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1 **Benefits of cooperation in trans-national water-** 2 **energy systems**

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10 **Abstract:** Cooperation in international river basins is often challenged by upstream-downstream
11 conflicts over water allocation. In many cases, water allocation is linked to the energy sector
12 through hydropower. In this study, the *water value method* was used to simulate reservoir
13 operations in an international basin given different assumptions about national priorities and
14 regional energy cooperation. Benefits in the water sector and the power sector were compared
15 considering both cooperative and non-cooperative behavior by national players. The approach is
16 demonstrated for a semi-arid international river basin characterized by conflict between upstream
17 hydropower production and downstream irrigated agriculture. A scenario assuming regional
18 cooperation in the power sector came closest to the multi-sectoral basin cooperation benchmark
19 and produced fewer national costs than scenarios assuming non-cooperative behavior. The results
20 emphasize that power and water resources allocation should be viewed jointly in international river
21 basins where upstream hydropower operations can impact downstream irrigation supplies.
22 International cooperation in the power sector may ease upstream-downstream conflicts in these
23 cases.

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24 **Introduction**

25 There are more than 260 identified international river basins world-wide which affect about 40%
26 of the world's population (Wolf 1998). In international river basins, competition between upstream
27 and downstream countries may have significant economic impacts. The conflict is often between
28 irrigation and hydropower, particularly when a seasonal mismatch exists between peak demands.
29 Prominent examples of upstream-downstream disputes on water allocation in international river
30 basins are the Nile basin and the Aral Sea basin. Existing disputes between riparian countries in
31 international river basins are further challenged by world population growth and climate change.

32 Sadoff and Grey (2002) suggested that water conflicts in international river basins could be eased
33 by changing the perspective from sharing water itself to sharing the benefits from the use of water.
34 The main argument is that focusing on the benefits from the use of water transforms the zero-sum
35 game related to sharing water itself into a positive-sum game where all stakeholders could gain
36 from cooperation. Such a 'win-win' situation implies the assumption that the river basin as a whole
37 benefits from cooperation and that the benefits are distributed fairly (Dombrowsky 2009). Both
38 assumptions were addressed in recent research. Arjoon *et al.* (2014), Tilmant and Kinzelbach
39 (2012) and Whittington *et al.* (2005) assessed the value of cooperation in international river basins
40 and found that there are significant gains from basin-wide cooperation. The equity issue of sharing
41 benefits from cooperation has been addressed by game theory (Teasley and McKinney 2011; Wu
42 and Whittington 2006) and an approach based on a stakeholder vision of fairness (Arjoon et al.
43 2016). Despite the apparent benefits, cooperation in international basins can often be obstructed
44 by national and single-sector interests, who may be reluctant to make long-term commitments to
45 coordinate water use because of uncertainty about future water supply and demand as well as high
46 transaction costs (Wu and Whittington 2006).

47 In the last decades, hydro-economic models have been applied in various contexts to investigate
48 the economic efficiency of water allocation plans. These models normally consider simple mass
49 balance schemes of the river network and may use optimization according to economic criteria to
50 establish an efficiency benchmark or simulate the economic behavior of water users (Booker et al.
51 2012; Harou et al. 2009). In a typical formulation, hydrologic, agronomic and economic
52 information are used to maximize (minimize) the benefits (costs) related to different water uses
53 such as irrigation, hydropower, and industrial and domestic water use. Recent surveys of hydro-
54 economic models and their applications can be found in Bauer-Gottwein *et al.* (2016), Booker *et*
55 *al.* (2012), Harou *et al.* (2009) and Momblanch *et al.* (2016).

56 In river basins where hydropower plays an important role for the regional economy, the benefit of
57 water use for hydropower has to be included in the formulation of a hydro-economic model. A
58 common approach is to estimate the hydropower benefit based on constant or monthly-varying
59 exogenous electricity prices (Anghileri et al. 2013; Arjoon et al. 2014; Tilmant and Kelman 2007).
60 However, this approach might misrepresent the value of hydropower in the energy supply mix,
61 particularly when demands and alternative supply costs are varying. Pereira-Cardenal *et al.* (2015)
62 demonstrated the advantages of estimating hydropower values as an output from the interaction
63 between hydro-economic and power system models rather than an input to the hydro-economic
64 model.

65 This paper describes the implementation of a hydro-economic modeling approach to estimate the
66 benefit of power sector cooperation in international river basins. Power sector cooperation is
67 compared to a multi-sector cooperation benchmark as well to scenarios in which national and
68 sectoral priorities drive water allocation. The hydropower value is determined endogenously.

69 The proposed methodology was developed for semi-arid international river basins which are
70 characterized by conflicting water use between irrigated agriculture and hydropower in an
71 upstream-downstream configuration. Stochastic dynamic programming (SDP) was applied in
72 combination with the so-called *water value method* to simulate reservoir operations and water
73 allocation under different cooperation assumptions. The Syr Darya basin (SDRB) in Central Asia
74 was used as a case study.

75 **Material and Methods**

76 **The Syr Darya Basin**

77 The Syr Darya is one of the two main tributaries to the Aral Sea in Central Asia. The basin is
78 characterized by a semi-arid climate and a high dependence on irrigated agriculture. Agriculture
79 represents the largest consumptive water use, while hydropower represents the largest non-
80 consumptive water use in the basin. International water politics between the riparian countries are
81 dominated by the conflict between water use for hydropower in the upstream countries and
82 irrigated agriculture in the downstream countries. The conflict potential in water use for
83 hydropower and irrigated agriculture in an upstream-downstream configuration is not unique to
84 the Syr Darya basin but finds a parallel, for example, in the Nile basin (Wu and Whittington 2006).

85 About 70% of the river flow originated in the upstream part of the basin in the territory of
86 Kyrgyzstan (Cai 1999). The vast amounts of water combined with high elevation differences in
87 this area create highly favorable conditions for hydropower production. In fact, the biggest
88 reservoir in the basin, Toktogul (storage: $19500 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$), is located in Kyrgyzstan. Originally,
89 the reservoir was built by the Soviet Union in order to secure water supply to agriculture in

90 downstream regions. After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Kyrgyzstan’s winter electricity
91 demand increased significantly due to introduction of electrical heating. Today, Kyrgyzstan, which
92 is without significant hydrocarbon resources, is dependent on hydropower from Toktogul and the
93 downstream Naryn Cascade during the winter months.

94 Conversely, irrigated agriculture in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan depends on releases from
95 Toktogul during the vegetation period (April-October) in dry inflow years. Irrigated agriculture is
96 an important economic activity in both countries. Agriculture (mostly irrigated) contributes 21%
97 of Uzbekistan’s gross domestic product (GDP) (The World Bank 2012).

98 The river course, reservoirs and agricultural planning zones defined in this study are illustrated in
99 **Fig. 1.**

100 **Fig. 1.** Base Map of the Syr Darya River basin. Agricultural planning zones are introduced to
101 summarize irrigative water use in the respective area. The names of the planning zones indicate
102 the region and the country in which they are located (CHI: Chirchic River, FER: Fergana Valley,
103 NOR: Syr Darya Delta, SYR: Syr Darya Valley, KYR: Kyrgyzstan, TAD: Tajikistan, UZB:
104 Uzbekistan, KAZ: Kazakhstan).

105 In 1992, the seasonal mismatch between upstream and downstream water demand led to the
106 foundation of the *Interstate Commission for Water Coordination in Central Asia (ICWC)*. The
107 commission includes representatives of the five governments of Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan,
108 Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan and is entrusted with interstate water resources
109 management. Several agreements have been made in order to ensure sufficient releases from
110 Toktogul in the vegetation period. Probably, the most important is the “Agreement on the Use of
111 Water and Energy Resources in the Syr Darya Basin” (ICWC 1998) between Kyrgyzstan,

112 Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan. Tajikistan joined the agreement in 1999. The agreement asks for
113 sufficient releases from Toktogul to satisfy irrigation demands in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan. In
114 return, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan should compensate Kyrgyzstan with coal, gas and electricity
115 or their monetary equivalent in the non-vegetation period. Compliance with this agreement and all
116 following ones is jeopardized by the uncertain value of Toktogul's storage (Teasley and McKinney
117 2011): Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan are willing to compensate Kyrgyzstan for releases from
118 Toktogul in the vegetation period but they are not willing to compensate Kyrgyzstan for storing
119 water during wet years to hedge against the risk of low inflow in the following years. Water rights
120 trading is one potential solution discussed by the ICWC and other authorities in the Aral Sea basin
121 to facilitate basin-wide cooperation. Bekchanov et al. (2015) show by means of hydro-economic
122 modeling that water rights trading could increase basin-wide benefits significantly.

