



HIDROCOMPLEXIDADE:

NOVO PARADIGMA PARA OS RECURSOS HÍDRICOS

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TÓPICOS

- 
- 1 Definir Complexidade
 - 2 Emergência Prática da Complexidade
 - 3 Teoria em Busca de representar a Complexidade
 - 4 Necessidade de uma Síntese
 - 5 Hidrocomplexidade como Proposta de Síntese
 - 6 Teorias, Métodos e Instrumentos de Análise da Hidrocomplexidade

DEFINIR COMPLEXIDADE



O QUE É COMPLEXIDADE?

“A um primeiro olhar, a complexidade é um tecido (*complexus*: o que é tecido junto) de constituintes heterogêneos inseparavelmente associados: ela elabora o paradoxo do uno no múltiplo.

Num segundo momento, a complexidade é efetivamente o tecido acontecimentos, ações, interações, retroações, determinações, acasos, que constituem nosso mundo fenomênico.

Mas então a complexidade se apresenta com os traços inquietantes do emaranhado do inextricável, da desordem, da ambiguidade, da incerteza...



Por isso o conhecimento necessita ordenar os fenômenos rechaçando a desordem, afastando o incerto, isto é, selecionar os elementos da ordem e da certeza, precisar, clarificar, distinguir, hierarquizar...

Mas tais operações, necessárias à inteligibilidade, correm o risco de provocar a cegueira, se elas eliminarem os outros aspectos do *complexus*; e efetivamente, como eu o indiquei, elas nos deixam cegos”

Complexity of Coupled Human and Natural Systems

Jianguo Liu,^{1,2} Thomas Dietz,² Stephen R. Carpenter,³ Marina Alberti,⁴ Carl Folke,^{5,6} Emilio Moran,⁷ Alice N. Pell,⁸ Peter Deadman,⁹ Timothy Kratz,¹⁰ Jane Lubchenco,¹¹ Elinor Ostrom,¹² Zhiyun Ouyang,¹³ William Provancher,¹⁴ Charles L. Redman,¹⁵ Stephen H. Schneider,¹⁶ William W. Taylor¹

Integrated studies of coupled human and natural systems reveal new and complex patterns and processes not evident when studied by social or natural scientists separately. Synthesis of six case studies from around the world shows that couplings between human and natural systems vary across space, time, and organizational units. They also exhibit nonlinear dynamics with thresholds, reciprocal feedback loops, time lags, resilience, heterogeneity, and surprises. Furthermore, past couplings have legacy effects on present conditions and future possibilities.

Coupled human and natural systems are integrated systems in which people interact with natural components. Although many studies have examined human-nature interactions (1–5), the complexity of coupled systems has not been well understood (6, 7). The lack of progress is largely due to the traditional separation of ecological and social sciences (8). Although some scholars have studied coupled systems as complex adaptive systems (9, 10), most of the previous work has been theoretical rather than empirical.

An increasing number of interdisciplinary programs have been integrating ecological and social sciences to study coupled human and natural systems (e.g., social-ecological systems and human-environment systems). Here, we synthesize six case studies to demonstrate the approaches used and results found (Fig. 1 and table S1).

These studies are on five continents: the Kenyan Highlands in Africa (Kenya); the Wolong Nature Reserve for giant pandas in China (Wolong); Central Puget Sound of Washington (Puget Sound) and Northern Highland Lake District of Wisconsin (Wisconsin) in the United States; an area near Altamira, State of Pará, Brazil (Altamira); and Kristianstads Vattenrike of Sweden (Vattenrike) (Fig. 1). They include urban (Puget Sound), semi-urban (Vattenrike), and rural areas (Altamira, Kenya, Wisconsin, and Wolong), and they are in developed countries (Puget Sound, Wisconsin, and Vattenrike) and developing countries (Altamira, Kenya, and Wolong). These studies are in different ecological, socioeconomic, political, demographic, and cultural settings, and they encompass a variety of ecosystem services and environmental problems (table S1).

These studies share four major features. First, they explicitly address complex interactions and feedback between human and natural systems. Unlike traditional ecological research that often excluded human impacts or social research that generally ignored ecological effects, these studies consider both ecological and human components as well as their connections. Thus, they measure not only ecological variables (e.g., landscape patterns, wildlife habitat, and biodiversity) and human variables (e.g., socioeconomic processes, social networks, agents, and structures of multi-level governance) (11), but also variables that link natural and human components (e.g., fuelwood collection and use of ecosystem services). Second, each study team is interdisciplinary, engaging both ecological and social scientists around common questions. Third, these studies integrate various tools and techniques from ecological and social sciences as well as other disciplines such as remote sensing and geographic information sciences for data collection, management, analysis, modeling, and integration (11–15) (table S1). Fourth, they are simultaneously context-specific and longitudinal over periods of time

long enough to elucidate temporal dynamics. As such, these studies have offered unique interdisciplinary insights into complexities that cannot be gained from ecological or social research alone.

Reciprocal Effects and Feedback Loops

In coupled human and natural systems, people and nature interact reciprocally and form complex feedback loops. For example, local residents in Wolong use forests as fuelwood for cooking and heating. As forests near households were depleted due to fuelwood collection (16), local residents had to collect fuelwood from areas far away (17). Because these forests are bamboo forests (habitat for the endangered giant panda) and the bamboo in the forests is the staple food for the panda, fuelwood collection has led to substantial deterioration in forests and panda habitat (16). To prevent further degradation and restore panda habitat, the Chinese government began to implement three major conservation policies several years ago, which help both local residents and panda habitat. In Kenya, local residents convert forests into cropland and intensively cultivate land without supplying additional nutrients, in some cases for more than 100 years. Soil degradation with the resulting decreases in crop yields and greater food insecurity hastens conversion of remaining forests to agriculture. Similarly, in Altamira, 255,739 hectares (ha) of forests had been converted into pasture and cropland as of 2003. As soil quality declines, fertilizers must be applied, crops are shifted to those with lower nutrient requirements, or more forests are converted into cropland (there were still 136,913 ha of forested area in 2003).

Feedback between human and natural systems in the agricultural and tourism sectors of developed countries is in many ways similar to feedback in developing countries. For example, local people (76,000 in 2005) in Vattenrike benefit from ecosystem services that are the result of long-term human management of the agricultural landscape. In Wisconsin, ecosystem conditions affect tourism, which is the mainstay of the economy, but economic development and ecosystem exploitation from tourism often degrade the qualities that attract tourists.

The ecological and socioeconomic patterns and processes in urban coupled systems are different from those in rural areas. They are mediated by factors such as the urban form, built infrastructure, and location and consumption preferences of heterogeneous households and businesses. For example, in Puget Sound, a distinctive spatial heterogeneity can be observed across an urban to rural gradient in relation to diverse development patterns (18). Land-cover changes influence biophysical processes (e.g., water purification) and stream biotic integrity (15). Furthermore, changes in land cover due to development in turn affect land value and real estate markets, as evidenced by values of real estate having up to a 6.5% premium associated with forest cover (19).

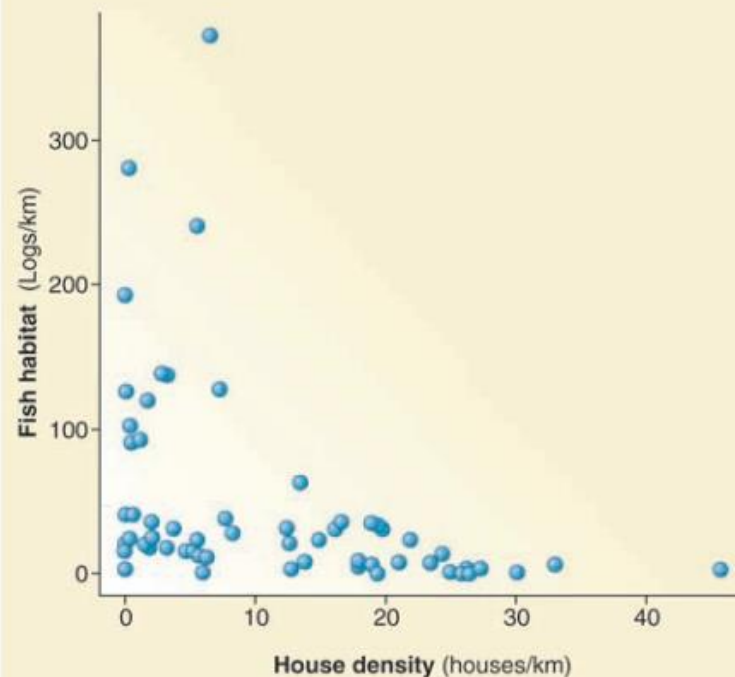


Fig. 2. The relationship between fish habitat (logs per kilometer) and house density in the Northern Highland Lake District of Wisconsin, United States. [modified from (38), with permission]

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DEFININDO COMPLEXIDADE



DEFININDO COMPLEXIDADE

Complex systems are networks made of a number of components that interact with each other, typically in a nonlinear fashion. Complex systems may arise and evolve through self-organization, such that they are neither completely regular nor completely random, permitting the development of emergent behavior at macroscopic scales.

Emergence is a nontrivial relationship between the properties of a system at microscopic and macroscopic scales. Macroscopic properties are called emergent when it is hard to explain simply from microscopic properties.

Self-organization is a dynamic process by which a system spontaneously forms nontrivial macroscopic structures and/or behaviors over time.

Hiroki Sayama
Binghamton University, SUNY

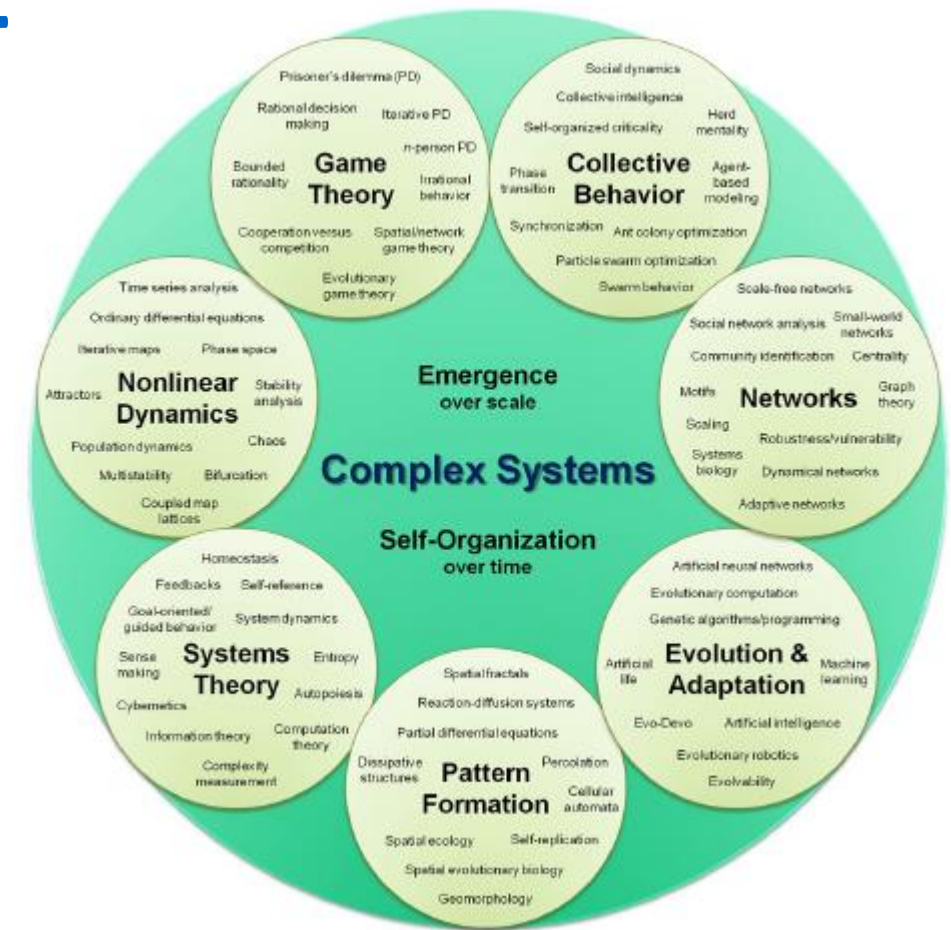


Figure 1.1: Visual, organizational map of complex systems science broken into seven topical areas. The three circles on the left (Nonlinear Dynamics, Systems Theory, and Game Theory) are the historical roots of complex systems science, while the other four circles (Pattern Formation, Evolution and Adaptation, Networks, and Collective Behavior) are the more recently studied topical areas. Created by the author and available from Wikipedia [3].

CARACTERÍSTICAS DA COMPLEXIDADE

1

SISTEMA DINÂMICO em evolução constante, formado por **GRANDE NÚMERO DE UNIDADES**

2

Cada unidade interage com um certo número de unidades, bem menor, de outras

3

SISTEMA ABERTO interagindo com o ambiente

4

Cada unidade produz resposta aos sinais que recebe, sem guardar relação de proporcionalidade **SISTEMA NÃO LINEAR**

5

APRENDIZADO: sistemas complexos adaptativos

6

ALEATORIEDADE

7

ORDEM EMERGENTE: sistema se auto-organiza

8

SISTEMA HIERÁRQUICO

9

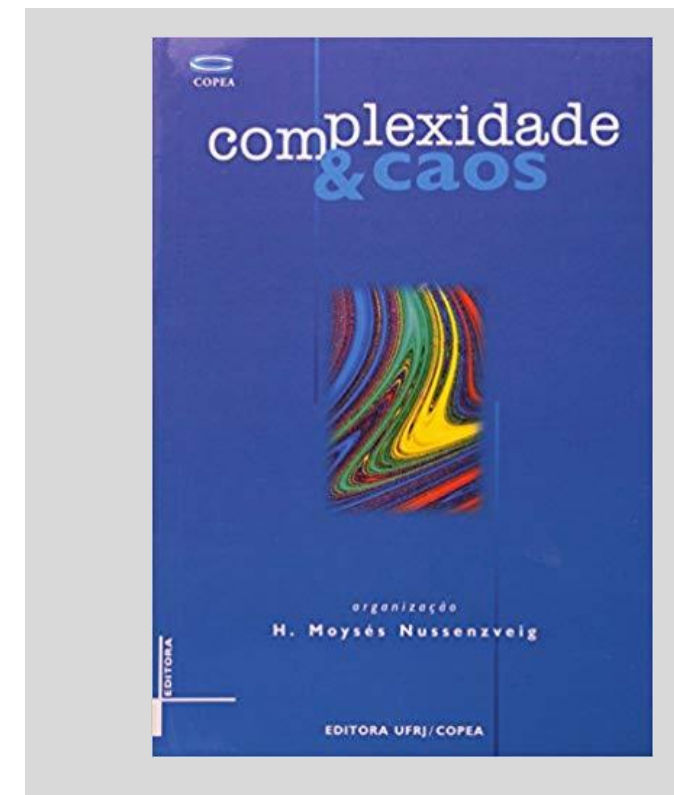
ATRADORES MÚLTIPLOS

10

QUEBRA DE ERGODICIDADE

11

PROPRIEDADES COLETIVAS EMERGENTES, qualitativamente novas

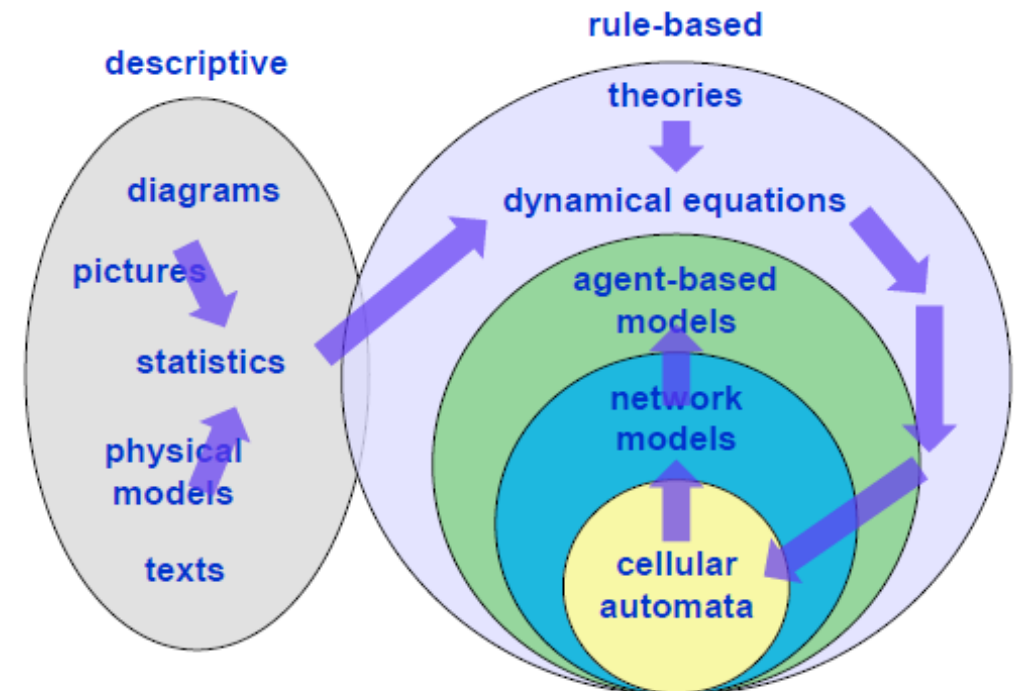


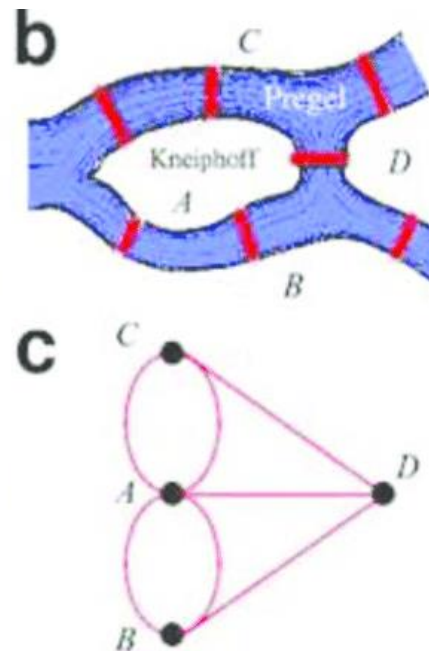
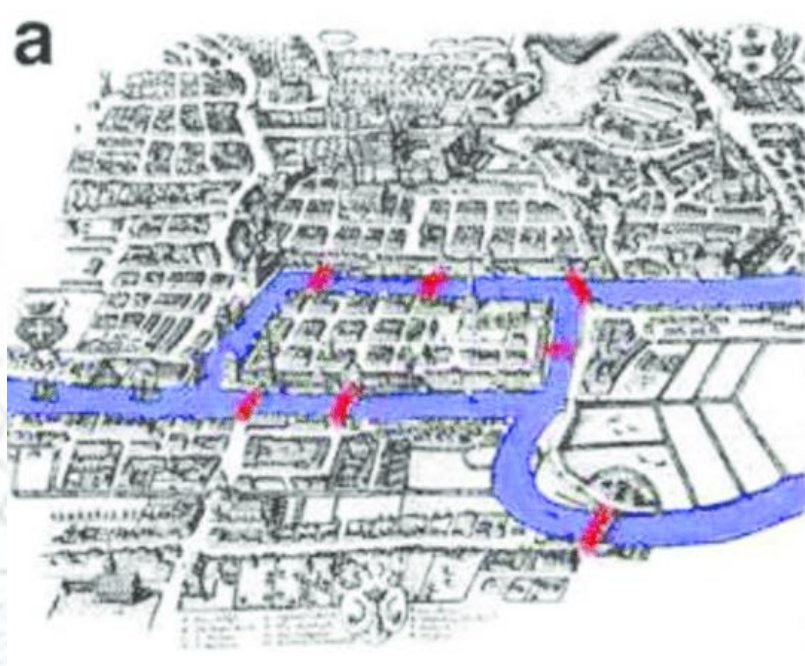
MODELAGEM DE SISTEMAS COMPLEXOS

A *model* is a simplified representation of a system. It can be conceptual, verbal, diagrammatic, physical, or formal (mathematical).

Descriptive modeling In this approach, researchers try to specify the actual state of a system at a given time point (or at multiple time points) in a descriptive manner. Taking a picture, creating a miniature (this is literally a “model” in the usual sense of the word), and writing a biography of someone, all belong to this family of modeling effort. This can also be done using quantitative methods (e.g., equations, statistics, computational algorithms), such as regression analysis and pattern recognition. They all try to capture “what the system looks like.”

Rule-based modeling In this approach, researchers try to come up with dynamical rules that can explain the observed behavior of a system. This allows researchers to make predictions of its possible (e.g., future) states. Dynamical equations, theories, and first principles, which describe how the system will change and evolve over time, all belong to this family of modeling effort. This is usually done using quantitative methods, but it can also be achieved at conceptual levels as well (e.g., Charles Darwin’s evolutionary theory). They all try to capture “how the system will behave.”





Pushing Networks to the Limit

PERSPECTIVE

Scale-Free Networks: A Decade and Beyond

Albert-László Barabási

For decades, we tacitly assumed that the components of such complex systems as the cell, the society, or the Internet are randomly wired together. In the past decade, an avalanche of research has shown that many real networks, independent of their age, function, and scope, converge to similar architectures, a universality that allowed researchers from different disciplines to embrace network theory as a common paradigm. The decade-old discovery of scale-free networks was one of those events that had helped catalyze the emergence of network science, a new research field with its distinct set of challenges and accomplishments.

Nature, society, and many technologies are sustained by numerous networks that are not only too important to fail but paradoxically for decades have also proved too complicated to understand. Simple models, like the one introduced in 1959 by mathematicians Pál Erdős and Alfréd Rényi (1), drove much of our thinking about interconnected systems. They assumed that complex systems are wired randomly together, a hypothesis that was adopted by sociology, biology, and computer science. It had considerable predictive power, explaining for example why everybody is only six handshakes from anybody else (2–5), a phenomenon observed as early as 1929 (2) but which resonated in physical sciences only after Duncan Watts and Stephen Strogatz extended its reach beyond sociology (5). Yet, the undeniable success of the random hypothesis did pose a fundamental question: Are real networks truly random? That is, could systems such as the cell or a society function seamlessly if their nodes, molecules, or people were wired randomly together? This question motivated our work as well, leading 10 years ago to the discovery of the scale-free property (6, 7).

Our first clue that real networks may show manifestly nonrandom features also came 10 years ago from a map of the World Wide Web (WWW) (8), finding that the probability that a Web page has exactly k links (in other words, degree k) follows a power law distribution

$$P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma} \quad (1)$$

a stunning departure from the Poisson distribution predicted by random network theory (1). Yet, it was not until we realized that Eq. 1 characterizes the network of actors linked by movies and scientific papers linked by citations (9) that we

suspected that the scale-free property (6) might not be unique to the WWW. The main purpose of the 1999 *Science* paper was to report this unexpected similarity between networks of quite different nature and to show that two mechanisms, growth and preferential attachment, are the underlying causes (Fig. 1).

When we concluded in 1999 that we “expect that the scale invariant state [...] is a generic

property of many complex networks” (7), it was more of a prediction than a fact, because nature could have chosen as many different architectures as there are networks. Yet, probably the most surprising discovery of modern network theory is the universality of the network topology: Many real networks, from the cell to the Internet, independent of their age, function, and scope, converge to similar architectures. It is this universality that allowed researchers from different disciplines to embrace network theory as a common paradigm.

Today, the scale-free nature of networks of key scientific interest, from protein interactions to social networks and from the network of interlinked documents that make up the WWW to the interconnected hardware behind the Internet, has been established beyond doubt. The evidence comes not only from better maps and data sets but also from the agreement between empirical data and analytical models that predict the network structure (10, 11). Yet, the early euphoria was not without negative side effects, prompting some researchers to label many systems scale-free, even when the evidence was scarce at best. However, the net result was to force us to better understand the factors that shape network structure. For ex-

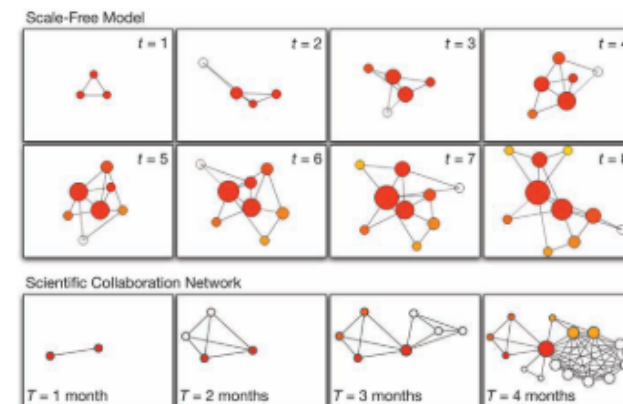


Fig. 1. The birth of a scale-free network. (Top and Middle) The simplest process that can produce a scale-free topology was introduced a decade ago in (6), and it is illustrated in the top two rows. Starting from three connected nodes (top left), in each image a new node (shown as an empty circle) is added to the network. When deciding where to link, new nodes prefer to attach to the more connected nodes, a process known as preferential attachment. Thanks to growth and preferential attachment, a rich-gets-richer process is observed, which means that the highly connected nodes acquire more links than those that are less connected, leading to the natural emergence of a few highly connected hubs. The node size, which was chosen to be proportional to the node's degree, illustrates the natural emergence of hubs as the largest nodes. The degree distribution of the resulting network follows the power law (Eq. 1) with exponent $\gamma = 3$. See also movies S1 to S3. (Bottom) Illustration of the growth process in the co-authorship network of physicists. Each node corresponds to an individual author, and two nodes are connected if they co-authored a paper together. The four images show the network's growth at 1-month time intervals, indicating how the network expands in time, leading to the emergence of a clear hub. Once again, the node size was chosen to be proportional to the node's degree. [Credit: D. Wang and G. Palla]

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EXEMPLO DE REDES COMPLEXAS

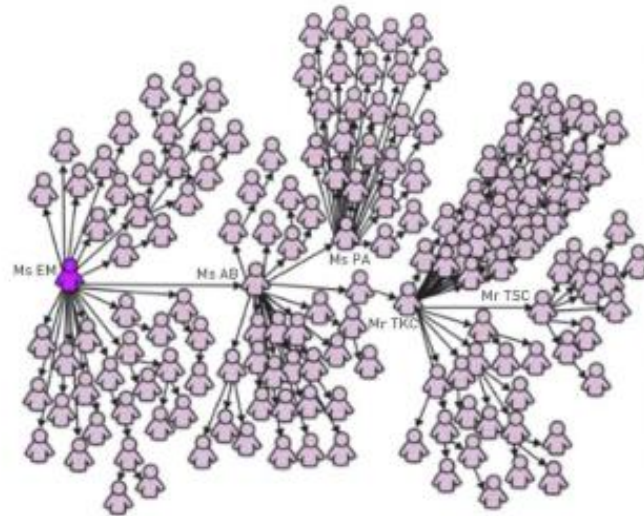
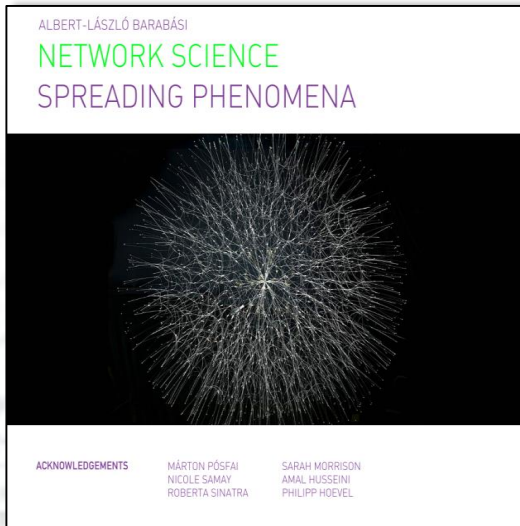


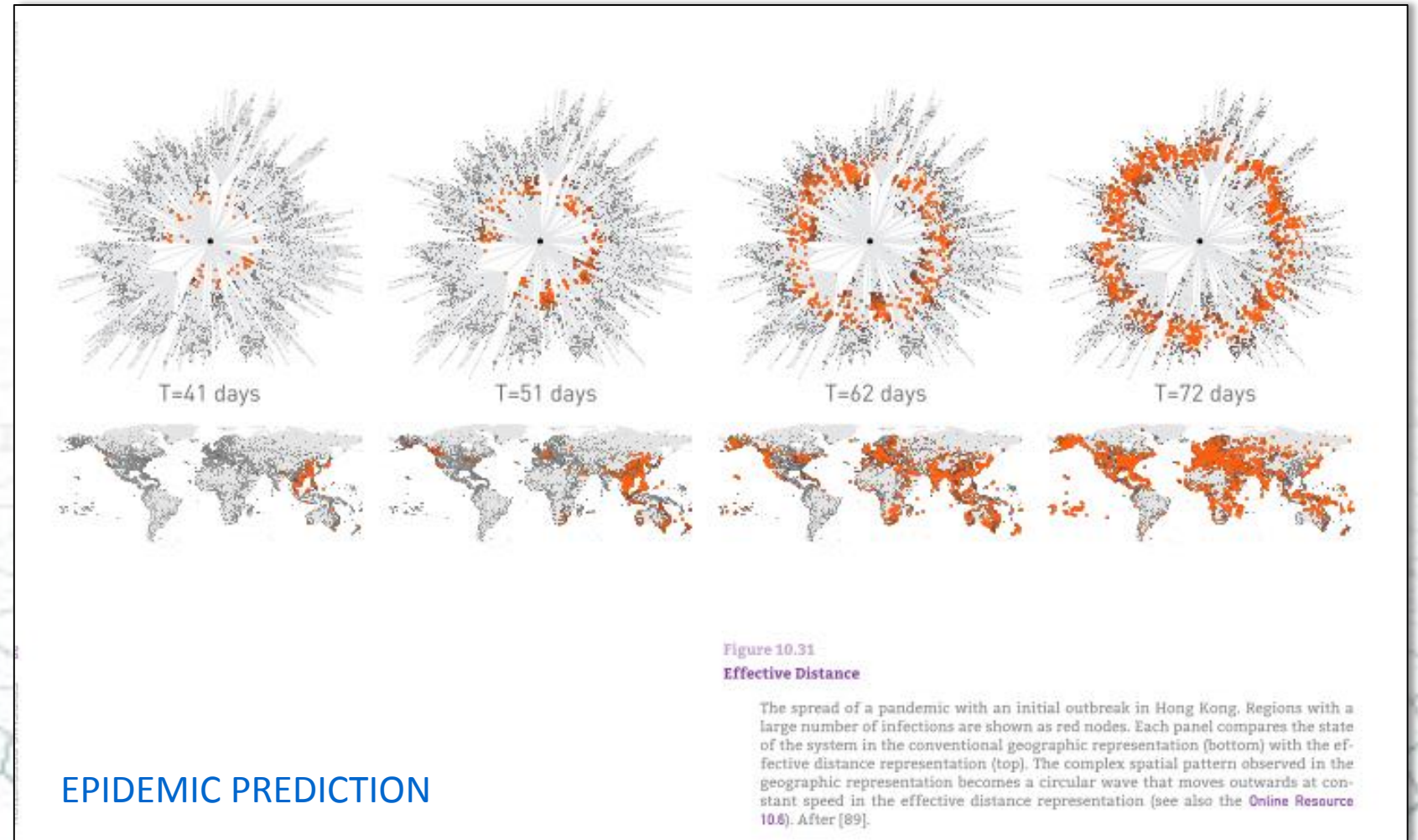
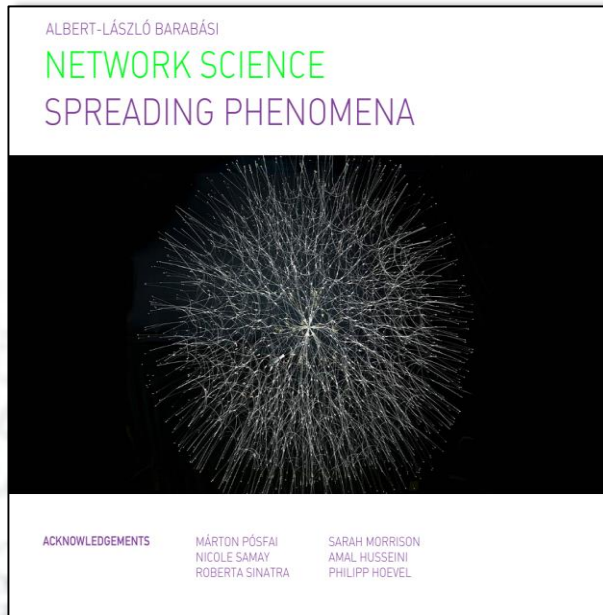
Figure 10.1
Super-spreaders

One-hundred-forty-four of the 206 SARS patients diagnosed in Singapore were traced to a chain of five individuals that included four *super-spreaders*. The most important of these was *Patient Zero*, the physician from Guangdong Province in China, who brought the disease to the Metropole Hotel. After [1].

Na noite de 21 de fevereiro de 2003, um médico da província de Guangdong, no sul da China, entrou no Metropole Hotel em Hong Kong. Ele já tratou pacientes que sofriam de uma doença que, sem um diagnóstico claro, era chamada de pneumonia atípica. No dia seguinte, depois de deixar o hotel, ele foi ao hospital local, desta vez como paciente. Ele morreu lá vários dias depois de pneumonia atípica.

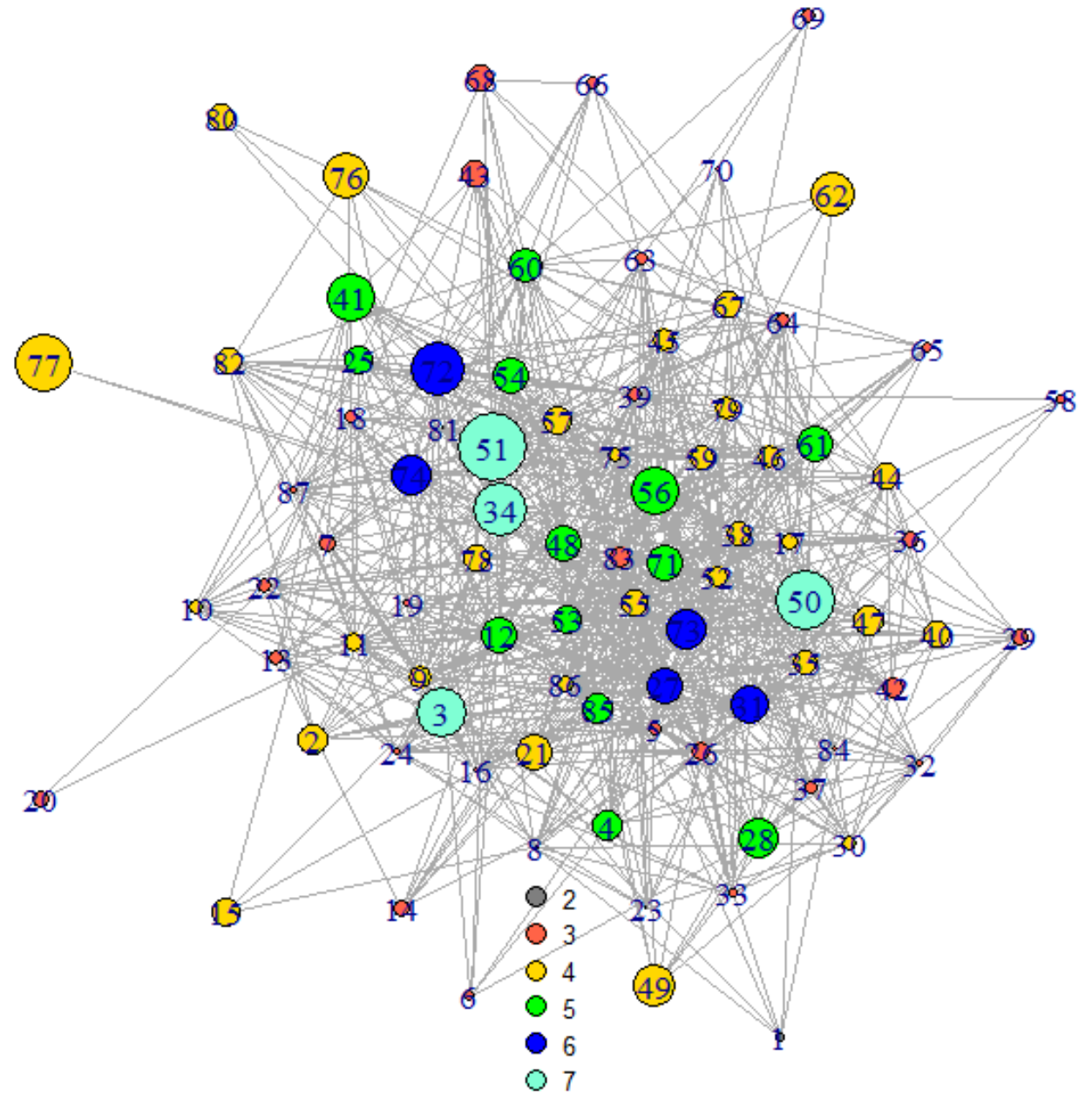
O médico não saiu do hotel sem deixar rastro: naquela noite, dezesseis outros hóspedes do Metropole Hotel e um visitante também contraíram a doença que acabou sendo renomeada para Síndrome Respiratória Aguda Grave (SARS). Esses convidados levaram o vírus da SARS para Hanói, Cingapura e Toronto, provocando surtos em cada uma dessas cidades. Epidemiologistas mais tarde localizaram perto da metade dos 8.100 casos documentados de SARS no Metropole Hotel. Com isso, o médico que trouxe o vírus para Hong Kong se tornou um exemplo de super espalhador, um indivíduo responsável por um número desproporcional de infecções durante uma epidemia.

EXEMPLO DE REDES COMPLEXAS

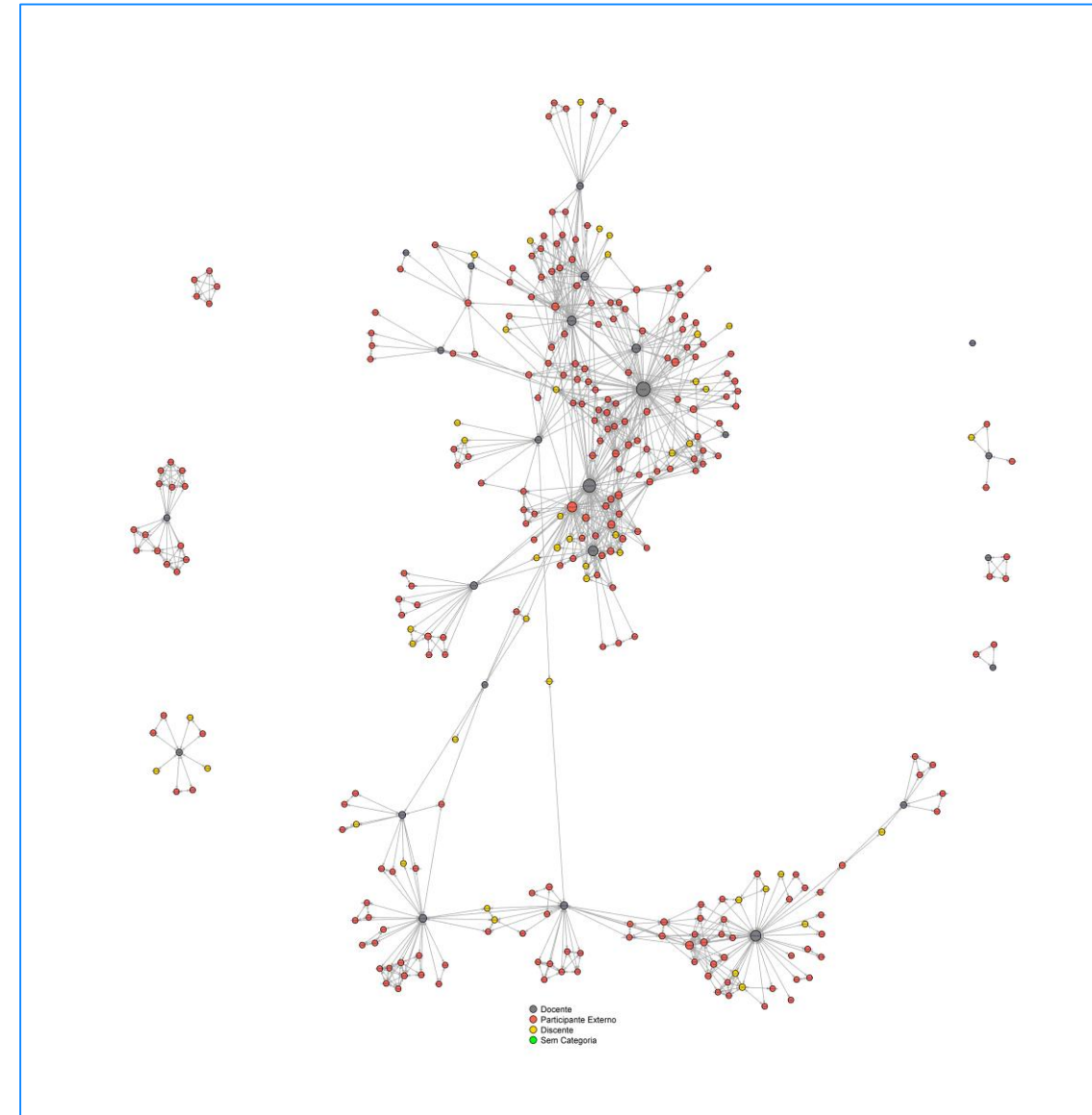
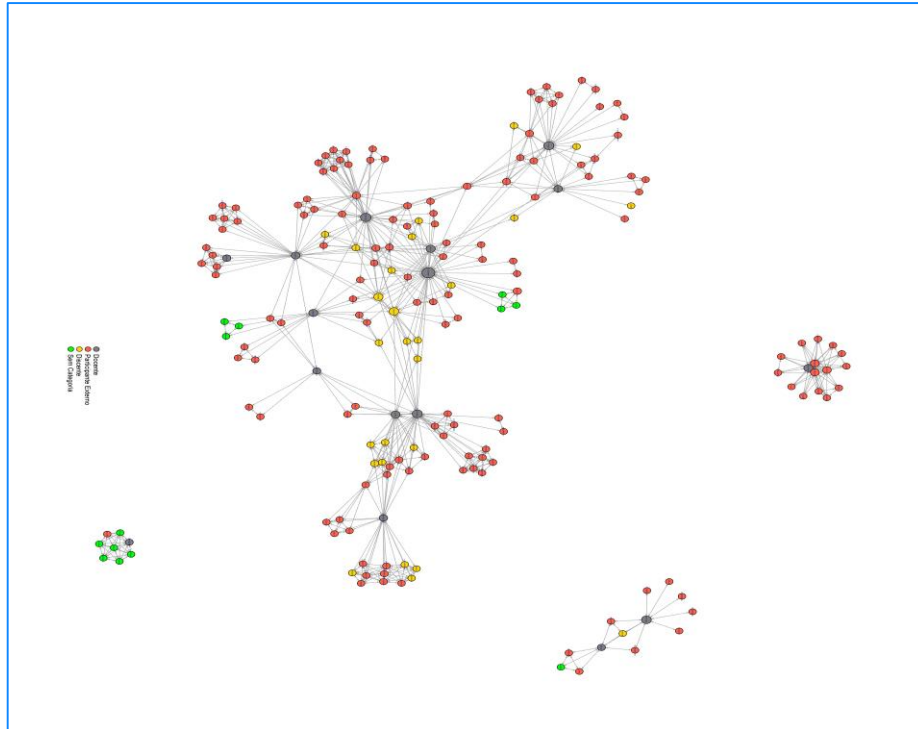


EXEMPLO DE REDES COMPLEXAS

REDE DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO DE ENGENHARIAS I –
ACADÊMICOS
ARCOS SÃO BANCAS



EXEMPLO DE REDES COMPLEXAS



Rede de colaboração entre pesquisadores em artigos em periódicos por curso de pós-graduação

EMERGÊNCIA PRÁTICA DA COMPLEXIDADE



EMERGÊNCIA PRÁTICA DA COMPLEXIDADE

Gestão do risco
climático

Gestão de
conflito em
recursos hídricos

Hidrologia em
bacias
“engenheiradas”

Águas em
ambiente urbano

Serviços ambientais
em rios e bacias
hidrográficas:
restauração fluvial

Não
estacionariedade
devido a mudança
do uso do solo e
clima

Segurança hídrica e
incerteza nas
demandas: dinâmica
economia

Gestão de secas



HUMANIDADE - NATUREZA





Evolving water science in the Anthropocene

H. H. G. Savenije¹, A. Y. Hoekstra², and P. van der Zaag^{1,3}

ANTROPOCENO: Os seres humanos formam uma força geofísica significativa (Steffen et al., 2007).

