

A New Framework for Resolving Conflicts over Trans-boundary Rivers Using Bankruptcy

Methods

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1 **A New Framework for Resolving Conflicts over Trans-boundary Rivers Using Bankruptcy**

2 **Methods**

3 **Abstract**

4 A novel bankruptcy approach is proposed for resolving trans-boundary rivers conflicts in which
5 the total water demand or claim of the riparian parties is more than the available water.
6 Bankruptcy solution methods can allocate the available water to the conflicting parties with
7 respect to their claims. Four commonly used bankruptcy methods in the economic literature are
8 used here to develop new river bankruptcy solution methods for allocating water to the riparian
9 parties of river systems. Given the non-uniform spatial and temporal distribution of water across
10 river basins, bankruptcy the proposed solution methods are formulated as non-linear network
11 flow optimization models to allocate water with respect to time sensitivity of water deliveries at
12 different locations in a river network during the planning horizon. Once allocation optimization
13 solutions are developed, their acceptability and stability must be evaluated. Thus, a new
14 Bankruptcy Allocation Stability Index (BASI) is developed for evaluating the acceptability of
15 river bankruptcy solutions. To show how the proposed river bankruptcy framework can be
16 helpful in practice, the suggested methods are applied to a real-world trans-boundary river
17 system with eight riparians under various hydrologic regimes. Stability analysis based on the
18 proposed stability evaluation method (BASI) suggests that the acceptability of allocation rules is
19 sensitive to hydrologic conditions and demand values. This finding has an important policy
20 implication suggesting that fixed allocation rules and trans-boundary treaties may not be reliable
21 for securing cooperation over trans-boundary water resources as they are vulnerable to changing
22 socio-economic and climatic conditions as well as hydrologic non-stationarity.

23 **Keywords:** bankruptcy, conflict resolution, trans-boundary, water allocation, game theory, water
24 resources management.

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Conflicts are integral to managing trans-boundary rivers due to the externalities
27 associated with growing demand and development in riparian states. There are 148 riparian
28 countries creating about 276 trans-boundary river basins in the world (De Stefano et al., 2012).
29 These basins cover over 45% of the earth's land surface and provide about 60% of the global
30 river flows (Wolf et al., 2006). To facilitate the cooperation over trans-boundary rivers over 400
31 international agreements were signed in the 20th century (De Stefano et al., 2012), reflecting a
32 great potential for cooperation over trans-boundary natural resources (Wolf et al., 2006).
33 However, stability of these agreements could be affected by the socio-economic and political
34 changes in the riparian states as well as the climatic and hydrologic changes. Dinar et al. (2010)
35 reported 112 complaints about water deficit in trans-boundary river systems during droughts and
36 floods in the 1950-2005 period, underlying the vulnerability of cooperation over trans-boundary
37 water systems to abnormal hydrologic conditions.

38 Game theory –the mathematical study of competition and cooperation— is a useful
39 method for studying trans-boundary river conflicts. Both non-cooperative and cooperative game
40 theory methods have been used in the past to study trans-boundary water conflicts (Parrachino et
41 al., 2006; Madani, 2010).

42 Non-cooperative game theoretic methods are useful in studying the strategic behaviors of
43 the riparian parties, feasibility of cooperative solutions, and providing strategic insights into the
44 conflicts (Madani and Hipel, 2011; Madani, 2013). Example trans-boundary river conflicts
45 analyzed by non-cooperative game theory concepts include the conflict over flooding of Ganges

46 and Brahmaputra rivers between India and Pakistan (Rogers, 1969), the Lower Mekong river
47 basin conflict between Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, and Vietnam (Dufournaud, 1982), the Jordan
48 river conflict between Jordan, Israel, Lebanon, Palestine, and Syria (Madani and Hipel, 2007),
49 and the Nile river conflict between Burundi, Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda,
50 Sudan, Tanzania, and Uganda (Elimam et al., 2008). These methods normally rely on qualitative
51 information to find the likely outcomes of conflicts based on various stability definitions, which
52 incorporate a range of decision makers' (players') characteristics such as risk attitude, foresight
53 level, information quality (Madani and Hipel, 2011; Madani, 2013). While these methods
54 provide valuable insights into strategic conflicts and can help finding the possible resolutions of
55 the conflict, their results are not necessarily quantitative and in most cases are appropriate for
56 studying games with discrete solutions (strategies or actions).

57 Cooperative game theory solution methods normally seek allocating the incremental
58 benefits of cooperation (cost savings, added values, etc.) among the cooperating parties. In the
59 context of trans-boundary river management, cooperative game theory concepts can be used to
60 develop functional water allocation schemes. Example trans-boundary river conflicts analyzed
61 by cooperative game theory include the Ganges river conflict between Bangladesh and India
62 (Kilgoure and Dinar, 2001), the Euphrates and Tigris rivers conflict between Iraq, Syria, and
63 Turkey (Kucukmehmetoglu and Guldmen, 2004), and the Syr Darya river basin conflict between
64 Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan (Teasley and McKinney, 2011). Cooperative game
65 theory methods are appropriate for quantitative problems with a continuous solution domain.

66 Different resource allocation methods have been employed in the water resources
67 literature to increase system's efficiency and minimize conflicts. Social welfare maximization is
68 perhaps the mostly commonly used approach for water allocation in the literature. Based on this

69 approach, a social (central) planner seeks maximizing the system-wide benefits, assuming there
70 is perfect cooperation among the water users. The social planner approach pays minimal
71 attention to individual gains and distribution of total benefits among the beneficiaries, making it
72 less practical.

73 Market mechanisms and cooperative game theory schemes are among the other water
74 allocation methods that are used to make the social planner's solution practical. These methods
75 focus on redistribution of the incremental benefits of cooperation and create win-win allocation
76 solutions that make cooperation attractive to individual rational beneficiaries. While these
77 methods are promising, their application is limited to problems in which utility information is
78 available for all parties and the incremental benefits of cooperation can be determined.
79 Therefore, challenge remains in developing cooperative schemes for managing shared water
80 systems for which utility information might not be readily available, agreeable, or reliable
81 (common in trans-boundary river systems).

82 Operations research-based allocation methods (Madani et al., 2014a; Read et al., 2014)
83 have also been employed in the water resource literature to allocate water. These methods are
84 applicable are appropriate for problems with both discrete and continuous solutions and can be
85 applied with and without utility information. However, as shown by Read et al. (2014), they seek
86 distribution of dissatisfaction in an optimal way, disregarding the stability of allocation solutions.
87 Therefore, their acceptability is questionable, making them less practical in real world.

88 Bankruptcy methods (O'Neil, 1982; Aumann and Maschler, 1985; Dagan and Volij,
89 1993) comprise another group of allocation methods used in the water resources literature for
90 water allocation in presence and absence of utility information (Sheikhmohammady and Madani,
91 2008; Ansink and Ruijs, 2008; Ansink and Weikard, 2012; Madani and Zarezadeh, 2012;

92 Mianabadi et al., 2013; Madani and Dinar, 2013). These methods are promising due to their
93 cooperative game theoretic nature and their attention to individual gains under different
94 conditions (e.g. homogeneity of claims). However, as will be discussed in the section, the
95 previous applications of bankruptcy methods do not set an appropriate basis for using these
96 methods for solving transboundary river allocation problems with temporal and spatial flow
97 variability.

98 The objective of this study is to bridge the gap of previous trans-boundary conflict
99 resolution studies by developing a new bankruptcy-based water allocation mechanism that: 1)
100 does not necessarily require the players' utility information (e.g., economic benefits of each
101 beneficiary from the allocated water); 2) its application is not limited to problems in which
102 cooperation must result in extra quantifiable benefit; 3) provides allocations solutions with
103 respect to the temporal and spatial variability of water flows in trans-boundary river systems.

