

A model-based assessment of the effects of projected climate change on the water resources of Jordan

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PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY

A model-based assessment of the effects of projected climate change on the water resources of Jordan

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This paper is concerned with the quantification of the likely effect of anthropogenic climate change on the water resources of Jordan by the end of the twenty-first century. Specifically, a suite of hydrological models are used in conjunction with modelled outcomes from a regional climate model, HadRM3, and a weather generator to determine how future flows in the upper River Jordan and in the Wadi Faynan may change. The results indicate that groundwater will play an important role in the water security of the country as irrigation demands increase. Given future projections of reduced winter rainfall and increased near-surface air temperatures, the already low groundwater recharge will decrease further. Interestingly, the modelled discharge at the Wadi Faynan indicates that extreme flood flows will increase in magnitude, despite a decrease in the mean annual rainfall. Simulations projected no increase in flood magnitude in the upper River Jordan. Discussion focuses on the utility of the modelling framework, the problems of making quantitative forecasts and the implications of reduced water availability in Jordan.

Keywords: climate change; water resources; hydrology; groundwater; Jordan

1. Introduction

Water is scarce in Jordan, and the pressure on this resource will increase as the population is projected to rise from an estimated 5.10 million today to 8.55 million by 2030 owing to natural increase and immigration (United States Statistics Division 2010). Jordan is seeking economic development, thus water is required for industrial expansion and tourism (US Geological Survey 1998). Surface waters Q1

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48Our contribution of the 14 to a Discussion Meeting Issue 'Water and society: past, present and 49future'.

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are already fully exploited, and most of those wadis (ephemeral streams) draining to the lower Jordan have dams built in them. The water resource of the upper Jordan and its tributaries is shared between Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria and the West Bank. The main water resource is groundwater, and there are three main aquifers in Jordan, although the full extent and water capacity of these have yet to be determined (Puri 2001; Puri *et al.* 2001; Puri & Aureil 2005; Struckmeier *et al.* 2006). The four aquifers are the Syrian Steppe, the Hauran and Jabal Al-Arab aquifer, the Disi aquifer and the Eastern Mediterranean aquifer. In all cases, recharge is low at 15 mm yr^{-1} or less (Puri 2001). In Jordan, trends in the groundwater salinity are unclear (US Geological Survey 2006).

Food security is poor in Jordan. In the marketing year 2005–2006, Jordan
imported 93 per cent of its annual wheat and 95 per cent of its annual barley
requirements (United States Department of Agriculture 2006). Vegetables are the
main crops grown in northwest Jordan where the annual precipitation is highest.
These crops are important to the national economy and as a food resource.

65Water and food security are under further threat from the continued over-66 abstraction of the water resource likely amplified by climate change. Between now 67 and the end of the twenty-first century, increased near-surface air temperatures 68 and reduced precipitation are projected for the Middle East (IPCC 2007; 69 Krichak et al. 2007); thus, it is important to quantify the likely effects of 70climate change on the hydrology of the Jordan Valley and environs and to 71interpret this in terms of the socio-economic consequences. Other studies have 72looked at the water resources of the Jordan Valley and the likely changes 73given climate projections (e.g., Kunstmann et al. 2005; Samuels et al. 2009). 74 A simple physically based model suggested that the water yield in Jordan 75would reduce by up to 60 per cent if precipitation were to decrease by 10 per 76cent and the region were to become 2°C warmer (Oroud 2008). Bou-Zeid & 77 El-Fadel (2002) suggested zero change in the October to April precipitation 78over Lebanon by the 2020s with a warming in July of 2°C, leading to increased 79soil moisture deficits and irrigation demands. A major initiative in the Jordan 80 Valley is the Globaler Wandes des Wasserkreislaufs—Jordan River (GLOWA 81 JR) project (Hoff et al. 2006). Results show that although annual streamflow 82 is proportional to total precipitation, provided annual precipitation exceeds 83 400 mm, a projected increase in the frequency of wet spells lasting longer than 84 3 days may result in more frequent and more intense floods in the upper Jordan 85 (Samuels et al. 2009).

86 Messager et al. (2006) question the reliability of outputs from hydrological 87 models driven with climate model data. The question of how climate change 88 may impact on river flow is challenging because of the difficulty that climate 89 models have with representing spatial and temporal variability in daily rainfall 90 and the structural and parameter uncertainty in hydrological models. Wilby 91et al. (in press) also note that there is little consensus between climate model 92output in the Middle East and North Africa region. Thus, modelled forecasts 93 of future river flows are uncertain, although multiple climate model applications 94that consider a range of emission scenarios can help build confidence or otherwise 95in projected changes. Despite this, individual model simulations are still useful 96 as they contribute to the total number of model runs available for analysis and, 97 as in this case, provide an example of how climate model output can be used in 98 a modelling framework to assess changes in runoff.

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99 The aim of this work is to develop and test a new meteorological and 100 hydrological model framework and to assess the output from this new model chain 101 to assess the likely impacts of climate variability and change on water availability 102 in Jordan. Specifically, the objectives are as follows:

- to link a regional climate model (RCM), a weather generator, a rainfall runoff model and a runoff routing model to create a framework with which
 to assess the impacts of climate variability and change;
- 107 to collate a database to provide sufficient suitable data with which to 108 develop and test a climate-hydrological model chain in a data-poor region;
- to assess the impact of anthropogenic climate change on flows in the upper
 River Jordan and the Wadi Faynan and to compare the modelled outcomes
 with other studies; and
 to consider the benefits and disadvantages of the approach within the
 - to consider the benefits and disadvantages of the approach within the context of other available methods.