123 Besides basin-wide cooperation in the water sector for agricultural use, an opportunity for
124 cooperation in the power sector exists through the Central Asian Power System (CAPS). It is a
125 cluster of national grids, including the grids of Southern Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan,
126 Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan, operating in parallel to the United Energy System of Russia via
127 Kazakhstan (Tomberg 2012). During the Soviet Union, this power system, composed of 83 power
128 plants from Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan, was run centrally
129 from Tashkent, Uzbekistan. After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, national interests have
130 led to misappropriation of CAPS and it went out of operation in 2009 (Tomberg 2012).

131 For a detailed description of the political development in the region after the disintegration of the
132 Soviet Union, the reader is referred to the following references: Antipova *et al.* (2002), Cai (1999)
133 and Dinar *et al.* (2007).

134 In summary, water and power resources allocations in the basin are tightly linked by hydropower.
135 The dilemma of power supply deficits in Kyrgyzstan and water supply deficits for irrigated
136 agriculture in the downstream countries is the core of the water use conflict in the Syr Darya basin.

137 **Stochastic dynamic programming – water value method**

138 As mentioned previously, bilateral agreements fail because the value of storing water in Toktogul
139 during wet years to hedge against the risk of low inflow in coming years is unknown. Toktogul is
140 the only reservoir in the basin with inter-annual storage capacity. Therefore, this study focuses on
141 the upstream-downstream dispute on the releases from Toktogul for hydropower and irrigated
142 agriculture. Because of the inter-annual management focus, we argue that the basin can be
143 reasonably represented as a one-reservoir system.

144 Stochastic dynamic programming (SDP) in combination with the *water value method* (see
145 Wolfgang *et al.*, (2009) and references herein) represents a method to derive optimal reservoir
146 operating rules based on the efficient reservoir storage value as function of storage level, month of
147 the year and inflow uncertainty. The value of stored water is determined for a discrete number of
148 reservoir volume segments for each month of the year and inflow scenario (volume segments are
149 denoted by index m). The calculation of water values for each reservoir volume segment is possible
150 with SDP because the algorithm evaluates backward-moving the entire state space. That is the
151 reason why SDP was chosen as optimization method despite its drawbacks due to the curses of
152 dimensionality (see Giuliani *et al.* (2016)). For reviews on optimization methods for reservoir
153 operation the reader is referred to Castelletti *et al.* (2008) and Labadie (2004).

154 Reservoir operation is a complex optimization problem because present releases have to be
155 balanced against expected future benefits. These are uncertain due to uncertain future demand and

156 supply functions, and uncertain future inflows. The uncertainty for each parameter could be
157 described by separate state variables. However, only a limited number of state variables can be
158 solved efficiently with SDP and therefore a choice is required (see Labadie (2004)). The
159 uncertainty of Toktogul's inflow was considered as most important.

160 Similarly, each lateral inflow would have to be a state variable in the SDP optimization in order to
161 include them as stochastic inflows in the model. The lateral inflows were included in the
162 optimization phase as monthly average flows based on time series of the period 1960-1990. This
163 period was chosen because data for all lateral inflows and the inflow to Toktogul were available
164 for this period and it contains a sufficient range of wet, normal and dry inflow years to illustrate
165 the upstream-downstream water allocation conflict. It was verified that the use of average lateral
166 inflows does not significantly affect the resulting reservoir operation for the used model. The
167 optimization model also considered return flows (see **Fig. 2**: Ret_FER, Ret_MID, Ret_DS),
168 seepage losses from the river network and a minimum inflow requirement to the Northern Aral
169 Sea. **Fig. 2** shows the conceptual river network used for the optimization.

170 **Fig. 2.** Conceptual River Network.

171 The optimization is based on the recursive Bellman Equation (see Equation (2.1)) (Bellman 1957).
172 The algorithm is applied backward-moving in monthly time steps. Each objective is expressed in
173 economic terms and the single objective function is calculated as sum of the monetary values.
174 Consequently, the different objectives are implicitly weighted by their monetary value for society.
175 Benefits from water allocations to agriculture are maximized and costs for power production are
176 minimized over the planning horizon. This yields so-called water value tables for each inflow

177 scenario. They define an efficient reservoir operating rule as a function of reservoir storage, month
 178 of the year and inflow scenario.

179 The inflow to Toktogul is described by a discrete first-order monthly Markov Chain. Five inflow
 180 classes are defined based on quantiles of monthly flow records of the period 1911-1998: very dry
 181 (0th – 10th quantile), dry (10th – 30th); medium (30th – 70th); wet (70th – 90th); very wet (90th – 100th).
 182 Discrete flows, $q_{k,t}$, are defined as mean values of the observed flows falling into the defined
 183 classes. Serial correlation is modeled by transition probabilities, p_{kl} , which express the conditional
 184 probability of moving from inflow scenario k in time step t to inflow scenario l in time step t+1.
 185 The transition probabilities are approximated by the normalized transition frequencies observed in
 186 the period 1911-1998. Statistically, the empirically derived transition probabilities approximate
 187 the underlying transition probabilities more accurate the longer the observation record. The period
 188 1911-1998 was the longest, stationary inflow series to Toktogul available and hence the period
 189 chosen to derive the discrete first-order Markov Chain.

190 The state of the system is defined by Toktogul's storage volume, $v_{m,t}$, and the current month's
 191 inflow, $q_{k,t}$. The optimal value function, $F_t^*(v_{m,t}, q_{k,t})$, maximizes in each time step the sum of
 192 immediate, $b_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{tpp}_t, \mathbf{usd}_t)$, and expected future benefits, $E_{q_{k,t}}[F_{t+1}^*(v_{t+1}, q_{t+1})]$:

$$193 \quad F_t^*(v_{m,t}, q_{k,t}) = \max_{\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{tpp}_t, \mathbf{usd}_t} \left\{ b_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{tpp}_t, \mathbf{usd}_t) + E_{q_{k,t}}[F_{t+1}^*(v_{t+1}, q_{t+1})] \right\} \quad (2.1)$$

194 immediate benefits:

$$195 \quad b_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{tpp}_t, \mathbf{usd}_t) = \mathbf{mb}_{agr}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{c}_{tpp}^T \cdot (\mathbf{tpp}_{base,t} + \mathbf{tpp}_{peak,t}) - \mathbf{c}_{usd}^T \cdot (\mathbf{usd}_{base,t} + \mathbf{usd}_{peak,t}) \quad (2.2)$$

196 expected future benefits:

197
$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{k,t}} \left[\mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{m,t+1}, q_{t+1}) \right] = \sum_l p_{kl} \cdot \mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{m,t+1}, q_{l,t+1}) \quad (2.3)$$

198 where \mathbf{x}_t is the vector expressing water allocations to each crop type in each planning zone, \mathbf{mb}_{agr}^T
 199 represents the corresponding agricultural water value, \mathbf{tpp}_t is the vector of thermal power
 200 production for all TPPs, \mathbf{c}_{tpp} is the corresponding marginal cost, \mathbf{usd}_t is the unserved power
 201 demand volume and \mathbf{c}_{usd} stands for corresponding curtailment costs (see the following section for
 202 more explanations on the variables).

203 Equation (2.1) defines a one-stage optimization problem resulting in optimal releases, water and
 204 power allocations in each time step. The one-stage optimization problem is a linear program (LP)
 205 that was solved using the *cplexlp* solver by IBM[®]. The main constraints are the water balance at
 206 Toktogul, limits to irrigation water withdrawals, water availability at the irrigation sites, limits to
 207 releases from Toktogul, limits to thermal power production, limits to the defined unserved power
 208 demand segments and the satisfaction of observed power demand during base and peak hours. The
 209 expected future benefit function is approximated by a piece-wise linear function in order to avoid
 210 discretizing the decision variables. This approximation is also introduced as constraints to the
 211 optimization (see Equation (2.4)).

212
$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{k,t}} \left[\mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{t+1}, q_{t+1}) \right] \approx -\pi_m \cdot (v_{m,t+1} - v_{t+1}) + \mathbb{E}_{q_{k,t}} \left[\mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{m,t+1}, q_{t+1}) \right] \quad \text{for } m = 1, 2, \dots, M-1$$

213
$$\pi_m = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{q_{k,t}} \left[\mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{m,t+1}, q_{t+1}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{q_{k,t}} \left[\mathbf{F}_{t+1}^*(v_{m,t+1}, q_{t+1}) \right]}{v_{m+1,t+1} - v_{m,t+1}} \quad (2.4)$$

214 where m is the index for the discretized storage volumes and M is the index indicating the
 maximum storage volume.

