Responses to Editor

We thank the editor for the review of our manuscript and the opportunity to re-submit the revised paper. We agree that the comments have served to make the paper stronger and have addressed all the comments to the best of our ability. We have added description on the model setup within the manuscript as well as provided additional background and detail on the model build information in the supplementary information document . A figure and narrative have been added to help explain the temporal pattern terminology and descriptions as well as further discussion on selecting the scaling methodology and the RCP8.5 scenario. All the Figures have been revised to address the comments of the reviewers. Please note that all text that have been substantially revised, edited, or added is indicated in blue to help track the changes made to the manuscript. These revisions address the reviewers' and editor's comments on streamlining the abstract and introduction as well as improved discussion of the results presented. We have also revised the title of the paper as suggested by the editor. Along with the background information on the model setup, the supplementary information includes results of an additional analysis done in response to a reviewer comment and depth results that are associated with the main manuscript. Please note that the detailed responses to both reviewers (included below) have been updated to reflect the changes made to the revised manuscript and the updated line numbers where the changes were made.

Editor Comments to the Author:
I have now received reports from two referees and thank the authors for their detailed responses to the referees' comments (a third referee did not provide their report on time). Based on these two reviews and my own reading of the manuscript, I find that the paper fits the aims and scope of HESS, but that the manuscript requires some improvements.
Improvements can be made specifically by: providing further methodological details (on the model setup; the rainfall temporal patterns); providing discussion of the methodological choices (including rationale for choosing the RCP8.5 scenario; discussion of chosen scaling methods); and improving the figures (including font size of legends where reasonable, incl. the revised Figure 1). Additionally, I find that (1) the title should reflect the fact that the study is based on one watershed; (2) the abstract and introduction could be streamlined for greater clarity (e.g. in the abstract, it might be clearer to describe the research gap before introducing the research questions; in the introduction, some of the sentences feel a little disconnected, e.g. adaptation is not defined); (3) sections 4.2-5 are mostly descriptive, and could provide more insight on the implications of the work and how these findings relate to the previous literature.
Both referees have requested to review the paper again after corrections have been made, and I consider that to be a fair request. I would therefore like to invite the authors to upload a revised manuscript for further review by the referees, incorporating the proposed changes and additions, and making any other modifications where they see fit. I look forward to receiving the revised manuscript.

Response to Reviewer 1

This manuscript addresses the impact of the changes in temporal pattern and volume of rainfall due to climate change on urban floods. In addition to the impact of total change in rainfall, the impact of the projected changes in temporal patterns alone is estimated. The background scientific question is important and the results are interesting. However, there are several issues that should be addressed before it is published.

We thank the reviewer for their time and positive assessment of the manuscript. We address the reviewer's concerns in turn with our responses in italics. Please note that the author comment (AC) and Changes in Manuscript (CiM) based on the comments are indicated as such separately for each comment.

Major comments

MC1R1

My major concern is the applicability of the scaling methods (both for volume and temporal pattern) for estimating the "projected" changes in the rainfall. The scaling factors are based on the relationship between the rainfall and temperature in the present climate. However, the present manuscript uses the scaling factor to estimate the "projected" changes in the rainfall induced by the climate change. Both the temporal pattern and rainfall volume will be affected by the changes in various dynamic and thermodynamic factors, not only by the changes in temperature. The applicability of the scaling method, which is based on the present climate variability, to the estimation of changes in rainfall under climate change should be verified. At least, it should be discussed in the manuscript.

AC- In this work we assume that temperature is the primary climatic variable associated with changing rainfall and have adopted a scaling of 4.7% per degree Celsius. This value appears to be consistent both with historical trends and climate change projections.
Figure 4c of Barbero et al (2017) looks at a non-stationary extreme value analysis and finds a sensitivity of approximately 7%/ºC for a non-stationary Theil-Sen estimator for North America. Globally, Westra et al., (2013) find historical trends have global sensitivity between 5.9%/ºC and 7.7%/ºC. However, Kharin et al (2013) report an approximately 4% sensitivity over land globally from the CMIP5 model results with a range of 2.5-5% for the U.S.A.
In regard to the evidence above we believe our projections are consistent with the available evidence regarding precipitation change. There is a possibility that it slightly underestimates historical trends, but is at the upper end of predictions from climate model predictions.
Finally, there are a number of published works which show that temperature is a recommended covariate for projecting rainfall e.g. Agilan and Umamahesh (2017) and

Ali and Mishra (2017) and may indeed implicitly account for dynamic factors (Wasko and Sharma (2017).
CiM- The above discussion on sensitivity was added at line 376 to help the reader evaluate the scaling used. We note that the value of 2.92 at Line 370 is a typo and indeed should be 4.7% (as shown correctly in Figure 4).
A discussion regarding the validity of using temperature as a covariate for projecting rainfall would be included in the modified manuscript at line 307 to expand on the justification of using temperature scaling beyond the reference to Lenderink and Attema (2015).

MC2R1
L231-232: The characteristics of the temporal pattern selected from NOAA ATLAS is important in this study. It should be explained more in the manuscript or figures about what the six temporal patterns are like.

AC- We agree with this comment. The quartiles indicate the timing of the greatest percentage of total rainfall that occurs during a storm. First quartile would indicate that the majority of the rainfall including the peak will occur in the 1st ¼ of the duration, which is between hours 1 through 6 in the case of a 24-hour storm (As indicated in chart a). The distributions were further analysed to determine the frequency of occurrence within each quartile to determine a percentile for each distribution.
CiM-Figure R1 was added to the manuscript, which shows the different patterns that, were used in this manuscript. Further, the following text was added at line 286-'The quartiles indicate the timing of the greatest percentage of total rainfall that occurs during a storm. First quartile would indicate that the majority of the rainfall including the peak would occur in the 1st ¼ of the duration, which is between hours 1 through 6 in the case of a 24-hour storm. The temporal distributions were also separated in Atlas 14 to determine the frequency of occurrence within each quartile to determine a percentile for each distribution."
.

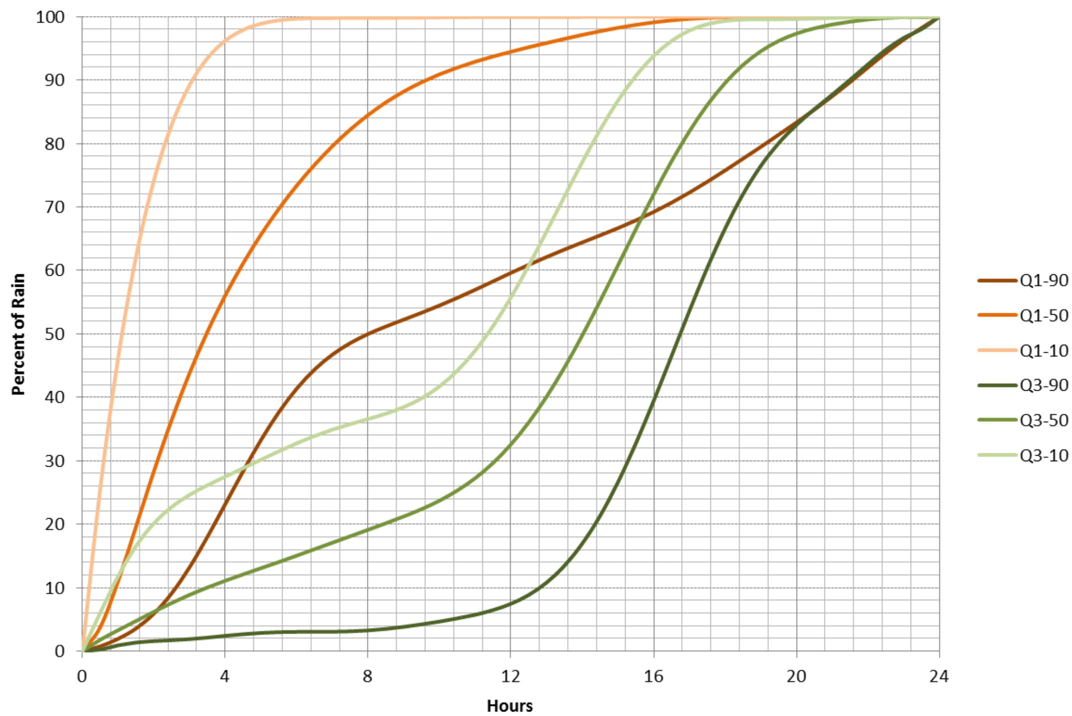


Figure R1. NOAA Atlas 14 temporal patterns used in the modelling

Reviewer 1 Minor Comments

C1R1
L224-226: How was the spatial distribution of rainfall in the catchment considered? Is it uniform over the catchment? Please describe it in the manuscript.

AC- Yes, the rainfall is assumed to be uniform over the catchment.
CiM- A statement on the spatial distribution of rainfall was added in the manuscript at Line 260.

C2R1
Table 2 (Design Rainfall): Why don't you use the same unit (e.g., mm/24hour) for all three rainfalls?

AC- We agree and thank you for catching that oversight. We will correct the table to ensure all rainfalls appear in mm.
CiM- The table was updated to;

Table 2. Description of notation used in reference to the modelled storm depths and temporal distributions (NOAA Atlas 14 volume 8 appendix 5)

Design Rainfall	Description
160 mm 24 hour	2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth
125 mm 24 hour	Lower margin of the 90% confidence interval of the 2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth-Approximately Equivalent to the 20-year 24 hour ARI
210 mm 24 hour	Upper margin of the 90% confidence interval of the 2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth-Approximately Equivalent to the 200-year 24 hour ARI

C3R1
Table 2 (descriptions of temporal patterns): I don't understand what the "1st quantile 10th percentile" is. Explaining more about the temporal pattern will help reader's better understanding. To show the shape of the pattern in the figure may be helpful.

AC-As explained in the response above, the quartiles indicate the timing of the greatest percentage of total rainfall that occurs during a storm. First quartile would indicate that the majority of the rainfall including the peak will occur in the 1st ¼ of the duration, which is between hours 1 through 6 in the case of a 24-hour storm. The percentile indicates the frequency of occurrence of each pattern within each quartile. In general, the percentile indicates the level of intensity within each quartile with a lower percentile referring to a higher intensity and a lower probability of occurrence. The review is right that this was not adequately explained in the original manuscript and this discussion will be added to the paper.

CiM- Please refer to response in comment MC2R1

C4R1

L264-270: Using some equations for the explanation on the volume scaling may be helpful for readers.

AC-Reviewer 2 also commented on the relatively short explanation of the methodology. The text at lines 314-328 will be expanded as per below:

CiM- Lines 314-328 was expanded to include;
"Using established methods (Hardwick Jones et al., 2010a; Utsumi et al., 2011; Wasko and

Sharma, 2014), the volume scaling for the 24 hour storm duration was calculated using an exponential regression. The results are presented in Figure 4. First, daily rainfall was paired with daily average temperature. The rainfall-temperature pairs were binned on 2°C temperature bins, overlapping with steps of one degree. For each 2°C bin a Generalized Pareto Distribution fitted to the rainfall data in the bin that was above the 99th percentile to find extreme rainfall percentiles (Lenderink et al., 2011; Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008). Extreme percentiles below the 99th percentile (inclusive) were calculated empirically. A linear regression was subsequently fitted to the fitted log-transformed extreme percentiles and used as the rainfall volume scaling (Figure 4). Hence the volume (V) is related to a change in temperature (T) by

$$V_2 = V_1(1+\alpha)^{\Delta T}$$

Where α is the scaling of the precipitation per degree change in temperature."

C5R1

L399 ".. as shown in Figure 5(a)": Should be Figure 6(a)?

AC- The Figure reference in the manuscript is correct as is. The intent is to show that the results at Location A are similar.

CiM- This section has been revised to reflect the comments and the updated Figure 7

C6R1

L443-445 "...the mean of the flood depth for projected events does exceed the upper limit of the variability in flood depths for the base scenario": I don't know which part of the figure shows the upper limit of the variability for the base scenario.

AC-We agree that this statement was a bit vague.
CiM- The discussion has been re-written based on the comments from line 524 - 539."

C7R1

L477-478 "The increase .. due to changes to temporal patterns alone range from 1% to 35%": Does these percentage numbers come from Figure 7? Since the unit of the Figure 7 is meter, it is difficult to figure out the percentage change from Figure 7.

AC-The percentages are based on the results that were used to generate Figures 7, 8 and 8. Tables showing percentage calculations will be added to the supplemental information to make these results more clear.

CiM- The following tables was added in Supplementary Information

Impact on flood depth from projected temporal pattern

	A	B	C	E	D	F	G
Q1-10	1%	1%	1%	0%	2%	3%	0%
Q1-50	3%	3%	20%	8%	8%	1%	7%
Q1-90	0%	0%	12%	10%	13%	1%	-1%
Q3-10	4%	5%	19%	10%	16%	2%	9%
Q3-50	5%	8%	18%	10%	35%	2%	9%
Q3-90	4%	5%	16%	7%	12%	15%	1%

Impact on flood depth from projected volume and temporal pattern

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Q1-10	13%	40%	53%	95%	21%	108%	12%
Q1-50	31%	51%	74%	69%	37%	57%	25%
Q1-90	17%	34%	49%	37%	27%	9%	35%
Q3-10	27%	46%	61%	147%	59%	76%	22%
Q3-50	26%	52%	68%	173%	57%	119%	17%
Q3-90	23%	48%	78%	140%	49%	170%	8%

References:

Ali, H., and V. Mishra (2017), Contrasting response of rainfall extremes to increase in surface air and dewpoint temperatures at urban locations in India, Sci. Rep., 7(1), 1228, doi:10.1038/s41598-017-01306-1.