Nossa espécie está modificando fortemente o ciclo da água terrestre interceptando o fluxo do rio das terras altas para o mar e, através da mudança da cobertura da terra, alterando o fluxo de vapor de água da terra para a atmosfera.

O conhecimento da engenharia e gestão da hidrologia e dos recursos hídricos ajudou a transformar a paisagem e, portanto, também a própria hidrologia nas próprias bacias hidrográficas.

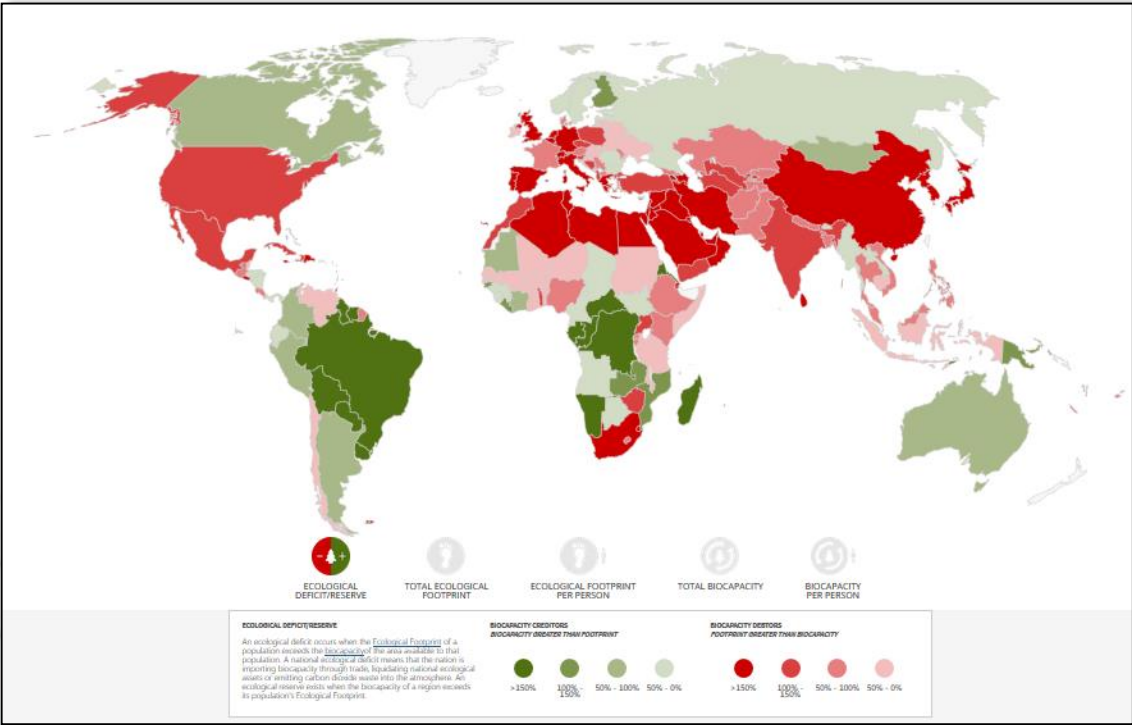
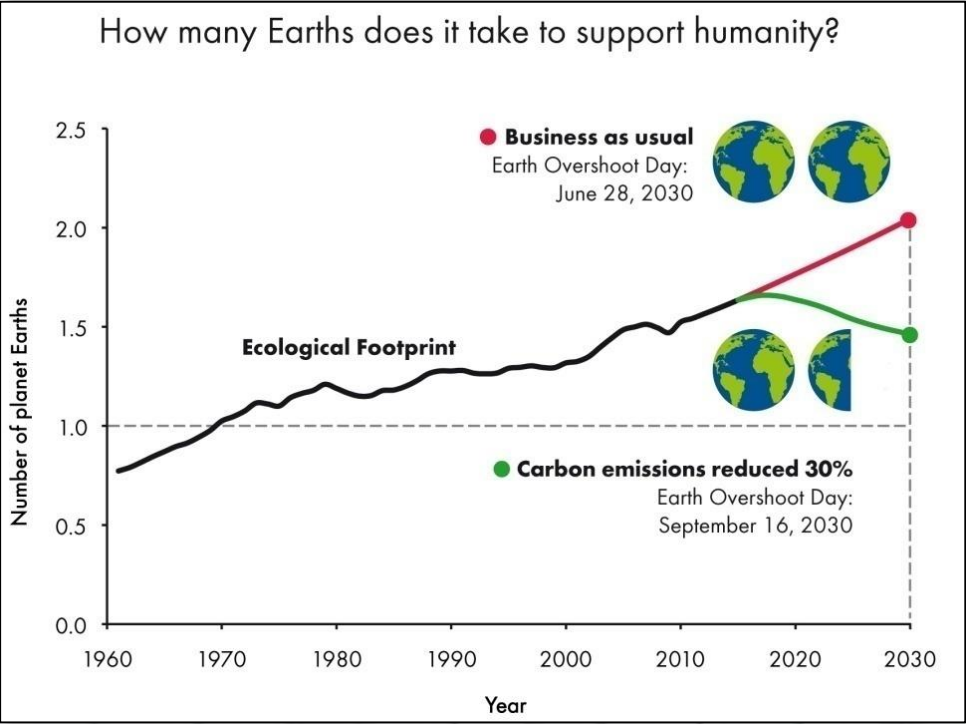
“Testemunhamos um processo de co-evolução entre o sistema natural e a sociedade, pelo qual os limites do sistema de apoio ambiental forçam as sociedades a tomar ações, sejam elas defensivas, evasivas, ofensivas, corretivas ou acomodativas.”

(H. H. G. Savenije et al.: *Evolving water science in the Anthropocene*; *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18, 319–332, 2014)

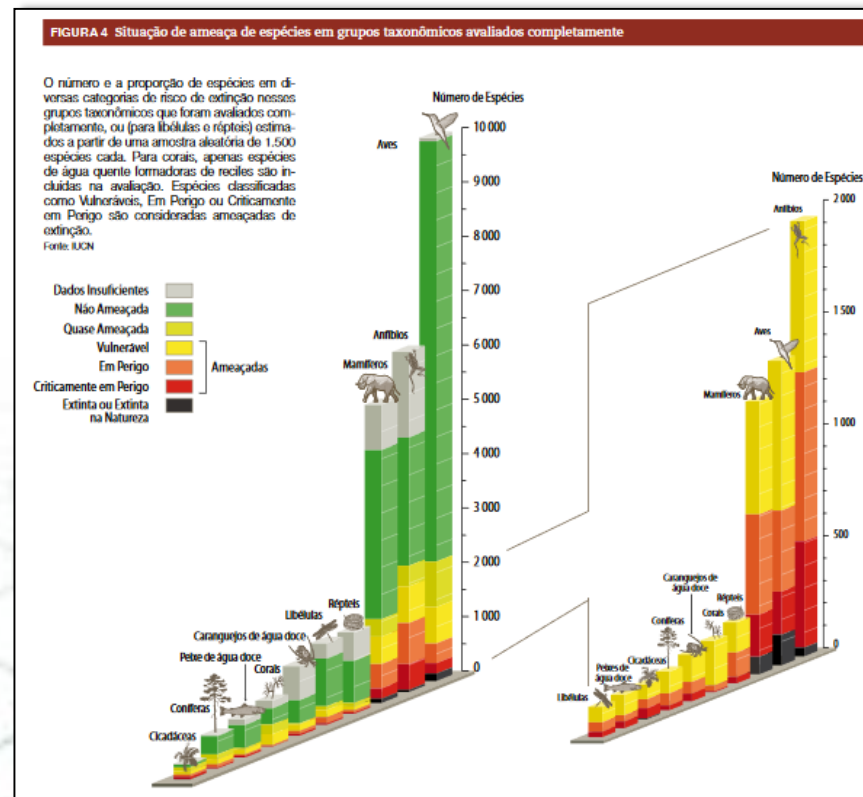
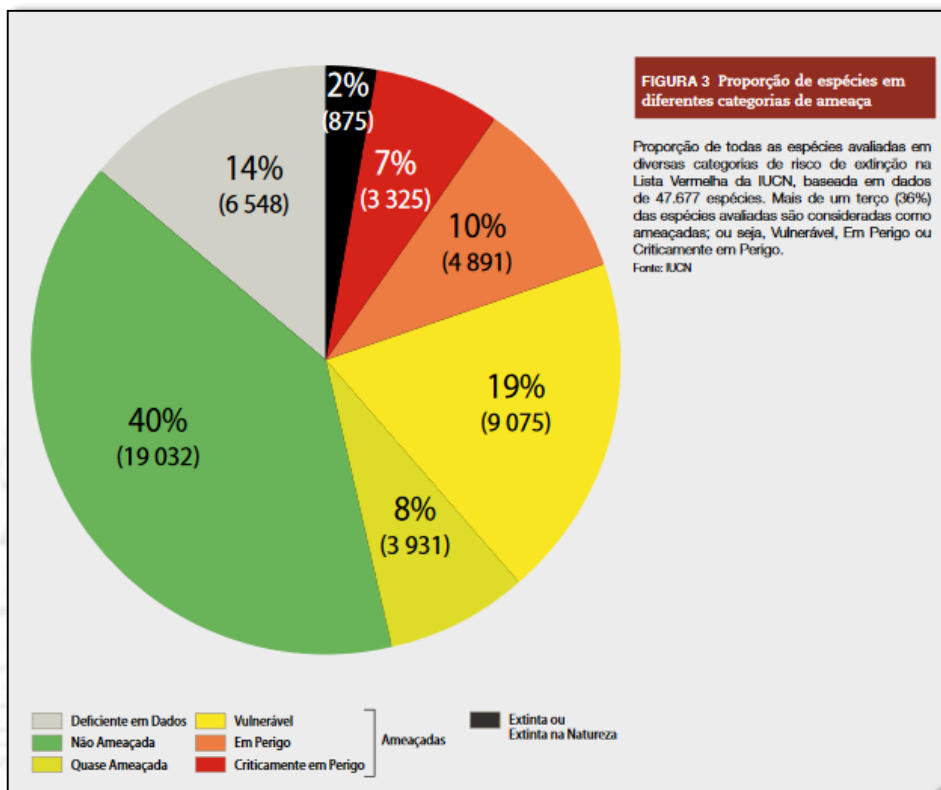
Os seres humanos mudaram a resposta hidrológica de muitas bacias hidrográficas do mundo através de um ou mais dos seguintes meios:

- (a) Retirada direta dos fluxos de água, incluindo transferências entre bacias para suprimentos de água para cidades, indústrias e agricultura;
- (b) transformação da rede de riachos, por exemplo, através da construção de barragens e reservatórios ou canalização de rios;
- (c) alteração das características da bacia de drenagem, por exemplo, através de desmatamento, urbanização, drenagem de áreas úmidas e práticas agrícolas; e
- (d) atividades que alteram o clima regional ou global, por exemplo, melhorando as emissões de gases de efeito estufa, as mudanças de cobertura da terra e o consumo de água consumido.
- (e) Além disso, os seres humanos influenciaram fortemente a qualidade física, química e biológica de córregos, lagos e massas de águas subterrâneas através de vários tipos de fontes difusas e pontuais de poluição

PEGADA ECOLÓGICA



MEGA EXTINÇÕES



EXTINÇÃO DE FUNDO X EXTINÇÕES EM MASSA

Anfíbios: calcula-se que a taxa de extinção do grupo pode ser até 45 mil vezes superior à taxa de fundo.

Estima-se que um terço de todos os recifes de corais, um terço de todos os moluscos de água doce, um terço dos tubarões e arraias, um quarto dos mamíferos, um quinto de todos os répteis e um sexto de todas as aves estão a caminho do desaparecimento.

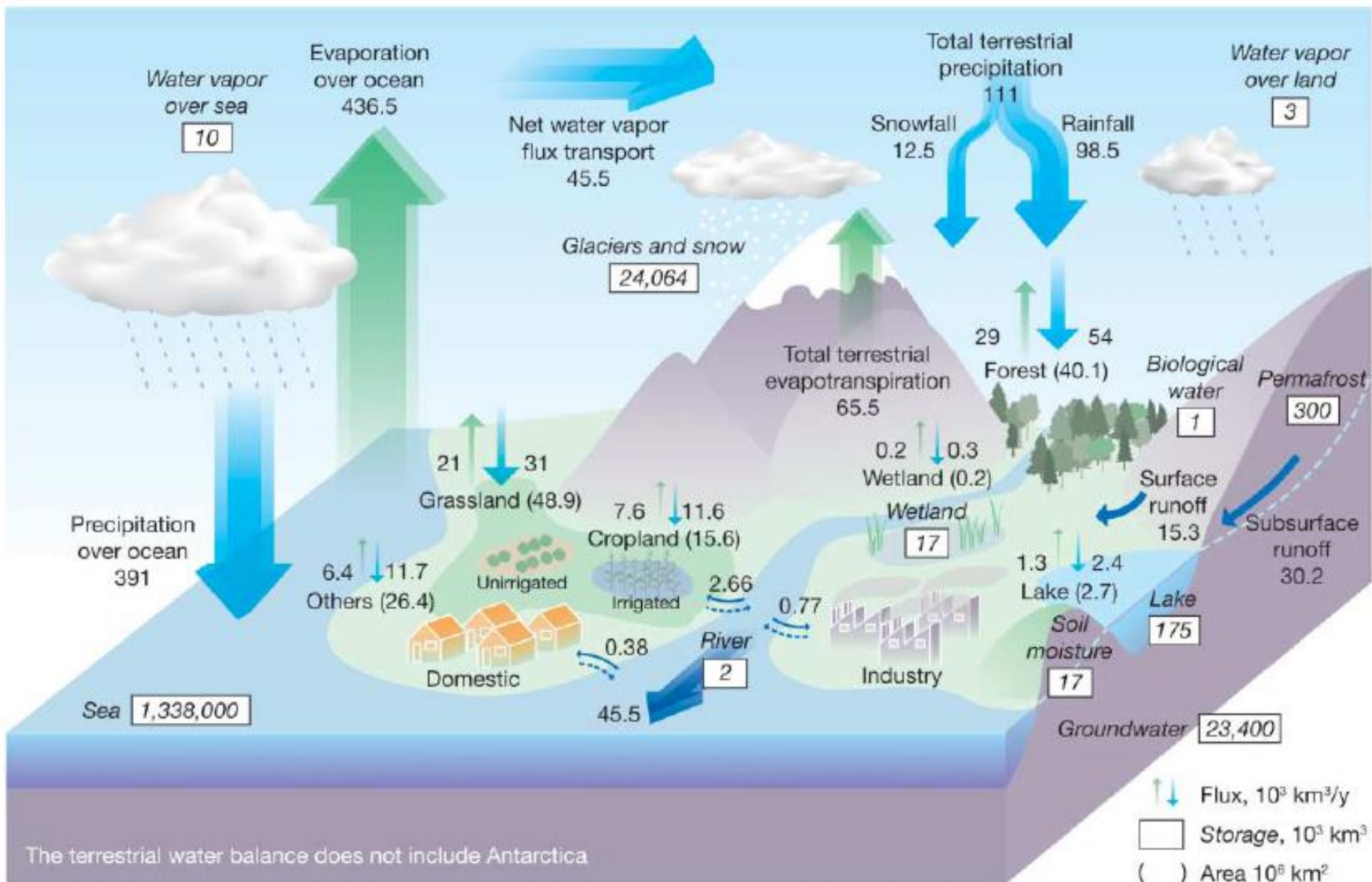


Fig. 1. Global hydrological fluxes ($1000 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$) and storages (1000 km^3) with natural and anthropogenic cycles are synthesized from various sources (1, 3–5). Big vertical arrows show total annual precipitation and evapo-

transpiration over land and ocean ($1000 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$), which include annual precipitation and evapotranspiration in major landscapes ($1000 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$) presented by small vertical arrows; parentheses indicate area (million km^2). The direct groundwater discharge, which is estimated to be about 10% of total river discharge globally (6), is included in river discharge.

Human modification of global water vapor flows from the land surface

Line J. Gordon^{*†}, Will Steffen[‡], Bror F. Jönsson[§], Carl Folke^{*}, Malin Falkenmark[¶], and Åse Johannessen^{*}

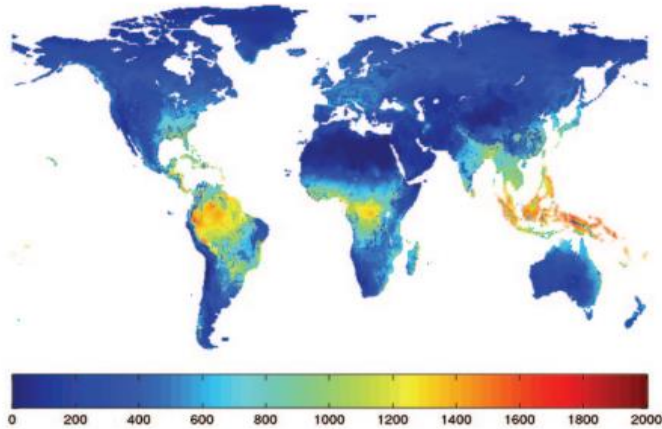
Departments of ^{*}Systems Ecology and [§]Meteorology, Stockholm University, SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden; [†]Bureau of Rural Sciences, Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry, Australian Government, G.P.O. Box 858, Canberra ACT 2601, Australia; and [¶]Stockholm International Water Institute, Hantverkargatan 5, SE-112 21 Stockholm, Sweden

Edited by Stephen R. Carpenter, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI, and approved April 11, 2005 (received for review January 10, 2005)

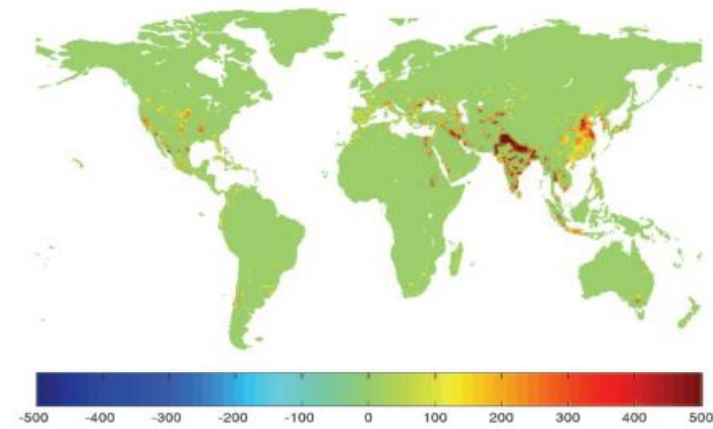
7612-7617 | PNAS | May 24, 2005 | vol. 102 | no. 21

www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.0500208102

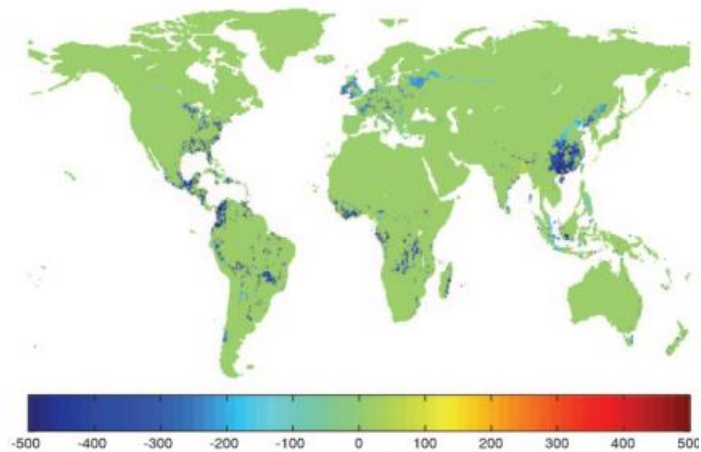
ANTES DO
IMPACTO



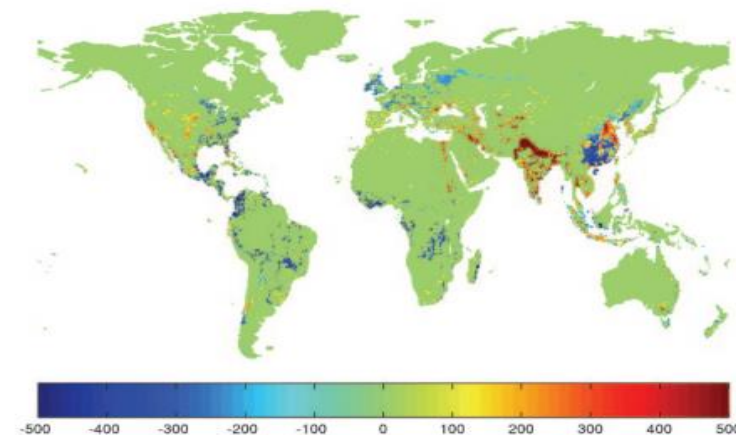
IRRIGAÇÃO



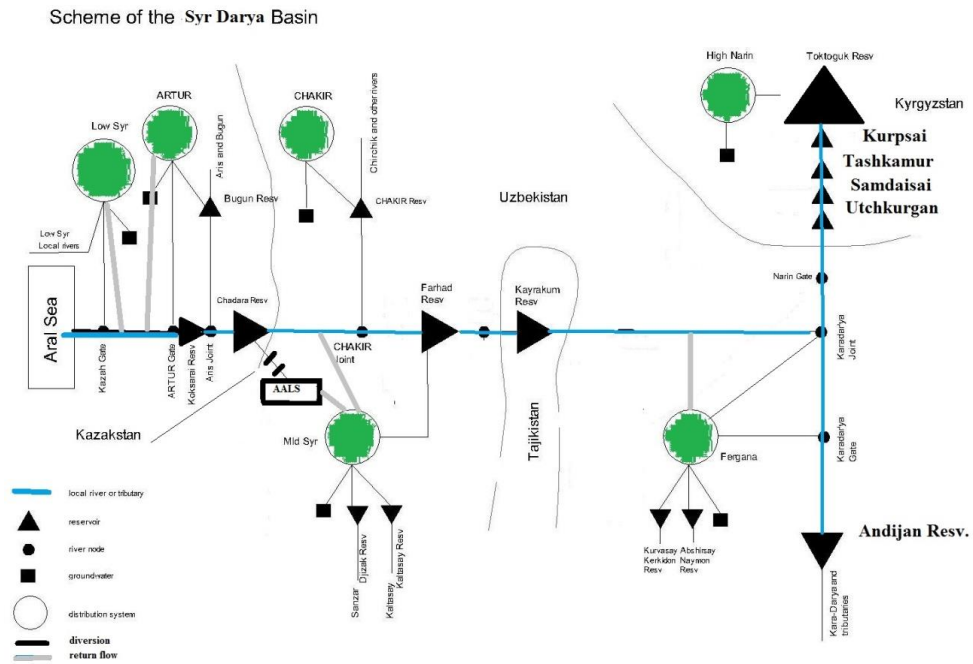
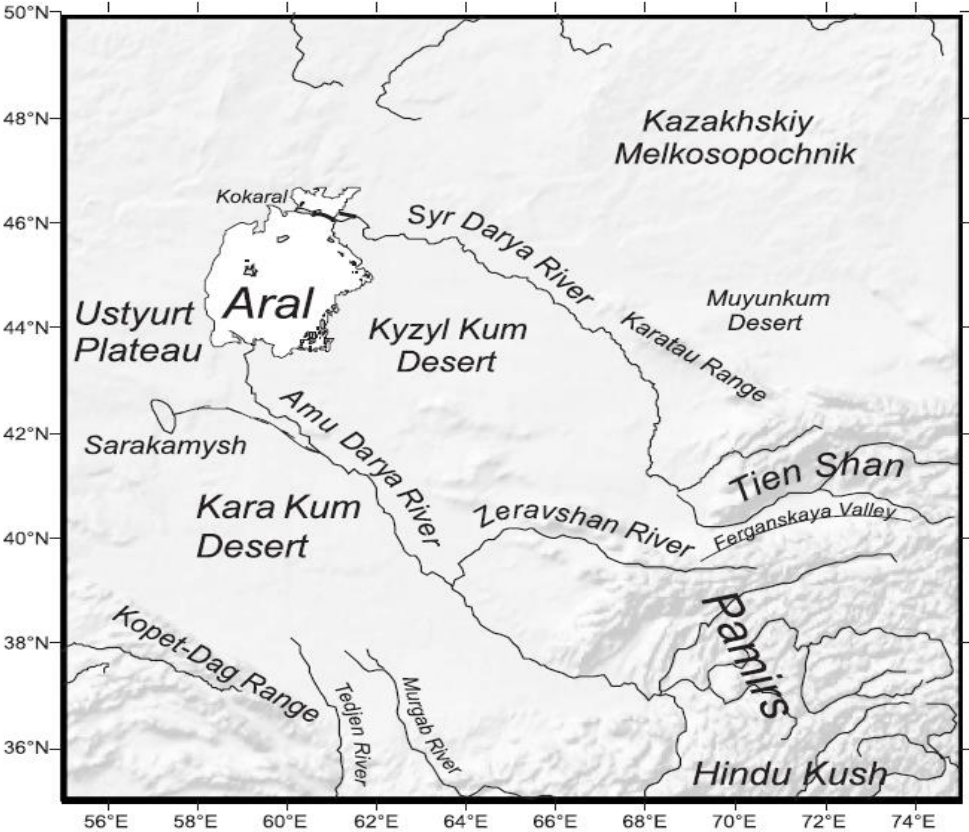
DESMATAMENTO



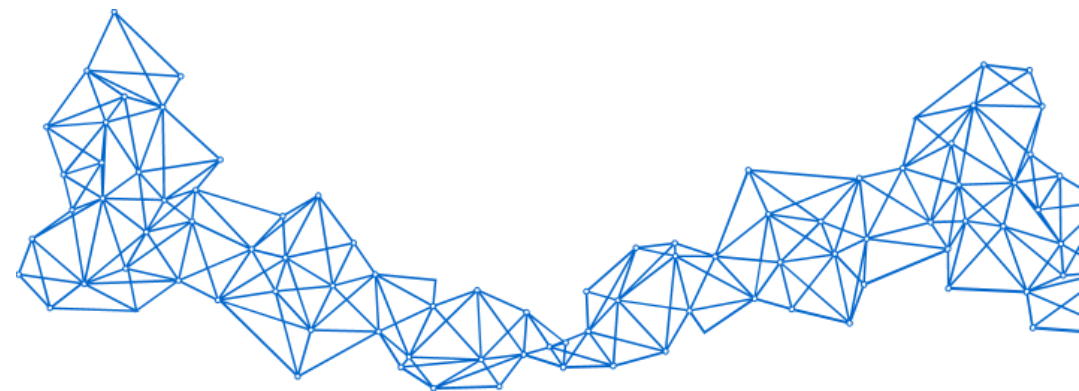
DESMATAMENTO
+
IRRIGAÇÃO



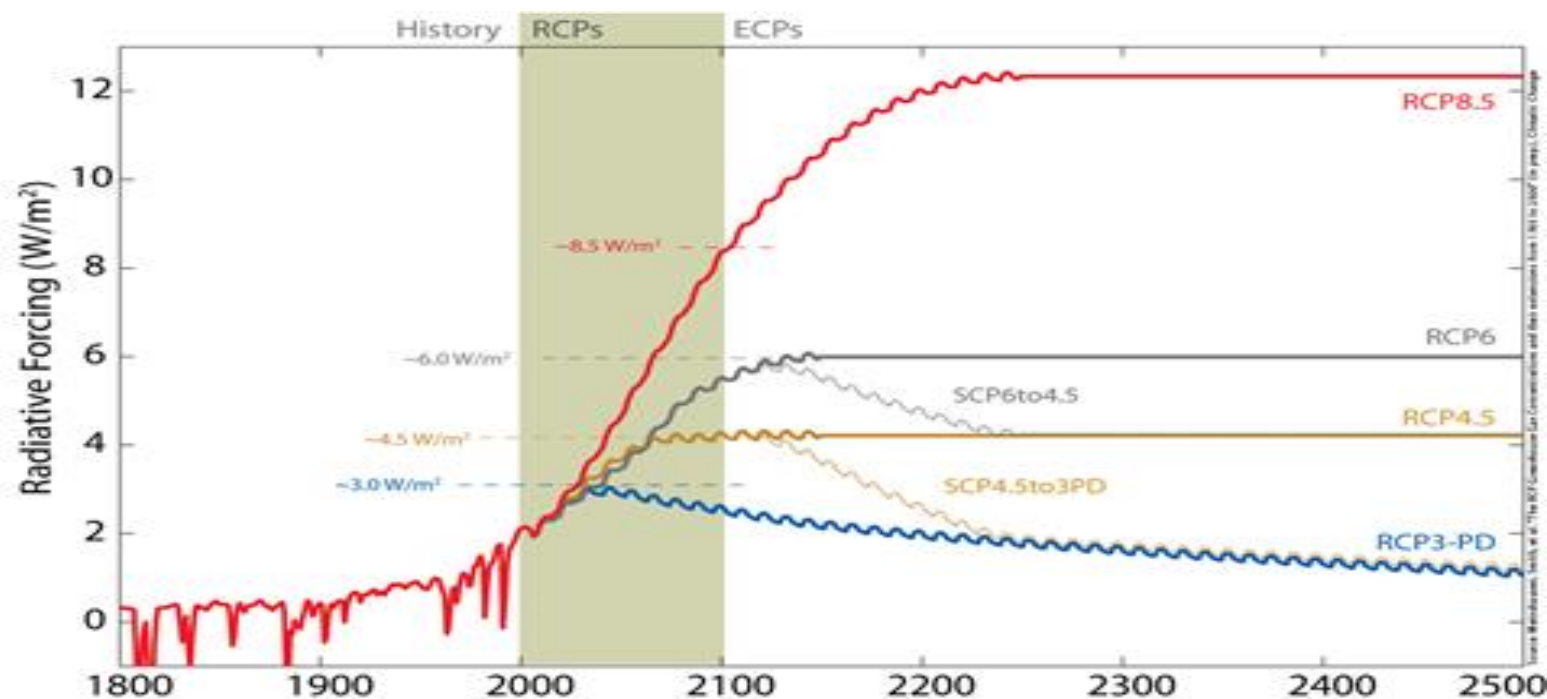
MAR DO ARAL



MUDANÇAS CLIMÁTICAS



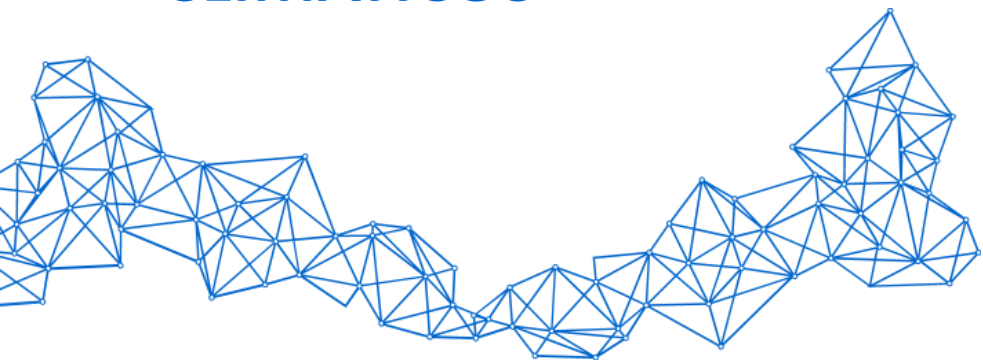
IPCC AR5 - Cenários de forçantes radioativas



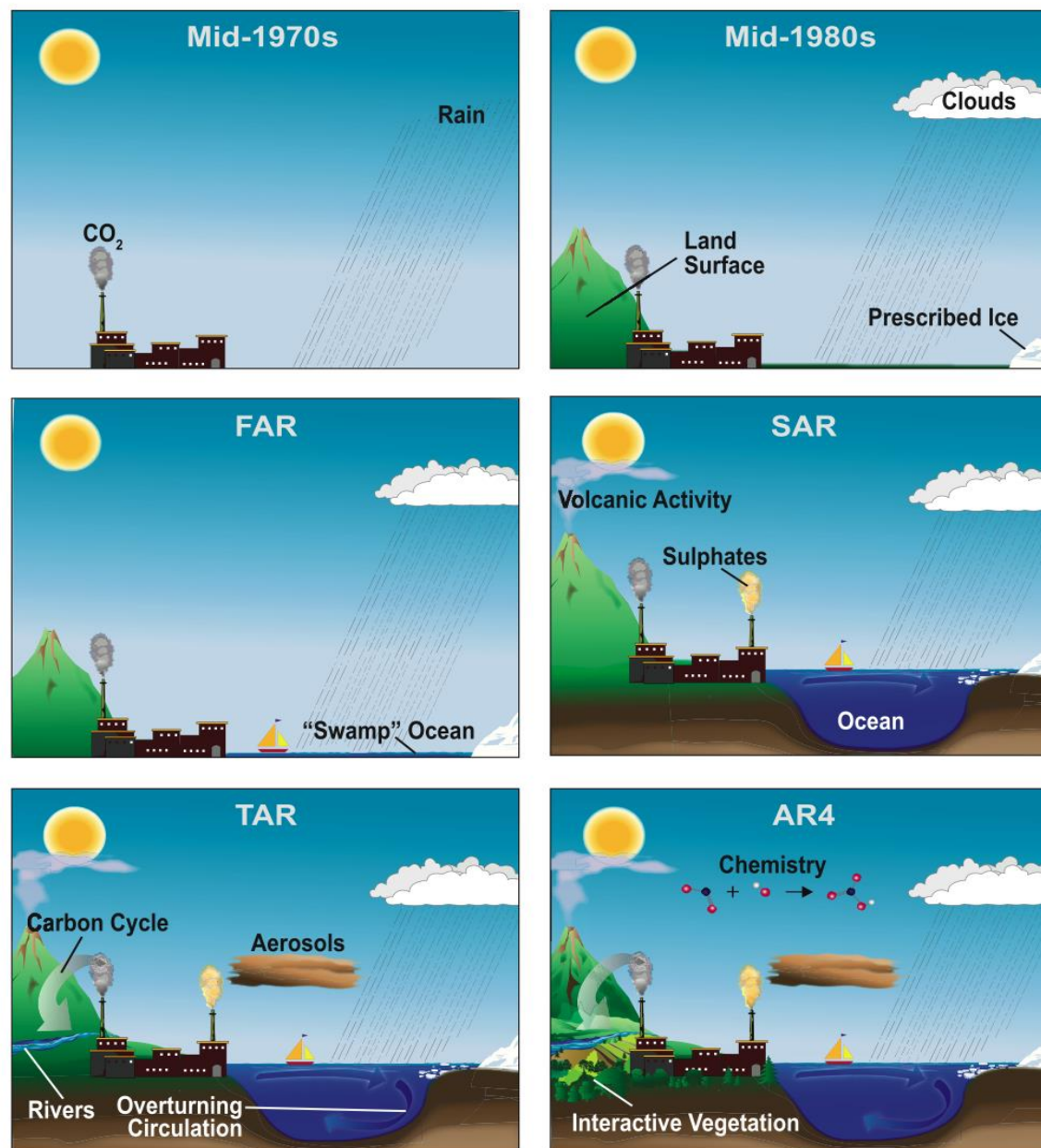
Cenários construídos
com os modelos
BCC-CSM1.1
HadGEM2
MIROC5

RCP 4.5 - Estabilização das forçantes radioativas em 4,5 W/m^2 após 2100.

PROGRESSOS NA REPRESENTAÇÃO DOS PROCESSOS FÍSICOS NOS MODELOS CLIMÁTICOS

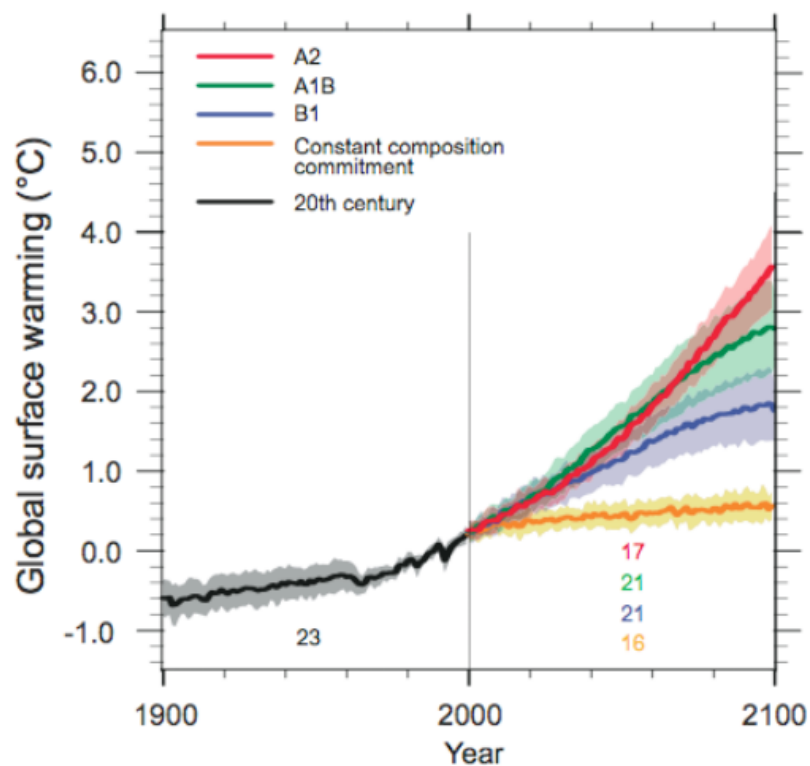
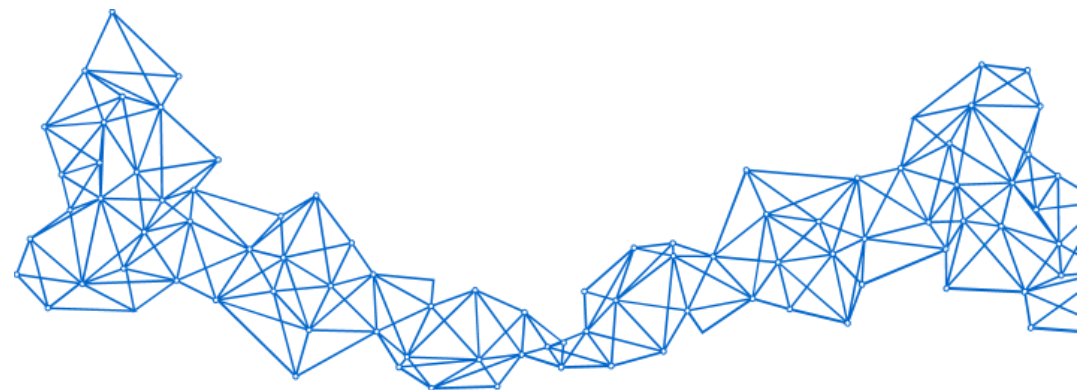


The World in Global Climate Models



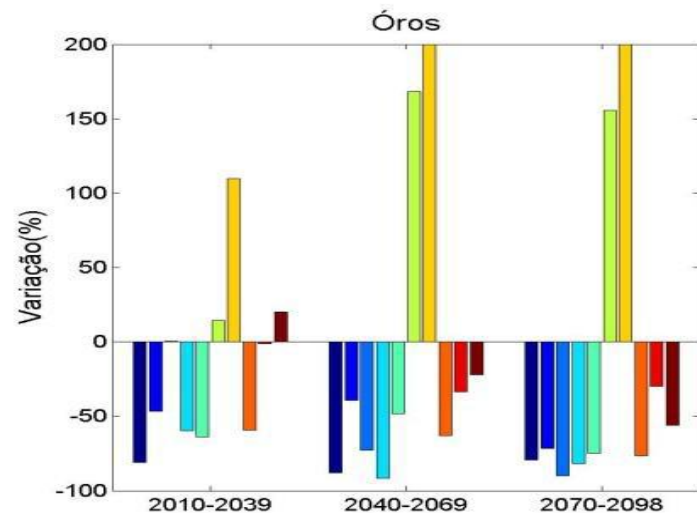
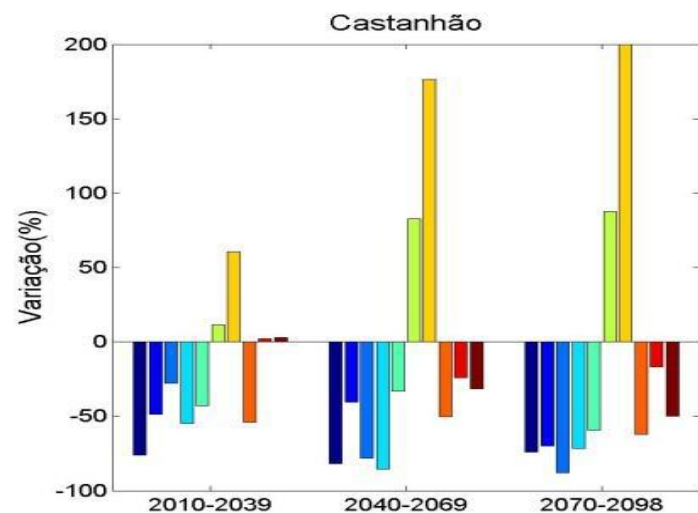


COMO SERÁ O AMANHÃ?

