

1 **Streamflow In The Sapucaí River Watershed, Brazil: Probabilistic**
2 **Modeling, Reference Streamflow, And Regionalization**

3

4 Marcel Carvalho Abreu ¹, Micael de Souza Fraga ², Laura Thebit Almeida ³, Felipe
5 Bernardes da Silva ⁴, Roberto Avelino Cecílio ⁵, Gustavo Bastos Lyra ¹ and Rafael Coll
6 Delgado ¹

7 ¹ Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro, Forest Institute, Department of
8 Environmental Sciences, Seropédica, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

9 ² Water Management Institute of Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais, Brazil

10 ³ University of Viçosa, School of Agriculture, Agricultural Engineering Department,
11 Viçosa, Minas Gerais, Brazil.

12 ⁴ Vale do Rio Verde University, Três Corações, Minas Gerais, Brazil

13 ⁵ Federal University of Espírito Santo, Department of Forest and Wood Sciences,
14 Jerônimo Monteiro, Espírito Santo, Brazil.

15

16 **Corresponding Author:** Marcel Carvalho Abreu - Rod. BR 465, Km 07 Seropédica -
17 RJ - CEP: 23890-000 Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro - UFRRJ Instituto
18 de Florestas - IF/Departamento de Ciências Ambientais – DCA. E-mail:
19 marcelc.abreu@gmail.com

20

21 **Abstract**

22 This work aims to study the streamflow statistic patterns in the Sapucaí River
23 watershed, state of Minas Gerais, Brazil. This study embraces the streamflow
24 probabilistic modeling to determine the reference streamflow and, later, the streamflow
25 regionalization to improve the water resources management. A 26-year-data series
26 (1989 - 2014) of maximum, average, and minimum streamflow were used. Probability
27 density functions were applied to the maximum and minimum daily streamflow to
28 determine the recurrence periods. Long-term average annual and monthly streamflow
29 were also calculated. Linear and non-linear regressions were adjusted for the streamflow
30 regionalization. The drainage area and the streamflow equivalent to the total rainfall
31 (with and without abstractions) were used as predictor variables. The probability density
32 functions that best adjusted the maximum streamflow data set were the Generalized

33 Extreme Values, and for the minimum streamflow was the normal distribution. Linear
34 and non-linear regressions were efficient ($R^2 > 0.90$ and d Willmott > 0.97) in the
35 regionalization process regardless of the predictor variables. However, a small statistical
36 advantage was found for the adjustment of non-linear regressions that used the predictor
37 variables drainage area and the streamflow equivalent to the total rainfall (without
38 abstractions).

39

40 **Keywords:** Reference water flow, Streamflow probabilistic modeling, Hydrology, 10.

41

42

43

44 1. INTRODUCTION

45 Water is an extremely important element human activity. The water availability has
46 been reducing over the years due to the increase in population density, expansion of
47 irrigated agriculture, and degradation of the water quality (Pruski, Nunes, Pruski, &
48 Rodriguez, 2013). In addition, larger regional-scale trends in floods (Mediero et al.,
49 2015) and water availability (Koutroulis et al., 2019) often result from changes in
50 climatic variables. Governments and international agencies highlight water as the most
51 important natural resource (Silva, Oliveira, Mello, & Pierangeli, 2006) and point out the
52 need for its better management of the water resources. Adequate management requires,
53 fundamentally, the availability of hydrological data, from a dense hydrometric network
54 uniformly distributed in space and with consistent hydrological data (Beskow et al.,
55 2014). Currently, these requirements are not met in Brazil (Baena, Silva, Pruski, &
56 Calijuri, 2004; Piol, Reis, Caiado, & Mendonça, 2019; Pruski, Rodriguez, & Nunes,
57 2015). Therefore, some statistical/hydrological techniques have been developed or
58 adapted to provide estimations for hydrological data in places where measured data is
59 scarce. Such techniques are hydrological models (Andrade, Mello, & Bescow, 2013;
60 Beskow, Norton, & Mello, 2013) and hydrological regionalization (Baena et al. 2004;
61 Maciel, Vieira, Monte, & Vasques, 2019; Pruski et al., 2015; Pruski, Rodriguez, Pruski,
62 Nunes, & Rego, 2016).

63 Hydrological regionalization is an useful technique to compensate the lack of
64 hydrological data in places where this data is scarce or non-existent (Beskow et al.,
65 2014; Pruski et al., 2013). This is done to support water resources management (Piol et
66 al., 2019). The streamflow stands out among the hydrological data important for the
67 water resources management (Barros, Pessoa, Santana, Lopes, & Costa, 2018; Cecilio,
68 Zanetti, Gasparini, & Catrinck, 2018; Costa et al. 2019; Pruski et al., 2015). Although
69 streamflow data is essential for the water use grant rights process, most Brazilian states
70 still lack detailed streamflow data (Lisboa, David, Moreira, Silva, & Uliana, 2019).

71 The long-term average streamflow is an important variable used to characterize the
72 water potential to regularize the streamflow. Its determination needs a historical series
73 with a considerable number of years (at least 20 years), which is not always available
74 (Pruski et al., 2013). The minimum streamflow is used to determine the water
75 availability and its values serve as a reference to set limits for water grants. In Minas
76 Gerais (Lisboa et al., 2019), and São Paulo (Wolff, Duarte, & Mingoti, 2014) states,
77 southeastern Brazil, the minimum reference streamflow used to limit the water grant is

78 based on the average minimum streamflow for seven consecutive days with a 10-year
79 recurrence period ($Q_{7,10}$). To determine $Q_{7,10}$, beyond the availability of a long and
80 consistent historical data series, a probability density function (PDF) is also needed to
81 obtain the theoretical frequency associated with the 10-year recurrence period.
82 Therefore, it is necessary to verify different PDFs and their performances in
83 representing the minimum streamflow data set by using goodness-of-fit tests (Barros et
84 al., 2018; Finkler, Mendes, Schneider, Bortolin, & Schneider, 2015).

85 In Brazil, at a federal level, the minimum reference streamflow is the one that remains
86 in the watercourse for, at least, 95% of the time (Q_{95}) (Serrano, Ribeiro, Borges, &
87 Pruski, 2020). $Q_{7,10}$ and Q_{95} are widely used to set limits for water withdrawals. Even
88 though they represent different conditions in terms of water limitation, the $Q_{7,10}$
89 represents more extreme conditions for minimum streamflow than Q_{95} , both are
90 important tools for water resources management and planning (Ouyang, 2012; Serrano
91 et al., 2020). Other reference minimum streamflow that is important to the water
92 resources management and planning is the streamflow that remains in the watercourse
93 for 90% (Q_{90}), 80% (Q_{80}), and 50% (Q_{50}) of the time (Baena et al., 2004). Despite
94 advances in statistical and process-based hydrological models, The estimation of low
95 flows in rivers is a vexing problem (Konrad & Rumsey, 2019).

96 The maximum streamflow is of great importance in the design of hydraulic projects and
97 flood predictions (Lopes, Prado, Zolim, Paulino, & Antoniel, 2016; Mediero et al.,
98 2015). Usually, the maximum streamflow is associated with a recurrence period that
99 indicates the project's safety. The higher the project's safety the higher the recurrence
100 period. However, the higher the recurrence period the more expensive is the
101 construction (Cassalho et al., 2017). The recurrence periods usually used for hydraulic
102 projects range between 5 and 500 years depending on the project.

103 For the hydrological regionalization of streamflow, several methods are used, such as
104 the traditional method (ELETROBAS 1985), the methods of linear interpolation and
105 modified linear interpolation (ELETROBRAS 1985), the characteristics values method,
106 and the exponential curve method (Piol et al., 2019). Among these methods, the
107 traditional method stands out. It starts with the identification of hydrologically
108 homogeneous regions. Later, linear or non-linear regressions are applied using the
109 morphometric and/or climatic characteristics (predictor variables) and the targeted
110 streamflow (response variable). Linear (multiple or simple) or non-linear (power or
111 exponential) regressions using drainage area (D_a), and/or the streamflow equivalent to

112 the total rainfall (P_{eq}), or the streamflow equivalent to the rainfall volume considering
113 the abstraction of part of the rainfall that does not reach the river and does not become
114 streamflow (P_{eq750}) are the most used ones (Cassalho et al., 2017; Pruski et al., 2015).
115 The traditional method has been successfully applied and has superior performance than
116 the other methods in some watersheds located in several regions of Brazil e.g. (Cecilio
117 et al., 2018; Amorim et al., 2020; Matos, Uliana, Martins, & Rapalo, 2020).

118 The Sapucaí River watershed is part of the Grande River watershed, located in
119 southeastern Brazil, crossing São Paulo and Minas Gerais states. The Sapucaí River
120 watershed is in an important Brazilian region, with a predominance of the sectors of
121 services, industry, and agriculture. The region's GDP between 2016 and 2017
122 corresponded to near 1.2% of Brazil's GDP in the same period. The region has a
123 complex topography with an orographic influence of the Serra da Mantiqueira, which is
124 crucial for the rainfall regime, the river formation, and the hydrological regime. In
125 general, the water resources in this watershed are not intensely used (low hydrological
126 stress) (Duraes, Mello, & Bescow, 2015), however, the watershed has flood-prone
127 regions (Almeida, Abreu, Fraga, Silva, & Cecílio, 2017). The Sapucaí River
128 watershed's mouth is the Furnas dam, a hydroelectric power plant with an area of 1,440
129 km², 1,216 megawatts of power, and intersecting 34 cities in Minas Gerais, one of the
130 main power plants in Brazil.

131 Although the Sapucaí River watershed has interesting hydrological conditions regarding
132 water resources availability and flood-prone areas, few studies focused on its average,
133 minimum, and maximum streamflow, which is the motivation of this study. In light of
134 the aforementioned, this work aimed to study the streamflow in the Sapucaí River
135 watershed, with the specific goals: i) determine the long-term average streamflow, the
136 maximum annual daily streamflow and the minimum reference streamflow ($Q_{7,10}$, Q_{95} ,
137 Q_{90} , Q_{80} , Q_{50}); ii) test different probability density functions in the representation of the
138 maximum and minimum reference streamflow data using goodness-of-fit tests; and iii)
139 obtain models for regionalization of the long-term average, maximum, and minimum
140 reference streamflow.

141

142 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

143

144 **2.1 Study area**

145 The Sapucaí River watershed is located in the southeastern region of Brazil (Figure 1),
146 with a drainage area of 25,095.79 km² (Almeida et al., 2017). It covers part of the states
147 of São Paulo, where the Sapucaí River begins in Campos do Jordão, state of São Paulo.
148 It also covers part of Minas Gerais, where it ends in the Furnas dam (Almeida et al.,
149 2017; Matos, Pioltine, Mauad, & Barbosa, 2011). The Furnas dam power plant can
150 produce 1,216 Mega Watts of energy and is of great importance for the Brazilian energy
151 scenario (Durães & Mello 2016). The watershed includes more than 75 municipalities
152 and a population of 1,615,128 inhabitants (IBGE 2019). The region's economy is
153 concentrated in the provision of services, industries and agriculture, the latter activity
154 being extremely relevant to the socioeconomic dynamics of the region. The production
155 of coffee, dairy farming, metallurgy-aluminum, mining, agribusiness, electronics,
156 helicopters, auto parts, beverages, textiles, and tourism stands out (IBGE 2010; 2017).
157 The predominant soils are the Inceptisols (≈56%), Oxisols (≈32%), Entisols (≈11%) and
158 Ultisols (≈1%). The land cover/land use include mostly pastures, area of native
159 vegetation, mostly Atlantic Forest, agriculture, planted forests (especially Eucalyptus
160 spp forests) and urban area (Durães & Mello 2016).
161 The region's climate is classified, according to Köppen, as subtropical with dry winter
162 and hot summer (Cwa) and subtropical of altitude with dry winter and temperate
163 summer (Cwb) (Alvares, Stape, Sentelhas, Gonçalves, & Sparovek, 2013; Martins,
164 Gonzaga, Santos, & Reboita, 2018). The region has great orographic influence due to
165 Serra da Mantiqueira, with elevations ranging from 774 to 2795 m, average slope of
166 16% (wavy relief) with the slope in some areas ranging from 0% (flat relief) to 218%
167 (strongly mountainous relief) (Almeida et al., 2017). Annual total rainfall varies
168 between 1,500 and 1,700 mm, and the average annual air temperatures between 15 and
169 19 °C.

