

# Modeling Runoff and Sediment Yield in Highly Gullied Regions of Kashmir using SWAT Model: A Case Study of Lolab Watershed

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**ABSTRACT** Soil erosion in highly gullied regions of Kashmir valley is a serious global issue due to its impacts on economic productivity and environmental consequences leading to land disintegration. Further, Lolab is a flood prone area and has witnessed many disastrous floods in the past due to which the assessment of hydrological behavior becomes an utmost priority and identification of most problematic sub-basins contributing to the erosion and excessive runoff needs to be identified so that proper management strategies can be applied. In this study, SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment Tool) was integrated with Arc software to simulate the runoff and sediment yield of Lolab Watershed due to its flexibility in input data requirements and capability of modeling larger catchments and mountainous areas. While carrying out sensitivity analysis four most sensitive parameters were found for runoff estimation of which Initial soil conservation service Curve number II was the most sensitive one and two most sensitive parameters were found for sediment estimation of which channel erodability factor was the most sensitive parameter. After calibrating the values of these sensitive parameters, model provided reliable Nash-Sutcliffe( $N_{SE}$ ) and Coefficient of determination( $R^2$ ) efficiencies which makes SWAT a good analyzing tool to assess the hydrological behavior of highly gullied region and un-gauged basins of Kashmir. Coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency ( $N_{SE}$ ) of above 0.90 was found for both runoff and sediment yield while validating the model. SWAT estimated the sediment yield rates at individual sub-basin levels from which a prioritization map was prepared to find out the most problematic sub-basins in the watershed.

**KEYWORDS** Runoff, Sediment yield, Un-gauged basins, SWAT, Sensitivity analysis

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Soil erosion has been a long standing problem throughout the globe which has its adverse effects on the crop productivity and functioning of civil structures. Thus, management of watersheds at gross root level has become a priority so as to limit the disintegration of arable lands and malfunctioning of hydraulic structures (Nikolaidis et al., 2013; Bisantino et al., 2015)). Watershed management refers to optimum utilization of its resources without compromising on the balance of natural resources and environment (Van Andel, 2010). Different conventional methods are available to evaluate the soil loss from a watershed but its reliable prediction becomes tedious and time consuming by using these methods. Watershed models have revolutionized the process of analyzing hydrology of the catchment by giving reliable output and by saving the precious time of decision makers. These watershed models are divided into three different categories and are classified as Empirical models, conceptual models and physical models. Empirical models analyze the hydrological parameters by using the coefficients evaluated from actual observation or measured data (Wheater et al, 1993). Conceptual models incorporate a general depiction of catchment thereby avoiding point by point data necessities and represents a catchment as a progression of internal storages (sorooshian, 1991). Physical models, on the other hand, analyze the entire erosion process by evaluating its individual components from the solution of corresponding equations. However, all these models vary significantly in their analysis of parameters, input and output flexibility, scale accountability, processing ability, computational efficiency and capability of modeling the changes in catchments. Appropriate model should be employed so that runoff and sediment yield from the watershed can be predicted and most problematic sub-basins can be identified for rational utilization of land, soil and water resources (Himanshu et al., 2017). A model can perform well in one range of conditions and lack its performance in other set of conditions; therefore, it becomes necessary to choose the appropriate model for the particular watershed after proper evaluation to get the accurate and desired results. A comprehensive review of models and their application worldwide revealed that SWAT, ANSWERS, AGNPS, WEPP and SHETRAN models are the most capable ones for prediction and assessment of various hydrological parameters like runoff and sediment yield, and hence, these physical watershed models are more reliable for accomplishing sustainable watershed management practices (Gull and Shah, 2020). SWAT has an advantage of working better in

33 large watersheds and mountainous areas and has choice of methods in predicting runoff (Shen et al, 2009). SWAT  
 34 model performs well in hilly areas and is a better tool for assessment of hydrological parameters in general (Pradhan  
 35 et al., 2020). Earlier, attempts were made to predict the runoff and sediment yield of Lolab watershed using a  
 36 combination of manual and auto-calibrated SWAT model for different set of time period and with low resolution  
 37 input data (Gull et al., 2017).SWAT model is suitable for best management practices of watersheds and performs  
 38 well within wide range of conditions (Zhang et al., 2014)  
 39

40 **2 METHODS**

41 This study employs SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment tool) due to its ability of predicting the impact of land  
 42 management practices on hydrology of large complex watersheds. The main focus of the study will be to check the  
 43 efficiency of SWAT model using a high resolution input data by comparing its output with the actual observed runoff  
 44 and sediment yield data of Pohru watershed and identification of sub-basins which draw the maximum amount of  
 45 sediment.

