

1 Investigation of hydrological time series using copulas for detecting

2 catchment characteristics and anthropogenic impacts

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8 **Abstract.** Global climate change can have impacts on characteristics of rainfall-runoff
9 events and subsequently on the hydrological regime. Meanwhile, the catchment itself
10 changes due to anthropogenic influences. However, it is not easy to prove the link
11 between the hydrology and the forcings. In this context, it might be meaningful to detect
12 the temporal changes of catchments independent from climate change by investigating
13 existing long term discharge records. For this purpose, a new stochastic system based on
14 copulas for time series analysis is introduced. While widely used time series models are
15 based on linear combinations of correlations assuming a Gaussian behavior of variables, a
16 statistical tool like the copula has the advantage to scrutinize the dependence structure of
17 the data in the uniform domain independent of the marginal.

18 Two measures in the copula domain are introduced herein:

19 1. Copula asymmetry is defined for copulas and calculated for discharges; this measure
20 describes the non symmetric property of the dependence structure and differs from one
21 catchment to another due to the intrinsic nature of both runoff and catchment.

22 2. Copula distance is defined as Cramér-von Mises type distance calculated between
23 two copula densities of different time scales. This measure describes the variability and
24 interdependency of dependence structures similar to variance and covariance, which can
25 assist in identifying the catchment changes.

26 These measures are calculated for 100 years of daily discharges for the Rhine rivers and
27 tributaries. Comparing the results of copula asymmetry and copula distance between an
28 Antecedent Precipitation Index (API) and simulated discharge time series by a
29 hydrological model we show the interesting signals of systematic modifications along the
30 Rhine rivers in the last 30 years.

31 **Keywords :** Catchment discharge characteristics, Copula stochastic analysis, API, Model
32 uncertainty

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In order to understand the water cycle behavior of a region, it is important to determine its characteristics,
35 but this is difficult to achieve due to the diversity of the system response at different time and space scales.
36 In particular, temporal variability makes parameter estimation difficult and the assessment of model
37 uncertainty essential. As a part of the endeavor to understand the hydrological system, the objective of this
38 research, assessing the anthropogenic impacts on the catchment characteristic independent of the climate
39 change, is therefore important, yet hard to accomplish.

40 The first possible approach is to statistically test the existence or change of trend in hydrological time
41 series which can be related to climate changes or anthropogenic impacts. Mann-Kendall's Test was
42 performed to confirm the existence of a trend in the annual discharge, precipitation and sediment loads, then
43 the human intervention and climate impacts based on the available information of the catchments were
44 discussed (Wu et al., 2012). Pettitt's Method (Pettitt, 1979) can be used to detect the time point of trend
45 alternation and analyze the impacts based on a double mass curve (Gao et al., 2012) or a hydrological model
46 (Karlsson et al., 2014). These non-parametric methods for detecting the signal seem, however, not capable
47 enough of explaining when and how much the system had changed, thus making it still difficult to relate the
48 change due to human activities.

49 On the other hand, runoff events are initiated by precipitation then modified by the state and physical
50 features of the catchment. This implies that the integrated information of catchment status might be
51 retrieved by analyzing the discharge time series itself. Focusing on this property, the attempts can be made
52 for capturing the temporal dependence structure of runoff by time series models. The classical time series
53 model, autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA), is designed to describe a stationary stochastic
54 process based on the temporal correlation structure of Gaussian random variables (Box and Jenkins, 1976).
55 However, the stationarity of the data is not guaranteed in reality, thus a number of alternative approaches
56 have been suggested. While the application of Fourier analysis is basically for stationary process, the
57 analysis using empirical mode decomposition (Huang et al., 1998) overcomes the restriction of stationarity
58 by allowing the frequency and local variance of a time series to vary within a component and to separate
59 the signals adaptively by scale. Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (ARCH) models lose the
60 assumption of stationarity to a certain extent so that variance is not constant, however models the variance
61 in a similar way to ARIMA. Although inventions and efforts to overcome the limitation of stationarity
62 have been made, it seems still inadequate to model dynamic changes of hydrological processes with these
63 time series models.

64 Alternatively there is a statistical concept, the copula, which has advantages to model the multivariate
65 dependence independently from marginals and recently adopted in the field of hydrology. A Copula (Sklar,
66 1959) is a multivariate probability distribution designed to flexibly model dependence structure in the
67 uniform (quantile) domain. The use of copulas in hydrology can be found for the assessment of extreme
68 events by considering flooding as a joint behavior of peak and volume (De Michele and Salvadori, 2003).
69 Copulas have been applied to describe the spatio-temporal uncertainty of precipitation (Bárdossy and
70 Pegram, 2009) or the inhomogeneity of groundwater parameters (Bárdossy and Li, 2008). Asymmetry of
71 dependence in a time series can be tested in the framework of a finite state Markov chain's transition
72 probability matrix (Sharifdoost et al., 2009). Dissimilarity measures can be defined by means of a copula
73 modelling the correlation structure of pairs of discharge time series in order to identify the similarity of

74 catchments with the purpose of transferring catchment properties from one to the other (Samaniego et al.,
75 2010). We aim at utilizing copulas as an alternative to classical time series models and an efficient tool for
76 time series analysis to overcome these hydrological challenges.

77 The main interest of this study is to assess the human intervention and climate change impacts on
78 hydrological regime for the strategy of future development in the region. For achieving this goal, 7 daily
79 discharge gauging stations in South-West Germany (Figure 1), which have 100 years daily discharge
80 records, were chosen and extensively analyzed. The gauging stations Andernach, Kaub, Worms and
81 Maxau are located in the main stream of the Rhine, while Kalkofen, Cochem and Plochingen are located
82 on tributaries. For further analysis, daily precipitation and temperature records in the Baden-Württemberg
83 state of Germany for the last 50 years were obtained from the German Weather Service. Also, 77 discharge
84 records obtained from the Global Runoff Data Centre in Germany were utilized.

85 The following are the novel aspects introduced in this study: (1) The catchment characteristics are defined
86 based on copulas and estimated from discharge data. Also the changes of catchment characteristics are
87 investigated by tracing the temporal change of these statistics. (2) A method to model systematic changes
88 of dependence structure with the help of copulas is suggested, then its variability and interrelationship with
89 the time series are examined. (3) Anthropogenic impacts are assessed by the discharge - precipitation
90 relation using API and a hydrological model with copula based measures.

91 This article is divided into five sections. After the introduction, the basic methodology for applying
92 copulas to discharge time series is introduced in the second section. Thirdly, the measures of asymmetry in
93 copulas are defined and estimated for the discharges of the river Rhine and other catchments. The
94 determination of the temporal change of the asymmetry of the copulas is treated in the third section as well.
95 In the fourth section two topics are treated: (i) the analysis based on copula distances for the observed
96 discharges and (ii) the comparison of observed discharge with API (Antecedent Precipitation Index) time
97 series and simulated discharge time series with a hydrological model. The conclusion is given in the fifth
98 section.

99 2. Methodology

100 In this section, the application of copulas to time series is articulated after a brief introduction. The very
101 basics about copulas are presented here ; further information can be obtained from (Joe, 1997) or (Nelsen,
102 2006).

103 2.1 Basic Methodology

104 In probability theory and statistics, a copula is a multivariate probability distribution for which the
105 marginal probability distribution of each variable is uniform.

$$106 \quad C : [0,1]^n \rightarrow [0,1] \quad (1)$$

$$107 \quad C(\mathbf{u}^{(i)}) = u_i \quad \text{if } \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = (1, \dots, 1, u_i, 1, \dots, 1) \quad (2)$$

108 Any multivariate distribution can be described by a copula and its marginal distributions as was proven by
109 Sklar's theorem (Sklar, 1959):

$$110 \quad F(\mathbf{x}) = C(F_{X_1}(x_1), \dots, F_{X_n}(x_n)) \quad (3)$$

111 where $F_{X_i}(x_i)$ represents the i-th marginal distribution of a multivariate random variable \mathbf{X} . The copula
112 density can be derived by taking partial derivatives of the copula:

$$113 \quad c(u_1, \dots, u_n) = \frac{\partial^n C(u_1, \dots, u_n)}{\partial u_1 \dots \partial u_n} \quad (4)$$

114 The advantage of using copulas is that the marginal is detached from the multivariate distribution and
115 the dependence structure can be examined in the uniform compact domain for different types of data.

116 2.2 Basic Hypothesis of Temporal Copulas

117 For the application of copulas to time series analysis, a stochastic system should be presumed to be
118 similar to the case of spatial copulas (Bárdossy and Li, 2008): the random variable at time t is described as
119 $Z(t)$ and in general there may exist non-Gaussian dependency among the elements of $Z(t)$. Then

120 stationarity is defined for each subset of times $t_1, \dots, t_n \subset N$ and time lag k such that
 121 $\{t_1 + k, \dots, t_n + k\} \subset N$ and for each set of possible values z_1, \dots, z_n :

$$122 \quad \begin{aligned} P(Z(t_1) < z_1, \dots, Z(t_n) < z_n) = \\ P(Z(t_1 + k) < z_1, \dots, Z(t_n + k) < z_n) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

123 For the given random function $Z(t)$, a set $S(k)$ containing pairs of ranked values is defined as a
 124 function of time lag k as follows:

$$125 \quad S(k) = \left\{ \left(F_z(z(t)), F_z(z(t+k)) \right) \right\} \quad (6)$$

126 Thus, a 2-dimensional autocopula for stochastic time series is a function of time lag k for the set $S(k)$
 127 similar to the case of spatial copula (Bárdossy and Li, 2008):

$$128 \quad C_t(k, u_1, u_2) = P \left[F_z(Z(t)) < u_1, F_z(Z(t+k)) < u_2 \right] \quad (7)$$

129 where $(u_1, u_2) \in S(k)$. Thus, a 2-dimensional empirical copula density can be constructed based on
 130 conditional empirical frequencies on a regular $g \times g$ grid and kernel density smoothing (Bárdossy, 2006):

$$131 \quad \begin{aligned} c^* \left(\frac{2i-1}{2g}, \frac{2j-1}{2g} \right) = \frac{g^2}{|S(k)|} \\ \cdot \left| \left\{ (u_1, u_2) \in S(k); \frac{i-1}{g} < u_1 < \frac{i}{g} \text{ and } \frac{j-1}{g} < u_2 < \frac{j}{g} \right\} \right| \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

132 where $|S(k)|$ denotes the cardinality (the number of elements in a set) of set $S(k)$.