115The study has two parts. In the first part, the effects of daily and seasonal 116 precipitation patterns on streamflow in the upper River Jordan are explored using 117climate scenarios as inputs to the modelling framework. In the second part, the 118 same methodology is applied to a site in western Jordan, the Wadi Faynan, which 119is considered representative of the wadis draining to the lower Jordan, although 120the Wadi Faynan itself drains to the Dead Sea rather than the Jordan River. 121 Considered together, these two components provide insight into the mechanisms 122by which the projected changes in precipitation and evaporation will affect the 123hydrological cycle in semi-arid environments. 124

2. Study areas and data resource

(a) The upper River Jordan

130In this study, the upper Jordan $(1752 \,\mathrm{km}^2)$ is defined as the catchment area from 131the headwaters to the Obstacle Bridge gauging station (33.03° N, 35.62° E). This 132study area was chosen because of its importance in terms of water provision 133to Jordan, the West Bank and Israel (figure 1). The headwaters of the Jordan 134drain from Lebanon and from Mount Hermon in the Golan Heights, the highest 135point in the catchment $(2814 \,\mathrm{m})$, where precipitation can fall as snow during the 136winter. The key tributaries of the upper Jordan are the Dan, Snir (of which the 137Hasbani is a tributary) and the Hermon (of which the Banias is a tributary). 138The geology of the upper Jordan is predominately limestone, which includes 139Karst development. The springs, which form the Dan river, drain from the Karst, 140and the groundwater sustaining the spring flow is estimated to have a retention 141time of 2–3 years (Rimmer & Salingar 2006). The upper Jordan drains into the 142Sea of Galilee, and the outlet, which supplies the lower Jordan River, is located 143near Degania Bet, Israel. Downstream of the Sea of Galilee, the Yarmouk drains 144into the Jordan River. The King Abdullah Canal is used to provide water for 145irrigation in northwest Jordan, and water is diverted from the lower Yarmouk 146to supply the canal, thereby lowering flows in the Yarmouk and the Jordan 147River. Water is abstracted for irrigation in Israel using the National Water

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Carrier, which draws water upstream of the inlet to the Sea of Galilee, and this also lowers flow in the Jordan River. Downstream of the confluence with the Yarmouk, the Jordan River flows southward to the Dead Sea where over the past 30 years, water levels have dropped at the rate of $0.5 \,\mathrm{m\,yr^{-1}}$ as a result of over-abstraction.

Figure 1. The location of the study sites with an inset schematic map of the upper River Jordan.

Square, daily rainfall; circle, daily discharge.

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197Precipitation patterns in Jordan show a strong gradient from west to east. 198The main storm track affecting northern Jordan is from west to east along the 199Mediterranean Sea. Precipitation in the south of Jordan can be affected by low 200pressure systems over the Red Sea, known as Red Sea lows, particularly in the 201boreal autumn and spring (Alpert et al. 2004). The mean annual precipitation 202over Israel is 500–900 and 200–700 mm in the northwest of Jordan, where the 203majority of the crops are cultivated. Wadi Araba, the valley along the Israel-204Jordan border, is an extension of the Great Rift of Africa. This valley affects 205the precipitation distribution. To the east of the valley axis is a scarp slope. 206Along the ridge of the scarp slope and into northwest Jordan, which is at an 207elevation of between 400 m above sea level at Umm Qais in the north and 1727 m 208above sea level at Jebel Mubrak in the south, the mean annual rainfall tends 209to be higher $(200-700 \text{ mm yr}^{-1})$ than in the valley bottom (approx. $50 \text{ mm yr}^{-1})$). 210which. at the Dead Sea, is approx. 400 m below sea level. The scarp slope causes 211orographic lifting of the moist air masses moving east over Israel and the valley. 212and this leads to greater precipitation over the ridge of the scarp. Further east, 213towards the desert centre, the rainfall is much lower at approximately $60 \,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ 214at Ma'an and along the 'pan-handle' of Jordan towards the border with Iraq.

215The spatial coverage of readily available meteorological and hydrological data 216is sparse. For the purpose of this study, data were collated from 60 rainfall stations 217and 7 discharge gauging stations across Israel, Syria, Lebanon, the West Bank 218and Jordan. Daily rainfall data were purchased from the Israeli Meteorological 219Service for the period 1984–2005 for nine sites, and further daily rainfall data were 220available for seven stations in Jordan from 1937 to 1974 from the yearbooks of the 221 Water Resources Division of the National Resources Authority. Monthly rainfall 222data were available from the United States National Climate Data Centre for 11 223sites in Israel (1846–1995), 11 sites in Jordan (1960–2000), 15 sites in Lebanon 224(1888–2000) and 7 sites in Syria (1951–2000).

225Daily flow data were, in general, difficult to find, but these are needed to 226assess the flood extremes. Ideally, 15 min data should be used, but no such 227data were available for this study. Daily data from the United States National 228Climate Data Centre were available for flow gauges on the Jordan at Sede 229Nehemva (1984–1992), Obstacle Bridge (1973–1993) and Naharavim (1988–1993). 230The Naharavim gauging station is located downstream of the confluence of the 231Jordan and Yarmouk rivers, and although daily measurements are available for 232the period 1988–1993, the flows at this point are heavily modified by upstream 233abstractions to supply the National Water Carrier and the King Abdullah Canal. 234Monthly flow data were available at six stations, and daily and monthly flows 235were reported for gauges in the 1963 Jordan Hydrological year book (Central 236Water Authority 1963). This yearbook includes flows for the main channel of the 237Jordan and contributing side wadis. It should be noted, however, that in many 238cases, the flows for the side wadis were estimated using engineering calculations 239(flood hydrographs) rather than measurements. The flow in dryland systems is 240notoriously difficult to measure as rainfall is infrequent and large floods can 241damage measuring structures.

242The rainfall and runoff data were supplemented with data describing the local243climate at 12 sites across Jordan. These data included monthly averages for the244period 1983–2002 for precipitation, near-surface air temperature, solar radiation,245wind speed and sunshine hours.

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Figure 2. A topographic map of the Wadi Faynan.

