

# 1 **Infrastructure sufficiency in meeting water demand under** 2 **climate-induced socio-hydrological transition in the** 3 **urbanizing Capibaribe River Basin - Brazil**

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## 12 13 **Abstract**

14 Water availability for a range of human uses will increasingly be affected by climate change,  
15 especially in the arid and semiarid tropics. The main objective of this study is to evaluate the  
16 infrastructure sufficiency in meeting water demand under climate-induced socio-hydrological  
17 transition in the Capibaribe River Basin (CRB). The basin has experienced spatial and  
18 sectoral (agriculture-to-urban) reconfiguration of water demands. Human settlements that  
19 were once dispersed, relying on intermittent sources of surface water, are now larger and  
20 more spatially concentrated, which increases water-scarcity effects. Based on the application  
21 of linked hydrologic and water-resources models using precipitation and temperature  
22 projections of the IPCC SRES A1B scenario, a reduction in rainfall of 26.0% translated to  
23 streamflow reduction of 60.0%. We used simulations from four members of the HadCM3  
24 Perturbed Physics Ensemble, in which a single model structure is used and perturbations are  
25 introduced to the physical parameterization schemes in the model (Chou et al., 2012). We  
26 considered that the change of the water availability in the basin in the future scenarios must  
27 drive the water management and the development of adaptation strategies that will manage  
28 the water demand. Several adaptive responses are considered including water-loss reductions,

1 wastewater collection and reuse, and rainwater collection cisterns, which together reduce  
2 future water demand by 23.0%. This study demonstrates the vulnerabilities of the  
3 infrastructure system during socio-hydrological transition in response to hydroclimatic and  
4 demand variabilities in the CRB and also indicates the differential spatial impacts and  
5 vulnerability of multiple uses of water to changes over time. The simulations showed that the  
6 measures proposed and the water from interbasin transfer project of the São Francisco River  
7 had a positive impact over the water supply in the basin, mainly for human use. Industry and  
8 irrigation will suffer impact unless other measures are implemented for demand control.

## 9 **1 Introduction: socio-hydrological transition**

10 One of the most important impacts of climate change occurs in water resources availability  
11 (Milly et al., 2008). Surface water and groundwater recharge may be directly affected by  
12 changes in rainfall and increases in air temperature that causes higher evapotranspiration  
13 rates. A direct consequence of changes in streamflow regimes is the impact on water supplies.  
14 This is expected to lead to decreased water quantity available for different uses, especially to  
15 guarantee food supplies in the arid and semiarid tropics (Bates et al., 2008). Climate change  
16 may also affect the function and operation of existing water infrastructure as well as water  
17 management practices (Kundzewicz et al., 2007). Conversely, adaptive water management  
18 through forward-looking planning and operation of infrastructure coupled with flexible  
19 demand management represents an important strategy to face climate change and variability  
20 (Short et al., 2012).

21 Infrastructure is planned, designed, and built considering future conditions of supply, demand,  
22 and variability. Supply under water-scarce conditions is determined by hydroclimatic and  
23 basin processes, especially surface and groundwater flows, as well as water quality. It is  
24 increasingly recognized that forecasting future demand is strongly influenced not just by  
25 demographic trends but also by water allocation among different uses (e.g., cities, agriculture,  
26 and ecosystems), management practices (e.g., water use efficiency), pricing and  
27 supply/rationing regimes, and end-user awareness. In this paper, we address the concept of  
28 infrastructure sufficiency as the ability of water supply systems to reliably meet future  
29 demands given the uncertainty inherent in future supply and demand conditions. It is essential  
30 to assess supply-demand imbalances, particularly if they are projected to get progressively  
31 worse or if supply targets are not met for prolonged periods of time, causing economic, social,  
32 and environmental damage. The most appropriate method to estimate impacts is the use of

1 scenarios run through Global Circulation Models (GCMs). The GCM outputs are used as  
2 inputs to hydrological models, which calculate the streamflow in the basin. The combined use  
3 of mathematical models makes possible the estimate of the possible impact of streamflow  
4 reduction in water allocation, as can be seen in Condappa et al. (2009) and Vaze et al. (2011).  
5 Integration of the GCM/hydrological models has been accomplished using different types of  
6 models such as VIC (Variable Infiltration Capacity) (Liu et al., 2010), Large Basin  
7 Hydrological Model (MGB-IPH) (Nóbrega et al., 2011) and DiCaSM (Montenegro and  
8 Ragab, 2012), among others. A similar strategy involves the use of Regional Climate Models  
9 (RCM) nested within GCMs to improve the spatial resolution and to permit hydrological  
10 simulation in smaller basins (Akhtar et al., 2009; Driessen et al., 2010). The vulnerability of  
11 infrastructure systems – understood here as the inverse of sufficiency, i.e., the inability to  
12 meet demand targets – can also be evaluated using coupled or sequentially run models, e.g.,  
13 GCM, rainfall-runoff model, and simulation model (Cha et al., 2012; Matonse et al., 2013;  
14 Hall and Murphy, 2010), and using different indexes (resilience, reliability, vulnerability) for  
15 estimating the robustness of the systems (Matonse et al., 2013); water use to resource ratio  
16 (Hall and Murphy, 2010), and percentage of the demand not met.

17 While infrastructure function is determined by supply and demand conditions, over the  
18 medium and longer terms, the presence of reliable infrastructure itself can increase demand.  
19 Thus, the understanding of socio-hydrology that we advance in this paper is a sequential and  
20 co-evolutionary process of: a) human demand for water exceeding natural supply, b)  
21 development of local-scale, low-cost infrastructure to enhance and stabilize supply, c) demand  
22 growth based on supply enhancement, d) recurring water scarcity and/or short-term supply  
23 insufficiency, and e) infrastructure to capture extra-local sources of supply. Step (e) is often  
24 followed by (c) and (d), with further supply enhancement limited by local or non-local  
25 sources of supply. At this stage, adaptive management of demand, capture of losses, and  
26 reuse, among other strategies become increasingly important for infrastructure sufficiency.

