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1 **Evidence of the impact of urbanization on the hydrological regime**  
2 **of a medium-sized periurban catchment in France**

3  
4 Braud, I., Breil, P., Thollet, F., Lagouy, M., Branger, F.

5  
6 Irstea, UR HHLY, Hydrology- Hydraulics, CP 220, 3bis Quai Chauveau, F-69336 Lyon,  
7 France

8  
9 Jacqueminet, C., Kermadi, S., Michel, K.

10 Université de Lyon, UMR CNRS EVS, 18 Rue Chevreul, 69363 Lyon Cedex 7, France

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21  
22 Corresponding author: Isabelle BRAUD, Irstea, UR HHLY, CP 220, 3bis Quai Chauveau, F-  
23 69336 Lyon, France. [Isabelle.braud@irstea.fr](mailto:Isabelle.braud@irstea.fr)

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32

## 1 Abstract

2 In this paper we explore several indicators to evidence the impact of land use change, and  
3 particularly of urbanization/artificialization on discharge series of periurban catchments. A  
4 first set of indicators is derived from the literature and describes the monthly and annual  
5 hydrological regime, low flows and high flows, and flow components. Statistical tests are also  
6 applied to assess the existence of trends/ruptures on the longest time series. In addition, new  
7 indicators, especially built to show the impact of Sewer Overflow Devices (SODs) and  
8 infiltration into sewer networks are proposed. The method is applied to the Yzeron (150 km<sup>2</sup>)  
9 catchment, located close to Lyon city (France) where various discharge gauges with a variable  
10 time step are available on sub-catchments ranging from a few to 130 km<sup>2</sup> (some of them  
11 nested), with a large variety of land uses (forest, agricultural land, artificialized areas). In  
12 addition, discharge is also measured in a SOD and a combined sewer network so that the  
13 relevance of the new proposed indicators can be assessed. In the largest sub-catchments, the  
14 results show a decrease of specific discharge from upstream to downstream corresponding to  
15 an increase of artificialized areas, except for high flows. When a SOD is present, the specific  
16 discharge is increased for frequencies larger than 50%, and the frequency of zero daily  
17 discharge is decreased. Waste water can be the only source of water in autumn month in a 4.1  
18 km<sup>2</sup> sub-catchment. Base flow is also decreased for the most urbanized catchments. Our  
19 results confirm the impact of SODs on the modification of the flood regime, with an increase  
20 of frequent floods, but a marginal impact on the largest floods, mainly governed by saturation  
21 of the rural parts of the catchments. The decomposition of the sewer discharge shows that, on  
22 an annual basis, infiltration in the sewer network accounts for 30% of the total discharge and  
23 runoff due to rainwater to about 40% (the remaining being composed of the waste water  
24 discharge). It can explain the decrease of base flow. Our analysis shows that, for periurban  
25 catchments, a long term monitoring of nested sub-catchments and infrastructures (SODs,  
26 sewer networks) with a small time step, is very valuable and provides data allowing a  
27 quantitative assessment of the impact of urbanization on the whole hydrological regime.

28

29 Keywords: Suburban/periurban rivers, hydrological regime, high flow, low flow, impact of  
30 urbanization

## 11. Introduction

2

3 Projections of population growth states that about 60% of the worldwide population is  
4 expected to live in towns in 2030 (Paul and Meyer, 2001). Around big cities, periurban areas  
5 are often the most affected by the corresponding urbanization (e.g. Meija and Moglen., 2010).  
6 In this paper, the word periurban, used in Europe and Australia, will refer to catchments made  
7 of a mixture of natural or agricultural lands, and urbanized areas. In the US, the word  
8 suburban is most often used, but it refers generally to residential areas with houses and  
9 gardens. Urbanization increases imperviousness of previously natural or agricultural areas.  
10 Construction of built-up areas is generally associated with the building of artificial structures  
11 such as road networks, drinkable, rainwater or sewer networks. These changes have an impact  
12 on the water cycle and aquatic ecosystems, due to the increase and acceleration of surface  
13 runoff, decrease of groundwater recharge and a modification of natural water pathways due to  
14 the artificial networks (e.g. Bras and Perkins, 1975; Chocat et al., 2001; Booth et al., 2002;  
15 Randhir, 2003; Matteo et al., 2006; Marsalek et al., 2007). This can lead to flooding, pollution  
16 and erosion problems within periurban rivers. In some areas, equipped with Combined Sewer  
17 Systems (CSSs), Sewer Overflow Devices (SODs) are introduced. When the sewer network is  
18 overflowed, it delivers polluted water to the river. This can lead to incision and erosion  
19 problems, which perturb the ecological status of the rivers (e.g. Hatt et al., 2004; Walsh et al.,  
20 2005; Lafont et al., 2006). In addition, periurban catchments have a complex structure, made  
21 of a mixture of natural, agricultural and urbanized areas, and are evolving very quickly (e.g.  
22 Beighley et al., 2003; Radojevic et al., 2010; Jankowsky, 2011).  
23 Studies of land use change impact on the hydrological regime generally analyse long term  
24 time series or long term simulations, and not only events. The objective is not to reproduce  
25 some historical events for sizing hydraulic works, but to get an appraisal of the change of the  
26 whole river regime. Appropriate criteria and indicators relevant to reveal the impact of land  
27 use change on this river regime must therefore be defined. In the following, the discussion  
28 will be restricted to indicators related to quantitative hydrology. Lots of other indicators have  
29 been defined to quantify the ecological status of receiving waters, based on chemistry,  
30 biology, etc (e.g. Walsh et al., 2005), in particular in Europe with the Water Framework  
31 Directive. But they are beyond the scope of this paper. In the remaining of the paper, the word  
32 indicator will be used in a broad sense and will include both hydrological variables and  
33 quantities derived from discharge data analysis.

1The literature dealing with the impact of climate change, land use/ land cover change on the  
2water cycle and hydrological model evaluation was reviewed. The objective was to identify  
3the hydrological indicators used by their authors to quantify the impact on discharge data. A  
4review of climate change studies is provided by Praskievicz and Chang (2009). Examples of  
5land use change studies, mainly related to the impact of deforestation/aforestation on the  
6water cycle can be found in Ott and Uhlenbrook (2004), Wang et al. (2007), Archer (2007)  
7and Bathurst et al. (2011). These studies are either based on model results or on data analysis  
8(Table 1). A large number of the experimental studies are based on paired catchments, where  
9natural and preserved catchments are compared to disturbed catchments (Table 1). Vazquez et  
10al. (2008) and Willems (2009) introduced several criteria which provide information on the  
11performance of a model for several ranges of discharges. These indicators include the  
12components of stream flow: base flow, inter flow and quick flow, as well a Peak Over  
13Threshold (POT) analysis (Stedinger et al., 1992) both for low flows and high flows. From  
14this literature review we have extracted 5 classes of indicators used to examine the impact of  
15land use/land cover change on discharge time series. They are summarized in Table 1, which  
16also presents the corresponding references.

17

18

19The first class of indicators in Table 1 is related to the hydrological regime where the  
20indicators are the mean annual runoff, its seasonal components, discharge quantiles and flow  
21duration curves.

22The second class of indicators is related to high flows: value and/or date of the annual  
23maximum discharge, peak over threshold (POT) analysis which studies peak flow. The QdF  
24– Discharge – duration – frequency analysis (Galéa and Prudhomme, 1994, 1997; Javelle et  
25al., 1999), an extension of POT analysis to different characteristic durations and not only to  
26the instantaneous maximum, is also used to study high flows.

27Low flow indicators form the third class of indicators. They include value and date of  
28minimum annual discharge, frequency of zero discharge, base flow index defined as the ratio  
29between annual base flow and total annual flow, POT analysis for low flow (Willems, 2009).

30The fourth class of indicators is based on hydrograph analysis. It includes the study of event  
31characteristics (runoff coefficient, rising and falling limbs of hydrographs), the quantification  
32of flow components based on the separation into base flow, interflow and quick flow (Blume  
33et al., 2007; Willems, 2009). Archer (2007) and Archer et al. (2010) introduce more  
34sophisticated indicators based on the analysis of rising and falling limbs of discharge series,

1or their rate of change. These indicators are the number and duration of exceedance of  
2multiple of the annual discharge. These indicators are relevant to identify quick disturbances  
3in hydrographs.

4Finally the fifth class of indicators is based on statistical analyses of discharge time series,  
5mainly relevant when long time series are available. This includes the results of statistical  
6tests, comparing if differences between various periods are significant (e.g. Tong, 1990;  
7Wang et al., 2007; Radojevic et al., 2010), the results of trend analysis (e.g. Claessens et al.,  
82006). The results of regression analysis or neural network models, proposed by some authors  
9to relate hydrological characteristics to climate or landscape variables such as imperviousness  
10(Tetzlaff et al., 2005; Dow, 2007; Wang et al., 2007; Arrigoni et al., 2010) can also be  
11included in this fifth class.

12

13In urbanized areas, as can be seen from Table 1, the analysis is often restricted to mean annual  
14runoff (Beighley et al., 2003; Claessens et al., 2006); high flow with indicators such as annual  
15peak discharge (Beighley et al., 2003; Burns et al., 2005), QdF analysis (Radojevic et al.,  
162010) and/or to the study of selected events (Ott and Uhlenbrook, 2004; Chormanski et al.,  
172008; Meierdiercks et al., 2010). But this may not be sufficient for all applications, in  
18particular when addressing the quality of receiving waters. For ecological problems, the  
19whole hydrological regime, and in particular low flows are also important. Walsh et al. (2005)  
20suggest that a good target for the rehabilitation of rivers affected by urbanization would be to  
21go back to “near natural” surface flow conditions. This requires the characterization of the  
22whole range of discharges. Indicators of Hydrological Alteration (IHA) spanning all the  
23hydrological regime to compare pre and post river flow management with an emphasis to  
24stream ecology are proposed by Richter et al. (1996, 1997, 2003). It includes timing of annual  
25extreme water conditions; frequency and duration of high/low pulses; rate/frequency of water  
26condition changes. Jacobson (2011) also provides a review of the impact of imperviousness in  
27urban catchments.

28Response times of impervious areas are much shorter than those of natural areas. For small  
29periurban catchments, with response time of less than one day, indicators based on daily  
30discharge may not be fully relevant. In addition, given the very short functioning time of  
31SODs, specific analyses are required to fully evidence the impact of the urban areas on the  
32river flow, especially for small catchments (a few km<sup>2</sup>). Therefore the analysis of indicators  
33based on smaller time steps should be contemplated. Some authors also suggest that  
34periurbanization mainly affect frequent floods (e.g. Radojevic et al., 2010) like observed

1when studying the impact of forest or deforestation on floods (Bathurst et al., 2011).  
2Therefore indicators based only on peak discharge or extreme events may not be relevant for  
3assessing the impact of urbanization on the water regime, and the whole range of floods must  
4be investigated. Another specificity of periurban catchments is the impact of sewer networks,  
5installed to manage both waste water and rainwater. In general those networks are not  
6watertight and infiltration of clear water in the sewer system is very common (e.g. Breil et al,  
71993; Berthier et al., 2004; Rodriguez et al., 2008). This may have an impact on the low flow  
8within the rivers (e.g. Gufstafsson et al., 1997) and should also be considered.

9In order to characterize the impact of urbanization on periurban rivers discharge, paired  
10catchments studies, comparing a natural and an urbanized catchments would be the best way  
11to get the answer. When trying to assess land use change impacts on discharge, it is also  
12sometimes difficult to distinguish between climate variability and land use impact (e.g.  
13Ashagrie et al., 2006). Sub-periods comparison for instance may be affected by climate  
14variability which can lower the significance of the results. Some authors have proposed  
15methods to filter climate variability and highlight the impact of land use by removing climate  
16variability using regressions from a reference period, in general considered as undisturbed  
17(e.g. Dow, 2007; Wang et al., 2007; Arrigoni et al., 2010). However, those methods may be of  
18limited use when recorded data have started at the same time as urbanization (i.e. in the  
191970s, as it is the case in France). And it is not obvious to find “natural” catchments other  
20things being equal. Therefore, there is a need to develop specific methods which cope with  
21existing data series and try to separate the impact of land use change/ urbanization/  
22management structures from the natural variability of discharge time series. This direction is  
23explored in this paper for small to medium-sized periurban catchments, that range from some  
24hectares to some tenth/hundreds of squared kilometres. This analysis is complementary to the  
25set of indicators identified in the previous literature review.

26

27The objectives of the paper can therefore be stated as follows: are we able to define indicators  
28revealing and possibly quantifying the impact of land use change and in particular  
29artificialization on the hydrological regime of small to medium size periurban catchments?  
30The study is conducted in two steps. First some indicators characterizing the discharge time  
31series, derived from the above cited literature, are assessed. Then, given their identified  
32limitations, essentially in taking into account the effect of sewer systems and SODs, specific  
33approaches, adapted to periurban catchments are introduced and discussed. The methods are  
34applied to the Yzeron catchment, located close to the city of Lyon, France where quite long



1 time series of both rainfall and discharge are available for nested sub-catchments  
2 encompassing various ranges of urbanization and sizes. The results are discussed in order to  
3 define the advantages/limitations of the retained indicators.

4

## 5 **2. Case study**

### 6 ***2.1. Context of the study and presentation of the catchment***

7 The Yzeron catchment (150 km<sup>2</sup>) is located to the south-west of Lyon city (Figure 1). It forms  
8 part of the Observatoire de Terrain en Hydrologie Urbaine (OTHU, 2011) long term  
9 observatory. It is representative of French periurban areas and is characterized by a marked  
10 topography (Figure 1). The outlet reaches the Rhône river at the elevation of 162 m and the  
11 highest points culminates at 917 m above sea level. The slope map calculated from a 25 m  
12 resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM), derived from IGN BDTopo® shows that more  
13 than 50% of the catchment has slopes larger than 10% (Gnouma, 2006). The geology is  
14 contrasted with crystalline formations (granite, gneiss ) in the western part of the catchment  
15 and more alluvial and glacier formations in the eastern part. This led to a complex soil types  
16 map with 22 cartographic units identified in the soil map (SIRA, 2011). The land use is  
17 heterogeneous. The upstream and western part of the basin is limited by a range of hills  
18 covered with forests. The intermediate part is mainly covered with grassland and cultivated  
19 lands, mixed with urban nucleus. Thin green corridors remain along rivers, covered with  
20 deciduous trees. The downstream part is mainly covered with densely urbanized areas (Figure  
21 2c).