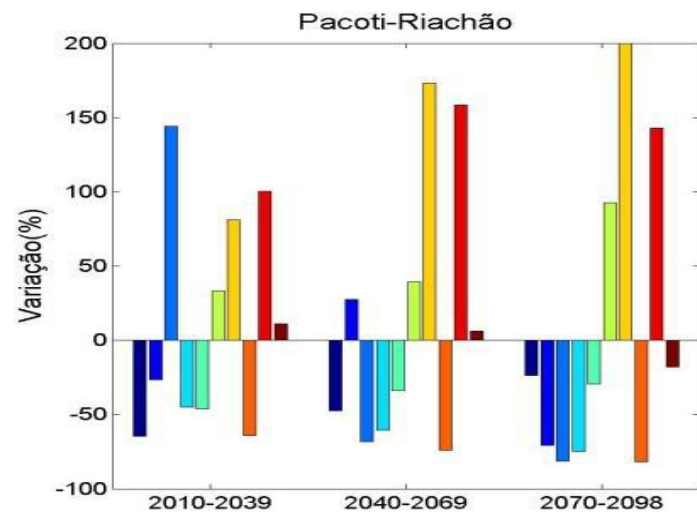
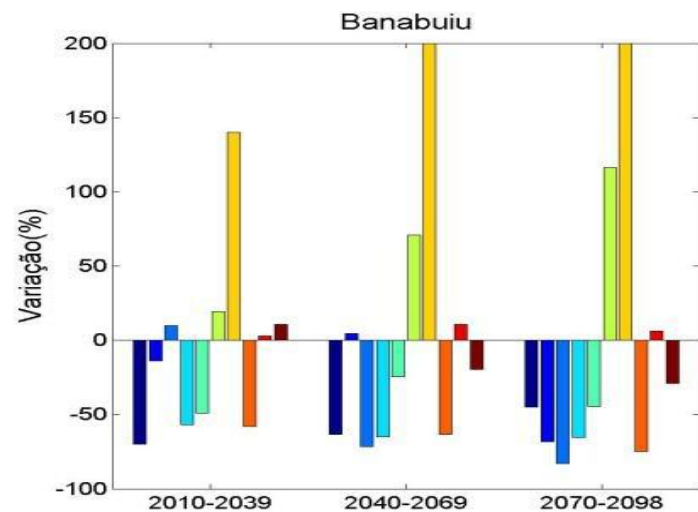


	Temperature Change (°C at 2090-2099 relative to 1980-1999) ^a		Sea Level Rise (m at 2090-2099 relative to 1980-1999)
Case	Best estimate	Likely range	Model-based range excluding future rapid dynamical changes in ice flow
Constant Year 2000 concentrations ^c	0.6	0.3 – 0.9	NA
B1 scenario	1.8	1.1 – 2.9	0.18 – 0.38
A1T scenario	2.4	1.4 – 3.8	0.20 – 0.45
B2 scenario	2.4	1.4 – 3.8	0.20 – 0.43
A1B scenario	2.8	1.7 – 4.4	0.21 – 0.48
A2 scenario	3.4	2.0 – 5.4	0.23 – 0.51
A1FI scenario	4.0	2.4 – 6.4	0.26 – 0.59

MUDANÇAS CLIMÁTICAS



■ BNU-ESM
■ CESM1-BGC
■ CSIRO-Mk3-6-0
■ CanESM2
■ HadGEM2-AO
■ IPSL-CM5A-LR
■ IPSL-CM5A-MR
■ MIROC-ESM_
■ MIROC5
■ bcc-csm1-1



■ BNU-ESM
■ CESM1-BGC
■ CSIRO-Mk3-6-0
■ CanESM2
■ HadGEM2-AO
■ IPSL-CM5A-LR
■ IPSL-CM5A-MR
■ MIROC-ESM_
■ MIROC5
■ bcc-csm1-1

Variação percentual
na média anual de
vazões no século XXI
para os modelos do
CMIP5 para o cenário
RCP4.5

CLIMATE CHANGE

Has there been a hiatus?

Internal climate variability masks climate-warming trends

By Kevin E. Trenberth

Every decade since the 1960s has been warmer than the one before, with 2000 to 2009 by far the warmest decade on record (see the figure). However, the role of human-induced climate change has been discounted by some, owing to a markedly reduced increase in global mean surface temperature (GMST) from 1998 through 2013, known as the hiatus (7–3). The upward trend has resumed in 2014, now the warmest year on record, with 2015 temperatures on course for another record-hot year. Although Earth's climate is undoubtedly warming, weather-related and internal natural climate variability can temporarily overwhelm global warming in any given year or even decade, especially locally.

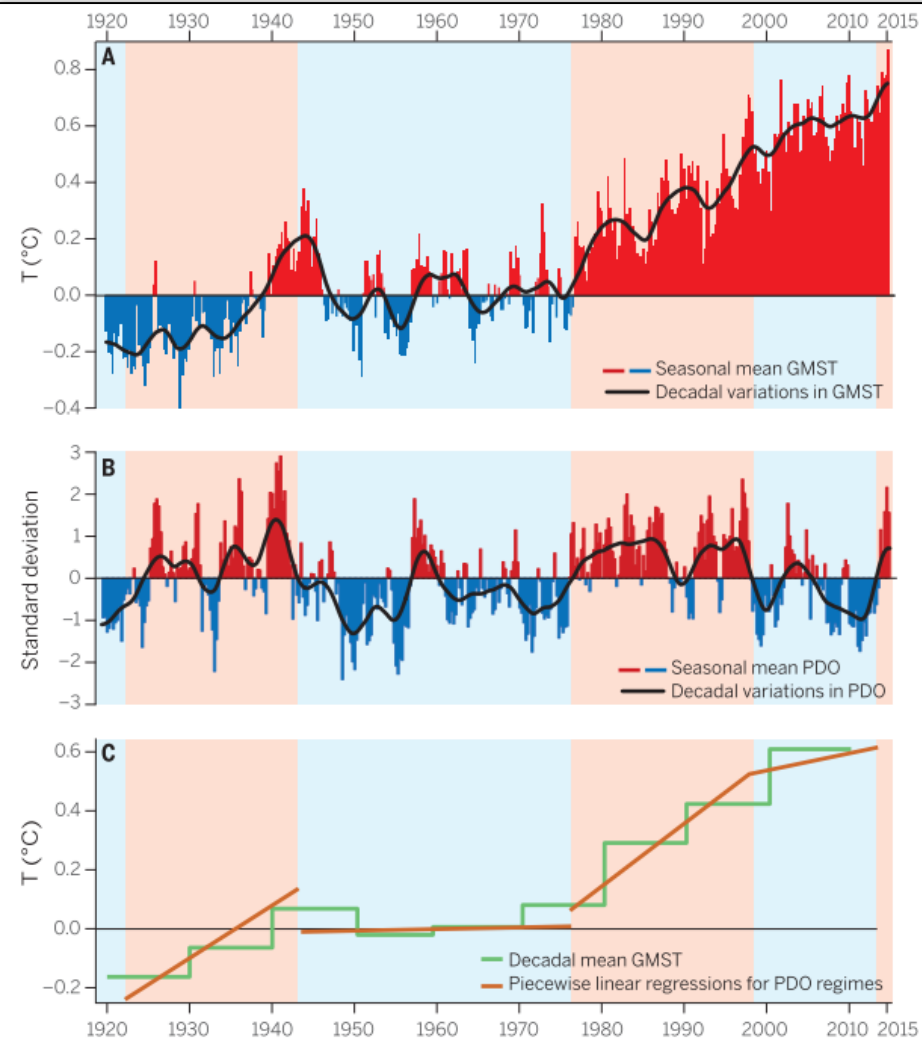
Karl *et al.* recently argued that there has been no slowdown in the rise of GMST and hence no hiatus (3). The authors compared slightly revised and improved GMST estimates after 2000 with the 1950–1999 period, concluding that there was hardly any

as a result of internal natural variability. Temperatures have mostly increased since about 1920 and the recent rate is not out of step with the 1950–1999 rate (3), but there are two intervals with much lower rates of increase. Only the most recent of these two hiatuses has occurred in the presence of fast-increasing greenhouse gas concentrations. It is thus important to understand its origins and whether or not it indeed indicates a flaw in model projections and thus in climate change theory.

Interannual variability in GMST is partly driven by the El Niño–Southern Oscillation in the Pacific Ocean. The year 1998 was the warmest on record in the 20th century because of the 1997–1998 El Niño, the biggest such event on record. During that El Niño, ocean heat that had previously built up

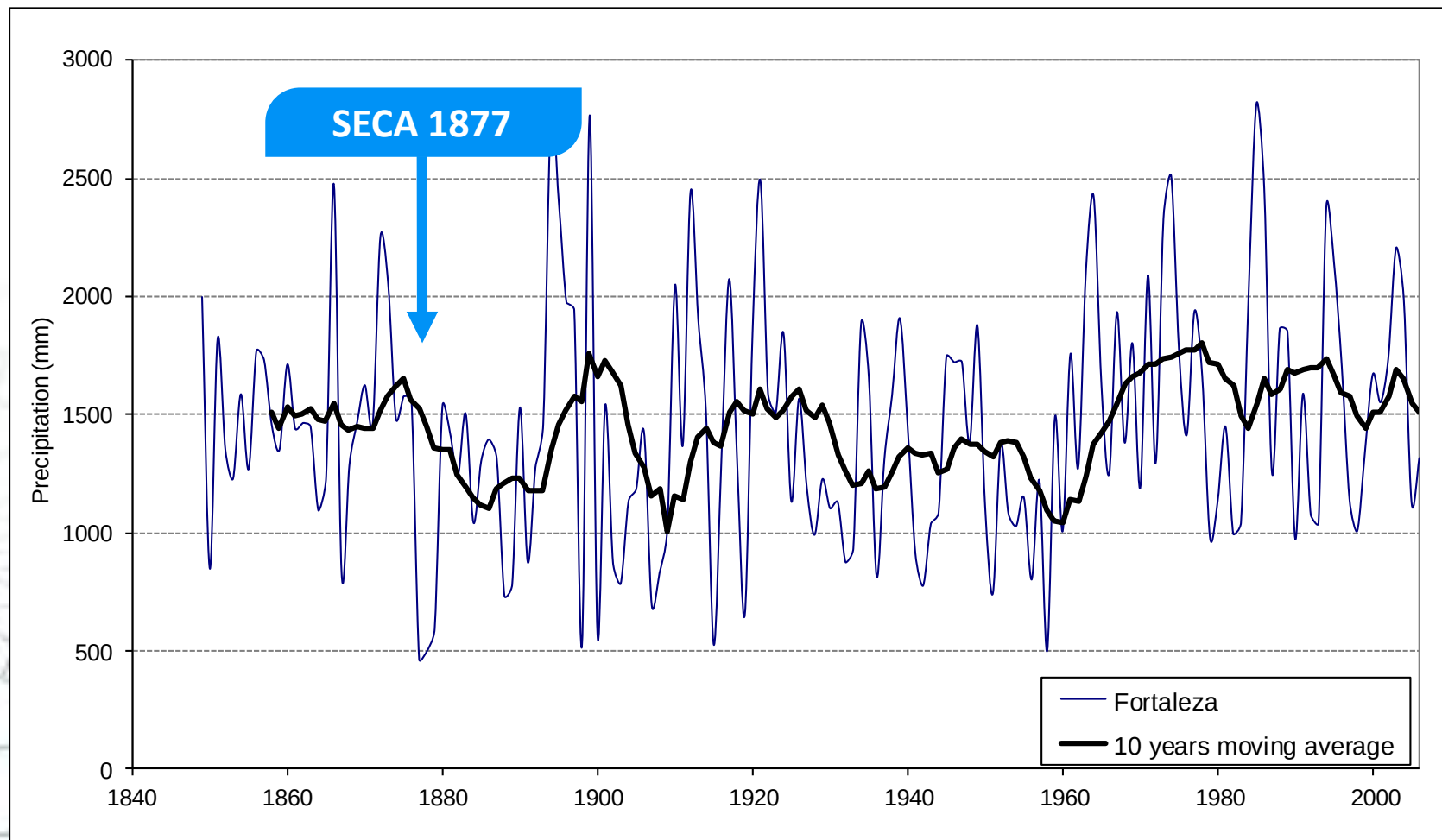
in the tropical western Pacific spread across the Pacific and into the atmosphere, invigorating storms and warming the surface, especially through latent heat release, while the ocean cooled from evaporative cooling (5). Now, in 2015, another El Niño is in

“Natural fluctuations are big enough to overwhelm the steady background warming at any point in time.”

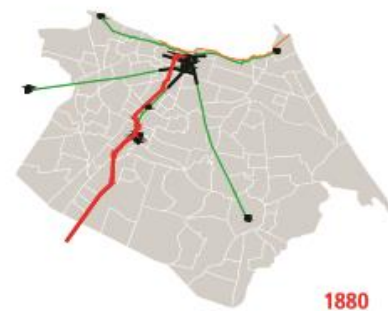


A staircase of rising temperatures. (A) Seasonal (December-January-February; etc.) global mean surface temperatures since 1920 (relative to the 20th-century mean) vary considerably on interannual and decadal time scales. Data from (19). (B) Seasonal mean PDO anomalies (8) show decadal regimes (positive in pink; negative in blue) as well as short-term variability. A 20-term Gaussian filter is used in both to show decadal variations, with anomalies reflected about the end point of March to May 2015 (heavy black curves). (C) Decadal average anomalies (starting 1921 to 1930) of GMST (green) along with piecewise slopes of GMST for the phases of the PDO (orange). Note how the rise in GMST (A) coincides with the positive (pink) phase (B) of the PDO at the rate given in (C).

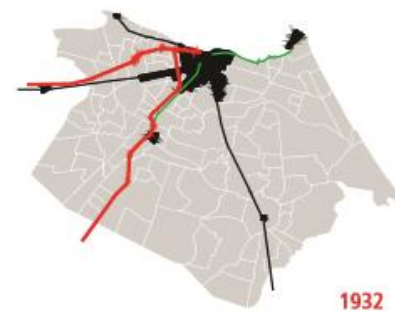
VARIABILIDADE CLIMÁTICA EM MÚLTIPLAS ESCALAS TEMPORAIS



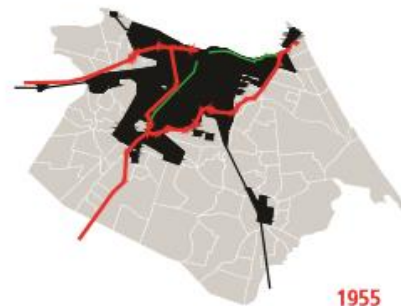
CRESCIMENTO DAS CIDADES



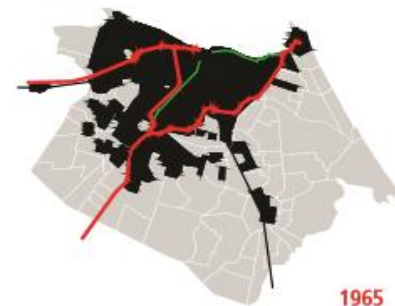
1880



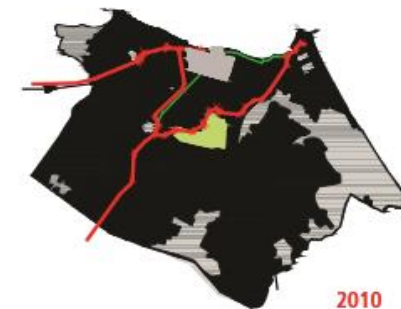
1932



1955



1965

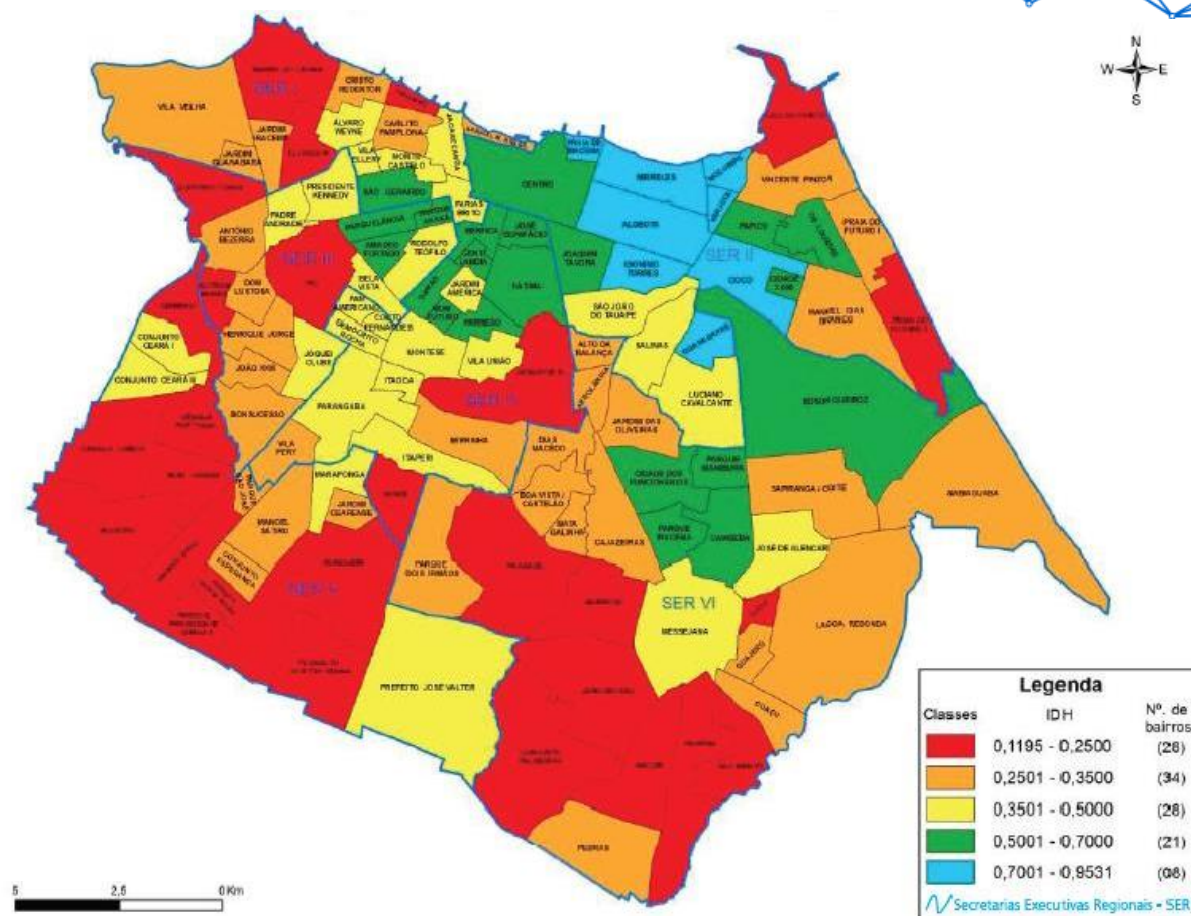


2010



DESIGUALDADE SOCIAL

IDH dos bairros de Fortaleza - 2010



RESTAURAÇÃO FLUVIAL

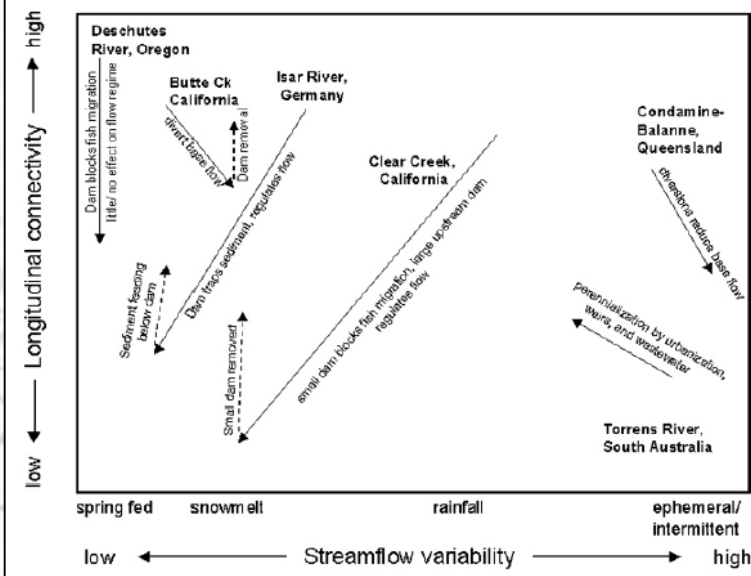
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Kondolf, G. M., A. J. Boulton, S. O'Daniel, G. C. Poole, F. J. Rahe, E. H. Stanley, E. Wohl, A. Bang, J. Carlstrom, C. Cristoni, H. Huber, S. Koljonen, P. Louhi, and K. Nakamura 2006. Process-based ecological river restoration: visualizing three-dimensional connectivity and dynamic vectors to recover lost linkages. *Ecology and Society* 11(2):3. [online] URL: <http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol11/iss2/art3/>



Insight, part of a Special Feature on [Restoring Riverine Landscapes](#)
Process-Based Ecological River Restoration: Visualizing Three-Dimensional Connectivity and Dynamic Vectors to Recover Lost Linkages

G. Mathias Kondolf¹, Andrew J. Boulton², Scott O'Daniel³, Geoffrey C. Poole⁴, Frank J. Rahe⁵, Emily H. Stanley⁶, Ellen Wohl⁷, Asa Bang⁸, Julia Carlstrom⁹, Chiara Cristoni¹⁰, Harald Huber¹⁰, Salla Koljonen¹¹, Paulina Louhi¹², and Keigo Nakamura¹³

Fig. 1. Solid arrows represent ecological degradation and dashed arrows represent restoration trajectories plotted on axes of longitudinal connectivity and flow dynamics. See Appendix 1 for a discussion of trajectories.



POLICY FORUM

ECOLOGY

Synthesizing U.S. River Restoration Efforts

E. S. Bernhardt,¹ M. A. Palmer,¹ J. D. Allan,² G. Alexander,² K. Barnes,² S. Brooks,⁴ J. Carr,⁵ S. Clayton,⁶ C. Dahm,⁷ J. Folstad-Shah,⁷ D. Galat,^{8,9} S. Gloss,¹⁰ P. Goodwin,⁶ D. Hart,² B. Hassett,¹ R. Jenkinson,¹¹ S. Katz,² G. M. Kondolf,¹² P. S. Lake,¹³ R. Lave,¹² J. L. Meyer,¹² T. K. O'Donnell,² L. Pagano,¹² B. Powell,¹⁴ E. Sudduth¹⁵

The importance of rivers and streams for fresh water, food, and recreation is well known, yet there is increasing evidence that degradation of running waters is at an all-time high (1). More than one-third of the rivers in the United States are listed as impaired or polluted (2), and freshwater withdrawals in some regions are so extreme that some major rivers no longer flow to the sea year round (3). Extinction rates of freshwater fauna are five times that for terrestrial biota (4, 5). Fortunately, stream and river restoration can lead to species recovery, improved inland and coastal water quality, and new areas for wildlife habitat and recreational activities (6–11).

River restoration has become a highly profitable business (12, 13) and will play an increasing role in environmental management and policy decisions (7). A few high-profile and large restoration projects such as those on the Kalamazoo River (14, 15) and the Grand Canyon (15, 16) are well documented. However, most restoration projects are small scale (implemented on less than 1 km of stream length), and information on their implementation and outcome is not readily accessible. This prompted us to build a database of river restoration across the United States with the goal of determining the common elements of successful projects.

We found that existing restoration databases are highly fragmented and often rely on ad hoc or volunteer data entry. Thus, we developed methods for the unbiased collection and cataloging of river and stream restoration projects. Here, we report a synthesis of information on 37,099 projects in the National River Restoration Science Synthesis (NRRSS) database.

The NRRSS database includes all stream and river restoration projects present in national databases as of July 2004, as well as a large sample of river and stream restoration projects from seven geographic regions (see figure, below) [(17) part a]. Because we wanted to document how restoration dollars and efforts were allocated, we did not limit data collection to projects that fit our definition of restoration. No judgments were made of the validity of the terms “stream restoration” or “project.” Use of national coverage data sources [(17) part b] ensured inclusion of projects from all 50 states. For the seven specified regions, we also collected information on all restoration projects for which we could obtain data, regardless of project size, restoration method, implementer, or perceived suc-

cess or failure of the project. We identified a priori 13 categories of restoration and classified each project according to its stated goal [see table, page 637 and (17) part c].

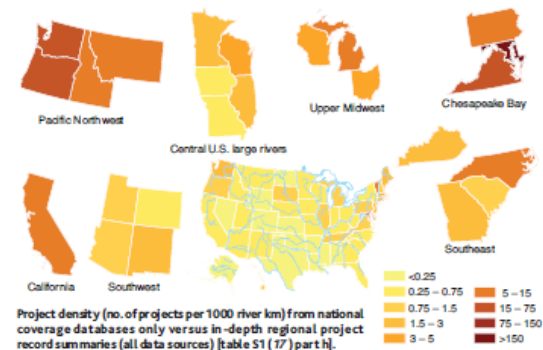
The number of river restoration projects increased exponentially during the 1990s, paralleling the increase in media and scientific reports [figure d]. However, restoration efforts are geographically uneven. Most projects are from the Pacific Northwest, the Bay watershed, or California (figure below). Data from national coverage [(17) part b] made up <8% of the NRRSS database. Thus, while the database supports some tracking efforts, restoration databases are not representative of projects and lack the regional differences in effort found with our approach.

The most commonly stated goal for river restoration in the United States is to enhance water quality, (i) riparian zones, (ii) to improve habitat, (iii) for fish passage, bank stabilization (see figure). Projects with these goals are typically in scale with median costs of restoration (table, page 637). A large percentage of restoration dollars are spent on expensive projects aimed at floodplain, modifying flow aesthetics or recreation, and river and stream channels (see table, page 637). Of the projects in our database, many had no listed goals; in many cases, descriptions were too limited to determine whether projects were undertaken to restore stream ecosystems or were merely river manipulation projects (e.g., bank stabilization) (18).



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¹⁵Present address: Duke University, Durham, NC, USA. ¹⁶Author for correspondence. E-mail: emily.bernhardt@duke.edu



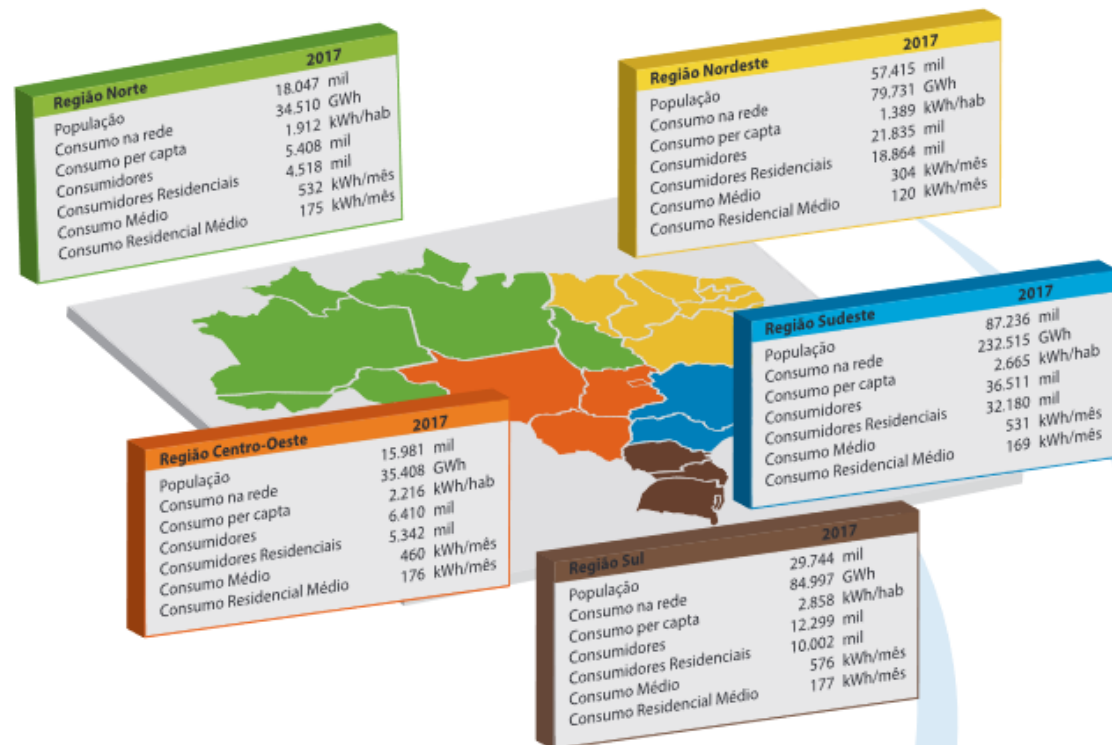


ESCALA E HETEROGENEIDADE DOS SISTEMAS

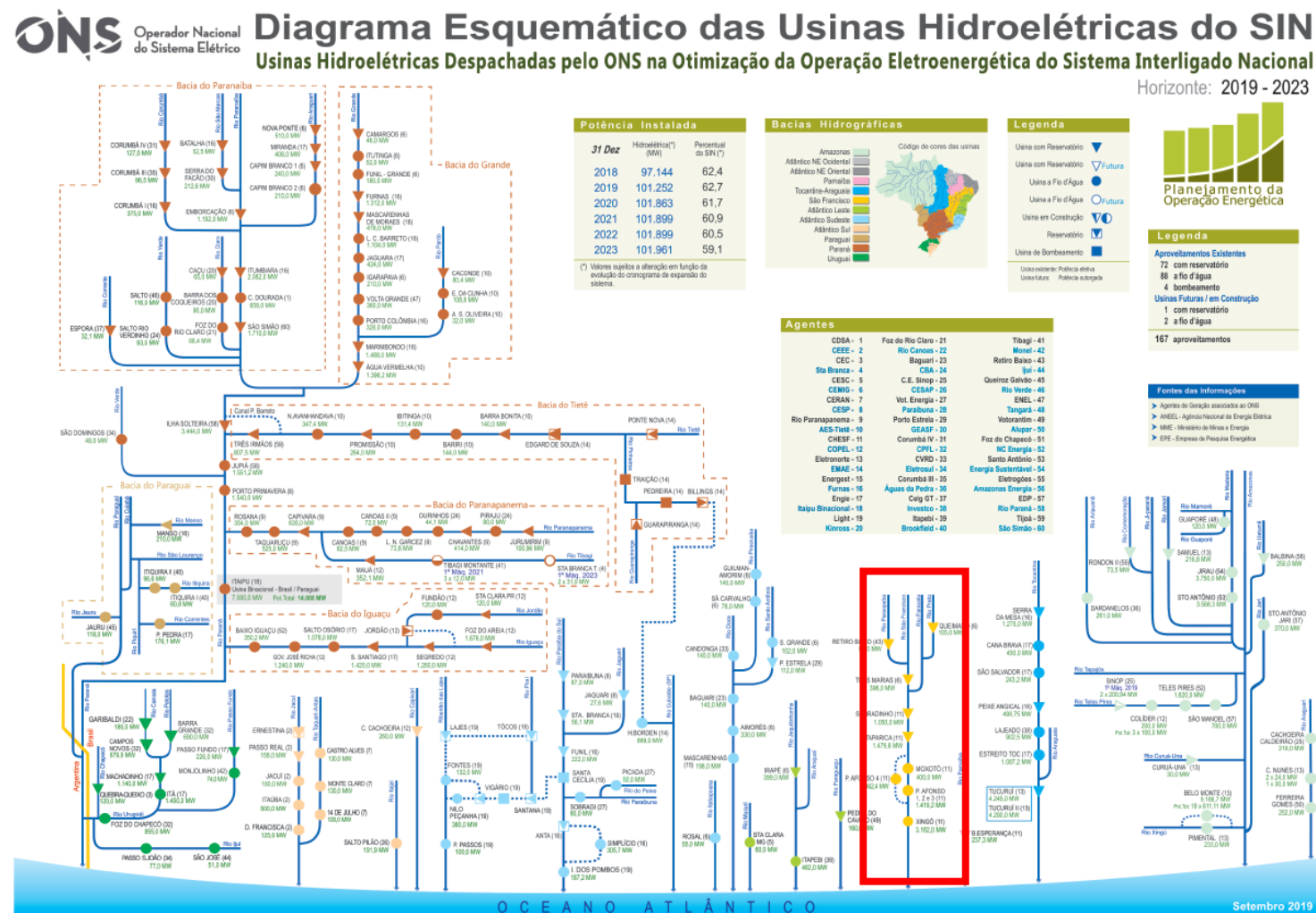


ENERGIA ELÉTRICA: CONSUMO POR REGIÃO

Figura 3.2 Brasil Regiões Geográficas 2017
Brazil Geographic Regions Totals 2017



HIDRELÉTRICA		TERM. GÁS + GNL	
	2018 109.212 MW (67,6%)		2018 12.821 MW (7,9%)
	2023 114.641 MW (64,9%)		2023 16.188 MW (9,2%)
EÓLICA		TERM. ÓLEO + DIESEL	
	2018 14.305 MW (8,9%)		2018 4.614 MW (2,9%)
	2023 17.261 MW (9,8%)		2023 4.840 MW (2,7%)
SOLAR		TERM. CARVÃO	
	2018 1.780 MW (1,1%)		2018 2.672 MW (1,7%)
	2023 3.766 MW (2,1%)		2023 3.017 MW (1,7%)
NUCLEAR		BIOMASSA	
	2018 1.990 MW (1,2%)		2018 13.353 MW (8,3%)
	2023 1.990 MW (1,1%)		2023 13.840 MW (7,8%)
TOTAL		OUTRAS	
2018	161.526 MW	2018	779 MW (0,5%)
2023	176.543 MW	2023	1.000 MW (0,6%)

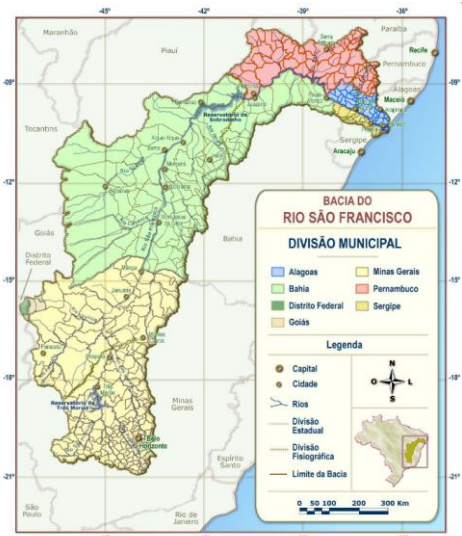
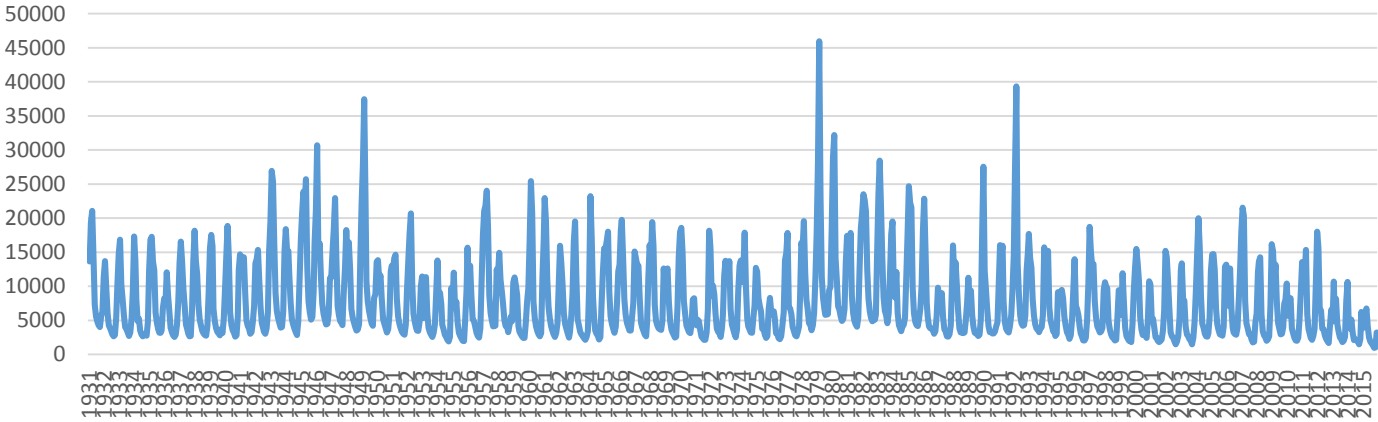


BACIA DO RIO SÃO FRANCISCO



ENA mensal Média 7938 MWmed

ENA - Bacia do São Francisco (MWmed)



Uso	Demanda	
	Vazão (m³/s)	Proporção
Abastecimento urbano	31,3	10%
Abastecimento rural	3,7	1%
Irrigação (2013)	244,4	79%
Criação animal	10,2	3%
Abastecimento industrial	19,8	6%
Total	309,4	100%

SEGURANÇA HÍDRICA

“

Capacidade de uma população para garantir o acesso sustentável a quantidades adequadas de água, com qualidade aceitável para a subsistência, o bem-estar humano e o desenvolvimento socioeconômico, assegurando a proteção dos recursos hídricos contra a poluição e os desastres relacionados com a água, bem como a preservação dos ecossistemas em um clima de paz e estabilidade política.

UN-Water, 2013

”

SEGURANÇA ALIMENTAR, AMBIENTAL E ENERGÉTICA



PISF E A REGIÃO METROPOLITANA DE FORTALEZA

The map illustrates the Fortaleza Metropolitan Region, highlighting the PISF (Sistema Integrado de Saneamento) project. The project is divided into five sections (TRECHO 1 to TRECHO 5) along the coastline. Key locations and features include:

- Section 1 (TRECHO 1):** Located near Jaguaribara, featuring the Aç. Curral Velho and Aç. Banabuiú.
- Section 2 (TRECHO 2):** Located near Morada Nova, featuring the Aç. Curral Velho and Aç. Banabuiú.
- Section 3 (TRECHO 3):** Located near Ocara, featuring the Aç. Aracoiaba and Aç. Choro.
- Section 4 (TRECHO 4):** Located near Pacajus, featuring the Aç. Pacajus and Aç. Riachão.
- Section 5 (TRECHO 5):** Located near Fortaleza, featuring the Aç. Gavião and Aç. Pacoti.

The map also shows the Atlantic Ocean (Oceano Atlântico), the Canal do Trabalhador, and various rivers (Rio Jaguaribe, Rio Banabuiú, Rio Choro, Rio Pacoti, Rio Ceará, Rio Sítios Novos, Rio Orós, Rio Salgado). Other locations include Pecém, São Gonçalo do Amarante, Maracanaú, Maranguape, Pacatuba, Redenção, Aracoiaba, Choró, Ocara, Ibicuitinga, Russas, Limoeiro do Norte, Alto Santo, and Orós.