104 **2. River Bankruptcy Problem**

105 2.1. General description

106 Water conflicts can develop when the yield of a water system is not sufficient to fully
107 satisfy the demands of all beneficiaries. Such a situation is similar to a bankruptcy state in which
108 the total asset of an individual/entity is not enough to fully satisfy his/its debts. In other words, in
109 a bankruptcy problem the total value of the claims of the beneficiaries is more than the value of
110 the available resource. Such a similarity between a water allocation problem and a bankruptcy
111 problem has been the main motivation for using bankruptcy methods, rooted in the economics
112 and mathematics literature (O'Neil, 1982; Aumann and Maschler, 1985; Dagan and Volij, 1993),
113 to solve water resource bankruptcy problems (Sheikhmohammady and Madani, 2008; Ansink

114 and Ruijs, 2008; Sheikhmohammady et al., 2010; Grundel et al., 2011; Ansink and Weikard,
115 2012; Madani and Zarezadeh, 2012; Mianabadi et al., 2013; Madani and Dinar, 2013).

116 Bankruptcy methods can be categorized as cooperative game theory solutions
117 (Sheikhmohammady and Madani, 2008). Nevertheless, these methods are different in principle
118 from the commonly used cooperative game theory methods such as Nash-Harsanyi bargaining
119 solution (Harsanyi, 1959), Shapley Value (Shapley, 1953), and Nucleolus (Schmeidler, 1969),
120 among others. While the bankruptcy methods focus on allocation of the total deficit (the
121 difference between the total claim and the value of the available resource) between the parties,
122 commonly used cooperative game theoretic solution methods have been primarily developed for
123 allocation of the incremental benefits of cooperation among the cooperating parties. Therefore,
124 they are not readily applicable to the bankruptcy situations with no incremental benefit out of
125 cooperation or to cases in which the available information about the utilities of the parties from
126 their shares are missing or are not reliable.

127 In some river basins, developing agreeable utility functions to estimate the utility (e.g.,
128 economic gain) of each riparian from its water use is very challenging due to the lack of trust and
129 information as well as the absence of cooperative tendencies in the region. Therefore, river
130 sharing games are often played as zero-sum games in which parties are mainly bargaining about
131 their volumetric shares from the river, while in reality, due to the difference in the non-linear
132 utility functions of the parties these games are not zero-sum (Madani, 2011; Madani and Lund,
133 2012). In fact, the zero-sum perception of the riparian parties is one of the main reasons for
134 competition rather than cooperation, which makes economically-efficient cooperative game
135 theoretic institutions (Madani and Dinar, 2012) or other mechanisms such as water trading and
136 markets impractical and unacceptable. To address these issues, bankruptcy methods can be

137 applied for developing water allocation solutions. Although bankruptcy methods provide
138 solutions, which are economically less efficient than those provided by common cooperative
139 game theory methods, they are potentially more publically acceptable and practical. Most
140 bankruptcy methods are based on common sense and are relatively easy to understand by the
141 general public, unfamiliar with the economic principles and fairness rationales of the
142 mathematically sophisticated cooperative game theory methods. This advantage has been the
143 main reason for the success of some of the bankruptcy methods in practice since the ancient
144 times (Dagan and Volij, 1993) in different eras and locations. The proportional cutback principle
145 is an example of one of the oldest bankruptcy methods that has been widely used for water
146 resources management during droughts in different areas of the world (e.g., qanat water
147 allocation in the Persian Empire and groundwater allocation in California.)

148 2.2. Essential elements

149 The two essential elements of a bankruptcy problem include 1) the amount of resource
150 available; and 2) the values of beneficiaries' claims. In most water resources bankruptcy
151 problems, the first element simply equals the available water to be allocated to the beneficiaries
152 in a given location at a specific time. Also finding the claim values is straightforward in some
153 water systems (e.g., claims of groundwater users in case of groundwater bankruptcy are
154 determined based on their groundwater rights in a regulated system). Therefore, bankruptcy
155 solutions have been already used in the literature for solving water allocation problems with
156 known (predetermined) claims and/or without temporal and spatial variability in resource
157 availability (Sheikhmohammady and Madani, 2008; Ansink and Ruijs, 2008;
158 Sheikhmohammady et al., 2010; Grundel et al., 2011; Ansink and Weikard, 2012; Mianabadi et
159 al., 2013; Madani and Dinar, 2013). Nevertheless, solving trans-boundary river bankruptcy

160 problems with original bankruptcy methods can be challenging for two reasons: 1) lack of an
161 acceptable method by all parties to estimate the credible claims of the beneficiaries; and 2) the
162 temporal and spatial change of the flow along the river basin.

163 2.3. Claims

164 Determination of the beneficiaries' claims in trans-boundary systems is challenging and
165 highly controversial, due to a lack of information, unreliability of parties' claims and narratives,
166 and a lack of globally acceptable framework for determining the credible claims of riparian
167 parties. Thus, in Section 4 this paper suggests three different methods as possible claim
168 estimation methods in trans-boundary river bankruptcy problems with potential applications in
169 real-world trans-boundary water conflicts.

170 2.4. Physical constraints: Spatial and temporal variability

171 Classical bankruptcy methods assume homogenous resource accessibility and are
172 appropriate for one-shot allocation problems. Therefore, they are not necessarily applicable to
173 problems with temporal and spatial heterogeneity in resource availability. Due to the change of
174 the flow over time and space, especially in river systems with multiple tributaries, water
175 availability might be limited at a given location at a specific time. Therefore, original bankruptcy
176 methods may produce infeasible allocation solutions for river systems.

177 While temporal resource variability has not been considered in previous bankruptcy
178 studies, few studies have tried to address the spatial variability of resource in bankruptcy
179 problems. İlkılıç and Kayı (2012) formulated a network (graph) model for bankruptcy allocation
180 with respect to the possible geographical and infrastructural constraints in distributing the
181 resource among beneficiaries. While their method satisfies the fairness principle, i.e. "equal
182 treatment of the equals", it considers "no restrictions on the possible networks between sources

183 and agents” (Ilkılıç and Kayı, 2012). Therefore, their model is not generally applicable to river
184 sharing problem, in which the physical characteristics of the river network impose restrictions on
185 networks between sources (river sections) and agents (riparian parties). In another study, Ansink
186 and Weikard (2012) proposed a sequential allocation approach for solving river bankruptcy
187 problems using classical bankruptcy methods. However, their method is only applicable to linear
188 river systems in which all riparians fall on the same line and are based on some assumptions
189 which might limit their applicability in complex multi-tributary transboundary river systems
190 involving equally powerful riparian (Mianabadi et al., 2013; Zarezadeh et al., 2014).

191 This paper proposes a new approach for solving trans-boundary river bankruptcy
192 problems with consideration of the constraints imposed by temporal and spatial variability of
193 water flows within river networks. The general characteristics of the proposed method are
194 discussed in the next section. While transboundary water allocation motivates this work, the
195 proposed method is applicable to other bankruptcy problems with temporal and spatial resource
196 availability constraints. Suggested examples of such problems by Ilkılıç and Kayı (2012) include
197 aid relief during and after disasters, utility (gas, electricity, water) distribution in supply shocks,
198 and common property fisheries.

199

200 2.5. Acceptability

201 Given that that the developed bankruptcy allocation solutions have no practical value
202 unless they are acceptable and are considered to be fair by the beneficiaries, evaluating the
203 acceptability of the developed solutions is essential. Ex-post analysis of the stability of allocation
204 solutions is common in the water resources literature (e.g., Dinar and Howitt (1997), Teasley and
205 McKinney (2011), Madani and Dinar (2012), Read et al. (2014)). Once different allocation

206 solutions are developed, stability of solutions is normally evaluated using quantitative measures
207 to determine the solutions with higher potential acceptability. Alternatively, an axiomatic (ex-
208 ante) approach can be adopted for allocation stability evaluation. Based on this approach, which
209 is more common in the economics literature, attractiveness of allocation rules is evaluated based
210 on their properties such as monotonicity or independence properties, with respect to various
211 possible perturbations of the problem at hand (Herrero and Villar, 2001; Thomson, 2003).