133 3. Copula Asymmetry in Discharge Time Series

134 High and low values might have different dependences in general. Measuring the asymmetry of copulas
 135 could reveal substantial aspects of time series data, which are not illuminated in the Gaussian approach.
 136 Statistics defined on copula shape and calculated from observed discharge time series we believe to be a
 137 new idea. Asymmetry functions are defined on 2-dimensional copulas as a function of time lag k (Li,
 138 2010):

139 Asymmetry 1 and Asymmetry2 are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 140 \quad A_1(k) &= E\left[(U_t - 0.5)(U_{t+k} - 0.5)((U_t - 0.5) + (U_{t+k} - 0.5))\right] \\
 &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (u_t - 0.5)(u_{t+k} - 0.5)(u_t + u_{t+k} - 1)c(u_t, u_{t+k}) du_t du_{t+k}
 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 141 \quad A_2(k) &= E\left[-(U_t - 0.5)(U_{t+k} - 0.5)((U_t - 0.5) - (U_{t+k} - 0.5))\right] \\
 &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 -(u_t - 0.5)(u_{t+k} - 0.5)(u_t - u_{t+k})c(u_t, u_{t+k}) du_t du_{t+k}
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

142 where $u_t = F_Z(z(t))$, $u_{t+k} = F_Z(z(t+k))$. Figure 2 shows an idealization of the asymmetries between a pair
 143 of variables $U(t)$ and $U(t+k)$, showing that the tails of the distributions have a large impact on each
 144 type of asymmetry. The measure of asymmetry compares the dependency between low and high values
 145 and quantifies how much it is not symmetric. For example, in a 2-dimensional copula, $A_1(k)$ is positive if
 146 the probability density is higher in the upper right corner than in the lower left corner. On the contrary,
 147 $A_1(k)$ is negative if the probability density is higher in the lower left corner. $A_2(k)$ is the asymmetry for
 148 the other diagonal of a 2-dimensional copula.

149 Figure 3 shows the scatterplot of ranked values of a discharge time series with time lag $k = 1$ as a sample
 150 of an empirical autocopula and its relation with storm hydrographs. This figure displays (i) where each pair
 151 of values on a hydrograph can be plotted on an empirical copula, demonstrating that (ii) the dependence
 152 structure is not symmetric especially for $A_2(k)$.

153 This illustration provides the insight that asymmetry can be related to the shape of a unit hydrograph as
 154 well as the notion that asymmetry might be used for advanced modeling of hydrological time series.

155

156 3.1 Asymmetry and catchment characteristics

157 Asymmetries can be considered as statistics calculated from the observed discharge time series and an
 158 important assumption can be made: ‘assymetry2 is related to catchment characteristics’. This idea will be

159 discussed and demonstrated in this section. Figure 5 (upper left) shows parts of the hydrographs of 7
160 gauging stations in southwest Germany.

161 First, an important natural property of discharge seen in this figure is that the durations of high flow and
162 low flow periods are not symmetric: Flood events, which are initiated by rainfall or snowmelt, do not
163 continue for a long time because the duration of runoff to rivers is comparatively short. On the other hand,
164 discharge keeps decreasing and stays low for no rain periods. This means that, if two consecutive values in
165 a time series are chosen for small time lag k , these two values are likely to be less correlated for high
166 values but more correlated for low values, which leads to negative value of $A_1(k)$.

167 This implies that the intrinsic temporal distribution of precipitation can be investigated based on this
168 asymmetry, possibly with advanced asymmetry functions such as bivariate moments based on L-moments
169 (Brahimi et al., 2015).

170 Second, the rates of increase and decrease of discharge are not symmetrical: Soon after the rainfall, the
171 river flow rises sharply. Once the rain stops and peak discharge is observed, then the water level starts to
172 decrease, typically more slowly on the recession than the rising limb of the hydrograph, which leads to
173 negative values of $A_2(k)$ for small time lags k . This asymmetry can be related to the shape of the
174 hydrograph, and therefore the characteristics of the runoff and catchment. In addition, it can be said the
175 annual cycle in Figure 4 is not symmetric in the same sense a hydrograph is not symmetric.

176 The change of $A_2(k)$ with time lag k [days] is now discussed. The point is that these statistics for small
177 time lags k can be more related to the catchment and rainfall characteristics of the region, while asymmetry
178 for larger time lags k can capture the inter-seasonal characteristic of the climate in the region.

179 In order to reduce such seasonal impacts on the analysis of hydrological time series, deseasonalization
180 measures can be applied, for example, for daily stream flow (Grimaldi, 2004). Adopting this method, all
181 the time series are normalized in this study. First, the mean μ_i on the i -th calendar day is calculated as the
182 expectation of the random variable X_i . Then, the annual cycle of the mean μ_i^* (Figure 4 left) is calculated

183 as a smoothed version of μ_i by linearly weighting the neighboring values along i and summing them up.
 184 The smoothed annual cycle of standard deviations σ_i^* (Figure 4 right) can be obtained in the same way.
 185 Then the normalized time series is defined by dividing the original time series $Z(t)$ by σ_i^* after
 186 subtracting μ_i^* as follows

$$187 \quad Z_{norm}(t) = \frac{Z(t) - \mu_{t|365}^*}{\sigma_{t|365}^*} \quad (11)$$

188 where $t | 365$ is $t \pmod{365}$ and represents calendar day at time t [day]. Figure 5 (upper right) shows parts
 189 of normalized discharge time series from the 7 gauging stations. It should be noted that the process still
 190 appears to be non-Gaussian after this transformation and the seasonality for small time lags k might not
 191 have been fully eliminated. Figure 5 (bottom left and bottom right) shows the variation of asymmetry
 192 functions for 7 discharge time series corresponding to time lag k , similar to correlograms, in addition to the
 193 confidence interval of Gaussian process.

194 The confidence intervals in the figures are gained by calculating $A_2(k)$ for 100 realizations of stationary
 195 Gaussian process which are fitted to the observed discharge of Andernach. The result shows that the
 196 process is clearly different from Gaussian and the influence of asymmetry is significantly large.

197 It can be seen that the variation of $A_2(k)$ of discharge without normalization (Figure 5 bottom left) has a
 198 larger impact of seasonality for bigger k ($k > 40$), while its impacts are mitigated after the normalization
 199 (Figure 5 bottom right). Furthermore, as a consequence of normalization, a sharp drop down of $A_2(k)$ for
 200 small time lags k emerged which might be regarded as a catchment indicator. Therefore, the
 201 selected/critical properties for small time lags k is formulated by (i) taking the minimum value of $A_2(k)$
 202 for the time lag $k < 50$ and (ii) the lag k at the minimum of asymmetry2:

$$203 \quad A_{2,\min} = \min_{k < 50} A_2(k) \quad (12)$$

$$204 \quad L_{2,\min} = \min_{0 < k < 50} \{k; A_2(k) = A_{2,\min}\} \quad (13)$$

205 The question is whether they are really related to catchment characteristics. Now, these statistics
 206 estimated for 77 discharge data recorded at the gauging stations in Germany are compared with the
 207 catchment area as one of the simplest possible indicators of the catchment as shown in Figure 6. $A_{2,\min}$ -
 208 *area* (Figure 6 top) and $L_{2,\min}$ - *area* (Figure 6 middle) both show a linear relationship with the log-scaled
 209 x-axis of catchment area, with positive correlation. There seems also to be a linear relation between $A_{2,\min}$
 210 and $L_{2,\min}$ (Figure 6 bottom) as a consequence of the above relationships.

211 This demonstrates that the information extracted from discharge is related to the basic information of its
 212 catchment to a certain extent. Since the principal objective is to assess anthropogenic impacts, the idea
 213 introduced now is to use this measure for evaluating the catchment change by calculating chronological
 214 changes of $A_{2,\min}$.

