



1 **An improved Approximate Bayesian Computation approach for high-**
2 **dimensional posterior exploration of hydrological models**

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17 **Abstract**

18 The Approximate Bayesian computation (ABC) methods provide a powerful tool for
19 sampling from Bayesian posteriors for cases where we can simulate samples, but we
20 have no access to an explicit expression of the likelihood function. The Simulated
21 Annealing ABC (SABC) algorithm has been proposed to achieve a fast convergence to
22 an unbiased approximation to the posterior by adaptively decreasing an initially coarse
23 tolerance value. However, this algorithm uses a rather simplistic random walk
24 Metropolis (RWM) sampler to generate trial moves in a Markov chain and always
25 requires an excessive number of model evaluations for approximating the posterior,
26 which inevitably lowers the sampling efficiency and limits its applications in more
27 complex hydrologic modelling practices. Inspired by the advances made in Markov
28 Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods, we incorporated an adaptive Differential
29 Evolution scheme to enhance the efficiency of SABC sampling. This scheme has its
30 roots within Differential Evolution Markov Chains (DE-MC), and additionally utilizes
31 a self-adaptive randomized subspace sampling strategy to optimally select the
32 dimensions of parameters to be updated each time a proposal is generated. The
33 superiority of the modified SABC (mSABC) over the original SABC algorithm was
34 demonstrated through a SAC-SMA application to the Danjiangkou Reservoir region
35 (DRR). The case study results showed that mSABC was far more efficient with lower
36 computation costs and higher acceptance rates, and achieved higher numerical accuracy
37 than the original SABC algorithm. mSABC also resulted in a better overall prediction



38 of streamflow time series and signatures. The introduction of more advanced MCMC
39 sampler into SABC helps to speed up convergence to the approximate posterior while
40 achieving better model performance, which significantly widens the applicability of
41 SABC to complex posterior exploration problems.

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43 **Keywords:** Bayesian inference, Approximate Bayesian computation, Differential
44 Evolution, Subspace sampling, Hydrological modelling, Hydrological signatures



1 Introduction

The Bayesian methods provide a statistically convenient vehicle for probabilistic uncertainty quantification of hydrological models (Evin et al., 2014; Mcinerney et al., 2017; Schoups and Vrugt, 2010). According to Bayes' theorem, the posterior distribution of the parameters of a model can be derived from the prior distribution of estimated parameters θ and measurements of observed system behavior \tilde{Y} as

$$p(\theta|\tilde{Y}) \propto p(\theta)L(\tilde{Y}|\theta) \quad (1)$$

where $p(\theta)$ and $p(\theta|\tilde{Y})$ signify the prior and posterior parameter distribution, respectively, and $L(\tilde{Y}|\theta)$ denotes the likelihood function of the model, i.e., the probability density of model outputs for given parameters θ evaluated at the measurements \tilde{Y} . Challenges lie in the formulation of an appropriate likelihood function. If the statistical assumptions for formulating the likelihood are violated, the results of Bayesian methods are unreliable (Beven and Binley, 2014). Simple likelihood functions that assume independent identically distributed Gaussian error residuals are statistically convenient, but this oversimplified assumption cannot be justified in real-world applications. The presence of the observational data errors (Mcmillan et al., 2012) and model inadequacies (Gupta et al., 2012) introduces complex error residual structure whose probabilistic properties are difficult to characterize precisely with classical likelihood functions (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2013). The residuals might depend on the catchment and in most cases, they might be correlated in both time and space (Engeland



65 and Gottschalk, 2002). Gupta et al. (1998) also stated that no objective, statistically
66 correct likelihood function that takes into account all these aspects might exist. This
67 therefore has been the focus of ongoing debate in hydrology literature (Beven and
68 Binley, 2014).

69 In contrast, sampling from Bayesian posteriors is relatively straightforward
70 (Kavetski et al., 2018). Likelihood-free inference has been suggested that simulates
71 samples by sampling model outputs from an approximation to the posterior and
72 compares them with the observational data without evaluating the likelihood function,
73 which is nowadays referred to as Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) (e.g.,
74 Beaumont et al., 2002; Tavaré et al., 1997). ABC methods originate in the statistical
75 literature (Diggle and Gratton, 1984), and are especially useful for cases where we can
76 generate samples, but do not have access to an explicit expression for the actual
77 likelihood. The first application of ABC in the hydrological literature was found in Nott
78 et al. (2012), where the theoretical correspondence between ABC and a variant of
79 Bayesian methods known as the Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation
80 (GLUE) (Beven and Binley, 1992) is clarified. ABC inference was then introduced as
81 a possible vehicle for hydrologic modelling and uncertainty quantification by Vrugt and
82 Sadegh (2013). More recent research into ABC generalized as a class of numerical
83 algorithms for sampling from conditional distributions such as Bayesian posteriors was
84 provided by Kavetski et al. (2018) and Fenicia et al. (2018). A thorough review of ABC
85 methods is given by Beaumont (2019).



86 The basic ABC algorithm replaces the outputs of a probability model with one or
87 multiple summary statistics and introduces some prespecified tolerance value for its
88 distance from the observed summary statistics (Tavare et al., 1997; Weiss and Von
89 Haeseler, 1998). This method adopts a rather simplistic rejection sampling technique to
90 simulate samples from an approximate posterior. Implementation of the rejection
91 sampler is straightforward and very easy, but is not likely to result in robust estimates
92 of posterior parameter distribution for complex inference problems (Sadegh and Vrugt,
93 2014). When the prior parameter distribution is just a poor approximation to the
94 (unknown) actual posterior, which is always the case in realistic case studies, it requires
95 excessive number of model evaluations and CPU times to acquire an adequate number
96 of acceptable samples. To compensate for this inefficiency, a group of population Monte
97 Carlo (PMC) algorithms based on sequential importance sampling is developed
98 (Beaumont et al., 2009; Sisson et al., 2007; Turner and Van Zandt, 2012; Toni et al.,
99 2009). The rationale of the ABC-PMC sampler is to use a sequence of monotonically
100 decreasing tolerance values and iteratively evolve an ensemble of constant size towards
101 an approximate posterior based on the accepted proposals (Beaumont, 2019). Each
102 iteration consists of drawing a new particle from the old one with weights and
103 resampling. A sequence of multi-normal proposal distributions derived from the
104 adapted particle is used to successively search the parameter-output space and
105 approximate the posterior. This algorithm has been demonstrated to have a significantly
106 higher sampling efficiency than the basic ABC-REJ sampler for situations in which an



107 uninformative flat prior extending far beyond the posterior distribution is chosen
108 (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014). The ABC-PMC sampler of Beaumont et al. (2009) and
109 Turner and Van Zandt (2012) requires that the sequence of tolerance values be specified
110 a priori by the users. A poor selection of the tolerance values can lead to premature
111 convergence and provide misleading results. Inspired by Simulated Annealing, Albert
112 et al. (2015) presented an adaptive scheme that decreases the tolerance according to the
113 particles' distance from the target. The key question of how fast the tolerance should be
114 reduced in pursuit of a fast convergence speed to the correct posterior is pleasantly
115 answered by interpreting the tolerance parameter as the temperature of the environment
116 using non-equilibrium thermodynamics. The tolerance is adapted in such a way that the
117 entropy production is minimized (Albert et al., 2015). This class of particle algorithms
118 for ABC is known collectively as Simulated Annealing ABC, or SABC. Previous work
119 (Fenicia et al., 2018; Kavetski et al., 2018) has demonstrated the effectiveness and
120 efficiency of SABC for probabilistic uncertainty quantification in a few lumped
121 modelling practices.

