



1 **Hydrological modelling and future runoff of the Damma**
2 **Glacier CZO watershed using SWAT. Validation of the model**
3 **in the greater area of the Göschenalpsee, Switzerland**

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10 **Abstract.** In this study, we investigated the application of the Soil Water and Assessment Tool (SWAT) for the
11 simulation of runoff in the partly glacierised watershed of the Damma glacier Critical Zone Observatory (CZO),
12 Switzerland. The model was calibrated using daily time steps for the period of 2009–2011, while two different
13 approaches were used for its validation. Initially the model was validated using daily data for the years 2012–2013.
14 Subsequently, the calibrated version of the model was applied on the greater area that drains to the hydropower
15 reservoir of the Göschenalpsee and includes the Damma glacier watershed, using inflow data. This validation
16 approach can help in assessing model uncertainty under changing land use and climate forcing. Model performance
17 was evaluated both visually and statistically and it was found that even though SWAT has rarely been used in high
18 alpine and glacierised areas and despite the complexity of simulating the extreme conditions of Damma glacier
19 watershed; its performance was very satisfactory. Our novel validation approach proved to be successful since the
20 performance of the model was similarly good when applied for the greater catchment feeding Göschenalpsee.
21 Finally, we investigated the response of the two regions, Damma glacier and its greater area, to climate change
22 using SWAT and results were compared to a previous study using the models PREVAH and ALPINE 3D. It
23 confirmed that SWAT can predict changes in future runoff and peak flow in alpine areas with the same accuracy
24 as more demanding models such as ALPINE 3D and PREVAH. This study demonstrates the applicability of
25 SWAT in high elevation, snow and glacier dominated watersheds and in quantifying the effects of climate change
26 on water resources.

27 **1 Introduction**

28 The use of calibrated watershed models enables researchers and stakeholders to assess the impact of natural and
29 management induced environmental changes and, as many studies have pointed out, is of high importance (Arnold
30 et al., 1998; Abbaspour et al., 2007). However watershed modelling in alpine areas is challenging due to the rough
31 terrain, heterogeneous land cover, extreme climatic conditions and glacier dynamics (Viviroli and Weingartner,
32 2004; Rahman et al., 2013). These can also be the factors that increase the inherent uncertainties in watershed
33 models (Kobierska et al., 2013).

34

35 Modelling the impact of climate change in future runoff provides crucial information for the assessment of water
36 resources, water quality, and aquatic ecosystems. However, the uncertainties at this stage of modelling include
37 uncertainties related to climate change scenarios and therefore, in order to reduce the uncertainty in the climate



38 analysis, it is important to reduce the uncertainties related to the hydrological model by well-adjusted calibrated
39 parameters and validation (Farinotti et al., 2012b).

40

41 The Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) developed by the USDA Agricultural Research Service (ARS) is a
42 public domain and open source integrated model and has been used worldwide for various applications. As a semi-
43 distributed model, it allows the spatial variation of the parameters by dividing the basin into a number of sub-
44 basins (Arnold et al., 1998; Srinivasan et al., 1998). Its main advantages are that its structure is physically based,
45 since it considers orographic effects, but less demanding on input data than the fully distributed models. SWAT
46 model is equipped with a snow-melt algorithm based on a simple temperature-index approach, which, although
47 simple, is proved to be very effective in numerous studies (Hock, 2003) especially when net solar radiation is the
48 dominant driving energy for snowmelt (Debele et al., 2010).

49

50 SWAT has been widely used in many studies for the simulation of runoff and nutrient cycling in agricultural and
51 forested sites. However, it has rarely been used for high alpine areas where runoff is dominated by snow and
52 glacier melt. In this study we used SWAT to simulate the runoff from the partly glacierised Damma glacier
53 watershed, Switzerland, which is characterised by strong daily and seasonal fluctuations due to snowmelt in May
54 and June and glacier melt later in summer. Calibration was conducted using meteorological data for the years
55 2008–2011 and was validated for the years 2012–2013. Furthermore, we investigated the possibility to validate
56 the model in the greater area that feeds the Göschenalpsee and includes the Damma glacier watershed with a
57 longer meteorological record. Finally, we investigated the impact of climate change in future runoff running 6
58 different future scenarios.

59 **2 Study Site**

60 The Damma glacier watershed (Fig. 1) situated in the central Alps in Switzerland and is one of the Critical Zone
61 Observatories established within the European project SoilTrEC (Banwart et al., 2011). It is located at an altitude
62 between 1790m and 3200 m above sea level and has a typical alpine climate with an average yearly temperature
63 of 1°C and precipitation 2400mm per year (Kobierska et al., 2013). Damma glacier covers 50% of the watershed
64 and due to climate change retreats at an average rate of 10m per year in the last 90 years. However, during 1920–
65 1928 and 1970–1992 the recession was interrupted and the glacier re-advanced, which resulted in two moraines
66 (Kobierska et al., 2011). After the retreat of the glacier a soil chronosequence is developed, which has a total length
67 of 1km (Kobierska et al., 2013; Bernasconi et al., 2008; Bernasconi et al., 2011). The bedrock is coarse-grained
68 granite of the Aare massif and is composed of quartz, plagioclase, potassium feldspar, biotite and muscovite
69 (Schaltegger, 1990). Our study site was extensively described in Bernasconi *et al.* (2011).

70

71 The Göschenalpsee (Fig. 2) is a hydropower reservoir of a volume of 75 million m³. A total surface area of
72 95km² drains in the reservoir and is 20% glacier-covered. It includes the Damma glacier watershed but also the
73 Chelen glacier watershed and the runoff of two neighbouring watersheds (Voralptal and Tiefen glacier), which is
74 redirected in the reservoir through two tunnels. The site is described extensively in Kobierska *et al.* (2013).



75 **3 Methods and Data**

76 **3.1 SWAT model**

77 In this study, we used SWAT 2012 coupled with the ArcView SWAT interface a GIS-based graphical user
78 interface (Di Luzio et al., 2002) that enables the delineation of the watershed, definition of subbasins, and initial
79 parameterisation. It is a semi-distributed, time continuous watershed simulator operating on a daily time step.

80

81 Each watershed is divided into subbasins, for which slope, river features, and weather data are considered.
82 Furthermore, the watershed is divided into hydrologic response units (HRUs), which are small surface units with
83 distinctive soil-landuse combinations and necessary to capture spatially explicit processes. Each process is
84 simulated for each HRU and then summed up for the subbasin by a weighted average. Subsequently the amount
85 of water, sediment and nutrients that come out from each subbasin enter the respective river.

