

1 **Effects and consideration of storm movement in rainfall-runoff modelling at the basin**

2 **scale**

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8 **Abstract:** A number of studies have emphasized the effects of rainfall movement on runoff  
9 simulation; nevertheless, due to the lack of rain gauges inside sub-basins, a method using a  
10 hyetograph of the nearest gauges to a sub-basin is usually employed. This study investigated  
11 the effects of neglecting rainfall movement on overland simulation results in even a middle-  
12 sized basin. Simulations were carried out under two conditions: (1) stationary conditions  
13 where the nearest gauge hyetograph was used and rainfall movement was ignored, which is  
14 quite common in case of a lack of data; (2) moving conditions where a shifted hyetograph  
15 based on hyetograph timing recorded in the basin was used. The simulation results were  
16 compared with the measured discharge at the outlets. The results revealed that using the  
17 shifted hyetograph, which could consider the rainfall movement over sub-basins, decreased  
18 the mismatches between the simulated and observed hydrograph. In some of the cases, the  
19 shifted hyetograph reduced the relative difference more than 20%. The study provided a  
20 useful method to cope with rainfall movement in runoff modeling of sparsely gauged large  
21 watersheds.

## 22 1. Introduction

23 Since the first reports in the 1960s (Maksimov, 1964; Yen and Chow 1969) emphasized that  
24 higher peak flows are generated whenever the precipitation moves from upstream toward  
25 downstream, and conversely, rainfalls passing from down to upstream result in a rounded  
26 hydrograph, a great deal of research has investigated the effects of rainfall movement on the  
27 shape of the runoff hydrograph in the past half century. Most studies (Ngirane et al., 1985;  
28 Singh, 1997, 1998) have applied mathematical approaches to obtain a better understanding of  
29 the effects of storm speed and direction characteristics on the hydrograph shape. Their results  
30 showed that hyetograph characteristics, such as rainfall pattern, duration, intensity, direction  
31 and speed, significantly affected the hydrograph shape, and they emphasized that downward  
32 storm movement cause to increase the peak flow. Some researchers (Singh, 1998; Mizumura,  
33 2011) adopted a kinematic wave equation to model the hydrograph in the case of a moving  
34 rainstorm. Their results showed that the maximum flow depth was generated when the  
35 rainstorm speed equalled the flood movement toward the outlet, and the speed of the storm  
36 had a greater impact for larger Manning's roughness coefficients. Recent studies have  
37 preferred dynamic wave models based on Saint Venant equations to obtain flexible results  
38 under varying conditions (Costabile, 2012). Kim and Seo (2013) applied a dynamic wave  
39 model base on shallow water equations to study the effects of storm movement on runoff  
40 generation in a V-shaped watershed experimentation system. The results revealed that storm  
41 movement could generate a loop in the stage-discharge curve, and changes in storm  
42 movement direction could invert the rotation of the loop. In addition, they revealed that the  
43 characteristics of rating curve depended on basin characteristic rather than functions of storm  
44 movement in V-shaped basin. In addition, there has been some research (De Lima et al. 2002)  
45 using rainfall simulators at laboratory scale to investigate the effects of storm movement.  
46 Laboratory portable rainfall simulators and flumes were used to simulate the hydrograph

47 response to moving storms and subsequently soil erosion (De Lima et al. 2003). They applied  
48 different hyetograph patterns to study the effects of rainfall characteristics on the runoff  
49 hydrograph. The simulation outputs of hypothetical storms moving upward and downward  
50 over a laboratory impervious plane revealed that the peak discharges and hydrograph shape  
51 were highly affected by storm movement. In particular, they highlighted that runoff under  
52 moving rainfall is a non-linear process, essentially different from stationary rainfalls.  
53 Saghafian et al. (1995) used a two-dimensional runoff model and a Monte Carlo method to  
54 investigate storm movement effects on runoff. The results indicated that when storm  
55 movement is slow, a stationary rainstorm could be used in simulations; while when storm  
56 movement is fast, a stationary rainstorm was not acceptable. Ogden et al. (1995) showed that  
57 the runoff hydrograph was more sensitive to storm speed than direction in two-dimensional  
58 basin topography. Base on Manning's equation, the peak maximum occurred when the storm  
59 moved toward downstream at a critical speed equalling half the flow velocity.

60 Although there is well-known background on the effects of moving storms on overland  
61 flow generation, most of the interest has focused on laboratory experiments (Singh, 1997,  
62 1998; De Lima et al. 2002, 2003) or mathematical approaches (Costabile, 2012; Kim and Seo  
63 2013; Saghafian et al., 1995, Ogden et al., 1995). These studies emphasized the effects of  
64 movement on runoff generation via a synthetic hyetograph whose direction, speed and  
65 intensity were well-controlled by the researchers. However, few studies are available about  
66 rainstorm movement effects on runoff in natural environments of real basins, especially in the  
67 case of data deficiency. Therefore, it is essential to develop an approach that supports  
68 hydrologists bridging the gap between mathematical model and real condition. The objective  
69 of this study was to (1) precisely examine the effects of moving storms on hydrograph  
70 simulation at the basin scale using real recorded rainfall-runoff; (2) provide an approach to  
71 consider storm movement under the conditions of data shortage in sparsely gauged basins.

72 **2. Materials and methods**

73 **2.1 Study area and data availability**

74 Barandoozchay basin, one of the Urmia Lake sub-catchments, is located in the northwest of  
75 Iran. The study area lies in between Urmia Lake and the Iran-Iraq-Turkey international  
76 border from 44° 45' E to 45° 14' E and 37° 06' N to 37° 29' N. The area of the basin is about  
77 1146 km<sup>2</sup>.