212 Ideally, the results of both approaches should coincide and this can be approved by future
213 research. Nevertheless, the water resources literature tends to commonly use the ex-post
214 approach, making it more attractive from the practical standpoint. In the ex-post approach,
215 multiple allocation solutions with transparent utility information (i.e., volumetric gains in case of
216 river bankruptcy) are proposed to the negotiators. This will expand the feasible solution set and
217 creates more opportunities for cooperation through providing ‘substance’ to negotiations (Bruce
218 and Madani, 2014). In addition, developing a compromise over an ex-ante approach, before
219 clarifying to the beneficiaries what their actual gains would be, seems more challenging
220 practically, unless decision is made by an authorized intervener (e.g., social planner, government,
221 or regulator), whose decision is enforceable and acceptable by all parties. What makes
222 application of an ex-ante approach even more complex in case of river bankruptcy problems is
223 the asymmetric accessibility of the resource (water) at a given time and location. Therefore, even
224 if the solution properties are reasonable, the actual solutions (volumetric allocations in this case)
225 will be affected by the physical limitations of the system. So, the same solution principles might
226 not yield similar results in two river bankruptcy problems with similar claims and total water
227 availability as the physical aspects of the system can make the actual allocations different, i.e.
228 water might not available at a given location at a given time, as desired based on the allocation

229 rule. This might make the axiomatic approach less practical as it does not guarantee feasible
230 allocation solutions based on a given allocation rule, failing to provide clear information to the
231 parties about their actual gains. Therefore, an ex-post stability evaluation method is proposed and
232 used in this study.

233 While various methods have been used in the literature to evaluate the stability and
234 acceptability of water allocation solutions (Dinar and Howitt, 1997; Teasley and McKinney,
235 2011; Madani and Dinar, 2012; Read et al., 2014), these methods cannot be readily used to
236 evaluate the acceptability of bankruptcy solutions. Therefore, a new quantitative stability
237 evaluation method is developed in this study to evaluate the potential acceptability of the
238 proposed bankruptcy solutions.

239 2.6. Robustness

240 Normally, in water allocation negotiations, the amount of available water in a given time-
241 step (e.g. month) is determined based on the average historical flows in that time-step. Given that
242 the water flows are different in dry, wet, and normal years, water allocation agreements can vary
243 depending on the hydrologic conditions. Water allocation based on historical flows might make
244 allocation agreements vulnerable to hydrologic variability, uncertainty, and non-stationarity.
245 Therefore, instead of relying on fixed water shares, riparian parties can try to agree over a
246 flexible allocation framework that adjusts allocation solutions considering the changing
247 conditions of the system. This study seeks to propose a robust bankruptcy solution framework
248 that can provide water allocation solutions that are not vulnerable to changing conditions and can
249 update allocation solutions accordingly. Therefore, stability of the allocation solution is
250 examined under different hydrological conditions to find if allocation rules and solutions must be

251 changed under different hydrologies or a fixed allocation rule can provide acceptable allocations
252 that are insensitive to hydrologic variability.

253 **3. River Bankruptcy Allocation Models**

254 Figure 1 shows a schematic of simple trans-boundary river system with a lake (sink) at
255 the outlet and m riparians ($i=1, 2, \dots, m$), each having different types of water demand (e.g.,
256 domestic, agricultural, and environmental). Water bankruptcy occurs when the total demand of
257 the riparians exceeds the stock of water. Bankruptcy rules can be applied to allocate the available
258 water to the riparians with respect to their water demands (claims). In river systems, however,
259 the classic bankruptcy rules might produce infeasible allocation results due to spatial and
260 temporal flow variability and water access heterogeneity. Thus, bankruptcy rules must be
261 modified to account for the physical characteristics of the river network. We propose developing
262 non-linear network flow optimization models that facilitate application of four commonly used
263 bankruptcy methods, namely Proportional (P), Adjusted Proportional (AP), Constrained Equal
264 Award (CEA), and Constrained Equal Loss (CEL) rules, to river bankruptcy problems, with
265 respect to the physical water availability constraints. These models have the following general
266 characteristics:

- 267 1. Each bankruptcy optimization model is based on a specific bankruptcy rule.
- 268 2. An allocation solution developed by a river bankruptcy optimization model is
269 always unique.
- 270 3. The allocation solution set developed by a bankruptcy optimization model is
271 always feasible, considering the temporal and spatial flow variability in the
272 river network.

- 273 4. The allocation solutions developed by a river bankruptcy optimization model
274 are expected to satisfy the composition properties suggested by Ansink and
275 Weikard (2013) for river bankruptcy problems. Nonetheless, composition
276 properties have not been used in this study to derive the bankruptcy solutions.
- 277 5. The bankruptcy optimization models seek “equal treatment of the equals” to the
278 extent possible. This means that the bankruptcy optimization models minimize
279 hydro-hegemony (Zeitoun and Warner, 2006) in the system by equal treatment
280 of all riparians regardless of their location in the system (upstream vs.
281 downstream) and level of contribution to the total flows. This characteristic
282 makes the proposed framework different in essence from the methods proposed
283 by Ansink and Weikard (2012) and Mianabadi et al. (2013).
- 284 6. In absence of water availability restrictions, a bankruptcy optimization model
285 based on a given bankruptcy rule produces allocation results that are identical
286 to allocation solutions based on that bankruptcy rule. In other words, when
287 allocation based on a given bankruptcy rule is feasible, original bankruptcy
288 solutions match the solutions produced by the corresponding bankruptcy
289 optimization model.
- 290 7. In case of water availability restrictions (when application original bankruptcy
291 solutions produces infeasible allocation solutions), the bankruptcy optimization
292 model minimizes the difference between its allocation solutions and the
293 solutions based on the corresponding original bankruptcy rule.

294 8. Water allocations to riparians with equal claims are not necessarily equal in
 295 river bankruptcy problems, due to the uneven access to water along the river
 296 system.

297 9. A bankruptcy optimization model can be applied to any river network,
 298 irrespective of its physical characteristics (shape, number of tributaries, number
 299 of riparians, etc.).

300 10. Each river bankruptcy optimization model satisfies the following initial, mass
 301 balance (flow continuity) and non-negativity constraints:

302
$$T_{i,t} = I_{i,t} + O_{i-1,t} \quad \forall i \quad (1)$$

303
$$O_{i,t} = T_{i,t} - S_{i,t} \quad \forall i \quad (2)$$

304
$$O_{0,t} = 0 \quad (3)$$

305
$$O_{m,t} = D_t \quad (4)$$

306
$$S_{i,t} \geq 0 \quad \forall i \quad (5)$$

307
$$S_{i,t} \leq T_{i,t} \quad \forall i \quad (6)$$

308
$$\sum_{i=1}^m S_{i,t} \leq E_t \quad (7)$$

309
$$E_t = \sum_{i=1}^m I_{i,t} - D_t \quad (8)$$

310 where for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ in a given time step t :

311 $T_{i,t}$ is total available water in riparian i 's territory (decision variable); $I_{i,t}$ is
 312 riparian i 's contribution to the river system through the tributaries originating
 313 in its territory (known variable); $O_{i,t}$ is the total outflow from riparian i to the

314 downstream riparian state ($i+1$) (decision variable); $S_{i,t}$ is the allocated water
 315 supply to riparian i in each month (decision variable); D_t is the sink demand at
 316 the system's outlet (known variable); and E_t is the total asset water (available
 317 water) to be shared in the bankruptcy problem.

318 While the sink node at the system's outlet can be treated as a riparian, here we
 319 assume that the environmental need of the sink has a high priority. Therefore,
 320 Equation (4) ensures that the lake's environmental demand is fully met.

321 11. A bankruptcy optimization model is only appropriate for a bankrupt river
 322 system in which the total demand exceeds the total available water. This makes

323 $E_t \leq \sum_{i=1}^m C_{i,t}$ a necessary condition for validity of the optimization model, where

324 $C_{i,t}$ is the claim (demand) of riparian i in time step t (known variable).

325 12. The amount of water allocated to a riparian party i (by a river bankruptcy
 326 optimization model) never exceeds its claim/demand. So, all bankruptcy
 327 optimization models satisfy the following constraint:

$$328 \quad S_{i,t} \leq C_{i,t} \quad \forall i \quad (9)$$

329 In case of downstream excess flow, i.e. when water availability is more than the
 330 claim of the downstream riparian, this riparian must be excluded from the river
 331 bankruptcy problem, as technically this riparian is not expected to be subject to
 332 any conflict of water allocation.