22 A fast progression of urbanization is observed since the eighties (Cottet, 2005; Gnouma,  
23 2006, Radojevic et al., 2010). This evolution generally develops in the form of small urban  
24 centres that expand from old villages, along road networks, following topographic constraints  
25 that are imposed by the river networks. A recent analysis was conducted to quantify the  
26 increase of urbanization in this catchment (Jacqueminet et al., 2011; Kermadi et al., submitted  
27 for publication). A manual digitalization of aerial photographs allowed the identification of  
28 artificialized surfaces including the urban parcels, parkings, industries and their green fraction  
29 (gardens, parks) (Figure 3). The percentage of artificialized surfaces was 22% of the  
30 catchment area in 1970, 33% in 1990 and 36% in 2008 (Figure 2), showing a slight decrease  
31 in the rate of urbanization between 1990 and 2008, as compared to the period 1970-1990. A  
32 similar analysis based on SPOT images analysis allowed the quantification of impervious  
33 areas which were found to cover 15% of the catchment area in 1990, 18% in 1999 and 23% in

12008. The difference between both image treatments can be seen by comparing Figure 1  
2which shows the impervious areas and Figure 2c, which shows the artificialized areas for year  
32008.

4The area is prone to sharp Mediterranean-type flood events due to its steep topography in the  
5upstream part and limited soil water storage capacity overall. The response time of the  
6catchment is about 12 hours at 130 km<sup>2</sup>, causing sometimes flooding in the downstream town  
7of Oullins. An increase in the frequency of flooding has been observed in the recent years  
8(Radojevic et al., 2010). The water responsible from these flooding mainly comes from the  
9rural part of the catchment, but its effect can be enhanced by the fast contribution of urbanized  
10zones. The water coming from combined sewer overflow devices is rich of sediments and  
11pollutions, causing quality problems in the rivers, especially during summer storms, where  
12most of the water reaching the river comes from urbanized areas via SODs (Lafont et al.,  
132006). Increased erosion of the river banks has also been evidenced with impact on the  
14ecosystems (Schmitt et al., 2008).

15The Yzeron catchment was recently studied within the framework of the AVuPUR (Assessing  
16the Vulnerability of Peri-Urban Rivers) project (Braud et al., 2010). The aim of the project  
17was to increase the knowledge of the functioning and behaviour of periurban catchment  
18hydrology and to propose modelling tools, adapted to those catchments. The study presented  
19in this paper is a contribution to this project. The indicators discussed here are also relevant  
20for model evaluation.

21

## 222.2. *Available data*

23Rainfall and climate data: A network of rain gauges was set up over the Grand Lyon area in  
241985. It includes 28 rain gauges, 4 of which are located within the Yzeron catchment, but  
25mainly in the eastern part of the catchment (Figure 1). The rainfall is recorded continuously  
26with a 6 minutes time step and all the data set is available until 2010. In order to better  
27document the research catchment and the mountainous area, Cemagref has also installed  
28complementary rain gauges with a variable time step. The oldest ones were installed in 1997  
29(Pollionnay and Grézieu) and the network is continuously upgraded since then. The daily data  
30(1921-2009) from the synoptic Bron station, located about 20 km east of the catchment, were  
31also used.

32The SAFRAN reanalysis data set (Quintana-Segui et al., 2008; Vidal et al., 2010), which  
33provides the climate variables over a 8 x 8 km<sup>2</sup> grid is also available for the grid points

1 covering the Yzeron catchment over the 1970-2010 period with an hourly time step. This data  
2 set is the only one available to document the climate (air temperature and humidity, wind  
3 speed, long and short wave radiation). The SAFRAN data were used to compute the reference  
4 evapotranspiration, PET, following the FAO (1998) method.

5

6 Stream flow data: Two gauges from the national HYDRO data base, maintained by DREAL  
7 Rhône-Alpes are available on the catchment: the Craponne station (48 km<sup>2</sup>) since 1969, and  
8 the Taffignon station (130 km<sup>2</sup>) since 1988 (Figure 1). These two stations are nested. The data  
9 are available with a variable time step. Three other stations from Cemagref are also available.  
10 They sample the Mercier (7 km<sup>2</sup>), Chaudanne upstream a sewer overflow device  
11 (Upstream\_SOD1) (2.19 km<sup>2</sup>), Chaudanne at La Léchère (2.9-4.1 km<sup>2</sup>) experimental sub-  
12 catchments (Figure 1). The last two stations are nested. The data are registered with a variable  
13 time step. In addition, in the Chaudanne catchment, data are collected at the outlet of the  
14 sewer overflow device (SOD1) since 2001. Discharge is also measured since 2001 in the  
15 combined sewer system (CSS) which is directed to the WWTP but sometimes overflows in  
16 the SOD1 (Figure 3). The main characteristics of the gauging stations are summarized in  
17 Table 2 and Figure 4 provides the land use encountered within the sub-catchments, using  
18 three main classes: wooded areas, agricultural land and artificialized areas. We must also  
19 mention the existence of additional SODs just upstream the gauging stations of La Léchère  
20 (SOD2) (Figure 3) and Craponne. The methodology presented in section 3.2 will be used to  
21 assess the impact of these SODs on the discharge measured at the downstream gauging  
22 stations.

23 The discharge gauging stations network is quite original due to the range of scales and variety  
24 of land uses which are sampled (Table 2 and Figure 4). The length of the series is also very  
25 valuable to evidence the impact of land use change on river discharge.

26

### 27 **2.3. Summary of previous researches**

28 The Yzeron catchment is studied for about 20 years. In the following, we only summarize the  
29 studies directly related with hydrology and water fluxes. Radojevic (2002) and Radojevich et  
30 al. (2010) analysed the rainfall and stream flow data (Craponne and Taffignon stations) over  
31 the 1969-1978 and 1988-1997 decades. The rainfall series showed significant differences  
32 between both decades, with an increase of maximum daily rainfall in the 1988-1997 period.  
33 This analysis was updated using the climatic data presented above (Bron rainfall daily time

1series and SAFRAN daily climatic data) in order to detect possible changes in the  
2climate/rainfall forcing (Kermadi et al., 2011; Braud, 2011). On the rainfall data, a significant  
3increase (Mann Kendall test (Mann and Whitney, 1947) at the 5% level) of the annual  
4maximum of 5, 10, 15-day cumulative rainfall was found for the Bron station in the 1920-  
52010 period, with a rupture detected in 1974 by the Pettitt test (1976). No significant  
6trends/ruptures were found when the period was restricted to the 1970-2009 period. The  
7analysis of the daily SAFRAN data on the 1970-2009 period showed a significant increase (at  
8the 1% level) of the annual mean temperature of 0.52 °C every 10 years. But no significant  
9trend in annual PET was found. On the other hand, the Pettitt test show a significant (at the  
105% level) rupture of the annual PET in 2002, which will have to be confirmed in the future.  
11From all the results obtained on the daily rainfall, temperature and PET data, we concluded  
12that it was unlikely that change in the rainfall and climate could have affected the  
13hydrological regime on the 1970-2010 study period. However, in the context of urban  
14catchments with short response times, such an analysis should also be conducted with shorter  
15time steps. It will be done when longer short time step rainfall series will be available (they  
16are presently only 25 years long).

17In the study by Radojevic et al. (2010), the stream flow series showed an increase of frequent  
18floods, whereas large floods were not so affected. The change in frequent floods was  
19attributed to the impact of urbanization. Radojevic et al. (2010) also used a modelling  
20approach to asses the possible impact of urbanization on the hydrological regime, through the  
21impact on the discharge – duration – frequency (QdF) curves. But their analysis is restricted  
22to two short periods of about 10 years, and more than 10 years additional data are now  
23available. Gnouma (2006) analysed the data from the Craonne, Mercier and Chaudanne sub-  
24catchments, and tried to propose monthly water balance. The analysis was restricted to the  
251997-2004 period.

26In the present study, the discharge data analysis will be extended to include the whole  
27available period (until 2010) and all stream flow gauges will be considered. The aim is the  
28assessment of indicators, relevant to evidence the impact of land use change on the discharge  
29time series. These indicators include annual and monthly discharge, base flow index, peak  
30over threshold (POT), QdF analysis and flow components deduced from hydrographs  
31decomposition. The analysis provides elements for a better understanding of the catchment  
32behaviour, both for its rural and urban components. The derived data and synthesis are also  
33useful for the evaluation/validation of the models developed within the AVuPUR project.

34

1

## 23. Methodology

3In section 3.1, we first assess indicators taken from the five classes that were identified in the  
4literature review, as our objective was to qualify the impact of land use change and  
5urbanization on the whole hydrological regime: flow duration curves, low flows, high flows.  
6The flow components derived from the hydrograph decomposition were also considered as  
7urbanization is suspected to increase quick flow and decrease base flow. Finally, as one of the  
8discharge series was long enough, statistical tests (trends/ruptures) were also applied to this  
9time series.

10In section 3.2, we present methods specifically developed to evidence the impact of sewer  
11systems and sewer overflow devices (SODs) on the river discharge time series.

12

### 133.1. Indicators derived from the literature

14The objective of this analysis is to describe and characterize the discharges time series at a  
15given location. Whenever possible the indicators will be adapted/normalized so that  
16comparison between different catchments of various sizes and/or various land use become  
17possible.

#### 18Hydrological regime:

19For the characterization of the hydrological regime (annual, monthly and daily time step), the  
20variable time step stream flow data were first interpolated to a 30 (respectively 60) minutes  
21time step for the Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD1, La Léchère stations (respectively Craponne  
22and Taffignon stations) and then aggregated to daily, monthly and annual time step from  
23which the hydrological regime was calculated (Sauquet et al., 2000, 2008). Missing daily  
24values were replaced by the interannual monthly average corresponding to the month of the  
25missing data.

26From the daily discharges we also derived the flow duration curves (FDCs). They are  
27obtained by ordering all the daily discharge values in decreasing order. Each ordered  
28discharge value  $Q_f$  is associated with an empirical frequency which is the probability of  
29finding a value  $Y$ , larger or equal to  $Q_f$ .

$$30 \quad \text{Prob}(Y \geq Q_f) = \frac{r}{N} \quad (1)$$

31 where  $N$  is the total number of observations and  $r$  is the rank of observation  $Q_f$ .

32

In order to compare data from catchments of different sizes and identify the possible impact of land use on the discharge, it is convenient to normalize the discharge data before calculating the flow duration curves. The most obvious choice is to compute specific discharges by dividing all the data by the catchment area. The advantage is that this method provides water heights comparable to rainfall heights, which can be directly used to compute the water balance or runoff coefficients. However, in periurban catchments, especially equipped with combined sewer systems, this is not so obvious (Jankowsky, 2011). Jankowsky (2011) shows that, in such catchments, the boundary is not only dependent on topography, but is influenced by the sewer systems. The areas connected to the river via sewer overflow devices are only contributing to the streamflow when the sewer systems overflows. In addition, only part of this runoff drains into the river, because part of it continues to reach the Waste Water Treatment Plant (WWTP). For the Chaudanne at La Léchère catchment, Jankowsky (2011) shows that under dry conditions, the area of the catchment is 2.9 km<sup>2</sup>, whereas it reaches 4.1 km<sup>2</sup> when all the SODs are activated. This result shows that using the specific discharge in periurban watersheds may lead to some problems and that this quantity, as well as runoff height and runoff coefficients must be used with caution.

The second option is to normalize discharge data with the average annual discharge (e.g. Sauquet et al., 2008). This indicator is independent of the catchment area estimation. However, if the mean annual discharge changes with time due to land use modifications, this may bias the results. Comparison between catchments is therefore more difficult and only normalisation based on specific discharges will be discussed in the remaining of the paper.

#### Low flows:

The base flow was estimated using the Tallaksen and Van Lanen (2004) algorithm on the daily data. The base flow was estimated by linear interpolation between  $n$  points corresponding to the local minima of  $n$  periods of 5-days duration without intersection. The BFI (Base Flow Index), which is defined as the average of the base flow divided by the mean interannual discharge of the time series, was selected in this study. It is a non-dimensional index which allows comparison between catchments. Low flow were also characterized with the frequency of zero daily discharge (Richter et al., 1996).

#### High flows:

Variable time step discharge time series were used for the discharge- duration- frequency analysis (QdF). The method provides a theoretical description of floods for several durations. The studied variable was the maximum discharge continuously exceeded during the duration  $34d$ ,  $QCX_d$  (Figure 5a) The analysis was performed in several steps.

1 • A characteristic flood duration was estimated for each gauge. The analysis was performed  
2 using data from which the base flow (calculated as described above) had been removed. As  
3 the base flow data were available at the daily time step, an interpolation of base flow at the  
4 variable time step was performed before removing it from the variable time step time  
5 series. An automatic program has been developed which selects the hydrographs around  
6 major floods. A discharge threshold, determined from the POT analysis (see below) is  
7 prescribed for the events selection and all the floods higher than this threshold are retained.  
8 Each hydrograph is scaled by its maximum peak discharge  $Q_{max}$ . Therefore all the  
9 hydrographs have a maximum value of 1 (and can be compared amongst catchments). From  
10 all the hydrographs, we compute the median hydrograph. The characteristic flood duration  
11  $\theta$  is then calculated as the duration where  $Q/Q_{max} = 0.5$  in this median hydrograph (Figure  
12 5b). An iteration with the next step may be required to properly fix the discharge threshold.

