



1 IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON GROUNDWATER FLOODING 2 AND ECOHYDROLOGY IN LOWLAND KARST

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17 Abstract

18 Lowland karst aquifers can generate unique wetland habitats which are caused by groundwater
19 fluctuations that result in extensive groundwater-surface water interactions (i.e. flooding). However, the
20 complex hydrogeological attributes of these systems often present difficulty in predicting how they will
21 respond to changing climatological conditions. Lowland karst systems are especially vulnerable to
22 changing climatological conditions as the sequence and intensity of precipitation patterns linked to
23 extremely fast aquifer recharge processes and flow through well-connected conduit networks make them
24 very susceptible to surcharge conditions – i.e. groundwater-surface water interaction (flooding)). This
25 study investigates the predicted impacts of climate change on a lowland karst catchment by using a
26 semi-distributed karst model populated with output from high-resolution regional climate models for
27 Ireland. The lowland karst catchment is located on the west coast of Ireland and is characterised by a
28 well-developed karstified limestone aquifer which discharges to the sea via intertidal and submarine
29 springs. Annual above ground flooding associated with this complex karst system has led to the
30 development of unique wetland habitats in the form of ephemeral lakes known as turloughs, however
31 extreme flooding of these features causes widespread damage and disruption in the catchment. This
32 analysis has shown that mean, 95th and 99th percentile flood levels are expected to increase by significant
33 proportions for all future emission scenarios. The frequency of events currently considered to be extreme
34 is predicted to increase, indicating that more significant groundwater flooding events seem likely to
35 become far more common. The seasonality of annual flooding is also predicted to shift later in the
36 flooding season which could have far reaching consequences in terms of ecology and land use in the
37 catchment. The impacts of increasing mean sea levels were also investigated, however it was found that
38 anticipated rises had very little impact on groundwater flooding due to the marginal impact on ebb tide
39 outflow volumes. Overall, this study highlights the relative vulnerability of lowland karst systems to future
40 changing climate conditions mainly due to the extremely fast recharge which can occur in such systems.
41 The study presents a novel and highly effective methodology for studying the impact of climate change
42 in lowland karst systems by coupling karst hydrogeological models with the output from high resolution
43 climate simulations.

44 Introduction

45 Climate projections indicate that a shift in the magnitude and pattern of precipitation is likely to alter
46 catchment runoff regimes in Ireland (Nolan et al., 2017, Blöschl et al., 2019, Murphy et al., 2019). As a
47 consequence, extreme events, such as floods and droughts, are expected to increase in frequency and
48 intensity (Noone et al., 2017, Blöschl et al., 2019). These predicted changes in precipitation will
49 undoubtedly impact groundwater resources and groundwater related phenomena such as groundwater
50 flooding and groundwater dependent wetland habitats. Many studies have previously attempted to
51 postulate the likely impacts of climate change on groundwater resources without using numerical models



52 driven by climate data derived from Global Climate Models (GCM) (Dragoni and Sukhija, 2008, Howard
53 and Griffith, 2009, Taylor et al., 2013, Meixner et al., 2016). These studies also tend to focus on
54 groundwater resources in terms of the provision of a potable water supply or irrigation and so have not
55 been focused on groundwater flooding or eco-hydrology. They have also not been focused on
56 groundwater systems dominated by karst flow. Chen et al. (2018) conducted a study into the effects of
57 climate change on alpine karst using GCM data, however the results are not relevant to lowland karst
58 with significant groundwater-surface water interactions and associated eco-hydrological habitats
59 (groundwater fed wetlands). In order to assess the future risks relating to groundwater flooding and eco-
60 hydrology in lowland karst, it is imperative to understand the complex hydrological processes governing
61 groundwater flow in karst bedrock and how it will likely be altered in the future (Morrissey et al., 2019).
62 In this context, various forms of numerical models are usually applied to describe the hydrological
63 processes in karst catchments (Fleury et al., 2009, Gill et al., 2013a, Hartmann et al., 2013, Hartmann,
64 2017, Mayaud et al., 2019), which can accurately simulate the groundwater flow and flooding processes
65 which typically occur. Global and distributed modes have been successfully applied to simulate lowland
66 karst with lumped models typically favoured due to their ease of calibration and relative ease to use in
67 gauged catchments. When considering eco-hydrology (specifically Groundwater Dependent Terrestrial
68 Ecosystems – GWDTE), droughts and extreme floods present the greatest climatological threat and
69 therefore the impacts of predicted climate change are of immediate concern. Whilst fluvial models are
70 relatively straightforward to calibrate and couple with the output from Global or Regional Climate Models,
71 groundwater (and specifically karst) models can be more difficult to employ in such a manner, particularly
72 in terms of assessing the resultant output (Hartmann, 2017). Predicting extreme values with limited
73 gauging data follows established well validated methodologies (Griffis and Stedinger, 2007, Shaw et al.,
74 2011, Ahilan et al., 2012) and; however no such established methods appear to be available currently
75 for groundwater flooding in karst systems.

76 The phenomena of groundwater flooding in general has become more reported as a natural hazard in
77 recent decades following extensive damage to property and infrastructure across Europe in the winter
78 of 2000-2001 (Finch et al., 2004, Pinault et al., 2005, Hughes et al., 2011). Significant groundwater
79 flooding also occurred in the UK at Oxford (2007) and at Berkshire Downs and Chilterns (2014) and in
80 Galway, Ireland in 2009 & 2015/2016 (Naughton et al., 2017). Whilst it has been reported that
81 groundwater flooding rarely poses a risk to human life, this form of flooding is known to cause damage
82 and disruption over a long duration, particularly when compared to fluvial flooding (Morris et al., 2008,
83 Cobby et al., 2009). The effects of sustained drought periods to wetland habitats are significant and
84 recent studies (Spraggs et al., 2015, Noone et al., 2017) have attempted to quantify the frequency and
85 extent of historic droughts to better understand their recurrence interval and thus assess habitat
86 resilience. Climate change is likely to further exacerbate extreme droughts (Murphy et al., 2019) and
87 their frequency and persistence must be quantified if resource planning and protection are to be
88 implemented. Hence, this study aims to assess the predicted impacts of climate change, particularly
89 during these extreme events, using an ensemble of Regional Climate Models to provide input data inot
90 a semi-distributed model of a lowland karst catchment in the West of Ireland as a study site.

91 **Study Catchment**

92 Groundwater flooding in Ireland predominantly occurs within the lowland limestone areas of the west of
93 the country (Naughton et al., 2012, Naughton et al., 2018). This flooding is governed by complex
94 interactions between ground and surface waters, with sinking and rising rivers/streams common and
95 surface water features absent completely in many areas (Drew, 2008). The flooding is controlled by
96 complex geology whereby the dominant drainage path for many catchments is through the karstified
97 limestone bedrock. During intense or prolonged rainfall the limestone bedrock is unable to drain recharge
98 due to the limited storage available within the bedrock (fractures and conduits). This results in
99 surcharging of groundwater from the hydraulic network above the surface which is typically contained
100 within low-lying topographic depressions known as turloughs, which represent the principal form of
101 extensive, recurrent groundwater flooding in Ireland (Coxon, 1987a, Coxon, 1987b). In Ireland, the most
102 susceptible region to groundwater flooding is the south Galway Lowlands, centred around the town of
103 Gort, which is a lowland karst catchment covering an area of approximately 500 km² (Naughton et al.,
104 2018).



