

Reference Code: hess-2018-393

Title: Spatially dependent flood probabilities to support the design of civil infrastructure systems

Corresponding Author: Phuong Dong Le (The University of Adelaide)

Contributing Authors: Michael Leonard and Seth Westra

Response to the Reviewer

The authors have significantly modified and improved the manuscript, taking into account the reviewers' comments. However I still think that the manuscript needs to be improved on three main points before publication (see below for the details and additional comments):

Response: Thank you for your comments. We respond in detail below (your comments in italic font and our responses in normal font).

Major comment #1:

The presentation of the inverted Brown-Resnick model is still unclear (Sections 4.2 to 4.4). I think it will hardly be understandable by the readers of HESS.

Response: The focus of this paper is on application to a design problem, therefore we have focused on explaining key aspects of the application. Rather than seek to repeat or elaborate background theory and definitions of the Brown-Resnick model, we have now simplified the presentation and point readers to papers that give the clearest presentation of the Brown-Resnick model. As a result, Sections 4.2 and 4.3 have been merged, with some theoretical background material and equations removed. Section 4.4 has been moved to the Appendix because it includes necessary calculations for the conditional framework, but otherwise interrupts presentation of the overall framework and application.

Major comment #2:

Section 4.5 and 4.6 should be better motivated beforehand. Personally I understood these sections only when reading Sections 5.2 and 5.3. The few sentences at the beginning of Section 4 and Figure 14 are not clear enough for me to understand what are the needed mathematical ingredients.

Response: Given ambiguity in explanation of the method, we have made a substantially different version of Figure 4. The new flow chart gives a clearer presentation of the key stages and how they are interlinked. The items in the flowchart now mirror the presentation of material in Sections 5.2 and 5.3 to improve consistency of presentation in Section 4. Excerpt text from Line 197-209:

This section describes the method used to estimate the conditional and joint probabilities of streamflow for civil infrastructure systems based on rainfall extremes, with the sequence of steps illustrated in Fig. 4. The overall aim is to estimate rainfall exceedance probabilities and corresponding flow estimates that account for dependence across multiple catchments. The generalized Pareto distribution (GPD) is used as the marginal distribution to fit to observed rainfall for all durations at each location (Section 4.1). An extremal dependence model is required to evaluate conditional and joint probabilities. Here, an inverted max-stable process is used with dependence not only in space but also in duration (Section 4.2). The fitted model is evaluated in a range of contexts, including the construction of joint and conditional return level maps. The derivation of areal reduction factors and joint rainfall estimates are made with the assistance of simulations based on the fitted model (Section 4.3). An event-based rainfall-runoff model is employed in Section 4.4 to transform extremal design rainfalls to corresponding flows.

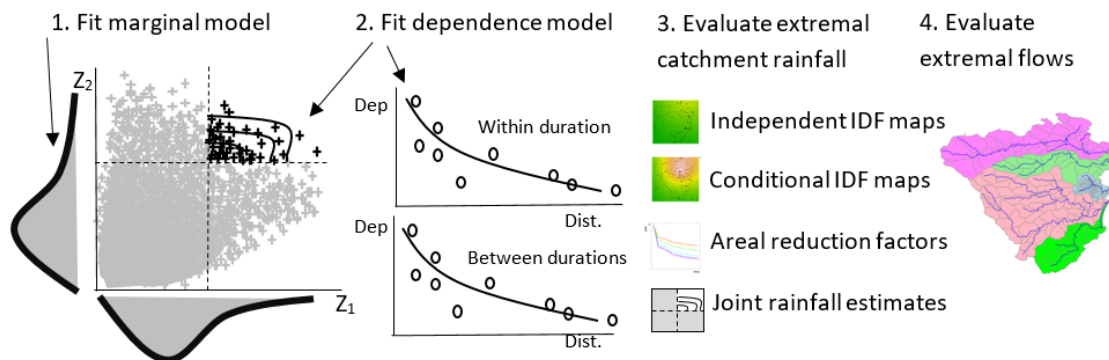


Figure 4. The flow chart for the overall methodology.

Major comment #3:

Several equations lack consistency (see below).

Response: Specific comments have been given to each point raised below. Some of the background theory has been removed for simplification. Some of the equations have been moved to an appendix to avoid interrupting overall methodology. The unit Frechet transformation has been added, the tail dependence equation has been updated.

Minor comment #1:

– The title hasn't been changed (unlike written in the response to Major Comment 1). Anyway, even with « relationships », I still find the title confusing with regards to content of the article. Why not « Spatially dependent flood probabilities to support ... » ?

Response: We have changed the title to “Spatially dependent flood probabilities to support the design of civil infrastructure systems”

Minor comment #2:

– L 63-64 « to overcome... used » : repetition with the previous sentence

Response: We have removed this sentence.

Minor comment #3:

– L 138 « the lack of dependence » → the underlying independence assumption

Response: We have changed this.¹

Minor comment #4:

– L 145 « preserve dependence » → account for

Response: We have changed this.²

Minor comment #5:

– L 149-150 : could you elaborate more on the difference between copula and max-stable processes ? Why did you choose to use MSP rather than copulas ?

Response: We identify that it is equally possible to use copulas such as the Gaussian copula parametrised as a function of distance.³

¹ Line 79: The underlying independence assumption prevents these approaches from being applied to estimate conditional or joint flood risk at multiple points in a catchment or across several catchments, as would be required for a civil infrastructure system.

² Line 85 . This is particularly challenging given that it is not only necessary to account for dependence of rainfall across space, but also to account for dependence across storm burst durations, as different parts of the system may be vulnerable to different critical duration storm events.

³ Line 236 This study uses an asymptotically independent model, of which there are multiple types including the Gaussian copula ([Davison et al., 2012](#)) and inverted max-stable processes ([Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012](#)).

Minor comment #6:

– L 166 « *spatially dependence IDF curves* » → *I haven't seen such curves in the manuscript*

Response: The manuscript presents IDF maps, but as the reviewer notes, did not present IDF curves. We have updated the title to indicate 'flood probabilities'. Within the paper we have used the phrase "*IDF estimates*" and avoid reference to IFD curves since they are not explicitly presented.

Minor comment #7:

– L 262-273: *This is a list of what you'll do in the next sections but we don't understand why you'll do that (what are the goals?). Please rewrite.*

Response: We have significantly modified Figure 4 as well as restructured Section 4 to provide greater clarity on the stages of the method and have indicated the goal of the approach.⁴

Minor comment #8:

– L 269 : « *to transform conditional rainfall to conditional flows* » → *This is confusing. I think you transform quantiles, not the absolute values.*

Response: The rainfall quantile from the conditional map is used for the magnitude of a design storm. The storm has an associated temporal pattern determined by the national guidelines for hydrological design (Australian Rainfall and Runoff). The absolute rainfall values of this storm are transformed by the model into a flow hydrograph.⁵

Minor comment #9:

– L 271-273 « *An analysis .. comparison* » : *Actually I don't see any comparison with the independent model (apart in Fig 10). Please remove it from Fig 4 as well.*

Response: Figure 4 has been updated with mention of the comparison removed.

Minor comment #10:

– *Figure 4: "probability of rainfall", "conditional probability of flows", "assume 1:1 relationships for the probabilities", joint flood probability → probability of system failure (give the section number)*

Response: We have updated Figure 4.

⁴ Line 199: The overall aim is to estimate rainfall exceedance probabilities and corresponding flow estimates that account for dependence across multiple catchments.

⁵ Line 341: The rainfall extremes are estimated at the centroid of the catchment, and are converted to average spatial rainfall using the simulated ARFs described in Section 4.3. Design rainfall hyetographs are used to convert the rainfall magnitude to absolute values through the duration of a storm following standard design guidance in Australia ([Ball et al., 2016](#)).

Minor comment #11:

– Sections 4.2 to 4.4 should be partly rewritten and reorganized.

Response: We have rewritten Section 4. Figure 4 has been updated and Section 4 has been rewritten for greater consistency with the new figure. Section 4.2 has been trimmed to remove background theory of the BR model in preference for references. Section 4.2 and 4.3 have been merged and made more concise to focus on fitting the dependence model. Section 4.4 has been moved to an appendix given the detailed nature of the equations so that the method can focus more on the structure of the model.

Minor comment #12:

– L 295: please specify that Z is associated to a given duration

Response: The text has been updated to indicate it is for a given duration.⁶

Minor comment #13:

– L 297-298 “without loss... distribution”: I don't think that the reader will understand why one can assume that Z is unit Fréchet distributed. The transformation should be given.

Response: The transformation equation is now provided in Appendix B.⁷

Minor comment #14:

– L 305 “An example ... process”: Yes but the Gaussian process is another example of AI model. What is the advantage of the inverted BR model with respect to a Gaussian process?

Response: It is possible to use the Gaussian copula as an asymptotic independent model. Beyond the fit of the dependence model to the data, there is no significant advantage in using one over the other. The focus of this paper is on the ability to construct conditional IDF maps and subsequent design flow estimates rather than a comparative evaluation of models.

⁶ Line 243: For a generic continuous process Z_i for a given duration and associated with a specific location x_i , the empirical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient η for each pair of locations (x_1, x_2) is ...

⁷ Line 539: The unit Fréchet transformation is given as

$$z = \begin{cases} \left(\log \left\{ 1 - \Phi_u \left(1 + \frac{\xi(y-u)}{\sigma_u} \right)^{-1/\xi} \right\} \right)^{-1} & y > u, \xi \neq 0 \\ - \left(\log \left\{ 1 - \Phi_u \exp \left(-\frac{y-u}{\sigma_u} \right)^{-1/\xi} \right\} \right)^{-1} & y > u, \xi = 0 \\ -\{\log F(y_i)\}^{-1} & y \leq u \end{cases} \quad (B.1)$$

where y is the original marginal value and z is the Fréchet transformed value and all other parameters correspond to the GPD specified in Section 4.1. For values below the threshold, F is the empirical distribution function of y , $F(y_i) = i/(n+1)$ where i is the rank of y_i and n is the total number of data points.

Minor comment #15:

– L 308-319 “A general ... margins”: this is not understandable for the great majority of HESS readers. Anyway there is a lack of consistency because in the construction (2), margins are assumed to be exponential.

Response: The background theory has been removed and is treated in detail within the cited literature. The paper focuses more on the scope of model application.

Minor comment #16:

– Eq (4): Again this lacks consistency: written as such, you assume that Z has uniform margins. What is y in the limit? For importantly, what does eta represent in practice? This will stay obscure for most of the readers.

Response: Thank you. We have fixed the Eq (4), y in the limit should be z.⁸

η is the residual dependence coefficient, which is a bivariate concept and is defined to measure residual dependence between two asymptotically independent random variables.

Minor comment #17:

– L 346-360: this is a very complicated way of saying that the dependence depends not only on the distance but also on the duration. Please make it shorter and clearer. The reference to the time of concentration is confusing because it was nowhere said that you will consider for the duration the time of concentration of the basin. By the way, do you only consider that duration later?

Response: The text in this section has been made more concise to omit reference to the time of concentration and say that the dependence depends on the duration.⁹ The method is for any given duration, the case study application identifies relevant durations based on the time of concentration of the basins.¹⁰

Minor comment #18:

– L 377-385: this part (at least the joint distribution) should come before in Section 4.1. Does Eq. (7): apply to any z1, z2? I guess it applies only to threshold exceedances.

Response: Equations 7 to 10 have been moved to Appendix B so they do not interrupt the focus on fitting the dependence model and subsequent application. Equation B.1 in the Appendix provides the Frchet transform which indicates that Z refers to values both above the threshold and below.

⁸ Line 243: For a generic continuous process Z_i for a given duration and associated with a specific location x_i , the empirical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient η for each pair of locations (x_1, x_2) is

$$\eta(x_1, x_2) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log P\{Z_2 > z\}}{\log P\{Z_1 > z, Z_2 > z\}}. \quad (2)$$

The value of $\eta \in (0,1]$ indicates the level of extremal dependence between Z_1 and Z_2 (Coles et al., 1999), with lower values indicating lower dependence. An example of how to calculate the residual tail dependence coefficient is provided in Appendix A for a sample dataset.