Agilan, V., and N. V Umamahesh (2017), What are the best covariates for developing non-stationary rainfall Intensity-Duration-Frequency relationship?, Adv. Water Resour., 101, 11–22, doi:10.1016/j.advwatres.2016.12.016.

Barbero, R., H. J. Fowler, G. Lenderink, and S. Blenkinsop (2017), Is the intensification of precipitation extremes with global warming better detected at hourly than daily resolutions?, Geophys. Res. Lett., 1–10, doi:10.1002/2016GL071917.

Kharin, V. V., F. W. Zwiers, X. Zhang, and M. Wehner (2013), Changes in temperature and precipitation extremes in the CMIP5 ensemble, Clim. Change, 119(2), 345–357, doi:10.1007/s10584-013-0705-8.

Westra, S., L. Alexander, and F. Zwiers (2013), Global increasing trends in annual maximum daily precipitation, J. Clim., 26, 3904–3918, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00502.1.

Responses to Reviewer 2

This manuscript entitled "Increase in urban flood risk resulting from climate change – The role of storm temporal patterns" draws readers' attention towards importance of storm temporal pattern in urban flood modelling under altering climatic scenario. Given the frequent reporting of urban floods across the globe this study provides useful insight to urban flood modellers. The manuscript fits the aim and scope of HESS quite well, and can be accepted provided authors address the following comments with required modifications and justifiable responses.

We thank the reviewer for their time. We also thank the reviewer for their favourable assessment of the manuscript content and results presented. We address the reviewers concerns in turn with our responses in italics. Please note that the author comment (AC) and Changes in Manuscript (CiM) based on the comments are indicated as such separately for each comment.

Major comments

MC1R2

Why did authors choose a 50-year return period storm? Why not 10, 20, or 25 years return period that is much common for urban flood modelling studies? Or why not 100 year return period?

AC- The model was initially set up in the year 2000 and has been continuously updated and maintained over the 15 years since then, based on the prevailing 100-year 24-hour rainfall event for that catchment (100-year selected to set base flood elevation for the open water areas within the catchment). Atlas 14 V8 updated the rainfall and increased the new 100-year rainfall depths such that previous 100-yr rainfall depth is now the 50-year rainfall depth. This implies that the hydraulic constraints pertaining to rainfall depth substantially higher than the original model build value (which can results from temperature scaling of the revised Atlas 14 100-year depth) are not in place in the model as it currently stands. Given the work involved in re-specifying these hydraulic constraints to simulate the scaling effects of the new 100-year depth, it is not feasible to do so in the current study. While it is possible to simulate the impact of lower return periods (10, 20 or 25 years), the decision was made that this does not add to the discussion or lead to any new conclusions being reached. For simplicity sake, we decided that the most illustrative presentation still remains the 50-year return period case that is presented. A short discussion on this and the ability to generate results for lower period ARI has been included in the supplemental information.

MC2R2

RCP 8.5 scenario is derived using the most pessimistic assumption and is very unlikely given the ongoing worldwide efforts to curb the carbon emission and green initiatives. Though such studies using RCP 8.5 gives mind boggling figures, these remain very unlikely. A more likely scenario could be RCP 4.5 should have been used along RCP 8.5 to encompass the effects of climatic change. Secondly, authors carried out the study for projected period for 2081-2100 skipping the intermediate time frames. Is there no significant results during 2025-2050 or 2051-2080? Though the results would be much pronounce in the later part of the century, intermediate time frame should also be discussed. Authors must explain the rationale behind selecting worst case climatic scenario i.e., RCP 8.5 and also come up with the reasoning to skip RCP 4.5 and selection of specific time frames for such modelling exercises for potential users. Additional details related to exercise can be provided in supplementary materials.

AC-As suggested, the authors did an additional analysis for the case of RCP 4.5, looking at a temperature change of 3^0C . The following table illustrates that the trend in results are similar to the RCP 8.5 scenario for all cases as expected. Understandably, the impact to flood depths is not as significant as when looking at a 5^0C increase in temperature. The main goal of the paper is to demonstrate the importance of accounting for the changes expected in temporal patterns of rainfall, which looks at relative impacts.
We wish to note that there is literature suggesting that we are tracking on a RCP8.5 scenario (Peter. G et al 2013) and indeed many forecasts suggest greater temperature increases over land. The authors agree that there should be rigorous thought on how far out and what level of climate impacts should be considered when selecting a threshold for design or when setting absolute flood depths.
CiM- The following table was added in Supplementary Information with explanatory narrative.
Table S1- Results showing normalized flood depths around the mean at each location for a projected temperature increase of 3 deg C.

	Current (normalized)				
	A	**B**	**D**	**C**	**G**
Q1-10	0.58	0.15	0.65	0.53	0.33
Q1-50	-0.28	-0.07	-0.08	-0.11	-0.16
Q1-90	-0.31	-0.10	-0.23	-0.24	-0.37
Q3-10	-0.14	-0.04	-0.19	-0.12	-0.07
Q3-50	-0.03	-0.01	-0.18	-0.08	0.03
Q3-90	0.18	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.24
	Projected patterns (normalized)				
	A	**B**	**D**	**C**	**G**
Q1-10	0.60	0.16	0.67	0.54	0.33
Q1-50	-0.21	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.09
Q1-90	-0.31	-0.10	-0.19	-0.21	-0.38
Q3-10	-0.05	-0.02	-0.15	-0.06	0.03
Q3-50	0.11	0.02	-0.07	-0.02	0.16
Q3-90	0.27	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.25
Change in Mean	*0.07*	*0.02*	*0.05*	*0.04*	*0.05*

	Projected patterns and volumes (normalized)				
	A	**B**	**D**	**C**	**G**
Q1-10	0.98	0.38	1.36	0.73	0.49
Q1-50	0.34	0.14	0.04	0.09	0.25
Q1-90	0.04	0.03	-0.15	-0.15	-0.09
Q3-10	0.47	0.16	0.15	0.03	0.27
Q3-50	0.91	0.36	0.60	0.23	0.34
Q3-90	0.91	0.36	0.60	0.23	0.34
Change in Mean	*0.61*	*0.24*	*0.44*	*0.19*	*0.27*

MC3R2

The study employs the modelling component in a big way to derive the conclusions, however, there is no discussion made on how the modelling framework was setup. Catchment sizes in the modelling setup varies from 0.25 sq km to 22 sq km that makes almost 90 times change in smallest and largest catchment. Interestingly, unlike river basin scale studies in urban drainage modelling catchment boundaries are not demarcated by their natural topography as the interceptor drains divert the runoff water omitting the natural stream lines. How the authors have discretised such vastly different sized catchments? Authors should discuss how the impervious area is estimated to include in modelling framework, and other parameters used in the modelling exercise should be tabulated. Did authors fed the existing storm sewage network into the model to rout the flow from a particular sub-catchment to outlet or directed them directly to the outlet from the subcatchment? Also discuss how the model was calibrated and validated. A separate section on model setup is highly warranted to make the manuscript more informative.

AC- As mentioned in the response above, the model used in the study was set initially in year 2000 and has been continuously maintained and updated to include the latest available landuse/landcover and stormwater infrastructure information. The model includes all components of stormwater conveyance within the catchment including sewers, open channels and storage areas, along with street overflows. Highly detailed delineation of both sub-catchment boundaries and impervious area was done using a high resolution DEM, development construction and grading plan overlays and aerial imagery within a GIS environment. All surface runoff is fed into the appropriate inflow points of the hydraulic conveyance system. The model has been validated and used to design major capital improvement and flood mitigation projects over the years. The following link connects to a report that discusses extensive model validation work based on an extreme storm.

http://www.swwdmn.org/pdf/projects/completed/2006%20Stormwater%20Modeling%20Report_HDR.pdf
CiM – Additional detail on the construction and background information was added in lines 188-214. A more detailed discussion and example of background data was added in Section 1 of the Supplementary information. The following references was be added in the Supplementary information.

Model Development and related information:
Hettiaracchchi, S, and W. Johnson (2006), Stormwater modelling Report, HDR Project No. 32072, [available online: http://www.swwdmn.org/pdf/projects/completed/2006%20Stormwater%20Modeling%20Report_HDR.pdf]

The following is an additional presentation that discusses flood mitigation projects analysed using this model.

Hettiarachchi. S, Beduhn. R, Christopherson. J Moore. M, Managing Surface Water for Flood Damage Reductio, World Water and Environmental Resources Congress 2005, May 15-19, 2005 | Anchorage, Alaska, United States, doi-10.1061/40792(173)321

Many of the projects listed here are based on using this model.
http://www.swwdmn.org/projects/

MC4R2
Line 266-267 and Figure 4: "The rainfall-temperature pairs were binned on 2 degree temperature bins . . ." Does it mean that binning was done by counting the number of rainfall events and their corresponding magnitudes at each 2 degree temperature interval? What does the height of each bin depict? What do the count and precipitation magnitudes from primary and secondary y-axis show?

AC-The first reviewer also commented on the clarity of this paragraph. We believe some confusion arose from the histogram in Figure 4 and having two sets of axes. The histogram would have effectively only shown every second bin (as the binning is performed using two degree bins with overlapping steps of one degree).
CiM- Lines 314-328 was expanded to read as follows and Figure 5 was replaced with the figure below:"Using established methods (Hardwick Jones et al., 2010a; Utsumi et al., 2011; Wasko and
Sharma, 2014), the volume scaling for the 24 hour storm duration was calculated using an exponential regression. The results are presented in Figure 4. First, daily rainfall was paired with daily average temperature. The rainfall-temperature pairs were binned on 2°C temperature bins, overlapping with steps of one degree. For each 2°C bin a Generalized Pareto Distribution fitted to the rainfall data in the bin that was above the 99th percentile to find extreme rainfall percentiles (Lenderink et al., 2011; Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008). Extreme percentiles below the 99th percentile (inclusive) were calculated empirically. A linear regression was subsequently fitted to

the fitted log-transformed extreme percentiles and used as the rainfall volume scaling (Figure 4). Hence the volume (V) is related to a change in temperature (T) by

$$V_2 = V_1(1+\alpha)^{\Delta T}$$

Where α is the scaling of the precipitation per degree change in temperature."

In light of the above comments Figure 4 has been modified and the new figure is shown below. The histogram in the figure has been removed to prevent confusion as the fitted quantiles were not necessarily matching the histogram bins presented creating ambiguity in the results.

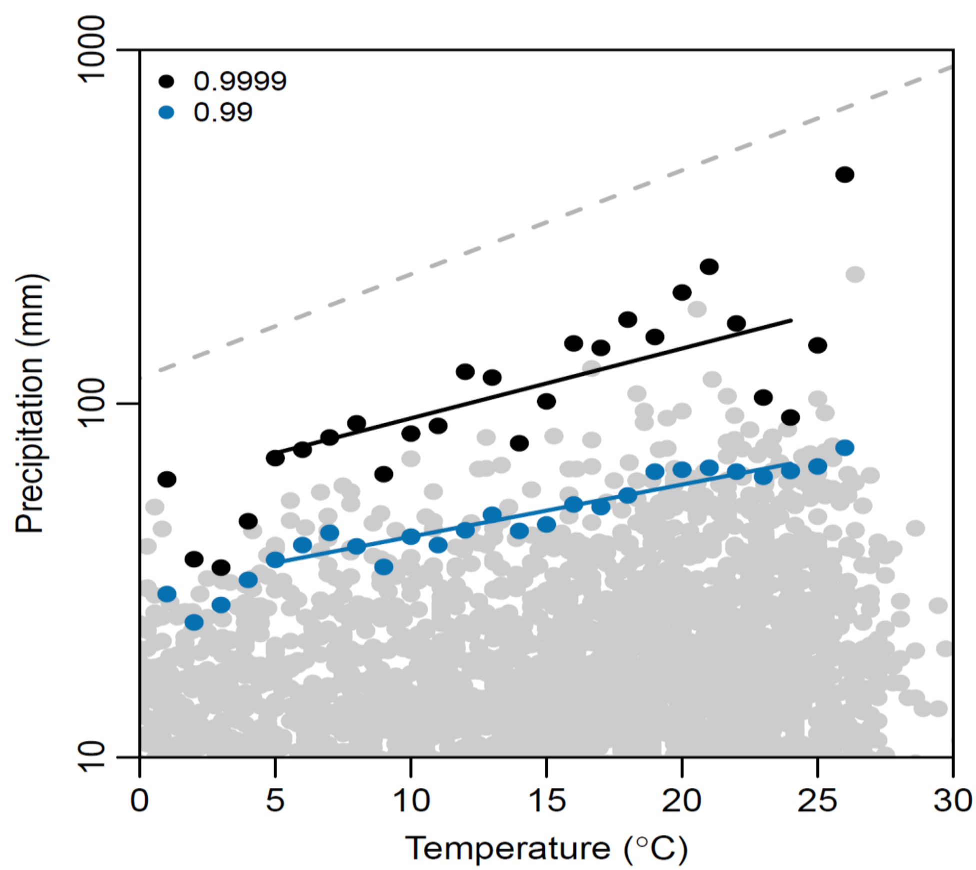


Figure 5 Scaling total volume of rainfall with temperature for Minneapolis (1901-2014 daily rainfall). Grey dots are rainfall temperature-pairs and the coloured dots are the extreme percentiles. The grey dashed line represents a scaling of 7 %.

MC5R2

In Line 339-340 authors say "The flood depths extracted from the model were first analysed to compare variability between temporal patterns and total rainfall depth. . ." SWMM is a 1-dimensional model and does not simulate the flood extent or flood depth. Though it simulates depth of water being flooded from a node, it depends on the adequacy of drainage network. While discussing the flood depth in relation to urban scenario, the depth of flood inundation should be used rather that the depth of total water flooded from a particular node or from the entire system. This aspect need some clarification.