13 • The next step is the extraction of independent values of floods for various durations  $d$ . One  
14 value per year (annual maximum) can be extracted, but in order to increase the sample size,  
15 the Peak Over Threshold approach was used. We tested extractions with an average of 2  
16 and 4 floods per year in the analysis. As we are interested not only in extreme floods but  
17 also in frequent floods and given the shortness of some of the time series, the extraction  
18 with 4 floods per year was finally used and will be presented below. The corresponding  
19 threshold was automatically determined so that the target average flood number per year  
20 was obtained (Lang et al., 1999). The procedure also ensures independence of the selected  
21 events. The analysis was performed on the hydrological years (from September 1 to August  
22 31) for the instantaneous flood peak ( $d = 0$ ) and for  $d/8, d/4, d/2, d, 3d$ . For the various  
23 gauges, the duration  $d$  was chosen close to the characteristic flood duration  $\theta$  determined in  
24 the previous step. Next, the empirical probability of non-exceedance of the value  $x$

$$25 \quad Prob(QCX_d \leq x) = F(x) \quad (2)$$

26 was calculated on the sampled variable  $QCX_d$ . From this relation, it is possible to calculate  
27 the quantile  $x(T)$  of return period  $T$ , associated with the  $F$  law.

### 28 Hydrograph separation:

29 In this study, we used the WETSPRO tool proposed by Willems (2009) to compute base flow,  
30 inter flow (sub-surface flow) and quick flow. This method is an extension of the recursive  
31 digital filter of Chapman (1991). It assumes that the recession curve can be adjusted with an  
32 exponential model. The recession constant,  $k$ , of the exponential model corresponds to the  
33 time in which the flow is reduced by a factor  $\exp(-1) = 0.37$  during dry weather periods. The

1 method of Willems (2009) includes a second parameter  $w$ , which corresponds to the average  
2 fraction of the sum of the quick and inter flow volume over the total flow volume. The  
3 filtering procedure is first applied to extract the base flow. It is then repeated to extract the  
4 interflow on the (total – base flow) time series. The values of the  $k$  and  $w$  parameters were  
5 determined manually by trials and errors so that the base flow fraction was close to the BFI  
6 determined previously. The analysis was performed for the Craponne and Taffignon data  
7 using daily data, and the Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD1 and La Léchère gauges, using two-  
8 hours time step data in order to capture the inter flow.

#### 9 Statistical tests:

10 The Craponne gauging station was the only station with a long enough (40 years) time series  
11 to perform trend/rupture statistical tests. The Mann Kendall (Mann and Whitney, 1947) and  
12 Pettitt (1979) tests were used for trend and rupture analyses respectively. The analysed  
13 variables were the mean annual discharge, BFI, components of the flow as derived from the  
14 hydrograph separation, the POT values (using an extraction of two and four floods per year  
15 on variable time step time series), following the methodology proposed by Renard et al.  
16 (2006) and Lang et al. (2006).

17

### 18 **3.2. Methods specific to the existence of sewer overflow devices and sewer** 19 **networks**

20 As said before, given the quick response time of the urban parts and the very short  
21 functioning time of SODs, the indicators proposed in the previous section are not sufficient to  
22 fully evidence the impact of the urban areas on the river flow, especially for small catchments  
23 (a few km<sup>2</sup>). Therefore, we propose specific methods, particularly adapted to these conditions.  
24 These methods rely on filtering techniques of the discharge time series. Two types of  
25 applications were developed (Table 3):

26 Filtering of SODs discharge to derive “pseudo-natural” discharge series. In order to get a  
27 clear signature of the SOD on the river discharge time series, the SOD must be located  
28 upstream and close to the discharge gauging station (10 to 100 m). The filtering method is  
29 applicable to variable time steps time series as it takes benefit of the fact that, in case of SOD  
30 overflows, the discharge will increase rapidly and the measurement points will be more  
31 frequent. The filtering is based on a moving average with a *constant* number of points.  
32 Therefore the time step of the filtering will be much shorter when the response is quicker  
33 (activation of the SOD) than when the response is slower. The method was applied to the La



1 Lèchère and Craponne stations where a SOD is present less than 100m upstream, with a 4  
2 points moving average. This leads to two additional time series corresponding to the SOD  
3 discharge (indexed SOD in Table 3) and the river discharge if the SOD was absent (indexed  
4 Rural in Table 3).

5 Filtering of the combined sewer systems discharge (CSS) series. In this case, the method  
6 allows the separation of the measured discharge between waste water (WW), parasite clear  
7 groundwater infiltration in the sewer network (GW) and the runoff component (RW). Its  
8 application combines times series of Combined Sewer System (CSS) discharge, rainfall data,  
9 SOD discharge (when a SOD is present). Contrarily to the previous case, the filtering method  
10 is applied to fixed time step time series (in our case 6 min time step given the size of the  
11 catchment and the response time) in order to process simultaneously the various time series.  
12 The fixed time step time series are obtained from linear interpolation of the variable time step  
13 times series.

14 The principles underlying the method are summarized in Figure 6 and detailed below.

15 • Step 1: determination of the WW fraction. This step is conducted in two phases. Step 1a:  
16 During the night, as the catchment is quite small, it is assumed that the waste water (WW)  
17 is zero. In dry period conditions, the discharge measured in the sewer system during the  
18 night can therefore be assumed to be clear parasite groundwater infiltration (GW). This GW  
19 water is obtained by using a moving average tracking the daily minimum discharge (in our  
20 case a moving average calculated using 240 points, corresponding to 24h of 6 min time step  
21 data). Step 1b: This clear parasite water infiltration is subtracted from the CSS discharge,  
22 leading to a residual time series (CSS – GW). To estimate the waste water discharge, it is  
23 assumed that, during dry weather periods, the CSS-GW discharge is equal to the waste  
24 discharge (WW). A weekly averaged cycle is calculated from the 6 min time step data  
25 during dry weather. This weekly cycle takes into account week and week-end days that  
26 have specific patterns.

27 • Step 2: The WW series is subtracted from the CSS data. This leads to a time series of  
28 runoff + infiltrated groundwater data (RW + GW). The same moving average tracking the  
29 daily minimum discharge is applied once again to separate the RW and GW discharges.

30 • Step 3: If a SOD exists, its contribution is added to the runoff because the water which  
31 overflows the SOD is also generated by runoff. This leads to the final value of the runoff  
32 series (RW + SOD).

1 Table 3 presents a synthesis of the various time series, derived using the two filtering methods  
2 and the name they will be referred to in the paper. The same indicators as those presented in  
3 section 3.1 were applied to the filtered time series, when relevant.

4

## 5 **4. Results**

6 The results section contains two sub-sections. First we present the results of the observed data  
7 analysis, based on the methods described in section 3.1. Second we present the result of the  
8 filtering methods presented in section 3.2

9

### 10 **4.1. Analysis of observed discharge time series**

11

12

#### 13 4.1.1. Hydrological regime

14 Table 4 provides the values of the mean annual discharge (and specific discharge when  
15 relevant) and 50% quantile of the FDC. Figure 7 shows the average monthly specific  
16 discharge for the 5 gauged stations for the 2005-2010 common measurement period. Table 4  
17 and Figure 7 show that the “rural” catchments have an average annual specific discharge  
18 ranging between 5.5 and 6.9 l s<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>2</sup>. They also exhibit similar monthly patterns with higher  
19 values in spring and winter and low discharge in summer and autumn (Craponne, Pollionnay,  
20 Upstream\_SOD1). On the other hand, the Taffignon station exhibits systematically lower  
21 monthly specific discharge than its upstream gauging station Craponne. This is also reflected  
22 in the average annual specific discharge which is only 5.1 l s<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>2</sup> as compared to 6.9 l s<sup>-1</sup>  
23 km<sup>2</sup> for Craponne. An analysis of the annual runoff coefficient (not shown) confirms that the  
24 Taffignon values are systematically lower than those of Craponne and the difference in mean  
25 (0.26 for Craponne and 0.21 for Taffignon) is significant at the 5% level ( $p=0.02$  for the t-  
26 test). Figure 7 shows that the La Léchère station (when considering the most favourable case  
27 with a 2.9 km<sup>2</sup> catchment area) has larger values of average monthly discharge than its  
28 upstream station (Upstream\_SOD1) in summer and autumn (May to October ). It can be  
29 explained by a larger contribution of artificialized areas in summer (see section 4.2.3).

30 Figure 8a shows the flow duration curve of the daily specific discharge for the gauged  
31 catchments: Taffignon, Craponne, Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD1, La\_Léchère. It shows that  
32 the Craponne station has larger specific discharge than the downstream Taffignon station for  
33 almost all the range of frequencies. The lowest runoff production is therefore generalised for

1the whole range of discharges (except high flows – see section 4.1.3). The downstream  
2La\_Léchère station has significantly higher values than the Upstream\_SOD1, which is much  
3less urbanized than the La\_Léchère station (Figure 4), for the frequencies larger than 40%.

4

#### 54.1.2. Low flows and hydrograph separation

6Low flows are characterized using the % of zero daily discharge and the BFI (Table 4). For  
7the gauged catchments, the % of zero daily discharge ranges between 0.25% (Craponne) to  
831% (Upstream\_SOD1). Note that the Taffignon gauge has a larger frequency of zero  
9discharge (5.4%) than the upstream gauging station Craponne. This confirms the decrease in  
10runoff production, already observed on the annual specific discharge and the FDC, from  
11upstream to downstream. On the other hand, the % of zero daily discharge decrease from  
1231.2% Upstream\_SOD1 to 11.1% at the downstream La Lèchère station (see also Figure 8a).  
13This increase can be attributed to the impact of urbanization as the additional area is mainly  
14composed of artificialized areas (Table 4).

15

16The BFI values of the observed time series range between 0.26 and 0.54. Those values are  
17quite low and are characteristic of catchments with a low storage capacity. For the catchments  
18with the lowest % of artificialized areas (Upstream\_SOD1 (24%), Pollionnay (11%),  
19Craponne (18%)), the BFI increase with the catchment area, consistently with a decrease of  
20the % of days with zero discharge (Table 4). The behaviour of the Taffignon station is, once  
21again, inverse to what is expected: the BFI decreases between the upstream Craponne and  
22downstream Taffignon stations. The lowest specific annual discharge could therefore be  
23explained by a lower base flow.

24

25Table 5 shows the results of the discharge decomposition into base flow, inter flow, quick  
26flow using the WETSPRO tool. The two small rural catchments (Pollionnay and  
27Upstream\_SOD1) have similar values of the  $k$  recession constant (5 days). The quick flow  
28represents 43.5% of the total flow for the Pollionnay station and 49% for the Upstream\_SOD1  
29catchment. This can be explained by the difference in land use (mainly forest and crops for  
30Pollionnay and crops for Upstream\_SOD1), and because crop land has been shown to have a  
31lower infiltration capacity than forest (Gonzalez-Sosa et al., 2010). The recession constant of  
32the La\_Léchère station is smaller than that of the upstream station Upstream\_SOD1, and the  
33% of quick flow is higher (54.4% against 49%), with a lower base flow. This shows the  
34impact of the SODs and the urbanized areas which is the dominant land use in the additional

1 area between the two gauges. When comparing the Craponne and Taffignon stations, we can  
2 see that the  $k$  recession constant increase between the upstream and downstream gauge (28  
3 and 35 days respectively). However, the downstream Taffignon gauge has a smaller base flow  
4 (39.3% against 49.8%), as said before, and a higher portion of quick flow (37.6% against  
5 525.6%). This corresponds to an increase of the artificialized surfaces (from 18% of the total  
6 catchment area at Craponne to 31% of the total catchment area at Taffignon – see Figure 4).  
7 This analysis confirms the expected impact of urbanization: an increase of quick flow at the  
8 expense of base flow, but this effect has been quantified here.

9

#### 10 4.1.3. High flows

11 The characteristic flood durations appear in Table 4. Figure 9a shows the normalised median  
12 hydrographs for the various observed time series. We remind that the base flow has been  
13 removed before performing the extraction. For all the catchments, Figure 9a shows that the  
14 rising limb of the characteristic hydrographs is very sharp (a few hours). On the other hand,  
15 the catchments with the lowest artificialized area (Craponne, Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD1)  
16 have a quite heavy and long recession, although the characteristic duration, corresponding to  
17  $Q/Q_{max}=0.5$  is short (between 3 and 7 hours, Table 4), except for Upstream\_SOD1 where it  
18 reaches 10 hours. The most artificialized catchments (La Léchère and to a lesser extend  
19 Taffignon) present characteristic hydrographs with the sharpest rising limbs (less than 5  
20 hours) and a very quick recession (about 5 hours). Urbanization has therefore a significant  
21 impact on the hydrograph shape.

22 The maximum daily discharge and their corresponding specific values are provided in Table  
23 4. Figure 10 shows the result of the QdF analysis in terms of specific discharge, for durations  
24  $d=0$  (maximum instantaneous peak discharge) and 12h for the 5 gauged stations. For all the  
25 stations, the flood discharge decreases sharply between the two durations, which is consistent  
26 with the peaky shape of the characteristic flood hydrographs (Figure 9a). For the duration  $d=0$   
27 and for a return period of less than ten years, the highest floods are encountered for the  
28 Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD, Taffignon and Craponne stations, in decreasing order. The most  
29 rural and natural catchment (Pollionnay) appears the most productive in terms of high floods.  
30 Contrarily to what is observed for the monthly regime and the low flow, the downstream  
31 Taffignon station is most productive than the upstream Craponne one for high flows.  
32 Urbanization may be responsible for this larger runoff for the highest floods. These features  
33 also hold for the  $d=12$  h duration. The results for the La Léchère station are shown using the  
34 two extreme catchments areas. For the most frequent floods, the specific discharge for  $d=0$ , is

1 significantly larger than that of the Upstream\_SOD1 station, whatever the choice of the  
2 catchment area. We can deduce that the urbanization of the downstream part of the catchment  
3 increase the magnitude of the most frequent floods.