86

87 A modified SCS curve number method is used to calculate the surface runoff for each HRU, based on landuse,
88 soil parameters, and weather conditions. The water is stored in four storage volumes: snow, soil moisture, shallow
89 aquifer and deep aquifer. The processes that are considered within the soil profile are infiltration, evaporation,
90 plant uptake, lateral flow, and percolation. What is important in our study is that melted snow is handled by the
91 model the same way as the water that comes from precipitation regarding the calculation of runoff and percolation.
92 Furthermore, runoff from frozen soil can also be calculated by defining if the temperature in the first soil layer is
93 less than 0°C. Even though the model still allows significant infiltration when the frozen soils are dry, the runoff
94 of frozen soils is larger than that of other soils. A detailed description of the theory behind the model is described
95 in detail in Arnold et al. (1998) and Srinivasan et al. (1998).

96

97 Snow processes in high alpine areas is strongly influenced by the terrain features (Ahl et al., 2008;Zhang et al.,
98 2008). Fontaine et al. (2002) revealed the role of elevation in the spatial and temporal state of the snowpack.
99 Therefore, the definition of elevation bands within the model subbasins can significantly improve the performance
100 of the model in watersheds in high altitudes and large elevation gradients. With the improved snow melting
101 algorithm (Fontaine et al., 2002), the stream flow of alpine regions could be successfully simulated by SWAT
102 (Rahman et al., 2013;Omani et al., 2017;Grusson et al., 2015).

103 **3.2 Input data**

104 The basic input data required by SWAT are: topography, soil, landuse and meteorological data.

105 **3.2.1 Topography**

106 The topography of both study areas was defined using a high precision Digital elevation model (DEM) with a grid
107 cell: 2mx2m (swissALTI3D), produced by the Swiss Federal office for Topography, swisstopo
108 (<http://www.swisstopo.admin.ch/internet/swisstopo/en/home/products/height/swissALTI3D.html>). Following the
109 delineation procedure, Damma watershed was divided into 5 subbasins, while the greater area that feeds the
110 Göschenalpsee was divided into 25 subbasins. By setting the lowest possible thresholds for landuse, slope and
111 soil, 48 HRUs were created for Damma watershed and 285 HRUs for the greater area. Finally, six elevation bands
112 were defined for each subbasin of both study sites.



113 3.2.2 Soil and landuse map

114 In order to better describe the glacier forefield and to reduce the uncertainty of the calibration for the Damma
115 glacier watershed, we created a more detailed soil and landuse map based on the observations, field and
116 experimental data from the Biglink and SoilTrEC projects (Bernasconi et al., 2011; Dumig et al., 2011; Andrianaki
117 et al., 2017). The soil map was created by adding new soil types to the SWAT database while the land use classes
118 were based on existing types in the database. For the greater area of Göschenalpsee, we used a soil map, produced
119 by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office at a scale of 1:200,000 (<http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index.html>).
120 For the landuse, we used the Corine land cover dataset 2006 (version 16, 100m resolution) produced by the
121 European Environmental Agency ([http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/corine-land-cover-2006-raster-](http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/corine-land-cover-2006-raster-2)
122 2).

123 3.2.3 Climate data

124 Meteorological data from one local weather station and one station of the ANETZ network were used in this study.
125 The weather stations are located at the Damma glacier watershed (2025 m a.s.l.) and at Gütsch (2283 m a.s.l.). The
126 meteorological data of the weather Gütsch were provided by MeteoSwiss. The selection of the weather station
127 Gütsch was based on the results of previous research that showed that it has the best correlation in comparison to
128 other weather stations located in the area (Magnusson et al., 2011) with a long enough record for this study. The
129 data from both stations consist of sub-hourly records of air temperature, precipitation, wind speed, relative
130 humidity, incoming short-wave radiation and incoming long-wave radiation from 2007–2013 for Damma weather
131 station and 1981–2010 for Gütsch. The lapse rates for temperature and precipitation, which are very important
132 parameters in SWAT model since they affect snow and glacier melt, and the interpolation methods were based on
133 the findings of Magnusson et al. (2011) who carried out non-prognostic hydrological simulations for the Damma
134 glacier watershed.

135 **Climate change scenarios** - The climate change predictions were provided by the EU regional climate modelling
136 initiative ENSEMBLES (van der Linden and Mitchell, 2009) and were based on the emission scenario A1B. The
137 model chains produced by the ENSEMBLES project are a combination of a general circulation model (GCM) with
138 a regional climate model (RCM). In Switzerland, model chain data were interpolated to the locations of the
139 MeteoSwiss stations and the Swiss Climate Change Scenarios CH2011 were created (CH2011, 2011). The method
140 used for the creation of the datasets is the “delta-based approach”. For this method the temperature and
141 precipitation predictions are calculated using daily temperature changes (ΔT), and precipitation scaling factors
142 (ΔP). Incoming short-wave irradiation, wind speed and relative humidity were left unchanged. In Switzerland it is
143 predicted that the mean temperature will increase 2.7–4.1°C and the precipitation during the summer months will
144 decrease 18%–24% by the end of the century, in the case when no actions for the mitigation of climate change are
145 taken (CH2011, 2011).

146

147 In this study, three climate scenarios with interpolated data for Gütsch weather station are used. These scenarios
148 are: the CNRM ARPEGE ALADIN scenario, the ETHZ HadCM3Q0 CLM scenario, which predicts the highest
149 (ΔT) and (ΔP) in comparison to the other two, and the SHMI BCM RCA scenario, which predicts the lowest (ΔT)
150 and (ΔP), referred to as CNRM, ETHZ and SHMI respectively. Data resulted from the work of (Bosshard et al.,
151 2011). The following periods were selected, in agreement with the duration of the reference period:

152 Reference period (T_0): 1981–2010



153 Near future period (T1): 2021–2050

154 Far future period (T2): 2070–2099

155

156 In agreement with the predictions for Switzerland, the scenarios for Gütsch weather station predict warmer and
157 dryer summers and slightly increased precipitation in autumn. The highest ΔT for the near future period is 1.5°C
158 in the mid-summer, 2.5°C in late spring, and below 1.0°C in early summer for the CNRM, ETHZ and SHMI
159 respectively and for the far future period is approximately 5°C in the mid-summer, 4°C along the whole summer
160 and 3°C in early summer respectively. The biggest temperature increase is predicted at the end of the century when
161 the strongest agreement between the different model chains is observed. Precipitation changes for the near future
162 period are within the natural variability apart from a clear trend in dryer summers. The trend of dryer summers is
163 most prominent for the far future period. Furthermore, most model chains predict slightly higher precipitation in
164 autumn. The average ΔP value for the near future period is 1.0 and for the far future period is 0.99. The climate
165 change data were also used in previous study for the same region by Kobierska et al. (2013) and for different sites
166 in the Alps (Bavay et al., 2013; Farinotti et al., 2012a).

