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1 **Global sensitivity analysis in hydrological modeling: Review of concepts, methods,**
2 **theoretical framework and applications**

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23 **Abstract:** Sensitivity analysis (SA) aims to identify the key parameters affecting modeling
24 performance. It plays an important role in model parameterization, calibration, optimization and
25 uncertainty quantification. However, the increasing complexity of hydrological models results in a
26 large number of parameters to be estimated. To better understand how these complex models work,
27 efficient SA methods are required to select and implement before the application of hydrological
28 modeling. This paper focused on the comprehensive review of global SA methods in the field of
29 hydrological modeling. The common definitions of SA and typical categories of SA methods are
30 described. A wide variety of global SA methods have been introduced to provide a more efficient
31 evaluation framework for hydrological modeling. We review, analyze, and categorizes research
32 efforts on global SA methods and applications with an emphasis on the research accomplished in
33 hydrological modeling field. Both advantages and disadvantages are also discussed and summarized.
34 An application framework as well as typical practical steps of SA in hydrological modeling is
35 outlined. Further discussion on the severe important and often overlooked topics is presented,
36 including the relationship between parameter identification, uncertainty analysis and optimization in
37 hydrological modeling, how to deal with correlated parameters, and time-varying sensitivity analysis.
38 Finally, some conclusions and guidance recommendations on sensitivity analysis in hydrological
39 modeling are proposed along with a list of important future research directions to provide more
40 robust analysis in assessing hydrological modeling performance.

41 **Keywords:** hydrological model, sensitivity analysis, global method, uncertainty analysis, parameter
42 optimization

43 **1 Introduction**

44 Hydrological models have been benefited from significant developments over the past three
45 decades (Beven, 2009), which have become more complexity (from rational method to distribution
46 model) with more diversified purposes in many applications (Nossent et al., 2011), such as land use

47 (Park et al., 2013) and climate change scenario analysis (Ntegeka et al., 2014), flood prediction
48 (Cloke and Pappenberger, 2009) and rainfall-runoff modeling (Modarres and Ouarda, 2013). For a
49 better model prediction, we need to assess and improve the model with different approaches such as
50 parameter optimization, operational management, design space exploration, sensitivity and
51 uncertainty analysis (Jakeman et al., 2006; Razavi et al., 2012; Wu and Liu, 2012; Nan et al., 2011;
52 Song et al., 2011). Hydrological models often suffer from substantial uncertainties in input data,
53 forcing data, initial and boundary conditions, model structure, and parameters, due to lack of data
54 and poorly knowledge of hydrological response mechanisms (Ye et al., 2008; Doherty and Welter,
55 2010; Shi et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011; Gupta et al., 2012; Foglia et al., 2013). These uncertainties
56 have negative effects on model accuracy and in turn, inducing uncertainties in the simulated results,
57 in a sense that model uncertainty becomes an important source and foundation for constructing the
58 modeling system (Beck, 1987). Good modeling practice requires an evaluation of the confidence in
59 the model together with the model per se, which includes a quantification of the uncertainty in any
60 model results (i.e. uncertainty analysis, UA) and an evaluation of how much each input/parameter is
61 contributing to the output uncertainty (i.e. sensitivity analysis, SA) (Loosvelt et al., 2013). Generally,
62 UA refers to the determination of the uncertainty in model outputs resulting from uncertainty in
63 model inputs/parameters, and SA refers to the determination of the contributions of individual
64 uncertain inputs/parameters to the uncertainty in model outputs. Ideally, SA and UA should be run in
65 tandem, and both are essential parts of model development and quality assurance, as shown in Fig.1.

66 -----
67 Figure 1 is here
68 -----

69 For most hydrological models, in practice, the large number of parameters (from tens to
70 hundreds) in these models leads to the curse of dimensionality with the parameter estimation
71 becoming a high-dimensional and mostly non-linear problem. To resolve this problem, a wide range

72 of optimization algorithms have been developed (e.g. [Beven and Binley, 1992](#); [Duan et al., 1992](#);
73 [Vrugt et al., 2003, 2005](#); [Hill and Tiedeman, 2007](#); [Abebe et al., 2010](#); [Aster et al. 2013](#); [Moreau et](#)
74 [al., 2013](#); [Sen and Stoffa, 2013](#)); however, it is often not feasible, nor is necessary to include all
75 model parameters in the calibration process to obtain an efficient optimization. For example,
76 over-parameterization is also another well-known problem in rainfall-runoff modeling ([van](#)
77 [Griensven et al., 2006](#)). Therefore, when we estimate model parameters, unimportant or insensitive
78 parameters should be locked in a fixed value to make calibration more efficient (SA). Currently, a
79 variety of SA methods (e.g., local or global methods, qualitative or quantitative methods, screening
80 or refined methods) have been widely used in different fields, such as complex engineering systems,
81 economics, physics, social sciences, and others ([Frey and Patil, 2002](#); [Iman and Helton, 1988](#)).
82 However, there is a large difference among these methods in terms of their sampling scheme,
83 applicability, algorithm structure and the importance measure of parameters. Considering the wide
84 range of SA methods, it is therefore very important for a practitioner to have a clearly understanding
85 as to which methods are appropriate for a specific application in terms of selecting particular SA
86 method, fitting the method into existing models, and presenting and interpreting the results.

87 This paper aims to review, analyze, and classify the research on SA with an emphasis on global
88 SA efforts arising from the hydrological modeling field. Many reviews of SA methods have been
89 conducted in different fields. For example, [Hamby \(1994\)](#) reviews the literature on parameter SA for
90 environmental models; [Frey and Patil \(2002\)](#) and [Mokhtari and Frey \(2005\)](#) review the SA methods
91 for food safety; [Coyle et al. \(2003\)](#) discuss the SA measures in the economics field; [Saltelli et al.](#)
92 [\(2005, 2012\)](#) focus on sensitivity analysis in chemical models; [Borgonov \(2006\)](#) investigates the
93 sensitivity and uncertainty measures; [Mishra et al. \(2009\)](#) review the global SA methods in
94 groundwater models; [Peter and Dwight \(2010\)](#) discuss the numerical sensitivity analysis approaches
95 for aerodynamic optimization; [Perz et al. \(2013\)](#) review the global SA and UA methods for
96 ecological resilience; [Tian \(2013\)](#) summarizes the application of SA methods in building energy

97 analysis; [Wu et al. \(2013\)](#) review recent advances in SA of infectious disease models. Some of them
98 explicitly highlight the advantage and disadvantage of various methods and provide very good
99 summaries of this topic. To our knowledge, few comprehensive, up-to-date review tracks the
100 advances in sensitivity analysis for hydrological modeling. This paper represents a unique
101 contribution to the literature, as our objective is to summarize the advances in the application of
102 various global SA methods in hydrological modeling. The depth of the review of the topics covered
103 here generally varies with the popularity of the topic in hydrological modeling and as such,
104 discussion largely revolves around uncertainty quantification and optimization applications. This
105 paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly describes the typical definition and categories of SA;
106 Section 3 details the objectives and roles of SA in hydrological modeling; Section 4 reviews key
107 techniques and approaches for SA applied in hydrological models and presents their corresponding
108 advantages and disadvantages; Section 5 proposes the steps and evaluation framework of SA in
109 hydrological modeling; Section 6 focuses on several topics when implementing SA in hydrological
110 modeling. These topics include how to deal with correlated parameters, the applications of SA in
111 model evaluation; and time-varying sensitivity analysis in hydrological modeling; this paper ends
112 with summary and concluding remarks in Section 7.

113 **2 Definition and categories of SA methods**

114 Generally, when referring to the degree to which a parameter affects model output, we can use
115 the terms “sensitive”, “important”, “most influential”, “major contributor”, “effective”, or “correlated”
116 interchangeably ([Hamby, 1994](#)). There are some different definitions or understanding for different
117 fields, listed in Table 1. Regardless of how SA is defined within different scopes or points of view,
118 the consensus is that models are sensitive to parameters in two distinct ways: (1) the variability, or
119 uncertainty, associated with a sensitive parameter is propagated throughout the model, resulting in a
120 large contribution to the overall output uncertainty, and (2) model outputs can be highly correlated

121 with a parameter so that small changes in the input value result in significant changes in the output.
122 In view of hydrological modeling, we define SA as the investigation of the response function linking
123 the variation of model outputs to the change of input variables or/and parameters, so as to determine
124 the relative contributions of different uncertainty sources to the variation of output by means of
125 qualitatively or quantitatively apportioning approaches under a given set of assumptions and
126 objectives.

127 SA methods can be classified in various ways based on their scope, applicability and
128 characteristics. A simple and most common classification is: local SA and global SA (e.g., [Satelli et al., 2004](#);
129 [van Griensven et al., 2006](#)). Local SA focused on the effects of uncertain inputs around a
130 point (or base case), whereas global SA focuses more on the influences of uncertain inputs over the
131 whole input space ([Tian, 2013](#)). [Campolongo et al. \(2000\)](#) offers another common classification
132 based largely on the extent of the input variable range that the technique assesses. Here, the
133 techniques are divided into three levels: screening, local and global methods. Although this
134 classification is also widely used in SA studies, this arrangement is ambiguous as the classification of
135 a technique as local or global is subject to whether a range is large enough to be perceived as global,
136 or whether the number of simulations used with a local or global method can be considered as a
137 screening experiment ([King, 2009](#)). In addition, [Satelli et al. \(2004\)](#) propose four settings, such as
138 factors prioritization (FP) setting, factors fixing (FF) setting, variance cutting (VC) setting and
139 factors mapping (FM) setting. Such settings can also be linked to Type I and Type II errors.
140 Generally, Type I error is the incorrect rejection of a true null hypothesis, and Type II error is the
141 failure to reject a false null hypothesis. In SA, Type I error occurs when erroneously defining as
142 important a non-influential factor, while Type II error occurs when we classify an important factor as
143 non-influential ([Satelli et al., 2008](#); [Zhan et al., 2013](#)). If one is particularly interested in avoiding
144 Type I errors, then main effects and factors prioritization setting will be the target analysis.
145 Alternatively, if Type II errors are to be avoided, total effects and factor fixing need to be considered.

146 In this work, we emphasize three typical categories as follows: (1) local and global SA methods
147 (Saltelli et al., 2004); (2) mathematical, statistical, and graphical methods (Frey and Patil, 2002); (3)
148 screening and refined methods (Song et al., 2014), and (4) qualitative and quantitative SA methods
149 (Li et al., 2013, Zhan et al., 2013), which are briefly summarized in Table 2.