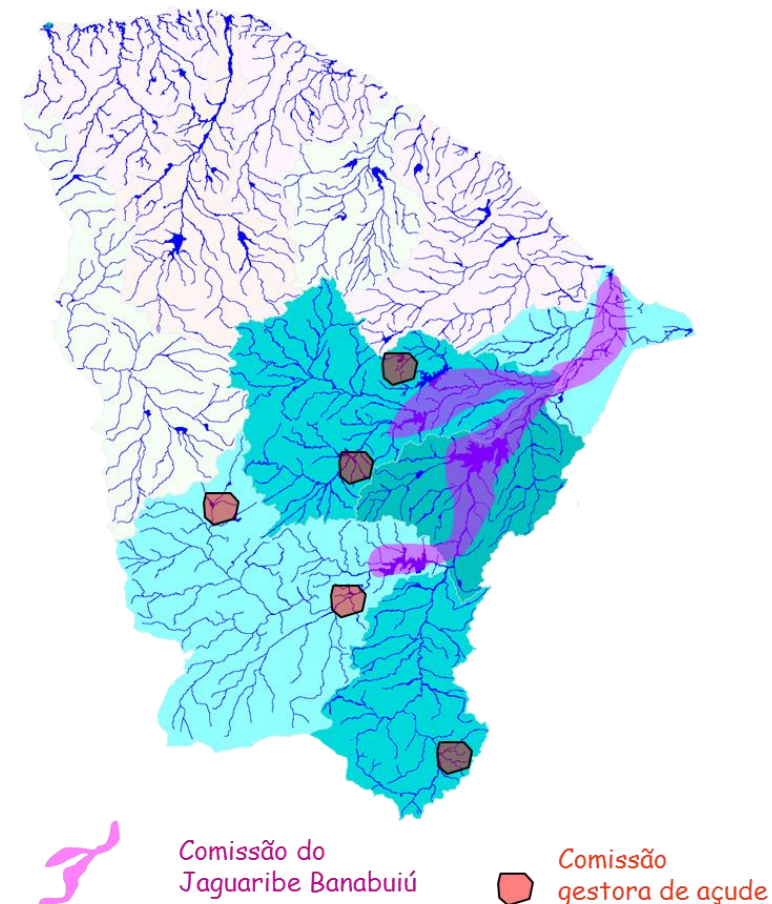
MACROALOCAÇÃO NEGOCIADA DE ÁGUA

PROCESSO PARTICIPATIVO

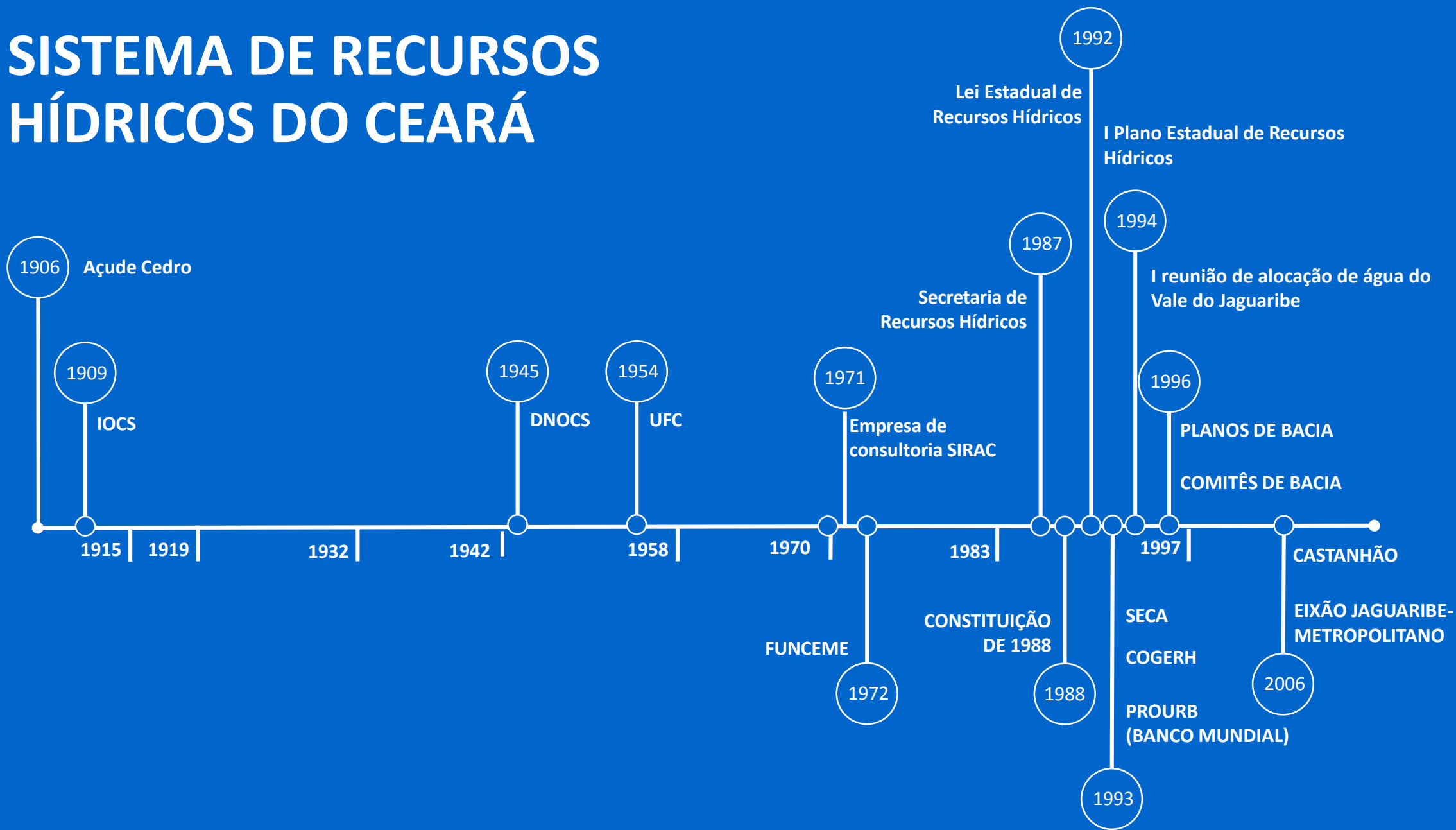
Reunião de Alocação
de água na bacia do
Curu (2011)



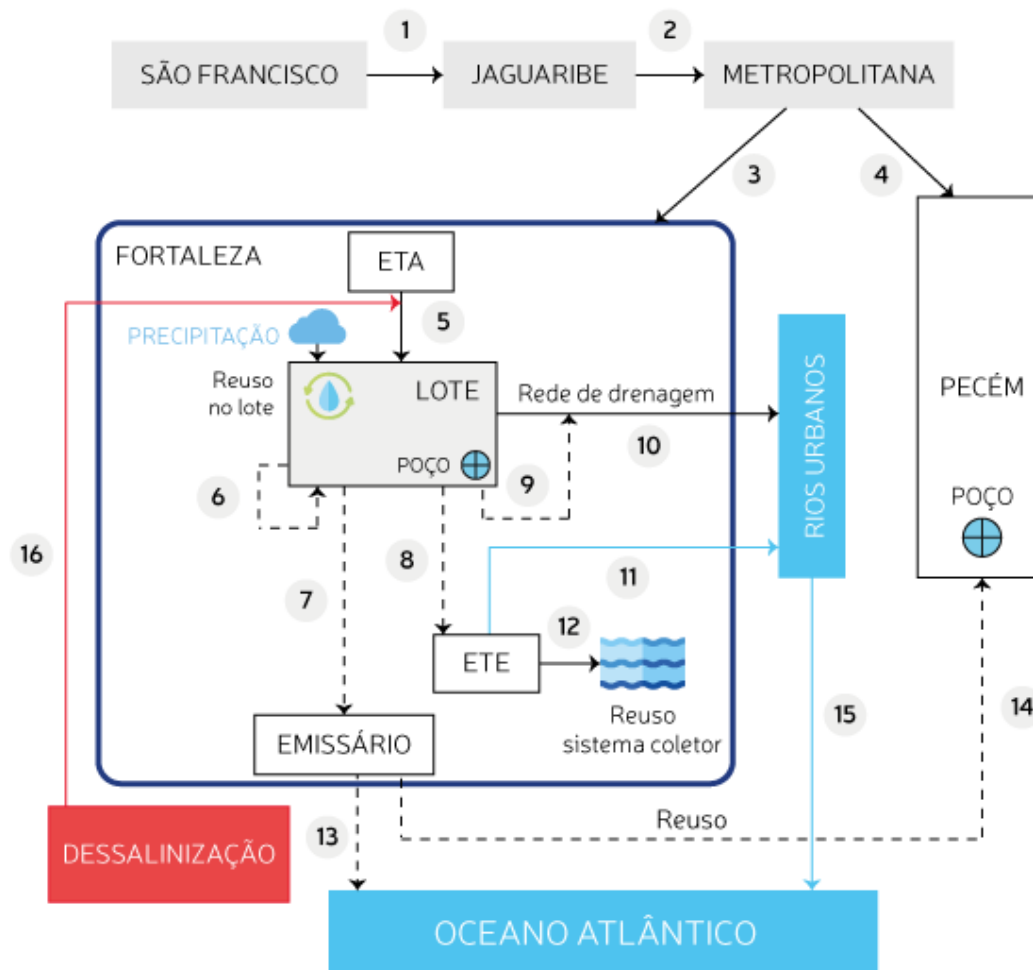
Bacia do rio
Jaguaribe (1995)



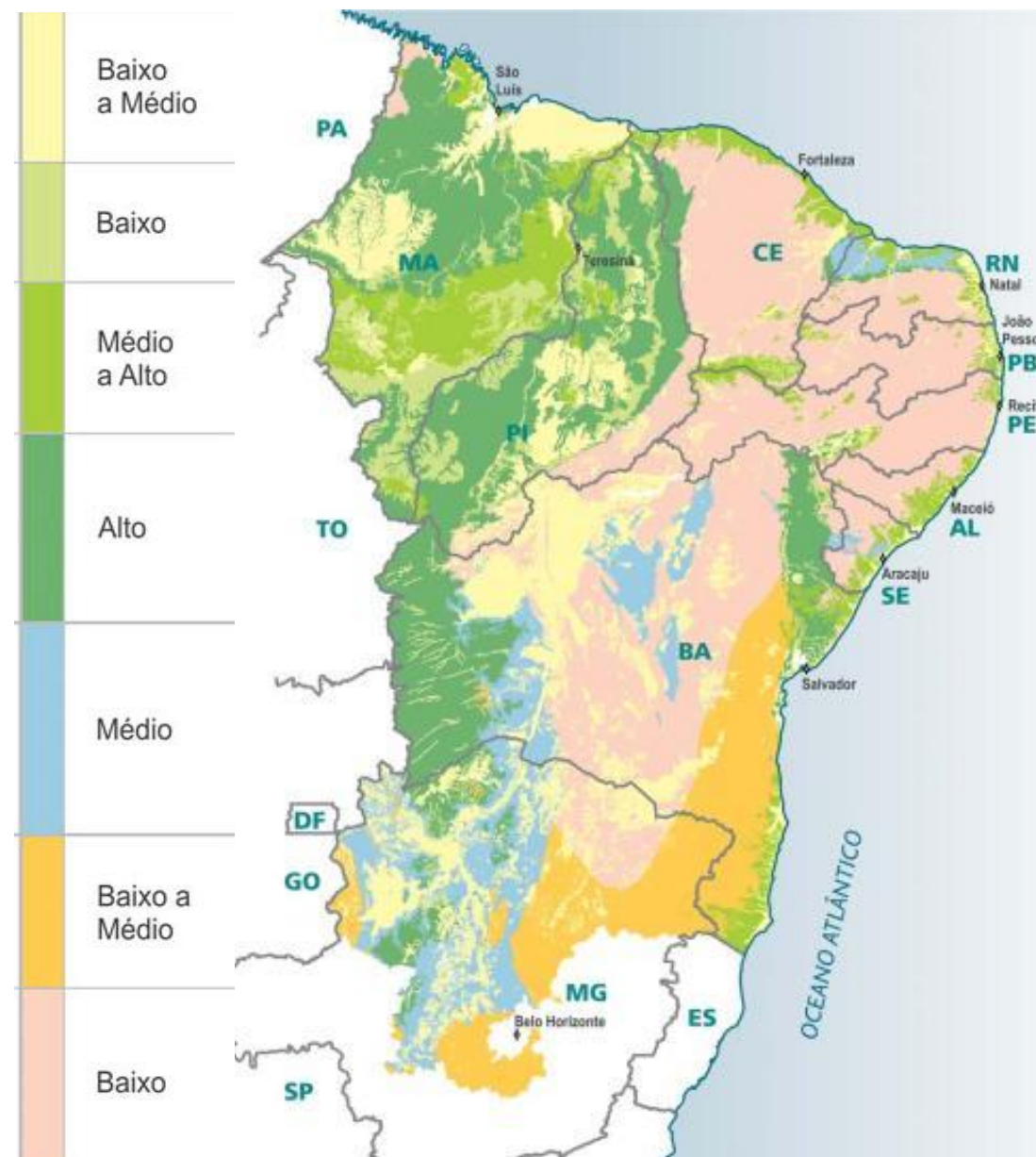
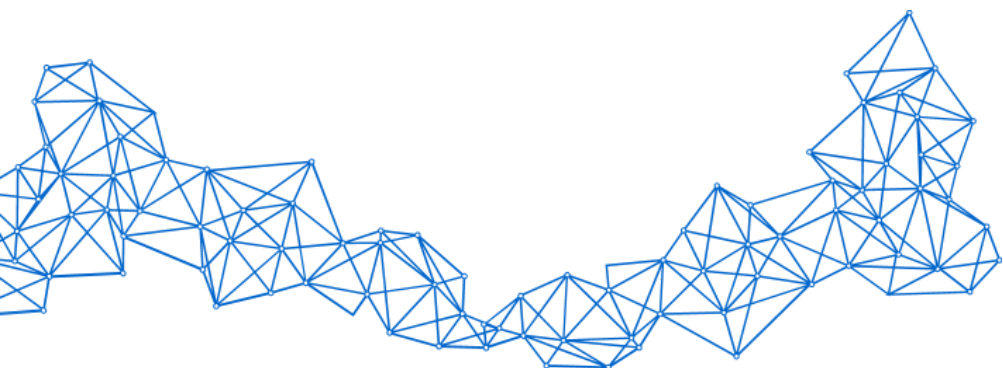
SISTEMA DE RECURSOS HÍDRICOS DO CEARÁ



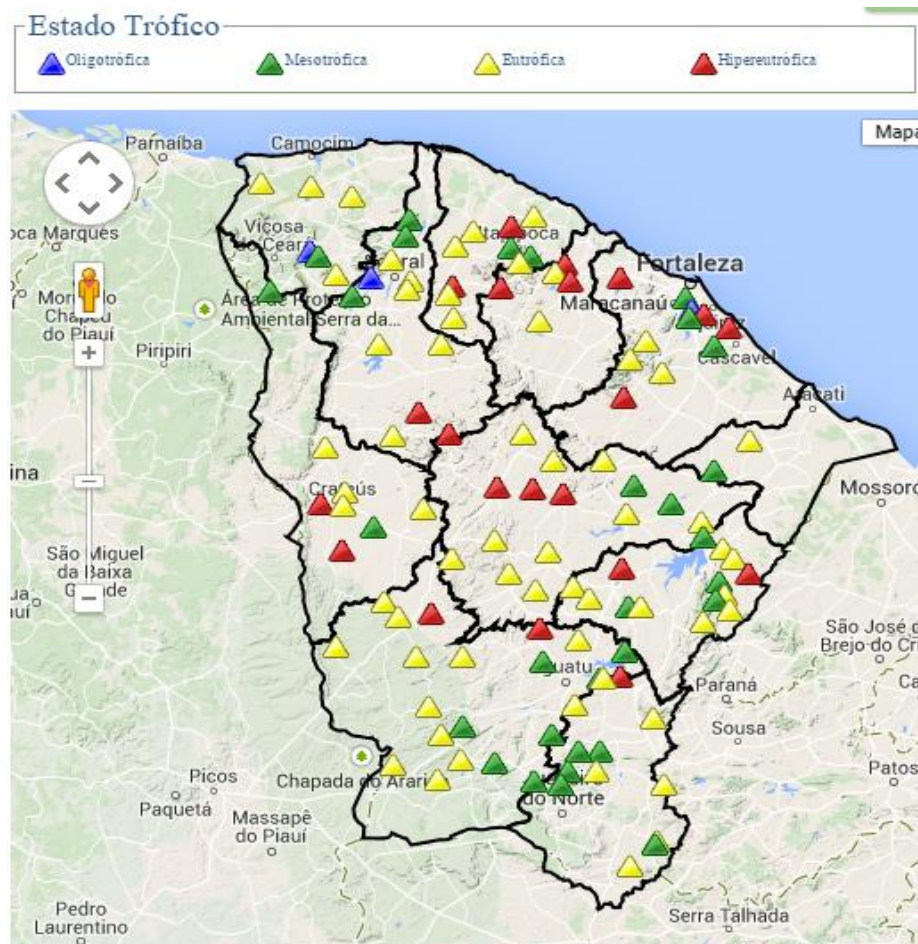
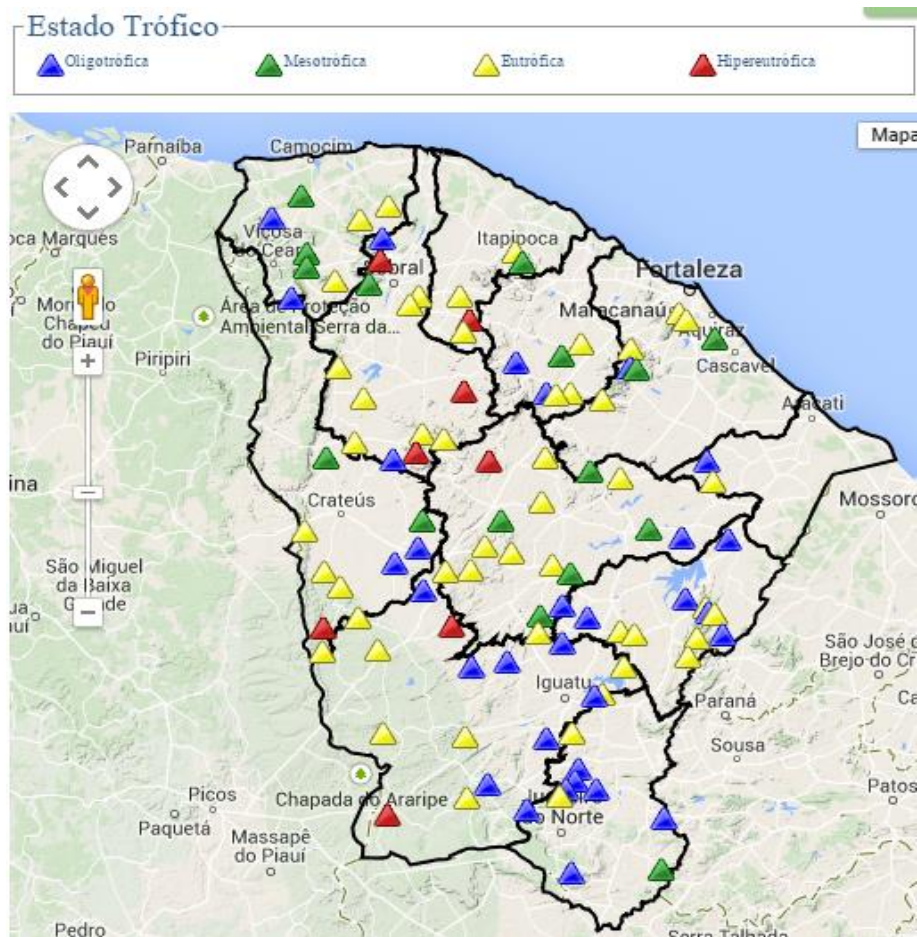
SEGURANÇA HÍDRICA E ÁGUAS URBANAS



POTENCIAL HIDROGEOLÓGICO

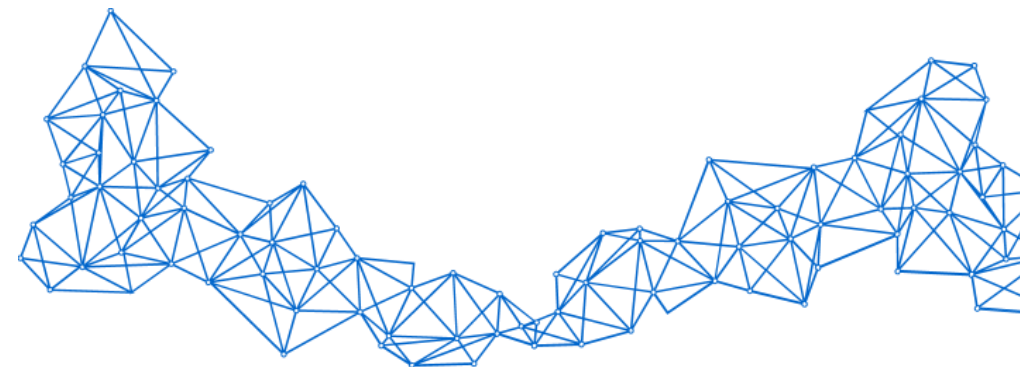
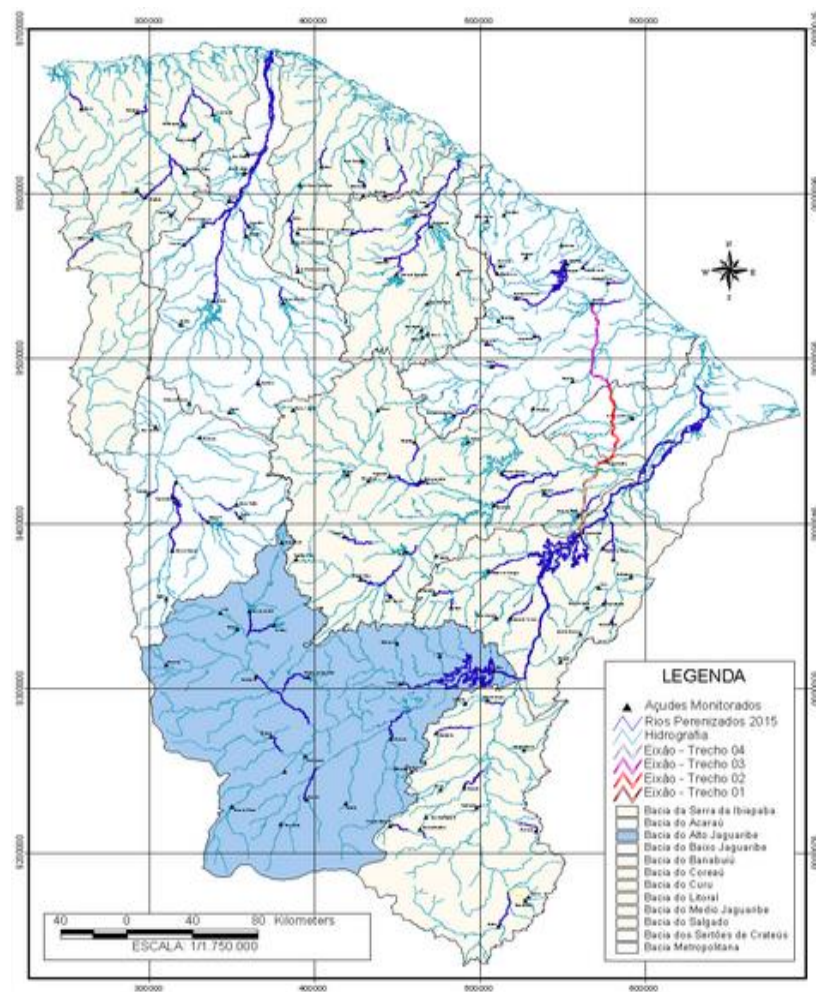


ESTUDO DE CASO: EUTROFIZAÇÃO EM RESERVATÓRIOS



$$t_d = \frac{V_L}{Q_o}$$

ANTROPOCENO



Área do Estado: 148.000 km²

Regiões hidrográficas do Estado: 12

Precipitação média: 806 milímetros

Evaporação média anual é de 2.000 a 2.500 mm/ano.

Pequenos Reservatórios: 28.000 (acima de 0,5 hectares de área)

Reservatórios Estratégicos: 153 reservatórios

Capacidade de Regularização (90% de Garantia): 130,21 m³/s

Capacidade de Armazenamento: 18,93 bilhões de m³

Comprimento de Canais: 408 km de canais

Adutoras: 1.784 km de adutoras

Comprimento de Rios Perenizados (2012): 2.582 km

População: 8,95 milhões de habitantes

Área Irrigada (com infraestrutura): 72.000 hectares

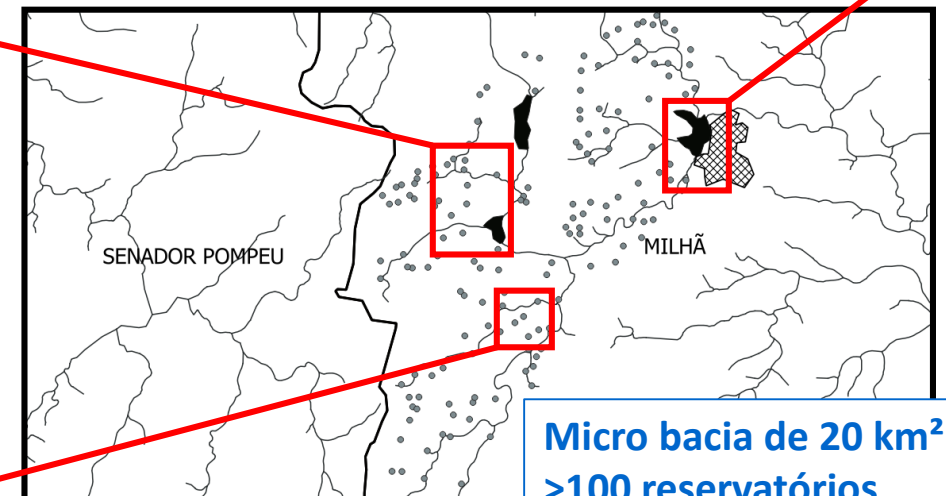
IMPACTOS DA SECA

ESTRATÉGIAS LOCAIS → IMPACTOS MULTI-ESCALA

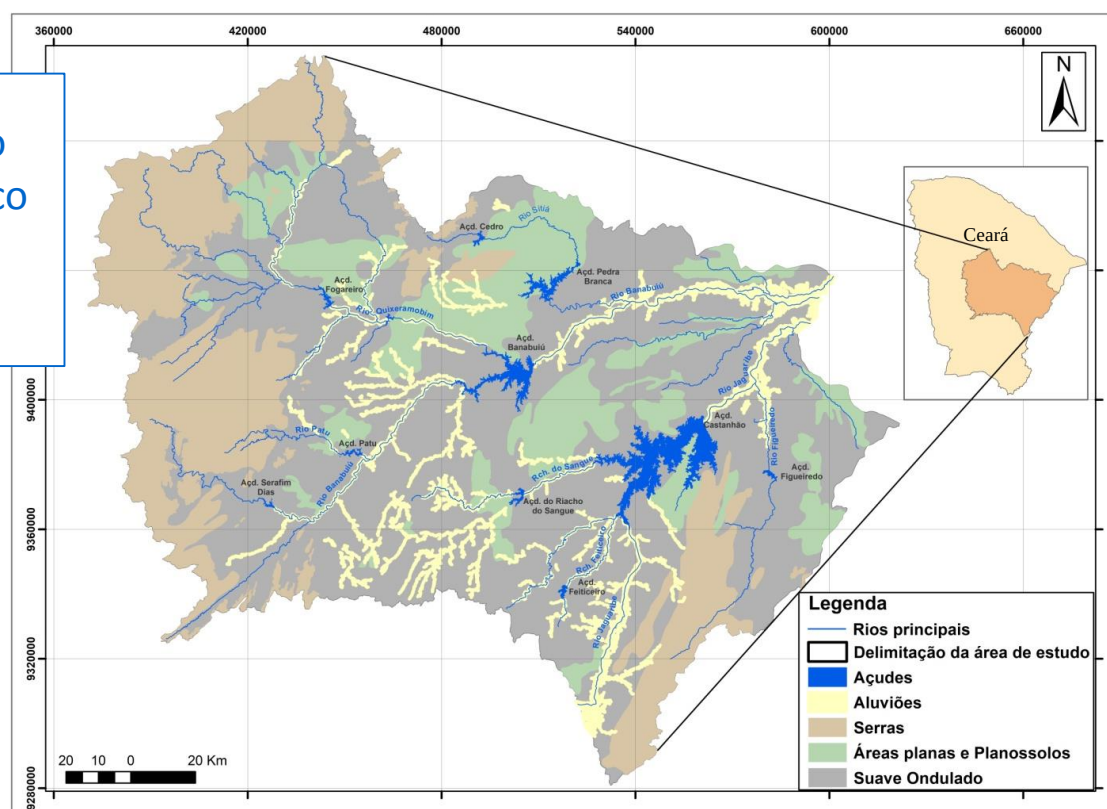
Aumento do
numero de
pequenos
reservatórios
multiuso

Crescimento forte da
pecuária de Leite
-> manutenção da
atividade produtiva,
“homem no campo”

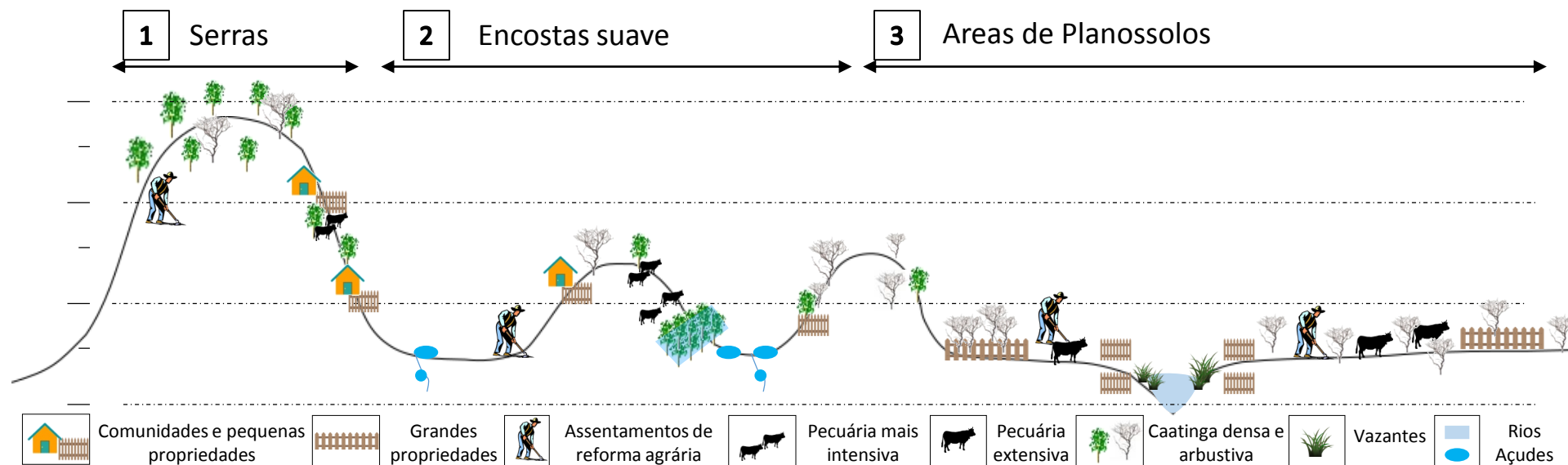
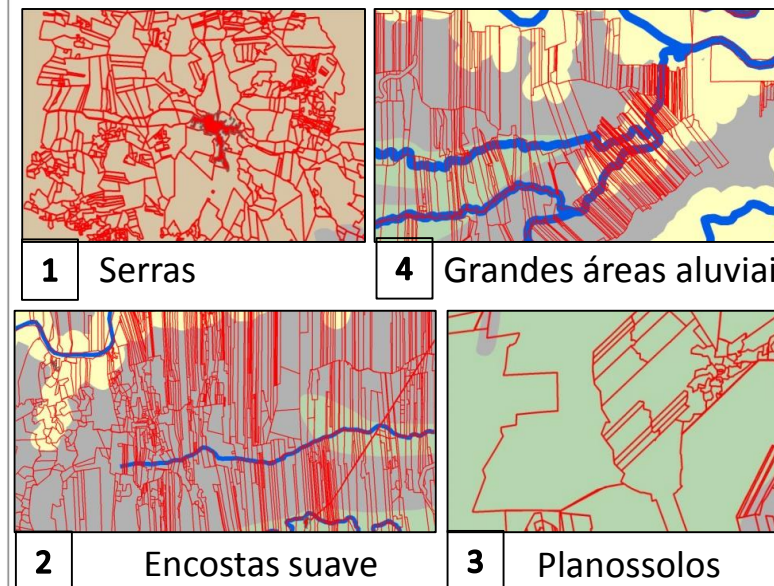
Açude de Milha seca
enquanto os açudes a
montante tem agua
-> impactos ate para os
grandes reservatórios
estratégicos

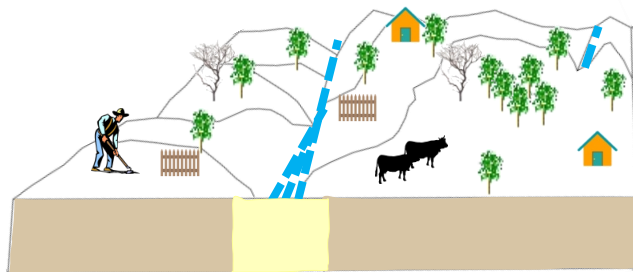


Zoneamento agroecológico
Realidade múltipla

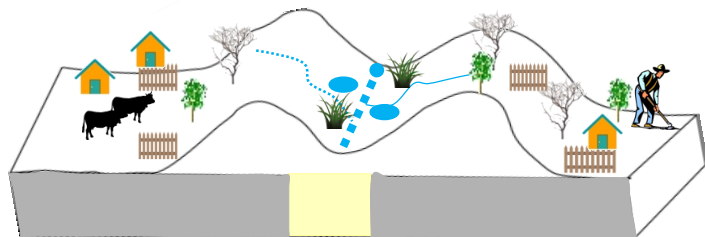


Malha Fundiária

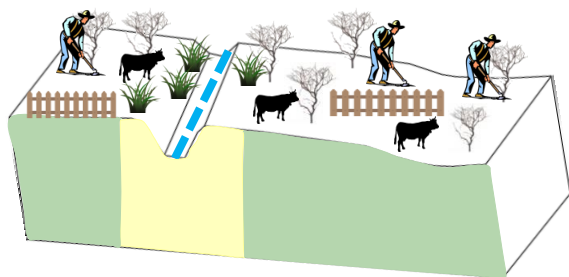




- Serras secas e dissecadas localizadas principalmente na borda oeste da bacia do Banabuiú e sul do médio Jaguaribe.
- Solos rasos e afloramentos rochosos em áreas com declives íngremes.
- Áreas de reserva legal de caatinga.
- Pecuária mais intensiva com pequenas propriedades em comunidades mais isoladas.



- Terrenos suavemente aplainados, com menor altitudes que as serras.
- Pequenas e médias propriedades.
- Grande ocorrência de pequenos açudes em função da drenagem.
- Predominância do cultivo de milho e feijão e pecuária mais intensiva.
- Solos rasos ou medianamente profundos com fertilidade natural variável.



- Terrenos com maior ocorrência de Planossolos que apresentam limitações físicas e químicas.
- Grandes propriedades de terra e assentamentos de reforma agrária nas áreas planas.
- Nas áreas aluvionares estendem-se pequenas propriedades.
- Predomínio da pecuária extensiva.



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Ecological Complexity

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ecocom



Challenges in integrating the concept of ecosystem services and values in landscape planning, management and decision making

R.S. de Groot^{a,*}, R. Alkemade^b, L. Braat^c, L. Hein^a, L. Willemsen^{a,d}

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^d Land Dynamics Group, Wageningen University, The Netherlands

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ABSTRACT

Despite the growing body of literature on ecosystem services, still many challenges remain to structurally integrate ecosystem services in landscape planning, management and design. This paper therefore aims to provide an overview of the challenges involved in applying ecosystem service assessment and valuation to environmental management and discuss some solutions to come to a comprehensive and practical framework.

First the issue of defining and classifying ecosystem services is discussed followed by approaches to quantify and value ecosystem services. The main part of the paper is focussed on the question how to analyze trade-offs involved in land cover and land use change, including spatial analysis and dynamic modelling tools. Issues of scale are addressed, as well as the question how to determine the total economic value of different management states.

Finally, developments and challenges regarding the inclusion of ecosystem services in integrative landscape planning and decision-making tools are discussed.

It is concluded that the ecosystem service approach and ecosystem service valuation efforts have changed the terms of discussion on nature conservation, natural resource management, and other areas of public policy. It is now widely recognized that nature conservation and conservation management strategies do not necessarily pose a trade-off between the “environment” and “development”. Investments in conservation, restoration and sustainable ecosystem use are increasingly seen as a “win-win situation” which generates substantial ecological, social and economic benefits.

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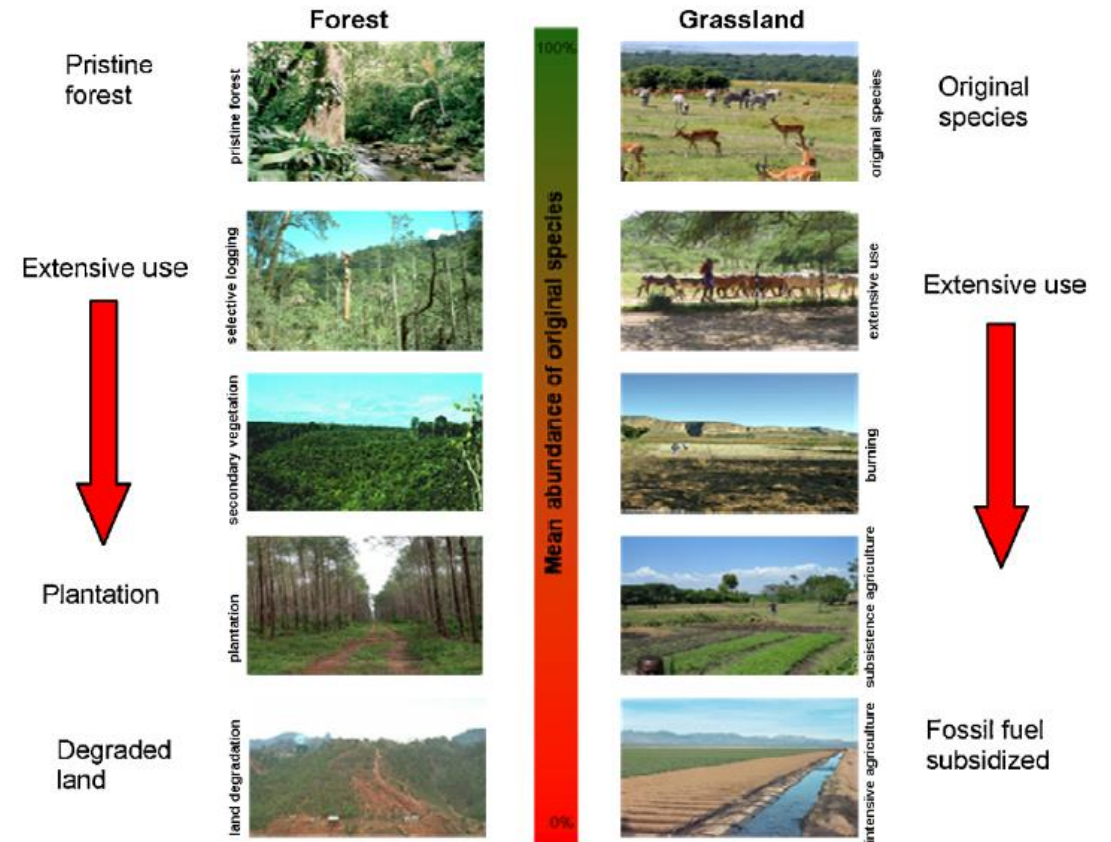


Fig. 3. Transition phases between natural and human-dominated (eco)systems. Source: CBD (2004) and MNP (2006).

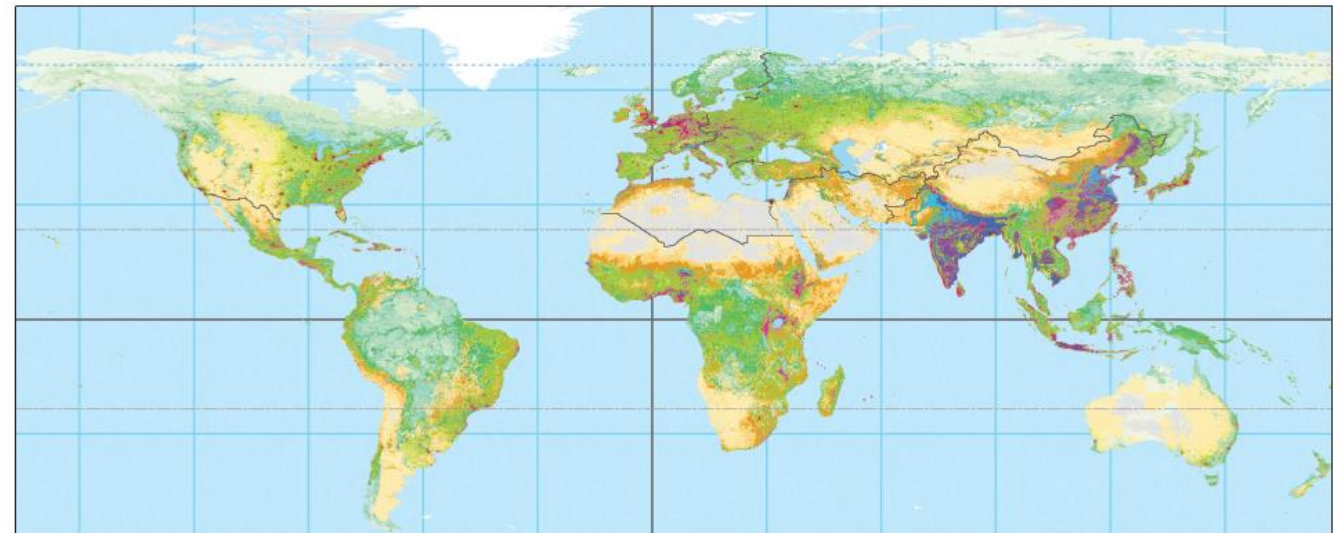
CONCEPTS AND QUESTIONS

Putting people in the map: anthropogenic biomes of the world

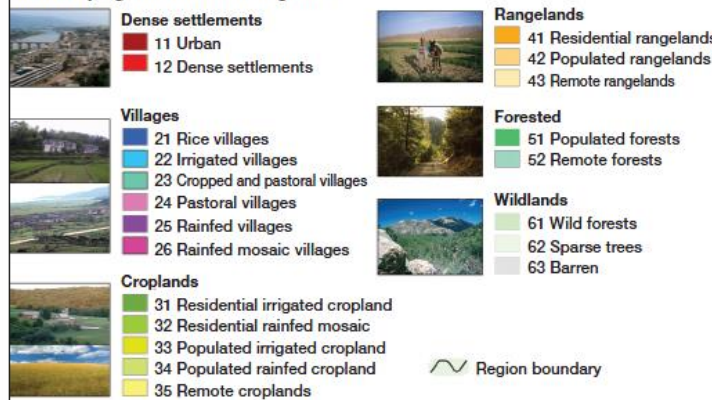
Erle C Ellis^{1*} and Navin Ramankutty²

Humans have fundamentally altered global patterns of biodiversity and ecosystem processes. Surprising existing systems for representing these global patterns, including biome classifications, either ignore humans altogether or simplify human influence into, at most, four categories. Here, we present the first characterization of terrestrial biomes based on global patterns of sustained, direct human interaction with ecosystems. Eighteen “anthropogenic biomes” were identified through empirical analysis of global population, land use, and land cover. More than 75% of Earth’s ice-free land showed evidence of alteration as result of human residence and land use, with less than a quarter remaining as wildlands, supporting just 11% of terrestrial net primary production. Anthropogenic biomes offer a new way forward by acknowledging human influence on global ecosystems and moving us toward models and investigations of the terrestrial biosphere that integrate human and ecological systems.

