

1 Abstract

2 The future sensitivity of the surface water supply of Québec City is assessed in this paper
3 using two methodologies: the methodology that has prevailed since the publication of the
4 AR4 report, the hydroclimatological modeling framework, and an alternative approach
5 adapted from Foulon et al. (2018). This alternative approach captures past relationships
6 between climate data indices (CDIs), such as cumulative rainfall, and hydrological data
7 indices (HDIs), such as 7-day low flows, and applies these relationships to assess future
8 trends. Future climates were built for two emission scenarios, RCP-4.5 and -8.5, and the
9 uncertainty of climate change was addressed through the use of 16 climate models. Overall,
10 both methodological frameworks predicted similar low flow trends for the reference and
11 future horizons (2016-2045 and 2046-2075). The future pressure on the surface water supply
12 of Québec City should raise concerns. Indeed, for RCP-8.5, results indicated a decrease in the
13 PI_I values (ratio of 2-year low flow to water abstraction rate) of around 20% (2016-2045) and
14 35% (2046-2075) with a fairly high confidence (around 90% of models agreeing on the
15 direction of change); leading to values less than 1; indicating an insufficient water supply with
16 respect to available water during 2-year low flows. These results demonstrate the capacity of
17 the method to provide a screening assessment of future drought-prone-watersheds.
18 Furthermore, the application of the alternative approach, given climate simulations, would
19 help early implementation of good management practices even for municipalities that do not
20 have the capacities to conduct the more conventional approach.

21 Keywords:

22 7-day low flow; drinking water supply; HYDROTEL; pressure on water resources; statistical
23 framework

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Rivers and lakes supply around 40% of Québec's population (MDDELCC 2016). According
26 to CEHQ (2015), summer Q_{2-7} and Q_{10-7} (annual minimum of 7-day flow with return periods
27 of two and ten years) are projected to decrease (ranked as highly probable) by 2050 for all
28 Southern Québec (between -10% to -45% RCP-4.5 and up to -50% for RCP-8.5), which is
29 home to 95% of the population (Institut de la statistique du Québec 2015). This obviously
30 would lead to local water stress conditions. In Québec, summers 2001, 2002, 2005, 2010 and
31 2012 have all been characterized by extremely low flows; leading to drinking water stresses
32 and, in one instance, requiring mandated excavation works on the Mille Îles River to maintain
33 flows above a specific threshold (25 m³/s) (COBAMIL 2014) to ensure adequate drinking
34 water supply (summer low flow reaching 11.8 m³/s in 2010). The Yamaska River water
35 supply system of St. Hyacinthe has had to deal with critical water availability problems one
36 year out of five (based on the 1971-2000 period). For the 2041-2070 time period, Côté et al.
37 (2013) indicated that in all likelihood it would be the case one year out of two. Given these
38 multiple problematic situations; current and historical sensitivities of recreational activities
39 and water supply to low flows (Bérubé 2007; Nantel 2006), and the projected downward
40 trends for low flows in Southern Québec (CEHQ 2015), there is a need to assess whether
41 these sensitivities will locally increase in the future.

42 Smakhtin (2001) demonstrated that a clear understanding of low flow hydrology can help
43 resource specialists manage, for example, municipal water supply, river navigation, and even
44 wildlife conservation. Since publication of the IPCC AR4 report (IPCC 2007), several impact
45 studies have been carried out throughout the world (Kundzewicz et al. 2007; Todd et al. 2011)
46 following a quasi-standard methodology (Blöschl and Montanari 2010; Todd et al. 2011), the
47 hydroclimatological modeling framework. This approach combines the use of a hydrological
48 model with bias-corrected output of climate simulations, but it remains challenging and

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49 cannot be readily applied by any water organization because of the required expertise and
50 underlying uncertainties. The latter uncertainties are associated with: (i) the existence of many
51 local optima (equifinality) arising during the calibration of a hydrological model (Beven
52 2006; Beven and Freer 2001), (ii) climate simulations, (iii) bias correction methods, (iv)
53 hydrological model structure (Dobler et al. 2012; Ehret et al. 2012; Teng et al. 2012), and (v)
54 challenges associated with modeling low flows (Smakhtin 2001; Staudinger et al. 2011).

55 Considering the aforementioned challenges, since water shortages are likely to occur in other
56 cities, towns, and villages throughout Quebec and elsewhere in the world, there is a need to
57 develop robust tools that do not require hydrological modeling and could be readily used by
58 any water utility organization. Foulon et al. (2018) proposed a statistical framework that
59 captures past relationships between climate data indices (CDIs), such as cumulative rainfall,
60 and hydrological data indices (HDIs), such as 7-day low flows, and applied the latter
61 relationships to assess future trends. This framework has the major benefit to bypass the
62 hydrological modeling step by assessing HDI trends from CDIs; limiting the required
63 expertise as well as underlying sources of uncertainty.

64 To the best of the authors' knowledge, no study has yet investigated the potential of directly
65 assessing sensitivities of future water supply given climate simulations. To fill this gap, this
66 paper builds on the methodology proposed by Foulon et al. (2018) to assess future summer
67 low flows and compare them with drinking water intakes. Furthermore, carrying out the same
68 exercise using the conventional hydroclimatological approach provides a mean to compare
69 results in terms of magnitudes, uncertainties and trends for different future horizons.

70 This paper is based on the case study of the surface water supply for the main drinking water
71 treatment plant of Québec City, Château d'Eau given climate simulations built for two
72 emission scenarios from representative concentration pathways (RCP-4.5 and -8.5).

73 2. Material & Methods

74 This section introduces the case study for which future water sensitivity to low flows is
75 assessed by computing future summer $7dQ_{min}$ (annual minimum of the 7 consecutive-day
76 average flow). Then, Québec main water treatment plant sensitivity to low flows is computed
77 as a pressure index (PI) derived from the Q_{2-7} .

78 2.1. Case study

79 Château d'Eau is Québec City's main water intake and provides drinking water to more than
80 237,000 people (Brodeur et al. 2012) out of the 350,000 living in the associated watershed.
81 The intake is 11 km downstream of Lake Saint-Charles and is supplied by the 360-km² St.
82 Charles watershed (see Fig. 1). At the intake, the mean flow is 1.7 m³/s, according to data
83 provided by Québec City for the period 2006-2017 at a 3-hour time step.