170

171 **2.2 Data acquiring, selection and pre-treatment**

172 Fourteen streamflow gauges and five rain gauges (Figure 1 and Table 1) were selected
173 from the National Water and Basic Sanitation Agency (ANA), available on the
174 hydrological data platform HidroWeb (Hydrological Information System -
175 <http://www.snirh.gov.br/hidroweb/>), and the National Institute of Meteorology
176 (<https://portal.inmet.gov.br/>), respectively. The gauges were within the Sapucaí River
177 watershed and had consistent daily data. The base period, from 1989 to 2014, met at
178 least 20-year-data minimum criteria (Pruski et al., 2016, 2015).

179 [Insert Table 1]

180 [Insert Figure 1]

181 Afterward, series of maximum annual daily streamflow (Q_{\max}), average annual
182 streamflow (Q_{avg}), average monthly streamflow (Q_{Jan} , Q_{Feb} , ..., Q_{Dec}), and minimum
183 streamflow averaged from seven consecutive days (Q_7) were constructed for each
184 stream gauge station. Minimum streamflow of 95% (Q_{95}), 90% (Q_{90}), 80% (Q_{80}), and
185 50% (Q_{50}), from the permanence curve, were also established. The permanence curve is
186 a hydrological function that relates flow rate and the percentage of time that this flow is
187 equal or exceeded during the entire historical period considered for its construction. The
188 gauge selection and the annual series were aided by the Computational System for
189 Hydrological Analysis (SisCAH 1.0), developed by the Research Group on Water
190 Resources at the Federal University of Viçosa (Sousa, Pruski, Bof, Cecon, & Sousa,
191 2009).

192 The rainfall data analysis consisted in obtaining the watershed's average annual rainfall
193 (P , mm) in a way that P represented the rainfall in the entire watershed. Later the
194 streamflow equivalent to the total rainfall (P_{eq}) was calculated (Pruski et al., 2013, 2015,
195 2016). It was also calculated the streamflow equivalent to the rainfall volume
196 considering the abstraction of part of the rainfall (750 mm) that does not reach the river
197 and does not become streamflow ($P_{\text{eq}750}$) (Pruski et al., 2016). These variables are
198 commonly used as independent variables in regionalization studies and are obtained by
199 applying the equations 1 and 2:

$$200 \quad P_{\text{eq}} = \frac{P \cdot \text{Da}}{k} \quad (1)$$

$$201 \quad P_{\text{eq}750} = \frac{(P-750) \cdot \text{Da}}{k} \quad (2)$$

202 In which: P_{eq} is the equivalent streamflow for the average annual rainfall ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$); $P_{\text{eq}750}$
203 is the equivalent streamflow for the average annual rainfall considering the abstraction
204 of 750 mm of the rainfall ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$); P is the watershed's average annual rainfall (mm); Da
205 is the drainage area upstream of the cross-section of interest (km^2); and k is a
206 conversion factor equal to 31,536.

207

208 **2.3 Statistical Analyses**

209 Statistics of position and dispersion were calculated for the series of Q_{\max} , Q_{avg} , Q_7 , and
 210 average monthly streamflow (Q_{Jan} , Q_{Feb} , ... Q_{Dec}). The box-plot analysis was used to
 211 check extreme values, quartiles, Q_{\max} and Q_7 patterns in different gauges, as well as their
 212 mean, standard deviations, kurtosis coefficients, and asymmetry coefficient. The
 213 average streamflow was analyzed based on mean, standard deviation, kurtosis
 214 coefficient (k) and asymmetry (g), which was calculated according to equations 3 and 4,
 215 respectively (Naghetini & Pinto 2007):

$$k = \frac{N^2}{(N-1) \cdot (N-2) \cdot (N-3)} \cdot \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^4}{s^4}$$

216

217 (3)

$$g = \frac{N}{(N-1) \cdot (N-2)} \cdot \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^3}{s^3}$$

218

219 (4)

220 In which: x_i are the observed streamflow, \bar{x} is the streamflow's mean, s is the
 221 standard deviation, and N is the number of observations.

222 Probability density functions (PDFs) were applied to the series of Q_{\max} and Q_7 to
 223 associate the streamflow with a frequency of occurrence represented by the recurrence
 224 period (RT). The PDFs were applied according to Naghetini e Pinto (2007) and are
 225 shown in Table 2. The recurrence periods of 5 ($Q_{\max5}$), 10 ($Q_{\max10}$), 20 ($Q_{\max20}$), 50
 226 ($Q_{\max50}$), and 100 ($Q_{\max100}$) years associated with the maximum annual streamflow. The
 227 10-year recurrence period ($Q_{7,10}$) associated with the minimum streamflow of time
 228 permanence in the watercourse.

229 Goodness-of-fit tests were used to verify the adherence of the PDFs to the streamflow
 230 data. The null hypothesis (H_0) states that the probabilistic pattern of the random variable
 231 can be modeled by the tested probability function. The alternative (H_1) states that the
 232 probabilistic pattern of the random variable cannot be modeled by the probability
 233 distribution function tested.

234 [Insert Table 2]

235 To test the mentioned hypotheses the following adherence tests were used:
 236 Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS), chi-square (χ^2), Anderson-Darling (AD), Cramer-Von
 237 Mises (CVM), Filliben (Fi) and Shapiro-Wilk (SW). The goal of using several adherence

238 tests was to verify the rigor of these tests and the PDFs versatility in representing the
239 maximum and minimum streamflow data, in several adhesion tests (regardless of the
240 test and its rigor). The reason for it is because each goodness-of-fit test has its
241 particularities.

242 Table 3 shows each test statistics to be compared with the critical standard value
243 associated with a significance level. In this study, the significance level adopted was 5%
244 according to several hydrological studies (Abreu et al., 2018; Beskow et al., 2015;
245 Granemann, Hofherr, & Merz, 2018; Costa et al., 2019). The probabilistic modeling of
246 maximum and minimum streamflow was performed using the “EnvStats” package
247 (Millard, 2013) from the R software (R Team Core, 2018).

248 [Insert Table 3]

249 The analysis of aggroupment (cluster) and the analysis of the reference streamflow
250 normalized according to the drainage area were the statistical procedures used to verify
251 homogeneous regions in terms of streamflow. Cluster analysis was used to group
252 hydrologically homogeneous regions in terms of streamflow in several studies
253 (Hannaford, Buys, Stahl, & Tallaksen, 2013; Elesbon et al., 2015; Mediero et al., 2015).
254 Ward's hierarchical method was one of the most used methods (Mediero et al., 2015).
255 The number of established groups was determined by a model based on the
256 parameterized finite Gaussian mixture, in which the models are estimated by the
257 algorithm of maximum optimization expectation (iterative method to find parameter
258 estimates with maximum likelihood) that base the clustering in a hierarchical model.
259 The ideal model is then selected according to the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).
260 The model with the lowest BIC is the one with the best adjustment. The cluster analysis
261 was performed with the R software through the “mcluster” package (Scrucca, Fop,
262 Murphy, & Raftery, 2016). The main reference streamflow used in the cluster analysis
263 of this study were Q_{avg} , Q_{max} , Q_7 , Q_{90} , and Q_{95} .

264 The analysis of each gauge normalized streamflow was also used as a parameter to
265 verify the hydrologically homogeneous regions. To this end, the reference streamflow
266 was plotted as a function of the drainage area. A similar pattern is expected in the same
267 homogeneous region between streamflow and drainage area (same angular coefficient)
268 (ELETROBRAS 1985).

269 The traditional method is widely used for streamflow regionalization (Pruski et al.,
270 2015, 2016). It consists of relating the streamflow (Q) with the watershed's
271 characteristics, such as the gauge's drainage area (Da), drainage density (Dd), slope (S),

272 river length (C), and/or climatic characteristics, such as rainfall (P), streamflow
 273 equivalent to the total rainfall (P_{eq}) or the streamflow equivalent to the rainfall volume
 274 considering the abstraction of part of the rainfall that does not reach the river and does
 275 not become streamflow (Baena et al., 2004; Pruski et al., 2015):

$$276 \quad Q = f(Da, P_{eq}, P_{eq750}) \quad (5)$$

277 Since the variables Da, P_{eq}, and P_{eq750} are easily obtained and have good performance as
 278 a predictive variable (ordinate axis) of streamflow (abscissa axis) (Cecilio et al., 2018),
 279 they were used for the regression analysis. The regression models tested were first-order
 280 linear regression and nonlinear power regression. The quality of the adjustment of the
 281 regressions established for the streamflow regionalization was made through the
 282 determination coefficient (R²), the Willmott concordance index (d) and the root means
 283 square error (RMSE).

$$284 \quad R^2 = \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O}) \cdot (E_i - \bar{E})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^N (E_i - \bar{E})^2}} \right]^2 \quad (6)$$

$$285 \quad d = 1 - \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - E_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|E_i - \bar{O}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2} \right] \quad (7)$$

$$286 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (E_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \quad (8)$$

287 3. RESULTS

288

289 3.1 Streamflow position and dispersion statistics

290 The monthly and annual long-term average streamflow for the 26 years analyzed are
 291 shown in Table 4. Table 4 is of great importance for the development of water use
 292 projects (e.g. water supply, energy production, irrigation, navigation) because it
 293 represents the potential water availability in the watershed (Pruski et al., 2016). In
 294 general, the highest streamflow is observed along the Verde River (gauges: 61537000,
 295 61510000 and 61460000), and the Sapucaí River (61305000) in Santa Rita do Sapucaí,

296 before joining with the Sapucaí Mirim River (Figure 1). The two lowest streamflow
297 were found in the tributaries of the Sapucaí Mirim River (gauges: 61250000 and
298 61295000), in the upper region of the Sapucaí River and just after the Sapucaí Mirim
299 joins the Sapucaí River.

300 [Insert Table 4]

301 Table 4 analysis allows identifying the effects of the streamflow seasonality influenced
302 by the rainy season. Usually, the streamflow decreases from March until reaching its
303 minimum values in August then it starts to increase until the months of greatest
304 streamflow, usually January and February. The kurtosis coefficient had positive values
305 for all months, and its values were close ($3.2 \leq k \leq 5.1$). The asymmetry coefficient
306 followed the same pattern with positive values and little variation ($1.9 \leq g \leq 2.2$).
307 Therefore, the monthly series and the long-term averages (Q_{avg}) are considered
308 leptokurtic (its distribution function curve is larger than the normal distribution) and
309 with its tail longer on the right side than the left side (greater number of streamflow
310 observations in the smallest classes).

311 Figure 3 shows the box-plot analysis of the Q_{max} (Figure 3a), and the Q_7 (Figure 3b).
312 The highest Q_{max} and Q_7 were found in the Verde River (61537000 and 61510000) in the
313 Três Corações, and Careaçú region, and in the Sapucaí River (61305000) in Santa Rita
314 do Sapucaí. The lowest Q_{max} (61250000, 61295000 and 61343000), and Q_7 (61295000,
315 61343000, and 615650000) were found in gauges at the south of the watershed, in
316 tributaries of the Sapucaí River or the Verde River (Figure 1 and Table 1).

317 [Insert Figure 3]

318 Table 5 shows the kurtosis (k) and asymmetry (g) coefficients for maximum
319 streamflow, and minimum streamflow of seven consecutive days for the gauges in the
320 Sapucaí River watershed. In general, the Q_{max} distributions showed, mostly, a
321 leptokurtic pattern on the right. It means that the Q_{max} distributions are fewer and has
322 most of the observations in smaller streamflow classes. The Q_7 showed both platykurtic
323 series (more tapered than the normal distribution) on the right (concentrates greater
324 streamflow observations in smaller classes), and leptokurtic series (fewer than the
325 normal distribution) on the left (concentrates greater streamflow observations in higher
326 streamflow classes), and the right.

327 [Insert Table 5]

328

329 **3.2 Streamflow probabilistic modeling**

330 Table 6 shows each PDF percentage of adherence in each goodness-of-fit test. The
331 goodness-of-fit tests showed differences in rigor regarding the acceptance of the null
332 adherence hypothesis. However, the same pattern regarding each PDF's suitability to
333 represent the minimum and maximum streamflow in each gauge were observed. The KS
334 test was the most permissive in accepting adherence, followed by the χ^2 test. The CVM
335 and AD tests showed intermediate rigor, while the Fi and SW tests were, respectively,
336 the most rigorous ones. It is important to state that the PDF GEV couldn't be adjusted to
337 represent the minimum streamflow from the Itajubá gauge (61272000), through the
338 parameter estimation using the maximum likelihood method. Lyra et al. (2006) also
339 observed that the KS test had a lower tolerance than the χ^2 for assessing the PDF
340 adherence to the monthly rainfall. The authors argue that this is because KS compares
341 only the most frequent occurrence classes, while χ^2 compares all classes.