215 Water values, WV [USD/m³], for each reservoir level correspond to the shadow prices of the water
216 balance constraint at Toktogul (see Equation (2.5)).

$$217 \quad WV_t = \frac{\partial F_t^*}{\partial v} \approx \frac{\Delta F_t^*}{\Delta v} \quad (2.5)$$

218 In the presented study, the storage discretization is chosen to ensure a good approximation of the
219 derivative. Nevertheless, the authors acknowledge that state-of-the-art linear programming solvers
220 provide shadow prices as output variables and hence the water values could be obtained in each
221 step directly from the solver. The algorithm is run for several years until the water values are no
222 longer dependent on the end point condition.

223 System operation is simulated forward-moving using historical inflow time series for the period
224 1960-1990 instead of average lateral inflows used during the optimization. Based on the observed
225 inflow and storage volume in time step t , solving the linear program in Equation (2.1) results for
226 each time step in releases, water and power allocations that maximize immediate and expected
227 future benefits. The expected future benefit function is estimated from the water value tables. The
228 slopes of the expected future benefit function are given by the weighted average of WV_{t+1} weighted
229 with the respective transition probabilities.

230 **Hydro-Economic Input Data**

231 Unless otherwise noted, all input data used in this study are from data collection executed during
232 the Aral Sea Basin Economic Allocation Model (BEAM) project conducted by the World Bank in
233 2013. The data were obtained by personal communication with Dr. Benoit Blarel of the World
234 Bank on 13.11.2017.

235 **Hydrological input data**

236 The river runoff pattern in the SDRB is correlated to snow accumulation during the previous winter
237 season (October-March) and the extent of glaciers in the Tien Shan mountains (Oberhänsli et al.
238 2011). As a consequence, the river runoff is highly seasonal. About 70-80% of the total annual
239 river flow occurs in the summer season (April-September) (see **Fig. 3**).

240 **Fig. 3.** Monthly average inflows to Toktogul of the period 1911 – 1998.

241 **Agricultural input data**

242 Fifteen crop types are considered in the model. Cotton and wheat are the most frequently grown
243 crops in the basin. Data for crop evapotranspiration, effective rainfall, crop area, leaching volumes,
244 and seepage losses from channels and at field level are available. Seepage losses from channels
245 transporting the river water to the agricultural site and at field level are significant in the basin
246 (both approximately 30% according to stakeholder workshops conducted during the BEAM
247 project and Bekchanov et al. (2016)). They are used as proxy for the basin efficiency which defines
248 the ratio between water diverted from the river and water that actually reaches the crop. Monthly
249 irrigation water requirements for each crop type in each planning zone are calculated with these
250 input data. It is assumed that the crop area distribution in the basin is constant over the planning
251 horizon.

252 The total average annual river discharge is about 40% less than total annual irrigation water
253 requirement. This underlines the water scarcity in the basin. Uzbekistan has by far the highest
254 irrigation water demand; especially for cotton and wheat. The Uzbek annual irrigation water
255 demand is more than 3.5 times larger than the second highest demand of Kazakhstan.

256 Detailed demand functions for agricultural users in the Syr Darya basin are not available and
257 therefore constant marginal benefits are assumed. Consequently, average and marginal water
258 values are identical. Marginal agricultural water values are calculated with the residual imputation
259 method based on the production exhaustion theorem (Young and Loomis 2014). Input costs for
260 labor, seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and capital (excluding the irrigation system) are considered.
261 When comparing benefits derived from water allocations to competing uses, it is important to
262 compare at-source values instead of at-site values. At-site values are usually larger than at-source
263 values because they value the water which arrives at the user site neglecting losses and conveyance
264 costs. Conveyance costs could not be included due to data deficiencies but losses occurring on the
265 way from the river to the crop were included. **Fig. 4** lists the resulting estimates of agricultural at-
266 source water values. In the optimization model, it is assumed that these water values are constant
267 throughout the growing season even though the authors are aware that agricultural water values
268 depend on the crop yield – water supply relationship. However, it is argued that this assumption
269 does not significantly affect the comparative valuation of different cooperation scenarios and
270 reduces the complexity of the SDP setup.

271 **Fig. 4.** Estimated agricultural at-source water values, (USD/m³), for each crop type and planning
272 zone in the Syr Darya basin (alf: alfalfa, cot: cotton, tmt: tomato, wht: wheat, tgr: table grapes,
273 shv: cucumber, ric: rice, pot: potato, sbt: sugar beet, stf: stone fruits, mln: melon, mng: mango,
274 mzf: maize for fodder, mzg: maize for grain). It should be noted that cotton is among the low value
275 crops.

276 **Power system model**

277 The power system of Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and a hypothetical reestablished joint power system
278 between the two is included in the optimization model in order to evaluate the potential impact of

279 power systems on international river basin cooperation. Approximately 88% of Uzbekistan's
280 power supply is based on thermal power production (World Energy Council 2007). The Uzbek
281 power system is modeled with 10 thermal power plants (TPP). The Kyrgyz power system is
282 assumed to be composed of one TPP and hydropower from Toktogul and the Naryn Cascade. 90%
283 of Kyrgyz power supply is based on hydropower of which 97% are concentrated in the Naryn
284 Cascade (Antipova et al. 2002).

285 The power system model is set up as simple as possible and as complex as needed to serve the
286 purpose. A merit order approach (Wangsteen 2007) is chosen which assumes that producers have
287 constant marginal costs and to satisfy the power demand, production is scheduled from cheapest
288 to most expensive producer. Variable efficiency rates, transmission and security constraints, and
289 costs such as start-up costs are neglected.

290 An elastic demand function is used to model cost efficient allocation of the power resources in
291 Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan. For both countries, an elastic demand function is estimated based on
292 observed demand (see **Fig. 5**), the electricity tariff and price elasticity. Electricity tariffs are found
293 to be 52.5 USD/MWh and 25.2 USD/MWh in Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan, respectively. The price
294 elasticity is assumed to equal -0.2 in Uzbekistan and -0.15 in Kyrgyzstan. For linearization
295 purposes, the demand function is divided into 5% segments of the observed demand. Each segment
296 was associated with a constant willingness to pay.

297 **Fig. 5.** Observed monthly power demand in Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan during base and peak
298 hours, (GWh/month).

299 In the optimization, the estimated power demand function is implemented as curtailment source
300 with a marginal cost corresponding to the willingness to pay for the respective power segment. In

301 other words, the observed power demand can be satisfied by power production and 5% curtailment
302 increments at a certain cost. Demand satisfaction is considered separately for base and peak
303 demand hours in one month. If monthly demand was simply averaged, parts of the supply function
304 needed during peak demand hours would be neglected which might influence the hydropower
305 value and reservoir operation significantly. In Kyrgyzstan, power demands peak in the winter
306 months due to climate. Power demand in Uzbekistan peaks during summer months because of
307 electricity requirements for the extensive irrigation system.

308 **Hydropower**

309 From the hydropower perspective, the potential yield of Toktogul and Naryn cascade combined is
310 almost 3 times higher than the next highest potential yield at the Chirchik reservoir (Toktogul and
311 Naryn Cascade: 889 MWh/10⁶ m³; Chirchik: 322 MWh/10⁶ m³). These figures demonstrate that
312 the joint system of Toktogul and Naryn Cascade dominates the Syr Darya basin from the storage
313 and hydropower perspective.

314 For monthly reservoir operation, the storage volume of the Naryn Cascade is negligible compared
315 to releases from Toktogul. Thus, it is assumed that the Naryn Cascade always produces
316 hydropower at maximum head. A constant power yield is assumed for Toktogul and Naryn
317 Cascade combined ($y_{hp} = 860 \text{ MWh}/10^6 \text{ m}^3$) in order to reduce complexity of the SDP setup. It
318 corresponds to the medium storage volume of Toktogul, 12500 10⁶ m³. The error due to this
319 assumption should be reasonably small because the power yield for Toktogul and Naryn Cascade
320 combined varies only by 17% over the storage range of Toktogul. At the chosen yield the flow
321 capacity of the Naryn Cascade is the binding flow constraint and thus it is used as maximum release
322 volume for the combined system.

323 Hydropower production costs are negligible compared to thermal power production and thus
324 hydropower operational costs are assumed to be zero.

325 **Experiment Setting**

326 The simulation approach to demonstrate the impact of collaboration in the power sector and the
327 agricultural sector on international river basin cooperation can be summarized in two steps:

- 328 1. Efficient reservoir operating rules (water value tables) for Toktogul are derived using SDP
329 in combination with the *water value method*.
- 330 2. Based on the water value tables, optimal reservoir releases, water allocations, power
331 allocations and related benefits are simulated and compared.