122 Another algorithmic enhancement embedded in the SABC algorithm is that it uses
123 the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) scheme to simulate samples from an
124 approximation to the posterior (Marjoram et al., 2003). The building block of this
125 method is a Markov Chain, which generates a random walk through the parameter space
126 and trial jumps from the current state of the chain to a new state. The most common
127 MCMC method is the random walk Metropolis (RWM) sampler. It works with a single



128 trajectory (chain), and a symmetric normal jump distribution $N_d(0, \Sigma)$ whose
 129 covariance Σ is adapted using the accepted proposals of the chain according to
 130 $\Sigma = \beta \Sigma + s \mathbf{I}_d$. Here, s is a small constant preventing the covariance matrix from
 131 degenerating, and β is a scaling factor that depends only on the parameter dimension d .
 132 This method may be adequate for simple inference problems involving just a handful
 133 of parameters, but is not likely to achieve an adequate sampling efficiency and provide
 134 accurate posterior estimates when $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \tilde{\mathbf{Y}})$ is high-dimensional with complex
 135 posterior surfaces that contain numerous local optima and multiple regions of attraction
 136 (Laloy and Vrugt, 2012; Ter Braak, 2006; Ter Braak and Vrugt, 2008; Vrugt, 2016;
 137 Vrugt et al., 2008; Vrugt et al., 2009). Consequently, it always requires an excessive
 138 number of model evaluations to sample from the approximate posteriors, which limits
 139 its use in hydrological models with high computation costs (Shafii and Tolson, 2015).

140 In a separate line of research, variants of the MCMC methods have been developed
 141 for exploring the posteriors. To improve efficiency for high-dimensional problems, Ter
 142 Braak and Vrugt (2008) has proposed an adaptive RWM method entitled Differential
 143 Evolution Markov Chain (DE-MC). It uses multiple different chains running
 144 sequentially or in parallel for sampling from the posterior distribution. DE-MC directly
 145 utilizes the current states of the chains to generate the proposals to allow for direct
 146 jumps between disconnected modes of complex posterior surfaces. This is a significant
 147 strength of DE-MC acting as a multi-chain method compared to single chain methods
 148 (Vrugt, 2016). Previous work (Vrugt et al., 2008; Vrugt et al., 2009) has shown that the



149 efficiency of DE-MC can be further enhanced by combining self-adaptive randomized
150 subspace sampling. For high-dimensional problems it is rather inefficient to update all
151 d dimensions of parameters simultaneously (Haario et al., 2005), especially when
152 parameters have vastly different scales. Subspace sampling is implemented by only
153 updating randomly selected dimensions of parameters each time a candidate point is
154 generated. By "self-adaptive" we mean that the dimensions of parameters that
155 participate in the candidate generation are tuned adaptively during burn-in by favoring
156 large jumps over small ones in each of the chains (Vrugt et al., 2009). In addition, this
157 method includes higher-order chain pairs for candidate generation to increase diversity
158 in the candidates, and outlier chain correction techniques to speed up convergence. This
159 method, entitled DiffeRential Evolution Adaptive Metropolis (DREAM), maintains
160 detailed balance and overall ergodicity of the Markov chains (Vrugt, 2016).

161 In this paper, we examine the use of an adaptive MCMC sampling within the
162 SABC algorithm to improve the sampling efficiency and accelerate the chain
163 convergence. The adopted MCMC sampler is part of the DREAM algorithm and
164 intentionally ignores the outlier chain correction module as it destroys detailed balance
165 of the Markov chains and can only be used during burn-in (Vrugt et al., 2009). A few
166 papers do investigate the use of MCMC simulation in ABC to enhance the ABC
167 sampling efficiency (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014), but this approach uses a static tolerance
168 value for guiding the search in the parameter space, which is a significant difference
169 from SABC. The concept of the present paper is to generate a proposal using the



170 adaptive MCMC sampler and derive the associated probabilistic predictions using the
 171 SABC method. For convenience we refer to the modified SABC algorithm based on
 172 the adaptive MCMC sampler as mSABC, in contrast to the original SABC algorithm
 173 implementing the simple RWM sampler. The superiority of mSABC over the original
 174 SABC is to be demonstrated using a calibration of the SAC-SMA model, which has
 175 been suggested to be a challenging task due to complex posterior surfaces (Duan et al.,
 176 1992) and thus frequently utilized as a benchmark hydrologic modelling experiment for
 177 validation of algorithmic enhancements (e.g., Laloy and Vrugt, 2012; Sadegh and Vrugt,
 178 2014; Vrugt et al., 2009).

179 **2 Methodology**

180 **2.1 Approximate Bayesian Computation**

181 The Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) approaches provide an attractive
 182 solution to a Bayesian inference of a hydrological model where the likelihood function
 183 is impossible to formulate, or computationally expensive to evaluate. The conceptual
 184 basis of ABC is that we can always approximate the probability density function (pdf)
 185 of a probabilistic model by sampling from this probabilistic model (Kavetski et al.,
 186 2018). Given the observed streamflow data $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ and a sample from a probabilistic
 187 model $\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, as the distance between the observed and simulated data $\rho(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}, \mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$
 188 is lower than some tolerance value τ ($\tau \rightarrow 0$), $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ should be a sample from an
 189 approximation of the correct posterior (Marjoram et al., 2003; Sisson et al., 2007). For



190 high-dimensional datasets, it is computationally efficient to consider the criterion
 191 $\rho(\mathbf{s}(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta})))$ to determine whether to accept the candidate sample or not, where
 192 $\mathbf{s}(\cdot)$ is a vector of summary statistics (hydrological signatures) computed from the data.
 193 Typical signatures include the flow duration curve (FDC), baseflow index, and other
 194 streamflow characteristics (e.g., Addor et al., 2018; Clausen and Biggs, 2000; Olden
 195 and Poff, 2003; Westerberg and Mcmillan, 2015; Yadav et al., 2007).

196 Implementation of ABC using simple reject sampling scheme (ABC-REJ) consists
 197 of the following steps:

- 198 (1) Draw a sample $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ from the prior $p(\boldsymbol{\theta})$;
- 199 (2) Generate simulated data $\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ from the probability model $\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ using
 200 $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$;
- 201 (3) Accept the candidate $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ if the distance $\rho(\mathbf{s}(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)))$ is lower than
 202 some prespecified tolerance value τ ;
- 203 (4) Repeat steps (1-3) until an adequate number of accepted samples is obtained.

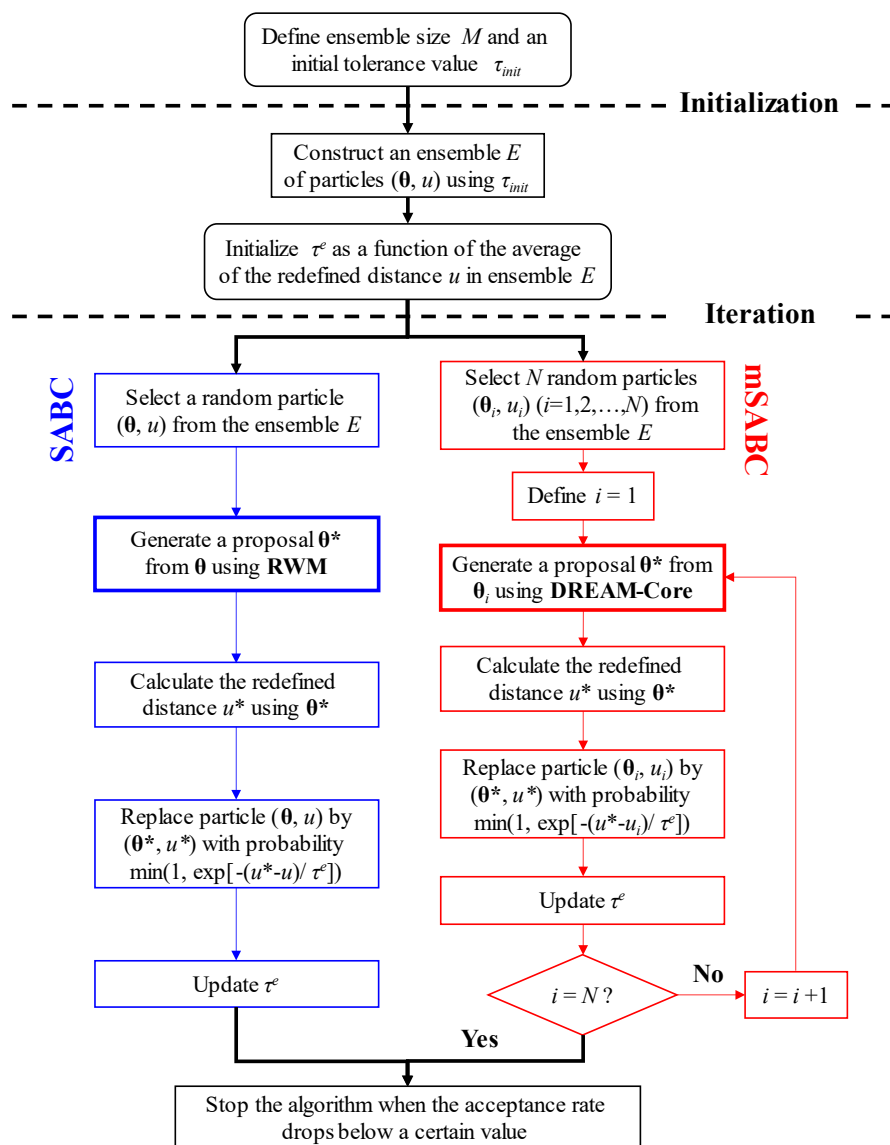
204 Additional algorithmic advances have been proposed to enhance the sampling
 205 efficiency of the basic ABC-REJ algorithm. One common approach is to adaptively
 206 tighten an initially coarse tolerance as the sampling progresses (Toni et al., 2009). This
 207 allows for a sufficiently low final value of τ and high numerical accuracy in
 208 approximating the posterior $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\tilde{\mathbf{Y}})$. The SABC algorithm of Albert et al. (2015)
 209 presents an adaptive annealing schedule that attempts a fast convergence to an unbiased