342 [Insert Table 6]

343 Analysing the PDF's performance in representing the Q_{\max} and Q_7 data, a small
344 difference was found between the distributions. For the maximum streamflow the
345 distributions that stood out, in performance order, were the GEV, Gamma, and Weibull
346 (99%, 86% and 83% adherence, respectively) and for Q_7 stood out the distributions
347 Normal, Weibull and GEV (98%, 95%, and 94% adherence, respectively).

348 Figure 4 shows the p-values classification obtained in the different goodness-of-fit tests
349 to represent the maximum streamflow. It is noted that the highest p-values were found
350 in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Figure 4a) which is less rigorous, while the Filliben
351 (Figure 4e) and Shapiro-Wilk tests (Figure 4f) were the most rigorous ones. The other
352 tests (χ^2 , AD e CVM) had intermediate rigor. The GEV distribution had the highest p-
353 values regardless of the goodness-of-fit tests. It confirms that this PDF had the best
354 performance in representing the streamflow data, especially maximum streamflow. The
355 Gamma and Weibull distributions also had good results in terms of adherence to the
356 Q_{\max} data. The normal distribution had the worst performance in representing the Q_{\max}
357 data.

358 [Insert Figure 4]

359 The p-values found in the PDFs representing Q_7 are shown in Figure 5. The pattern of
360 the rigor of the goodness-of-fit tests was similar to the one obtained for Q_{\max} . The
361 highest p-values were found in the KS test. (Figure 5a) and the lowest in the rFi tests
362 (Figure 5e) and SW (Figure 5f). However, regarding the probability distributions,
363 performance patterns found in the Q_{\max} goodness-of-fit tests were different. The Normal

364 distribution had the best performance in representing the minimum streamflow,
365 followed by the GEV and Weibull distribution. The Log-normal and Gumbel
366 distributions had the worst performances. Gamma PDF had an intermediate
367 performance. Comparatively, the Q7 had the coefficients k and g values closer to zero
368 than the Q_{\max} which indicates greater proximity to the normal distribution.

369 [Insert Figure 5]

370 Tables A1 and A2 show the parameters of the probability density functions (PDF) for
371 the maximum and minimum reference streamflow, respectively. For Q_{\max} , the
372 parameters of location and scale of GEV distribution were high correlation (r) with Da
373 ($r = 0.998$ and $r = 0.987$), P_{eq} ($r = 0.998$ and $r = 0.988$) and P_{eq750} ($r = 0.998$ and $r =$
374 0.987) indicates the position of the peak (class of the peak) and the magnitude of the
375 peak. The correlations between Ad, P_{eq} , P_{eq750} , Q_{95} , Q_{90} , Q_{80} and Q_{95} with the mean and
376 standard derivation parameters of normal distributions were high ($r > 0.97$). It
377 represents the degree to which the minimum reference flows are dispersed around the
378 average.

379 According to the results obtained in this study, the maximum streamflow representation
380 was made by the GEV distribution, while the minimum streamflow representation was
381 done by the normal distribution.

382

383 **3.3 Streamflow probabilistic modeling**

384 The analysis of homogeneous regions in terms of reference streamflow through cluster
385 analysis and the analysis of normalized frequencies showed that it is not necessary to
386 discriminate the Sapucaí River watershed in groups. Figure 6a shows the performance
387 of the models in predicting the number of clusters. The ideal model was the ellipsoidal,
388 equal volume, shape, and orientation (EEE), with the lowest BIC index in a single
389 group. Figure 6b shows the pattern of the maximum, average, and minimum streamflow
390 in function of the drainage area. It is notable the linearity of the streamflow in function
391 of the drainage area. Thus, regionalization through the traditional method can include all
392 gauges selected in this study.

393 Table 7 shows the linear and non-linear (power) regression models for the
394 regionalization of maximum streamflow for the recurrence periods of 5 ($Q_{\max5}$), 10
395 ($Q_{\max10}$), 20 ($Q_{\max20}$), 50 ($Q_{\max50}$) and 100 ($Q_{\max100}$) years. In general, the models were able
396 to predict the maximum streamflow with precision ($R^2 > 0.90$) and accuracy ($d > 0.97$).
397 The errors represented by the RMSE were lower than 25, 40, 56, 81, and $103 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, for

398 the recurrence periods of 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 years, respectively. The performance of
399 streamflow regionalization models was similar to that one of other studies with the same
400 goals, which proves their feasibility (Baena et al., 2004; Lopes et al., 2016; Cassalho et
401 al., 2017).

402 [Insert Table 6]

403 In general, the linear model showed advantages in the adjustment up to the recurrence
404 period of 20 years, while the recurrence periods of 50 and 100 years the power model
405 had the best performance. Another important issue is that D_a and P_{eq} had the best
406 performance as predictor variables.

407 Table 8 and Table 9 show the regionalization models for the annual and monthly
408 average streamflow, respectively. Just like the maximum streamflow, the linear and
409 non-linear models performed similarly for the average annual streamflow
410 regionalization, however, the power model had the best performance. The statistical
411 indexes were considered excellent in terms of precision ($R^2 > 0.98$) and accuracy ($d >$
412 0.99), with relatively low errors ($RMSE < 8.0 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Pruski et al., 2013, 2016; Cecilio
413 et al., 2018). For monthly average streamflow, nonlinear (power) models should be
414 preferred due to its better statistical performance in the streamflow representation.

415 The nonlinear regression models for predicting the average monthly streamflow had
416 significant coefficients by the t-test, and the “a” coefficient followed the streamflow
417 seasonality, decreasing its value between March and April until reaching its minimum
418 value in August. In September and October, its value increases again, reaching the
419 maximum value in December, January, or February. The “b” coefficient also showed
420 such a pattern indicating a potent relation of streamflow reduction during the dry period,
421 with D_a , P_{eq} , or P_{eq750} . The predictor variables with the best performance for the average
422 streamflow, as well as for the maximum streamflow, were D_a and P_{eq} .

423 [Insert Table 8]

424 [Insert Table 9]

425 Table 10 shows the linear and non-linear models for $Q_{7,10}$ regionalization and the
426 streamflow permanence curve (Q_{95} , Q_{90} , Q_{80} , and Q_{50}) in the Sapucaí River watershed. In
427 general, the linear and non-linear models were able to predict minimum streamflow
428 with excellent precision ($R^2 > 0.98$), accuracy ($d > 0.99$), and errors that were considered
429 acceptable ($RMSE < 1.4 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$). All parameters from the linear regression but the
430 parameter “a” were significant. The parameter “a” from the linear regression indicates
431 the position where the line intersects the Y-axis and, when it is statistically equal to 0,

432 the line passes through the origin, indicating linearity between the predictor variables
433 and the minimum reference streamflow.

434 [Insert Table 10]

435

436 **4. DISCUSSION**

437 Basically, the highest streamflow was found in gauges with large drainage areas (Da),
438 while in rivers with small Da the streamflow tended to be lower. This confirms the
439 relationship between streamflow and Da, which justifies the use of this variable as a
440 streamflow predictor in regionalization studies. Another important indicator is the
441 relationship between streamflow and frequently flooded areas, such as the gauges
442 61350000 and 6130500 (close to the region of Santa Rita do Sapucaí and São Sebastião
443 da Bela Vista), and the gauges 6127200 and 6128500 (located in Itajubá). The
444 streamflow in these gauges was considered of intermediate magnitudes. It indicates that
445 other factors affect the flood regime in these regions, such as the physiography and the
446 difference in slope (Almeida et al. 2017). Also, the trend analysis, carried out for the
447 gauges (61250000 and 61285000) near the city of Itajubá, did not show increasing
448 trends for maximum and average streamflow (Almeida, Silva, Cecílio, Abreu, & Fraga,
449 2019), which corroborates with the physiographic conditions as the main flood
450 propensity factor.

451 The parameters of the PDFs were correlated with the predictive variables and the
452 reference streamflows and it is interesting for the physical meaning of probability
453 distributions. One major problem faced by water engineers is the determination of the
454 most suitable form of an extreme value (maximum or minimum) probability distribution
455 of the flood, and the approximation of parameters of the distribution. However, the
456 parameter values that give the maximum likelihood function among so many other
457 possible sample series of the population are considered the most suitable ones for that
458 sample series (Langat, Kumar, & Koech, 2019).

459 The GEV distribution is characterized by a good representation of positive asymptotic
460 series, as is the maximum streamflow (Cassalho et al., 2017; Castellarin, 2007; Guse,
461 Hofherr, & Merz, 2010). For the hydrological series of maximum annual daily rainfall,
462 which also shows a positive asymptotic pattern, the PDF GEV was also efficient in
463 representing this data (Abreu et al., 2018; Beskow, Caldeira, Mello, Faria, & Guedes,
464 2015). Therefore, it is a promising PDF in hydrological studies of this nature. Also, the
465 GEV has three parameters that can be adjusted, while the other PDFs only have two

466 parameters, hence the GEV adjustment is more flexible adjustment (Lyra et al., 2006).
467 The normal distribution's worst performance can be justified by its symmetry
468 characteristic and the bell shape. The normal distribution is considered to have
469 extremely limited flexibility in terms of asymmetry which is ideal to represent random
470 variables that fluctuate symmetrically around the mean.

471 The normal distribution was tested only in a few streamflow studies, due to its
472 simplicity (it has two parameters) and, mainly, due to its characteristic of symmetry of
473 the values around the mean. This characteristic is not expected for most hydrological
474 variables, including streamflow. Finkler et al. (2015), tested the normal distribution to
475 obtain $Q_{7,10}$ and it showed only 12.5% of inadequacies in representing the data by the χ^2
476 goodness-of-fit test and 100% adherence in the KS and AD tests, in the Arroio Belo
477 River watershed in the of state of Rio Grande do Sul. However, some studies have
478 shown an inadequate or inferior performance of the normal distribution compared to
479 other PDFs (Langat et al., 2019; Modarres, 2008), which highlights the need to verify
480 the best PDF for each place. Another distributions with suitable fit in low flows are:
481 Gamma (Konrad & Rumsey, 2019), Weibull, Gumbel and GEV (Langat et al., 2019).
482 Comparatively, the power regression showed a slightly better adjustment for the
483 minimum reference streamflow prediction ($Q_{7,10}$), and it is the most used in
484 regionalization studies (Pruski et al., 2016; Cecilio et al., 2018).

485 Another important observation is that $Q_{7,10}$ always had lower values than Q_{95} the
486 minimum reference streamflow, therefore the $Q_{7,10}$ is stricter in terms of defining the
487 limit for water withdrawals. Other studies have also found the same results (Ouyang,
488 2012; Serrano et al., 2020).

489 The good performance of Da as a streamflow predictor variable (maximum, average
490 and minimum) is relevant because it is one of the most used variables in streamflow
491 regionalization (Razavi & Coulibaly, 2013) due to its close relationship with the
492 streamflow, as shown in Figure 6. However, some researches indicate that
493 regionalization equations exclusively conditioned to Da may not reflect the effect of the
494 variation in rainfall along the watershed (Pruski et al., 2013, 2015, 2016; Cecilio et al.,
495 2018). As the rainfall variability was small (between 1380 and 1522 mm; the standard
496 deviation of 63 mm) in the watershed under study, the better performance of Da as a
497 predictor variable is justified. The streamflow gauges used were in drainage areas of
498 different sizes, which may have contributed to the Da's good performance a predictor
499 variable.

500 The consequences of using D_a as a predictor variable in streamflow regionalization
501 studies would be the overestimation of the streamflow in the upper areas of the
502 watershed, where the drainage areas are smaller than the D_a used to establish
503 regionalization equations (Silva Junior, Bueno, Tucci, & Castro, 2003). To minimize
504 such effect, Pruski et al. (2015) indicate the use of a threshold value, which is the
505 maximum specific streamflow estimated in the streamflow gauges used in the
506 regionalization study.

507 For maximum streamflow, the better performance of the equations using D_a is
508 explained by the fact that the average annual rainfall has little relation to the maximum
509 annual streamflow. The Q_{\max} is the watershed's hydrological response to a small set of
510 specific rainfall events, usually the maximum rainfall of one day, or the accumulated
511 rainfall of five days (Avila, Justino, Wilson, Bromwich, & Amorim, 2016), associated
512 with the hydraulic characteristics of the watercourses and land use. For average and
513 minimum streamflow, the effect of average annual rainfall is more relevant, although in
514 this study only P_{eq} showed a similar statistical performance as the D_a .

515 Therefore, the traditional method is efficient for the regionalization of maximum,
516 average, and minimum streamflow in the Sapucaí river watershed. Despite the similar
517 performance of the first-order linear and non-linear power regression models, the
518 second can be considered having a better performance. Also, with the easily obtained
519 data such as D_a and P_{eq} , reference streamflow from the Sapucaí River watershed can be
520 reliably estimated. However, it is recommended, for the Sapucaí River watershed, the
521 use of D_a because it had better statistical performance and the low rainfall
522 representativeness in the watershed due to the scarce rainfall data.