333 Sections 3.1-3.4 present the mathematical formulations for each of the proposed river
 334 network bankruptcy optimization models. All river bankruptcy optimization models are subject
 335 to Equations (1)-(9). One advantage of using a network bankruptcy model is that it can be

336 applied to any river network, irrespective of its physical conditions. So, the river network should
337 not necessarily match the natural river system and it can include water diversion/transfer
338 infrastructure (already developed or under consideration during allocation negotiations). It must
339 be noted that while the proposed models have been developed for river networks, they are
340 generally applicable to any network bankruptcy problem in which the agents' accessibility to the
341 resource can be determined based on the network structure.

342 Given the time-sensitivity of water deliveries, water solution must be done using an
343 appropriate time-step to prevent disruption in water deliveries to any riparian party. In systems
344 without enough storage capacity to regulate and carry over water, smaller time-steps (e.g.,
345 month) can be used as the basis of allocations. In this case, allocations are time-specific and can
346 be done for each time-step independently, i.e. bankruptcy rule is applied to a given time-step
347 (e.g., month) during the planning horizon (e.g. year), based on the water availability and claims
348 in that month only, regardless of the allocations in other months. In regulated systems, operations
349 are more flexible. So, bankruptcy rule can be applied to the whole planning horizon (e.g., year),
350 considering the flow variability during the planning horizon. The benefit of using bankruptcy
351 optimization models in this case is that specific concerns of the riparian nations can be
352 incorporated as constraints into the model. Examples of such constraints would be minimum
353 acceptable water supply, minimum environmental flow, minimum reservoir storage/energy head
354 for hydroelectricity generation, maximum temperature minimum, minimum acceptable
355 reliability/resiliency of water supply, maximum acceptable vulnerability of water supply at
356 particular points within the river network in a given time (e.g., day, week, month) during the
357 planning horizon (e.g., year).

358 In this study, the proposed modeling framework is applied to an unregulated system for
 359 which bankruptcy (cutback) allocation decisions in each time-step are independent from other
 360 time-steps.

361 3.1. Proportional (P) Rule

362 The P rule satisfies an equal proportion of the creditors' claims. Based on this ancient
 363 bankruptcy method, the equal portion ($\lambda_{p_{i,t}}$) is calculated by dividing the total available resource
 364 by total demand. The P rule's water allocation optimization model for river systems is proposed
 365 in the following mathematical form:

$$366 \text{ Minimize } \lambda_{p_t} - \prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_{p_{i,t}} \quad (10)$$

367 subject to:

$$368 \lambda_{p_{i,t}} = \frac{S_{i,t}}{C_{i,t}} \quad \forall i \quad (11)$$

$$369 \lambda_{p_{i,t}} \leq \lambda_{p_t} \quad \forall i \quad (12)$$

370 where for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ in a given time step t :

371 $\lambda_{p_{i,t}}$ is the riparian i 's proportional allocation coefficient (decision variable), and λ_{p_t} is the
 372 maximum proportional allocation coefficient (decision variable). This optimization model tries
 373 to minimize the latter variable. The second term in the objective function, ensures that the model
 374 has a unique solution and the agents' allocation coefficients ($\lambda_{p_{i,t}}$) are close to each other to the
 375 extent possible. The minimum objective value for a given problem is achieved when the agent's
 376 allocation coefficients are equal. In that case, $\lambda_{p_t} = \lambda_{p_{i,t}}$ and the proportional allocation
 377 coefficients match the proportional cutback rate under the original bankruptcy rule, which is

378 equal to $\frac{E_t}{\sum_{i=1}^m C_{i,t}}$ This case occurs when the flow variability does not make the original

379 bankruptcy rule infeasible.

380

381 3.2. Adjusted Proportional Rule (AP)

382 Based on this rule (Curiel et al., 1988) what remains for beneficiary i once all other
 383 creditors are satisfied is the basis for allocation. To determine the initial amount of allocation to
 384 creditor i , the summation of claims of all other beneficiaries is compared with the available stock
 385 of water. In case of surplus, the initial allocation to stakeholder i is equal to the remaining water
 386 stock once all others are satisfied. Otherwise, the initial allocation to i is set to 0. It is assumed
 387 that the initial allocation calculated through this procedure is agreeable by all beneficiaries. Once
 388 initial allocations are determined claims are revised. Claim of a given beneficiary is set equal to
 389 the minimum of the remaining water and the difference between its initial claim and its initial
 390 allocation. The P rule is then applied to the remaining water stock and the revised claims.

391 The mathematical formulation of the AP rule's river bankruptcy optimization model is
 392 proposed as follows:

$$393 \text{ Minimize } \lambda_{AP_i} - \prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_{AP_{i,t}} \quad (13)$$

394 subject to:

$$395 R_{i,t} = \sum_{j \neq i} C_{j,t} \quad \forall i \quad (14)$$

$$396 v_{i,t} = \frac{E_t - R_{i,t} + |E_t - R_{i,t}|}{2} \quad \forall i \quad (15)$$

$$397 C_{i,t}^* = \text{Min}(C_{i,t}, E_t) \quad \forall i \quad (16)$$

398
$$\lambda_{AP_{i,t}} = \frac{S_{i,t} - v_{i,t}}{C_{i,t}^* - v_{i,t}} \quad \forall i \quad (17)$$

399
$$\lambda_{AP_{i,t}} \leq \lambda_{AP_i} \quad \forall i \quad (18)$$

400
$$\lambda_{AP_i} \leq \frac{E_t - \sum_{i=1}^m v_{i,t}}{\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^m (C_{j,t}^* - v_{j,t})} \quad \forall i \quad (19)$$

401 where for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ in a given time step t :

402 $R_{i,t}$ is the summation of all riparian claims excluding riparian i ; $v_{i,t}$ is the initial allocation to
 403 riparian i (amount of water conceded to riparian i by all other riparians); $\lambda_{AP_{i,t}}$ is the riparian i 's
 404 AP allocation coefficient (decision variable), and λ_{AP_i} is the maximum proportional (AP)
 405 allocation coefficient (decision variable). Similar to the P rule's optimization model, the
 406 minimum objective value is achieved when the original bankruptcy solution is feasible and the
 407 optimized allocations match the allocations under application of the original bankruptcy rules.
 408 The second term in the objective function ensures having a unique solution and minimizes the
 409 differences between the allocation coefficients of the riparians.

410 *3.3. Constrained Equal Award Rule (CEA)*

411 This ancient rule, adopted by rabbinical legislators (Dagan and Volij, 1993) allocates the
 412 minimum of λ_{CEA_i} and $C_{i,t}$ to all beneficiaries, provided that the sum of allocations equals the
 413 total available resource. CEA tries satisfying the lower claims to the extent possible to minimize
 414 the number of unsatisfied creditors. This rule is supposed to favor the lower claims, normally
 415 belonging to weaker beneficiaries who can get more affected by losses (Madani and Dinar,
 416 2012). Based on CEA, the initial allocation to all beneficiaries is equal to the lowest claim,

417 provided that the sum of initial allocations does not exceed the demand. The fully-satisfied
 418 creditor is then excluded and the process continues with the remaining creditors after updating
 419 their unsatisfied claims as well as the remaining resource value. At any stage (including the
 420 initial stage) when allocating an amount equal to the lowest claim to all remaining creditors is
 421 not feasible (due to unavailability of enough resource) the remaining resource is distributed
 422 equally among all remaining creditors.

423 The mathematical formulation of the CEA rule's river bankruptcy optimization model is
 424 proposed as follows:

$$425 \quad \text{Minimize } \lambda_{CEA_t} - \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_{CEA_{i,t}}}{(\lambda_{CEA_t})^{m-1}} \quad (20)$$

426 subject to:

$$427 \quad \lambda_{CEA_{i,t}} = S_{i,t} \quad \forall i \quad (21)$$

$$428 \quad \lambda_{CEA_{i,t}} \leq \lambda_{CEA_t} \quad \forall i \quad (22)$$

429 where for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ in a given time step t :

430 $\lambda_{CEA_{i,t}}$ is the feasible allocation to the riparian i (decision variable), and λ_{CEA_t} is the highest
 431 feasible allocation to the creditors in time step t (decision variable). The second term in the
 432 objective function is to enforce a unique solution and to minimize the difference between the
 433 allocations which would be equal in absence of resource accessibility limitations. Given that
 434 λ_{CEA_t} can be more than 1 (different from the λ_{P_t} and λ_{AP_t} which are always less than or equal 1)
 435 the second term is divided by a positive number of comparable magnitude to ensure that the
 436 second term is always smaller than or equal to the first term.