332 In six different cooperation scenarios, Toktogul releases and water allocations are optimized either
333 on the national or the basin scale. Three different operating objectives are considered: (1) benefits
334 in the agricultural sector only (SSAgr) (see Equations (2.9)), (2) costs in the power sector only
335 (SSPower) (see Equations (2.7) and (2.8)) and (3) difference between benefits in the agricultural
336 sector and costs in the power sector (MS) (see Equations (2.2) and (2.6)). Hence, scenario specific
337 steady-state water value tables are determined. These are used to simulate optimal reservoir
338 releases, water allocations, power allocations and corresponding benefits for the different
339 scenarios. The main characteristics of the scenarios are summarized in **Table 1** and the following
340 sections. The performance of the different scenarios is evaluated based on the cumulative
341 difference between basin-wide benefits in the agricultural sector and costs in the power sector over
342 the simulation period.

343 **Scenario A: Basin_MS**

344 The basin-multi-sector scenario optimizes the operation of Toktogul to maximize the difference
345 between basin-wide agricultural benefits and power generation costs for a reestablished power grid
346 between Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan (see Equation (2.2)). This implies that monthly power
347 demand of Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan is summed and can be satisfied with power production from
348 both countries.

349 The basin_MS scenario represents a theoretical benchmark for multi-sector, basin-wide
350 cooperation in the Syr Darya basin.

351 **Scenario D: National_MS**

352 Toktogul releases are optimized to maximize agricultural benefits and to minimize power
353 generation costs in Kyrgyzstan. Water allocation to downstream agricultural sites are determined
354 sequentially with linear programs (LPs, see Equation (2.1) considering only immediate, national
355 agricultural benefits) given the remaining water availability after Kyrgyzstan has implemented
356 unilaterally optimal reservoir release decisions. The Kyrgyz and the Uzbek power system are
357 considered separately. Consequently, the power generation in Uzbekistan is modeled with a linear
358 program which minimizes generation costs (see Equation (2.1) considering only immediate,
359 national power generation costs). Equation (2.6) shows the corresponding objective function.

360
$$\mathbf{b}_t = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{b}_{KYR,agr}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}_{KYR,agr,t} - \mathbf{c}_{KYR,tpp}^T \cdot (\mathbf{tpp}_{KYR,base,t} + \mathbf{tpp}_{KYR,peak,t}) - \mathbf{c}_{usd}^T \cdot (\mathbf{usd}_{KYR,base,t} + \mathbf{usd}_{KYR,peak,t}) \quad (2.6)$$

361 The national_MS scenario stands for national appropriation of the water resources and the case
362 that Kyrgyzstan optimizes Toktogul for the agricultural and the power sector.

363 **Scenario B: Basin_SSPower**

364 A reestablished power grid between Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan is considered which implies that
365 monthly power demand of both countries can be satisfied with power resources from both
366 countries. This hypothetically shared power grid is essentially the same as a regional power
367 market. The objective function only contained power generation costs (see Equation (2.7)). Given
368 optimal reservoir release decisions with respect to the joint power system, water allocation to
369 agriculture in each time step is determined sequentially in each country with LPs (see Equation
370 (2.1) considering only immediate, national agricultural benefits).

371
$$\mathbf{b}_t = -\mathbf{c}_{tpp}^T \cdot (\mathbf{tpp}_{base,t} + \mathbf{tpp}_{peak,t}) - \mathbf{c}_{usd}^T \cdot (\mathbf{usd}_{base,t} + \mathbf{usd}_{peak,t}) \quad (2.7)$$

372 The basin_SSPower scenario is introduced to evaluate the impact of cooperation in the power
373 sector on water resources allocation in the basin.

374 **Scenario E: National_SSPower**

375 For evaluation of cooperation in the power sector the national_SSPower scenario optimizes
376 Toktogul releases only with respect to power generation costs in Kyrgyzstan. The Uzbek power
377 system is independent and the water allocation to agriculture in the riparian countries is determined
378 sequentially as in the basin_SSPower scenario.

379
$$\mathbf{b}_t = -\mathbf{c}_{KYR,tpp}^T \cdot (\mathbf{tpp}_{KYR,base,t} + \mathbf{tpp}_{KYR,peak,t}) - \mathbf{c}_{usd}^T \cdot (\mathbf{usd}_{KYR,base,t} + \mathbf{usd}_{KYR,peak,t}) \quad (2.8)$$

380 **Scenario C: Basin_SSAgr**

381 The basin_SSAgr scenario optimizes operation of Toktogul only with respect to agricultural
382 benefits. Based on the resulting releases the power generation in Kyrgyzstan is scheduled with a
383 linear program (see Equation (2.1) considering only immediate, national power generation costs).

384 The Uzbek power system is modeled as in the national_MS scenario. In case the power generated
385 from Toktogul releases exceeds the Kyrgyz power demand, it is assumed that Kyrgyzstan receives
386 a benefit from exporting this power at a price of 0.046 USD/kWh (Peyrouse 2009). This benefit is
387 subtracted from the thermal power production costs in Kyrgyzstan during the simulation phase. It
388 is not considered in the objective function (see Equation (2.9)).

$$389 \quad \mathbf{b}_t = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{b}_{agr}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}_t \quad (2.9)$$

390 In case the power generated from Toktogul releases is less than the Kyrgyz power demand,
391 unserved power demand costs (USD Costs) are accumulated outside of the objective function and
392 considered in the performance indicator, PF^{ind} , of the scenario.

393 **Scenario F: National_SSAgr**

394 The national counterpart of the basin_SSAgr scenario optimizes Toktogul releases only with
395 respect to agricultural benefits in Kyrgyzstan. However, a preliminary analysis showed that the
396 discrete inflows to Toktogul and monthly average flows from the lateral sources available to
397 FER_KYR (Src_NAR, Src_AND and Src_KAR) provide sufficient water to fully supply the
398 comparably low irrigation water demand in each month and inflow scenario. Thus, no specific
399 operation of Toktogul would be needed in this scenario and it would function as run-through
400 reservoir. In reality, it is no option to operate Toktogul as run-through reservoir and therefore this
401 scenario is not considered in the comparison.

402 **Results and Discussion**

403 **Water Value Tables**

404 The five optimization scenarios result in steady-state water value tables which define optimal
405 reservoir operation according to the different objective functions (see Equation (2.2) and Equations
406 (2.6) to (2.9)). Contour plots of the tables are shown in **Fig. 6**. The tables show that the value of
407 stored water increases in each month from top to bottom of the reservoir and from the *very wet* to
408 the *very dry* inflow scenario. In months where it is important to store water for future releases the
409 water value increases compared to values in other months at the same storage level. In some water
410 value tables a drop of contour lines can be observed in June. This reflects that June is the highest
411 inflow month.

412 Almost identical water value tables are found for the national_MS and the national_SSPower
413 scenario. This emphasizes that specific operation of Toktogul is needed to satisfy Kyrgyz power
414 demand while it is not for the agricultural sector. **Fig. 6** illustrates a marked increase in the cost of
415 releasing water prior to the months with highest power demand (Nov-Mar).

416 **Fig. 6.** Contour plots of the steady-state water value tables (water values in USD/m³) for the
417 basin_MS scenario (A), the basin_SSPower scenario (B), the basin_SSAgr scenario (C), the
418 national_MS scenario (D) and the national_SSPower scenario (E). The contour lines (blue lines)
419 represent reservoir levels with the same water value (number on contour line). These values
420 indicate the optimal cost for water released from the respective volume segment.

421 The water value tables of the basin_SSAgr scenario reflect the seasonality of irrigation water
422 requirements; water values are highest prior to the months with highest demand (Jun-Aug). The
423 comparably low water values indicate that, in the efficient allocation, demand satisfaction of high

424 value crops such as fruits and vegetables does not depend on the operation of Toktogul. Water
425 supply to high demand and low value crops such as cotton seems to dominate the water value
426 tables for the basin_SSAgr scenario.

427 The water values for the basin_SSPower scenario are significantly higher than the values found
428 for the basin_SSAgr scenario indicating that hydropower production from Toktogul is more
429 valuable than releases for downstream agriculture. It turns out that the water values for this
430 scenario equal 0.0731 USD/m³ over large ranges of Toktogul's storage. This value corresponds to
431 the marginal power production cost of the Uzbek thermal power plants 3 and 4. Both plants have
432 large production capacities compared to more expensive power sources. It seems that hydropower
433 from Toktogul can substitute thermal power production by more expensive producers for most
434 reservoir levels in each month. However, the water values for this scenario also reveal the
435 importance of saving water for winter power demands.