46 **2.1 Model Description**

47 SWAT is a river basin scale, continuous spatially distributed physical watershed model designed to simulate different  
 48 hydrological parameters in large complex watersheds and capable of integration with GIS interface (Arnold et al,  
 49 1998).SWAT creates Hydrologic Response Units to analyze the diversity of a catchment in terms of land use/ land  
 50 cover, soil characteristics and slope. The movement of water in the channel and the overland flow is simulated in the  
 51 routing phase and land phase of the model respectively. The movement of water on the surface is analyzed by the  
 52 water balance equation given by Setegn et al (2008) defined in equation 1 given as:

53 
$$SW_t = SW_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t (R_{day} - Q_{surf} - E_a - W_{seep} - Q_{gw})x \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

54  
 55 Where, SW<sub>t</sub>= Final soil water content in millimeters, SW<sub>0</sub>= Initial soil water content in millimeters, t= Time in days,  
 56 R<sub>day</sub> = Precipitation of day x in millimeters, Q<sub>surf</sub> = Surface runoff on day x in millimeters, E<sub>a</sub> = Evapotranspiration  
 57 on day x in millimeters, W<sub>seep</sub> = Water entering the vadose zone on day x in millimeters, Q<sub>gw</sub> = Return flow on day  
 58 x in millimeters.  
 59

60 SWAT calculates surface runoff by two methods (Neitsch et al., 2011) giving an option to the user to choose the  
 61 method suitable according to the availability of data and output requirement.  
 62

63 The SCS curve number method (SCS, 1985) analyses runoff by the equation 2 given as:

64 
$$Q_{surf} = \frac{(R_{day} - I_a)^2}{(R_{day} - I_a + S)} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

65 Where, R<sub>day</sub> = Precipitation of day x in millimeters, I<sub>a</sub> = initial abstractions which includes surface storage,  
 66 interception and infiltration prior to runoff in millimeters, S= Surface retention in millimeters which depends on the  
 67 soil water content and is given by equation 3 as:  
 68

69 
$$S = 25.4 \left( \frac{1000}{CN} - 10 \right) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

70 Where, CN = Curve number for the day.

71 SWAT utilizes modified version of Universal Soil Loss Equation (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978) to calculate the  
 72 sediment drawn from a particular response unit which is given in equation 4 as:  
 73

74 
$$T_{sediment} = (Q_{surf} \times q_{peak} \times A_{hru})^{0.56} K_{usle} \times C_{usle} \times P_{usle} \times L_{susle} \times C_{frg} \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

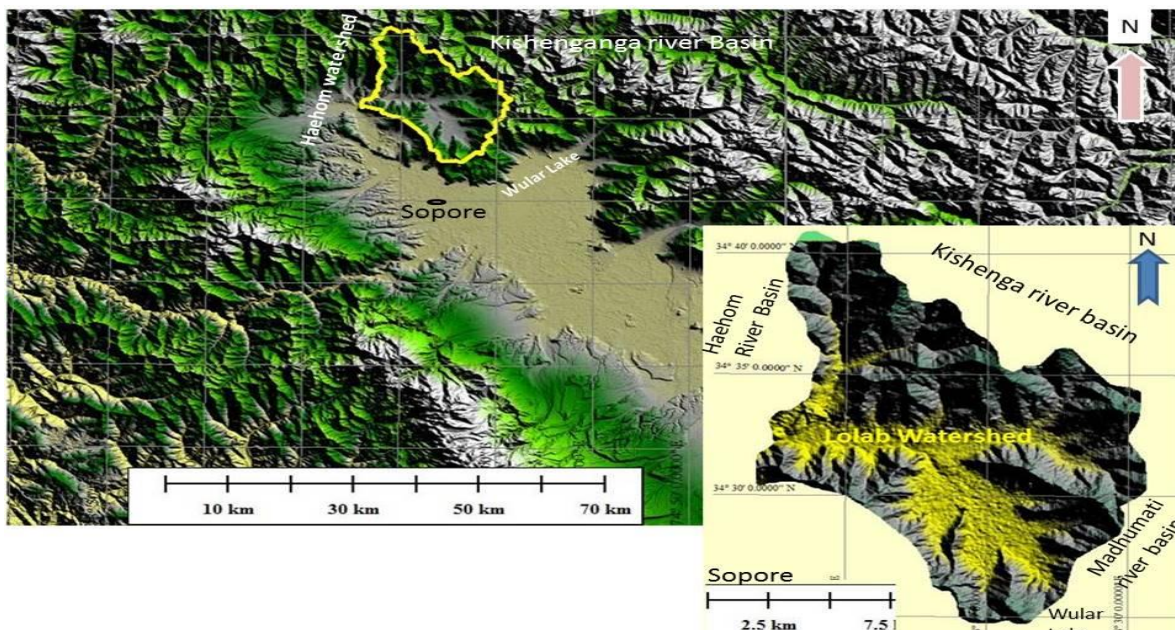
75  
 76 Where, T<sub>sediment</sub>=Sediment yield in metric tons, Q<sub>surf</sub>= Surface runoff volume in millimeters per hectare, q<sub>peak</sub>=  
 77 peak runoff rate in m<sup>3</sup>/s, A<sub>hru</sub>= Area of hydrologic response unit in hectares, K<sub>usle</sub> = Soil erodibility factor ,C<sub>usle</sub>  
 78 =Cover and management factor, P<sub>usle</sub> = Support practice factor, L<sub>susle</sub> = Topographic factor, C<sub>frg</sub> =Coarse fragment  
 79 factor.