210 result. SABC starts with an ensemble of particles $(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$ drawn from the prior in
 211 the parameter-output space which evolves according to a family of Metropolis kernels
 212 defined as $Z^{-1}(\tau) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) L(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp\left(-\rho\left(\mathbf{s}(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))\right)/\tau\right)$ for a decreasing
 213 sequence of tolerances. The adaptive schedule of τ stems from the non-equilibrium
 214 thermodynamics. The tolerance $\tau(t)$ is interpreted as the temperature of a gas (*system*)
 215 at time t , which is in connection with a heat bath (*environment*) whose temperature
 216 $\tau^e(t)$ can be controlled. The cooling of the system is pursued by lowering the
 217 temperature of the environment. The cooling schedule $\tau^e(t)$ is tuned according to the
 218 mean distance $U(t)$ of the particles from the data $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ using non-equilibrium
 219 thermodynamics of entropy production to minimize the required simulations from the
 220 likelihood (Albert et al., 2015). The SABC algorithm has been successfully applied to
 221 probabilistic uncertainty quantification of hydrological models (Fenicia et al., 2018;
 222 Kavetski et al., 2018).

223 The SABC algorithm is run in a sequence of steps. In the “Initialization” step, we
 224 construct the prior ensemble E according to an initial value of τ . An initial value of
 225 the optimal annealing schedule τ^e is estimated as a function of mean fields U of the
 226 prior ensemble. In the “Iteration” step, we update the ensemble E according to a
 227 sequence of Metropolis kernels where the proposal is generated using a random walk
 228 Metropolis (RWM) sampler. The value of τ^e is adaptively lowered as the iteration
 229 proceeds. A schematic description of the SABC algorithm is presented in **Fig. 1**.

230



231

232 **Fig. 1** Schematic overview of the original SABC and mSABC algorithms. The original
 233 SABC algorithm utilizes a simple random walk Metropolis (RWM) sampler for
 234 proposal generation, while mSABC implements more advanced DREAM-Core sampler
 235 to generate a proposal during the “Iteration” process.

236



237 The original SABC algorithm utilizes a simple RWM sampler to generate a
238 proposal in the “Iteration” process. It also allows for adaptively updating the covariance
239 matrix of a multivariate proposal distribution using all previously accepted samples of
240 the Markov Chain to improve the sampling efficiency of the algorithm (Albert et al.,
241 2015). This scheme works well for simple unimodal inference problems, but becomes
242 inefficient when confronted with complex posterior surface with multiple different
243 regions of attraction and numerous local optima (Ter Braak and Vrugt, 2008; Ter Braak,
244 2006; Vrugt et al., 2008; Vrugt et al., 2009; Vrugt, 2016). Besides, simultaneous
245 updating of all parameter dimensions results in low acceptance probability for high-
246 dimensional problems (Vrugt, 2016; Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014; Vrugt et al., 2009). These
247 issues inevitably reduces the efficiency and numerical accuracy of SABC in an
248 approximation to the correct posterior.

249 **2.2 Adaptive Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling**

250 The modified SABC (mSABC) algorithm we propose is motivated from the
251 development of DREAM_(ABC) algorithm which uses the DiffereNtial Evolution
252 Adaptive Metropolis (DREAM) method to speed up the sampling of ABC posterior
253 distributions (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014). The mSABC algorithm replaces the simple
254 RWM sampling in the original SABC algorithm with an adaptive MCMC simulation in
255 pursuit of higher sampling efficiency. The proposed MCMC sampler constitutes the
256 core of a family of DREAM algorithms (Vrugt, 2016; Vrugt and Beven, 2018); We here
257 refer to it as DREAM-Core sampling. DREAM-Core stems from DE-MC (Ter Braak,



258 2006), and introduces a self-adaptive randomized subspace sampling strategy to
 259 accelerate convergence to the posterior (Vrugt et al., 2009; Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014).

260 Compared to RWM within SABC where a particle is randomly selected from the
 261 ensemble each time a candidate point is generated, mSABC selects N random particles
 262 simultaneously, each serving as the starting point of one independent chain in DREAM-
 263 Core (**Fig. 1**). It utilized the information about the scale and orientation of the proposal
 264 distribution contained in the remaining $N-1$ chains to generate a candidate in the current
 265 chain (Vrugt et al., 2009). Let \mathbf{x}^i be the current state of chain $i = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$, a
 266 candidate point in chain i , \mathbf{z}^i is given by (Storn and Price, 1997)

$$267 \quad \mathbf{z}^i = \mathbf{x}^i + \left(\mathbf{1}_{d^*} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{d^*} \right) \gamma \left(\delta, d^* \right) \sum_{j=1}^{\delta} \left(x_A^{a_j} - x_A^{b_j} \right) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{d^*} \quad (2)$$

268 where $\gamma = 2.38 / \sqrt{2\delta d^*}$ is the jump rate, δ is the number of chain pairs used to
 269 generate the jump, and d^* is the number of dimensions to be updated jointly, stretching
 270 the parameter subspace A . \mathbf{a}_j and \mathbf{b}_j are vectors with δ integers drawn without
 271 replacement from $\{1, \dots, i-1, i+1, \dots, N\}$. The value of N should at least be equivalent
 272 to $2\delta+1$, or $N=3$ for the default of $\delta=1$ (Vrugt, 2016). The values of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ are drawn
 273 from $U_{d^*}[-c, c]$ and $N_{d^*}(0, c_*)$, with $c=0.1$ and c_* small compared to the width of
 274 the target distribution, $c_*=10^{-12}$ say. we set $\gamma=1$ at every 5th generation, or
 275 $p(\gamma=1)=0.2$ to enable jumping between disconnected modes of the posterior (Ter
 276 Braak, 2006).



277 The subspace A spanned by randomly selected d^* dimensions of \mathbf{x}^i is
 278 constructed in DREAM-Core using a geometric sequence of crossover values
 279 $\left\{ \frac{1}{n_{\text{CR}}}, \frac{2}{n_{\text{CR}}}, \dots, 1 \right\}$ with selection probabilities \mathbf{p}_{CR} . A good choice of $n_{\text{CR}} = 3$ has
 280 shown to work well in practice (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014). To speed up the sampling of
 281 the ABC posteriors, the selection probabilities \mathbf{p}_{CR} are tuned adaptively during burn-
 282 in by maximizing the jumping distance in each of the N chains. This procedure is
 283 described in detail in Vrugt et al. (2009).

284 A schematic description of the proposed mSABC algorithm is presented in **Fig. 1**.
 285 The chain evolution of mSABC differs from classical Markov Chain methods. Each
 286 time a proposal is generated, mSABC accepts randomly selected N particles from the
 287 ensemble E as the starting points of chain evolution for next iteration. The aim of the
 288 proposal generation in mSABC is to evolve the prior ensemble, instead of acquiring an
 289 entire sequence of the Markov Chains in pursuit of convergence to the posterior.