78 The basin is divided into 7 sub-basins (B1 to B7), based on the river branches and  
79 topographic features. Fig. 1 shows the Barandoozchay map and hydrometeorological gauges.  
80 This mountainous basin is mostly covered by grasslands, followed by farmland and orchard  
81 land. The humid air often (not always) comes from the west, originating from the  
82 Mediterranean Sea.

83 There are 6 daily rain gauges and 4 stream gauges inside the basin (Fig. 1), and 3 hourly  
84 rain gauges (35010, 34013 and 34019) around the basin.

85 [Fig. 1 is here]

86 Seven storm events, which were recorded in all rain gauges during 1995 to 2014, were  
87 selected. These events have recorded rain data (daily and hourly) available from the nearby  
88 rain gauges and the hydrometric runoff data from the stream gauges.

89 **2.2 Estimation of sub-basin hyetograph**

90 When the cloud is stationary, most of sub-basins that are covered by the cloud react to the  
91 rainfall simultaneously, implying that the start time and end time of the rainfall event is  
92 approximately the same for all sub-basins; while in the case of a moving cloud, the sub-  
93 basins that are located in the wind direction start to generate runoff earlier than the others  
94 (Fig. 2).

95 [Fig. 2 is here]

96 Since there is no record from the rain gauge inside the basin, the start and end time of the  
97 events were unknown. Therefore, the residence time of the storm cloud over each sub-basin  
98 and its role in outlet runoff generation were estimated and examined.

99 As the first step, the total daily rainfall of each sub-basin was estimated using Kriging  
100 and IDW (Inverse Distance Weighted) methods, based on the rain gauges inside the basin.  
101 Fig. 3 shows the raster map of generated rainfall for the event on May 12<sup>th</sup>, 2010.

102 [Fig. 3 is here]

103 The total daily rainfall was then disaggregated into hourly rainfall. Since there is no  
104 hourly recording gauge inside the basin, the nearest recording gauges at Urmia, Oshnavieh  
105 and Naghadeh (35010, 34013 and 34019) were used. The hourly rainfalls for sub-basins were  
106 obtained through following steps:

107 Determine the best hyetograph from one of the stations for disaggregation. The best  
108 hyetograph was selected based on daily rainfall amounts in stations and sub-basins.

109 Calculate the ratio of total rainfall in a sub-basin to the total daily rainfall recorded in the  
110 selected station with the best hyetograph.

111 Multiply the calculated ratio to the best hyetograph to obtain hourly rainfalls of a sub-  
112 basin (Choi, 2008; Gyasi-Agyei et al. 2005, 2007). Fig. 4 illustrates the procedures to  
113 disaggregate the daily rainfall into each sub-basin's hyetograph.

114 [Fig. 4 is here]

115 Due to dynamic motion of the cloud, the rainfall duration, start and end time, and  
116 intensity as well as other characteristics change. These parameters are known for the gauge  
117 locations, but unknown in other locations as well as sub-basins. To determine the cloud  
118 arrival time of each sub-basin and the time of rainfall occurrence (start, end and duration), the  
119 recorded hyetograph was concentrated to a unique time named the Time of Gravity Centre of

120 Hyetograph (TGCH) (Khalighi 2009). Since the TGCH is specified in gauge locations, it can  
121 be calculated for sub-basins through the following procedures:

122 (1) TGCH for recorded rainfall was calculated as a momentum of the rainfall component  
123 around the horizontal and vertical axis. The Fig. 5 shows that the recorded event in station  
124 35010 started at 4:00 am and ended at 2:30 pm, and the calculated TGCH was at 9:00 am  
125 (8.981).

126 (2) When cloud moves over a basin, the rainfall time at a point depends on the point  
127 location and cloud speed and direction. At least 3 gauges are necessary to determine the  
128 occurrence time of rainfall at a point, although more gauges could increase the accuracy. As  
129 there are only 3 recording gauges around the study basin, a flat plane passes through the  
130 stations (Fig. 6). Therefore, the equation of the plane ( $TGCH=aX+bY+c$ ) was applied to  
131 calculate the TGCH at each point. The UTM coordinates of the stations (X, Y) are considered  
132 as independent variables and the TGCH are considered as dependent variable, and then the  
133 coefficients (a, b and c) of the flat plane are calculated using algebraic functions (Howard  
134 2010).

135 (3) The coordinates of the sub-basin centroids were placed in the above equations to  
136 determine the TGCH of each sub-basin.

137 (4) The previously derived hyetograph was shifted as its gravity centre conformed to the  
138 TGCH of each sub-basin centroid (Fig. 7).

139 [Fig. 5 is here]

140 [Fig. 6 is here]

141 [Fig. 7 is here]

142 For example, the TGCH for event 95/04/22 was recorded at 8.98, 6.48 and 5.33 at the  
143 stations 35010, 34019 and 34013 respectively (table 2), then the equation of the TGCH plane  
144 of this event was:  $TGCH=0.000077\times X+0.000069+Y-317.457$ . Based on this equation and the

145 coordinates of the B1 sub-basin centroid, the TGCH was 8:00 am, implying that the TGCH at  
146 B1 occurred almost one hour earlier than at station 35010, which was 8:59 am.

### 147 **2.3 Rainfall-runoff modelling**

148 The HEC-HMS model (TR-55, 1986) was used to investigate the effects of storm movement  
149 on hydrograph simulations. The model was calibrated using 5 events (1995/04/22,  
150 2002/04/21, 2003/04/03, 2006/04/18 and 2008/04/07). Based on sensitive analysis, the  
151 relative initial abstraction ( $R_a = I_a/S$ ) is the most sensitive parameter among the other  
152 parameters such as curve number ( $CN$ ), lag time ( $T_l$ ), total storage ( $S$ ) and initial abstraction  
153 ( $I_a$ ). Table 1 showed the primary and optimized parameters in sub-basins. The validation was  
154 conducted using the events 2010/05/12 and 2014/04/22. The results of peak discharges were  
155 shown in Table 2.

