



1 **Drought-induced non-stationarity in the rainfall-runoff relationship invalidates the**
2 **role of control catchment at the Red Hill paired-catchment experimental site**

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16 **Abstract.** The most widely used approaches for estimating impacts of vegetation changes on
17 runoff are the paired-catchment method, the time-trend analysis method, and the sensitivity-based
18 method. These three methods have yielded consistent results in many paired-catchment studies,
19 except at the Red Hill experimental site in Australia. However, reasons for the inconsistency have
20 not yet been identified. The objective of this study was to identify the reasons for the inconsistency
21 amongst results using observations of two paired catchments from 1990 to 2015. Results from
22 these three methods showed that afforestation accounted for 32.8%, 93.5%, and 76.1% of total
23 runoff changes, respectively. The inconsistency in results were still apparent even the longest
24 available observation record was used. The rainfall-runoff relationship of the control catchment
25 has been used only in the paired-catchment method. This relationship was confirmed to become
26 non-stationary during the pre- and post-calibration periods due to a 10-year prolonged drought,
27 leading to the inconsistency amongst results. By eliminating drought's effects on the rainfall-
28 runoff relationship of the control catchment, afforestation's contribution to runoff reduction was
29 73.4% using the paired-catchment method, agreeing well the other two methods. This study not
30 only revealed the reason for the inconsistent results that had long been observed at the famous
31 experimental site, but also proved, using experimental observations, that prolonged drought can
32 induce non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship in catchment. It also demonstrated that the
33 stationarity test is vital for correct use of historical time series and effective research on ecological
34 hydrology in the case of frequent extreme climate.



35 **1 Introduction**

36 Vegetation changes can exert significant impacts on catchment runoff (Farley et al., 2005;
37 Filoso et al., 2017; Hallema et al., 2018). In addition to vegetation changes, climate variability can
38 also introduce apparent variability into catchment flow regimes and subsequent changes in the
39 amount of available water (Kim et al., 2011; Ryberg et al., 2012). Separating the effects of
40 vegetation changes and climate variability on observed changes in runoff remains a great challenge
41 due to the complex interactions between climate variability and vegetation changes, although a
42 number of methods have been proposed (Bosch and Hewlett, 1982; Jones et al., 2006; Lee, 1980).
43 Even worse, persistent climatic changes observed during the past few decades have increased both
44 temperatures and occurrences of extreme weather events (such as extreme drought and extreme
45 flood). These changes have led to non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationships in many catchments
46 around the world (Li et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016). Therefore, the combined
47 effect of these influencing factors will lead to greater uncertainty in estimating the impact of
48 vegetation changes on runoff using different separation methods.

49 Basically, four types of methods have been used to separate the impact of vegetation
50 changes and climate variability on runoff: 1) paired-catchment experiments (Brown et al., 2005;
51 Zhao et al., 2012); 2) a combination of statistical methods and hydrographs (e.g., MDC-Wei (Wei
52 and Zhang, 2010), NLRM-Li (Li et al., 2007), NLRM-Ahn (Ahn and Merwade, 2014)); 3)
53 elasticity analysis (e.g., based on the Budyko framework (Zhang et al., 2001)); 4) hydrological
54 modelling methods (e.g., VIC (Liang et al., 1996), SWAT (Arnold et al., 1995)).

55 Among these types of methods, three methods including the paired-catchment method, the
56 time-trend analysis method, and the sensitivity-based method are the most basic and widely used



57 methods for estimating runoff changes caused by vegetation changes (Zhao et al., 2010). The
58 paired-catchment method is based on paired-catchment experimental observations, and is the
59 standard approach for quantifying the effects of forest management on runoff. The paired-
60 catchment method is used to estimate the effect of vegetation changes on runoff by comparing
61 runoff from control catchments (where vegetation remains unchanged) and treated catchments
62 (where forest harvesting, conversion, afforestation, *etc.*, have been implemented). In this method,
63 the primary role of the control catchment is to eliminate the impact of climate variability on runoff.
64 This method has been applied in many paired catchments around the world to test the basic
65 assumptions on the interactions between vegetation and climate on catchment runoff, and to
66 provide fundamental understanding and knowledge for water resource management under
67 vegetation changes. The time-trend analysis method is used in the study of single catchment with
68 long-term observations (Lee, 1980; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2010). The sensitivity-based
69 method is a combination of the Budyko framework (Budyko, 1974) and the elastic response of
70 runoff to rainfall and potential evapotranspiration developed by Zhang et al. (2001). Given that the
71 effect of interactions between climate variability and vegetation changes are much lower than their
72 individual effects in small catchments, their interactions can be ignored (Li et al., 2012; Zhang et
73 al., 2019), and the effects of vegetation changes on runoff can be obtained by subtracting the effects
74 of climate variability on runoff from total runoff change.

75 These three methods should provide consistent results for a specific catchment
76 experiencing only vegetation changes because they are developed based on the same assumptions.
77 Zhang et al. (2011) applied the last two methods in a study of 15 catchments in Australia and
78 demonstrated that both methods yielded differences of no more than 25%. Zhang et al. (2019) also
79 used the same methods in the Heihe River Basin in China and showed that both methods yielded



80 differences of only 16%. Zhao et al. (2010) used all three methods in seven paired catchments in
81 Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand, and showed that the three methods had good
82 consistency among all of the catchments, except at the Red Hill experiment site in Australia (see
83 site description in Section 2, below). It is rare that the results of the paired-catchment method are
84 significantly different from those of the other two methods at the Red Hill paired-catchment
85 experiment site. The estimated contributions of afforestation to the decrease in runoff between pre-
86 and post-change point periods by these three methods were 27%, 71%, and 57%, respectively
87 (Zhao et al., 2010). The estimated impact of vegetation changes on runoff by the paired-catchment
88 method was less than half of that attributed to the other two methods. However, further study on
89 this issue has not yet been conducted. It is important to understand the causes of the large
90 differences observed among the results obtained using the three methods in order to better carry
91 out eco-hydrological research based on such paired catchments.

92 There are two possible reasons responsible for the inconsistency in the results of these three
93 methods at the Red Hill paired-catchment experiment site. One reason is associated with the length
94 of the observed data record used. The other reason is related to the non-stationary rainfall-runoff
95 relationship of the control catchment. The observed data record should be long enough to allow
96 runoff generation to change from one equilibrium state to a new equilibrium state after a vegetation
97 changes. Previous studies on paired catchments in Australia and New Zealand have suggested that
98 three to 10 years, or even more, are required for the treated catchment to reach a reasonably stable
99 rainfall-runoff relationship after vegetation changes (Zhao et al., 2010). Brown et al. (2005)
100 demonstrated that it took about 18 years for an afforested catchment in Biesievlei, South Africa to
101 reach an equilibrium state. For the Zhao et al. (2010) study, only 16 years of observations of the
102 Red Hill catchment were used, and that may not have been long enough to allow the rainfall-runoff



103 relationship of the afforested catchment to reach a new equilibrium state, and may have led to the
104 inconsistency in results observed amongst the three methods. However, up to now, this issue has
105 not been further investigated with a much longer set of observations. In addition, changes in the
106 rainfall-runoff relationship of the control catchment may be the cause of the apparent differences
107 amongst the three methods because runoff data of the control catchment was only used in the
108 paired-catchment method, from which estimated impacts of vegetation changes were significantly
109 smaller than from the other two methods. It is widely known that Australia experienced extreme
110 drought (known as the Millennium Drought) between 1997 and 2009 (van Dijk et al., 2013). Some
111 studies have found that stationary rainfall-runoff relationships in many catchments were affected
112 by the prolonged drought (Chiew et al., 2014; Petrone et al., 2010; Saft et al., 2016). Similarly,
113 extreme drought-induced non-stationarity in rainfall-runoff relationships has also been reported in
114 other places around the world, such as with the 2014 California drought in the United States
115 (Griffin and Anchukaitis, 2014) and with the 2010 drought in Amazonia (Lewis et al., 2011).

116 The Red Hill paired-catchment experimental site is located in a prolonged drought-affected
117 area. However, the impacts of prolonged drought on the rainfall-runoff relationship of this
118 experimental site have not been evaluated yet. Additionally, studies need to be conducted to
119 comprehensively assess whether the drought has broken the assumptions of the paired-catchment
120 method and has invalidated the role of the control catchment. If that is the case, then this situation
121 may have led to the big differences in the methods used to separate climate effects from vegetation
122 effects on runoff, and these additional studies are critically necessary to guarantee accurate and
123 reliable evaluation of the impacts of vegetation changes on water yield in this important
124 experimental site, and even at other sites affected by extreme climate events.



125 The primary objectives of this study were to: (1) evaluate the impact of afforestation on
126 catchment runoff using all three of the methods described above based on the 26-year observation
127 record, and to check whether the results of the three methods were consistent at the Red Hill paired-
128 catchment experiment site; (2) test the hypothesis that the stationary rainfall-runoff relationship of
129 the control catchment at the Red Hill site has been invalidated by the Millennium drought if the
130 results of the three methods remain inconsistent; and (3) determine whether consistent results can
131 be obtained by eliminating the effects of drought on runoff of the control catchment if the
132 hypothesis in objective (2) is true.