Front Ecol Environ 2008; 6(8): 439–447, doi: 10.1890/070062



Anthropogenic biomes: legend



Anthropogenic biomes: % world regions

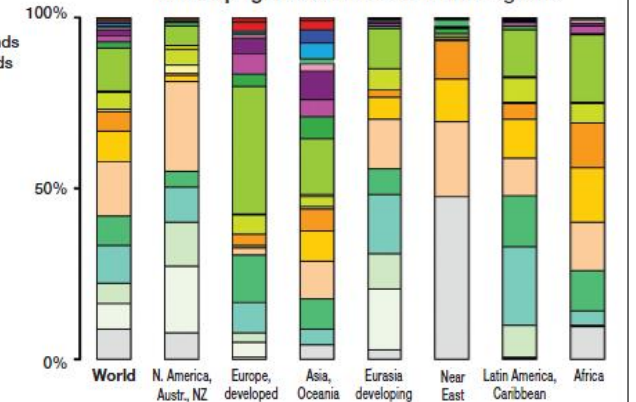


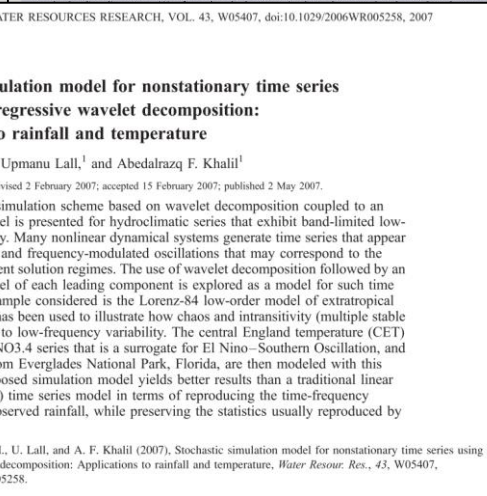
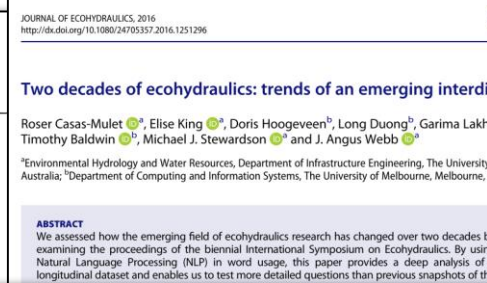
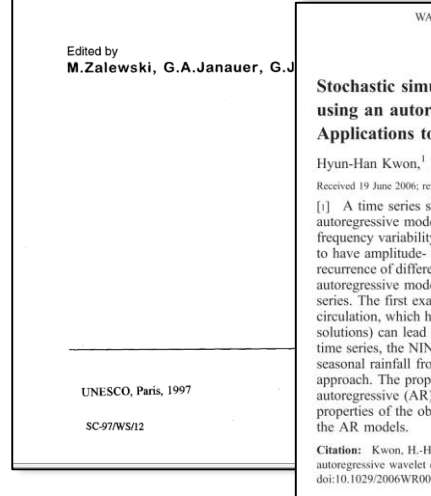
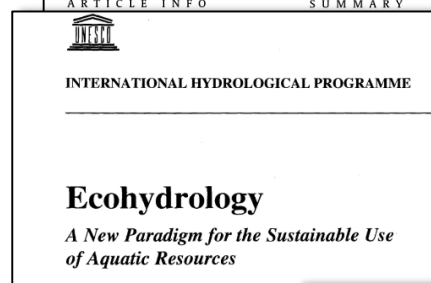
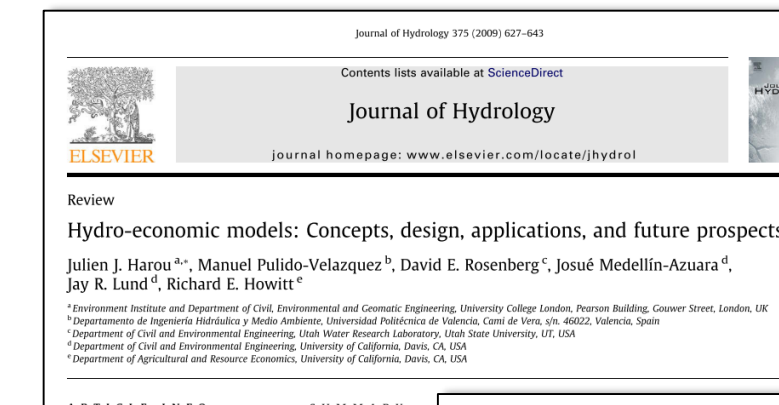
Figure 1. Anthropogenic biomes: world map and regional areas. Biomes are organized into groups (Table 1), and sorted in order of population density. Map scale = 1:160 000 000, Plate Carrée projection (geographic), 5 arc minute resolution (5' = 0.0833°). Regional biome areas are detailed in WebTable 3; WebPanel 2 provides interactive versions of this map.

TEORIA EM BUSCA DE REPRESENTAR A COMPLEXIDADE



TEORIA EM BUSCA DE REPRESENTAR A COMPLEXIDADE

- Gestão Integrada dos Recursos Hídricos
- Nexus
- Sociohidrologia
- Hidromorfologia
- Ecohidrologia
- Ecohidráulica
- Recursos Hídricos e Clima
- Caos em Hidrologia
- Incerteza dos modelos hidrológicos
- Não Estacionariedade: LUCC e Clima



GESTÃO INTEGRADA DOS RECURSOS HÍDRICOS

- O Propósito da gestão dos recursos hídricos é prover água de forma adequada para o ambiente natural e humano.
- *IWRM balanceia as visões e objetivos dos grupos políticos afetados, regiões geográficas, propósitos da gestão de águas, e proteção do suprimento para os sistemas naturais e ecossistemas*
- Integração
 - Componentes do ciclo hidrológico
 - Água com Ambientes Ecológico e Intersetorial
 - Desenvolvimento social e econômico

Niel Grig, 1996

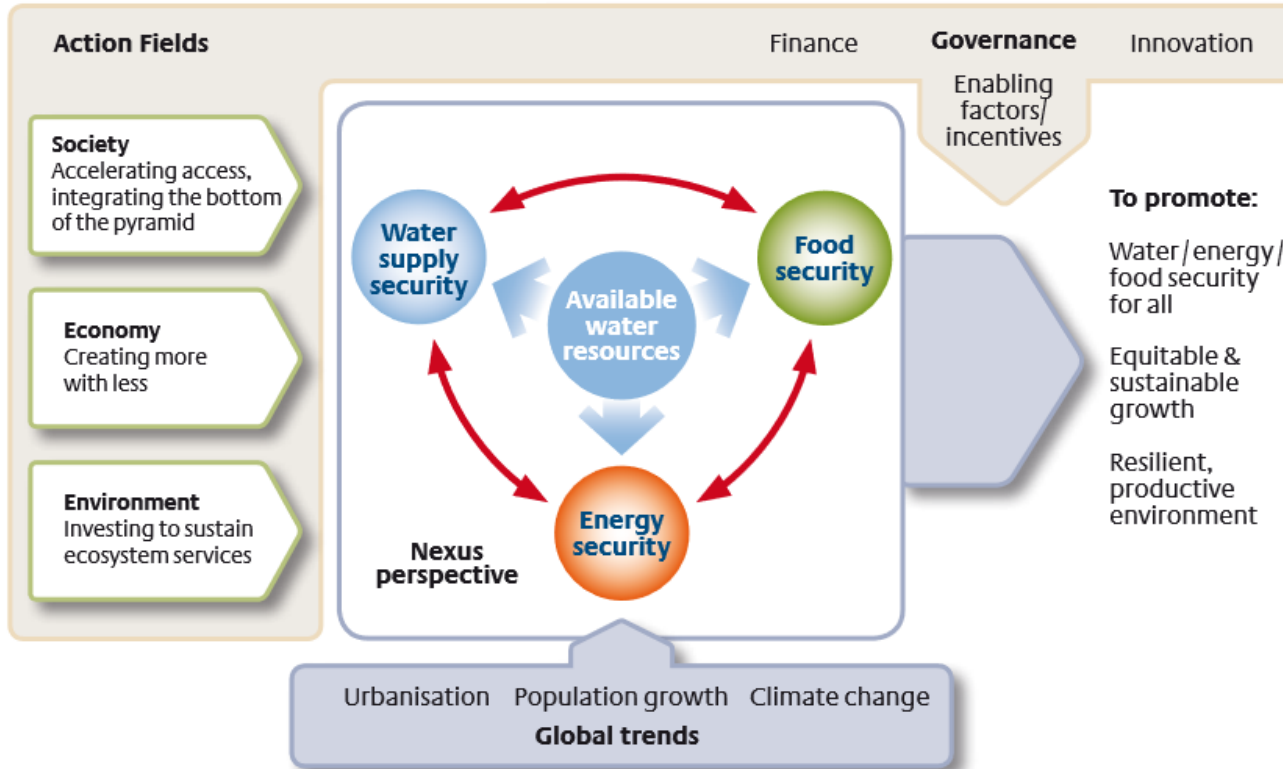
GESTÃO INTEGRADA (de que ?)

- Integração dos Componentes do Ciclo Hidrológico (aérea, superficial, subsuperficial, subterrâneo)
- Integração dos Aspectos quantitativos e qualitativos dos recursos hídricos
- Integração das esferas de poder público (municipal, estadual e federal)
- Integração das Políticas Públicas (Recursos Hídricos, Ambiental, Saneamento, Energia...)
- Integração das esferas econômicas do setor público e privado
- Integração das componentes do desenvolvimento (social, econômico e proteção ao meio ambiente)

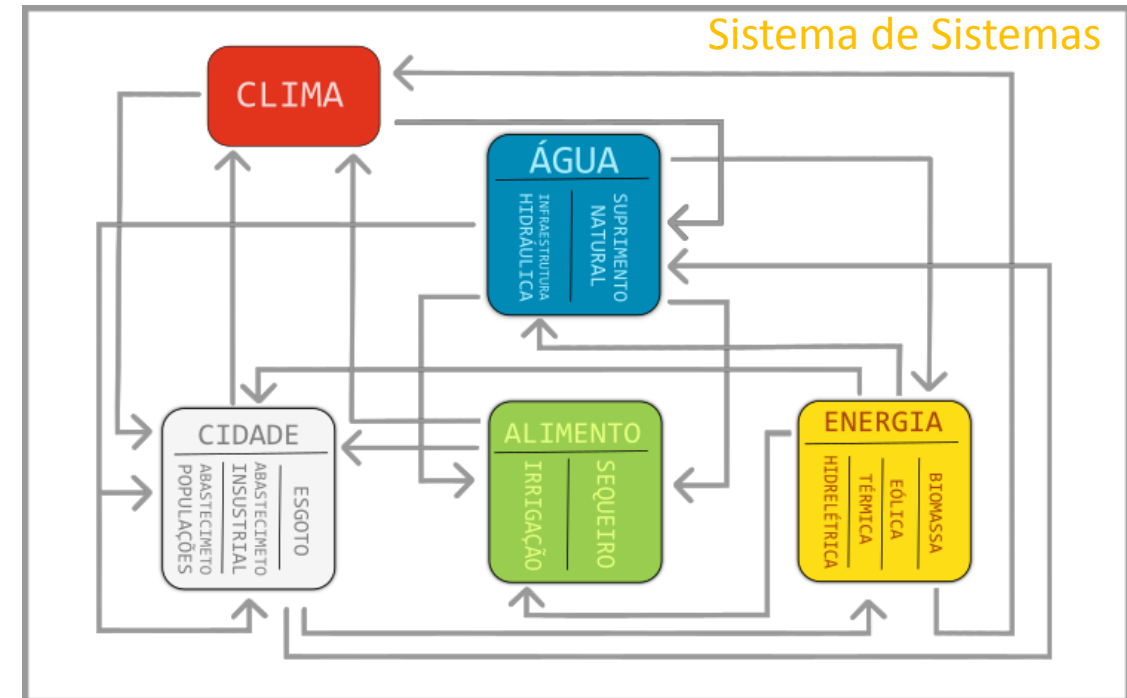
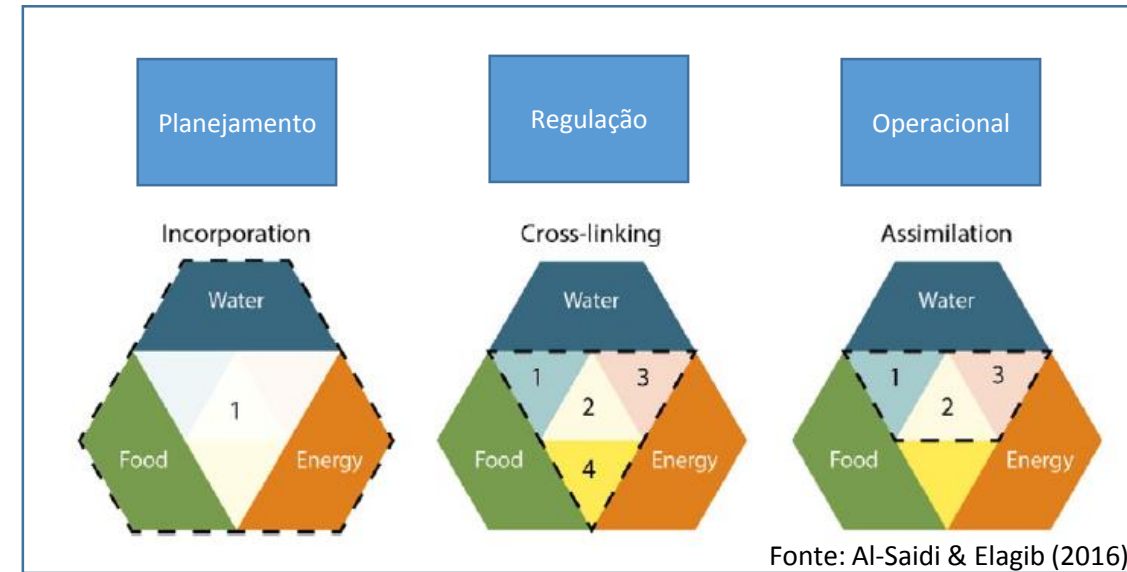
Gestão Integrada dos Recursos Hídricos (IWRM)

- Há um amplo consenso sobre a IWRM
 - Processo no qual promove-se a coordenação do desenvolvimento e gestão dos recursos hídricos, terra e recursos relacionados de forma a maximizar os resultados econômicos e bem estar social de forma equilibrada sem comprometer a vida dos ecossistemas
- Há críticas
 - Conceito vago
 - Não é possível integrar diversos tópicos e gestão em um propósito específico de forma simultânea
 - Falta de exemplos de sucesso de IWRM
 - Ênfase no processo sem clara definição de objetivos mensuráveis

NEXUS



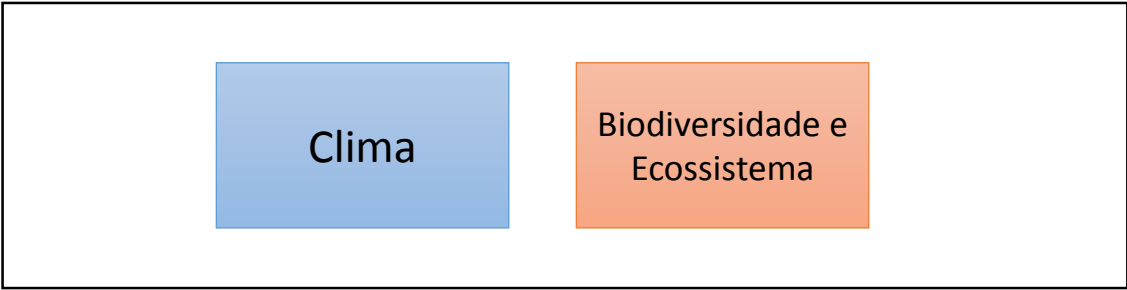
Bonn2011 Conference:
The Water, Energy and Food Security
Nexus – Solutions for a Green Economy*



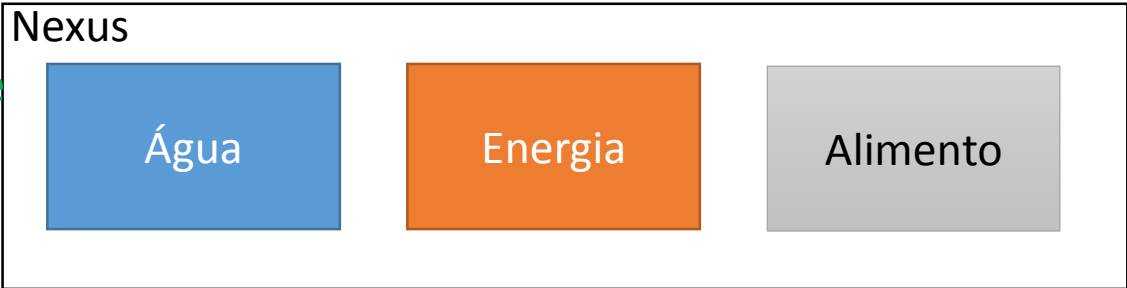
NEXUS SHAE-SF

NEXUS

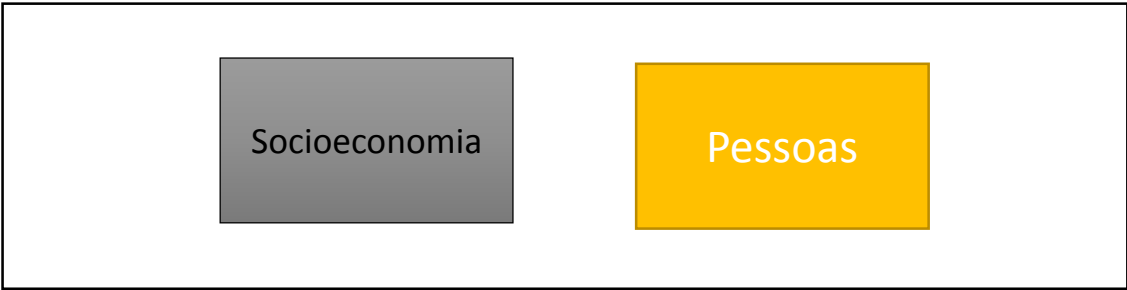
Natureza



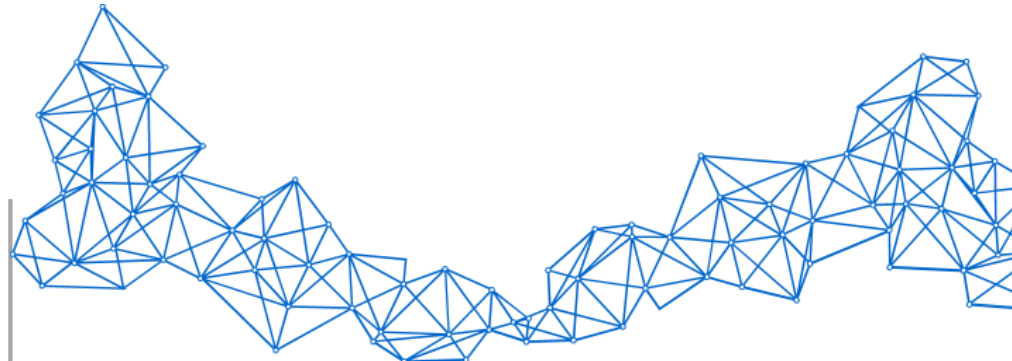
Recursos e
Serviços
Naturais



Sociedade



RESTRICÇÃO





Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](#)

Journal of Hydrology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jhydrol



Review

Hydro-economic models: Concepts, design, applications, and future prospects

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Systems analysis
Water value
Water demand

SUMMARY

Future water management will shift from building new water supply systems to better operating existing ones. The variation of water values in time and space will increasingly motivate efforts to address water scarcity and reduce water conflicts. Hydro-economic models represent spatially distributed water resource systems, infrastructure, management options and economic values in an integrated manner. In these tools water allocations and management are either driven by the economic value of water or economically evaluated to provide policy insights and reveal opportunities for better management. A central concept is that water demands are not fixed requirements but rather functions where quantities of water use at different times have varying total and marginal economic values. This paper reviews techniques to characterize the economic value of water use and include such values in mathematical models. We identify the key steps in model design and diverse problems, formulations, levels of integration, spatial and temporal scales, and solution techniques addressed and used by over 80 hydro-economic modeling efforts dating back 45-years from 23 countries. We list current limitations of the approach, suggest directions for future work, and recommend ways to improve policy relevance.

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Table 1
Some design choices, options, and implications for building a hydroeconomic model.

Options	Summary	Advantages	Limitations
Simulation/optimization			
Simulation	Time-marching, rule-based algorithms; Answers question: "what if?"	Conceptually simple; existing simulation models can be used, reproduces complexity and rules of real systems	Model only investigates simulated scenarios, requires trial and error to search for the best solution over wide feasibility region
Optimization	Maximizes/minimizes an objective subject to constraints; answers question: "what is best?"	Optimal solutions can recommend system improvements; reveals what areas of decision space promising for detailed simulation	Economic objectives require economic valuation of water uses; ideal solutions often assume perfect knowledge, central planning or complete institutional flexibility
Representing time			
Deterministic time series	Model inputs and decision variables are time series, historical or synthetically generated	Conceptually simple; easy to compare with time series of historical data or simulated results	Inputs may not represent future conditions; limited representation of hydrologic uncertainty (system performance obtained just for a single sequence of events)
Stochastic and multi-stage stochastic	Probability distributions of model parameters or inputs; use of multiple input sequences ('Monte-Carlo' when equiprobable sequences, or 'ensemble approach' if weighted	Accounts for stochasticity inherent in real systems	Probability distributions must be estimated, synthetic time series generated; presentation of results more difficult; difficulties reproducing persistence (Hurst phenomenon) and non-stationarity of time series
Dynamic optimization	Inter-temporal substitution represented	Considers the time varying aspect of value; helps address sustainability issues	Requires optimal control or dynamic programming
Submodel integration			
Modular	Components of final model developed and run separately	Easier to develop, calibrate and solve individual models	Each model must be updated and run separately; difficult to connect models with different scales
Holistic	All components housed in a single model	Easier to represent causal relationships and interdependencies and perform scenario analyses	Must solve all models at once; increased complexity of holistic model requires simpler model components

* If optimized time-horizon is a single time period, the model can be considered a simulation model that uses an optimization computational engine.

Optimization of California's Water Supply System: Results and Insights

Marion W. Jenkins¹; Jay R. Lund²; Richard E. Howitt³; Andrew J. Draper⁴; Siwa M. Msangi⁵; Stacy K. Tanaka⁶; Randall S. Ritzema⁷; and Guilherme F. Marques⁸

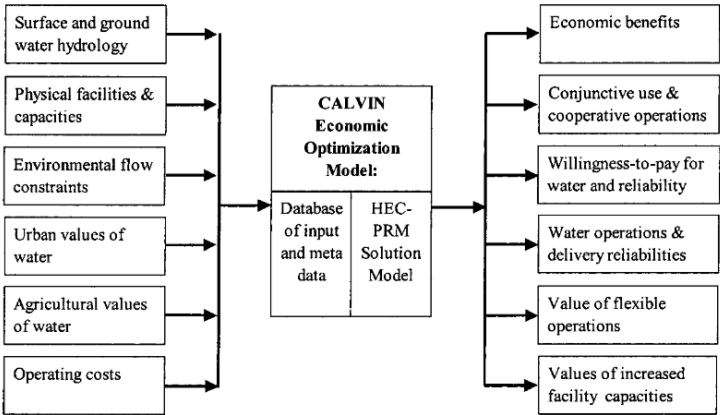


Fig. 3. Data flow for CALVIN

SOCIOHIDROLOGIA

HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES

Hydrol. Process. **26**, 1270–1276 (2012)

Published online 24 January 2012 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com). DOI: 10.1002/hyp.8426

INVITED COMMENTARY



Socio-hydrology: A new science of people and water

Murugesu Sivapalan,^{1,2*}
Hubert H. G. Savenije³ and
Günter Blöschl⁴

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E-mail: sivapala@illinois.edu

Humans have changed the way the world works. Now they have to change the way they think about it, too. The Economist, May 26, 2011

THE COUPLED HUMAN-WATER SYSTEM

Dateline November 2010, Murrumbidgee River Basin, Australia: Irrigators are up in arms over proposed government plans to cut their water allocations and return flows back to the basin's rivers to support the environment and restore lost biodiversity. *The Australian* of November 04, 2010 reported on the community backlash, including the resort to 'book burning' to highlight their plight. Community backlash and 'book burning' notwithstanding, the reality is that this conflict had been brewing for decades. Now, wind back the clock 100 years to the early 20th century. Up until 1900, there were virtually no dams and almost no irrigation on the Murrumbidgee. With demand for food for a growing population and the possibility of generating agricultural exports, irrigated farming expanded along the river corridor from 1920 onwards. By 1940, abstractions during low flows had increased to 50% of the natural flow and by 1950 to almost 100% (Roderick, 2011). Over this period, the predominant direction of farming development, construction of water 'assets' (e.g. dams and weirs) as well as water extractions was upstream. However, things came to a head in the 1980s, with increasing deterioration of river health and the recognition that previous farming practices were no longer sustainable. Protection of the environment was on the political agenda, along with a commitment not only to return water to rivers to nurse them back to health, but also to help agricultural industries to rise up to the challenge of a drier future. After 30 years of seemingly ongoing crisis conditions, a protracted drought and a looming federal election precipitated government action in early 2007. The result was a concerted plan by government to buy back water rights of willing farmers and build new assets aimed at increasing water use efficiency and protecting the environment [Murray-Darling Basin Authority (MDBA), 2010]. For example, there has been an increasing trend for upstream rice growers to sell back their annual allocations, and for downstream horticulturalists to purchase fresh allocations during low allocation seasons. This meant that, from 2000 onwards, water abstractions as well as water assets that had been migrating upstream in the early 20th century are now beginning to move back downstream (Figure 1). Whereas the sole customer

Hydrologists are not exceptions to this. In traditional hydrology, human-induced water resources management activities are prescribed as external forcings in the water cycle dynamics, under the assumption of stationarity (Milly *et al.*, 2008; Peel and Blöschl, 2011). In socio-hydrology, humans and their actions are considered part and parcel of water cycle dynamics, and the aim is to predict the dynamics of both.

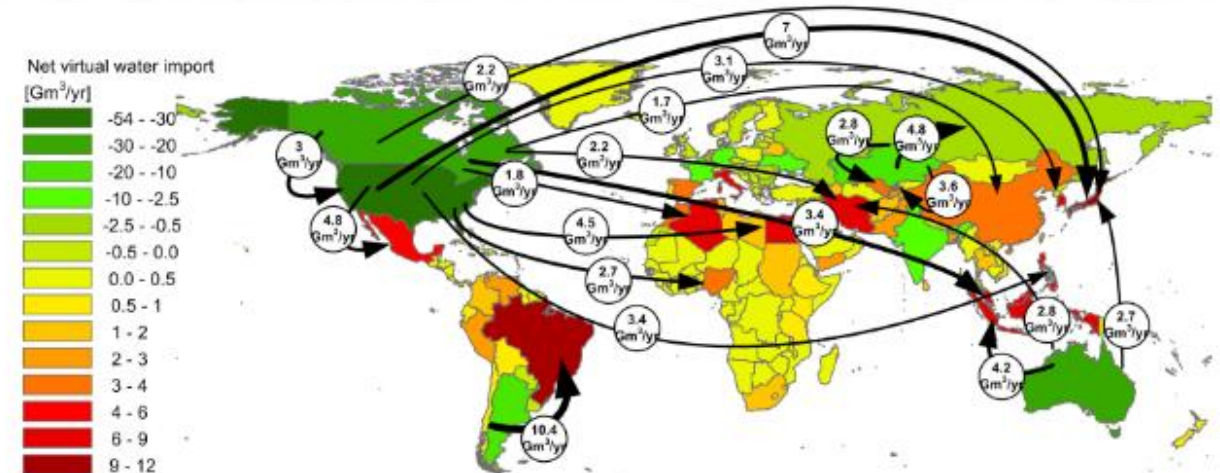


Figure 3. National virtual water balances and net virtual water flows related to trade in wheat products in the period 1996–2005. Only the largest net flows (>2Gm³/year) are shown (taken from Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2010)

“Future trajectories of co-evolution of coupled human-water systems”

SOCIOHIDROLOGIA

Abordagens Sociohidrológicas:

- Sociohidrologia Histórica
- Sociohidrologia Comparativa
- Processos Sociohidrológico

Socio-hydrology: Use-inspired water sustainability science for the Anthropocene

M. Sivapalan^{1,2}, M. Konar³, V. Srinivasan³, A. Chhatre³, A. Wutich⁴, C. A. Scott⁵, J. L. Wescoat⁶, and I. Rodriguez-Iturbe⁷

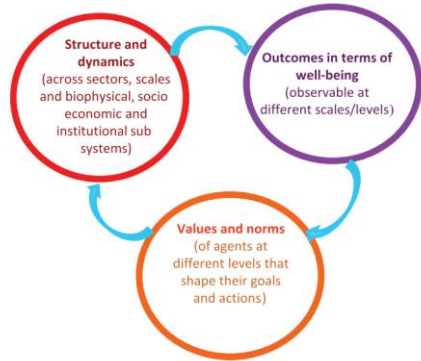


Figure 1. Organizational framework for socio-hydrology.

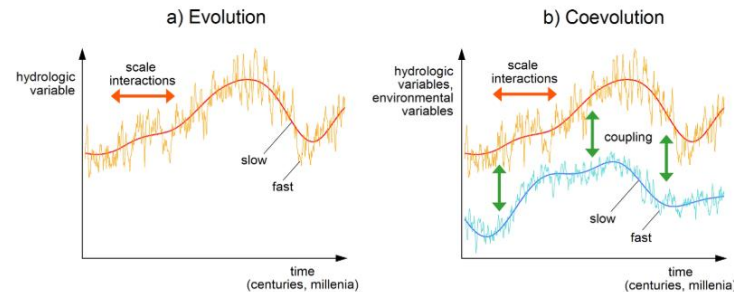


Figure 2. Schematic of (a) evolution, i.e., the interactions of slow and fast processes, and (b) coevolution, the interaction of a number of slow processes in addition to fast processes. (a) Redrawn from Perdigão and Blöschl [2014].

HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES

Hydrol. Process. **26**, 1270–1276 (2012)

Published online 24 January 2012 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com). DOI: 10.1002/hyp.8426

INVITED COMMENTARY

HP
TODAY

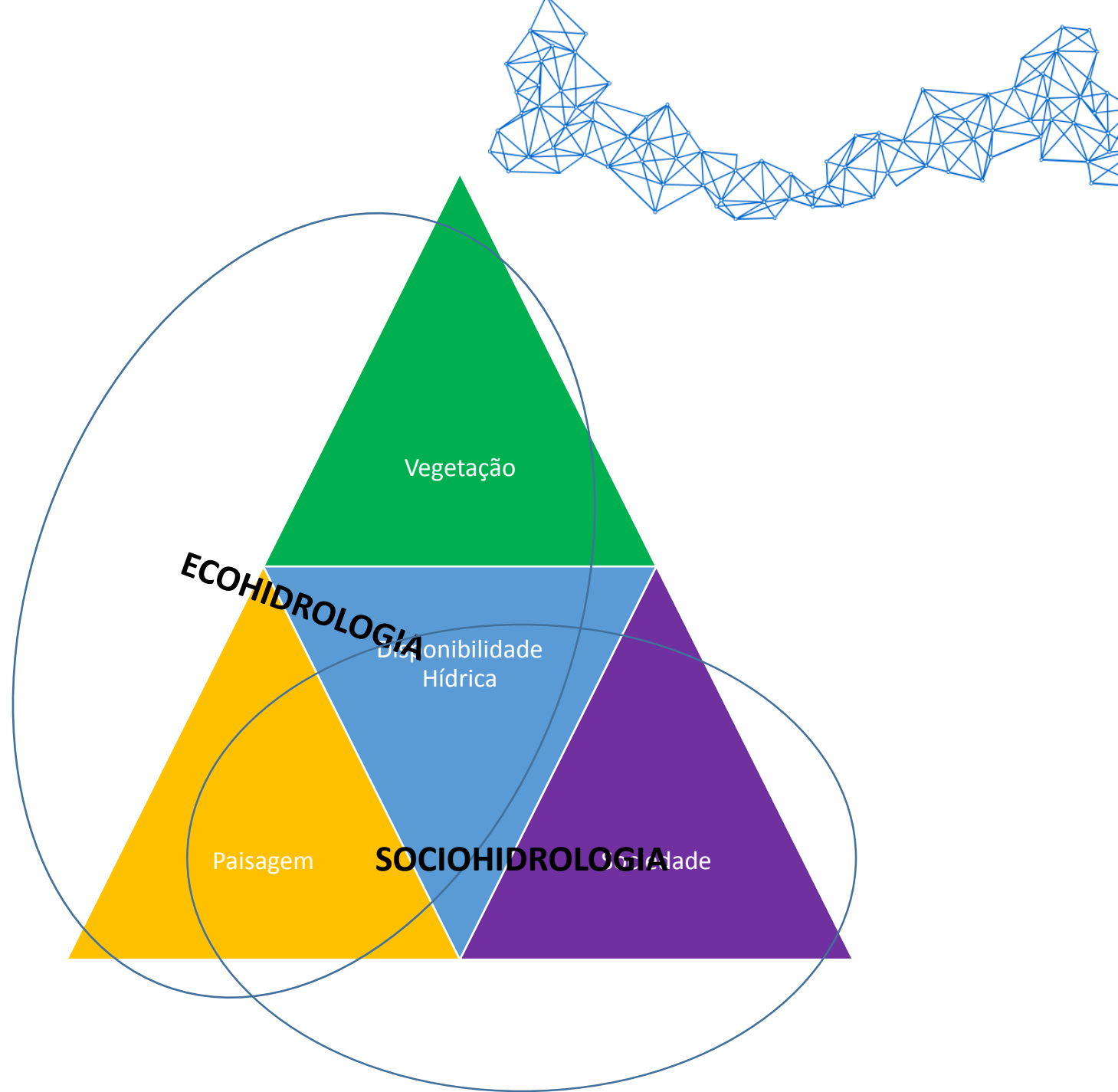
Socio-hydrology: A new science of people and water

Conceitos da Sociohidrologia:

- Coevolução do sistema humano-hidrológico
- Humanos e suas ações são considerados parte e parcela da dinâmica do ciclo da água, o objetivo é prever a dinâmica de ambos.
- Quantitativa
- Predizer trajetórias futuras dos sistema humano-hidrológico
- Lei das relações de fluxos-gradientes na natureza e sociedade
- Co-evolução e retroalimentação em múltiplas escalas
- Relevância e utilizada dos conceitos de otimalidade e função objetivo

SOCIOHIDROLOGIA E ECOHIDROLOGIA

- Existe uma similaridade considerável entre a nova ciência proposta da **sociohidrologia** e o campo agora estabelecido da **ecohidrologia**.
- A **eco-hidrologia** explora a co-evolução e auto-organização da vegetação na paisagem em relação à disponibilidade de água (Eagleson, 1982, 2002; Rodriguez-Iturbe, 2000; Berry et al., 2005).
- A **sociohidrologia**, por outro lado, explora a co-evolução e auto-organização das pessoas na paisagem, também com relação à disponibilidade de água.
- Acreditamos que a sociohidrologia deve aprender muito com o sucesso da eco-hidrologia, que adicionou nova vida à hidrologia através da introdução dos conceitos de **co-evolução e otimização** que antes eram estranhos à hidrologia.



ECOHIDROLOGIA



INTERNATIONAL HYDROLOGICAL PROGRAMME



Ecohydrology

A New Paradigm for the Sustainable Use of Aquatic Resources

Edited by
M.Zalewski, G.A.Janauer, G.Jolánkai



*Conceptual Background,
Working Hypothesis,
Rationale and Scientific
Guidelines for the
Implementation of the
IHP-V Projects 2.3/2.4*

UNESCO, Paris, 1997

SC-97/WS/12

- Ao longo dos anos 90, foi cada vez mais reconhecido que o sistema de água é parte integrante do ecossistema.
- Isso levou à **ecohidrologia** como um novo campo da ciência e ao entendimento de que o sistema de recursos hídricos é resultado da **co-evolução da paisagem, da hidrologia, da ecologia e da sociedade**.

Box 3. The effect of the development of the shoreline ecotone zones of Tanganyika Lake on the biogeochemical processes and fish protein production (Zalewski 1995c).

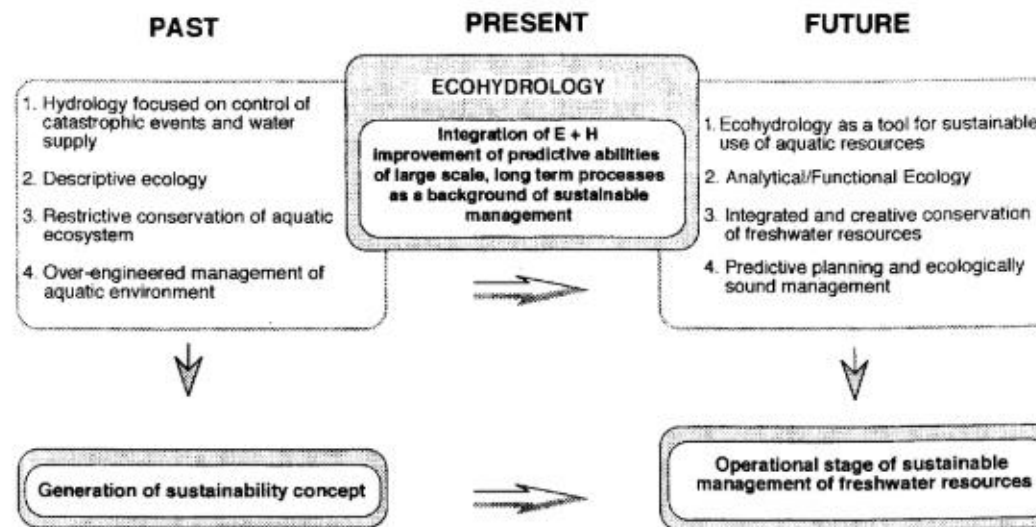
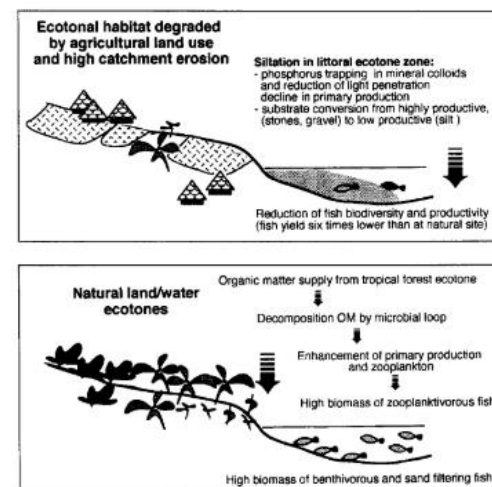


Fig. 2. Ecohydrology as a factor accelerating the transition from descriptive ecology, restrictive conservation and over-engineered management of aquatic ecosystems to analytical/functional ecology, and creative management and conservation of fresh waters (Zalewski 1996).

ECOHIDROLOGIA



Advances in Water Resources 24 (2001) 695–705

Advances in
Water Resources

www.elsevier.com/locate/advwatres

Plants in water-controlled ecosystems: active role in hydrologic processes and response to water stress

I. Scope and general outline

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^a Princeton Environmental Institute and Graduate Program in Environmental Engineering and Water Resources, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA

^b Dipartimento di Idraulica Trasporti e Infrastrutture Civili, Politecnico di Torino, Corso Duca degli Abruzzi, 24, 10129 Torino, Italy

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Abstract

This series of four papers studies the complex dynamics of water-controlled ecosystems from the hydro-ecological point of view [e.g., I. Rodriguez-Iturbe, Water Resour. Res. 36 (1) (2000) 3–9]. After this general outline, the role of climate, soil, and vegetation is modeled in Part II [F. Laio, A. Porporato, L. Ridolfi, I. Rodriguez-Iturbe, Adv. Water Res. 24 (7) (2001) 707–723] to investigate the probabilistic structure of soil moisture dynamics and the water balance. Particular attention is given to the impact of timing and amount of rainfall, plant physiology, and soil properties. From the statistical characterization of the crossing properties of arbitrary levels of soil moisture, Part III develops an expression for vegetation water stress [A. Porporato, F. Laio, L. Ridolfi, I. Rodriguez-Iturbe, Adv. Water Res. 24 (7) (2001) 725–744]. This measure of stress is then employed to quantify the response of plants to soil moisture deficit as well as to infer plant suitability to given environmental conditions and understand some of the reasons for possible coexistence of different species. Detailed applications of these concepts are developed in Part IV [F. Laio, A. Porporato, C.P. Fernandez-Illescas, I. Rodriguez-Iturbe, Adv. Water Res. 24 (7) (2001) 745–762], where we investigate the dynamics of three different water-controlled ecosystems. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Soil moisture; Vegetation; Ecohydrology; Stochastic processes; Hydrology; Water stress; Water balance; Savannas; Grasslands; Crossing analysis

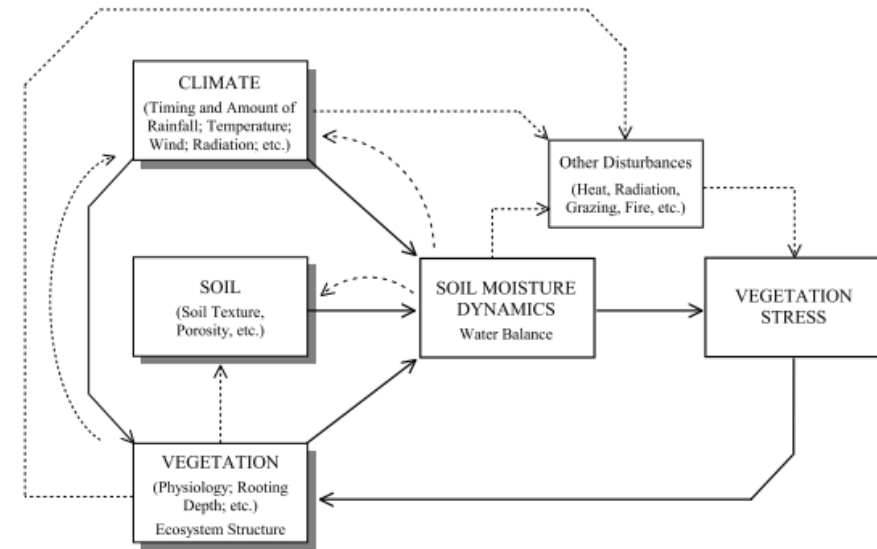
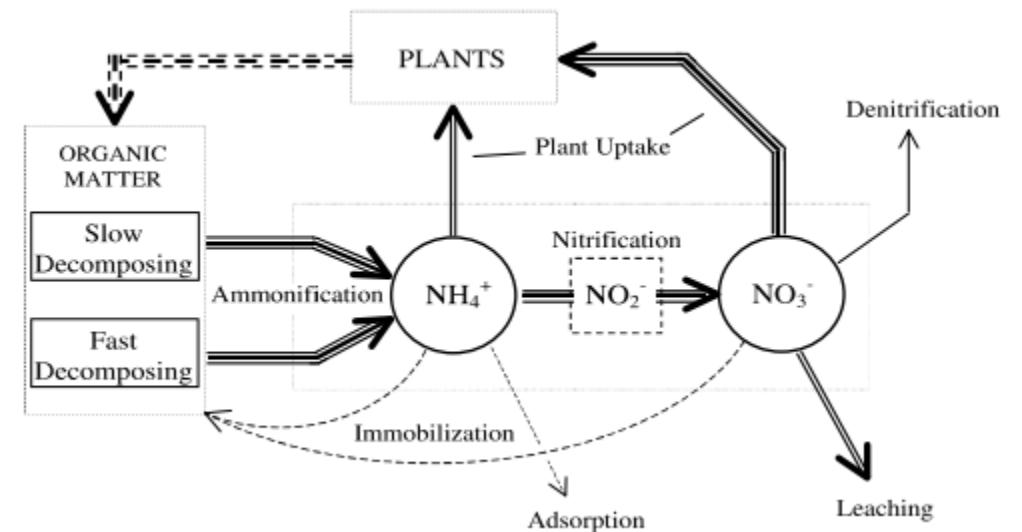
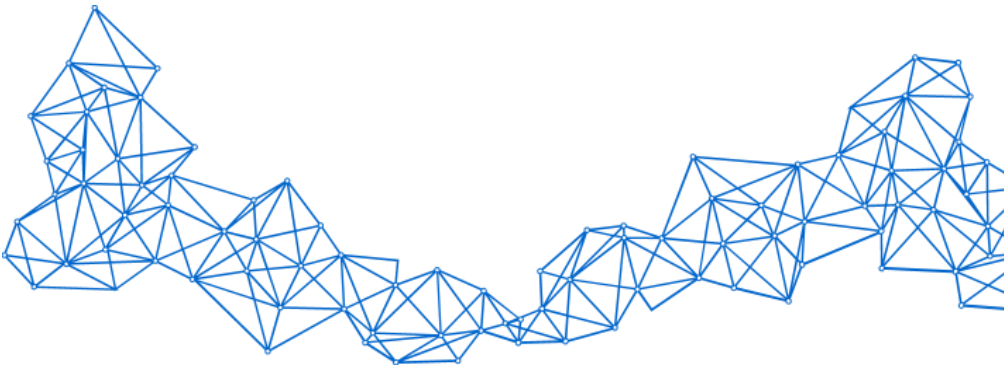


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the climate, soil, and vegetation system. Solid arrows refer to the main dynamic links, dotted lines to secondary interactions not directly considered here.