156 [Table 1 here]

157 [Table 2 here]

158 After the calibration and validation, the simulations were carried out for all events using  
159 two hypotheses: (1) stationary cloud where the sub-basin hyetograph timing is equal to the  
160 nearest recording gauge; (2) moving cloud where the sub-basin rainfall hyetograph shifted  
161 base on cloud movement direction and sub-basin location.

162 A Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001, 2005; Sigaroodi et al., 2014) and root mean squared of  
163 relative difference (RD) were used to compare the results of two hypothesized conditions.

$$164 \quad RD = \sqrt{\left(\frac{P_O - P_S}{P_O}\right)^2} \times 100$$

165 where the  $P_O$  and  $P_S$  are observed and simulated peak discharge respectively.



166 **3. Results**

167 Fig. 8 shows the planes of TGCH for different events. Although the basin is mainly affected  
168 by the eastern humid Mediterranean air, the results indicated that each selected rainfall event  
169 had different directions and speeds.

170 [Fig. 8 is here]

171 Based on the gauge locations and TGCH of each event, a plane equation  
172  $TGCH = aX + bY + c$  was obtained for each event. Table 3 shows the equation coefficients.

173 [Table 3 is here]

174 The gravity centre coordinate of each sub-basin is used in the equations to calculate the  
175 TGCH for the sub-basin centroid of each event. Fig. 9 shows how the sub-basin hyetograph is  
176 shifted to obtain the TGCH for the event on April 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2003. The measured TGCH at the  
177 gauges and the calculated TGCH for sub-basins are shown in Table 4.

178 [Fig. 9 is here]

179 [Table 4 is here]

180 Fig. 10 presents the HEC-HMS modeled results for the event on April 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2014 at the  
181 gauge 35005. The right part shows the model performance under stationary conditions where  
182 all sub-basins react to the hyetograph simultaneously. The gray and brown lines are the  
183 modeled outputs for upper sub-basins, which make the simulated total output (blue line). The  
184 hydrograph is sharp and the time to peak is quite different compared to the observed  
185 hydrograph (red line). The left part presents the modeled result using a shifted hyetograph,  
186 which matches better with the observed hydrograph.

187 [Fig. 10 is here]

188 For comparison, the modeled peak discharges of the 7 selected events under the two  
189 conditions are presented together with the observations in Table 5.

190 [Table 5 is here]

191 Fig.11 displays the standard deviation (SD) and correlation coefficient  $R^2$  of the modeled  
192 results under stationary and moving conditions on the Taylor diagram. It is clearly seen that  
193 the moving condition results are closer to the observation points than the stationary condition  
194 results.

195 [Fig. 11 is here]

#### 196 **4. Discussion**

197 To achieve accurate hydrological modeling, high quality and spatially-explicit rainfall data  
198 should be accessible; however, in many cases uniform hyetographs are used for all sub-basins  
199 due to lack of sufficient gauges. If the cloud motion is neglected, it means that the differences  
200 between the times of runoff generated by sub-basins are ignored. In this case, to compensate  
201 for the difference and achieve better matching between simulated and observed runoff, other  
202 basin factors such as curve number ( $CN$ ) or time-lag have to be modified, which most  
203 probably cause artifacts in the coefficients (Khalighi et al., 2006, 2009).

204 Some researchers used portable rainfall simulators or flumes in laboratory scales (Yen  
205 1969, Singh, 1997, De Lima et al. 2002, 2003), while others preferred mathematical models  
206 to detect the effects of rainfall movement on runoff generation (Saghafian et al., 1995, Ogden  
207 et al., 1995, Kim and Seo 2013). Synthetic or artificial rainfalls are used in the laboratory or  
208 mathematical simulations. In contrast to previous studies, this research investigated the  
209 effects in a real basin under natural conditions, where the rainfall characteristics cannot be  
210 controlled. If there are sufficient rain gauges in basin, at least one gauge in the middle of each  
211 sub-basin, accurate runoff simulations can be achieved. However, this is not true in most  
212 cases, where sparse gauges or no gauge is available. This study provided an approach that the  
213 rainfall time in ungauged sub-basins could be determined using the recorded rainfalls in  
214 around gauges. Although more rain gauges can obtain better results, at least 3 gauges are

215 necessary to record the rainfall event for determining the cloud direction and speed, which is  
216 reflected in the TGCH plane.

217 When the cloud movement is slow, consideration of movement is more important  
218 compared to fast movement conditions. In the event of April 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2014, the time difference  
219 between gauges 35010 and 34019 (Table 4) shows that the cloud movement is very low, thus  
220 the sub-basin B1 generates runoff much earlier than B7. This result was not consistent with  
221 the findings of Saghafian (1995), who stated that a stationary rainstorm could be used in low  
222 speed storms. This study showed that for small basins or laboratory scales where the cloud  
223 covers the whole basin, the storm motion effect could be ignored; while in the case of  
224 middle-size to large basins, the runoff of low speed storms **passing over the basin** has an  
225 obvious role in determining hydrograph shape. It can then be concluded that when the time  
226 difference between the recorded rainfalls around the area is small, the differences between  
227 stationary and moving runoff simulations are slight. These results were consistent with the  
228 findings of previous studies, which showed the impacts of cloud motion on hydrographs by  
229 using rainfall simulators at different laboratory scales (Sing, 1997, 1998; de Lima and Singh,  
230 2002; de Lima et al., 2003; Marzen, 2015) or the kinematic wave method (Mizumura, 2011).

