

## Author`s Response

Dear Sir or Madam,

Thank you very much for reviewing our manuscript. We are thankful to the reviewers for their valuable comments. We have revised the manuscript based on their comments and herewith submit the revised manuscript.

Here we address all their comments and point out, highlighted in blue color, what we have changed in the revised manuscript.

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

With best regards

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Manuscript:

Hahn, C., Prasuhn, V., Stamm, Milledge, D.G., and Schulin, R.: A comparison of three simple approaches to identify critical areas for runoff and phosphorus losses.

MS No.: hess-2013-475

### **Response to comments from Reviewer #1**

**1. Page 2, line 43: Also bank erosion has recently been shown to be an important P-source in lowland streams (cf. Kronvang, B., Audet, J., Baattrup-Pedersen, A., Jensen, H.S. and Larsen, S.E. 2012. Phosphorus loss via bank erosion in a Danish lowland river basin. Journal of Environmental Quality 41, 304-313).**

The study of Kronvang et al. 2012 is important for catchment managers trying to reduce total P losses to surface waters. While the focus of our manuscript lies on the prediction of dissolved reactive phosphorus losses, we included the findings of Kronvang et al. 2012 in the discussion section 4.2.2 “sources and types of P”:

[L 527-528: “Particulate P losses can be high, especially on arable land \(Doody et al., 2012\) or due to bank erosion \(Kronvang et al., 2012\).”](#)

**2. In Table 2 you are using different numbers of decimals for the two catchments - why? and can you argue that the uncertainty of the estimate is lower in one of the catchments?**

There was no specific reason why we used different numbers of decimals in Table 2. We made it uniform and now state integers.

Table 2:

	STO1	STO2	STO3	DP
	----- % -----			
LIP	14	69	9	8
Stäg	6	61	11	23

**3. The same problem with number of decimals goes for Table 3 and 4 where you have shown the percentages with one decimal - are you sure that this can be given with this precision?**

We have chosen to display the data with one decimal because it shows that 1) there are not zero but very few high to very high RRP risk class pixel within the DoRP storage class “deep drainage” (Table 3), and because like this the sum amounts to a 100. Using integers would not necessarily sum to 100 (e.g. Table 3, Stägbach catchment, medium RRP risk class) and thus might have caused confusion. Since in Table 3 and 4 we compare the outcome of two different models, it is possible to present the result with this precision.

**Response to comments from Reviewer #2**

**The conclusions of the paper (section 5) unfortunately do not go much beyond what was already known prior to model application (the same is true for section 4.2 on model limitations)**

We only partially agree with this critique. We do think that this study resulted in interesting findings that give new insight and have not been fully outlined before. On the other hand, we agree that sections like the Abstract or the Conclusions convey this information only to a limited degree because they contain (in their current form) too many generalities for which the assessment above holds true. Below we list explicitly the main points we consider the relevant findings. Upon revision of the manuscript, we will point out these issues more clearly.

- 1) The three approaches represent (partially) different influencing factors: soil type, topography and connectivity. It is known from the literature that each of these three factors may play a crucial role for diffuse P losses to surface waters. However, comparisons of approaches based on them in different ways are not wide-spread. Accordingly, the outcome of the comparison is not evident before the analysis.
- 2) The comparison of the RRP and the SCIMAP model shows how the risk predicted by SCIMAP may vary as a function of event size (change in time) and of soil type (spatial heterogeneity) (see Fig. 7). Such analyses have been lacking so far. SCIMAP identifies similar critical areas for DRP without using time series data. Hence, this information can be used to extend SCIMAP as a valuable screening tool.
- 3) While Lane et al. 2009 also evaluated the Network Index using a dynamic model they suggest that it is necessary to further investigate the index’s potential with regards to the duration of integration (monthly, yearly, decadal). Our finding that the stepwise linear relationship with zero risk up to the 5 % NI quantile and a maximum risk level with no further change at the 95 % Network Index (NI) quantile was appropriate for storm events, is in contrast to previous expectations (Lane et al., 2006; Lane et al. 2009): To delineate the connection risk from the network index we used the approach suggested by Reaney et al. 2011. A connection of 0 was assigned to places with NI values below their 5 % quantile and a connection of 1 to places with NI values above the 95 % quantile. Between the 5 and 95%

quantiles a linear relationship between NI and the connection risk was assumed. Our study showed that this approach produces model results similar to results from the RRP model for storm events. It has previously been assumed that SCIMAP predicts the average risk over years rather than over an individual storm event. For average risk predictions we suggest a modification of the relationship between NI and connection risk.