80 Description of SWAT model and its different components is explained in SWAT documentation given by Neitsch et  
 81 al, (2011).  
 82

## 83 2.2 Study Area

84 Lolab watershed (Figure 1) is one of the watersheds of Pohru catchment with an area of about 45Km<sup>2</sup> and classified  
 85 in three different physiographic units viz flood plains, karewas and mountains(Ahmed and Mir.,2014). It lies between  
 86 34°41' to 34°24' N Latitude and 74°09' to 74°23' E Longitude. Elevation of Lolab watershed starts from 1500 meters  
 87 and goes upto 3900 meters. The study area is mostly dominated by cambrio-slurian formations and panjal traps,  
 88 followed by Agglomeratic slates, granites and recent alluvium( Thakur and Rawat, 1992). Agriculture is the dominant  
 89 land use category in the Lolab watershed with 34.14 percent followed by the sparse forest cover with 26.18 percent  
 90 of total watershed area. The major class of soil in Lolab is Fine Loamy soil which accounts for 79.58 percent of the  
 91 total watershed area. Being a mountainous area, the major area of the watershed varies from steep to very steep with  
 92 a slope of more than 9 degrees.

93



94  
 95 Figure 1. Study Area (Lolab Watershed of Pohru Catchment)

## 96 2.3 Data Requirement and Preparation

97 SWAT uses different inputs at watershed level, sub-basin level as well as HRU (Hydrologic Response Unit) level  
 98 (Arnold et al., 2012). Watershed level input includes the method to be selected to model evapotranspiration to analyze  
 99 all the HRU's in the watershed. Sub-basin level inputs are the inputs which will simulate all the HRU's in a particular  
 100 sub-basin. These include precipitation and temperature data for particular sub-basin. HRU level inputs can be set to  
 101 unique the values for individual HRU's such as management scenarios. ArcSWAT 2012 needs spatial databases  
 102 digital elevation model (DEM), land use/ land cover and soil characteristics. Meteorological data includes daily  
 103 rainfall, temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation and wind speed etc. Further, observed hydrological data is  
 104 needed to carry out the sensitivity analysis.

105 Table 1. Source of different inputs used in this study.

S.No	Input	Source	Resolution	Use
1	DEM	Derived from 30-meter STRM Data set	30 m × 30 m	a)Delineation of watershed b)Analysis of drainage pattern c)Derivation of slope

2	Land use / Land cover	Department of Geography, University of Kashmir	100m × 100m	a)Categorization of area b)Affects Runoff, evapotrapiration and other hydrological processes
3	Soil data	Soil conservation Department, Kashmir	250m × 250m 3 soil profiles	a)Categorization for individual HRU's
4	Weather data	Meteorological Department of Kashmir	4 gauging stations	Model inputs for evaluation of hydrological data
5	Measured data of runoff and sediment yield	Irrigation and Flood Control Department Kashmir	Daily data from Jan 2009- Dec 2017	Data used for calibration and validation of estimated data

106

## 107 2.4 Model Setup

108 SWAT model (2012 version) was integrated with ArcGIS (version 10.1) for effective use of spatial data to enhance  
 109 model behavior and to provide a user-friendly editing environment. Watershed was automatically delineated into  
 110 sub-basins and further into Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs) to describe spatial heterogeneity in terms of slope,  
 111 land cover and soil characteristics within the catchment. The first step was to import a 30 m × 30 m resolution  
 112 Digital Elevation Map. A polyline stream network data set was burnt into SWAT to improve the hydrological  
 113 segmentation and reduce the processing time. A threshold critical source area of 300 hectares was used which  
 114 delineated the whole area into 43 sub-basins. A land use/ land use cover map of resolution 100 m × 100 m in a  
 115 projected grid format was loaded into the SWAT along with the soil data to determine the spatial heterogeneity within  
 116 each sub-basin which resulted into delineation of 43 sub-basins into 182 Hydrologic Response Units taking into  
 117 consideration 5%, 10% and 10% threshold levels for land use, soil and slope classes. The land use classifications  
 118 were re-classified in a form to match the land use classes recognized by SWAT and are categorized in table 2.