150 -----

151 Table 1 and Table 2 are here

152 -----

153 **3 Implication and roles of SA in hydrological modeling**

154 Generally, SA is one of the simplest aids in diagnosing and remedying poor identifiability of
155 models, to allow parameters to be more reliably estimated (Shin et al., 2013). It aims at establishing
156 the relative importance of the parameters involved in the model, answering questions such as
157 (Cariboni et al., 2007; Neumann, 2012; Song et al., 2012a):

- 158 ➤ Which of the uncertain parameters are more influential in determining the variability affecting
159 the inference?
- 160 ➤ If the uncertainty of some parameters could be eliminated, which one should be chosen in order
161 to reduce to the minimum the variance of the output of interest?
- 162 ➤ Are there parameters whose effect on the output is so low that they can be confidently fixed
163 anywhere in their ranges of variation without affecting the results?
- 164 ➤ If these parameters deviate from expectations, what will the effect be on model output and which
165 are causing the largest deviations?
- 166 ➤ Which parameters are responsible for producing model outputs in a specific region?

167 Essentially, the primary aim of a SA experiment is to identify the most important factors and

168 then to simplify the model. Many studies highlight that the SA can reduce the output variance to a
169 lower threshold by simultaneously fixing the smallest number of input parameters (Saltelli et al., 2000,
170 2004, 2008). This is important for us to implement SA for complex hydrological models, especially
171 for those with large number of uncertain parameters. But even more than that, we argue that SA is a
172 useful perspective for conceptualizing and understanding hydrological models for several reasons. As
173 indicated by Rakovec et al. (2014), SA can be used to (a) detect when increasing model complexity
174 can no longer be supported by observations and whether it is likely to affect model predictions (e.g.,
175 Saltelli et al., 1999; van Werkhoven et al., 2008a; Doherty and Welter, 2010; Rosolem et al., 2012;
176 Gupta et al., 2012; Foglia et al., 2013); (b) reduce the time for model calibration by focusing
177 estimation efforts on parameters important to calibration metrics and predictions (e.g., Anderman et
178 al., 1996; Hamm et al., 2006; Zambrano-Bigiarini and Rojas, 2013); (c) determine priorities for
179 theoretical and site-specific model development (e.g., Hill and Tiedeman, 2007; Saltelli et al., 2008;
180 Kavetski and Clark, 2010); and (d) identify advantageous placement and timing of new
181 measurements (e.g., Tiedeman et al., 2003, 2004).

182 **4 Global SA methods in hydrological models**

183 In practice, global SA methods are usually recommended in hydrological modeling applications
184 because they have certain advantages compared with local SA methods (Makler-Pick et al., 2011;
185 Rosolem et al., 2012; Baroni and Tarantola, 2014; Song et al., 2012a). These include their ability to
186 incorporate the influence of input parameters over their whole range of variation, and be well suited
187 for non-linear and non-monotonic models, thus providing results that are independent of modeler
188 prejudice and not site specific. Currently, various global SA techniques have been widely used in
189 hydrological models, such as the screening method, regression analysis, variance-based method,

190 meta-modeling method, and others (Song et al., 2014). This list is not an exhaustive list of SA
 191 techniques. Instead, we mainly include commonly used and often referred global methods in
 192 hydrological models. A research database search of SA method and hydrological modeling in
 193 Thomson Reuters (ISI) Web of Knowledge is shown in Fig.2. Table 3 summarizes the main studies
 194 of global SA in hydrological models published since 2005. Table 4 gives an overview of these global
 195 SA techniques including sampling scheme, computational requirements and characteristics of the
 196 sensitivity measure.

197 -----
 198 Figure 2, Table 3 and Table 4 are here
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200 4.1 Screening method

201 The purpose of screening method is rather to identify which input variables are contributing
 202 significantly to the output uncertainty in high-dimensionality models, than to quantify sensitivity
 203 exactly (Saltelli et al., 2008). One of the most commonly used screening method is the Morris
 204 screening method or the elementary effect method proposed by Morris (1991) and improved by
 205 Campolongo et al. (2007). Parameters are taken as a discrete number of values, which are different
 206 from other global SA methods in which parameter values are directly from distributions. For a given
 207 $X=(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$, the elementary effect of the i -th parameter is defined as:

$$208 \quad d_i(X) = \frac{y(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i + \Delta, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_k) - y(X)}{\Delta} \quad (1)$$

209 where Δ is a value in $\{1/(p-1), \dots, 1-1/(p-1)\}$, p is the number of levels, and $y(X)$ is target function
 210 value for the parameter values X . Two sensitivity measures, the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ)
 211 of the elementary effects, can be calculated by Eqs. (2) and (3):

212
$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=1}^r d_i(j) \quad (2)$$

213
$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\frac{1}{r-1} \sum_{j=1}^r [d_i(j) - \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=1}^r d_i(j)]^2} \quad (3)$$

214 where $d_i(j)$ is the elementary effect for input i using the j -th base sample point, $j=1, 2, \dots, r$ (r is the
 215 number of repeated sampling design or trajectories of sample points in the parameter space). When
 216 the model is non-monotonic, some elementary effects with opposite signs may cancel out. Hence,
 217 [Campolongo et al. \(2007\)](#) proposed an improved measure μ_i^* :

218
$$\mu_i^* = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=1}^r |d_i(j)| \quad (4)$$

219 The μ estimates the overall effect of each parameter on the output, and the σ estimates the
 220 higher order effects, such as nonlinearity and interactions between inputs, respectively. If μ_i^* is
 221 substantially different from zero, it indicates that parameter i has an important “overall” influence on
 222 the output. A large σ_i implies that parameter i has a nonlinear effect on the output, or there are
 223 interactions between parameter i and other parameters.

224 Advantages of the Morris screening method are that it has a lower computational cost compared
 225 to other global SA methods, and it is simple to implement and easy to interpret ([Shin et al., 2013](#);
 226 [Tian, 2013](#); [Zhan et al., 2013](#)). For example, the total number of runs is only 44 if there are 10
 227 parameters with 4 trajectories for each parameter. Hence, the Morris method is more suitable to
 228 computationally expensive models, which often have a large number of uncertain parameters.
 229 However, the drawback of this method is that it cannot quantify the effects of different factors on
 230 outputs ([Brockmann and Morgenroth, 2007](#); [Sun et al., 2012](#)), and type II errors (failing to identify
 231 some unimportant inputs as important parameters) might occur with the Morris screening method
 232 ([Zhan et al., 2013](#)). [Saltelli et al. \(2004\)](#) also highlighted that it cannot estimate individual

233 interactions between parameters, thereby giving only the overall interaction of a parameter with the
234 rest of the model. As a result, this method does not allow self-verification, which means the analyst
235 does not know how much of the total variances of outputs have been taken into account in the
236 analysis.

237 Recently, the Morris screening method has been widely used in hydrological models. For
238 example, [Song et al. \(2012b, 2013\)](#) and [Zhan et al. \(2013\)](#) analyzed the sensitivity of hydrological
239 parameters for a distributed time-variant gain model and Xinanjiang model based on the Morris
240 method and other quantitative methods. [Liu and Sun \(2010\)](#) implemented Morris method based on
241 Pareto ranking strategy to identify the key parameters for MIKE/NAM rainfall-runoff model under
242 the different objective functions. They suggest that no single objective function is adequate to
243 measure the ways in which the model fails to match the important characteristics of the observed
244 data. [Moreau et al. \(2013\)](#) used Morris method to screen for input factors with the greatest influence
245 on hydrological and geochemical output variables for spatially-distributed agro-hydrological model
246 TNT2. [Yang et al. \(2012\)](#) proposed a two-step, multi-objective SA approach, incorporating the
247 Morris method and the SDP (state dependent parameter) method, and estimated WetSpa model
248 parameters with case studies in the Chaohe basin in China and the Margecany basin in Slovakia.
249 [Ruano et al. \(2011\)](#) also used the Morris method to identify these important parameters in a water
250 quality model. It was found to be important to select or optimize a proper repetition number of the
251 elementary effects of the Morris method. Working with a non-proper repetition number could lead to
252 Type I error as well as Type II error, hence emphasizing the importance of finding the optimal
253 repetition number of each study in question. In addition, in view of the limitations of the Morris
254 one-at-a-time (OAT) design, the LH-OAT method, which takes the Latin Hypercube samples as

255 initial points for an OAT design, was proposed to apply to the SWAT model (Holvoet et al., 2005;
 256 van Griensven et al., 2006). This method, as a screening tool for the SWAT modeling system, has
 257 been widely used in many catchments (e.g. Nossent and Bauwens, 2012; Singh et al., 2012).

258 4.2 Regression method

259 The principle of regression methods is to approximate the relationships between an output and
 260 the parameters by:

$$261 \quad y_i = b_0 + \sum_j b_j x_{ij} + \varepsilon_i \quad (5)$$

262 where x_j ($j = 1, 2, \dots, k$) are the j th parameters; $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ represents the number of model runs;
 263 b_j is the coefficient to be estimated via the least-squares methods for each x_j ; and ε_i is random error.

264 Once b_j is determined, the regression model can be rewritten as:

$$265 \quad \frac{y - \bar{y}}{\hat{s}} = \sum_j \frac{b_j \hat{s}_j}{\hat{s}} \frac{x_j - \bar{x}_j}{\hat{s}_j} \quad (6)$$

266 where

$$267 \quad \bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{y_i}{N}, \quad \bar{x}_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_{ij}}{N}, \quad \hat{s} = \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{[y_i - \bar{y}]^2}{N-1} \right]^{1/2}, \quad \hat{s}_j = \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{[x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j]^2}{N-1} \right]^{1/2} \quad (7)$$

268 The coefficients $b_j \hat{s}_j / \hat{s}$ in Eq.6 are standardized regression coefficients (SRCs). When the
 269 parameters x_j are independent of each other, the SRCs can provide a sensitivity index for the factor
 270 x_j . Each SRC gives information about the effect of changing an input from its standard value by a
 271 fixed fraction of its standard deviation, while maintaining the other factors at their default values.
 272 Regression analysis allows also for the estimation of the model coefficient of determination, R^2 ,
 273 which represents the fraction of the output variance explained by the regression model itself. In the
 274 case of linear models, the SRCs exactly quantify the amount of output variance explained by each
 275 parameter; when models are moderately non-linear (i.e. $R^2 > 0.7$), the SRCs can be still used to

276 qualitatively assess the parameters' importance; finally, when R^2 becomes small, the SRCs cannot
277 be considered as a reliable sensitivity measure (Cariboni et al., 2007).