167 **3.2.4 Runoff data**

168 Runoff of the Dammarreuss stream that drains the Damma glacier watershed was measured every half an hour at
169 a gaging station at the outlet of the watershed (Magnusson et al., 2011). The runoff of the total area that feeds the
170 Göschenalpsee is the input of the reservoir and the data from 1997–2010 were provided by the energy company
171 that is responsible for the management of the reservoir.

172 **3.2.5 Glacier extend**

173 Data on the glacier extent for the present period but also for the different climate change scenarios were provided
174 by Paul et al (2007). Paul et al (2007) estimated the evolution of the Swiss glaciers by using hypsographic
175 modelling, based on the shift of the equilibrium line altitude. However, SWAT is not a model that considers glacier
176 flow dynamics and therefore, in this study, the glaciers were incorporated in SWAT as the initial snow content in
177 each subbasin and for each elevation band. The initial snow is given as the equivalent depth of water in mm instead
178 of snow as the density of snow can be variable. For this reason, the calculation of the snow water equivalent was
179 conducted by considering an average density of ice.

180 **3.3 Model calibration**

181 SWAT was calibrated for the Damma watershed only, using the meteorological data from 2009 to 2011 and
182 validated with the data from 2012 to 2013. Data for the years 2007 and 2008 were used for the warm-up and the
183 stability of the model.

184

185 The first step of the calibration was the manual calibration. The manual calibration was followed by an automatic
186 calibration and uncertainty analysis using the SWAT-CUP software with the Sequential Uncertainty Fitting ver. 2
187 (SUFI-2) algorithm for inverse modelling (Abbaspour et al., 2007). Starting with some initial parameter values,
188 SUFI-2 is iterated until (i) the 95% prediction uncertainty (95PPU) between the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles
189 include more than 90% of the measured data and (ii) the average distance between the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles



190 is smaller than the standard deviation of the measured data. A model is considered calibrated when R^2 or other
191 chosen criteria between the best simulation and calibration data reaches the best value (Abbaspour et al., 2007).

192

193 The criteria used are the Nash-Sutcliffe (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) model efficiency (NS) and the square of
194 Pearson's product moment correlation is indicated with R^2 . The NS shows the relationship between the measured
195 and the simulated runoff (Eq. 1). R^2 (Eq. 2) represents the proportions of total variance of measured data that can
196 be explained by simulated data. Better model performance is considered when both criteria are close to 1. NS
197 coefficients greater than 0.75 are considered "good," whereas values between 0.75 and 0.36 as "satisfactory"
198 (Wang and Melesse, 2006).

199

$$200 \quad NS = 1 - \frac{\sum(y-\hat{y})^2}{\sum(y-\bar{y})^2}, \quad (1)$$

201

$$202 \quad R^2 = \left[\frac{\sum(y-\bar{y})(\hat{y}-\bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum(y-\bar{y})^2} \sqrt{\sum(\hat{y}-\bar{y})^2}} \right]^2, \quad (2)$$

203

204 Where y is the individual measured value, \hat{y} for the individual simulated value and \bar{y} the mean measured value.

205

206 After calibration, we applied SWAT for the greater area that feeds the Göschenalpsee, using the parameters that
207 resulted from the calibration of the model for Damma watershed. This means that in this case SWAT was set up
208 using the input data (DEM, soil, landuse and meteorological data) described above but was not recalibrated. The
209 parameters were adjusted according to the calibration of Damma watershed. Results of the model were then
210 compared to data of the input of the Göschenalpsee reservoir that were provided by the energy company that
211 manages the reservoir. We consider that this is a validation step that helps to assess the performance of the model
212 for an area with similar characteristics to that of the Damma watershed. This approach can prove to be useful in
213 cases where there is scarcity in meteorological data or upscaling of the model is needed.

214 **4 Results and Discussion**

215 **4.1 Model Calibration**

216 The most sensitive parameters during manual calibration are the ones related to snow melt such as: i) TIMP, which
217 is the parameter for the snow pack temperature lag factor, ii) SMFMX, the snow melt factor on the 21st of June
218 (mmH₂O / °C-day), iii) SMFMN, the snow melt factor on the 21st of December (mmH₂O / °C-day), CN_FROZ,
219 which was set to active in order for the model to consider the frozen soil and finally the snow fall and snow melt
220 temperature SFTMP and SMTMP respectively. Groundwater flow parameters such as the GW_DELAY, the
221 groundwater delay time, ALPHA_BF, the base flow alpha factor and the SURLAG, the surface runoff lag
222 coefficient, were also found to be sensitive.

223

224 TIMP was set to a very low value indicating that the glacier is not affected by the temperature of the previous day
225 as much as the snowpack would be. Snow and glacier melt in Damma watershed occurs from April to September
226 a fact that explains the low value of the SMFMN parameter (0.1 mmH₂O / °C-day), the minimum melt factor,
227 while the SMFMX is set to the value of 4.7 mmH₂O / °C-day. SURLAG and GW_DELAY play an important role



228 in the model performance as they control the melted snow routing process and the hydrologic response of the
229 watershed. Damma glacier watershed has a fast response and therefore SURLAG was set to the very low value of
230 0.001 while GW_DELAY to 0.5 days. SMTMP is also sensitive since it is the controlling factor for the
231 initialisation of the snow melt, considering the availability of snow for melting on a specific day. As a result,
232 model-generated peak runoff is significantly influenced by the variation in SMTMP. Finally, ALPHA_BF was set
233 to value 0.95, which is a typical value for a fast response watershed.