290 **2.3 Criteria for the comparison**

291 Several frequently used uncertainty evaluation measures are used to
 292 comprehensively quantify the predictive performance obtained with SABC and
 293 mSABC respectively. The indices for assessing the 95% prediction limits include the
 294 containing ratio (CR), average relative band-width (RB) and average relative deviation
 295 amplitude (RD) (Xiong et al., 2009). All three metrics represent desirable characteristics
 296 for the prediction limits. CR is computed as the ratio of the number of the observations



297 enveloped by the 95% prediction bound across all time steps. RB is used to quantify the
 298 average relative band width of the predictions. RD is used to quantify the actual
 299 discrepancy between the trajectory consisting of the middle points of the prediction
 300 bound and the observations. A higher value of CR and lower values of RB and RD
 301 indicate better predictive performance. The RB and RD are calculated as

$$302 \quad RB = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \frac{q_i^u - q_i^l}{Q_i} \quad (3)$$

$$303 \quad RD = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \left| \frac{q_i^u + q_i^l}{2} - Q_i \right| \quad (4)$$

304 where Q_i is the observed flow at time i , q_i^u and q_i^l are the upper and lower limits
 305 of the 95% prediction band respectively, and N_t is the number of time steps.

306 In addition, the reliability of probabilistic predictions is graphically evaluated
 307 using the predictive quantile-quantile (PQQ) plot. A deviation from the diagonal line
 308 (1:1 line) indicates the inconsistencies between the measurements and the model
 309 predictions (Laio and Tamea, 2007; Thyer et al., 2009).

310 We also compared the performance of the trajectory consisting of the middle points
 311 of the 95% prediction limits against the observed hydrograph. These performance
 312 metrics include the root mean squared error ($RMSE$), correlation coefficient (CC), and
 313 percent bias ($PBIAS$). The equations for computing $RMSE$, CC and $PBIAS$ are presented
 314 as follows:



$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} (Q_i - q_i^m)^2} \quad (5)$$

$$CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} (Q_i - \bar{Q})(q_i^m - \bar{q}^m)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} (Q_i - \bar{Q})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} (q_i^m - \bar{q}^m)^2}} \quad (6)$$

$$PBIAS = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} (Q_i - q_i^m) / \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} Q_i \times 100 \quad (7)$$

where q_i^m is the middle points of the 95% prediction limits at time i . \bar{Q} and \bar{q}^m are the average of the observed flows and the middle points of the 95% prediction limits respectively. Lower values of $RMSE$ and absolute $PBIAS$ and a higher value of CC correspond to better model performance.

3 Case study

A realistic case study is used to illustrate the advantages of mSABC over the original SABC algorithm in hydrologic modelling practice. We consider simulation of the rainfall-runoff relationship in the Danjiangkou Reservoir region (DRR) of China using the SAC-SMA hydrological model. The SAC-SMA model is a continuous conceptual rainfall-runoff model with spatially lumped parameters that represents the soil column as thin upper and thicker lower layers of multiple storages (Burnash et al., 1973), and has been extensively used for modelling of the rainfall-runoff process in literature (e.g., Gupta et al., 1998; Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014; Vrugt et al., 2009). The estimated daily reservoir inflows from 1998 to 2007 are collected for model calibration



332 and validation. The first two years of data are used as burn-in to acquire stable and
333 reliable estimates of initial states. Five years of daily hydrologic data (2000-2004) are
334 used for calibration, and three more years (2005-2007) as the validation period. SAC-
335 SMA is here applied at a 6-hourly time step with 14 parameters to be inferred during
336 calibration (**Table 1**). Details on the case study area and model used in the present
337 experiment are described in Liu et al. (2022b).



Table 1 Description of the SAC-SMA parameters and residual error model parameters.

Parameter	Description	Lower bound	Upper bound
SAC-SMA parameters			
UZTWM	Upper zone tension water capacity (mm)	1.0	150.0
UZFWM	Upper zone free water capacity (mm)	1.0	150.0
LZTWM	Lower zone tension water capacity (mm)	1.0	500.0
LZFPM	Lower zone primary free water capacity (mm)	1.0	1000.0
LZFWM	Lower zone supplementary free water capacity (mm)	1.0	1000.0
UZK	Upper zone free water lateral depletion rate (day ⁻¹)	0.1	0.5
LZPK	Lower zone primary free water depletion rate (day ⁻¹)	0.0001	0.025
LZSK	Lower zone supplementary free water depletion rate (day ⁻¹)	0.01	0.25
ZPERC	Percolation demand scale parameter	1.0	250.0
REXP	Percolation demand shape parameter	0.0	5.0
PFREE	Percolating water split parameter	0.0	0.1
PCTIM	Impervious fraction of the watershed area	0.0	0.1
ADIMP	Additional impervious area	0.0	0.4
RRC	Retention coefficient of routing linear reservoirs (day ⁻¹)	0.0	1.0
Residual error model parameters			
α	Auto-regressive parameter of the AR1 process	0.0	1.0
σ	Standard deviation of the AR1 innovations	0.0	1.0



340 The probabilistic model $\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is specified in transformed space where the output
 341 of the SAC-SMA hydrological model $h(\cdot)$ is corrupted with a random residual error
 342 term $\varepsilon(\cdot)$. Specifically, the truncated Gaussian AR1 process given in Eq. (8) is used:

$$343 \quad \mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = z^{-1} \left[z \left[h(\boldsymbol{\theta}_h); \lambda \right] + \varepsilon(\boldsymbol{\theta}_\varepsilon); \lambda \right] \quad (8)$$

344 where $z(q; \lambda) = (q^\lambda - 1)/\lambda$ is the Box-Cox transformation with fixed parameter $\lambda =$
 345 0.2 (McInerney et al., 2017). The residual error model $\varepsilon(\cdot)$ is characterized by a first-
 346 order autoregressive (AR1) process, $\varepsilon_{t+1} = \alpha \varepsilon_t + \xi_t$ with truncated Gaussian
 347 innovations $\xi_t \sim TN(0, \sigma^2)$ (Fenicia et al., 2018). The SAC-SMA parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_h$
 348 and residual error model parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}_\varepsilon = \{\alpha, \sigma\}$ constitute the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to be
 349 jointly inferred.

350 We select a vector of hydrological signatures as summary statistics of the ABC
 351 sampling algorithms. A detailed description of each signature is provided in **Appendix**
 352 **A**. The distance metric in ABC is then computed as the average (by magnitude) relative
 353 error across all N_s signatures ($N_s = 8$ in this case study):

$$354 \quad \rho(\mathbf{s}(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))) = \frac{1}{N_s} \sum_{j=1}^{N_s} \frac{|\mathbf{s}_j(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}) - \mathbf{s}_j(\mathbf{Y}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))|}{\mathbf{s}_j(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}})} \quad (9)$$

355 This is different from the settings of Kavetski et al. (2018) and also Fenicia et al.
 356 (2018). However, as a sufficient number of iterations is implemented, the choice of the
 357 distance metric and its tolerance (here, with an initial value of 0.3) has no significant
 358 impact on fair comparison of SABC and mSABC.



359 In our case study, following the practice of Fenicia et al. (2018), the original SABC
360 algorithm is configured to return 5000 posterior samples from a total of 2×10^6 iterations.
361 The number of iterations needed by mSABC to achieve the computational convergence
362 of Markov Chains is determined by plotting the posterior parameter distributions as a
363 function of the number of iterations (see **Sect. 4.1**). The size of acceptable solutions by
364 mSABC is set identical to that of SABC. The DREAM-Core sampler is executed using
365 the default settings of the algorithmic variables specified previously. To preserve
366 detailed balance and reversibility of the Markov Chains (Ter Braak and Vrugt, 2008;
367 Vrugt et al., 2009), the $N = 3$ independent chains are run sequentially.