436 Water values of the basin_MS scenario are the highest because the scenario considers basin-wide
437 agricultural benefits and power production costs from the joint power system between Uzbekistan
438 and Kyrgyzstan. The seasonality introduced by irrigation water demands almost disappears
439 because of joint power demands where seasonal differences are lower. From the basin perspective,
440 releases from Toktogul seem to be most valuable from December to August.

441 **Comparison of multi-sectoral cooperation scenarios**

442 The water value tables in **Fig. 6** are used to simulate the operation of Toktogul for the period 1960-
443 1990. Given the scenario specific operation of Toktogul, benefits in the agricultural sector and
444 costs in the power sector are determined as described in the Materials and Method section. The

445 performance indicator, PF^{ind} , was introduced which expresses the annual difference between
 446 basin-wide benefits in the agricultural sector and costs in the power sector.

$$447 \quad PF_n^{ind} = \sum_{t=Jan}^{Dec} \mathbf{mb}_{agr}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}_t^* - \mathbf{c}_{tpp}^T \cdot (\mathbf{tpp}_{base,t}^* + \mathbf{tpp}_{peak,t}^*) - \mathbf{c}_{usd}^T \cdot (\mathbf{usd}_{base,t}^* + \mathbf{usd}_{peak,t}^*) \quad (3.1)$$

448 for $n = 1960, 1961, \dots, 1990$

448 where \mathbf{x}_t^* , \mathbf{tpp}_t^* and \mathbf{usd}_t^* are basin-wide water allocation to agriculture, thermal power production
 449 and unserved power demand, respectively, determined during the simulation phase for the different
 450 scenarios (see Materials and Method section).

451 It should be noted that optimal operation decisions are not unique in cases where water values are
 452 identical for different storage levels (see for example the basin_SSPower scenario). In these cases,
 453 the simulation shows only one optimal solution for the system operation. Priority criteria could be
 454 introduced to select certain candidates of the possible optimal solutions. This study did not
 455 investigate this.

456 The cumulative performance indicator and national costs for the different cooperation scenarios
 457 are compared. **Fig. 7** shows the cumulative performance indicator for all scenarios.

458 **Fig. 7.** Cumulative performance indicator.

459 It can be seen that the theoretical benchmark scenario, basin_MS scenario, accumulates over the
 460 simulation period at least 15 billion USD more than all remaining scenarios. This gives an estimate
 461 for the potential value of international cooperation in the agricultural and the power sector. The
 462 national_MS scenario accumulates at the end of the simulation period only 7 million USD more
 463 than the national_SSPower scenario. It is expected from the water value tables that these two
 464 scenarios result in almost identical benefits for the basin. The basin_SSAGR scenario performs

465 worst with respect to the difference in basin-wide benefits in the agricultural sector and costs in
466 the power sector. It accumulates 1.72 billion USD less than the national_MS scenario. The
467 basin_SSPower scenario comes closest to the multi-sectoral basin cooperation benchmark. It
468 outperforms the basin_SSAgr scenario by 7.93 billion USD over the simulation period.

469 The cause of the difference in cumulative performance indicators becomes clearer when national
470 costs due to water deficits in the agricultural sector, thermal power production and unserved power
471 demand are analyzed.

472 The differences in national costs in Tajikistan and Kazakhstan are one order of magnitude lower
473 than the differences in Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan. This finding confirms that Toktogul's
474 operation with respect to the water use in Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan is key to the upstream-
475 downstream conflict in the Syr Darya basin from an economical perspective. Thus, the discussion
476 on national costs focuses on the differences between scenarios in Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan (see
477 **Table 2**).

478 The negative thermal production cost in Kyrgyzstan for the basin_SSAgr scenario originates from
479 Kyrgyzstan's export of excess hydropower in the summer months (see Materials and Method
480 section). While these export benefits could be lower or higher with changing export prices and
481 agreements, the values show that Kyrgyz benefits due to exported electricity are low compared to
482 differences in agricultural shortage costs in Uzbekistan and unserved power demand costs in
483 Kyrgyzstan. Therefore, it is concluded that the interpretation of the scenario comparison does not
484 depend on the value of the electricity export price.

485 As expected, the two national scenarios succeeded to lower unserved power demand costs in
486 Kyrgyzstan significantly. This is the main reason why these two national scenarios result in
487 increased cumulative performance indicators compared to the basin_SSAgr scenario.

488 The basin_SSPower scenario creates for all countries combined less agricultural shortage costs
489 than the national_MS and the national_SSPower scenario. These two scenarios show lower
490 agricultural shortage costs only in Kyrgyzstan because substitution of some thermal power
491 production by hydropower during the vegetation period seems to be beneficial from the national
492 perspective.

493 The cumulative performance indicator of the basin_SSPower scenario is closest to the indicator of
494 the basin_MS scenario. It uses hydropower from Toktogul to keep unserved power demand costs
495 in Kyrgyzstan on a comparably low level and at the same time to lower thermal power production
496 costs in Uzbekistan. The increase of agricultural shortage costs in Uzbekistan is markedly lower
497 than saved unserved power demand costs (compare basin_SSPower and basin_SSAgr). The lower
498 value of agricultural shortage costs in Uzbekistan compared to thermal power production costs in
499 Uzbekistan and unserved power demand costs in Kyrgyzstan explains the discrepancy between the
500 basin_SSPower and basin_SSAgr scenario.

501 The basin_MS scenario allocates electricity from Uzbek thermal power production to Kyrgyzstan
502 in the winter months in order to reduce unserved power demand costs. During the vegetation
503 period, releases from Toktogul are used to limit agricultural shortage costs in all countries, reduce
504 thermal power production and unserved power demand costs in Uzbekistan. In comparison to
505 previous hydro-economic studies in the SDRB, this scenario also confirms the potential value of
506 irrigation benefits in the basin. Cai et al. (2002) and (2003) produced a benchmark for hydro-

507 economic model results in the SDRB. In the optimized case, Cai et al. (2003) derive an annual
508 irrigation benefit of 3.26 billion USD for the entire basin. In the basin_MS scenario, the annual
509 average irrigation benefit lies in the same order of magnitude with 4.83 billion USD. The irrigation
510 benefit in this study might be different compared to Cai et al. (2003) because more crop types were
511 considered explicitly, the impact of salinity on crop yields was not considered, inflows to Toktogul
512 were described stochastically rather than assuming an average inflow year and releases for
513 hydropower are based on an endogenous hydropower value.

514 While these results illustrate potential benefits from basin cooperation similar to previous studies
515 (Arjoon et al. 2014; Teasley and McKinney 2011; Tilmant and Kinzelbach 2012; Whittington et
516 al. 2005), they also highlight obstacles to bilateral agreements. The theoretical benchmark for basin
517 cooperation in the agricultural and power sector (basin_MS scenario) generates the lowest annual
518 national costs only for Uzbekistan. Kyrgyzstan loses on average 239.7 million USD/year in the
519 basin_MS scenario compared to national appropriation of Toktogul's storage capacity
520 (national_MS scenario). Uzbekistan advocates an operation of Toktogul that satisfies the national
521 irrigation demand which would correspond to an operation similar to the basin_SS Agr scenario.
522 The comparison of national costs in the basin_SS Agr and national_MS scenario shows the
523 potential stakes of Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan in bilateral negotiations. Uzbekistan saves on
524 average 568 million USD/year and Kyrgyzstan loses on average 640.7 million USD/year in the
525 basin_SS Agr scenario compared to the national_MS. Together with the aversion of compensating
526 Kyrgyzstan for storing water in wet years to hedge for following dry years, these values emphasize
527 the reason for the upstream-downstream dispute on Toktogul's operation. The basin_SS Power
528 scenario seems to be a compromise between the national_MS and basin_SS Agr scenario. It lowers
529 the average annual costs for both Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan with respect to the national_MS and

530 basin_SS Agr scenario, respectively. Even agricultural shortage costs in Uzbekistan are reduced in
531 the basin_SS Power scenario compared to the national_MS scenario.

532 These results are promising because cooperation in the power sector is traditionally not considered
533 by river basin commissions which focus typically on the water sector. Based on the presented case
534 study, regional power cooperation can achieve some of the benefits from multi-sectoral basin
535 cooperation in international river basins characterized by an upstream-downstream conflict on
536 water allocation to irrigated agriculture and hydropower. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the
537 benefits from the different cooperation scenarios can only ease the water-energy conflict in the
538 region if they are shared in an equitable manner.