119 Table 2. Re-classification of Land-use/ Land cover classes

S.No	Land use Class	Re-classification into 4-letter SWAT code	Percentage area
1	Dense forests	FRSD	9.18
2	Moderate forests	FRSD	8.98
3	Sparse forests	FRSD	26.18
4	Agriculture	AGRL	34.14
5	Horticulture	RNGE	10.39
6	Water bodies	WATR	7.52
7	Snow	WATR	3.61

120

121 Land use swat description used in reclassifying land use/land cover map was obtained from USDA-NASS (The  
 122 United States Department Of Agriculture-National Agricultural Statistics Science crop land data layer).

123

## 124 2.5 Model Calibration and Validation

125 SWAT model was applied to the watershed under study for period of 8 years from 2010-2017. Data from 2010-2013  
 126 was used for calibration and the model was validated for the period of 2014-2017. SWAT has manual calibration as  
 127 well as auto-calibration built-ins. Manual calibration, being a time consuming procedure (Eckhardt & Arnold, 2001),  
 128 whose successes depends on the experience of the modeler was avoided in this study. Auto-calibration technique was  
 129 used to carry out the calibration task and to find the optimal parameters using the Shuffled Complex Evolution  
 130 Method (SCEM) algorithms (Arnold et al., 2012). After finding out the most sensitive parameters, for both stream-  
 131 flow and sediment yield, the model was validated and the efficiency of model was checked using Coefficient of  
 132 determination (R<sup>2</sup>) and Nash-Sutcliffe Coefficient (NSE) given in equation 5 and 6 respectively (Tuppad et al., 2011).

133

$$ENS = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Observed_i - Predicted_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Observed_i - Mean_{Observed})^2} \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

$$R2 = \left\{ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Observed_i - Observed_{mean})(Predicted_i - Predicted_{mean})}{[\sum_{i=1}^n (Observed_i - Observed_{mean})^2]^{1/2} [\sum_{i=1}^n (Predicted_i - Predicted_{mean})^2]^{1/2}} \right\}^2 \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

Where, ENS is Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient, R2 is coefficient of determination,  $Observed_i$  is the actual measured data for the time period i,  $Predicted_i$  is the data estimated by model for the time period i,  $Mean_{Observed}$  is the mean of the actual measured data,  $Predicted_{mean}$  is the mean of data estimated by model, n is the number of values in comparison.

Nash-Sutcliffe gives the efficiency between -∞ to 1 to relate the goodness-of-fit of the model to the variance of observed data. An efficiency of 1 corresponds to the perfect match between the data estimated by model and the actual observed data. A Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency of zero means that the data estimated by the model is as accurate as the mean of the actual observed data. An efficiency of less than zero depicts the inefficiency of model to estimate the data. Efficiency between 0.7 to 1 depicts that the model predicts extremely well (Calder, I.R., 1998).

The value of coefficient of determination lies between zero and 1 where the efficiency of zero means there is no correlation at all between the actual measured data and the data predicted by the model. An efficiency of 1 indicates a perfect match between the two set of data.

### 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First simulation by SWAT was unable to quantify the desired outcome. The actual peak discharges were underestimated due to which the model calibration was necessary. Four most sensitive parameters were identified and calibrated accordingly to improve the efficiency of SWAT. The parameters were modified according to the procedure and ranges defined in SWAT model documentation (Arnold et al., 2012). The initial soil conservation service Curve Number II was increased by 16% of the original Curve number value to amplify the runoff by decreasing the total infiltration. The available soil water capacity was reduced by 10% of the original value so that the movement of water through soil layers can be increased. The average slope length was also moderated for each sub-basin with the values ranging from 46m-290m throughout 43 sub-basins. The saturated hydraulic conductivity was decreased by 8% of the original value in order to reduce the lateral flows. These sensitive parameters for estimation of runoff are summarized in table 3 along with their ranks.

Table 3. Most sensitive parameters for runoff estimation

Parameter	Rank	Range of calibration	Calibrated value
Initial Soil Conservation Service Curve Number II	1	±25%	16%
Available Soil Water Capacity	2	±25%	10%
Average Slope Length in meters	3	10 to 300	46-290
Saturated Hydraulic Conductivity(mm/h)	4	±15%	8%

Likewise two most sensitive parameters were identified for calibration process of sediment which includes Channel erodability factor and channel cover factor whose values were adjusted to 0.65 and 0.43 respectively. Sensitive parameters for sediment calibration are summarized in table 4.

Table 4. Most sensitive parameters for Sediment yield estimation

Parameter	Rank	Range of calibration	Calibrated value
Channel erodability factor	1	0-1	0.65
Channel cover factor	2	0-1	0.43

The monthly observed values of runoff and values predicted by the model for the calibration period from 2010-2013 were in average relationship with each other with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency and Coefficient of determination of 0.56 and 0.81 respectively (Figure 2). However, these efficiencies improved while SWAT was run for the validation period from 2013-2017 with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency and Coefficient of determination as 0.98 and 0.99 respectively (Figure 3). The efficiency of SWAT along with the fitting equation between observed and simulated values of runoff during calibration and validation period is shown in table 5.