231 The results of this study also revealed that longer rainfalls are less affected by cloud  
232 movement. In other words, for rapid and short rains, the runoff hydrograph is more strongly  
233 affected by cloud movement speed and direction. These results were consistent with the  
234 findings of previous studies (de Lima and Singh, 2002; Khalighi, 2009; Dae-Hong Kim, 2013)  
235 in laboratory, **which emphasized the effects of rainfall duration on runoff generations.**

236 It should be noted that the effects of cloud movement on hydrograph modeling become  
237 visible only when the study area is divided into sub-basins. In addition, lack of gauges in this  
238 study caused to use a flat plane to calculate the TGCH for the sub-basins; other interpolation  
239 methods such as IDW and Kriging could be more appropriate to obtain surface data from the

240 point data. Despite of these, the similarity between recorded and simulated hydrograph  
241 shapes as well as peak discharges indicated that the proposed method could significantly  
242 improve runoff modeling accuracy in sparsely gauged large basins..

243 In conclusion, although there are many laboratory experiments on the effects of rainfall  
244 movement on runoff simulation, this study developed an important method to determine how  
245 the spatial-temporal dynamics of rainfall can be considered at the real watershed scale, in  
246 particular for large areas without sufficient gauges.

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**Tables**

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Table 1. Optimized parameter in sub-basins

Sub-basin	$R_a = I_a/S$		$CN$	$T_1$ (h)
	Primary	Optimized		
B1	0.2	0.197	68	7.6
B2	0.2	0.18	71	6.2
B3	0.2	0.23	78	3.7
B4	0.2	0.23	80	2.3
B5	0.2	0.23	78	3.1
B6	0.2	0.23	82	2.7
B7	0.2	0.164	77	5.9

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314

Table 2. Comparison of observed and simulated peak discharge in validation step

Hydrological Station	2010/05/12		2014/04/22	
	Observed	Simulated	Observed	Simulated
35003	12.2	14.4	--	--
35005	34.8	31.5	297.9	352

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Table 3. Obtained coefficients for the TGCH flat plane

Coefficient / Time	95/04/22	02/04/21	03/04/03	06/04/18	08/04/07	10/05/12	14/04/22
a	0.000077	0.000256	0.000222	0.000244	0.000047	-7.3E-05	-8.9E-05
b	0.000069	0.000008	0.000095	-3.4E-05	-0.00003	0.000074	-0.00019
c	-317.457	-144.736	-485.298	30.743	127.119	-236.65	855.542

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Table 4. TGCH measured at the gauges and calculated for the sub-basins

Location		UTM		Precipitation Events						
		X	Y	95/04/22	02/04/21	03/04/03	06/04/18	08/04/07	10/05/12	14/04/22
Gauges	35010	507361	4155960	8.98	20.4	7.3	14.7	3.0	8.3	15.9
	34019	534124	4091310	6.48	26.7 <sup>a</sup>	6.2	23.4	6.2	1.6	25.5
	34013	510374	4100492	5.33	20.7	1.1	17.3	4.8	4.0	25.9
Sub-basins	B1	510820 <sup>b</sup>	4139365	8.0	21.1	6.3	16.1	3.7	6.8	18.7
	B2	495670	4134355	6.5	17.2	4.5	12.6	3.1	7.6	20.9
	B3	493644	4123015	5.6	16.6	3.7	12.5	3.3	6.9	23.2
	B4	483585	4118992	4.5	14	2.8	10.1	3	7.3	24.9
	B5	486806	4113932	4.4	14.8	2.9	11.1	3.3	6.7	25.5
	B6	493217	4112538	4.8	16.4	3.2	12.7	3.6	6.1	25.2
	B7	508969	4120830	6.6	20.5	5.1	16.3	4.1	5.6	22.3

320 a: The numbers over 24 refer to the next day.

321 b: Coordinate of centroid of sub-basin.

322 Table 5. Modelled peak discharges under two conditions and differences

		Peak Discharge			Difference (%)	
Hydrological						
Date	Station	Obs.	Stationary	Moving	Stationary	Moving
2014/04/22	35005	297.9	352	315.3	18.2	5.8
2010/05/12		34.8	31.5	34.4	9.5	1.1
2008/04/07		61.4	70.15	65.6	14.3	6.8
2006/04/18		96.15	100.5	100.13	4.5	4.1
2003/04/03		20.1	20.4	20.3	1.5	1
2002/04/21		65.9	42.9	41.6	34.9	36.9
1995/04/22		37.45	51.2	42.58	36.7	13.7
2010/05/12	35003	12.2	14.4	13.4	18	9.8
2008/04/07		51.9	65.16	63.4	25.5	22.2
2006/04/18		85.4	93.8	93.57	9.8	9.6
2003/04/03		3.7	3.5	3.8	5.4	2.7
2002/04/21		24.3	28.8	26.1	18.5	7.4
1995/04/22		113.2	127.7	127.3	12.8	12.5
1995/04/22	35001	83	83.3	83.3	0.4	0.4

323

## Figure captions

324 Figure 1. Barandoozchay basin and hydrometeorological gauges

325 Figure 2. Schematic of rainfall movement effect on runoff formation

326 Figure 3. Spatial distribution of rainfall event 2010/05/12

327 Figure 4. Schematic of rainfall hyetograph determination in sub-basin centroid. a) Hourly  
328 hyetograph at nearest gauge, b) Daily precipitation at nearest gauge, c) Daily precipitation in  
329 sub-basin centroid, d) Derived hyetograph for sub-basin

330 Figure 5. HYGCH output for calculation of hyetograph centroid at 95/04/22 in station 35010  
331 (Gx: Temporal coordinates of concentrated event, Gy: Average of incremental rainfall)