278 The advantages of this method are its simplicity and ability to estimate the sensitivity of each
279 parameter, even though all parameters affect model output simultaneously. However, it is not
280 applicable when the relationship between parameters and model output is non-linear or
281 non-monotonic, or when there are interactions among parameters. Although the rank transformation
282 method (standardized rank regression coefficient, SRRC) can be helpful for non-linear models, it
283 fails with non-monotonic models, and the result cannot be transformed back to the original model
284 (Saltelli and Sobol', 1995).

285 Regression method has also been used to estimate the sensitivity of parameters in hydrological
286 models. For example, Tiscareno-Lopez et al. (1993) address uncertainty in hydrologic and soil
287 erosion predictions from the WEPP watershed model due to errors in model parameter estimation
288 identified using regression, and runoff volume and peak runoff predictions from hillslopes were
289 very sensitive to rainfall characteristics. He et al. (2011) analyzed the parameter sensitivity of the
290 SNOW17 model using the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient method, and the rankings of
291 parameters were determined using the results of significance testing. Zeng et al. (2012) used
292 stepwise regression analysis and mutual entropy analysis method to assess the uncertainty
293 parameters of probability density function of groundwater level series. Regression analysis also has
294 been used in other hydrological models, such as SWAT (Muleta and Nicklow, 2005), SWMM
295 (Wang et al. 2008), HYMOD (Yang, 2011), SAC-SMA (Gan et al., 2014).

296 **4.3 Variance-based method**

297 Variance-based methods use a variance ratio to estimate the importance of parameters with the

298 foundation of variance decomposition (Saltelli et al., 1999; Sobol', 1993). In general, the attribution
 299 of total output variance to individual model parameters and their interactions can be written as follow
 300 (Saltelli et al., 2004, 2008):

$$301 \quad V = \sum_{i=1}^k V_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j>i}^k V_{ij} + \dots + V_{1,2,\dots,k} \quad (8)$$

302 where V represents the total variance of the model output, V_i represents the first-order variance for
 303 each factor x_i ($V_i = V[E(Y | x_i)]$) and V_{ij} ($V_{ij} = V[E(Y | x_i, x_j)] - V_i - V_j$) to $V_{1\dots k}$ the interactions among k
 304 factors. The variance of the conditional expectation, $V[E(Y | x_i)]$, is sometimes called the main effect
 305 and is used to indicate the significance of x_i on the variance of Y . Variance-based methods allow
 306 calculation of two indices; i.e., the first-order sensitivity index corresponding to the parameter x_i :

$$307 \quad S_i = \frac{V[E(Y|x_i)]}{V(Y)} \quad (9)$$

308 and the total-order sensitivity index of a single parameter (index i) and the interaction of more
 309 parameters that involve index i and at least one index $j \neq i$ from 1 to k :

$$310 \quad S_{T_i} = \sum S_i + \sum_{j \neq i} S_{ij} + \dots + S_{1\dots k} \quad (10)$$

311 The difference between the first-order and the total-order sensitivity indices can be regarded as
 312 a measure for the interactions of i with others (Massmann and Holzmann, 2012). Because the
 313 interactions increase with the number of considered parameters as well as with their variation range,
 314 variance decomposition methods are well suited for models with many parameters. There are many
 315 techniques to carrying out variance decomposition, such as Sobol' method, the Fourier Amplitude
 316 Sensitivity Test (FAST), and the extended FAST methods, etc. Advantages of variance-based
 317 methods include: (i) model independence (i.e., it works for non-linear models, non-monotonic
 318 models, and models with interaction among parameters); (ii) the ability of capturing the influence of
 319 the full range of variation of each parameter; (iii) the method captures interaction effects; and (iv) the

320 method can treat sets of parameters as single parameter. However, it often requires a large number of
321 model evaluations in applications, and it may be very difficult to apply in complex models with a
322 large number of parameters.

323 Variance-based methods are also widely used for parameter SA in hydrological models (Table 3)
324 as they can provide most accurate and robust sensitivity indices for complex nonlinear models (Tang
325 et al., 2007b; Yang, 2011; Herman et al., 2013b, 2013c; Zhan et al., 2013). For example, Zhang et al.
326 (2013) investigated the parameter sensitivity of SWAT model based on Sobol' method for the four
327 different objective functions; van Werkhoven et al. (2008a) and Wagener et al. (2009) estimated the
328 sensitivity of parameters for the SAC-SMA model, with single-objective and multi-objective
329 functions; Francos et al. (2003) coupled the Morris and variance-based FAST methods to identify
330 and analyze the important or sensitive parameters for the SWAT model. Results showed that the
331 integration framework can be efficiently applied in complex hydrological models with tens or
332 hundreds of parameters.

333 **4.4 Meta-modeling method**

334 The basic idea of meta-modeling method is to simulate the response function between input
335 parameters and model output via various statistical or experimental design methods, to replace the
336 original, complex physical or conceptual models, and then to analyze the parameter sensitivity
337 indices or the influence of parameter variation on model output. The core of the meta-modeling
338 based methods is to select appropriate sampling design and response fitting methods. When we select
339 the response fitting method, the meta-modeling approach can accurately simulate the behavior of real
340 phenomena in the domain of influential parameters; i.e., the meta-model can replace the original
341 model by a mathematical approximation. Currently, there are many fitting methods used in

342 hydrological models, and non-parametric methods have found more application because they do not
343 require much hypothesis generation or prior knowledge of the actual response relationship, such as
344 MARS (multivariate adaptive regression splines) (Li et al., 2013; Zhan et al., 2013; Gan et al.,
345 2014), SVM (support vector machine) (Song et al., 2012a), GP (Gaussian processes) (Gan et al.,
346 2014), TGP (treed Gaussian processes) (Gramacy and Taddy, 2010). Similarly, sampling design
347 methods must be selected for response surface analysis, which requires that the sampling design can
348 cover the range of parameters as much as possible. Some sampling design methods have been
349 verified as effective (Razavi et al., 2012), such as central composite design (Montgomery, 2008), full
350 factorial design (Gutmann, 2001), Latin Hypercube sampling (Gan et al., 2014), quasi-random
351 sampling (Elsawwaf et al., 2010; Zhan et al., 2013).

352 Meta-modeling based sensitivity analysis approach is a two-stage approach. First, a meta-model
353 is created based on the original hydrological models and forcing data, and consequently it can be
354 suitable for these hydrological models. Second, sensitivity measures are calculated based on classical
355 SA methods, where the most common method is variance-based method (Song et al., 2013; Tian,
356 2013; Zhan et al., 2013; Gan et al., 2014). The immediate advantage is that it can simplify
357 computationally intensive models and thus enables much faster model runs (Storlie et al., 2009),
358 especially for a complex hydrological model with high computational cost of hundreds or thousands
359 of model runs. Therefore, meta-modeling approaches have been particularly used in model
360 evaluation for hydrological models (Razavi et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013; Song et al., 2012c, 2013;
361 Zhan et al., 2013; Gan et al., 2014). However, it requires output values and corresponding values
362 from probability distributions of input parameters calculated in the original hydrological model, and
363 it is calibrated to the data generated from the hydrological model. Thus, it is only valid within the

364 range of values used to generate the calibration dataset. Typically, the effect of all parameters with
365 respect to sensitivity cannot be evaluated in meta-models; most meta-modeling based studies are
366 based on fewer inputs, which are primarily screened out among the list of original parameters. In
367 addition, the uncertainty of analysis results based on meta-model approaches should not be ignored.
368 For example, there is no guarantee that a model parameter deemed insensitive on the basis of
369 meta-model analysis is truly insensitive in the original hydrological model (Razavi et al., 2012). A
370 question that meta-model users need to address in any meta-modeling practice is whether an exact fit
371 to the set of design sites or an approximate fit, possibly with smoothing capabilities, is required.
372 Therefore, it is essential to assess the accuracy of a meta-model for prediction before it can be used
373 for SA studies (Stephens et al., 2011; Borgonovo et al., 2012). Despite advances in meta-modeling
374 based SA in many fields, the uncertainty assessment of meta-modeling based SA should be further
375 explored in the future.

376 Recently, meta-modeling based SA method has been used in different fields. For example, three
377 meta-modeling techniques (Kriging, Radial-basis function network (RBF), and support vector
378 machines (SVM)) and two popular SA methods (FAST and Sobol') were used to estimate the
379 sensitivity indices of a probabilistic engineering design (Sathyanarayanamurthy and Chinnam, 2009).
380 Ratto et al. (2007) proposed a state-dependent parameter (SDP) method based on the Kalman filter,
381 combined with fixed interval smoothing, and then used the Sobol' method to evaluate sensitivity
382 indices. Song et al. (2012a, 2012b, 2013) combined the Sobol' method and response surface model
383 (RSM) approach (RSMSobol'; e.g., the SVM, multivariate adaptive regression splines (MARS)) to
384 estimate parameter sensitivity for hydrological models, involving the Xinanjiang and distributed
385 time-variant gain models (DTVGM). Borgonovo et al. (2012) pointed out that the meta-model allows

386 an accurate estimation of density-based sensitivity measures when the main structural features of the
387 original model are captured.

388 **4.5 Regionalized sensitivity analysis**

389 Regionalized sensitivity analysis (RSA), also called generalized sensitivity analysis, has been
390 originally developed in the context of environmental models by [Spear and Hornberger \(1980\)](#) and
391 further developed by [Beven and Binley \(1992\)](#) in hydrological models. Generally, it is a graphical
392 approach based on Monte Carlo simulations with parameter combinations taken from their whole
393 distribution range, which is why it is regarded as a global SA method ([Massmann and Holzmann,](#)
394 [2012](#)). These parameter sets are classified as behavioral or non-behavioral based on the comparison
395 of the model results with a predefined threshold ([Saltelli et al., 2004; Song et al., 2014](#)). [Jakeman et](#)
396 [al. \(1990\)](#) summarize the typical steps to implement RSA:

- 397 1) Define *a priori* parameter distribution from which the samples will be drawn as well as goodness
398 criterion with a corresponding threshold for separating the results into a behavioral and a
399 non-behavioral group;
- 400 2) Run the hydrological model using the parameter sets based on Monte Carlo sampling design
- 401 3) Classify the result as behavioral or not
- 402 4) Plot the relative cumulative probability distribution against the parameter values
- 403 5) Implement statistical analysis (e.g. Kolmogorov-Smirnoff test) to detect significant differences
404 between both groups.