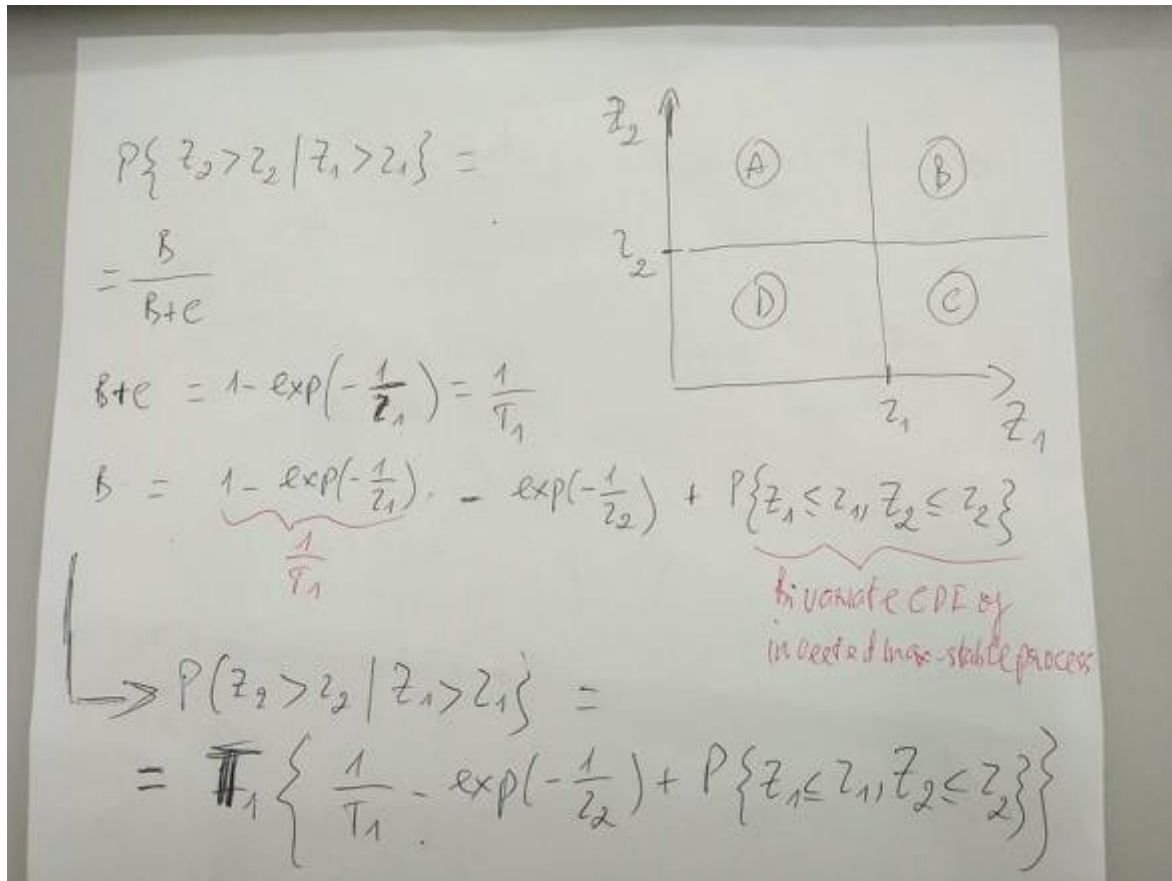
⁹ Line 259: The inverted max-stable process is fitted to the observations by minimizing the sum of the squared errors of the residual tail dependence coefficients. When the extreme rainfall at location x_1 and x_2 are of different durations, the dependence is less than when the extremes are of the same duration. For example, at a single location ($h = 0$), when the duration is the same, the rainfall values are identical and have perfect dependence, but when the duration of extremes are different the values are not identical and the dependence is less. An adjustment needs to be made to the theoretical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient function when extreme rainfalls have different durations.

¹⁰ Line 192: ... this study assumes a time of concentration of 9 hr for the Deep Creek catchment, while identical times of concentration of 36 hr are assumed for the other four catchments.

Minor comment #19:

– Eq. (9): I'm confused here. (9) seems to implicitly use $P(Z_1 > z_1) = 1/T_1$ with z_1 the T_1 year return level for Z_1 . However is that true? I thought that Z_1 and Z_2 were threshold exceedances, whereas $P(Z_1 > z_1) = 1/T_1$ applies if Z_1 is an annual maximum, doesn't it?

Response: Thank you for pointing this out. We have updated the text in the manuscript to indicate that the return periods are calculated on 36 hourly basis. Z_1 and Z_2 are not restricted to threshold exceedances. The derivation is shown below where the four quadrants of the bivariate space above/below respective thresholds are labelled A, B, C, D. The conditional distribution is the joint divided by the marginal $B/(B+C)$ and where the threshold is z_1 is set at $P(Z_1 > z_1) = 1/T_1$.



Minor comment #20:

– L 428-429 “the joint probability ... marginals”: it could also be specified that in case of independence conditional=marginal.

Response: Thank you. We have fixed this.¹¹

Minor comment #21:

– Eq. (10): is this useful? I don't think you use it anywhere... Anyway, if you specify this probability in the case of independence, you should also give it for the IBR process.

¹¹ Line 573: For the case that all of events are independent, the joint probability for independent variables is broken down as the product of the marginals, and the conditional probability is equivalent to the marginal probability. When applying Eq. (B.5) for independent variables, the joint probability is therefore calculated by $P(Z_1 > z_1, \dots, Z_N > z_N) = P(Z_1 > z_1) \dots P(Z_N > z_N)$.

Response: Eq. (10) is useful when we calculate the joint probability for the case of independence (i.e. the blue line in Fig. 10). We have explicitly referenced it in the method section.¹²

Minor comment #22:

– L 440: A better title might be “Simulation-based estimation of ARFs”

Response: We have restructured Section 4 and title for this section is now ‘Simulation based estimation of areal and joint rainfall’

Minor comment #23:

– L 463-465 “the empirical distributions ... thresholds”: I don't understand how an empirical distribution can be derived using a response surface since by definition it is not parametric! And what about above the threshold?

Response: We use a response surface of threshold for the case study catchments based on covariates including longitude and latitude, i.e. we spatially interpolate the threshold for ungauged sites. For the rainfall above the interpolated threshold, the generalised Pareto distribution in Eq. (1) was used. For rainfall below the interpolated threshold we use the data of the nearest gauged site and extract the empirical distribution.¹³

Minor comment #24:

– L 474-475 “36 and 6 h durations”: only? Other durations are shown in Fig 6...

Response: Thank you. In this study, we only need ARFs for 36 and 9h durations due to the time of concentrations of sub-catchments, so we have calculated ARFs for only 36 and 9h durations.¹⁴

Minor comment #25:

– L 475-476: “ARF are calculated”: I would like to have here a clear explanation on how it is calculated because it is not clear to me.

Response: This section has been rewritten.¹⁵ The calculation of ARFs is a substantial step which is covered in detail in Le et al. (2018a). We provide a clearer explanation of the method here in brief, but rely on the reference for detailed explanation of the method. The ARFs are applied here for durations of 36 and 9 hrs.

Minor comment #26:

– L 500-508: I'm a bit lost here because you seem to be able to simulate rainfall in space (see Section 4.5) so why don't you directly simulate rainfall and compute the basin accumulation rather than simulating at the centroid of the catchment and then using the ARF to transform it into a spatial accumulation? My concern is that this may introduce a bias.

Response: The aim of this paper is to develop a method that preserves the traditional IDF framework, where pointwise IDF maps summarise event-magnitudes and separate steps are used to construct rainfall volumes and flow estimates. In

¹² Line 331: A set of 10,000 years simulated rainfall is generated from the fitted model to calculate the overall failure probability of a highway section (Eq. B.5).

¹³ Line 301: For rainfall magnitudes above the threshold the generalised Pareto distribution in Eq. (1) is used, and below the threshold the empirical distribution is used. The empirical distributions at ungauged sites are derived from the nearest gauged sites and using the interpolated response surface of the GPD threshold parameter.

¹⁴ Line 192: ... this study assumes a time of concentration of 9 hr for the Deep Creek catchment, while identical times of concentration of 36 hr are assumed for the other four catchments.

other words, the ARF simulation is a once-off task, whereas application of the overall design method will vary with each context but can utilise the same ARF results.

Minor comment #27:

– L 553 *rainfall extremes* → *rainfall return levels*

Response: Thank you. We have fixed this.

Minor comment #28:

– Fig 10: *I don't understand what "% AEP" means. Isn't it just "%"?*

Response: AEP (Annual Exceedance Probability) is now defined in the text. As an example, a large flood which may be calculated to have a 1% chance to occur in any one year, is described as 1%AEP.¹⁶

Minor comment #29:

– L 746: *Shouldn't "P(Z2>z)" be "P(Z2>F_Z(u))"? Idem in Eq. (A.1)*

Response: Thank you. We have fixed this in the manuscript.¹⁷

¹⁶ Line 454: As an example from Fig. 10, to design the highway with a failure probability of 1% annual exceedance probability (AEP), we would have to design each individual river crossing to a much rarer AEP of 0.25%

¹⁷ Line 533: Assume that interest is in values above a threshold u satisfying $P_u = 0.5$, in other words, $P\{Z_2 > u\} = P\{P_2 > P_u\} = 0.5$. In this case we have only one pair, at the index of 7, that satisfy both P_1 and P_2 are greater than $P_u = 0.5$, thus $P\{Z_1 > u, Z_2 > u\} = P\{P_1 > P_u, P_2 > P_u\} = 1/10 = 0.1$.

Spatially dependent ~~Intensity-Duration-Frequency curves~~ flood probabilities to support the design of civil infrastructure systems

Phuong Dong Le^{1,2}, Michael Leonard¹, Seth Westra¹

¹*School of Civil, Environmental and Mining Engineering, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia*

²*Thuyloi University, Hanoi, Vietnam*

Email: lephuongdong_tb@tlu.edu.vn

Keywords: areal reduction factor, asymptotic independence, conditional probability, duration dependence, extreme rainfall, flood probability, inverted max-stable process, joint probability, spatially dependent Intensity-Duration-Frequency;

Abstract

Conventional flood risk methods typically focus on estimation at a single location, which ~~is~~ can be inadequate for civil infrastructure systems such as road or railway infrastructure. This is because rainfall extremes are spatially dependent, so that to understand overall system risk it is necessary to assess the interconnected elements of the system jointly. For example, when designing evacuation routes it is necessary to understand the risk of one part of the system failing given that another region is flooded or exceeds the level at which evacuation becomes necessary. Similarly, failure of any single part of a road section (e.g., a flooded river crossing) may lead to the wider system's failure (i.e. the entire road becomes inoperable). This study demonstrates a spatially dependent Intensity-Duration-Frequency ~~curve~~ framework that can be used to estimate flood risk across multiple catchments, accounting for dependence both in space and across different critical storm durations. The framework is demonstrated via a case study of a highway upgrade, comprising five ~~bridge~~ river crossings ~~where the upstream contributing catchments each have different times of concentration.~~ The results show ~~that substantial differences in~~ conditional and unconditional design ~~flows can differ by a factor of two~~ flow estimates, highlighting the importance of taking an integrated approach. There is also a reduction in the ~~estimated failure probability of the overall system compared with the case of no spatial dependence between storms where each river crossing is treated independently.~~ The results demonstrate the potential uses of

30 spatially dependent Intensity-Duration-Frequency [curvesmethods](#) and suggest the need for more
31 conservative design estimates to take into account conditional risks.

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Methods for quantifying the flood risk of civil infrastructure systems such as road and rail networks
34 require considerably more information compared to traditional methods that focus on flood risk at a
35 point. For example, the design of evacuation routes requires the quantification of the risk that one part
36 of the system will fail at the same time that another region is flooded or exceeds the level at which
37 evacuation becomes necessary. Similarly, a railway route may become impassable if any of a number
38 of bridges are submerged, such that the ‘failure probability’ of that route becomes some aggregation of
39 the failure probabilities of each individual section. Successful estimation of flood risk in these systems
40 therefore requires recognition both of the networked nature of the civil infrastructure system across a
41 spatial domain, as well as the spatial and temporal structure of flood-producing mechanisms (e.g. ~~storms~~
42 ~~and extreme rainfall) that can lead to system failure (e.g., Leonard et al. (2014), Seneviratne et al.~~
43 ~~(2012), Zscheischler et al. (2018)~~ storms and extreme rainfall) that can lead to system failure (e.g.,
44 Leonard et al. (2014), Seneviratne et al. (2012), Zscheischler et al. (2018)).