Land surface elevation data for the Middle East region were obtained from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) Digital Elevation Model (DEM). This dataset has a resolution of 90 m and a vertical accuracy of 15 m. Land cover was taken from the Global Land Cover Map 2000 (v. 1.1) downloaded from the HYDE land cover database (Klein Goldewijk 2001).

(b) The Wadi Faynan

The Wadi Faynan drains the eastern scarp slope of Wadi Araba, south of the Dead Sea (figures 1 and 2), and is approximately 25 km long flowing east to west. The Wadi Faynan (241 km²) disgorges to Wadi Araba after passage through the Jebel Hamrat al Fidan, an Aplite-granite mass located at the mouth of the Wadi Fidan; the Wadi Fidan is the name given to the extension of Wadi Faynan between Al Qurayqira and Jebel Hamrat al Fidan. The climate of Wadi Faynan is currently classified as semi-arid as annual potential evaporation exceeds precipitation (Al-Qawabah et al. 2003). The Wadi Faynan has two major tributaries, the Wadi Ghuwayr and the Wadi Dana, developed along two NE-SW trending geological faults (Tipping 2007; figure 2).

The Wadi Faynan region has a rich archaeological heritage comprehensively described in several recent volumes (Barker *et al.* 2007; Finlayson & Mithen 2007; Hauptmann 2007). Given that the focus of this paper is the hydrology, the archaeology is not considered further. Today, the Bedouin located in the Wadi Faynan use the perennial water flowing from springs in the Wadi Ghuwayr to

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irrigate their fields near the villages of Al Qurayqira and Rashida by conveying
the water in plastic pipes under gravity from the mid-reaches of the wadi. There
are no major urban centres in the catchment, with the population being sparse
in comparison to that of northwest Jordan where the rainfall and topography are
more favourable for irrigation. The Wadi Faynan fringes the Dana National Park
(Al-Qawabah *et al.* 2003).

301 Geological and hydrological information was derived from digital and paper 302 maps and field-based measurements. The geology of the Wadi Faynan comprised 303 fluvial deposits and eolian sands from the Quaternary period; limestones from the 304 Eocene/Paleocene and Cretaceous periods; sandstones from the Cambrian period, 305and Porphyrite and Aplite-granite from the Precambrian eon. There is also an 306 outcrop of basalt from the Quaternary on the northeast rim of the catchment. 307 which forms the Jebel al Afa'ita. The Wadi Ghuwayr and the Wadi Dana have 308 contrasting geology, and springs are also found in the Wadi Dana and are used 309 to irrigate gardens and to supply a hotel, though the water from these does 310 not typically reach the Wadi Faynan. The highest point in the Wadi Faynan 311catchment is Jebel Al Afa'ita at 1641 m above sea level. The elevation of the 312 confluence with the Wadi Araba in the Rift Valley is 300 m below sea level. The 313 range in altitude on the scarp slope varies from approximately 300 m above sea 314 level at the Ghuwayr-Dana confluence on the alluvial plain to 1300 m above sea 315level on the plateau.

316 Hydrological measurements were collated from previous academic, government 317 agency and engineering studies. These data were integrated with new field 318 measurements of baseflow, open-channel hydraulics (to estimate flood peaks) and 319 water chemistry during field visits in 2006, 2007 and 2008. There was recourse 320 to satellite imagery to confirm the presence of specific geological structures and 321 to verify the catchment boundaries of the study area derived from the SRTM 322 DEM. The full details of these data and the sampling and analysis methods are 323 given in Wade *et al.* (in press a).

324 Rainfall patterns in the region of Faynan are dominated by the orographic 325 effect of the rift escarpment, and the area of highest annual rainfall follows a 326 north-south line between Kerak, Tafilah and the Wadi Musa (figure 1). Mean 327 annual rainfall across the Wadi Favnan catchment decreases from $400 \,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ 328 at El Atate on the plateau to 50 mm in the Rift Valley floor; the latter is in 329 a rain shadow being surrounded by highlands. The mean annual rainfall at 330 Shawbak, which is located on the plateau on the southern boundary of the 331Faynan catchment, is $312 \,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$, with a standard deviation of $136 \,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$ 332 (Tarawneh & Kadioğlu 2003). Rainfall generally occurs between October and 333 May, as elsewhere in Jordan. During winter, the precipitation can fall as snow on 334 the plateau (Al-Qawabah *et al.* 2003).

335 The air temperatures in the Dana Reserve, which are assumed to be 336 representative of those in the Wadi Faynan, are typically a mean of 9°C 337 and 27°C during January and August, respectively (Al-Qawabah et al. 2003). 338 The mean annual potential evaporation measured at Tafilah during the 339 period 1999–2003 was 1978 mm yr⁻¹ (EMWATER 2005; Hashemite Kingdom of 340 Jordan—Meteorological Department 2006). Given the higher rainfall in winter 341and the lower evaporation rates, the optimum period for cropping is winter. The 342 land cover is characterized as desert on the floor of the Wadi Araba, changing to 343 steppe in the mid and upper reaches of the Wadi Faynan.

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Figure 3. The conceptual model of the Wadi Faynan hydrology. This schematic is based on the geological cross-section of the Geological Map of Jordan 1:250 000, prepared by F. Bender, Bundesanstait für Geowissenschaften und Rohstoffe, Hannover 1968 (Sheet: Aqaba-Ma'an and Amman). Red region, porphyrite and Aplite-granite; brown region, sandstone; green region, limestone; yellow region, alluvial sands, blue arrow, flow pathway.