#### 4 4.1.4. Statistical tests for the Craponne gauging station

5 The results of the trend and rupture statistical tests performed on the Craponne time series  
6 (1970-2010) are summarized in Table 6. They show a significant decrease of the % of base  
7 flow and inter flow at the 5% and 1% level respectively, whereas the quick flow increase  
8 significantly at the 1% level. The increase in maximum annual discharge is not significant,  
9 nor the increase in maximum peak discharge. On the other hand, the POT analysis reveals a  
10 significant increase (at the 5 or 10% level) of the magnitude of floods for all the durations  
11 except  $d=0$ , when sampling the floods with two floods per year. If the sampling is performed  
12 to retain four floods per year, i.e to include less intense floods, none of the trend/rupture  
13 remains significant (not shown). These results show that a trend is only evidenced for the  
14 largest floods.

15

### 16 **4.2. Application of the filtering methods**

#### 17 4.2.1 Evaluation of the SOD discharge filtering method

18 The result of the filtering of SOD discharge is illustrated in Figure 11 for the La Lèchère  
19 station. This figure shows the initial time series, the calculated La\_Léchére\_SOD2 and  
20 La\_Léchére\_Rural time series. We have also added the SOD1 time series on the graph, in  
21 order to assess the relevance of the method. Although the La\_Léchére\_SOD2 seems to react  
22 much more frequently than the SOD1 (the frequency of zero daily discharge are 22.9 and 87%  
23 respectively, see Table 4), we can assume that when SOD1 is active, SOD2 should also be  
24 active. This can allow the validation of the timing of the filtering method. Figure 11 shows  
25 that the agreement is reasonable and similar results were obtained on the whole period. The  
26 total volume discharged by SOD2 represents 5.3% of the total discharge at La Lèchère  
27 gauging station.

28 For the Craponne\_SOD time series, no data were available for validation. The area drained by  
29 the SOD is estimated to be about 10% of the total catchment surface (Table 3). The total  
30 volume of the SOD discharge represents 7% of the total Craponne discharge. This figure is  
31 reasonable and comparable to that of the La Lèchère catchment. In the near future, it will be  
32 possible to fully validate them, as the La Lèchère and Craponne SODs are gauged since 2010.

In the remaining of the paper, we will assume that the filtering method is accurate enough so that the corresponding data series can be analysed similarly to the truly gauged time series.

#### 34.2.2. Hydrological regime

When considering the reconstructed “rural” time series for the Craponne and La Léchère time series, the average annual specific discharge of the rural time series is 13% lower for the Craponne station and 5% for the La Léchère station (Table 4).

This is confirmed (both for the Craponne and La Léchère station) by Figure 12 (top), which shows the fraction of the total average monthly discharge coming from the SODs. This contribution of the SODs to the monthly regime ranges from 2-3 to about 15% with a clear annual cycle. The highest values occur in summer and autumn, when the natural discharge is the smaller. In this period, the contribution of SODs to the discharge is therefore important in a period where the river can be dry (see next section). This can increase pollution problems, all the more than discharge is low and dilution effects cannot occur.

#### 44.2.3. Low flows and high flows

The frequency of zero daily discharge for the total, rural and SOD components of the Craponne and La Léchère stations (Figure 12, bottom), show very different behaviours between the two gauges. Whereas the frequency of zero discharge in the Craponne\_SOD is quite constant throughout the year, it presents a clear annual cycle at La\_Léchère\_SOD2. Values are higher in summer than in winter, which shows that the SOD2 is more frequently activated in winter, when the soil conditions are humid, than in summer when they are drier. For the two gauges, the % of zero daily discharge of the “rural” time series is systematically lower than that of the total discharge. For the La Léchère station, the difference can reach 20% in September and October. It means that the discharge in the river only comes from the SOD2 during this period.

We also see that, when the SODs contribution are filtered, the BFI values are larger than for the total discharge (Table 4), showing, as expected that SODs mainly contribute to quick flow.

#### 84.2.3. Low flows and high flows

Figure 9b and 9c show the normalized hydrographs for the total, rural and SOD components of the Craponne and La Léchère stations respectively. As expected the SOD hydrographs are very peaky with characteristics flood durations of about 1h. Although the total and rural hydrographs are very close for the La Léchère station, the rural Craponne series shows a

1 much slower recession than the total curve with a doubling of the characteristic flood duration  
2 for the rural component. On this gauge, the impact of the SOD seems to be much influential  
3 on the hydrographs shapes than for the La Léchère catchment.

4 Figure 13 shows the QdF analysis for the total, rural and SOD components of both the  
5 Craponne and La Léchère stations. This figure shows that, for the largest floods, the rural and  
6 total curves are very close. It suggests that the largest floods are mainly associated with a  
7 large contribution of the rural area. On the other hand, the impact of SODs is significant for  
8 frequent floods, with return period of less than 2 years.

#### 9 4.2.4. Analysis of the sewer system components

10 The mean annual values of the sewer discharge components are provided in Table 4. The  
11 waste water accounts for 33% of the total discharge, the rainwater runoff for 38% and the  
12 infiltration of groundwater into the sewer for 30%. The results of the filtering of the sewer  
13 discharge time series is illustrated in Figure 14 at the monthly time scale for the whole  
14 measurement period (2001-2010). It shows that the groundwater infiltration exhibits a clear  
15 annual cycle. It is almost zero in summer when the soil is dry and increases in winter and  
16 spring when the soil moisture is higher. The monthly pattern of rainwater runoff follows that  
17 of the monthly rainfall. Figure 8b shows the FDC of the CSS discharge and its various  
18 components. The FDC of the waste water (WW) is very flat as expected from its building.  
19 Values of CSS\_RW+SOD1 below  $0.001 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  can be considered as noise, which explain the  
20 low value of zero daily discharge (about 10% in Table 4). The average fraction of rainy days  
21 is about 50% and the CSS\_RW+SOD component of the CSS discharge is only not null when  
22 it rains. For the values larger than  $0.001 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , Figure 8b shows that the ranges of infiltrated  
23 groundwater and runoff discharges are very similar. Groundwater infiltration into the network  
24 is therefore a major problem for the efficiency of the sewer network. It may explain the larger  
25 activation of SOD2 in winter when the groundwater table is high (see Figure 12, bottom).

26

## 27 5. Discussion

28 *The importance of data collection.* The analysis presented in this paper relies on a nested and  
29 complete network of gauging stations, monitoring discharges in sub-catchments with various  
30 land uses but also on some infrastructures such as SODs and sewer networks. The set up in  
31 the Chaudanne sub-catchment is very valuable, as it allows the quantification of the impact of  
32 SODs and infiltration into the sewer network. However, although lots of efforts were  
33 dedicated to monitor the various branches, it is still impossible to close the water balance of

1the catchment (uncertainty of the partition of water between SODs and the Waste Water  
2Treatment Plant, partial measurements of the SODs).

3For the type of analysis presented in the paper, the data quality and length of the series is of  
4prime importance. The data availability period is very variable (between 5 and 40 years).  
5Except Figure 7, all the indicators are calculated using the largest available time series. Due to  
6internannual climate variability, which is large in this catchment (the CV of average annual  
7rainfall is 241 mm at Pollionnay for an average of 746 mm on the 1997-2009 period), this  
8may induce sampling fluctuations of the indicators. We verified that the conclusions were  
9similar when the indicators were calculated on the same period (2005-2010). Another  
10important point is the accuracy of the discharge data. A diagnostic of the gauging stations  
11showed that low flows are generally quite uncertain due to very large sections and a small  
12water height (Pollionnay, Upstream\_SOD). This problem is being solved by adding a  
13triangular device to get a higher accuracy for small discharges. The Craponne and Taffignon  
14stations are considered reliable by their manager (DREAL) and therefore the decrease of  
15runoff from upstream to downstream cannot be attributed to measurement problems. The La  
16Lèchère station is the most accurate as it is equipped with a calibrated canal, but it may be  
17overflowed for the largest discharges. This can explain the decrease in specific discharge for  
18high flows (Figure 10). Branger et al. (2011) proposed a method to assess the accuracy of  
19stage-discharge relationship and provide an error bound for each discharge measurement. The  
20use of this information was beyond the scope of this paper, but will be useful to better assess  
21the significant changes/trends. In terms of monitoring, progress is under way as new SODs  
22are now monitored in the context of the quantification of rejected water in the receiving rivers  
23(Water Framework Directive). These new data offer an opportunity to better understand the  
24response of urbanized areas in periurban catchments and further validate the filtering method  
25leading to the decomposition of total discharge into rural and SOD components. The  
26Craponne subcatchment has a quite large area and it may be difficult to discriminate between  
27the influence of the various infrastructures impacting the flow. The new discharges  
28measurements in the SOD will be very valuable as they will allow a better assessment of the  
29limits of applicability of the SOD filtering method.

30

31*Impact of artificialization on the regime and the flow components. Impact on low flows and*  
32*the importance of the sewer network.* Two results of this study are particularly striking: the  
33decrease of specific discharge from upstream to downstream between the Craponne and  
34Taffignon gauges, and the large fraction (30% of the total discharge) of infiltration into the



1 sewer system calculated for the Chaudanne subcatchment. This figure is high but consistent  
2 with independent estimation conducted using punctual measurements during the night by the  
3 services in charge of the network management. Recently Prigiobbe and Guilianelli (2009)  
4 reported an infiltration of about 50% in the old Rome sewer network and 14% in a recently  
5 constructed area. Berthier et al. (2004) found that the contribution of soil water infiltration to  
6 runoff in sewer pipes was about 15% in a small residential periurban catchment. On the same  
7 catchment, Rodriguez et al. (2008) simulate 11% of infiltration into the rainwater sewer  
8 system and 18% in the wastewater sewer system. In the Yzeron catchment, the main pipes  
9 network was built along the valley bottom in the seventies to collect waters from the  
10 surroundings. Breil et al. (2010) analysed one year of discharge monitoring in the main sewer  
11 collector close to the Taffignon station. They estimated the infiltration into the network to be  
12 27% of the annual discharge. There is therefore a consistency in the results and infiltration  
13 into the sewer network can be considered as responsible for the decrease of base flow and  
14 average monthly discharge between Craponne and Taffignon. The impact of the SODs is also  
15 significant on low flows. They significantly impact the frequency of zero discharge and, for  
16 the smallest sub-catchments where the natural river regime is seasonal, water coming from the  
17 SODs is the only source of water during a significant part of the year. The impact in terms of  
18 water quality is of course important (Lafont et al., 2006). However, in order to conform to the  
19 water framework directive, the management of rainwater is being reconsidered: where  
20 possible rain waters are diverted to new separate sewers flowing to retention/detention basins.  
21 This process is under way in the Chaudanne catchment and should be monitored to quantify  
22 its future impact on the river discharge. Another lesson of this study is the importance of  
23 knowing precisely the catchments areas. This task is quite simple for natural catchments but is  
24 much more complicated for periurban catchments (Jankowsky, 2011). However, such  
25 determination is essential to compare various catchments based on specific discharge. A  
26 normalisation with the mean annual discharge was attempted, but the interpretation of the  
27 results was not found relevant. This question of catchment area is therefore a major challenge  
28 for data interpretation and comparison in periurban catchments.

29 *Impact on high flows.* The results obtained in this paper confirm that for the highest floods,  
30 the impact of urbanization (via the SODs) is limited. In this case, the rural part of the  
31 catchment is the major contributor to floods, which can be explained by saturation of the soil  
32 due to long rainfall events. It may be counter-intuitive to see that the most productive  
33 catchment for high flows is the less urbanized one (Pollionnay). However, other studies  
34 (Sarrazin, 2012) have shown that the whole catchment is saturated during the largest floods

1(corresponding to long lasting events of at least 70-80 mm). The whole catchment area is  
2therefore contributing to the flow, whereas a part of the rainwater is diverted towards the  
3WWTP in the artificialized catchments, even if all the SODs are activated. Our results also  
4confirm that SODs mainly impact frequent floods, as already shown by Radojevic et al.  
5(2010) using model simulations. Urbanization and catchment artificialization have also an  
6impact on the hydrographs dynamics as shown by Figure 9. The most urbanized catchments  
7have more peaky flood hydrographs. In order to refine this type of analysis, approaches such  
8as those proposed by Archer (2007), Archer et al. (2010) should be investigated in the future,  
9as they allow a full exploration of the whole discharge series, by analysing the frequency and  
10duration of exceedance of various threshold discharges. In the Yzeron catchment, it has been  
11shown that these variables were very relevant to quantify the impact of SODs on the incision  
12and bank erosion risk (Grosprêtre, 2011). In the case of a upstream-downstream gradient of  
13urbanization, like in the Yzeron basin, urban generated floods are flowing before the rural  
14floods, avoiding peak flood accumulation. The effect of urbanization could be more sensitive  
15and may be dramatic if impervious areas extension takes place upstream, increasing the  
16probability of concomitancy between urban and rural floods (Ostrowski, 2000; Ostrowki et  
17Bras, 2000.). Such an explanation may be invoked to explain the largest specific discharge of  
18the downstream Taffignon station, as compared to its upstream Craponne one for high flows.  
19Indeed, the Yzeron rivers receives a tributary flowing through a quite densely urbanized area  
20before the Taffignon station.

21*Statistical tests.* Statistical tests were only applied to the longest Craponne time series. They  
22highlighted a modification of the components of the flow, with a decrease of base and inter  
23flow, and an increase of quick flow. The SODs in this catchment were installed between 1970  
24and 1980 and therefore impact most of the available time series (1970-2010). There is also a  
25significant increase of POT discharge (sampling with an average of two floods per year) for  
26all the durations, except peak discharge. This can be put in parallel to the increase of  
27artificialized surfaces in this catchment between 1970 (9%) and 2008 (18%), all the more than  
28no significant change of maximum annual cumulated (1 to 15 days) daily rainfall can be  
29evidenced. For the analysis of floods, an analysis of rainfall with a shorter time step (typically  
30hourly) would be necessary but the available time series are too short up to now for such an  
31analysis. In addition, those results on floods must be considered with caution as they are  
32sensitive to the sampling strategy.