215 3.2 Time Series Analysis with Asymmetry

216 Temporal change of asymmetry $A_2(k, t)$ is defined on the set representing a moving time window of
 217 size w .

$$218 \quad S^*(k, t) = \left\{ (F_Z(z(a))), (F_Z(z(a+k))); t - \frac{w}{2} < a < t + \frac{w}{2} \right\} \quad (14)$$

$$219 \quad \begin{aligned} A_2(k, t) &= E[-(U_t - 0.5)(U_{t+k} - 0.5)((U_t - 0.5) - (U_{t+k} - 0.5))] \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 - (u_t - 0.5)(u_{t+k} - 0.5)(u_t - u_{t+k})c(u_t, u_{t+k}) du_t du_{t+k} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

220 where $u_t \in U_t, u_{t+k} \in U_{t+k}, (u_t, u_{t+k}) \in S^*(k, t)$. Then the minimum of asymmetry² and lag k at the
 221 minimum of asymmetry² at time t are given by

$$222 \quad A_{2,\min}(t) = \min_{k < 30} A_2(k, t) \quad (16)$$

$$223 \quad L_{2,\min}(t) = \min_{0 < k < 30} \{k; A_2(k, t) = A_{2,\min}(t)\} \quad (17)$$

224 Figure 7 shows the temporal changes of $A_{2,\min}(t)$ with window size $w = 3000$ [days] for 7 gauging
 225 stations in southwest Germany in addition to the confidence interval calculated for 100 times
 226 independently generated Gaussian process.

227 The comparison of $A_{2,\min}(t)$ from observed discharges with $A_{2,\min}(t)$ from a Gaussian process exhibits
 228 (i) the influence of asymmetry in discharge is significantly large as was seen in Figure 5, (ii) The
 229 fluctuations of $A_{2,\min}(t)$ of 7 observed discharge time series appear to be bigger than the one calculated for
 230 a realization of a Gaussian process and (iii) $A_{2,\min}(t)$ of these 7 discharge records shows a similar trend:
 231 there are big drop-downs around 1945 and after 1980 for all the discharges.

232 However, it cannot be ascertained whether this is caused by the simultaneous change of the catchments,
 233 the long term meteorological behavior in the region or just randomness in the stationary process. To
 234 overcome this, temporal behavior of discharge and temperature were first checked by calculating the mean,
 235 the standard deviation and the minimum in a time window centered on time t defined by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Mean}(t) &= \frac{1}{w} \int_{t-w/2}^{t+w/2} z(a) da \\
 \text{Std}(t) &= \sqrt{\text{Var}(t)} = \frac{1}{w} \left(\int_{t-w/2}^{t+w/2} (z(a) - E[Z(t)])^2 da \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
 \text{Min}(t) &= \min \left\{ Z(a); t - \frac{w}{2} < a < t + \frac{w}{2} \right\}
 \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

237 where w is the size of time window. Figure 8 shows the moving average and moving standard deviation of
 238 discharge records with windows size $w = 3000$ [days], but it is hard to say whether the behavior around
 239 1945 and after 1980 is unusual. Figure 9 shows mean and minimum of temperature in the time window of
 240 size 365 [days] which correspond to annual mean and minimum. Roughly speaking, there are certain cold
 241 periods around 1940, 1955 and 1985, which might influence the snow accumulation and melting in the
 242 region, but the relation with asymmetry2 is rather obscure.

243 What seems to be a useful outcome from the above exploratory analysis is that (i) the behavior of
 244 asymmetry2 is different from catchment to catchment showing a statistical relation with the catchment area

245 and (ii) temporal behaviors of asymmetry² of 7 discharges time series are dependent on each other, which
246 implies the existence of a background mechanism common to the region.

247 **4. Analysis of hydrological time series with Copula Distance**

248 As an alternative to copula asymmetry, which emphasizes the behavior in the corners of copulas, copula
249 distance is here suggested so that the characteristic behavior can be captured in the entire domain of the
250 copula. Calculating this for each time step for different time series and comparing them hopefully exhibits
251 the changes of dependence structure and therefore the catchment change.

252 **4.1 Introduction of Copula Distance**

253 The basic idea behind the copula distance is to apply the Cramér-von Mises type distance

$$254 \quad D = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (C^*(u_1, u_2) - C(u_1, u_2))^2 du_1 du_2 \quad (19)$$

255 which by design measures the goodness of fit between two distribution functions to two copulas. This type
256 of distance was tested to measure the difference between empirical and theoretical copulas in the bootstrap
257 framework for the evaluation of spatial dependence of ground water quality (Bárdossy, 2006). For the
258 analysis of time series data, it still needs to be carefully thought out how (and which) copulas should be
259 chosen.

260 **4.1.1 Introduction of Copula Distance to single time series**

261 In order to apply the concept of copula distance to time series, the adoption of two copulas in different
262 time scales is considered. An empirical copula can be obtained from an entire time series which contains
263 the averaged information of all the time points (*global copula*). Another empirical copula can be obtained
264 for a certain time window of width w centered at time step t (*local copula*). In order to make the concept
265 clear, two sets containing pairs of ranked values with different time scales are specified.

$$266 \quad S_{global}(k) = \left\{ \left(F_Z(z(t)), F_Z(z(t+k)) \right); t_1 < t < t_n \right\} \quad (20)$$

267
$$S_{local}(k, t) = \left\{ (F_Z(z(a))), (F_Z(z(a+k))) ; t - \frac{w}{2} < a < t + \frac{w}{2} \right\} \quad (21)$$

268 $S_{local}(k, t)$ can be interpreted as a moving time window where the reference time t is set to the middle of
 269 the window of size w , while $S_{global}(k)$ represents a set of the entire time series. *Global copula* and *local*
 270 *copula* are the empirical autocopula densities defined on these sets based on Equation (8), there denoted by
 271 $c_{global}^*(\mathbf{u})$ and $c_{local}^*(\mathbf{u}, t, w)$ respectively for the n -dimensional case. In this analysis, 3000 [days] for the
 272 time window w and a 3-dimensional copula separated with 1 day gap between each variable are employed.
 273 This means that

274
$$\mathbf{u} = (u_0, u_1, u_2) \quad (22)$$

275 where $u_0 = F_z(Z(t)), u_1 = F_z(Z(t+1)), u_2 = F_z(Z(t+2))$, then the deviation of local copula from global
 276 copula is defined by

277
$$\Delta c(\mathbf{u}, t) = c_{local}^*(\mathbf{u}, t) - c_{global}^*(\mathbf{u}) \quad (23)$$

278 For the first approach, the comparison of dependence structures between entire and local time series is
 279 done for detecting unusual dependence structures. To this end, *copula distance type1* is defined by taking
 280 the copula distance between global and local copulas at each time step t

281
$$\begin{aligned} D_1(c, t) &= \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 (c_{global}^*(\mathbf{u}) - c_{local}^*(\mathbf{u}, t))^2 du_1 \dots du_n \\ &= \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 \Delta c(\mathbf{u}, t)^2 du_1 \dots du_n \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

282 Second, *copula distance type 2* is introduced for indicating the point at which the structure of copulas starts
 283 to change. For this method, the distance between two local copulas is calculated at two instants:

284
$$D_2(c, t) = \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 \left(c_{local}^* \left(\mathbf{u}, t - \frac{w}{2} \right) - c_{local}^* \left(\mathbf{u}, t + \frac{w}{2} \right) \right)^2 du_1 \dots du_n \quad (25)$$

285 Note that reference time is set to the middle of both time windows and shifted for $w/2$ [days] from each
 286 other where the size of the time windows is w . Therefore, there is no overlapping part between the two

287 time intervals of these two local copulas. For the comparison, the moving variance is introduced as
 288 follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Z(t)] &= \frac{1}{w} \int_{t-w/2}^{t+w/2} z(a) da \\
 Var(t) &= \frac{1}{w} \int_{t-w/2}^{t+w/2} (z(a) - E[Z(t)])^2 da
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{26}$$

290 Figure 10 shows the result of $D_1(t)$, $D_2(t)$ and $Var(t)$ in the moving time window for the normalized
 291 discharge time series between 1940 to 2000 at 4 gauging stations located in the main stream of the Rhine
 292 (Andernach, Maxau) and its two different tributaries (Cochem, Plochingen) in addition to the 90 %
 293 confidence intervals calculated for the Gaussian process fitted to the discharge data of Andernach.

294 First of all, the values of $D_1(t)$ and $D_2(t)$ at Cochem and Plochingen are bigger and more fluctuating
 295 than in general. The reason could be that their catchments and discharges are smaller, thus more sensitive
 296 to changes. Second, it can be said that the dependence structure is not homogeneous over the time period,
 297 but the local copula clearly deviates from the global copula for certain time periods. For example, the value
 298 of $D_1(t)$ is remarkably big around 1947, 1982 and 2000 for all the 4 discharge records (indicated by white
 299 arrows). $D_2(t)$ is also big around 1977 for all the data. The signal of $D_2(t)$ implies that a simultaneous
 300 change of runoff behavior occurred in this region in 1977, which can be related to the high value of
 301 $D_1(t)$ at 1982. $Var(t)$ is also changing, but a direct relation with $D_1(t)$ and $D_2(t)$ is hard to recognize.
 302 Also the confidence interval of the Gaussian process is clearly smaller than the observed one. This
 303 indicates the copula distances of the stationary process are small while the nature process is non-stationary
 304 and its dependence structure is more varying.

305 For copula distance type1, the global copula can be considered as an average state of the copula, while
 306 the local copula can be regarded as a realization of a possible state of a copula at time step t . This concept
 307 can be comparable to variance and leads to a new measure, *copula variance*, which is the summation of
 308 copula distances between global and local copula over the time.

309
$$Var_{cop}(c) = \frac{1}{t_n - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_n} D_1(c, t) dt \quad (27)$$

310 Table 1 shows the variance and copula variance calculated for the 4 discharge data. The result
 311 demonstrates that copula variance of the time series can be higher, even if the conventional variance is
 312 lower for example in case of Maxau.