523

524 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

525 The goodness-of-fit tests used for the frequency analysis of the reference streamflow
526 were different in terms of rigor in accepting the null hypothesis of adherence of the
527 probability density function (PDF) to the data set. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and χ^2
528 tests were the most permissive in accepting the null hypothesis and the most rigorous
529 ones were the Filliben and Shapiro-Wilk tests. The probability density function with the
530 best performance in representing maximum annual streamflow was generalized of
531 extreme values (GEV), while for the representation of minimum streamflow was the
532 normal distribution.

533 The streamflow regionalization models, linear and non-linear, with the drainage area
534 (Da) or with the streamflow equivalent to the rainfall volume (considering or not the
535 abstractions) as predictive variables, were efficient in estimating the reference
536 streamflow. Despite the similar performance, the nonlinear power regressions were
537 superior to the linear regression model, as well as the drainage area, and the streamflow
538 equivalent to the rainfall volume (without abstractions) should be preferred in
539 regionalization due to modest statistical superiority.

540 .

541 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

542 The data that support the findings of this study are available in National Water Agency
543 (ANA) - HidroWeb – Hydrological Information System platform at
544 http://www.snirh.gov.br/hidroweb/publico/medicoes_historicas_abas.jsf. and National
545 Institute of Meteorology (INMET) at
546 <https://portal.inmet.gov.br/?r=estacoes/estacoesAutomaticas>.

547

548 Some or all data, models, or code generated or used during the study are available in a
549 repository online in accordance with funder data retention policies.

550 The daily streamflow records were obtained from the hydrometeorological database of
551 the National Water Agency (ANA), through the HidroWeb – Hydrological Information
552 System platform:

553 http://www.snirh.gov.br/hidroweb/publico/medicoes_historicas_abas.jsf.

554 The daily rainfall records were obtained from the hydrometeorological database of the
555 National Institute of Meteorology (INMET), through the platform:

556 <https://portal.inmet.gov.br/?r=estacoes/estacoesAutomaticas>

557 Some or all data, models, or code generated or used during the study are available from
558 the corresponding author by request.

559 The models and R codes, for example, can be made available.

560

561 **REFERENCES**

562

563 Abreu, M. C., Cecílio, R. A., Pruski, F. F., dos Santos, G. R., Almeida, L. T., & Zanetti,
564 S. S. (2018). Critérios para escolha de distribuições de probabilidades em estudos de
565 eventos extremos de precipitação. *Revista Brasileira de Meteorologia*, 33(4), 601–613.
566 <https://doi.org/10.1590/0102-7786334004>

567 Almeida, L. T., Silva, F. B., Cecílio, R. A., Abreu, M. C., & Fraga, M. D. S. (2019).
568 Análise do comportamento da vazão e precipitação na influência de enchentes na bacia
569 hidrográfica a montante da cidade de Itajubá. *Revista Augustus*, 24, 124–145.

570 Almeida, L. T., Abreu, M. C., Fraga, M. D. S., Silva, D. D., & Cecílio, R. A. (2017).
571 Aspectos morfométricos relacionados ao estudo de enchentes na Bacia do Rio Sapucaí
572 Minas Gerais. *Nativa*, 5, 169–174. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5935/2318-7670.v05n03a03>

573 Alvares, C. A., Stape, J. L., Sentelhas, P. C., Gonçalves, J. L. M., & Sparovek, G.
574 (2013). Köppen's climate classification map for Brazil. *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 22,
575 711–728. <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2013/0507>

576 Amorim, J. D. S., Junqueira, R., Mantovani, V. A., Viola, M. R., Mello, C. R., & Bento,
577 N. L. (2020). Streamflow regionalization for the Mortes River Basin upstream from the
578 Funil Hydropower Plant MG. *Ambiente Agua*, 15(3), e2495.
579 <https://doi.org/10.4136/ambi-agua.2495>

580 Andrade, M. A., Mello, C. R., & Beskow, S. (2013). Simulação hidrológica em uma
581 bacia hidrográfica representativa dos Latossolos na região Alto Rio Grande MG. *Revista*
582 *Brasileira de Engenharia Agrícola e Ambiental*, 17(1), 69–76.
583 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1415-43662013000100010>

584 Avila, A., Justino, F. B., Wilson, A., Bromwich, D., & Amorim, M. (2016). Recent
585 precipitation trends flash floods and landslides in southern Brazil. *Environmental*
586 *Research Letters*, 11, 114029. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/11/11/114029>

587 Baena, L. G. N., Silva, D. D. D. A., Pruski, F. F., & Calijuri, M. L. (2004).
588 Regionalização de vazões com base em modelo digital de elevação para a bacia do rio
589 Paraíba do Sul. *Engenharia Agrícola*, 24(3), 612–624. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0100->
590 69162004000300013

591 Barros, C. G. D., Pessoa, F. C. L., Santana, L. R., Lopes, Y. K. L., & Costa, C. E. A. S.
592 (2018). Vazão mínima $Q_{7,10}$ no Amapá estimada por modelos probabilísticos.
593 *Engenharia Agrícola*, 26(3), 284–294. <https://doi.org/10.13083/reveng.v26i3.930>

594 Beskow, S., Caldeira, T. L., Mello, C. R., Faria, L. C., & Guedes, H. A. S. (2015).
595 Multiparameter probability distributions for heavy rainfall modeling in extreme
596 southern Brazil. *Journal of Hydrology: Regional Studies*, 4, 123–133.
597 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrh.2015.06.007>

598 Beskow, S., Mello, C. R., Faria, L. C., Simões, M. C., Caldeira, T. L., & Nunes, G. S.
599 (2014). Índices de sazonalidade para regionalização hidrológica de vazões de estiagem

600 no Rio Grande do Sul. *Brasileira de Engenharia Agrícola e Ambiental*, 18(7), 748–754.
601 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1415-43662014000700012>

602 Beskow, S., Norton, L. D., & Mello, C. R. (2013). Hydrological prediction in a tropical
603 watershed dominated by Oxisols using a distributed hydrological model. *Water*
604 *Resources Management*, 27, 341–363. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-012-0189-8>

605 Cassalho, F., Beskow, S., Vargas, M. M., Moura, M. M., Ávila, L. F., & Mello, C. R.
606 (2017). Hydrological regionalization of maximum stream flows using an approach
607 based on L-moments. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos Hídricos*. 22, e27.
608 <https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-0331.021720160064>

609 Castellarin, A. (2007). Probabilistic envelope curves for design flood estimation at
610 ungauged sites. *Water Resources Research*, 43, 1–12.
611 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005WR004384>

612 Cecílio, R. A., Zanetti, S. S., Gasparini, K. A., & Catrinck, C. N. (2018). Avaliação de
613 métodos para regionalização das vazões mínimas e médias na bacia do rio Itapemirim.
614 *Scientia Agraria*, 19, 122–132. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5380/rsa.v19i2.52726>

615 Costa, M. D. S., Alfenas, U. F., Beijo, L. A., Alfenas, U. F., Avelar, F. G., & Alfenas,
616 U. F. (2019). Comparação de distribuições de probabilidades na previsão de vazões
617 máximas do reservatório de Furnas. *Revista Brasileira de Agricultura Irrigada*, 13(1),
618 3190–3202. DOI: 10.7127/rbai.v13n100893

619 Duraes, M. F., & Mello, C. R. (2016). Distribuição espacial da erosão potencial e atual
620 do solo na Bacia Hidrográfica do Rio Sapucaí MG. *Engenharia Sanitária e Ambiental*.
621 21(4), 677–685. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s1413-41522016121182>

622 Duraes, M. F., Mello, C. R., & Beskow, S. (2015). Estresse hidrológico: aplicação às
623 bacias dos rios Paraopeba e Sapucaí Minas Gerais. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos*
624 *Hídricos*. 20(2), 352–359. <https://doi.org/10.21168/rbrh.v20n2.p352-359>

625 Elesbon, A. A. A., Silva, D. D., Sedyama, G. C., Guedes, H. A. S., Ribeiro, C. A. A. S.,
626 Ribeiro, C. B. M. (2015). Multivariate statistical analysis to support the minimum
627 streamflow regionalization. *Engenharia Agrícola*. 35(5), 838–851.
628 <https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v35n5p838-851/2015>

629 ELETROBRAS - (1985). Metodologia para regionalização de vazões in: Centrais
630 Hidrelétricas Brasileiras. Eletrobras Rio de Janeiro.

631 Finkler, N. R., Mendes, L. A., Schneider, H. E. M., Bortolin, T. A., & Schneider, V. E.
632 (2015). Comparação de funções de distribuição de probabilidades na determinação de

633 vazão mínima anual e sazonal. *Scientia cum Industria*. 3(2), 42–49.
634 <http://dx.doi.org/10.18226/23185279.v3iss2p42>

635 Granemann, A. R. B., Mine, M. R. M., & Kaviski, E. (2018). Frequency analysis of
636 minimum flows. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos Hídricos*. 23(e17), 1–14.
637 <https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-0331.0318170080>

638 Guse, B., Hofherr, T. H., & Merz, B. (2010). Introducing empirical and probabilistic
639 regional envelope curves into a mixed bounded distribution function. *Hydrology and*
640 *Earth System Sciences*. 14, 2465–2478. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-14-2465-2010>

641 Hannaford, J., Buys, G., Stahl, K., & Tallaksen, L. M. (2013). The influence of decadal-
642 scale Syst, variability on trends in long European streamflow records. *Hydrology and*
643 *Earth System Sciences*. 17: 2717–2733. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-17-2717-2013>

644 IBGE – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. (2010). IBGE Cidades.
645 <<https://cidades.ibge.gov.br/>>Accessed September 01 2020

646 IBGE – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. (2017). IBGE Cidades.
647 <<https://cidades.ibge.gov.br/>>Accessed September 01 2020

648 IBGE – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. (2019). Estimativas da população
649 residente para os municípios e para as unidades da federação com data de referência em
650 1º de julho de 2019: notas metodológicas. Rio de Janeiro.

651 Konrad, C., & Rumsey, C. (2019). Estimating minimum streamflow from
652 measurements at ungauged sites in regions with streamflow-gauging networks.
653 *Hydrological Process*. 33, 2057-2067. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.13452>

654 Koutroulis, A. G., Papadimitriou, L. V., Grillakis, M. G., Tsanis, I. K., Warren, R., &
655 Betts, R. A. (2019). Global water availability under high-end climate change: A
656 vulnerability-based assessment. *Global and Planetary Change*. 175, 52-63.
657 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloplacha.2019.01.013>

658 Langat, P. K., Kumar, L., & Koech, R. (2019). Identification of the most suitable
659 probability distribution models for maximum minimum and mean streamflow. *Water*.
660 11, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.3390/w11040734>

661 Lisboa, L., David, D., Moreira, M. C., Silva, A. D. J., & Uliana, E. M. (2019). Sistema
662 para análise das outorgas de captação de água e diluição de efluentes na bacia do rio
663 Piracicaba (MG). *Engenharia Sanitária e Ambiental*. 24, 929–937.
664 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1413-41522019183919>

665 Lopes, T. R., Prado, G., Zolin, C. A., Paulino, J., & Antoniel, L. S. (2016).
666 Regionalização de vazões máximas e mínimas para a bacia do rio Ivaí. *Irriga* 21, 188–
667 201. <https://doi.org/10.15809/irriga.2016v21n1p188-201>

668 Lyra, G. B., Lozada, Garcia, B. I., Piedade, S. M. S., Sedyama, G. C., & Sentelhas, P.
669 C. (2006). Regiões homogêneas e funções de distribuição de probabilidade da
670 precipitação pluvial no Estado de Táchira Venezuela. *Pesquisa Agropecuária*
671 *Brasileira*. 41(2), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-204X2006000200004>

672 Maciel, A. L., Vieira, E. M., Monte Mor, R. C., & Vasques, A. C. (2019).
673 Regionalização e espacialização de vazões de permanência: estudo aplicado na bacia
674 Rio Piracicaba-MG. *Revista Brasileira de Climatologia*. 15(24), 114–133.
675 <http://dx.doi.org/10.5380/abclima.v24i0.58420>

676 Martins, F. B., Gonzaga, G., Santos, D. F., & Reboita, M. S. (2018). Classificação
677 climática de Köppen e de Thornthwaite para Minas Gerais: cenário atual e projeções
678 futuras. *Revista Brasileira de Climatologia*. 11, 129–156.
679 <https://doi.org/10.5380/abclima.v1i0.60896>