84 **Fig. 1 Location of the study watershed and the modeled subwatersheds in the province of Québec. Green, blue, yellow,**
85 **and red illustrate the Nelson, Des Hurons, Jaune and St. Charles subwatersheds, respectively**

86 Low flows play an important role for the Château d'Eau water intake. In 2003, enough water
87 was kept into the intake by dredging Lake Saint-Charles (Salou 2009). A year earlier and
88 again in 2010, an old pumping station from the nearby Jacques Cartier River had to be turned
89 back on to ensure enough water was available (Brodeur et al. 2012). The St. Charles River
90 minimum flows are regulated. They must be maintained above ecological minimum flow
91 limits of 0.6 m³/s at least. But, these conditions are not always met. In fact in 2012-2016,
92 recorded flows at the hydrometric station downstream of the water intake were smaller for
93 116 days (10.9% of regulated days) (Ouranos 2016). Given that the lowest flows occur during
94 the summer for the St. Charles River, this paper focused on the assessment of summer $7dQ_{min}$;
95 that is June to the end of November.

96 2.2. Climate simulations

97 To investigate the effect of global warming on low flows, 32 simulations from 16 different
98 GCMs, presented in Table 1, were used. These simulations were retrieved from the climate
99 ensemble (cQ)² produced by Ouranos from CMIP5 simulations for RCP-4.5 (Thomson et al.
100 2011) and RCP-8.5 (Riahi et al. 2011).

101 **Table 1 List of the selected Global Climate Models**

BCC-CSM1-1-m	CMCC-CMS	IPSL-CM5A-MR	MPI-ESM-LR
BCC-CSM1-1	GFDL-CM3	IPSL-CM5B-LR	MPI-ESM-MR
CanESM2	GFDL-ESM2G	INMCM4	MRI-CGCM3
CMCC-CM	GFDL-ESM2M	MIROC5	NorESM1-M

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103 Simulation data were corrected using the daily translation method (Mpelasoka and Chiew
104 2009). The temperature correction is additive while the correction for precipitation is
105 multiplicative. This post-processing method assumes the biases to be of equal magnitude in
106 the future and reference periods (Huard 2010). The reference period 1961-2000 and observed
107 precipitation data came from a 10-km grid covering southern Canada, that is south of 60°N
108 (Hutchinson et al. 2009), averaged on the GCM grid before application of the bias correction
109 methodology.

110 2.3. Hydroclimatological modeling: conventional approach

111 This conventional approach is based on the correction of climate simulations and the use of a
112 calibrated/validated hydrological model. The latter is then used to generate the series of future
113 summer $7_d Q_{\min}$ at the hydrometric station closest to the inlet of Château d'Eau.

114 2.3.1. The hydrological model HYDROTEL

115 HYDROTEL is a process-based, continuous, semi-distributed hydrological model (Fortin et
116 al. 2001; Turcotte et al. 2007; Turcotte et al. 2003) that is currently used for inflow

117 forecasting by Hydro-Quebec. It is based on the spatial segmentation of a watershed into
118 relatively homogeneous hydrological units (RHHUs, elementary subwatersheds or hillslopes
119 as desired) and interconnected river segments (RSs) draining the aforementioned units. The
120 model is composed of seven computational modules, which run in successive steps. Readers
121 are referred to Fortin et al. (2001) and Turcotte et al. (2007) for more details about
122 HYDROTEL.

123 Fig. 1 presents the subwatersheds that were modeled in HYDROTEL. The Jaune, Nelson, and
124 St. Charles supply the intake while the Des Hurons River discharges into Lake Saint-Charles.
125 Since the grey drainage area does not supply the drinking water intake, it was not modeled.
126 The watershed was divided into 1505 RHHUs (i.e., hillslopes) with mean areas of 36.8 ha and
127 668 river segments with mean lengths of 968 m (excluding lakes), defining four regions of
128 interest for parametrization. These regions were used to define local parameter sets of
129 consistent values for model calibration. The discretization provided a good representation of
130 the river network and of the spatial heterogeneity of the landcover while allowing for a
131 reasonable computational time. Four specific river segments and gauging stations (St. Charles
132 River + one per each tributary) introduced in Fig. 1 were selected for calibration and
133 validation.

134 2.3.2. *Calibration/validation and parameter sets generation*

135 As proposed by Foulon and Rousseau (2018), out of 18 key parameters for HYDROTEL, 12
136 were actually adjusted to account for knowledge built through prior uses of the model. The
137 remaining parameters were fixed according to: (i) a regionalization study (Turcotte et al.
138 2007), (ii) results from the application of a global calibration strategy (Ricard et al. 2013)
139 used in CEHQ (2015), and (iii) previous manual calibration exercises.

140 Calibration/validation were performed sequentially over five-year periods (not including a 1-
141 year spin-up period used to minimize initialization errors) according to available observed

142 climate data provided by CEHQ for the 1985-2016 period. First, the upstream subwatersheds
 143 (Nelson, Des Hurons, and Jaune) were calibrated/validated, then the St. Charles subwatershed
 144 using the calibrated flows of the upstream watersheds as inflows. Later on in this paper, this
 145 sequential exercise is referred to as one (1) calibration. The calibration/validation periods
 146 extended over hydrological years defined from November 1st to October 31st of the following
 147 calendar year.

148 HYDROTEL was calibrated automatically using a global optimization algorithm,
 149 dynamically dimensioned search (DDS) developed by Tolson and Shoemaker (2007). It
 150 allows systematic impartial and calibration based on the maximization of the Nash-log-7-day
 151 objective function (OF or pseudolikelihood function in statistical terms), which is the Nash-
 152 Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) calculated on log transformed 7-consecutive-day average flows as
 153 follows:

$$154 \quad \text{Nash-log} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T (\log Q_m^t - \log Q_o^t)^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T (\log Q_o^t - \overline{\log Q_o})^2} \quad \text{Eq 1}$$

155 where Q_o^t is the 7-day mean of observed flows a time t (using the 7 days prior to time t), Q_m^t is
 156 the 7-day mean of modeled flow at time t , and $\overline{\log Q_o}$ is the 7-day observed flow. $\overline{\quad}$ stands for
 157 average over the whole series.

158 DDS was executed following the guidelines and implementation steps provided in Tolson and
 159 Shoemaker (2008) to quantify prediction uncertainty resulting from the acceptance of the
 160 equifinality concept. Readers are referred to Online Resource 1 to get the details of the
 161 calibration procedure used to generate the equifinal sets of parameters (behavioral).