437 3.4. Constrained Equal Loss Rule (CEL)

438 This rule can be viewed as the opposite of CEA, as it gives priority to satisfying the
439 highest claims (more powerful creditors) first. Once the highest claim is satisfied, the process is
440 repeated with the remaining resource and creditors. The process stops at any stage (including the
441 first stage) if the available resource is not sufficient to satisfy the highest claim of the remaining
442 creditors. At this stage, the remaining resource is split equally among the remaining creditors. By
443 doing this, CEL allocates $C_i - \lambda_{CEL_t}$ to all beneficiaries whose claims are bigger than λ_{CEL_t} ,
444 allocating 0 to those who do not fall in this category. So, the final allocation to each beneficiary
445 is equal to $\max\{0, C_i - \lambda_{CEL_t}\}$.

446 The CEL rule's river bankruptcy optimization model is proposed as follows:

$$447 \quad \text{Minimize } \lambda_{CEL_t} - \frac{\prod_{i=1}^m \lambda_{CEL_{i,t}}}{(\lambda_{CEL_t})^{m-1}} \quad (23)$$

448 subject to:

$$449 \quad \lambda_{CEL_{i,t}} = C_{i,t} - S_{i,t} \quad \forall i \quad (24)$$

$$450 \quad \lambda_{CEL_{i,t}} \leq \lambda_{CEL_t} \quad \forall i \quad (25)$$

451 where for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ in a given time step t :

452 $\lambda_{CEL_{i,t}}$ is the unmet claim of the riparian i (decision variable), and λ_{CEL_t} is the maximum unmet
453 claim of all riparians (decision variable).

454 **4. Example: The Qezelozan- Sefidrood River Bankruptcy Problem**

455 The proposed framework is applied to develop bankruptcy-based water allocation
456 schemes for resolving a real-world trans-boundary river conflict in Iran. The Qezelozan-
457 Sefidrood river basin (Figure 2) is located in the intersection of the Iran's Alborz and Zagros

458 mountain ranges, with an area about 59,400 km², making it the largest basin of the nation. The
459 basin overlaps with eight provinces (Kurdistan, Hamadan, Zanjan, Eastern Azerbaijan, Ardebil,
460 Tehran, Qazvin and Gilan) and the river provides the basis for important economic activities in
461 these provinces. The river eventually flows into the Caspian Sea in north of Iran, which is the
462 largest enclosed body of water in the world and the source of more than 90% of the world's
463 caviar supply (Madani et al., 2014b). Supplying the required environmental flows of the Caspian
464 Sea is essential to health of the sea and its valuable ecosystem.

465 While the study basin is not international, interprovincial or interstate basins are
466 effectively equivalent to international basins as long as their boundaries do not match the
467 political boundaries and they are managed by more than one authority. The Qezelozan-Sefidrood
468 river basin is an example of a trans-boundary river basin, in which serious conflict has arisen as a
469 result of recent socio-economic (i.e., population increase and development), political (i.e.,
470 changes in the water resources management structure), and hydrologic and climatic (i.e., frequent
471 droughts) changes. As a result of political changes in the country, the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river,
472 which was historically shared by six Iranian provinces and managed by only one water resources
473 authority, is now shared by eight provinces and managed by eight water authorities. As a result
474 of population increase and development in the region, each province is trying to increase its
475 share from the river and minimize the outgoing flow, resulting in significant reduction of water
476 flowing into downstream provinces. To increase their water uses from the river, the upstream
477 provinces have aggressive water resources development plans. These development plans include
478 construction of multiple new reservoirs, which are currently under construction or in the study
479 phase. Complete implementation of these plans will negatively impact the downstream
480 provinces, that historically have had more access to the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river due to their

481 stronger political and economic power as well as higher populations. Therefore, the political
482 tension has increased in the basin, making Qezelozan-Sefidrood river the subject of one of the
483 most intractable conflicts over water resources in Iran. To show the utility of the proposed model
484 in solving trans-boundary water allocation conflicts, the proposed framework is applied to derive
485 new water allocation schemes for the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river system.

486 To first step in solving river bankruptcy problems is determining the legitimate claims of
487 the riparian parties. This step is challenging in unregulated systems without established water
488 rights. In case of Qezelozan-Sefidrood river, we propose three alternatives for determining the
489 claims of the riparian parties. These alternatives, which help setting the upper and lower
490 boundaries of the claims include:

- 491 1) Historical uses: Based on this alternative, historical uses of Qezelozan-Sefidrood river,
492 revealed by the historical water use data are set as the claims of the riparians. The water
493 use values are calculated based on the difference between the recorded inflows and
494 outflows of each province at the hydrometric satiations. This alternative sets the lower
495 claim boundary for each riparian.
- 496 2) Planned uses: Iran is one of the countries with a high number of under-construction dams.
497 Currently, several water storage projects are under development at different locations in
498 the riparian states of Qezelozan-Sefidrood river. These projects have received approval
499 from the central government, receiving financial support from the central and provincial
500 governments. Each project has an associated estimation of sectorial water demands (i.e.
501 domestic, agricultural, industrial, and environmental) used for calculation of the required
502 storage capacity. Based on this alternative, total claim of each riparian is set equal to the

503 total documented water demands of different Qezelozan-Sefidrood river-related
504 reservoirs within its boundaries, which are already in operation or under development.

505 3) Future uses: Beside under-construction projects, each riparian state has plans for getting
506 approval for constructing additional water storage infrastructure to meet its increasing
507 water demand as a result of development. Based on this claim estimation alternative,
508 water demands of these additional facilities will be added to the water claims calculated
509 based on alternative 2, only if plans for construction of these facilities have been publicly
510 announced. This alternative sets the upper claim boundary for each riparian.

511 Figure 3 indicates the estimated monthly water claims of the riparian states of the
512 Qezelozan-Sefidrood river based on the three proposed methods. Detailed calculations of water
513 claims based on the proposed claim determination alternatives can be found in Zarezadeh (2011).
514 Given that allocation solutions can be sensitive to climatic/hydrologic conditions, three different
515 water availability scenarios, representing three distinct hydrologic conditions, normal (average),
516 dry, wet, were initially considered for solving the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river bankruptcy
517 problem. In the normal scenario river flows are based on the average monthly river discharges
518 during the 1956-2006 period. Dry scenario flows match the average monthly river discharges
519 during the major drought of 1998-2001 in the region. The wet scenario flows are based on the
520 monthly flows during the 1968-1969 period. The annual river discharge under the wet scenario
521 will be sufficient to meet the historical, planned, and future claims of the riparian states and the
522 Caspian Sea's (sink) water demand (Figure 4). Therefore, river bankruptcy problem is solved
523 only for the normal and dry cases.

524 Due to the unclear status of water rights/claims and the future status of reservoir networks
525 in the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river system, the system is considered as an unregulated system here,

526 disregarding the possible benefits resulting from coordination of reservoir operation strategies in
527 the basin. The problem is solved using a monthly time-step and allocations are determined in
528 each time-step separately. Under this approach the total allocation to each riparian over the
529 whole planning horizon (e.g. year) is the summation of bankruptcy allocations in the existing
530 time-steps within the planning horizon (e.g. twelve months).

531 Figure 5 indicates the monthly water yield of the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river system under
532 the normal and dry conditions as well as the total monthly claims of the riparian parties
533 (including Caspian Sea's water demand). This figure clearly shows the water bankruptcy
534 situation in the Qezelozan-Sefidrood river system in almost half of the year, especially in warmer
535 months with higher agricultural water demands.

536 The four proposed bankruptcy optimization models in section 3 were run under two
537 hydrologic scenarios to calculate bankruptcy allocations under normal and dry conditions. The
538 models were first run on a monthly basis to calculate the monthly allocations. Summation of 12
539 monthly allocations based on each model with a given set of claims under a given hydrology
540 determines the corresponding annual allocation of each province. The annual bankruptcy
541 allocations based on different bankruptcy models, claims, and hydrologies are presented in
542 Figure 6.