332 Figure 6. Flat plane passing through the TGCH for the event 1995/04/22

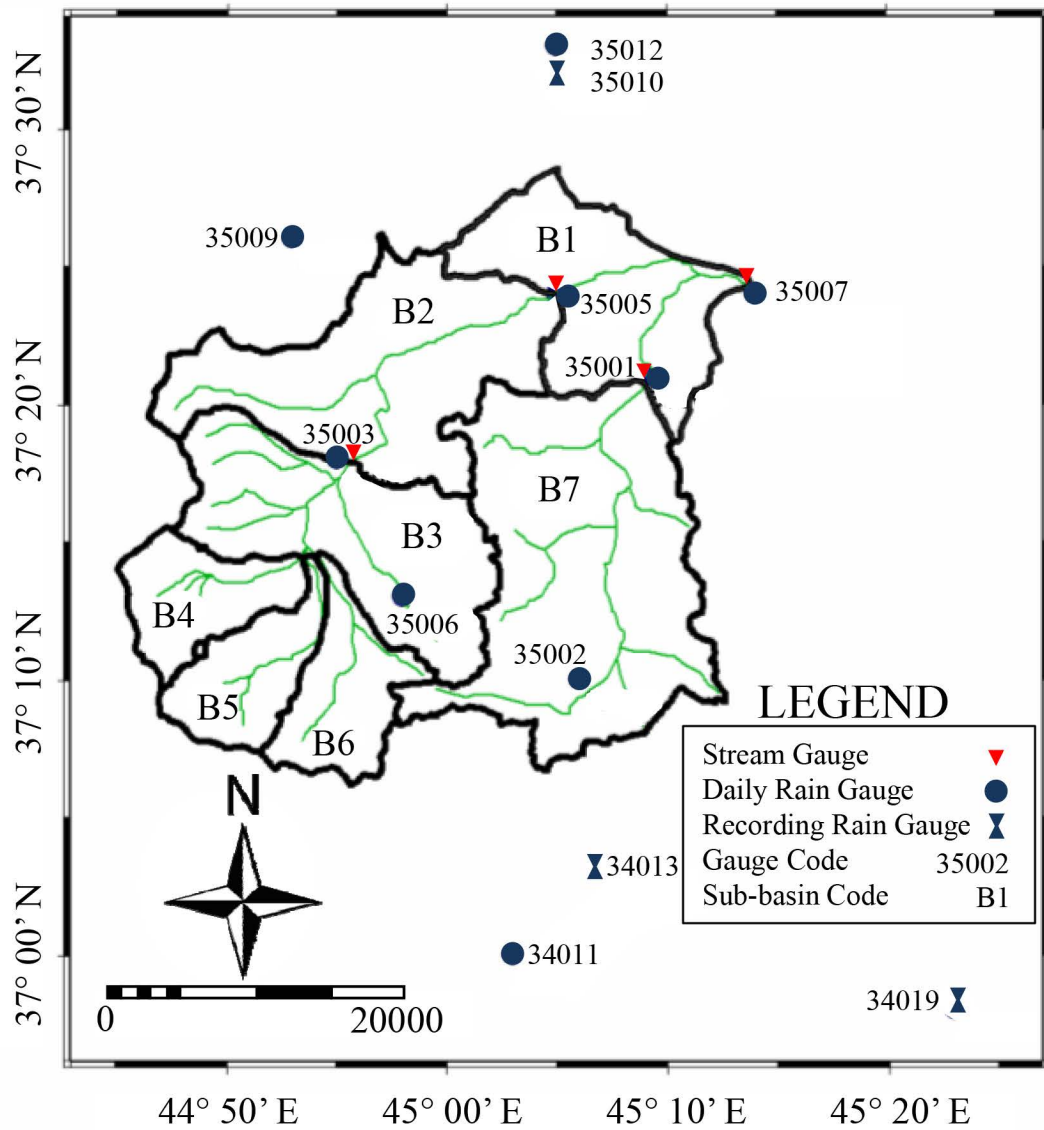
333 Figure 7. Shifting the hyetograph to the estimated TGCH

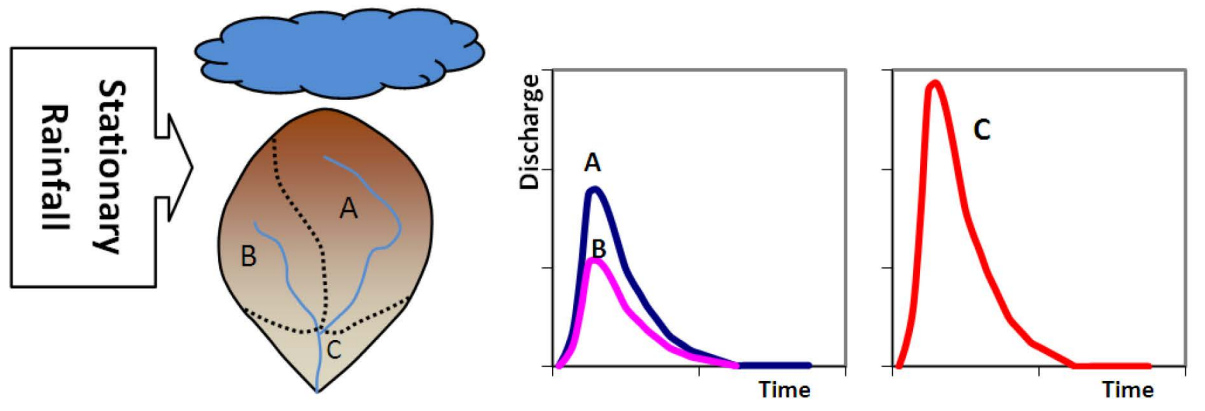
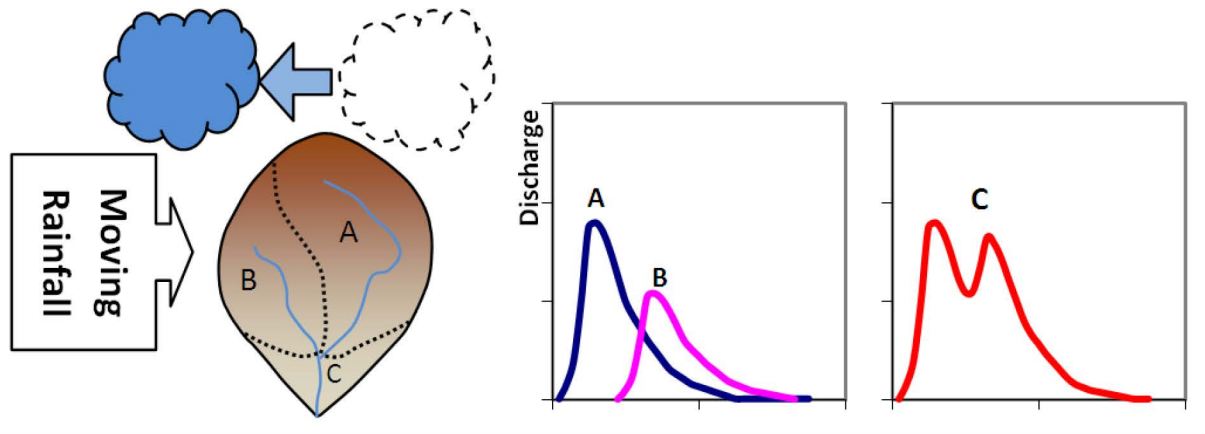
334 Figure 8. Precipitation time occurrence plane in different events