162 2.3.3. Computation of the hydrological data indices - HDIs

163 Once calibrated, HYDROTEL was used to generate future summer $7_d Q_{\min}$ for each of the 32
 164 selected climate simulations, with the different equifinal sets of parameters computed during
 165 the calibration process. Precipitation and minimum and maximum temperatures came from

166 the climate simulations. They were computed using an average of the nearest three neighbors
167 routine to compute values for each RHHU. To further characterize the capacity of
168 HYDROTEL to simulate flows inducing the observed $7dQ_{min}$, the latter were plotted against
169 $7dQ_{min}$ series calculated using the calibration/validation dataset as well as the equifinal sets of
170 parameters. This allowed for the characterization of a possible bias in the modeled $7dQ_{min}$. As
171 this paper focuses on the assessment of future ranges of $7dQ_{min}$, and not prediction of annual
172 values, this bias was then corrected, only for the median $7dQ_{min}$ to match between modeled
173 and observed values and not to correct the whole distribution as is done for the climate
174 simulations with quantile-quantile mapping techniques (subsection 2.2).

175 **2.4. Statistical framework: alternative approach**

176 *2.4.1. Setting of the methodology*

177 This alternative approach allows for the assessment of HDIs directly from CDIs following the
178 methodology introduced in Foulon et al. (2018). It was applied to assess future summer $7dQ_{min}$
179 at the station closest to the inlet of Château d'Eau. Observed hydrometric and climate data for
180 the period 2001-2015, which is then later referred to as the reference period, were used to
181 compute the series of observed summer $7dQ_{min}$ and CDIs. Correlations were computed
182 between the observed CDIs and $7dQ_{min}$ to capture their statistical relationship. For the future
183 period, the 32 selected climate simulations were used to compute the distributions of future
184 CDIs that were in turn used to assess the distribution of future $7dQ_{min}$ given the statistical
185 relationship derived from observed values.

186 This methodology is based on stationarity assumptions with respect to landcover, and derived
187 statistical relationships between CDIs and HDIs. The same assumption is used for the
188 conventional approach with respect to the calibration parameter values. These are discussed
189 later on in this paper.

190 2.4.2. *Climate data indices*

191 Table 2 introduces the CDIs used in this study. They are divided into three categories with
 192 respect to the type of input data needed for their computation, that is CDIs computed from: (i)
 193 precipitation data, (ii) blended data (both precipitation and temperature), and (iii) drought
 194 indices formulas. Other CDIs could be included if other HDIs were to be studied, illustrating
 195 the flexibility of the methodology. Readers are referred to Foulon et al. (2018) for more
 196 details.

197 **Table 2 Overview of the CDI groups used**

	Precipitation data	Blended data	Drought Indices
		3. PET	8. EDI (Byun and Wilhite 1999)
		4. Climatic demand (R-PET)	9. EDI computed from rainfall and snowmelt
		5. Snowmelt	10. EDI computed from climatic demand
<i>CDI 1-11</i>	1. Cumulative rainfall	6. Snowmelt and rainfall	11. EDI computed from rainfall and snowmelt minus PET
	2. Cumulative snowfall	7. Snowmelt and rainfall minus PET	

198 *R* stands for rainfall, *PET* for potential evapotranspiration, *EDI* for effective drought index.

199 The CDIs introduced in Table 2 were computed over one to six days, one to three weeks, one
 200 to six months, and for eight, ten and twelve months. They were then used to compute the
 201 Pearson correlations r with observed 7_dQ_{min} over the reference period. To further characterize
 202 the capacity of the CDIs to assess future 7_dQ_{min} from modeled meteorological data, Pearson
 203 correlations r between with the modeled CDIs and 7_dQ_{min} were computed and compared to the
 204 observed correlations through a Wilcoxon rank-sum test (Mann and Whitney 1947).

205 Once the CDI that best reproduces observed 7_dQ_{min} , in terms of explained variability, is
 206 identified, a linear regression is computed in order to assess future 7_dQ_{min} from modeled
 207 meteorological data. The alternative method is not intended as a replacement for the
 208 conventional approach, but rather as a simpler, less technically intensive method. The
 209 regression is not used to predict future 7_dQ_{min} values, but rather assess future ranges of 7_dQ_{min} .
 210 As such, future ranges are associated with their confidence bounds computed from mean
 211 distributions and not from prediction bounds computed for the prediction of single values.

212 **2.5. Evaluation of source water supply sensitivity to low flows**

213 Future water supply sensitivity to low flows is evaluated through the computation of a
214 pressure index. Pressure on the resource is higher when daily water abstraction is close to low
215 flows and is evaluated using the following index:

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$$PI_1 = \frac{Q_{2-7}}{A} \tag{Eq 2}$$

217 where A is the summer daily mean water abstraction (m^3/s), PI_1 stands for pressure index
218 one.

219 This pressure index is used by the Quebec Government to assess whether water can be
220 abstracted from a specific source and used as well by Bérubé (2007); Nantel (2006) to
221 evaluate historical pressure on surface water resources across Québec.

222 To avoid adding another source of uncertainty to the modeling chain used in this paper,
223 probability distributions were not used to fit the series of $7dQ_{min}$. Instead, Q_{2-7} was obtained for
224 the periods 2016-2045 (referred to as horizon 2030) and 2046-2075 (horizon 2060) from the
225 flows empirical cumulative frequencies computed from the probability function introduced by
226 Cunnane (1978):

227
$$P = \frac{(r - 0.4)}{(N + 0.4)} \tag{Eq 3}$$

228 where r and N stand for the rank and the number of observations, respectively.

230 **3. Results**

231 **3.1. Hydrological modeling and behavioral models**

232 This subsection ascertains the capacity of HYDROTEL to assess future summer $7dQ_{min}$.
233 Presentation of climate data characteristics is beyond the scope of this paper; they can be
234 found in Online Resource 1.

235 *3.1.1. Parameter equifinality*

236 Following the automatic calibration and parameter sets generation methodology introduced in
237 subsection 2.3.2, estimates of the pseudolikelihood function for each subwatershed were
238 established – 0.800, 0.850, 0.746 and 0.785 for Des Hurons, Nelson, Jaune, and St. Charles,
239 respectively. 16 optimization trials lead to the identification of behavioral solutions. This
240 number was deemed sufficient on account of: (i) the range covered by the 16 behavioral sets
241 of parameters introduced in Online Resources 2 and (ii) the ensuing calibration/validation
242 results (Table 3).