234

235 The automatic global sensitivity analysis was conducted with SWAT-CUP software and 17 input parameters were
236 analysed and are presented in Table 1. It revealed that the most sensitive parameters are the same as the ones
237 observed during manual calibration. More specific the most sensitive ones in descending order are TIMP,
238 GW_DELAY, SMTMP, SMFMX, ALPHA_BF and SURLAG with p values 0 for TIMP and very close to 0 for
239 the remaining parameters. The least sensitive parameters were left to their default value.

240

241 A comparison of the results of the model using the default model parameters and the observed values is presented
242 in Fig. 3(a), while the results of the calibrated model in comparison to the observed values are presented in Fig.
243 3(b). The hydrograph produced by the uncalibrated shows that runoff is significantly overestimated due to
244 excessive snow and glacier melt produced by the default parameters. Calibration improved considerably the fit of
245 the model to the observed data and the results of the calibrated model matched the observed data throughout most
246 of the year. The best fit was observed in April until June, when runoff is dominated by snowmelt. The graph of
247 the accumulative runoff (Fig. 3(c)) shows that runoff is slightly overestimated in July and August, when it is
248 dominated by glacier melt. Best results occur for the years 2009 and 2010. 2011 is characterised by unusually dry
249 September, October and November which resulted in low performance for the respective months and
250 underestimation of the runoff. Even so, model performance for the calibration period was very good, with Nash-
251 Sutcliffe efficiency of 0.84 and R^2 of 0.85 for daily runoff predictions.

252 **4.2 Model Validation**

253 The model was validated using two different approaches. For the first approach, we validated the model, using the
254 meteorological data for 2012 and 2013 and results are presented in Fig. 4(a). The accumulative graph in Fig. 4(b)
255 reveals that there is the same trend in the validation period as the one observed in the calibration period, with best
256 fit during spring and early summer while in July and August the estimated runoff is slightly lower. A small
257 exemption to that is in late spring of 2012, when estimated runoff is underestimated, probably due to the extremely
258 wet May in that year that cannot be efficiently simulated. Overall, model performance during validation is very
259 satisfactory and almost identical to that of calibration, with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency of 0.85 and R^2 of 0.86.
260 Therefore, the model is considered to be validated. The small seasonal differences in model performance are due
261 to the fact that runoff in spring and early summer, that is from May till June, originates mainly from snowmelt
262 while in July and August originates from glacier melt. Although there are two different water sources during the
263 two different periods, we can only assign one set of parameters. Nevertheless, differences are very small and
264 therefore, it is confirmed that SWAT can be successfully applied for a partly glacierised watershed.

265

266 The results of the model for the greater area that feeds the Göschenalpsee, are presented in Fig. 5(a). Model
267 performance criteria were lower in this validation step compared to the calibration period, but still indicated



268 satisfactory results. The efficiency of inflow predictions (NS) dropped to 0.49 and the R^2 to 0.72, which are
269 however satisfactory. The observed and predictive accumulative flow is presented in Fig. 5(b).

270

271 This successful validation approach shows that the model can be applied, without recalibration, for a greater area
272 with similar climatic conditions. This methodology can be an ideal way of model validation in studies that include
273 climate change scenarios, since it helps in assessing the uncertainties that occur due to climate change or evolution
274 of land use. It can also be useful in cases where there is scarcity of runoff data but good quality of GIS input data.
275 In conclusion, this was an exercise of upscaling the model and it can be used in numerous other studies.

276

277 Finally, SWAT results were compared with results from PREVAH and ALPINE3D models for the greater area
278 that feeds the Göschenalpsee, already published in Magnusson et al. (2011) and Kobierska et al. (2013) (Fig. 6).
279 PREVAH is a semi-distributed conceptual hydrological model suited for applications in mountainous regions
280 (Viviroli et al., 2009a; Viviroli et al., 2009b) while ALPINE3D is a fully-distributed energy-balance model
281 (Lehning et al., 2006). Both models performed very well, with NS efficiencies of 0.85 and 0.91 for ALPINE3D
282 and PREVAH respectively.

283

284 Figure 6 shows the average of the period 1981–2010 daily runoff for each model. It is observed that SWAT
285 overestimated the runoff of the snowmelt period, in May and June, while for the rest of the season its results are
286 close to the observed values and in agreement with the other two models. Considering the fact that SWAT was
287 applied for the Göschenalpsee and for 30 years without further calibration, its results are considered very
288 satisfactory. Its performance is comparable to that of PREVAH and ALPINE3D, however its advantage over the
289 other two models is that is a model widely used around the globe for different areas and projects, with easily
290 available input data. This makes it an ideal choice for water managers and policy makers. ALPINE3D and
291 PREVAH models have been used mainly in mountainous areas and have high requirements in meteorological data
292 and computational time.

293 **4.3 Results from climate change simulations**

294 The climate change scenarios were run for the greater area that feeds the Göschenalpsee. The following periods
295 were selected, in agreement with the duration of the reference period:

296 Reference period (T0): 1981–2010

297 Near future period (T1): 2021–2050

298 Far future period (T2): 2070–2099

299

300 The results of SWAT model are presented as the average runoff for each different scenario along the whole period
301 in Fig. 7(a) for the near and in Fig. 7(b) for the far future periods. The results show many similarities regarding
302 the seasonality of runoff for the three different scenarios for all the simulation periods.

303

304 During the reference period, which describes the current situation, runoff peaks in early July when snowmelt is
305 combined with glacier melt. For the near future period T1, the main difference is noted from July to September
306 when runoff is dominated by glacier melt. During this period, predicted runoff for all scenarios, and in particular
307 for the warmer ETHZ scenario, is lower than the reference period, indicating that the glacier melt cannot



308 compensate the decrease in the precipitation, estimated by the future climatic data. From September until the end
309 of the season, simulated stream flow of all scenarios is higher than the one of the reference period, which is
310 explained by the higher predicted precipitation during autumn. Moreover, the predicted prolonged warm period
311 leads to increased glacier melt and therefore higher runoff. The annual peak continues to be observed in early July,
312 since the glacier hasn't melted away yet providing a significant source of water through glacier melt.

313

314 For the far future period T2, runoff from spring to mid-June is predicted to be significantly higher for all three
315 scenarios than that of the reference period. This can be explained by considering that the warming climate leads
316 to faster rates of snow melt and increased runoff in snowmelt dominated period. In addition, higher precipitation
317 is predicted by the climatic data for this period. In 2070 the total volume of the Damma glacier is estimated to be
318 reduced to almost half, resulting in significant drop of the volume of water that comes from glacier melt between
319 July and late August. For this reason, and in combination with the significant decrease in precipitation predicted
320 by all scenarios for this period, the simulated runoff is lower than that of the reference. Finally, the snow free
321 period of the watershed is prolonged until December instead of September.