45 One way to estimate such flood probabilities is to directly use information contained in historical
46 streamflow data. For example, annual maximum streamflow at two locations might be assumed to
47 follow a bivariate generalized extreme value distribution (~~Favre et al., 2004; Wang, 2001; Wang et al.,~~
48 ~~2009~~) (Favre et al., 2004; Wang, 2001; Wang et al., 2009), which can then be used to estimate both
49 conditional probabilities (e.g. the probability that one river is flooded given that the other river level
50 exceeds a specified threshold) and joint probabilities (e.g. the probability that one or both rivers are
51 flooded). Several frameworks have been demonstrated based directly on streamflow observations,
52 including functional regression (~~Requena et al., 2018~~) (Requena et al., 2018), multisite copulas (~~Renard~~
53 ~~and Lang, 2007~~) (Renard and Lang, 2007), and spatial copulas (~~Durocher et al., 2016~~) (Durocher et al.,
54 2016). However, ~~this paper focuses on rainfall-based methods, as~~ in many instances continuous
55 streamflow data are unavailable or insufficient at the locations of interest, or the catchment conditions
56 have changed such that historical streamflow records as unrepresentative of likely future risk. ~~For these~~
57 ~~situations, rainfall-based methods are often more appropriate.~~

58 ~~To overcome common limitations~~ There are two primary classes of streamflow data, rainfall-based
59 ~~approaches are commonly used. One method~~ methods to estimate flood probability. The first uses
60 continuous rainfall data (either historical or generated) to compute continuous streamflow data using a
61 rainfall-runoff model (Boughton and Droop, 2003; Cameron et al., 1999; He et al., 2011; Hegnauer et
62 al., 2014; Pathiraja et al., 2012) He et al., 2011; Hegnauer et al., 2014; Pathiraja et al., 2012), with flood
63 risk then estimated based on the simulated streamflow time series. This method is computationally
64 intensive and given the challenge of reproducing a wide variety of statistics across many scales, can
65 have difficulties in modelling the dependence of extremes. Most spatial rainfall models operate at the
66 daily timescale (Bárdossy and Pegram, 2009; Baxevani and Lennartsson, 2015; Bennett et al., 2016b;
67 Hegnauer et al., 2014; Kleiber et al., 2012; Rasmussen, 2013) Hegnauer et al., 2014; Kleiber et al., 2012;
68 Rasmussen, 2013), whereas many catchments respond at sub-daily sub-daily timescales. ~~The~~ This is
69 likely to be because the capacity of space-time rainfall models to simulate the statistics of sub-daily
70 rainfall remains a challenging research problem (Leonard et al., 2008) (Leonard et al., 2008). ~~One,~~
71 although one approach is to exploit the relative abundance of data at the daily scale, then apply a
72 downscaling model to reach sub-daily sub-daily scales (Gupta and Tarboton, 2016) (Gupta and Tarboton,
73 2016). Continuous simulation is receiving ongoing attention and increasing application, yet there
74 remain limitations when applying these models in many practical contexts.

75 ~~A~~ The second rainfall-based approach method proceeds by applying probability calculations on rainfall,
76 to construct 'Intensity-Duration-Frequency' (IDF) curves, which are then translated to a runoff event
77 of equivalent probability via either via empirical models such as the rational method to estimate peak
78 flow rate (Kuichling, 1889; Mulvaney, 1851) (Kuichling, 1889; Mulvaney, 1851), or via event-based
79 rainfall-runoff models that are able to simulate the full flood hydrograph (Boyd et al., 1996; Chow et
80 al., 1988; Laurenson and Mein, 1997) Laurenson and Mein, 1997). Regional frequency analysis is one
81 type of method to estimate IDF curves values, where the precision of at-site estimates is improved by
82 pooling data from sites in the surrounding region (Hosking and Wallis, 1997) (Hosking and Wallis,
83 1997). These methods can be combined with spatial interpolation methods to estimate parameters for
84 any ungauged location of interest (Carreau et al., 2013). To determine an effective mean depth of rainfall

85 over a catchment with the same exceedance probability as at a gauge location, the pointwise estimate
86 of extreme rainfall is multiplied by an areal reduction factor (ARF) (Ball et al., 2016). However, such
87 methods do not account for information on the spatial dependence of extreme rainfall—whether for a
88 single storm duration, or for the more complex case of different durations across a region (Bernard,
89 1932; Koutsoyiannis et al., 1998). The lack of dependence underlying
90 independence assumption prevents these approaches from being applied to estimate conditional or joint
91 flood risk at multiple points in a catchment or across several catchments, as would be required for a
92 civil infrastructure system.

93 Although multivariate approaches can be tailored to estimate conditional and joint probabilities of
94 extreme rainfall for specific situations (e.g., Kao and Govindaraju (2008), Wang et al. (2010), Zhang and Singh (2007)), the
95 development of a unified methodology that integrates with existing IDF-based flood estimation
96 approaches remains elusive. This is particularly challenging given that it is not only necessary to
97 preserve account for dependence of rainfall across space, but also to account for dependence across
98 storm burst durations, as different parts of the system may be vulnerable to different critical duration
99 storm events. To this end, max-stable process theory has been demonstrated to represent storm-level
100 dependence (de Haan, 1984; Schlather, 2002) and used to calculate
101 conditional probabilities for a spatial domain (Padoan et al., 2010). Copulas
102 including the extremal-t copula (Demarta and McNeil, 2005), and the
103 Husler-Reiss copula (Hüsler and Reiss, 1989) have also been used to model
104 rainfall dependence.
105

106 This study applies a max-stable approach with an emphasis on practical flood estimation problems:

107 1. The approach needs to account for not only the spatial dependence of
108 rainfall ‘events’ of a single duration, but also the dependence across multiple durations. This was
109 addressed by Le et al. (2018b), who linked the max-stable model of Brown and Resnick (1977) with
110 the duration-dependent model of Koutsoyiannis et al. (1998), to create a model that could be used to
111 reflect dependencies between nearby catchments of different sizes.

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112 ~~1. Given that often the interest is in rare flood events, the model needs to capture appropriate~~The
113 ~~spatial dependence of rainfall ‘events’ both for single durations, and also across multiple~~
114 ~~different durations. This was addressed by Le et al. (2018b), who linked a max-stable model~~
115 ~~with the duration-dependent model of Koutsoyiannis et al. (1998), to create a model that could~~
116 ~~be used to reflect dependencies between nearby catchments of different sizes.~~

117 2. ~~The~~ asymptotic properties of spatial dependence as the events become increasingly extreme,
118 ~~given the focus of many flood risk estimation methods on rare flood events.~~ Recent evidence is
119 emerging that rainfall has an asymptotically independent characteristic (~~Le et al., 2018a;~~
120 ~~Thibaud et al., 2013~~)(Le et al., 2018a; Thibaud et al., 2013), which means that the level of the
121 rainfall’s dependence reduces with an increasing return period (~~Wadsworth and Tawn,~~
122 ~~2012~~)(Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012). The requirement of asymptotic independence indicates
123 that inverted max-stable models are preferable over max-stable models.

124 This study adapts the methods developed by ~~Le et al. (2018b)~~Le et al. (2018b) to inverted max-stable
125 models to derive spatially-dependent IDF ~~curves~~estimates and ARFs as the basis for transforming
126 rainfall into flood flows. The approach is demonstrated on a highway system spanning 20 km with five
127 separate ~~bridge crossings, and with the contributing catchment at each crossing having a different time~~
128 ~~of concentration-river crossings.~~

129 The case study is designed to address two related questions: (i) “What flood flow needs to be used to
130 design a bridge that will fail ~~on average~~ only once on average every M times (~~e.g., $M = 10$ for a 10-~~
131 ~~year event) given~~ that a neighbouring catchment is flooded?”; and (ii) “What is the probability that the
132 overall system fails given that each bridge is designed to a specific exceedance probability event (e.g.,
133 the 1% annual exceedance probability event)?” The method for resolving these questions represents a
134 new ~~paradigm in which~~approach to estimate flood risk for engineering design, by focusing attention on
135 the risk of the entire system, rather than the risk of individual system elements in isolation.

136 In the remainder of the paper, Section 2 emphasises the need for spatially dependent IDF
137 ~~curves~~estimates in flood risk design, followed by Section 3 which outlines the case study and data used.
138 Section 4 explains the ~~methodology~~implementation of the framework, including a method for analysing

139 the spatial dependence of extreme rainfall across different durations. ~~It also includes an algorithm with~~
140 ~~which to use that information in estimating the conditional and joint probabilities of floods. The results,~~
141 ~~and a discussion on the behaviour of flood~~ Results on the behaviour of floods due to the spatial and
142 duration dependence of rainfall extremes, are provided in Section 5. Conclusions and
143 ~~recommendations~~ discussion follow in Section 6.

144 **2. The need for spatially dependent IDF ~~curves~~ estimates in flood risk estimation**

145 The main limitation of conventional methods of flood risk estimation is that they isolate bursts of
146 rainfall and break the dependence structure of extreme rainfall. Figure 1 demonstrates a traditional
147 process of estimating at-site extreme rainfall for two locations (gauge 1, gauge 2) and three durations
148 (1, 3, and 5 hr) (~~Stedinger et al., 1993~~) (Stedinger et al., 1993). The process first involves extracting the
149 extreme burst of rainfall for each site, duration and year from the continuous rainfall data, and then
150 fitting a probability distribution (such as the Generalised Extreme Value (GEV) distribution) to the
151 extracted data. Figure 1 demonstrates that, through the process of converting the continuous rainfall
152 data to a series of discrete rainfall ‘bursts’, this process breaks ~~both~~ the dependence both with respect
153 to duration and space. Firstly, the duration dependence is broken by extracting each duration separately,
154 whereas for the hypothetical storm in Fig. 1 it is clear that the annual maxima from some of the extreme
155 bursts come from the same storm. Secondly, the spatial dependence is broken because each site is
156 analysed independently. Again, for the hypothetical storm of Fig. 1 it can be seen that the 5 hr storm
157 has occurred at the same time across the two catchments, and this information is lost in the subsequent
158 probability distribution curves. Lastly, there is cross-dependence in space and duration. For example,
159 the 1 hr extreme from gauge 2 occurs at the same time as the 5 hr extreme from gauge 1. This may be
160 relevant if there are two catchments with times of concentration matching 1 hr and 5 hr respectively,
161 which can arise where catchments are neighbouring or nested.

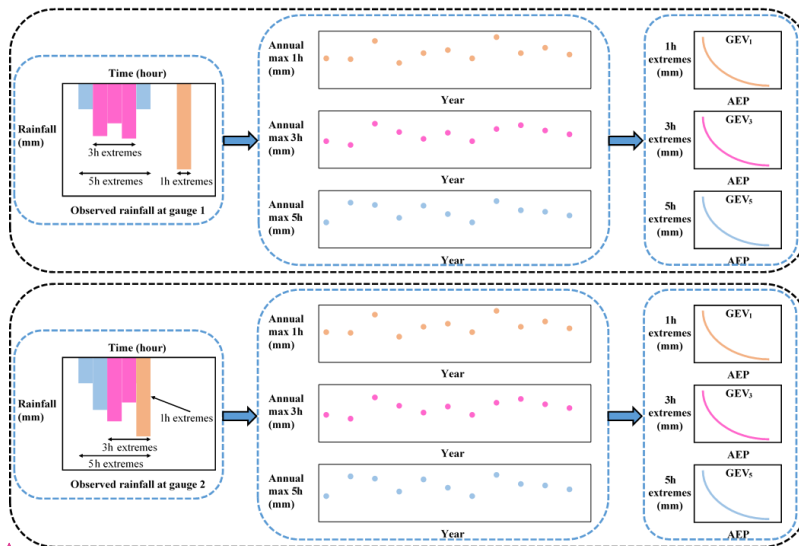
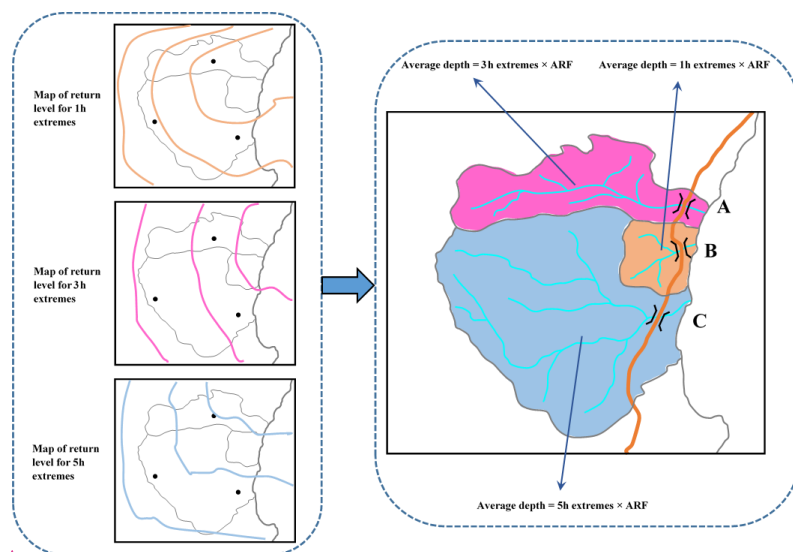


Figure 1. Illustration of process to estimate rainfall extremes for each individual location in conventional flood risk approach, the upper panel is for gauge 1 and the lower panel is for gauge 2.