243 *3.1.2. Calibration and validation results*

244 Model performances for calibration and validation periods are given in Table 3. For each river
245 segment, according to the hydrologic model performance rating of Moriasi et al. (2007), all
246 results, but for the validation of Jaune River, provided a “very good fit” ($OF > 0.75$). Nash-log-
247 7-day values belong to ranges narrower than 0.03 and 0.04 for calibration and validation,
248 respectively. Performances exhibited a maximum difference of 3% between calibration and
249 validation. Moreover, the validation performances sometimes increased in comparison with
250 calibration values; Des Hurons validation performances were even a median 2% better than
251 those of the calibration period (negative median performance loss in Table 3). These results
252 vouch for the quality of the identified behavioral solutions as highlighted in Beven (2006).

253 **Table 3 Median model performances [min – max] for the calibration and validation periods**

River segment	Calibration period	Nash-log-7-day	Validation period	Nash-log-7-day	Performance loss (median)
Des Hurons	2012-2016	0.810 [0.801 – 0.825]	2007-2011	0.826 [0.804 – 0.832]	-2%
Jaune	1990-1994	0.750 [0.747 – 0.752]	1985-1989	0.735 [0.722 – 0.749]	2%
Nelson	2012-2016	0.855 [0.851 – 0.858]	2007-2011	0.830 [0.813 – 0.840]	3%
St. Charles	2012-2016	0.790 [0.786 – 0.796]	2007-2011	0.764 [0.743 – 0.783]	3%
			2002-2006	0.787 [0.781 – 0.795]	1%

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255 *3.1.3. Duplication of the observed HDIs*

256 The capacity of HYDROTEL to correctly reproduce low flows for the St. Charles gauging
 257 station (Fig. 1) was assessed. Fig. 2 introduces boxplots computed using the 16 different
 258 behavioral models. It shows that the distributions of modeled 7_dQ_{min} over 2002-2016
 259 (calibration and validation periods) represent fairly well the observed values. Indeed, out of
 260 the 15 years, the modeled distribution covered the observed values (taking into account their
 261 inherent error due to the standard deviation of the average flows on 7 days) for 12 years out of
 262 15; that is 80% of the observed values. In details, modeled 7_dQ_{min} for years 2007 and 2008
 263 overpassed observed values with a median ratio of 0.8 and 0.35, respectively. For the year
 264 2009, modeled 7_dQ_{min} were smaller than observed values with a median ratio of 0.7. It is also
 265 interesting to note that interannual tendencies (whether the observed values increase from one
 266 year to the next) are mostly replicated. Indeed, apart from the transition from 2006 to 2007,
 267 2009 to 2010 and 2013-2014, interannual evolutions of observed values were reproduced by
 268 the computed distributions. Last, the positive bias (23%) exhibited by the modeled
 269 distributions over the observed values were corrected as defined in subsection 2.3.3

270 **Fig. 2** Boxplot of the HDIs computed using 16 sets of parameter values for the St. Charles River watershed during the
 271 calibration/validation period. Blue dots stand for the HDI computed from observed data while triangles represent the
 272 error associated with observed values

273 **3.2. Statistical framework: alternative approach**

274 To ascertain that observed correlations (Table 4) between CDIs and HDIs were reproduced by
 275 models, they were computed for each of the input categories (Table 2) as median of the 32
 276 climate simulations. For blended data CDIs, observed correlations were as high as 0.82 for the
 277 cumulative R-PET over 2 months. All observed correlations were reproduced by modeled
 278 CDIs. Indeed, the Wilcoxon rank-sum test was not passed by any reference/modeled
 279 correlation, thus stating, at the 5% significance level, that median modeled and observed
 280 correlations were not different.

281 **Table 4** Pearson correlations r and median Pearson correlations between observed summer 7_dQ_{min} and CDIs computed
 282 from observed and modeled meteorological data, respectively

Input Variable Category	CDI	Reference: 2001-2015	Modeled: 2001-2015
<i>Precipitation data</i>	1. Cumulative rainfall 8 months	0.62	0.66
	2. Cumulative rainfall 10 months	0.61	0.62
<i>Blended data</i>	4. R-PET 2 months	0.82	0.87
	5. R-PET 3 months	0.75	0.81
Drought Indices	6. EDI from climatic demand 8 months	0.68	0.71
	7. EDI from climatic demand 10 months	0.70	0.71

283 *The Wilcoxon rank-sum test failed to provide evidence (at the 5% significance level) that median modeled and*
 284 *observed correlations were different*

285 Given the results introduced in Table 4, the CDI R-PET over 2 months was used to compute a
 286 linear regression with the observed 7_dQ_{min} . Fig. 3 shows that all observed 7_dQ_{min} were
 287 reproduced by the linear regression, but for two values that correspond to years 2007 and
 288 2009, as for the duplication of the observed HDI within the conventional approach. It is
 289 noteworthy the regression was carried out under the constraint of being positive to comply
 290 with the physical reality of non-negative flows.

291 **Fig. 3 Linear regression between the observed $7dQ_{min}$ and the cumulative R-PET over 2 months. Triangles represent**
292 **the error associated with observed values. Confidence bounds are presentes at 95%**

3.3. Conventional and alternative approaches

294 This subsection now focuses on the evolutions between the reference period and future
295 horizons before evaluating the sensitivity of the surface water supply to low flows in terms of
296 Q_{2-7} , Q_{10-7} and derived pressure indices.

3.3.1. Low flow evolutions from reference to future horizons 2030 and 2060

297 Fig. 4 shows that modeled $7dQ_{min}$, for both approaches, were not statistically different ($p < 0.05$
298 for Wilcoxon tests) from observed values nor from one another for RCP-4.5 and RCP-8.5,
299 which is not surprising given that $7dQ_{min}$ issued from the conventional approach were bias
300 corrected for each climate simulation as introduced in subsection 2.3.3. Both the conventional
301 and alternative approaches assess a significant decrease in median $7dQ_{min}$ from the reference
302 period to the future horizons 2030 and 2060 ($p < 3.10^{-4}$). Although there was a significant
303 difference ($p < 0.03$) between the modeled medians of each approach for both RCPs and both
304 future horizons, these differences are relatively small (the maximum difference was 0.18
305 between approaches in 2016-2045 for RCP-4.5) compared to the whole boxplot range or even
306 to the interquartile range that arose from interannual variability. Last, with the exception of
307 the conventional approach in 2016-2045, the two approaches computed significant differences
308 ($p < 2.10^{-3}$) between similar horizons for RCP-4.5 and RCP-8.5.