173 Table 5. Efficiency of SWAT model for prediction of runoff during calibration and validation period

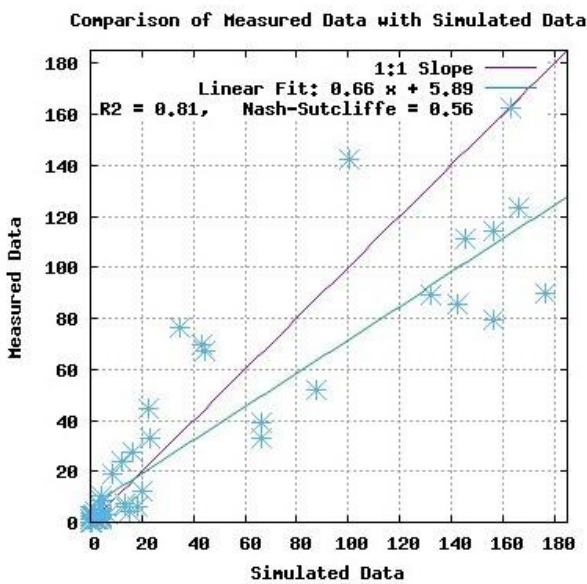
Observed and Predicted Runoff(mm)	Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency	Coefficient of determination	Linear fit equation (Y= predicted flow; x=observed flow)
Calibration Period(2010-2013)	0.56	0.81	$Y = 0.66x + 5.89$
Validation Period (2013-2017)	0.98	0.99	$Y = 0.93x - 0.21$

174  
 175 SWAT showed satisfactory results while modeling sediment yield with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency and Coefficient of  
 176 determination values of 0.75 and 0.76 respectively during the calibration period (Figure 4) and these efficiencies  
 177 increased during the validation period with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency of 0.91 and coefficient of determination as 0.94  
 178 (Figure 5). The efficiency of SWAT along with the fitting equation between observed and simulated values of  
 179 sediment yield during calibration and validation period is shown in table 6. Although the statistical evaluation showed  
 180 the satisfactory runoff simulation for both calibration and validation periods, SWAT tended to underestimate the  
 181 runoff during high-flow periods. This could be partly because the present curve number technique is unable to  
 182 generate accurate runoff prediction for a day that experience several storms. When several storms occur during a  
 183 single day, the soil moisture level and the corresponding runoff curve number vary from storm to storm (Kim et al.,  
 184 2018). However, SCS-CN methods define a rainfall event as the sum of all rainfall that occurs during one day, and  
 185 this might lead to underestimation of runoff (Chow et al., 1988)

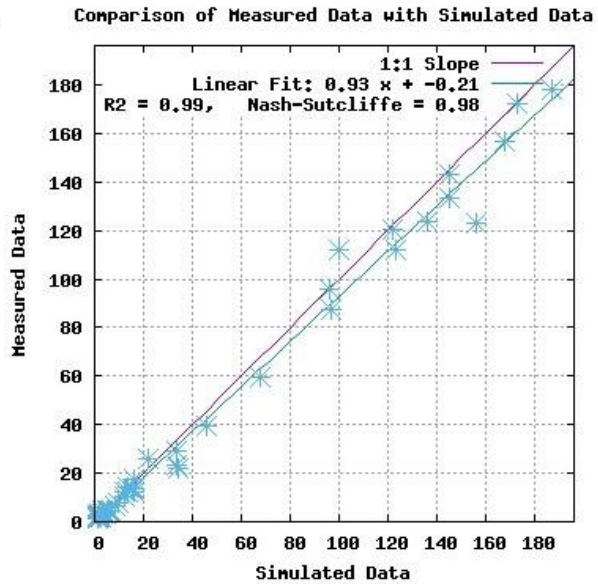
186 Table 6. Efficiency of SWAT model for prediction of sediment yield during calibration and validation period.

Observed and Predicted Sediment yield(t/ha)	Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency	Coefficient of determination	Linear fit equation (Y= predicted yield; x=observed yield)
Calibration Period(2010-2013)	0.75	0.76	$Y = 0.88x + 2.58$
Validation Period (2013-2017)	0.91	0.94	$Y = 0.85x + 2.42$

187



188  
 189 Figure 2. Scatter plot showing relation  
 190 between observed and predicted runoff  
 191 during Calibration period.



