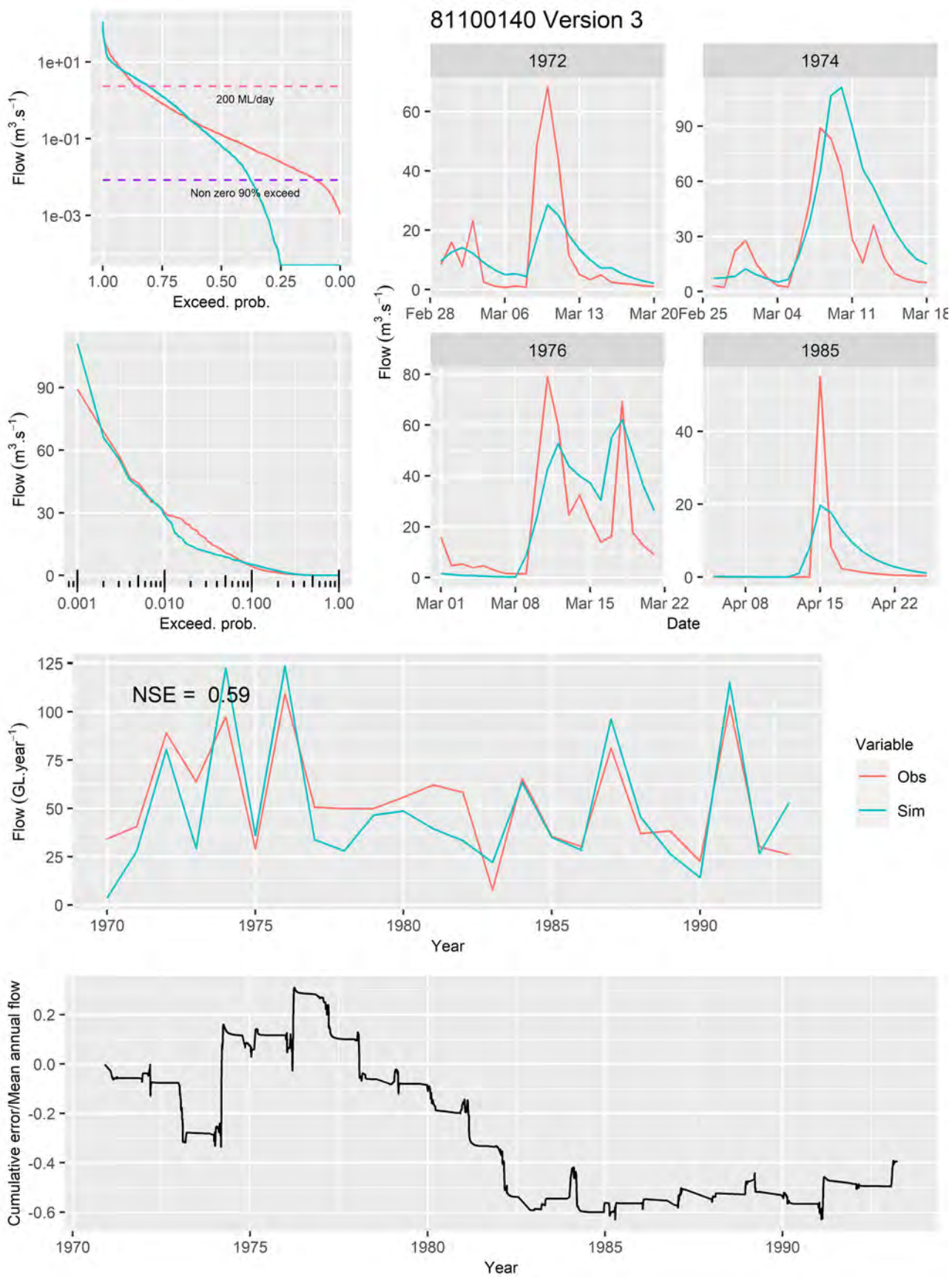
Apx Figure D-2 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100060, model version 3