322

323 At the end of the far future period, the average temperature increase in our site will be 3.35°C and only a small
324 part of the Damma glacier will be left in high elevation. The peak of the highest runoff is significantly shifted and
325 is projected to be in the beginning of June. The main volume of runoff is expected to be observed in spring and
326 early summer while during the glacier melt period, streamflow is significantly lower than that of the reference
327 period. Overall the total water yield for the far future scenario is significantly decreased. These findings are of
328 great significance for water resources management.

329

330 In order to better observe the seasonal changes of estimated runoff, Fig. 8 shows the average runoff for a) May-
331 June, b) July-August and c) September-October for the T1 and T2 future periods divided by the average of the
332 reference period of the same months for all the three scenarios. In May and June, as mentioned above, runoff is
333 mainly dominated by snowmelt. The three climate change scenarios predict increased temperatures and higher
334 precipitation during May and June which result in faster snowmelt and therefore in the increased predicted runoff,
335 as observed in Fig. 8(a). The increase is higher in the far future period due to the higher temperatures. The only
336 exemption to that is the SHMI scenario for the near future period, since it is the colder scenario that predicts the
337 lowest temperature and precipitation changes. In July and August climate scenarios predict a significant decrease
338 in precipitation, which is also depicted in the predicted runoff. As seen in Fig. 8(b), predicted to reference runoff
339 ratio is considerably below one, especially in the far future period. The scenario that has the most drastic effect is
340 the ETHZ because it is the warmer scenario that predicts the highest increase in the temperature and decrease in
341 the precipitation. Finally, for September and October, results do not show a clear trend for the warmer ETHZ
342 scenario, however for the CNRM and SHMI scenarios, future runoff is lower than the reference. The big shifts in
343 the ratio especially in the far future period T2 can indicate the increase in extreme events.

344

345 The variability between the predictions of the three scenarios can be explained by the difference in the projection
346 of temperature and precipitation. The variability between the scenarios can be a measure of the magnitude of the
347 uncertainties associated with climate modelling (Kobierska et al., 2013).



348 **5 Conclusions**

349 This study showed that SWAT can be used efficiently for the hydrological modelling of the Damma glacier
350 watershed CZO and for the assessment of the effect of climate change on future runoff. The efficiency of the model
351 in this high alpine and partly glacierised watershed is comparable to that of models traditionally used to high
352 mountainous areas such as ALPINE3D and PREVAH.

353

354 One of the novelties of this study is that the model was validated by applying the calibrated version of the model
355 for a greater area that included Damma glacier watershed and for a longer meteorological record. The performance
356 of the model for this validation step was satisfactory. This approach helped us to assess the uncertainties related
357 to the hydrological model and to show that the model can perform well for an area with similar but not identical
358 land use and climate forcing. This conclusion was extremely valuable for the subsequent analysis of the impact of
359 climate change on the hydrology of the watershed. Furthermore, this methodology of upscaling SWAT can have
360 various other uses.

361

362 Climate change predictions showed that daily and total annual runoff will change significantly in the future
363 especially towards the end of the century. Daily runoff during spring and early summer, in May and June, is
364 predicted to increase because of faster snow melt and the predicted wetter springs. Projected runoff from July to
365 October for the far future period, when the major part of Damma glacier will have already disappeared, but also
366 for the near future, is significantly decreased. These results proved that SWAT shows sensitivity for the modelling
367 of glacier melt, which is crucial for the climate change assessment and therefore can be a useful tool for water
368 managers and policy makers.

369 **Author Contributions**

370 Maria Andrianaki applied SWAT model, analysed data and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all
371 co-authors. Juna Shrestha reviewed the manuscript and assisted in the modelling procedure. Florian Kobierska
372 provided meteorological and runoff data. Nikolaos P. Nikolaidis provided guidance for the research goals. Stefano
373 M. Bernasconi was the supervisor of the research project and provided the funding that lead to this publication.

374 **Competing interests**

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

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381 study.

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Parameter	Unit	Cal. Value	Default
SFTMP	°C	-0.5	1
SMTMP	°C	2.5	0.5
SMFMX	mmH ₂ O / °C-day	4.7	4.5
SMFMN	mmH ₂ O / °C-day	0.1	4.5
TIMP		0.011	1
SURLAG		0.001	4
CNCOEF		0.5	1
SNOCVMX	mm H ₂ O	500	1
SNO50COV	%	0.3	0.5
ALPHA_BF	days	0.95	0.048
GW_DELAY		0.5	31
GW_REVAP		0.02	0.02



LAT_TTIME		0.0001	0
CN2		35	Na
SLSOIL	m	5	Na
ESCO		1	0.95

SOL_AWC	mm H ₂ O/mm soil	0.05	Na
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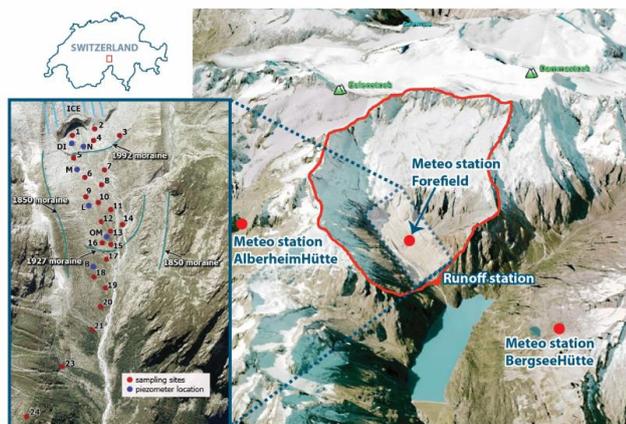
489 **Table 1: The default and calibrated values of the most sensitive during calibration SWAT parameters**