680 Matos, A. J. S., Pioltine, A., Mauad, F. F., & Barbosa, A. A. (2011). Metodologia para a
681 caracterização do coeficiente de Manning variando na seção transversal e ao longo do
682 canal: estudo de caso bacia do Alto Sapucaí. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos Hídricos*.
683 16, 21–28. <https://doi.org/10.21168/rbrh.v16n4.p21-28>

684 Matos, T. S., Uliana, E. M., Martins, C. A. S., & Rapalo, L. M. C. (2020).
685 Regionalization of maximum minimum and mean stream flows for the Juruena River
686 basin, Brazil. *Ambiente e Água*. 15(3), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.4136/ambi-agua.2418>

687 Mediero, L., Kjeldsen, T. R., Macdonald, N., Kohnova, S., Merz, B., Vorogushyn, S.,
688 Wilson, D., Perdighão, R. A. P., Roald, L. A., Salinas, J. L., Toumazis, A. D., Lang, M.,
689 Madsen, H., & Onus, G. (2015). Identification of coherent flood regions across Europe
690 by using the longest streamflow records. *Journal of Hydrology*. 528, 341–360.
691 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2015.06.016>

692 Millard, S. P. (2013). EnvStats: An R Package for Environmental Statistics.

693 Modarres, R. (2008). Regional frequency distribution type of low flow in North of Iran
694 by L-moments. *Water Resources Management*. 22, 823–841.
695 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-007-9194-8>

696 Naghettini, M., & Pinto, E. J. A. (2007). Hidrologia Estatística. CPRM ed Belo
697 Horizonte. Available in: <[http://www.cprm.gov.br/publique/Hidrologia/Mapas-e-](http://www.cprm.gov.br/publique/Hidrologia/Mapas-e-Publicacoes/Livro-%22Hidrologia-Estatistica%22-981.html)
698 [Publicacoes/Livro-%22Hidrologia-Estatistica%22-981.html](http://www.cprm.gov.br/publique/Hidrologia/Mapas-e-Publicacoes/Livro-%22Hidrologia-Estatistica%22-981.html)>

699 Ouyang, Y. (2012). A potential approach for low flow selection in water resource
700 supply and management. *Journal of Hydrology*. 454–455(6), 56–63.
701 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2012.05.062>

702 Piol, M. V. A., Reis, J. A. T., Caiado, M. A. C., & Mendonça, A. S. F. (2019).
703 Performance evaluation of flow duration curves regionalization methods. *Revista*
704 *Brasileira de Recursos Hidricos*. 24(28), 1–13. [https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-](https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-0331.241920170202)
705 [0331.241920170202](https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-0331.241920170202)

706 Pruski, F. F., Rodriguez, R. D. G., Pruski, P. L., Nunes, A. D. E. A., & Rego, F. S.
707 (2016). Extrapolation of regionalization equations for long-term average flow.
708 *Engenharia Agrícola*. 36(5), 830–838. [https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-](https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v36n5p830-838/2016)
709 [Eng.Agric.v36n5p830-838/2016](https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v36n5p830-838/2016)

710 Pruski, F. F., Nunes, A. A., Pruski, P. L., & Rodriguez, R. G. (2013). Improved
711 regionalization of streamflow by use of the streamflow equivalent of precipitation as an
712 explanatory variable. *Journal of Hydrology*. 476(7), 52–71.
713 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2012.10.005>

714 Pruski, F. F., Rodriguez, R. D. G., & Nunes, A. A. (2015). Low-flow estimates in
715 regions of extrapolation of the regionalization equations: a new concept. *Engenharia*
716 *Agrícola*. 35(5), 808–816. [https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v35n5p808-](https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v35n5p808-816/2015)
717 [816/2015](https://doi.org/10.1590/1809-4430-Eng.Agric.v35n5p808-816/2015)

718 R Team Core (2018). R: A language and environment for statistical computing.

719 Razavi, T., & Coulibaly, P. (2013). Streamflow Prediction in Ungauged Basins: Review
720 of Regionalization Methods. *Journal of Hydrologic Engineering*. 18, 958–975.
721 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)HE.1943-5584.0000690](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)HE.1943-5584.0000690)

722 Scrucca, L., Fop, M., Murphy, T. B., & Raftery, A. E. (2016). mclust 5: Clustering
723 classification and density estimation using Gaussian finite mixture models.

724 Serrano, L. O., Ribeiro, R. B., Borges, A. C., & Pruski, F. F. (2020). Low-Flow
725 Seasonality and Effects on Water Availability throughout the River Network. *Water*
726 *Resources Management*. 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-020-02499-3>

727 Silva, A. M., Oliveira, P. M., Mello, C. R., & Pierangeli, C. (2006). Vazões mínimas e
728 de referência para outorga na região do Alto Rio Grande Minas Gerais. *Revista*
729 *Brasileira de Engenharia Agrícola e Ambiental*. 10(2), 374–380.
730 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1415-43662006000200019>

731 Silva Junior, B. B., Bueno, E. O., Tucci, C. E. M., & Castro, N. M. R. (2003).
732 Extrapolação espacial na regionalização da vazão. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos*
733 *Hídricos*. 8, 21–37. DOI: 10.21168/rbrh.v8n1.p21-37

734 Sousa, H. T., Pruski, F. F., Bof, L. H. N., Cecon, P. R., & Sousa, J. R. C. (2009).
735 Sistema Computacional para Análises Hidrológicas SISCAH 1.0 - Grupo de Pesquisas
736 em Recursos Hídricos Universidade Federal de Viçosa.

737 Wolff, W., Duarte, S., & Mingoti, R. (2014). Nova metodologia de regionalização de
738 vazões estudo de caso para o Estado de São Paulo. *Revista Brasileira de Recursos*
739 *Hídricos*. 19, 21–33. <https://doi.org/10.21168/rbrh.v19n4.p21-33>.

740 APPENDICES

741 **Attachment 1** Parameters of location, scale and threshold for the Probability density function for the maximum annual streamflow.

fdp/ parameters	Gamma		Weibull		Normal		Log-normal		Gumbell		GEV		
	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Location	Shape	Scale
Station	Q _{max} (m ³ s ⁻¹)												
61343000	7.787	4.243	3.252	36.714	33.041	10.757	3.432	0.398	27.774	10.668	28.942	10.488	0.209
61295000	2.948	10.581	1.851	35.247	31.190	17.817	3.261	0.630	23.011	13.795	22.596	13.469	-0.056
61565000	3.279	16.543	1.681	61.200	54.242	35.891	3.833	0.560	40.802	21.642	39.079	20.307	-0.141
61460000	5.199	35.771	2.416	$\frac{209.49}{2}$	185.972	80.156	5.126	0.473	$\frac{149.43}{6}$	66.616	151.723	67.340	0.062
61350000	3.367	46.321	1.832	$\frac{176.62}{2}$	155.981	91.678	4.894	0.565	$\frac{117.14}{5}$	62.305	112.518	58.679	-0.143
61250000	4.250	4.868	2.142	23.494	20.689	10.395	2.907	0.495	15.965	7.650	15.118	6.843	-0.220
61272000	7.391	15.857	3.042	$\frac{130.93}{9}$	117.195	40.907	4.695	0.397	97.618	37.419	100.797	37.796	0.160
61370000	7.027	10.868	3.641	84.297	76.372	23.471	4.263	0.446	64.140	26.242	70.257	25.319	0.466
61285000	13.187	5.472	4.579	79.183	72.160	18.567	4.240	0.289	62.609	18.664	67.072	19.748	0.445
61305000	10.125	22.020	3.985	$\frac{246.06}{4}$	222.957	63.853	5.357	0.337	$\frac{190.14}{5}$	65.675	202.339	66.474	0.347
61510000	4.771	84.132	2.139	$\frac{454.16}{3}$	401.359	197.358	5.886	0.475	$\frac{318.46}{5}$	140.832	315.332	139.454	-0.041

61537000	6.053	92.335	2.732	$\frac{627.68}{6}$	558.891	216.383	6.241	0.440	$\frac{456.40}{8}$	191.551	469.790	194.679	0.130
61390000	8.401	6.442	3.865	59.755	54.122	16.073	3.931	0.388	45.770	17.468	50.035	17.349	0.480
61320000	4.861	13.351	2.555	73.197	64.898	27.450	4.066	0.492	51.566	24.331	54.288	25.693	0.205

742 **Attachment 2** Parameters of location, scale and threshold for the Probability density function for the minimum annual streamflow.

fdp/parameters	Gamma		Weibull		Normal		Log-normal		Gumbell		GEV		
	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Shape	Scale	Location	Shape	Scale
Station	Q ₇ (m ³ s ⁻¹)												
61343000	18.130	0.121	4.738	2.400	2.196	0.511	0.759	0.239	1.947	0.455	2.003	0.484	0.228
61295000	9.991	0.089	3.194	0.993	0.889	0.292	-0.168	0.317	0.756	0.224	0.749	0.219	-0.057
61565000	9.918	0.289	3.651	3.185	2.866	0.879	1.002	0.329	2.431	0.792	2.550	0.860	0.271
61460000	16.421	0.878	4.679	15.768	14.421	3.438	2.638	0.255	12.712	3.322	13.276	3.458	0.322
61350000	14.893	0.607	4.411	9.930	9.040	2.296	2.168	0.265	7.907	2.065	8.251	2.266	0.302
61250000	31.641	0.054	5.648	1.831	1.705	0.303	0.517	0.187	1.555	0.319	1.590	0.306	0.208
61272000	26.273	0.329	6.980	9.222	8.633	1.513	2.136	0.209	7.809	1.897	not fit	not fit	not fit
61370000	13.408	0.319	3.986	4.720	4.282	1.156	1.417	0.279	3.723	1.031	3.824	1.071	0.180
61285000	10.455	0.479	3.918	5.520	5.007	1.412	1.562	0.335	4.292	1.465	4.519	1.444	0.296
61305000	11.764	1.755	4.279	22.676	20.652	5.471	2.985	0.315	17.844	5.807	18.876	5.699	0.343
61510000	16.521	1.973	4.438	35.694	32.597	7.904	3.454	0.252	28.750	7.265	29.565	7.495	0.209
61537000	27.846	1.796	5.837	53.970	50.013	9.478	3.894	0.193	45.352	8.440	46.623	9.207	0.272
61390000	11.453	0.269	3.688	3.403	3.078	0.887	1.080	0.306	2.646	0.814	2.724	0.835	0.172
61320000	13.676	0.325	4.680	4.864	4.445	1.109	1.455	0.287	3.870	1.160	4.137	1.183	0.436

743 TABLES

744 TABLE 1 Stream gauge stations and rain gauge stations selected for the study

Stream gauge stations					
Code	Station name	River	Latitude	Longitude	Da (km ²)
61343000	Bairro do Analdino	Capivari	-22.550	-45.883	247
61295000	Brasópolis	Vargem Grande	-22.467	-45.622	156
61565000	Cachoeira Poço Fundo	Machado	-21.783	-45.124	349
61460000	Conceição do Rio Verde	Verde	-21.883	-45.079	1840
61350000	Conceição dos Ouros	Sapucaí-Mirim	-22.400	-45.791	1310
61250000	Fazenda da Guarda	Sapucaí	-22.683	-45.480	109
61272000	Itajubá	Sapucaí	-22.433	-45.450	870
61370000	Ponte do Rodrigues	Itaim	-22.350	-45.854	676
61285000	São João de Itajubá	Lourenço Velho	-22.367	-45.448	560
61305000	Santa Rita do Sapucaí	Sapucaí	-22.250	-45.709	2810
61510000	Três Corações	Verde	-21.700	-45.248	4180
61537000	UHE Furnas rio Verde	Verde	-21.600	-45.489	6300
61390000	Vargem do Cervo	Cervo	-22.117	-45.918	468
61320000	São Bento do Sapucaí	Sapucaí-Mirim	-22.683	-45.735	475
Rain gauge stations					
Code (OMM)	Station name	Altitude (m)	Latitude	Longitude	
83714	Campos do Jordão	1642	-22.75	-45.6	-
83032	Lambari	878.45	-21.94	-45.31	-
83687	Lavras	918.84	-21.75	-45.00	-
83683	Machado	873.35	-21.68	-45.94	-
83736	São Lourenço	953.20	-22.10	-45.01	-

745 Da = Drainage area

746

747 **TABLE 2** The probability density functions and cumulative distribution function for the probability density frequency (PDFs)