105

106 The lowland karst catchment is made up of two distinct, bedrock geologies with the upland mountainous
107 areas to the east underlain by Old Red Sandstone and the lowlands in the west underlain by highly
108 permeable karstified Carboniferous Limestone. The presence of a permeable epikarst with a well-
109 developed conduit and cave system dispersed throughout the limestone portion of the catchment has
110 given rise to a very distinct surface hydrology which large exchanges of water between the surface and
111 subsurface across the lowlands through sinking streams, large springs and estavelles (Naughton et al.,
112 2018). Three rivers flow off the Slieve Aughty Mountains (much of which are covered in blanket bog and
113 forestry) providing allogenic recharge into the lowland karst and a fourth flows into the catchment from
114 the south-west. Once these watercourses contact the limestone they disappear into the bedrock where
115 flow occurs within caves or conduits – see Figure 1 The rivers reappear for short intervals at a number
116 of locations before discharging to the sea via submarine groundwater discharge (including springs
117 located at the intertidal zone of the bay) at Kinvara Bay (Gill et al., 2013b). The groundwater conduit
118 network surcharges to the ground surface through estavelles and springs following periods of sustained
119 heavy rainfall when sufficient capacity is not available in the bedrock to store and convey water to the
120 sea. The excess surface water floods low-lying areas forming ephemeral lakes,, which are known as
121 turloughs (Coxon, 1987b, Goodwillie and Reynolds, 2003, Sheehy Skeffington et al., 2006, Naughton et
122 al., 2012, Waldren, 2015, Irvine et al., 2018). Extensive and damaging flooding associated with these
123 turloughs has occurred twice in the last decade leading to considerable cost and disruption. An extreme
124 flood event which occurred in November 2009 was the most severe on record, until it was surpassed in
125 many areas by the events of 2015/2016. These floods led to over 24 km² of land being inundated for up
126 to 6 months. The apparent increase in frequency with which these hugely damaging extreme flooding
127 events are occurring has made quantifying the likely impact of future climate change a topic of high
128 priority and importance. In addition, given that the entire catchment drains to a series of springs at the
129 coast (some of which are intertidal) the impacts of rising sea level, either in combination or isolation to
130 changing rainfall patterns associated with climate change, are also of concern.

131

132 **Regional Climate Modelling**

133 The impact of increasing greenhouse gases and changing land use on climate change can be simulated
134 using Global Climate Models (GCMs). However, long climate simulations using GCMs are currently
135 feasible only with horizontal resolutions of ~50 km or coarser. Since climate fields such as precipitation,
136 wind speed and temperature are closely correlated to the local topography, this is inadequate to simulate
137 the detail and pattern of climate change and its effects on the future climate of Ireland. Hence, Regional
138 Climate Models (RCMs) have been developed by dynamically downscaling the coarse information
139 provided by the global models to provide high-resolution information on a subdomain covering Ireland.
140 The computational cost of running the RCM, for a given resolution, is considerably less than that of a
141 global model. The approach has its flaws; all models have errors, which are cascaded in this technique,
142 and new errors are introduced via the flow of data through the boundaries of the regional model.
143 Nevertheless, numerous studies have demonstrated that high-resolution RCMs improve the simulation
144 of fields such as precipitation (Kendon et al., 2012, Lucas-Picher et al., 2012, Kendon et al., 2014,
145 Bieniek et al., 2016) and topography-influenced phenomena and

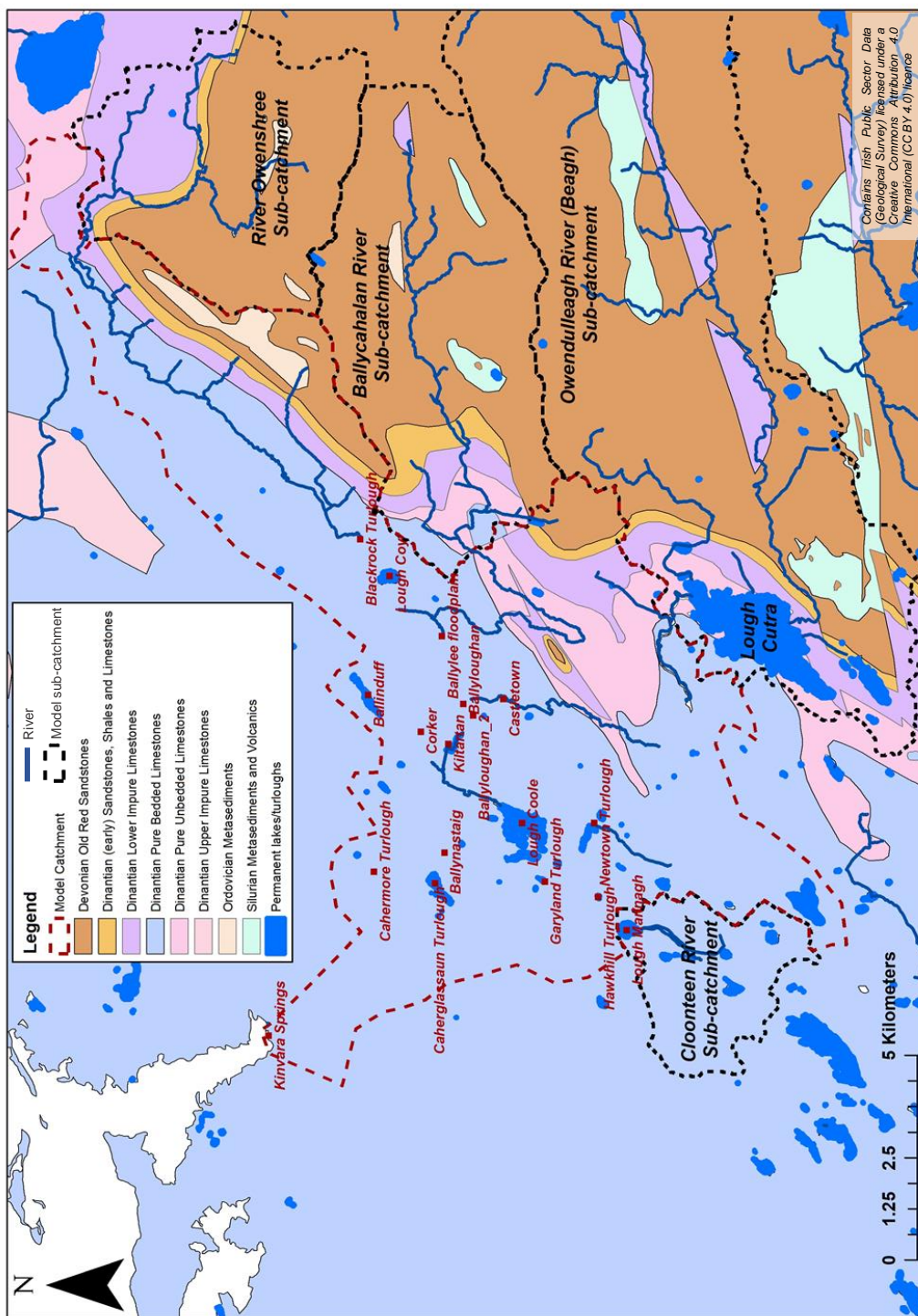


Figure 1: Map of the catchment showing geology, major rivers/lakes and nodes within the model catchment