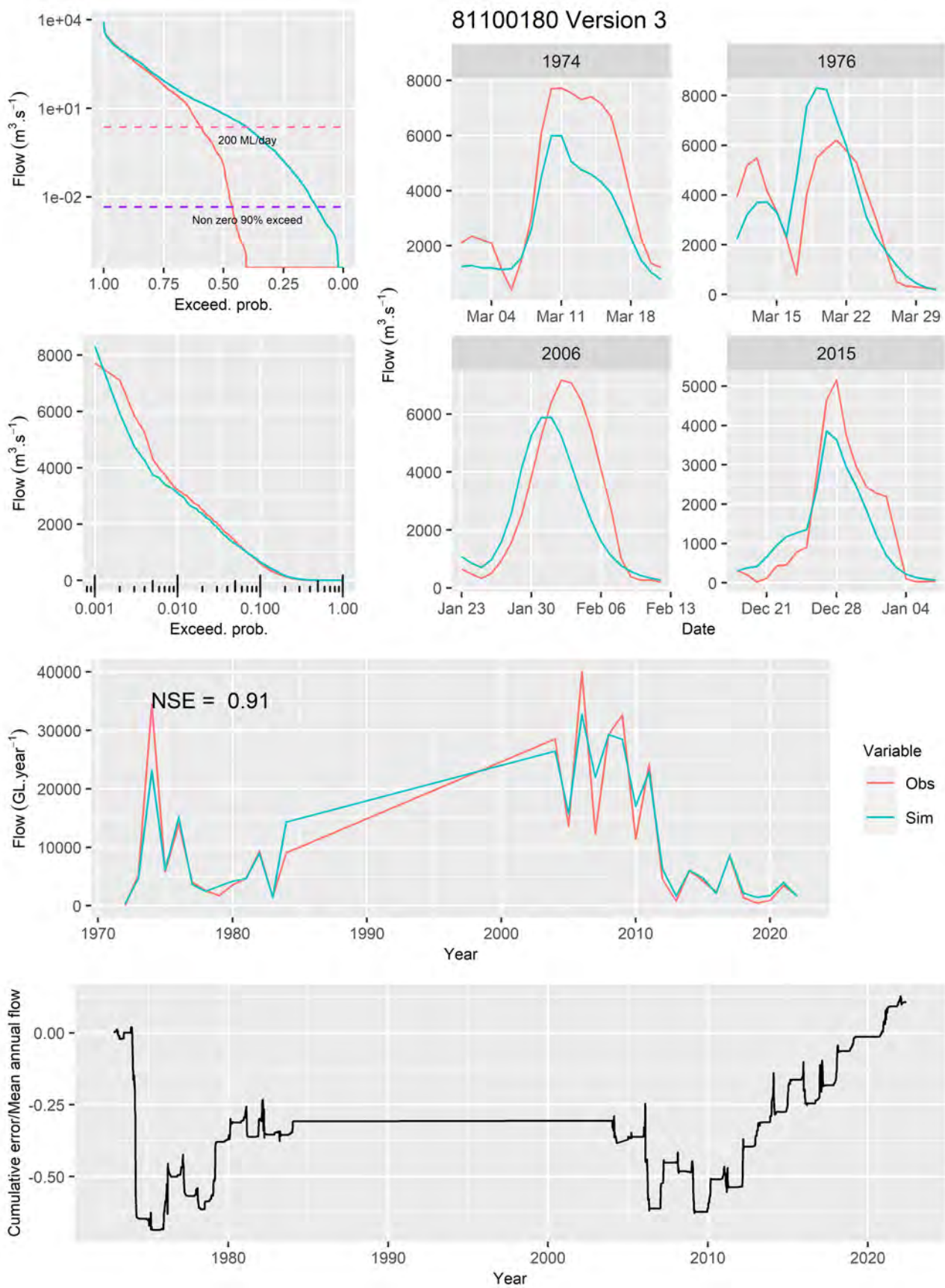
Apx Figure D-3 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100070, model version 3