133 **2 Paired Catchments and Data**

134 The Red Hill catchment (1.95 km²) and the Kileys Run catchment (1.35 km²) were the
135 paired catchments located northeast of Tumut in New South Wales, Australia (35.322°S,
136 149.137°E) (Fig. 1). The catchments are adjacent, and the soil types, topographic characteristics,
137 and climatic conditions are similar. The main soil types are shallow red soils and red duplex (Major
138 et al., 1998). The topography is rolling or undulating with mostly gentle slopes in Kileys Run. The
139 climate of the two catchments is temperate with highly variable and winter-dominated rainfall.
140 Red Hill was the treated catchment, which was converted from grassland into a *Pinus radiata*
141 plantation in 1988 and 1989 (Bren et al., 2006). The neighboring catchment (Kileys Run) was the
142 control catchment, which was kept as grassland over the entire observation period.

143 Daily rainfall and runoff from the two catchments were collected during the period of
144 1990–2015. Mean annual rainfall and mean annual runoff of the Red Hill catchment were 817 mm
145 and 75 mm, respectively, during the study period. Mean annual rainfall and runoff were 817 mm
146 and 161 mm, respectively, in the Kileys Run catchment over the period of 1990–2015. Monthly



147 potential evapotranspiration records were obtained from the SILO Data
148 (www.longpaddock.qld.gov.au/silo/point-data/). Figure 2 shows the Kileys Run rainfall anomaly
149 that was calculated by the method proposed by Saft et al. (2015). It can be seen that Kileys Run
150 experienced a prolonged drought that lasted 10 years from 2000 to 2009 and is consistent with the
151 period of the Millennium Drought that occurred in southeastern and western Australia.

152 **3 Methods**

153 Several statistical methods and hydrological modelling methods were employed to
154 ascertain the reasons for the significant differences in results amongst the three methods of
155 estimating runoff impacts caused by vegetation changes at the Red Hill paired-catchment
156 experiment site, and to verify the two hypotheses that we proposed as being the cause of the
157 differences, i.e., the short length of the observed data record used and the non-stationary rainfall-
158 runoff relationship of the control catchment.

159 **3.1 Separating the effects of climate variability and vegetation changes on runoff**

160 The change in mean annual runoff between two periods can be estimated for a given
161 catchment as:

$$\Delta Q_{total} = \overline{Q_2^{obs}} - \overline{Q_1^{obs}} \quad (1)$$

162 where ΔQ_{total} represents the total change in mean annual runoff, $\overline{Q_1^{obs}}$ is the average annual
163 runoff during the first period, and $\overline{Q_2^{obs}}$ is the average annual runoff during the second period. In
164 paired-catchment studies, the first period and the second period are usually defined as the
165 calibration period (or pre-treatment period) and the prediction period (or post-treatment period),
166 respectively.



167 If ΔQ_{total} is predominantly driven by vegetation changes and climate variability, it can be
168 separated using Eq. (2) by assuming effects of other factors and interactions between the climate
169 and vegetation are all negligible.

$$\Delta Q_{veg} = \Delta Q_{total} - \Delta Q_{clim} \quad (2)$$

170 where ΔQ_{clim} and ΔQ_{veg} are the changes in mean annual runoff caused by climate variability and
171 vegetation changes (e.g., plantation expansion), respectively.

172 The three widely used methods used in this study for separating the impacts of climate
173 variability and vegetation changes on catchment runoff (i.e., the paired-catchment method, the
174 time-trend analysis method, and the sensitivity-based method) are the same as those used by Zhao
175 et al. (2010).

176 **3.1.1 Paired-catchment method**

177 The paired-catchment method assumes that the correlation between the runoff in the two
178 paired catchments will remain the same if the vegetation cover remains the same or changes in a
179 similar fashion. This correlation is established by regression analysis during the calibration period,
180 and then is used to predict the runoff for the treated catchment during the prediction period. The
181 difference between the measured and predicted runoff of the treated catchment during the
182 prediction period constitutes the impact of the vegetation treatment (e.g., afforestation,
183 deforestation, *etc.*) on runoff (Stoneman, 1993; Williamson et al., 1987). The principle of this
184 method is shown in Fig. 3 (a) and the equation can be expressed as follows (Bosch and Hewlett,
185 1982; Lee, 1980):

186 During the calibration period:



$$Q_{t1} = aQ_{c1} + b \quad (3)$$

187 During the prediction period:

$$Q'_{t2} = aQ_{c2} + b \quad (4)$$

$$\Delta Q_{veg} = \overline{Q_{t2}} - \overline{Q'_{t2}} \quad (5)$$

188 where Q_t and Q_c represent measured runoff from the treated and control catchments,
189 respectively; Q'_t is the predicted runoff for the treated catchment; ΔQ_{veg} is the change in mean
190 annual runoff induced by vegetation changes; subscripts 1 and 2 represent the calibration period
191 and the prediction period; and a and b are the fitted regression coefficients.

192 3.1.2 Time-trend analysis method

193 The time-trend analysis method can be applied to a single catchment that experienced
194 vegetation changes during two different periods. Runoff without vegetation changes can be
195 simulated by using the rainfall-runoff relationship that was developed over the calibration period.
196 The principle of this method is shown in Fig. 3 (b) and can be expressed in the following equations
197 (Lee, 1980):

198 During the calibration period:

$$Q_1 = aP_1 + b \quad (6)$$

199 During the prediction period:

$$Q'_2 = aP_2 + b \quad (7)$$

$$\Delta Q^{veg} = \overline{Q_{t2}} - \overline{Q'_{t2}} \quad (8)$$

200 where P is precipitation; Q , Q' , and ΔQ_{veg} are the same as defined above.



201 3.1.3 Sensitivity-based method

202 The sensitivity-based method is widely used to directly estimate runoff changes caused by
203 climate variability. Runoff changes caused by vegetation changes can be estimated by subtracting
204 the runoff changes caused by climate variability from the total runoff changes. The principle of
205 this method is shown in Fig. 3 (c). Runoff changes caused by climate variability can be determined
206 by changes in precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (Koster and Suarez, 1999; Milly and
207 Dunne, 2002), expressed as:

$$\Delta Q_{clim} = \beta \Delta P + \gamma \Delta PET \quad (9)$$

208 where ΔQ_{clim} is the same as defined above; ΔP , and ΔPET are changes in precipitation (P) and
209 potential evapotranspiration (PET), respectively; β and γ are the sensitivity coefficients of runoff
210 to precipitation and potential evapotranspiration, respectively, as estimated in Li et al. (2007) as:

$$\beta = \frac{1 + 2x + 3wx^2}{(1 + x + wx^2)^2} \quad (10)$$

$$\gamma = -\frac{1 + 2wx}{(1 + x + wx^2)^2} \quad (11)$$

211 where x is the mean annual dryness index (estimated as PET/P) and w is a fitted model parameter
212 related to catchment conditions such as vegetation type, soil, and PET . w was set as 1.66 for the
213 Red Hill catchment in this study according to Zhao et al. (2010).

214 The calibration and prediction periods for paired-catchment studies are usually defined by
215 the vegetation changes history. However, calibration period data were absent for the Red Hill and
216 Kileys Run catchments because runoff observations were started only about one year before the
217 treatment limiting the applicability of the division method determined by treatment year. Therefore,
218 the calibration period and the prediction period were taken as the pre-change period and post-



219 change periods of runoff, respectively, as determined by the step change-point in the runoff of the
220 treated catchment. This treatment will not affect the conclusion of this study as previous studies
221 have shown that the establishment of the young pine tree plantation at Red Hill had very limited
222 impacts on runoff in the early years (Zhao et al., 2010).

223 **3.2 Detecting changes in the rainfall-runoff relationship**

224 Both time-series analysis methods and a process-based hydrological model were used to
225 detect non-stationarity in the rainfall-runoff relationship of the Kileys Run catchment. In addition,
226 the process-based hydrological model can better help us analyze the reasons for the non-stationary
227 rainfall-runoff relationship of the Kileys Run catchment.

228 **3.2.1 Statistical data analysis**

229 The statistical methods used in this study were the Mann-Kendall test and the Pettitt
230 change-point detection method. The Mann-Kendall test for trend analysis (Kendall, 1975; Mann,
231 1945) and Pettitt change-point detection method (Pettitt, 1979) were used to detect the long-term
232 trend and the change point in data time series. Double mass curves (Mu et al., 2007), flow duration
233 curves (Vogel and Fennessey, 1994), and rainfall-runoff linear regression curves were employed
234 to detect changes in the rainfall-runoff relationship.