368 **4 Results and discussion**

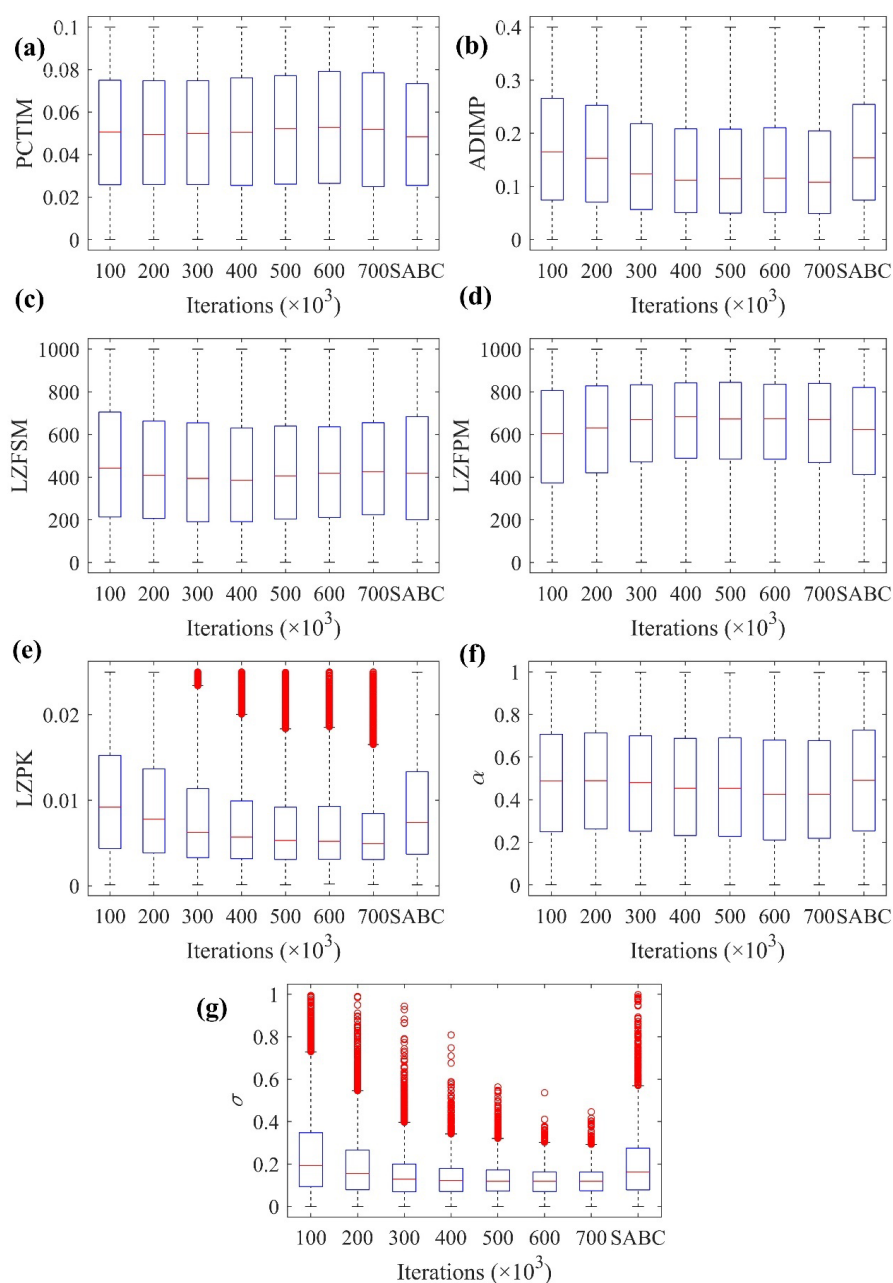
369 **4.1 Computational convergence**

370 We used boxplots of the marginal posterior parameter distributions to examine the
371 convergence of mSABC over the course of 7×10^5 iterations. **Figure 2** presented how
372 the posterior parameter distributions derived with mSABC changed as a function of the
373 number of iterations. We displayed the results of a representative set of five SAC-SMA
374 parameters, i.e., PCTIM, ADIMP, LZFSM, LZFPM, and LZPK, and two residual error
375 model parameters (α and σ). For comparison, the posterior parameter distributions
376 derived with the original SABC were plotted as a benchmark. The posteriors derived
377 with mSABC showed a converging pattern and stabilized after approximately 5×10^5
378 iterations. Therefore, in the present case study, a total number of 5×10^5 iterations is
379 deemed as sufficient for mSABC to converge to the correct posterior.

380 We believe that in the absence of a formal convergence proof of the mSABC
381 algorithm theoretically, the computational convergence of mSABC needs to be
382 benchmarked on the original SABC algorithm which has already been proved to



383 converge to the correct target distribution in previous applications (Fenicia et al., 2018).
384 The converging pattern of the posteriors derived with mSABC implies that replacement
385 of a simplistic RWM sampler with DREAM-Core sampling in SABC exerts no
386 significant impact on the convergence to the correct posterior. The posteriors derived
387 with mSABC, after approximately 2×10^5 iterations, achieve almost identical results to
388 those derived with the original SABC algorithm. For parameters like LZPK and σ , there
389 is a remarkable distinction between the posteriors derived with mSABC after 5×10^5
390 iterations and SABC, respectively. In the current calibration problem involving
391 excessive number of parameters, the SABC algorithm implemented using a simplistic
392 RWM sampler introduces additional bias to the posterior parameter distributions and
393 fails to correctly infer the target distribution.



394

395 **Fig. 2** Evolution of the posterior parameter distributions derived with mSABC as a
 396 function of iterations. The posteriors derived with the original SABC algorithm are
 397 provided as a benchmark.

398



399 4.2 Sampling efficiency and cost comparison

400 The sampling efficiency of SABC and mSABC was compared in terms of the final
 401 value of τ (τ^e), acceptance rate, AR (%) and number of function evaluations, FEs
 402 needed for posterior exploration (**Table 2**). The number of FEs is calculated as: FEs =
 403 $T_{init} + T_{iter} * N$, where N is the number of Markov Chains ($N = 1$ for SABC, and $N = 3$
 404 for mSABC), T_{init} and T_{iter} are the number of iterations used for the “Initialization” and
 405 “Iteration” step, respectively. The SABC algorithm has an AR value of 0.96%, and
 406 requires around 2 million FEs to generate 5000 posterior samples. The mSABC
 407 algorithm is far more efficient (AR = 7.26%), and needs about 70% of SABC FEs to
 408 obtain identical number of posterior samples. This constitutes a more than 7.5 times
 409 difference in sampling efficiency, and favors the use of mSABC for uncertainty
 410 quantification of complex, computationally expensive models. This finding confirms
 411 the superiority of DREAM over the optimal RWM sampler in previous work (Vrugt et
 412 al., 2009; Laloy and Vrugt, 2012). The advantage of DREAM-Core over RWM in
 413 enhancing the sampling efficiency still holds when incorporated into proposal
 414 generation in the SABC algorithms.

415 The final value of $\tau^e(t)$ provides valuable information about the bias from an
 416 approximation to the posterior (Albert et al., 2015). Given an identical initial value of
 417 $\tau^e(t)$ ($\tau = 0.3$), mSABC obtained a final value of $\tau^e(t)$ close to zero, significantly
 418 lower than that of SABC. Therefore, mSABC achieved higher numerical accuracy in
 419 approximating the posterior. A vivid description of how fast $\tau^e(t)$ was decreased in
 420 the “Iteration” step was presented in **Fig. 3**, where the value of $\tau^e(t)$ was plotted as a
 421 function of the number of iterations and FEs, respectively. mSABC showed a fast
 422 convergence to an approximation of the posterior. However, SABC maintained a slow