405 The Kolmogorov-Smirnoff test describes the maximum vertical distance between two
406 cumulative distributions. If the distributions of a parameter x_i in the two groups are dissimilar then
407 the parameter x_i is considered influential, and vice versa. The larger the distance, the more sensitive

408 the parameter is (Yang, 2011). RSA has been widely used in hydrological models (e.g., Lence and
409 Takyi, 1992; Freer et al., 1996; Pappenberger et al., 2006; Sieber and Uhlenbrook, 2005; Ratto et al.,
410 2006; Tang et al., 2007a; Pappenberger et al., 2008; Yang, 2011; Massmann and Holzmann, 2012).
411 From these studies, we can see that its advantage is conceptually simple and easy to implement.
412 Results are easy to understand and the method is model-independent (Yang, 2011). However, the
413 disadvantage is that they need to define a threshold for separating the results into a behavioral and
414 non-behavioral group, which is a highly subjective task that might have important effects on the
415 results (Beven, 2009). To resolve this difficulty, Freer et al. (1996) presented an extension of this
416 method, in which the behavioral parameter sets are sorted from best to worst with respect to their
417 ability to reproduce the observed results. Then they are separated into 10 equally sized groups, with
418 the first group comprising the best 10% parameter sets, the second group the best 10-20% parameter
419 sets and so on. Conclusions about parameter sensitivities are made qualitatively by examining
420 differences in the marginal cumulative distributions of a parameter within each of the ten groups. Ten
421 lines in the RSA plot represent the cumulative distributions of a parameter with respect to ten
422 sampled sub-ranges. If the lines are clustered, the parameter is not sensitive to a specific model
423 performance measure (Demaria et al., 2007; Wagener and Kollat, 2007). In addition, although under
424 certain circumstances the Kolmogorov-Smirnoff test can highlight some interaction effect (Saltelli et
425 al., 2008), the RSA method cannot quantify higher order effects or search for interacting structures
426 (Yang, 2011). This means that the insignificance of the distance does not imply irrelevance of the
427 input factor, due to possible missed interaction effects.

428 **4.6 Entropy-based method**

429 Entropy can be regarded as an indicator of the information content or as a measure of the

430 uncertainty of a random variable ([Mogheir et al., 2004](#); [Liu et al., 2006](#); [Auder and Iooss, 2009](#);
431 [Mishra et al., 2009](#)). It also provides comparatively more information since two variables with no
432 mutual information are statistically independent, while two uncorrelated variables are not necessarily
433 independent ([Frey and Patil, 2002](#)). Different entropy indicators, which assess the relationship
434 between a dependent and an independent variable, have been described in some studies, such as
435 marginal, joint, conditional and mutual information. The mutual information is being used as an
436 indicator of variable importance in many fields. [Mishra and Knowlton \(2003\)](#) describe a
437 methodology for global SA that combines the mutual information concept with contingency table
438 analysis. More details refer to [Mishra and Knowlton \(2003\)](#), [Liu et al. \(2006\)](#) and [Mishra et al.](#)
439 [\(2009\)](#).

440 The major advantage of the entropy-based method is that it can capture more complete
441 probabilistic sensitivity information by studying the impact of an input variable on the probabilistic
442 distributed rather than on low-order moments such as on performance variance with the
443 variance-based methods. However, it should be noted that the entropy-based method can only give a
444 relative importance ranking of random variables and the absolute values of the measures are hard to
445 interpret, which is the major limitation for the entropy-based method. Some studies also use
446 entropy-based method to analyze the sensitivity of parameters for hydrological models. For example,
447 [Pappenberger et al. \(2008\)](#) applied five different methods (Sobol', Kullback-Leibler entropy, Morris,
448 RSA, and regression) to investigate the sensitivity of parameters of a one-dimensional flood
449 inundation model (HEC-RAS) on the River Alzette. They found that the different methods led to
450 completely different ranking of importance of the parameter factors and it was impossible to draw
451 firm conclusions about the relative sensitivity of different factors. [Massmann and Holzmann \(2012\)](#)

452 also discussed the comparison of the three global SA methods (Sobol' method, RSA, mutual entropy)
453 for a rainfall-runoff model. The results revealed that entropy-based method was more robust than the
454 RSA method at a daily scale and the Sobol' method was the least robust method. These results
455 differed from the results obtained by [Pappenberger et al. \(2008\)](#). [Neumann \(2012\)](#) also discussed five
456 SA methods (derivatives, screening, regression, variance decomposition and entropy) for a model
457 predicting micropollutant degradation in drinking water treatment.

458 **5. Evaluation framework of SA in hydrological modeling**

459 The typical evaluation framework of SA in hydrological models is shown in Fig.3. We also
460 discuss some practical issues, such as determination of parameter ranges, the choice of sampling
461 design method, objective functions and adequate SA methods.

462 -----
463 Figure 3 is here
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465 **5.1 Selection of parameters ranges and sampling design**

466 The first crucial step is to determine the range of the inputs and select the appropriate sampling
467 design methods when we implement SA in hydrological modeling ([Zhan et al., 2013](#)). The ranges
468 and distributions of parameters are mainly dependent on the prior information. Some studies
469 highlight the effect of ranges and distributions of inputs on the results of SA. For example, [Tong](#) and
470 [Graziani \(2008\)](#) pointed out that the proper prescription of the ranges and shapes of the distributions
471 can dramatically alter the outcome of the analysis. [Shine et al. \(2013\)](#) stated that reducing or
472 expanding the ranges will affect the sensitivity indices, and cause insensitive parameters becoming

473 sensitive or vice versa. Wang et al. (2013a) also showed that different parameter ranges for the
474 WOFOST crop growth model yields differences in sensitive parameter. As the sensitivity of
475 parameters can be strongly influenced by the ranges of inputs, it is important that the ranges used
476 yield parameter sets that are considered plausible (Shine et al., 2013). Besides, Ben Touhami et al.
477 (2013) investigated the different distributions (e.g. Gaussian distribution, normal distribution and
478 uniform distribution) of parameters on the results of SA. They found there were notable differences
479 among the different distribution conditions for their sensitivity. Although normal distribution and
480 uniform distribution are often used in practice (Esmaeili et al., 2014), there is a need to account for
481 different types of distributions (Kucherenko et al., 2012). Generally, probability distributions can be
482 constructed from expert elicitation if there is not enough information. But, even with expert
483 elicitation, it is still challenging to build distributions with great confidence. Therefore, more work
484 needs to be conducted to assist in determining the ranges of inputs and investigate their distributions
485 and response surface shapes. After we define the probability distributions of model parameters, for
486 most global SA, it is necessary to implement sampling strategies for generation of sample. For
487 regression-based and meta-modeling methods, Latin hypercube sampling (LHS) and Sobol' sequence
488 random sampling methods are very popular due to their efficient stratification properties (Zhan et al.,
489 2013; Song et al., 2014). For screening and variance-based methods, they usually require special
490 sampling methods (Saltelli et al., 2008; Tian, 2013), e.g., Morris one-at-a-time sampling design
491 should be used in Morris screening and FAST sampling design should correspond with FAST
492 method.

493 **5.2 Choice of objective functions for SA**

494 It is also utmost important to select the appropriate objective functions, which would

495 immediately affect the results of SA (Shine et al., 2013; Song et al., 2013). For example, Zhan et al.
496 (2013) revealed that the most sensitive or important parameters for three different objective functions
497 are different in distributed time variant gain model. Song et al. (2013) highlighted that there are the
498 differences of sensitivity indices among four objectives for Xinanjiang model. The same conclusions
499 for Sacramento model and MIKE/NAM model obtained by van Werkhoven et al. (2008a, 2009) and
500 Liu and Sun (2010). However, Foglia et al. (2009) suggested that a well-designed single objective
501 function including many data types can also be useful. Generally, contributions to the objective
502 function are weighted, and the weighting accounts for the different units and precision of different
503 contributions to the objective function (Hill and Tiedeman, 2007). The weights allow the statistics to
504 quantify the information provided by different types of observations via combining the contributions
505 of different functions into one objective function (Song et al., 2012c). Therefore, SA should be
506 implemented based on multi-objective functions or combined single function of different objectives,
507 and it can give valuable and comprehensive insight into these parameters for hydrological models
508 (Hill and Tiedeman, 2007; Foglia et al., 2009; Shine et al., 2013).

509 **5.3 Choice of SA methods for hydrological models**

510 Considering the wide range of SA methods, practitioners need adequate resource to better
511 understand which methods are appropriate for a specific application (Ratto et al., 2007; Tang et al.,
512 2007b; Pappenberger et al., 2008; Confalonieri et al., 2010; Yang, 2011; Reusser et al., 2011, Sun et
513 al., 2012; Gan et al., 2014). Different types of SA methods can be selected based on: (a) the objective
514 of the analysis, (b) the number of uncertain input factors, (c) the degree of regularity of the model, (d)
515 the computing time for a single model simulation, and (e) analyst's time for SA (Cacuci et al., 2003;
516 Saltelli et al., 2005; Wallach et al., 2006; Zajac et al., 2010; Saltelli et al., 2012).