235 **3.2.2 Non-stationarity detection by a combination of a hydrological model and the data** 236 **assimilation method**

237 Hydrological model is the generalization of complex hydrological processes. Parameters
238 of hydrological model not only determine the correctness of model output results, but also are the
239 generalization of physical phenomena formed by hydrological elements. Many studies have shown
240 that hydrological model parameters are time-varying rather than constant under the combined



241 effects of strong climate change and human activities (Li et al., 2017; Madsen, 2003; Pianosi and
242 Wagener, 2016). Therefore, if the significant changes of parameters can be detected, it can be
243 considered that the hydrological process of the catchment has changed significantly. At present,
244 the data assimilation method is the most popular method for simulating parameters of hydrological
245 model, and particle filtering method which has good performance is a kind of the data assimilation
246 method (Abbaszadeh et al., 2018; Noh et al., 2013; Salamon and Feyen, 2009). Compared with
247 other hydrological models, the two-parameter monthly water balance model has relatively simple
248 structure, fewer parameters (only SC and C), little limitation of data types and can also produce
249 good simulation results.

250 Therefore, the method of combining a two-parameter monthly water balance model with
251 particle filtering was used in this study. This method uses particle filtering to identify changes in
252 hydrological parameters that reflect changes in the rainfall-runoff relationship. This method is a
253 complimentary test to the statistical detection methods used in this study, and can shed light on the
254 changes of catchment hydrologic behavior at the process level, and further provide a theoretical
255 basis for the interpretation of hydrological changes.

256 3.2.2.1 Two-parameter monthly water balance model

257 The two-parameter monthly water balance model (TMWB) proposed by Xiong and Guo
258 (1999). TMWB estimates actual monthly evapotranspiration ($E(t)$) as:

$$E(t) = C \times ET(t) \times \tanh\left(\frac{P(t)}{ET(t)}\right) \quad (12)$$

259 where $ET(t)$ is the monthly potential evapotranspiration; $P(t)$ is the monthly rainfall. C is used to
260 account for the effect of the time scale change.



261 The monthly runoff Q is closely related to the soil water content S . In conceptual
262 hydrological models, the regulating effect of a catchment on rainfall is assumed to operate as a
263 linear or a non-linear reservoir (Shaw et al., 2010). Q is also assumed to be a hyperbolic tangent
264 function of S , given as:

$$Q(t) = S(t) \times \tanh\left(\frac{S(t)}{SC}\right) \quad (13)$$

265 where $S(t)$ is the soil water content, and SC represents the water storage capacity of the catchment
266 in millimeters.

267 Given the observed time series of both the monthly rainfall $P(t)$ and monthly pan
268 evaporation $ET(t)$, the actual monthly evapotranspiration $E(t)$ can be determined by Eq. (12).
269 The soil water remaining after subtracting $E(t)$ is $[S(t-1) + P(t) - E(t)]$, where $S(t-1)$ is
270 the soil water content at the beginning of the t^{th} month. Therefore, $Q(t)$ can be estimated as:

$$Q(t) = [S(t-1) + P(t) - E(t)] \times \tanh\left(\frac{S(t-1) + P(t) - E(t)}{SC}\right) \quad (14)$$

271 The water content at the end of the t^{th} month, i.e. $S(t)$, is calculated according to the water
272 conservation law as:

$$S(t) = S(t-1) + P(t) - E(t) - Q(t) \quad (15)$$

273 3.2.2.2 Particle filter data assimilation method

274 Particle filtering is a sequential Monte Carlo methodology used to achieve the effect of
275 optimal Bayesian estimation. The basic idea is that a group of weighted random sample particles
276 are selected from the state space to approximate the probability density distribution of the state.
277 Then the sample mean is used instead of the integral operation to obtain the minimum variance



278 estimation of the state. In practice, the sequential importance sampling method is usually used to
279 select random sample particles. Particle filters are able to handle model nonlinearities while
280 computing a complete (arbitrarily accurate) representation of the posterior distribution so that any
281 statistical measure of the estimated quantities can easily be computed compared with other filtering
282 methods (Moradkhani et al., 2005). This method is now widely used to estimate the parameters,
283 reduce uncertainty and improve hydrological elements forecasts in hydrologic model (Cao et al.,
284 2019; Gichamo and Tarboton, 2019; Ju et al., 2020). In this study, particle filter was used to
285 accurately identify the variation of hydrological model parameters caused by climate variability in
286 TMWB in Kileys Run.

287 **3.3 Data Revision**

288 If the relationship between rainfall and runoff does not change before and after an extreme
289 drought, the relationship between rainfall and runoff established before the drought can be used
290 to predict the runoff after the drought. Predicted runoff after the drought can thus be considered as
291 revised runoff, of which the effects of drought on the runoff has been eliminated. Therefore, the
292 results of the paired-catchment method can be recalculated using the revised runoff data of the
293 control catchment.

294 Before drought:

$$Q_{c1} = aP_{c1} + b \quad (16)$$

295 After drought:

$$Q'_{c2} = aP_{c2} + b \quad (17)$$



296 where Q_c is the measured runoff from the control catchment; P_c is the measured rainfall from the
297 control catchment; Q'_c is the revised runoff for the control catchment; and subscripts 1 and 2 are
298 defined as before and after drought, respectively.

299 **4 Results**

300 **4.1 Separating the effects of climate variability and vegetation changes on runoff**

301 The statistical information of the trends and abrupt change points in annual runoff, rainfall,
302 and PET of both catchments based on observed data from 1990 to 2015 are shown in Table 1. The
303 abrupt change point in annual runoff of Red Hill occurred in 1996 and annual runoff decreased
304 significantly after 1996 ($\beta = -5.3$, $p < 0.05$). Annual runoff of Kileys Run also decreased, but the
305 reduction was not significant ($\beta = -8.1$, $0.05 < p \leq 0.1$). Annual rainfall and PET of two catchments
306 decreased and increased respectively ($\beta = -3.4$, $\beta = 3.5$, $p > 0.1$). Thus, the calibration period was set
307 as 1990–1996 and the prediction period was set as 1997–2015.

308 Figure 4 shows the monthly runoff-runoff relationship for the two paired catchments (Fig.
309 4 (a)) and the monthly rainfall-runoff relationship of Red Hill (i.e., the treated catchment, Fig. 4
310 (b)) during the calibration period (i.e. 1990–1996). The R^2 values of the monthly runoff-runoff
311 relationship and the monthly rainfall-runoff relationship were 0.82 and 0.52, respectively. The
312 linear relationships were $Q_{RH} = 0.87 \times Q_{KR} - 3.9$ (where Q_{RH} is monthly runoff of Red Hill, Q_{KR} is
313 monthly runoff of Kileys Run), and $Q_{RH} = 0.28 \times P_{RH} - 6.0$ (where P_{RH} is monthly rainfall of Red
314 Hill). These results indicate a good relationship between monthly runoff at these two catchments
315 during the calibration period. Therefore, the relationships can be used to predict runoff of Red Hill
316 during the prediction period and to estimate runoff change caused by vegetation changes.



317 Estimated runoff changes caused by vegetation changes in the Red Hill catchment using
318 the three different methods with 26 years of data are shown in Table 2. The total runoff change
319 was -138.1 mm between the prediction and calibration period. By using the paired-catchment
320 method, time-trend analysis method, and sensitivity-based method, runoff changes caused by
321 vegetation changes were -45.3 mm, -129.1 mm, and -105.1 mm, respectively, such that
322 vegetation changes accounted for 32.8%, 93.5%, and 76.1% of the total runoff change, respectively.
323 Clearly, the contribution of vegetation changes to the changes in total runoff estimated by the three
324 methods were still quite different. The decrease in runoff caused by the vegetation changes
325 estimated by the paired-catchment method was much lower than that calculated by the other two
326 methods. This inconstancy amongst the three methods is the same as described by Zhao et al.
327 (2010) although a much longer observation period was used in this study. This result indicates that
328 the length of the data record is not likely the reason for this difference.

329 **4.2 Detecting non-stationarity in the rainfall-runoff relationship of the control catchment**

330 **4.2.1 Statistical analysis**

331 The double mass curve (DMC) of monthly rainfall and runoff of the Kileys Run catchment
332 is shown in Fig. 5 (a). The cumulative rainfall-runoff relationship changed significantly twice as
333 seen in the slope changes of the regressions applied to the double mass curve data. The two abrupt
334 change points occurred in October 2001 and May 2010. Thus, the entire study period can be
335 divided into three periods, i.e. the first period (January 1990 to October 2001), the second period
336 (November 2001 to May 2010), and the third period (June 2010 to December 2015). The second
337 period clearly coincides with the drought period that this experimental site experienced (Fig. 2).
338 Figure 5 (a) shows that the slopes and intercepts of the DMC regressions in the different periods



339 were quite different. The slopes of the linear regression lines in the first, second, and third periods
340 were 0.27, 0.11, and 0.19, respectively. The annual average runoff coefficients for the three
341 different periods were 0.31, 0.09, and 0.19, respectively. The DMC of the Kileys Run catchment
342 indicated that runoff of the control catchment experienced a large reduction during the second
343 period (i.e., the period of prolonged drought) and then slightly increased during the third period
344 (i.e., the post-drought period), but still well below the runoff of the first period. The DMC showed
345 that the rainfall-runoff relationship of the Kileys Run catchment became non-stationary during and
346 after the prolonged drought.