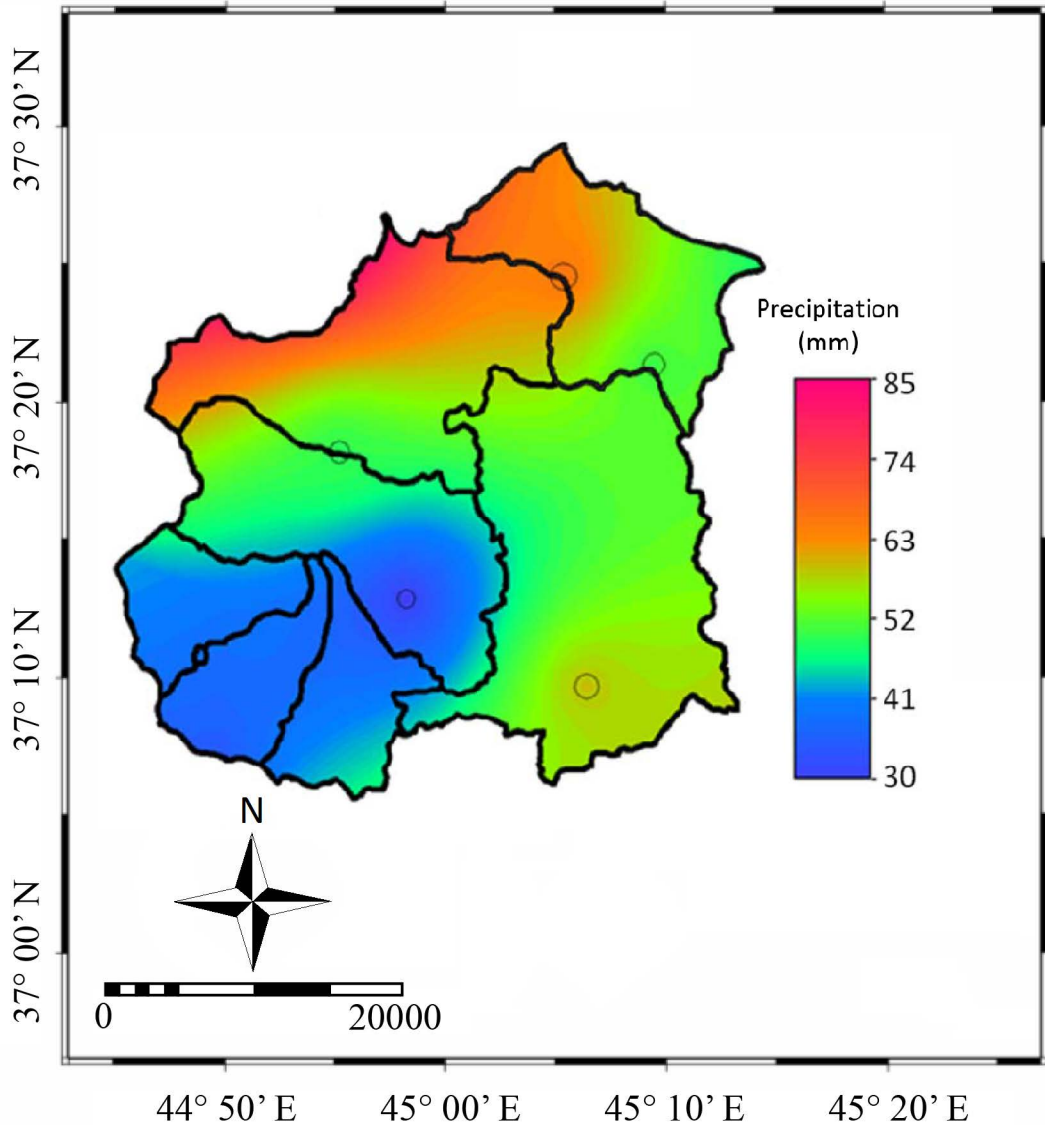
335 Figure 9. Hyetograph of sub-basins before shift (left) and after shift (right). (Red arrows show  
336 the timing position of TGCH before and after shifting)

337 Figure 10. HEC-HMS output for rainfall event 2014/04/22, under two different conditions,  
338 moving simulation (left) and stationary simulation (right)