AC- The review is correct in how SWWM typically shows flooded nodes and yes, the flood depth are dependent on the adequacy of the model. As discussed in the comment regarding the background and extent of the model build, extensive surface overflow routes from flooded areas as well as explicitly modelling street overflows and storage extents are included in the model geometry. This allows the resulting flood depths to take into account the flood extents as well as opposed to the typical funnel that is SWMM uses at nodes. Additionally, majority of the reference locations are at local storage nodes that provide a good representation of flood extents. Storage nodes have depth/area curves that represent flood extents at each depth. Therefore, the results from this model provide a reasonably accurate representation of extents related to each flood depth.

CiM- This discussion was added to model discussion at line 188 and in the supplementary information.

MC6R2

In Line 342-343 authors say "These sub-models show the variation in catchment response

to runoff generated by different land use types. . ." There is no provision of feeding LULC information in SWMM, rather it takes percent pervious and impervious area. Different land use types gives a notion that model is simulating overland flow explicitly for residential, paved surfaces, parks, grassed land etc. How the different land use land cover type were incorporated in the model? Similarly, in Line 360 and 368 authors talk about "local storage/ local natural storage". How these storage was incorporated into the modelling exercise.

AC- Agree with the comment that SWMM does not have provisions to explicitly designate LULC in a runoff area. However, as discussed in response to comment 3, the model was setup in extensive detail using multiple layers of information that provide characteristic percentages of impervious area based on the built environment within each of the sub-catchments. By discretising to small areas, the model then is able to isolate the various landuse types within each catchment and generate a composite impervious percentage and a rate of runoff representative of each different landuse type. Local constructed storage refers to stormwater ponds that were built as part of rate and volume controls to meet post development rules requirements. Natural storage locations refer to existing ponds and lakes within the catchments. The storage information is added into the model as depth/area tables using the DEM and

bathymetric survey (major storage locations) for natural storage locations and construction plans for constructed storage locations.
CiM- N/A

MC7R2
Line 399-411 does not helps much and as a reader I find it less convincing how Fig 6(a) is different than Fig. 6(b) and how pronounce the difference is for temporal pattern case and total rainfall volume case. Moreover, visually Figure 6(a) and (b) are seems more or less identical with little change. It would be better if author can redraw them to convey their point. Perhaps, comparison of Q1-50 and Q3-50 in same graph for temporal pattern variation or total rain volume variation will help the readers' understanding. Also specific markers for different cases should be provided, as of now there are 4 squares and each belong to which requires a thorough reading. Make the image self-explanatory.

AC- We agree with the reviewer and we will redraw Figure 6 to convey the intended point. Figure 6 (a) and (b) attempts to illustrate the variation between temporal pattern vs volume of rainfall, and is not intended to show changes based on a particular, or each temporal pattern. The fact that Figure 6a and 6b are similar shows that this variability is generally independent of the temporal pattern chosen for the volume variability. That is to say, that the results are not skewed to be favourable by picking a single temporal pattern to examine the volume variability.
CiM- Figure 6 (a) and (b) was modified (Figure 7) to emphasize the range of results as well as the comparison between current and projected results.

MC8R2
Fourth conclusion suggests the 'increase in potential flood risk purely due changes to "how it rains" as a result of climate change impacts'. This conclusion is drawn from the analysis shown in Fig 6 and Fig. 7. How the temporal pattern variation has a pronounce effect on flood risk as from the Fig. 6 gives almost same picture for temporal pattern for Q1 and Q3 rainfall, whereas from Fig. 7 also not much significant change can be noticed in the standardized flood depth due to current temporal patterns and projected patterns unlike Fig. 8, where the difference is really remarkable. An elaboration would help the readers' understanding.

AC-The reviewer is correct that the 4th conclusion is based on the data that was used to generate Figure 7. This conclusion points to flood impacts that are due to projected temporal patterns. Whereas Figure 8 shows flood impacts due to projection of both temporal patterns and rainfall volumes.
CiM-The discussion was revised in response to the comments and the results tables were added to the supplementary information.

MC9R2
Temporal pattern or distribution used from NOAA ATLAS should be discussed in short. It's not clear what does nth quartile at mth percentile means. It would be insightful if authors show it in figure.

AC- We agree with this comment as well as the comment by the other reviewer. Figure R1 will be added to the manuscript which shows the different patterns that were used in this manuscript.
CiM-Figure 3 was be added to the manuscript which shows the different patterns that were used in this manuscript. Further, the following text was added at line 257-'The quartiles indicate the timing of the greatest percentage of total rainfall that occurs during a storm. First quartile would indicate that the majority of the rainfall including the peak will occur in the 1st ¼ of the duration, which is between hours 1 through 6 in the case of a 24-hour storm. The temporal distributions were also separated in Atlas 14 to determine the frequency of occurrence within each quartile to determine a percentile for each distribution."
.

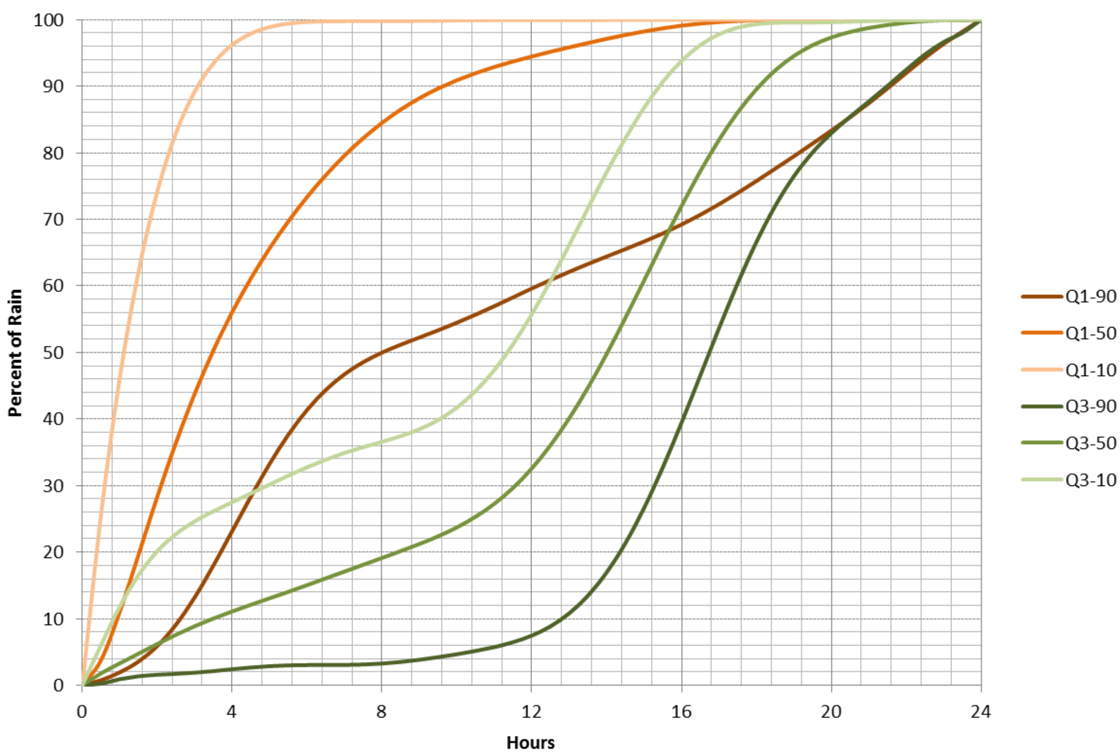


Figure R1. NOAA Atlas 14 temporal patterns used in the modelling

MC10R2

In Line 283, what does author mean by "current industry standard temporal distributions"?: Authors may like to use supplementary material space for elaborate discussion to clarify the doubt.

AC- Temporal patterns from design guidelines and standards are used throughout civil engineering and consulting industry for design flood estimation and these standards are commonly referred as 'industry standards'.
CiM- To clarify what is meant by this the text at line 339 is replaced with "temporal patterns for design flood estimation" instead of "current industry standard" and refer to the example of the NOAA Atlas 14 temporal patterns.

minor comments

C1R2

First line of abstract [Line 8-9] i.e., “Warming temp . . .” is almost repeated in [Line 18-19] i.e., “Current literature . . .”

AC- Agree and will remove the first sentence to prevent repetition.

CiM- Abstract has been revised to reflect the comments

C2R2

Fix the citation formats throughout the text, for example in [Line 89] the citation should be like Milly et al. (2007).

AC-Agreed and appreciate noting the need to adjust the citation.

CiM- The citations were edited appropriately so that the parenthesis occur in the correct location.

C3R2

Delete ‘an’ before EPA-SWMM in [Line 182], delete ‘2016’ after EPA in [Line 185]

AC and PCiM- Thank you. This edit was done at line 182

C4R2

Line 64: Correct the “Intensity/Duration/Frequency” as “Intensity-Duration-Frequency”

AC and CiM-Was update in the paper to reflect suggested change

C5R2

Line 114-116: It would not be apt to link Uttarakhand and Kashmir floods in India with poor storm sewer design from Bisht et al. (2016). As these floods were caused by cloud burst and moreover the topography is hilly in that place. However, Bisht et al. (2016) discussed the Mumbai flood that can be aptly link with flood risk caused by inadequate storm drainage.

AC-The following is the text in the reference paper that seems to indicate the statement that we used in the current paper. "Climatic extremities coupled with haphazard human intervention and inadequate planning to handle high storm events led to Uttarakhand flood in July 2013 causing 580 deaths and over 5400 people missing in the aftermath of flood, loss of 9200 cattle and complete damage to 3320 houses (India: Uttarakhand Disaster June 2013). Heavy flooding due to unseasonal rainfall submerged Kashmir twice in a short span of 6 months, September 2014–March 2015, causing over 200 deaths alone in September 2014. Improper drainage system coupled with unchecked and ill-planned urbanization makes the region even more vulnerable to such disasters (The Times of India 2015; The Hindu 2015)." But, as the reviewer has provided more explicit detail on these events, we will update the sentence to reference the Mumbai flood instead of the more recent events.

CiM- the reference flood event was changed to the Mumbai flood of 2005

C6R2

Line 165-168: These line should come in the last of introduction section where authors generally list down the objectives or novelty of their work.

AC-Agree with comment as the authors intended section 2 to part of the overall introduction.

CiM-The section numbers and the write up was revised to better reflect that intention

C7R2

Line 231-232: Cite the NOAA ATLAS like any other technical report and list in the reference. Table 2: Use consistent unit for all the design rainfall.

AC and CiM-Agree and was correct in the manuscript.

C8R2

Line 291: There is no reference for Figure SPM7(a)(IPCC 2014) in reference section. This Figure can be adopted from the source in the manuscript.

AC and PCiM- A reference was added as per the reviewer's suggestion.

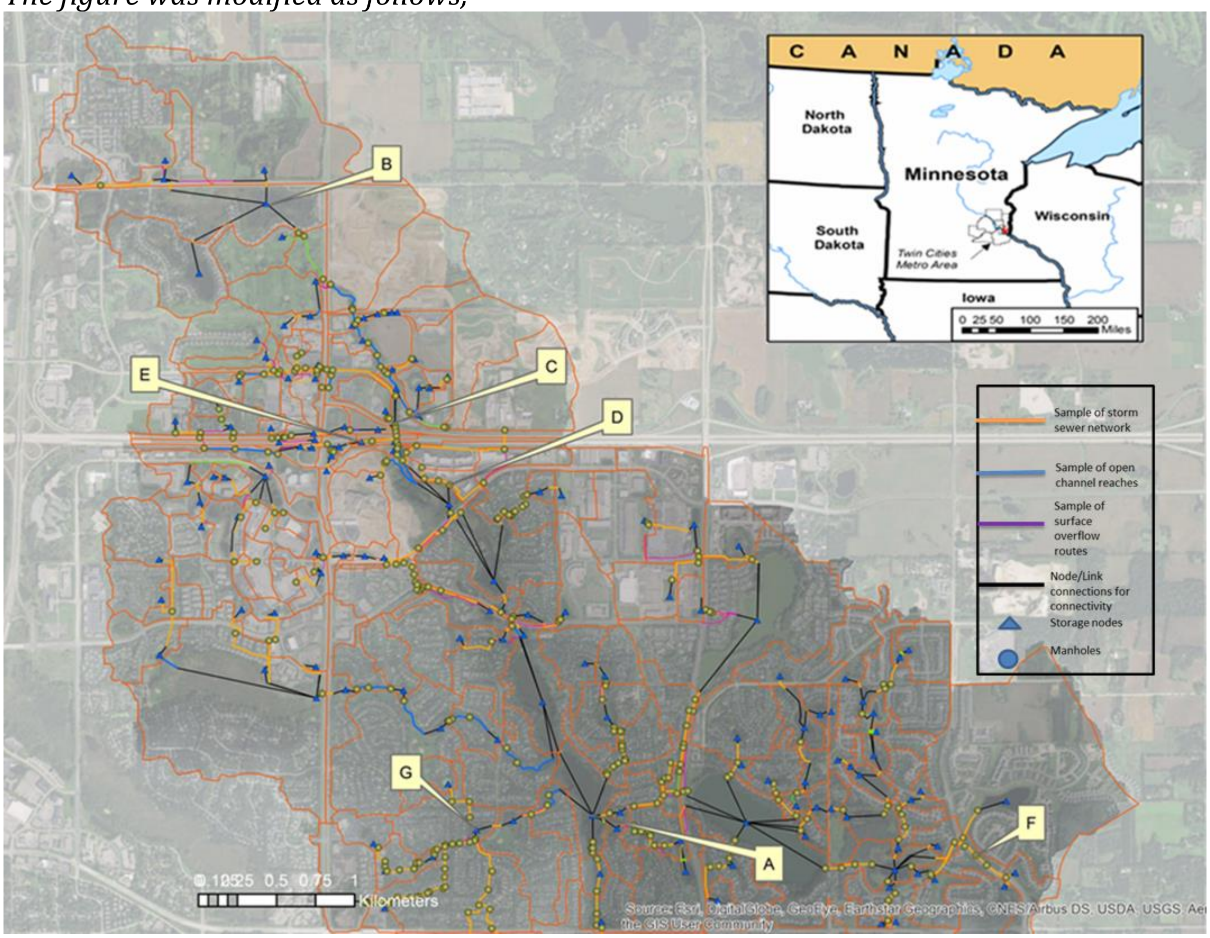
C9R2

Figure 1: What do those lines in Orange, magenta, and Black depict? Proper legends discussing each feature must be included with the figure to make it meaningful. The backdrop can be removed as it is making the image complex to understand.