539 **Conclusion**

540 Stochastic dynamic programming in combination with the *water value method* was used to derive
541 reservoir operating rules for Toktogul Reservoir under different assumptions about international
542 cooperation in both the water and energy sectors. These operating rules were then used to simulate
543 basin water use and associated economic values in order to estimate the costs and benefits of
544 different levels of cooperation. The water value method provides steady-state water value tables
545 by maximizing the sum of immediate and expected future benefits. The tables define optimal
546 reservoir releases as a function of storage level, month of the year and inflow scenario. This
547 approach is useful for defining optimal reservoir operating rules under different assumptions about
548 international cooperation, particularly when the value of inter-annual reservoir storage is key to a
549 conflict between upstream and downstream riparian states.

550 A comparison of multi-sectoral cooperation scenarios was performed to assess the impact of
551 cooperation in the power sector and the agricultural sector on basin-wide benefits. International

552 cooperation in the power sector came closest to the multi-sectoral basin cooperation benchmark.
553 The difference of basin-wide benefits in the agricultural sector and costs in the power sector was
554 510 million USD/year less than for the multi-sectoral basin cooperation scenario. International
555 cooperation in the agricultural sector alone performed by 774 million USD/year worse than the
556 basin-wide scenario for multi-sectoral cooperation. The national multi-sector and power sector
557 scenario generated almost identical benefits. Both outperformed the scenario for basin cooperation
558 in the agricultural sector by 57 million USD/year. The main cause for the scenario differences was
559 identified to be high thermal power production costs in Uzbekistan and unserved demand costs in
560 Kyrgyzstan compared to agricultural shortage costs in Uzbekistan. From a national perspective,
561 Kyrgyzstan achieved lowest annual costs in the national multi-sector scenario and Uzbekistan in
562 the basin-wide scenario for multi-sectoral cooperation followed by the scenario of international
563 cooperation in the agricultural sector. Regional power cooperation reduced national costs in
564 Kyrgyzstan compared to the basin cooperation scenarios and in Uzbekistan compared to the
565 national appropriation of Toktogul's storage capacity. Hence, regional power cooperation can
566 potentially ease international water-energy conflicts. This represents a practical alternative to the
567 traditional approach of river basin commissions which focus typically on the water sector. It is
568 essential to view power and water resources allocation jointly in international river basins where
569 the power and the agricultural sector are tightly linked by hydropower. International cooperation
570 in the power sector may ease upstream-downstream conflicts in these cases.

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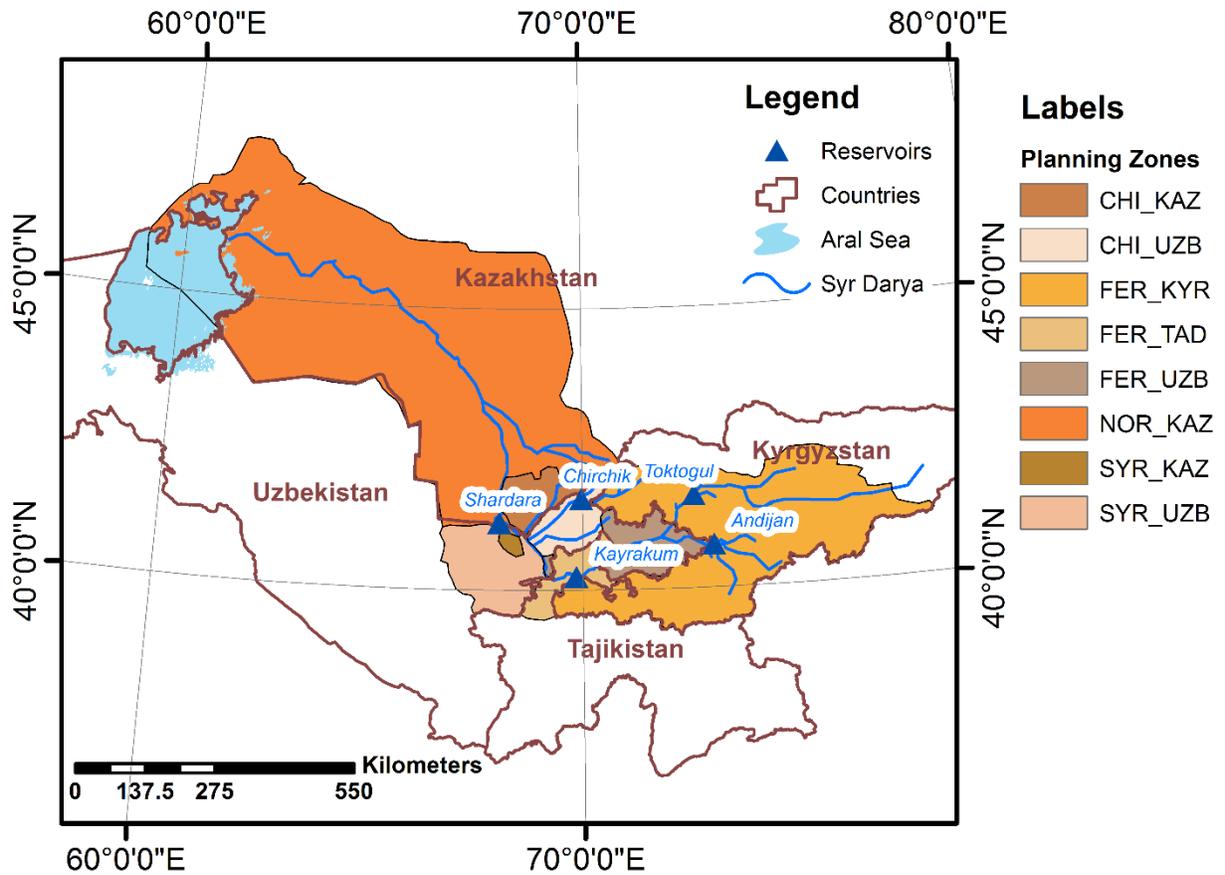
669 **Table 1.** Summary of assumptions for different operating objectives.

	National	Basin
SSPower	Toktogul's operation is optimized for Kyrgyz power sector (see scenario E)	Toktogul's operation is optimized for the regional power market between Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan. (see scenario B)
SSAgr	Toktogul's operation is optimized for Kyrgyz agriculture sector. (see scenario F)	Toktogul's operation is optimized for basin-wide agricultural water use. (see scenario C)
MS	Toktogul's operation is optimized for Kyrgyz agriculture and power sector (see scenario D).	Toktogul's operation is optimized considering basin-wide benefits from agricultural water use and costs for the regional power market between Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan. (see scenario A)

670

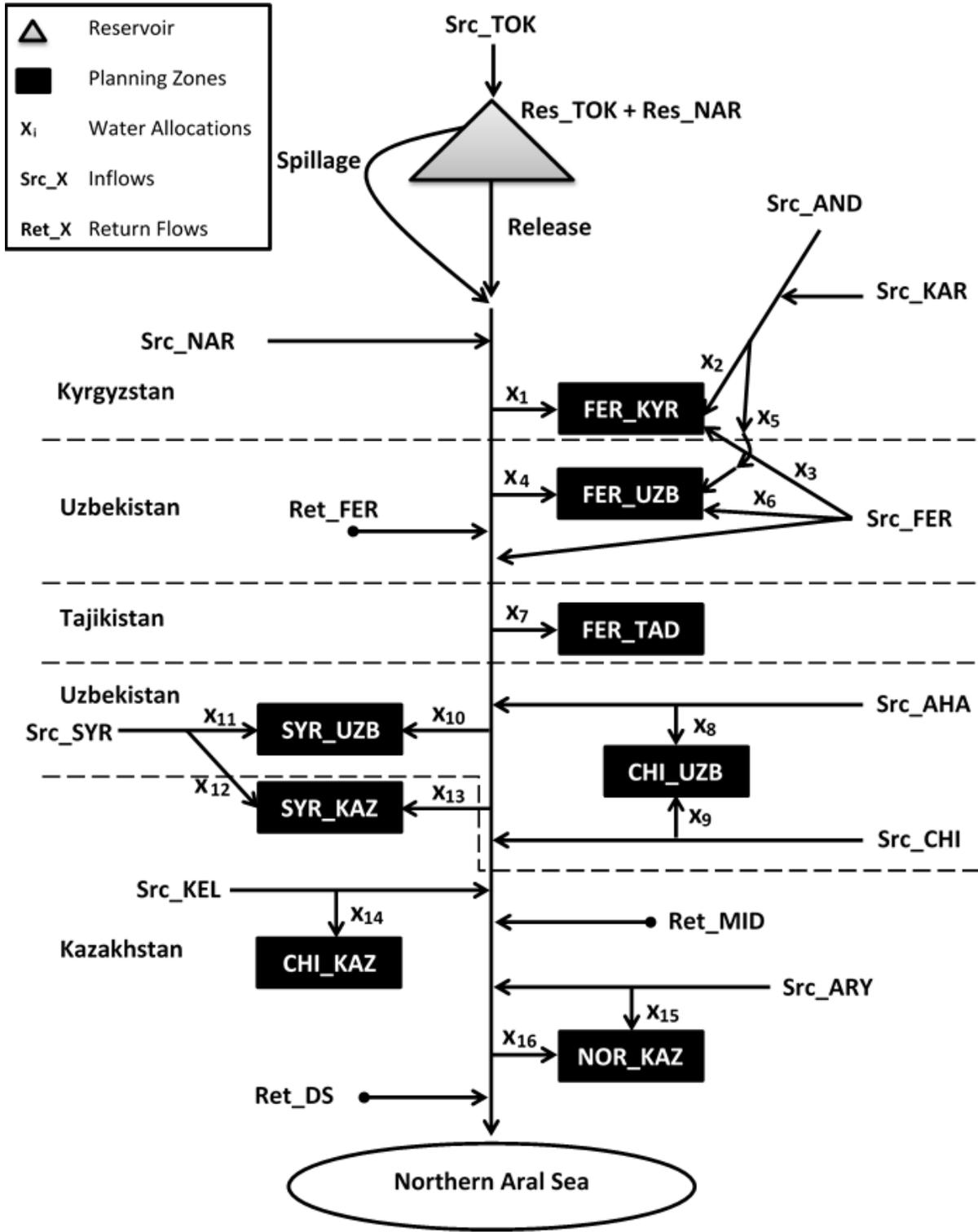
671 **Table 2.** Average annual national costs, [10^6 USD/year], in Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan due to
672 water deficits in the agricultural sector (Shortage Cost), thermal power production (TPP Cost),
673 unserved power demand (USD Cost) and both sectors combined (Total).