27 The bidirectional influences between supply (infrastructure) and demand (allocation, use) are  
28 in continual transition. A transition is a structural change in the way a societal system operates  
29 over the longer term (25-50 years) resulting from a co-evolution of cultural, institutional,  
30 economical, ecological and technological processes (Brugge et al., 2005). Managing the  
31 transition can also entail the use of scenarios to deal with uncertainties, generating and  
32 sustaining societal pressure in political and market terms in order to safeguard the long-term

1 orientation and goals of the transition process (Loorbach and Rotmans, 2010). To pursue this  
2 conceptual approach, a central question we intend to answer in this paper is “Can models and  
3 scenarios aid in evaluating infrastructure and its sufficiency, augmented by alternative  
4 strategies to manage socio-hydrological transition in a semiarid basin?”

5 This paper considers semiarid Northeast Brazil, which is experiencing a reduction of water  
6 availability due to changes in the climate (Kundzewicz et al., 2007) as well as increases in  
7 human water demand for urban supply, irrigation, and other purposes. As such, this region is  
8 broadly representative of water-scarce regions globally that are facing increasing threats to  
9 water security (Scott et al., 2013). The Capibaribe River Basin (CRB) has characteristics  
10 typical of Brazil’s semiarid Northeast and it has experienced spatial and sectoral (agriculture-  
11 to-urban) reconfiguration of water demands. The economic growth in the interior of the basin  
12 combined with urbanization has stressed water security in terms of availability and quality.  
13 The release of domestic and industrial wastewater in the river plus land-use changes affect the  
14 water cycle in the basin, as evidence of growing human influence on water availability  
15 (Thompson et al., 2013; Savenije, 2014). This is the “forward” impacts of society on  
16 hydrology. On the other hand (hydrology impacts on society), dispersed human settlements  
17 in the CRB must be taken into account. Small communities are increasingly concentrating  
18 around infrastructural water supplies (groundwater, where available, but increasingly tanker-  
19 truck supplies during drier months and over extended drought periods). Together these  
20 constitute a socio-hydrological transition process that results from a) hydroclimatic  
21 variability, b) investment and assistance programs that may enhance but can also supplant  
22 local adaptive capacity, and c) demographic trends that are already pronounced in Brazil.

23 Support programs are crucial to prevent rural populations from migrating to cities. Such  
24 programs include crop insurance (*Garantia Safra*), income transfer (*Bolsa Família*) and credit  
25 schemes (*PRONAF*) at the federal level and *Chapeu de Palha* and *PRORURAL* run by the  
26 Pernambuco state government. During the recent drought between 2011 and 2013,  
27 Pernambuco supported farmers and ranchers with subsidized inputs.

28 The strengthening of the water infrastructure in Northeast Brazil, including Pernambuco  
29 State, in the last decades has increased the resilience of the water supply systems to face  
30 drought events and reduce the vulnerability to climate variability. The infrastructure projects  
31 involve construction of reservoirs, pipelines and canals. Such solutions have been

1 implemented in the Capibaribe River Basin and Recife, the capital of Pernambuco State.  
2 Other projects are also planned to support water supply systems in Pernambuco.

3 The interbasin transfer project of the São Francisco River is the largest water infrastructure  
4 project in Brazil. Two canals will transport an average of 63.2 m<sup>3</sup>/s (127.0 m<sup>3</sup>/s at maximum)  
5 from the river to four states of Northeast Brazil. The average withdrawal is small when  
6 compared with water availability in the source basin (3.4%). The project will take water to  
7 twelve million people, including regions that today are supplied by CRB. The main objective  
8 of the project is to augment water supply in a manner that enhances local infrastructure. The  
9 Northeast has a number of reservoirs for water supply where the loss by evaporation is very  
10 high resulting from the necessity of maximizing storage at high water levels. The water from  
11 the São Francisco River project may safeguard these supplies, i.e., the reservoirs may operate  
12 at lower levels with lower evaporation losses. The implications of the developments described  
13 in the last two paragraphs must be assessed in tandem with climate-change impacts.

14 The current analysis has been accomplished using three types of models: 1) climate model  
15 outputs of rainfall and air temperature for the IPCC emissions scenarios; 2) a hydrological  
16 model to estimate the discharge in the river; and 3) a network flow model for simulating the  
17 balance between water supply and water demand. The main objective of this study is to  
18 evaluate the infrastructure sufficiency in meeting water demand under climate-induced socio-  
19 hydrological transition in the Capibaribe River Basin (CRB). The evaluation may be useful  
20 for planning and developing actions aiming to diminish the impact on the population and  
21 economic activities in the basin. At the same time, analyzing the flexibility of the water  
22 resources system for different parts of the basin may support the Secretaria de Recursos  
23 Hídricos e Energéticos (SRHE), the principal state agency responsible for planning and  
24 management of water and energy infrastructure. Two of the authors have served in  
25 operational capacity with SRHE. In particular, the assessment presented here supports the  
26 Hydro-Environmental Master Plan of Capibaribe River – further details are provided below.

## 27 **2 Methods**

### 28 **2.1 Study area**

29 The Capibaribe River Basin (CRB) (7,454 km<sup>2</sup>) located in state of Pernambuco in the  
30 Northeast Brazil has a west-east direction with its headwaters in a semiarid region and its  
31 outlet section on the Atlantic Ocean coast (Fig. 1). For this reason, there are different types of

1 soil, vegetation cover, climate and relief along its extension. The uplands are characterized by  
2 shallow soils, Caatinga vegetation (thornscrub, cactus, and bunch grasses), and a semiarid  
3 climate with  $550 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$  of rainfall and mean air temperatures between  $20\text{-}22^\circ\text{C}$ . The  
4 lowlands are characterized by deeper soils, Atlantic Forest vegetation and humid/sub-humid  
5 climate, with  $2,400 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$  of rainfall and mean air temperature between  $25\text{-}26^\circ\text{C}$ . The  
6 altitude in the basin varies from 0 m at the outlet section to 1,199 m in the uplands. The main  
7 course of the Capibaribe River is 280 km long.