AC- the Aerial background for the image provides important context the landuse within the catchment. The nodes and links represent the model layout. An explanation of the links and nodes along with the colour difference will be added along with adding the following legend to the figure.

CiM-The following text was added to the paper in line 227.
'The Orange links are example of the sewer network geometry in the model. The blue links represent reaches that are open channel. The magenta links are the surface overflow routes that capture flow that tends to flood in areas and spread outside the sewer network. The black links provides connectivity when the georeferenced locations of nodes are geographically different to the ends of some of the sewer network. The black links provide connectivity in the model.'

The figure was modified as follows;



C10R2

Figure 6: Figure caption can be shortened as "Comparison of total volume of rainfall and temporal patterns variability impact on peak flood depth. Flood depth variation due to the 6 different temporal patterns with 160 mm of rain compared to 110, 160 and 210 mm of total rainfall over 24 hours distributed over (a) Q1-50 temporal pattern (b) Q3-50 temporal pattern. Flood depths were standardised by subtracting the mean at each location for ease of comparison"

AC-Agree with the suggested change to Figure 6 caption and we will make the change.

CiM- Figure and caption revised based on comments and is now Figure 7

C11R2

Figure 7: Increase the font size of legends.

AC and CiM-Agree with comment and update the figure appropriately as Figures 8 and 9

Reference

Peters, G. P., Andrew, R. M., Boden, T., Canadell, J. G., Ciais, P., Le Quere, C., Marland, G., Raupach, M. R., and Wilson, C.: The challenge to keep global warming below 2 [deg]C, Nature Clim. Change, 3, 4-6, 2013.

Increase in flood risk resulting from climate change in a developed urban watershed– The role of storm temporal patterns

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Abstract

Effects of climate change are causing more frequent extreme rainfall events and an increased risk of flooding in developed areas. Quantifying this increased risk is of critical importance for the protection of life and property as well as for infrastructure planning and design. The updated NOAA Atlas 14 intensity-duration-frequency (IDF) relationships and temporal patterns are widely used in hydrologic and hydraulic modelling for design and planning in the USA. Current literature shows that a rising temperatures as a result of climate change will result in an intensification of rainfall. These impacts are not explicitly included in the NOAA temporal patterns , which can have consequences on the design and planning of adaptation and flood mitigation measures. In addition there is a lack of detailed hydraulics modelling when assessing climate change impacts on flooding. The study presented in this manuscript uses a comprehensive hydrologic and hydraulic model of a fully developed urban/suburban catchment to explore two primary questions related to climate change impacts on flood risk: (1) How do climate change effects on storm temporal patterns and rainfall volumes impact flooding in a developed complex watershed? (2) Is the storm temporal pattern as critical as the total volume of rainfall when evaluating urban flood risk? We use the NOAA Atlas 14 temporal patterns along with the expected increase in temperature for the RCP8.5 scenario for 2081-2100, to project temporal patterns and rainfall volumes to reflect future climatic change. The model results show that different rainfall patterns cause variability in flood depths during a storm event. The changes in the projected temporal patterns alone increase the risk of flood magnitude upto 35 % with the cumulative impacts of temperature rise on temporal pattern and the storm volume increasing flood risk from 10 to 170 %. The results also show that regional storage facilities are sensitive to rainfall patterns that are loaded at the latter part of the storm duration while extremely intense short duration storms will cause flooding at all locations. This study shows that changes in temporal patterns will have a significant impact

on urban/suburban flooding and need to be carefully considered and adjusted to account for climate change when used for design and planning future stormwater systems.

1 Introduction

Recent history shows that extreme weather events are occurring more frequently and in areas that have not had such events in the past (Hartmann et al., 2013). There are more land regions where the number of heavy rainfall events has increased compared to where they have decreased (Alexander et al., 2006; Donat et al., 2013; Westra et al., 2013a). Intensification of rainfall extremes (Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008; Wasko and Sharma, 2015; Wasko et al., 2016b) and their increasing volume (Mishra et al., 2012; Trenberth, 2011) has been linked to the higher temperatures expected with climate change. This increase in the likelihood of extreme rainfall and its intensification creates a higher risk of damaging flood events that cause a threat to both life and the built environment, particular in urban regions where the existing infrastructure has not been designed to cope with these increases. Adapting to future extreme storm events (i.e. flood events) will be costly both economically and socially (Doocy et al., 2013). Properly addressing this increased flood risk is all the more important given the expectation that the urban population is projected to grow from the current 54 % to 66 % of the global population by the year 2050 (United Nations, 2014).

Adaptation as a way to address the effects of climate change has only recently gained attention (Mamo, 2015). Adaptation in the context of flood risk involves taking practical and proactive action to adjust or modify stormwater management infrastructure such as low impact development (LID) methods to reduce surface runoff or constructed storages to handle the increased flows during an extreme storm. The foundation of adaptation measures to deal with flooding is typically based on flood forecasting and hydrologic/hydraulic (H/H) modelling (Thodsen, 2007). The effectiveness of adaptation is dependent on the accuracy of simulating projected impacts, such as the effectiveness of a flood control structure to protect a city from future increased flooding. In addition, variability and uncertainty related to these flood forecasts play an important role since uncertainty in future projection limits the amount of adaptation that society will accept (Adger et al., 2009). Prior to the advent of computers and the increase in computational power, drainage design was based on simple empirical models of peak discharge rates using methods such as the rational formula in combination with Intensity-Duration-Frequency (IDF) curves (Adams and Howard, 1986; Nguyen et al., 2010). Consideration of the environmental impacts related to flow rates, volumes, water quality and downstream impacts requires more complex systems and ways to simulate the hydrologic and hydraulic processes in a more realistic manner (Nguyen et al., 2010). As such, the state of the art in modelling urban sewer and stormwater related infrastructure uses distributed, fully dynamic, hydrologic and hydraulics modelling software (Singh and Woolhiser, 2002). The dynamic approach and integrated nature of current modelling requires the use of temporal patterns to distribute rainfall and volumes that closely resemble actual storm events (Nguyen et al., 2010; Rivard, 1996).

Temporal patterns have typically been derived using the alternating block method from IDF curves where shorter storm durations are nested within longer storm duration design intensities (García-Bartual and Andrés-Doménech, 2016; Victor Mockus and E. Woodward, 2015) . However, this method does not represent a real storm structure. Alternatively, Huff (1967) presented the first rigorous analysis of rainfall temporal patterns (García-Bartual and Andrés-Doménech, 2016), where rainfall temporal patterns were derived from observations. Similar methods include the average variability method, where a storm is partitioned into fractions of equal time, and each fraction is ranked. The temporal distribution is then specified as the most likely rainfall order with the average rainfall used for the associated fraction (Pilgrim, 1997). NOAA Atlas 14 provides an updated set of temporal distributions and IDF curves for use in a major portion of the United States (Perica, 2013) that are now widely used for planning and design modelling analysis. These temporal distributions and rainfall depths are based on observed data and were generated using methodology similar to Huff (1967). The major concern is that the analysis and methods used in Atlas 14 assumes a stationary climate over the period of observation and application (Chapter 4.5.4 of Atlas 14 volume 8). This seems contrary to prevailing scientific thought (Milly et al., 2007) and can lead to inadequacies of future stormwater infrastructure as there is evidence to believe that warmer temperatures are forcing intensification of temporal patterns (Wasko and Sharma, 2015) and an increase in variability (Mamo, 2015). Several previous studies have examined the sensitivity of urban catchments to changes in intensity and temporal patterns with peak runoff rates and volumes modelled (Lambourne and Stephenson, 1987; Mamo, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2016). For example, Lambourne and Stephenson (1987) presented a comparative model study to look at the impact of temporal patterns on peak discharge rates and volumes. However, with the exception Zhou et al. (2016), these studies largely ignored the detailed hydraulic conveyance aspects of storage ponds, sewers, culverts, and flow control structures which play an important role in how the flow rates generated during runoff move through and impact on the built environment.

Although there are an increasing number of catchment/basin scale and urban modelling studies that have been performed (Cameron, 2006; Graham et al., 2007; Leander et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2016; Zope et al., 2016), there remains a lack of a detailed studies that looks at assessing future flood damage in a developed environment (Seneviratne et al., 2012). The majority of past studies focus on either the hydrologic modelling component or the rainfall intensity aspect and mostly overlook the crucial detail of rainfall patterns. In this study, we focus on the range of results generated from detailed H/H modelling arising from precipitation pattern variability and the impact of climatic change. We pay particular attention on assessing and illustrating the variability in how different catchments respond to different rainfall patterns and the impacts of climate change. The primary questions that we address are;

1. What is the relative importance of the storm pattern and volume of rainfall on urban flood peaks?
2. How will climate change affect storm patterns and volumes and what are the impacts on urban flood peaks?

Flood risk assessment and communication depend on flood risk mapping, for which flood inundation areas are needed (Merz et al., 2010). Urban catchments are typically complex and need to capture the response of the system along with the interactions of the various components of the stormwater infrastructure (Zoppou, 2001) to provide reliable flood depths to develop inundation areas. The main characteristic of stormwater in urban areas is that the flows are predominantly conveyed in constructed systems, replacing or modifying the natural flow paths. Including the complex hydraulics and possible hydraulic attenuation and timing of congruent flows will have an impact on flooding, particularly in developed environments. As discussed, temporal patterns of rainfall is now a critical aspect of design and planning of future storm systems. Research which uses temperature to project future rainfall and temporal patterns, and then assesses impacts on flooding has not been performed. This study aims to fill this research gap through an elaborate analysis of how rainfall intensities and patterns impact urban flood risk in a warmer climate.

2. Assessing flooding in developed/urban stormwater systems

Developed urban areas present the highest probability of causing damage and loss of life during flood events. There has been an increase in urban flooding in the past decade with densely populated developing countries like India and China coming into focus (Bisht et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2017). A case study on the Oshiwara River in Mumbai, India has shown a 22 % increase in the overall flood hazard area due to changes in land use and increased urbanization within the catchment (Zope et al., 2016). In particular, flooding in Mumbai in 2005, which was caused by extreme rainfall coupled with inadequate storm sewer design, is blamed for 400 deaths (Bisht et al., 2016). China has also experienced a devastating flood season in 2016 (Zhou et al., 2016) with the rapid increase in urbanization. Even with better planned and mature urban cities, Europe and North America are not immune to flooding in urban areas (Ashley et al., 2005; Feyen et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2016). Impacts of climate change are expected to increase the risk of flooding and further exacerbate the difficulty of flood management in developed environments.

3 Assessing climate change impacts on flooding

The number of studies investigating climate change impacts on urban flooding is increasing as the importance of this topic is more and more recognized. However, research focusing on the impacts of climate change on precipitation temporal patterns remains limited. The majority of available research use Global Circulation Models (GCMs) and Regional Climate Models (RCMs) combined with statistical downscaling techniques to project IDF curves to reflect future climate conditions (Mamo, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2010; Schreider et al., 2000). For example Mamo (2015) used monthly mean wet weather scenario data projected by four GCMs for the period 2020-2055, along with historic data from 1985 to 2013, which were then used as weather generator input using LAR-WG, from which data was generated to develop revised IDF curves. Nguyen et al. (2010) used data sets generated by two separate GCMs to develop IDF and temporal patterns to reflect future rainfall patterns. The inconsistent results generated by the two different GCMs illustrate the challenge of forecasting future climate conditions with GCM generated results. It is recognized that GCM results form the largest part of the uncertainty in projected flood scenarios (Prudhomme and Davies, 2009).

Alternatively, research has shown that temperature, which influences the amount of water contained in the atmosphere, can have an impact on the patterns and total rainfall volumes of storm events (Hardwick Jones et al., 2010b; Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008; Molnar et al., 2015; Utsumi et al., 2011; Wasko et al., 2015; Westra et al., 2013a). In general, intensification of rainfall events is expected with a trend towards 'invigorating storm dynamics" (Trenberth, 2011; Wasko and Sharma, 2015). Even though forecasts for climate change impacts on future flooding have a 'low confidence', global scale trends in temperature extremes are more reliable (Seneviratne et al., 2012). Following successful studies (Wasko and Sharma, 2017; Westra et al., 2013b) we take the approach of using temperature to project temporal patterns and rainfall volume to account for climate change impacts. As described in detail in section 5, we examine historical rainfall data coupled with daily average temperature to project temporal patterns and rainfall volumes to account for climate change impacts.