347 The linear regression lines defining the relationship between annual rainfall and runoff for
348 the periods of 1990–2001, 2002–2010, and 2011–2015 are shown in Fig. 5 (b). The differences in
349 the slope and intercept were 0.07 and -74 mm, respectively, between the second and first period,
350 indicating a significant reduction in runoff and a great change in the rainfall-runoff relationship
351 because of the prolonged drought during the second period. Runoff of the Kileys Run catchment
352 partially recovered during the third period, as shown in Fig. 5 (b), with the linear regression slope
353 being the same as during the second period (0.29). The intercept during the third period was 26
354 mm less than during the first period and 48 mm greater than the intercept during second period.
355 These results suggest that the rainfall-runoff relationship of the Kileys Run catchment experienced
356 considerable change during and after the prolonged drought of the second period.

357 The daily flow duration curves (FDC) of the Kileys Run catchment in three different
358 periods (same periods defined by DMC) are shown in Fig. 6. Zero flows were not observed during
359 the first period (before the drought period), but they were observed in 14% and 8% of the times
360 during the second and third periods (i.e., the prolonged drought period and the post-drought period),
361 respectively. The FDC during the first period (green line) was flatter and smoother than the lines



362 for the other two periods, indicating that runoff changes before the prolonged drought period were
363 relatively stable and had a stationary relationship with rainfall. However, for most percentages of
364 the FDC during the second period (red line), runoff decreased by more than 50%. Especially low
365 flow decreased most rapidly, and there was 14% no-flow days. Runoff during the third period (blue
366 line) increased compared with the second period. Especially in the high flow region (0%–67%),
367 daily flow recovered to more than 50% of the runoff that occurred before the prolonged drought,
368 but the low flow increased relatively less, and there was also 8% no-flow days. In summary, the
369 shape and presence of the zero flows of FDC in Fig. 6 further proves that the relationship between
370 rainfall and runoff of the Kileys Run catchment (i.e., control catchment) changed significantly over
371 the three time periods.

372 **4.2.2 Data assimilation with hydrological model**

373 Based on multiple time-series analysis methods, we found that the rainfall-runoff
374 relationship of Kileys Run changed due to prolonged drought. Although the time-series analysis
375 method can reflect the change of the rainfall-runoff relationship, it is difficult to attribute the
376 change to drought at the process level. Therefore, a data assimilation method (particle filter) was
377 further employed to combine with TMWB to detect the time-varying model parameter and to
378 understand the mechanisms underlying the non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship.

379 The estimated monthly values of parameters SC and C used in TMWB are shown in Fig.
380 7, and the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) for runoff was 0.74.
381 The time series of estimated monthly SC and C values showed similar changes over the entire time
382 period of the study. The average SC values during the three periods previously identified initially
383 increased by 40.3% and then decreased by 16.8%, with mean values of 1135.3, 1592.3, and 1324.0,
384 respectively. SC represents the water storage capacity of the catchment, and it is negatively



385 correlated with catchment runoff. In the Kileys Run catchment, the prolonged drought caused SC
386 to increase, possibly due to the increase of the thickness of the unsaturated soil water zone, thus
387 leading to decreased runoff. The average values of C during the three periods of the study also
388 initially increased (by 29.7%) and then decreased (by 9.7%), with mean values of 1.11, 1.44, and
389 1.30, respectively. The temporal variation of the estimated C values were related to the variation
390 of monthly actual evaporation that is affected by multiple climatic factors, such as air temperature,
391 soil moisture, and solar irradiance (Su et al., 2015). When C increases, monthly actual evaporation
392 increases and runoff decreases. The increase of C in Kileys Run possibly resulted from the increase
393 of PET and the decrease of rainfall during the extreme drought (Fig. 8 (b)). A good correlation can
394 be observed between the changes in C and SC based on the physical processes and runoff changes
395 analyzed by the previous three statistical methods. When the two parameters increased, the runoff
396 decreased, and when the two parameters decreased, the runoff increased.

397 In summary, it can be seen that the variation of C and SC also reflects the non-stationary
398 changes of hydrological processes (i.e., the non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship in Kileys
399 Run before and after the prolonged drought), and the physical significance of the parameters is
400 helpful for us to understand how the non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship of Kileys Run
401 (control catchment) is formed.

402 **4.3 Data revision and hypothesis validation**

403 The results presented in section 4.2 demonstrated that the rainfall-runoff relationship of the
404 control catchment (Kileys Run) was altered by the prolonged drought. By using the method
405 mentioned in section 3.3, the effect of prolonged drought on the rainfall-runoff relationship in the
406 Kileys Run catchment was eliminated, and the revised runoff is shown in Fig. 9. The revised runoff



407 did not exhibit a significant trend nor an abrupt change point from 1990 to 2015. Based on the
408 revised runoff, impacts of vegetation changes on runoff of the Red Hill catchment were re-
409 estimated using the three methods again, and are listed in Table 2. The linear relationship between
410 rainfall and runoff before the drought in Kileys Run was $Q=0.27 \times P-1.0$ ($R^2=0.49$). Estimated
411 impacts of afforestation on runoff calculated by the paired-catchment method increased greatly
412 from 32.8% to 73.4%, and the decrease in runoff caused by vegetation changes increased from
413 45.3 mm to 101.4 mm. By eliminating the effects of drought on the runoff of the control catchment,
414 apparent large differences amongst the three methods no longer existed, and the results suggested
415 that vegetation changes was the main cause of runoff reduction in the Red Hill catchment.

416 Based on the above analysis of the rainfall-runoff relationship in Kileys Run, we can
417 conclude that drought led to the non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship of the control catchment
418 (Kileys Run). By eliminating the influence of drought on the control catchment, the estimated
419 contributions of vegetation changes to the total runoff change using three different methods at the
420 Red Hill experimental site were quite close to each other. Therefore, differences among the three
421 methods at the Red Hill experimental site were not due to the length of the data record, but were
422 the result of the non-stationary rainfall-runoff relationship of the control catchment caused by the
423 prolonged drought that invalidated the role of the control catchment in the paired-catchment
424 method and led to underestimated impacts of vegetation changes on runoff.

425 **5 Discussion**

426 **5.1 Differences in estimated impacts of vegetation changes on runoff among three methods**

427 The paired-catchment method, the time-trend analysis method, and the sensitivity-based
428 method have similarities and differences. The common assumption of the three methods is that the



429 interaction between climate variability and vegetation changes is very small and can be ignored.
430 The total changes of runoff are a linear combination of runoff changes caused by climate variability
431 and vegetation changes. In fact, the independence of climate variability and vegetation changes
432 may lead to errors, especially for large-scale catchments (Guo et al., 2014), but it cannot be the
433 main reason that explains the difference amongst results from these three methods at the Red Hill
434 paired-catchment experimental site. The differences among these three methods are reflected in
435 the fact that only the paired-catchment method needs the runoff data from the control catchment.
436 In contrast, only the sensitivity-based method uses the change of rainfall and potential
437 evapotranspiration to obtain the runoff change caused by climate variability, and then indirectly
438 obtains the response of runoff to vegetation changes.

439 The paired-catchment method assumes that the treated catchment behaves similarly to the
440 control catchment during the calibration period, and hence runoff from the control catchment can
441 be used to gauge the effect of vegetation changes on runoff from the treated catchment during the
442 treatment period. Implied in the paired-catchment method is also the assumption that the rainfall-
443 runoff relationship of the control catchment is robust and does not change between the two periods.
444 In the Kileys Run catchment (control catchment), the prolonged drought significantly altered the
445 rainfall-runoff relationship resulting in non-stationarity, and the response of the rainfall-runoff
446 relationship to extreme drought was different in the two catchments because underlying surface
447 conditions of two catchments were different after 1990. Changes in the rainfall-runoff relationship
448 of the control catchment invalidate the main assumption of this method, and make the rainfall-
449 runoff relationship of two catchments no longer applicable to the prediction period. Zhang et al.
450 (2007) analyzed the variation of annual runoff with a precipitation gradient under different
451 vegetation types in 257 paired catchments. They found that the runoff decrease in a forest-covered



452 catchment was less than the runoff decrease in a grassland-covered catchment because grassland
453 was more sensitive to drought and its water storage capacity was smaller. Therefore, the simulated
454 runoff of the Red Hill catchment was much lower than the realistic runoff value during the
455 prediction period, and the runoff change caused by the vegetation changes was also underestimated.

456 The time-trend analysis method set up a linear regression relationship between runoff and
457 rainfall during the calibration period. The relationship between rainfall and runoff of Red Hill was
458 hypothesized to remain unchanged from the calibration period to the prediction period without
459 vegetation changes. However, Red Hill also experienced a very extreme drought that had rarely
460 occurred in the history of Australia, and its intensity was strong and its duration was long. The
461 effect of climate variability calculated by the time-trend analysis method based on runoff of Red
462 Hill may have been underestimated, and the impact of vegetation changes on runoff reduction may
463 have been overestimated.