8 There are 42 municipalities completely or partially inside the basin and 26 urban or town  
9 centers of municipalities in the interior of the basin, including Recife, the capital of  
10 Pernambuco. The total population in the basin is 1.71 million, of which 0.76 million reside in  
11 Recife. The main water uses are human, industrial and irrigation totalling  $9.41 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  of  
12 demand. The spatial distribution of the demand is influenced by the water availability, i.e., the  
13 greatest volumes withdrawn from the basin correspond to places closest to the lower  
14 Capibaribe River. There are two points in the basin with infrastructure for water transfer. In  
15 the central portion of the basin, there is a pipeline that transfers water to cities of the Ipojuca  
16 River basin ( $0.683 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ). In the lower part, the water supply system of the Recife  
17 Metropolitan Region receives water from a reservoir outside of the CRB ( $0.455 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ).

18 The CRB has eight reservoirs with storage capacities greater than 10 million cubic meters  
19 (MCM) each. The total capacity of the reservoirs is about 800 MCM. All the reservoirs are  
20 used for water supply and four of them are also used for flood control (Jucazinho, Carpina,  
21 Tapacurá and Goitá). Table 1 shows the characteristics of each reservoir.

22 The Hydro-Environmental Master Plan of Capibaribe River (Pernambuco, 2010) encompasses  
23 a diagnosis with hydrological, environmental and social-economic studies. Two scenarios  
24 have been analyzed: “Business as Usual” and “Sustainable”. The results aided the set up of  
25 investment plans to the basin. The basin has been divided into four regions (Analysis Units -  
26 AU) according to their climatological, hydrological and social-economic characteristics. Fig.  
27 2 shows the boundaries of each AU and the reservoirs indicated in Table 1.

28 The temporal variation of water demand is influenced by the growth of the population and the  
29 economy in the municipalities of the basin. During the 2000s the average annual water  
30 demand growth rate (4.34%) followed social and economic factors such as the annual growth  
31 rate of the Gross Domestic Product (12.36%), annual population growth (1.38%), agriculture  
32 area growth (6.58%), human development index improvement (1.00%), and increased

1 pollutant load released in the river (5.47%) (Pernambuco, 2010). These factors are strongly  
2 influenced by the development of textile, sugar and ethanol industries. The main irrigated  
3 crops are sugarcane, in the analysis unit AU4, and vegetables in the analysis unit AU3.

4 During this period the increase in water availability resulting from improvement of the water  
5 infrastructure was lower than demand growth. At the same time, groundwater availability is  
6 significant only in AU4. The basin overlies crystalline-rock aquifers over virtually its entire  
7 area; only AU4 presents a sedimentary aquifer. The groundwater availability in AU1, AU2  
8 and AU3 corresponds to 3.73% of the groundwater availability in the AU4 (1.257 m<sup>3</sup>/s).

9 In Northeast Brazil, many families live in the interior without access to water for drinking,  
10 cooking and hygiene. These families live far from the systems of water supply. According to  
11 Pernambuco (2010), there are 111,796 people in such conditions in the CRB (6.55% of the  
12 total population). During periods of severe droughts, as the Northeast has faced in 2011-2013,  
13 this population is supplied with water by tanker trucks and, in some cases, collecting water  
14 daily from springs and small reservoirs, generally made by women and children, often over  
15 long distances. In addition to this, wells and cisterns are the more common water collection  
16 and storage systems in the region. Non-governmental organizations supported by the federal  
17 government have installed about 500,000 cisterns in Northeast Brazil since 2003. The cisterns  
18 in the Northeast have storage capacities varying between 7 and 16 m<sup>3</sup>, representing an  
19 availability of 50 liters per day during 140-300 days, if they are considered full of water at the  
20 end of the rainy season.

21 Precipitation in the AUs reduces from east to west, and the potential evapotranspiration  
22 increases in the same direction (Table 2). These characteristics contribute to the low runoff in  
23 the AU1, AU2 and AU3 and high runoff in the AU4. The soil type and geology in the basin  
24 also contribute to the spatial variability of runoff. The basin is predominantly over the  
25 crystalline basement (shallow soil and rock near the surface). The exception is the presence of  
26 sedimentary areas in the AU4. The low storage capacity of the soil hinders the stabilization of  
27 the flow, resulting in intermittent rivers in the uplands of the basin.

## 28 **2.2 Data**

29 The mean rainfall in the basin has been calculated using data from 85 rain gauges of the  
30 hydrometeorological network of the National Water Agency (ANA) and Institute of  
31 Technology of Pernambuco (ITEP). The rainfall measured was used to assess the rainfall of

1 the climate model as well as used in the calibration of the parameters of the hydrological  
2 model.

3 Scenarios under climate change are derived from Chou et al. (2012), who used the output data  
4 of the GCM HadCM3 (UK Met Office Hadley Centre) as the boundary condition in  
5 simulations of the Regional Climate Model ETA-CPTEC. Using ETA-CPTEC/HadCM3  
6 models, Chou et al. (2012) simulated rainfall, air temperature, relative humidity and other  
7 climatological variables for 1960-1990, 2010-2040, 2040-2070 and 2070-2100. The CO2  
8 concentration in the base condition (1960-1990) is 330 ppm, whereas the future projections  
9 use the IPCC SRES A1B scenario. Chou et al. (2012) assert that there are two ways of  
10 estimating uncertainties in model simulation. One way is through the multi-model ensemble  
11 method. An advantage of this method is that a wide variety of model designs and  
12 configurations form the ensemble. The other method follows the perturbed physics ensemble  
13 (PPE) approach which is designed to quantify the modeling uncertainty in the simulation or  
14 projections of climate that depends on the way processes are represented in the model, i.e. in  
15 their physics parameters. Chou et al. (2012) used four members of the HadCM3 Perturbed  
16 Physics Ensemble, in which a single model structure is used and perturbations are introduced  
17 to the physical parameterization schemes in the model. The first member is the standard  
18 model structure (CTRL-control) and the other ones are perturbations of the physical  
19 parameterization schemes used to produce variants of the same model (LOW, MIDI and  
20 HIGH). In our study, the analysis used the four members.

21 The ETA-CPTEC/HadCM3 runs presented bias for rainfall and air temperature. Both  
22 variables are generally underestimated when compared with the observed values. It is usually  
23 necessary to correct these data before using them in a study. The bias correction was made  
24 using cumulative distribution functions (CDF) according to Bárdossy and Pegram (2011). We  
25 chose the simplest form of bias correction for air temperature. The mean bias is added to the  
26 model data after calculating the bias for each month of the climatological year (Berg et al.,  
27 2012).