543 As expected based on definition, the CEL method favors the creditor with the highest
544 claim (in this the downstream Province of Gilan). The opposite is true for the CEA method
545 which gives priority to satisfy the claims of the creditors with lower claims (in this the provinces
546 upstream of Gilan). The AP and P methods can be considered as moderate allocation methods
547 which result in allocations that are between the high and low allocations estimated by the other
548 two methods. In comparison with P, the AP method allocates a higher share to the parties with

549 lower claims and a lower share to the parties with higher claims, trying to address the bias
550 toward higher claims in the P method. The difference between the allocation values for different
551 claims and hydrologies underline the sensitivity of bankruptcy allocation schemes to the
552 difference in claim values and hydrologic conditions in bankruptcy problems.

553 **5. Stability Evaluation**

554 The suggested bankruptcy optimization models provide different allocation solutions,
555 based on different notions of fairness. Therefore, their acceptability is always questionable, given
556 that there is always at least one beneficiary who finds one of the given alternatives unfair
557 because she can gain more under another rule (Madani and Lund, 2011). As one of the most
558 commonly used social choice (voting) methods (Sheikhmohammady and Madani, 2008; Madani
559 et al., 2014c), Plurality Index can be considered as an indicator of potential acceptability of a
560 decision rule in multi-participant decision-making problems. Based on this index, the number of
561 stakeholders who prefer one method to the others is simply an indicator of the degree of
562 acceptance of that method (Dinar and Howitt, 1997).

563 The higher the allocation to a riparian state, the more preferred the allocation rule
564 (bankruptcy method) by that state. Table 1 shows the Plurality Index (number of votes received)
565 of each bankruptcy solution method for different claim values under different hydrologies. The
566 assumption is that each party selects the allocation scheme that gives it the highest share. Given
567 that the Hamadan Province has no historical or planned claim, its vote is only counted when
568 future claims are considered. Based on Plurality Index, the CEA method, which highly satisfies
569 the riparians with lower claims (majority in this case) in both normal and dry conditions, is the
570 winner. However, given the absolute objection of the most powerful province, i.e. Gilan, to this

571 method, which allocates low shares to this province, this solution is not practical without strong
572 intervention of the central government or providing strong cooperation incentives to Gilan.

573 Majority does not necessarily win in multi-participant decision-making problems with
574 asymmetric decision-makers' powers, especially when the minority group is powerful.
575 Therefore, the Plurality Index might is not very appropriate for identifying the feasible solution
576 when there is power imbalance among the beneficiaries. Other methods can be used to quantify
577 the potential acceptability of allocation solutions (Read et al., 2014). Loehman et al. (1979) used
578 the following Power Index (α_i), originally developed by Shapley and Shubik, 1954, to evaluate
579 the power of players in cooperative game theory problems in which players are trying to find the
580 best method for allocating the incremental benefits of cooperation to coalition members:

$$581 \quad \alpha_i = \frac{x_i - x_i'}{\sum_{j \in N} (x_j - x_j')}, \quad i \in N, \quad \sum_{i \in N} \alpha_i = 1 \quad (26)$$

582 where x_i is the allocated cooperative benefit share to player i , x_i' is the status-quo (non-
583 cooperative) gain of player i , and N is the set of all players.

584 A high Power Index value reflects less power or a higher willingness to cooperate. A
585 stable allocation solution can be achieved when the power is distributed more or less equally
586 among the players (Dinar and Howitt, 1997). Therefore, the coefficient of variation of powers,
587 also known as Stability Index (S_α) is used as an indicator of the stability of allocation solutions:

$$588 \quad S_\alpha = \frac{\sigma_\alpha}{\bar{\alpha}} \quad (27)$$

589 where σ_α is the standard deviation of powers and $\bar{\alpha}$ is the mean power. The lower the index,
590 the more stable the allocation solution.

591 Given that cooperation in bankruptcy problems does not have incremental benefits and
 592 parties' gains are zero in the status-quo, the Power Index is not readily quantifiable in bankruptcy
 593 problems. Therefore, we propose modification of Power Index (BPI) for bankruptcy problems as
 594 follows:

$$595 \quad BPI_i = \frac{S_i - v_i}{\sum_{j \in N} (S_j - v_j)}, \quad i \in N, \quad \sum_{i \in N} BPI_i = 1 \quad (28)$$

596 where:

$$597 \quad S_i = \sum_{t=1}^n S_{i,t} \quad (29)$$

$$598 \quad v_i = \sum_{t=1}^n v_{i,t} \quad (30)$$

599 BPI_i is the Bankruptcy Power Index (BPI) of riparian i , v_i is the sum of the conceded water to
 600 riparian i by all other riparians in all time-steps in the overall planning horizon, N is the set of
 601 riparians, and n is the number of time-steps in the planning horizon ($n=12$ months in the study
 602 example).

603 Bankruptcy Allocation Stability Index (BASI) is then equal to the coefficient of variation
 604 of BPIs, which can be used to evaluate the potential acceptability of a bankruptcy solution:

$$605 \quad BASI = \frac{\sigma_{BPI}}{\overline{BPI}} \quad (31)$$

606 where σ_{BPI} is the standard deviation of riparian powers and \overline{BPI} is mean power. The higher the
 607 index, the less stable the allocation solution.

608 Table 2 shows the BASI value for each bankruptcy solution under a given hydrology for
 609 a unique claim set. Based on this table, the CEL method is the most stable method under the

610 normal hydrology even though this method is not the most popular method (based on the
611 Popularity Index). Given that stability (feasibility) is more important than popularity (social
612 optimality) in conflict resolution (Read et al., 2014) we can conclude that CEL is the best
613 mechanism for water allocation in this bankruptcy study case. Nevertheless, the stability of this
614 method is sensitive to the hydrological conditions and this method becomes the least stable
615 allocation method under dry conditions. Under the dry conditions, the P rule is the most stable
616 with lower demands. As the demands increase, the CEA method (the most popular method)
617 becomes more stable. The changes in stability of allocation rules with changes in demand and
618 hydrology, shows that not only stability of allocation mechanism is sensitive to both the
619 hydrologic conditions (water availability) and the claim set characteristics. Future studies can
620 focus on understanding the correlations between the claim set characteristics (magnitude of
621 claims, heterogeneity of claims, etc.), resource availability, and BASI of allocation rules.

622 **6. Conclusions**

623 Using an example of real-world river bankruptcy problem, this work formed the basis and
624 set practical guidelines for developing allocation schemes for resolving trans-boundary water
625 allocation conflicts based on bankruptcy methods. Although the suggested approach does not
626 necessarily maximize the total welfare in the basin and might result in sub-optimal allocations
627 from the economic standpoint, it can be used to develop practical solutions when side-payments
628 are not feasible, parties are not highly cooperative (or not interested in implementing solutions
629 based on conventional cooperative game theory solutions), and utility information is not
630 available.

631 Considering the non-uniform spatial and temporal variability of water flows, resulting in
632 unequal access to water in river systems, the work proposed solving river bankruptcy problems

633 using non-linear optimization models. Four river bankruptcy network flow optimization models
634 were proposed based on four conventional bankruptcy rules, i.e. Proportional (P), Adjusted
635 Proportional (AP), Constrained Equal Award (CEA), and Constrained Equal Loss (CEL), for
636 trans-boundary water allocation. The models can be applied to any river network (or bankruptcy
637 network) problem, irrespective of its shape and resource variability/accessibility conditions.

638 Acknowledging the difference in the notion of fairness and the possibility of rejection of
639 suggested allocations by the beneficiaries, who find certain allocation rules unfair, there is need
640 for evaluating the acceptability of different bankruptcy solutions. While popularity of each
641 solution is a simple indicator of the potential acceptability of a solution, it was argued that in
642 case of asymmetric powers, majority cannot necessary determine the feasible solution, especially
643 when the powerful parties do not support the most popular solution. Therefore, a new index
644 (Bankruptcy Allocation Stability Index) was formulated for evaluating the potential
645 acceptability/stability of allocation solutions with respect to distribution of claims and
646 dissatisfaction among the beneficiaries.