192 Figure 3. Scatter plot showing relation  
 between observed and predicted runoff  
 during validation period.

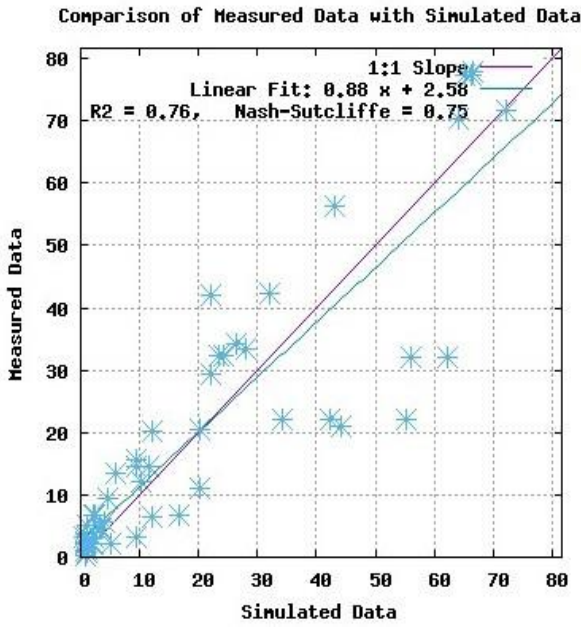


Figure 4. Scatter plot showing relation between observed and predicted sediment during Calibration period

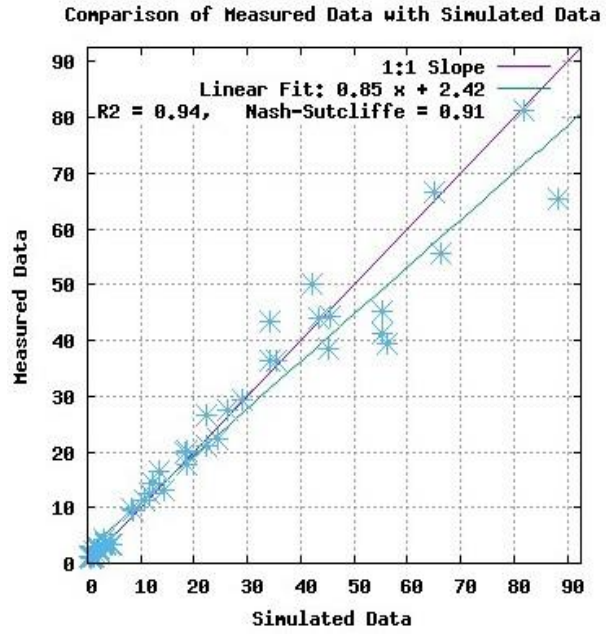


Figure 5. Scatter plot showing relation between observed and predicted sediment during validation period.

Bar-charts showing the variation between the observed and predicted values of runoff during the calibration and validation periods are shown in figure 6 and 7 respectively.

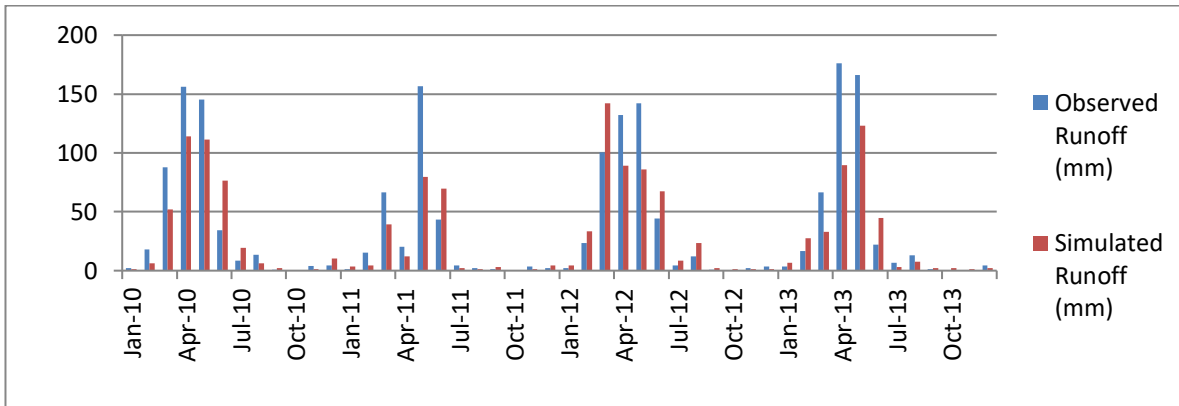


Figure 6. Bar-chart showing monthly values of observed and predicted runoff during calibration period.