28 The calibration of our hydrological model takes into account the stream gauge discharges.  
29 The ANA hydrometeorological network has three streamgauges in the main stem of the  
30 Capibaribe River and two in tributaries (shown in Fig. 1). The air temperature for calculation  
31 of potential evapotranspiration (PET) is measured in the climatological station at Surubim  
32 (also shown in Fig. 1). The PET has been estimated using the Thornthwaite method. This



1 method uses only air temperature in its formulation, besides a factor that varies according to  
2 month and local latitude.

3 The Hydro-Environmental Master Plan of Capibaribe River (Pernambuco, 2010) exhibits the  
4 water uses, the volumes withdrawn from the reservoirs and the characteristics of the  
5 reservoirs. This information is used in the network flow model.

## 6 **2.3 Modeling Infrastructure Vulnerability**

### 7 **2.3.1 Hydrological model**

8 Rainfall and air temperature may be used to estimate the discharge in the Capibaribe River in  
9 the future using a hydrological model. MODHAC (the Portuguese acronym for “Self  
10 Calibrated Hydrological Model”) is a rainfall-runoff lumped model, whose input variables are  
11 mean rainfall and potential evapotranspiration (Lanna, 1997). MODHAC is similar to other  
12 models widely used for synthetic runoff generation such as Soil Moisture Accounting (SMA)  
13 present in the HEC-HMS model (HEC-HMS, 2000), SMAP present in the MIKE 11 model  
14 (MIKE 11, 2007) and Tank model (Sugawara, 2012). All these models, including MODHAC,  
15 use reservoirs which represent the main processes responsible for rainfall–runoff  
16 transformation: interception, evapotranspiration and runoff generation, i.e., determination of  
17 the volume of water that will either be infiltrated into the soil or flow on the surface. The  
18 results of MODHAC in Brazilian semiarid watersheds encourage its use in similar regions  
19 like CRB. The model has 14 parameters that can be calibrated automatically using four  
20 options of objective functions. In addition, MODHAC can run monthly time step simulations  
21 (suitable for this study) and it needs few input data (rainfall and PET).

### 22 **2.3.2 Network flow model**

23 A network flow model may be used for optimal basin-wide water allocation. This ensures that  
24 water is allocated according to physical, hydrological, demands and institutional aspects of  
25 river basin management. Network flow models represent the water resources system using  
26 nodes and links. The nodes represent point elements such as reservoirs, demands, inter-basin  
27 exchange and confluences, whereas links between two nodes represent river branch, pipelines,  
28 canals and other similar elements. Each node has a cost per flow unit that influences the  
29 volume of water that will pass through it. The model algorithm seeks to minimize the total  
30 cost of the network using optimization techniques such as linear programming.

1 One of the most widely used network flow models is MODSIM (Labadie, 1995) developed at  
2 Colorado State University. MODSIM has been applied to a number of complex river basin  
3 systems such as the Sirvan basin in Iran (Shourian et al., 2008). The water allocation in the  
4 present study was done using the Acquanet model (Porto et al., 2003). This model was  
5 essentially constructed based on the structure of MODSIM. Acquanet has an interface of  
6 communication with the user and a database to store the information of the network flow.

7 The network model needs information of volume of water demand, operation rules and  
8 priority of demand. This information was obtained from the Hydro-Environmental Master  
9 Plan of the Capibaribe River Basin (Pernambuco, 2010). The order of priorities of demands is  
10 human, industry and irrigation. In addition, the input discharge entering in each reservoir is  
11 calculated with MODHAC and the evaporation in the reservoirs is calculated using air  
12 temperature estimated by ETA-CPTEC/HadCM3.

13 The evolution of the water demand took into account different factors: population growth for  
14 human use, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for industry demand, and growth of irrigated area  
15 for irrigation demand. The Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE) projects  
16 that Brazilian population will achieve the maximum in 2042 (228.4 million) and in 2060 will  
17 be 218.2 million inhabitants. In 2100, according to Department of Economic and Social  
18 Affairs (United Nations), the Brazilian population will be 194.5 million inhabitants. The  
19 population growth was the constraint to avoid the increasing of industry and irrigation water  
20 demand by the end of the century. Both increase by 2040 and remain constant until 2100  
21 considering that the population will not grow after 2040.

22 The change of the water availability in the basin in the future scenarios must drive the water  
23 management and the development of adaptation strategies that will manage the water demand.

24 Three hypothesis have been considered:

- 25 • Reduction of water loss in the supply system. Today the loss is 55%. This value may  
26 reduce to 25% with programs of improvement of the water supply network;
- 27 • Increasing of the return of water from domestic use. Today the value is 20% due to the  
28 limited wastewater collect system. The Pernambuco state government plans to improve  
29 the system and it may mean an increasing of the return of water to 80%;
- 30 • Implementation of cisterns for rainwater collection to supply water for sparse population.

31 These measures may reduce about 23.0% the volume of water demand.

1 The environmental flow exhibited in the Hydro-Environmental Master Plan of Capibaribe  
2 River was used in the network flow simulation. This discharge is considered only in UA4  
3 because it is the perennial reach of the river. The reservoirs, demands, channels and water  
4 facilities are represented in the Acquanet using links and nodes as can be seen in Fig. 3. The  
5 discharge ( $4 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ) from the São Francisco River project is linked to human demands in the  
6 analysis units 1, 2 and 3 (Pernambuco, 2010).

## 7 **3 Results**

### 8 **3.1 Hydrological simulation**

9 MODHAC has been calibrated by using monthly time step in the four stream gauges from  
10 different parts of the basin according to the climatological characteristics: one in the upper  
11 basin, one in the middle basin and two in the lower region (Fig. 1). It was used two periods of  
12 time, one for calibration and one for validation. The evaluation of the model calibration  
13 considers Nash-Sutcliff coefficient (NS) and volume error ( $\Delta V = (\sum Q_{\text{cal}} - \sum Q_{\text{obs}}) / \sum Q_{\text{obs}}$ ). The  
14 Table 3 exhibits the periods used in the calibration and validation, the drainage area and  
15 values of the criteria (Nash-Sutcliff and volume). The different periods of time are owing to  
16 the construction of reservoirs along the CRB at different times from the mid-1980s onwards.  
17 All the streamgauges had a good performance considering the Nash-Sutcliff coefficient. Two  
18 sites exhibited high values for volume error in the validation (Toritama and Vitória).