4) Furthermore, we point out that SCIMAP needs some rescaling if it is used for comparative purposes across catchments.

We rephrased the final statements of the abstract and parts of the introduction to better point out the novelty of the paper:

Abstract:

L13-14: “Based on the results, we suggest improvements of SCIMAP to enable average risk predictions and the comparison of risk predictions between catchments.”

Introduction:

L74-76: “While the three models represent very different approaches, their performance has never been tested in direct comparison. Our hypothesis here was that we can get useful information from such a comparison not just about the specific models, but also on the underlying general approaches.”

....

L81-84: “While Lane et al. (2009) also evaluated the Network Index using a dynamic model they suggest that it is necessary to further investigate the index’s potential with regards to the duration of integration (monthly, yearly). We therefore focus on that aspect during our assessment of SCIMAP.”

...

L91-93: “In addition, we assess the performance of SCIMAP regarding the duration of integration (storm event, yearly) and the comparability of SCIMAP results between catchments. “

**The study is further limited methodologically by using the RRP model as a benchmark to compare the other models against. The authors justify this based on their calibration/validated of the model as reported in Hahn et al., 2013). However, the calibration timeseries was extremely short (7-17 July 2000, P14504, L5) and I doubt that all important modes of behaviour of the system are reflected in the calibration information and hence the model parameters. The validation periods used in the present paper are equally short (Mar-Nov 1999 and May-Aug 2010 for the 2 catchments, respectively). So RRP is, in my opinion, not a robust benchmark.**

The Reviewer raises a very important issue: what is a meaningful benchmark for method comparison? Obviously, direct, spatially distributed flux measurements of DRP (reaching the stream!) would be optimal. However, there is no such data that can be used as a benchmark. This is a fundamental limitation of most studies on distributed hydrological model and we cannot solve this problem here. As a substitute, we argue that the predictions from the RRP model are a useful benchmark for our purpose because i) the RRP model is the most complete of the three approaches accounting for most of the factors included in the others, and ii) because the RRP model was validated using not only data from the catchment outlet but also spatial data (see p. 14499, L. 56 -7). Furthermore, we consider that the calibration procedure performs better than the reviewer suggests:

Short calibration time series:

- The observation is correct that the calibration period was short. However, the crucial question is whether the calibration period covered a sufficient range of the relevant system states during this period. As mentioned earlier (Lazzarotto et al., 2006) and restated in our recent publication on the RRP model (Hahn et al., 2013) this calibration period covered a

wide range of streamflow conditions. This aspect is more important than the length of the calibration period (Gupta and Sorooshian, 1985; Lazzarotto et al., 2006; Yapo et al., 1996). We now mention that in the manuscript.

Validation time series:

- The main DRP losses occur during the growing season. Accordingly, the model includes processes relevant during this period but neglects for example snow cover and snow melt. Thus the model should only be used for periods between March and November. The first validation period covers this time span, while the validation period in 2010 is indeed relatively short. Still it is about eight times longer than the calibration period and covers a wide range of soil moisture and hydrological conditions (see (Hahn et al., 2013)).

Based on these arguments we consider that the calibrated RRP is a reasonable benchmark.

In the introduction we added an argument explaining why we have used the RRP as a benchmark: L84-88: “We used the RRP model as reference because it is the most comprehensive of the three models and it had already been validated against data from the catchment outlets as well as from within the experimental catchments, including observations on soil moisture, runoff generation and groundwater levels. For a detailed presentation and discussion of the validation of RRP readers are referred to (Hahn et al., 2013; Lazzarotto, 2005).”

In the section 2.2.1 we furthermore added not only an explanation of the calibration method (as was requested) but also point out, that the calibration period covered a wide range of stream flow conditions:

L117-120: “While not being very long, the calibration period covered a wide range of stream flow conditions, which is more important than its actual length for obtaining reliable results (Gupta and Sorooshian, 1985; Lazzarotto et al., 2006; Yapo et al., 1996).”

**The authors state regarding the validation of the DoRP model that “no reliable statement for the Stägbach catchment is possible due to the limited number of observations” (P14505, L17-18), and I believe the same is true for the other catchment and for RRP.**

We cannot follow the argument why the limitation that we state for the Stägbach is generalized by the reviewer to the catchment and RRP in general:

- This statement refers to the fact, that only three runoff events were used to assess the performance of DoRP in the Stägbach catchment. Thus, it is not clear whether we see a trend or whether the one data point with high discharge in Fig. 3 is an outlier.
- For the Lippenrütibach catchment more information was available
- The RRP model can simulate the whole time series, not only the discharge for certain events. Thus, enough data points for validation are available.