Having obtained the IDF [curves/estimates](#) for individual locations in Fig. 1, the next step is commonly to convert this to spatial IDF maps by interpolating results between gauged locations. Figure 2 shows hypothetical IDF [curves/maps](#) from individual sites, with a separate spatial contour map usually provided for each storm burst duration. In a conventional application the respective maps are used to estimate the magnitude of extreme rainfall over catchments for a specified time of concentration. The IDF [curves/estimates](#) are combined with an areal reduction factor (ARF) to determine the volume of rainfall over a region (since rainfall is not simultaneously extreme at all locations over the region). However, because the spatial dependence was broken in the [IDF analysis-of-IDF-curves](#), the [ARF/ARFs](#) come from a separate analysis and are an attempt to correct for the broken spatial relationship within a catchment ([Bennett et al., 2016a](#)). Lastly, the rainfall volume over the catchment is combined with a temporal pattern ([i.e. the distribution of the rainfall hyetograph within a single 'storm burst'](#)) and input to a runoff model to simulate flood-flow at a catchment's outlet. Where catchment flows can be considered independently this process has been acceptable for conventional design, but because this

178 process does not account for dependence across durations and across a region, it is not possible to
179 address problems that span multiple catchments, as with civil infrastructure systems.

180



181

182 **Figure 2.** Illustration of map of return level and how to use it in estimating flood flow in conventional flood risk estimates
183 approach.

184 The process in Fig. 1 breaks out the dependence of the observed rainfall, which makes the conventional
185 approach unable to analyse the dependence of flooding at two or more separate locations. Instead, this
186 paper advocates for spatially dependent IDF curves which estimates that are developed by retaining the
187 dependence of observed rainfall in the estimation of extremal rainfall. By applying spatially dependent
188 IDF curves estimates to a rainfall-runoff model, it becomes possible to represent the dependence of
189 flooding between separate locations can be achieved.

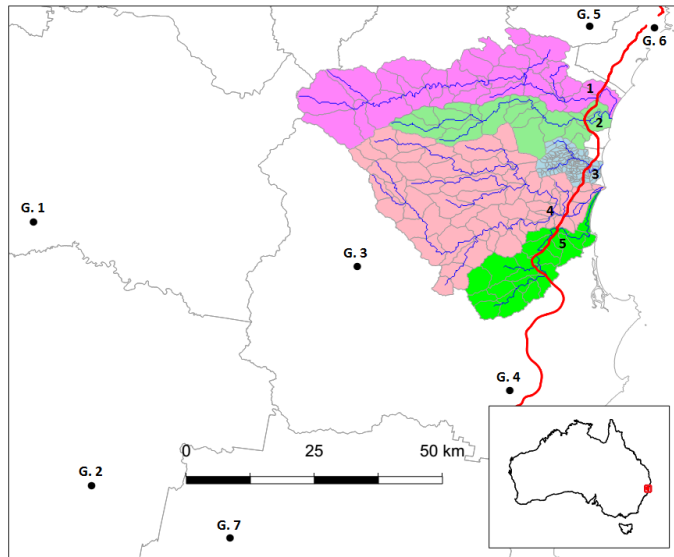
190 3. Case study and data

191 The region chosen for the case study is in the mid north coast region of New South Wales, Australia.
192 This region has been the focus of a highway upgrade project and has an annual average daily traffic
193 volume on the order of 15,000 vehicles along the existing highway. The upgrade traverses a series of

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194 coastal foothills and floodplains for a total length of approximately 20 km. The project's major river
195 crossings consist of extensive floodplains with some marsh areas.

196 The case study has five main catchments that are numbered in sequence in Fig. 3: (1) Bellinger, (2)
197 Kalang River, (3) Deep Creek, (4) Nambucca and (5) Warrell Creek. The area and time of concentration
198 of these catchments is summarised in Table 1, with the latter estimated using the ratio of the flow path
199 length and average flow velocity (SKM, 2011)(SKM, 2011). The Deep Creek catchment has a time of
200 concentration of 8.3 hr, while the other four catchments have much longer times of concentration,
201 ranging from 27.8 to 38.9 hr. ~~These require the estimates of-~~The differing durations indicate that it is
202 ~~necessary to consider~~ spatial dependence across ~~different-this range of~~ durations ~~of rainfall extremes-~~
203 ~~Although the to estimate joint and conditional flood risk. The~~ spatial dependence across rainfall
204 durations ~~would be~~ expected to be lower than across a single duration, since short- and long-rain
205 events are often driven by different meteorological mechanisms (Zheng et al., 2015)(Zheng et al., 2015);
206 ~~it is nonetheless likely that-~~ However some ~~level of~~ spatial dependence ~~would exist and need is still~~
207 ~~likely to be integrated into the risk calculations. This is particularly of relevance~~present, given that
208 extremal rainfall in ~~this~~the region is strongly associated with 'east coast low' systems off the eastern
209 coastline, whereby extreme hourly rainfall bursts are often embedded in heavy multi-day rainfall events.



210

211 **Figure 3.** Map of the case study in New South Wales, Australia. The black dots indicate the rainfall gauges (G. 1 to G. 7),
 212 the red line indicates the Pacific Highway upgrade project, and the blue lines indicate the main river network. The numbers
 213 from one to five indicate the locations of the main river crossings.

214

Table 1. Summary of ~~properties for case study~~ catchments ~~in the case study~~ properties .

No.	Catchment	Area (ha km ²)	Raw time Time of concentration (hour)
1	Bellinger	77150772	37
2	Kalang River	34140341	33
3	Deep Creek	918092	8
4	Nambucca (upper)	1020402015	38
5	Warrell Creek	29440294	27

215 The black circles in Fig. 3 represent the sub-daily rain stations used for this study. There were ~~7~~seven
 216 sub-daily stations selected, with 35 years of record in common for the whole region. The data was
 217 available at a 5 minute interval and aggregated to longer durations. For convenience in comparing the
 218 times of concentration between the catchments, this study assumes a time of concentration of 9 hr for
 219 the Deep Creek catchment, while identical times of concentration of 36 hr are assumed for the other
 220 four catchments.

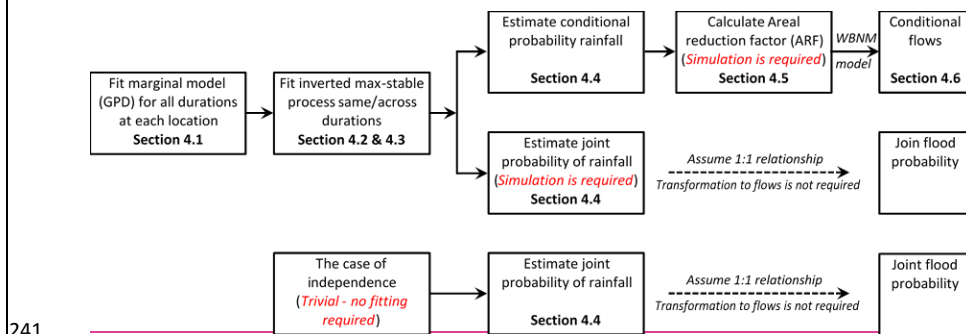
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222 **4. Methodology**

223 This section provides describes the method used to estimate the conditional and joint probabilities of
 224 floodstreamflow for civil infrastructure systems based on rainfall extremes, which is explained
 225 according to with the sequence of steps shown illustrated in Fig. 4. First, the 4. The overall aim is to
 226 estimate rainfall exceedance probabilities and corresponding flow estimates that account for
 227 dependence across multiple catchments. The generalized Pareto distribution (GPD) is used as the
 228 marginal distribution to fit to observed rainfall for all duration durations at each locations location
 229 (Section 4.1). After that An extremal dependence model is required to evaluate conditional and joint
 230 probabilities. Here, an inverted max-stable process is introduced and then used with dependence not
 231 only in space but also in duration (Section 4.2). The fitted to rainfall extremes of identical or different
 232 durations (Sections 4.2 & 4.3). The conditional and joint probabilities model is evaluated in a range of
 233 rainfall are then estimated in Section 4.4, which is followed by contexts, including the simulation to
 234 calculate construction of joint and conditional return level maps. The derivation of areal reduction factor
 235 (ARF) in factors and joint rainfall estimates are made with the assistance of simulations based on the
 236 fitted model (Section 4.5.3). An event-based rainfall-runoff model is employed in Section 4.6 to
 237 transform conditional rainfall to conditional extremal design rainfalls to corresponding flows. With an
 238 assumption that there is a one to one correspondence between rainfall intensity and flow rate, the joint
 239 flood probability for the case study is equal to the joint probability of rainfall. An analysis for the
 240 independent model (the case of complete independence) is also implemented for comparison.



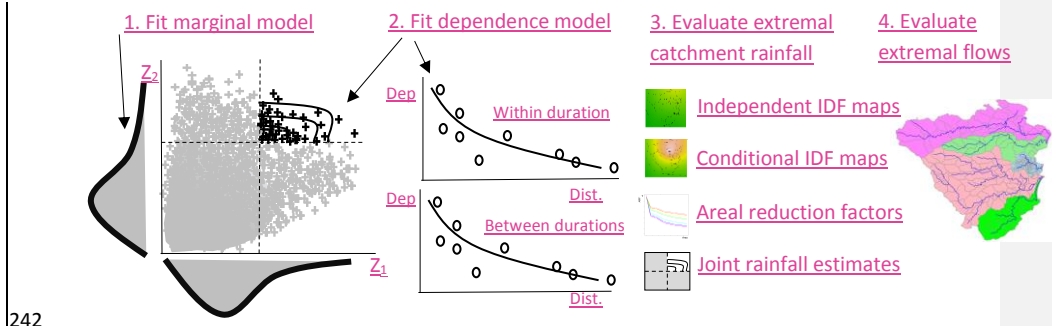


Figure 4. The flow chart for the overall methodology.

4.1. Marginal model for rainfall

This study defines extremes as those greater than some threshold u . For large u , the distribution of Y conditional on $Y > u$ may be approximated by the generalized Pareto distribution (GPD) (Pickands, 1975; Davison and Smith, 1990; Thibaud et al., 2013; Thibaud et al., 2013):

$$G(y) = 1 - \left\{ 1 + \frac{\xi(y-u)}{\sigma_u} \right\}^{-1/\xi}, \quad y > u, \quad (1)$$

defined on $\{y: 1 + \xi(y-u)/\sigma_u > 0\}$ where $\sigma_u > 0$ and $-\infty < \xi < +\infty$ are scale and shape parameters, respectively. The probability that a level y is exceeded is $\Phi_u\{1 - G(y)\}$, where $\Phi_u = \Pr(Y > u)$.

The selection of the appropriate threshold u involves a trade-off between bias and variance. A threshold that is too low leads to bias because the GPD approximation is poor. A threshold too high leads to high variance because of a small number of excesses. Two diagnostic tests are used to determine the appropriate threshold u : the mean residual life plot and the parameter estimate plot (Coles, 2001; Davison and Smith, 1990). These methods use the stability property of a GPD, so that if a GPD is valid for all excesses above u , then excesses of a threshold greater than u should also follow a GPD. Detailed guidance of these methods can be found in (Coles et al., 2001). To construct IDF maps across the region, the parameters of the GPD are interpolated across the region using a thin plate spline with covariates of longitude and latitude. Though more detailed modelling of covariates could be used to improve

estimates (Le et al. 2018b), the interpolation used here is sufficient for demonstrating the overall method.