4. Study location, data and methodology

In this study we use temperature to project rainfall temporal patterns and volumes to evaluate the variability in flood risk as well as the impact to flood risk due to climatic change. Broadly, the steps followed are:

1. Apply multiple temporal patterns and rainfall volumes with their associated confidence limits in the H/H model to establish the variability in the flood risk
2. Develop scaling factors (Lenderink and Attema, 2015; Wasko and Sharma, 2015) for the volume and temporal pattern for future conditions using temperature as index
3. Evaluate the impact of temperature rise on flood risk by scaling temporal patterns for a temperature increase
4. Evaluate the cumulative impact of temperature rise on flood risk by scaling both volume and temporal patterns

The hydrologic and hydraulic modelling performed here used the EPA-SWMM model of an urban/suburban catchment in Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA. The SWMM software package was initially developed by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, 2016) and has since been used as the base engine for most of the industry standard H/H modelling packages.

4.1 Study Location and model

The H/H model used in this study was developed for the South Washington Watershed District (SWWD) in the State of Minnesota, USA for the management of surface water flows and as well as for planning and management of on-going development work and capital improvement projects. The catchment area of the SWWD is a highly developed urban/suburban area and extends over 140-km^2. The model was initially built in the year 2000 and has been continuously maintained and updated with the latest available landuse/land cover and stormwater infrastructure information. The model includes extensive detail of all landuse types and stormwater infrastructures including sewers, culvert crossing, open channel reaches, and constructed as well as natural storages. Highly detailed delineation of both sub-catchment boundaries and impervious area was done using a high resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM), development construction and grading plan overlays and aerial imagery within a GIS environment. All surface runoff is fed into the appropriate inflow points of the hydraulic conveyance system. The model has been validated and used to design major capital improvement and flood mitigation projects (Hettiarachchi et. al. 2005, Hettiarachchi and Johnson, 2006). Additional model information is available in the supplemental information section S1. For the purposes of this study and to reduce the complexity and model run times, the model was trimmed to the upper section of the SWWD representing an area of approximately 22 km2.

Figure 1 presents the focus areas along with the schematic of the model network to illustrate the level of detail of the existing storm water infrastructure captured in the model. As discussed above the model includes geometry details to explicitly model the street overflow routes where flooding occurs as well as depth/area curves that capture flooding at the storage nodes. This level of detail results in accurately modelling the travel time of flows within the watershed and capturing all the runoff volume generated from the storm. Additionally, the geometry detail provides a reasonably accurate representation of extents related to flooding. The proper simulation of hydraulic attenuation and a variety of landuse types provide an ideal platform for this study.

Table 1 lists the primary reference locations that are used for this study. The locations have specifically been chosen to represent the range of possible conditions that are encountered in urban catchments. The sub-catchment sizes vary from less than 0.5 km^2 to approximately 2 km^2, with an overall catchment of 22 km^2. Different land uses such as commercial and industrial or different types of residential areas, as well as the amount of storage, have all been considered. It is important to note that these locations were selected prior to any model runs or availability of results and hence do not bias the results presented. Table 1 gives a description of the primary landuse type of the subwatershed that drains to each reference location along with the watershed area and the overall percentage of impervious surface area within that watershed. It also describes if there are local storage ponds, either natural or constructed, that provide rate and volume control.

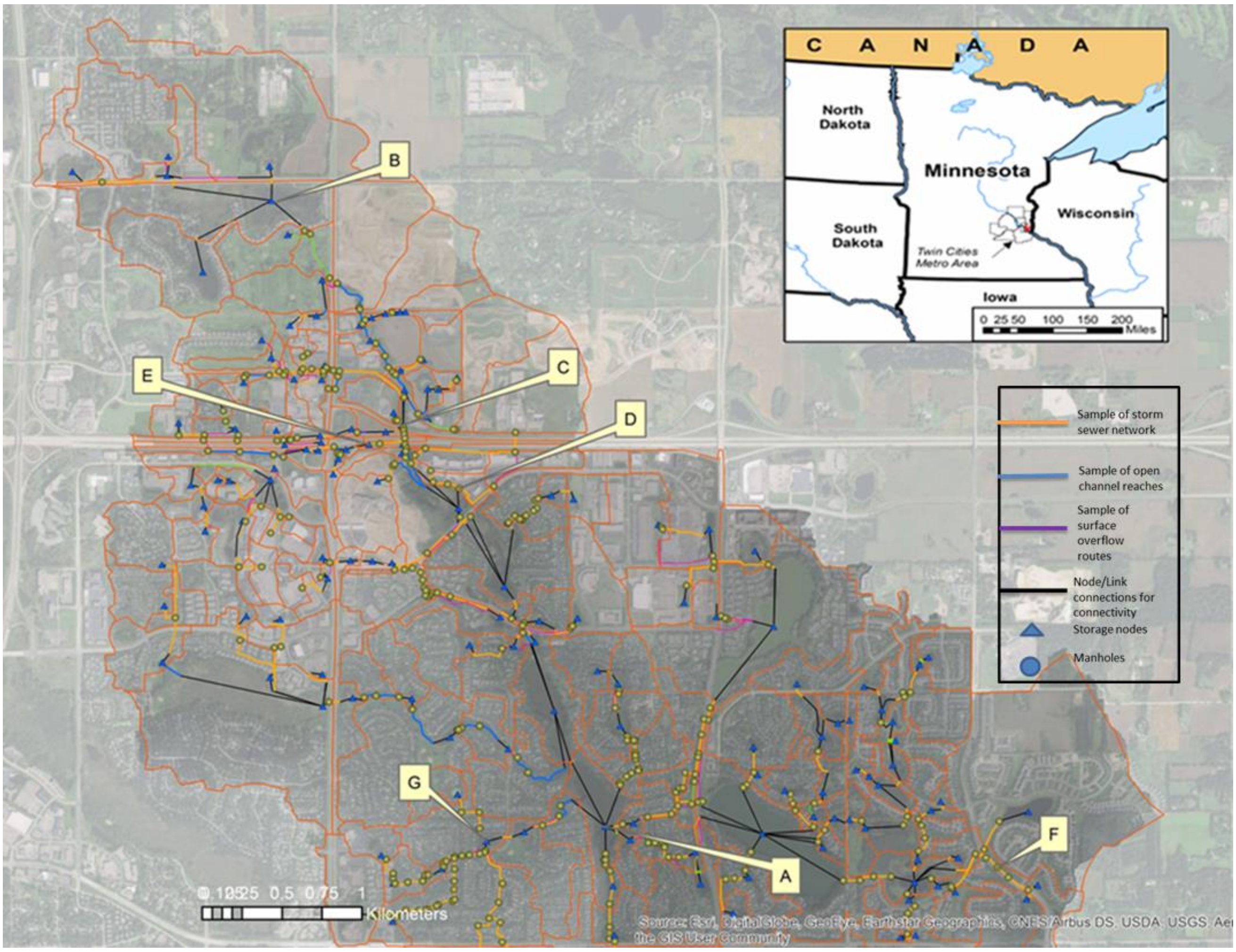

Figure 1 Location of the model and the sub-watersheds along with the reference points used in the discussion below. The details of the reference points and further explanation are presented in Table 1. The Orange links are example of the sewer network geometry in the model. The blue links represent reaches that are open channel. The magenta links are the surface overflow routes that capture flow that tends to flood in areas and spread outside the sewer network. The black links provides connectivity when the georeferenced locations of nodes are geographically different to the ends of some of the sewer network. The black links provide connectivity in the model.

Table 1. Description of reference locations presented in Figure 1 and used to present results. Each location represents a variation of landuse within the watershed

Reference point	Landuse types and description	Watershed Area (km^2)	Average Percent impervious
(A) Wilmes	Natural lake and downstream limit of watershed.	~ 22	-
(B) Upstream	Predominantly rural, lower density residential landuse with good tree canopy and green spaces. Natural wetlands to mitigate flow with minimal to constructed storage	2.2	32
(C) Business park	Office space and parking lots with green space mixed in. Constructed storage and infiltration to help mitigate runoff	0.5	42
(D) Commercial 1	Retail and parking dominates this area with some green spaces added in. Minimal constructed storage. Two sub-surface infiltration basins installed under parking lots	.25	60
(E) Commercial 2	Retail and parking dominates this area with substantial constructed storage to help mitigate runoff rates and volumes. Part of the highway also drains through this point.	.75	48
(F) Residential 1	Medium density residential landuse with minimal constructed storage.	.35	24
(G) Residential 2	Medium density residential landuse with constructed storage.	1.05	39

4.2 Precipitation and Temperature Data

The precipitation and temperature data used in the analysis were sourced from the National Centers for Environmental Information hosted by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). Both hourly and daily rainfall data were downloaded from the climate data online site for Minneapolis and St Paul (MSP) International Airport gauge, which is the closest major airport to the study area. Daily data for the MSP airport was available from 1901 through 2014, while hourly data was available from 1948 through 2014.

Daily maximum, minimum and average temperature data was also downloaded for the period from 1901 through 2014. For this analysis days that did not have precipitation data were assumed to have no rain.

The temporal patterns for storms and the depths of rainfall were taken from NOAA ATLAS 14 volume 8 (Perica. et. al. 2013) – the current state of the art design standard for this location. The modelling analysis centred on the 50-year (2% exceedance probability) storm, which is a total rainfall volume of 160 mm in 24-hours, for the area within the SWWD in the USA. The 90 % confidence margin storm depths were added to the analysis to look at how modelled flood depths vary with total precipitation (Table 2). Six temporal distributions (two patterns with their associated confidence margins) were chosen from NOAA ATLAS 14 volume 8 to investigate how flood depths are impacted by the shape of storm over a 24-hour period. Table 2 describes the different storm temporal patterns and each of the precipitation volumes modelled. The spatial distribution of rainfall was kept constant for this study. Even though we acknowledge that spatial variability of rainfall will have a significant impact on flooding, adding that dimension to the current analysis would have made the level of effort excessive. Also, by not spatially varying the rainfall distribution, we are able to better focus on the sensitivity of temporal patterns on flooding impacts.

Table 2. Description of notation used in reference to the modelled storm depths and temporal distributions (NOAA Atlas 14 volume 8 appendix 5)

Design Rainfall	Description
160 mm 24 hour	2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth
125 mm 24 hour	Lower margin of the 90% confidence interval of the 2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth-Approximately Equivalent to the 20-year 24 hour ARI
210 mm 24 hour	Upper margin of the 90% confidence interval of the 2 % exceedance 24-hour duration (50-year return period) rainfall depth-Approximately Equivalent to the 200-year 24 hour ARI
Temporal pattern	**Description**
Q1-10 - (a)	NOAA Midwest region, 1st quartile 10th percentile temporal distribution
Q1-50 - (b)	NOAA Midwest region, 1st quartile 50th percentile temporal distribution
Q1-90 - (c)	NOAA Midwest region, 1st quartile 90th percentile temporal distribution
Q3-10 - (d)	NOAA Midwest region, 3rd quartile 10th percentile temporal distribution
Q3-50 - (e)	NOAA Midwest region, 3rd quartile 50th percentile temporal distribution
Q3-90 - (f)	NOAA Midwest region, 3rd quartile 90th percentile temporal distribution

The quartiles indicate the timing of the greatest percentage of total rainfall that occurs during a storm. First quartile indicates that the majority of the rainfall, including the peak, occurs in the 1st ¼ of the duration, which is between hours 1 through 6 in the case of a 24-hour storm. Third quartile indicates that the majority of the rainfall, including the peak occurs in the 3rd quarter of the storm duration, that is, hours 12 through 18 in the case of a 24-hour storm. The temporal distributions were also separated in Atlas 14 to determine the frequency of occurrence within each quartile to determine a percentile for each distribution.

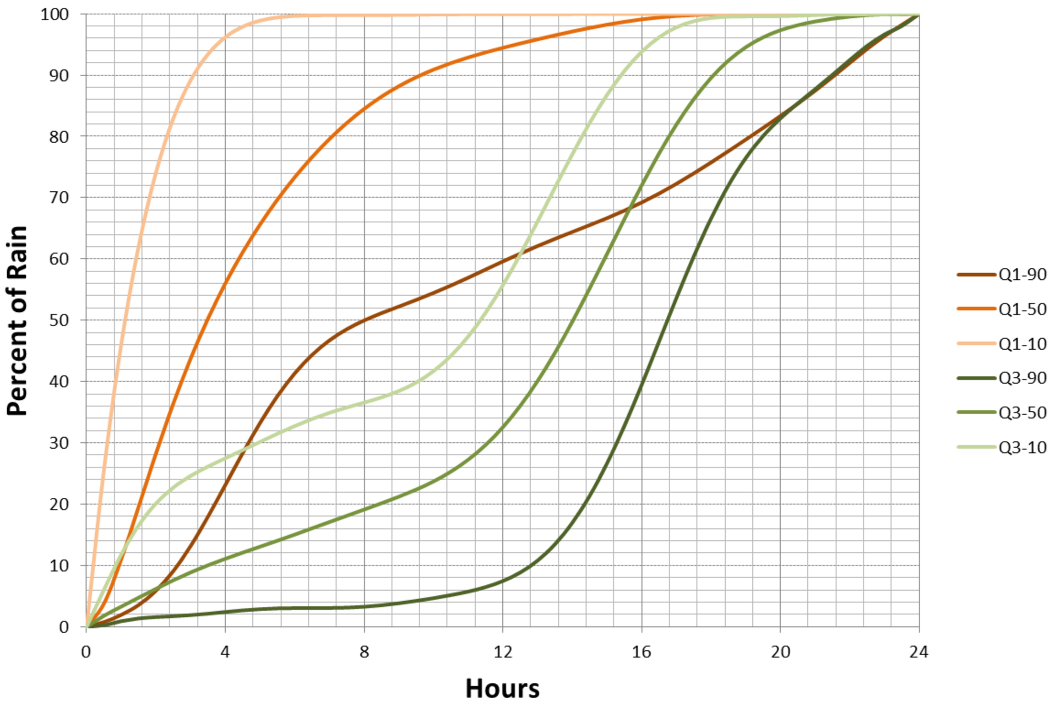

Figure 2. NOAA Atlas 14 temporal patterns used in the modelling

The SWMM model was run for each of the precipitation amounts for the six temporal patterns, a total of 18 model runs, to generate the base dataset for current conditions and establish the variability in the current climate. The impact of climate change due to changed temporal patterns was assessed by modelling the 2% exceedance rainfall value (160 mm) with temporal patterns scaled for an expected temperature increase. Finally the cumulative impacts of changed temporal patterns and volume were evaluated by scaling both the rainfall volume and temporal patterns with temperature. An important point to note is that only the rainfall time series was changed appropriately for each model run. All the boundary conditions such as initials water levels at storage locations and all hydrologic parameters for each of the above model runs were kept the same for every model run.