A conceptual model was developed to describe the Wadi Faynan hydrology 361 (figure 3). This model was built by integrating all the knowledge ascertained from 362 the review of the existing and newly collected data (Wade *et al.* in press b). The 363 model is as follows: the major aquifers are defined by the catchment boundary and 364the major aquifers are the limestone and the sandstone; groundwater recharge of 365 the limestone and sandstone aquifers occurs through the limestone and colluvium 366 mantle in the upper reaches of the Wadi Favnan around Dana and Shawbak; this 367 recharge is supplemented by transmission losses from the main wadi channels 368 to the underlying aquifers and the shallow channel alluvium; springs occur at 369 the contact between the limestone and sandstone and between the sandstone 370 and Precambrian volcanic rocks; the Precambrian volcanic rocks act as an 371 impermeable laver keeping the water near the surface as it flows past from the 372 Wadi Ghuwayr before the sand and gravels in the channel deepen in the Wadi 373 Fidan alluvial plain and the water flows beneath the surface, possibly along the 374contact with the underlying Aplite-granite: the key pathways are lateral perennial 375flows through the limestone and sandstone with surface overland flow generated 376 during rainfall events and snow does fall during winter in the headwaters of the 377 catchment, but it is assumed that this will infiltrate into the well-drained soils 378 upon melting. A full justification for these assumptions is provided in Wade *et al.* 379 (in press b). 380

3. Methodology

An overview of the modelling framework is shown in figure 4. It can be seen that the framework consists of hydrological models driven by daily precipitation time series derived using a statistical rainfall model (weather generator) and climatological potential evaporation (Black *et al.* in press). Observed daily precipitation data were used to parametrize the weather generator, and HadRM3modelled daily precipitation data were used when making projections of flow changes.

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Figure 4. Overview of the modelling framework showing the data and model linkages for the upper Jordan and the Wadi Faynan applications for (a) calibration, (b) the control period (1961–1990), and (c) the scenario period (2071–2100; A2).

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(a) Climate component of the modelling framework

433The RCM used in this study was a variant of HadRM3. HadRM3 is a 434regional scale climate model with a spatial resolution of 0.44° (approx. 50 km) 435for both latitude and longitude developed by the UK Hadley Centre. As such, 436the model has a finer spatial scale than global circulation models (GCMs) 437such as HadCM3, which has a spatial resolution of 3.75 by 2.5° for longitude 438and latitude, respectively. Climate projections were extracted from HadRM3 439RCM simulations of the 1961–1990 control and the 2071–2100 future periods. 440 The output from HadRM3 was formally compared with observations in Black 441 (2009). For the control period (1961–1990), the modelled near-surface air

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442temperatures in the eastern Mediterranean were reasonably well represented. The 443 modelled control-period precipitation data show that, while the spatial pattern 444 of precipitation over the 30-year control period was generally modelled well, the 445resolution of the HadRM3 model was too coarse to capture the subtle variations 446 in rainfall across the extension of the Rift Valley and northern Jordan. Moreover, 447 the intensity in rainfall was underestimated, leading to biases in the annual 448 totals. Thus, these results highlight the need for statistical downscaling, both to 449interpolate the RCM simulations to a point and to correct the climate model bias.

450The A2 emission scenario was used for all the 2071–2100 projections. This 451scenario represents a world with a slow technological response to mitigate climate 452change and where the economic differences between the industrial and developing 453worlds do not narrow (IPCC 2001). The greatest changes are expected in near-454surface air temperature and precipitation by the end of the century; therefore, the 455scenario and the period considered represent a 'bad' case scenario. Current data 456suggest that global CO₂ emissions are following the 'worst' case A1F1 scenario (le 457Quéré et al. 2009). The consideration of a single emission scenario only and the 458output from one RCM are limitations of the study. Despite this, the work is still 459useful as it explores a new modelling framework, and the results are interpreted 460 in terms of those generated from other contemporary model-based assessments.

461 A weather generator was used for the control period and future scenario model 462 runs. The weather generator is described fully and evaluated in Black et al. 463 (in press), where it was shown that, while the weather generator was capable 464of reproducing the main features of the observed rainfall seasonal cycle, there 465were some biases—with more rain at the margins of the rainy seasons than 466 observed. The weather generator derives rainfall stochastically, according to the 467 underlying patterns of daily rainfall. In the weather generator used, the patterns 468 of daily rainfall were described statistically through the mean rain per rainy day 469(rainfall intensity) and the probabilities of rain both given rain the day before 470(PRR) and given no rain the day before (PDR). PRR and PDR were calculated 471 separately and varied by season. In the summer, when rainfall is low, both PDR 472and PRR were set to 0.01; in the rainy season, PDR varies from approximately 473 0.15 to 0.25 with lower values at the margins of the rainy seasons and PRR 474from approximately 0.55 to 0.65. The distribution of rainfall intensities (rain per 475rainy day) was based on the observed time series, with an extra parameterization 476 for extreme rainfall events. The distribution was adjusted to take into account 477 changes in the rain per rainy day in the future scenarios. For the upper Jordan 478and the Wadi Faynan applications, rainfall observations from Degania Bet and 479Tafilah were used, respectively. For the future scenario integrations, the changes in 480 rainfall occurrence probabilities (as defined above) were derived from the regional 481 model integrations. In order to correct for model bias, these changes were then 482applied to the observed probabilities.

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(b) Hydrological components of the modelling framework

The hydrological components of the model framework are the Pitman rainfall-runoff model and the Integrated Catchments model (INCA v. 1.11.10).
The Pitman model is a conceptual, process-based model of the rainfall-runoff relationship (Pitman 1973). The Pitman model was chosen because it is a model developed in South Africa for semi-arid hydrological conditions and forms a

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491 trade-off between model complexity, data requirements and useful model output 492 appropriate for the aims of this study. The Pitman model was designed to be 493 applicable at the catchment scale and, in this study, was applied at the daily 494 time step to investigate flood characteristics. The Pitman model does not include 495 flow-routing for multiple reaches.