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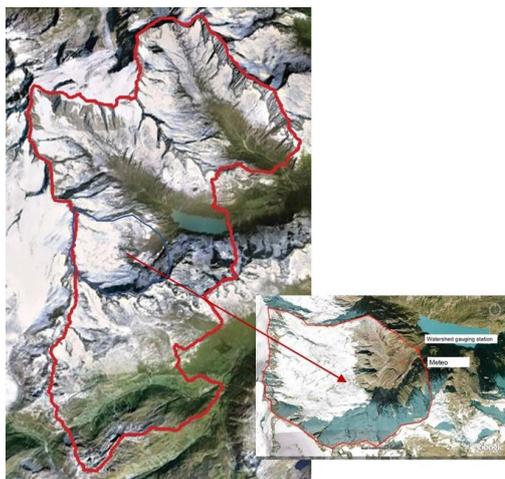
The Damma Glacier CZO



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494 **Figure 1: Map showing the Damma glacier CZO. The watershed of the Damma glacier is depicted by the red line.**

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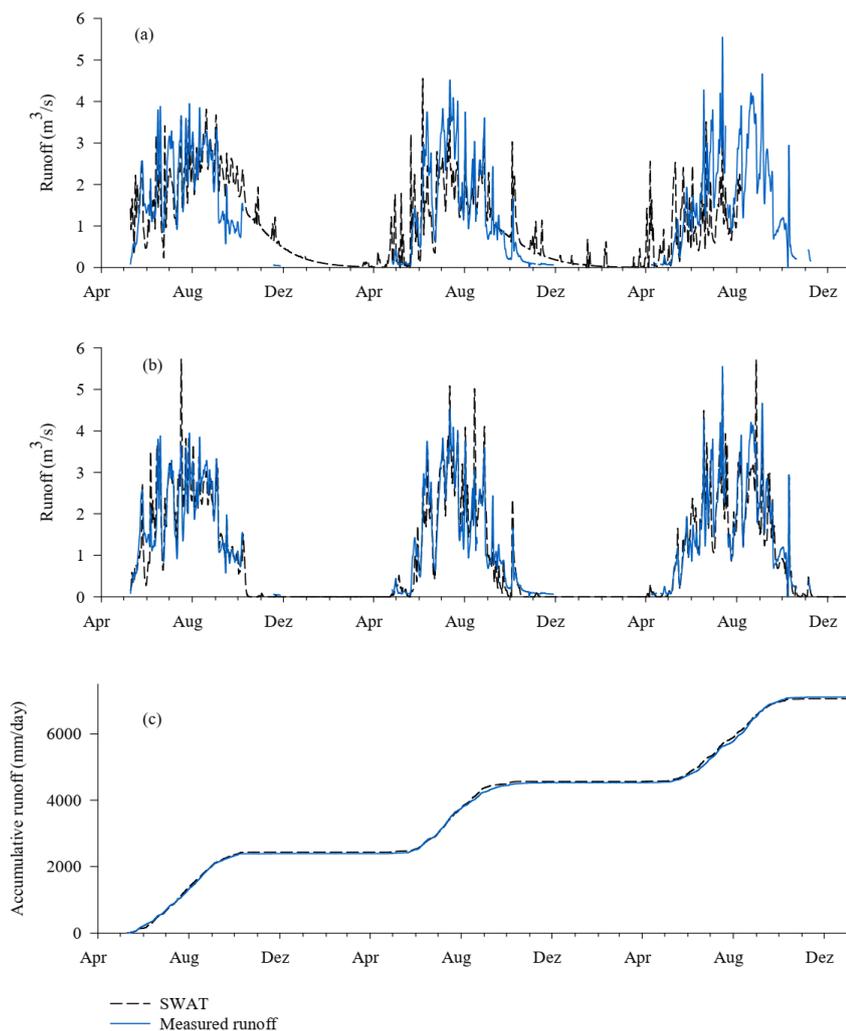
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Figure 2: Map showing the study area that feeds the Göschenalpsee and is depicted by the red line. Damma watershed is in the middle of the area and is shown with a blue line.

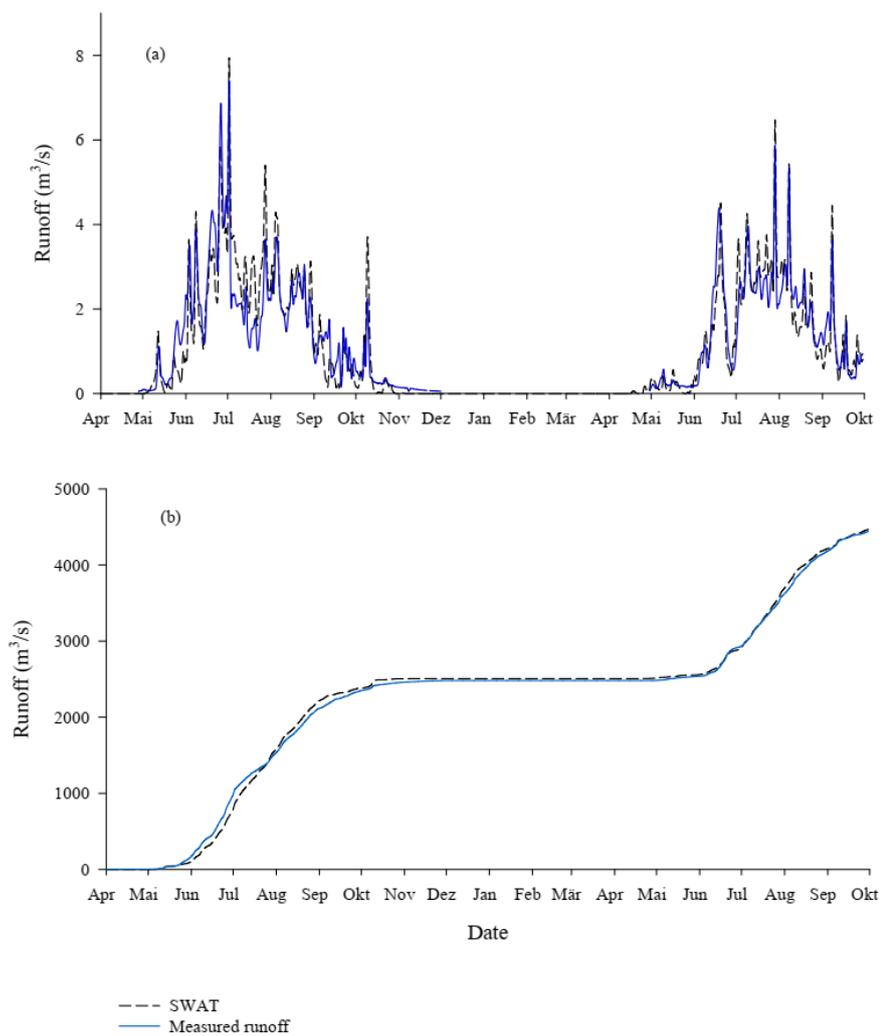
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501 **Figure 3: Results from the calibration of SWAT model in comparison to the measured runoff of Damma watershed (a)**
502 **before the calibration of the model and (b) after calibration. Graph (c) shows the simulated (after calibration) and**
503 **measured accumulative runoff over the calibration period.**