517 In practice, the objective of analysis is the first crucial step to select the appropriate SA methods.
518 For example, if one focuses on ranking characteristics of parameter sensitivity measure, the
519 qualitative analysis or screening-based methods could be selected. Nay rather, if one wants to gain
520 further insight into the characteristics of sensitivity indices, the quantitative methods may be the best
521 choice. As [Shin et al. \(2013\)](#) stated that if the aim of the SA is to select non-influential parameters
522 with respect to the target function and perhaps to fix their values, then the total-order sensitivity
523 index is suggested as a reasonable measure to use. Secondly, it is well known that the dimension of
524 parameters has a significant influence on the selection and application of SA methods in hydrological
525 models; i.e., the performance efficiency for SA largely depends on parameter dimensions. Generally,
526 when the number of parameters is much greater than tens, the global screening method is preferred.
527 Screening methods are designed to handle hundreds of model input factors in a sense that they can
528 only provide qualitative sensitivity measure ([Zoras et al., 2007](#)). Using qualitative ranking results, we
529 can fix the non-sensitive parameters and reduce the parameter dimensions or number of parameters
530 to make the quantitative SA more tractable. Thirdly, the computational expense for a single model
531 run is another constraint to dictate the choice of SA methods in hydrological modeling. For example,
532 SA is almost always performed by running the model a number of times, i.e. a sampling-based
533 approach. This can be a significant problem when a single run of the model takes a significant
534 amount of time (minutes, hours or longer), which is not unusual with very complex models, or when
535 the model has a large number of uncertain inputs. Consequently, computational expense is a problem
536 in many practical SA. Some methods of reducing computational expense include the use of
537 meta-modeling methods (for large models) and screening methods (for reducing the dimensionality
538 of the problem). Therefore, synthetic SA approaches, which consider the advantages and

539 disadvantages of various analysis methods and combine these methods as a systematic analysis
540 technique, have been used in complex models. The Morris screening method, coupled with
541 variance-based methods, is a common approach for SA in many science fields, and the flowchart of
542 this integration method is shown in Fig.4. For instance, [Francos et al. \(2003\)](#) integrate the Morris
543 method with FAST for qualitative and quantitative analysis (the two-step analysis method) to
544 estimate parameter sensitivity for the SWAT model. [Sun et al. \(2012\)](#) also highlight that when the
545 number of input factors involved in the model is too high to afford a computationally expensive
546 quantitative analysis, a more efficient two-step procedure based on a screening process (first stage)
547 and a quantitative analysis method (second stage) can be adopted. In addition, [Song et al. \(2014\)](#)
548 integrated the Morris method, RSM, and the Sobol' method to clearly and efficiently identify the
549 influence of parameters on model output from the DTVGM and Xinanjiang models. From these
550 results, the integration technique clearly achieves qualitative and quantitative SA and can largely
551 reduce the computational cost with fewer model runs.

552 -----
553 Figure 4 is here
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555 **6 Other topics related to SA in hydrological models**

556 **6.1 Analysis of correlated parameters in hydrological models**

557 It is not uncommon that input parameters may be correlated in hydrological models. The
558 correlations among hydrological or hydraulic parameters have important effects on the estimation
559 of hydrological parameters and further significantly affect the predictions and associated
560 uncertainties of hydrological modeling ([Pohlmann et al., 2002](#); [Lemke et al., 2004](#); [Manache and](#)

561 [Melching, 2008; Pan et al., 2011](#)). Understanding the contribution of each parameter and the joint
562 contributions of correlated parameters in predictive uncertainties is also critical to uncertainty
563 reduction ([Rojas et al., 2009; Fox et al., 2010](#)). Although the parameter correlations are observed
564 and may be strong in some cases ([Xu and Gertner 2007](#)), the existing sensitivity analysis methods
565 of hydrological models typically adopt the assumption of independent parameters (e.g., [Li and Yeh,](#)
566 [1998; Boateng, 2007; Zhu et al., 2010; Zhan et al., 2013](#)). Some studies have been devoted to the
567 sensitivity analysis with correlated parameters (e.g., [Helton et al., 1995; Fang et al., 2004; Jacques](#)
568 [et al., 2006; Pan et al., 2011](#)). For example, [Iman et al. \(2002\)](#) proposed the partial correlation as a
569 measure of parameter sensitivity for models with correlated input based on the Latin Hypercube
570 sampling method. [Xu and Gertner \(2008a\)](#) proposed a regression-based method to derive the
571 correlated contribution (by variations of parameter correlated with other parameters) and the
572 uncorrelated contribution (by variations of parameter uncorrelated with other parameters).
573 Unfortunately, their methods rely on the assumption that the parameter effects are approximately
574 linear. In general, for complex hydrological models, it can be expected that parameter effects are
575 too nonlinear for such methods to yield reliable results. [Fang et al. \(2004\)](#) proposed sequential
576 sampling to approximate a differential sensitivity index. [Satelli et al. \(2004\)](#) proposed a correlation
577 ratio method based on McKay's one-way ANOVA method, which is based on the replicated Latin
578 hypercube sampling and suitable for non-linear and non-monotonic models. But [Bedford \(1998\)](#)
579 found the Sobol' evaluations depend on the order of the parameters. As [Xu and Gertner \(2008b\)](#)
580 said, both Fang et al.'s method and correlation ratio method require a large sample size which
581 would be impractical for complex models. Although many techniques have been proposed to
582 generalize the variance-based SA methods for the case of correlated or dependent variables

583 (Kucherenko et al., 2012; Xu, 2013), there is hardly any successful application into hydrological
584 modelling up to now. Further work should be considered to use these methods to investigate their
585 influence on model output for the correlated parameters in hydrological models.

586 **6.2 Applications of SA in model evaluations**

587 As previously mentioned, distributed modeling of catchment hydrology is a valuable approach
588 to understand, reproduce and predict the behavior of hydrological systems. However, distributed
589 hydrological models still remain as a simplified and imperfect representation of physical processes,
590 using uncertain observation data to estimate model inputs (e.g., parameters, initial conditions, etc.).
591 Thus, parameter estimation is critical to develop useful models of complex hydrological systems,
592 for which the important characteristics cannot be measured accurately or completely enough to
593 define model input values (Matott et al., 2009; Song et al., 2012d). In practice, SA is generally a
594 required step, and a necessary prerequisite to other steps as discussed below.

595 ***6.2.1 SA and parameter identification***

596 Parameter identification of hydrological models has increasingly become a problem as model
597 complexity increases with high-dimensions of model parameters. Model identification involves
598 choosing suitable model structure and degree of complexity; i.e., it is important to keep the model
599 description and parameterization as simple as possible to ensure sufficient calibration, but, at the
600 same time, it must be sufficiently distributed to capture the spatial variability of key model
601 parameters. Thus, the dimensionality of the parameter space must be limited so as to avoid model
602 over-parameterization. With respect to efficient parameter identification, SA is useful to provide
603 the qualitative and quantitative indices needed to identify important and non-important parameters

604 (Yang et al., 2011; Pappenberger et al., 2008; Confalonieri et al., 2010). It might be difficult to
605 efficiently estimate these parameters when there are a large number of parameters with no clearly
606 identifiable influence on output variables, or many parameters have similar effects (or interactions)
607 on output variables. In these cases, SA will be crucial for parameter identification. Thus, SA and
608 parameter identification usually are performed together in model calibration. For example,
609 Castaings *et al.* (2009) and Cibirin *et al.* (2010) emphasize that global SA of parameters can provide
610 much more information for parameter identification and estimation. Vandenberghe *et al.* (2001)
611 highlighted the complementarity of the SA for the parameter identification and calibration in
612 practice. To some extent, SA can be regarded as a solution to parameter identification.

613 **6.2.2 SA and UA**

614 Generally, the contribution of parameter uncertainty depends on the model structure, which is
615 also related to the parametric sensitivity in the modeling systems. Saltelli and Annoni (2010)
616 emphasize that the objective of UA is to answer the question, “How uncertain is this inference?”,
617 and that of SA is to answer, “Where is this uncertainty coming from?”. Generally, SA can be used
618 to characterize a pure UA (Kennedy, 2007). Whatever the terminology used, SA is not to be
619 intended as an alternative to UA but rather as a complement to UA. The two tasks, while having
620 different objectives, are often coupled in most cases (Saltelli and Annoni, 2010). For instance,
621 Mishra (2009) discussed various UA (e.g., Monte Carlo simulation, first-order second-moment
622 analysis, the point estimate method, logic tree analysis, and the first-order reliability method) and
623 SA techniques (e.g., stepwise regression, mutual information or entropy analysis, and classification
624 tree analysis) in hydrological models. They found that UA results are consistent with those from
625 SA based on two case studies. The same conclusion was reported by Wang *et al.* (2010) and

626 [Elsawwaf et al. \(2010\)](#). These studies demonstrate that the two approaches assist our understanding
627 of the uncertainty effect of model parameters on output variables and the structural characteristics
628 of hydrological modeling systems from different points of view. Currently, the two approaches
629 have more interaction, and they usually do not separate completely from each other. [Beven and](#)
630 [Binley \(1992\)](#) developed the generalized likelihood uncertainty estimation (GLUE) method, which
631 is as an extension of the regionalized sensitivity analysis (RSA) method proposed by [Spear and](#)
632 [Hornberger \(1980\)](#), to estimate parameter uncertainty and demonstrate the equifinality for different
633 parameters. The GLUE method has often been used for UA and SA in hydrological models. [Ratto](#)
634 [et al. \(2001\)](#) proposed a new approach for model calibration, coupling the GLUE and
635 variance-based SA methods, and found that integrated application enhanced the performance
636 efficiency of calibration procedures.

637 ***6.2.3 SA and parameter optimization***

638 Model calibration or parameter optimization of complex models is challenging due to the
639 uncertainty of a large number of parameters ([Fielen et al., 2009](#); [Foglia et al., 2009](#); [Keating et al.,](#)
640 [2010](#)). In practice, it is also difficult to ensure the accuracy of model application and reliability of
641 prediction via empirical estimation or automatic optimization ([Ciriello et al., 2013](#)). Hence, while
642 we seek more efficient and steady optimization algorithms, we also need sensitivity and
643 uncertainty analyses to estimate the effect of parameters on model predictions. As mentioned by
644 [Rakovec et al. \(2014\)](#), parameter SA can reduce the time of model calibration by focusing
645 estimation efforts on important parameters to model predictions. Therefore, for complex
646 hydrological models with a large number of parameters, SA may be a better choice to apply before
647 the model calibration. For example, [van Werkhoven et al. \(2009\)](#) investigated the use of global SA

648 as a screening tool to reduce the parametric dimensionality of multi-objective hydrological model
649 calibration problems, while maximizing the information extracted from hydrological response data.
650 They use the SAC-SMA model as an example and suggest that it can reduce the complexity of
651 calibration, while maintaining high quality model predictions. [Liu et al. \(2010\)](#) suggest that no
652 single objective function is adequate to measure how a model fails to predict the important
653 characteristics of the observed data, and multiple criteria should be considered. They couple the
654 Morris screening method with multi-objective differential evolution (MODE) (non-dominated
655 sorting differential evolution, NSDE) to quantify parameters in the MIKE11/NAM rainfall-runoff
656 model. The results showed that the integrated method can identify the optimal Pareto front and
657 maintains reasonable diversity in the obtained front for model calibration.