313 **4.1.2 Copula Distance for two time series**

314 In the previous section, copula variance was defined as a measure of the variability characteristic of the
 315 copula itself. Here, it is determined whether covariance can be defined for two copula densities c_1 and c_2
 316 from two time series as *copula distance type3*, which shows whether the variability characteristic of
 317 copulas is related to each other. The measure introduced is:

318
$$D_3(c_1, c_2, t) = \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 \Delta c_1(\mathbf{u}, t) \Delta c_2(\mathbf{u}, t) du_1 \dots du_n \quad (28)$$

319 where

320
$$\begin{aligned} \Delta c_1(\mathbf{u}, t) &= c_{1,local}^*(\mathbf{u}, t) - c_{1,global}^*(\mathbf{u}) \\ \Delta c_2(\mathbf{u}, t) &= c_{2,local}^*(\mathbf{u}, t) - c_{2,global}^*(\mathbf{u}) \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

321 By its definition, the value of $D_3(t)$ can be related to $D_1(t)$ because $D_3(t)$ compares the deviation of local
 322 copulas from global copulas in a similar way to $D_1(t)$ in Equation (26). In order to reduce the influence of
 323 $D_1(t)$ on $D_3(t)$, *copula distance type4* is introduced as a normalized measure bounded between -1 and 1
 324 analogous to correlation.

325
$$D_4(c_1, c_2, t) = \frac{D_3(c_1, c_2, t)}{\sqrt{D_1(c_1, t)} \cdot \sqrt{D_1(c_2, t)}} \quad (30)$$

326 where $|D_4(c_1, c_2, t)| \leq 1$. For comparison, covariance and correlation in a moving window are introduced for
 327 two random variables $Z_1(t)$ and $Z_2(t)$ as follows:

328
$$Cov(t) = \int_{t-w/2}^{t+w/2} (z_1(a) - E[Z_1(t)])(z_2(a) - E[Z_2(t)]) da \quad (31)$$

329
$$Corr(t) = \frac{Cov(t)}{\sqrt{Var(Z_1(t))} \cdot \sqrt{Var(Z_2(t))}} \quad (32)$$

330 Figure 11 shows the copula distance between two time series $D_3(t)$ and $D_4(t)$ in addition to the
 331 covariance and correlation in a moving time window.

332 First, it can be said that the behavior of covariance and correlation in a moving window are different
 333 from $D_3(t)$ and $D_4(t)$. This implies these two copula based statistics exhibit different properties of the
 334 time series from ordinary statistics. Second, $D_3(t)$ shows high values around 1947, 1982 and 2000, which
 335 is similar to the case of $D_1(t)$ in Figure 10. This indicates that unusual states of copulas in 4 discharge time
 336 series can be related to each other. Third, $D_4(t)$ is in general high except for the period around 1970 and
 337 1990. This means, the temporal behavior of dependence structures for these 4 discharges are actually
 338 similar except for these periods even if $D_1(t)$ and $D_3(t)$ are small.

339 Copula covariance and copula correlation can be defined similar to copula variance in order to quantify
 340 the overall behavior of two time series.

341
$$Cov_{cop}(c_1, c_2) = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_2}^{t_1} D_3(t) dt \quad (33)$$

342
$$Corr_{cop}(c_1, c_2) = \frac{Cov_{cop}(c_1, c_2)}{\sqrt{Var_{cop}(c_1)} \cdot \sqrt{Var_{cop}(c_2)}} \quad (34)$$

343 where $|Corr_{cop}(c_1, c_2)| \leq 1$ and its derivation can be found in appendix A. In Table 2, these copula based
 344 statistics are compared with ordinary statistics. For example, Cochem and Plochingen are located remotely
 345 in different tributaries, thus covariance and correlation are lower than the others, but copula covariance and
 346 copula correlation are not the lowest.

347 The measures using copula distance are different from the conventional statistics. This behavior can be
 348 explained by the fact that the autocopula has more substantial information about temporal dependence

349 structure than the autocorrelation. Using these measures might enable us to take advantage of a different
350 way of seeing the dependence between time series.

351 What is new in the analysis of this section is that (i) measures based on copula distance show the
352 different properties of time series in comparison to conventional statistics and (ii) there are significant
353 signals of copula distances for certain time periods in common to all the discharge data.

354 **4.2 Copula based Stochastic Analysis with API and a Hydrological Model**

355 The difficulty of analyzing discharge time series in order to detect catchment change is that it is not clear
356 whether the temporal change of stochastic information is caused by catchment change or merely by
357 random behavior of precipitation. To gain an understanding of this process, we attempted to eliminate the
358 influence of precipitation using, first, an Antecedent Precipitation Index (API) for comparison with
359 discharge, second, using a hydrological model with the parameter sets calibrated and fixed for the entire
360 simulation time period.

361 **4.2.1 Copula Distance Analysis with API**

362 An API time series, which is generated from observed precipitation time series and behaves similarly to
363 discharge, is used instead of precipitation.

$$364 \quad API(t+1) = \alpha API(t) + P(t+1) \quad (35)$$

365 where $P(t)$ is daily precipitation [mm/day], $API(t)$ is time series of API [mm/day] and $\alpha = 0.85$ was
366 chosen. The assumption for this method is that the API time series has the stochastic information purely
367 originated from the precipitation, while observed discharge is influenced by both catchment and
368 precipitation characteristics. If the stochastic information derived from these two data sets is the same, this
369 indicates that the stochastic turbulence is originating from precipitation; otherwise the change is from the
370 catchment.

371 For this investigation, precipitation data was carefully chosen for 4 regions (northwest, northeast,
372 southwest and central) of Baden-Württemberg (Germany) so that they have several almost continuous
373 daily records between 1935 and 2005. Figure 12 shows the locations of measuring stations. The
374 precipitation time series were aggregated into one for each region by taking their daily average, then 4 API
375 time series were calculated in total by Equation(35). Figure 13 shows the resulting copula distances
376 $D_1(t)$, $D_2(t)$ and moving average $Var(t)$ for API time series with the 90% confidence intervals of the
377 Gaussian process. Figure 14 shows the result of copula distances $D_3(t)$, $D_4(t)$ and moving covariance and
378 correlation for API time series.

379 What can be recognized first from Figure 13 is that the magnitudes of $D_1(t)$ and $D_2(t)$ are smaller than
380 the case of discharge. This is considered to be a result of aggregation of precipitation time series and
381 adoption of API, but some signals can be still identified: $D_1(t)$ around 1947 and 2000 is high, but not as
382 high for 1982. The signal of $D_2(t)$ which was detected around 1977 in Figure 11 does not seem to exist for
383 API. This is even more clear for $D_3(t)$ in Figure 14 in that there is no common change of the dependence
384 structure around 1982 in API time series. This is interesting due to the following implications: (i) the
385 noises of $D_1(t)$ in Figure 13 were reduced and signals in common were amplified (ii) the unusual state of
386 the copula around 1982 is not caused by precipitation, but could be caused by the catchment change.

387 For further verification, copula distance type3 and type4 between discharge and API time series were
388 calculated as shown in Figure 15. This result also shows there is no clear relation between API and
389 discharge time series around 1982.

390 **4.2.2 Copula based analysis with a hydrological model**

391 In this section, simulated discharges time series are generated by a conceptual hydrological model, HBV
392 (Bergström 1976 ; Bergström, Singh, and others 1995) ,which takes daily precipitation and temperature

393 records as input and simulates discharges for smaller catchments as an example of discharge, to compare
394 with observed discharge, in order to check if differences might occur due to the method.

395 Thus the idea behind this methodology is similar to the case of API: a hydrological model with the
396 parameters fixed for the entire time period represents the catchment not influenced by anthropogenic
397 impacts. Then, the discharges simulated by this model should not depend on catchment change, while
398 observed discharge is assumed to be influenced by both catchment and precipitation.

399 For the study area, the Upper Neckar Catchment was chosen as shown in Figure 12. One parameter set
400 needed for this model constitutes of 13 parameters which are calibrated based on the Nash–Sutcliffe model
401 efficiency coefficient using the simulated annealing algorithm for the period between 1960 and 2000. Then,
402 30 parameter sets are independently calibrated in total and, subsequently, 30 simulated discharges time
403 series are generated to compare with one observed discharge.

404 Figure 16 shows the result of copula based analysis calculated for single time series
405 $(D_1(t), D_2(t), A_{2,\min}(t))$. It can be seen that $A_{2,\min}(t)$ in Figure 16 (top) that (i) fluctuations of $A_{2,\min}(t)$
406 of observed and simulated discharge are locally identical. This implies that the short term behavior of
407 $A_{2,\min}(t)$ is originated from the temporal behavior of precipitation but (ii) there exists a change of trend
408 around 1976: $A_{2,\min}(t)$ of observed discharge is slightly bigger than simulated before 1976, while
409 $A_{2,\min}(t)$ of observed discharge clearly undershoot the simulated ones of after 1976. This change of trend
410 was also seen in the previous analyses ($D_2(t)$ in Figure 10). Furthermore, $D_1(t)$ in Figure 16 (middle) is
411 high before 1976 which indicates the state of the copula is different from the rest, while the result of
412 simulated discharges does not show such tendency. $D_2(t)$ in Figure 16 (bottom) indicates the change of
413 dependence structure happened around 1970 and 1977. These results using the HBV model indicate the
414 change of the dependence structure detected using copulas around 1976 is not caused by the random
415 behavior of precipitation, but by the behavior of the catchment itself.

416 The fact and the notion obtained in this section is that (i) both results from API and HBV based on
417 copula measures indicate that the catchment changed around 1976 and (ii), by comparing the simulated
418 discharge with observed discharge, the origin of the change of stochastically information can be assessed.