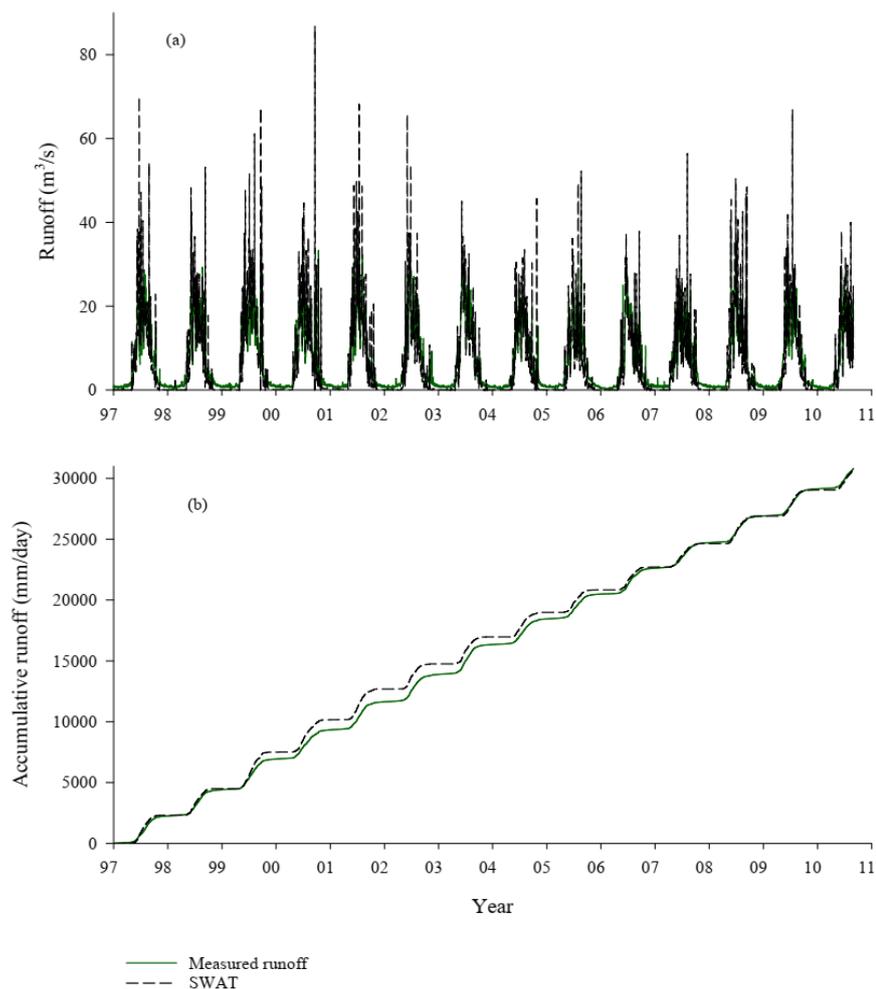
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506 **Figure 4: Results of the SWAT model compared to the measured runoff of the Damma watershed for the validation**
507 **period. Graphs in (b) show the accumulative runoff.**

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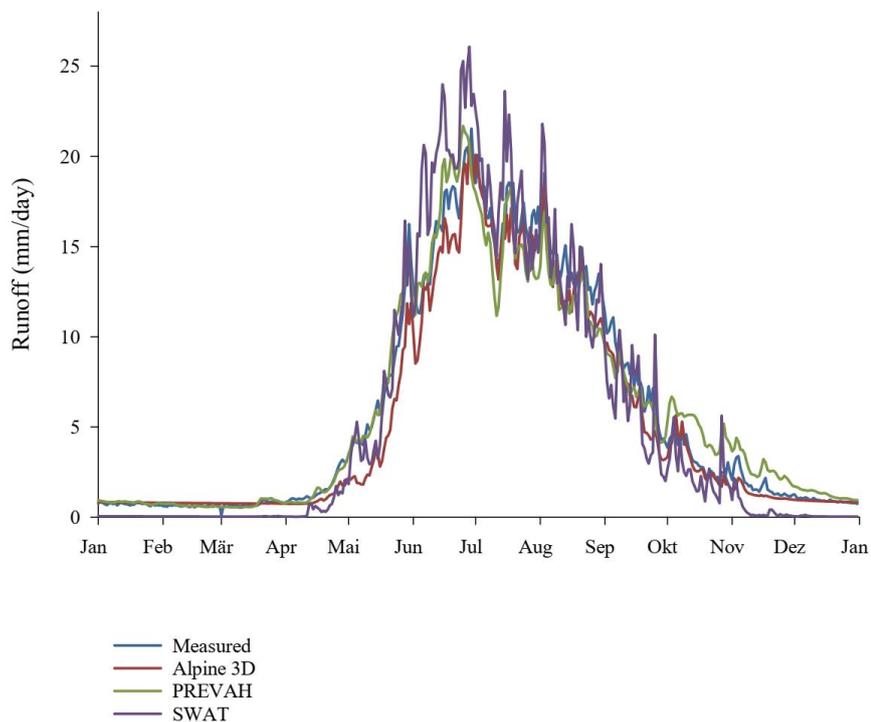
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Figure 5: SWAT results and measured runoff values of the feeding catchment of the Göschenalpsee for the period 1997-2010. Graphs in (b) show the accumulative runoff over this period.