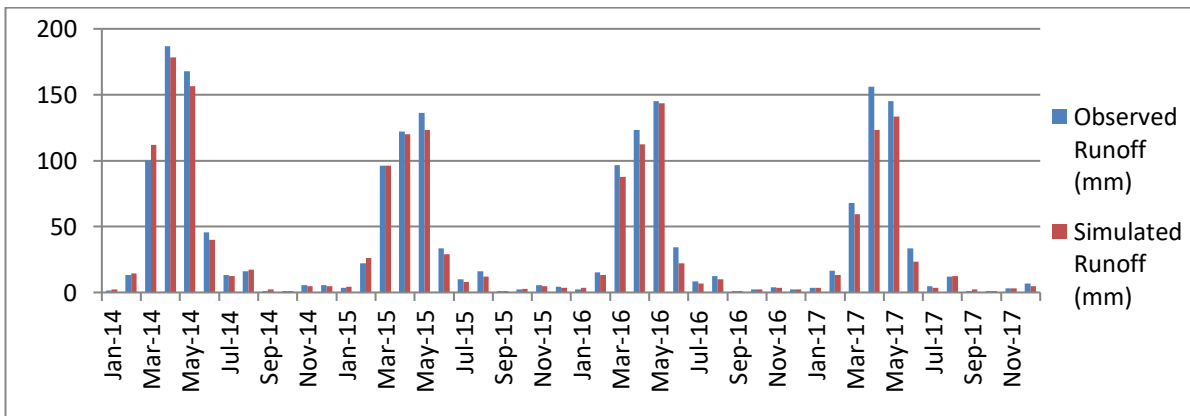


Figure 7. Bar-chart showing monthly values of observed and predicted runoff during validation period.

A plot of monthly observed and predicted sediment yield during the calibration and validation periods is shown in the form of bar-charts in figure 8 and figure 9 respectively.

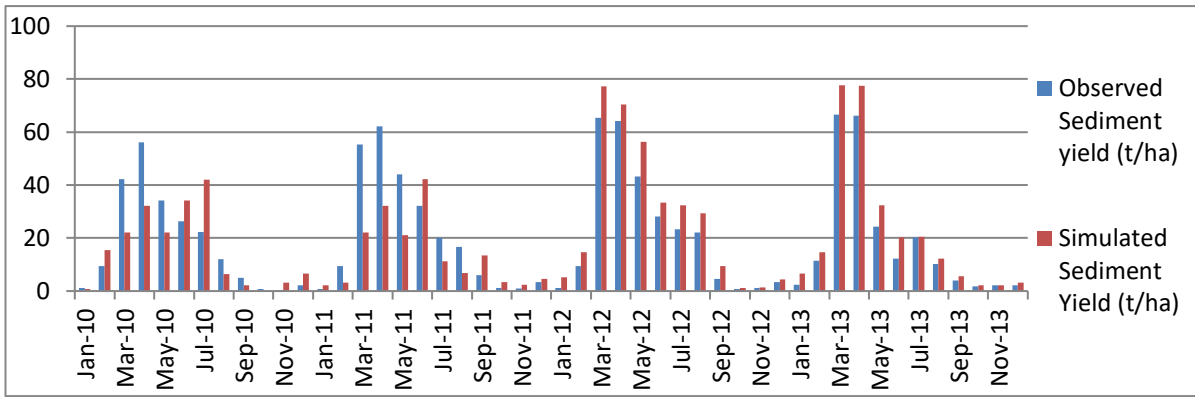


Figure 8. Bar-chart showing monthly values of observed and predicted sediment yield during calibration period.

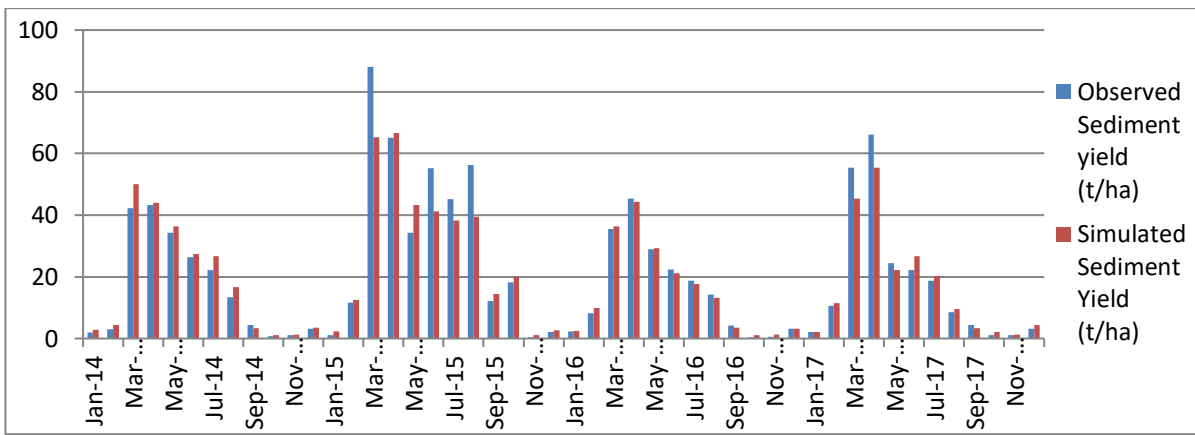


Figure 9. Bar-chart showing monthly values of observed and predicted sediment yield during validation period.

The annual average sediment drawn from each sub-basin was calculated to find the most problematic sub-basins and on the basis of that a prioritization map was prepared as shown in figure 10.