4.2. Dependence model for spatial rainfall

Consider rainfall as a stationary stochastic process Z_i associated with a location x_i and a region of interest-specific duration (the notation for the stochastic process is simplified from $Z(x_i)$ to Z_i). Without loss of generality it can be assumed that the margins of Z have a unit Fréchet distribution. An important property of dependence in the extremes is whether or not two variables are likely/unlikely to co-occur as the extremes become rarer, as this can significantly influence the estimate of frequency for flood events of large magnitude. This is referred to as asymptotic dependence/independence, respectively. For the case of asymptotic independence, the dependence structure becomes weaker as the extremal threshold increases, which is formally defined as $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} P\{Z_1 > z | Z_2 > z\} = 0$ for all $x_1 \neq x_2$. The spatial extent of a rainfall event with asymptotically independent extremes will diminish as its rarity increases.

An example of This study uses an asymptotically independent model is, of which there are multiple types including the Gaussian copula (Davison et al., 2012) and inverted max-stable processes (Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012)(Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012). A general description of all continuous This study uses an inverted Brown-Resnick max-stable processes that have standard exponential margins on a spatial domain X is

$$\tilde{\Omega}(x) = \min_{k \geq 1} U_k / W_k, \quad x \in X, \quad (2)$$

where U_k are points of a unit Poisson process on $(0, \infty)$ and the $W_k(x)$ are independent replicas of a continuous, non-negative stochastic process $W(x)$ in the spatial domain X , with $E\{W(x)\} = 1$ for all $x \in X$.

It is convenient to work with a simple inverted max-stable process with unit Fréchet margins, because the marginal distribution can easily be transformed back to the GPD scale. To transform the process $\tilde{\Omega}(x)$ to unit Fréchet margins, the following transformation is used:

$$\Omega(x) = \frac{1}{\log\{1 - e^{-\hat{\Omega}(x)}\}}, \quad x \in X, \quad (3)$$

then $\Omega(x)$ is an asymptotically independent process with unit Fréchet margins.

From Eq. (2), different models for W give different inverted max-stable processes. There are two popular and easily simulated classes of model for the inverted max-stable processes: the Brown-Resnick model (Asadi et al., 2015; Huser and Davison, 2013; Kabluchko et al., 2009; Oesting et al., 2017; Huser and Davison, 2013; Kabluchko et al., 2009; Oesting et al., 2017), and extremal-t model (Opitz, 2013). This study uses the Brown-Resnick form of equations from the family of an inverted max-stable process because Le et al. (2018a) showed it has better performance than the extremal-t model, based on a performance evaluation summarised in Le et al. (2018a).

4.3. Fitting the dependence model

One simple way to calibrate dependence models is to fit them to data by matching a suitable statistic.

The dependence structure of the inverted max-stable process is represented by the pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient (Ledford and Tawn, 1996)(Ledford and Tawn, 1996).

For a generic continuous process Z_i for a given duration and associated with a specific location x_{i_1} the empirical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient η for each pair of locations (x_1, x_2) is

$$\eta(x_1, x_2) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log P\{Z_2 > y\}}{\log P\{Z_1 > y, Z_2 > y\}} \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log P\{Z_2 > z\}}{\log P\{Z_1 > z, Z_2 > z\}}. \quad (42)$$

The value of $\eta \in (0, 1]$ indicates the level of extremal dependence between Z_1 and Z_2 (Coles et al., 1999), with lower values indicating lower dependence. An example of how to calculate the residual tail dependence coefficient is provided in Appendix A for a sample dataset.

To estimate the dependence structure of an inverted max-stable model, the theoretical residual tail dependence coefficient function is usually fitted to its empirical counterpart. Here the residual tail dependence coefficient function is assumed to only depend on the Euclidean distance between two locations $h = \|x_1 - x_2\|$. The theoretical residual tail dependence coefficient function for the inverted Brown-Resnick model is given as:

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$$\eta(h) = \frac{1}{2\Phi\left\{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma(h)}{2}}\right\}}, \quad (53)$$

where Φ is the standard normal cumulative distribution function, h is the distance between two locations, and $\gamma(h)$ belongs to the class of variograms $\gamma(h) = \|h\|^\beta/q$ for $q > 0$ and $\beta \in (0,2)$. The model is fitted to the empirical residual tail dependence coefficient by modifying parameters q and β until the sum of squared errors is minimized.

In the case that extreme rainfall at locations x_1 and x_2 are of identical duration (i.e. both 36 hr), then the inverted max-stable process is fitted to the observations by minimizing the sum of the squared errors of the residual tail dependence coefficients. This information can be directly applied to the case where two catchments have a similar time of concentration owing to their similar shape and size. However, there are many instances when two catchments of interest will have differing times of concentration; in particular, when the extreme rainfall at location x_1 and x_2 are of different durations (e.g., 36 hr and 9 hr), the dependence is less than the case of 36 hr and 36 hr. This observation is evident when considering the special case of a single location, i.e. when the extremes are of the same point is considered twice duration. For example, at a distance of $h = 0$. For the case where single location ($h = 0$), when the duration is the same, the rainfall values are identical and have perfect dependence, but when the duration of extremes are different the values are not identical and the dependence is less. Therefore, an adjustment needs to be made to ensure that the theoretical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient function suitably represents the observed pairwise residual tail dependence coefficients for the case of when extreme rainfalls of have different durations.

Following Le et al. (2018b) Le et al. (2018b), an adjusted approach is used by adding a nugget to the variogram as:

$$\gamma_{ad}(h) = h^\beta/q + c(D - d)/d, \quad (64)$$

where h , β , and q are the same as those in Eq. (53); d is the duration (in hours); $0 < d \leq D$, where D is the maximum duration of interest (e.g. $D = 36$ hr for the case study described in this paper); and c is a parameter to adjust dependence according to duration. This adjustment is intended to

335 condition the behaviour of shorter duration extremes on a D -hour extreme of α -specified magnitude. It
 336 is constructed to reflect the fact that when compared to a D -hour extreme, a shorter duration results in
 337 less extremal dependence. Cases involving conditioning of longer periods on shorter periods (such as a
 338 36 hr extreme given a 9 hr extreme has occurred) can also use the relationship in Eq. (64), but with
 339 different parameter values.

340 To fit the inverted max-stable process for all pairs of durations at locations x_1 and x_2 (i.e. 36 hr and 12
 341 hr, 36 hr and 9 hr, 36 hr and 6 hr, 36 hr and 2 hr, 36 hr and 1 hr), the theoretical pairwise residual tail
 342 dependence coefficient function in Eq. (53) is used with the adjusted variogram from Eq. (64) where
 343 the parameters β and q are first obtained from the fitted results of the case of identical 36 hr durations
 344 at location x_1 and x_2 . The parameter c is obtained by a least square fit of the residual tail dependence
 345 coefficient across all durations.

346 **4.4. Estimate 3. Simulation based estimation of conditional and joint probabilities of rainfall**
 347 **extremes**

348 The dependence model specification in the previous section enables the calculation of joint and
 349 conditional probability $P\{Z_2 > z_2 | Z_1 > z_1\}$ is obtained from the bivariate inverted max-stable process
 350 cumulative distribution function (CDF) in unit Fréchet margins (Thibaud et al., 2013), which is given
 351 as:

$$352 \quad P\{Z_1 \leq z_1, Z_2 \leq z_2\} = 1 - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{g_1}\right\} - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{g_2}\right\} + \exp[-V\{g_1, g_2\}], \quad (7)$$

353 where $g_x = 1/\log(1 - \exp(-1/z_x))$, $g_y = 1/\log(1 - \exp(-1/z_y))$, and the exponent measure
 354 V (Padoan et al., 2010) is defined as:

$$355 \quad V\{g_1, g_2\} = -\frac{1}{g_1} \Phi\left\{\frac{a}{2} + \frac{1}{a} \log \frac{g_2}{g_1}\right\} - \frac{1}{g_2} \Phi\left\{\frac{a}{2} + \frac{1}{a} \log \frac{g_1}{g_2}\right\}. \quad (8)$$

356 In Eq. (8), Φ is the standard normal cumulative distribution function, $a = \sqrt{2\gamma_{\text{unit}}(h)}$ with $\gamma_{\text{unit}}(h)$ is
 357 the variograms that was mentioned in the explanation of Eq. (6).

358 ~~In unit Fréchet margins, the relationship between the probabilities (Appendix B). Therefore, in addition~~
 359 ~~to traditional IDF return level z maps that are based on independence between locations and the return~~
 360 ~~period T is given as $z = -1/\log(1 - 1/T)$, and the conditional probability for the max stable process~~
 361 ~~can then be estimated durations, it is possible to account for the coincidence of rainfall within the region.~~
 362 ~~Current design procedures using:~~

363 ~~$P\{Z_2 > z_2 | Z_1 > z_1\} = T_1 \left[\frac{1}{T_1} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{z_2}\right) + P\{Z_1 \leq z_1, Z_2 \leq z_2\} \right]$, (9 IDF estimates are event-~~
 364 ~~based and rely on ancillary steps to reconstruct elements of the design storm that were.)~~

365 ~~where T_1 is the return period corresponding to the return level z_1 .~~

366 ~~The joint probability for independent variables is broken down as the product of the marginals. The~~
 367 ~~probability that there is at least one location that has an extreme event exceeding a given threshold for~~
 368 ~~the case that all of events are independent can be calculated based on the addition rule for the union of~~
 369 ~~probabilities, as:~~

370
$$P(Z_1 > z_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } Z_N > z_N) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(Z_i > z_i) - \sum_{i < j} P(Z_i > z_i, Z_j > z_j) + \dots$$

371
$$+ (-1)^{N-1} P(Z_1 > z_1, \dots, Z_N > z_N), \quad (10)$$

372 ~~where N is the number of locations, and $P(Z_1 > z_1, \dots, Z_N > z_N) = P(Z_1 > z_1) \dots P(Z_N > z_N)$,~~
 373 ~~because all of the events are independent.~~

374 ***4.5. Areal reduction factor during the estimation and simulation procedure for spatial rainfall***

375 ~~Before transforming extreme rainfall to flood flow through an event based model, One critical element~~
 376 ~~is the areal reduction factors (factor (ARF), which the dependence model can also be used to estimate.~~
 377 ~~ARFs) were employed are used to make the adjustment of adjust rainfall depth at a point (i.e. such as the~~
 378 ~~centroid of a catchment) for a given return level estimate, to to an effective (mean) depth rainfall over~~
 379 ~~at the catchment with the same equivalent probability of exceedance as the single point (Ball et al., 2016;~~
 380 ~~Le et al., 2018a); Le et al., 2018a). ARFs can be estimated from observed rainfall data, but it is difficult~~
 381 ~~to extrapolate ARFs them for long return periods from observations with just 35 years of record for this~~

382 study. To deal with this difficulty and to analyse the asymptotic behaviour of ARFs, [Le et al. \(2018a\)](#) ~~Le~~
383 [et al. \(2018a\)](#) proposed a framework to simulate ARFs ~~for long return periods by using an~~ [the same](#)
384 ~~inverted-max-stable process, which is applied~~ [model adopted](#) here ~~for durations of 36 and 9 hrs.~~

385 ~~.~~ The simulation procedure ~~for spatial rainfall for a given duration is implemented in~~ [from Le et al.](#)
386 [\(2018a\) is summarised according to](#) two steps. In the first step, the theoretical residual tail dependence
387 coefficient function in Eq. (53) is fitted to observed rainfall for the duration of interest to obtain the
388 variogram parameters $q > 0$ and $\beta \in (0, 2)$. The [inverted](#) Brown-Resnick process ~~with unit Fréchet~~
389 ~~margins is then simulated~~ [is obtained from a simulation of the Brown-Resnick process](#) using the
390 algorithm of [Dombry et al. \(2016\)](#) ~~Dombry et al. (2016)~~ over a spatial domain ~~and the inverted Brown-~~
391 ~~Resnick process with unit Fréchet margins is obtained through Eq. (2) and Eq. (3).~~ In the second step,
392 the simulation in step 1 is transformed from unit Fréchet margins to the rainfall scaled margins ~~(inverse~~
393 ~~transformation of Eq. (B.1) in Appendix B).~~ For rainfall magnitudes above the threshold the generalised
394 Pareto distribution in Eq. (1) is used, and below the threshold the empirical distribution is used. The
395 empirical distributions at ungauged sites are derived from the nearest gauged sites ~~and using~~ [the](#)
396 ~~interpolated~~ response surface ~~(latitude and longitude covariates) to spatially interpolate~~ [of the GPD](#)
397 ~~threshold~~ [parameter](#).