496 INCA is a hydrological and water quality model that incorporates a simple, 497 flow-routing model that divides the main channel into a user-defined number 498of reaches (Whitehead et al. 1998; Wade et al. 2002). For this study, only the 499 hydrological components of the INCA model were used. To apply the INCA 500model, it was necessary to determine the hydrologically effective rainfall (HER) 501to calculate the water volume contribution from the catchment each day. The 502HER is the rainfall that contributes to the river flow after evapotranspiration 503losses and replenishment of the soil moisture deficit are accounted for. In this 504study, HER was calculated using the Pitman rainfall-runoff model and a bucket-505type soil moisture deficit model to calculate the actual evaporation (figure 4). 506Thus, together the Pitman and INCA models allowed the calculation of the 507runoff response to rainfall for the upper River Jordan. INCA was not applied 508at the Wadi Faynan. 509

(c) Model set-up and calibration for the upper River Jordan

513The Pitman model was configured to simulate the surface and groundwater 514flows and to calculate the HER at a daily time step using observed precipitation 515and an estimate of the actual evapotranspiration (AET) by a bucket-type soil 516moisture model based on the Penman equation. The mean annual HER was 517estimated as 45 per cent of the mean annual precipitation input and thereby 518in agreement with the estimate of Kunstmann et al. (2005). The estimated HER 519was input to the INCA model, which was then used to route water along the 520upper reaches of the River Jordan with a daily time resolution. The INCA water 521balance is computed on a 1×1 km grid cell, and this is then multiplied by the 522unit area in each subcatchment to calculate the volume of water transferred from 523the unit to the main channel. Within each subcatchment, different landscape 524units are specified according to soil, land use and geological types. The INCA 525model has two reservoirs in each landscape unit: one represents the flow of water 526through the unsaturated zone, incorporating the soil, and the other represents 527the groundwater.

528Initially, the entire Jordan River basin was subdivided into 19 reaches based on 529gauging stations and points just downstream of major confluences with tributaries 530and side wadi channels. The Dead Sea was included and, of the defined reaches, 531this had the largest drainage area of $49\,000\,\mathrm{km}^2$. The following land cover types, 532selected from the Global Land Cover Map 2000, were also initially included in the 533INCA application: broadleaved tree cover (open), shrub cover, cultivated, bare 534areas, inland water and urban. Shrub cover for the INCA application included 535closed or open cover, deciduous, sparse herbaceous or sparse shrub cover and 536regularly flooded shrub and/or herbaceous cover. In practice, it was not possible 537 to use 19 reaches nor to differentiate between land cover types because of a lack 538of data to calculate the AET for each. Thus, Pitman was set-up for a compound 539single land cover as was the INCA model.

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Figure 5. Modelled (grey line) and observed (black line) mean daily flows in the Jordan River at
Obstacle Bridge from 1 October 1988 to 30 September 1993. Black line, observation; grey line,
calibration.

559During the study, it became apparent that only limited daily time-step 560discharge data could be obtained. Given that the purpose was to look at extremes 561in flow, this cannot be done with monthly flow data. Downstream of the Sea of 562Galilee at Naharavim, the observed flows were heavily modified by the upstream 563abstractions. Thus, the INCA model was applied to the upper four successive 564reaches (figure 1) from the headwaters to the discharge gauging station at 565Obstacle Bridge in Israel. The flows measured at Obstacle Bridge were not as 566heavily modified as at Naharavim so the hydrological response to climate could 567 be better determined.

568For the upper River Jordan, the INCA model was calibrated for the period 5691 October 1988 to 30 September 1993 (figure 5). The purpose of the calibration 570was to set the values of the model parameters, and this period was chosen to 571provide the maximum overlap of available daily rainfall from Degania Bet and 572flow data from Obstacle Bridge. The unsaturated and the groundwater zone 573residence times, the instream routing parameters that control the reach residence 574times and the baseflow indices were adjusted until the modelled output flow 575matched, as closely as possible, the observed flow time series at Obstacle Bridge. 576There were insufficient data to perform a split-sample test and to assess the model 577 performance for a second period.

578The INCA model performance was assessed using the R^2 -value and the Nash-579Sutcliffe criterion. The R^2 -value for the calibration period was 0.7, and the 580Nash–Sutcliffe criterion was negative. This result indicates that the pattern in 581 the observed flows was simulated, but the actual values were not replicated. This 582was due to an inability to quantify the volume of abstractions in the upper Jordan 583owing to a lack of data. Despite this inability to quantify the abstractions, the 584study is still useful as it provides an indication of how water availability will 585change relative to the present and the control period.

586 Once INCA was calibrated, the control period rainfall data derived from 587 HadRM3 and the weather generator were input to the Pitman model to provide a 588 second estimate of the HER for the control period for comparison with the model

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589calibration. These HER data were input to INCA to derive a control period flow 590series. This process was repeated but using the 2071–2100 scenario precipitation 591data derived from the HadRM3 runs and the bias correction using the weather 592generator to derive, through the Pitman model, the HER for the INCA 2071–2100 593scenario run. Given the difference in the estimated HER between the calibration 594and control period run, there was a difference in the flows simulated, but this 595was acceptable: the control period maximum mean daily flow was $138 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$ 596compared with $161 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$ during calibration and the comparative Q10 (the flow 597 exceeded 10% of the time), Q50 and Q95 mean daily flows for the control 598and calibration periods, respectively, were 76 and 110, 15 and 16, 3.3 and 599 $2.6 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$.

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(d) Model set-up and calibration for the Wadi Faynan

603 The Wadi Faynan conceptual model was realized as a numerical model through 604 calibration of the Pitman model (Wade *et al.* in press b). The purpose of the 605 model application was not to quantify flood flows exactly. This could not be 606 achieved in this case because of a lack of observed time-series flow data with 607 which to rigorously assess the model performance. Rather, the purpose was to 608 define a hydrological model as a best estimate of the hydrological functioning 609 and then run scenarios to explore how changes in rainfall amounts affect flood 610 characteristics and the baseflow.