160 extremes with relatively small spatial or short temporal character (Feser et al., 2011, Feser
161 and Barcikowska, 2012, Shkol'nik et al., 2012, IPCC, 2013). The physically based RCMs
162 explicitly resolve more small-scale atmospheric features and provide a better representation
163 of convective precipitation (Rauscher et al., 2010) and extreme precipitation (Kanada et al.,
164 2008). Other examples of the added value of RCMs include improved simulation of near-
165 surface temperature (Feser, 2006, Di Luca et al., 2016), European storm damage (Donat et
166 al., 2010), strong mesoscale cyclones (Cavicchia and von Storch, 2012), North Atlantic tropical
167 cyclone tracks (Daloz et al., 2015) and near-surface wind speeds (Kanamaru and Kanamitsu,
168 2007), particularly in coastal areas with complex topography (Feser et al., 2011, Winterfeldt et
169 al., 2011). The IPCC have concluded that there is “high confidence that downscaling adds
170 value to the simulation of spatial climate detail in regions with highly variable topography (e.g.,
171 distinct orography, coastlines) and for mesoscale phenomena and extremes” (IPCC, 2013).
172

173

Methodology

174 Climate Models and Methods

175 The future climate of Ireland was simulated at high spatial resolution (4 km) using the COSMO-
176 CLM (v5.0) RCM. The COSMO-CLM regional climate model is the COSMO weather
177 forecasting model in climate mode (www.clm-community.eu, Rockel et al., 2008). The
178 COSMO model (www.cosmo-model.org) is the non-hydrostatic operational weather prediction
179 model used by the German Weather Service (DWD). Projections for the future Irish climate
180 were generated by downscaling the following CMIP5 global datasets; the UK Met Office's
181 Hadley Centre Global Environment Model version 2 Earth System configuration (HadGEM2-
182 ES) GCM, the EC-Earth consortium GCM, the CNRM-CM5 GCM developed by CNRM-GAME
183 (Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques—Groupe d'études de l'Atmosphère
184 Météorologique) and Cerfacs (Centre Européen de Recherche et de Formation Avancée), the
185 Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate (MIROC5) GCM developed by the MIROC5
186 Japanese research consortium and the MPI-ESM-LR Earth System Model developed by the
187 Max Planck Institute for Meteorology. To account for the uncertainty arising from the
188 estimation of future global emissions of greenhouse gases, downscaled GCM simulations
189 based on four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and
190 RCP8.5) were used to simulate the future climate of Ireland.

191

192 The RCMs were driven by GCM boundary conditions with the following nesting strategy; GCM
193 to 18 km to 4 km. For the current study, only 4 km grid spacing RCM data are considered. The
194 higher resolution data allows sharper estimates of the regional variations of climate
195 projections. The climate fields of the RCM simulations were archived at 3-h intervals.
196

197

198 An overview of the simulations is presented in
199 Table 1. Data from two time-slices, 1976–2005 (the control or past) and 2071–2010, were
200 used for analysis of projected changes in the Irish climate by the end of the 21st-century. It
201 must be noted that the full RCM simulations in fact covered the entire period 1976 – 2100 and
202 these time slices were simply used to make a past versus future comparison (Figure 2 shows
203 results from the full simulation and not just the chosen time slices for this current study). The
204 historical period was compared with the corresponding future period for all simulations within
205 the same RCM-GCM group. This results in future anomalies for each model run; that is, the
206 difference between future and past.



206

207 **Table 1: Details of the ensemble RCM simulations used in this study; rows present information**
 208 **on the RCM used, the corresponding downscaled GCM, the RCP used for future simulations,**
 209 **the number of ensemble comparisons and the time-slice analysed.**

RCM	GCM	Scenarios	No. of ensemble comparisons	Time periods analysed
COSMO5	EC-Earth (r1i1p1)	Historical	-	1976 – 2005
		RCP4.5, RCP8.5	2	2071 - 2100
	MPI-ESM-LR (r1i1p1)	Historical	-	1976 – 2005
		RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP8.5	3	2071 - 2100
	CNRM-CM5 (r1i1p1)	Historical	-	1976 – 2005
		RCP4.5, RCP8.5	2	2071 - 2100
	HadGEM2-ES (r1i1p1)	Historical	-	1976 – 2005
		RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP8.5	3	2071 - 2100
	MIROC5 (r1i1p1)	Historical	-	1976 – 2005
		RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, RCP8.5	4	2071 - 2100

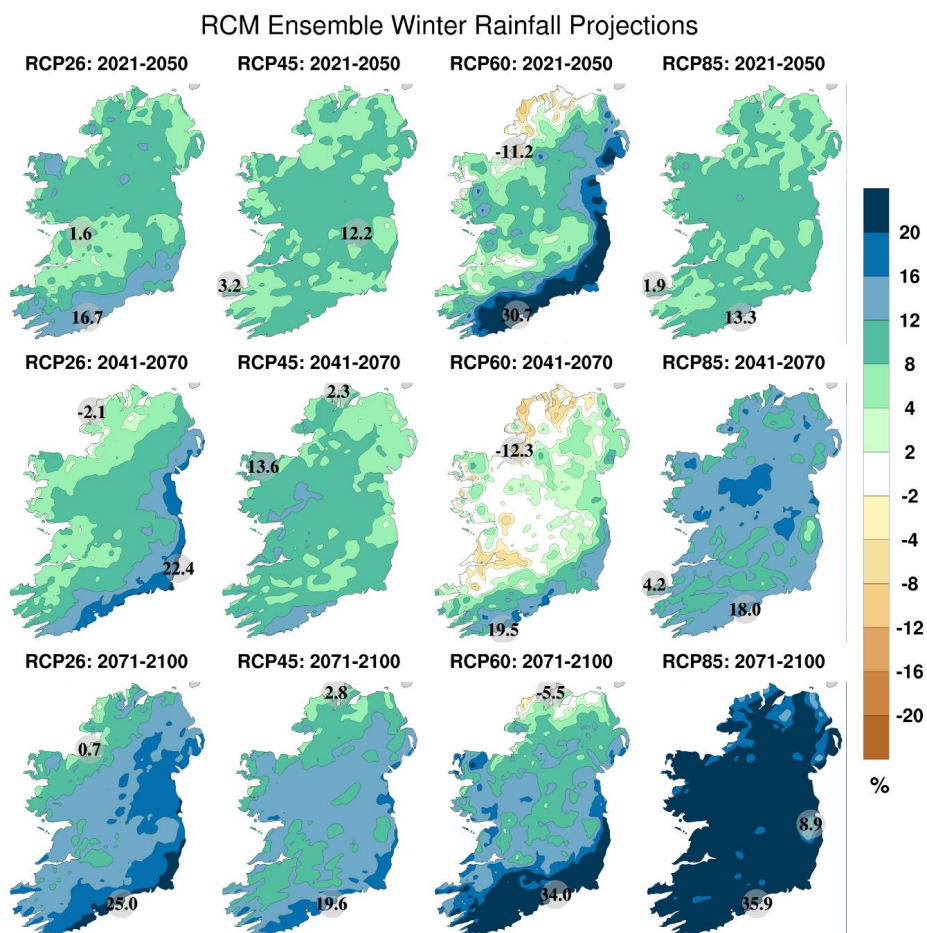
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212 The RCM projection results are in line with previous work (Nolan et al., 2014, Gleeson et al.,
 213 2015, Nolan, 2015, O'Sullivan et al., 2015, Nolan et al., 2017) with enhanced temperature
 214 rises predicted by the end-of-century of between 0.8 to 3°C for the high emission scenario
 215 (RCP8.5) by 2100. RCM simulations also predict wetter winters across all RCP scenarios with
 216 increases in average winter rainfall of between 25 to 36% by 2100. A clear north-west to south-
 217 east gradient was also observed within the simulated data, as shown on Figure 2.