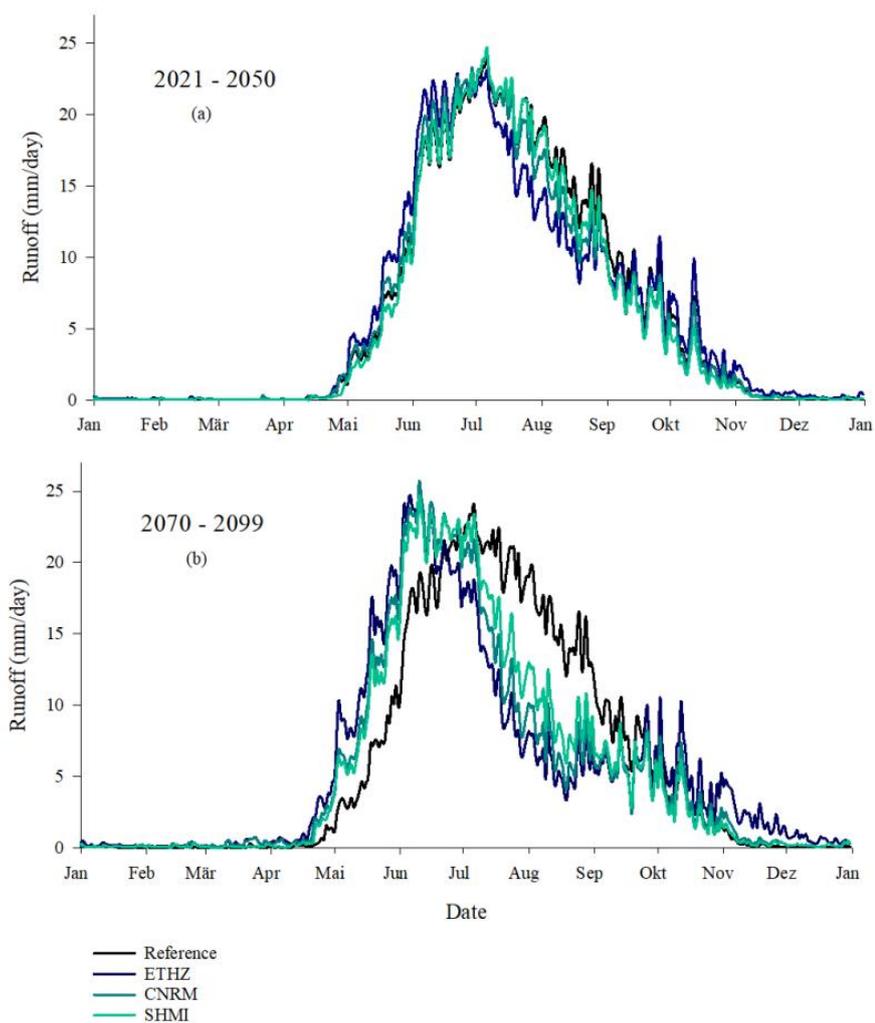
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514 **Figure 6: Comparison of SWAT with Alpine3D and PREVAH models and the measured runoff of the Göschenalpsee**
515 **feeding catchment for the 1997-2010 period.**

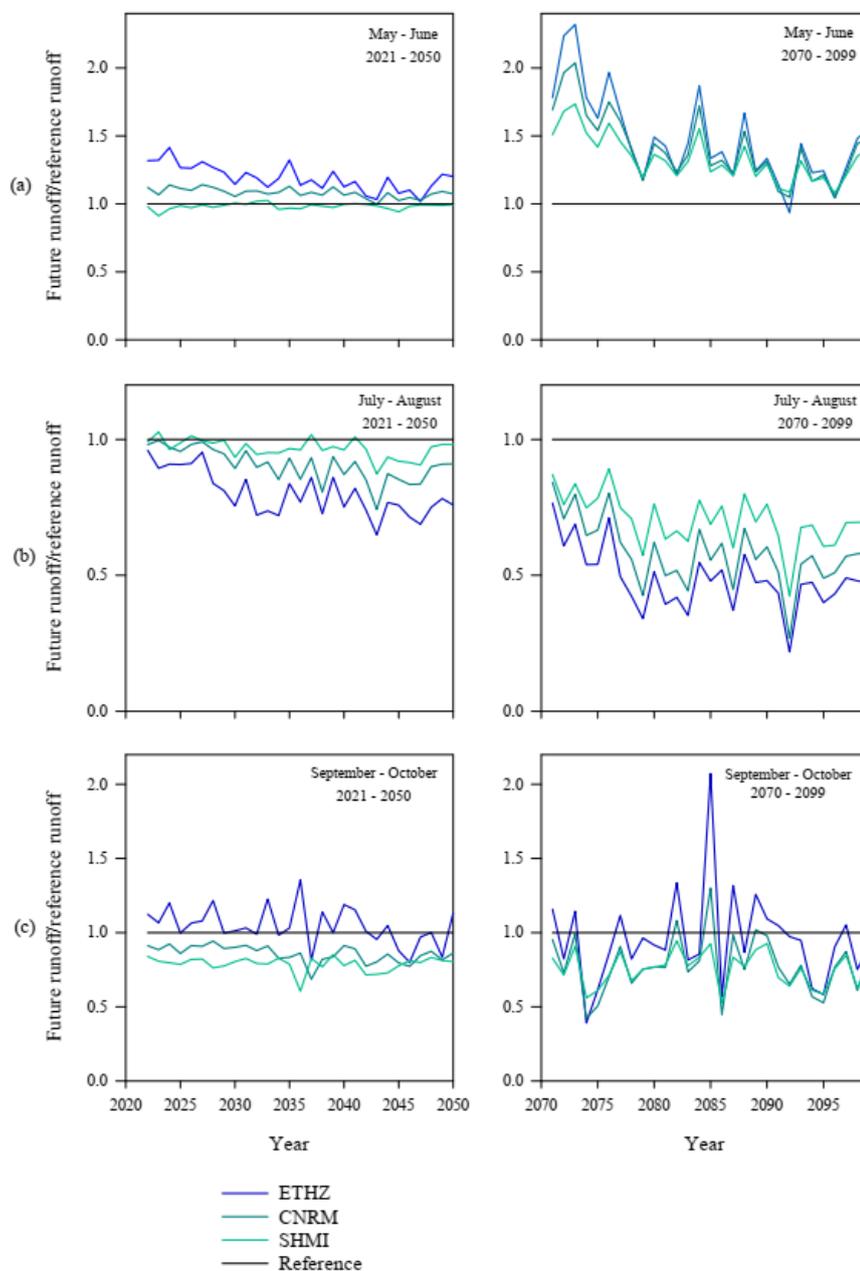
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518 **Figure 7: SWAT results of the three future scenarios for the reference and both future periods.**

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521 **Figure 8: Seasonal changes of future runoff for the reference and future periods for all the three future scenarios.**

522