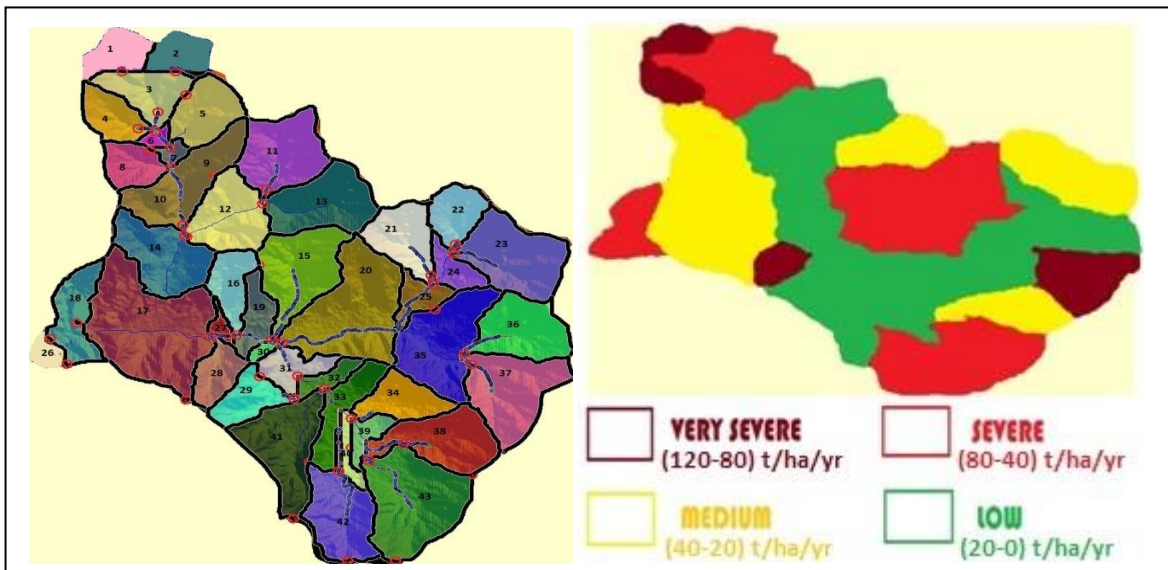


Figure 10. Watershed prioritization map showing the severity level of erosion in different sub-basins

The sub-basins were categorized in very severe, severe, medium and low severity areas as shown in table 7. The status shows that about 40% of the total area of watershed come under very severe to severe erosion zone. Sub-basin no's 1,4,6,7,28,37 of Lolab watershed at the existing condition generates a maximum annual average sediment yield, this can be reduced by using sediment yield intervention strategies such as land slope stabilization, construction bench terraces, changing the land use of steep area and afforestation.



243 **Table 7. Severity level of sub-basins of Lolab watershed**

S.No	Severity level	Sub-basin numbers	Percentage area	Annual average sediment yield (t/ha/yr)
1	Very severe	1,4,6,7,28,37	10.47	80-120
2	severe	2,3,5,15,18,20,21,25,26,42,43	29.17	40-80
3	medium	8,10,13,14,17,22,23,38,39	24.22	20-40
4	low	9,11,12,16,19,24,27,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,39,40,41	36.14	0-20

244  
245246 **4 CONCLUSION**

247 Even though various efforts are been made to address the soil erosion problem at gross root level and various  
 248 conventional methods are being used to know the hydrological behavior at watershed level, it is necessary to know  
 249 about the hydrological parameters at sub-basin or even smaller levels to find out the most problematic areas and  
 250 factors responsible for degradation of whole watershed. In this study, a semi-distributed physical model SWAT (Soil  
 251 and Water Assessment Tool) was used to assess the hydrological behavior of a small watershed of Pohru catchment  
 252 of Kashmir valley. The aim of the present study was to check the efficiency of SWAT model in predicting the runoff  
 253 and sediment yield of Lolab watershed and to identify the most problematic sub-basins which draw the maximum  
 254 amount of sediment.

255 The values estimated by the model were compared with the actual observed data and a good agreement between the  
 256 observed and simulated values was found with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiencies as 0.56 and 0.75 for runoff and sediment  
 257 respectively yield and coefficient of determination as 0.81 and 0.76 for runoff and sediment yield respectively during  
 258 the calibration period.

259 The efficiencies increased during the validation of model with Nash-Sutcliffe efficiencies of 0.98 and 0.91 for runoff  
 260 and sediment yield respectively and coefficient of determination as 0.99 and 0.94 for runoff and sediment yield  
 261 respectively.

262 Further, a prioritization map was prepared to find the areas which draw maximum amount of sediment so that proper  
 263 intervention strategies can be applied for management of watershed. In general, SWAT was found to be a good  
 264 analyzing tool for assessment of hydrological behavior of highly gullied regions and other un-gauged basins of  
 265 Kashmir valley.

266 **DISCLAIMER**

267 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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