611 The Pitman model was applied to the Favnan catchment, defined from a point 612 on the channel network adjacent to the ancient field system and immediately 613 downstream of the confluence between the Wadi Ghuwayr and the Wadi Dana 614 (figure 2). At this point, the upstream contributing area is $115 \,\mathrm{km}^2$. This was done 615 as the lowest point at which the measurements of both the baseflow and peak 616 floods were made was the outflow of the Wadi Ghuwavr and the Wadi Dana, thus 617 allowing estimates of the baseflow and peak flow to be made at the confluence for 618 comparison with those modelled. It was extremely difficult to survey the channel 619 downstream of the confluence, here the alluvial plain has a width of approximately 620 1 km. Modelling the catchment flows to a point on the channel network adjacent 621 to the ancient field system also removes the complication of simulating the 622 transmission losses and water residence (or transit) times in the alluvial plain 623 of the Wadi Fidan and eliminates the need for a definitive understanding of the 624 source of the Fidan spring within this model-based assessment.

625 This application of the Pitman model to the Wadi Faynan required daily 626 estimates of rainfall and the potential evaporation. The use of the rainfall data 627 from Tafilah was appropriate for the model application. Tafilah is located on the 628 plateau 18 km north-northeast of Dana and receives rainfall similar to the upper Q^2 629 reaches of the Wadi Faynan. Moreover, a substantial daily record of rainfall was 630 available from 1 October 1937 to 30 April 1974, allowing the model to be run for 631 a relatively long period, which is important when making an assessment of flood 632 magnitude and frequency.

An estimate of the daily potential evaporation was derived from monthly
measurements of wind speed, sunshine hours, relative humidity and air
temperature available for a 2-year period from Ma'an using the Penman equation.
This 2-year estimated time series was repeated to form a daily time series of 36
years, the same length as the observed daily rainfall time series. This repetition of

 $\begin{array}{c} 661\\ 662\\ 663\end{array}$

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the 2-year time series, although a clear over-simplification of the changes expected
during the 36-year period, was done to allow the model to be run on a daily time
step to allow progression with the model application.

641 It is practically impossible to separate the effects of transmission loss from 642 those of infiltration and deep percolation when estimating groundwater recharge. 643 As such, no attempt was made to distinguish transmission loss from infiltration 644 to the soils and the subsequent deep percolation of water to the underlying 645 aquifer within the simulations. Rather, the combined effects of transmission loss, 646 infiltration to the soil and subsequent deep percolation are considered together 647 as a single groundwater-recharge mechanism. To apply the model, estimates of 648 the groundwater volume and infiltration rate were made (Wade *et al.* in press b).

649 The simulated flows output from the PITMAN model generally falls within 650 the baseflow and peak flow constraints identified by field observations for model 651 calibration (not shown). The baseflow in catchment was observed to be in the 652range $0.02-0.09 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$, and the model replicated this. The simulated annual flood 653 ranged from 2 to $98 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and for return periods of 1–2 years, the range of the simulated floods was $2-17 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, which was within broad agreement with the 654655 annual floods estimated by the survey $(14-22 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1})$. The simulated extreme 656 floods with return periods of 12-37 years are lower than the estimated flow range 657 when the channel is flowing full $(120-180 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1})$. For only 15 per cent of the 658 calibration time-period considered did the simulated flows increase in response 659 to precipitation events, and this hydrological behaviour is typical of semi-arid 660 catchments (Bull & Kirby 2002).

4. Results

(a) Impact of anthropogenic climate change on the regional rainfall

667 A reduction in the mean annual rainfall is projected under the A2 scenario for 668 the 2071–2100 period for the Middle East (Black 2009). In the upper Jordan, 669 the largest monthly reductions (around 30% in the River Jordan region) are 670 during December and January (figure 6). The rainy season is predicted to become 671 longer, which partially offsets the marked decrease in precipitation projected at 672 the peak of the rainy season. At the margins of the rainy season, small increases 673 in monthly rainfall are projected by the climate model. The reasons for this are 674 not fully understood, but may be related to changes in the occurrence of Red Sea 675 troughs, which are the dominant observed cause of rain in these seasons (Black 676 2009). The reduction in winter rainfall can be related to changes in the large-scale 677 circulation and is predicted by most climate models (for example, Kitoh et al. 678 011 2008; Evans 2009; Hemming et al. this volume; Jin et al. this volume), the same 679 cannot be said for the spring precipitation, which leads to large uncertainties in 680 the prediction of rain in this season (Black *et al.* in press). Sensitivity studies 681 of the hydrological response to rainfall imply that the changes in spring rainfall 682 have relatively little impact, and hence the uncertainties in our predictions of 683spring rainfall do not prejudice the reliability of the predictions of flow (Wade 684 et al. in press a). At the peak of the rainy season, the number of rainy days 685 is projected to decrease, reflecting reductions in both the PRR and the PDR, 686 of approx. 25 per cent (PRR reduced from approx. 0.6 to 0.4–0.5 and PDR

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Figure 7. Modelled mean daily flows in the Jordan River at Obstacle Bridge for control (1961–1990) and scenario (2071–2100) periods. Grey solid line, control; black solid line, A2 2070s.

reduced from approximately 0.2 to 0.15). The overall picture is, therefore, of a longer rainy season with a less pronounced peak, with the mean annual rainfall decreasing in the headwaters of the River Jordan and the Wadi Faynan. The reduction in rainfall is accompanied by an increase in temperature by 2°C and hence evaporation increases.

(b) Impact of anthropogenic climate change on flow in the upper River Jordan

732 In comparison to the control period, the modelled outcome for the 2071–2100 733 A2 scenario is that the low (base) flows will remain similar to those occurring at 734 present; there is little difference in the forecast median (Q50) flows, and the Q50 735 in the control and scenario periods are 15 and $12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively (figure 7).