464 The sensitivity-based method considers the effect of both P and PET on runoff. The
465 method also considers characteristics of underlying surface conditions that have certain physical
466 significance. The parameters β and γ represent the sensitivity coefficients of runoff to P and PET
467 and were 0.39 and -0.16 , respectively, in this study. This means that a 100% increase in P will
468 lead to about a 39% runoff increase, while a 100% increase of PET will result in about a 16%
469 runoff decrease in the Red Hill catchment. Therefore, runoff changes are more sensitive to P
470 changes than they are to PET changes, and precipitation is the dominant factor affecting runoff
471 changes at this site. The parameters β and γ depend on the mean annual dryness index x (equal to
472 PET/P that was 1.50 in Red Hill) and w (that was 1.66 in Red Hill), and these parameters are
473 related to catchment conditions such as vegetation type and soil properties. Over the entire study
474 period from 1990 to 2015, P showed an insignificant ($p>0.1$) decreasing trend of 3.4 mm year^{-1}



475 and PET showed an insignificant ($p>0.1$) increasing trend of 3.5 mm year^{-1} . Figure 8 shows the
476 change of annual P and PET . Both P and PET initially decreased before 1996 and then increased
477 after 1996. The rates of increase for annual P and PET were $12.0 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$ and 2.6 mm year^{-1} ,
478 respectively, from 1997 to 2015, and the contributions of P and PET to runoff changes caused by
479 climate variability were -22 mm and -11 mm , respectively.

480 Slight differences in the estimated impacts of vegetation or climate changes on runoff using
481 the three methods are acceptable. Apparently inconsistent results amongst the three methods at the
482 Red Hill experiment site were due to the nonstationary rainfall-runoff relationship of the control
483 catchment caused by extreme drought. These results highlight the fact that future studies on
484 separating the impacts of vegetation changes on regional runoff should be careful to verify whether
485 the rainfall-runoff relationship changes due to climate changes because climate change is expected
486 to occur more frequently and to be more extreme in the future (Monier and Gao, 2015).

487 **5.2 Drought induced changes in the rainfall-runoff relationship of the Kileys Run catchment**

488 Based on the above analysis, the specific reasons for the change in the rainfall-runoff
489 relationship caused by drought are likely the reduction in inter-annual rainfall variability, the
490 changed rainfall seasonality, and the decreased groundwater level (Potter et al., 2010). Inter-annual
491 rainfall variability decreased between 2001 and 2009. According to the long-term rainfall data,
492 there was a lack of high rainfall years during the drought period that led to a reduction in rainfall
493 and continuous runoff. Rainfall seasonality changed during the drought period. Runoff in Kileys
494 Run usually occurs primarily in winter. However, during the drought period, less rainfall in autumn
495 and winter resulted in lower antecedent soil moisture in Kileys Run. Precipitation is first subject
496 to interception and evaporation, but then reduces the soil water deficit, and finally the remaining
497 precipitation contributes to runoff. As a result, the decrease of runoff began to increase in winter



498 and affected the runoff generation in spring during the drought (2002-2009), resulting in a
499 postponed runoff peak that occurred in September (Fig. 10). The decline in groundwater levels
500 may be the reason for runoff reduction. Usually groundwater storage anomalies are highly
501 correlated with precipitation anomalies, and a drought results in a decline in groundwater levels
502 (Peters et al., 2003). Additionally, a long-term reduction in rainfall will cause the connection
503 between groundwater and surface water to be disrupted, leading to a fundamental change in
504 hydrology (Kinal and Stoneman, 2012). The increase of SC in the Kileys Run catchment may
505 reflect the changes in groundwater level. Drought reduced the groundwater level, increased the
506 thickness of the soil aeration zone, and significantly enhanced the regulation and storage capacity
507 of the soil and the groundwater reservoir. Figure 11 shows changes in the annual lowest 7-day
508 flow and c (the parameter that represents net water flux from groundwater storage and is associated
509 with groundwater evaporation, recharge, percolation to deep aquifer, and bedrock leakage; an
510 increase in c means a decrease in groundwater recharge). Brutsaert (2008) and Cheng et al. (2017)
511 demonstrated that annual lowest 7-day flow and c can be used to indicate the change of ground
512 water storage in the absence of observations of groundwater level. The annual lowest 7-day flow
513 generally declined from 1990 to 1999, and was reduced to 0 or near 0 between 2001 and 2010.
514 The parameter c generally increased over time, suggesting that groundwater recharge decreased,
515 leading to reduced runoff. In summary, the prolonged drought period reduced rainfall and moisture
516 in the soil, decreased the groundwater recharge, caused the disconnection between ground water
517 and surface water, and further decreased runoff. Additionally, the connection between ground
518 water and surface water could not be completely restored by the small increase in rainfall during
519 2010–2015, and runoff could not increase rapidly in a short time.



520 **5.3 Application and suitability of the three methods under changing environments**

521 The three methods used in this study to separate the effects of vegetation changes and
522 climate variability on runoff have advantages and disadvantages. The paired-catchment method is
523 the simplest and most fundamental method (Brown et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2010), but it must
524 satisfy some requirements. It can only be used in two adjacent catchments with similar
525 hydrogeological conditions, and vegetation cover in one catchment must remain unchanged. These
526 requirements are often impossible for most catchments to achieve. Moreover, the role of the
527 control catchment is valid only when hydrological stationarity is maintained. The success of this
528 approach may also be limited by the sample size of the regression model, type II error, and the
529 inability of locating a long-term suitable control (Zégre et al., 2010).

530 Both the time-trend analysis method and the sensitivity-based method can be used in a
531 single catchment, and this is the most significant advantage over the paired-catchment method.
532 However, the simple linear or nonlinear equations assumed by some time-trend methods might not
533 be able to represent the rainfall-runoff relationship appropriately, and this can result in biased or
534 even erroneous results, even though they provide a physical basis to separate hydrological impacts.
535 Although time-trend analysis methods are able to capture the rainfall-runoff relationships very
536 well during the calibration period, they can also have large uncertainties compared with the
537 Budyko-based approaches, and this may be due to the fact that only precipitation is considered
538 (Zhang et al., 2018).

539 The sensitivity-based method is based on a Budyko framework and is widely used to
540 calculate the impacts of climate variability on runoff (Li et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2008; Zhang et al.,
541 2018). Compared with other complex hydrological models, this method has only two parameters
542 which are relatively simple and flexible. But the sensitivity-based method is only applicable where



543 long-term datasets are available, and it provides results only at a mean annual time scale, making
544 it difficult to calculate the seasonal or monthly variation of runoff (Li et al., 2012).

545 All three of these methods are relatively simple, do not require various types of data, and
546 are suitable for ungauged catchments. If there is only one catchment, both the time-trend and the
547 sensitivity-based methods can be used to calculate the effects of vegetation changes on runoff.
548 However, in the case of extreme climate variability, the applicability of these methods should be
549 evaluated carefully, especially with regard for the rainfall-runoff relationship of the control
550 catchment in the paired-catchment method.

551 **6 Conclusions**

552 The Red Hill paired-catchment experimental site has been widely used to explore the
553 impacts of vegetation changes on catchment runoff. The current study attempted to identify the
554 reasons for the inconsistency in estimated runoff changes at this site caused by vegetation changes
555 that had been reported in previous studies. The methods for estimating runoff changes included
556 the paired-catchment method, the time-trend analysis method, and the sensitivity method. A
557 potential cause for the previously found differences may have been related to the short length of
558 the data record. This cause was excluded by using a 26-year record of observations. The apparent
559 inconsistent results were due to the requirement of the paired-catchment method to use runoff
560 observations from the control catchment. Further analysis of the control catchment rainfall-runoff
561 relationship revealed that extreme drought during 2002–2009, one of most serious prolonged
562 drought periods in the history of Australia, had altered the stationary rainfall-runoff relationship
563 of the control catchment. By eliminating the impacts of the prolonged drought on the runoff of the
564 control catchment, runoff changes induced by afforestation derived by the three different methods



565 were consistent. This study, using paired-catchment experimental observations, proved that
566 prolonged drought can induce non-stationarity in the catchment rainfall-runoff relationship, and
567 this topic is currently receiving a great deal of attention. The results of this study also focus
568 attention on the importance of performing a non-stationarity test on the rainfall-runoff relationship
569 in order to guarantee that historical long-term time series are used correctly. Such a test is also
570 critical for assessing ecohydrological impacts of vegetation changes given that extreme climate
571 events (including droughts) are projected to occur more frequently in the future.

572 **Data availability.** The daily rainfall and runoff data are provided by Forests NSW
573 (<https://www.forestrycorporation.com.au/>) and CSIRO (<https://www.csiro.au/>) in Australia. The
574 monthly potential evapotranspiration data can be obtained from the SILO Data
575 (www.longpaddock.qld.gov.au/silo/point-data/). All analyses were carried out with the open-
576 source software R (<https://www.r-project.org/>).