218

219 The method of bilinear interpolation was employed to 5 km extract RCM precipitation and
 220 evapotranspiration data at each of the locations of existing rain gauges in the study catchment.
 221 The Penman-Monteith FAO-56 method (REF) was used to compute daily evapotranspiration
 222 (mm) (see Werner et al. 2018 for a full description of methods and validations).



223

224

225

Figure 2: RCM Ensemble Projections of Winter Rainfall (%). In each case, the future 30-year periods are compared with the past period 1976-2005

226

227

Karst Groundwater Model

228

A semi-distributed pipe network model of the Gort lowlands has been developed using urban drainage software (Inforworks ICM by Innovyze). This model simulates both open channel and pressurised flow within the conduits with flooding on the land surface represented by storage nodes with the same stage-volume properties of the physical turlough basins (Morrissey et al., 2019). The model receives input from the four rivers as a time-varying discharge which is computed separately using observed river gauging data provided by the Office of Public Works (OPW) utilising established stage-discharge rating curves (Gill et al., 2013a). Autogenic recharge across the catchment is represented within the model using sub-catchments receiving a time-series of precipitation and evapotranspiration with inflows to the pipe network controlled by a calibrated Groundwater Infiltration Module (GIM) within the software. The downstream boundary condition for the model is the tidal level in Kinvara Bay which is taken from Marine Institute observed data recorded at a buoy in Galway Bay. The model was calibrated and validated over a 30-year period by matching the simulated fluctuation of the groundwater-surface water interactions (i.e. turloughs levels) with observed values and was

241



242 found to represent the catchment with a very high degree of accuracy (NSE & KGE > 0.97).
243 The full model setup and calibration/validation process is presented in Morrissey et al. (2019).
244
245 The RCM rainfall and evapotranspiration data, described above, were then used to run the
246 groundwater flow model for each of the historical and future periods covering 25 simulation
247 periods in total (5 past & 19 future). Daily rainfall and evapotranspiration totals were output
248 from the RCM models in all cases and these values were used as input to the RR and karst
249 models described below. When hourly totals were required to run the model the daily total was
250 simply evenly distributed over the 24 hour period (this had no impact on the model accuracy
251 – see Morrissey et al. (2019) for further details). The OPW have specified the required
252 allowances in flood parameters which should be made for planning purposes in Ireland (OPW,
253 2019) for the “Mid-Range” and “High-End” Future Scenarios (MRFS & HEFS). These
254 provisions make allowances for both mean sea level rises and predicted land movement of
255 +0.55 m for the MRFS and +1.05 m for the HEFS. Therefore, to quantify the combination effect
256 of rising sea level with changing climatological conditions, the future scenarios were also
257 simulated with the tidal boundary condition adjusted to allow for predicted increases in mean
258 sea level at Kinvara Bay.

259

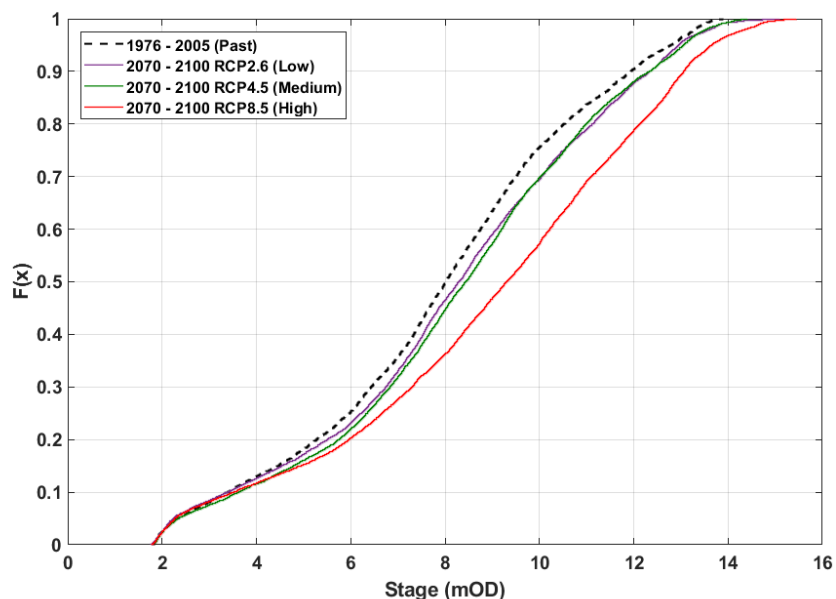
Results & Discussion

260 As outlined above, data from two time-horizons, 1976–2005 (the control) and 2071–2100,
261 were used for analysis of projected changes by the end of the 21st-century Irish climate. The
262 historical period was compared with the corresponding future period for all simulations within
263 the same group. This results in future changes for each model run; i.e. the difference between
264 the model future and past. While this strategy aims to remove the model bias, as outlined in
265 Nolan et al. (2017), a level of uncertainty is common to all climate models which inherently
266 include bias particularly with respect to rainfall.

267

Statistical analysis

269 Considering that flood levels within turloughs are generally not normally distributed (Morrissey
270 et al., 2019), the non-parametric Kolmogorov–Smirnov statistical test was employed to test for
271 statistical significance of projected changes. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov null hypothesis states
272 that the past and future data are from the same continuous distribution. Small values of the
273 confidence level p cast doubt on the validity of the null hypothesis. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov
274 tests between each RCM past and future scenario show a high level of significance ($p \approx 0$),
275 meaning that the projected changes in the future flood level distributions are statistically
276 significant. For example, the projected changes in the Cumulative Distribution Functions
277 (CDF) for the MPI-ESM-LR RCM across the RCP2.6, RCP4.5 & RCP8.5 emission scenarios
278 at Coole Turlough are shown in Figure 3.. A marked shift to the right is seen in the distribution
279 above flood levels (stage) of 5.5 mOD, with the RCP8.5 scenario showing the greatest shift
280 with similar shifts in magnitude predicted for both the low and medium emission scenarios.
281 This indicates the likelihood of higher flood levels being observed is higher in all future
282 emission scenarios.
283



284

285 **Figure 3: Comparison of the non-parametric Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) plots for**
286 **the past and future RCM scenarios using the MPI-ESM-LR GCM datasets at Coole Turlough [the**
287 **y-axis shows the probability $F(x)$ of a particular flood stage (mOD) being less than or equal to x]**

288

289 The predicted shifts in the data are further illustrated using box plots, as shown in Figure 4 for
290 Cahermore Turlough. In general, the RCMs predict progressively higher median and 75th
291 percentile flood levels with higher emission scenarios, with a few exceptions. The HADGEM2-
292 ES and MIROC5 RCM's predict similar future medians to the past, albeit with increased 75th
293 percentiles, whilst the MIROC5 results actually predict lower future 25th percentile flood levels.
294 Extreme values for all RCM future scenarios are increased with the exception of the RCP4.5
295 emission scenario for the MIROC5 RCM.