Umidade do Solo e Ciclo de Nutrientes



INCERTEZA NA MODELAGEM HIDROLÓGICA



Scientific Procedures Applied to the Planning, Design and Management of Water Resources Systems (Proceedings of the Hamburg Symposium, August 1983). IAHS Publ. no. 147.

Hydrological uncertainty in water management context

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National Hydrology Research Institute,
Department of the Environment, Ottawa, Ontario,
Canada K1A 0E7

ABSTRACT The study of hydrological uncertainties, and eventually the development of the discipline referred to as stochastic hydrology, has been stimulated by water management's need to make decisions involving stochastic hydrological variables. It is pointed out that, in spite of this initial stimulus, stochastic hydrology is a discipline essentially independent of water management, and that a hydrological uncertainty need not necessarily be important for a water management decision and may carry a different degree of importance in different contexts. Examples of the lack of sensitivity of various water management problems to various aspects of stochastic hydrological models are shown and the suggestion is made that, for many if not most water management decisions involving stochastic hydrological variables, rough estimates of their two or three lowest-order statistical moments provide all the information of any consequence.

Effective and efficient algorithm for multiobjective optimization of hydrologic models

Jasper A. Vrugt,¹ Hoshin V. Gupta,² Luis A. Bastidas,³ Willem Bouten,¹ and Soroosh Sorooshian²

Received 2 October 2002; accepted 7 April 2003; published 20 August 2003.

[1] Practical experience with the calibration of hydrologic models suggests that any single-objective function, no matter how carefully chosen, is often inadequate to properly measure all of the characteristics of the observed data deemed to be important. One strategy to circumvent this problem is to define several optimization criteria (objective functions) that measure different (complementary) aspects of the system behavior and to use multicriteria optimization to identify the set of nondominated, efficient, or Pareto optimal solutions. In this paper, we present an efficient and effective Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampler, entitled the Multiobjective Shuffled Complex Evolution Metropolis (MOSCEM) algorithm, which is capable of solving the multiobjective optimization problem for hydrologic models. MOSCEM is an improvement over the Shuffled Complex Evolution Metropolis (SCEM-UA) global optimization algorithm, using the concept of Pareto dominance (rather than direct single-objective function evaluation) to evolve the initial population of points toward a set of solutions stemming from a stable distribution (Pareto set). The efficacy of the MOSCEM-UA algorithm is compared with the original MOCOM-UA algorithm for three hydrologic modeling case studies of increasing complexity. **INDEX TERMS:** 1869 Hydrology: Stochastic processes; 1836 Hydrology: Hydrologic budget (1655); 1894 Hydrology: Instruments and techniques; **KEYWORDS:** parameter optimization, Markov chain Monte Carlo, multicriteria calibration, population diversity, Pareto ranking, hydrologic models

Citation: Vrugt, J. A., H. V. Gupta, L. A. Bastidas, W. Bouten, and S. Sorooshian, Effective and efficient algorithm for multiobjective optimization of hydrologic models, *Water Resour. Res.*, 39(8), 1214, doi:10.1029/2002WR001746, 2003.

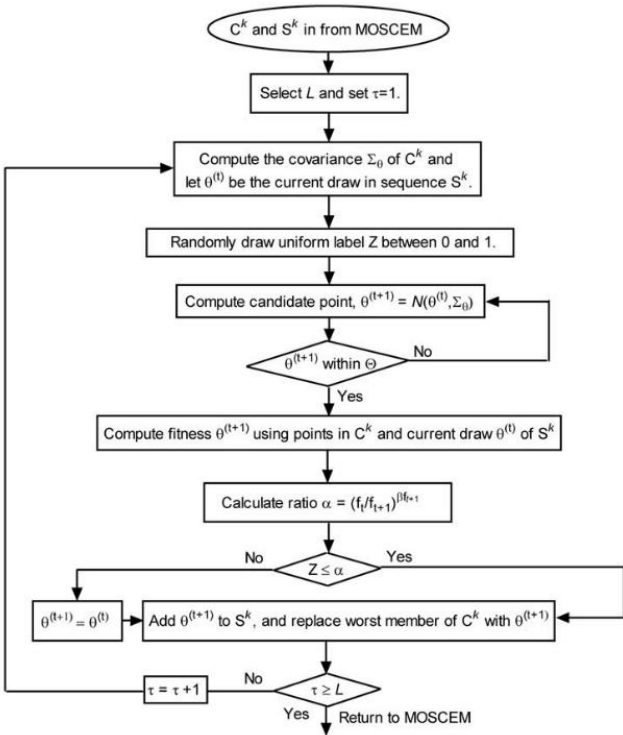


Figure 4. Flowchart of the Sequence Evolution Metropolis (SEM) algorithm employed in the MOSCEM-UA algorithm.

INCERTEZA NA MODELAGEM HIDROLÓGICA

HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES

Hydrol. Process. **26**, 3875–3885 (2012)

Published online 7 February 2012 in Wiley Online Library

(wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI: 10.1002/hyp.8433

Uncertainty assessment of hydrologic and climate forecast models in Northeastern Brazil

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Upmanu Lall⁵ and Dirceu S. Reis Jr⁶

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² Department of Hydraulics and Environmental, Federal University of Ceará, Brazil

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⁶ Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Brasília

Abstract:

Seasonal streamflow forecasts based on climate information can guide water managers toward superior reservoir operations, leading to improved water resources management efficiency. Uncertainty, however, is always present in seasonal streamflow forecasts, affecting the forecast value. Thus, a forecast should not be considered complete without a description of its uncertainty, which is critical for climate risk and water resources management. This study investigates the uncertainties of a seasonal streamflow forecast system for Northeastern Brazil based on climate precipitation forecasts and hydrologic modeling. These two sources of uncertainty are treated independently and then compared in order to guide future investments in the forecast system. Sea surface temperature is considered to be the primary source of uncertainty for the seasonal precipitation forecasts, based upon a 10-member climate model ensemble. Parameter uncertainty is considered to be the only source of uncertainty for the hydrologic model. Estimation of parameter uncertainty is estimated by the Shuffled Complex Evolution Metropolis algorithm, which employs a Markov Chain Monte Carlo scheme to provide the posterior distribution of the parameters and form uncertainty bounds on streamflow forecasts. Results indicate that uncertainties associated with the climate forecast are much larger than those from parameter estimation in the hydrologic model. Although model structure has not been considered in the evaluation of hydrologic uncertainties, this study indicates that future efforts to address the predominant source of uncertainty should focus on the climate prediction models. Copyright © 2011 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

KEY WORDS streamflow forecast; climate forecast; hydrologic model; uncertainty

Received 26 July 2010; Accepted 10 November 2011

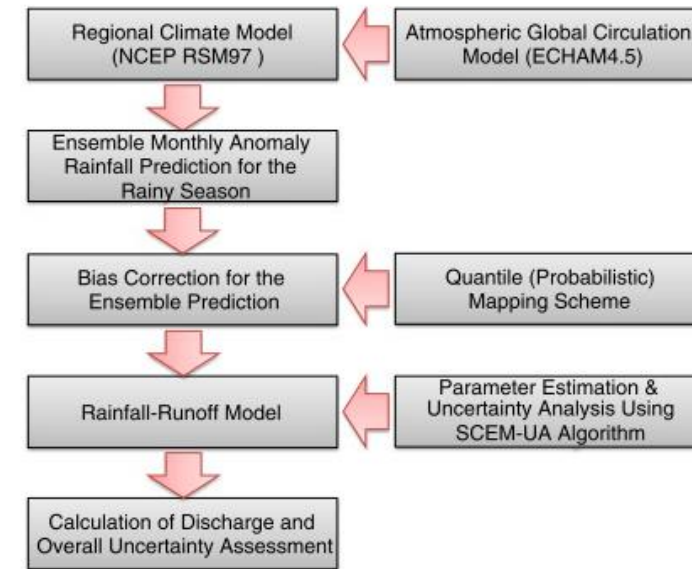


Figure 1. A flowchart of the general procedure used to investigate the uncertainty induced by climate and hydrologic model

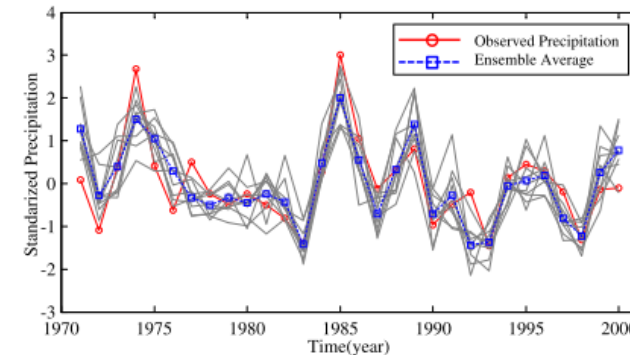


Figure 6. Monthly precipitation anomaly distribution for the rainy season over Jagauribe Basin. Unit is mm/day. Observed precipitation in red, ensemble average in green and gray all the ensemble members

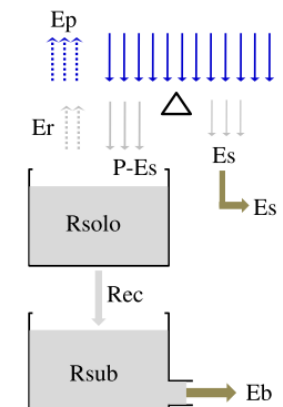


Figure 3. Conceptual illustration of the SMAP Hydrologic Model used in this study

INCERTEZA HIDROLÓGICA-CLIMÁTICA



JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN WATER RESOURCES ASSOCIATION

AMERICAN WATER RESOURCES ASSOCIATION

August 2009

A STREAMFLOW FORECASTING FRAMEWORK USING MULTIPLE CLIMATE AND HYDROLOGICAL MODELS¹

Paul J. Block, Francisco Assis Souza Filho, Liqiang Sun, and Hyun-Han Kwon²

ABSTRACT: Water resources planning and management efficacy is subject to capturing inherent uncertainties stemming from climatic and hydrological inputs and models. Streamflow forecasts, critical in reservoir operation and water allocation decision making, fundamentally contain uncertainties arising from assumed initial conditions, model structure, and modeled processes. Accounting for these propagating uncertainties remains a formidable challenge. Recent enhancements in climate forecasting skill and hydrological modeling serve as an impetus for further pursuing models and model combinations capable of delivering improved streamflow forecasts. However, little consideration has been given to methodologies that include coupling both multiple climate and multiple hydrological models, increasing the pool of streamflow forecast ensemble members and accounting for cumulative sources of uncertainty. The framework presented here proposes integration and offline coupling of global climate models (GCMs), multiple regional climate models, and numerous water balance models to improve streamflow forecasting through generation of ensemble forecasts. For demonstration purposes, the framework is imposed on the Jaguaribe basin in northeastern Brazil for a hindcast of 1974-1996 monthly streamflow. The ECHAM 4.5 and the NCEP/MRF9 GCMs and regional models, including dynamical and statistical models, are integrated with the ABCD and Soil Moisture Accounting Procedure water balance models. Precipitation hindcasts from the GCMs are downscaled via the regional models and fed into the water balance models, producing streamflow hindcasts. Multi-model ensemble combination techniques include pooling, linear regression weighting, and a kernel density estimator to evaluate streamflow hindcasts; the latter technique exhibits superior skill compared with any single coupled model ensemble hindcast.

(KEY TERMS: surface water hydrology; precipitation; computational methods; streamflow; forecast; uncertainty; multi-model; ensemble; Brazil.)

Block, Paul J., Francisco Assis Souza Filho, Liqiang Sun, and Hyun-Han Kwon, 2009. A Streamflow Forecasting Framework Using Multiple Climate and Hydrological Models. *Journal of the American Water Resources Association* (JAWRA) 45(4):828-843. DOI: 10.1111/j.1752-1688.2009.00327.x

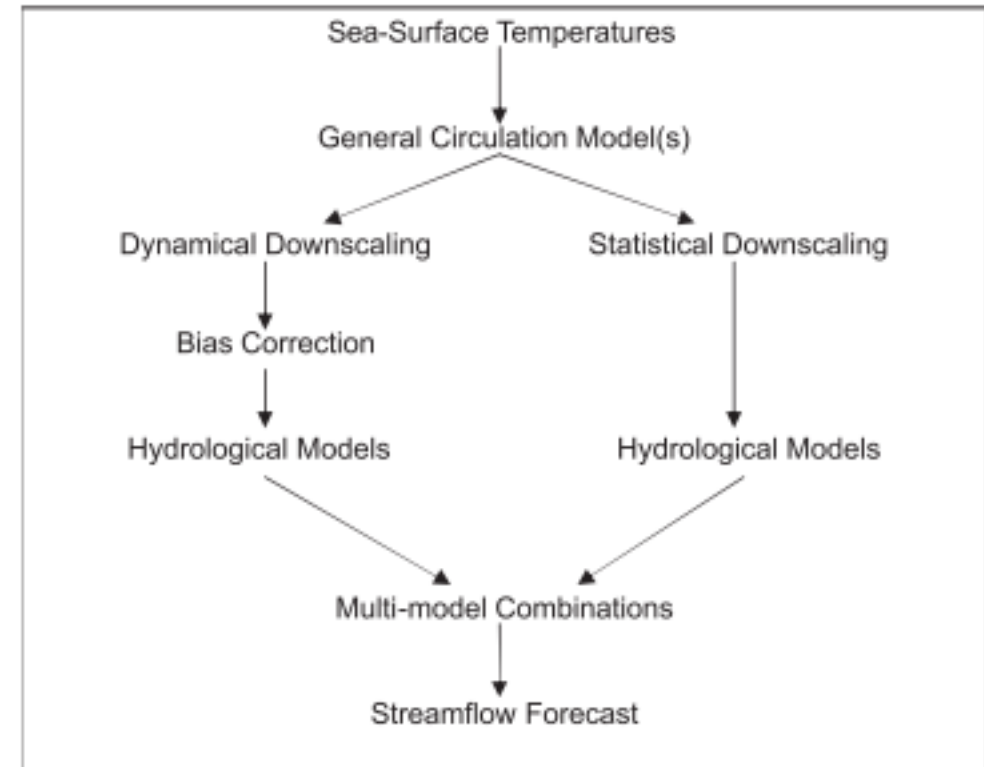
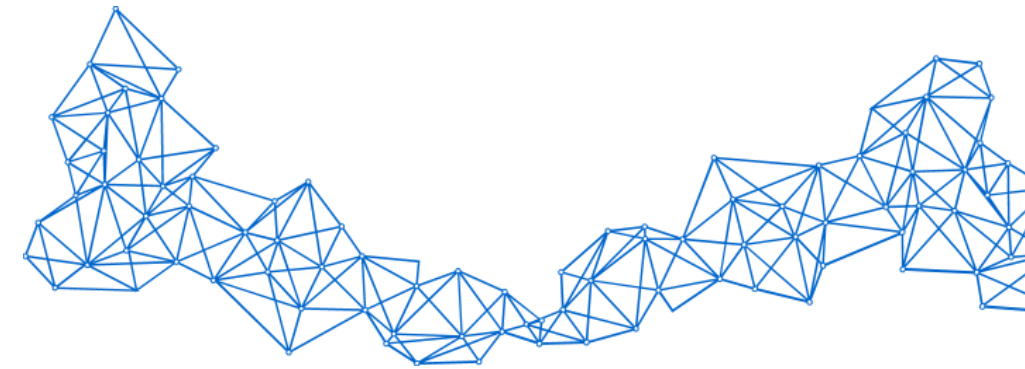


FIGURE 2. Proposed Framework for Streamflow Forecasting.

NECESSIDADE DE UMA SÍNTESE

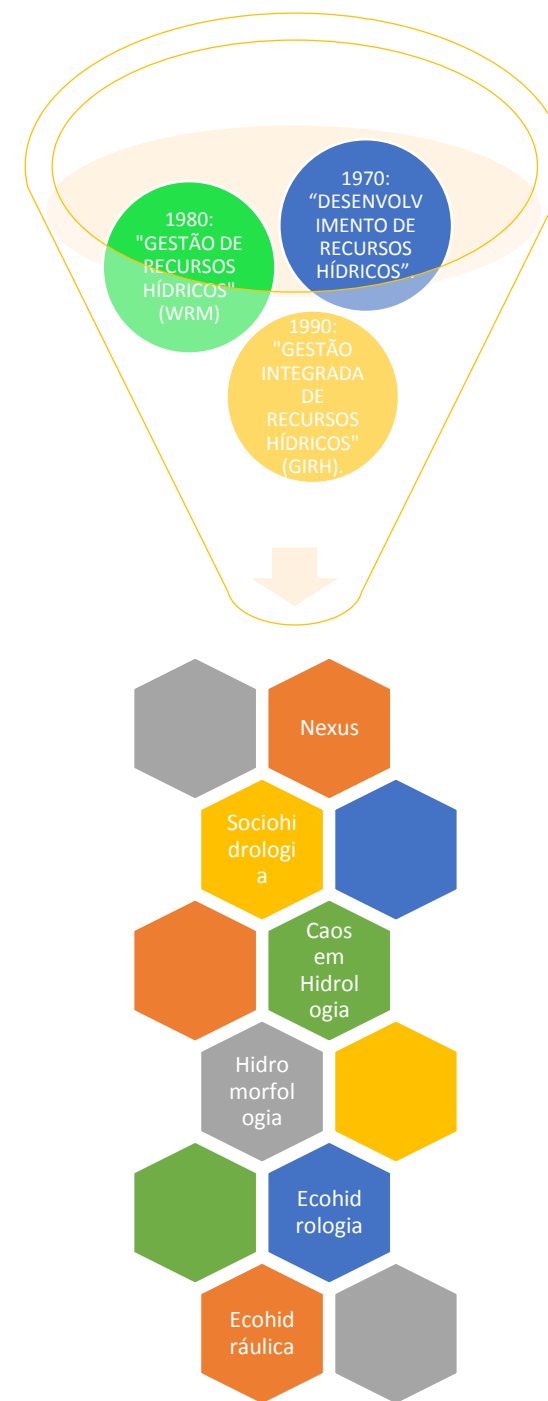


NECESSIDADE DE SÍNTESE

- Até a década de 1970, o campo da gestão da água era conhecido pelo termo “**desenvolvimento de recursos hídricos**”.
- Na década de 1980, tornou-se mais popular se referir à “**gestão de recursos hídricos**” (WRM)
- Na década de 1990 à “**gestão integrada de recursos hídricos**” (GIRH).

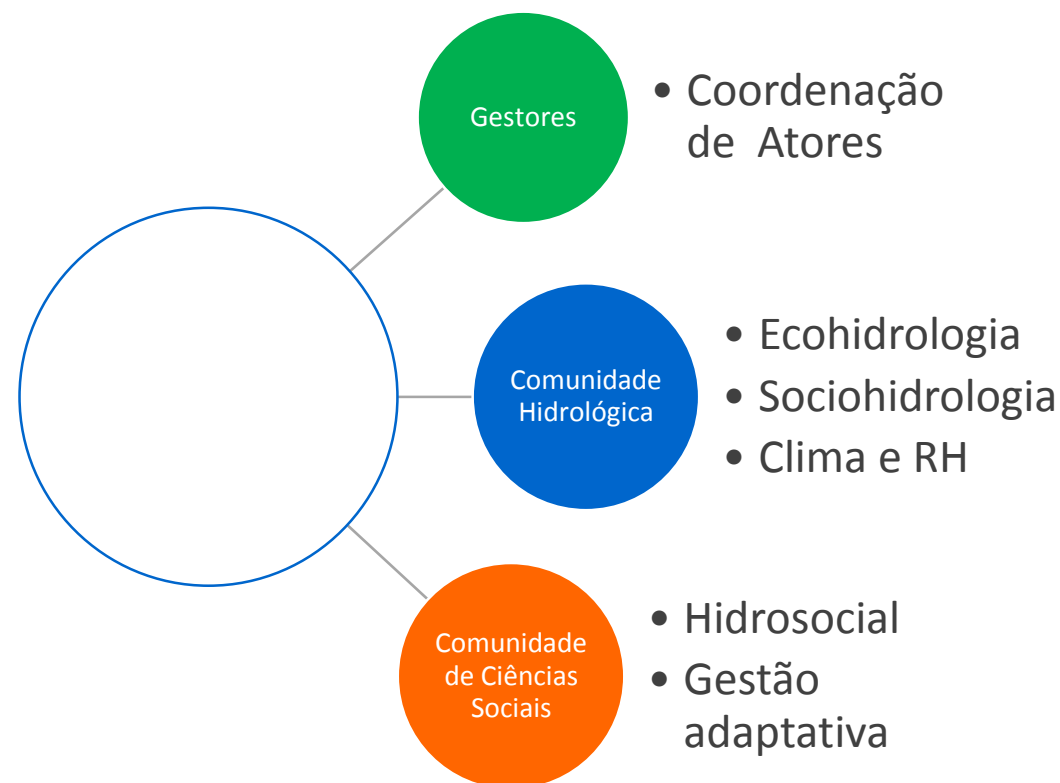
“Testemunhamos um processo de co-evolução entre o sistema natural e a sociedade, pelo qual os limites do sistema de apoio ambiental forçam as sociedades a tomar ações, sejam elas defensivas, evasivas, ofensivas, corretivas ou acomodativas.”

(H. H. G. Savenije et al.: Evolving water science in the Anthropocene; Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 18, 319–332, 2014)



NECESSIDADE DE SÍNTESE

- Na prática de gestão da água, a ênfase foi cada vez mais colocada nas interações entre planejadores, decisores e partes interessadas, de acordo com a percepção da GIRH como um processo (GWP, 2000). Como resultado, a **comunicação** sobre a água se tornou mais importante do que entender como o sistema funciona.
- Na comunidade científica de hidrologia, por outro lado, os pesquisadores aprimoraram gradualmente o escopo de suas análises, da hidrologia à **eco-hidrologia** e à **sócio-hidrologia**, em um esforço para entender melhor o metabolismo do sistema complexo e a dinâmica da co-evolução e desenvolvimento.
- Tendência semelhante pode ser discernida nas ciências sociais, onde alguns estudiosos têm analisado a dinâmica “**hidro-social**” (por exemplo, Swyngedouw, 2009; Norgaard et al., 2009; ; Linton, 2008)





NECESSIDADE DE SÍNTESE

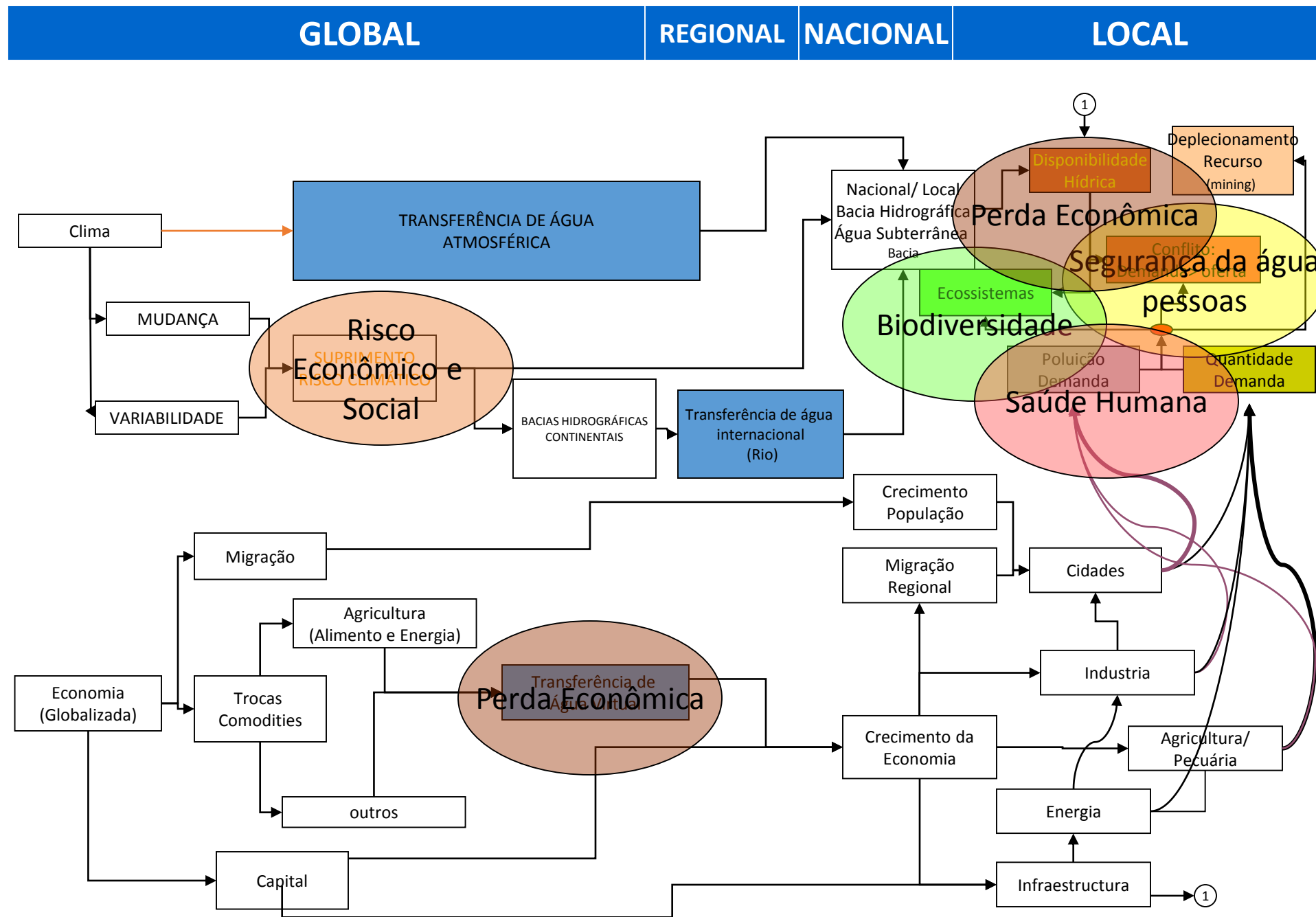
- O sistema de recursos hídricos é **altamente complexo**.
- Possui **várias escalas e múltiplos feedbacks** com uma variedade de processos físicos, biológicos e sociais.
- O cenário é **multi-setorial, multi-ator e interdisciplinar**.
- A busca pelo gerenciamento desse sistema de maneira sustentável requer **compreensão sistemática** dos processos do sistema, reconhecimento das interdependências e **novas abordagens** para lidar com essa complexidade nas escalas global e local.
- Além disso, requer **sistemas de governança apropriados** para gerenciar esse sistema complexo.

Evolving water science in the Anthropocene

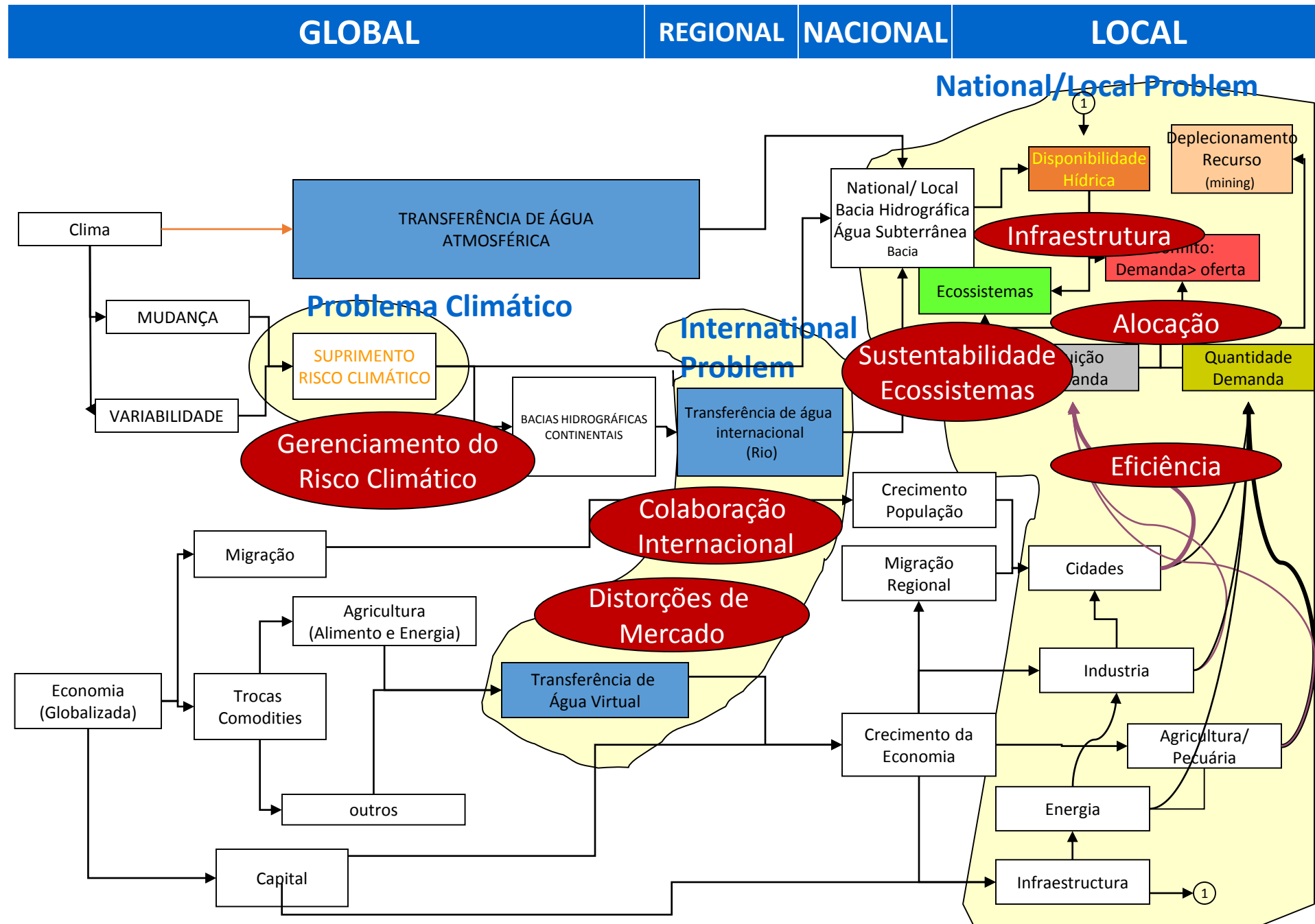
H. H. G. Savenije¹, A. Y. Hoekstra², and P. van der Zaag^{1,3}



ESTRUTURA DO PROBLEMA DA ÁGUA: DIAGRAMA DE INTERINFLUÊNCIA

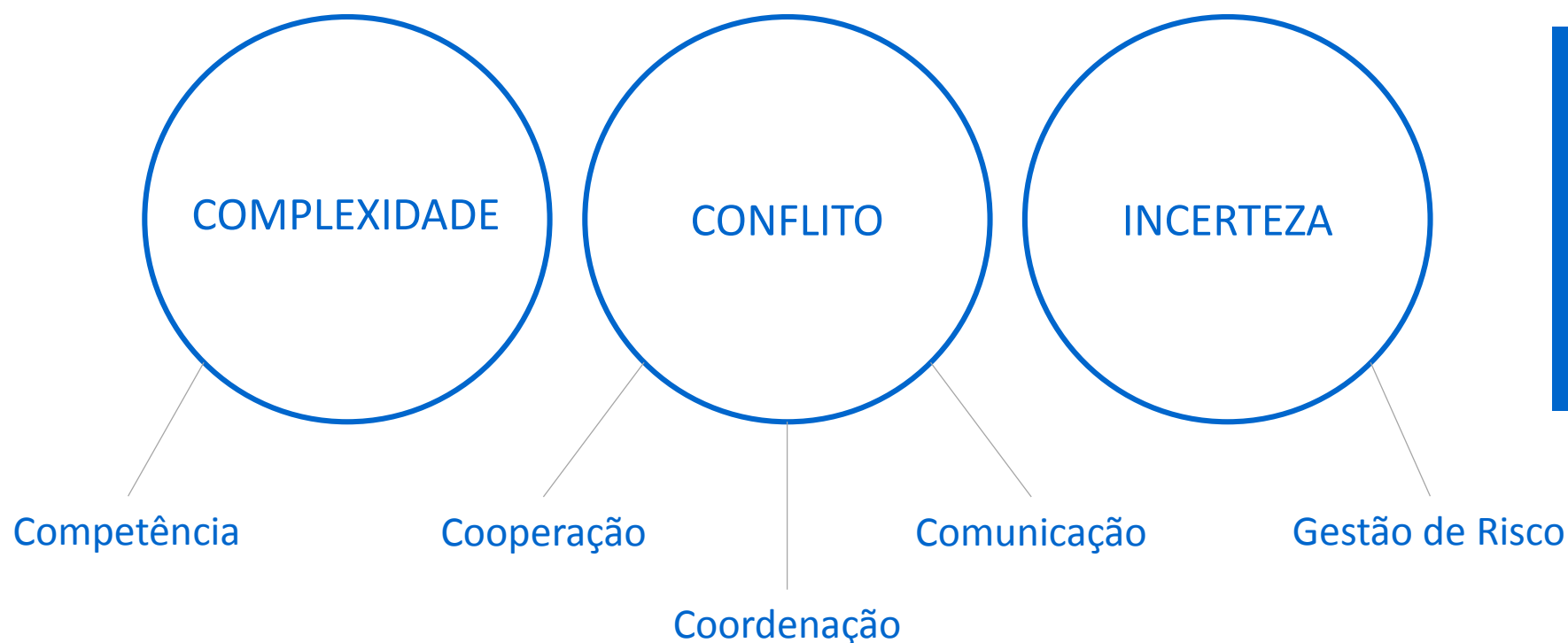


ESTRUTURA DO PROBLEMA DA ÁGUA: DIAGRAMA DE INTERINFLUÊNCIA



CARACTERÍSTICAS DO SISTEMA DE RECURSOS HÍDRICOS

O sistema de recursos hídricos necessita de um novo procedimento para tratar com:



MUNDO EM MUDANÇA

- Incerteza
- Complexidade

FUNDAMENTOS DA GESTÃO ADAPTATIVA

ADAPTAÇÃO

Governança Adaptativa em Sistemas Complexos

- Fornecimento de Informação
- Tratar com Conflitos
- Induzir o cumprimento das regras
- Prover Infra-estrutura
- Estar Preparado para Mudanças
- Gerenciar o Risco



Elinor Ostrom

TRAGEDY OF THE COMMONS?
REVIEW

SPECIAL SECTION

The Struggle to Govern the Commons

Thomas Dietz,¹ Elinor Ostrom,² Paul C. Stern^{3*}

Human institutions—ways of organizing activities—affect the resilience of the environment. Locally evolved institutional arrangements governed by stable communities and buffered from outside forces have sustained resources successfully for centuries, although they often fail when rapid change occurs. Ideal conditions for governance are increasingly rare. Critical problems, such as transboundary pollution, tropical deforestation, and climate change, are at larger scales and involve nonlocal influences. Promising strategies for addressing these problems include dialogue among interested parties, officials, and scientists; complex, redundant, and layered institutions; a mix of institutional types; and designs that facilitate experimentation, learning, and change.

General principles for robust governance of environmental resources (green, left and right columns) and the governance requirements they help meet (yellow, center column)

Left Column (Principles):

- Devise rules that are congruent with ecological conditions
- Clearly define the boundaries of resources and user groups
- Devise accountability mechanisms for monitors
- Apply graduated sanctions for violations
- Establish/use low-cost mechanisms for conflict resolution

Center Column (Requirements):

- Provide necessary information
- Deal with conflict
- Induce compliance with rules
- Provide physical, technical, and institutional infrastructure
- Encourage adaptation and change

Right Column (Principles):

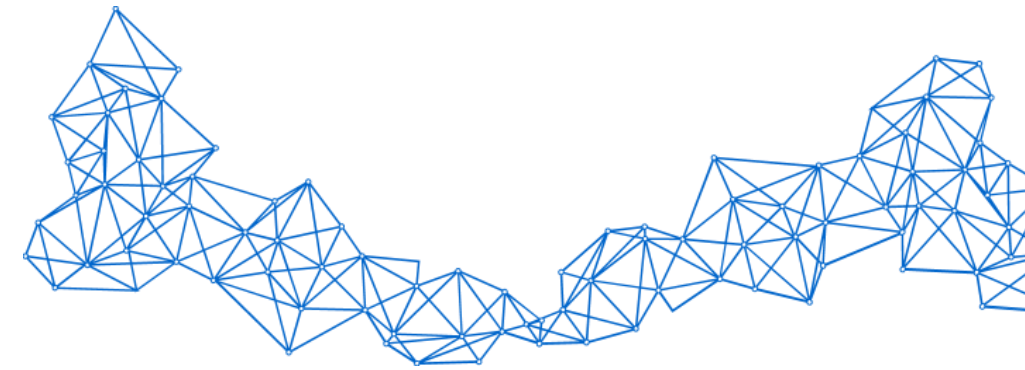
- Involve interested parties in informed discussion of rules (analytic deliberation)
- Allocate authority to allow for adaptive governance at multiple levels from local to global (nesting)
- Employ mixtures of institutional types (institutional variety)

Fig. 3. General principles for robust governance of environmental resources (green, left and right columns) and the governance requirements they help meet (yellow, center column) (73, 158). Each principle is relevant for meeting several requirements. Arrows indicate some of the most likely connections between principles and requirements. Principles in the right column may be particularly relevant for global and regional problems.

www.sciencemag.org SCIENCE VOL 302 12 DECEMBER 2003 1907

ADAPTAÇÃO

Governança Adaptativa em Sistemas Complexos



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Pahl-Wostl, C., M. Craps, A. Dewulf, E. Mostert, D. Tabara, and T. Taillieu. 2007. Social learning and water resources management. *Ecology and Society* 12(2): 5. [online] URL: <http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol12/iss2/art5/>



Research, part of a Special Feature on [Social Learning in Water Resources Management](#)
Social Learning and Water Resources Management

[Claudia Pahl-Wostl](#)¹, [Marc Craps](#)², [Art Dewulf](#)², [Erik Mostert](#)³, [David Tabara](#)⁴, and [Tharsi Taillieu](#)²

ABSTRACT. Natural resources management in general, and water resources management in particular, are currently undergoing a major paradigm shift. Management practices have largely been developed and implemented by experts using technical means based on designing systems that can be predicted and controlled. In recent years, stakeholder involvement has gained increasing importance. Collaborative governance is considered to be more appropriate for integrated and adaptive management regimes needed to cope with the complexity of social-ecological systems. The paper presents a concept for social learning and collaborative governance developed in the European project HarmoniCOP (Harmonizing Collaborative Planning). The concept is rooted in the more interpretive strands of the social sciences emphasizing the context dependence of knowledge. The role of frames and boundary management in processes of learning at different levels and time scales is investigated. The foundation of social learning as investigated in the HarmoniCOP project is multiparty collaboration processes that are perceived to be the nuclei of learning processes. Such processes take place in networks or “communities of practice” and are influenced by the governance structure in which they are embedded. Requirements for social learning include institutional settings that guarantee some degree of stability and certainty without being rigid and inflexible. Our analyses, which are based on conceptual considerations and empirical insights, suggest that the development of such institutional settings involves continued processes of social learning. In these processes, stakeholders at different scales are connected in flexible networks that allow them to develop the capacity and trust they need to collaborate in a wide range of formal and informal relationships ranging from formal legal structures and contracts to informal, voluntary agreements.

Key Words: *social learning; collaborative governance; adaptive management; water resources*

Water Resour Manage (2007) 21:49–62
DOI 10.1007/s11269-006-9040-4

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Transitions towards adaptive management of water facing climate and global change

Claudia Pahl-Wostl

Received: 20 April 2006
© Springer Science + Business Media B.V. 2006

Abstract Water management is facing major challenges due to increasing uncertainties caused by climate and global change and by fast changing socio-economic boundaries. More attention has to be devoted to understanding and managing the transition from current management regimes to more adaptive regimes that take into account environmental, technological, economic, institutional and cultural characteristics of river basins. A paradigm shift in water management from a prediction and control to a management by learning approach. The change towards adaptive management could be defined as “to manage by managing to learn”. Such change aims at increasing the adaptive capacity of river basins at different scales. The paper identifies major challenges for research and practice how to understand a transition in water management regimes. A conceptual framework is introduced how to characterize water management regimes and the dynamics of transition processes. The European project NeWater project is presented as one approach where new scientific methods and practical tools are developed for the participatory assessment and implementation of adaptive water management.