19 The input streamflow in each reservoir is calculated using the set of parameters from the  
20 closest streamgauge according to Table 1. We consider that the drainage area of the reservoir  
21 is hydrologically similar to the drainage area of the streamgauge. To evaluate this hypothesis,  
22 the model has been applied in a drainage area of a streamgauge (Salgado- $4,923.0 \text{ km}^2$ )  
23 nested in the Limoeiro streamgauge. The set of parameters was the same calibrated at  
24 Limoeiro and the period is from 1984 to 1992. The value of NS was 0.7540 and the volume  
25 error 1.1%. The result of the calibration/validation and the simulation at Salgado  
26 encourages the use of the model to estimate the input streamflow in the reservoirs of the CRB.

27 Applying the set of MODHAC parameters using the rainfall and air temperature for the  
28 different time-slices, it is possible to observe the impact on the streamflow at the outlet  
29 section of Capibaribe River. The scenarios (corresponding to the four members) exhibited  
30 mean annual streamflow of  $22.61 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (1960-1990),  $19.44 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (2010-2040),  $14.67 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$   
31 ( $2040-2070$ ) and  $9.09 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (2070-2100). The concept of elasticity is a good way of evaluating

1 the sensitivity of long-term streamflow to changes in long-term rainfall. According to Chiew  
2 (2006), the rainfall elasticity of streamflow is defined as the proportional change in mean  
3 annual streamflow divided by the proportional change in mean annual rainfall. Considering  
4 1960-1990 as the reference baseline, the elasticity of Capibaribe river can be estimated for the  
5 time-slices (average of four members): 3.69 (2010-2040), 2.35 (2040-2070) and 2.39 (2070-  
6 2100).

### 7 **3.2 Network flow simulation**

8 There were sixteen simulations using Acquanet. The present period (1960-1990) simulation  
9 corresponds to a volume of water supply equal to 7.59 m<sup>3</sup>/s (average of four members). This  
10 period did not have water from São Francisco project because the construction finishes in  
11 2015. The volume of water supply had little variation in the following periods to 6.63 m<sup>3</sup>/s  
12 (2010-2040), 7.67 m<sup>3</sup>/s (2040-2070) and 6.99 m<sup>3</sup>/s (2070-2100). The seventeen demands were  
13 assessed calculating the percentage of time corresponding to the demand not met by the water  
14 from reservoirs (Fig. 4). The code of each demand may be used to identify its location in the  
15 Fig. 3.

## 16 **4 Discussion**

17 The IPCC SRES scenario has been used to evaluate the impact of climate change on the water  
18 supply in the CRB. The results indicate that the mean streamflow of the Capibaribe River  
19 decreases significantly in the time slices 2040-2070 and 2070-2100. The reduction of rainfall  
20 and mean streamflow has also been verified in other basins of Northeast Brazil located in  
21 semiarid regions, using the same IPCC SRES scenarios. Milly et al. (2005), for example,  
22 found a reduction of -20% in runoff for the Northeast Brazil, using an ensemble of 12 climate  
23 models. Montenegro and Ragab (2012) have simulated the Tapacurá river basin, a tributary of  
24 Capibaribe River, using the low emission (B1) scenario and found a reduction of -20% in  
25 surface flow for the time span 2070-2100. Marengo et al. (2009) also identified a reduction of  
26 rainfall in the Northeast Brazil using three RCM nested within the HadAM3P global model.  
27 Fung et al. (2011) verified the change in runoff in a world 2°C and 4°C warmer. Ensembles of  
28 GCMs runs for SRES A1B scenario from 1930 to 2079 were used. According to Fung et al.  
29 (2011), the ensemble-average changes in mean annual runoff in the Northeast Brazil will  
30 reach -40% (+2°C) and -80% (+4°C). The air temperature change estimated in CRB is +3°C  
31 with a corresponding runoff reduction of -60% (average of four members).

1 The results indicate high reduction of rainfall and, hence, reduction in mean streamflow, and  
2 in the volume of water supplied for industry and irrigation in the CRB. Two factors can  
3 explain the sensitivity of CRB to IPCC scenarios. First, part of CRB is located in a semiarid  
4 area, which is expected to suffer more severe impact than other regions. On the other hand,  
5 the high population density and the water demand have as a consequence higher pressure on  
6 the water availability.

7 The elasticity of the CRB exhibited values that indicate high sensitivity to changes in the  
8 rainfall: 3.69 (2010-2040), 2.35 (2040-2070) and 2.39 (2070-2100). In other words, small  
9 changes in rainfall may mean a high reduction in streamflow. The elasticity found by Chiew  
10 (2006) in catchments of Australia is about 2.0-3.5 (observed in about 70% of the 219  
11 catchments analyzed). These values are similar to the elasticity presented by the CRB in the  
12 time-slices of climatic scenarios. Chiew (2006) observed that streamflow is more sensitive to  
13 rainfall in drier catchments, which partially is in accordance with CRB. Scenarios of either  
14 reduction of rainfall or even change in the time distribution of rainfall can make an impact on  
15 the water supply in the CRB.

16 The simulation of water allocation in the network flow model for the baseline period shows  
17 stress in the supply mainly in the analysis units AU1 and AU2 including human use. The  
18 adaptation strategies for demand management tested in the network flow model showed that  
19 the stress continues in the period 2010-2040 due to the population growth. After that, the  
20 human demand decreases and there is a better balance between availability and demand. The  
21 problem stays for industry and irrigation because there was no control of these demands. The  
22 simulations showed that the measures proposed and the water from São Francisco Project had  
23 a positive impact over the water supply in the basin, mainly for human use. Industry and  
24 irrigation will suffer impact unless other measures are implemented for demand control.