577 **Author contributions.** YZ conceived the study, performed the analyses and prepared the
578 manuscript. LC contributed to the study design and interpretation of the results. LZ provided data
579 of rainfall and runoff. YL provided the code of hydrological model and particle filter. All the
580 authors contributed to the revisions of the manuscript.

581 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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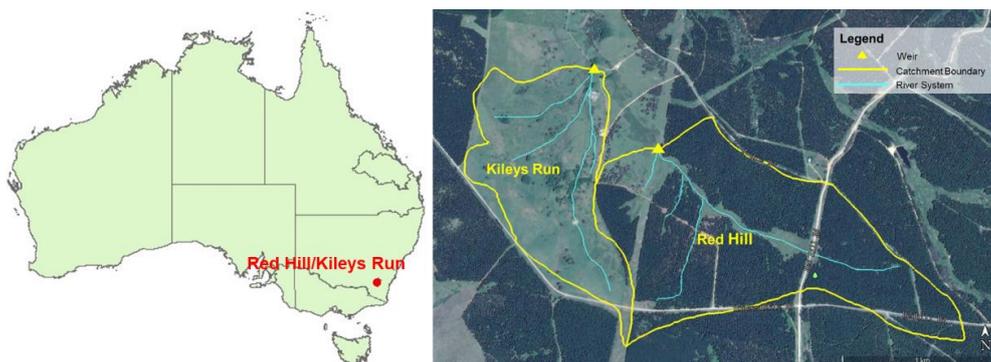
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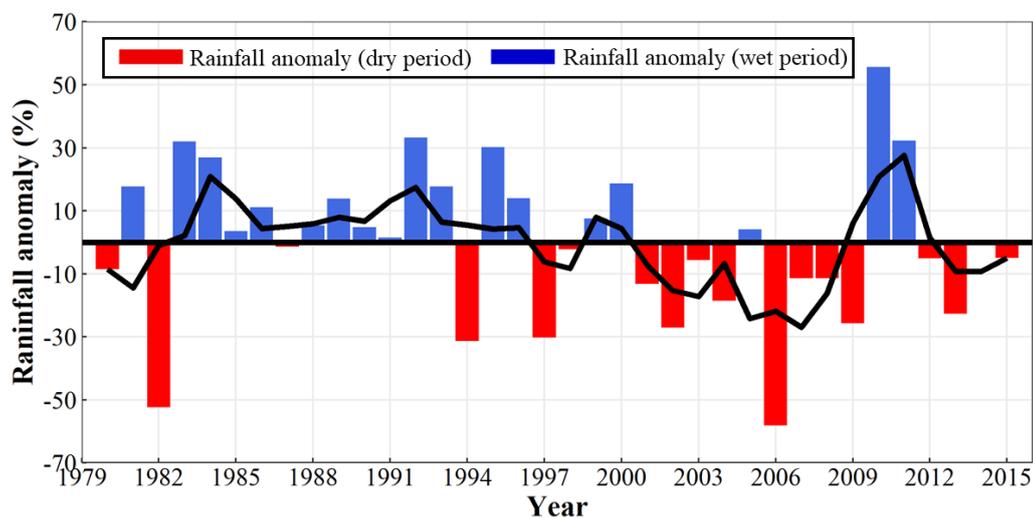


781

782 **Figure 1.** Location and satellite remote sensing image map of the Red Hill/Kileys Run

783 catchment in New South Wales, Australia (© Google Earth).

784



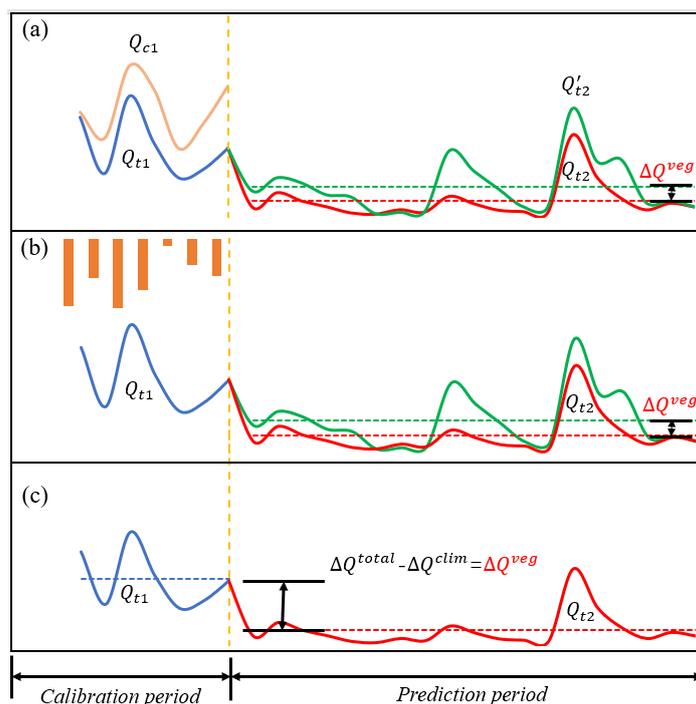
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786 **Figure 2.** Rainfall anomaly as a percentage of the mean annual rainfall of the Kileys Run

787 catchment, New South Wales, Australia. Red bars represent dry years and blue bars

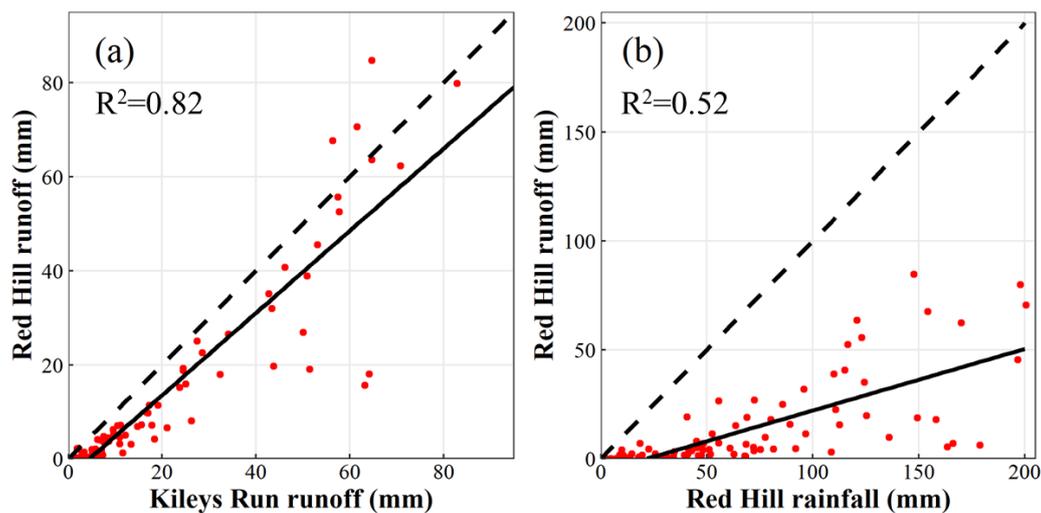
788 represent wet years. The black line represents the 3-year moving average of the rainfall

789 anomaly.



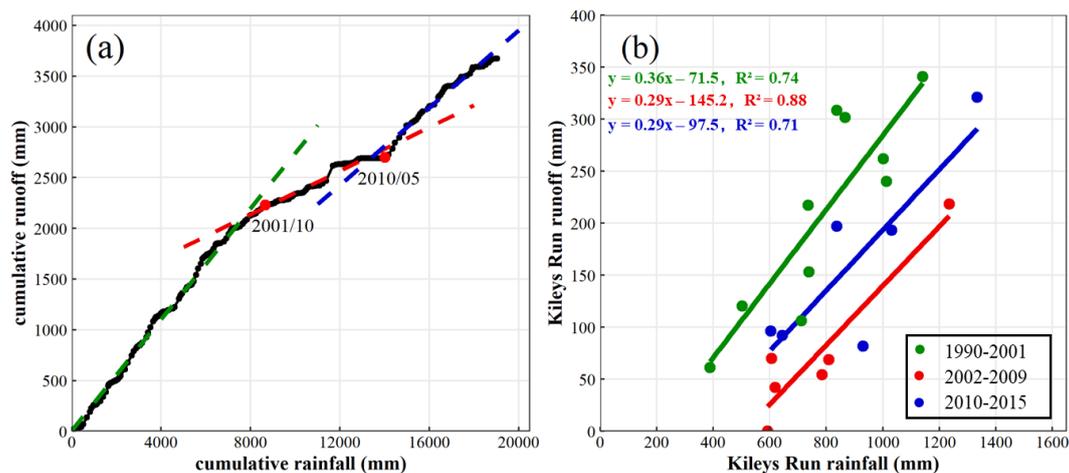
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791 **Figure 3.** Schematic diagram showing principles of (a) the paired-catchment method, (b) the
 792 time-trend analysis method, and (c) the sensitivity-based method. Solid orange and blue lines
 793 represent annual runoff of control and treated catchments, respectively, during the calibration
 794 period. Solid green and red lines represent the predicted and observed runoff, respectively, of the
 795 treated catchment during the prediction period. Orange bars in (b) represent annual rainfall of the
 796 treated catchment during the calibration period. Q_t and Q_c are the measured runoff from the
 797 treated and control catchments, respectively. Q'_t is the predicted runoff from the treated
 798 catchment. ΔQ_{total} is the total change in mean annual runoff. ΔQ_{clim} is the change in mean
 799 annual runoff caused by climate variability. ΔQ_{veg} is the change in mean annual runoff induced
 800 by vegetation changes. Subscripts 1 and 2 represent the calibration period and the prediction
 801 period.