Keywords Adaptive water management · Social learning · Transition processes · Water management regimes · Global change

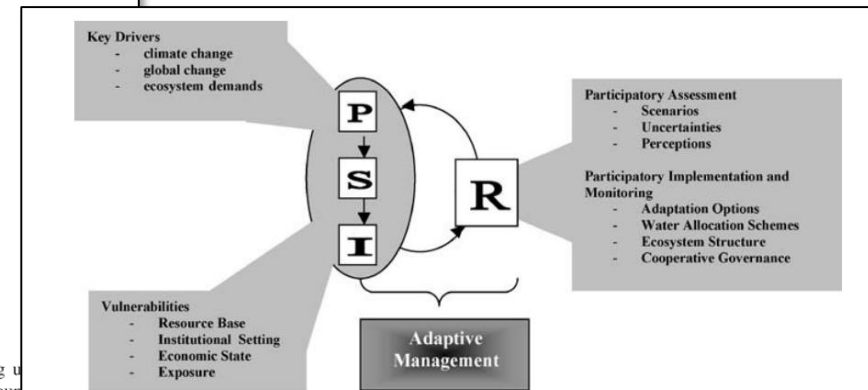


Fig. 1 Adaptive management represented in an extended PSIR (Pressure-State-Impact-Response) framework – system design to increase the ability of the system to cope with change – R as part of the autonomous response strategies. The whole process has to be perceived as being iterative and proceed in cycles in contrast to the quite linear and sequential approach that is often adopted when using the PSIR scheme. The boxes indicate the type of variables and processes that are of importance

HIDROCOMPLEXIDADE

AGU PUBLICATIONS

Water Resources Research

RESEARCH ARTICLE 10.1002/2015WR017342

Special Section:
The 50th Anniversary of Water Resources Research

Hydrocomplexity: Addressing water security and emergent environmental risks

Praveen Kumar¹

¹Ven Te Chow Hydrosystems Laboratory, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, and Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, USA

Key Points:

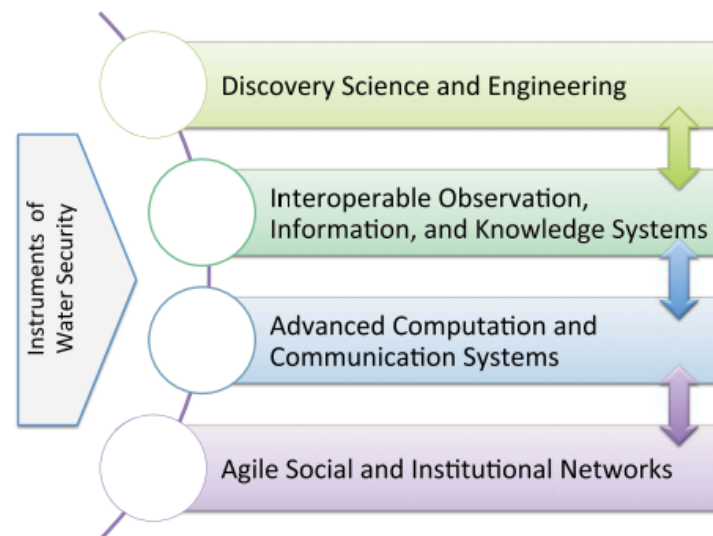
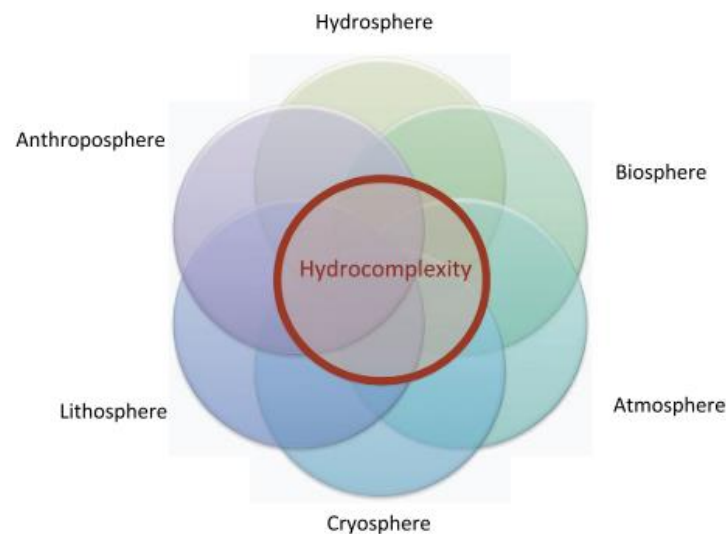
- Hydrocomplexity addresses water security & emergent environmental risks
- Emergent risks arise from novel interactions & evolving interdependency
- There is a need for a Blue Revolution to address water security

Correspondence to:
P. Kumar,
kumar1@illinois.edu

Citation:
Kumar, P. (2015), Hydrocomplexity: Addressing water security and emergent environmental risks, *Water Resour. Res.*, 51, 5827–5838, doi:10.1002/2015WR017342.

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Accepted 23 JUN 2015
Accepted article online 30 JUN 2015
Published online 30 JUL 2015

A **hidrocomplexidade** visa abordar a segurança da água e os riscos emergentes por meio do desenvolvimento de ciências, métodos e práticas que encapsulam uma compreensão do comportamento da rede interconectada de processos.



Uma **rede de processos (PROCESS NETWORK)** é definida como uma rede de ciclos de feedback e as escalas de tempo associadas que representam a magnitude e a direção do fluxo de matéria, energia e / ou informações entre as diferentes variáveis.

Argumentou-se que a descrição ideal do estado de um sistema complexo é uma rede de processos,

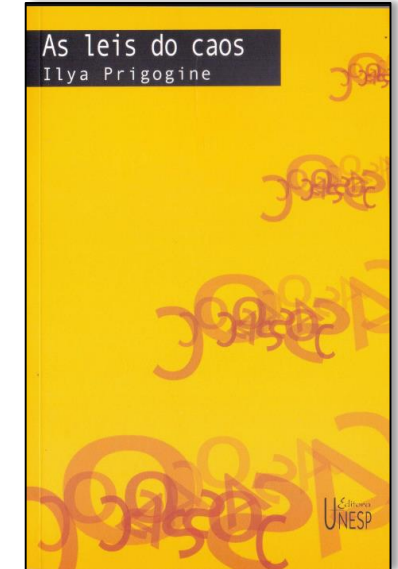
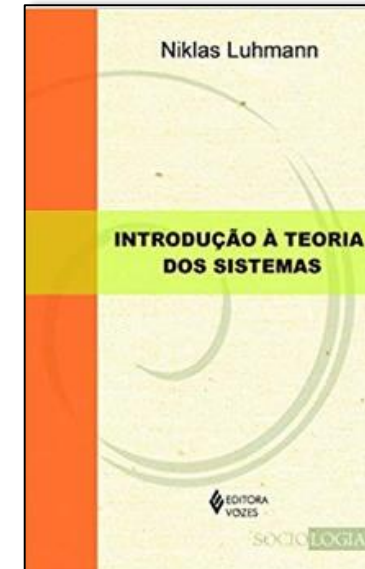
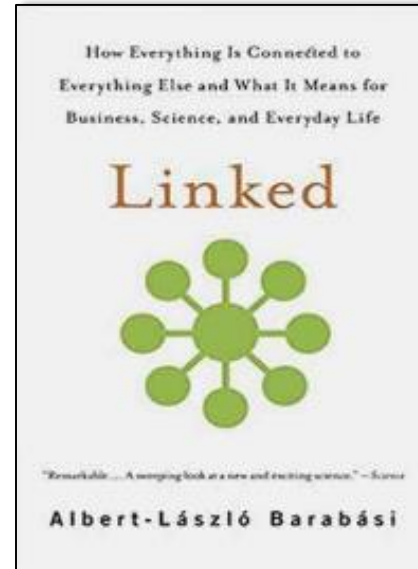
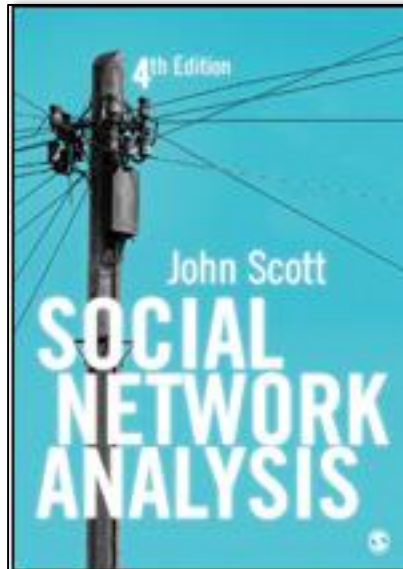
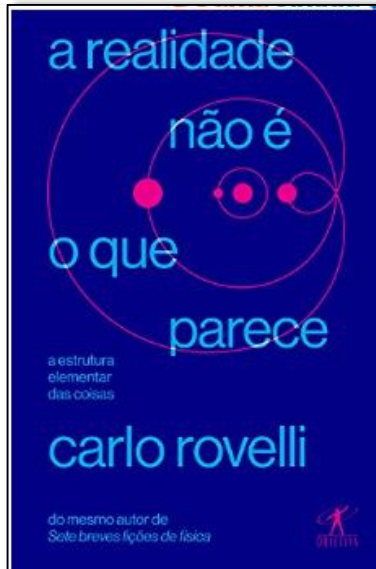
DESAFIOS

- Dinâmica emergente e risco
- Integração de sistemas de dados e conhecimento
- Redes Institucionais

HIDROCOMPLEXIDAD E COMO PROPOSTA DE SÍNTESE



INSPIRAÇÕES



INSPIRAÇÕES

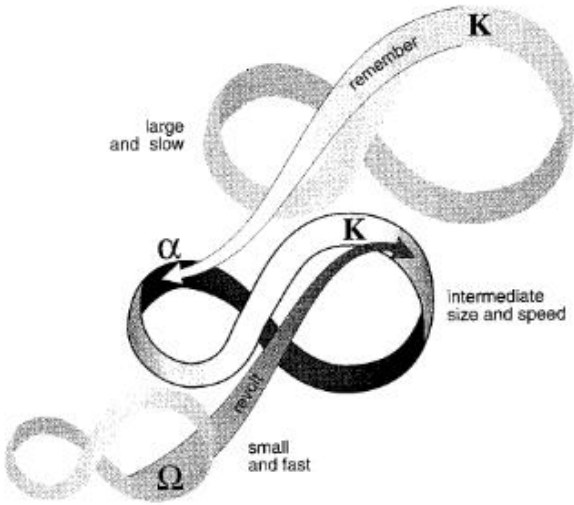
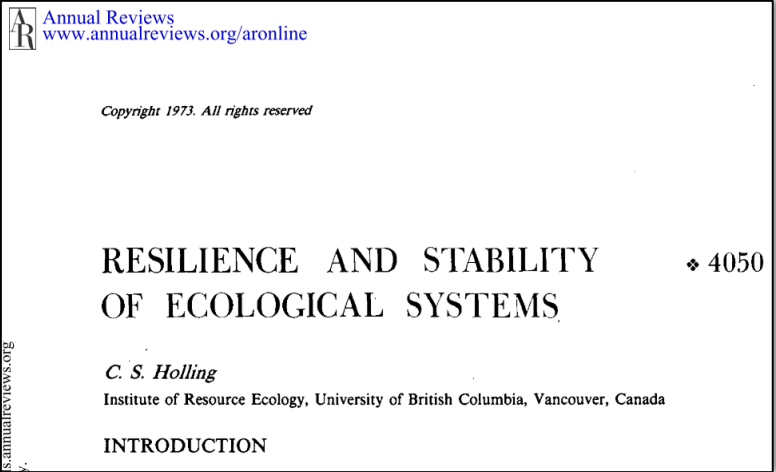


Figure 7. Panarchical connections. Three selected levels

American Economic Review 100 (June 2010): 1–33
<http://www.aeaweb.org/articles.php?doi=10.1257/aer.100.3.1>

Beyond Markets and States: Polycentric Governance of Complex Economic Systems

By ELINOR OSTROM*

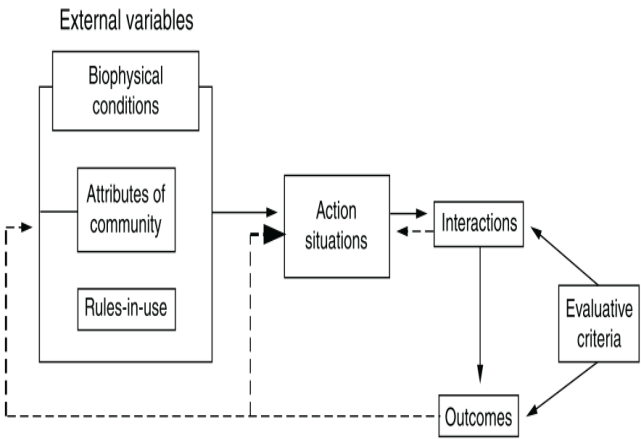


FIGURE 2. A FRAMEWORK FOR INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

Source: Adapted from E. Ostrom 2005: 15.



Ecological network analysis: network construction

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Ecological network analysis
Food webs
Systems analysis

ABSTRACT

Ecological network analysis (ENA) is a systems-oriented methodology to analyze within system interactions used to identify holistic properties that are otherwise not evident from the direct observations. Like any analysis technique, the accuracy of the results is as good as the data available, but the additional challenge is that the data need to characterize an entire ecosystem's flows and storages. Thus, data requirements are substantial. As a result, there have, in fact, not been a significant number of network models constructed and development of the network analysis methodology has progressed largely within the purview of a few established models. In this paper, we outline the steps for one approach to construct network models. Lastly, we also provide a brief overview of the algorithmic methods used to construct food web typologies when empirical data are not available. It is our aim that such an effort aids other researchers to consider the construction of such models as well as encourages further refinement of this procedure.

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HIDROCOMPLEXIDADE COMO MÉTODO

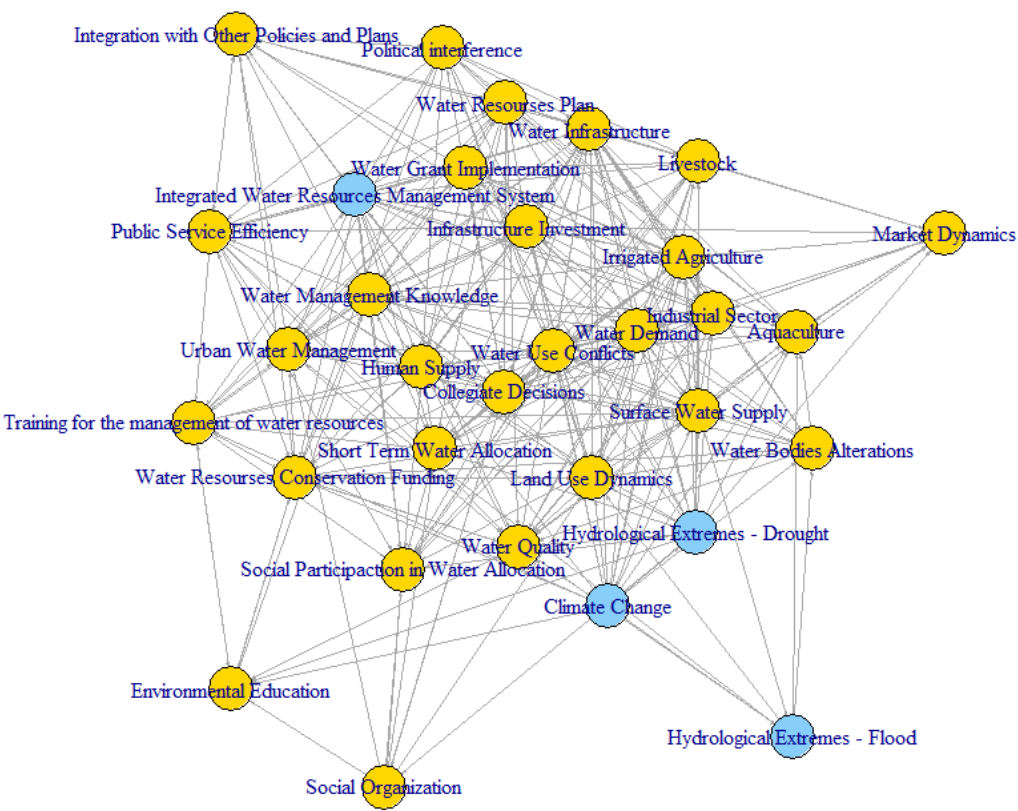
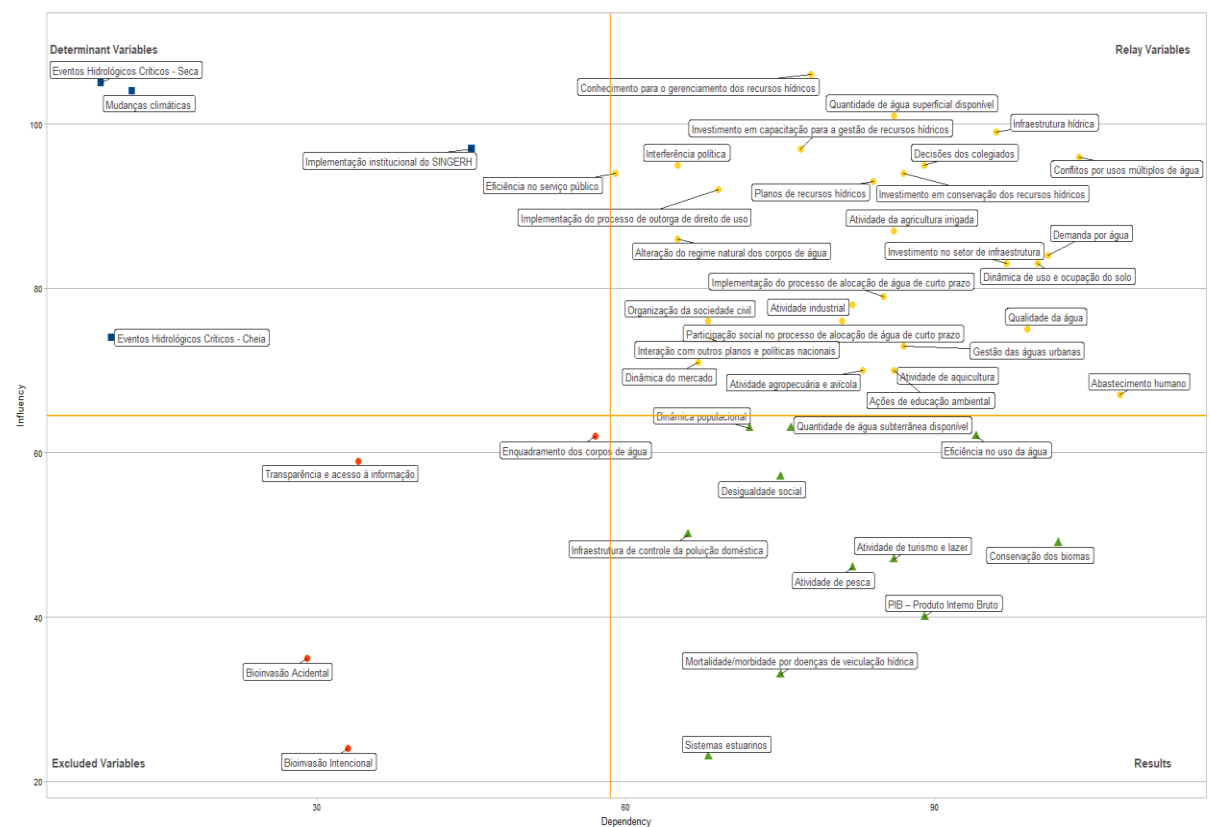
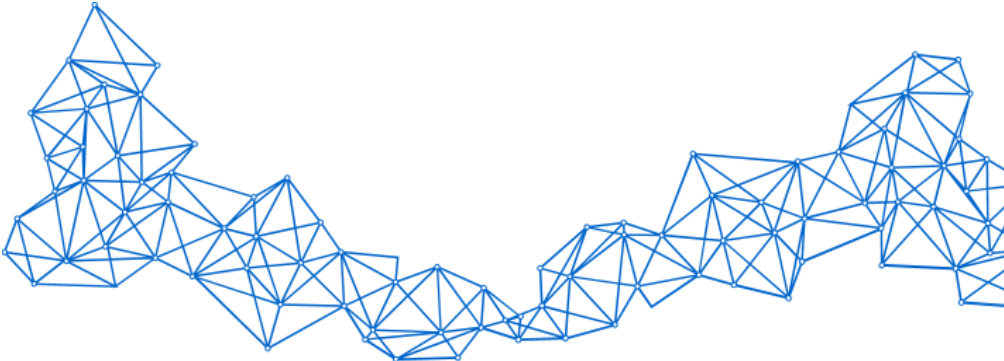
Teorias, Métodos e Instrumentos de Análise



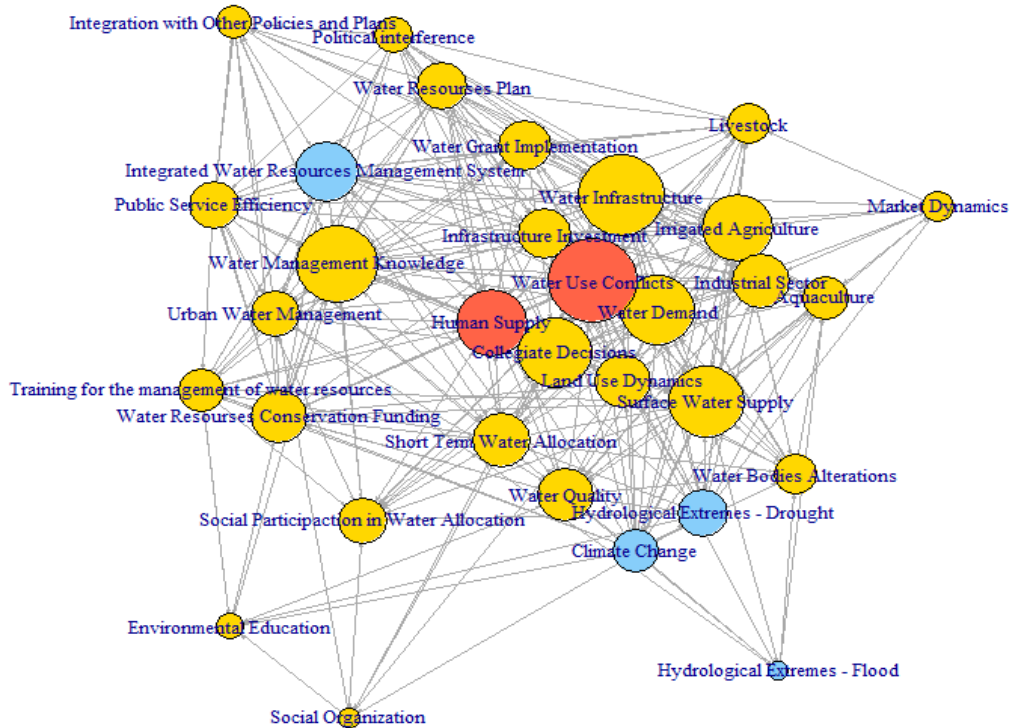
CONCEITOS



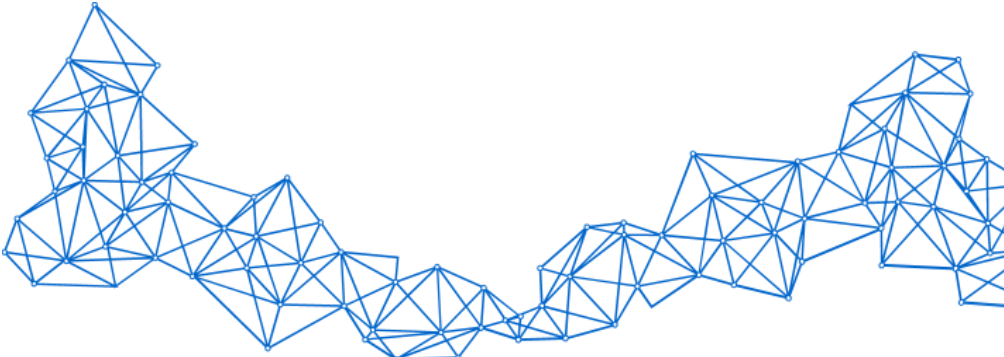
INICIATIVA 1



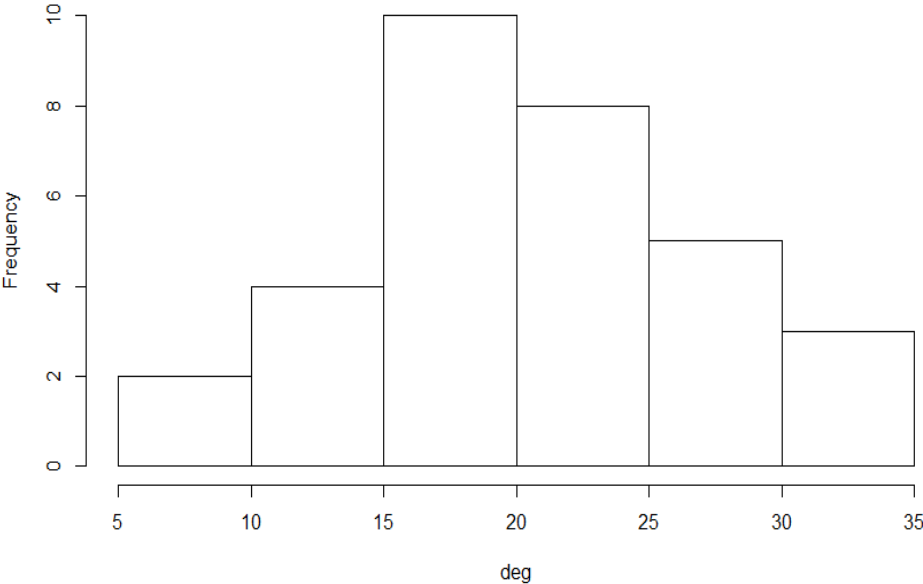
INICIATIVA 1



- Determinant Variables
- Relay Variables
- Higher Degree Variables

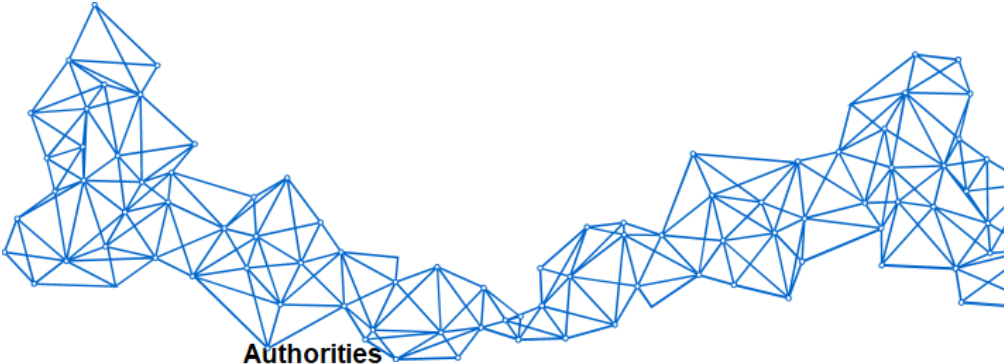


Histogram of node degree

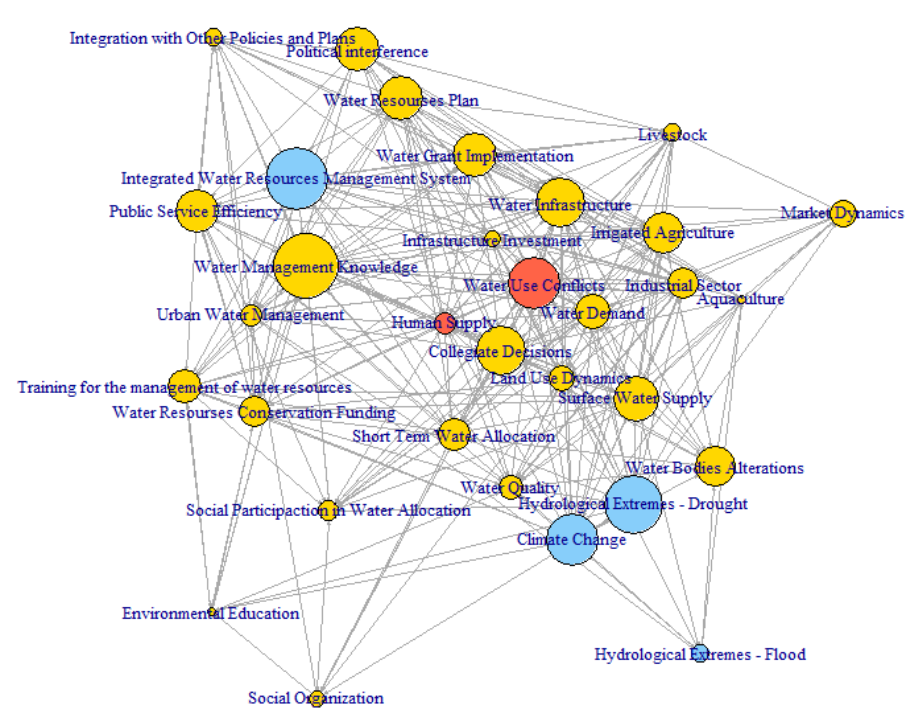


Sistema de Recursos Hídricos

INICIATIVA 1

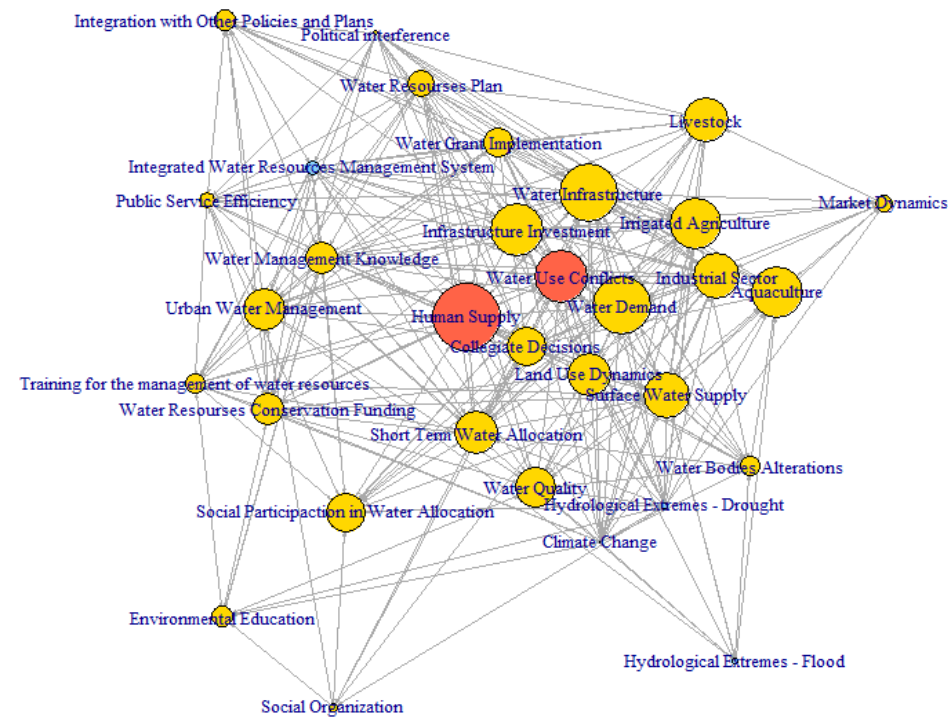


Hubs



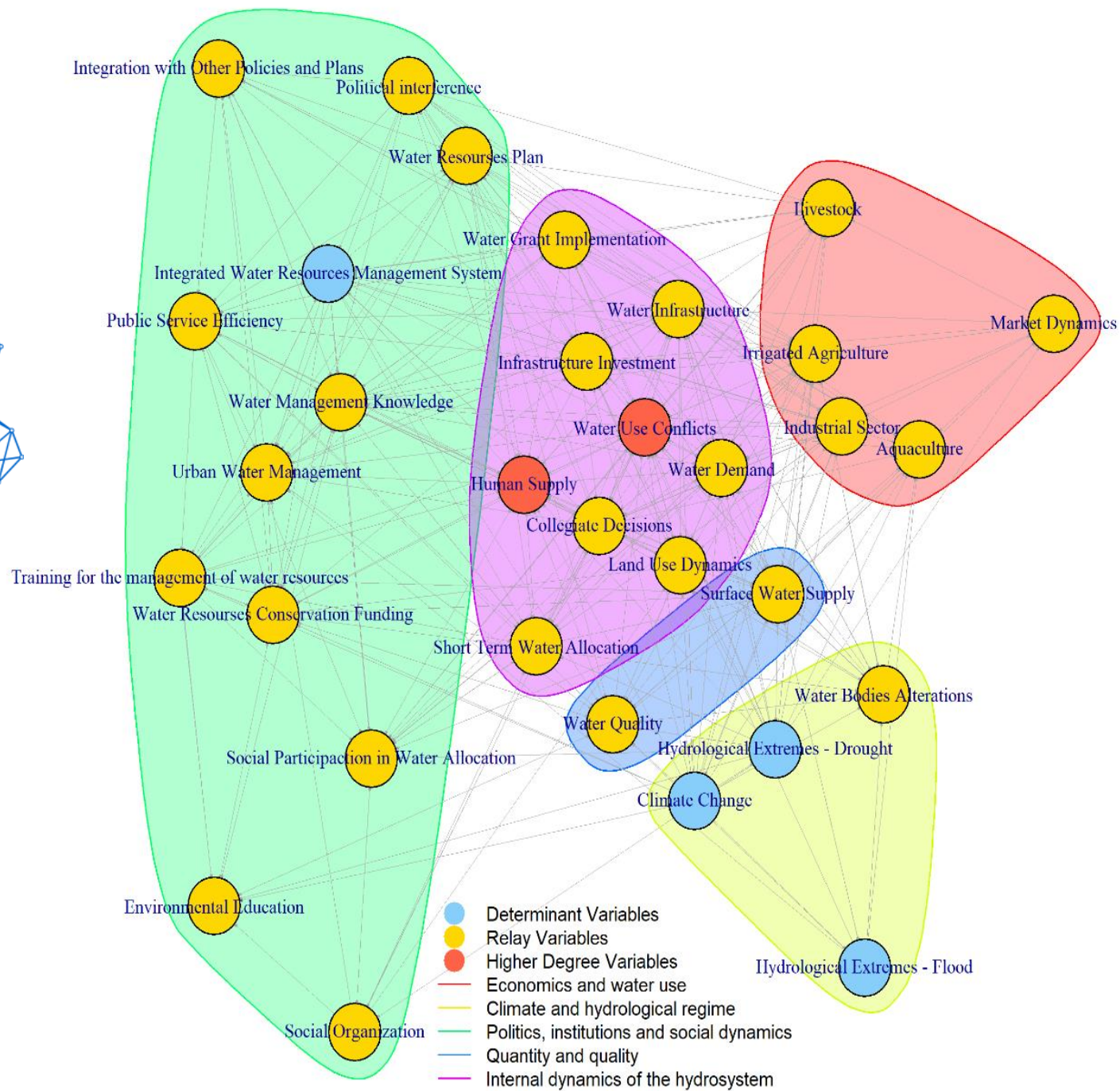
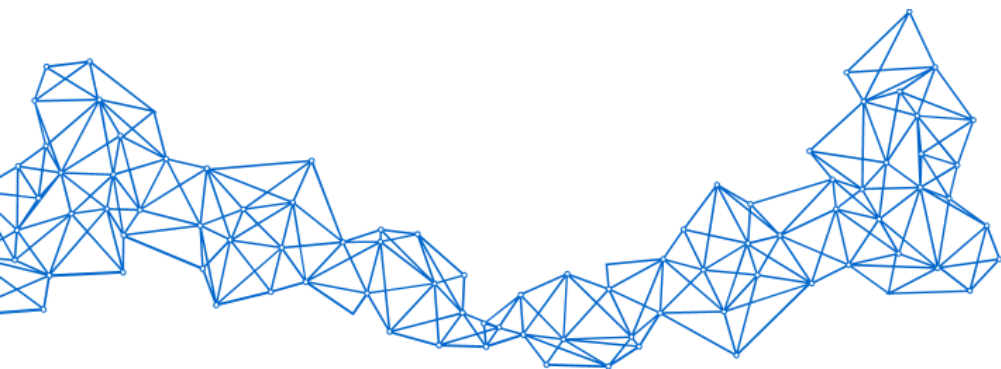
- Determinant Variables
- Relay Variables
- Higher Degree Variables

Authorities



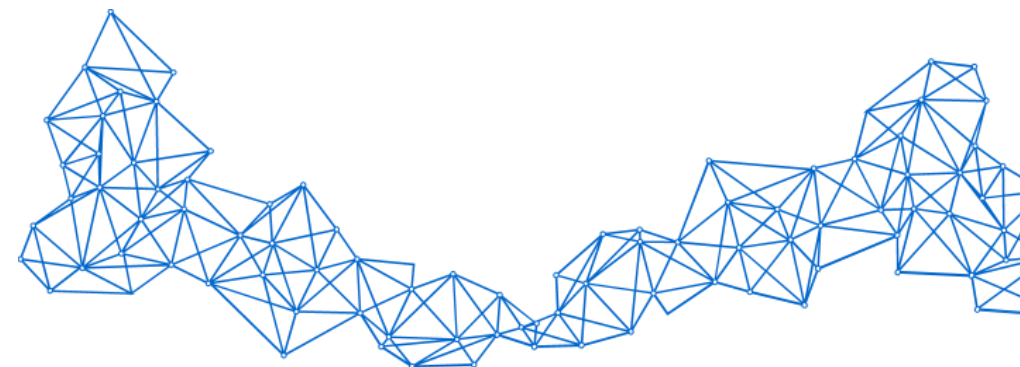
- Determinant Variables
- Relay Variables
- Higher Degree Variables

INICIATIVA 1



INICIATIVA 2

Redes Postos ONS

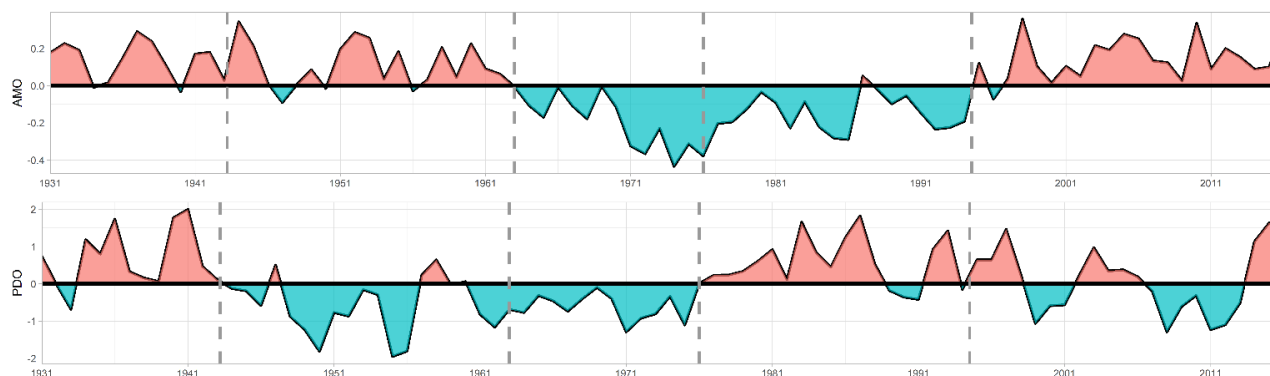


- Rede construída a partir do *Mutual Information* (MI) das estações com dados de vazões naturalizadas;
- Cada nó representa um posto e a ligação é estabelecida se o valor do MI supera um limiar de significância de 95% obtido via *bootstrapping*;
- Processo foi repetido para diversos períodos
 - Série completa (1931 – 2015)
 - Fase quente simultânea da AMO e da PDO (1931 – 1943)
 - Fase quente da AMO e fase fria da PDO (1944 – 1963)
 - Fase fria da AMO e fase quente da PDO (1977 – 1994)
 - Fase quente da AMO e “neutra” da PDO (1995 – 2015)

$$H(X, Y) = - \sum_{i=1}^L p(x_i, y_i) \log_b p(x_i, y_i)$$

$$MI(X; Y) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y)$$

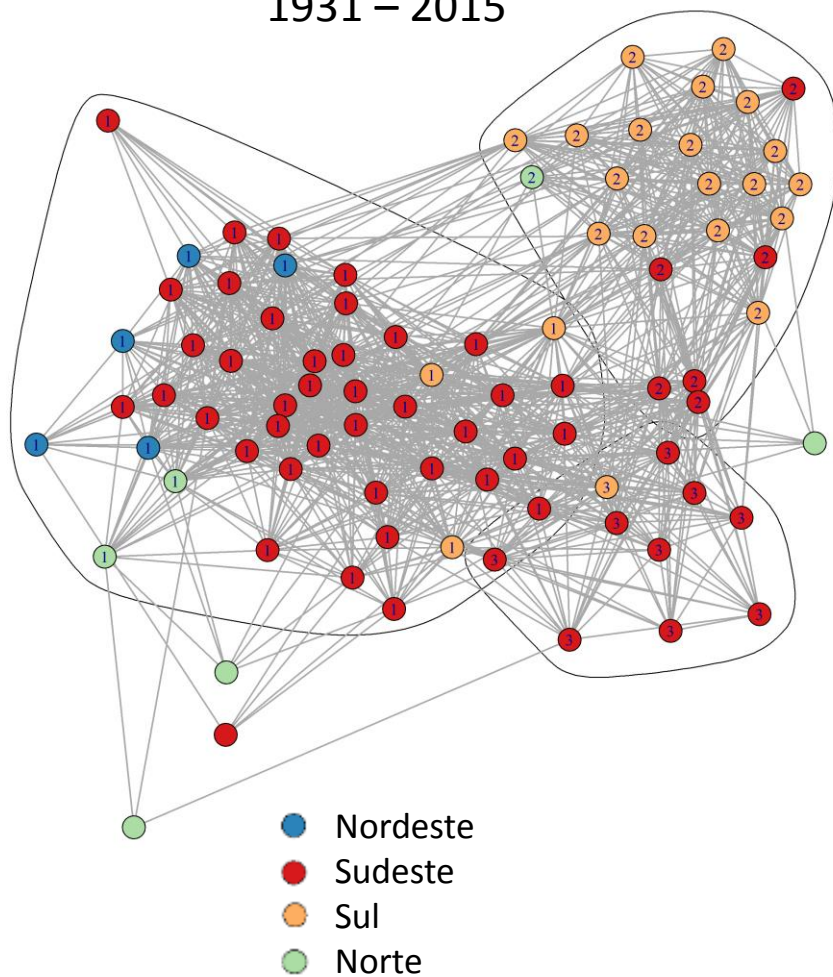
$$MI^*(X; Y) = \frac{MI(X; Y)}{\sqrt{H(X)H(Y)}}$$