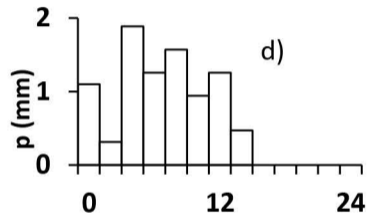
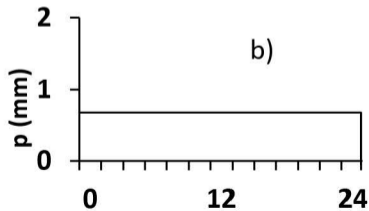
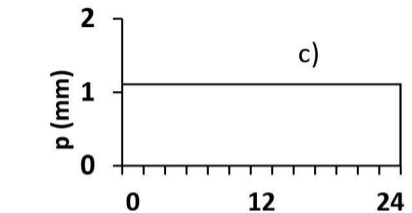
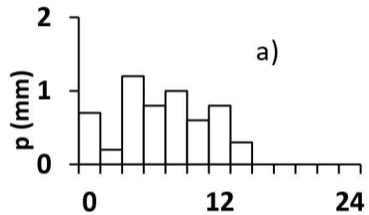
339 Figure 11. Scatter plot of the simulated peak discharge for stationary and moving conditions  
340 on a Taylor diagram