310 **Fig. 4 Boxplots of the $7dQ_{min}$ computed for the reference period (2001-2015), and two future periods (2016-2045 and**
311 **2046-2075) from observed flow data (pink), the conventional approach (black), and the alternative approach (cyan)**
312 **for RCP-4.5 and RCP-8.5**

313 Interannual variabilities are depicted by boxplot ranges. Despite being able to reproduce the
314 median obtained from the conventional approach, the alternative approach did not replicate
315 well this interannual variability. This can be seen as the inherent limit to the use of a
316 regression model that is, by definition, computed to best reproduce the mean relationship
317 between variables.

318 *3.3.2. Equifinality and confidence intervals*

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2 319 Fig. 5 introduces the future $7dQ_{min}$ medians assessed using the conventional and alternative
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4 320 approaches for RCP-4.5 and RCP-8.5. Magenta, black and cyan shaded areas were computed
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7 321 to cover the observational uncertainty, equifinality, and confidence intervals of the regression
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9 322 coefficients, respectively. Observational uncertainty was comparable to that of the regression
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11 323 while uncertainty arising from equifinality was much smaller for all the study period and both
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14 324 RCPs. As was the case for the previous subsection, evolutions of the $7dQ_{min}$ under RCP-4.5
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16 325 and RCP-8.5 were similar for both approaches. Indeed, the evolution trajectory and bounds
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19 326 predicted by the conventional approach were almost entirely included within the bounds of
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21 327 the alternative approach (except in 2016-2045 for RCP-4.5). Last, both trajectories, even that
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24 328 computed from extreme lines for the alternative approach, indicate a significant decrease in
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26 329 five-year $7dQ_{min}$ medians ($p < 0.01$ for Mann-Kendall tests).
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29 330 **Fig. 5 Median future $7dQ_{min}$ assessed using the conventional (black) and alternative (cyan) approaches for RCP-4.5**
30 331 **and RCP-8.5**

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33 332 *3.3.3. Sensitivity to low flows of the surface water supply*

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35 333 This subsection provides a framework to summarize the results for both approaches in terms
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37 334 of the future sensitivity to low flows of the surface water supply of Château d'Eau. $7dQ_{min}$
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39 335 series were transformed into hydrological data indices associated with a return period (Table
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337 **Table 5 Median pressure index under current climate conditions (Reference period – 2001-2015) and change (%)**
 338 **under future climate conditions (horizons 2030 and 2060)**

		RCP-4.5		RCP-8.5	
		Conventional	Alternative	Conventional	Alternative
		PI_I	PI_I	PI_I	PI_I
<i>Ref</i>		1.19	1.19	1.19	1.19
2016-2045	<i>Change (%)</i>	-20%	-1%	-22%	-19%
	<i>Pos. changes</i>	4	7	4	3
	<i>Neg. changes</i>	12	9	12	13
2046-2075	<i>Change (%)</i>	-37%	-12%	-38%	-33%
	<i>Pos. changes</i>	4	3	2	2
	<i>Neg. changes</i>	12	13	14	14

339
 340 Conventional as well as alternative approaches predict decreasing PI_I for both RCPs and
 341 future horizons. This result emerged from Fig. 4 and is quantified in Table 5. With respect to
 342 the reference period, PI_I decreased, for RCP-4.5, medians of 20% (horizon 2030) and 37%
 343 (horizon 2060), and medians of 1% (horizon 2030) and 12% (horizon 2060) for the
 344 conventional and alternative approaches, respectively. Similarly, PI_I decreased, for RCP-8.5,
 345 medians of 22% and 38%, and medians of 19% and 33% for the conventional and alternative
 346 approaches, respectively. Differences in these assessed changes are quite high for RCP-4.5
 347 especially. But mean changes (computed from the individual PI_I assessed for each climate
 348 model) were closer with mean decreases of 9 and 23%, and 0 and 16% for the conventional
 349 and alternative approaches, respectively.

350 To avoid masking differences between models by aggregating results into a median change,
 351 the number of models conveying positive or negative changes was also provided. It shows
 352 that overall the two approaches are consistent in terms of relative agreement with respect to
 353 the direction of change. But, for RCP-4.5, for the horizon 2030, four (4) models assessed a
 354 positive change, 12 a negative change, against seven (7) for a positive change, nine (9) for a
 355 negative change, for the conventional and alternative approaches, respectively.

356 **4. Discussion**

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4 357 The following sections deal with: (i) the main assumptions made throughout the paper, (ii) the
5
6 358 relevance of the alternative methodology in comparison with the conventional approach, and
7
8 359 (iii) the inherent limit associated with a regression model.

12 360 **4.1. The issue of non-stationarity**

13
14 361 Non-stationarity is an inherent issue of the conventional approach with respect to climate and
15
16 362 landcover evolutions; while stationarity is an inherent issue of the alternative approach in
17
18
19 363 terms of the captured statistical relationships. In this paper, meteorological data were the only
20
21 364 varying characteristic of the modeling set up. We assumed that non-stationarity with respect
22
23
24 365 to climate should not impact model parameters considering that: (i) only one calibrated
25
26 366 parameter – that related to evapotranspiration – was linked to variation in meteorological data
27
28
29 367 and (ii) relatively similar ranges of mean annual/seasonal temperature and precipitation were
30
31 368 found for both the calibration/validation period and the future period. Also, the consideration
32
33
34 369 of equifinality showed that similar performances could be achieved (interval width lower than
35
36 370 0.03, even in validation) with very different sets of parameter values (Online Resource 2)
37
38
39 371 despite the careful consideration given to the number of calibration parameters. With respect
40
41 372 to landcover, defining future scenarios that would allow accounting for changes through time
42
43 373 was beyond the scope of this paper. Nonetheless, as showed by Blanchette et al. (2018), over
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45
46 374 the St. Charles River watershed, the evaluation of the impact of landcover modifications
47
48 375 between 1978 and 2014 can be carried out with the same sets of parameter values without
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51 376 impeding the low flows calibration results. That is why in this paper we deemed appropriate
52
53 377 not to consider non-stationarity related to landcover. As a supplementary precaution the
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55
56 378 reference period was limited to 2001-2015 during which the distribution of landcover did not
57
58 379 change much (Blanchette et al. 2018).