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Figure 8. Modelled mean daily flows in the Jordan River in the Wadi Faynan for control (1961–1990) and scenario (2071–2100) periods. Blue solid line, control; red solid line, A2 2070s.

This lack of response is a result of the long residence time in the groundwater component of the INCA model, which suggests that groundwater acts to buffer changes in the rainfall amounts to maintain the low and intermediate flows. The flood response is different. There is a drop in the Q10 flow (exceeded 10% of the time) from 76 to $57 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$ between the control and scenario periods as a result of the reduced winter rainfall, and this indicates that flood magnitudes will be reduced. Increases in the flow extremes, in terms of flood magnitude and occurrence, are not evident, which is consistent with Black (2009), who found no significant changes in rainfall intensity in these projections for this region.

(c) Impact of anthropogenic climate change on flow in the Wadi Faynan

For the Wadi Faynan, the baseflows in the period 2071–2100 under the A2 scenario are predicted to decrease by 12 per cent (figure 8). The number of years with five floods greater than $12 \,\mathrm{m^3 \, s^{-1}}$ will decrease from 9 to 7 in the 30-year period, and the median flow will decrease by 6 per cent. The flow threshold of five floods greater than $12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ is derived from the measurement of flows in the annual flow channel and the number of flows from Bedouin anecdotal evidence of vears with good harvests (Lancaster & Lancaster 1999; Wade et al. in press b). As a result of the projected reduced rainfall and increased near-surface temperature, the baseflow decreases as recharge declines, though because recharge is already low then the impact on the baseflow is small. Interestingly, although the mean annual rainfall decreases, the flow exceeded 10 per cent of the time (Q10), which is representative of the flood extremes, increases, and the maximum flood flow also increases; peak flows will be approximately 1.25 (82/66) times what they are at present. This increase in flood extremes results from subtle changes in the distribution of rainfall intensities in the A2 scenario projections and should therefore be regarded with caution, particularly bearing in mind model bias. This caveat should also be applied to the projected flows in the upper River Jordan.

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5. Discussion

The RCM projections suggest that in a world that does not work to find an integrated way to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, then a temperature increase of 2 °C and a decrease in rainfall by 25 per cent are projected in the eastern Mediterranean by the end of this century. In addition to a reduction in the mean annual rainfall, the seasonality of the rainfall will change also as the start and end of wet season are projected to become wetter, but there will be less rainfall in December and January.

794 In the upper River Jordan, the change in the low flows will depend on the 795 volume of water stored in the Karst system of the northern Jordan valley and the 796 recharge rate, both of which are poorly characterized. The modelled outcomes 797 from the conceptual Hydrological Model for the Karst Environment (HYMKE), 798 described in Rimmer & Salingar (2006), corroborate the results from this study 799 that the low flows will not change. It is unclear over what simulated time period 800 the HYMKE model was run for the modelled scenarios. The INCA model was run 801 for 30 years with a daily time step, so this may be sufficient to examine long-term 802 trends but the relationship between groundwater recharge through percolation 803 and soil moisture has not been modelled in detail. Thus, it is proposed that it 804 will be necessary to run transient scenarios from present day to 2100 to see how 805 the groundwater will change over the long term using both the HYMKE and 806 INCA models and that further consideration be given to the likely groundwater-807 recharge mechanisms to determine whether the current groundwater components 808 of both models are a good representation of water storage and flow in the Karst.

809 In a study of the upper Jordan catchment that used a distributed hydrological 810 model informed by RCM input, Suppan et al. (2008) predicted that under a 811 scenario in which the present rates of greenhouse gas emission increase slowly, the 812 total runoff will decrease by 23 per cent by the end of the twenty-first century— 813 a conclusion consistent with the linear relationship between annual precipitation 814 and streamflow proposed in Samuels et al. (2009). However, in contrast to Samuels 815 et al. (2009), which suggested little change in the baseflow, Suppan et al. (2008)suggested that groundwater recharge would decrease, resulting in a reduction in 816 817 the baseflow. Samuels et al. (2009) showed that increasing the frequency of rainy 818 spells lasting 3 days or more, without changing the annual total precipitation, 819 increased the impact of high intensity rainfall events on the River Jordan, 820 resulting in more frequent and intense floods. The results for the hydrological 821 projections for the Wadi Faynan corroborate this result, but the projected flows 822 in the upper Jordan suggest that flood magnitude will not increase. This reflects 823 the fact that, in the simulations, rainfall intensity seen in the River Jordan region 824 in the future is very similar to that observed today, whereas in the Wadi Faynan, 825 there is a small increase in the extreme rainy events. However, these results should 826 be regarded with caution because the climate model represents rainfall intensity 827 poorly. Moreover, further work is required to confirm the results of this and 828 other studies and to verify the representation of the rainfall extremes used in the 829 weather generator.

The reduction in the mean annual rainfall and the increase in near-surface
air temperatures suggest that irrigation requirements will increase, worsening
the water shortage in the region. This suggestion is supported by preliminary
applications of the CROPWAT model in the Water, Life and Civilisation study

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834 and by applications of a soil-vegetation-atmosphere transfer (SVAT) model 835 TRAIN, which indicate increases in evapotranspiration and water demand 836 (Menzel et al. in press). The preliminary predictions of the CROPWAT model 837 suggest that at Ramtha in northwest Jordan, the irrigation demand will increase 838 from 62 to 132 mm of water when growing vegetables under the A2 scenario 839 for 2071–2100 using HadRM3 and an assumed irrigation efficiency of 70 per 840 cent. The TRAIN model provides an overview of the Jordan Valley region, and 841 the modelled outcomes suggest a 6 per cent increase in the water demand for 842 agriculture over the entire region and up to a 50 per cent decrease in water 843 availability in northwest Jordan, Israel and the West Bank (HadCM3, A1B 844 scenario, 2021–2050 compared with 1961–1990 control period). Menzel et al. 845 (in press) note that this region includes the Negey, where water scarcity is a factor 846 that will in effect lessen the future projection of water demand. These preliminary 847 results highlight the local and regional differences that might be expected in 848 irrigation demand and do not account for the possibility the crop stomata may 849 close in response to increased near-surface air temperatures, resulting in little 850 difference in crop evapotranspiration, but lower yields owing to the increased crop 851 stress of an increased canopy temperature (Kimball & Bernacchi 2006). Higher 852 atmospheric CO₂ may also reduce stomata activity. An overall increase in local 853 and regional irrigation demand has serious implications for Jordan since further 854 stress, including increased salinity, will be put on the groundwater resource. Israel 855 has already invested heavily in the desalination of groundwater. Jordan may have 856 to do likewise.