We added the following sentences in the manuscript (section 3.1.2) to clarify that this statement holds true only for the Stägbach catchment and the DoRP predictions:

L257-260: “In contrast to the RRP model, DoRP predicts discharge only in direct response to rainfall events, and thus, due to the small number of events, no reliable comparison with discharge measurements was possible for the Stägbach catchment. For the Lippenrütibach catchments more runoff events were available to compare DoRP predictions with measurements.”

**In addition, I had the following comments:**

**P14498, L28-29: Is this not pre-empting the results? What about DoRP?**

No, here we just wanted to point out that: DoRP itself only comprises the hydrological part. RRP and SCIMAP on the other hand already include a hydrological and a source (or phosphorus) part. We modified the manuscript to make this clear. In addition, the three approaches account for different influencing factors (see above) and it is not clear from the beginning what the outcome of this comparison will be.

We added the following sentence in the introduction to clarify that:

L71-73: “DoRP on the other hand solely comprises the hydrological part and does not originally provide a structure to combine the hydrological predictions with pollutant source data.”

**P14500, L7: Please explain uniform MC method.**

P14500, L7: “The model was simultaneously calibrated (uniform Monte Carlo method) on discharge data from four catchments draining into Lake Sempach.”

We inserted the following sentences to explain the uniform MC method:

L114-117: “The four catchments varied in soil composition and hydrological responses. The model parameters were determined by repeated random sampling from a uniform prior distribution within the range of each parameter. The performance of each parameter combination was assessed by comparing simulated discharge with measured discharge in the four catchments.”

P14500, L9: “Using the modified Nash-Sutcliffe criterion NSC as defined by Lazzarotto et al. (2006) and a NSC threshold of 0,6 724 parameter sets out of 5 million were judged behavioural and used for model application”

**P14500, L9-12: Is this not the classic GLUE method? What is the justification of the choice of performance measure (NSC) and behavioural threshold (0.6), particularly in relation to more sophisticated methods such as formal Bayesian methods and extended GLUE (e.g. Romanowicz & Beven, 2003; Rankinen et al., 2006; Winsemius et al., 2009; Krueger et al., 2012)? This is not discussed in in the original modelling study (Hahn et al, 2013)**

This argument is not clear to us: Based on the references given, several quite different issues could be raised. Accordingly, our response addresses several issues:

- i) Is it a classical GLUE method? The answer is a partial YES. As in GLUE, we define (in a subjective manner) a threshold for behavioral results. However, we avoid interpreting the relative frequency of behavioral parameter sets causing for example fast flow in a probabilistic sense (see (Hahn et al., 2013)).
- ii) Justification for NSC: This critique is a bit surprising given the fact that the reviewer refers for example to (Rankinen et al., 2006). These authors actually rely on NSC for their distinction between behavioral and non-behavioral parameter sets (complemented partially by soft data, see below). Accordingly,
- iii) Implicitly, the question by the reviewer suggests that the classical GLUE method is not appropriate for the task described in this manuscript and refers to formal Bayesian methods and to extensions of GLUE. Because, the reviewer only refers to articles on extensions of GLUE we briefly discuss issues emerging from the cited articles that might be relevant in our context. One aspect that is raised by these articles is the inclusion of soft data into the evaluation of parameter sets (Rankinen et al., 2006; Winsemius et al., 2009). In our case, one could have thought about integrating “soft data” like the observation of surface runoff at different locations into the evaluation. However,

formulating a well-founded quantitative expression is not straight forward. It seems at least questionable whether a formal inclusion of these data had improved our analysis as compared to our approach to consider these observations for the discussion.

In summary, we consider the approach appropriate to the objective of this paper. We do not see which of the findings is expected to change significantly if one had chosen a different method.

In section 2.1.1 we added the following sentences to address this issue:

L123-125: “This GLUE approach produced parameter values that gave very good predictions of the discharge for validation time periods as well as for a different catchment and thus was considered satisfactory.”

We did not include a more detailed discussion in the manuscript because it could not be fully addressed without extending the manuscript substantially.

**P14506, L23: Homogeneous rather than heterogeneous?**

Yes, thanks for pointing out this error.

Corrected in the revised manuscript (L288).