4.3 Temperature scaling of temporal patterns and rainfall volume

To assess the impact of climate change, design storm temporal patterns and rainfall volumes need to be projected for a future warmer climate. Most methods that project rainfall for future climates focus on downscaling output from general circulation models to those required for hydrological applications (Fowler et al., 2007; Maraun et al., 2010; Prudhomme et al., 2002) through either dynamical or statistical models (Wilks, 2010). Downscaling methods, however, will not replicate design rainfall (Woldemeskel et al., 2016), so an attractive alternative is that proposed by Lenderink and Attema (2015) whereby historical temperature sensitivities (scaling) are directly applied to the design rainfall. Here, we assume that temperature is the primary climatic variable associated with changing rainfall. This is consistent with studies that find that temperature is a recommended covariate for projecting rainfall (Agilan and Umamahesh, 2017; Ali and Mishra, 2017) and temperature sensitivities implicitly account for dynamic factors (Wasko and Sharma, 2017). Indeed projecting rainfall directly using temperature sensitivities gives comparable results to more sophisticated methods of rainfall projection using numerical weather prediction (Manola et al., 2017).

Using established methods (Hardwick Jones et al., 2010a; Utsumi et al., 2011; Wasko and Sharma, 2014), the volume scaling for the 24 hour storm duration was calculated using an exponential regression. The results are presented in Figure 5. First, daily rainfall was paired with daily average temperature. The rainfall-temperature pairs were binned on 2ºC temperature bins, overlapping with steps of one degree. For each 2ºC bin a Generalized Pareto Distribution fitted to the rainfall data in the bin that was above the 99th percentile to find extreme rainfall percentiles (Lenderink et al., 2011; Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008). Extreme percentiles below the 99th percentile (inclusive) were calculated empirically. A linear regression was subsequently fitted to the fitted log-transformed extreme percentiles and used as the rainfall volume scaling (Figure 5). Hence the volume (V) is related to a change in temperature (T) by

$$V_2 = V_1(1+\alpha)^{\Delta T}$$

Where α is the scaling of the precipitation per degree change in temperature.

Temporal pattern scaling was calculated using hourly data, again paired to the average daily temperature and followed the proposed methodologies in (Wasko and Sharma, 2015). The largest 500 storm bursts of duration 24 hours were identified in the hourly data, with each storm burst independent (not overlapping). The 24-hour duration storm bursts were divided into 6 fractions, each fraction with duration of four hours. Each fraction was divided by the rainfall volume and ranked from largest to smallest. An exponential regression was fitted to the fractions corresponding to each rank and their corresponding temperature to produce a temporal pattern scaling. The scaled temporal patterns were then applied and run through the H/H models.

5 Results and Discussion

The results from the modelling analysis is presented and discussed below. We show that the current temporal patterns for design flood estimation need to be adjusted to account for climate change impacts as do design rainfall volumes.

5.1 Temporal patterns and volume scaling

The scaling of the temporal pattern fraction for Minneapolis is presented in Figure 3. Table 3 provides the scaling that results from the fitted regression in each of the panels in Figure 3. A temperature change of 5°C was selected to determine the percentage change based on temperature increases estimated for the RCP8.5 scenario in Figure SPM7(a)(IPCC 2014) projected for 2081-2100. The selection of the RCP8.5 scenario was based on the goal of this paper to demonstrate the importance of accounting for climate change in rainfall patterns as well the current literature suggesting that we are tracking on a RCP8.5 scenario (Peter et al., 2013). Additional analysis performed for the RCP4.5 scenario (supplemental information section S2) shows similar trends in results but of a lesser magnitude. It is important to note that rigorous thought is needed on how far out and what level of climate impacts should be considered when selecting a threshold for design or when setting absolute flood depths.

As the slopes in Figure 3 and factors in Table 3 show, only the first fraction scaled positively, which means that the 4 hours that included the highest amount of rainfall scale up while the remaining rainfall fractions scale down. The results are consistent with "invigorating storm dynamics" (Lenderink and van Meijgaard, 2008; Trenberth, 2011; Wasko and Sharma, 2015; Wasko et al., 2016b) resulting in a less uniform, more intense storm. The percentage adjustments were normalized to make sure that total rainfall amount did not change from the current value of 160 mm in 24-hours. Figure 4 presents (Q1-50 and Q3-50 shown as an example) the changes to the temporal patterns when the scaling percentages calculated above are applied. Figure 4 illustrates the change to the highest peak rainfall rate and the decrease in the rest of the rainfall fractions. Similar scaling was applied for all six temporal patterns that were used in the H/H modelling analysis. As an additional verification, a similar analysis was completed for two neighbouring locations (Sioux Falls South, Dakota and Milwaukee, Wisconsin). The fraction and volume scaling results for both Sioux Falls and Milwaukee were consistent with those discussed in this paper.

Figure 5 presents the precipitation volume temperature pairs, the extreme percentiles generated based on the temperature bins, as well as the resulting scaling for the 24 hour rainfalls. The daily total rainfall of 160 mm fell into the 99.99th percentile based on a cursory ranking of the daily precipitation data. Hence, the 99.99th percentile 4.7 % scaling was selecting for the 24 hour volume. This is broadly consistent with Utsumi et al. (2011) and Wasko et al. (2016a) who present scaling between 2 and 5 % for the central north of the U.S for the 99th percentile and throughout Australia and less than the scaling found by Mishra et al. (2012) who used hourly precipitation, which is consistent with the expectation that shorter duration extremes have greater scaling (Hardwick Jones et al., 2010a; Panthou et al., 2014; Wasko et al., 2015). This value also appears to be consistent both with historical trends and climate change projections. Barbero et al (2017) looked at a non-stationary extreme value analysis and found a sensitivity of approximately 7%/ºC for a non-stationary Theil-Sen estimator for North America. Globally, Westra et al. (2013) find historical trends have global sensitivity between 5.9%/ºC and 7.7%/ºC. However, Kharin et al (2013) report an approximately 4% sensitivity over land globally from the CMIP5 model results with a range of 2.5-5% for the U.S.A. Relative to the literature stated above we believe our projections are consistent with the available evidence regarding precipitation change.

This 4.7 % scaling converts to an approximately 20 % increase in the volume of rainfall in a 24 hour period for a five degree increase. Applying the 20 % increase to the 160 mm in 24-hours gives a rainfall depth of 208 mm in 24 hours. Coincidentally, 208 mm (~210 mm) in 24 hours is the upper margin of the 90% confidence interval for the 160 mm event based on the margin provided in NOAA Atlas 14.

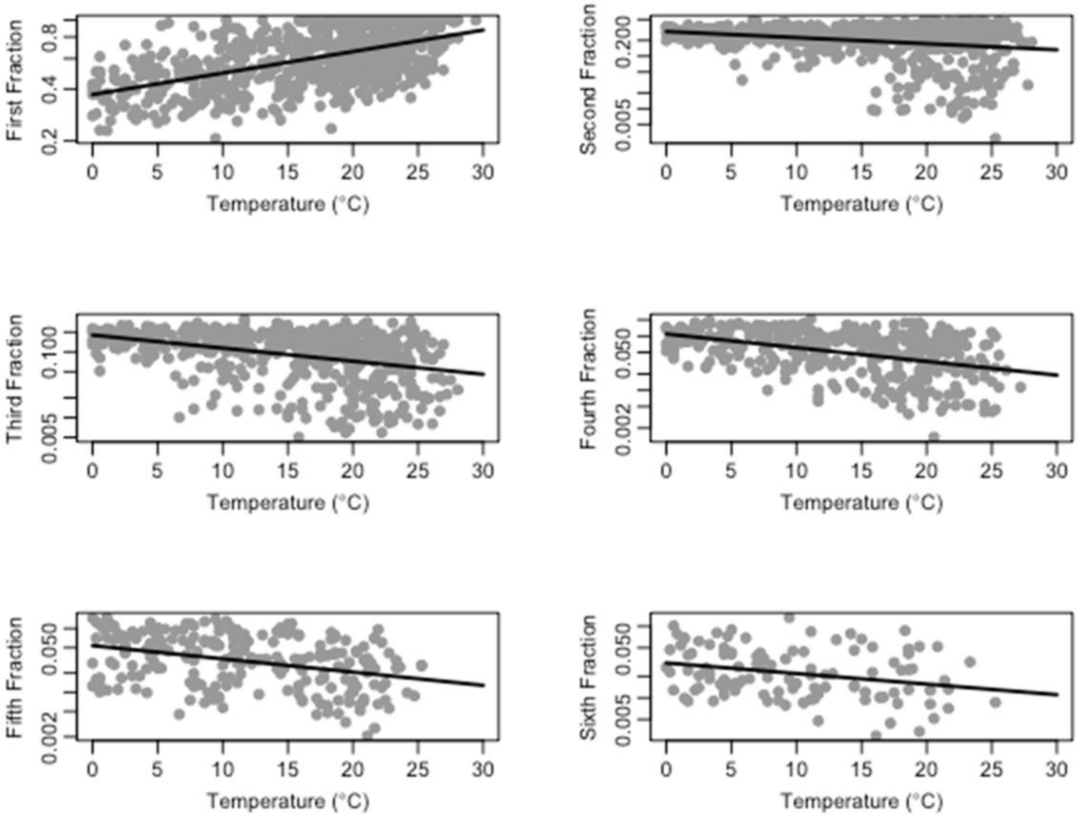

Figure 3. Scaling temporal pattern fractions with temperature for Minneapolis (1948-2014 hourly data). Black lines represent the fitted exponential regression.

Table 3 Temporal pattern scaling factors for each of the fractions

Fraction	Scaling factor
F1	0.029
F2	-0.026
F3	-0.045
F4	-0.057
F5	-0.047
F6	-0.033

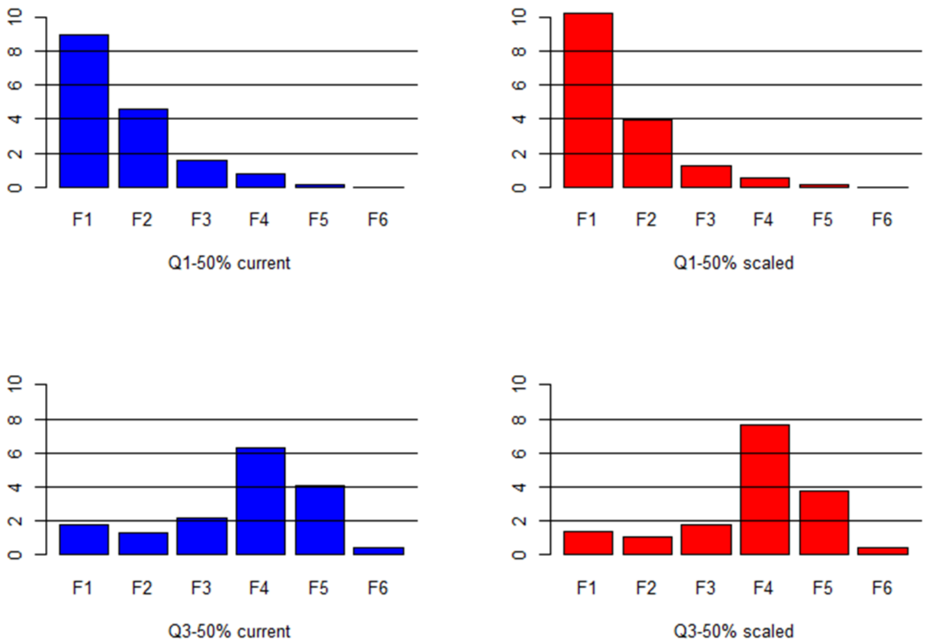

Figure 4 Q1-50 and Q3-50 temporal patterns projected for temperature rise of 5^0 C. Total rainfall of 160 mm over 24 hours with each fraction representing accumulated rain for 4-hour periods.