25 It was verified that the range of values among the members of the climate model is greater for  
26 the streamflow than for water allocation. In the period 2070-2100, for example, the MIDI  
27 member streamflow is 156% greater than the HIGH member streamflow. For the same period  
28 and members, the variation is 15% in the water supply. The water from São Francisco project  
29 is the responsible by the reduction of the impact over the allocation among members. These  
30 results show that the objective of the São Francisco project, to augment water supply in a  
31 manner that enhances local infrastructure, is reached in the CRB. That is the kind of positive  
32 impact expected by analysts that assessed the project (Pena de Andrade et al., 2011).

1 The reduction of water supply in the climate scenario has also been verified by Vaze et al.  
2 (2011) in Australia using 15 IPCC AR4 GCMs. Two hydrological models and a river system  
3 model were used to estimate water availability for historical (1895-2006) and future (2030)  
4 rainfall. The change of the diversion for irrigation varies between -27% and +21% depending  
5 on the GCM and hydrological model (the median value is about -6%). By the end of the  
6 twenty-first century and considering the tendency for 2030, the change estimated by Vaze et  
7 al. (2011) could meet the values obtained in CRB.

## 8 **5 Conclusions**

9 The integration of three models made it possible to evaluate the impact of streamflow  
10 reduction in the Capibaribe River Basin water supply due to possible climate change  
11 scenarios and evaluate the impact of measures aiming to manage the water demand and the  
12 rational water use in the basin. The ETA-CPTEC/HadCM3 coupled climate models were used  
13 to estimate rainfall and air temperature in the CRB. Rainfall and air temperature exhibited  
14 values underestimated when compared to the observed data. The methods used for bias  
15 correction presented results appropriate for hydrological simulation. The MODHAC  
16 hydrological model accurately represented the streamflow in the CRB, which has been used to  
17 represent the inflow discharge in each reservoir that comprises the water supply system in the  
18 basin. The use of a RCM instead of a GCM is more appropriate to represent the rainfall-  
19 runoff transformation in a basin with the dimensions of the CRB.

20 Hydroclimatic impacts on water resource systems' ability to meet multiple demands is of  
21 growing concern globally with climate change and variability coupled with fluctuating  
22 demands. Adaptation measures to ensure water supply in a world under change require  
23 demand-side as well as supply-side strategies (Bates et al., 2008). Supply-side strategies  
24 involve increases in storage capacity, abstraction from water courses and water transfers. The  
25 investment in water facilities, for example, is one of the strategies adopted by China to  
26 develop effective adaptation to climate change, natural disasters and food security (Li, 2012).  
27 Demand management improves water-use efficiency, water rights, effective regulation  
28 enforcement, and pollution control (Cheng and Hu, 2012). Until the 1990's, the Northeast  
29 Brazil had a history of inappropriate policies based on the construction of small reservoirs and  
30 drilling wells in the crystalline rock. Additionally, there was a lack of effective water  
31 management policies. In the late 1990's, a new philosophy has been implemented by  
32 Brazilian states with support of Federal Government and the law 9433/1997 that establishes

1 the National Water Resources Policy. The States were able to develop actions for water use  
2 control (permits and water abstraction charges), water resources master plan for the basins  
3 and States, creation of an institutional framework for water management and programs for  
4 water facilities construction.

5 The combination of infrastructure development and improvement of water management  
6 policies that anticipate hydroclimatic impacts, such as those modeled in this paper, may result  
7 in effective climate-change adaptation measures. Similar processes have been described for  
8 Australia by Short et al. (2012) and for developing countries by Mujumdar (2013).  
9 Hydrological and water resources models are tools able to simulate both the effectiveness of  
10 infrastructures and the adoption of water management policies in a basin impacted by the  
11 climate change.

12 On the other hand, the socio-hydrological transition underway shifts water demand in ways  
13 that can be considered another driving force in the process of increasing the water deficit. At  
14 the same time, sustainable economic growth in the basin will demand an increasing volume of  
15 water. Thus, both climate change and water demand may lead to a water stress condition in  
16 CRB. In a scenario with lower water availability, actions to overcome deficits into the water  
17 balance will be necessary. The adaptation for this condition requires a combination of diverse  
18 solutions in an integrated manner: construction and use of cisterns for human supply in  
19 dispersed population and desalination of water drawn from wells; family agriculture with  
20 short harvesting cycle, to take advantage of the water of surface reservoirs before losses by  
21 evaporation; construction and use of reservoirs with lower water surface; and even  
22 underground dams; integration of large water sources using large main water systems to  
23 supply the cities and for development of irrigated agriculture; use of water saving  
24 technologies in agriculture, industry and domestic use; and reuse of wastewater.

25 The simulation may be useful for transition management in basins under strong water stress  
26 like CRB. The measures and strategies could be tested using regional climate model,  
27 hydrological model and allocation model. The next master plans in Capibaribe River basin  
28 may consider the use of modelling to assess climate change scenarios with the objective of  
29 evaluating strategies for mid- and long-term management. The results of the simulations  
30 showed that industry and irrigation are under risk by the end of the 21st century even with the  
31 use of water from the São Francisco project.

1   Uncertainties are inherent in analyses involving impact of climate change. Despite the use of  
2   the perturbed physics ensemble in the simulations, it is important to use other models with  
3   performances as good as HadCM3 for the simulation of base conditions in order to diminish  
4   the uncertainties related to the GCM output. The reliability of the results may be related to the  
5   number of GCMs used in the analysis and it is also possible to associate a confidence interval  
6   to the rainfall change. This must be done in the next steps of the research. Despite the  
7   necessity of improving the reliability of the results, we can conclude that the combined use of  
8   mathematical models is able to indicate the effectiveness of measures for socio-hydrological  
9   transition management. Modeling also shows the vulnerabilities of the system, such as the  
10   elasticity of the Capibaribe River, as well as indicating which parts of the basin are more  
11   vulnerable to changes.