296



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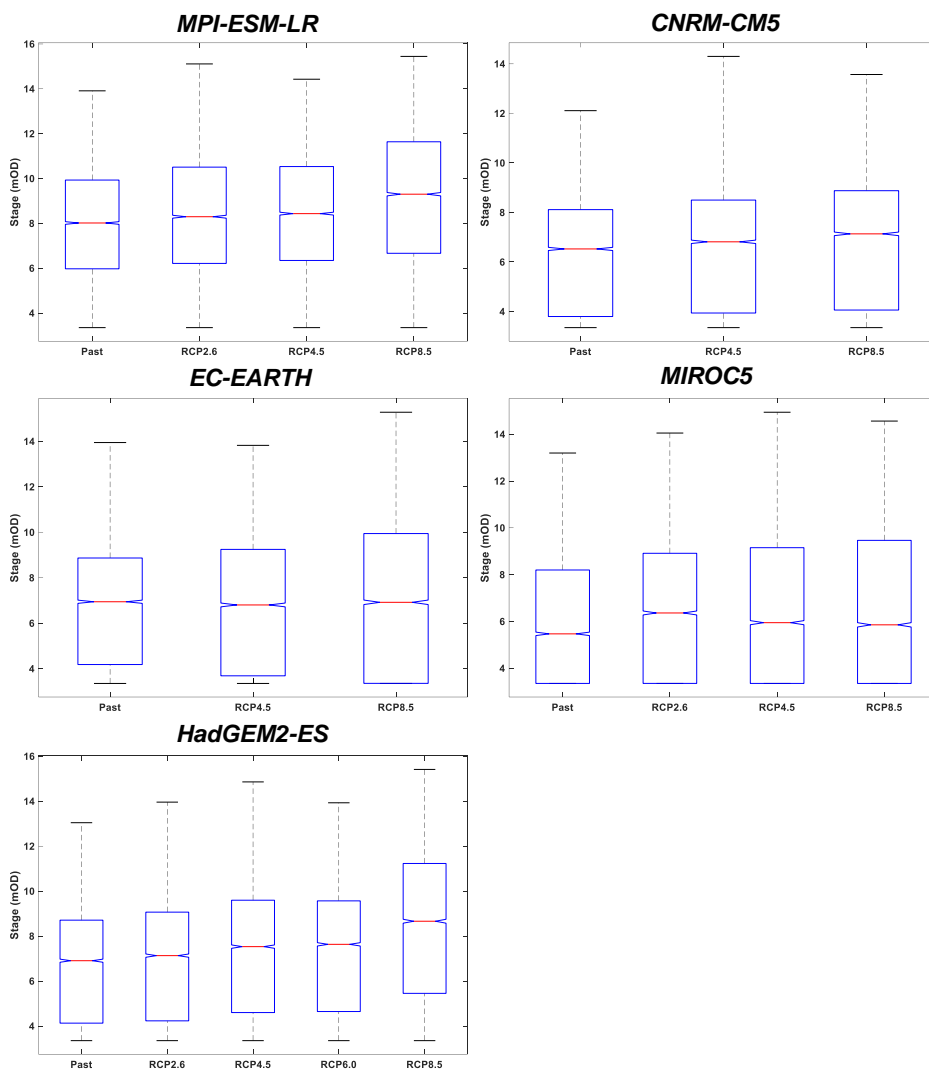


Figure 4: Boxplots of model results for each of the RCM's showing past and future RCM scenarios at Cahermore Turlough. The central mark (red) indicates the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extend to the minimum and maximum values within the dataset.



298 The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was employed to test for statistical significance of projected
 299 changes in median flood levels. The Wilcoxon rank-sum tests the null hypothesis that the past
 300 and future data are from continuous distributions with equal medians, against the alternative
 301 that they are not. Each of the Wilcoxon rank-sum tests showed a high level of significance
 302 ($p \approx 0$) for the all ensemble scenarios across the entire catchment which therefore concludes
 303 that the projected changes in the future flood level distributions and medians are statistically
 304 significant.

305
 306 **Implications for mean and recurrent flood levels and eco-hydrology**

307 In order to estimate the likely magnitude of change in future flood levels, an examination of
 308 mean flood levels across the catchment was undertaken. Table 2 summarises the ensemble
 309 average percentage change in sample means for all RCM scenarios across the catchment.
 310 The models predict that ensemble mean flood levels will increase by an average 3.5% for the
 311 low emission scenario and by 7.9% in the high emission scenario across the catchment.
 312 Increases in mean water levels indicate either an increase in the magnitude of flood levels as
 313 a whole, or an increase in the durations of flooding at higher elevations (or both). Further
 314 analysis below reveals the nature of such mean flood level increases in more detail.

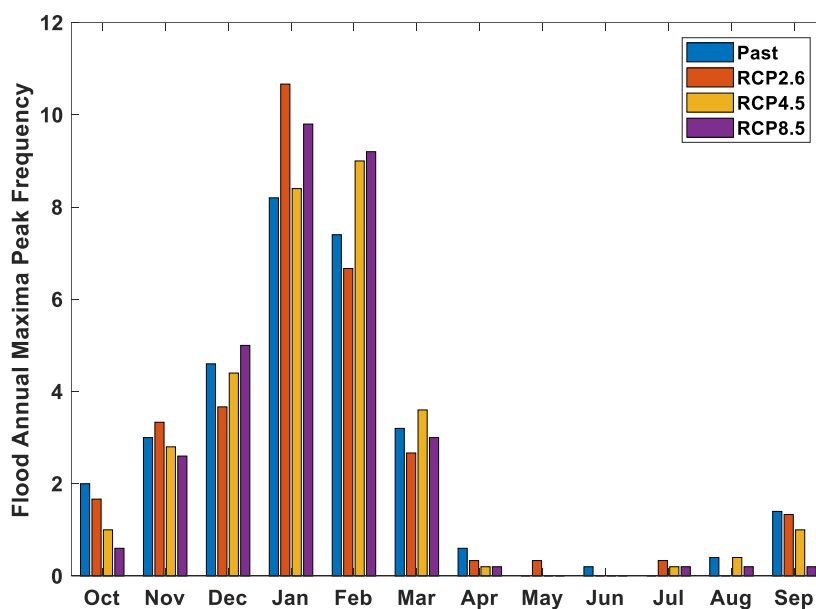
315
 316 **Table 2: Ensemble average percentage change (%) in sample means for all RCM scenarios at all**
 317 **groundwater flood nodes within the South Galway karst model domain (positive value indicates**
 318 **increase in mean annual water level within the hydrological year)**