658 **6.3 Temporal and spatial variations of SA in hydrological models**

659 Distributed hydrological models allow model parameters and forcing data to vary on a spatial
660 scale, aiming to better represent the spatial variability of watershed processes at the cost of
661 increasing model complexity, which poses several challenges for model identification and
662 diagnosing ([Herman et al., 2013c](#)). Considering the widespread applications of distributed models,
663 there remains a need for diagnostic methods to study such models at their full spatial and temporal
664 complexity. Often, some of the model parameters will represent processes that only matter during
665 specific time periods, i.e. specific modes of the system, for example recession constants or
666 parameters controlling the extent of saturated areas in a catchment during a flood event. Such
667 parameters are only likely to be identifiable if these periods can be isolated, or if they sufficiently
668 impact a global objective function. It is often observed that parameters which are important during
669 low flow periods, when errors are generally small, or parameters which are only important for a

670 very short time, are not easily identifiable. Therefore, more recent studies have explored
671 time-varying sensitivities at predefined intervals throughout the model simulation, revealing the
672 dynamics of model controls under changing conditions (Wagener et al., 2003; van Werkhoven et al.,
673 2008a; Reusser and Zehe, 2011; Reusser et al., 2011; Garambois et al., 2013; Herman et al., 2013a;
674 Guse et al., 2014). Generally, sensitivity analysis methods used for time-varying analysis include
675 local and global approaches. Regardless of the method applied, they are generally used to estimate
676 sensitivity at each time step or for a running window (Massmann et al., 2014). In addition, several
677 studies that have focused on event-scale spatial sensitivities (Tang et al., 2007a; van Werkhoven et
678 al., 2008b; Wagener et al., 2009) have proposed using observations to identify representative events
679 for a watershed. However, if the dynamics of a watershed cannot be accurately restricted to one of
680 several events classifications, this selection of representative events fail to account for the full
681 range of process variability. Hence, Herman et al. (2013c) extended the event-scale approach to
682 primarily investigate the full dynamics of spatially distributed model controls based on Morris
683 screening method. To some extent, time-varying and spatial-scale sensitivity analysis present a
684 valuable opportunity to overcome the complexity of distributed parameter identification by
685 restricting search to only those parameters which are active at a specific time and location, to
686 improve the modeled representation of hydrological processes and enhance the understanding of
687 the hydrological cycle system.

688 **7 Summary and outlook**

689 Generally, the purpose of SA is to determine which model parameters exert the most influence
690 on model results. This information, in turn, allows unimportant parameters to be fixed or not

691 incorporated into the model and provides direction for future research to reduce parameter
692 uncertainties and increase model accuracy. It is widely accepted that identifying the most relevant
693 parameters in a model is of key importance for the hydrological modeling because of its role in
694 supporting not only effective parameterizations but also the development of the model itself.
695 Although there are various SA methods in hydrological modeling, practical experience shows that
696 no single analysis method is better than others. The regression-based method (e.g., SRC, SRRC) is
697 simple to implement and easy to interpret, and it may be still the first choice because it only
698 requires moderate computational cost in the field of hydrological models. However, for a complex
699 hydrological model with large number of parameters and high computational cost, Morris
700 screening methods should be a preferred choice for qualitative analysis, whereas a better choice
701 may be the meta-model approaches, and the best choice is their integration methods ([Francos et al.,
702 2003](#); [Song et al., 2012a, 2013](#); [Zhan et al. 2013](#)). This is because qualitative screening methods can
703 reduce the number of variables for quantitative analysis, and quantitative method (e.g.,
704 variance-based method) can quantify their influence of each input for output variance. The RSA
705 method, as a graphical SA, can provide information about the relationship between the output
706 response and the input parameters, which can improve our understanding of the model results.
707 However, the result of RSA primarily depends on the choice of the filtering criterion, that is to say,
708 it should be used with care. Entropy-based method is more competitive for delineating the
709 nonlinear and non-monotonic multivariate relationship than regression-based method.

710 Most previous work has been embedded into only one methodology to compute sensitivities,
711 despite the fact that different sensitivity analysis methods can lead to a difference in the ranking of
712 the importance of the different model factors. Instead, we suggest that several different sensitivity

713 measures have to be used in tandem. In addition, we need to build more realistic and more
714 integrated hydrological models to represent real-world thresholds, nonlinearities and feedbacks,
715 and which are capable of representing the implications of environmental change. Building these
716 necessarily more complex models must also be accompanied by a development in significantly
717 more powerful identification and evaluation algorithms. Such algorithms, combining optimization
718 and sensitivity analysis methods while considering uncertainty, have to be able to examine how
719 models represent hydrological cycle systems and whether this presentation is consistent with the
720 perception of the actual system and when models are incapable of doing so. Finally, we present our
721 viewpoints on development trends, research issues or hotspots of SA for complex hydrological
722 models.

723 (1) For complex hydrological models, the computational efficiency of model evaluation and
724 SA may be an unavoidable problem, even with the most effective algorithms or high performance
725 computers. Hundreds and thousands of model evaluations for global SA (e.g., variance-based
726 methods) make it more inconvenient, with expensive computational costs (e.g., greater than days
727 or months), especially when the number of parameters is greater than hundreds. Although
728 meta-modeling approaches have often been used in the hydrological models for SA, there are still
729 some technique issues to be resolved involving the reliability and goodness-of-fit of meta-models.
730 For physical-based, distributed hydrological models, practitioners using meta-models to represent
731 the response relationship between parameters and model outputs should consider the following
732 questions: (1) Do the meta-models reflect the typicality or characteristics between parameters and
733 outputs of original models?; (2) How should the goodness-of-fit of the two models be evaluated
734 based on different criteria?; and (3) How should the adaptive meta-modeling approach be selected

735 and developed to construct the surrogate models?

736 (2) Convergence and reliability of SA is another problem for scientists. With the availability
737 of different SA techniques, selecting an appropriate technique, monitoring the convergence and
738 estimating the uncertainty of the SA results are crucial for hydrological models, especially
739 distributed models, due to their non-linearity, non-monotonicity, highly correlated parameters, and
740 intensive computational requirements (Yang, 2011). Currently, there are many studies that have
741 examined the reliability of SA results in complex models, such as Yang (2011), Pappenberger et al.
742 (2008), and Confalonieri et al. (2010). These investigations also show that no SA method is perfect
743 and declare explicitly which conditions are important to avoid erroneous interpretation of model
744 output sensitivity to parameters. Therefore, appropriate and correctly integrated methods must be
745 selected based on their advantages and disadvantages to meet the actual requirement. In addition,
746 multi-objective SA and parameter optimization will become more important for complex
747 hydrological models to evaluate simulation results from different criteria.

748 (3) Although many SA methods are developed and have been used in these fields, there are
749 too many hypotheses or other limitations in these methods, involving the independence of input
750 variables, monotonicity of response functions, etc. In practice, parameters for hydrological models
751 usually have interactions or correlations, and these parameters may have significant joint effects on
752 output variables of interest. If these parameters are separated to analyze the effect for each
753 parameter, there may be some errors (e.g., Type I or Type II errors) in judgment or decision. As a
754 result, developing an efficient and effective global SA method will be an objective for many
755 scientists in the future.

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1240 **Tables and Figures**

1241 Table 1 Summary of the definition of SA in the different fields

Literature	Definition
Nesterov (1994)	the systematic investigation of the model responses to either perturbations of the model quantitative factors
Viel et al., 1995	a series of analyses of a data set to assess whether altering any of the assumptions made leads to different results
Pannell, 1997	To determine how different values of an independent variable will impact a particular dependent variable
US. EPA, 2001	sensitivity refers to the variation in output of a model with respect to changes in the values of the model inputs; ranking of the model inputs based on their relative contributions to model output variability and uncertainty
Frey and Patil, 2002	The assessment of the impact of changes in input values on model outputs.
Saltelli et al., 2004	The study of how the variation (uncertainty) in the output of a statistical model can be apportioned to the different variations in the inputs of the model
Schneeweiss, 2006	To determine the robustness of an assessment by examining the extent to which results are affected by changes in unmeasured variables, or assumptions with the aim of identifying “results that are most dependent on certain inputs”
European Commission (EC), 2009	To explore how the impacts of the options you are analyzing would change in response to variations in the model inputs
Matott et al., 2009	To study the degree to which model output is influenced by changes in model inputs or the model itself
Thabane et al., 2013	To address the question on “what will the effect be on results, if the key inputs or assumptions changed?”

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Table 2 Summary of three typical categories for SA methods

Type	Methods	Description of the methods	Characteristics
1	Local	Compute local response of model output based on the gradients (derivatives) of the model output with respect to parameter values evaluated at a single location in the parameter space	Easy of operation and interpret, self-verification, local effect of individual parameters
	Global	Evaluate the effect in the entire ranges of uncertain parameters	Estimating the effect of all the inputs on the model output based on many model runs
2	Mathematical	Estimate the local or linear sensitivity of output to individual parameter	Providing the uncertainty effect of parameter on the variance of output
	Statistical	Analyze the influence of various inputs on model output with running simulations based on sampling design methods	Qualitatively or quantitatively estimate the effect of inputs on the computational demand based on many model runs
	Graphical	Complement the mathematical or statistical methods for better representation with graphical plot	Graphical representation with more direct visualization
3	Screening	Be used to make a preliminary identification of sensitive inputs	Relatively simple, easy of operation and implementation, characteristics, such as nonlinearity, interaction, etc.
	Refined	Adequately consider complex model characteristics and need greater expertise and resources to implement	Providing quantitative results with more detailed analysis to implement
4	Qualitative	Providing a heuristic score to intuitively represent the relative sensitivity of parameters	Be aimed at screening a few active parameters from non-influential ones, relatively fewer model runs
	Quantitative	Estimating how sensitive the parameter is by computing the impact of the parameter on the variance of model output	To give information on the amount of change in the output, large number of model runs