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- 7

1 Table 1. Characteristics of the reservoirs.

Name	Capacity (10 <sup>6</sup> m <sup>3</sup> )	Drainage area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Closest streamgauge
Poço Fundo	27.75	926.00	Toritama
Eng. Gercino Pontes	13.60	384.00	Toritama
Jucazinho	327.04	4,772.00	Limoeiro
Carpina	270.00	6,000.00	Limoeiro
Cursai	13.00	57.00	Eng. Canavieira
Goitá	52.00	450.00	Eng. Canavieira
Tapacurá	94.20	360.00	Vitória
Várzea do Una	11.57	38.00	Vitória

2

3

1 Table 2. Climatological characteristics of the Analysis Units (AU).

Unit	Precipitation (mm.year <sup>-1</sup> )	Potential Evapotranspiration (mm.year <sup>-1</sup> )
AU1	579.1	1,700 to 1,850
AU2	621.5	1,650 to 1,900
AU3	842.2	1,550 to 1,800
AU4	1,228.1	1,500 to 1,700

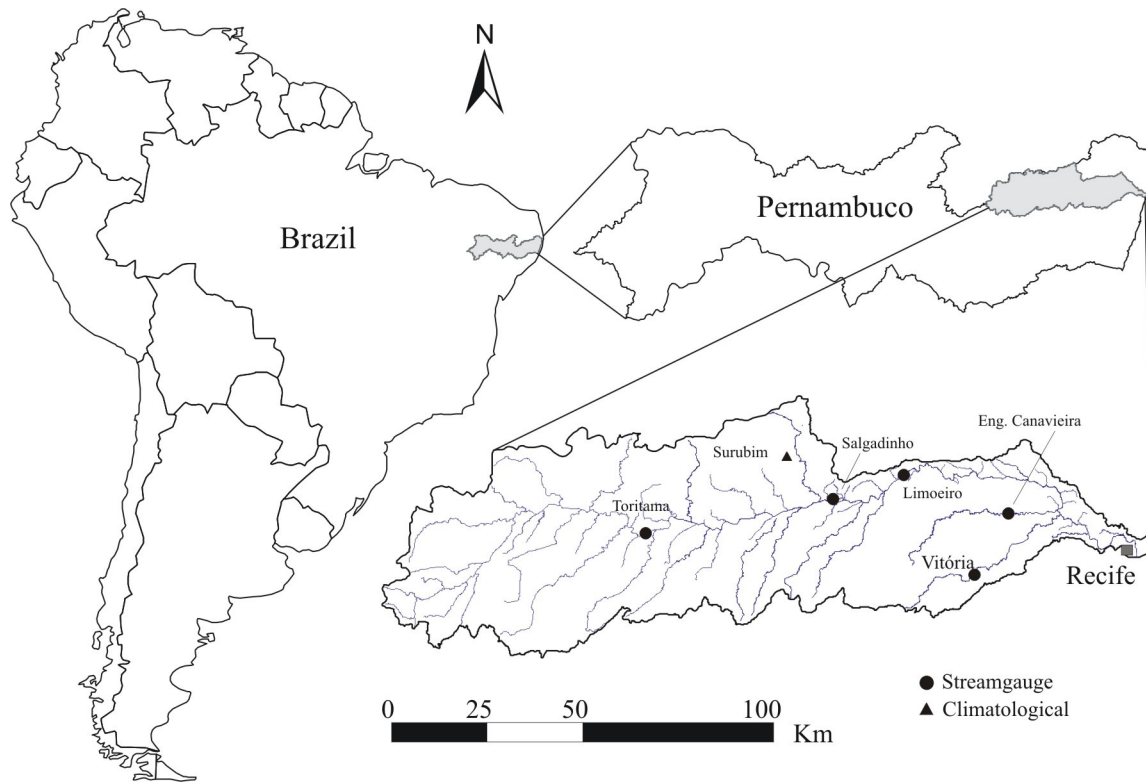
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3

1 Table 3. Model calibration at the stream gauges.

Name	Drainage area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Calibration			Validation		
		Period	NS	$\Delta V$ (%)	Period	NS	$\Delta V$ (%)
Toritama	2,459.0	1973-1982	0.8348	2.6	1983-1990	0.7669	-31.1
Limoeiro	5,596.0	1973-1982	0.7241	-2.0	1983-1990	0.6723	-11.72
Eng. Canavieira	312.0	2000-2009	0.7677	7.3	2010-2013	0.6497	6.4
Vitória	263.0	1985-1999	0,8153	-12.0	2000-2009	0.5892	45.4