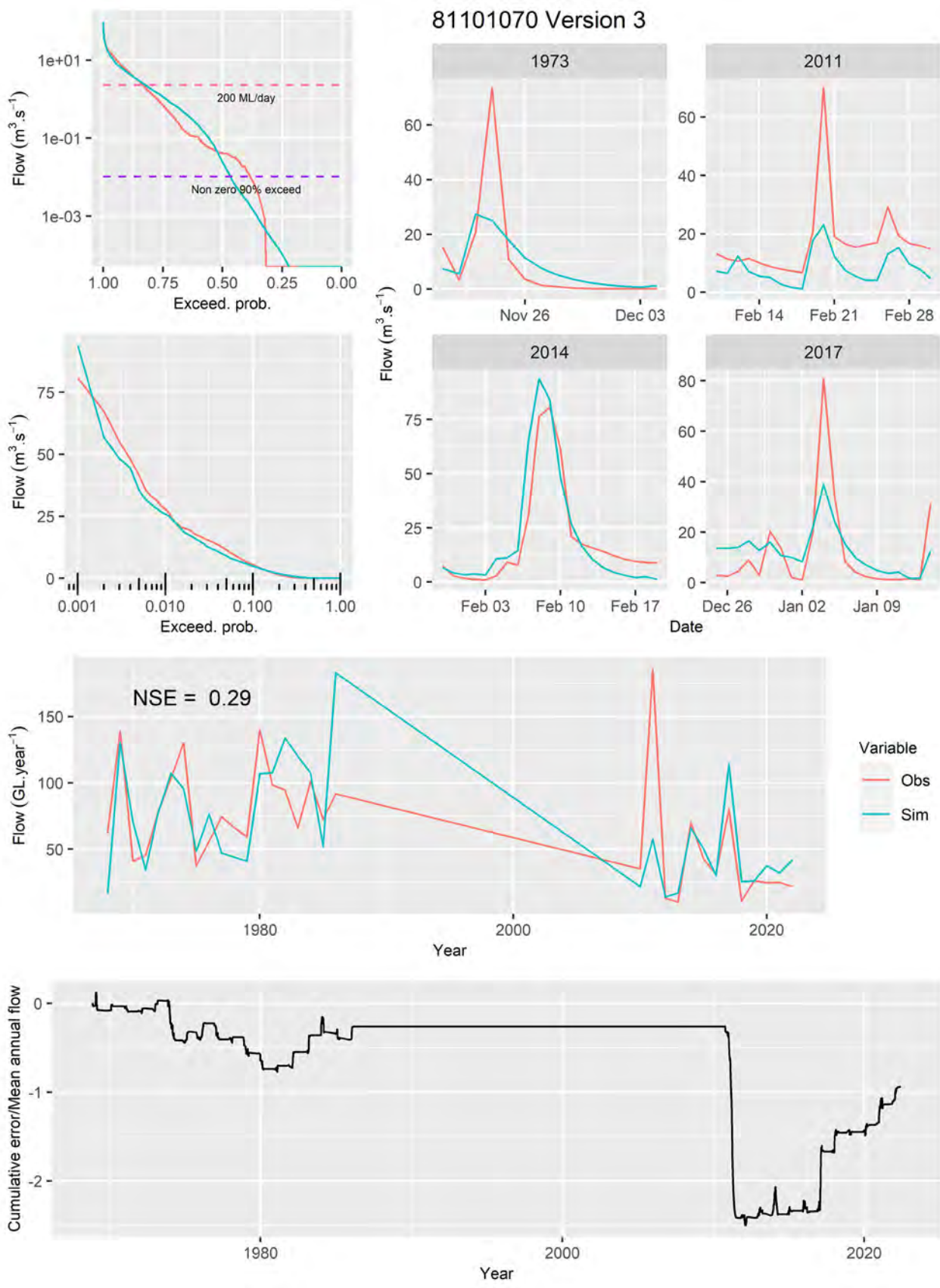
Apx Figure D-4 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100120, model version 3