**P14507, L12-14: I wonder whether the lambda/NI comparison can be given more prominence, perhaps as a new focus of the paper?**

As suggested by the reviewer, we expanded the comparison between SCIMAP results and RRP with respect to the duration of integration and include kappa calculation (see Table 5 and sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2; L356-358 and L393-395) to put more weight on this issue. The comparison of lambda and NI however shows only minor differences for our catchments (Figure SI-1), and we think that it is more interesting to focus on the relationship between the RRP risk to generate fast flow and the NI, as we have done in sections 3.1.4 and 3.2:

**P14507, L21; P14515, L16: Re tile drains, how significant are they in the 2 catchments? If important then topography might not be a good predictor of runoff generation. The same would apply for NI in terms of pollution risk.**

The drained area in our catchments amount to approximately 10 % of the agricultural area in the Lippenrütibach catchment and to around 15 % in the Stägbach catchment. For the Cantone Lucerne the drained area is around 11 % of the agricultural area (Unpublished data).

Tile drains draw down the water table, leading to drier soils around the drains than expected based on topography. That means the surface runoff pathway becomes disconnected, but runoff still reaches the stream via the drainage system. In SCIMAP tile drains could be represented directly. Thus, SCIMAP can account for modified soil moisture regimes. The RRP model does not explicitly account for tile drains as a separate flow mechanism, but the model includes fast transport to tile drains as one component of fast flow as defined in the RRP model. A major reason why these processes are merged is that flow processes like surface runoff and macropore flow are often closely linked and the actual transport may consist of a sequence of surface runoff subsequently captured by macropore flow to tile drains (Stamm et al., 2002, Doppler et al., 2012). Therefore, the effects of tile drains are accounted for during the calibration procedure.

In catchments with a moderate amount of drained area, like our study catchments, topography still provides a good basis for the estimation of runoff generation. Areas where runoff - including tile drain flow - is generated are probably similar, because tile drains were usually installed in very wet places.

Field visits and measurements in the Stägbach catchment showed, that areas predicted to be wet were indeed very wet and surface runoff from some of those areas was registered (even though in one place a tile drain was not very far away). Thus, despite the drainage systems, topography still provides important information about the generation of runoff. The upslope surface area and the slope still determine flow direction and the potential wetness of an area in our study catchments.

We now address this issue in the discussion section 4.2.1:

L508-518: “However, in these kind of landscapes, surface runoff and tile drain flow are often not separate flow processes but they may occur in sequence: flow may start as surface runoff and gets intercepted by e.g. macropores connected to tile drains (Stamm et al., 2002; Doppler et al., 2012). The drained area amounts to approximately 10 % of the agricultural area in the Lippenrütibach catchment and to around 15 % in the Stägbach catchment. Field inspections and measurements in the Stägbach catchment revealed that locations predicted to be wet were indeed wet and that surface runoff from some of these locations occurred although they were in close proximity to drains. Thus, our results show that even in presence of drainage systems, topography may still provide crucial information on runoff generation risks and CSA delineation. Because the combination of surface runoff and macropore flow to tile drains is part of the fast flow component of RRP, the influence of tile drains is accounted for during the calibration process.”

**P14509, L14-17: Here I’m missing a formal spatial comparison, e.g. via Cohen’s kappa.**

We had based our comparison on Fig. 6 and Fig. 7.

Following the suggestion of the reviewer we now include a formal comparison based on Cohen’s weighted kappa (J. Cohen, 1968). For rescaling we divided the results by the respective maximum value. We then grouped the data as follows:

0 - 0.2 → low risk

0.2 - 0.5 → medium risk

0.5 - 0.8 → high risk

0.8 - 1 → very high risk

The results of the kappa calculation support our statements made on page 14509, L14-17 as well as our findings in section 3.2.2 (see Table 5):

- The SCIMAP risk predictions are in better agreement with RRP model predictions for a high runoff event (kappa Stäg: 0.54, kappa Lip: 0.68) than for the average DRP load during the simulation period (kappa Stäg: 0.26, kappa Lip: 0.3).
- For average DRP load predictions with the RRP model, kappa is higher if RRP results were compared to the global locational risk (kappa Stäg: 0.29, kappa Lip: 0.45) instead of the original SCIMAP locational risk (kappa Stäg: 0.26, kappa Lip: 0.30).

We will include the results in the manuscript.

The calculation of kappa is described in an additional “Materials and Method” section:

L197-204: 2.2 Spatial comparison of model results

Weighted kappa (Cohen, 1968) was used to compare spatial risk predictions. To calculate kappa the model results of SCIMAP and RRP were rescaled and grouped. For this purpose, the results obtained with each of the two models were divided by the respective maximum value and then grouped as follows: Locations with values ranging between 0 and 0.2 were considered to be at low risk, with values between 0.2 and 0.5 to be at medium risk, with values between 0.5 and 0.8 to be at high risk,



and with values between 0.8 and 1 to be at very high risk. Weighted kappa was calculated using R (RDevelopmentCoreTeam, 2007) and the psy package.”

In sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 we refer to the table with kappa value (Table 5), that we now included, and we mention the kappa results in the text (L356-358 and L393-395) to support our statements.

**P14509, L24-25: I do not think this is a problem since these are the risky times, no?**

It is indeed not a problem, but interesting to point out, because so far it was assumed that SCIMAP represents average values

**P14510: It is not very clear what was done here – please try and revise.**

We changed section 3.2.2 as follows in the revised manuscript:

L361-396: “The original SCIMAP model prescribes a static linear relationship between NI and the connection risk  $p_x^c$  from 0 at the 5% NI quantile to 1 at the 95% quantile. This relationship is considered time invariant and it is based on the assumption that the least connected 5% fraction of a catchment never connects, while the most connected 5% fraction always connects to a stream. This approach has three major limitations. Firstly, the comparison with the RRP model shown above suggests that the relationship between NI and connection risk is not time invariant but that SCIMAP predictions mainly reflect larger events in our study areas. Secondly, the assumption that 5 % of the catchment is always connected and 5 % is never connected makes the method insensitive to these parts of the catchment. Assuming that areas with very low NI values never connect is reasonable for single runoff events and probably also for most monitoring periods. Assuming that areas with the highest 5% of NI values always connect is appropriate for large events, but not necessarily for aggregated risks over a period of time or for small events (Fig. 5b). This can be seen in Figures 7a and c, which show a considerable scatter for SCIMAP locational risks. The scatter was much less when the 5% assumption was relaxed and the connection risk assumed to scale linearly with NI up to its maximum value (Fig. 8), accounting for the fact that there were significant differences in connectivity even within the most connected 5% fraction of our catchment. While areas close to the catchment outlet characterized by very high  $\lambda$  and NI values frequently contributed to runoff according to the RRP model, even during very small events, areas further upstream, where the  $\lambda$  and NI values were lower but still within the top 5%, contributed runoff much less frequently. Extending the linear NI/risk scaling up to the maximum NI enabled differentiation between these areas. A third major limitation of the original SCIMAP approach is that by normalizing the generation risk and NI values between zero and one the model can predict risks at a given location only relative to the risks at other locations within the same catchment. To enable comparisons between different catchments, we normalized the generation risk (source factor) and delivery risk (transport factor) by setting a common upper limit for all catchments. For the source factor we simply used the maximum value of all catchments for this purpose. For the transport factor it was less straightforward. The highest NI value ( $NI_{max}$ ) of the two catchments studied here was 20 and the lowest ( $NI_{min}$ ) was 4.7. The 5 % quantile of all NI values was 6 and based on our RRP model predictions the runoff risk of cells with NI values lower than 6 can be neglected. Thus, we set the transport factor to 0 at  $NI \leq 5\%$  quantile and to 1 at  $NI \geq NI_{max}$  and to vary linearly with NI between these limits. The locational risk calculated with these ‘globally’ scaled source and transport factors ranged between 0 and 0.4. Using the RRP results as a reference, the global locational risk was in better agreement with the average DRP loads over the whole monitoring period (kappa Stäg: 0.29; kappa LIP: 0.45; Fig. 8) than the original locational risks with catchment-specific normalization (kappa Stäg: 0.26; kappa LIP: 0.30; Fig. 7). Since the catchments had similar soil P status, this improvement can be attributed to the modified relationship between NI and delivery risk.”



**Tab1/Fig2a: How was the spatial information aggregated over the event timesteps?**

For every time step there were 724 model realizations. For each pixel we counted how many model realizations resulted in fast flow generation. If more than 80 % of the model realizations predicted fast flow generation from that pixel, this pixel was assigned to the very high risk class.

We added a sentence in section 3.1.1 to clarify that:

L240-241: “Thus, if for example more than 80 % of the model realizations predicted fast flow generation for a pixel, that pixel was assigned to the very high risk class.”

**Fig4: Here, too, I’m missing a formal significance test, e.g. via ANOVA.**

Fig. 4 was included to show that “location with low soil water storage capacity tended to have large lambda values”. The Kruskal-Wallis test (used because of outliers and non-normal distribution) shows that the mean TI values of the storage classes are significantly different.

In section 3.1.3 we included the information:

L294-296: “In line with this observation, the Kruskal-Wallis test, which was used here because of outliers and non-normal distribution, revealed that the mean TI values of the storage classes were significantly different.”

## References

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