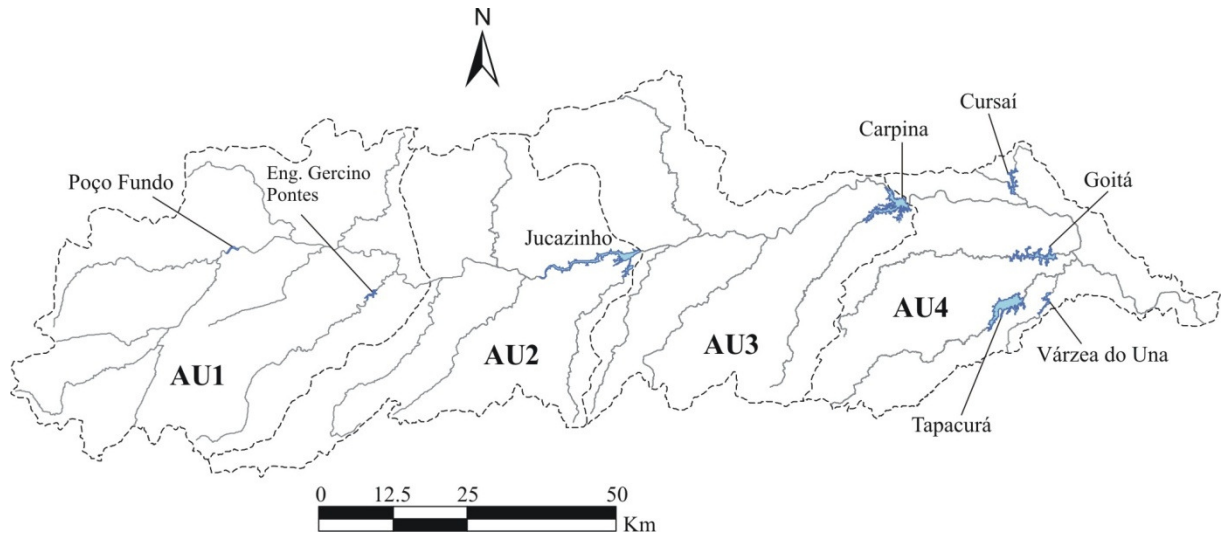
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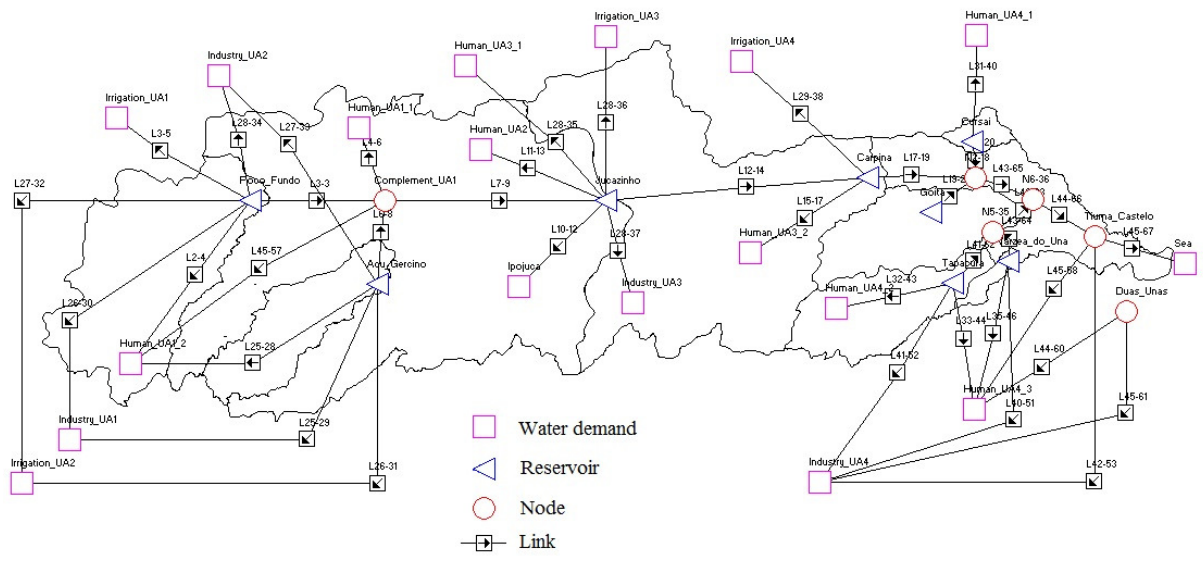
Figure 1. Capibaribe River Basin.





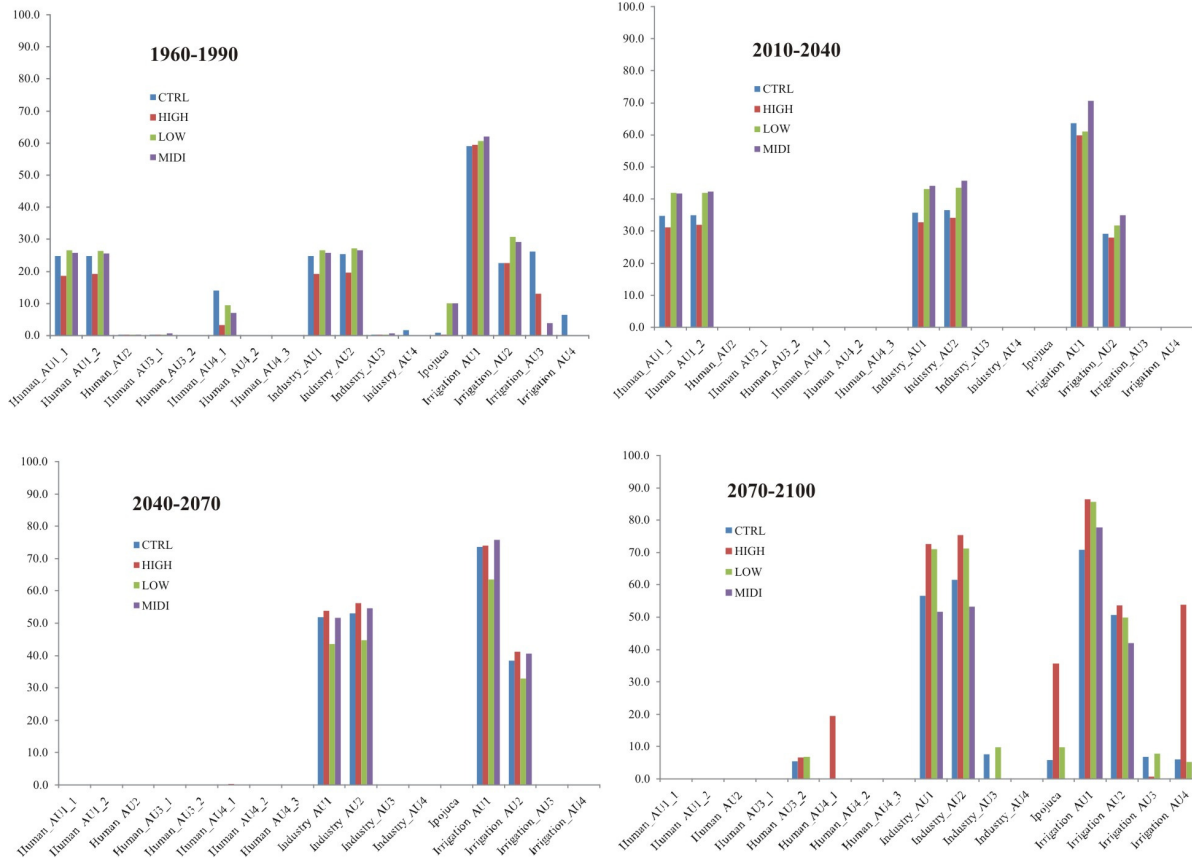
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Figure 2. Reservoir locations and Analysis Units.



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Figure 3. System representation in Acquanet.



1

2 Figure 4. Percentage of time with demand not met for different time-slices and PPE runs.

3