PDF	Probability Density Function	Cumulative Distribution Function	Parameters	Observations
Gamma	$f_x(x) = \frac{\left(\frac{x}{\theta}\right)^{\eta-1} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\theta}\right)}{\theta \Gamma(\eta)}$	$F_x(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\left(\frac{x}{\theta}\right)^{\eta-1} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\theta}\right)}{\theta \Gamma(\eta)} dx$	$\Theta = \text{scale}$ $\eta = \text{shape}$	For: X, Θ and $\eta > 0$ $\Gamma(\eta) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{\eta-1} e^{-x} dx$
Weibull	$f_x(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^{\alpha-1} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^\alpha\right]$	$F_x(x) = 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^\alpha\right]$	$\alpha = \text{scale}$ $\beta = \text{shape}$	
Normal	$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\theta_2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(x-\theta_1)}{\theta_2}\right]^2\right\}$	$F_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\theta_2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(x-\theta_1)}{\theta_2}\right]^2\right\} dx$	$E[X] = \mu = \Theta_1$ $\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2 = \Theta_2$	For: $-\infty < X < \infty$ $\mu = \text{mean}$ $\sigma = \text{standart derivation}$
Log-normal	$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{x\sigma_{\ln(x)}\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\ln(x) - \mu_{\ln(x)}}{\sigma_{\ln(x)}}\right]^2\right\}$	$F_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{x\sigma_{\ln(x)}\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\ln(x) - \mu_{\ln(x)}}{\sigma_{\ln(x)}}\right]^2\right\} dx$	$E[X] = \mu = \Theta_1$ $\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2 = \Theta_2$	For: $-\infty < X < \infty$ $\mu = \text{mean}$ $\sigma = \text{standart derivation}$
Gumbel	$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \exp\left[-\frac{x-\beta}{\alpha} - \exp\left(-\frac{x-\beta}{\alpha}\right)\right]$	$F_x(x) = \exp\left[-\exp\left(-\frac{x-\beta}{\alpha}\right)\right]$	$\alpha = \text{scale}$ $\beta = \text{shape}$	For: $-\infty < X < \infty$ $-\infty < \beta < \infty$ $\alpha < \infty$

GEV $f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left[1 - k \left(\frac{x - \beta}{\alpha} \right)^{1/(k-1)} \exp \left\{ - \left[1 - k \left(\frac{x - \beta}{\alpha} \right) \right]^{1/k} \right\} \right]$

$$F_x(x) = \exp \left\{ - \left[1 - k \left(\frac{x - \beta}{\alpha} \right) \right]^{1/k} \right\}$$

α = scale
 β = shape
 k = position

748 **TABLE 3** The goodness-of-fit test and the statistic of the test.

The goodness-of-fit test	Statistics of the test
KS	$ \Delta F _{\max}$
χ^2	$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(f_{\text{obs-i}} - f_{\text{theoretical-i}})^2}{f_{\text{theoretical-i}}}$
AD	$AD^2 = -N - \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(2i-1)[\ln(P1) + \ln(P2)]}{N}$
Fi	$r_{Fi} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) \cdot (W_i - \bar{W})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^N (W_i - \bar{W})^2}}$
CVM	$CVM^2 = \frac{1}{2N} + \sum_{i=1}^N \left[p(i) - \frac{2i-1}{2N} \right]^2$
SW	$W = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (p_{(i)} X_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$

749 $|\Delta F|_{\max}$ is the value of the KS test statistic, obtained through the largest difference
750 between the cumulative, empirical and theoretical functions; $f_{\text{obs-i}}$ is the frequency
751 observed in the i-th class; $f_{\text{theoretical-i}}$ is the theoretical frequency in the i-th class; ie; P1 is
752 the probability of non-exceedance calculated by the probability distribution with the
753 data in ascending order, P2 is the probability of exceedance calculated by the
754 probability distribution with the data in descending order and N is the sample size; X_i is
755 the quantile observed in the i-th observation, \bar{X} is the average of the observed
756 quantiles, W_i is the theoretical quantile in the i-th observation, \bar{W} is the average of
757 the estimated quantiles; $p(i) = \Phi ([X(i) - \bar{X}]/s)$; Φ is the cumulative distribution of
758 the density function of X(i) is the observation at the i-th position and s is the mean
759 standard deviation of the observed values.

760

761

762

763

765 **TABLE 4** Monthly and annual long-term average streamflow ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) of each stream
 766 gauge station in the Sapucaí River basin

Estações	Q _{jan}	Q _{feb}	Q _{mar}	Q _{apr}	Q _{may}	Q _{jun}	Q _{jul}	Q _{aug}	Q _{sep}	Q _{ouc}	Q _{nov}	Q _{dec}	Q _{avg}
61343000	11.1	11.1	9.2	6.9	5.2	4.3	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.5	4.1	5.8	5.9
61295000	6.5	5.8	4.3	2.9	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.6	2.0	3.2	2.9
61565000	16.4	14.8	12.7	9.1	6.7	5.7	4.8	4.0	4.2	5.0	6.5	10.5	8.4
61460000	78.9	68.7	55.1	41.4	30.7	25. 8	22. 1	18.6	19.0	21. 3	28. 0	45.3	37.9
61350000	44.6	44.3	36.0	27.4	20.6	17. 4	15. 1	12.2	12.3	14. 9	17. 6	25.7	24.0
61250000	5.3	5.6	4.6	3.8	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.9	3.5
61272000	34.0	32.4	28.2	22.2	18.0	15. 4	13. 0	10.8	11.3	13. 5	16. 3	21.8	19.8
61370000	27.0	27.4	21.2	15.2	11.1	9.5	8.1	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.6	13.7	13.7
61285000	21.7	21.0	17.9	13.8	10.6	9.1	7.7	6.5	6.6	7.4	9.2	13.7	12.1
61305000	96.9	92.5	75.9	57.7	45.7	39. 7	33. 3	27.6	28.8	32. 7	41. 0	58.8	52.5
61510000	176. 6	153. 1	126. 0	94.1	70.0	59. 4	50. 5	42.6	43.3	48. 7	62. 8	99.8	85.6
61537000	271. 5	267. 0	207. 8	152. 7	113. 5	94. 7	79. 9	65.6	67.5	81. 7	97. 4	143.2	136. 9
61390000	20.3	19.4	15.9	10.9	7.9	6.5	5.3	4.3	4.7	6.1	7.7	11.5	10.0
61320000	17.5	16.3	13.6	11.2	8.5	7.4	6.7	5.6	5.7	7.0	7.9	11.3	9.9
Mean	59.2	55.7	44.9	33.5	25.3	21. 4	18. 2	15.0	15.5	18. 1	22. 4	33.5	30.2
Sd	77.0	73.3	57.7	42.6	31.7	26. 6	22. 4	18.6	19.1	22. 6	27. 5	41.4	38.3
Skewness	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1
Kurtosis	4.0	5.1	4.6	4.3	4.1	3.9	3.8	3.6	3.7	4.4	3.7	3.2	4.2

767 Sd = Standard derivation

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777 **TABLE 5** Kurtosis and Skewness for maximum streamflow, and minimum streamflow
778 of seven consecutive days

6130500 0	0.164	-0.292	0.526	-0.289
6151000 0	4.258	1.757	0.054	0.306
6153700 0	1.170	0.652	-0.854	0.149
6139000 0	0.346	-0.473	1.000	0.410
6132000 0	-0.487	0.292	0.025	-0.404

779
 780
 781
 782
 783
 784
 785
 786
 787
 788
 789
 790
 791

792 **TABLE 6** PDF percentage of adherence in each goodness-of-fit test

PDF	KS	X ²	AD	CVM	Fi	SW
Maximum streamflow						
Gamma	100	93	93	86	71	71
Weibull	100	93	71	79	79	79
Normal	100	79	64	64	57	57
Log-normal	100	93	71	71	50	57
Gumbel	100	93	79	79	57	64
GEV	100	93	100	100	100	100
Minimum streamflow of seven consecutive days						
Gamma	100	100	86	93	79	86
Weibull	100	93	93	93	93	93
Normal	100	100	100	100	86	100
Log-normal	100	100	71	71	64	64
Gumbel	100	79	71	71	64	64
GEV	100	92	92	100	92	92

793
 794

795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807

808 **TABLE 7** Linear and non-linear regression models for regionalization of maximum
809 srteamflow for the Sapucaí River watershed

Equation	a	b	R ²	d	RQME (m ³ s ⁻¹)
$Q_{\max 5} = a + b \cdot Da$	27.482	0.113	0.986	0.996	23.665
$Q_{\max 5} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	27.482	2.437	0.986	0.996	23.665
$Q_{\max 5} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	26.849	5.023	0.985	0.996	24.032
$Q_{\max 10} = a + b \cdot Da$	32.327	0.132	0.974	0.993	37.420
$Q_{\max 10} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	32.327	2.847	0.974	0.993	37.420
$Q_{\max 10} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	31.611	5.866	0.974	0.993	37.910
$Q_{\max 20} = a + b \cdot Da$	37.456 ^{ns}	0.149	0.959	0.989	53.867
$Q_{\max 20} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	37.456 ^{ns}	3.217	0.959	0.989	53.867
$Q_{\max 20} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	36.671 ^{ns}	6.629	0.958	0.989	54.439
$Q_{\max 50} = a + b \cdot Da$	45.228 ^{ns}	0.170	0.933	0.982	79.525
$Q_{\max 50} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	45.228 ^{ns}	3.667	0.933	0.982	79.525
$Q_{\max 50} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	44.364 ^{ns}	7.555	0.932	0.982	80.169
$Q_{\max 100} = a + b \cdot Da$	52.156 ^{ns}	0.185	0.909	0.976	101.890
$Q_{\max 100} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	52.156 ^{ns}	3.984	0.909	0.976	101.890
$Q_{\max 100} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	51.241 ^{ns}	8.207	0.908	0.975	102.572

$Q_{\max 5} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.351	0.873	0.985	0.996	24.960
$Q_{\max 5} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	5.117	0.873	0.985	0.996	24.960
$Q_{\max 5} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	9.370	0.878	0.984	0.996	25.574
$Q_{\max 10} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.420 ^{ns}	0.870	0.974	0.993	38.251
$Q_{\max 10} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	6.071	0.870	0.974	0.993	38.251
$Q_{\max 10} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	11.088	0.875	0.973	0.993	39.015
$Q_{\max 20} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.499 ^{ns}	0.864	0.959	0.989	54.241
$Q_{\max 20} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	7.083	0.864	0.959	0.989	54.241
$Q_{\max 20} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	12.881	0.870	0.957	0.989	55.116
$Q_{\max 50} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.627 ^{ns}	0.853	0.934	0.983	79.280
$Q_{\max 50} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	8.603	0.853	0.934	0.983	79.280
$Q_{\max 50} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	15.519	0.858	0.932	0.982	80.273
$Q_{\max 100} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.750 ^{ns}	0.842	0.911	0.976	101.140
$Q_{\max 100} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	9.946 ^{ns}	0.842	0.911	0.976	101.140
$Q_{\max 100} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	17.806 ^{ns}	0.847	0.909	0.976	102.209

ns = não significativo pelo teste t de Student ($H_0 : a = 0; b = 0$)

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826
827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837

838 **TABLE 8** Linear and non-linear regression models for regionalization of average
839 annual streamflow for the Sapucaí River watershed.