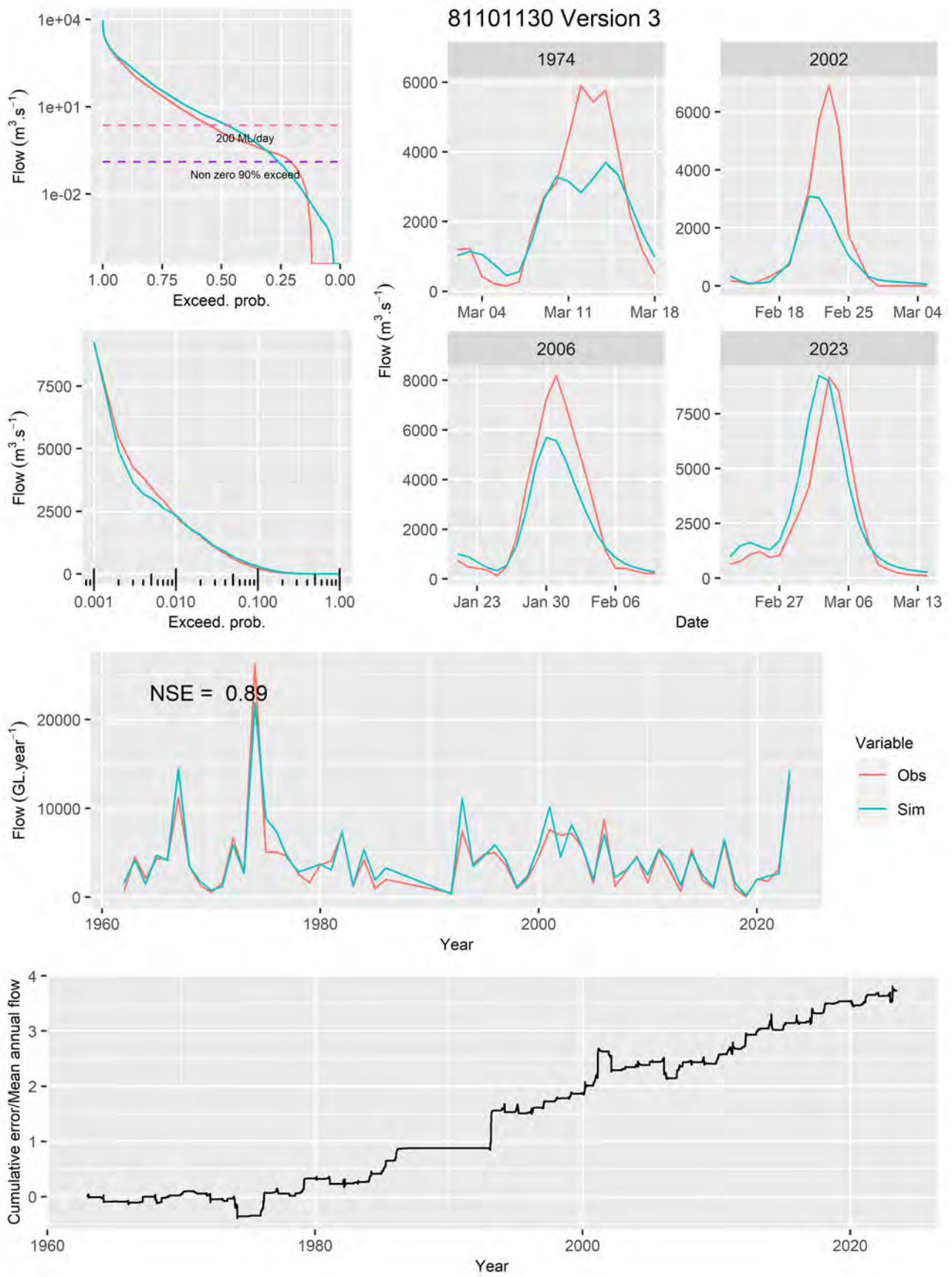
Apx Figure D-5 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100140, model version 3



Apx Figure D-6 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81100180, model version 3



**Apx Figure D-7 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81101070, model version 3**



Apx Figure D-8 Goodness-of-fit plots for node 81101130, model version 3

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