Table 3 Recent global SA studies in hydrological modeling

Models	Number of parameters	SA Methods	Objective or output functions	The number of runs for hydrological modeling
BSM1	32	Regression	EQI, OCI	5×1000
DHSVM	4	GLUE	NSE	10000
DTVGM	14	Morris, Meta-modeling	WB, NSE, RC	600, 4000
ESTEL-2D	9	MMGSA(Sobol', K-L entropy, Morris)	NSE	1280
HBV	11	RSA	BIAS, RSME, NSE	60000
HBV	12	Sobol'	RMSE, ROCE	10000
HBV	15	Sobol', RSA	WB, NSE	8192, 10000
HEC-RAS	6	Sobol, K-L entropy, Morris, RSA, regression	NSE, MAE	Not reported
HEC-RAS	7	SARS-RT, Correlation, RSA	Normalized performance measure	4000
HL-RDHM	31×13	Sobol'	RMSE	40000
HL-RDHM	18	RSA, ANOVA, Sobol'	RMSE, $RMSE_{\text{Box-cox}}$	8192
HL-RDHM	$78 \times 14 = 1092$	Morris, Sobol'	RMSE	Over 6 million (Sobol'), approx.
HL-RDHM	$78 \times 14 = 1092$	Morris	RMSE, ROCE	21860
HYDRUS-2D	11	Sobol', mutual entropy, RSA	Output discharge	260000×11 (Sobol'), 260000
HYMOD	5	Sobol', Morris, SRC, RSA, SDP	NSE	18000, 3000, 3000, 3000, 5000
HYMOD	5	Sobol'	RMSE, ROCE	10000
LU4-R-N	41	RSA, GLUE	Relative RMSE, NSE	100000
MARTHE	20	Sobol' with Gaussian process	NSE	300
MARTHE	5	SDP	NSE	1024
MIKE 11	5	ANOVA	Water temperature error	Not reported
MIKE/NAM	9	Morris with Pareto ranking	$RMSE_{\text{peak}}$, $RMSE_{\text{low}}$	Not reported
MUSIC	13	Bayesian	NSE	10000
REALM	14	Morris	Yield	3×6000
SAC-SMA	17	Sobol' method	RMSE, ROCE	10000

Table 3 *continued*

Models	Number of parameters	SA Methods	Objective or output functions	The number of runs for hydro
SAC-SMA	14	Sobol' method	RMSE, RMSE _{Box-cox} , SFDCE, ROCE	7.5×10 ⁶
SAC-SMA	14	Sobol' method	RMSE, RMSE _{Box-cox} , SFDCE, ROCE	130000
SAC-SMA	14	Sobol' method	RMSE, RMSE _{Box-cox} , SFDCE, ROCE	Not reported
SAC-SMA	14	Regression-based method, screening-based method, variance-based method, meta-modeling method	MAE	280 (Morris), 400-600 (other methods), 2777 (FAST), 360 and 1050 (Sobol)
SLUPR	10×6	Meta-modeling and ANOVA	NSE	Not reported
SNOW17	10	RSA	NSE	10000
SVAT	30	Meta-modeling	Rn, LE, HF, Tair, Mo	400
SWAP	7	Sobol' method	RMSE	7168
SWAT	28	Sobol' method	RMSE, NSE, ROCE, SFDCE	60000
SWAT	26	Sobol' method	NSE	336000, 72000
SWAT	13	Sobol' method	RMSE	28000
SWAT	8	FAST	NSE, MRE, RMSE, SMSE, PDIFF, LCS	243
TNT2	16, 19, 6	Morris, ANOVA	20 output objective	1700 (16 inputs), 2000 (19 inputs), 1289 (SimLab, FAST), 487 (TNT2), 5632 (Sobol, SimLab), 5000 (TNT2)
TOPMODEL	9	FAST, EFAST, Sobol'	MAD	5632 (Sobol, SimLab), 5000 (TNT2)
VIC	10	MCAT-RSA	RMSE, ARE, RMSE _{Box-cox}	59049
WASH	13	Entropy analysis, stepwise regression	TP loading	250
WaSiM-ETH	11	FAST	RMSE	487
WDS	21	Sobol'	Resilience index, combined measure	2000
XAJ	15	Morris, meta-modeling	NSE, WB, GE, DE	640, 4000
XAJ	6	GLUE	NSE	60000

--**Models:** BSM1: benchmark simulation model No1; DHSVM: distributed hydrology soil vegetation model; DTVGM: distributed hydrology soil vegetation model; FEFLOW: finite element subsurface flow model; HBV: Hydrologiska Byråns Vattenbalansavdelning; HEC-RAS: Hydrologic Engineering

1252 Hydrology Laboratory- Research Distributed Hydrologic Model; HYDRUS-2D: a two-dimension finite element model; HYMO
1253 distributed model; LU4-R-N: four-response lumped model coupling riparian tank and nitrogen; MARINE: Modélisation et Ant
1254 pour des évènements Extrêmes; MIKE11: hydrological and hydraulic model; MIKE/NAM: a rainfall-runoff model develop
1255 stormwater improvement conceptualization; RELAM: Resource Allocation Model; SAC-SMA: Sacramento soil moisture
1256 use-based runoff process; SNOW17: a lumped process-based model that simulates snow accumulation and ablation; SVAT: s
1257 soil-water-atmosphere-plant model; SWAT: the soil and water assessment tool; TNT2: Topography-based Nitrogen Transfer
1258 topography based hydrological model; VIC: variable infiltration capacity macroscale hydrologic model; WASH: Watershed w
1259 and balance simulation model; WDS: Water distribution systems; XAJ: Xinanjiang model

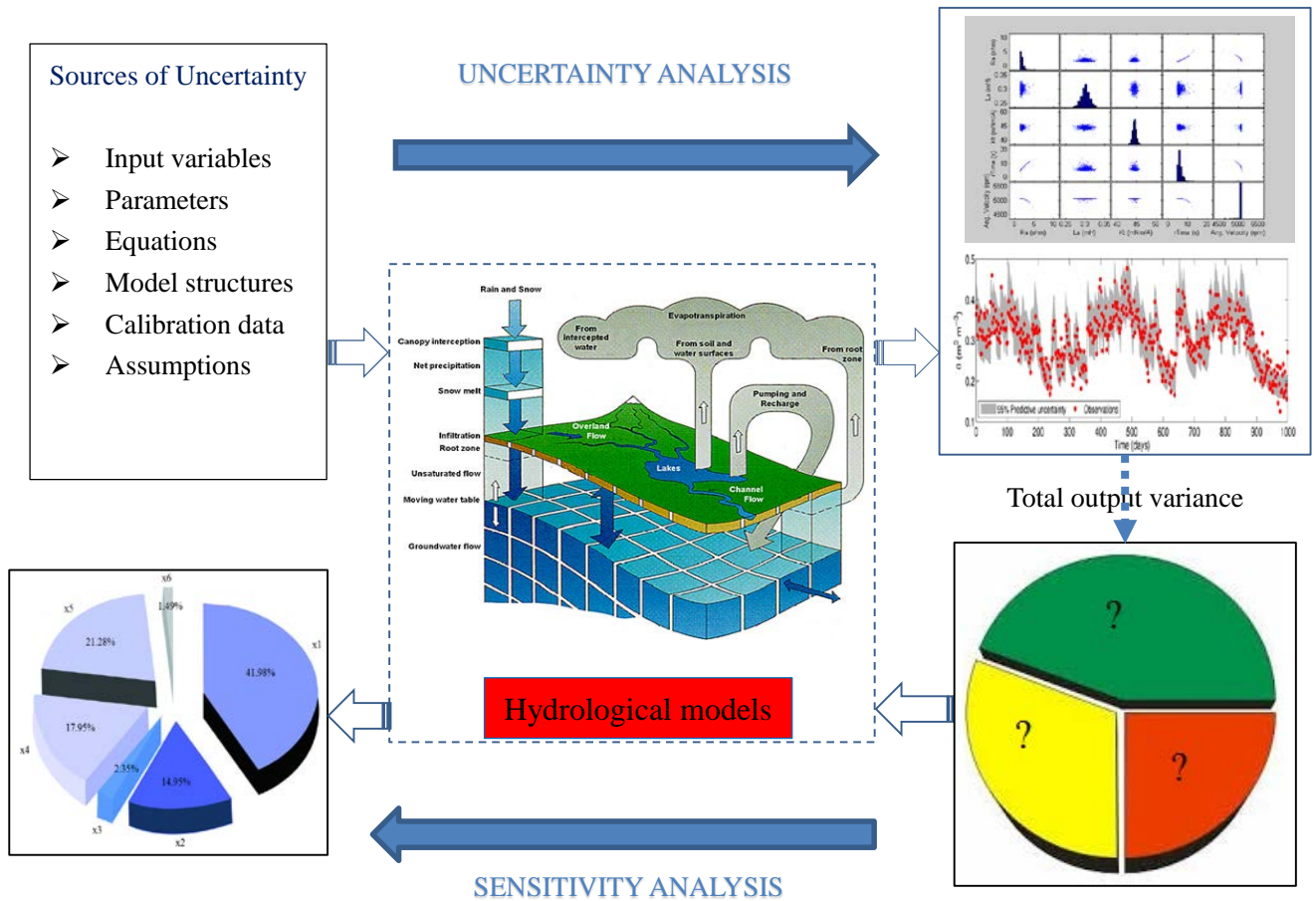
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1261 **--Objectives:** ARE: Absolute relative bias; DE: relative error for low-flow; EQI: effluent quality index; GE: relative error for hig
1262 LCS: longest common sequence; LE: daily average latent heat flux; MAD: mean absolute difference; MAE: Mean Absolute Error
1263 Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient; OCI: operating cost index; PDIFF: Peak difference; RC: correlation coefficient; RMSE: roo
1264 root-mean-square error of Box-Cox transformation; Rn: daily average net radiation; ROCE: Runoff coefficient error; SFDCE: SL
1265 Scaled mean square error; Tair: daily average air temperature; TP: total phosphorus; WB: water balance error

Table 4 General overview and comparison of various global SA techniques in hydrological modeling (adapted)

	Morris screening method	Regression-based method	Variance-based method	Meta-modeling based method
Sampling strategy	Morris one-at-a-time sampling design	Monte Carlo	quasi-random sampling, LHS, FAST sampling	Monte Carlo, LHS, Sobol' quasi-random sampling
Computational requirements ^a	$r(n+1)$ Cheap	m Cheap	$m(n+2) \sim m(2n+2)$ High	m Cheap
Characteristics of sensitivity measure	Qualitative/screening	Quantitative	Quantitative	Quantitative
Applicability	Model-independence	Linear model or monotonic model	Model-independence	Model-independence
Reliability	High	Depends on R^2	High	High (with dependence on R^2)
Parameter interaction	Yes/qualitative	Depends on the regression form	Yes/quantitative	Yes/ quantitative
Coping with nonlinearity	Yes	Depends on the regression form	Yes	Yes

a: r represents the number of the trajectories, m is the sample size, and n is the number of factors