	Kyrgyzstan				Uzbekistan			
	Shortage Cost	TPP Cost	USD Cost	Total	Shortage Cost	TPP Cost	USD Cost	Total
basin_MS	27.1	41.4	212	281	161	2670	481	3312
basin_SSPower	2.54	41.4	198	242	661	2650	517	3828
basin_SSAgr	29.8	-173	825	682	148	2990	517	3655
national_MS	0.0296	31.1	10.2	41.3	716	2990	517	4223
national_SSPower	0.218	31.6	9.6	41.4	716	2990	517	4223



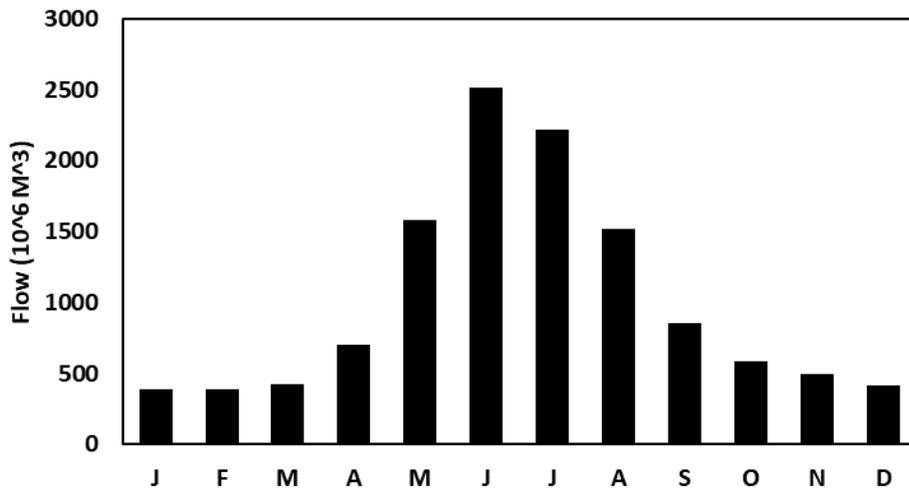
674

675 **Fig. 1.** Base Map of the Syr Darya River basin. Agricultural planning zones are introduced to
 676 summarize irrigative water use in the respective area. The names of the planning zones indicate
 677 the region and the country in which they are located (CHI: Chirchic River, FER: Fergana Valley,
 678 NOR: Syr Darya Delta, SYR: Syr Darya Valley, KYR: Kyrgyzstan, TAD: Tajikistan, UZB:
 679 Uzbekistan, KAZ: Kazakhstan).



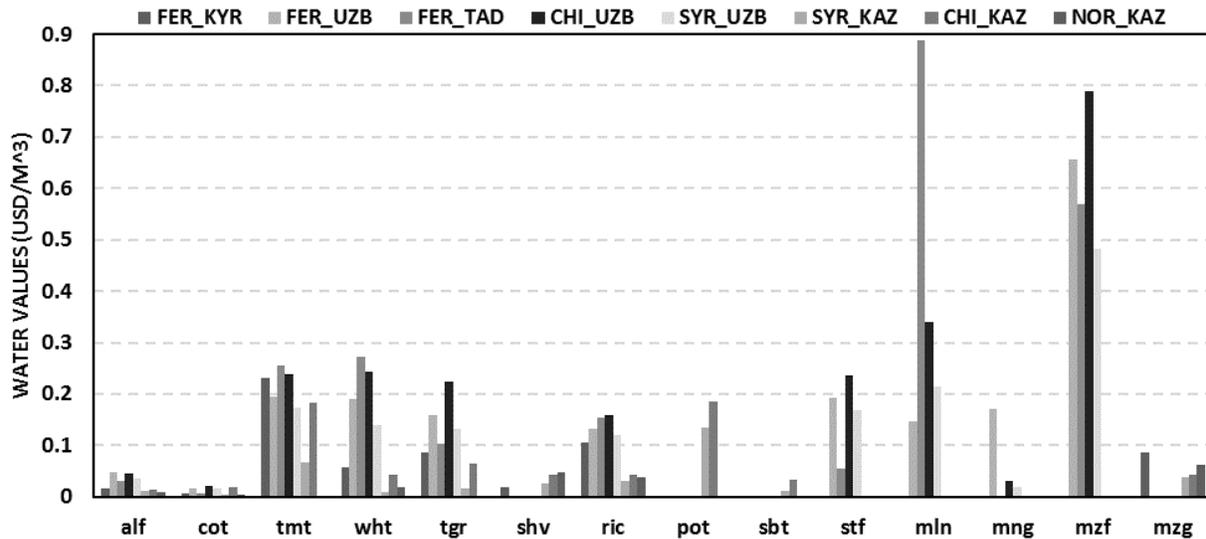
680

681 **Fig. 2.** Conceptual River Network.



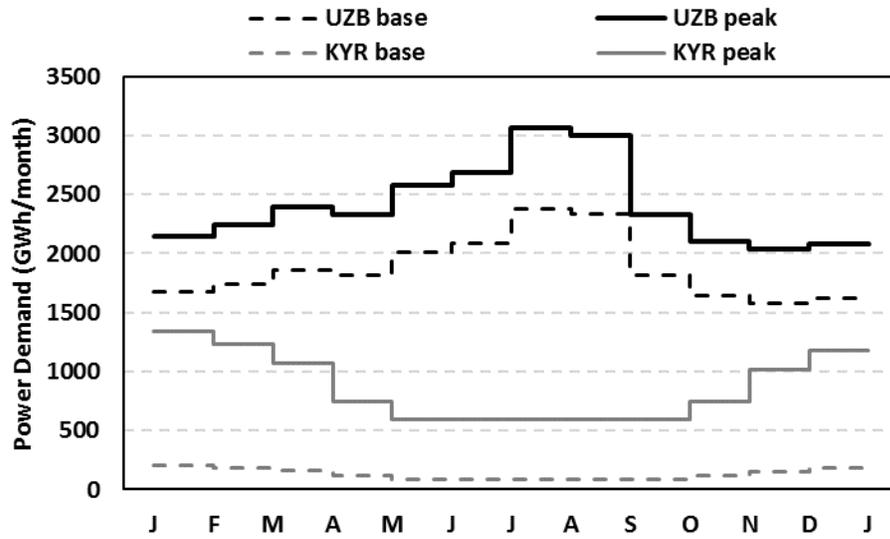
682

683 **Fig. 3.** Monthly average inflows to Toktogul of the period 1911 – 1998.