Equation	a	b	R ²	d	RQME (m ³ s ⁻¹)
$Q_{\text{med}} = a + b \cdot Da$	-0.434 ^{ns}	0.021	0.996	0.999	2.455
$Q_{\text{med}} = a \cdot b \cdot Peq$	-0.434 ^{ns}	0.455	0.996	0.999	2.455
$Q_{\text{med}} = a \cdot b \cdot Peq750$	-0.552 ^{ns}	0.937	0.995	0.999	2.589
$Q_{\text{med}} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.013	1.056	0.997	0.999	2.088
$Q_{\text{med}} = a \cdot P_{\text{eq}}^b$	0.336	1.056	0.997	0.999	2.088
$Q_{\text{med}} = a \cdot P_{\text{eq}750}^b$	0.697	1.063	0.997	0.999	2.157

840

841 **TABLE 9** Linear and non-linear regression models for regionalization of average monthly flows for the Sapucaí River watershed

Equation	a	b	R ²	d	RQME (m ³ s ⁻¹)	Equation	a	b	R ²	d	RQME (m ³ s ⁻¹)
Qjan = a + b·Da	-2.292 ^{ns}	0.042	0.993	0.996	6.405	Qjan = a + b·Peq	-2.292 ^{ns}	0.912	0.993	0.998	6.405
Qfeb = a + b·Da	-2.722 ^{ns}	0.040	0.988	0.997	7.752	Qfeb = a + b·Peq	-2.722 ^{ns}	0.866	0.988	0.997	7.752
Qmar = a + b·Da	-1.157 ^{ns}	0.032	0.993	0.998	4.730	Qmar = a + b·Peq	-1.157 ^{ns}	0.683	0.993	0.998	4.730
Qapr = a + b·Da	-0.480 ^{ns}	0.023	0.995	0.999	2.978	Qapr = a + b·Peq	-0.480 ^{ns}	0.505	0.995	0.999	2.978
Qmay = a + b·Da	-0.082 ^{ns}	0.017	0.996	0.999	1.928	Qmay = a + b·Peq	-0.082 ^{ns}	0.376	0.996	0.999	1.928
Qjun = a + b·Da	0.093 ^{ns}	0.015	0.997	0.999	1.366	Qjun = a + b·Peq	0.093 ^{ns}	0.316	0.997	0.999	1.366
Qjul = a + b·Da	0.200 ^{ns}	0.012	0.997	0.999	1.128	Qjul = a + b·Peq	0.200 ^{ns}	0.267	0.997	0.999	1.128
Qaug = a + b·Da	0.146 ^{ns}	0.010	0.998	0.999	0.877	Qaug = a + b·Peq	0.146 ^{ns}	0.221	0.998	0.999	0.877
Qsep = a + b·Da	0.216 ^{ns}	0.010	0.997	0.999	0.929	Qsep = a + b·Peq	0.216 ^{ns}	0.226	0.997	0.999	0.929
Qoct = a + b·Da	0.129 ^{ns}	0.012	0.994	0.998	1.732	Qoct = a + b·Peq	0.129 ^{ns}	0.267	0.994	0.998	1.732
Qnov = a + b·Da	0.369 ^{ns}	0.015	0.997	0.999	1.339	Qnov = a + b·Peq	0.369 ^{ns}	0.327	0.997	0.999	1.339

									7		
$Q_{dec} = a + b \cdot Da$	0.367 ^{ns}	0.023	0.996	0.999	2.568	$Q_{dec} = a + b \cdot Peq$	0.367 ^{ns}	0.491	$\frac{0.99}{6}$	0.999	2.568
$Q_{jan} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.021	1.081	0.995	0.999	5.445	$Q_{jan} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.584	1.081	$\frac{0.99}{5}$	0.999	5.445
$Q_{feb} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.013	1.128	0.994	0.998	5.911	$Q_{feb} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.428	1.128	$\frac{0.99}{4}$	0.998	5.911
$Q_{mar} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.016	1.083	0.996	0.999	3.835	$Q_{mar} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.433	1.083	$\frac{0.99}{6}$	0.999	3.835
$Q_{apr} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.014	1.060	0.997	0.999	2.545	$Q_{apr} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.364	0.999	$\frac{0.99}{7}$	0.999	2.545
$Q_{may} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.012	1.040	0.997	0.999	1.753	$Q_{may} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.304	1.040	$\frac{0.99}{7}$	0.999	1.753
$Q_{jun} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.012	1.024	0.998	0.999	1.305	$Q_{jun} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.279	1.024	$\frac{0.99}{8}$	0.999	1.305
$Q_{jul} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.011	1.017	0.998	0.999	1.111	$Q_{jul} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.245	1.017	$\frac{0.99}{8}$	0.999	1.111
$Q_{aug} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.009	1.012	0.998	0.999	0.872	$Q_{aug} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.208	1.012	$\frac{0.99}{8}$	0.999	0.872
$Q_{sep} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.010	1.009	0.998	0.999	0.937	$Q_{sep} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.217	1.009	$\frac{0.99}{8}$	0.999	0.937
$Q_{oct} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.009	1.040	0.995	0.999	1.640	$Q_{oct} = a \cdot Peq^b$	0.217	1.040	$\frac{0.99}{5}$	0.999	1.640

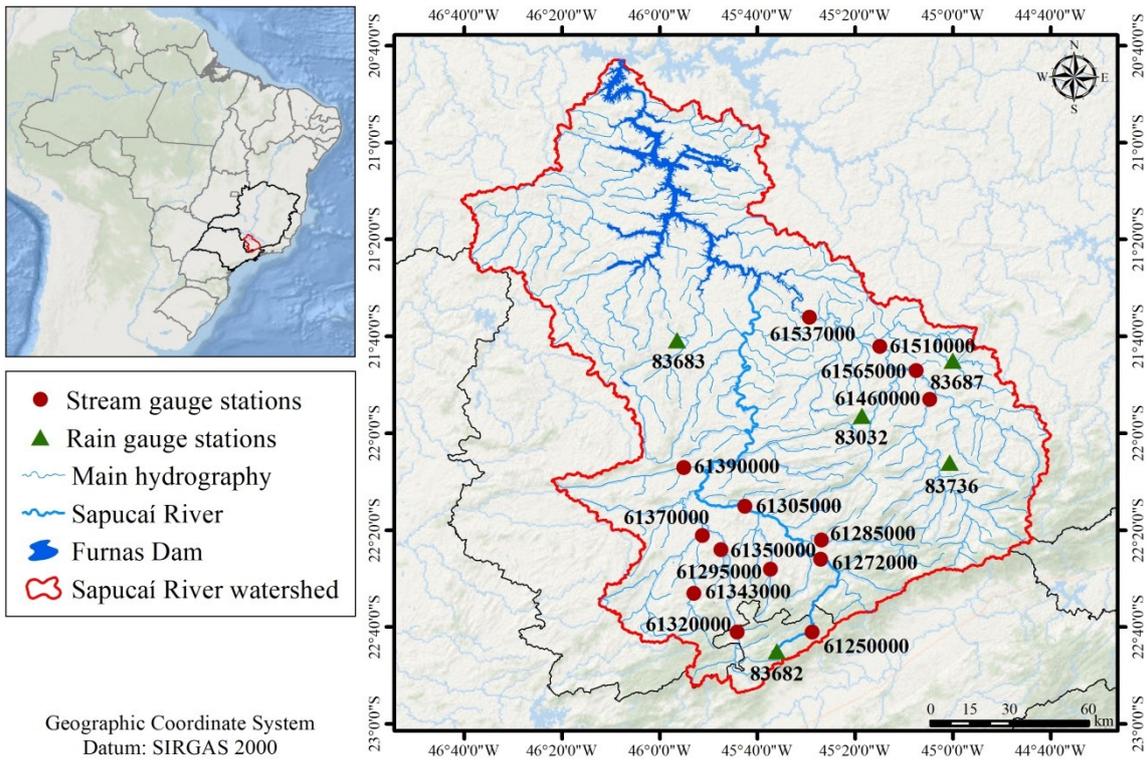
$Q_{\text{nov}} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.014	1.007	0.998	0.999	1.364	$Q_{\text{nov}} = a \cdot P_{\text{eq}}^b$	0.317	1.007	$\frac{0.99}{8}$	0.999	1.364
$Q_{\text{dec}} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.023	1.000	0.996	0.999	2.584	$Q_{\text{dec}} = a \cdot P_{\text{eq}}^b$	0.494	1.000	$\frac{0.99}{6}$	0.999	2.584

843 **TABLE 70** Linear and non-linear regression models for regionalization of minimum
844 flows for the Sapucaí River watershed

Equation	a	b	R ²	d	RQME (m ³ s ⁻¹)
$Q_{7,10} = a + b \cdot Da$	-0.307 ^{ns}	0.006	0.987	0.997	1.135
$Q_{7,10} = a + b \cdot P_{eq}$	-0.307 ^{ns}	0.124	0.987	0.997	1.135
$Q_{7,10} = a + b \cdot P_{eq750}$	-0.336 ^{ns}	0.256	0.986	0.997	1.185
$Q_{95} = a + b \cdot Da$	-0.106 ^{ns}	0.007	0.994	0.999	0.981
$Q_{95} = a + b \cdot P_{eq}$	-0.106 ^{ns}	0.158	0.994	0.999	0.981
$Q_{95} = a + b \cdot P_{eq750}$	-0.145 ^{ns}	0.326	0.993	0.998	1.052
$Q_{90} = a + b \cdot Da$	0.116 ^{ns}	0.008	0.996	0.999	0.864
$Q_{90} = a + b \cdot P_{eq}$	0.116 ^{ns}	0.179	0.996	0.999	0.864
$Q_{90} = a + b \cdot P_{eq750}$	0.072 ^{ns}	0.370	0.996	0.999	0.964
$Q_{80} = a + b \cdot Da$	0.211 ^{ns}	0.010	0.998	0.999	0.838
$Q_{80} = a + b \cdot P_{eq}$	0.211 ^{ns}	0.214	0.998	0.999	0.838
$Q_{80} = a + b \cdot P_{eq750}$	0.158 ^{ns}	0.442	0.997	0.999	0.961
$Q_{50} = a + b \cdot Da$	0.040 ^{ns}	0.015	0.998	0.999	1.226
$Q_{50} = a + b \cdot P_{eq}$	0.040 ^{ns}	0.330	0.998	0.999	1.226
$Q_{50} = a + b \cdot P_{eq750}$	-0.044 ^{ns}	0.680	0.997	0.999	1.387
$Q_{7,10} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.002	1.098	0.991	0.998	0.984
$Q_{7,10} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	0.072	1.098	0.991	0.998	0.984
$Q_{7,10} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	0.154	1.106	0.991	0.997	1.018
$Q_{95} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.005	1.050	0.996	0.999	0.891
$Q_{95} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	0.121	1.050	0.996	0.999	0.891
$Q_{95} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	0.249	1.057	0.995	0.999	0.944
$Q_{90} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.007	1.015	0.997	0.999	0.856
$Q_{90} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	0.166	1.015	0.997	0.999	0.856
$Q_{90} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	0.335	1.022	0.996	0.999	0.941
$Q_{80} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.010	1.001	0.998	0.999	0.854
$Q_{80} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	0.215	1.001	0.998	0.999	0.854
$Q_{80} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	0.428	1.008	0.997	0.999	0.964
$Q_{50} = a \cdot Da^b$	0.002	0.019	0.998	> 0.99	1.171
$Q_{50} = a \cdot P_{eq}^b$	0.297	1.020	0.998	> 0.99	1.171

$Q_{50} = a \cdot P_{eq750}^b$	0.600	1.027	0.998	0.999	1.299
--------------------------------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

1 **FIGURE LEGENDS**



2

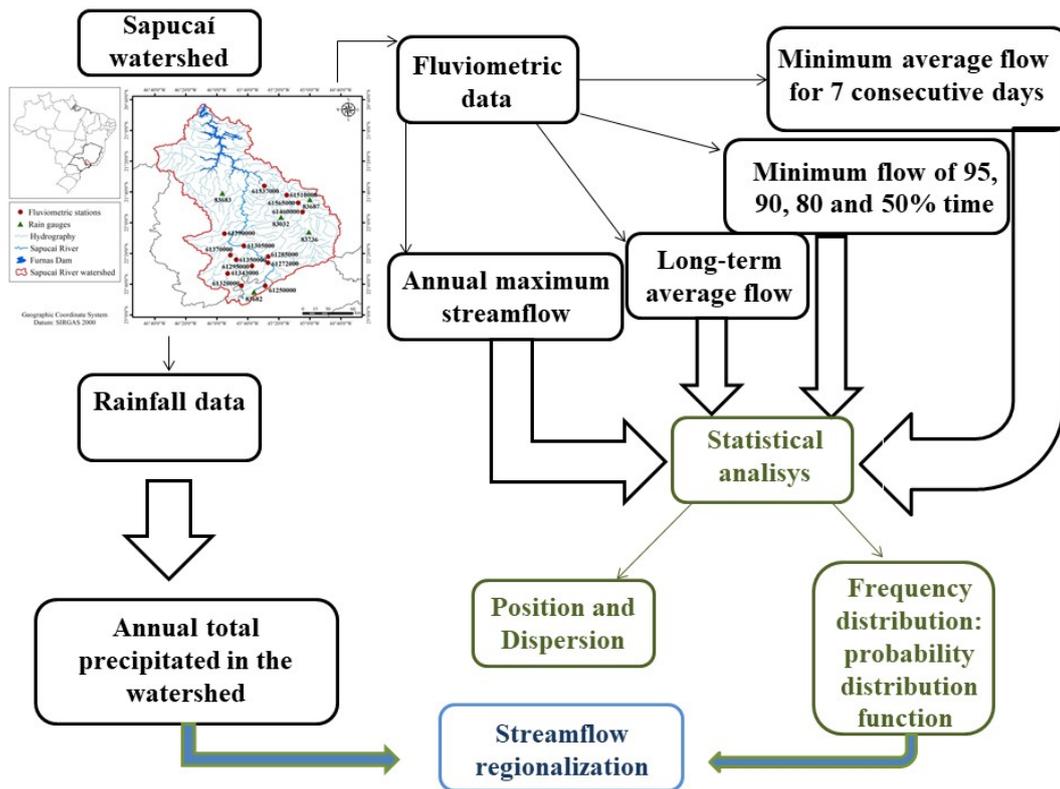
3 **FIGURE 1** Sapucaí River watershed, highlighting the stream gauge stations and rain gauge