419

420 **Conclusion**

421 In this paper the application of copulas for hydrological time series data is newly explored for the
422 detection of catchment characteristics and their temporal changes.

423 1. A Copula based measure, asymmetry, was defined and newly applied for the identification of
424 catchment characteristics. Indeed, it was presumed that asymmetry² is related to the runoff characteristics.

425 2. The relation between the minimum of asymmetry² and catchment characteristics was tested for 77
426 discharge records. Asymmetry² has a certain relation especially with the size of catchments and this
427 strengthens the notion that asymmetry² can be used as a statistic to explain the catchment state.

428 3. Temporal change of asymmetry² was calculated as an index of the catchment state and demonstrated
429 it keeps changing coincidentally with time. However, it is difficult to explain the causality, at least, by long
430 term behavior of discharge and temperature time series.

431 4. A method based on copula distance was examined for the investigation of temporal behavior of
432 hydrological time series. This measure can detect the time period where dependence structure is unusual
433 and its interdependency. Clear signals were detected that the dependence structure is unusual for a certain
434 time period and the signal was not found by investigating the time series with variance, covariance or
435 correlation.

436 5. API time series were generated for each region in the Baden-Württemberg state and simulated
437 discharge time series were generated using the HBV model for the Upper Neckar Catchment. These are the
438 data not influenced by catchment change, thus compared with observed discharge to assess the
439 anthropogenic impacts. The results showed that there was a signal detected only in the observed discharge

440 around 1982, but not in the API or simulated time series, which implies the anthropogenic impacts on the
441 catchment. Also it was shown in the results of copula asymmetry that the trend clearly changed around
442 1976.

443 The results of copula based analysis of hydrological time series seem to support the assumption that the
444 catchment had started to change around 1976 and stayed unusual until 1990. These changes could
445 correspond to the construction of flood retention basins started around 1982 (Lammersen et al., 2002) and
446 ecological flooding strategy, which let small floods to happen for the rehabilitation of ecological systems
447 in the floodplain, introduced in the Upper Rhine since 1989 (Siepe, 2006).

448 Copulas can be seen as an alternative method to analyze hydrological time series data by focusing on the
449 dependence structure, but further exploratory applications and theoretical developments are expected. The
450 copula based measures introduced in this study can be related to the potential model uncertainty, that is,
451 how much the natural system is varying. Empirical autocopula analysis is a more data driven approach
452 which retains more information than the copulas estimated with parametric methods, but it is also
453 numerically demanding. The effective way to analyze time series and build up a time series model based
454 on copulas can be further explored.

455

456 **Appendix A**

457 Suppose that a random variable at time t is denoted as $X(t)$ and $c_X(\mathbf{u}, t)$ is an autocopula obtained from
 458 $X(t)$. Assuming $c_{X,mean}(\mathbf{u})$ as an average state of $c_X(\mathbf{u}, t)$, deviation of copula $\Delta c_X(\mathbf{u}, t)$ at time t is
 459 defined by

$$460 \quad \Delta c_X(\mathbf{u}, t) = c_X(\mathbf{u}, t) - c_{X,mean}(\mathbf{u}) \quad (A1)$$

461 For the empirical case, $c_X(\mathbf{u}, t)$ and $c_{X,mean}(\mathbf{u})$ can be regarded as local copula and global copula
 462 respectively similar to Equation (29). Since global and local copula are empirical copula density as defined
 463 in Equation (8), $\Delta c_X(\mathbf{u}, t)$ can be regarded as a vector of values on finite number of grids:

$$464 \quad \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t) = (\Delta c_{X,1}(t), \Delta c_{X,2}(t), \dots, \Delta c_{X,i}(t), \dots, \Delta c_{X,N}(t)) \quad (A2)$$

465 where $\Delta c_{X,i}(t)$ denotes the value of copula density at i -th grid and N is the number of grids. From
 466 Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$467 \quad \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\| \geq |\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle|^2 \quad (A3)$$

468 where $\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\|$ is norm and $\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle$ is inner product of vector $\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)$ and $\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)$. Then

$$469 \quad \begin{aligned} \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| &= \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta c_{X,i}(t)^2 \\ &= \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 (\Delta c_X(\mathbf{u}, t))^2 du_1 \dots du_n = D_1(c_X, t) \end{aligned} \quad (A4)$$

$$470 \quad \begin{aligned} &|\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle|^2 \\ &= \langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta c_{X,i}(t) \cdot \Delta c_{Y,i}(t) \\ &= \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 \Delta c_X(\mathbf{u}, t) \Delta c_Y(\mathbf{u}, t) du_1 \dots du_n = D_3(c_X, c_Y, t) \end{aligned} \quad (A5)$$

$$471 \quad \frac{|\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle|^2}{\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\|} = \frac{D_3(c_X, c_Y, t)^2}{D_1(c_X, t) \cdot D_1(c_Y, t)} = D_4(c_X, c_Y, t)^2 \leq 1 \quad (A6)$$

472 Therefore $|D_4(c_X, c_Y, t)| \leq 1$ in Equation (30). Above inequality is valid for certain time point t and
 473 summing up (A6) for all the time steps t leads to

$$474 \quad \sum_{t=1}^T (\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| \cdot \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\|) \geq \sum_{t=1}^T |\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle|^2 \quad (\text{A7})$$

475 where T is the number of time steps. $\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\|$ is a norm and can be denoted for simplicity as
 476 $x_t = \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\|$. Then

$$477 \quad \sum_{t=1}^T (\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| \cdot \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\|) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \quad (\text{A8})$$

478 where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T)$ for $t = 1 \dots T$. Again from Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$479 \quad |\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{y}\| \quad (\text{A9})$$

480 where

$$481 \quad \begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{y}\| &= \sum_{t=1}^T x_t^2 \cdot \sum_{t=1}^T y_t^2 = \sum_{t=1}^T \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\|^2 \cdot \sum_{t=1}^T \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\|^2 \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^T D_1(c_X, t)^2 \cdot \sum_{t=1}^T D_1(c_Y, t)^2 = T^2 \cdot \text{Var}_{cop}(c_X) \cdot \text{Var}_{cop}(c_Y) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A10})$$

$$482 \quad \begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle &= \sum_{t=1}^T (x_t \cdot y_t) = \sum_{t=1}^T (\|\Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t)\| \cdot \|\Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t)\|) \geq \sum_{t=1}^T |\langle \Delta \mathbf{c}_X(t), \Delta \mathbf{c}_Y(t) \rangle|^2 \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^T D_{3,XY}(t) = T \cdot \text{Cov}_{cop}(c_X, c_Y) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A11})$$

483 Then $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{y}\|$ indicates

$$484 \quad \begin{aligned} |\text{Cov}_{cop}(c_X, c_Y)|^2 &\leq \text{Var}_{cop}(c_X) \cdot \text{Var}_{cop}(c_Y) \\ |\text{Cor}_{cop}| &= \frac{\text{Cov}_{cop}(c_X, c_Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}_{cop}(c_X)} \cdot \sqrt{\text{Var}_{cop}(c_Y)}} \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A12})$$

485
 486

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- 546

547

548 Table 1 Variance and copula variance calculated for 4 discharge time series

549

550

	ANDE	COCH	MAXA	PLOC
<i>Var</i>	1.79	2.24	1.75	2.72
<i>Var_{cop}</i> [$\times 10^{-5}$]	3.01	1.64	5.39	1.27

551

552 Table 2 Covariance, correlation, copula covariance and copula correlation between 4 discharge data

553 (AN:Andernach, CO:Cochem, MA:Maxau, PL:Plochingen)

554

555

	AN-CO	AN-MA	AN-PL	CO-MA	CO-PL	MA-PL
<i>Cov</i>	1.68	1.60	1.33	1.38	1.31	1.41
<i>Cor</i>	0.84	0.90	0.60	0.70	0.53	0.64
<i>Cov_{cop}</i> [$\times 10^{-6}$]	4.90	3.40	3.39	7.16	9.90	5.47
<i>Cor_{cop}</i>	0.60	0.77	0.46	0.71	0.60	0.59

556

557 Table 3 Variance and copula variance calculated for API time series of 4 regions in the Baden-

558 Württemberg state of Germany

559

560

	C	SW	NW	NE
<i>Var</i>	1.70	1.66	1.72	1.78
<i>Var_{cop}</i> [$\times 10^{-6}$]	3.00	4.02	3.35	3.21

561

562

563 Table 4 Covariance, correlation, copula covariance and copula correlation between API time series from 4

564 regions in the Baden-Württemberg state of Germany

565

566

	C-SW	C-NW	C-NE	SW-NW	SW-NE	NW-NE
<i>Cov</i>	1.35	1.33	1.44	1.25	1.41	1.42
<i>Cor</i>	0.80	0.77	0.84	0.74	0.84	0.83
<i>Cov_{cop}</i> [$\times 10^{-7}$]	1.46	1.16	8.94	4.42	1.11	8.80
<i>Cor_{cop}</i>	0.36	0.29	0.29	0.09	0.26	0.24

567

568 Figure Captions

569

570 Figure 1 Locations of 7 discharge gauging stations in the Upper Rhine Region

571 Figure 2 Visualization of the functions which displays the contribution of a realization of (U_t, U_{t+k}) to
572 *assymetry1* (left) and *assymetry2* (right)

573 Figure 3 Sketch of the transformation from sample hydrograph (left) to empirical copula (right):
574 Scatterplot of ranks are calculated from two values separated by time lag $k = 1$ [days] in a discharge time
575 series of Andernach where *rank correlation* = 0.9870, $A_1(k = 1) = -0.0002398$ and
576 $A_2(k = 1) = -0.00011037$. The possible combinations of high and low values, which has large impacts on
577 asymmetry, are numbered (1) low to high, (2) high to high (3) high to low (4) low to low. Negative
578 contribution to *assymetry2* is drawn with red circle, positive contribution with blue circle.