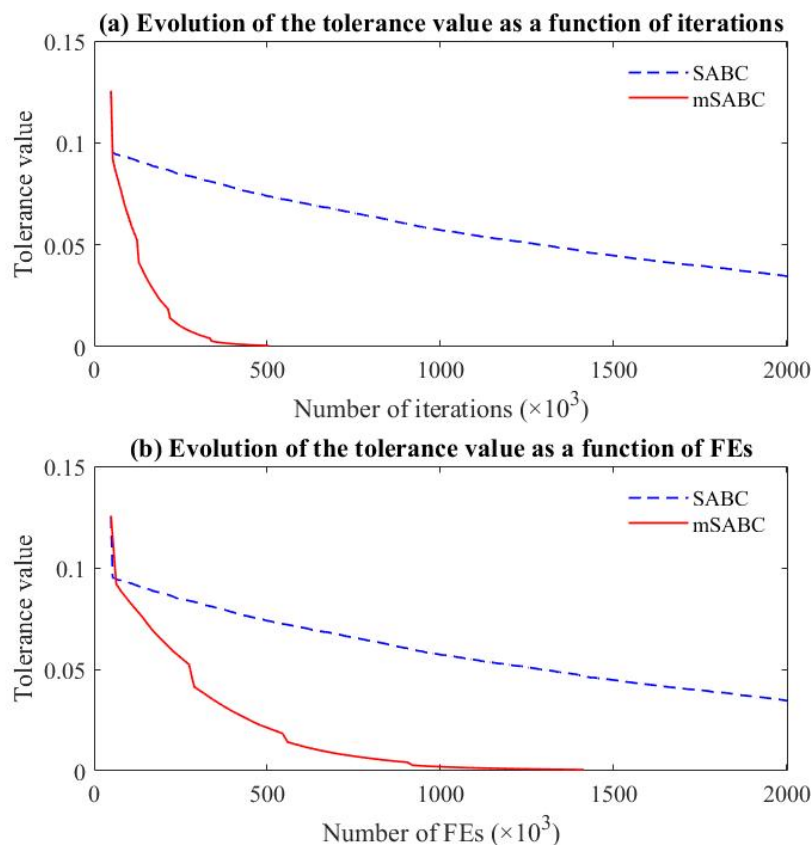
423 convergence speed throughout the “Iteration” step. A total number of approximately
 424 1.5×10^5 iterations or 3.5×10^5 FEs for mSABC leads to a more relaxed final value of
 425 $\tau^e(t) = 0.035$, close to that achieved by the original SABC algorithm. This agrees with
 426 the findings of **Fig. 2**, where mSABC acquired almost identical posteriors to SABC
 427 after around 2×10^5 iterations. We concluded that mSABC helped to accelerate
 428 convergence to an approximate of the posterior at the same time not introduce additional
 429 bias with lower computational costs.

430

431 **Table 2** Comparison of the sampling efficiency of SABC and mSABC in terms of the
 432 final value of $\tau^e(t)$, acceptance rate, AR (%) and number of function evaluations, FEs
 433 needed for posterior exploration.

Algorithm	Initial $\tau(t)$	Initial $\tau^e(t)$	Final $\tau^e(t)$	AR (%)	FEs
SABC	0.3	0.126	0.035	0.96	2.0×10^6
mSABC	0.3	0.126	0.00054	7.26	1.4×10^6

434



435

436 **Fig. 3** Evolution of the tolerance value $\tau^e(t)$ as a function of (a) the number of
 437 iterations and (b) the number of function evaluations (FEs) throughout the “Iteration”
 438 step of SABC and mSABC.

439

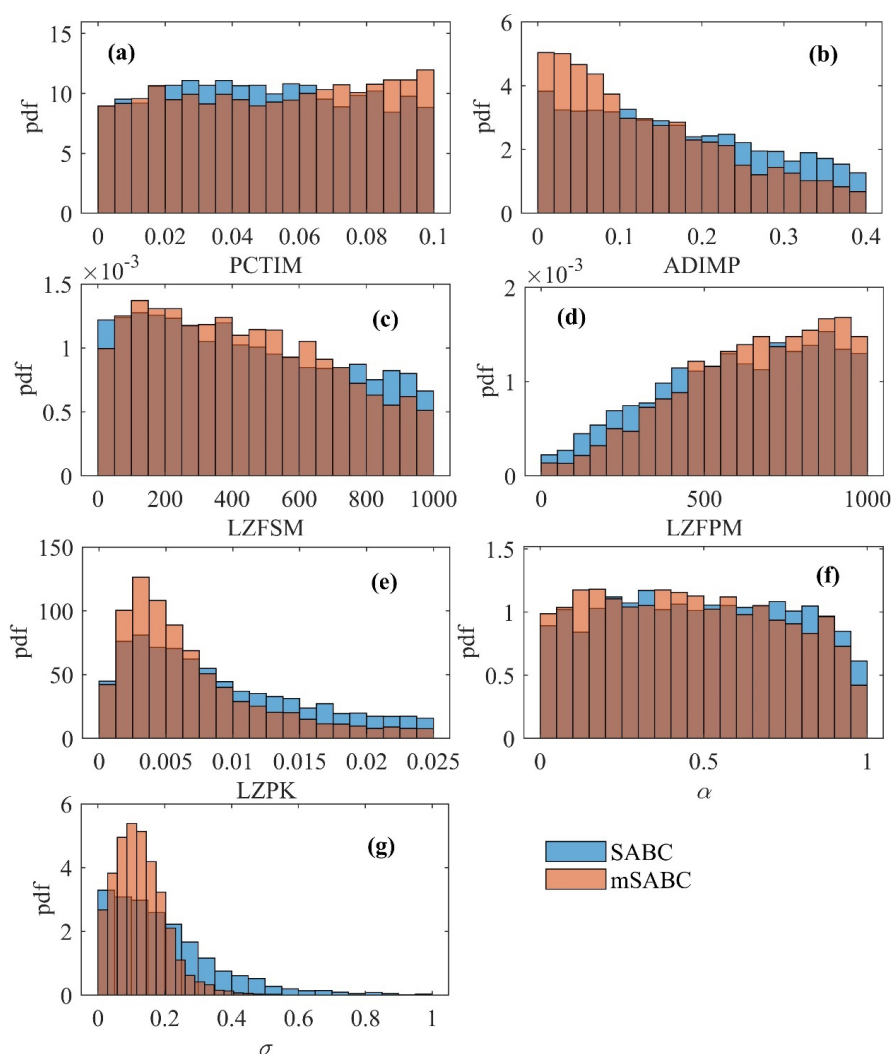
440 4.3 Parameter inference

441 **Figure 4** presented histograms of the posterior parameter distributions derived with
 442 SABC and mSABC respectively. We displayed the results of a representative set of five
 443 SAC-SMA parameters, i.e., PCTIM, ADIMP, LZFSM, LZFPM, and LZPK, and two
 444 residual error model parameters (α and σ). For most parameters, mSABC exhibited
 445 sharper functional shapes and lower parameter uncertainties than the original SABC



446 algorithm. The use of adaptive MCMC sampler (i.e., DREAM-Core sampling) in
447 SABC helped to locate the high probability density region of the parameter space
448 efficiently, which confirmed the findings of previous studies (Blasone et al., 2008). Not
449 Surprisingly, most histograms extended a large part of the prior parameter ranges. For
450 parameters like PCTIM and α , the posteriors showed no evident differences from the
451 uniform priors. The parameters were poorly defined by both SABC and mSABC
452 algorithms implementing using a vector of subjectively chosen signature indices. It is
453 likely that these summary metrics are not sufficient, at least for the present case study.
454 Ideally, the summary statistics of ABC should contain as much information as the
455 original calibration dataset (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2013; Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014). These
456 eight metrics are expected to extract only a limited portion of available information in
457 the discharge time series. This has direct impact on constraining the parameter space,
458 resulting in poor parameter inference. Unfortunately, there is still no common practice
459 in identifying a set of (approximately) sufficient summary statistics in ABC applications
460 (Liu et al., 2022a). The sufficiency issue of ABC is beyond the scope and aim of our
461 study, and a further discussion on this topic is provided in literature (Fenicia et al., 2018;
462 Kavetski et al., 2018).

463



464

465 **Fig. 4** Comparison of probability density function (pdf) of the posterior parameter
 466 distributions derived with SABC and mSABC. We presented the results of a variety of
 467 five SAC-SMA parameters (a-e) and two residual error model parameters (f-g).

468

469 4.4 Signature predictions

470 We compared the predictive distributions of signatures derived with the original
 471 SABC and mSABC algorithm over the validation period (Fig. 5). The performance of
 472 signature predictions was reported in a relative error sense. The marginal distributions



473 of predicted signatures generally center around zero with the exception of the heavily
 474 skewed predictive distributions of RR, RLD and ACF obtained by both SABC and
 475 mSABC. The systematic errors in RR suggest potential model deficiencies and
 476 measurement errors, yet this requires more detailed analysis. The overestimation of
 477 ACF is largely attributed to the introduction of AR1 process, which over-conditions the
 478 autocorrelation structure. Overall, both algorithms suggested to provide an acceptable
 479 reproduction of signatures, increasing the confidence in the application of these two
 480 algorithms to the present case study.