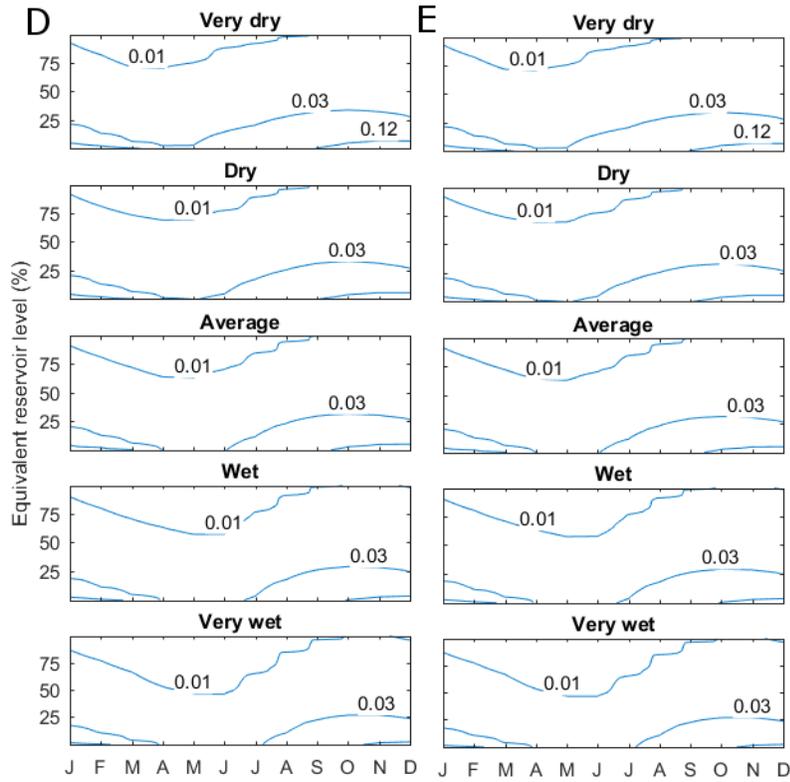
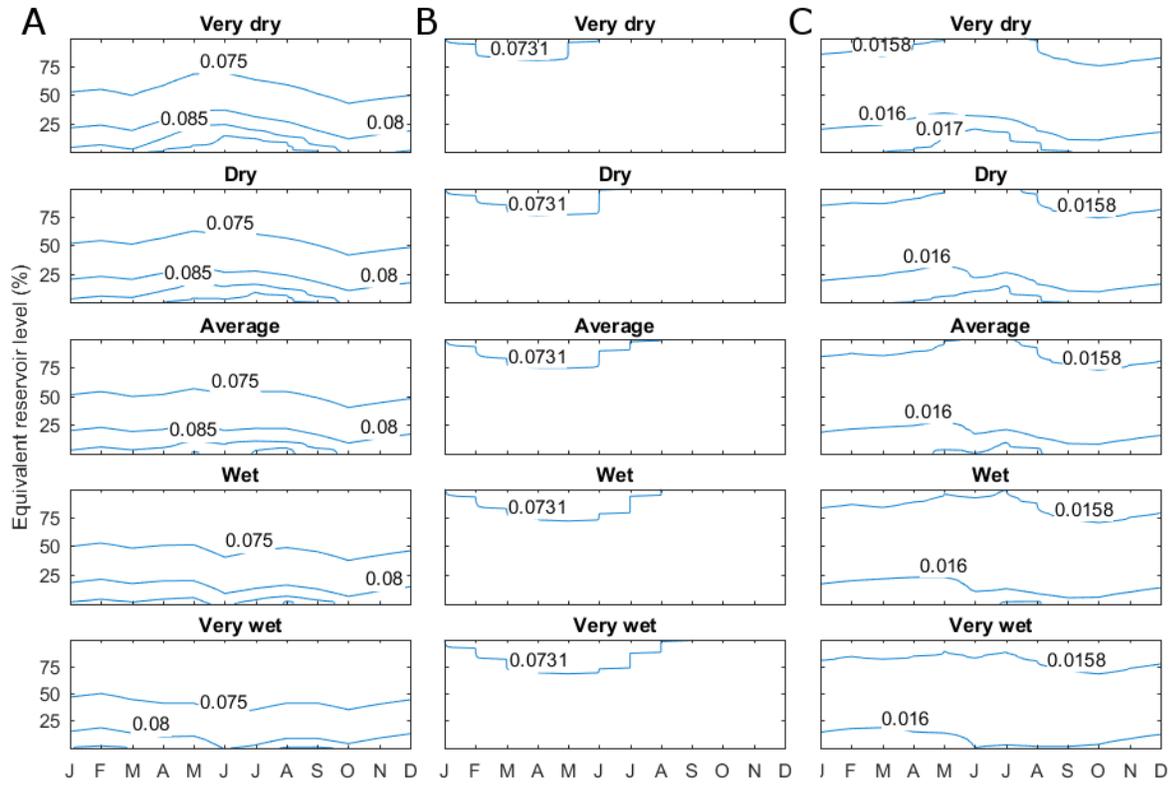
684

685 **Fig. 4.** Estimated agricultural at-source water values, (USD/m³), for each crop type and planning
 686 zone in the Syr Darya basin (alf: alfalfa, cot: cotton, tmt: tomato, wht: wheat, tgr: table grapes,
 687 shv: cucumber, ric: rice, pot: potato, sbt: sugar beet, stf: stone fruits, mln: melon, mng: mango,
 688 mzf: maize for fodder, mzg: maize for grain). It should be noted that cotton is among the low value
 689 crops.

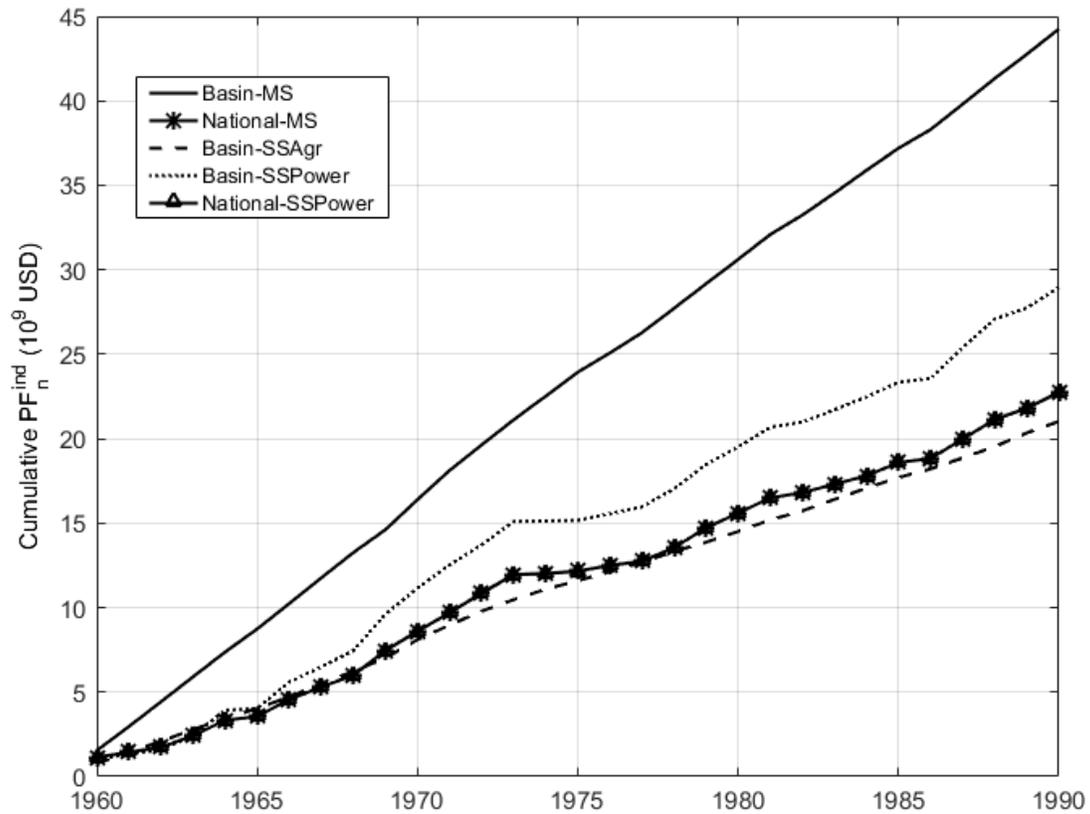


690

691 **Fig. 5.** Observed monthly power demand in Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan during base and peak
 692 hours, (GWh/month).



694 **Fig. 6.** Contour plots of the steady-state water value tables (water values in USD/m³) for the
 695 basin_MS scenario (A), the basin_SSPower scenario (B), the basin_SSAgr scenario (C), the
 696 national_MS scenario (D) and the national_SSPower scenario (E). The contour lines (blue lines)
 697 represent reservoir levels with the same water value (number on contour line). These values
 698 indicate the optimal cost for water released from the respective volume segment.



699

700 **Fig. 7.** Cumulative performance indicator.