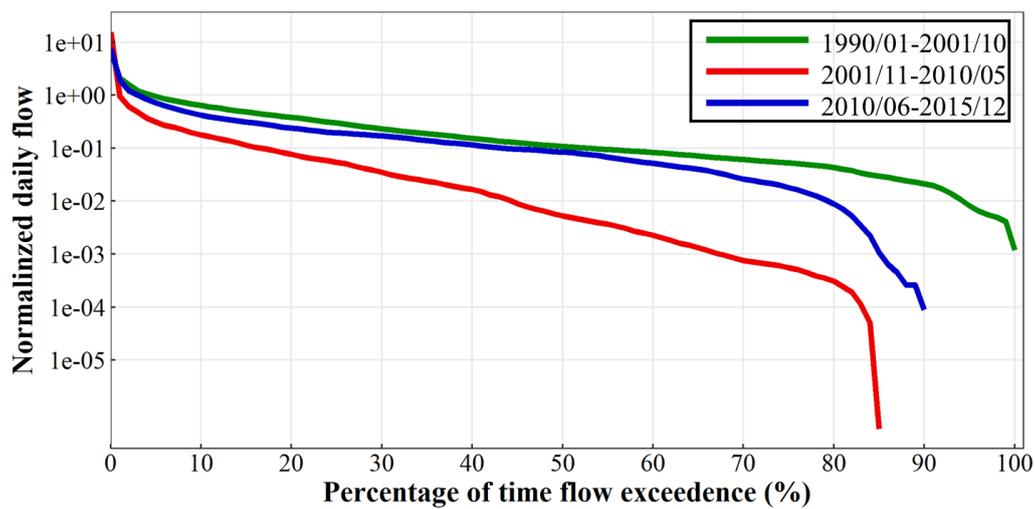
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803 **Figure 4.** (a) Monthly runoff at treated (Red Hill) vs. control (Kileys Run) catchments in New
804 South Wales, Australia, during the calibration period, and (b) Monthly rainfall vs. runoff of the
805 treated catchment during the calibration period. Dashed line is the 1:1 line.



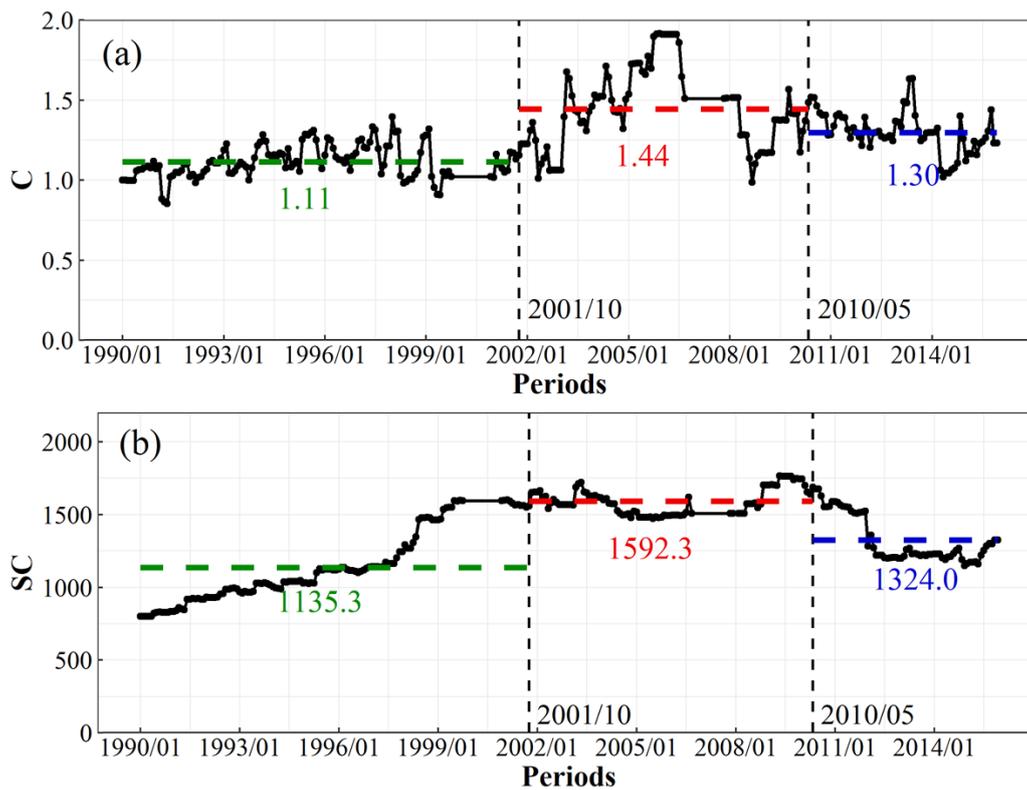
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807 **Figure 5.** (a) Double mass curve of monthly rainfall and runoff, and (b) Relationships between
808 annual rainfall and runoff of the Kileys Run catchment (control catchment), New South Wales,
809 Australia, during the period of 1990–2015. The dashed lines in (a) represent the linear regression
810 lines between cumulative rainfall and cumulative runoff during the periods of January 1990 to
811 October 2001 (green), November 2001 to May 2010 (red), and June 2010 to December 2015
812 (blue). The green, red, and blue lines in (b) represent the linear regression lines for 1990-2001,
813 2002–2009, and 2010–2015, respectively.



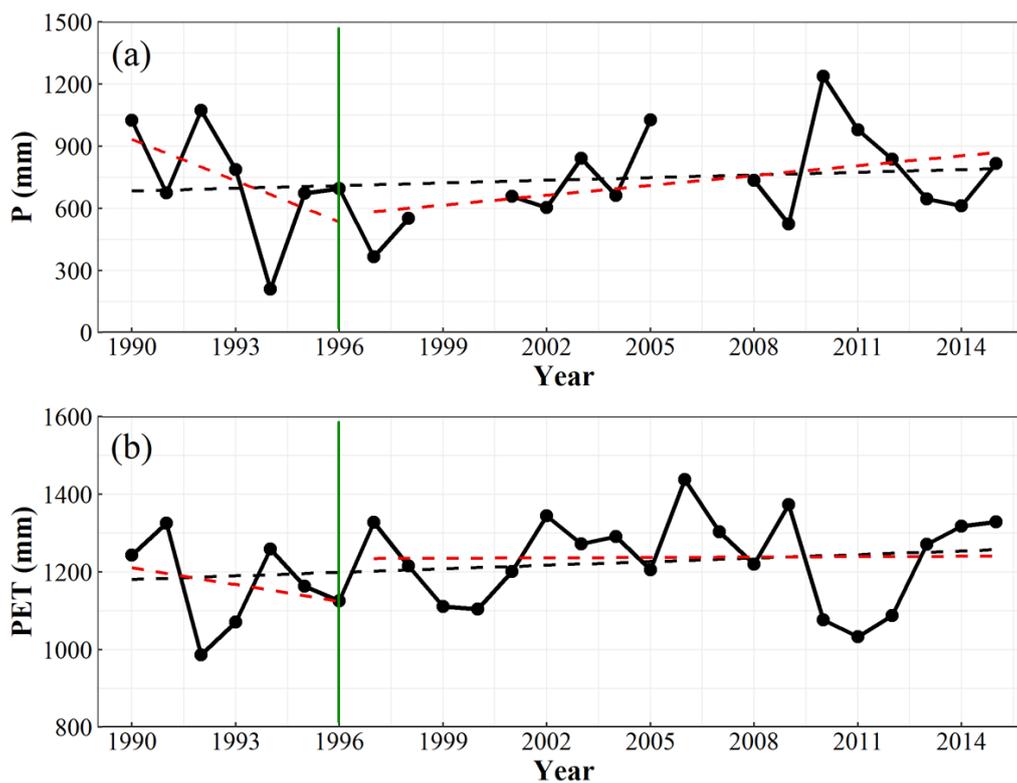
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815 **Figure 6.** Daily flow duration curves of the Kileys Run catchment (i.e., control catchment), New
816 South Wales, Australia, over three different periods (see legend).