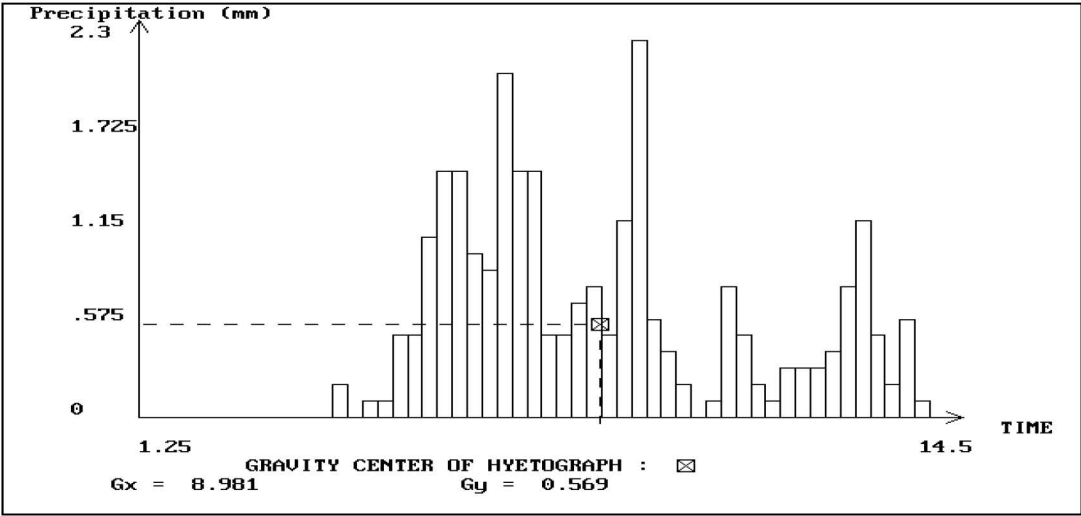


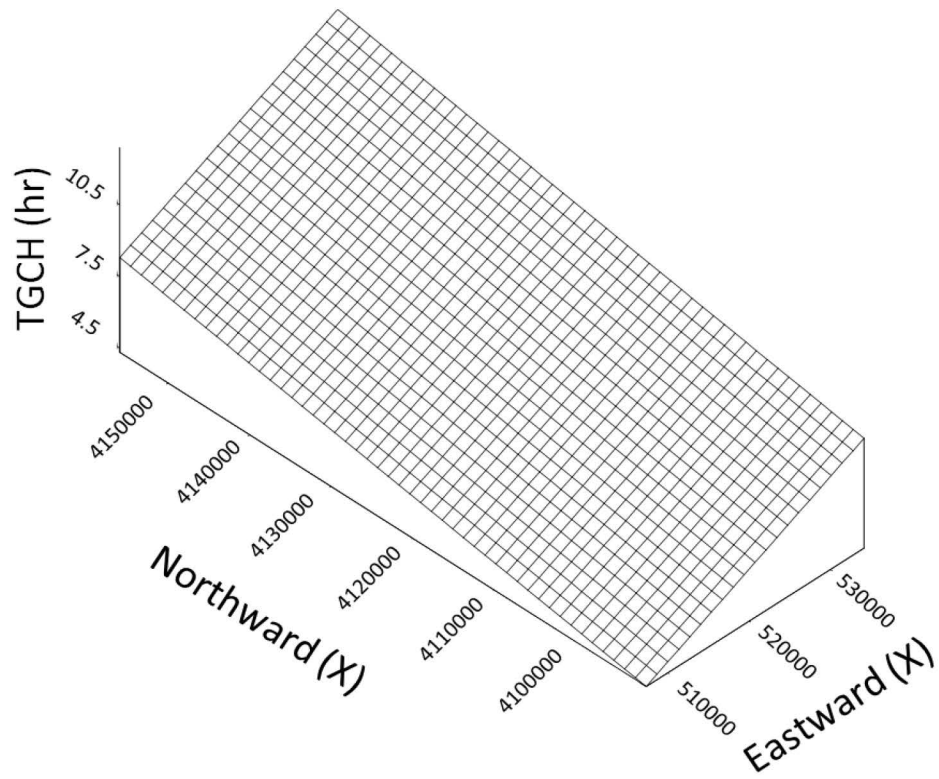


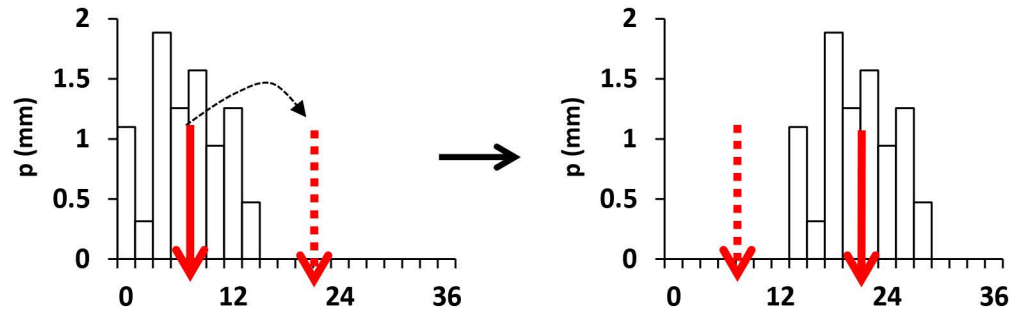


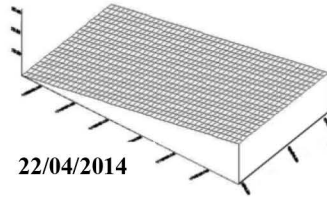
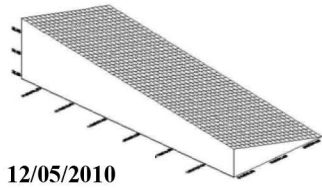
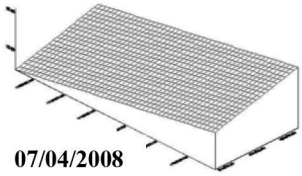
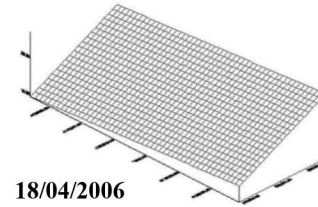
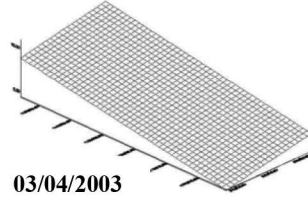
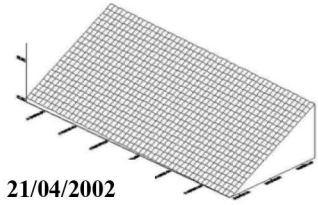
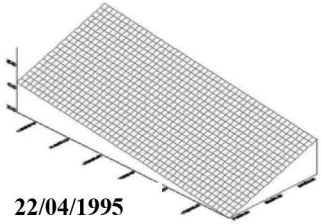


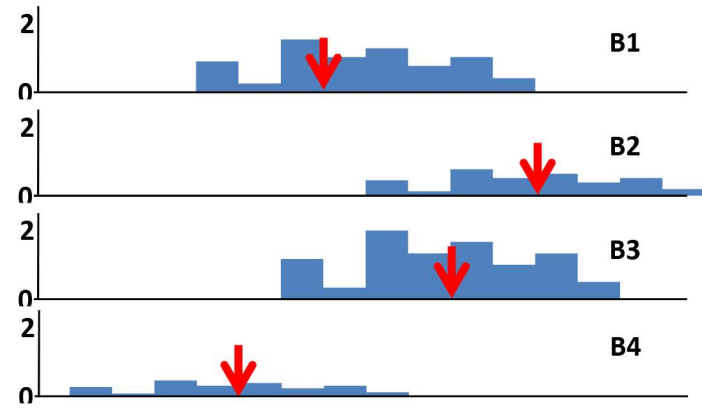
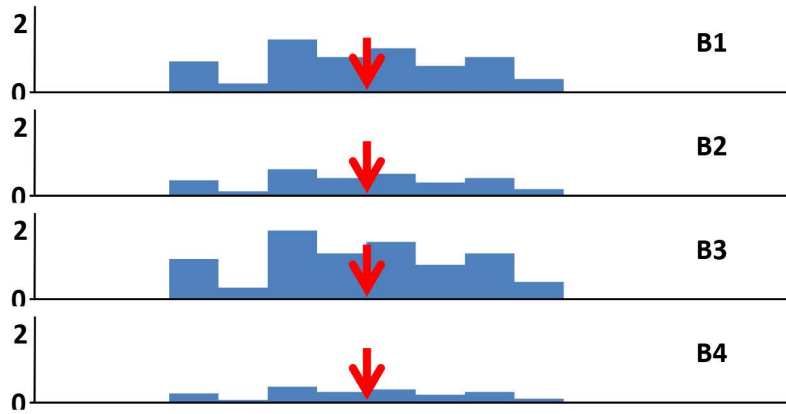




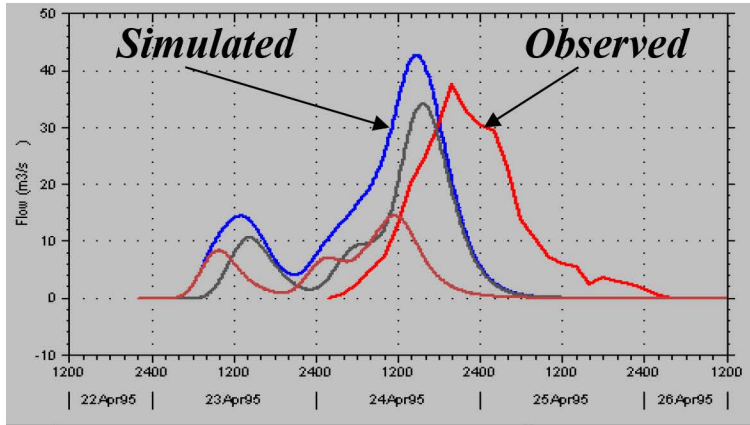








### Moving Simulation



### Stationary Simulation