398 An advantage of ~~this~~ [the simulation](#) approach is that it can reflect the proportion of dry days in the
399 empirical distribution by making the simulated rainfall contain zero values ~~(Thibaud et al.~~
400 ~~2013)~~ [\(Thibaud et al., 2013\)](#). Another advantage is that ~~this approach~~ [the use of empirical distributions](#)
401 guarantees that the marginal distributions of simulated rainfall below the threshold ~~matches~~ [match](#) the
402 observed marginal distributions. There may be a drawback ~~of this approach~~ by forcing the simulated
403 rainfall to have the same extremal dependence structure for both parts below and above the threshold,
404 which may not be true for non-extreme rainfall. However, the dependence structure of non-extreme
405 rainfall contributes insignificantly to extreme events ~~(Thibaud et al., 2013)~~ [\(Thibaud et al., 2013\)](#) and is
406 unlikely to affect the results.

407 For calculating ARFs, the simulation is implemented separately for spatial rainfall of 36 and 9 hrs
408 duration. ~~After the simulated spatial rainfall for 36 and 9 hrs are respectively obtained,~~ ARFs are

409 calculated for each duration and different return periods, which can be found in the supplementary
410 material (Fig. S1 and S2). Figure S1 and S2 provide relationships between ARFs and area (in km²) for
411 different return periods for the case study catchments. ~~These relationships are calculated through the~~
412 ~~simulation of simulated using the~~ inverted Brown-Resnick process over equally sized grid points. The
413 relationships are interpolated to obtain the ARFs for each ~~of subcatchments (corresponding to respective~~
414 ~~areas 91 km², 294 km², 341 km², 771 km², subcatchment, 1020 km²). When the interest is in the joint~~
415 ~~probability of rainfall extremes of different durations, the simulation of spatial rainfall should be~~
416 ~~implemented across multiple durations. In this case, each term of the covariance matrix is calculated~~
417 ~~from the dependence structure of the corresponding pair of locations. In detail, the covariance matrix~~
418 ~~of the simulation procedure provided by Dombry et al. (2016) is calculated from the variogram in Eq.~~
419 ~~(6). The covariance element for a pair of locations with the same duration (e.g. 36 and 36 hr) is~~
420 ~~calculated from the variogram of identical durations for 36 and 36 hr. The covariance element for a pair~~
421 ~~of locations with different durations (e.g. 36 and 9 hr) is calculated from the variogram across durations~~
422 ~~for 36 and 9 hr.~~

423 The recommended approach for estimating the overall failure probability of a system is demonstrated
424 by considering a hypothetical traffic system with multiple river crossings at locations. If there is a one-
425 to-one correspondence between extreme rainfall intensity over a catchment and flood magnitude, the
426 overall failure probability will be approximately equal to the probability that there is at least one river
427 crossing whose contributing catchment has rainfall extremes exceeding the design level, which can be
428 estimated using simulations of the spatial rainfall model. Given the different times of concentration in
429 each catchment, the simulation must account for extremes of different durations. Specifically, the
430 covariance matrix of the simulation procedure provided by Dombry et al. (2016) is calculated from the
431 variogram in Eq. (3). The covariance element for a pair of locations with the same duration (e.g. 36 and
432 36 hr) is calculated from the variogram of identical durations for 36 and 36 hr. The covariance element
433 for a pair of locations with different durations, for example 36 and 9 hr, is calculated from the variogram
434 across durations for 36 and 9 hr. A set of 10,000 years simulated rainfall is generated from the fitted
435 model to calculate the overall failure probability of a highway section (Eq. B.5). The process is repeated

436 100 times to estimate the average failure probability, under the assumption that all river crossings of
437 the highway are designed to the same individual failure probability.

438 **4.6.4. Transforming rainfall extremes to flood flow**

439 To estimate flood flow from rainfall extremes, the Watershed Bounded Network Model (WBNM)
440 ([Boyd et al., 1996](#)), is employed ~~in this study.~~ WBNM calculates flood runoff from rainfall hyetographs
441 that represent the relationship between the rainfall intensity and time ([Chow et al., 1988](#)). It divides the
442 catchment into subcatchments, allowing hydrographs to be calculated at various points within the
443 catchment, and allowing the spatial variability of rainfall and rainfall losses to be modelled. It separates
444 overland flow routing from channel routing, allowing changes to either or both of these processes, for
445 example in urbanised catchments. The rainfall extremes are estimated at the centroid of the catchment,
446 and are converted to average spatial rainfall using the simulated ARFs described in Section 4.5 ~~before~~
447 ~~estimation of the rainfall hyetographs.~~ 3. Design rainfall hyetographs are used to convert the rainfall
448 magnitude to absolute values through the duration of a storm following standard design guidance in
449 Australia ([Ball et al., 2016](#)).

450 Hydrological models (WBNM) for the case study area were developed and calibrated in previous
451 studies (~~WMA Water, 2011~~)([WMA Water, 2011](#)). Hydrological model layouts for the Bellinger, Kalang
452 River, Nambucca, Warrell and Deep Creek catchments can be found in the supplementary material (Fig.
453 S3 to S5).

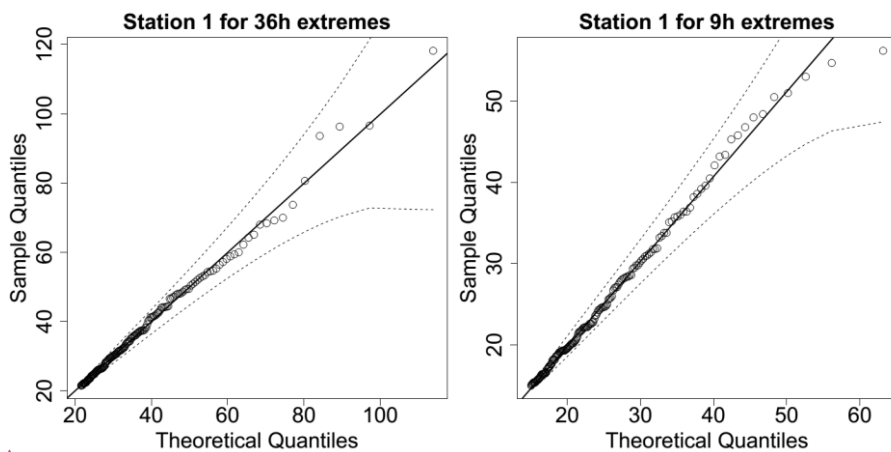
454 **5. Results ~~and discussion~~**

455 **5.1. Evaluation of model for space-duration rainfall process**

456 A GPD with an appropriate threshold was fitted to the observed rainfall data for 36 hr and 9 hr durations,
457 and the Brown-Resnick inverted max-stable process model was calibrated to determine the spatial
458 dependence.

459 Analysis of the rainfall records led to the selection of a threshold of 0.98 for all records as reasonable
460 across the spatial domain and the GPD was fitted to data above the selected threshold. Figure 5 shows
461 QQ plots of the marginal estimates for a representative station for two durations (36 and 9 hr-). Overall

462 the quality of fitted distributions is good and plots for all other stations can be found in the
463 supplementary material (Fig. S6 and S7).



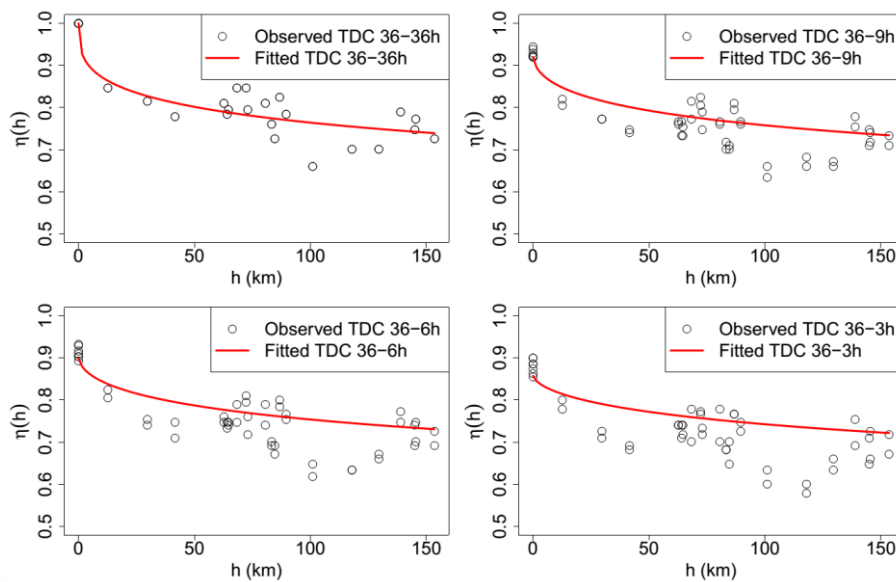
464

465 **Figure 5.** QQ plots for the fitted GPD at one representative station, dotted lines are the 95% confidence bounds, and the
466 solid diagonal line indicates a perfect fit.

467 The inverted max-stable process across different durations was calibrated to determine dependence
468 parameters. The theoretical pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient function between two
469 locations (x_1 and x_2) was calculated based on Eq. (53) and Eq. (64), and the observed pairwise residual
470 tail dependence coefficient η was calculated using Eq. (42). Figure 6 shows the pairwise residual tail
471 dependence coefficients for the Brown-Resnick inverted max-stable process versus distance. The black
472 points are the observed pairwise residual tail dependence coefficients, while the red lines are the fitted
473 pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient functions. A coefficient equal to 1 indicates complete
474 spatial dependence, and a value of 0.5 indicates complete spatial independence. The top-left panel
475 shows the dependence between 36 hr extremes across space, with the distance $h = 0$ corresponding to
476 “complete dependence”. It also shows the dependence decreasing with increasing distance. Figure 6
477 indicates that the model has a reasonable fit to the observed data given the small number of dependence
478 parameters. Although the theoretical coefficient (red line) does not perfectly match at long distances,
479 the main interest for this case study is in short distances, especially including at $h = 0$ for the case of
480 dependence between two different durations at the same location.

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481 The remaining panels of Fig. 6 show the dependence of 36 vs. 9 hr extremes, 36 vs. 6 hr extremes, and
 482 36 vs. 3 hr extremes, with the latter two duration combinations not being used directly in the study but
 483 nonetheless showing the model performance across several durations. As expected, the dependence
 484 levels are weaker compared with 36 vs. 36 hr extremes at the same distance, especially at zero distance.
 485 ~~This is expected, as the dependence at the same site between exceedances at different durations will be~~
 486 ~~lower than between exceedances at the same duration. This is because exceedances of different~~
 487 ~~durations may arise from different storm events (Zheng et al., 2015). This is expected, as extremes of~~
 488 ~~different durations are more likely to arise from different storm events compared to storms of the same~~
 489 ~~duration.~~



490
 491 **Figure 6.** Plots of pairwise residual tail dependence coefficient (TDC) against distance for 36 hr extremes and 36 hr
 492 extremes (top left), for 36 hr extremes and 9 hr extremes (top right), for 36 hr extremes and 6 hr extremes (bottom left), and
 493 for 36 hr extremes and 3 hr extremes (bottom right). The black points are estimated residual tail dependence coefficients for
 494 pairs of sub-daily stations, and the red lines are theoretical residual tail dependence coefficient.