Location within catchment	Ensemble Average % change in mean flood level			
	RCP2.6	RCP4.5	RCP6.0	RCP8.5
Ballinduff	1.29	1.11	2.01	2.10
Ballylea	1.67	1.68	2.72	3.75
Ballyloughaun	0.14	0.21	0.18	0.60
Blackrock	3.83	4.12	6.30	8.98
Caherglassaun	8.14	8.29	12.20	17.62
Cahermore	5.61	7.01	9.75	15.42
Castletown	2.42	2.86	3.94	6.86
Coole	6.39	5.79	9.32	12.45
Corker	0.32	0.41	0.41	1.23
Coy	2.53	2.22	3.75	4.48
Garyland	7.32	7.72	11.78	16.48
Hawkhill	5.35	5.03	7.19	9.88
Kiltartan	1.25	1.44	1.86	3.80
Mannagh	0.82	0.87	1.51	1.94
Newtown	5.67	5.57	8.96	12.26
Catchment average	3.52	3.62	5.46	7.86

319
 320
 321 The impact of climate change on the seasonality of flooding in the turloughs was also
 322 examined using the simulated climate data. The seasonality of flooding at turloughs typically
 323 follows a pattern over the hydrological year (October – September) whereby flooding
 324 commences in October/November with peak flood levels observed anywhere between
 325 October and February. Figure 5 illustrates the ensemble shift in the seasonality of flooding
 326 predicted to occur for the low, medium and high emission scenarios. The historical dataset
 327 shows the peak frequency of flood levels generally occurring over the months December to
 328 February. Each of the future RCM scenarios predict these frequencies will shift significantly
 329 towards January and February and on into March for the high emission scenario. The
 330 implications of peak flooding occurring later in the hydrological year (i.e. January / February)
 331 are likely to mean flooding persisting later into late spring and even early summer as it usually



332 takes a number of months for flood waters to drain down. This is especially significant for
333 extreme flood events when a peak event occurring in late February could see flood water
334 persisting until mid/late May. The knock-on effect for ecological habitats and indeed for farming
335 (flooded lands adjacent to turloughs) in the catchment from this seasonal shift could be
336 significant as persistent flooding could impact the growing season for wet grasslands and floral
337 species. The impact of the timing of such peak events was demonstrated in the catchment
338 during the two most recent extreme events. The extreme that occurred in 2009 peaked in late
339 November and flood waters were largely abated by mid-March 2010, however flood waters
340 from the extreme event of 2015/2016 which peaked in January 2016 persisted until late April
341 2016.



342
343 **Figure 5: Bar chart illustrating the seasonal shift in frequencies of peak annual flood levels at**
344 **Coole Turlough over the hydrological year for all future RCM scenarios (with RCP 6.0 omitted)**

345
346 The duration of inundation at various flood levels is of extreme importance, both from an
347 ecological perspective in terms of wetland species distribution and survival and for extreme
348 flooding in terms of the disruption to homes, transport links and agricultural land inundated by
349 flood waters. An examination of the flood-duration curves across each of the five RCP
350 scenarios (see Figure 6) indicates moderate to significant changes in the patterns of flood
351 duration across the catchment. The MIROC5 RCM predicted the highest upward shift in
352 flooded durations with a projected catchment average 99th percentile increase of 1015%. The
353 EC-EARTH RCM predicts a reduction in low flood level durations and increase in high flood
354 durations, with all other models generally predicting no significant shift in low to medium flood
355 levels but upward shifts in flood durations at higher levels. Whilst the medium to low flood
356 levels, which tend to be of more importance with respect to eco-hydrology, appear to be
357 relatively unaffected, an examination of the more frequent flood inundation recurrences was
358 undertaken using Annual Exceedance Probabilities (AEPs). The 50, 20 and 10% AEP flood
359 levels were estimated for both the past and future scenarios using extreme value distributions.
360 Given that the past and future horizons cover 30 year periods, it was possible to estimate the
361 10% AEP flood level with relative confidence. The annual maximum flood level series (using



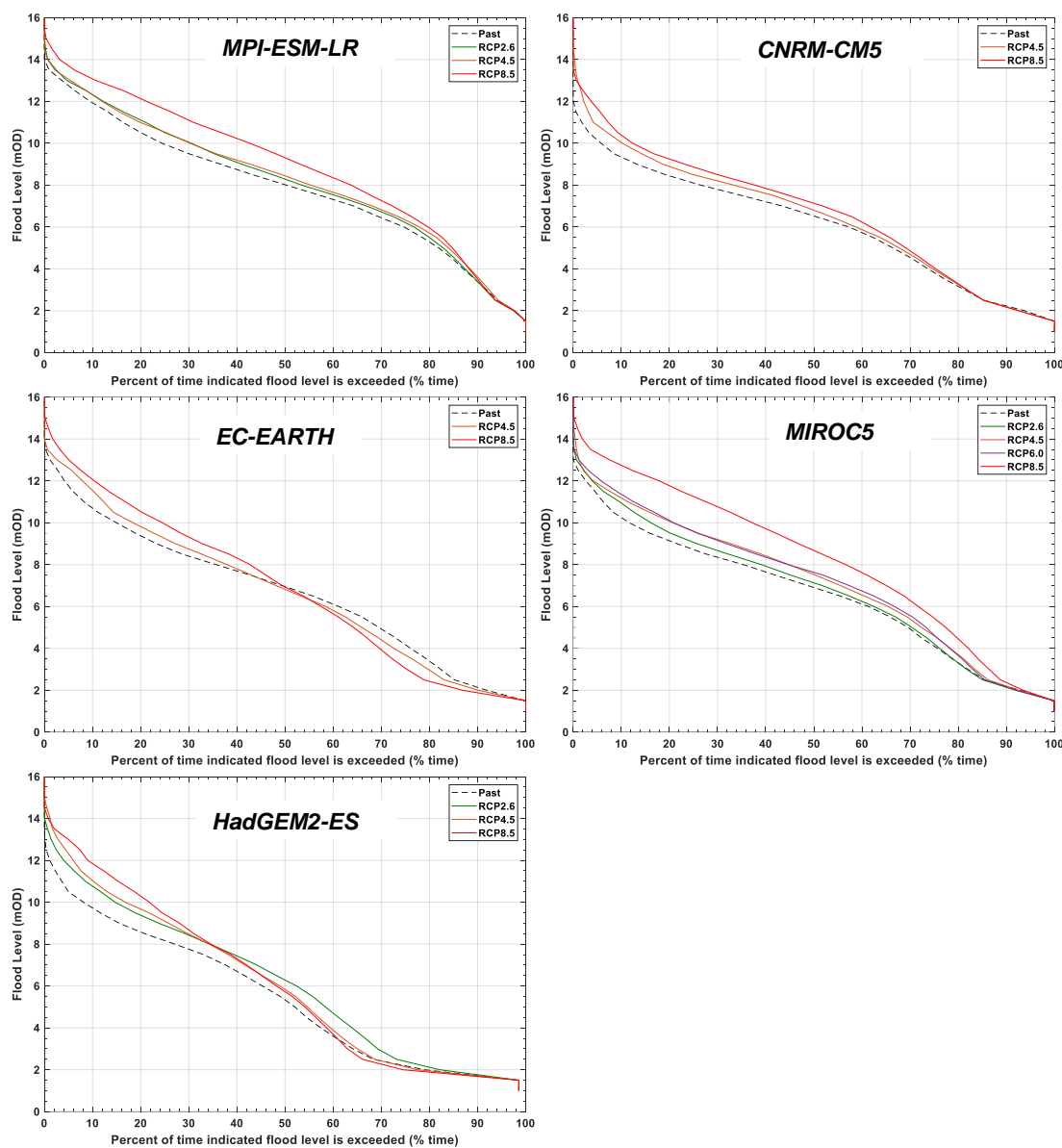
362 the hydrological year (October to September) was extracted for each past and future scenario
363 and an Extreme Value statistical distribution was fitted to the data. Each of the relevant flood
364 levels were then estimated using the distributions and for each RCM the future and past values
365 were compared to assess the projected future changes. The resultant ensemble catchment
366 average changes in 50, 20 and 10% AEP flood levels across the various RCPs are shown in
367 Table 3. The models predict a 4% increase in the 10% (10 year return period) AEP flood level
368 for the low emission scenario and 10% increase in the high emission scenario. Similar
369 increases are observed for the more frequent flood events indicating flooding of the turloughs
370 will become more regular even at lower levels with the duration of dry or empty periods
371 reduced. Given that the topography of each turlough basin varies widely (i.e. steep versus
372 shallow sides), a 10% increase in lower flood levels will generally not be dramatic in terms of
373 groundwater flooding, with respect to the risk to properties and/or damage and disruption
374 throughout the catchment, but will impact a large area as the side gradients tend to be shallow
375 closer to the turlough bases. These changes in flood durations and the recurrence of flooding
376 above established “norms” will undoubtedly have significant impacts for turlough eco-
377 hydrology.