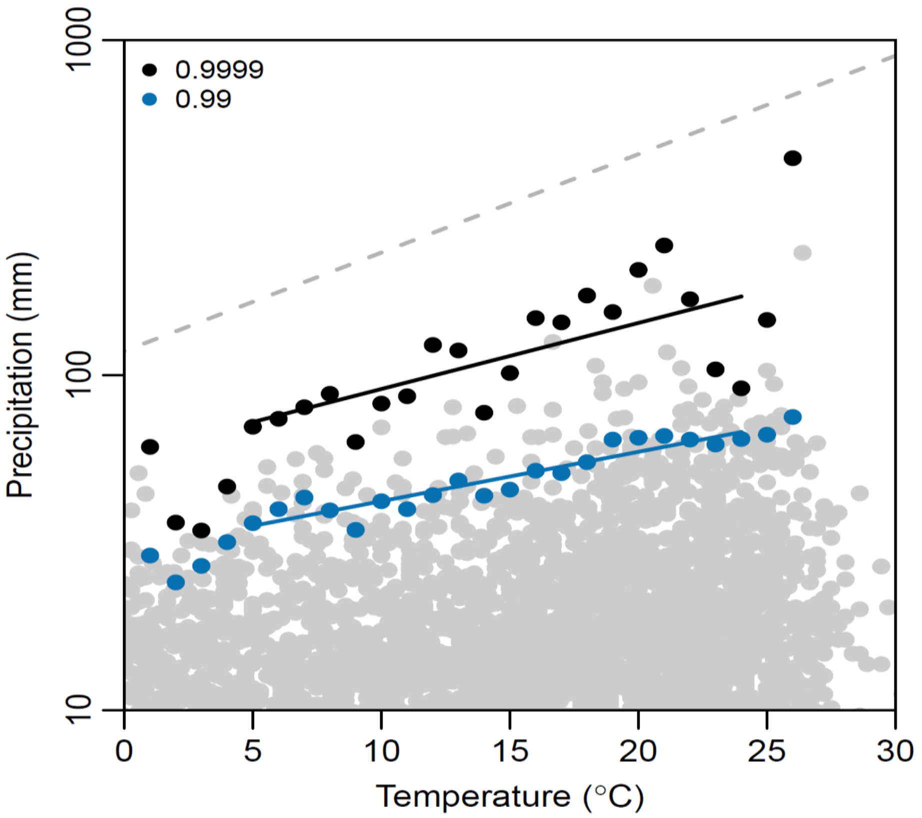

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Figure 5 Scaling total volume of rainfall with temperature for Minneapolis (1901-2014 daily rainfall). Grey dots are rainfall temperature-pairs and the coloured dots are the extreme percentiles. The grey dashed line represents a scaling of 7 %.

5.2 Flood depth response to temporal patterns and total rainfall variability.

The hydrologic/hydraulic model was run for the 18 different combinations of rainfall volumes and temporal patterns. Results are presented for the five reference locations throughout the watershed representing different landuse types that are typical in a developed area as described in Table 2. The selection of the reference points essentially provides results at different sub-catchments, or different sub-models. These sub-models show the variation in catchment response to runoff generated by a variety of land use types as well as changes in how the flows move through the different stormwater infrastructure.

Figures 6(a) shows the depth/time curve at Wilmes Lake (location A) which is the main regional collection point and the downstream end of the model. Each curve represents change in depth versus time for the six temporal patterns distributing the same total rainfall volume of 160 mm. The differences in shape, peak flood depth and the time to peak illustrate the variability in catchment response that can result purely due to variation in rainfall pattern during a storm event. A striking result is the approximately 30 % (1.3 m) variation in flood depth (relative to mean flood depth) at Wilmes Lake purely due to variation of how the rain falls within the duration of the storm. The highest flood depth curve is a result of the most intense storm event pattern which is the Q1-10 distribution. The depth at Wilmes Lake rises quickly during the Q1-10 event but the peak flood depth still occurs within the 40 – 60 hour band similar to the other rainfall patterns. The high intensity of the Q1-10 pattern can overwhelm local conveyance and storage structures, resulting in overflows that flushes down to the low lying areas rapidly, causing the water level at the lake to rise. Note that the next highest peak flood level results from the Q3 patterns which has the majority of the precipitation loaded at the latter half of the storm event. Comparison of the total runoff volume for the catchment between Q1-50 to Q3-50 temporal patterns shows a 9.5% increase for the same 50 year storm event. A third quartile rainfall pattern can results in higher runoff volume as the soil saturates and infiltration rates are reduced and can cause worse flooding as local storage structures and ponds fill up by the time the bulk of the storm occurs. The results for the Q-3 patterns suggests that regional storage facilities such as Wilmes Lake within the SWWD are more sensitive to the runoff volume than the instantaneous peak flow rate, and thereby more sensitive to end loaded temporal patterns during storms.

Figure 6(b) illustrates the same type of variation of peak flood depth due purely to the different temporal patterns at all of the reference points. Locations A, C, D and G average about a metre in peak flood depth variation. When considering that the typical freeboard (added elevation above base flood elevation) used in the USA when setting lowest open elevations for structures is 0.65 m, a 1 m variation in peak flood elevation is significant. As described in Table 1, the landuse within the subcatchment that drains to location B is rural with local natural storage whereas locations C and D have commercial land use with higher impervious land cover. This difference in land cover can explain why the variability in peak flood depth relative to changes in temporal patterns is lower at approximately 0.5 m and suggests that catchments with higher impervious surfaces have a higher sensitivity to rainfall patterns. Additionally, locations F is within the storm sewer system which suggests that variation in flow rates, or peak runoff from a catchment, does not always translate to higher variation in flood depths.

The depth vs time curves in Figure 6(a) also illustrate the value of including detailed hydraulic routing in the modelling analysis. As an example, the curves for Q1-10 and Q3-90 patterns show the difference of catchment response due to a high intensity rainfall event that results in an initial peak flood depth resulting from overflows followed by the lagged response of the volume accumulation compared to the scenario of higher volume of runoff due to saturated soils. The variability in how the catchment responds to different temporal patterns is consistent with studies by Ball (1994) and Lambourne and Stephenson (1987). Though these studies focused primarily on the hydrologic aspect of the modelling and peak flow rates and volumes, the variation in catchment response to changes in "how it rains" is similar. The current study has the added benefit of detailed hydraulics routing and it is reasonable to assume that using only hydrologic routing, which is more common in current literature, would not have captured some of the detailed environmental hydraulics that can lead to better flood estimates in developed environments.

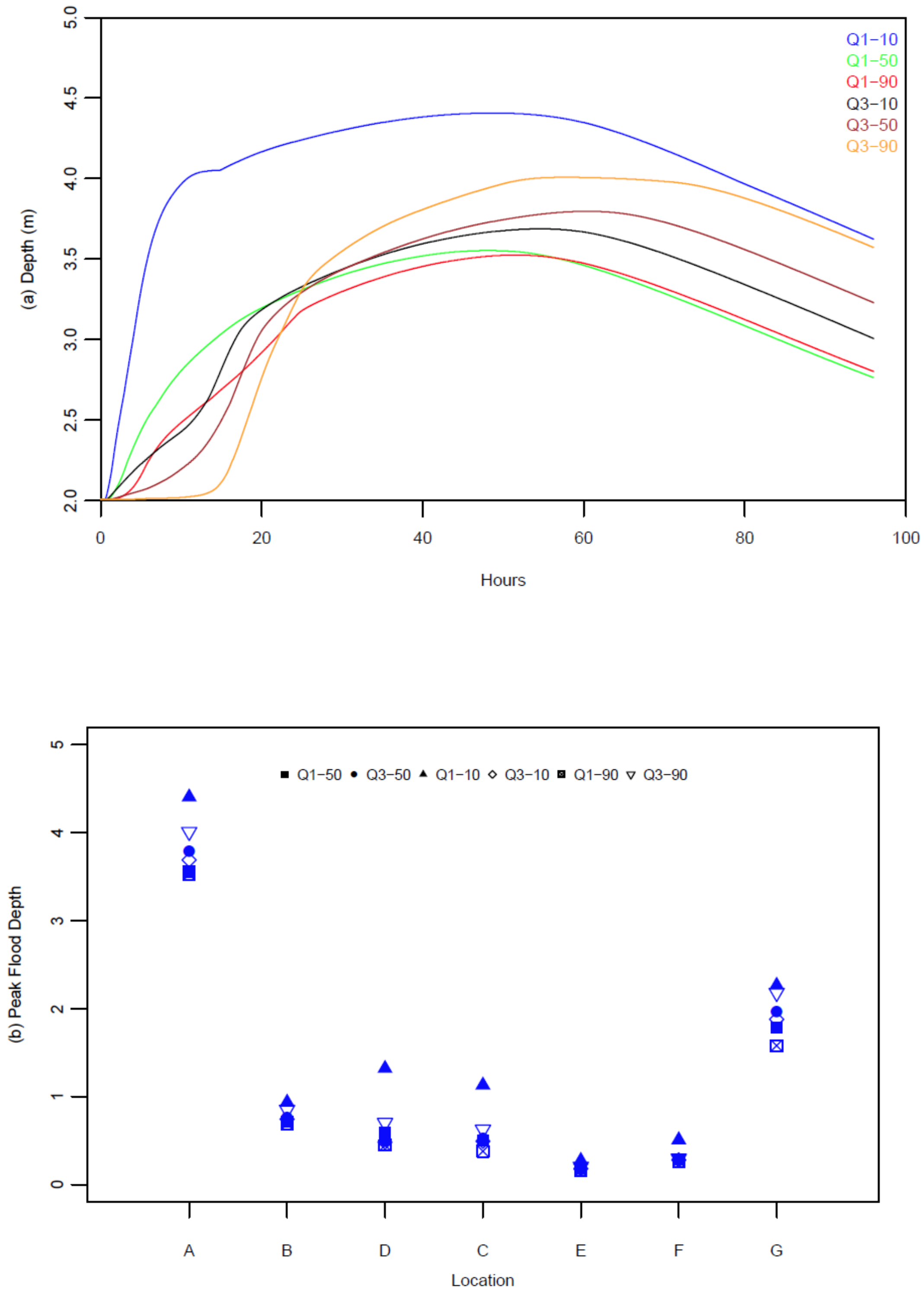

Figure 6 (a) Depth over time at Wilmes Lake (Location A), which is the downstream regional reference point in Figure 1. Depth vs time curves are plotted for 160 mm of total rainfall over 24 hours with the six temporal patterns. (b) Presents the variation of peak flood depth (m) at reference locations throughout

the watershed (ref to table 1) with variation of temporal patterns for a total of 160 mm of rainfall over 24 hours.

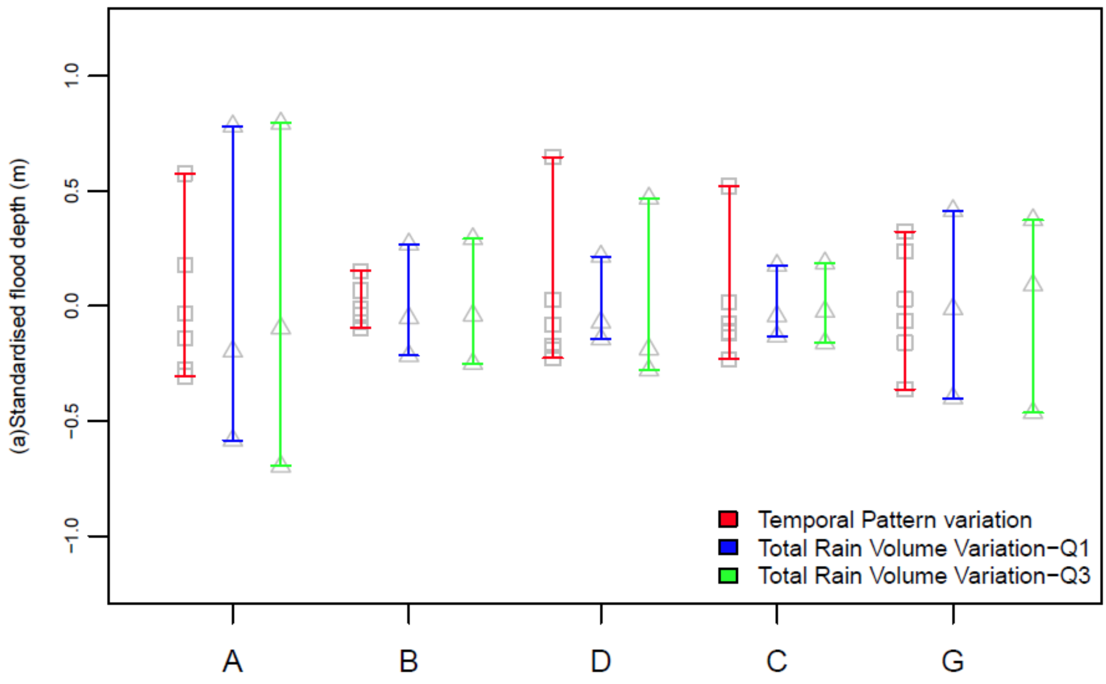

Figure 7 Comparison of total volume of rainfall and temporal patterns variability impact on peak flood depth. Flood depth variation due to the 6 different temporal patterns with 160 mm of rain compared to 110, 160 and 210 mm of total rainfall over 24 hours distributed over Q1-50 and Q3-50 temporal patterns. Flood depths were standardised by subtracting the mean at each location for ease of comparison.

One of the primary questions that we set out to answer was the comparison of "how it rains" versus "how much it rains". For clarification, "how it rains" refers to the variation of temporal patterns during a storm event with the total rainfall volume with the 24 hours held constant. The term "how much it rains" refers to different volumes of total rainfall within 24 hours for each storm event with the temporal pattern held constant. Figure 7 makes the direct comparison between the variations of peak flood depth between "how it rains" versus "how much it rains". The range in peak depths at the reference locations indicates how the different catchments respond to variability in storm volume and pattern.

Comparison of the range of peak flood depths at locations C and D indicates a higher sensitivity to variation in "how it rains" as opposed to changes "how much it rains". Conversely, locations A, B and G indicate a higher range in flood depths due to changes in total rainfall volume, or "how much it rains" compared to changes in temporal patterns, or "how it rains". Even though one can note that locations C and D receive runoff from catchments that have a majority of higher impervious landuse relative to other locations, the number of data points does not allow for a statistically significant comparison of the sensitivity of impervious percentages in landuse to the difference in "how it rains" vs. "how much it rains". But it is important to note the consistency in the range of results across all the locations and the fact that "how it rains" has as much of an impact in the peak flood depths as "how much it rains". The results in Figure 7 clearly answer the first question presented in the introduction that temporal patterns of storms are as important as the total volume of rainfall during a storm in watershed response and flood estimation.