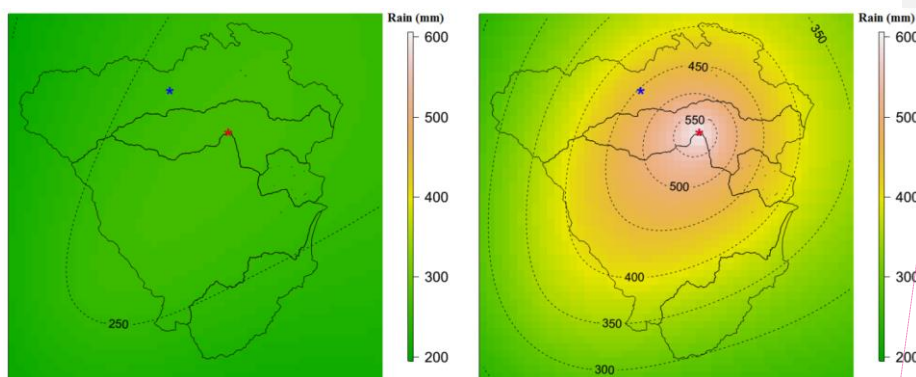
495 **5.2. Estimating conditional rainfall ~~extremes~~return levels and corresponding conditional flows for**
 496 **evacuation route design**

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497 The recommended approach for estimating conditional rainfall extremes is demonstrated by considering
498 a hypothetical evacuation route across location x_2 , given a flood occurs at location x_1 , evaluated using
499 Eq. (9B.4). This approach is applied to a case study of the Pacific Highway upgrade project that contains
500 five main river crossings (from Fig. 3). For evacuation purposes, we need to know “what is the
501 probability that a bridge fails only once on average every M times (e.g., $M = 10$ for ~~one~~ one in 10
502 chance conditional event) ~~that is when a~~ neighbouring bridge is flooded?” This section provides the
503 conditional estimates for two pairs of neighbouring bridges in the case study that have the shortest
504 Euclidean distances, i.e. pairs (x_1, x_2) and (x_2, x_3) . The comparisons of unconditional and conditional
505 maps are given in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8, and the corresponding unconditional and conditional flows are
506 given in Fig. 9. ~~In order to obtain the maps in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8, a thin plate spline regression against~~
507 ~~longitude and latitude was employed to build the response surface for the marginal distribution~~
508 ~~parameters of rainfall at every pixel.~~

509 The left panel of Fig. 7 provides the pointwise 10-year unconditional return level map over the case
510 study area for 36 hr rainfall extremes. The value at the location of interest—the blue star (the centroid
511 of Bellinger catchment)—is around 260 mm. The right panel of Fig. 7 indicates that when accounting
512 for the effect of a 20-year event for 36 hr rainfall extremes happening at the location of the red star (the
513 centroid of Kalang River catchment), the pointwise one in 10 chance conditional return level at the blue
514 star rises to around 453 mm (i.e., 1.74 times the unconditional value).

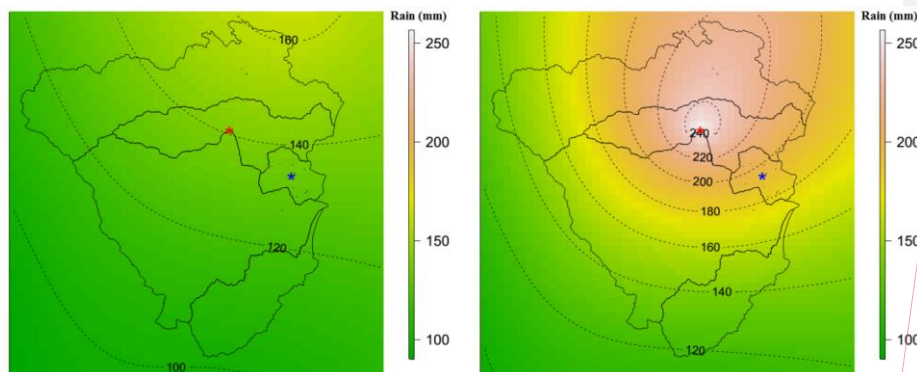


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516 **Figure 7.** Pointwise 10-year unconditional return level map (mm) for 36 hr extremes (left), and pointwise one in 10 chance
517 conditional return level map (mm) for 36 hr extremes given a 20-year event for 36 hr extremes happen at location of the red
518 star for the centroid of Kalang River catchment (right). The colour scales are the same for comparison.

519 Figure 8 provides similar plots to Fig. 7 for another pair of locations having different durations of
520 rainfall extremes due to different times of concentration in each catchment. Here, the location of interest
521 is the centroid of the Deep Creek catchment (the blue star in Fig. 8) and the conditional point is the
522 centroid of the Kalang River catchment (the red star in Fig. 8). The pointwise 10-year unconditional
523 and one in 10 chance conditional return levels at the location of the blue star are 134 mm and 194 mm,
524 respectively. The relative difference between the conditional and unconditional return levels is only
525 1.45 times, compared with 1.74 times for the case in Fig. 7. This is because the pair of locations in Fig.
526 8 has a longer distance than those in Fig. 7, so that the dependence level is weaker. Moreover, the
527 location pair in Fig. 8 was analysed for different durations (between 36 and 9 hr extremes), which has
528 weaker dependence than the case of the equivalent durations in Fig. 7 (between 36 and 36 hr), based on
529 Fig. 6.

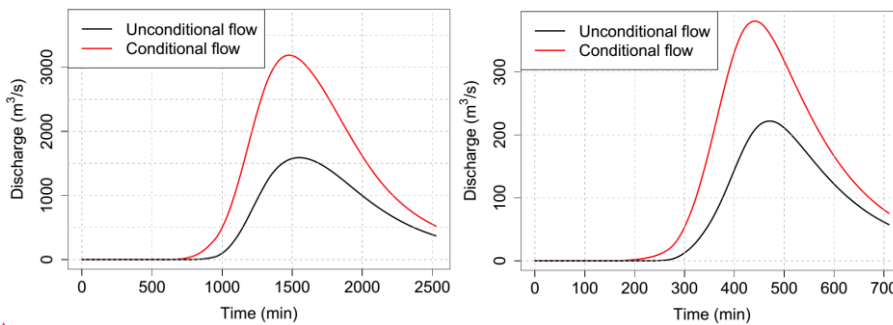


530 **Figure 8.** Pointwise 10-year unconditional return level map (mm) for 9 hr extremes (left), and pointwise one in 10 chance
531 conditional return level map (mm) for 9 hr extremes, given a 20-year event for 36 hr extremes happens at location of the red
532 star for the centroid of the Kalang River catchment (right). The colour scales are the same for comparison.

534 ~~The unconditional and conditional return levels are transformed to flood flows via the hydrological~~
535 ~~model WBNM previously calibrated to each catchment (WMAWater, 2011).~~ The unconditional and

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536 conditional return levels were extracted at the centroid of each main catchment, ~~which and were then~~
 537 converted to the ~~average spatial absolute values of~~ rainfall using ~~an areal reduction factor (ARF). The~~
 538 corresponding ~~ARF and design storm hyetograph. The~~ unconditional and conditional flood flows at the
 539 river crossing in the Bellinger catchment (corresponding to the unconditional and conditional rainfall
 540 extremes in Fig. 7) are given in Fig. 9 (left panel). Similar plots for the river crossing in the Deep Creek
 541 catchment (corresponding to the unconditional and conditional rainfall extremes in Fig. 8) are given in
 542 Fig. 9 (right panel).



543 **Figure 9.** Comparison between conditional flows (red line) and unconditional flows (black line). (left) At the river crossing
 544 in the Bellinger catchment (number 1 in Figure 3): conditional flow caused by a one in 10 chance conditional event for 36
 545 hr rainfall in considering the effect of a 20-year event for 36 hr rainfall occurring at the river crossing in the Kalang River
 546 catchment, and unconditional flow caused by a 10-year unconditional event for 36 hr. (right) At the river crossing in the
 547 Deep Creek catchment (number 3 in Figure 3): conditional flow caused by a one in 10 chance conditional event for 9 hr
 548 rainfall in considering the effect of a 20-year event for 36 hr rainfall occurring at the river crossing in the Kalang River
 549 catchment, and unconditional flow caused by a 10-year unconditional event for 9 hr rainfall.
 550

551 ~~Fig. The-9 presents peak flow for the Bellinger (left panel of Fig. 9 indicates) and Deep Creek (right~~
 552 ~~panel) catchments, indicating that the peak conditional flow at the river crossing in the Bellinger~~
 553 ~~catchment crossings is almost 2.0 and 1.7 times higher than that for the unconditional flow. The time~~
 554 ~~taken to reach to the peaks is the same for both cases. This is because this river crossing is affected by~~
 555 ~~a large region with a long time of concentration (36 hr); the impact of rainfall losses on the hydrograph~~
 556 ~~is insignificant the two catchments, respectively. This difference is a direct result of the conditional~~
 557 ~~relationship being more stringent event having a higher rainfall magnitude than the unconditional~~

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558 ~~relationship. Given event: given~~ that there is an ~~existing~~ extreme event nearby, it is more likely for an
559 extreme event to occur at ~~another a nearby~~ location ~~of interest in the region~~. If a bridge design were to
560 take into account this extra criterion for the purposes of evacuation planning it would require the design
561 to be at a higher level.

562 ~~Shown in the right panel in Fig. 9, the peak of the conditional flow at the river crossing in the Deep~~
563 ~~Creek catchment occurred earlier, and is around 1.7 times higher than that for the unconditional flow.~~
564 ~~This is due to the fact that the river crossing in Deep Creek covers a small region with a short time of~~
565 ~~concentration (9 hr) and the impact of rainfall losses on the hydrograph is significant. Although Fig. 9~~
566 ~~shows a difference in terms of the time taken to reach the peak flows, the two design hydrographs are~~
567 ~~separate and this is not a physical timing difference.~~

568 5.3. Estimating the failure probability of the highway section based on the joint probability of rainfall 569 extremes

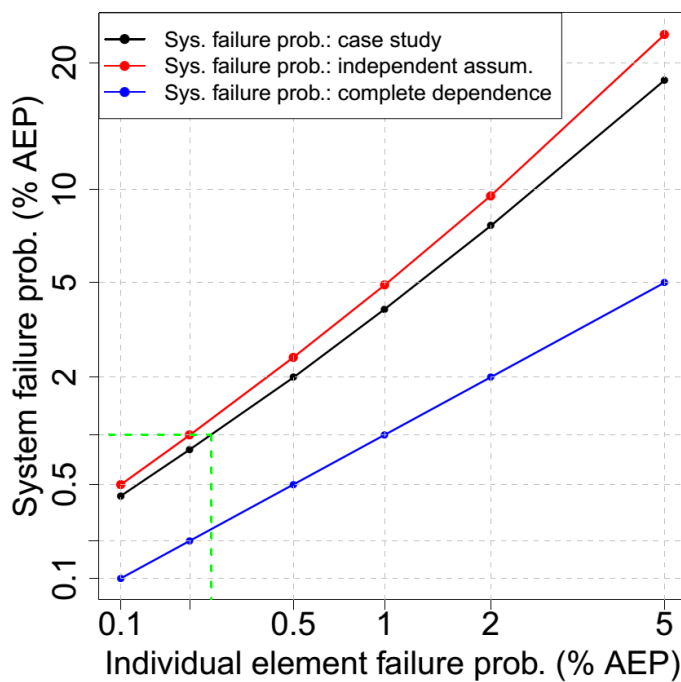
570 ~~The recommended approach for estimating the overall failure probability of a system is demonstrated~~
571 ~~by considering a hypothetical traffic system with multiple river crossings at locations x_1, \dots, x_n . If there~~
572 ~~is a one-to-one correspondence between extreme rainfall intensity over a catchment and flood~~
573 ~~magnitude, the overall failure probability will be approximately equal to the probability that there is at~~
574 ~~least one river crossing whose contributing catchment has rainfall extremes exceeding the design level,~~
575 ~~which can be estimated using a large number of simulations from the spatial rainfall model. This~~
576 ~~approach is applied to the Pacific Highway upgrade project containing five river crossings. A set of~~
577 ~~10,000-year simulated rainfall (Section 4.5) is generated from the fitted model (Section 5.1) to calculate~~
578 ~~the overall failure probability of the highway section. This process is repeated 100 times to estimate the~~
579 ~~average failure probability, under the assumption that all river crossings are designed to the same~~
580 ~~individual failure probability.~~

581 Figure 10 is a plot of the overall failure probability of the highway as a function of the failure probability
582 of each individual river crossing (black). Similar relationships for the cases of complete dependence
583 (blue) and ~~complete~~ independence (red) are also provided for comparison. For the case of complete
584 dependence, when the whole region is extreme at the same time, the overall failure probability of the

585 highway is equal to the individual river crossing failure probability and it represents the best case (the
 586 lowest overall failure probability). The worst case is complete independence where extremes do not
 587 happen together unless by random chance; this means the failure probability of the highway is much
 588 higher than that for individual river crossings. Taking into account the real dependence, there are some
 589 extremes that align and it seems from the Fig. 10 that this is a relatively weak effect. As an example
 590 from Fig. 10, to design the highway with a failure probability of 1% AEP, annual exceedance probability
 591 (AEP), we would have to design each individual river crossing to a much rarer AEP of 0.25% (see green
 592 lines in Fig. 10).