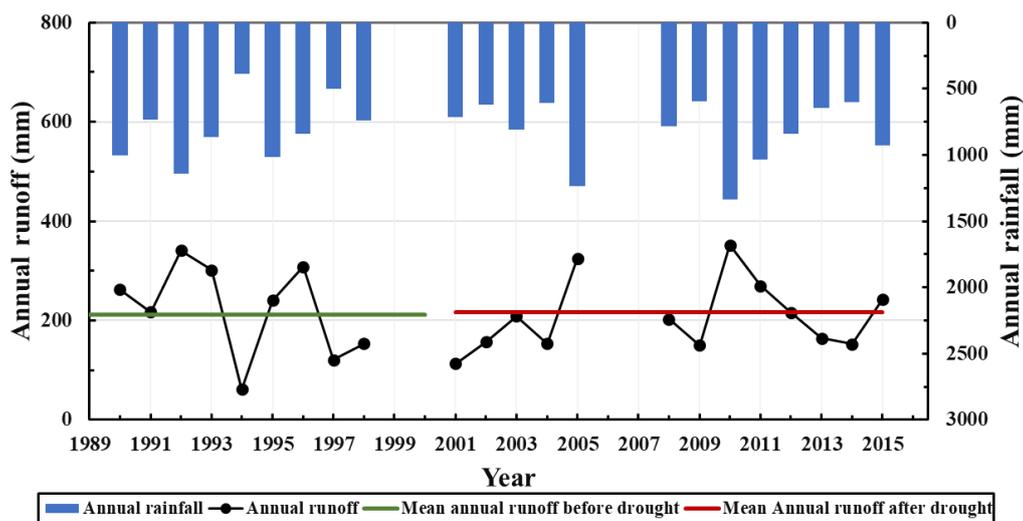
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818 **Figure 7.** Estimated monthly values of parameters (a) C and (b) SC used in the two-parameter
819 monthly water balance model for the Kileys Run catchment (control catchment), New South
820 Wales, Australia, during the period of 1990–2015.



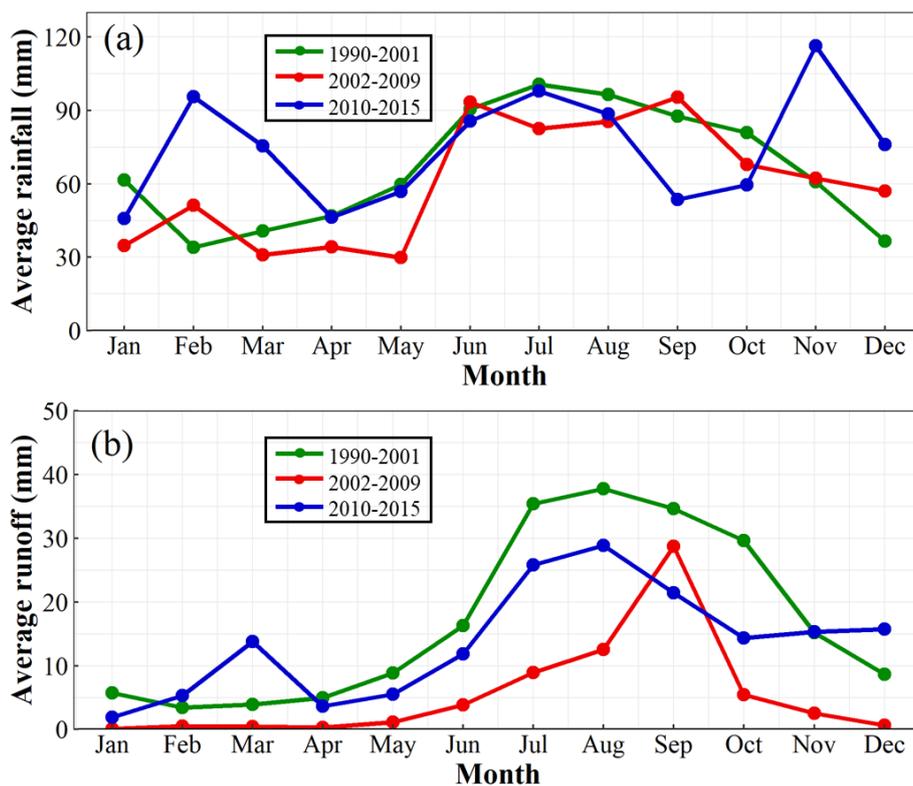
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822 **Figure 8.** Changes in (a) annual rainfall (P) and (b) annual potential evapotranspiration (PET) of
823 Kileys Run catchment (control catchment), New South Wales, Australia, during the period of
824 1990–2015.



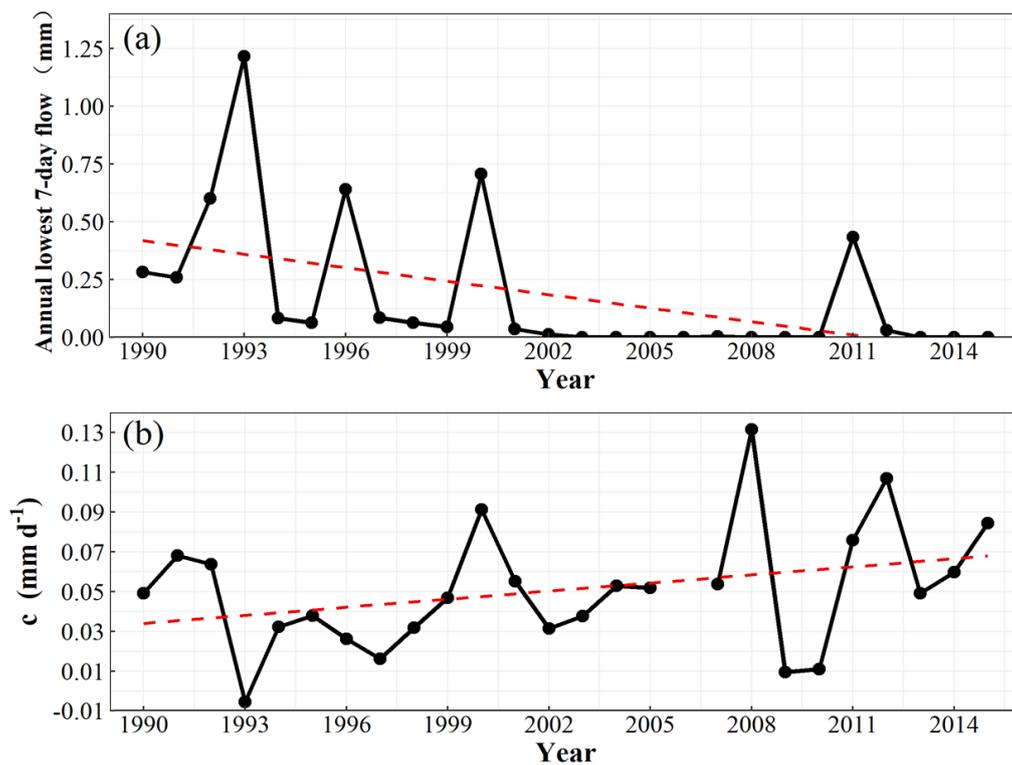
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826 **Figure 9.** Annual rainfall and runoff of the Kileys catchment (control catchment), New South
827 Wales, Australia, after revision, during the period of 1990–2015.



828

829 **Figure 10.** Seasonal changes in (a) monthly rainfall and (b) runoff of the Kileys Run catchment
830 (control catchment), New South Wales, Australia, during the periods of 1990–2001, 2002–2009,
831 and 2010–2015.



832

833 **Figure 11.** Changes in the (a) annual lowest 7-day flow and (b) annual c of the Kileys Run
834 catchment (control catchment), New South Wales, Australia, during the period of 1990–2015.



835 **Table 1.** Estimated trends and abrupt change points in annual runoff (Q), precipitation (P), and
 836 potential evapotranspiration (PET) of the Red Hill and Kileys Run catchments, New South
 837 Wales, Australia, during the period of 1990–2015.

Catchment	Q			P			PET		
	Z	β (mm yr ⁻¹)	Year ^a	Z	β (mm yr ⁻¹)	Year ^a	Z	β (mm yr ⁻¹)	Year ^a
Kileys Run	-1.9	-8.1*	1996	-0.3	-3.4	1993	1.1	3.5	2001
Red Hill	-2.4	-5.3**	1996*	-0.3	-3.4	1993	1.1	3.5	2001

838 *Note.* *** represents $p\text{-value} \leq 0.01$, ** represents $0.01 < p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$, * represents $0.05 < p\text{-}$
 839 $value \leq 0.1$. ^athe change point year.

840

841

842 **Table 2.** Effects of vegetation changes on runoff (ΔQ_{veg}) of Red Hill catchment, New South
 843 Wales, Australia, estimated using three different methods, with observed and revised monthly
 844 runoff of Kileys Run catchment.

	Paired-catchment		Time-trend Analysis		Sensitivity-based Method		Total Runoff
	Method	Method	Method	Method	Method	Method	Change
	ΔQ_{veg} (mm)	Percentage (%)	ΔQ_{veg} (mm)	Percentage (%)	ΔQ_{veg} (mm)	Percentage (%)	ΔQ_{total} (mm)
Observed Runoff	-45.3	32.8	-129.1	93.5	-105.1	76.1	-138.1
Revised Runoff	-101.4	73.4	-129.1	93.5	-105.1	76.1	-138.1

845