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381 **Table 3: Ensemble catchment average percentage change (%) in 50,20 & 10% AEP flood levels**
382 **for all RCM scenarios (positive value indicates increase in mean annual water level within the**
383 **hydrological year)**

RCM Scenario	Ensemble Average % Change in AEP Flood Level		
	50% AEP	20% AEP	10% AEP
RCP2.6	2.92	3.88	4.25
RCP4.5	4.52	5.63	6.05
RCP6.0	4.67	4.60	4.58
RCP8.5	8.97	9.76	10.07

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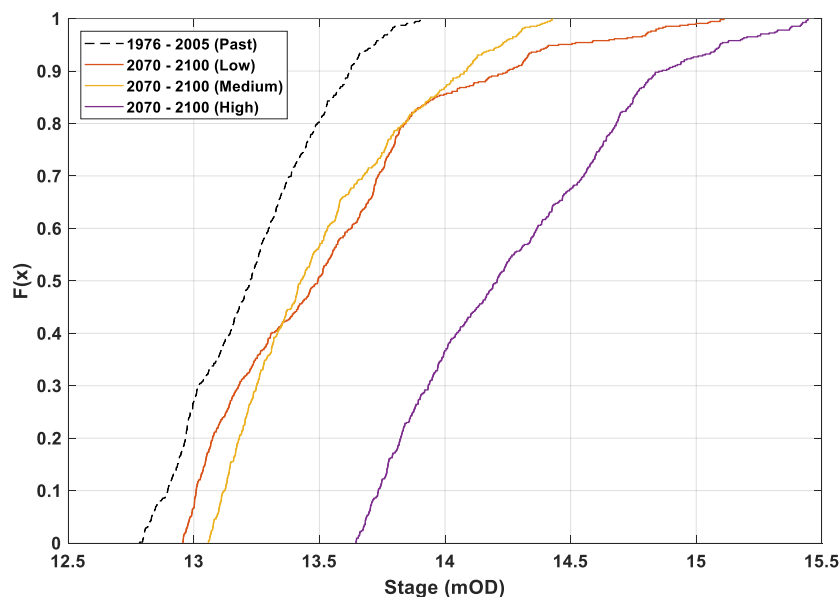
Figure 6: Flooded duration curves at Coole Turlough for each of the RCM scenarios

391 **Implications for extreme flood events**

392 When assessing the impacts of climate on groundwater flooding in the lowland karst of Ireland,
393 the extreme values within the data are of most interest. Given that the future horizon
394 considered for all scenarios covers the 30-year period between 2071 – 2100, this is not a long
395 enough period from which to estimate the 1% AEP with any degree of certainty. In addition,
396 due to the non-parametric nature of the data, it was not possible to employ the use of extreme
397 value statistical distribution to estimate values without introducing large margins of error. For



398 example, the peak values between the past and future scenarios were found to vary between
399 -1.6% and +16.5% across each of the various future RCM scenarios; however, there is no
400 statistical test to determine if these changes are indicative of a trend or linked to random
401 chance within a 100 year future time interval. Trends in the 95th and 99th percentile time-series
402 values have previously been used successfully to test for statistically significant trends in
403 extreme values in climate change analysis (Franzke, 2013). In order to establish if a
404 statistically significant difference existed in the future RCM scenarios, the Kolmogorov-
405 Smirnov two sample test was therefore used with all values below the 95th percentile excluded.
406 The null hypothesis was rejected for all future RCM scenarios indicating that the differences
407 between the distributions in the upper (and most extreme) range are statistically significant.
408 Sample CDF plots of past and future scenarios for the MPI-ESM-LR RCM at Coole Turlough
409 utilising data values above the 95th percentile are given in Figure 7.



410
411 **Figure 7: Comparison of the non-parametric Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) plots for**
412 **the past and future RCM emission scenarios using the MPI-ESM-LR RCM datasets at Coole**
413 **Turlough with values below the 95th percentile excluded (annual maxima levels)**

414
415 Given this test proves that a future trend exists, the 95th and 99th percentile values at each
416 model node were then calculated for each of the ensemble RCM simulations and the
417 ensemble average percentage change between each of the past and future sceneries was
418 used to determine the ensemble average across the entire catchment (see Table 4). All future
419 scenarios predict an increase in the 95th percentile flood level across each model node with
420 the catchment average ranging between +3.8% (future-low) and +10.3% (future-high). It must
421 be noted that two of the turloughs in the catchment (Ballinduff and Coy) show very little change
422 in 95th percentile values across all future scenarios. Both of these turloughs are almost always
423 permanently flooded with Ballinduff having a relatively narrow range of annual fluctuation in
424 flood levels (<4 m). Both locations flood to their notional maximum level far more frequently
425 with further increases in flood water levels controlled by either overland flow paths or sinkholes
426 at higher elevations. This is not representative of the majority of other flood locations within
427 the catchment, which reach their notional maximum flood levels far less frequently. Hence, it
428 should be noted that removing these two turloughs from this analysis would only serve to
429 further increase the catchment average values shown in Table 4.