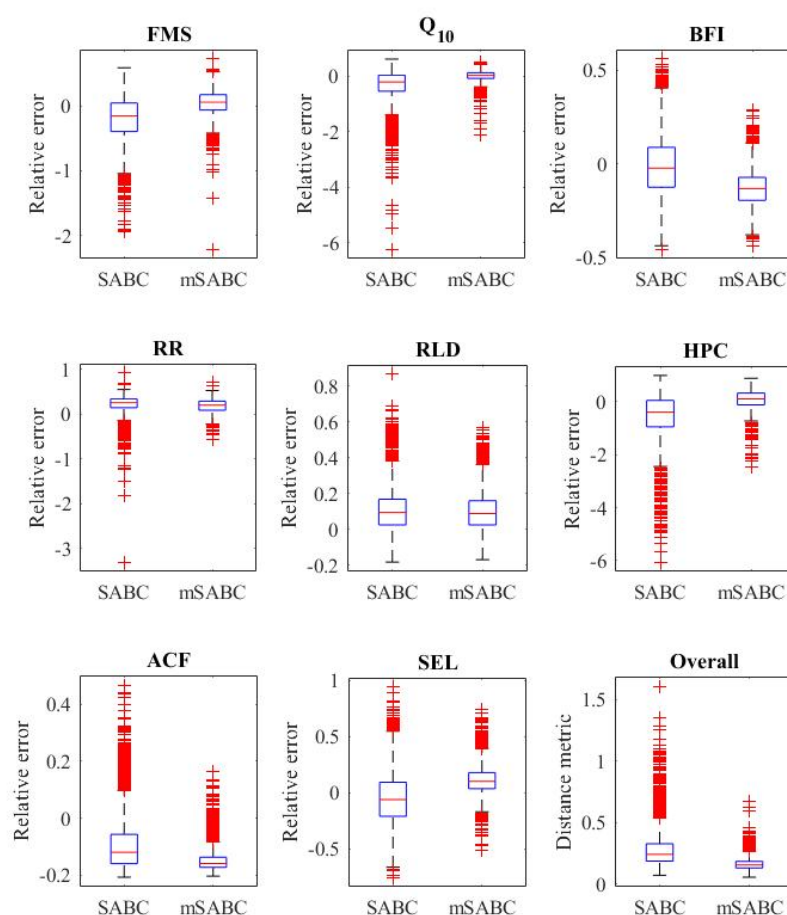
481 Compared to SABC, mSABC achieved a generally better capture of the signatures,
 482 with a median value close to zero and thinner upper and lower tails. Examples were
 483 illustrated for Q_{10} and HPC, where a narrower predictive distribution centered on the
 484 zero level was obtained. But counterexample signatures do exist. For example, with
 485 respect to BFI, SABC generated better signature predictions in terms of the median of
 486 the predictive distribution. A significantly larger deviation from the observed BFI was
 487 achieved by mSABC. This finding was perhaps not surprising, since the ABC distance
 488 metric to be minimized was formulated as the average of signature deviations for all
 489 eight signatures (see Eq. (9)). The conflict between the predictive performances of Q_{10} ,
 490 HPC and BFI could be possibly attributed to the difference in the specific features of
 491 hydrological behavior these signatures aim to characterize. Previous work (Shafii et al.,
 492 2015) has shown that there exists a clear, strong tradeoff between the reproduction of
 493 high-flow regime (here, represented by Q_{10} and HPC) and low-flow regime (here,
 494 represented by BFI) simultaneously. The improvement in the reproduction of Q_{10} and
 495 HPC was achieved at the sacrifice of the accuracy in reproducing BFI.

496 We also conducted a comparison of the distribution of the ABC distances
 497 associated with the 5000 posterior samples over the validation period. The distance



metric reflects the average relative error across all signatures. Compared to SABC, mSABC achieved higher numerical accuracy with a thinner upper tail of the predictive distribution. The median also decreased from 0.24 for SABC to 0.16 for mSABC. The skewness of the distance distributions confirmed the findings of Kavetski et al. (2018) and Fenicia et al. (2018), where the convergence of SABC (mSABC) to the approximate posterior does not necessarily imply that the achieved ABC distances are negligible for all posterior samples. For example, the mSABC distances fell in the narrow range from 0.06 to 0.74, whereas the SABC distances ranged from as low as 0.07 to as high as 1.43. These discrepancies primarily relate to the difficulties in matching all signatures simultaneously, especially in the presence of strong conflicts among them.

Both SABC and mSABC algorithms require a series of decreasing tolerance values for the ABC acceptance test. In the early process of lowering the tolerance, the model with a larger ABC distance has greater chance to be pooled in the acceptable models. This explains why there exist a small portion of “ill-posed” solutions in the last 5000 samples, suggested by heavy upper and lower tails in signature predictions. Compared to the original SABC algorithm, mSABC achieved a faster speed of lowering the tolerance (see **Fig. 3**), which resulted in a lower tolerance value and stricter acceptance criteria for signature deviations. The portion of unrealistic signature predictions was significantly reduced by mSABC.



518

519 **Fig. 5** Predictions of streamflow signatures over the validation period. The distribution
 520 of the ABC distance, computed as the average of the absolute relative errors for all
 521 signatures, is also provided in the “Overall” plot.

522

523 4.5 Streamflow predictions

524 A comparison of daily streamflow predictions during the validation period
 525 obtained by the original SABC and mSABC algorithm respectively was presented in
 526 **Fig. 6**, where the 95% prediction limits and predictive quantile-quantile (PQQ) plots



527 were compared. Both algorithms achieved a generally satisfying capture of streamflow
528 time series over the validation period. mSABC produced a narrower uncertainty band
529 at the cost of underestimating the peak flows across the high-flow period. This was
530 suggested by a significantly lower *RB* value and also a reduction of *CR*. This can be
531 largely attributed to (i) inaccurate observational datasets and (ii) the choice of
532 hydrological signatures.

533 The former reason is inherent in almost all lumped hydrological models including
534 SAC-SMA which only accept mean areal estimates as model drivers. The information
535 contained in local measurements of uncommon large rainstorms is valuable for
536 simulation of the highest flows, but is inevitably lost when averaged across the whole
537 catchment. Besides, the estimated reservoir inflows used for model calibration and
538 validation introduces additional errors into the model predictions. The data-related
539 uncertainties contribute to the discrepancies between the observed and predicted flows
540 regardless of the ABC sampling algorithms used.

541 For the latter reason, we intentionally use Q_{10} , the 10% flow exceedance values of
542 streamflow to extract relevant information about high-flow regime in the DRR,
543 although signatures such as the maximum (peak) flows can clearly improve the
544 predictions in terms of the highest flows. However, they are more likely to be influenced
545 by the flow errors (Westerberg and Mcmillan, 2015), resulting in a biased prediction.
546 According to the findings of signature predictions in **Fig. 5**, mSABC decreased the
547 proportion of solutions with large overestimation of high flows in the final set of
548 posterior samples. This directly lowers the upper limits of uncertainty band. In this
549 context, a larger number of high-flow records enveloped by SABC is merely the
550 consequence of unrealistic wide uncertainty bands but not the benefit of SABC itself.



551 This can also be confirmed by better performance of PQQ plots with smaller deviation
552 from the 1:1 line and better reliability of probabilistic predictions acquired by mSABC.

553 **Figure 6** also provided a quantitative assessment of 95% prediction limits over the
554 validation period. Higher values of *CR* and lower values of *RB* and *RD* correspond to
555 better model predictions. Compared to the original SABC algorithm, mSABC achieved
556 lower values of *RB* and *RD*, accompanied by undesirable decrease of *CR*. On the whole,
557 mSABC suggested a better overall performance in predicting streamflow time series.

558 We have noticed that a clear, strong tradeoff exists between the performances of
559 *CR* and *RB* (*RD*). A high containing ratio, a narrow uncertainty band, and a small
560 deviation from the observed hydrograph, which represent three competing yet desirable
561 characteristics for the prediction limits, cannot be realized simultaneously (Xiong et al.,
562 2009). This phenomenon is prevalent in the hydrological literature (Xiong et al., 2009;
563 Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014; Zhou et al., 2016), which complicates direct comparison of
564 these techniques.