33*Towards a perceptual model of the Yzeron catchment behaviour.* From the data analysis  
34presented before, we can propose a perceptual model of the Yzeron catchment hydrological

1 functioning. The rural part of the catchment has a high infiltration capacity (Gonzalez-Sosa  
2 et al., 2010) but a small storage capacity. Therefore, for the small to medium events, the  
3 catchment response is mainly dominated by the quick response of urban areas for the  
4 formation of peak discharge and a delayed rural response mainly impacting the recession  
5 curve. Frequent floods are increased by the catchment urbanization. For the largest events  
6 (mainly long duration rainfall events), the catchment response is dominated by the rural  
7 response due to soil saturation. The river regime is also perturbed by the sewer systems  
8 through a high rate of infiltration of soil water which is diverted towards the WWTP and  
9 contributes to a decrease of base flow in the rivers. On the other hand, SODs have an  
10 antagonist impact as they provide a significant contribution to the river discharge in summer,  
11 especially for small catchments. But their impact is smaller than that of the sewer systems and  
12 the whole impact is mostly a base flow decrease. However, given the actions planned to  
13 improve the quality of the receiving waters (improvement of the tightness of the sewer  
14 systems, separation of rainwater and waste water, building of retention basin, etc), the  
15 discharge monitoring must be continued to see if those actions have a real impact on the  
16 discharge. The indicators presented in this study can help monitoring the system.

17

18

## 19 **6. Conclusions and perspectives**

20 The data analysis presented in this paper provides valuable insight into the periurban Yzeron  
21 catchment behaviour. We were able to highlight relevant indicators of the impact of  
22 urbanization/artificialization on the hydrological regime of periurban rivers. The results were  
23 obtained thanks to the availability of a long term and rich data set, sampling various aspects  
24 of the periurban water cycle. These series were relevant for our analysis. However, longer  
25 time series and sampling of more infrastructures would be necessary to fully close the water  
26 balance of such catchments. We have also seen that the determination of the periurban  
27 catchment area is also of importance for a correct data analysis. The filtering method  
28 proposed to decompose the measured discharge into rural and SOD component was found to  
29 be efficient in highlighting the major role of SODs on the whole hydrological regime,  
30 including, mean monthly regime, low flows and high flows. The application of the method  
31 requires the location of the SOD and gauging station to be very close, and data acquired with  
32 a variable time step. This findings provide guidelines for the setting of proper monitoring  
33 networks of those periurban catchments. Finally, the role of water infiltration within the sewer

1system was highlighted. It was found to account for 30% of the total combined sewer system  
2discharge. There are evidence that this infiltration has an impact on low flow and on a large  
3part of the hydrological regime, by decreasing the water into the stream. This impact is  
4important to consider due to its large impact on water quality and on ecosystems.

5The indicators derived in this study are also very useful for the assessment of model results  
6set up in the Yzeron catchment both at small scale (Chaudanne and Mercier catchments,  
7Jankowsky et al, 2011) and the Yzeron catchment (Branger et al., 2012).

8Future work would be required to analyse more in depth the events characteristics, such as  
9done in Sheeder et al. (2002) or Furusho et al. (2012) and characterize the impact of  
10artificialization on the hydrograph shape using for instance methods derived from Archer  
11(2007), Archer et al. (2010).

12

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21

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3Figure 1: Map of the DTM (25m resolution) of the Yzeron catchment with location of the  
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10and coniferous forests, moors), agricultural areas (crops, pastures, orchards, gardens) and  
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12

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25 instance.

1Table 1: Indicators derived from discharge time series analysis found in the literature, and  
 2associated references. We distinguished studies based on model simulations and data analysis.  
 3In bold, we highlight references dealing with catchment urbanization. With a star, the study  
 4uses paired catchments

<b>Analysed indicators</b>	<b>Model simulation</b>	<b>Data analysis</b>
<b>Hydrological regime</b>		
Mean annual runoff, runoff coefficient	Ashagrie et al. (2006), <b>Beighley et al. (2003)</b> , Praskievicz and Chang (2009), Praskievicz and Chang (2009)	*Arrigoni et al. (2010), Bullock (1992), Wang et al. (2007)
Seasonal runoff	Praskievicz and Chang (2009)	Richter et al. (1996)
Quantiles		*Arrigoni et al. (2010)
Flow duration curve	Gustard and Wesselink (1993)	*Bathurst et al. (2011), Wang et al. (2007)
Water balance components	<b>Claessens et al. (2006), Elfert and Bormann (2010)</b>	
<b>High flows</b>		
Value and/or date of annual max peak discharge or max annual discharge other several durations	Ashagrie et al. (2006), <b>Beighley et al. (2003), Burns et al. (2005)</b> , Praskievicz and Chang (2009)	*Arrigoni et al. (2010), *Bathurst et al. (2011), Bullock (1992), Wang et al. (2007), Richter et al. (1996)
Peak over threshold (POT)	Vazquez et al. (2008), Willems (2009), Vazquez and Feyen (2010)	<b>Tong (1990)</b> ,
QdF (discharge-duration-frequency)	Sauquet and Leblois (2001), <b>Radojevic et al. (2010)</b>	
<b>Low flows</b>		
Value and/or date of annual min discharge (or minimum over a period of several days)	Ashagrie et al. (2006), <b>Burns et al. (2005)</b> , Praskievicz and Chang (2009)	*Arrigoni et al. (2010), Richter et al. (1996)
POT for low flow	Vazquez et al. (2008), Willems (2009), Vazquez and Feyen (2010)	
Base Flow Index (BFI)		Bullock (1992), *Dow (2007), Wang et al. (2007)
Low flow frequency, $Q_{95\%}$	Gustard and Wesselink (1993)	Bullock (1992)
<b>Indicators based on hydrographs analyses</b>		
Indicators derived from events analysis: runoff coefficient, recession curves	<b>Chormanski et al. (2008), Meierdiercks et al. (2010), Ott and Uhlenbrook (2004)</b>	*Buytaert et al. (2004)
Flow components based on flow separation	Vazquez et al. (2008), Willems (2009), Vazquez and Feyen (2010)	
Number and/or duration of discharge exceeding thresholds		*Archer (2007), Richter et al. (1996)
Number and/or duration of rising and falling rate of discharge exceeding thresholds		Archer et al. (2010), Richter et al. (1996), <b>Tetzlaff et al. (2005)</b>
<b>Results of statistical analyses</b>		
Statistical comparison of sub-periods	<b>Radojevic et al. (2010)</b>	<b>Tong (1990)</b> , Wang et al. (2007)
Trend detection	<b>Claessens et al. (2006)</b>	Kliment and Matoušková (2009)
Regression with landscape characteristics		*Arrigoni et al. (2010), *Dow(2007), <b>Tetzlaff et al. (2005)</b> , Wang et al. (2007)



1Table 2: Characteristics of the gauged sub-catchments

River	Name of the gauging station	Catchment area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Data availability
Yzeron	Taffignon	129.00	1988/09/16 – present
Yzeron	Craponne	48.00	1969/10/27 – present
Mercier	Pollionnay	6.77	1997/01/14 – present
Chaudanne	Upstream_SOD1	2.19	1997/06/21 – 2001/07/24; 2005/01/01 – present
Chaudanne	La_Léchère	2.9 to 4.1(*)	2005/01/01 – present
Chaudanne	SOD1	≈0.16	2001/06/26 – present
Chaudanne	CSS	≈0.16	2000/11/15 – present

2(\*) The La Léchère area is minimum (2.9 km<sup>2</sup>) under dry conditions, and can reach 4.1 km<sup>2</sup>  
 3when all the SODs are activated (Jankowfsky, 2011)

1 Table 3: Time series derived by the filtering methods

2

River	Name of the time series	Discharge component	Method of derivation	Catchment area (km <sup>2</sup> )
Yzeron	Craponne_SOD	Upstream SOD contribution	4 points moving average on the variable time step series	≈4.5
Yzeron	Craponne_Rural	“Rural” discharge without the upstream SOD	4 points moving average on the variable time step series	48
Chaudanne	La_Léchère_SOD2	Upstream SOD2 contribution	4 points moving average on the variable time step series	≈1.1
Chaudanne	La_Léchère_Rural	“Rural” discharge without the upstream SOD2	4 points moving average on the variable time step series	2.9
Chaudanne	CSS_RW+SOD1	Rainwater runoff	Filtering of the 6mn Chaudanne_CSS series	≈0.16
Chaudanne	CSS_GW	Groundwater infiltration into the CSS	Filtering of the 6mn Chaudanne_CSS series	-
Chaudanne	CSS_WW	Waste water	Filtering of the 6mn Chaudanne_CSS series	-

Table 4: Mean annual discharge  $Q_A$  ( $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and corresponding specific discharge  $q_A$  ( $\text{l s}^{-1} \text{km}^{-2}$ ), 50% quantile of the flow duration curves,  $Q_{50\%}$ ; frequency of zero daily discharge and BFI; maximum daily discharge  $Q_{max}$  ( $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ), and corresponding specific discharge  $q_{max}$  ( $\text{l s}^{-1} \text{km}^{-2}$ ); characteristic flood duration for an extraction of 4 floods per year,  $\theta$  (h), and duration,  $d$  (h), retained for the QdF analysis. Specific discharges are not provided for the SODs and CSS\_RW+SOD components, due to the large uncertainty on their drained areas. For the La Léchère station, figures in parenthesis correspond to a  $4.1 \text{ km}^2$  catchment area.

Series	$Q_A$	$q_A$	$Q_{50\%}$	% of zero daily discharge	BFI	$Q_{max}$	$q_{max}$	$\theta$	$d$
	$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$	$\text{l s}^{-1} \text{km}^2$	$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$	-	-	$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$	$\text{l s}^{-1} \text{km}^2$	h	h
Observed time series									
Taffignon	0.664	5.15	0.275	5.44	0.388	46.25	358.5	6	12
Craponne	0.332	6.92	0.169	0.25	0.486	20.94	436.2	7	12
Pollionnay	0.045	6.65	0.129	13.96	0.336	5.95	878.9	3	12
Upstream_SOD1	0.012	5.55	0.0028	31.25	0.307	0.67	305.9	10	12
La_Léchère	0.019	6.55 (4.63)	0.0069	11.15	0.260	1.58	544.8 (385.4)	1	4
SOD1	0.00027	-	0.000	87.00	-	0.06	-	1	1
CSS	0.00545	-	0.0039	0.24	-	0.13	-	-	-
Derived series using the filtering methods									
Craponne_Rural	0.289	6.02	0.153	0.53	0.536	14.79	308.1	16	12
Craponne_SOD	0.045	-	0.003	34.31	-	6.21	-	3	1
La_Léchère_Rural	0.018	6.20	0.0056	15.96	0.269	1.50	517.2	1	4
La_Léchère_SOD2	0.001	-	0.0002	22.86	-	0.08	-	1	1
CSS_RW+SOD1	0.002	-	0.0012	9.90	-	0.13	-	1	1
CSS_GW	0.002	-	0.0015	48.33	-	0.03	-	-	-
CSS_DW	0.002	-	0.0017	0.00	-	0.002	-	-	-

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Table 5: Decomposition of the discharge into base flow, inter flow and quick flow (in % of the total volume) for the 5 gauged catchments. The values of the constant of the exponential recession model,  $k$  (days) and the  $w$  parameters are also given.

Gauging station	Exponential parameter $k$ for the base flow extraction (days)	Exponential parameter $k$ for the inter flow extraction (days)	$w$ (-) parameter	% base flow	% inter flow	% quick flow
Taffignon	35	12	0.25	39.3	23.1	37.6
Craponne	28	7	0.20	49.8	24.6	25.6
Pollionnay	5	3	0.28	34.6	21.9	43.5
Upstream_SOD1	5	3	0.32	30.2	20.8	49.0
La Léchère	3.75	1.5	0.35	26.3	19.2	54.5

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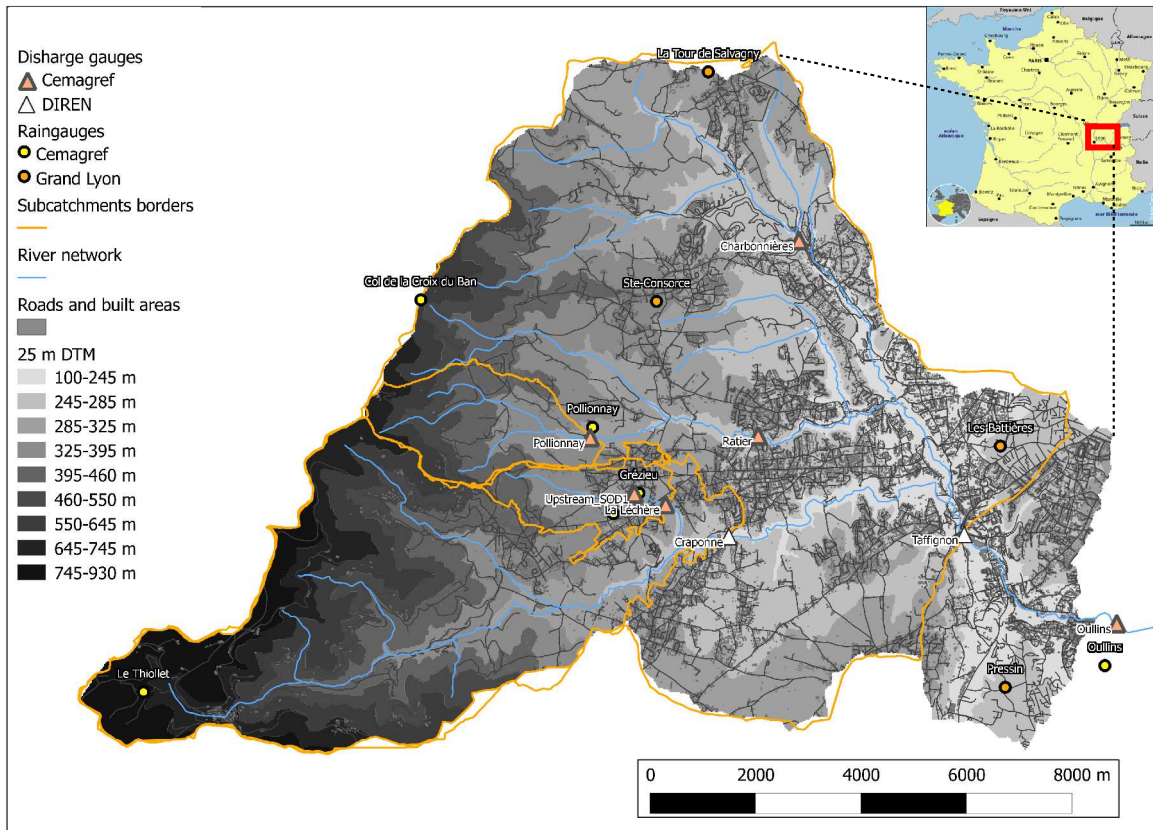
1 Table 6: Results of statistical tests applied to the Craponne daily discharge time series. The  $p$ -  
 2 values of the Mann-Kendall trend tests are provided in the first line and the direction of the  
 3 trend (+ for an increase, - for a decrease) are given in parenthesis when significant. The  
 4 second line contains the  $p$ -value of the Pettitt test and the date of the most probable rupture is  
 5 given in parenthesis when significant. The  $p$ -value are followed with (\*) when the test is  
 6 significant at the 10% level, (\*\*) at the 5% level and (\*\*\*) at the 1% level. The POT analysis  
 7 is applied on the  $Q_{CX_d}$  data (maximum discharge continuously exceeded during the duration  
 8  $d$ ) extracted with an average of two floods per year on the variable time step discharge time  
 9 series.