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Table 4: Ensemble percentage change (%) in 95th percentile flood levels for all RCM scenarios at all groundwater flood nodes within the South Galway karst model domain (positive value indicates increase in 95th percentile water level within the hydrological year)

Location within catchment	Ensemble Average			
	RCP2.6	RCP4.5	RCP6.0	RCP8.5
Ballinduff	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.11
Ballylea	2.19	2.63	3.43	7.97
Ballyloughaun	0.51	1.74	1.53	4.78
Blackrock	3.87	4.93	5.73	10.51
Caherglassaun	5.84	6.99	6.88	17.09
Cahermore	5.84	7.47	7.14	16.65
Castletown	5.65	7.76	7.73	14.31
Coole	5.74	7.87	7.67	14.80
Corker	3.27	3.57	6.27	7.56
Coy	0.31	0.73	0.38	0.89
Garyland	5.74	7.41	7.60	15.03
Hawkhill	5.74	7.88	7.67	14.80
Kiltartan	5.32	6.33	6.08	11.33
Mannagh	1.25	2.24	2.59	3.66
Newtown	5.74	7.50	7.67	14.80
Catchment average	3.80	5.01	5.23	10.29

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A further calculation was then undertaken which estimated the percent change in the frequency of days with peak flood levels greater than the current 95th and 99th percentiles, respectively. The simulations project 64 to 205% increases for the 95th percentiles across the RCM scenarios with 171 to 621% increases in 99th percentile exceedance frequencies (see Supplemental Information Tables S1 and S2). That is, flood levels that are currently considered unusually high will become much more common. Given that mean flood levels across the catchment were also shown to increase by between 3.5 to 7.9%, it follows that an upward shift in the more extreme flood levels (i.e. 1% AEP) will also occur. Whilst this analysis indicates that an increase in 1% AEP flood levels across the catchment will likely occur, the magnitude of the increase will be controlled by the natural overland spill points between the turloughs and also the capacity of potential linked overland flow paths to the sea.

Impact of rising mean tide levels

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All 19 future RCM scenarios were re-simulated with the downstream tidal boundary condition increased to reflect projected rises in mean sea level. The tidal boundary signals used in the future RCM scenarios were therefore shifted upwards by 0.55 m and 1.05 m respectively and all future scenarios were re-assessed. No statistically significant change in any of the resulting distributions was found however, when compared to the future RCM scenarios with no sea level increases. This indicates that the differences between the distributions with mean sea level increases are statistically insignificant and that rises in mean sea levels of up to 1.05 m will have little impact in this karst catchment over and above the impacts of changing climate. Similarly, there was no appreciable change in average or 95th percentile flood levels across the catchment (<0.05 m). Minor changes in peak levels (<3%) were observed at Caherglassaun turlough which is the closest to the sea and where a tidal signal is observed at low flood stages; this minor change however, was not observed at any other location. The observed changes at Caherglassaun were not enough to reject the null hypothesis for any statistical test. An examination of the pattern of outflows from the system at the springs at



464 Kinavara confirms that these results are to be expected. The majority of outflow from the
465 system (through the intertidal springs) occurs during the ebb tide when the bay is essentially
466 empty (elevation <-2.5 mOD) or emptying. Even a mean sea level rise of 1.05 m would only
467 increase the bottom elevation of the ebb tide to approximately -1.5 mOD which would still allow
468 equivalent volumes of water to drain from the system during ebb tide. In addition, an
469 examination of the spring outflows for the historical and future RCP scenarios through the
470 ebb/flood tidal cycle showed water was still flowing out of the system as the tide rises due to
471 the pressure head between groundwater in the aquifer (and the turloughs) and the springs.
472

473 Conclusions

474 Groundwater Flooding

475 It has been established that the long-term trends of the lowland karst aquifer dynamics (e.g.,
476 spring discharge, groundwater levels and groundwater flooding) are affected by precipitation
477 patterns (intensity & accumulation) over preceding weeks and months leading up to peak
478 water levels (peak flood events) typically late in the winter or early spring (Naughton et al.,
479 2012). Quantifying the impact of changing rainfall patterns is therefore of utmost importance
480 when considering future groundwater flood risk in such lowland karst catchments. Whilst
481 significant variations in the magnitudes of predicted future increases in flood levels were
482 observed in this study, the underlying trend in the RCM data simulated is predicting increases
483 in mean annual flood levels (groundwater levels), 95th and 99th percentile levels and most
484 significantly in flood durations particularly at higher (and more extreme) flood levels. Each of
485 the various downscaled GCM datasets predicted statistically significant increases in all
486 relevant flooding statistics and notably a shift in the seasonality of the flooding. This shift will
487 likely compound the impact in the catchment given that the existing summer “dry” period may
488 be curtailed. The projected large increases in the frequencies of the existing (past) 99th
489 percentile exceedances of up to 1015% clearly demonstrate that what is currently considered
490 to be high or extreme flooding will become more of a regular occurrence in the future. In terms
491 of planning for future development or indeed developing flood alleviation projects for such
492 lowland karst systems, being able to predict the projected changes in mean flood levels and
493 extreme events will be vital in order to ensure that developments proceed with minimal risk to
494 property of human life. In the study catchment this could result in potential flood alleviation
495 channels being sized to accommodate considerable larger flows than what may be considered
496 sufficient based on current conditions. The implications of this study for similar karst
497 catchments and climate zones with high recharge rates and significant seasonal variations in
498 groundwater levels are equally significant and could also impact on other activities such as
499 tunnelling and mining in such karst environments.

501 Eco-hydrology

502 Habitats which rely on groundwater to sustain wetland conditions are at particular risk to
503 changes in groundwater fluctuation regimes brought about by climate change. This study has
504 shown that the pattern of flooding at turloughs in the west of Ireland is likely to change
505 significantly with higher mean flood levels over longer durations. These unique habitats which
506 develop from this cyclical inundation pattern develop in specific zones where favourable
507 conditions are achieved. The results of this study predict that a shift is likely to occur in the
508 location and extent of these habitat zones within turloughs. Furthermore, some of these
509 habitats may be at threat due to the predicted shift in the seasonality of flooding to later in the
510 hydrological year, causing a delay in the early growing season for wetland grasses and flora.
511 The increase in more extreme events could also have a detrimental impact to fringing habitats
512 which develop along the perimeter of these sites (typically woody shrubs and trees) which
513 would be destroyed were they to become flooded on a more regular basis. An argument could
514 be made that the habitat zones could simply be shifted upwards in elevation, essentially
515 expanding the extents of the wetlands. However, given that turloughs are often located within
516 defined basins, the room for their “growth” is constrained and the loss of some habitat is likely



517 unavoidable. For other similar groundwater dependent habitats in similar climate zones in
518 karst such as fens the implications of fluctuations in future groundwater levels and flows are
519 equally significant.

520

521 In the wider context, this study has shown that the use of complex transient groundwater
522 models with the output from RCM models can provide specific and targeted information on the
523 likely effects of climate change on groundwater levels, flooding and eco-hydrology.

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