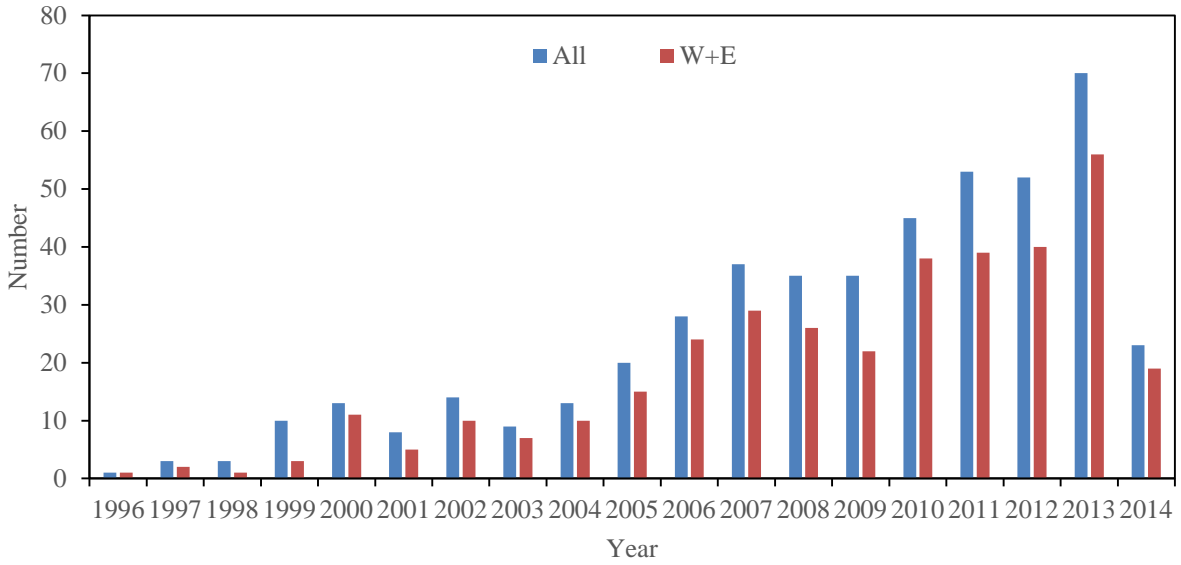


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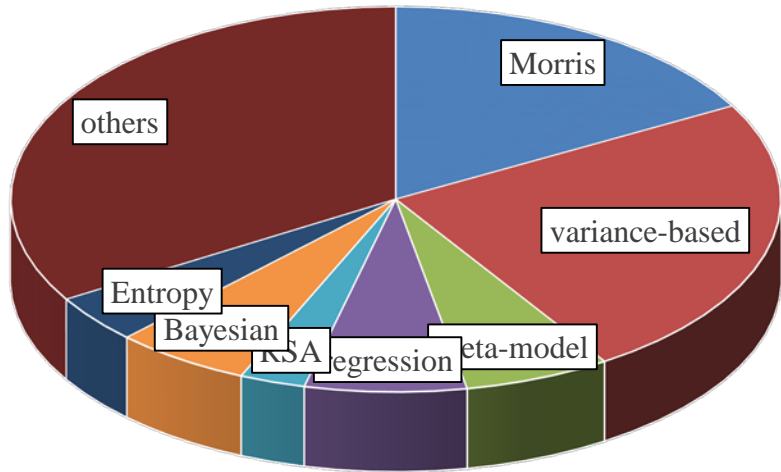
1269 Figure 1 Sketch for the relationship between uncertainty and sensitivity analysis in hydrological modeling. Global

1270 uncertainty analysis propagates all the uncertainties, using a model, to the model's outputs while sensitivity

1271 analysis determines the contribution of each input factor to the uncertainty of the outputs.



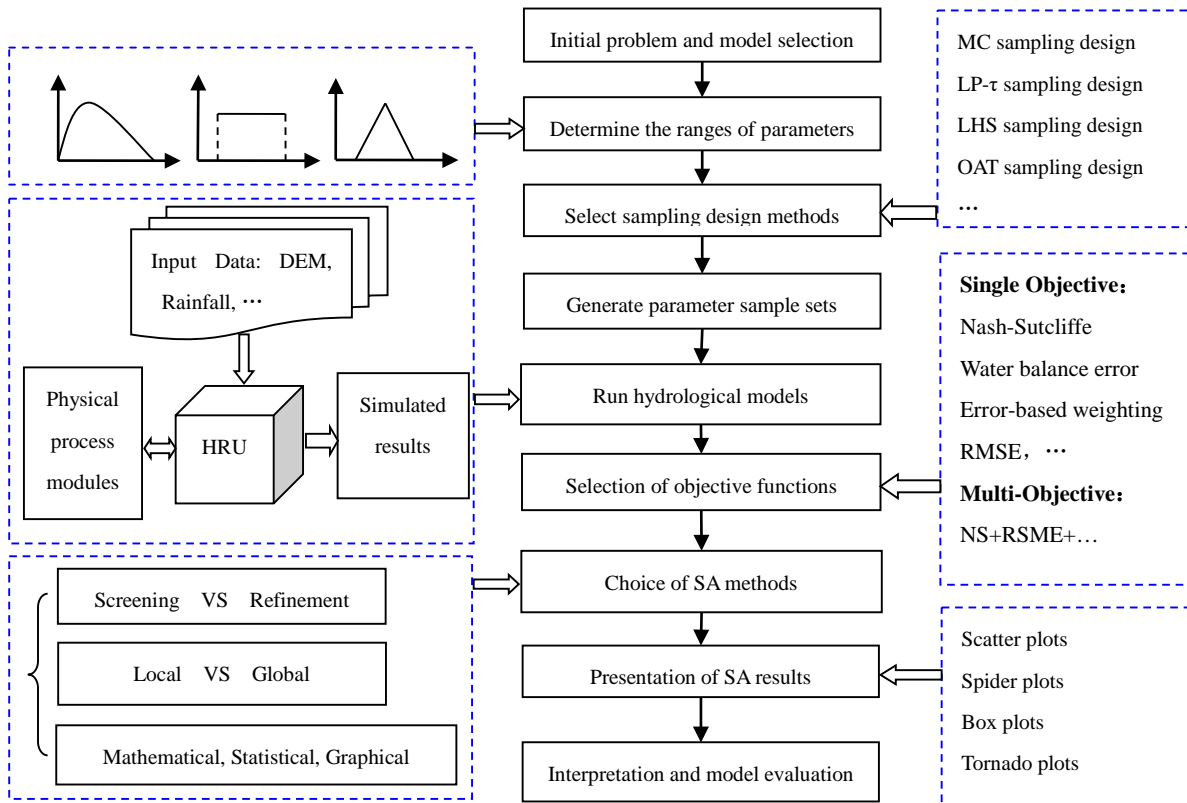
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■ Morris ■ variance-based ■ meta-model ■ regression
■ RSA ■ Entropy ■ others

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1274 Figure 2 Yearly publications on sensitivity analysis in the field of water sciences and the contribution rate of these
 1275 common methods in hydrological modeling from the Web of Science Core Collection. “All” is based on the search
 1276 terms “sensitivity analysis” + “hydrological model”+ “parameter sensitivity analysis” in the Web of Science
 1277 (Deadline to May 15, 2014). “W+E” represent the selected publications based on the categories “water resources”
 1278 and “environmental sciences” in the Web of Science. For more details refer to the supplement table.

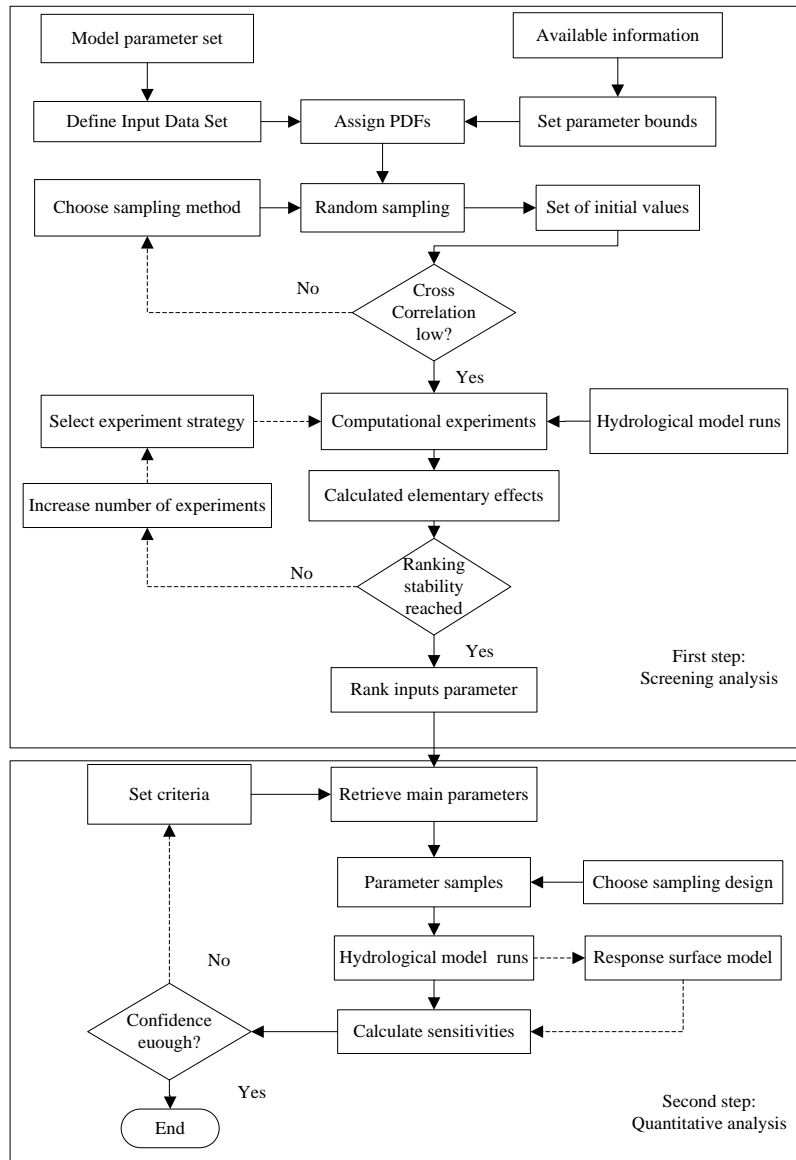


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Figure 3 Flow chart for SA in hydrological models



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Figure 4 Framework of two-step integration sensitivity analysis in hydrological models based on qualitative screening and quantitative analysis methods