647 Evaluation of the stability of different bankruptcy allocation solutions for different water
648 demand and hydrologic scenarios suggested that acceptability is sensitive to both water demand
649 (claim) and water availability. This finding has a significant policy implication for trans-
650 boundary water management, suggesting that inflexible water allocation agreements and treaties
651 that have been developed based on stationary assumptions are not resilient, especially in face of
652 the expected socio-economic and climatic changes.

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Table 1. Plurality Index of different bankruptcy solutions for different claims and hydrologies

Claim	Hydrology									
	Normal					Dry				
	P	AP	CEL	CEA	Winner	P	AP	CEL	CEA	Winner
Historical	0	0	1	<u>6</u>	CEA	0	0	1	<u>6</u>	CEA
Planned	0	0	1	<u>6</u>	CEA	0	1	1	<u>5</u>	CEA
Future	0	1	1	<u>6</u>	CEA	0	2	1	<u>5</u>	CEA

Table 2. Bankruptcy Index Values of different bankruptcy solutions for different claims and hydrologies

Scenario	Bankruptcy Stability Index							
	Normal				Dry			
	P	AP	CEL	CEA	P	AP	CEL	CEA
Historical	0.11	0.10	<u>0.07</u>	0.15	<u>0.90</u>	1.00	1.33	1.27
Planned	0.31	0.31	<u>0.21</u>	0.43	1.11	1.01	1.68	<u>0.77</u>
Future	6.57	6.49	<u>3.48</u>	9.65	1.01	0.95	1.54	<u>0.73</u>

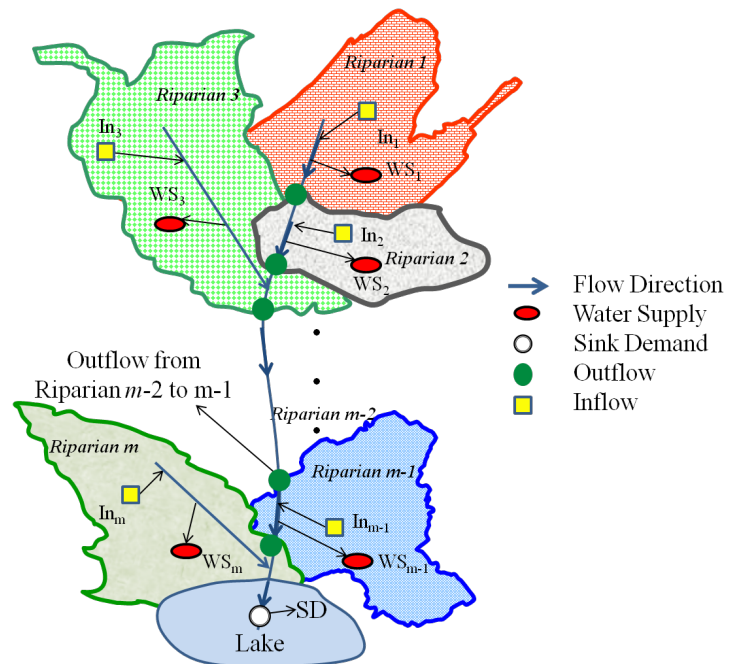


Figure 1. Schematic map of a trans-boundary river network

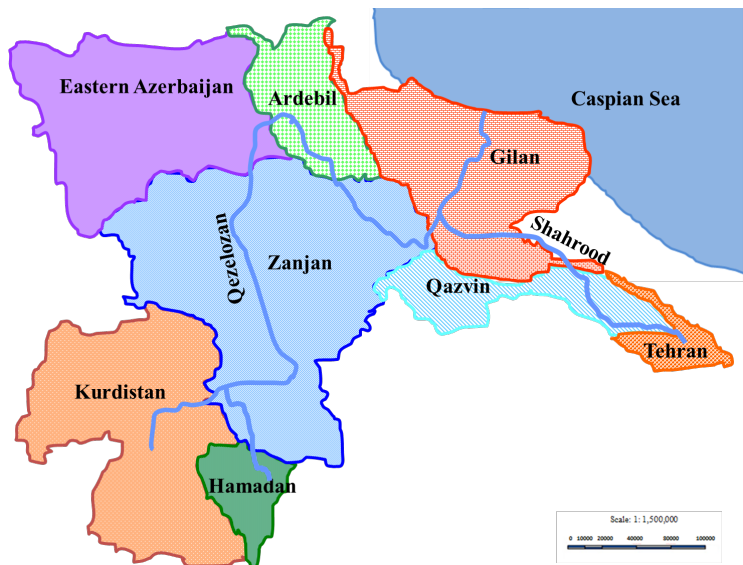


Figure 2. Qezelozan-Sefidrood river basin and its eight riparian provinces

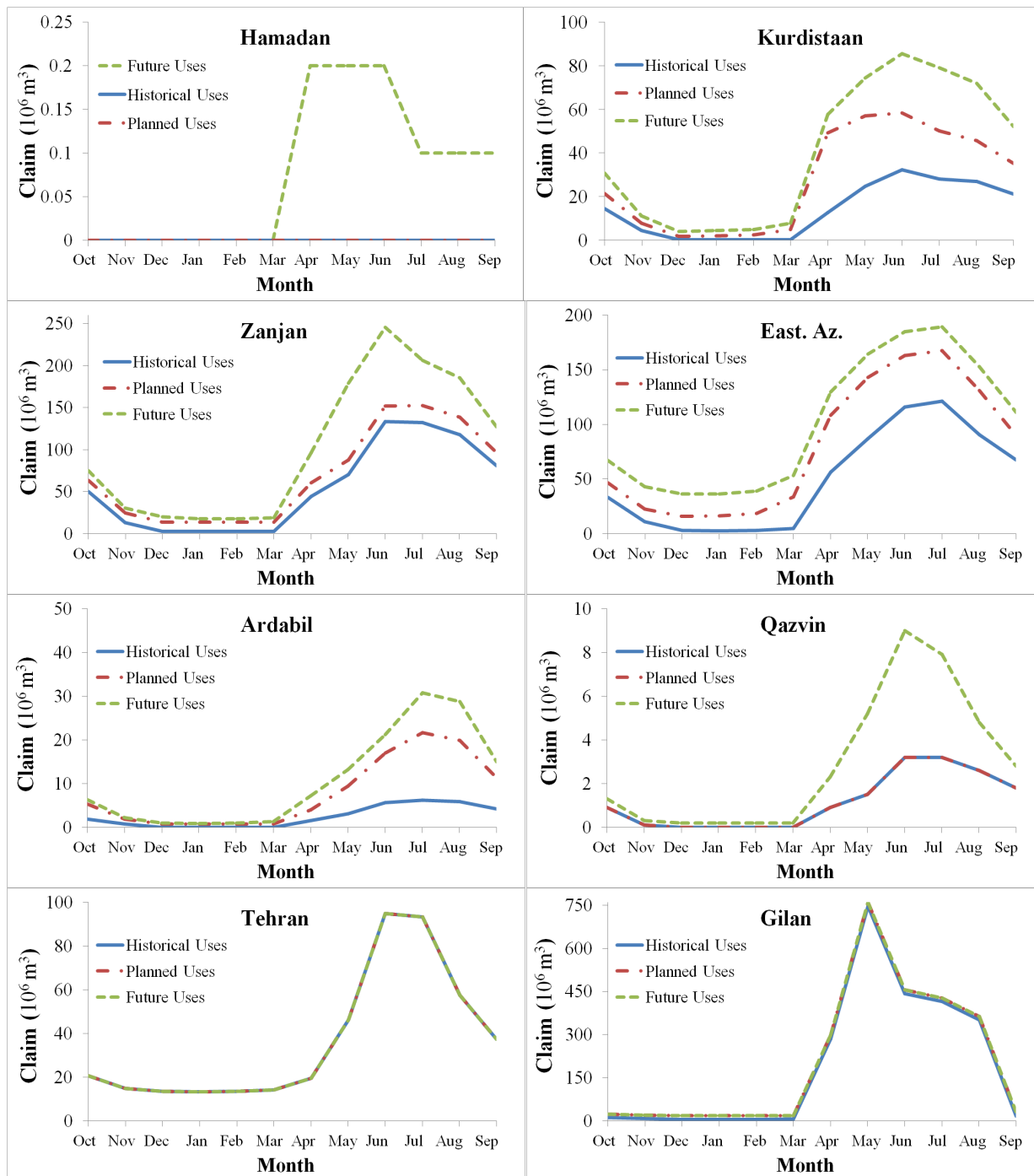


Figure 3. Estimated monthly claims of the riparian provinces based on the three proposed claim calculation method