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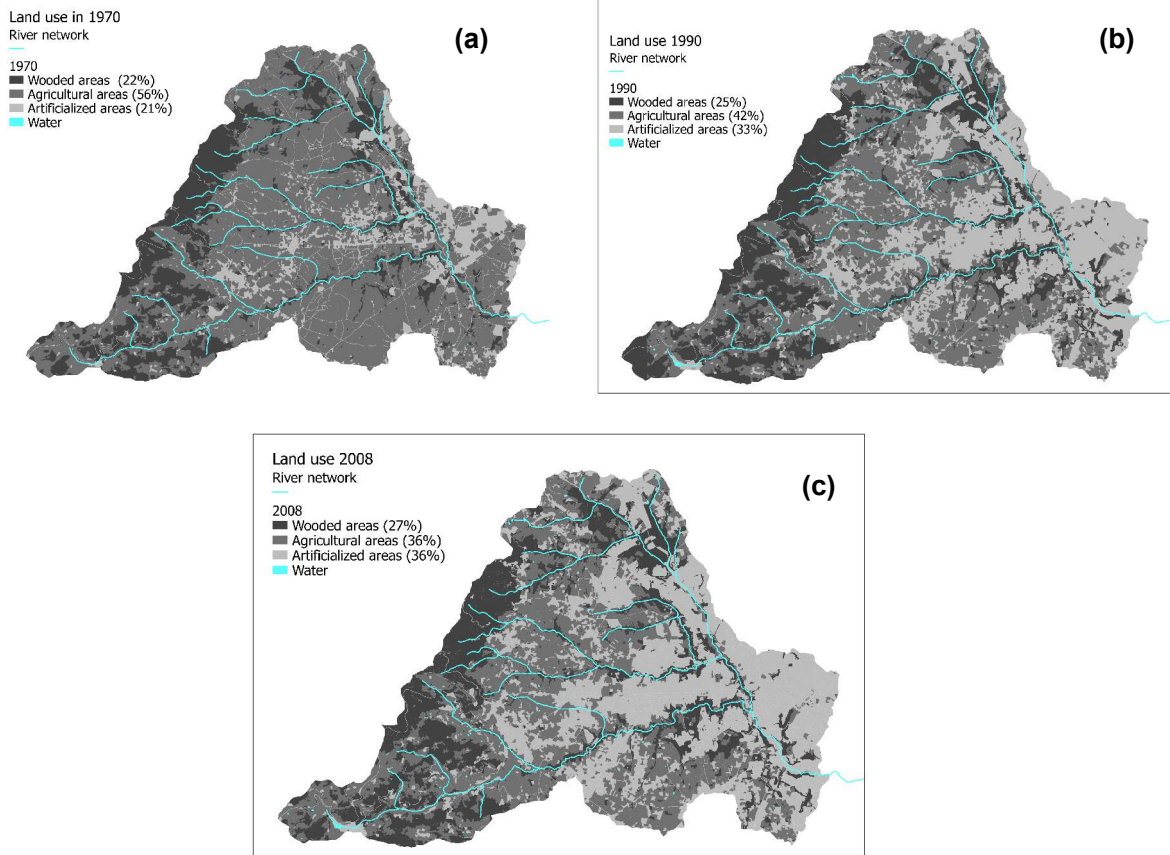
<b>Indicator calculated using the daily discharge at Craponne from 1970-2010</b>	<b><math>p</math></b>
BFI (calculated using the Tallaksen et al., 2004 algorithm)	0.12 (-) 0.17
% base flow (from WETSPRO)	<b>0.02** (-)</b> 0.13
% inter flow (from WETSPRO)	<b>0.006*** (-)</b> 0.11
% quick flow (from WETSPRO)	<b>0.001*** (+)</b> <b>0.02** (1988)</b>
Max annual discharge	0.21 0.63
POT $Q_{CX}$ $d=0$ (maximum peak discharge)	0.35 1.05
POT $Q_{CX}$ duration $d=1h30$	<b>0.04** (+)</b> 0.17
POT $Q_{CX}$ duration $d=3h$	<b>0.06 * (+)</b> 0.13
POT $Q_{CX}$ duration $d=6h$	<b>0.07 * (+)</b> <b>0.08* (1979)</b>
POT $Q_{CX}$ duration $d=12h$	<b>0.06 * (+)</b> 0.21
POT $Q_{CX}$ duration $d=36h$	<b>0.07* (+)</b> <b>0.07* (1977)</b>

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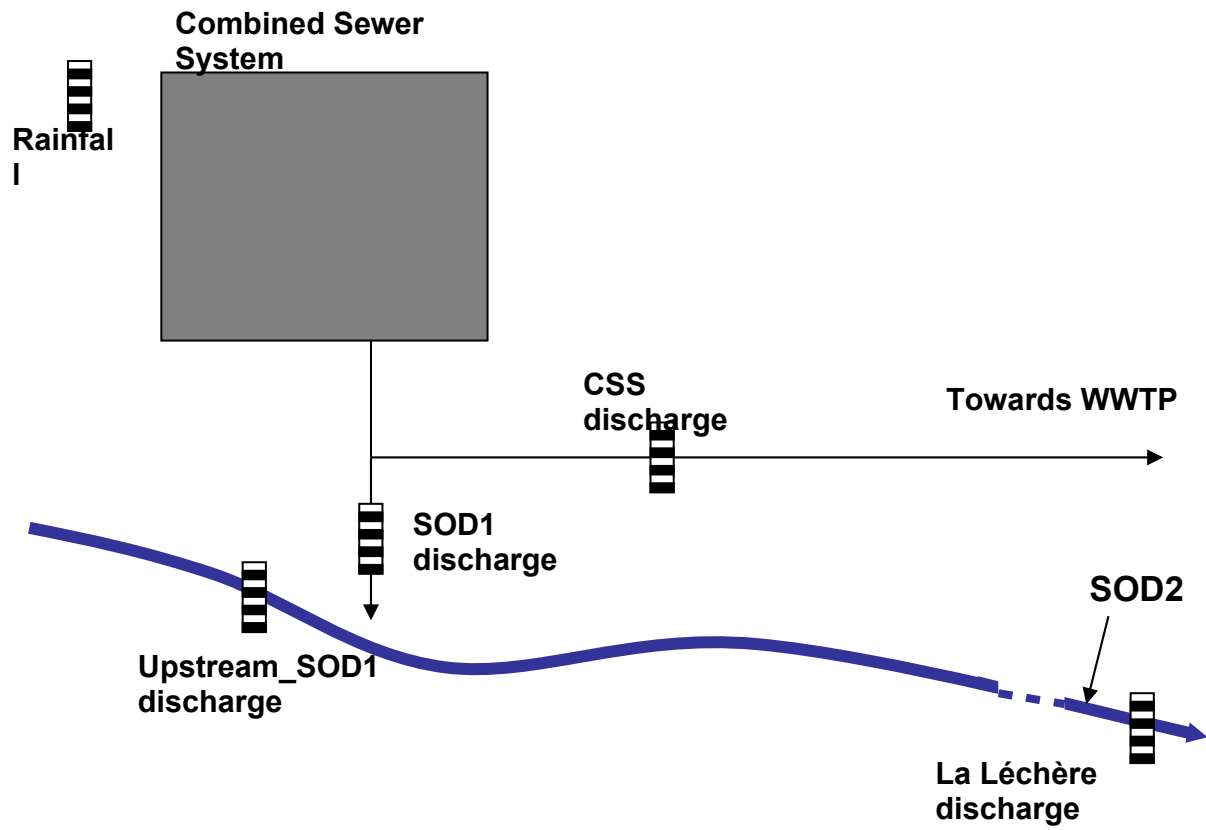
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1 Figure 2  
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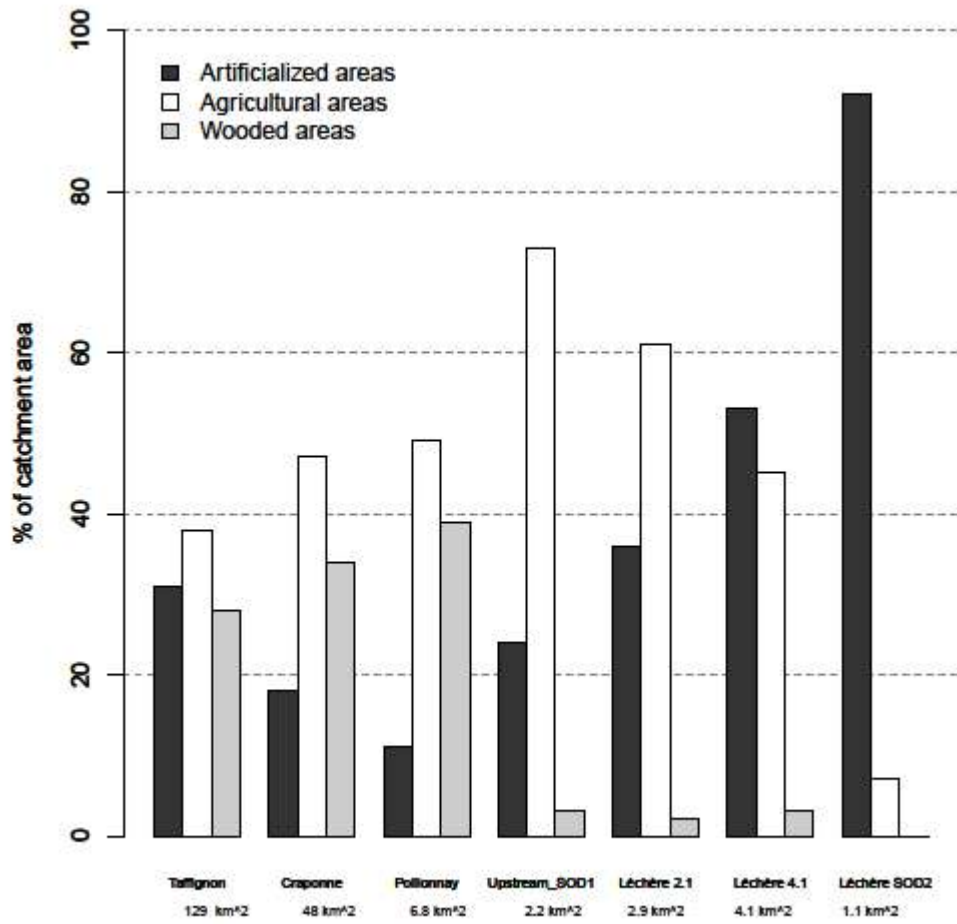


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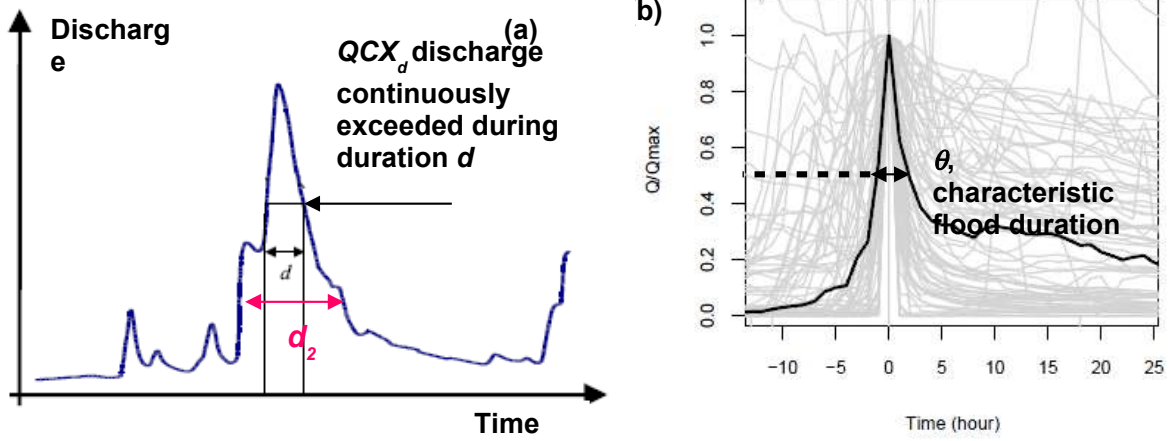