579 Figure 4 Annual cycle of mean discharge after smoothing (left) and annual cycle of standard deviation
580 after smoothing (right)

581 Figure 5 Discharge time series between 1950 and 1955 before applying normalization (upper left) and after
582 applying normalization (upper right). The variation of *assymetry2* function calculated for entire time
583 series before applying normalization (bottom left) and after applying normalization (bottom right) with
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588 (middle), minimum of *assymetry2* of discharge and lag at minimum of *assymetry2* of discharge (bottom)

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599 Figure 11 Copula distances of discharge time series in moving time window: moving covariance (top),
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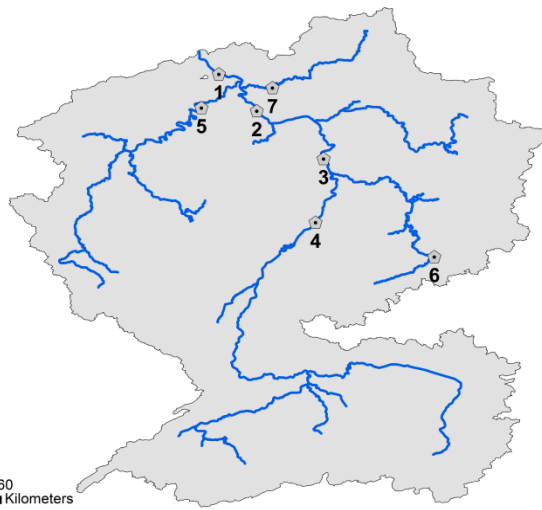
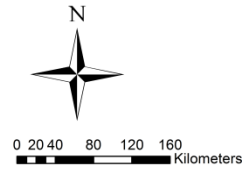
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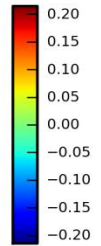
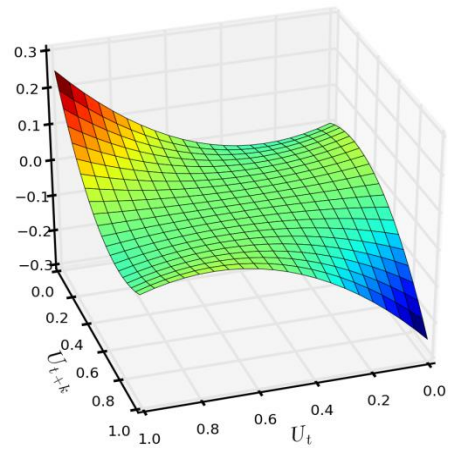
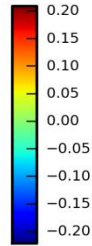
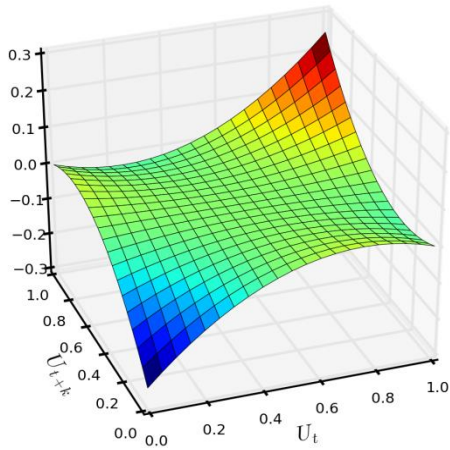
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- 1) Andernach
- 2) Kaub
- 3) Worms
- 4) Maxau
- 5) Cochem
- 6) Plochingen
- 7) Kalkofen



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Figure 1 Locations of 7 discharge gauging stations in the Upper Rhine Region



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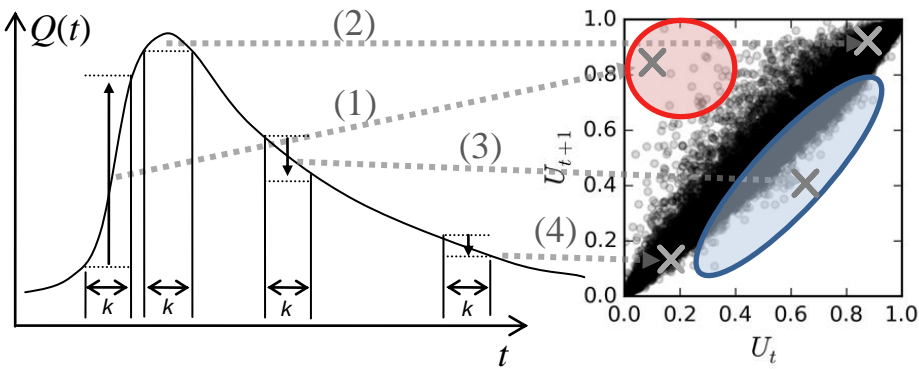
Figure 2 Visualization of the functions which displays the contribution of a realization of (U_t, U_{t+k}) to

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assymetry1 (left) and *assymetry2* (right)

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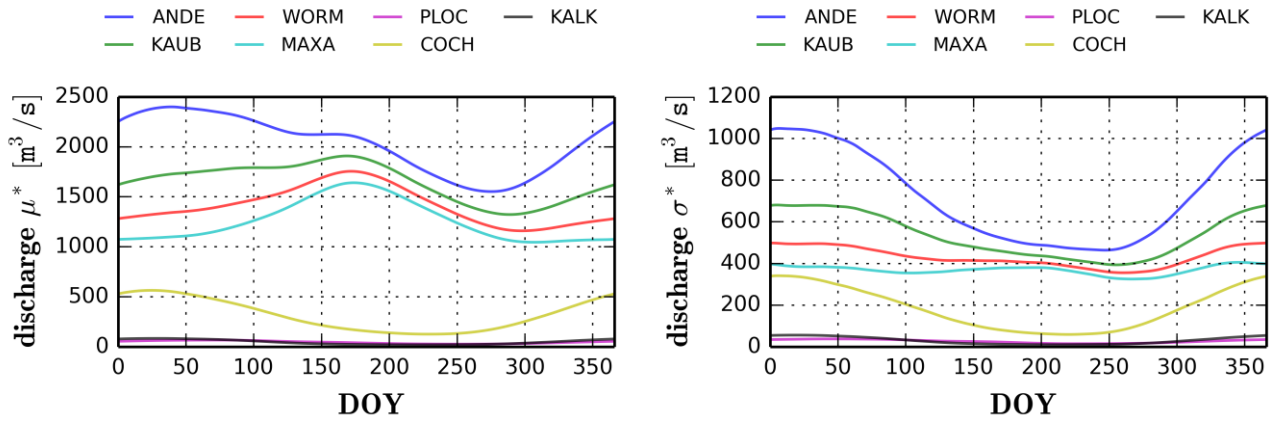
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 627 Figure 3 Sketch of the transformation of the values from sample hydrograph (left) to the points on
 628 scatterplot of ranks (right): empirical copula calculated from two values separated by time lag $k = 1$ [days]
 629 in a discharge time series of Andernach where rank correlation = 0.9870 , $A_1(k = 1) = -0.0002398$ and
 630 $A_2(k = 1) = -0.00011037$. The possible combinations of high and low values, which has large impacts on
 631 asymmetry, are numbered: (1) low to high, (2) high to high, (3) high to low, (4) low to low. Negative
 632 contribution to asymmetry₂ is drawn with red circle and positive contribution with blue oval.