The results presented in Figures 6 and 7 shows that temporal patterns, or "how it rains" add a degree of variability and has a significant contribution to the overall uncertainty in H/H modelling results. This is especially a concern given the evidence to date that systematic change is occurring to rainfall patterns across climate zones, making them more intense and impactful in derived flood estimations (Wasko and Sharma, 2015). The added variability has implications on the already complex nature of properly accounting for uncertainty in flood forecasts or the impacts of climate change in future flooding conditions, which can in turn have implications on how society will accept the socio-economic impacts of adaption as previously mentioned. Hence, careful consideration of "how it rains" and changes in "how it rains" have to be included in any H/H modelling frame work along with the current typical practice of modelling "how much it rains".

5.3 Impact of applying temperature scaling to temporal patterns and rainfall volume on flood depths

Figure 8 compares the results for projected temporal patterns with results from the base simulation. Both scenarios are based on the 50 year return period event which is 160 mm distributed over the six base and projected temporal patterns. The results shown in Figure 8 are variation of the peak flood depth around the mean of the results from the base conditions models. In other words, the results were standardized by subtracting the mean of the base conditions from the results at each location.

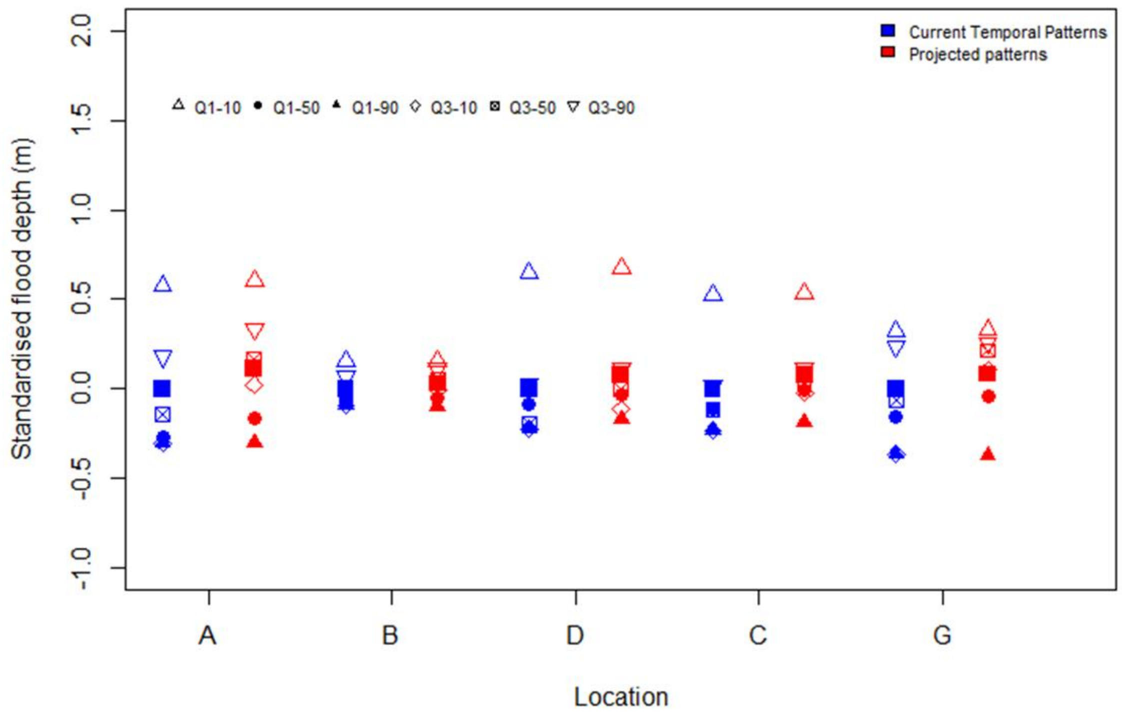

Figure 8. Impact of rise in temperature on the peak flood depth variation at reference locations within the watershed when scaling is applied only to temporal patterns. The peak flood depths at each reference point are based on 160 mm of total rain distributed over the 6 temporal patterns used. Temperature scaling (T/S) for the temporal patterns are based scaling fractions presented in Figure 3. Flood depths were standardised by subtracting the mean from the base simulations presented in Figure 6 for each location.

As expected, the highest flood depth results from the Q1-10 pattern for both current and scaled conditions. But the results at the highest depths show little change due to temperature scaling of the Q1-10 pattern. The Q1-10 pattern is an extremely high intensity event with majority of the rainfall occurring in the first fraction of the event. Applying the scaling percentages to this fraction makes minimal changes to the overall pattern of rainfall resulting in no appreciable change in peak flood depths. If we take the extreme Q1-10 event out of consideration, one can say that qualitatively there is an increasing trend in flood depths due to changes in the projected temporal patterns. The important fact is that these plots are based on the same total rainfall volume of 160 mm. The moderate increasing trend in the results is purely due to the projected temporal patterns. As discussed previously, location B represents a more rural type catchment and shows less sensitivity to changes in rainfall patterns.

Figure 9 shows the same comparison as in Figure 8 when temperature scaling is applied to both the temporal pattern and rainfall volume. Hence Figure 9 presents the cumulative impacts of temperature scaling to the base conditions. As in Figure 8, the results in Figure 9 show the variation of results for both scenarios around the mean of the base condition flood depth at each location.

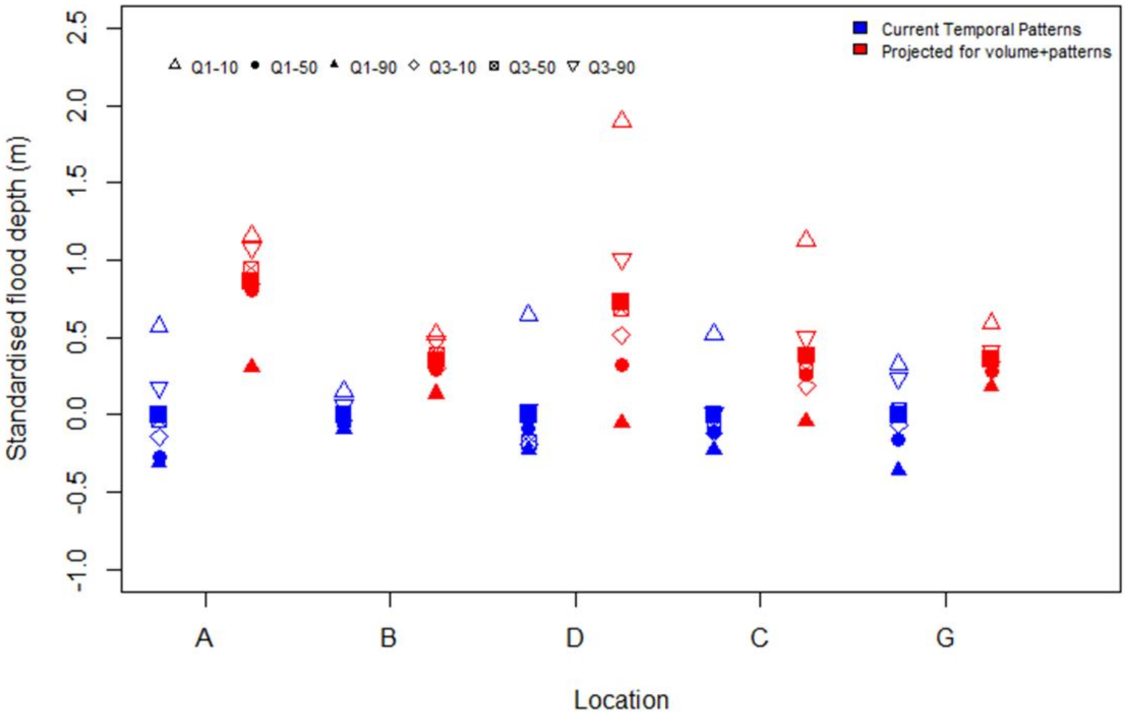

Figure 9. Impact of rise in temperature on the peak flood depth variation at reference locations within the watershed, when scaling is applied to both rainfall volume and temporal pattern. The peak flood depths at each reference point are based on 210 mm of total rain distributed over the 6 temporal patterns used. Flood depths were standardised by subtracting the mean from the base simulations presented in Figure 6 for each location.

As expected, substantial increase in flood risk is seen when the cumulative impacts of changes to temporal pattern and increase in precipitation volume due to temperature rise are modelled. The mean flood depth is outside the upper margin of the highest flood depth for base conditions except at the business park (C). The business park location (C) comes close to meeting this threshold as well. The mean flood depth at Wilmes Lake (A) increases by approximately 1 m, which translates to a significant increase in the extent of flooding. The biggest change due to cumulative impacts occurs at the upstream location (B) were previously, when only the temporal patterns were scaled, minimal impact was shown. The increase in flood depth at the reference locations due to changes to temporal patterns alone range from 1 % to 35 %, while the cumulative impacts increase flood depth from 10 % to as much as 170 %. These results are similar to Zhou et al. (2016) who projects a 52% increase in urban flooding for an RCP 8.5 scenario in China. When considering all the nodes in the model, the average increase in flood depth due only to changes in temporal patterns was 6 %. The average increase in flood depth throughout the entire model due to cumulative impacts of both changes to temporal pattern and rainfall volume is 37 %. The percentage increase (Table S2) shows that there is a significant impact to overall flood risk throughout the catchment and that it is not isolated to the reference points that are discussed in detail. These results clearly show the increasing trend along with the significant variability in flood risk in developed environments.

Additionally, the range of the results and hence the overall variability has increased at the commercial and business park areas (C, D) locations when compared to Figure 8. But this change in the range is not consistent throughout the catchment. The higher intensity and the larger total volume of rainfall overwhelm the existing infrastructure with much larger surface overflows in different ways depending on the site and extents. Also, the amount of increase in the flood depths can change at different locations as the flooding increases. The changes to the range of depths as seen in Figure 9 suggests that quantifying and accounting for uncertainty in flood forecasts becomes more complex for future climates.

The use of detailed hydrologic and hydraulic modelling provides some of the nuances in catchment response that adds important details to the results and our understanding on the impacts of temporal patterns to flood risk, such as higher intensity rainfall does not always results in the higher flood risk. The variation of reference locations selected for this study provides a reasonable assessment of how the flows interact with the physical features of the catchment and how the results differ based on the location and features. This study clearly shows the sensitivity of the catchment to variation in how it rains, in particular the areas that are more impacted by volume as opposed to flow rate. Explicitly including intensification of rainfall patterns and volume due to climate change along with detailed H/H modelling to assess the variability in catchment response makes this study unique among available literature. The methodology presented here is universally applicable and the benefits of correctly designing infrastructure are likely to far outweigh the cost of the added effort, even in industry applications.

6 Conclusions

The significance of temporal patterns and how climate change impacts on rainfall patterns affect flooding in developed environments was investigated using detailed hydrologic and hydraulic modelling. Climate change impacts were undertaken by projecting historical precipitation-temperature sensitivities on storm volumes and temporal patterns. The following conclusions can be drawn from the results presented;

1. The response of a complex catchment is sensitive to variability in rainfall temporal pattern. The flood depths varied in excess of 1 m at Wilmes Lake when different temporal patterns were used with a constant volume of precipitation.
2. The variability of peak flood depth due to temporal pattern had similar magnitude when compared to variability due to total rainfall volume, which clearly shows that the temporal pattern of rainfall, or “how it rains” is as important as the volume of rainfall or “how much it rains” for the purposes of H/H modelling.
3. Temporal patterns add a quantifiable variability to the results generated in H/H modelling and need to be carefully consider when presenting results and associated uncertainties.
4. The temporal patterns intensified when scaled based on estimated temperature increases due to climate change.
5. A 1 % to 35 % increase in flood depth resulted when the scaled temporal patterns were used in the H/H model, suggesting an increase in potential flood risk purely due changes to “how it rains” as a result of climate change impacts.
6. A 10 % to 170 % increase in flood depth resulted when the projected rainfall volume was added to the projected temporal patterns, which shows a substantial increase in flood risk as a results climate change impacts on rainfall.
7. The variability of flood depth increased after temporal patterns and rainfall volumes were projected suggesting that H/H modelling for future planning and design needs to give serious consideration to the aspects of variability of rainfall patterns as well as increase in rainfall amounts.

8. Regional storage facilities are sensitive to rainfall patterns that are loaded at the latter part of the storm duration while the extremely intense storms will cause flooding at all locations.

The effect of projected intensification of storms due to climate change impacts suggests that action needs to be taken promptly to prevent flood damages and possible loss of life. The two most important points that can be derived from this study is that temporal patterns and storm volumes need to be adjusted to account for climate change when applying to models of future scenarios. The general application of H/H modelling analysis needs to adopt an ensemble approach rather than a single event model to consider the significant variability in rainfall patterns that can generate a substantial range in results in order to make a properly informed decision as demonstrated here.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge and thank the South Washington Watershed District (http://www.swwdmn.org) in Minnesota, USA for providing the model as well as the background data used for the analysis. We also acknowledge financial support of the Australian Research Council. The rainfall and temperature data for Minneapolis Airport and locations around the site were taken from https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/cdo-web/. NOAA Atlas 14 Volume 8 is available at http://www.nws.noaa.gov/oh/hdsc/PF_documents

Technical details of EPA-SWMM can be found at https://www.epa.gov/water-research/storm-water-management-model-swmm.

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