1Figure 4

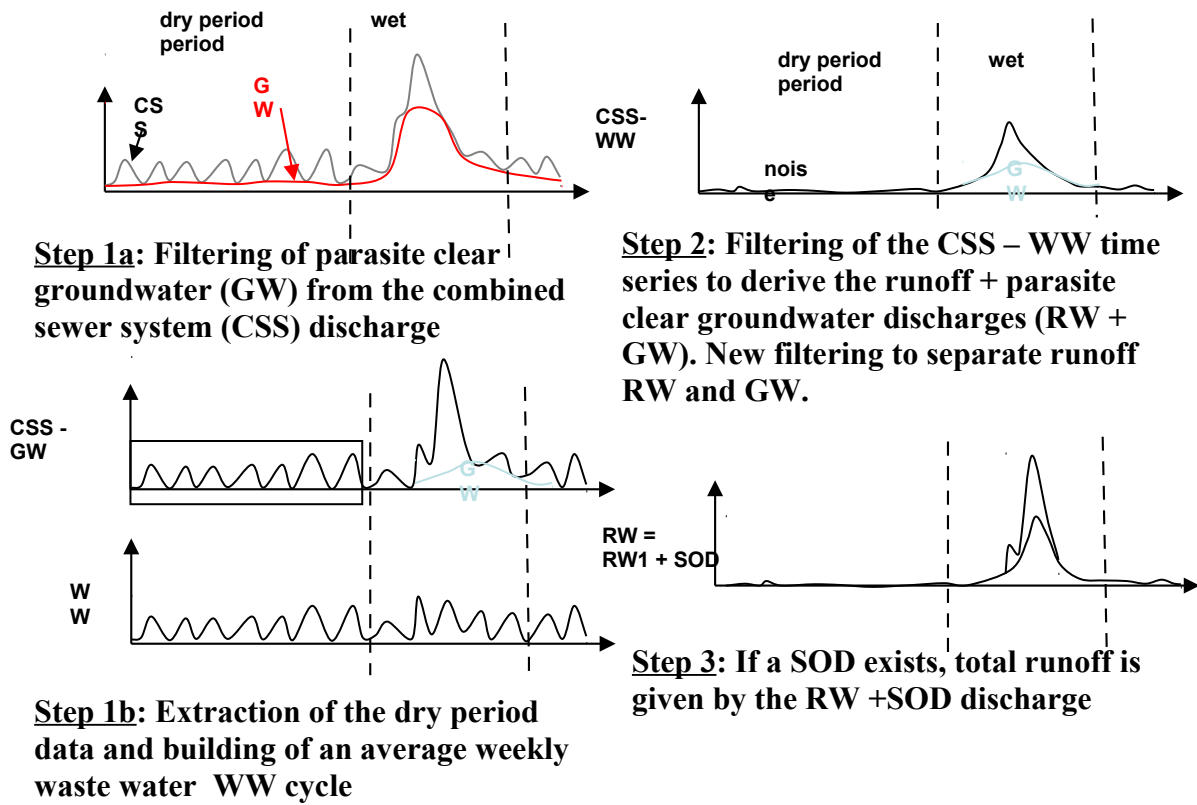


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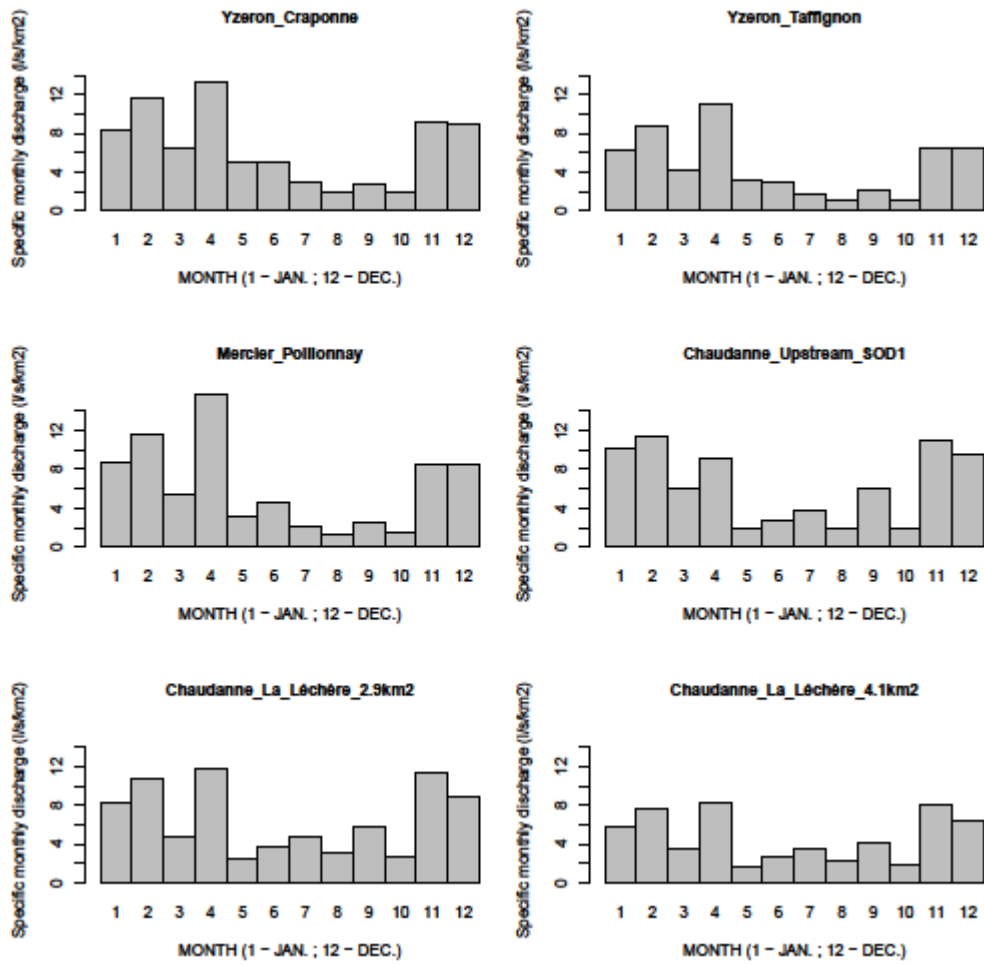
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1Figure 6  
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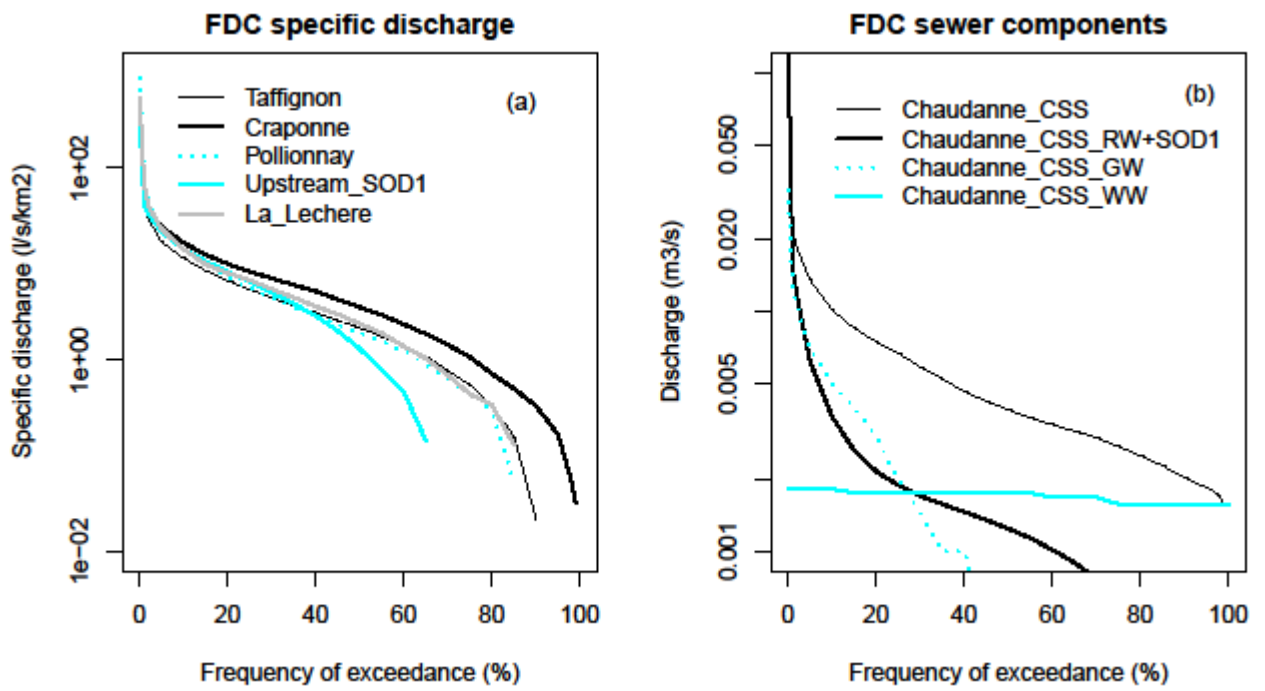


1Figure 7



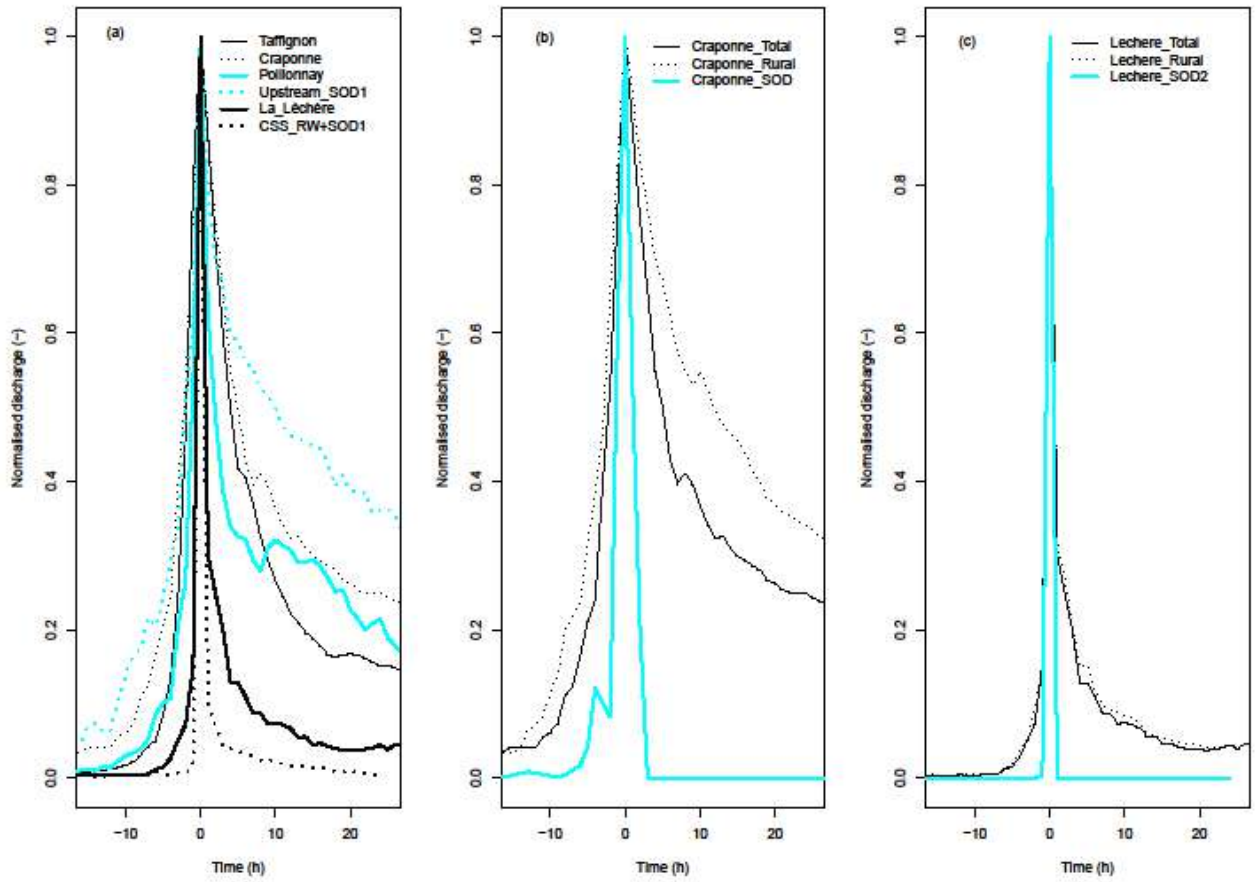
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1Figure 8



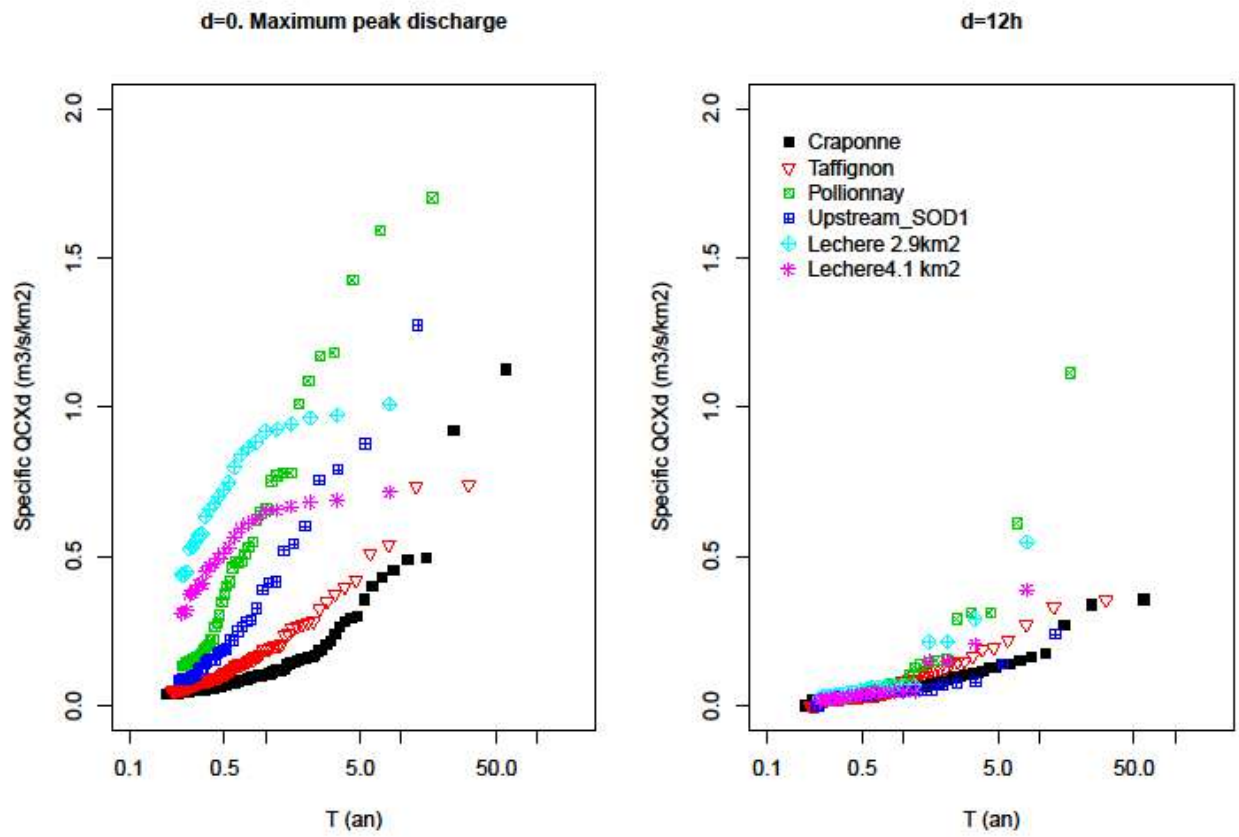
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1Figure 9