565

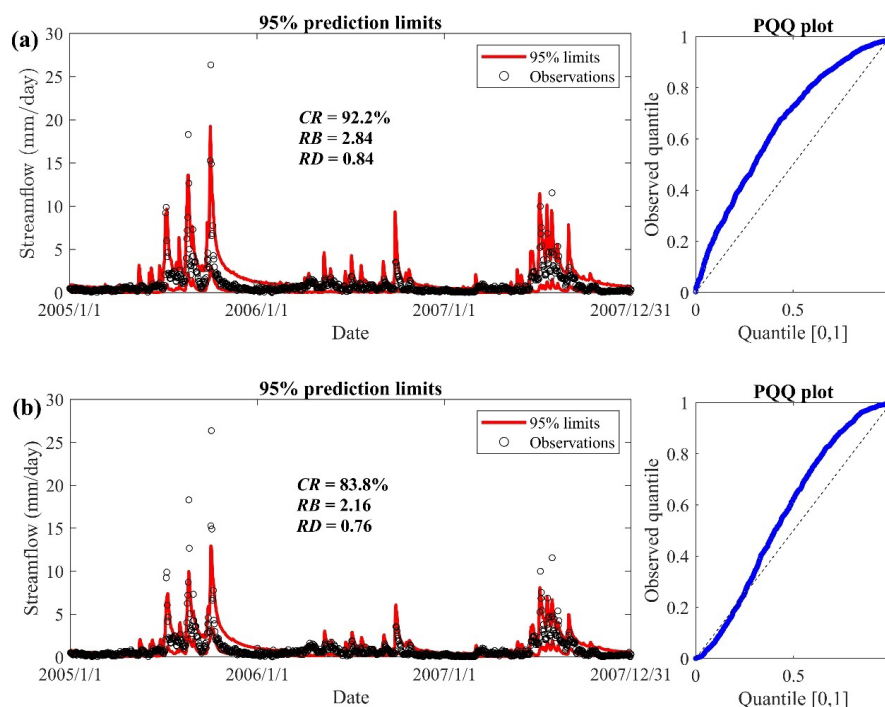


Fig. 6 Predictions of daily streamflow time series over the validation period obtained using (a) the original SABC algorithm and (b) mSABC algorithm. We display the results of 95% prediction limits (left) and Predictive Quantile-Quantile (PQQ) plots (right). The performance metrics of 95% prediction limits include the Containing Ratio (CR), Relative Band-width (RB), and Relative Deviation amplitude (RD).

We also assessed the performance of the trajectory consisting of the middle points of the 95% prediction limits against the observed hydrograph (Table 3). The performance metrics include the *RMSE*, correlation coefficient, *CC* and percent bias, *PBIAS*. Lower values of *RMSE* and *PBIAS* in the absolute sense and a higher value of *CC* indicate better model performance. Compared to SABC, the mSABC algorithm acquired a worse performance of *RMSE*, a slight decline of *CC*, and better performance of *PBIAS*. A negative *PBIAS* value for SABC suggested an overestimation of the observed hydrograph, which confirmed the finding that the 95% prediction limits derived with SABC was unrealistic wide in Fig. 6. The prediction produced by mSABC,



on the contrary, suggested an underestimation of the observation, but with smaller magnitude of error in the absolute sense. On the whole, mSABC does not significantly deteriorate jeopardize the model performance with respect to the middle points of the 95% prediction limits.

Table 3 Evaluation of the middle points of the prediction limits over the validation period. *RMSE* – Root Mean Squared Error (mm/day); *CC* – Correlation Coefficient; *PBIAS* – Percent Bias (%).

Algorithm	<i>RMSE</i> (mm/day)	<i>CC</i>	<i>PBIAS</i> (%)
SABC	0.89	0.86	-5.23
mSABC	0.97	0.85	4.07

5 Conclusions

The original SABC algorithm implements a rather simplistic RWM sampler to generate a proposal from a single Markov Chain in the process of adaptively tightening an initial loose tolerance value (Albert et al., 2015). This scheme may be adequate for relatively simple low-dimensional inference problems, but is not likely to achieve a fast convergence and high numerical accuracy for more complex posterior exploration problems (Ter Braak, 2006; Ter Braak and Vrugt, 2008; Vrugt et al., 2008; Vrugt et al., 2009; Laloy and Vrugt, 2012). In this paper, we have demonstrated the potential of improving the original SABC algorithm by implementing an adaptive Differential Evolution algorithm with self-adaptive randomized subspace sampling (Vrugt et al., 2009), here referred to as DREAM-Core for speeding up convergence to an approximation to the posterior while maintaining equivalent or better predictive abilities. Through a comparison of the inference results using RWM and DREAM-Core for proposal generation, we demonstrated the following conclusions:



- 606 (1) The use of DREAM-Core sampling in mSABC has little impact on the
 607 computational convergence of the sampled Markov Chains. It requires around
 608 5×10^5 iterations for mSABC to converge to an approximation of the correct
 609 posterior by benchmarking it against the original SABC algorithm.
- 610 (2) The modified SABC (mSABC) algorithm is far more efficient with higher
 611 acceptance probability, and requires a lower number of function evaluations
 612 (FEs) to achieve a much lower final tolerance value.
- 613 (3) The mSABC algorithm acquires sharper functional shapes of the posterior
 614 parameter distributions, and helps to locate the high probability density region
 615 of the parameter space efficiently.
- 616 (4) The mSABC algorithm achieves a generally better capture of signature
 617 predictions over the validation period. The ABC distances associated with
 618 posterior samples are largely reduced in terms of both median values and
 619 overall distributions.
- 620 (5) The mSABC algorithm achieves a better overall prediction of streamflow time
 621 series over the validation period. A quantitative assessment of streamflow
 622 predictions favors mSABC for reliable probabilistic predictions and tighter
 623 uncertainty band with an undesirable decrease of the Containing Ratio (CR).

624 Future work is to further investigate its comparison with other state-of-the-art ABC
 625 sampling algorithm, e.g., DREAM_(ABC) algorithm (Sadegh and Vrugt, 2014), in terms
 626 of numerical accuracy and efficiency in real-world applications.

627 **Appendix A: Description of Hydrological Signatures**

628 **Table A1** in this appendix presents a description of a vector of eight hydrological
 629 signatures employed in the case study.

630 **Table A1** Hydrological signatures employed in the case study.

Group	Signature	Name	Description	Unit
Flow duration curve (FDC)	FMS	FDC midsegment slope	Slope of the FDC between the log-transformed 20% and 70% flow exceedance values of streamflow (Yilmaz et al., 2008)	[-]
	Q ₁₀	Flow percentile	10% flow exceedance values of streamflow divided by median flow (Clausen and Biggs, 2000)	[-]
Flow dynamics	BFI	Base flow index	Fraction of base flow within the total flow (Eckhardt, 2008)	[-]
	ACF	Lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient	Lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient of daily streamflow time series	[-]
Frequency of flow events	RLD	Rising limb density	Number of peaks divided by the total time the hydrograph is rising (Shamir et al., 2005)	[day ⁻¹]
	HPC	High pulse count	Number of occurrences during which flow remains 3 times median daily flow (Clausen and Biggs, 2000)	[-]
Rainfall-Runoff	RR	Runoff ratio	Ratio of runoff volume to areal precipitation	[-]
	SEL	Streamflow elasticity	Sensitivity of streamflow to change of precipitation (Addor et al., 2018)	[-]



632 **Code and data availability**

633 The Matlab source code of the original SABC is available on request from Dr. Dmitri
634 Kavetski. The data that support the findings of this study, along with the code of the
635 modified SABC program, are available from the corresponding authors upon
636 reasonable request.

637 **Author contribution**

638 S. Liu designed the experiments, and prepare the original draft with contributions from
639 all co-authors. D. X. She and L. P. Zhang contributed to the validation of the overall
640 reproductivity of the experiments and the revision of the original draft. J. Xia and D. X.
641 She were responsible for resources and fund acquisition.

642 **Competing interests**

643 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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646 China (Grant No. 2016YFC0402709). We appreciate Dr. Dmitri Kavetski for sharing
647 the Matlab implementation of the original SABC algorithm. The source codes of 6-
648 hourly SAC-SMA model are retrieved from the DREAM suite, which is available on
649 request from Dr. Jasper A. Vrugt.

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