380 4.2. Conventional and alternative approaches

1
2 381 Median results of the conventional and alternative approaches are similar (section 3.3.1).
3

4 382 What is also apparent is the relative inability of the alternative approach to capture interannual
5
6
7 383 variabilities. That being said, for both RCPs, the conventional and alternative approaches
8
9 384 modeled an increase in interannual variabilities from the reference period to the horizon 2030
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11 385 and a decrease from the latter horizon to horizon 2060. These changes in interannual
12
13 386 variabilities are much higher than median changes and are valuable to water managers: at this
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15 387 temporal scale (30-year horizons), interannual variations, pertaining to the chaotic nature of
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17 388 climate, are overriding the CC (climate change) signal.
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22 389 Results obtained for 5-year periods demonstrate other similarities between the two approaches
23
24 390 (section 3.3.2). Indeed median trajectories assessed using both methods indicate a significant
25
26 391 linear decrease in $7dQ_{min}$ medians, showing that overall the CC signal is still apparent and that
27
28 392 water managers should plan for this decrease accordingly. For both approaches, this is even
29
30 393 more apparent for RCP-8.5, because RCP-4.5 exhibits two rather important hiccups. We
31
32 394 remind the readers that RCP-4.5 and -8.5 are the “optimistic” and “business as usual”
33
34 395 scenarios associated with concentration pathways twice and four times their current levels for
35
36 396 the 2100 horizon (IPCC 2014), respectively. Expected impacts in terms of $7dQ_{min}$ seem rather
37
38 397 ineluctable for horizon 2030 given the small differences between RCPs. Differences become
39
40 398 more significant further into the future. Nonetheless, Fig. 5 also depicts a major divergence
41
42 399 with respect to confidence bounds associated with both methods. Indeed, the conventional
43
44 400 approach confidence bounds are smaller than those of the alternative approach. Including
45
46 401 hypothetical measurement errors within the former (as the standard deviation of the averaged
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48 402 flows on 7 days) would render the confidence bounds comparable as demonstrated in Online
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50 403 Resources 3. Moreover, uncertainty related to the structure of hydrological models would
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52 404 probably expand the bounds of the conventional approach. Yet, as the objective of this paper
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405 and of the methodology introduced by Foulon et al. (2018) was to bypass the hydrological
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2 406 modeling, it was deemed inappropriate to use a second hydrological model.
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5 407 Finally, for all future horizons, whether we consider the alternative approach or the
6
7 408 conventional approach (Table 5), results obtained for RCP-8.5 are rather worrying. Indeed,
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9
10 409 they indicate a decrease of around 20% (2016-2045) and 35% (2046-2075) with a fairly high
11
12 410 confidence (around 90% of models agreeing on the direction of change) for PI_1 . This would
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15 411 lead in both cases to PI_1 being less than 1, indicating an insufficient water supply with respect
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17 412 to available water during 2-year low flows. This result, not taking into account the possible
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20 413 increase in future water demand, should mandate the planning of alternative water supply
21
22 414 solutions to relieve this anticipated stress on future water supply from Château d'Eau.
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25 415 **4.3. Linear regression, how to assess extreme quantiles evolution?**

26
27 416 In addition to the Q_{2-7} , the MDDELCC uses the Q_{10-7} , to evaluate the exceedance of water
28
29
30 417 quality criteria in case of pollutant discharges (MDDEP 2007). From this HDI, a second
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33 418 pressure index (PI_2) could be computed, replacing $Q_{2,7}$ by $Q_{10,7}$ in Equation (2) (section 2.5).
34
35 419 But, as the $Q_{10,7}$ is associated with a non-exceedance probability of 0.1, this would mean
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37
38 420 assessing future PI_2 from the highest 10% values of the linear regression; that is 1 or two data
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40 421 points. On top of that, by definition, a regression model is meant to reproduce the mean
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43 422 relationship between variables. That is why PI_2 , for this case study, was not computed for the
44
45 423 alternative approach, but only for the conventional approach. PI_2 was 1.05 for the reference
46
47
48 424 period. For RCP-4.5, with respect to the reference period, PI_2 decreases with a median of 10%
49
50 425 (seven (7) models assessing a positive change against nine (9) for a negative change), and
51
52 426 24% (five (5) models assessing a positive change against eleven (11) for a negative change)
53
54
55 427 for 2016-2045 and 2046-2075, respectively. Similarly, for RCP-8.5, PI_2 decreases with a
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57 428 median of 7% (5 positive against 11 negative assessments) and 24% (5 positive against 11
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60 429 negative assessments).
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430 This type of results could be obtained using linear regression if more data were available
431 during the reference period. Besides, quantile regression (QR,(Koenker 2005)) would be an
432 interesting method to test in the context of providing alternative approaches to the
433 hydroclimatological methodology. The difference between QR and regression is that QR can
434 estimate different regression lines with respect to the different quantiles. This allows
435 capturing the complexity of statistical relationships between two variables beyond the mean.
436 It would allow, for basins from the Reference Hydrometric Basin Network (RHBN,
437 (Environnement Canada 2012)) for example, assessing separately the effects of CDIs on
438 7_dQ_{min} with different return periods.

439 **5. Conclusion**

440 In this paper, two approaches were applied to the case study of the Château d'Eau surface
441 water supply of Québec City during summer low flows (June to November). The conventional
442 approach is the quasi standard methodology used since publication of the IPCC AR4 report.
443 The alternative approach does not require hydrological modeling and can thus be applied by
444 any water organization because of the limited required expertise. Future climate was built for
445 two emission scenarios RCP-4.5 and -8.5, and uncertainty of the climate change (CC) signal
446 was addressed through the use of 16 climate models.

447 Overall, the low flow evolutions assessed from reference to future horizons (2016-2045 and
448 2046-2075) were very similar for both methods. 7_dQ_{min} medians decreased from one horizon
449 to the other, but interannual variabilities were much larger than the median decrease,
450 indicating that, at this this temporal scale (30-year horizons), the chaotic nature of climate is
451 overriding the CC signal. Given the nature of the alternative method, computed to reproduce
452 the mean relationship between variables, interannual variabilities were less well represented.
453 For 5-year periods, both methods assessed a significant decrease in five-year 7_dQ_{min} medians

1 454 showing that overall the CC signal was still apparent within results, especially for RCP-8.5
2 455 which is the “pessimistic scenario”. As for the confidence bounds associated with each
3
4 456 approach, they reflected the impact of equifinality and of the confidence interval for the
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7 457 regression coefficients for the conventional and alternative methods, respectively. The
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10 458 confidence bounds of the conventional approach were smaller than those of the alternative
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12 459 approach, but could expand if the uncertainties associated with measurement errors and
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14 460 hydrological model structure were taken into account. Despite this difference, both methods
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16
17 461 agreed: the future pressure on the surface water supply of Québec City from Château d’Eau is
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19 462 worth worrying. Indeed, for RCP-8.5, they indicated a decrease of around 20% (2016-2045)
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21
22 463 and 35% (2046-2075) with a fairly high confidence (around 90% of models agreeing on the
23
24 464 direction of change) for PI_I ; indicating, even for the near future, an insufficient water supply
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27 465 with respect to available water during 2-year low flows.