593

594



595

596 **Figure 10.** Relationship between system failure probability and individual element failure probability in % annual
 597 exceedance probability (% AEP). The black colour is for the case study, the red colour is for the case of complete
 598 independence, and the blue colour is for the case of complete dependence. The green lines help to interpolate the individual

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599 element failure probability from a given system failure probability of 1%. Both horizontal axis and vertical axis are
600 constructed at a double log scale for viewing purposes.

601 **6. Discussion and Conclusions**

602 Hydrological design, that is based on IDF ~~curves, estimates~~ has conventionally focussed on ~~individual~~
603 ~~catchments and individual extremes, separate estimation at single locations~~. Such an approach can lead
604 to ~~an underestimation~~ ~~the misspecification~~ of wider system risk of flooding since weather systems
605 exhibit dependence in space ~~and~~ time ~~and across storm durations~~, which can lead to the coincidence of
606 extremes. A number of methods have been developed to address the problem of antecedent moisture
607 within a single catchment, by accounting for the temporal dependence of rainfall at locations of interest
608 through loss parameters or sampling rainfall patterns (~~Rahman et al., 2002~~)(~~Rahman et al., 2002~~).
609 However, there have been fewer methods that account for the spatial dependence of rainfall across
610 multiple catchments, due in part to the complexity of representing the effects of spatial dependence in
611 risk calculations. Different catchments can have different times of concentration, so spatial dependence
612 may also imply the need to consider dependence across different durations of extreme rainfall bursts.

613 Recent and ongoing advances in modelling spatial rainfall extremes provide an opportunity to revisit
614 the scope of hydrological design. Such models include a max-stable model fitted using a Bayesian
615 hierarchical approach (~~Stephenson et al., 2016~~)(~~Stephenson et al., 2016~~), max-stable and inverted max-
616 stable models (~~Nicolet et al., 2017; Padoan et al., 2010; Russell et al., 2016; Thibaud et al., 2013; Westra~~
617 ~~and Sisson, 2011~~)(~~Nicolet et al., 2017; Padoan et al., 2010; Russell et al., 2016; Thibaud et al., 2013;~~
618 ~~Westra and Sisson, 2011~~) and latent-variable Gaussian models (~~Bennett et al., 2016b~~). The ability to
619 simulate rainfall over a region means that hydrological problems need not be confined to individual
620 catchments, but may cover multiple catchments. Civil infrastructure systems such as highways, railways
621 or levees are such examples, since the failure of any one element may lead to overall failure of the
622 system. Alternatively, where there is a network, the failure of one element may have implications for
623 the overall system to accommodate the loss, by considering alternative routes. With models of spatial
624 dependence and duration dependence of extremes, there is a new and improved ability to address these
625 problems explicitly as part of the design methodology.

626 This paper demonstrated an application for evaluating conditional and joint probabilities of flood at
627 different locations. This was achieved with two examples: (i) the design of a river crossing that will fail
628 once on average every M times given that its neighbouring river crossing is flooded; and (ii) estimating
629 the probability that a highway section, which contains multiple river crossings, will fail based on the
630 failure probability of each individual river crossing. Due to the lack of continuous streamflow data and
631 ~~sub-daily~~sub-daily limitations of rain-based continuous simulation, this study used an event-based
632 method of conditional and joint rainfall extremes to estimate the corresponding conditional and joint
633 flood flows. The spatial rainfall was simulated using an asymptotically independent model, which was
634 then used to estimate conditional and joint rainfall extremes. An empirical method was obtained from
635 the framework of ~~Le et al. (2018b)~~Le et al. (2018b) to make an asymptotically independent model—the
636 inverted max-stable process—able to capture the spatial dependence of rainfall extremes across
637 different durations. The fitted residual tail dependence coefficient function showed that the model can
638 capture the dependence for different pairs of durations. For our example, the highest ratio of the one in
639 10 chance conditional event (in considering the effect of a 20-year event rainfall occurring at the
640 conditional location) to the 10-year unconditional event was 1.74, for the two catchments having the
641 strongest dependence (Fig. 7). The corresponding conditional flows were then estimated using a
642 hydrological model WBNM and shown to be strongly related to the ratio of conditional and
643 unconditional rainfall extremes (Fig. 9).

644 The joint probability of rainfall extremes for all catchments and for all possible pairs of catchments in
645 the case study area was estimated empirically from a set of 10,000 years of simulated rainfall extremes,
646 repeated 100 times to estimate the average value. The results showed that there were differences in the
647 failure probability of the highway after taking into account the rainfall dependence, but the effect was
648 not as emphatic as with the case of conditional probabilities. The difference in the failure probability
649 became weaker as the return period increased, which is consistent with the characteristic of
650 asymptotically independent data (~~Ledford and Tawn, 1996; Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012~~)(Ledford and
651 ~~Tawn, 1996; Wadsworth and Tawn, 2012~~). A relationship was demonstrated (Fig. 10) to show how the
652 design of the overall system to a given failure probability requires the design of each individual river

653 crossing to a rarer extremal level than when each crossing is considered in isolation. For the case study
654 example, it would be necessary to design each ~~bridge of the five bridges~~ to a 0.25% AEP event in order
655 to obtain a system failure probability of 1%.

656 There is a need to reimagine the role of intensity-duration-frequency ~~curves-relationships~~.
657 Conventionally they have been developed as maps of the marginal rainfall in a point-wise manner for
658 all locations and for a range of frequencies and durations. The increasing sophistication of mathematical
659 models for extremes, computational power and interactive graphics abilities of online mapping
660 platforms means that analysis of hydrological extremes could significantly expand in scope. With an
661 underlying model of spatial and duration dependence between the extremes, it is not difficult to
662 conceive of digital maps that dynamically transform from the marginal representation of extremes to
663 the corresponding representation conditional extremes after any number of conditions are applied. This
664 transformation is exemplified by the differences between left and right panels in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8.
665 Enhanced IDF maps would enable a very different paradigm of design flood risk estimation, breaking
666 away from analysing individual system elements in isolation ~~to emphasize~~ and instead emphasizing the
667 behaviour of entire system.

668 **Appendix A. Calculation of empirical tail dependence coefficient**

669 To illustrate how Eq. (42) in the manuscript is calculated, consider a set of $n = 10$ observed values at
 670 the two locations: Z_1 and Z_2 (see Table A1). First, Z_1 and Z_2 are converted to empirical cumulative
 671 probability estimates via the Weibull plotting position formula $P = j/(n + 1)$ where j is ranked index
 672 of a data point giving P_1 and P_2 (see Table A1).

673 **Table A1.** Observed data Z_1 and Z_2 and corresponding empirical cumulative probabilities P_1 and P_2 .

Z_1	Z_2	P_1	P_2
5	10	0.455	0.909
9	1	0.818	0.091
1	7	0.091	0.636
2	6	0.182	0.545
10	4	0.909	0.364
3	3	0.273	0.273
8	9	0.727	0.818
6	2	0.545	0.182
4	8	0.364	0.727
7	5	0.636	0.455

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674 Assume that interest is in values above a threshold $u = 0.5$, in other words,
 675 $P\{Z_2 > u\} = P\{P_2 > P_u\} = 0.5$. In this case we have only one pair, at the index
 676 of 7, that satisfy both P_1 and P_2 are greater than $u = 0.5$, thus $P\{Z_1 > u, Z_2 >$
 677 $u\} = P\{P_1 > P_u, P_2 > P_u\} = 1/10 \cdot \{P_1 > P_u, P_2 > P_u\} = 1/10 = 0.1$. The calculation of the empirical
 678 tail dependence coefficient is then

679
$$\eta(x_1, x_2) = \frac{\log P\{Z_2 > u\}}{\log P\{Z_1 > u, Z_2 > u\}} = \frac{\log P\{P_2 > P_u\}}{\log P\{P_1 > P_u, P_2 > P_u\}} = \frac{\log(0.5)}{\log(0.1)} \frac{\log P\{Z_2 > u\}}{\log P\{Z_1 > u, Z_2 > u\}}$$

680
$$= \frac{\log P\{P_2 > P_u\}}{\log P\{P_1 > P_u, P_2 > P_u\}} = \frac{\log(0.5)}{\log(0.1)} = 0.301. \quad (A.1)$$

681

682 Appendix B Estimate of conditional and joint probabilities of rainfall extremes

683 The unit Fréchet transformation is given as

$$z = \begin{cases} \left(\log \left\{ 1 - \Phi_u \left(1 + \frac{\xi(y-u)}{\sigma_u} \right)^{-1/\xi} \right\} \right)^{-1} & y > u, \xi \neq 0 \\ - \left(\log \left\{ 1 - \Phi_u \exp \left(-\frac{y-u}{\sigma_u} \right)^{-1/\xi} \right\} \right)^{-1} & y > u, \xi = 0 \\ - \{ \log F(y_i) \}^{-1} & y \leq u \end{cases} \quad (B.1)$$

685 where y is the original marginal value and z is the Fréchet transformed value and all other parameters
 686 correspond to the GPD specified in Section 4.1. For values below the threshold, F is the empirical
 687 distribution function of y , $F(y_i) = i/(n+1)$ where i is the rank of y_i and n is the total number of data
 688 points.

689 The conditional probability $P\{Z_2 > z_2 | Z_1 > z_1\}$ is obtained from the bivariate inverted max-stable
 690 process cumulative distribution function (CDF) in unit Fréchet margins (Thibaud et al., 2013), which
 691 is given as:

$$P\{Z_1 \leq z_1, Z_2 \leq z_2\} = 1 - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{g_1}\right\} - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{g_2}\right\} + \exp[-V\{g_1, g_2\}], \quad (B.2)$$

693 where $g_1 = -1/\log\{1 - \exp(-1/z_1)\}$ and $g_2 = -1/\log\{1 - \exp(-1/z_2)\}$, and the exponent measure
 694 V (Padoan et al., 2010) is defined as:

$$V\{g_1, g_2\} = -\frac{1}{g_1} \Phi\left\{\frac{a}{2} + \frac{1}{a} \log \frac{g_2}{g_1}\right\} - \frac{1}{g_2} \Phi\left\{\frac{a}{2} + \frac{1}{a} \log \frac{g_1}{g_2}\right\}. \quad (B.3)$$

696 In Eq. (B.3), Φ is the standard normal cumulative distribution function, $a = \sqrt{2\gamma_{ad}(h)}$ with $\gamma_{ad}(h)$ is
 697 the variograms that was mentioned in the explanation of Eq. (3).

698 In unit Fréchet margins, the relationship between the return level z and the return period T (in number
 699 of observations) is given as $z = -1/\log(1 - 1/T)$, and the conditional probability for the max-stable
 700 process can then be estimated using:

$$P\{Z_2 > z_2 | Z_1 > z_1\} = T_1 \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{z_2}\right) + P\{Z_1 \leq z_1, Z_2 \leq z_2\} \right], \quad (B.4)$$

702 where T_1 is the return period (in number of observations for 36 hr rainfall) corresponding to the return
 703 level z_1 . It is also noted that in this paper Z_1 and Z_2 were taken as threshold exceedances, so the return
 704 period T_1 should be in the number of observations, which is equivalent to a $T_1/243$ -year return period
 705 because there are 243 observations for 36 hr rainfall in a year.

706 The probability that there is at least one location that has an extreme event exceeding a given threshold
 707 can be calculated based on the addition rule for the union of probabilities, as:

$$708 \quad P(Z_1 > z_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } Z_N > z_N) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(Z_i > z_i) - \sum_{i < j} P(Z_i > z_i, Z_j > z_j) + \dots$$

$$709 \quad + (-1)^{N-1} P(Z_1 > z_1, \dots, Z_N > z_N), \quad (B.5)$$

710 where N is the number of locations.

711 For the case of dependent variables, the joint probability for only two locations $P\{Z_1 > z_1, Z_2 > z_2\}$
 712 can be easily obtained from the bivariate CDF for inverted max-stable process in Eq. (B.2). However,
 713 for the case of multiple locations (five different locations for this paper), it is difficult to derive the
 714 formula for this probability because there are dependences between extreme events at all locations. So
 715 this probability is empirically calculated from a large number of simulations of the dependent model
 716 (see the description of the simulation procedure for an inverted max-stable process in Section 4.3).

717 For the case that all of events are independent, the joint probability for independent variables is broken
 718 down as the product of the marginals, and the conditional probability is equivalent to the marginal
 719 probability. When applying Eq. (B.5) for independent variables, the joint probability is therefore
 720 calculated by $P(Z_1 > z_1, \dots, Z_N > z_N) = P(Z_1 > z_1) \dots P(Z_N > z_N)$.

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