857 The modelling framework proposed has the same uncertainties as outlined 858 by Wilby & Harris (2006). These uncertainties in model application are the 859 choice of the SRES scenario; the subsequent regional climate projections; the 860 probabilities and rainfall intensity distribution chosen for the weather generator: 861 the structure and calibration of the hydrological models and the sampling errors 862 of the observed data used to define the structure and parameters of the model 863 ensemble. In particular, there are limited daily flow data with which to calibrate 864 and test the hydrological models, not only in the upper Jordan but also in the 865 side wadis and other tributaries that comprise the Jordan drainage network. 866 As such, this and other model chains cannot provide absolute changes in the 867 rainfall-runoff response, but rather give an indication of the possible changes in 868 the distribution of flows. Further complications in the case of the Jordan River 869 include an inability to quantify exactly the volume of water abstracted from 870 different reaches owing to the numerous and diffuse nature of the abstractions: 871 further regulation or quantification of these abstractions may help manage the 872 resource. Until such quantification is done, it will be difficult to separate the 873 effect of abstractions from that of climate. Further investigation is also required 874 to determine whether the use of a weather generator approach introduces bias 875 itself, as suggested here where more rain was predicted at the margins of the 876 rainy season than observed. In addition, further work is needed to determine how 877 important this bias is in terms of other uncertainties such as structure of the 878 climate model and the choice of emission scenario. A potentially fruitful method 879 for progress in the development of coupled climate-hydrological assessments would 880 be the determination of what aspects of the climate or weather are most critical to 881 the hydrological assessment. The climate and weather projections from a GCM, 882 RCM, weather generator or a combination of these could then be tested, in terms

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of these aspects, against observation to assess reliability. In addition, further work
is required to assess the capability of climate models to simulate the frequency and
duration of rainfall events, as well as the magnitude. This capability assessment is
required to determine how well antecedent moisture conditions and groundwater
recharge can be estimated and whether the increases in the simulated rainfall
extremes are valid.

889 Although coupling uncertainties together means that the quantification of the 890 runoff response is likely to be inaccurate, the modelling framework can be used to 891 explore the hydrological system and to assess the impact of different scenarios and 892 management decisions. At present, this study is limited in that only rainfall and 893 runoff are considered. Further work is required to understand the implications 894 of the projected temperature and precipitation changes on other aspects of the 895 water resource, such as groundwater recharge and soil moisture availability. This 896 task has been started by Menzel et al. (in press), using another methodology, but 897 further work is required to substantiate initial projections of change.

898 It is recommended that an ensemble approach to climate and hydrological 899 modelling be taken to account for structural uncertainty. In particular, it is useful 900 that a number of studies do the same thing so that results can be compared (e.g. 901 Samuels et al. 2009). In addition, it is recommended that a study of the effects of 902 parameter uncertainty in the INCA and Pitman models on the modelled flows be 903 done using an ensemble of generated weather time series. Further applications of 904the framework proposed here and other coupled climate-hydrological approaches 905 will allow a more extensive review of potential outcomes to population and climate 906 change to be achieved. With such an ensemble approach, care must be taken to use 907 the same SRES emission scenarios, time periods and spatial scale of comparison. 908 This will require discussion and cooperation between hydrological modellers 909 of the nature already achieved in the ENSEMBLES climate-modelling project 910 (http://www.ensembles7eu.org). Although such an ensemble approach will be 911 useful to quantify uncertainties, this approach should be balanced with a diversity 912 of climate and hydrological modelling approaches that cover a range of emission 913 scenarios and spatial scales. A diversity of approaches will help understand a 914 range of possible futures and may explain discrepancies in the projected flows 915 between the upper River Jordan and the Wadi Faynan. 916

6. Conclusions

920 This study is one of the first to combine an RCM, a weather generator and 921 hydrological models to project the likely rainfall-runoff response of the upper 922 River Jordan and side Wadis in Jordan, framing the results within other 923 contemporary research. A substantial dataset has been collated to develop and 924 test the modelling framework, and in a data-poor region, this represents a 925 substantial undertaking. The modelled results provide a contribution to the 926 debate about how the runoff response will change in the upper Jordan River 927 and the side wadis of western Jordan.

928 Owing to the uncertainties associated with the chosen greenhouse gas emissions
929 scenario, the RCM, the weather generator and the hydrological models, the results
930 can only be assumed to be indicative at this stage. Nevertheless, the modelled
931 outcomes suggest that although the mean annual flow of the River Jordan will

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reduce, the baseflow of the upper Jordan will not change significantly in response
to climate change, although flood extremes may increase—a result corroborated
by other comparable studies.

935The results of this study suggest that the impact of precipitation decreases on 936 flow may be, to a degree, mitigated by the contribution of groundwater. However, 937 the combined effects of expected population increase and the changes in the 938 projected climate are vet to be modelled. Although the groundwater levels appear 939 to be maintained in response to climate change alone, it is likely that they will 940 decrease if the population increases. Water security in Jordan, and Israel and the 941 West Bank, will probably depend on how exploitable the groundwater reserves 942 prove to be.

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