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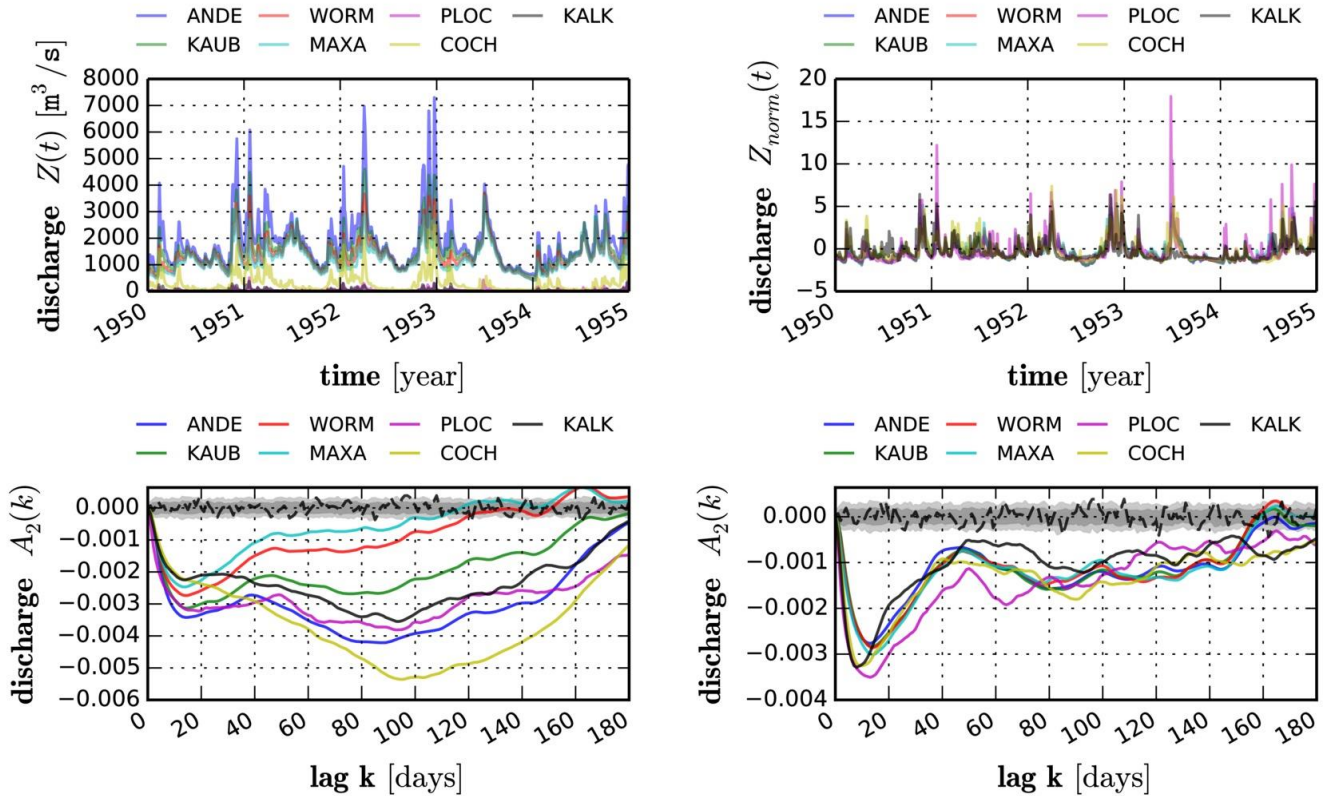
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636 Figure 4 Annual cycle of mean discharge after smoothing (left) and annual cycle of standard deviation

637 after smoothing (right)



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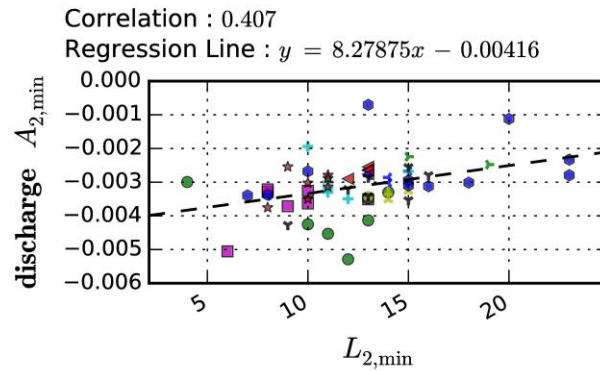
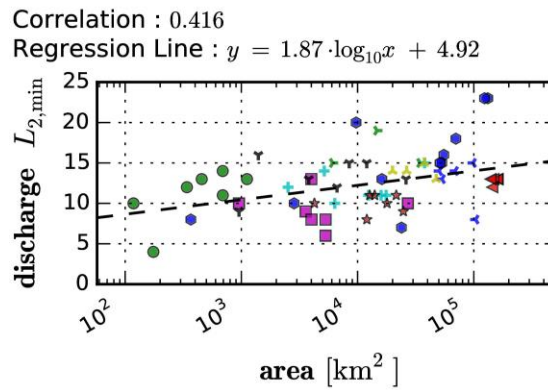
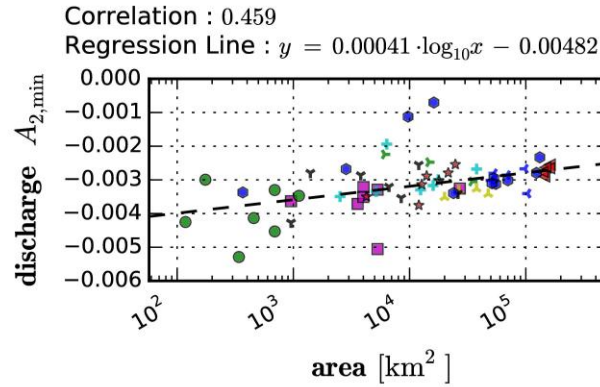
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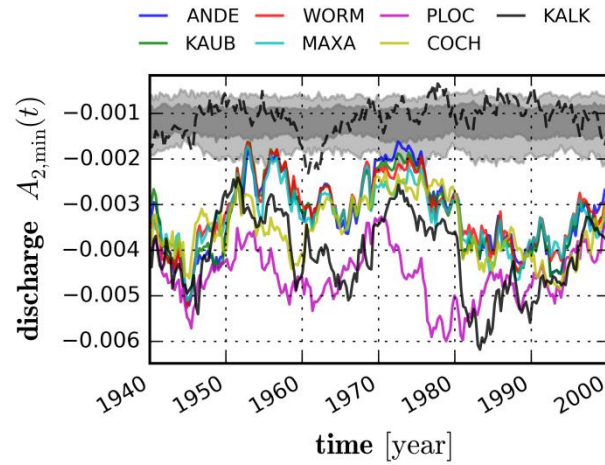
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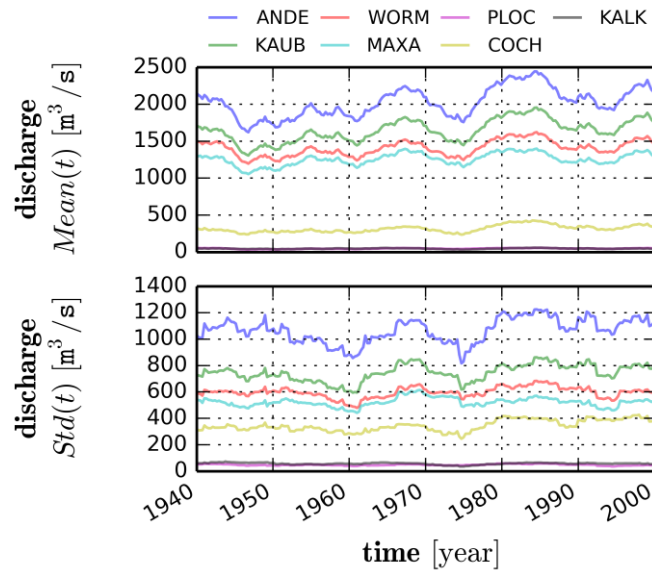
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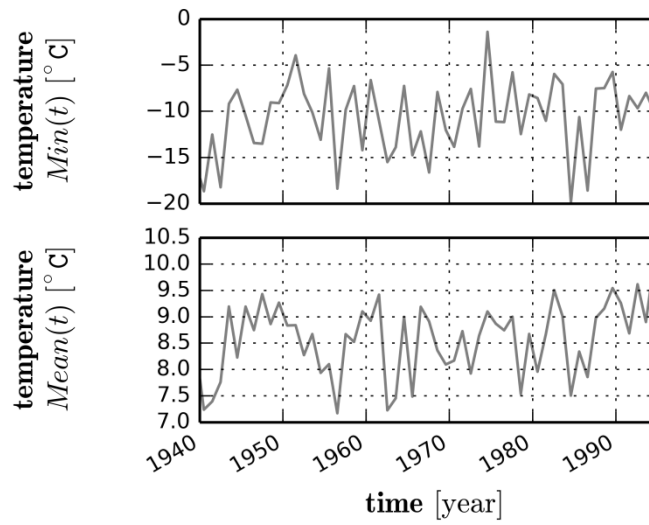