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29 466 The alternative approach assessed very similar results to that of the conventional approach. It
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31
32 467 can easily be applied to any hydrometric station with sufficient data. This reinforces the
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34 468 assessment made in Foulon et al. (2018) pertaining to the capacity of the method to provide a
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36
37 469 screening assessment of future drought-prone-watersheds; that is those that could benefit from
38
39 470 an in-depth hydroclimatic modeling study. Furthermore, the application of the alternative
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41
42 471 approach would help spread good management practices even for small municipalities that do
43
44 472 not have the capacities to conduct the more formal conventional approach. This paper
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47 473 contributes to the advancement of climate change adaptation, providing an alternative
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49 474 approach that could help prevent last minute emergency actions, by providing a framework to
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51
52 475 plan for future surface water supply sensitivities to low flows given climate simulations.

476 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

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477 Conflict of Interest – None

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**SURFACE WATER QUANTITY
FOR DRINKING WATER DURING LOW FLOWS -
SENSITIVITY ASSESSMENT SOLELY FROM CLIMATE DATA**

Water Resources Management

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DDS was executed following the guidelines and implementation steps provided in Tolson and Shoemaker (2008) to quantify prediction uncertainty resulting from the acceptance of the equifinality concept. Prior to implementing these steps, an estimate of the maximum of the pseudolikelihood function was established using 1% of the model evaluation budget, i.e. a 100-repetition-trial.

- Step 1: Because of the computational time associated with HYDROTEL, the total number of model evaluations for analysis was fixed to 10,000 and the maximum required number of behavioral samples to identify was set to 100. Thus, the number of model evaluations per DDS optimization trial was 100 (10,000/100) – when guidelines suggested using from 3D to 7D, where D is the number of uncertain parameters (12 in this paper).
- Step 2: DDS was executed for 100 optimization trials (each trial was initiated from a different random set of parameter values) when 100 to 200 was suggested in the guidelines.
- Step 3: A set of parameter is deemed behavioral if the pseudolikelihood value identified in one 100-repetition-trial is higher than the estimated maximum pseudolikelihood.
- Step 4: This leads to the last subjective decision to be made: is the number of behavioral parameter sets identified acceptable? If not, the threshold of the estimated maximum pseudolikelihood can be lowered or nonbehavioral DDS solutions can be refined.

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**SURFACE WATER QUANTITY
FOR DRINKING WATER DURING LOW FLOWS -
SENSITIVITY ASSESSMENT SOLELY FROM CLIMATE DATA**

Water Resources Management

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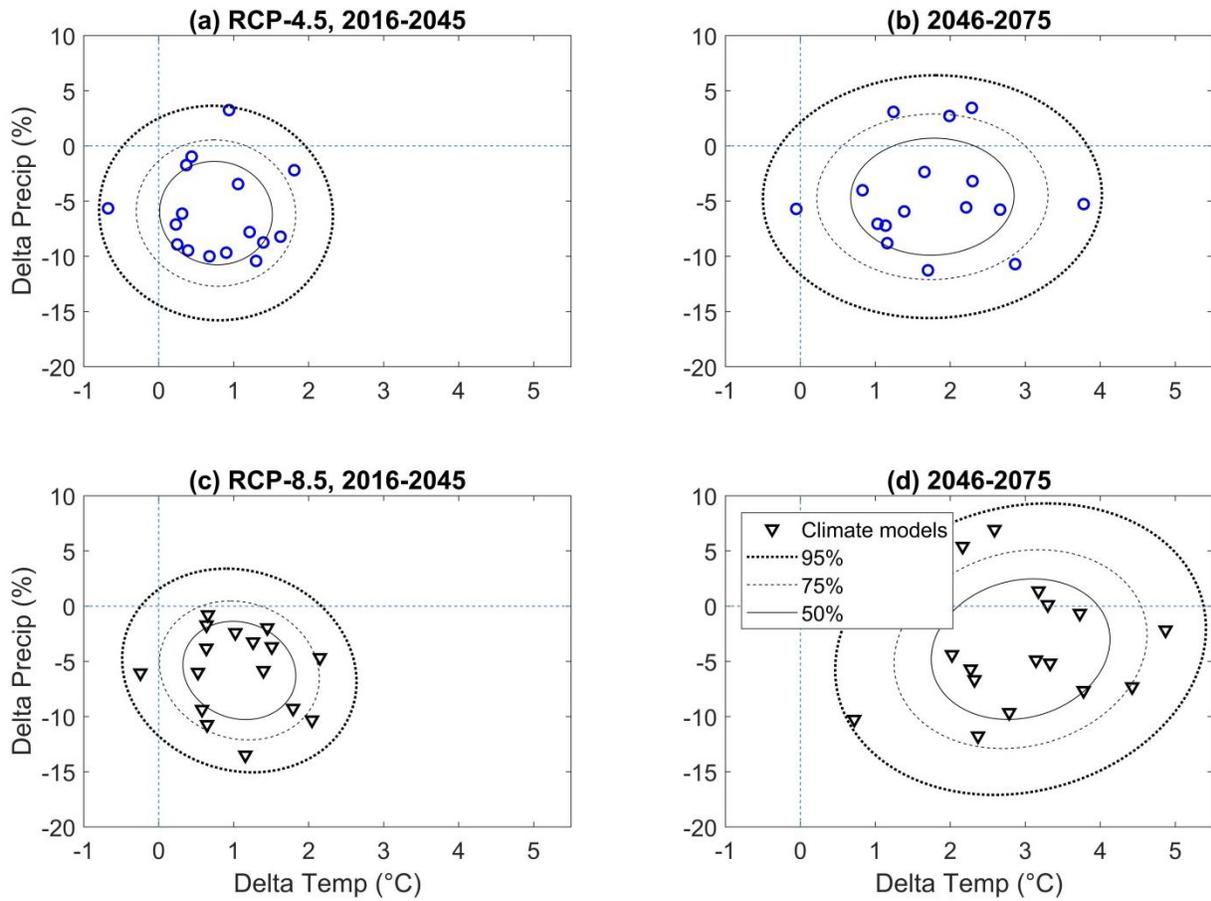


Fig. 1 Dispersion of climate models between reference (1986-2015) and future horizons (2016-2045 and 2046-2075) for the Saint-Charles watershed for the summer hydrological season for two RCPs. Circles stand for RCP-4.5 (a and b); triangles stand for RCP-8.5 (c and d)

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**SURFACE WATER QUANTITY
FOR DRINKING WATER DURING LOW FLOWS -
SENSITIVITY ASSESSMENT SOLELY FROM CLIMATE DATA**

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Fig. 1 shows the range covered by the identified 16 behavioral sets of parameters used in modeling the Saint-Charles River watershed. The figure was computed by putting together a radar plot of the calibration parameter values. For every set of parameters, a line was drawn to link every individual parameter value. The computation of the 16 lines made it possible to picture the range covered by the selected sets of parameters within a predefined physical interval that limited the automatic calibration algorithm. These limits were based on the information provided by past sensitivity analyses, operational experience, and calibration exercises.