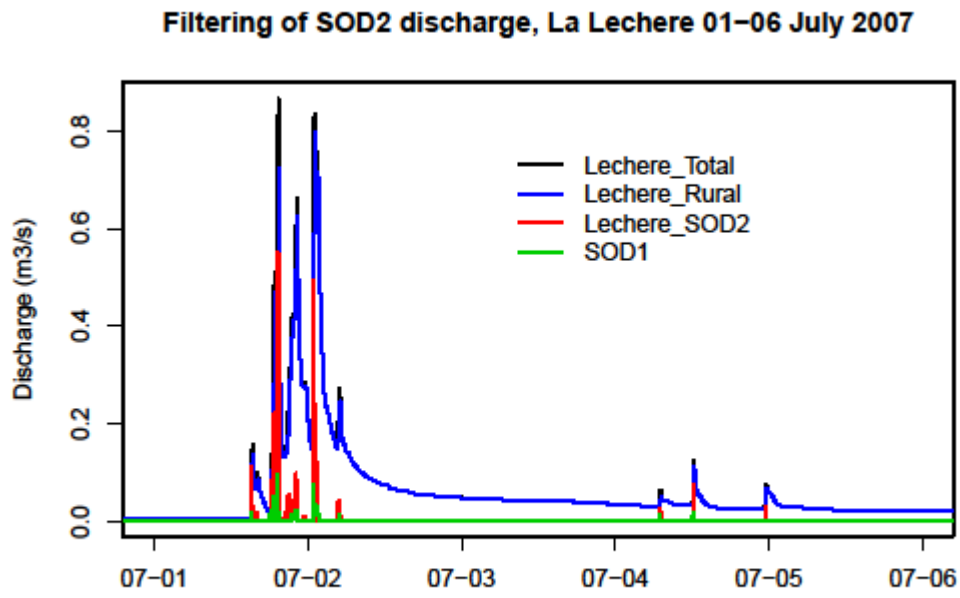
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1Figure 10



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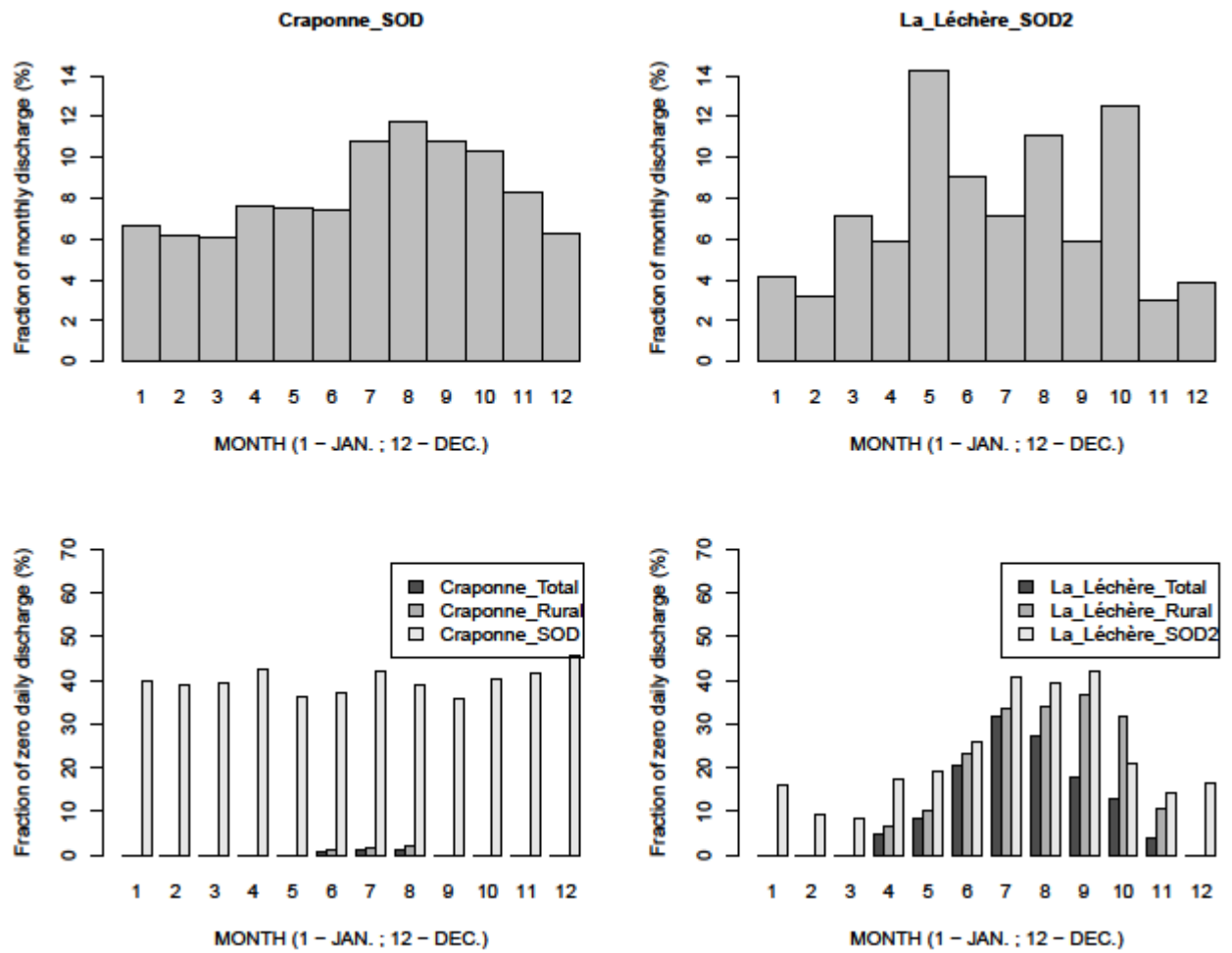
1Figure 11



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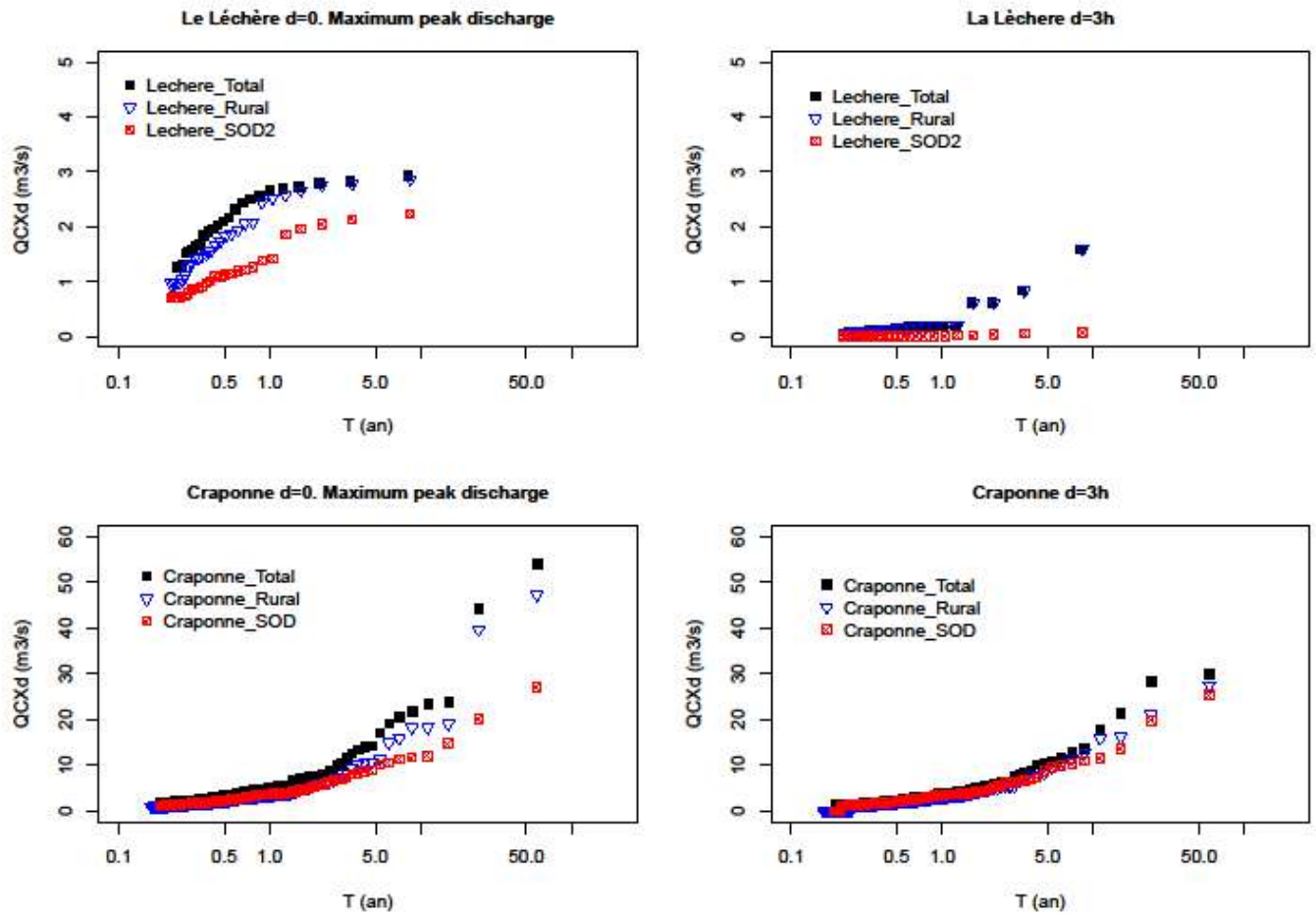


1Figure 12



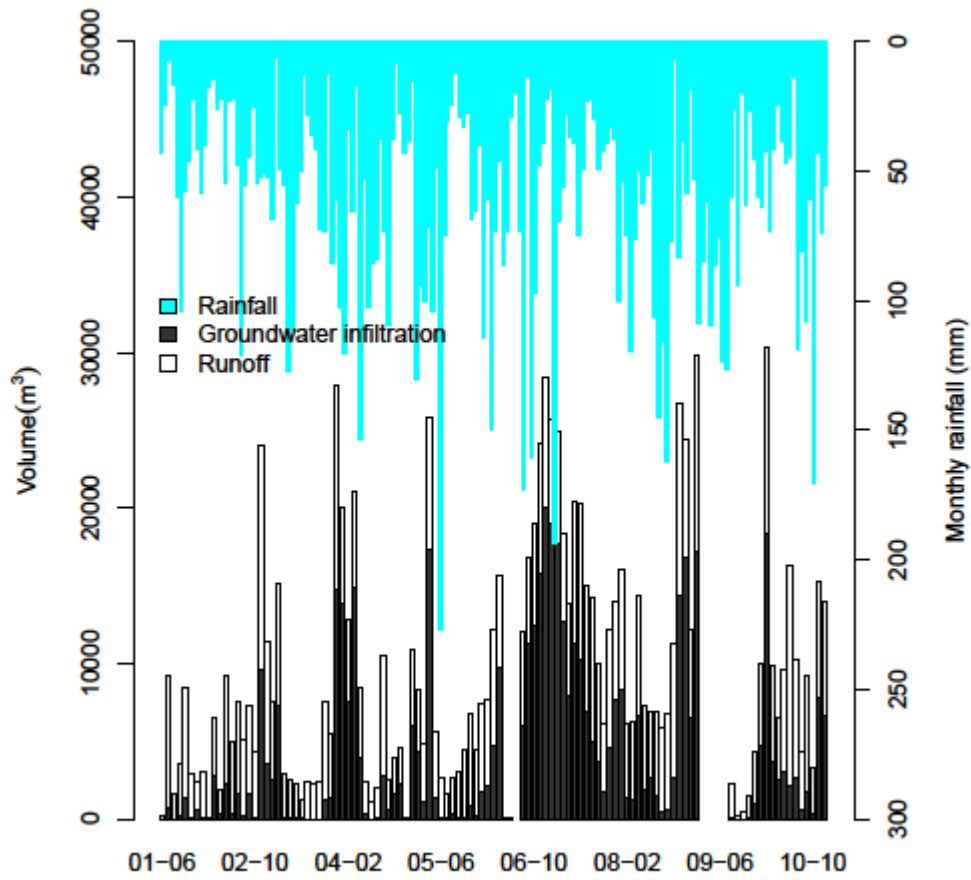
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1Figure 13



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1Figure 14



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