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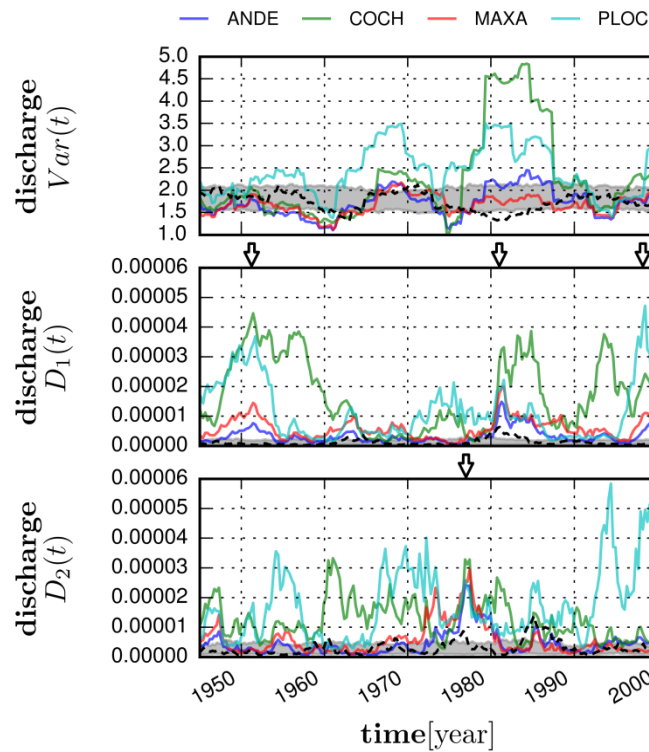
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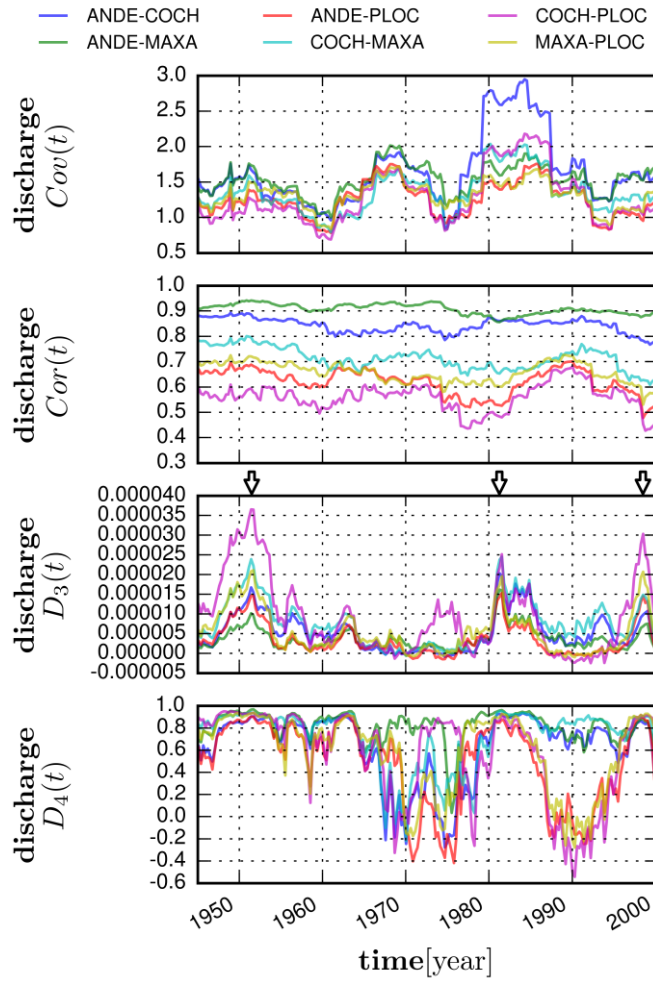
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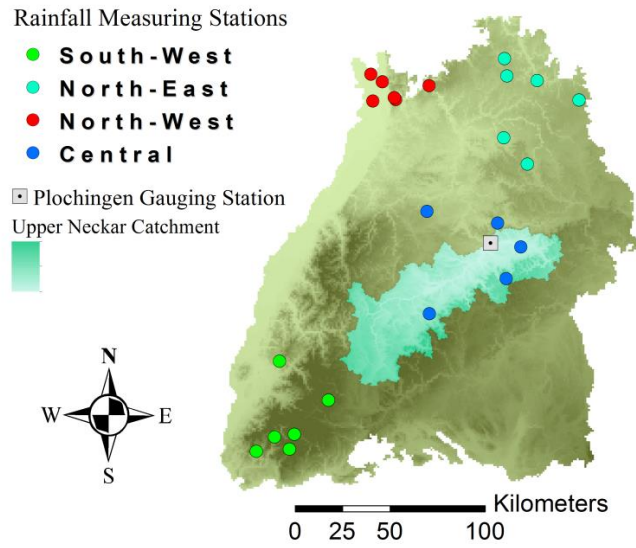


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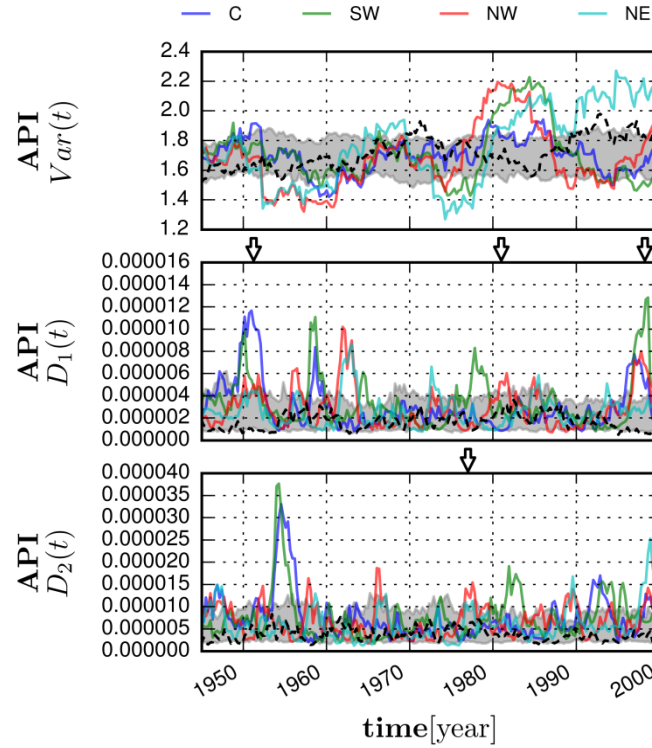


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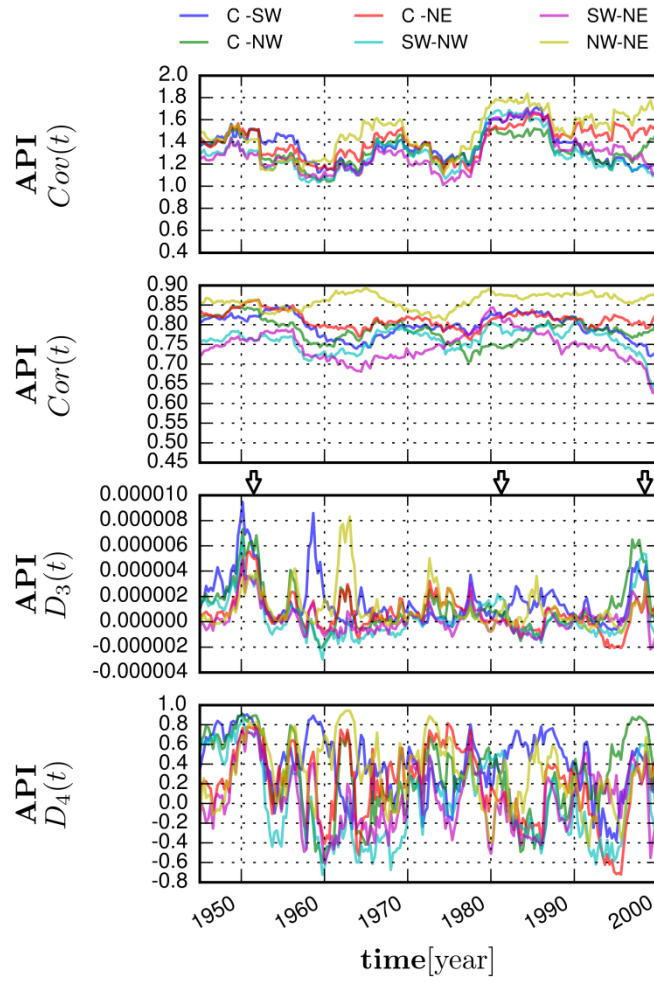
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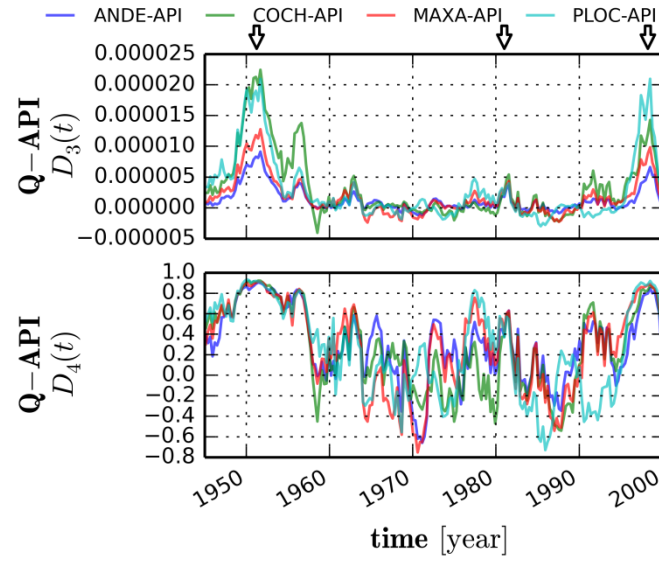
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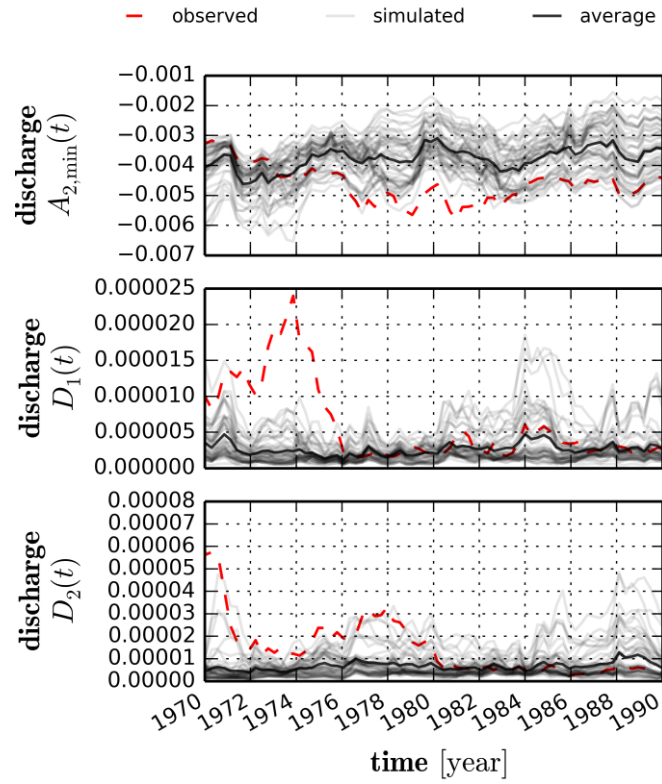
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