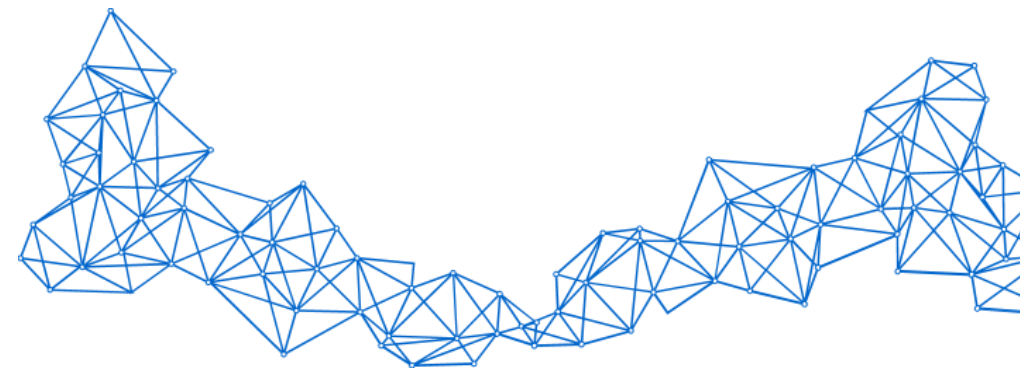
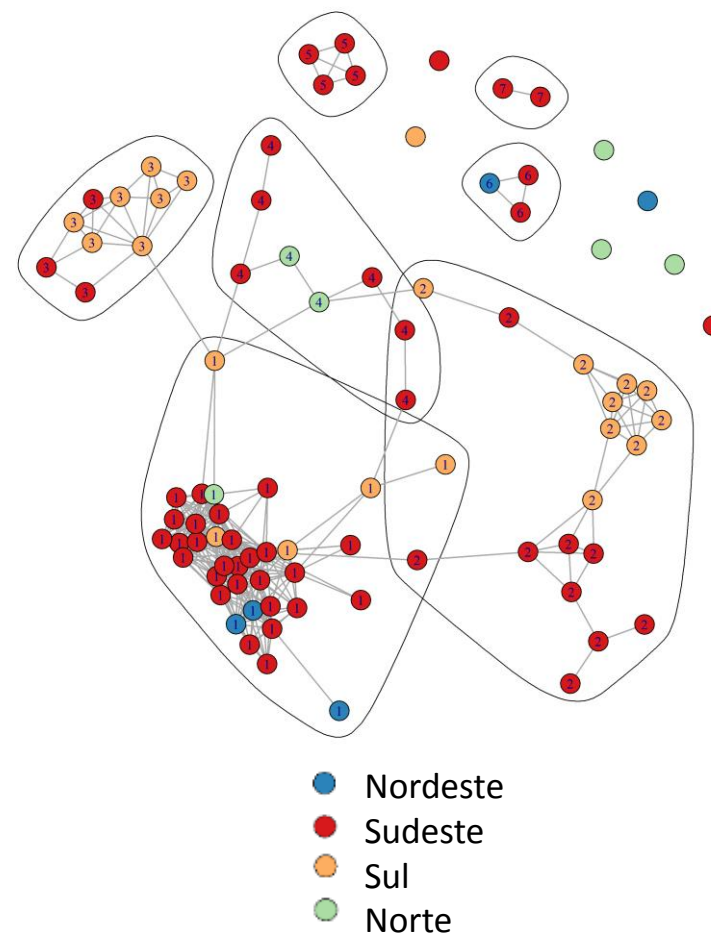
INICIATIVA 2

Redes Postos ONS

1931 – 2015



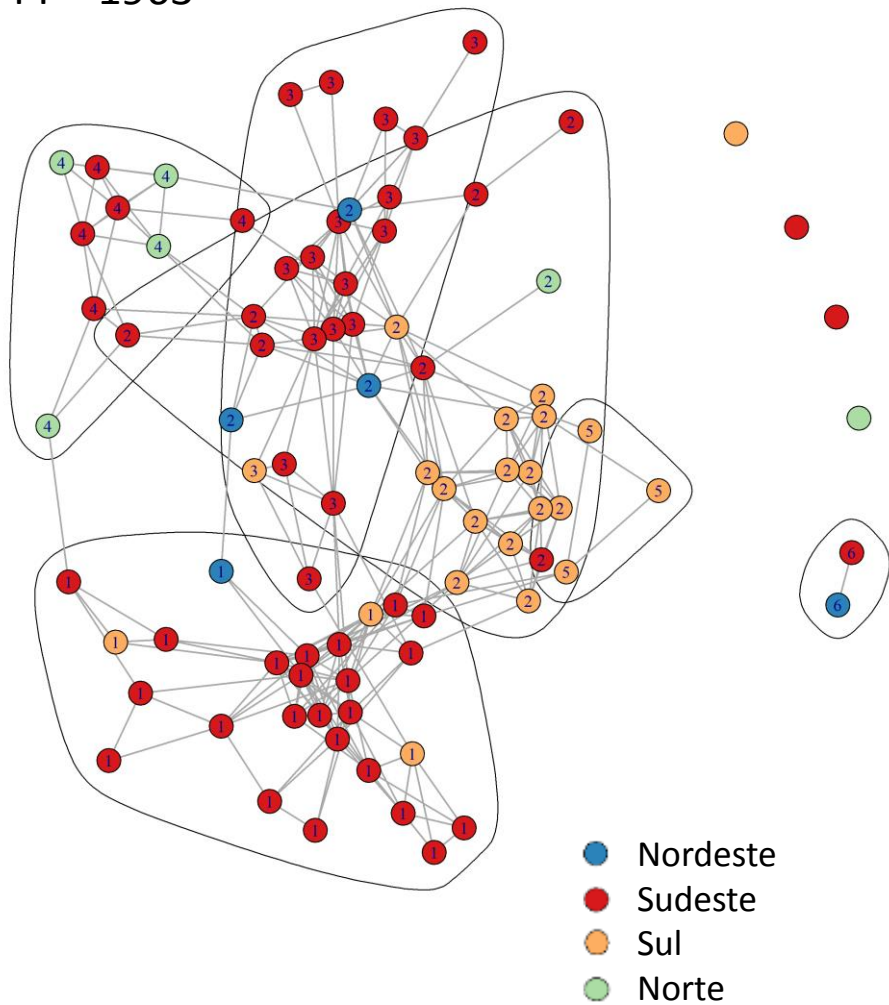
1931 – 1943



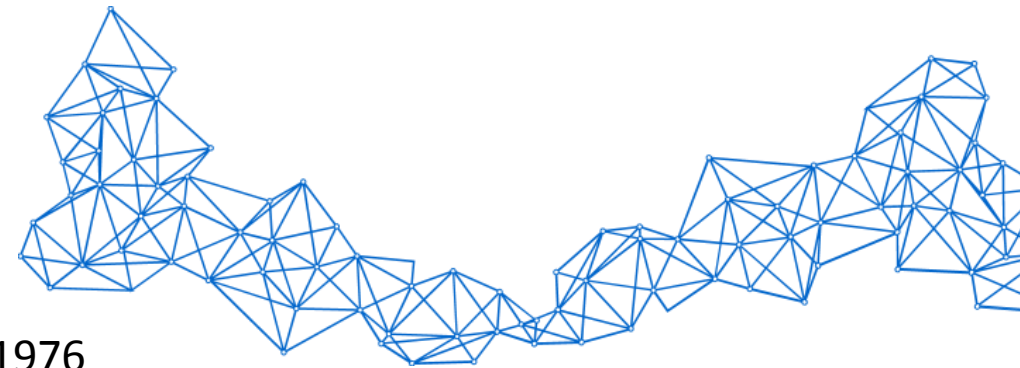
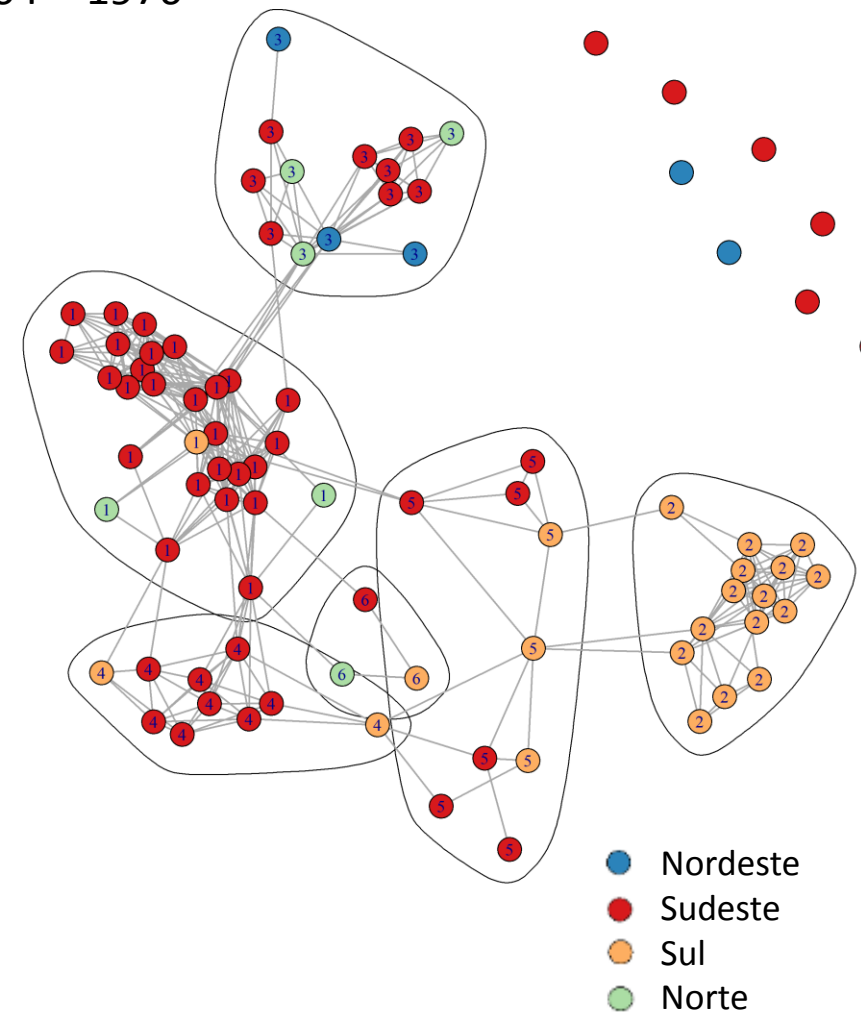
INICIATIVA 2

Redes Postos ONS

1944 – 1963



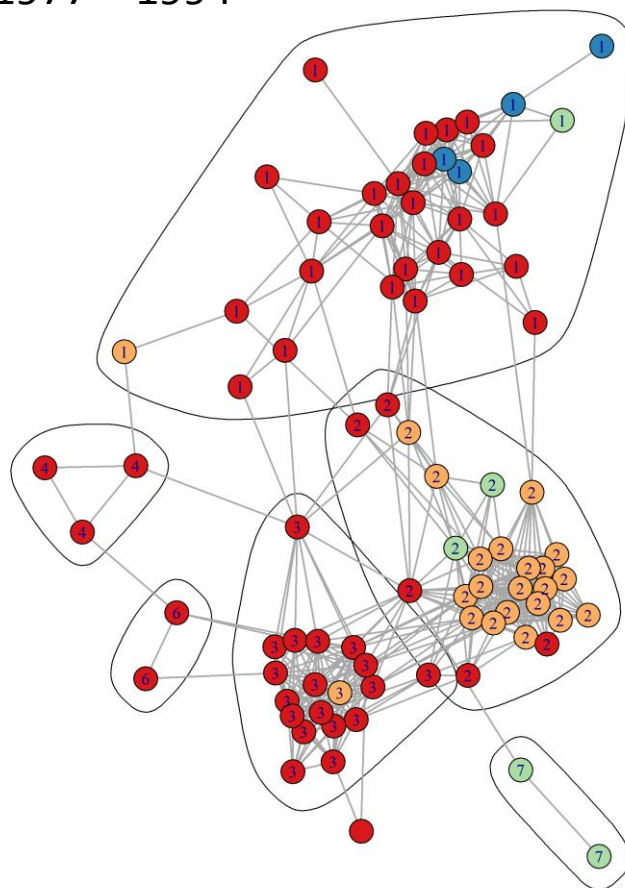
1964 – 1976



INICIATIVA 2

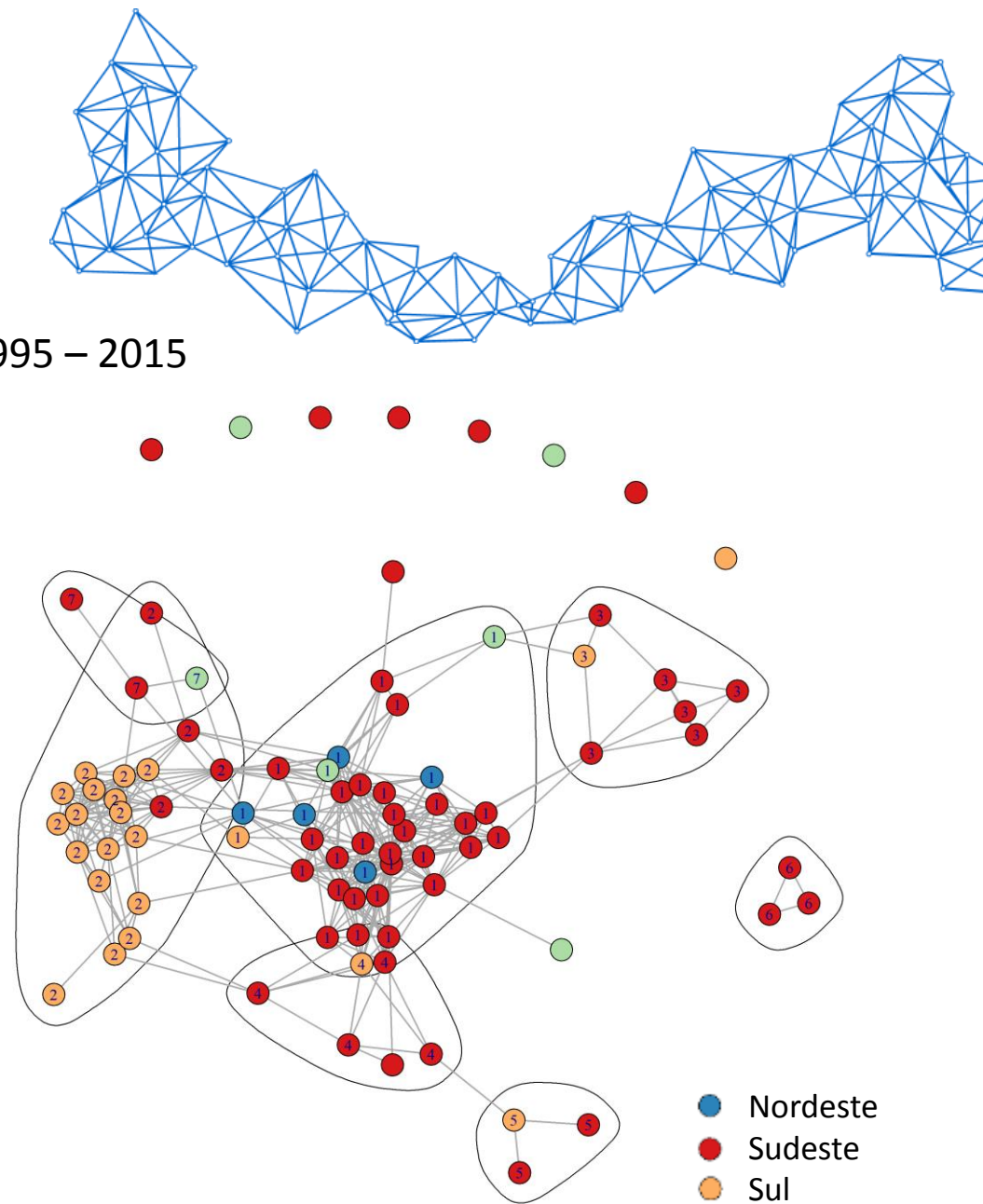
Redes Postos ONS

1977 – 1994



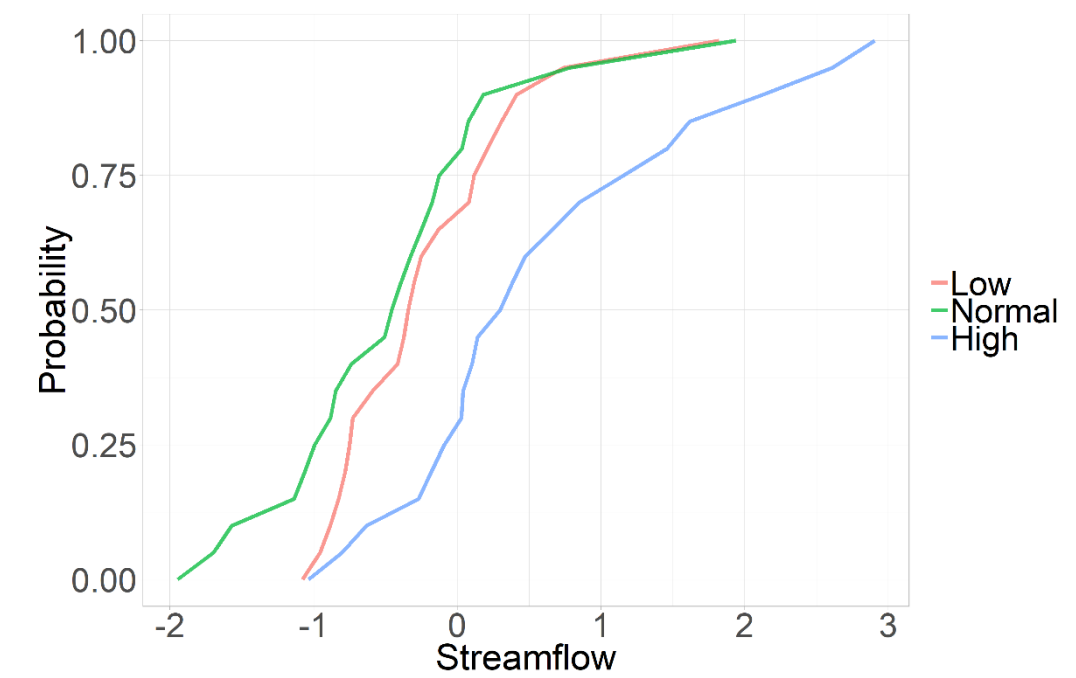
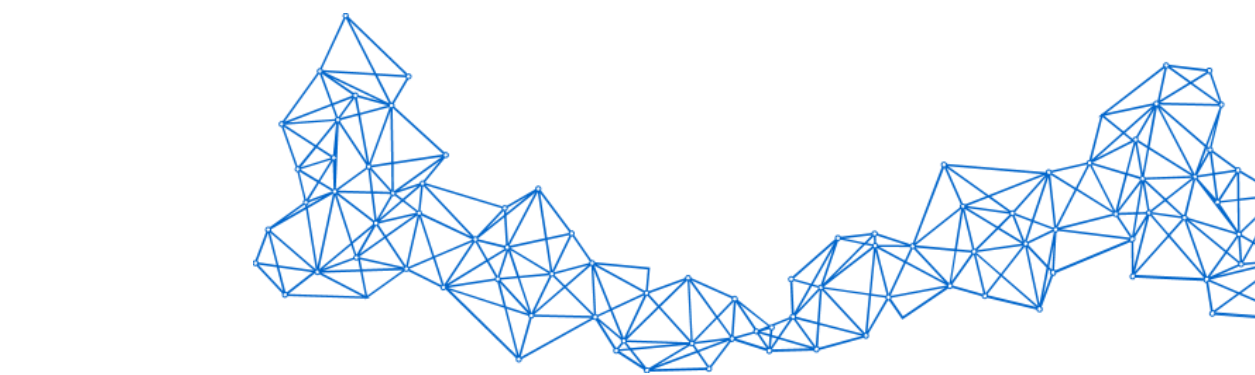
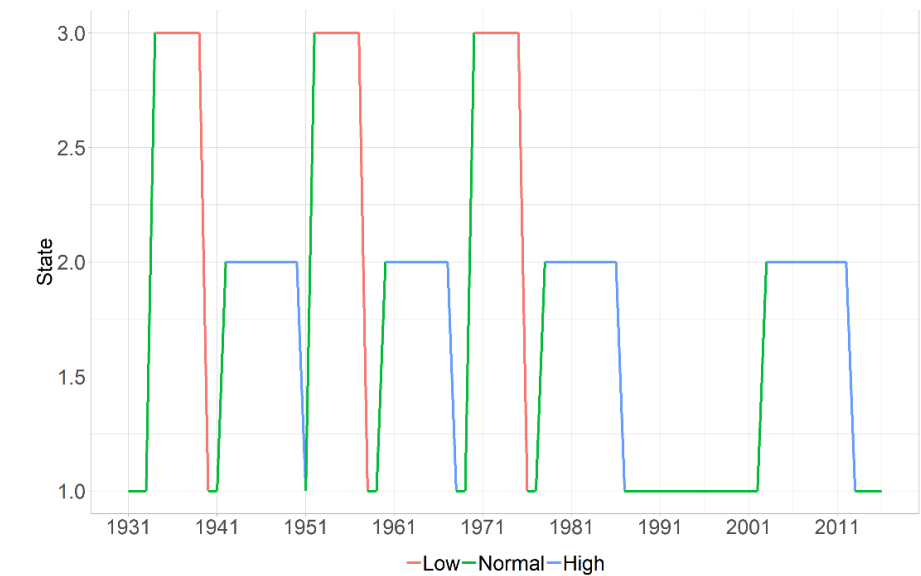
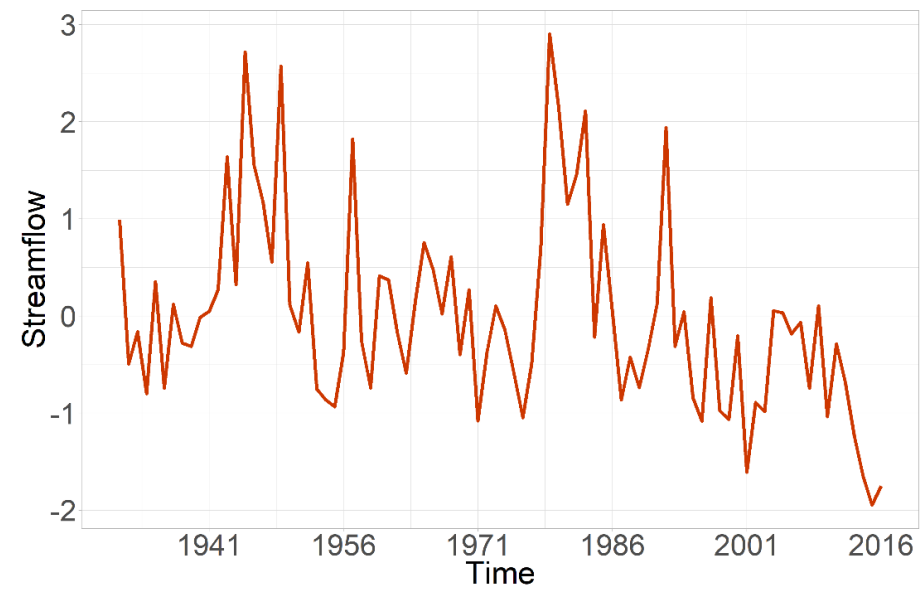
● Nordeste
● Sudeste
● Sul
● Norte

1995 – 2015



● Nordeste
● Sudeste
● Sul
● Norte

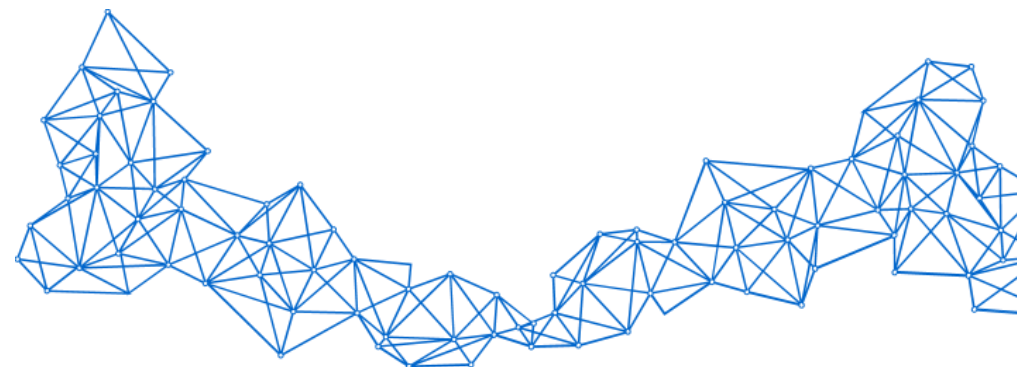
INICIATIVA 3



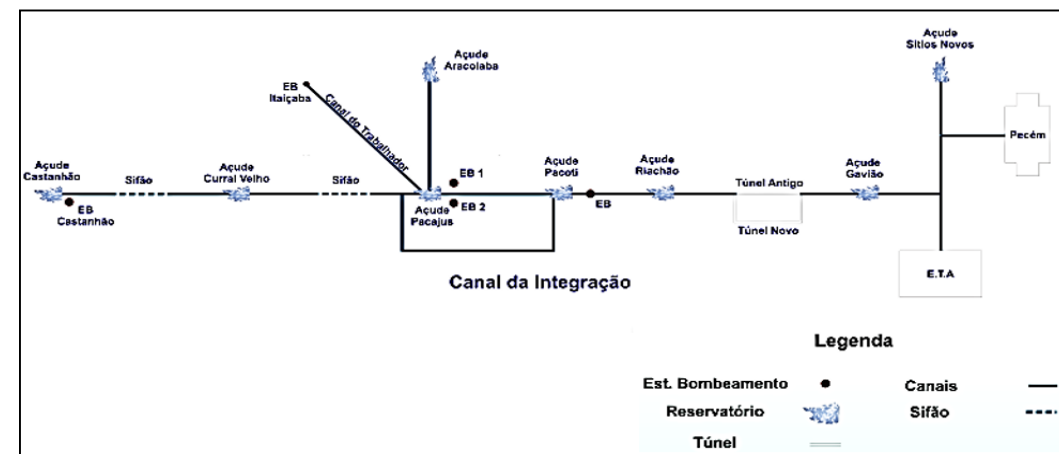
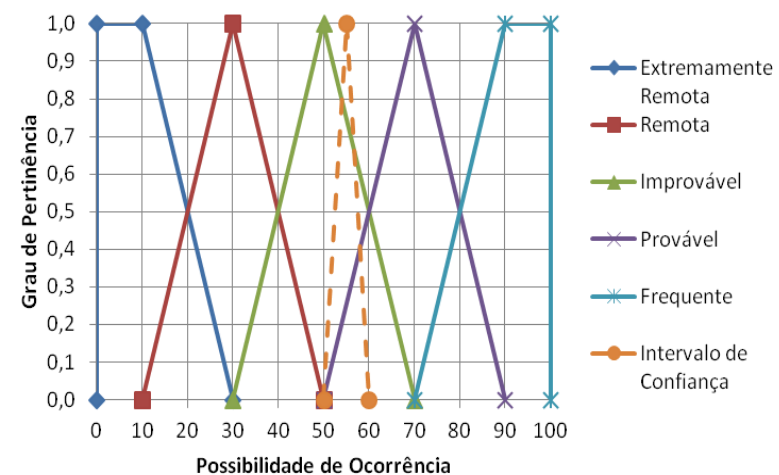
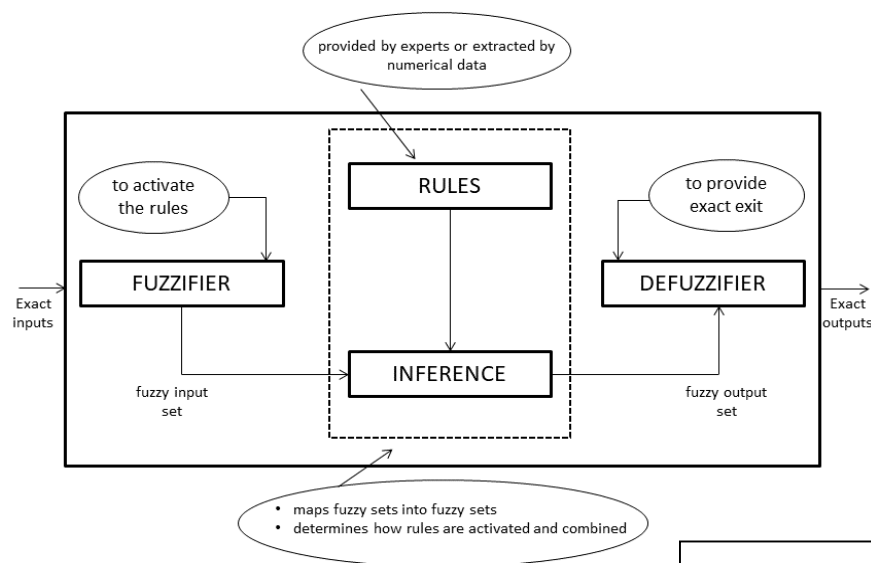
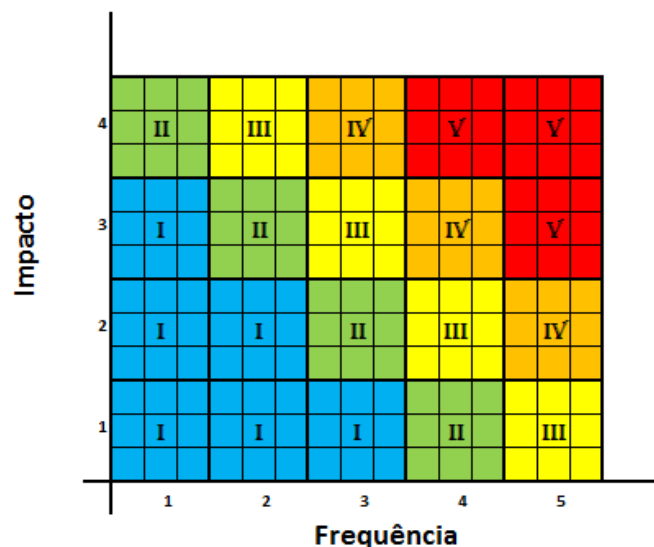
SÃO FRANCISCO - SOBRADINHO
Modelo HMM – Três Estágios
VAZÕES

INICIATIVA 4

Análise de Risco Sistêmico Utilizando Inferência Fuzzy



Regiões de Risco



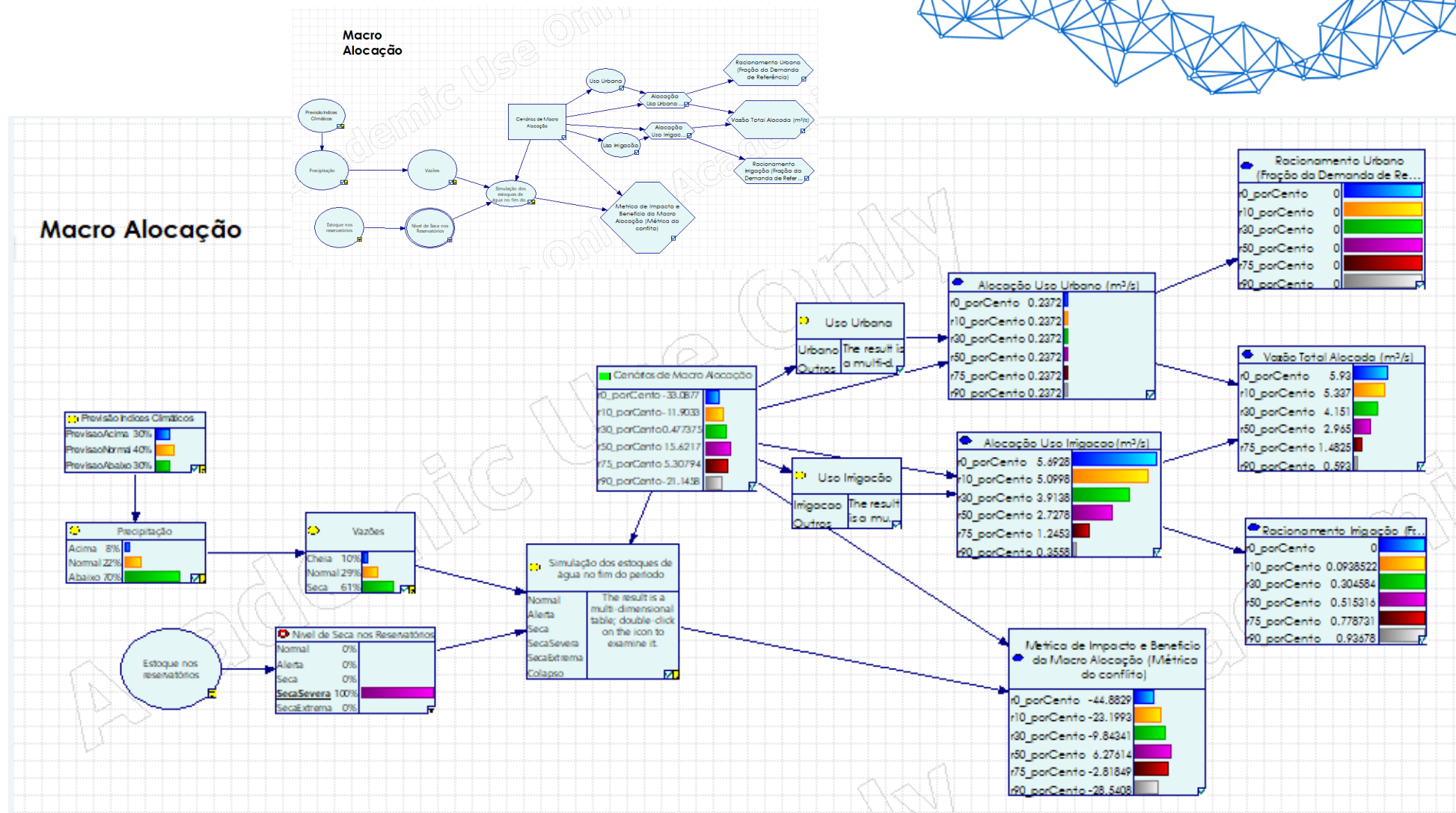
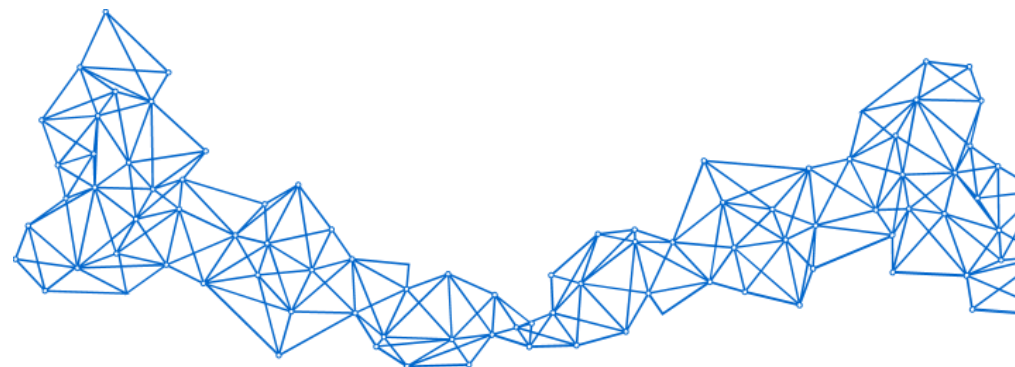
Infrastructure risks

Fuzzification

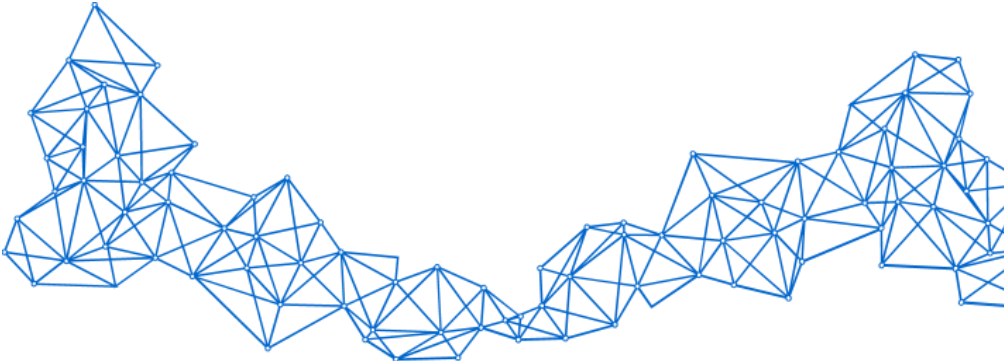
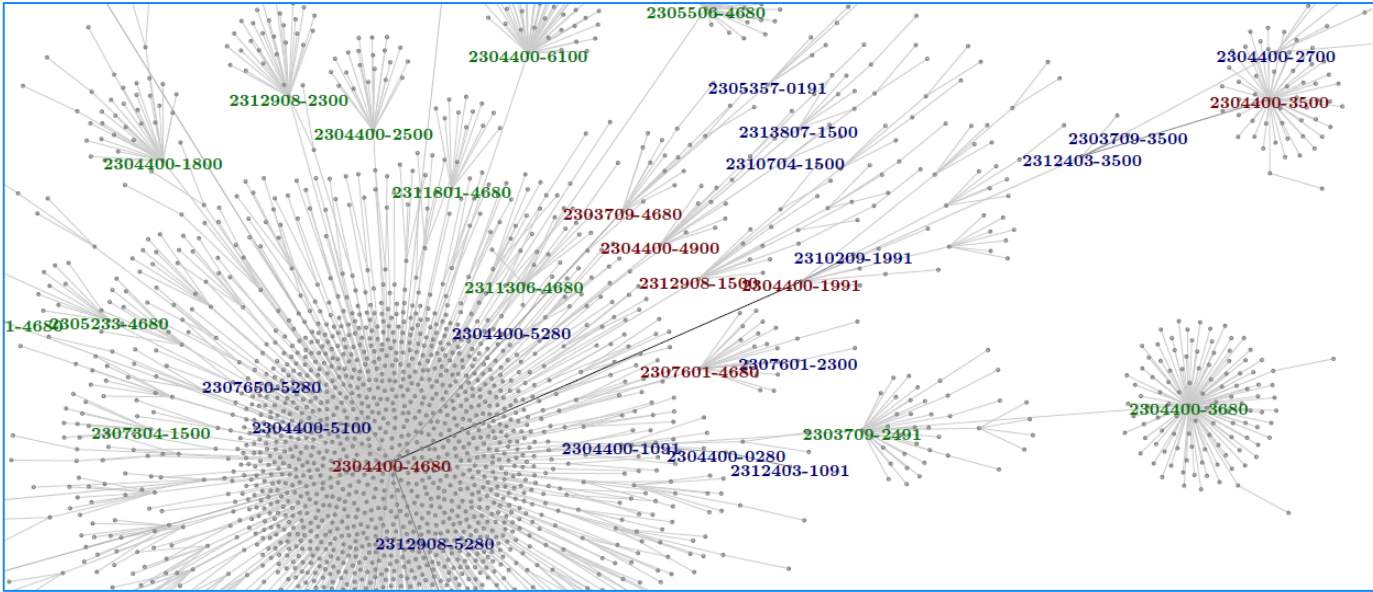
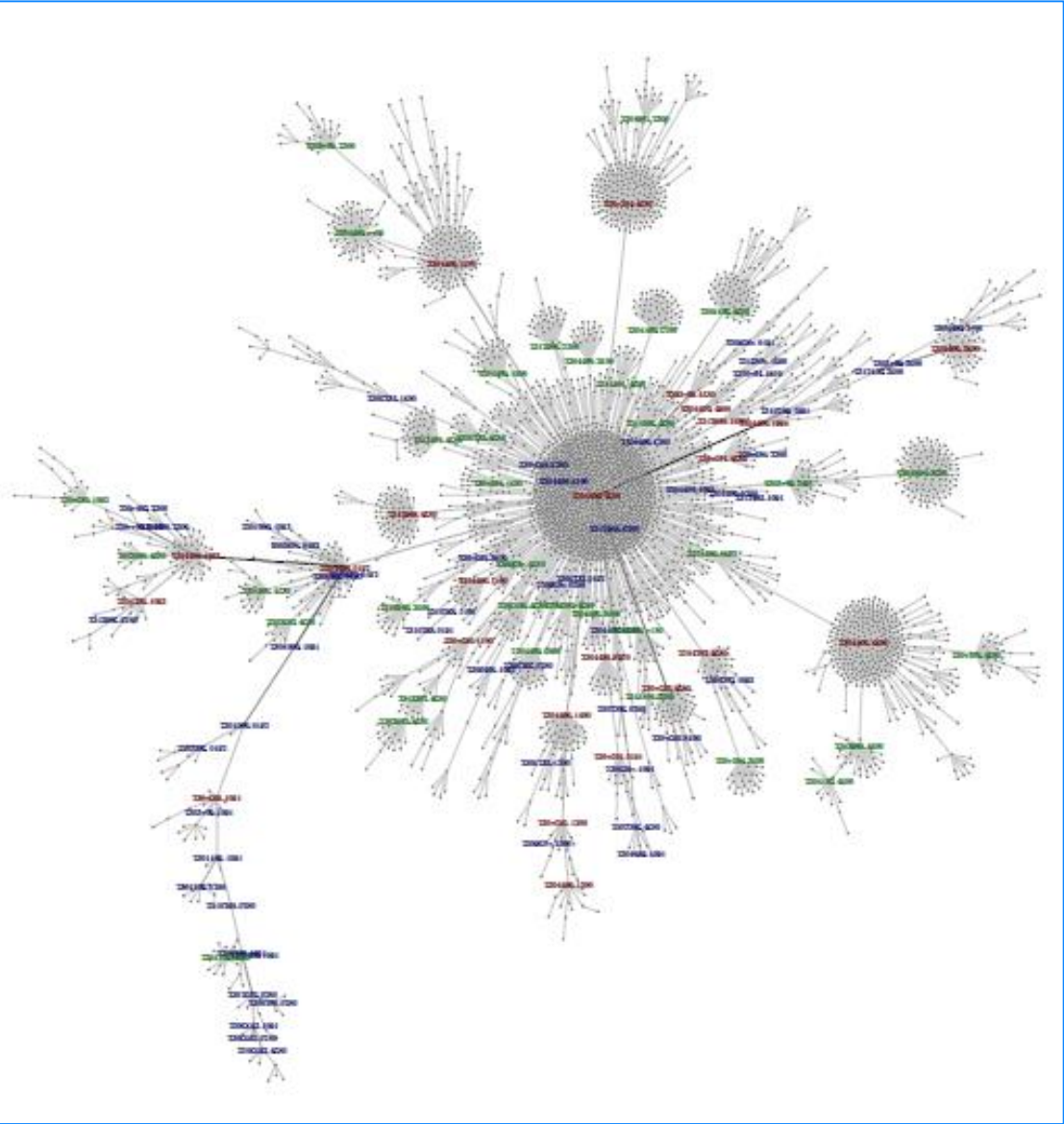
Subsystem risks analyses

Global system risks analyses

INICIATIVA 5



INICIATIVA 6



SOCIEDADE HUMANA



OBSERVAÇÕES FINAIS



Dedico esta Fala ao **Prof. Ruben La Laina Porto**





FIM

assis@ufc.br