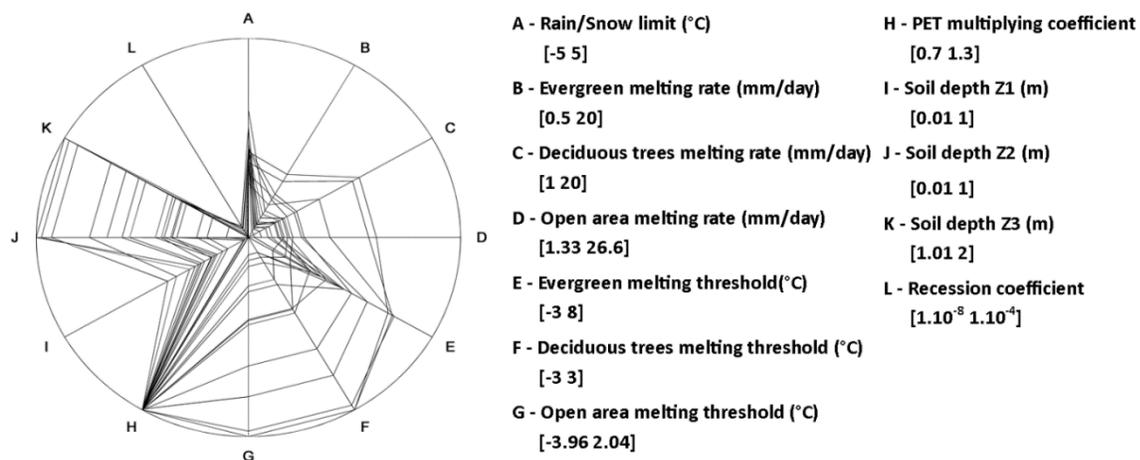


Fig. 1 Radar plot of the twelve parameters used in the automatic calibration of HYDROTEL for the Saint-Charles River watershed. Parameter A is part of the interpolation coefficients, parameters B through G relate to the snow model, and parameters H through L relate to the soil parameters

Except for the PET multiplying coefficient and the recession coefficient (H and L in Fig. 1), which range covered less than 5% of the physical range, all parameters covered at least 25% of it. Parameters related to deciduous trees and open area melting thresholds (F and G in Fig. 1) as well as the depth of the second and third soil layers (J and K in Fig. 1) were particularly equifinal as the 16 behavioral sets covered the whole physical range.

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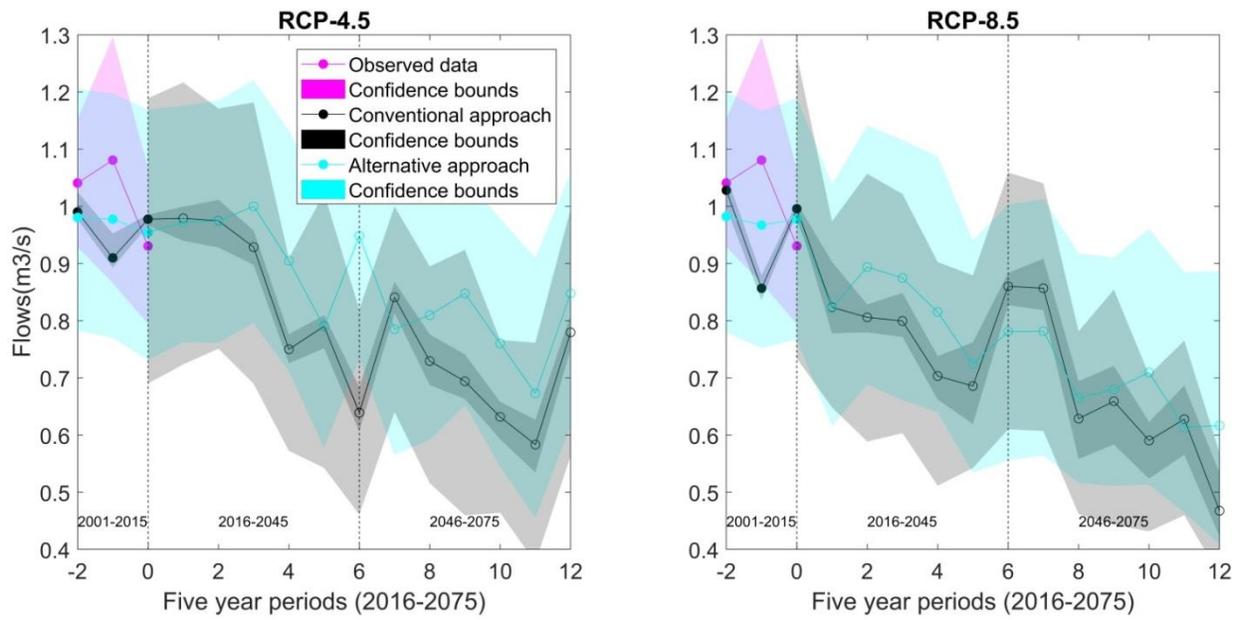


Fig. 1 Median future $7dQ_{min}$ assessed using the conventional (black) and alternative (cyan) approaches for RCP-4.5 and RCP-8.5. Confidence bounds for the conventional approach include uncertainty associated with hypothetical measurement errors as the standard deviation of averaged flows on 7 days

[Click here to view linked References](#)

The highlights for the paper are the following:

- Foulon et al. (2018)'s methodology can provide a screening assessment of future drought prone watersheds
- Assessment for RCP-4.5 and -8.5 of the low flow trends for the main water intake of Québec City
- Assessment for RCP-4.5 and -8.5 of the future pressure on water resources for Québec City
- Testing of a methodology that may enable good water management practices for small municipalities