4 stations used in the study

5

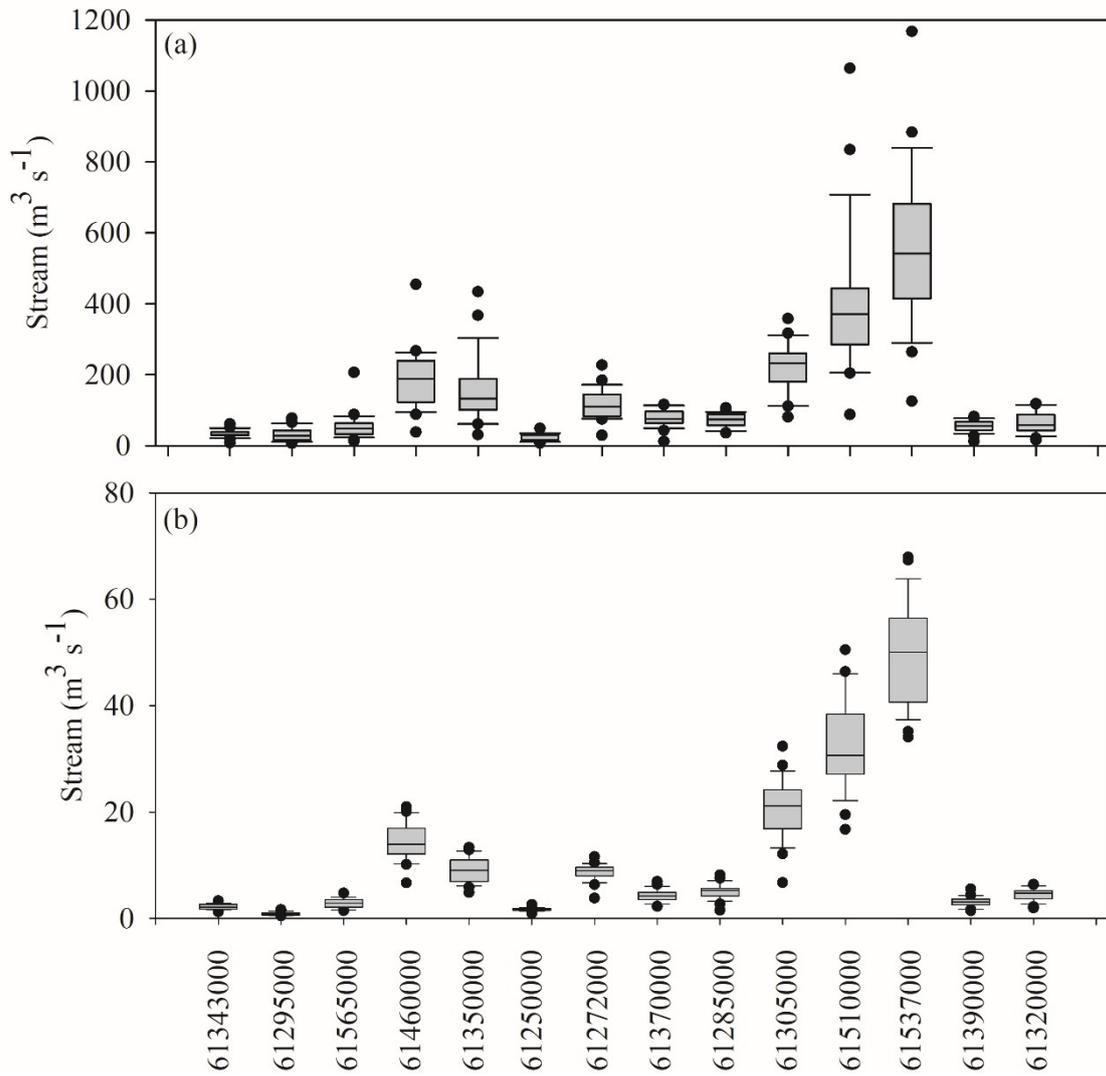
6

7



8

9 **FIGURE 2** Flowchart of the methodology used



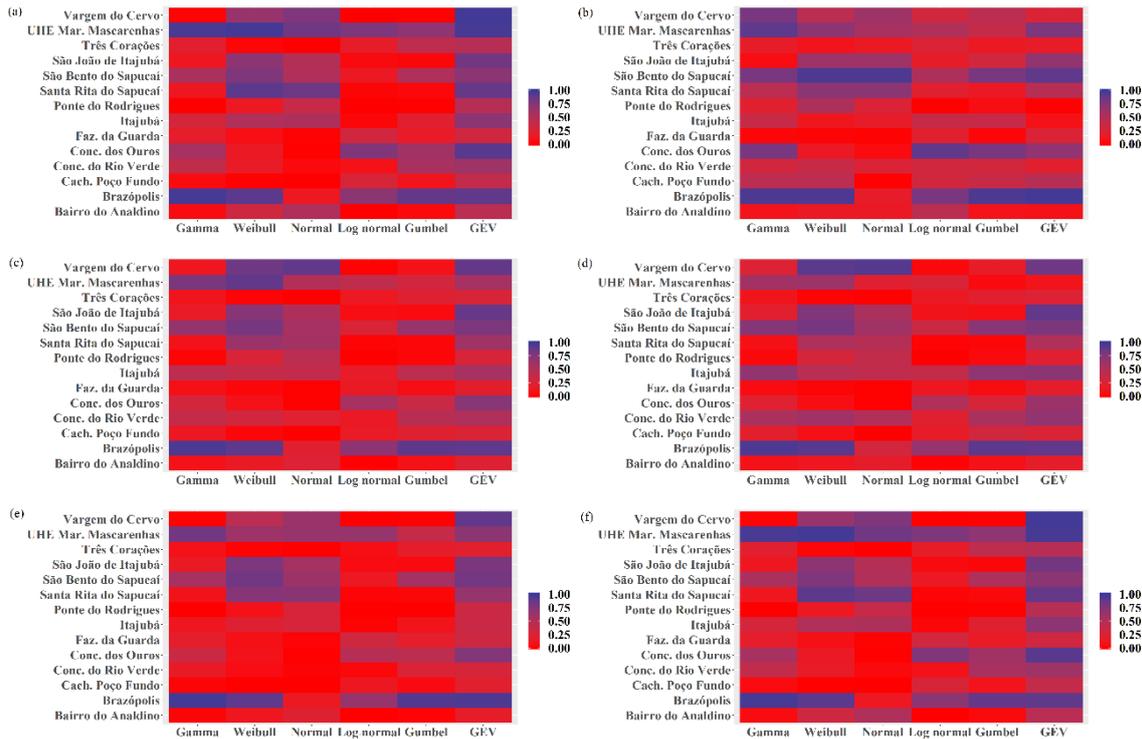
10

11 **FIGURE 3** Box-plot of the maximum streamflow (a) and minimum streamflow of seven
 12 consecutive days (b) for the stream gauge stations in the Sapucaí River basin

13

14

15



16

17 **FIGURE 4** P-values classification obtained in the different goodness-of-fit tests to represent
 18 the maximum streamflow

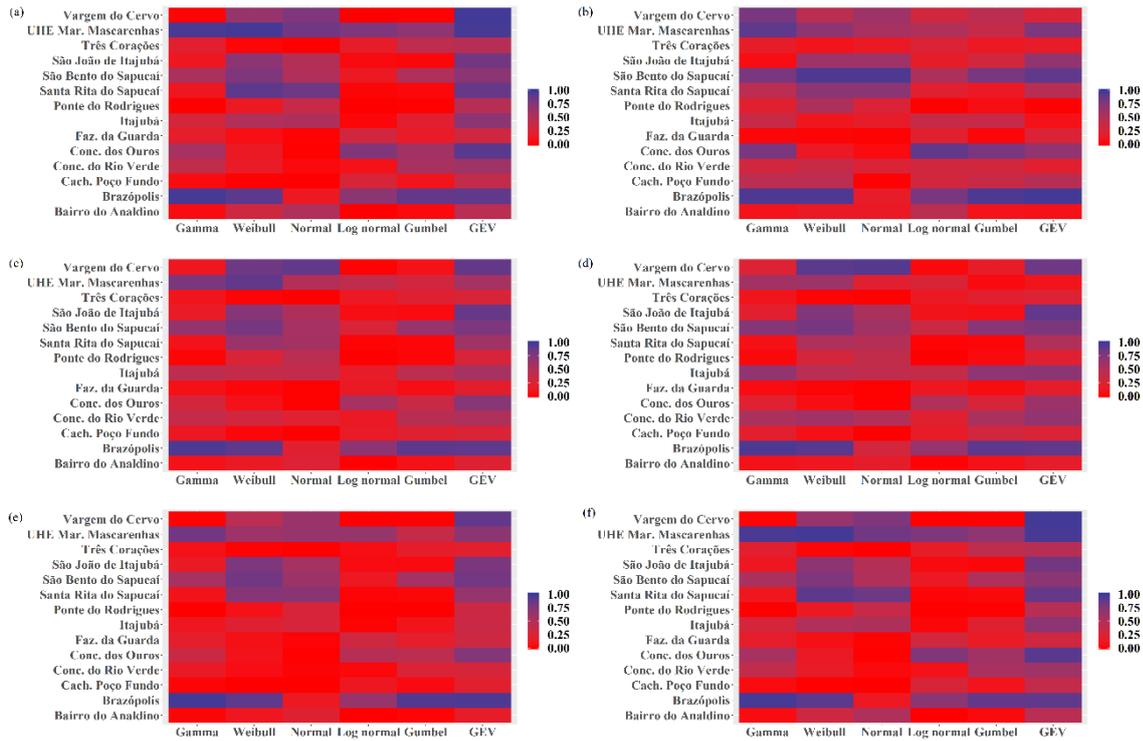
19

20

21

22

23



24

25 **FIGURE 5** P-values classification obtained in the different goodness-of-fit tests to represent
 26 the minimum streamflow

27

28

29

30

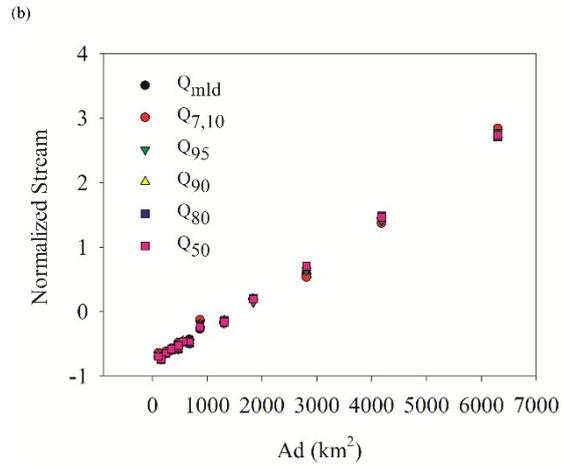
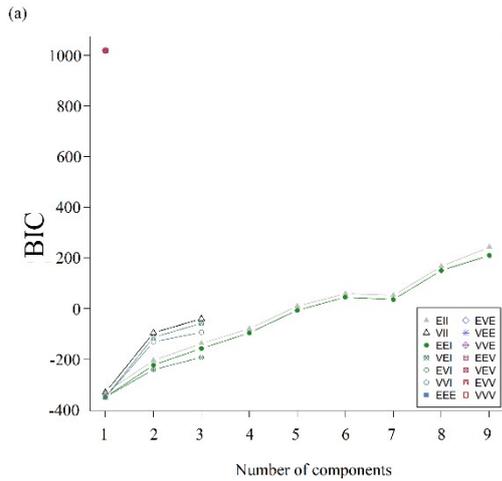
31

32

33

34

35



36

37 **FIGURE 6** Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) for choosing the agglomeration model with
 38 the optimal number of groups (a) and standard reference flows of each fluviometric station
 39 (b)

40 "EII" = spherical, equal volume ; "VII" = spherical, unequal volume; "EEI" = diagonal, equal volume and shape; "VEI" = diagonal, varying
 41 volume, equal shape; "EVI" = diagonal, equal volume, varying shape; "VVI" = diagonal, varying volume and shape; "EEE" = ellipsoidal, equal
 42 volume, shape, and orientation; "EVE" = ellipsoidal, equal volume and orientation; "VEE" = ellipsoidal, equal shape and orientation; "VVE"
 43 = ellipsoidal, equal orientation; "EEV" = ellipsoidal, equal volume and equal shape; "VEV" = ellipsoidal, equal shape; "EVV" = ellipsoidal,
 44 equal volume; "VVV" = ellipsoidal, varying volume, shape, and orientation.

45