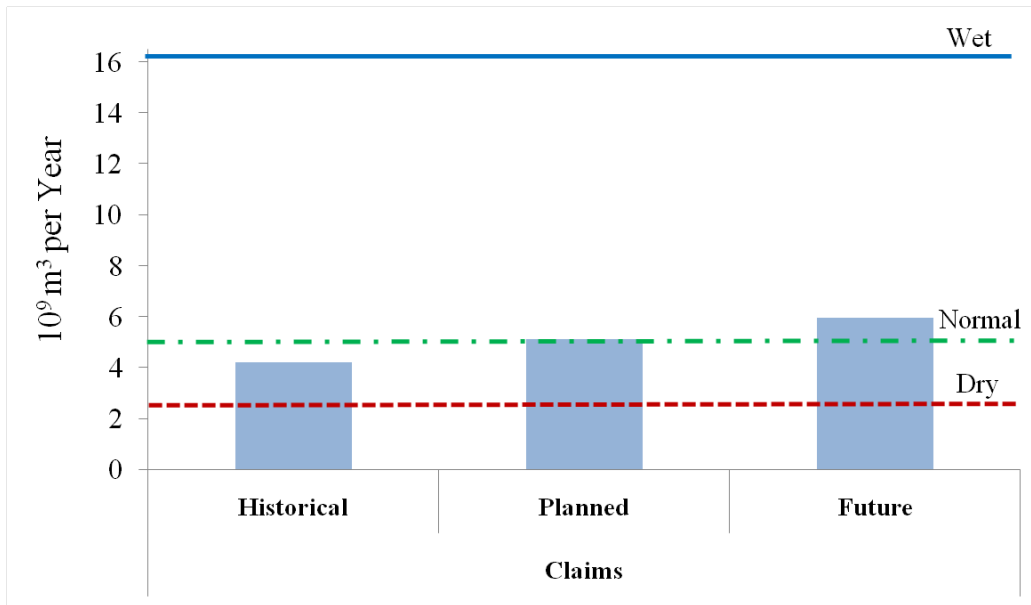


Figure 4. Total annual claims (including Caspian Sea's water demand) based on three different claim estimation methods and total annual water yield under three different hydrologic scenarios

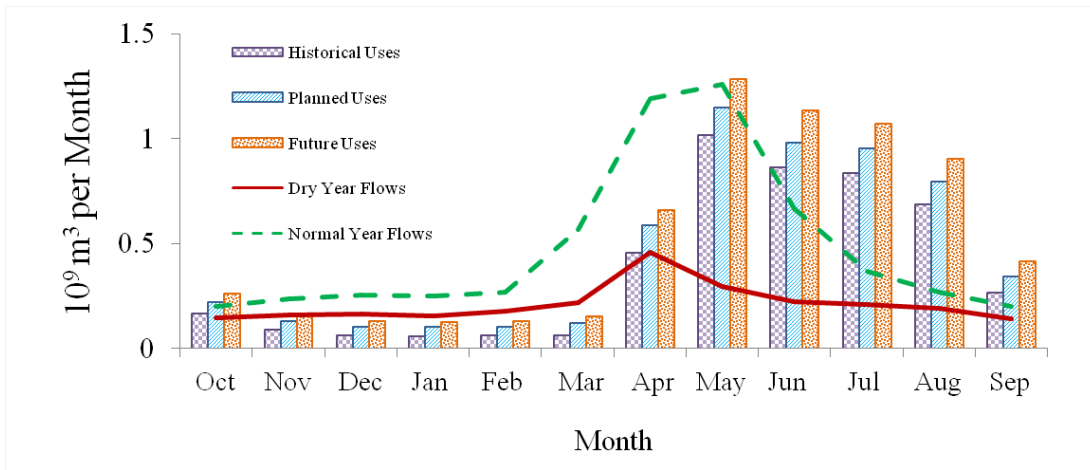


Figure 5. Total monthly claims (including Caspian Sea's water demand) based on three different claim estimation methods and total annual water yield under normal and dry hydrologies

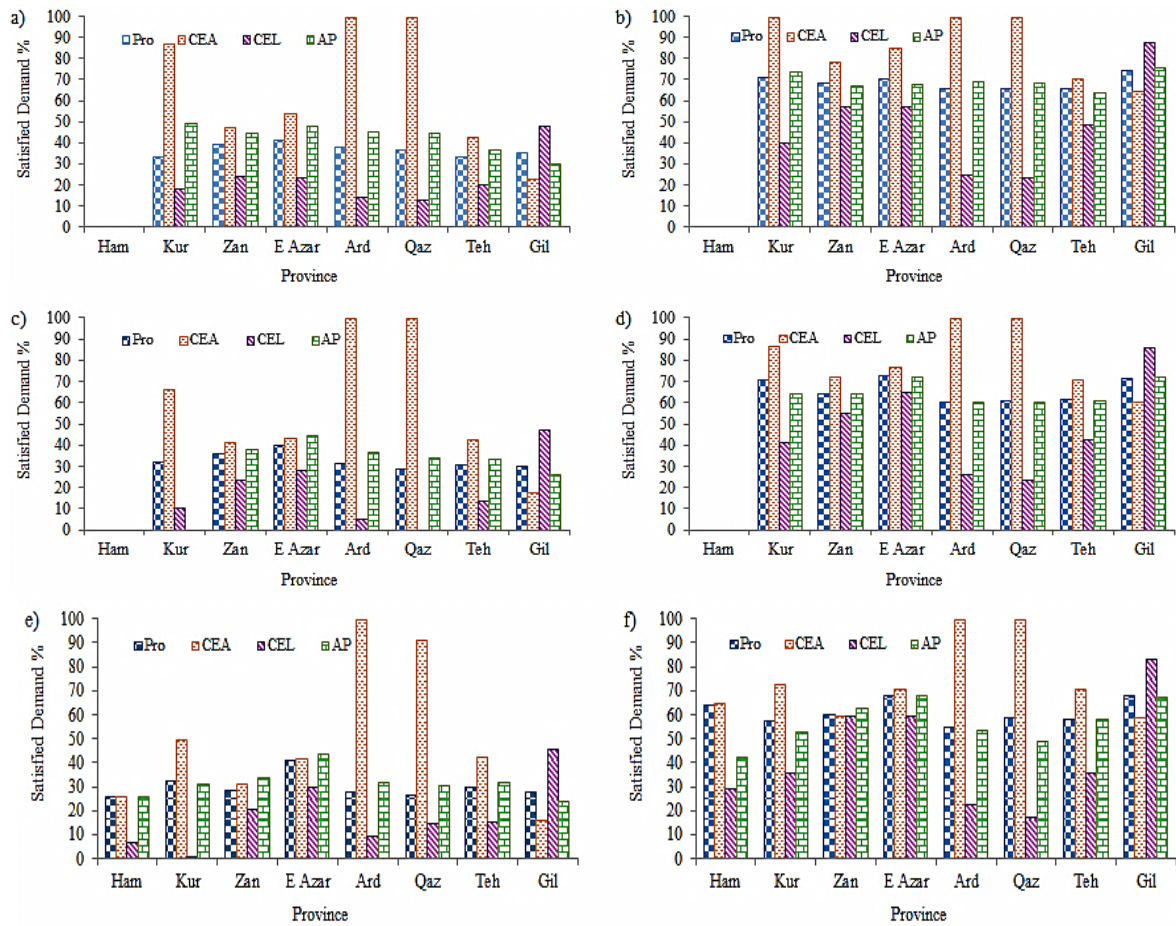


Figure 6. Satisfied annual water claim (%) of the riparian provinces based on different bankruptcy solution methods for different claims and hydrologies (a: historical claim in normal year, b: historical claim in dry year, c: planned claim in normal year, d: planned claim in dry year, e: future claim in normal year, and f: future claim in dry year)